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Synthesis and Characterization of Complexes of [Rh2(NPhCOCH3)4] and Nitriles.

Jennie Tan

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Synthesis and Characterization of Complexes of $[\text{Rh}_2(\text{NPhCOCH}_3)_4]$ and Nitriles

Thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of Honors

By

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The Honors College

University Honors Program

East Tennessee State University

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Abstract

The rhodium carboxamide [Rh$_2$(NPhCOCH$_3$)$_4$]L (L=axial ligand), has applications as a catalyst for carbenoid transformations. To explore the nature of the rhodium-carbene bond, studies between Rh$_2$(NPhCOCH$_3$)$_4$ and nitriles were proposed. Trials of the benzonitrile, o-tolunitrile, and m-tolunitrile have been performed and characterized on the 2,2-trans [Rh$_2$(NPhCOCH$_3$)$_4$] complex via NMR spectroscopy, IR spectroscopy, and X-ray crystallography.
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1. Introduction

1.1 Dirhodium catalysts

Dirhodium carboxylates and carboxylamidates are effective metal catalysts, which affect the successful synthesis of pyrethroid insecticides, as well as other pharmaceutical and agrochemical products. Pyrethroid insecticides have high toxicity to insects, low toxicity to mammals, and pose a low risk to the environment, and thus have been used commercially in bug repellants, aerosols, pet shampoos, lice treatments, and other products.

There are three traditional categories of rhodium catalysts: carboxylamidates, perfluorinated carboxylates, and carboxylates. Tetrakis(carboxylate) dirhodium(II) molecules are homogeneous, soluble metal catalysts capable of stereoselectivity in cyclopropanation reactions. The most commonly used tetrakis(carboxylate) dirhodium(II) is tetrakis(acetate) dirhodium(II), $[\text{Rh}_2(\text{OOCCH}_3)_4]$. $[\text{Rh}_2(\text{OOCCH}_3)_4]$ has two Rh atoms bound together in a +2 oxidation state, surrounded by four acetate groups that each carry a -1 charge. (See Figure 1.)

Figure 1. Tetrakis(carboxylate) dirhodium(II) (left), tetrakis(acetate) dirhodium(II) (right).

Tetrakis(carboxylamidate) dirhodium(II) compounds are easier to manipulate than tetrakis(carboxylate) dirhodium(II) to produce higher
stereoselectivity. Stereoisomers are isomers that have their atoms connected in the same order but have different three-dimensional arrangements. Stereoselectivity indicates the preference of the formation of a certain stereoisomer when a reaction produces an unequal mixture of stereoisomers due to, for example, steric or electronic effects.

The R group (see Figure 1) of the tetrakis(carboxylate) compound can be manipulated to produce steric bulk and increase stereoselectivity; however, this is difficult and cannot be used commercially. Cotton and Thompson synthesized dirhodium(II) carboxylates with bulky R groups: adamantanecarboxylate, biphenylcarboxylate and triphenylacetate. The third compound in their research contains two acetate ligands and two triphenylacetate ligands, shown in Figure 2.

![Figure 2. Molecular structure of Rh₂(O₂CCH₃)₂(O₂CCPh₃)₂(CH₃CN)₂.](image)

To synthesize Rh₂(O₂CCH₃)₂(O₂CCPh₃)₂(CH₃CN)₂, anhydrous rhodium acetate (0.20 mmol) and triphenylacetic acid (1.2 mmol) were reacted together in an atmosphere of nitrogen gas. The bulky ligands (Ph₃CCO₂) were desired to provide the compound with steric bulk. However, only two triphenylacetate groups replaced two (out of the four) acetate groups. It was speculated that four triphenylacetate groups did not fit around Rh-Rh because of the steric hinderance of each triphenylacetate group. Additional Ph₃CCO₂ ligands may be forced to add to the
molecule later, but this process would involve extra steps to perform the synthesis, which may not be an efficient process for commercial applications. Therefore, tetrakis(carboxylamidate) dirhodium(II) compounds can be used to produce sterically bulky dirhodium(II) compounds instead.

The Rh atoms in tetrakis(carboxylate) dirhodium(II) are bound to oxygen atoms and not nitrogen atoms, whereas the Rh atoms in the tetrakis(carboxylamidate) dirhodium(II) are bound to both nitrogen and oxygen atoms. Because tetrakis(carboxylamidate) dirhodium(II) has nitrogen atoms, an additional substituent or molecular group can be bound to the nitrogen. This property allows tetrakis(carboxylamidate) dirhodium(II) to be manipulated to produce higher stereoselectivity than tetrakis(carboxylate) dirhodium(II).

During synthesis of the tetrakis(carboxylamidate) dirhodium(II) molecules, multiple isomers form. (See Figure 3.)

![Figure 3. Tetrakis(carboxylamidate) dirhodium(II) fractions (also referred to as isomers), Isomers I-IV.](image)

The 2,2-*cis* and 2,2-*trans* tetrakis(carboxylamidate) dirhodium(II) isomers are very effective for catalytic applications. These tetrakis(carboxylamidate) dirhodium(II) complexes can facilitate the synthesis of insecticides, which are pesticides designed to kill or deter insects. The type of insecticides in this research refers to pyrethroid insecticides, which are synthetic versions of pyrethrum. (Pyrethrum is a natural compound extracted from an East African plant.) Pyrethroid insecticides, commonly called pyrethroids, have rapid toxicity to insects and low toxicity to mammals and can be made reliably to meet market demands and possess stability towards light and air. The cyclopropane ring is the active part of the
pyrethroid insecticides. However, the most challenging part of the synthesis of pyrethroid insecticides is the formation of the cyclopropane functional group in this complex.⁸ Through studying the formation of cyclopropanes, more efficient catalysts for the synthesis of pyrethroid insecticides can be proposed.

1.2 Cyclopropanes

A cyclopropane is the product of the reaction between a carbene and an alkene. A carbene is a neutral, yet reactive and unstable molecule because of the two unshared valence electrons on the carbon. When the carbene forms a bond with the rhodium atom, it becomes stabilized. The metal-stabilized carbene is formed by both sigma (σ) bonding and pi (π) backbonding. The carbene donates electron density to the metal (rhodium) through σ bonding. Through "backbonding," the electrons (e⁻) move back from the atomic orbital of the metal to the π* anti-bonding orbital of the carbene. When the electrons of the d orbital of the metal (rhodium) move to the empty p orbital of the carbene, π-backbonding occurs.⁹ See Figure 4.

![Figure 4. Sigma (σ) bonding and pi (π)-backbonding.](image)

During the cyclopropane reaction, the dirhodium(II)-carbene bond is often difficult to isolate and study because of its transient nature. The rhodium-carbene bond occurs at the beginning of the carbenoid transformation. A carbenoid is a reactive intermediate with similar reaction characteristics to a carbene. A carbenoid can react with an alkene to form a cyclopropane with similar reaction characteristics to a carbene (further explained on page 7), with the increased potential for stereoselectivity based on the catalyst used.
As a catalyst, tetrakis(carboxylamidate) dirhodium(II) offers the advantageous feature of providing a group near the catalytic site, which can affect product formation via steric bulk and electronic influences. To manipulate the type of group attached to the tetrakis(carboxylamidate) dirhodium(II), certain bulky amides can be chosen.

![N-phenylacetamide](image)

Figure 5. N-phenylacetamide.

One amide compound used to produce steric bulk is N-phenylacetamide. N-phenylacetamide has a phenyl group with the potential for producing steric bulk at the catalytic site. By selecting acetamide ligands with phenyl groups, the bulky phenyl groups can potentially sterically hinder the typically more stereoselectively favorable conformation (trans cyclopropanes) to produce the more desired isomer of cyclopropanes (cis cyclopropanes) to be used for pyrethroid insecticide applications.

Equatorial ligands bound to the tetrakis(carboxylamidate) dirhodium(II) have electronic control over the reactivity of the intermediate carbenoid; an electron-withdrawing ligand produces a more reactive and less selective carbenoid. Since steric bulk on the rhodium, near the catalytic site, influences the position of the approaching alkene by decreasing the stability and increasing the reactivity of the metal-stabilized carbene, the alkene is more likely to approach the carbene from the least sterically hindered position. The bulky group, N-phenylacetamide, bound to a tetrakis(carboxylamidate) dirhodium(II) can increase the steric bulk close to the site of the carbene formation, without blocking the site.
Figure 6. Formation of cis and trans cyclopropanes with 2,2-cis $\text{[Rh}_2(\text{NPhCOCH}_3)_4]$ (top). Formation of cis and trans cyclopropanes with 2,2-trans $\text{[Rh}_2(\text{NPhCOCH}_3)_4]$ (middle). Dotted lines were used to show bonds of the cyclopropane (bottom).
The position in which the alkene approaches the metal-stabilized complex determines the ratio of cis to trans cyclopropanes. The alkene approaches the catalytic site in a position that is both parallel to the carbene and not sterically hindered by phenyl groups (which is the least sterically hindered orientation.) The trans cyclopropane is the more favored conformation of the cyclopropane reaction. The electrons of the carbene close the cyclopropane ring.\textsuperscript{10} After the formation of the cyclopropane (both cis and trans cyclopropanes; discussed below), the tetrakis(carboxylamidate) dirhodium(II) compound is released to catalyze another cyclopropane reaction.\textsuperscript{11} The cis cyclopropane is the active conformation for the pyrethroid insecticides. Unfortunately, there have been less successful syntheses of cis cyclopropanes than trans cyclopropanes.
Figure 7. Formation of *cis* and *trans* cyclopropane isomers. ($L_nM$ represents the tetrakis(carboxylamidate) dirhodium(II) compound.)
Figure 8. The cycle of the generation of cyclopropanes (cis and trans) and the regeneration of LₐM.

The nitrogen of an amide in tetrakis(carboxylamidate) dirhodium(II) donates electron density to the rhodium center and increases the production of the trans isomer. As the stability of the rhodium-carbene bond increases, the selectivity of the alkene orientation also increases. Over the course of the reaction, the least sterically hindered orientation becomes favored, which produces the trans cyclopropane. The steric hindrance of the phenyl group on the N-phenylacetamide can increase the
probability of cis cyclopropane formation via steric bulk, but the phenyl group alone is not adequate enough to favor the cis isomer. Eagle and co-workers discovered that the tetrakis(acetate) dirhodium(II), [Rh₂(OOCCH₃)₄], produced 10% more cis cyclopropanes than the tetrakis(acetamide) dirhodium(II), [Rh₂(NHCOCH₃)₄], due to the electron donating property of nitrogen; however, the tetrakis(N-phenylacetamide) dirhodium(II) produced more cis cyclopropanes than the tetrakis(acetate) dirhodium(II) because of the steric bulk created by the phenyl groups. Using N-phenylacetamide groups as equatorial ligands produces the unique combination of the electron-donating N and steric bulk of the phenyl groups. As a result, tetrakis(N-phenylacetamide) dirhodium(II) possesses two properties to assist in increasing the ratio of cis cyclopropanes to trans cyclopropanes: 1) cis cyclopropane-directing abilities through steric bulk (because of the ability to vary the substituents on the amide nitrogen), 2) σ-bonding and π-backbonding capabilities.

As the bulk of the alkene R’ group (CH₂=CHR’) increases by selecting an alkene with a bulkier R’ group, the cis-trans ratio of cyclopropanes using the tetrakis(N-phenylacetamide) dirhodium(II) isomers increases as well. Eagle and co-workers discovered that for the three tetrakis(N-phenylacetamide) dirhodium(II), [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄], isomers (2,2-cis, 2,2-trans, and 3,1 isomers), the cis to trans ratios of the cyclopropanes formed in a ratio of 1.78 to the bulkiest alkene, trimethyl styrene (see Table 1). After the formation of the metal-carbene, the steric bulk of the phenyl group forces the approaching alkene to react away from the steric bulk of the ligand. To undergo a cis cyclopropane reaction, bulky equatorial ligands on the catalyst will push the substituents R and R’ (see Figure 8) into a cis conformation instead of a trans conformation. It has been previously observed that increasing the bulk of the alkene R’ increases the ratio of cis to trans cyclopropanes when the catalyst is 2,2-cis tetrakis(N-phenylacetamide) dirhodium(II), 2,2-cis [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄]. For 2,2-cis [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄], as the size of the R’ group on the alkene increases from ethoxy to trimethylphenyl, the cis-trans ratio increases from 1.0 to 1.8. The 2,2-trans (N-phenylacetamide) dirhodium(II) isomer shows an increase in the cis-trans ratio with increasing size of R’, from 0.6 for ethoxy, to 1.2
for trimethylphenyl. For the 3,1 [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] isomer, the *cis-trans* increases from 0.7 to 1.0. It was expected that the axial catalytic side with the three N-phenylacetamide would cause steric repulsion ("3" side), forcing the cyclopropane reaction to occur on the least sterically hindered catalytic side. The approaching alkene would orient the R′ group toward the carbene's R group, forming *cis* cyclopropanes. However, the single N-phenylacetamidate ligand on the less sterically hindered catalytic side ("1" side) was not enough to cause selectivity for the 3,1 tetrakis (N-phenylacetamide) dirhodium(II) isomer.⁴

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>R′</th>
<th><em>cis-trans</em> ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2,2-cis tetrakis (N-phenylacetamide) dirhodium(II)</td>
<td>ethoxy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>trimethylphenyl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2,2-<em>trans</em> tetrakis (N-phenylacetamide) dirhodium(II)</td>
<td>ethoxy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>trimethylphenyl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3,1 tetrakis (N-phenylacetamide) dirhodium(II)</td>
<td>ethoxy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>trimethylphenyl</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Comparison of tetrakis(N-phenylacetamide) dirhodium(II) isomers using different alkenes.
Figure 9. 2,2-\textit{cis} tetrakis (\textit{N-}phenylacetamide) dirhodium(II), (top), 2,2-\textit{trans} tetrakis (\textit{N-}phenylacetamide) dirhodium(II), (middle), 3,1-tetrakis (\textit{N-}phenylacetamide) dirhodium(II), (bottom)
In order to continue to learn how to obtain a higher percentage of cis cyclopropanes, parameters relevant to the catalytic process can be manipulated, or the catalytic sites can be probed through using a stable analog. The purpose of this research is the latter: to use nitriles as axial ligands (because of their similar bonding properties to carbenes) complexed to tetrakis(N-phenylacetamide) dirhodium(II) to study their characteristics. Since the rhodium-carbene bond is highly transient, using a stable analog, such as a dirhodium nitrile compound, creates the opportunity to probe the catalytic site of the dirhodium complex. Since a nitrile can also provide σ-bonding and π-backbonding similar to the carbene, we have chosen it as the axial ligand. Also, benzonitriles with methyl groups are electron-withdrawing, and electron-withdrawing ligands produce more reactive carbenes. Depending on the type of axial ligand used, the ligand may bond on one axial site or on both axial sites of the tetrakis (N-phenylacetamide) dirhodium(II). If the axial ligand only bonds at one axial site, the other site may be probed as a catalytic site. A nitrile would be used to block one axial site. Nitriles used in this research will be benzonitrile and benzonitriles with methyl substituents: benzonitrile, o-tolunitrile, and m-tolunitrile.

The 2,2-trans tetrakis(N-phenylacetamide) dirhodium(II), also referred to as 2,2-trans [Rh2(NPhCOCH3)4], was selected for this Honors Research project. By manipulating the electron density of 2,2-backBone-trans [Rh2(NPhCOCH3)4] complexes through axial ligands (L), they can become electron-deficient and used as models for catalysis for chemical reactions, such as cyclopropanation.

An adduct forms when two or more volatile molecules are added to a compound. This results in a molecular complex of the “adduct” existing in between or bound to two or more other structures. Rozwadowski and co-workers have researched the adduct formations of tetrakis(carboxylate) dirhodium(II) (Rh2[(R)-MTPA]4; MTPA-H=methoxytrifluoromethyl-phennylactic acid), and ligands L (L=nitriles, alkenes, selenides, iodides, epoxides, sulfoxides, and phosphorus chalcogenides). Although there are some differences, Rozwadowski’s research can be used to better understand dirhodium(II) complexes with axial nitrile ligands. Rozwadowski’s research will later be used to understand the adduct shifts.
concerning dirhodium(II) complexes with axial nitrile ligands and for comparison of this project’s results (see page 79).

Rozwadowski and co-workers determined that axial nitrile ligands form kinetically unstable adducts with tetrakis(carboxylate) dirhodium(II) (instead of tetrakis(carboxylamidate) dirhodium(II)). The nitrile Rozwadowski studied was 2-phenylpropionitrile for its diatomic functional group and π-bond attributes. The product was a dimer of 2 tetrakis(carboxylate) dirhodium(II) molecules bridged by a side on nitrile. On the terminus of each rhodium was a linear, N bound, nitrile. Strongly binding ligands, such as nitriles, prefer L → Rh-Rh ↔ L, whereas weaker ligands, such as alkenes with low steric hindrance, tend to form a dimer of dimers, using ligands as bridging molecules (Figure 10): ***Rh-Rh***L***Rh-Rh***. (The symbol “***” is used to denote a weak bonds of the bridging ligands to the Rh.) The Rh-Rh adducts are interconnected by bridging 2-phenylpropionitrile at the terminal rhodium atoms, which can be considered as an intermediate during ligand exchange if the molar ratios of the axial nitrile ligand (in this case, 2-phenylpropionitrile), and tetrakis(carboxylate) dirhodium(II) are between 1:1 and 2:1 (Figure 11).

![Figure 10. Tentative binding modes at bridging nitrile molecule](image)

Figure 10. Tentative binding modes at bridging nitrile molecule.

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Rozwadowski’s research continues to imply that, although the Rh–Rh $\equiv$ N≡C should be linear, and the N≡C complexes via its $\pi$-electron, Rh–Rh $\equiv$ N≡C is not linear. Because axial nitrile ligands have a tendency to form a dimer of dimers by bridging two Rh-Rh adducts, Rh–Rh $\equiv$ N≡C is nonlinear. Hameed, who also studied Rh$_2$[(R)-MTPA$_4$], discovered that the R-N-C bond angle deviates from linearity (166°C in [Rh$_2$(CH$_3$CN)$_{10}$]$^{4+}$ cation), and bond angles of [Rh(CN)$_6$]$^{4-}$ are nonlinear. If the axial C≡N ligands deviate greatly from linearity, this suggests that $\sigma$-bonding is dominant over $\pi$-backbonding.

1.3 X-ray Crystallography Introduction

A crystal is composed of atoms arranged in a pattern that repeats periodically in three-dimensional space. A unit cell is the simplest repeating unit of atoms in a 3D crystal structure, which is always parallelepiped and defined by its
lattice points. Lattice points are where the atoms of a crystal vibrate. A unit cell containing $n$ lattice points has a volume of $n$ times the volume of a primitive cell in the same lattice. By describing the structure of the unit cell of a particular crystal, the arrangement of the atoms in a crystal can be predicted.

Max von Laue proposed that the periodic (repeating) structure of a crystal might be used to diffract X-rays in a similar way to how gratings generate diffraction patterns with visible light. His idea was based on the assumption that: crystals are periodic, and X-rays are waves. The X-ray wavelength is of the same order of magnitude as the repeat distance in crystals. William Lawrence Bragg discovered that the geometry of the crystal was analogous to the reflection of light by a plane mirror. This discovery generated the Bragg equation, which calculates the distance between planes of atoms in a crystal from the pattern of diffraction of X-rays of a known wavelength: $n\lambda = 2d \sin(\theta)$.

During X-ray crystallography analysis, a crystal is mounted onto a mitogen loop on a magnetic holder, which is placed onto a goniometer and is immersed in X-rays of a specific wavelength (0.71075 Å). The crystal is rotated continuously about one of the unit cell axes, and the incident X-ray beam is normal to this axis. As the crystal is rotated, the atoms in a crystal structure absorb X-ray radiation and emit the radiation outward, creating both constructive and destructive interference, called diffraction. These rays of diffracted radiation are sent out in the different directions, and the constructive interference from diffracted beams creates a diffraction pattern on the photographic plate. The intensity of the diffraction patterns depends on the size of the crystal, the condition of the crystal, and the thermal vibrations in the crystal structure. From the angles of the X-ray beams and intensities determined by diffraction patterns, the 3D structure of the atoms of the crystal can be constructed. The angles of the diffraction beams also give insight on the specific details of the structure of the atoms, such as the distances of the bonds of the atoms.

1.4 X-ray Characteristics

In order to determine the positions of the atoms within a unit cell, the atomic
structural parameters (temperature, thermal motion, partial occupancy of atomic sites, etc.) can be refined to produce more accurate measurements of the unit cell. Because an atom does not vibrate equally in all directions (anisotropically), it is difficult to pinpoint the exact location of an atom. Adjusting these parameters would result in a change of the values of the structure factors. The best set of parameters is that which will produce the most accurate values of interatomic distances and bond angles. The measure of correctness of a structure is given by the residual or R-value calculated by the following formula:

$$R = \frac{\sum |F_{\text{observed}} - F_{\text{calculated}}|}{\sum |F_{\text{observed}}|}$$

$F$ is the structure factor, which is related to the intensity of the reflection. An R of 0.20 may indicate a correct structure, with the best possible values of the experimental atomic parameters; however, R should be considerably less than 0.20, and an R value of 0.10 or less implies that the results are probably very reliable. By refining the atomic parameters, a low R value of 0.10 should be obtained.

“Residual” is the term used to describe a quantity remaining after another quantity has been subtracted. In crystallography, “residual” refers to the discrepancy index R. For example, when the calculated value of a variable is subtracted from the observed value, the difference is called a residual value. The goodness of fit indicator refers to the measure of the extent to which calculated model values of a set of quantities compare to the observed data values. The goodness of fit is indicated by the residual R-values, which should be low to indicate a reliable structure. Maximum peak in final difference map refers to the space where the probability of the electron density of the model is highest, and the minimum peak in the final difference map refers to the space of the lowest probability of finding the model’s electron density.

To describe the unit cell, the symmetry of the unit cell can be classified by crystal systems and Bravais lattices. There are seven crystal systems and fourteen Bravais lattices; however, we will only focus on monoclinic and triclinic crystal
systems, as well as the C-centered and primitive Bravais lattices (see Figure 13). A system of reference points can be obtained by choosing a point in the unit cell, and all the points that are identical with this point constitute what is known as the lattice points. The lattice points have the same surroundings and are identical relatively in position to one another in the unit cell.\textsuperscript{14}

A crystal is monoclinic if the given unit cell has $\alpha=90^\circ$ and $\gamma=90^\circ$, with no other conditions on the dimensions and shape of the cell. The C-centered monoclinic unit cell has a centering on the C face, which is the face of the unit cell bound by the a and b axes. A point in the center of a face is shared by two unit cells, therefore the C-centered unit cell has two lattice points. A unit cell with lattice points only at the corners is a primitive unit cell. In a triclinic system, no symmetry restrictions occur because the unit cell “cube” is not symmetrical, and therefore only a primitive cell be used. \textsuperscript{14}
Figure 12. Bravais lattices of triclinic and monoclinic structures (above); C-centered monoclinic unit cell (below). Lattice points are at 0,0,0 and at $\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, 0$; $\alpha = \gamma = 90^\circ$.

The bond lengths, bond angles, and torsion angles are all properties of molecular geometry. The bond length of two atoms is the average distance between the two nuclei of the atoms, and the strength and bond dissociation energy are inversely correlated to the bond length. Bond length of the C≡N functional group is significant because it gives insight into $\sigma$-bonding and $\pi$-backbonding. The bond lengths of interest are Rh-Rh and C≡N functional group’s bond lengths. The bond angle is measured by the angle formed by three atoms bonded together. The bond angle of C-N-Rh bears significance because of its ability to influence $\pi$-backbonding. The torsion angle refers to the degree to which four atoms bonded together twist,
and the torsion angle is varied by the distance and orientation between the first and fourth atoms. When the fourth atom is orientation to where it eclipses the first atom, the angle is 0°, but when it is in the opposite position, the angle is 180°. The torsion angles of N-Rh-Rh-O and N-Rh-Rh-N are of interest because they would give some insight as to whether σ-bonding or π-backbonding is dominant.

2. Methods

2.1 Synthesis of [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄]

The first isolation of the 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] isomer was performed by Eagle and co-workers using a Soxhlet extractor to react [Rh₂(COOCH₃)₄] with an excess of N-phenylacetamide, reflux condenser, and round bottom flask under nitrogen gas, which afterwards, was separated by flash column chromatography (medium pressure liquid chromatography). A mixture of [Rh₂(COOCH₃)₄] and N-phenylacetamide in chlorobenzene was refluxed for over 7 days via Soxhlet extractor. The thimble in the soxhlet extractor contained an oven-dried mixture of sodium carbonate and sand, which was replaced every 24 hours. Three tetrakis(N-phenylacetamidate) dirhodium(II) isomers, the 2,2-trans, 2,2-cis, and 3,1 isomers, were then separated through flash column chromatography on silica gel. This method was reproduced for this research in the isolation of the 2,2-trans tetrakis(N-phenylacetamide) dirhodium(II) isomer for this synthesis.

Synthesizing the tetrakis(N-phenylacetamide) dirhodium(II) starting compound required using a Soxhlet extractor and reflux condenser system. N-phenylacetamide and [Rh₂(COOCH₃)₄] were added in over a 10:1 excess. In a 250 mL round bottom flask, 0.312 g (0.843 mmol) of [Rh₂(COOCH₃)₄] and 3.72 g (372 mmol) N-phenylacetamide were dissolved in chlorobenzene, and the reaction solution turned bright green. The Soxhlet extractor was attached to the round bottom flask. The mixture inside the thimble was about 10 g of coarse sand and about 10 g of sodium carbonate, with a small layer of sand on top of the mixture until the thimble was about ¾ full. Eight of these thimbles were oven dried for three days at 125°C prior to use. The Soxhlet extractor was fitted with a condenser, and
the round bottom flask was heated via a curved heating mantle for 7 days. Nitrogen gas was blown through a three-way valve at the top of the condenser into a bubbler, creating a blanket of nitrogen gas for the reflux condenser system. The Soxhlet extractor and round bottom flask were wrapped with a layer of fiberglass and wool, with a layer of aluminum foil on top for insulation. Every 24 hours, the heating mantle was turned off and the reaction system was allowed to cool under \( N_2 \) gas; this was done so that the thimble could be replaced with a fresh thimble by using a pair of long tongs. After replacing the thimble, the heating mantle was turned on again, and the reaction flask was monitored to ensure the solution in the flask did not boil over before left to continue refluxing. After seven days, the reaction mixture was cooled under \( N_2 \) gas. Since sand from one of the thimbles was found in the main compartment of the Soxhlet extractor and reaction flask, \( \text{Na}_2\text{CO}_3 \) potentially contaminated the reaction flask.\(^\text{17}\) Gravity filtration was used to remove the sand and any precipitated \( N \)-phenylacetamide, and 2.286 g of the crude reaction mixture was recovered in another round bottom flask. The remaining solvent was removed using a rotary evaporation apparatus in combination with a water vacuum pump for several hours over the course of 6 days. Some of the chlorobenzene was bypassing the primary trap of the rotary evaporation, escaping the secondary trap of a 500 mL Erlenmeyer flask in an ice bath, and coming out of the water vacuum pump. The water vacuum pump was replaced with a water aspirator. The remaining green, crude reaction mixture containing \( N \)-phenylacetamide and \([\text{Rh}_2(\text{NPhCOCH}_3)_4]\) solid was capped and stored.\(^\text{17}\)

After about a month of storage, the crude \([\text{Rh}_2(\text{NPhCOCH}_3)_4]\) compound was then separated into four fractions by flash column chromatography for six days. The first layer in the condenser on the bottom was a small layer of glass wool, then a 1” layer of sand on top of the first layer, 7” layer of silica gel, and then 1” layer of sand on top. The reaction mixture containing \([\text{Rh}_2(\text{NPhCOCH}_3)_4]\) was dissolved in 6 mL of dichloromethane and was added into the column gradually with a pipette. Because the crude \([\text{Rh}_2(\text{NPhCOCH}_3)_4]\) was colored, the separate fractions were also colored and could be visually seen moving through the column; therefore each colored band was defined as a separate fraction. The first fraction was eluted with a 20:80
mixture of ethyl acetate and hexane as a green band. The next fraction was eluted with a 30:70 mixture of ethyl acetate and hexane, and was purple in color. The third and fourth fractions were eluted with a 50:50 mixture of ethyl acetate and hexane, and both were brownish black in color. The amount of ethyl acetate in the eluent was increased until 100% to ensure there were not any remaining bands. The fractions were collected into Erlenmeyer flasks and were labeled with their corresponding fraction numbers. Each different band was considered as a “fraction,” and was checked by spotting with thin layer chromatography (TLC). A drop of each fraction was added with a capillary tube onto a TLC plate coated with adsorbent silica gel, and the TLC plate was placed into a chamber made by covering a 250 mL beaker containing a 4 mL 50:50 solvent mixture of hexane and ethyl acetate with aluminum foil. Once the solvent mixture was drawn up the plate onto the solvent front, the TLC plate was removed, and fractions whose TLC spots were similar were combined together in the same flask. Each separated band or fraction of [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] had about five 250 mL Erlenmeyer flasks worth of solution, and were combined during rotary evaporation. Each isolated fraction was rotary evaporated in combination with a vacuum pump for more than a total of 7 hours each to remove any solvent. Next, each fraction was then heated in a vacuum oven at 125°C to further remove any remaining solvent. Each fraction, without solvent, was stored as solids separately in 1-dram vials. To determine which isomer was contained in each vial, ¹H NMR was used. The NMR Fraction I was green, Fraction II was purple, and Fractions III and IV were black. However, after adding CDCl₃, an NMR solvent, Fraction II formed a green solution, which was the same color as Fraction I in solution, prior to being subjected to a vacuum. Fraction I was the 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] isomer and was utilized for this research, and both Fraction I and Fraction II were identified by ¹H NMR spectroscopy. However, the subsequent Fractions III and IV did not contain identifiable Rh₂ species. After being dried with the vacuum pump, Fractions III and IV were black and had a melted appearance; instead of having a powdery texture, they had the appearance of a solid that had melted, then cooled and hardened into a black clump. After ¹H NMR analysis of Fractions III and IV, the peaks were determined to not correspond to the
expected peaks, and thus Fractions III and IV were claimed to have been decomposed. Several possible reasons why the decomposition could have occurred include: 1) the crude $[\text{Rh}_2(\text{NPhCOCH}_3)_4]$ was left sitting for about a month; 2) the crude $[\text{Rh}_2(\text{NPhCOCH}_3)_4]$ was separated into fractions through flash column chromatography over six days; 3) the most likely cause: $\text{Na}_2\text{CO}_3$ contaminated the solution and reacted with the $[\text{Rh}_2(\text{COOCH}_3)_4]$, or some of the $[\text{Rh}_2(\text{NPhCOCH}_3)_4]$.

Because the some of the sand was found outside the thimble and in the condenser, the $\text{Na}_2\text{CO}_3$ probably reacted with the crude $[\text{Rh}_2(\text{COOCH}_3)_4]$ to displace the $N$-phenylacetamide.

The weight of the non-decomposed fractions was 46 mg for Fraction I and 132 mg for Fraction II. The actual yield for the synthesis of $[\text{Rh}_2(\text{NPhCOCH}_3)_4]$ was 0.178 g; the theoretical yield was calculated as 0.524 g; therefore, the percent yield was 34.0%. This low yield was probably a result of the decomposition of Fractions III and IV, as their weights were not included in the actual yield.

The NMR solvent chosen was deuterated chloroform (CDCl$_3$). Although the proton from CHCl$_3$ in the CDCl$_3$ solvent overlaps proton peaks in the phenyl region, most compounds dissolve in CDCl$_3$, and CDCl$_3$ had less of a chance of reacting with or changing the sample being analyzed (CDCl$_3$ will not exchange its deuterium with the protons in the sample molecule). For example, the carbonyl group in DMSO, another NMR solvent, could potentially displace nitrile ligands from the axial site of the dirhodium complex. Some deuterated solvents are prepared by catalytic exchange of protonated solvent with deuterium oxide, and then purified by distillation; residual water is a result of H$_2$O in equilibrium exchange with D$_2$O.$^{18}$ The peaks around 1.60 ppm represent a solvent impurity (H$_2$O) from the CDCl$_3$. 


Figure 13. $^1$H NMR of Fraction I.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fraction I</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Peak</td>
<td>(ppm)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>6.982</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>7.263</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>7.129</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d</td>
<td>1.855</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e</td>
<td>1.693</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f</td>
<td>4.110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g</td>
<td>2.048</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h</td>
<td>1.260</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. 1H NMR of Fraction I.

Because the solutions were dilute, the TMS peak in the 1H NMR spectra of Fractions I-IV is much higher compared to the other peaks. For Fraction I, the triplet peaks at about 7.12 ppm represents the H attached to the benzene rings of the N-phenylacetamide, as shown in Figure 14.

Figure 14. Resonance of benzene ring attached N-phenylacetamide (left), proton locations on benzene ring attached N-phenylacetamide (right)

Due to the resonance of the benzene ring and the lone pair of electrons (e⁻) from the nitrogen, the protons in positions labeled A, C, and E in Figure 14 shown above in the ortho and para positions are more shielded, and therefore appear more
upfield in the $^1$H NMR graph (6.982 ppm, 7.129 ppm, and 1.693 ppm.) Since there are twice as many protons $H_a$ from Fraction I than $H_c$, the taller, upfield peak in the triplet represents the $H_a$ proton labeled in the structure from Figure 13 on the NMR spectrum at 6.982 ppm. Since $H_b$ is not as shielded as $H_a$ or $H_c$, its peak will appear most downfield from $H_a$ and $H_c$ at 7.263 ppm. Even though the nitrogen is an electron withdrawing species, the Rh is a metal and is an electron donor. The Rh donates electrons to the nitrogen, and the $H_a$ protons are shielded, and thus the peaks appear more upfield.

The $H_a$ proton is split by $H_b$; therefore the $H_a$ is shown as a doublet. The $H_b$ proton is split by both $H_a$ and $H_c$; and therefore $H_b$ is shown as a triplet. The 7.26 ppm peak is an overlap of the proton from CHCl$_3$ in the CDCl$_3$ solvent, and this peak masks the $H_b$ triplet, making it appear as a doublet instead. The $H_c$ proton is split by $H_b$; therefore $H_c$ should be a doublet, but appears as a triplet. This may have occurred due to an overlapping peak from impurity, or through long distance coupling from non-adjacent protons, such as the $H_a$ protons. The peak at d is in the methyl region of the NMR spectrum. All four of the CH$_3$ groups produced one singlet at peak d. The solvent impurities at f, g, e, and h are solvents from synthesis or column chromatography that weren’t completely removed. The f and g peaks are from ethyl acetate; the e peak is from H$_2$O in the CDCl$_3$; the h peak is from hexane.
Figure 15. $^1$H NMR of Fraction II.
Figure 16. $^1$H NMR of Fraction II from 6.7 to 7.6 ppm, expanded to show the region.
The $^1$H NMR spectrum for Fraction II was similar to the $^1$H NMR spectrum of Fraction I. For the peaks in the phenyl region around (7.0 ppm to 7.6 ppm) those peaks represent the protons attached to the benzene rings of the $N$-phenylacetamide, as shown above. The 7.26 ppm peak, labeled h, is an overlap of the proton from CHCl$_3$ in the CDCl$_3$ solvent. Both Fraction I and Fraction II were compared with literature data to confirm that Fraction I was the 2,2-\textit{trans} tetrakis($N$-phenylacetamidate) dirhodium(II) and Fraction II was the 2,2-\textit{cis} tetrakis($N$-phenylacetamidate) dirhodium(II).$^{19}$

The $H_a$ proton is split by $H_b$; therefore the $H_a$ is shown as a doublet. The $H_b$ proton is split by both $H_a$ and $H_c$; and therefore $H_b$ is shown as a triplet. The 7.26 ppm peak is an overlap of the proton from CHCl$_3$ in the CDCl$_3$ solvent, and this peak masks the $H_b$ triplet, making it appear as a doublet instead. The $H_c$ proton is split by $H_b$; therefore $H_c$ should be a doublet, but appears as a triplet. This may have occurred due to an overlapping peak from an impurity, or through long distance coupling from non-adjacent protons, such as the $H_a$ protons. The solvent impurities at f, g, and e are solvents from synthesis and column chromatography that weren’t completely removed via vacuum procedures. The f peak is from ethyl acetate; the e peak is from H$_2$O in the CDCl$_3$; the g peak is from hexane.
Figure 17. $^1$H NMR of Fraction III
Figure 18. $^1$H NMR of Fraction IV

The $^1$H NMR peaks from Fractions III and IV do not clearly represent any protons from N-phenylacetamide. There are not many protons of distinctness, but
the peaks of solvents can be identified. The distinct peak at 7.26 ppm is from the proton from CHCl₃ in the CDCl₃ solvent. In Figure 17, the 2.03 ppm peak is from ethyl acetate. The peak at 0.88 ppm is from hexane. The peak at 1.25 ppm is an overlap from both hexane and ethyl acetate. The peak at 1.81 ppm is from the methyl group (CH₃) from [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)]₄. In Figure 18, the 1.25 ppm peak is from ethyl acetate and hexane. The peak at 0.84 ppm is from hexane.

2.2 Synthesis of 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] • nitriles

For this study, we chose three axial ligands: benzonitrile, o-tolunitrile, and m-tolunitrile. First, 0.02 g of 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] was dissolved in 5 mL of dichloromethane for each synthesis of 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] and nitrile ligand, and the amount of nitrile that gave a 2:1 molar ratio of nitrile to 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] was added by using a gas tight syringe to a reaction vial. (Glassware was rinsed with acetone and dried in an oven 120°C for a day prior to use.) Different sets of solvents were used in vapor diffusion for crystallization, including: ethyl acetate, ethanol, acetone, toluene, methanol, water, acetonitrile, hexane, and toluene.

1. Benzonitrile adduct of 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄]

0.02 g (0.028 mmol) of 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] were dissolved in 5 mL of dichloromethane in a 50 mL round bottom flask and clamped to a stand. Then, 6.31 μL (0.061 mmol) of benzonitrile were added by using gas tight syringe. The solution turned from green to blue.

2. o-tolunitrile adduct of 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄]

0.02 g (0.028 mmol) of 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] were dissolved in 5 mL of dichloromethane in a 50 mL round bottom flask and clamped to a stand. Then, 6.38 μL (0.054 mmol) of o-tolunitrile were added by using gas tight syringe. The solution turned from green to blue.

3. m-tolunitrile adduct of 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄]

0.02 g (0.028 mmol) of 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] were dissolved in 5 mL of dichloromethane in a 50 mL round bottom flask and clamped to a
stand. Then, 6.50 μL (0.054 mmol) of m-tolunitrile were added by using gas tight syringe. The solution turned from green to blue.

2.3 Crystallization process of 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] • nitriles

1. Benzonitrile adduct of 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄]

   The reaction solution was divided into 10 vials (seven of them were 1/2-dram, three were 2-dram). Seven 1/2-dram vials were used for vapor diffusion, and the other three 2-dram vials were used for liquid diffusion. To perform the vapor diffusion, the 1/2-dram vials were placed into 6-dram vials each containing a different solvent. The seven solvents used in the 6-dram vials were ethyl acetate, ethanol, acetone, toluene, methanol, water, and acetonitrile. The 6-dram vials containing the 1/2-dram vials and solvents were capped and left to crystallize for a week. If disturbed, the product reaction vial (the 1/2-dram vial) was centered inside the larger vial with tweezers. This was done to prevent the solvent in the 6-dram vial from entering the 1/2-dram vial via capillary action. To perform liquid diffusion, 2-dram vials were used with three solvents: acetone, toluene, and ethanol. To the first vial, acetone was carefully added dropwise; to the second vial, toluene was added; and lastly, ethanol was added to the third vial. However, even after a month of waiting for crystals to form, the contents in the vial remained in solution.

2. o-tolunitrile adduct of 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄]

   The process for vapor diffusion of the o-tolunitrile ligand was similar to the benzonitrile. Liquid diffusion was not performed because of the previous unsuccessfulness of crystal growth via liquid diffusion during the 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] • benzonitrile trial (see 2.4.1). The reaction solution was divided into 7 vials (1/2-dram). To perform the vapor diffusion, the 1/2-dram vials were placed into 6-dram vials each containing a different solvent. The seven solvents used in the 6-dram vials were ethyl acetate,
ethanol, acetone, toluene, methanol, water, and acetonitrile. The solutions in the vials were left to crystallize for a week.

3. m-tolunitrile adduct of 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄]

The process for vapor diffusion of the m-tolunitrile ligand was the same as the o-tolunitrile. The solvents used were the same as the ones used for the o-tolunitrile series. After crystals were grown, several crystals were taken for X-ray crystallography analysis. However, after three trials of unsuccessfully solving the crystal structure, it was concluded that the crystal samples were too thin for analysis. The 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄]•m-tolunitrile crystals were regrown to produce thicker crystals. In this second and third m-tolunitrile trials, 0.02 g of 2,2-trans-[Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] were dissolved in 4 mL of dichloromethane in a 50 mL round bottom flask and clamped to a stand.

Then, 6.50 µL of m-tolunitrile were added by using gas tight syringe. Six solvents were used in the 6-dram outer vial: ethyl acetate, ethanol, methanol, water, and hexane. The same vapor diffusion procedure was performed as the first 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄]•m-tolunitrile trial. But once again, the crystals were still long and thin, and X-ray diffraction was difficult due to the crystal dimensions.

A different approach to crystal growth was taken. To the solid crystals, five drops of acetone were added. Five drops of acetone is equal to approximately 250.0 µL, which is much greater than the 6.50 µL of m-tolunitrile, which was added previously. The ½ dram vials were re-submerged in the 6-dram vials, which contained liquids for vapor diffusion. After one week, this method produced some crystals that were X-ray quality.

2.4 X-ray Crystallography

To prepare a crystal sample for analysis, a sewing needle was used to apply a small amount of STP onto a microscope slide. Viable crystals were separated from the reaction vials using the same needle and viewed under a microscope. After
analyzing potential crystals, a single crystal was isolated and mounted onto a mitogen loop via sewing needle to be placed inside the X-ray diffractometer. Using the Rigaku Mercury375R/M CCD (XtaLAB mini) diffractometer, the spatial arrangement of atoms in the molecules of the crystal was analyzed.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1 $^1$H NMR:

- 3.11: benzonitrile
- 3.12: $2,2$-trans $[\text{Rh}_2(\text{NPhCOCH}_3)_4] \cdot 2\text{NC(C}_6\text{H}_4)$
- 3.13: o-tolunitrile
- 3.14: $2,2$-trans $[\text{Rh}_2(\text{NPhCOCH}_3)_4] \cdot 2\text{ o-NC(2-CH}_3\text{C}_6\text{H}_4)$
- 3.15: m-tolunitrile
- 3.16: $2,2$-trans $[\text{Rh}_2(\text{NPhCOCH}_3)_4] \cdot \text{ m-NC(3-CH}_3\text{C}_6\text{H}_4)$

For the following $^1$H NMR (Nuclear Magnetic Resonance) discussions, the term “deshielded” refers to a peak shift downfield, to the left of the NMR spectrum. “Shielded” protons are protons that have shifted upfield, to the right of the NMR spectrum. The NMR instrument used was the 400 MHz JEOL NMR.
3.11 Benzonitrile

Figure 19. $^1$H NMR of benzonitrile from 0-8 ppm.
Figure 20. $^1$H NMR of benzonitrile from 7.2-7.7 ppm, expanded to show the region.
<table>
<thead>
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Table 4. Benzonitrile phenyl protons. See Figure 20.

The protons in the ortho and para positions (Hₐ and Hₖ) to the C≡N functional group in benzonitrile are the most deshielded due to inductive and resonance effects. The C in the C≡N functional group is electron deficient and deshields the hydrogens closest to it (Hₐ). The Hₐ protons (7.656 ppm) in the ortho position are the most deshielded by the e⁻ donated by the nitrogen, and thus appear more upfield. The Hₐ protons are split by Hₗ and appear as doublet. The Hₖ protons (7.614 ppm) are split by both Hₖ and Hₐ, and thus appear as a triplet. The Hₗ protons (7.482 ppm) are split by both Hₖ and Hₐ, and thus also appear as a triplet. Since there are twice as many Hₐ and Hₗ, the a and b peaks are longer than the c peaks. The d peak at 1.61 ppm is a solvent impurity, (H₂O from the CDCl₃.) The 7.26 ppm peak (peak e) is the proton from CHCl₃ in the CDCl₃ solvent (see Figure 19).
3.12: 2,2- trans $[\text{Rh}_2(\text{NPhCOCH}_3)_4] \cdot 2\text{NC(C}_6\text{H}_4)$

Figure 21. $^1$H NMR of 2,2- trans $[\text{Rh}_2(\text{NPhCOCH}_3)_4] \cdot 2\text{NC(C}_6\text{H}_4)$ from 0.0-8.0 ppm.
Figure 22. Proton labels for 2,2-\textit{trans} \([\text{Rh}_2(\text{NPhCOCH}_3)_4]\) \(\cdot\) 2NC(C_6H_4).
Figure 23. $^1$H NMR of 2,2-trans[Rh$_2$(NPhCOCH$_3$)$_4$]•2NC(C$_6$H$_4$) from 6.0-7.6 ppm.

The rhodium atom, because it is a metal bound to the C≡N functional group, manipulates the C≡N functional group's properties from functioning as an electron withdrawing group to functioning similar to an electron donating group. The
protons on the phenyl ring of the benzonitrile are deshielded by the C≡N functional group, but the protons in the ortho position are less deshielded than the para position. The Hₐ protons (7.281 ppm) are more shielded through the inductive effect than the Hₐ or H₉ protons because they are the closest to the C≡N. The Hₐ protons should appear as a doublet, but the peaks are masked by the CHCl₃ solvent peak at 7.26 ppm. Similarly, through the same effect, the H₉ protons (7.374 ppm) are also shielded by the C≡N functional group; however, since the H₉ protons are not as close to the C≡N functional group as the Hₐ protons, the H₉ appear slightly more downfield to the Hₐ protons. The H₉ protons appear as a triplet because they are split by the Hₐ and H₉ protons. The H₉ protons (7.539 ppm) para to the C≡N functional group are the most deshielded by the C≡N functional group. The H₉ protons appear as a triplet because they are split by the H₉ and Hₐ protons.

The phenyl protons (H₈, H₉, and H₁₀) are attached to the electron withdrawing N (from the N-phenylacetamide). The protons ortho and para to the electron withdrawing group would be shielded because the electrons are delocalized by the N-C-O group on the 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄]•2NC(C₆H₄) adduct. Because the H₈ protons (7.041 ppm) are the closest to the N, the H₈ protons ortho to the N are the most shielded, and appear as a doublet because of the splitting by the H₉ protons (7.264 ppm). The H₉ peaks meta to the N are the most deshielded, and therefore appear downfield. The H₉ peaks should appear as a triplet, but the peaks are masked by the CHCl₃ solvent peak at 7.26 ppm. The H₁₀ protons (7.134 ppm) appear in between the H₉ and H₈ peaks as a triplet, split by two neighboring H₉ protons.
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Table 5. 2,2-\textit{trans} [Rh$_2$(NPhCOCH$_3$)$_4$]•2NC(C$_6$H$_4$) phenyl protons. See Figure 23.
Figure 24. $^1$H NMR of 2,2-trans $[\text{Rh}_2(\text{NPhCOCH}_3)_4]\cdot 2\text{NC}(\text{C}_6\text{H}_4)$ from 0.7-2.3 ppm.
The peak at 1.843 ppm (H₃) represents the proton of the methyl group of the N-phenylacetamide equatorial ligand. The peak at 1.61 ppm is a solvent peak, H₂O.

3.13: o-tolunitrile

Figure 25. ¹H NMR of o-tolunitrile.
Figure 26. $^1$H labels for o-tolunitrile.
Figure 27. $^1$H NMR of o-tolunitrile from 7.2 ppm to 7.7 ppm.

The protons ortho to the C≡N functional group (H$_a$) appear the most downfield because it is deshielded by the C≡N functional group. The H$_a$ peaks (7.576 ppm) are split by H$_b$, and thus appear as a doublet. The H$_c$ protons (7.465
(5.3 ppm) para to the C≡N functional group appears the downfield because it is also deshielded by C≡N functional group. The H_c peaks are split by H_b and H_d, and thus appear as a triplet. The H_d peaks (7.327 ppm) are split by H_c, and thus appear as a doublet. The H_b protons (7.271 ppm) meta to the C≡N functional group appears upfield because it is shielded by C≡N functional group; these H_b peaks are split by H_a and H_c, and thus appear as a triplet. The 7.26 ppm peak is an overlap of the proton from CHCl₃ in the CDCl₃ solvent.

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Table 6. o-tolunitrile phenyl protons. See Figure 27.
Figure 28. $^1$H NMR of o-tolunitrile from 1.6 ppm to 2.7 ppm.

The $H_e$ that appears at 2.54 ppm is from the $CH_3$ of the o-tolunitrile. The 1.71 ppm peak is $H_2O$ from the NMR solvent. The peaks at 2.70 ppm, 2.42 ppm, 2.39 ppm,
2.38 ppm and 2.26 ppm represent peaks are the result of $^{13}$C coupling to the $H_e$ proton (of the methyl group.) $^{13}$C has only about 1.1% natural abundance rate of carbon atoms. Due to the low abundance, $^1H-^{13}C$ coupling is negligible and usually not observed in the spectrum. Because the sample was concentrated and the spectrum was enlarged, the peaks of the $^1H-^{13}C$ coupling were visible.$^{20}$
3.14: 2,2-trans $[\text{Rh}_2(\text{NPhCOCH}_3)_4] \cdot 2 \text{ o-NC(2-CH}_3\text{C}_6\text{H}_4)$

Figure 29. $^1\text{H}$ NMR of 2,2-trans $[\text{Rh}_2(\text{NPhCOCH}_3)_4] \cdot 2 \text{ o-NC(2-CH}_3\text{C}_6\text{H}_4)$.
Figure 30. Proton labels for 2,2-trans $[\text{Rh}_2(\text{NPhCOCH}_3)_4] \cdot 2 \text{ o-NC}(\text{2-CH}_3\text{C}_6\text{H}_4)$.
Figure 31. $^1$H NMR of 2,2-trans [Rh$_2$(NPhCOCH$_3$)$_4$] · 2 o-NC((2-CH$_3$)C$_6$H$_4$) from 6.0-7.8 ppm, expanded to show the region.
Similarly to the 2,2-trans $[\text{Rh}_2(\text{NPhCOCH}_3)_4] \cdot 2\text{NC}(\text{C}_6\text{H}_4)^{1}\text{H}$ NMR data, the rhodium atom is a metal bound to the $\text{C}≡\text{N}$ functional group. Because it is a metal, this property manipulates the $\text{C}≡\text{N}$'s properties from functioning as an electron withdrawing group to functioning similar to an electron donating group. The protons on the phenyl ring of the o-tolunitrile are shielded by the $\text{C}≡\text{N}$ functional group, but the protons in the para position are more shielded. The $\text{H}_b$ proton (7.1793 ppm) is shielded by the $\text{C}≡\text{N}$ functional group; however, since the $\text{H}_b$ proton appears more upfield because the $\text{H}_b$ proton is para to the CH$_3$, an electron donating group. The $\text{H}_b$ protons appear as a triplet because they are split by the $\text{H}_a$ and $\text{H}_c$ protons. The $\text{H}_a$ protons (7.263 ppm) are shielded through resonance and inductive effect because they are the closer to the $\text{C}≡\text{N}$ functional group. The $\text{H}_a$ protons should appear as a doublet, but the peaks are masked by the CHCl$_3$ solvent peak at 7.26 ppm. The $\text{H}_c$ proton (7.434 ppm) para to the $\text{C}≡\text{N}$ functional group is the most deshielded by the $\text{C}≡\text{N}$ functional group. The $\text{H}_c$ protons appear as a triplet because they are split by the $\text{H}_b$ and $\text{H}_a$ protons. The $\text{H}_d$ proton should appear as a doublet, but the peaks are masked by the CHCl$_3$ solvent peak at 7.26 ppm. The methyl group in the ortho position on the phenyl ring (e) is an electron donating group; however, an alkyl group does not shift the signal as much as $\text{C}≡\text{N}$ functional group.

The phenyl protons ($\text{H}_f$, $\text{H}_{b2}$, and $\text{H}_i$) are attached to N (of the N-phenylacetamide equatorial ligand), an electron withdrawing group. The protons ortho and para to the electron withdrawing group would be shielded because the electrons are delocalized by the N-C-O group on the 2,2-trans $[\text{Rh}_2(\text{NPhCOCH}_3)_4] \cdot 2\text{NC}([\text{2-CH}_3]\text{C}_6\text{H}_4)$ adduct. Because the $\text{H}_f$ protons (7.013 ppm) are the closest to the N, the $\text{H}_f$ protons ortho to the N are the most shielded, and appear as a doublet because of the splitting by the $\text{H}_c$ protons. Through inductive and resonance effects, the $\text{H}_i$ protons on the phenyl group are more deshielded than the $\text{H}_f$ protons; the $\text{H}_i$ proton is not as close to the electron withdrawing N (from the N-phenylacetamide equatorial ligand). The $\text{H}_i$ peaks (7.079 ppm) appear as a triplet because $\text{H}_i$ protons are split by two $\text{H}_b$ protons. The $\text{H}_b$ peaks (7.224 ppm) meta to the N are the most deshielded through resonance effect, and therefore the $\text{H}_b$ peaks should appear as a triplet, but the peaks are masked by the CHCl$_3$ solvent peak at 7.26 ppm.
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Table 7. 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄]• 2 o-NC{(2-CH₃)C₆H₄} phenyl protons. See Figure 31.
Figure 32. $^1$H NMR of 2,2-trans [Rh$_2$(NPhCOCH$_3$)$_4$]* 2 o-NC{(2-CH$_3$)C$_6$H$_4$} from 2.5-1 ppm, expanded to show the region.

The protons H$_e$ and H$_g$ are methyl protons; H$_g$ protons are located on the rhodium adduct, while the H$_e$ protons exist on the o-tolunitrile ligand. The g peak
(1.8 ppm) appears more intense than the e peak (2.34 ppm) because the H₆ protons exist in a 12:6 ratio of H₆:Hₑ.

3.15: m-tolunitrile

Figure 33. ¹H NMR of m-tolunitrile.
Figure 34. $^1$H NMR of m-tolunitrile from 6.0 ppm to 8.0 ppm.
Figure 35. $^1$H NMR of m-tolunitrile from 7.3-8.0 ppm, expanded to show the region.

The C≡N functional group in the m-tolunitrile is an electron withdrawing group. The $H_d$ proton appears the most downfield because $H_d$ proton (7.451 ppm) is deshielded by both the C≡N functional group and CH$_3$ group through inductive
effect. The H\(_a\) proton (7.442 ppm) ortho to the C≡N functional group appears downfield because it is deshielded by the C≡N functional group. The H\(_b\) proton (7.342 ppm) and the H\(_c\) proton (7.369 ppm) peaks overlapped. The peaks appear to be a triplet, but have smaller doublet peaks amongst the triplet peaks. The H\(_b\) peaks should appear as a doublet, split by H\(_d\). The H\(_c\) peaks should appear as a triplet, also split by H\(_d\). The H\(_a\) peak is not split, and thus the H\(_a\) peak appears as a singlet. The 7.28 ppm peak is an overlap of the proton from CHCl\(_3\) in the CDCl\(_3\) solvent.

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Table 8. m-tolunitrile phenyl protons. See Figure 35.
Figure 36. $^1$H NMR of m-tolunitrile from 2.6 ppm to 1.7 ppm.

The peak at 2.39 ppm represents the $H_e$ protons from the methyl group. The 1.76 ppm peak represents $H_2O$ from the NMR solvent. The peaks at 2.54 ppm and 2.23
ppm are the result of $^1$H - $^{13}$C coupling to the H$_c$ proton (of the methyl group.) $^{13}$C has only about 1.1% natural abundance rate of carbon atoms. Due to the low abundance, $^1$H - $^{13}$C coupling is negligible and usually not observed in the spectrum. Because the sample was concentrated and the spectrum of the 2.39 ppm peak was enlarged, the peaks of the $^{13}$C coupling were visible.$^{20}$

3.16: 2,2-\textit{trans} [Rh$_2$(NPhCOCH$_3$)$_4$]• m-NC([3-CH$_3$]C$_6$H$_4$)

![Diagram of molecular structure]

Figure 37. Proton labels for 2,2-\textit{trans} [Rh$_2$(NPhCOCH$_3$)$_4$]• m-NC([3-CH$_3$]C$_6$H$_4$).
Figure 38. $^1$H NMR of 2,2-trans [Rh$_2$(NPhCOCH$_3$)$_4$]• m-NC(3-CH$_3$)C$_6$H$_4$).
Figure 39. $^1$H NMR of 2,2-trans [$\text{Rh}_2(\text{NPhCOCH}_3)_4]\cdot \text{m-NC}([3-\text{CH}_3]\text{C}_6\text{H}_4)$ from 6.0 to 7.4 ppm.

Similarly to the 2,2-trans [$\text{Rh}_2(\text{NPhCOCH}_3)_4]\cdot 2\text{NC}([\text{C}_6\text{H}_4])$, the rhodium atom manipulates the C≡N’s properties from functioning as an electron withdrawing group to functioning similar to an electron donating group. The protons on the phenyl ring of the m-tolunitrile are shielded by the C≡N. The H$_b$ proton (7.225 ppm)
is most shielded by being para to the C≡N functional group and meta to the CH₃. The H₂b peak is split by the H₂c and H₂a protons, resulting in a triplet peak for H₂b. The H₂d protons (7.262 ppm) are the next most shielded through the inductive effect because the H₂d protons are the closest to the C≡N functional group and CH₃. The H₂a, H₂c, and H₂d proton peaks are masked by the CHCl₃ solvent peak at 7.26 ppm. The H₂a protons (7.278 ppm) should appear as a doublet, but the peaks are masked by the CHCl₃ proton peak. The H₂b proton peaks should appear as a triplet, split by H₂a and H₂c. The H₂c proton (7.297 ppm) peaks should appear as a doublet, split by the H₂b proton. The H₂d proton peak appears as a singlet, as it is not being split by neighboring protons.

The phenyl protons of the 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] • m-NC(3-CH₃)C₆H₄ adduct (Hᵣ, Hᵢ, and Hᵢ) are attached to the electron withdrawing N (from the N-phenylacetamide). The protons ortho and para to the electron withdrawing group would be shielded because the electrons are delocalized by the N-C=O group on the 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] • m-NC(3-CH₃)C₆H₄ adduct. Because the Hᵢ protons (7.015 ppm) are the closest to the N, the Hᵢ protons ortho to the N are the most shielded, and appear as a doublet because of the splitting by the Hᵣ protons. Through inductive and resonance effects, the Hᵢ protons on the phenyl group appear are more deshielded than the Hᵣ protons; the Hᵢ proton is not as close to the electron withdrawing group N. The Hᵢ proton (7.034 ppm) peaks appear as a triplet because Hᵢ protons are split by two Hᵣ protons. The Hᵣ proton (7.126 ppm) peaks meta to the N are the most deshielded through resonance effect, and therefore the Hᵢ peaks should appear as a triplet, but the peaks are masked by the CHCl₃ solvent peak at 7.26 ppm. The 7.26 ppm peak is an overlap of the proton from CHCl₃ in the CDCl₃ solvent.
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Table 9. 2,2-\textit{trans} [Rh$_2$(NPhCOCH$_3$)$_4$]\(\cdot\) m-NC(3-CH$_3$C$_6$H$_4$) phenyl peaks.
Figure 40. $^1$H NMR of 2,2-trans [Rh$_2$(NPhCOCH$_3$)$_4$]• m-NC((3-CH$_3$)C$_6$H$_4$) from 1.1 to 2.4 ppm.
3.2 FTIR data

Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) is an instrument that measures the absorption of a sample to produce an infrared spectrum. The FTIR instrument used was the Shimadzu IR Prestige-21. When π-backbonding occurs with a C≡N functional group bond, the bond becomes weaker, and thus has lower energy. The stretching frequency usually decreases during π backbonding because the energy a molecule has is proportionate to its wave number (cm⁻¹). However, the C≡N functional group’s FTIR peaks for both the 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄]•2 o-NC(2-CH₃)C₆H₄ and the 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄]•m-NC(3-CH₃)C₆H₄ complexes increased instead of decreased compared to the respective nitrile ligand by itself. The 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄]•2 o-NC(2-CH₃)C₆H₄ was 2320.37 cm⁻¹; the o-tolunitrile C≡N functional group’s stretching frequency was 2223.92 cm⁻¹. The 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄]•m-NC(3-CH₃)C₆H₄ was 2310.72 cm⁻¹; the m-tolunitrile C≡N functional group’s stretching frequency was 2227.78 cm⁻¹.

The increases in shifts of stretching frequency in the FTIR spectra upon nitrile bonding to [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] for 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄]•2 o-NC(2-CH₃)C₆H₄ and 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄]•m-NC(3-CH₃)C₆H₄ imply that σ-bonding is dominant over π-backbonding. During IR analysis, the C≡N functional group’s stretching was difficult to see or masked, so the number of scans was increased to 3200.

The ¹H NMR spectra were taken with the samples in solution state. The FTIR and X-ray crystallography data were collected with the samples in a solid state. If the peaks for the NMR spectra had been integrated, the 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄]•2NC(C₆H₄) and 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄]•2 o-NC(2-CH₃)C₆H₄ complexes would have had a 1:2 ratio of nitrile axial ligand phenyl protons and 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] phenyl protons (6H:12H). For 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄]•m-NC(3-CH₃)C₆H₄, the ratio of nitrile axial ligand phenyl protons and 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] phenyl protons would have been 1:4 (3H:12H).
Although nitriles have both σ-bonding and π-backbonding capabilities, the Rh-N (of nitrile) bonds of the three compounds, 2,2-trans \([\text{Rh}_2(\text{NPhCOCH}_3)_4]\) • 2NC(C\(_6\)H\(_4\)), 2,2-trans \([\text{Rh}_2(\text{NPhCOCH}_3)_4]\) • 2 o-NC({2-CH\(_3\)}C\(_6\)H\(_4\)), and 2,2-trans \([\text{Rh}_2(\text{NPhCOCH}_3)_4]\) • m-NC({3-CH\(_3\)}C\(_6\)H\(_4\)) are predominantly σ-bonding because of the increase in shifts of the C≡N functional group's stretching frequencies in the IR spectra. This dominance of σ-bonding can affect the function of carbenoid species during cyclopropanation reactions.

Figure 41. IR spectrum of o-tolunitrile. C≡N functional group’s stretching frequency at 2223.92 cm\(^{-1}\).
Figure 42. IR spectrum of 2,2-trans $[\text{Rh}_2(\text{NPhCOCH}_3)_4] \cdot 2 \text{ o-NC}((\text{2-CH}_3)\text{C}_6\text{H}_4)$. C≡N functional group's stretching frequency at 2320.37 cm$^{-1}$.

Figure 43. IR spectrum of m-tolunitrile. C≡N functional group's stretching frequency at 2227.78 cm$^{-1}$. 
Figure 44. IR spectrum of 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] • m-NC({3-CH₃}C₆H₄) C≡N functional group's stretching frequency at 2310.72 cm⁻¹.

3.3 X-ray Diffraction data

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<th>m-tolunitrile</th>
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Table 10. X-ray quality crystals and solvent in the formation of: 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] • 2NC(C₆H₄); 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] • 2 o-NC({2-CH₃}C₆H₄); and 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] • m-NC({3-CH₃}C₆H₄).
Crystal yield produced was a variety of red, blue, and purple crystals; all were brittle, thin, spikey, and long in shape. The $2,2$-trans $[\text{Rh}_2(\text{NPhCOCH}_3)_4] \cdot \text{m-NC}(\text{3-CH}_3\text{C}_6\text{H}_4)$ crystals were especially long and thin, and thus did not diffract X-rays well enough to produce reliable data. Therefore, there was a need for a second trial of crystal growing. We have shown that the nitrile ligands form in a variety of solvents; however, acetone was the only solvent used in the outer 6-dram vial that consistently did not produce crystals. All measurements were made on a Rigaku Mercury375R/M CCD (XtaLAB mini) diffractometer using graphite monochromated Mo-Kα radiation.
2,2-trans [Rh$_2$(NPhCOCH$_3$)$_4$] • 2NC(C$_6$H$_4$):

Crystal Dimensions                      0.14 X 0.11 X 0.08 mm
Crystal System                           monoclinic
Lattice Type                             C-centered
Lattice Parameters
  a = 30.238(7) Å
  b = 10.605(2) Å
  c = 26.091(6) Å
  β = 90.539(7)°
  V = 8366.2(33) Å$^3$

Temperature                              25.0°C
Exposure Rate                            30.0 sec./°
Residuals: R1 (I>2.00s(I))               0.0686
Residuals: R (All reflections)           0.1341
Residuals: wR2 (All reflections)         0.1355
Goodness of Fit Indicator                1.038
Max Shift/Error in Final Cycle           0.001
Maximum peak in Final Diff. Map          0.70 e$^-$/Å$^3$
Minimum peak in Final Diff. Map          -0.57 e$^-$/Å$^3$

Table 11. 2,2-trans [Rh$_2$(NPhCOCH$_3$)$_4$] • 2NC(C$_6$H$_4$) X-ray crystallography data.

The 2,2-trans [Rh$_2$(NPhCOCH$_3$)$_4$] • 2NC(C$_6$H$_4$) was a red block-shaped crystal having the approximate dimensions of 0.33 x 0.12 x 0.12 mm mounted on a glass fiber. The crystal to detector distance was 50.00 mm. The lattice parameters measured for the crystal’s unit cell determined that the 2,2-trans [Rh$_2$(NPhCOCH$_3$)$_4$] • 2-NC{(2-CH$_3$)C$_6$H$_4$} crystal system was a monoclinic C-centered cell. The number of molecules per unit cell is represented by the letter Z. For Z=2 and formula weight=976.74 g/mol, the calculated density was 1.463 g/cm$^3$.

The data was collected at a temperature of 25± 1°C. A total of 540 oscillation images were collected. The exposure rate was 30.0 [sec./°].
2,2-trans $[\text{Rh}_2(\text{NPhCOCH}_3)_4] \cdot 2 \text{ o-NC}([2-\text{CH}_3]\text{C}_6\text{H}_4)$:

Number and type of atoms $\text{C}_{48}\text{H}_{46}\text{N}_6\text{O}_4\text{Rh}_2$

Crystal Dimensions $0.33 \times 0.12 \times 0.12 \text{ mm}$

Crystal System triclinic

Lattice Type Primitive

Lattice Parameters $a = 9.7912(7) \text{ Å}$
$b = 14.7873(10) \text{ Å}$
$c = 16.3592(11) \text{ Å}$
$\alpha = 103.837(7)^\circ$
$\beta = 99.173(7)^\circ$
$\gamma = 99.772(7)^\circ$
$V = 2216.4(3) \text{ Å}^3$

Temperature $25.0^\circ\text{C}$

Exposure Rate $16.0 \text{ sec./}^\circ$

Residuals: $R1 (I>2.00s(I))$ 0.0368
Residuals: $R$ (All reflections) 0.0541
Residuals: $wR2$ (All reflections) 0.0798

Goodness of Fit Indicator 1.037

Max Shift/Error in Final Cycle 0.002

Maximum peak in Final Diff. Map $0.62 \text{ e}^-/\text{Å}^3$

Minimum peak in Final Diff. Map $-0.51 \text{ e}^-/\text{Å}^3$

Table 12. 2,2-trans $[\text{Rh}_2(\text{NPhCOCH}_3)_4] \cdot 2 \text{ o-NC}([2-\text{CH}_3]\text{C}_6\text{H}_4)$ X-ray crystallography data.

The 2,2-trans-[Rh$_2$(NPhCOCH$_3$)$_4$]•2 o-NC([2-CH$_3$]C$_6$H$_4$) was a long, red block-shaped crystal having the approximate dimensions of 0.33 x 0.12 x 0.12 mm mounted on a glass fiber. The crystal to detector distance was 50.00 mm. The lattice parameters measured for the crystal’s unit cell determined that the 2,2-trans-
[Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄]•2 o-NC{(2-CH₃)C₆H₄} crystal system was a primitive triclinic cell. For Z=2 and formula weight=976.74 g/mol, the calculated density was 1.463 g/cm³. The data was collected at a temperature of 25±1°C. A total of 540 oscillation images were collected. The exposure rate was 16.0 [sec./°].
The 2,2-trans-[Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄]·m-NC{(3-CH₃)C₆H₄} was a long, blue block-shaped crystal having the approximate dimensions of 0.16 x 0.08 x 0.07 mm mounted on a glass fiber. The crystal to detector distance was 50.00 mm. The lattice parameters measured for the crystal’s unit cell determined that the 2,2-trans-
[Rh$_2$(NPhCOCH$_3$)$_4$] · m-NC([3-CH$_3$]C$_6$H$_4$) crystal system was a primitive triclinic cell. For Z=2 and formula weight=873.60.74 g/mol, the calculated density was 1.622 g/cm$^3$. The data was collected at a temperature of 25±1°C. A total of 540 oscillation images were collected. The exposure rate was 30.0 [sec./°].
Figure 47. ORTEP of 2,2-trans \([\text{Rh}_2(\text{NPhCOCH}_3)_4] \cdot \text{m-NC}((3-\text{CH}_3)\text{C}_6\text{H}_4)\)
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Table 14. X-ray Crystallography bond lengths, bond angles, and torsion angles (x=1 or x=2).
Figure 48. Packing diagram of 2,2-trans $[\text{Rh}_2(\text{NPhCOCH}_3)_4] \cdot 2 \text{ o-NC(2-CH}_3\text{C}_6\text{H}_4)$
Figure 49. X-ray crystallography packing diagram of 2,2-trans [Rh$_2$(NPhCOCH$_3$)$_4$]· m-NC([3-CH$_3$]C$_6$H$_4$)

(The following abbreviations will be used for simplification: “Nax” for an axial nitrile ligand, either benzonitrile, o-tolunitrile, or m-tolunitrile; and “Neq” for an equatorial $N$-phenylacetamide ligand.)

3.31 Bond lengths

For 2,2-trans [Rh$_2$(NPhCOCH$_3$)$_4$]· 2NC(C$_6$H$_4$), the bond lengths were 2.4207(8)Å (Rh1-Rh2), 1.156(8)Å (C21-N3$_{ax}$), and 1.130(8)Å (C40-N6$_{ax}$).

For 2,2-trans [Rh$_2$(NPhCOCH$_3$)$_4$]· 2 o-NC([2-CH$_3$]C$_6$H$_4$), the bond lengths were 2.4241(4)Å (Rh1-Rh2), 1.132(4)Å (C21-N3$_{ax}$), and 1.137(4)Å (C40-N6).
For 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] • m-NC((3-CH₃)C₆H₄), the bond lengths were 2.4039(7) Å (Rh1-Rh2) and 1.140(8) Å (C21-N3 ax).

For the three compounds, 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] • 2NC(C₆H₄), 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] • 2 o-NC{(2-CH₃)C₆H₄}, and 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] • m-NC{(3-CH₃)C₆H₄}, the bond lengths of the corresponding Rh-Rh and C≡N functional group are all similar: the Rh-Rh bond is around 2.4 Å; the C≡N functional group’s bond lengths are about 1.13-1.15 Å. So bond strength and bond dissociation energy did not change much because of the change of axial nitrile ligands (benzonitrile, o-tolunitrile, or m-tolunitrile.)

3.33 Bond angles

For 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] • 2NC(C₆H₄), the bond angles were:
177.8(5)° (Rh1-N3-C21 ax) and 169.2(5)° (Rh2-N6-C40 ax).

For 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] • 2 o-NC{(2-CH₃)C₆H₄}, the bond angles were: 151.6(3)° (Rh1-N3-C21 ax) and 152.5(3)° (Rh2-N6-C40 ax).

For 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] • m-NC{(3-CH₃)C₆H₄}, the bond angle was 166.3(3)° (Rh1-N3-C21 ax).

2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] • 2 o-NC{(2-CH₃)C₆H₄} had the smallest Rh-N-C bond angle, which is the angle that is least linear out of the three complexes. Due to the σ-bond and π-bonds from the π-bond of the C≡N functional group, the Rh-N-C bond angle should be linear, ideally. However, it was expected that the bond that would experience the most bending would be the 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] • 2 o-NC{(2-CH₃)C₆H₄} complex because of the position of the CH₃ from the o-tolunitrile axial ligand. In the ortho position, the CH₃ substituent of the o-tolunitrile positioned closest to 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] • 2 o-NC{(2-CH₃)C₆H₄} adduct, which forces Rh-N-C to become nonlinear due to steric forces from the CH₃ substituent of the o-tolunitrile. The Rh-N-C of 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] • m-NC{(3-CH₃)C₆H₄} did not bend as much as the Rh-N-C of 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] • 2 o-NC{(2-CH₃)C₆H₄}, but it the angle was still smaller than the Rh-N-C of 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄]•2NC(C₆H₄). Similarly to 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] • 2 o-NC{(2-CH₃)C₆H₄}, the CH₃ substituent of the m-tolunitrile influences the linearity of the Rh-
N-C angle. In the meta position, the CH₃ substituent of the m-tolunitrile positioned close to 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] • m-NC({3-CH₃}C₆H₄) adduct, which forces Rh-N-C to bend slightly due to steric forces from the CH₃ substituent of the m-tolunitrile. None of the Rh-C≡N bond angles of any of the three complexes were completely linear (180°), but had bond angles less than 180°, possibly suggesting that neither σ-bonding nor π-backbonding is responsible for the nonlinear bond angles.

In comparison with Rozwadowski’s research, tetrakis(carboxylate) dirhodium(II) was used instead of 2,2-trans tetrakis(carboxylamidate) dirhodium(II). However, Rozwadowski also found Rh-Rh ⇐ N≡C to be nonlinear because these Rh-Rh adducts tend to form a dimer of dimers with axial nitrile ligands, using these nitrile ligands as bridging molecules, which in turn influence the geometry of the molecules. (A dimer is formed when two rhodium atoms are bound together; a dimer of dimers forms when two dirhodium complexes are bound together by a nitrile.) Although it is unclear what is responsible for the deviation from linearity, the weak bonds of the bridging ligands to the Rh may have influenced Rh-Rh ⇐ N≡C to be nonlinear.¹² For the 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] • 2NC(C₆H₄), 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] • 2 o-NC({2-CH₃}C₆H₄), and 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] • m-NC({3-CH₃}C₆H₄) complexes, because the Rh-Rh adduct was tetrakis(carboxylamidate) dirhodium(II) instead of tetrakis(carboxylate) dirhodium(II), the phenyl substituents attached to the nitrogens of the tetrakis(carboxylamidate) dirhodium(II) may have had steric influences that could have blocked or prevented the axial nitrile ligands from bridging the Rh-Rh adducts.

3.34 Torsion angles

For 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] • 2NC(C₆H₄), the torsion angles were: 9.50(1)° (N2-Rh1-Rh2-04), 45.03(6)° (N3-Rh1-Rh2-N6), 10.84(1)° (N4-Rh2-Rh1-01), 11.26(1)° (O2-Rh1-Rh2-N5), and 12.71(2)° (N1-Rh1-Rh2-03).
For 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] • 2 o-NC{(2-CH₃)C₆H₄}, the torsion angles were: 4.79(5)° (N5-Rh₂-Rh1-02), 71.6(9)° (N6-Rh₂-Rh1-N3), 4.07(5)° (O1-Rh1-Rh2-N4), 6.82(7)° (N2-Rh1-Rh2-04), and 6.87(7)° (N1-Rh1-Rh2-03).

For 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] • m-NC{(3-CH₃)C₆H₄}, the torsion angles were 12.69(1)° (N2-Rh1-Rh2-04), 12.55(1)° (N1-Rh1-Rh2-03), 14.04(8)° (N4-Rh2-Rh1-01), and 13.28(8)° (N5-Rh2-Rh1-02).

The torsion angles could be a consequence of either steric or electronic influences. Specifically, the torsion angles could result from steric influences from the methyl groups on the nitrile axial ligands. The methyl groups could “push” away from other surrounding molecules, thus resulting in greater torsion angles. The (N-Rh-Rh-O) torsion angles of the 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] • 2 o-NC{(2-CH₃)C₆H₄} were smaller than the 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] • 2NC(C₆H₄). However, the (Nax-Rh-Rh-Nax) torsion angle of 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] • 2 o-NC{(2-CH₃)C₆H₄} was greater than that of 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] • 2NC(C₆H₄) because of the methyl groups(αx). The 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] • m-NC{(3-CH₃)C₆H₄} did not have a (Nax-Rh-Rh-Nax) torsion angle because it only had one axial nitrile ligand. The (N-Rh-Rh-O) torsion angles of 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] • m-NC{(3-CH₃)C₆H₄} were greater than the (N-Rh-Rh-O) torsion angles 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] • 2 o-NC{(2-CH₃)C₆H₄} and 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] • 2NC(C₆H₄). This resulted because the 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] • m-NC{(3-CH₃)C₆H₄} had only one axial nitrile ligand, allowing it to have more freedom to “twist.” The methyl group(αx) in the meta position also could have caused these greater torsion angles.

### 3.35 Packing diagrams

The packing diagrams for 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] • 2 o-NC{(2-CH₃)C₆H₄} and 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] • m-NC{(3-CH₃)C₆H₄} can be found in Figures 48 and 49.

Packing diagrams were then generated to analyze the influence of packing forces. The small torsion angles of 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] • 2 o-NC{(2-CH₃)C₆H₄} implies that the N and O (N-Rh-Rh-O) and the N and N’ (N-Rh-Rh-N’) almost eclipse each other. From the packing diagrams, the phenyl groups (from the
N-phenylacetamide) fit tightly in the spaces in between the 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] • 2 o-NC{(2-CH₃)C₆H₄} adducts, suggesting that the steric bulk from the phenyl groups (ax) is forcing (N-Rh-Rh-0) to twist slightly to have torsion angles slightly greater than zero. The large (N-Rh-Rh-N') torsion angle of 71.6(9)° may have resulted due to a combination of the packing forces of the phenyl groups (ax) and the methyls on the phenyl groups (ax).

After analysis of the X-ray crystallography data, it was determined that the benzonitrile and o-tolunitrile ligands bound on both axial sites of the 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄]. However, the m-tolunitrile only bound to one side. The o-tolunitrile formed a 2:1 adduct, (L=o-tolunitrile axial ligand) L → Rh–Rh L, whereas the m-tolunitrile formed a 1:1-adduct, (L=m-tolunitrile ligand) L → Rh–Rh. It is not certain whether or not this occurred because of electronic influence or because not enough equivalents of the m-tolunitrile were added.

Packing forces could have influenced 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] • m-NC{(3-CH₃)C₆H₄} to form a 1:1 adduct, L → Rh–Rh, whereas 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] • 2 o-NC{(2-CH₃)C₆H₄} formed a 2:1 adduct, L → Rh–Rh L. If the orientation of each 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] • m-NC{(3-CH₃)C₆H₄} molecule in a unit cell prevented another m-tolunitrile ligand from binding to the axial site, the 1:1 adduct would be favored. A phenyl ring of another 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] • m-NC{(3-CH₃)C₆H₄} could have been oriented toward that space (of the empty axial site) and occupied it, which would have blocked a second m-tolunitrile ligand from binding. However, after conducting a visual analysis of the space of the empty rhodium axial site, it was concluded that packing forces are not likely to have forced the m-tolunitrile to bind to only one axial site.

While it remains unknown as to why the m-tolunitrile bound only to one axial site of 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄], there are several possible reasons that were postulated, including: steric hindrance, packing forces, electronic factors, or lack of enough equivalents of m-tolunitrile during synthesis of the 2,2-trans [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] • m-NC{(3-CH₃)C₆H₄}.

According to Rozwadowski, the formation of the 2:1 adduct of L → Rh–Rh L was energetically favored. However, the [Rh₂(NPhCOCH₃)₄] • m-NC{(3-CH₃)C₆H₄}
contradicted this assumption. It was also unlikely that steric hindrance (of the CH₃ substituent on the m-tolunitrile) prevented the m-tolunitrile from binding to both axial sites of the 2,2-\textit{trans} \([\text{Rh}_2(\text{NPhCOCH}_3)_4]\) because if that were true, the methyl group on the o-tolunitrile would have also prevented the o-tolunitrile from binding to both axial sites of the 2,2-\textit{trans} \([\text{Rh}_2(\text{NPhCOCH}_3)_4]\).

4. Conclusion

The new method used to grow the 2,2-\textit{trans} \([\text{Rh}_2(\text{NPhCOCH}_3)_4]\) \(\cdot\) m-NC(\{3-CH₃\}C₆H₄) can be applied to grow X-ray quality crystals. After attempting to grow the crystals with dichloromethane, the crystals of 2,2-\textit{trans} \([\text{Rh}_2(\text{NPhCOCH}_3)_4]\) \(\cdot\) m-NC(\{3-CH₃\}C₆H₄) (that were not X-ray quality) were re-dissolved in acetone. The amount of acetone added was much greater than the amount of m-tolunitrile. Acetone should have competed with the m-tolunitrile ligand for the axial site, forcing the m-tolunitrile axial ligands out. However, since perhaps the m-tolunitrile ligands were already bound to the 2,2-\textit{trans} \([\text{Rh}_2(\text{NPhCOCH}_3)_4]\) compound, acetone did not bind to the axial site. The acetone may also have influenced m-tolunitrile bound to bind to only one axial site. Since growing the 2,2-\textit{trans} \([\text{Rh}_2(\text{NPhCOCH}_3)_4]\) \(\cdot\) m-NC(\{3-CH₃\}C₆H₄) crystals was difficult to do through the regular process, this method of using acetone was not attempted for the 2,2-\textit{trans} \([\text{Rh}_2(\text{NPhCOCH}_3)_4]\) \(\cdot\) 2NC(C₆H₄) or 2,2-\textit{trans} \([\text{Rh}_2(\text{NPhCOCH}_3)_4]\) \(\cdot\) 2 o-NC(\{3-CH₃\}C₆H₄) complexes.

When synthesizing 2,2-\textit{trans} \([\text{Rh}_2(\text{NPhCOCH}_3)_4]\) \(\cdot\) m-NC(\{3-CH₃\}C₆H₄), only two molar equivalents of m-tolunitrile were added. Future research may attempt adding an excess of m-tolunitrile during synthesis to provide a greater probably of the m-tolunitrile to bind to both axial sites of the Rh-Rh adduct. Also, other possible future research may include molecular modeling to further investigate the influences behind the orientations of the atoms in 2,2-\textit{trans} \([\text{Rh}_2(\text{NPhCOCH}_3)_4]\) \(\cdot\) m-NC(\{3-CH₃\}C₆H₄). Other types of nitrile ligands can be synthesized with 2,2-\textit{trans} \([\text{Rh}_2(\text{NPhCOCH}_3)_4]\), such as p-tolunitrile, which, depending on whether or not p-tolunitrile forms a 2:1 adduct or 1:1 adduct with Rh-Rh, will give insight upon the forces influencing the bonding nature of axial nitrile ligands to 2,2-\textit{trans}
[\text{Rh}_2(\text{NPhCOCH}_3)_4]. \text{ Also, } 2,2\text{-cis} [\text{Rh}_2(\text{NPhCOCH}_3)_4] \text{ or } 3,1\text{-} [\text{Rh}_2(\text{NPhCOCH}_3)_4] \text{ may be used as the Rh-Rh complex instead of } 2,2\text{-trans} [\text{Rh}_2(\text{NPhCOCH}_3)_4].

Because the m-tolunitrile ligand bound to one axial side of the dirhodium compound, the other site may be probed as a catalytic site. The m-tolunitrile ligand would serve as to block one axial site. We were able to successfully manipulate the electron density of 2,2\text{-trans} [\text{Rh}_2(\text{NPhCOCH}_3)_4] \text{ through axial ligands, which can later be used as models for catalysis for future cyclopropanation research.}
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17 Refer to page 12 for the potential ramifications of contamination.


19 This is further confirmed by X-ray crystallography results on pages 64-65.