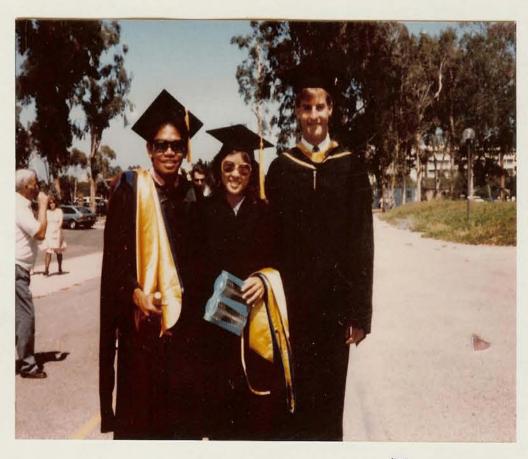
# PROTOPHYSICAL INVESTIGATION OF IXIBIUM-CARRON SIGMA BONDED COMPLEXES

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# STRUCTURAL CHARACTERIZATION AND PHOTOPHYSICAL INVESTIGATION OF IRIDIUM-CARBON SIGMA BONDED COMPLEXES

A Dissertation submitted in partial satisfaction of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

in

Chemistry

by

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DISRT ME

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1988

# I would like to dedicate my dissertation to the ones I love most, my family.

To mom and dad (Nieves and Joe),
thank you for the support—
spiritual, emotional and financial.
thank you for never letting me doubt myself
and my abilities.

most of all thank you for being my parents. To Noel, Lelian and Grace,

thank you for always being patience with me and challenging me always to do better. And especially to Will,

thank you for always putting our needs in front of your own.

your example of hard work and determination has always been an inspiration to me.

Most of all, thank you all for always being there for me.

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"Synthesis, Structure, ElectroChemistry and Photophysics of Methyl-Substituted Phenylpyridine Ortho-metalated Ir(III) Complexes"; Fred O. Garces, K.A. King, R.J. Watts, <u>Inorganic Chemistry</u> 1988, <u>27</u> 3464.

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7/88 "[Ir(bpy-C<sup>3</sup>,N')(bpy-N,N')Cl]<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>2</sub>, the first dichloro-bridged dimer of a bipyridine complex of Ir(III)"; Southern California Inorganic Photochemical Conference, Lake Cachuma, University of California, Santa Barbara, California.

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"Structural and Photophysical Investigation of [Ir(bpy-N,N')(bpy-C<sup>3</sup>,N')Cl]<sub>2</sub><sup>2+</sup>: A Dichloro-bridged Ortho-metalated Dimer"; F.O.Garces, P.J. Spellane, R.J.Watts, XII IUPAC Symposium on Photochemistry, Bologna, Italy, July 17, 22, 1988.

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# **ABSTRACT**

# STRUCTURAL CHARACTERIZATION AND PHOTOPHYSICAL INVESTIGATION OF IRIDIUM-CARBON SIGMA BONDED COMPLEXES

by

# Fred Omega Garces

The purpose of the work in Part I was to explore the enhancement of the already-high photoreducing potential of orthometalated complexes such as [Ir(ppy)2Cl]2 and [Ir(ppy)2bpy] by introducing functional groups onto the ppy ligand. The ligands 3-methy1-2-phenylpyridine (mppy) and 2(p-toly1)pyridine (ptpy), which contain methyl groups donating electron density to either the phenyl ring (ptpy) or the pyridyl ring (mppy) were used for this purpose. In the course of this investigation, structural characterizations by NMR techniques and crystallographic analysis indicated that these complexes possess mutually cis Ir-C bonds; the dimers are D2 symmetric and the monomers are C2 symmetric. H and 13C resonances were completely assigned in the NMR spectra.

Electrochemical and photophysical investigations suggest that the electron density about the iridium metal of these complexes are enhanced by the modification of ppy ligands. Our results show that these methyl-substituted ortho-metalated iridium complexes are much stronger photoreducing agents than their non-substituted counterparts.

Preparation and characterization of four novel iridium bipyridyl complexes are discussed in Part 2 of this dissertation. Iridium (IV) seems to be a key ingredient in the preparation of these complexes. Structural characterizations suggest that the first of these bpy complexes is an ortho-metalated dichloro-bridged bpy dimer, [Ir(bpy-G<sup>3</sup>,N')(bpy-N,N')Gl]<sub>2</sub><sup>2+</sup>, I. Characterizations of I include, <sup>1</sup>H and <sup>13</sup>C NMR spectroscopic; mass spectroscopic; electrochemical; photophysical (including acid / base measurements) techniques.

The second complex exists as a [Ir(Hbpy-C<sup>3</sup>,N')(bpy-N,N')Cl<sub>2</sub>]<sup>+</sup> cation and an [IrCl<sub>4</sub>(bpy)]<sup>-</sup> anion in an ion pair arrangement as shown by crystallographic techniques, II. NMR and mass spectroscopy provide good evidence for ortho-metalated bpy ligands in the cationic moiety.

Our spectroscopic and elemental analysis evidence for the third complex suggest an Ir(IV), cis-  $[Ir^{IV}(bpy-N,N')_2Cl_2]^{+2}$  species, III. And finally the fourth complex isolated has been identified as the trans- $[Ir(bpy)_2Cl_2]^+$ , IV.

The last chapter describes other ortho-metalated iridium (III) complexes similar to those described in Part I. NMR spectroscopic and photophysical results are presented.

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# **FORWARD**

This dissertation covers two major area of research. The first is ortho-metalated iridium 2-phenylpyridine complexes in which the ppy ligand has been structurally modified by a methyl group either in the phenyl ring (ptpy) or pyridyl ring (mppy). Structural and photophysical characterization of these complexes is described in Part I, Chapters 2, 3 and 4.

The second major area of research is one I have been involved with for just this past year. It involves iridium bipyridyl complexes. Using Ir(IV) in the synthetic procedure results in four novel complexes. Our results show that two of these are orthometalated bpy complexes. The emphasis in Part 2, Chapters 5 and 6, is the structural characterization of these four bpy complexes.

A general overview of photochemistry is described in Chapter 1.

This chapter is intended to give a simplified view of how the measurements in the thesis relates to photoconversion system.

Chapter 7 presents some ortho-metalated iridium complexes which

I prepared or characterized during my tenure here.

The appendix is a package of experimental procedures. NMR is discussed in great length because of its significant in my research. Also in the appendix is an extension of the acknowledgement page found in page iii.

The following are structural representations of all the iridium complexes discussed in this dissertation.

[IR(PPY)2BPY]+

[IR(PTPY)2BPY]+

[IR(BPY-C3,N')(BPY-N,N')CL]22+

[IR(HBPY-C $^3$ , N')(BPY-N, N')CL $_2$ ]+ [IRCL $_4$ (BPY)]-

[IRCL2(BPY-N,N')2]2+

TRANS-[IR(BPY)2CL2]+

MER-IR (MPPY) 3

[IR (MPPY) 2PHEN]+

IR (MPPY) 2PIC

[IR(STPY)2CL]2

#### CHAPTER 1

ORTHO-METALATED COMPLEXES AND STORAGE OF SOLAR ENERGY: A GENERAL OVERVIEW.

The whole of science is nothing more than a refinement of everyday thinking.

- Albert Einstein

Our group started research in ortho-metalated complexes when Professor Watts first discovered an isomer of  ${\rm Ir}({\rm bpy})_3^{3+}.^{1,2}$  The structure of this isomer,  $[{\rm Ir}({\rm bpy-c^3},{\rm N})({\rm bpy-N,N'})_2]^{2+}$ , was the center of numerous debates, which were finally settled by crystallographic analysis. The crystal structure showed that the product in question possesses two normal chelating bpy ligands while the third was bound to the iridium center via metalation; through the N' atom from one pyridyl ring and the  ${\rm C^3}$  atom of the other pyridyl ring, Figure 1.1. Later Watts et al. showed that the structure of this isomer in solution is similar to that in the solid state. NMR analysis included two dimensional shift correlation spectroscopy (COSY) to assist in the assignment of all the proton resonances in the  $^{1}{\rm H}$  NMR spectrum and to provide insight on the electronic

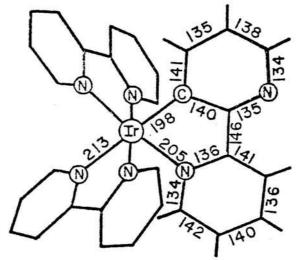


FIGURE 1.1
Structure of [Ir(bpy-C<sup>3</sup>,N)(bpy-N,N')<sub>2</sub>]<sup>2+</sup>. <sup>3</sup>

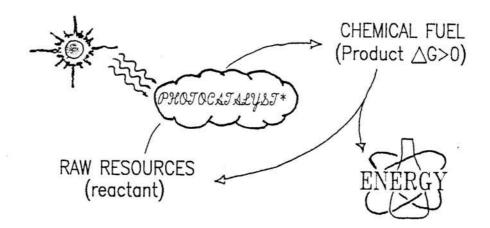
properties of the complex. It was this pioneering work with  $[\text{Ir}(\text{bpy-C}^3,\text{N'})(\text{bpy-N},\text{N'})_2]^{+2}$  which led our research group to the study of ortho-metalated complexes and to rely on NMR techniques for the elucidation of molecular structures.

The topics of research presented in this dissertation involve the structural characterization and photophysical investigation of iridium-carbon  $\sigma$ -bonded complexes which are capable of photosensitizing chemical reactions for solar storage via fuel generation. The experimental arsenal covers (1) synthetic schemes to prepare targeted complexes, (2) NMR techniques and X-ray crystallography to elucidate structures, (3) cyclic voltammetry to determine potentials of the ground state, (4) absorption, emission and excited state absorption measurements to characterize the excited state, (5) laser spectroscopy, Stern-Volmer quenching and

quantum yield measurements to monitor lifetimes and understand electron and energy transfer processes. Furthermore, investigation on the dependence of temperature, solvent, excitation and pH were used to elucidate electronic transitions in some of these complexes. Ultimately, results from these experiments will enable us to determine the viability of these complexes as photoreagents.

The development of solar-driven artificial processes (photoconversion systems) that convert abundant resources into chemical fuels, e.g.,  $2\text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{h}\nu \longrightarrow 2\text{H}_2 + \text{O}_2$  is important if only to sustain current energy requirements for the near future. Photoconversion mechanisms in photobiology, photoelectrochemistry, photovoltaics and photochemistry provide systems capable of harnessing the sun's energy cleanly and efficiently. More recently, Jean-Marie Lehn suggests the development of supramolecular devices for this purpose. The main component fundamental to the photoconversion system is the photosensitizer. Characterization of complexes capable of photosensitizing chemical reactions is the focus of research in Professor Watts' laboratory.

Kutal<sup>8</sup> describes the main components of a photoconversion system, Figure 1.2, in which solar irradiation drives a photochemical reaction in a thermodynamically unfavorable direction,  $\Delta G > 0$ , to form products (chemical fuel). Photosensitizers are used to absorb the incident light because in most instances the reactant(s) do not absorb solar irradiation. Reversal of the cycle by application of heat or catalyst, liberates the stored energy.



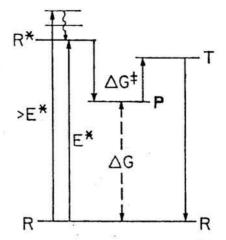
# FIGURE 1.2

Fundamental components of an abiotic photoconversion system. 8

This system will most likely require electron relays and redox catalysts in addition to the ones already mentioned. Nevertheless, as mentioned, the gist of a photoconversion system is the photosensitizer and its ability to absorb electromagnetic radiation, preferably at wavelengths utilizing the solar spectral range and then, through its excited state, activate inert substrates such as  $\rm H_2O$  and  $\rm CO_2$  in order to transform optical energy to chemical potential energy stored in bonds. The photo-generation of excited state precursors (substrate bound to the metal catalyst) having sufficient redox potentials leads to substrate reduction or oxidation via multi-electron transfer processes which are necessary for product formation.

Kutal. 8 Bolton 9 and Balzani 10 discuss several criteria fundamental for a viable photoconversion energy storage cycle. These criteria are: (1) The reactions in the photochemical cycles should be capable of operating over a wide band width of the visible and ultraviolet portion of the solar spectrum with a threshold wavelength well into the red or near infrared. In other words, the photosensitizer should absorb visible light. (2) The photochemical reaction must be endergonic,  $\Delta G > 0$ . That is, upon absorption of electromagnetic radiation the system must proceed in the thermodynamically unfavorable direction. (3) The endergonic photoreactions must be cyclic with only raw materials and solar irradiation being consumed. That is, the photosensitizer must be regenerated after each cycle. (4) The quantum yield should be near unity. The efficiency of converting absorbed photons to chemical energy must be high. (5) For long term storage of the products, the back reaction must be extremely slow under ambient conditions. Furthermore, upon heating or addition of catalyst, the back reaction should proceed controllably, rapidly and specifically. ensure maximum efficiency, side reactions leading toward the depletion of photosensitizers, reactants, products and/or catalysts must be at a minimum. (7) Finally, reagents and other necessary components of the photoconversion system should be available, manageable, inexpensive and nontoxic.

There are inherent limitations in photoconversion processes aside these stringent requirements which limit the overall



ENERGY STORAGE: R hv P

ENERGY RELEASE: P heat catalyst R

# FIGURE 1.3

Energy diagram for photoconversion storage cycle.  $^8$  efficiency of converting solar energy to chemical fuel.  $^8,11$  Figure 1.3 illustrates an energy diagram for a photoconversion process. The diagram shows that only photons with energies corresponding to  $E^*$  will be absorbed by the reactant R, without significant waste. Photons having energies less than the threshold value  $E^*$ , will not be absorbed. Furthermore, absorption of photons having energies greater than  $E^*$  results in the population of vibrationally excited levels of  $R^*$ ; internal conversion results in the lowest vibrational level of  $R^*$  to be populated and any energy in excess of  $E^*$  is lost to the surroundings. In addition to absorption losses, the conversion of raw materials to useful fuels will require free energy from the system to prevent the back reaction. As such, the available energy corresponds to  $\Delta G$  and not  $E^*$ ; the system will in effect lose energy due to storage.

Ross and Hsiao et al.  $^{12}$ , calculated the maximum thermodynamic efficiency for an abiotic solar conversion system to be 32% at 840 nm, taking into consideration the fraction of solar power available at the bandgap energy. If losses due to an activation barrier ( $\Delta G^{\ddagger}$ ) are figured into the calculation, the gross efficiency drops to 9.2  $\pm$  0.8%. This, however, is still comparable to the 5.6  $\pm$  1.2% efficiency for photosynthesis.  $^{13}$ 

TABLE 1.1

Endergonic fuel-generation reactions

Reaction	ΔG (KJ/mol)	n (mol)	E (V)
$H_2O(1) + h\nu \longrightarrow H_2(g) + 1/2 O_2(g)$ :	237	2	1.23
$CO_2(g) + 2H_2O(1) + h\nu \longrightarrow CH_3OH(1) +3/2 O_2(g)$ :	703	6	1.21
$CO_2(g) + 2H_2O(1) + h\nu \longrightarrow CH_4(g) + 2O_2(g)$ :	818	8	1.06
$N_2(g) + 3H_2O(1) + h\nu \longrightarrow 2NH_3(g) + 3/2 O_2(g)$ :	678	6	1.17

Raw materials for photoconversion processes are readily available from our environment. Economical, ecological and energetic considerations indicate that water, carbon dioxide and dinitrogen are the most attractive raw materials for photoconversion

processes. Table 1.1 shows some of the thermodynamic parameters of some endergonic fuel generation reactions 9.

All the reactions shown in Table 1.1 involve multi-electron changes. Herein lies the problem; photoredox reactions of transition metal complexes generally occur with the transfer of only one electron per absorbed photon. How can a one-electron redox process satisfy a multi-electron reaction in such a way as to avoid formation of high energy radicals that retard the efficiency of the photoconversion process? The answer lies in charge—storage catalyst whose role is to mediate multi-electron changes by accumulating the proper number of electrons for delivery to the reactants and furthermore stabilizing any intermediates that form.

Traditional photosensitizers charge-storage catalyst such as Ru(bpy)<sub>3</sub><sup>2+</sup> operate in aqueous media. However, recent emphasis has been toward the development of complexes capable of operating in both aqueous and nonaqueous media and possessing multiple functionality as photosensitizer / relay / catalyst. Functions of metal complexes may be classified as: (1) electron relays in order act as intermediate electron storage devices, (2) redox catalysts to enhance the rate of the redox processes, and (3) redox substrates to regenerate the photosensitizer or catalyst. The ability of a metal complex to play multiple roles in photoconversion systems is contingent on its excited state (as well as ground state) properties.

The excited states of metal complexes are useful in photochemical conversion because they participate in rapid outer sphere electron transfer, sustain long lifetimes, possess favorable redox potentials and are accessible by absorption of visible light. Balzani<sup>10</sup> points out that an excited state induced in a molecule by absorption of light becomes virtually a new species with its own chemical and physical properties distinct from those corresponding to the ground state molecule. In the excited state, the molecule has a higher electron affinity and a lower ionization potential. This asset makes the excited state a better oxidant and a better reductant than that of the ground state.

The Latimer diagram of  $\operatorname{Ru}(\operatorname{bpy})_3^{2+}$ , Figure 1.4, shows that the excited state is both a moderately strong oxidant (-0.86 V vs. NHE) and a very strong reductant (+0.84 V) compared to the ground state

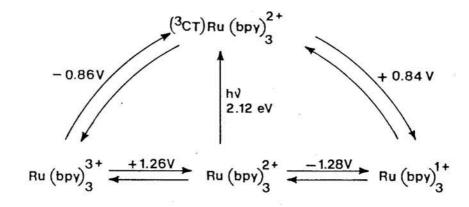


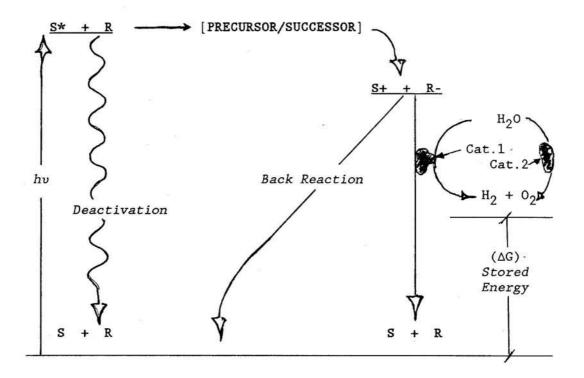
FIGURE 1.4

Latimer diagram for Ru(bpy)<sub>3</sub><sup>2+</sup> (vs. NHE).<sup>10</sup>

which has an oxidation and reduction potential of +1.26 and -1.28 V, respectively. Moreover, the excited state redox potential of metal complexes such as Ru(bpy)<sub>3</sub><sup>2+</sup>, may be altered ("tuned") by several types of structural modifications. Modifications include: (1) changing the central metal, (2) replacing some or all of the ligands with other suitable ligands i.e., 2-phenylpyridine (ppy), (3) modifying the ligands by adding suitable functional groups, and (4) using mixed bimetallic complexes to access, within a single chemical moiety, redox properties associated with each monomeric complex.

Changing the metal in Ru(bpy)<sub>3</sub><sup>2+</sup> to Ir(III) for example, produces a complex, Ir(bpy)<sub>3</sub><sup>3+</sup>, with excellent photo-oxidizing power (-2 V vs. NHE).<sup>14</sup> On the other hand, replacing bpy in Ir(bpy)<sub>3</sub><sup>3+</sup> with ppy produces a very strong photo-reductant, Ir(ppy)<sub>3</sub>.<sup>15</sup> Species containing both bpy and ppy coordinated to a common metal ion center such as in [Ir(ppy)<sub>2</sub>bpy]<sup>+</sup>, have intermediate photoredox capabilities and can operate as either photo-oxidants or photo-reductants.<sup>16</sup> Thus, the optimization of photoredox properties of metal complexes can be provided by the combination of orthometalating ligands such as ppy and its derivatives with coordinating ligands such as bpy.

The metal-carbon bond in ortho-metalated complexes can be described as a 2-electron, 2-center covalent  $\sigma$ -bond with bonding density along the metal-carbon internuclear axis. The intriguing properties manifested from the metal carbon  $\sigma$ -bond make orthometalated complexes viable for many photosensitizer applications.



## FIGURE 1.5

Energy reaction coordinate diagram for substrate (S) and reactant (R) undergoing electron transfer processes. 19

Favorable properties imparted through ortho-metalation include:  $^{17,18}$  1) An enhancement of the excited state redox potential to drive endergonic chemical reactions as a consequence of the increase of the energy of metal-localized states because of the greater ligand field strength of ppy over bpy. 2) The availability of low-lying MLCT states from the enhancement of electron density about the metal center from the strong  $\sigma$ -donor ability of the metal-carbon bond. 3) Cathodic shift in the oxidation potential of the metal center in

ortho-metalated complexes giving rise to very strong photoreductants but relatively weak photooxidants.

Gratzel<sup>19</sup> discusses three examples of suitable light-harvesting units which utilize metal complexes to capture photons and convert their energy to storable chemical fuel. The first two units consist of colloidal semiconductors and are more efficient than the third unit. The third, and most fundamental unit, comprises the sensitizer/relay pair. This unit, however, has poor efficiency because the area in which light induced charge separation and redox catalysis occurs, is not confined in a concentrated area.

In its most basic form, the unit consist of a sensitizer (S) and a relay (R), Figure 1.5. The illustration shows no spontaneous electron transfer occurring between the two species, S and R in the ground state. Upon excitation however, the sensitizer becomes virtually a new molecule with respect to the corresponding ground state thus exhibits different chemical properties. The sensitizer can then diffuse to an electron relay forming the precursor  $S*\cdots R$ . During this encounter, electron transfer may occur forming the successor  $[S^+\cdots R^-]$ ; at this stage a majority of the photon energy absorbed by S can be converted into chemical potential through the product ions  $S^+$  and  $R^-$ , see equation 1.1. These ions can then convert raw materials into chemical fuel, as shown in Figure 1.5.

(1.1)  $S + R + h\nu \rightarrow S* + R = S* \cdot \cdot \cdot R = [S^+ \cdot \cdot \cdot R^-] \rightarrow S^+ + R^-$ Precursor Successor Redox product The electron transfer within the precursor,  $[S^+\cdots R^-]$  is governed by the Franck-Condon principle in which the nuclear positions and nuclear velocities remain essentially unchanged during the electronic transition.  $^{20\text{-}22}$  The potential energy diagram, Figure 1.6, shows that there is an energy state where the precursor and successor have identical energies. At this point in the precursor/successor encounter, electron transfer occurs without violating the Franck-Condon principle. Upon electron transfer, the inner vibration coordinates of the molecules and the outer solvation sphere adjust to a nonequilibrium position. Consequently there is an expenditure of free energy of reorganization  $\Delta G^*_{\lambda}$  in the system.  $\Delta G^*_{\lambda}$  may be related to the rate constant of the electron transfer event by the equation 1.2.

(1.2) 
$$K_{t} = \gamma_{N} K_{e1} EXP \left\{-\Delta G^{*}_{\lambda} / RT\right\}$$

In this equation,  $\gamma_{\rm N}$  is the effective vibration frequency, K<sub>e1</sub> is the electronic transmission coefficient, R is the universal gas constant and T is the temperature in Kelvins.

Furthermore,  $\Delta G^*_{\lambda}$ , a kinetic parameter, can be related to the free energy,  $\Delta G^*$ , a thermodynamic parameter, for electronic transfer, by the Marcus-Hush equation 1.3.

(1.3) 
$$\Delta G_{\lambda}^{*} = \Delta G_{\lambda}^{*}(0) \left[1 + \{\Delta G^{0}/4 \Delta G_{\lambda}^{*}(0)\}\right]^{2}$$

Here,  $\Delta G^*_{\lambda}(o)$  is the free energy of reorganization. The Marcus equation implies that the free-energy of activation is expected to

decrease (meaning the reaction rate increases) when the reaction is thermodynamically favored. There is a point, however, in which the rate decreases at even higher thermodynamic driving force; this is called the Marcus inverted region. 20

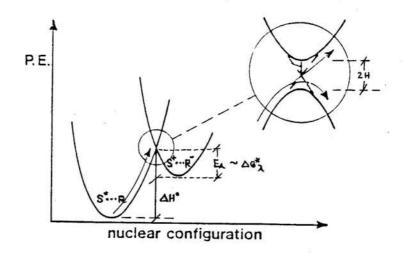


Figure 1.6

Classical model for electron-transfer process. 6,19

electron transfer rates can be measured by Stern-Volmer quenching. 23,24 Compounds which accept electrons are referred to as oxidative quenchers, and compounds which donate electrons are referred to as reductive quenchers. Table 1.2 lists some quenchers along with their redox potentials. 25-28 By lifetime or emission intensity measurements of the excited state complex as it undergoes electron transfer with these quencher compounds, rates of electron

transfer can be calculated. For lifetime quenching the rate constant of electron transfer, kq, may be determined from equation 1.4. A plot of  $[1/\tau_0 - 1/\tau_n]$  verses [Qn] leads to kq.

(1.4) 
$$[1/\tau_0 - 1/\tau_n] = kq [Qn]$$

where,  $\tau_0$ , is the lifetime of the complex with no quencher  $\tau_n$ , is the lifetime of the complex for a given concentration of quencher [Qn] kq, is the rate constant of electron transfer [Qn], is the quencher concentration

The excited state photoreducing and photo-oxidizing power (\*Ero and \*Eox0) of the complex may be estimated by plotting kg against the redox potential, Eo, of the quencher. A quencher with small Eo values (quenchers which easily donate or accept electrons) will have kg values in the order of  $\sim 10^9$ . A kg with this magnitude, is usually referred to as diffusion controlled; diffusion of the quencher to the excited state governs the rate of electron transfer. As the E<sup>O</sup> potential increases the electron transfer begins to be sluggish and the kq drops below diffusion control. In other words, each encounters does not lead to electron transfer and a graph of EO vs. log kq deviates from a straight line (with slope zero) and starts to break downward (as you will see in Figure 3.4.11). The EO potential at which the graph breaks is estimated to be the excited state redox potential. 29 The curvature of this graph also provide insights into the degree of structural distortion of the excited state.

TABLE 1.2

Redox Potentials of Oxidative and Reductive Quenchers (vs. NHE)

Oxidative Quenchers	-E°	Reductive Quenchers E°.	
pDNB p-dinitrobenzene	0.69	Pt 0.5 phenothiazine	53
mDNB m-dinitrobenze	0.90	DMA 0.8 N,N-dimethylaniline	
NBA m-nitrobenzaldehyde	1.02	DPA 0.8 diphenylamine	83
CNB p-chloronitrobenzene	1.06	AN 0.9 aniline	98
NB nitrobenzene	1.15	TMB 1.12 1,2,4 trimethoxybenzene	
MNB p-methylnitrobenzene	1.20	DMB 1.3	34
pAN p-aminonitrobenzene	1.34	mTMB 1.4 1,3,5-trimethoxybenzene	49

In the past five years our group has synthesized and identified ortho-metalated complexes for use in photoconversion schemes. To this end, Dr. Kevin A. King was responsible for pioneering the work in ortho-metalated complexes. During his tenure in the group, he prepared and characterized iridium dimers such as  $[Ir(NC)_2Cl]_2$  where NC = 2-phenylpyridine (ppy), or 7,8-benzoquinoline (bzq). From these dimers, he prepared complexes of the type  $[Ir(NC)_nNN_{3-n}]^{3-n}$  where NN is 2,2'-bipyridine, or 1,10-phenanthroline. He also

isolated the first Ir(III) ppy triply ortho-metalated complex, fac-Ir(ppy)<sub>3</sub>. Ashley P. Wilde studied the excited state behavior of some of these iridium complexes.<sup>31</sup> Dr. Steven Sprouse synthesized Rh analogues,<sup>32</sup> while Dr. Carl A. Craig prepared the Pd and Pt analogues<sup>33</sup> with other ligands such as 2,(2-thienyl)pyridine, 2-phenylpyrimidine and ethylenediamine among those already mentioned. Craig also developed the synthetic scheme to couple mixed metal, mixed valence ortho-metalating complexes of the type [M(NC)Cl<sub>2</sub>(NC)<sub>2</sub>M'] where M is Pt, or Pd, NC is ppy or bzq, and M' is Rh(III). Dr. Peter Spellane prepared Re analogues, but his greatest asset to the group was his pioneering work in NMR spectroscopy to characterize the Ir, Ru, and Rh complexes of King and Sprouse.<sup>34</sup> The collaborative efforts by these individual have afforded fundamental understanding on the utility of ortho-metalated complexes as photosensitizer.

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# Chapters 2 - 7

has been

removed from

this version

of my dissertation

## I believe that we cannot live better than in seeking to become still better than we are. -Socates

We've come to my favorite section of this dissertation. I just completed the dedication page found at the beginning (p iii). I feel that there are still many others I need to acknowledge. I know this section may seem unorthodox, but it is my thesis and I feel that this work would be incomplete without this last acknowledgment. (Besides, I do owe someone a pigeon section). These individuals are very much a part of this work because each has touched my life and in that way have contributed to this work.

I read somewhere (Trina Paulus, "Hope for the Flowers", — thanks for the book Pia) that someone once asked an artist how long it took him to make a certain picture. "Five minutes and my whole lifetime," he responded. This dissertation is like that. I want to sincerely thank each who has given either to this work itself or to the lifetime that made it possible.

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### A SCIENTIST CREED

Relying upon a faith that our universe is not a chaos but an ordered cosmos.

I believe that through sincere and courageous efforts man can learn what is true

I believe that inherent is what is true is that which will serve creation in its highest form, which is Humanity.

I believe that truth shall make man free—free from the ills of the flesh and the spirit.

I rely upon an unfolding knowledge of the truth to provide a solution for the problems and conflicts that vex humanity.

I therefore dedicate myself to the task of seeking the truth fearlessly and zealously, and to the application of what knowledge I may gain for the establishment of a peaceful, just and orderly civilization on earth.

---Arthur H. Compton

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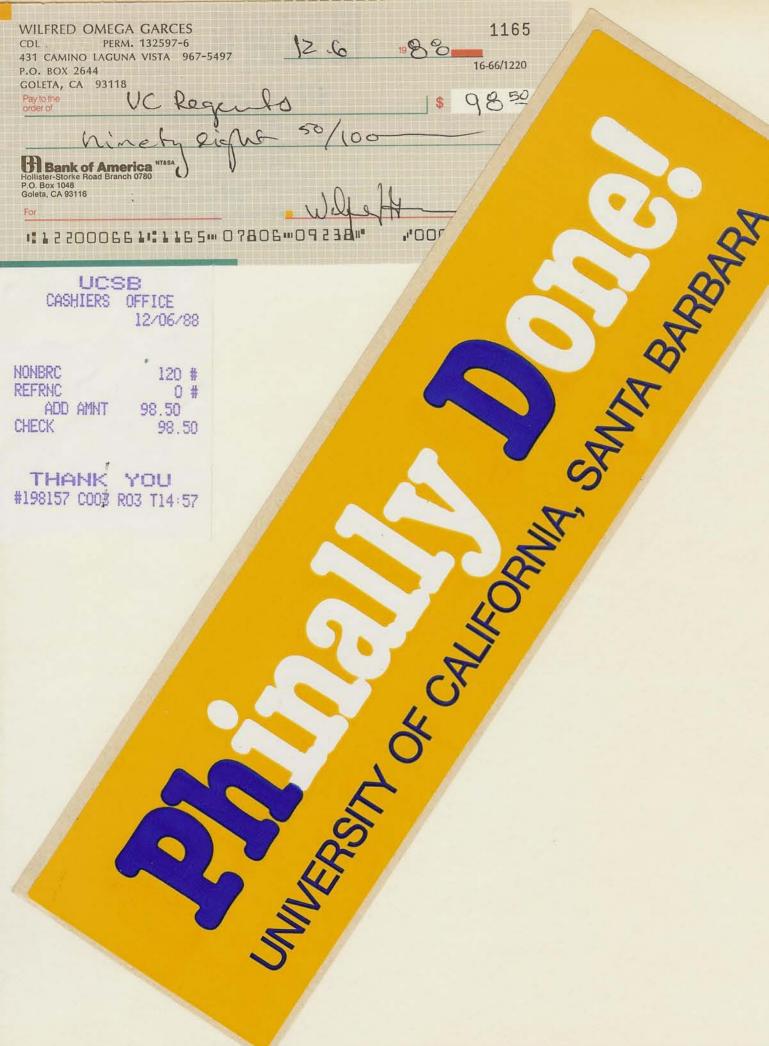
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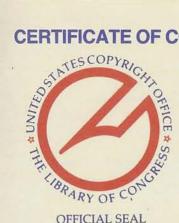
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