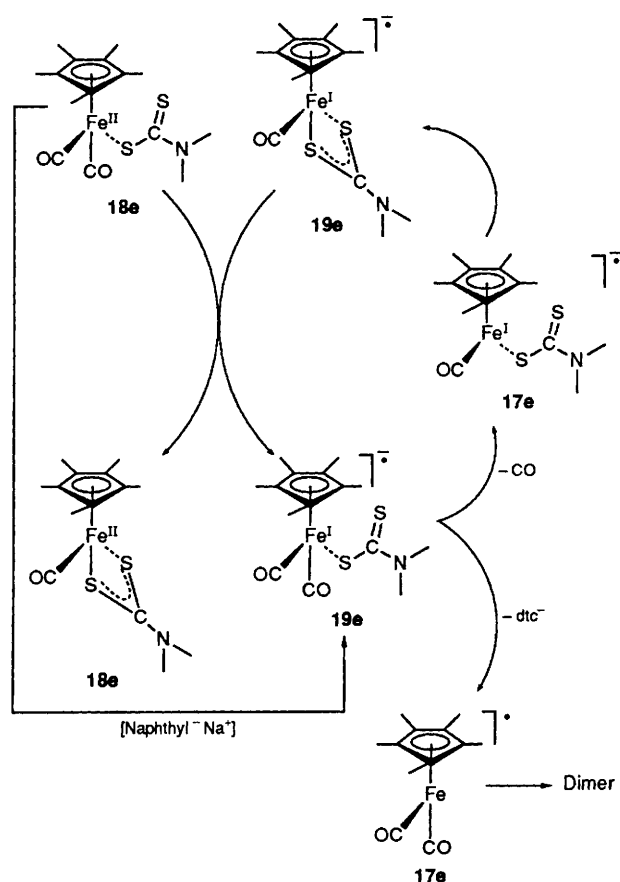


Figure 1. Cyclic voltammograms of solutions (1.3 mmol l^{-1}) of (a) complex (1), (b) complex (2), and (c) Fp^*_2 in THF (Bu_4NBF_4 , 0.1 M ; 400 mV s^{-1} ; 25°C ; Pt electrode) (SCE = standard calomel electrode).

mediate $[\text{Fe}(\eta^5\text{-C}_5\text{Me}_5)(\text{CO})(\eta^2\text{-dte})]^-$, must be extremely fast as is that of $[\text{Fp}^*(\sigma\text{-dte})]^+$ in the oxidatively catalysed process.⁹ In contrast with the latter, the cross redox step is now exergonic and thus fast⁷ (Scheme 1).

Comparison between the cyclic voltammograms (CVs) of (1) and (2) [Figure 1(a) and (b)] indicates that ETC catalysis also proceeds upon reduction. The CV of (1) shows an irreversible reduction wave followed by the reduction of (2) which is chemically almost reversible but electrochemically irreversible.

In this CV, it is also possible to see the presence of the wave due to Fp^*_2 which we have checked by recording the CV of pure Fp^*_2 under identical conditions [Figure 1(c)]. This latter complex is the product of a side reaction of the ETC catalysis and limits the coulombic efficiency. We then checked the electrocatalytic process by using chemical reducing reagents as initiators. The mechanism for the reaction in Scheme 1 in the case of a reductive initiation can now be summarized as in Scheme 3.



Scheme 3

The choice of the reducing initiator is important for the electrocatalytic process. For example, when the organometallic electron reservoir complex $\text{Fe}^{\text{I}}(\text{C}_5\text{H}_5)(\text{C}_6\text{Me}_6)^{14}$ is used, reduction of (1) occurs, although with a large overpotential. In this case, only traces of (2) are obtained and Fp^*_2 is formed almost stoichiometrically. The organometallic initiator is found in its 18e cationic form with dte^- as counter-anion. The latter results from a selective cleavage, most probably in the 19e anion $[\text{Fe}(\text{C}_5\text{Me}_5)(\text{CO})_2(\text{dte})]^-$ (Scheme 3).

Thus, the selectivity of ligand loss (CO versus dte^- at the 19e level) very much depends on the nature of the counter-cation of this 19e radical anion. A possible driving force orientating this selectivity could be the precipitation of $[\text{Fe}(\text{C}_5\text{H}_5)(\text{C}_6\text{Me}_6)^+\text{dte}^-]$ in THF. It is thus confirmed that medium effects (counter-anion, solubility, solvent) have a dramatic influence on the propagation chain. Note that, in the oxidatively induced ETC conversion of (1) to (2), both the nature of the counter-anion and the solvent also had a great influence on the yield of (2).⁹

In summary, when the chelation of (1) is catalysed by an oxidant, the reaction is driven by the chemical propagation step [chelation $(1)^+ \rightarrow (2)^+$] and limited by the endergonicity of the cross redox step $[(2)^+ + (1) \rightleftharpoons (2) + (1)^+]$. When the chelation of (1) is catalysed by a reducing agent, the propagation is driven by an exergonic cross redox step but limited by the lack of specificity of the chemical step [ligand loss from $(1)^-$]. In both cases, the counter-ion of the radicals involved in the propagation chain plays an important role and careful choice of counter-ion can lead to a great

improvement in the catalytic efficiency. Electrocatalysis of ligand exchange reactions in mononuclear complexes by reductive initiation remains a difficult exercise. However, it is possible that the use of electron-reservoir ligands such as hard chelating ligands can overcome this problem. Research is underway along these lines.

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