

**Intramolecular Electron Transfer in an Iridium  $d^8$ - $d^8$   
Donor-Acceptor System**

Thesis by  
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*To Mom, Dad, and Jayne*

**Abstract:** A series of donor-acceptor complexes,  $[\text{Ir}_2(\mu\text{-Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Py}^+\text{-R})_2](\text{Ph}_4\text{B})_2$  ( $\text{Py}^+\text{-R}$  = 2,4,6-trimethylpyridinium, 4-methylpyridinium, pyridinium, and 4-phenylpyridinium;  $\text{Pz}^*$ =3,5-dimethylpyrazole), have been synthesized for studying the rate of photoinduced electron transfer from the metal localized ( $d\sigma^*p\sigma$ ) excited states of  $d^8\text{-}d^8$  chromophores. The pyridinium electron acceptors are covalently attached to the iridium metal centers (donor) via a three atom hydrocarbon linker bound to the terminal phosphine ligands. The x-ray crystallographic structure of  $[\text{Ir}_2(\mu\text{-Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Py}^+)_2](\text{Ph}_4\text{B})_2$  reveals a metal-metal distance of 3.219(1) Å and a solid state donor-acceptor separation of 5.84(1) Å. Additional donor-acceptor separations and orientations are available to the compounds in fluid solution through rotations about the Ir-P and linker group C-O, C-N, and C-C bonds. Steady state emission spectra show that the fluorescence and phosphorescence quantum yields in these compounds are substantially reduced relative to a appropriate model complex. To date the excited state reactivity of  $d^8\text{-}d^8$  metal dimers has been exclusively attributed to their  $^3(d\sigma^*p\sigma)$  states. These findings represent the first evidence for reactivity from a shorter lived  $^1(d\sigma^*p\sigma)$  state.

Picosecond and nanosecond laser flash-photolysis techniques were employed to measure the rates of photoinduced electron transfer and charge recombination in these systems. Values of  $k_{\text{ET}}$ , obtained from these studies, vary between  $10^6 \text{ sec}^{-1}$  and  $10^{12} \text{ sec}^{-1}$  as a function of reaction exoergicity ( $\Delta G^0 = -0.8 \text{ eV}$  to  $1.92 \text{ eV}$ ). Clear evidence for the inverted behavior predicted by classical and semiclassical electron transfer models is seen at high driving force. Rate constants for reactions involving the  $^1(d\sigma^*p\sigma)$  and  $^3(d\sigma^*p\sigma)$  excited states, as well as the rates of charge recombination are characterized by very similar values of  $\lambda$  and  $H_{\text{ab}}$ . Our data are adequately modeled by the classical theory of electron transfer proposed by Marcus ( $\lambda = 1.0 \text{ eV}$ ,  $H_{\text{ab}} = 35 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) or by a semiclassical model for  $k_{\text{ET}}$  where nuclear tunneling involves a low frequency metal-ligand mode ( $\lambda = 1.0 \text{ eV}$ ,  $H_{\text{ab}} = 35 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  $\omega = 400 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ). These findings are

explored with regard to utilizing the donor-acceptor complexes as molecular photochemical energy storage systems.

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**Chapter 1**  
**Introduction**

Electron transfer (ET) is one of Nature's most fundamental chemical reactions. Charge transfer processes are of central importance in a wide number of complex biological and chemical systems that are currently being explored in the scientific community. For example, photosynthesis continues to be an area of interest in chemistry and chemical biology,<sup>1</sup> especially due to the recent crystallographic characterization of the photosynthetic reaction center of *Rhodospseudomonas viridis* by Deisenhofer and coworkers.<sup>1c</sup> Electron-transfer studies concerning model systems<sup>1a</sup> and the reaction center itself<sup>1a,3</sup> have greatly enhanced our understanding of this remarkable photoredox system. Efficient long distance electron-transfer events are also important in the energy storage reactions that take place via the membrane-bound proteins in the mitochondria of cells.<sup>2</sup> Here, electron-transfer reactions, which are coupled to a proton pumping process, produce a membrane potential that is used to synthesize ATP from ADP and inorganic phosphate. Electron transfer is also a fundamental solid state process and an area of significant interest with regard to the renaissance taking place in solid state chemistry.<sup>4</sup> Many of the same fundamental principles that govern electron transfer between molecules must also play a role in the transport of charges through a semiconducting solid. In fact, some of the theories for molecular electron-transfer reactions have been developed by analogy to the theories of small polarons in solid state systems. One area where a fundamental understanding of electron-transfer processes will certainly have an impact in coming years is Scanning Tunneling Microscopy (STM).<sup>5</sup> STM is of intense interest to the physics and chemistry communities, because this technique offers the unique capability of being able to record real time images of surfaces and surface adsorbates with molecular and, in some instances, atomic resolution. Because the STM technique is based on electron tunneling between the tunneling-tip and surface, an understanding of the molecular properties that govern charge-transfer processes will be important for interpreting images of surface-bound molecular species. In addition to being of academic interest, electron-

transfer processes are also important to a number of current and developing commercial technologies. Electron-transfer reactions form the basis of the photographic and xerographic processes.<sup>6</sup> From exposure to development, the transformations required to capture an image on photographic film involve both solid state and molecular redox reactions. Finally, photoinduced and thermal electron-transfer reactions are intimately linked to developing solar energy storage technologies. Recent reports have indicated that solar energy conversion efficiencies as high as 28% can be attained using solid state photoelectrochemical devices.<sup>7</sup> These considerations indicate that detailed studies, concerning the fundamental parameters which control the rates of electron transfer, are certainly warranted.

This thesis deals with the mechanistic aspects of excited state intramolecular electron transfer in an iridium  $d^8$ - $d^8$  A-frame metal complex. A long range goal of our electron-transfer research is to couple photoinduced charge separation to bond forming chemical reactions. Our studies have focused on  $d^8$ - $d^8$  complexes, because they are powerful excited state reductants<sup>21d,22i</sup> and their  $d^8$ - $d^7$  counterparts are reactive toward C-X and C-H bond activation.<sup>24</sup> The following chapter introduces the concepts and terminology surrounding electron transfer and  $d^8$ - $d^8$  compounds that are called upon in later discussions. We first review some of the theoretical models associated with electron-transfer reactions followed by some background information on  $d^8$ - $d^8$  metal dimers and an outline of the objectives of this research program.

***Electron-Transfer Theory:*** Over the past two decades the theoretical models for electron-transfer reactions have played a central role in developing an understanding of these fascinating chemical processes.<sup>8</sup> These models have provided a central framework for designing and interpreting experiments that explore the roles played by various molecular parameters in determining  $k_{et}$ . Because many of the concepts expressed in these theories will be important in later discussions, we will give a brief overview of these concepts and introduce some of the terminology associated with electron-transfer

models. A detailed treatment of these models can be obtained by referring to the review articles and original papers cited at the end of this chapter.

In principle, a redox system must overcome two types of barriers to electron transfer in going from reactants to products. The first of these is related to the energy required to reorganize the reactant bond distances, angles, and solvation environments to a configuration indicative of the transition state. While bonds are neither formed nor broken in an outer-sphere electron-transfer reaction, the bond distances, angles, and solvation environments in the reactants and products are different. Thus, to form the transition state, these degrees of freedom in the donor and acceptor must rearrange to some configuration intermediate between the reactants and the products. This reorganization process assures that energy is conserved in the transition state by equalizing the energy levels of the transferring electron on the donor and acceptor. Once a transition state configuration has been achieved, the system must overcome an electronic barrier to electron transfer imposed by the intervening medium between the donor and acceptor. If the medium between the redox partners is a good electron-transfer mediator, then the electronic barrier is small and electron transfer occurs with near unit efficiency. Conversely, if the intervening medium is an insulator, then electron transfer will be a less probable event. According to the classical, semiclassical, and quantum mechanical theories of electron transfer,  $k_{et}$  for a given reaction can be described by the three kinetic quantities seen in equation 1.1.

$$k_{et} = \nu \kappa (FC) \quad \text{eq. 1.1}$$

Here,  $\nu$  is the frequency of the vibrations that destroy the transition state,  $\kappa$  is an electronic transmission factor that expresses the probability of charge transfer in the transition state region, and FC is the Frank-Condon factor for electron transfer. These quantities represent the different barriers to electron transfer encountered by a

reactive redox system along its reaction coordinate. They have been treated using several different theoretical approaches.

The thermal barriers to electron transfer or Frank-Condon factors have been described using both classical and quantum mechanical models. Most notable amongst the classical models is the theory proposed by Marcus for the rate of outer-sphere electron-transfer reactions (equations 1.2 to 1.4).<sup>8f,g,h</sup>

$$k_{et} = \kappa A \sigma^2 \exp\left[-\frac{\Delta G^\ddagger}{RT}\right] \quad \text{eq. 1.2}$$

$$\Delta G^\ddagger = \frac{(\lambda + \Delta G^{\circ'})^2}{4\lambda} \quad \text{eq. 1.3}$$

$$\lambda = \lambda_i + \lambda_o \quad \text{eq. 1.4}$$

The total activation free energy in the Marcus model is a function of the reaction free energy ( $\Delta G^{\circ'}$ ) and the intrinsic thermal barrier  $\lambda$ , which is the sum of a molecular ( $\lambda_i$ ) and solvent related component ( $\lambda_o$ ).  $\lambda_i$  is referred to as the *inner-sphere* reorganization energy and represents the energy required to rearrange the bond distances and angles of the reactants to their transition state configurations. The later quantity,  $\lambda_o$ , represents the energy required to reorganize the solvation environment of the reactants. Marcus derived specific expressions for these parameters by assuming that the molecular degrees of freedom could be modeled by classical harmonic oscillators and that the surrounding solvent was a dielectric continuum. One feature of the Marcus model that has stimulated considerable experimental interest concerns its predictions regarding the variation of  $k_{et}$  as a function of reaction exoergicity. Taking the natural log of equation 1.2 and plotting  $RT \ln(k_{et})$  versus  $\Delta G^{\circ'}$  reveals that the rate of electron transfer should increase as a function of driving force in what has been termed the *normal region* until  $\Delta G^{\circ'} = \lambda$  and then decrease as a function of driving force into what

Marcus labeled the *inverted region*. In addition to the Marcus model, several quantum mechanical and semiclassical models for electron-transfer reactions have also been proposed. One of the more popular semiclassical relationships for  $k_{et}$  has been developed by Jortner and Bixon (equations 1.5 and 1.6).<sup>8i,j,k,l</sup>

$$k_{et} = \left( \frac{\pi}{h^2 \lambda_s k_b T} \right)^{1/2} |V|^2 \sum_{w=0}^{\infty} (e^{-S} S^w / w!) \exp \left\{ - \frac{(\lambda_s + \Delta G + w h \nu)^2}{4 \lambda_s k_b T} \right\} \quad \text{eq. 1.5}$$

$$S = \frac{\lambda_s}{h \nu} \quad \text{eq. 1.6}$$

In equations 1.5 and 1.6 the outer-sphere reorganization energy ( $\lambda_s$ ) is treated classically using a dielectric continuum model. However, the higher frequency molecular vibrations of the donor and acceptor are treated quantum mechanically to allow for nuclear tunneling. This equation reduces to the Marcus relationships at high temperature and has been useful in describing electron-transfer reactions at low temperature and at high driving force where nuclear tunneling effects are most important. While electron transfer in the normal region is for the most part understood, reactions in the inverted region have remained largely unexplored. A lack of information regarding the mechanism of electron transfer at large reaction exoergicities is directly related to the fact that prior to 1984 little experimental evidence for inverted behavior had been observed.<sup>9</sup> Thus, high driving force reactions are of continued interest in electron-transfer research.<sup>10</sup>

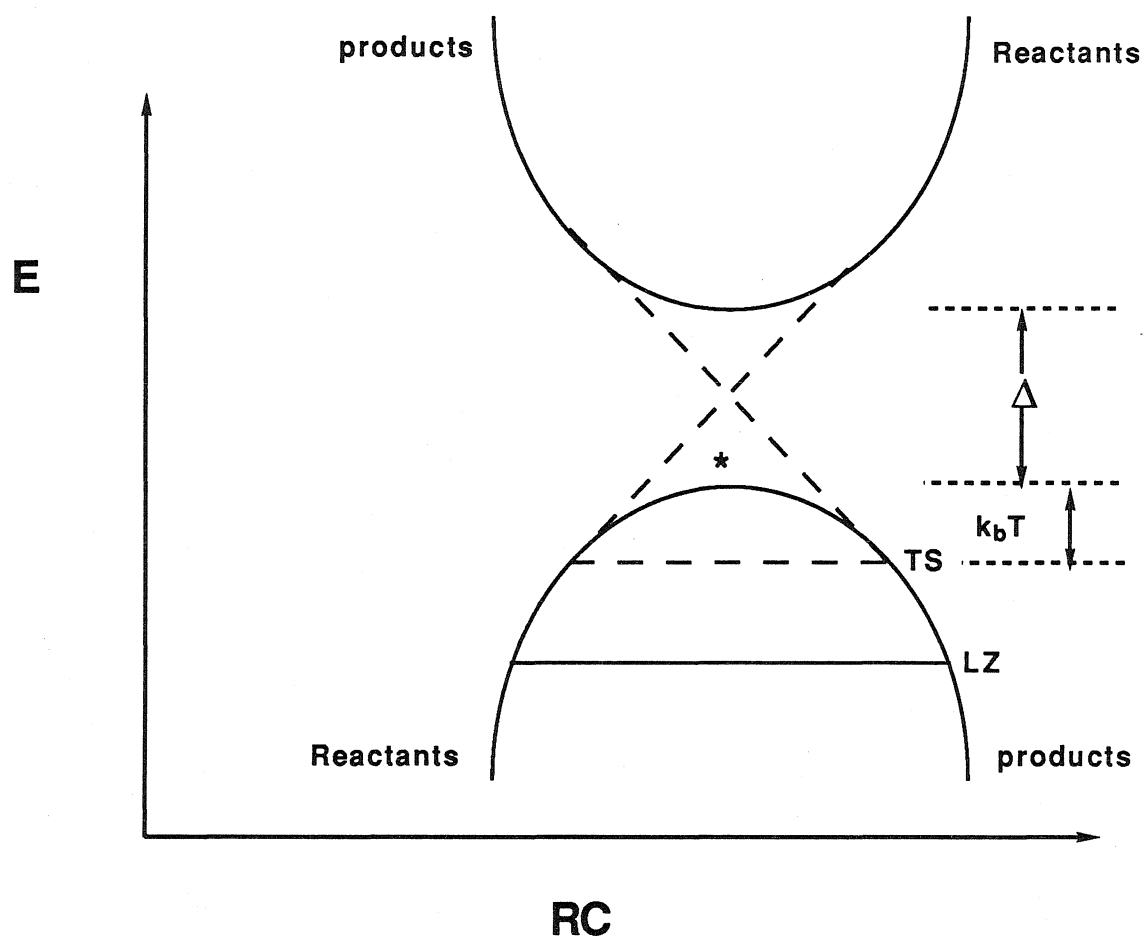
The electronic transmission coefficient ( $\kappa$ ) controls the rate of electron transfer in the transition state region. When multiplied by the nuclear frequency,  $\nu$ , it represents the activationless reaction rate constant. This factor is determined by the electronic coupling between the two redox partners, the velocity of the reaction



coordinate through the transition state region, and the time scale for energy exchange between the reaction coordinate and other degrees of freedom.<sup>11</sup> As stated earlier,  $\kappa$  represents the probability that charge transfer will take place once the system has reached the transition state. When  $\kappa=1$  charge transfer takes place with unit efficiency and the reaction is termed *adiabatic*. A  $\kappa<1$  is associated with a less efficient *nonadiabatic* electron-transfer process. The reaction adiabaticity is directly related to the relative magnitudes of the electronic coupling between the redox partners and the kinetic energy of their nuclei near the top of the col (figure 1.1). If the kinetic energy of the reaction coordinate ( $k_B T$ ) is less than the electronic interaction ( $\Delta$ ), then the system is confined to the lower energy surface and passes ballistically from reactants to products. In contrast, if  $\Delta < k_B T$ , then the system can make transitions to an excited state surface (i.e. follow the dashed line figure 1.1) and remain in an electronic state corresponding to the reactants. This makes electron transfer a less probable event and requires that the system make multiple crossings through the transition state region before forming products. Recent theories have indicated that the electronic coupling between two redox partners is an exponential function of their through space separation and is related to the structural and electronic properties of the intervening medium.<sup>12</sup> Understanding the molecular factors that govern the electronic interactions between donor and acceptor is an area of significant interest in experimental electron-transfer research and is currently being investigated in a number of synthetic<sup>10a,g,13e-h</sup> and biological redox systems.<sup>10b, 13a-d,24d</sup>

In addition to being sensitive to electronic coupling effects,  $\kappa$  is also a function of the rate of energy exchange between the reaction coordinate and *bath modes*.<sup>14</sup> Bath modes correspond to degrees of freedom that are not included in the reaction coordinate but are coupled to it. They essentially accept excess energy associated with the transition state and allow the products to relax to an equilibrium configuration. Energy exchange between the RC and bath has been explored in theoretical studies by associating

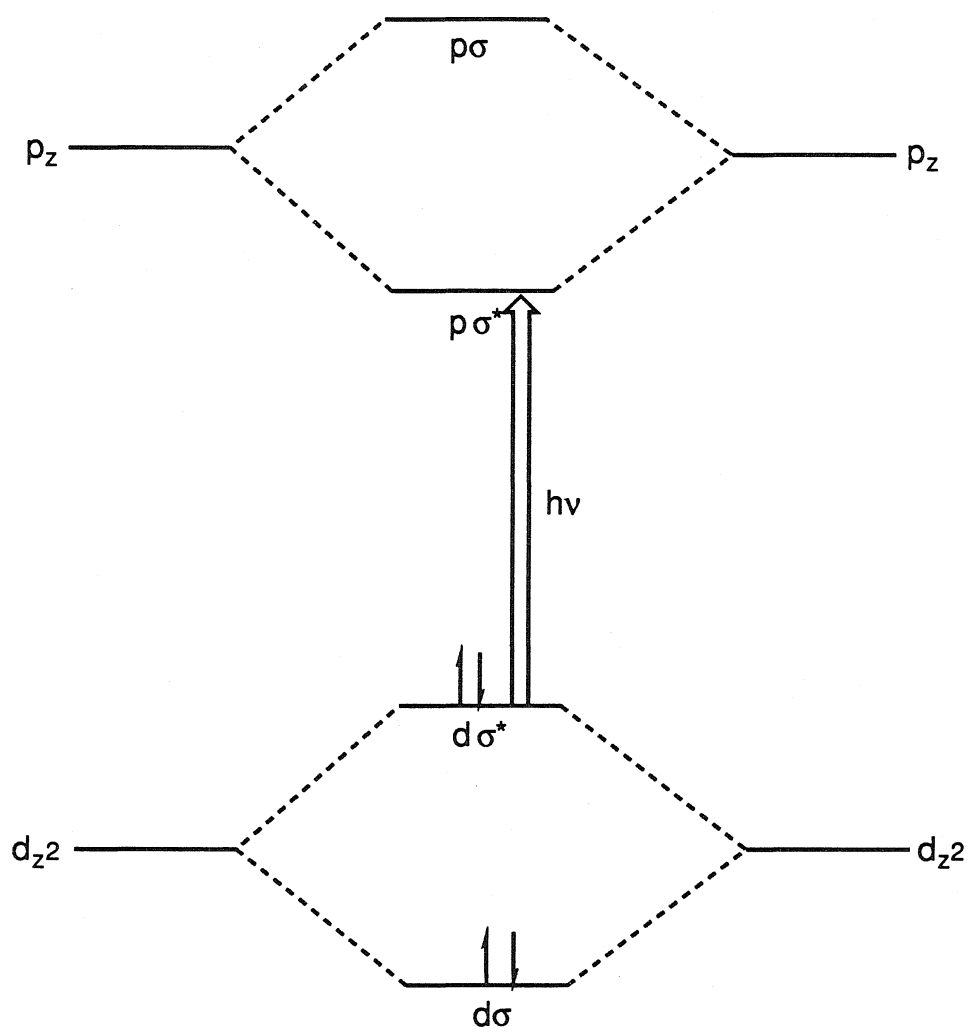
**Figure 1.1:** A schematic representation of an electron-transfer hypersurface near the transition state region. If electron transfer is adiabatic, the reactants are confined to the lower surface and pass ballistically through the transition state region. If the reaction is nonadiabatic, the system can be excited to higher energy surface in the transition state region and retain an electronic configuration indicative of the reactants. \* marks the position of the transition state along the reaction coordinate. TS labels the transition state region, which is defined as that portion of phase space within  $k_B T$  of the transition state. LZ (Landau-Zener region) is that portion of phase space where the electronic coupling between the redox partners is strong. It includes an area within  $\Delta$  of the transition state.



a classical friction with motion of the system through the transition state region. Under conditions of low friction (i.e. slow energy exchange between the RC and bath modes) the system can not relax rapidly enough to an equilibrium "products configuration" and must make multiple crossings before being trapped in the products well. Such a situation is referred to as *underdamped*. Under conditions of high friction (i.e. rapid energy exchange between the RC and bath modes), the system moves through the transition state region by Brownian diffusion. In this *overdamped* situation the system also makes multiple crossings through the transition state region before forming products. Finally, when the reaction friction is optimal (i.e. *critically damped*) energy exchanges between the RC and bath on a time scale commensurate with the formation of products. Under these conditions, the reaction adiabaticity is controlled predominantly by electronic coupling. Behavior characteristic of an overdamped ET system has recently been observed by Kosower,<sup>15</sup> Simon,<sup>16</sup> and Eisenthal<sup>17</sup> in organic charge transfer systems dissolved in alcoholic solutions. In these studies the rate of electron transfer was shown to directly correlate with the longitudinal relaxation time of the solvent medium. A greater understanding of the role played by solvent dynamics in electron-transfer reactions will unfold as additional systems with ET rates greater than or equal to  $10^{13}$  sec<sup>-1</sup> become available.

**d<sup>8</sup>-d<sup>8</sup> Metal Dimers:** The electronic structure and excited properties of d<sup>8</sup>-d<sup>8</sup> transition metal complexes are areas of current interest in inorganic photochemistry.<sup>18</sup> Recent research has indicated that their low lying excited states display a variety of different chemical reactivities including the excited state oxidative addition of halocarbons,<sup>19</sup> carbon-hydrogen bond activation,<sup>20</sup> and outer-sphere electron transfer.<sup>21</sup> These diverse photochemical and photophysical properties can be traced to their ( $d\sigma^*p\sigma$ ) excited states, which result from the axial metal-metal interactions inherent in these compounds. According to Gray and coworkers,<sup>22</sup> the electronic structure of these intriguing chromophores can be schematically represented by the

**Figure 1.2:** A simplified MO diagram for a  $d^8$ - $d^8$  metal dimer showing the ground state electronic configuration. The  $(d\sigma^* \rightarrow p\sigma)$  excited states can be accessed by exciting the complex with visible light as indicated by the white arrow.

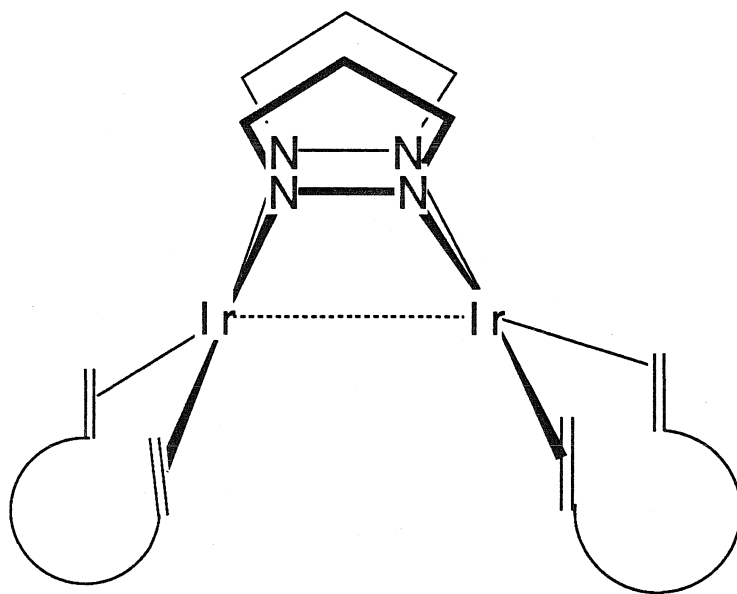


molecular orbital diagram in figure 1.2. Covalently linking two square planar  $d^8$  complexes into a dimer molecule forces an axial interaction between the  $d_{z^2}$  and  $p_z$  orbitals of the monomer fragments, which leads to the formation of  $d\sigma$  and  $p\sigma$  bonding and antibonding dimer MOs. Filling this MO scheme with the 16 metal electrons from the two monomer fragments leaves the  $d\sigma^*$  level as the compound's highest occupied molecular orbital. The long lived excited states in these complexes are generated by exciting one  $d\sigma^*$  electron into a vacant  $p\sigma$  orbital. This electronic configuration yields a singlet and corresponding triplet state as the reactive excited states in these systems.

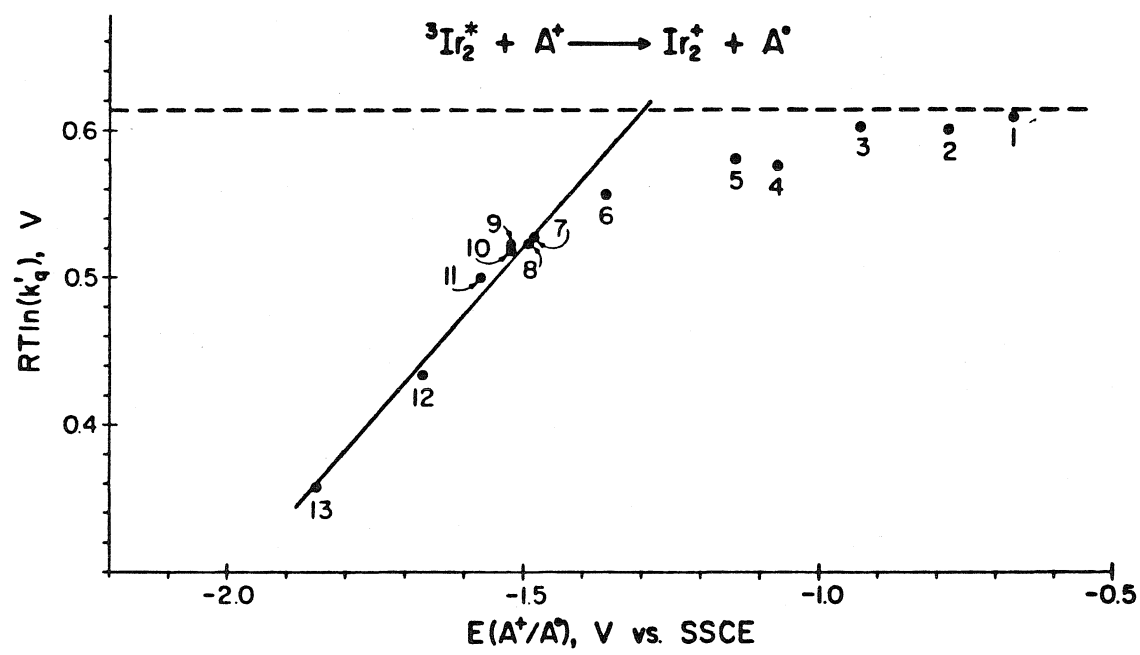
At the inception of this research, our studies regarding excited state electron transfer in  $d^8$ - $d^8$  compounds had centered around a series of iridium pyrazolate bridged COD complexes first prepared by Stobart and coworkers (figure 1.3).<sup>23</sup> Marshall *et al.* conducted a thorough examination of the driving force dependence of the bimolecular triplet electron-transfer quenching reactions in  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz})_2(\text{COD})_2]$  using a homologous series of pyridinium electron acceptors.<sup>21d,22i</sup> Results from this study are summarized in figure 1.4. Several important conclusions were drawn from these findings: 1) In contrast to the predictions made by the Marcus model, the rate of triplet electron transfer in this photoredox system tends to a diffusion limit at high driving force. We, like others, speculated that our failure to observe inverted behavior in this study was tied to the limitations placed on rapid electron transfer reactions by diffusion. 2) Steady-state quenching experiments showed that the excited state electron-transfer reactivity in this complex was restricted to its triplet state. Because, the singlet state in this compound lies approximately  $4000\text{ cm}^{-1}$  above its triplet state, in principle should be a powerful reductant. This lack of reactivity was presumed to be due to the subnanosecond fluorescence lifetime in  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz})_2(\text{COD})_2]$ . These key observations suggested that our understanding of electron-transfer reactions involving  $d^8$ - $d^8$  A-frame compounds could potentially be extended by designing a redox system which eliminated bimolecular diffusion as a rate limiting kinetic process.

**Figure 1.3:** The iridium dimer complex used by Marshall *et al.* in their bimolecular quenching studies. This complex possesses terminal chelating COD ligands.





**Figure 1.4:** The driving force dependence data of Marshall et al. adapted from reference 22i.



In this study we remove the constraints place on excited state electron-transfer reactions due to diffusion, by covalently linking an iridium dimer chromophore (donor) and a pyridinium cation (acceptor) into a single molecular unit. An analogous approach has been recently demonstrated in a number of synthetic<sup>10a,c,13e-h,24a-c</sup> and biological redox systems.<sup>10b,13a-d,24d</sup> Our particular strategy employs a series of redox-active phosphinite ligands. We feel this approach has potential generality, because phosphine ligands are found in a wide variety of inorganic and organometallic compounds. In principle our ligands could be used to prepare and study a number of different inorganic photoredox compounds. Our objectives in this study are; 1) to further characterize the driving force dependence of electron transfer reactions in  $d^8$ - $d^8$  A-frame complexes and look for evidence of inverted behavior, 2) to explore the possibility of observing singlet quenching reactions that might readily occur in an intramolecular electron-transfer complex, and 3) to determine what differences, if any, exist between the factors that govern the triplet, singlet and charge recombination ET processes in these compounds. Evidence for singlet electron-transfer quenching would be of significant interest, because at present the excited state reactivity of  $d^8$ - $d^8$  metal dimers has been exclusively attributed to their long lived triplet states. Our research regarding these issues is organized as follows. Chapter 2 outlines the preparation and characterization of our  $d^8$ - $d^8$  donor-acceptor complexes. Careful consideration is given to their structural properties determined by NMR spectroscopy and from a crystal structure of  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Py}^+)_2](\text{Ph}_4\text{B})_2$ . Chapter 3 summarizes our results concerning the spectroscopic and electrochemical properties of the complexes. These data are used to construct an approximate state diagram for their metal localized and charge-transfer excited states. Finally, in chapter 4, rate constants for their photoinduced electron-transfer and charge recombination reactions are measured using nanosecond and picosecond laser spectroscopy.

These data are analyzed with regard to the photophysical properties of the compounds and the driving force dependence of  $k_{et}$ .

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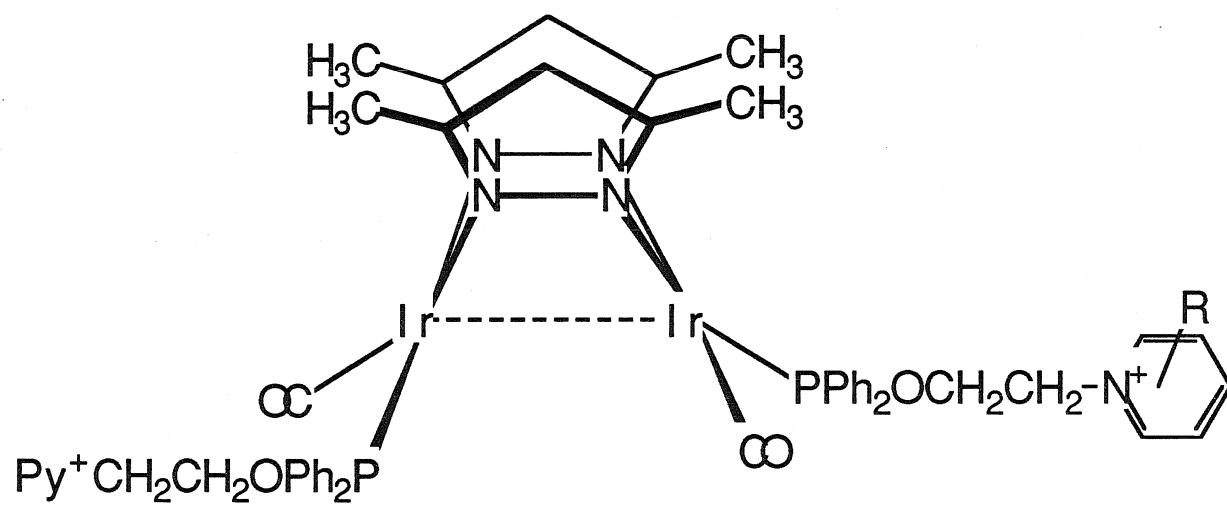
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**Chapter 2**  
**Synthesis**  
**and**  
**Structure**

## Introduction

The basic components of an intramolecular electron-transfer system are an electron donor, an electron acceptor, and a bridging group, which covalently links the two redox partners into a single molecular unit. Each component plays a crucial role in determining the rate of photoinduced and thermal electron transfer in such a system by controlling fundamental electron-transfer parameters such as reaction free energy; donor-acceptor separation, orientation, and electronic coupling; and inner-sphere reorganization energies.<sup>1</sup> By varying the chemical and physical properties of these three elements, information concerning the factors that control electron-transfer reactions can be obtained. For example, the driving force dependence of  $k_{ET}$  has been traditionally investigated by systematically varying the redox energy of a structurally homologous series of electron acceptors.<sup>2</sup> This type of study provides valuable information concerning the reorganization energy controlling the charge-transfer process and probes the system for the inverted behavior predicted by current theoretical models.<sup>1a</sup> Bridging groups can play a number of roles in intramolecular ET systems. In addition to holding the two redox partners at a well-defined separation and orientation, they can also act as a "conducting medium" for transmitting an electron between the donor and acceptor.<sup>3</sup> This type of through-bond mechanism may be important in the long range electron-transfer reactions seen in metalloproteins<sup>4</sup> and is an area of intense interest. These considerations suggest that a successful donor-acceptor system is one that can be systematically modified so that  $k_{ET}$  can be studied as a function of different donor, acceptor, and bridging group properties. Thus, our goal has been to develop synthetic routes that are flexible enough to allow for these types of

**Figure 2.1:** Structure of the iridium  $d^8$ - $d^8$  donor-acceptor complexes.



systematic modifications.

This chapter details the preparation and characterization of the series of donor-acceptor molecules schematically represented in figure 2.1. These compounds are similar to the  $d^8$ - $d^8$  compounds used in a previous bimolecular electron-transfer study in that they are based on an Ir(I) A-frame metal dimer chromophore.<sup>5</sup> The reaction driving force for excited state electron transfer in these systems can be controlled by varying the aromatic substituents on their pyridinium electron acceptors. These acceptors are covalently attached to the terminal phosphinite ligands in the complexes via a three atom hydrocarbon spacer. Because the distance dependence of an electron-transfer reaction is difficult to predict *a priori*, compounds with short simplistic spacers represent the best starting point for initiating studies surrounding a new intramolecular redox system. The short donor-acceptor separations imposed by this bridging group should insure that electron transfer will occur during the lifetime of the iridium dimer's electronic excited states.<sup>6</sup>

In the results section of this chapter a detailed account of the preparation of these compounds is given. The complexes have been characterized by high field proton and phosphorous NMR spectroscopy, IR spectroscopy, and x-ray diffraction crystallography. Results from these studies are subsequently discussed in terms of the synthetic routes reported here, the structural properties of the molecules, and the possible solution dynamics of the bridging group.

## **Experimental**

### **Materials**

#### **Solvents**

All solvents used in the preparation of the phosphinite redox ligands and iridium dimer complexes were of reagent grade quality or better. Acetonitrile was dried over Linde 4Å sieves, vacuum transferred to a Schlenk storage flask, and blanketed with dry nitrogen. Tetrahydrofuran and diethyl ether were distilled from sodium/benzophenone. Methylene chloride was distilled from  $\text{CaH}_2$  and acetone was distilled from activated alumina. Toluene and ethanol were spectral grade in quality and used as received. THF, ethanol, diethyl ether, methylene chloride, and acetone were degassed by evacuation at 80° C for one hour and then stored under a nitrogen atmosphere. Benzene-d<sub>6</sub>, acetone-d<sub>6</sub>, DMSO-d<sub>6</sub> and acetonitrile-d<sub>3</sub> were purchased from MSD Isotopes and used without further purification.

#### **Ligands**

Chlorodiphenylphosphine, diphenylethoxyphosphine, diphenylmethoxyphosphine, and butoxydiphenylphosphine were purchased from Strem Chemical Company and used as received. Pyridine, 4-methylpyridine, 4-phenylpyridine, and triethylamine were purchased from Aldrich Chemical Company and were used without further purification. 2-Bromoethanol, also purchased from Aldrich, was vacuum distilled prior to use to remove polymeric impurities. Dimethylamine was purchased in 2 lb lecture bottles from Matheson Company and used as received. 3-isobutyl acetylacetone was obtained from Pfaltz and Bauer Chemical Company and used without further purification.

3,5-dimethyl-4-isobutylpyrazole was prepared using a published procedure for the preparation of 3,5-dimethylpyrazole.<sup>7</sup>

### **Metal Complexes**

Iridium trichloride trihydrate was purchased from Johnson Matthey (AESAR). 3,5-Dimethylpyrazole and 1,5-cyclooctadiene were purchased from Aldrich Chemical Company. Carbon monoxide was obtained from Matheson Company. Each was used as received.

### **Synthetic Procedures**

#### **General Procedures**

All manipulations involving both the phosphinite ligands and iridium dimer complexes were conducted under a nitrogen atmosphere using standard Schlenk techniques or in a Vacuum Atmospheres Co. dry box. <sup>1</sup>H and <sup>31</sup>P NMR spectra were recorded on either a Jeol FX-90-Q or a Jeol GX-400 fourier transform spectrometer. IR spectra were recorded as fluorolube mulls on a Beckman Instruments IR-4240 Spectrometer.

#### **Phosphinite Redox Ligands**

**Preparation of (C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>5</sub>)<sub>2</sub>P-N(CH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>:** N,N-dimethyl-P,P-diphenylphosphine was synthesized using a procedure similar to that reported for related compounds.<sup>8</sup> 300 mls of dry deoxygenated diethyl ether was placed in a 1000 ml round bottom Schlenk flask and charged with 10g (45 mmoles) of chlorodiphenylphosphine. The reaction mixture was cooled to 0° C and dimethylamine was slowly bubbled through cold ethereal solution. Almost immediately, dimethylamine hydrochloride began to form as a flocculent white



precipitate. The reaction mixture was stirred and dimethylamine was added until hydrochloride salt formation ceased. The resulting suspension was stirred for an additional hour to ensure that all of the starting materials had been consumed. Dimethylamine hydrochloride was separated by cannula filtration and washed with two 100 ml portions of ether. The washings and filtrate were transferred to a second 1000 ml Schlenk flask and rinsed with three 50 ml portions of deoxygenated distilled water to remove any residual hydrochloride salt, which was complexed to the phosphine product. The ether solution was dried first over anhydrous  $\text{Li}_2\text{CO}_3$  for 15 minutes and subsequently stirred over  $\text{CaH}_2$  for 24 hours.  $\text{CaH}_2$  was separated by filtration through a fine porosity glass frit. The filtrate was concentrated to one-tenth of its original volume and transferred to a 100 ml round bottom flask fitted with a short path distillation head<sup>9</sup>. The residual ether was removed in vacuo leaving a white waxy residue. This crude product was purified by vacuum distillation producing a clear viscous liquid which solidified upon cooling (b.p. 76-85 °C/0.04 mm Hg). The product was characterized by  $^{31}\text{P}$  and  $^1\text{H}$  NMR spectroscopy.  $^1\text{H}$ : 2.5(d;  $\text{NCH}_3$ ) and 7.3(m;  $(\text{C}_6\text{H}_6)_2\text{P}$ );  $^{31}\text{P}$ : 64.0 ppm (versus ext.  $\text{H}_3\text{PO}_4$ ).

**Preparation of 1-(2-hydroxyethyl)pyridinium and (2-hydroxyethyl)triethylammonium Salts:** With the exception of 1-(2-hydroxyethyl)-2,4,6-trimethylpyridinium tetraphenylborate, all other pyridinium salts were synthesized using a procedure analogous to that reported earlier for preparing 1-alkylpyridinium compounds<sup>6</sup>. 1-(2-hydroxyethyl)-2,4,6-trimethylpyridinium tetraphenylborate was prepared from 2-aminoethanol and 2,4,6-trimethylpyrylium tosylate by the method of Balaban *et al.*<sup>10</sup> Each compound was characterized by  $^1\text{H}$  NMR spectroscopy and their spectra were compared to those reported in the literature.<sup>11</sup>

**Preparation of  $[\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-R}](\text{Ph}_4\text{B})$ :** The general methodology outlined below was used in the preparation of all the phosphinite redox ligands, except where noted. In all cases a slight excess of N,N-dimethyl-P,P-diphenylphosphine was used to ensure complete consumption of the hydroxyethylpyridinium starting material. 2.0g (9.0 mmoles) of N,N-dimethyl-P,P-diphenylphosphine and 8.0 mmoles of a 1-(2-hydroxyethyl)pyridinium salt were dissolved in approximately 150 mls of oxygen free acetonitrile. 0.1g of benzoic acid was added and the reaction mixture was stirred for four hours at room temperature under an inert atmosphere. The solvent was removed in vacuo leaving an oily residue, which was rinsed with three 20 ml portions of either diethyl ether or toluene until it began to solidify into a crude powder. With the exception of  $(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-4Ph-Py})(\text{Ph}_4\text{B})$ , the product was purified by recrystallization from acetonitrile/toluene solutions. All of phosphinite ligands were characterized by elemental analysis, and  $^1\text{H}$  NMR and  $^{31}\text{P}$  spectroscopy. The NMR spectra are summarized in table 2.3a.

**$(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-NEt}_3)(\text{Ph}_4\text{B})$ :** Anal. Calcd. for  $\text{C}_{44}\text{H}_{49}\text{NOBP}$ : C,81.4; H,7.6; N,2.2. Found: C,80.8; H,7.7; N,2.5.

**$(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Py})(\text{Ph}_4\text{B})$ :** Anal. Calcd. for  $\text{C}_{43}\text{H}_{39}\text{NOBP}$ : C,82.3; H,6.3;N,2.2. Found: C,82.7; H,6.5; N,2.4.

**$(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-4Me-Py})(\text{Ph}_4\text{B})$ :** Anal. Calcd. for  $\text{C}_{44}\text{H}_{41}\text{NOBP}$ : C,82.4; H,6.3;N,2.2. Found: C,82.2; H,6.4; N,2.4.

**$(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-2,4,6Me}_3\text{-Py})(\text{Ph}_4\text{B})$ :** Anal. Calcd. for  $\text{C}_{46}\text{H}_{45}\text{NOBP}$ : C,82.6; H,6.7;N,2.1. Found: C,82.3; H,6.7; N,2.1.

**$(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-NEt}_3)(\text{PF}_6)$ :** Anal. Calcd. for  $\text{C}_{20}\text{H}_{29}\text{NOF}_6\text{P}$ : C,49.5; H,5.97; N,2.88. Found: C,50.1; H,6.2; N,3.1.

**Preparation of  $(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-4Ph-Py})(\text{Ph}_4\text{B})$ :** Because this compound had greater propensity to form oils in acetonitrile/toluene solutions, the crude product was

rinsed with three 50 ml portions of ethanol containing 0.5 mls of dichloromethane. This procedure yielded a crude powder, which was purified by recrystallization from acetone/diethyl ether solutions.

**(Ph<sub>2</sub>POCH<sub>2</sub>CH<sub>2</sub>-4Ph-Py)(Ph<sub>4</sub>B):** Anal. Calcd. for C<sub>49</sub>H<sub>33</sub>BNOP: C, 83.8; H, 6.1; N, 2.0. Found: C, 83.8; H, 6.1; N, 1.9.

### Inorganic Complexes

**Starting Materials:** Di- $\mu$ -chloro-bis(1,5-cyclooctadiene)diiridium(I), bis(1,5-cyclooctadiene)bis( $\mu$ -3,5-dimethylpyrazole)diiridium(I), tetracarbonylbis( $\mu$ -3,5-dimethylpyrazole)diiridium(I), bis(1,5-cyclooctadiene)bis( $\mu$ -3,5-dimethyl-4-isobutylpyrazole)diiridium(I), and tetracarbonylbis( $\mu$ -3,5-dimethyl-4-isobutylpyrazole)diiridium(I) were prepared according to previously established procedures.<sup>12,6</sup> The bis  $\mu$ -3,5-dimethyl-4-isobutyl pyrazolate bridge complexes had not been previously reported and were characterized by elemental analysis and <sup>1</sup>H NMR spectroscopy.

**Bis(1,5-cyclooctadiene)bis( $\mu$ -3,5-dimethyl-4-isobutylpyrazole)diiridium(I):** Anal. Calcd. for C<sub>26</sub>H<sub>38</sub>N<sub>4</sub>Ir<sub>2</sub>: C, 44.93; H, 6.60; N, 6.16. Found: C, 44.97; H, 5.98; N, 6.15. <sup>1</sup>H NMR (d<sub>6</sub>-Benzene):  $\delta$  = 2.6 (m; COD),  $\delta$  = 4.0 (m; COD),  $\delta$  = 4.4 (m, COD),  $\delta$  = 1.85 (m; COD),  $\delta$  = 0.8 (d; isobutyl CH<sub>3</sub>),  $\delta$  = 1.5 (septet; isobutyl -CH),  $\delta$  = 2.4 (s; pyrazole CH<sub>3</sub>),  $\delta$  = 1.9 (d; isobutyl CH<sub>2</sub>).

**Tetracarbonylbis( $\mu$ -3,5-dimethyl-4-isobutylpyrazole)diiridium(I):** Anal. Calcd. for C<sub>9</sub>H<sub>14</sub>N<sub>4</sub>O<sub>4</sub>Ir<sub>2</sub>: C, 33.07; H, 3.78; N, 7.01. Found: C, 33.09; H, 3.79; N, 7.01. <sup>1</sup>H NMR (d<sub>6</sub>-Benzene):  $\delta$  = 2.2 (s; pyrazole CH<sub>3</sub>),  $\delta$  = 1.9 (d; isobutyl CH<sub>2</sub>),  $\delta$  = 1.45 (septet; isobutyl -CH),  $\delta$  = 0.7 (d; isobutyl CH<sub>3</sub>).

**Preparation of the [Ir<sub>2</sub>(Pz<sup>\*</sup>)<sub>2</sub>(CO)<sub>2</sub>(Ph<sub>2</sub>POCH<sub>2</sub>CH<sub>2</sub>R)<sub>2</sub>](Ph<sub>4</sub>B)<sub>2</sub> and [Ir<sub>2</sub>(Pz<sup>\*\*</sup>)<sub>2</sub>(CO)<sub>2</sub>(Ph<sub>2</sub>POCH<sub>2</sub>CH<sub>2</sub>R)<sub>2</sub>](Ph<sub>4</sub>B)<sub>2</sub> Complexes:** The same

general procedure outlined for preparing  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Py})_2](\text{Ph}_4\text{B})_2$  was used in the synthesis of all the iridium dimer complexes, except where noted. Each of the compounds was characterized by elemental analysis,  $^1\text{H}$  NMR and  $^{31}\text{P}$  NMR spectroscopy. Their proton and  $^{31}\text{P}$  NMR spectra are summarized in table 2.3b.

**$[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Py})_2](\text{Ph}_4\text{B})_2$  (1):** 0.1g (0.14mmoles) of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_4$  was placed in a 250 round bottom Schlenk flask and dissolved in 150 mls of dry THF. A THF (ca. 50 mls) solution containing 0.30 mmoles of  $(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Py})(\text{Ph}_4\text{B})$  was added to the reaction mixture dropwise over the course of approximately 2 to 3 minutes. With each addition of phosphinite ligand, carbon monoxide gas was liberated from the solution. The reaction mixture was stirred for four hours under a nitrogen atmosphere to ensure that all of the reactants had been consumed. During this time period the solution changed color from orange to red/orange. THF was removed in vacuo leaving an orange/red residue, which was taken up in 10 mls of acetonitrile. The solution was chilled to  $0^\circ\text{C}$  and toluene was slowly added until the product began to crystallize.  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Py})_2](\text{Ph}_4\text{B})_2$  was isolated by cannula filtration as a bright red solid. Anal. Calcd. for  $\text{C}_{98}\text{H}_{92}\text{B}_2\text{N}_6\text{O}_4\text{P}_2\text{Ir}_2$ : C,62.41; H,4.91; N,4.45. Found: C,62.26; H,5.05; N,4.53.

**$[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-4Me-Py})_2](\text{Ph}_4\text{B})_2$  (2):**

0.1g (0.14mmoles) of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_4$  was placed in a 250 ml round bottom Schlenk flask and dissolved in 150 mls of THF. 50 mls of THF containing 0.3 mmoles of  $(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-4Me-Py})(\text{Ph}_4\text{B})$  was added over a period of 2 to 3 minutes. The reaction mixture was sealed under a nitrogen atmosphere and allowed to stand undisturbed for 48 hours during which time the product formed as bright red crystals. The product was separated by cannula filtration and washed with three 20 ml portions of

THF. Anal. Calcd. for  $C_{100}H_{96}B_2N_6O_4P_2Ir_2$ : C,63.40; H,5.32; N,4.26. Found: C,63.63; H,5.37; N,4.30.

**$Ir_2(Pz^*)_2(CO)_2(Ph_2POCH_2CH_3)_2(3)$** : 0.1g(0.14mmoles) of  $Ir_2(Pz^*)_2(CO)_4$  was placed in a 250 round bottom Schlenk flask and dissolved in 150 mls of THF. 0.1 ml (0.7 mmoles) of  $Ph_2POCH_2CH_3$  was added via a gas tight syringe. An immediate liberation of carbon monoxide gas was observed followed by a change in solution color from orange to orange/red. The reaction mixture was stirred for four hours to ensure complete consumption of the starting materials. THF was removed in vacuo leaving an orange/red residue, which was taken up in 20 mls of 2:1 ethanol/dichloromethane. Slow evaporation of this solution under a steady stream of nitrogen afforded the product as bright orange crystals. Anal. Calcd. for  $C_{40}H_{44}N_4O_2P_2Ir_2$ : C,44.04; H,4.03; N,5.13. Found: C,43.74; H,4.08; N,5.06.

**$[Ir_2(Pz^*)_2(CO)_2(Ph_2POCH_2CH_2-NEt_3)_2](PF_6)_2(4)$** : This complex was prepared using the same procedure as that outlined for complex 1 except that a slightly different isolation procedure was employed. After the solvent was removed from the reaction mixture, the orange/red residue was rinsed with three 20 ml portions of ethanol containing 0.1 ml of dichloromethane. This produced a crude solid, which was purified by soxholet extraction into dichloromethane. Anal. Calcd. for  $C_{52}H_{72}F_{12}N_6O_4P_4Ir_2$ : C,39.5; H,5.46; N,5.323. Found: C,39.32; H,5.16; N,4.58.

The following complexes were prepared using the procedure outlined for complex 1.

**$[Ir_2(Pz^*)_2(CO)_2(Ph_2POCH_2CH_2-2,4,6Me_3-Py)_2](Ph_4B)_2(5)$** : Anal. Calcd. for  $C_{104}H_{104}B_2N_6O_4P_2Ir_2$ : C,63.40; H,5.32; N,4.26. Found: C,63.63; H,5.37; N,4.30.

**$[Ir_2(Pz^*)_2(CO)_2(Ph_2POCH_2CH_2-4Ph-Py)_2](Ph_4B)_2(6)$** : Anal. Calcd. for  $C_{110}H_{100}B_2N_6O_4P_2Ir_2$ : C,64.62; H,4.95; N,4.10. Found: C,63.52; H,4.96; N,3.94.

**[Ir<sub>2</sub>(Pz<sup>\*</sup>)<sub>2</sub>(CO)<sub>2</sub>(Ph<sub>2</sub>POCH<sub>2</sub>CH<sub>2</sub>-NEt<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>](Ph<sub>4</sub>B)<sub>2</sub>(7):** Anal. Calcd. for C<sub>100</sub>H<sub>112</sub>B<sub>2</sub>N<sub>6</sub>O<sub>4</sub>P<sub>2</sub>Ir<sub>2</sub>: C,62.23; H,5.85; N,4.35. Found: C,62.3; H,5.70; N,4.37.

The following complexes were prepared using the procedure outline for complex 3.

**Ir<sub>2</sub>(Pz<sup>\*</sup>)<sub>2</sub>(CO)<sub>2</sub>(Ph<sub>2</sub>POCH<sub>2</sub>CH<sub>2</sub>CH<sub>2</sub>CH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>(8):** Anal. Calcd. for C<sub>44</sub>H<sub>50</sub>N<sub>4</sub>O<sub>4</sub>P<sub>2</sub>Ir<sub>2</sub>: C,46.15; H,4.40; N,4.88. Found: C,46.06; H,4.53; N,4.87.

**Ir<sub>2</sub>(Pz<sup>\*</sup>)<sub>2</sub>(CO)<sub>2</sub>(Ph<sub>2</sub>POCH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>(9):** Anal. Calcd. for C<sub>38</sub>H<sub>40</sub>N<sub>4</sub>O<sub>4</sub>P<sub>2</sub>Ir<sub>2</sub>: C,42.94; H,3.76; N,5.27. Found: C,43.10; H,3.83; N,5.22.

**Ir<sub>2</sub>(Pz<sup>\*</sup>)<sub>2</sub>(CO)<sub>2</sub>(Ph<sub>3</sub>P)<sub>3</sub>·CH<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>2</sub>(10):** Anal. Calcd. for C<sub>49</sub>H<sub>46</sub>Cl<sub>2</sub>N<sub>4</sub>O<sub>4</sub>P<sub>2</sub>Ir<sub>2</sub>: C,46.27; H,3.62; N,4.41. Found: C,47.50; H,3.95; N,5.38.

**[Ir<sub>2</sub>(Pz<sup>\*\*</sup>)<sub>2</sub>(CO)<sub>2</sub>(Ph<sub>2</sub>POCH<sub>2</sub>CH<sub>2</sub>-Py)<sub>2</sub>](Ph<sub>4</sub>B)<sub>2</sub>(11):** Anal. Calcd. for C<sub>106</sub>H<sub>108</sub>B<sub>2</sub>N<sub>6</sub>O<sub>4</sub>P<sub>2</sub>Ir<sub>2</sub>: C,63.60; H,5.69; N,4.20. Found: C,63.58; H,5.36; N,4.23.

**[Ir<sub>2</sub>(Pz<sup>\*\*</sup>)<sub>2</sub>(CO)<sub>2</sub>(Ph<sub>2</sub>POCH<sub>2</sub>CH<sub>2</sub>-4Me-Py)<sub>2</sub>](Ph<sub>4</sub>B)<sub>2</sub>(12):** Anal. Calcd. for C<sub>108</sub>H<sub>112</sub>B<sub>2</sub>N<sub>6</sub>O<sub>4</sub>P<sub>2</sub>Ir<sub>2</sub>: C,64.02; H,5.57; N,4.14. Found: C,63.52; H,5.60; N,4.13.

**[Ir<sub>2</sub>(Pz<sup>\*\*</sup>)<sub>2</sub>(CO)<sub>2</sub>(Ph<sub>2</sub>POCH<sub>2</sub>CH<sub>2</sub>-4Ph-Py)<sub>2</sub>](Ph<sub>4</sub>B)<sub>2</sub>(13):** Anal. Calcd. for C<sub>118</sub>H<sub>116</sub>B<sub>2</sub>N<sub>6</sub>O<sub>4</sub>P<sub>2</sub>Ir<sub>2</sub>: C,65.94; H,5.40; N,3.91. Found: C,65.80; H,5.59; N,3.55.

### X-Ray Crystallography

Crystals of [Ir<sub>2</sub>(Pz<sup>\*</sup>)<sub>2</sub>(CO)<sub>2</sub>(Ph<sub>2</sub>POCH<sub>2</sub>CH<sub>2</sub>-Py)<sub>2</sub>](Ph<sub>4</sub>B)<sub>2</sub> suitable for x-ray diffraction studies were grown from DMF solutions layered with dry diethyl ether. An irregularly shaped crystal with approximate dimensions 0.10x0.40x0.70 mm was sealed inside a glass capillary tube under an inert atmosphere and centered on a CAD4 diffractometer equipped with graphite-monochromated MoK $\alpha$  radiation for intensity data collection. Unit cell dimensions were obtained from the angle settings of 25 reflections

with  $25^\circ < 2\theta < 31^\circ$ . The space group  $P2_1/c$  was chosen based on the systematic absences  $h0l$  ( $l=2n+1$ ) and  $0k0$  ( $k=2n+1$ ). Three data sets were collected in the quadrants  $h,k,l$ ;  $-h,-k,-l$ ;  $h,-k,l$ ; and  $-h,k,-l$  with a total of 18453 reflections and were successfully merged into a final data set having 8019 independent reflections. Check reflections were monitored every 10000 seconds to record crystal decay; only minor variations were observed and the data were corrected accordingly.

The data were corrected for absorption, Lorentz, and polarization effects. An absorption coefficient of  $26 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  was found to yield the best correction of both the high and low intensity reflections. Special considerations were given to correcting individual reflections for background x-ray scatter. The unusually long  $c$  axis of this particular monoclinic lattice lead to partial overlap between adjacent reflections in approximately 1/3 of the data and precluded the use of standard correction procedures. To circumvent this problem an "average" background correction factor was calculated from the remaining well resolved reflections and was applied to the entire data set. Because systematic errors arising from this procedure should affect the low intensity data to the greatest extent, least squares refinements were carried out, which included and excluded the low intensity reflections. The minor differences observed between values of  $R$ , the GOF, and the atomic coordinates for each of these different refinements were taken to indicate that this background correction procedure was valid.

Initial coordinates for the four iridium atoms were determined by interpreting Patterson maps. The remaining non-hydrogen atoms were located from structure-factor Fourier calculations. The iridium atoms were given anisotropic thermal factors, while the remaining atoms were treated isotropically. Several cycles of least squares refinement lead to convergence with  $R$  of 0.0697 for 7212 reflections. For the strong

Table 2.1a Coordinates ( $\times 10^4$ ) $x, y, z$  and  $U_{eq}^a \times 10^4$ 

Atom	$x$	$y$	$z$	$U_{eq}$ or $B$
IR1	3025(.4)	394(.3)	7838(.1)	317(1)
IR2	2296(.4)	580(.3)	7152(.1)	311(1)
P1	1995(2)	-267(2)	8137(1)	355(9)
P2	3001(2)	-269(2)	6832(1)	327(8)
C1	4015(10)	-443(9)	7894(3)	4.2(3)*
O1	4683(7)	-1023(6)	7906(2)	5.9(2)*
C2	1031(11)	193(9)	7085(3)	4.7(3)*
O2	66(8)	-102(7)	7030(2)	6.7(3)*
ND1A	1937(7)	1382(6)	7719(2)	3.1(2)*
ND1B	1694(7)	1476(6)	7427(2)	2.7(2)*
CD1A	1443(9)	2069(8)	7840(3)	3.6(3)*
CD1B	1078(10)	2192(9)	7370(3)	4.1(3)*
CD1C	918(10)	2592(9)	7631(3)	4.8(3)*
CD1D	1578(11)	2165(10)	8163(3)	6.0(4)*
CD1E	745(12)	2480(10)	7068(4)	6.4(4)*
ND2A	4052(7)	1102(6)	7587(2)	2.8(2)*
ND2B	3791(7)	1144(6)	7298(2)	2.8(2)*
CD2A	4977(10)	1553(9)	7669(3)	4.3(3)*
CD2B	4556(10)	1669(8)	7200(3)	3.9(3)*
CD2C	5311(11)	1918(9)	7417(3)	4.8(3)*
CD2D	5457(12)	1665(10)	7976(4)	6.8(4)*
CD2E	4469(11)	1872(9)	6878(3)	5.3(3)*
OA1	2182(6)	49(5)	8476(2)	3.8(2)*
CA1	3234(11)	477(9)	8585(3)	5.5(3)*
CB1	3153(11)	697(10)	8896(3)	5.8(4)*
NP1	3277(8)	-68(7)	9093(2)	4.2(2)*
CP1A	2385(10)	-458(9)	9179(3)	4.8(3)*
CP1B	2481(12)	-1195(10)	9344(3)	5.9(4)*
CP1C	3516(14)	-1545(11)	9414(4)	7.4(4)*
CP1D	4397(13)	-1133(11)	9328(4)	7.2(4)*
CP1E	4283(12)	-410(10)	9170(4)	6.2(4)*
OA2	2921(6)	123(5)	6501(2)	3.1(2)*
CA2	1929(9)	618(8)	6405(3)	3.4(3)*
CB2	2015(10)	824(8)	6079(3)	4.3(3)*
NP2	1829(8)	37(7)	5897(2)	3.7(2)*
CP2A	786(11)	-251(9)	5826(3)	5.2(3)*
CP2B	617(13)	-1032(11)	5675(4)	6.7(4)*
CP2C	1479(13)	-1465(11)	5596(4)	6.9(4)*
CP2D	2517(12)	-1159(10)	5657(3)	6.0(4)*
CP2E	2689(10)	-414(9)	5813(3)	4.8(3)*
CB1A	2208(10)	-1433(8)	8182(3)	3.9(3)*
CB1B	2420(12)	-1836(10)	8451(4)	6.2(4)*
CB1C	2593(14)	-2756(13)	8475(4)	8.5(5)*
CB1D	2484(14)	-3199(12)	8228(5)	8.1(5)*
CB1E	2243(14)	-2893(13)	7949(5)	8.8(5)*



Table 2.1a (Cont.)

Atom	<i>x</i>	<i>y</i>	<i>z</i>	<i>U<sub>eq</sub></i> or <i>B</i>
CB1F	2148(12)	-1969(11)	7940(4)	6.8(4)*
CB2A	506(8)	-204(7)	8078(3)	2.7(3)*
CB2B	-137(9)	-369(8)	8299(3)	3.8(3)*
CB2C	-1280(10)	-392(9)	8239(3)	4.6(3)*
CB2D	-1779(11)	-213(9)	7974(3)	5.4(3)*
CB2E	-1155(12)	-27(10)	7757(3)	5.8(4)*
CB2F	15(10)	-4(8)	7805(3)	4.2(3)*
CB3A	2407(9)	-1340(8)	6765(3)	3.0(3)*
CB3B	2446(10)	-1759(8)	6500(3)	4.1(3)*
CB3C	1961(11)	-2580(10)	6439(3)	5.6(4)*
CB3D	1502(12)	-2976(10)	6658(4)	5.9(4)*
CB3E	1481(11)	-2629(10)	6923(3)	5.6(4)*
CB3F	1921(10)	-1773(8)	6975(3)	4.2(3)*
CB4A	4449(9)	-517(8)	6883(3)	3.1(3)*
CB4B	5150(10)	-460(8)	6669(3)	4.2(3)*
CB4C	6248(11)	-682(9)	6731(3)	5.2(3)*
CB4D	6670(12)	-916(10)	7004(4)	5.7(4)*
CB4E	6020(13)	-987(10)	7221(4)	6.8(4)*
CB4F	4889(11)	-770(9)	7155(3)	5.0(3)*
B1	1474(10)	741(9)	694(3)	2.6(3)*
C11A	2199(9)	734(8)	416(3)	3.0(3)*
C11B	2666(9)	1493(8)	311(3)	3.2(3)*
C11C	3360(10)	1468(9)	91(3)	4.4(3)*
C11D	3656(10)	692(9)	-16(3)	4.5(3)*
C11E	3243(10)	-73(9)	78(3)	4.8(3)*
C11F	2519(10)	-54(8)	296(3)	4.0(3)*
C12A	2420(9)	678(8)	972(3)	3.4(3)*
C12B	2854(10)	-113(9)	1081(3)	4.3(3)*
C12C	3651(12)	-204(10)	1316(4)	6.1(4)*
C12D	4058(12)	562(12)	1434(4)	7.2(4)*
C12E	3748(13)	1339(11)	1344(4)	7.1(4)*
C12F	2911(11)	1421(10)	1107(3)	5.5(4)*
C13A	620(9)	-79(7)	680(3)	3.0(3)*
C13B	-19(10)	-285(9)	421(3)	4.7(3)*
C13C	-771(12)	-985(10)	400(4)	6.2(4)*
C13D	-914(11)	-1470(10)	631(4)	5.8(4)*
C13E	-352(11)	-1275(9)	900(3)	5.2(3)*
C13F	395(10)	-569(8)	917(3)	4.1(3)*
C14A	707(9)	1623(8)	708(3)	3.2(3)*
C14B	379(11)	1903(9)	971(3)	4.8(3)*
C14C	-355(12)	2618(11)	981(4)	6.7(4)*
C14D	-707(12)	3036(11)	737(4)	6.7(4)*
C14E	-465(12)	2790(10)	469(4)	6.2(4)*
C14F	265(11)	2054(9)	462(3)	4.9(3)*
B2	3507(11)	671(9)	4313(3)	3.3(3)*

Table 2.1a (Cont.)

Atom	<i>x</i>	<i>y</i>	<i>z</i>	<i>U</i> <sub>eq</sub> or <i>B</i>
C21A	4306(9)	1550(8)	4312(3)	3.4(3)*
C21B	4633(10)	1879(9)	4047(3)	4.7(3)*
C21C	5348(12)	2614(10)	4052(4)	5.9(4)*
C21D	5715(12)	2993(10)	4302(4)	6.0(4)*
C21E	5460(12)	2690(10)	4560(4)	6.2(4)*
C21F	4764(10)	1948(9)	4561(3)	4.4(3)*
C22A	2814(9)	645(8)	4596(3)	3.2(3)*
C22B	2354(10)	1401(8)	4704(3)	3.7(3)*
C22C	1648(10)	1387(9)	4920(3)	4.5(3)*
C22D	1375(10)	611(9)	5032(3)	5.0(3)*
C22E	1796(11)	-149(9)	4937(3)	5.4(4)*
C22F	2509(10)	-148(9)	4718(3)	4.5(3)*
C23A	2546(9)	731(8)	4044(3)	3.1(3)*
C23B	2020(9)	1(8)	3901(3)	3.1(3)*
C23C	1131(9)	46(8)	3684(3)	3.4(3)*
C23D	689(10)	864(8)	3605(3)	4.1(3)*
C23E	1137(10)	1599(8)	3750(3)	4.1(3)*
C23F	2033(10)	1514(8)	3955(3)	3.7(3)*
C24A	4320(9)	-178(7)	4302(3)	2.9(3)*
C24B	4978(10)	-436(9)	4553(3)	4.7(3)*
C24C	5701(11)	-1160(10)	4552(3)	5.5(4)*
C24D	5763(12)	-1614(10)	4308(4)	6.1(4)*
C24E	5155(11)	-1389(9)	4053(3)	5.0(3)*
C24F	4448(9)	-640(8)	4053(3)	3.3(3)*

$$^* U_{eq} = \frac{1}{3} \sum_i \sum_j [U_{ij} (a_i^* a_j^*) (\bar{a}_i \cdot \bar{a}_j)]$$

\*Isotropic displacement parameter, *B*

Table 2.1b Anisotropic Temperature Factors

Atom	<i>U</i> <sub>11</sub>	<i>U</i> <sub>22</sub>	<i>U</i> <sub>33</sub>	<i>U</i> <sub>12</sub>	<i>U</i> <sub>13</sub>	<i>U</i> <sub>23</sub>
IR1	346(3)	336(3)	281(4)	-42(3)	82(2)	31(3)
IR2	345(3)	310(3)	284(4)	31(3)	62(2)	-17(3)
P1	401(20)	350(21)	322(23)	-64(17)	77(16)	74(18)
P2	353(19)	322(20)	311(22)	17(16)	61(16)	-11(18)

The form of the displacement factor is:

$$\exp -2\pi^2 (U_{11} h^2 a^{*2} + U_{22} k^2 b^{*2} + U_{33} l^2 c^{*2} + 2U_{12} hka^*b^* + 2U_{13} hla^*c^* + 2U_{23} klb^*c^*)$$

**Table 2.2:** Final Crystallographic Parameters

---

Mol. Wt. 1828.98

*Cell Dimensions*

a, Å 12.189(1)

b, Å 15.298(2)

c, Å 46.372(6)

$\alpha$ , deg. 90

$\beta$ , deg. 90.406(10)

$\gamma$ , deg. 90

V, Å<sup>3</sup> 8646(7)

Z 4

$\rho$ , g/cm<sup>3</sup> 1.41

$\mu$ , cm<sup>-1</sup> 26.0

*Crystal Dimensions* 0.1 x 0.4 x 0.7 mm

*Scan Width*  $\omega$  scans (1°)

*No. of Observed Reflections*

Total 8019

> 0 7212

>3 $\sigma$  6131

*No. of Parameters Varied* 477

R 0.0697

R<sub>3 $\sigma$</sub>  0.055

GOF 2.32

*Space Group* P2<sub>1</sub>/c

data with  $F_o^2 > 3\sigma F_o^2$ ,  $R = 0.055$  for 6131 reflections. The goodness of fit was 2.32 for  $n = 8019$  data and  $p = 477$  parameters. Atomic coordinates and final unit cell parameters are found in tables 2.1 and 2.2.

### **Computational Details**

Molecular mechanics calculations were carried out on  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Py})_2](\text{Ph}_4\text{B})_2$  using Biograf III version 1.40.<sup>13</sup> Initial atom positions were taken from its crystallographic coordinates. Energy minimizations for the three ligand rotational conformations seen in figure 2.16 were carried out using a Dreiding force field, which had been modified to reproduce the experimentally observed bond distances and angles. In each case the coordinates of the Ir, P, CO, and pyrazolate nitrogen atoms were held fixed to preserve their coordination geometries. All calculations were carried out in the absence of atom charges, counterions, and solvent molecules in an extended atom approximation.

Rigid geometry conformational mapping involving the four torsional angles seen in figure 2.15 was carried out using procedures described previously by Karplus *et al.*<sup>14</sup>. It was found that conformations in which  $\phi_{B1}$  and  $\phi_{B2}$  are both acute were physically impossible. Thus, calculations were carried out in which  $\phi_{B1}(\phi_{B2})$  was held at  $180^\circ$  and  $\phi_{B2}(\phi_{B1})$  was varied between  $60^\circ$  and  $300^\circ$  in  $120^\circ$  increments. For pairs of values in  $\phi_{B1}$  and  $\phi_{B2}$ ,  $\phi_{B3}$  varied between  $60^\circ$  and  $300^\circ$  in  $120^\circ$  increments and  $\phi_{B4}$  varied between  $90^\circ$  and  $270^\circ$  in  $30^\circ$  increments. The van der Waals energy of each conformation was determined using a Lennard-Jones 6-12 potential function of the form

$$E_{\text{vdW}} = \sum_{R_{ij} < R_{\text{cut}}} \left\{ \left[ \frac{(R_0)_{ij}}{R_{ij}} \right]^{12} - 2 \left[ \frac{(R_0^*)_{ij}}{R_{ij}} \right]^6 \right\} (D_0)_{ij}$$

where  $D_0$  is the van der Waals bond energy in Kcal/mole,  $R_0$  is the van der Waals bond length in Å and  $R$  is the interatomic distance in Å. Only those interactions within an interval less than a cutoff distance ( $R_{\text{cut}}$ ) of 9.0 Å were included in this sum. This procedure was repeated for each of the three different Ir-P conformations.

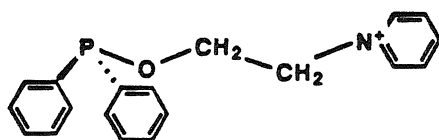
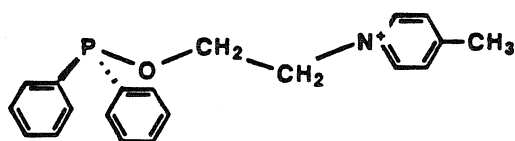
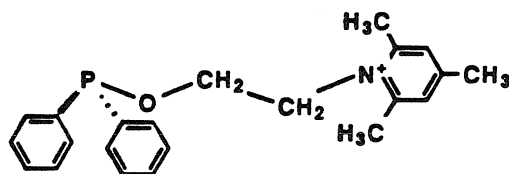
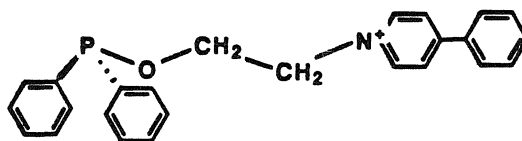
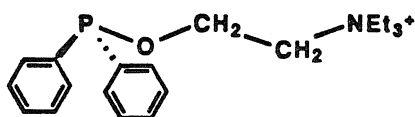
## Results

### **Phosphinite Redox Ligands**

The two step reaction sequence outlined in figure 2.3 was used to synthesize a series of redox phosphinite ligands with different electrochemical reduction potentials (figure 2.2). A number of 1-(2-hydroxyethyl)pyridinium salts were prepared in good yield by reacting pyridine or a para-substituted pyridine with 2-bromoethanol using a previously established procedure (reaction 1a.).<sup>6</sup> 1-(2-hydroxyethyl)-2,4,6-trimethylpyridinium tosylate was synthesized using a ring open reaction between a corresponding pyrylium cation and (2-hydroxyethyl)amine, due to the poor nucleophilicity of ortho disubstituted pyridines (reaction 1b.).<sup>10a,b</sup> Each of the pyridinium salts was metathesized to its corresponding tetraphenylborate salt to enhance the solubility of the phosphinite ligands and iridium dimer complexes in organic solvents. <sup>1</sup>H NMR spectra of these compounds compared favorably with spectra found in the literature.<sup>11</sup>

Step two involved the alcoholysis of N,N-dimethyl-P,P-diphenylphosphine by a 1-(hydroxyethyl)pyridinium compound to produce its corresponding phosphinite ligand (reaction 2.).<sup>15</sup> This transformation was carried out at room temperature in approximately 90% isolated yield by catalyzing the reaction with a small amount of benzoic acid. This approach avoided the higher reaction temperatures and forcing conditions associated with more traditional methods of preparing alkoxy diphenylphosphines and minimized the possibility of Arbuzov rearrangements<sup>15</sup> and side reactions involving the pyridinium cations.<sup>16</sup> Each of the redox ligands prepared in this manner was characterized by <sup>1</sup>H and <sup>31</sup>P NMR spectroscopy. These data are summarized in table 2.3a.

**Figure 2.2:** Structures of the phosphinite redox ligands and their abbreviations.


 $\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Py}$ 

 $\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-4Me-Py}$ 

 $\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-2,4,6Me}_3\text{-Py}$ 

 $\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-4Ph-Py}$ 

 $\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-NEt}_3$



**Figure 2.3:** Synthetic scheme for preparing the phosphinite redox ligands.

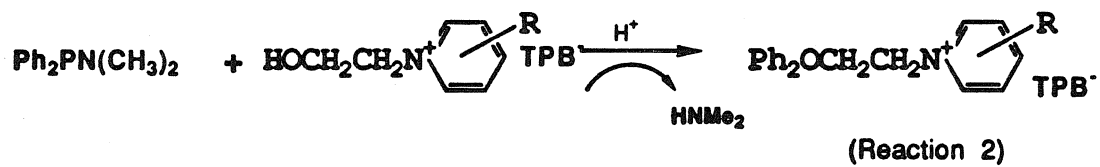
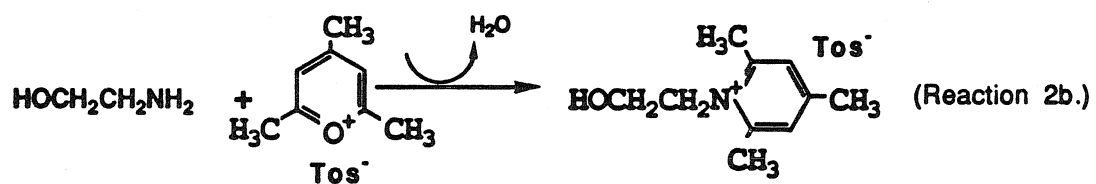
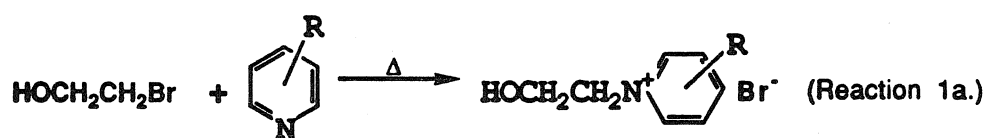


Table 2.3a:  $^1\text{H}$  and  $^{31}\text{P}$  NMR Data for Phosphinite Redox Ligands

Compound	Assignment	$\delta/\text{ppm}^{\text{a}}$	
		$^1\text{H}$	$^{31}\text{P}^{\text{b}}$
$(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Py})(\text{Ph}_4\text{B})$	$\text{Ph}_2\text{P-}$	----	116.1
	-Py (ortho H)	9.00(d)	
	-Py (para H)	8.50(t)	
	-Py (meta H)	8.00(t)	
	$-\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_2-$	4.28(dt)	
	$-\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_2-$	4.84(t)	
$(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-4-MePy})(\text{Ph}_4\text{B})$	$\text{Ph}_2\text{P-}$	----	115.6
	-Py- <b>CH<sub>3</sub></b>	2.50(s)	
	-Py (ortho H)	8.70(d)	
	-Py (meta H)	7.75(d)	
	$-\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_2-$	4.25(dt)	
	$-\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_2-$	4.69(t)	
$(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-4-PhPy})(\text{Ph}_4\text{B})$	$\text{Ph}_2\text{P-}$	----	115.1
	-Py (ortho H)	8.10(d)	
	-Py (meta H)	7.75(d)	
	-Ph (ortho H)	7.80(d)	
	-Ph (meta H)	7.55(m)	
	-Ph (para H)	7.55(m)	
	$-\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_2-$	4.20(dt)	
	$-\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_2-$	4.50(t)	
$(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-2,4,6-Me}_3\text{-Py})(\text{Ph}_4\text{B})$	$\text{Ph}_2\text{P-}$	----	117.8
	-Py (meta H)	7.50(s)	
	-Py (ortho $\text{CH}_3$ )	2.65(s)	
	-Py (para $\text{CH}_3$ )	2.40(s)	
	$-\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_2-$	4.25(dt)	
	$-\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_2-$	4.69(t)	
$(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-NEt}_3)(\text{Ph}_4\text{B})$	$\text{Ph}_2\text{P-}$	----	116.1
	$-\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_2-$	3.52(dt)	
	$-\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_2-$	4.12(t)	
	( <b>CH<sub>3</sub></b> CH <sub>2</sub> )-	1.20(t)	
	(CH <sub>3</sub> <b>CH<sub>2</sub></b> )-	3.30(q)	
$(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-NEt}_3)(\text{PF}_6)$	$\text{Ph}_2\text{P-}$	----	118.5
	$\text{PF}_6$	----	-143.5
	$-\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_2-$	3.77(dt)	
	$-\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_2-$	4.27(t)	
	( <b>CH<sub>3</sub></b> CH <sub>2</sub> )-	1.29(t)	
	(CH <sub>3</sub> <b>CH<sub>2</sub></b> )-	3.53(q)	

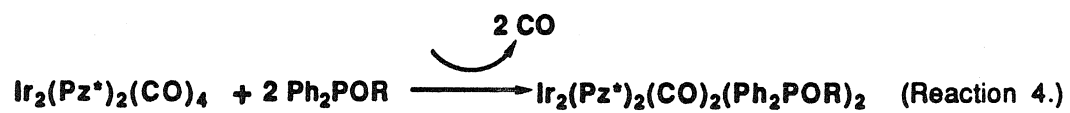
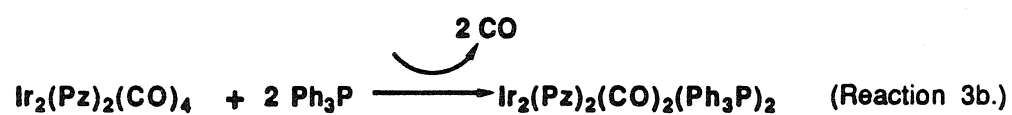
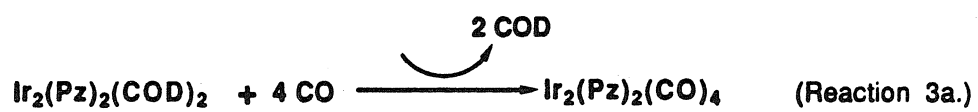
a. Spectra were measured in  $\text{d}^6\text{-DMSO}$ . b. Chemical shifts are versus  $\text{ext.H}_3\text{PO}_4$ .

NMR spectra of the ligands show proton chemical shifts and multiplicities for the pyridinium aromatic protons and ring substituents, which are similar to those seen in spectra of their 1-(2-hydroxyethyl)pyridinium precursors. The phosphine phenyl groups show up as a pair of complex multiplets at  $\delta = 7.6$  and  $\delta = 7.3$  ppm. Notably, the  $\beta$ -methylene protons appear as a doublet of triplets at 4.2 ppm due to proton-phosphorous coupling ( $J_{\text{PH}} = 6.50$  Hz). In addition,  $^{31}\text{P}$  NMR spectra show ligand phosphorous chemical shifts ranging from  $\delta = 115.1$  to  $\delta = 118.5$  ppm. These spectroscopic data identify the ligands as esters of diphenylphosphinous acid.<sup>17</sup>

### Iridium Dimer Preparation

**Synthetic Methodology:** The series of iridium(I) donor-acceptor complexes and corresponding model compounds reported in this study were prepared using procedures similar to those described previously for a number of analogous rhodium<sup>18</sup> and iridium<sup>19</sup> pyrazolate bridge compounds. Initial attempts at preparing redox phosphinite complexes of diiridium bis( $\mu$ -pyrazolate) using the two step method of Stobart and coworkers (figure 2.4) were complicated by the propensity of the products to form as intractable oils. This oil formation was attributed to small amounts of cyclooctadiene released during the preparation of the tetracarbonyl intermediate,  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz})_2(\text{CO})_4$  (reaction 3a.).  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz})_2(\text{CO})_4$  could not be isolated and purified for use as a primary starting material because it precipitates from concentrated solutions as a black intractable polymer. However, Nussbaum *et al.*<sup>20</sup> had reported a procedure for preparing its bis  $\mu$ -3,5-dimethylpyrazolate bridge analog in good overall yield. By reacting pure  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_4$  with two equivalents of a phosphinite ligand of choice, its corresponding bis carbonyl, bis phosphinite iridium dimer was isolated as an orange/red crystalline solid in approximately 90% overall yield (reaction 4.). This

**Figure 2.4:** Synthetic scheme for preparing  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{R})_2$  complexes.



approach proved to be general for a variety of phosphine ligands and permitted the preparation of a complete series of donor-acceptor molecules and their corresponding model complexes.<sup>21</sup>

The donor-acceptor complexes based on the 3,5-dimethylpyrazole bridge framework proved to be soluble in most polar organic solvents, but were fairly insoluble in lower polarity solvents such as dichloromethane. Because some of the electrochemical and spectroscopic studies discussed in later chapters had to be carried out in less polar organic solvents, a second series of compounds was prepared containing 3,5-dimethyl-4-isobutylpyrazole ligands. Each of the complexes was characterized by  $^1\text{H}$  and  $^{31}\text{P}$  NMR spectroscopy. These data are summarized in table 2.3b.

**$^1\text{H}$  NMR:** Unlike  $\text{d}^8\text{-d}^8$  A-frame compounds containing identical terminal ligands, the carbon monoxide phosphine complexes can exist as cis and trans structural isomers as seen in figure 2.5. Based on x-ray crystallographic data available for a number of rhodium and iridium pyrazolate bridge systems,<sup>22</sup> the trans substitutional isomer is favored in the solid state. In solution, however, these two entities could exist in dynamic equilibrium. While Stobart and coworkers have reported that  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz})_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_3\text{P})_2$  exists as its trans isomer in solution and in the solid state,<sup>19</sup> evidence for the presence of both the cis and trans isomers of  $\text{Rh}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_3\text{P})_2$  has been observed in its proton NMR spectra.<sup>23</sup> The structural and electronic similarities between these two complexes and the donor-acceptor compounds prepared in this study suggest that structural isomerism should be considered in assigning their NMR spectra. Previous studies have indicated that the bridge substituent magnetic environments in  $\text{d}^8\text{-d}^8$  A-frame complexes are perturbed by the nature and disposition of the dimer's terminal ligands.<sup>23,12,19</sup> Thus, a careful analysis of the signals due to the pyrazole methyl

**Table 2.3b:**  $^1\text{H}$  and  $^{31}\text{P}$  NMR Data for Iridium Dimer Complexes

Compound	Assignment	$\delta(\text{ppm})$
$[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Py})_2]^b$ $(\text{Ph}_4\text{B})_2^d$ $\delta_{\text{P}} = 97.79^e$	$\text{Pz}^*-\text{CH}_{3\text{A}}$	1.4(s)
	$\text{Pz}^*-\text{CH}_{3\text{B}}$	2.2(s)
	$\text{Pz}^*-\text{H}$	5.35(s)
	$-\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_2-$	5.1(m)
	$-\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_2-$	4.9(m)
		4.3(m)
	Py ortho	9.3(d)
	Py para	9.6(t)
	Py meta	9.2(t)
	$\text{Ph}_2\text{P- ortho}$	7.85(d,d)
		7.6(d,d)
	$\text{Ph}_2\text{P- para}$	7.45(t)
		7.15(m)
	$\text{Ph}_2\text{P- meta}$	7.35(t)
		7.15(m)
$\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-4CH}_3\text{-Py})_2^b$ $(\text{Ph}_4\text{B})_2$ $\delta_{\text{P}} = 100.8$	$\text{Pz}^*-\text{CH}_{3\text{A}}$	1.42(s)
	$\text{Pz}^*-\text{CH}_{3\text{B}}$	2.2(s)
	$\text{Pz}^*-\text{H}$	5.4(s)
	$-\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_2-$	5.0(m)
	$-\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_2-$	4.9(m)
		4.25(m)
	Py ortho	9.1(d)
	Py meta	8.0(d)
	Py- $\text{CH}_3$	2.6(s)
	$\text{Ph}_2\text{P- ortho}$	7.6(d,d)
		7.85(d,d)
	$\text{Ph}_2\text{P- meta}$	7.35(t)
		7.15(t)
	$\text{Ph}_2\text{P- para}$	7.45(t)
		7.22(t)
$\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-4Ph-Py})_2^b$ $(\text{Ph}_4\text{B})_2$ $\delta_{\text{P}} = 99.04$	$\text{Pz}^*-\text{CH}_{3\text{A}}$	2.2(s)
	$\text{Pz}^*-\text{CH}_{3\text{B}}$	1.4(s)
	$\text{Pz}^*-\text{H}$	5.35(s)
	$-\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_2-$	5.2(m)
	$-\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_2-$	4.4(m)
		5.0(m)
	Py-Ph ortho	9.4(d)
	Py-Ph meta	8.65(d)
	Py-Ph ortho	8.1(d)
	Py-Ph para+meta	7.65(m)
	$\text{Ph}_2\text{P- ortho}$	7.9(d,d)
		7.65(d,d)



Table 2.3b: (cont.)

Compound	Assignment	$\delta$ (ppm)
	<i>Ph</i> <sub>2</sub> P- meta	7.55(d,d)
		7.1(d,d)
	<i>Ph</i> <sub>2</sub> P- para	7.4(d,d)
		7.2(d,d)
$\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-2,4,6Me}_3\text{-Py})_2^{\text{a}}$ (Ph <sub>4</sub> B) <sub>2</sub> $\delta_{\text{P}} = 95.20$	<i>Pz</i> <sup>*</sup> - <i>CH</i> <sub>3A</sub>	1.6(s)
	<i>Pz</i> <sup>*</sup> - <i>CH</i> <sub>3B</sub>	2.25(s)
	<i>Pz</i> <sup>*</sup> - <i>H</i>	5.5(s)
	Py- <i>CH</i> <sub>3</sub> ortho	2.67(s)
	Py- <i>CH</i> <sub>3</sub> para	2.45(s)
	Py- <i>H</i>	7.62(s)
	<i>Ph</i> <sub>2</sub> P- ortho	7.8(d,d)
		7.6(d,d)
	<i>Ph</i> <sub>2</sub> P- para	7.48(t)
		7.30(t)
	<i>Ph</i> <sub>2</sub> P- meta	7.4(t)
		7.22(t)
$\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-NEt}_3)_2^{\text{b}}$ (Ph <sub>4</sub> B) <sub>2</sub> $\delta_{\text{P}} = 104.29$	<i>Pz</i> <sup>*</sup> - <i>CH</i> <sub>3A</sub>	1.85(s)
	<i>Pz</i> <sup>*</sup> - <i>CH</i> <sub>3B</sub>	2.3(s)
	<i>Pz</i> <sup>*</sup> - <i>H</i>	5.65(s)
	-OCH <sub>2</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> -	3.55(m)
		3.65(m)
	-OCH <sub>2</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> -	4.35(m)
		4.45(m)
	-N(CH <sub>2</sub> CH <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>3</sub>	1.2(t)
	-N(CH <sub>2</sub> CH <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>3</sub>	3.3(q)
	<i>Ph</i> <sub>2</sub> P- ortho	8.1(d,d)
		7.8(d,d)
	<i>Ph</i> <sub>2</sub> P- para	7.4(t)
		7.2(m)
	<i>Ph</i> <sub>2</sub> P- meta	7.3(t)
		7.2(m)
$\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_3)_2^{\text{c}}$ (Ph <sub>4</sub> B) <sub>2</sub> $\delta_{\text{P}} = 100.82$	<i>Pz</i> <sup>*</sup> - <i>CH</i> <sub>3A</sub>	2.45(s)
	<i>Pz</i> <sup>*</sup> - <i>CH</i> <sub>3B</sub>	2.10(s)
	<i>Pz</i> <sup>*</sup> - <i>H</i>	5.6(s)
	P-O- <i>CH</i> <sub>3</sub>	3.8(d)
	<i>Ph</i> <sub>2</sub> P- ortho	8.2(m)
	<i>Ph</i> <sub>2</sub> P- para	7.0(t)
		6.95(t)
	<i>Ph</i> <sub>2</sub> P- meta	7.1(m)
$\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2^{\text{c}}$ (Ph <sub>4</sub> B) <sub>2</sub> $\delta_{\text{P}} = 96.15$	<i>Pz</i> <sup>*</sup> - <i>CH</i> <sub>3A</sub>	2.05(s)
	<i>Pz</i> <sup>*</sup> - <i>CH</i> <sub>3B</sub>	2.55(s)
	<i>Pz</i> <sup>*</sup> - <i>H</i>	5.60(t)

Table 2.3b: (cont.)

Compound	Assignment	$\delta$ (ppm)
$\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2^c$ ( $\text{Ph}_4\text{B}$ ) <sub>2</sub> $\delta_P = 96.11$	$-\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_3$	1.3(t)
	$-\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_3$	4.31(m)
		4.55(m)
	$\text{Ph}_2\text{P-}$ ortho	8.23(d,d)
		8.30(d,d)
	$\text{Ph}_2\text{P-}$ para	6.95(t)
		7.04(t)
	$\text{Ph}_2\text{P-}$ meta	7.2(m)
	$\text{Pz}^*-\text{CH}_3\text{A}$	2.2(s)
	$\text{Pz}^*-\text{CH}_3\text{B}$	2.5(s)
	$\text{Pz}^*-\text{H}$	5.6(s)
$\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2^c$ ( $\text{Ph}_4\text{B}$ ) <sub>2</sub> $\delta_P = 96.11$	$\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_3$	0.87(t)
	$\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_3$	1.44(sextet)
	$\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_3$	1.68(d, quintet)
	$\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_3$	4.16(m)
		4.56(m)
	$\text{Ph}_2\text{P-}$ ortho	8.37(d,d)
		8.23(d,d)
	$\text{Ph}_2\text{P-}$ para	6.95(t)
		7.05(t)
	$\text{Ph}_2\text{P-}$ meta	7.15(m)
$\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-NEt}_3)_2^a$ ( $\text{PF}_6$ ) <sub>2</sub> $\delta_P = 100.5$	$\text{Pz}^*-\text{CH}_3\text{A}$	2.0(s)
	$\text{Pz}^*-\text{CH}_3\text{B}$	2.4(s)
	$\text{Pz}^*-\text{H}$	5.55(s)
	$-\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_2-$	3.45(m)
		3.49(m)
	$-\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_2-$	4.6(m)
		4.45(m)
	$-\text{N}(\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_3)_3$	1.3(t)
	$-\text{N}(\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_3)_3$	3.3(q)
	$\text{Ph}_2\text{P-}$ ortho	8.16(d,d)
		7.95(d,d)
	$\text{Ph}_2\text{P-}$ para	7.53(t)
		7.65(m)
	$\text{Ph}_2\text{P-}$ meta	7.47(t)
		7.65(m)
$\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^{**})_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Py})_2^a$ ( $\text{Ph}_4\text{B}$ ) <sub>2</sub> $\delta_P = 99.17$	$\text{Pz}^{**}-\text{CH}_2\text{CH}(\text{CH}_3)_2$	0.54(d)
		0.39(d)
	$\text{Pz}^{**}-\text{CH}_2\text{CH}(\text{CH}_3)_2$	1.05(septet)
	$\text{Pz}^{**}-\text{CH}_2\text{CH}(\text{CH}_3)_2$	1.72(d)
	$\text{Pz}^*-\text{CH}_3\text{A}$	1.5(s)

Table 2.3b: (cont.)

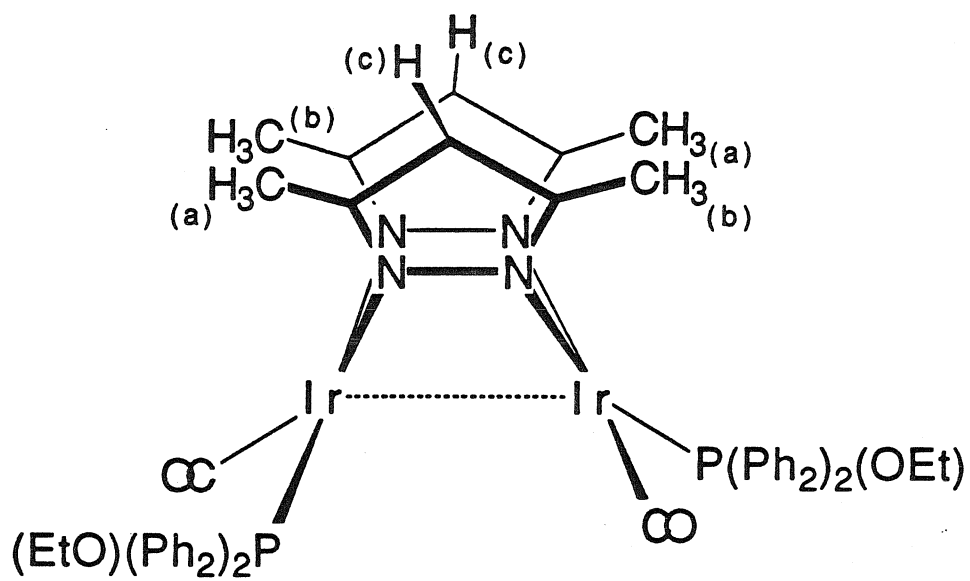
Compound	Assignment	$\delta$ (ppm)
$\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-4Me-Py})_2^a$ ( $\text{Ph}_4\text{B}$ ) <sub>2</sub> $\delta_P = 99.54$	$\text{Pz}^*\text{-CH}_3\text{B}$	2.2(s)
	$\text{-OCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-}$	4.9(m)
	$\text{-OCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-}$	4.41(m)
		5.02(m)
	$\text{Ph}_2\text{P- ortho}$	7.77(d,d)
		7.61(d,d)
	$\text{Ph}_2\text{P- para}$	7.34(t)
		7.14(t)
	$\text{Ph}_2\text{P- meta}$	7.08(t)
		7.25(t)
	Py- ortho	8.68(d)
	Py- para	8.45(t)
	Py- meta	8.20(t)
$\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^{**})_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-4Ph-Py})_2^a$ ( $\text{Ph}_4\text{B}$ ) <sub>2</sub> $\delta_P = 99.34$	$\text{Pz}^{**}\text{-CH}_2\text{CH}(\text{CH}_3)_2$	0.63(d,d)
	$\text{Pz}^{**}\text{-CH}_2\text{CH}(\text{CH}_3)_2$	1.2(octet)
	$\text{Pz}^{**}\text{-CH}_2\text{CH}(\text{CH}_3)_2$	1.87(d)
	$\text{-OCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-}$	4.6(m)
	$\text{-OCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-}$	5.0(m)
		4.4(m)
	$\text{Ph}_2\text{P- ortho}$	7.89(d,d)
		7.77(d,d)
	$\text{Ph}_2\text{P- para}$	7.47(t)
		7.26(m)
	$\text{Ph}_2\text{P- meta}$	7.42(m)
	Py- <i>H</i> ortho	8.23(d)
	Py- <i>H</i> meta	7.63(d)
$\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^{**})_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-4Ph-Py})_2^a$ ( $\text{Ph}_4\text{B}$ ) <sub>2</sub> $\delta_P = 99.34$	$\text{Pz}^{**}\text{-CH}_2\text{CH}(\text{CH}_3)_2$	0.6(d)
		0.65(d)
	$\text{Pz}^{**}\text{-CH}_2\text{CH}(\text{CH}_3)_2$	1.2(m)
	$\text{Pz}^{**}\text{-CH}_2\text{CH}(\text{CH}_3)_2$	1.9(t)
	$\text{Pz}^*\text{-CH}_3\text{A}$	1.6(s)
	$\text{Pz}^*\text{-CH}_3\text{B}$	2.2(s)
	$\text{-OCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-}$	4.9(m)
	$\text{-OCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-}$	4.6(m)
		5.2(m)
	$\text{Ph}_2\text{P- ortho}$	8.0(d,d)
		7.8(d,d)
	$\text{Ph}_2\text{P- para}$	7.45(d,d)
		7.40(d,d)
	$\text{Ph}_2\text{P- meta}$	7.2(m)
	Py-Ph ortho	8.55(d)
	Py-Ph meta	8.15(d)
	Py- <i>Ph</i> ortho	7.9(d)
	Py- <i>Ph</i> para+meta	7.7(m)

**Table 2.3b:** (cont.)

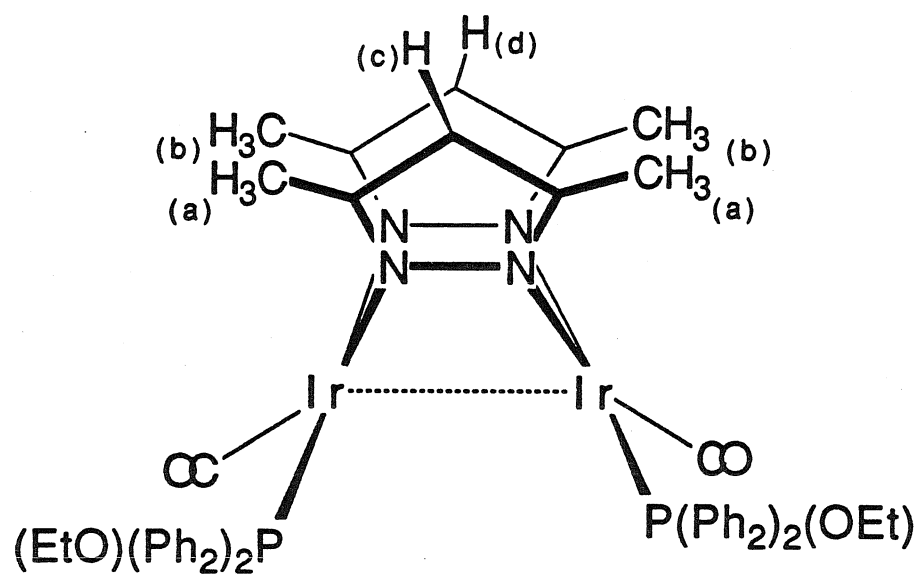
Compound	Assignment	$\delta$ (ppm)
$\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_3)_2^c$ $\delta_P = 17.56$	$\text{Pz}^*-\text{CH}_3\text{A}$	1.8(s)
	$\text{Pz}^*-\text{CH}_3\text{B}$	2.6(s)
	$\text{Pz}^*-\text{H}$	5.6(s)
	$\text{Ph}_3\text{P}$ ortho	7.8(m)
	$\text{Ph}_3\text{P}$ meta+para	7.0(s)

a. d3-Acetonitrile. b. d6-DMSO c. d6-Benzene. d. Signals for the tetraphenylborate counterions appeared at 6.9(t), 7.0(t), and 7.2(m). e. Chemical shifts are referenced to external  $\text{H}_3\text{PO}_4$ .

**Figure 2.5:** Molecular structures for the *cis* and *trans* isomers of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$ . The bridging pyrazole substituents are labeled according to their magnetic environments.



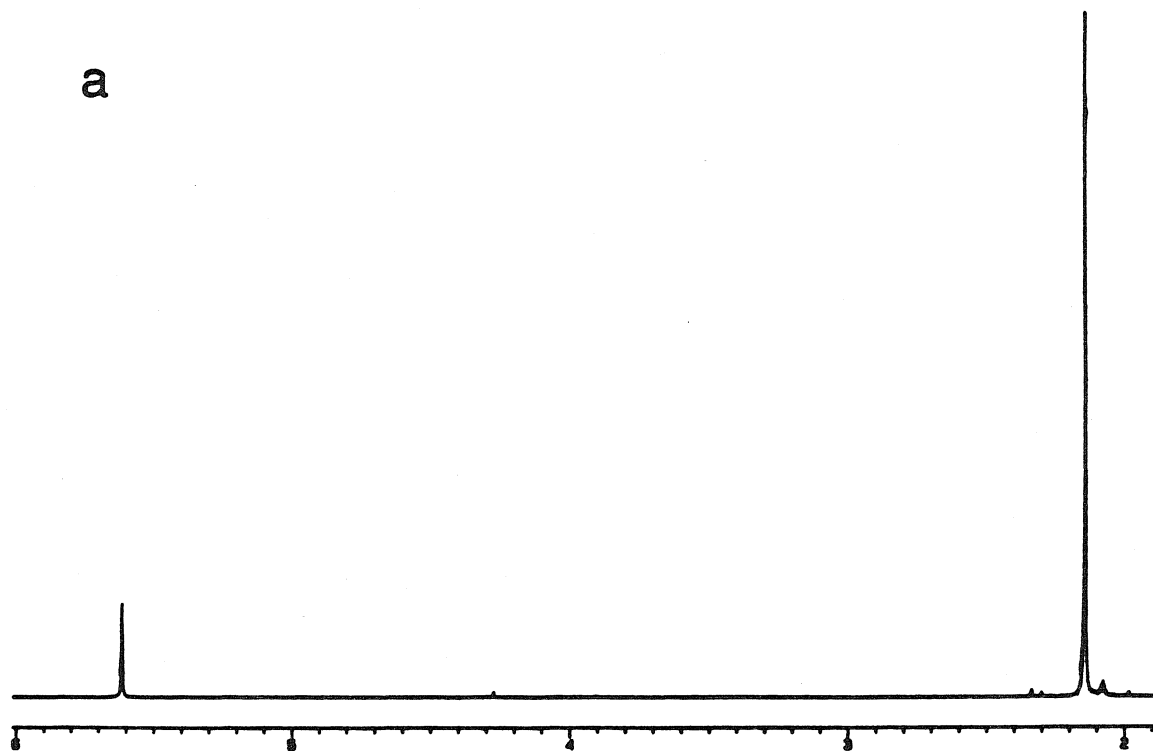
Trans



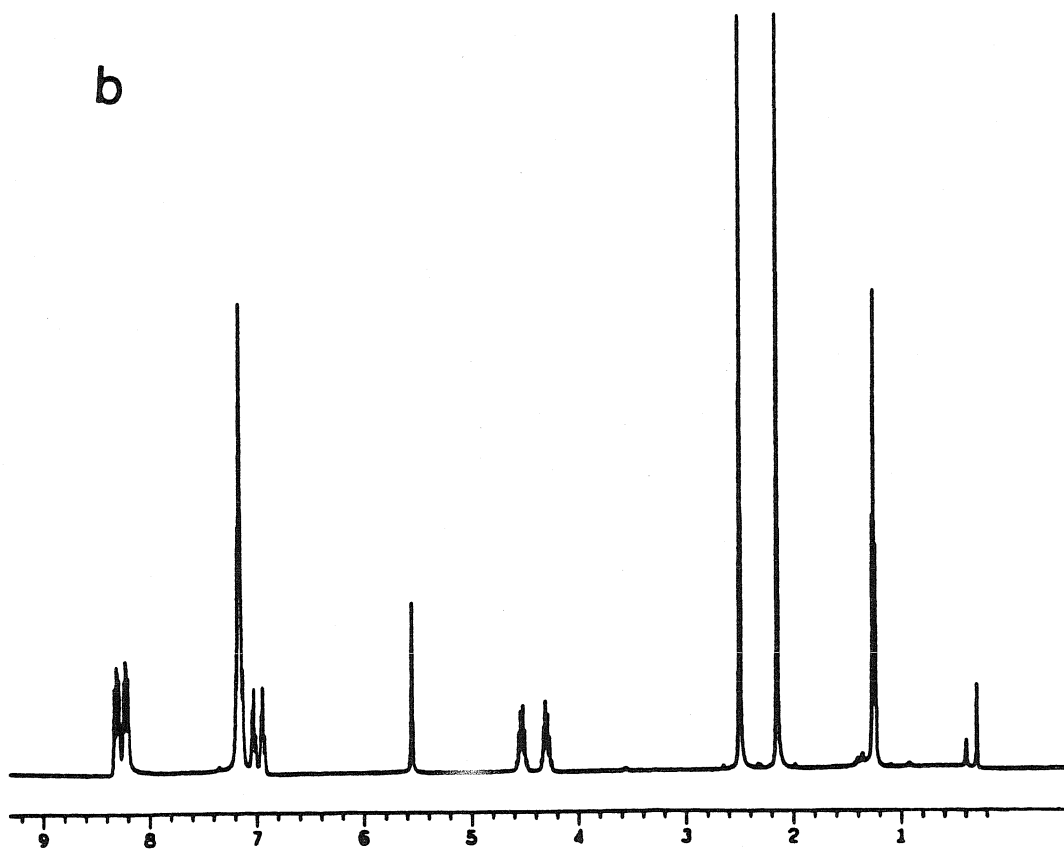
Cis

**Figure 2.6:** a)  $^1\text{H}$  NMR spectrum of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_4$  in  $\text{d}_6$ -benzene;  $\delta = 2.13$  ppm (s; pyrazole  $\text{CH}_3$ ),  $\delta = 5.60$  ppm (s; pyrazole C-4 H). b)  $^1\text{H}$  NMR spectrum of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$  in  $\text{d}_6$ -benzene.

a



b



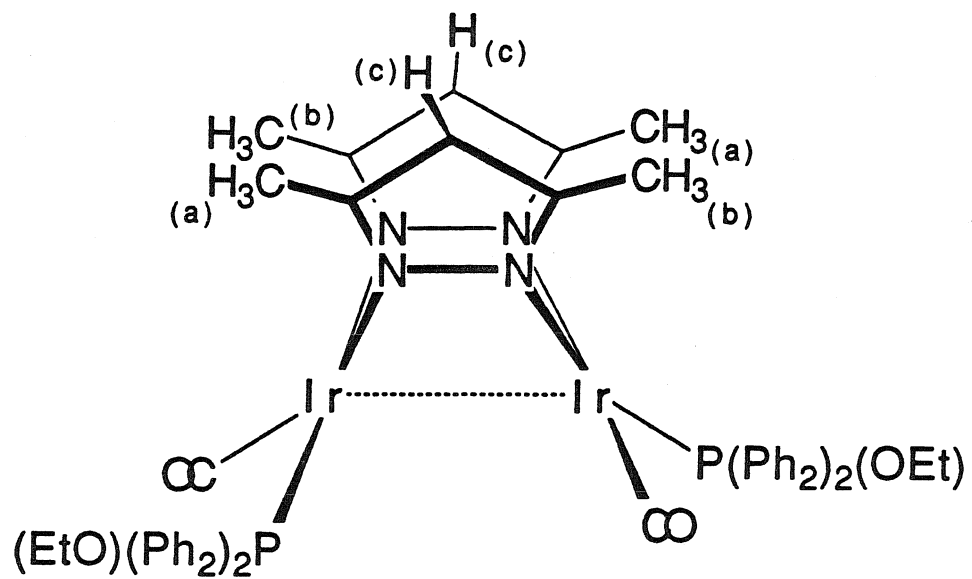


groups and C-4 protons in our complexes should disclose their solution coordination geometry.

In addition to containing a number of multiplets for the phenyl and ethoxy substituents on the phosphinite ligands, the  $^1\text{H}$  NMR spectrum of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$  (figure 2.6b) shows three signals at  $\delta = 5.60$ ,  $\delta = 2.50$ , and  $\delta = 2.05$  ppm (integration 1:3:3), which are assigned to the pyrazole C-4 proton and the two pair of inequivalent bridge methyl groups respectively. These spectral data indicate that a solitary isomer of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$  is present in solution. This conclusion is substantiated by the presence of a single pair of singlet bands for the pyrazole methyl groups. Spectra of a mixture would show at least four bands for the magnetically inequivalent methyl groups in the cis and trans isomers. The unique singlet band assigned to pyrazole C-4 protons suggests that this complex exists as its trans isomer. In the corresponding cis isomer these protons occupy magnetically inequivalent C-4 sites (figure 2.5). In addition, based on the assignments made for the pyrazolate substituents in  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_4$  (figure 2.5a), the chemical shifts of the pyrazole methyl groups in  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$  can be assigned according to the labeling scheme seen in figure 2.7.

Due to the trans configuration of its terminal ligands,  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$  lacks internal mirror symmetry. As prepared, this compound is, presumably, a racemic mixture of its two enantiomers. The chiral nature of the complex is manifested in its NMR spectra through the diastereotopic chemical shifts observed for magnetically inequivalent protons bound to the phosphinite ligand alkoxy and phenyl substituents. Figure 2.8a shows the aromatic region of a 400 MHz  $^1\text{H}$  spectrum of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$  taken in  $\text{d}_6$ -benzene. The

**Figure 2.7:** Chemical shift assignments for the bridging pyrazole substituents in  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$ .

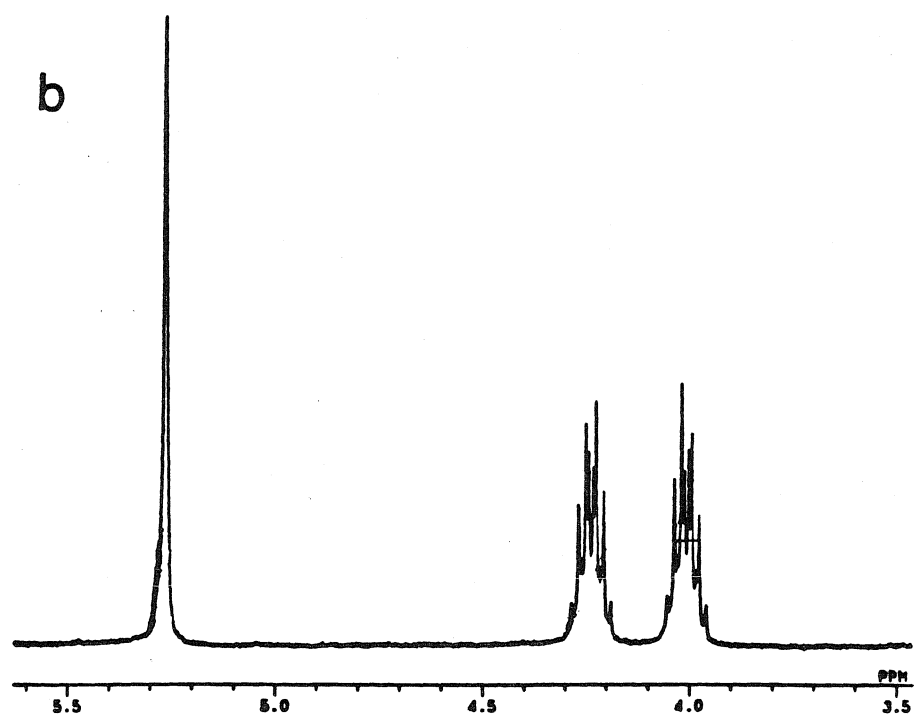
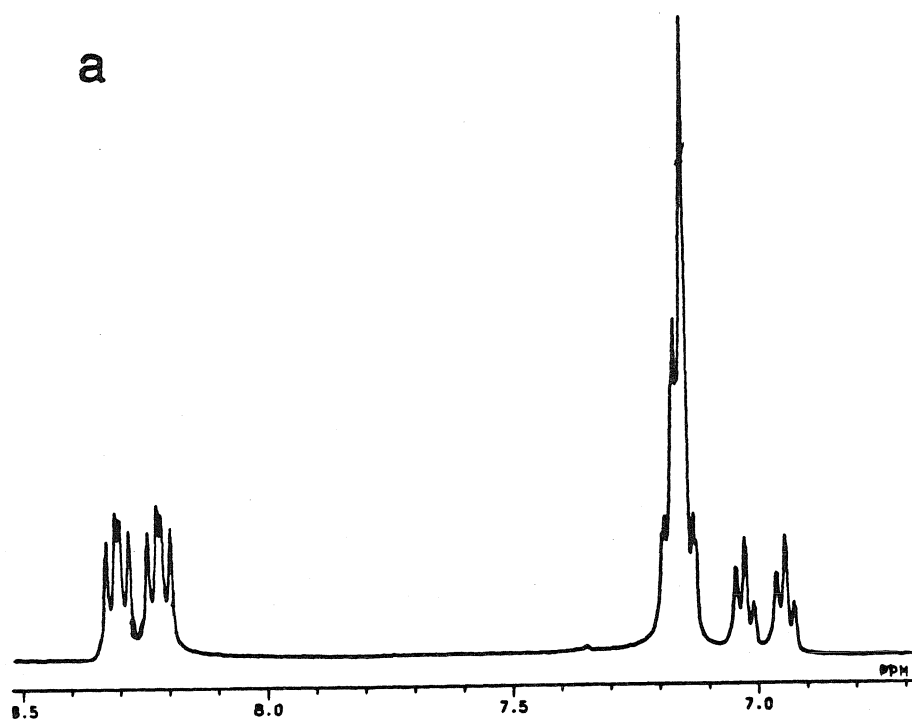


$$\delta_{(a)} = 2.05 \text{ ppm}$$

$$\delta_{(b)} = 2.50 \text{ ppm}$$

$$\delta_{(c)} = 5.60 \text{ ppm}$$

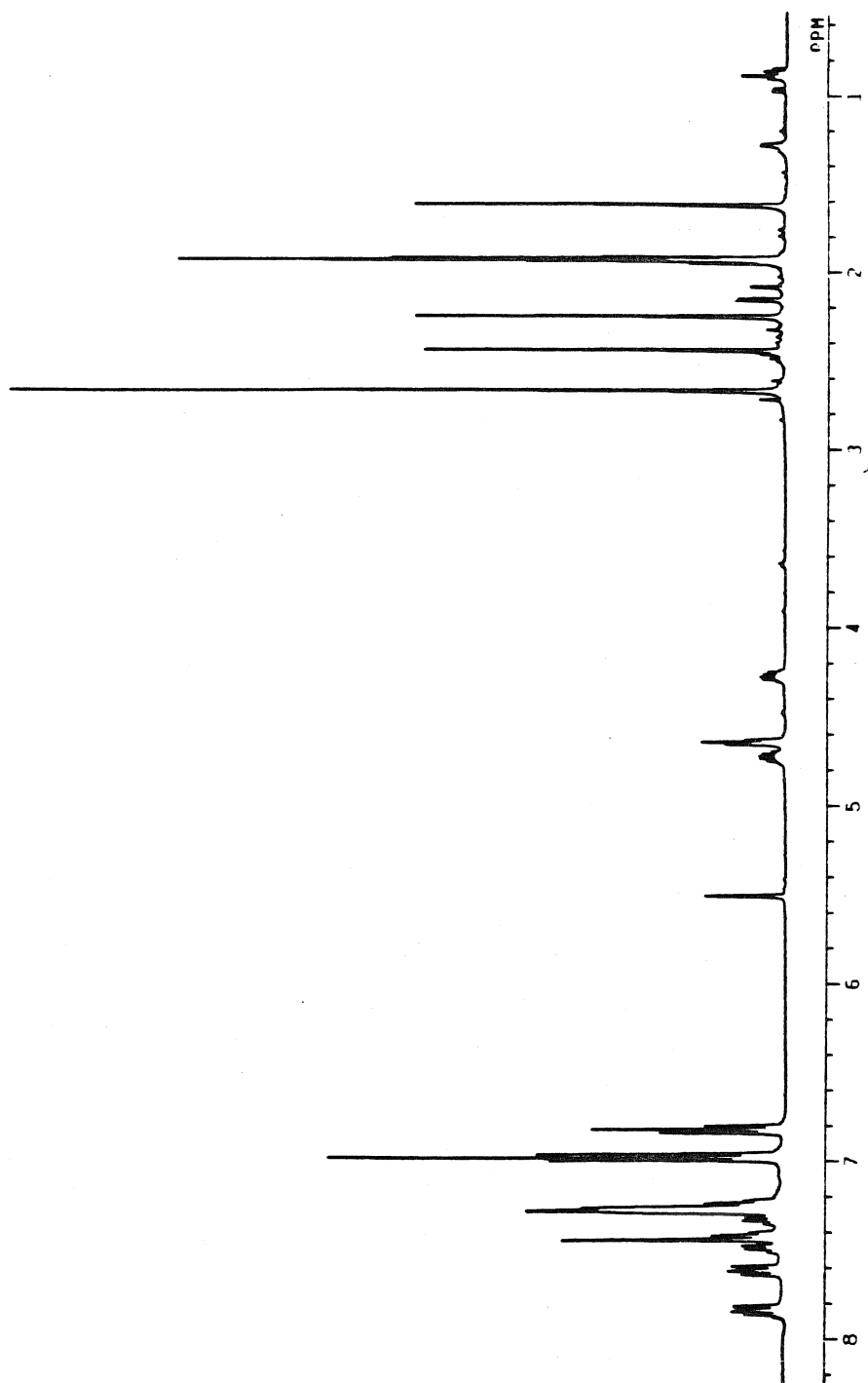
**Figure 2.8:** a)  $^1\text{H}$  NMR spectrum of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$  showing diastereiotopic chemical shifts for the phosphinite phenyl substituents. b) Diastereiotopic chemical shifts for the ethoxy group methylene protons.



phenyl group ortho protons appear as a pair of closely spaced doublets at  $\delta = 8.23$  and  $\delta = 8.30$  ppm ( $J_{\text{PH}} = 6.25$  Hz) along with a pair of slightly second order triplets at  $\delta = 6.95$  and  $\delta = 7.04$  ppm assigned to pairs of magnetically distinct para protons. The meta proton chemical shifts are not affected as much by the magnetic inequivalence of the ligand phenyl groups and are observed as a complex multiplet at  $\delta = 7.2$  ppm. A similar effect is seen in the phosphine ethoxy group  $\beta$ -methylene protons (figure 2.8b.), which appear as a pair of complex multiplets at  $\delta_1 = 4.30$  and  $\delta_2 = 4.55$  ppm.

The spectroscopic properties of all of the donor-acceptor complexes reported here are similar to those seen in the  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$  (table 2.3b). The proton NMR spectra of  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-2,4,6 Me}_3\text{-Py})_2](\text{Ph}_4\text{B})_2$  in  $d_3$ -acetonitrile, seen in figures 2.9-2.10, exemplify those spectral features common to this series of compounds. The singlet bands at  $\delta = 1.6$ ,  $\delta = 2.25$ , and  $\delta = 5.5$  ppm, which are assigned to the pyrazole bridge methyl groups and C-4 proton, establish that this complex exists in solution as its trans isomer. This conclusion is further substantiated by the diastereotopic doubling of bands due to protons on the phosphinite ligand phenyl and alkoxy substituents. Figure 2.10a shows the aromatic region of this compound's 400 MHz NMR spectrum. The pair of overlapping doublets at  $\delta = 7.8$  and  $\delta = 7.6$  ppm are assigned to phosphinite ligand ortho protons. Signals for the corresponding meta and para protons appear as pairs of second order triplets at  $\delta = 7.4$ ,  $\delta = 7.22$  ppm and at  $\delta = 7.48$ ,  $\delta = 7.30$  ppm respectively. Figure 2.10b shows signals for the  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$ -methylene protons on the ligand alkoxy group. The  $\beta$ -methylene protons occupy significantly different magnetic environments in the metal complex and are split into a pair of complex multiplets at  $\delta = 4.8$  and  $\delta = 4.25$  ppm. In contrast, the  $\gamma$ -methylene protons are not resolved into their individual diastereotopic bands at 400

**Figure 2.9:**  $^1\text{H}$  NMR spectrum of  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-2,4,6Me}_3\text{-Py})_2](\text{Ph}_4\text{B})_2$  in  $\text{d}_3\text{-acetonitrile}$ .

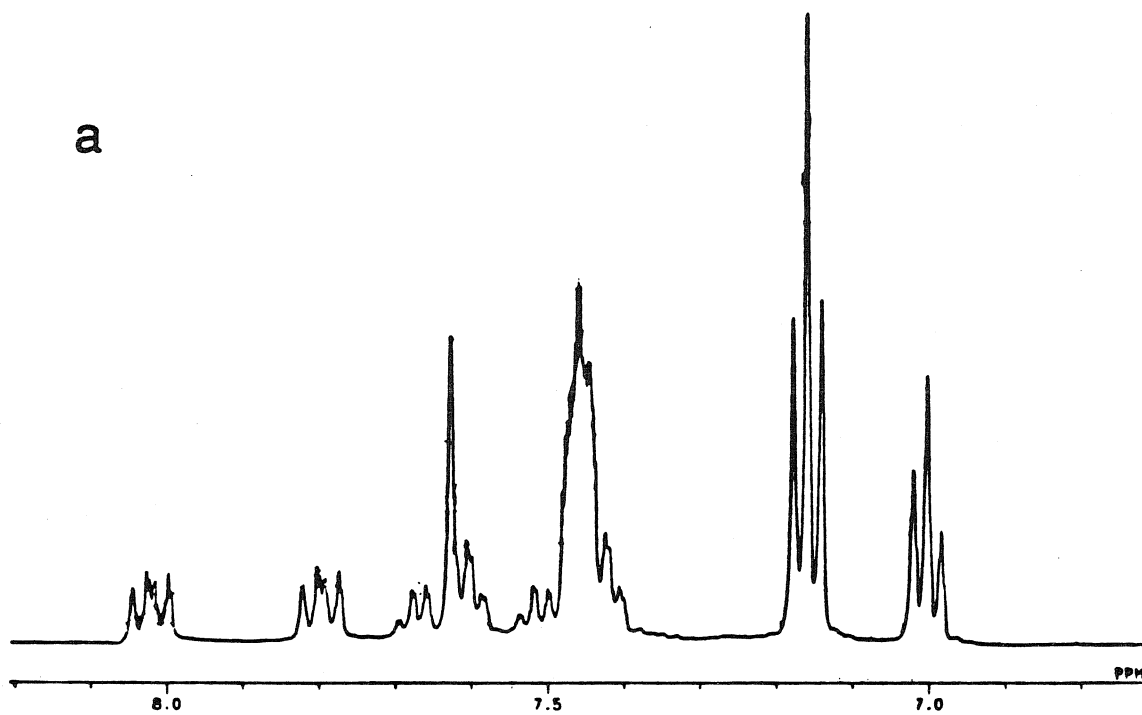




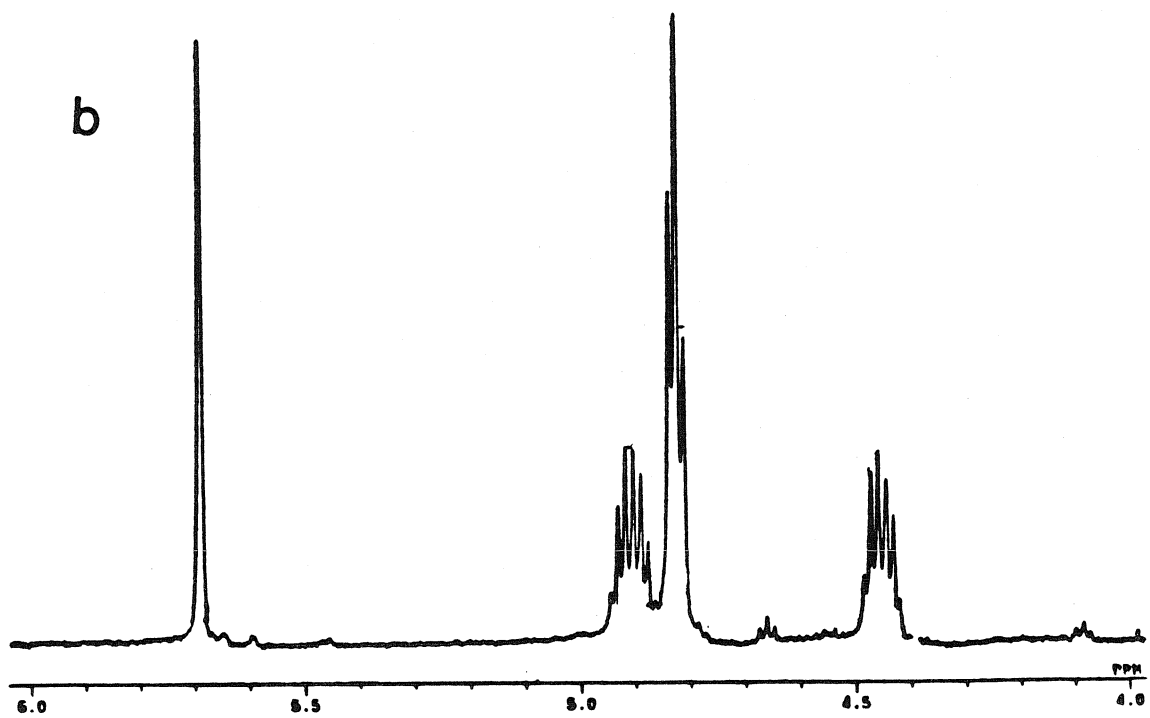
**Figure 2.10:** a)  $^1\text{H}$  NMR spectrum of  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^+)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-2,4,6Me}_3\text{-Py})_2](\text{Ph}_4\text{B})_2$  showing the diastereiotopic chemical shifts for the phosphinite phenyl substituents. The pair of triplets ( $\delta = 7.0$  and  $\delta = 7.15$  ppm) and the complex multiplet ( $\delta = 7.45$  ppm) are due to the tetraphenylborate counterions. b) Diastereiotopic chemical shifts for the alkoxy group methylene protons.

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a

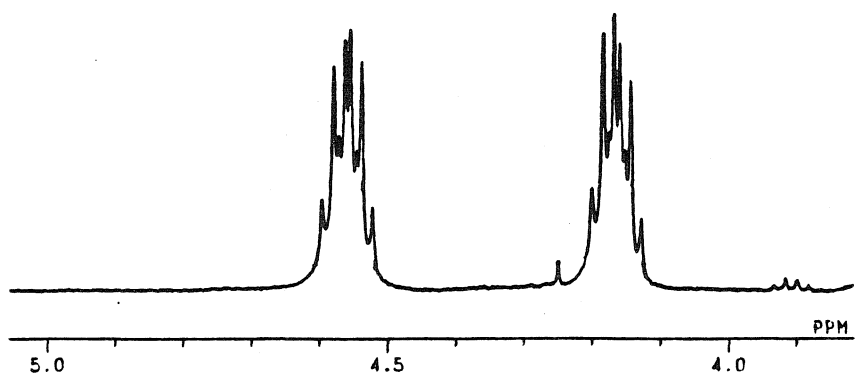


b

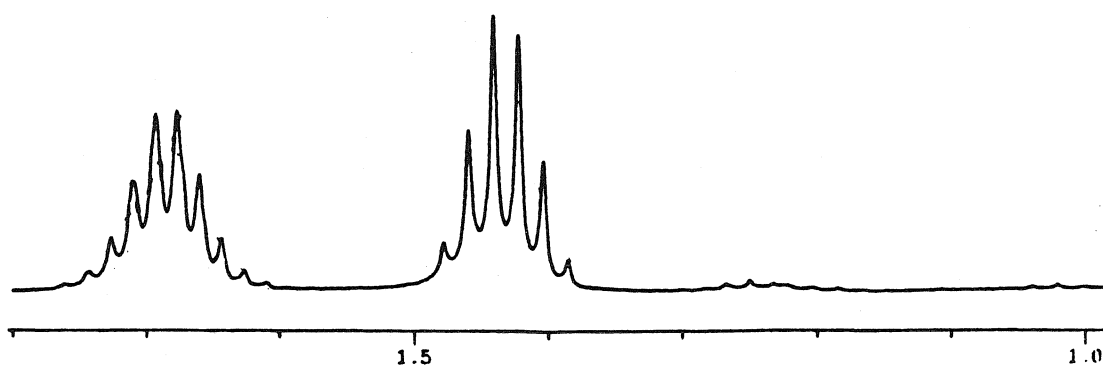


**Figure 2.11 a and b:**  $^1\text{H}$  NMR spectra of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$  showing the change in the magnetic environments of the alkoxy group methylene protons as a function of distance from the compound's chiral center.

74

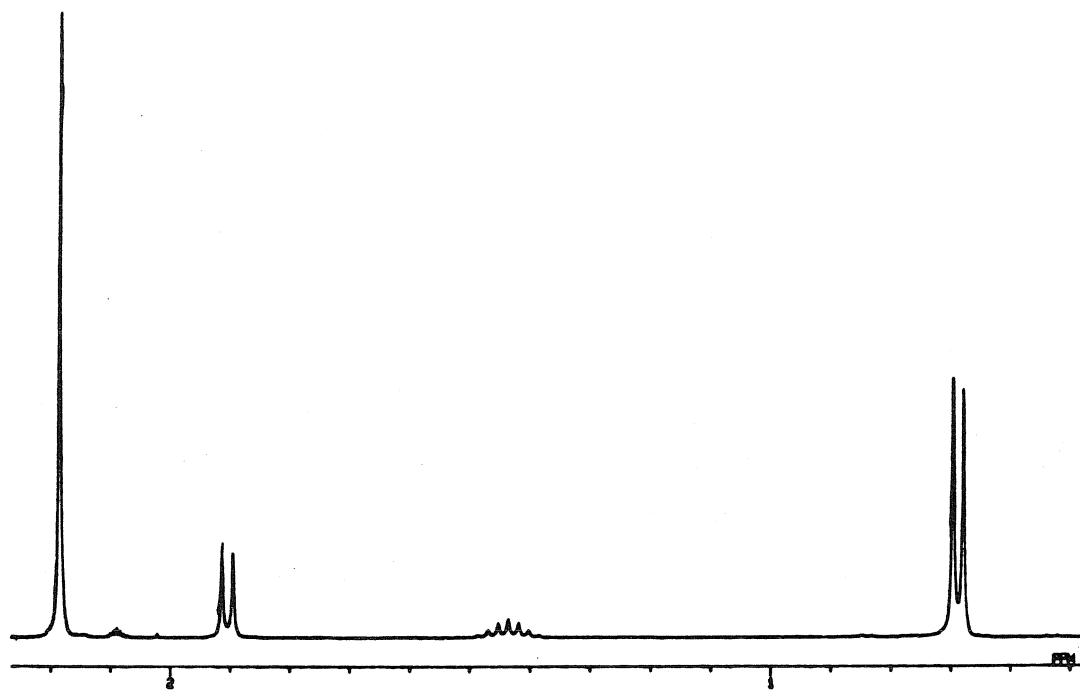


a

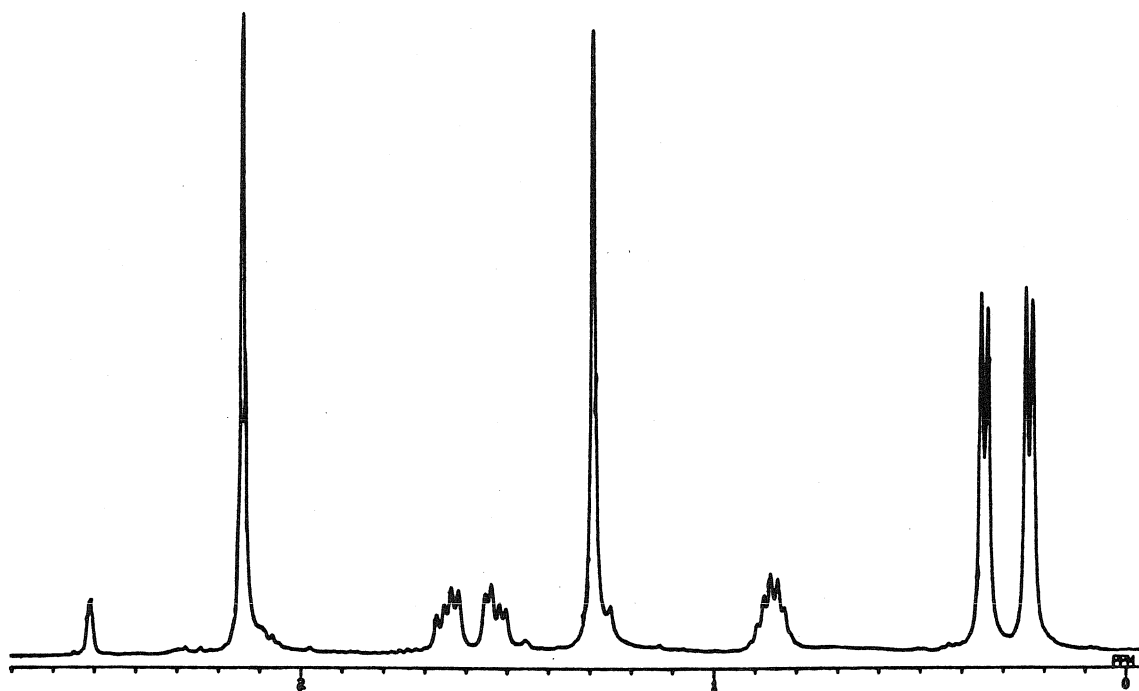


b

**Figure 2.12:** a)  $^1\text{H}$  NMR spectrum of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^{**})_2(\text{CO})_4$  in  $\text{d}_6$ -benzene.  $\delta = 2.20$  ppm (s; pyrazole  $\text{CH}_3$ ),  $\delta = 1.90$  ppm (d;  $-\text{CH}_2\text{CH}(\text{CH}_3)_2$ ),  $\delta = 1.45$  (septet;  $-\text{CH}_2\text{CH}(\text{CH}_3)_2$ ),  $\delta = 0.7$  ppm (d;  $-\text{CH}_2\text{CH}(\text{CH}_3)_2$ ). b)  $^1\text{H}$  NMR spectrum of  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-4Ph-Py})_2](\text{Ph}_4\text{B})_2$  in  $\text{d}_6$ -DMSO showing diastereotopic chemical shifts for the pyrazole isobutyl substituents.



a



b

MHz and appear as a slightly second order triplet at  $\delta = 4.74$  ppm. A similar trend is observed for the  $\beta$ ,  $\gamma$ , and  $\delta$ -methylene bands in spectra of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$  (figure 2.11).

The diastereotopic chemical shifts seen in spectra of the bis ( $\mu$ -3,5-dimethyl-4-isobutylpyrazole) complexes indicate that these compounds also possess a trans configuration of their terminal ligands. Figure 2.12a shows a 400 MHz proton spectrum of  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^{**})_2(\text{CO})_4](\text{d}_6\text{-benzene})$  and figure 2.12b the same spectral region for  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^{**})_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-4-Ph-Py})_2(\text{Ph}_4\text{B})_2](\text{d}_6\text{-DMSO})$ . The familiar doubling of signals for asymmetric ligand substituents seen earlier, is observed for the methyl and  $\alpha$ -methylene protons of the pyrazole bridge isobutyl groups ( $\delta = 0.35$  and  $\delta = 0.23$ ;  $\delta = 1.63$  and  $\delta = 1.55$  ppm respectively). In addition to the diastereotopic doubling, the methylene protons are split into pairs of doublets most likely indicative of slowly introconverting rotational isomers along the isobutyl chain.

**IR and  $^{31}\text{P}$  NMR Spectra:** Infrared spectra of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$  as fluorolube mulls show two strong bands attributable to CO stretches at  $\nu_{\text{CO}} = 1955$   $\text{cm}^{-1}$  and  $2010$   $\text{cm}^{-1}$ . The lower energy band is analogous to the CO bands seen in the redox active complexes and previously reported phosphine CO dimer compounds.<sup>19,18,22</sup> The higher energy band has not been reported previously and is most likely due to a solid state effect as it is not seen in solution spectra of this complex. Spectra of the remaining complexes all show a single broad CO stretch at  $1955$   $\text{cm}^{-1}$ .  $^{31}\text{P}$  NMR spectra showed a solitary singlet with chemical shifts between 95.02 and 104.29 ppm consistent with coordination of the phosphinite ligands to an Ir(I) metal center.<sup>24</sup>

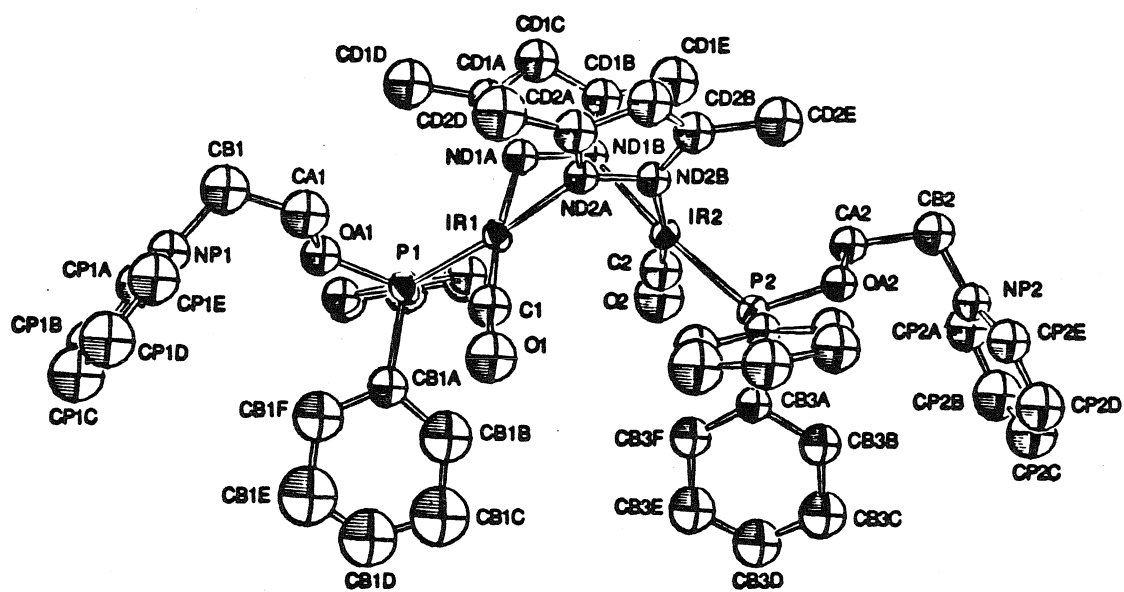
## Crystallographic Structure

To probe the structural properties of the iridium donor-acceptor complexes, the structure of  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Py})_2](\text{Ph}_4\text{B})_2$  was determined using x-ray crystallographic structure techniques. Results from this study indicate that this complex possesses structural properties similar to those seen in a number of related iridium and rhodium pyrazolate bridge dimers.<sup>19,18,22,25</sup> An ORTEP drawing of this compound with atomic numbering is shown in figure 2.13; selected bond distances and angles are summarized in table 2.4.

The complex consists of two  $d^8$  monomer fragments held in a face-to-face, A-frame configuration by a pair of 3,5-dimethylpyrazole bridging ligands. These ligands are nearly perpendicular to each other in the complex ( $\theta = 94.2^\circ$ ) and deviate only slightly from a planar geometry. The ND1A, ND1B, CD1A, CD1B, CD1C, CD1D, and CD1E atoms of the first pyrazole ring are displaced from the mean plane passing through them by 0.0, 0.0, 0.01, 0.03, 0.02, -0.02, and -0.03 Å; the ND2A, ND2B, CD2A, CD2B, CD2C, CD2D, CD2E atoms deviate from the plane passing through their pyrazolate ring by 0.0, -0.1, -0.02, 0.0, -0.04, -0.04, and -0.03 Å. The torsional angles summarized in table 2.5 indicate that the two iridium atoms and four pyrazole nitrogen atoms define a nearly perfect boat conformation. Interestingly, the two pairs of Ir-N-N angles in the boat differ by approximately  $5^\circ$  and are related by the molecule's  $C_2$  axis. These minor deviations may reflect the different steric requirements of the complex's terminal CO and phosphine ligands. The metal-metal separation of 3.219(1) Å found in this complex is intermediate between those seen in the structures of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz})_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_3)_2$  and  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz})_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_3)_2(\text{C}_6\text{H}_6)$  and is indicative of a



**Figure 2.13:** ORTEP drawing of  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Py})_2](\text{Ph}_4\text{B})_2$ .



**Table 2.4 Selected Distances and Angles****Iridium Coordination Sphere**

Distance(Å)		Angle(°)	
IR1 -IR2	3.219(1)	ND1A-IR1 -ND2A	83.0(4)
IR1 -C1	1.759(13)	C1 -IR1 -P1	90.1(4)
IR2 -C2	1.648(13)	ND2A-IR1 -C1	91.0(5)
IR1 -P1	2.217(3)	P1 -IR1 -ND1A	96.3(3)
IR2 -P2	2.216(3)	C1 -IR1 -ND1A	172.6(5)
IR2 -ND1B	2.066(9)	P1 -IR1 -ND2A	174.4(3)
IR1 -ND1A	2.045(9)	ND1B-IR2 -ND2B	83.2(3)
IR2 -ND2B	2.061(9)	C2 -IR2 -P2	95.1(5)
IR1 -ND2A	2.101(9)	ND1B-IR2 -C2	87.9(5)
		P2 -IR2 -ND2B	94.1(3)
		C2 -IR2 -ND2B	170.4(5)
		P2 -IR2 -ND1B	174.3(3)
		IR1 -ND2A-ND2B	119.2(7)
		IR1 -ND1A-ND1B	114.2(7)
		IR2 -ND1B-ND1A	119.5(7)
		ND2A-ND2B-IR2	114.2(7)

**CO Ligands**

Distance(Å)		Angle(°)	
C1 -O1	1.201(16)	O2 -C2 -IR2	179.1(12)
C2 -O2	1.260(17)	O1 -C1 -IR1	174.0(11)

**Iridium to Pyridinium Distances**

Distance(Å)	
IR1 -NP1	5.838(10)
IR2 -NP1	9.003(10)
IR2 -NP2	5.841(10)
IR1 -NP2	8.971(10)

**Phosphine Ligands**

Distance(Å)

Angle(°)

P1 -OA1	1.635(8)	IR1 -P1 -OA1	116.1(3)
P1 -CB1A	1.812(13)	IR1 -P1 -CB1A	115.9(4)
P1 -CB2A	1.809(11)	IR1 -P1 -CB2A	120.6(4)
OA1 -CA1	1.478(16)	CB1A-P1 -CB2A	101.4(6)
CA1 -CB1	1.49(2)	CB1A-P1 -OA1	100.3(5)
CB1 -NP1	1.482(18)	CB2A-P1 -OA1	99.2(5)
P2 -OA2	1.639(8)	CB2A-P1 -CB1A	101.4(6)
P2 -CB3A	1.803(12)	P1 -OA1 -CA1	118.8(7)
P2 -CB4A	1.795(12)	OA1 -CA1 -CB1	106.3(11)
OA2 -CA2	1.454(14)	CA1 -CB1 -NP1	113.8(12)
CA2 -CB2	1.557(17)	IR2 -P2 -OA2	115.1(3)
CB2 -NP2	1.474(16)	IR2 -P2 -CB3A	117.9(4)
		IR2 -P2 -CB4A	118.9(4)
		CB3A-P2 -CB4A	101.6(5)
		CB3A-P2 -OA2	101.0(5)
		CB4A-P2 -OA2	99.1(5)
		CB4A-P2 -CB3A	101.6(5)
		P2 -OA2 -CA2	116.1(7)
		OA2 -CA2 -CB2	105.1(9)
		CA2 -CB2 -NP2	111.5(10)

**Pyrazole Bridging Ligands**

Distance(Å)

Angle(°)

ND1A-ND1B	1.359(13)	CD1A-ND1A-IR1	139.6(8)
ND1A-CD1A	1.365(15)	CD1A-ND1A-ND1B	105.7(9)
ND1B-CD1B	1.337(16)	CD1B-ND1B-ND1A	109.8(9)
CD1A-CD1C	1.360(18)	CD1B-ND1B-IR2	130.7(8)
CD1A-CD1D	1.49(2)	CD1C-CD1A-ND1A	110.7(11)
CD1B-CD1C	1.39(2)	CD1D-CD1A-ND1A	118.9(11)
CD1B-CD1E	1.48(2)	CD1D-CD1A-CD1C	130.3(12)
ND2A-ND2B	1.345(13)	CD1C-CD1B-ND1B	108.6(11)
ND2A-CD2A	1.340(16)	CD1E-CD1B-ND1B	121.2(12)
ND2B-CD2B	1.347(15)	CD1E-CD1B-CD1C	130.0(12)
CD2A-CD2C	1.39(2)	CD1B-CD1C-CD1A	105.1(12)
CD2A-CD2D	1.49(2)	CD2A-ND2A-ND2B	110.8(9)
CD2B-CD2C	1.34(2)	CD2B-ND2B-IR2	139.3(8)
CD2B-CD2E	1.52(2)	CD2B-ND2B-ND2A	105.6(9)
		CD2C-CD2A-ND2A	106.6(11)
		CD2D-CD2A-ND2A	123.9(12)
		CD2D-CD2A-CD2C	129.4(13)
		CD2C-CD2B-ND2B	111.1(11)
		CD2E-CD2B-ND2B	118.6(11)
		CD2E-CD2B-CD2C	130.4(12)
		CD2B-CD2C-CD2A	105.9(12)

**Table 2.5** Selected Torsional Angles

Atoms	Angle (°)
Ir1-P1-OA1-CA1	-22.03
P1-OA1-CA1-CB1	-180.74
OA1-CA1-CB1-NP1	-285.02
Ir2-P2-OA2-CA2	-36.19
P2-OA2-CA2-CB2	185.65
OA2-CA2-CB2-NP	272.19
Ir1-ND1A-ND1B-Ir	25.76
Ir1-ND2A-ND2B-Ir	25.61
ND1A-ND1B-Ir2-ND2B	-68.88
ND2B-ND2A-Ir1-ND1A	-68.45
ND2A-ND2B-Ir2-ND1B	58.25
ND1B-ND1A-Ir1-ND2A	58.18

ground state metal-metal interaction similar to that described earlier for a number of  $d^8$ - $d^8$  metal dimers.<sup>26,19,6</sup> Notably, the terminal phosphinite and carbon monoxide ligands adopt a trans configuration with respect to the compound's metal-metal axis, which is consistent with the NMR spectroscopic data discussed in the previous section.

The coordination environment around each of the two iridium atoms in  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Py})_2](\text{Ph}_4\text{B})_2$  is approximately square planar. The bond angles between adjacent ligands in each of the square planes are close to  $90^\circ$  with the N-Ir-N angles consistently smaller than the other L-P-L angles. Both of the  $d^8$  monomer fragments deviate from a rigorous planar geometry. The displacements of the Ir1, ND1A, ND2A, C1, P1 and Ir2, ND1B, ND2B, C2, P2 atoms from the mean planes passing through them are -0.015, -0.076, 0.095, -0.087, 0.083 and 0.017, -0.082, 0.061, 0.072, -0.068 Å, respectively. The Ir1-C1 and Ir2-C2 bond lengths differ by approximately 0.1 Å. This difference can be attributed to systematic errors in correcting the diffraction intensities for iridium absorption effects based on two observations made during the structure refinement process. Least squares refinements were carried out on two different data sets. One was corrected for heavy atom absorption, while a second data set was left in its uncorrected form. With the exception of the Ir1-C1 and Ir2-C2 bonds, structures refined from both data sets were nearly identical. It was found that the disparity in the Ir-CO bond lengths was larger in structures refined from uncorrected diffraction data. Secondly, structures refined using only high angle reflections had Ir-CO bond lengths that were the same within their estimated standard deviations. Because low angle reflections are more sensitive to errors incurred from heavy atom absorption, this result further substantiates that the 0.1 Å difference in the Ir-CO bond lengths is due to Ir x-ray absorption effects.

The bond lengths and angles for comparable substituents on each of the phosphinite ligands in this complex are the same within their estimated standard

deviations. In addition, the torsional angles along the ligands' alkoxy substituents are similar indicating that the molecules possess implicit  $C_2$  symmetry in the solid state. Both ligands adopt a rotational conformation about the Ir-P bond which avoids less favorable steric interactions between the phosphine phenyl groups and the bridging pyrazole ligands. While this solid state conformation represents a lower energy configuration of the Ir-P rotational coordinate, other conformations are most likely accessible in fluid solution (vide infra). The Ir-P-O-C and P-O-C-C torsional angles in the ligand alkoxy groups are substantially less than  $180^\circ$  and leave the three atom bridging group linking the pyridinium cation to the metal complex partially extended. This particular solid state conformation occurs, most likely, as a result of crystal packing forces. The 5.9 Å through space distance between the two redox partners is intermediate in value between that for a fully extended chain (6.9 Å) and for their Van der Waals contact distance.

### **Discussion**

In the previous sections a detailed description was given of the preparation and characterization of the  $d^8$ - $d^8$  intramolecular redox molecules, which will form the focus of the subsequent chapters of this thesis. These results will now be examined with regards to: 1) the scope of the synthetic methodologies developed toward preparing a wide variety of donor-acceptor molecules. 2) Structural relationships amongst these complexes and related  $d^8$ - $d^8$  A-frame complexes. 3) The conformational properties of the redox ligands and the range of intramolecular electron-transfer distances available in these complexes.

**Synthetic Methodology:** A long term goal of this research program is to design, synthesize, and study intramolecular electron-transfer systems to understand kinetic

factors such as reaction exoergicity, donor-acceptor separation and orientation, and solvent dynamical effects in electron-transfer reactions. Central to the pursuance of this goal is the development of synthetic methodologies that are flexible enough to allow the redox potentials of the donor and acceptor, the electronic properties of the bridging group, and the donor-acceptor separation to be readily varied within a series of redox complexes. The approach to forming a covalent linkage between an electron donor and acceptor presented in this study possesses two important features for developing a range of different donor-acceptor systems. In contrast to some recently reported excited state donor-acceptor systems based on porphyrins<sup>27,2b</sup> and bipyridyl transition metal complexes,<sup>28</sup> the redox active phosphine approach outlined in this study is not restricted to a particular inorganic complex. In principle, redox phosphinite ligands could be used to probe excited state ET reactions in any chromophore containing phosphine ligands. Studies spanning a range of different inorganic chromophores will be important in understanding variations in electron transfer rates as a function of the nature of the excited donor. In addition, the synthetic methodology developed here may prove to be general enough to allow for detailed studies of the medium effects that control excited state ET processes. The range of electronically different bridging groups, which could be incorporated into a series of redox active ligands, should be limited only by the availability of a corresponding haloalcohol. Research involving the preparation and study of new ligands and complexes is currently being pursued in our laboratories.

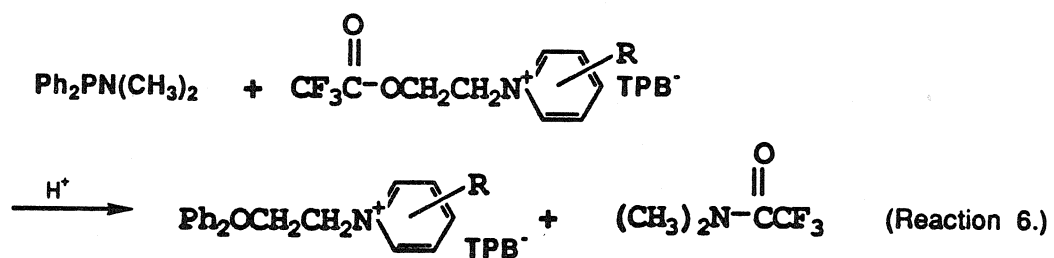
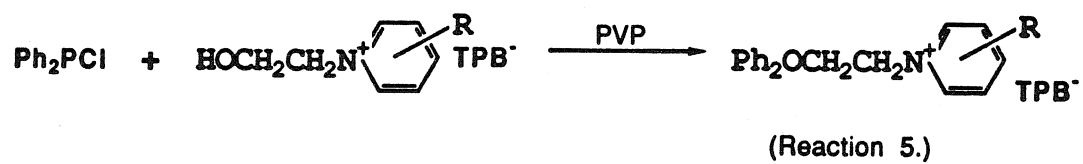
Future studies designed to explore the driving force dependence of electron transfer in the  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Py-R})_2]$  systems will require a series of complexes spanning a range of reaction driving forces. The reaction exoergicity in these complexes can, in principle, be controlled by varying substituents on the pyridinium aromatic ring. The viability of this approach has been demonstrated in bimolecular driving force studies.<sup>5,6</sup> While the synthetic methodologies developed in



this chapter can be used to prepare ligands containing several different pyridinium cations, there were some notable exceptions, which warrant further discussion. The alcoholysis reaction of N,N-dimethyl-P,P-diphenylphosphine proved useful in synthesizing a number of redox ligands with higher electrochemical reduction potentials, but it could not be extended to the preparation of ligands containing more activated pyridinium cations. Based on the current literature, the difficulties surrounding these reactions were attributed to irreversible ring opening reactions between dimethylamine and the more reactive cyano and carbomethoxy pyridinium cations.<sup>16</sup> Several different R<sub>2</sub>NH leaving groups were assayed with regard to their reactivity toward 4-cyano-1-methylpyridinium, but none were found to be inert enough to avoid pyridinium ring opening as a rapid side reaction. Thus, reactions that avoid secondary amines as a reaction side product must be developed to prepare ligands with lower electrochemical reduction potentials.

Two alternative approaches to preparing diphenylphosphine esters, which would circumvent this problem, are shown in figure 2.14. Reaction 5 is based on the facile alcoholysis reactions of phosphinous acid chlorides.<sup>15</sup> In this particular case, polyvinylpyridine (PVP) acts as a proton sponge for scavenging HCl liberated during the reaction. Features of this approach, which make it attractive, are its mild reaction conditions and the ease with which the products can be isolated from PVP-HCl. Preliminary results along these lines have shown promise.<sup>29</sup> Reaction 6 is based on some recent work published by Batyeva<sup>30</sup> and coworkers and represents an extension of Nifant'ev's research on acid catalyzed reactions of phosphorous III amides.<sup>31</sup> Attractive features of this approach are that it could be carried out under mild reaction conditions and that the dimethylamine liberated during the reaction is sequestered as its corresponding acetamide. Either of these approaches could serve as viable routes to

**Figure 2.14:** Alternative reactions for preparing high driving force redox ligands.



ligands with redox potentials outside the range available with the current compounds.

**Structural Properties:** An understanding of intramolecular electron transfer in the donor-acceptor systems prepared here will be developed by making comparisons between the photophysical properties of the redox active complexes and their corresponding "model compounds." An underlying assumption of this approach is that the complexes represent a structurally and electronically homologous series of compounds. The electronic properties of the redox complexes and model compounds are investigated in detail in chapter three. The structural similarity between these molecules follows from the NMR and IR spectroscopic results presented in this chapter. These data clearly establish that all of the  $d^8$ - $d^8$  complexes contain two terminal carbon monoxide and phosphinite ligands arranged in a trans configuration with respect to the metal-metal axis.

The crystal structure of  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Py})_2](\text{Ph}_4\text{B})_2$  shows that the complexes are structurally related to perviously reported  $d^8$ - $d^8$  A-frame complexes.<sup>38</sup> As seen in table 2.16 the metal-metal separation in this complex is similar to those reported earlier for a number of analogous metal dimers. Previous studies have shown that the unique electronic and photophysical properties of  $d^8$ - $d^8$  A-frame metal dimers arise from the pseudoaxial interactions between their Ir(I) metal centers.<sup>39</sup> These data (table 2.16) suggest that the photophysical models developed for  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz-R})_2(\text{COD})_2]$ <sup>6</sup> and  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_3\text{P})_2$ <sup>32</sup> may serve as reference points for understanding the photophysics of the donor-acceptor complexes. This concept will be explored to a greater extent in chapter 3.

**ET Distance:** During the past decade detailed theoretical and experimental studies concerning the electronic factors that control electron-transfer reactions have

**Table 2.6:** Metal-Metal Bond Distances for Selected A-Frame Complexes

<b>Compound</b>	<b>d (Å)</b>
$[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Py})_2](\text{Ph}_4\text{B})_2$	3.219(1)
<sup>a</sup> $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz})_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_3\text{P})_2$	3.163(2)
<sup>b</sup> $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz})_2(\text{COD})_2$	3.216(1)
<sup>b</sup> $\text{Ir}_2(\text{-3,4,5-Me}_3)_2(\text{COD})_2$	3.096(1)

a. See reference 19.

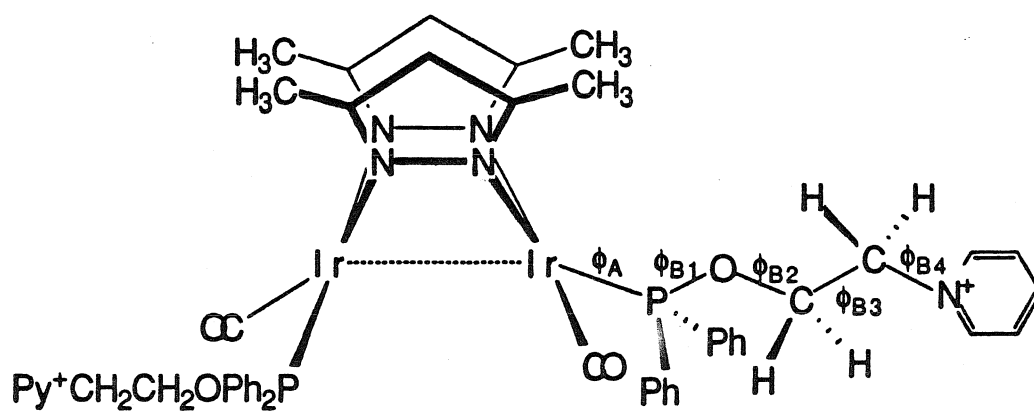
b. See reference 6 and references cited there.

identified donor-acceptor separation and orientation as two primary ET variables. Hopfield has proposed an approximately exponential distance dependence for ET reactions as a consequence of long range overlap between the "wavefunction tails" for the transferring electron.<sup>33</sup> Explicit models directed toward understanding the roles played by bridging groups in donor-acceptor systems have more recently been developed by Beratan and Onuchic within this general framework.<sup>34</sup> Concurrent with developing theories, a number of fixed distance, fixed orientation donor-acceptor systems have appeared in the literature for studying medium effects in electron-transfer reactions. Such systems have employed a variety of bridging groups, ranging from synthetically prepared organic spacers to genetically engineered metalloproteins.<sup>4a</sup> Central to this area of electron-transfer research is understanding what constitutes the "electron-transfer medium" and how this medium facilitates the ET process. A detailed understanding of these effects will develop from the design and study of systems that carefully vary molecular ET parameters in a systematic fashion.

While the donor-acceptor systems reported in this chapter lack the structural rigidity necessary for studying distance and orientation effects in electron transfer, the three atom linker in these  $d^8$ - $d^8$  complexes should restrict the distances and orientations for ET to a more limited range of values than those available in bimolecular reactions. A qualitative understanding of this range of values can be developed by using NMR spectra of  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_3\text{P})_2]$  in conjunction with results from a molecular graphics and mechanics analysis of  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Py})_2](\text{Ph}_4\text{B})_2$ .

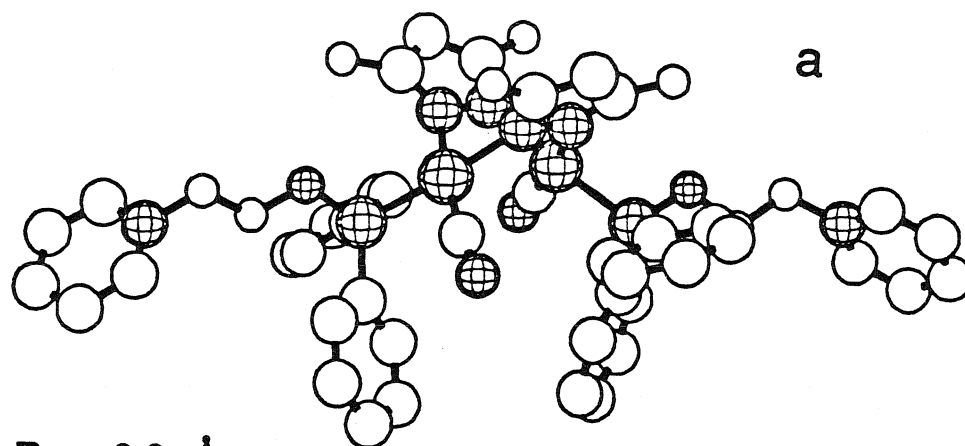
A consideration of CPK models of  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Py})_2](\text{Ph}_4\text{B})_2$  shows that there are essentially two types of internal rotations that alter the distance and orientation between the iridium atoms and pyridinium aromatic

**Figure 2.15:** Structure showing the torsional angles pertinent to variations in the electron-transfer distance in  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Py})_2](\text{Ph}_4\text{B})_2$ .



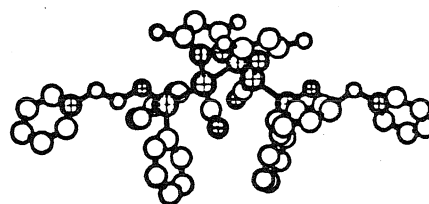
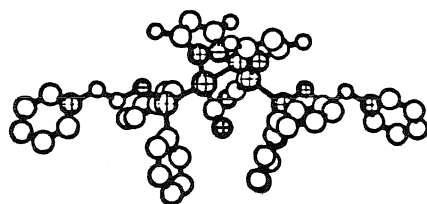


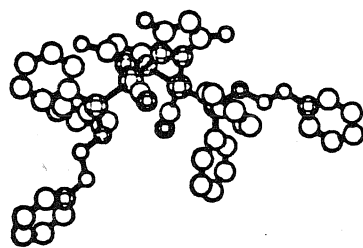
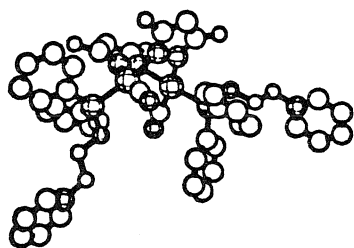
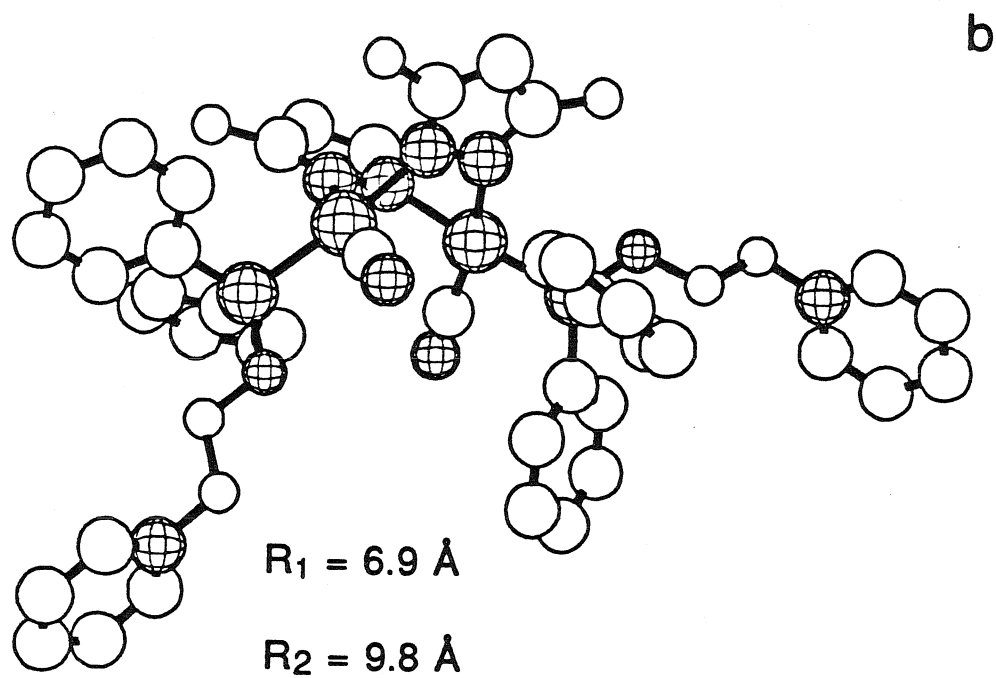
**Figure 2.16 a, b, and c:** Structures showing three different phosphinite ligand rotational conformations, which are related by a  $120^\circ$  rotation about the Ir-P bond ( $\phi_A$ ).  $R_1$  and  $R_2$  are the through space distances between the lefthand pyridinium nitrogen and its proximal and distal iridium atoms respectively. Cross hatched spheres represent the heteroatoms. Sphere sizes were chosen for the purpose of clarity and should not be interpreted as thermal ellipsoids. In each case  $\phi_{B1} = \phi_{B2} = \phi_{B3} = 180^\circ$ ;  $\phi_{B4} = 90^\circ$ .

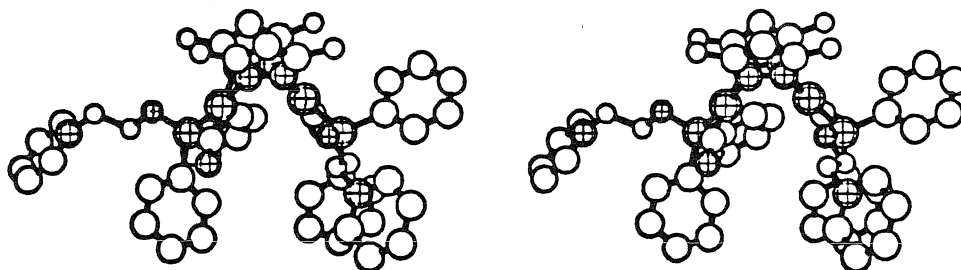
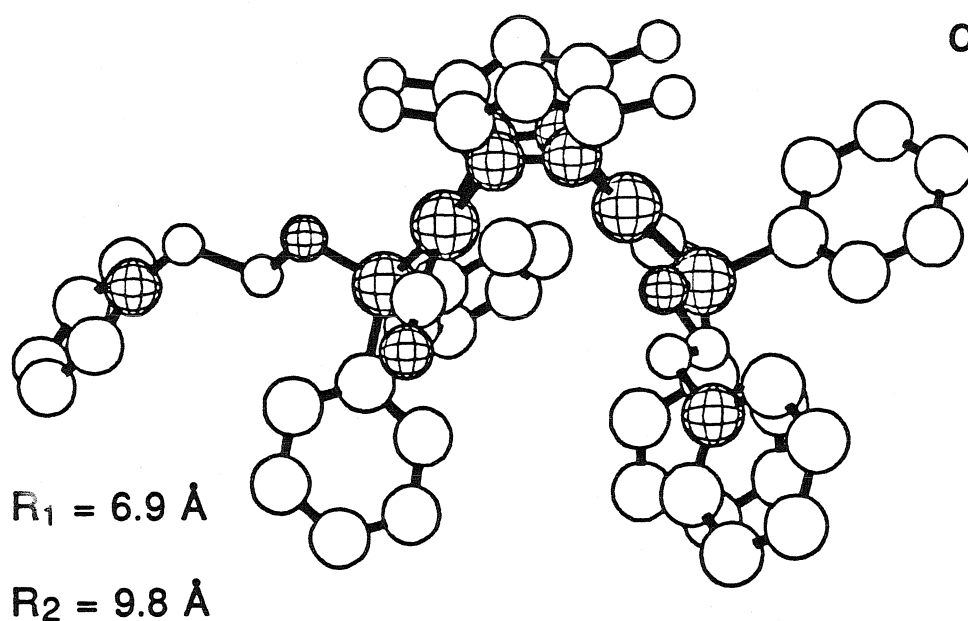


$R_1 = 6.9 \text{ \AA}$

$R_2 = 9.8 \text{ \AA}$







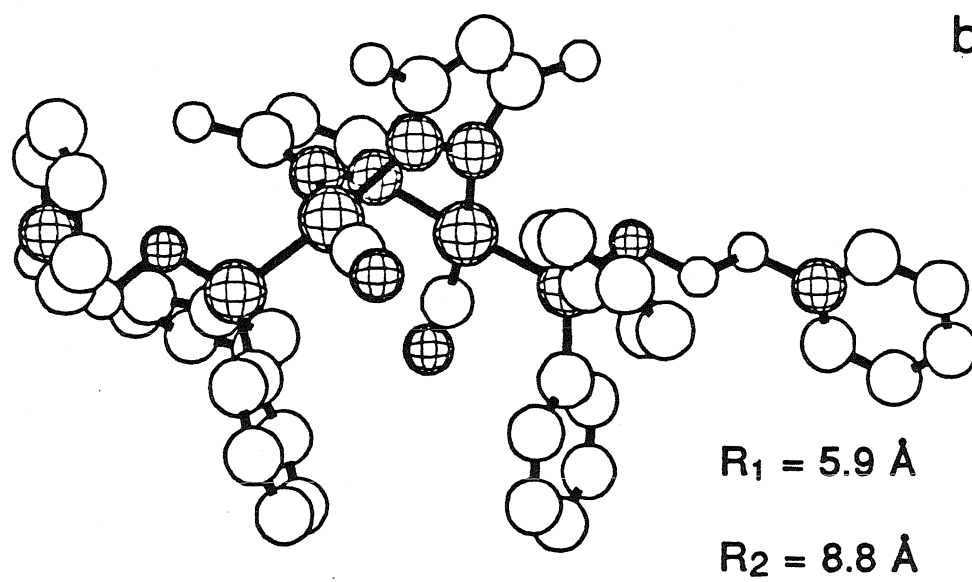
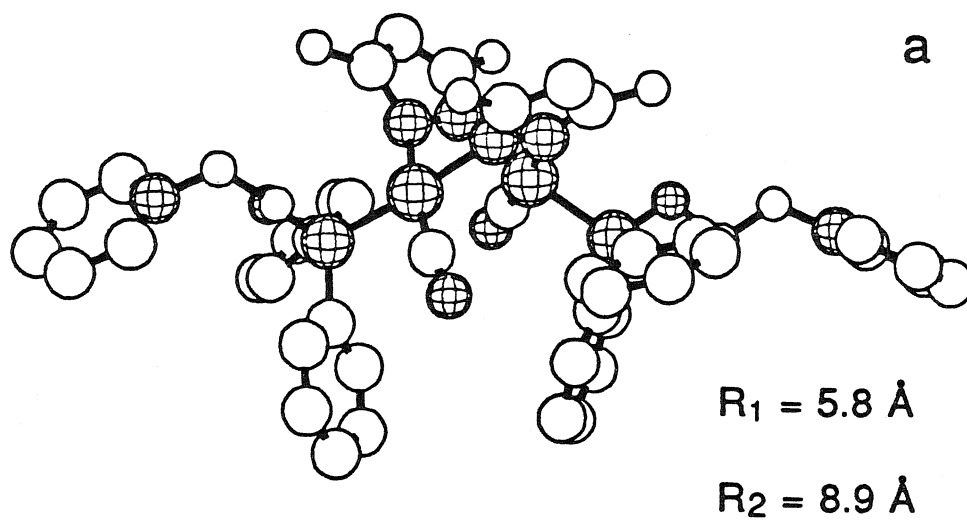
ring (figure 2.15). Rotations about either of its Ir-P bonds ( $\phi_A$ ) drastically affects the relative orientation of the two redox partners. As seen in figures 2.16 a,b,c this rotation essentially allows the pyridinium cation to access different regions of the iridium dimer chromophore. Conformation I (figure 2.16a) probes distances and orientations over one of the square planar ends of the molecule, while conformations II (figure 2.16b) and III (figure 2.16c) access regions below the terminal ligands and approximately perpendicular to the pyrazole ligands, respectively. Within each of these three Ir-P conformers, rotations about bonds along the linker backbone ( $\phi_{B1}$ ,  $\phi_{B2}$ ,  $\phi_{B3}$ ,  $\phi_{B4}$ ) change the donor-acceptor distance over a region of the iridium dimer dictated by  $\phi_A$ . Rigid geometry conformational mapping calculations indicate that the through space distance separating the two redox partners varies between limiting values of 6.9 to 5.0 Å as a function of  $\phi_{B1}$ ,  $\phi_{B2}$ ,  $\phi_{B3}$ , and  $\phi_{B4}$ . Examples of the different ligand geometries found from this analysis are shown in figures 2.17a-k. In some configurations, the through space separation<sup>35</sup> between each of the complex's iridium metal centers and pyridinium ring are almost identical, while in other conformations these distances are very different. Therefore, distances from a pyridinium nitrogen atom to both of the iridium metal centers are reported with each structure.

This analysis indicates that there are a considerable number of orientations and donor-acceptor separations available to the  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Py-R})_2]$  redox systems. The true range of conformers present in solutions of these complexes will depend on the activity of each of their internal rotational degrees of freedom.  $\text{C}^{13}$  NMR  $T_1$  measurements have indicated that internal rotations in aliphatic hydrocarbons produce a distribution of solution conformers that exchange on a picosecond time scale. At the present time, the activity of the spacer group rotations can be inferred from these results. Further studies will be necessary to characterize these degrees of freedom and their effect on photoinduced electron transfer processes in our compounds. Careful

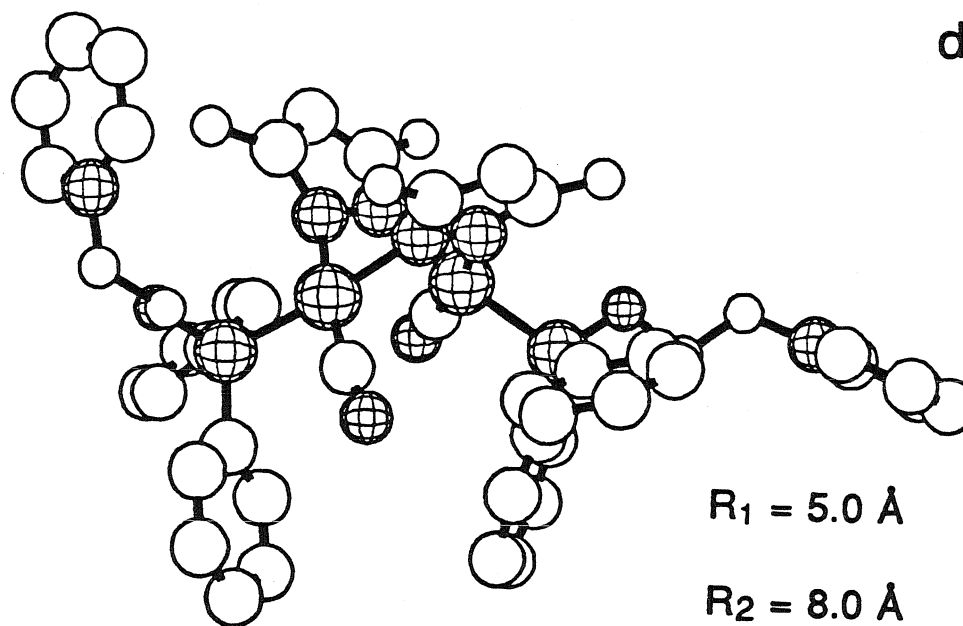
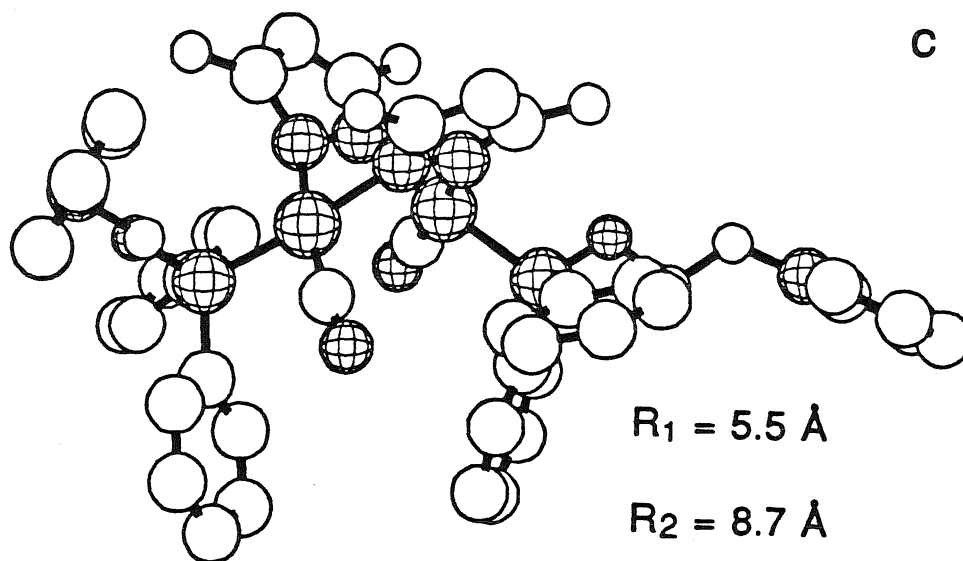
consideration of the proton NMR spectrum of  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_3\text{P})_2]$  indicates that motion about the Ir-P bonds in the  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Py-R})_2]$  complexes must also be important in determining their range of solution conformations. If the triphenylphosphine phenyl groups in  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_3\text{P})_2]$  interconvert via intramolecular rotations, NMR spectra of this complex should show at most three groups of multiplets for its ligand aromatic protons. As seen in figure 2.18 the ortho, meta and para protons in this complex appear a complex multiplet at  $\delta = 7.8$  ppm (ortho) and a singlet at  $\delta = 7.0$  ppm (meta+para), indicating that the ligand phenyl groups exchange magnetic environments on an NMR timescale. Based on Tolman cone angle arguments,<sup>36</sup> rotations about  $\phi_A$  in  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Py})_2]$  should be hindered mainly by its phosphinite phenyl substituents. Because this rotational degree of freedom is active in  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_3\text{P})_2]$ , it should be active in the donor-acceptor complexes as well.

In a bimolecular electron-transfer reaction the value of  $k_{\text{obs}}$  is controlled by the relative rates of electron transfer and molecular diffusion. Under steady-state conditions, "reactive pairs" of redox partners are formed via diffusional processes and are subsequently transformed into products<sup>37</sup>. If  $k_{\text{ET}} \gg k_{\text{diff}}$ , as is the case in many excited state ET reactions, then the observed reaction rate becomes diffusion limited. In a "fixed site" donor-acceptor system the redox partners are held at a constant distance and orientation by a rigid covalent linkage. Here,  $k_{\text{obs}}$  is determined solely by factors that govern  $k_{\text{et}}$ , because the reactants have been synthetically preassembled into reactant pairs. The structural analysis presented above suggests that electron transfer in these  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Py-R})_2]$  complexes may occur under the influence of a pairwise diffusional process not found in either bimolecular reactions or in fixed site ET systems. The redox partners in these complexes are assembled into

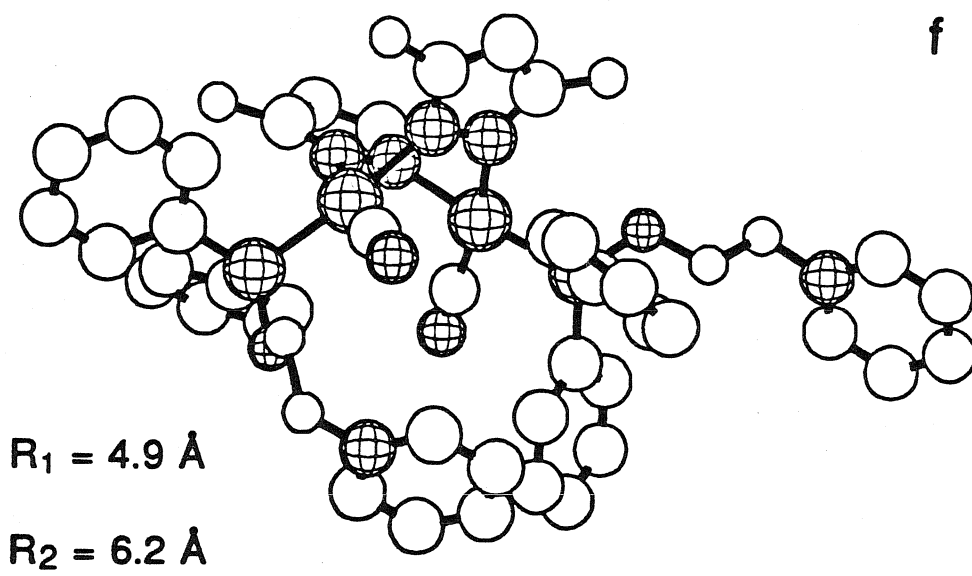
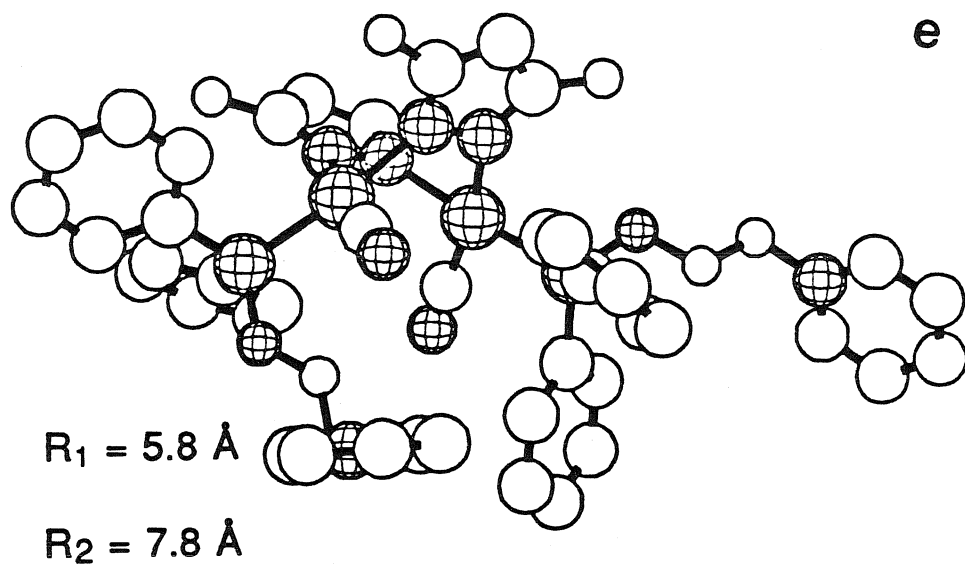
**Figure 2.17 a-d:** Structures showing variations in the orientation and distance between the pyridinium cation and iridium dimer as a function of  $\phi_{B1}$ ,  $\phi_{B2}$ ,  $\phi_{B3}$ , and  $\phi_{B4}$  for ligand conformation I (figure 2.15a).  $R_1$  and  $R_2$  are the through space distance between the lefthand pyridinium nitrogen and its proximal and distal iridium atoms respectively.

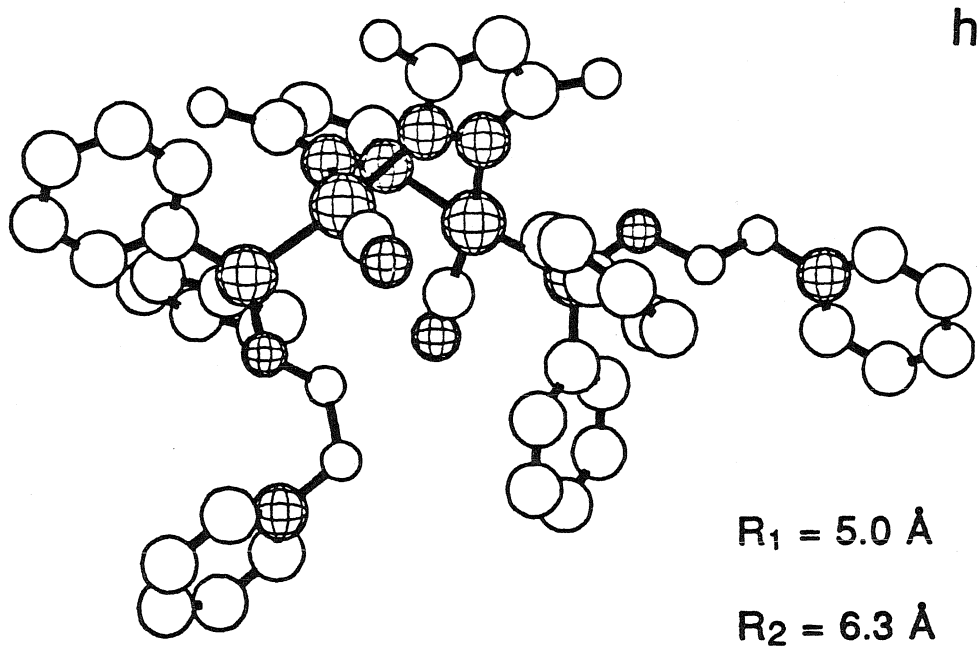
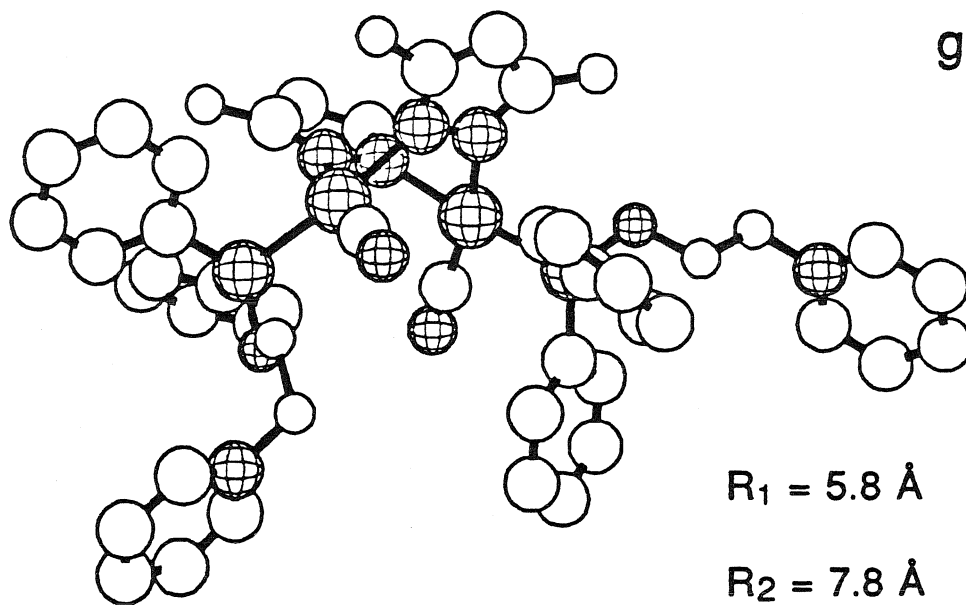




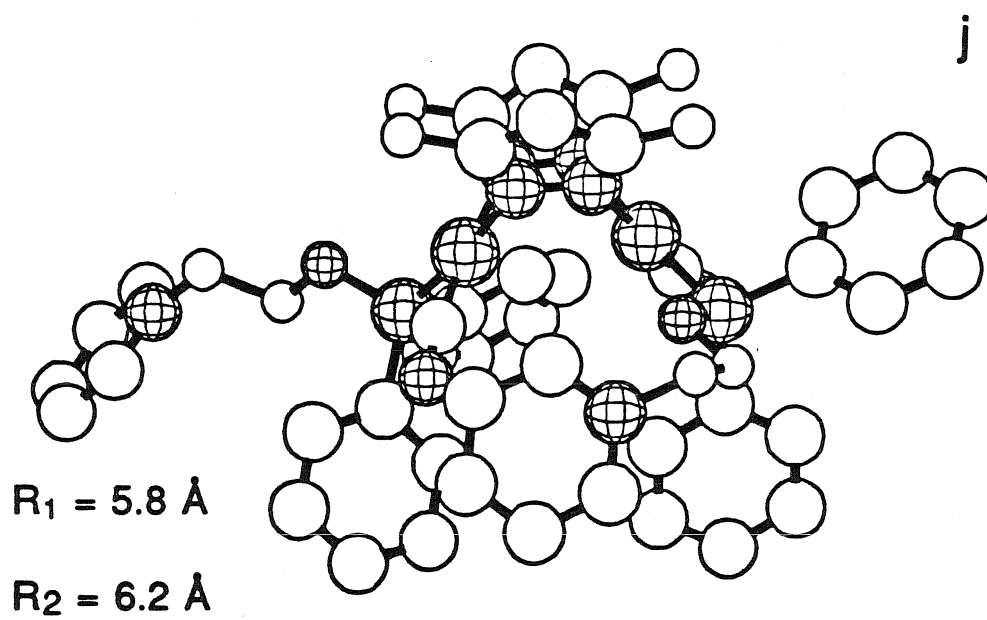
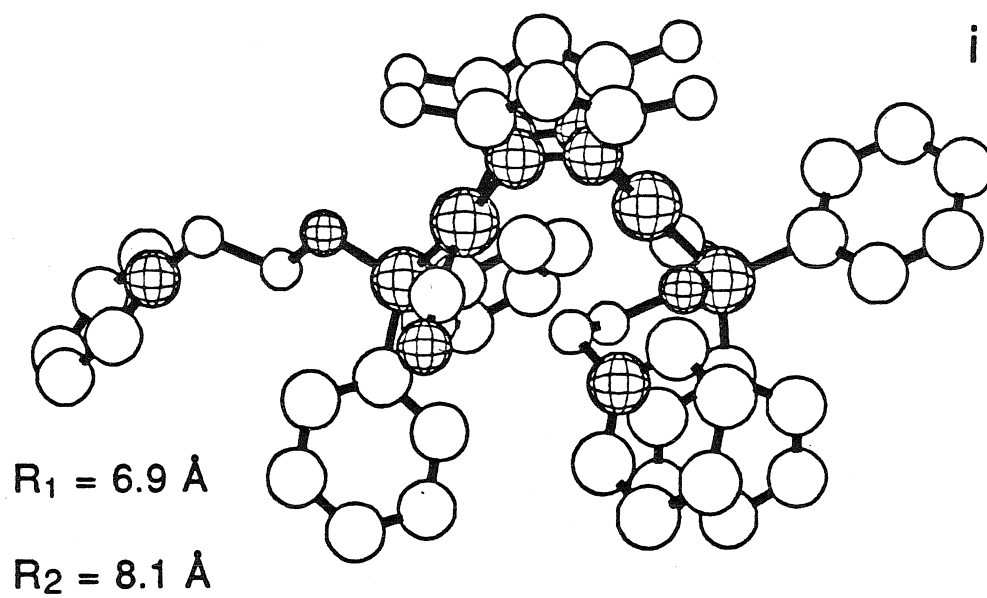


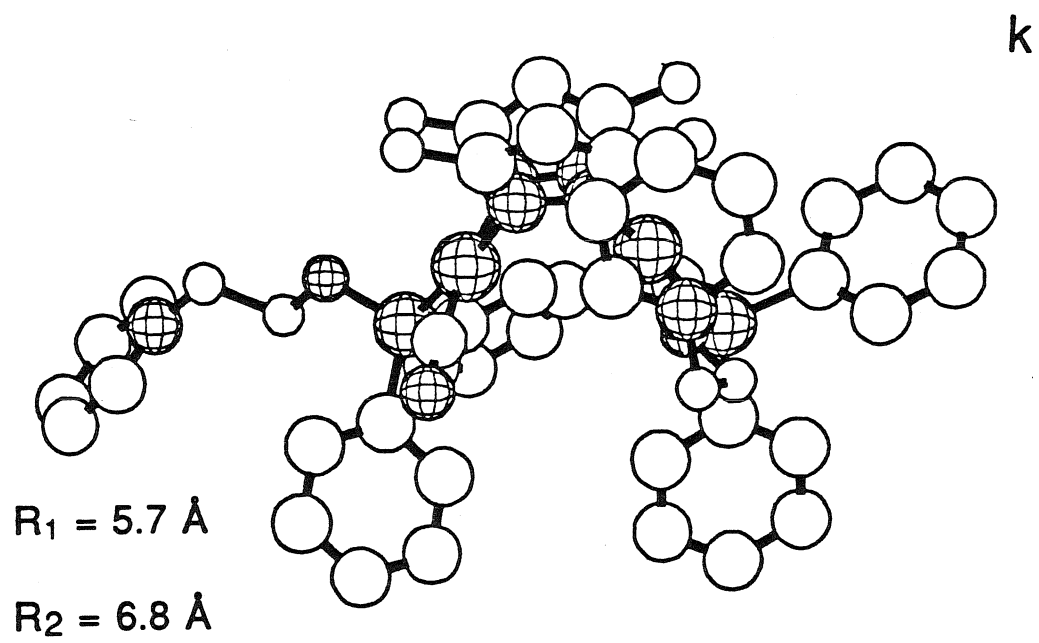
**Figure 2.17 e-h:** Structures showing variations in the orientation and distance between the pyridinium cation and iridium dimer as a function of  $\phi_{B1}$ ,  $\phi_{B2}$ ,  $\phi_{B3}$ , and  $\phi_{B4}$  for ligand conformation II (figure 2.15b).  $R_1$  and  $R_2$  are the through space distance between the lefthand pyridinium nitrogen and its proximal and distal iridium atoms respectively.





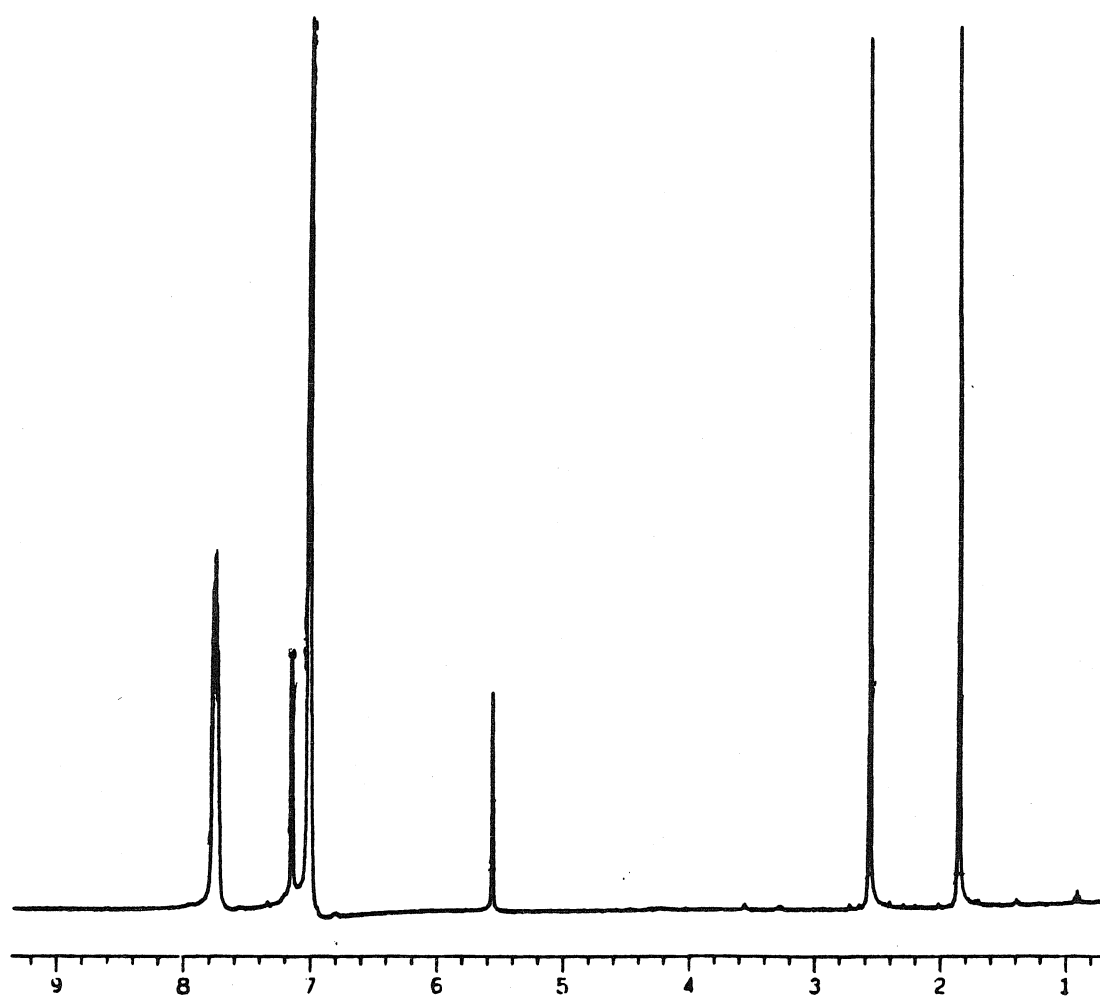
**Figure 2.17 i-k:** Structures showing variations in the orientation and distance between the pyridinium cation and iridium dimer as a function of  $\phi_{B1}$ ,  $\phi_{B2}$ ,  $\phi_{B3}$ , and  $\phi_{B4}$  for ligand conformation III (figure 2.15c).  $R_1$  and  $R_2$  are the through space distance between the righthand pyridinium nitrogen and its proximal and distal iridium atoms respectively.





**Figure 2.18:**  $^1\text{H}$  NMR spectrum of  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_3\text{P})_2]$  in  $\text{d}_6$ -benzene.





reactant pairs as in a fixed site compound, but are free to diffuse within a restricted region of solution defined by the conformational properties of the phosphinite ligands. The effect that intramolecular motion has on the observed rate of electron transfer in these complexes is at present poorly understood and represents an important area for future research. However, as we will see in chapters 3 and 4 the restrictions placed on bimolecular diffusion in these systems will be sufficient for studying excited state ET reactions with rate constants well above  $k_{\text{diff}}$ .

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**Chapter 3**  
**Electronic Spectra**  
**and**  
**Electrochemistry**

## Introduction

Having prepared and characterized a series of  $d^8$ - $d^8$  donor-acceptor complexes, our attention will now turn toward investigating their photophysical properties. As we saw in the previous chapter, one consequence of covalently binding electron acceptors to an iridium dimer chromophore was to restrict the range of available distances and orientations between the metal centers and acceptors. This binding together of redox partners also has some important photophysical implications. In principle the donor-acceptor complexes represent unique molecular electronic systems. They possess an additional charge-separated excited state that arises solely due to interactions between their redox partners. This state can potentially be accessed from the donor (acceptor) localized levels through radiative and nonradiative processes. Depending upon the nature of the interactions between these charge-transfer and donor (acceptor) localized states, certain photophysical properties of the donor-acceptor molecules will be perturbed. For example, if the charge-transfer state is populated via an electron transfer from a donor localized excited state, then the emission quantum yield and lifetime of the donor state should be diminished relative to an appropriate model compound. Previous studies have established that  $d^8$ - $d^8$  metal dimers possess low lying singlet and triplet excited states which arise from a  $(d\sigma^*p\sigma)$  electronic configuration. Thus, an important aspect of our studies was to determine how the photophysical properties of these  $d^8$ - $d^8$  excited states are perturbed by the presence of a covalently attached electron acceptor.

$\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$  and  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-NEt}_3^+)_2$  were employed as two model systems for these investigations. In terms of their composition, both compounds are similar to the donor-acceptor complexes. The later compound contains two non-reducible  $\text{NEt}_3^+$  groups to model the effects that positive charges have on the quantum yields and lifetimes of the metal localized  $(d\sigma^*p\sigma)$  excited states.

In the following chapter the electronic and photophysical properties of the donor-acceptor complexes are examined using steady-state absorption and emission



spectroscopy, and electrochemical techniques. Important objectives of this aspect of our research were; 1) to determine, either spectroscopically or through some indirect means, the relative energies of the ( $d\sigma^*p\sigma$ ) and charge-transfer states in these complexes, and 2) to obtain photophysical evidence for excited state electron transfer. Objective number one is clearly important with regard to characterizing the electron transfer reactions in the donor-acceptor complexes as a function of reaction driving force. Cyclic voltammetry and constant potential bulk electrolysis experiments were conducted to determine potentials for the ground state redox processes available in these systems. In the discussion section of this chapter these electrochemical data are used in conjunction with our spectroscopic results to evaluate the energies of the ( $d\sigma^*p\sigma$ ) and charge-transfer excited states in these redox systems. Objective number two was important with regard to some of the time-resolved spectroscopic experiments discussed in chapter 4. In interpreting spectra from these studies, it was essential to know which of the ( $d\sigma^*p\sigma$ ) excited states was involved in electron-transfer reactions. In the past the reactivity of  $d^8$ - $d^8$  compounds has been exclusively associated with their long lived triplet states. The quantum yield data presented in this chapter represent the first evidence that their shorter lived singlet states are also highly reactive under the appropriate kinetic conditions. In addition, it was important to characterize the spectroscopic properties of the charge-transfer states in these systems. In principle these states should relax ground via both radiative and nonradiative processes. Absorption and emission spectra of the compounds were central to identifying the dominant deactivation pathways available to the charge-transfer states in the complexes.

## **Experimental**

**General Procedures:** All manipulations involving the iridium dimer complexes were carried out using standard Schlenk and high vacuum techniques. Solvents used in

spectroscopic and electrochemical experiments were reagent grade or better in quality. They were purified as indicated, subjected to a minimum of five freeze/pump/thaw cycles, and stored in a round bottom storage flask fitted with a Kontes teflon stopcock. 2-Methyltetrahydrofuran was purified by distillation from a 0.5% (w/w) suspension of cuprous chloride, followed by distillation from  $\text{CaH}_2$  and finally from sodium/benzophenone. It was stored under vacuum over sodium/benzophenone as an indicator. Acetonitrile and propionitrile were distilled from  $\text{CaH}_2$  under nitrogen and stored in vacuo. Methylene chloride was distilled from  $\text{CaH}_2$ , subjected to five freeze/pump/thaw cycles and stored in a Schlenk storage flask under a nitrogen atmosphere.

**Electronic Absorption Spectroscopy:** Electronic Absorption spectra were recorded using a Cary 17 UV-Vis Spectrometer. Room temperature spectra were obtained from 2:1 2-methyltetrahydrofuran/propionitrile solutions that were prepared under vacuum in a 1 cm quartz cuvette attached to a Kontes Teflon stopcock. Low temperature spectra were measured using a quartz optical dewar of local design. Samples were chilled to 77° K in liquid nitrogen and maintained at that temperature via thermal contact with a copper block, which was immersed in a liquid nitrogen bath. Spectra were corrected for absorption due to the solvent, cuvette, and dewar. They were hand digitized using a Calcomp 2000 digitizing pad, an IBM-AT clone PC, and Pro-Design II version 2.5. Extinction coefficients and band widths (fwhm) were determined by fitting the observed band shapes to gaussian envelope functions using Peakfit version 1.2 (EMF Software). Oscillator strengths were calculated using equation 3.1.

$$f = 4.6 \times 10^{-9} \epsilon_{\text{max}} \bar{\nu}_{1/2} \quad \text{eq. 3.1}$$

**Electronic Emission Spectroscopy:** Electronic emission spectra were recorded on an in-house emission spectrometer whose construction and specifications have been previously described.<sup>5a</sup> Samples were excited with the 436 nm line of an oriel 200 watt Hg/Xe lamp. This line was selected with a Spex 1670 monochromator and filtered with an Oriel 436 nm (#5645) interference filter (fwhm = 80 nm) to remove stray excitation frequencies. Sample emission was collimated, focused on the slit of a Spex 1870 monochromator, and detected with a Hamamatsu R955 PMT. Scattered excitation was removed using a Corning 3387 sharp-cut filter. The signal was amplified with an EG&G 182-A lock-in amplifier and transferred to a Horizon North Star computer where it was digitized and corrected for PMT response. The corrected intensity data were transformed to a linear energy scale and plotted as a function of emission frequency. Room temperature spectra were measured of solutions consisting of an iridium dimer complex in dry oxygen-free acetonitrile. Samples were handled in a 1 cm high precision quartz fluorimetry cell that was attached to a Kontes Teflon stopcock. Low temperature spectra were obtained from 2:1 2-methyltetrahydrofuran/propionitrile solutions that were prepared under vacuum in an NMR tube attached to a Kontes Teflon stopcock. The samples were cooled to 77° K by immersing them in a liquid nitrogen bath contained in a quartz finger dewar. Room temperature quantum yields were determined by the optically dilute solution method of Crosby and Demas.<sup>37</sup> Integrated emission intensities were determined by the cut and weigh method of integration and used to calculate quantum yields according to equation 3.2. Ru(Bipy)<sub>3</sub><sup>2+</sup> served as a reference.<sup>38</sup>

$$Q_s = Q_r \left[ \frac{I_s}{I_r} \right] \left[ \frac{n_s}{n_r} \right]^2 \quad \text{eq. 3.2}$$

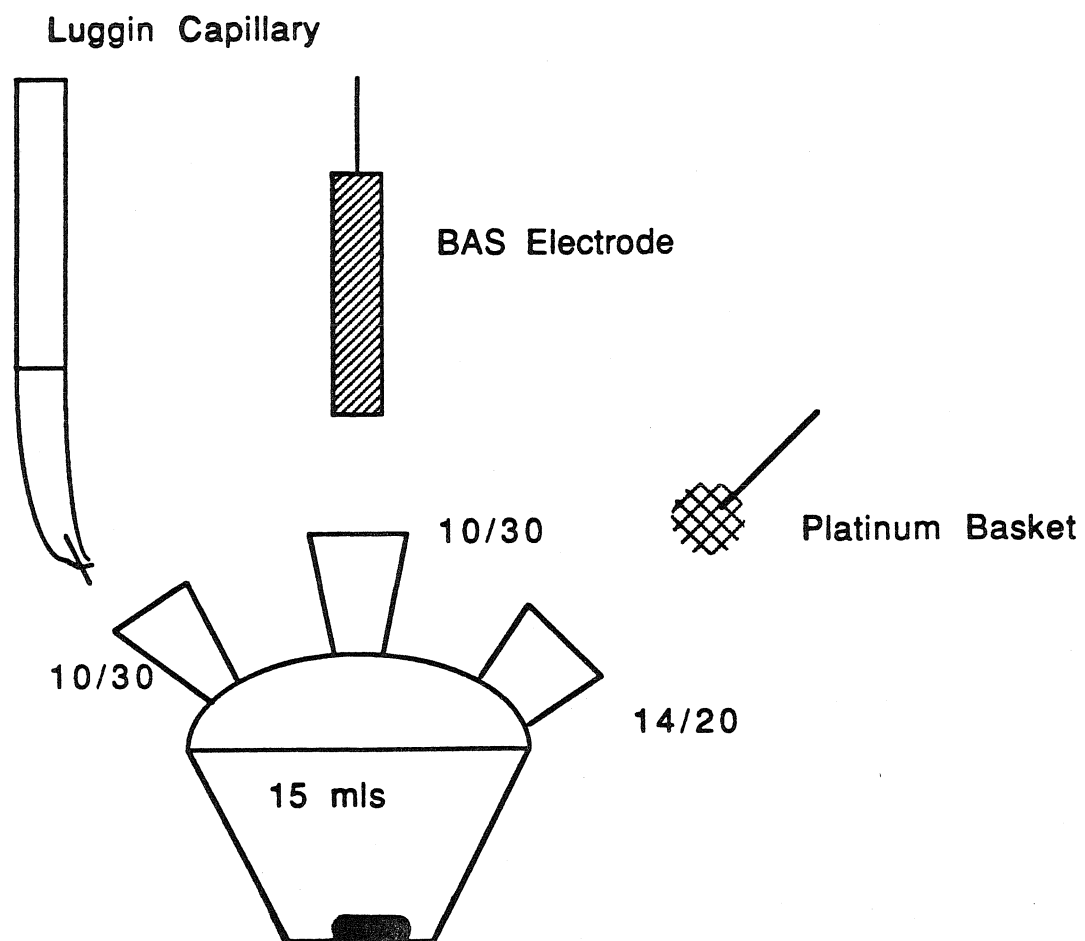
The ODs of the samples and reference at 436 nm were adjusted so that they were equivalent within experimental error and were less than or equal to 0.1.

Temperature dependent emission spectra of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$  were recorded using a CTI-Cryogenics model 70 Cryodyne Cryocooler. Samples were prepared under vacuum as 2-methyltetrahydrofuran solutions and flame sealed in 1 mm path length optical glass cuvettes. Cuvettes were mounted on a copper block, which was attached to the cold stage of the Cryocooler. Thermal contact between the sample and cold stage was achieved via copper grease. The sample temperature was measured using a copper/constantan thermocouple and was controlled with a CTI temperature controller. Samples were allowed to thermally equilibrate at each temperature for 1/2 hour.

**Excitation Spectroscopy:** Electronic excitation spectra of optically dilute solutions were recorded using a Perkin-Elmer model WPF-66 fluorimeter. Intensity data were corrected for variations in the lamp intensity profile using a Rhodamine B quantum counter and were plotted as a function of excitation frequency.

**Electrochemistry:** Cyclic voltammetry (CV) and constant potential bulk electrolysis experiments were performed using an EG&G 173 Potentiostat/Galvanostat, a 175 Universal Programmer, and a 179 Digital Coulometer. CVs were plotted on a Houston Instruments Omnigraphic 2000 XY-Recorder. Two different cell geometries were used to measure cyclic voltammograms and conduct constant potential coulometry experiments. CVs were measured at BAS platinum and glassy carbon electrodes using the electrochemical cell seen in figure 3.1. An SSCE, fitted with a vycor salt bridge, and a platinum basket electrode were employed as reference and counter electrodes respectively. Contact between the reference electrode and working electrode compartment was made through a luggin-capillary with a cracked glass tip. Positioning the luggin-capillary tip close to the surface of the working electrode reduced effects due to IR-drop inherent in electrochemical cells containing organic solvents. The properties of this cell were checked periodically using ferrocene as a test system. This cell

**Figure 3.1.** A schematic drawing of the electrochemical cell used in cyclic voltammetry experiments. The Luggin capillary arrangement used in this cell reduces effects due to IR drop, which are inherent in electrochemical experiments.



design and electrode geometry consistently reproduced literature  $E_{1/2}$  values for ferrocene and showed minor IR drop effects.

Interfacial electron-transfer kinetics between platinum electrodes and the iridium dimers were sensitive to the electrode pretreatment procedure. The following pretreatment suggested by Anson and Long<sup>42</sup> was used to obtain active platinum electrode surfaces. 1) Polish to a metallic luster using 0.3  $\mu\text{m}$  polishing alumina. 2) Sonicate in a 1:1 methanol/ water solution for 15 minutes. 3) Cycle the electrode in 0.5 M sulfuric acid between 1.0 V and -0.05 V versus SSCE until good  $\text{H}_2/\text{O}_2$  characteristics are seen. 4) Sonicate in the solvent used in the experiment at hand for 15 minutes. 5) Cycle the electrode in the supporting electrolyte solution to be used in the experiments until a constant background is observed. Cyclic voltammograms were typically measured on  $0.5 \times 10^{-3}$  M solutions of an iridium dimer complex in 10 mls of 0.1 M  $\text{TBAPF}_6/\text{CH}_2\text{Cl}_2$ . Measurements were carried out under an argon atmosphere.

Constant potential coulometry experiments were conducted in an H-tube type electrolysis cell. Electrolysis experiments were carried out at either a platinum basket or pyrolytic graphite working electrode and a platinum basket counter electrode. The working and counter electrode compartments were separated by a medium porosity glass frit. Potentials were measured with respect to an SSCE, which made contact with the working electrode compartment via a cracked glass luggin-capillary. Measurements were made in 0.1 M  $\text{TBAPF}_6/\text{CH}_2\text{Cl}_2$  solutions under an argon atmosphere.

## Results

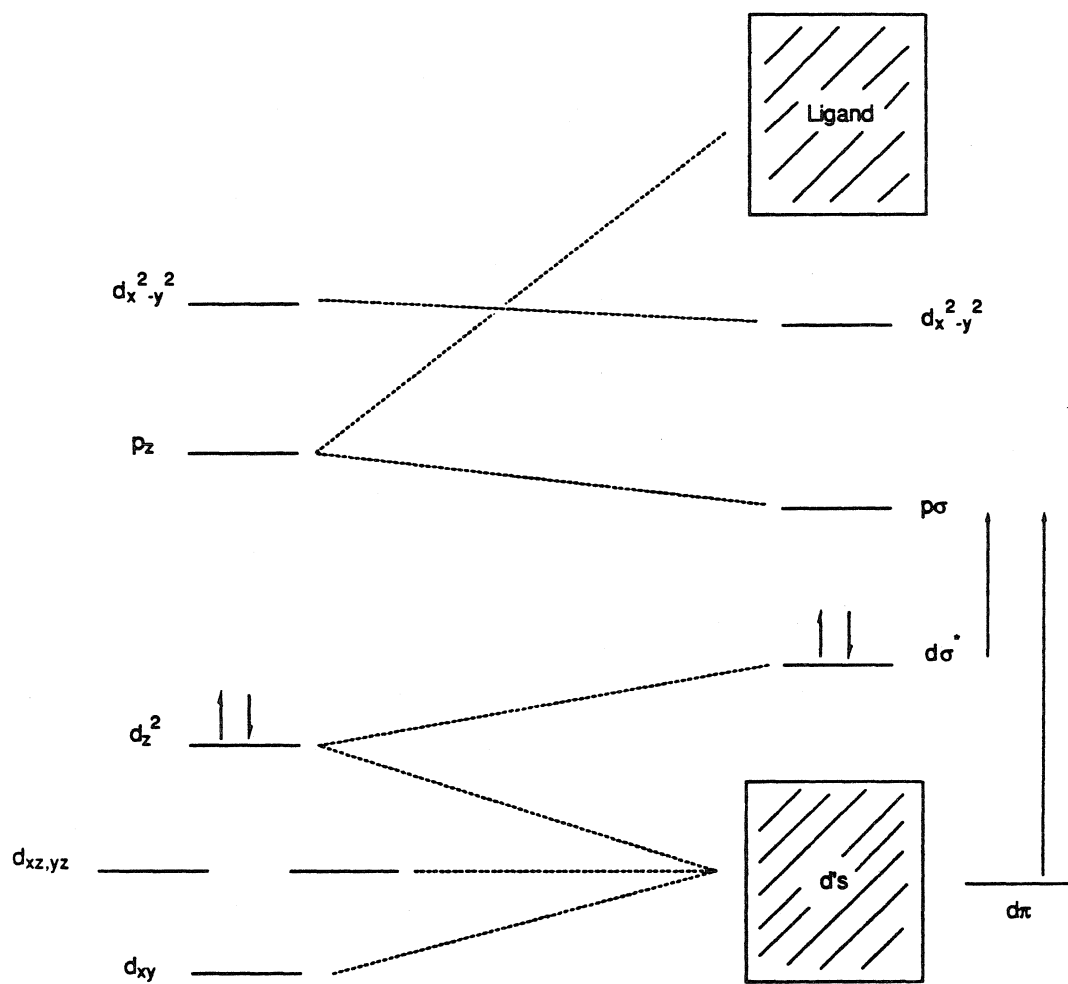
### **Electronic Spectroscopy**

The electronic structure and excited state properties of  $d^8$ - $d^8$  transition metal complexes are areas of current interest in inorganic photochemistry.<sup>1</sup> Recent research in our laboratories has indicated that the low lying excited states in these compounds display a variety of different chemical reactivities including the excited state oxidative addition of halocarbons,<sup>1b,2</sup> carbon-hydrogen bond activation,<sup>1b,3</sup> and outer-sphere electron transfer.<sup>1b,4</sup> These diverse photochemical and photophysical properties can be traced to the electronic excited states, which result from the axial metal-metal interactions inherent in these compounds. In the past, electronic spectroscopy has played a central role in understanding the electronic structure and excited state reactivity of these unique inorganic chromophores.<sup>5,6</sup> Thus, a logical starting point for research directed toward investigating the photophysics and photochemistry of a new class of  $d^8$ - $d^8$  complexes is an examination of their electronic spectra.

The current body of spectroscopic data concerning face-to-face  $d^8$ - $d^8$  complexes, such as  $[\text{Pt}_2(\text{P}_2\text{O}_5\text{H}_2)_4]^{2-}$  and  $[\text{Rh}_2(\text{Bridge})_4]^{2+}$ , indicates that the electronic structure of these systems can be schematically represented by the molecular orbital diagram shown in figure 3.2. Covalently linking two square planar  $d^8$  complexes into a dimeric molecule forces an axial interaction between the  $d_{z^2}$  and  $p_z$  orbitals of the monomeric fragments, which leads to the formation of  $d\sigma$  and  $p\sigma$  dimer MOs. Filling this MO scheme with the 16 metal electrons from the two monomer fragments leaves the  $d\sigma^*$  level as the compound's highest occupied molecular orbital. The low-lying electronic excited states in these complexes are generated by exciting one  $d\sigma^*$  electron into a vacant  $p\sigma$  orbital. This model makes some important predictions concerning the electronic



**Figure 3.2.** Molecular orbital diagram showing the metal based orbitals important to the electronic structure of  $d^8$ - $d^8$  metal dimers adapted from reference 22.



spectra and excited properties of  $d^8$ - $d^8$  metal complexes. First, the metal-metal interactions in these compounds should red shift their  $d \rightarrow p$  charge-transfer transitions with respect to transitions localized on a single  $d^8$  monomer. Thus, the electronic absorption spectra of  $d^8$ - $d^8$  metal dimers should show low energy  $d \rightarrow p$  bands that are well removed from a manifold of higher energy monomer transitions. In addition, because their low energy excited states involve  $d\sigma^* \rightarrow p\sigma$  electronic excitations, the strength of the metal-metal bond in these complexes should be greater in their  $d\sigma^*p\sigma$  excited states. Both of these predictions have been verified by recent single crystal spectroscopic studies<sup>5a,b,f,g</sup> and excited state resonance raman experiments<sup>7</sup> involving  $[Pt_2(P_2O_5H_2)_4]^{2-}$  and  $[Rh_2(bridge)_4]^{2+}$ . While the MO model predicts that the energies of the  $(d\sigma^* \rightarrow p\sigma)^1$  and  $(d\sigma^* \rightarrow p\sigma)^3$  electronic transitions in  $d^8$ - $d^8$  complexes are a function of a compound's metal-metal separation, the current body of data concerning face-to-face and A-frame metal dimers indicates that these energies are more intimately related to the type of metal centers, the bridging and terminal ligands, and the metal-metal separations found in these complexes. In this respect some care must be exercised when using this approach to make comparisons between  $d^8$ - $d^8$  dimers with substantially different coordination environments. However, within a structurally homologous series of complexes with identical metal centers and similar ligands, an MO approach should be adequate for understanding the  $(d\sigma^*p\sigma)$  excited states in these chromophores.

Recent spectroscopic studies, concerning a series of  $Ir_2(\mu\text{-pyrazolate})_2(COD)_2$  complexes, have indicated that the molecular orbital model developed for face-to-face  $d^8$ - $d^8$  compounds can be extended to describe the spectroscopic properties of A-frame metal dimers.<sup>8,3d</sup> The low energy excited states in these chromophores have been identified as the  $(d\sigma^*p\sigma)^1$  and  $(d\sigma^*p\sigma)^3$  states by virtue of their visible absorption bands and fluid solution emission spectra. Because detailed experiments, regarding

**Table 3.1:** Spectral Parameters for the Iridium Donor-Acceptor Complexes.

Complex <sup>a</sup>	Room T			77° K		
$\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2\text{L}_2$	$\nu_{\text{max}}^{\text{f}}$ $\text{cm}^{-1}$	$\epsilon_{\text{max}}^{\text{g}}$ $\text{M}^{-1}\text{cm}^{-1}$	$\nu_{1/2}^{\text{f}}$ $\text{cm}^{-1}$	$\nu_{\text{max}}$ $\text{cm}^{-1}$	$\epsilon_{\text{max}}$ $\text{M}^{-1}\text{cm}^{-1}$	$\nu_{1/2}$ $\text{cm}^{-1}$
<b>Band I (<math>\text{d}\sigma^* \rightarrow \text{p}\sigma</math>)<sup>1</sup></b>						
$\text{Ph}_2\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_3$	22,100	8900	2400	22,300	12,000	1600
$\text{Ph}_2\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-NEt}_3$	21,300	8500	24000	22,000	12,000	1600
$\text{Ph}_2\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Me}_3\text{Py}$	21,600	8500	2300	22,000	13,000	1600
$\text{Ph}_2\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-4MePy}^{\text{b}}$	21,500	7800	2400	21,500	11,000	1500
$\text{Ph}_2\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Py}$	21,700	7700	2600	21,800	11,000	1500
$\text{Ph}_2\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-4PhPy}^{\text{c}}$	21,900	6800	2500	-- <sup>d</sup>	--	--
<b>Band II (<math>\text{d}\sigma^* \rightarrow \text{p}\sigma</math>)<sup>3</sup></b>						
$\text{Ph}_2\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_3$	19,200 <sup>h</sup>	--	--	19,300	420	1400
$\text{Ph}_2\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-4MePy}$	-- <sup>e</sup>	--	--	18,600	450	1800
$\text{Ph}_2\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-NEt}_3$	-- <sup>e</sup>	--	--	19,600	410	1700
<b>Band III</b>						
$\text{Ph}_2\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_3$	28,200	5000	3800	28,100	5700	3200
$\text{Ph}_2\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-NEt}_3$	27,700	5000	4600	28,200	6000	3000
$\text{Ph}_2\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Me}_3\text{Py}$	28,300	5600	3700	28,700	8500	4200
$\text{Ph}_2\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-4MePy}$	27,300	5300	5300	27,000	5800	2900
$\text{Ph}_2\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Py}$	27,600	4000	4500	27,600	-- <sup>d</sup>	4500
$\text{Ph}_2\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-4PhPy}^{\text{c}}$	28,400	4400	4400	-- <sup>d</sup>	--	--

a. Spectra were measured in 2:1 2-methyltetrahydrofuran/propionitrile solutions unless otherwise indicated. b. A 3,5-dimethyl-4-isobutylpyrazole complex was used due to the poor solubility of the corresponding 3,5-dimethylpyrazole complex. c. Spectra measured in acetonitrile. d. Spectral parameters could not be determined due to the presence of intense  $\text{Ph}_4\text{B} \rightarrow 4\text{-PhPy}$  charge-transfer bands. e. Not observed at room temperature. f.  $\pm 100 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ . g.  $\pm 10\%$ . h. Determined from room temperature excitation spectra.

**Table 3.2:** Oscillator Strengths for the  $(d\sigma^* \rightarrow p\sigma)^{1,3}$  and Band III Electronic Transitions.

Complex	Room T <sup>a</sup> f	77° K <sup>a</sup> f
<b><math>(d\sigma^* \rightarrow p\sigma)^1</math></b>		
Ph <sub>2</sub> OCH <sub>2</sub> CH <sub>3</sub>	0.1	0.09
Ph <sub>2</sub> OCH <sub>2</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> -NEt <sub>3</sub>	0.09	0.09
Ph <sub>2</sub> OCH <sub>2</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> -Me <sub>3</sub> Py	0.09	0.10
Ph <sub>2</sub> OCH <sub>2</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> -4MePy	0.09	0.08
Ph <sub>2</sub> OCH <sub>2</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> -Py	0.09	0.08
Ph <sub>2</sub> OCH <sub>2</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> -4PhPy	0.08	--b
<b>Band III</b>		
Ph <sub>2</sub> OCH <sub>2</sub> CH <sub>3</sub>	0.09	0.08
Ph <sub>2</sub> OCH <sub>2</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> -NEt <sub>3</sub>	0.10	0.08
Ph <sub>2</sub> OCH <sub>2</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> -Me <sub>3</sub> Py	0.09	0.10
Ph <sub>2</sub> OCH <sub>2</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> -4MePy	0.10	0.08
Ph <sub>2</sub> OCH <sub>2</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> -Py	0.08	--b
Ph <sub>2</sub> OCH <sub>2</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> -4PhPy	0.09	--b
<b><math>(d\sigma^* \rightarrow p\sigma)^3</math></b>		
Ph <sub>2</sub> OCH <sub>2</sub> CH <sub>3</sub>	--	0.03
Ph <sub>2</sub> OCH <sub>2</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> -NEt <sub>3</sub>	--	0.03
Ph <sub>2</sub> OCH <sub>2</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> -4MePy	--	0.04

a. +,- 0.01

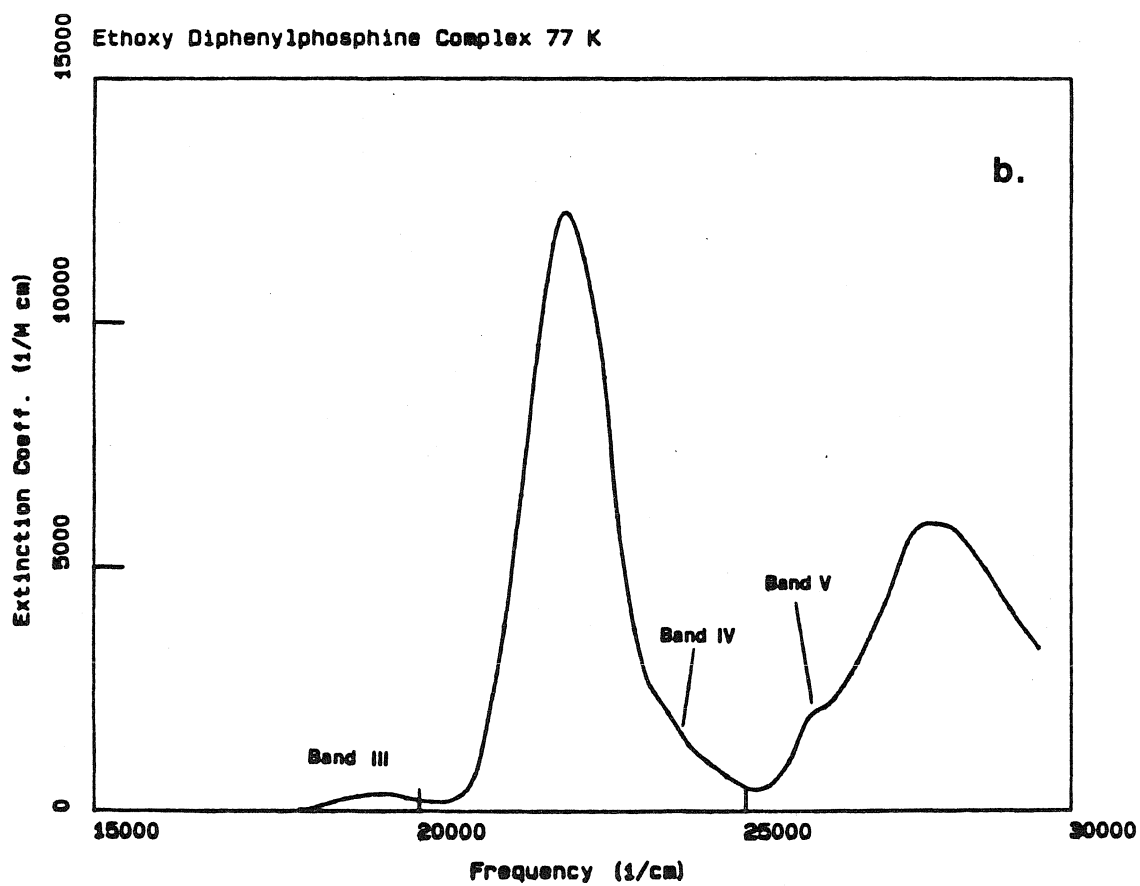
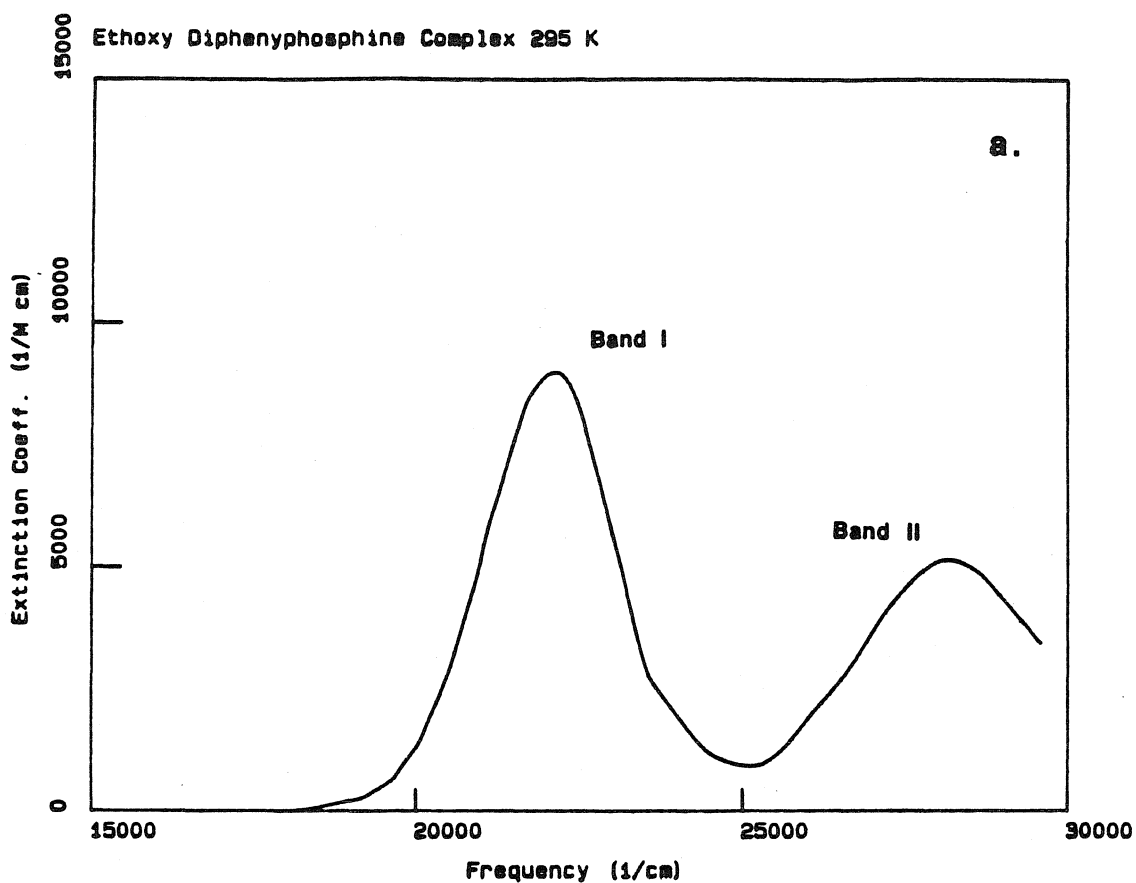
b. Not determined due to Ph<sub>4</sub>B → Py charge-transfer bands which distorted the transition's band shape

complexes with terminal phosphine and carbon monoxide ligand have not been carried out, spectroscopic studies of the donor-acceptor and model complexes were undertaken to characterize their low lying excited states.<sup>6</sup>

Electronic absorption and emission spectra of the model compounds and donor-acceptor complexes were for the most part identical within their experimental uncertainties. Spectroscopic parameters for all of the  $d^8$ - $d^8$  dimers are summarized in tables 3.1 to 3.3. The spectroscopic properties common to this series of compounds are discussed below by referring to absorption, emission, and excitation spectra of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$  as illustrative examples.

**Absorption Spectra:** The room temperature absorption spectra of the donor-acceptor complexes and model compounds in 2:1 2-methylTHF/propionitrile solutions show two intense absorption features with maxima at approximately  $21,000\text{ cm}^{-1}$  ( $\epsilon = 8500$ ) and  $27,900\text{ cm}^{-1}$  ( $\epsilon = 5000$ ). These transitions are labeled Band I and Band II in figure 3.3a. As seen in figure 3.3b Bands I and II sharpen and blue shift slightly in  $77^\circ\text{ K}$  glass spectra of the complexes, revealing three lower intensity transitions with maxima at approximately  $19,000\text{ cm}^{-1}$  (Band III),  $24,000\text{ cm}^{-1}$  (Band IV), and  $26,000\text{ cm}^{-1}$  (Band V). Band III represents the lowest energy spectroscopic transition in these compounds and is well resolved from the low energy wing of Band I at low temperature. Bands IV and V appear as shoulders on the high energy side of Band I and the low energy side of Band II, respectively. In terms of the relative intensities and energies of Bands I, II, and III, the electronic absorption spectra of the carbon monoxide, phosphine metal dimers, are strikingly similar to spectra of a series of  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz})_2(\text{COD})_2]$  complexes.<sup>8</sup> Thus, assignments for each of these transitions can be made by analogy to similar spectral features observed for the corresponding cyclooctadiene systems. Based on its intensity and temperature independent oscillator strength, Band I is assigned to a fully

**Figure 3.3.** Absorption spectrum of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$  in 2:1 2-methyltetrahydrofuran/propionitrile solutions. a) Room temperature. b) 77° K.



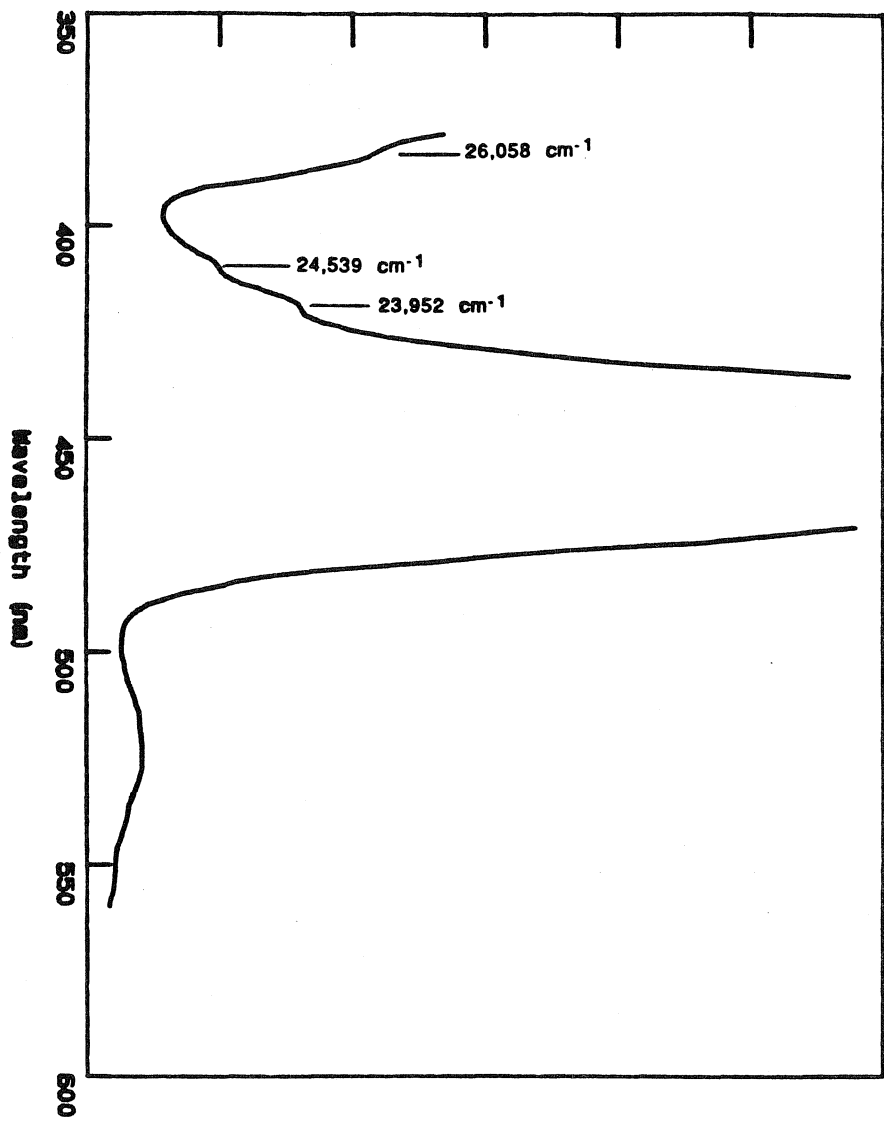


allowed  $^1A \rightarrow ^1B$  ( $d\sigma^* \rightarrow p\sigma$ ) electronic transition. Band III is logically assigned to the corresponding triplet transition,  $^1A \rightarrow ^3B$  ( $d\sigma^* \rightarrow p\sigma$ ), due to its substantially weaker intensity. These assignments are consistent with the MO diagram seen figure in 3.2 and are supported by previous arguments, regarding the spectra of several A-frame and face-to-face  $d^8$ - $d^8$  complexes.<sup>3d,5,6,8,9</sup>

The higher energy excited states of  $d^8$ - $d^8$  A-frame metal dimers are poorly understood. In contrast to the face-to-face complexes, definitive assignments for the higher lying electronic transitions in these complexes are precluded by their lower symmetry, their more complicated ligand systems, and a lack of information concerning spectra of their corresponding monomers.<sup>10</sup> In general, these states rapidly internally convert to the lower energy ( $d\sigma^*p\sigma$ )<sup>1,3</sup> states and are not responsible for the photochemical reactivity associated with  $d^8$ - $d^8$  systems.<sup>5a,13</sup> While a complete assignment of the higher energy absorption bands in spectra of the donor-acceptor molecules is outside the scope of this thesis, some parallels can be drawn between these bands and analogous features in spectra of related A-frame systems.

Absorption features similar to Band II have been observed in spectra of  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz})_2(\text{COD})_2]$  (381 nm),  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz})_2(\text{CO})_4]$  (325 nm), and their analogs. These bands have been attributed to ( $d_{xz}, d_{yz} \rightarrow p_z$ ) transitions in the  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz})_2(\text{COD})_2]$  systems by analogy to assignments made for  $\text{Rh}_2(\text{Bridge})_4^{2+}$  and  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{TMB})_4^{2+}$ .<sup>5a,b</sup> However, in comparison to the bandshapes observed for the  $d_\pi \rightarrow p$  transitions in face-to-face  $d^8$ - $d^8$  systems, Band II has a much larger half-width at both room temperature and 77° K. This distinction in bandshapes indicates that Band II involves excited state distortions not found in the  $d_\pi$  excited states of face-to-face metal dimers. One possible explanation for the substantial half-widths associated with Band II is that this transition contains a considerable amount of metal-to-pyrazole charge transfer character. This interpretation is suggested by the low energy MLCT transitions seen in orthometallated Ir(III) monomers.<sup>11</sup> Careful inspection of Bands IV and V at 77° K shows that they are

**Figure 3.4.** 77° K absorption spectrum of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$  showing a  $587\text{ cm}^{-1}$  progression in  $\nu_{\text{Ir-C}}$  superimposed on Bands IV and V.

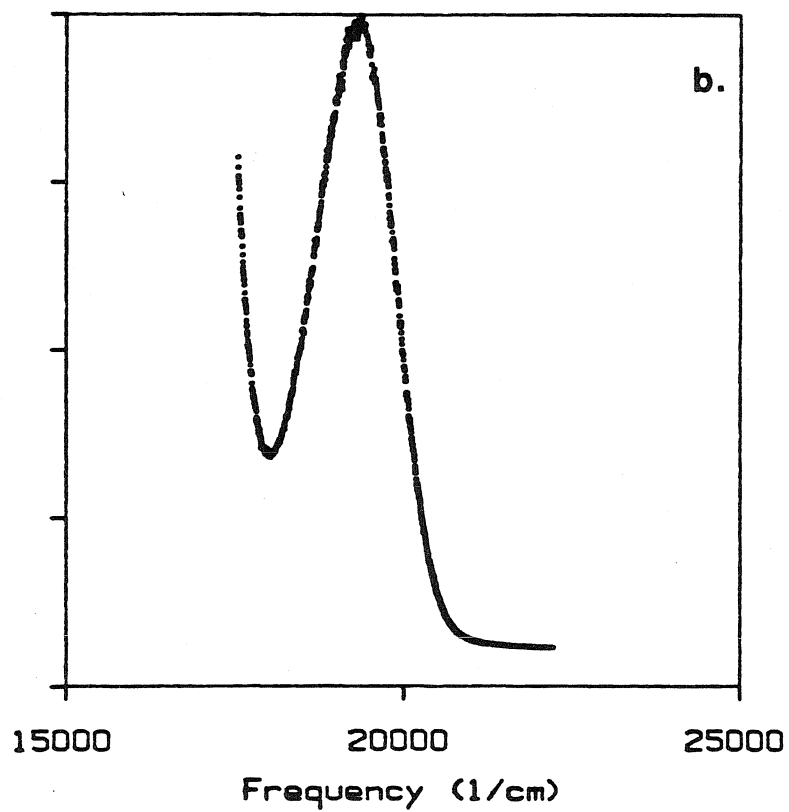
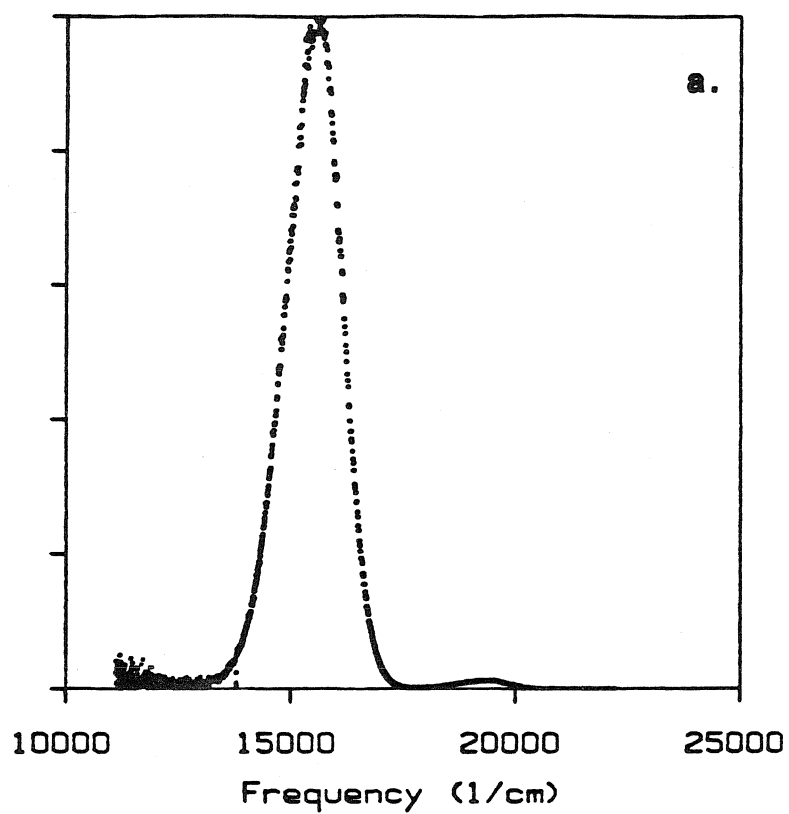


weakly structured in a  $587\text{ cm}^{-1}$  vibrational progression (figure 3.4). Similar bands appear in spectra of  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz})_2(\text{CO})_4]$  and its analogs, but are absent in spectra of the corresponding pyrazolate bridged COD systems.<sup>8</sup> These bands have been tentatively assigned to  $(d_\pi \rightarrow p, \pi^* \text{CO})$  transitions based on their  $500\text{ cm}^{-1}$  vibrational progressions and their similarity to features observed in monomer spectra.<sup>12</sup> Their low intensity in spectra of the  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POR})_2$  systems and absence in spectra of the COD dimers suggests that they are forbidden transitions, which gain substantial intensity via vibronic coupling to an Ir-C vibrational mode. Further detailed spectroscopic studies, involving both the pyrazolate bridged dimers and their corresponding monomers, will be necessary to definitively assign these higher energy bands.

**Emission Spectra:** Electronic emission spectra of the donor-acceptor complexes and model compounds at  $77^\circ\text{ K}$  show two emission bands in the spectral region between  $10,000$  and  $25,000\text{ cm}^{-1}$  with maxima at approximately  $19,000\text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $15,000\text{ cm}^{-1}$  (figure 3.5). These bands are logically assigned to  $^1\text{B} \rightarrow ^1\text{A}(p\sigma \rightarrow d\sigma^*)$  and  $^3\text{B} \rightarrow ^1\text{A}(p\sigma \rightarrow d\sigma^*)$  electronic transitions, respectively, by analogy to emission features observed for a number of A-frame and face-to-face dimer compounds.<sup>3d,5,6,8,9</sup> At  $77^\circ\text{ K}$  the singlet and triplet emission intensities of donor-acceptor compounds were similar to the intensities of the  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$  and  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-NEt}_3^+)_2$ . Further, the  $77^\circ\text{ K}$  phosphorescence lifetimes of the donor-acceptor and model compounds were the same within their experimental uncertainties. These indicate that rapid photoinduced electron transfer does not take place from either the  $^1\text{B}$  or  $^3\text{B}$  excited states in a rigid low temperature matrix. Spectral parameters for all the complexes are summarized in table 3.3.

The energies and intensities of the  $^1\text{B} \rightarrow ^1\text{A}$  and  $^3\text{B} \rightarrow ^1\text{A}$  emission bands in the model and donor-acceptor compounds change substantially as a function of temperature between  $77^\circ\text{ K}$  and  $295^\circ\text{ K}$ . As seen in figure 3.6, at room temperature both emission bands broaden and are red shifted with respect to their  $77^\circ\text{ K}$  band maxima. Table 3.4

**Figure 3.5.** a) Electronic emission spectrum of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$  at 77° K. b) Higher sensitivity spectrum showing the singlet emission band at 77° K.



**Table 3.3:** 77° K Emission Parameters for the Iridium Dimer Complexes.<sup>a</sup>

Complex	(1B → 1A)		(3B → 1A)	
	V <sub>max</sub> cm <sup>-1</sup>	V <sub>1/2</sub> cm <sup>-1</sup>	V <sub>max</sub> cm <sup>-1</sup>	V <sub>1/2</sub> cm <sup>-1</sup>
Ir <sub>2</sub> (Pz*) <sub>2</sub> (CO) <sub>2</sub> L <sub>2</sub>				
Ph <sub>2</sub> OCH <sub>2</sub> CH <sub>3</sub>	19,300	1500	15,500	1500
Ph <sub>2</sub> OCH <sub>2</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> -NEt <sub>3</sub>	19,200	1500	15,400	1600
Ph <sub>2</sub> OCH <sub>2</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> -Me <sub>3</sub> Py	19,200	1600	15,400	1600
Ph <sub>2</sub> OCH <sub>2</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> -4MePy	19,300	1500	15,500	1500
Ph <sub>2</sub> OCH <sub>2</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> -Py	19,300	1600	15,500	1500
Ph <sub>2</sub> OCH <sub>2</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> -4PhPy	19,300	1800	15,500	1500

a. Spectra were measured of 2:1 2-methyltetrahydrofuran/propionitrile solutions.

b. A 4-isobutyl-3,5-dimethylpyrazole complex was used due to the poor solubility of the corresponding 3,5-dimethylpyrazole complex.

**Table 3.4:** Spectral Data for Selected A-Frame Complexes.

Complex	$\nu_{\max}$ ( $^1B \rightarrow ^1A$ ) cm <sup>-1</sup>	$\nu_{\max}$ ( $^3B \rightarrow ^1A$ ) cm <sup>-1</sup>	T °K
$\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2^{\text{a}}$	17,900	13,500	298
	19,400	15,500	77
$\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{PO}(\text{CH}_2)_2\text{NEt}_3)_2^{\text{b}}$	18,200	13,300	298
	19,200	15,400	77
$\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_4^{\text{c,d}}$	18,800	13,600	298
	20,000	14,900	77
$\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz})_2(\text{CO})_4^{\text{c,d}}$	18,800	13,300	298
	19,600	15,400	77
$\text{Ir}_2(3\text{-Methyl-Pz})_2(\text{CO})_4^{\text{c,d}}$	18,800	13,300	298
	19,400	14,800	77
$\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz})_2(\text{COD})_2^{\text{a}}$	17,900	14,600	298
	18,000	14,700	77

a. 2-Methyltetrahydrofuran solutions.

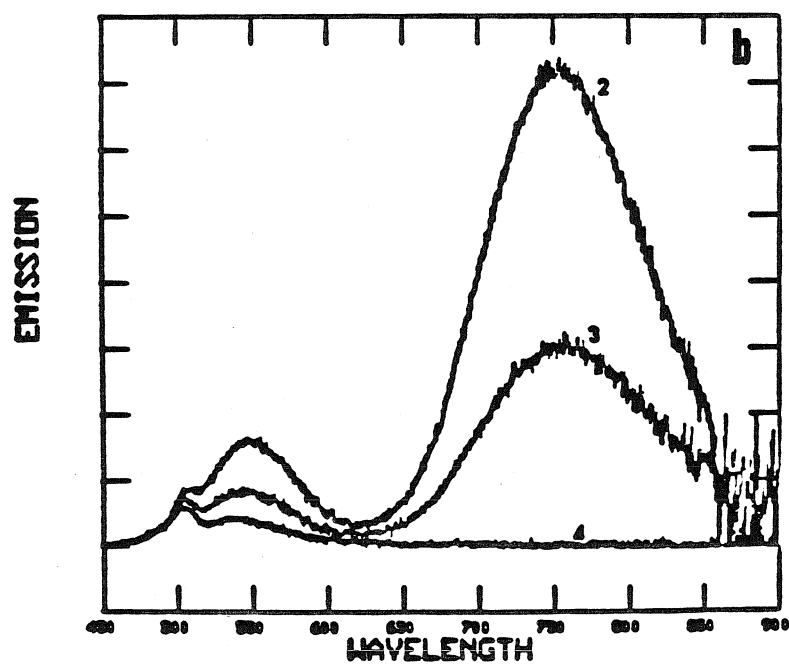
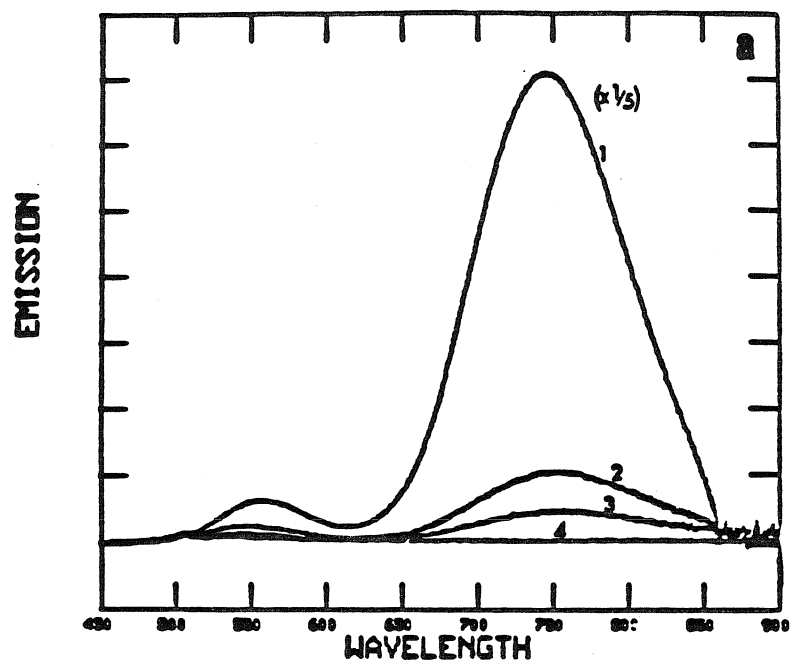
b. 2:1 2-methylTHF/propionitrile solutions

c. 2-Methylpentane solutions

d. See reference 8.

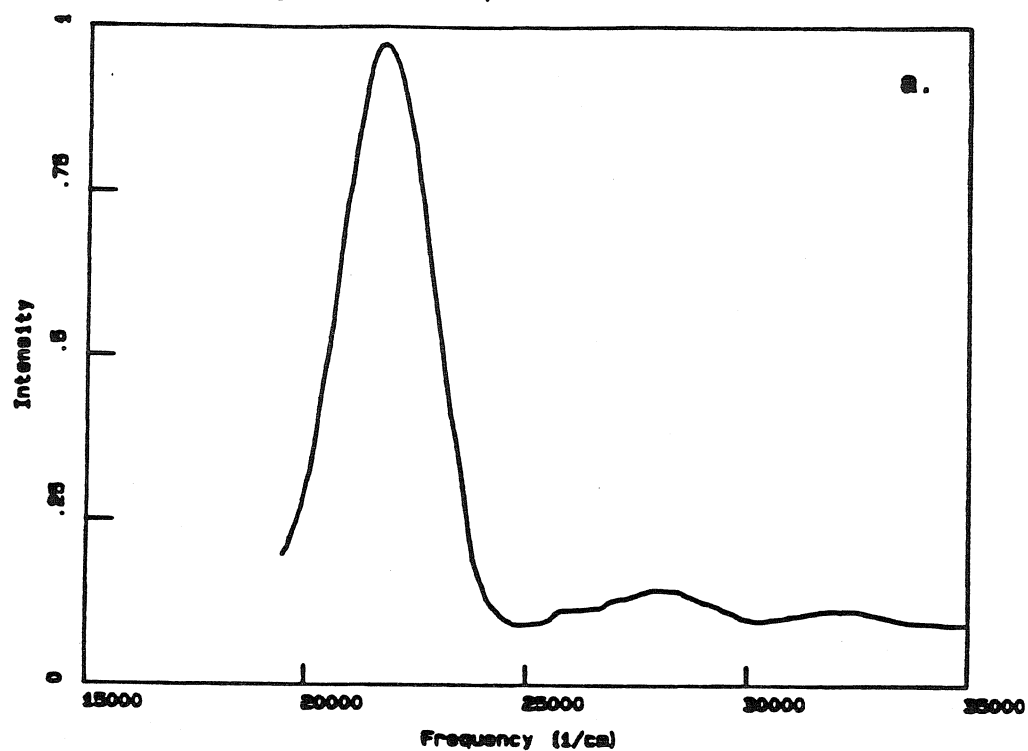


**Figure 3.6.** a) Room temperature emission spectra of (1)  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{NEt}_3^+)_2$ , (2)  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-246Me}_3\text{Py}^+)_2$ , (3)  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-4MePy}^+)_2$ , and (4)  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Py}^+)_2$  in acetonitrile comparing their relative intensities and band maxima. Note that the spectrum of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{NEt}_3^+)_2$  has been reduced by a factor of five. b) Spectra 2,3, and 4 enlarged. The feature at 500 nm is a mercury line.

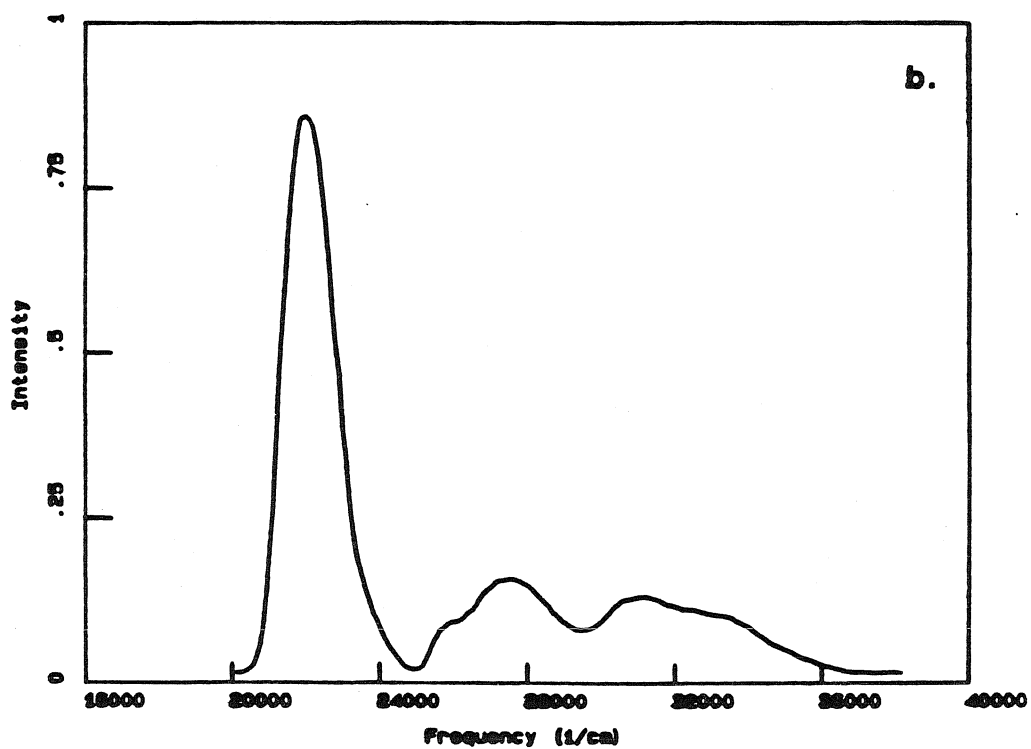


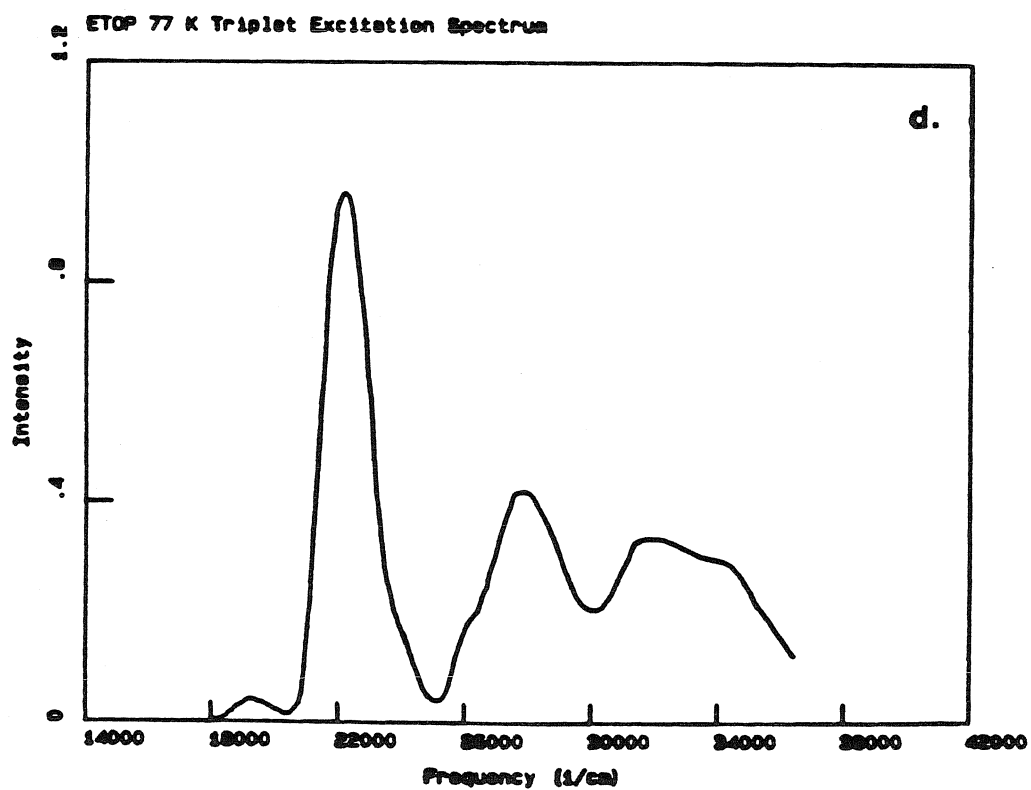
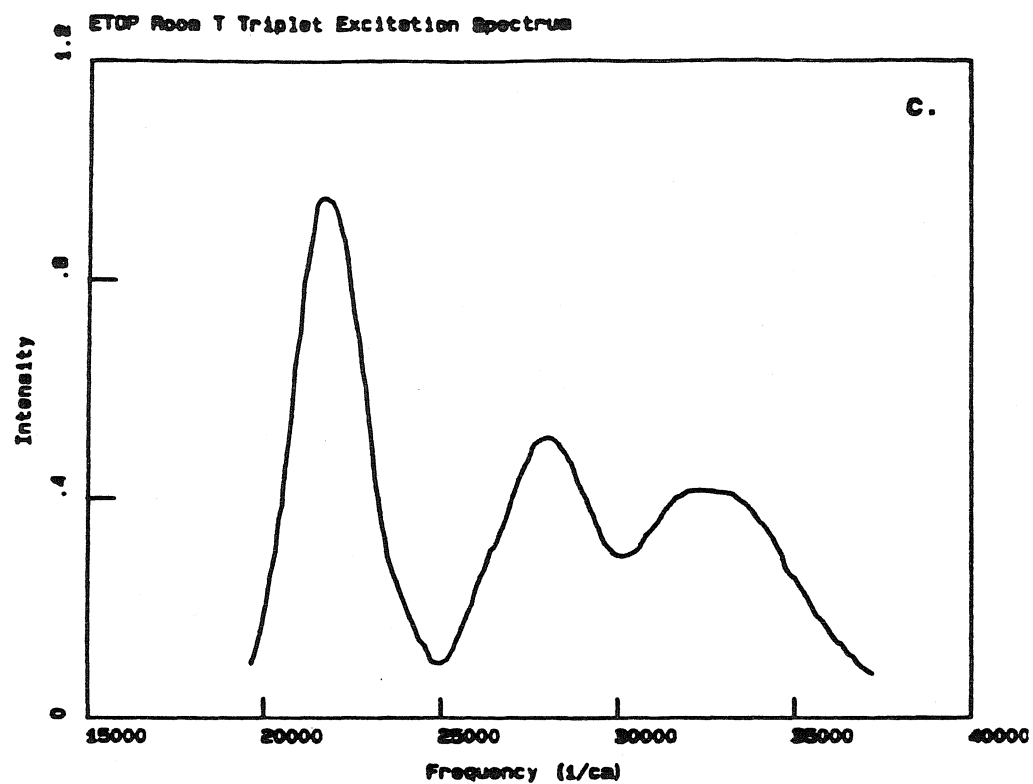
**Figure 3.7.** Electronic excitation spectra of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$  in 2-methyltetrahydrofuran. a) and b) Room temperature and 77° K singlet spectra. c) and d) Room temperature and 77° K triplet spectra.

ETDP Room T Singlet Excitation Spectrum



ETDP 77 K Singlet Excitation Spectrum





shows that similar changes as a function of temperatures are observed in emission spectra of  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz})_2(\text{CO})_4]$  and its analogs, but are curiously absent in spectra of the corresponding  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz})_2(\text{COD})_2]$  systems.<sup>8</sup> One plausible explanation for this phenomenon is that photoemission in the tetra-CO and CO-phosphine systems occurs from different electronic excited states as a function of temperature. This possibility can be ruled out by examining the excitation spectra of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$  seen in figure 3.7. In terms of their band maxima and relative extinctions, the transitions observed in room temperature excitation spectra of this complex correlate well with those observed in its 77° K spectra. In addition, its triplet excitation spectrum is superimposable with its absorption spectrum. These findings indicate that the emission bands found in the high and low temperature spectra of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$  both correspond to its ( $p\sigma \rightarrow d\sigma^*$ ) electronic transitions. The intense high energy bands ( $\nu > 25,000 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) seen in triplet excitation spectra of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$  lose intensity in the corresponding singlet spectrum, due to efficient intersystem crossing between its ( $d\pi p\sigma$ ) and  $^3B$  excited states. Enhancement in the intersystem crossing rates in this complex can be attributed to spin-orbit effects associated with the iridium metal centers.<sup>13</sup> Similar intensity differences have been observed in spectra of other  $d^8$ - $d^8$  systems.<sup>5a,14,13b</sup>

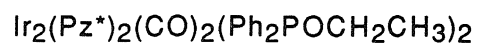
Further insight into the origin of this "blue shift" effect can be obtained by examining the spectral data for  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$  summarized in tables 3.5 and 3.6. Room temperature and 77° K solid state emission spectra of this complex show phosphorescence band maxima that are isoenergetic with those found in its 77° K solution spectrum. In addition, the blue shift in both its singlet and triplet emission band maxima takes place via a completely reversible process over an approximately 10° temperature range between 90° and 100° K. (table 3.6). These data are consistent with a medium induced alteration of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$  that modifies its

**Table 3.5:** Emission Spectral Parameters for  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$ 

Phase	$\nu_{\text{max}} (^1\text{B} \rightarrow ^1\text{A})$ $\text{cm}^{-1}$	$\nu_{\text{max}} (^3\text{B} \rightarrow ^1\text{A})$ $\text{cm}^{-1}$	T $^{\circ}\text{K}$
Solid	--b	15,300	298
Solid	--b	15,400	77
Solution <sup>a</sup>	17,900	13,500	298
Solution	19,400	15,500	77

a. 2-Methyl THF solutions

b. Not observed

**Table 3.6:** Temperature Dependent Emission Data for

$\nu_{\text{max}} (^3\text{B} \rightarrow ^1\text{A})$	$\nu_{1/2}$ $\text{cm}^{-1}$	T $^{\circ}\text{K}$
13,600	1940	302
13,500	1800	270
13,400	1700	230
13,400	1700	200
13,400	1600	180
13,400	1600	160
13,400	1500	150
13,400	1500	140
13,400	1500	120
13,400	1500	100
15,000	1800	90
15,400	1600	80
15,500	1600	70

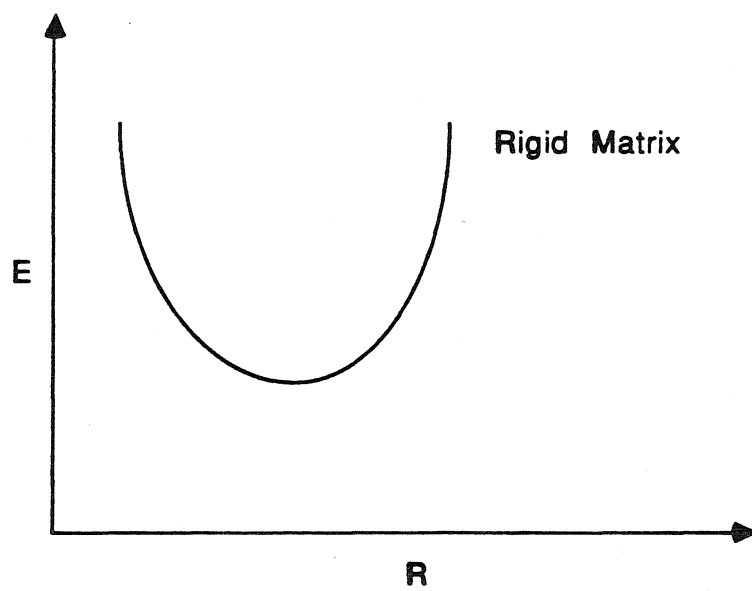
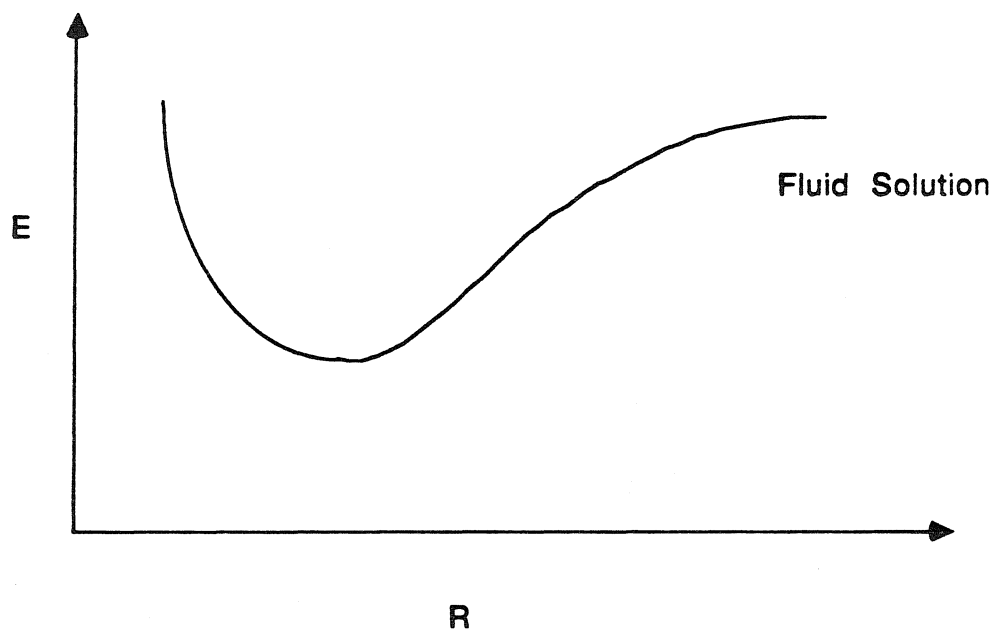


emission bandshapes. Analogous effects were first observed by Wrighton and coworkers in the emission spectra of  $\text{Re(Phen)(CO)}_3\text{Cl}$  and were labeled "rigidochromic luminescence."<sup>15</sup>

The origin of luminescence rigidochromism has been discussed in detail by Dellinger and Kasha and can be understood in terms of the potential energy surfaces portrayed in figure 3.8.<sup>16</sup> The extent to which a molecular system can distort in response to any perturbation (i.e., electronic or vibrational) is determined not only by its normal modes and vibrational force constants but also by the ability of its surrounding medium to respond to changes in its overall shape. In a fluid solution the surrounding solvent molecules define a mutable cage, which can readily respond to changes in the shape of an enclosed solute. However, in a low temperature matrix or in a molecular crystal, the surrounding medium is more rigidly fixed and is less able to accommodate changes in a molecule's structure. These limitations alter the nature of the normal vibrational modes of a solute molecule by restricting certain low frequency molecular distortions. As seen in figure 3.8, these restrictions effectively change the shape of the molecule's potential surface along one or more of its normal coordinates. In terms of its electronic spectra, these changes effect the Frank-Condon factors for emission (absorption) which can drastically change its emission (absorption) band maximum and half width.

While our spectroscopic data do not point to a particular molecular distortion as being primarily responsible for the rigidochromic effects in spectra of  $d^8$ - $d^8$  A-frame metal dimers, it can be safely concluded that these distortions must be coupled to the metal-metal coordinate. It is well known from the low temperature single crystal spectra of  $\text{Rh}_2(\text{Bridge})_4^{2+}$  and  $\text{Pt}_2(\text{P}_2\text{O}_5\text{H}_2)_4^{2-}$  that metal-metal vibrations are strongly coupled to their ( $d\sigma^* \rightarrow p\sigma$ ) electronic transitions.<sup>5a,f,g</sup> The metal-metal bond distances in A-frame dimer complexes has both an angular as well as a distance

**Figure 3.8.** A schematic representation of a pair of potential energy surfaces illustrating the origin of rigidochromic spectroscopic effects according to the Dellinger-Kasha model. Medium rigidity effects spectroscopically relevant normal modes by restricting the low frequency torsional motions of the chromophore.



dependence.<sup>6</sup> Thus, changes in the metal-metal separation in these systems may involve rearrangement of their bridging pyrazole ligands. This type of torsional motion would be susceptible to medium rigidity effects.<sup>15c</sup> Further conclusions, regarding rigidochromic effects in  $d^8$ - $d^8$  A-frame complexes, can be drawn by examining the spectroscopic data summarized in table 3.4. As mentioned earlier, rigidochromic emission appears only in spectra of the  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz})_2(\text{CO})_4]$  and  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz})_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POR})_2]$  systems but is curiously absent in spectra of  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz})_2(\text{COD})_2]$  and its analogs. These differences can be understood by considering the distinct steric environments provided by the various terminal ligands found in these complexes. Recent x-ray crystallographic results have indicated that the 0.375 Å difference in metal-metal distances found in oxidative addition adducts of  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz})_2(\text{COD})_2]$  and  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz})_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_3\text{P})_2]$  can be attributed in part to the larger steric repulsion between opposing COD ligands in the former compounds.<sup>17</sup> Similar types of steric interactions must also play a role in controlling the excited state metal-metal contractions in these A-frame metal dimers. This premise is supported by comparing the room temperature Stoke's shift seen in  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_4]$  (5000  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ),  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2]$  (5,800  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ), and  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz})_2(\text{COD})_2]$ . The larger Stoke's shifts in the former two cases are consistent with a larger excited state metal-metal contraction made possible by their less sterically demanding terminal ligands. In contrast to these less sterically hindered systems, contractions along metal-metal coordinate in  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{COD})_2]$  are restricted by steric repulsion between its COD ligands; therefore, this compound does not exhibit rigidochromic effects.

In contrast to the low temperature emission data presented earlier, the room temperature emission intensities of both the singlet and triplet excited states in the donor-acceptor complexes are substantially quenched when compared to the corresponding model compounds (figure 3.6).<sup>40</sup> This pronounced emission intensity quenching can be attributed to an excited state intramolecular electron-transfer process

based on several lines of evidence. In some instances the excited state lifetimes and emission quantum yields of inorganic chromophores can be affected by simple nonchromophoric changes in the nature of their ligands. Nonchromophoric lifetime effects have been previously reported for a series of  $\text{Mo}_2\text{X}_4(\text{PR}_3)_4$  complexes<sup>18</sup> and were interpreted within the frame work of Engleman and Jortner's model for nonradiative processes.<sup>19</sup> As seen in table 3.7, the quantum yields and triplet lifetimes of the four model complexes are essentially unperturbed by changes in the phosphinite ligand alkyl substituents. Thus, the intensity quenching seen in spectra of the donor-acceptor complexes can not be attributed to changes in  $k_{nr}$  brought on by the introduction of additional accepting or promoting vibrational modes. This emission quenching must be due to an additional nonradiative deactivation pathway involving intramolecular electron transfer. This conclusion is substantiated by the fact that the decrease in emission intensities across the series of donor-acceptor compounds, presented in figure 3.6, parallels changes in the redox potentials of their covalently attached pyridinium cations (vide infra).

Of significant interest is the intensity quenching observed in the singlet emission bands of the donor-acceptor compounds. These changes can be attributed to a *direct* singlet quenching process rather than a diminished back intersystem crossing yield due to a reactive triplet state. Control experiments show that the singlet emission intensity in  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$  is not diminished when > 75% of its triplet emission is quenched via bimolecular energy transfer reactions. Thus, back intersystem crossing is not an active photophysical process in the donor-acceptor and model complexes. This conclusion is in agreement with equilibrium constants ( $K_{eq}^{isc}$ ) calculated from the  $3700\text{ cm}^{-1}$  singlet-triplet energy gap in these complexes. In addition, triplet electron-transfer quenching in these systems can be inferred from the quantum yield data in table 3.7. Because  $\phi_f^0/\phi_f < \phi_p^0/\phi_p$ , some of the intensity quenching observed in the triplet

**Table 3.7:** Photophysical Parameters for the Donor-Acceptor Complexes.<sup>a</sup>

Complex	$\Phi_f$	$\Phi_p$	$\tau_p$ $\mu s$
$Ir_2(Pz^*)_2(CO)_2L_2$			
$Ph_2OCH_2CH_2-NEt_3^b$	0.0015	0.032	1.2
$Ph_2OCH_2CH_3$	0.0023	0.025	1.1
$Ph_2OCH_3$	0.0027	0.040	1.2
$Ph_2O(CH_2)_3CH_3$	0.0025	0.030	1.1
$Ph_2OCH_2CH_2-Me_3Py^c$	0.00017	0.0013	- -
$Ph_2OCH_2CH_2-4MePy$	0.00006	0.0004	- -
$Ph_2OCH_2CH_2-Py$	0.00003	-- <sup>d</sup>	- -
$Ph_2OCH_2CH_2-4PhPy$	-- <sup>d</sup>	- -	- -

a. Quantum yields taken from spectra measured in acetonitrile solutions at room temperature using  $Ru(Bipy)_3^{2+}$  as a standard.

b. Singlet quantum yields for the model compounds are accurate to  $\pm 10\%$ ; triplet quantum yields are accurate to  $\pm 30\%$ .

c. Quantum yields for the donor-acceptor compounds are accurate to  $\pm 80\%$ .

d. Emission too weak to measure.

emission bands of the donor-acceptor complexes must be due to a direct triplet electron-transfer process.<sup>20</sup>

To date, the photochemical reactivity of  $d^8$ - $d^8$  complexes has been solely attributed to their long-lived triplet excited states. The spectra, reported here, represent the first evidence for reactivity from the shorter lived singlet states. Analyzing the quantum yield data in table 3.7 along with a singlet lifetime for  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$  of 100 ps, places the singlet electron-transfer rates in these complexes between  $5 \times 10^{10} \text{ sec}^{-1}$  and  $10^{12} \text{ sec}^{-1}$ . In comparison to the singlet reactivity reported here, the singlet state of  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz})_2(\text{COD})_2]$  was found to be unreactive in an earlier bimolecular electron-transfer study.<sup>3d,8</sup> This lack of reactivity was attributed to its subnanosecond fluorescence lifetime. This shorter lived state can be intercepted by a rapid quenching process in the donor-acceptor complexes, presumably because the two redox partners are only several bond rotations away from being within the required distance for rapid electron transfer. Thus, covalently linking pyridinium cations to an iridium dimer chromophore appears to be essential for observing singlet excited state ET reactions. In addition, these reactions must have almost activationless thermal barriers, considering their substantial unimolecular rate constants. A more detailed account of the electron-transfer reactions seen in the donor-acceptor systems will be presented in chapter 4.

## Electrochemistry

Previous studies regarding the electrochemical properties of  $d^8$ - $d^8$  metal dimers have played an important role in our understanding of the thermodynamic and kinetic factors that control their ground and excited state redox reactions. Electrochemical studies have led to the generation and characterization of both  $d^8$ - $d^7$  and  $d^7$ - $d^7$  complexes. These species have been identified as key intermediates in photocatalytic cycles involving  $Pt_2(P_2O_5H_2)_4^{2-}$  and  $Ir_2(TMB)_4^{2+}$ .<sup>22,1,3</sup> In some instances stable  $d^8$ - $d^7$  complexes have been generated and characterized by electronic spectroscopy and x-ray crystallography.<sup>21e,f</sup> In addition, recent electrochemical studies involving  $Rh_2(TMB)_4^{2+}$  have indicated that its one electron oxidized state,  $Rh_2(TMB)_4^{3+}$ , is a reactive C-H bond activation catalyst.<sup>22</sup> These results have greatly enhanced our understanding of the excited state properties of  $d^8$ - $d^8$  complexes by uncovering a new type of ground state reactivity.

The electrochemical properties of the donor-acceptor and model compounds were of interest from several different standpoints. An understanding of the reaction exoergicities found in the donor-acceptor systems is important in characterizing their excited state electron-transfer reactions. Based on arguments presented below, a good estimate of the reaction driving force for photoinduced electron-transfer in our compounds can be obtained from the one electron redox potentials of their iridium metal centers and pyridinium cations and the spectroscopic energies of their  $^1B$ ,  $^3B$  excited states. Thus, one goal of our electrochemical studies was to measure the one electron redox potentials for the iridium dimer chromophores and pyridinium cations. In chapter four, the photophysics of the donor-acceptor complexes is explored using picosecond time-resolved absorption spectroscopy. In principle an iridium dimer cation species,  $[Ir_2(Pz^*)_2(CO)_2(Ph_2POR)_2]^+$ , should be one of several transients produced in these experiments. Identifying this species in time-resolved absorption spectra of the donor-acceptor complexes would be greatly facilitated, if an



$[\text{Ir}_2^+(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{PR})_2]$   $d^8-d^7$  complex could be electrochemically generated and characterized. Finally, it was of interest to determine how covalently linking two pyridinium electron acceptors to an iridium dimer complex perturbs its one electron oxidation potentials. If sufficient ground state electronic coupling exists between the iridium metal centers and pyridinium cations in these systems, the electronic properties of both redox partners should be affected. While evidence for ground state donor-acceptor interactions was not observed in any of the electronic spectra presented earlier, electrochemical experiments offered an additional opportunity for investigating electron coupling effects.

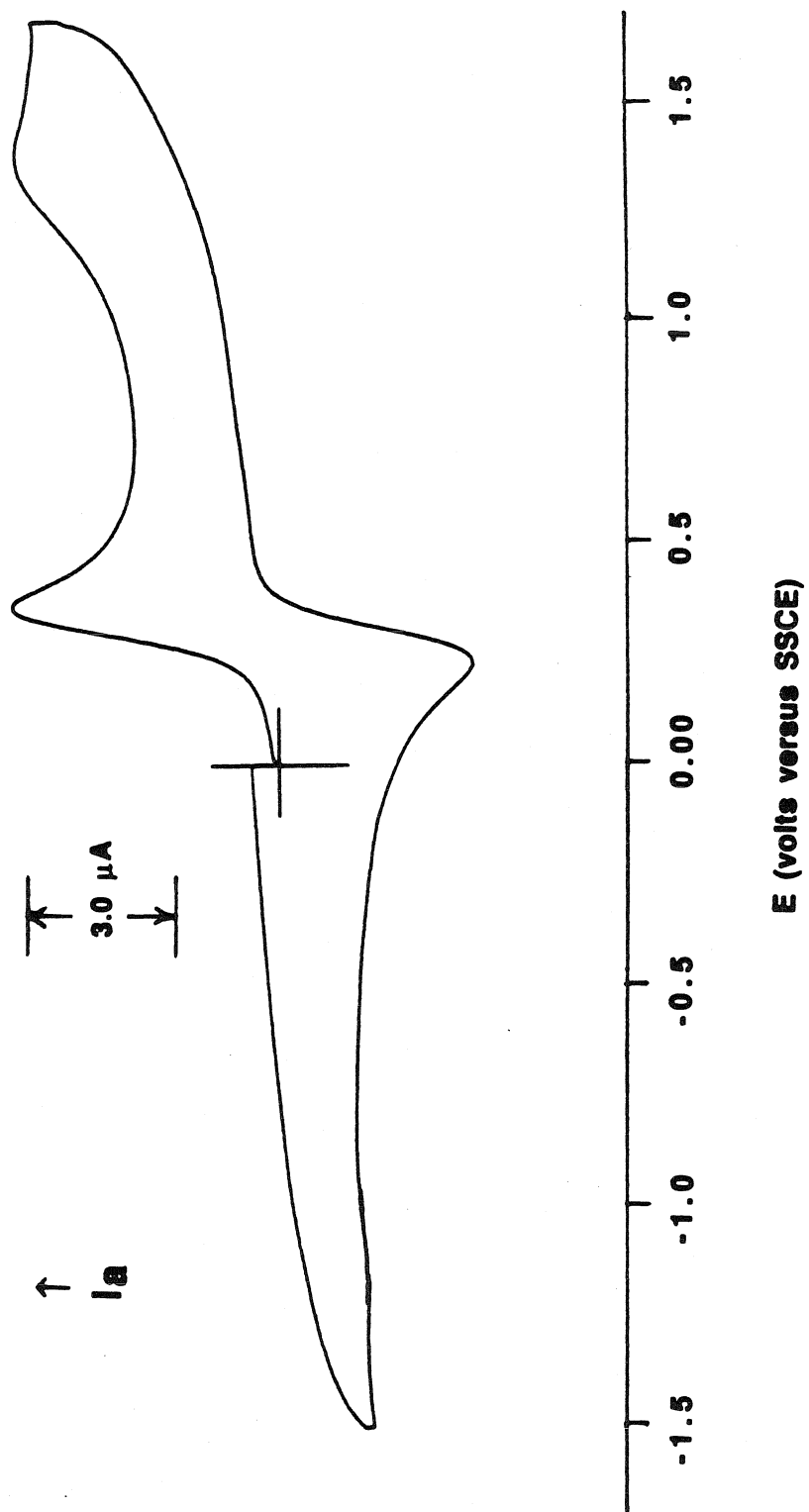
Previous studies have indicated that the electrochemical behavior of  $d^8-d^8$  dimers strongly depends on the nature of the solvent and supporting electrolyte.<sup>21d,e,g</sup> Much like  $d^8$  monomers, these complexes have a propensity to acquire axial ligands upon oxidation. Thus, the presence of axial ligands as either a coordinating solvent or supporting electrolyte can drastically effect the shape of the waves in cyclic voltammograms of these compounds. Cyclic voltammograms (CV) of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$  in 0.1 M TBAPF<sub>6</sub>/CH<sub>3</sub>CN showed a single irreversible oxidation wave with  $E_{pa} = 0.33$  V and an irreversible electrode process at  $E_{pc} = -0.84$  V corresponding to the reduction of an  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2]^{n+}$  species.<sup>43</sup> While this behavior was not investigated in detail, it is presumed that the irreversible nature of both these couples is related to a complex process involving the coordination of one or more acetonitrile molecules to the oxidized iridium dimer. To avoid these complicating factors, CV experiments concerning the donor-acceptor complexes and model compounds were carried out in 0.1 M TBAPF<sub>6</sub>/CH<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>2</sub> solutions. In some instances complexes containing 3,5-dimethyl-4-isobutyl-pyrazole ligands were used due to the poor solubility of the corresponding 3,5-dimethylpyrazole complexes in methylene chloride. Differences between these compounds and those containing 3,5-dimethylpyrazole bridging ligands

will be discussed when necessary. The following section details our results concerning the electrochemistry of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$ ,  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_3\text{P})_3$ , and the donor-acceptor complexes as seen in their cyclic voltammograms and bulk electrolysis data.

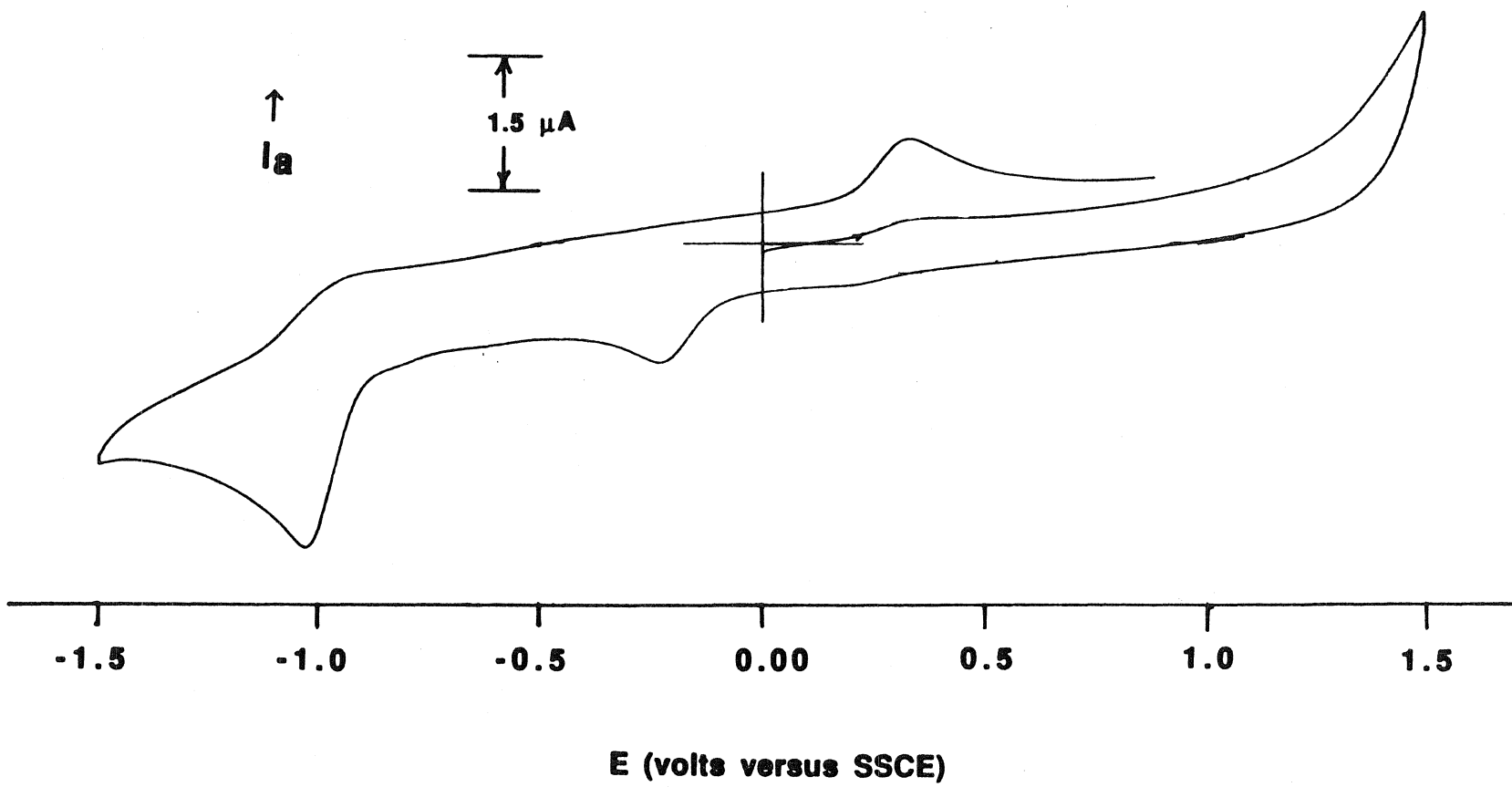
**$[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2]$ :** Cyclic voltammograms of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$  in 0.1 M TBAPF<sub>6</sub>/CH<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>2</sub> solutions, taken at a BAS platinum button working electrode, show two electrochemical couples within the potential window between -1.5 and 1.5 volts (figure 3.9). Values of  $E_{pc}$ ,  $E_{pa}$ ,  $\Delta E$ , and  $E_{1/2}$  for the first electrode process ( $E_{p,a}=0.34$  volts) were constant as a function of scan rate ( $v$ ) for  $v=20$  to 500 mv/sec. Ratios of the anodic and cathodic peak currents for this couple varied between 1.3 and 1.1 and approached unity with increasing scan rate. Similar results were obtained at BAS glassy carbon electrodes. Constant potential bulk electrolysis experiments carried out at a pyrolytic graphite electrode ( $E_{app}=0.6$  volts) yielded values of  $n=1$  for this oxidation process. These data are consistent with a quasireversible one electron oxidation of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$  at  $E_{1/2}=0.30$  volts which is followed by a slow chemical reaction. The second electrode process, seen in figure 3.9 at more positive potentials, was found to be irreversible for  $v=20$  to 500 mv/sec. This couple is logically assigned to a second one electron oxidation of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2^+$  by analogy to results from a recent study concerning  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz})_2(\text{COD})_2]$ .<sup>21g</sup> Because our interest in this study was focused primarily on the one electron oxidation of the model compounds and donor-acceptor complexes, this couple and its analogs in other systems were not investigated in detail.

Additional information regarding the nature of the chemical reactions which follow the one electron oxidation of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$  was obtained by examining cyclic voltammograms and infrared spectra of methylene chloride solutions of

**Figure 3.9.** Cyclic voltammograms of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$  in 0.1 M  $\text{TBAPF}_6/\text{CH}_2\text{Cl}_2$ . This compound shows two single electron oxidations between 0.0 and 1.5 volts versus SSCE.



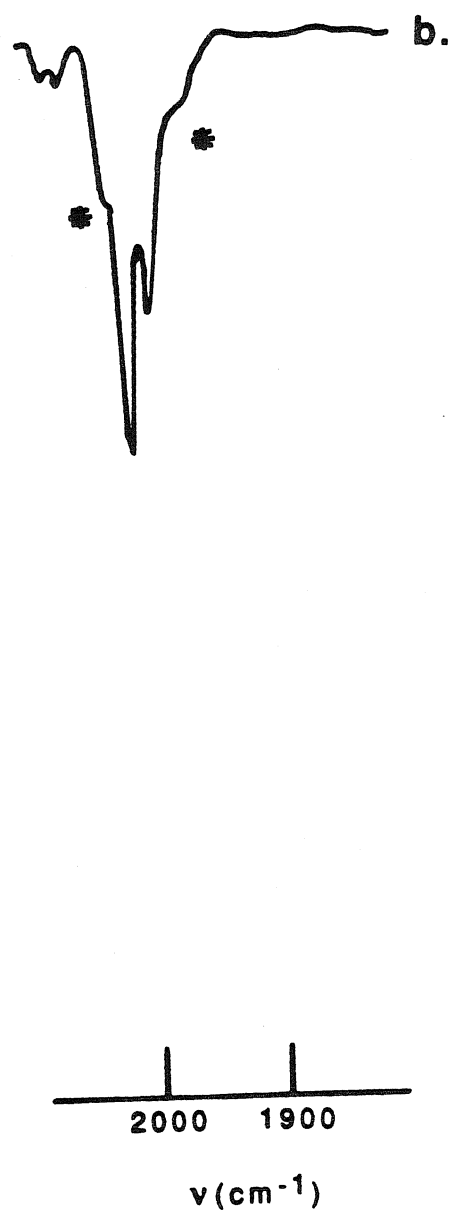
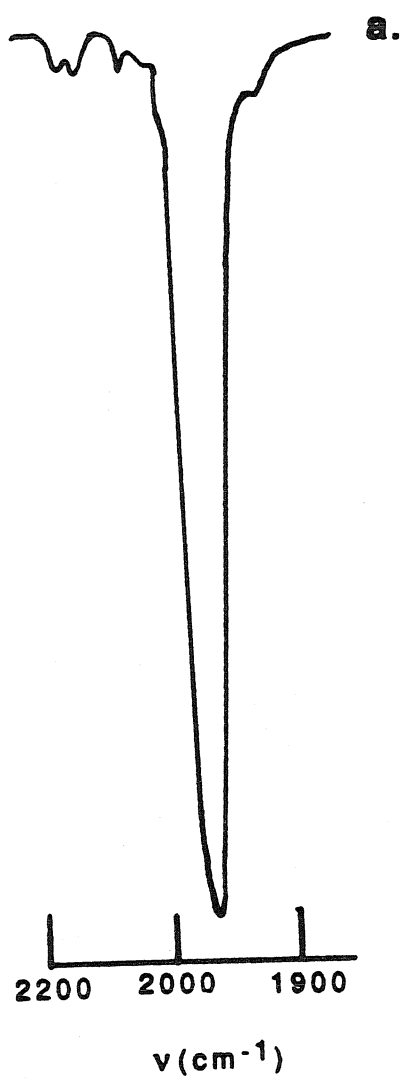
**Figure 3.10.** Cyclic voltammogram of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$  following bulk electrolysis at  $E_{\text{app}}=0.6$  volts.  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2^+$  is not chemically stable on a bulk electrolysis time scale and reacts to form two unidentified products  $E_{\text{pc}}=-0.23$  and  $E_{\text{pc}}=-1.0$  volts.



this complex following bulk electrolysis. Electrochemical oxidation of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$  at a pyrolytic graphite electrode ( $E_{\text{app}} = +0.6$  volts) produces a color change from orange/red to light yellow. The intense visible absorption bands characteristic of the starting material decrease in intensity over the course of the experiment and are replaced by a higher energy absorption feature at  $\lambda_{\text{max}} = 376$  nm. Cyclic voltammograms of the electrolysis products are substantially different from CVs of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$ . As seen in figure 3.10, in addition to the quasireversible couple at  $E_{1/2} = +0.30$  volts discussed earlier, CVs of the electrolysis products show two irreversible couples at  $E_{\text{pc}} = -0.23$  volts and  $E_{\text{pc}} = -1.0$  volts. Scanning cathodically over either of these couples in CV experiments leads to the formation of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$  as indicated by the appearance of its oxidation wave at 0.3 volts. Bulk electrolysis of product solutions at potentials greater than -1.0 volts regenerates  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$  in almost quantitative yield. These data show that the reactions associated with the oxidation of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$  are chemically reversible and that both electrolysis products are related to their  $d^8$ - $d^8$  precursor via what is presumed to be a one electron reduction. Specifically, they indicate that the metal-metal unit in the oxidized complex remains intact. If  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2^+$  fragmented into its corresponding monomers, it is not likely that electrochemically reducing these monomers would efficiently regenerate  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$ . In addition, the absence of either the -0.23 or -1.0 volt electrode couples in CVs of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$  supports the premise that the one electron oxidation of this complex can be characterized by an "ECE type" mechanism where the following chemical step does not significantly perturb the reversible electrode process.<sup>23</sup>

**Figure 3.11.** Infrared spectra of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$  in methylene chloride, a) before and b) following bulk electrolysis at  $E_{\text{app}}=0.6$  volts. Asterisks in part b) label bands due to the solvent. The single CO band in the reactants splits into two separate bands in the products which are assigned to the symmetric and asymmetric CO modes. The stronger interaction between these two modes in spectrum b is consistent with the formation of a partial metal-metal bond in the electrolysis products.



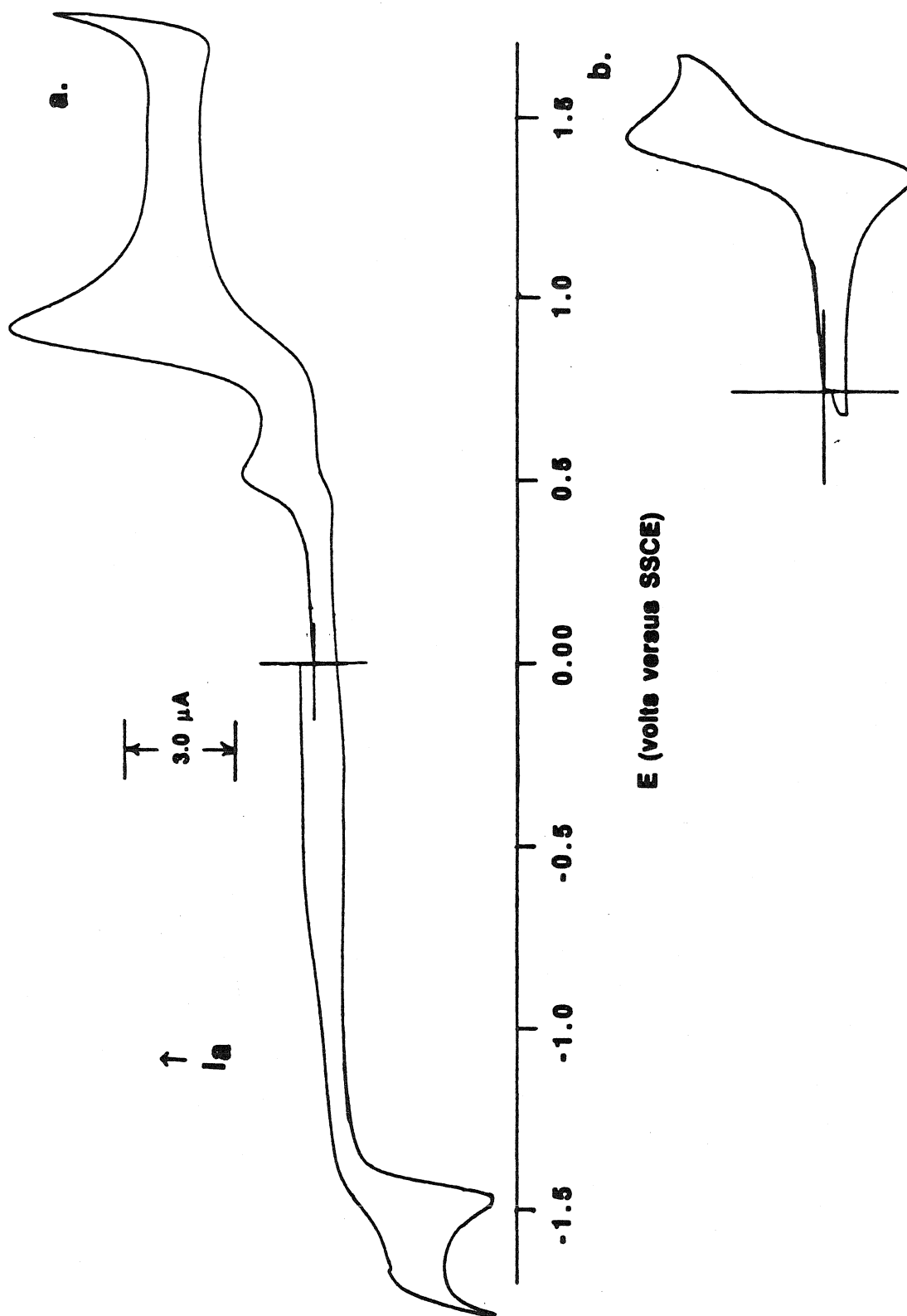


Solution IR spectra of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$  and its electrolysis products show features that are consistent with the oxidation of the compound's iridium metal centers. As seen in figure 3.11, the broad band at  $\nu=1960\text{ cm}^{-1}$ , attributed to overlapping symmetric and asymmetric CO vibrational modes in  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$ , shifts to higher frequency in spectra of the electrolysis products and splits into two well resolved bands with maxima at  $2,150\text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $2,000\text{ cm}^{-1}$ . These bands are assigned to the symmetric ( $\nu_A=2,150\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) and asymmetric ( $\nu_B=2,000\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) CO vibrations in the products.<sup>24,41</sup> In addition, the larger splitting between the symmetric and asymmetric CO bands in the product is consistent with an increase in the metal-metal bond order that would accompany the oxidation of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$ .<sup>21f</sup>

Unfortunately, these data say very little concerning the structures of the two electrolysis products. Several possibilities can be offered based on related  $d^8$ - $d^8$  systems. One plausible reaction, which could follow the oxidation of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$ , is the sequential coordination of  $\text{PF}_6^-$  counter ions to the dimer's axial coordination sites. The coordination of weak field ligands to  $d^8$ - $d^7$  systems has been previously reported in studies involving  $\text{Rh}(\text{Dimen})_4^{2+}$  and a series of different counter ions ( $\text{PF}_6^- < \text{ClO}_4^- < \text{Cl}^-$ ).<sup>21d</sup> A more remote possibility would involve the oligomerization of the oxidized metal dimers. A similar dimerization reaction is known to occur in solutions of  $\text{Rh}_2(\text{Bridge})_4^{3+}$ .<sup>25</sup> It is clear, however, that the nature of the electrolysis products formed from  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$  is an area that is open to speculation and to further detailed investigations.

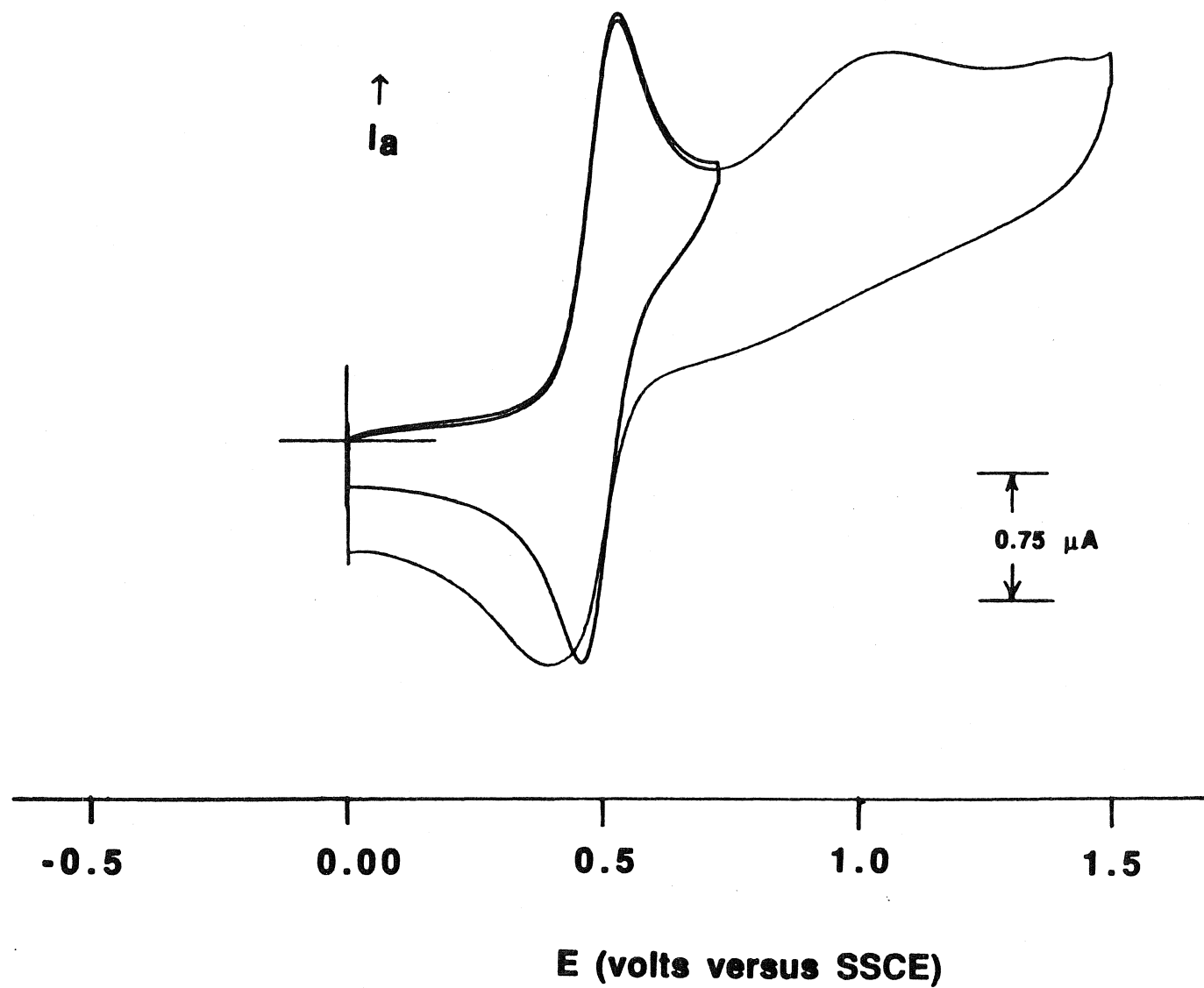
**Donor-Acceptor Complexes:** Cyclic voltammograms of the donor-acceptor compounds were, in general, qualitatively similar. Features common to all of these complexes are exemplified by the CVs of

**Figure 3.12.** Cyclic voltammograms of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-246Me}_3\text{Py}^+)_2$  in 0.1 M  $\text{TBAPF}_6/\text{CH}_2\text{Cl}_2$  solutions. Part a shows all of the redox couples seen in CVs of the donor-acceptor complexes between  $\pm 1.5$  volts. Part b shows that a return wave for the couple at  $E_{\text{pa}} = 0.5$  volts can be observed if the potential scan direction is reversed at the foot of the tetraphenylborate wave.



$\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Me}_3\text{Py}^+)_2(\text{Ph}_4\text{B})_2$  seen in figure 3.12. Final electrochemical parameters for these compounds are summarized in table 3.8. In contrast to  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$ , CVs of the donor-acceptor compounds show three electrochemical couples in the potential range between +1.5 and -1.5 volts versus SSCE. The two anodic couples, found at  $E_{\text{pa}}=0.5$  volts and  $E_{\text{pa}}=0.95$  volts, appear at approximately the same peak potentials in all the donor-acceptor complexes and were observed in CVs of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-NEt}_3^+)_2(\text{Ph}_4\text{B})_2$  as well. The peak potentials of the cathodic couple, found at  $E_{\text{pc}}=-1.47$  volts in figure 3.12a, varied as a function of the pyridinium cation in the donor-acceptor complexes and was absent in CVs of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-NEt}_3^+)_2$ . This couple is assigned to the one electron reduction of the two covalently bound pyridinium cations in the donor-acceptor systems. The irreversible nature of this electrode process can be attributed to the rapid dimerization reactions of pyridyl radicals.<sup>26</sup> Control experiments involving CVs of  $(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Me}_3\text{Py}^+)(\text{Ph}_4\text{B})$  and  $\text{TBA}(\text{Ph}_4\text{B})$  verified that the irreversible couple at  $E_{\text{pa}}=0.95$  volts is due to the electrochemical oxidation of  $\text{Ph}_4\text{B}^-$ . If the scan direction was reversed at the foot of this wave, a return wave was observed for the couple at  $E_{\text{pa}}=0.5$  volts (figure 3.11b). Scan rate dependence studies in a potential window between 0.0 and 0.6 volts indicated that the values of  $E_{\text{pa}}$ ,  $E_{\text{pc}}$ ,  $\Delta E$ , and  $E_{1/2}$  for this couple were scan rate independent for  $v=20$  to 500 mv/sec. Bulk electrolysis experiments regarding this oxidation process were precluded in the donor-acceptor compounds by its proximity to the oxidation of  $\text{Ph}_4\text{B}^-$ . However, as seen in figure 3.13, CVs of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-NEt}_3^+)_2(\text{PF}_6)_2$  contain an identical quasireversible electrochemical couple. Bulk electrolysis of this complex at a pyrolytic graphite electrode ( $E_{\text{app}}=+0.7$  volts) yielded a value of  $n=1$  for this electrode process. Reduction of the electrolysis products at  $E_{\text{app}}=-1.0$  volts regenerated  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-NEt}_3^+)_2$  in close to quantitative yield. These data

**Figure 3.13.** Cyclic voltammograms of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^+)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{NEt}_3^+)_2(\text{PF}_6^-)_2$  in 0.1 M TBAPF<sub>6</sub>/CH<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>2</sub>.



indicate that this electrochemical couple in CVs of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Me}_3\text{Py}^+)_2$  and  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-NEt}_3^+)_2$  corresponds to the one electron oxidation of their iridium metal centers. Analogous quasireversible waves were seen in CVs of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^{**})_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-4MePy}^+)_2$ ,  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^{**})_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Py}^+)_2$ , and  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^{**})_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-4PhPy}^+)_2$  at  $E_{1/2} \cong 0.42$  volts. The 50 mv difference between the oxidation potential of these compounds and  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Me}_3\text{Py}^+)_2$  can be attributed to their more electron donating 3,5-dimethyl-4-isobutylpyrazole ligands. Similar trends have been observed in the photoelectron spectra of a series of  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz})_2(\text{CO})_4]$  complexes (Pz=pyrazole, 3-methylpyrazole, and 3,5-dimethylpyrazole).<sup>27</sup>

A careful examination of the redox potentials for the donor-acceptor complexes and model compounds reveals an important trend in their electrochemical properties. As seen in table 3.8, the oxidation potentials of the donor-acceptor complexes lie approximately 150 mv anodic of the oxidation potential of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$ . In addition, the oxidation potentials of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-NEt}_3^+)_2$  and  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Me}_3\text{Py}^+)_2$  are the same within experimental error. These findings indicate that the donor-acceptor compounds and  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-NEt}_3^+)_2$  are more difficult to oxidize due to their overall 2+ charge. Our data show little evidence for ground state electronic interactions between the iridium metal centers and pyridinium cations in the donor-acceptor complexes.

**$[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_3\text{P})_2]$ :** Cyclic voltammograms of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_3\text{P})_2$  show two anodic electrode processes at  $E_{\text{pa}}^{(1)} = 0.2$  volts and  $E_{\text{pa}}^{(2)} = 1.3$  volts, which are qualitatively similar to the electrochemical couples observed in CVs of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$ . Values of  $E_{\text{pa}}$ ,  $E_{\text{pc}}$ ,  $E_{1/2}$ , and  $\Delta E$  for the first electrode process were independent of scan rate and  $I_{\text{pa}}/I_{\text{pc}} = 1.0$  for  $v = 20$  to 500



**Table 3.8:** Electrochemical Potentials for the Iridium Dimer Complexes.<sup>a</sup>

Complex	$\text{Ir}_2 \rightarrow \text{Ir}_2^+ + \text{e}^-$				$\text{e}^- + \text{Py}^+ \rightarrow \text{Py}$
	$E_{\text{pa}}$	$E_{\text{pc}}$	$\Delta E$	$E_{1/2}$	$E_{\text{pc}}$
$\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz})_2(\text{CO})_2\text{L}_2$	V	V	mv	V	V <sup>c</sup>
$\text{Ph}_2\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-NEt}_3(\text{Ph}_4\text{B})$	0.52	0.43	90	0.48	- -
$\text{Ph}_2\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-NEt}_3(\text{PF}_6)$	0.53	0.43	100	0.48	- -
$\text{Ph}_2\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_3$	0.35	0.26	90	0.30	- -
$\text{Ph}_2\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Me}_3\text{Py}$	0.52	0.42	110	0.47	-1.49
$\text{Ph}_2\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-4MePy}^{\text{b}}$	0.47	0.37	100	0.42	-1.32
$\text{Ph}_2\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Py}^{\text{b}}$	0.44	0.36	80	0.40	-1.17
$\text{Ph}_2\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-4PhPy}^{\text{b}}$	0.47	0.37	100	0.42	-1.10

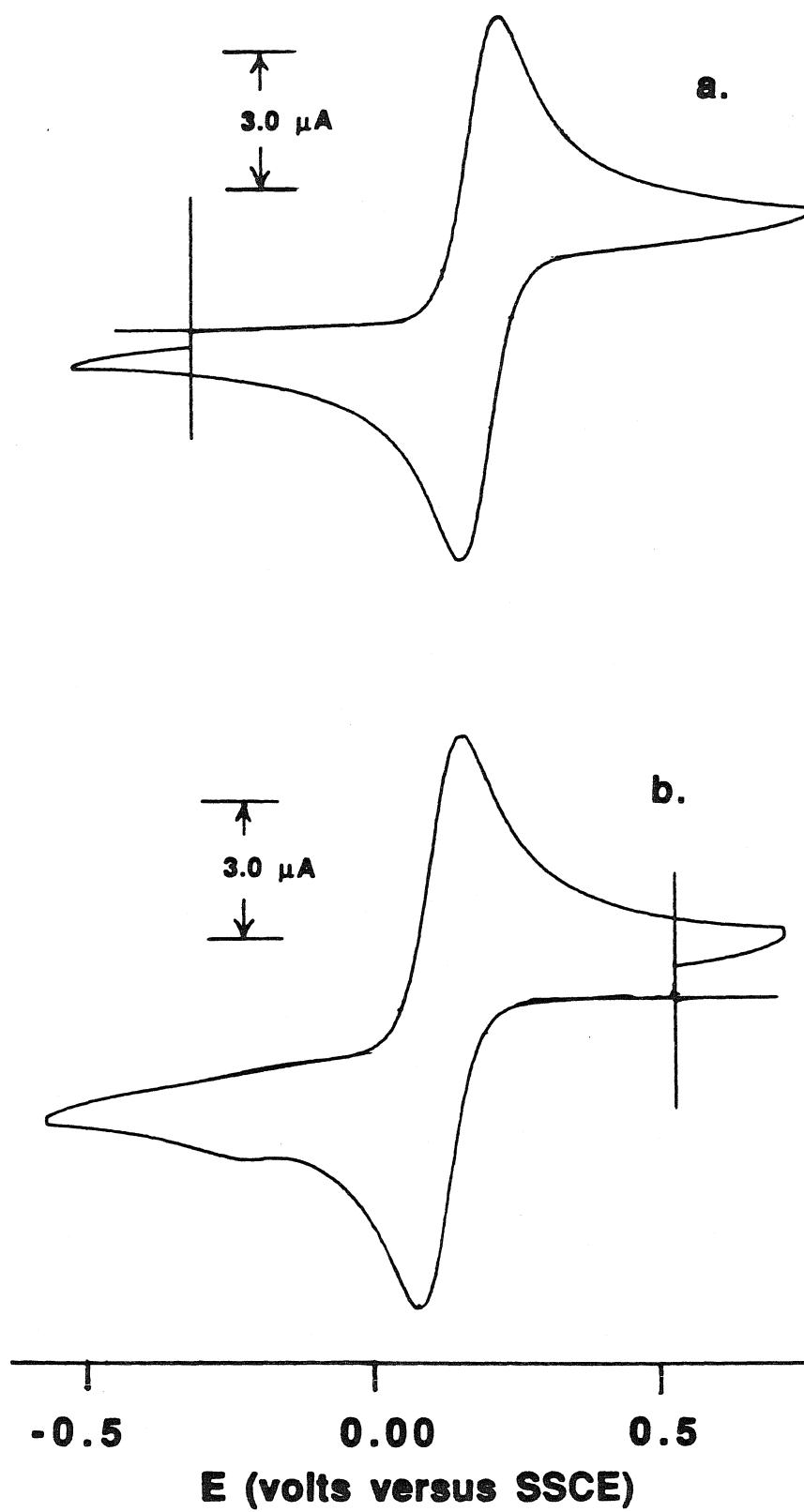
a. Measured in 0.1 M TBAPF<sub>6</sub>/CH<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>2</sub> versus SSCE.

b. Potentials were measured using a 4-isobutyl-3,5-dimethylpyrazole derivative due to the poor solubility of the 3,5-dimethylpyrazole derivative in CH<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>2</sub>.

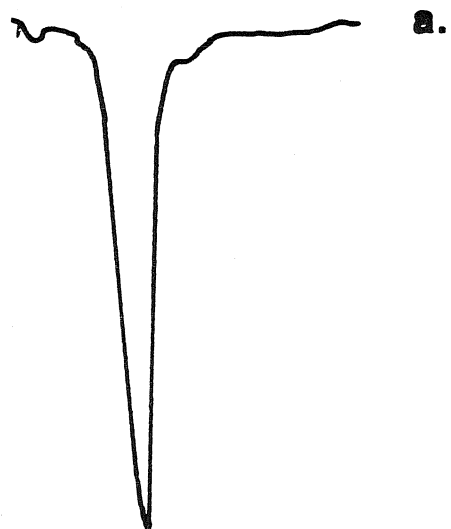
c. Peak potentials measured at a sweep rate of 100 mv/sec.

mv/sec. These data indicated that  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_3\text{P})_2$  was a suitable system for electrochemically generating and characterizing a stable  $d^8-d^7$  A-frame complex. Bulk electrolysis of this complex, in 0.1 M  $\text{TBAPF}_6/\text{CH}_2\text{Cl}_2$  solutions at a platinum basket electrode ( $E_{\text{app}}=0.4$  volts), produced a color change from red/orange to light yellow and yielded a value of  $n=1$  for this redox process. The intense  $d \rightarrow p$  transitions attributed to the starting material decrease in intensity during the electrolysis experiment and are replaced by absorption bands characteristic of the electrolysis products. As seen in figure 3.14, CVs of the electrolysis products are nearly identical to CVs of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_3\text{P})_2$ . Thus, in contrast to  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2]^+$ ,  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_3\text{P})_2]^+$  is a chemically stable species under the prevailing reaction conditions. IR spectra of this  $d^8-d^7$  complex were similar to those seen earlier for the  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2]^{0/+}$  system. As in IR spectra of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$  and its corresponding cations,  $\nu_{\text{CO}}$  for  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_3\text{P})_3]^+$  is greater than  $\nu_{\text{CO}}$  for  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_3\text{P})_2$  (figure 3.15  $\nu_{\text{A}}=1990 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ;  $\nu_{\text{B}}=1980 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ). Electronic absorption spectra of  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_3\text{P})_2]^+$  show four bands with maxima at 373 nm, 460 nm, 500 nm, and 770 nm (figure 3.16). Extinction coefficients for these transitions were estimated from the known concentration of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_3\text{P})_2$  in the electrolysis experiment. The intense band at 373 nm is assigned to a  $^2\text{B} \rightarrow ^2\text{A}$  ( $d\sigma \rightarrow d\sigma^*$ ) electronic transition by analogy to a similar spectroscopic feature found in spectra of  $\text{Rh}_2(\text{Bridge})_4^{2+}$ .<sup>28</sup> The weaker bands at 460 nm and 500 nm are tentatively assigned to ligand field transitions ( $d_{xz}, d_{yz} \rightarrow d\sigma^*$ ). The broad low energy transition at 770 nm is not assigned.<sup>29</sup>

**Figure 3.14.** Cyclic voltammograms of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_3\text{P})_2$  a) before and b) following bulk electrolysis at  $E_{\text{app}}=0.4$  volts. CVs of the reactant and product of this reaction are identical, indicating that  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_3\text{P})_2^+$  is a chemically stable species.

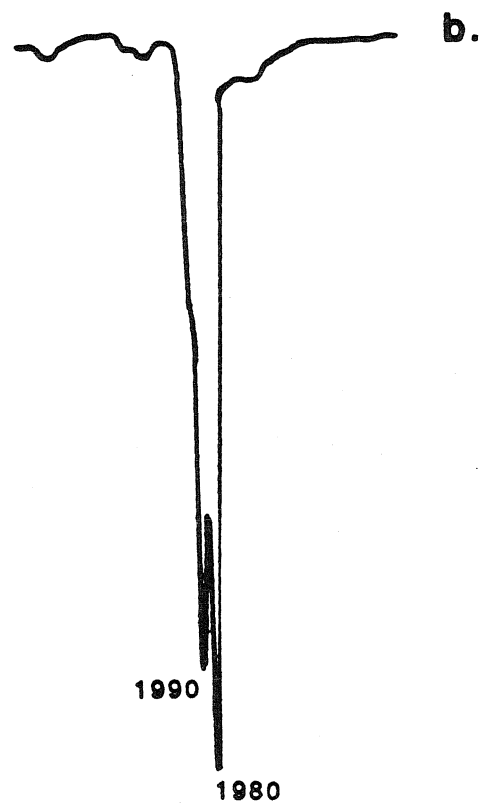


**Figure 3.15.** Infrared spectra of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_3\text{P})_2$  in methylene chloride  
a) before and b) following bulk electrolysis.



2000 1900 1800

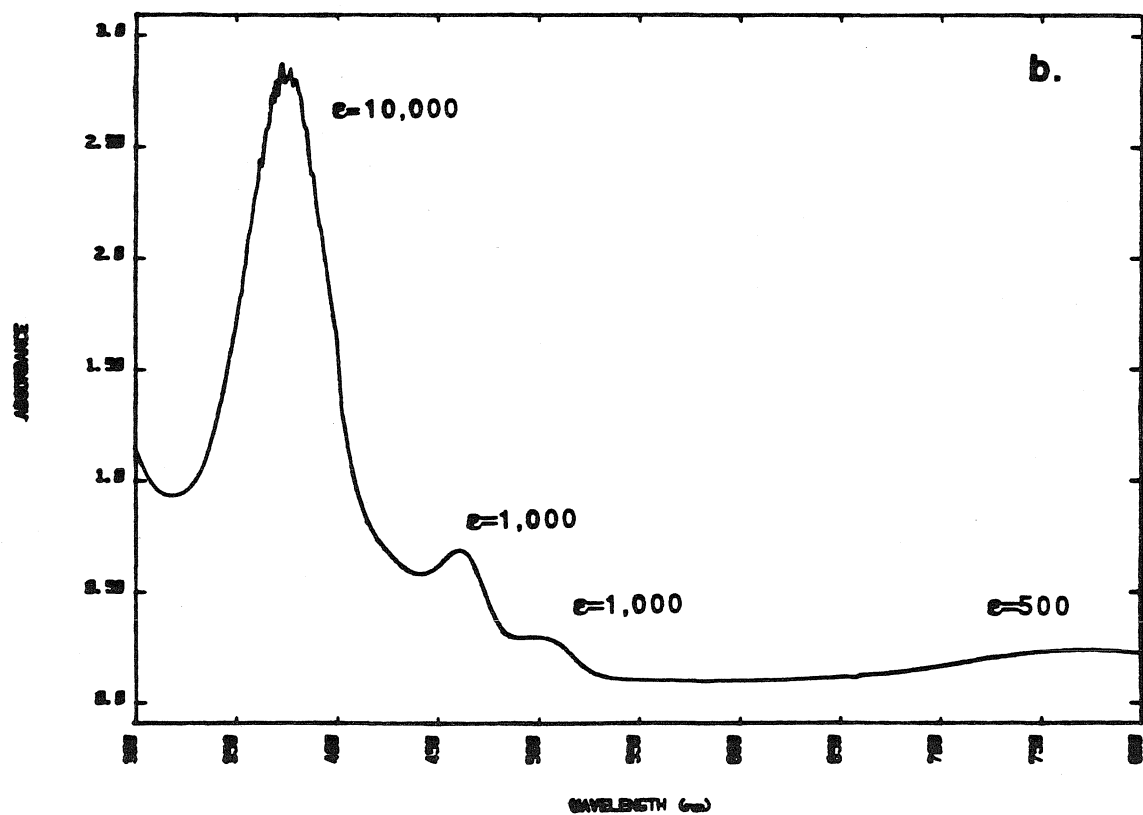
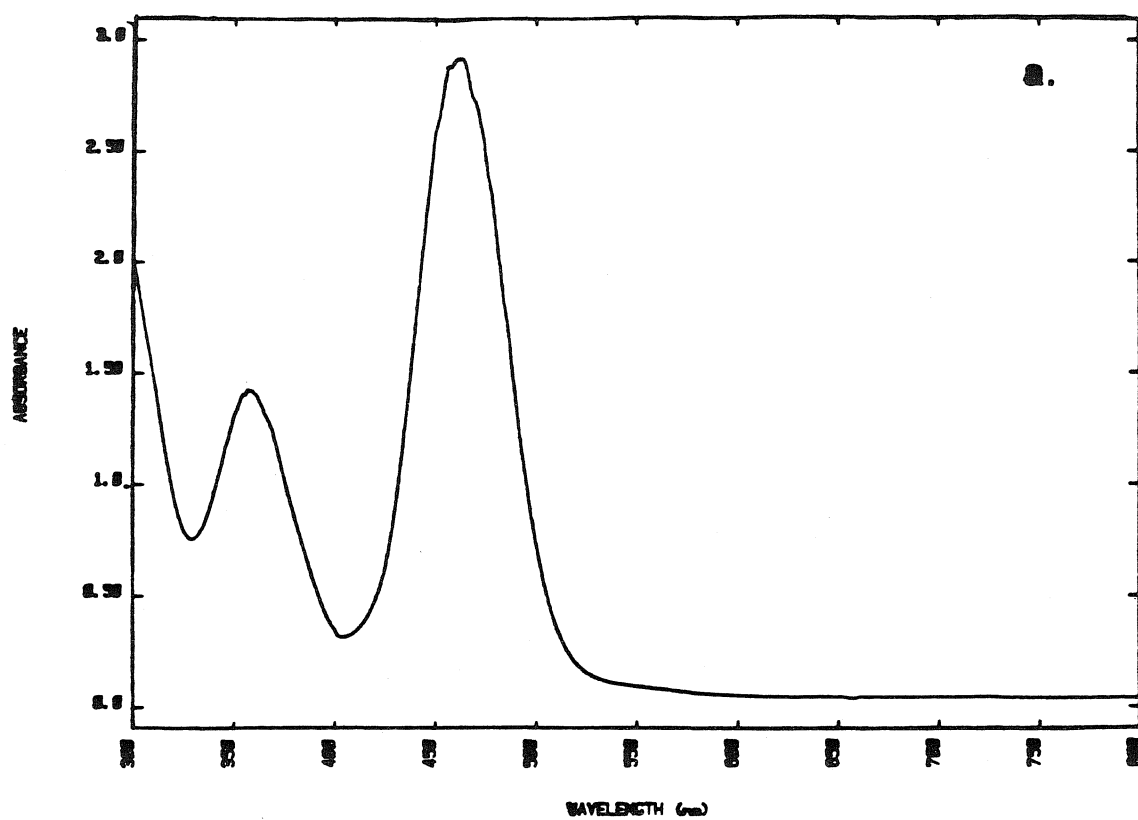
$\nu(\text{cm}^{-1})$



2200 2000 1900

$\nu(\text{cm}^{-1})$

**Figure 3.16.** Electronic absorption spectra of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_3\text{P})_2$  a) before and b) following bulk electrolysis. During the electrolysis experiment the  $^1\text{A} \rightarrow ^1\text{B}$  ( $\text{d}\sigma^* \rightarrow \text{p}\sigma$ ) absorption band of the reactants disappears and is replaced by an intense feature at 377 nm which is assigned to a  $^2\text{B} \rightarrow ^2\text{A}$  ( $\text{d}\sigma \rightarrow \text{d}\sigma^*$ ) transition.





### Excited State Energetics

A central objective of our studies, regarding the electrochemical and spectroscopic properties of the donor-acceptor compounds, was to determine estimates for electron-transfer driving forces. This type of information is important from several stand points. First, reaction exoergicity is known to be a fundamental kinetic parameter in electron-transfer reactions.<sup>30</sup> The driving force dependence is an important characteristic of an electron-transfer process, because exoergicity, along with inner-sphere and outer-sphere reorganization energies, determines the thermal barriers to electron transfer. Secondly, in contrast to a bimolecular ET system, the charge separated state in the donor-acceptor complexes can be thought of as an additional molecular electronic state. Characterizing the relative energies of the metal localized (<sup>1</sup>B and <sup>3</sup>B) and charge-transfer (CT) states in the donor-acceptor systems is important to understanding their photophysical properties.

The reaction exoergicities in the donor-acceptor complexes can be estimated from the one electron oxidation and reduction potentials of their <sup>1</sup>B and <sup>3</sup>B excited states, and pyridinium cations using the spectroscopic and electrochemical data presented in this chapter.<sup>31,32</sup> The oxidation potential of the <sup>1</sup>B and <sup>3</sup>B excited states are given by equations 3.3a and b.

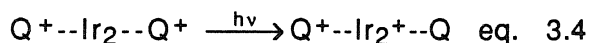
$$E^{\circ}(\text{Ir}_2;^1\text{B}/\text{Ir}_2^+) = E_{\text{oo}}(^1\text{B}) - E_{1/2}(\text{Ir}_2/\text{Ir}_2^+) \quad \text{eq. 3.3a}$$

$$E^{\circ}(\text{Ir}_2;^3\text{B}/\text{Ir}_2^+) = E_{\text{oo}}(^3\text{B}) - E_{1/2}(\text{Ir}_2/\text{Ir}_2^+) \quad \text{eq. 3.3b}$$

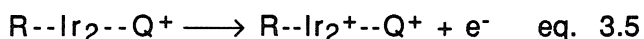
These equations are essentially electrochemical analogs of Förster's equations for excited state acid-base reactions as discussed by Grabowski *et al.*<sup>33</sup> They assume that  $\Delta H(\text{M}^*/\text{M}^+) - \Delta H(\text{M}/\text{M}^+) = E_{\text{oo}}(\text{M}^*)$  and  $\Delta S(\text{M}^*/\text{M}^+) - \Delta S(\text{M}/\text{M}^+) \approx 0$ . The former assumption is reasonable for condensed phase reactions at 1 atm. The validity of the

latter assumption depends on the nature M and M\*. Differences in the entropy of the ground and excited states of a molecule can arise from several different effects: 1) changes in dipole moment that lead to changes in solvation, 2) changes in internal degrees of freedom, and 3) changes in orbital and spin degeneracies. This last factor can usually be neglected, because it amounts to about 0.03 eV at 25° C.<sup>31</sup> Changes in solvation are not likely to contribute to  $\Delta\Delta S$  in the donor-acceptor systems due to the low polarity of the  $^1B$  and  $^3B$  metal localized excited states. Entropy effects due to changes in a chromophore's internal degrees of freedom are difficult to predict. However, a good estimate of  $\Delta\Delta S$  can be obtained from the Stoke's shift between a compound's absorption and emission maxima; larger Stoke's shifts are associated with larger entropy changes. Previous studies have indicated that the triplet state oxidation potentials for  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz})_2(\text{COD})_2]$ , obtained from equation 3b and from bimolecular quenching studies are the same within experimental error; this compound's Stoke's shift is approximately  $2500\text{ cm}^{-1}$ .<sup>8</sup> Considering that the Stoke's shift for the donor-acceptor complexes is a factor of two greater than this value suggests that  $\Delta\Delta S$  contributions in these complexes are negligible as well. Thus, a knowledge of  $E_{00}$  and  $E_{1/2}$  is required to estimate the excited state redox potentials of the  $^1B$  and  $^3B$  excited states in these complexes. Values of  $E_{00}(^1B)$  and  $E_{00}(^3B)$  were estimated from the arithmetic mean of their corresponding emission and absorption maxima. This procedure yields exact values of  $E_{00}$  provided that the ground and excited state vibrational frequencies for the complexes are the same.<sup>34</sup> However, the ground and excited state metal-metal vibrational frequencies in  $d^8$ - $d^8$  complexes are known to differ by as much as  $100\text{ cm}^{-1}$ . The error incurred by using this approximation was found to be about  $\pm 150\text{ cm}^{-1}$  by carrying out similar calculations on  $\text{Pt}_2(\text{P}_2\text{O}_5\text{H}_2)_4^{2-}$  and  $\text{Rh}_2(\text{Bridge})_4^{2+}$ . The oxidation potential of the iridium dimer chromophore is approximated as the average of the oxidation potential for  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$  and  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-NEt}_3^+)_2$  based on the following argument. In contrast

to a bimolecular ET reaction, charge in a donor-acceptor system is redistributed with a single molecular unit, rather than transferred from one molecule to another. As seen in equation 3.4, the electron-transfer reactions in the  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Q}^+)_2$  systems can be formally characterized by the redistribution of a positive charge from a single pyridinium cation ( $\text{Q}^+$ ) to a pair of iridium metal centers.

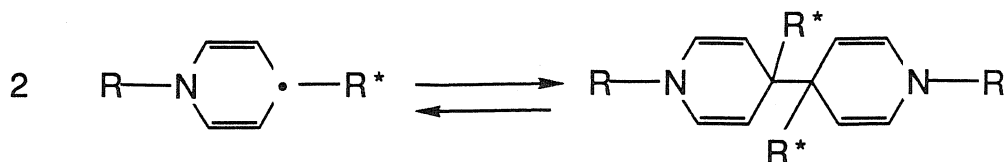


Within this formalism the oxidation half reaction for the donor-acceptor complexes is represented by the one electron oxidation of their iridium metal centers under the influence of a single pyridinium cation (equation 3.5.).



The redox potential for this half reaction could be easily determined using a complex that contains one neutral and one charged phosphinite ligand. However, asymmetrically substituted compounds are not readily prepared. It was shown in the previous section that the pyridinium cations alter the oxidation potentials of the donor-acceptor complexes by acting as inert electrostatic charges. Assuming that these effects are additive, a good estimate for the redox potential of reaction 5 is the mean value of the oxidation potential of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$  and  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-NEt}_3^+)_2$ .

Determining reduction potentials for the pyridinium cations in the donor-acceptor complexes is complicated by the dimerization reactions of pyridyl radical, which distort the pyridinium CV waves.<sup>26</sup> Earlier studies have established that pyridyl radicals exist in solution in equilibrium with their "4,4'-dihydrobipyridine like" counter parts (equation 3.6.).<sup>35</sup>



eq. 3.6

At room temperature these reactions take place at approximately  $10^8 \text{ M}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$ , favoring the dihydrobipyridine adduct. When R is an electron withdrawing substituent, such as CN or a carbomethoxy group,  $K_{\text{eq}}$  is approximately  $10^5 \text{ M}^{-1}$ ; For  $\text{R}^* = \text{alkyl or H}$ ,  $K_{\text{eq}}$  is greater than  $10^{11} \text{ M}^{-1}$ . Electrochemical EC mechanisms, involving dimerization reactions such as those surrounding pyridyl radicals, have been discussed in detail by Saveant *et al.*<sup>36</sup> According to the kinetic analysis reported by these authors, the characteristics of an EC electrochemical couple are a function of the sweep rate ( $v$ ), substrate concentration ( $C_0$ ), and equilibrium constant and rate constant for the dimerization reaction. The dimerization rates for the type of pyridinium cations employed in the donor-acceptor complexes place their electrochemical couples in the pure kinetic region of a  $\log \lambda$  versus  $\log \chi$  plot. Under these conditions, the value of  $E_{1/2}$  for their one electron reduction is related to their peak potentials through equation 3.7;

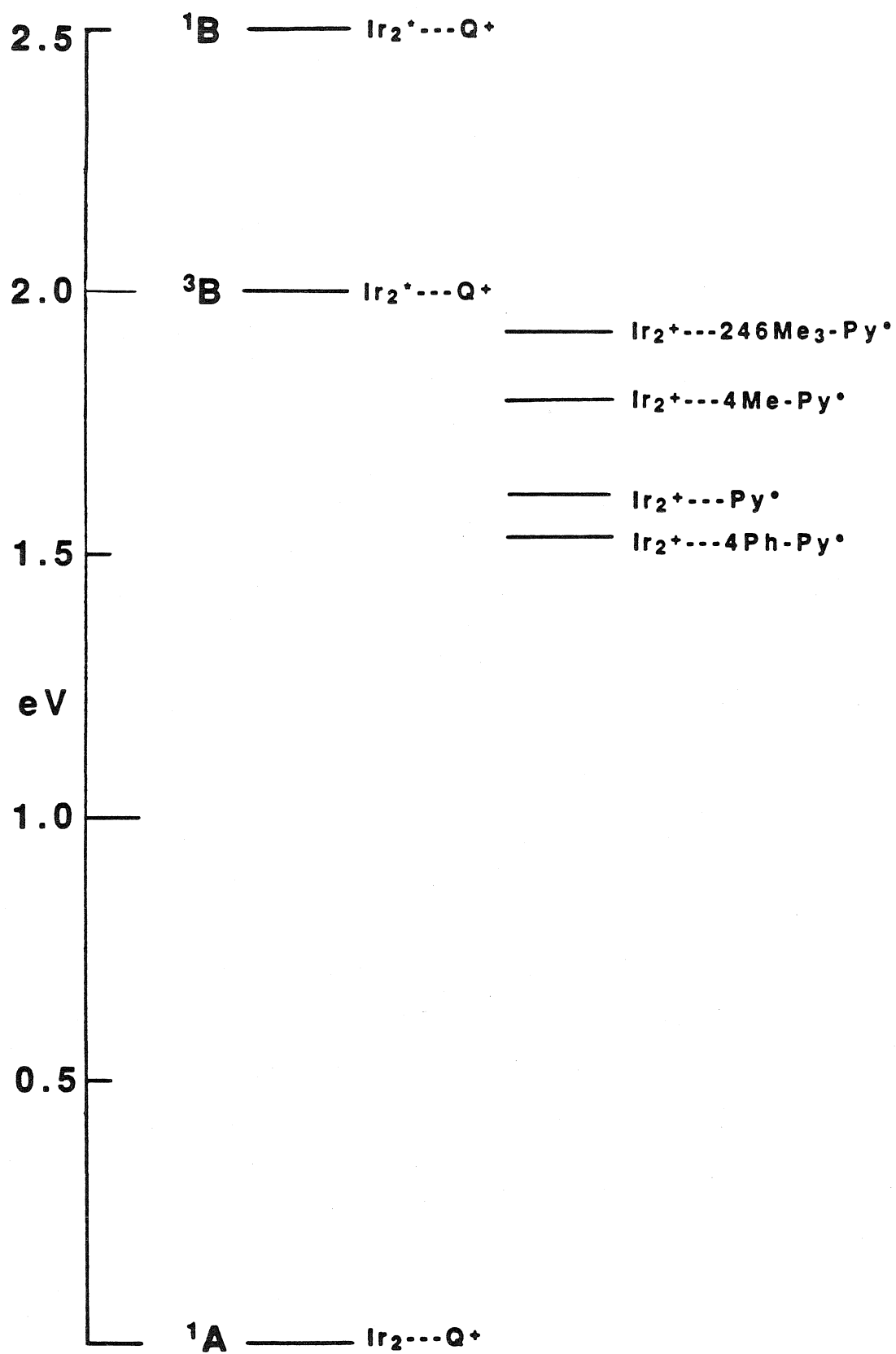
$$E_{1/2} = E_{\text{pc}} + 0.058 - 0.0197 \text{Log} \left[ \frac{kC_0}{v} \right] \quad \text{eq. 3.7.}$$

where  $k$  is the dimerization rate constant. Reduction potentials for the pyridinium cations in the donor-acceptor complexes were calculated from their peak potentials using equation 3.7 and are summarized in table 3.9. This analysis assumes that the dimerization rate constants for pyridyl radicals bound to the donor-acceptor compounds can be approximated by rate constants for free pyridyl radicals.

Using the spectroscopic and electrochemical data found in table 3.9, an approximate state diagram for the donor-acceptor systems can be constructed. As seen

in figure 3.17, in addition to their  $^1B$  and  $^3B$  metal localized excited states, each of the donor-acceptor complexes possesses a charge-transfer state whose energy varies with the reduction potential of the compound's covalently attached pyridinium cation. Notably, the charge-transfer states in the complexes are all well below the  $^3B$  excited state; However, no evidence for direct electronic transitions between these CT states and the  $^1A$  ground state was found in the electronic absorption and emission spectra of the compounds. Such transitions might be loosely thought of as analogs of the MLCT transitions associated with  $M(CO)_5(Py-R)$  ( $M=W$ ,  $R=CN$ ,  $Ph$ ,  $Cl$ , etc.) or  $M(Bipy)_3^{3+}$  ( $M=Ru$  or  $Os$ ) complexes<sup>39</sup>. Absorption bands corresponding to a direct optical charge-transfer process must be low enough in intensity in the donor-acceptor complexes that they are not detected with our instrumentation. Based on the photophysical data presented in table 3.7,  $k_r$  for the  $^3B \rightarrow ^1A$  transition in these compounds is approximately  $10^4 \text{ sec}^{-1}$ . The absence of  $^1A \rightarrow CT$  absorption bands in their electronic spectra suggests that  $k_r$  for this process is less than  $10^4 \text{ sec}^{-1}$ . In the following chapter we will see that the excited state lifetimes of the CT state in the donor-acceptor compounds ranges from 100 ps to 10 ns. These relatively short lifetimes must correspond to rapid nonradiative charge recombination reactions, which return these systems to their ground states. Thus, charge separation in our donor-acceptor systems occurs via excited state electron transfer, involving the  $^1B$  and  $^3B$  excited states of their iridium dimer redox chromophores, and charge recombination occurs by a primarily nonradiative process.

**Figure 3.17.** A state diagram for the donor-acceptor systems, constructed from the spectroscopic and electrochemical data found in table 3.9. While the charge-transfer states in these complexes are energetic enough to have absorption bands in the visible and near IR, such absorption features were not observed.



**Table 3.9:** Final Energetic Parameters for the Donor-Acceptor Complexes.

Transition	E(ev)	$\sigma$
$^1A \rightarrow ^1B$	2.5	$\pm 0.02$
$^1A \rightarrow ^3B$	2.0	$\pm 0.02$
$Ir_2 \rightarrow Ir_2^+ + e^-$	0.39	$\pm 0.03$
$Ir_2(^1B) \rightarrow Ir_2^+ + e^-$	2.11	$\pm 0.04$
$Ir_2(^3B) \rightarrow Ir_2^+ + e^-$	1.61	$\pm 0.04$
$e^- + 246Me_3-Py^+ \rightarrow 246Me_3-Py$	-1.53	$\pm 0.05$
$e^- + 4Me-Py^+ \rightarrow 4Me-Py$	-1.40	$\pm 0.05$
$e^- + Py^+ \rightarrow Py$	-1.22	$\pm 0.05$
$e^- + 4Ph-Py^+ \rightarrow 4Ph-Py$	-1.14	$\pm 0.05$



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**Chapter 4**  
**Time-resolved Experiments**

## Introduction

The steady-state spectroscopic results presented in chapter 3 clearly establish that a quenching process involving both singlet and triplet ( $d\sigma^*p\sigma$ ) excited states is active in the donor-acceptor complexes. We have proposed that the decrease in the emission intensities from both these states is due to excited state electron transfer. This chapter deals with characterizing the charge transfer reactions of the singlet, triplet, and CT excited states in our intramolecular redox systems using picosecond time-resolved absorption and emission techniques. Results from these experiments provide direct kinetic and spectroscopic information regarding the rates of the charge separation and the charge recombination reactions involving these three excited states. In particular the transient absorption data obtained in this phase of our research conclusively assigns the singlet and triplet quenching processes in our compounds to excited state ET by spectroscopically identifying the charge transfer products. In the discussion section of this chapter the electron transfer rate data are evaluated in terms of their dependence on reaction driving force. Clear evidence for inverted behavior is seen in the charge recombination reactions in our systems. Finally, the photophysical properties of these iridium  $d^8$ - $d^8$  donor-acceptor complexes are examined with regard to designing directional charge-transfer systems

## Experimental

**General Procedures:** All manipulations involving the iridium dimer complexes were carried out using standard Schlenk and high vacuum techniques. Solvents used in spectroscopic experiments were reagent grade or better in quality. They were purified as indicated, subjected to a minimum of five freeze/pump/thaw cycles, and stored in a round bottom storage flask fitted with a Kontes Teflon stopcock. 2-



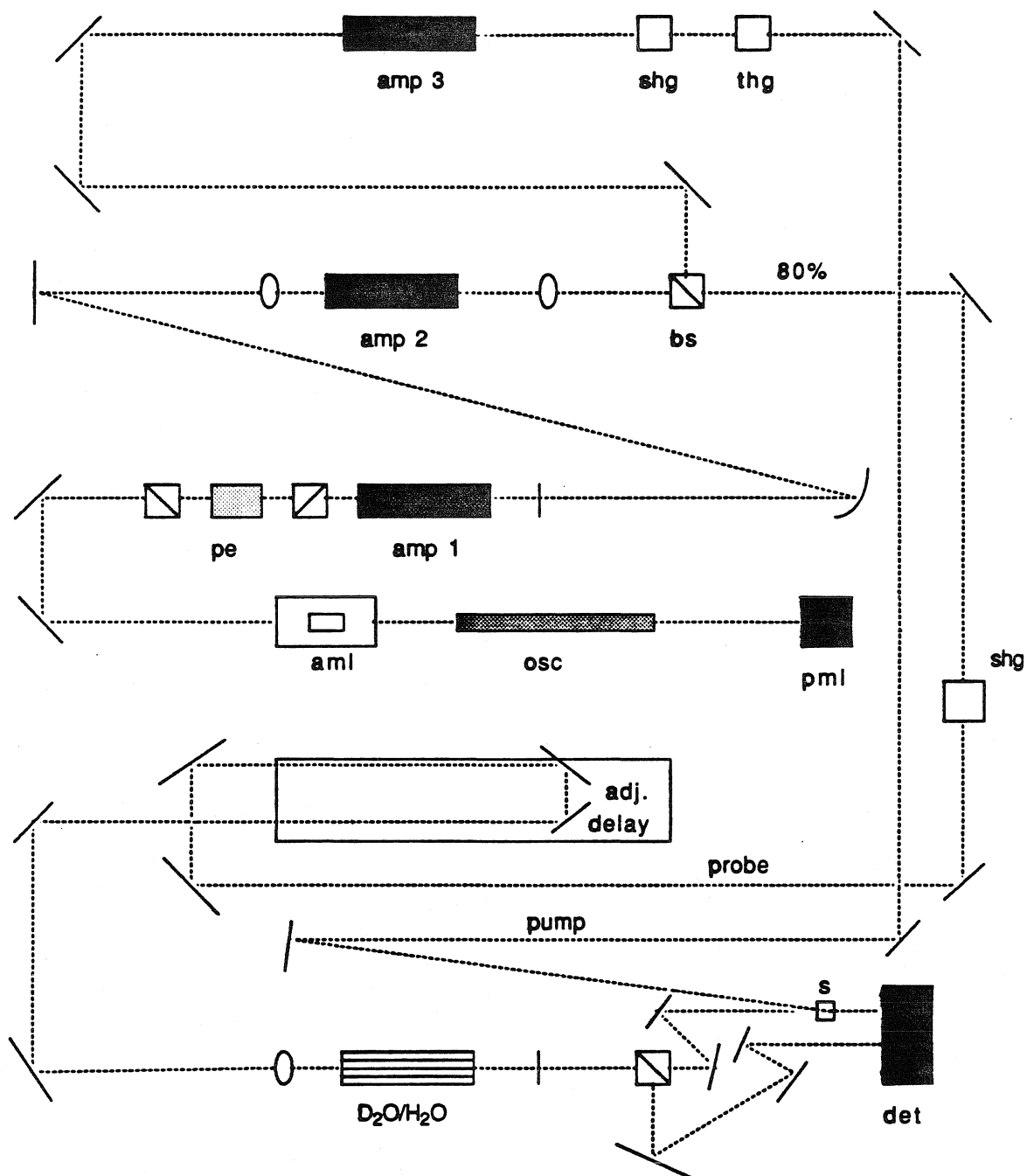
Methyltetrahydrofuran was purified by distillation from a 0.5% (w/w) suspension of cuprous chloride, followed by distillation from  $\text{CaH}_2$  and finally from sodium/benzophenone. It was stored under vacuum over sodium/benzophenone as an indicator. Acetonitrile was distilled from  $\text{CaH}_2$  under nitrogen and stored in vacuo.

### Kinetics and Spectral Measurements

Difference spectra and kinetics as well as emission lifetimes were recorded using two types of laser systems depending on the time scale required for a particular measurement. Both instruments have been fully described elsewhere,<sup>1,2</sup> and only their highlights are reported here. Phosphorescence lifetimes were recorded using a nanosecond laser system built at Caltech. The excitation source was a Quanta Ray DCR-1 Q-switched Nd:YAG laser, which was frequency doubled and tripled with a Quanta Ray HG-1 harmonic generator (KDP). Doubled and tripled 8 ns (fwhm) laser pulses were separated from the YAG fundamental using a Quanta Ray PHS-1 prism harmonic separator. Light emitted by the sample was collimated at  $90^\circ$  to the excitation beam and focused through a Corning 3483 sharp cut filter onto the entrance slit of a MacPherson 0.35 m monochromator. Luminescence was detected using a Hamamatsu R955 photomultiplier tube, and the signal was amplified with a LeCroy VV101ATM amplifier. Signals were digitized with a Biomation 6500 waveform recorder and transferred to a Digital PDP11/103-L computer. Data sets were analyzed on an IBM-AT PC using kinetics software developed in-house by Dr. Michael Albin. Samples were prepared under vacuum as acetonitrile solutions in an NMR tube which, was attached to a Kontes Teflon stopcock.

Picosecond time-resolved absorption and emission experiments were conducted at Brookhaven National Laboratory in collaboration with Dr. Jay R. Winkler. Figure 4.1 shows a schematic representation of the mode-locked Nd:YAG laser used in these experiments. A train of 30 ps (fwhm) pulses was generated in an actively-passively

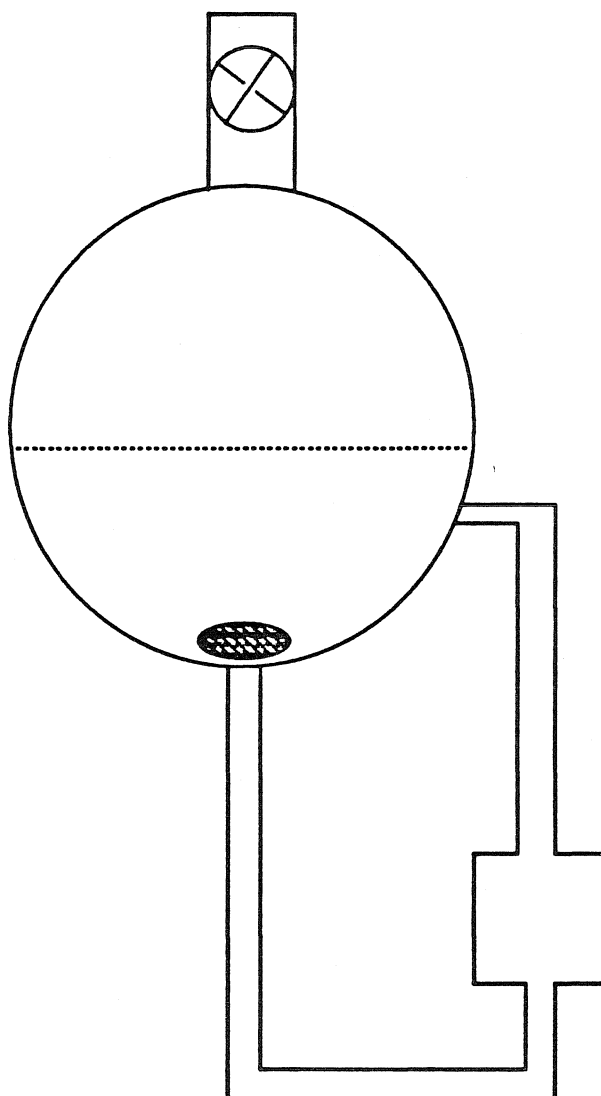
**Figure 4.1.** Schematic representation of the picosecond laser system used in time-resolved emission and absorption measurements. A train of picosecond pulses is generated in an active-passive mode-locked Nd:YAG laser cavity (aml, osc, pml). A single pulse is selected using a pulse extraction device (pe) and amplified by two single pass YAG amplifiers (amp1, amp2). The amplified pulse is split into two components; one is amplified and used as an excitation source and the other component is used as a probe beam. Probe light is generated by passing the focused probe beam (either 532 nm or 355 nm) through a 10 cm pathlength cell containing 80:20 D<sub>2</sub>O/H<sub>2</sub>O.



mode-locked laser cavity (osc). A single pulse was removed from the pulse train using a Quantel SPS411 Pulse Selector (pe) and amplified twice by two Quantel single pass Nd:YAG amplifiers. The pulse was split into two components; 20% was passed through a third single pass amplifier and frequency doubled or tripled (KDP) for use as a pump beam. The remaining 80% of the pulse intensity was frequency doubled and used to generate picosecond probe light. The probe beam was passed through a series of mirrors and a translation stage to provide time delays between the pump beam and probe. Probe light was generated by focusing the probe beam into a 10 cm quartz cell containing an 80:20 by volume mixture of D<sub>2</sub>O/H<sub>2</sub>O and was focused onto a 400  $\mu$ m-diameter aperture in contact with a sand blasted glass slide. Light from this aperture was collected and transferred to a beam splitter; one third of its intensity was reflected around the sample and used as a reference beam. The probe and reference beams were passed to the entrance slit of a DMC monochromator and then to two photomultiplier tubes. For each delay time and wavelength 100 laser shots were used. Fifty ratios of the probe and reference beams were measured without sample excitation and fifty ratios were measured with sample excitation. The log of the ratio of these ratios is equal to  $\Delta A$ . Picosecond time-resolved emission experiments were conducted using this same laser system except that the sample luminescence was recorded using a Hamamatsu streak camera. Data were transferred to a PDP 11/23 computer and analyzed using kinetics software developed at BNL. Picosecond time-resolved emission data were analyzed using a deconvolution software package developed at Caltech-JPL by Dr. David Brinza.

Samples were prepared under vacuum as acetonitrile solutions and were held under argon in the flow cell seen in figure 4.2. Stirring in the main reservoir causes the solution to flow through the 2 mm optical glass cuvette at the bottom of the cell. This procedure assures that a fresh portion of solution is explored in each measurement. Samples were stable to laser radiation under these conditions for several weeks.

**Figure 4.2.** Inert atmosphere cell used in picosecond absorption measurements. The sample is contained under nitrogen in a 250 ml reservoir. When the solution is stirred, the hydrodynamic force created by the stirring action draws the solution through the optical cell. This procedure ensures that each laser shot interrogates a fresh and identical sample solution.



## Results

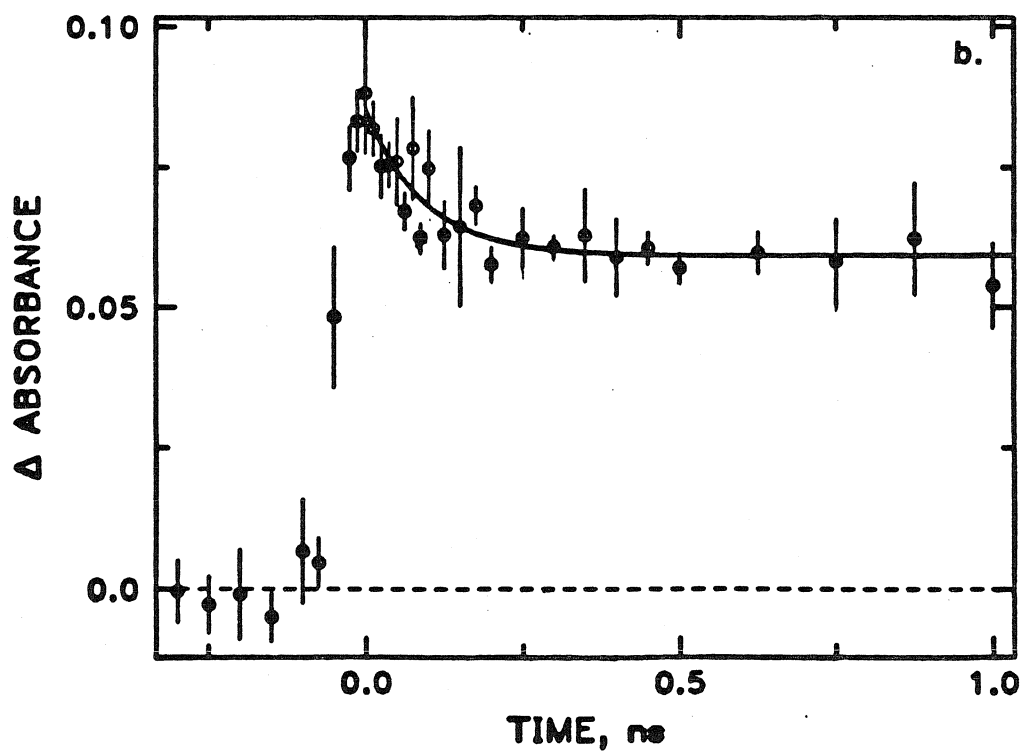
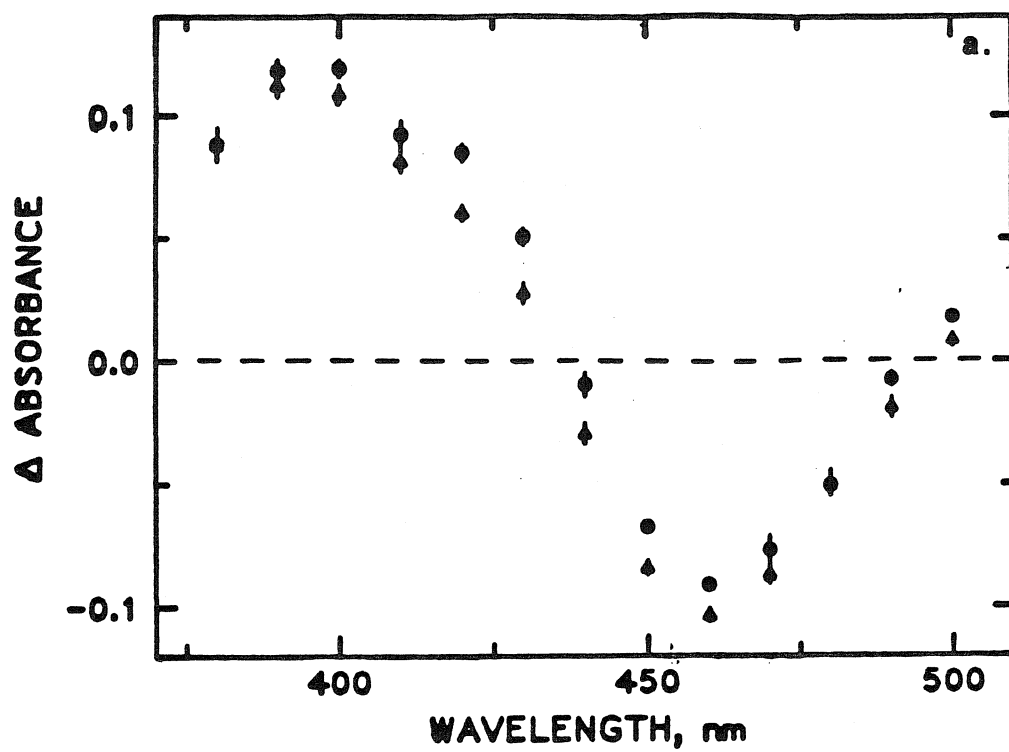
### Kinetic and Spectral Data

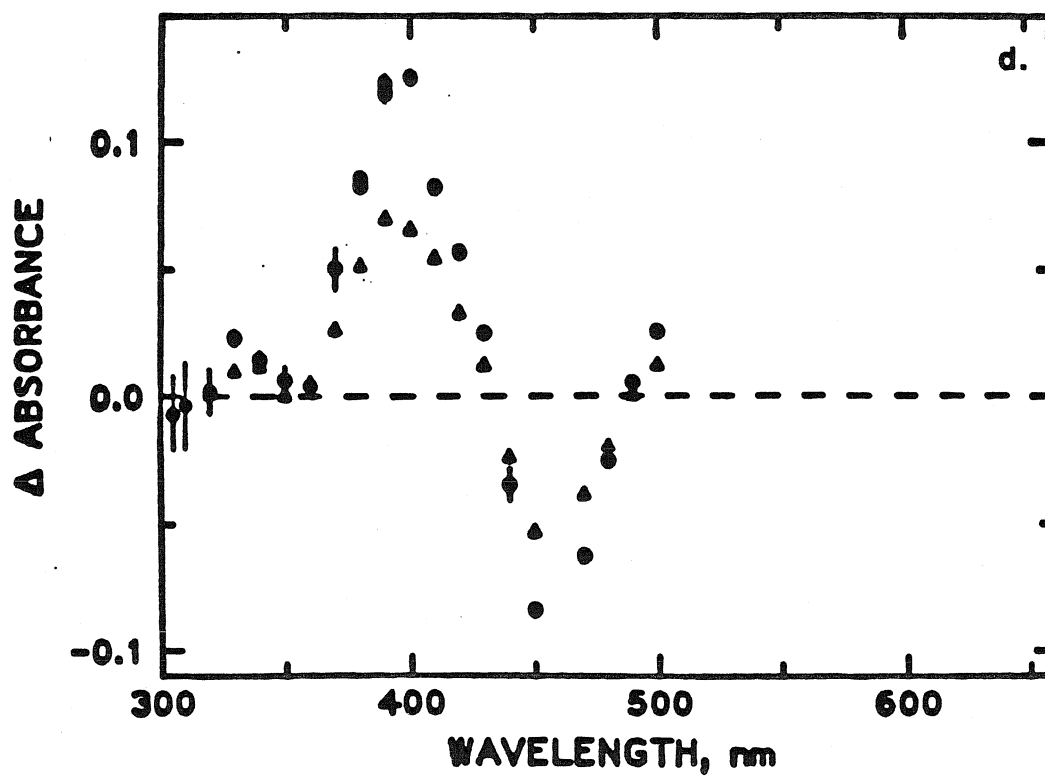
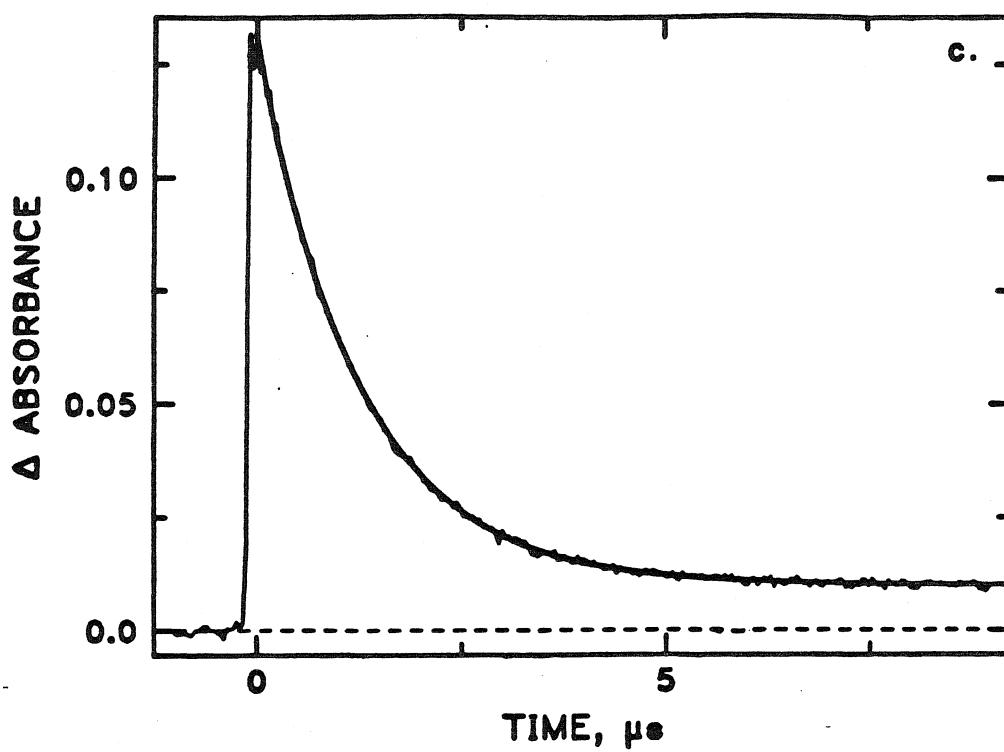
#### ***Model Complexes $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$ and***

***$\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-NEt}_3^+)_2$*** : Figures 4.3a-d show spectral and kinetic results for the two model compounds,  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$  and  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-NEt}_3^+)_2$ , in acetonitrile solutions after a 30 ps laser pulse at 355 nm. Both compounds exhibit a biphasic transient absorption signal, which rises with the laser pulse and returns to baseline at long delay times ( $t > 10 \mu\text{s}$ ). The shorter component decays with a lifetime of approximately  $\tau_1 = 100 \text{ ps}$ ; the second transient is much longer lived and decays on a microsecond timescale ( $\tau_2 = 1.2 \mu\text{s}$ ). Kinetic results for both complexes were independent of  $\lambda_{\text{ex}}$  (either 355 nm or 532 nm) and  $\lambda_{\text{obs}}$ . Emission lifetimes for the  $^1\text{B}$  and  $^3\text{B}$  excited states in these molecules were determined independently to be  $\tau(^1\text{B}) = 100 \text{ ps}$  and  $\tau(^3\text{B}) = 1.3 \mu\text{s}$  via time-resolved emission measurements. Thus, the two transients seen in difference spectra of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$  and  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-NEt}_3^+)_2$  are logically attributed to their singlet and triplet ( $d\sigma^*p\sigma$ ) excited states. Figures 4.3a and d show spectral data for the compounds in the wavelength range between 300 nm and 500 nm at delay times immediately following and well after the laser pulse. In addition to a ground state bleach at 450 nm both compounds exhibit a single transient absorption feature at approximately 400 nm. Data for  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$  were obtained at probe wavelengths below 380 nm by exciting this complex at 532 nm and generating probe pulses with the 355 nm laser line. Unfortunately, higher energy excited state transitions were not observed in these experiments. Adequate UV probe light could only be generated up to 310 nm and spectral data above 500 nm could not be

**Figure 4.3.** Difference spectra and kinetics of the model compounds. a) Transient spectrum of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-NEt}_3^+)_2$  in acetonitrile ( $\lambda_{\text{ex}}=355$  nm, 0:  $t=0.0$  ps,  $\Delta$ :  $t=12.35$  ns). b) Kinetics for  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-NEt}_3^+)_2$  ( $\lambda_{\text{ex}}=355$  nm,  $\lambda_{\text{obs}}=420$  nm,  $\tau_{\text{fit}}=93$  ps). c) Kinetics for  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-NEt}_3^+)_2$  ( $\lambda_{\text{ex}}=355$  nm,  $\lambda_{\text{obs}}=400$  nm,  $\tau_{\text{fit}}=1.26$   $\mu\text{s}$ ). d) Transient spectrum of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$  ( $\lambda_{\text{ex}}=532$  nm, 0:  $t=0.0$  ps,  $\Delta$ :  $t=5.0$  ns).







recorded due to luminescence backgrounds. Additional excited state transitions may occur in these complexes, but must lie outside the spectral range available in our experiments.

The excited state spectra and kinetics of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$  and  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-NEt}_3^+)_2$  are interesting not only as points of reference for investigating electron transfer in the donor-acceptor complexes, but also with regard to the photophysical and excited state properties of  $d^8$ - $d^8$  A-frame chromophores. The excited state spectra and kinetics of  $d^8$ - $d^8$  compounds have been the focus of several previous studies.<sup>3</sup> In compounds such as  $\text{Rh}_2(\text{Bridge})_4^{2+}$  and  $\text{Rh}_2(\text{TMB})_4^{2+}$ , the  $^1\text{A}_{2\text{u}}$  and  $^3\text{A}_{2\text{u}}$  ( $d\sigma^*p\sigma$ ) excited states are easily differentiated by their transient absorption bands.<sup>3c</sup> The former excited states show an intense  $^1\text{A}_{2\text{u}} \rightarrow ^1\text{A}_{1\text{g}}$  ( $d\sigma^*p\sigma \rightarrow p\sigma^2$ ) (ca. 450 nm) band in their transient spectrum. This transition is formally spin forbidden from a  $^3\text{A}_{2\text{u}}$  excited state and is too weak to observe in transient difference spectra. The longer lived triplet state characteristically exhibits two transient absorption features which, in  $\text{Rh}_2(\text{Bridge})_4^{2+}$  and  $\text{Rh}_2(\text{TMB})_4^{2+}$  have been assigned to  $^3\text{A}_{2\text{u}} \rightarrow ^3\text{A}_{1\text{g}}$  ( $d\sigma^*p\sigma \rightarrow d\sigma p\sigma$ ) (ca. 470 nm) and  $^3\text{A}_{2\text{u}} \rightarrow ^3\text{E}_{2\text{g}}$  ( $d\pi \rightarrow p\sigma$ ) (ca. 420 nm) electronic transitions. Prior to this study, the only  $d^8$ - $d^8$  A-frame complex that had been examined using time-resolved spectroscopy was  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz})_2(\text{COD})_2]$ .<sup>3a</sup> In this particular system, only spectra of the  $^3\text{B}$  excited state could be recorded due to its prohibitively short singlet lifetime ( $\tau < 30$  ps). Thus, the data reported here provide the first opportunity for comparing the spectroscopic properties of the  $^1\text{B}$  and  $^3\text{B}$  excited states in a  $d^8$ - $d^8$  A-frame complex. In contrast to the transient spectra of  $[\text{Rh}_2(\text{Bridge})_4]^{2+}$  and  $[\text{Rh}_2(\text{TMB})_4]^{2+}$ , the singlet and triplet excited state spectra in  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$  and  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-NEt}_3^+)_2$  are remarkably similar. Both states are characterized by an apparently identical absorption feature. At present it is difficult to assign these transitions with any degree of certainty. However, it can be safely

concluded that this band does not correspond to a ( $d\sigma^*p\sigma \rightarrow p\sigma^2$ ) transition in the triplet spectra of these compounds. Further, based on the transient absorption spectra of  $[\text{Rh}_2(\text{Bridge})_4]^{2+}$  and  $[\text{Rh}_2(\text{TMB})_4]^{2+}$ , it is unlikely that this transition in the singlet spectrum of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$  or  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-NEt}_3^+)_2$  would be isoenergetic with either the ( $d\sigma^*p\sigma \rightarrow d\sigma p\sigma$ ) or ( $d\pi \rightarrow p\sigma$ ) transition originating from its triplet excited state. One plausible explanation for this behavior is that the ( $d\sigma^*p\sigma \rightarrow p\sigma^2$ ) transitions in these complexes are near in energy to their ( $d\sigma^* \rightarrow p\sigma$ ) transitions and are obscured in the bleach region of their transient difference spectra. Under this assumption the two bands at 400 nm are tentatively assigned to ( $d\pi \rightarrow p\sigma$ ) and ( $d\sigma \rightarrow d\sigma^*$ ) transitions by analogy to assignments made in spectra of  $\text{Rh}_2(\text{Bridge})_4^{2+}$  and  $\text{Rh}_2(\text{TMB})_4^{2+}$ . Further studies directed toward measuring the extinction coefficients and polarizations of these bands will be necessary to conclusively assign them to specific transitions.

With regard to their photophysical properties,  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$  and  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-NEt}_3^+)_2$  have some of the longest lived singlet and triplet excited states found in A-frame complexes. We propose that the longer lifetimes in these compounds result from their smaller nonradiative decay rates. As seen in table 4.1, while the radiative rates for a series of different  $d^8$ - $d^8$  A-frame complexes are essentially the same, the quantum yields and emission lifetimes of these compounds vary as a function of their terminal and bridging ligands. These trends are indicative of variations in the nonradiative deactivation rates for their ( $d\sigma^*p\sigma$ ) excited states due to differences in their coordination environments. While theoretical models for nonradiative decay processes are available,<sup>4</sup> the specific molecular parameters, which control these processes in large inorganic complexes are poorly understood. Thus, cause-effect relationships between molecular structure, and nonradiative rate constants in our metal dimers are difficult to evaluate. However, we

**Table 4.1:** Quantum Yield and Lifetime Data for Selected A-Frame Complexes.

Complex	$\phi(^1B)$	$\phi(^3B)$	$\tau(^1B)$ ns	$\tau(^3B)$ ns
$[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz})_2(\text{COD})_2]^a$	0.0001	0.0078	<0.03	250
$[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{COD})_2]^a$	0.0001	0.0038	<0.03	80
$[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz})_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_3\text{P})_2]^b$	- -	- -	- -	<8
$[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_3\text{P})_2]$	0.0003	0.0015	<0.03	60
$[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2$ ( $\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{NEt}_3)_2]$	0.0015	0.039	0.09	1200
$[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2]$	0.0023	0.0250	0.1	1100
Complex	$k_r(^1B)$ $\text{sec}^{-1}$	$k_r(^3B)$ $\text{sec}^{-1}$		
$[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz})_2(\text{COD})_2]^a$	$3.0 \times 10^6 >$	$3.0 \times 10^4$		
$[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{COD})_2]^a$	$3.0 \times 10^6 >$	$4.75 \times 10^4$		
$[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_3\text{P})_2]$	$1.0 \times 10^7 >$	$2.5 \times 10^4$		
$[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2$ ( $\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{NEt}_3)_2]$	$1.7 \times 10^7$	$3.25 \times 10^4$		
$[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2]$	$2.3 \times 10^7$	$2.3 \times 10^4$		

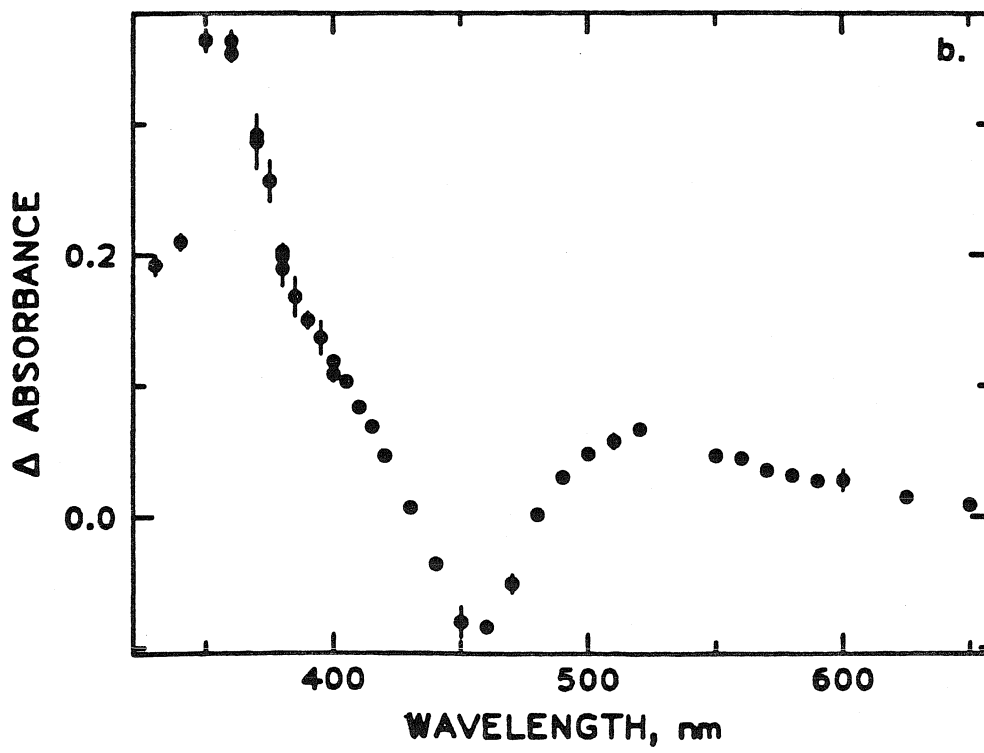
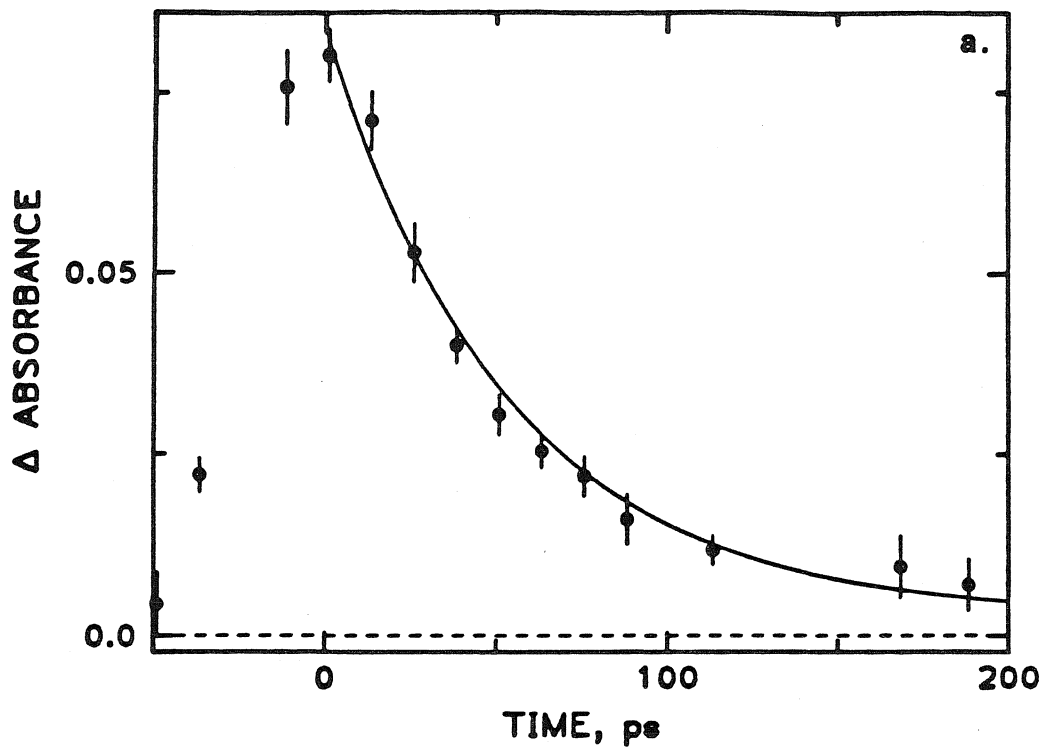
a. Marshall, J. L., Ph. D. Dissertation, Caltech, 1987.

b. Smith, T. J., Ph. D. Dissertation, Caltech, 1982.

can conclude from the data in table 4.1 that the nonradiative rates in  $d^8$ - $d^8$  A-frame complexes are strongly affected by the electronic and steric properties of their terminal and bridging ligands.

**$Ir_2(Pz^*)_2(CO)_2(Ph_2POCH_2CH_2-4PhPy^+)_2$ :** Figure 4.4 shows spectral and kinetic data for  $Ir_2(Pz^*)_2(CO)_2(Ph_2POCH_2CH_2-4PhPy^+)_2$  in acetonitrile solutions after a 30 ps laser pulse at 532 nm. This particular complex was excited using the frequency doubled Nd:YAG laser line, because strong fluorescence backgrounds from 4Ph-Py<sup>+</sup> localized excited states complicated the analysis of spectra obtained with 355 nm excitation. Kinetics measured at 380 nm and in the bleach region were characteristic of a single transient species whose concentration rises on the time scale of the laser pulse and returns to zero at long delay times ( $t > 500$  ps). The kinetic data for this compound were fit to a single exponential intensity function yielding a lifetime of 50 ps for its long lived excited state. Figure 4.4b shows spectral data in the wavelength range between 340 nm and 650nm immediately after the laser pulse. In this case spectroscopic data were readily obtained at wavelengths greater than 500 nm due to this compound's low fluorescence and phosphorescence quantum yields. The spectroscopic properties of  $Ir_2(Pz^*)_2(CO)_2(Ph_2POCH_2CH_2-4PhPy^+)_2$  differ substantially from those found in  $Ir_2(Pz^*)_2(CO)_2(Ph_2POCH_2CH_3)_2$  and  $Ir_2(Pz^*)_2(CO)_2(Ph_2POCH_2CH_2-NEt_3^+)_2$ . Its difference spectra show two prominent absorption features at 350 nm and 525 nm. These bands can be assigned to transitions localized on a 4-phenyl pyridyl radical, based on previous spectroscopic studies.<sup>5</sup> Our data indicate that the marked luminescence quenching seen in emission spectra of the donor-acceptor complexes can be attributed to an electron-transfer process. Further, electron transfer to form a charge separated state in this particular complex occurs on a timescale equal to or less than the duration of the laser pulse. This conclusion is in line with its low emission quantum yields. An upper limit of 1 ps for its <sup>1</sup>B lifetime can be estimated from its fluorescence

**Figure 4.4.** Difference spectra and kinetics of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-4PhPy}^+)_2$  in acetonitrile solutions. a) Kinetics ( $\lambda_{\text{ex}}=532$  nm,  $\lambda_{\text{obs}}=380$  nm,  $\tau_{\text{fit}}=50$  ps). b) Difference spectrum at  $t=0.0$  ps.



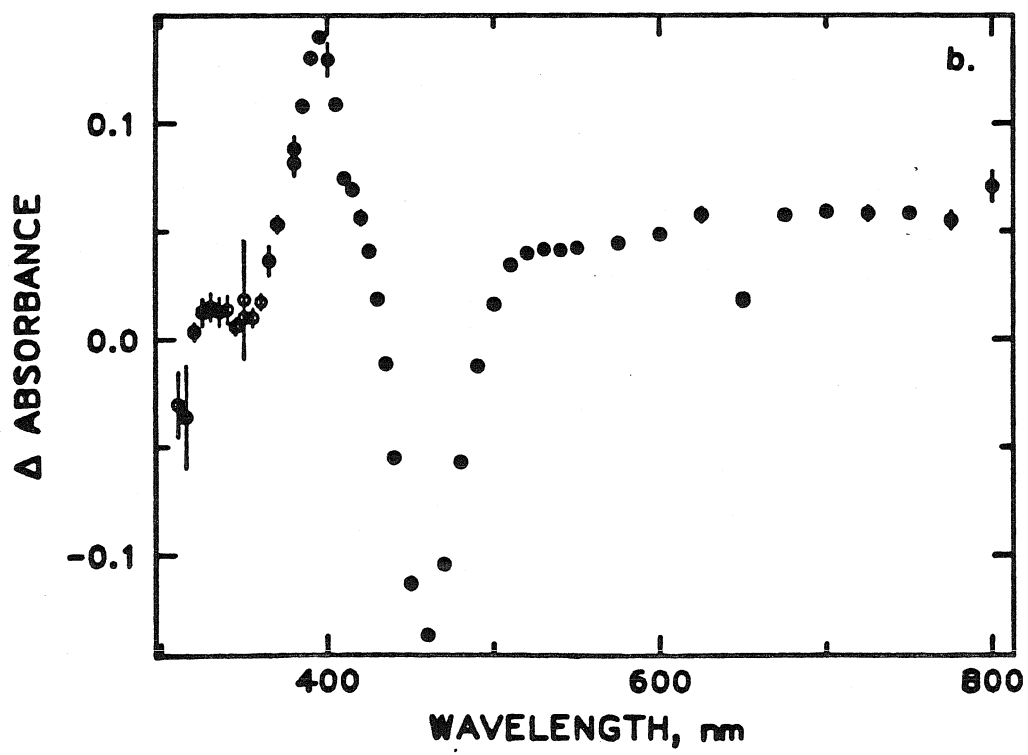
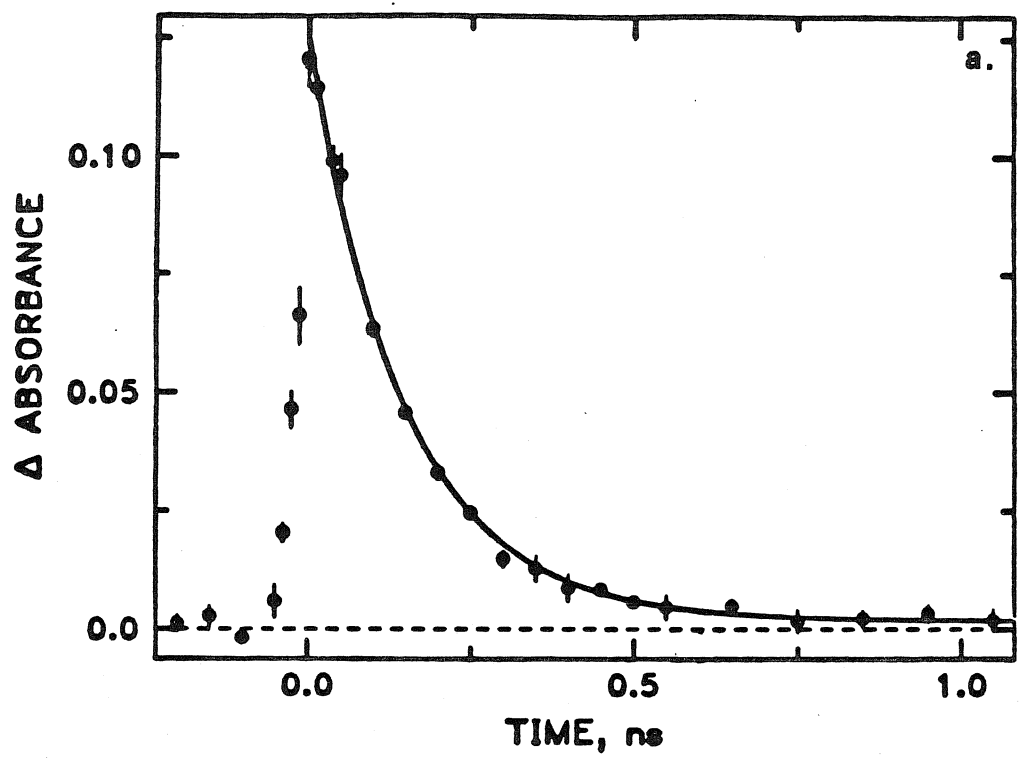


quantum yield and the quantum yield and singlet lifetime of

$\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$ . Thus, the measured  $2.0 \times 10^{10} \text{ sec}^{-1}$  rate constant in this complex corresponds to electron-hole recombination.

**$\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Py}^*)_2$ :** Figure 4.5 summarizes kinetic and spectral data for  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Py}^*)_2$  in acetonitrile solutions after an excitation pulse at 355 nm. The fluorescence backgrounds that necessitated exciting  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-4PhPy}^*)_2$  at 532 nm were not observed in experiments involving  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Py}^*)_2$  and this complex was excited at higher energies where it has a larger absorption cross section. Kinetic results for  $\lambda_{\text{ex}}=532 \text{ nm}$  and  $\lambda_{\text{ex}}=355 \text{ nm}$  were the same within experimental error making comparisons between results for this complex and  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-4PhPy}^*)_2$  possible. Kinetics measured at 400 nm and in the bleach region (450 nm) exhibited a single transient species whose concentration rises on the time scale of the laser pulse and returns to baseline at long delay times ( $t > 500 \text{ ps}$ ). The kinetic data for this complex were adequately modeled by an exponential intensity function with a time constant of 150 ps. Figure 4.5b shows a transient difference spectrum between 310 nm and 800 nm. In contrast to  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-4PhPy}^*)_2$ ,  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Py}^*)_2$  exhibits a single absorption feature at 390 nm. The apparent bleach feature at 620 nm can be attributed to Raman scattering from the probe light generation process. Because N-alkyl pyridyl radicals lack strong absorption bands in the 310 nm to 700 nm spectral region, this 390 nm band cannot be ascribed to this particular chromophore.<sup>6</sup> Notably, it is very similar to the strong high energy absorption features characteristic of an iridium dimer cation. Recall from chapter 3 that  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_3\text{P})_3]^+$  has an intense band at approximately 380 nm. However, this transient absorption feature is also very similar to transitions ascribed to the metal localized  $^1\text{B}$  and  $^3\text{B}$  excited states

**Figure 4.5.** Difference spectra and kinetics of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Py}^+)_2$  in acetonitrile solutions. a) Kinetics ( $\lambda_{\text{ex}}=355$  nm,  $\lambda_{\text{obs}}=400$  nm,  $\tau_{\text{fit}}=150$  ps). b) Difference spectrum at  $t=25$  ps ( $\lambda_{\text{ex}}=532$  nm).



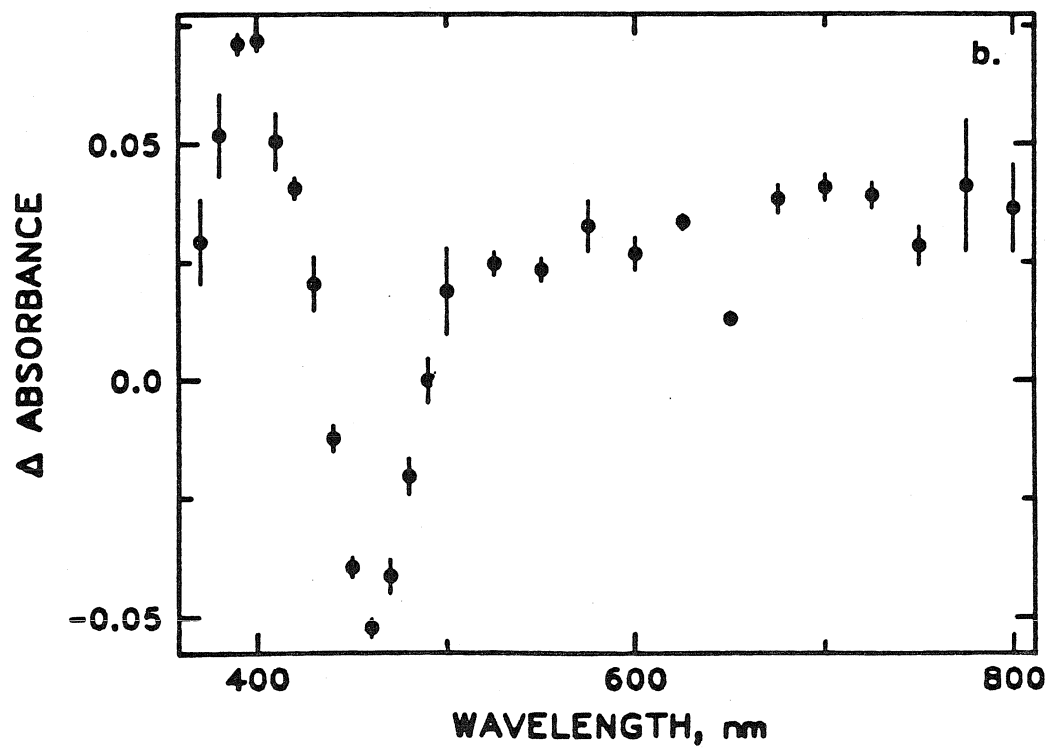
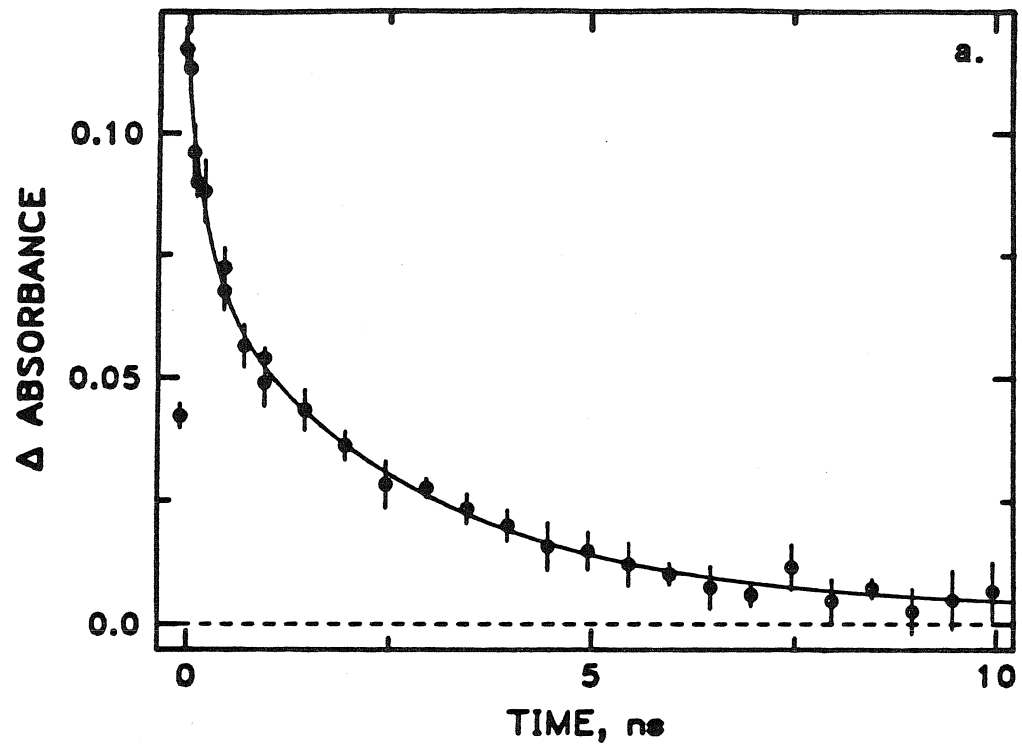
in the model complexes. Thus, additional information is required to assign this band to a particular excited state species. A  $^1B$  excited state lifetime of 2 ps for this complex can be estimated from its fluorescence quantum yield and the quantum yield and singlet lifetime of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$ . This analysis indicates that, as for  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-4PhPy}^+)_2$ , charge transfer from the  $^1B$  state in this complex occurs on a timescale that is shorter than the laser pulse.

$\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Py}^+)_2$  has a triplet quantum yield that is less than or equal to  $10^{-5}$ . Thus, the  $t=0$  yield of formation of its  $^3B$  excited state should be reduced relative to the yield of formation of the  $^3B$  state in a model complex. However, under identical experimental conditions, the yield of formation of the triplet state in  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$  and the 390 nm transient in  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Py}^+)_2$  were the same within experimental error.

These data support the conclusion that this absorption feature is due to transitions associated with a transient iridium dimer cation species and can be attributed to the charge separated state in  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Py}^+)_2$ . The measured  $6.7 \times 10^9 \text{ sec}^{-1}$  rate constant in this complex corresponds to a hole-electron charge recombination process.

**$\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-4MePy}^+)_2$ :** Figure 4.6 shows kinetic and spectral data for  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-4MePy}^+)_2$  in acetonitrile solutions. Flash photolysis of this complex with a 30 ps laser pulse at 355 nm leads to a ground state bleach at 450 nm and the formation of a transient absorption feature at 390 nm, which is similar to the absorption band seen in spectra of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Py}^+)_2$ . This transient is formed on a timescale that is equivalent to or less than that of the laser pulse and returns to baseline at long delay times ( $t > 1 \text{ ns}$ ). Kinetic data for this compound fit well to a biexponential intensity function with time constants of  $\tau_1 = 300 \text{ ps}$  and  $\tau_2 = 3.0 \text{ ns}$ . As with

**Figure 4.6.** Difference spectra and kinetics of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-4MePy}^+)_2$  in acetonitrile solutions. a) Kinetics ( $\lambda_{\text{ex}}=355$  nm,  $\lambda_{\text{obs}}=400$  nm,  $\tau_{\text{fit1}}=300$  ps,  $\tau_{\text{fit2}}=3$  ns ). b) Difference spectrum at  $t=1.25$  ns ( $\lambda_{\text{ex}}=355$  nm).

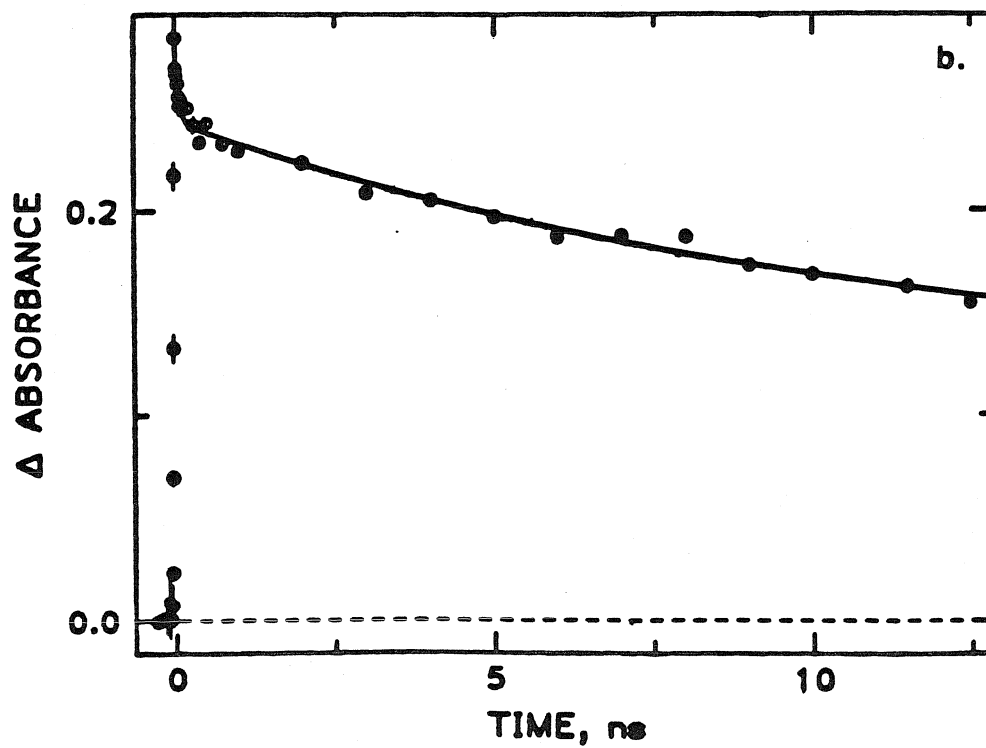
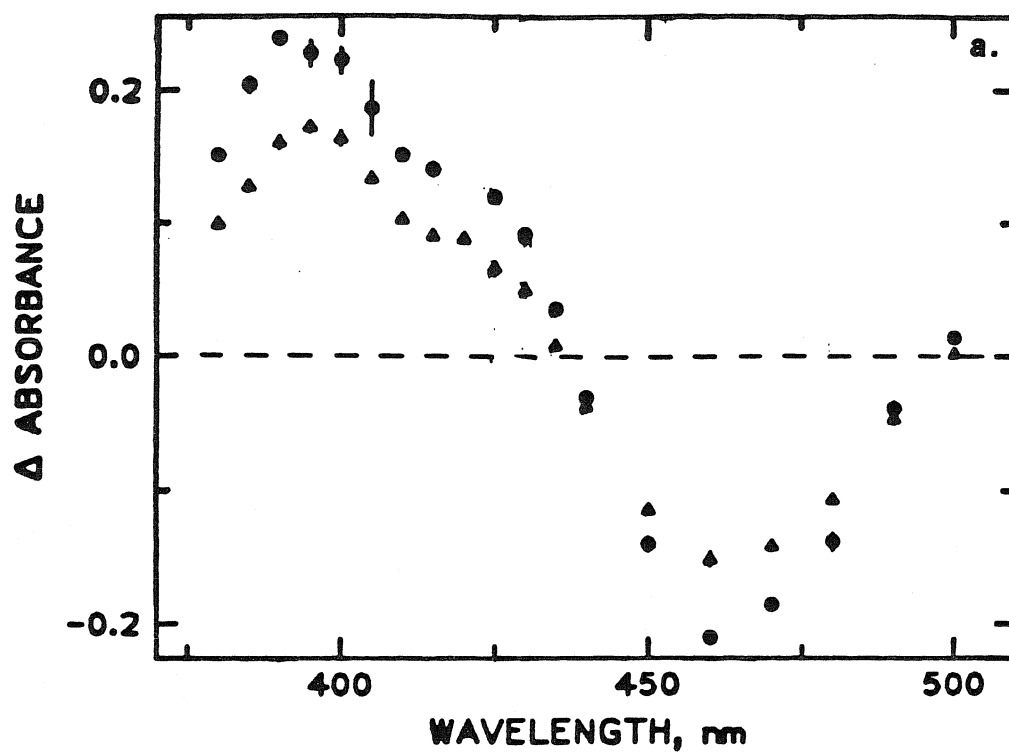


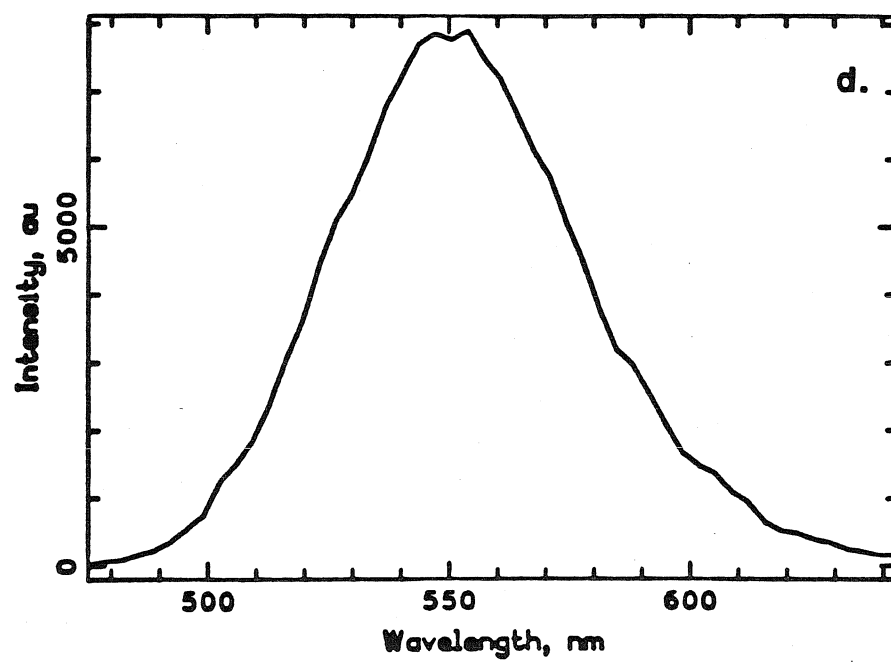
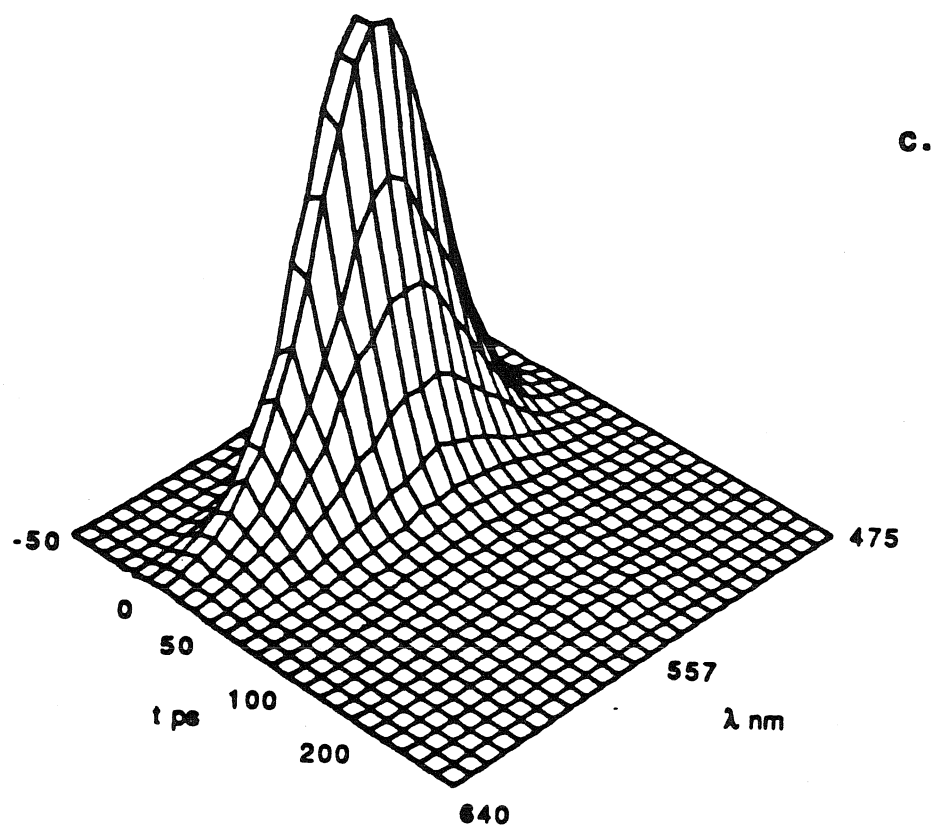
$\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Py}^+)_2$  and  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-4PhPy}^+)_2$ , the singlet lifetime ( $\tau_1=2$  ps) for this complex is much too short for its 390 nm absorption band to be assigned to a singlet excited state. Its phosphorescence lifetime was found to be 3.0 ns from transient emission measurements. Thus, the longer lived component in transient absorption spectra of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-4MePy}^+)_2$  can be assigned to its  $^3\text{B}$  excited state; the shorter lived component is logically assigned to a charge recombination process involving its CT excited state.

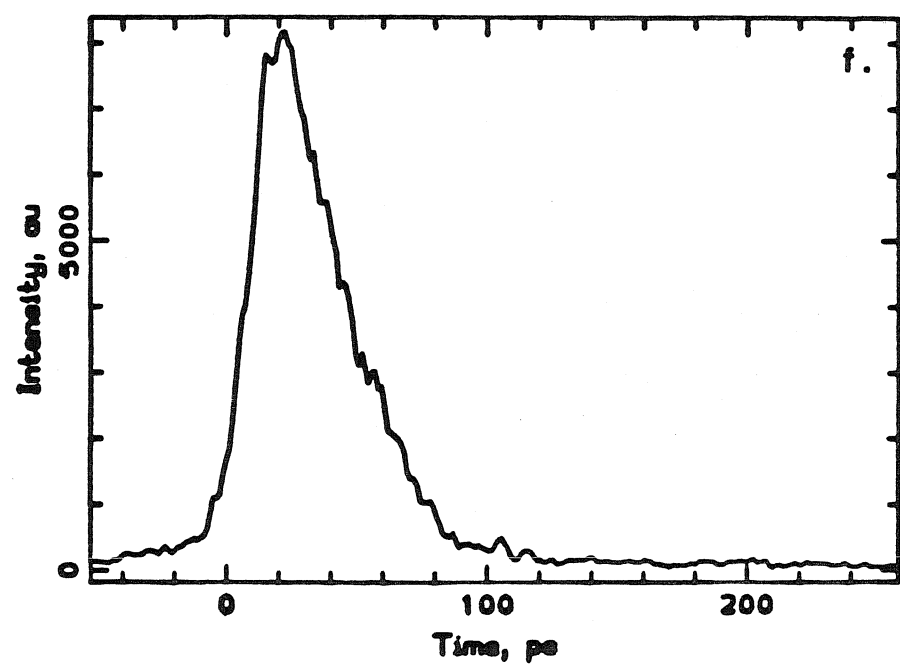
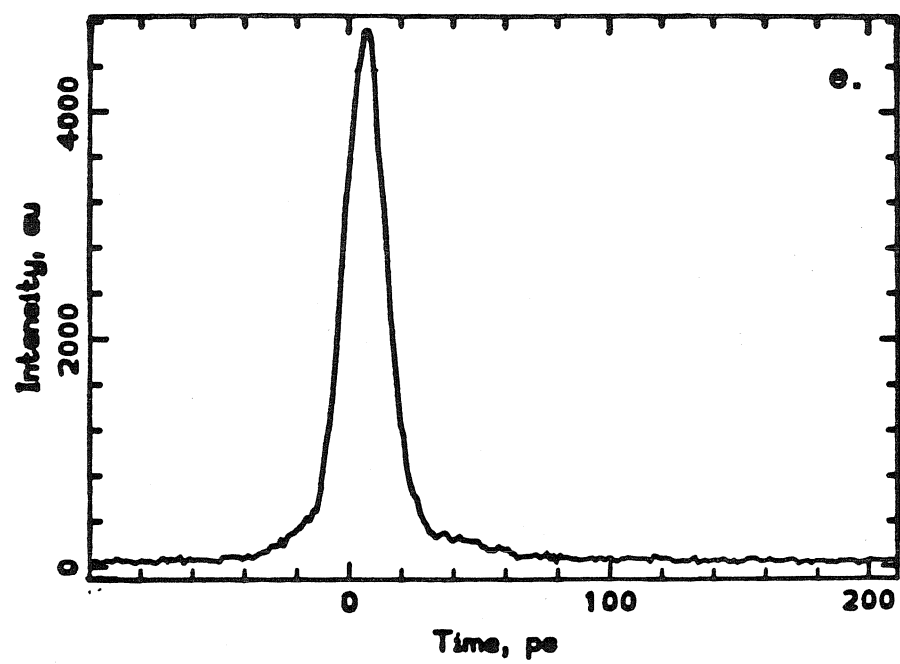
**$\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Me}_3\text{Py}^+)_2$ :** Figures 4.7 a through j summarize the kinetic and spectral data for  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Me}_3\text{Py}^+)_2$  in acetonitrile solutions after a 30 ps excitation pulse at 355 nm. Flash photolysis of this complex leads to a ground state bleach at 450 nm and the formation of a transient absorption feature at 390 nm, which is similar to the absorption bands seen in difference spectra of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Py}^+)_2$  and  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-4MePy}^+)_2$ . This transient is formed on a timescale equivalent to or less than the duration of the laser pulse and returns to baseline for delay times greater than 500 ns. On a picosecond timescale (figure 4.7b) kinetic data for this complex are adequately modeled using a biexponential intensity function, yielding time constants of 11 ns and 65 ps. The later time constant should be viewed as an upper limit, due to the relative intensities of the short and long lived absorption components. Kinetic data recorded on a nanosecond timescale (figure 4.7i) also fit well to a biexponential decay function with time constants of 14 ns and 144 ns. The former time constant is the same as the 11 ns lifetime found from analyzing the data in figure 4.7b. Thus, the 390 nm transient in this compound's difference spectrum represents three kinetically resolvable processes with time constants of approximately 65 ps, 12 ns, and 144 ns. As with  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Py}^+)_2$  and

**Figure 4.7.** Difference spectra and kinetics for  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-246Me}_3\text{Py}^+)_2$  in acetonitrile solutions. a) Difference spectra ( $\lambda_{\text{ex}}=355$  nm, 0:  $t=0.0$  ps,  $\Delta$ :  $t=5$  ns). b) Picosecond kinetics ( $\lambda_{\text{ex}}=355$  nm,  $\lambda_{\text{obs}}=400$  nm,  $\tau_{\text{fit1}}=65$  ps,  $\tau_{\text{fit2}}=11$  ns). c) and d) Streak camera data showing the temporal and spectral response of the compound's fluorescence after a 30ps (fwhm) laser pulse at 355 nm. e) Response function for our laser system determined by scattering laser pulses from neat acetonitrile. f) Time-resolved emission profile of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-246Me}_3\text{Py}^+)_2$ .







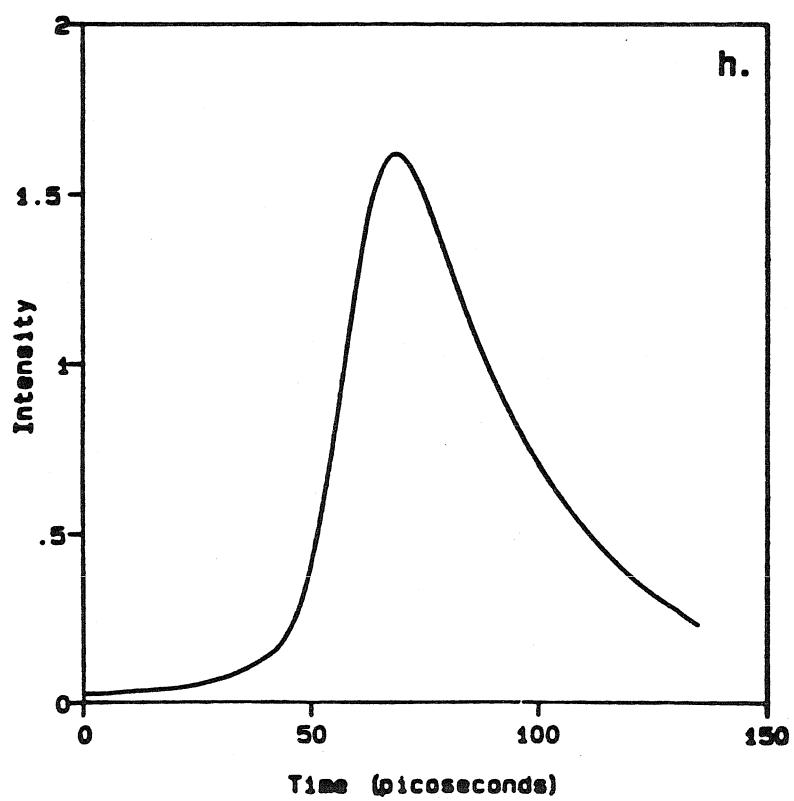
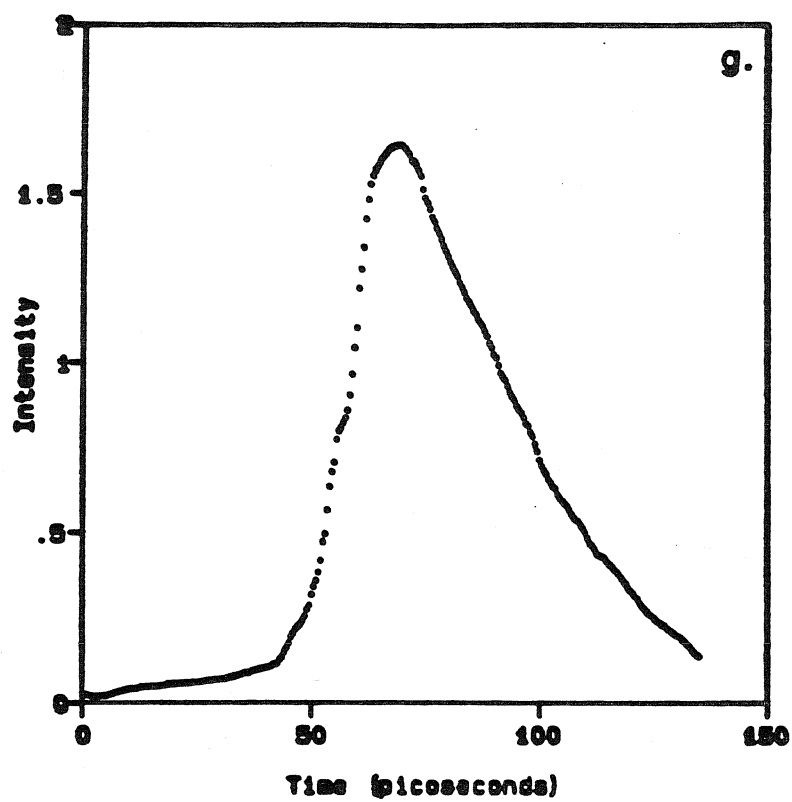


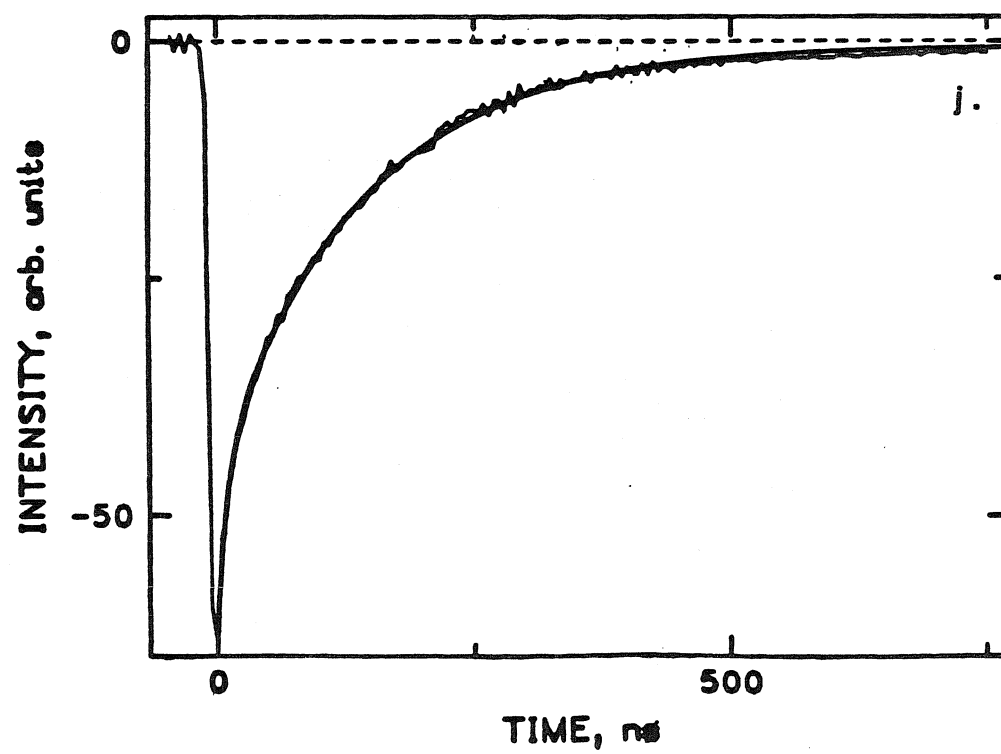
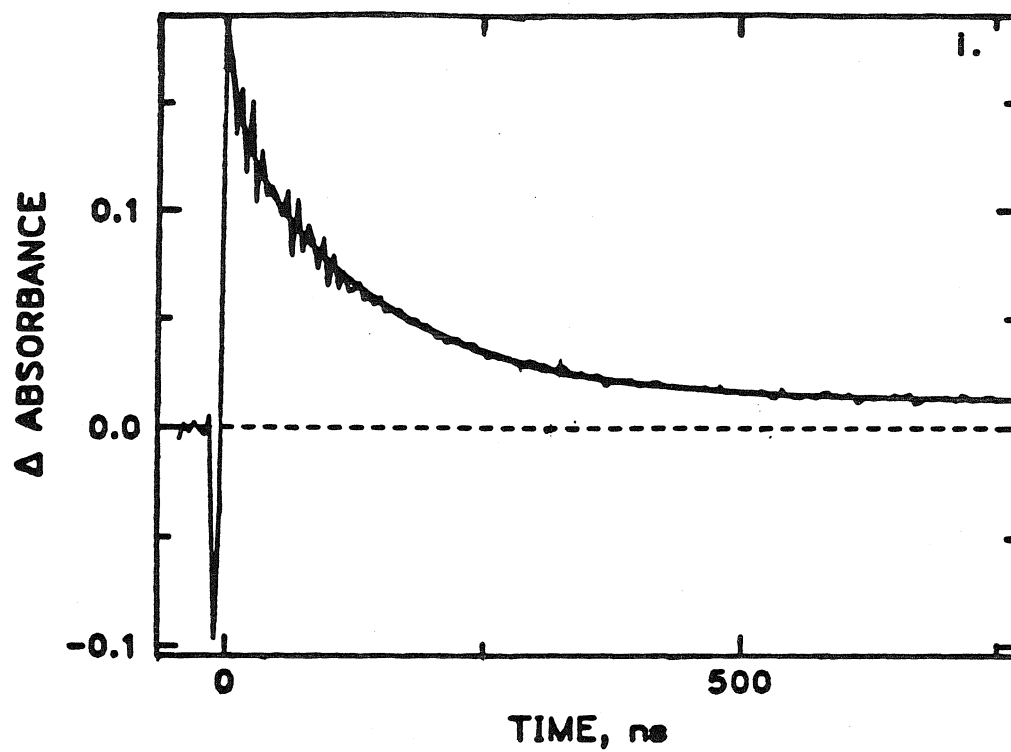
$\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-4MePy}^+)_2$  transient absorption features, which distinguish the  $^1\text{B}$ ,  $^3\text{B}$ , and CT excited states in this complex were not observed. Therefore, time-resolved emission studies were conducted to assign these time constants to specific excited state species.

In contrast to the donor-acceptor complexes discussed earlier,  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Me}_3\text{Py}^+)_2$  exhibited a fluorescence lifetime, which was long enough to be directly determined from picosecond time-resolved emission measurements. As seen in figures 4.7 c and d, the time-resolved fluorescence spectrum of this complex is identical to its steady-state emission spectrum; thus, its  $^1\text{B}$  excited state thermally equilibrates on a subpicosecond timescale. Figures 4.7e and f show the response function of our laser system, measured by scattering its 355 nm line from neat acetonitrile, and time-resolved emission data for  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Me}_3\text{Py}^+)_2$  ( $\lambda_{\text{ex}}=355$  nm ;  $\lambda_{\text{em}}=550$  nm). The emission profile in figure 4.7e is broadened with respect to the temporal width of our system response function, indicating that this compound's singlet excited state decays on a timescale commensurate with the duration of the laser pulse. A fluorescence lifetime of 25 ps was determined by fitting the experimental data to an emission intensity function, constructed from the convolution of our system response function with an exponentially decaying fluorescence intensity. The experimental and theoretical emission profiles are compared in figures 4.7g and h. This analysis indicates that the nominal 65 ps process found in the transient difference spectrum of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Me}_3\text{Py}^+)_2$  can be attributed to its  $^1\text{B}$  excited state.

As seen in figure 4.7 j,  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Me}_3\text{Py}^+)_2$  exhibits a biphasic phosphorescence profile ( $\lambda_{\text{em}}=750$  nm) with lifetimes of 140 ns and 10 ns. This type of nonexponential behavior indicates that the phosphorescence from this complex is tied to at least two individual molecular species or states. Because the emission

**Figure 4.7.** Difference spectra and kinetics for  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-246Me}_3\text{Py}^+)_2$  in acetonitrile solutions. g) and h) These two figures compare the experimental fluorescence data (g) with a theoretical curve (h) generated by convoluting the system response function with an exponential emission function;  $\tau_f=25$  ps. i) Kinetics measured at a longer delay time ( $\lambda_{\text{ex}}=355$  nm,  $\lambda_{\text{obs}}=400$  nm,  $\tau_{\text{fit1}}=14$  ns,  $\tau_{\text{fit2}}=144$  ns). j) Time-resolved emission profiles measured at longer delay times ( $\lambda_{\text{ex}}=355$  nm,  $\lambda_{\text{obs}}=700$  nm,  $\tau_{\text{fit1}}=10$  ns,  $\tau_{\text{fit2}}=139$  ns).



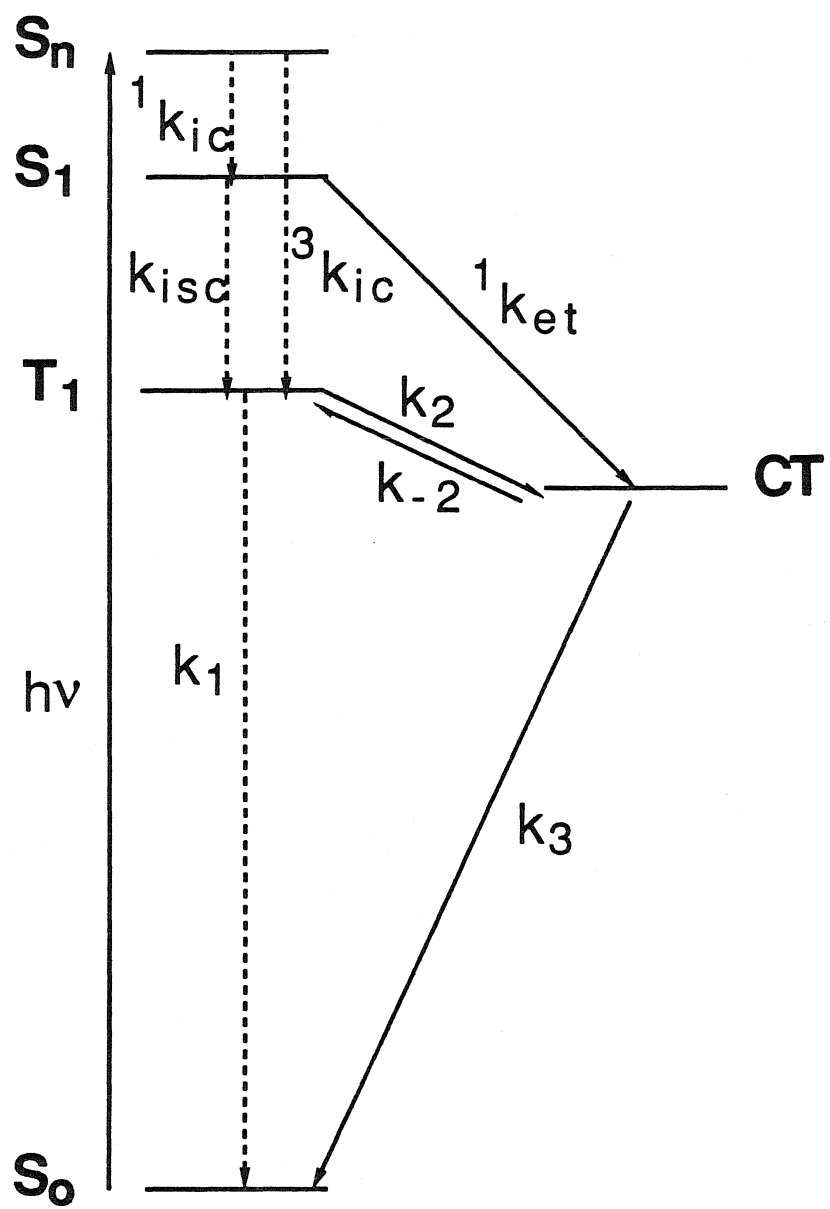


bandshapes and maxima for  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Me}_3\text{Py}^+)_2$  are identical to those of the model compounds, its biexponential phosphorescence profiles cannot be attributed to two electronically distinct triplet states. One plausible explanation for this behavior is that two non-interconverting populations of this donor-acceptor molecule with substantially different triplet electron-transfer rates exist in fluid solution. The differences in  $k_{\text{ET}}$  for these two isomers could result from significant differences in their donor-acceptor separations and orientations. Leland and coworkers have recently observed nonexponential emission behavior in a porphyrin-quinone ET system in low temperature matrices.<sup>7</sup> At 77° K the solvent matrix restricts rotations about the system's three-fold axis and leads to the resolution of kinetically distinct ET processes. Lindsey<sup>8</sup> and Bolton<sup>9</sup> have observed multiexponential fluorescence decays in porphyrin-quinone systems at room temperature in fluid solutions. In both studies, multiple solution conformers were invoked to explain this behavior and were identified in the electronic and NMR spectra of the compounds. While a similar interpretation for  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Me}_3\text{Py}^+)_2$  in room temperature acetonitrile solutions is conceptually attractive, it is at odds with the known conformational variability of the redox ligands in this complex. Recall from chapter 2 of this thesis that intramolecular rotations about the Ir-P and linker group single bonds make a distribution of donor-acceptor separations and orientations available to the iridium dimer compounds in fluid solution. Further, based on the structural similarities between  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Me}_3\text{Py}^+)_2$  and  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-4MePy}^+)_2$ , it is difficult to rationalize profound differences in the distribution of solution conformations available to their redox ligands. Yet as seen earlier, the time resolved emission data for the former compound were readily modeled by a single exponential intensity function. These considerations indicate that a model involving two non-interconverting donor-acceptor complexes is not reasonable for explaining the biphasic emission behavior associated with this complex.



A more plausible model, which accounts for the nonexponential emission decays found in  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Me}_3\text{Py}^+)_2$ , involves the equilibration of this compound's  $^3\text{B}$  and CT states on a timescale commensurate with their excited state lifetimes (figure 4.8). This kinetic scheme is based on an analogous model for the biphasic emission decays found in exciplex donor-acceptor systems and is in line with the approximate 80 mv separation between the  $^3\text{B}$  and CT states in this complex reported in chapter 3.<sup>10</sup> Because of this added complication, rates for triplet state electron transfer and charge recombination must be extracted from a detailed analysis of the time resolved emission data in figure 4.7j. To simplify a derivation for the time dependent concentrations of the  $^3\text{B}$  and CT excited states in  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Me}_3\text{Py}^+)_2$ , we make several fundamental assumptions. The first of these is that electron transfer does not take place from any of the higher-lying excited states in the donor-acceptor complexes. This assumption is necessary because the time-resolved emission data for this complex were recorded using 355 nm excitation pulses which populate the compound's higher-lying ( $d\pi p\sigma$ ) states. It will greatly simplify expressions for the yield of formation of triplet and CT state from these higher lying electronic levels, which will play an important role in interpreting the results of our kinetic analysis. This premise is reasonable because a lower limit for  $k_{ic}$  in these complexes is  $10^{13} \text{ sec}^{-1}$  and their activationless ET rate is approximately two orders of magnitude slower (vide infra).<sup>11</sup> Further, order of magnitude estimates for the reaction driving force from these ( $d\pi p\sigma$ ) states indicate that  $k_{et}$  for these reactions would be well below this activationless limit.<sup>12</sup> A second assumption underlying our kinetic model is that the  $^3\text{B}$  and CT states are populated on a timescale that is shorter than their excited state lifetimes. This assumption is valid based on the rapid rates of internal conversion and  $^1\text{B}$  electron transfer in this complex. With these assumptions in place, the kinetic scheme in figure 4.8 indicates that the rate of disappearance of the  $^3\text{B}$  and CT states in

**Figure 4.8.** A kinetic scheme for  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-246Me}_3\text{Py}^+)_2$  that includes back electron transfer from the CT to triplet state ( $\text{T}_1$ ). Similar models have been used to describe biphasic emission profiles in exciplex donor-acceptor systems ( $\text{S}_1$ =lowest energy singlet state,  $\text{T}_1$ =lowest energy triplet state, CT=charge transfer state,  $\text{S}_n$ =higher energy singlet state being pumped by the laser pulse).



this complex can be written in differential form as seen in equations 4.1 and 4.2.

$$\frac{-d[T_1]}{dt} = (k_1 + k_2)[T_1] - k_{-2}[CT] \quad \text{eq. 4.1}$$

$$\frac{-d[CT]}{dt} = (k_3 + k_{-2})[CT] - k_2[T_1] \quad \text{eq. 4.2}$$

Here  $k_1$  represents the sum of radiative and nonradiative rates for the triplet state in a model compound. Equations 4.1 and 4.2 are a system of homogeneous first order differential equations with constant coefficients and can be solved using standard techniques.<sup>13</sup> Substituting the general exponential functions in 4.3 and 4.4 for the concentration terms in 4.1 and 4.2 leads to a matrix equation relating the fundamental rate constants and emission lifetimes (equation 4.5);

$$[T_1] = T_1^0 \exp(-\lambda t) \quad \text{eq. 4.3}$$

$$[CT] = CT^0 \exp(-\lambda t) \quad \text{eq. 4.4}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} k_A - \lambda & -k_{-2} \\ -k_2 & k_B - \lambda \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} T_1^0 \\ CT^0 \end{pmatrix} = 0 \quad \text{eq. 4.5}$$

where  $k_A = k_1 + k_2$  and  $k_B = k_3 + k_{-2}$ . Solving equation 4.5 by requiring that its determinant equal zero produces a Characteristic Equation whose roots are

$$\lambda_{1,2} = \frac{(k_A + k_B) \pm \sqrt{(k_A - k_B)^2 + 4k_2k_{-2}}}{2} \quad \text{eq. 4.6.}$$

It is interesting to note that as  $k_{-2} \rightarrow 0$ ,  $\lambda_1 \rightarrow k_1 + k_2$  and the triplet emission profile becomes monophasic. Thus, the eigenvalues in equation 4.6 tend to their proper limits as the energy gap between  $T_1$  and CT increases. Eigenvectors for  $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$  can be found by substituting each of these eigenvalues into equation 4.5 and solving for  $T_1^0$  in terms of  $CT^0$ . This procedure yields general equations for the time dependent concentrations of  $T_1$  and CT (4.7 and 4.8).

$$[T_1] = k_{-2} \left\{ \frac{C_1}{k_A - \lambda_1} \exp(-\lambda_1 t) + \frac{C_2}{k_A - \lambda_2} \exp(-\lambda_2 t) \right\} \quad \text{eq. 4.7}$$

$$[CT] = C_1 \exp(-\lambda_1 t) + C_2 \exp(-\lambda_2 t) \quad \text{eq. 4.8}$$

The coefficients  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  are determined by the boundary conditions found in equations 4.9 and 4.10.

$$[T_1]_{t=0} = t_0 \quad \text{eq. 4.9}$$

$$[CT]_{t=0} = p_0 \quad \text{eq. 4.10}$$

In contrast to exciplex systems where  $[CT]_{t=0}=0$ , in our particular case the  $t=0$  populations of the triplet and CT states are not readily determined.<sup>10</sup> This situation arises because these states are populated from higher-lying levels rather than by direct excitation and because they cannot be spectroscopically differentiated in transient absorption data. We will deal with this problem later using order of magnitude arguments regarding the yields of formation of  $T_1$  and CT from upper excited states. Applying these general boundary conditions and solving for  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  leads to equations 4.11 and 4.12.

$$C_1 = \frac{p_o k_{-2} - t_o (k_A - \lambda_2)}{k_{-2} (\lambda_2 - \lambda_1)} (k_A - \lambda_1) \quad \text{eq. 4.11}$$

$$C_2 = \frac{t_o (k_A - \lambda_1) - p_o k_{-2}}{k_{-2} (\lambda_2 - \lambda_1)} (k_A - \lambda_2) \quad \text{eq. 4.12}$$

These relationships can be further simplified by requiring that the total number of excited molecules at  $t=0$  ( $I_o$ ) be equal to the sum of the  $t=0$  triplet and CT state populations.

$$\begin{aligned} t_o + p_o &= I_o \\ \phi_1 &= \frac{t_o}{I_o} \\ \phi_2 &= \frac{p_o}{I_o} \\ \phi_1 + \phi_2 &= 1 \end{aligned} \quad \text{eq. 4.13}$$

Replacing  $t_o$  and  $p_o$  in 4.11 and 4.12 by their corresponding fractional populations,  $\phi_1$  and  $1-\phi_1$ , leads to 4.14 and 4.15.

$$C_1^* = \frac{(1-\phi_1)k_{-2} - \phi_1(k_A - \lambda_2)}{(\lambda_2 - \lambda_1)k_{-2}} (k_A - \lambda_1) I_o \quad \text{eq. 4.14}$$

$$C_2^* = \frac{\phi_1(k_A - \lambda_1) - (1-\phi_1)k_{-2}}{(\lambda_2 - \lambda_1)k_{-2}} (k_A - \lambda_2) I_o \quad \text{eq. 4.15}$$

Thus, the time dependent concentration of  $T_1$  is,

$$[T_1] = I_0 \left\{ \left[ \frac{(1 - \phi_1)k_{-2} - \phi_1(k_A - \lambda_2)}{\lambda_2 - \lambda_1} \right] \exp(-\lambda_1 t) + \left[ \frac{\phi_1(k_A - \lambda_1) - k_{-2}(1 - \phi_1)}{\lambda_2 - \lambda_1} \right] \exp(-\lambda_2 t) \right\}$$

Values for  $k_2$ ,  $k_{-2}$ ,  $k_3$ , and  $\phi_1$  can be determined from the two time constants ( $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$ ), the integrated intensities of the two emission components, and the equilibrium constant  $k_{-2}/k_2$  using equations 4.16 through 4.19.

$$\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 = k_A + k_B \quad \text{eq. 4.16}$$

$$\lambda_1 \lambda_2 = k_A k_B - k_2 k_{-2} \quad \text{eq. 4.17}$$

$$\frac{k_{-2}}{k_2} = \exp(-\Delta E) = 0.04384 \quad \text{eq. 4.18}$$

$$\frac{I_1}{I_2} = \frac{(1 - \phi_1)k_{-2} - \phi_1(k_A - \lambda_2)}{\phi_1(k_A - \lambda_1) - k_{-2}(1 - \phi_1)} \quad \text{eq. 4.19}$$

Solving equations 4.16, 4.17, and 4.18 leads to an equation, which is quadratic in  $k_2$ ; its solution yields two positive roots,  $k_2^a = 6.5 \times 10^7 \text{ sec}^{-1}$  and  $k_2^b = 7.0 \times 10^6 \text{ sec}^{-1}$ .

Sequential substitution of these values into equations 4.16, 4.17, 4.18, and 4.19 produces values for  $k_{-2}$ ,  $k_3$ , and  $\phi_1$ .  $\phi_2$  can be determined from equation 4.13.

Numerical values for these fundamental kinetic parameters from each of the roots in  $k_2$  are summarized in table 4.2.

**Table 4.2:** Kinetic Parameters for the 2,4,6-Me<sub>3</sub>Py Complex.

Root	$k_2$ sec <sup>-1</sup>	$k_{-2}$ sec <sup>-1</sup>	$k_3$ sec <sup>-1</sup>	$\phi_1$	$\phi_2$
a	$6.5 \times 10^7$	$2.8 \times 10^6$	$3.9 \times 10^6$	0.046	0.95
b	$7.0 \times 10^6$	$3.1 \times 10^5$	$6.4 \times 10^7$	0.67	0.33



Two sets of rate constants, describing different kinetic scenarios, arise from this analysis because the boundary conditions in equations 4.9 and 4.10 are not uniquely determined. For  $k_2=k_2^a$ ,  $k_2>k_3$  and the initial populations of the triplet and CT states are close to their equilibrium values. This situation can be contrasted with a second case where  $k_2<k_3$  and the initial populations of  $T_1$  and CT lie in favor of the triplet state. Because these two cases are readily differentiated by their substantially different values of  $\phi_1$  and  $\phi_2$ , additional information regarding the relative yields of formation of  $T_1$  and CT will identify the correct set of rate constants for the  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Me}_3\text{Py}^+)_2$  system.

Recall that the luminescence data for  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Me}_3\text{Py}^+)_2$  were obtained by exciting this complex at 355 nm. Electronic transitions at this wavelength populate one of its higher-lying  $^1(d\pi p\sigma)$  excited states. According to the Jablonski diagram in figure 4.8 and our initial assumptions, this state rapidly relaxes to form a distribution of  $^1B$  and  $^3B$  excited states. The singlet states in this initial distribution are subsequently converted to triplet and CT states via intersystem crossing and electron transfer, respectively. Thus, a knowledge of the  $^1(d\pi p\sigma)$  to  $^1B$  and  $^3B$  internal conversion and intersystem crossing efficiencies, and the  $^1B$  to  $^3B$  intersystem crossing efficiency in this complex is required to fully characterize the initial yields of its triplet and CT states. Information regarding the former two quantities can be obtained by analyzing the excitation spectra of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$  (figure 4.9) using equations 4.20 and 4.21.

$$\frac{I_{355}}{I_{460}} = \frac{\epsilon_{355}}{\epsilon_{460}} \phi_{ic}^{\text{singlet}} \quad \text{eq. 4.20.}$$

$$\frac{I_{355}}{I_{460}} = \frac{\epsilon_{355}}{\epsilon_{460}} \left[ \phi_{ic}^{\text{singlet}} + \phi_{ic}^{\text{triplet}} \right] \quad \text{eq. 4.21.}$$

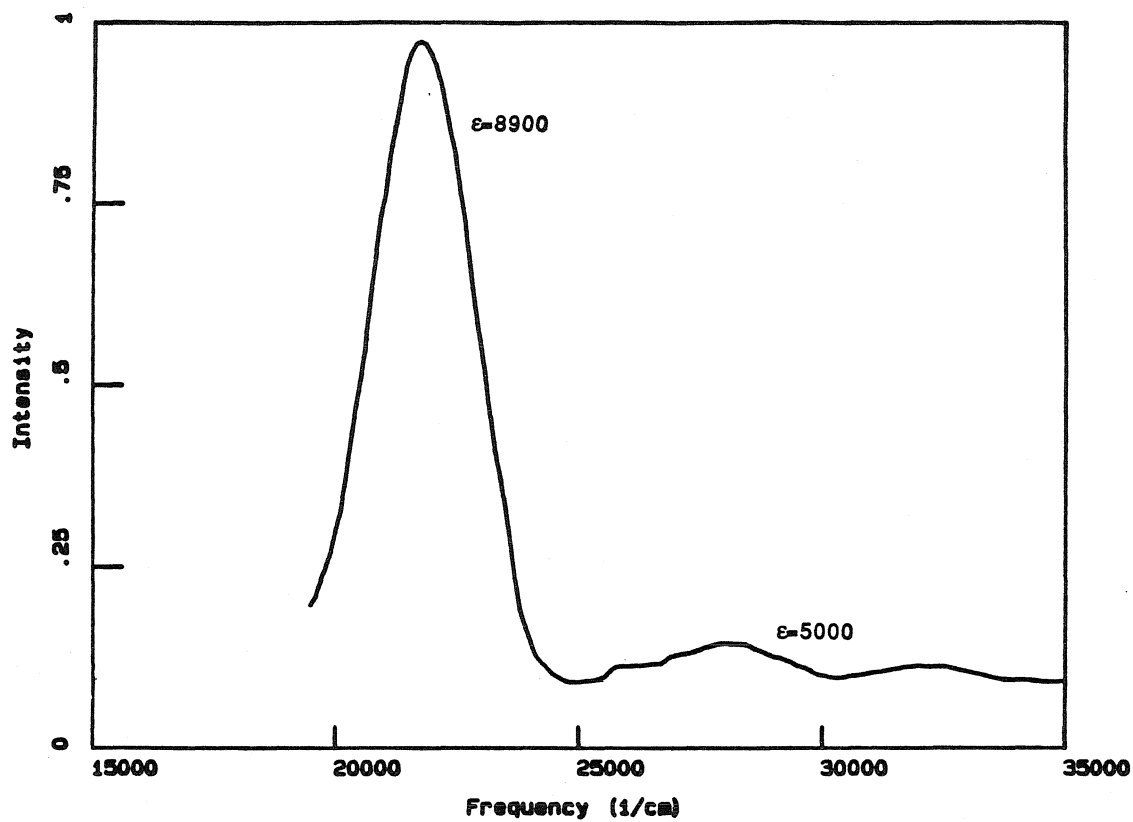
From these relationships, if the conversion efficiencies between the  $^1(d\pi p\sigma)$  and  $^1,^3(d\sigma^*p\sigma)$  excited states in  $d^8$ - $d^8$  A-frame complexes are close to unity, then the ratio of the excitation band intensities for these states should be equal to the ratio of their extinction coefficients. As seen in figure 4.9a, in triplet excitation spectra of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$   $I_{355}/I_{460}$  is equal to the ratio of extinction coefficients at these wavelengths. This implies that  $\phi_{\text{ic}}^{\text{singlet}} + \phi_{\text{isc}}^{\text{triplet}} = 1$ . In contrast  $I_{355}/I_{460}$  in its singlet excitation spectrum is much less than  $\epsilon_{355}/\epsilon_{460}$  (figure 4.9b); thus,  $\phi_{\text{ic}}^{\text{singlet}} = 0.15$  and  $\phi_{\text{isc}}^{\text{triplet}} = 0.85$ . These results indicate that  $^1(d\pi p\sigma)$  to  $^3B$  intersystem crossing in  $d^8$ - $d^8$  A-frame complexes is more efficient than internal conversion to their lowest-lying singlet states. Similar results have been reported for  $\text{Rh}_2(\text{Bridge})_4^{2+}$  and ascribed to the substantial spin-orbit coupling associated with this chromophore's metal centers.<sup>11</sup> An analogous effect must also play a role in the relaxation of the upper excited states in iridium A-frame compounds. The  $^1B$  to  $^3B$  intersystem crossing efficiency in  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Me}_3\text{Py}^+)_2$  can be estimated from equation 4.22;

$$\frac{\tau}{\tau^0} \phi_{\text{isc}}^0 = \phi_{\text{isc}} \quad \text{eq. 4.22}$$

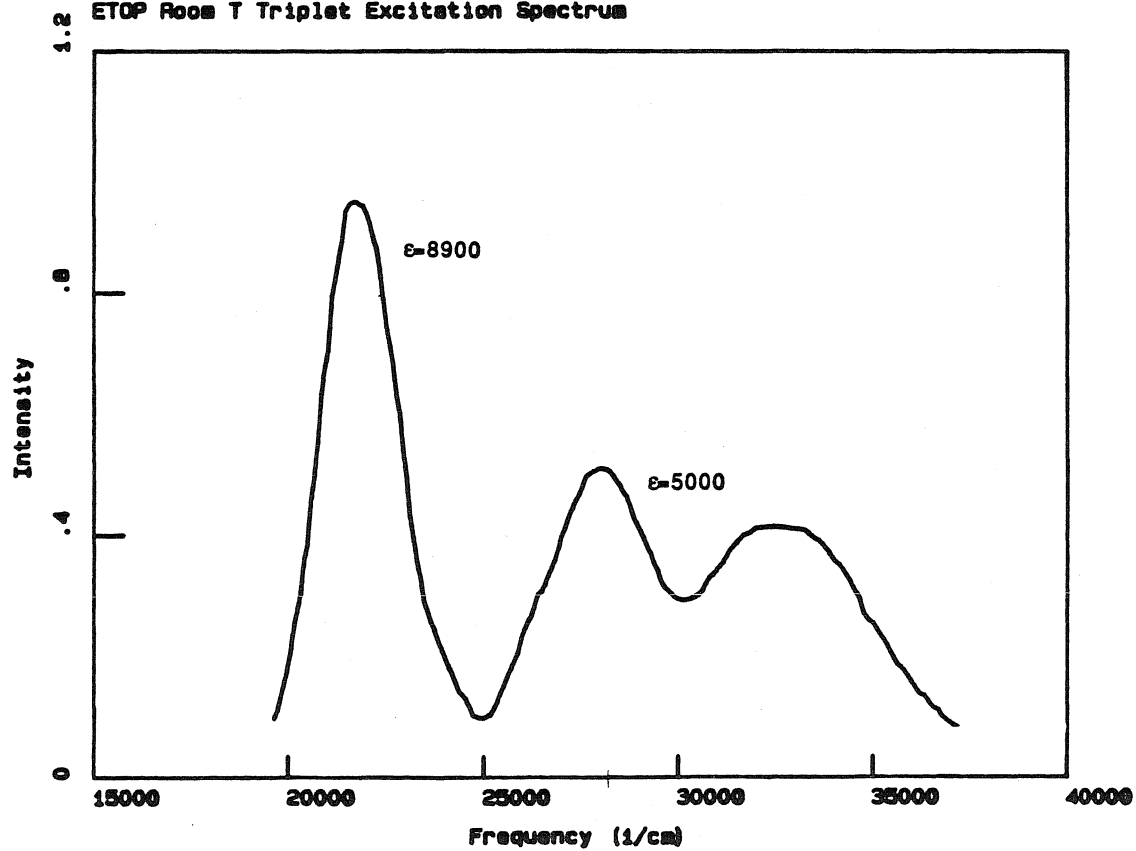
where  $\tau^0$  and  $\tau$  are the fluorescence lifetimes of a model complex and  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Me}_3\text{Py}^+)_2$ , respectively. Here, we assume that  $k_{\text{isc}}$  is the same for the donor-acceptor and model compounds; a reasonable premise because  $k_{\text{isc}}$  is a quantity associated with the iridium dimer chromophore. For iridium  $d^8$ - $d^8$  complexes  $\phi_{\text{isc}}^0$  is close to unity.<sup>3b,e</sup> Thus,  $\phi_{\text{isc}}$  is approximately 0.25 in  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Me}_3\text{Py}^+)_2$ . Using these values for the internal

**Figure 4.9.** Electronic excitation spectra of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$  in 2-methyltetrahydrofuran. a) Room temperature triplet spectrum. b) Room temperature singlet spectrum.

ETOP Room T Singlet Excitation Spectrum



ETOP Room T Triplet Excitation Spectrum



conversion and intersystem crossing efficiencies, the yields of formation of the  $^3\text{B}$  and CT excited states are found to be  $\eta_{\text{triplet}}=0.88$  and  $\eta_{\text{CT}}=0.12$ . The ratio of these two quantities ( $\eta_{\text{CT}}/\eta_{\text{triplet}}=0.14$ ) compares most favorably with  $\phi_2^b/\phi_1^b=0.49$  calculated from the kinetic data in table 4.2. These results indicate that  $k_2^b$ ,  $k_{-2}^b$ , and  $k_3^b$  are the correct electron-transfer rate constants for this complex and that at  $t=0$  the populations of its triplet and charge-transfer states lie in favor of the  $^3\text{B}$  state; a situation that is primarily due to efficient intersystem between its  $^1(d\pi p\sigma)$  and  $^3\text{B}$  excited states.

### Discussion

**Driving Force Dependence:** Previous experimental<sup>14</sup> and theoretical<sup>15</sup> studies have established reaction exoergicity as a fundamental kinetic parameter in electron-transfer reactions. Together with the inner-sphere and outer-sphere reorganization energies, reaction driving force determines the thermal barriers to electron transfer. In the classical theory for outer-sphere electron transfer, first developed by Marcus,<sup>16</sup> the reaction rate and activation free energy are described by equations 4.23 to 4.28,

$$k_{et} = \kappa A \sigma^2 \exp\left[-\frac{\Delta G^\ddagger}{RT}\right] \quad \text{eq. 4.23}$$

$$\Delta G^\ddagger = \frac{(\lambda + \Delta G^\circ)^2}{4\lambda} \quad \text{eq. 4.24}$$

$$\Delta G^\ddagger = \Delta G^\circ + w^r + w^p \quad \text{eq. 4.25}$$

$$\lambda = \lambda_i + \lambda_o \quad \text{eq. 4.26}$$

$$\lambda_i = \sum_j \frac{f_j^r f_j^p}{f_j^r + f_j^p} (\Delta q_j)^2 \quad \text{eq. 4.27}$$

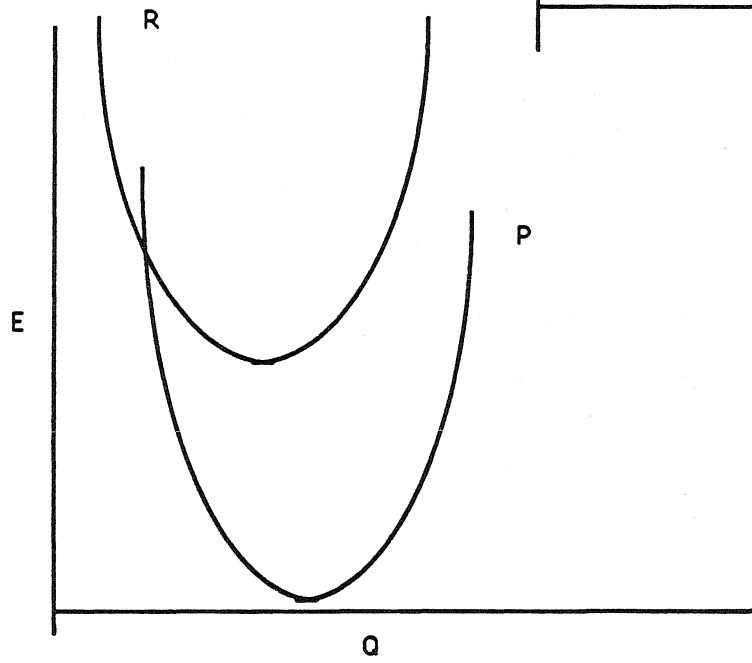
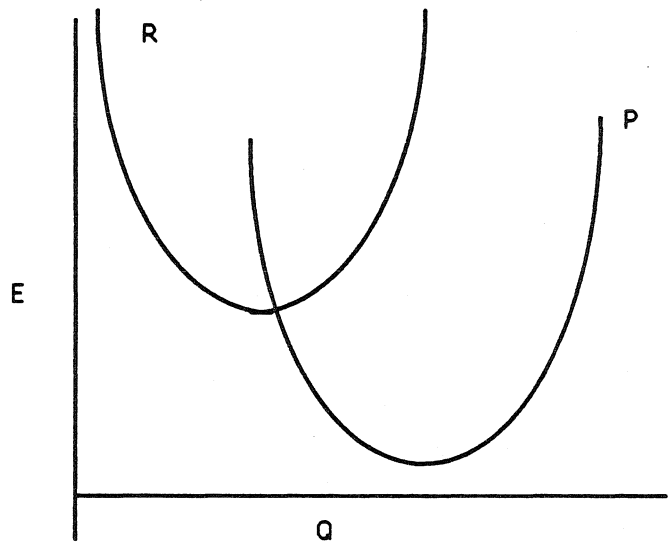
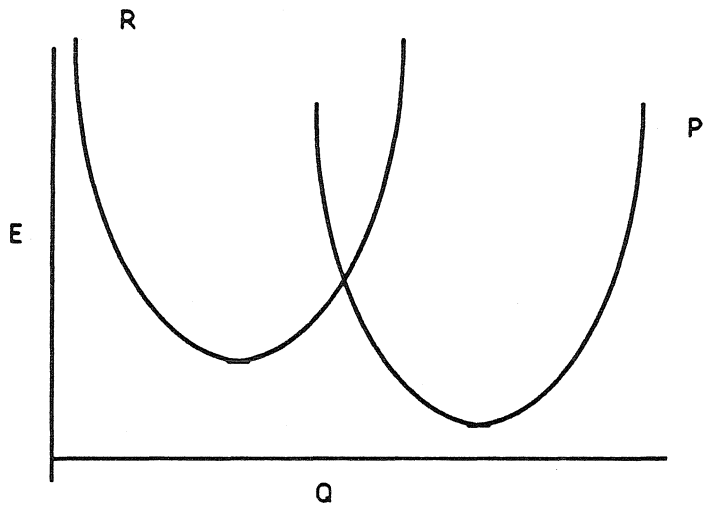
$$\lambda_o = (\Delta e)^2 \left[ \frac{1}{2a_1} + \frac{1}{2a_2} - \frac{1}{r} \right] \left[ \frac{1}{n^2} - \frac{1}{\epsilon} \right] \quad \text{eq. 4.28}$$

where  $A\sigma^2$  is an effective solution collision frequency, discussed in detail elsewhere.  $\sigma$  is the average center-to-center distance between the two redox partners in an encounter complex and  $\kappa$  is the electronic transmission coefficient. The latter quantity represents

the probability that charge transfer will take place once the reactants have reached the transition state. In the Landau-Zener formalism  $\kappa$  is related to the electronic interaction between the reactants and their rate of passage through the transition state region.<sup>15a,c</sup> When  $\kappa=1$ , charge transfer takes place with unit efficiency and the reaction is termed adiabatic. A  $\kappa<1$  is associated with a less efficient nonadiabatic charge transfer process. The intrinsic thermal barrier ( $\lambda$ ) is composed of two reorganization components. The inner-sphere component ( $\lambda_i$ ) describes the energy required to adjust the molecular bond lengths and angles in the two redox partners to their transition state configurations, while  $\lambda_o$  refers to the energy needed to reorient solvent molecules in the surrounding medium. Both are treated classically in the Marcus model as seen in equations 4.26 and 4.27, where  $f_j^r$  and  $f_j^p$  are the normal mode force constants for the  $j$ th vibration in the reactants and products, respectively,  $\Delta q_j$  is the change in the  $j$ th normal coordinate,  $a_1$  and  $a_2$  are the hard-sphere radii of the two reactants, and  $r$  is their center-to-center separation.  $w^r$  and  $w^p$  are the free energies required to bring the reactants and products from  $r=\infty$  to  $r=\sigma$ . According to equation 4.24 the free energy of activation should vary quadratically as a function of the reaction driving force. When the driving force is small compared to the reorganization energy (i.e., the normal region), the reaction rate should increase as a function of  $\Delta G^0$  and maximize at  $\Delta G^0=\lambda$ ; for  $\Delta G^0>\lambda$  the reaction rate decreases as a function of driving force into what has been termed "the inverted region." Fundamentally, this model asserts that the total activation free energy for electron transfer is a function of the free energy change of the reaction and the energy required to rearrange the reactant normal coordinates into their transition state configurations. In the normal region the system must extract energy from its surroundings to reach the transition state. As  $\Delta G^0$  increases, the thermal barrier to electron transfer decreases until at  $-\Delta G^0=\lambda$  the reaction proceeds at its quantum mechanical rate (effectively  $k=A\sigma^2\kappa$ ). In the inverted region the system must

**Figure 4.10.** Schematic potential energy surfaces illustrating the origin of the normal and invert driving force regions in the Marcus model for electron transfer. Increasing the reaction driving force decreases the energy of the crossing point between the reactant and product surfaces along the reaction coordinate until at  $\Delta G^{\circ} = -\lambda$  there is no thermal barrier to electron transfer. As the reaction driving force increases further, the reactant and product surfaces cross at larger energies and the rate of electron transfer decreases into the inverted region.





release excess energy into its surroundings to relax from a transition state configuration to one associated with the products and a thermal barrier once again controls the rate of electron transfer. These concepts are pictorially illustrated in figure 4.10. Experimental evidence, collected over the past two decades, has indicated that the Marcus model embodies most of the fundamental principles required to describe adiabatic electron-transfer reactions.<sup>15a</sup> In particular, the Marcus equations in conjunction with the Marcus Cross Relation have proven to be powerful relationships for predicting electron-transfer rates in a normal driving force regime. Several models, based on quantum mechanical and semiclassical descriptions,<sup>16</sup> have appeared for interpreting ET kinetics at low temperature and in the inverted region; however, these relationships reduce to the classical Marcus equations on going to a high temperature limit.

While the driving force dependence of electron transfer in the normal region is for the most part well understood, reactions in the inverted region have remained largely unexplored. This situation has arisen primarily because until recently, evidence for inverted behavior had not been observed. Failure to observe inverted behavior at high reaction driving forces has been attributed to a number of experimental difficulties including rate limiting effects due to bimolecular diffusion<sup>17</sup> and the formation of electronically excited products at driving forces associated with the inverted region.<sup>18</sup> In addition, theoretical studies have indicated that the driving force dependence found in the inverted region is more gradual than predicted by the Marcus equations due to nuclear tunneling effects. As seen in equation 4.29, developed by Jortner and coworkers,<sup>16a,b</sup> for  $h\nu \gg kT$  the rate of electron transfer at high driving force will be enhanced in comparison to the rate predicted by classical theories due to the formation of vibrationally excited normal modes in the products. This leads to less pronounced variations in  $k_{ET}$  as a function  $\Delta G^0$  in the inverted region.

$$k_{et} = \left( \frac{\pi}{h^2 \lambda_s k_b T} \right)^{1/2} |V|^2 \sum_{w=0}^{\infty} (e^{-S} S^w / w!) \exp \left\{ \frac{(\lambda_s + \Delta G + w h \nu)^2}{4 \lambda_s k_b T} \right\} \quad \text{eq. 4.29}$$

$$S = \frac{\lambda_v}{h \nu} \quad \text{eq. 4.30}$$

More recently, Mataga and coworkers<sup>19</sup> have proposed that the lack of inverted behavior seen in photoinduced charge separation reactions can be attributed to differences in the librational frequencies of solvent molecules surrounding the neutral (charged) reactants and charged (neutral) products. This model challenges the dielectric continuum model for solvent reorganization by suggesting that partial dielectric saturation around charged redox partners is responsible for mitigating inverted behavior. Considering the mechanistic complexity of electron-transfer processes, it is not likely that any single factor controls the driving force behavior of highly exothermic reactions. A greater understanding of the roles played by nuclear tunneling, solvent motion, and electronic excited states in determining the rates of electron-transfer reactions in the inverted region will develop as additional examples of inverted behavior are discovered.

In a previous bimolecular study we examined the driving force dependence of triplet electron transfer in  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz})_2(\text{COD})_2]$  for  $\Delta G^{\circ'} = 0.13$  to 1.1 eV.<sup>14a</sup> Plots of  $RT \ln(k_{et})$  versus  $\Delta G^{\circ'}$  showed a driving force dependent region, where  $\ln(k_{et})$  increased as a function of  $\Delta G^{\circ'}$ , and a plateau region where no further driving force dependence was observed. We, like others, have speculated that our failure to observe inverted behavior in this study is tied to the limitations placed on rapid bimolecular electron transfer reactions by diffusion. Our current intramolecular electron-transfer systems have allowed use to measure electron-transfer rates, which are well above the diffusion limit and at driving forces in excess of 1.0 eV.

Table 4.3 summarizes the photophysical data for the donor-acceptor complexes and model compounds obtained from the time-resolved spectroscopic experiments discussed in this chapter and from measurements reported in chapter 3. With the exception of the fluorescence lifetimes of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-4MePy}^+)_2$ ,  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Py}^+)_2$ , and  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-4PhPy}^+)_2$ , all of the excited state lifetimes reported here were determined using time-resolved spectroscopic techniques. The three former parameters were calculated from the fluorescence quantum yields of the complexes, and the fluorescence quantum yield and lifetime of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_3)_2$  using equation 4.31.

$$\frac{\Phi}{\Phi^\circ} \tau^\circ = \tau \quad \text{eq. 4.31.}$$

While this procedure is expected to introduce a larger degree of uncertainty in these quantities, similar calculations involving  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Me}_3\text{Py}^+)_2$  indicated that reasonable values of  $\tau_f$  can be obtained using this approach;  $\tau_f^{\text{calc}}$  for  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Me}_3\text{Py}^+)_2$  is 7.5 ps as compared with its measured 25 ps fluorescence lifetime. These lifetimes carry an accuracy of  $\pm 30\%$  based on the uncertainties in their corresponding fluorescence quantum yields. Values of  $\phi_{\text{isc}}$  for the donor-acceptor complexes were estimated from equation 4.22, assuming that intersystem crossing in the model complexes occurs with near unit efficiency.<sup>3b,e</sup> The fluorescence lifetime and intersystem crossing efficiency for  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-4PhPy}^+)_2$  are reported as upper limits due to its negligible emission quantum yields. Electron-transfer rate constants and electrochemical driving forces for the complexes are given in table 4.4. Rate constants

**Table 4.3:** Photophysical Parameters for the Iridium Dimer Complexes.<sup>a</sup>

Complex	$\Phi_f$	$\Phi_p$	$\tau_f$ ps	$\tau_p^g$ $\mu$ s	$\Phi_{isc}$
$Ir_2(Pz^*)_2(CO)_2L_2$					
$Ph_2OCH_2CH_2-NEt_3^b$	0.0015	0.032	959	1.2	1.0
$Ph_2OCH_2CH_3$	0.0023	0.025	1009	1.1	1.0
$Ph_2OCH_3$	0.0027	0.040	100 <sup>f</sup>	1.2	1.0
$Ph_2O(CH_2)_3CH_3$	0.0025	0.030	100 <sup>f</sup>	1.1	1.0
$Ph_2OCH_2CH_2-Me_3Py^c$	0.00017	0.0013	259	0.012 0.144	0.25
$Ph_2OCH_2CH_2-4MePy$	0.00006	0.0004	2.6 <sup>e</sup>	0.003	0.06
$Ph_2OCH_2CH_2-Py$	0.00003	-- <sup>d</sup>	1.3 <sup>e</sup>	- -	0.03
$Ph_2OCH_2CH_2-4PhPy$	-- <sup>d</sup>	- -	$\leq 1.0^e$	- -	$\leq 0.02$

a. Quantum yields taken from spectra measured in acetonitrile solutions at room temperature using  $Ru(Bipy)_3^{2+}$  as a standard;  $\lambda_{ex}=436$  nm.

b. Singlet quantum yields for the model compounds are accurate to  $\pm 10\%$ ; triplet quantum yields are accurate to  $\pm 30\%$ .

c. Singlet quantum yields for the donor-acceptor compounds are accurate to  $\pm 30\%$ ; triplet quantum yields are accurate to  $\pm 80\%$ .

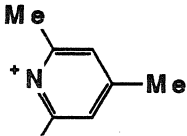
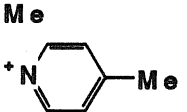
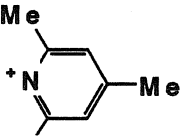
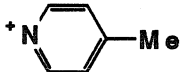

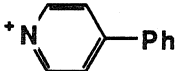
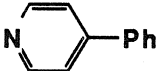

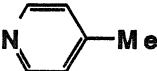
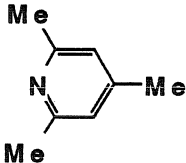
d. Emission too weak to measure.

e. Estimated using quantum yields and the singlet lifetime of  $Ir_2(Pz^*)_2(CO)_2(Ph_2POCH_2CH_3)_2$ ; accurate to  $\pm 30\%$ .

f. Estimated using quantum yields and the singlet lifetime of  $Ir_2(Pz^*)_2(CO)_2(Ph_2POCH_2CH_3)_2$ ; accurate to  $\pm 10\%$ .

g. Determined from time-resolved emission measurements; accurate to  $\pm 10\%$ .

Table 4.4: Driving Force and Rate Data.

	Donor	Acceptor	$\Delta E$ (eV) <sup>a</sup>	$k_{ET}(\text{sec}^{-1})$
1	<sup>3</sup> Ir <sub>2</sub>		-0.08	<sup>b</sup> 3.5x10 <sup>6</sup>
2	<sup>3</sup> Ir <sub>2</sub>		-0.21	<sup>b</sup> 1.7x10 <sup>8</sup>
3	<sup>1</sup> Ir <sub>2</sub>		-0.58	<sup>b</sup> 2.0x10 <sup>10</sup>
4	<sup>1</sup> Ir <sub>2</sub>		-0.71	<sup>c</sup> 1.5x10 <sup>11</sup>
5	<sup>1</sup> Ir <sub>2</sub>		-0.89	<sup>c</sup> 3.2x10 <sup>11</sup>
6	<sup>1</sup> Ir <sub>2</sub>		-0.97	<sup>d</sup> 5.0x10 <sup>11</sup>
7		<sup>+</sup> Ir <sub>2</sub>	-1.53	<sup>b</sup> 2.0x10 <sup>10</sup>
8		<sup>+</sup> Ir <sub>2</sub>	-1.61	<sup>b</sup> 6.7x10 <sup>9</sup>
9		<sup>+</sup> Ir <sub>2</sub>	-1.79	<sup>b</sup> 3.3x10 <sup>9</sup>
10		<sup>+</sup> Ir <sub>2</sub>	-1.92	<sup>b</sup> 6.7x10 <sup>7</sup>

a. Potentials are accurate to  $\pm 100$  mv versus SSCE in 0.1 M TBAPF<sub>6</sub>/CH<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>2</sub>.b. Accurate to  $\pm 10\%$ . c. Accurate to  $\pm 30\%$ . d. Lower limit.

for the photoinduced charge separation reactions (#2-6) were determined from equation 4.32,

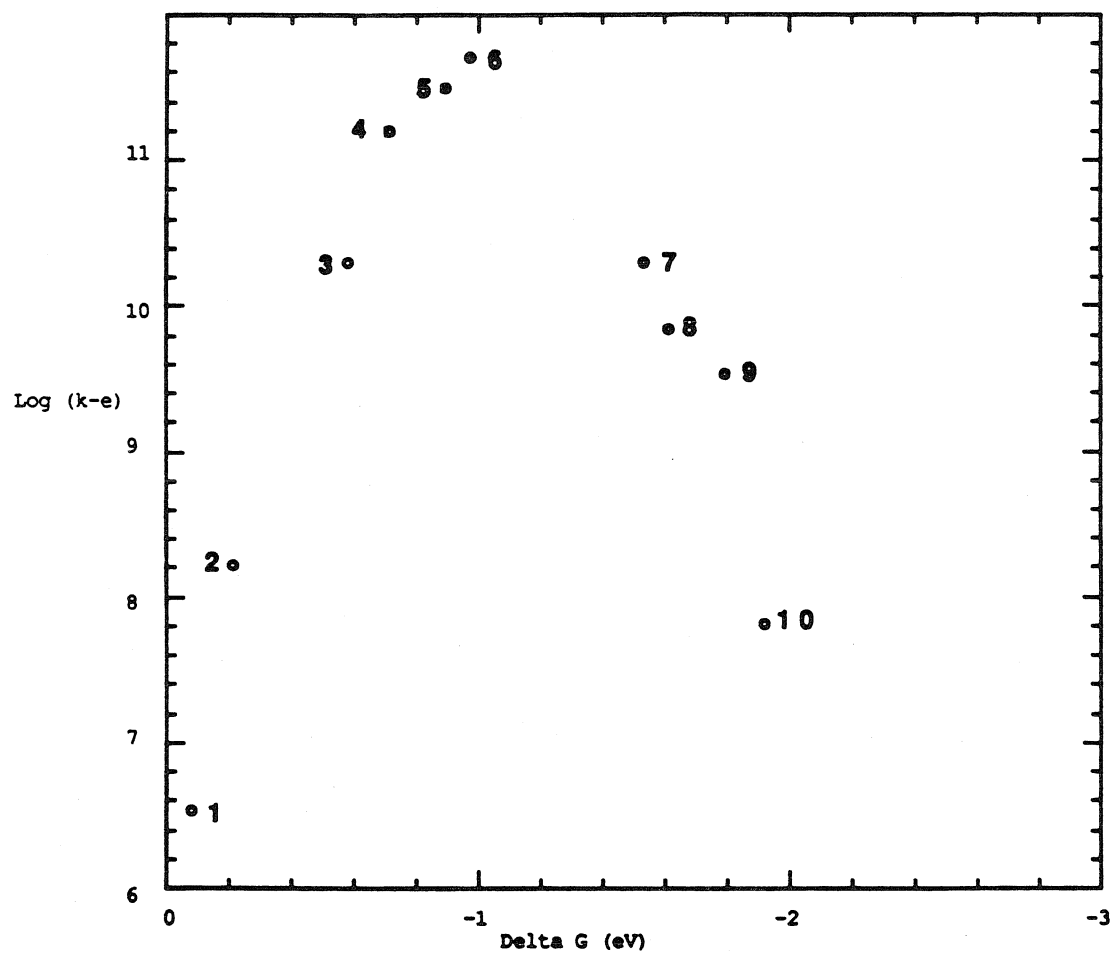
$$k_{et} = 1/2 \left( \frac{1}{\tau} + \frac{1}{\tau_o} \right) \text{ eq. 4.32}$$

assuming that the radiative and nonradiative rates intrinsic to the d<sup>8</sup>-d<sup>8</sup> chromophores are not perturbed by the pyridinium cations. This premise is firmly substantiated by the spectroscopic and photophysical data presented in chapter 3 (see tables 3.1, 3.2, and 3.7). The factor of 1/2 in this equation is required by the 1:2 donor-acceptor stoichiometry in these redox systems; it assumes that motions of the quenchers with respect to the iridium dimer chromophores are not correlated. Rate constants for the charge recombination reactions (#7-10) are the reciprocals of the charge transfer state lifetimes.<sup>31</sup> The driving forces found in table 4.4 are taken from the electrochemical data discussed in chapter 3. Peak potentials for the pyridinium reduction waves and iridium dimer oxidation waves are the same in methylene chloride and acetonitrile. However, electrochemical oxidation of the iridium dimer complexes in acetonitrile is an irreversible two electron process, making its one electron oxidation potential less certain in this solvent. Thus, the driving forces in table 4.4 are accurate to only  $\pm 100$  mv.

Figure 4.11 shows a plot of  $\log(k_{et})$  versus  $\Delta G^0$  for the triplet and singlet charge separation reactions and the charge recombination reactions in our systems. The rate of photoinduced charge separation (#1-6) increases as a function of driving force and maximizes near  $\Delta G^0 = 1.0$  eV, consistent with previous estimates for the total reorganization energy associated with iridium dimer/pyridinium redox systems.<sup>20</sup> In contrast, rates for the charge recombination processes, which return these compounds

**Figure 4.11.** Plot of  $\text{Log}(k_{\text{et}})$  versus  $\Delta G^{\circ'}$  for the charge separation (#1-6) and charge recombination (#7-10) reactions in the donor-acceptor complexes. Driving forces are accurate to  $\pm 100$  mv; log values are accurate to  $\pm 0.05$  log units.

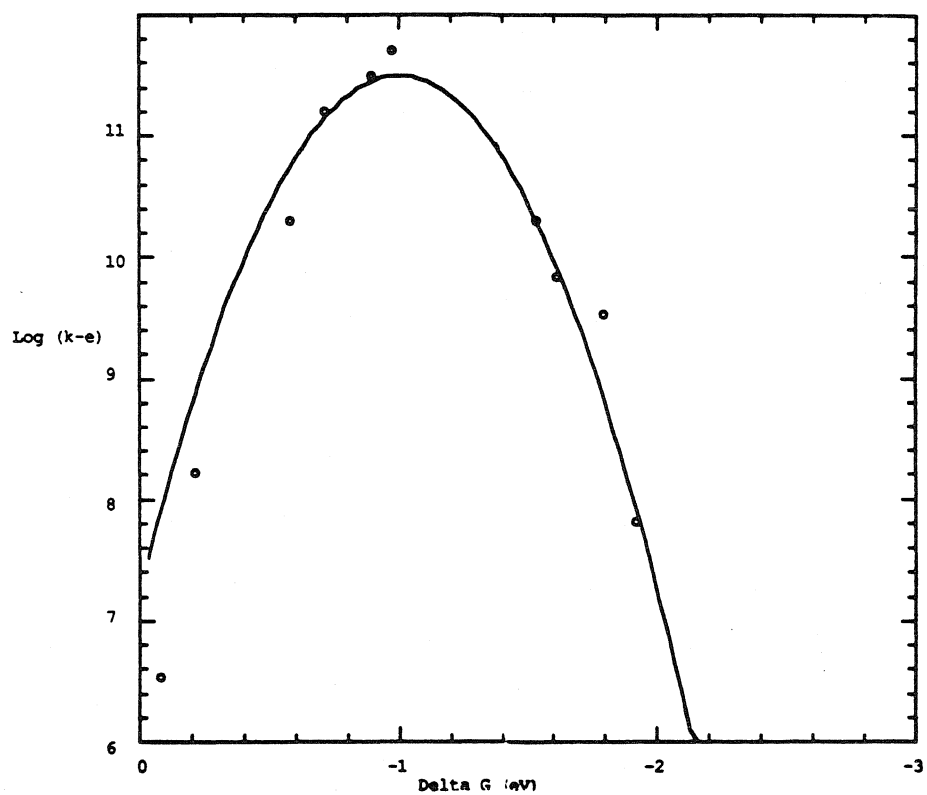




to their electronic ground states (#7-10), decrease by over two orders of magnitude in the driving force range 1.5 to 2.0 eV. This large decrease in  $k_{et}$  can be attributed to the inverted behavior predicted by classical Marcus theory and by more recent semiclassical and quantum mechanical electron-transfer models. Inverted effects have been observed in a number of different bimolecular<sup>14b,f,21</sup> and donor-acceptor redox systems.<sup>14e,h</sup> Indications of inverted behavior have also been observed in biological donor-acceptor molecules<sup>14g</sup> including the photosynthetic reaction center.<sup>14c</sup> One common feature found among these chemically diverse systems is that they all have been studied at driving forces well above 1.0 eV. Thus, a principal criterion for observing inverted behavior may be that the redox system probe exoergicities approaching 2.0 eV. This conclusion is borne out in our results as well.

Figures 4.12 to 4.14 summarize results from the analysis of our driving force dependence data using the classical and semiclassical models for electron transfer found in equations 4.23 and 4.29.<sup>33</sup> Figure 4.12 shows a fit of our data to a classical Marcus relationship. Recalling that the estimated standard error along the potential axis in this plot is  $\pm 100$  mv, the data are adequately approximated by this model, with the exception of point #1. This analysis yields a total reorganization energy of 1.0 eV and an electronic coupling matrix element of  $35\text{ cm}^{-1}$ . Our value of  $\lambda$  is strikingly similar to the reorganization energies determined in several recent driving force dependence studies on a variety of organic and biological donor-acceptor molecules.<sup>14b,c,e,f,g,h</sup> It is not likely that  $\lambda_i$  would be the same for our compounds and systems based solely on organic donors and acceptors. Therefore, the similarity between our reorganization energy and values found in the literature suggests that  $\lambda \cong \lambda_o$  in redox systems whose donors and acceptors are exposed to the solvent. Our value of  $H_{ab}$  is comparable to values obtained by Closs and Miller<sup>14e</sup> for reactions at substantially longer donor-acceptor separations. Because the Closs-Miller systems are known to transfer electrons

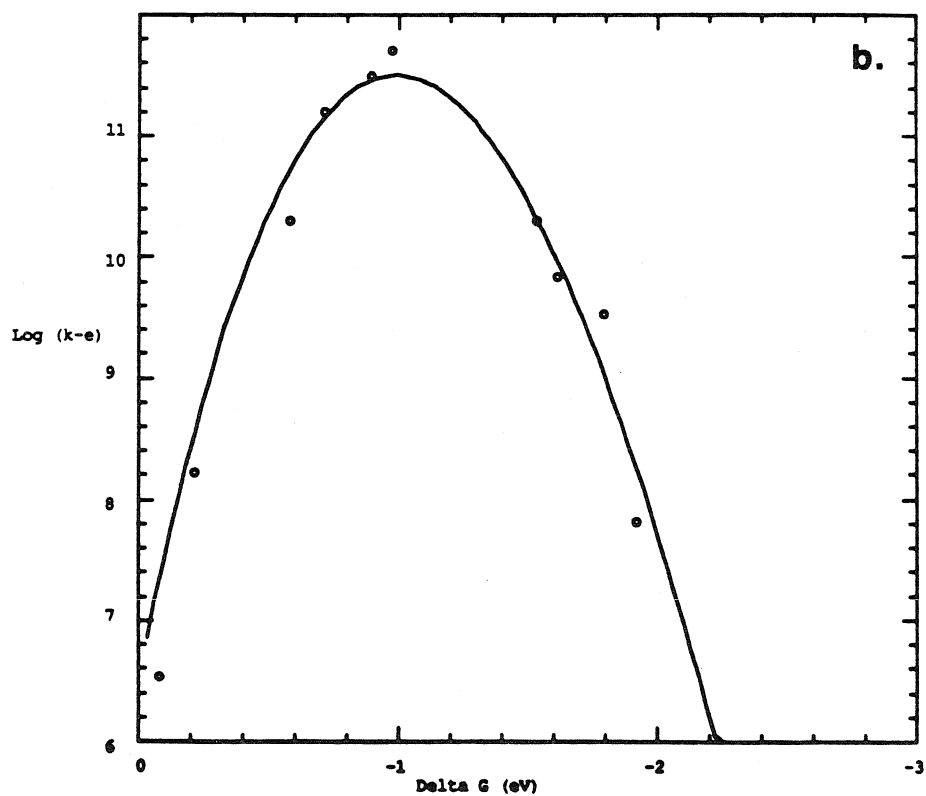
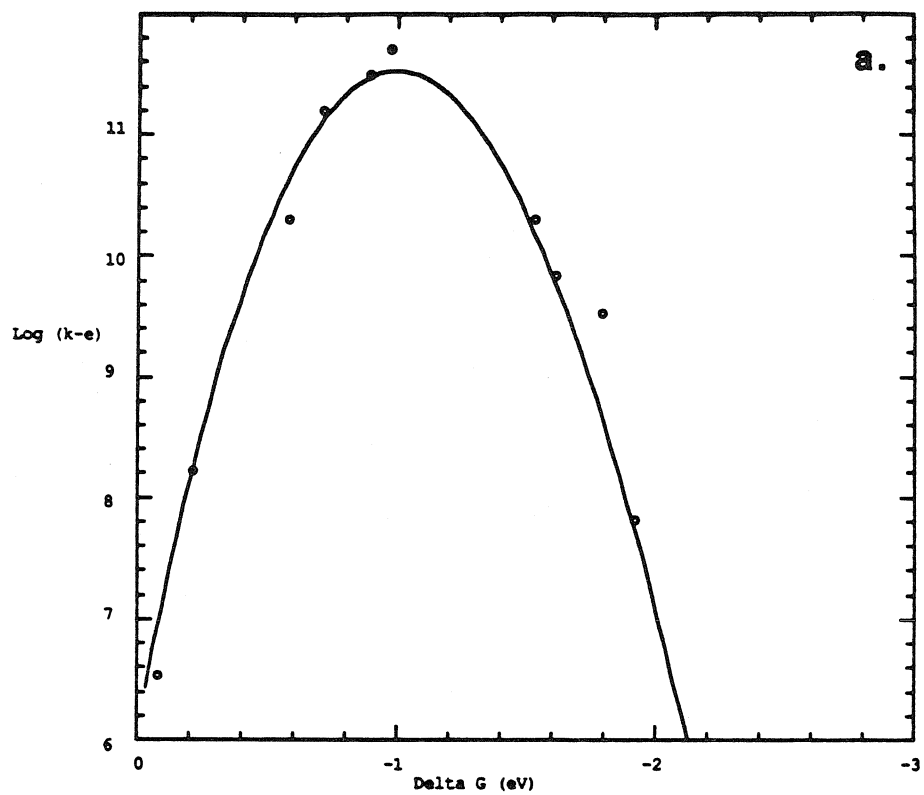
**Figure 4.12.** Driving force data fit to a classical Marcus model (solid curve).  $\lambda=1.0$  eV,  $H_{ab}=35\text{ cm}^{-1}$ .



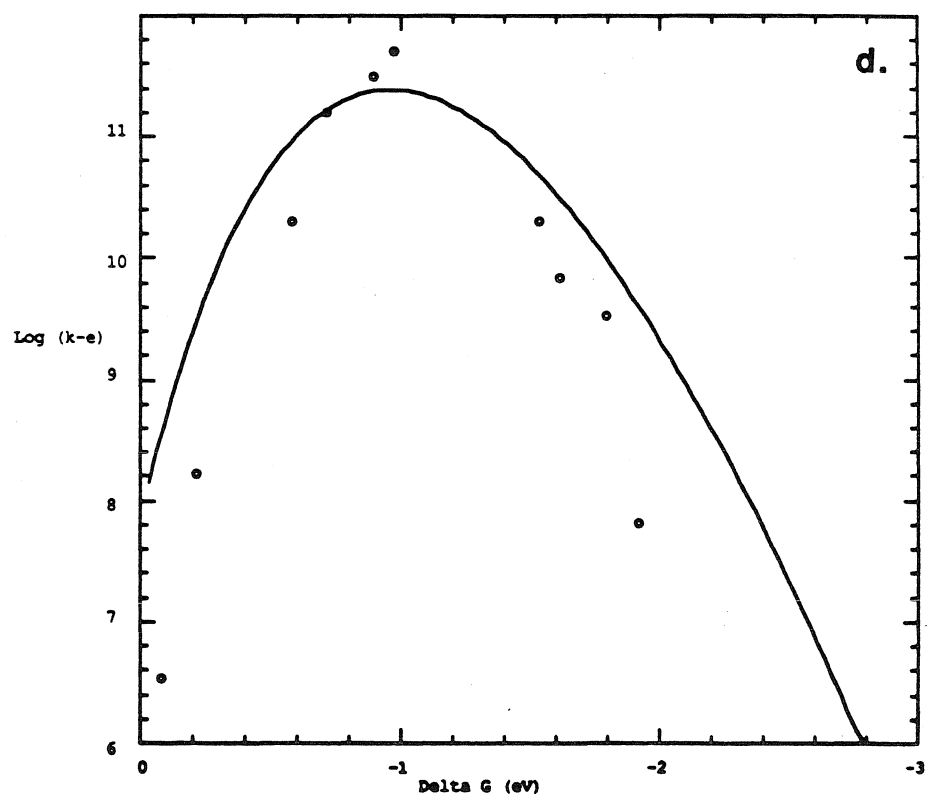
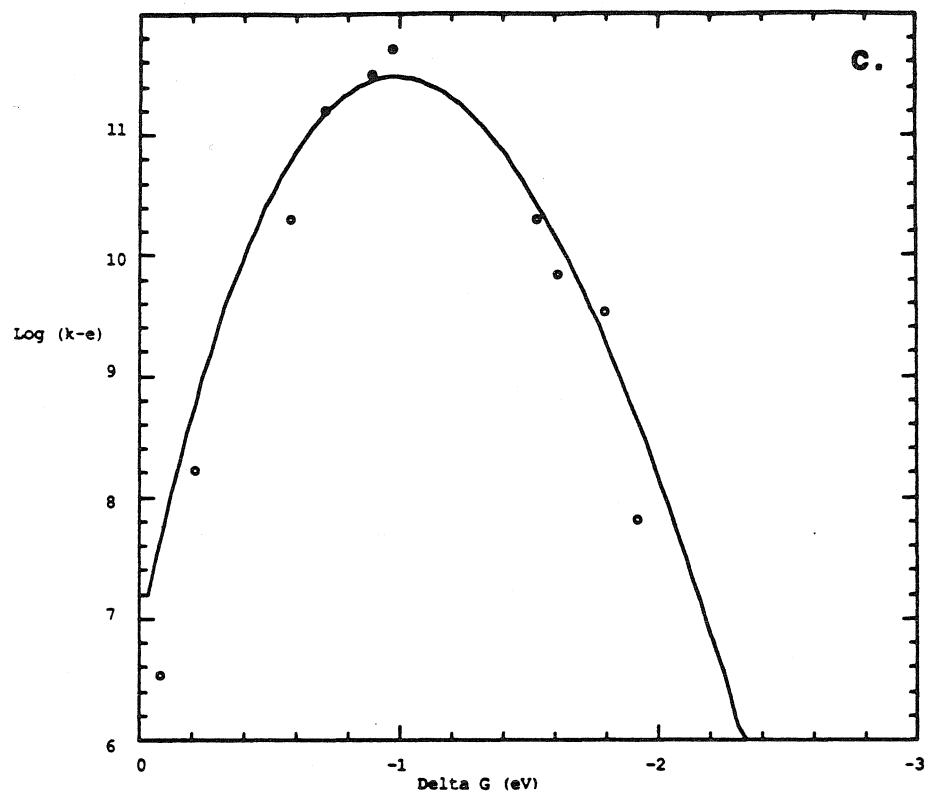
via a through bond mechanism, this comparison suggests that electron transfer in our compounds does not involve through bond pathways. This conclusion is in line with the absence of ICT bands in the electronic spectra of the iridium dimer complexes.<sup>22</sup> Figures 4.13 and 4.14 show results from the analysis of our data using the semiclassical model for electron-transfer found in equation 4.29. This equation includes effects due to nuclear tunneling of high frequency modes in the donor and acceptor by using an average frequency ( $\nu$ ) for the tunneling coordinate and by representing the solvent as a dielectric continuum. Closs and Miller,<sup>14e,f</sup> Dutton and coworkers,<sup>14c</sup> and Farid *et al.*<sup>14b</sup> have observed significant nuclear tunneling effects in their driving force dependence studies and have successfully utilized this relationship in analyzing their data. In figures 4.13 and 4.14, we have fixed  $H_{ab}^2=35\text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $\lambda=1.0\text{ eV}$  in accord with our findings using equation 4.23.  $\lambda_o$ ,  $\lambda_i$ , and  $\nu$  were allowed to vary to determine how changes in the tunneling frequency and inner-sphere and outer-sphere reorganization energies affect the shapes of driving force curves predicted by this model. As seen in figures 4.13a-d for constant values of the inner-sphere and outer-sphere reorganization energies, as  $\nu$  increases from  $300\text{ cm}^{-1}$  to  $1000\text{ cm}^{-1}$ , the theoretical driving force curves (solid line) drastically depart from the experimental data; when  $\nu=1000\text{ cm}^{-1}$  variations in  $\lambda_o$ ,  $\lambda_i$ , and  $H_{ab}^2$  do not improve the fit between the model and data. In comparison to the results presented in figure 4.11, the data appear to be better represented by the semiclassical equations when  $\nu=300$  to  $400\text{ cm}^{-1}$ . It is well known that oxidation of  $d^8$ - $d^8$  metal complexes leads to significant rearrangement of their metal-metal and metal ligand bond lengths.<sup>23</sup> A tunneling frequency of  $400\text{ cm}^{-1}$  would be consistent with a nuclear tunneling mechanism involving the metal ligand modes in the donor-acceptor compounds.<sup>24</sup> Figures 4.14a-h show how emphasizing either  $\lambda_o$  or  $\lambda_i$  in the total reorganization energy changes the shape of the theoretical driving force curves for several different tunneling frequencies. Here again, good correlations between the model and data are obtained for smaller values of  $\nu$  or larger values of  $\lambda_o$ .

Due to the 100 mv esds in our values of  $\Delta G^0$ , it is difficult to differentiate between a classical or semiclassical kinetic model as being more appropriate for describing electron transfer in the iridium dimer complexes. These results do, however, indicate that in contrast to many of the organic donor-acceptor systems found in the literature, our complexes do not exhibit substantial nuclear tunneling contributions from modes associated with their pyridinium electron acceptors.<sup>14b,e,f,h</sup>

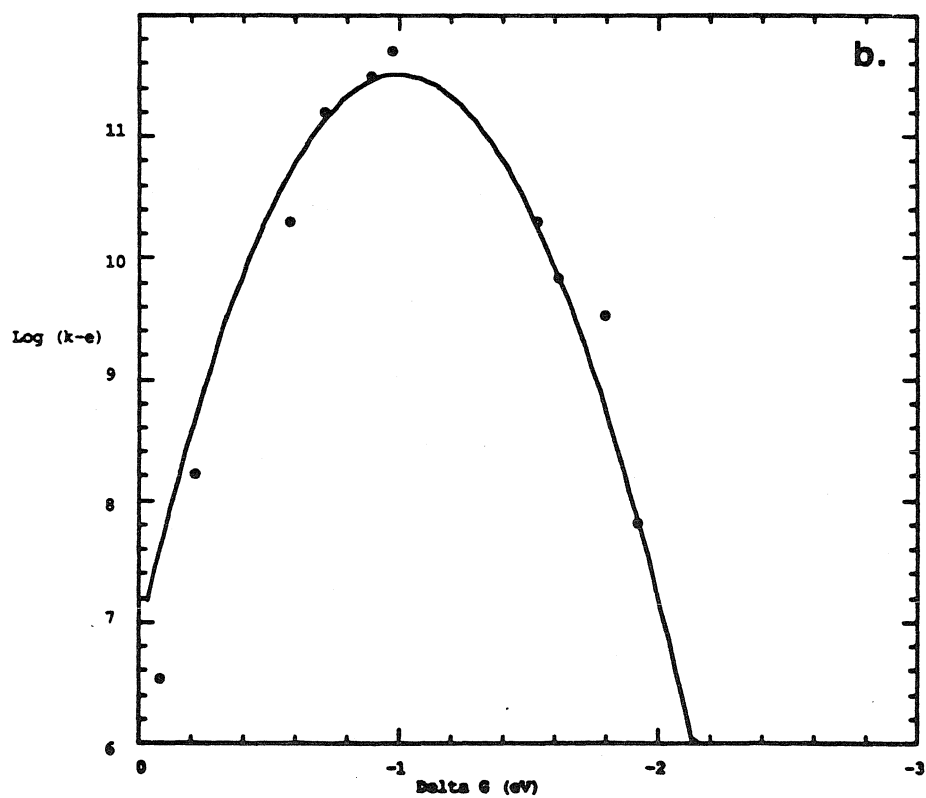
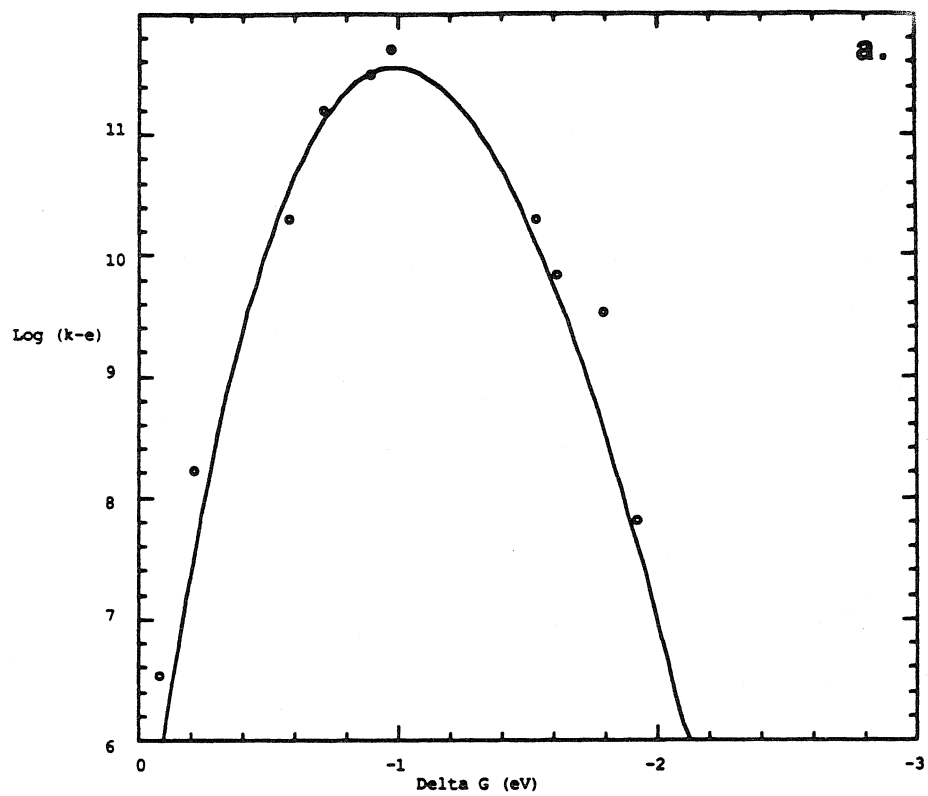
**Figure 4.13.** Driving force data fit to the semiclassical model of Jortner *et al.* showing changes in the theoretical curves as a function of the tunneling frequency  $\omega$  for  $\lambda=1.0$  eV and  $H_{ab}=35$ . a)  $\omega=300$  cm<sup>-1</sup>. b)  $\omega=400$  cm<sup>-1</sup>. c)  $\omega=500$  cm<sup>-1</sup>. d)  $\omega=1000$  cm<sup>-1</sup>.

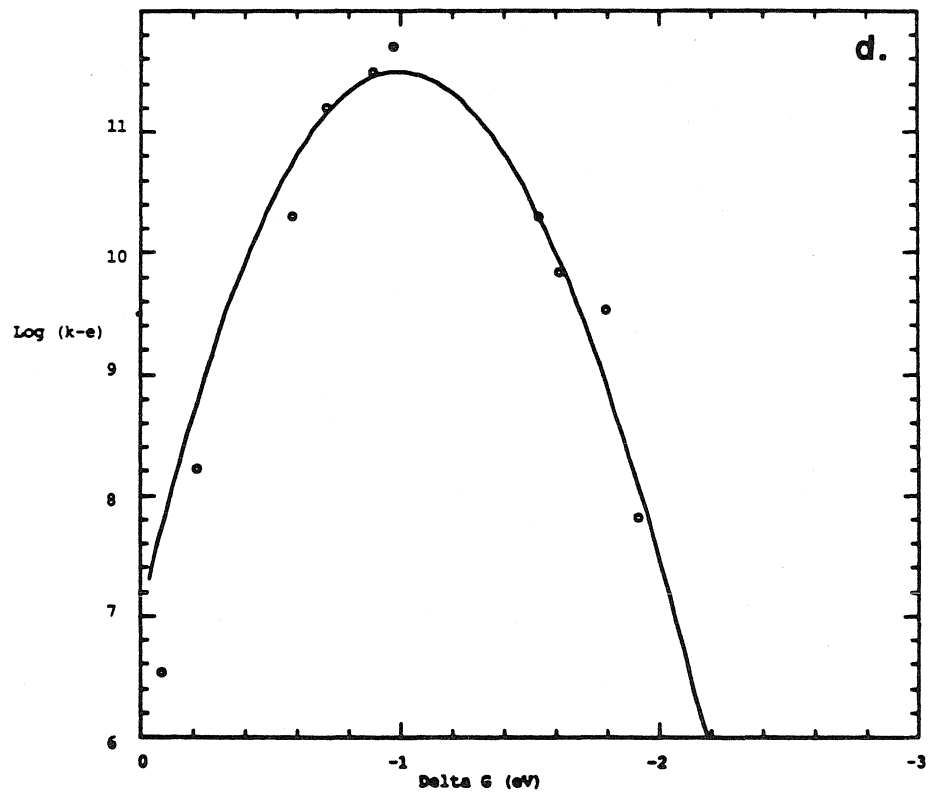
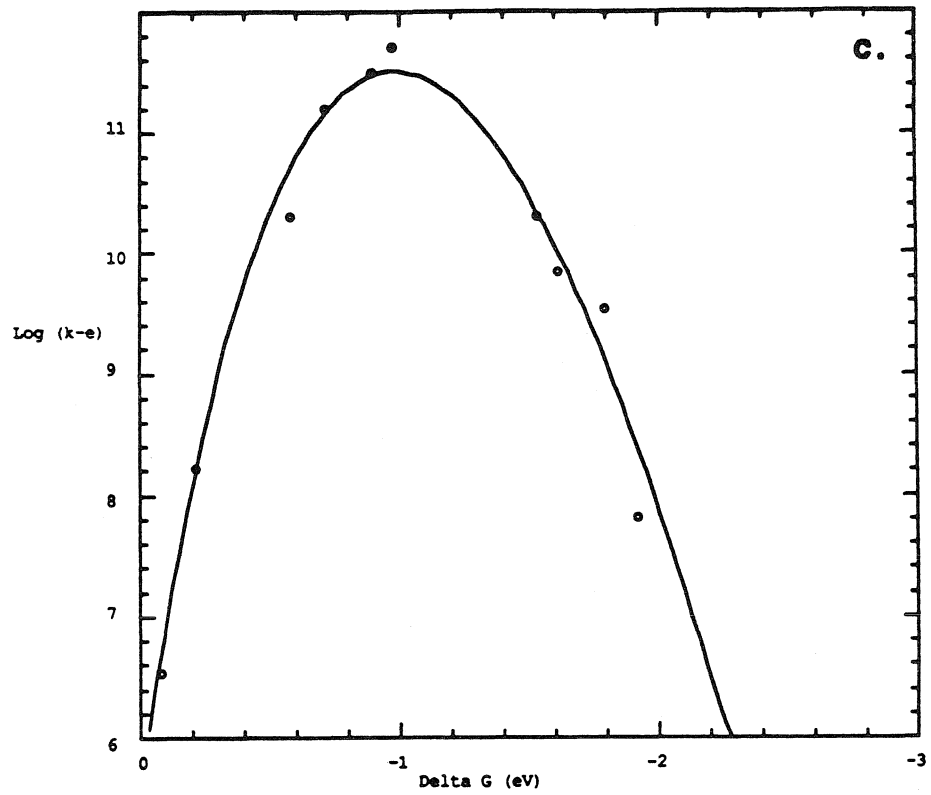


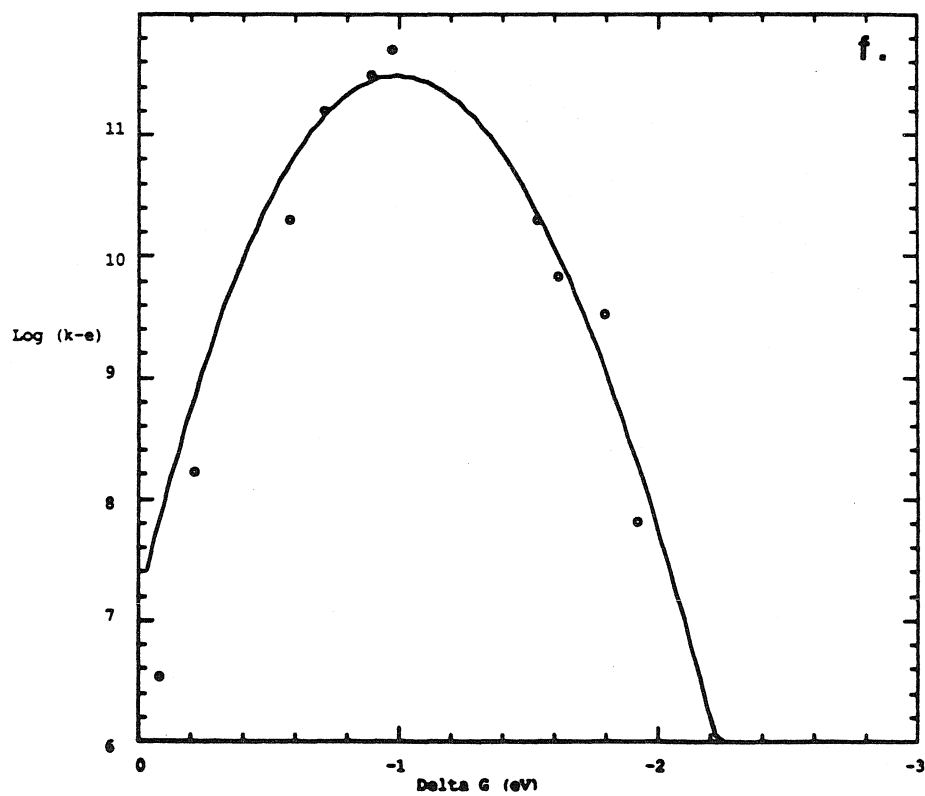
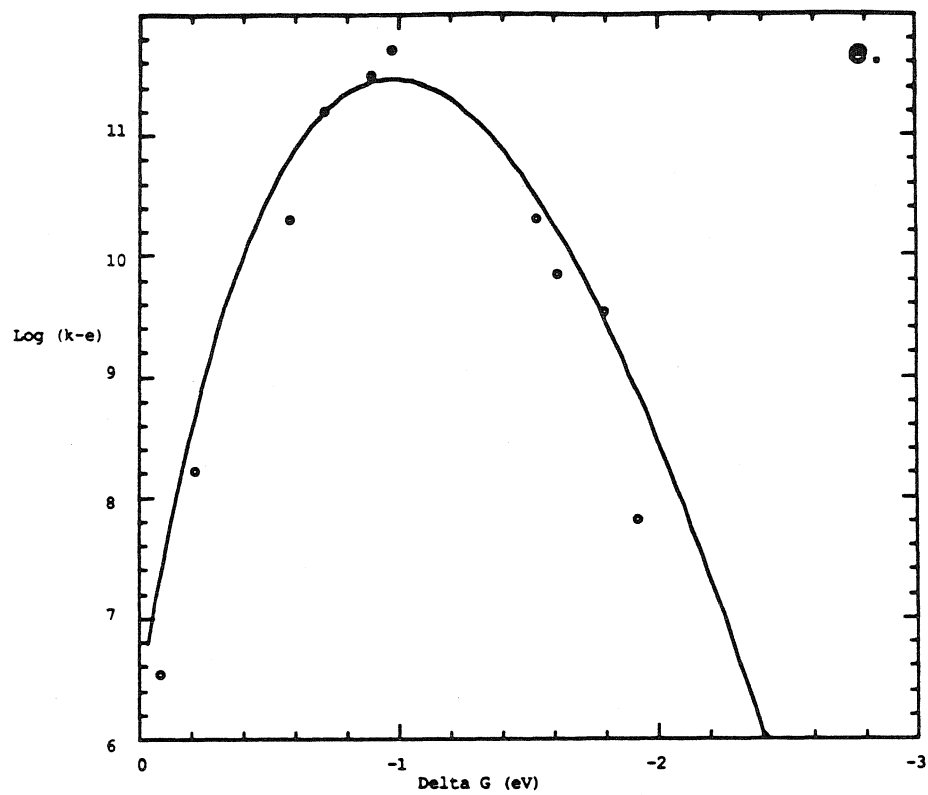


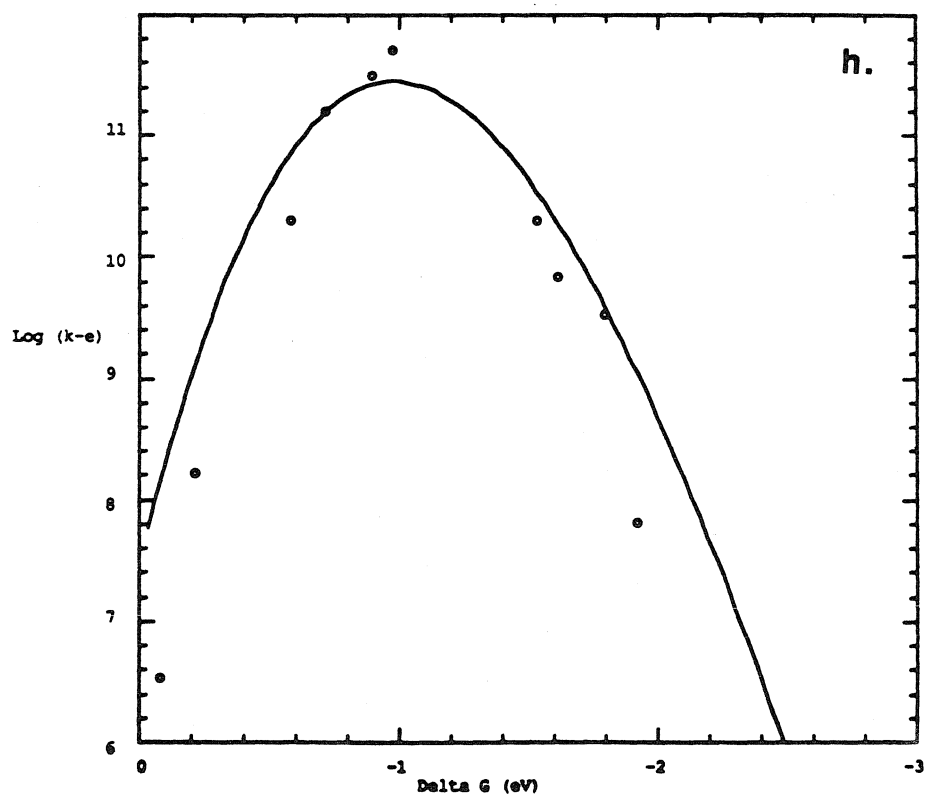
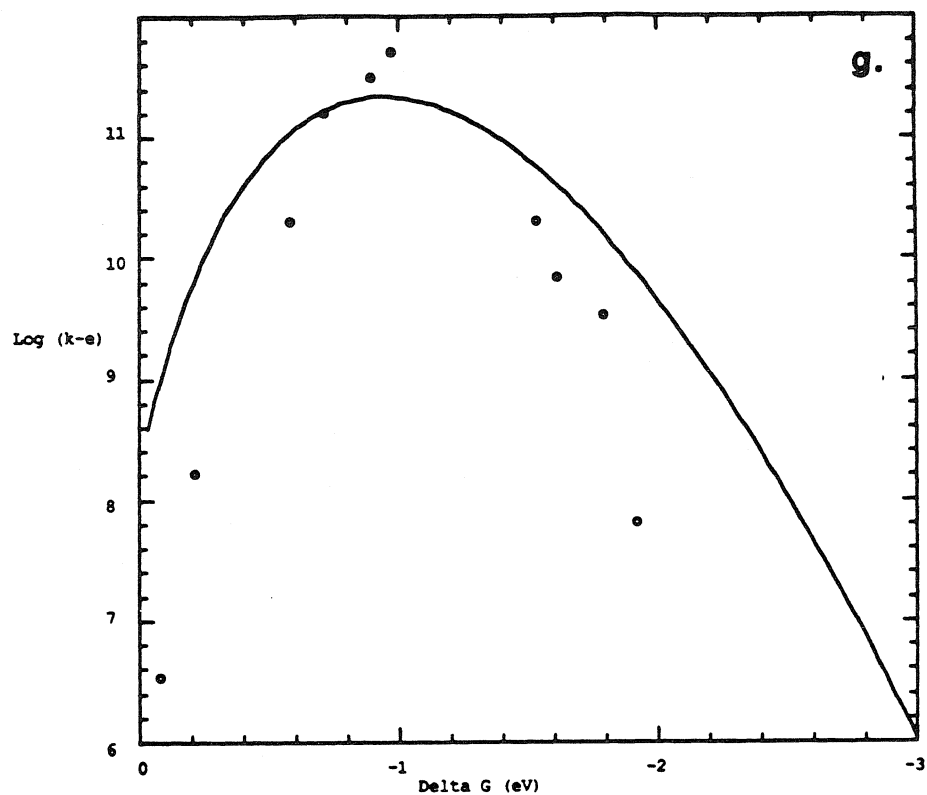


**Figure 4.14.** Driving force data fit to the semiclassical model of Jortner *et al.* showing changes in the theoretical curves as a function of  $\lambda_i$  and  $\lambda_o$  for  $\lambda=1.0$  eV and  $H_{ab}=35$ . a)  $\omega=300\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  $\lambda_i=0.2\text{ eV}$ ,  $\lambda_o=0.8\text{ eV}$ . b)  $\omega=300\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  $\lambda_i=0.8\text{ eV}$ ,  $\lambda_o=0.2\text{ eV}$ . c)  $\omega=400\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  $\lambda_i=0.2\text{ eV}$ ,  $\lambda_o=0.8\text{ eV}$ . d)  $\omega=500\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  $\lambda_i=0.80\text{ eV}$ ,  $\lambda_o=0.20\text{ eV}$ . e)  $\omega=500\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  $\lambda_i=0.2\text{ eV}$ ,  $\lambda_o=0.8\text{ eV}$ . f)  $\omega=500\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  $\lambda_i=0.8\text{ eV}$ ,  $\lambda_o=0.2\text{ eV}$ . g)  $\omega=1000\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  $\lambda_i=0.2\text{ eV}$ ,  $\lambda_o=0.8\text{ eV}$ . h)  $\omega=1000\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  $\lambda_i=0.8\text{ eV}$ ,  $\lambda_o=0.2\text{ eV}$ .









Our driving force analysis assumes that the reorganization energies and electronic coupling factors for charge separation and charge recombination in these systems are the same. The validity of this assumption is currently an area of significant interest in electron-transfer research.<sup>13d,14h,25</sup> Available data regarding this issue from biological and synthetic donor-acceptor systems suggest that the driving force dependence for charge separation and recombination reactions can be described by the same thermal and electronic barriers; however, further investigation will be necessary to resolve these issues. In this light, the correlations between the experimental data and theoretical models in figures 4.12 to 4.14 are remarkable. From these plots it appears that rate data for the triplet and singlet photoinduced electron transfer reactions and charge recombination reactions in our molecules are adequately represented by the same electronic coupling and reorganization parameters.<sup>32</sup> At present we are particularly intrigued by the premise that the charge separation and recombination reactions in photoredox molecules may be controlled by different reorganization energies, electronic coupling matrix elements, and spin selection rules. An understanding of these factors is clearly important for designing redox systems that perform vectorial photoinduced charge separation. Experiments designed to address these issues are currently in progress in our laboratories.

***Photophysics and Vectorial Electron Transfer:*** In addition to providing further evidence for inverted behavior, the quantum yield and lifetime data presented in this chapter also differentiate the photophysical properties of bimolecular and intramolecular photoredox systems based on iridium d<sup>8</sup>-d<sup>8</sup> complexes and pyridinium electron acceptors. Much like photoredox systems based on porphyrin electron donors, our iridium donor-acceptor compounds possess a low lying singlet and triplet redox active excited state. Due to the moderate rates for intersystem crossing in the porphyrin based compounds,<sup>27</sup> their primary photoredox reactions occur from their singlet excited states. This preferred singlet reactivity is found in synthetic donor-

acceptor systems and also in the photosynthetic reaction center. In contrast photoinduced electron transfer in redox systems based on inorganic chromophores largely involves their lowest lying high spin excited states. This apparent change in the excited state reactivities of the spin allowed and spin forbidden states is a direct consequence of the decreased fluorescence lifetimes and increased intersystem crossing rates characteristic of inorganic chromophores. In our earlier bimolecular electron transfer studies, we found that charge transfer occurred solely from the  $^3B$  excited states of iridium A-frame complexes.<sup>20,14a</sup> However, much like photoredox systems containing porphyrin electron donors, photoinduced electron transfer in our intramolecular ET complexes is primarily a  $^1B$  process. As seen in table 4.3, the intersystem crossing efficiencies for the donor-acceptor compounds are  $\leq 0.25$ ; for  $Ir_2(Pz^*)_2(CO)_2(Ph_2POCH_2CH_2-4PhPy^+)_2$  intersystem crossing is essentially a negligible singlet deactivation pathway. Thus the initial charge separation reactions in these compounds occur with close to unit efficiency. The recent findings of Closs and Miller<sup>14e</sup>, Wasielewski,<sup>14h</sup> Gust,<sup>28</sup> Dervan,<sup>7</sup> and Bolton<sup>9</sup> have suggested that one of the primary motives for linking two redox partners into a single molecular unit is to remove diffusion as the rate limiting step in electron transfer. Our results expand upon this notion by indicating that a covalent linkage between donor and acceptor can also allow higher energy, shorter lived excited states to be efficiently intercepted by rapid electron transfer processes. This concept clearly has implications with regard to photochemical energy storage and is discussed in this context below.

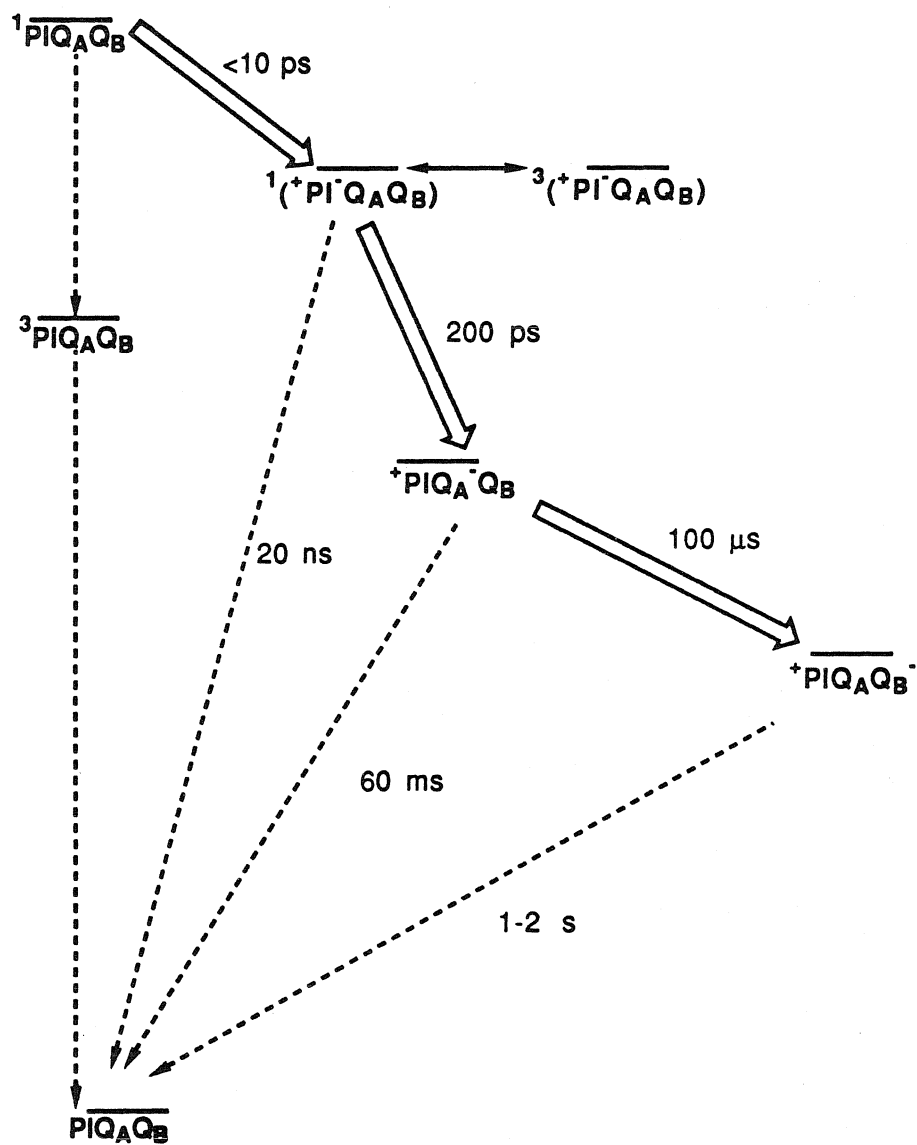
A second aspect of the photophysical behavior of the donor-acceptor complexes, which differentiates them from their bimolecular analogues, concerns charge recombination to form electronic excited states of the iridium dimer chromophore. In our bimolecular ET studies involving  $[Ir_2(Pz)_2(COD)_2]$  no evidence for back electron transfer to form its triplet excited state was observed. In particular, values of  $k_{et}$ , determined from quantum yield and lifetime quenching experiments, were the same



within experimental error, indicating that charge recombination formed exclusively ground state iridium dimer products. In contrast, back electron transfer to form a  $^3B$   $d^8$ - $d^8$  excited state occurs in  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Me}_3\text{Py}^+)_2$ . It is well known that in some reactions where  $\Delta G^0$  is greater than the energy of an electronic transition associated with the donor or acceptor, electron transfer leads to the formation of electronically excited products. For example, electrogenerated chemiluminescence has been observed in a number of inorganic redox systems,<sup>29</sup> most notably  $\text{Ru}(\text{Bipy})_3^{2+}$ . In addition, back electron transfer to the special pair triplet state is a well characterized process in photosynthetic reaction centers that are missing their ubiquinone electron acceptors.<sup>27</sup> This particular process was most likely not observed in our bimolecular studies involving  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz})_2(\text{COD})_2]$  because the charge transfer state,  $[\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz})_2(\text{COD})_2]^+/\text{Py}^*$ , is not energetically within  $k_B T$  of the triplet state.

In a highly efficient photochemical energy storage system a photoinduced charge separation must take place with a minimum loss of the captured photon energy and the charge separated state must be maintained long enough to allow bond forming reactions to occur. The realization of well defined molecular systems that execute vectorial charge transfer reactions is an extremely challenging area of current research. In the photosynthetic reaction centers of green plants, transmembrane electron transfer takes place on a picosecond timescale creating an excited state whose energy can be harnessed into chemical bonds (figure 4.15).<sup>27</sup> When all of the intermediate redox partners are in place, directional charge transfer occurs with near unit efficiency. An important kinetic feature of photosynthesis is that it achieves this high charge separation efficiency by sequentially coupling two very rapid electron-transfer processes. A primary photoredox reaction occurs directly from the excited special pair yielding a charge separated state ( $^+P^-IQ_AQ_B$ ) that is approximately  $950\text{ cm}^{-1}$  above the special pair triplet state. This transient CT state is transformed by a second rapid reaction into

**Figure 4.15.** A photophysical scheme for the photosynthetic reaction center in *Rhodospseudomonas viridis*. White arrows correspond to the charge separation pathway in this photoredox system.



lower energy states that can interact with reaction center redox enzymes. An analogous two step approach has recently been employed by Gust and coworkers to produce long lived charge separated states in synthetic redox triads.<sup>28</sup> The large conversion efficiencies found in these naturally occurring and synthetic photoredox systems can be traced to their ability to rapidly create a substantial spatial separation between a hole and an electron. However, they utilize close to 50% of the total energy made available by their initial donor localized excited states to affect this separation .

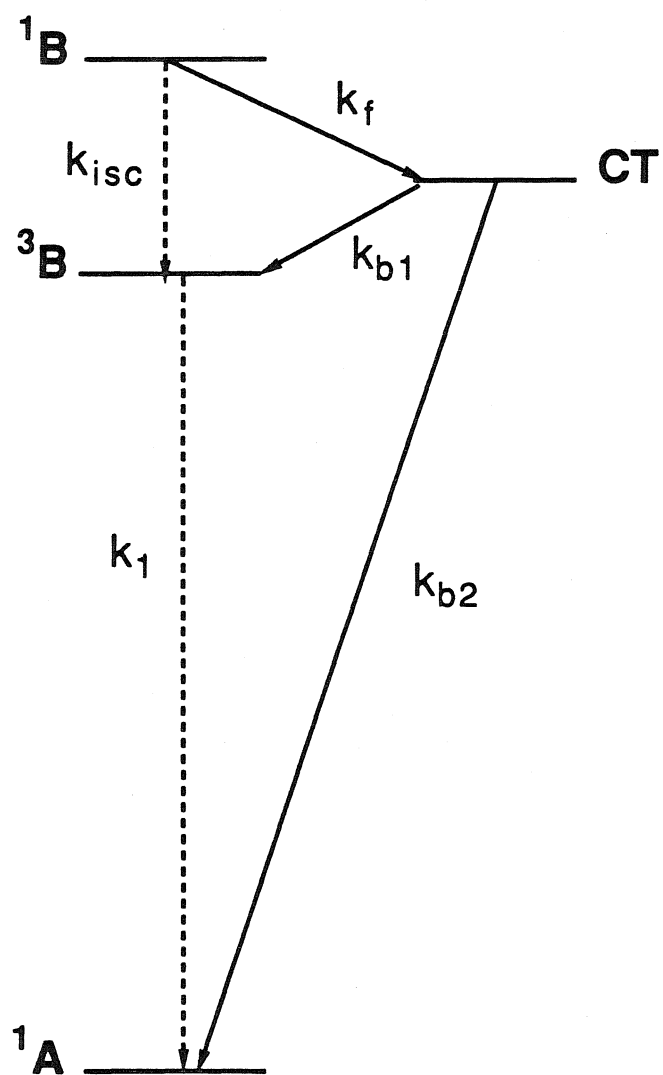
It is intriguing to consider designing a synthetic photoredox system where a single high energy charge-transfer state is created and then directly utilized to drive bond forming chemical reactions. If efficient, such a system might surpass the photosynthetic reaction center as a light energy conversion device. To our knowledge this issue has not been directly addressed in any of the recent studies concerning synthetic donor-acceptor compounds. The iridium  $d^8$ - $d^8$  complexes reported here possess two important characteristics, which suggest that they might be utilized in this capacity. As mentioned earlier, the covalent linkage between the metal complex and pyridinium electron acceptors in these systems allows their more potent singlet excited states to be intercepted by rapid electron-transfer reactions. In addition, we have seen that due to the inverted behavior associated with their charge recombination reactions, these systems possess charge separation and recombination rates, which differ by close to three orders of magnitude. If these two features can be profitably combined, then a CT state with enhanced reactivity relative to the  $^3B$  state in these systems might be available for subsequent bond forming reactions.

Rate constants for the charge separation ( $k_f$ ) and charge recombination steps ( $k_{b1}$  and  $k_{b2}$ ) in figure 4.16 were calculated as a function of the CT state energy ( $\Delta G_{b2}$ ) using  $\lambda=1.0$  eV and  $H_{ab}=35$  cm<sup>-1</sup>. Results from these calculations reveal several important trends (table 4.5). First, the lifetime of the CT state increases slightly as a function of  $\Delta G_{b2}$  and then decreases to near 100 ps. This trend arises from competition

between the parallel recombination processes  $k_{b1}$  and  $k_{b2}$ . If charge recombination to form the triplet state were not an active excited state process, the lifetime of the CT state would increase as a function of  $\Delta G_{b2}$  to hundreds of nanoseconds, based on the values of  $k_{b2}$  predicted by our calculations. However, back electron transfer to form the  $^3B$  state is known to be important in the photophysics of these complexes from earlier discussions regarding the emission properties of  $\text{Ir}_2(\text{Pz}^*)_2(\text{CO})_2(\text{Ph}_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-Me}_3\text{Py}^+)_2$  and will clearly decrease the lifetime of a high energy CT state. A second and somewhat more limiting trend concerns the lifetime of the  $^1B$  state. As the driving force for singlet electron transfer decreases from 0.5 to 0.3 eV, the rate constant for this process decreases to well below the rate of intersystem crossing ( $10^{10} \text{ sec}^{-1}$ ). These changes in  $k_f$  are paralleled by a substantial decrease in the yield of formation of the CT state. From our calculations, the CT state systems cannot be generated efficiently from the metal localized  $^1B$  state when  $E_{CT} > 0.1 + E_{\text{triplet}}$ .

This analysis indicates that a single high energy, long lived CT state in our donor-acceptor complexes cannot be generated and maintained on the basis of driving force effects alone. Designing a photoredox system with a CT state between the triplet and singlet donor states will require the manipulation of additional electron-transfer parameters. Clearly, one possible avenue of investigation would be to utilize electronic coupling as a second means of controlling the rates of charge separation and recombination in these systems. We are currently investigating the factors that govern through bond ET reactions in these complexes. Our preliminary studies indicate that the singlet and triplet electron-transfer reactions in systems utilizing rigid aromatic spacers have very different distance dependencies. Research along these lines may lead to more efficient photoredox systems.<sup>30</sup>

**Figure 4.16.** A Kinetic scheme showing the rate processes important to directional electron transfer in the iridium  $d^8$ - $d^8$  donor-acceptor complexes.



**Table 4.5:** Predicted Electron-Transfer Rates and Photophysical Parameters.

$\Delta G_f$	$\Delta G_{b1}$	$\Delta G_{b2}$	$k_f$	$k_{b1}$	$k_{b2}$	$\tau_f$	$\tau_{CT}$	$\phi_{CT}$
eV	eV	eV	$\text{sec}^{-1}$ $\times 10^{10}$	$\text{sec}^{-1}$ $\times 10^9$	$\text{sec}^{-1}$ $\times 10^7$	ps	ns	-
-0.5	0	-2.0	2.4	0.003	5.7	30	17	0.70
-0.4	-0.1	-2.1	0.72	0.036	0.97	58	22	0.42
-0.3	-0.2	-2.2	0.16	0.28	0.16	86	3.6	0.14
-0.2	-0.3	-2.3	0.028	1.6	0.025	97	0.6	0.03
-0.1	-0.4	-2.4	0.004	7.2	0.003	100	0.1	0

Calculated for  $\lambda_i=0.5$  eV,  $\lambda_o=0.5$  eV,  $\omega=400$   $\text{cm}^{-1}$ .



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31. Rigorously,  $\tau=0.7/k$ . However, making this minor correction does not change our values of  $k_{et}$  outside their experimental uncertainties.

32. This result suggests that electron transfer must occur by a predominantly through space mechanism. Based on current theories,  $H_{ab}^f$  should not equal  $H_{ab}^b$  if a through bond mechanism is active.

33. Kinetic data were fit to classical and semiclassical models for  $k_{et}$  on a Macintosh Plus PC using the program "INVERT" developed by Samir Farid and Ian Gould at the Eastman Kodak Company.

**Appendix**  
**Structure Factor Tables**

Data appears in the following format:

	h	k	
l	$F_{\text{obs}}$	$F_{\text{calc}}$	$\Delta F^2/\sigma_F^2$

Iridium Dimer				Page	1
-11	0	1	16 237 -388 -28	34 1847-1727 38	44 319 362 -4
			18 1660 1672 -4	36 1478 1493 -4	
			20 2155-2192 -13	38 1540-1485 17	0 0 1
2 982 975 2			22 1953 1975 -8	40 1139 1113 7	
4 -317 -53 -25			24 1795-1818 -8	42 -232 346 -31	6 3516-3428 30
6 902 -872 8			26 1449 1492 -15		8 4868-4867 0
8 1433 1447 -4			28 326 -469 -25	-3 0 1	10 4826 4686 35
10 1798-1801 0			30 613 -585 6		12 4228-4088 39
12 1758 1767 -3			32 1113 1124 -3	2 501 612 -62	14 5793 5678 24
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