Photophysics of Soret-Excited Tetrapyrroles in Solution. IV. Radiationless Decay and Triplet-Triplet Annihilation Investigated Using Tetraphenylporphinato Sn(IV)

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The S₂ population decay rates and triplet—triplet annihilation efficiencies of Sn(IV)Cl₂TPP have been measured in fluid solutions using its weak S₂—S₀ fluorescence as a metric. A detailed description of the excited-state photophysics of Sn(IV)Cl₂TPP has allowed comparisons to be made between this rigid, D_{4h} axially coordinated molecule and axially uncoordinated tetrapyrroles of greater flexibility and lower symmetry. S₂—S₁ internal conversion is the major S₂ population decay path for Sn(IV)Cl₂TPP as it is for the S₂ states of all other d⁰ and d¹⁰ metalated tetrapyrroles. The S₂ state of Sn(IV)Cl₂TPP exhibits S₂—S₁ relaxation rates that follow the energy gap law of radiationless transition theory and are only slightly faster than those exhibited by MgTPP and the weak coupling limit. Differences in S₂—S₁ radiationless decay rates among the series MTPP (M = Mg, Zn, Cd, SnCl₂) cannot be traced to differences in S₂—S₁ radiationless decay rates between CdTPP and Sn(IV)Cl₂TPP is the lower symmetry of the former (near C_{4v}), which permits a much larger number of vibrations to participate in S₂—S₁ vibronic coupling. Triplet—triplet annihilation of the type 2T₁ → S₂ + S₀ has been observed in Sn(IV)Cl₂TPP for the first time, but is of substantially lower efficiency than seen in ZnTPP in noncoordinating solvents because of its shorter triplet lifetime and the shielding effects of its axial Cl ligands, which tend to block the short-range interaction needed for Dexter energy transfer.

Introduction

Metalloporphyrins and other metalated tetrapyrroles are ubiquitous in nature¹ and have found increasing use in photonactuated applications such as oxygen sensors,² agents for photodynamic therapy,³ photonic and molecular logic devices,⁴ and dye-sensitized solar cells.⁵ Extensive literature on the spectroscopy and kinetics of the lowest excited singlet (S_1) and triplet (T_1) states of these compounds supports these applications.⁶ However, relatively little is known about the photophysics of the higher excited states $(S_n, n > 1)^7$ that can be populated via one-photon excitation in the Soret and higher energy absorption bands, via multiphoton excitation at similar total absorbed photon energies, or via excited state annihilation. This paucity of photophysical data concerning highly excited valence states of polyatomic molecules is not confined to the tetrapyrroles and has been noted previously by those designing molecular logic and other devices based on a variety of chromophores.⁴ Given this situation and, specifically, the growing importance of more highly excited states in designing dye-sensitized solar cells using noncoherent photon upconversion processes,⁸ this information deficit should be considered serious and in urgent need of remediation.

We have sought to fill this information gap via a series of papers exploring the photophysics of the higher singlet states of metalated tetrapyrroles in solution⁹⁻¹² and in thin films.¹³ The rates of population decay of the excited singlet states (labeled S_2 here) produced on one-photon excitation in the Soret bands of these compounds are determined almost exclusively by their rates of radiationless decay. Using steady-state and femtosecond time-resolved fluorescence data, we have made considerable progress in quantifying the structure–property relationships

governing these radiationless processes. In summary, using a time-dependent perturbation theory-based analysis of the S₂ population decay rates of magnesium, zinc, and cadmium tetraphenylporphyrin (MTPP, M = Mg, Zn, Cd), of a series of eight other zinc porphyrins of varying structure, and of two metallocorroles, we have come to the following general conclusions: (i) Tetrapyrroles that coordinate d⁰ or d¹⁰ metal ions exhibit S_2 radiationless decay mainly by S_2-S_1 internal conversion; complications due to charge transfer and d,d excited states characteristic of metals with unfilled d shells are avoided.9,10 (ii) Of all of the tetrapyrroles metalated with d⁰ and d¹⁰ ions investigated to date, only MgTPP exhibits radiationless decay characteristic of the weak coupling, statistical limit of radiationless transition theory.⁹ For MgTPP, the quantum efficiency of S_2-S_1 internal conversion is 1.00, and the variation of the rate of this process with the electronic energy gap, $\Delta E(S_2-S_1)$, is determined by the variation in the corresponding Franck-Condon factors, in keeping with the energy gap law. All other metalated tetrapyrroles investigated to date exhibit S₂-S₁ population decay rates that are faster than those predicted by the weak coupling limit.¹⁰ (iii) For at least those molecules adequately represented by the D_{4h} point group, in-plane C-C and C-N stretching vibrations are the main accepting modes in the radiationless decay; unlike many other systems, high frequency C-H vibrations play no significant role.¹⁰ (iv) In the tetrapyrroles metalated with heavier atoms (e.g., Cd), S_2-T_n (n > 2), intersystem crossing may play a minor role as a parallel radiationless decay route, but does not account for the large differences in the measured S₂ population decay rates of these compounds.⁹ (v) In the absence of data illuminating other factors that control the S_2-S_1 radiationless decay rate, the contribution to these decay rates in excess of the lower limit set by weak vibronic coupling has been attributed empirically⁹ to increases

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in the S₂-S₁ interstate coupling energy, β_{el} . However, other than the Franck-Condon factor's variation with $\Delta E(S_2-S_1)$, the quantities that control the magnitude of the radiationless decay rates have not yet been deduced from analyses of the data available to date and remain largely unknown.

The present Article addresses this deficit in our knowledge of these tetrapyrrolic systems. We report new data characterizing the photophysical behavior of the S₂ state of Sn(IV)Cl₂TPP in several solvents and show that axially ligated metalloporphyrins such as this are relatively poor candidates for use in photon upconversion schemes based on triplet—triplet annihilation. This porphyrin has a well-established coordination chemistry.¹⁴ Of crucial importance in the present study, it has a rigid D_{4h} structure,¹⁵ so comparisons of its photophysical properties with those obtained previously for other d⁰ and d¹⁰ metalated tetrapyrroles with more flexible, average D_{4h} structures or with structures of lower symmetry provide further insight into the role that excited-state potential surface displacements and deformations play in determining the S₂ state radiationless relaxation rates of these important compounds.

Experimental Section

Materials. Sn(IV)Cl₂TPP was obtained from Porphyrin Systems and contained significant amounts of the corresponding chlorin as an impurity, which was removed by column chromatography on basic alumina. The chlorin is a common porphyrin contaminant and is particularly difficult to remove permanently in the Sn(IV)Cl₂TPP system because it can be reformed by photochemical means if trace reductants are present.¹⁶ Fortunately, the absorption and emission spectra of the tin porphyrin and chlorin are sufficiently different that it is possible to choose excitation and emission wavelengths at which the contamination of the porphyrin spectra by the chlorin is all but eliminated (cf., following spectra). Unfortunately, even in the relatively recent literature, the features due to the chlorin contaminant have not always been recognized, leading to serious errors in data interpretation in some papers.¹⁷

Solvents (Aldrich) were of the highest purity available and were treated with dried molecular sieves to remove traces of water that can act as a chlorine ligand replacement in this system. All experiments were carried out in aerated solutions at room temperature.

Instrumentation. The fluorescence upconversion setup used for this work has been described in detail elsewhere.⁹ Briefly, a Ti:sapphire femtosecond laser (Coherent, Vitesse Duo) and a regenerative amplifier (Coherent, RegA 9000), operating at a repetition rate of 100 kHz with an output power 330-400 mW at 800 nm and with a 170 to 200 fs fwhm Gaussian crosscorrelation trace, were used as the excitation and gate source. The 800 nm output was passed through a 80/20 beam splitter, and the smaller fraction was frequency doubled to produce 400 nm excitation pulses. The larger fraction passed through a stepped variable delay line ($\Delta t \ge 3.3$ fs/step) and was used to upconvert the fluorescence from the sample in a BBO crystal. The upconversion signal was then focused onto the slit of a monochromator (CM112) and detected by a photomultiplier (Hamamatsu, H7732P-01) connected to a two-channel gated photon counter (Stanford Research Systems, SR400) via a preamplifier (Stanford, SR445).

Methods. All kinetic data obtained by fluorescence upconversion were analyzed by iterative reconvolution of trial fitting functions with a Gaussian instrumental response function and assessing the goodness-of-fit by examining the magnitude and distribution of residuals. Temporal S₂ fluorescence decays were

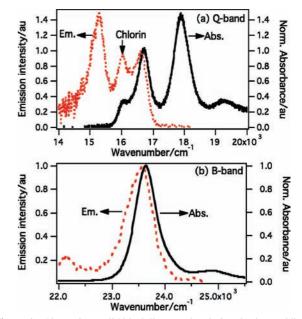


Figure 1. Absorption (solid black lines) and emission (broken red lines) spectra of $Sn(IV)Cl_2TPP$ in ethanol for (a) the Q-band and (b) the Soret or B-band, with excitation wavelength at 25 000 cm⁻¹ (400 nm) in both cases. All spectra have been normalized to the maxima of the 0–0 bands.

all fit satisfactorily with single exponential decay functions and were independent of solute concentration in the 25–250 μ M range (in ethanol). Temporal S₁ fluorescence profiles were fit with a two-component function that accounted for picosecond S₁ population rise and nanosecond S₁ population decay.

Steady-state absorption spectra of Sn(IV)Cl₂TPP in various solvents were measured with a Varian-Cary 500 spectrophotometer, and fluorescence spectra were measured by using a Photon Technology International QuantaMaster spectrofluorometer fitted with double monochromators on both the excitation and the emission arms and a calibrated photodiode for correcting the excitation spectra. Care was taken to collect the spectra under the conditions where the detectors were working in the linear response region. All measurements were carried out under identical conditions, keeping excitation and emission slits at 1 mm ($\Delta \lambda = 2.0$ nm). Collection and correction of the emission spectra and processing of the data were done by using the protocol published earlier.¹⁰ Fluorescence quantum yields and internal conversion quantum efficiencies were determined as described previously^{9,10} using ZnTPP in ethanol as a reference,18 and were corrected for small contributions due to chlorin. Triplet-triplet annihilation experiments were performed using the TEM₀₀ cw output of a frequency-doubled Nd:YAG laser at 532 nm as the excitation source and an in-house modified SPEX Fluorolog spectrofluorometer for detection. Samples, degassed by several freeze-pump-thaw cycles, were frontface illuminated in an evacuable, triangular cell. Details have been given elsewhere.¹² TTA spectra were collected at several different emission slit widths to obtain good signal-to-noise, and the intensities were scaled to those that would be obtained at the same slit width using an intensity-slit width calibration.

Results

The absorption and fluorescence emission spectra of Sn(IV)-Cl₂TPP were measured in several aerated solvents at room temperature. Those taken in ethanol are shown in Figure 1, and the corresponding fluorescence excitation spectra are shown in

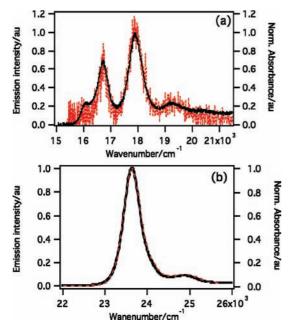


Figure 2. Normalized (a) S_1-S_0 and (b) S_2-S_0 absorption spectra (solid black lines) and emission excitation spectra (broken red lines) of Sn(IV)Cl₂TPP in ethanol obtained by observing S_1-S_0 emission at 15 150 cm⁻¹ (660 nm).

Figure 2. Note that the feature in the absorption spectrum at ca. 620 nm due to the tin chlorin^{17,19} is absent in the fluorescence excitation spectra obtained by monitoring S₁ fluorescence at 660 nm and scanning through both the S₁-S₀ (Q-band) and the S₂-S₀ (Soret or B-band) absorption regions. With the chorin removed, the absorption and Q-band emission spectra are in all respects similar to the spectra of SnCl₂TPP published previously;¹⁷⁻¹⁹ the Soret band emission spectra are new.²⁰ The corresponding radiative processes are assigned to the $1(^{1}E_{u})-1(^{1}A_{1 g})$ and $2(^{1}E_{u})-1(^{1}A_{1 g})$ (S₁-S₀ and S₂-S₀) transitions, respectively; that is, the assignments are the same as those found in all other D_{4h} metalloporphyrins complexed with d⁰ and d¹⁰ metal ions.²¹

Note the characteristic strong absorption band in the Soret region and the weaker feature lying about 1350 cm⁻¹ further to the blue. Previous time-dependent density functional theory (TD-DFT) calculations²² have suggested that the Soret bands of common metalloporphyrins could be a composite of two radiative transitions with nonzero oscillator strength and that the weak feature to the blue may be a transition to a separate electronic state (sometimes identified as 3(1Eu)). However, very recent calculations based on the MCD spectra²³ now suggest that these two bands are associated with a single electronic transition, $2({}^{1}E_{u})-1({}^{1}A_{1})$, and that the weaker feature to the blue is the envelope of a weakly Franck-Condon active set of in-plane a1g ring-stretching vibrations. The features of the Soret emission spectra of all of the D_{4h} MTPP (M = Mg, Zn, SnCl₂) molecules^{9,10} support this view. The corrected emission spectrum of Sn(IV)Cl₂TPP is an exact mirror image of the corresponding absorption spectrum; the weak feature to the red is located ca. 1400 cm⁻¹ from the main band, consistent with Franck-Condon activity in the same set of a_{1g} vibrations in the ground state. The Stokes shifts are small (ca. 100 cm⁻¹), in both the B- and the Q-band systems, consistent with the rigid nature of the macrocyclic structure.¹⁵ Note also that the normalized fluorescence excitation spectrum, taken by scanning in the Soret region and observing emission in the strong Q-band feature at 660 nm, reproduces the corresponding absorption spectrum perfectly within experimental error. No excitation wavelength-dependent photophysical process is evident in these steady-state spectra of Sn(IV)Cl₂TPP.

Quantum yields of both S_2-S_0 and S_1-S_0 fluorescence were measured for Sn(IV)Cl₂TPP in a variety of solvents using the well-established corresponding fluorescence yields of ZnTPP as a standard.¹⁸ The data are collected in Table 1. The quantum yield of S2-S0 fluorescence obtained when exciting Sn(IV)Cl₂TPP in ethanol at 400 nm, $\phi_{fS2} = 7.6 \times 10^{-4}$, is typical. Using this datum and a value of the S_2-S_0 radiative rate constant, $k_r = 3.8 \times 10^8 \text{ s}^{-1}$ calculated from the Soret band oscillator strength,²⁴ the population decay time of the S₂ state, $\tau_{S2} = \phi_{fS2}/k_r$, is then estimated to be ca. 2.0 ps, in very good agreement with the measured value of 1.9 ps (vide infra). Quantum yields of S_1-S_0 fluorescence, ϕ_{fS1} , have been measured previously by others;^{25,26} values of 0.011 in MTHF at room temperature and 0.025 at 77 K and 0.014-0.021 in watermethanol solutions agree reasonably well with those obtained here. We have previously shown⁹ that accurate quantum efficiencies of S_2-S_1 internal conversion, η_{S2S1} , can be obtained in these systems by measuring the ratio of the Q-band fluorescence intensity when exciting in the Soret band as compared to that found when exciting in the Q-band (and correcting for absorbed intensity). Applying this technique to Sn(IV)Cl₂TPP in ethanol yields a value of $\eta_{S2S1} = 0.86 \pm 0.05$, close to 1.0 and similar to the values found in many other d⁰ and d^{10} metalated tetrapyrroles. (Note, however, that $\eta_{S2S1} =$ 1.00 for MgTPP.⁹)

The electronic energies, E^{0-0} , of the S₂ and S₁ states were obtained from the wavenumber of overlap of the absorption and the corrected normalized emission spectra in the Soret and Q-band regions, respectively. These data are also collected in Table 1. The linear relationship between $\Delta E(S_2-S_1)$ and the Lorenz–Lorentz solvent polarizability function, $f_1 = (n^2 - 1)/(n^2 - 1)$ $(n^2 + 2)$, for Sn(IV)Cl₂TPP is shown in Figure 3 and is similar to those obtained previously for MgTPP and ZnTPP.9,10 The gradients of such plots, $g = \partial(\Delta E)/\partial(f_1)$, are determined primarily by the difference in the polarizabilities of the $S_2 \mbox{ and } S_1 \mbox{ states}$ of the metalloporphyrin and have magnitudes that are proportional to the number of π electrons in the molecule's macrocycle (but not in the pendant phenyl groups).¹⁰ An average value of $|g| = (3.6 \pm 0.2) \times 10^3$ cm has been obtained previously for MgTPP, ZnTPP, and several other zinc metalloporphyrins with the same 26 π electron macrocycle.¹⁰ The value of $|g| = (3.2 \pm$ 0.2) \times 10³ cm for Sn(IV)Cl₂TPP (Figure 3) is similar to, but slightly smaller than, this average. We speculate that the small difference could be due to the restricted ability of solvent molecules to approach the macrocycle π electron system due to the physical shielding effect of the axial chloride ligands, an effect absent in the magnesium- and zinc-containing systems. We can also conclude that, although the chlorine atoms themselves will contribute to the overall polarizability of the Sn(IV)Cl₂TPP molecule, they must do so to the same extent in the two excited singlet states. That is, as noted previously for the substituent phenyl groups,^{9,10} the Cl atoms contribute nothing to the differences in the S₂ and S₁ state polarizabilities, differences that are due almost exclusively to the number of π electrons in the macrocycle.

The S₂ population decay times were measured for Sn(IV)-Cl₂TPP in the same set of solvents (except for CS₂) used to obtain quantum yield and spectroscopic data. A typical temporal S₂ fluorescence decay profile is shown in Figure 4. The full set of data is summarized in Table 1. The measured S₂ population decay times are in the 1-2 ps range, in near perfect agreement

 TABLE 1: Steady-State and Time-Resolved Data for meso-Tetraphenylporphinato Tin(IV) Dichloride

	steady-state data ^a							
					quantum yields		lifetimes ^b	
solvents	f_1	$E^{0-0}(S_2)$ (cm ⁻¹)	$E^{0-0}(S_1)$ (cm ⁻¹)	$\Delta E(S_2 - S_1) \ (cm^{-1})$	S ₂ -S ₀ (B-band)	S ₁ -S ₀ (Q-band)	$\overline{\tau_{d}(S_2)}$ (ps)	$\tau_r(S_1)$ (ps)
methanol	0.203	23 710	16 735	6975	0.00065	0.022	1.79	
ethanol	0.221	23 610	16 665	6945	0.00076	0.032	1.88	1.84
1-propanol	0.235	23 540	16 680	6860	0.00043	0.031	1.27	
1-butanol	0.242	23 500	16 650	6850	0.00053	0.038	1.31	
THF	0.246	23 410	16 585	6825	0.00086	0.018	1.71	
DMF	0.259	23 340	16 570	6770	0.00063	0.021	1.53	1.39
toluene	0.293	23 270	16 540	6730	0.00084	0.024	1.41	1.40
benzene	0.295	23 255	16 555	6700	0.00090	0.027	1.41	
CS_2	0.355	22 870	19 390	6480	n.d.	n.d.		
CdTPP in ethanol ^c	0.221	23 160	16 280	6880	0.00014		0.31	0.30

^{*a*} Wavenumbers are $\pm 10 \text{ cm}^{-1}$; ΔE is $\pm 20 \text{ cm}^{-1}$. Quantum yields are $\pm 5\%$. ^{*b*} Averaged over replicate trials; decay constants are ± 0.05 ps, and rise times are ± 0.07 ps. ^{*c*} Data from ref 9.

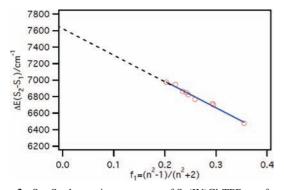


Figure 3. S_2-S_1 electronic energy gap of Sn(IV)Cl₂TPP as a function of the Lorenz–Lorentz polarizability function of the solvent $f_1 = (n^2 - 1)/(n^2 + 2)$. Extrapolation to $f_1 = 0$ gives the energy gap of the bare molecule, 7627 ± 44 cm⁻¹. Gradient $g = -(3.2 \pm 0.2) \times 10^3$ cm (see text for significance).

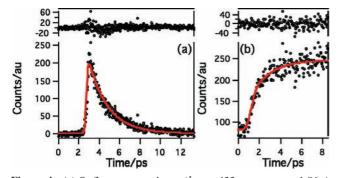


Figure 4. (a) S₂ fluorescence decay ($\lambda_{em} = 433 \text{ nm}, \tau_{decay} = 1.86 \pm 0.03 \text{ ps}$) and (b) S₁ fluorescence rise ($\lambda_{em} = 654 \text{ nm}, \tau_{rise} = 1.84 \pm 0.23 \text{ ps}$) profiles of Sn(IV)Cl₂TPP in ethanol ($\lambda_{ex} = 400 \text{ nm}$). The residuals are shown in the top of each panel.

with the estimates provided from the measured fluorescence quantum yield and calculated radiative rate constant data (vide supra). The corresponding nonradiative rate constants, $k_{\rm nr} = (1 - \phi_{\rm fS2})/\tau_{\rm S2} \sim 1/\tau_{\rm S2}$, show the expected general trend with $\Delta E(S_2-S_1)$, and the applicable energy gap law plot is shown in Figure 5, together with the data for MgTPP, ZnTPP, and CdTPP obtained previously.⁹ For Sn(IV)Cl₂TPP, the energy gap law slope of $-(3.5 \pm 2.2) \times 10^{-4}$ cm and intercept of $10^{14.2\pm1.5}$ s⁻¹ are similar to those found for MgTPP⁹ and other molecules such as azulene²⁷ that possess vibronically coupled S₂ and S₁ states of (π,π^*) character and that conform to the weak vibronic coupling limit.²⁸ Unfortunately, the lifetime data for Sn(IV)Cl₂TPP are not sufficiently accurate and the 275 cm⁻¹ span in the values of $\Delta E(S_2-S_1)$ too small to obtain better than

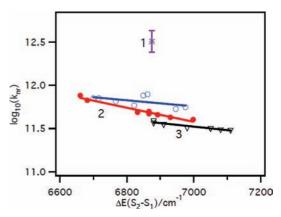


Figure 5. Energy gap law plot for Sn(IV)Cl₂TPP (blue, \bigcirc) assuming S₂-S₁ internal conversion is the sole S₂ radiationless decay process. Comparable data for (1) CdTPP (violet), (2) ZnTPP (red, ●), and (3) MgTPP (black, \bigtriangledown) (ref 9) are also shown for comparison.

one significant digit in the energy gap law parameters and hence extract an accurate value of β_{el} for S_2-S_1 coupling in this system. Nevertheless, comparison of the values of k_{nr} for $Sn(IV)Cl_2TPP$ at an energy gap of $\Delta E(S_2-S_1) = 6875 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ (a typical value for other tetraphenylmetalloporphyrins examined previously^{9,10}) shows that the radiationless decay rate of the S_2 state of $Sn(IV)Cl_2TPP$ is within a factor of 2 of that of MgTPP at the same energy gap, that is, only slightly faster than the weak coupling limit. Applying the empirical method used previously,¹⁰ our best estimate of the electronic matrix element for S_2-S_1 coupling in $Sn(IV)Cl_2TPP$ is therefore $\beta_{el} = 100 \text{ cm}^{-1}$.

The temporal profiles of the S_1 population rise and decay were also measured by the fluorescence upconversion method in a more limited number of solvents. These measurements yield rather noisy data (cf., Figure 4) because the quantum yield of S_1 fluorescence is small (cf., Table 1) and because the oscillator strength of the S₁-S₀ transition is considerably smaller than that of the Soret transition. The upconverted photon count rate is therefore very low. Nevertheless, reasonable data could be obtained for the S_1 population risetime using a two-parameter fit as described above. The data obtained are also collected in Table 1. Note that the S₁ population rise times are all identical to the S₂ decay times within experimental error. This observation is consistent with those for MgTPP, ZnTPP, and other zinc porphyrins^{9,10} with S₂ population decay times in the picosecond range and suggests that no longer-lived intermediate dark state is involved in the overall S2-S1 relaxation process of Sn(IV)Cl₂TPP.

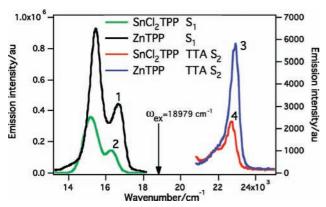


Figure 6. Prompt S₁–S₀ fluorescence (left-hand scale) of (1) ZnTPP and (2) Sn(IV)Cl₂TPP and TTA S₂–S₀ delayed fluorescence (righthand scale) of (3) ZnTPP and (4) Sn(IV)Cl₂TPP in degassed benzene. The delayed S₂ fluorescence spectra were measured with different spectral slit widths, and the intensities displayed should be divided by 1.24×10^2 for ZnTPP and by 1.03×10^4 for Sn(IV)Cl₂TPP to account for differences (see text in Experimental Section). The ratio of the delayed fluorescence intensity of ZnTPP to that of Sn(IV)Cl₂TPP is 220.

The results of experiments to determine the efficiency of triplet-triplet annihilation of $Sn(IV)Cl_2TPP$ as compared to ZnTPP in degassed benzene are shown in Figure 6. Solutions of these two metalloporphyrins were prepared with nearly identical absorbances at 532 nm, and their prompt S_1-S_0 and delayed S_2-S_0 emission spectra were taken under identical measurement conditions except for emission slit width. The known efficiency of TTA for ZnTPP in a noncoordinating solvent¹² can thus be used as a comparative standard for assessing the TTA efficiency in $Sn(IV)Cl_2TPP$. Note that the relative S_2 delayed fluorescence intensity of $Sn(IV)Cl_2TPP$ is substantially lower than that of ZnTPP, indicating a lowered TTA efficiency in the former (vide infra).

Discussion

The spectroscopic and photophysical data reported above for Sn(IV)Cl₂TPP now provide the basis for addressing open questions concerning the parameters that control the radiationless decay rates of the excited electronic states of the d⁰ and d¹⁰ metalated tetrapyrroles populated on one-photon excitation in their Soret absorption bands. We base our analysis on the understanding that the strong absorption feature in the violet region and its weaker satellite some 1300–1400 cm⁻¹ to the blue both belong to a single electronic transition,²³ 2(¹E_u)– 1(¹A_{1g}) in *D*_{4h} symmetry, as described above.

We begin with more minor effects associated with the differences in the nature of the coordinated metals. In the four molecules of the MTPP series for which detailed data are now available, Mg(II) has a d⁰ electron configuration, whereas Zn(II), Cd(II), and Sn(IV) are all d¹⁰. Because solvent-solute dispersive interactions are important in these systems,^{9,10} any significant contribution of the metal polarizability to the excited state relaxation processes should be revealed by comparisons among these four MTPP targets. However, no significant differences traceable to metal polarizability are found in the excited-state behavior of MgTPP, ZnTPP, and SnCl₂TPP. (Data for CdTPP are scant.⁹) Their S_2-S_1 energy spacings, which are controlled by the difference in excited state polarizabilities, are all similar in similar solvents. The gradients $g = |\partial(\Delta E)/\partial(f_1)|$ of plots such as Figure 3 are very similar,^{9,10} and the small difference in the Sn(IV) compound is traceable to the presence of its covalently bonded axial ligands. Thus, there is no direct evidence that metal polarizability has any significant effect on the S_2 population decay dynamics of the d^0 and d^{10} metalloporphyrins. This conclusion is reinforced by previous direct NMR measurements of the chemical shift tensors of the magnesium and zinc tetraphenylporphyrins, which are not significantly different despite the filled d shell in the latter.²⁹ Likewise, there is no correlation between excited-state photophysics and metal electronegativity.

Second, we consider the possible existence of multiple parallel S_2 population decay paths in these systems and how such additional decay channels might differ among the different d⁰ and d¹⁰ metalated species. TD-TFT calculations³⁰ reveal that there are several triplet states at energies lower than those of the S₂ states of MgTPP, ZnTPP, and CdTPP. Singlet-triplet intersystem crossing rates scale as the square of the interstate coupling energies, which in turn increase with the square of the metal's atomic number.³¹ Therefore, differences among the overall S₂ radiationless decay rates of these molecules might be attributable to differences in their parallel S_2-T_n (n > 2) intersystem crossing rates. Cd and Sn are both relatively heavy atoms, so the effects of spin-orbit coupling on the S2 radiationless decay rates should be revealed when comparing SnCl₂TPP and CdTPP with MgTPP and ZnTPP. Indeed, the internal conversion efficiencies, η_{S2S1} , decrease in the order η_{S2S1} = 1.00 (MgTPP), 0.93 (ZnTPP), 0.86 (SnCl₂TPP), and 0.69 (CdTPP),⁹ so intersystem crossing may contribute an increasing (small) fraction of the S₂ decay events in those porphyrins metalated with the heavier metals. However, comparing the S_2 population decay data obtained here with those obtained previously for MgTPP, ZnTPP, and CdTPP9,10 reveals that the S₂ radiationless decay rate of CdTPP is the "odd man out" and is approximately a factor of 5 faster than that of SnCl₂TPP at the same electronic energy gap. The involvement of a parallel S_2-T_n intersystem crossing decay route cannot account for this difference in rates because (i) the spin-orbit coupling constants for CdTPP and SnCl₂TPP will be similar, and (ii) in any case, net S2-S1 internal conversion accounts for by far the largest fraction of the S₂ radiationless decay events in both molecules (0.69 in CdTPP and 0.86 in SnCl₂TPP).⁹ Although S_2-T_n intersystem crossing may indeed account for a minor fraction of S₂ decay events, we nevertheless rule out differences in intersystem crossing rates as the source of the major differences in overall S₂ population decay rates in these four metalated tetraphenylporphyrins.

We now consider the more important effects of molecular symmetry, macrocycle rigidity, and surface displacement on the S_2-S_1 decay rates of these metalloporphyrins. We have previously shown^{9,10} that in MgTPP the variation of the S₂ population decay rate with S_2-S_1 electronic energy spacing can be satisfactorily interpreted using the weak coupling case of radiationless transition theory, as developed from time-dependent perturbation theory. The data presented above now show that Sn(IV)Cl₂TPP and MgTPP behave similarly, with the former exhibiting a decay rate that is a factor of less than 2 larger than that of the latter at the same energy gap. However, the S₂ radiationless decay rates of CdTPP are much faster, and, although the S₂-S₁ decay rates of ZnTPP follow an energy gap law format, the gradient of that plot (cf., Figure 5) is larger than predicted by the weak coupling limit.^{9,10} Thus, further analysis of the factors controlling these nonradiative rates is required. We start with the analytical expression developed by Englman and Jortner²⁸ for the weak coupling limit:

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$$k_{\rm mr} = \{\sqrt{2\pi C^2}/\hbar(\hbar\omega_M \Delta E)^{1/2}\} \exp\{-(\gamma/\hbar\omega_M)\Delta E\}$$
(1)

where

$$\gamma = \ln\{2\Delta E / \sum_{M} \hbar \omega_{M} \Delta_{M}^{2}\} - 1$$
 (2)

and *C* is the interstate coupling energy, ΔE is the electronic energy gap between the two coupled states, $\hbar\omega_M$ is the wavenumber of the accepting vibrational mode in the lower state, Δ_M is the reduced displacement of the upper state surface relative to the lower one, and the summation is over all accepting modes. Previous work¹⁰ has shown that the dominant accepting modes in S₂-S₁ radiationless decay in the D_{4h} metalloporphyrins are the set of in-plane C-C and C-N stretching vibrations whose average frequency is ca. 1350 cm⁻¹, and which appear as the envelope that constitutes the weak (1-0) vibronic feature to the blue of the main Soret band in these molecules. There are about 30 such modes that contribute in *meso*-tetraarylmetalloporphyrins of D_{4h} symmetry, so in such molecules we can replace the sum in eq 2 by multiplying its terms by the "degeneracy" $d_M \approx 30$.

Equations 1 and 2 also allow one to interpret those effects of surface displacement on k_{nr} that are independent of the inverse exponential variation of the Franck–Condon factor with ΔE by finding Δ_M at constant ΔE . Such displacements are potentially important in determining S_2-S_1 decay rates in the metalloporphyrins because the two coupled states are of the same electronic symmetry (${}^{1}E_{u}$ in D_{4h}). Thus, among several similar metalloporphyrins, a progression from weak coupling (S_2 fully "nested" within S_1) to strong coupling²⁸ ("intersection" of the zero order S_2 and S_1 surfaces) is possible solely on the basis of variations in Δ_M . In principle, the required $\Delta_M (\equiv \Delta_{S2-S1})$ data can be obtained by difference from the Franck–Condon factors for the vibrational features in the Q and B absorption spectra, and we adopt such a procedure below.

In cases where the electronic transition is strongly allowed, such as the Soret band, measurement of the relative intensities of vibrational features corresponding to $\Delta v = 0$, 1 in the spectrum permits a direct calculation of the associated average Franck–Condon factors.²¹ Here, we follow the analytical treatment developed by Siebrand³² for the displaced, undistorted oscillator case, which is appropriate for the Soret band system. The small relative intensity of the (1–0) vibronic band envelope in the Soret system (Figure 1) is consistent with this approach. Thus, the Franck–Condon factors are given by:

$$F_{\rm ov} = \frac{\delta^v}{v!} \exp(-\delta) \tag{3}$$

where v is the quantum number of the vibration in the terminal state, and δ is a dimensionless parameter given by $\delta = K \Delta_M^{2/2} \hbar \omega$ for a harmonic oscillator of force constant *K*, displacement Δ_M , and frequency $\hbar \omega$. The average values of $\delta = F_{01}/F_{00}$ are then obtained directly from the relative intensities of the (1-0) to (0-0) band envelopes in the Soret absorption system. The values of δ scale as Δ_M^2 and can be used to determine the relative displacement of the upper state potential surface relative to that of the ground state. For the Soret band system of Sn(IV)Cl₂TPP, $\delta_S = 0.082$ averaged over several solvents, and this should be interpreted as an average associated with

 TABLE 2: Parameters Describing Excited-State

 Displacements in Tetraphenylmetalloporphyrins^a

compound	$(\varepsilon_{10}/\varepsilon_{00})_{\rm S}$	$\delta_{\rm S}$	$(\varepsilon_{20}/\varepsilon_{10})_{\rm Q}$	$(F_{02}/F_{01})_{\rm Q}$	$\delta_{ m Q}$	$\Delta_{\text{S2-S1}}{}^{b}$
MgTPP	0.064	0.064	0.12	0.11	0.22	0.31
ZnTPP	0.070	0.070	0.15	0.13	0.26	0.35
Sn(IV)Cl ₂ TPP	0.082	0.082	0.15	0.13	0.26	0.32
CdTPP	0.13	0.13	0.20	0.16	0.32	0.29

 a Data for MgTPP, ZnTPP, and CdTPP are obtained from the spectra of ref 9. b Estimated error in Δ_{S2-S1} is $\pm 10\%$.

displacements along all of the a_{1g} vibrational coordinates of the molecule. Similar calculations for the Soret band systems of MgTPP and ZnTPP reveal that the values of δ_s are similar for MgTPP, ZnTPP, and Sn(IV)Cl₂TPP, but are significantly larger for CdTPP. The data are collected in Table 2.

Obtaining similar data from the Q-band spectra for the displacements of the S₁ potential surfaces is not as straightforward because this transition is quasi-forbidden²¹ and the (1-0)band envelope contains large contributions to its intensity from vibronic coupling of the Q and B states by a_{2g}, b_{1g}, and b_{2g} in-plane, nontotally symmetric vibrations (for D_{4h} molecules), whereas the (0-0) band does not. However, if the small contribution to the (1-0) intensity from a_{1g} vibrations is factored out (using eq 3 and values of δ_Q obtained as indicated below to obtain I_{01}), then the ratio of the intensities of the (2-0) to the (1-0) vibrational envelopes in the Q-band system can be used to find δ_0 for the S₁ surface, that is, $I_{02}/I_{01}' = F_{02}/F_{01} = \delta_0/2.^{32}$ The (2-0) band envelopes in the absorption spectra are weak and often not well resolved from the (1-0) band, but resolution of the spectrum into a sum of Gaussian features results in a reasonable measure of the relative intensities. The resulting values of δ_Q are displayed in Table 2. Note that the values of $\delta_{\rm O}$ are systematically larger than those of $\delta_{\rm S}$, but that the two sets of values vary in the same sense and in the same order for the series MgTPP, ZnTPP, Sn(IV)Cl₂TPP, CdTPP. The dimensionless displacement of the S₂ surface relative to the S₁ surface, $\Delta_{s_2-s_1}$, then is obtained from the magnitude of the difference (cf., Supporting Information):

$$|\delta_{\rm S}^{1/2} - \delta_{\rm Q}^{1/2}| = 2^{-1/2} \Delta_{\rm S2-S1} \tag{4}$$

The data are compiled in Table 2. Note that the values of Δ_{S2-S1} are similar for the three D_{4h} metalloporphyrins despite the fact that the displacements of the individual excited-state surfaces are significantly different. These values are identical to those obtained previously from the energy gap law plot for MgTPP⁹ (cf., Figure 5) in which it was assumed that the accepting modes are in-plane C–C and C–N stretches of average $\hbar\omega_M = 1350$ cm⁻¹ and of degeneracy $d_M \approx 30$. Note also that the value of Δ_{S2-S1} for CdTPP is the same as that for the other three tetraphenylmetalloporphyrins, despite the fact that the displacements of its individual S₂ and S₁ surfaces relative to the ground state are rather larger than the those of the others. The much faster S₂ decay rate for CdTPP and the steeper than predicted slope of the energy gap law plot for ZnTPP therefore cannot be rationalized on the basis of potential surface displacements.

Other factors must be responsible for the large differences in S_2-S_1 radiationless decay rates among these compounds, and we now directly examine the effect of molecular geometry. The Sn^{4+} ion (radius, r = 0.103 nm) in $Sn(IV)Cl_2TPP$ is almost the same size as the Zn^{2+} ion (r = 0.107 nm) in ZnTPP and the Mg^{2+} ion (r = 0.102 nm) in MgTPP, but all three are smaller than the Cd^{2+} ion (r = 0.120 nm) in CdTPP. (Note that these ionic radii are all obtained from electron density contours³³ constructed from X-ray diffraction data; similar arguments can be made on the basis of the more traditionally accepted values of the ionic radii.) The most appropriate symmetry group for bare MgTPP and ZnTPP is D_{4h} , but, depending upon phase and solvation, both molecules can exhibit small deviations from this high symmetry,³⁴ an effect that is enhanced by strongly bound solvates such as water that tend to pull the metal atom out-of-plane.³⁵ On the other hand, Sn(IV)Cl₂TPP exhibits perfect D_{4h} symmetry¹⁵ and, with the two Cl atoms axially coordinated to the metal, is likely to be much less susceptible to deformation by specific solvation effects.

In contrast, the larger cadmium atom in CdTPP is permanently squeezed out-of-plane. Not only is its metalated macrocycle structure better described by the C_{4v} point group, but it also exhibits significant flexibility leading to deviations from 4-fold symmetry.³⁶ Comparisons (vide infra) among MgTPP, ZnTPP, CdTPP, and Sn(IV)Cl₂TPP should therefore reveal the effects of molecular geometry and perhaps flexibility on their S₂ radiationless decay rates.

Considering the phenyl groups as point masses, there are 105 normal modes of vibration in the MTPP metalloporphyrins.³⁷ For the D_{4h} molecules, 71 of these are in-plane vibrations, of which 35 are of gerade symmetry, that is, $\Gamma(\text{in-plane}) = 9a_{1g} + 8a_{2g} + 9b_{1g} + 9b_{2g} + 18e_u$. Only the 35 gerade vibrations can facilitate radiationless decay by coupling S₂ (2¹E_u) and S₁ (1¹E_u). In C_{4v} molecules such as CdTPP, the two coupled electronic states are both of E symmetry, and vibrations of any symmetry can then couple the two states. Faster rates of radiationless decay must result. In principle, we should be able to use eqs 1 and 2 to estimate the effect on k_{nr} of increasing the number of D_{4h} symmetry such as Sn(IV)Cl₂TPP to one of C_{4v} symmetry such as CdTPP. However, insufficient data are available to permit this.

Instead, we strengthen our argument by considering the photophysical behavior of other metalated tetrapyrroles whose symmetries are known to be lower than D_{4h} . The tetrapentafluorophenyl derivative of zinc porphyrin (ZnTPP(F₂₀), of S_4 or "ruffled" symmetry) and the gallium and aluminum tripentafluorophenylcorroles (Al(tpfc)(py) and Ga(tpfc)(py) of approximate C_{2v} symmetry) provide supporting data.^{10,11} All three of these metalated tetrapyrroles have values of $\Delta E(S_2-S_1)$ similar to those of the MTPP series examined here, and all three also exhibit S_2 population decay primarily via S_2-S_1 internal conversion. However, all three exhibit S2 population decay rates that are similar to that of CdTPP, that is, much faster than predicted by the weak coupling limit exemplified by MgTPP. Specifically, the ratios, R, of the rate constants for their S_2 population decay as compared to that of MgTPP (R = 1.0)⁹ at the same energy gap (6875 cm⁻¹) are: R = 5.8 for ZnTPP(F₂₀); R = 4.8 for Al(tpfc)(py); R = 9.1 for Ga(tpfc)(py), all in benzene at room temperature. This compares with R = 8.8 for CdTPP under the same conditions and vales of $R \leq 2$ for ZnTPP and Sn(IV)Cl₂TPP at the same energy gap. Small differences in the decay rates might be attributed to small differences in the interstate coupling constants (C in eq 1). However, we conclude that molecular rigidity and high symmetry also provide a means of retarding S_2-S_1 radiationless decay in the D_{4h} meso-phenylsubstituted tetrapyrroles by limiting the number of vibrations that can promote S_2 radiationless decay effectively. This conclusion is consonant with those made earlier regarding the differences in the spectroscopy and photophysics of the S₁ states of a larger set of planar, ruffled, and saddle-shaped metallopor-phyrins.³⁸

It is interesting to speculate that the slightly anomalous S_2 population decay behavior of ZnTPP (i.e., the larger than "expected" slope of its energy gap law plot, Figure 5) might also be traceable to its slightly more flexible macrocycle framework and the influence on the vibrational dynamics associated with specific solvation effects.³⁹ The effect of solvatochromism on the electronic energy gap, $\Delta E(S_2-S_1)$, and the resulting influence on the rate of S_2-S_1 radiationless decay have now been clearly established for several individual metalloporphyrins.9,10 However, the influence of differences in specific solvation effects among different metalloporphyrins has not yet been elucidated. MgTPP tends to be preferentially axially coordinated by two solvent molecules in coordinating solvents such as pyridine and therefore maintains D_{4h} symmetry even when considering solvate structures. On the other hand, ZnTPP tends to accept only one coordinating solvent molecule so that the overall symmetry of the dominant solvate is lower in ZnTPP than in MgTPP.^{34,35} Such specific solvation effects should be absent in Sn(IV)Cl₂TPP where the two chlorine atoms occupy both axial coordination sites. It is therefore reasonable to suggest that the similar energy gap law behavior of MgTPP and Sn(IV)Cl₂TPP (cf., Figure 5) and the larger than expected gradient of this plot for ZnTPP may be traced to the differences in the specific solvation effects of these species.

Finally, we examine the effects of covalent axial ligation on the rates of TTA in these systems by comparing the S₂ yield resulting from $2T_1 \rightarrow S_2 + S_0$ annihilation in Sn(IV)Cl₂TPP with that in ZnTPP, both in noncoordinating solvents (benzene or toluene) at room temperature. We have previously shown¹² that the relative intensities of S₂ \rightarrow S₀ delayed fluorescence produced by this TTA process, when initiated by cw excitation in the Q-band, can be used as a metric for the effects of axial coordination by solvent. Thus, for ZnTPP, the intensity of S₂ delayed fluorescence is reduced by a factor of about 20 in pyridine (coordinating) as compared to benzene (noncoordinating) under otherwise identical conditions. These relative S₂ fluorescence intensities are quantitatively consistent with the short-range, electron exchange (Dexter) mechanism of TTA.

A steady-state analysis of the mechanism of TTA (cf., Supporting Information) results in the following relationship for R_{TTA} , the ratio of the intensity of S₂ delayed fluorescence produced in Sn(IV)Cl₂TPP to that in ZnTPP in the same noncoordinating solvent (benzene) under identical conditions.

$$R_{\rm TTA} = \frac{k_{\rm TTA}^{\rm Sn}}{k_{\rm TTA}^{\rm Zn}} = \left(\frac{I_{\rm dfS2}^{\rm Sn}}{I_{\rm dfS2}^{\rm Zn}}\right) \left(\frac{\phi_{\rm fS2}^{\rm Zn}}{\phi_{\rm fS2}^{\rm Sn}}\right) \left(\frac{\tau_{\rm T1}^{\rm Zn}}{\tau_{\rm T1}^{\rm Sn}} \cdot \frac{\phi_{\rm iSC,S1}^{\rm Zn}}{\phi_{\rm isc,S1}^{\rm Sn}} \cdot \frac{I_{\rm a}^{\rm Zn}}{I_{\rm a}^{\rm Sn}}\right)^2 \quad (5)$$

We have measured the intensities of delayed S₂ fluorescence (I_{dfS2} , Figure 6) under conditions where the absorbed intensities at 532 nm, I_a , are almost identical in these two systems and have measured the quantum yields of prompt S₂ fluorescence (ϕ_{fS2} , Table 1). The quantum efficiencies of S₁-T₁ intersystem crossing, $\phi_{isc,S1}$, have been measured previously by others⁶ and are large and similar, so the only unknowns in eq 5 are the unquenched lifetimes of the triplet states, τ_{T1} , of the two metalloporphyrins under the conditions of the TTA experiment. If we use data for the triplet lifetimes previously measured in glassy matrices⁶ at 77 K, $\tau_{T1} = 26$ ms for ZnTPP, and $\tau_{T1} = 11.3$ ms for Sn(IV)Cl₂TPP, and assume that the ratio of these unquenched triplet lifetimes is the same under the conditions

of our TTA measurements, we obtain $R_{\text{TTA}} = 4.6 \times 10^{-3}$. This value can be related to the increase in the average distance between the two annihilating triplets, Δd , caused by the presence of the axial ligands on the Sn(IV)Cl₂TPP using (cf., Supporting Information):

$$R_{\rm TTA} = \exp\{-2\Delta d/0.48\}\tag{6}$$

The difference is $\Delta d = 0.61$ nm, which is between 3 and 4 times the van der Waals radius of a chloride ion. This datum suggests that the distance of closest approach of the two triplets during annihilation is greatly increased in Sn(IV)Cl₂TPP relative to MgTPP or ZnTPP due to the shielding effect of the two axial chloride ligands. Accurate measurements of the triplet lifetimes under the conditions of the TTA experiment will be needed to confirm this suggestion.

Conclusions

Measurements of the S₂ population decay rates and triplettriplet annihilation efficiencies of Sn(IV)Cl₂TPP in fluid solutions have been made for the first time using its weak S₂-S₀ fluorescence as a metric. The resulting detailed description of the excited state photophysics of Sn(IV)Cl₂TPP allows comparisons to be made between the behavior of this rigid, D_{4h} axially coordinated molecule and axially uncoordinated tetrapyrroles of greater flexibility and lower symmetry. The following conclusions have been drawn and provide the basis for more fully understanding the factors that control the radiationless decay rates of the Soret-excited metalated tetrapyrroles.

(i) S_2-S_1 internal conversion is the major S_2 population decay path for $Sn(IV)Cl_2TPP$, as it is for the S_2 states of all other d^0 and d^{10} metalated tetrapyrroles. S_2-T_n (n > 2) intersystem crossing can account for only a small fraction of the S_2 relaxation events, irrespective of the "heavy atom" effect.

(ii) The S₂ state of Sn(IV)Cl₂TPP exhibits S₂-S₁ relaxation rates that are only slightly faster than those exhibited by MgTPP and the weak coupling limit. The S₂-S₁ interstate coupling energy is of the order of 100 cm⁻¹.

(iii) Differences in S_2-S_1 radiationless decay rates among the series MTPP (M = Mg, Zn, Cd, SnCl₂) cannot be traced to differences in the displacements of the S_2 and S_1 potential surfaces even though the displacements of the excited-state surfaces relative to the ground state differ and the Stokes shifts increase in the order Mg \approx SnCl₂ < Zn < Cd.

(iv) The most likely source of the large differences in S_2-S_1 radiationless decay rates between CdTPP and Sn(IV)Cl₂TPP is the lower symmetry of the former (near C_{4v}), which permits a much larger number of vibrations to participate in S_2-S_1 vibronic coupling.

(v) Triplet-triplet annihilation of the type $2T_1 \rightarrow S_2 + S_0$ has been observed in Sn(IV)Cl₂TPP for the first time, but is of substantially lower efficiency than that found in ZnTPP in noncoordinating solvents because of the shorter triplet lifetime of Sn(IV)Cl₂TPP and the shielding effects of its axial Cl ligands, which tend to block the short-range interaction needed for Dexter energy transfer.

The detailed picture of the photophysics of Soret-excited $Sn(IV))Cl_2TPP$ presented here, together with the results described in previous papers in this series, ^{9,10,11a} provides a more comprehensive picture of the factors controlling the rates of radiationless decay of this important class of compounds. Metalated macrocycle symmetry and flexibility play a crucial role in determining the magnitude of the deviation (increase)

in S_2-S_1 relaxation rate from the lower limit established by weak vibronic coupling in rigid molecules of D_{4h} symmetry.

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Supporting Information Available: Derivations of eqs 4–6. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at http://pubs.acs.org.

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