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Functional Molecular Silicon Compounds II

Low Oxidation States



156 Structure and Bonding

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The individual volumes in the series are thematic. The goal of each volume is to give the reader, whether at a university or in industry, a comprehensive overview of an area where new insights are emerging that are of interest to a larger scientific audience. Thus each review within the volume critically surveys one aspect of that topic and places it within the context of the volume as a whole. The most significant developments of the last 5 to 10 years should be presented using selected examples to illustrate the principles discussed. A description of the physical basis of the experimental techniques that have been used to provide the primary data may also be appropriate, if it has not been covered in detail elsewhere. The coverage need not be exhaustive in data, but should rather be conceptual, concentrating on the new principles being developed that will allow the reader, who is not a specialist in the area covered, to understand the data presented. Discussion of possible future research directions in the area is welcomed.

Review articles for the individual volumes are invited by the volume editors.

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David Scheschkewitz Editor

Functional Molecular Silicon Compounds II

Low Oxidation States

With contributions by

B. Blom • M. Driess • S. Ishida • T. Iwamoto • C. Präsang • E. Rivard • D. Scheschkewitz • M. Unno



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Preface

Due to its unique properties, elemental silicon is a pivotal material in modern society. Even though a few other semiconductors, e.g., gallium arsenide, rival silicon in some performance indicators such as electron mobility, none of them can equally meet the technological and economic demands of current microprocessor technology: Electronic grade silicon is available at relatively low cost and its native oxide as an insulator is predisposed to effectively separate the conducting zones of microprocessors [1]. In this arguably most important application, silicon is thus present both in the elemental state (oxidation No. 0) and in its most highly oxidized form (oxidation No. +IV). In view of the prominent role of molecular silicon compounds in related industrial processes, this volume of *Structure&Bond-ing* is devoted to *Functional Molecular Silicon Compounds* with silicon in various oxidation states. It is divided into two sub-volumes: the first covers topics associated to silicon compounds in the "regular" oxidation state of +IV, while the second concerns compounds in lower oxidation states.

All industrial chemical processes involved in the production/purification/transformation of silicon in its elemental form have in common that silicon in lower oxidation states is prevalent in short-lived intermediates such as silvlenes and larger unsaturated aggregates [2]. The chapter by Burgert Blom and Matthias Driess (Technical Universität Berlin, Germany) summarizes recent advances in the chemistry of stable silvlenes, molecular compounds in the formal oxidation state +II (Volume 2, chapter titled "Recent Advances in Silylene Chemistry: Small Molecule Activation En-Route Towards Metal-Free Catalysis"). Saturated and unsaturated silicon clusters are several steps further on the way towards elemental silicon. Recent years have seen important progress with regard to the functionalization of stable derivatives of such clusters as well as the realization of surprising new structural motifs. In chapter titled "Substituted Polyhedral Silicon and Germanium Clusters" of Volume 2 Masafumi Unno (Gunma University, Kiryu, Japan) gives an account of the developments in this area. It is probably just a question of time before silicon clusters will be routinely connected to extended systems with exciting new properties as novel materials. Oligosilane chains are predisposed as linking units for such an endeavor. Christoph Marschner (University of Graz, Austria) updates comprehensively on the preparation and functionalization of oligosilane systems in chapter titled "Oligosilanes" of Volume 1.

Initially, the research into molecular silicon compounds was driven by the mostly academic question of how much the chemistry would parallel that of its lighter cousin carbon. Naturally, the stability of unsaturated derivatives was at the center of attention. Frederic Stanley Kipping – generally considered to be one of the most influential pioneers of organosilicon chemistry – eagerly pursued the synthesis of "silico ethylenes" [3] and "silicones" [4] – the heavier analogues of alkenes and ketones, respectively. The first reliable reports on stable compounds with heavier double bonds to silicon, however, only appeared in 1981. Since these milestone achievements on compounds with Si=Si (West et al.) [5] and Si=C bonds (Brook et al.) [6], the chemistry of molecular silicon compounds has matured considerably. Especially during the first decade of the new millennium the focus has shifted from the replication of well-known carbon motifs from organic chemistry to the introduction and tolerance of functional groups. The contribution by Takeaki Iwamoto and Shintaro Ishida (Tohoku University, Sendai, Japan) gives an overview of recent developments regarding Si=Si double bonds (Volume 2, chapter titled "Multiple Bonds with Silicon: Recent Advances in Synthesis, Structure, and Functions of Stable Disilenes").

With the powerful concept of stabilization of reactive main group species by strongly σ -donating *N*-heterocyclic carbenes pioneered inter alia by Greg Robinson [7], some of Kipping's initial targets are now available as derivatives stabilized by coordination of N-heterocyclic carbenes. Eric Rivard (University of Alberta, Edmonton, Canada) summarizes this emerging new field from the point of view of low valent silicon chemistry in chapter titled "Recent Advances in the Heterocyclic Carbene-Supported Chemistry of Silicon" of Volume 2. Interestingly, however, N-heterocyclic carbenes were initially employed by Kuhn et al. for the expansion of the coordination sphere of molecular silicon compounds beyond the usual four substituents [8]. Since it is now well established that this expansion does not entail hypervalency, low valent compounds with higher coordination numbers are one possible approach to increase the functionality of hypercoordinate silicon species. The various aspects of higher coordinate silicon compounds are comprehensively reviewed by Jörg Wagler, Uwe Böhme, and Edwin Kroke (Technical University Bergakademie Freiberg, Germany) in chapter titled "Higher-Coordinated Molecular Silicon" of Volume 1.

Having been unsuccessful in the original tasks, Kipping became disillusioned regarding any commercial value of his discoveries towards the end of his career [9]. As Thomas Edison said, however, "just because something doesn't do what you planned it to do does not mean it's useless" (As quoted in: [10]). Kipping's discoveries indeed laid the foundations for the nowadays ubiquitous application of polysiloxanes (colloquially known as silicones) in daily life. Silsequioxanes – already mentioned by Kipping as formally having the empirical formula of an anhydride $(R_2SiO)_2O[9]$ – are increasingly being used as precursors for sophisticated hybrid materials involving polysiloxanes. In his chapter, Guido Kickelbick (Saarland University, Saarbrücken,

Germany) gives an overview of the fundamental sciences and high-end applications of silsequioxanes (Volume 1, chapter titled "Silsesquioxanes").

Finally, two chapters are devoted to the most extreme of functionalization: ionization. The generation of silyl cations and anions provides valuable synthons, e.g., for the further extension of the silicon scaffold. In chapter titled "Silylium Ions" of Volume 1, Thomas Müller (University of Oldenburg, Germany) summarizes the many applications of silylium cations in catalysis and discusses recent trends towards low valent silicon cation chemistry thus completing the full circle to other chapters that are more explicitly devoted to low valent silicon species. Finally, the chemistry of silyl anions is summarized in chapter titled"Silyl Anions" of Volume 2.

Initially, only one volume was envisaged for the topic of functional molecular silicon chemistry, but it rapidly became clear that with the dedicated hard work and enthusiasm of all authors two volumes would be needed to accommodate the vast progress in that area during the last 10 years: the field keeps growing in an exponential manner. The ready availability of this exiting element at very low cost paired with the inquisitiveness and passion of organosilicon chemists will ensure that this trend continues for a long time to come.

Saarbrücken, Germany September 2013 David Scheschkewitz

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Silyl Anions

Carsten Präsang and David Scheschkewitz

Abstract The last 10 years have witnessed tremendous advances in the field of silyl anion research. New methods for the synthesis of alkali metal silanides have been added to the toolboxes of organic, inorganic, and materials chemistry and further established their important role as protecting groups, building blocks, and useful reagents. The sheer number of recent publications in high-ranking journals alone demonstrates a pronounced interest in these species by the scientific community. Particularly, the isolation and complete characterization of highly reactive silyl anions and dianions, previously considered merely as fleeting intermediates, have been the starting point for a rich and exciting chemistry with the prospect of many more outstanding contributions from synthetic, theoretical, and materials chemistry.

Keywords Cluster compounds · Silicon · Silyl anions · Silylenoids

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Abbreviations

[2.2.2]cryptand	4,7,13,16,21,24-Hexaoxa-1,10-diazabicyclo[8.8.8]hexacosan
Ar	Aryl
Bn	Benzyl
Bu	Butyl
Ср	Cyclopentadienyl
Cp*	Pentamethylcyclopentadienyl
DME	1,2-Dimethoxyethane
ee	Enantiomeric excess
Et	Ethyl
HMPA	Hexamethylphosphoric triamide
i-Pr	Isopropyl
LDA	Lithium diisopropylamide
LTMP	Lithium 2,2,6,6-tetramethylpiperidide
Me	Methyl
Mes	Mesityl, 2,4,6-trimethylphenyl
Np	1-Naphthyl
Ph	Phenyl
PMDTA	N, N, N', N', N''-pentamethyldiethylenetriamine
Pr	Propyl
rt	Room temperature
SET	Single electron transfer
Tbt	1,3,5-Tris(bis(trimethylsilyl)methyl)phenyl
t-Bu	Tert-butyl
THF	Tetrahydrofuran
Tip	2,4,6-Tri(isopropyl)phenyl
TMEDA	N, N, N', N'-tetramethyl-1,2-ethylenediamine
TMP	2,2,6,6-Tetramethylpiperidyl
Tol	4-Methylphenyl

1 Introduction

Silyl anions, also referred to as silanides, are anionic silicon species with a lone pair of electrons at the silicon center. The negative charge is compensated by a counter cation. As in the case of well-known carbanions this cation might (1) be directly coordinated to the anionic center (I) or (2) be separated from the latter by coordinating solvent molecules (II) or suitable intramolecular donor sites (III) (Fig. 1). Donor-stabilized silicon(II) species (IV) are not included in this chapter because the ylidic charges at the silicon center and the donor group are only formal. Important recent contributions to this field are summarized in Chaps. 5 and 10 of this volume.



Fig. 1 Silyl anions I-III and a donor-stabilized silicon(II) compounds IV

Table 1 Frequently used functional groups for the synthesis of silyl anions and the prevalent methods of transformation, $E^{IV} = Si$, Ge, Sn



The first organosilicon compound was prepared as early as 1863 by Friedel and Crafts via salt metathesis reaction of silicon tetrachloride and carbon nucleophiles, the very type of reaction still utilized today most frequently for silicon–carbon bond formation at the laboratory scale [1]. In contrast, it took until the 1930s for the first reports on successful generation and derivatization of silyl anions to appear [2, 3]. At that time, the overall progress in organosilicon chemistry was far from encouraging, prompting a rather pessimistic outlook on its prospects by Kipping as one of the pioneers of the field in his famous Bakerian lecture [4]. Against the backdrop of the seminal discoveries of Müller and Rochow regarding the Direct Process [1] for the industrial production of methyl chlorosilanes, the work by Gilman and others [5, 6] served to spark new interest in silyl anions as well. It became more and more obvious that anionic silicon reagents are excellent building blocks for the synthesis of novel organosilanes, thus providing valuable precursors for, e.g., organic, inorganic, and materials chemistry.

The majority of silyl anions studied to date exhibit a trigonal pyramidal geometry at the anionic silicon center with a high degree of pyramidalization due to the increased s-character of the Si lone pair compared to carbanions. Silyl anions with an almost trigonal planar geometry can be obtained primarily by employing very bulky, electropositive substituents. The bonding between the metal cation and the silyl anion will be depicted as formalized Lewis structures throughout most of this chapter for the sake of clarity, even though the interactions can vary from somewhat covalent to purely ionic in nature. The coordination numbers of anionic silicon centers in solution are quite often unknown and depend inter alia on the nature of the solvent and the respective metal cation. Illustrative examples will be presented throughout this review.

Silyl anion research focused on the generation and simple transformations of these species for many decades. A considerable and still increasing number of methods has been developed for the transformation of various functional groups into silicon centered anions (Table 1).

Commercially available organosilicon compounds V quite often exhibit more than one substituent X that can readily be converted to a silicon-metal bond (Table 1; X = halide, hydride, phenyl, etc.). The functional group tolerance of reaction conditions has therefore to be taken into account to avoid undesired side reactions. While the range of employed solvents includes simple hydrocarbons such as heptane as well as highly polar systems such as HMPA, the majority of silyl anions have been prepared in THF and DME solution. Several reviews covering the chemistry of silyl anions as a whole or certain of its aspects have been published in recent years [7–15]. As a consequence, in this chapter we will mainly focus on contributions from the last decade, but will include older publications where appropriate.

2 Acyclic and Cyclic Silyl Anions

2.1 Monosilanyl to Oligosilanyl Anions

Reliable, straightforward, and high yielding synthetic steps are crucial for the successful implementation of complex and economic syntheses. Although the generation of silyl anions by cleavage of Si–Si bonds in disilanes and oligosilanes with alkali metal alkoxides has in principle been known for a long time [16, 17], it has recently developed into a versatile tool for the generation of silyl anions. Silyl ethers are systematically produced as byproducts in these reactions, which are usually to unreactive to interfere with subsequent transformations and – in addition – are readily removed if required. In particular, for silyl potassium compounds this route is one of the methods of choice and is routinely applied for the synthesis of branched and cyclic oligosilanes.

Oligosilanes are attractive synthetic targets for materials chemistry in view of their σ -bond delocalization. α, ω -(Hypersilyl)silanes (hypersilyl = tris (trimethylsilyl)silyl) turned out to be ideal starting materials for the synthesis of monocyclic and bicyclic silanes as well as for α, ω -(cyclosilyl)silanes. The former were transformed into dipotassium α, ω -silandiides **1** in THF, DME, or toluene/18-crown-6 solution with potassium *tert*-butoxide and subsequently cyclized with dichlorosilanes (Scheme 1) or by oxidation with 1,2-dibromoethane [18–20].

Cyclosilanes **2a–f** exhibit two endocyclic $Si(SiMe_3)_2$ moieties that are suitable for the generation of cyclic dianions **3** under conditions similar to the synthesis of dianions **1**. Successive reactions of dianions **3** gave access to various bicyclosilanes and other derivatives. The 1,1'-ferrocenylene unit [21] and SiH₂/SiBr₂ moieties [22] have also been incorporated into oligosilanes.

Silicon hydrides are of special interest for the deposition of elemental silicon films. As Stueger et al. reported, the cleavage of SiH_3 groups by alkoxides can equally well be utilized for the synthesis of perhydrogenated oligosilyl anions [23].



Scheme 1 Synthesis of cyclosilanes 2a-f from α,ω -dipotassium silanides 1 and α,ω -dichlorosilanes, $\Sigma = \text{ring size of cyclosilanes } 2a-f$



Scheme 2 Cleavage of neopentasilane with alkali metal *tert*-butoxides and synthesis of phenylsilane 6 from silanide 5



Scheme 3 Reaction of dihydrosilanes 7 with *tert*-butyllithium and LDA to yield silyl anions 8^* and substitution products 9, "*" analyzed as R₂SiHMe after quenching with MeI

Neopentasilane, **4**, reacted cleanly in coordinating solvents with alkali metal *tert*-butoxides (M = Li, Na, K) and with LDA under cleavage of one Si–Si bond to give the corresponding silyl anion salts **5**. Reaction of **5** with chlorosilanes yielded new pentasilanes, e.g., phenylpentasilane **6** from silyl anion **5-Li** and chlorophenylsilane (Scheme 2). More details on the topic of oligosilanes can be found in Chap. 8 of this volume.

Deprotonation of silanes is not very common and was generally limited to cases where the polarity of the Si–H bond had been reversed by electronegative substituents on silicon. As had been observed before in the case of potassium hydride [24], *tert*-butyllithium and LDA react with dihydrosilanes by nucleophilic substitution at the silicon center [25, 26]. However, proton abstraction is a competing reaction and the preference of a given dihydrosilane depends mostly on its substitution pattern.

The sterically most hindered dihydrosilane ($R = {}^{t}Pr_{3}Si$) did not react with *tert*butyllithium or LDA at $-40^{\circ}C$ in THF solution (Scheme 3). The least hindered



R¹ = R₃Si, R² = R₃Si, Ph, alkenyl, R³ = R₃Si, Ph, R⁴X = Me₃SiCl, Mel, iPr₃SiCl

Scheme 4 Deprotonation of alkynylsilanes 10 and synthesis of alkynylsilanes 12, canonical forms of alkynylsilanides 11



Scheme 5 Preparation of silyl anions 14, 15 by reaction of borylsilanes 13 with C-, N-, O-centered nucleophiles, base = ^{*n*}BuLi, LDA, LTMP, NaOMe, KO'Bu

silane, Ph_2SiH_2 , gave clean substitution in both bases. Concurrent deprotonation/ substitution was observed in one case (R ' = 'BuMe_2Si/Tol) for *tert*-butyllithium while the same silane gave clean substitution with LDA.

Deprotonation of five different silyl(ethynyl)silanes **10** with *tert*-butyllithium in THF at low temperature yielded the corresponding silyl anions **11** [27]. Derivatization of the latter with electrophiles of variable steric bulk (Scheme 4) gave ethynylsilanes **12** as sole isolated products, i.e., no significant silaallenyl-like reactivity is observed under the chosen conditions. Computations on model compounds and a single crystal X-ray diffraction study of one of the ethynylsilyl anions are consistent with the observed reactivity: (1) the anionic silicon centers show little π -conjugation with the alkynyl moiety and are pyramidalized, and (2) the C–C and Si–C(alkyne) bond lengths are in the typical range for triple and single bonds, respectively.

New possibilities for the generation of sterically crowded silyl anions 14 were discovered by Tokitoh et al. during attempts toward α -boryl substituted silyl anions [28]. The reaction of borylsilanes 13 with various bases afforded the corresponding silyl anions 14 by scission of B–Si bonds (Scheme 5). On that basis, *gem*-diboryl silane 13a was expected to retain one of the boryl groups in the reaction with bases and indeed treatment of 13a with MeLi or *n*BuLi afforded the desired borylsilyl anion 15, which was characterized by various trapping reactions with electrophiles, e.g., Me₃SiCl and MeI, to yield the corresponding substitution product.



Scheme 6 Selective cleavage of a Si–C(phenyl) bond in diphenylsilane 16 and synthesis of disilanes 18. (a) Li, THF, -50° C; (b) +RCl, –LiCl

Silyl anions **14** and **15** were neither isolated nor analyzed by spectroscopic methods, but reacted with dimethyl sulfate, trimethylsilyl chloride, or sources of H^+/D^+ and characterized as the corresponding trapping products instead. Computations on simplified model compounds (methyl instead of aryl substituents at silicon) predict two resonance structures **15** (Scheme 5): a boratasilene with a short B–Si bond and a somewhat planar Si center and a borylsilyl anion (boron-stabilized silyl anion) with a longer Si–B bond and a more pyramidalized Si center. π -Donating substituents on boron favor a borylsilyl anion structure that exhibits a smaller rotational barrier around the Si–B bond and high-field ¹¹B and ²⁹Si NMR chemical shifts. The computations agree well with experimental data of the first structurally characterized boratasilene reported earlier by Sekiguchi et al. [29]. The same group also reported the generation of a silyl anion by 1,2-addition of methyllithium to a disilene [30].

The reductive cleavage of Si–Si bonds with alkali metals in polar solvents such as THF requires at least one phenyl substituent on silicon. Therefore, trialkylsilyl anions cannot be prepared from the corresponding trialkyl(halo)silanes directly, because the intermediate hexaalkyldisilanes are inert toward further reduction under these conditions. A known side reaction during the treatment of phenylsilanes with lithium metal in polar solvents is the reductive cleavage of phenyl–silicon bonds [31]. Strohman et al. were able to show that this reaction can be utilized for the conversion of diphenylsilane **16** to silyl anion **17** and eventually the syntheses of disilanes **18** in high yield (Scheme 6) [32]. They extended this method to the generation of enantiomerically enriched silanes via chiral lithiosilanes [33] (see also Sect. 2.2).

In a subsequent paper, Strohmann et al. showed that reductive cleavage of Si–Si and Si–C(phenyl) bonds can be competing in phenyl substituted disilanes. Reaction of disilanes **19** with lithium metal in THF followed by silylation with chlorotrimethylsilane yielded a mixture of tetrasilane **22** and disilane **23** (Scheme 7) [34].

A kinetic study revealed that the formation of silyl anion **20** is favored over silyl anion **21** at lower temperatures and the product ratio of silanes **22:23** changed from 60:40 at 45° C to 85:15 at -78° C. Quantum chemical calculations for several of the disilanes and trisilanes under investigation show that their LUMO and the SOMO of the corresponding radical anions are mostly located within the aromatic phenyl substituent. A SET to the phenyl group, which is believed to be the initial step of the bond cleavage, weakens the Si–Si and Si–C(phenyl) bonds.



Scheme 7 Competing cleavage of Si–Si and Si–C(phenyl) bonds in trisilane 19 and synthesis of disilane 23 and tetrasilane 22 via silyl anions 20, 21



Scheme 8 Lithium silanides 24a-c with bent phenyl substituents and model compound 25



Scheme 9 Main group compounds 26-29 (groups 13-15) synthesized with the aid of silyl anions

An unexpected bending of one phenyl substituent was observed in the X-ray crystal structures of three lithium (phenyl)silanides **24a–c** [35]. Silanides **24a–c** were designed by Strohmann et al. to exhibit monomeric structures in the solid state by aid of the tridentate ligand N,N,N',N',N''-pentamethyldiethylenetriamine (PMDTA) (Scheme 8).

The torsion angles Si– C_i – C_o – C_m or dihedral angles α , respectively, with values of 170–176° are significantly smaller than the expected 180°. The same phenomenon had been observed for other phenyl substituted heavier group 14 anions and even isoelectronic group 15 compounds. An explanation for such angular deviations was found by quantum chemical calculations of bis(amino)silyl anion **25** and two additional model compounds. Pauli repulsion between the HOMO (silicon lone pair) and the HOMO-1/HOMO-3 (HOMO of the phenyl moieties) is minimized by bending of the phenyl substituent.

Silyl anions have been employed for the syntheses of many hitherto unknown main group compounds and transition metal complexes in recent years (Scheme 9). A complete review of this topic is beyond the scope of this chapter and only a



Scheme 10 Monomeric silylzinc chloride 30 TMEDA and silylzincates 31-33

selected number of examples is shown in the following. The first silylborane R_3Si-BH_2 **26** without coordination of an external Lewis base to the boron center was reported in 2010 by Marschner et al. [36]. Compound **26** is accessible from potassium hypersilanide and borane triethylamine complex and exhibits a dimeric diborane(6) structure in the solid state with two bridging hydrogen atoms. A one-pot procedure for the synthesis of Wiberg's tetrasilatetrahedrane **27** [37] from trichlorosilane and sodium supersilanide [NaSi(Si'Bu₃)₃] was published in 2009 [38]. The activation of white phosphorous with silyl anions has been studied extensively during the last 10 years [39]. Among others, tetraphosphane trianion **28** was isolated from the reaction of P₄ and lithium supersilanide [40] and converted to previously reported triphosphene monoanion **29** [41] and an elaborate chemistry was developed around these compounds [42–44].

The syntheses, reactivities, and structures of alkali metal [45–47] and alkaline earth metal silanides [48–51, 52N] have been topic of several important studies in the last decade. Silylzinc compounds are known since the 1960s [53] and today they are very important silyl transfer agents with many applications in synthesis and catalysis. Investigations into their structures, however, are scarce. Symmetrical bis (silyl)zinc compounds with very bulky substituents exhibit a linear or almost linear arrangement of the central Si₂Zn unit and can be prepared by reaction of zinc halides with alkali metal silanides [54–57] or from hydrosilanes and dialkylzinc compounds [58]. Moreover, structures of one tetrameric silylzinc bromide with a [Zn₄Br₄]-heterocubane core [55] and two dimeric silylzinc chlorides with additional coordinating THF molecules were reported [59]. Utilization of the bidentate ligand TMEDA allowed for the structural characterization of the monomeric (hypersilyl)zinc chloride complex **30**(TMEDA) with a tetrahedrally coordinated zinc center (Scheme 10) [57].

Bis(silyl)zinc centers tend to increase their coordination number by complex formation with halides, solvent molecules [21], or additional equivalents of silanides to form zincates if the steric demand of the substituents is not too high

or the Si–Zn–Si moiety is forced to an unusual small angle due to ring strain. The exclusive formation of tris(silyl)zincate $31 \cdot [K^+(18 \cdot crown-6)]$ was observed in the reaction between zinc chloride and the corresponding potassium silanide. The chloro zincate $32 \cdot [K^+(18 \cdot crown-6)]$ can be regarded as a KCl complex of a cyclic bis(silyl)zinc compound [57]. Similar observations had been reported some years earlier with the preferential synthesis of bis(zincate) $33 \cdot [K^+(18 \cdot crown-6)]_2$ from an ethylene-bridged potassium bis(silanide) and zinc chloride [60]. Zincates 32 and 33 exhibit approximately trigonal planar coordination spheres at the zinc center in the solid state.

2.2 Chiral Silyl Anions

Optically active silyl anions are potentially useful reagents for organic synthesis and materials chemistry. Due to the significant higher inversion barrier of silyl anions in solution in comparison to carbanions, configurational stability might be expected even at ambient temperature. Research in this area started in the 1960s and 1970s [61, 62]. In principle, all synthetic methods suitable for the generation of achiral silyl anions are also applicable to the preparation of chiral silanides even though inversion of configuration or even racemization occasionally occurs.

Kawakami et al. investigated several promising reactions starting from enantiomerically enriched (R),(S)-chlorosilanes **34a**,**b** [63]. The direct conversion by reaction with lithium metal in THF turned out to be unsuitable and led either to a mixture of products ((R)-**34a**) or racemization ((S)-**34b**) (Scheme 11).

Experiments employing less vigorous conditions for the generation of chiral silyl anions, however, were more successful. The cleavage of Si–Si bonds with lithium metal and Si–Sn bonds with methyllithium yielded optical active products after hydrolysis with only little to moderate racemization. Stannylsilane (*R*)-**35** (ee = 90%) was converted at low temperature to silane (*S*)-**36** (ee = 88%) via the corresponding silyl anion with almost no loss of chiral information. Racemization of chiral silyl anions increases with temperature and already takes place at -78° C. The same starting material and experimental conditions were used for the synthesis of disilanes and tetrasilanes with two chiral centers. Cleavage of stannylsilane (*R*)-**35** with methyllithium and subsequent reaction with chlorosilane (*S*)-**37** yielded disilane (*R*,*R*)-**38** with an overall ee of 40% [64]. An inversion of configuration of the chiral chlorosilane (*S*)-**37** during coupling with the chiral silyl anion was assumed.

As reported by Strohmann et al. disilane (R)-**39** was transformed into the corresponding chiral silyl anion **40** with lithium metal in THF at -70° C. However, no assumption concerning the absolute configuration of anion **40** was made. Reaction with chlorotrimethylsilane to yield disilane (R/S)-**41** under variable conditions revealed that a very high ee of 98% can be obtained if solutions of anion **40** are prepared immediately before use. Furthermore, racemization of lithium silanide **40** is suppressed almost completely even at ambient temperature



Scheme 11 Chiral chlorosilanes 34a,b and conversion of stannylsilane (*R*)-35 to enantiomerically enriched silane (*S*)-36 and disilane (*R*,*R*)-38, 34a: R = 1-naphthyl, 34b: $R = {}^{n}Bu$. (*a*) +eLi, hydrolysis; (*b*) +MeLi



Scheme 12 Synthesis of disilane (*R*)-41 from disilane (*R*)-39 via lithium silanide 40. (*a*) Li, THF, -78° C; (*b*) +Me₃SiCl



Scheme 13 Conversion of enantiomerically enriched chlorosilanes 43a,b to silanes 44a,b by reduction with lithium metal and subsequent protonation

by transmetallation with magnesium bromide (Scheme 12) [33, 65, 66]. The generation of silyl anions by reductive cleavage of Si–Ph bonds in enantiomerically enriched phenyl substituted disilanes can also yield products with high ee values [32, 33].

In further studies, the Strohmann group found that excellent ee values are obtained by partially substituting silicon with germanium. The Si–Ge bond of trimethylgermylsilane (R)-42 (ee = 96%) is cleaved in a similar way to eventually yield an enantiomerically enriched trisilane (ee = 96%) after trapping of the intermediate lithosilane with a chlorodisilane [67].

The stereoselective conversion of chiral chlorosilanes to chiral lithio silanides has the distinct advantage that no reactive organometallic byproducts in stoichiometric amounts are formed. A detailed study by Oestreich et al. concerning the generation and racemization of silyl anions prepared via this route allows for some fundamental insights [68]. Enantiometrically enriched cyclic chlorosilanes (S)-43a (ee = 92%) and (R)-43b (ee = 98%) react with lithium at low temperatures to yield silanes (S)-44a (inversion, ee = 10%) and (S)-44b (retention, ee = 42%), respectively, after protonation of the initially formed silyl anions with sulfuric acid (Scheme 13).



Scheme 14 Disilane intermediate 45 with undefined stereochemistry and reaction of chlorosilane (S)-43 with lithium dimethyl(phenyl)silane to yield disilane (R)-46 with inversion of configuration



Scheme 15 Synthesis of enantiomerically enriched silanes 50a-c from silyl anions (*R*),(*S*)-40 and carbon electrophiles 47-49

Two important reasons for the almost complete to moderate racemization of compounds **44a,b** were identified by Oestreich and co-workers. The presence of lithium chloride that arises from the reaction in stoichiometric amounts causes a considerable loss of chiral information even at -78° C (**43a**) or -20° C (**43b**), respectively. The increased steric hindrance around the silicon center of chlorosilane (*R*)-**43b** reduces racemization, which is believed to proceed via a chloride-induced pseudorotation involving a pentacoordinate silicon center. The absolute configurations of silanes (*R*)-**43b** and (*S*)-**44b** were confirmed by single crystal X-ray diffraction analyses.

The non-stereospecific formation of disilanes **45** as intermediates in the synthesis of silane (S)-**44a** also causes a decrease of the enantiomeric excess for silane **44a**. Notably, no such disilane intermediate was observed during the reduction of chlorosilane (R)-**43b**.

The nucleophilic substitution of chlorosilane (*S*)-**43a** (ee = 92%) with dimethyl (phenyl)silyl lithium to yield disilane (*R*)-**46** (ee = 84%) proceeds under inversion of the chiral silicon center (Scheme 14) [68].

Substitution reactions of enantiomerically enriched lithium silanide (R),(S)-40 (Scheme 12) and sp³ hybridized halocarbon nucleophiles 47–49 can involve either an inversion or retention at silicon (Scheme 15) [69, 70]. According to Strohmann et al. the preferred pathway depends on the nature of the halogen substituent. Chloro compounds 47a–49a yielded product mixtures with excesses of the corresponding enantiomers 50a under retention of configuration at the silicon centers. In contrast, bromo electrophiles 47b–49b and iodo electrophiles 48c,49c gave excesses of the enantiomers 50b and 50c, respectively, with inverted silicon centers (Scheme 15).



Scheme 16 Formation of chiral silanes (R), (S)-50a from lithium silanide (R)-40 and benzylhalides via transition states 51, 53 and bromosilane (S)-52

In most cases chloro electrophiles 47a-49a gave higher selectivities than bromo and iodo electrophiles 47b,c-49b,c. Reaction of silyl anion (*R*)-40 with benzylchloride (product: (*S*)-50a, ee = 88%) and benzylbromide (product: (*R*)-50a, ee = 90%) as well as reaction of silyl anion (*S*)-40 with (chloromethyl) trimethylsilane, 48a, (product: (*R*)-50b, ee = 100%) gave the overall best results. Supported by computations, mechanisms for the observed stereoselectivities were suggested.

As demonstrated for the reaction of lithium silanide (R)-40 with benzylchloride and benzylbromide (Scheme 16), two different transition states, **51/53**, are involved. The coupling of silyl anion (R)-40 with benzylchloride proceeds via transition state **51** and formal inversion of the benzyl methylene moiety. Therefore, the product, silane (S)-**50a**, has the same configuration as silyl anion (R)-40. The first step of the reaction between silanide (R)-40 and benzylbromide is a metalhalogen exchange to yield bromosilane (S)-**52** and benzyllithium. The latter attacks bromosilane (S)-**52** from the backside and yields silane (R)-**50a** with inversion of configuration at the silicon center via transition state **53**.

Main byproducts of the above reactions are disilanes (R),(S)-**39** (Scheme 12), originating from the coupling of halosilanes of type **52** and lithium methyl (diphenyl)silanide, which is generated in equimolar amounts during synthesis of (R),(S)-**40**.

Utilization of bidentate ligand (–)-sparteine for the induction of chirality into nonchiral lithium alkyls is an established method. Four different complexes of (–)-sparteine with silyl anions (**54**, **55a–c**·THF) have been isolated and characterized by single crystal X-ray diffraction in the Strohmann group (Scheme 17) [71, 72].

Complexes **55a–c**·THF exhibit an additional chiral center due to the coordination of one molecule of THF to the lithium center in the solid state. In each case, only one diastereomer was detected in solution by NMR spectroscopy even though DFT calculations predict only small energy differences between the isomers. Detailed ²⁹Si NMR studies suggest that the Si–Li bonds of all complexes persist in solution on the NMR time-scale.



Scheme 17 Chiral (-)-sparteine complex 54 and diastereomeric complexes 55a-c·THF

2.3 Zwitterionic Silyl Anions

Silyl anions described in Sects. 2.1 and 2.2 exhibit either short silicon-metal contacts (contact ion pairs) or they are solvent separated ion pairs. Alternatively, the coordination of the metal cation of silanides with internal donor groups offers certain advantages: (1) the silicon lone pair is uncoordinated and therefore directly available for complexation of, e.g., transition metal centers or other substrates and (2) the solubility in nonpolar solvents is higher in comparison to solvent separated ion pairs.

The first such compound was obtained by Lappert et al. through reaction of hypersilyl lithium, **56**, with 2,6-dimethylbenzonitrile (Scheme 18) [73]. Formal dual insertion of nitrile functionalities into Si–Si bonds via 1,2-addition of lithium silanide **56** to a C–N triple bond and subsequent 1,3-silyl shift yields zwitterionic compounds **57**. Amount and type of additional donor molecules D depend on reaction conditions and workup.

A single crystal X-ray diffraction study revealed that silyl anion **57** ($D_n = (ArCN)_2$) is strongly pyramidalized at the silicon center and exhibits C–N double and Si–C single bonds. In contrast, the widely used β -diketiminato ligands **59** feature a planar C₃N₂ central core with a delocalized π -system. Other alkali metal silanides obtained in the Lappert group through transmetallation of zwitteranion **57** (($D)_n = 2$ THF) with alkali metal *tert*-butoxides (M = Na, K, Rb), however, exhibit dimeric structures with short intermolecular Si–M distances in the solid state [74]. Further examples of β -diketiminato-like "naked" silyl anions were prepared from bromosilanes **58** (R = Br) and magnesium [75]. Reactions of anion **57** (($D)_n = 2$ THF) with electrophiles gave the corresponding bis(imines) **58** with tetracoordinate silicon atoms [74]. A comparable reactivity was observed for β -diketiminates **59** on several occasions.

Furthermore, lithium silanide **57** $((D)_n = (\text{THF})_2)$ was employed as starting material for the syntheses of some silvl coinage metal complexes **60**, **61a–c** (Scheme 19) [76].

Complexes **61a–c** can be considered as being composed of the corresponding coinage metal silyl complex incorporating one equivalent of lithium iodide. Further stabilization is achieved by either coordination of anion **57** (**61a,b**) or triphenyl-phosphine (**61c**).



Scheme 18 Synthesis of zwitterions 57 by reaction of lithium hypersilanide, 56, with ArCN (Ar = 2,6-Me₂C₆H₃) and conversion to silanes 58 (R = H, Cl, Br, SiMe₃, SnMe₃), β -diketiminato framework 59



Scheme 19 Synthesis of coinage metal complexes 60, 61a-c from zwitterion 57



Scheme 20 Zwitterionic silyl anions 62a-c and 63a-d, for $62b(THF)_2$, 63a-d: Si = Me₂Si (except bridgehead Si), O = OMe

In 2008, Krempner et al. reported zwitterionic systems with multiple ether donor groups. The initial approach employed anions of tris(methoxysilyl) ethers **62a–c** [77]. NMR studies suggest that compounds **62a–c** are monomeric in $[D_8]$ THF solution and that the alkali metal cations are coordinated by the methoxy groups thus forming a bicyclo[2, 2, 2]octane-like core with a "naked" anionic silicon center (Scheme 20). In the solid state, however, zwitterion **62a** forms infinite one-dimensional chains through intermolecular Si–Li coordination. Sodium silanide **62b**(THF)₂ features a zigzag arrangement of monoanionic spirocyclic bicyclooctane units ($[L_2Na]^-$) in the X-ray crystal structure. Na⁺(THF)₂ moieties serve as linking units for the spirocyclic cores.

The capability of two separate tris(methoxysilyl) ethers to coordinate a single metal cation was utilized for the synthesis of the first zwitterionic silanides with two "naked" anionic silicon centers **63a–d** (Scheme 20). DFT calculations on model



Scheme 21 Zwitterionic silyl anions **64a–f** (M = Li, Na, K, n = 1, 2) and formation of Lewis acid complex **66**·[MeB(C₆F₅)₃]⁻ from bis(silyl)zinc **65**. (*a*) + Me₂Zn, + 2 B(C₆F₅)₃



Scheme 22 Synthesis of zwitterionic silyl anion 68 THF from tetrapyrazolylsilane 67 and lithium, tetrapyrazolylsilyl anion 69

compounds revealed that the HOMO is located at the negatively charged Si atom in each case. Furthermore, the positive charge at the metal centers decreases from Mg to Ba while the calculated positive charges of the corresponding $M(H_2O)_6$ complexes increase from Mg to Ba [78].

In subsequent investigations, Krempner et al. found that self-aggregation of related alkali metal silanides is prevented by use of suitable tris(silyl) ethers with three additional donor functionalities [79]. The metal cations of silyl anions **64a–f** are coordinatively saturated (Scheme 21) and the zwitterions are monomeric in the solid state as has been evidenced by single crystal X-ray diffraction for four of the six new compounds. Some of the zwitterionic silanides were investigated with regard to their coordination behavior toward Lewis acids [79, 80].

Selected zwitterions **64** form stable complexes with $B(C_6F_5)_3$, $AlMe_3$, $W(CO)_5$, and $ZnMe_2$. The synthesis of zinc bis(silanide) **65** involves transmetallation of the corresponding potassium zwitterion with zinc chloride. Subsequent treatment with dimethylzinc and $B(C_6F_5)_3$ yielded the cationic Lewis acid complex **66**·[MeB(C_6F_5)_3]⁻.

A third example of zwitterionic silanides is closely related to previously known zwitterionic complexes with "naked," sp³-hybridized carbon centers [81–83]. As Breher et al. demonstrated, three pyrazolyl groups efficiently establish remote coordination of the Li⁺ counter cation in silanides as well as in the corresponding carbon compounds. Tetrapyrazolylsilane **67** was converted to silanide **68** with lithium powder in DME at low temperature (Scheme 22). The primary product seems to be polymeric, presumably composed of indefinite chains with close Si–Li contacts similar to zwitterion **62a** [84]. Addition of THF allows for the isolation of THF-coordinated silyl anion **68**. THF that according to NMR spectroscopy and single crystal X-ray diffraction features a "naked" anionic silicon center both in

solution and the solid state. Reactions of silyl anion **68** THF with silicon and tin electrophiles gave the expected coupling products with Si–Si and Si–Sn bonds.

In the case of homo-extended tris(pyrazolyl) anions, Krempner et al. obtained no clear indication concerning the coordination number of the anionic silicon center in silanide **69** [85].

2.4 *a*-Functionalized Silyl Anions: Silylenoids

As outlined in the previous sections, a wide variety of substituents at silicon is utilized for the generation of silyl anions. Additional functionalities at the same silicon atom (α -functionalities) that are more or less compatible with its anionic nature can either be activated at a later preparative stage or even be employed for reactions of silyl anions themselves [86]. For instance, aminosilanes can be transformed to the corresponding halosilanes quite easily and therefore aminosilyl anions are potentially versatile building blocks for organosilicon chemistry.

In a study by Marschner et al. diethylaminosilanes **70a,b** were converted to aminosilanides **71a,b** with potassium *tert*-butoxide at ambient temperature in good yield (Scheme 23) [87]. The N–Si bond of silyl anion **71a** remained intact after oxidation with 1,2-dibromoethane, silylation and diverse transmetallations.

Popowski et al. observed that upon warming of aminosilyl anions **73** in THF solution to ambient temperature a 1,2-silyl migration occurs to give silylamides **74** [88]. In one case ($R^1 = H$, $R^2 = Ph$) self-condensation of silanide **73** to an (aminosilyl)silyl anion supposedly by elimination of lithium hexamethyldisilazane was found. Neither compounds **73**, **74** nor the condensation products were isolated, but quenched with chlorodimethylsilane instead and analyzed as the corresponding disilanes and trisilanes, respectively.

It had been shown previously that complexation of the metal cation in α -(alkoxy) silyl anions reduces their silylenoid character and therefore their tendency for self-condensation [86]. Thus, two products were isolated from the reaction of silylether **76** with potassium *tert*-butoxide. Methoxysilyl anion **75** was the main product in toluene solution in the presence of excess 18-crown-6 [89]. In contrast, in THF solution self-condensation by elimination of potassium methoxide let to the isolation of silanide **77** (Scheme 24).

Two comprehensive studies of α -(silyloxy)silyl anions show that selfcondensation is only one out of several possible reaction pathways for the decomposition of such silyl anions. Reduction of chlorosilane precursors **79** (Scheme 25) with lithium powder was performed either in THF at -78° C or in Trapp mixture at -110° C. Products and intermediates were generally quenched with chlorodimethylsilane or chlorotrimethylsilane, analyzed by GC, GC–MS, NMR spectroscopy and in some cases isolated by distillation [90, 91].

Generation of silanides **81** proceeds via initial dimerization of chlorosilanes **79** to yield disilanes **80**. In the case of dimesitylsilane **78**, the corresponding anion is formed directly probably due to steric reasons. Depending on the overall reaction



Scheme 23 Synthesis of α -aminosilyl anions 71a,b, 73 from disilanes 70a,b, chlorosilanes 72 and silyl migration of anions 73 to yield bis(silyl)amides 74. (*a*) +KO'Bu, -Me₃SiO'Bu; (*b*) +2 Li, -LiCl; (*c*) warming to rt



Scheme 24 Solvent dependent formation of trisilane anion 75 and tetrasilane anion 77 from methoxysilane 76





Scheme 25 Dimesitylchlorosilane 78, synthesis of siloxysilyl anions 81 from chlorosilanes 79 via disilanes 80, additional products 82–86 observed during syntheses of silyl anions 81

times (0.5–6 h), substrates and temperatures, different product distributions were observed. In addition to silyl anions **81**, the following compounds were identified: silyl anions **82**, dianions **83**, bis(silyloxy)silanes **84**, disilanes **85**, and disilanyl anions **86**. Sterically more demanding substituents give rise to slower conversion of disilane **80** and disfavor formation of disilanide **86** by self-condensation. Structures and reactivities of lithium α -(*tert*-butoxy)silanides were also studied theoretically [92, 93].

The stable β -fluorosilyl anion **89** is accessible from fluorosilane **87** and potassium *tert*-butoxide (Scheme 26) presumably via intermediate silylenoid **88** [94, 95].

The X-ray single crystal structure analysis of anion **89** (D = 18-crown-6) revealed surprisingly short Si–Si and Si–F distances while the K⁺(18-crown-6)



Scheme 26 Reaction of fluorosilane 87 with KO'Bu to yield potassium tetrasilanide 89 via silylenoid 88 and formation of disilene 90. (a) -KF, -nD



Scheme 27 Synthesis of stable silylenoids 93a-c from trihalosilanes 92a,b, bromosilylene 91



Scheme 28 Structures of calculated minima for silylenoid 93c

moiety is far remote. Attempted transmetallations with, e.g., LiCl or $MgBr_2$ caused the otherwise slow formation of unstable disilene **90**, that was trapped with naph-thalene and 2,3-dimethyl-1,3-butadiene.

Silylenoids with halogen leaving groups have been the focus of many experimental and theoretical studies. The first example of this class of compounds that was stable at ambient temperature had initially been assigned the structure of bromosilylene **91** by Lee et al. (Scheme 27) [96]. As transpired later on, reaction of trihalosilanes **92a,b** with lithium naphthalenide (X = Cl, Br) or potassium graphite (X = Br) at $-78^{\circ}C$ in fact resulted in THF solutions of silylenoids **93a–c** that were stable even at ambient temperature [97, 98].

Since experimental data on the structure of silylenoids of type **93** was not forthcoming, conceivable gas phase structures of several α -(halo)silylenoids [99–101] including compound **93c** [102] were analyzed by theoretical methods.

The calculated structure with the lowest energy **93c** exhibits a dative interaction of one chloride anion with the formally empty p_z -orbital at silicon (Scheme 28). The lithium cation occupies a bridging position between the two chlorine atoms (p-complex, silylenoid-like structure, sometimes named 4-membered ring structure, related to well-known inverted structures). In structure **93c'** one chloride anion again features a dative interaction with the empty p-orbital at silicon. The lithium cation, however, is coordinated by the silicon lone pair in this case (silylenoid-like



Scheme 29 Synthesis of stable silylenoid 95 from bromofluorosilane 94 and derivatives 96–98 of the former

complex, sometimes called three-membered ring structure). The third structure **93c**" has a quasi-linear alignment of the Si–Li–Cl axis due to σ -coordination of the silicon lone pair to the lithium cation (also referred to as σ -complex). The forth structure **93c**" – the one with the highest energy – exhibits a classical tetrahedral arrangement. It is important to note that another study with different model compounds came to quite similar results [103]. If dimethyl ether was included in computations for coordination of the lithium cation, though, only structures analogous to **93c**" and **93c**" are still minima and the energetic preference between these two depends on the substituents at silicon.

The first and to date only solid state structure of an α -(halo)silylenoid was published by Apeloig et al. in 2006 [104, 105]. Bromofluorosilane **94** was converted to α -(fluoro)silylenoid **95** by metal-halogen exchange with a lithium di-*tert*-butylmethylsilanide (Scheme 29).

The lithium cation in **95** exhibits no close contact to the silicon lone pair but is coordinated by the fluoride group and three molecules of THF in the solid state instead, which is in good agreement with the predicted structures of silylenoids coordinated by dimethyl ether [103]. Supported by results from computations, compound **95** is best described as a fluoride adduct of the corresponding silylene and has an amphiphilic character. It reacts as an electrophile toward methyllithium to silyl anion **96** and as a nucleophile in the formation of fluorosilanes **97a–c**. Furthermore, silylenoid **95** can be converted thermally or photochemically to the known disilene **98** previously reported by Sekiguchi et al. [106].

The reactivity of dihalosilylenoids has been the topic of several theoretical [107–109] and experimental studies. As in the case of compound **95** (Scheme 29), reactions of silenoids **93a,c** with electrophiles yielded methyl- and silyldihalosilanes **99** (Scheme 30) [98]. Similar to silylenes, silylenoids can react with alkenes and 1,3-dienes by [1+2] [98] and [1+4] cycloaddition [98]. Silacyclopentenes **100a,b** were synthesized from the corresponding silylenoids **93a,c** and 2,3-dimethyl-1,3-butadiene; silacyclopropane **101** is accessible from **93a** and styrene [110].

Reaction of 93a with mesityl lithium in THF solution afforded the new silylenoid 102 upon warming to -10° C, however, slow decomposition occurs at



Scheme 30 Conversion of silylenoids 93a,b to dihalosilanes 99, silacyclopentenes 100a,b, silycyclopropane 101 and 1,3,2-dioxasilolanes 104, 105; synthesis of silylenoid 102 and its transmetallation to magnesium compound 103



Scheme 31 Donor-stabilized silylenoid 106, lithium mesitylenethiolate elimination from silyl anions 107a,b to give silylenes 108a,b and [1+2]cycloaddition to yield silacyclopropenes 109a,b. (*a*) + bis(trimethylsilyl)acetylene

this temperature. The silylenoid **102** was transformed into the first stable magnesium silylenoid **103** after thermal elimination of lithium bromide at 45° C [111]. 1,3,2-Dioxasilolanes **104, 105** were, among others, synthesized from compound **93c** and two equivalents of the appropriate aldehyde [112] or ketone [113], respectively.

The synthesis of silylenoid **106** with a pendant donor substituent that is stable in solution up to 110°C was accomplished by Lee et al. (Scheme 31) and a structure with a N–Si dative bond was suggested based on DFT calculations and NMR spectroscopic data [114].

Sulfur-substituted lithium silanides **107a,b** do not only react as nucleophiles but also degrade in solution to silylenes **108a,b** by elimination of lithium mesityle-nethiolate and show a reactivity typical for silylenes (Scheme 31) [115].

For example, silacyclopropenes **109a,b** were synthesized from bis (trimethylsilyl)ethyne and solutions containing lithium mesitylenethiolate and silylenes **108a,b**.

According to Lee et al., reaction of tribromosilane **92a** with four equivalents of lithium naphthalenide or lithium anthracenide afforded dilithium silandiide **110**.



Scheme 32 Synthesis of dilithio silanide 110 and its alkyl and silyl derivatives 111a,b, products of formal lithiosilylene addition to naphthalene and anthracene 112, 113. (*a*) +NpLi, (*b*) +EtBr/+Me₃SiBr

The latter was successfully derivatized with bromoethane and bromotrimethylsilane to yield bromosilanes **111a,b** (Scheme 32) [116].

Dilithiosilane **110** adds to naphthalene and anthracene via formal [1+2] and [1+4] cycloaddition, respectively, to yield lithiosilanes **112**, **113** [117]. Trapping experiments suggest that the first step of these reactions is a 1,2-addition and accordingly a 9,10-addition of a Li–Si bond followed by lithium bromide elimination. The formation of tris(silyl)carbanion **113** apparently involves an additional trimethylsilyl migration.

3 Silyl Dianions

3.1 Geminal Silyl Dianions

Dilithio silane **110** (Sect. 2.4, Scheme 32) occupies a linking position between silylenoids and geminal silyl dianions. The latter are very attractive synthetic targets inter alia due to their high synthetic potential.

The first germinal organodilithiosilane **114** is accessible by pyrolysis of supersilyl lithium in low yield as reported in 1990 by Lagow et al. (Scheme 33) [118]. Related dianions **116a–c** were later isolated by the Sekiguchi group either directly from the corresponding dibromosilanes **115a–c** or by reaction of silacyclopropanes **117a,b** with lithium metal in THF [119, 120].

Dilithiosilane **116a** exhibits a monomeric structure in THF solution and in the solid state with two additional molecules of THF coordinating each lithium cation (Scheme 33) and a Si–Li bond length that is about 10 pm shorter than those in comparable THF-solvated lithium tris(silyl)silandes [121, 122]. Especially dianion **116b** turned out to be an excellent starting material for the syntheses of hitherto unknown low-valent main group compounds. Reactions with TMP–BCl₂ (TMP = 2,2,6,6-tetramethylpiperidino) and group 13 trichlorides MCl₃ (M = Ga, In) afforded the first silaborene with a dicoordinate boron center **118** and 1,3-disila-2-gallataallen/1,3-disila-2-indataallen anions **119a,b** (Scheme 34) [29, 123, 124].



Scheme 33 Dilithiosilanes 114, 116a and synthesis of dilithiosilanes 116a-c from dibromosilanes 115a-c and silacyclopropenes 117a,b



Scheme 34 Canonical forms of silaborene 118, gallataallene 119a, and indataallene 119b



Scheme 35 Trisilaallene 120, phosphasilene 123 and synthesis of tetrasilabutadiene 122 from tetrachlorodisilane 121 and dilithiosilane 116b, $R = {}^{\prime}Bu_2MeSi$, $R_3Si = {}^{\prime}Bu_2MeSi$, $R' = 2,4,6 \cdot {}^{\prime}Bu_3C_6H_2$



124a, 125a: R₃Si = ^{*i*}Pr₃Si, 124b, 125b: R₃Si = ^{*t*}Bu₂MeSi

Scheme 36 Reaction of silanes 124a,b with ${}^{\prime}\text{Bu}_2\text{Hg}$ and synthesis of silyl dianion 126 by transmetallation of silanide 125a

The same strategy involving α, α -dilithiosilanes in combination with α, α -dihaloelectrophiles was applied for the preparation of trisilaallene **120** [125], tetrasila-1,3-butadiene **122** from 1,1,2,2-tetrachlorodisilane **121** [126] and phosphasilene **123** (Scheme 35) [127].

Starting in 2002, Apeloig et al. developed a different approach for the syntheses of geminal silyl dianions. Trisilanes **124a,b** were converted to mercury silanides **125a,b** by reaction with di*-tert*-butylmercury in moderate to good yields (Scheme 36) [128–131].



Scheme 37 Synthesis of acylsilanes 128a,b and bis(silenide) mercury 129 from silyl dianions 127a,b and 1-adamantanecarboxylic acid

$$\begin{array}{c} {}^{t} Bu_{2} MeSi & SiMe'Bu_{2} \\ {}^{t} Bu_{2} MeSi & Li - Si - Li \\ {}^{t} Bu_{2} MeSi & J - Si - Li \\ {}^{t} Bu_{2} MeSi & J - Si - Li \\ {}^{t} Bu_{2} MeSi & J - Si - Li \\ {}^{t} Bu_{2} MeSi - Si & Li - Si \\ {}^{t} Bu_{2} MeSi - Si & Li - Si \\ {}^{t} Bu_{2} MeSi - Si & Li - Si \\ {}^{t} Bu_{2} MeSi - Si & Li - Si \\ {}^{t} Bu_{2} MeSi - Si & Li - Si \\ {}^{t} Bu_{2} MeSi - Si & Li - Si \\ {}^{t} Bu_{2} MeSi - Si & Si Me'Bu_{2} \\ {}^{t} Bu_{2} MeSi - Si & Si Me'Bu_{2} \\ {}^{t} Bu_{2} MeSi - Si & Si Me'Bu_{2} \\ \end{array} \right] 2 \left[Li(THF)_{4} \right]^{+}$$

Scheme 38 Dilithio silane aggregates 130 and 131

The well-known transmetallation of silylmercury compounds with excess lithium metal [132, 133] was then employed for the synthesis of silyl dianion **126** in THF solution, the first compound with a silicon center connected to lithium and mercury at the same time. Furthermore, a complete exchange of mercury in **125a** for lithium was achieved in hexane solution to yield an aggregate with a novel Li₆-motif, $[({}^{i}Pr_{3}Si)_{2}SiLi_{2}]_{2}[tert-BuLi]_{2}$. The latter was converted thermally to the first donor-free, polymeric dilithio silane $[({}^{i}Pr_{3}Si)_{2}SiLi_{2}]_{n}$.

Reaction of silyl dianions **127a,b** with two equivalents of 1-adamantanecarboxylic acid chloride was investigated experimentally and theoretically (Scheme 37) [134].

The initial product, mercury bis(acylsilane) **128a**, was not detected in case of silyl dianion **127a** but double Brook rearrangement allowed for the isolation of mercury bis(silenide) **129**, the first metal-substituted silene. Mercury bis (acylsilane) **128b**, however, is perfectly stable up to at least 200°C.

Starting from trisilane **124b** two additional dilithio silane aggregates **130**, **131** were isolated and structurally characterized in the Apeloig group (Scheme 38).

The central anionic silicon center of aggregate **130** is hexacoordinate and linked to four lithium atoms. It can be described as a co-aggregate of two equivalents of lithium silanide (*tert*-Bu₂MeSi)₂SiHLi with geminal dilithiosilane (*tert*-Bu₂MeSi)₂SiLi₂. Dissolution of compound **130** in THF causes a break-up of the co-aggregate and the very unusual trimeric geminal dianion **131**·[Li(THF)₄]₂ was isolated and characterized by single crystal X-ray diffraction [135].

Consecutive transmetallation of dilithiosilane (*tert*-BuMe₂Si)₂SiLi₂ allowed for the syntheses of the first dimagnesium and dizinc silane derivatives **132**·LiCl (THF)₄, **133**, **134** (Scheme 39) [136].

All three of the above silvl dianions $132 \cdot \text{LiCl}(\text{THF})_4$, 133, 134 were characterized by single crystal X-ray diffraction.



Scheme 39 Conversion of magnesium silanide 133 to trimeric zinc silanide $132 \cdot \text{LiCl}(\text{THF})_4$ and magnesium silanide $134. (a) + \text{ZnCl}_2, (b) + ^{t}\text{BuMgCl}(\text{MgCl}_2)_2$

3.2 Silole Monoanions and Dianions

Silole monoanion and dianion **135**, **136** [137–139] and related indene and fluorene systems **137–139** [140–144] have been studied extensively both experimentally and theoretically (Scheme 40) [11, 145, 146]. They are usually prepared by reaction of the corresponding dihalosilanes with alkali metals in polar solvents. All structurally characterized silole dianion derivatives known to date exhibit one η^5 -coordinated and one η^1 -coordinated alkali metal cation.

The reactions of silole dianion $136[Li^+]_2$ with an α, α -bifunctional electrophile, a ketone, and 1,3-dienes have been investigated in recent years. Reaction of dianion $136[Li^+]_2$ with a dichlorocyclopropene yielded disilapentalene 141 via *trans,trans*-diradical 140. The latter was detected by ESR spectroscopy and the preferential formation of the suggested isomer is supported by DFT calculations (Scheme 41) [147].

Depending on reaction conditions silole $136[\text{Li}^+]_2$ reacts with one or two equivalents of 2-adamantanone (Scheme 42) [148].

Silenes have previously been prepared through sila Peterson-type olefination by Kira and co-workers [149]. The formation of a silene **142** by direct coupling of a ketone with a silyl dianion and elimination of alkali metal oxide, however, remains a spectacular exception. In the reaction of **136**[Li⁺]₂ with two equivalents of 2-adamantone, diol **143** was obtained as expected after protonation of the corresponding bis(alkoxide), the primary double addition product.

Silole dianion $136[Li^+]_2$ reacts with different 1,3-dienes via formal two-electron oxidation/[1+4]cycloaddition. Amazingly, silaspiroalkene 144 and lithium metal were obtained from the reaction with 2,3-dimethyl-1,3-butadiene (Scheme 43) [150].

The formation of siladiazaspiroalkene 145 was accompanied by two-electron reduction of a second equivalent of diimine to give enamide 146 as byproduct [151]. The mechanisms for the above reactions were also investigated by computations.

4 Unsaturated Systems, Small Rings, and Clusters

The isolation and characterization of the first disilene **147** [152], disilynes **148a,b** [153, 154], tetrasilabutadiene **149** [155], and tetrasilatetrahedrane **25** [37] are undoubtedly milestones of modern inorganic chemistry (Scheme 44).



Scheme 40 Silole monoanion 135, dianion 136, silaindene dianion 137, silafluorene anion 138, and dianion 139



Scheme 41 Reaction of silole dianion $136[Li^+]_2$ with a dichlorocyclopropene to yield disilapentalene 141 via stable diradical 140



Scheme 42 Conversion of silole dianion $136[Li^+]_2$ to silene 142 and diadamantylsilane 143. (*a*) +2-adamantanone, $-Li_2O$; (*b*) +2 2-adamantanone, +2 H⁺



Scheme 43 Reaction of silole dianion 136[Li⁺]₂ with 2,3-dimethyl-1,3-butdiene and di-*tert*-butylethanediimine to yield spirosilanes 144, 145, lithium and bis(enamide) 146

In recent years, numerous compounds with unsaturated silicon centers have been isolated and their reactivity studied. Especially functionalized derivatives such as mercury silenide **129** [134] or lithium silenides **151a,b** [156] possess a high degree of synthetic potential (Scheme 45). The latter are accessible from lithium silenide-silenolate aggregates **150a,b**. Supported by DFT calculations silynes and silylidenes are likely intermediates during their formation.


Scheme 44 Known silicon analogs of an alkene 147, alkynes 148a,b, butadiene 149, and tetrasilatetrahedrane 25



Scheme 45 Mercury bis(silenide) 129 and elimination of ${}^{\prime}Bu_2MeSiLi$ from silenes 150a,b to yield lithium silenides 151a,b



Scheme 46 Synthesis of potassium disilenide 153 by reductive dehalogenation of trichlorodisilane 152, reaction of anion 153 with arylbromides to yield aryltrialkyldisilenes 154a–c. (*a*) Excess KC_8 , (*b*) +RBr

The utilization of disilenides, first suggested by Weidenbruch as an intermediates during the synthesis of tetrasilabutadiene **149** (Scheme 44) [155], allowed for a straightforward access to many otherwise inaccessible compounds and has previously been reviewed [14, 15]. Several examples and synthetic methods for the preparation of alkaline metal disilenides have been described to date. Most recently, the first trialkyl derivative, isolable potassium disilenide **153**, was synthesized by direct reductive dehalogenation of trichlorodisilane **152** and converted to aryldisilenes **154a–c** that exhibit intramolecular $[\pi(Si=Si) \rightarrow \pi^* (aryl)]$ charge transfer interactions (Scheme 46) [157].

Reaction of disilenes **155a–c** with lithium in THF solution was already reported in 2001 to yield 2,3-dilithiotetrasilanes **156a,b** and 2,2-dilithiotrisilane **156c** (Scheme 47) [158].

THF solutions of dianions **158a–c** were obtained by reduction of disilene **157** with stoichiometric amounts of alkaline metal naphthalenides. The presence of



Scheme 47 Synthesis of 2,3-dilithiotetrasilanes **156a,b** and 2,2-dilithiosilane **156c** from disilenes **155a–c** with lithium powder in THF



Scheme 48 Conversion of disilene 157 to 2,3-dimetallatetrasilanes 158a–c and elimination of M–SiMe^tBu₂ to yield trisilyldisilenides 159a–c. (*a*) +2 Naph-M, (*b*) –M–SiMe^tBu₂



Scheme 49 Cleavage of tetrasilabutadiene 122 to yield disilenides 160a,b and formal addition of LiH to silyne 148a to give disilenide 161, $R_3Si = {}^{t}Bu_2MeSi$, $R = ((Me_3Si)_2CH)_2({}^{t}Pr)Si$. (*a*) +2 ${}^{t}BuLi$, -2 ${}^{t}Bu$; (*b*) +KC₈

dianion **158a** was confirmed by ²⁹Si NMR spectroscopy and by isolation of the corresponding protonation product (Scheme 48) [159].

Exchange of the solvent for nonpolar benzene prompted the generation of disilenides **159a–c** by elimination of M–SiMe^{*t*}Bu₂ (M = Li, Na, K). The structure of disilenide **159a**(THF)₂ was investigated by single crystal X-ray diffraction.

Sekiguchi et al. also reported the syntheses of three other disilenides by four different methods between 2004 and 2010. The central Si–Si bond of tetrasilabutadiene **122** can be cleaved with *tert*-butyllithium as reducing agent to yield the mixed silyl/aryl disilenide **160a** (Scheme 49) [126]. Cleavage of the same bond is also possible with potassium graphite to furnish potassium disilenide **160b** [160].

A formal transfer of lithium hydride from *tert*-butyllithium to disilyne **148a** [153] eventually allowed for the isolation of lithium hydrodisilenide **161** [161]. The initial product of this reaction in THF solution did not exhibit coordinating solvent molecules and was converted to the solvent separated ion pair **161** by crystallization from a solvent mixture containing DME. 1,2-Addition of methyllithium to disilyne **148a** yielded the corresponding methyl-substituted disilenide which is unstable at ambient temperature [162].

The first isolated and possibly most thoroughly studied disilenide 163 was obtained in one step from dichlorosilane 162 upon reaction with lithium powder



Scheme 50 One-step synthesis of disilenide 163 from dichlorosilane 162, transition metal and magnesium disilenides 164–167

in DME (Scheme 50) [163]. Transmetallation with Cp_2ZrCl_2 [164], $ZnCl_2$ and CuI [165] gave access to η^1 -disilenide transition metal complexes **164–166** (Scheme 50).

Zirconium disilenide **166** was the first η^1 -disilenide transition metal complex to be reported in the literature. A high wavelength UV absorption, low-field ²⁹Si NMR signals, and distinctive Si–Si and Si–Zr bond lengths point to a significant contribution of the silylene–Zr^{III} canonical form for complex **166**. An undeniable drawback of organolithium and silyl lithium compounds is their high reduction potential that might cause side reactions or even prevent product formation completely. As in the case of their carbon counterparts bis(disilenyl) cuprate **164** and zinc bis (disilenyl) **165** are expected to be comparatively mild disilenide transfer agent with a high synthetic potential. An analog of a vinyl Grignard reagent, disilenyl-magnesium bromide **167**, was obtained by transmetallation of disilenide **163** with magnesium bromide (Scheme 50) [165]. Compound **167** was crystallized as a dimer with two bridging bromide anions and two equivalents of diethyl ether coordinating the magnesium centers.

Trimethylsilyl derivatives of main group compounds have been used as mild transfer agents on many occasions and triorganostannyl substituted alkenes and alkynes are widely known for their role in Stille Coupling. In this context, silyl substituted disilenes **168a**, **169a–c** [163, 166, 167] and especially stannyl substituted disilenes **168b–e** [168] have been synthesized although their synthetic potential remains unexplored to date (Scheme 51).

In case of trisilaallyl chlorides **169a,b** a ring closure can be induced by means of solvent exchange to yield three-membered rings **170a,b** [166]. However, no analogous intermediates were observed during the formation of trisilirane **170c** [169] and disilastannirane **170d** [168].

Cyclotrisilanes **170a,b** and trisilanes **169a,b** were successfully converted to the corresponding lithium cyclotrisilanides **171a,b** and two single crystal X-ray structures of the latter could be established, contact ion pair **171a** and solvent



Scheme 51 Silyl and stannyldisilenes 168a-e, 169a-c and three-membered rings 170a-d



Scheme 52 Syntheses of trisilacyclopropanides 171a,b, 172, alkali metal silacyclopropenide 173, and silicon cluster 174, M = Li, Na, K. (*a*) Li/Et₂O, (*b*) 171a +[2.2.1]cryptand



Scheme 53 Synthesis of tetraaryl disilenes 175, 176 and *para/meta*-phenylene bridged disilenes 177a,b. (*a*) 175: +I/Br–C₆H₅, 176: +*para*-I-C₆H₄-X; (*b*) 177a: +*para*-I₂C₆H₄, 177b: +*meta*-I₂C₆H₄

separated ion pair **172** (Scheme 52) [166]. Three examples of alkali metal silacyclopropenides **173** have also been published recently [170, 171].

Reaction of disilenide **163** with silicon tetrachloride also afforded the molecular silicon cluster **174** in one step [172].

In addition to the syntheses of phosphino and iodo substituted disilenes [173] much effort has been made to obtain aryl substituted and phenylene bridged disilenes due to their very promising optical properties. Disilenide **163** readily reacts with phenyl bromide and iodide to yield tetraaryl disilene **175** (Scheme 53), whereas phenyl chloride and fluoride do not react under the same conditions [174, 175].

This synthetic pathway was also applied for the preparation of *para*-substituted tetraaryl disilenes **176** and the direct production of *para/meta*-phenylene bridged disilenes **177a,b**.



Scheme 54 1,4-dihydro-1,2-disiletes 178a-e and 2H-1,2,3-oxadisiletes 179a-c



Scheme 55 Ehynylsilyl anion 11, silenylsilyl anion 180 and interconversion between η^1 and η^3 coordination in silenylsilyl anion 181, $R = 'Bu_2MeSi$, $R' = 3,5-'Bu_2C_6H_3$

Disilenides **159a** (Scheme 48) and **163** exhibit identical reactivities toward acyl chlorides and vinyl bromides. No intermediate 1,2-disilabutadienes were observed during the reaction with vinyl bromides but 1,4-dihydro-1,2-disiletes **178a–e** (Scheme 54) were isolated in good to high yields, resulting from formal intramolecular [2+2] cycloaddition [176].

Likewise, 2*H*-1,2,3-oxadisiletes **179a–c** were synthesized from disilenides **159a**, **163** and the corresponding acyl chloride [177], again without any detectable intermediates.

As has been shown before, ethynylsilyl anions **11** (Schemes 4 and 54) exhibit only little π -conjugation between the C–C triple bond and the anionic silicon center [27]. Reaction of disilenide **159a** (Scheme 48) with 2-adamantanone gave access to silenylsilyl anion **180** (Scheme 55) [178]. As in the case of anion **11**, combined single crystal X-ray data, NMR investigations, UV/Vis measurements, and theoretical calculations support the description as an isomer with a Si-localized negative charge and little to no π -electron delocalization.

An interesting behavior was observed for lithium silanide **181** [179]. Even though compound **181** is also best described as a silenylsilyl anion based on experimental data, an interconversion between η^1 -silenylsilyl and η^3 -allyl like counter anion coordination could be induced through the choice of solvents (Scheme 55).

Tetrasilacyclobutenide **182** is related to silenylsilyl anion **181** with η^3 -coordination of the lithium cation by means of η^1 -coordination to the anionic silicon center plus η^2 -coordination to the endocyclic Si–Si double bond [180]. The first α, ω -dianionic unsaturated oligosilane **183** was synthesized from silyldisilene **169c** and excess activated magnesium (Mg*) in THF solution (Scheme 56) [167]. Like in the cases of ethynylsilanide **11** and silenylsilanides **180**, **181**, the negative charges of trisilapropene-1,3-diide **183** are essentially localized at the respective vinylic and allylic silicon center.



Scheme 56 Tetrasilacyclobutenide 182 and synthesis of magnesium trisilapropene-1,3-diide 183 from silyldisilene 169c and conversion to trisilastannete 184, $R = {}^{t}Bu_{2}MeSi$



Scheme 57 Synthesis of trisilacyclopropene 185 from disilenide 163 and $[Cp*Si]^+[B(C_6F_5)_4]^$ and subsequent enlargement of the silicon framework to yield siliconoids 174, 188 via proposed intermediates 186, 187. (*a*) $-Li[B(C_6F_5)_4]$, (*b*) +163, $-Cp^*Li$, (*c*) +163, -0.5 (Tip₃Si₂)₂ or +Li naphthalenide, $-Cp^*Li$, (*d*) x2

1,4-Dihydro-1,2,3,4-trisilastannete **184** was prepared from dianion **183** and dimethyltin dichloride on small scale and characterized by multinuclear NMR spectroscopy.

The Cp*Si⁺ cation [181] has been utilized as a stoichiometric source of silicon in reactions with disilenide **163** [182]. Initially, the 1:1 reaction of Cp*Si⁺ with **163** gave access to the first trisilacyclopropene without silyl substituents **185** (Scheme 57) [183].

In a subsequent step, a second equivalent of disilenide **163** can act as either a reducing agent or a nucleophile toward the Cp*Si moiety, thus following the characteristic reaction pathways of main group Cp* compounds [184]. Substitution of the Cp* substituent of **185** with the disilenyl anion yielded the previously reported Si₅-cluster **174** [172] via a proposed tetrasilabutadiene intermediate **186**. The preferred reaction pathway, a SET from disilenide **163** to cyclotrisilene **185**, ultimately turned out to be an alternative for the synthesis of recently discovered hexasilabenzene isomer **188** [169]. Trisilacyclopropenyl radical **187** was suggested as an intermediate in this reaction and the direct generation of **187** by reaction of



Scheme 58 Heavier cyclobutadiene dianion analogs 190, 191 synthesized from halosilanes 189, 192, $R = 'Bu_2MeSi$



Scheme 59 Synthesis of bicyclobutane dianion 193 from dianion 190 and silylene-transition metal complexes 194a-c, $R = {}^{t}Bu_{2}MeSi$

cyclotrisilene **185** with one equivalent of lithium naphthalenide did indeed yield silicon cluster **188** selectively.

Heavier group 14 analogs of cyclobutadiene dianions and isomeric bicyclobutandiides have been synthesized and thoroughly characterized by Sekiguchi et al. in recent years. Tetrasilacyclobutadiene dianion **190** and digermadisilacyclobutadiene dianion **191** were prepared from the corresponding halogenated precursors **189**, **192** by reduction with KC₈ (Scheme 58) [185].

Even though the $[R_4E_4]^{2-}$ cores of dianions **190**, **191** are depicted in Scheme 58 as aromatic planar systems with six delocalized π -electrons, experimental and theoretical results reveal that this description is insufficient. The silicon and germanium centers of the crystallographically isomorphous dianions **190**, **191** are strongly pyramidalized and the four-membered rings thus deviate significantly from planarity [185, 186]. NICS values [187] of model compounds indicate that diides **190**, **191** exhibit little to no aromaticity depending on the substituents and counter cations [188]. The selective methylation of digerma dianion **191** at the germanium centers with dimethyl sulfate shows that the negative charges are indeed mainly localized at these positions. Several transition metal complexes derived from dianions **190**, **191**+ and a germatrisilacyclobutadiene dianion exhibiting η^4 -(R₄E₄)M (M = Co, Fe, Ru) cores have been described to date [189–192].

Calcium bicyclobutandiide **193** is accessible from tetrasilabutadiene dianion **190** by transmetallation with calcium iodide (Scheme 59) [193]. Related disiladigermabicyclo[1.1.0]butandiides were also reported [194].



Scheme 60 Synthesis of tetrasilatetrahedrane 196 and tetrasilatetrahedrane anion 197, $R_3Si = ((Me_3Si)_2CH)_2MeSi, (a) + 2 Bu_3SiNa, -2 Bu_3SiNa, -2 NaBr; (b) KC_8/Et_2O$



Scheme 61 Synthesis of siliconoid 199 and spirocyclic 200 from potassium tetrasilatetrahedranide 198, $R_3Si = {}^{t}Bu_3Si$, (a) +ICl, (b) +SiCl₄

Two donor-free (**194a,b**) and one donor-stabilized silylene-transition metal complex **194c** (donor = THF, PMe₃, NHC) were synthesized from dianion **193** involving the migration of one substituent R [193, 195].

Tetrasilatetrahedrane **196**, accessible from tetrasilane **195** and two equivalents ${}^{1}\text{Bu}_{3}\text{SiNa}$, was converted to solvent separated ion pair **197** with KC₈ in diethyl ether (Scheme 60) [196].

The tetrasilatetrahedrane core of anion **197** exhibits a characteristic elongation of a Si–Si skeletal bond and one silicon center with an inverted tetrahedral geometry that is responsible for a close distance between the anionic silicon center and one silicon atom of a substituent. Only one signal for the skeletal silicon atoms was observed in ²⁹Si NMR even at 200 K, presumably due to a fast exchange of the substituents on the NMR time-scale. A related pentasilatricyclo[$2.1.0.0^{2.5}$]pentane and its anion were synthesized from calcium bicyclobutandiide **193** [197].

A second tetrasilatetrahedranide **198** was prepared in a similar fashion and utilized for the syntheses of siliconoid **199**, as well as spirocyclic **200** (Scheme 61) [198, 199].

Potassium tetrasilatetrahedranide **198** was crystallized as a contact ion pair and does not show the rather unusual geometry of compound **197** in the solid state but two sets of about equal skeletal Si–Si bond length and unsuspicious Si–Si–Si angles.

No significant π -electron delocalization and thus aromaticity was observed for the anionic silicon compounds discussed in this subsection so far. The same, however, is not true for heavier cyclopentadienyl analogs **202** and **203**. Reductive cleavage of one Si–R bond in heterocyclopentadiene **201** allowed for the synthesis



Scheme 62 Synthesis of germadisilacyclopentadienide 202 from germadisilacyclopentadiene 201, conversion of trisilacyclopentadienide 203 to cyclic disilenide 204, $R = {}^{t}Bu_2MeSi$, $D = {}^{t}Bu_2CO$, (*a*) +2 KC₈, -RK; (*b*) 12-crown-4

of 1-germa-2,3-disilacyclopentadienide **202** (Scheme 62) [200]. A comparison of the X-ray crystal structures of cyclopentadiene **201** and cyclopentadienide **202** evidence an elongation of the former double bonds and a shortening of the former single bonds. Together with the overall planar structure of anion **202** and the η^5 -coordination of the lithium counter cation and also cationic [CpFe]⁺ [201], [Rh (CO)₂]⁺ and [Cp^{*}Ru]⁺ fragments [202] a cyclic π -delocalization and aromaticity can be assumed which is further supported by theoretical calculations.

Trisilacyclopentadienide **203**, a trisila analog of anion **202**, was prepared in a similar way and converted to cyclic disilenide **204** upon addition of 12-crown-4 [203].

5 Soluble Zintl Anions

Zintl phases and Zintl anions of group 14 have been a domain of solid state chemistry for a long time and numerous examples are known in the literature [204–207]. Several molecular silicon cage compounds and small clusters **196–200** in which the number of substituents is equal or similar to the number of skeletal atoms are discussed in the previous section. Since very recently, a few virtually unsubstituted, negatively charged clusters of silicon and other group 14 elements that can be handled or prepared in solution have appeared in the literature in the last 10 years [206, 208].

The smallest cluster possible, $[Si_4]^{4-}$ **205** (Scheme 63), was recently detected by ²⁹Si NMR spectroscopy in liquid ammonia solution in the presence of [2.2.2] cryptand [209]. Dissolution of a ²⁹Si-enriched (20% ²⁹Si) silicide with the nominal composition K₆Rb₆Si₁₇ that contains both $[Si_4]^{4-}$ and $[Si_9]^{4-}$ polyanions in the solid state yielded stable solutions which can be stored at 195 K for months with only little decomposition. The ²⁹Si NMR signal of **205** in solution ($\delta = 323$ ppm) exhibits only a marginal downfield shift if compared to MAS-NMR data of **205** in K₆Rb₆Si₁₇ ($\delta = 311$ ppm).

Dissolution of K₆Rb₆Si₁₇ in liquid ammonia in the presence of 18-crown-6 and mesitylcopper allowed for the isolation and characterization of copper-stabilized



Scheme 63 Tetrasilicide tetraanion 205 and copper-stabilized tetraanion 206 (cations: $[Rb^+(18\text{-crown-6})]_2Rb^+_{1.54}K^+_{0.46}$), R = Mes, (a) NH₃(l), [2.2.2]cryptand; (b) NH₃(l), 18-crwon-6, MesCu



Scheme 64 Pentasilicide dianion 207, reversible redox couple nonasilicides 208 and 209, nonasilicide tetraanion 210 (counterions: 207: $[Rb^+[2.2.2]cryptand]_2$, 208: $[K(18-crown-6)]_2$, 209: $[K^+/Rb^+[2.2.2]cryptand]_3$, 210: $[Rb^+[2.2.2]cryptand][Rb^+]_3$ or $[Rb^+]_4$)

tetrasilicide tetraanion $[(MesCu)_2(\eta^3-Si_4)]^{4-}$ **206**. All Si–Si bonds in **206** are comparable to those found in $[Si_4]^{4-}$ tetraanions in binary phases except for the Si–Si bond between the two η^3 -coordinated Si₃ faces, which is significantly longer (depicted as a dashed line in Scheme 63).

The five atom cluster $[Si_5]^{2-}$ **207** was obtained in low yield from an ammonia solution of $Rb_{12}Si_{17}$ in the presence of [2.2.2]cryptand after addition of PMe_3 (Scheme 64) [210]. Pentasilicide dianion **207** exhibits a trigonal bipyramidal structure, in agreement with its *closo* electron count of (n + 1) cluster electron pairs.

Soluble nine-vertex silicon clusters **208–210** with two, three, and four negative charges were isolated to date. Their structures are surprisingly similar and are best described as either tricapped trigonal prism (**209**) or monocapped square antiprisms (**208**, **210**). Nonasilicite trianion $[Si_9]^{3-}$ **209** was obtained as the major product during the synthesis of pentasilicide **207** or alternatively from K₁₂Si₁₇ under similar conditions but without PMe₃ [210]. Dianion $[Si_9]^{2-}$ **209** is accessible by oxidation of ammonia solutions of trianion **208** with Ph₃GeCl, Me₃SnCl, or *tert*-BuCl [211]. The $[Si_9]^{2-}/[Si_9]^{3-}$ single electron redox couple was investigated by cyclic voltammetry in DMF and pyridine and shown to be quasi reversible. Binary and ternary solid state phases $M_{12}Si_{17}$ (M = K, Rb) are known to contain $[Si_4]^{4-}$ and $[Si_9]^{4-}$ tetraanions. The isolation of nonasilicide tetraanion $[Si_9]^{4-}$ **210** from solution was achieved by dissolution of K₆Rb₆Si₁₇ in ammonia in the presence of 18-crown-6 and subsequent slow crystallization [212].

Nonasilicide tetraanion **210** was already employed as a ligand for transition metal complexes prior to its isolation in substance. Crystalline material containing



Scheme 65 closo-[Si₉ZnPh]³⁻ Trianion 211 and octaanionic [Ni(CO)₂]₂ complex 212, (counterions: 211: [K⁺[2.2.2]cryptand]₃, 212: [Rb⁺(18-crown-6)]₂[K⁺(18-crown-6)]₂[Rb⁺]₄)

the $[Si_9ZnPh]^{3-}$ trianion was obtained from a pyridine solution of $K_{12}Si_{17}$, ZnPh₂, and [2.2.2]cryptand (Scheme 65) [213]. The transition metal fragment [ZnPh]⁺ takes part fully in cluster bonding and tetraanion **211** is therefore best described as a bicapped square antiprismatic *closo*- $[Si_9ZnPh]^{3-}$ cluster, in agreement with the Wade rules.

It has been found that $[Si_9]^{4-}$ tetraanion **210** can also coordinate to a transition metal center in a σ -like fashion [214]. The octaanionic complex **212** was isolated from an ammonia solution of K₆Rb₆Si₁₇ in the presence of 18-crown-6 and (Ph₃P)₂Ni(CO)₂. The reaction can be considered as a simple ligand exchange of nonasilicide **210** with triphenylphosphine. IR spectroscopic investigations show that the donor–acceptor properties of Ph₃P and μ -[Si₉]⁴⁻ toward the Ni(CO)₂ fragment are comparable.

6 Conclusion

This chapter summarizes contribution to the field of silyl anion research of the approximately last 10 years. In addition to important publications focusing on synthetic and structural aspects of silyl anions themselves, several other areas have seen remarkable progress. The now well-established synthesis of sophisticated organosilicon precursors for materials chemistry is expected to be increasingly important in the near future and the somewhat difficult handling of functionalized silyl anions, e.g., silylenoids and chiral silanides, should not be an obstacle for further progress anymore. Some only recently discovered low-valent anionic silicon species and small clusters have been established as versatile building blocks for the synthesis of numerous hitherto unknown main group compounds in a very short period of time and many more exciting results can be expected. Last but not least soluble, the functionalization of multiple charged Zintl anions offers new and rather unexpected possibilities in the future.

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Substituted Polyhedral Silicon and Germanium Clusters

Masafumi Unno

Abstract Chemistry of polyhedral silicon and germanium clusters is summarized. Historical background, synthesis, structure, physical properties, and reactions are described in detail.

Keywords Hexasilaprismane \cdot Octasilacubane \cdot Polysilane \cdot Steric protection \cdot Strained molecules \cdot Tetrasilatetrahedrane

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Abbreviations

t-Bu	Tert-Butyl
18-Cr-6	18-Crown-6
cat	Catalyst
d	Day(s)
DEP	2,6-Diethyphenyl
DME	1,2-Dimethoxyethane
DMF	Dimethylformamide
DMSO	Dimethyl sulfoxide
equiv	Equivalent(s)
e.g.	For example
Et	Ethyl
exc.	Excess
h	Hour(s)
HMPA	Hexamethylphosphoric triamide
LiNapht	Lithium naphthalenide
m-CPBA	m-Chloroperoxybenzoic acid
Me	Methyl
Mes	Mesityl, 2,4,6-trimethylphenyl
MS	Mass spectrometory
min	Minute(s)
mol	Mole(s)
NBS	N-Bromosuccinimide
NCS	N-Chlorosuccinimide
Nu	Nucleophile
Ph	Phenyl
Pr	Propyl
<i>i</i> -Pr	Isopropyl
ру	Pyridine
rt	Room temperature
S	Second(s)
SCE	Saturated calomel electrode
TBAF	Tetrabutylammonium fluoride
TBDMS	Tert-butyldimethylsilyl
TBDPS	Tert-butyldiphenylsilyl
Tf	Trifluoromethanesulfonyl (triflyl)
TFA	Trifluoroacetic acid
TGA	Thermogravimetric
thexyl	1,1,2-Trimethylpropyl
THF	Tetrahydrofuran
TEP	2,4,6-Triethylphenyl
TIP	2,4,6-Triisopropylphenyl
TIPS	Triisopropylsilyl

TMEDA	N, N, N', N'-tetramethyl-1,2-ethylenediamine
TMS	Trimethylsilyl
Tol	4-Methylphenyl
trityl	Triphenylmethyl

1 Introduction

Synthesis of organic compounds that possess platonic solid geometries allured many chemists because of their aesthetic appeal and synthetic challenge. Before the middle of the 1980s, except for icosahedral and octahedral molecules that could not be accessed in the case of carbon, tetrahedarane, cubane, and dodecahedrane were prepared by multistep synthesis, which are globally referred to as platonic hydrocarbons [1, 2].

With the development of the higher group-14 element chemistry, heavier platonic hydrocarbon counterparts were the next logical synthetic targets. Unlike platonic hydrocarbons that are basically stable in the air, polyhedral silicon and germanium compounds are inherently unstable towards oxidation. This prohibited the successful synthesis of cage compounds of silicon and germanium until 1988, about quarter century later than the synthesis of cubane, when octasilacubane was first isolated [3]. The kinetic instability was overcome by the use of sterically shielding substituents; many other examples of the family have been prepared since then. This review will therefore focus on cage compounds with substituents and does not aim to include the rather extensive chemistry of polyhedral Zintl anions in the solid state and – since recently – also in solution, which are covered elsewhere in this volume. In addition to the platonic compounds, other substituted silicon or germanium clusters were prepared. In Table 1, platonic hydrocarbons and heavier group 14 element congeners are summarized.

Compared to carbon clusters, silicon and germanium clusters show quite different physical properties and reactivities, due to the σ -conjugation that makes low ionization potentials [4]. In this review, synthesis, structure, properties, and reactivities of silicon and germanium clusters are described in detail.

2 Synthesis, Structures, and Properties

2.1 Octasilacubanes and Octagermacubanes

In contrast to the carbon analogs that demanded a multistep synthesis, octasilacubanes were obtained in a very facile single-step reaction. From the mid-1980s, the Matsumoto and Nagai group at Gunma University was interested in the chemistry of silyl-substituted silicon compounds. The introduction of bulky organic groups for steric protection often encounters with low reactivity or necessitates longer reaction

 Table 1
 List of Group-14 polyhedranes

	Tetrahedrane	Hexaprismane	Cubane	Pentaprismane	Dodecahedrane
С	G. Maier (1978)	T. J. Katz (1973)	P. E. Eaton (1964)	P. E. Eaton (1981)	L. A. Paquette (1982)
Si	N. Wiberg (1993)	A. Sekiguchi and H. Sakurai (1993)	H. Matsumoto and Y. Nagai (1988)		
Ge	N. Wiberg (1996)	A. Sekiguchi and H. Sakurai (1989)	A. Sekiguchi and H. Sakurai (1992)		
Sn		N. Wiberg (1999)	L. R. Sita and I. Kinoshita (1990)	L. R. Sita and I. Kinoshita (1990)	

Carbon compounds listed are hydrogen substituted



Scheme 1 Synthesis of octasilacubane 1

times. On the other hand, silyl substituents are introduced easily by simple usage of Grignard or lithium reagents. Longer Si–Si or Si–C bond lengths compared to C–C bond are also effective for the introduction of bulky substituents. This advantage made it possible to access to the precursors of silicon clusters, and silyl-substituted octasilacubane 1, that is the first example of a silicon polyhedral compound, was obtained in 18% from tribromomonosilane and 24% from 1,1,2,2-tetrabromodisilane [3] (Scheme 1).

Octasilacubane 1 forms yellow crystals as shown in Fig. 1. This compound is stable in a sealed tube, but gradually decomposed in air to give a white solid. The cage structure of octasilacubane 1 is responsible for the unique UV–vis absorption up to 470 nm. A cyclic voltamogram revealed the oxidation potential to be 0.40 V, and this value is much lower than the usual cyclic polysilanes.

Because of its relative instability, X-ray crystallographic analysis was not successful in 1988 because the compound gradually decomposed under exposure of X-ray



Fig. 1 Molecular structure and crystals of octasilacubane 1



Scheme 2 Other approaches to octasilacubane and octagermacubane

even in a sealed tube. The structure analysis was possible 15 years later by rapid X-ray measurement system [5]. The structure is shown in Fig. 1. The cubic framework is well protected by bulky Si substituents to avoid oxidation. Average framework bond length was 2.412 Å and slightly longer than the usual Si–Si single bond. Framework Si–Si–Si bond angles varied from 88.0 to 91.8°, nicely approximating a cubic structure.

It is noteworthy that three independent groups published similar reactions at the same time. As shown in Scheme 2, the reactions of di(*tert*-butyl)tetrachlorodisilane and di(*tert*-butyl)tetrahalodigermane with lithium naphthalenide at low temperatures gave Si₈ and Ge₈ partial cage compounds, respectively, with two halogen atoms remaining [6–8]. Our later investigation of the reactions from octasilacubane showed that construction of strained cubic structure requires high temperatures (described below in detail).



Scheme 3 Synthesis of alkyl and aryl octasilacubanes

After this work, various octasilacubanes with alkyl and aryl substituents were reported. Their syntheses are summarized in Scheme 3. Sekiguchi and Sakurai group prepared 2,6-diethylphenyl-substituted octasilacubane by the reaction with Mg/MgBr₂ [9]. The orange crystals of **2** were obtained in 1% yield. In the same year, Matsumoto group in Gunma University published the synthesis and structure of 1,1,2-trimethylpropyl (thexyl)-substituted octasilacubane **3** [10]. Independently, the synthesis of *tert*-butyl-substituted octasilacubane **4** was reported in the same year [11]. Later, the Sekiguchi and Sakurai group also reported the mesityl-substituted octasilacubane prepared in a similar manner [4]. The structures of octasilacubanes shown in Scheme 3 were determined by X-ray crystallography. Bond lengths and angles were basically independent of the substituents. Even with bulky substituents, Si–Si average bond lengths of the cubane skeleton were only slightly longer than typical Si–Si bond lengths 2.34 Å (2.412 Å for **1**, 2.399 Å for **2**, 2.421 Å for **3**, and 2.385 Å for **4**). Bond angles of the skeleton vary from 88 to 92°.

The ²⁹Si NMR chemical shift of **1** was observed at -35.03 ppm and that of aryl-substituted **2** appeared at 0.36 ppm. Alkyl-substituted **3** showed a peak at 22.24 ppm.

The reason for the successful isolation of octasilacubanes, even though the yields were poor, is their vivid color that enabled the isolation by column chromatography in a glove box. The electronic structures of octasilacubanes were intensively investigated [4] and strained polysilane systems as well as fused polycyclic structures are explained to be responsible for the unique color and reactivity.

Two octagermacubanes were introduced by Sekiguchi and Sakurai's group in 1992 [9]. The synthetic methods, similar to those of octasilacubanes, are shown in Scheme 4.



Scheme 4 Synthesis of alkyl and aryl octagermacubanes

$$\begin{array}{c} \mathsf{RGeCl}_3 + \mathsf{Mg} / \mathsf{MgBr}_2 \xrightarrow{\mathsf{THF}} \\ \mathsf{R} = \mathsf{thexyl} \end{array} \xrightarrow{\mathsf{THF}} \begin{array}{c} \mathsf{R} & \mathsf{R} & \mathsf{R} \\ \mathsf{Ge} - /\mathsf{Ge} \\ \mathsf{Ge} \\$$

Scheme 5 Synthesis of thexyl octagermacubane

Octagermacubane 5 with 2,6-diethyphenyl groups was obtained in 1% yield. Alkyl octagermacubane 6 was prepared by two different methods and obtained in 16% yield from cyclotetragermane or 3% from trichlorogermane.

In 2000, our group reported the synthesis, structure, and reactivity of thexyl octagermacubane. Unlike thexyl octasilacubane **3**, octagermacubane **7** was only obtained by the reaction of ThexGeCl₃ with Mg/MgBr₂. The yield was 3.3% [12] (Scheme 5).

Aryl octagermacubane **5** was reported to be stable to atmospheric oxygen and moisture, while alkyl-substituted **7** was oxidized in solution to the corresponding dioxide in a few hours (*vide infra*). Also in a solid state, **7** decomposed slowly (half life: 5 d). This is in contrast with thexyl octasilacubane **3**, which is stable in solution. The relative stability of aryl octagermacubane **5** can be attributed to the



Fig. 2 UV-vis spectra of octasilacubanes 1 and 3 in hexane

electronical stabilization by aryl groups; electron is withdrawn by aryl groups from Ge₈ skeleton, diminishing the reactivity towards electrophilic reagents.

The structures of octagermacubanes are comparable to those of octasilacubane; average Ge–Ge bond lengths were 2.490 Å for **5** and 2.516 Å for **7**. Bond angles of the skeleton of **5** vary $88.9-91.1^{\circ}$ and alkyl-substituted **7** showed wider range, $88.0-91.9^{\circ}$, as in the case of octasilacubanes.

All octasilacubanes are colored molecules and show absorption maxima around 500 nm in UV–vis spectra. As an example, UV–vis spectra of thexyl and silyl-substituted octasilacubane are shown in Fig. 2. The longest wavelength absorption around 500 nm for **3** was analyzed by Gaussian approximation to be a 1:5:1 mixture of 464, 508, 561 nm peaks, respectively. The absorption spectra of other octasilacubanes are summarized in the review [4, 13]. Aryl octasilacubane **2** shows much more intense absorption compared to alkyl-substituted **3**, because of the electronic perturbation by aryl groups. For example, σ - σ * transition absorption of **2** was observed at 243 nm (ϵ 111,000), while that of **3** was detected at 252 nm (ϵ 30,800). On the other hand, the absorption at 500 nm observed for **3** was missing in the case of **2**.

Thexyl octasilacubane **3** shows thermochromism in solid state and changes its color from orange $(-196^{\circ}C)$ to bright red $(200^{\circ}C)$. The measurement of temperaturedependent UV-vis spectrum in 3-methylpentane indicated that the absorption of 561 nm decreases in intensity at lower temperature. Other peaks are basically left unchanged; therefore, slight conformational variations might be responsible for this color change. A similar feature was also observed for octagermacubane **7**, which changed its color from pale yellow $(-196^{\circ}C)$ to orange $(120^{\circ}C)$.

It is worthwhile to compare the electronic properties of octasilacubane and octagermacubane with same substituents. Figure 3 indicates the comparison of UV–vis spectra of thexyl octasilacubane 3 and octagermacubane 7. Octagermacubane shows more intense absorption in the UV region, which tails in to the visible region around 500 nm. In contrast, aryl octasilacubane 2 and octagermacubane 5 with same



Fig. 4 TG analysis of octasilacubanes 1 and 3 in Ar atmosphere



substituents show basically similar UV–vis spectra [13]. The UV–vis spectra of alkyl octagermacubane 6 and 7 exhibit analogous features.

The high electron-donating ability of octasilacubanes is shown by the results of cyclic voltammetry. The oxidation potentials of **1** and **3** were 0.40 V and 0.43 V (in CH_2Cl_2 vs. SCE), respectively. These values are much lower than cyclic polysilanes $(i-Pr_2Si)_4$ (1.24 V, in CH_2Cl_2 vs. SCE), indicating unique electronic properties of the octasilacubane motif. Octagermacubane **7** shows even lower oxidation potential, and the value was 0.22 V (in CH_2Cl_2 vs. SCE).

The thermal properties of octasilacubane were investigated by thermogravimetric analysis (TGA). As shown in Fig. 4, silyl octasilacubane 1 shows weight decrease over 300° C, whereas thexyl-substituted 3 started to decompose from 200° C. This result was supported by the ab initio calculation indicating that silyl-substituted octasilacubane is more stable than alkyl-substituted one [14]. Octagermacubane 7 is stable up to 190° C, then starts to decompose. This temperature is slightly lower than in the case of octasilacubane 3. The measurement of TGA-MS indicated that the weight loss is the result of the elimination of thexyl groups. The cage skeleton is thermally stable up to 500° C.



Scheme 6 Synthesis of hexaprismanes

2.2 Hexasilaprismanes and Hexagermaprismanes

A hexaprismane comprising higher group-14 element was first reported in 1989 with bis(trimethylsilyl)methyl-substituted hexagermaprismane [15]. Hexasilaprismane and hexagermaprismane with 2,6-diisopropylphenyl groups were isolated in 1993 [16] both by Sekiguchi and Sakurai group. They applied bulkier substituents to obtain smaller cages, and the essentially identical method to that employed for the preparation of octasilacubanes gave the targeted hexaprismanes. One different point is reducing reagent; Mg/MgBr₂ proved too reactive for hexagermaprismanes and Mg was used instead. For hexasilaprismane **8a**, Mg/MgBr₂ gave a good result (Scheme 6). More recently, Scheschkewitz's group reported the synthesis of hexasilaprismane **8b** by reductive coupling from trichlorocyclotrisilane [17]. Their result clearly indicates that larger prebuilt fragments afford the targeted polyhedron in much higher yields.

Theoretical calculations indicated that strain energy of hexaprismanes are higher than octasilacubanes or octagermacubanes [18]. However, hexasilaprismane 6 was oxidatively stable in the solid state. The authors described that no change was observed after a couple of months in air.

Another unique point for these compounds was hindered rotation of the aryl group of **8a** and **10**. Unlike octasilacubanes, two peaks of nonequivalent *o*-isopropyl groups

were observed in ¹H NMR. The ΔG^{\ddagger} values for the rotation were calculated to be 16.5 kcal/mol for hexasilaprismane **8**, and 13.1 kcal for hexagermaprismane **10**, reflecting longer Ge–Ge bond length [16].

In the solid state, hexasilaprismane 8 exhibited two peaks in ²⁹Si NMR at -22.2 and -30.8 ppm with a ratio of 2:1. The authors explained this with the distorted skeleton as shown in X-ray analysis.

The crystallographic analyses of hexaprismanes 8-10 revealed their unique structures. Thus, the average bond angles for 8a were 2.380 Å for the three-membered ring moiety and 2.373 nm for the four-membered ring and slightly shorter than diethyphenyl-substituted octasilacubane 2. On the other hand, the average bond lengths of hexagermaprismane 10 were 2.503 Å for three-membered ring and 2.468 Å for four-membered ring. Alkyl-substituted 9 shows comparatively long bond lengths: 2.580 Å for three-membered ring and 2.522 Å for four-membered ring, which can readily be attributed to the bulkier alkyl groups.

Because of the strained polysilane/polygermane structure, the polyhedral cages are all colored compounds and show UV–vis absorptions in the visible region in hexane solution. Thus, all three compounds have absorptions tailing into the visible region (500 nm). Two hexagermaprismanes **9** and **10** showed similar spectra, whereas alkyl-substituted **9** was red-shifted (280 nm, ε 32,200) compared to that of **10** (261 nm, ε 84,000). Hexasilaprismane **8** shows absorption maximum at 240 nm (ε 78,000) with several shoulders up to 500 nm.

2.3 Tetrasilatetrahedranes and Tetragermatetrahedranes

Among the polyhedral clusters, tetrahedrane is the most strained [4, 17]. The isolation of tetrasilatetrahedrane was realized in 1993, five years after the synthesis of octasilacubane. Wiberg's group applied very bulky tri-*t*-butylsilyl (*supersilyl*) groups and succeeded in the synthesis as shown in Scheme 7 [19]. Again, the choice of precursors is important; when *tert*-butlytrichlorosilane was treated with sodium, only reduced disilane and cyclotrisilane were obtained as products. In addition to using a 1,1,2,2-tetrabromodisilane precursor, *t*-Bu₃SiNa had to be employed as reducing agent instead of typical alkali metal reagents.

The tetrahedrane **11** was obtained as yellow-orange crystals and, surprisingly, stable towards water, air, and light. Because of the cage tetrasilane system, UV–vis absorptions are observed at 210 (ε 76,000), 235 (ε 71,000), 310 (ε 20,000), and 451 (ε 3,600) nm. The crystallographic analysis was possible by the co-crystallization of **1** with disilane (*t*-Bu₃Si)₂. Average skeleton Si–Si bond lengths were 2.326 Å, and this value is slightly shorter than typical Si–Si single bond (~2.34 Å). The exocyclic Si-Si bonds were longer, and average bond lengths were 2.362 Å.

In 2003, the Sekiguchi and Ichinohe group isolated the bis(trimethylsilyl) methyl-substituted tetrasilatetrahedrane as the second example [20]. They applied



Scheme 7 Synthesis of tetrasilatetrahedrane



Scheme 8 Synthesis of tetrasilatetrahedrane 12

basically identical reaction conditions and obtained the target compound in 46% yield (Scheme 8). Average Si–Si bond lengths were 2.352 Å (*endo*) and 2.409 Å (*exo*); both are slightly longer than those of **1**.

Lerner's group reported the synthesis of **12** by a one-pot procedure in 2009 [21]. Compound **12** was obtained by treatment of either HSiCl₃, Cl₃SiSiCl₃, or Cl₃SiSiCl₂SiCl₃ with NaSi(*t*-Bu)₃. In the case of HSiCl₃ and NaSi(*t*-Bu)₃, the yield was 48%.

Sekiguchi's group investigated the reaction using 2,6-diisopropylphenyl groups as substituents. As shown in Scheme 9, the reaction of tetrachlorosilane with LiNapht gave cleaved silanol after aqueous workup. When they treated substituted trichlorosilane with Mg/MgBr₂, ethylene inserted tetrahedrane was obtained (ethylene was generated in situ by the reaction of Mg and dibromoethane) [4]. These results indicated the intermediacy of tetrahedrane **13**; isolation, however, was not possible with these aryl substituents.

The ²⁹Si NMR chemical shift of tetrahedrane **11** was reported to be 38.89 ppm, a quite different value from that of silyl-substituted octasilacubane **1** (δ –35.03 ppm). ²⁹Si NMR chemical shifts are apparently drastically affected by the polyhedral cage motif. Therefore, ²⁹Si NMR seems to be a useful tool for determination of the structures of silicon polyhedranes.



Scheme 9 Attempted synthesis of tetrasilatetrahedrane 13

3 Reactions

3.1 From Octasilacubanes and Octagermacubanes

Although many silicon and germanium clusters were isolated, the reactions starting from them are very limited. There are several reasons:

- 1. With bulky steric protecting groups, reactivity of the starting compound is low.
- 2. Even if some reactions occurred, the stability of the products is often insufficient for separation and isolation.
- 3. The structure of the products are often complicated; therefore, identification by spectroscopic analyses is difficult.
- 4. In some cases (e.g., compounds 4 and 12), solubility in organic solvent is too low to perform reactions.

Among all clusters listed above, thexyl-substituted octasilacubane **3** and octagermacubane **7** have unique properties. Thus, this compound can survive in the HPLC analysis with THF/MeOH eluent, and this makes it possible to isolate the products by preparative recycle-type HPLC. In addition, compounds **3** and **7** can be dissolved in many organic solvents. This is the reason why most of the known reactions are from these compounds.



Scheme 10 Oxidation of octasilacubane 1

As mentioned in the previous chapter, octasilacubanes show low oxidation potential. Therefore reactions with electrophilic reagents can be expected. Indeed, silyl-substituted octasilacubane 1 reacted with excess amount of *m*-CPBA to give octasilsesquioxane 14 [5] (Scheme 10; the chemistry of silsesquioxanes is described in detail in a different chapter of this volume). Cage octasilsesquioxanes (T_8) are well-known compounds [22]; however, only one silyl-substituted T_8 has been known to date except 14. In addition, if bulky substituents are applied, conventional hydrolysis-dehydration methods would not give cage products but incompletely condensed silanols. Therefore, compound 14 can be claimed to be the octasil-sesquioxane with the largest substituents.

Interestingly, compound 14 exhibits relatively intense absorption in the UV region [5]. Against the fact that the silsesquioxane framework usually does not show UV–vis absorption, the lowest transition-energy absorption of 14 in cyclohexane occurs at 285 nm (ϵ 4,900) (Fig. 5). The reason of this intriguing observation is unclear as yet, however, spatial interaction of Si–Si σ bonds is most plausible because similar spectrum was obtained with trimenthylsilyl-T₈, but not with 2-trimethylsilylethyl-T₈.

Reflecting the stability in the air, oxidation of thexyl-substituted octasilacubane **3** demanded harsher conditions. Oxidation of **3** with *m*-CPBA resulted in the mixture of Thex₈Si₈O_n. During the investigation of photoreaction of **3**, we found that oxidized octasilacubanes were often observed. We therefore tried the photoreaction of **3** in the presence of DMSO as an oxidant, and mono- and di-oxidized compounds were obtained in good yields (Scheme 11). Thanks to the stability of **3** as described above, all the products including residual starting material **3** were isolated by recycle-type HPLC (ODS, eluent MeOH/THF) [23].

Although many isomers for dioxide **16** are possible, only the single isomer with diagonally opposing SiOSi bridges was obtained. We also tried the oxidation of **15** in a similar manner, and again, only **16** was obtained (Scheme 11). This interesting reactivity was explained by the X-ray crystal analysis of **15**. Because of the insertion of the first oxygen atom, the thexyl groups were pushed back, and the opposing Si–Si bond was elongated (2.559 Å; other bonds were 2.423–2.463 Å). This elongation made the reactivity of this bond higher, resulted in the sole generation of **16** (Scheme 12).



Fig. 5 UV-vis absorption of octasilsesquioxane 14 in cyclohexane



Scheme 11 Oxidation of octasilacubane 3





For octagermacubanes **7**, oxidation reaction occurred with *m*-CPBA, and octagermsesquioxane **17** was obtained in 7% yield (Scheme 13). Probably because of the longer Ge–Ge bonds, **7** is more easily oxidized compared to the silicon analog. When **7** was stirred in hexane for 12 h with oxygen, dioxide (ThexGe)₈O₂ was obtained as yellow crystals in 7% yield. The position of the two oxygens was not clear because crystallographic analysis could not be performed in this case.


Scheme 13 Oxidation of octagermacubane 7

The reaction of octasilacubane with sulfur, selenium, or tellurium proceeded by thermal reaction [24]. When octathexyloctasilacubane **3** was heated with sulfur under toluene reflux condition for 8 days, the HPLC chart of the reaction mixture showed the generation of three products in addition to the starting octasilacubane. Separation with recycle-type HPLC revealed that two of the products were dioxaoctasilabishomocubane **16** and monothiaoctasilahomocubane **18**, the former probably resulting from contamination of the reaction mixture with dioxygen. Both compounds were identified by X-ray crystallographic analysis. Another product was not identified, but the reaction of **3** with selenium in a sealed tube gave a similar ring-opening compound **20** whose structure was determined crystallographically. On the basis of similar ²⁹Si NMR data, the product was determined to be **19**. In the case of tellurium, the thermal reaction of the octasilacubane resulted in the formation of a tellurium-inserted compound **21**, which decomposed in solution to give the octasilacubane and tellurium. The whole reaction is summarized in Scheme **14**.

The mechanism of the formation of **19** or **20** is not clear, but it can plausibly be explained with the reaction sequence shown in Scheme 15. Usually [2,2] ring opening is thermally prohibited; however, a transiently generated ladder intermediate **22** may promptly react with selenium to give **23**. Because of the severe steric hindrance of bulky thexyl groups in **23**, skeletal rearrangement might occur to give product **20**. Similar ring-opening reaction of hexasilaprismane was also suggested by photoreaction (described below).

Octasilacubane **3** also readily reacts with halogenating reagents [25]. Simple one-bond cleaved dihalides had been anticipated, but the products obtained were all skeletal rearranged dihalides. As shown in Scheme 16, when **3** was allowed to react with halogenating reagents, three stereoisomers were obtained in good yields. All products were isolated with recycle-type HPLC (ODS, MeOH/THF), and the structures were unequivocally determined by X-ray crystallographic analyses. Usually iodosilanes are unstable to moisture; however, the diiodo compounds obtained in this reaction were stable, thanks to the steric protection by thexyl groups, and isolated without problems by HPLC.

The reason of the skeletal rearrangement is explained by the release of the strain of octasilacubane. Thus, electrophilic attack by halogenating reagent resulted in the Si–Si bond cleavage and generation of silyl cation. In this stage, skeletal rearrangement occurred before the second atom attacks to give the rearranged dihalides.



Scheme 14 Reaction of octasilacubane 3 with sulfur, selenium, and tellurium



Scheme 15 Plausible reaction mechanism for the generation of 20

The described halogenation reaction proceeds via an ionic pathway, but radical halogenation is also possible [26]. When octasilacubane **3** was heated in CCl₄, similar products were obtained. In this reaction, no *endo,endo*-isomer was obtained. The reaction of **3** with CBr₄ or dibromoethane demanded photo-irradiation, and the *exo, exo*-isomer was obtained as the only product. For these reactions, carefully degassed solvent was used; however, when the reaction with CBr₄ was performed in the presence of oxygen, oxahomocubane **24** in addition to the *exo,exo*-isomer were obtained. All the reactions are summarized in Scheme 17. It is noteworthy that the framework of the rearranged compounds was previously known as shown in Scheme 2.



Scheme 16 Halogenation of octasilacubane 3



Scheme 17 Radical halogenation of octasilacubane 3

Kabe and Masamune's group examined the further reaction of obtained *exo,exo*dichloride with LiNapht, but dihydride **24** was the only product instead of the anticipated cage motif [6]. Considering the strained structure of octasilacubane, conversion of rearranged dihalides to octasilacubane seemed to be impossible.

Against this expectation, we succeeded in the regeneration of octasilacubane by applying similar reaction condition to the synthesis of octasilacubane [27]. As shown in Scheme 18, all isomers of dihalides could be transferred to octasilacubane by the reaction with sodium in refluxed toluene. Reduced dihydride (only *exo,exo*-isomer) was the by-product. From this result as well as the similar reaction of octagermacubanes described below, it can be concluded that generation of cubane skeleton usually requires elevated temperatures.

Similar halogenation and regeneration was also observed for octagermacubane [12]. As depicted in Scheme 19, chlorination occurred in the reaction with PCl_5 , and two isomers were obtained. The identification of *exo*,*exo*-isomer was accomplished



Scheme 18 Regeneration of octasilacubane 3



Scheme 19 Reaction of octagermacubane 7

by comparing NMR spectrum with that of silicon analog of *exo,exo*-isomer. The unsymmetrical structure of *endo,exo*-isomer made it possible to identify this compound by NMR spectra. Although octagermacubane was synthesized by the reaction with Mg/MgBr₂, no reaction occurred from the rearranged dichloride. Instead, reaction with sodium in toluene gave the octagermacubane in 50% yield. Again in this reaction, the higher stability of thexyl-substituted octagermacubane is one of the reasons for the generation of octagermacubane, while the regeneration of more strained cubane skeletons demands high reaction temperature.

Photoreaction of octasilacubane **3** was investigated soon after its isolation. Irradiation of **3** at 77 K in 3-methylpentane gave intense absorptions around 450 and 700 nm in UV–vis spectrum. As shown in Fig. 6, new absorptions at 345, 471, and 714 nm increased their intensity by time. The species were stable at least for several hours at that temperature; however, starting octasilacubane was recovered when the solution was warmed to room temperature.

We first presumed that the species responsible for these absorptions include unsaturated Si–Si bonds and tried trapping experiments with diene, alcohol, or water. However, no trapped products were obtained and only octasilacubane was recovered. The absorption at 714 nm is red-shifted compared to those of most



Fig. 6 UV spectra of 3 irradiated in 3-methylpentane at 77 K



Scheme 20 Suggested intermediate of the photoreaction of octasilacubane 3

unsaturated silicon compounds, and consequently the generation of different species had to be considered. With a collaborative work with Horiuchi and Hiratsuka photochemistry group, we could suggest the structure of the product of photoreaction [28]. From the result of INDO/S-CI calculation it was concluded that the structure of the photo-rearranged product corresponded to the saturated, but highly strained molecule **26** (Scheme 20). This compound matches well to the UV–vis spectrum as well as the inertness towards alcohol or diene. In addition, generation of the dioxaoctasilacubane **16** in the photooxidation of octasilacubane can readily be explained by the insertion of oxygen atom to top and bottom Si–Si bonds of **26**.

3.2 From Hexasilaprismane and Hexagermaprismane

Photoisomerization was also reported for hexasilaprismane and hexagermaprismane. The irradiation of **8** at -50° C or in a glass matrix at 77 K, new absorption bands appeared at 335, 455, and 500 nm. With a result of a HF/6-31G* level energy calculation [4], Sekiguchi and Sakurai suggested the generation of hexasila-Dewar benzene **27**. With irradiation of longer wavelength light, this species regenerated hexaprismanes (Scheme 21) [4, 13].

Similar photoreaction was observed with ladder polysilanes. In this case, generated cyclobutene was trapped by various reagents (Scheme 22) [29].



Scheme 21 Photoisomerization of hexaprismanes



Scheme 22 Photoreaction of ladder polysilane

3.3 From Tetrahedranes

Tetrasilatetrahedranes are thermally of considerable stability, but a broad variety of reports on their rich reactivity have appeared up to now. Partial oxidation occurred with reaction of oxygen in solution [30]. With iodine, diodo tetrasilacyclo-tetrabutene is obtained [31]. When **11** was treated with trityl tetrakis[3,5-bis (trifluoromethyl)phenyl]borate protonated monoxide was obtained, probably formed under involvement of water contamination [32] (Scheme 23).

Additional halogenation reactions were also reported. With excess amount of iodine [33, 34] or bromine [35], tetrahedrane 11 underwent a substitution-addition reaction to give pentahalogenerated products (Scheme 24).

From the thus obtained pentaiodide 27, novel cage octasilane 30 was afforded by treatment with NaSi(t-Bu)₃ (Scheme 25). The neutral cluster 30 exhibits the rare structural feature of hemispheroidally coordinated unsubstituted vertices (see Sect. 4.1).

In 2003, the first silicon cage anion was reported by Ichinohe and Sekiguchi group. They reduced tetrasilatetrahedrane **12** with KC₈ in ether to obtain the anion [20]. The structure of the product was determined by X-ray crystallography. The skeletal bond lengths are similar to that of **12** (average 2.322 Å) except one bond that connected to the anionic silicon center (2.7288 Å). They also measured the ²⁹Si NMR, and single peak of tetrahedrane skeleton was observed at -153.6 ppm. Even at lower temperature (-73° C), no peak broadening or splitting manifested



Scheme 23 Reactions of tetrasilatetrahedrane with oxygen, iodine, and a trityl borate



Scheme 24 Reaction of tetrasilatetrahedrane with excess iodine or bromine



Scheme 25 Synthesis of cage octasilane

itself. The authors explained this observation with the rapid migration of the three substituents over the Si_4 skeleton (Scheme 26).

More recently, Klapötke's group in Munich reported further reactions starting from tetrahedrane 11 [36] (Scheme 27). They performed KC_8 reduction and obtained potassium salt of tetrahedrane anion 31. This anion is a stable orange



Scheme 26 Synthesis of potassium tetrasilatetrahedranide and substituents migration in solution



Scheme 27 Generation and reactions of potassium salt of tetrahedrane



Scheme 28 Reactions of potassium salt of tetrasilatetrahedranide 31 with alcohol

red solid at rt but decomposes in solution. The reaction of **31** with SiBr₄ resulted in the formation of cage octasilane **30** via ditetrahedranyl ($R_3Si_4-Si_4R_3$). Compound **30** could also be prepared in 88% yield from **31** by reaction with ICl.

When potassium salt **31** was treated with methanol or ethanol at rt, cyclotrisilane was obtained. Without bulky supersilyl groups, tetrahedrane framework could not survive to give eliminated product (Scheme 28). Although the tetrasilatetrahedranide salt **31** is not stable in solution at rt, the corresponding complex with 18-crown-6 is stable in solution, which was obtained in 56% yield by simply adding 18-crown-6 to a heptane solution of **31**. It is noteworthy that the same reaction in THF gave a product in which an Si–Si bond of **31** inserted into the 18-crown-6 ring [36].



Scheme 29 Reactions of potassium salt of tetrasilatetrahedranide 31 with SiCl₄

The reaction of **31** with SiBr₄ resulted in a formation of octasilane **30** as shown above; however, reaction with SiCl₄ gave a different product. Thus, treatment of **31** with SiCl₄ in THF at -78° C after filtration and recrystallization gave a pink-red solid. The crystallographic analysis revealed that the product was the novel spiro compound, dichlorononasilane **32** [37]. The reaction mechanism is shown in Scheme 29; the release of the strain of tetrahedrane is again a driving force.

4 Other Polyhedral Clusters

As seen from the results shown above, thanks to the recent development of rapid crystallographic analysis and possible handling of unstable species in an inert atmosphere, the number of isolated strained molecules and polysilicon cage compounds drastically increased in recent years.

4.1 Strained Cage Molecules

Synthesis of bicyclo[1.1.1]pentasilane was first synthesized by Kabe and Masamune's group in 1990. The reductive coupling of bulky aryl-substituted trichlorodisilane followed by treatment with dichlorosilane gave the target compound in 31% yield [38] (Scheme 30). After more than 20 years, Iwamoto's group in Sendai prepared silyl-substituted bicyclo[1.1.1]pentasilane **33** as air-stable colorless crystals. By application of a synthetic protocol (cleavage of silyl groups with KO'Bu) initially developed by Marschner et al. for oligosilanes, pentasila[*n*]staffanes **36** and **37** were obtained (catenated bicyclo[1.1.1]pentasilanes) [39] (Scheme 31).

All the compounds show very short nonbonding distances between bridgehead silicon atoms (e.g., 2.9768 Å for **33**). This value is much shorter than the sum of van der Waals radii of silicon atoms (4.20 Å). The bond lengths between bridgehead silicon atoms in **36** and **37** are similar to that of Si–TMS bond in spite of a catenated structure. Just like polysilanes, UV–vis spectra of pentasila[*n*]staffanes showed bathochromic shifts with increasing number of repeat units *n*, indicating the expansion of the σ -conjugated system. The ²⁹Si NMR peak for the bridgehead silicon atoms was observed at –99.7 ppm for **33**. This value is close to that of previously reported bicyclo[1.1.1]pentasilanes (–89.9 to –96.5 ppm) [38]. More recently, Breher's group reported the alkynyl-bridged bicyclo[1.1.1]pentane comprising silicon and tin [40].



Scheme 30 Synthesis of bicyclo[1.1.1]pentasilane



Scheme 31 Synthesis of pentasila[n]staffanes

Propellanes comprising heavier group 14 elements were identified as a central synthetic challenge in an article by Masamune in 1991 [41], and numerous synthetic experimental and theoretical approaches have been investigated since then. Although propellanes containing Sn were prepared by Kinoshita and Sita relatively early on [42], the syntheses of silicon or germanium homologues were only realized in 2009. Breher's group in Karlsruhe isolated first pentasila[1.1.1]propellane by the reaction of Mes₂SiCl₂ and hexachlorodisilane with LiNapht. The target compound was obtained as yellow crystals and found to be extremely sensitive to air and moisture [43]. The distance of two bridgehead silicon atoms was 2.636 Å and 13% longer than typical Si-Si single bond. On the other hand, the Si-Si bond length of t-Bu₃Si–Si(t-Bu)₃ was reported to be 2.697 Å [44]; therefore, the authors concluded that there exists a weak stretched bond between the bridgehead atoms. The 29 Si NMR peak of bridgehead atom was observed at -273.2 ppm and thus very high field reflecting the strained structure. Several reactions of this propellane were examined: H₂O, PhSH, PhOH, and Me₃SnH are readily added across the bridge as judged from preliminary reactions on NMR scale.

Pentagerma[1.1.1]propellane was prepared by the reaction from hexamesitylcyclotrigermane with lithium and GeCl₂·dioxane [45]. Better yields were realized



Scheme 32 Synthesis and reaction of pentasila[1,1,1]propellane



Scheme 33 Synthesis and reaction of pentagerma[1.1.1]propellane

by the reaction of Mes_2GeCl_2 with LiNapht in the presence of $GeCl_2$ ·dioxane (Scheme 32). This propellane was obtained as orange crystals and sensitive to air, but stable towards degassed water. The distance of two bridgehead atoms was 2.869 Å, and that was much longer than usual Ge–Ge bond (2.40 Å). The reaction with Me_3SnH was examined, and an addition product across the bridgehead atoms was obtained (Scheme 33).

Another strained cage molecule is tricyclo $[2.1.0.0^{2.5}]$ pentane, or "expanded tetrahedrane." Lee and Sekiguchi group isolated the first example of such a compound with heavier group 14 elements. As shown in Scheme 34, thermal reaction starting from substituted silole homolog [46] gave 2,4-disila-1-germatricyclo $[2.1.0.0^{2.5}]$ -pentane quantitatively as air-sensitive yellow crystals. The structure of this unique "mixed cage" was established unequivocally by X-ray crystallography, and a very long Ge–C bond (2.242 Å, 15% longer than normal value) was observed. The reaction with benzaldehyde resulted in the formation of norbornene-type adduct.

Later, the same group reported simpler cases [47]. The first pentasilatricyclo $[2.1.0.0^{2.5}]$ pentane was obtained by the reaction starting from calcium salt of tetrasilabicyclo[1.1.0] butane dianion prepared readily from tetrasilacyclobutadiene dianion $[(t-Bu_2MeSi)_4Si_4]_2^{-}\cdot 2K^+$. Monochloride **38** was obtained in 32% yield as yellow crystals. This monochloride served as a good precursor for the potassium salt **39**. This compound could be further transferred to silyl derivative **40** by the reaction with Me₃SiCl (Scheme 35). In the generation of potassium salt **39**, a 1,3-migration of silyl groups occurred from the anticipated anion, then further 1,2-migration afforded the final product **39** (Scheme 36). This reaction pathway



Scheme 34 Synthesis and reaction of 2,4-disila-1-germatricyclo[2.1.0.0^{2,5}]pentane



Scheme 35 Synthesis of pentasilatricyclo[2.1.0.0^{2,5}]pentane



Scheme 36 Migration of silyl groups

was confirmed by theoretical calculations. The isomerization was thought to be driven by the tendency that anionic charge is favorably located at cage atoms with greater s-character. The ²⁹Si NMR peaks of bridgehead atoms were observed at -222.4 and -217.1 ppm for **38**, -253.9 ppm for **39**, and -182.3 and -178.6 ppm for **40**. The structure of **39** was determined by X-ray analysis. In the crystals, **39** exists as a contact ion pair, and the potassium cation shows interaction with the π -system of phenyl substituent. This unique structure can also explain the silyl-groups migration in the synthesis of **39**. The distance between the bridgehead atoms was determined to be 2.3801 Å, a normal value for an Si–Si single bond.

The first synthesis of tetrasilabenzobenzvalene was reported in 2007 [48]. Starting from the same tetrasilacyclobutadiene dianion $[(t-Bu_2MeSi)_4Si_4]_2^{-}\cdot 2K^+$ as above, the reaction with *o*-dibromobenzene gave the target compound as air- and moisturesensitive yellow crystals (Scheme 37). X-ray crystallographic analysis revealed that all Si–Si bond lengths are within a normal range. For instance, the bridgehead Si–Si bond length was determined to be 2.3462 Å. The chemical shift of bridgehead silicon in ²⁹Si NMR was observed at -130.4 ppm in the expected high field region. The authors suggested the reaction mechanism as shown in Scheme 37. Thus, a transient Dewar-benzene would first be generated by [2+2] cycloaddition, then fast isomerization to give thermodynamically more stable benzvalene isomer would occur.



Scheme 37 Synthesis and reaction mechanism of tetrasilabenzobenzvalene



Scheme 38 Synthesis of first silicon cluster with unsubstituted vertex

In recent years, Scheschkewitz's group has reported many silicon clusters taking advantage of a reactive disilene as a starting compound. Their isolation of Tip-substituted disilenide anion 41 [49], silicon analog of vinyl anion, was expected to serve as a precursor for many unusual compounds. First result appeared in 2005. As shown in Scheme 38, reaction of 41 with SiCl₄ serendipitously gave 42, an Si₅ cluster with "naked" vertex silicon atom [50]. The yield was optimized up to 22-37%, varying because of the tedious separation from the systematically formed oxidation product of **41**. The result of ²⁹Si NMR supported that the structure of **42** was maintained in solution. Three peaks were observed at 7.4, -108.4, -124.8 ppm; non-substituted silicon's chemical shift was assigned to be -124.8 ppm by the measurement of 2D NMR spectrum. This compound forms red block crystals, and its UV-vis spectra show absorptions at 365 and 540 nm. The result of X-ray analysis indicated that the Si–Si bond between mono-tip silicon (2.306 Å) was shorter than the normal value, whereas other bonds were within normal range. The most astonishing point of this compound is that 42 represents the first example of an unsubstituted vertex silicon atom.

In 2010, Scheschkewitz's group introduced a tricyclic aromatic isomer of the elusive hexasilabenzene **43** [50]. The aromaticity of this compound was examined in detail by DFT-calculations. On the basis of the strongly negative NICS values and the pronounced stability of inversion-symmetric **43**, it was concluded that despite the presence of silicon atoms in the formal oxidation states of +II, +I and 0 compound **43** should be aromatic. The isomerism to hexasilabenzene (with a uniform formal oxidation state of +I) prompted the authors to coin the term "dimutational aromaticity." One year later, Scheschkewitz et al. also reported the thermal isomerization of **43** to hexasilane (bridged propellane) **44** [51] (Scheme 39). From the result of X-ray crystallographic analysis of **44**, several intriguing points were observed. Thus, the distance of bridgehead atoms was 2.7076 Å, and this value is much longer than previously reported untethered propellane [**43**] (2.636 Å,



Scheme 39 Synthesis and reaction of bridged propellane

Scheme 32). All the other bond lengths are within the typical range. Because the two "propeller blades" were connected by additional silicon atom, the angle of these blades was smaller than other two angles. The ²⁹Si NMR chemical shift of bridgehead silicon was -274.2 ppm, similar to that of Mes₆Si₅ propellane. The low-field resonance at 174.6 ppm was assigned to the untethered blade silicon atom, an exceedingly unusual value for a tetracoordinate silicon atom.

Treatment of **44** with Cl_2 or Br_2 afforded dihalo compounds showing similar reactivity to Si–Si single bonds. Interestingly, the bridgehead distance was only slightly shortened; 2.6810 Å for dichloride, and 2.6547 Å for dibromide. Similarly, reaction with iodine gave diiodo compound. On the other hand, the reaction with excess iodine in refluxing toluene resulted in the quantitative formation of a hexaiodocyclopentasilane and therefore in the contraction of the silicon scaffold [17].

Many other reactions were reported in an article in 2012 [17]. Unlike bridged propellane 44, compound 43 afforded complex mixture in the reaction of halogens. The authors utilized BiCl₃ as milder halogenation reagent, and a mixture of three halogenated compounds and 44 was obtained and separated. The main product 46 is the 1,2-Cl₂-isomer of the halogenation products of 44 (30%), a ladder-type tetrachloride and 45 were obtained in 10 and 2% isolated yield, respectively (Scheme 40). The structures of all products were determined unequivocally by X-ray crystallographic analysis. The generation of tetrachloride is explained by the reaction of 46 with additional chlorine at the longest Si–Si bond although isolated 46 did not react with excess BiCl₃.



Scheme 40 Halogenation of 43



Scheme 41 Thermal rearrangement of 46



Scheme 42 Thermal reaction of 43

Heating of dichloride **46** to 230° C until completely melted resulted in clean isomerization to afford **47** (Scheme 41). All these halogenated compounds should be excellent precursors of further complicated (or simple) silicon clusters.

In the thermal reaction from **43**, shown in Scheme **39**, a side product was obtained in a small quantity. Isolation and structure determination revealed that the product was core-expanded Si₁₁ cluster **48** (Scheme **42**). Again in this case, two vertices consist of unsubstituted silicon atoms with shorter bond distance (2.4976 Å) compared to those of **45** (2.7076 Å) or pentasilapropellane (2.66 Å). The reaction mechanism to form this complex compound is not clear yet.

4.2 Polysilicon and Polygermane Cage Molecules

Synthesis of polysilicon and polygermane clusters was a difficult task because separation and identification are much more difficult than smaller clusters. Nonetheless, recent development of rapid crystallographic analysis and handling unstable species made it possible to isolate a considerable number of those intriguing compounds. In this last chapter, recent reports of polysilicon and polygermane clusters are summarized.

$$Na[N(SiMe_{3})_{2}] + GeBr \xrightarrow{toluene} R = N(SiMe_{3})_{2}$$

Scheme 43 Synthesis of R₆Ge₈ cluster

In early 2003, Schnepf and Köppe in Karlsruhe reported Ge₈ cubic cluster with different approach [52]. They noticed that solid Ge(I) bromide would be a good source for the clusters, because this compound disproportionates above 90°C to produce germanium and germanium tetrabromide. Indeed, treatment of Na[N(SiMe₃)₂] with GeCl afforded Ge₈[N(SiMe₃)₂]₆ cluster as dark red crystals. The crystallographic analysis showed that this cluster consists of a cubane skeleton with two naked germanium atoms. Two different Ge–Ge bond lengths were observed; 2.67 Å for Ge(R)–Ge(R) and 2.50 Å for Ge(R)–Ge. In the crystal, two parallel toluene molecules are located above naked Ge atoms, bridging two cluster molecules in a manner (Scheme 43).

Later in the same year, Power's group in California reported the synthesis of unique octahedral clusters [53]. As shown in Scheme 44, treatment of bulky terphenyl-substituted chlorogermane and GeCl₂·dioxane with KC₈ in THF gave hexagermaoctahedrane with only two substituents. Similar reaction with SnCl₂ also afforded Sn₄Ge₂ cluster. The unsubstituted Ge₄ or Sn₄ moieties comprise perfectly square arrays. Spectral data (¹H and ¹³C NMR, and UV–vis spectra) showed no unusual features. The solution ¹¹⁹Sn NMR displayed a signal at 1,583 ppm, showing a significant downfield shift.

Decasilaadamantane represents a part of the bulk silicon lattice and has been a synthetic target for silicon chemists for a long time. In 2005, Marschner's group in Graz finally succeeded the synthesis [54]. They employed a rearrangement reaction with AlCl₃, not like the previously examined step-by-step synthesis and obtained the target compound in 78% yield (Scheme 45). The synthesis began with bicyclo[2.2.1]heptasilane [55], and treatment with *t*-BuOK and following cyclohexasilanylbromide afforded the precursor **48**. Rearrangement with catalytic AlCl₃ of **48** gave the target **49**. In solution, the ²⁹Si NMR spectrum showed three peaks at -4.8, -26.0, and -118.6 ppm, and these resonances were considerably downfield-shifted compared to (Me₃Si)₄Si or (Me₂Si)₆. This cage polysilane showed strong absorption at 222 nm (ϵ 120,000) in UV–vis spectrum. As expected all the bond lengths and angles were within normal range.

Bicyclo[2.2.1]heptasilane, appears in Scheme 45, and bicyclo[2.2.2]octasilane are also cage compounds. Without much strain, these compounds were already prepared in 1970s [56] and have been studied since then.

In 2013, Ishida and Kyushin group in Gunma reported the synthesis of Si_{16} cluster containing octasilacuneane core, an isomer of octasilacubane [57]. Reduction of tetrachlorotetra-*t*-butylcyclotetrasilane, readily available in two steps from dichlorodi-*t*-butyldiphenyldisilane, with sodium afforded the silicon cluster **50** in



Scheme 44 Synthesis of R₂Ge₆ and R₂Sn₄Ge₂ cluster



Scheme 45 Synthesis of decasilaadamantane 49

15% yield as air-sensitive orange crystals. Coincidently, this reaction condition is exactly same as that of octasilacubanes 1 and 3. No other isomers of 50 were observed in the reaction mixture. Apparently, only intractable polymers were generated as side products (Scheme 46).

The crystallographic analysis revealed a structure with C_2 symmetry axis. This compound contained many substructures like [3.2.1]propellane, [3.2.2]propellane, spiro[3.3]oligosilane, and spiro[4.3]oligosilane; all are previously unknown structures comprising silicon atoms. Interestingly, the bond lengths between unsubstituted bridgehead silicon atoms of [3.2.1]propellane structure were determined to be 2.384 and 2.361 Å and thus within the normal values. This feature is quite different from [1.1.1]propellane or related silicon clusters described above, all showing very long bridgehead distance. Four bridgehead atoms ([3.2.1]- and [3.2.2]propellanes) are included in this compound, and all these atoms adopted unusual trigonal monopyramidal structure. Each bridgehead silicon atom has a planar structure with



Scheme 46 Synthesis of Si₁₆ cluster containing octasilacuneane core

three connected silicon atoms, and the fourth bond was almost perpendicular ([3.2.2] propellane part) or about 60° angle ([3.2.1]propellane part) to these planes. The result of ²⁹Si CP-MAS NMR shows the expected eight signals. Among them, bridgehead signals were observed at -56.6, -62.4, and -71.8 ppm for those contained in cyclotrisilane rings, and the resonance of the fourth one contained in cyclotetrasilanes ring was observed between 25.0 and 39.0 ppm (unassigned). These features clearly show the difference of this larger-ring propellanes from smaller-ring propellanes. The absorption of **50** does not show clear band above 250 nm and tails into 570 nm with several shoulders at 345 and 380 nm. With many possible oligosilyl structures, the energy levels of this molecular are probably close with a small band gap, making a broad spectrum without distinct peaks.

5 Summary, Conclusions, Outlook

In this field, most intensive research activities appears to be accumulated in 1988–1993, first 5 years from the isolation of octasilacubane. Nonetheless, just after quarter century from the beginning, it seems that we are facing a turning point with a growing numbers of new clusters.

As a matter of fact, Table 1, shown in the introduction in this article, lacks two more platonic solid compounds: octahedrane and icosahedrane. This is because those compounds comprising group-14 elements were thought to be impossible to be prepared. Obviously, Scheschkewitz's result as well as Power's octahedrane opened a gate towards octahedranes. And for icosahedranes? Yes, silicon and higher group-14 elements can adopt pentacoordinated and hexacoordinated structure!

It is noteworthy that recent approaches often adopt reactions with mixing ligands and core-atom molecules which make the syntheses simple. This development is expected to continue from now on in attempt to bridge the evident analytical gap between silicon molecules and bulk silicon.

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Recent Advances in Silylene Chemistry: Small Molecule Activation En-Route Towards Metal-Free Catalysis

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Abstract Previously only known as fleeting, transient laboratory curiosities in the 1960s, silvlenes (species of the general type: Si^{II}R'R" where R' and R" are any σ or π -bonded substituents, home or heteroleptic) are now one of the most rigorously investigated classes of compounds in contemporary chemistry. The breakthroughs came in 1986 when Jutzi and co-workers isolated $Cp_{2}^{*}Si$: ($Cp^{*} = n^{5}-C_{5}Me_{5}$), the first isolable Si(II) compound, and later in 1994 with the discovery of the first *N*-heterocyclic silvlene by West and Denk, heralding the beginning of a bourgeoning era in low-valent silicon chemistry. Since these and other key discoveries, massive advances have been made in understanding and elucidating the nature of these reactive compounds, and their ability, for example, to activate small molecules, or behave as ligands in transition metal complexes which can perform a variety of catalytic or stoichiometric transformations. In this chapter, recent advances in silvlene chemistry will be presented, with a particular focus on developments in the last 10 years approximately. A key emphasis will rest on the reactivity of isolable silvlenes, including their coordination towards metals, with respect to small molecule bond activation, and potential catalytic transformations. Although metalcoordinated silvlene complexes have been shown to be catalytically useful in a variety of transformations, metal-free catalysis with silvlenes is still a target.

Keywords Acyclic silylenes · Base-stabilised silylenes · Carbocyclic silylenes · Catalysis · *N*-heterocyclic silylenes · Small molecule bond activation · π -coordinated silylenes

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Abbreviations

Ar	Aryl
Bu	Butyl
cod	Cyclooctadiene
concd	Concentrated
cot	Cyclooctatetraene
Ср	Cyclopentadienyld
Dipp	2,6-Bis-isopropylphenyl
DMAP	4-(Dimethylamino)pyridine
DMB	3,4-Dimethoxybenzyl
DME	1,2-dimethoxyethane
DMF	Dimethylformamide
DMPU	1,3-Dimethyl-3,4,5,6-tetrahydro-2(1H)-pyrimidinone
DMSO	Dimethyl sulfoxide
EDTA	Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid
equiv	Equivalent(s)
Et	Ethyl
h	Hour(s)
<i>i</i> -Pr	Isopropyl
KHMDS	Potassium hexamethyldisilazide potassium bis(trimethylsilyl)amide
LDA	Lithium diisopropylamide
LHMDS	Lithium hexamethyldisilazide lithium bis(trimethylsilyl)amide
LTMP	Lithium 2,2,6,6-tetramethylpiperidide
Me	Methyl
Mes	Mesityl 2,4,6-trimethylphenyl (not methanesulfonyl)
min	Minute(s)
mol	Mole(s)
Ph	Phenyl
Pr	Propyl
rt	Room temperature
8	Second(s)
t-Bu	<i>tert</i> -butyl

THF	Tetrahydrofuran
TMEDA	N,N,N',N' -tetramethyl- 1,2-ethylenediamine
TMS	Trimethylsilyl
Tol	4-Methylphenyl
Trip	2,4,6-Triisopropylphenyl

1 Introduction

In 1964, nearly 50 years ago, Skell and Goldstein first reported dimethylsilylene: SiMe₂, as a transient intermediate, which they generated in the gas phase by reduction of dimethylchlorosilane with sodium-potassium vapour at elevated temperatures [1]. Nearly 30 years later, however, the isolation of stable divalent silicon compounds of the type: SiR_2 (R = alkyl, aryl or *N*-alkyl/*N*-aryl substituents) was still an open question despite this early report, owing to their concomitant high reactivity. This situation finally changed in 1994 with the isolation of the first stable N-heterocyclic silvlene (NHSi) by Denk, West and co-workers [2], heralding a boost in modern silicon chemistry. In the 18 years since this groundbreaking discovery, breathtaking advances have been made in the synthesis of these previously elusive species, which can now be considered the vanguard in contemporary main group and organometallic chemistry. Silylenes now enjoy indefatigable research attention with many research groups in academia and industry world-wide feverishly pursuing their potential uses in catalysis, synthesis and stoichiometric transformations. This is not surprising, seeing as silicon is the second most abundant element in Earth's crust and is non-toxic, and given the bottleneck in metal-based resources, as well as the current energy crisis, alternative catalytic or stoichiometric transformations mediated by reactive silicon compounds represent a crucial scientific goal. The "holy grail" of silvlene chemistry is metal-free catalysis, which is a target yet to be realised but given the rapid development in the field, it is likely that this goal might soon be achieved.

Existing silylenes can be essentially categorised into five distinct classes: (I) *N*-heterocyclic silylenes (NHSis), (II) base-stabilised silylenes typically stabilised by *N*-heterocyclic carbenes, (III) carbocyclic silylenes, (IV) acyclic silylenes, and (V) silylenes bearing π -coordinated substituents (Fig. 1)^a.

Highlights of each of these sub-classes will be addressed separately in this chapter, with a brief introduction in each case, to place the recent developments

^a Compounds featuring silicon atoms in the oxidation state + II that are *strictly* two coordinate qualify as silylenes in the formal sense. Compounds bearing silicon atoms in the oxidation state + II with π -donating ligands are perhaps better described as monomeric silicon(II) compounds. Nevertheless, given the influence such compounds have had on the development of silylene chemistry in recent years, for our purposes, we relax this definition and include compounds bearing π -coordinated substituents on silicon(II) and treat them as "silylenes."



Fig. 1 Four distinct classes of silylenes: I: n = 1-3; p = 1 or 2; unsaturated functionalities in cyclical backbone may exist, R = bulky aromatic or aliphatic groups; X = halogen or some other substituent, for example O-*t*Bu. II: R' = bulky aromatic group, alkyl chain or halogen; B = Lewis base, for example *N*-heterocyclic carbene. III: R'' = Si(CH₃)₃ or aromatic substituent. IV: R''' = NR₂, SR or Boryl. V: R''' = bulky aromatic or imino substituent, for example

into a historical context. A particular focus on modern developments (the last 10 years approximately) in each sub-class, with a further underlying focus on reactivity at the silicon centre will be a connecting theme throughout the discussion. The propensity of the silylenes to engage in metal complex formation and the emerging reactivity of these complexes, particularly in terms of catalytic and small molecule activation reactions will also be interwoven into the discussion where appropriate.

2 Free *N*-heterocyclic Silylenes (NHSis) and Their Reactivity Towards Small Molecules

Silylenes belonging to this class are by far the most ubiquitous. Since the pioneering work of West and Denk et al., a large number of *N*-heterocyclic silylenes (NHSis) have made their appearance in the literature (Fig. 2) [2–14]. A rich and diverse chemistry has been developed for many of these NHSis, in particular NHSis **1–8**. This is showcased by their ability to act as ligands in transition metal complexes (discussed in the next section), or in the activation of small molecules and other synthetic transformations (**3** and **4** in particular), even without coordination with a metal. The bis-NHSis **9–11** have also recently been shown to act as bidentate



Fig. 2 A plethora of *N*-heterocyclic silylenes (NHSis). The early examples by Denk and Gehrhus are included for completeness. The NHSi **13** features a P,N donor stabilisation. (Dipp $= 2,6-iPr_2-C_6H_3$)

ligands in transition metal chemistry, opening the door to possible catalytic applications (discussed in next section), while bis-NHS is **12** and **13** are unique in that they feature two Si(I) centres, as opposed to all the other NHS is represented in Fig. 2, all bearing Si(II) centres. In this section we will discuss some recent



Scheme 1 Synthesis of the zwitterionic NHSi 3



Fig. 3 Molecular structure of 3 with thermal ellipsoids drawn at 50% probability level

highlights in the synthesis and reactivity of some NHSis particularly with respect to small molecule activation.

A starting point in our discussion on NHSis is the 2006 report from Driess et al. [3], who reported the synthesis of the unique zwitterionic NHSi (3) following the synthetic protocol highlighted in Scheme 1. It was found necessary to use TMEDA in the synthesis, as reaction of salt 15 [15] with SiBr₄, lead to a mixture of products where LSiBr₃ was not formed.

The solid-state structure of **3** was also determined by single crystal X-ray diffraction analysis (Fig. 3). This analysis revealed that **1** consists of a planar six-membered SiN_2C_3 ring with the alternating endocyclic C–C distances of



Scheme 2 (a) Mesometic forms for the NHSi 3. (b) Activation of various small molecules with NHSi 3

1.402(2) (C2–C3) and 1.389(2) Å (C3–C4) and that of the exocyclic C2–C1 double bond (1.412(2) Å), respectively (Fig. 3).

Calculations point to a preference of the mesomeric form 3'' (SiN₂ allyl-like form) over 3' (6π -heterofulvene ylide form) (Scheme 2a) as shown by the positive NICS values (NICS(O) = 3.6, NICS(1) = 1.4 ppm). The dipole moment calculation (DFT, B3LYP/6-311G) in 3 amounts to 1.8 D. Together with the theoretically calculated proton affinity of 3 (1,099 kJ mol⁻¹) due to the exocyclic methylene group, an ylide-like character was suggested for 3.

The NHSi 3 has shown its robust and rich reactivity in a variety of small molecule activations. This is potentially a result of its zwitterionic nature with



Fig. 4 (a) Solid-state molecular structure of water activation product (18), with thermal ellipsoids drawn at 50% probability level. The H atoms, except those at Sil and C1, are omitted for clarity. (b) ORTEP representation of **43** thermal ellipsoids drawn at 50% probability level. The H atoms have been omitted for clarity

nucleophilic and electrophilic sites at the silicon centre and an additional nucleophilic site in the 4-position of the backbone of the ligand system. Some representative small molecule activation reactions effected by **3** are shown in Scheme 2b.

Treatment of **3** with the Lewis acid borane $B(C_6F_5)_3$ leads to the formation of the zwitterionic NHSi-borane adduct **19**, while with the reaction with the protonating reagent $[H(OEt_2)_2]^+[B(C_6F_5)_4]^-$ affords the unique cationic silyliumylidene **20** through protonation of the Si(II) centre [16, 17]. Moreover, the reaction of **3** with Me₃SiOTf affords, after some time in the thermodynamically favoured 1,1 addition product over Si (**21**). The formation of **21** is assumed to proceed via the unstable 1,4-adduct **22** which undergoes isomerisation to the thermodynamic product over a period of some days.

The reactivity of **3** towards small molecules is further showcased by its ability to activate water: The unexpected siloxy silylene **18** results from exposure of solutions of **3** to very small amounts of water. This is achieved by slow diffusion of water into a hexane solution of **3** at low temperatures whereby **18** crystallises as brown-red crystals from the solution. Compound **18** can be regarded as a mixed-valent disiloxane with one Si(IV) and one Si(II) centre bridged by an oxygen atom (Fig. 4a).

Noteworthy is the different reactivity of **3** to PH_3 compared to AsH_3 . In the former case, the simple 1,1-addition product at Si, **23**, is observed, whilst in the latter case, due to H migration from the analogous 1,1 product (**24**) into the backbone, an unusual arsasilene LSi(H) = AsH species, **25**, is formed (Scheme 3). Further, extensive studies have showcased the extended ability of **3** to engage in the



Scheme 3 Small activation reactions effected by NHSi 3

activation of other small molecules such as ammonia, hydrazines and hydrazone [18, 19], resulting in **26–29**, respectively (Scheme 3) [20, 21].

Strikingly, NHSi **3** has even been shown to activate alkynes (Scheme 4) [22, 23]. Depending on the reaction conditions, a [2 + 1] cycloaddition product can be obtained (**30** or **31**), or the expected 1,1 addition product (C–H activation over the Si centre) (**32** or **33**). Noteworthy is that **30** cannot be converted into **32**, (or **31–33**) due to kinetic reasons, which was confirmed by DFT studies.

A plethora of further investigations have been carried out with a large array of other small molecules involving **3**, including P_4 [24], C–H or C–F bond activation reactions of aromatic systems [25], activation of haloalkanes and halosilanes [26], activation of unsaturated organic groups [27, 28], coordination of NHCs [29, 30] and finally activation of CO₂ and NO₂ with species resulting from the aforementioned systems [31]. These studies provide further testimony to the exciting and rich chemistry afforded by NHSi **3**.

The N-donor stabilised chlorosilylene **4**, from the Roesky group, has also enjoyed substantial attention in recent years, for example with respect to the activation of small molecules. Accordingly, diphenylacetylene can be activated by **4**, resulting in the adduct **34**, which upon further reaction with **4** forms the intriguing dinuclear adduct **35** (Scheme 5).



Scheme 4 Activation of acetylene and phenyl acetylene by the zwitterionic NHSi 3. Depending on the reaction conditions, either a [2 + 1] cycloaddition product (30, 31) can result or the 1,1-addition over the Si(II) centre (32, 33)



Scheme 5 Activation of diphenylacetylene by NHSi 4 resulting in adduct 34, which upon further reaction with another equivalent of 4 results in the dinuclear compound 35



Scheme 6 Activation of benzophenone and benzil by NHSi 4

The fascinating reactivity of benzophenone and benzil towards NHSi 4 has recently been reported by Roesky and co-workers [32]. Reaction of 4 with benzophenone results via [1 + 2] cycloaddition in the first example of a siloxirane 36 with a three-membered SiOC ring (Scheme 6). Moreover, the reaction with equimolar amounts of benzil led to the formation of 37 by way of a [1 + 4] cycloaddition reaction in good yield (Scheme 6).

The related Si(I) dimer (12) (for an excellent, detailed and up-to-date review on the reactivity of interconnected bis-silylenes such as 12, see [33]) can also activate



Scheme 7 Selected reactivity studies of the dinuclear Si(I) compound 12

acetylenes as highlighted by its reaction with two molar equivalents of diphenylacetylene, resulting in a disilabenzene (**38**) [34]. The NICS value was calculated at -3.6 ppm for the ring system, presenting some indication of aromatic character. The reactions of **12** with benzophenone and benzil have also been reported, resulting in the former case in an interesting oxo-bridged dimer system (**39**) and in the latter case by way of a [1 + 4] cycloaddition reaction to give the adduct **40** (Scheme 7) [35].

3 *N*-heterocyclic Silylene (NHSi) Transition Metal Complexes and Their Reactivity^b

We have recently (2012) comprehensively reviewed all NHSi transition metal complexes, where we showed that a large array of NHSi complexes from group 4 to group 10 now exist [38, 39]. In this section we will limit the discussion to recent and representative examples of NHSi complexes that have been implicated in catalytic transformations, or interesting small molecule activation reactions over the last few years.

^b We concentrate the discussion on NHSi transition metal complexes and omit, for the sake of brevity, neutral or cationic silylene complexes of the type $LnM = SiR_2$. For excellent reviews on these complexes, see: [36, 37]



Scheme 8 NHSi-Ni(0) complexes based on the zwitterionic NHSi 3

In 2009 the latent ability of the zwitterionic NHSi **3** to coordinate with Ni(0) upon reaction with the precursor Ni(cod)₂ in aromatic solvents, resulting in (η^6 -arene)Ni NHSi complexes **41–43** (Fig. 4b), was shown [40, 41]. These complexes have proven to readily exchange the η^6 -arene for three CO ligands upon reaction with CO, resulting in **44**. Moreover, reaction with the Lewis acidic borane B(C₆F₅)₃ resulted in **45** (Scheme 8), by attack of the Lewis acid in the 4-position of the ligand backbone, in analogy with the reaction of the same borane with silylene **3**.

The complex **44** was found to be an excellent starting material for a wide range of further small molecule activation reactions (Scheme 9) [42, 43]. In general, owing to the presence of the protecting Ni(CO)₃ group, a 1,4-addition pattern is observed over the Si(II) centre upon reaction with substrates as exemplified by products **46–51**. This is in contrast to the reactivity of small molecules with the free silylene (*vide supra*) which can exhibit 1,1-addition chemistry (for example, the activation of NH₃). These findings emphasise the different reactivity pattern of NHSi **3** induced by coordination with a transition metal fragment.

A further highlight in the reactivity of 44 is its ability, after suitable synthetic modification, to stoichiometrically effect the hydrosilylation of alkynes (Scheme 10) [44, 45]. In this instance, reaction of 44 with HCl initially affords 52, which by treatment with Li[HBEt₃] can be readily converted to 53. The hydrido-NHSi complex 53 serves as an ideal starting material for the hydrosilylation of alkynes, resulting for example, in product 54.

Some interesting NHSi complexes have also been useful in a variety of catalytic reactions, as opposed to stoichiometric transformations, outlined above. A good example is the bis-NHSi complex **55** (Fig. 5) which can be prepared by reaction of NHSi **9** with in situ generated (η^5 -cyclopentadienyl)cobalt(0). The complex **55** was shown to be catalytically active in the [2 + 2 + 2] cyclotrimerisation of substituted alkynes (Scheme 11).



Scheme 9 Activation of various small molecules using the NHSi-Ni complex 44, showcasing its 1,4-addition reactivity pattern in contrast to the "free" NHSi, 3 which can also exhibit a 1,1-addition over the Si(II) centre



Scheme 10 Hydrosilylation with an alkyne using the hydrido-NHSi complex 53

A further, seminal example of catalytic activity associated with NHSi complexes is that of Fürstner and co-workers, who reported a rare example of a dinuclear Pd-NHSi complex prepared by the treatment of **1** with $Pd(PPh_3)_4$ affording $[Pd_2(\mu^2-1)_2(PPh_3)_2]$ (**56**) (Fig. 6) [46]. The latter was found to be effective in the Suzuki coupling of aryl boronic acids with bromoarenes (Scheme 12).

Roesky and co-workers have reported a Pd-based NHSi complex obtained by reaction of NHSi 1 with the Pd precursor, $[Pd(\eta^3-C_3H_5)Cl]_2$ affording the



Fig. 5 ORTEP representations of the solid-state structure of complex 55, active in the cyclotrimerisation of substituted alkynes. Thermal ellipsoids are set at 50%; H atoms have been omitted for clarity



Scheme 11 Catalytic trimerisation of substituted alkynes using the pre-catalyst 55



Fig. 6 ORTEP representations of the solid-state structures of the dinuclear Pd complex **56**. Thermal ellipsoids are set at 50%; H atoms have been omitted for clarity; tBu and phenyl groups are represented by wire-frame



Scheme 12 Catalytic activity of Pd complex 56 by Fürstner and co-workers



Scheme 13 Synthesis of square-planar NHSi-Pd complex 57 which is suitable for Heck coupling of styrene and bromoacetophenone



Scheme 14 Synthesis of novel pincer-type Si(II) or Ge(II) ligand systems and their reactivity toward Ir and Rh precursors

mononuclear complex $[PdCl(\eta^3-C_3H_5)(1)]$ (57), found to be effective in the Heck coupling of styrene and bromoacetophenone, further showcasing the potential of these complexes [47] (Scheme 13).

Finally, very recently we reported the use of the pincer ligand system **10** which upon reaction with various group 10 precursors result in Ir- and Rh-based NHSi complexes (Scheme 14), which are catalytically active. These complexes catalytically affect the C–H borylation of arenes with pinacolborane (Scheme 15) [48, 49]. The main aspect of this work is a comparison to analogous and established


Scheme 15 Catalytic C–H hydroborylation of arenes with pinacolborane with in situ generated 60 as pre-catalyst

P(III) donor systems, where it can readily be shown that the novel Si(II) and Ge(II) pincer systems are much better σ donor ligands, thereby tuning catalytic activity.

4 Base-Stabilised Silylenes of the Type: SiR₂←:B

Silylenes of this type are reviewed in detail elsewhere in this book. This serves only as a brief summary to put these developments into context with respect to other silylenes. The independent and simultaneous reports of Filippou and co-workers [50] and Roesky's group [51] in 2009 showed that facile entry to such silylenes are indeed possible. The NHC \rightarrow SiCl₂ (61) was synthesised in a straightforward manner as shown in Scheme 16.

Filippou and co-workers successfully isolated the dibromo analogue of **61**, using a different and equally elegant synthetic approach. In their report, reaction of the NHC directly with SiBr₄ afforded a Si(IV) intermediate **62** which upon reduction with KC₈ afforded the desired NHC-silylene complex **63** with concomitant KBr loss (Scheme 17).

Filippou and co-workers later also showed that it is possible to stabilise silylenes of the type NHC \rightarrow Si(Cl)Ar (Ar = sterically demanding aryl substituent; NHC = *N*heterocyclic carbene) [52]. In their 2010 report, Silanes of the type SiCl₂HAr (Ar = 2,6-R₂C₆H₃; R = Trip = 2,4,6-*i*-Pr₃C₆H₂ OR R = Mes = 2,4,6-Me₃C₆H₂) [53, 54] were reacted with the NHC (Im-Me₄) elegantly affording the desired NHC-stabilised arylsilylenes (**64** and **65**) and Im-Me₄·HCl (Scheme 18).

Arylchlorosilylene complex **65** paved the way for the isolation of the first neutral metal complex featuring a triple bond between a transition metal atom and silicon (Tilley and co-workers reported [CpMo(dmpe)H \equiv Si-Mes] (dmpe = 1,2-bis (bimethylphosphino)ethane) as a complex with "considerable silylidyne character" in 2003, but the possibility of an interaction between the H and the Si atom could not be entirely excluded. See: [55]). Although various examples of complexes featuring transition metals participating in a triple bond interaction with the heavy homologues of Ge, Sn and Pb exist (See as examples: [56–63]), no examples for Si existed until 2010. However, by using **65** as a suitable Si(II) precursor, via an NHC-stabilised intermediate **66**, Filippou and co-workers succeeded in 2010 in the isolation of the first silylyne (also called silylidyne) complex (**67**) (Scheme 19) [61, 62].



Scheme 16 Access to the first dichlorosilylene-NHC complex 61. (Dipp = 2,6-diisopropyphenyl)



Scheme 17 Synthetic approach to the first example of a dibromosilylene stabilised by an NHC (63). (Dipp = 2,6-diisopropyphenyl)



Scheme 18 Synthetic approach to the successful isolation of NHC-stabilised arylsilylene chlorides 64 and 65

Finally an NHC-stabilised dibromosilylene, similar to **63** with the exception that the NHC is saturated in the backbone (**63-b**), has also been reported to engage in interesting chemistry with Cr precursors [64]. Accordingly, reaction of this silylene with Li[CpCr(CO)₃] afforded the novel halo-substituted NHC-stabilised silylene complex [Cp(CO)₂ = {SiBr(SIDipp)}] (**68**) with concomitant LiBr formation (Scheme 20).

More recently, Cui and co-workers have also reported some rare examples of silylenes belonging to this class (69b and 69c) in Scheme 21 [65].



Scheme 19 Successful entry to the first silylyne complex of a transition metal (67), accessible by using the silylene precursor 65



Scheme 20 Synthetic access to the novel halo-substituted NHC-stabilised silylene Cr complex 68 by salt metathesis with Li[CpCr(CO)₃]



Scheme 21 Dehydrohalogenation approach to novel base-stabilised silol-1-ylidenes 69b, c, and the concomitant reactivity towards phenylacetylene-affording 69d

5 Carbocyclic Silylenes

Silylenes belonging to this class, as with those discussed in the previous section, are far scarcer compared to NHSis. The obvious reason for this, again, is the lack of π -donation from flanking N-atoms bearing lone pairs, which can stabilise the Si(II) centre. In fact, only three examples of silylenes in this class have been reported to



Fig. 7 Rare examples of carbocyclic silylenes reported to date

date. Kira and co-workers were the first to report a carbocyclic silylene – a dialkylsilylene 2,2,5,5-tetrakis(trimethylsilyl)silacyclopentane-1,1-diyl (**70**) as early as 1999 [66]. From our own group, we recently reported the syntheses of aromatic phosphorus ylide-stabilised carbocyclic silylenes, (**71a** and **71b**) [67], and even more recently Iwamoto and co-workers reported another rare example of a silylene in this class (**72**) [68], similar to the seminal example by Kira (Fig. 7).

Carbocylic silylene **70** was prepared by reduction using KC₈ as gentle reagent, starting from the corresponding dibromosilane **73** in a straightforward manner and isolated as orange crystals in 75% yield. The silylene **72** was prepared in an analogous way from dibromosilane **74** (Scheme 22). The silylenes **71a** and **71b** were also accessed by reductive KC₈ dehalogenation from the corresponding dibromosilanes **75a** and **75b**. The latter were prepared from the corresponding bisphosphonium dibromide salts **76a** and **76b** (Scheme 23).

Silylene **70** was found on the basis of a single-crystal X-ray diffraction analysis to exist in the solid state in monomeric form, while, interestingly, silylene **72** is found to exist either in monomeric form or as dimer (disilene) **77**. Recrystallisation of a sample of **72** in fact yields both products, the monomer as yellow (**72**) and the dimer (**77**) as red crystals. On the basis of NMR and UV–vis studies, it was found that in solution, an equilibrium between **72** and **77** exists (Scheme 24; Fig 8).

The phosphorus ylide-stabilised silylenes **71a** and **71b** were spectroscopically characterised and confirmed on the basis of trapping experiments. Reactions with 3,5-di-*t*-Bu-*o*-benzoquinone in THF in both cases resulted in the [4 + 1] respective cycloaddition adduct, which has been observed as a hallmark reactivity of



Scheme 22 Synthesis of carbocyclic silylenes 70 and 72 by reductive dehalogenation of the corresponding bromosilanes 73 and 74, respectively



Scheme 23 Synthesis of carbocyclic silylenes 71a and 71b



Scheme 24 Solution equilibrium between the monomeric silylene 72 and the dimeric form (disilene) 77

silylenes [69]. Detailed DFT investigations on **71a** were additionally carried out to further characterise the bonding situation in the molecule.

The HOMO in **71a** is comprised of ten electrons which includes the P–C ylide bonds (Fig. 9). This orbital is comparable with the HOMO of the unsaturated NHSi (1) by Denk [70, 71]. The [HOMO-1] orbital is also a π -bonding type orbital of the ring system, while the lone pair on the silicon atom is reflected by the [HOMO-2] orbital.



Fig. 8 ORTEP representation of carbocyclic silylene 72. Thermal ellipsoids are set at 50% probability level; H atoms have been omitted for clarity



Fig. 9 Calculated molecular orbitals of silylene 71a [HF/6-311G(d)]/B3LYP/6-31G(d)]. (a) HOMO, (b) [HOMO-1], (c) [HOMO-2], (d) LUMO, (e) [LUMO + 8] (adapted from [67] with permission from the authors)

This is in contrast to NHSis which generally have this orbital as the HOMO-1, most likely due to the stabilisation of the lone pair by the π -system. Another difference is the LUMO, which for NHSis exhibit significant π character located to a large extent at the Si centre. The LUMO of **71a** is constricted to the triphenylphosphine substituents.

Although carbocyclic silylenes are rare, at least in the case of the silylene by Kira (70), extensive reactivity studies have been reported over the last 13 years. (For an excellent review on silylene 70 and its reactivity up until 2007, see: [72].) This has enabled vast insights into the reactivity and behaviour of silylenes of this class towards a plethora of small molecule activation reactions, or interesting



chemical transformations. We will now highlight some selected reactivity investigations of silylene **70** that have appeared in recent years.

The first examples of dialkylsubstituted silicon double bonds to chalcogen atoms (S, Se and Te) were shown to be easily accessible by reaction of **70** with Me₃P=S; elemental selenium or elemental tellurium, respectively [73]. These reactions lead from good to excellent yields in the silanethione $L_HSi=S$ (**78**) (72%) ($L_H = ring$ cycle attached to Si in **70**), silaselone $L_HSi=Se$ (**79**) (92%), and finally silatellone $L_HSi = Te$ (**80**) (99%), respectively. This report is truly remarkable, since it shows the ability of the silylene **70** to activate the heavier chalcogens in their elemental form (Fig. 10).

The report also highlights the further reactivity of the emerging LSi = X (X = S, Se, Te) compounds towards water and methanol, affording $L_HSi(XH)$



(OR) R = Me or H. In addition, in the case of **79** and **80**, reaction with isoprene in toluene (100°C) affords the [2 + 4] cycloaddition adducts (**81** and **82**), respectively, in a regiospecific manner. Scheme 25 provides an overview of these reactions.

The [1 + 2] cycloaddition behaviour of **70** towards a variety of alkenes and alkynes has also been reported (Scheme 26) [74]. The reactions of **70** with ethylene, for example, afford silirane **83** in high yield. Similarly, reaction with Z-2-butene afforded silirane **84**, but due to the substantial steric hindrance in **70**, the analogous reaction with E-2-butene afforded a complex reaction mixture. In analogy, reactions with alkynes afforded silirenes as shown by the reaction of **70** with ethyne, affording silarene **85**. Other examples of alkenes and alkynes are discussed in the same report, all leading to [1 + 2] rather than [1 + 4] cycloaddition products.

The ability of **70** to activate sterically demanding organic isocyanides of the type RNC (R = Dipp or adamantyl), affording silaketenimines with strong allenic character was also reported in 2006 by Kira and co-workers [75]. Tokitoh and co-workers reported a series of silaketenimines of the type $R'_2Si \leftarrow CNR''$ (R' and R'' = bulky substituents) in 2003 but concluded that these are best described on the basis of their spectroscopic and theoretical work as silylene isocyanide complexes [76]. The reaction of silylene **70** with RNC (R = Dipp) afforded the allenic silaketenimines $L_HSi=C=N$ -Dipp (**86**), in analogy with the reaction with RNC (R = adamantyl) affording $L_HSi=C=N$ -Ad (**87**). The single-crystal X-ray data of **86** and **87** revealed C–N bond distances that were rather longer than typical C–N triple bonds, and Si–C bond lengths that were typical of silaethenes, providing evidence for the allenic structure (Fig. 11).

Moreover, their computational investigations reveal a dependence on the nature of the substituents on the N and Si atoms as to whether the emerging compound will



Fig. 11 ORTEP representation of 86. Thermal ellipsoids are set at 50% probability level; H atoms have been omitted for clarity



Fig. 12 Resonance forms of silaketenimines found to be dependent on the nature of the substituents $(R_1\!-\!R_3)$

be allenic, zwitterionic or simply coordinated isocyanide, as in the case of Tokitoh's examples. In general, (*N*-aryl)diarylsilaketenimines are zwitterionic, while (*N*-alkyl)dialkylsilaketenimines are rather allenic in nature (Fig. 12).

A more recent study exploring the reactivity of carbocyclic silylene **70** with a variety of ketones was published in 2010, further showcasing its rich and diverse chemistry [77]. In this context, reaction of **70** with adamantone, acetone, benzo-phenone and finally cyclopropenones yielded siloxirane (**88**), silyl enol ether (**89**), 2-oxa-silacyclopentene (**90**) and cyclopropenylsilares (**91**). respectively, in each instance in a relatively selective way (Scheme 27).

The ability of silylene **70** to coordinate transition metals was first reported in 2008 [78]. In this report, it was stated that the reaction of two equivalents of **70** with $[Pd(PCy_3)_2]$ afforded the 14 electron Pd complex **92** (Scheme 28). The X-ray structure of **92** revealed a linear arrangement of the two silylene ligands with a Si1-Pd-Si2 angle of 179.28(4)°. Both silicon centres are planar, as evidenced by the sum of angles around them approximating 360°. The two silylene ligands are orientated in an orthogonal manner relative to each other, which is likely due to the steric strain associated with the SiMe₃ groups.



Scheme 27 Reactivity of carbocyclic silylene 70 towards various ketones, yielding an interesting array of different products, depending on the nature of the ketone employed



Scheme 28 Synthesis of the 12 valence electron Pd(0) complex 92

Of particular interest in this report is the ability of complex **92** to activate H_2 at ambient conditions affording a bis(hydrosilyl)palladium complex (**93**) in high yield (84%) (Scheme 29). Complex **93** is remarkable in that it is the first example of a 12 valence electron Pd complex and that it exhibits a bent geometry around the Pd centre. Further reaction of **93** with H_2 results in the formation of dihydrosilane **94** in near quantitative yields (97%).

Kira and his group also more recently revealed the potential of **70** to coordinate with nickel and platinum (and other palladium) complexes, affording a further array of group 10 complexes bearing electron-rich phosphane ligands or arenes as supporting ligands [79].



Scheme 29 H_2 activation mediated by complex 92 affording the unprecedented 12 valence electron Pd complex 93. Further reaction of 93 with H_2 affords 94

6 Acyclic Silylenes Bearing Only σ-bonded Substituents

Silvlenes belonging to this class are the rarest silicon(II) compounds. In fact, until 2012 they had only been observed as transient intermediates, generally obtained under photolytic conditions and confirmed to exist on the basis of trapping experiments. Notable earlier examples include the seminal bis(tri-tert-butylsilyl) silvlene, shown to exist as a triplet in the ground state on the basis of EPR investigations [80]; or the earlier reported singlet bis(diisopropylamino)silylene [81]. Other seminal examples include Mes₂Si: [82] and Trip₂Si: [83] which are only stable until 77 K and have been characterised by low-temperature UV-vis spectroscopy. The observation of a triplet ground state in the transient bis(tri-tertbutylsilyl)silylene is noteworthy, since silylenes generally exhibit a singlet ground state. This spectroscopic observation was suggestive that acyclic silylenes might feature an accessible triplet ground state, potentially increasing their reactivity, and opening up new potential to various catalytic and or small molecule activation possibilities, previously exclusively the domain of transition metal complexes. However, until very recently acyclic silylenes have remained elusive and could not be isolated as stable materials at room temperature.

The first reports of isolable silylenes belonging to this class only appeared very recently (for a recent perspective, see: [84]) and was simultaneously reported by Power and co-workers [85] and the groups of Jones, Mountford, Aldridge and Kaltsoyannis [86]. Power's approach employs reduction of the Si(IV) precursor SiBr₂(SAr^{Me}₆)₂ (Ar^{Me}₆ = 2,6-Mes₂-C₆H₃) (**95**) with the use of Jones' mild Mg(I)-Mg(I) reducing agent (IMesMg)₂ [87] affording :Si(SAr^{Me}₆)₂ **96** as a colourless



Scheme 30 Power's approach to accessing an acyclic silylene 96. Mild reduction using Jones' Mg(I)-Mg(I) reagent for the reduction of Si(IV) precursor 95 to afford the acyclic silylene 96 in moderate yields. (IMes = $[(2,4,6-trimethylphenyl)NC(CH_3)]_2CH)$



Scheme 31 Jones, Mountford, Aldridge and Kaltsoyannis' approach to accessing the acyclic silylene 99 upon reaction of the Si(IV) tribromo precursor 97 with lithium boranide 98

compound in 51% yield (Scheme 30). Jones and co-workers accessed their amino boryl acyclic silylene by reacting the Si(IV) precursor SiBr₃{N(tms)(Dipp)} (97) with two equivalents of the lithium compound $(thf)_2Li[B(NDippCH)_2]$ (98) as a nucleophilic source of a boryl group. This procedure afforded the desired silylene : Si{N(tms)(Dipp)}[B(NDippCH)_2] (99) with concomitant LiBr and [B(NDippCH)_2] Br formation (Scheme 31).

Even more recently, Jones, Mountford, Aldridge and Kaltsoyannis and co-workers reported a one-pot synthetic route to accessing a silyl-substituted two-coordinate acyclic silylene :Si{N(Dipp)(tms)}{Si(SiMe_3)_3} (100) [88] obtained by facile reduction of the Si(IV) precursor SiBr₃{N(Dipp)(tms)}(102) with (thf)₂K[Si(SiMe_3)_3] which afforded 100. Noteworthy is that attempted reduction of 102 with the standard reducing agent KC₈ afforded the dinuclear species {N(Dipp)(tms)}SiBr₂-Br₂Si{N(Dipp)(tms)} (103).

Single-crystal X-ray diffraction investigations of the silylenes **96**, **99** and **100** were also carried out. The most important feature of these three compounds is the observation that bonding angles formed by the central Si atom and its two substituents are rather bent (Figs. 13 and 14).



An inspection of the calculated HOMO-LUMO energy gaps in silylenes **96**, **99** and **100** seems to suggest that this parameter is influenced (or dictated) by the size of the angle formed by the two substituents bound to the central silicon(II) atom. Not unexpectedly since an idealised triplet state is linear, the inspection of the experimental and computational results obtained so far reveals that the energy gap decreases as the X–Si–X angle approaches linearity. Moreover, in the case of **99** and **100** the corresponding singlet–triplet energy gaps were also computed and exhibit a rather modest separation in favour of the singlet ground state

-1.99

100

Silylene	DFT calculated HOMO–LUMO gap (eV)	Calculated $\Delta E_{S,T}$ (kJ mol ⁻¹)	X–Si–X angle (in the solid state) [°]	
96	-4.26	_	90.5	
99	-2.04	103.9	118.1	

103.7

 Table 1
 Summary of HOMO-LUMO values for silylenes 96, 99 and 100, their corresponding singlet-triplet gaps and the corresponding X-Si-X bond angles



Scheme 32 Facile H_2 and C–H bond activation by silylene 99, affording the products 104 and 105, respectively

(Early computational work by Apeloig et al. revealed that the singlet-triplet energy gap of acyclic silylenes depends essentially on electronic and steric factors. See: [89]). These results are shown in Table 1.

Strikingly, silylene **99**, as a likely consequence of the relatively small singlet-triplet energy gap, is capable of activating dihydrogen at ambient conditions, and performing activation of alkyl C–H bonds at 50°C. Accordingly, reaction of **99** with H₂ (or HD) affords the dihydrido-silane **104** (Scheme 32), while gentle heating of **99** affords, via an intramolecular C–H bond activation of the C–H bond of one of the the iPr groups of the Dipp ligand, the product **105** (Scheme 32). In close analogy, the related silyl-silylene **100** can also activate H₂ affording the adduct $H_2Si\{N(Dipp)(tms)\}\{Si(SiMe_3)_3\}(106)$ under analogous reaction conditions and also undergoes an intramolecular C–H bond activation. In contrast, **96** cannot activate H₂ at ambient conditions, and this again is most likely a consequence of a somewhat higher singlet-triplet energy barrier (*vide supra*).

Although an isolable and room-temperature stable acyclic silylene that exists in a triplet ground state has yet to be isolated, the isolation of silylene 96, 99 and 100

116.9

represents striking milestones along the way to this target. The propensity of the latter two silylenes to activate H_2 or undergo C–H activation is indeed testimony of how tuning the singlet–triplet energy gap is of crucial importance in attaining silylene systems capable of mimicking transition metal-mediated transformations.

7 Silylenes Bearing π and/or σ -coordinated Ligands

The first isolable Si(II) compound, (η^5 -C₅Me₅)Si: (**106**) was reported in 1986 by Jutzi and co-workers [90, 91]. Compound **106** represents a hypercoordinate electron-rich nucleophilic silylene based on its reactivity towards a range of substrates, which has been vigorously investigated. (For a review on the rich reactivity of decamethylsilicocene up until 2003, see: [92].) Noteworthy is its ability to activate a range of small molecules, particularly electrophilic substrates such as heterocumulenes (CO₂, COS, RNCS, etc.), resulting in reactive intermediates of the type (η^5 -C₅Me₅)Si = X (X = O, X = S) which then undergo further transformations to a range of thermodynamically stable products. The isolation of **106** was indeed a significant milestone in silylene chemistry, and in this section we will discuss its synthetic use in accessing further silylenes bearing either two π -coordinated ligands (such as **106**), or a combination of one π -coordinated substituent on the Si(II) centre.

In 2004 Jutzi and co-workers reported the synthesis of the extraordinary silyliumylidene salt $[(\eta^5-C_5Me_5)Si:]^+[B(C_6F_5)_4]^-$ **107** [93]. The elegant synthesis involved the reaction of **106** with the proton transfer reagent $[Me_5C_5H_2]^+$ $[B(C_6F_5)_4]^-$ in dichloromethane which afforded the desired product **107**, with concomitant formation of the two-molar equivalents of C_5Me_5H (Scheme 33).

The synthesis of **107** was found to be anything but trivial, as it was found that the choice of proton source is crucial. The reaction of **106** with HBF₄·OEt₂, for example, afforded the short-lived silylene intermediate SiF(C₅Me₅), which then underwent self-condensation affording a polymer. Moreover, proton transfer to **106** with HBF₄ afforded by way of the dimer species ${SiF(C_5Me_5)}_2$ the same polymer, both results suggesting the necessity of a strictly non-nucleophilic (innocent) anion.

The cation in **107** can be thought of as a stable derivative of the parent silyliumylidene SiH⁺, an extremely reactive species first observed in the 1970s by Douglas and Lutz [94] and later identified in the solar spectrum, and postulated to be an intermediate in space [95]; (For a recent example of a silyliumylidene [CISi:]⁺ stabilised by a Bis(iminophosphorane) chelate ligand, see: [96]). This makes the isolation of **107** even more remarkable. Noteworthy in terms of applications is the ability of **107** to catalytically convert 1,2-dimethoxyethane (DME) to 1,4-dioxane and dimethyl ether, representing an extremely rare example of a "metal-free" catalytic transformation (Scheme 34) [97]. Furthermore, this process appears to be applicable for a range of oligio(ethylene glycol)diethers, in each case resulting in 1,4-dioxane and dimethyl ether.



Scheme 33 Synthesis of the silyliumylidene salt 107 from silylene 106



Scheme 34 Proposed catalytic cycle of DME (1,2-dimethoxyethane) to 1,4-dioxane and dimethyl ether, mediated by 107: A rare example of a "metal-free" catalytic process

Moreover, the salt **107**, upon reaction with Li(2,6-Trip₂-C₆H₃) [98], results in the heteroleptic silylene:Si(2,6-Trip₂-C₆H₃)(η^3 -C₅Me₅) (**108**), bearing one π -coordinated and one σ -coordinated substituent, the first such example for silicon [99, 100]. X-ray structural investigations on **108** revealed a bent geometry about the silicon(II) atom, as expected, and metric parameters which are in accord with the Cp^{*} ring exhibiting a η^3 -coordination mode to the silicon atom. In fact, in comparison with the bent form of decamethylsilicocene (**106**) which features a Si(η^3 Cp^{*})(η^2 Cp^{*}) coordination, the η^3 Cp^{*} ring in **108** is more strongly coordinated with the silicon centre due to the absence of a competing second π -ligand.

Novel imino-substituted silylenes were accessed by Inoue, Jutzi and co-workers using **107** as a suitable starting material. To this end, reaction of **107** with the lithium reagent Li[NC{N(Dipp)CH}₂] [101, 102] afforded the first example of an imino-substitutes silylene :Si{(Cp*)[NC{N(Dipp)CH}₂]} (**109**) [103]. The researchers also showed that the emerging silylene **109** can readily coordinate with the Lewis acidic borane B(C₆F₅)₃ affording (C₆F₅)₃B \leftarrow :Si{(Cp*)[NC{N (Dipp)CH}₂]} (**110**), a rather rare example of a silylene borane adduct, and further evidence of the potential coordination ability of **109**. The X-ray structural investigation revealed again a bent geometry on the silicon(II) centre and additionally confirmed the η^2 -coordination of the Cp^{*} ring, based on the bond distances (Fig. 15; Scheme 35).



Fig. 15 ORTEP representation of 109 showing η^2 -coordination of the Cp^{*} ring. Thermal ellipsoids are set at 50% probability level; H atoms have been omitted for clarity



Scheme 35 Synthesis of the novel silylenes 108 and 109 using the versatile salt 107 as a suitable precursor

In 2010, Jutzi and co-workers also reported facile entry to an interesting ferriosubstituted silylene using **107** as starting material [104]. Reaction of **107** with Na $[Fe(\eta^5-C_5Me_5)(CO)_2]$ in hexane afforded, by salt metathesis reaction, the complex $Fe(\eta^5-C_5Me_5)(CO)_2{Si(\eta^3-C_5Me_5)}$ (**110**) as a brown solid in 48% yield (Scheme 36).

The X-ray structural investigation of **110** revealed on the basis of bonding distances an η^3 -coordination of the Cp^{*} ring on the silicon centre and a rather bent Fe–Si–Cg bond angle (Cg = centre of gravity of the Cp* ring bound to silicon). This bent angle is suggestive of an accumulation of electron density (a lone pair) on silicon, and hence **110** can be considered a metal (iron) substituted silylene (Fig. 16).



Scheme 36 Access to the Ferrio-substituted acyclic silylene 110



Fig. 16 Molecular structure of 110 showing η^3 -coordination of the Cp^{*} ring with the silicon centre. Thermal ellipsoids are set at 50% probability level; H atoms have been omitted for clarity

107 has also been employed very recently in the preparation of the first cyclotrisilene with exclusively carbon-based substituents by Scheschkewitz, Jutzi and co-workers [105]. In this instance, salt metathesis of **107** with the lithium disilenide $(Trip)_2Si = Si(Trip)(Li\{dme\}_2)$ (**111**) afforded a mixture containing 85% of the cyclotrisilene (**112**). The subsequent reaction of **112** with an NHC afforded the NHC adduct (**113**) which could additionally be characterised by X-ray diffraction analysis. Of particular interest is the observation that NHC complex formation is reversible on the basis of VT-NMR studies, with an enthalpy of dissociation at 298 K estimated at 9 kJ mol⁻¹.

8 Summary, Conclusions, Outlook

Staggering progress has been made in the last decade in the pursuits of isolating new classes of silylenes and elucidating their reactivity patterns, particularly with respect to activation of small molecules, and their ability to coordinate to transition metal centres. Of the various silylene sub-classes, *N*-heterocyclic silylenes (NHSis)

have enjoyed considerable attention and are by far the most intensively studied to date and have shown a remarkable ability to activate small molecules. Moreover, they have shown to be important ligands in transition metal chemistry, enabling a range of new and exciting catalytic and stoichiometric transformations. Carbocyclic silvlenes, in contrast, are still rather rare, but the seminal example from Kira's group has shown it to be a potential "workhorse" for a wider range of transformations. Our contribution of phosphorus ylide-stabilised silvlenes is a new addition to this class of silvlenes, and progress in this area will certainly continue in the future. Roesky's and Filippou's important contributions with the synthesis of the first base-stabilised acyclic silylenes also represent a new sub-class of silvlenes and have already highlighted their synthetic use, particularly in the isolation of novel transition metal complexes featuring formal triple bonding to silicon atoms. These fundamental discoveries pave the way for novel further transformations. Silvlenes bearing transition metal-mediated π -bonded substituents, particularly pioneered by Jutzi and colleagues, have also proven to be an indispensable class of silvlenes. The most recent and particularly promising new research direction is that of the recently reported isolable acyclic silvlenes by Power, Jones, Aldridge and others. These indeed show promising reactivity patterns as, for example, the facile activation of dihydrogen at ambient conditions. The isolation of a room-temperature stable triplet ground state silvlene is potentially very close. This discovery might open up new vistas in metal-free catalysis which remains a "holy grail" in contemporary main group chemistry. The coming years will no doubt witness further riveting advances in silvlene chemistry.

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Multiple Bonds with Silicon: Recent Advances in Synthesis, Structure, and Functions of Stable Disilenes

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Abstract In the present chapter, the recent progress in the chemistry of disilenes $(R_2Si=SiR_2)$ with functional groups in the last decade will be reviewed. Especially, novel synthetic routes to disilenes via functionalized disilenes and disilynes, as well as structures, properties, and selected new reactivity of disilenes, reported mainly in the last decade will be discussed. Fundamental structural and spectroscopic data of new disilenes reported after 2004 are tabulated at the end of the chapter.

Keywords Disilene \cdot Disilenide \cdot Disilyne \cdot Functional group \cdot Multiple bond \cdot Reactions \cdot Silicon \cdot Structure

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Abbreviations

12-crown-4	1,4,7,10-Tetraoxacyclododecane
3-MP	3-Methypentane
Ad	Adamantyl
Ar	Aryl
Bbp	2,6-bis[bis(trimethylsilyl)methyl]phenyl
Bbt	2,6-bis[bis(trimethylsilyl)methyl]-4-[tris(trimethylsilyl)methyl]phenyl
Bu	Butyl
Ср	Cyclopentadienyl
Cp*	Pentamethylcyclopentadienyl
CV	Cyclic voltammetry
Су	Cyclohexyl
d	Day(s)
DMAP	4-(Dimethylamino)pyridine
DME	1,2-Dimethoxyethane
Dsi	bis(trimethylsilyl)methyl
equiv	Equivalent(s)
Et	Ethyl
h	Hour(s)
HOMO	Highest occupied molecular orbital
<i>i</i> -Pr	Isopropyl
LDA	Lithium diisopropylamide
LUMO	Lowest unoccupied molecular orbital
Me	Methyl
Mes	Mesityl, 2,4,6-trimethylphenyl
min	Minute(s)
mol	Mole(s)
Naph	Naphthalenide
NBS	N-bromosuccinimide
NICS	Nucleus-independent chemical shift
Np	Neopentyl
Nu	Nucleophile
Ph	Phenyl
ру	Pyridine
rt	Room temperature
s-Bu	sec-Butyl
SOMO	Singly occupied molecular orbital
Tbt	2,4,6-Tris{bis(trimethylsilyl)methyl}phenyl
t-Bu	tert-Butyl
Tf	Trifluoromethanesulfonyl (triflyl)
THF	Tetrahydrofuran
Tip	2,4,6-Triisopropylphenyl
Tol	4-Methylphenyl
Tsi	Tris(trimethylsilyl)methyl

1 Introduction

Since the synthesis of tetramesityldisilene **1** as the first isolable silicon–silicon doubly bonded compound (disilene) was reported as one of the most striking events in the silicon chemistry by West, Fink, and Michl in 1981 [1], the chemistry of stable disilenes ($R_2Si=SiR_2$) as well as silene ($R_2Si=CR_2$) and related multiply bonded silicon compounds represents a thriving field over now more than three decades [2–7].



In the first 15 years after 1981, several stable silicon analogs of ethylenes bearing an isolated Si=Si double bond have been synthesized by introduction of bulky groups such as aryl, alkyl, and silyl groups to protect the Si=Si double bond. Fundamentals of molecular structure and bonding, reactivity, and physical properties of the silicon–silicon double bond have been investigated extensively. These studies have shown that typical silicon–silicon double bonds have a nonplanar geometry (normally *trans*-bent), a weak π bond energy (60–100 kJ mol⁻¹) that is less than those of alkenes (>200 kJ mol⁻¹), and a small $\pi - \pi^*$ gap (~3 eV) compared with those of the corresponding alkenes (~6 eV) (for instance, $\lambda_{max}(\pi \to \pi^*) = 344$ nm for Me₂Si=SiMe₂ in argon matrix [8], 165 nm for H₂C=CH₂). These differences manifest in a considerably higher reactivity toward various small organic and inorganic reagents.

Since the middle of 1990s, the types of compounds with Si=Si double bond gradually increased. Silicon analogs of cyclic alkenes [9], conjugated dienes [10], *spiro*-conjugated dienes [11], and cumulated dienes [12] have been synthesized, taking advantage of the kinetic stabilization provided by bulky substituents. These studies have indicated that silicon-silicon double bond can be involved in the various skeletal structures and suggested that the chemistry of disilenes can be both comparable and complementary to the chemistry of alkenes.



In the last decades, the chemistry of disilenes has made further progress. Study of stable multiply bonded compounds with silicon have focused not only on the synthesis of stable multiply bonded compounds with new skeletal structures but also on the exploration of functionalized multiply bonded compounds as "silicon π -electron systems." The isolable disilenes with functional groups such as alkali metals, transition metals, heteroatom groups, and functional aromatic groups at the unsaturated silicon atoms have been reported. Especially, important contribution to the evolution of the chemistry of disilenes have been made by the successful synthesis and isolation of disilenides as nucleophilic disilenes [13], halodisilenes as electrophilic disilenes [14], and silicon–silicon triply bonded compounds (disilynes) bearing formally two reactive Si=Si double bonds [14–16]. In addition, novel well-designed protecting groups such as Rind groups have become available [17], which enable to synthesis of various functional disilenes.



Although several excellent reviews on stable disilenes involving topics of functionalized disilenes [18] have been already available, in the present chapter, the recent progress in the chemistry of disilenes with functional groups in the last decade will be comprehensively addressed. Especially, new synthetic routes to disilenes by using functionalized disilenes and disilynes, structures, properties, and some new reactivity of the resulting disilenes will be discussed. Although several outstanding reviews on disilynes are also available [5, 19–24], some stable disilynes will also be mentioned as important and useful precursors for functional disilenes.

Fundamental structural and spectroscopic data for new disilenes reported up to 2004 were summarized in two comprehensive reviews in *Adv. Organomet. Chem.* series by Okazaki and West in 1996 [2] and Kira and Iwamoto in 2006 [4]. The data of new disilenes reported after 2004 including some which are not mentioned in the main text of this chapter are tabulated at the end of this review (Tables 1–4). This is to complement the data on the Si=Si bond distance (*d*), bent angle (β) (the angle between the axis through the Si=Si bond and R–Si(sp²)–R plane), twist angle (τ) (the angle between the two axes that bisect the R–Si(sp²)–R angles as viewed along the Si=Si axis), absorption maxima, and CCDC numbers (if available).



2 Synthesis, Molecular Structure, and Physical Properties

2.1 Synthetic Routes to Stable Disilenes

Typical synthetic methods for disilenes are summarized in Scheme 1. Stable disilenes have been synthesized by photolysis of the appropriate linear trisilane (method A), photolysis of the corresponding cyclotrisilane (method B), reductive dehalogenation of dihalosilane (method C), reductive dehalogenation of 1,2-dihalodisilane (method D), and metathesis of 1,1-dihalosilane and 1,1-dimetalated silane (method E). Since 2004, reagents with silicon–silicon multiple bonds such as silicon analogs of vinyl anions (disilenides) and acetylenes (disilynes) have been available and applied for various functionalized disilenes. In addition to the traditional routes to disilenes, substitution at the sp² silicon atoms involving reactions of disilenide with electrophiles (method F), reactions of halogen-substituted disilenes with nucleophiles (method G), and 1,2-addition across the silicon–silicon triply bonded compounds (disilynes) (method H) have appeared as useful and versatile ways to disilenes with functional groups. In the following sections, synthesis, molecular structure, and properties of new disilenes with functional groups are summarized.



Scheme 1 Typical synthetic routes to stable disilenes

2.2 Metal-Substituted Disilenes

Metal-substituted disilenes (metal disilenides) have been first proposed as a possible intermediate in the reduction of $Tip_2Si=SiTip_2 2$ with excess lithium giving tetrasila-1,3-diene 3 by Weidenbruch as shown in Scheme 2 [10].



Scheme 2

In 2004, Scheschkewitz obtained the triaryldisilenide **4** as orange crystals of Tip₂Si=SiTipLi(dme)₂ in 51% yield by the reduction of Tip₂SiCl₂ with excess lithium in DME as shown in Eq. (1) [13]. Lithium disilenide **4** works as a good precursor for other metal disilenides. For instance, transmetallation gave the corresponding magnesium, copper, and zinc disilenides **5**–7 in excellent to moderate yields (Scheme 3) [25]. Metathesis of **4** with Cp₂ZrCl₂ gave the corresponding zirconium disilenides **8** [26]. Chemical shifts of unsaturated ²⁹Si nuclei of Tip₂Si^A=Si^B(Tip)M type disilenides depend on the metals. The ²⁹Si nuclei bound to metal (Si^B) resonate at lower field compared to that to Si^A. (δ Si^A, δ Si^B in ppm): (94.5, 100.5) for **4**, (11.3, 59.5) for **5**, (91.8, 93.6) for **6**, (57.48, 107.05) for **7**, and (116.8, 152.5) for **8**.



As a related species, magnesium trisilene-1,3-diide **9** was synthesized by the reaction of TipCl₂Si-substituted disilene **10**, which was prepared by the reaction of **4** with TipSiCl₃, with magnesium metal [27]. After detailed investigations, neutral tetrakis(2,4,6-triisopropylphenyl)cyclotrisilene **11** could also be isolated and was proposed as an intermediate during the synthesis of **9** (Scheme 4) [28].



Scheme 4

Silicon–silicon double-bond lengths (d(Si=Si)) of Tip-substituted disilenides are 2.1824(5) Å for **5**, 2.1721(12) and 2.1696(11) Å for **6**, 2.198(1) Å for **7**, and 2.1920(6) Å for **4**, which are slightly longer than that of Tip₂Si=SiTip₂ **2** (2.144 Å) [29] but within the range of typical double-bond lengths (2.14–2.29 Å) [2, 4]. The Si=Si bond length of **8** is significantly longer [2.2144(7) Å] than that in the lithium disilenide **4** [2.1920(6) Å], which can be attributed to the electrondeficient 16e zirconium center. The Si=Si bond of **8** is considerably twisted with the twist angle (τ) of 20.24°, while both silicon atoms are virtually planar; the sum of angles around silicon atoms are 359.68 (Zr side) and 359.51 (Tip₂Si side).

In UV–vis spectra in hexane, the longest absorption bands of **6** and **7** are observed at 462 and 468 nm, being red-shifted compared to the lithium and magnesium disilenides **4** (417 nm) and **5** (425 nm). These results can be explained by intramolecular orbital interaction between disilene units and the transition metal centers. Zirconium disilenide **8** in hexane solution shows a considerable red-shifted absorption band at 715 nm due to ligand (disilene) to metal (zirconium) charge transfer [26].

Using a similar reductive dehalogenation, potassium trialkyldisilenide **12** was synthesized by the reduction of the corresponding 1,1,2-trichlorodisilane **13** with excess potassium graphite (Eq. 2) [30].



Sekiguchi et al. have reported that lithium disilylaryldisilenide **14a** was synthesized as red crystals in 67% yield together with isobutene by the reaction of the corresponding tetrasilyldiaryltetrasila-1,3-diene **15** with *t*-BuLi in THF (Eq. 3) [31]. Possible mechanism for formation of **14a** involves single electron transfer giving anion radical of **14a** and *t*-butyl radical followed by the cleavage of the central Si–Si bond. Treatment of **15** with KC₈ gave the corresponding potassium disilenide **14b** in 80% yield [32]. Interestingly, potassium disilenide **14b** has a typical Si=Si double-bond length [2.2114(10) Å] but an unusually large Si=Si–K angle [171.44(4)°] probably due to intramolecular π -coordination of Mes group to the potassium atom.



In a more straightforward manner, tris(di-*t*-butylmethylsilyl)disilenides **16a–16c** can also be synthesized as lithium, sodium, and potassium salts by the reduction of tetrakis(di-*t*-butylmethylsilyl)disilene **17** with the corresponding alkali metal naphthalenide in THF followed by exchanging the solvent from THF to benzene (Scheme 5) [33]. Although initial reduction in THF gave the corresponding 1,2-dimetallodisilanes **18a–18c**, which were confirmed by NMR spectroscopy and product analysis after hydrolysis, similarly to the reduction of other tetrasilyl-disilenes [34], exchange of the solvent from THF to benzene prompted elimination of *t*-Bu₂MeSiLi to give **16a–16c**. In the ²⁹SiNMR spectra, two signals are observed for the unsaturated ²⁹Si atoms. The chemical shifts of the unsaturated ²⁹Si nuclei are the following: 77.6 and 328.4 ppm for **16a**, 79.5 and 325.6 ppm for **16b**, and 81.7 and 323.1 ppm for **16c**. Low-field shifted signals around 320–330 ppm are assignable to silicon nuclei bonded to M (M = Li, Na, K).



Scheme 5

Sekiguchi and coworkers show that 1,2-addition of metal reagents across the silicon–silicon triple bond in disilyne can also be a good route to metal-substituted disilenes (Scheme 6). For instance, hydrometalation of disilyne **19** with *t*-BuLi in THF gave the corresponding lithium hydridodisilenide **20a** in 82% yield [35]. Disilenide **20a** was isolated as a solvent-separated ion pair form (**20b**) after addition



Scheme 6

of DME. Reaction of **19** with methyllithium gave the corresponding carbometalation product **21** [36]. As a related species, disilyne anion radical **22** was formed by the reduction of disilyne **19** with potassium graphite in 63% yield [35].

In the ¹H NMR spectrum of **20a**, the H(-Si(sp²)) signal is observed at 7.10 ppm with the coupling constant (¹J_{SiH}) of 155 Hz (see also Sect. 2.3.6). In the ²⁹Si NMR spectrum in C₆D₆, the two peaks of **20a** at 124.7 and 165.0 ppm are assignable to the H-substituted Si(sp²) atom and the Li-substituted Si(sp²) atom, respectively. A similar ²⁹Si NMR signals of disilene moiety of **21** in THF-*d*₈ are observed at 114.1 (SiMe) and 143.4 (SiLi) ppm.

ESR spectrum of the radical anion **22** shows a triplet signal (*g*-factor = 1.99962) with satellites due to two methine ¹H nuclei on *i*-Pr groups, two unsaturated ²⁹Si nuclei (²⁹Si^{α}), and two ²⁹Si nuclei on Dsi₂(*i*-Pr)Si groups (²⁹Si^{β}). The hyperfine coupling constants (hfcc) are as follows: $a(^{1}H) = 0.23 \text{ mT}$, $a(^{29}Si^{\alpha}) = 3.92 \text{ mT}$, and $a(^{29}Si^{\beta}) = 2.24 \text{ mT}$. These three hfccs indicate that an unpaired electron delocalizes over the R–SiSi–R moiety. The molecular structure of **22** obtained by X-ray crystallography presents (1) a *trans*-bent structure with the Si–Si–R angles of 112.84(6) and 113.97(6)° which are smaller than that of neutral disilyne **19** [137.44(4)°] and (2) a central Si–Si bond length of 2.1728(14) Å, which is longer than that of **19** [2.0622(9) Å], confirming the antibonding nature of the SOMO.

A cyclic disilenide was obtained from the reduction of a trisilacyclopentadiene (See, Sect. 2.5.4) [37].

2.3 Heteroatom-Substituted Disilenes

Various stable disilenes with functional heteroatom substituents such as stannyl, phosphinyl, halogeno, and hydrido substituents have been synthesized mainly through reductive dehalogenation of dihalosilane (method C), nucleophilic substitution of disilenide (method F), and 1,2-addition across the silicon–silicon triply bonded compounds (disilynes) (method G).

2.3.1 Halogen (Group 17 Element) and Pseudohalogen-Substituted Disilenes

First halogenated disilenes 23 were synthesized by Wiberg et al. via the reductive dehalogenation of RSiClBrX 24 ($R = (t-Bu_3Si)_2MeSi$, X = Cl, Br) with *t*-Bu₃SiNa in THF in ca. 12% yield (Eq. 4) [14].



Similarly, reductive dehalogenation of tribromosilane with very bulky aryl substituents such as Bbt and Rind (Eind, EMind) (**25** and **26**) gave the corresponding 1,2-diaryl-1,2-dibromodisilenes **27** and **28** (Eq. 5) [**38**, **39**].



Molecular structures of stable 1,2-dibromodisilenes **27** and **28b** determined by X-ray structural analysis are highly *trans*-bent structure with bent angles $\beta = 32.4^{\circ}$ and 39.8° for **27** and $\beta = 29.0^{\circ}$ for **28b**. The large *trans*-bent angles β of halogen-substituted disilenes are consistent with the CGMT model predicting that electronegative substituents on the Si=Si double bond lead to increased *trans*-bending [40–42]. Although the Si=Si bond length of **27** [2.2264(8) Å] is longer than that of **28b** [2.1795(9) Å], both values are within the range of typical disilenes (2.14–2.29 Å) [2, 4]. In the ²⁹Si NMR spectra, the characteristic signal of Si=Si was observed at 79.4 ppm for **27**, 74.6 ppm for **28a**, and 73.2 ppm for **28b**.

Mono-halogenated disilene **29** was synthesized by simple metal-halogen exchange reaction of lithium disilenide **4** with I_2 (Eq. 6) [43].



Mono-halogen-substituted disilenes **30a-d** and **31** were obtained by partial alkylation and arylation of 1,2-dihalodisilenes via formal substitution reaction on

the sp²-silicon atoms (Eqs. 7 and 8) [38, 39]. Notably, the reaction of **28a** with PhMgBr does not proceed in the absence of piperidylpyridine (PPy). Mechanism of the substitution reactions on the sp²-silicon atoms will be discussed in Sect. 3.2.2. When excess phenyllithium was used as a nucleophile for the reaction of **28a** and **31**, 1,2-diphenyldisilene (EMind)PhSi=Si(EMind)Ph was obtained (see compound **192** in Table 1).



The ²⁹Si NMR signals of sp²-silicon on monobromo-disilenes **30a–d** and **31** appear 67.5–86.6 ppm as listed in Table 1. Structural parameters of disilene **30c** obtained by X-ray diffraction study are as follows: d(Si=Si) = 2.2019(12) Å, $\beta = 25.1^{\circ}$ for SiBbt(Bu) and 26.2° for SiBbt(Br), and $\tau = 2.6^{\circ}$.

Cyano-substituted disilene **32** was synthesized by thermal decomposition of disilyne–isocyanide adduct, **33a** and **33b** (Eq. 9). Radical intermediate resulting from homolytic cleavage of $N(sp^2)$ –CMe₂(CH₂R) is proposed for formation of **32** [44].



Only X-ray structure and UV-vis spectrum of 1,2-dicyanodisilene **32** are available because of its low solubility. The π -accepting cyano groups do not affect the molecular structure of **66**. In compound **32**, the Si=Si bond length is 2.213(2) Å and the unsaturated three-coordinate silicon is slightly pyramidalized ($\beta = 16.9^{\circ}$) but not twisted ($\tau = 0^{\circ}$). The UV-vis spectrum of **32** in THF showed that π (Si=Si) $\rightarrow \pi^*$ (Si=Si) (HOMO–LUMO) transition band at 414 nm similarly to those of typical stable disilenes [2, 4]. Theoretical studies suggest that the electron-withdrawing cyano groups stabilize both energy levels of HOMO and LUMO.

2.3.2 Chalcogen (Group 16 Element)-Substituted Disilenes

Stable disilenes with group 16 element substituents are still quite rare. Sulfur- and selenium-substituted cyclic disilenes **34a** and **34b** were obtained as orange-red crystals by photochemical valence isomerization of the corresponding chalco-genatrisilabicyclo[1.1.0]butanes **35a** and **35b** derived from the reaction of cyclotrisilene **36** with propylene sulfide in benzene and elemental selenium in THF, respectively (Scheme 7) [45].



Scheme 7

The ²⁹Si NMR resonances of the sp²-silicon nuclei bonded to the chalcogen atoms are low-field shifted (195.0 and 192.1 ppm) in comparison to those of the remaining sp²-silicon nuclei (95.1 and 100.8 ppm) in **34a** and **34b**. In the UV–vis spectra, the longest wavelength absorption bands assignable to the $\pi(Si=Si) \rightarrow \pi^*$ (Si=Si) transitions of **34a** and **34b** are observed at 454 and 463 nm, respectively. In the solid state, the four-membered ring and the geometry around silicon atoms in **34b** are almost planar. The Si=Si bond length of 2.1706(12) Å is typical for cyclic disilenes [2, 4]. No notable interactions between lone pair on chalcogen atom and the Si=Si was found in the molecular structure.

2.3.3 Amino- and Phosphino-Substituted Disilenes

Amino-substituted disilenes have been synthesized via various ways. First aminosubstituted disilene **37** was synthesized by photolysis of the corresponding trisilane **38** (method A) (Eq. 10) [46].



Unique route to amino-substituted disilene 39 was reported by West as shown in Scheme 6. Upon recrystallization of isolable diaminosilylene 40, insertion of Si–N bond of silylene moiety of 40 followed by dimerization of the resulting
aminosilyldislylene **41** gave **39**. In solution, reverse reaction occurs to give **40** (Scheme 8) [47].



Scheme 8

Jutzi and coworkers have shown that reaction of silyliumylidene borate $Cp*Si^{+}[B(C_{6}F_{5})_{4}]^{-}$ (42) with $LiN(SiMe_{3})_{2}$ gave aminosilylene $Cp*[(Me_{3}Si)_{2}N]$ Si: (43), which undergoes dimerization giving diaminodisilene $Cp*[(Me_{3}Si)_{2}N]$ Si=Si[N(SiMe_{3})_2]Cp* (44) upon crystallization (Scheme 9) [48, 49]. Alternatively 44 was obtained by the reaction of 45 with 2 equiv of metal amides, which act as both nucleophile and base [50].



Scheme 9

H-substituted aminodisilenes are easily obtained by the hydroamination of disilyne **19** (Eq. 11) [51, 52].



The $\pi \to \pi^*$ electronic transition of amino-substituted disilenes **46a–d** are redshifted (438, 433, 411, and 440 nm, respectively) compared to that of structurally similar R₃Si(H)Si=Si(Li)SiR₃ **20a** (390 nm), owing to the significant π -conjugation between π (Si=Si) orbital and lone pair orbital on nitrogen atom. The $\delta_{\rm H}$ values of the protons on unsaturated silicon of 1-amino-1,2-disilyldisilenes **46a**–**d** varied between 2.80 (**46c**) and 4.54 ppm (**46d**).

In the ²⁹Si NMR spectra, two characteristic signals of the disilene moiety appear at 39.3 and 170.5 ppm for **46a**, 34.1 and 159.0 ppm for **46b**, 47.2 and 136.5 ppm for **46c**, and 66.6 and 136.4 ppm for **46d**. The signals due to ²⁹Si nuclei bound to hydrogen atom appear at higher field (around 30–60 ppm), which can be attributed to the anionic charge on the H-substituted silicon atom from the contribution of a zwitterionic structure **46'**. In disilenes **46a–d**, the Si=Si double-bond lengths d(Si=Si) would depend on the size of amino groups; d(Si=Si) = 2.1647(2), 2.1596(17), 2.1949(7), and 2.1790(14) Å for **46a**, **46b**, **46c**, and **46d**, respectively. Nitrogen atoms in **46a–d** are trigonal planar geometry. Bulky amino groups cause large torsion angles between $\pi(Si=Si)$ plane and $n(NR_2)$ plane (Si=Si–N–C) of 7, 12, 29, and 67° for **46a–d**.

Metathesis of disilenide 4 with chlorophosphines gave phosphino-substituted disilenes Tip₂Si=SiTip(PR₂) (R = Ph (47a, 46%), *i*-Pr (47b), cyclohexyl (47c, 23%), and t-Bu (47d)) [43]. Disilene 47a was also obtained by reaction of iododisilene 29 with Ph₂PLi. The ²⁹Si resonances appear at 52.5–54.4 ppm (Si(Tip)PR₂) and 95.4–99.8 ppm (SiTip₂). The ³¹P chemical shifts depend on the substituents on the phosphorus: -45.7, -21.9, -36.3, and +8.9 for 47a-d. The ${}^{1}J({}^{29}Si-{}^{31}P)$ couplings increase with increasing the steric demand of the substituent on the phosphorus, 116, 118, ca. 115, and 133 Hz for 47a-d, respectively. The longest wavelength absorption maxima assignable to $\pi \to \pi^*$ transition of 47a and 47c are 423 and 416 nm, respectively, which are typical of those of triaryldisilenes. The Si=Si distance of 47c determined by X-ray analysis is 2.1542(11) Å, which is at the shorter end of the typical Si=Si distance (2.14-2.29 Å) [2, 4]. The P-Si distance of 2.2367(12) Å is relatively short compared with that of HC (SiMe₃)₂(SiMe₂PPh₂) (2.295 Å), which may indicate a significant allylic delocalization. The geometry around the Si=Si double bond in 47c are considerably flat with the bent angle β of 7.7° (SiTip(PCy₂)) and 8.9° (SiTip₂) and the twist angle τ of 3.5(1)°. The phosphino-substituted disilenes 47a and 47b are applied for the ligands for transition metal complexes 47 $[Pd(PCy_3)]$, in which the Si=Si double bond η^2 -coordinate to the palladium metal center in preference to the phosphorus atom of the phosphino group.

2.3.4 Heavy Group 14 Element-Substituted Disilenes

Disilenes with substituents of heavy group 14 elements such as silyl and stannyl are very common, most of which have been synthesized by reductive dehalogenation of the corresponding dihalosilanes (method C). Metathesis of disilenides and halosilanes and halostannanes are also simple route to these disilenes (Scheme 10) [13, 27, 53, 54]. Similarly, cyclic stannyl disilene **54** was obtained by the reaction of trisilene-1,3-diide **9** with Me₂SnCl₂ (Eq. 12). Interestingly, when less bulky



dihalosilanes were used for the reaction of 4, the resulting silylated disilenes 48a and 48b undergo further cyclization, giving the corresponding three-membered ring compounds 52a and 52b. Isomerization to cyclotrisilane 52a and 52b was explained by 1,2-migration of chlorosilyl group over the Si=Si double bond, giving a disilanyldisilene followed by Si–Cl insertion reaction of the resulting silylene (for details, see Sect. 3.1.2). In the case of Me₂SnCl₂, disilastannacyclopropane 53 was formed without observation of the corresponding stannyl disilene 51.



2.3.5 Boryl-Substituted Disilenes

Electron-deficient boryl groups can be introduced on the Si=Si double bond via hydroborylation reactions of disilynes [51, 55] and reactions of disilenide with haloboranes (Eqs. 13 and 14) [56].





The ²⁹Si NMR signals of sp²-silicons among boryl-substituted disilenes $[Dsi_2(i-Pr)Si]SiHSi^A = Si^B[Si(i-Pr)Dsi_2](BR_2)$ are as follows: 150.5 ppm (Si^A) and 121.7 ppm (Si^B) for 55a and 123.4 (Si^A) and 84.3 ppm (Si^B) for 55b. The low-field shifted $\delta(Si^A)$ of **55a** and **55b** compared with those of structurally similar amino-substituted disilenes $[Dsi_2(i-Pr)Si]SiHSi^A = Si^B[Si(i-Pr)Dsi_2](NR_2)$ 46a-d $(\delta(Si^A) = 30-60 \text{ ppm})$ are indicative of the contribution of a zwitterionic resonance structure 55'. The $\pi \to \pi^*$ transition energy of the boryl-substituted disilenes are significantly affected by substituents on the boron atom. The $\pi \to \pi^*$ transition band of 55b having dialkylboryl group was observed at 469 nm, which red-shifts by 58 nm to that of structurally similar 55a having dialkoxyboryl group (411 nm) and by ca. 75 nm to those of dialkoxyboryl-substituted disilenes 56a and 56b (393 and 395 nm). Available low-lying vacant 2p orbital on boron atom in 55a is responsible for the observed considerable red-shift. The Si=Si double-bond lengths of 55a and 55b determined by X-ray analysis are 2.1838(12) and 2.1634(12) Å, respectively. The dihedral angle of Si=Si-B-C of 55a is 18°, allowing for π -conjugation between the Si=Si bond and the boryl group. In contrast, 55b has a twisted arrangement with a dihedral angle of Si=Si-B-O torsion of 52° , indicative of less effective π -conjugation.

2.3.6 Hydrogen-Substituted Disilenes

Hydrogen-substituted disilenes had previously been obtained from the hydroborylation and hydroamination of disilynes. The reductive coupling of bulky arylsubstituted hydridodibromosilanes **57a** and **57b** provides access to the corresponding 1,2-dihydridodisilenes **58a** and **58b** (Eq. 15) [57].



The ²⁹Si resonances due to three-coordinate silicon nuclei in **58a** and **58b** were observed at 63.3 and 61.8 ppm, being typical A₂Si=SiA₂ tetraaryldisilenes (53–66 ppm). In the ¹H NMR spectra of 1,2-diaryldisilenes **58a** and **58b** in C₆D₆, the signal due to proton nuclei on the Si(sp²) atom ($\delta_{\rm H}$) appears at 6.04 and 6.11 ppm, respectively. Both values are low-field shifted compared to the $\delta_{\rm H}$ of a structurally similar 1,2-diaryldisilane, BbpSiH₂–SiH₂Bbp (4.83 ppm in C₆D₆) because of the magnetic anisotropic effect of π (Si=Si) unit. The observed ¹J_{SiH} values in **58a** (216 Hz) and **58b** (210 Hz) are larger than that in BbpSiH₂–SiH₂Bbp (188 Hz) due to the increased *s*-character of the Si–H bonds (formally from sp³ to sp²). 1,2-Diaryldisilenes **58a** and **58b** exhibited much larger ¹J_{SiH} values compared to those of 1-lithio-1,2-bissilyldisilene (¹J_{SiH} = 155 Hz for **20a**) and 1,2-bissilyldisilene (¹J_{SiH} = 149.8 Hz for {(*t*-Bu₃Si)₂MeSi}SiH=SiH{SiMe}(Sit-Bu₃)₂}) [58] due to the higher s-character of the Si–H bond increased by more electronegative carbon substituents compared to silicon and lithium substituents.

2.4 Disilenes with Functional Organic π -Electron Systems

Since the first isolation of tetramesityldisilene 1, a lot of stable disilenes have been synthesized by taking advantage of bulky aryl groups as "spectator" substituents. Recently, several disilenes with functional and organic π -electron systems such as substituted phenyl group, polycyclic aromatic substituents, and metallocenyl groups.

2.4.1 Disilenes with Substituted Phenyl Groups

Metathesis of disilenide and aryl halides is a convenient route to disilenes with functional aryl substituents (Scheme 11). Triaryldisilenide **4** reacted with various *p*-substituted iodobenzene derivatives to give **59a–59e** [59, 60]. Plausible mechanisms for the metathesis involve S_N2 -type reactions. Halogen–lithium exchange reaction successfully occurred for **59d** to give the corresponding 4-lithiophenyl disilene **59g**, which reacted with Me₃SiCl to afford 4-(trimethylsilyl)phenyldisilene **59g** (Scheme 12). When 1,4-diiodo- and 1,3-diiodobenzene were used for the reaction of **4**, the corresponding *p*-phenylenetetrasiladiene *p*-**60** and *m*-phenylenetetrasiladiene *m*-**60** were obtained in good yields (Scheme 11) [59, 60].

The ²⁹Si NMR resonances of **59a–e** are observed around 55 ppm (Tip₂Si side) and 70 ppm (*p*-XC₆H₄Si side). In the UV–vis spectra of **59a–d** in hexane, absorption bands due to π (Si=Si) $\rightarrow \pi^*$ (Si=Si) transition are slightly redshifted on going from X = F ($\lambda_{max} = 437$ nm) to X = Br ($\lambda_{max} = 447$ nm). A linear relationship between λ_{max} and the modified Hammett parameter σ_P^+ [61] was pointed out.



59d $\frac{t-BuLi/pentane}{Et_2O/-75 \degree C}$ 59f (X = Li) $\frac{Me_3SiCl}{-75 \degree C \text{ tor t}}$ 59g (X = SiMe_3, 80-90%)

Scheme 12

The Si=Si double-bond lengths in *m*-**60** are 2.1914(9) and 2.1861(9) Å, which are considerably longer than the Si=Si bond in *p*-**60** [2.1674(8) Å]. Dihedral angles of the Si=Si units and the central phenylene ring of *m*-**60** [44.0(2)° and 47.6(2)°] are slightly larger than those in *p*-**60** [41.0(2)°]. Compound *m*-**60** has larger *trans*-bent angles (20.3–26.7°) than those in *p*-**60** (16.5 and 19.3°). The increased steric strain between the two disilenyl units in *m*-**60** compared to that in *p*-**60** would be responsible for the structural features found in *m*-**60**.

The different properties of *m*-**60** and *p*-**60** are owing to effective conjugation in *p*-**60**. Both *m*-**60** and *p*-**60** display irreversible oxidation processes at $E_p = -0.14$ V for *m*-**60** and $E_p = -0.35$ V for *p*-**60** in THF. In contrast to the reported oxidation behavior of Tip₂Si=SiTip₂ **2** ($E_{1/2}^{\text{ox}} = +0.56$ and ± 1.32 V), *m*-**60** and *p*-**60** show only one oxidation wave with low oxidation potentials. Although **2** exhibits only one reduction wave ($E_{1/2} = -2.66$ V), two well-separated quasi-reversible reduction waves centered at $E_{1/2}^{\text{red}} = -2.70$ and -3.30 V for *m*-**60** and $E_{1/2}^{\text{red}} = -2.70$ and -3.02 V for *p*-**60** were observed. In the UV–vis spectrum, $\pi(\text{Si=Si}) \rightarrow \pi^*(\text{Si=Si})$ transition of *p*-**60** is observed at 508 nm, which is red-shifted to that of *m*-**60** (450 nm) due to effective conjugation.

The radical anion of *m*-**60** in THF frozen solution at 100 K shows anisotropic EPR spectra with approximately axial symmetry with two different satellites due to two hyperfine coupling (hfc) of ²⁹Si nuclei. The *g*-factors and estimated hfc tensors of *m*-**60** are $g_{//} = 2.0064$, $g_{\perp} = 2.0057$, $a_{//}(^{29}Si^{a}) = 1.55$ mT, $a_{\perp}(^{29}Si^{a}) = 0.69$ mT, $a_{//}(^{29}Si^{b}) = 1.45$ mT, and $a_{\perp}(^{29}Si^{b}) = 0.65$ mT, while those for *p*-**60** are $g_{//} = 2.0062$, $g_{\perp} = 2.0058$, $a_{//}(^{29}Si^{a}) = 0.90$ mT, $a_{\perp}(^{29}Si^{a}) = 0.38$ mT, $a_{//}(^{29}Si^{b}) = 0.72$ mT, and $a_{\perp}(^{29}Si^{b}) = 0.32$ mT. The larger hfc tensors of [*m*-**60**]⁻ compared to those of [*p*-**60**]⁻ suggest an increased *s*-orbital contribution in the Si=Si bond in [*m*-**60**]⁻ due to *trans*-bending upon one-electron reduction.

Another example of a *p*-phenylenetetrasiladiene was obtained with **61** alongside disilene **62** by reductive dehalogenation of the corresponding halosilanes **63** and **64** (Eq. 16) [17].



The crystal structure of **61** shows the following two features (1) coplanar tetrasiladistyrylbenzene skeleton with the dihedral angle between the central and terminal benzene rings of 9.0° and (2) planar geometry around the Si=Si bonds with the twist angles of 0.3 and 3.8° and with small *trans*-bent angles of 0.7 and 2.7°. Disilastilbene **62** has also planar geometry. The absorption maxima of **62** and **61** corresponding to the $\pi(Si=Si) \rightarrow \pi^*(Si=Si)$ transition appear at 461 and 543 nm, respectively, indicating remarkable extension of the π -conjugation through the phenylene moiety in **61**. The absorption maximum of **61** is also red-shifted by 35 nm relative to that of Tip derivative *p*-**60** (508 nm). Substituents on the unsaturated silicon atoms can control the planarity around the Si=Si double bond to affect their electronic characteristics.

2.4.2 Disilenes with Polycyclic Aromatic Groups

Disilenes with polycyclic aromatic substituents were synthesized by metathesis of trialkyldisilenide **12** with the corresponding aryl bromides (method F) (Eq. 17) [30].



X-ray analysis shows that the Si=Si bond lengths of 2.1943(14) Å for **65a**, 2.209(2) Å for **65b**, and 2.1754(12) Å for **65c** are in the standard region of the Si=Si double bonds. Disilene $\pi(\pi Si)$ and aromatic $\pi(\pi C)$ systems are almost perpendicular to each other with a dihedral angle of 83°, 80°, and 88° for **65a–c**, indicating very little conjugative interaction between $\pi(\pi Si)$ and aromatic $\pi(\pi C)$. Notably, 9-anthryl disilene **65c** shows a broad and distinct intramolecular charge transfer (ICT) absorption band at 525 nm in 3-methylpentane in addition to the usual absorption bands owing to $\pi \to \pi^*$ transitions (around 370–380 nm) of anthracene and disilene moieties. The ICT band red-shifts to 535 nm in more polar 1,2-dichlorobenzene. Theoretical calculations revealed that the Si–Si π orbital bond and the anthracene ligand's π^* orbital of **65c** function as donor and acceptor of that ICT, respectively.

Disilenes with polycyclic aromatic substituents were also synthesized by reductive dehalogenation of the corresponding dihalosilanes with polycyclic aromatic substituents (method C) (Eq. 18) [62, 63].



Compound **61** in hexane exhibits fluorescence at 612 nm with $\Phi_f = 0.10$. Although disilenes **67a** and **67b** show very weak fluorescence in THF ($\lambda_{FL} = 586$ nm, $\Phi_f = 0.01$ for **67a**, $\lambda_{FL} = 575$ nm, $\Phi_f = 0.01$ for **67b**), the intensity of the fluorescence observed for these disilenes in the solid state increased with significant red-shifts ($\lambda_{FL} = 619$ nm, $\Phi_f = 0.23$ for **67a**, $\lambda_{FL} = 600$ nm, $\Phi_f = 0.20$ for **67b**) [17, 62]. Disilene **67a** was applied for an emissive material in organic light-emitting diode (OLED) [64]. A fabricated multilayer OLED device using a mixture of disilene **67a** and polyfluorene derivative as a light-emitting layer and a hole-transporting layer displayed an electroluminescence with the maximum brightness L_{max} of 119 cd cm⁻¹ at the driving voltage of 8.5 V. The emission maximum of this OLED device is 588 nm, which corresponds to the fluorescence of **67a** in THF (586 nm) probably due to homogeneous mixture of **67a** and polyfluorene.

2.4.3 Disilenes with Various Functional Organic π -Electron Systems

Metallocenyl-substituted disilenes **68a** and **68b** [65, 66] and alkynyldisilenes **69a** and **69b** [67] have been synthesized by the corresponding dibromosilanes with bulky aromatic substituents as protecting groups (Eq. 19).



Compound **68a** has a slightly longer Si=Si bond [2.1733(15) Å] compared to that of Tip₂Si=SiTip₂ **2** (2.144 Å) [29] and is *trans*-bent ($\beta = 27.9^{\circ}$) in contrast to the almost planar structure of **2** ($\beta = \text{ca. 1}^{\circ}$). The redox behavior of 1,2-bis(ferrocenyl)disilene **68a** and its ruthenocene derivative **68b** in THF showed a significant coupling between the two metallocenyl groups through the Si=Si bond; the stepwise oxidation of the two intramolecular redox centers at $E_{1/2}^{\text{ox}} = +0.05$ and +0.24 V (**68a**) and $E_{1/2}^{\text{ox}} = +0.36$ and +0.56 V (**68b**) are observed by CV. In the reduction regions, CV of **68a** and **68b** show two-step reversible redox couples at $E_{1/2}^{\text{red}} = -2.64$ (two electrons) and -3.09 V (one electron) for **68a** and $E_{1/2}^{\text{red}} = -2.38$ (one electron) and -2.83 V (one electron) for **68b**.

The structural parameters for the π -system of **69a** and **69b** are similar to each other. The Si=Si bond length of **69a** [2.202(2) Å] is comparable to that of **69b** [2.1871(10) Å]. In ²⁹Si NMR spectroscopy, resonances due to the unsaturated ²⁹Si nuclei of **69a** and **69b** appeared at 44.6 and 42.6 ppm, respectively. In the UV–vis spectra in hexane, the longest absorption maximum of phenylethynyl derivative **69b** is 469 nm ($\varepsilon = 31000$), which is red-shifted by 32 nm to that of silylethynyl derivative **69a** (437 nm, $\varepsilon = 24000$). The batho- and hyperchromic shift of **69b** suggests that terminal phenyl groups of **69b** participate in the conjugation system of C=C–Si=Si–C=C moiety.

Very recently, imino-substituted cyclic disilenes **70** and **71** are synthesized by the reactions of the corresponding cyclotrisilenes **11** and **36** with isocyanides (Scheme 13) [68]. While reaction of **11** with *t*-BuNC gave a mixture of [1+2]adduct **72** and **70** at room temperature, at -94° C, only **72** was formed, indicating that **72** is a kinetic product. Isolated bicyclic product **72** transformed to **70** over several days at room temperature, which suggests that **72** is unlikely to be an intermediate for the formation of **70**. The proposed mechanism involves the competitive formation of **70** and **72** from irreversible insertion into a Si–Si single bond in **11** and reversible [1+2] cycloaddition to the Si–Si double bond, respectively. The reversible addition of isocyanide as well as other Lewis bases to the Si=Si double bond are observed (for details, see Sect. 3.2.4). In the case of formation of **71**, no intermediate **75** was observed.





2.4.4 Disilabenzenes and Related Compounds

Cycloaddition of disilyne with unsaturated organic compounds gave several disilaaromatic compounds. Disilyne **19** undergoes formal [2+2+2] cycloaddition with phenylacetylene to give a regioisomeric mixture of 1,2-disilabenzene derivatives **76** and **77** (Scheme 14) [69]. Similar reactions occur for aryl-substituted disilyne **78** to afford **79a–c** (Eq. 20) [70]. Reactions of **19** with nitriles gave the corresponding 2,3-disilapyrazines **80** or **81** [71, 72].



Scheme 14



The ²⁹Si nuclei of 1.2-disilvl-1.2-disilabenzenes resonate at 99.2 ppm for 76 and 99.4 and 96.8 ppm for 77, which are low-field shifted compared to those of 1,2-diaryl-1,2-disilabenzenes (57.1 ppm for 79a, 55.0 and 61.7 ppm for 79b, 64.1 and 65.0 ppm for **79c**). X-ray structural study of **76** and **79a** showed that the 1,2-disilabenzene ring is almost planar. The large torsion angle of C(Bbt)-Si-Si-C (Bbt) (45.6°) is found in **79a** due to the *trans*-bent character of the Si=Si bond (*trans*-bent angles $\beta = 12.1^{\circ}$, 13.7°). Such feature is in sharp contrast to that of 1,2-bis(silyl)-1,2-disilabenzene 76, having planar geometries around the two skeletal Si atoms $[Si-Si=Si-Si = 13.1(2)^{\circ}]$. The length of the endocyclic Si-Si bond in 76 is 2.2018(18) Å. The Si-Si bond distance [2.2334(7) Å] in 79a is slightly longer than structurally similar cyclic disilene 82 [2.213(3) Å] having Bbt in *cis* geometry [see Sect. 2.6.1, Eq. (30)] [73]. The longest wavelength absorption maxima of **76** and **79a** in hexane were observed at 427 and 378 nm, respectively, which are redshifted compared to the value of 1-Tbt-silabenzene (331 nm) [74]. The NICS calculations of model compounds confirm the aromaticity of both 1.2-bis(silvl)- and 1.2-bis(arvl)-1.2-disilabenzenes as 6π electron system.

2.5 Conjugated Disilenes

2.5.1 Trisiladiene (Trisilaallene)

Tetraalkyltrisilaallene **83** was synthesized as the first trisilaallene by the reductive dehalogenation of dialkyltetrachlorodisilane **84** (Eq. 21) [12].



Silyl-substituted trisilaallene **85** was synthesized by the reaction of 1,1-dilithiosilane **86** with a NHC complex of SiCl₂ **87** (Eq. 22) [75]. Electronic character of trisilaallenes is significantly affected by their substituents. Terminal and central ²⁹Si resonances of compound **85** were observed at 44.6 and 418.5 ppm, respectively, which contrasts with the ²⁹Si NMR chemical shifts of **83** (central Si, 157.0 ppm; terminal Si, 196.9 ppm).



The optimized structure of **85** (**85**_{opt}) calculated at the B3LYP/6-31G(d) level has considerably wider central bond angle of 164.3° versus that of **83** (136°) obtained by X-ray structural analysis. The Si=Si bond lengths of **85**_{opt} are 2.1792 Å and 2.1742 Å. The two planes of terminal R₂Si groups are almost perpendicular (86.6° for **85**_{opt}). In contrast to **83** having nondegenerate and delocalized on Si=Si=Si unit, two $\pi(Si=Si)$ and two $\pi^*(Si=Si)$ orbitals of **85**_{opt} are almost degenerate similarly to the case of all-carbon allenes.

The regioselectivity of the nucleophilic addition of ROH (R = H, Me) of **85** is different from those of **83**. This will be detailed in Schemes 32 and 33 in Sect. 3.2.5.

2.5.2 Tetrasiladienes

The first tetrasiladiene 3 was synthesized by Weidenbruch et al. (Scheme 2) [10].

The redox properties of disilene Tip₂Si=SiTip₂ **2** and tetrasiladiene Tip₂Si=Si(Tip)–Si(Tip)=SiTip₂ **3** have been investigated by CV [76]. In *o*-dichlorobenzene and [Me₃PhN]⁺[B(C₆F₅)₄]⁻ used as an electrolyte, disilene **2** exhibited reversible redox couples in both oxidation $(E_{1/2}^{ox} = +0.56 \text{ V})$ and reduction processes $(E_{1/2}^{red} = -0.50 \text{ V})$. In the same condition, tetrasiladiene **3** showed a reversible oxidation process $(E_{1/2}^{ox} = +0.07 \text{ V})$ but an irreversible wave $(E_p^{red} = -0.65 \text{ V})$ during reduction. As expected, conjugated tetrasiladiene **3** has lower oxidation potentials than that of disilene **2**. Irreversible reduction wave of **3** may be attributed to reductive Si–Si bond cleavage to afford disilenides (see Sect. 2.2).

Tetrasiladienes **15** and **88** were obtained by the reaction of tetrachlorodisilane **89** with 1,1-dilithiosilane **86** in THF (Eq 23) [31] and reductive dehalogenation of tribromodisilane **90** with sodium in toluene (Eq. 24) [77].



In the solid state of **88**, the tetrasiladiene skeleton is not planar but highly twisted with the dihedral angle between the Si=Si double bonds of 122.56(7)°. The large dihedral angle of **88** shows an anticlinal conformation in contrast to **3** and **15** having a synclinal conformation ($\delta = 51^{\circ}$ and 72°, respectively). The Si=Si double-bond lengths of **88** are 2.1980(16) and 2.2168(16) Å. The ²⁹Si resonances of central and terminal unsaturated Si nuclei of **88** are observed at 9.3 and 210.2 ppm. The UV–vis spectrum of **88** shows the longest wavelength absorption maximum at 510 nm at 77 K in a 3-MP glass matrix assignable to a π (Si=Si) $\rightarrow \pi^*$ (Si=Si) transition band. The maximum is comparable to those of **3** (518 nm) [10] and **15** (531 nm) [32], suggesting conjugation between the two π (Si=Si) systems.

2.5.3 Cyclotetrasiladiene Derivatives

Recently, cyclic neutral tetrasiladiene derivative **91** was synthesized by reductive dehalogenation of tribromosilane with bulky Rind group (Eq. 25) [78].



Detailed investigations revealed that the significant contribution of chargeseparated structure **91'** in the molecular structure of **91** by polar Jahn–Teller effect to avoid antiaromaticity. X-ray analysis showed that the Si₄ ring in compound **91** has a planar rhombic structure and rather long Si–Si bonds with small bond alternation [Si–Si bond lengths; 2.2671(8), 2.2846(8), 2.2877(8), and 2.2924(8) Å]. Pyramidalized silicons (the sums of the angles of 338.8° and 335.1°) and planar silicons (the sum of the angles of 360.0°) are positioned alternately at the fourmembered ring. In the solid-state CP/MAS ²⁹Si NMR spectrum of **91**, two sets of two resonances are found in the higher-field region (-52 and -50 ppm) and in the lower-field region (300 and 308 ppm). The former are assignable to the negatively charged pyramidalized silicon atoms and the latter are positively charged planar silicon atoms.

Reduction of tetrabromocyclotetrasilane **92** and dichlorodisiladigermetane **93** with potassium graphite gave the corresponding dianions of tetrasilacyclobutadiene and digermadisilacyclobutadiene, **94** and **95** as $[K(thf)_2]_2$ salts being isomorphous (Scheme 15) [79]. In the solid state, the four-membered silicon ring of **94** is not planar with the folded angle of 34° and potassium cations are located above and below the silicon ring being coordinated at 1,3 and 2,4 positions. The ring Si–Si distances are not equal with distances of 2.2989(8), 2.3300(8), 2.3576(8), and 2.3301(8) Å and the geometries around three-coordinate silicon atoms are pyramidalized with the sum of the bond angles of 341° and 326° . This

structural feature indicates that **94** and **95** are nonaromatic in the solid state, which is supported by the NICS values of model compounds **94** and **95** where silvl groups are replaced by Me₃Si groups (+4.3 and +6.1 ppm). In solution **94** and **95** show different behavior. The ²⁹Si resonances due to three-coordinate silicon nuclei (δ_{Si}) are observed at 113.7 ppm for **95** being suggestive of double-bond character between Si atoms and localization of the negative charge on the more electronegative germanium atoms. On the other hand, the δ_{Si} for **94** observed at 17.0 ppm are considerably upfield shifted compared to those for the typical Si=Si double bond and that of **95**, which was interpreted as a sign of significant delocalization of the negative charges due to the symmetric skeletal ring.



Scheme 15

2.5.4 Disilacyclopentadienes

Reaction of trisilabicyclo[1.1.0] but ane **96** with 3-hexyne gives trisilacyclopentadiene 97 (Scheme 16) [37]. The ²⁹Si resonances due to the three-coordinate silicon nuclei appears at 95.6 ppm for Si=Si-C=C and 166.4 ppm for Si=Si-C=C. In the solid state the five-membered ring in 97 is planar with the sum of the interior bond angles of 539.9° and the Si=Si distance is 2.1808(5) Å. The $\pi \to \pi^*$ absorption bands of 97 was observed at 493 nm. Reduction of 97 with potassium graphite followed by addition of LiBr gave $[Li^+(thf)]$ **98a**⁻. The THF ligand on the lithium cation can be exchanged by a *t*-Bu₂C=O ligand. X-ray analysis of $[Li^+(t-Bu_2C=O)]$ **98a**⁻ shows the Li⁺ cation coordinates to trisilacyclopentadienide in an η^5 -fashion and the five-membered ring retained its planarity with the sum of bond angle of 538.5°. Upon reduction, the Si=Si and C=C distances in the five-membered ring are elongated and all single bonds are shortened, indicating the aromaticity of compound 98a⁻. The ²⁹Si chemical shifts for the unsaturated silicon nuclei are 22.0 and 22.9 for [Li⁺(thf)]**98a**⁻ and 22.4 and 28.3 ppm for [Li⁺(*t*-Bu₂C=O)]**98a**⁻. The ⁷Li NMR signal appears at the high-field region; -5.8 and -5.0 for [Li⁺(thf)] $98a^{-}$ and $[Li^{+}(t-Bu_{2}C=O)]98a^{-}$, respectively, which is indicative of the aromatic ring current effects inside the five-membered ring of 98a⁻. Addition of 12-crown-4 to [Li⁺(thf)]**98a**⁻ in toluene gave cyclic disilenide **98b**⁻ as a result of 1,2-silyl migration. $[Li^+(12\text{-crown-4})]$ **98b**⁻ exists as solvent-separated ion pair in the solid state. The skeletal bond angle around the Si=Si-Si is reduced on going from neutral 97 to anionic $98b^-$, which can be attributed to the higher s-character of the anionic orbital of 98b⁻. Thermolysis of 96 at 130°C in toluene gave cyclotrisilene **99** [80].



A similar reaction of germadisilacyclopentadiene **100** giving the corresponding germadisilacyclopentasilanide **101**⁻ was reported (Eq. 26) [79].



2.5.5 Isomers of Hexasilabenzenes

Reductive dechlorination of 1,1,2-triaryltrichlorocyclotrisilane **102** with lithium naphthalenide gave an isomer of hexasilabenzene **103** as green crystals (Scheme 17) [81]. Alternatively, **103** was obtained by reaction of $Cp*Si^+[B(C_6F_5)_4]^-(104)$ with 2 equiv of disilenide **4** or 1 equiv of **4** giving cyclotrisilene **105** followed by 1 equiv of lithium naphthalenide [82].

The molecular structure of **103** shows a chair-shaped conformation with a rhomboid central Si₄ ring and with a dihedral angle between the central Si₄ ring and terminal Si₃ ring of $66.80(2)^{\circ}$. The formal oxidation states of the silicon atoms in **103** are 0 for Si without Tip substituent (Si²), +1 for SiTip (Si¹), and +2 for SiTip₂ (Si³), and their ²⁹Si NMR signals are observed at -89.3, +124.6, and -84.8 ppm, respectively. The UV–vis spectrum of **103** showed the longest wavelength absorption band at 623 nm. The Si1–Si2[′] distance and the distance between Si1 and Si2 atoms connecting Si3 atom are 2.3034(5) and 2.3275(5) Å, respectively, which are shorter than typical Si–Si single-bond distance. The diagonal distance between Si2 atoms is 2.7287(7) Å. On the basis of the structural data and detailed theoretical investigations, a resonance hybrid



between 103' and 103" by delocalization of six electrons from nonbonding electron pair, π (Si=Si) bond and π (Si–Si) bond, is suggested to describe the electronic structure of 103 (Scheme 18). Interestingly, calculated NICS(0) values of model compound of -23.8 ppm being larger than that of benzene (~ -10 ppm) suggest that 103 exhibits significant aromatic character. Rzepa and Scheschkewitz propose the term "dismutational aromaticity" for this type of hitherto unknown aromatic delocalization found in 103.

2.6 Miscellaneous

2.6.1 New Routes to Cyclic Disilenes

Typical cyclic disilenes such as cyclotrisilenes and cyclotetrasilenes have been synthesized mainly by simple reductive dehalogenation of the corresponding halosilanes. Recently several alternative routes to cyclic disilenes have been reported.

Partial reductive debromination of 1,2,3,4-tetrabromocyclotetrasilane 92 gave 3,4-dibromocyclotetrasilene 106 (Eq. 27) [83]. Reductive dehalogenation of a

precursor tethering two dihalosilane moieties (107) gave the corresponding cyclic disilene 108 (Eq. 28) [84]. In a similar manner, fused tricyclic disilenes *cis*-109 and *trans*-109 were obtained from 110 (Eq. 29) [85].



The $\pi \to \pi^*$ absorption bands are found to be considerably affected by the geometrical change around double bond in *cis/trans*-**109**, two isomeric tetraalkyldisilenes. Disilene *trans*-**109** has a markedly long Si=Si double bond [2.2687(7) Å], large *trans*-bent angles ($\beta = 30.9$ and 32.9°), and twist angle ($\tau = 42.5^{\circ}$) owing to strained fused tricyclic structure. On the other hand, *cis*-**109** has a normal structural parameters of disilene; d(Si=Si) = 2.1767(6) Å, $\beta = 3.9$ and 12.4° , and $\tau = 3.9^{\circ}$. As a consequence, *trans*-**109** showed $\pi \to \pi^*$ transition at 517 nm, which is remarkably red-shifted from that of less distorted *cis*-**109** ($\lambda_{\text{max}} = 433$ nm). The small $\pi \to \pi^*$ transition energy of *trans*-**109** is explained by poor π -bonding as a result of the elongated, *trans*-bent, and twisted Si=Si bond.

Cycloaddition of disilynes with alkenes is a simple route to cyclic disilenes (Eq. 30). 1,2-Disilacyclobutenes **111** and **82** were synthesized by [2+2] cycloaddition of the corresponding disilyne with alkenes using this method [15, 69, 73].



A fused bicyclic disilene bicyclo[3.3.0.0^{1,5}]octasil-1(5)-ene **112** was synthesized unexpectedly by reaction of 1,1-dichlorocyclotetrasilane **113** with lithium in THF in 20% yield (Scheme 19) [86]. A possible mechanism for formation of **112** involves formation of exocyclic disilene **114**, which was not observed, followed by double 1,2-silyl migration. The following reaction supports this mechanism: silylenecyclotetrasilane **115** obtained from selective reductive coupling of **116** and **117** undergoes 1,2-silyl migration accompanied by ring expansion to give cyclopentasilene **118** (Scheme 20) [87]. DFT calculation predicts that this reaction proceeds through cyclic silylene **119** via stepwise 1,2-silyl migration.







Scheme 20

The structure of tetrasilyldisilene **112** is topologically similar to a partial structure of the Si(001) surface up to the third layer. In the solid state, the Si=Si bond distance of **112** is 2.180(3) Å. The Si=Si double bond of **112** adopts a slightly *cis*-bent geometry with the bent angle β of 1.6°, where the angle β is defined as an angle between the Si(sp³)–Si(sp²)–Si(sp³) plane and the Si(sp²)–Si(sp²) bond. The ²⁹Si NMR resonance for the unsaturated silicon nuclei in **112** appears at 167.4 ppm. Disilene **112** showed an intense absorption band at 468 nm

due to $\pi(Si=Si) \rightarrow \pi^*(Si=Si)$ transition. The absorption maximum of **112** is remarkably red-shifted by about 50 nm relative to those for typical silyl-substituted disilenes (412–425 nm) [2, 4]. The redshift suggests significant σ - π interaction between the Si=Si π -bonding orbital and σ -type orbitals from eight trimethylsilyl groups.

Stable cyclotrisilenes have been synthesized through various methods. Cyclotrisilene **120** was synthesized as the first stable cyclotrisilene by the reduction of dibromochlorosilane with tris(*t*-butyldimethylsilyl)silyl group **121** (Eq. 31) [88]. Proposed mechanism for formation of **120** involves generation of disilyne **122** and its rearrangement accompanied by silyl migration. Recently, similar rearrangement reactions of disilynes **123** and **124** to cyclotrisilenes **125** and **126**, respectively, were reported (Eq. 32) [15, 89].



Thermolysis or photolysis of tetrasiladiene **88** gave cyclotrisilene **127** alongside silylene **128** (Scheme 21). Formation of **127** was explained by dissociation of a Si=Si bond in **88** giving disilenylsilylene **129** followed by cyclization. Scheschkewitz et al. have reported synthesis of cyclotrisilenes **105** and **11** via similar type intermediate **130** (Schemes 22 and Eq. 33) [28].



Tetrasilylcyclotrisilene **131** was synthesized by reaction of 2,2-dilithiotrisilane **86** and 2,2,3,3-tetrabromotetrasilane **132** (Eq. 34) [90], and cyclotrisilene **36** [75] was obtained by thermal rearrangement of tetrasilyltrisilaallene **85**, reiterating previous observations for the corresponding tin compound [91] (Eq. 35).





Scheme 22



Digermadisiletene **133** was obtained by methylation of the corresponding dianion **95** (Eq. 36) [79].



2.6.2 Disproportionation of (Hydrosilyl)silyl Radical

Apeloig et al. have found that upon irradiation, (hydrosilyl)silyl radical **134** undergoes disproportionation reaction to give tetrasilyldisilene **17** and 1,2-dihydrodisilane **135** (Eq. 37) [92].



2.6.3 Donor-Coordinate Disilene-Like Compounds

Robinson et al. have shown that reductive dechlorination of NHC-coordinate silicon tetrachloride **136** with potassium graphite gave NHC_2Si_2 (**137**) as dark-red crystals in 23% yield (Eq. 38) [93].



Since formal oxidation state of silicon in **137** is zero, compound **137** is categorized as a NHC-supported disilicon(0) compound. Molecular structure, spectroscopic properties, and theoretical studies indicate that compound **137** possess significant Si=Si double-bond character. Two carbene ligands are almost perpendicular to the Si=Si unit in **137**, indicating very small conjugative interactions between Si=Si and NHC. The Si=Si bond distance of **137**, 2.2294(11) Å, is slightly longer than typical Si=Si double bond but within the reported range of Si=Si bond distances (2.14–2.29 Å). The ²⁹Si resonance of **137** in C₆D₆ appeared at 224.5 ppm in the unsaturated silicon region. The $\pi(Si=Si) \rightarrow \pi^*(Si=Si)$ transition band was observed at 466 nm in THF.

Disilyne **19** forms a complex with a NHC (**138**), which reacted with MeOTf to give NHC-coordinate disilenyl cation **139** (Eq. 39) [94].



The ²⁹Si NMR signals of Si=Si bond of 138 in THF-d₈ appeared at 28.7 (NHC-Si=Si) and 276.3 ppm (NHC-Si=Si). The UV-vis spectrum of 138 shows an absorption band at 409 nm with a shoulder (ca. 440 nm). The former is assigned to the HOMO \rightarrow LUMO transition $[\pi(Si=Si) \rightarrow \pi^*(Si=Si)]$ and the shoulder is assigned to HOMO-1 to LUMO transition $[n(Si) \rightarrow \pi^*(Si=Si)]$. The Si=Si bond length of 2.1989(6) Å in 138 is in the typical region of disilenes. The three-coordinate silicon atom has planar geometry with the sum of the bond angles of 359.16°. The torsion angle of the Si₄ chain is $165.12(2)^\circ$, which indicates that the two SiDsi₂(*i*-Pr) groups are positioned in *trans*-fashion and a lone-pair of electrons resides on the two-coordinate silicon atom. In contrast, the ²⁹Si NMR signals of Si=Si bond in 139 appeared at 54.0 (NHC-Si=Si) and 168.8 ppm (NHC-Si=Si). In the solid state, no significant interactions between the skeletal silicon atoms of 139 and the triflate anion are found. No Si=Si bond elongation is observed after the addition of the methyl group to 138; the Si=Si bond length of 2.192(2) Å in 139 is typical of a Si=Si double bond. The UV-vis spectrum of 139 in THF has an absorption band at 408 nm assignable to $\pi(Si=Si) \rightarrow \pi^*(Si=Si)$ transition.

Reaction of 138 with $ZnCl_2$ gave the corresponding adduct of 138·ZnCl₂, where $ZnCl_2$ coordinated to the silicon atom with a lone pair of electrons. The two silyl groups on the unsaturated silicon atoms are arranged in the *cis*-orientation owing to the interaction between the NHC and ZnCl₂ moieties.

2.7 Stable Disilynes

Because silicon–silicon triply bonded compounds, disilynes, have two (different) π (Si=Si) bonds at the same silicon atoms [5, 19–24], disilynes may be also regarded as formally belonging to the class of functional disilenes. Stable silyl- and aryl-substituted disilynes **19**, **123**, **140**, and **124** were synthesized by reductive dehalogenation of the corresponding tetrahalodisilanes (Eq. 40) [16, 89] or by reduction of 1,2-dihalodisilenes (Eq. 41) [14, 15, 38].





All reported stable disilynes (RSi \equiv SiR) have *trans*-bent geometry with shorter Si \equiv Si bonds. The d(Si \equiv Si) are 2.0622(9), 2.0569(12), and 2.108(5) Å for **19**, **123**, and **140**, respectively, being markedly shorter than that of disilenes. The R–Si–Si angles amount to 137.44(4)° for **19**, 138.78(5)° (*i*-PrDsi₂Si side) and 137.89(5)° (NpDsi₂Si side) for **123**, and 133.0(3)° for **140**. Unsaturated ²⁹Si NMR signal of diaryldisilyne **140** is observed at 16.7 ppm, while that of bisilyldisilyne **19** is found at much lower field, at 89.9 ppm. Interestingly, the ²⁹Si chemical shift is sensitive to the geometry around Si \equiv Si bond; in compound **123**, an unsymmetrically substituted bissilyldisilyne, the triply bonded ²⁹Si nucleus bearing a *i*-PrDsi₂Si group resonates at 62.6 ppm, whereas that with a NpDsi₂Si group is low-field shifted to 106.3 ppm. For detailed discussion of silicon–silicon triple bond in disilyne, please see the comprehensive reviews ondisilynes [5, 19–24].

3 Reactivity

Because the fundamental reactivity of stable disilenes and disilynes has been well documented in the several comprehensive reviews, this chapter focuses on the reactions of stable functional disilenes together with new reactions of disilenes that have been found after 2004.

3.1 Unimolecular Reactions

3.1.1 Dissociation into Two Silylenes

Dissociation of Si=Si double bond into two silylenes is one of the fundamental unimolecular reactions. Dissociation of functional disilenes should be important because it works as a "masked" silylene to provide highly reactive functional silylenes that should be useful for new building block for unsaturated silicon compounds. According to the CGMT (Carter–Goddard–Malrieu–Trinquier) model [40–42], which is generally accepted as a theoretical model for description of the Group 14 double bonds, the bond dissociation energy (BDE) of the Si=Si double bond in disilenes depends on the singlet–triplet energy gap of the corresponding silylene (ΔE_{st}): BDE = $E_{\sigma} + E_{\pi} - 2\Delta E_{st}$ where E_{σ} and E_{π} are σ bond and π bond energies of Si=Si double bond, respectively. Silylenes with electronegative and π -donating substituents such as halogen, NR₂, and OR are calculated to have larger ΔE_{st} , and the corresponding disilenes are predicted to have smaller BDE [95]. Although facile dissociations of Si=Si double bond into two silylenes have already been extensively discussed in the previous comprehensive reviews [2, 4], functional disilenes provide new insight into the dissociation of the Si=Si double bond.

1,2-Dibromodisilenes **28a** and **28b** dissociate into the corresponding arylbromosilylenes **143a** and **143b**, which is confirmed by trapping reaction with bis (trimethylsilyl)acetylene giving the corresponding [1+2] adducts **144** (Scheme 23) and the crossover reaction of disilenes **28a** and **28b** giving unsymmetrical disilene **145** (Eq. 42) [39]. Although arylbromosilylenes **143a** and **143b** are not observed spectroscopically, equilibrium between disilenes and silylene–PPy complexes **146a** and **146b** were observed in the presence of 4-pyrrolidinopyridine (PPy) with equilibrium constants K_{eq} of 350 M⁻¹ for R = Eind and 0.64 M⁻¹ for R = EMind. Silylene–PPy complex **146a** was isolated in crystalline form. Facile dissociation of the 1,2-dibromodisilenes was supported by DFT calculations. The bond dissociation enthalpy (BDE) of the Si=Si double bond in (H₂Mind)



Scheme 23

BrSi=Si(H₂Mind)Br of 19.2 kcal mol⁻¹ at the B3LYP/6-31G(d,p) level is lower than those of (H₂Mind)PhSi=SiPh(H₂Mind) (34.0 kcal mol⁻¹) and η^{1} -Cp* {(Me₃Si)₂N}Si=Si{N(SiMe₃)₂}(η^{1} -Cp*)44 (23.2 kcal mol⁻¹). Electronic effects of electronegative and π -donative bromo substituents would be responsible for these results as mentioned in the previous paragraph [95].



Sasamori, Tokitoh, and coworkers found that lithium bromide promotes the dissociation of Si=Si double bond of 1,2-dibromodisilene Bbt(Br)Si=SiBbt (Br) (27). Disilene 27 reacted with excess amount of various reagents at room temperature in benzene to give products identical to the products of Bbt(Br)Si: (147) instead of simple trapping products of disilene 27 (Scheme 24) [96]. Interestingly, the presence of lithium bromide accelerates the formation of the silvlene adducts. For instance, while disilene 27 reacts with cyclohexene (6 equiv) in DME at room temperature for 24 h to give silacyclopropane 148 quantitatively, this reaction was completed in the presence of excess lithium bromide (10 equiv) within only 7 min. Furthermore, thermolysis of disilene 27 in the absence of lithium bromide in C₆D₆ at 100°C for 10 h gave **149**, an intramolecular insertion product of disilene 27 that would result from 1,2-bromine migration across the Si=Si double bond followed by C-H insertion of the resulting aryl(dibromosilyl)silylene 150. In contrast, thermolysis of 27 in the presence of 4 equiv of lithium bromide gave 152, the intramolecular insertion product of Bbt(Br)Si: (147) (Scheme 25). The silvlenelike reactivity of disilene 27 is proposed to be due to a trace amount of lithium bromide that promotes dissociation of disilene 27 into silvlene 147 and silvlenoid 151, although both 147 and 151 have not been observed spectroscopically (Eq. 43).



Scheme 24



Jutzi found reversible phase-dependent transformation between disilene 44 and divalent silicon compound 43 (Eq. 44) [49]. Compound 43 is a colorless oil and it exists as a monomeric form in solution. Upon crystallization it slowly dimerizes to give yellow crystals of disilene 44. When disilene 44 dissolved in organic solvents, a colorless solution of 43 was again obtained. This phenomena is explained by different stereoelectronic and steric effects exerted by the pentamethylcyclopentadienyl groups in 44 and 43, unspecified lattice effects in the solid-state structure of 44, a small energy difference between 44 and 43, a low activation energy for the equilibrium process, and the gain in entropy upon monomer formation.



Very recently tetraalkyldisilene **158** is found to equilibrate with the corresponding dialkylsilylene **159** in solution (Eq. 45) [97]. The equilibrium in solution was observed by NMR and UV-vis spectroscopies, and the thermodynamic parameters of the equilibrium were estimated to be $\Delta H = 36 \pm 3$ kJ mol⁻¹ and $\Delta S = 170 \pm 15$ J mol⁻¹ K⁻¹. Notable structural characteristics of **158** include the long Si=Si distance of 2.252(3) Å and the twist angle of 22.6°. The three-coordinate silicons adopt a slightly pyramidalized geometry with the *trans*-bent angle β of 17.5°. The Si=Si distance is near the longer end of the reported range [2.132(2)-2.2890(14) Å]. These structural features can be rationalized by

the severe steric repulsion between the silylene moieties. The ²⁹Si NMR spectrum of **158** at -80° C in toluene- d_8 showed the resonance of sp²-silicon appeared at 123.3 ppm. Analysis of the percent buried volume (% V_{bur}), a measure of the steric demand around the central silicon, showed that the flexible steric bulkiness of the alkyl substituent in **158** and **159** allows the reversible dimerization and the isolation of both species.



Dissociation of Si=Si double bond in tetrasiladiene **88** gave cyclotrisilene **127** (Scheme 21, Sect. 2.6.1).

3.1.2 1,2-Migration Giving Silylsilylene

Disilene–disilanylsilylene rearrangement $(R_2Si=SiR(SiR'_3) \rightarrow [(R'_3Si)R_2Si]RSi:)$ through 1,2-silyl migration was found for reactions of transient and stable disilenes. In Sect. 2.6, ring expansion reactions of silylenecyclotetrasilane to cyclopentasilene were explained by a stepwise disilene–disilanylsilylene rearrangement. In some isomerization reactions of silyl-substituted disilenes, the disilene–disilanylsilylene rearrangement seems to be involved. For instance, chlorosilyl-substituted disilene **48b** isomerizes to the corresponding chloro-substituted cyclotrisilane **52b**, which was



Scheme 26

explained by 1,2-migration of chlorosilyl group over Si=Si double bond giving a disilanyldisilene **160** followed by Si–Cl insertion reaction of the resulting silylene (Scheme 26). When the reaction was performed at 150°C without solvent, trisilaindane **161**, which was explained by a C–H insertion reaction of disilanyl-silylene **160**, was obtained [53].

Upon heating phosphinyl-substituted disilene **47a**, similar phosphadisilaindanes **162** and **163** were obtained probably resulting from 1,2-migration giving disilanyl-silylene **164** followed by insertion of the silylene into one ortho C–H bond of one of phenyl group on the phosphinyl substituent (Eq. 46) [43].



A similar migration was also found in 1,2-dihydrodisilenes 58 (Scheme 27).



Scheme 27

3.2 Bimolecular Reactions

3.2.1 Electrophilic Substitution: Reactions of Disilenides with Electrophiles

In Sect. 2, various reactions of disilenides with electrophiles giving a variety of new disilenes have been mentioned. Reactions of disilenides with some ketones gave new unsaturated silicon compounds via multistep reactions. For instance, reactions of disilenides **4** and **16a** with carboxylic acid chlorides gave cyclic silenes **167a–c**. Formation of new silenes **167a–c** was explained by initial formation of acyl disilenes **168a–c**, which were not observed even at low temperatures, followed by [2+2] cyclization (Scheme 28) [98, 99].



Scheme 28

Similar stepwise addition-cyclization reactions giving silene derivatives were found in the reaction of disilenide with vinyl halides (Scheme 29) [99, 100].



Scheme 29

Silyl-substituted disilenide **16a** undergoes sila-Peterson-type reactions. Reaction of **16a** with adamantanone gave a silyl-anion-substituted silene (1,2-disilaallyl anion) **171** in 74% yield (Scheme 30) [98]. When triarylacetoaldehyde was used, similar reaction occurred to give the corresponding silene **172** in 51% yield [99]. Formation mechanism of silenes **171** and **172** can involve nucleophilic addition of sp^2 silyl anion of disilenide to the carbonyl carbon giving **173** followed by



elimination of siloxylithium to give 1,2-disilaallene **174**. Because of less steric hindrance of the disilaallenes, the resulting siloxylithium adds to the Si=Si double bond of **174** to give the silenes.

Interestingly, structure of **172** in solution changes depending on the solvents. In THF- d_8 , **172** exists as η^1 -fashion similar to **171**. In toluene- d_8 and in the solid state, **172** exists as a η^3 -disilaallyllithium structure having an intramolecular interaction between lithium and Si=C moiety. According to the structural features of **172** including shorter Si=C bond length [1.755(2) Å] and typical Si–Si bond length [2.3356(8) Å], resonance structure **172'** is favored to **172''**.

3.2.2 Nucleophilic Substitution: Reactions of Halodisilenes with Nucleophiles

As shown in Sect. 2.3.1, reactions of halodisilenes with nucleophiles are very useful methods to introduce various substituents to the sp^2 silicons in disilenes similar to the reactions of disilenides with electrophiles. Although the mechanism of the substitution reactions remains open, addition–elimination process where 1,2-addition of alkyl (or aryl) metal species (R'-M) toward Si=Si double bond followed by 1,2-elimination of metal halides MX is proposed as a possible mechanism because facile 1,2-addition of alkyllithium to the Si=Si double bond of

disilenes [101, 102]. In the case of PPy-promoted monophenylation of disilene **28a** with PhMgBr shown in Eq. (8), an alternative mechanism is proposed. Because the phenylation does not proceed in the absence of PPy, the possible mechanism involves phenylation of bromosilylene–PPy complex generated from the reaction of **28a** with PPy followed by facile addition to bromosilylene–PPy complex to give the monophenylated disilene **31** [39].

3.2.3 Redox Reactions

One of the fascinating electronic properties of disilenes is their high-lying HOMO and low-lying LUMO. After the publication of reviews in *Adv. Orgamet. Chem.* [4], redox potentials of some disilenes have been evaluated by electrochemical methods. CV of a highly twisted blue tetrasilyldisilene $[(t-Bu)_2MeSi]_2Si=$ Si[Si(*t*-Bu)_2Me]_2 **17** in THF showed an irreversible oxidation wave at +0.41 V and a reversible reduction wave at -1.47 V, which were cathodically and anodically shifted compared to those of reported stable tetrasilyldisilenes (E^{ox} +0.70 to +0.88 V, E^{red} -1.70 to -1.82 V) [4] due to its weak Si=Si bond [103].

Although chemical reduction of disilenes is well investigated [4], chemical oxidation of disilenes is still quite rare. Sekiguchi and coworkers reported the reversible one-electron redox system of tetrasilyldisilene **17**, which undergoes a one-electron oxidation with Ph_3C^+ ·TPFPB⁻ (TPFPB⁻ = tetrakis(pentafluorophenyl) borate) to give the disilene radical cation **175**⁺·TPFPB⁻. This cation is converted back to **17** by reduction with potassium graphite (Scheme 31) [103]. Treatment of disilene **17** with 1.2 equiv of *t*-BuLi in THF gave the lithium salt of anion radical **176**⁻ in 58% yield and **176**⁻ was also quantitatively converted to neutral disilene **17** upon one-electron oxidation with Ph_3C^+ ·TPFPB⁻ [103].



The one-electron oxidation of disilene 17 results in 2.1% stretching (2.307(2) Å)and more twisting (64.9°) of Si=Si double bond compared with those of neutral disilene 17 (2.2598(18) Å and 54.5°) and a nearly planar geometry around both three-coordinate silicon atoms [104]. The highly twisted geometry is explained by effective $\sigma[Si(sp^2)-Si(sp^3)] - \pi$ hyperconjugation and supported by elongation of $\sigma[Si(sp^2)-Si(sp^3)]$ and theoretical calculations on model compounds [103]. The EPR spectrum of 175 shows a singlet signal (g = 2.0049) accompanied by a doublet satellite signal due to ²⁹Si nuclei of the double bond. The hyperfine coupling constant (hfcc) of 2.30 mT is less than half that of related three-coordinate silvl radical (t-Bu₂MeSi)₃Si[•] (5.80 mT) [105], suggesting that the unpaired electron is delocalized over three-coordinate silicon atoms. One-electron reduction similarly results in 3.6% elongation (2.341(5) Å) and much more twisting (88°) of the Si-Si double bond. However, the geometry around one of the threecoordinate silicon atom is nearly planar and that of the other silicon atoms is considerably pyramidalized, which shows that the former silicon atom has a radical character, while the other silicon atom has a silyl anion character. Accordingly, the EPR spectrum of 176 shows a rapid spin exchange between two three-coordinate silicon atoms on the EPR timescale. At higher temperature, 176 shows a singlet signal (g = 2.0061) accompanied by a doublet satellite signal with hfcc of 2.45 mT, while at 120 K the hfcc of the satellite signal is 4.50 mT indicating the rapid spin exchange in contrast to delocalization observed in cation radical 175 [104].

Interestingly, when disilene **17** was oxidized by Et_3Si^+ instead of Ph_3C^+ , cyclotetrasilenylium cation **177**⁺ was obtained instead of radical cation of **17** [106] (Scheme 31). Although the mechanism for the formation of **177**⁺ remains open, possible mechanism was proposed to involve abstraction of methyl group by Et_3Si (C_6H_6), cyclization, and migration of silyl substituent. X-ray analysis shows that **177**⁺ exists as a free silylium ion and the four-membered ring are folded with the fold angle of $28(2)^\circ$. The geometry around each of the three-coordinate silicon atoms is almost planar and the distances between the unsaturated silicon atoms of 2.2266(10) and 2.2187(10) Å are intermediate between Si=Si bond distances and Si-Si single-bond distances. The ²⁹Si resonances due to the terminal silicon atoms in the cationic part (δ_{Si} 286.8) are low-field shifted compared to that of the central silicon atom (δ_{Si} 183.8). The structural parameters, ²⁹Si resonances, and theoretical calculations are consistent with a trisilaallyl cation character.

Silyl-substituted cyclic disilene **131** undergoes elimination of the substituents upon oxidation to give the corresponding delocalized silyl cations. Cyclotrisilene **131** reacts with trityl cations in toluene and gave the corresponding silicon version of cyclopropenylium cation, cyclotrisilenylium cations **178**⁺ (Eq. 47). In the single crystals of **178**⁺ TSFPB⁻ (TSFPB⁻ = B⁻{C₆F₄-4-[SiMe₂(*t*-Bu)]}₄), the closest distance between the ring silicon atoms of **178**⁺ and F atoms in TSFPB is 6.017 (9) Å, which is out of the range of a significant interaction and indicates that **178** is a free silyl cation. The Si–Si distances in the three-membered ring of 2.211(2)–2.221(3) Å are intermediate between the Si=Si double bond [2.1612(8) Å] and the Si–Si single bond [2.3694(8) and 2.3762(8) Å] of cyclotrisilene **131**. The geometry around the three-coordinate silicon atoms in the three-membered ring is almost planar, strongly suggesting that **178**⁺ is a persilaaromatic compound.



3.2.4 Coordination of Lewis Bases

Because of the low-lying LUMO of disilenes, the Si=Si double bond in disilenes are attacked by various nucleophiles such as water, alcohols, and amines. Recently, Scheschkewitz found that N-heterocyclic carbenes (NHC) can reversibly coordinate to the three-coordinate silicon atom of disilene [28]. Reaction of cyclotrisilene 105 with imidazol-2-vlidene 179 in hexane gave 1:1 adduct 180 as red crystals in 48% yield (Eq. 48). X-ray analysis shows that carbene 179 coordinates to the Cp*-substituted unsaturated silicon atom which are predicted to be positively charged. The Si-C(NHC) distance of 1.9843(14) Å is relatively long compared with those of **138** [1.9221(16) Å] [94] and **137** [1.9271(15) Å] [93]. Coordination of the carbene results in elongation of the Si=Si double bond [2.2700(5) Å; calculated Si=Si distance of 105 is 2.13362 Å] and pyramidalization of doublebond silicon atoms with the sums of the bond angles of 317° at Si(Cp*)(NHC) and 340° at Si(Tip). The ²⁹Si resonances of the unsaturated silicon nuclei [-85.6 ppm] for Si(Cp*)(NHC) and -61.5 ppm for SiTip] and ¹³C resonance of the unsaturated carbon nucleus (161.4 ppm) in 180 are considerably upfield shifted by complexation compared with those of 105 (57.7 ppm and 37.1 ppm) and free 179 (205.7 ppm). A variable temperature NMR study shows that 180 dissociates into 105 and 179 in solution and the free energy for the dissociation process at 298 K is estimated to be 9 kJ mol⁻¹.



In a related work, very recently Scheschkewitz and coworkers have found the reversible reactions of disilenes **59a** and *p*-**60** with isocyanides giving disilamethyleneaziridine derivatives **181a**–**c** and **182** as shown in Eqs. (49) and (50) [107]. During formation of **181a**, [1+2] cycloadduct, disilacyclopropanimine **183a** was observed at low temperature by NMR spectroscopy. On the basis of DFT calculations, a donor–acceptor complex of **59a** and *t*-BuNC similar to **180** is proposed as a transition state.



Marschner have observed the formation of adduct of tetrasilyldisilene (Me₃Si) $(i-Pr_3Si)Si=Si(SiMe_3)(Sii-Pr_3)$ (see compound **193** in Table 1) with KF and CeF [108].

3.2.5 Addition Reactions with Two or More Si=Si Double Bonds

Although simple 1,2-addition reactions across Si=Si double bond have been well summarized in nice reviews of disilenes, addition toward compounds with two or more Si=Si double bond such as trisiladiene (trisilaallene) and tetrasiladiene provides further insight into the addition toward multiple bonds with silicon.

Trisilaallene **83** bearing two cumulative Si=Si double bonds reacted with ROH (R = H, Me, Et) gave the corresponding adduct **184a–c** where ROH groups are connected at the terminal silicon atoms (Scheme 32) [109]. The regioselective formation of **184a–c** can be explained by a stepwise addition of ROH to a polar Si=Si double bond of **83** where terminal silicon atoms are calculated to be positively charged ($R_2Si^{\delta+}=Si^{\delta-}=Si^{\delta+}R_2$). Complete chlorination of two Si=Si double bond occurred upon treatment with carbon tetrachloride to form **188**. Interestingly, **83** reacted with acetone to give bicyclic adduct **185** in good yield. Formation of **185** would be explained by the initial ene reaction of one of the Si=Si



bond in 83 with acetone giving 186, followed by [2+2] cycloaddition of the other Si=Si double bond and the C=C double bond in 186. In the reaction with methyl iodide, 2 equiv of adduct 187, which is formally regarded as the Si=Si bond cleavage product, are obtained.

On the other hand, the reactivity of silyl-substituted trisilaallene **85** toward alcohols is different from that of alkyl-substituted trisilaallene **83**. Trisilaallene **85** reacts with MeOH to form the 3,3-dimethoxypentasilane derivative **189** as a single product in 42% yield (Scheme 33).





The formation of **189** can be understood as a sequential addition of methanol to **85** and disilene **190**. Charge distribution of **85**_{opt} (an optimized structure of **85** at the B3LYP/6-31G(d) level, see also Sect. 2.5.1) can explain the observed regioselectivity. The calculated atomic charges (-0.36 and -0.37 for the terminal silicons and -0.08 for the central silicon atom) in **85**_{opt} suggests the charge distribution of R₂Si^{δ -}=Si^{δ +}=Si^{δ +}=Si^{δ -}R₂ which reasonably leads to the formation of intermediate

190 by the initial addition of **85** with methanol. Because of a resonance structure of **190**, the second addition of **190** with methanol would afford **189**.

3.2.6 Miscellaneous

The increased diversity of disilenes enables the discovery of new, unusual, and interesting reactions. Interestingly, *trans*-109 isomerized stereospecifically to tetracyclic compound 191 in 100% yield upon heating at 110°C in xylene- d_{10} or in the solid state (Eq. 51) [85]. The activation parameters for the isomerization are $\Delta H^{\ddagger} = 19.0 \pm 1.2$ kcal mol⁻¹ and $\Delta S^{\ddagger} = -21 \pm 3$ kcal mol⁻¹. The largely negative ΔS^{\ddagger} may rule out multistep mechanisms involving cleavage of the Si–Si bond or the Si=Si bond. Stereospecific formation of tetracyclic compound 191 and the activation parameters show that this isomerization is an unprecedented symmetry-allowed thermal [2s+2a] intramolecular cycloaddition between Si=Si double bond and Si–Si single bond.



4 Outlook

In this decade, the diversity of the structure and reactivity of disilenes have dramatically increased, and stable disilenes began to be used as unique π electron units for functional materials, e.g., in electroluminescent devices. This indicates that disilenes as well as other unsaturated silicon compounds are evolving from fundamentally interesting molecules to useful and unique π electron units. Further efforts to exploit the feature of silicon π electron compounds are anticipated not only to establish deeper understanding of structure, bonding, reactivity, and functionality of the multiply bonded compounds of main group elements but also in order to contribute to the development of brand-new functional materials such as nanostructured materials, molecular catalysts for useful transformation reactions, small molecule activators, and organic–inorganic hybrid materials.
		Reference	(CCDC#)	id [27]	stals [38] (CCDC-717685)	id [39]	(d [39] (CCDC-848107)	sensi- [43] inge (CCDC-768712)	stals [38]	[38]	stals [38] (CCDC-712687)	[38]	id [39] 77)	stals [44] 75)	stals [51] 36) (CCDC-770875)	stals [52] (CCDC-780524)	stals [52] 20) (CCDC-780525)
		Habit	(mp/°C)	Orange soli	Yellow crys	Yellow soli	Yellow soli (247–249)	Thermally s tive ora crystals	Yellow crys		Yellow crys		Yellow soli (275–27	Yellow crys (174–1'	Orange crys (134–1)	Orange crys (124)	Orange crys (119–11
UV-vis	$\lambda_{\max}/nm (\varepsilon)$	in hexane ^d	at rt		434 (25000)	386 (12000)	401 (12000)		375 (14000), 422 (sh, 9000) [THF]	,			405 (18000)	414 (3900) [THF]	438 (9740)	433 (3670)	411 (3600)
Si hond		Twist angle	τ/deg		1.1		0	2.1			0.3			0	10.4	11.8	10.7
ters around Si-		trans-Bent	angle <i>β</i> /deg		32.4, 30.8	0,00	29.0	30.6 (Si ^a), 25.7 (Si ^b)			26.2 (Si ^b), 25.1 (Si ^a)			16.9	18.7 (Si ^a), 11.6 (Si ^b)	15.4 (Si ^a), 9.6 (Si ^b)	31.2 (Si ^a), 19.3 (Si ^b)
Metric narame	INICILIC Parallic		d(Si=Si)/Å		2.2264(8)		2.1795(9)	2.1914(9)			2.2019(12)			2.213(2)	2.1647(2)	2.1596(17)	2.1949(7)
		$-\delta(Si)$	in C ₆ D ₆ ^d at rt	99.1, 54.7	79.4	74.6	73.2	76.8 (Si ^a), 51.7 (Si ^b) $^{1}J(Si,Si) = 128 Hz$	74.9, 76.2	80.0, 86.6	80.6, 82.4	75.2, 81.0	67.5, 76.1		-39.3 (1J(Si,H) = 157 Hz, Sia), 170.5 (Sib)	$-34.1 ({}^{1}J(Si,H) = 149 Hz, Si^{a}),$ $159.0 (Si^{b})$	$-47.2 (^{1}J(Si,H) =$ 139 Hz, Si ^a), 136.5 (Si ^b)
				10	27	28a	28b	29	30a	30b	30c	30 d	31	32	46a	46b	46c
			${f R}^4$	$SiTipCl_2$	Bbt	EMind	Eind	-	Bbt	Bbt	Bbt	Bbt	EMind	Si(<i>i</i> -Pr)Dsi ₂	Si(<i>i</i> -Pr)Dsi ₂	Si(<i>i</i> -Pr)Dsi ₂	Si(<i>i</i> -Pr)Dsi ₂
			\mathbb{R}^{3}	Tip	Br	Br	Br	Tip	Br	Br	Br	Br	Br	CN	NEt ₂	Pyrrolidyl	NH(<i>t</i> -Bu)
<u> </u>		R ⁴	\mathbb{R}^2	Tip	Br	Br	Br	Tip	Me	Et	n-Bu	Ph	Ph	CN	Н	Н	Н
Si ^a — Si ^t	í i	\mathbb{R}^2	\mathbf{R}^{1}	Tip	Bbt	EMind	Eind	Tip	Bbt	Bbt	Bbt	Bbt	EMind	Si(<i>i</i> -Pr)Dsi ₂	Si(<i>i</i> -Pr)Dsi ₂	Si(<i>i</i> -Pr)Dsi ₂	Si(<i>i</i> -Pr)Dsi ₂

 Table 1
 Properties and structural parameters of acyclic disilenes

Table 1	continued)										
L L	R ³										
Si ^a — Si ^l						Metric paramet	ers around Si=S	i bond	UV-vis		
R^{2}	R^4				δ(Si)		trans-Bent	Twist angle	$\lambda_{\max/\text{nm}}(\varepsilon)$ in hexane ^d	Habit	Reference
R ¹	\mathbb{R}^2	\mathbb{R}^{3}	${ m R}^4$		in C ₆ D ₆ ^d at rt	d(Si=Si)/Å	angle <i>β</i> /deg	τ/deg	at rt	(mp/°C)	(CCDC#)
Si(<i>i</i> -Pr)Dsi ₂	Н	NPh_2	Si(<i>i</i> -Pr)Dsi ₂	46d	$66.6 (^{1}J(Si,H) =$ 160 Hz, Si ^a), 136.4 (Si ^b)	2.1790(14)	14.5 (Si ^b)		339 (2250), 440 (4430)	Orange crystals (161)	[51] (CCDC-770876)
Tip	Tip	Tip	PPh_2	47a	96.5(² /(Si,P)=77 Hz, Si ^a), 54.4 (¹ J(Si,P)= 116 Hz, Si ^b)				423 (18380)	Orange crystals (135)	[43]
Tip	Tip	Tip	$P(i-Pr)_2$	47b	96.6 (br, ${}^{2}I(Si,P) =$ ca. 60 Hz, Si ⁰), 53.2 (${}^{1}I(Si,P) =$ 118 Hz, Si ^b).					Orange-yellow solid	[43]
Tip	Tip	Tip	PCy ₂	47c	95.4 (br, ${}^{2}/(Si,P) =$ ca. 60 Hz, Si ^a), 52.5 (br., ${}^{1}/(Si,P) =$ ca. 115 Hz, Si ^b).	2.1542(11)	8.9 (Si ^a), 7.7 (Si ^b)	1.8	416 (18970)	Orange crystals (140)	[43] (CCDC-768711)
Tip	Tip	Tip	P(<i>t</i> -Bu) ₂	47d	98.8 $(^{2}I(Si,P) =$ 89 Hz, Si ^a), 53.0 $(^{1}I(Si,P) = 133$ Hz, Si^{b} $^{1}J(Si,Si) = 143$ Hz,					Orange-yellow solid	[43]
Tip	Tip	Tip	SiMe ₂ CI	48a	$103.0 (Si^{a}),$ 39.9 (Si^{b}) $^{1}J(Si,Si) = 123 \text{ Hz}$					Orange crystals	[53]
Tip	Tip	Tip	SiPh ₂ Cl	48b ^a	$109.1 (Si^{a})$ 35.5 (Si ^b) ¹ J (Si,Si) = 120 Hz	2.1898(9), 2.1797(9),	$17.3 (Si^{a1}),$ 25.0 (Si ^{b1}),	7.1, 8.2,	427(24800)	Orange crystals (134, dec.)	[53] (CCDC-691791)

(continued)											
	isomerization)					(
[57]	Yellow crystals (100,	421 (2000) [THF]				$61.8 (^{1}J(Si,H) = 210 Hz)$	58b	Bbt	Н	Н	Bbt
	crystals (160, isomerization)	[THF]				216 Hz)					
[57]	Pale-yellow	411 (21000)	0	6.3	2.1708(6)	$63.3 \ (^{1}J(Si,H) =$	58a	Bbp	Н	Н	Bbp
[56] (CCDC-716042)	Yellow crystals (159–160)	395 (1600)	6.6	1.5 (Si ^a), 0.7 (Si ^b)	2.192(2)	111.7 (Si ^a), 127.3 (Si ^b)	56b	B(cat)	Si(<i>t</i> -Bu) ₂ Me	Si(t-Bu) ₂ Me	Si(<i>t</i> -Bu) ₂ Me
[56]	Yellow crystals (155–156)	393 (1450)				111.5 (Si ^a), 127.0 (Si ^b)	56a	B(pin)	Si(<i>t</i> -Bu) ₂ Me	Si(t-Bu) ₂ Me	Si(t-Bu) ₂ Me
أردر	rellow crystals (107–109)	, (UC 821) 872 (0540) 411 (8740)	<i>v.</i> c	10./ (St ⁻), 14.1 (Si ^b)	2.1034(12)	123.4 (J(S),H) = 174 Hz, Si ^a) 84.3 (Si ^b)	000	51(<i>t</i> -PT)US1 ₂	B(cal)	ц	SI(I-PT)US12
(CCDC-770877)	(130–131)	469 (3050)		3.4 (Si ^b)		157 Hz, Si ^a), 121.7 (Si ^b)				:	
				15.4 (Si ^{b2}),		-	1			ł	
[54] (CCDC-728278)	Red crystals (155, dec.)	431 (10000)	9.3, 10.4	$18.0 \text{ (Si}^{a1}\text{)}, \\22.4 \text{ (Si}^{b1}\text{)}, \\10.5 \text{ (Si}^{a2}\text{)}, \\$	2.1882(12), 2.1767(11)	114.5 (2J(Si, Sn) = 106.9 Hz, Sia) = 40.9 (1J(Si, Sn) = 88.4 Hz, Sib)	50 ^a	Sn(<i>t</i> -Bu) ₂ Cl	Tip	Tip	Tip
[54]	Red crystals (170, dec.)	417 (10050)				113.3 (2J(Si, Sn) = 119.7 Hz, Sia) = 30.4 (1J(Si, Sn) = 480.7 Hz, Sib)	49c	SnPh ₃	Tip	Tip	Tip
[54]	Red crystals (64–67)	430 (9620)				$105.3 (^2J(Si, Sn) = 98.8 Hz, Si^a)$ $98.8 (^1J(Si, Sn) = 35.8 (^1J(Si, Sn) = 353.6 Hz, Si^b)$	49b	$Sn(n-Bu)_3$	Tip	Tip	Tip
[54] (CCDC-728277)	Red crystals (141, dec.)	441 (8300)	0.3, 1.7	$\begin{array}{c} 17.3 \ (\mathrm{Si}^{\mathrm{al}}),\\ 10.9 \\ (\mathrm{Si}^{\mathrm{b1}}),\\ 18.8 \ (\mathrm{Si}^{\mathrm{a2}}),\\ 17.9 \ (\mathrm{Si}^{\mathrm{b5}}), \end{array}$	2.1618(8) 2.1718(9)	$103.4 (^{2}J(Si, Sn) = 122.9 Hz, Si^{9})$ $38.9 (^{1}J(Si, Sn) = 474.2 Hz, Si^{5})$	49a ª	SnMe ₃	Tip	Tip	Tip
			9.4, 10.9	$\begin{array}{c} 4.4 \ (\mathrm{Si}^{\mathrm{a2}}),\\ 16.6 \\ (\mathrm{Si}^{\mathrm{b2}}),\\ 10.8 \ (\mathrm{Si}^{\mathrm{a3}}),\\ 17.6 \\ (\mathrm{Si}^{\mathrm{b3}}),\\ 3.9 \ (\mathrm{Si}^{\mathrm{a4}}),\\ 9.5 \ (\mathrm{Si}^{\mathrm{b4}}) \end{array}$	2.1767(9), 2.1726(9)						

Table 1	(continued)										
R1 Sia	Si ^b R ³					Metric paramet	ters around Si=Si	i bond	UV-vis		
R2	R ⁴				δ(Si)		trans-Bent	Twist angle	$\lambda_{ m max}/ m nm~(arepsilon)$ in hexane ^d	Hahit	Reference
R ¹	\mathbb{R}^2	\mathbb{R}^{3}	${ m R}^4$		in C ₆ D ₆ ^d at rt	d(Si=Si)/Å	angle β/deg	τ/deg	at rt	(mp/°C)	(CCDC#)
Tip	Tip	Tip	Ph	59a	71.8 (Si ^b) 55.2 (Si ^a) ${}^{1}J(Si,Si) =$ 151.4 Hz	2.175(1)	22.0 (Si ^a), 22.8 (Si ^b)	1.5	439 (19000)	Bright-yellow crystals (156–157, dec.)	[59] (CCDC-643816)
Tip	Tip	Tip	4-FC ₆ H ₄	59b ^b	70.6 (Si ^b), 55.7 (Si ^a)	2.1468(8), 2.1536(8), 2.1417(8), 2.1462(8),	$\begin{array}{c} 4.9 \; (\mathrm{Si}^{\mathrm{al}}),\\ 2.9 \; (\mathrm{Si}^{\mathrm{ab}}),\\ 15.8 \; (\mathrm{Si}^{\mathrm{ab}}),\\ 9.3 \; (\mathrm{Si}^{\mathrm{ab}}),\\ 1.3 \; (\mathrm{Si}^{\mathrm{ab}}),\\ 1.3 \; (\mathrm{Si}^{\mathrm{ab}}),\\ 1.4 \; (\mathrm{Si}^{\mathrm{ab}}),\\ 1.8 \; (\mathrm{Si}^{\mathrm{ab}}),\\ \end{array}$	1.5 2.6, 2.7, 0.9	437 (16800)	Orange crystals (143–145, dec.)	[60] (CCDC-821133)
Tip	Tip	Tip	4-CIC ₆ H ₄	59c	69.3 (Si ^b), 57.3 (Si ^a)	2.1735(4)	15.8 (Si ^a), 23.8 (Si ^a)	1.3	445 (19200)	Orange crystals (145–147, dec.)	[60] (CCDC-821134)
Tip	Tip	Tip	4-BrC ₆ H ₄	59d	69.2 (Si ^b), 57.4 (Si ^a)	2.1707(5)	16.2 (Si ^b), 24.5 (Si ^a)	0.4	447 (16200)	Orange crystals (143–145, dec.)	[60] (CCDC-821135)
Tip	Tip	Tip	$4-IC_6H_4$	59e	70.7 (Si ^b), 56.8 (Si ^a)					No isolation	[09]
Tip	Tip	Tip	4-SiMe ₃ C ₆ H ₄	59g	71.5 (Si ^b), 56.5 (Si ^a)						[09]
Eind	μł	Рһ	Eind	62	63.2	2.1593(16)	2.7	0	461 (24000)	Orange powder (286–290, dec.)	[17] (CCDC-673565)
Eind	2-Naph	2-Naph	Eind	67а ^с	60.2, 64.8	2.1623(18) [s-cis], 2.1667 (12) [s-trans]	5.4 [s-cis], 15.2 [s-trans]	0[s-cis, s-trans]	504 (25000) [THF]	Red powder (282–285)	[62]

Eind	Me ₂ FI	Me ₂ Fl	Eind	67b°	60.4	2.149(5) [s-cis], 2.1531 (13) [s-trans]	4.3 [s-cis], 4.4 [s-trans]	0[s-cis, s-trans]	510 (30000) [THF]	Red powder (284–287)	[62]
Tip	Fc	Fc	Tip	68a	72.6	2.1733(15)	27.9	0	332 (5900), 427 (24000)	Red crystals (160–163)	[65] (CCDC-701201)
Tip	Rc	Rc	Tip	68b	70.6	2.1851(12)	32.3	0	340 (5000), 430 (22000)	Light-yellow crystals (180–183)	[66] (CCDC-712630)
Bbt	Me ₃ SiC≡C	Me ₃ SiC≡C	Bbt	69a	44.6	2.202(2)	8.9	0	437 (24000)	Yellow crystals (251, dec.)	[67] (CCDC-770194)
Bbt	PhC≡C	PhSiC≡C	Bbt	(6)	42.6	2.1871(10)	11.3	0	469 (31000)	Orange crystals (280–282)	[67] (CCDC-770195)
NHC	Lone pair	Lone pair	NHC	137	224.5	2.2294(11)		0	466 [THF]	Dark-red block crystals	[93] (CCDC-687305)
Si(<i>i</i> -Pr)Dsi ₂	NHC	Lone pair	Si(<i>i</i> -Pr)Dsi ₂	138	28.7 (Si ^a) 276.3 (Si ^b) [THF-d ₈]	2.1989(6)	9.2 (Si ^a)		300 (14000), 409 (10000), 440 (sh, 6000)	Brown crystals (141–142 dec.)	[94] (CCDC-829664)
Si(<i>i</i> -Pr)Dsi ₂	NHC	Si(<i>i</i> -Pr)Dsi ₂	ZnCl ₂	138 ZnCl ₂	66.9 (Si ^a), 190.8 (Si ^b) [THF- d_8]	2.2006(13)	4.9 (Si ^a), 17.7 (Si ^b)	15.5	425 (4400) [THF]	Yellow solid (144–146, dec.)	[94] (CCDC-829665)
Eind	Br	Br	EMind	145	71.6, 74.8					Exist only in solution	[39]
EMind	Ph	Ph	EMind	192	65.0				451 (24000)	Yellow solid (336–338)	[39]
Si(<i>i</i> -Pr) ₃	SiMe ₃	SiMe ₃	$Si(i-Pr)_3$	193	147.1	2.1967(11)	11.9	0		Orange crystals	[108] (CCDC-661271)
^a Crystallo£ ^b Crystallo£ ^c s- <i>cis</i> and 4 ^d Unless oth	graphically tv graphically fc s-trans isome nerwise noted	vo independ our independ ers exist in th 1	lent molecules dent molecule he same posit	exist s exist ion							

1 able 2 Properties and suructural pa	traineters of cyclic disile	lics					
		Metric paramete	rs around Si=Si bor	p	UV-vis		
Compound	²⁹ Si NMR ð(Si) in C ₆ D ₆ ^b at rt	d(Si=Si)/Å	<i>trans</i> -Bent angle/deg	RSi=SiR/deg and others	$\lambda_{\max}/\operatorname{nm}(\varepsilon)$ in hexane ^b at rt	Habit (mp/°C)	Reference (CCDC#)
	42.5(Si ^a) ¹ ,0(Si ^a ,Si) = 21.1 Hz	2.118(1)	9.1		413 (4912)	Red crystalline solid (156–157)	[28] (CCDC- 872266)
$\begin{array}{c} Me(\textbf{r-Bu})_{2}Si\\ Me(\textbf{r-Bu})_{2}Si\overset{i}{\longrightarrow}Si\overset{i}{\longrightarrow}Si^{a}\overset{i}{\longrightarrow}Si^{b}\\ Me(\textbf{r-Bu})_{2}Si\overset{i}{\longrightarrow}Si^{a}\overset{i}{\longrightarrow}Si^{b}\overset{i}{\longrightarrow}Si^{a}\overset{i}{\overset{i}{\longrightarrow}$	95.1 (Si ^a), 195.0 (Si ^b)				291 (8100), 454 (5900)	Orange-red crystals (173–174)	[45]
$\begin{array}{c} Me(t\text{-}Bu)_2Si\\ Me(t\text{-}Bu)_2Si & Si \\ & \\ Me(t\text{-}Bu)_2Si & Si^a = Si^b\\ Me(t\text{-}Bu)_2Si & Si^b\\ Me(t\text{-}Bu)_2Si & $	100.8 (Si ^a), 192.1 (Si ^b)	2.1706(12)	0.4 (Si ^a), 2.7 (Si ^b)	Dihedral: 0.1 <i>τ</i> :0.1	294(4000), 320(2800), 463 (3200)	Orange-red crystals (164–166)	[45] (CCDC- 691557)
Tip Si ^a Tip Si ^a Si ^a Si ^b - Tip Me ₂	$105.2 ({}^{1}J({}^{2}S_{1}; {}^{117/19}S_{1}) = 458/479 Hz, Si^{1}y, \\92.5 ({}^{2}J({}^{2}S_{1}; {}^{117/119}S_{1}) = 218/228 Hz, Si^{a})$					Yellow	[27]

 Table 2
 Properties and structural parameters of cyclic disilenes

[30] (CCDC- 732656)	[30] (CCDC- 732657)	[30] (CCDC- 732658)	(continued)
Yellow crystals (167–168, dec.)	Yellow crystals (192–194, dec.)	Blue-purple crystals (196–197, dec.)	
287 (8700), 342 (6500), 376 (9800) [3-MP]	304 (16100), 343 (8500), 378 (11700) [3-MP]	525(420), 394 (19400), 373 (18900), 354 (16600) [3-MP]	
z: 0.0 (major), 11.7 (minor)	r: 0.7	r: 1.0	
2.2 (Si [*]), 23.8 (Si [*]) (major), 6.6 (Si [*]), 33.8 (Si [*]) (minor)	12.9 (Si ^a), 26.7 (Si ^b)	6.9 (Si [®]), 11.4 (Si ^b),	
2.1943 (14) major 2.189(6) minor (disordered)	2.209(2)	2.1754(12)	
131.8 (Si ^a) 97.7 (Si ^b)	132.4 (Si ^a), 99.6 (Si ^b)	123.2 (Si ^a), 85.6 (Si ^b)	
$\begin{array}{c} Me_{3}Si \\ Me_{3}Si \\ Me_{3}Si \\ Ar \\ Ar \\ Ar \end{array}$	$ Me_3Si \\ Si^a = Si^b \\ Me_3Si \\ SiMe_3 \\ Ar \\ Ar \\ Ar $	Me ₃ Si SiMe ₃ Me ₃ Si SiMe ₃ Me ₃ Si SiMe ₃ Ar	

Table 2 (continued)							
		Metric parameter	rs around Si=Si bo	puq	UV-vis		
Compound	²⁹ Si NMR δ(Si) in C ₆ D ₆ ^b at rt	d(Si=Si)/Å	<i>trans</i> -Bent angle/deg	RSi=SiR/deg and others	$\lambda_{ m max}/ m nm~(arepsilon)$ in hexane ^b at rt	Habit (mp/° C)	Reference (CCDC#)
$Tip \sim Si^{a} = Si^{b}$	82.8, 131.6	2.1505(6)	5.7 (Si ^a), 5.3 (Si ^b)	Dihedral: 7.3 r: 0.9	402	Orange crystals (176)	[68]
70 Me(t-Bu) ₂ Si $\sim S_{1}$ $N - XyI$ Me(t-Bu) ₂ Si $\sim S_{1}^{a} = S_{1}^{b}$ Me(t-Bu) ₂ Si $S_{1}^{a} = S_{1}^{b}$ Me(t-Bu) ₂ Si T	165.1, 173.9	2.1975(7)	1.7 (Si ^a), 14.0 (Si ^b)	Dihedral: 28.5 τ: 18.2	455 (11000).	Dark-red crystals (175–176)	[68]
Bbt Si ^a = Si ^a = Bbt	92.3 (Si ^a)	2.213(3)	28.9, 26.4	z: 42.8	272 (44000), 419 (16000)	Orange-red crystals (> 118, decolorized)	[73]
$Et \xrightarrow{Si^{a} Si(t-Bu)_{2}Me} Bt \xrightarrow{Si^{a} Si(t-Bu)_{2}Me} Me(t-Bu)_{2}Si \xrightarrow{Si^{b} Si(t-Bu)_{2}Me} Si(t-Bu)_{2}Me$	95.6 (Si ^b), 166.4 (Si ^a)	$\begin{array}{l} 2.1808(5)\\ \mathrm{Si}^{\mathrm{b}}\mathrm{-Si}^{\mathrm{c}};\\ 2.3520(5)\\ \mathrm{Si}^{\mathrm{a}}\mathrm{-C};\\ \mathrm{I}.897(16)\\ \mathrm{C=C};\ \mathrm{I}.367(2) \end{array}$	23.8 (Si ^a), 30.3 (Si ^b)	Dihedral: 59.5, <i>τ</i> : 30.4	287 (7150), 363 (2250), 493 (6180)	Red crystals (152–154)	[37] (CCDC- 736896)

[80]	[28]	[83]	[84] (CCDC- 785603)	(continued)
Bright-orange crystals (159–161)	Orange oil	Yellow crystals (153–155)	Yellow crystals (>100, dec.)	
274 (12700), 373 (1030), 407 (1370), 457 (2060)		432 (3300), 326 (4700), 288 (5400), 277 (47 000).	427 (8400)	
			Dihedral: 32.0 r: 15.1	
			13.3, 19.1	
			2.1595(9)	
122.8 (Si ^a)	37.1 (Si ^b) 57.7 (Si ^a) [1,2-dimethoxyethane- d ₁₀]	141.4 (Si ^a)	100.9 (Si ^a)	
e(t-Bu) ₂ Si Si (t-Bu) ₂ Me Si ^a =Si ^a Si ^a =Si ^a Si(t-Bu) ₂ Me	Tip2 Si ^a =Si ^b Tip	-Bu)₂Si Si(t-Bu)₂Me Br\Si Si Si(t-Bu)₂Me Siª=Siª Siª=Siª	SiMe ₃ Si ^{ja} - Ph	
Mé Me(<i>t</i> -t	Cp*	Me(<i>t</i> Me(<i>t</i> -ł 106	Me ₃ S Me ₃ Si 108	

Table 2 (continued)							
		Metric parameter	ers around Si=Si bo	pue	UV-vis		
Compound	²⁹ Si NMR $\delta(Si)$ in $C_6 D_6^b$ at rt	d(Si=Si)/Å	<i>trans</i> -Bent angle/deg	RSi=SiR/deg and others	$\lambda_{\max}/\operatorname{nm}(\varepsilon)$ in hexane ^b at rt	Habit (mp/°C)	Reference (CCDC#)
Me ₃ Si SiMe ₃ Me ₃ Si SiMe ₃ Me ₃ Si SiMe ₃ Me ₃ Si SiMe ₃	128.1 (Si ^a)	2.1767(6)	3.9, 12.4,	7: 3.9	433 (8580), 353 (12800)	Yellow crystals (208, dec.)	[85] (CCDC- 609693)
Me ₃ Si SiMe ₃ Me ₃ Si SiMe ₃ Me ₃ Si SiMe ₃ Me ₃ Si SiMe ₃ Me ₂ Me ₂ Me ₂ SiMe ₃	135.9 (Si ^a)	2.2687(7)	32.9, 0.9	r: 42.5	517 (4800), 334 (6830).	Red-purple crystals (182, dec.)	[85] (CCDC- 609692)
(i-Pr)Dsi ₂ Si SimSi cis-III	156.0				234 (21880), 420 (6040)	Yellow crystals (161, dec.)	[69]
(i-Pr)Dsi ₂ Si SimSi Irams-111	152.1	2.1632(10)	13.8, 10.9	Dihedral: 32.2 7: 15.8	237 (15490), 422 (5320)	Yellow crystals (164, dec.)	[69] (CCDC- 655096)



Table 2 (continued)							
		Metric paramete	rs around Si=Si bo	pu	UV-vis		
Compound	²⁹ Si NMR δ (Si) in C ₆ D ₆ ^b at rt	d(Si=Si)/Å	<i>trans</i> -Bent angle/deg	RSi=SiR/deg and others	$\lambda_{\max}/\operatorname{nm}(\varepsilon)$ in hexane ^b at rt	Habit (mp/°C)	Reference (CCDC#)
Me ₃ Si SiMe ₃ SiMe ₃ Si Si ^{ja} Me ₃ Si SiMe ₃ SiMe ₃	("is) (Si	2.1428(5)	11.8, 0.0	Dihedral: 8.6 <i>c</i> : 4.3	391 (4400), 277 (10800)	Yellow crystals (156–158)	[77] (CCDC- 665966)
Me(r-Bu) ₂ Si Si(r-Bu) ₂ Me Si Si ^a Si ^a Si ^a Si ^a Si(r-Bu) ₃	97.4 (Si ^a)	2.1612(8)	0.4, 4.9	Dihedral: 4.8 <i>τ</i> :2.4	472 (500), 302 (1700), 264 (3900)	Orange-red crystals (213–216)	[90] (CCDC- 279877)
Me(t-Bu) ₂ Si Me(t-Bu) ₂ Si Si ^a =Si ^a Me $-Ge -Ge$. Me Me(t-Bu) ₂ Si Si(t-Bu) ₂ Me Si(t-Bu) ₂ Me	167.6 (Si ^a)	Molecule 1: 2.1874(12) Molecule 2: 2.195	Molecule 1: 14.8, 20.3 Molecule 2: 15.1, 20.7	Molecule 1: Dihedral: 47.7 7: 19.1 Molecule 2: Dihedral: 48.1, 7:21.5	441 (2890), 388 (1160), 337 (820)	Orange crystals (175–177)	[79] (CCDC- 623571)
Me2 Me2 Me2 Me2 Me2 Me2 Me2 Me2 Me2 Me2	123.3 (Si ^a) [toluene-d ₈ , 193 K]	2.252(3)	17.5	r: 22.6	441, 371, 335 [3-MP, 83K]	Orange-red crystals	[26]



Table 3 Properties and structural particle	rameters of disilen	es with conjugative u	mits				
	²⁹ Si NMR	Metric parameters a	round Si=Si bo	puc	UV-vis		
Compound	$\delta(Si)$ in $C_6 D_6^{b}$ at rt	d(Si=Si)/Å	trans-Bent angle/deg	RSi=SiR/deg and others	$\lambda_{\max}/nm(\epsilon)$ in hexane ^b at rt	Habit (mp/°C)	Reference (CCDC#)
Tip Sl ^a -Tip Tip-Sl ^a Tip	56.8 (Si ^a), 70.7 (Si ^b) $^{1}J(Si,Si) =$ 150.0 Hz	2.1674(8)	16.5 (Si ^b) 19.3 (Si ^a)	<i>r</i> :3.9 Dihedral angle with phenylene: 38.9(1)	508 (27000)	Red crystals (~190, dec.)	[59] (CCDC- 643817)
Tip	54.6 (Si ^a), 72.9 (Si ^b) $^{1}J(Si,Si) =$ 148.4 Hz	2.1914(9) 2.1861(9)	$\begin{array}{c} 26.7 \ (\mathrm{Si}^{\mathrm{a1}}) \\ 20.2 \ (\mathrm{Si}^{\mathrm{b1}}) \\ 26.7 \ (\mathrm{Si}^{\mathrm{a2}}) \\ 20.4 \ (\mathrm{Si}^{\mathrm{b2}}) \end{array}$	<i>τ</i> : 0.0, 0.5 Dihedral angle with phenylene 44.0, 47.7	450 (39000)	Orange crystals (162)	[5] (CCDC- 821136)
Eind Si ^a Si ^a Eind Eind Eind	Hardly soluble	2.156(2)	0.7 (Si ^b), 2.7 (Si ^a)	<i>c</i> : 1.7 Dihedral angle with termi- nal phenyl 0.3 and 3.8	543 (30000),	Purple-red crystals (>255, dec.)	[17] (CCDC- 673566)
(i-Pr)Dsi ₂ Si Si ^a =Si ^a Ph	99.2 (Si ^a) ¹ H NMR: 8.47 (s, 2H)	2.2018(18) Endocyclic C–Si: 1.799(5) and 1.804(4)	3.4, 4.3	τ: 6.0 Dihedral angle: 13.1	246 (2548), 313 (745), 382 (240), 427 (116)	Yellow crystals (142, dec.)	[69] (CCDC- 655097)

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Table 3 (continued)							
	²⁹ Si NMR	Metric parameters a	round Si=Si bo	pu	UV-vis		
-	$\delta(Si)$ in $C_6 D_6^b$		trans-Bent	RSi=SiR/deg	$\lambda_{ m max}/ m nm \left(arepsilon ight)$	Habit	Reference
Compound	at rt	d(Si=Si)/A	angle/deg	and others	in hexane at it	(mp/~C)	(#CUDC#)
(<i>i</i> -Pr)Dsi ₂ Si Si ^a =Si ^a N N	54.0 (Si ^a)	2.2531(16) Endocyclic Si–N 1.679(4), 1.678(4)	21.5, 21.4	<i>τ</i> : 49.7 Dihedral: 83.3	269 (13500), 312 (10100), 403 (8000), 431 (10200),	Deep-red crystals (112–115)	[72] (CCDC- 734039)
Me ₂ Si SiMe ₂					465 (sh, 2400), 500 (sh, 1500)		
80							
(i-Pr)Dsi ₂ Si Si ^a =Si ^a N	40.2 (Si ^a)					Dark-red oil	[12]
Me ₃ Si SiMe ₃							
Me(t-Bu) ₂ Si Sia=Si Sia=Si	44.6 (Si ^a), 418.5 (Si ^b)				400 (3400)	Red solid (100–101)	[75]
Me(t-Bu) ₂ Si Si(t-Bu) ₂ Me							
Me ₃ Si Me ₃ Si Me ₃ Si SiMe ₃ Me ₃ Si SiMe ₃ Si ^b Si ^a	210.2 (Si ^a), 9.3 (Si ^b)	Molecule 1: 2.1980(16) 2.2168(16) 2.3400	Molecule 1: 0.2 (Si ^a) 12.3 (Si ^a) 15.3 (Si ^a)	Molecule 1: Dihedral: 122.56(7) τ: 0.8, 22.1	438 (2600), 363 (700), 299 (1200), [3-MP, rt]	Red crystals (100, dec.)	[77] (CCDC- 665965)
Me-si SiMes		(15) [Si ^b –Si ^b] Molecule 2: 2 2045(16)	34.7 (Si ^b) Molecule 2: 12 0 (Si ^a)	Molecule 2: Dihedral: 125 68(7)	510 (1200), 430 (4400), 355 (1600)		
88 ^a		2.2157(17) 2.3423	24.4 (Si ^a) 9.0 (Si ^a)	$\tau: 1.9, 17.9$	297 (2800), 244 (5600),		
		$(15) [Si^{b}-Si^{b}]$	24.8 (Si ^b)		[3-MP, 77 K]		

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Table 4 Properties and structural para	meters of charged disilene	s and related co	spunodu				
		Metric parame	ters around	Si=Si bond			
Compound	29 Si NMR δ (Si) in C ₆ D ₆ ^a at rt	d(Si=Si)/Å	<i>trans</i> - Bent angle/deg	RSi=SiR/deg and others	UV-vis $\lambda_{\max}/m(\varepsilon)$ in hexane ^a at rt	Habit (mp/°C)	Reference (CCDC#)
$\begin{array}{c} Tip \\ Si^a = Si^b \\ Tip \\ Et_2O \\ B \\ Tip \\ B \\ Tip \\$	111.3 (Si ^a), 59.5 (Si ^b)	2.1824(5) Mg-Si: 2.5587(6)	11.8 (Si ^a), 4.3 (Si ^b)	r: 6.8	425 (4193)	Yellow crystals (203, dec.)	[25] (CCDC- 876918)
Tip Tip \oplus Li(dme) ₃ Tip \oplus $C_{U}^{O} \oplus$ T_{I}^{D} \oplus T_{I}^{O}	94.46 (Si ^b), 90.16 (Si ^a) [THF- d_8] 93.6 (Si ^b), 91.8 (Si ^a) [C ₆ D ₆]	2.1721(12), 2.1696(11) Cu-Si: 2.2412(8), 2.2458(8)	$14.6, 16.7 \\ (Sib), \\ 8.1, 11.8 \\ (Sia)$	r: 4.4, 4.6	476 (31127), 371 [THF] 462, 384 [hexane]	Deep-red crystals (176, dec.)	[25] (CCDC- 876919)
Tip	107.05 (Si ^b), 57.48 (Si ^a) [THF-d ₈]				468 (28728), 356 [hexane]	Red solid (204, dec.)	[25]
Tip Sime Tip ZrCp ₂ CI	152.5 (Si ^b), 116.8 (Si ^a)	2.2144(7), Si ^b –Zr: 2.7611(6)	6.1 (Si ^a), 5.5 (Si ^b)	<i>τ</i> : 4.3	715 (approx. 7000), 416 (approx. 3000)	Green solid	[26]

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Table 4 (continued)							
		Metric parame	eters around (Si=Si bond			
Compound	²⁹ Si NMR δ(Si) in C ₆ D ₆ ^a at rt	d(Si=Si)/Å	<i>trans</i> - Bent angle/deg	RSi=SiR/deg and others	UV-vis $\lambda_{\max}/\operatorname{nm}(\varepsilon)$ in hexane ^a at rt	Habit (mp/°C)	Reference (CCDC#)
Me(t-Bu) ₂ Si SimSi Me(t-Bu) ₂ Si K	$\begin{array}{c} 81.7 (\mathrm{Si}^{\mathrm{a}}), \\ 323.1 (\mathrm{Si}^{\mathrm{b}}) \\ [\mathrm{THF-}d_8] \end{array}$					Red crystals (155–156)	[33]
(i-Pr)Dsi ₂ Si Si ^a =Si ^b H Si(i-Pr)Dsi ₂ 20a	124.7 (Si ^a), 165.0 (Si ^b) ¹ H NMR: 7.10 (s, 11H, SiH) ⁷ Li NMR: 0.86.				268 (3380), 302 (1430), 390 (5540)	Red crystals (92, dec.)	[35]
(i-Pr)Dsi ₂ Si (i-Pr)Dsi ₂ Si Si ^a =Si ^b H Si(i-Pr)Dsi ₂		2.2034(9)		Si-Si ^a -Si ^b -Si: 177,9 A(SiSi ^a Si ^b): 121.45(3), A(SiSi ^b Si ^a): 102.69(3)			[35] (CCDC- 638830)
(i-Pr)Dsi ₂ Si Si ^a =Si ^b Me ^{Si((-Pr)Dsi₂ 21}	114.1 (Si ^b), 143.4 (Si ^a) [THF- d_8],					Red	[36]

[35] (CCDC- 638831)	[37]	[37]	(continued)
Dark-brown crystals (121, dec.)	Orange crystals (121, dec.)	Orange crystals (145, dec.)	
237 (14800), 292 (4890), 403 (2040), 713 (50) [hexane]	240 (38800), 283 (7060), 482 (3200)	276 (8520), 361 (1540), 490 (4400)	
$\begin{array}{l} \mathrm{Si}_{\beta} - \mathrm{Si}_{\alpha} - \mathrm{Si}_{\alpha} - \mathrm{Si}_{\beta};\\ 177.7\\ & 177.7\\ & A(\mathrm{Si}\mathrm{Si}^{\alpha}\mathrm{Si});\\ & 112.84(6)\\ & 112.84(6)\\ & 113.97(6) \end{array}$			
2.1728(14)		Si ^a -Si ^b ; 2.2508 2.2508 (10), 2.2438 (10) SiC; 1.844(3), 1.829(3) C-C; 1.418(4)	
ESR parameters; g-factor = 1.99962, $a({}^{29}Si_{a})$ = 3.92 mT, $a({}^{29}Si_{9})$ = 2.24 mT, $a({}^{1}H_{\gamma})$ = 0.23 mT [MeTHF]	22.0 (Si ^b), 29.9 (Si ^a) ⁷ Li NMR: -5.8 [toluene- d_8]	22.4 (Si ^b), 28.3 (Si ^a) ⁷ Li NMR: -5.0 [toluene- d_8]	
$\mathbb{I} \begin{bmatrix} (i \text{-} Pr) Dsi_2 Si_{\beta} & \bigoplus_{i_{\alpha}} \\ Si_{\alpha} & \bigoplus_{i_{\beta}} \\ Si_{\beta} Dsi_2(i \text{-} Pr) \end{bmatrix}$	$I_{2}^{2}Si \xrightarrow{S_{1}^{2}a} S_{1}^{1}b^{-}Si(t-Bu)_{2}Me$ Et $S_{1}^{2}a^{-}Si^{2}a^{-}Si(t-Bu)_{2}Me$ Et Et Et	$I_{2}^{2}Si \sim Si^{a} - Si^{b} - Si(t-Bu)_{2}Me$ $Et \qquad Et \qquad Et$	
€ iK(dme). 22	∕le(<i>t</i> -B∟ [L.i(thf)	Me(<i>t</i> -Bu	

Table 4 (continued)							
		Metric parame	ters around 3	Si=Si bond			
Compound	²⁹ Si NMR δ(Si) in C ₆ D ₆ ^a at rt	d(Si=Si)/Å	<i>trans-</i> Bent angle/deg	RSi=SiR/deg and others	UV-vis $\lambda_{\max}/\operatorname{nn}(\varepsilon)$ in hexane ^a at rt	Habit (mp/°C)	Reference (CCDC#)
$Me(t-Bu)_2Si \sim Si^{a} = Si^{b} Si(t-Bu)_2Me$ $Et \qquad Et \qquad Et$	$\begin{array}{c} -28.0 \ (\mathrm{Si}^{\circ}), \\ 134.9 \\ (\mathrm{Si}^{b} \ \mathrm{or} \ \mathrm{Si}^{a}), \\ 145.0 \\ 145.0 \\ (\mathrm{Si}^{b} \ \mathrm{or} \ \mathrm{Si}^{a}) \\ 145.0 \\ 145.0 \\ \mathrm{Si}^{b} \ \mathrm{or} \ \mathrm{Si}^{a} \end{array}$				347(2620), 489 (5230)	Orange crystals (139, dec.)	[37]
[Li(12-c-4)_2] [*] 98b Me(t-Bu) ₂ Si-Gee_Si(t-Bu) ₂ Me Ph	[toluene- a_8] Skeletal silicons; 54.4, 69.1 ⁷ Li NMR -5.4 [toluene- a_8]	2.2403(7) Si-Ge: 2.3220(5) Si-C: 1.8269			375 (4050), 474 (4020)	Bright-orange plates (135, dec.)	[79] (CCDC- 288755)
$\begin{bmatrix} Li(thf)]^{+} I01 \\ (i-Pr)Ds_{i_{2}}S_{i_{1}} \\ N \\ N \\ N \\ S_{i_{1}}(-Pr)Ds_{i_{2}} \end{bmatrix} \\ \oplus \\ TfO \\ TfO \\ S_{i_{1}}(-Pr)Ds_{i_{2}} \end{bmatrix} $	97.4 and 104.9 T Li NMR: -0.6 $[THF-d_8]$ 54.0 (Si^{a}) , 168.8 (Si^{b})	(18) 2.192(2)	8.5 (Si ^a), 5.8 (Si ^b)	r: 10.3	251 (23000), 275 (25000), 408 (3600) [hexane]	Yellow crystals (143–145, dec.)	[110]
[] []39							

[103] (CCDC- 695081)	[104]	[106] (CCDC- 714254)	(continued)
Red-brown crystals (91–92)	Red crystals (164–166)	Red-brown crystals (98–99)	
427 (2300)	291 (11600), 436(2100) [THF]		
7: 64.9	2: 88		
2.307(2)	2.341(5)	$\begin{array}{c} Si^{a}-Si^{b};\\ 2.2266\\ (10),\\ 2.2187\\ (10)\\ Si^{a}\ldots Si^{a}\\ 2.8066\\ (10)\end{array}$	
ESR parameters: g-factor = 2.0049, $a(^{29}Si^{\alpha}) = 2.30 \text{ mT}$ $[C_6H_5F]$	ESR parameters: g-factor = 2.0061, $a(^{29}\text{Si}^{\text{c}}) = 2.45\text{mT}$ [MeTHF]	183.8 (Si ^b), 286.8 (Si ^a)	
TPFPB- Me(t-Bu) ₂ Si \rightarrow Si(t-Bu) ₂ Me Si \rightarrow Si(t-Bu) ₂ Me Me(t-Bu) ₂ Si \rightarrow Si(t-Bu) ₂ Me	[Li(thf) ₄] ⁺ Si(t-Bu) ₂ Me ⊖ · · Si(t-Bu) ₂ Si · · · · Si Me(t-Bu) ₂ Si Si(t-Bu) ₂ Me Me(t-Bu) ₂ Si	TPFPB ⁻ t-Bu Si ^a Si ^a Si ^a Si ^a t-Bu t-Bu	

Table 4 (continued)							
		Metric parame	eters around	Si=Si bond			
Compound	²⁹ Si NMR δ (Si) in $C_6D_6^a$ at rt	d(Si=Si)/Å	<i>trans-</i> Bent angle/deg	RSi=SiR/deg and others	UV-vis $\lambda_{\max}/\operatorname{nm}(\varepsilon)$ in hexane ^a at rt	Habit (mp/°C)	Reference (CCDC#)
[Ar ₄ B] Si(t-Bu) ₂ Me Si ^a Ci ^b Si ^a Si ^a Si(t-Bu) ₃	284.6 (Si ^a) 288.1 (Si ^b) [toluene- d_8]	Si ^a -Si ^a : 2.221(3) Si ^a -Si ^b : 2.218(3), 2.211(3)				Yellow solid (240–242, dec.)	[90] (CCDC- 279878)

^aUnless otherwise noted

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Recent Advances in the *N***-Heterocyclic Carbene-Supported Chemistry of Silicon**

Eric Rivard

Abstract This review serves to highlight recent developments in the use of *N*-heterocyclic carbene donors to stabilize reactive bonding environments involving silicon.

Keywords Inorganic bonding · N-heterocyclic carbenes · Silicon

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Abbreviations

Ad	Adamantyl
aNHC	Abnormal N-heterocyclic carbene
Ar′	$2,6-Tipp_2C_6H_3$
Ar*	$2,6-\text{Mes}_2\text{C}_6\text{H}_3$
CAAC	Cyclicalkyl(amino)carbene
Ср	Cyclopentadienyl

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Cp*	Pentamethylcyclopentadienyl
DFT	Density functional theory
Dipp	Diisopropylphenyl = $2,6^{-i}Pr_2C_6H_3$
Dsi	CH(SiMe ₃) ₂
EWG	Electron withdrawing group
ImMe ₄	[(MeCNMe) ₂ C:]
IPr	[(HCNDipp) ₂ C:]
LA	Lewis acid
LB	Lewis base
Mes	$Mesityl = 2,4,6-Me_3C_6H_2$
Mu	Muonium
NBO	Natural bond order
NHC	N-heterocyclic carbene
OTf	$Triflate = O_3 SCF_3^-$
SIPr	[(H ₂ CNDipp) ₂ C:]
Tipp	Triisopropylphenyl = $2,4,6^{-i}$ Pr ₃ C ₆ H ₂
Xyl	$Xylyl = 2,6-Me_2C_6H_3$

1 Introduction

The chemistry of silicon has an important role in establishing conceptual connections between the chemical principles associated with its well-known congener, carbon, and the often vastly different bonding and reactivity pathways observed amongst other "inorganic" main group elements [1]. For example, C-C multiple bonding is a prominent feature of organic chemistry, whereas the formation of stable multiple bonds between silicon requires steric protection of the weaker and more reactive Si-E π -bonds (E = element) in the form of bulky substituents at silicon ([2–6]; for a recent report of a stable Ge=O double bond, see [7]). Despite numerous efforts to prepare compounds with Si-Si multiple bonds in the condensed phase, this goal was only achieved in 1981 when West reported the landmark synthesis of Mes₂Si=SiMes₂ $(Mes = 2,4,6-Me_3C_6H_2)$ [8]. This report was followed two decades later by two nearly concurrent syntheses of stable disilynes $ArSi \equiv SiAr$ (Ar = sterically encumbered aryl group) by the groups of Wiberg and Sekiguchi [9, 10], while Kira and coworkers reported the elegant preparation of inorganic allene analogues including R'Si=Si=SiR' [$R' = (Me_3Si)_2CCH_2CH_2C(SiMe_3)_2$] [11, 12]. These species were important in further advancing the concept of kinetic stabilization wherein hindered substituents are used to create a protective steric cradle about reactive inorganic multiple bonds and/or low-coordinate environments [13]. As more hindered ligands were developed and new molecular archetypes could be isolated in the condensed phase, it was noted that inorganic bonding exhibited unusual features relative to bonding motifs involving carbon. For example, *trans*-bending is often observed within the inorganic Group 14 alkene (R_2MMR_2) and alkynes (RMMR) derivatives (M=Si-Pb) [14–16], and more recently these low-coordinate species, as well as tetrelenes (R_2M :), have been shown to activate small molecules such as dihydrogen under mild conditions [17–19] (a chemical transformation that otherwise usually requires d-orbital assistance from transition metal centers).

A more recent addition to the synthetic toolkit of main group chemists is the use of strongly electron donating *N*-heterocyclic carbenes (NHCs) [20–23] to stabilize reactive molecular entities [24–26]. The primary role of these ligands is to donate electron density into low-lying LUMO states that would normally be involved in molecular decomposition processes. Furthermore, synthetic routes are available which place steric bulk within NHC ligands in close proximity to the molecular unit being sequestered, thus providing added kinetic stabilization of reactive bonding modes such as inorganic π -bonds. Recent examples of species isolated using this strategy include: HBBH [27], B₂ [28], BH [29], and the Group 15 element allotropes P_x [30–32] and As₂ [33].

This review article seeks to document the vigorous scientific activity with regard to using *N*-heterocyclic carbene donors to intercept silicon-based species with formal oxidation states ranging from +4 to 0. A concurrent goal of this review is to highlight the new bonding environments that have been uncovered using this methodology and to provide insight into how the inorganic chemistry of silicon has advanced as a result of the use of NHCs as ligands. Due to the modular nature of many of the chemical syntheses of NHCs, a wide array of these ligands are readily available for scientific exploration with salient examples discussed in this review article listed below (Chart 1). It should also be mentioned that the NHC–Si bonding in these species is largely regarded as being dative in nature [34] (as illustrated by C_{NHC} —Si bonding descriptors), however in some species, significant C–Si π -bonding can be present due to concurrent Si— C_{NHC} π -backdonation.

2 Early Coordination Chemistry Between *N*-Heterocyclic Carbenes and Silicon-Based Substrates Followed by the Landmark Discovery of a Disilene, Si₂, Complex

The discovery of stable NHCs by Arduengo [20] spawned a new era in synthetic inorganic chemistry. Amongst the early pioneers in the field of NHC-main group chemistry was Kuhn [35] who reported the first stable adducts between the carbenes $ImMe_2R_2$ (R = Me, Et and ^{*i*}Pr) and the silicon(IV) halides SiCl₄, Ph₂SiCl₂, and Me₂SiCl₂ [36]. These reactions (Scheme 1) afforded thermally stable 1:1 molecular adducts with trigonal bipyramidal geometries at Si with the NHC ligands occupying equatorial sites. The Si–C bond length in the crystallographically investigated complex $ImMe_2Et_2$ •SiCl₄ (1a) was determined to be 1.911(7) Å, which lies at the longer end of the typical Si–C single bond length range of 1.87–1.92 Å [13].



Chart 1 Various N-heterocyclic carbenes discussed in this review



Scheme 1 General synthesis of N-heterocyclic carbene-Si(IV) adducts and their related imidazolium salts

Treatment of $ImMe_2R_2$ with trimethylsilyliodide led to Si–I bond scission and the formation of the silylated imidazolium salts $[ImMe_2R_2-SiMe_3]I$ (R = Me, Et and ^{*i*}Pr; **2**); the utility of these species as carbene delivery agents will be expanded upon towards the end of this review.

Building upon the initial studies by Kuhn, the Roesky group later prepared a series of carbene adducts of tetrafluorosilane. Treatment of IPr with SiF₄ in toluene afforded a mixture of the 1:1 and 2:1 adducts IPr•SiF₄ (**3**) and IPr•SiF₄•IPr (**4**) (IPr=[(HCNDipp)₂C:]; Dipp = $2,6^{-i}Pr_2C_6H_3$) [37]. Compound **3** has a similar trigonal bipyramidal geometry as in Kuhn's complex ImMe₂Et₂•SiCl₄ (**1a**) [36], with fluxionality between the fluorine atoms observed by ¹⁹F{¹H} NMR spectros-copy at -78° C. The bis-carbene adduct IPr•SiF₄•IPr (**4**) displays localized octahedral geometry at Si with the bulky IPr ligands adopting capping axial positions with equatorially disposed fluorine atoms [37].



Scheme 2 Synthesis of IPr•ClSi-SiCl•IPr (8) and IPr•Si=Si•IPr (9)



In 2008, Robinson and coworkers reported a key breakthrough in the field of NHC-silicon chemistry. Following the successful isolation of a stable diborene(2) complex IPr•HB=BH•IPr (5) via the reduction of IPr•BBr₃ (6) with KC₈ [27], Robinson later investigated analogous chemistry with Group 14 halides [38]. Specifically, when IPr•SiCl₄ (7) was combined with excess KC₈ as a reducing agent in hexanes, a mixture containing the novel low-oxidation state silicon species IPr•ClSi–SiCl•IPr (8) and IPr•Si=Si•IPr (9) was obtained. The disilene complex 9 was then isolated in pure form via fractional crystallization; a higher isolated yield of 9 (23%) could be obtained when the reduction chemistry was conducted in THF (Scheme 2).

The dark red dichlorodisilylene adduct IPr•CISi–SiCl•IPr (8) has a crystallographically determined Si–Si bond length of 2.393(3) Å which is only slightly longer than the Si–Si bond length in elemental silicon (ca. 2.36 Å), while each Si center in 8 displays pyramidalized geometries consistent with the presence of stereochemically active lone pairs. The disilene adduct IPr•Si=Si•IPr (9) crystallized with a *gauche* C_{IPr}–Si–Si–C_{IPr} arrangement in the solid state with C_{IPr}–Si–Si angles of 93.37(5)° and a short Si–Si bond length of 2.2294(11) Å; the Si–Si bond length in 9 lies within the expected range for Si–Si double bonds [2.15–2.29 Å] [2, 13]. The bonding in 9 was examined by density functional theory and these calculations support the presence of a Si–Si π -bond while the remaining Si–Si and Si–C_{IPr} σ -bonds were found to be largely of p-orbital character at Si (>80%), which explains the nearly orthogonal geometric relationship between these bonds. Accordingly the lone pairs present at the Si centers in 9 have significant s-character (73%) [38]. In the absence of donor molecules, the Si₂ unit has been shown to adopt a highly reactive triplet ground state [39], thus the interaction of two IPr groups leads to pairing of electrons to yield a singlet :Si=Si: unit. The Jones group has been quite active in the field of main group element carbene chemistry [40] and reported the synthesis of the heavier group 14 element digermene IPr•Ge=Ge•IPr (10) [41] and distannene IPr•Sn=Sn•IPr (11) [42] analogues via the reduction of the element (II) dihalide adducts IPr•ECl₂ (E = Ge and Sn) [41, 43] with the mild Mg(I) reducing agents [{(^{Aryl}Nacnac)Mg}₂] (^{Aryl}Nacnac = [(ArylNCMe)₂CH], Aryl = Dipp or Mes) [44, 45]. Attempts to prepare the Ge₂ and Sn₂ adducts 10 and 11 by treating IPr•ECl₂ (E = Ge and Sn metal in place of forming the desired dimetallene adducts. As with 9, the heavier Group 14 element analogues adopt *trans*-bent geometries with E–E double bonds. The stabilization of a new silicon allotrope, Si₂, in the form of a stable complex represents an exciting development in main group chemistry which has charioted much of the further chemistry described in this review.

3 Trapping Silicon(II) Halides and Hydrides in the Form of Stable Adducts

Continuing with the theme of low-coordinate silicon chemistry, the study of Si(II) dihalides in the gas phase and under cryogenic conditions [46] has industrial relevance given the likely presence of SiF₂ during the plasma etching of elemental silicon [47] and the role of transient SiCl₂ during the high temperature synthesis of high purity silicon via the reaction of HSiCl₃ with H₂ [48]. Unfortunately attempts to isolate pure SiX₂ species results in either oligomerization or disproportionation to give SiX₄ and silicon metal. It should be mentioned, however, that in 1986 Jutzi and coworkers successfully prepared the stable Si(II) complex Cp*₂Si (12) (Cp* = η^5 -Me₅C₅) [49] which prefaced the later isolation of cyclic *N*-heterocyclic silylenes featuring two-coordinate Si(II) centers [50, 51]. Recent developments in the chemistry of *N*-heterocyclic silylenes are summarized by Burgert and Driess in a different chapter of this volume.

It is important within the context of this review to mention that transient SiCl₂ has been generated under mild conditions and delivered to various substrates. For example, the group of Karsch investigated the dehydrohalogenation of HSiCl₃ using amines as bases to afford SiCl₂ in situ [52]. Later, du Mont and his research team reported the use of Me₃Ge-SiCl₃ as a chemical source of SiCl₂ [53]. These important discoveries, when taken with the abovementioned reduction of IPr•SiCl₄ (7) to IPr•Si=Si•IPr (9), implied that the Si(II) dihalide complex, IPr•SiCl₂, might be isolated in pure form under suitable synthetic conditions. Consequently the groups of Roesky and Filippou independently targeted the preparation of adducts of the general form IPr•SiX₂ (X = halogen) via parallel strategies. For example, Filippou and coworkers generated the stable Si(II) bromide adduct IPr•SiBr₂ (14) in 48% yield by treating the Si(IV) bromide salt [IPr•SiBr₃]Br (13) with two
equivalents of KC₈ in THF [54] (2). The Roesky group used a carbene-induced dehydrohalogenation reaction to generate IPr•SiCl₂ (15) in high yield (78%) via the treatment of IPr with HSiCl₃ [55] (3); the imidazolium salt [IPrH]Cl generated in the reaction can be separated by filtration and regenerated into free IPr via treatment with K[O^tBu] [56].



IPr•SiBr₂ (14) is a yellow moisture-sensitive solid that is soluble in arene and ethereal solvents. The Si– C_{IPr} distance in 14 is 1.989(3) Å (by X-ray crystallography) while the adjacent Si–Br bonds [2.3493(11) Å *avg*.] are elongated with respect to those found in gas phase SiBr₂ [2.245(3) Å] due to an increase in coordination number at silicon [57]. The isotropic solid state ²⁹Si{¹H} NMR chemical shift for 14 matched well the value found in C₆D₆ solution indicating a lack of significant intermolecular interactions in between IPr•SiBr₂ units (as corroborated by X-ray crystallography) [54]. Roesky's Si(II) dichloride adduct IPr•SiCl₂ (15) exhibits similar overall structural parameters as 14, with an experimentally identical Si– C_{IPr} distance of 1.985(4) Å and a significantly pyramidalized Si center [bond angle sum at Si = 290.71(19)°] [55]. Roesky and coworkers have explored the chemical reactivity of IPr•SiCl₂ (15) in great detail, and these studies will be highlighted later in this review.

More recently, Roesky reported the reaction of NHCs with H_2SiCl_2 [58]. In the case of the hindered donor, IPr, loss of HCl did not occur (as was the case for HSiCl₃), but instead the formation of the 2:1 adduct IPr•H₂SiCl₂•IPr (16) was noted. Interestingly, when the abnormal carbene 17 was combined with HSiCl₃, a dismutation reaction transpired to give the 1:1 adduct 18 and SiCl₄ as products (4). In a separate study, IPr was reacted with the formal Si(III) halide dimer Cl₃Si–SiCl₃, resulting in clean disproportionation chemistry to afford IPr•SiCl₄ and IPr•SiCl₂ [59].



In chemistry which parallels the synthesis of IPr•SiCl₂ (**15**), Cui and coworkers synthesized the novel amidochlorosilylene adduct ImMe₂^{*i*}Pr₂•Si[N(Dipp)SiMe₃]Cl (**20**) from the dehydrohalogenation of $[(Me_3Si)DippN]SiHCl_2$ (**19**) with excess ImMe₂^{*i*}Pr₂ (5) [60]. The same research team explored related carbene-induced dehydrohalogenation chemistry to yield stable *N*-heterocyclic silylenes from parent halohydrides LSiHCl (L = dianionic ligand) [61]. This general route obviates the need for harsh reductants, however, insertion of a backbone positioned C–H group on the *N*-heterocyclic carbene into the silylene generated was occasionally noted.



Another synthetic target that was explored within the context of carbenestabilization was the parent silylene, SiH₂. Parent silylene has been generated from the photoirradiation of PhSiH₃ with an ArF exciplex laser at 186 nm and studied by spectroscopic means [62]. As silylene adopts a singlet ground state, dual donor–acceptor (or Lewis base–Lewis acid) coordination appeared to be a viable route towards intercepting this species in the condensed phase (Scheme 3). Added interest in this research stems from the role SiH₂ has as an intermediate in the chemical vapor deposition of silicon metal from SiH₄ at high temperatures [63]. The first formal donor–acceptor complex of SiH₂, IPr•SiH₂•BH₂-SiH(B₃H₇)•IPr (**21**), was reported in 2011 as a product in 30% yield from the borane-induced Si–Si bond cleavage of the disilene adduct IPr•Si=Si•IPr (**9**) (6) [64].



In pursuit of a more direct method, Roesky and coworkers reacted IPr•SiCl₂ (15) with the hydride source Li[BH₄] with the intention of forming IPr•SiH₂•BH₃ (22); however, conducting this reaction in THF yielded the borane-capped Si(II) dichloride complex IPr•SiCl₂•BH₃ (22) [65] (with formal extrusion of LiH).



Scheme 3 Singlet structure of SiH₂ and donor-acceptor complexation protocol



Scheme 4 Overall synthetic route towards the silylene adduct IPr•SiH₂•BH₃ (23)

Later the Rivard group noted that the hydride source Li[AlH₄] converted IPr•SiCl₂•BH₃ (**22**) into IPr•SiH₂•BH₃ (**23**) when short reaction times coupled with an Et₂O/toluene solvent mixture were employed [66] (Scheme 4); prolonged reaction times led to the formation of copious amounts of the known alane adduct IPr•AlH₃ [67], presumably via a carbene exchange reaction between **23** and the AlH₃ byproduct. Based on the energies of the frontier orbitals in the EH₂ series (E = Si, Ge, Sn and Pb), SiH₂ is predicted to be both the strongest Lewis base and Lewis acid in the series, and concurrently IPr•SiH₂•BH₃ (**23**) is stable in refluxing toluene and only decomposes at ca. 230°C in the solid state under N₂ [66]. For comparison, the previously reported Ge(II) congener IPr•GeH₂•BH₃ (**24**) [43] decomposes completely in refluxing toluene to yield IPr•BH₃ and Ge metal (with H₂ evolution). The tin analogue IPr•SnH₂•BH₃ could not be isolated [68] and the use of the strongly Lewis acidic group W(CO)₅ was required to stabilize the Sn(II) dihydride in the form of the complex IPr•SnH₂•W(CO)₅ (**25**) [68].

This general donor–acceptor strategy was also used by the Rivard group to access the inorganic ethylene adducts $IPr \cdot H_2Si$ -GeH₂•W(CO)₅ (**26**) and $IPr \cdot H_2Si$ -SnH₂•W(CO)₅ (**27**) [69]. The synthetic route used to prepare **26** and **27** is outlined in Scheme 5 and relies upon the strong nucleophilic character of the Si center in Roesky's silylene adduct $IPr \cdot SiCl_2$ (**15**) to form the core Si–Ge and Si–Sn linkages by displacing THF from (THF)_xECl₂•W(CO)₅ (**2**6) reacts cleanly with acetylacetone, demonstrating the hydridic nature of the Si–E bonding within these species is currently under investigation; however, $IPr \cdot H_2Si$ -GeH₂•W(CO)₅ (**26**) reacts cleanly with acetylacetone, demonstrating the hydridic nature of the Si–H bonds (Si^{δ+}–H^{δ-}) and the lability of the terminal C_{IPr} –Si linkage in **26** [69] (Scheme 5). In later work from the same group, the Si(II) hydride IPr · SiH(BH₃)-NHDipp (**28**) was prepared in modest yield from the reaction of the stable Si(II) amide adduct IPr ·Si(Cl)NHDipp with excess Li[BH₄] in diethyl ether solvent; compound **28** can be formally regarded as a donor–acceptor adduct of the silyleneamide, HSi(NHDipp) [70].



Scheme 5 Synthesis of the heavy ethylene adducts $IPr \cdot H_2Si \cdot EH_2 \cdot W(CO)_5$ (E = Ge and Sn; 26 and 27) and hydrosilylation chemistry

4 Versatile Chemistry of Donor-Stabilized SiCl₂

The Roesky group has investigated the chemistry of IPr•SiCl₂ (15) in great depth and due to Roesky's recent review of his work in this area [71], only a brief selection of this chemistry will be presented here. A common reactivity thread that arises largely from Roesky's work is the nucleophilicity and redox activity of the lone pair at silicon in 15. For example, the dual electrophilic and nucleophilic character of the SiCl₂ unit was first demonstrated via the synthesis of the donor–acceptor complex IPr•SiCl₂•B(C₆F₅)₃ (29) [72] (7).



In addition, $IPr \cdot SiCl_2$ has been shown to be an effective two-electron donor to a wide range of mid-to-late transition metal complexes as exemplified by the synthesis of complexes such as $[(IPr \cdot SiCl_2)_2Ni(CO)_2]$ (**30**) [73], $[(IPr \cdot SiCl_2)_2Co$ $(CO)_3]^+[CoCl_3(THF)]^-$ (**31**) [74], $[(IPr \cdot SiCl_2)V(CO)_3Cp]$ (**32**) [75], and the Rh(I) salt *all-trans*-[(IPr \cdot SiCl_2)_2Rh(CO)_2]^+[Rh(CO)_2Cl_2]^- (**33**) by the Rivard group [66]. Moreover Roesky and coworkers have discovered that efficient [1 + 2] cycloaddition chemistry can transpire between IPr \cdot SiCl_2 (**15**) and Ph₂CO [76] to give **34** (Scheme 6), which highlights the ability of the silicon center in **15** to act both as an electrophile and as a nucleophile in reacting with benzophenone. Further redox chemistry involving IPr \cdot SiCl_2 (**15**) was uncovered by the same group as



Scheme 6 Representative chemistry of IPr•SiCl₂ (15); Ad = adamantyl; Dipp = 2,6-^{*i*}Pr₂C₆H₃; Tipp=2,4,6-^{*i*}Pr₃C₆H₂

various stable Si(IV) imine complexes were formed by the oxidative coupling of **15** with hindered arylazides [77], such as $Ar'N_3 (Ar' = 2,6$ -Tipp₂C₆H₃; Tipp = 2,4,6-^{*i*}Pr₃C₆H₂) [78] (e.g., the synthesis of IPr•SiCl₂=NAr' (**35**) in Scheme 6). An alternate route to an imine complex with a less hindered aryl group at nitrogen was found via the cleavage of the carbodiimide DippN=C=NDipp with **15** to give the known isonitrile DippNC: and IPr•SiCl₂=NDipp (**36**) as products [77]. When compound **15** was combined with adamantyl azide, AdN₃, the stepwise formation of the NHC backbone activated product **37** and the oxidized triazine **38** was noted [77]. Silylazides, such as Ph₃SiN₃, also participate in clean oxidation chemistry with **15** to give stable silylamido adducts [78] (e.g., **39**; Scheme 6).

A novel donor–acceptor complex featuring a silicon(IV) oxo bonding environment, IPr•SiHCl(O)•B(C₆F₅)₃ (**40**), was prepared recently [79]. This formal silaformyl chloride complex was obtained from the condensation reaction between IPr•SiCl₂ (**15**) and the arylfluoroborane hydrate adduct H₂O•B(C₆F₅)₃ in toluene (Scheme 7); the HCl produced in this reaction was sequestered by IPr to form the insoluble imidazolium salt [IPrH]Cl. The Si–O distance in **40** is 1.568(15) Å and is almost 0.03 Å longer with respect to the Si–O bond length in Driess's silanone adduct **41** [80]. Theoretical studies show that some Si–O π -bond character exists in **40**; however, the extremely large polarization (96% towards Si based on NBO analysis) suggests that this bonding interaction is still considerably reduced with respect to free HClSi=O where the



Scheme 7 Synthesis of IPr•HSiCl(O)•B(C₆F₅)₃ (40) and structure of Driess' silanone adduct 41

 π -bonding component is polarized 80% towards Si. Notably, the calculated C_{IPr}–Si bond dissociation energy in **40** was 51.1 kcal/mol (77.9 kcal/mol when corrected for dispersion effects) [79].

A nice addition of the field of main group chemistry is the use of muons as hydrogen radical surrogates to probe LUMO states via E-Mu bond forming chemistry (E = main group element; Mu = muonium). In a study by Percival et al. IPr•SiCl₂ (15) was irradiated with muons to give the radical species $IPr \cdot SiMuCl_2$ (42) with considerable unpaired electron density located at the carbene carbon, as supported by muon spin resonance (μ SR) spectroscopy and theoretical calculations [81]. Along the similar theme of carbene-supported radicals, a very interesting combined experimental and theoretical study by the groups of Roesky, Tkach, Stalke, and Frenking appeared in early 2013 concerning the synthesis of the novel silane L'-SiCl₂-L' (43) diradical (L = CAAC) [82]. The synthesis of 43 was accomplished via ligand exchange chemistry between the Si(II) dihalide adduct IPr•SiCl₂ (15) with excess CAAC (Scheme 8), and 43 was isolated as a dark blue solid, along with a lighter blue polymorph. These species are exceedingly reactive to air, however are quite thermally stable under inert atmosphere (decomposition noted at 172–173 and 185–186°C for each polymorph). Some broadening of the ¹³C{¹H} NMR resonances of **43** was noted in solution pointing towards the possible presence of unpaired electron density in 43. SQUID magnetometry was performed on a sample containing both polymorphs and the residual magnetism observed was interpreted as arising from the presence of a diamagnetic (strongly antiferromagnetic singlet state) along with a weakly ferromagnetically coupled spin system. EPR spectroscopic analysis supported the presence of minor quantities of spin carriers in solution, but failed to detect the characteristic half-field signal of a triplet state. In fact, detailed theoretical studies indicate a small energetic preference (3-5 kcal/mol) for a singlet state in 43 over a triplet state [82].

In a subsequent report, the same research groups detailed the reduction of **43** with two equivalents of KC₈ to give the moderately air-stable silylone complex L•Si•L **44** (L = CAAC) as a blue-black solid in a 95% yield (Scheme 8) [83]. The Si–C bonds in **44** [1.8411(18) Å] are similar to those found in the diradical precursor **43** [1.8469(2) Å *avg.*] [81] and are significantly shortened with respect to the dative Si–C linkage found in IPr•SiCl₂ [1.985(4) Å] [55]. The C–Si–C bond



Scheme 8 Synthesis of the diradical silane 43 and its conversion into the silylone adduct 44

angles in 44 average to 117.44(11)° which is narrower than the corresponding angles in Kira's bent silaallenes [ca. 135°] wherein formal Si=Si=Si bonding environments are present [11, 12]. Theoretical studies support the presence of significant Si \rightarrow C π -backbonding to give a three-center C–Si–C π -manifold, along with an energetically accessible directional non-bonding orbital at silicon (HOMO – 1). Further support for a silylone structure stems from the calculation of two significantly positive successive proton affinity values for 44 (272.2 and 186.7 kcal/ mol) [82]. Future reactivity studies will no doubt provide further insight into the bonding and reactivity in this formal bis(CAAC) adduct of a Si(0) atom.

5 Silicon Heterocycles: New Directions in Inorganic Bonding

A longstanding goal of silicon research is to isolate a stable monomeric analogue of the ubiquitous ketone molecular class (e.g., $R_2Si=O$), a repeat unit of economically important polysiloxanes. With the recent impressive advances in ligand design, compounds which exhibit Si–O π -bond character have been isolated [84], with the isolation of a three-coordinate silanone (R_2SiO) with an unsupported Si=O double bond now within synthetic reach [84–86]. An important step towards isolating a silanone in a bottleable form appeared in 2009 when the group of Driess synthesized the NHC-stabilized silanone **41** via the mild oxidation of the carbene-bound silylene **45** with excess N₂O [80] (8).



The Si–O distance in **41** was determined to be 1.541(2) Å [80] while the C_{NHC}–Si dative interaction [1.930(2) Å] is the same within experimental error as the C_{IPr}–Si bond length in IPr•Si=Si•IPr (**9**) [1.927(2) Å] [**38**]. The short Si–O interaction in **41** was accompanied by compressed Si–N bonds [1.748(3) *avg*.] and suggests that considerable zwitterionic character (Si⁺–O⁻) is present in this bonding framework in place of an unperturbed Si=O double bond. Furthermore, a significantly pyramidalized geometry is present at Si in **41**, presumably due to donation of carbene electron density into a Si–O π^* orbital ([**80**]; for a theoretical bonding analysis of four-coordinate, base-stabilized silanoic ester analogues, see [**87**]). The generality of this stabilization method was further demonstrated by Driess and coworkers with the synthesis of the silachalcone adducts **46–48** via direct reaction of **45** with elemental S, Se, and Te, respectively [**88**] (9).



When the ImMe₂^{*i*}Pr₂ silylene adduct **49** was treated with dioxygen, the unusual carbene-supported dioxasilirane **50** was obtained (Scheme 9) [89]. Upon storing **50** in toluene at room temperature, a clean oxo transfer reaction transpired to form the *N*-heterocyclic ketone-bound silanone complex **51** (Scheme 9). The formal insertion of an oxo unit into a Si–C linkage is reminiscent of the transformation of metastable dioxasiliranes R_2SiO_2 into silanoic esters RSi(O)OR [90]. The O–O distances in the dioxasilirane **50** is 1.510(3) Å and is in the range expected for organodioxiranes [91]. Expanded Si–O distances in **50** [1.682(2)–1.693(2) Å] were noted in **50** relative to those calculated for donor-free dioxasiliranes R_2SiO_2 (1.632–1.678 Å; [92]) due to the increase in coordination number at the silicon center in **50** [89].

Carbene-stabilized silacyclopentadienylidenes $ImMe_2R_2 \cdot Si(C_4Ph_4)$ (R = Me and ^{*i*}Pr; **53** and **54**) were prepared as orange-red or orange-yellow solids by Cui and coworkers via the dehydrohalogenation of $HSi(Cl)C_4Ph_4$ **52** (10) [93]. The presence of a stereochemically active lone pair in **54** was confirmed by X-ray crystallography, and revealed a highly pyramidalized geometry about the Si center.



Scheme 9 Synthesis of the dioxasilirane 50 and thermal cleavage of the SiO_2 heterocycle [89]

In compound 54, the central aryl ring of the $\text{ImMe}_2^{i}\text{Pr}_2$ donor lies nearly orthogonal to the silicon heterocycle (91.8° between the planes) in line with electron donation from a carbene carbon lone pair into an orbital of high p-character on Si (91% according to DFT calculations) [93]. Silicon heterocycle ring-expansion and insertion chemistry was also reported between 54 and unsaturated substrates such as aldehydes and alkynes [94].



6 Multiply Bonded Silenes and Silynes

The groups of Scheschkewitz and Jutzi reported a joint research endeavor which described the reversible coordination of $ImMe_2{}^iPr_2$ with the heterocyclic disilene Tipp₂SiSi(Cp*)=SiTipp **55** to form **56** [95] (11). The endocyclic Si=Si bond in **56** [2.2700(5) Å] is longer than the calculated Si=Si distance for the base-free Si₃ ring in **55** indicating donation of the electron density from the carbene into a Si–Si π^* orbital. Moreover, substantial pyramidalization of the Si center adjacent to the carbene-bound Si was noted due to the acquisition of non-bonding (lone pair) character upon coordination of the NHC [95].



Sekiguchi and Driess also investigated the chemistry between the N-heterocyclic carbene ImMe₄ and the disilyne (${}^{i}PrDsi_{2}Si$)Si \equiv Si(Dsi₂ ${}^{i}Pr$) [Dsi=CH(SiMe₃)₂] (57) (Scheme 10) [96, 97]. When the stable disilyne 57 was combined with $ImMe_4$ in hexanes, the stable 1:1 adduct [ImMe₄•(^{*i*}PrDsi₂Si)Si=Si(Dsi₂^{*i*}Pr)] (58) was obtained as an air- and moisture-sensitive brown solid [96]. The C_{NHC}-Si linkage [1.9211(16) Å] in 58 was found to be similar in value as the C_{IPT} -Si bond in Robinson's adduct IPr•Si=Si•IPr (9) [1.9271(15) Å] [28], while the central Si-Si distance in 58 is elongated by ca. 0.13 Å relative to the disilyne precursor 57 [2.0622(9) Å] [10], thus the Si-Si interaction in 58 was formulated as a Si=Si double bond. In addition, coordination of ImMe₄ to 57 increases the nucleophilicity of one of the Si atoms and enables the synthesis of the ZnCl₂ complex, ImMe₄•(^{*i*}PrDsi₂Si)Si=Si(Dsi₂^{*i*}Pr)•ZnCl₂ (59) [96]; interestingly, a *cis* arrangement of the hindered $-Si(Dsi_2^i Pr)$ substituents is present in the solid state. To further illustrate the Lewis basic character of the two-coordinate silvlene center in 58, this adduct was combined with the alkylating agent MeOTf (OTf = $F_3CSO_3^{-}$) to generate the novel disilenvel cation [ImMe₄• $({}^{i}PrDsi_{2}Si)Si=Si(Dsi_{2}{}^{i}Pr)Me]^{+}$ as a triflato salt (60) [97] (Scheme 10).



Scheme 10 Synthesis and representative chemistry of $[ImMe_4 \cdot ({}^{i}PrDsi_2Si)Si=Si(Dsi_2{}^{i}Pr)]$ (58)

The use of NHCs as protecting groups or masking agents for chemical transformations is another emerging aspect of modern main group chemistry. Soon after the discovery of SiX₂ adducts (X = Br and Cl) of IPr in 2009 [54, 55], the Filippou group synthesized the arylchlorosilylene and germylene complexes $ImMe_4$ •ECl(Ar') [E = Si and Ge, (61) and (62); Ar' = 2,6-Tipp₂C₆H₃] [98]. The stable Si(II) adduct 61 was then reacted with Li[Mo(CO)₂Cp] in hot toluene (100°C) to



Scheme 11 Generation of the metallosilyne 64 via carbene-bound Si(II) reagents

vield the carbene-sequestered metallosilene $[CpMo(CO)_2=Si(Ar')\cdot ImMe_4]$ (63) as a dark-brown solid [99]. Removal of the silicon-bound carbene was possible via treatment of 63 with the Lewis acid B(p-tolyl)₃ to yield the base-free metallosilyne [CpMo $(CO)_2 \equiv SiAr'$ (64) along with ImMe₄•B(p-tolyl)₃ (65) as a byproduct (Scheme 11). Removal of the carbone from 63 to form the metallosilyne $[CpMo(CO)_2 \equiv SiAr']$ (64) resulted in a contraction of the Mo-Si distance from 2.3452(8) Å avg. in 63 to 2.2241 (7) Å in **64**, with a concomitant widening of the Mo–Si– $C_{Ar'}$ angle from 145.32(8)° avg. to 173.49(8)° [99]. These metric parameters support the presence of Mo–Si triple bonding in 64 while IR spectroscopic analysis revealed that Mo–CO π -backbonding is stronger in this complex than in the alkylidyne congener $[CpMo(CO)_2 \equiv C(Xyl);$ $Xy_1 = 2.6 \cdot Me_2C_6H_3$ [100]. It should be reiterated that the success of the synthetic protocol outlined in Scheme 11 relies entirely upon the ability of NHCs to stabilize low-oxidation state Si(II) species, such as Ar'SiCl. Filippou and coworkers expanded upon this novel study to prepare the chromium complex $[CpCr(CO)_2 = SiBr \cdot SIPr]$ (66) (SIPr = $[(H_2CNDipp)_2C:])$, which undergoes NHC-substitution chemistry to yield the metallosilene adduct [CpCr(CO)₂-Si(ImMe₂^{*i*}Pr₂)₂Br] (67) [101]; removal of a bromide from the Si center in 67 was accomplished with $Li[B(C_6F_5)_4]$ to give the unusual chromium alkylidyne dimer 68 (12) [101].



In a conceptually related fashion, the Si(IV)imido adduct IPr•SiCl₂=NAr' (**35**) [102] was reduced with KC₈ to give the silaisonitrile dimer (:SiNAr')₂ (**69**) as a yellow crystalline solid in a 21% yield (13) [103]. The two terphenyl ligands in **69** form a steric pocket which surrounds the Si₂N₂ core and intraring Si–N single bonds of 1.755(1) Å *avg*. were determined by X-ray crystallography. Calculated Laplacian distributions support the presence of a lone pair of electrons at each Si center, and accordingly, Staudinger type reactivity between **69** and Me₃SiN₃ was noted to form the oxidized silaimine Me₃SiN=Si(μ -NAr')₂Si=NSiMe₃ (**70**) [103].



The regiospecific silvlation of electron deficient alkynes with $ImMe_2^{i}Pr_2 \cdot SiCl[N (Dipp)SiMe_3]$ (**20**) was reported by the Cui group [104] (14). The resulting products $ImMe_2^{i}Pr_2 \cdot SiCl=NDipp[CH=C(SiMe_3)EWG; EWG =$ electron withdrawing group) **71** were generated in high yield and conversion of these species into the synthetically useful trimethoxysilyl-olefins was possible upon treatment with excess methanol [104].



The same group prepared the amidophosphidosilylene adduct ImMe₂^{*i*}Pr₂•Si (PAr*H)[NDipp(SiMe₃)] [Ar* = 2,6-Mes₂C₆H₃] (**72**) from the salt elimination reaction between **20** and Li[PHAr*] [105]. Compound **72** underwent a 1,2 hydrogen shift process under ambient conditions to afford a rare example of a silaphosphene ImMe₂^{*i*}Pr₂•(H)Si=PAr*[NDipp(SiMe₃)] (**73**) (as indicated in Scheme 12). The base-free analogue (H)Si=PAr*[NDipp(SiMe₃)] (**74**) was then generated via removal of the *N*-heterocyclic carbene ImMe₂^{*i*}Pr₂ via complexation with BPh₃. Compound **74** was structurally authenticated by X-ray crystallography, and this study revealed the presence of a short P=Si multiple bond [2.0718(6) Å] and second-order perturbation theory identified a significant N–Si negative hyperconjugative interaction between the lone pair on N and the low-lying Si–P π^* orbital in **74** [105].



Scheme 12 Synthesis of the silaphosphene adduct 73 and generation of the free silaphosphene 74 via decomplexation chemistry

7 New Synthetic Strategies Involving Silylated Carbenes and Silylimidazolium Cations

Although hindered NHCs, such as IPr, are in general straightforward to prepare, their lighter analogues show greater thermal instability and are often synthesized via reduction of their corresponding thiones NHC=S with potassium metal in refluxing THF [22]. An interesting method of generating carbenes that avoids either the isolation of free carbenes or the use of pyrophoric reagents was reported recently by the Röschenthaler group [106]. For example, the stable adduct $SIMe_2 \cdot SiCl_4$ (76) could be synthesized from the commercially available chloroimidazolium salt 75 and later used to transfer carbene (SIMe₂) to both main group element and transition metal (Ni or Pd) centers (Scheme 13).

Weigand and coworkers have explored *C*-silylated imidazolium salts, such as $[ImMe_2^{i}Pr_2-SiMe_3]OTf$ (**80**), as mild carbene delivery agents to yield various cationic and dicationic phosphorus (III) adducts via ClSiMe₃ elimination chemistry. A nice illustration of this concept was the high yielding reaction between PCl₃ and two equivalents of **80** at 50°C under sonication to give the formal PCl²⁺ dication as a bis(carbene) adduct [(ImMe_2^{i}Pr_2)_2PCl](OTf)_2 (**81**) [32] (15).



Scheme 13 SImMe₂•SiCl₄ (76) as a useful carbene transfer reagent



An often encountered, and generally undesired, ligand activation process that transpires with carbenes bearing unsubstituted olefinic backbones (e.g. IPr) is insertion chemistry involving the exposed C–H groups along the heterocyclic backbone [107]. Placement of alkyl groups at the 4- and 5-positions of the carbene

ring does mitigate this side-reaction at the expense of more difficult NHC syntheses. The Bertrand group used backbone C–H activation to their advantage, and devised a general and rapid method to functionalize the 4- and 5-positions of the readily available carbene, IPr [108] (Scheme 14). In this general procedure, the carbenic center of IPr is first functionalized with various electrophiles to yield a family of precursor imidazolium salts [IPr-E]X (E=PhC(O), Cl, Br, OTf, Me₃Si, and PPh₂; X = Cl, Br, or OTf) (82). Upon treatment of these salts with the hindered base K[N(SiMe₃)₂] a formal migration of the electrophilic group from the N–C–N carbon to the olefin backbone transpired generating a nucleophilic carbene site in the process (83). This procedure can be adapted to generate asymmetrically disubstituted NHCs (at the 4- and 5-positions) in moderate to high yields [108].



Scheme 14 Synthesis of backbone-functionalized IPr analogues

8 Summary and Future Directions

This review article hopefully conveys the rapid growth and general excitement associated with the use of NHCs as ligands in modern silicon chemistry. As a result of this new paradigm in chemical synthesis, a variety of novel reactive species that were previously elusive to synthetic chemists [109] could now be intercepted as stable complexes. Not only can fundamentally intriguing species, such as SiCl₂, Si₂, and H_2SiGeH_2 , be handled under ambient conditions (in the form of stable adducts with NHCs), these encapsulated species readily participate in subsequent chemistry anticipated for the free species due to the labile nature of the dative C_{NHC}-Si bonds. It is conceivable that this stabilization strategy could be used to generate new chemical reagents for the controlled synthesis of silicon nanostructures or clusters upon thermolysis chemistry (e.g., starting from metastable SiH₂ adducts such as $IPr \cdot SiH_2 \cdot BH_3(23)[66]$). The recent synthesis of the first stable bis-carbone silvone complex CAAC•Si•CAAC (44) [83] should also be seen as a sign that the search for new bonding environments involving silicon will not abate any time soon. Although not specifically mentioned in this review, NHCs are being used as catalysts in organosilicon chemistry and as initiators for the ring-opening polymerization of cyclic siloxanes [110]. In this light, more advances in NHC-mediated bond forming chemistry involving silicon-based substrates can be expected in the near future.

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