

VOLUME 67, NUMBER 6

MARCH 22, 2002

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Perspective

The Preorganization Step in Organic Reaction Mechanisms. Charge-Transfer Complexes as Precursors to Electrophilic Aromatic Substitutions

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Received November 14, 2001

Metastable (pre-reactive) intermediates, as commonplace transients in simple bimolecular reactions, are usually unobserved (and ignored)—though they provide vital mechanistic insight. Thus, the preequilibrium (charge-transfer) complexes of various aromatic donors with rather typical electron acceptors such as Br_2 , NO^+ , and NO_2^+ are examined quantitatively (via their molecular and electronic structures) to reveal surprisingly unorthodox aspects of what is conventionally referred to in organic chemistry textbooks as electrophilic aromatic bromination, nitrosation, and nitration, respectively.

Introduction

The earliest mechanistic formulations of bimolecular reactions, both in solution and gas phase, have included the preequilibrium formation of a metastable (1:1) complex as an important (initial) encounter. Although such a preorganization step is also considered critical in formulating biochemical mechanisms (e.g., enzyme/substrate complexes, antibody/antigen binding, etc.), it has heretofore not played a comparable role in the formulation of organic reaction mechanisms—as readily apparent by even a cursory inspection of any contemporary organic chemistry textbook.

Such an obvious void is difficult to understand because the existence of metastable (prereactive) complexes in such common and diverse organic reactions as the Diels—Alder condensations, aromatic and olefinic brominations, etc. has been known from the earliest times. ^{4–6} From a *thermodynamics* point of view, it is convenient to dismiss the inclusion of preequilibrium complexes since they (usually) play limited roles in the overall energetics of the chemical transformation, and perhaps the same can

be said of their importance in defining the *kinetics*. However, the facile preorganization of the reactants can provide mechanistic insight from a *structural* point of view, as so fruitfully exploited by biochemists. Thus, by invoking the principle of least motion, we easily envisage how atomic movements within a structured (prereactive) complex can lead to a mechanistically viable transition-state structure.

I. Case in Point: Electrophilic Bromination of Benzene (and Toluene)

More than 60 years ago, Hildebrand and co-workers noted the characteristic color changes of iodine solutions immediately attendant upon the addition of various aromatic hydrocarbons. These spectral observations were later extended to bromine and chlorine, and spectrophotometric analyses established the formation of [1:1] molecular complexes, 10,11 e.g., where $X_2 = I_2$, Br_2 , Cl_2 , etc.

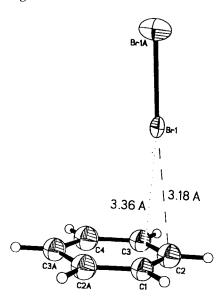


Figure 1. ORTEP diagram of the preequilibrium complex of benzene and bromine showing the pertinent charge-transfer π -bonding. Thermal ellipsoids of non-hydrogen atoms are shown at the 50% probability level.

The uniformly limited formation constants, typically with $K_{\rm CT} < 5~{\rm M}^{-1}$, identified these as weak intermolecular complexes. Nonetheless, Hassel and Stromme in 1954 were able to obtain single crystals of the benzene complexes with bromine and chlorine (by controlled freezing of the pure components in glass capillaries) sufficient for X-ray crystallography at -50 °C.12 Our recent refinement of their crystallography at lower temperatures reveals the highly structured preequilibrium complex shown in Figure 1,13 in which the axially symmetric Br₂ is poised specifically over a single (C-C) center of benzene. Moreover, the intermolecular (bromine) separation from the benzene plane is 0.5 Å closer than that predicted by the van der Waals radii to establish the inner-sphere character of the noncovalent bonding of bromine in the metastable complex.¹⁴ Its prereactive character is revealed by the spontaneous transformation of the crystalline [C₆H₆, Br₂] complex upon standing quantitatively into an equimolar mixture of bromobenzene and hydrogen bromide.¹⁵ The further (structural) delineation of electrophilic aromatic bromination is provided by the isolation and X-ray crystallography of the σ -adduct or Wheland intermediate when benzene is replaced by hexamethylbenzene under similar reaction conditions (see Figure 2). 16 [Note that the highly unstable σ -adduct of benzene is unlikely to be isolated owing to its facile α -proton loss.¹⁷] Such structural studies taken together provide an unequivocal pathway for electrophilic aromatic bromination in which the key steps are shown in Scheme 1.

Scheme 1

$$ArH + Br_{2} \xrightarrow{K_{CT}} [ArH, Br_{2}] \xrightarrow{K_{2}} [Ar^{+}_{Br}, Br^{-}]$$

$$[Ar^{+}_{Br}, Br^{-}] \xrightarrow{fast} ArBr + HBr \qquad (2)$$

Most relevant to this study is the structural information provided by the preequilibrium π -complex in its transformation to the critical σ -adduct. Thus,

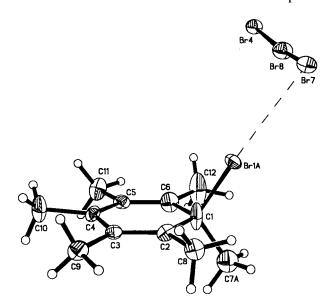


Figure 2. Molecular structure of the σ -adduct (or Wheland intermediate) derived from the bromine interaction with hexamethylbenzene to emphasize the least-motion transformation from the π -complex in Figure 1.

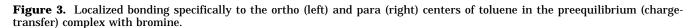
the composite of the ORTEP structures in Figures 1 and 2 represents a close to ideal least-motion study, i.e.

Even more striking is the regioselective transformation of the highly structured toluene π -complex with bromine situated specifically over the ortho and para positions in the crystal (see Figure 3) to afford the same isomeric (product) mixture of o- and p-bromotoluenes as that obtained in solution.¹⁸ Although these preequilibrium intermediates are structurally akin to the (ordered) transition states for electrophilic bromination, it is important to emphasize that they are formed essentially upon bimolecular collision with no activation energy. 19 How can it be that two such states, so widely disparate in energy, can have structural features that bear so much in common? To address this question, we now turn to the electronic description of preequilibrium complexes to provide insight into the preorganization forces that bind the reactant pair.

II. Mulliken's Quantitative Description of the Preequilibrium (Charge-Transfer) Complex

According to Mulliken, chemical compounds can be classified as either electron donors (D) or electron acceptors (A) in measure with their degree of electron-rich or electron-poor character. 20,21 Diffusive interaction of donors with acceptors spontaneously leads to their intermolecular complexation, in which the ground-state wave function (Ψ_{GS}) derives from a linear combination of the principal van der Waals ($\psi_{D,A}$) and dative (ψ_D+_A-) contributions, i.e. 22

$$\Psi_{\rm GS} = a\psi_{\rm D,A} + b\psi_{\rm D^+A^-} + \dots \tag{4}$$



The colors that are often observed with such electrondonor/-acceptor or EDA complexes arise from the electronic transition to the first excited state that is described by:

3.29 A

$$\Psi_{\rm FS} = b\psi_{\rm DA} - a\psi_{\rm D+A-} + \dots \tag{4'}$$

3.23 A

For weak complexes with the coefficients $a\gg b$, the electronic (charge-transfer) transition is tantamount to the photochemical conversion of the neutral (uncharged) ground state [D,A] to the dative (ion-pair) state [D*+,A*-]; and it is commonly observed experimentally as the linear (Mulliken) correlation of the absorption maxima ($hv_{\rm CT}$) of the EDA complex with the ionization potentials (IP) of a series of related donors, i.e.,²³

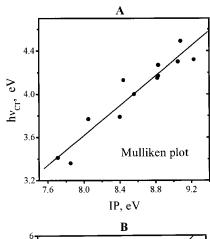
$$hv_{\rm CT} = IP - EA + constant$$
 (5)

when a common acceptor is employed [or vice versa for the electron affinities (EA) of a series of acceptors interacting with a common donor].²⁴

As applied to the (weak) bromine complex of benzene in eq 1, the varying colors associated with the related complexation of different aromatic donors (ArH) follow the striking linear correlation shown in Figure 4A, as predicted by Mulliken.²⁵ Most noteworthy, however, is the linear correlation in Figure 4B of the CT transition energies ($h\nu_{\rm CT}$) with the second-order rate constants (log $k_{\rm Br}$) for the electrophilic bromination of the same aromatic donors.²⁶ Such a remarkable linear correlation shows that those factors leading to the photoactivation ($h\nu_{\rm CT}$) of the EDA complex to the ion-radical pair [ArH•+, Br•-] are also pertinent to the attainment of the transition state (log $k_{\rm Br}$) for the electrophilic aromatic substitution. We therefore conclude that an answer to our question lies in the charge-transfer character of the preequilibrium or electron donor/acceptor (EDA) complex.

III. Charge-Transfer Character of the Preequilibrium (EDA) Complex

To assess quantitatively the changes in the chargetransfer character of the electron donor/acceptor complexes of various aromatic donors, 27 we now direct our



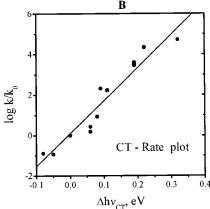


Figure 4. Charge-transfer energies ($h\nu_{\rm CT}$) of the preequilibrium complexes of bromine with various aromatic donors. (upper) Mulliken correlation with donor strength (IP) and the least-squares slope of 0.85. Lower figure is the rate correlation with the second-order rate constants (log $k_{\rm Br}$) for electrophilic bromination with the least-squares slope of 0.94. (Selected data taken from Fukuzumi et al.²⁶)

attention to those with the nitrosonium acceptor (NO⁺) for three principal reasons. First, as a simple

$$ArH + NO^{+}X^{-} \stackrel{K_{CT}}{\longleftrightarrow} [ArH, NO^{+}]X^{-}$$
 (6)

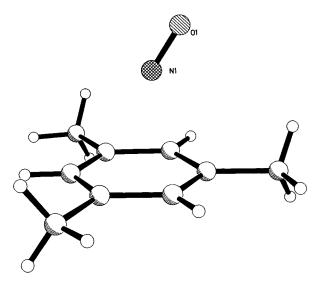


Figure 5. Molecular structure of the preequilibrium (charge-transfer) complex of mesitylene with the nitrosonium acceptor showing the typical π -bonding of NO⁺ atop the aromatic donor. ²⁸

diatomic the *partial* reduction of this cationic acceptor can be unambiguously measured by infrared spectroscopy of the N–O stretching frequency ($\nu_{\rm NO}$) and by X-ray crystallography of the N–O bond length, both of which undergo dramatic changes when NO⁺ ($\nu_{\rm NO}=2272~{\rm cm^{-1}}$, $r_{\rm NO}=1.06~{\rm \AA}$) is reduced to nitric oxide ($\nu_{\rm NO}=1876~{\rm cm^{-1}}$, $r_{\rm NO}=1.15~{\rm \AA}$). ²⁸ Second, the nitrosonium cation has been identified as the active electrophile in aromatic nitrosation. ²⁹ Third, nitrosonium salts can be pre-prepared as the pure (stable) salt NO⁺X⁻ (where X⁻ represents poorly coordinating counterions such as BF₄⁻, SbF₆⁻, SbCl₆⁻, etc. ³⁰) for quantitative study.

A. Structural Changes upon Formation of the **Preequilibrium Complex.** The spontaneous formation of the preequilibrium intermediate in eq 6 allows it to be isolated as bright cherry-brown crystals by mixing the components at low temperature (-78 °C).³² X-ray crystallography establishes the molecular structure of the [ArH, NO⁺] complex in Figure 5 to be analogous to that of the bromine complex (Figure 1).31 The inner-sphere character of this preequilibrium complex is apparent from the rather tight (noncovalent) binding of the acceptor to the aromatic donor, the NO separation from ArH being ~1 Å closer than that ordinarily allowed by the van der Waals radii.33 [The latter is consistent with the large formation constant $K_{\rm CT}$ that can pertain in eq 6.34] More importantly, the N-O bond distance in the preequilibrium complex is substantially elongated (relative to that in the uncomplexed nitrosonium acceptor) and closely approaches that in the completely reduced (free) nitric oxide. Accompanying such a marked structural change is the expansion of the aromatic ring to that extant in the isolated aromatic cation radical.35 Thus, from a strictly *structural* point of view, the nitrosonium acceptor upon its (reversible) complexation effectively suffers a one-electron reduction at the expense of the aromatic donor, i.e.,

$$ArH + NO^+ \stackrel{K_{CT}}{\Longleftrightarrow} [ArH^{\bullet +}, NO^{\bullet}]$$
 (7)

How can it be that such an EDA complex (apparently constituted of the paramagnetic components ArH•+ and

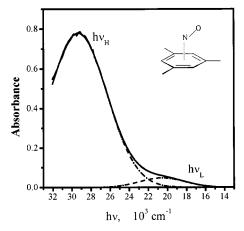
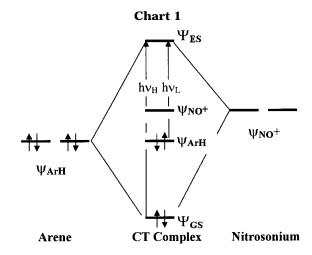


Figure 6. Typical charge-transfer (absorption) spectrum of the nitrosonium acceptor with aromatic donor (mesitylene), showing the Gaussian deconvolution into the high energy ($h\nu_{\rm H}$) and low energy ($h\nu_{\rm L}$) components.



NO*) is completely ESR silent? To examine this question further, we turn to the electronic transitions in the preequilibrium complex.

B. Charge-Transfer (Spectral) Absorptions in the **Preequilibrium Complex.** The characteristic (yellow to cherry-brown) colors of the series of [ArH, NO⁺] complexes derive from a pair of UV–vis absorption bands, typically illustrated in Figure 6. The intense, high energy band centered at $\lambda \sim 340$ nm is more or less invariant with the aromatic donor strength (E°_{ox}) , 36 but the weaker low-energy band $\lambda_{\rm L}$ varies linearly with E°_{ox} in accord with the expectations of Mulliken theory. 23 This disparate (spectral) behavior of the two (charge-transfer) absorption bands leads to the orbital formulation of the donor/acceptor interaction of arene (ArH) with NO⁺ presented in Chart $1.^{35}$

To describe the preequilibrium complex quantitatively, the mutual interaction of the donor/acceptor molecular orbitals is treated according to LCAO methodology, $^{37.38}$ in which only the frontier orbitals of the aromatic donor (HOMO) and the nitrosonium acceptor (LUMO) are explicitly taken into account. 39 In this formulation, the ground-state or bonding orbital $\Psi_{\rm GS}$ of the preequilibrium complex is represented as the linear combination of the donor and acceptor orbitals, i.e., $\Psi_{\rm GS} = c_{\rm D}\psi_{\rm D} + c_{\rm A}\psi_{\rm A}$, and likewise, the excited state or antibonding orbital is $\Psi_{\rm ES} = c_{\rm D}'\psi + c_{\rm A}'\psi$ (where the coefficients are normalized so that $c_{\rm D}^2 + c_{\rm A}^2 = 1$ and $c_{\rm D}'^2 + c_{\rm A}'^2 = 1$). 40 According to Chart

Table 1. Typical Electron-Transfer Parameters for the Arene/Nitrosonium Redox Systems^a

Aromatic donor	E ⁰ _{ox} (V vs SCE)	$h\nu_{\rm H}$ $(10^3 {\rm cm}^{-1})$	$\Delta_{ m AB}$ (eV)	H _{AB} (eV)	ν _{NO} (cm ⁻¹)	c _{NO} ²
	2.7	29.80	1.22	1.74	2075	0.34
	2.42	29.57	0.94	1.77	2030	0.37
Q V	2.13	29.77	0.65	1.82	2000	0.41
	2.06	30.16	0.58	1.85	1998	0.42
	2.11	29.51	0.63	1.80	1964	0.42
+	2.01	29.38	0.53	1.80	1964	0.43
	1.83	29.51	0.35	1.87	1933	0.46
	1.81	30.11	0.32	1.82	b)	0.45
	1.75	30.11	0.27	1.86	1907	0.47
	1.62	30.14	0.14	1.87	1885	0.48
	1.59	29.51	0.11	1.83	1900	0.49
	1.50	28.94	0.02	1.79	1910	0.50

^a From Rosokha et al. in ref 35. ^b Not measured.

1, the charge-transfer (spectral) absorptions are associated with a pair of electronic transitions from (i) the bonding MO (Ψ_{GS}) to the antibonding MO (Ψ_{ES}) and (ii) the nonbonding MO (ψ_{ArH}) to the antibonding MO (Ψ_{ES}) of the inner-sphere complex, as designated by $h\nu_{\rm H}$ (high energy band) 40b and $h\nu_{\rm L}$ (low energy band), respectively, in Figure 6.41 Application of the standard variation method leads to the energies of the ground and excited states as42

$$E_{\rm GS} = (\epsilon_{\rm NO} + \epsilon_{\rm ArH})/2 - (\Delta_{\rm AB}^2 + 4H_{\rm AB}^2)^{1/2}/2$$
 (8)

$$E_{\rm ES} = (\epsilon_{\rm NO} + \epsilon_{\rm ArH})/2 + (\Delta_{\rm AB}^2 + 4H_{\rm AB}^2)^{1/2}/2$$
 (9)

where the coulomb integrals ($\in_i = \int \psi_i H \psi_i$) represent the (one-electron) energies of the constituent donor and acceptor orbitals. The HOMO – LUMO gap or $\Delta_{AB} = \epsilon_{NO}$ $- \in_{ArH}$ is evaluated experimentally as $[E_{ox}](ArH) - E_{red}$ (NO⁺)], and the resonance integral $H_{AB} = \int \psi_{NO} H \psi_{ArH}$ represents the donor/acceptor electronic interaction in the preequilibrium complex. Since the high-energy band arises via the electronic transition: $\Psi_{GS} \rightarrow \Psi_{ES}$, the transition energy derives from eqs 8 and 9 as:

$$hv_{\rm H} = E_{\rm ES} - E_{\rm GS} = (\Delta_{\rm AB}^2 + 4H_{\rm AB}^2)^{1/2}$$
 (10)

The electronic coupling element in the inner-sphere complex is evaluated from eq 10 (by using the experimental values of Δ_{AB} and $h\nu_H$), and the sizable magnitudes of H_{AB} are listed in Table 1 for some representative aromatic donors.

According to the orbital diagram in Chart 1, the low energy (absorption) band corresponds to the transition: $\psi_{ArH} \rightarrow \Psi_{ES}$, and the transition energy can thus be evaluated directly from eq 9 as:

$$h\nu_{\rm L} = (\Delta_{\rm AB}^2 + 4H_{\rm AB}^2)^{1/2}/2 + \Delta_{\rm AB}/2$$
 (11)

Figure 7 compares the experimental spectrum with the calculated spectrum from eq 11, and the solid line (with a slope of unity) thus confirms the validity of the LCAO-MO method to correctly predict the electronic changes in the preequilibrium complexes.⁴³

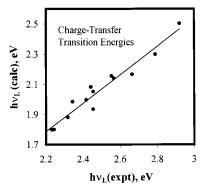


Figure 7. Experimental validation of the theoretical (semiempirical) methodology^{37,38} according to eq 11 to correctly predict the experimental charge-transfer transition energies $(hv_{\rm L})$. The least-squares slope is 0.96.

C. Charge-Transfer Structure of the Preequilibrium Complex. The characteristic structural feature of

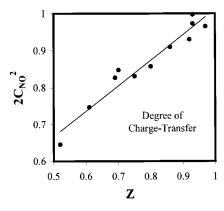


Figure 8. Experimental degree of charge transfer (**Z**) in the preequilibrium complex as reflected in the theoretical (orbital) mixing coefficients $C_{\rm NO}^2$ in the ground-state wave function for various [ArH,NO]⁺ (least-squares slope is 0.71).

the inner-sphere complexes is their variable (X-ray) structures, which are also apparent from the monotonic variation of the N–O stretching frequencies with the aromatic donor strength. Both measures reflect changes in the degree of electron transfer, hereinafter designated as \mathbf{Z} . Since the acceptor is a simple diatomic, the IR changes in ν_{NO} represent an unambiguous (experimental) measure of \mathbf{Z} , i.e.,

$$\mathbf{Z} = ({\nu_{\text{NO}^{+}}}^2 - {\nu_{\text{PC}}}^2)/({\nu_{\text{NO}^{+}}}^2 - {\nu_{\text{NO}}}^2)$$
 (12)

where the subscript NO⁺ refers to the uncomplexed nitrosonium cation, PC is the preequilibrium complex, and NO is the completely reduced (free) nitric oxide.

Theoretically, the degree of charge transfer can be viewed as the excess charge residing on the NO^+ moiety in the inner-sphere complex. Such an electron excess in the ground-state complex is theoretically evaluated from the orbital coefficient as $2C_{NO}^2$, ⁴⁴ and the values of $2C_{NO}^2$ calculated by the variation method are shown to be excellent measures of the experimental ${\bf Z}$ (see Figure 8). Importantly, the absolute magnitude of $2C_{NO}^2$ is close to the experimental ${\bf Z}$, especially for electron-rich arenes.

Since electron (charge) transfer from the arene to the complex orbital plays a major role in the stabilization, the energy gain during the preequilibrium complex formation is given by $\Delta E_{PC} \cong E_{GS} - E_{ArH}$, which with the aid of eq 8 is approximated as

$$\Delta E_{\rm PC} \simeq (\Delta_{\rm AB}^2 + 4H_{\rm AB}^2)^{1/2} - \Delta_{\rm AB}$$
 (13)

Equation 13 consists of two components: (1) the bonding/antibonding (orbital) splitting as given by $E_{\rm ES}$ (see eq 10) and the HOMO — LUMO gap as given by $\Delta_{\rm AB}$. Since $4H_{\rm AB}^2\gg\Delta_{\rm AB}^2$ (except in the endergonic limit, see Table 1), we conclude that $\Delta E_{\rm PC}$ and $H_{\rm AB}$ are strongly coupled—in other words, the *stabilization energy* of the preequilibrium complex is largely dictated by the donor/acceptor interaction energy, as also deduced from the structural changes determined by X-ray crystallography (see eq 7).⁴⁵ This conclusion predicts that $H_{\rm AB}$ also plays a major role in the experimental free energy change ($\Delta G_{\rm PC}$) and that maximum stabilization occurs at the isoenergetic potential at which the donor and acceptor strengths are comparable.

D. Preequilibrium (Charge-Transfer) Complex and Electron Transfer. The preorganizational associa-

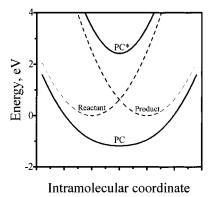


Figure 9. Cross-section of the potential energy surface of the preequilibrium complex (PC) with the single minimum predicted by Marcus, Hush, and Sutin theory for class III electron-transfer reactions (with $H_{AB} > \lambda/2$) and the charge-transfer transition to the excited state (PC*), i.e., [PC] \rightarrow [PC*] given by $h\nu_{CT} = 2H_{AB}$. For the arene/nitrosonium system in the isergonic region with the $\Delta G^0_{ET} = 0$ and $\lambda_{CE} = 2.5$ eV for cross exchange in eq 14. The initial (reactant) diabatic state {ArH + NO+} and final (product) diabatic state {ArH++ NO+} are also quantitatively drawn to scale as the left and right dashed curves, respectively. 50

tion of arene donors (ArH) with the nitrosonium acceptor is followed by electron transfer,³⁵ i.e., Scheme 2.

Scheme 2

$$ArH + NO^{+} \stackrel{K_{CT}}{\longleftrightarrow} [ArH,NO]^{+} \stackrel{K_{et}}{\longleftrightarrow} ArH^{+\bullet} + NO^{\bullet}$$
 (14)

The driving force for the overall electron transfer in eq 14 is given by

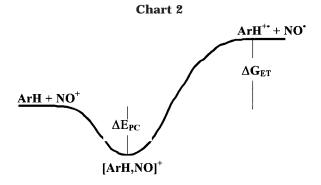
$$\Delta G_{\rm ET} = F(E^{\circ}_{\rm ox} - E^{\circ}_{\rm red}) \tag{15}$$

where F is the Faraday constant, E°_{ox} represents the oxidation potential of the aromatic donor, and $E^{\circ}_{red}=1.48$ V vs SCE is the reduction potential of nitrosonium acceptor. The dominant role of the preequilibrium complex as the key intermediate in the electron-transfer process between ArH and NO⁺ can be considered in the theoretical light of the Marcus—Hush formulation. Owing to sizable magnitudes of the electronic coupling element (H_{AB}) in the preequilibrium complex (see Table 1), the electron transfer in eq 14 must involve the innersphere mechanism.

Let us now turn to Sutin's development of the Marcus— Hush formulation of various redox systems that specifically focuses on the magnitude of the electronic coupling element. In particular, Sutin considers two major (innersphere) mechanistic categories, class II and class III in which the limits of the electronic coupling element are as follows: $H_{AB} > 200 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ but less than $\lambda_{CE}/2$ and H_{AB} $> \lambda_{\rm CE}/2$, respectively, where $\lambda_{\rm CE}$ is the Marcus reorganization energy for the cross-exchange reaction.⁴⁹ Within this context, the value of $\lambda_{CE}/2$ for the ArH/NO⁺ cross exchange can be obtained from their self-exchanges $(ArH \stackrel{-e}{\rightleftharpoons} ArH^{\bullet+} \text{ and } NO^+ \stackrel{-e}{\rightleftharpoons} NO^{\bullet})$ as 1.2–1.3 eV, based on $\lambda_{ArH} = 40-50 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ and $\lambda_{NO} = 69 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}.^{49b}$ Since the magnitude of the electronic coupling of $H_{AB}\sim 1.8~{\rm eV}$ is substantially larger than $\lambda_{\rm CE}/2$, electron transfers from various arene donors to NO⁺ (as described in eq 14) clearly fall into class III. The energy surface for elec-

tron transfer consists of a single potential energy minimum—a typical cross-section of which is shown in Figure 9.50

Intermolecular electron-transfer reactions that belong to the class III category must occur with no activation energy. Chart 2 illustrates a profile of the potential energy surface that qualitatively depicts the free energy change along the reaction coordinate for the redox transformation of an arene/NO+ pair lying in a typical endergonic region of the driving force.⁵¹



In Chart 2, the inner-sphere complexes of arene donors with the nitrosonium acceptor are properly designated as [ArH, NO]+, with the charge placed outside the brackets to emphasize the existence of only one potential energy minimum on the pathway from the $\{ArH + NO^+\}\ reactants\ to\ the\ \{ArH^{\bullet+} + NO^{\bullet}\}\ products.$ As such, electron transfer is not a kinetics process but dependent on the thermodynamics in which electron redistribution is concurrent with complex formation, and the rate-limiting activation barrier is simply given by the sum of the energy gain from complex formation (eq 13) and the driving force for electron transfer (eq 15), i.e.,

$$\Delta G_{\rm ET}^{\ \ \dagger} = \Delta E_{\rm PC} + \Delta G_{\rm ET} \tag{16}$$

IV. Mechanistic Relevance of Preequilibrium (Charge-Transfer) Complexes to Arene Activation by NO+ and NO₂+: Quantitative Comparison

Arene activation by nitrosonium cation (NO⁺), as depicted in Chart 2, has its counterpart with that by the nitronium cation (NO₂⁺). However, as structurally related as NO⁺ and NO₂⁺ may be, they differ markedly in their reactivity toward arene donors. Whereas benzene reacts with NO₂⁺ at essentially diffusion-controlled rates (to effect nitration),⁵² the corresponding reactivity with NO⁺ under the same conditions (to effect nitrosation) is too slow to be measured.⁵³ (The latter occurs at measurable rates with only electron-rich arenes such as mesitylene, etc.²⁹) Such divergent reactivity patterns of NO⁺ and NO₂⁺ are commonly evaluated by differences in their acceptor strengths and experimentally indicated by their reversible reduction potentials (compare eq 5).³⁶ However, the pertinent physical constants of NO+ and NO2+ (Chart 3) are not strongly distinguished—their E°_{red} values are reasonably comparable in different solvents. In fact, the only outstanding difference between NO⁺ and NO₂⁺ lies in the magnitude of the reorganization energies⁴⁹ $-\lambda_{NO_2}$ being more than twice λ_{NO} owing largely to the requisite

	Chart	3		
Structure	NO ₂ ⁺	NO ₂	NO ⁺	NO.
r (N-O), Å	1.15	1.19	1.06	1.15
θ (Ο-Ν-Ο), deg	175	134		
fs, mdyne Å ⁻¹	17.4	11.0	23.9	15.9
f _b , mdyne Å rad ⁻²	0.69	1.58		
Energy	NO_2^+/NO_2^{\bullet}		NO ⁺ /NO	
E red, V vs Fc	1.03		1.00	
λ, kcal mol ⁻¹	140		69	

bending of ONO attendant upon the reduction of the almost linear (triatomic) cation.

To follow through with its comparison to NO⁺ as designated in eq 14 (Scheme 2), let us consider the corresponding electron-transfer process, viz. Scheme 3.

ArH +
$$NO_2^+$$
 $\stackrel{K_{CT}}{\longleftarrow}$ $[ArH, NO_2^+]$ $\stackrel{K_{et}}{\longleftarrow}$ $ArH^{+\bullet}$ + NO_2^{\bullet} (17) $(\pi\text{-complex})$

Since the temporal course of this electron transfer is not readily followed, owing to the high reactivity of NO₂⁺, we now rely on the comparison of the physical constants in Chart 3 to draw some broad estimates of the electron coupling element for the preequilibrium intermediate in eq 17. If we take H_{AB} to be the same as that for NO⁺ (in eq 14) as a first approximation, 54 Sutin's treatment leads to the potential-energy profile shown in Figure 10⁵⁵ that consists of a double potential minimum (unlike that for NO⁺ in Figure 9) due to the reorganization energy of λ_{NO_2} = 140 kcal mol⁻¹, which is roughly two times larger than $\lambda_{\rm NO}$. Figure 10 also includes the family of other energy profiles for ArH/NO₂⁺ pairs with progressively lower H_{AB} values. In each case, the single potential energy minimum characteristic of ArH/NO+ is replaced by double

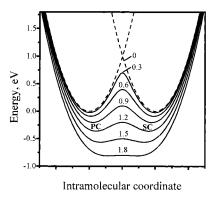
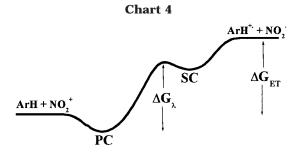


Figure 10. Profiles of the potential energy surfaces (double minima) for the electron transfer in class II showing the progressive lowering of the activation barrier between the precursor complex (PC) and successor complex (SC) with increasing values of the electron-coupling element HAB, as indicated (in eV). For the arene/nitronium redox system in the isergonic region, the initial (reactant) diabatic state {ArH + $NO_2{^+}\}$ and final (product) diabatic state $\{ArH^{{\scriptscriptstyle \bullet}+}+NO_2{^{\scriptscriptstyle \bullet}}\}$ are quantitatively drawn to scale for $\Delta G^{\circ}_{ET} = 0$ and $\lambda_{CE} = 4.0$ eV for cross exchange in eq 17 in the dashed left and right dashed curves, respectively.55

potential energy minima. The latter consist of the separate precursor $\pi\text{-complex}$ [ArH, NO $_2^+$] and the successor $\pi\text{-complex}$ [ArH*, NO $_2^*$], both with progressively shallower minima (and higher barriers that separate them) as the electron-coupling element H_{AB} decreases. In the limit with $H_{AB}\approx 0$, a single barrier separates the noninteracting reactant state {ArH + NO $_2^+$ } and the product state {ArH*+ NO $_2^*$]. In other words, as a result of large λ_{NO_2} , electron transfer with NO $_2^+$ cannot progress via a single preequilibrium $\pi\text{-complex}$ like that with NO* (Chart 3), and the typical cross-section of the potential energy surface shown in Chart 4 includes a pair of preequilibrium $\pi\text{-intermediates-designated PC}$ and SC for precursor and successor complexes, respectively.



The difference between a potential-energy profile with a double minimum for NO_2^+ (Chart 4) and that with a single minimum for NO^+ (Chart 2) has important kinetic consequences. Indeed, the rate of electron transfer to NO_2^+ is significantly faster than that to NO^+ , despite the large magnitude of λ_{NO_2} relative to λ_{NO_3} , since Chart 4 shows that the activation energy for overall electron transfer is simply given as 56

$$\Delta G_{\rm ET}^{} = \Delta G_{\rm ET} \tag{18}$$

V. Comments on the Role of Preequilibrium Complexes in Electrophilic Aromatic Nitrosation versus Nitration via Electron Transfer

The preequilibrium formation of intermolecular charge-transfer complexes is common to both aromatic nitrosation and nitration, which are known to occur via the active electrophilic species NO^+ and NO_2^+ , respectively.⁵⁷ The interconversion of the π -complex to the σ -adduct (like that for bromination in eq 3) represents the critical activation step, i.e.,

The least-motion study of such (direct or one-step) transformations cannot readily account for the fact that the NO_2^+ moiety in eq 20 must overcome the sizable (reorganization) penalty for ONO bending (see Chart 3). Yet nitrations proceed at rates that are actually orders of magnitude faster than nitrosations, 58 in which the lower reorganization barrier for NO^+ merely involves the simple N-O stretching mode (see Chart 3). Such a

significant reorganization obstacle is conceptually circumvented by decoupling the step involving reorganization from the step leading to the σ -adduct in both eqs 19 and 20. Indeed, electron-transfer activation as presented in Charts 2 and 4 for NO+ and NO_2+, respectively, satisfies the two-step criterion since reorganization is implicit in electron transfer and it is separate from σ -adduct formation.

As applied to aromatic nitrosation, the activation process is as shown in Scheme 4, where the overall

Scheme 4

ArH + NO⁺
$$\longrightarrow$$
 [ArH,NO]⁺ $\xrightarrow{\Delta G_{ET}^{\neq}}$ (21)

activation barrier ($\Delta G_{\rm ET}^{\dagger}$) is evaluated by eq 16.⁵⁹ Thus, the slow electron-transfer activation in eq 14 (coupled also with the subsequent slow deprotonation of the σ -adduct⁶⁰) is responsible for aromatic nitrosations, which are by and large limited to only the most active (electronrich) arene donors.⁶¹

The corresponding two-stage activation process for aromatic nitration via electron-transfer according to Chart 4 involves an additional intermediate -- the successor complex [ArH*+, NO2*] which largely takes on the burden of the $NO2^+$ reorganization in the separate electron-transfer transformation of the precursor complex [ArH,NO2*]. The subsequent spontaneous collapse of the successor complex (SC) directly to the σ -adduct in Scheme 5 facilitates the electron-transfer pathway for nitration

Scheme 5

considerably⁶² (Scheme 5) since it entirely bypasses the slow (energy-intensive) step leading from the successor complex [ArH*+, NO2*] to the separated (noninteracting) ion-radical pairs {ArH*+ + NO2*}, which is implicit in eq 18. The activation barrier for such a direct collapse of the ion-radical pair is substantially less than $\Delta G_{\rm ET}$ and leads to very fast nitration rates.^{64,65} In the limit for nitrations involving preequilibrium complexation with small $H_{\rm AB}$ values, the rate will be limited by the π -interconversion of the precursor/successor complexes (i.e., ΔG_{λ}) and not on the formation of the σ -adduct. The clear separation of the π -interconversion versus formation of the σ -adduct is illustrated in Chart 5.

Most importantly, the extent to which the σ -adduct is formed directly from the successor complex (pathway P_1)⁶⁷ lowers the activation barrier relative to that for pathway P_2 (dashed curve) that formally proceeds via the free radical pair $\{ArH^{\bullet+} + NO_2^{\bullet}\}$. Thus, Chart 5 underscores the caveat that the viability of electron-transfer mechanisms cannot be prejudged solely by

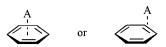
the free energy change for electron transfer ($\Delta G_{\rm ET}$), since the actual activation energy (ΔG^{\ddagger}) can be substantially less.

Summary and Outlook

Metastable charge-transfer complexes are transiently observed as critical intermediates in electrophilic aromatic bromination and nitrosation with dibromine (Br₂) and nitrosonium cation (NO⁺), respectively. Although structurally disparate, Br₂ and NO⁺ nonetheless represent prototypical electron acceptors (A) that interact with various arenes as electron donors in a fast, initial equilibrium to form the [1:1] prereactive complex, i.e.,

$$D + A \stackrel{K_{CT}}{\rightleftharpoons} [D,A]$$
 (23)

As metastable as these preequilibrium complexes may be, transient (UV–vis) spectroscopic and low-temperature X-ray crystallographic analyses reveal their *highly structured* π -character as generically depicted below.³¹

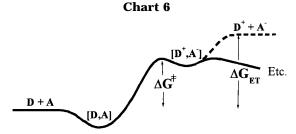


In turn, these (ground-state) π -complexes are converted in a *rate-limiting* transformation to the σ -adduct, which is generally recognized¹⁷ as the reactive intermediate leading to aromatic substitution, e.g.,

$$(\pi\text{-complex}) \xrightarrow{\Delta G^{\pm}} (\pi\text{-adduct})^{A}, \text{ etc} \qquad (24)$$

Although such a unimolecular transformation adheres to the least-motion principle, they involve intermediates that are highly disparate in energy-the ground-state π -complex being formed in a fast preequilibrium step, whereas the σ -adduct lies close to the rate-limiting transition state. The general question thus arises as to how a (low energy) ground-state structure such as the π -complex can take on the structure so close to the (high energy) transition state. This question comes into sharper focus when aromatic nitration with NO_2^+ is considered in the light of aromatic nitrosation with NO⁺. As related electrophiles, NO⁺ and NO₂⁺ have similar physical constants (see Chart 3) but differ markedly in their reorganization energy—the linear $NO_2^{\,+}$ is heavily burdened by the bending penalty. As such, the direct (leastmotion) formulation in eq 24 is not easily reconciled with the fact that NO₂⁺ is many orders of magnitude more reactive that NO⁺ in arene activation, despite its severe bending incurred in the attainment of the transition state. It is singularly important to note, however, that incorporation of the preequilibrium intermediate, consisting of the reversible interchange between the precursor complex [ArH, NO_2^+] and the successor complex [ArH*+, NO_2^*] as shown in Chart 5, allows the reorganization barrier (ΔG_i) for NO_2^+ to be clearly separated from the subsequent formation of σ -adduct. ⁶⁶ By contrast, such an energetically favorable pathway is not available for NO^+ (Chart 2) with consequent (substantially) slower rates for aromatic nitrosation.

The conclusion reached herewith underscores the general importance of the preequilibrium intermediate prior the reaction of any electron donor (D) with an electron acceptor (A). In particular, the emphasis on the charge-transfer character of the prereactive complex identifies the preorganization barrier to be a separate step from that leading to the transition-state structure. This important conclusion for organic-reaction mechanisms is identified in Chart 6 as the reorganizational (activation) barrier ΔG^{\dagger} that separates the precursor complex [D, A] from the successor complex [D⁺, A⁻]. In this way, electron-transfer mechanisms which hitherto may have been discounted owing to forbiddingly high endergonic driving forces (i.e., $\Delta G_{\rm ET}$) can be accommodated.



Postscript. Although we have deliberately restricted our attention in this Perspective to an in-depth study of the preequilibrium complexes pertinent to electrophilic aromatic bromination, nitrosation, and nitration, the prototypical free energy diagram, as outlined in Chart 6, should be viewed as a *general* mechanistic construct with universal applicability. Owing to the ubiquity of the charge-transfer phenomena,⁶⁸ we encourage further quantitative studies to provide experimental support for the viability of preequilibrium (precursor) complexes in the mechanistic elucidation of various types of other organic and organometallic reactions.

Acknowledgment. We thank the National Science Foundation and the R. A. Welch Foundation for financial support.

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- (41) Although both transitions are allowed, the limited interaction of ψ_{ArH} with Ψ_{ES} (as determined by the transition moment $\int \psi_{ArH}(e\mathbf{r})\Psi_{ES}$) results in an appreciably less intense low-energy band. See, e.g., Creutz et al. in ref 42.

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- the arene/No $_2$ ⁺ system. (a) For clarity, Figure 10 (like Figure 9) is drawn according to Sutin^{50b} for the class II redox pair in the isergonic region of the driving force. The diabatic curves are drawn with the reorganization energy of $\lambda=4.0~{\rm eV}$ and $\Delta G_{\rm ET}^{\circ}=0$. The various potential energy surfaces are drawn for the indicated values of $H_{\rm AB}$ (in eV). (b) Note that there is a continuous transition in the potential energy surfaces from single well (Figure 9) to double well (Figure 10) that is modulated by the magnitude of the electronic coupling element (H_{AB}) relative to the reorganization barrier ($\lambda/2$). Thus, the reaction profile for the ArH/NO+ system (class III) will progressively develop double-well character as $H_{AB} = 1.8$ is gradually decreased to beyond $H_{AB} < \lambda/2$ (1.2 eV), and conversely, the double-well predicted for the ArH_2/NO_2^+ system (Class II) will progressively evolve into a single-well surface as the electronic coupling element is gradually *increased* from $H_{\rm AB}$ = 1.8 eV to $H_{\rm AB}$ > $\lambda/2$ (2.0 eV). For a general discussion of this point, see Sutin in ref 50b.
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$$[ArH, NO]^{+} \xrightarrow{K_{ET}} \{ArH^{+\bullet} + NO^{\bullet}\} \xrightarrow{fast} \bigvee_{H}^{NO} , etc$$

Note that in this treatment, the energy of the pair of noninteracting radicals {ArH + + NO } is more or less equivalent to that of the σ -adduct, as previously established experimentally by their simultaneous observation via time-resolved spectroscopy. See: Hubig, S. M.; Kochi, J. K. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **2000**, *122*, 8279.

- (60) To account for the sizable deuterium kinetic isotope effect in aromatic nitrosation (see Bosch et al. in ref 29).
- Electron-rich arenes yield the most stable cation radicals, as indicated by their elevated values of $K_{\rm ET}$ (see ref 59). ³⁵ Thus, the enhanced yields of arene cation radicals from electron-rich arenes will correlate with faster nitrosation rates.
- (a) Independent time-resolved (ps) spectroscopic studies have established the facile (homolytic) coupling of the arene cation radical (ArH*+) with NO₂* to form the σ-adduct—the second-order process of which occurs at diffusion-controlled rates. See: Kim, E. K.; Bockman, T. M.; Kochi, J. K. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **1993**, *115*, 3091. (b) We note that the electron-transfer mechanism for aromatic nitration in Scheme 5 is a quantitative representation of the mechanism originally proposed by Perrin, ^{62c} in that the successor complex [ArH•+, NO₂•] and not the pair of (noninteracting) radicals {ArH•+ +NO₂•} is considered to be the reactive intermediate. For the quantitative delineation of this (kinetic) distinction, see ref 63. (c) Perrin, C. L. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1977, 99, 5516.
- (a) As depicted in Chart 4, $\Delta G_{\rm ET}$ represents the energy change for single electron transfer from the reactant diabatic state {ArH + NO₂⁺} to the separate product species, i.e., free ArH•+ and free NO2. Bypassing the latter (see Chart 5) thus results in the lowering of the activation barrier (and in an increased rate) by an amount roughly relating to the electronic coupling element (H_{ab}). (b) In a broader context in terms of electron-transfer mechanisms, the difference between the successor complex [ArH*+ NO2*] and a pair of (more or less) free or noninteracting radicals {ArH•+ + NO2•} as the reactive intermediate in aromatic nitration is the general distinction between an inner-sphere and an outer-sphere process. See: Hubig S. M.; Rathore, R.; Kochi, J. K.. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1999, 121, 617.
- (64) It is important to emphasize that the chemical behavior of the successor complex [ArH*+, NO₂*] in Class II is more like that of the free (noninteracting) radical pair $\{ArH^{\bullet+} \text{ and } NO_2^{\bullet}\}$. The extent to which the NO_2^{\bullet} moiety in the successor complex is already (substantially) bent will further facilitate collapse to the σ -adduct. In this regard, the successor complex in class II systems is very different from the class III preequilibrium complex [ArH, NO]+, which exhibits ion-radical behavior only upon separation to the free noninteracting {ArH*+ and NO*} radical pair. (see Scheme 2). 59
- (65) Furthermore, the subsequent deprotonation of the σ -adduct in aromatic nitration is rapid. See: (a) Melander, L. *Arkiv Kemi* **1950**, *2*, 2111. (B) Melander, L. *Isotope Effects in Reaction Rates*, Ronald: New York, 1960.
- The dichotomy between the *substrate reactivity* and *positional* selectivity in aromatic nitration with NO_2^+ has been correctly addressed by Olah and co-workers⁵² to the necessity of invoking (at least) two intermediates. According to our Scheme 5, such a mechanistic distinction results from the rate-limiting (ΔG_{λ}) formation of the successor complex [ArH*+, NO2*]+ which is formed in a completely separate step from the fast (ion-pair) collapse to the product-forming σ -adduct.
- See the behavior of (class II) successor complexes, as described for nitration in footnote 60.
- Compare: Rathore, R.; Kochi, J. K. Adv. Phys. Org. Chem. 2000, 35, 193. See also: Foster, R. In ref 24. Andrews, L. J et al. In ref 5b.
- (69) Lund, T.; Eberson, L. J. Chem. Soc., Perkin Trans. 21997, 1435.

JO011072R