Photoacid Behavior versus Proton-Coupled Electron Transfer in Phenol–[Ru(bpy)$_3$]$^{2+}$ Dyads

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<td>Kuss-Petermann, Martin; Georg-August-Universität, Institut für Anorganische Chemie Wenger, Oliver; University of Basel, Department of Chemistry</td>
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Photoacid Behavior versus Proton-Coupled Electron Transfer in Phenol–Ru(bpy)$_3^{2+}$ Dyads

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ABSTRACT

Two dyads comprised of a Ru(bpy)$_3^{2+}$ (bpy = 2,2’-bipyridine) photosensitizer and a covalently attached phenol were synthesized and investigated. In the shorter dyad (Ru–PhOH) the ruthenium complex and the phenol are attached directly to each other whereas in the longer dyad there is a $p$-xylene spacer in between (Ru–xy–PhOH). Electrochemical investigations indicate that intramolecular electron transfer (ET) from phenol to the photoexcited metal complex is endergonic by more than 0.3 eV in both dyads, explaining the absence of any $^3$MLCT excited-state quenching by the phenols in pure CH$_3$CN and CH$_2$Cl$_2$. When adding pyridine to a CH$_2$Cl$_2$ solution, significant excited-state quenching can be observed for both dyads, but the bimolecular quenching rate constants differ by two orders of magnitude between Ru–PhOH and Ru–xy–PhOH. Transient absorption spectroscopy shows that in presence of pyridine both dyads react to photoproducts containing Ru(II) and phenolate. The activation energies associated with the photoreactions in the two dyads differ by one order of magnitude, and this might suggest that the formation of identical photoproducts proceeds through fundamentally different reaction pathways in Ru-PhOH and Ru-xy-PhOH. For Ru-PhOH direct proton release from the photoexcited dyad is a plausible reaction pathway. For Ru-xy-PhOH a sequence of a photoinduced proton-coupled electron transfer (PCET) followed by an intramolecular (thermal) electron transfer in the reverse direction is a plausible reaction pathway; this two-step process involves a reaction intermediate containing Ru(I) and phenoxyl radical which reacts very rapidly to Ru(II) and phenolate. Thermal back reactions to restore the initial starting materials occur on a 30 µs – 50 µs timescale in both dyads, i. e., due to proton release the photoproducts are very long lived. These back-reactions exhibit inverse H/D kinetic isotope effects of 0.7±0.1 (Ru–PhOH) and 0.6±0.1 (Ru–xy–PhOH) at room temperature.
KEYWORDS

Proton-coupled electron transfer, phenols, ruthenium, photochemistry, photoacid, electron tunneling

INTRODUCTION

Proton-coupled electron transfer (PCET) is an elementary reaction in many enzymes, and it is of key importance for example for water oxidation or carbon dioxide reduction hence it seems desirable to understand PCET at the most fundamental level.\(^1\), \(^2\) Phenols are well suited PCET reactants for mechanistic studies because the acidity of their OH group and their oxidation potential are strongly interrelated.\(^3\), \(^4\) There have been numerous studies of PCET with phenols, focusing on various aspects such as the driving-force dependence of reaction rates and mechanisms,\(^5\)-\(^8\) the importance of hydrogen-bonding,\(^9\)-\(^{21}\) proton transfer distance,\(^22\), \(^23\) and pH of the surrounding medium.\(^15\), \(^24\)-\(^{27}\) The importance of the separation between the redox-active and the acidic/basic reaction sites has also been studied in suitable models.\(^28\), \(^29\) However, the influence of the electron donor-acceptor distance on PCET rates and mechanisms is yet poorly explored,\(^30\), \(^31\) unlike the distance dependence of “simple” (= not proton-coupled) electron transfer.\(^32\)-\(^37\)

Scheme 1. (a) The P680 / TyrZ / His-190 bidirectional PCET reaction triple of photosystem II; (b) functional model compounds investigated in this work (n = 0, 1).
PCET reactivity in model systems can be induced chemically,\(^5, 14, 23\) electrochemically,\(^8, 38, 39\) or photochemically.\(^15, 17, 21, 40-44\) Our group recently reported on phototriggered bimolecular PCET between phenols and Ru\((2,2'\text{-bipyrazine})_3^{2+}\) or rhenium(I) tricarbonyl complexes.\(^45-47\) Building on this work we investigated the influence of electron donor-acceptor distance on the PCET chemistry of covalent rhenium(I)-phenol dyads in CH\(_3\)CN/H\(_2\)O mixtures.\(^30\) In this paper we report on analogous Ru\((\text{bpy})_3^{2+}\)-phenol dyads and their photochemistry in CH\(_2\)Cl\(_2\)/pyridine solution. Our system may be regarded as a functional model for the P680 / TyrZ / His-190 reaction triple of photosystem II (Scheme 1):\(^48\) The phenol plays the role of the combined electron/proton donor (TyrZ), the photoexcited Ru\((\text{bpy})_3^{2+}\) mimicks the function of P680, and the pyridine acts as a base like His-190. While similar functional models have been reported previously,\(^21, 25, 44, 49-53\) the influence of the distance between the phenolic electron donor and the electron acceptor on the overall PCET chemistry is yet little explored. In one of our dyads the phenol is attached directly to the Ru\((\text{bpy})_3^{2+}\) complex (Ru–PhOH), whereas in the other there is a \(p\)-xylene spacer in between (Ru–xy–PhOH).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

**UV-Vis spectroscopy and cyclic voltammetry.** Figure 1 shows the UV-Vis absorption spectrum of Ru–PhOH and Ru–xy–PhOH at \(3 \times 10^{-5}\) M concentration in CH\(_2\)Cl\(_2\) at 295 K. For both compounds the usual absorptions of the Ru\((\text{bpy})_3^{2+}\) complex, namely an MLCT (metal-to-ligand charge transfer) band centered around 450 nm and a bpy-localized \(\pi-\pi^*\) transition near 300 nm are observed. The shorter dyad exhibits an additional band near 380 nm which had been observed previously in a closely related rhenium(I) complex with a pendant phenol.\(^30\)
Figure 1. UV-Vis absorption spectra of the two dyads in CH$_2$Cl$_2$ at 295 K.

Figure 2. Cyclic voltammograms of Ru–PhOH (upper half) and Ru–xy–PhOH (lower half) in pure CH$_2$Cl$_2$ (black traces) and in CH$_2$Cl$_2$ with 3 mM pyridine (red traces). The supporting electrolyte was 0.1 M TBAPF$_6$, the voltage scan rate was 100 mV/s.

The reduction potentials of the individual electrochemically active components of Ru–PhOH and Ru–xy–PhOH were extracted from the data in Figure 2. The cyclic voltammograms were recorded in deoxygenated and freshly distilled CH$_2$Cl$_2$ (black traces) in presence of 0.1 M TBAPF$_6$ (TBA = tetra-n-butylammonium). Ferrocene (Fc) was added for internal voltage calibration, manifesting in the reversible waves at 0.0 V. Near 1.0 V vs. Fe$^+/Fc$ one detects two oxidation processes in both dyads: One
of them is reversible and is attributed to the Ru(bpy)$_3^{3+}$/Ru(bpy)$_3^{2+}$ couple. The other is irreversible and is assigned to the PhOH$^+$/PhOH couple. The values in Table 1 are half-wave potentials; for the irreversible phenol oxidation processes we used the inflection point in the rising part of the observable wave as an approximate value; we did not detect any significant voltage scan rate dependence for any of these potentials. As seen from Table 1, the Ru(bpy)$_3^{2+}$ oxidation potentials are very close to 1.0 V vs. Fc$^+$/Fc, while phenol oxidation occurs near 0.9 V vs. Fc$^+$/Fc, both in line with literature values.$^{3,4,54}$ The irreversibility of the phenol oxidation is commonly attributed to proton loss to bulk solution.$^{3,4,9-11}$ On the reductive side of the voltage sweeps we detect prominent waves which can be attributed to reduction of the bpy ligands with up to three electrons.$^{54}$ The subsequent oxidative sweep between -2.5 V vs. Fc$^+$/Fc and 0 V vs. Fc$^+$/Fc reveals an irreversible oxidation at -0.40 V vs. Fc$^+$/Fc for Ru–PhOH and at -0.70 V vs. Fc$^+$/Fc for Ru–xy–PhOH. The respective waves only appear after an initial oxidative sweep to potentials more positive than 0.8 V vs. Fc$^+$/Fc, and consequently we attribute these waves to oxidation of phenolate to phenoxy radical. The phenolate is generated in the course of phenol oxidation as mentioned above.

**Table 1.** Reduction potentials of the individual electrochemically active components of the two dyads in CH$_2$Cl$_2$.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>$E$(bpy/bpy$^-$)</th>
<th>$E$(PhO$^-$/PhO$^-$)</th>
<th>$E$(PhOH$^+$/PhOH)</th>
<th>$E$(Ru$^{III}$/Ru$^{II}$)</th>
<th>$\Delta G_{ET}^0$</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ru-PhOH</td>
<td>-1.77</td>
<td>-0.40</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>0.34 eV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ru-xy-PhOH</td>
<td>-1.72</td>
<td>-0.70</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.30 eV</td>
</tr>
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</table>

All potentials are reported in V vs. Fc$^+$/Fc, the data was extracted from the voltammograms in Figure 2. The supporting electrolyte was 0.1 M TBAPF$_6$.

Interestingly, the potential for the PhOH$^+$/PhOH couple is nearly same in Ru–PhOH and Ru–xy–PhOH (0.89 / 0.83 V vs. Fc$^+$/Fc) whereas phenolate oxidation is easier by 300 mV in the longer dyad. This likely reflects the resonance stabilization of the phenolate in deprotonated Ru–PhOH through
delocalization of the negative charge from the O-atom towards the N-atom of bpy (Scheme 2). In principle one can draw an analogous resonance structure for the bpy-xy-PhOH ligand of the longer dyad but in that system electronic coupling between bpy and PhOH is weaker, and the respective resonance stabilization is probably less important.

The red traces in Figure 2 are the voltammograms of analogous CH₂Cl₂ solutions containing 3 mM pyridine. One detects a small shift of the phenol oxidation potentials to less positive values compared to pure CH₂Cl₂. For Ru–PhOH the PhOH⁺/PhOH couple shifts from 0.89 V to 0.80 V vs. Fc⁺/Fc, for Ru–xy–PhOH it shifts from 0.83 V to 0.80 V vs. Fc⁺/Fc. Because of the small magnitude of this shift it is difficult to extract a clear correlation between phenol oxidation potential and pyridine concentration (Figure S1 of the Supporting Information). All other redox potentials stay essentially unchanged upon pyridine addition.

**Scheme 2.** Two resonance structures of the deprotonated bpy-PhOH ligand in the Ru-PhOH dyad.

*Luminescence and transient absorption spectroscopy.* In pure de-oxygenated CH₂Cl₂ solution the \(^3\)MLCT excited state of the Ru(bpy)₃²⁺ unit in Ru–PhOH and Ru–xy–PhOH is essentially unquenched, the emission intensities and lifetimes are similar to those of free Ru(bpy)₃²⁺ under identical conditions. By transient absorption spectroscopy one detects the spectral signature of the \(^3\)MLCT state of Ru(bpy)₃²⁺ (black traces in Figure 3a/b): A bleach near 450 nm, a positive ∆OD signal around 315 nm, and another bleach near 300 nm. Additionally the spectral signature of the reduced bpy-phenol ligands can be observed as a positive signal around 400 nm (“reduced” when considering the MLCT state as comprised of an oxidized metal center and a reduced ligand). These spectra were recorded by time-averaging over 200 ns after excitation with laser pulses of ~10 ns duration at 532 nm. Evidently, electron transfer (ET)
from phenol to the photoexcited metal complex is not kinetically competitive with inherent $^3$MLCT deactivation processes under these experimental conditions. The electrochemical data from the previous section are helpful to understand why: Using equation 1 and $E_{\text{ox}} = E(\text{PhOH}^+/\text{PhOH})$, $E_{\text{red}} = E(bpy/bpy^−)$, $E_0 = 2.12$ eV and $R_{\text{DA}} = 7.9$ Å for Ru-PhOH / 12.2 Å for Ru-xy-PhOH, we arrive at the conclusion that in CH$_2$Cl$_2$ the reaction free energy ($\Delta G^0_{\text{ET}}$) associated with electron transfer from phenol to photoexcited Ru(bpy)$_2^{2+}$ is +0.34 eV for Ru–PhOH and +0.30 eV for Ru–xy–PhOH (last column of Table 1). Given the significantly endergonic nature of intramolecular photoinduced electron transfer its kinetic inefficiency is not surprising.

$$\Delta G^0_{\text{ET}} = e \cdot (E_{\text{ox}} - E_{\text{red}}) - E_0 - e^2/(4\pi\varepsilon_0\varepsilon_sR_{\text{DA}})$$ (eq. 1)

Figure 3. Transient absorption spectra of Ru–PhOH (a) and Ru–xy–PhOH (b) in de-oxygenated CH$_2$Cl$_2$ in presence of variable concentrations of pyridine (see inset for color code). The concentration of the dyads was $10^{-5}$ M in all cases. Excitation occurred with laser pulses of 10 ns width at 532 nm. The spectra are time-averaged over a period of 200 ns starting immediately after the pulse.

When adding pyridine to the CH$_2$Cl$_2$ solutions, $^3$MLCT excited-state quenching is observed in both dyads, manifesting in luminescence intensity decreases and lifetime shortenings (Figure S2 and Figure S3), as well as in the appearance of new signals in the transient absorption spectra: In the Ru–PhOH
dyad pyridine addition leads to the emergence of a broad transient absorption signal in the 480 – 740 nm spectral range (colored traces in Figure 3a) which is obviously due to the formation of a photoproduct. In the Ru-xy-PhOH dyad the photoproducts form much more slowly than in Ru-PhOH (see below) and therefore when time-averaging transient absorption spectra over the first 200 ns after the excitation pulses we mostly observe the spectroscopic signature of the $^3$MLCT excited state in this case (Figure 3b). Consequently, for identification of the photoproducts it is useful to consider transient absorption spectra that have been recorded with sufficiently long time delays after excitation (using solutions with sufficiently high pyridine concentrations). Such spectra are shown as black traces in Figure 4a (Ru-PhOH, time delay: 2 $\mu$s) and in Figure 4c (Ru-xy-PhOH, time delay: 4 $\mu$s); the long delays are possible because the photoproducts have lifetimes $> 30$ $\mu$s (see below). The red trace in Figure 4a is a derived spectrum obtained from subtraction of the blue trace in Figure 4b (UV-Vis spectrum of Ru–PhOH in CH$_2$Cl$_2$) from the green trace in Figure 4b (UV-Vis spectrum of Ru–PhO$^-$ in CH$_2$Cl$_2$; measured after addition of excess TBAOH). There is significant resemblance between the derived (red) and measured (black) spectrum in Figure 4a, suggesting that the observed photoproduct is in fact the ground state of the short dyad in its deprotonated form (Ru-PhO$^-$) with ruthenium in its $+II$ oxidation state. For the longer dyad, we perform a completely analogous analysis: The red trace in Figure 4c is a derived spectrum which is obtained when subtracting the blue trace in Figure 4d (spectrum of Ru-xy-PhOH in CH$_2$Cl$_2$) from the green trace in Figure 4d (spectrum of Ru-xy-PhO$^-\,$). Like for the shorter dyad, there is significant resemblance between experimental (black) and derived (red) spectra in Figure 4c, suggesting that Ru-xy-PhO$^-$ with ruthenium in its $+II$ oxidation state and phenolate are the photoproducts in the longer dyad, too. There are non-negligible red-shifts of some of the experimental band maxima with respect to the calculated maxima in Figure 4a/4c which may have to do with the fact that the experimental transient absorption data were measured in presence of pyridine while the derived spectra rely on data recorded in absence of pyridine. Be that as it may, the similarity of experimental and derived spectra is undeniable. Notably, none of the experimental transient absorption spectra can be reconciled with a Ru(I) photoproduct (for simplicity we use the notation “Ru(I)” to describe a one-
electron reduced complex even though the additional electron is ligand-based) because for this species one would expect intense absorptions at \( \sim 380 \) nm and at \( \sim 510 \) nm combined with a bleach at \( \sim 450 \) nm.\(^{58, 59, 60}\) However the latter two features are absent, and consequently one must observe a Ru(II) species here.

Figure 4 (a) Black trace: transient absorption spectrum measured from Ru–PhOH in CH\(_2\)Cl\(_2\) with 6 mM pyridine after excitation at 532 nm with \( \sim 10 \) ns laser pulses; detection occurred by time-averaging over a 200 ns period starting 2 \( \mu \)s after pulsed excitation. Red trace: Spectrum obtained from subtraction of the blue trace in (b) from the green trace in (b). (b) Blue trace: UV-Vis spectrum of Ru–PhOH in CH\(_2\)Cl\(_2\); green trace: UV-Vis spectrum of Ru–PhO\(^-\) in CH\(_2\)Cl\(_2\) (deprotonation occurred using excess TBAOH). (c) Black trace: transient absorption spectrum measured from Ru–xy–PhOH in CH\(_2\)Cl\(_2\) with 200 mM pyridine after excitation at 532 nm with \( \sim 10 \) ns laser pulses; detection occurred by time-averaging over a 200 ns period starting 4 \( \mu \)s after pulsed excitation. (d) Blue trace: UV-Vis spectrum of Ru(II)–xy–PhOH in CH\(_2\)Cl\(_2\); green trace: UV-Vis spectrum of Ru(II)–xy–PhO\(^-\) in CH\(_2\)Cl\(_2\) (deprotonation occurred using excess TBAOH).

There are two possible reaction pathways leading to Ru(II) / phenolate photoproducts: (i) simple photoacid behavior, and (ii) a photoinduced PCET reaction in which the phenolic proton is released to
the pyridine base and an electron is transferred from the phenol to the excited Ru(bpy)$_3^{2+}$ complex, followed by rapid (thermal) back-electron transfer from the reduced ruthenium complex to the phenoxy radical. Such a thermal back-electron transfer is thermodynamically possible because the Ru(bpy)$_3^{2+}$ unit is reduced at substantially more negative potential than the phenoxy radical; the relevant redox potentials are listed in Table 1. Based on these values the driving-force for the thermal back-electron transfer after initial PCET is ca. -1.37 eV for Ru(I)-PhO$^\cdot$ and ca. -1.02 eV for Ru(I)-xy-PhO$^\cdot$. Consequently, if such intermediates are formed, they potentially react very rapidly to Ru(II)-PhO$^-$ and Ru(II)-xy-PhO$^-$, particularly in view of the high driving-forces and the comparatively short donor-acceptor distances.

For the short Ru-PhOH dyad simple photoacid behavior is a very plausible photochemical reaction pathway for the following reason: Initial MLCT excitation occurs at least partially towards one of the unsubstituted bpy ancillary ligands, and the formal Ru(III) center then increases the acidity of the pendant phenol group. Electrostatically driven changes in acidity and basicity are a common phenomenon for metal complexes with deprotonatable / protonatable ligands$^5$, $55$, $61-63$ also for their excited states.$^{42, 64-67}$ In the longer Ru-xy-PhOH dyad, such electrostatic effects are expected to play a smaller role, and the reaction pathway involving PCET followed by Ru(I)-to-phenoxy electron transfer seems therefore more likely, but we are unable to observe Ru(I) or phenoxy intermediates. However, we will show below that the activation energies associated with the photoreactions in the Ru-PhOH and Ru-xy-PhOH dyads differ by an order of magnitude which supports the hypothesis that the two dyads react through different pathways to the Ru(II) / phenolate photoproducts. Based on this hypothesis we first focus on a kinetic analysis of the photoreactions in Ru-PhOH and Ru-xy-PhOH.
Figure 5. Rise of the transient absorption signal of Ru–PhOH (a) and Ru–PhOD (b) at 655 nm in presence of pyridine concentrations ranging from 1 to 6 mM; (c) Stern-Volmer plots based on the data from (a) and (b). The linear regression fits were forced to have intercepts of 0; their slopes correspond to the $K_{SV,H}$ and $K_{SV,D}$ values in Table 2. Luminescence decays in Ru–xy–PhOH (d) and Ru–xy–PhOD (e) at 600 nm in presence of pyridine concentrations ranging from 0 mM to 250 mM; (f) Stern-Volmer plots based on the data from (d) and (e). The linear regression fits were forced to have intercepts of 0; their slopes correspond to the $K_{SV,H}$ and $K_{SV,D}$ values in Table 2. (g) Plots of excited-state decay rate constants versus pyridine concentration for Ru-xy-PhOH and Ru-xy-PhOD with fits of eq. 2 to the experimental data as described in the text.
Figure 5a/5b shows the temporal evolution of the transient absorption signal at 655 nm as a function of time for Ru–PhOH (a) and Ru-PhOD (b). (Deuteration of the complexes occurred by repeated dissolution in CH$_3$CN/D$_2$O mixture and drying in vacuo). Analysis of these two sets of data (Figure 5c) yields Stern-Volmer constants of $K_{SV,H} = 1921\pm 37$ M$^{-1}$ and $K_{SV,D} = 2224\pm 98$ M$^{-1}$ for Ru–PhOH and Ru-PhOD, respectively (Table 2). Using a lifetime of 1168 ns for the Ru(bpy)$_3^{2+}$ unit of this dyad in pure CH$_2$Cl$_2$, one obtains rate constants for bimolecular excited-state quenching of $k_H = (1.7\pm 0.2) \cdot 10^9$ M$^{-1}$ s$^{-1}$ and $k_D = (2.0\pm 0.2) \cdot 10^9$ M$^{-1}$ s$^{-1}$ (Table 2).

In the Ru–xy–PhOH dyad excited-state quenching following pyridine addition is markedly less efficient than in Ru–PhOH, and we have found it most convenient to perform a Stern-Volmer analysis based on the luminescence lifetime data presented in Figure 5d/5e. The emission decays were measured at 600 nm after ~10-ns pulsed excitation at 532 nm, using normal Ru–xy–PhOH (d) and its deuterated analogue (e). The Stern-Volmer plot in Figure 5f yields $K_{SV,H} = 15.1\pm 0.5$ M$^{-1}$ and $K_{SV,D} = 18.4\pm 0.8$ M$^{-1}$ (Table 2).

**Table 2.** Kinetic parameters for the two dyads and excited-state quenching by pyridine.

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<th></th>
<th>$\tau_0$ [ns] $^a$</th>
<th>$K_{SV,X}$ [M$^{-1}$] $^b$</th>
<th>$k_X$ [M$^{-1}$ s$^{-1}$] $^c$</th>
<th>KIE = $k_H/k_D$</th>
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<tr>
<td>Ru-PhOX; $X = H$</td>
<td>1168</td>
<td>1921\pm 37</td>
<td>$(1.7\pm 0.2) \cdot 10^9$</td>
<td>0.8\pm 0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$X = D$</td>
<td></td>
<td>2224\pm 98</td>
<td>$(2.0\pm 0.2) \cdot 10^9$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ru-xy-PhOX; $X = H$</td>
<td>818</td>
<td>15.1\pm 0.5</td>
<td>$(1.9\pm 0.2) \cdot 10^7$</td>
<td>0.8\pm 0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$X = D$</td>
<td></td>
<td>18.4\pm 0.8</td>
<td>$(2.3\pm 0.3) \cdot 10^7$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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</table>

$^a$ 3MLCT lifetime in de-oxygenated CH$_2$Cl$_2$ at 293 K. $^b$ Stern-Volmer constants corresponding to the slopes of linear regression fits to the data in Figure 5c/5f (forced to have intercepts of 0). $^c$ Rate constants for bimolecular excited-state quenching were calculated using the relation $k_X = K_{SV,X} / \tau_0$.

The 3MLCT lifetime of Ru–xy–PhOH in absence of pyridine is 818 ns, and this leads to $k_H = (1.9\pm 0.2) \cdot 10^7$ M$^{-1}$ s$^{-1}$ and $k_D = (2.3\pm 0.3) \cdot 10^7$ M$^{-1}$ s$^{-1}$, which is roughly a factor of 100 lower than what has been determined for the shorter dyad (Table 2). We note that all experimental emission decays of Ru-xy-
PhOH exhibited both a fast and a slow decay component (the deviation from single exponential decay behavior is readily visible in Figure 5d/5e). We attribute the slow decay component to impurities of Ru(bpy)$_3^{2+}$ the luminescence of which is essentially unaffected by pyridine addition (at least in the concentration range used here). In our biexponential fits we fixed the slow component to 786 ns, which is what we have measured for the luminescence lifetime of Ru(bpy)$_3^{2+}$ in de-oxygenated CH$_2$Cl$_2$ at room temperature. The fast decay components arise due excited-state quenching by a photochemical reaction.

As discussed above, our hypothesis is that Ru-xy-PhOH reacts through a sequence of PCET and ET reactions. The initial PCET process forming Ru(I) and phenoxy intermediates is considered rate-determining, the ensuing Ru(I)-to-phenoxy radical is likely to be very rapid for reasons mentioned above.

A key problem with the foregoing Stern-Volmer analysis is that it does not take into account the hydrogen-bonding equilibrium between the phenol and pyridine in CH$_2$Cl$_2$. We address this shortcoming for the Ru-xy-PhOH dyad with Figure 5g which shows a plot of $k_{\text{obs}} - k_0$ versus the pyridine concentration and make a fit to the experimental data with eq. 2; $k_{\text{obs}}$ is the inverse of $\tau$ at a given pyridine concentration, $k_0$ is the excited-state decay rate constant in absence of pyridine, $[B]$ is the pyridine concentration, and $K_A$ is the association constant for the formation of hydrogen-bonded phenol-pyridine adducts. $k_{\text{PCET}}$ is the rate constant for intramolecular phenol-to-ruthenium electron transfer occurring in concert with release of the phenolic proton to the hydrogen-bonded pyridine.

$$k_{\text{obs}} - k_0 = k_{\text{PCET}} \cdot (K_A[B]) / (1+K_A[B])$$

(eq. 2)

This is a simplified version of an equation used recently in a very similar context; the simple form of eq. 2 is due to the absence of significant direct excited-state quenching by pyridine and the fact that intramolecular electron transfer is negligible in the absence of pyridine. We have attempted to determine the association constants in an independent manner, using a luminescence-intensity based method described previously. This analysis (Figure S3) yields $K_A = 1695\pm172$ M$^{-1}$ for Ru-PhOH and 14.2±1.3
M\(^{-1}\) for Ru-xy-PhOH. It is impossible to reconcile these \(K_A\) values with fits of eq. 2 to the experimental data in Figure 5g using \(k_{PCET}\) as a sole fit parameter; \(K_A\) values on the order of 10 M\(^{-1}\) or greater will lead to significant curvature in the calculated plots of \(k_{obs} - k_0\). What is more, the \(K_A\) value of 1695±172 M\(^{-1}\) seems far too large in comparison to other phenol-pyridine adducts in solvents of comparable polarity.\(^{40}\). We therefore decided to let both \(k_{PCET}\) and \(K_A\) vary freely in our fits to the data in Figure 5g, but this procedure naturally leads to large error bars. We find \(k_{PCET} = (1.8\pm1.0)\cdot10^7\text{ s}^{-1} / K_A = 1.2\pm0.8\text{ M}^{-1}\) for Ru-xy-PhOH and \(k_{PCET} = (2.1\pm1.4)\cdot10^7\text{ s}^{-1} / K_A = 1.4\pm1.2\text{ M}^{-1}\) for Ru-xy-PhOD. Evidently, we can only make order-of-magnitude estimates for \(k_{PCET}\) and \(K_A\) using this method.

**H/D kinetic isotope effects and activation energies.** In room temperature solution essentially no H/D kinetic isotope effects (KIEs) are observed in the data from Figure 5 even though proton motion is likely to be involved in the deactivation processes of both dyads (Table 2): In both cases we find \(k_H/k_D = 0.8\pm0.2\). However, in the course of determining the activation energies for the photoreactions of the two dyads we found that the shorter one exhibits a temperature dependent H/D KIE because for Ru-PhOD the activation energy is 3 times larger than for Ru-PhOH:

**Figure 6.** Arrhenius plots based on the rate constants for formation of the photoproducts obtained after pulsed excitation of (a) Ru–PhOH/D in CH\(_2\)Cl\(_2\) with 2 mM pyridine (experimental observable: luminescence decay detected at 600 nm) and (b) Ru–xy–PhOH/D in CH\(_2\)Cl\(_2\) with 200 mM pyridine (experimental observable: luminescence decay detected at 600 nm). Black circles: normal samples; red circles: deuterated samples. The solid lines are linear regression fits from the slopes of which the activation energies \(E_A\) in Table 3 were calculated.
Table 3. Activation energies ($E_A$) for the photoreactions of the two dyads.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>$E_A$ (X = H) [eV]</th>
<th>$E_A$ (X = D) [eV]</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ru–PhOX</td>
<td>0.010±0.002</td>
<td>0.032±0.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ru–xy–PhOX</td>
<td>0.112±0.017</td>
<td>0.121±0.014</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Arrhenius plot in Figure 6a shows the rates for formation of Ru(II)-PhO$^-$ after photoexcitation of Ru–PhOH (black circles) and Ru-PhOD (red circles) in 1,2-dichloroethane in presence of 2 mM pyridine; the individual data points were obtained from emission decay measurements (Figure S4), and the lifetimes extracted from these data are in good agreement with the risetimes observed for the transient absorption signal at 655 nm (data not shown). Linear regression yields an activation energy ($E_A$) of 0.010±0.002 eV for Ru–PhOH, whereas $E_A = 0.032±0.004$ eV for Ru-PhOD (Table 3).

For the Ru–xy–PhOH dyad (Figure 6b) we determine activation energies which are much more similar for proteo- and deutero-analogues: Using emission lifetimes as an experimental observable and a pyridine concentration of 200 mM in 1,2-dichloroethane (Figure S4) we determine $E_A = 0.112±0.017$ eV for Ru–xy–PhOH and $E_A = 0.121±0.014$ eV for Ru–xy–PhOD (Table 3). The factor of 10 increase of $E_A$ between Ru–xy–PhOH and Ru–PhOH supports the hypothesis that the two dyads react via different pathways to the Ru(II)/phenolate photoproducts. The factor of 3 increase of $E_A$ between Ru–PhOH and Ru-PhOD possibly reflects the lower zero-point energy of the O–D vibration with respect to the O–H vibration. The association constant for formation of hydrogen-bonded phenol-pyridine adducts is temperature-dependent; however, we expect that this hydrogen-bonding equilibrium is similarly influenced by temperature in all dyads considered here.

Thermal backward reactions with inverse H/D kinetic isotope effects. The transient absorption intensities at 655 nm in the shorter dyad and at 395 nm in the longer dyad exhibit single exponential
decays which, in the 2 mM – 200 mM pyridine concentration range, are essentially independent of the exact amount of pyridine present. Under these conditions the concentration of pyridinium ions seems to determine the rate for reaction of the deprotonated phenols back to their initial forms. The pyridinium concentration in turn is limited by the number of dyads which have undergone photochemical reaction, and this concentration is always lower than $10^{-5}$ M. In de-oxygenated CH$_2$Cl$_2$ in presence of pyridine the average decay time of the transient absorption signal at 655 nm (Figure 5a) is 50.9 µs when using Ru–PhOH and 34.2 µs when using Ru-PhOD (Table 4). Representative decay curves (obtained at a pyridine concentration of 3 mM) are shown in Figure S5a of the Supporting Information. In de-oxygenated CH$_2$Cl$_2$ in presence of up to 200 mM pyridine the transient absorption intensity at 395 nm (Figure 5c) has an average lifetime of 31.9 µs when using Ru–xy–PhOH and an average lifetime of 19.1 µs when using Ru–xy–PhOD (Table 4). Representative decay curves for the longer dyad are shown in Figure S5b. The occurrence of inverse H/D kinetic isotope effects of 0.7±0.1 for Ru-PhOH and 0.6±0.1 for Ru-xy-PhOH is rather unusual but at present the origin of this phenomenon is not clear.

### Table 4. Time constants and kinetic isotope effects for thermal back reaction.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>$\tau_{BR}$ (X = H) [µs]</th>
<th>$\tau_{BR}$ (X = D) [µs]</th>
<th>KIE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ru-PhOX</td>
<td>50.9</td>
<td>34.2</td>
<td>0.7±0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ru-xy-PhOX</td>
<td>31.9</td>
<td>19.1</td>
<td>0.6±0.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In a previously investigated rhenium(I)-phenol dyad (Re-PhOH) we had also observed a phenolate species as a major photoproduct (in CH$_3$CN/H$_2$O), while for a rhenium(I)-xylene-phenol dyad (Re-xy-PhOH) the spectroscopic data was consistent with a PCET reaction leading to a reduced rhenium complex and a phenoxy radical. Interestingly, the PCET phenoxy radical photoproduct is much shorter-lived (85 ns) than the phenolate photoproducts observed for Ru-PhOH (50.9 µs), Ru-xy-PhOH (31.9 µs), and Re-xy-PhOH (14 µs). It thus seems that phenolate protonation in these dyads occurs
significantly more slowly than the (thermal) PCET reaction leading to disappearance of the phenoxy radical in Re-xy-PhOH.

**SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION**

In pure CH$_2$Cl$_2$ none of the two dyads exhibits any photochemistry, neither electron transfer nor proton transfer nor PCET. When pyridine is present, selective excitation of their Ru(bpy)$_3^{2+}$ moieties leads to photoproducts containing Ru(II) in the ground state and a phenolate moiety. In principle, phenol deprotonation can occur via two different reaction mechanisms: (i) direct proton release from the excited dyad or (ii) initial rate-determining PCET forming Ru(I) and phenoxy intermediates followed by rapid (because highly exergonic) phenoxy-to-Ru(I) electron transfer. Photoacid behavior seems plausible for Ru-PhOH because of the short ruthenium – phenol distance but is less likely in the longer Ru-xy-PhOH dyad. The observation of activation energies which differ by an order of magnitude for the photochemical reactions of Ru-PhOH and Ru-xy-PhOH supports the hypothesis that the two dyads react through different reaction pathways.

The present study illustrates one of the key difficulties that can be associated with the observation of intramolecular photoinduced PCET: Initial excited-state PCET can be followed by rapid (thermal) electron transfer in the reverse direction, thereby impeding the observation of PCET photoproducts. In practice it then becomes challenging to distinguish such a reaction sequence from simple photoacid behavior.
EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

UV-Vis spectra were recorded on a Cary 300 instrument from Varian, steady-state luminescence was measured on a Fluorolog-3 instrument from Horiba Jobin-Yvon using a TBC-07C photomultiplier from Hamamatsu. Transient absorption and time-resolved emission was measured on the LP920-KS flash photolysis system from Edinburgh Instruments employing an iCCD camera from Andor and an R928 photomultiplier for detection. The laser excitation source was a frequency-doubled Quantel Brilliant b laser. Temperature control in the activation energy experiments occurred with a TC-125 instrument from Quantum Northwest. For cyclic voltammetry a Versatstat3-200 potentiostat from Princeton Applied Research was employed, using a Pt disk working electrode and two silver wires as quasi-reference and counter-electrodes. Synthetic protocols and product characterization data are given in the Supporting Information. For product characterization we used the NMR, mass spectrometry, and elemental analysis equipment described previously.\textsuperscript{30, 54} Errors reported for rate constants and KIEs are standard deviations, as obtained from corresponding fits and based on the experience that our kinetic measurements are accurate to ±10%.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

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SUPPORTING INFORMATION PARAGRAPH
Detailed synthetic protocols and product characterization data, additional electrochemical, luminescence and transient absorption data. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at http://pubs.acs.org.

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SYNOPSIS TOC