

# Unit 2

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## 2.1 Lecture 4: Substitution Reactions

4/5:

- Association/dissociation reactions.
- Fairly related to organic S<sub>N</sub>2 and S<sub>N</sub>1 reactions, respectively.
- General form:



- We investigate the position of the equilibrium with the three main characteristics that determine reactivity.

### 1. Sterics.

- Related to the metal coordination number.
  - C.N. > 6 is typically disfavored.
  - C.N. < 6 is possible.
- The size of L' is also important: If L' = PPh<sub>3</sub> for example, this is hard to get to C.N. > 4.

### 2. Ligand character.

- In nonpolar media, dissociation of charged groups (e.g., Cl<sup>−</sup>) will be disfavored. However, the opposite is true in polar media.
  - This is because of the issue of making charge/ionizing.
- The match between M and L (e.g., hard/soft, electron rich/poor) is also important.
  - For example, Fe<sup>0</sup> will bind CO strongly since Fe<sup>0</sup> is electron rich and CO is a π acceptor.
  - However, Fe<sup>IV</sup> will not (as a hard, electron-poor metal center).

### 3. Electronic structure of the metal center (whether or not the metal is electronically saturated [has 18 electrons]).

- 18 e<sup>−</sup>: it will not want to coordinate an additional L'.
- 20 e<sup>−</sup>: it will want to dissociate.
- 16 e<sup>−</sup>: it *can* associate.
  - However, it may not want to given that 16 e<sup>−</sup> square-planar complexes are fairly stable.
  - The associated state may be a transition state in a square-planar ligand substitution or otherwise not a ground state.

- Ligand substitution reactions terms: **Kinetic** and **thermodynamic**.
- **Kinetic** (considerations): Elements are inert (slow) or labile (fast).
- **Thermodynamic** (considerations): Which side of an equilibrium will be favored. Elements are stable or reactive.

- In ligand substitution reactions, there are two limiting regimes:

1. Associative substitution.

- See the related discussion in Labalme (2021).
- This is the most general reaction type, even for coordinatively saturated complexes.
- Rate law:

$$\frac{d[\text{ML}_5\text{L}']}{dt} = k_{\text{obs}}[\text{ML}_6][\text{L}']$$

2. Dissociative mechanism.

- See the related discussion in Labalme (2021).
- There are many things that look dissociative that are associative (e.g., instead of forming a 5-coordinate species, you could just have a molecule of the solvent displace a ligand).
- This mechanism is rare and hard to prove.
- Rate law:

$$\frac{d[\text{ML}_5\text{L}']}{dt} = \frac{k_2 k_1 [\text{ML}_6][\text{L}]}{k_{-1}[\text{L}] + k_2[\text{L}]}$$

- Experimentally, we swamp the reaction with L' so that [L'] >>> than all other reagents. This makes it so that the rate is just  $k_{\text{obs}}[\text{ML}_6]$ , i.e., pseudo-first order conditions.

- Unfortunately, much like in orgo, very few cases are at these extremes and we can have hybrids called. . .

3. Interchange mechanisms.

- See the related discussion in Labalme (2021).
- Within this category, we can have  $I_a$  (associative interchange) and  $I_d$  (dissociative interchange).
- In the transition state, we have L' coming in and L leaving at the same time.

- Kinetics and rates of these mechanisms.

- Several categories (measure with water exchange rates; see Labalme (2021)):

- I) Very fast.

- Alkali metals (species that primarily engage in ionic bonding; little covalent character).
- $10^8 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ; close to the diffusion limit.

- II) Fast.

- Higher valent ions; often  $\text{M}^{3+}$  such as  $\text{Al}^{3+}$ .
  - Higher charge  $\Rightarrow$  higher ligand affinity  $\Rightarrow$  slightly slower but still pretty fast.
- $10^3$ - $10^8 \text{ s}^{-1}$ .

- III) Slower.

- Getting into the transition metals:  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$ ,  $\text{V}^{3+}$ ,  $\text{Ti}^{3+}$ .
  - $d$ -orbital splitting + covalency  $\Rightarrow$  stronger bonding  $\Rightarrow$  slower exchange rate.
- $10^1$ - $10^4 \text{ s}^{-1}$ .

- IV) Inert.

- $\text{Co}^{3+}$ ,  $\text{Cr}^{3+}$ ,  $\text{Pt}^{2+}$ , and  $\text{Fe}^{2+}(\text{L.S.})$ .
- $10^{-8}$ - $10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$ .

- The overlap between the rates reflects the fact that there is no hard and fast cut off between categories.

- The identity of L' also influences rates.

- Reaction rates increase with the ligand field strength of L'<sup>[1]</sup>.

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<sup>1</sup>Goes over Table IX.1 from Labalme (2021).

- Characteristics of the metal that control the observed rates.
  - Ranking L.S. metal centers (slowest to fastest):  $\text{Co}^{\text{III}} < \text{Cr}^{\text{III}} < \text{Mn}^{\text{III}} < \text{Fe}^{\text{III}} < \text{Ti}^{\text{III}} < \text{V}^{\text{III}}$ .
  - Considering the  $d$  counts, we have  $d^6 < d^3 < d^4 < d^5 < d^1 < d^2$ .
  - Now think of this in terms of the  $d$ -orbitals splitting diagram (Figure 1.7b).
    - As the antibonding orbitals get filled,  $\sigma$  bonds will weaken, promoting a faster exchange.
    - Full and half-full  $t_{2g}$  also provides stability.
- Thus, we list the following configurations as inert and labile (see the related discussion in Labalme (2021)):
  - Inert:  $d^3$ , L.S.  $d^{4,5,6}$ , and square planar  $d^8$ .
  - Labile:  $d^0$ ,  $d^1$ ,  $d^2$ , H.S.  $d^{4,5,6}$ ,  $d^7$ ,  $d^9$ ,  $d^{10}$ .
- Other important kinetic factors:
  1. Oxidation state.
    - As oxidation state increases, exchange rate decreases (becomes more inert).
  2. Size.
    - Smaller ions are more inert.
    - However, first row ions are almost always labile (because they more readily populate higher spin states).
  3. Chelate effect.
    - Reviews some info from Labalme (2021).
    - Chelating ligands form a ring or a **metallacycle** (this is why 4,5-membered ligands are stable; because 5,6-membered rings are favorable).
    - Binding of a chelating ligand is typically favored, primarily due to entropic reasons (effective concentration is secondary).
    - Example: Gives actual  $\Delta G = \Delta H - T\Delta S$  thermodynamic data for the formation reaction of  $\text{Cu}(\text{MeNH}_2)_4^{2+}$  vs.  $\text{Cu}(\text{en})_2^{2+}$  to emphasize the importance of entropy (see the related discussion in the notes on Chapter 10 in Labalme (2021)).
    - EDTA is a hexadentate ligand that is commonly used in biology to pull all metal centers out of solution.
      - For  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$  for example,  $K_f = 10^{25} \text{ mol}^{-1}$ . What is  $\text{mol}^{-1}$  and why is it here?
      - Siderophores and eubacterin are biology's own chelators ( $K_f = 10^{52} \text{ mol}^{-1}$ ).
      - These chelators involved because if bacteria are going to invade a host, they need to scavenge iron, but iron is pretty tightly regulated. Thus, there has been an arms race of molecules that can scavenge iron or prevent iron from being scavenged.
    - Chelation therapy: If exposed to a heavy metal, you will be given chelating agents that will bind to metal ions and cause them to be excreted from the body.
  4. Trans effect.
    - Reviews some info from Labalme (2021).
    - Helps predict the **regiochemistry** of where a given ligand will substitute.
    - Cis-platin reaction mechanism:  $\text{cis-Pt}(\text{NH}_3)_2(\text{Cl})_2 \longrightarrow \text{cis-Pt}(\text{NH}_3)_2(\text{H}_2\text{O})_2$  in the body, which binds to DNA on the *cis*-water side, causing a kink, stopping transcription, and initiating apoptosis.
      - Cis-platin is quite toxic (people are trying to develop formulations that are less so), but highly effective at stopping cancer.
      - Can't have *trans* because it doesn't have the *cis*-water side. Thus, this synthesis mechanism doesn't work:  $[\text{PtCl}_4]^{2-} \xrightarrow{2\text{NH}_3} \text{trans-Pt}(\text{NH}_3)_2\text{Cl}_2$ .

- Therefore, we synthesize it as follows.

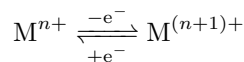


- Note that we start from tetrachloroplatinate because it is the most common form of platinum.
- Also note that XS stands for “excess.”
- Trans-effect order listed.
- The trans-effect is kinetic; concerned with rates of exchange.
  - Stronger *trans*-directors **labelize** the ligands opposite them.
- The trans influence is thermodynamic.
  - It influences the ground state structure, causing lengthening of bonds *trans* to a strong-field ligand (think of this in terms of competition for electrons on the central atom; a strong-field ligand will attract more of these, making the other bond weaker).
- Note that intramolecular reactions (such as a second binding of a bidentate chelating ligand) are highly favored.

## 2.2 Lecture 5: Electron Transfer Reactions

- 4/7:
- More unique to inorganic chemistry since metal atoms have access to many more electrons than common organic atoms.

- General form:



- The forward reaction is known as **oxidation** (metal oxidation state increases), while the reverse is known as **reduction** (metal oxidation state decreases).
- This is different than the oxidation/reduction reactions of organic chemistry, which involve removing or adding, respectively, a hydrogen.
- This redox chemistry is important because many transition metals have access to multiple oxidation states.
- Two Nobel prizes in this area:
  - Henry Taube (1983): Electron transfer in metals.
  - Rudy Marcus (1992): Marcus theory of electron transfer.
- 2 general flavors of electron transfer reactions: **inner sphere** and **outer sphere**.
- **Inner sphere**: Bonds are formed.
- **Outer sphere**: No bonds are formed.
- Example:
  - Consider the reaction  $\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6^{4-} + \text{Mo}(\text{CN})_8^{3-} \longrightarrow \text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6^{3-} + \text{Mo}(\text{CN})_8^{4-}$  (electron transfer from iron to molybdenum).
  - The energies at play:  $\text{A}^{(n+1)} + \text{B}^n \longrightarrow [\text{A}^{(n+1)} + \text{B}^n] \longrightarrow [\text{A}^n + \text{B}^{(n+1)}]^* \longrightarrow \text{A}^n + \text{B}^{(n+1)}$ .
  - Reactants  $\rightarrow$  encounter complex  $\rightarrow$  electron transfer state (an excited state)  $\rightarrow$  products.

- Energies:



Figure 2.1: Electron transfer reaction energies.

## 1. Thermodynamic:

- The difference in the potentials of  $A^{n+1}$  and  $A^n$ , and  $B^{n+1}$  and  $B^n$ .
  - These can be measured electrochemically.
  - We can measure the electrochemical driving force for these processes (i.e., the change in free energy during the reaction) with cyclic voltammetry.
- In a cyclic voltammetry experiment...
  - As we increase the potential to the point where the redox reaction will occur, we will see an increase as oxidation occurs.
  - Then as we decrease the potential again to where the redox reaction will occur in the reverse direction, we will see a decrease as reduction occurs.
- The midpoint  $E_{1/2}$  is the thermodynamic potential (where redox is at equilibrium and you have equal amounts of both species). Is this  $\Delta G$ ? What is going on here? Why are the equilibria misaligned?

## 2. Kinetics:

- $\Delta G = E_{1/2A} - E_{1/2B}$  where  $E_{1/2X}$  is the thermodynamic potential of substance X.
  - $\Delta G$  is the thermodynamic contribution.
- $\Delta G^\ddagger$  is the kinetic barrier, or activation energy.

- The role of  $\Delta G^\ddagger$  in an electron transfer.

- Electrons move very quickly and are highly delocalized with respect to the nuclei, so what dictates kinetics in these processes is nuclear motion (recall reorganization energy).
- In a simplistic sense, the key is the  $[A^n + B^{(n+1)}]^*$  encounter complex.
- Electron transfer changes bond length.
  - There is a kinetic barrier to the electron transfer because the thermodynamic energy is based on minimizing the energy in the reduced and oxidized forms.
- Bond lengths change upon redox, so the solvent and counteranions have to reorganize.
- This **reorganization energy** leads to a kinetic barrier (i.e.,  $\Delta G^\ddagger$ ).
- You can see evidence of the reorganization energy in Figure 2.1a.
  - You must go past the thermodynamic potential to observe the maximum/minimum current and attain complete oxidation/reduction.

- Measuring the reorganization energy.
  - We do a self-exchange reaction with radiolabeled metal centers (see Labalme (2021)).
  - Think of the energy scale on Figure IX.1 in Labalme (2021)) as discrete. To get over  $\Delta G^\ddagger$ , we must change vibrational states.
    - Indeed, the short- and long-bond iron complexes have two vibrational states, but their combined transition state with medium bonds has a new vibrational state.
  - With electronic coupling, the two parabolas split into an upper loop and a lower loop with a bump.
  - To treat this, we use the equation  $\Delta G^\ddagger = \Delta G_t^\ddagger + \Delta G_v^\ddagger + \Delta G_0^\ddagger$ .
    - $\Delta G_t^\ddagger$  is the translational energy, which is moving the two species together.
    - $\Delta G_v^\ddagger$  is vibrational, which is concerned with the bond lengths of the irons' matching structures.
    - $\Delta G_0^\ddagger$  is the solvent, dipole, counterion, etc. This can be large (so one of the greatest contributors is the environment in which the system lies).
- Example:
  - $\text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_6^{2+} / \text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_6^{3+}$  is H.S.  $d^7$  / L.S.  $d^6$ .
  - Self-exchange is slow because nuclear reorganization is large (0.2 Å difference in bond length, which is significant).
    - Note that this arises from the different electronic configurations.
  - The ion is getting smaller *and* going low-spin during reorganization.
- Another example:
  - $\text{Ru}(\text{NH}_3)_6^{2+} / \text{Ru}(\text{NH}_3)_6^{3+}$ .
  - $k_{\text{exch}}$  is eight orders of magnitude faster than the previous example.
  - This is because ruthenium is low-spin throughout ( $\Delta(\text{Ru}-\text{N}) \approx 0.04 \text{ Å}$  which is much smaller, so there is a smaller reorganization energy).
- Key take aways:
  - Electrons move fast, so what actually induces a kinetic barrier is the movement of the nuclei which have to reorganize in order to accommodate the electron popping between the two atoms.
  - Can be accelerated by electron coupling, as in inner sphere mechanisms.
- Inner sphere electron transfer: Some bonds are involved in the electron transfer.
  - Accelerated by electron coupling, but hindered by greater nuclear reorganization energy (a bridging bond must be formed).
- Example:
  - Consider the reaction
 
$$\text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_5\text{Cl}^{2+} + \text{Cr}(\text{H}_2\text{O})_5^{2+} \longrightarrow \text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_5^{2+} + \text{Cr}(\text{H}_2\text{O})_5\text{Cl}^{2+}$$

$$\xrightarrow{\text{H}_2\text{O}} \text{Co}(\text{H}_2\text{O})_6^{2+} + \text{Cr}(\text{H}_2\text{O})_5\text{Cl}^{2+}$$
  - The intermediates are  $[(\text{H}_3\text{N})_5\text{Co}^{\text{III}}-\text{Cl}-\text{Cr}^{\text{II}}(\text{OH}_2)_5]^{4+} \longrightarrow [(\text{H}_3\text{N})_5\text{Co}^{\text{II}}-\text{Cl}-\text{Cr}^{\text{III}}(\text{OH}_2)_5]^{4+}$ .
  - The rate is reasonably fast ( $6 \times 10^5 \text{ mol}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ).
  - How does this vary as a function of  $\text{X}^-$ ?
    - As ligand size (more diffuse; better at bridging) and charge (more electrostatic influences) increase, so does rate ( $\text{Br}^- > \text{Cl}^- > \text{F}^- > \text{H}_2\text{O} > \text{NH}_3$ ).

- Inner-sphere electron transfer: Mixed valency.
- Consider the Creutz-Taube ion.

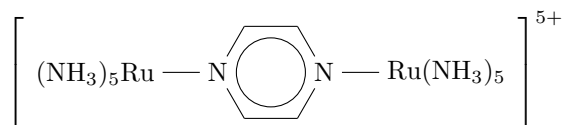


Figure 2.2: The Creutz-Taube ion.

- The bridging ligand is a pyrazole.
- The electron transfer is very fast; thus, the oxidation state is approximately  $\text{Ru}_2^{2.5}$ .
- Such electron transfers are measured with Near-IR spectroscopy, which can see inter-valence charge transfer bands (IVCT), which include bonds.
  - This very low energy form of spectroscopy observes the energy that it takes to excite an electron between the two ruthenium centers.
- Robin-Day classification:
  - Completely localized.
    - Regardless of the spectroscopic technique used, a difference between  $\text{Ru}^{\text{II}}$  and  $\text{Ru}^{\text{III}}$  can be observed.
  - Evidence of some delocalization.
    - Most common.
  - Completely delocalized.
- If you go fast enough (ultrafast spectroscopy; femtosecond lasers), almost any system looks localized.
- Marcus theory:
  - Built off of the Bell-Evans-Polanyi Relationship.
  - See Figure IX.2 and the related discussion in Labalme (2021).
  - Two big insights:
    - When  $\Delta G = -\lambda$ ,  $\Delta G^\ddagger = 0$ .
    - When  $\Delta G < -\lambda$ ,  $\Delta G^\ddagger > 0$ .
  - The case where  $\Delta G^\circ < -\lambda$  is called the **Marcus inverted region**.
  - **Marcus equation:**

$$k_{\text{ET}} = \nu_N k_e e^{-\Delta G^\ddagger / RT}$$

where  $\nu_N$  is the nuclear frequency (how accessible vibrational excited states are; related to the width of the parabolas in Figure IX.2 of Labalme (2021)) and  $k_e$  is the electronic factor (related to overlap, probability of transfer, etc.; usually set to 1).

- More importantly, Marcus discovered that

$$\Delta G^\ddagger = \frac{(\lambda + \Delta G)^2}{4\lambda}$$

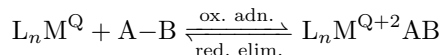
which implies that as  $\lambda \rightarrow -\Delta G$ ,  $\Delta G^\ddagger \rightarrow 0$ . Furthermore, as  $\lambda$  passes  $-\Delta G$ ,  $\Delta G^\ddagger$  increases.

- This has important implications in biology, catalysis, etc. For example, if you want to slow down an undesirable side reaction and speed up your main reaction, provide more driving force. This accelerates your main reaction and moves your side reaction into the inverted region.

## 2.3 Lecture 6: Oxidative Addition and Reductive Elimination

- 4/9: • Even further detached from organic chemistry (but scientists are looking for this reactivity in phosphorous and other *p*-block main group elements).

- General form:



- Changes at the metal center during these two reactions (generically).
  - Oxidative addition: Oxidation state, electron count, and coordination number increase by 2.
  - Vice versa for reductive elimination.
- Some notes on this reactivity:
  1. Concerted reductive elimination must occur from a *cis*-arrangement of ligands.
    - Not true if it's stepwise.
  2. Reductive elimination is favored by bulky ligands.
    - Naturally: The more sterically crowded it is, the faster it will want to go.
  3. Reductive elimination is disfavored for early metals.
    - Since the early metals are very electropositive and don't want to access their lower oxidation states.
  4.  $H^-$  as a reductive-elimination ligand is faster than other ligands.
    - Due to it's spherically symmetric electron density.
    - Hydrides kinetically (not thermodynamically) tend to react faster.
  5. Oxidative addition can occur to give *cis* or *trans* products.
    - The relative distribution of the stereochemistries gives us mechanistic information.
- Classic studies: On Vaska's complex.

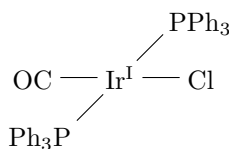


Figure 2.3: Vaska's complex.

- Characteristics of the reactant:  $d^8$ ,  $16e^-$ , canary yellow color.
- Characteristics of the product (after reacting with MeI,  $H_2$ , or  $O_2$ ):  $d^6$ ,  $18e^-$ .
- MeI bonds *trans*,  $H_2$  bonds *cis*, and  $O_2$  forms a peroxide.
- $Ir^{III}$  is inert, so we observe the kinetic products. These give us mechanistic information.
- Mechanistics can vary from  $S_N2$ , to radical, to concerted, and so on.
  - Classifying this reaction can get blurry. For instance, is  $M^Q + H^+ \longrightarrow M^{Q+2}-H^+$  an oxidative addition?
- Types of mechanisms:



## 1. Concerted.



Figure 2.4: The concerted mechanism for oxidative addition.

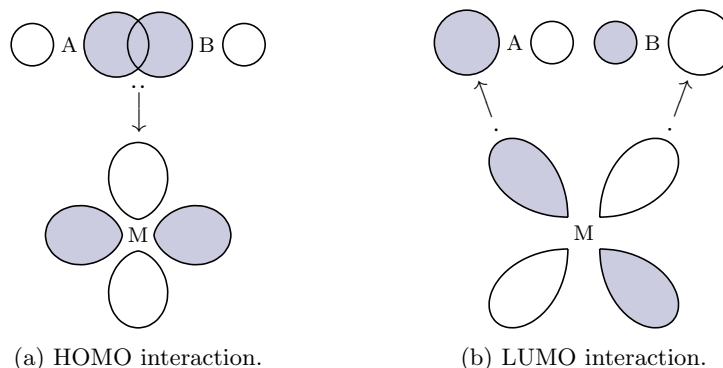


Figure 2.5: Orbital interactions in concerted oxidative addition.

- *cis* products.
  - If you see a *trans* product, this is not the mechanism.
- HOMO interaction: The A–B  $\sigma$ -bonding orbital donates to an empty metal  $d_{x^2-y^2}$ -symmetry orbital.
- LUMO interaction: The metal  $d_{xy}$  orbital backbonds into the A–B  $\sigma^*$  antibonding orbital. It is these electrons that depopulate the  $\sigma$  bond and allow the A–B bond to split.

2.  $S_N2$ .

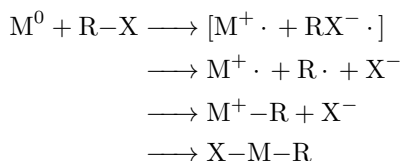
- *cis* or *trans*; no clear preference.
- One signature of this reactivity is a steric preference where primary > secondary > tertiary.
  - Some of the trends of organic reactions can appear in inorganic reactions!

## 3. Radical chain.



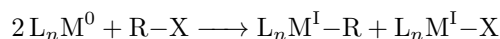
- We begin with a metal and an initiator (denoted In).
  - These react to form the adduct  $\text{MIn} \cdot$ , which is a radical.
  - This radical grabs an X from  $\text{R}-\text{X}$  to form  $\text{InM}-\text{X}$  (this product is worthless and the final step of initiation). A  $\text{R} \cdot$  is also generated in this step (this is the radical to be propagated).
  - The  $\text{R} \cdot$  reacts with another equivalent of the metal to create an  $\text{R}-\text{M} \cdot$  radical which can then grab a halide, generating an  $\text{R}-\text{M}-\text{X}$  and an  $\text{R} \cdot$ , the former of which is the desired product and the latter of which can continue propagating.
- Pretty common.

## 4. Electron transfer.

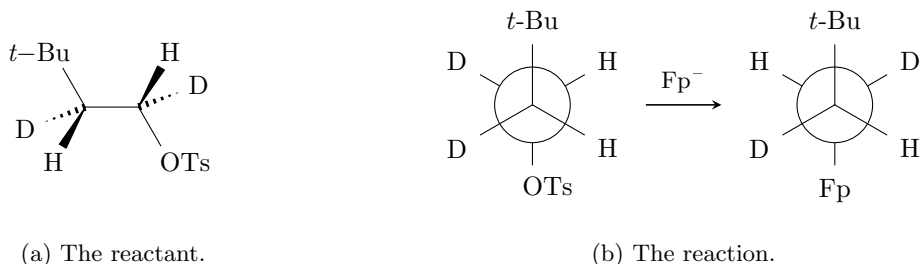


- Related to  $S_N2$  again.
- This is not a radical chain process (no propagation); it's just an electron transfer followed by fragmentation and recombination.
- Jack Halpern of UChicago writes Chock and Halpern (1966).
  - Studies  $L_2IrClCo \xrightarrow{MeX} L_2IrClCoMeX$ , specifically the reaction rates as a function of X.
  - Determines that  $I^- > Br^- \gg Cl^-$ , and that  $Rate = k[CH_3X][Ir]$ .
  - $\Delta S^\ddagger = -43$  e.u. (where an e.u. is an entropy unit).
  - Solvent effects are also consistent with an ionic mechanism.
  - There is a 5-coordinate intermediate, and the two new ligands end up adding *trans*.
  - If you use EtI, this reaction proceeds through a radical mechanism.
    - You have mechanistic switching based on the identity of the substrate.

## • Bimolecular oxidative addition:



- Jack Halpern again writes Halpern and Maher (1965).
  - Studies the reaction  $2 Co^{II}(CN)_5^{3-} + MeI \longrightarrow Co^{III}(CN)_5Me^{3-} + Co^{III}(CN)_5I^{3-}$ .
  - Follows some transition metal trends:
    - Heavier metals (such as iridium above) do 2-electron chemistry.
    - Lighter metals (such as this one) do 1-electron chemistry.
  - We can also see radical-type reactivity.
- Another parallel example:  $2 L_n M + 2 RX \longrightarrow 2 L_n M-X + R-R$ .
  - For example,  $Cp_2^*Yb(OEt_2) + CH_2Cl_2 \longrightarrow 2 Cp_2^*Yb-Cl + ClCH_2-CH_2Cl$ .
  - This can also occur through a radical mechanism. We form an  $R \cdot$  radical that can recombine to form  $R-R$  or make  $M-R$ .
- Stereochemistry of  $S_N2$  type reactivity.
- George Whitesides writes Bock et al. (1974).

Figure 2.6:  $S_N2$  stereochemistry.

- Observes inversion (by looking at  $J_{\text{H-H}}$  coupling by NMR) of H and D at a single stereocenter.
- React the compound in Figure 2.6a with a  $\text{Fp}^-$  fragment.
- Observe inversion, as in Figure 2.6b, so it's  $\text{S}_{\text{N}}2$ .

• Another synthesis:



Figure 2.7: An additional way of probing  $\text{S}_{\text{N}}2$  addition/elimination.

- This one shows us that palladium causes an inversion once again, but reductive elimination does not.
- Radical mechanisms.
- We probe these with **radical clocks**.
  - The unzipping of the methylcyclopropane radical ring happens so fast that it will necessarily be faster than any recombination with  $\text{M-Cl}$ .
  - Since iodides are easier to reduce than bromides, bromomethylcyclopropane will react in a straightforward manner with  $\text{Fp}^-$ , but iodomethylcyclopropane and  $\text{Fp}^-$  will pursue a radical mechanism to a competitive degree. Why does the reduction potential of iodides and bromides matter?
- **Radical clock:** A reagent such that if a radical is generated on it, it will undergo a rapid isomerization or redistribution to generate different product(s).
- A few notes.
1. Similar rules to those in orgo apply.
    - For example,  $\text{I}^-$  is a better leaving group than  $\text{Cl}^-$ .
    - However, there are exceptions, too:  $\text{CN}$  is a terrible leaving group in inorganic chemistry, whereas you can sometimes kick it out in orgo.
  2. Sterics matter.
    - Oxidative addition is slower for sterically encumbered substrates.
    - If you want to favor a radical reaction over a concerted or nucleophilic mechanism, make the compound bulky. This will disfavor the two undesired mechanisms but not an electron transfer step.
  3. First row metals will be faster than second and third row metals.
    - This is because they're much more reactive. However, they will also go down competitive side paths more readily (can be good or bad).
    - Because of this, second and third row metals are more often used. Plus, you can just heat them up a bit to speed up the reaction.