



## Review

Long-range electron transfer in artificial systems with  $d^6$  and  $d^8$  metal photosensitizers

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## ABSTRACT

This review article summarizes the research progress made since the year 2000 in the field of long-range electron transfer with synthetic systems that use  $d^6$  or  $d^8$  metal complexes as photosensitizers. This includes charge transfer over distances greater than 10 Å in both covalent and noncovalent donor–bridge–acceptor systems. Metal complexes of Ru(II), Os(II), Re(I), Ir(III), Ir(I), and Pt(II) are considered.

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**1. Introduction**

Long-range electron transfer plays a key role in chemistry and biology. Two particularly important processes that involve charge transfer over long distances are photosynthesis and respiration [1–3]. This has stimulated much research on both biological and artificial long-range electron transfer systems [4–15]. After all, it is unusual for chemical reactions to occur between two reactants that are separated spatially by 10 Å or more. A common approach to experimental investigations in this field has been to study redox reactions that can be triggered by light, whereby the progress of a long-range electron transfer can often be resolved temporally. Such kinetic information is of particular interest for the construction of artificial systems that emulate natural photosynthesis since to an important extent, solar energy conversion is a matter of speeding-up desired energy-storing (long-range) electron transfer and slowing-down undesired energy-wasting reactions [16]. The experimental approach of photoinducing the electron transfer between distant redox partners has been applied to both biological and synthetic systems. For instance, redox-active proteins have been equipped with transition metal complexes that serve as phototriggers for long-range electron transfer involving the protein active sites [17]. On the other hand, purely artificial donor–bridge–acceptor systems have been investigated in large numbers, for example porphyrin–quinone molecules that seek a close chemical analogy to the redox partners involved in the primary light-induced reactions of photosynthesis [18,19]. Many other systems considered functional mimics of the photosynthetic reaction center are based on transition metal complexes whereby  $d^6$  and  $d^8$  metal diimines play a prominent role [20]. It is on recent progress in this particular sub-area of the long-range electron transfer field that this review article will focus. More precisely this includes studies on artificial systems that make use of  $d^6$  or  $d^8$  metal complexes for investigation of light-triggered electron transfer proceeding over distances of at least 10 Å. Work published since the year 2000 will be reviewed. In a sense, the current article could therefore be considered an update of previously published reviews, either on long-range electron transfer in general [18,20–25], or on charge transfer over long distances involving metal complexes of ruthenium(II) [26–34], rhenium(I) [14], osmium(II) [26,30], iridium(III) [28,35], iridium(I) [36], and platinum(II) [37]. Indeed, these are the most popular inorganic sensitizers. We begin with a short introductory tutorial on basic concepts used in this review. It is kept brief intentionally since there exist already several excellent publications that give detailed surveys of fundamental aspects of photoinduced electron transfer [18,20,21,38,39].

All  $d^6$  metal photosensitizers considered in this review are hexacoordinate, and the metal ions are practically in octahedral microsymmetry. In strict  $O_h$  symmetry, the set of five d-orbitals that are degenerate in the free metal ion splits into three essentially nonbonding degenerate  $t_{2g}$  orbitals and two degenerate antibond-

ing orbitals with  $e_g$  symmetry (Fig. 1). These three- and two-fold degeneracies are further lifted by deviations from  $O_h$  to lower point symmetries, but this effect is neglected here for simplicity. The energetic splitting between the  $t_{2g}$ - and the  $e_g$ -orbital sets is essentially a function of both the chemical nature of the metal and its ligands. The polypyridine ligands relevant to this review exert fairly strong ligand fields. As far as the metal is concerned, the 4d and 5d electrons of second- and third-row metals have a larger spatial distribution than the 3d electrons of first-row metals. These two facts lead to a situation for octahedral  $4d^6$  and  $5d^6$  polypyridine complexes in which the HOMO corresponds to the metal-localized  $t_{2g}$ -orbitals, and the LUMO is an antibonding  $\pi^*$ -orbital that is localized on a polypyridine ligand; the ligand field is sufficiently strong for the  $e_g$  metal orbitals to lie energetically above the ligand  $\pi^*$  orbitals. This particular electronic structure forms the basis for the unique photoredox properties of this class of compounds: upon photoexcitation with visible light, an electron is promoted from the  $t_{2g}$  to the  $\pi^*$  orbital, resulting in a metal-to-ligand charge transfer (MLCT) state (Fig. 1, right) that is long-lived (>100 ns) in many cases. During this excited-state lifetime, the redox potentials of the complex are dramatically altered: the metal complexes become both better oxidants and reductants than in their electronic ground states (their reduction can now occur by hosting the additional electron in a  $t_{2g}$ -orbital instead of a higher-energy  $\pi^*$  orbital; conversely their oxidation occurs by removal of the excited  $\pi^*$  electron which is more readily abstracted than a  $t_{2g}$  electron in the ground state). The excited-state oxidation and reduction potentials are generally estimated by subtracting and adding, respectively, the energy of the electronic origin of the emissive  $^3\text{MLCT}$  state ( $E_{00}$ ) from the ground-state potentials:

$$E(M^+/*M) = E(M^+/M) - E_{00} \quad (1)$$

$$E(*M/M^-) = E(M/M^-) + E_{00} \quad (2)$$

Based on these photoinduced redox potential changes, electron transfer can be phototriggered: reactions that are thermodynamically uphill from the ground state become exergonic upon light excitation. This is the principle of photosensitizing in the vast majority of systems considered in this review. Depending on the exact values of ground-state potentials and MLCT energies, a specific  $d^6$  polypyridine photosensitizer may either be used preferably as an excited-state reductant or oxidant. The Re(I) and most of the Ir(III) systems mentioned in this review behave as excited-state acceptors, whereas the Os(II) complexes are donors. Ru(II) sensitizers can be both.

The energy level diagram in Fig. 2 illustrates the photoinduced processes that may occur upon excitation of a photoreductant, i.e., an excited-state donor: from the MLCT-excited state, a so-called charge-separated state with an oxidized donor and a reduced acceptor is thermodynamically accessible via an electron transfer process that is referred to as photoinduced charge-separation.

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