

**DNR COLLEGE(A): BHIMAVARAM**  
**DEPARTMENT OF PG CHEMISTRY**



**INORGANIC CHEMISTRY-II**

Presented By

N.Santhi

## Unit-1

### Metal Cluster Compounds

#### METAL CLUSTERS

If a compound contains more than one metal per molecule and if there exists a bond between two metal centres, then that compound is known as Metal clusters.

#### Evidences for formation of M-M Bond in clusters:-

The following two factors provide evidence of M-M Bond formation

1. Shorter Internuclear distance
2. Lowering of magnetic moment

By measuring these two factors we can prove the M-M bond formation

#### Shorter Internuclear distance:-

I) Consider Vanderwall's forces Vanderwall's are operating b/w two molecules. If we calculate vanderwall radius, it is more than atomic radius

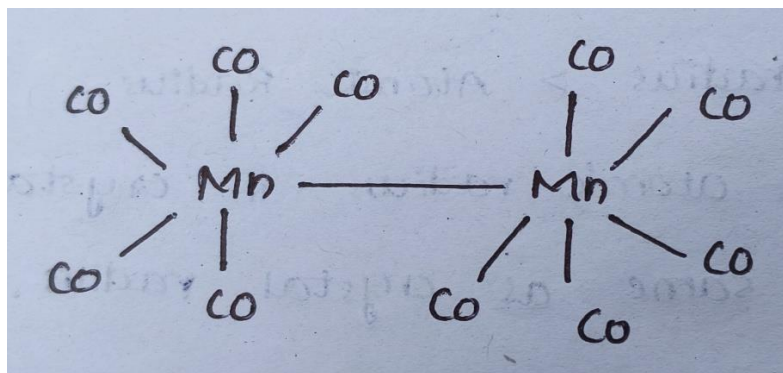
II) If we consider the atomic radius in crystal lattices. The atomic radius is same as crystal radius because here there is no bond b/w two metal atoms

It means if no chemical bond is formed, internuclear distance is more or equal to sum of atomic radii. Otherwise, if there is active bond formed the internuclear distance is decreased and it is less than sum of atomic radii. This is evidence, for formation of chemical Bond.

iii) If the internuclear distance is shortened than sum of atomic radii then the bond is formed between two metal atoms.

Examples: The existence of M-M Bond is itself evident in the case of  $Mn_2(CO)_{10}$  &  $Re_2Cl_8$

In  $Mn_2(CO)_{10}$ , there is a M-M bond. It forms M-M bond it satisfies EAN rule also there is a chance in this complex bridge bonds by CO group but there is no such peak for bridging ligand in  $Mn_2$



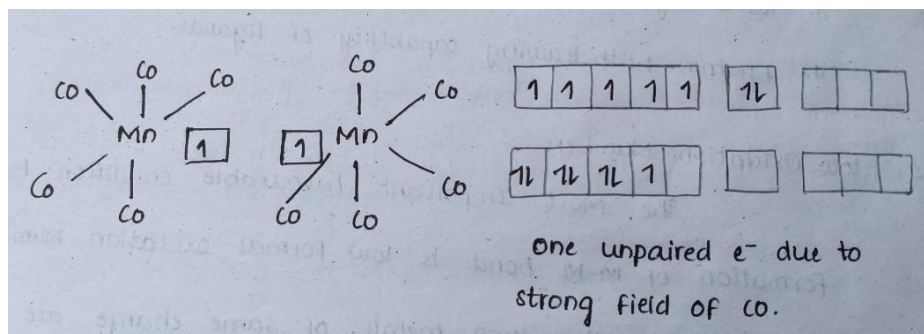
(CO)<sub>10</sub>

## II) Lowering of Magnetic moment:-

The Lowering of magnetic moments are compared with the values expected for isolated metal ions is another kind of evidence for the existence of M-M bonds. The lowering is assumed due to pairing of spins in M-M interactions. This is often used because magnetic Susceptibility values are relatively easy to measure.

Mn<sub>2</sub>(CO)<sub>10</sub>

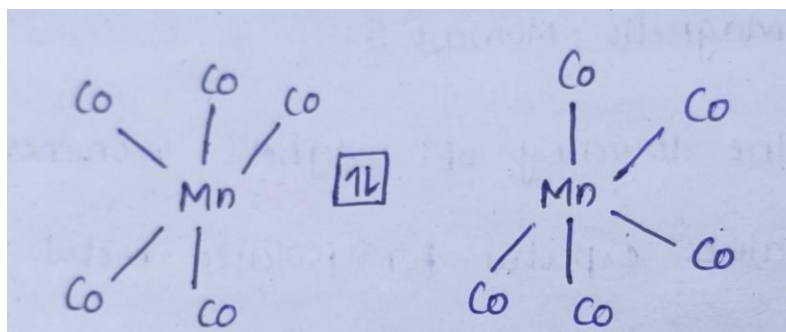
To prove the existence of bond between Mn & Mn. Let us consider there is no bond between them then there is one unpaired electron each Mn atom. The magnetic moments related to



one unpaired electron is calculated.

The molecules are pairing of unpaired electrons between two Mn atoms their unpaired electrons are paired up and a dative sigma bond is formed. If we calculate the magnetic moment in Mn<sub>2</sub>(CO)<sub>10</sub> it is zero. It means the magnetic moments are decreased when a bond is formed.

Here the two unpaired electrons are contributed to form Mn-Mn bond.



### **Conditions favourable for formation of M-M Bond:-**

The following factors are favourable for formation of M-M bonds in clusters

1. Low formal Oxidation Number
2. Less number of electrons on metals
3. Suitability of orbital Conformation
4. Electron withdrawing Capability of Ligands

### **Low Oxidation Numbers:-**

The most important favourable condition for formation of M-M bond is low formal oxidation number of metal atoms. When two metals of same charge are close together they repel each other. When oxidation number increases charge on metal atom increases as a result repulsion b/w two metal atoms increases which causes weakening of M-M bond

Ex:-  $\text{Re}_2\text{Cl}_8^{2-}$  - Rhenium exhibits +3 state in its solution. It always exhibits +5 state. But Re exhibits +3 state for formation of M-M bond in  $\text{Re}_2\text{Cl}_8^{2-}$

### **Less number of electrons on metals:-**

A covalent bond is formed due to overlap of half-filled orbitals or overlap of empty and half-filled orbitals. But when two orbitals are completely filled, there should be no bond. Hence less number of electrons on metals favours the formation of clusters.

Ex:- In all cases M-M bond is formed but in case of copper it was not observed due to  $d^9$  configuration. So copper is unable to provide half-filled orbitals for formation of M-M bond.

**Suitability of Orbital Conformation:-** Orbitals will overlap, if they have same symmetry orientations. The orientation of two metal clusters is in such a way that there is a maximum possibility of overlapping.

Ex:- In  $\text{Re}_2\text{Cl}_8^{2-}$ , a strong quadrupole bond is formed eclipsed conformation of clusters while provides a suitable conformation to overlap on the other hand staggered conformation does not form quadrupole bond.

### **Electron withdrawing capability of ligands:-**

If the ligand has the capability of accepting  $\pi$  electrons into its Orbitals then those ligands favour the formation of M-M bond. Ligands accept  $\pi$  electrons of metal atom by back bonding and provide empty Orbitals for metal atom which facilitates the formation of M-M bond

Ex:- polynuclear metal carbonyl constituents are of the largest classes of M-M bonded compounds due to the electron withdrawing capability of CO ligand.

### **Binuclear clusters:-**

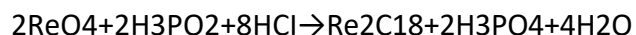
- Binuclear clusters are those which contain two metal centers in a molecule. Both metal atoms lie on a same plane

- Ex:  $\text{Re}_2\text{Cl}_8$ ,  $\text{Mn}_2(\text{CO})_{10}$

### **$\text{Re}_2\text{Cl}_8$ (octachlorodirhenate ion):-**

#### **Preparation:**

- It can be prepared by the reduction of perrhenate with HCl in presence of strong reducing agent ( $\text{H}_3\text{PO}_2$ ).



#### **Structure & Bonding:**

- The structure of  $\text{Re}_2\text{Cl}_8$  has two interesting structural features. They are

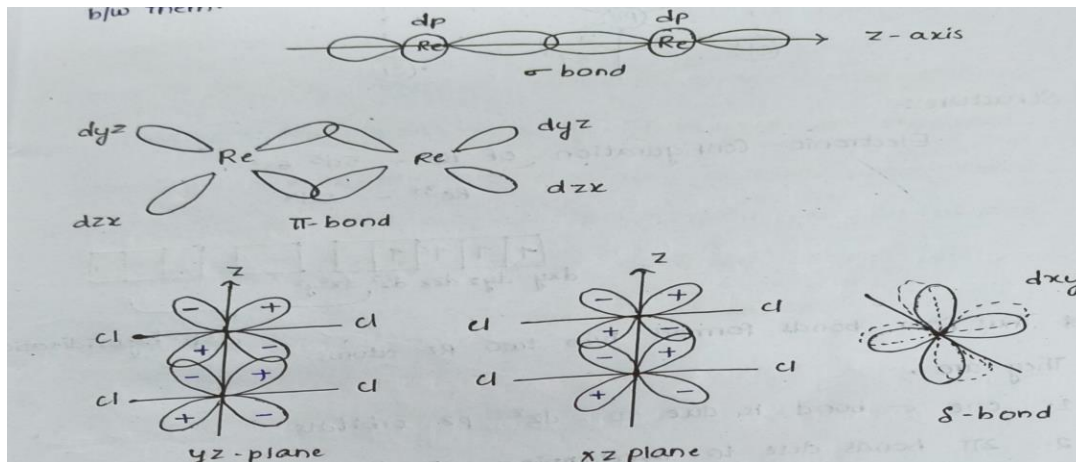
- i) The bond length between Re-Re is  $2.24 \text{ \AA}$  (extremely short)

- ii) It has a eclipsed configuration rather than the more stable staggered geometry

- Re-Re bond is extremely short compared with an average Re-Re distance of  $2.75 \text{ \AA}$  in Rhenium metal and  $2.48 \text{ \AA}$  in  $\text{Re}_3\text{Cl}_9$

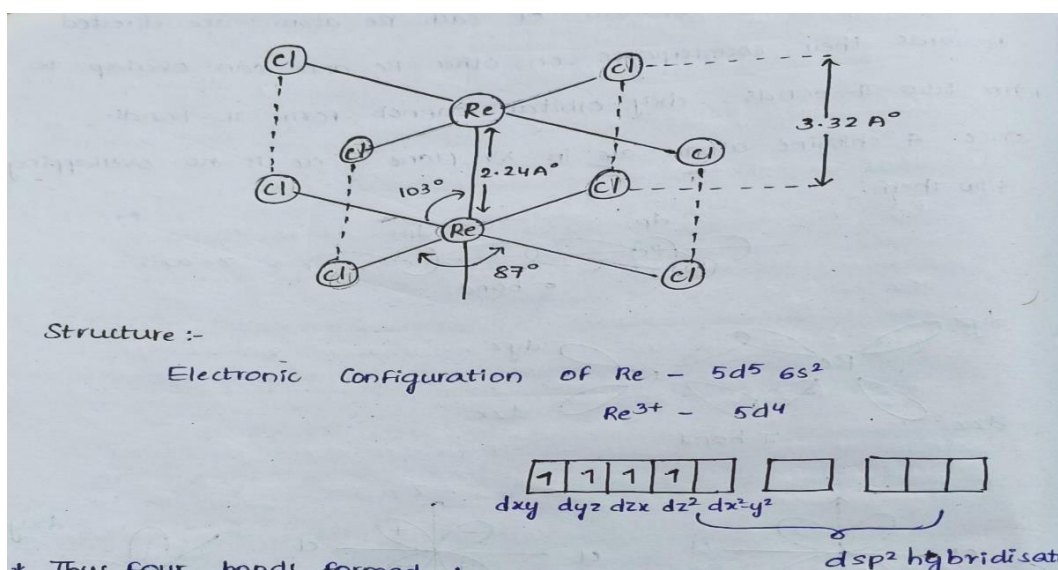
Let two  $\text{ReCl}_4$  units are situated in xy plane which are parallel to each other. Re atom is in  $dsp^2$  hybridization. Each metal utilizes the  $d_{x^2-y^2}$  orbitals. Re atom forms four sigma bonds with 4 chlorine atoms. The  $p_z$  and  $d_{z^2}$  orbitals of the metal lie along the bond axis and may be hybridized to form one orbital directed towards the other Re atom and a second Re atom to form a sigma bond while the second hybrid orbital form an

approximately nonbonding orbital. The  $dyz, dzx$  orbitals of each Re atom are towards their



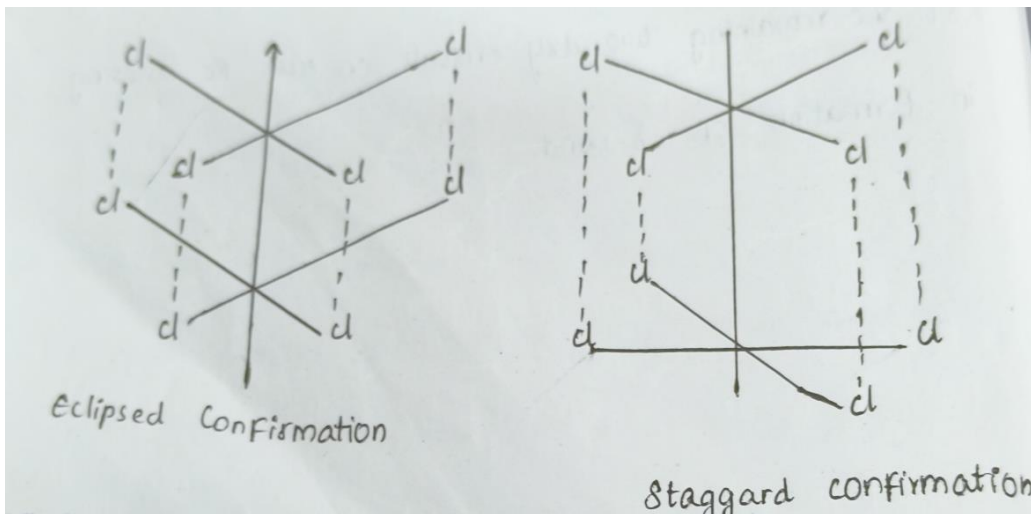
counterparts on the other Re and can overlap to form 2 bonds. The  $dxy$  orbitals cannot form  $\pi$  bonds since 4 chlorine atoms are in the  $xy$  plane, there is no overlapping b/w them,

The fourth bond cannot be formed by side-wise overlap of the remaining two  $dxy$  orbitals on each Re, resulting in the formation of a  $\delta$  bond.



Thus four bonds are formed b/w two Re atoms. They are

1. one sigma bond is due to the overlapping of  $dz^2$  &  $p_z$  orbitals
2. two  $\pi$  bonds are due to the overlapping of  $dyz, dzx$  orbitals



3. one delta bond due to overlapping of dxy orbital

### GEOMETRY:

It has octahedral structure

The  $\delta$  component restricts rotation in just such a way as to favor the eclipsed configuration.

The overlap is maximum for this configuration & goes to zero for the staggered configuration.

Overlap of the dxy orbitals can occur only if the Cl atoms are in eclipsed geometry.

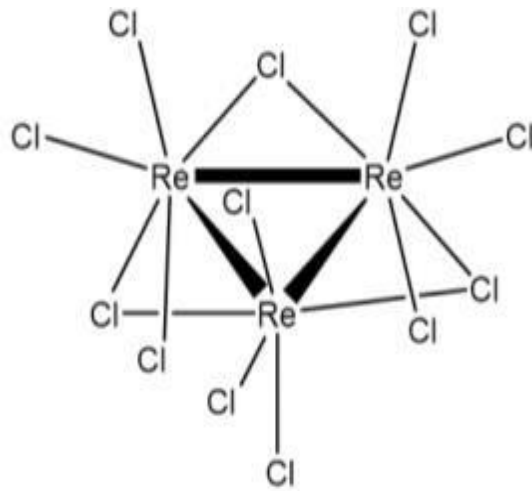
If they have staggered geometry the overlap of 2 dxy orbitals can't occur.

Hence the molecule assumes eclipsed configuration also in eclipsed configuration, the bond energy dominates steric hindrance.

So  $\text{Re}_2\text{Cl}_8$  prefers eclipsed configuration.

### . Trinuclear clusters:-

A typical example of noncarbonyl cluster containing three metal atoms is  $[(\text{ReCl}_3)_3]$  and its derivatives. Each Re (III) has a  $d^1$  configuration. The complexes are diamagnetic and not paramagnetic which would have been the case if each Re atom was singly bonded to other Re atoms. Since, the metal atoms are engaged in double bonds to the neighboring metal atom the complexes are paramagnetic.



### HEXANUCLEAR METAL CLUSTERS:-

Hexanuclear metal clusters are those which contain six metal atoms per cluster. Predominantly three hexanuclear metal clusters are obtained; they are

1.  $M_6X_6$
2.  $M_6X_8$
3.  $M_6X_{12}$

The six metal atoms occupy six corners of an octahedron, so these are also known as octahedral clusters.

The extensive series of metal atoms with Cl are formed by Nb, Ta, Mo, W. Eg:-

$[Nb_6Cl_{12}]$ ,  $[Ta_6Cl_{12}]$

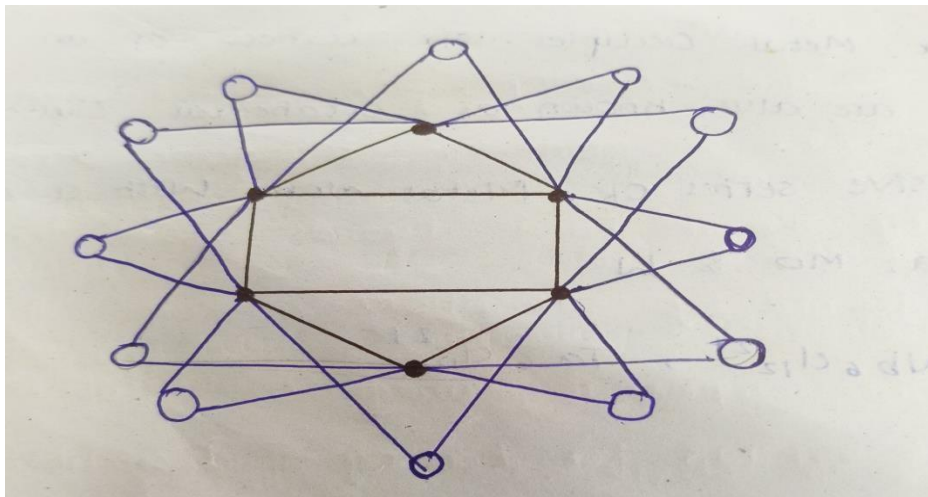
### STRUCTURE OF $Nb_6Cl_{12}$ AND $Ta_6Cl_{12}$ :-

$M_6X_{12} M = Nb, Ta$



In  $M_6X_{12}$ , these is an octahedron of metal atoms with bridging halogen atom along each edge .i.e, each halogen present on a edge thus the halogen acting as a binuclear bridge. Since it is connecting to two metals present on edge  $M_6X_{12}$  units are characteristic of the chemistry of the lower oxidation state of Nb and Ta. The  $[M_6X_{12}]^{2-}$  ions which have diamagnetic can be oxidized to  $[M_6X_{12}]^+$  ions which are again diamagnetic

One X atom is attached to the two vertices of an edge



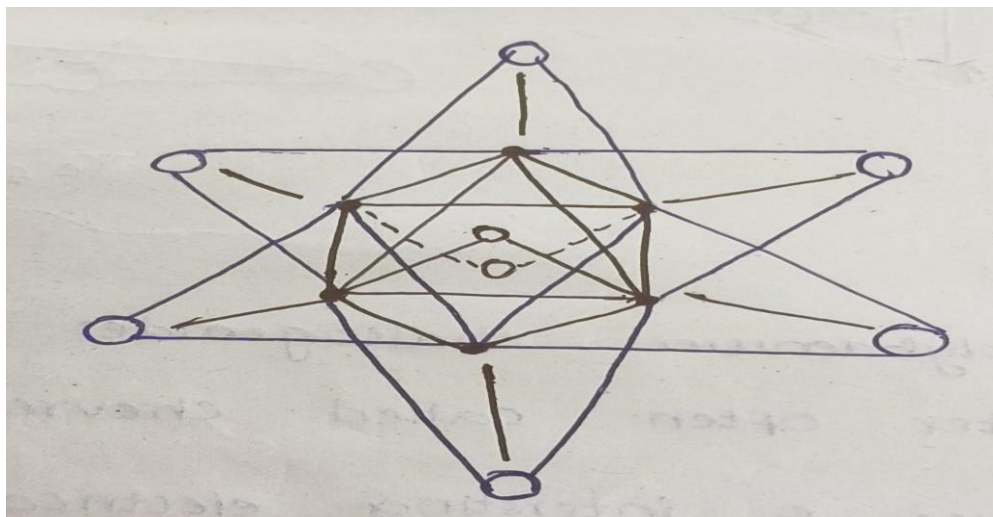
- Circle represents metal atoms

O Circle represents Cl atoms

### STRUCTURE AND BONDING OF $M_6O_6Cl_8$

$M_6X_8$

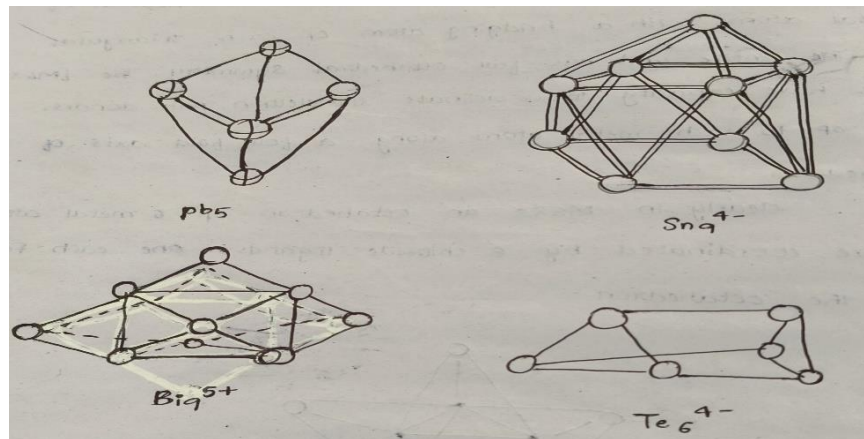
In  $M_6X_8$ , each halogen present on a face i.e. the halogen acting as a trinuclear bridge since it is connecting to three metals. thus in  $M_6X_8$  there is an octahedron of metal atoms with an



bridging atom of each triangular face. The entire unit has full octahedral symmetry. The  $[M_6X_8]_4$  units have the capacity to co-ordinate six electron pairs donors, one to each metal atoms along a fourfold axis of the octahedron. Clearly in  $M_6X_8$  an octahedron of 6 metal atoms are coordinated by 8 chlorine ligands, one on each face of the octahedron

**Polyatomic zintl anions and cations:-**

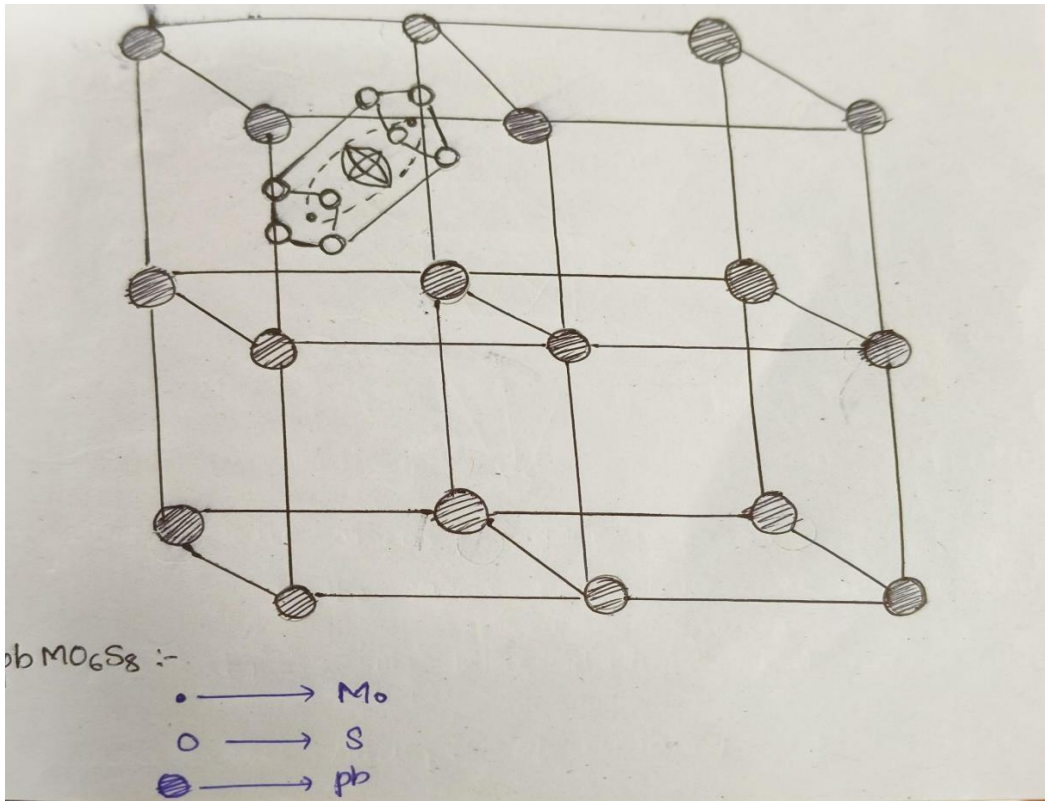
1. In the 1930's polyatomic ions such as  $Sb_9^{4-}$ ,  $Pb_9^{4-}$ ,  $Sb_7^{3-}$  &  $Bi_3^{3-}$  were identified but not structurally characterised.
2. Attempts of isolating crystals were unsuccessful because they decomposed in solution.
3. This problem is overcome in 1975 by stabilizing the reaction of the salts as cryptate. Ex:  $(Na(crypt) 2) Pb_5$  &  $(Na(crypt) 4) Sn_9$



**Cheveral phases:-**

Ternary molybdenum chalcogenides  $M_xMo_6X_8$  are polynuclear clusters often called cheveral phases have both unusual structures & interesting electrical and magnetic properties.

Eg:-  $PbMo_6S_8$  which is superconductor at temperature below 13.3k.



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## Unit-2 Organometallic Compounds

### 18 Electron rule:-

\* Forming group Elements octet rule is used to predict the formula of covalent compounds.

\* 18 Electron rule is used for transition metal complexes

\* 18e-rule is based on the concept that central transition metal can accommodate electron in the S, P, d orbitals

. 18 e-rule is also known as effective atomic number (EAN) rule.

All Complexes and organometallic Compound obeys EAN rule.

\* The number of Electrons present in the central metal atom plus number of Electrons donated by the ligand is called as 18e-rule.

No. of e- present in metal + No. of e- donated by ligand = 18

\* when the Electron Count is less than 18 metal is said to be Coordinatively Unsaturated Compounds.

\* The complex which has 18e is stable and Coordinatively Saturated compound. Ex: (i) Ni(CO)<sub>4</sub>.

Ni - [Ar] 4s<sup>2</sup> 3d<sup>8</sup> Ni = 10e-

4 CO contributes 4 CO = 8e- stable compound 18e-

(ii) Benzene tricarbonyl chromium Cr - [Ar] 4s<sup>1</sup> 3d<sup>5</sup> = 6e-

3 CO contributes = 6e-

Benzene 6πe- = 6e-

Stable compound 18e

(c) Ferrocene

Fe - [Ar] 4s<sup>2</sup> 3d<sup>6</sup> Fe<sup>2+</sup> = 6e-

2 Cp = 12e-

stable 18e-

Electron counting in covalent model.

	Covalent.	Ionic
onee-donor H, Cl, Br, I, R, O	1	2

2edonor	CO, PR <sub>3</sub> , P(OR) <sub>3</sub> , R <sub>2</sub> C=CR <sub>2</sub>	2	2
3edonor	C <sub>3</sub> H <sub>5</sub> (allylradical).	3.	4
4edonor	4-Diene(butadiene).	4.	4
5edonor	C <sub>5</sub> H <sub>5</sub> (cpradical).	5	6
6e-donor	arenes(Benzene).	6.	6

Hapticity(n):

No. of e donated by ligand to metal is called Hapticity" Examp

es:-

### Electron counting Ionic model:

**Neutral ligand**:- do not affect oxidation States PR<sub>3</sub>, PO-R, Co, 76-Benzene -formal charge :- 1 Effect oxidation State. Halide, alkoxide, hydride, cpo, allyl anion... Allyl cation: formal charge +1

Examples:- CO(Cp)<sub>2</sub>.

Co-[Ar]<sub>4</sub>S<sub>2</sub>d<sub>7</sub>.

2CP.

.

Covalent. Ionic

9e-. CO+2-7e-

10e-. 2CP.-12e-

19e-.

19e-

2.W(CO)<sub>6</sub>.

W-[kr]<sub>5</sub>S<sub>2</sub> 4d<sub>4</sub>.

6CO.

Covalent

Ionic

6e-.

4e-

12e-.

12e-

18e-.

16e-

3.HMn(Co)<sub>5</sub>.

Mn-[Ar]<sub>4</sub>s<sup>2</sup>3d<sub>5</sub>.

5CO.

H.

Covalent.

Ionic

7e-.

Mn+2-

5e-

10e-.

10 e-

1e-.

2e-

18e-.

17e-

## 16 Electron rule:-

A popular class of Compounds that Violating the 1800 rule are the 16e- n compounds with d<sup>8</sup> configuration Especially derivatives of cobalt (Co, Ir, Rh) and nickel [Ni, Pd, Pt] triods. Such compounds are typically Square planar.

All the metals Exhibits Same Coordination for both +2 and +3 States Except Ir, Rh, Pd, Pt. (11)

has C-NO-4 pt. (Iv) has CNO-6 both are stable compounds

[PtCl<sub>4</sub>]<sup>2-</sup> having 16e but Stable. [Pt(NH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>6</sub>]<sup>4+</sup>

having 18e.

Ir, Rh, Pd, Pt in their Lower oxidation States Exhibits CNO<sub>4</sub> having Stability and having 16e- for these 16e- rule is found.

Ir, Rh in +1 State has C.NO-4

Pt, Pd in +2 State has C.NO-4

Ir, Rh in +3 State has CINO-6

Pt, Pd in +4 state has C.NO-6

\* these shall participate in oxidation addition reaction.

Ex:- PtCl<sub>4</sub>. Covalent. Ionic

Pt-[Xe]4f<sup>14</sup>5d<sup>9</sup>6s<sup>1</sup>. 10e. Pt+2-8e-

4Cl-	4e-	8e-
	14e-	16e-

## Metal Carbonyl Clusters:-

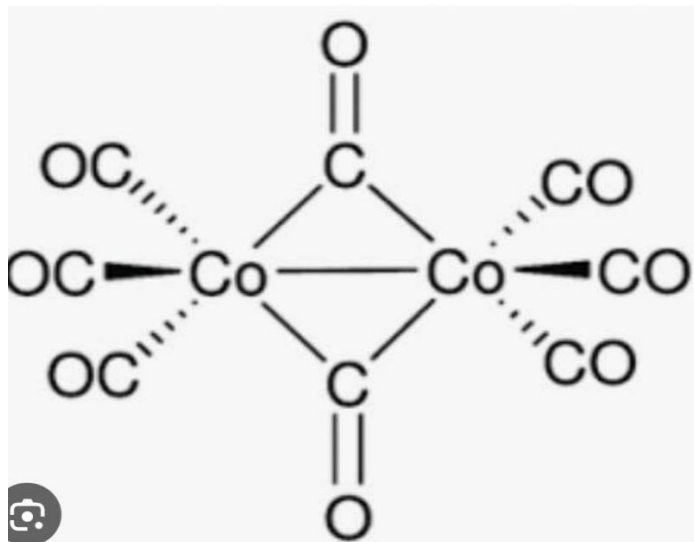
Metal carbonyl clusters are the metal clusters (two or more metal centers directly bonded to each other) having carbonyl groups as the ligand species. The metal centers in these cluster geometries are actually present in low oxidation state (+1, 0, -1) that can be stabilized by carbonyl ligands. Metal carbonyl clusters are mainly formed by some end-group metal (Fe, Co, Ni, Ru, Rh, Pd, Os, Ir, Pt) of the d-block elements. The primary domain of carbonyl clusters is composed of neutral carbonyls, carbonyl anions, metal carbonyl hydrides. The carbonyl hydride clusters can be obtained from neutral carbonyls by replacing one of the CO groups with two H-groups; while carbonyl anions are derived by replacing CO with one H-atom and one negative charge, or with two negative charge. Metal carbonyl clusters can be classified into two types; low nuclearity

carbonyl clusters (LNCC) and high nuclearity carbonyl clusters (HNCC), depending upon the number of metal centers involved in the skeletal framework. If the number of metal centers is in the range of 2-4, they are generally labeled as low nuclearity; while on the other hand, a metal-center number of 5 and above makes them designatable as high nuclearity carbonyl cluster system. Owing to the difference of electron counting scheme from high nuclearity carbonyl clusters, this section will exclusively deal with low nuclearity carbonyl clusters. The rationalization of bonding and structural profile of some important low nuclearity carbonyl clusters on the basis 18-electron scheme is discussed below.

### ► Binuclear Carbonyl Clusters:

The structural framework of dinuclear metal carbonyl clusters is comprised of two metal centers connected by 1 metal-metal bond, and therefore, linear in geometry. The CO groups can be terminal, bridging or both. The most common examples of these are  $\text{Co}_2(\text{CO})_8$ ,  $\text{Fe}_2(\text{CO})_9$ ,  $\text{Mn}_2\text{CO}_{10}$ ,  $\text{TC}_2\text{CO}_{10}$ , and  $\text{Re}_2\text{CO}_{10}$ -

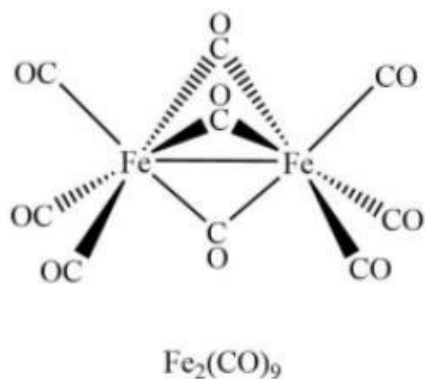
1.  $\text{Co}_2(\text{CO})_8$ : This cluster is known to exist in two isomers; the first one has a  $D_{3d}$  symmetry with one metal-metal bond with zero bridging carbonyl, the second one is of  $C_{2v}$  symmetry and has two bridging CO ligands along with one metal-metal bond. The 18-electron count for  $\text{Co}_2(\text{CO})_8$  is  $2 \times 9 + 8 \times 2 = 34$ . Hence, one metal-bond (2 electrons) is needed to fulfill the requirement of two metal centers (36 electrons).





2.  $\text{Fe}_2(\text{CO})_9$ : The structure of  $\text{Fe}_2(\text{CO})_9$ , exist with  $D_n$  symmetry, and and contains three bridging CO ligands and six terminal CO groups attached. The 18-electron count for  $\text{Fe}(\text{CO})_5$ , is  $2 \times 8 + 9 \times 2 = 34$ . Hence, one metal-metal bond (2 electrons) is needed to fulfill the requirement of two metal centers (36 electrons).

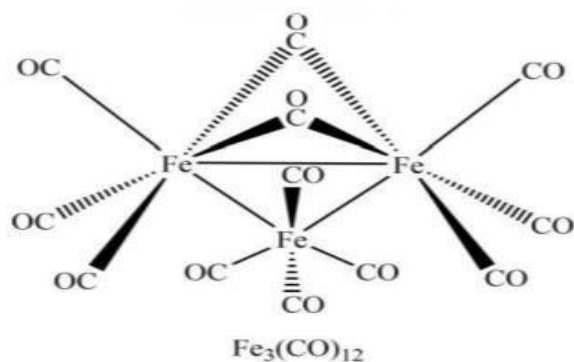
**Diagram**



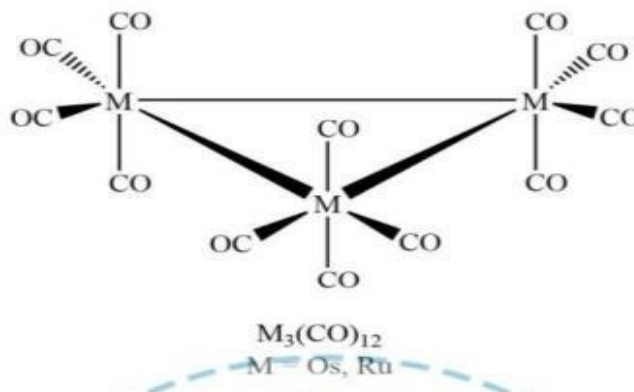
### ► Trinuclear Metal Carbonyl

The structural framework of trinuclear metal carbonyl clusters is comprised of three metal centers connected by three metal-metal bonds, and therefore, usually trigonal geometry. The CO groups can be terminal, bridging or both. The most common examples of trinuclear carbonyl clusters are  $\text{Fe}_3\text{CO}_{12}$ ,  $\text{Ru}_3(\text{CO})_{12}$  and  $\text{Os}_3(\text{CO})_{12}$  systems

1.  $\text{Fe}_3\text{CO}_{12}$ :  $\text{Fe}_3(\text{CO})_{12}$  is different, with two bridging CO ligands, resulting in  $C_{2v}$  symmetry. The 18-electron count for  $\text{Fe}_3(\text{CO})_{12}$  is  $3 \times 8 + 12 \times 2 = 48$ . Hence, three metal-metal bonds (6 electrons) are needed to fulfill the requirement of three metal centers (54 electrons).



2.  $M_3(CO)_6$  ( $M = Os, Ru$ ): For example, the  $Ru_3(CO)_6$  cluster has  $D_{3h}$  symmetry, consisting of an equilateral triangle of  $Ru$  atoms, each of which has

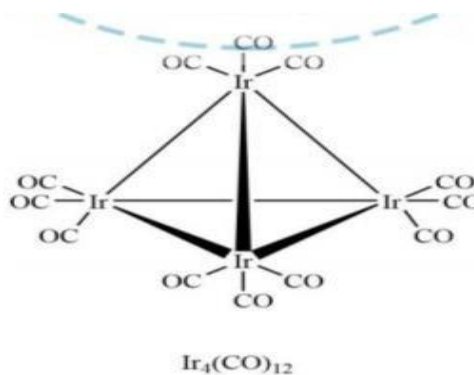


two axial and two equatorial CO ligands.  $Os_3(CO)_6$  has the same structure. The 18-electron count for  $M_3(CO)_6$  ( $M = Os, Ru$ ) is  $3 \times 8 + 12 \times 2 = 48$ . Hence, three metal-metal bonds (6 electrons) are needed to fulfill the requirement of three metal centers (54 electrons).

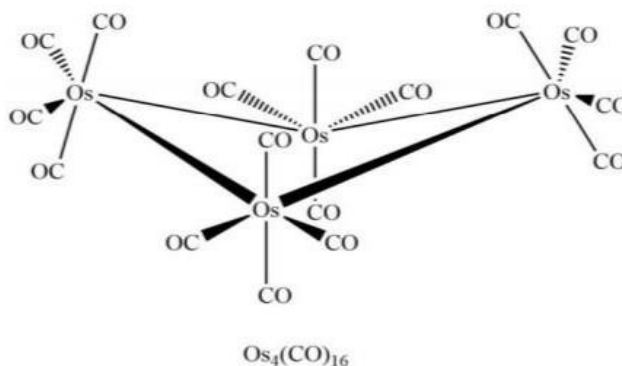
### ► Tetranuclear Metal Carbonyls

The structural framework of tetranuclear metal carbonyl clusters is comprised of four metal centers connected by four to six metal-metal bonds, and therefore, usually tetrahedral in geometry. The CO groups can be terminal, bridging or both. The most common examples of tetranuclear carbonyl clusters are  $Ir_4(CO)_{12}$ ,  $Co_4(CO)_{12}$ ,  $Rh_4(CO)_{12}$ ,  $Re_4(CO)_{12}$ ,  $Ru_4(CO)_{12}$

1.  $Ir_4(CO)_{12}$ : The  $Ir_4(CO)_{12}$  has perfect  $T_d$  symmetry with no bridging CO ligand groups. The 18-electron count for  $Ir_4(CO)_{12}$  is  $4 \times 9 + 12 \times 2 = 72$ . Hence, six metal-metal bonds (12 electrons) are needed to fulfill the requirement of four metal centers (84 electrons)



2.  $\text{Os}_4(\text{CO})_{16}$ : The tetranuclear  $\text{Os}_4(\text{CO})_{16}$  is analogous to cyclobutane with a puckered structure. The X-ray diffraction analysis of  $\text{Os}_4(\text{CO})_{16}$  unveiled an irregular tetrahedral  $\text{Os}_4$  skeleton with four weakly semi-bridging CO groups and four different Os-Os bond lengths. The 18-electron count for  $\text{Os}_4(\text{CO})_{16}$  is  $4 \times 8 + 16 \times 2 = 64$ . Hence, four metal-metal bonds (8 electrons) are needed to fulfill the requirement of four metal centers (72 electrons).

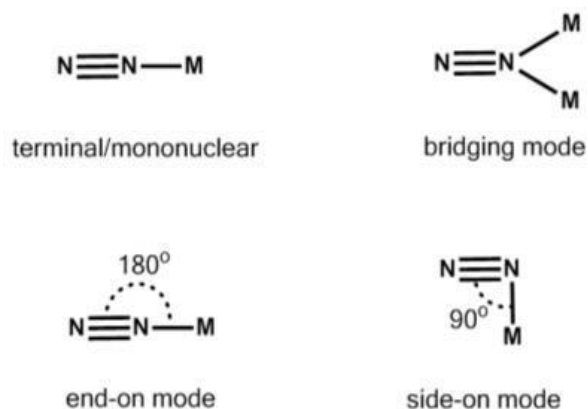


### 5.10. DINITROGEN COMPLEXES:-

Transition metal coordination compounds containing dinitrogen molecules ( $\text{N}_2$ ) as ligands are called dinitrogen complexes. Such complexes are of interest because dry air in earth's atmosphere contains nearly 78% nitrogen by volume that reflects reluctance of dinitrogen towards chemical reactions in ordinary conditions. Dinitrogen is converted to its organic and inorganic derivatives via a process called 'nitrogen fixation', which primarily involves the binding of dinitrogen to metal centers present in the enzyme nitrogenase followed by a series of other steps. Ruthenium complex,  $[\text{Ru}(\text{NH}_3)_5(\text{N}_2)]^{2+}$  is the first synthetic complex that contains a dinitrogen ligand. It is an octahedral paramagnetic complex in which five of the hexacoordinated sites are occupied by ammine ligands and the sixth position is occupied by dinitrogen molecule,  $\text{N}_2$ . The presence of  $\text{N}_2$  as a ligand in these compounds causes a strong vibrational band in the FTIR spectra of the compound around  $2170\text{--}2100\text{ cm}^{-1}$ .

Alike acetylene ( $\text{C}_2\text{H}_2$ ) and carbon monoxide (CO) molecules, dinitrogen ( $\text{N}_2$ ) also possess a triple bond. Similar to these acetylene and carbonyl ligands, dinitrogen also offers mononuclear (terminal) and bridging bonding modes. If the  $\text{N}_2$  molecule is shared by two or more metal centers in a complex, the manner of bonding is termed as the

bridging modes. Based on the geometric relationship between the  $N_2$  molecule and the metal center, the complexes are also differentiated to have end-on or side-on modes (Figure 5.8). In the end-on bonding mode of transition metal-dinitrogen complexes, the N-N vector can be considered in line with the metal ion center, whereas in the side-on modes, the metal-ligand bond is known to be perpendicular to the N-N vector.



### 5.9. NITROSYL Complexes:-

The chemistry of transition metal nitrosyls though gained significant attention somewhat later than that of metal carbonyls but in present times, the work done in this field runs parallel to that of metal carbonyls. Nitric oxide or the nitrosyl ligand can bind to the metal in a manner quite different from that of carbonyls. The two common binding modes of NO can be represented as shown below (Figure 5.7):



In the linear binding mode, the N behaves as a three electron donor in NO and M-N has a multiple bond character. It donates one electron to the metal before donating an electron pair for the formation of coordinate covalent bond. Then nitrosyl  $NO^*$  is isoelectronic with CO ligand. It is the most common bonding observed. In the bent coordination mode, the N acts as a single electron donor towards the metal and the M-N-O bond angle is  $120^\circ$ . Here, the M-N bond is longer than that in the linear bonding

mode, it is still somewhat shorter than the single M-N bond distance. In most of the nitrosyl complexes,  $\text{NO}^+$  (nitrosyl or nitrosonium ion) acts as the ligand by donating a pair of electrons. In some complexes, nitric oxide is also known to exist as an anion  $\text{NO}^-$  such as in  $[\text{Co}^{+3}(\text{CN})_5(\text{NO})]^{-3}$  and  $[\text{Co}^{+3}(\text{NH}_3)_5(\text{NO})]^{+2}$ .

The free nitric oxide has an IR stretching frequency of  $1870\text{ cm}^{-1}$ . The nature of other ligands present in the complex, charge and structure of the complex affect the NO stretching frequency ( $\nu_{\text{NO}}$ ). The nitrosyl ligand is linear when it coordinates as  $\text{NO}^+$  and  $\nu_{\text{NO}}$  is observed in the range  $1720\text{--}1400\text{ cm}^{-1}$ . The role of metal nitrosyls has been much explored as homogeneous catalysts. They find their biggest application in olefin disproportionation reactions.

### Isolobal relationship

This is used in organometallic chemistry to relate the structure of organic and inorganic molecular fragments in order to predict the bonding properties of organometallic compounds.

\* Roald Hoffmann described molecular fragments if the number of symmetry properties, approximate energy, shape of the frontier orbitals and no. of electrons in these are similar not identical but similar.

\* For this work he awarded the Nobel prize in chemistry in 1981

\* Isolobal compounds are analogous to isoelectronic compounds that share the same no. of valence electrons and structure.

\* A graphic representation of isolobal structure with the isolobal pairs connected through a double-headed arrow with half an orbital below is formed.

Construction of isolobal fragments:-

\* Molecules based around the octet rule (1800) main group elements should satisfy

\* when all bonding and non-bonding molecular orbitals are completely filled

\* The antibonding molecular orbitals are empty.

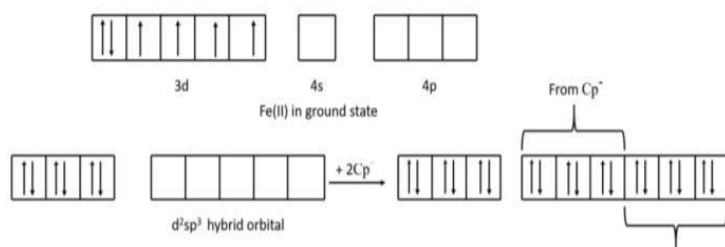
### Ferrocene:-

#### 1 Structure and bonding in ferrocene

In 1952, G. Wilkinson and R. B. Woodward deduced the sandwich structure of ferrocene: two anionic cyclopentadienyl ( $\text{Cp}^-$ ) rings each donating 6 electrons to the  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$  cation between them. The structure of ferrocene as revealed by single crystal X-ray diffraction studies confirms iron to be sandwiched between two cyclopentadiene rings. These rings are arranged in an eclipsed manner. All C-C distances are in the

range  $1.40 \pm 0.02 \text{ \AA}$ . The pentagonal ring of Cp is analogous to hexagonal ring of benzene having  $sp^2$  hybridized carbon. Five electrons from five carbons and one electron from the formation of Cp contribute total of six electrons which are present in three of the five  $\pi$ -bonding orbitals while the remaining two  $\pi$ -bonding orbitals are vacant. In the Fe complex, ferrocene, Fe(II) is  $d^2sp^3$  hybridized, each Cp coordinates giving three electron pairs. Below is a depiction of electron filling in hybridized orbitals of ferrocene.

The filled  $t_2g$  orbitals of Fe(II) are involved in  $\pi$ -backbonding with vacant  $\pi^*$  orbitals of the ligand Cp. Thus, each Cp acts as a  $\pi$ -donor and  $\pi$ -acceptor in the formation of a sandwich compound.



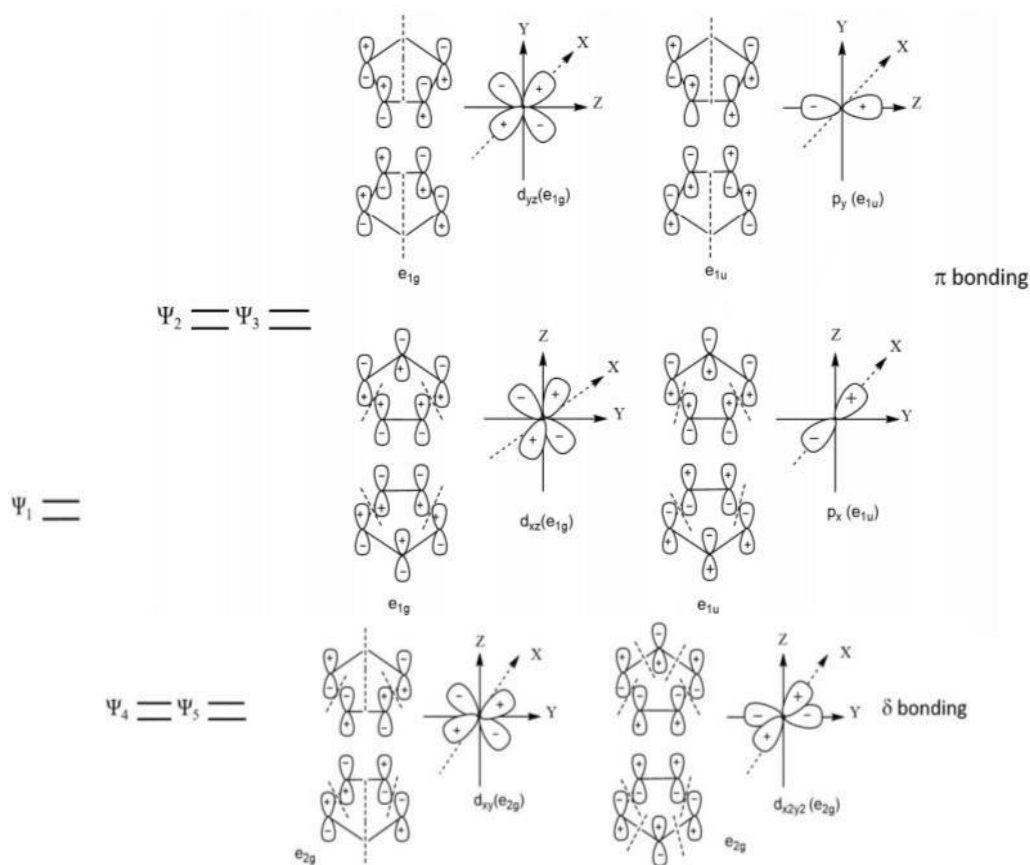
### 6.10.2. Cyclopentadienyl-metal interaction in ferrocene

The frontier molecular orbitals (FMO) of cyclopentadienyl ligand contain five orbitals ( $\Psi_1$ - $\Psi_5$ ) distributed within three energy levels. The lowest energy state (1) does not contain any node and is represented by a state. Following a<sub>1</sub>, the next higher energy states are 2 and 3 which are doubly degenerate and represented as  $e_1$  states. They have one nodal plane containing the principal axis. Above them lie doubly degenerate 4 and 5, designated as  $e_2$  states which have two nodal planes and are even higher in energy. This pattern of doubly degenerate orbitals of increasing energy and nodal planes continues until the number of molecular orbitals is equal to the number of atomic orbitals that is the number of carbon atoms in the ring. If this number is odd, the highest antibonding orbital is degenerate and if it is even then the highest antibonding orbital is non-degenerate.

The orbitals on two ligands may interact in addition or in subtraction giving rise to ligand group orbitals (LGO). The wave functions ( $\Psi$ ) of these five molecular orbitals are derived from the linear combination of the five p atomic orbitals wave function ( $\psi$ ) of the  $C_5H_5$  ring. These combine with atomic orbitals of matching symmetry on the metal to form the molecular orbitals (MO). For better understanding, consider the lowest energy ligand bonding orbital. If the wave function of this orbital from the two ligand metalocene rings are added, a gerade ligand group orbital having symmetry ( $a_{1g}$ ) similar to atomic s orbital is formed. Conversely, if the two wave functions are

subtracted, an ungerade LGO is produced having same symmetry as that of an atomic orbital ( $a_{2u}$ ). Thus, in a similar fashion, other LGOs can be constructed by adding or subtracting the higher MOs of the two rings. Overall molecular correlation diagram of Cp<sub>2</sub>M type of complex is generated from the orbitals which subsequently interact with the metal orbitals as shown below. The Cp<sub>2</sub>M type complexes are formed by the entire first row of transition metal ions from Sc to Zn. The number of unpaired electrons correspond to the number of unpaired electrons present in the valence orbitals of the metal.

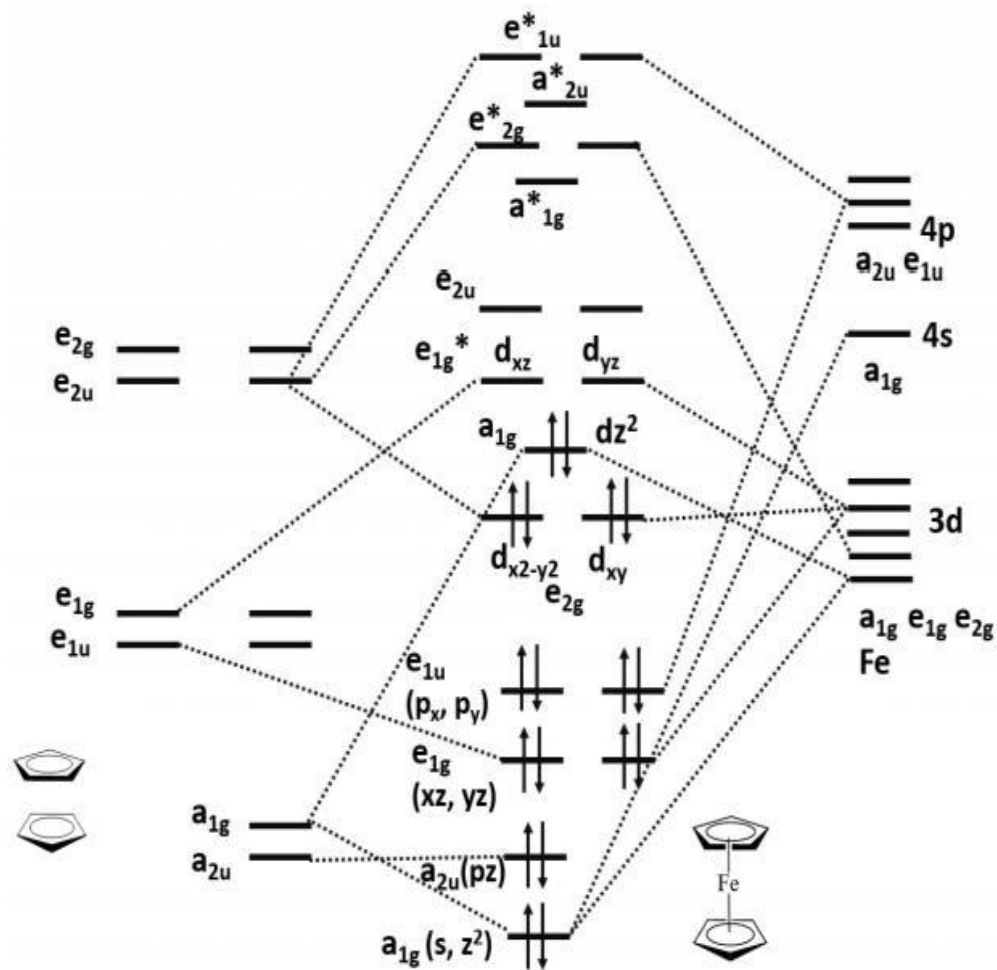
From the first-row transition metal metallocenes, manganocene exists in two forms. First, is a high spin form having five unpaired electrons as in Cp<sub>2</sub>Mn and the second is a low spin form with one unpaired electron as in Cp<sub>2</sub>Mn in which Cp has higher field strength. Cobaltocene, Cp<sub>2</sub>Co has 19 valence electrons and thus gets oxidized to



diamagnetic Cp<sub>2</sub>Co<sup>+</sup> which now has 18 valence electrons. Similarly, Cp<sub>2</sub>Fe is also diamagnetic with 18 valence electrons. MO diagram of ferrocene is shown below. A total of 18 electrons are filled coming from Fe(II) (6 electrons) and from two C<sub>5</sub>H<sub>5</sub> rings (2 × 6 = 12). Fe(C<sub>5</sub>H<sub>5</sub>)<sub>2</sub> is more stable than Co(C<sub>5</sub>H<sub>5</sub>)<sub>2</sub> and Ni(C<sub>5</sub>H<sub>5</sub>)<sub>2</sub> having 19 and 20 electrons respectively. This is due to the fact that in ferrocene there are no electrons in

antibonding molecular Orbitals (ABMO) whereas in cobaltocene there is one electron and in nickelocene there are two electrons

in antibonding molecular orbitals. These electrons are easily removed and thus, cobaltocene and nickelocene are easily oxidized. Similarly,  $\text{Cr}(\text{C}_5\text{H}_5)_2$  and  $\text{V}(\text{C}_5\text{H}_5)_2$  have 16 and 15 electrons respectively thus they have empty bonding molecular orbital-nonbonding molecular orbitals which makes them susceptible to being reduced.





**DNR COLLEGE(A): BHIMAVARAM**  
**DEPARTMENT OF PG CHEMISTRY**



**INORGANIC CHEMISTRY-II**

Presented By

N.Santhi

## Unit-3 Metal Ligand Equilibria In Solution

### Stability of Complexes:-

The degree of association of metal and ligand is indicated by its formation constant. The formation constant also called as stability constant and equilibrium constant.

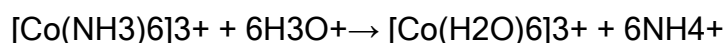
There are two kinds of stabilities are

1. Thermodynamic stability

2. kinetic stability

#### 1. Thermodynamic stability

It is the measure of the extent to which formation of complex occurs or the extent of transformation under a given set of condition at equilibrium. Thermodynamic stability depends on the strength of bond between metal and ligand. The strength of bond between metal and ligand shows great variation. For example, in  $[\text{Co}(\text{SCN})_4]^{2+}$ , the strength of bond metal and thiocyanate is very weak and breaks immediately in aqueous solution. On the contrary, in  $[\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6]^{3-}$ , the bond between ferric ion and nitrile anions is very strong and does not break in aqueous solution. Thus, thermodynamic stability deals with metal ligand bond energy and other thermodynamic parameters. Tetracyanonickelate(II)  $\{[\text{K}_2\text{Ni}(\text{CN})_4]\}$  ion is a good example of a thermodynamically stable complex but kinetically labile whereas hexa amine cobalt(III) cation  $[\text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_6]^{3+}$  in acid solution is kinetically inert and thermodynamically unstable



Stability and inertness can be expressed thermodynamically in terms of free energies of reaction  $\Delta G^\circ$ . A stable complex has large negative  $\Delta G^\circ$ . The following relation relates the standard enthalpy change  $\Delta H^\circ$  for the reaction to equilibrium constant  $\beta_n$ :

$$\Delta G^\circ = -RT \ln \beta_n$$

$$\Delta G^\circ = \Delta H^\circ - T\Delta S^\circ$$

$\Delta S^\circ$  values for similar complexes of metal ions of a particular transition series with a particular ligand will not differ significantly and hence,  $\Delta H^\circ$  value will be related to  $\beta_n$  values. Therefore, order of values of  $\Delta H^\circ$  will be order of  $\beta_n$  values.

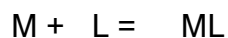
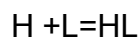
## 2. Kinetic stability

Kinetic stability refers to the reactivity or ligand substitution in general. It is the speed with which transformation of reactants occurs leading to attainment of equilibrium. Thus, substitution may take place rapidly with some ligands while slowly with others. The former type is called labile ligands and the latter are known as inert. In kinetic studies, time factor plays an important role in deciding the stability of the complex. It deals with rate and mechanism of complex formation.

### Stepwise and overall/cumulative formation constants

The formation of complex can be considered as a type of acid base equilibrium existing between the competing species  $M^{n+}$  ion, ligand (L) and  $H^+$  ions

Thus, two equilibria have to be considered

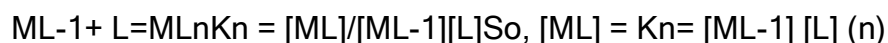
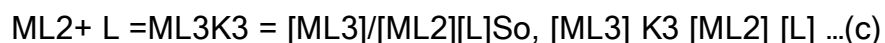


Moreover, to consider stability constant for complex formation the equation can be represented as:



### Stepwise formation constant

It is considered that complex formation is a stepwise process occurring by a series of stages. For example, the stepwise formation constant of  $ML_n$  can be expressed as

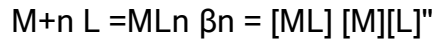
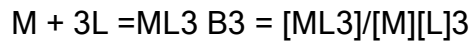
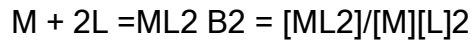
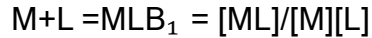


Here,  $K_1$ ,  $K_2$ ,  $K_3$  and  $K_n$  are stepwise equilibrium constants with respect to the formation of the complexes one step at a time, M denotes metal ion and L denotes a monodentate ligand. The overall formation constant ( $K_f$ ) of complex from reagents in terms of stepwise constant is given as

$$K_f = K_1 \times K_2 \times K_3 \dots K_n$$

### 8.3.5. Cumulative or overall formation constant

Cumulative or overall formation constant is represented by symbol  $\beta$ . It can be represented as the product of stepwise formation constants.



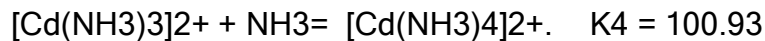
Here, B<sub>1</sub>, B<sub>2</sub>, B<sub>3</sub> stand for overall stability constant for each stage of complex formation and β<sub>n</sub> stands for nth overall (or cumulative) formation constant. Usually, K<sub>n</sub> decreases with each subsequent step. This can be reasoned as follows. As ligand is added to the metal ion M<sup>2+</sup>, ML forms first, with the addition of more ligand [ML<sub>2</sub>] rises sharply and [ML] drops. With further addition of L, [ML<sub>2</sub>] drops and [ML<sub>3</sub>] rises and so on. Addition of ligand to form a new complex is always reversible and formation of ML<sub>n</sub> progresses with greater n values for L. Thus, there is probability of more ligands to fall back off as there are fewer places to put the new ligands in the coordination sphere, so it is expected that stepwise K<sub>n</sub>'s will drop. For example, the formation of [Cd(NH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>4</sub>]<sup>2+</sup> depicted below, the drop in equilibrium constant with added L groups is evident.



.....

.....

.....



### Relation between stepwise and overall stability constants

A stepwise constant can be expressed as the quotient of two or more overall constants

$$B_1 = K_1$$

$$B_2 = K_1 \times K_2$$

$$B_3 = K_1 \times K_2 \times K_3$$

$$\beta_n = K_1 \times K_2 \times \dots \times K_n$$

From above, it can be stated that overall stability or formation constant (β<sub>n</sub>) is the product of stepwise stability or formation constants (K<sub>1</sub>, K<sub>2</sub>,.....K<sub>n</sub>). It is always suitable to define each stability constant with reference to an equilibrium expression.

## FACTORS AFFECTING THE STABILITY OF METAL COMPLEXES

### .Chelate effect:-

The formation of a closed ring in an inorganic metal complex by attachment of a ligand to metal ion at two points is called a chelate. Minimum of a bidentate ligand is required for formation of a chelate. Alternatively, we can say that chelate complexes are formed by multidentate ligands. The name chelate is derived from the Greek word 'Chela' means 'Claw of lobster or crab'. A series of experiments revealed that the stability of inorganic chelate metal complexes was greater than those having no chelating ligands in their structure. However, there are several other factors, which shall be considered while deciding stability of complexes, discussed below. An example is the complex ion formed between ethylene diamine (en) and cupric ion,  $[\text{Cu}(\text{NH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{NH}_2)_2]^{2+}$ .

Consider for example, a reaction vessel containing cupric ions,  $\text{NH}_3$  and en (ethylene diamine) given the condition that cupric ions are equally available to both the ligands and concentration of  $\text{NH}_3$  is twice that of en ligand. The bidentate en ligand forms chelate complex with copper resulting in five-membered ring whereas in the other copper complex formed with  $\text{NH}_3$  ligand, the two en ligands are replaced by four  $\text{NH}_3$  ligands. Under given set of conditions, it is found that the concentration of complex 1 is greater than that of 2. This can be attributed to the additional stability provided by chelation of en ligand in complex 1.



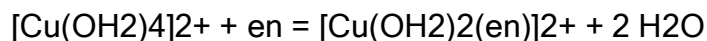
### Steric effect

This effect comes into play when the groups present on coordinating ligands obstruct each other; thus, distorting bond angles and decrease in stability. The phenomenon is called F-strain. As steric effect decreases, stability of complex increases. For example  $\text{Ni}(\text{II})$  complexes with 2-methyl 8-hydroxy quinoline are less stable than complexes with 8-hydroxy quinoline. Similarly, complexes of ethylene diamine are more stable than its tetramethyl derivatives. The later compounds have greater steric repulsion due to the presence of four additional methyl groups.

### Chelate effect and its thermodynamic origin

We know that greater stability of chelate complexes is called the chelate effect. The additional stability due to chelation can be explained considering the thermodynamic aspects of this phenomenon. It is believed that there is difference in entropy between chelate and non-chelate complex reactions. The formation of chelate complexes results in greater disorder because of the formation of a larger number of free particles in the products whereas there is negligible change in the number of particles in the formation

of comparable nonchelate complexes. This fact can be illustrated with the following example. The stability of a complex with bidentate ligand such as ethylenediamine is significantly greater than the complex of the same metal ion with monodentate ligands having comparable donor ability such as ammonia.



$$\Delta H = -54 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}, \Delta S = 23 \text{ J K}^{-1} \text{ mol}^{-1}$$



$$\Delta H = -46 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}, \Delta S = -8.4 \text{ J K}^{-1} \text{ mol}^{-1}$$

### **Nature of central metal ion**

#### **1. Class A and B metals**

According to Ahrland, Chatt and Davies, metal complexes can be put in class A if they form stronger complexes with ligands having N, O or F as donor atoms whereas those which form stable complexes with ligands having P, S or Cl can be put in class B. For example Ni(II) forms stable complexes with amine ligands whereas Pt(II) forms stable complexes with phosphine ligands where donor atom is phosphorous. Later, Pearson's Hard and Soft Acid Base theory (HSAB) classified metals as hard and soft where class A metals are hard acids whereas class B metals are soft acids.

In general, hard acids form stronger complexes with hard bases and vice versa. Hard-hard interactions are predominantly electrostatic in nature while soft-soft interactions are covalent in nature. The hardness of metal ions increases with increase in oxidation state. This is evident from the fact that Fe<sup>2+</sup> forms stable complexes with N donor ligands while Fe<sup>3+</sup> forms stable complexes with O donor ligands.

#### **.2. Ionic radius of metal ions**

In 1953, Irving and Williams suggested that first row transition metal ions could be arranged in order of their ligand binding affinities. Thus, they designed a series arranging octahedral divalent first transition metal ion complexes in order (shown below) of their stability known as the Irving-Williams series.



The order was found to hold true for a variety of ligands and it can be explained as follows.

(i) The ionic radius is found to decrease from Mn to Zn as a general periodic trend hence accounts for increase in stability.

(ii) The crystal field stabilization energy (CFSE) increases from zero for  $Mn^{2+}$  to maximum for  $Ni^{2+}$  complexes and again falls to zero for  $Zn^{2+}$ . Even though CFSE for  $Cu^{2+}$  is lesser than that for  $Ni^{2+}$  octahedral complexes, still  $Cu^{2+}$  complexes are more stable due to the Jahn Teller distortion.

### **Nature of the ligand:-**

#### **1. Size and charge**

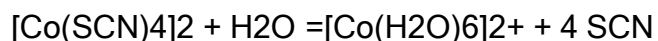
Ligands with less charge and greater size form less stable complexes as compared to ligands with more charge and smaller size.

#### **2. Basic character**

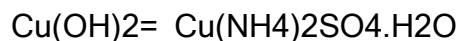
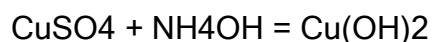
Higher the basic character of the ligand that is the tendency to donate electrons to the central metal ion, higher is the stability of the complexes formed. Eg. Aromatic amines form less stable complexes as compared to aliphatic amines because of the weak electron donating tendency of the aromatic amines. Ligands such as  $NH_3$  and  $CN$  are more basic in nature and hence form stable complexes.

#### **3. Ligand concentration**

Some complexes can exist in aqueous solution only when the concentration of coordinating ligand is high. This is because in some cases water molecules behave as a better coordinating ligand. For eg.  $Co^{2+}$  can exist as stable blue coloured solution of  $[Co(SCN)_4]^{2-}$  only in presence of high concentration of thiocyanate ( $SCN$ ) ions. But on dilution in aqueous solution a stable pink colored complex of  $[Co(H_2O)_6]^{2+}$  is formed but on further addition of  $SCN$  the pink color disappears to give blue color solution. The phenomena shows that there is a competition between the  $SCN$  and  $H_2O$  ligands in formation of complex with  $Co(II)$  ion..



Similarly, reaction of cupric sulfate at lower concentration of ammonia forms copper hydroxide whereas at higher concentration of ligand forms ammonium cupric sulfate monohydrate.



## METHODS OF DETERMINING FORMATION/STABILITY CONSTANTS:-

### 1. Potentiometric method

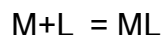
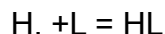
In this method, association between the metal ion  $M^{m+}$  and the ligand as an anion of the weak acid  $H_nL$  is studied. Here, the nature and concentration of all the species present in solution have to be determined such as pH of buffer solution containing  $H_1L$ , base (NaOH, KOH) and metal ion generally used as perchlorate salt (generalized here as  $MX_m$ ).

To calculate the stability constants from potentiometric pH titration data, we need equations on the mass balance and charge balance conditions.

The total concentration of the metal ion may be written:

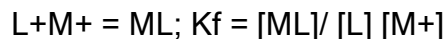
#### 1.1. Bjerrum method:-

Bjerrum designed this method to determine the stability constant using pH meter to measure  $H^+$  ion concentration based on the fact that formation of a ligand-metal complex is a type of acid-base reaction equilibrium where there is competition for the ligand between  $M^{n+}$  ion and  $H^+$  ions. Thus, the following two equilibria operate

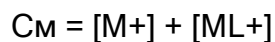
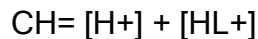


Thus, by titrating a mixture of M and HL with a base concentration of  $H^+$  can be followed. With the help of prior knowledge of acid dissociation constant  $K_a$  of HL, stability constant for the formation of complex ML can be determined.

Consider the equilibrium in which an acid, metal ions and a basic ligand are present. Thus,



If,  $C_H$ ,  $C_M$  and  $C_L$  are the concentration of acid, metal and ligand in moles/litre, their concentration can be expressed in terms of following equations:



Using above three equations and equation for  $K_a$ , we can derive equations for  $[ML]$ ,  $[M^{n+}]$  and  $[L]$  as shown below:



$$CL-CH=[L] [H^+] + [ML^+]$$

$$[ML^+] = CL-CH+ [H^+] - [L]$$

Using value of [L] from the Ka expression, we get

$$.[ML^+] CL-CH+ [H^+][HL^+]/Ka [H]$$

Or

$$[ML] =CL-CH+ [H^+] \{(CH [H^+])/(Ka [H])\}$$

$$[M^+] = CM-[ML^+]$$

$$[L] = [HL^+]/Ka [H^+]$$

or

$$[L]=CH-[H^+]/Ka [H^+]$$

Thus, using the values of [ML], [M+] and [L] from above equations and substituting in  $K = [ML^+]/[M^+] [L]$ , Kr can be calculated. The values of CH, CL, CM, Ka and [H+] are generally determined potentiometrically using a pH meter.

**Drawbacks:** It should be noted that if two or more solution species have identical charges and same number of metal ions and ligand molecules, only the sum of the concentrations could be determined potentiometrically. Thus, the two forms of glycine  $NH_3^+CH_2COO^-$  and  $NH_2CH_2COOH$ , complex species such as  $[FeEDTA]^{1-}$  and  $[Fe(OH)(H.EDTA)]^{1-}$ , configurational and conformational isomers and inner- and outer sphere complexes cannot be distinguished by this method. Other methods such as spectrophotometry may be more suitable in these cases.

## 2. Spectrophotometric method

Spectrophotometric methods are highly sensitive. The deciding factor in this technique is that the species involved in chemical equilibria must absorb light and give different spectral response. Thus, concentration of species involved in equilibrium and new species formed can be measured directly from UV-visible spectra.

The method is based on the Beer-Lambert Law where  $\log(I_0/I) = Ecd$  ( $I_0/I$  is the ratio of incident light to transmitted light, c is the molar concentration of the absorbing solute, d is the light path length in centimeters and  $\epsilon$  is the absorptivity). Some precautions must be considered while measuring absorbance such as prevention of any contamination of the solution or cell faces. In addition, the spectrophotometer should be used to record small differences in optical density having inaccuracy in the absorbance of the instrument is negligible.

When only two species are present such as the ionization of monobasic acids, measurement of absorbance as a function of wavelength at different pH values can be used to calculate the equilibrium constant. This may be useful for compounds whose solubility is poor, direct titration can be done since absorptivities are often large enough to allow study of solutions having concentration upto  $10^{-5}$  mol dm<sup>3</sup>.

**Drawback:** For a complex which is too stable or too weak the K value cannot be determined spectrophotometrically. In addition, if the ligand or metal absorb at the chosen wavelength, the measured absorbances must be corrected

### Job's method

Using the stoichiometry of the complex, the value of K (the stability constant) can be determined from the expression given below, if the value of m and n are known:

$$K = \frac{m^{n-1} n^{m-1} x^{m+n} (P-1)^{m+n}}{C_1^{m+n-1} x^{m+n} [P(m+n)-1]^{m+n}}$$

where, K = stability constant, 1/K = dissociation constant of the complex, P = ratio of the concentration of the ligand to the concentration of metal, C<sub>1</sub> = molar concentration of metal solution, X = concentration of ligand for which the concentration of complex is maximum, m = the number of moles of a metal required to combine with "n" moles of ligand for (1:1) metal ligand ratio in the complex having m = n = 1, the stability constant K can be calculated from the equation given below.

$$K = \frac{(P-1)(1-2x)}{C_1} \times \frac{1}{[(P+1)(x-1)]^2}$$

### ❖ Inert and Labile Complexes

The metal complexes in which the rate of ligand displacement reactions is very fast and hence show high reactivity are called as labile Complexes and this property is termed as lability. On the other hand, the metal complexes in which the rate of ligand displacement reactions is very slow and hence show less reactivity are called as inert complexes and this property is termed as inertness.

### ► Labile and Inert Complexes on the Basis of Valence Bond Theory

According to the valence bond theory of chemical bonding, octahedral metal-complexes can be divided into two types.

1. **Outer orbital complexes:** These complexes have sp<sup>3</sup>d hybridization and are generally labile in nature. Valence bond theory proposed that the bonds in sp<sup>3</sup>d hybridization are generally weaker than that of (n-1)d-sp<sup>3</sup> orbitals and therefore they show labile character. For example, octahedral complexes of Mn<sup>2+</sup>, Fe<sup>2+</sup>, Cr<sup>2+</sup> complexes show fast ligand displacement.

2. **Innerorbital complexes:** Since  $dsp^3$  hybrid orbitals are filled with six electron pairs donated by the ligands,  $d^n$  electron of metal will occupy  $d_{xy}$ ,  $d_{yz}$  and  $d_{zx}$  orbitals. These  $dsp^3$  hybrid orbitals can form both inert or labile complexes. In order to show lability, one orbital out of  $d_{xy}$ ,  $d_{yz}$ ,  $d_{zx}$  must be empty so that it can accept another electron pair and can form seven isocoordinated intermediate which is a necessary step for the associative pathway of ligand displacement. On the other hand, if all the  $d_{xy}$ ,  $d_{yz}$ ,  $d_{zx}$  orbitals contain at least one electron, it will not be able to accept electron pair from the incoming ligand and hence is expected to show inert character.

### ► Labile and Inert Complexes on the Basis of Crystal Field Theory

Octahedral complexes react either by  $SN_1$  or  $SN_2$  mechanism in which the intermediates are five and seven-coordinated species, respectively. In both cases, the symmetry of the complex is lowered down and due to this change in crystal field symmetry, the crystal field stabilization (CFSE) value also changes. The cases field Stabilization value for lability and inertness are

1. **Labile complexes:** If the CFSE value for the five or seven-membered intermediate complex is greater than that of the reactant, the complex will be of labile nature as there is zero activation energy barrier.
2. **Inert complexes:** If the CFSE value for the five or seven-membered intermediate complex is less than that of the reactant, the metal complex will be of inert nature as loss of CFSE will become the activation energy barrier.

## b) Bio inorganic chemistry

### STRUCTURE OF HEMOGLOBIN & MYOGLOBIN

Hemoglobin contains four heme units each embedded in a globular protein sub-unit. There are two types of protein sub- units i.e.,  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ .

Myoglobin contains only one heme unit surrounded by a globular protein, containing seven  $\alpha$ -helical and six non helical segments, made up of 153 amino acids.

Note: Heme moieties are shown in green color in above diagram.  $Fe(II)$  ion is shown in red color.

Heme is a porphyrin ring system made up of four pyrrole rings with an  $Fe(II)$  ion coordinated to nitrogens of pyrrole rings.

Note: Heme moieties are shown in green color in above diagram.  $Fe(II)$  ion is shown in red color.

Hemoglobin and Myoglobin exist in two forms i.e.,

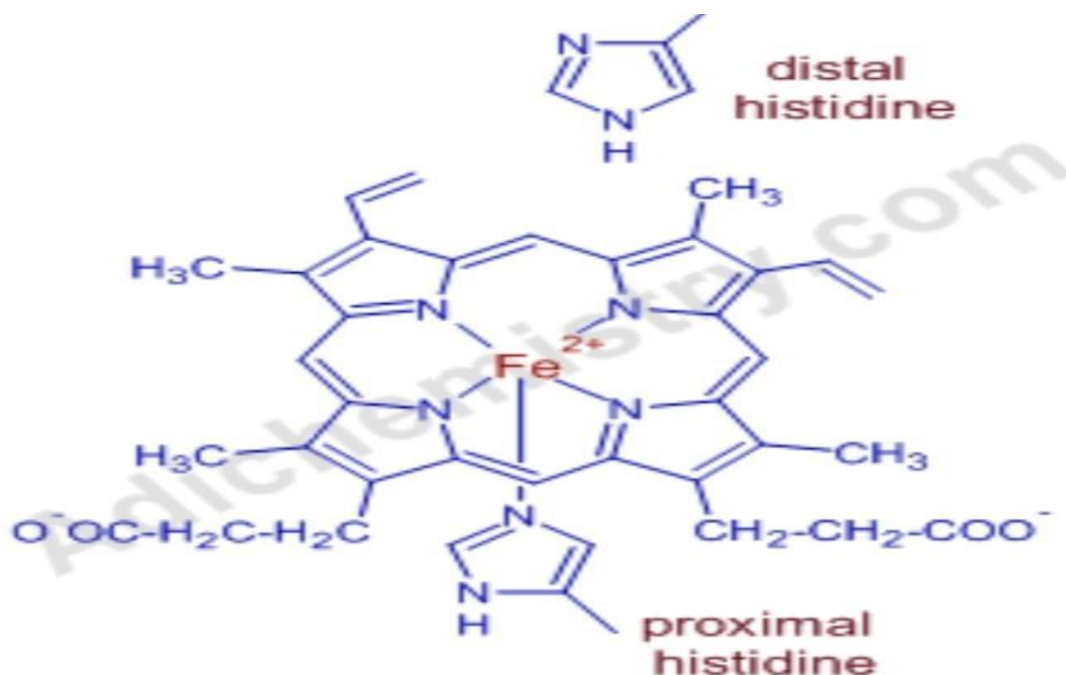
- 1) deoxy form: No oxygen is bound to iron.

2) oxy form: dioxygen is bound to iron.

In deoxy-hemoglobin, four of the coordinated sites of iron are occupied by nitrogens of porphyrin ring. The fifth site is occupied by Histidine residue (called proximal histidine) of globin. The sixth position is occupied by weakly bonded water molecule. Hence some authors tend to report Fe(II) ion in deoxy form as pentacoordinated. Deoxy-hemoglobin is said to be in T-state (tense).

On the opposite side of the proximal histidine, there is one more histidine group (called distal histidine) placed near the iron ion. It forces the binding of dioxygen in "end on bent" confirmation.

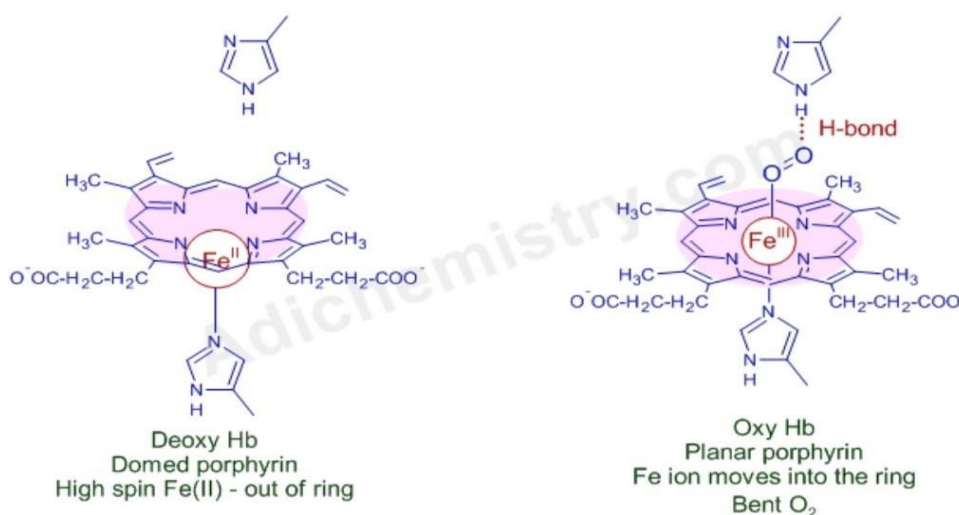
Note: The bent confirmation discourages the binding of CO to heme iron. Otherwise, CO may have even more affinity with the iron ion. It is observed that CO binds to hemoglobin 200X stronger than dioxygen but binds 20,000X stronger with unprotected heme.



Hemoglobin coordinated to dioxygen is called oxy-hemoglobin. It is also referred to as R-state (relaxed). In oxy-hemoglobin the sixth coordinated position of iron is occupied by dioxygen in "end on bent" geometry.

In deoxy-Hemoglobin, the porphyrin ring is dome shaped. The Fe(II) is in high spin state and is paramagnetic. Its size is 0.78 Å and is positioned above the plane of the porphyrin ring.

However, in oxy-Hemoglobin, the size of iron ion is reduced to  $0.61 \text{ \AA}$  and can fit into the cavity of planar porphyrin ring and hence moves into the cavity of porphyrin ring with concomitant dragging of proximal histidine that triggers the conformational changes in other globin subunits and thus by opening other heme sites. As a result, the binding capacity of other heme irons with dioxygen is enhanced. This is best example for cooperativity through allostery.



The nature of Fe in oxy-Hemoglobin or in oxy-Myoglobin is controversial.

According to old Pauling model, there is a low spin  $\text{Fe(II)}$  ion that is bound to singlet  $\text{O}_2$  in oxy-Hb. Both are diamagnetic.

However, according to Weiss model, there is  $\text{Fe(III)}$  ion bound to superoxide radical anion ( $\text{O}_2^-$ ). Though both are paramagnetic, a strong paramagnetic coupling between them ensues diamagnetic behavior. This model is supported by the O-O stretching frequency at  $1105 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  in resonance Raman spectrum that is consistent with the fact that  $\text{O}_2$  is in superoxide form. This seems to be more accurate and moderate explanation.

### Nitrogen fixation:-

The conversion of molecular nitrogen into compound of nitrogen especially ammonia is called Nitrogen fixation.

Nitrogen fixation is a reductive process. I.e, nitrogen fixation will stop if there is no reducing condition or if oxygen is present.

This nitrogen fixation may take place by two different methods.

1. Abiological

2. Biological

1. Abiological nitrogen fixation:-

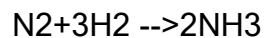
In abiological nitrogen fixation the nitrogen is reduced to ammonia without involving any living cell.

Abiological fixation can be of two types.

a. Industrial

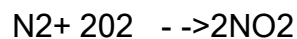
b. Natural

For example:-In the Haber process synthetic ammonia is produced by passing a mixture of nitrogen and hydrogen through a bed of catalyst (iron oxides) at a very high temperature and pressure.



This is industrial fixation where nitrogen gets reduced to ammonia.

In natural process nitrogen can be fixed especially during electrical discharges in the atmosphere can combine with oxygen to form oxides of nitrogen.



These oxides of nitrogen may be hydrated and trickle down to earth as combined nitrite and nitrate.

**DNR COLLEGE(A): BHIMAVARAM**  
**DEPARTMENT OF PG CHEMISTRY**



**INORGANIC CHEMISTRY-II**

Presented By

N.Santhi

## Unit-4

### Inorganic Reaction Mechanisms

#### Mechanisms for Ligand Replacement Reactions:-

The ligand displacement in metal complexes is said to have been taken place if one of the previously attached ligands got replaced by another ligand from its coordination sphere. The scheme can be shown as:

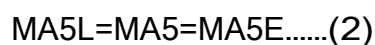


Where ligand L is the leaving group present in the complex, E is the entering ligand which is nucleophilic in nature. The coordination number of the complex remains the same.

#### ► Ligand Displacement Mechanism in Octahedral Complexes:-

In octahedral complexes, the replacement of the ligand can occur through dissociative, associative or by interchange mechanism. It has also been observed that most of the ligand displacement takes place through the interchange route rather than purely associative or dissociative.

1. **Dissociative or SN1 Mechanism (D):** In this mechanism, first of all, a metal-ligand bond breaks and the coordination number of the complex reduces from six to five forming a penta-coordinated intermediate complex. After that, the entering group attacks this intermediate and the coordination number again gets restored to six giving octahedral geometry. The whole process can be shown as



The first step is the slow step and hence it is also the rate-determining step for the process. The overall rate is:

$$\text{Rate} = k[MA_5L] \dots (3)$$

The reaction is of the first order and is independent of the concentration of the entering ligand. These types of reactions are also called as the unimolecular nucleophilic substitution or SN<sub>1</sub> reactions.

Most of the ligand substitution reactions in octahedral complexes occur through dissociative or by interchange dissociative mechanism which in turn can be evidenced by the following rules.

- i) The rate of the ligand substitution is almost independent of the concentration of the entering ligand.
- ii) The rate of the ligand substitution increases as the steric bulk around the metal center increases.



iii) The entropy of activation,  $\Delta S^\ddagger$ , is positive as there are more species in activated complex than in reactant.

iv) The volume of activation,  $\Delta V^\ddagger$ , for the reaction is also found to be positive.

2. Associative or  $S_N2$  Mechanism (A): In this mechanism, firstly the bond making with the entering group takes place, and therefore, the coordination number of the metal complex increases from six to seven forming a hepta-coordinated intermediate complex. After that, the leaving group dissociates itself from the intermediate complex completely and the coordination number of the complex again gets restored to six giving octahedral geometry. The whole process can be shown as



The first step is the slow step and hence it is also the rate-determining step for the process.

The overall rate is Rate =

$$k[MA_5L][E] \dots (5)$$

The reaction is of second order and it depends of the concentration of the reactant complex as well as the concentration of the entering ligand. These types of reactions are also called as bimolecular nucleophilic substitution or  $S_N2$  reactions.

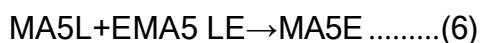
i) The rate of the ligand substitution is increased with the concentration of the entering ligand.

ii) The rate of the ligand substitution decreases as the steric bulk around the metal center increase.

iii) The entropy of activation,  $\Delta S^\ddagger$ , is negative as there are lesser number species in activated complex than in reactant.

iv) The volume of activation,  $\Delta V^\ddagger$ , for the reaction is also found to be negative.

3. **Interchange mechanism (I)**: It has been observed that most of the ligand displacement reactions are neither purely associative or dissociative but follow an intermediate mechanism in which bond breaking and bond making takes place simultaneously and no penta-coordinated or hepta-coordinated intermediates have actual been isolated. These types of reactions proceed via a transition state just like in organic  $S_N2$  reactions.

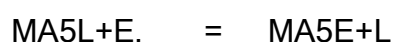


However, if the rate of the reaction is strongly dependent on the concentration of the entering ligand which indicates that bond making is more important in determining the

rate of the reaction than the displacement said to have been taken place via interchange associative or I<sub>a</sub> mechanism. On the other hand, if the rate of the reaction is almost independent of the concentration of the entering ligand which clearly indicates that bond breaking is more important in determining the rate of the reaction than the displacement is said to have been taken place via interchange dissociative or I<sub>d</sub> mechanism.

### **Ligand Displacement Reactions in Octahedral Complexes - Acid Hydrolysis, Base Hydrolysis**

The general scheme for the ligand displacement reactions in octahedral complexes can be shown as:

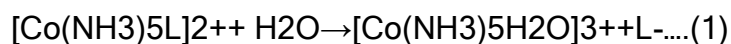


Where ligand L is the leaving group present in the complex, E is the entering ligand which is nucleophilic in nature. The coordination number of the complex remains the same. Moreover, if the entering group E is H<sub>2</sub>O or OH<sup>-</sup> in aqueous solution, the study of ligand displacement becomes more important due to its extremely wide application domain. Some of the most prominent reactions in ligand substitution in six-coordinated complexes are discussed in detail.

#### **Acid Hydrolysis:-**

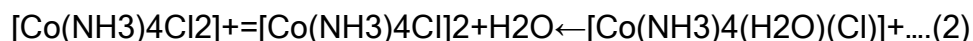
Acid hydrolysis or aquation reactions may be defined as the reactions in which an aquo complex is formed due to the replacement of a ligand by water molecule.

It has been observed that NH<sub>3</sub>, amines like ethylene diamine or its derivatives coordinated to Co<sup>3+</sup> are displaced at a very small rate. Hence, displacement of the ligand other than ammonia takes place during the course of acid hydrolysis. Consider the following reaction

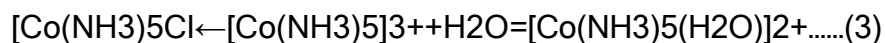


As reaction media is the water itself, H<sub>2</sub>O concentration (55.5 M) remains almost constant and the change in water concentration cannot be detected at all. Hence, rate law cannot be used to predict whether the reaction takes place via the associative or dissociative pathway. S<sub>N</sub> reactions follow first-order kinetics while S<sub>N</sub>2 reactions follow second-order kinetics. However, if the complexing agent is in excess, S<sub>N</sub>2 reactions also become pseudo first-order reactions. Hence, it is difficult to tell whether the reaction occurs through the S<sub>N</sub>1 or S<sub>N</sub>2 mechanism.

Now, it has also been found experimentally that divalent monochloro complexes of Co(III) react at much slower than monovalent dichloro complexes.



and



The reaction (14) is 1000 times faster than reaction (15) suggesting that both of the reactions occur through dissociative or  $\text{S}_{\text{N}}1$  pathway. This is because the separation of a negatively charged Cl is much more difficult from a complex of high charge density. There are also some other ground evidences which support the dissociative mechanism.

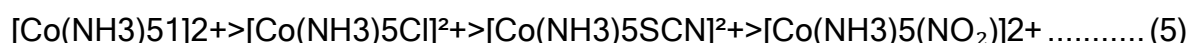
1. **Solvation energy of the intermediate:** The rate of acid hydrolysis in cis- $[\text{Co}(\text{en})_2(\text{NH}_3)\text{Cl}]^{2+}$  is five times less than in  $[\text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_5\text{Cl}]^{2+}$  which can be explained in terms of the lesser solvation energy of the intermediate. Owing to the larger chelate ring in cis- $[\text{Co}(\text{en})_2(\text{NH}_3)\text{Cl}]^{2+}$  the intermediate  $[\text{Co}(\text{en})_2(\text{NH}_3)]^+$  also possesses the larger size and hence less solvation energy and thus by making its formation unfavorable slows down the rate of acid hydrolysis. On the other hand, the smaller sized  $[\text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_5]^{3+}$  complex has a smaller size solvation energy making its formation more favorable. Thus, by comparing the rate of acid hydrolysis of  $[\text{Co}(\text{en})_2(\text{NH}_3)\text{Cl}]^{2+}$  and  $[\text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_5\text{Cl}]^{2+}$ , we can conclude that chelation stability is somewhat less than that of the extent of solvation the intermediate undergoes in this case.

2. **Steric Hindrance:** The rate of acid hydrolysis in cis- $[\text{Co}(\text{en})_2(\text{NH}_3)\text{Cl}]^{2+}$  is smaller in cis- $[\text{Co}(\text{pn})_2(\text{NH}_3)\text{Cl}]^{2+}$ . The concept of solvation energy of the intermediate would give just the opposite order as the  $[\text{Co}(\text{pn})_2(\text{NH}_3)]^+$  is larger and has less solvation energy. However, after the dissociation of  $\text{Cl}^-$ , the gain of steric relief is much greater in cis- $[\text{Co}(\text{pn})_2(\text{NH}_3)\text{Cl}]^{2+}$  due to bulky groups. It has been observed that the rate becomes almost double as the ethylenediamine (en) is replaced by propylene diamine group in cis- $[\text{Co}(\text{en})_2(\text{NH}_3)\text{Cl}]^{2+}$ .

3. **Effect of the leaving group:** The rate of acid hydrolysis is directly proportional to ease of the breaking of the bond between the metal ion and the leaving group. Better the leaving group faster is the acid hydrolysis rate



The rate of a reaction is different for different L. For example, consider the acid hydrolysis of the following



The nature of the leaving group has a pronounced effect on the reaction rate as the bond breaking is the rate-determining step. The reactivity of the leaving group decreases in the order:



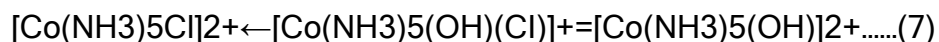
### ► Base Hydrolysis:-

Base hydrolysis reactions may be defined as the reactions in which a hydroxo complex is formed due to the replacement of a ligand by hydroxyl ion.

Base hydrolysis reactions occur in solutions having pH greater than ten. Consider the following reaction



In order to predict whether the reaction takes place via the associative or dissociative pathway, the value of the rate constant and reaction order must be examined very carefully. The possibility of a simple  $\text{SN}_1$  mechanism can be ruled out on the basis of an exceptionally fast rate of the reaction at higher pH. If the base hydrolysis had taken place via simple  $\text{SN}_1$  pathway, mono-chloro complexes of Co(III) would not have shown such fast rates as the rate-determining step involves the dissociation of  $\text{Cl}^-$  from  $[\text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_5\text{Cl}]^{2+}$  is quite slow due to higher charge on the complex. Moreover, at lower moderate concentrations, the rate of the reaction also depends upon the concentration of  $\text{OH}^-$  ions which doesn't go well according to  $\text{SN}_1$  pathway. The proposed  $\text{SN}_2$  mechanism for base hydrolysis can be given as:



Hence, the rate law for the reaction should be given by:

$$\text{Rate} = k[\text{Complex}][\text{OH}^-] \dots \dots \dots (8)$$

However, the rate of reaction becomes independent of  $\text{OH}^-$  at high concentration and the reaction starts to follow first-order kinetics. Furthermore, it has also been observed that the ligands like  $\text{NCS}$ ,  $\text{N}_3^-$ ,  $\text{NO}_2^-$  are as strong nucleophile as  $\text{OH}^-$  and hence are expected to show almost the same rate of hydrolysis of Co(III) amine complexes but these ligands show very slow displacement rate and is independent of the concentration of these ligands.  $\text{SN}_2$  pathway could not explain why the rate of hydrolysis of Co(III) amine complexes depends only upon  $\text{OH}^-$  but not on ligands like  $\text{NCS}$ ,  $\text{N}_3^-$ ,  $\text{NO}_2^-$ . Hence, the exact mechanism must be sought elsewhere.

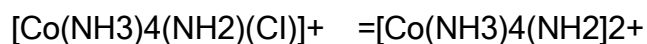
The whole process can successfully be explained via  $\text{SN}1\text{CB}$  or substitution nucleophilic unimolecular conjugate base mechanism as



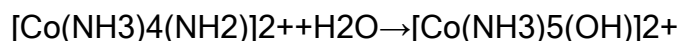
The equilibrium constant is given by

$$K = \frac{[\text{CB}][\text{H}_2\text{O}]}{[\text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_5\text{Cl}]^{2+}[\text{OH}^-]} \text{ Or } \text{CB} = \frac{[\text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_5\text{Cl}]^{2+}[\text{OH}^-]}{[\text{H}_2\text{O}]}$$

The conjugate base as obtained is more labile than the original complex  $[\text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_5\text{Cl}]^{2+}$  and hence undergoes  $\text{S}_{\text{N}}1$  dissociative pathway by losing  $\text{Cl}^-$  and gives penta-coordinated intermediate.



The above step is the rate-determining step.



There are some ground evidences which support dissociative mechanism through the formation conjugate base.

1. Hydrolysis of the complex-ions without acidic protons: The complexes like  $[\text{Co}(\text{CN})_5\text{Br}]^3$ , which do not have N-H hydrogens undergo hydrolysis much slowly in basic solutions at a rate which is almost independent of the  $\text{OH}^-$  concentration over a wide range. Hence, the acidic proton is a must.
2. Hydrolysis of  $[\text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_5\text{Cl}]^{2+}$  by nucleophiles with same strength as  $\text{OH}^-$ : Although the  $\text{NCS}^-$ ,  $\text{N}_3^-$ ,  $\text{NO}_2^-$  are as strong nucleophile as  $\text{OH}^-$  yet they do not show fast hydrolysis of  $[\text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_5\text{Cl}]^{2+}$  because these anions are much weaker base than that of  $\text{OH}^-$  and hence unable to extract the acidic proton from the complex to form conjugate base. Therefore, the hydrolysis of  $[\text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_5\text{Cl}]^{2+}$  by  $\text{NCS}^-$ ,  $\text{N}_3^-$ ,  $\text{NO}_2^-$  cannot take place via  $\text{S}_{\text{N}}1$  mechanism and takes place possibly either via simple  $\text{S}_{\text{N}}1$ , or  $\text{S}_{\text{N}}2$  pathway.
3. Hydrolysis of anionic complexes: Consider the base hydrolysis of anionic complexes like  $[\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_5(\text{NH}_3)]^-$  which have acidic proton in  $\text{NH}_3$  but also have a high negative charge. In these types of complexes, the rate of hydrolysis is considerably slow and independent of the  $\text{OH}^-$  ion concentration which may be attributed to the highly unfavorable formation on the conjugate base.

### ► Ligand Displacement Mechanism in Square-planar Complexes

In square-planar complexes, the ligand displacement is much more favorable through the associative route than that of dissociative which can be understood in terms of low steric crowding due to lesser coordination number. The general ligand displacement can be written as:



The intermediate state is trigonal-bipyramidal and undergoes rapid Berry-pseudo-rotation followed by the elimination of the leaving group

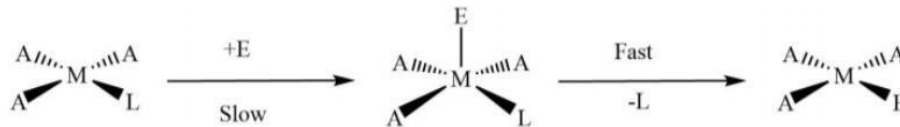


Figure 10. The general reaction mechanism for ligand displacement reactions in square-planar complexes.

A more in-depth visualization of ligand displacement reactions in square-planar complexes is given below in which the involvement of Berry-pseudorotation is depicted more precisely.

### Trans Effect:-

The trans effect is the labilization of ligand trans to certain other ligands, which can thus be regarded as trans directing ligands.

It is attributed to mainly electronic effects, important in square planar complexes, also observed in octahedral complexes

Substitution reactions in square planar complexes (I) Polarization

theory

(II)  $\pi$ -bonding theory

Trans series: increasing order of trans effect

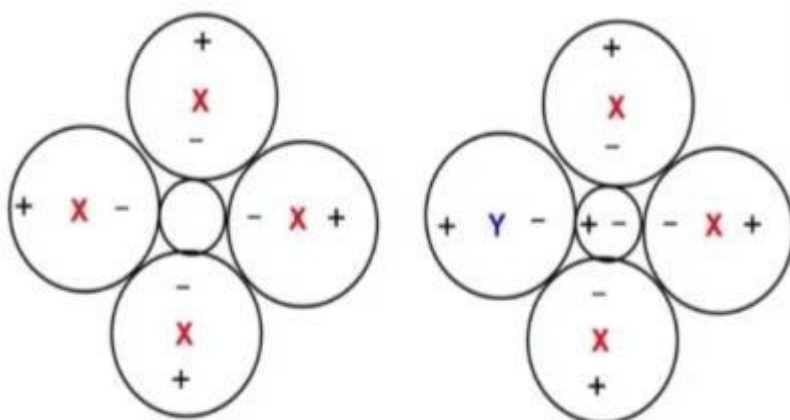
$F^-$ ,  $H_2O$ ,  $OH^-$  <  $NH_3$  <  $py$  <  $Cl^-$  <  $Br^-$  <  $I^-$ ,  $SCN^-$ ,  $NO_2^-$ ,  $SC(NH_2)_2$ ,  $Ph^-$  <  $SO_3^{2-}$  <  $PR_3$ ,  $AsR_3$ ,  $SR_2$ ,  $CH_3^-$  <  $H^-$ ,  $NO$ ,  $CO$ ,  $CN^-$ ,  $C_2H_4$

### ► The Polarization Theory

This theory mainly deals with the ground state of the complex and proposes that the metal center has a tendency to induce a dipole moment in the surrounding ligands by polarizing them according to Fajans' rule. In the case of  $MA_4$  type complexes, metal ion induces an equal dipole moment in all the four surrounding ligands which are, in turn, cancel out each other due to square-planar geometry. However, in the case of  $MA_3B$  type complexes, the situation is quite different as the polarizability of all the four ligands is not anymore, the same. If the polarizability of B type ligand is higher than that of A- type then the primary charge of the metal ion will polarize the electronic cloud of A more effectively and thus will induce a strong dipole moment in A- type ligand. Furthermore, this dipole moment is also bound to induce an alternate dipole in the metal center also. The orientation of this dipole is such that it repels the negative charge on the ligand, A- type, situated trans to B. This results in the weakening and consequently lengthening of

the metal-ligand bond trans to the B-type group. Therefore, according to this concept, the trans effect is directly proportional to the polarizability of the ligand. It is also worth noting that the trans effect is more prominent with a large and more polarizable metal center. The general order can be given as  $\text{Pt(II)} > \text{Pd(II)} > \text{Ni(II)}$ .

## Polarization theory



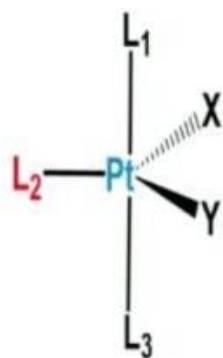
### ► The $\pi$ -Bonding Theory:-

The nature of the trans effect is electronic instead of steric which clearly means that the electronic profile of the ligand is primarily governing trans-effect strength of various groups. Considering the trans-effect Tainsitute.c order of halide ions,  $\text{I}^- > \text{Br}^- > \text{Cl}^- > \text{F}^-$ , it seems that the increasing electronegativity makes them poor  $\sigma$ -donor v.da or  $\sigma$ -base which in turn also decreases their trans-effect strength. However, the exceptionally high trans-effect of the ligands like CO, C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> or PR<sub>3</sub> cannot be explained by  $\sigma$ -donation ability as they are not very good  $\sigma$ -donor but  $\pi$ -acceptor in nature. Therefore, we can conclude that a stronger trans-effect is the combination of both, either it should be a strong  $\sigma$ -base or it should show a good  $\pi$ -acid character.

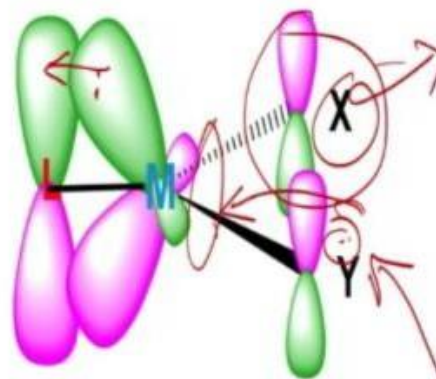
Now, in order to understand the whole process by which the trans-directing groups speed-up the ligand displacement in square-planar complexes, we will have to recall the mechanism of ligand substitution. Let T be the trans-directing group, L as the leaving group and E as the entering group. The entering ligand binds to 16-electron Pt(II) complex to form 18-electron complex which in turn again converted into a new 16-electron complex as:

## Diagram

### $\pi$ -Bonding theory



Trigonal bipyramidal  
transition state or  
intermediate



$\pi$ -bonding in the trigonal plane

The characteristic features of this mechanism are:

- i) The entering ligand always sits at the equatorial position of the activated complex which is trigonal-bipyramidal in nature.
- ii) The trans-directing group and the leaving group are pushed down to create the equatorial plane of the activated complex.
- iii) As the entering group E attacks at the equatorial site, the leaving must also be from the equatorial plane; which is followed directly from the principle of microscopic reversibility.

The rate-determining step is when the entering ligand "E" pushes down the trans-director T and the leaving group L. Now as the equatorial sites of the trigonal-bipyramidal intermediate are richer in electron density than the axial ones, ligands with greater  $\pi$ -acidity like to be pushed down to get this privilege of stronger back-bonding. This forces the leaving group "L" to no other choice but to detach from the activated complex.

The transition state is stabilized by the overlap of empty  $\pi^*$  orbital of "T" and the filled  $d_{xz}$  orbital of the metal center. This results in a decrease in the electron density in metal-leaving group bond which makes the displacement of L by E much easier.



## Electron transfer reactions:-

Electron transfer reactions are also called Redox Reactions

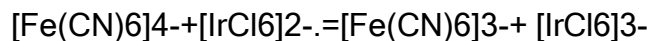
### Types of Electron Transfer Reactions:-

After having general discussion on the electron transfer reactions we should have an idea about types of these reactions. The electron transfer reactions can be classified as:

(i) outer sphere, and (ii) inner sphere electron transfer reactions

#### i. Outer Sphere Electron Transfer Reactions

When the electron transfer takes place in such a way that inner coordination shells or spheres of the involved complexes remain intact i.e. there is no change in the inner sphere of the reductant and oxidant, we call it an Outer Sphere electron transfer reaction. Such a reaction usually occurs when rapid electron transfer takes place between two substitutionally inert complexes. For example, in the reaction between  $[\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6]^{4-}$  and  $[\text{IrCl}_6]^{2-}$ :



#### Mechanism of Outer Sphere Electron Transfer Reactions:-

The outer sphere mechanism involves three elementary steps:

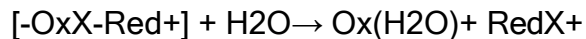
1. **Formation of a precursor (cage) complex.** In this step the reactant metal centres are brought at such a distance that electron transfer can take place, but at this stage their relative orientations and internal structures do not permit electron transfer. This step can be shown as:



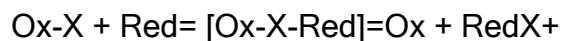
2. **Chemical activation of the precursor complex, transfer of electron and relaxation to the successor complex.** This step involves changes in the solvent cage and structural changes in the precursor. Oxidant and reductant are brought in proper orientation and structural changes defining chemical activation for electron transfer occurs in this step.



3. **Dissociation to separated products**



It has been observed that such a reaction follows second order kinetics and for a reaction like the one shown below



rate of the reaction is given by the equation:

$$\text{Rate} = \frac{k_1 k_3}{k_2 + k_3} [\text{Ox-X}] [\text{Red}]$$

Here  $k_3$  is overall rate constant for the second and third steps.

It has been found that in some cases  $k_3 \gg k_2$  and rate determining step is simply formation of the precursor complex. Therefore, rate law reduce to  $\text{Rate} = k_1 [\text{Ox-X}] [\text{Red}]$ .

However, there are many instances where in rate determining step is rearrangement and electron transfer within the intermediate, or fission of the successor complex. This means that  $k_3 < k_2$  and the rate law becomes  $\text{Rate} = \frac{k_1 k_3}{k_2 + k_3} [\text{Ox-X}] [\text{Red}]$ .

Rate of the electron transfer reactions are usually determined by  $\pi^*$  or  $\sigma^*$  nature of the electron donor MO (HOMO) of the reductant and receptor MO (LUMO) of the oxidant. One can expect more facile electron transfer when both donor and receptor mo are of  $\pi^*$  type due to small reductant/ oxidant activation (change in M-L bond distance) in  $\pi^*$  than for a change in  $\sigma^*$  electron density.

Further, ease of electron transfer depends on overlap and mixing of the donor and receptor MO's. Electron transfer is easier if overlap and mixing of donor and receptor mo is large. Considering orientation of  $\pi^*(4)/\sigma^*(5)$  electrons in octahedral complexes, it may be concluded that  $\pi^* \rightarrow \pi^*$  electron transfer should be faster than  $\sigma^* \rightarrow \sigma^*$  transfer.

Thus we can simply say that if orbital overlap and mixing is appreciable and electron is being transferred from  $\pi^* \rightarrow \pi^*$ , small activations are required and the reactions are relatively fast on the other hand, if changes are required greater activations are involved and reactions are rather slow.

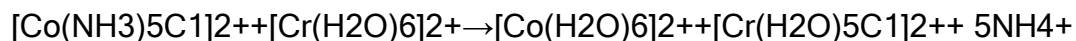
An examination of the Table 1 dealing with rates of outer sphere electron transfer reactions show that first four examples require little chemical activation for a M(II)/M(III) electron exchange because these do not pass through a change in  $\sigma^*$  orbital configuration in either complex.

### Inner Sphere Electron Transfer Reaction

It is well known that reduction of  $[\text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_6]^{3+}$  with  $[\text{Cr}(\text{H}_2\text{O})_6]^{2+}$  under acidic condition takes place very slowly ( $k = 10^{-3} \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) by an outer sphere mechanism:



However, if an ammine ligand in cobalt complex  $[\text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_6]^{3+}$  is replaced by Cl, rate appreciably enhances to ( $k = 6 \times 10^5 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ). One can say with certainty that the reaction is now following different mechanism:



H. Taube was conferred on Nobel prize for his work on electron transfer reactions clearly showed that an inner sphere mechanism is operative in the reduction of  $[\text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_5\text{Cl}]^{2+}$  with  $[\text{Cr}(\text{H}_2\text{O})_6]^{2+}$ ; Herein, the Cl ligand, while still attached to Co(III), replaces an  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  at Cr(II) to give an intermediate shown below and electron transfer follows

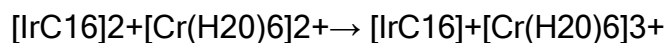
It can be understood in the following manner:

The reductant  $[\text{Cr}(\text{H}_2\text{O})_6]^{2+}$  and reduced oxidant  $[\text{Co}(\text{H}_2\text{O})_6]^{2+}$  are substitutionally labile while the chloro-complexes  $[\text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_5\text{Cl}]^{2+}$  and  $[\text{Cr}(\text{H}_2\text{O})_5\text{Cl}]^{2+}$  are inert. Thus, the only possibility by which chloride could be transferred from Co(III) to Cr(II) is through some complex resulting by attack of  $\text{Co}^{2+}$  on  $\text{Cr}^{2+}$ . With the help of tracer studies i.e. by external addition of radio-chloride Taube showed that an inner sphere mechanism can be clearly assigned when both the oxidant and the oxidized reductant are substitution inert and ligand transfer from oxidant to reductant is accompanied by electron transfer.

In such reactions electron transfer is followed by ligand transfer in the opposite direction



It is very clear that for an inner sphere electron transfer process to follow the reductant must be substitutionally labile and the oxidant must have a bridging ligand which can establish linkage between the two metal ions simultaneously. The ligand transfer may or may not take place in such a reaction. For example, reduction of Ir(IV) by Cr(II) involves electron transfer, but bridging ligand is not transferred from the oxidant to reductant.

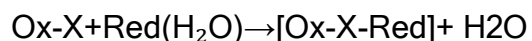


The reaction passes through formation of a bridge between the two reactant metal ions, the bond between Ir(III)-Cl is stronger relative to [Cr(III)-Cl], therefore Cr-Cl bond is broken and reaction proceeds without transfer of the bridging ligand.

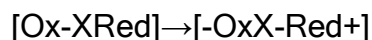
### **Mechanism of the Inner Sphere Electron Transfer Reaction.**

The elementary steps involved in an inner sphere mechanism can be represented by:

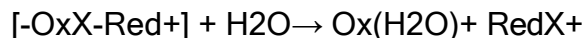
1. Formation of precursor complex, in this step the oxidant and reductant are brought close to each other via linkage by the bridging ligand so that electron transfer can take place



**2. chemical activation, electron transfer and relaxation to the successor complex.** In this step activation of the precursor complex occurs which is followed by electron transfer.



### 3. Dissociation to separated products

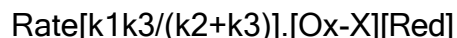


It has been observed that such a reaction follows second order kinetics and for a reaction like the one shown below



RedX+ rate of the reaction is given by the equation:

on:



Here  $k_3$  is overall rate constant for the second and third steps.

It has been found that in some cases  $k_3 \gg k_2$  and rate determining step is simply formation of the precursor complex. Therefore, rate law reduce to  $\text{Rate} = k_1 [\text{Ox-X}] [\text{Red}]$ .

However, there are many instances where in rate determining step is rearrangement and electron transfer within the intermediate, or fission of the successor complex. This means that  $k_3 \ll k_2$  and the rate law becomes  $\text{Rate} = \frac{k_1 k_3}{k_2} [\text{Ox-X}] [\text{Red}]$ .

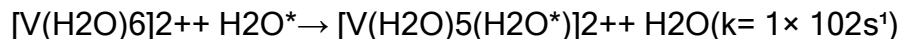
Factors influencing the rates of Inner Sphere Electron Transfer:-

Now, let us have a look on the factors determining rates of inner sphere electron transfer reactions.

Formation of the precursor complex: We have already discussed about substitution reactions at octahedral metal centres in the first unit. You have seen that a metal ion is relatively inert to substitution, while high spin d and complexes are labile.

Further, usually in inner sphere electron transfer reactions  $\text{V}^{2+} [(\pi^*)^3(\sigma^*)^1]$ ,  $\text{Cr}^{2+} [(\pi^*)^3(\sigma^*)^1]$ , and  $\text{Fe}^{2+} [(\pi^*)^4(\sigma^*)^2]$  are employed as reductants.

An examination of the substitution rates for



### The Nature of the Bridging Ligand

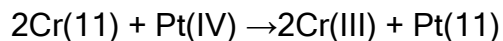
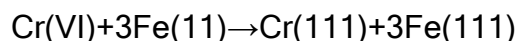
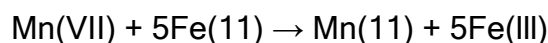
The nature of bridging ligand plays an important role in determining the rates of inner sphere electron transfer reactions.

Haim recently pointed out, "The role of the bridging ligand [in an inner sphere mechanism] is ... dual. It brings the metal ions together (thermodynamic contribution) and mediates the transfer of the electron (kinetic contribution)." The thermodynamic contribution is related to the stability of the intermediate complex, and kinetic to factors such as oxidant-reductant reorganization and matching of donor and receptor molecular orbitals.

As far as bridging ligands (BL) are concerned, both inorganic and organic ligands have extensively been utilized in the inner sphere electron transfer reactions.

### **Complementary and non-complementary reactions:-**

The reactions in which the formal oxidation states of the oxidant and by the same number of units. These are called complementary reactions. There are many in which formal oxidation states of the oxidant and reductant do not change by same number termed as non-complementary processes such as



Clearly in a non-complementary reaction, the oxidation states of the reactants change and the stoichiometries are not 1:1. One of the best examples of non-complementary in metal chemistry presents chromate ion oxidations. Its oxidation occurs in steps and in each electron transfer.

