

Coordination chemistry, and catalytic conversions, of H₂S

Brian R. James

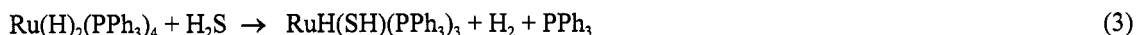
Department of Chemistry, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, British Columbia, V6T 1Z1

Abstract: Some reactions of H₂S with solutions of Pd- and Ru-phosphine complexes are described. The Pd systems involve sulfur abstraction and generation of H₂, catalytic conversions of H₂S to H₂, and attempts to catalyse the (H₂S → H₂ + 'S') reaction. The Ru studies have led to crystallographic characterisation of a reversibly formed H₂S complex, as well as more familiar oxidative addition-type chemistry of H₂S. This lecture/review naturally emphasises work carried out at this University (UBC).

INTRODUCTION

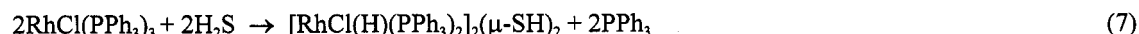
Research into the interaction of H₂S with transition metal complexes in solution is generally not well developed, despite the relevance of such chemistry in the biological sulfur cycle, in the formation of ores, in hydrodesulfurisation (HDS) catalysis, and in the conversion of H₂S to a source of H₂ and elemental sulfur (or organosulfur compounds). Literature dealing with these topics is plentiful and can be traced through refs. 1–6.

My research group became interested in transition metal-H₂S chemistry during studies on the use of the well known dinuclear complexes Pd₂X₂(μ-dpm)₂ (X = halogen, dpm = Ph₂PCH₂PPh₂) for the separation of syngas components by efficient reversible binding of the CO (ref. 7); tests were made for reactivity toward the possible contaminant H₂S, and we discovered serendipitously the solution reaction (1) [see also reaction (8)], which shows quantitative reduction of H₂S to H₂ and a bridged-sulfide within the well known, A-frame type complex (ref. 8).



Reaction (1) was the first to demonstrate (in 1985) the 1:1 H₂S:H₂ stoichiometry at a metal centre, although reaction (2) had been invoked earlier to account for the filling of vacant anionic sites by sulfur in WS₂ lattices (ref. 9). In earlier work also, the H₂ produced in reaction (3) was a consequence of the hydride content of the reactant complex (ref. 10), while detection of some H₂ during decomposition of [Ru(NH₃)₅(SH₂)]²⁺ had been tentatively attributed to reaction (4) (ref. 11). Since 1985, there have been several more reports of H₂ generation from H₂S with concomitant formation of bridged- or terminal-sulfide species: e.g. via H₂S reaction with carbonyl complexes of metallocenes of Ti and Zr (ref. 12), W-phosphine complexes (ref. 13), and homo- and heterobimetallic complexes of Ir, Rh, and Re containing μ-dpm ligands (ref. 2).

As we shall see later, reactions that generate H₂ from H₂S involve oxidative addition to give hydrido(mercapto) intermediates, and 'simple' examples of such chemistry have been known since the mid-1960s, e.g. reaction (5) (ref. 14), and reactions (6) and (7) (ref. 15).



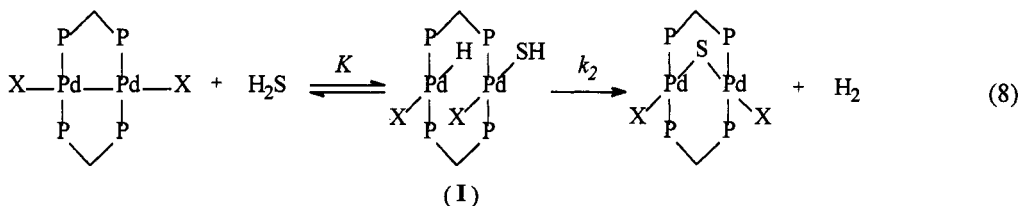
Attempts to isolate and characterise a metal complex containing H₂S itself (a likely, but presumably not essential, species en route to oxidative addition) have been and remain a considerable challenge and, to my

knowledge, only two such crystallographically characterised complexes have been reported, both recently (refs. 5, 16; see below).

PALLADIUM SYSTEMS

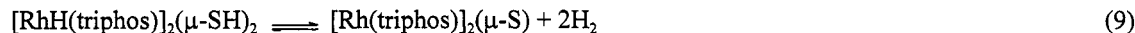
Reactions of $\text{Pd}_2\text{X}_2(\mu\text{-dpm})_2$ with H_2S

Detailed kinetic and spectroscopic studies (refs. 17, 18) on the non-reversible reaction (1) in CH_2Cl_2 from -15 to 25°C led to the overall mechanism shown below in (8). The dinuclear hydrido(mercapto) intermediate (I) was detected at low temperature for each of the $\text{X} = \text{Cl}, \text{Br}, \text{I}$, systems by ^1H and $^{31}\text{P}\{^1\text{H}\}$



NMR spectroscopy. The general rate-law for such systems corresponds to typical saturation kinetics with a rate $= k_2 K [\text{Pd}]_{\text{total}} [\text{H}_2\text{S}] / (1 + K[\text{H}_2\text{S}])$, the dependence on $[\text{H}_2\text{S}]$ going from first- to zero-order with increasing $[\text{H}_2\text{S}]$; standard (Lineweaver-Burk) double reciprocal plots allow for estimation of k_2 and K . Qualitatively the rates measured at ambient conditions decrease in the order $\text{X} = \text{Cl} > \text{Br} > \text{I}$. For the Cl system, both thermodynamic and activation parameters were determined (for K , $\Delta H^\circ = -20 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ and $\Delta S^\circ = -68 \text{ J K}^{-1} \text{ mol}^{-1}$; for k_2 , $\Delta H^\ddagger = 61 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ and $\Delta S^\ddagger = -63 \text{ J K}^{-1} \text{ mol}^{-1}$); extrapolation of the kinetically determined K values to -78°C gave $K = 53 \text{ M}^{-1}$, while an experimental value determined by NMR at this temperature was 48 M^{-1} , remarkably good agreement and offering strong support for the proposed mechanism. For the $\text{X} = \text{Br}$ system, the K value is significantly smaller, such that the kinetics unfortunately remain first-order in $[\text{H}_2\text{S}]$ even at the highest $[\text{H}_2\text{S}]$ used (0.5 M), and only the combined constant $k_2 K$ can be determined for which $\Delta H^\ddagger_{\text{obs}} = 56 \text{ kJ}$ and $\Delta S^\ddagger_{\text{obs}} = -115 \text{ J K}^{-1}$ (where $\Delta H^\ddagger_{\text{obs}} = \Delta H^\circ + \Delta H^\ddagger$, and $\Delta S^\ddagger_{\text{obs}} = \Delta S^\circ + \Delta S^\ddagger$). One rationale for the data is that the Pd-H and Pd-SH bonds are weaker when trans to Br (vs. Cl), this resulting in a less exothermic ΔH° value and a less favourable contribution for the overall forward reaction. Attempts to extend the quantitative studies to the $\text{X} = \text{I}$ system were thwarted by its photosensitivity.

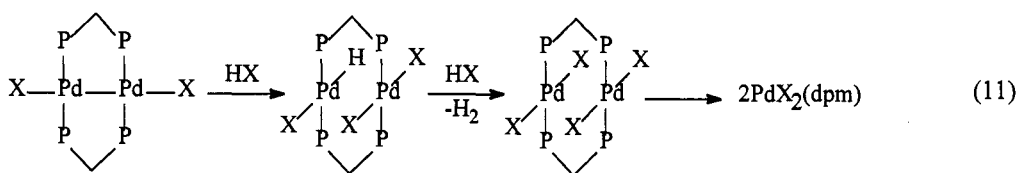
Generation of the bridged-sulfide product and H_2 via I is envisaged as deprotonation of coordinated SH⁻ with subsequent protonation of the coordinated hydride. The chemistry has analogies, for example, in H_2S reactivity at a Pt(111) surface (ref. 19) and addition of H_2S to $\text{Pt}_3(\mu_3\text{-CO})(\mu\text{-dpm})_3^{2+}$ (ref. 20), while reaction (9) (ref. 21, triphos = $\text{MeC}(\text{CH}_2\text{PPh}_2)_3$) and reaction (10) (ref. 13) provide direct evidence for production of H_2 from coordinated H⁻ and SH⁻.



Reactions of $\text{Pd}_2\text{Cl}_2(\mu\text{-dpm})_2$ with H_2X ($\text{X} = \text{Se}, \text{Te}, \text{O}$) and HX ($\text{X} = \text{Cl}, \text{Br}$)

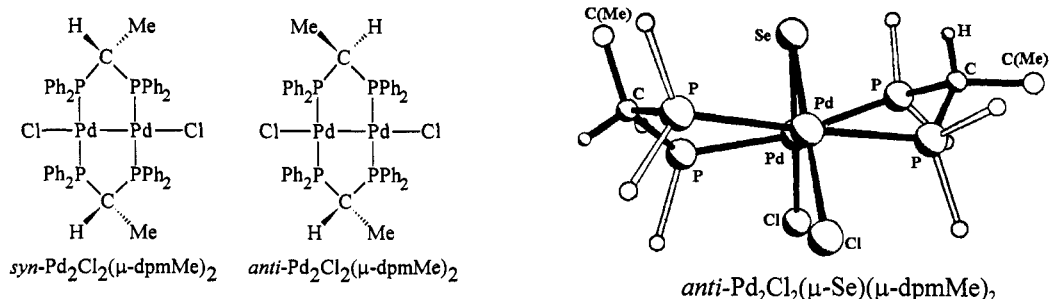
Solutions of $\text{Pd}_2\text{Cl}_2(\mu\text{-dpm})_2$ react also with H_2Se (refs. 22, 23) and H_2Te (ref. 24) with formation of the bridged-chalcogenide and liberation of H_2 (cf. reaction (1)), although there is accompanying replacement of one or both of the chloride ligands, for example, by SeH^- , this presumably being related to the higher acidity of H_2Se compared to that of H_2S . $\text{Pd}_2\text{Cl}_2(\mu\text{-dpm})_2$ in $\text{CH}_2\text{Cl}_2/\text{MeOH}$ also reacts with H_2O to give a complex mixture of products, but the $\mu\text{-oxo}$ species $\text{Pd}_2\text{Cl}_2(\mu\text{-O})(\mu\text{-dpm})_2$ may well be formed initially (ref. 22); in related chemistry, reaction of H_2O with a zirconocene species gives a $\mu\text{-oxo}$ derivative with H_2 evolution, and the suggested mechanism involves oxidative addition of H_2O and a subsequent proton transfer (ref. 25) (cf. eq. (8)).

Reactions of $\text{Pd}_2\text{X}_2(\mu\text{-dpm})_2$ species with HX ($\text{X} = \text{Cl}, \text{Br}$) in CH_2Cl_2 generate H_2 , and these also proceed via initial oxidative addition with subsequent protonation of the coordinated hydride as shown in eq. 11 (ref. 26); both intermediate species were detected spectroscopically (refs. 26, 27).



Related chemistry using Pd₂ dimers containing μ-dpmMe (dpmMe = methylated dpm ; i.e. 1,1-bis(diphenylphosphino)ethane)

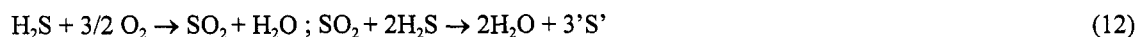
We initially used dpmMe with the aim of modelling a supported -CH₂CH(PPh₂)₂ group for immobilizing Pd₂X₂(μ-dpm)₂-type moieties for use in separation of gases, and we synthesised the mixed (μ-dpm)(μ-dpmMe) complex and the *syn*- and *anti*-isomers of the bis(μ-dpmMe) complex (refs. 28, 29) [*syn* and *anti* refer to the disposition of the Me groups with respect to the Pd-C-Pd plane - see below]. Reactivity of solutions of the complexes toward H₂S and H₂Se (and CO which gives the corresponding μ-CO product)



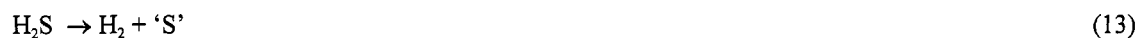
decreases in the order: Pd₂Cl₂(μ-dpm)₂ > Pd₂Cl₂(μ-dpm)(μ-dpmMe) > *syn*-Pd₂Cl₂(μ-dpmMe)₂ >> *anti*-Pd₂Cl₂(μ-dpmMe)₂, and this is attributed to steric effects within the corresponding A-frame products (cf. eq. (1)) (refs. 8, 23, 28, 29). In the *anti*-form of the reactant complex, the Me groups occupy the less sterically crowded pseudoequatorial positions of the fused five-membered chelate rings that are both in a chair conformation, while the A-frame products adopt boat conformations for both rings and one Me group will be inside a boat, a sterically unfavoured location; nevertheless, such A-frame adducts do exist as demonstrated by the synthesis of *anti*-Pd₂Cl₂(μ-Se)(μ-dpmMe)₂ (see above), prepared directly from *anti*-Pd₂Cl₂(μ-dpmMe)₂ and elemental Se (ref. 23).

Catalytic conversions of H₂S to H₂

The recovery of H₂ from H₂S (especially from anthropogenic sources) within a catalytic process is attractive. The two main industrial sources of the obnoxious and poisonous pollutant are from the Kraft wood pulping process (ref. 30), in which the H₂S is recycled as NaSH required in a 'cooking' step, and from HDS in the refinement of petroleum (refs. 9, 31), where the H₂S is usually oxidised to elemental sulfur ('S' = 1/8 S₈), via the 'two-stage' Claus process (see (12), ref. 32); in this process, the energy value of the H₂ is lost.

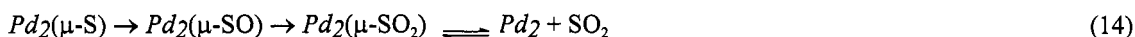


Reaction (13) is thus a preferred process, but is not practical under purely thermal conditions because it is thermodynamically unfavourable (e.g. at 298 K, ΔH° = 20 kJ, ΔS° = -43 J K⁻¹, ref. 33); however, the forward reaction has been accomplished thermally at high temperatures (~ 1000°C), and by various photo-, plasma- and electrochemical-decomposition methods (refs. 34-37).

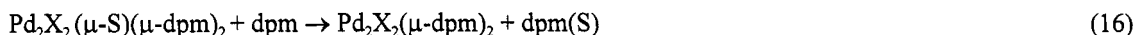


Any catalytic process based on the chemistry of reaction (1) requires removal of the bridged-S and regeneration of the Pd₂X₂(μ-PP)₂ species, where PP = dpm or dpmMe. The μ-S species are readily oxidised in solution by H₂O₂ or *m*-chloroperbenzoic acid (but not O₂) to give successively the μ-SO (with unusual pyramidal geometry at the S) and μ-SO₂ derivatives (eq. (14) where Pd₂ = Pd₂X₂(μ-PP)₂, ref. 8), the latter

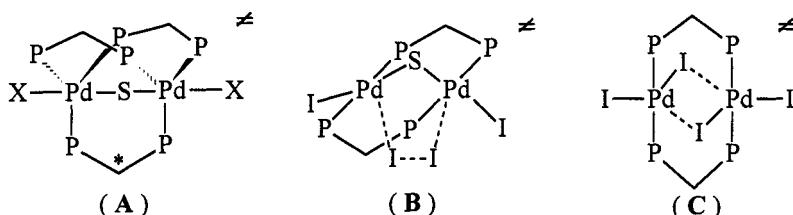
readily losing SO₂ reversibly (ref. 38). Thus a two-stage process effecting catalysis of reaction (15) could be realised.



Of a range of other reagents tested for removal of the μ -S and regeneration of Pd₂X₂(μ -PP)₂ species, only dpm or dpmMe is effective (ref. 1); the sulfur is removed as the monosulfide dpm(S), i.e. Ph₂PCH₂P(S)Ph₂, reaction (16), and thus reaction (17) can be accomplished catalytically using the Pd₂X₂(μ -PP)₂ species.

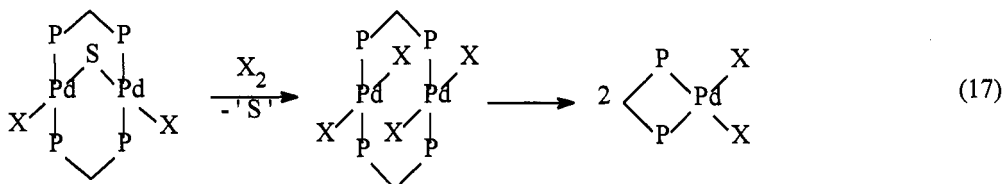


Of note, reaction (17), the reverse of an HDS process, is the first reported homogeneous catalytic process utilising H₂S (ref. 1). Detailed kinetic and mechanistic studies on reaction (16) reveal second-order rate constants, that decrease (from 0.09 to ~ 0.01 M⁻¹ s⁻¹) in the order X = Cl > Br > I. Activation parameters show that the differences in reactivity are reflected mainly in differences in the ΔS^\ddagger values for formation of the suggested 'symmetrical' transition state (A) shown below; this formulation resulted from studies using Ph₂PCD₂PPh₂ and monitoring the product ratios of dpm(S) and d₂-dpm(S) (ref. 1).

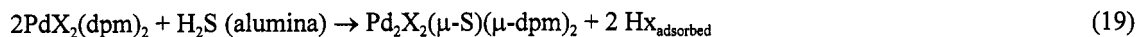


The dpm(S) product, synthesised previously from Ph₃P(S) in a two-stage process (ref. 39), can coordinate at metal centres and form five-membered (P-S) chelate ring systems (ref. 40) and, relevant to the catalytic Pd chemistry, the complexes PdCl₂(dpm(S)) and [Pd(dpm(S))₂]Cl₂ have been characterised crystallographically (ref. 41); during the conditions of the catalysis of reaction (17), however, 'poisoning' of the catalyst by the dpm(S) product only becomes significant at higher conversions and low dpm : dpm(S) ratios (ref. 41).

Of interest, it is possible to remove the μ -S as precipitated elemental sulfur from solutions of Pd₂X₂(μ -S)(μ -dpm)₂ by treatment with X₂ (X = Br, I), the metal-containing co-products now being mononuclear PdX₂(dpm) (ref. 41). The overall process is exemplified in (18) (cf. eq. (11)); the initial second-order process, and subsequent first-order conversion of the tetrahalo species, are readily monitored by stopped-flow techniques. The activation parameters have been determined for the Pd₂I₂(μ -S)(μ -dpm)₂/I₂ system and discussed in terms of mechanisms involving transition states (B) and (C) shown above (ref. 41).



Of note, we have discovered that reaction (19) occurs in the presence of γ -alumina (ref. 41); in the absence of alumina, the mononuclear species reacts with H₂S only in the presence of base to yield Pd₂(SH)₂(μ -S)(μ -dpm)₂ (ref. 8).

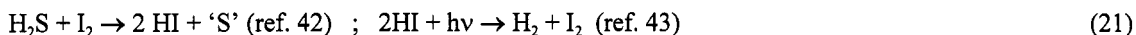


If conditions can be found to give effective photoconversion of, for example, the adsorbed HI (from the X = I system) to give H₂ and I₂, then together with the component equations (18 and 19), the overall net reaction (20) is realised.



An alternative and conceptually more direct approach to effect reaction (20), and considered during the pursuit of the above Pd chemistry following the discovery of reaction (1), is to optimise and 'make

compatible' the known chemistries shown in equation (21), although the HI photochemical reaction has been little studied in solution.

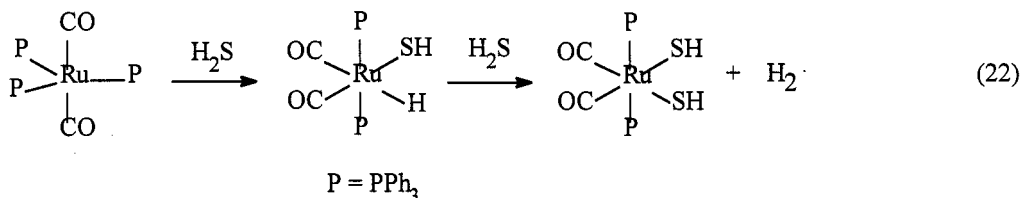


REACTIONS OF RUTHENIUM COMPLEXES WITH H₂S

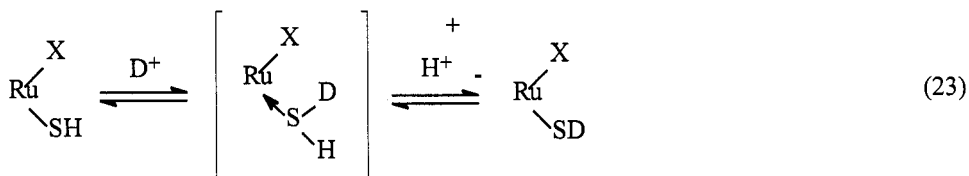
About 10 years ago, we initiated research on the interaction of Ru(0) complexes and/or their dihydride derivatives with a range of S-containing compounds, including H₂S; the choice of Ru was dictated partly by the known, high HDS activity of Ru sulfides (ref. 44), and we were also encouraged by our discovery of the conversion of H₂S to H₂ via the net oxidative addition process at the Pd₂¹ centres discussed above (eq. (1)).

Oxidative addition chemistry

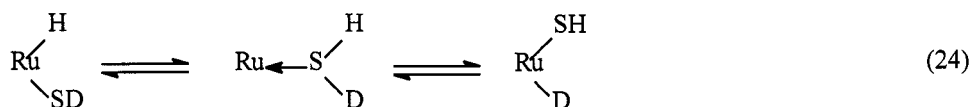
At -35°C, H₂S oxidatively adds to Ru(CO)₂(PPh₃)₃ in solution to give *cis, cis, trans* (*cct*)-RuH(SH)(CO)₂(PPh₃)₂, which can react with further H₂S at ambient temperatures (via a presumed protonation of the coordinated hydride, cf. ref. 10) to generate the structurally characterised *cct*-Ru(SH)₂(CO)₂(PPh₃)₂ species and H₂, eq. (22); the same chemistry ensues using *cct*-Ru(H)₂(CO)₂(PPh₃)₂ as precursor, following initial loss of H₂ (refs. 3, 45, 46).



Similarly, a solution mixture of *cis*- and *trans*-Ru(H)₂(dpm)₂ reacts with H₂S to give solely *trans*-RuH(SH)(dpm)₂, which then reacts more slowly with further H₂S to give *cis*- and *trans*-Ru(SH)₂(dpm)₂ (refs. 3, 47). Kinetic and mechanistic studies on the *cct*-Ru(H)₂(CO)₂(PPh₃)₂ precursor system for its addition reactions in general (including H₂S, thiols, CO and PPh₃) imply that the rate-determining step is the initial dissociation of H₂, while with the reactant Ru(H)₂(dpm)₂ mixture, loss of H₂ follows a initial protonation step that likely gives the [RuH(η²-H₂)(dpm)₂]⁺ intermediate (ref. 47); the differences in mechanisms arise because of the more basic character of the hydrides in Ru(H)₂(dpm)₂ as demonstrated by rapid exchange of the coordinated hydride in these species with CD₃OD. Such exchange is not observed with *cct*-Ru(H)₂(CO)₂(PPh₃)₂ (refs. 3, 47). The mercapto protons of the *cct*-RuX(SH)(CO)₂(PPh₃)₂ species (X = H, SH) also undergo rapid exchange with CD₃OD, and the mechanism suggested is shown in eq. (23); the exchange at the hydride of RuH(SH)(CO)₂(PPh₃)₂ occurs much more slowly than that at the SH moiety,



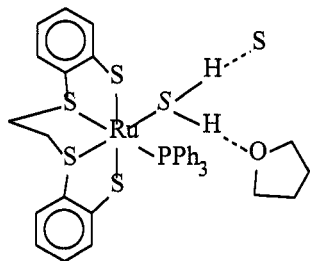
and an intramolecular process, as suggested previously for RuH(SH)(PPh₃)₃ (ref.10), was favoured (eq. (24)) (ref. 3).



Oxidative addition of H₂S at a metal centre is a common reaction (see Introduction and refs. 48-50), but formation of a monomeric mercapto complex is relatively uncommon (refs. 3, 51), in part because of the instability with respect to deprotonation and conversion to μ- or terminal-sulfide species (see above). Other Ru^{II}-hydrido-phosphine complexes reported to react with H₂S yield dimeric products with μ-SH ligands (refs. 51-53).

Ru complexes containing H₂S

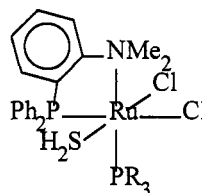
As alluded to in the Introduction, the number of reported, isolated transition metal-H₂S complexes is small, probably about a dozen (refs. 5, 6, 11, 14, 16, 51, 54-58), and in some cases their existence is equivocal (e.g. refs. 55, 56); indeed, only two structurally characterised H₂S complexes exist, both of Ru (refs. 5, 6, 16). The first structure was that reported by Sellmann et al. for the Ru^{II} complex Ru('S₄')(PPh₃)(SH₂)·THF, where 'S₄' = the dianionic, macrocyclic S-ligand, 1,2-bis[(2-mercaptophenyl)thio]ethane (see below); the species was formed by reaction of the [Ru(PPh₃)('S₄')]_x polymer with liquid H₂S at -70°C (refs. 5, 6). The crystal stability results from intermolecular H-bonding involving the THF solvate and strong S-H...S bridging, the solvate-free complex being labile and not characterised crystallographically. At ~20°C, the H₂S reaction gives a mixture of the bridged-sulfide complex [Ru(PPh₃)('S₄')]₂(μ-S₂) and other uncharacterised products. The H₂S complex is stable at ambient conditions in the absence of air, but loses H₂S slowly when stored in vacuo.



Sellmann's complex

(Ru-S = 2.399, av. S-H = 1.20 Å ;

Ru-S-H = 102, 121°)



The Ru(P-N)/H₂S complex

(Ru-S = 2.330, S-H = 1.25 Å ;

Ru-S-H = 124.2°)

Studies at UBC on the design of systems to form η²-H₂ complexes led to isolation of the extremely reactive, five-coordinate species RuCl₂(P-N)(PR₃), where P-N = *o*-diphenylphosphino-N, N-dimethylaniline and R = *p*-tolyl (ref. 59); this complex binds at ambient conditions a range of small molecules including H₂ (as an η²-moiety), N₂, CO, O₂, SO₂, MeOH, MeSH, H₂O (refs. 59, 60) and, of interest here, H₂S (ref. 16). The RuCl₂(P-N)(PR₃)(SH₂) complex (illustrated above) is formed reversibly in solution at ~20°C using 1 atm H₂S, and is isolated as an air-sensitive, yellow material. The crystal structure reveals a partially occupied H₂O site on a two-fold axis, and a THF solvent disordered about a two-fold axis but, in contrast to the Sellmann complex, no 'stabilising' H-bonding interactions to the coordinated H₂S are apparent. The H₂S adduct is also formed quantitatively by reacting the five-coordinate precursor in the solid state with 1 atm H₂S, and under vacuum does not lose H₂S over 24 h at ~20°C. This Ru(P-N) system and Sellmann's complex provide an opportunity to investigate and develop for the first time the chemistry of coordinated H₂S.

Systems that with H₂S give oxidative addition products, such as hydrido(mercapto) species, are sometimes considered to proceed via initial H₂S-adduct formation, whether mono- or dinuclear metal complex precursors are involved (e.g. refs. 2, 14, 17), but no entirely convincing evidence for such a transformation has yet been published.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I thank sincerely: all my co-workers (students, postdoctoral fellows, and faculty colleagues) who have worked on the H₂S and related chemistry over the last 12 years or so - their names appear as co-authors on the relevant publications listed in the references; NSERC of Canada for operating grants, International Scientific Exchange Awards, and predoctoral fellowships; graduate fellowships from UBC, and research fellowships from the Isaak Walton Killam Foundation administered by the Canada Council and UBC; the U. S. Department of Energy (Morgantown Energy Technology Center) for financial support; the University of Fribourg (Switzerland) for a postdoctoral fellowship, and the Hungarian Research Fund.

DEDICATION

The lecture on which this paper was based was dedicated to Professor Colin F. J. Lock, who passed away on May 1, 1996; Colin, who had been Chairman of the 18th ICCS meeting held in Toronto, Canada (1972), was a close friend and the most enjoyable of colleagues. He did solve several structures relevant to the Ru systems discussed here (e.g. ref. 3). I dedicate also this review to him.

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