

this behavior of the cobalt(II) center is not revealed by these studies, but would require complete thermodynamic data on these systems. The order of complexing ability for the bases reported is certainly an unusual one.

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Supplementary Material Available: a tabulation of all chemical shift data of *N*-MeIm and Co(SMDPT) (Table A) and *N*-MeIm and Ni(SMDPT) (Table B) (5 pages). Ordering information is given on any current masthead page.

References and Notes

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On the Photochemical Substitution Reactions of Hexacoordinated Transition Metal Complexes

L. G. Vanquickenborne* and A. Ceulemans

Contribution from the Department of Chemistry, University of Leuven, Celestijnenlaan 200F, B-3030 Heverlee, Belgium. Received April 12, 1976

Abstract: The two empirical rules of Adamson were the first attempt to provide a qualitative description of the photochemical substitution reactions of transition metal compounds. It is our purpose (i) to offer an alternative to Adamson's rules (ii) to rationalize the photochemistry by means of a simple model. The model is based on a ligand field approach where the contribution of each ligand is additive in the orbital energy. In a D_{4h} environment, this contribution depends on whether the ligand is in axial or equatorial position. In order to account for the bonding interactions, it is assumed that the ligand basis orbitals are stabilized to the same extent that the metal orbitals are destabilized. Energy expressions have been derived for d^3 and d^6 systems, in each case for σ -donor, π -donor, and π -acceptor ligands. Using the strong field wave functions, the relevant bond energies in the photoactive states can be calculated. Comparison with the available experimental data on Cr(III) and Co(III) complexes yields a very satisfactory agreement between theory and experiment.

Irradiation of transition metal complexes in the ligand field part of their spectrum gives rise to a strongly enhanced substitution activity. It is well known that the photoexcitation induces the exchange of ligands from the primary coordination sphere with solvent molecules, or with free ligands from the solution.^{1,2}

Most of these photochemical substitution reactions of octahedral complexes seem to be governed by two rules, first formulated by Adamson:³ (i) the leaving ligand is situated on the axis characterized by the weakest ligand field; (ii) of the two ligands situated on the labilized axis, the leaving ligand is the one exhibiting the strongest ligand field.

It is the purpose of this note to formalize in a very simple way the chemical intuition behind Adamson's empirical rules. With this object in view, a number of theoretical models have already been introduced and the groundwork has been laid for understanding ligand field photochemistry.^{4-11,28} Although the present approach will be utterly unsophisticated, it goes beyond the existing models in its way of predicting the labilized ligand without needing extensive molecular orbital calculations.

Description of the Model

Consider a metal ion in an octahedral environment with the six ligands on the three coordinate axes. Consider a one-electron problem, with a metal basis set consisting of the five d orbitals. Within the framework of an additive angular overlap model, one has to specify two parameters, σ_L and π_L , for each ligand L .¹²⁻¹⁴ The relevant perturbation matrix is shown in eq 1. While the general complex with six different ligands has no symmetry whatsoever, the matrix is seen to correspond to at least D_{2h} symmetry. Indeed, the parameters always appear as sums of pairs on the same axis, for instance $\sigma_z + \sigma_{-z}$, $\pi_y + \pi_{-y}$, etc. These sums can obviously be replaced by $2\bar{\sigma}_z = (\sigma_z + \sigma_{-z})$, $2\bar{\pi}_y = (\pi_y + \pi_{-y})$, etc., so that one is left with six effective, average parameters, one $(\bar{\sigma}, \bar{\pi})$ set for each axis. If the perturbation along the three axes is equal, the effective (holoheder) symmetry is O_h ; if two axes (x and y) are perturbed in the same way, but different from the third one (z), the effective symmetry is D_{4h} ; if they are all different, the holoheder symmetry¹⁵ is still at least D_{2h} . In the latter case,

	z^2	yz	xz	xy	$x^2 - y^2$
z^2	$\sigma_z + \sigma_{-z} + \frac{1}{4}(\sigma_x + \sigma_{-x} + \sigma_y + \sigma_{-y})$			$-\frac{\sqrt{3}}{4}(\sigma_x + \sigma_{-x} - \sigma_y - \sigma_{-y})$	
yz		$\pi_z + \pi_{-z} + \pi_y + \pi_{-y}$			
xz			$\pi_z + \pi_{-z} + \pi_x + \pi_{-x}$		
xy				$\pi_x + \pi_{-x} + \pi_y + \pi_{-y}$	
$x^2 - y^2$	$-\frac{\sqrt{3}}{4}(\sigma_x + \sigma_{-x} - \sigma_y - \sigma_{-y})$				$\frac{3}{4}(\sigma_x + \sigma_{-x} + \sigma_y + \sigma_{-y})$

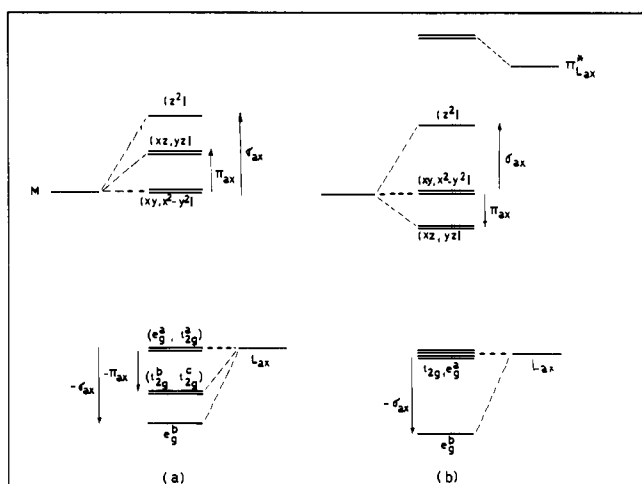


Figure 1. Schematic energy level diagram for the interaction of a metal d^1 system and one axial ligand: (a) L_{ax} is a π -donor, (b) L_{ax} is a π -acceptor.

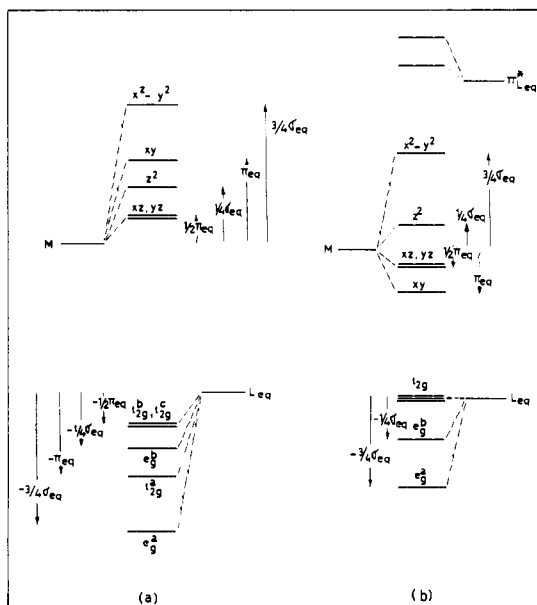


Figure 2. Schematic energy level diagram for the interaction of a metal d^1 system and one equatorial ligand in an (approximate) D_{4h} environment: (a) L_{eq} is a π -donor, (b) L_{eq} is a π -acceptor.

it will generally be possible to select one axis (say z) which is quite different from the other two (x and y). Since the off-diagonal matrix element contains $(\bar{\sigma}_x - \bar{\sigma}_y)$, it will then always be small and can be neglected in a first approximation. Therefore, even in the general case, the symmetry will at least approximately be D_{4h} . Replacing $\bar{\sigma}_z$ by $\bar{\sigma}_{ax}$ and $\bar{\sigma}_x \sim \bar{\sigma}_y$ by $\bar{\sigma}_{eq}$, the perturbation matrix can be expressed by means of these

average axial and equatorial parameters. If so, only the diagonal elements will be nonzero: the five real d orbitals remain unaffected in all cases and are characterized by the following energies:

$$\begin{aligned}
 E(z^2) &= 2\bar{\sigma}_{ax} + \bar{\sigma}_{eq} \\
 E(xz) = E(yz) &= 2\bar{\pi}_{ax} + 2\bar{\pi}_{eq} \\
 E(xy) &= 4\bar{\pi}_{eq} \\
 E(x^2 - y^2) &= 3\bar{\sigma}_{eq}
 \end{aligned}
 \quad (2)$$

In eq 2, the contribution of each ligand L is additive and can be considered separately; this contribution will be different, depending on whether the ligand is in axial or equatorial position (L_{ax} or L_{eq}). Figure 1 shows schematically the energetic effect of an axial ligand.

In Figure 1a, L is a π -bonding ligand ($\sigma_{ax} > 0$; $\pi_{ax} > 0$). In order to account for the bonding interactions as well, it is assumed that the ligand basis orbitals are stabilized to the same extent that the metal orbitals are destabilized. Thus an axial metal–ligand interaction contributes to the stabilization of the octahedral ligand group orbitals e_g^a and e_g^b to the extent 0 and $-\sigma$; the three t_{2g} ligand group orbitals are stabilized to the extent $-\pi$, $-\pi$, and 0. If L is a π -acceptor (Figure 1b), the metal (xz , yz) orbitals are taken to be stabilized by the $M-L$ π^* -interaction ($\sigma_{ax} > 0$; $\pi_{ax} < 0$). A σ -donor can be obtained from either scheme by letting $\pi_{ax} = 0$. Figure 2 shows the corresponding diagram for the equatorial ligands.

For instance the destabilization of $d_{x^2-y^2}$, due to the four equatorial ligands is simply given by the sum of the four separate ($\frac{3}{4}\sigma_{eq}$) parameters. It should be stressed here that the parameters for an individual ligand, σ_{ax} , π_{eq} , etc. are not to be confused with the average parameters $\bar{\sigma}_{ax}$, $\bar{\pi}_{eq}$, etc. The stabilization of each of the five (fully occupied) e_g^- and t_{2g}^- ligand group orbitals is assumed to be equal to the destabilization of the matching d orbital; the e_g^a orbital has the same transformation properties as $d_{x^2-y^2}$, e_g^b as d_{z^2} , etc.

The schematic representations in Figures 1 and 2 are obviously very crude. Indeed, for a π -donor, all $L\pi^*$ -interactions are neglected, while for a π -acceptor, all $L\pi$ -interactions were omitted. The schemes therefore represent only the net energetic effects in a qualitative way.

The bond energy $I(M-L)$ for a many-electron system is defined by

$$I(M-L) = -\sum_i n_i E_i \quad (3)$$

where the summation runs over the orbitals i (bonding and antibonding); n_i is the occupation number of the i th orbital in the hexacoordinated complex, and E_i is the energy of the i th orbital as shown in Figure 1 if L is an axial ligand or as shown in Figure 2 if L is an equatorial ligand. The quantity $I(M-L)$ cannot be expected to be an adequate approximation of the thermodynamic bond energy: an obvious and very important correction factor would include the global energy shifts of the relevant orbitals due to the change in their diagonal matrix

Table I. Bond Energies $I^*(M-L)$ for Axial and Equatorial Ligands in the Excited Configurations of d^3 and d^6 Complexes^a

		σ or π donor ($\pi \geq 0$)		π acceptor ($\pi < 0$)	
		z^2	$x^2 - y^2$	z^2	$x^2 - y^2$
d^3 Systems (Cr^{3+}); Excitation $t \rightarrow e$					
$I^*(M-L_{ax})$	xy	$\sigma_{ax} + 2\pi_{ax}$	$2\sigma_{ax} + 2\pi_{ax}$	$\sigma_{ax} - 2\pi_{ax}$	$2\sigma_{ax} - 2\pi_{ax}$
	xz, yz	$\sigma_{ax} + 3\pi_{ax}$	$2\sigma_{ax} + 3\pi_{ax}$	$\sigma_{ax} - \pi_{ax}$	$2\sigma_{ax} - \pi_{ax}$
$I^*(M-L_{eq})$	xy	$\frac{7}{4}\sigma_{eq} + 3\pi_{eq}$	$\frac{5}{4}\sigma_{eq} + 3\pi_{eq}$	$\frac{7}{4}\sigma_{eq} - \pi_{eq}$	$\frac{5}{4}\sigma_{eq} - \pi_{eq}$
	xz, yz	$\frac{7}{4}\sigma_{eq} + \frac{5}{2}\pi_{eq}$	$\frac{5}{4}\sigma_{eq} + \frac{5}{2}\pi_{eq}$	$\frac{7}{4}\sigma_{eq} - \frac{3}{2}\pi_{eq}$	$\frac{5}{4}\sigma_{eq} - \frac{3}{2}\pi_{eq}$
d^6 Systems (Co^{3+}); Excitation $t \rightarrow e$					
$I^*(M-L_{ax})$	xy	σ_{ax}	$2\sigma_{ax}$	$\sigma_{ax} - 4\pi_{ax}$	$2\sigma_{ax} - 4\pi_{ax}$
	xz, yz	$\sigma_{ax} + \pi_{ax}$	$2\sigma_{ax} + \pi_{ax}$	$\sigma_{ax} - 3\pi_{ax}$	$2\sigma_{ax} - 3\pi_{ax}$
$I^*(M-L_{eq})$	xy	$\frac{7}{4}\sigma_{eq} + \pi_{eq}$	$\frac{5}{4}\sigma_{eq} + \pi_{eq}$	$\frac{7}{4}\sigma_{eq} - 3\pi_{eq}$	$\frac{5}{4}\sigma_{eq} - 3\pi_{eq}$
	xz, yz	$\frac{7}{4}\sigma_{eq} + \frac{1}{2}\pi_{eq}$	$\frac{5}{4}\sigma_{eq} + \frac{1}{2}\pi_{eq}$	$\frac{7}{4}\sigma_{eq} - \frac{1}{2}\pi_{eq}$	$\frac{5}{4}\sigma_{eq} - \frac{1}{2}\pi_{eq}$

^a The different expressions for π -donor, σ -donor, and π -acceptor ligands are listed separately. The excitation $t \rightarrow e$ can be obtained as $(xy$ or $xz, yz) \rightarrow (z^2$ or $x^2 - y^2)$.

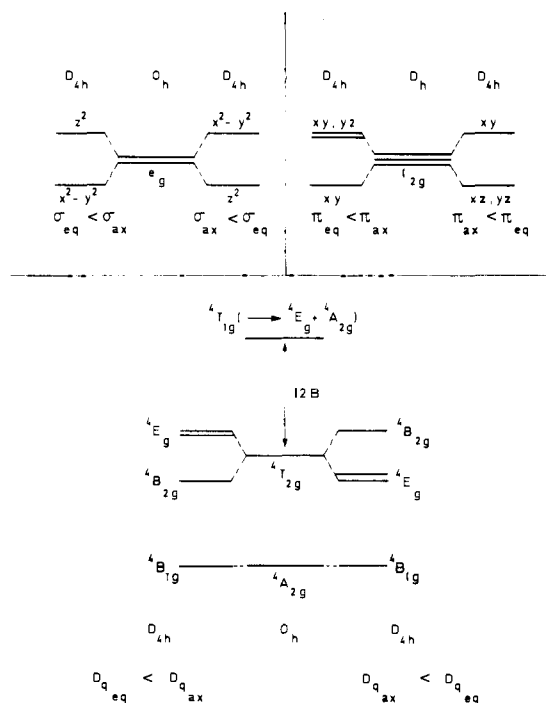


Figure 3. Partial orbital and state energy level diagram for hexacoordinated d^3 systems.

elements. $I(M-L)$ includes *only* spectroscopic parameters and, as such, it can be used optimally in the study of photochemical effects. In the next sections, we consider the energy of the different $M-L$ bonds in the excited state: $I^*(M-L)$.

Application to d^3 and d^6 Systems. The Cr^{3+} and Co^{3+} octahedral complexes provide the most extensive set of experimental data, and can suitably be taken to test the methodology of the previous section. The relevant photoexcitations correspond to $t^3 \rightarrow t^2e$ and $t^6 \rightarrow t^5e$ transitions for Cr^{3+} and Co^{3+} complexes, respectively. In Table I, the different $I^*(M-L)$ expressions are given for the possible photoactive configurations in hexacoordinated d^3 and d^6 systems.

The ground state expressions $I(M-L)$ are not listed in Table I. They can easily be derived, however, and they can be shown to be identical for L_{ax} and L_{eq} . Indeed, for example in hexacoordinated $Cr(III)$ complexes, the ground state t^3 contains the five fully occupied ligand orbitals, designated $e_g^{a,b}$ and $t_{2g}^{a,b,c}$ in Figure 1a, as well as the metal subconfiguration $xy^1xz^1yz^1$. In the case of π -donor ligands, the metal holes contributing to $I(M-L_{ax})$ are xy , xz , and yz (each once) and

z^2 , $x^2 - y^2$ (each twice), yielding $I(M-L_{ax}) = 2\sigma + 2\pi$. From Figure 2a, $I(M-L_{eq}) = \pi + \frac{1}{2}\sigma + \pi + \frac{3}{2}\sigma = 2\sigma + 2\pi$. Such an isotropy would also be predicted by related bonding theories, notably by the approach of Burdett,¹⁶ or of Hoffmann.¹⁷

This isotropy is not conserved in the excited states. As an example of how the entries in Table I are obtained, consider the case of $I^*(M-L_{eq})$ in $Co(III)$ surrounded by six π -acceptor ligands. One of the excited configurations corresponds to the $xy \rightarrow z^2$ excitation. The five ligand orbitals e_g and t_{2g} are again fully occupied, while the ligand π^* -orbitals are empty. Figure 2b shows that the σ -interactions contribute to I^* through the metal holes $(z^2)^1$ and $(x^2 - y^2)^2$, i.e., $\frac{1}{4}\sigma + 2(\frac{3}{4}\sigma) = \frac{7}{4}\sigma$; for the π -interactions, the contribution comes from the metal electrons $xy^1xz^2yz^2$, i.e., $4(-\frac{1}{2}\pi) + 1(-\pi) = -3\pi$.

Certain obvious regularities are apparent from the expressions in Table I. For instance it is interesting to compare $I^*(M-L)_{eq}$ and $I^*(M-L)_{ax}$ for a specific configuration and a given ligand. The population of d_{z^2} destabilizes the axial ligand with respect to the equatorial ligand to the amount of $\frac{3}{4}\sigma$; population of $d_{x^2-y^2}$ has exactly the opposite effect. Depopulation of d_{xy} does not affect the $M-L_{ax}$ bond but it modifies the $M-L_{eq}$ bond strength by π energy units (stabilization for π -donor and destabilization for π -acceptor ligands). The opposite holds true for depopulation of the (d_{xz}, d_{yz}) orbitals, where the net difference between $I^*(M-L_{eq})$ and $I^*(M-L_{ax})$ amounts to $-(\pi/2)$ energy units.

In order to determine the dominant D_{4h} configuration in the photoexcited states, electron repulsion effects have to be taken into account. Figure 3 shows a partial state energy level diagram for Cr^{3+} complexes, as compared to the orbital energy level diagrams.

Both ${}^4T_{2g}$ and ${}^4T_{1g}$ correspond to the O_h t^2e configuration; they are separated by $12B$. The strong field wave functions are given by¹⁸

$$\begin{aligned}
 {}^4B_{2g}: & |(xz)(yz)(x^2 - y^2)| \\
 {}^4E_g({}^4T_{2g}): & |(xz)(xy)[\sqrt{3}/2(z^2) - \frac{1}{2}(x^2 - y^2)]| \\
 & |(yz)(xy)[\sqrt{3}/2(z^2) - \frac{1}{2}(x^2 - y^2)]| \\
 {}^4A_{2g}: & |(xz)(yz)(z^2)| \\
 {}^4E_g({}^4T_{1g}): & |(xz)(xy)[- \frac{1}{2}(z^2) - \sqrt{3}/2(x^2 - y^2)]| \\
 & |(yz)(xy)[- \frac{1}{2}(z^2) - \sqrt{3}/2(x^2 - y^2)]| \quad (4)
 \end{aligned}$$

The first-order energy splittings caused by the tetragonal field, are

$$\begin{aligned}
 E({}^4B_{2g}) - E({}^4E_g, {}^4T_{2g}) &= 2(\bar{\pi}_{ax} - \bar{\pi}_{eq}) - \frac{3}{2}(\bar{\sigma}_{ax} - \bar{\sigma}_{eq}) \\
 &= \frac{1}{2}(10\bar{D}q_{eq} - 10\bar{D}q_{ax}) \quad (5)
 \end{aligned}$$

Table II. Spectrochemical σ and π -Parameters for a Number of Cr^{3+} -L Interactions^a

Ligand	σ_L'	π_L'	$10Dq$	Ref
I^-	-2600	650	11 150	21
Br^-	-2100	850	11 850	19-21
Cl^-	-1600	900	13 150	19-21
H_2O	-1240	500	15 830	19, 22
F^-	450	1700	16 100	19-21
NCS^-	-770	380	17 720	19
OH^-	940	1390	18 810	20
$\text{NH}_3; \text{en}$	0	0	21 550	23
CN^-	1300	-290	26 610	23

^a All values are expressed with respect to the NH_3 case: $\sigma_L' = \sigma_L - \sigma_{\text{NH}_3}$; $\pi_L' = \pi_L - \pi_{\text{NH}_3}$ and as usual $\pi_{\text{NH}_3} \approx 0$.

$$E(^4A_{2g}) - E(^4E_g; ^4T_{1g}) = 2(\bar{\pi}_{ax} - \bar{\pi}_{eq}) + \frac{3}{2}(\bar{\sigma}_{ax} - \bar{\sigma}_{eq}) \quad (6)$$

where $10Dq = 3\sigma - 4\pi$.

As has been pointed out by Zink,⁷ the situation will be modified in second order due to the interaction between the two 4E_g states. If the tetragonal perturbation is represented by \mathcal{V}_4 , one finds

$$\Psi(^4E_g; ^4T_{2g}) | \mathcal{V}_4 | \Psi(^4E_g; ^4T_{1g}) = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}(\bar{\sigma}_{eq} - \bar{\sigma}_{ax}) \quad (7)$$

and a mixing coefficient

$$c = \frac{\sqrt{3}(\bar{\sigma}_{ax} - \bar{\sigma}_{eq})}{24B} \quad (8)$$

The d_{z^2} character x in $^4E_g(^4T_{2g})$ is then

$$x = \frac{1}{1+c^2} \left[\frac{\sqrt{3}-c}{2} \right]^2 \quad (9)$$

For $c = 0$ (octahedral case), this expression of course reduces to $\frac{3}{4}$. The d_{z^2} -content increases if $\bar{\sigma}_{eq} > \bar{\sigma}_{ax}$, it decreases if $\bar{\sigma}_{ax} > \bar{\sigma}_{eq}$; this conclusion is independent of the relative value of the π parameters. The same line of reasoning leads to similar expressions for the E_g states of the Co^{3+} - d_6 complexes.

Comparison with Experiment. Since the $I^*(M-L)$ values of Table I are expressed in terms of the spectrochemical σ and π parameters, a comparison of the present model with the photochemical data requires the numerical value of these parameters. In Table II, a number of important M-L parameters are listed for Cr^{3+} complexes. Figure 4 shows the corresponding two-dimensional spectrochemical series.

In the subsequent calculation of the spectrochemical parameters, the Co^{3+} parameters were taken to be the same as the Cr^{3+} parameters; from a comparison of the relevant $10Dq$ values, this approximation does not seem to be unreasonable.²⁴

The most important photochemical data are listed in Table III, where the experimentally observed dominant reaction mode is given for each complex.

The "leaving ligand" (predicted) is considered to be the ligand with the lowest value of $I^*(M-L)$. In general, $I^*(M-L)$ is evaluated as follows: (i) the lowest excited ligand field state is determined from eq 5. If $10\bar{D}q_{ax} < 10\bar{D}q_{eq}$, 4E_g is the photoactive state of the d^3 system; if $10\bar{D}q_{ax} > 10\bar{D}q_{eq}$, the photoactive state is $^4B_{2g}$. Here, of course

$$10\bar{D}q_{ax} = 3\bar{\sigma}_{ax} - 4\bar{\pi}_{ax} = \frac{3}{2}(\sigma_x + \sigma_{-x}) - 2(\pi_x + \pi_{-x})$$

$$10\bar{D}q_{eq} = 3\bar{\sigma}_{eq} - 4\bar{\pi}_{eq} = \frac{3}{4}(\sigma_x + \sigma_{-x} + \sigma_y + \sigma_{-y}) - (\pi_x + \pi_{-x} + \pi_y + \pi_{-y})$$

If d^6 complexes are considered, the photoactive states are 3E_g and $^3A_{2g}$, respectively. (ii) The relevant state functions are

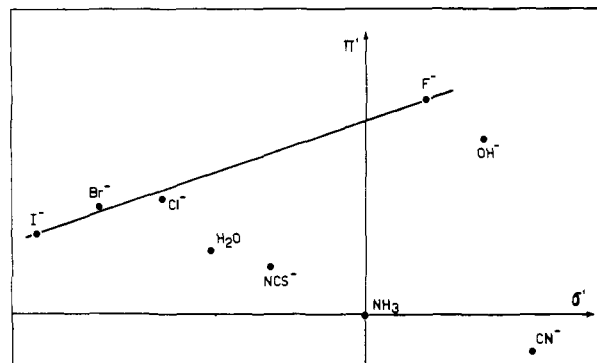


Figure 4. Two-dimensional spectrochemical series for a number of common ligands in hexacoordinated $\text{Cr}(\text{III})$ complexes.

given by eq 4, modified where necessary by the interaction described in eq 7 and 8. In this way, one obtains the contribution of the different excited configurations to the photoactive state. (iii) For each excited configuration and for each ligand, $I^*(M-L)$ can now be found from Table I. As an example, consider $\text{trans-}[\text{Cr}(\text{NH}_3)_4(\text{NCS})\text{Cl}]^+$

$$\bar{D}q_{ax} = \frac{1}{2}[Dq(\text{NCS}) + Dq(\text{Cl})]$$

$$\bar{D}q_{eq} = Dq(\text{NH}_3)$$

Since $\bar{D}q_{ax} < \bar{D}q_{eq}$, the photoactive state is considered to be $^4E_g(^4T_{2g})$

$$\bar{\sigma}_{ax} = \frac{1}{2}[\sigma(\text{NCS}) + \sigma(\text{Cl})]$$

$$\bar{\sigma}_{eq} = \sigma(\text{NH}_3)$$

Using the numerical values of Table II, and letting $B = 700 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ for Cr^{3+} (600 cm^{-1} for Co^{3+}), the composition of the 4E_g state is found to be approximately 84.6% $(xz, yz)^1(xy)^1(z^2)^1$ and 15.4% $(xz, yz)^1(xy)^1(x^2 - y^2)^1$. Therefore

$$I^*(\text{Cr-NCS}) = 0.846[\sigma(\text{NCS}) + 3\pi(\text{NCS})] + 0.154[2\sigma(\text{NCS}) + 3\pi(\text{NCS})]$$

$$I^*(\text{Cr-Cl}) = 0.846[\sigma(\text{Cl}) + 3\pi(\text{Cl})] + 0.154[2\sigma(\text{Cl}) + 3\pi(\text{Cl})]$$

$$I^*(\text{Cr-NH}_3) = [(0.846)(7/4) + (0.154)(5/4)]\sigma(\text{NH}_3)$$

While comparing theory and experiment, no attempt was made to explain the absolute values of the different quantum yields. Indeed, the study of reaction rates is intimately coupled with the study of the competing photophysical processes. For the same reason, the data are restricted to irradiation in the lowest energy component of the first ligand field absorption band. Photosubstitution, which shows involvement of mechanisms due to secondary effects, such as redox mechanisms or excited-state base hydrolysis are outside the realm of this model.

Possible stereochemical modifications in the course of the reaction are assumed not to interfere with the initial dissociation of the irradiated complex. The present model is focused exclusively on the latter process; the stereochemistry of the substitution reactions will be considered in a separate paper.

Discussion of the Results

With the above restrictions in mind, Table III exhibits a quasi-perfect agreement between theory and experiment: the leaving ligand is correctly predicted in all cases.

(A) Comparison with Adamson's Rules. In order to analyze the results of Table III, it is useful to consider the excitation process as the distribution of the photon energy over the different (M-L) sites of the complex. In order to do so, one has

Table III

Complex	$I^*(M-L)$ values (in cm^{-1})			x	Leaving L (predicted)	Leaving L (dominant reaction mode obsd)	Ref
	$I^*(M-X_{ax})$	$I^*(M-NH_3)_{ax}$	$I^*(M-NH_3)_{eq}$				
$[Cr(NH_3)_5X]^{n+}$							
$Cr(NH_3)_5NCS^{2+}$	8 950	8 740	11 790	0.783	$(NH_3)_{ax}$	$(NH_3)_{ax}$	25
$Cr(NH_3)_5Cl^{2+}$	9 300	8 500	11 910	0.817	$(NH_3)_{ax}$	$(NH_3)_{ax}$	25
$Cr(NH_3)_5Br^{2+}$	8 465	8 360	11 980	0.836	$(NH_3)_{ax}$	$(NH_3)_{ax}$	25
$Cr(NH_3)_5H_2O^{3+}$	8 610	8 600	11 860	0.803	$(NH_3)_{ax}, H_2O$	NH_3	25, a
<i>trans</i> - $[Cr(Z)_4X_2]^{n+}, \dots XY]^{n+}$	$I^*(M-X_{ax})$	$I^*(M-Y)_{ax}$	$I^*(M-Z)_{eq}$				
<i>trans</i> - $Cr(NH_3)_4(NH_2O)_2^{3+}$	8 330		12 030	0.85	(H_2O)	(H_2O)	25
<i>trans</i> - $Cr(NH_3)_4(NCS)Cl^+$	8 540	9 140	12 010	0.846	NCS^-	$NCS^- > Cl^-$	25
<i>trans</i> - $Cr(NH_3)_4(H_2O)Cl^{2+}$	8 260	9 050	12 080	0.863	H_2O	H_2O	25
<i>trans</i> - $Cr(NH_3)_4(H_2O)NCS^{2+}$	8 435	8 620	11 970	0.833	H_2O	H_2O	25
<i>trans</i> - $Cr(NCS)_4(NH_3)_2^-$	14 360		9 150		NCS^-	NCS^-	26
<i>trans</i> - $Cr(en)_2Cl_2^+$	8 980		12 120	0.875	Cl^-	Cl^-	39
<i>trans</i> - $Cr(en)_2ClF^+$	9 400	14 260	11 850	0.80	Cl^-	Cl^-	27
<i>trans</i> - $Cr(en)_2(NCS)_2^+$	8 740		11 900	0.815	NCS^-	$NCS^- > en$	28
<i>trans</i> - $Cr(en)_2F_2^+$	14 960		11 520	0.708	en	en	29
<i>trans</i> - $Cr(en)_2(NCS)Cl^+$	8 540	9 140	12 010	0.846	NCS^-	$NCS^- > Cl^-$	30
<i>cis</i> - $[Cr(en)_2XY]^{n+}$	$I^*(M-X_{eq})$	$I^*(M-Y_{eq})$	$I^*(M-en_{eq})$	$I^*(M-en_{ax})$			
<i>cis</i> - $Cr(en)_2(NCS)Cl^+$	9 155	9 680	8 980	14 370	$(en)_{eq}$	en	30
<i>cis</i> - $Cr(en)_2Cl_2^+$	9 680		8 980	14 370	$(en)_{eq}$	en	39
$[Co(Z)_5X]^{n+}$	$I^*(M-X_{ax})$	$I^*(M-Z_{ax})$	$I^*(M-Z_{eq})$				
$Co(CN)_5NH_3^{2-}$	8 150	10 490	15 290	0.866	NH_3	NH_3	2
$Co(CN)_5Cl^{3-}$	6 880	9 950	15 560	0.93	Cl^-	Cl^-	2
$Co(CN)_5Br^{3-}$	6 190	9 780	15 650	0.95	Br^-	Br^-	2
$Co(CN)_5I^{3-}$	5 390	9 640	15 710	0.966	I^-	I^-	2
$Co(CN)_5H_2O^{2-}$	7 950	10 075	15 500	0.915	H_2O	H_2O	31
$Co(CN)_5OH^{3-}$	11 325	11 240	14 880	0.77	$(CN^-)_{ax}$	CN^-	32
$Co(NH_3)_5Cl^{2+}$	7 265	8 180	12 060	0.86	Cl^-	Cl^-, NH_3	2, b
$Co(NH_3)_5Br^{2+}$	6 490	7 973	12 175	0.89	Br^-	Br^-	35
$Co(NH_3)_5NCS^{2+}$	8 040	8 570	11 870	0.806	NCS^-	NCS^-	2
<i>trans</i> - $[Co(Z)_4XY]^{n+}$	$I^*(M-X_{ax})$	$I^*(M-Y_{ax})$	$I^*(M-Z_{eq})$				
<i>trans</i> - $Co(CN)_4(OH)_2^{3-}$	11 105		15 030	0.804	OH^-	OH^-	33
<i>trans</i> - $Co(en)_2(NCS)Cl^+$	7 400	7 015	12 230	0.905	Cl^-	$NCS^- \approx Cl^-$	36
<i>cis</i> - $[Co(Z)_4X_2]^{n+}$	$I^*(M-X_{eq})$	$I^*(M-Z_{eq})$	$I^*(M-Z_{ax})$				
<i>cis</i> - $Co(CN)_4(OH)_2^{3-}$	11 545	11 470	18 125		$(CN^-)_{eq}$	CN^-	33
<i>cis</i> - $Co(en)_2Cl_2^+$	7 880	8 980	14 360		Cl^-	Cl^-	2

^a For $Cr(NH_3)_5H_2O^{3+}$: photorelease of H_2O was not investigated. The model predicts practically equal quantum yields for H_2O as for NH_3 . ^b Dominant aquation of NH_3 was reported upon irradiation in the highest component of the first LF absorption band, suggesting equatorial labilization (ref 34). Upon irradiation in the triplet region, however, Cl^- is preferentially exchanged, in agreement with axial labilization (ref 40).

to compare the quantity $(I - I^*)$ for the different metal-ligand bonds.

If the photoactive state corresponds to an $xy \rightarrow x^2 - y^2$ excitation, the excitation energy is distributed over the equatorial bonds *only*. The equatorial metal-ligand bond weakening is simply proportional to the spectrochemical strength of the interaction: for each individual ligand one can write

$$I(M-L_{eq}) - I^*(M-L_{eq}) = \frac{1}{4}(3\sigma_{eq} - 4\pi_{eq}) = \frac{5}{2}Dq_{eq} \quad (10)$$

The axial metal-ligand bonds remain unaffected by the excitation:

$$I(M-L_{ax}) - I^*(M-L_{ax}) = 0 \quad (11)$$

When the photoactive state is E_g , the state functions (eq 4) are modified to some extent by configurational mixing. If this mixing is neglected as a first approximation ($x = \frac{3}{4}$ in eq 9), the $(I - I^*)$ parameter is again a simple function of the spectrochemical strength ($10Dq$) of each ligand.

$$I(M-L_{eq}) - I^*(M-L_{eq}) = \frac{1}{8}(3\sigma_{eq} - 4\pi_{eq}) = \frac{5}{4}Dq_{eq} \quad (12)$$

$$I(M-L_{ax}) - I^*(M-L_{ax}) = \frac{1}{4}(3\sigma_{ax} - 4\pi_{ax}) = \frac{5}{2}Dq_{ax} \quad (13)$$

Thus for a given $10Dq$ value, an axial bond absorbs twice as much excitation energy as an equatorial bond. These conclusions are valid for π -acceptor as well as π -donor ligands.

If the interactions between the two E_g states are accounted for, x becomes generally larger than $\frac{3}{4}$ (since in nearly all cases $\sigma_{ax} < \sigma_{eq}$), thereby increasing $(I - I^*)_{ax}$ and decreasing $(I - I^*)_{eq}$. Thus, introduction of configurational mixing will weaken the axial bonds even more and the equatorial bonds even less than could be expected from eq 12 and 13.

If $(I - I^*)$ were the determining parameter in the photosubstitution process, the previous considerations would lead us directly to Adamson's rules. Indeed, the average ligand field, \overline{Dq}_{ax} or \overline{Dq}_{eq} , determines the photoactive state. If $\overline{Dq}_{ax} > \overline{Dq}_{eq}$, the photoactive state corresponds predominantly to the $(xy \rightarrow x^2 - y^2)$ excitation, and according to eq 10 and 11, only the equatorial ligands are labilized. If $\overline{Dq}_{ax} < \overline{Dq}_{eq}$, the photoactive state corresponds predominantly to the $(xz, yz) \rightarrow z^2$ excitation and the axial ligands are labilized at least twice as much as the equatorial ligands. This is precisely the behavior described by Adamson's first rule. In each case, eq 10 and 13

predict a labilization which is directly proportional to the $10Dq$ value of the individual ligand; this is equivalent with the second rule.

If on the other hand, the relevant parameter is not $(I - I^*)$, but I^* , the predictions of Table III are valid. The first and most obvious test case is *trans*-[Cr(en)₂F₂]⁺, where Adamson's first rule predicts axial labilization, whereas from Table III, one expects an equatorial release. Indeed, the (*xz*, *yz* → *z*²) excitation does destabilize the Cr-F axis more than the Cr-N axis. However, the ground state bond energy $I(\text{Cr-F}) = 2\sigma(\text{F}) + 2\pi(\text{F})$ is much larger than $I(\text{Cr-N})$, due to the strong σ - and π -donor properties of fluorine; the net balance yields $I^*(\text{Cr-F}) > I^*(\text{Cr-N})$, which explains the experimentally observed release of ethylenediamine. This conclusion is reinforced by configuration interaction, *x* being less than $\frac{3}{4}$ in this particular case.

In all other cases under consideration, the predictions of Adamson's first rule and the methodology of Table III are identical.

(B) The Leaving Ligand. The difference between the two models becomes more apparent when one considers the leaving ligand on the labilized axis.

(1) If $\overline{Dq}_{\text{ax}} < \overline{Dq}_{\text{eq}}$, the photoactive ⁴E_g state of the Cr(III) complexes is characterized by

$$I^*(\text{M-L}_{\text{ax}}) = (2 - x)\sigma_{\text{ax}} + 3\pi_{\text{ax}} \quad (14)$$

$$I^*(\text{M-L}_{\text{eq}}) = \frac{1}{4}(5 + 2x)\sigma_{\text{eq}} + \frac{5}{2}\pi_{\text{eq}} \quad (15)$$

where *x* is the fraction of d_{z²} character (eq 9). For equatorial labilization, eq 15 cannot really be put to test, since the only corresponding complex, *trans*-Cr(en)₂F₂⁺, has four identical equatorial ligands.

In the case of axial labilization, eq 14 shows that the relevant quantity to be evaluated for the two ligands is $(2 - x)\sigma_{\text{ax}} + 3\pi_{\text{ax}}$. Application of this formalism predicts correctly the leaving ligand for all the experimental data of Table III.

In a few cases, the $I^*(\text{M-L})$ values for both ligands are quite close to each other, and only application of configuration interaction leads to the correct answer. From eq 9, it follows that $x > \frac{3}{4}$ for $\overline{\sigma}_{\text{ax}} < \overline{\sigma}_{\text{eq}}$. Assuming that the Racah parameter $B \approx 700 \text{ cm}^{-1}$, the Cr(NH₃)₅Br²⁺ complex is characterized by $x = 0.836$ and the Cr(NH₃)₅H₂O³⁺ complex by $x = 0.803$.

It should be pointed out that the predictions from the two models are different for *trans*-[Cr(en)₂FCl]⁺ and *trans*-[Cr(NH₃)₄(H₂O)(NCS)]²⁺. It is experimentally verified that in both complexes the ligand with the *smallest* spectrochemical strength is released preferentially. It is true that the Cr-F and the Cr-NCS bonds absorb more excitation energy than the Cr-Cl and Cr-H₂O bonds, respectively. However, the ground state bond energy $I(\text{M-L})$ is in both cases decisively larger for the strongest field ligand.

As for the substituted Co(III)-ammines and -cyanides, axial labilization is predicted in all cases where $\overline{Dq}_{\text{ax}} < \overline{Dq}_{\text{eq}}$. $I^*(\text{M-L}_{\text{ax}})$ is given by an expression similar to eq 14, but where the factor multiplying π_{ax} is not 3, but 1. Table III shows a very good agreement between predicted and observed leaving ligands.

Adamson's second rule predicts exchange of the transamine in both Cr(NH₃)₅X²⁺ and Co(NH₃)₅X²⁺. Experimentally, this is found to be true for Cr(III), but not for Co(III), exactly as expected from the previous considerations. Indeed, in the Co(III) complexes—as opposed to Cr(III)—the π -donor properties of the X ligand provide no net contribution to the ground state energy $I(\text{Co-X})$. Therefore, the stability difference between the MX and M-NH₃ bonds is considerably larger in Co(III) than in Cr(III) compounds.

The Co(CN)₅X complexes would be expected to release the trans cyano group if Adamson's second rule is followed. In fact, except when X = OH⁻, the X group is released. Indeed, Table

III shows that the relevant quantity $(2 - x)\sigma + \pi$ is larger for OH⁻ than $I^*(\text{Co-CN}^-)$, mainly due to the strong π -donor properties of OH⁻, while for all other X⁻ ligands, the weaker σ -donor properties of X are the dominant factor making the Co-X bond weaker than Co-CN.

(2) If $\overline{Dq}_{\text{ax}} > \overline{Dq}_{\text{eq}}$, the equatorial photolabilization is due to (*xy* → *x*² - *y*²) excitation. The only examples available are *cis*-Cr(en)₂Cl₂⁺, *cis*-Cr(en)₂(NCS)Cl⁺, *cis*-Co(en)₂Cl₂⁺, and *cis*-Co(CN)₄(OH)₂³⁻. The relevant expressions are

$$I^*(\text{M-L}_{\text{eq}}) = \frac{5}{4}\sigma_{\text{eq}} + y\pi_{\text{eq}} \quad (16)$$

where *y* = 3 for the Cr(III) and 1 for the Co(III) complexes. The smallest I^* values are found for Cr-en, Co-Cl, and Co-CN, respectively; these predictions are again confirmed by the experimental data. It should be noted that Adamson's second rule would predict the wrong result for *cis*-[Co(en)₂Cl₂]⁺.

Conclusions

The methodology based on the evaluation of $I^*(\text{M-L})$ is presented as an alternative to Adamson's rules. The fact that *all* the experimental data of Table III are reproduced correctly is certainly coincidental to some extent. It is almost certain that sooner or later exceptions will be found. Moreover, the uncertainty on the value of the spectroscopic σ and π parameters alone might cast some doubt on any "perfect" agreement between theory and experiment.

We believe, however, that the present method provides an adequate description of the observed phenomena in terms of a limited set of relevant parameters. The factors multiplying σ and π in Table I and in the different equations do not have immediate quantitative meaning. They should rather be considered as a rough measure of the weight of a particular bonding type in the ground and excited states; they might be compared to some extent to the bond orders in the theory of diatomic molecules.

Extension of the model to the photochemistry of heavier transition metals³⁷ and metal carbonyls³⁸ is seriously handicapped by the lack of reliable parameters.

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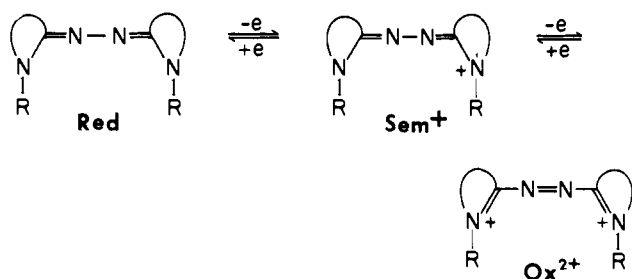
Kinetics of the Electron-Transfer Reactions of Azaviolene Radical Ions. 2.¹ Correlation with the Marcus Theory. The Question of Concerted Acid-Base Catalysis

Claude F. Bernasconi* and Hsien-chang Wang

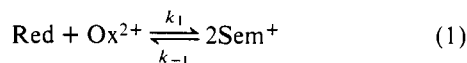
Contribution from the Thimann Laboratories of the University of California, Santa Cruz, California 95064. Received August 31, 1976

Abstract: The comproportionation-disproportionation kinetics of the azaviolene redox systems derived from 1-ethyl-2-quinolone azine (I), 1-ethyl-2-pyridone azine (III), and 1,3-dimethyl-2-benzimidazolone azine (IV) have been studied in 50% acetonitrile-50% water (v/v), IV also in 50% 2-methoxyethanol-50% water (v/v), by temperature-jump, stopped-flow, and pH-jump techniques. Electron transfer was found to occur by three concurrent pathways, viz., (1) $\text{Red} + \text{Ox}^{2+} \rightleftharpoons \text{Sem}^+ + \text{Sem}^+$, (2) $\text{RedH}^+ + \text{Ox}^{2+} \rightleftharpoons \text{Sem}^+ + \text{SemH}^{2+}$, and (3) a concerted general acid-base catalyzed reaction $\text{RedH}^+ + \text{Ox}^{2+} + \text{B}^- \rightleftharpoons \text{Sem}^+ + \text{Sem}^+ + \text{BH}$; Red is the reduced, Ox^{2+} the oxidized, and Sem^+ is the semireduced form of the redox system. The kinetics of the cross reactions, ${}_1\text{Red} + {}_2\text{Ox}^{2+} \rightleftharpoons {}_1\text{Sem}^+ + {}_2\text{Sem}^+$, have also been measured for the pairs I(Red) + III(Ox^{2+}) and II(Red^{2-}) + III(Ox^{2+}) where II is 1-ethyl-2-quinolone-6-sulfonate azine. The rate and equilibrium constants correlate very well with the Marcus theory. The observation and/or absence, respectively, of concerted general acid-base catalysis is discussed by using More O'Ferrall's and Jencks' method of estimating the free-energy surface of the system based on the free energies of the four corners of the contour map. Concerted catalysis is observed when the free energies of the two unstable intermediates are similar and high compared with the reactants and/or when the activation barrier for the electron transfer is very low which leads to enforced concerted catalysis.

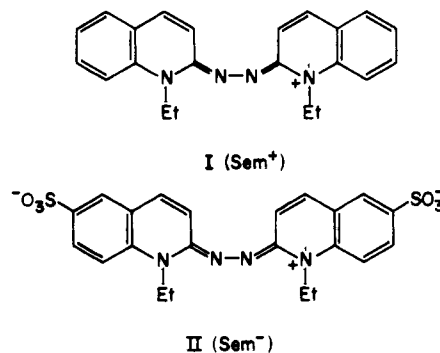
Azaviolenes are a class of compounds which can exist in three different oxidation states, with the general structures shown.² Electron transfer from one state of another can occur



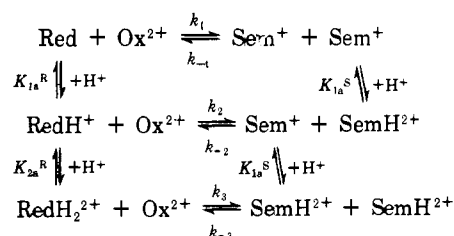
by the comproportionation-disproportionation reaction 1.



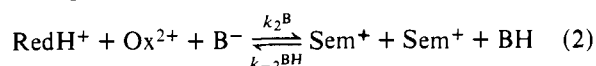
In the first part of this series¹ we reported a kinetic study of the comproportionation-disproportionation of the systems derived from 1-ethyl-2-quinolone azine (I) and 1-ethyl-2-quinolone-6-sulfonate azine (II) in 50% 2-methoxyethanol-50% water (v/v) (ME-H₂O). Owing to the protonation of Red³ on the bridge nitrogens,⁴ to form RedH⁺³ and RedH₂²⁺,³ two additional electron-transfer pathways had to be considered as shown in Scheme I. The rate law showed that for I all three pathways are significant, whereas for II only the two pathways k_1 - k_{-1} and k_2 - k_{-2} were detectable. Furthermore, the rate was found to be dependent on buffer concen-



Scheme I



tration, suggesting a general acid-base catalyzed pathway:



We have now extended this work to the systems derived from 1-ethyl-2-pyridone azine (III) and 1,3-dimethyl-2-benzimidazolone azine (IV), and also by measuring the cross reactions