

# Photochemical Reactions in Organized and Semiorganized Media

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**ABSTRACT:** The article describes organic photochemical reactions in heterogeneous fields. The first part of the article includes an introduction of miscellaneous electrostatic fields adsorbing photoactive species and the second part summarizes the types of photochemical reactions in their fields. Photochemical reactions carried out in various heterogeneous fields, inorganic as well as organic, were classified by their reaction type, that is, unimolecular reactions, bimolecular reactions, energy transfer reactions, and electron transfer reactions.

**KEY WORDS:** photochemical reactions, organized media, electrostatic interfaces, micelles, vesicles, polyelectrolytes, silica, clay, zeolite, miscellaneous types of reactions, energy transfer, electron transfer.

Common abbreviations in the present article are listed as follows: AEC, anion exchange capacity; AOT, aerosol OT; AQDS, sodium anthraquinonedisulfonate; BHDB, benzylhexadecyldimethylammonium bromide; cmc, critical micelle concentration; CTAB, cetyltrimethylammonium bromide; CTAC, cetyltrimethylammonium chloride; CEC, cation exchange capacity; CT, charge transfer; DAP, dodecylammonium propionate; DBA, 1,3-dibutylalloxazine; DCP, sodium dicetylphosphate; DDDAC, didodecyldimethylammonium chloride; DPC, 1-dodecylpyridinium chloride; DPL, dipalmitoyllecithin;  $DQ^{2+}$ ,  $\alpha,\alpha$ -dipyridium ion; EDTA, ethylenediamine tetraacetic acid; EPE, poly(ethylene oxide-propylene oxide ethylene oxide); FMN, flavin mononucleotide; FMNH, dihydroflavin mononucleotide; KDC, potassium dodecanoate; syn-HH, syn-head-to-head dimer; anti-HH, anti-head-to-head dimer; syn-HT, syn-head-to-tail dimer; In, indole detergent; LB, Langmuir-Blodgett; MB, methylene blue;  $MV^{2+}$ , methyl viologen; MW, molecular weight;  $N_A$ , aggregation number; P, pyrene; PA, pyrene-3-carboxaldehyde; P18C6, poly(vinylbenzo-18-crown); PSSNa, sodium poly(styrenesulfonate);  $RV^{2+}$ , alkyl viologen; SDS, sodium dodecyl sulfate;  $T_c$ , phase-transition temperature; TEtOA, triethanolamine; ZnTPPS, zinc(II) tetrasodiumtetra(*p*-sulfonatophenyl)porphyrin; ZnTPP, zinc(II) tetraphenylporphyrin; ZnTPyP, zinc(II) tetra(*N*-methylpyridinium)porphyrin; ZnTPSPy, zinc(II) tetra(*N*-sulfonato-propylpyridinium)porphyrin.

## I. INTRODUCTION

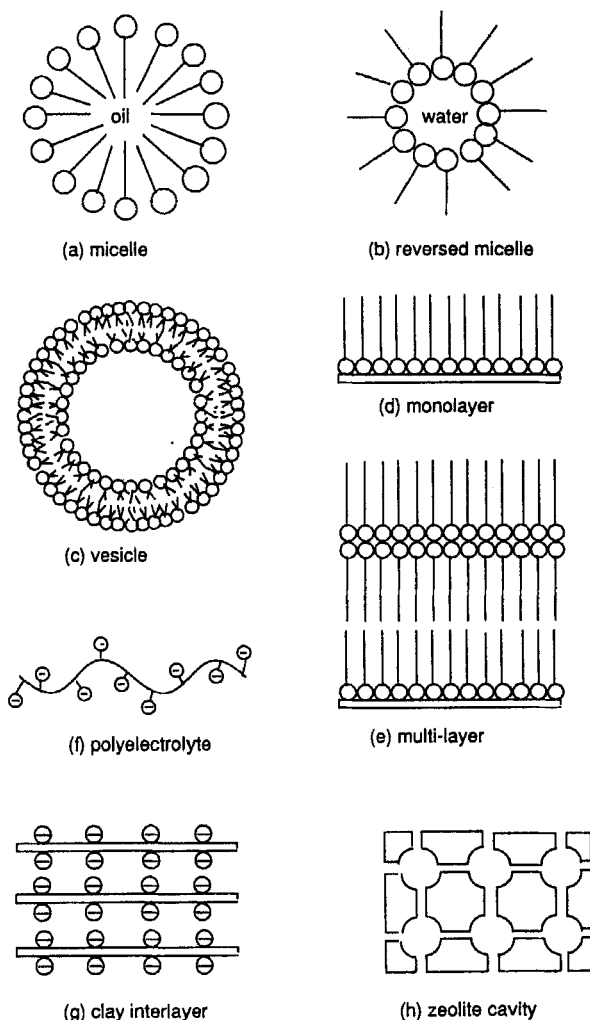
It is most urgent and valuable for chemists to develop a highly selective methodology for preparation of what is wanted. Photosynthesis by green plants or enzymatically catalytic reactions by common living organisms are precious examples for chemists. These marvelous bioreactions take place in organized microheterogeneous fields. Thus, photosynthesis is carried out in cell membranes of green plants where the photochemical reaction center is composed of light-absorbing species (photosensitizer) and electron transfer mediators, and the com-

bined redox system is disposed elaborately as a completely organized system. The mutual disposition of each component is essential for the photochemical system; otherwise, no net chemical reaction is observed.

When photoreactive compounds are irradiated under geometrically confined circumstances, they are compelled to undergo a directed reaction course. An increasing number of investigations are concentrating, to mimic bioreactions, on studies of highly selective reactions in microheterogeneous systems. However, the use of microheterogeneous systems for photochemical reactions is still in its

infancy. This is mostly because of the high complexity of such systems. Extensive exploration of photochemistry in these microheterogeneous systems is expected to open new areas of photofunctional science as well as synthetic photochemistry.

The present article is a survey of photochemical reactions carried out in microheterogeneous reaction fields. These heterogeneous fields include micelles, reversed (or inverse) micelles, vesicles, Langmuir-Blodgett (LB) films, and also inorganic solid surfaces such as silica, clay minerals, and zeolite cavities, as shown in Figure 1. Photocatalytic reactions using semiconductor metal oxides are omitted because of restriction of space.



**FIGURE 1.** Schematic pictures of typical ionic interfaces.

## II. ELECTROSTATIC INTERFACES FOR PHOTOCHEMICAL REACTION FIELDS

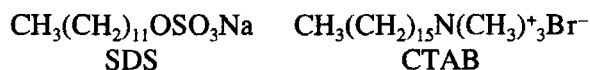
### A. Surfactant Assemblies

#### 1. Micelles and Reversed Micelles

Aqueous micelle solutions are easily accessible and excellent reaction media. Hence, numerous examples have been reported on organized photochemical reactions in conventional aqueous micelles.<sup>1</sup> In general, surfactants are amphiphilic molecules with both hydrophobic and hydrophilic groups. When these amphiphilic molecules are dispersed in water, the hydrophilic part is easily solvated, whereas the hydrophobic part resists the solvation by water. The hydrophobic interaction between the hydrocarbon chains and the repulsion from solvent water are responsible for the aggregation of surfactant molecules.

The surfactant molecules form molecular aggregates, that is, micelles, in water at concentrations higher than their critical micelle concentrations (cmc). Sodium dodecylsulfate (SDS; cmc, 8.1 mM) is a typical anionic surfactant, and cetyltrimethyl-ammonium bromide (CTAB; cmc, 0.92 mM) is a cationic surfactant.

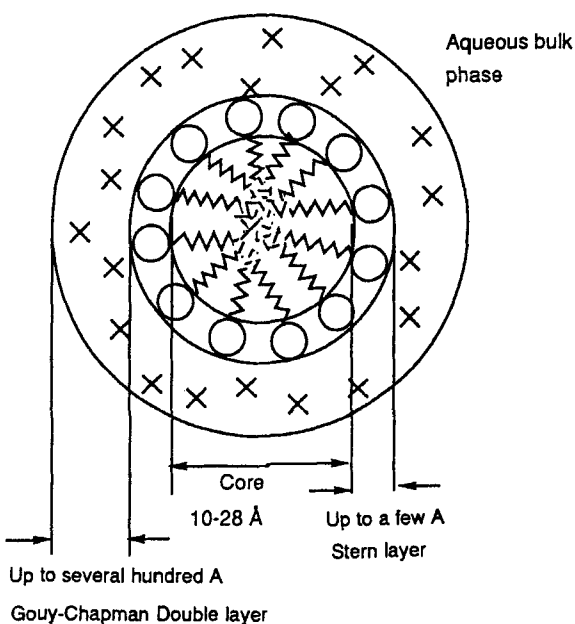
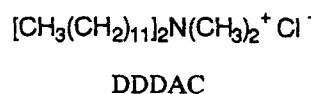
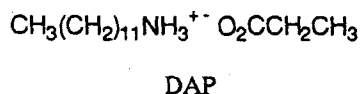
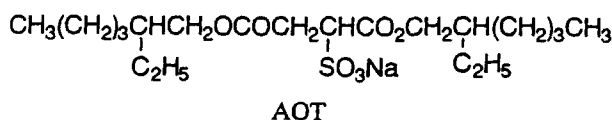
A simplified model for ionic micelles pictured by Hartley<sup>2</sup> is useful for visualization (Figure 2). According to the model, micelles are roughly spherical and contain 50 to 200 surfactant molecules. Their radii are close to the lengths of the hydrocarbon chain of



surfactants, that is, 10 to 30 Å. The micelle has a hydrocarbon core and a polar surface; it resembles an oil drop with a polar coat. The head groups of ionic micelles and associated counterions are found in the compact Stern layer. Some of the counterions are bound on the surface, but most are located in the electrical double layer (up to several hundred angstroms), as shown in Figure 2. Organic guest molecules are solubilized in the core or at the interface of the micelles, depending on their hydrophobicity or hydrophilicity. The volume of the aggregate is estimated at  $3.99 \times 10^4 \text{ Å}^3$ , half of which is occupied with the inner hydrophobic

core and the rest with the Stern interface layer. Resulting solubilities of typical organic compounds in ionic micelles are summarized in Table 1. Solubilities of organic substrates into micellar interiors are shown to be profoundly dependent on their molecular structures. Benzene and  $\alpha$ -methylstyrene, for example, can be solubilized up to an approximately equal amount with the surfactants; that is, several tens of substrate molecules can be accommodated in one SDS micelle. For other substrates tested, one to several molecules can be dissolved as guest substrates in a micelle.

Some amphipathic materials form molecular aggregates in hydrophobic solvents, for example, hexane, benzene, and chloroform. These are called a reversed (or inverse) micelle in comparison with the usual micelles in water. Typical surfactants for reversed micelles are sodium *bis*(2-ethyl-hexyl)sulfosuccinate (AOT), dodecylammonium propionate (DAP), and didodecyldimethylammonium chloride (DDDAC). They form linear aggregations at lower concentrations, but produce, especially in the presence of water droplets, spherical reversed micelles at higher concentrations.<sup>3</sup>



**FIGURE 2.** A simplified two-dimensional picture of a spherical ionic micelle. O~: Surfactant molecules; x: counterion. (From Fendler, J. H., *Membrane Mimetic Chemistry*, Wiley-Interscience, New York, 1982, 6. With permission.)

Aqueous micelles provide an excellent organized reaction field but, at the same time, are accompanied with a weak point in that the solubilities of guest molecules are not always sufficient and product isolations are tedious. Therefore, most photochemical studies relating to micelles are inclined to use physicochemical processes, for example, photosensitized electron transfers. Micelle surfaces are effective for a charge separation between an electron donor and an acceptor as will be discussed later. On the other hand, a large enough amount of guest molecules should be solubilized to make use of micelles for preparative scale experiments. For such a purpose, a few methods have been attempted: (1) modification of guest molecules by substituting with a long alkyl chain that is dissolvable in host surfactant aggregates; (2) utilization of a microemulsion system, in which guest molecules are codissolved with hydrophobic organic solvents in micelles; (3) formation of a 1:1 complex of ionic guest molecules with an opposite charge.

Modification of guest molecules by method 1 is sometimes accepted and significantly improves

**TABLE 1**  
**Solubility of Some Organic Compounds in Ionic Micelles**

Guest molecules	Solubility (mM/100 mM surfactant) <sup>a</sup>	
	CTAB	SDS
Benzene	100	— <sup>b</sup>
$\alpha$ -Methylstyrene	67	— <sup>b</sup>
Stilbene	5.3	— <sup>b</sup>
4-Methoxystilbene	5.0	4.5
4,4'-Dimethoxystilbene	0.2	— <sup>b</sup>
1,1-Diphenylethylene	4.0	4.1
Phenylvinylether	4.5	4.8
9,10-Dicyanoanthracene	0.018	— <sup>b</sup>
1-Cyanonaphthalene	0.007	— <sup>b</sup>
1,8-Dinitronaphthalene	1.0	— <sup>b</sup>

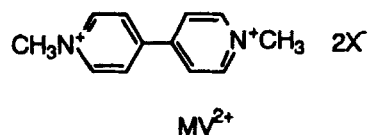
<sup>a</sup> Excess amounts of guest molecules were added to a 100 mM-aqueous micellar solution and the dissolved substrates were determined after sonication for 60 min at 20°C.

<sup>b</sup> Not measured.

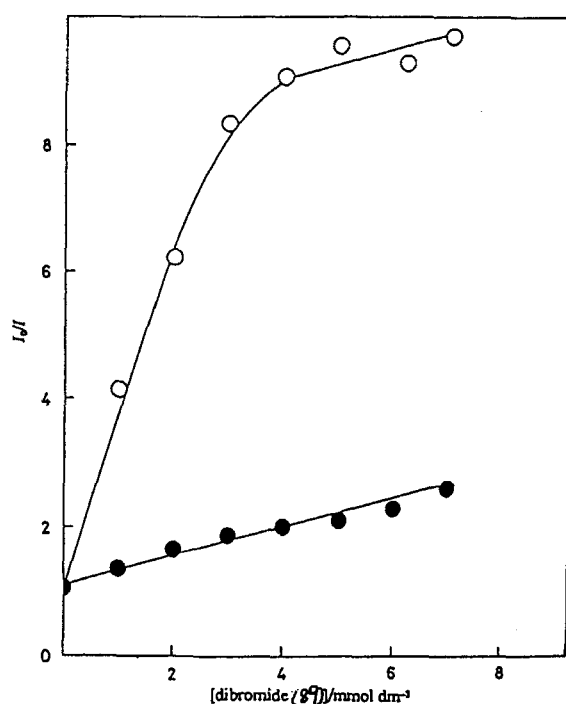
Usami, K., Takagi, K., and Sawaki, Y., unpublished results.

their solubilities. It should be remembered, however, that the presence of a long alkyl chain often makes the product separation difficult. The utilization of microemulsion systems (method 2) is not always useful because the stability of emulsion and solubility of substrates are lower. Method 3 is the most convenient way to solubilize guest ionic molecules into a micelle or a reversed micelle. Thus, *N,N*-dimethyl laurylammonium hydroxide forms a salt with various guest carboxylic acids, which then forms a micelle in water. For the workup after photolysis, a simple extraction with organic solvents, for example, diethyl ether from HCl-acidified photolysate solution, is enough for a preferential separation of reacted carboxylic acids. Reversed micelles in hydrophobic organic solvents are more convenient for product isolation. A 1:1 salt of acidified AOT and guest tertiary amines makes a reversed micelle in organic solvents such as dichloromethane or benzene. Workup operation is also easy; addition of aqueous NaOH to the photolysate, followed by extraction with  $\text{CH}_2\text{Cl}_2$ , gives starting amines and their photoproducts no contamination from the surfactant.

It is intriguing to know how guest molecules, when incorporated in micelles, are conformationally organized in the structured micelle environment. To monitor properties of micellar aggregates, probe molecules, which exhibit fluorescence or absorption spectra characteristic to solubilization sites are sometimes used. A typical example of a fluorescence probe is pyrene. Kalyanasundaram and Thomas<sup>4</sup> have found a profound polarity effect on the ratio of the first (373 nm) and the third (385 nm) peak intensities of the structured fluorescence spectrum of pyrene, that is,  $I_{373}/I_{385}$ ; for example, solubilization sites for pyrene molecules in SDS micelles were deduced to be significantly polar and close to those of ethanol. The intensity ratios ( $I_{373}/I_{385}$ ) are linearly correlated with absorption maxima of charge transfer (CT) bands between stilbenes and methyl viologen ( $\text{MV}^{2+}$ ) in aqueous anionic micelles.<sup>5</sup>

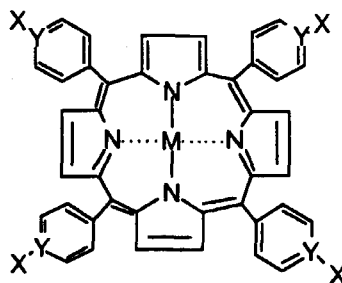


Ionically charged surfactants such as CTAB and SDS adsorb oppositely charged substrates electrostatically. For example, cationic micelles bind carboxylate and phenolate anions, and anionic micelles bind quaternary ammonium ions, including protonated amines. Because these ionic substrates are hydrophilic, it is not clear whether or not they are absorbed on the micelle surface. A fluorescence probe to observe the solubilization sites can be applied on the basis of quenching efficiency by guest molecules as quenchers.<sup>6-8</sup> Thus, the fluorescence of zinc(II) tetra(*p*-sulfonate)phenylporphyrin (ZnTPPS) is quenched efficiently by 1,2-dibromocinnamate in the presence of CTAB micelles.<sup>9</sup> Figure 3 shows that an anionic SDS micelle has no effect on the quenching between anionic ZnTPPS and 1,2-dibromocinnamate.



**FIGURE 3.** Quenching of 9-methylanthracene fluorescence by the dibromide anion in CTAB (○) and SDS (●) micelles. Conditions: 9-methylanthracene, 0.1 mM; surfactant, 4 mM; irradiation,  $290 \pm 2$  nm; detection of its fluorescence, 390 nm. (From Takagi, K., Miyake, N., Nakamura, E., Usami, H., and Sawaki, Y., *J. Chem. Soc. Faraday Trans. 1*, 84, 3475, 1988. With permission.)

mocinnamates. On the other hand, the quenching in the presence of a cationic CTAB micelle is efficient because of efficient electrostatic adsorption of oppositely charged ZnTPPS and 1,2-dibromocinnamate ions. A discontinuous



ZnTPPS: M = Zn; X = SO<sub>3</sub>Na; Y = C

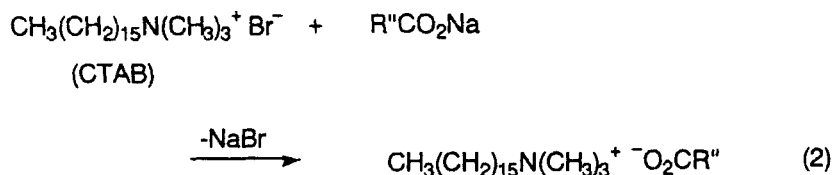
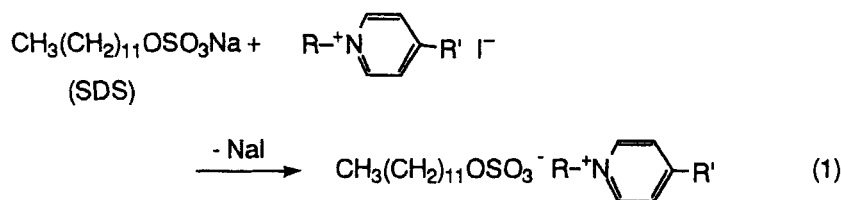
ZnTPP: M = Zn; X = H; Y = C

ZnTPyP: M = Zn; X = CH<sub>3</sub>; Y = N<sup>+</sup>

ZnTPSPy: M = Zn; X = CH<sub>2</sub>CH<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>; Y = N<sup>+</sup>

point can be seen in a relationship between the fluorescence intensity and the dibromide concentrations in CTAB micelle solutions. Because the discontinuous point appears at the equimolar concentration, that is [CTAB] = [cinnamate], it is apparent that one surfactant molecule adsorbs just one cinnamate ion and the excess amount of cinnamate ions are dissolved in the bulk water solution. Hence, a discontinuous point determines the maximum solubilization ability of the micelle. Usually, ionic micelles are capable of accommodating oppositely charged organic ions equal to their aggregation numbers ( $N_A$ ). The structure of the rigid and immobile SDS micelles at 77 K in an ethyleneglycol-water mixture has been characterized by luminescence-quenching studies.<sup>10</sup> These rigid micelles provide a unique electrostatic field that fixes guest molecules in a known geometry.

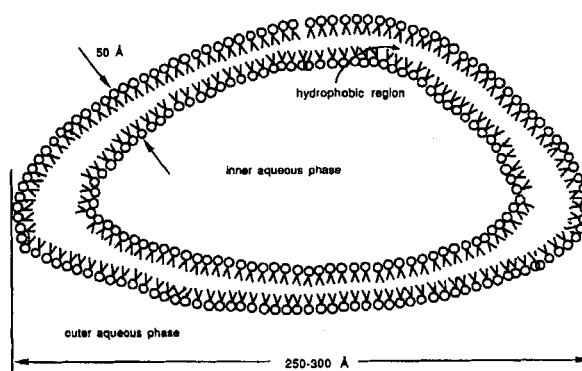
Amphiphilic ionic pairs can be easily prepared by mixing SDS with alkyl ammonium halides or mixing CTAB with sodium alkyl carboxylates, followed by extraction with



hydrophobic solvents such as  $\text{CH}_2\text{Cl}_2$  and benzene (Equations 1 and 2). Thus obtained amphiphilic ion pairs form micelles and sometimes vesicles that are characteristic to self-associating reaction fields. Sometimes ionic substrates, for example, carboxylates or protonated amines with long alkyl chains, are able to form micelles or premicelle aggregates. Aggregation numbers of amphiphilic ion pairs and surfactant substrates have been reported to be measured by means of nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectrophotometry<sup>11a,b,12</sup> or by using fluorescence probes<sup>13,14a,b</sup> as well as directly by a light-scattering method.<sup>14b</sup> According to the methods of Equations 1 and 2, propionic acid and laurylamine form 1:1 aggregates with  $N_A$  of 3 to 7 in cyclohexane, whereas SDS and *N*-methylstilbazolium iodide form micelles with  $N_A$  of 63, which is close to those in aqueous SDS micelles.

## 2. Vesicles

Vesicles are aggregates much larger than micelles, having a spherical or ellipsoidal closed bilayer structure, as shown in Figure 4.<sup>15</sup> Aggregates from phospholipids are termed liposomes. As shown in Figure 4, polar head groups of the lipids are exposed to the aqueous phase on both sides of the bilayer, and hence, the hydrocarbon chains align themselves in the inner core forming the bilayer. When guest molecules are included in such a molecular aggregate, it is interesting to know how they are organized and how their molecular conformation affects photochemical reactivities.



**FIGURE 4.** Schematic representation of a liposome bilayer.

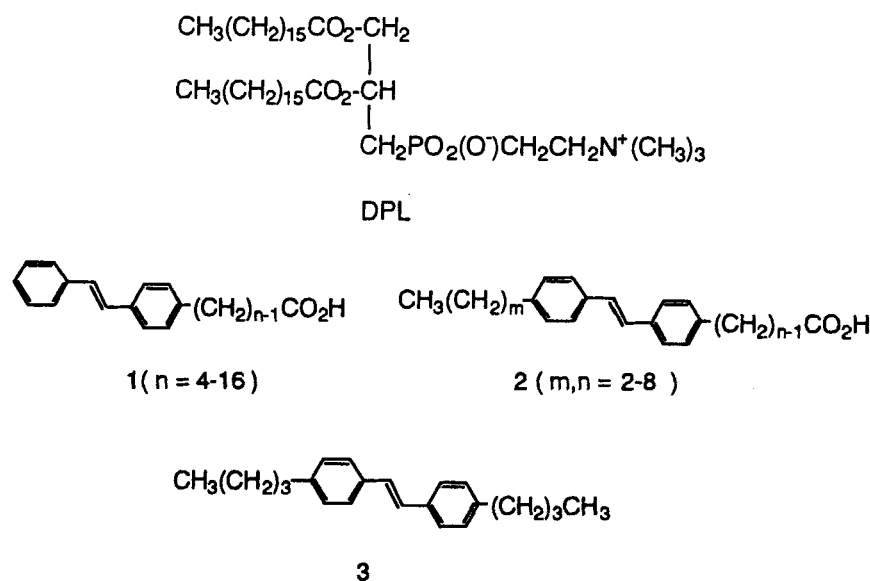
Lipid vesicles and liposomes are known to have phase-transition temperatures ( $T_c$ ) on which the alignment of surfactant molecules in the bilayers is changed. As explained in the previous case of micelle systems, the relative intensities of vibronic bands in pyrene fluorescence,  $I_{373}/I_{385}$ , can be applied to study the polarity of the solubilization sites. That is, pyrene was found to be solubilized in a polar region near the polar head groups below  $T_c$ , whereas it migrates into the nonpolar hydrophobic core region above  $T_c$ .<sup>16a,b</sup> At least two different solubilization sites probably exist in the vesicles. Solubilization sites of guest molecules also are dependent on the properties of guest molecules. Dipalmitoyllecithin (DPL) vesicle, for example, is reported to accommodate 4,4'-disubstituted *trans*-stilbenes (1–3) on its polar interface or in an organized bilayer region, depending on the

chain length of the alkyl substituents; that is, they are solubilized in the polar interface region in cases of shorter chain length but in the bilayer core in cases of longer chains.<sup>17</sup> Other evidence for the solubilization sites also was presented by measuring the rates of bromination of substituted stilbenes in DPL vesicles, where the bromination satisfied a two-component, first-order rate equation.<sup>18</sup> Triplet decay rates of 4-nitro-4'-methoxystilbene are sensitive to the polarity, viscosity, and pH of their microenvironments. Their triplet decay was divided into two components, that is, slower and faster decays, which are interchangeable with each other depending on the reaction temperature related to  $T_c$ .<sup>19</sup>

tor. A large number of articles have been published concerning electron transfers in such systems.

### 3. Monolayered and Multilayered Membranes

When surface-active agents are spread on water, they form a monolayer film, directing their hydrophobic alkyl chains toward the air phase on the surface of the water. Successive deposition of monolayers on appropriate supports affords a multilayer assembly. Monolayers or multilayers transferred from the air-water interface to glass slides are called Langmuir-



No example is available for the utilization of vesicle systems for preparative-scale photochemical reactions. Vesicle aggregates, however, provide an excellent system for photochemical charge separation on both aqueous compartments insulated by bilayers. Interestingly, photochemical electron transfers across vesicles are closely related to natural photosynthesis taking place in thylakoid membranes. As will be described later, the most important aspect is the realization of a net charge separation on some organized interfaces after a photochemical electron transfer between photosensitizer and electron accep-

Blodgett (LB) films, and they have opened fruitful fields for controllable photochemical molecular devices.<sup>20a,b</sup>

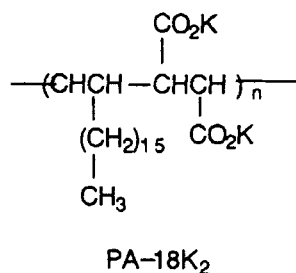
The most advantageous point of monolayer or multilayer assemblies is based on the artificially controllable arrangement of surfactant aggregates. Therefore, the layered assemblies are suitable for investigating photochemical energy or electron-transfer processes between organized donors and acceptors, indicating the importance of intermolecular alignments. Although some stereoselective photodimerizations have been noted,<sup>21a,b</sup> the LB films are not suitable for preparative scale photoreac-

tions; this is because the LB films are not always stable and the scaleup is difficult.

## B. Polyelectrolytes

Polyelectrolytes interact intimately with oppositely charged surfactants.<sup>22a-25</sup> For example, micelle clusters were formed on dispersion in water when sodium poly(styrenesulfonate) (PSSNa) formed a complex with CTAB. This means that cationic substrates may be adsorbed on polyelectrolyte aggregates. In fact, thousands of stilbazolium ions can be effectively adsorbed in one strand of PSSNa, which has been found to have micelle-like clusters.

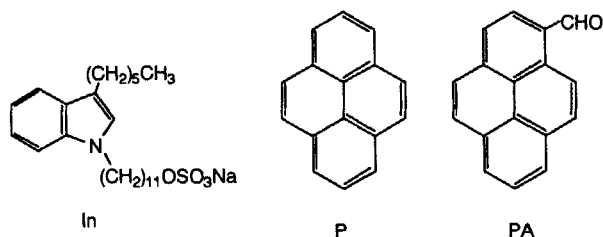
Polyelectrolyte PA-18K<sub>2</sub> forms a compact coil at lower pH and an extended rod or coil at higher pH. The polyelectrolyte can bind cationic or anionic pyrene derivatives on its micelle-like compact coil. Thus, PA-18K<sub>2</sub> with a molecular weight (MW) of 10,000 forms a polymer micelle composed of about 25 monomer units as confirmed by using a pyrene fluorescence probe.<sup>26</sup> Similarly, poly(acrylic acid) exists as a coil at lower pH and



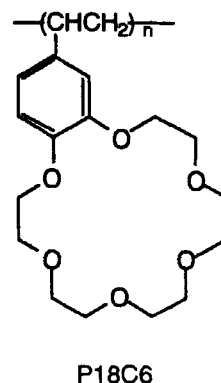
as an expanded form at higher pH, which was supported by lack of visible pyrene excimer fluorescence at high pH regions.<sup>27</sup> Addition of CTAB to the poly(methacrylic acid) solution yields micelle-like aggregates in which 100-CTAB molecules are accommodated. Quenching studies using a pyrene excimer probe were successful in determining the  $N_A$  values of polyelectrolyte complexes in combination with 1-dodecylpyridinium chloride (DPC) as a quencher.<sup>28</sup> Poly(styrenesulfonate) also forms a micelle-like cluster with stilbazolium ions, the  $N_A$  of which is estimated at about 100.<sup>29</sup>

The structure of hydrophilic aggregates of poly(ethylene oxide-propylene oxide-ethylene oxide)(EPE) block copolymer was investigated

by using three kinds of fluorescence probes,<sup>30</sup> an indole detergent (In), pyrene (P), and pyrene-3-carboxaldehyde (PA). Fluorescence maxima of In and PA and the intensity ratio of the  $I_{373}/I_{385}$  of pyrene fluorescence show that hydrophobicity of EPE is increased with increasing pressure and with decreasing temperature. As a fluorescent probe for polyelectrolytes, dansyl group<sup>31,32</sup> and diphenylanthracene<sup>33</sup> also are reported.



Polysoap, poly(vinylbenzo-18-crown-6) (P18C6) adsorbs pyrenylbutylammonium ion<sup>34</sup> and other species.<sup>35</sup> The pyrenyl groups are inserted between adjacent crown ether ligands, with the  $-NMe_3^+$  group protruding into the aqueous phase.



## C. Inorganic Electrostatic Fields

The solid surface of inorganic materials, for example, silica, clay minerals, and zeolites, possesses anionic or cationic sites absorbing charged guest molecules electrostatically. These inorganic minerals are photochemically inert, which is in contrast to the known photochemical activities of metal oxide semiconductors. In the present section, the properties of inorganic materials as electrostatic reactions are outlined briefly.

## 1. Silica Surfaces

Silica colloids consist of negatively charged spherical particles with a diameter of 50 to 500 Å. The surface is covered by an electric double layer that is made up by  $\text{SiO}^-$  and  $\text{OH}^-$  and usually is neutralized by sodium ions. The sodium ions are easily exchangeable with organic cations.<sup>36</sup> In water, nearly complete substitution with organic cations often results in precipitation of substituted colloids, which sometimes become soluble in organic solvents.

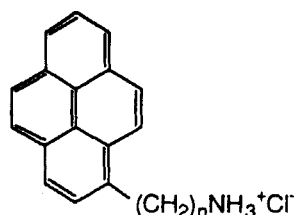
It is interesting to note that nonexponential decay curves were observed for the fluorescences of azobenzene, triphenylmethane dyes, and thioindigo adsorbed on alumina or silica.<sup>37</sup> The nonexponential decays were discussed in terms of different aggregation sites on polarizing surfaces and of interference between directly emitted and scattered fluorescence radiation. When the silica surface is porous, the size of the cavity controls the approach of substrates, affecting photochemical reaction course. The term "porous" means "sponge-like" or "microscopic hole."<sup>38</sup> The surface area of porous silica usually reaches 1000  $\text{m}^2/\text{g}$  as determined from  $\text{N}_2$  gas adsorption. Cavities with a diameter  $>20$  Å are effective as an adsorption site and the silanol groups are responsible for the magnetic interaction with guest molecules.

## 2. Clay Interlayers

Clays have layered structures and are readily suspended in aqueous solutions.<sup>39a,b</sup> Thus, montmorillonites are composed of units made up of two silica tetrahedral sheets and one alumina octahedral sheet, as illustrated in Figure 5. Their intersheet layer includes exchangeable metal ions (e.g., sodium ions), neutralizing net negative charges yielded by partial substitution of  $\text{Si}^{4+}$  by  $\text{Al}^{3+}$  at the tetrahedral sites. This is the reason why montmorillonites tend to adsorb cationic species and are readily suspended in water. On the contrary, some clays, for example, hydrotalcite, include exchangeable negative ions, leading to the effective adsorption of negatively charged guest molecules. The properties of typical clays are summarized in Table 2.

The numbers of exchangeable ions of clay minerals determine the amounts of organic guest ions that can be intercalated between the clay layers. For example, montmorillonite clay is capable of adsorbing guest cations according to a magnitude of cation exchange capacity (CEC), which is expressed as milliequivalents of the anionic sites per unit gram of the clay. Likewise, hydrotalcite accommodates guest anions according to a magnitude of anion exchange capacity (AEC) expressed as milliequivalents of the cationic sites per unit gram of the clay. Efficiencies of intercalations are dependent on the types of clays and guest molecules.<sup>40-42</sup> Adsorption on clays is accomplished by adding equimolar ionic substrates to aqueous colloidal clay solutions, sonicating with an ultrasound mixer, thus sometimes resulting in precipitations. In most cases, intercalated clay colloids can be homogeneously dispersed in hydrophobic solvents such as benzene, chloroform, and dichloromethane. A long-chain alkyl ammonium ion, for example, cetyltrimethylammonium ion (CTAC), forms its double layer on laponite clay surface.<sup>43</sup> Nonionic materials also may be intercalated in clay interlayers.<sup>41,42</sup>

A fluorescence probe can be used to study adsorption behaviors on clay interlayers. The emission maximum of an  $\text{Ru}(\text{bpy})_3^{2+}$  ion on clay minerals shifted toward a longer wavelength linearly, depending on the negative charge of the lattice and on the average particle size.<sup>44</sup> This was interpreted in terms of the distribution of the ion molecules over the external surface (i.e., edge sites) and the interlayer surface (i.e., planar sites).<sup>44</sup> DeSchryver et al.<sup>45</sup> reported on a fluorescent probe of pyrenes with ammonium groups, the conformation of which changed, depending on the degree of intercalation and the presence of coadsorbents. Hydrophobic pyrene itself was shown to be adsorbed as a monolayer on dry smectite clay and laponite.<sup>46</sup>



PnN ( $n = 1-3$ )

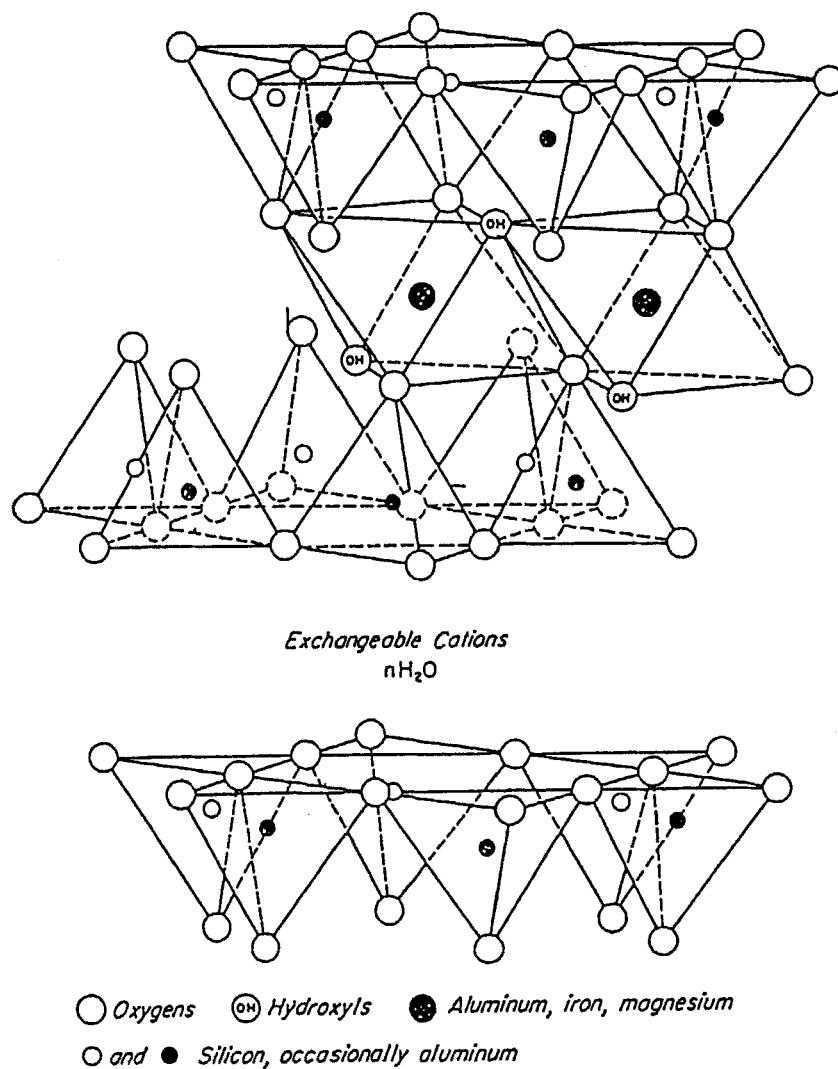


FIGURE 5. A structure of montmorillonite.

**TABLE 2**  
**Properties of Typical Clay Minerals**

Clay	Layer structure <sup>a</sup> [SiO <sub>4</sub> /AlO <sub>4</sub> ]	Exchangeable ion	Ion exchange capacity (mEq/100 g)
Montmorillonite	~2/1	Na <sup>+</sup> , Ca <sup>2+</sup>	60–80
Saponite	~2/1	Na <sup>+</sup> , Ca <sup>2+</sup>	60–80
Vermiculite	~2/1	Mg <sup>2+</sup> , Ca <sup>2+</sup>	100–150
Kaoline	~1/1 <sup>b</sup>		2–10
Hydrotalcite	[MgO <sub>2</sub> ]Octahedral	OH <sup>-</sup> , CO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup>	~400

<sup>a</sup> Molar ratio of SiO<sub>4</sub>/AlO<sub>4</sub> if not specified.

<sup>b</sup> The ratio of SiO<sub>4</sub>/AlO<sub>4</sub> or SiO<sub>4</sub>/MgO<sub>2</sub>.

Desorption of pyrene was accomplished simply by adding water to give microcrystals of pyrene. Micropolarity of environments for pyrene molecules was increased by eliminating water on the basis of changing the ratio of pyrene fluorescence intensities,  $I_{373}/I_{383}$ , from 0.9 to 1.80.

The conformation of a pyrene-labeled poly(acrylic acid) adsorbed at the water-alumina solid interface was made clear by using a fluorescence probe of pyrene excimer, indicating coiling structure of the strand.<sup>47</sup> The adsorbed polymer was shown to be extended at high pH but coiled at lower pH region.

Application of clay minerals to organized photochemical reactions has revealed an interesting aspect forced by spatial confinement in clay interlayers. The following features are shown: (1) not only cationic or anionic substrates, but also nonionic polar substrates, can be efficiently accommodated in the interlayers; (2) long alkyl-chain guest molecules such as CTAB can be arranged in a uniform manner, similar to those of LB membranes; (3) intercalation of some surfactants, for example, CTAB, makes the clay particles dissolvable in typical hydrophobic solvents such as benzene, dichloromethane, or carbon tetrachloride; and (4) clay colloids adsorbing organic guests form essentially transparent films by a simple casting or filtration *in vacuo*.

### 3. Zeolite Cavities

Zeolites<sup>48a-c</sup> are porous inorganic materials constituted from tetrahedral metal oxides,  $AlO_4$  and  $SiO_4$ , forcing guest molecules to be subject to

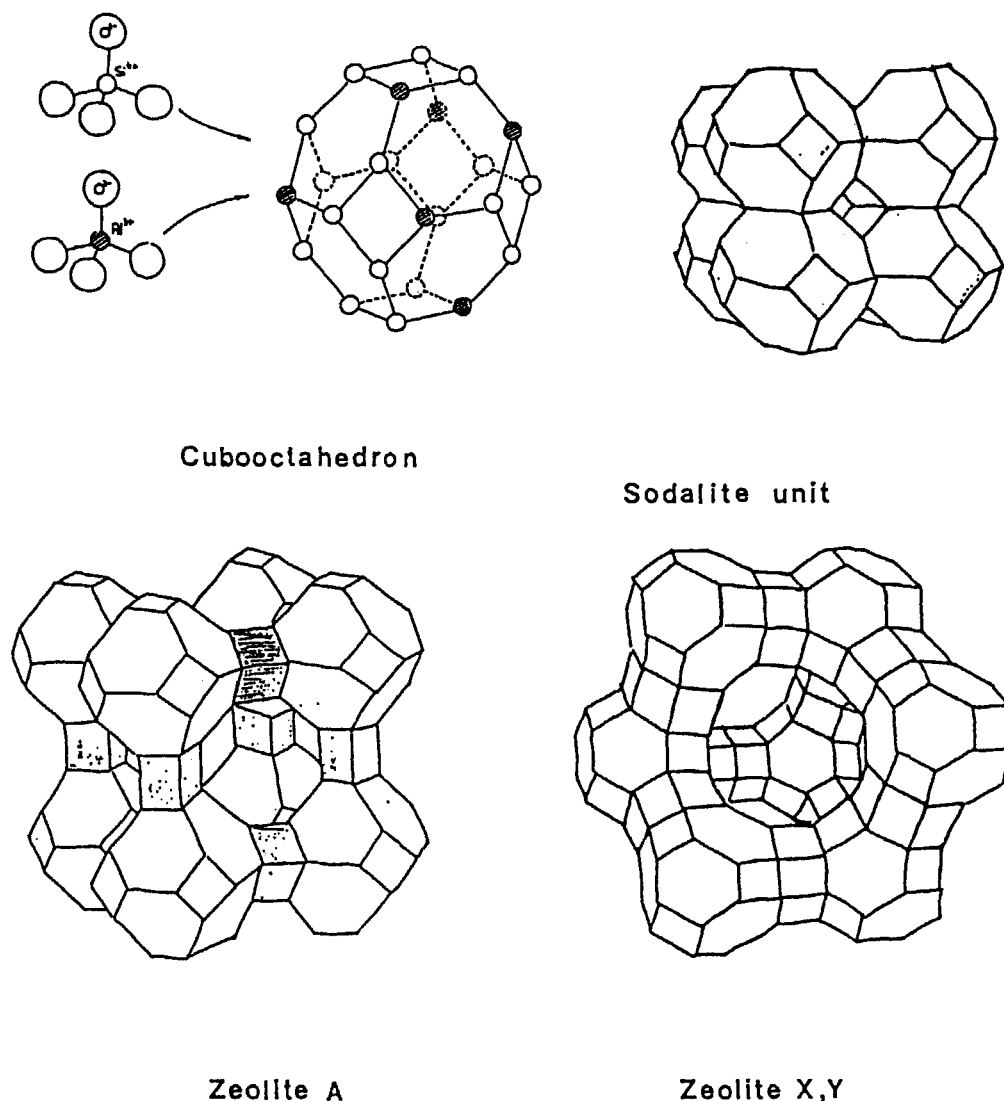
three-dimensional steric confinement. A zeolite cavity includes, as in the case of clay, alkaline metal cations exchangeable with some guest ions. Zeolites are classified into hydrophilic and hydrophobic types, called zeolite X or Y and silicalite, respectively (Table 3). The structure of X- or Y-type zeolite consists of (as shown in Figure 6) a cavity of 13 Å in diameter linked by a path of 8 to 10 Å in diameter that may accommodate hydrophilic guest molecules. Silicalite possesses an inner cavity of 5 to 6 Å in diameter and adsorbs hydrophobic guest molecules.

Organic molecules included in zeolite cavities are known to exhibit characteristic emissive properties. Several aromatic ketones, such as acetophenone, benzophenone, and  $\beta$ -phenylpropiophenone, in zeolite show readily detectable phosphorescence at room temperature with a lifetime of 0.18 to 0.30 ms.<sup>49</sup> Thus, the lifetime of excited triplet  $\beta$ -phenylpropiophenone at room temperature is enhanced by about five orders of magnitude on inclusion into the channels of silicalite with hydrophobic cavity.<sup>50a</sup> This is attributed to the restricted mobility in the cavity. On the basis of nonexponential phosphorescence decay of the ketone triplet, silicalite has been proved to have at least two distinct inclusion sites. Pyrene fluorescence intensity ratio ( $I_{375}/I_{385}$ ) indicates a very polar medium for pyrene in zeolites X (0.45) and Y (0.74). Quenching of excited pyrene by oxygen gas is quite efficient, indicating a concentration of  $O_2$  in the zeolite, similar to that in the gas phase.<sup>50b</sup>

There is an intrinsic difference between zeolite cavities and clay interlayers; that is, the capacity of zeolite cavities is not enough to accom-

**TABLE 3**  
**Representative Molecular Sieve Zeolites**

Zeolite	Type	[AlO <sub>4</sub> /SiO <sub>4</sub> ]	Channel (Å)	Diameter of cavity (Å)
A	Faujasite	1/1	4	11
X		1/2.2 ~ 1/3	8	13
Y		1/2.6	8	13
L	Chabazite	1/1	3.7	—
ZSM-5	Pentasil Zeolite	1/31	—	—
Silicalite		~1/20	5.4	—
Mordenite		~1/5	3 × 6	7



**FIGURE 6.** Schematic representation of the structural features of zeolites A, X, and Y and their constituted units. (From Van Hooft, J. H. C., *Chemistry and Chemical Engineering of Catalytic Process*, NATO Advanced Studies Institute Series E, No. E39, Prias, R. and Schuit, G. C. A., Eds., Sijthoff & Noordhoff Publishers, The Netherlands, 1980, 161. With permission.)

moderate more than three molecules of guests or reagents, which implies no occurrence of intermolecular reactions or photochemical electron transfers. Unique unimolecular reactions, however, can be expected in such a spatially confined reaction field. These aspects are different from the case of clay interlayers in which intermolecular reactions are easily accessible because of the intercalation of many guest molecules.

### III. PHOTOCHEMICAL REACTIONS ON ELECTROSTATIC FIELDS

#### A. Unimolecular Reactions

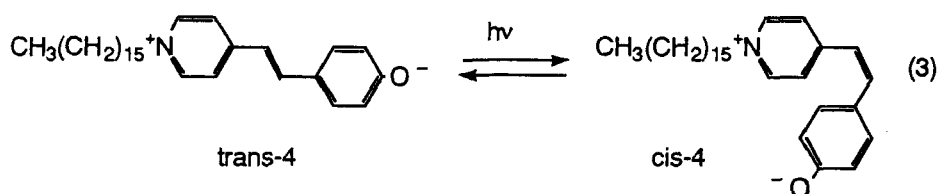
##### 1. Isomerizations

Photoisomerization between *cis*- and *trans*-olefins is one of the most significant photochemical reactions. The process is closely related to an

induction of excitation of the visual nerve of animals via the stereoselective isomerization of the 11-*cis* retinal moiety into the all-*trans* form of rhodopsin. *Cis-trans*-photoisomerizations of olefins are quite useful for the preparation of *cis*-olefins, and the reaction media sometimes affect the isomerization because of their polarity, viscosity, or solubility. Hence, microheterogeneous fields such as micelles, vesicles, and monolayer or bilayer membranes would be expected to function as organized media controlling photoreaction pathways.

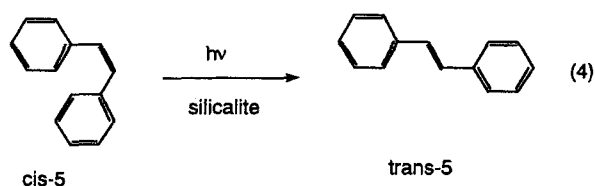
Substituted stilbenes (1–3) with different chains were subjected to photochemical *cis-trans*-isomerization in SDS micelle, DPL, and sodium dicetylphosphate (DCP) vesicles.<sup>17</sup> The substituted stilbenes were solubilized in different sites in these heterogeneous fields. Suddaby et al.<sup>17</sup> concluded that the inner phase of SDS micelles is similar to homogeneous solutions and the micelles have no effect on the photochemical isomerization. In contrast, DPL or DCP vesicles provide an organized environment in which the structural change of adsorbed stilbenes is restricted and exhibits a discontinuous point at their phase-transition temperature, T<sub>c</sub>.

4-Hydroxy-1-cetylstilbazolium betaine **4**, an amphiphilic merocyanine dye, is photoisomerized reversibly with comparable efficiency either in a benzyldimethylammonium chloride (BDAC) reversed micelle or in methanol.<sup>51</sup>



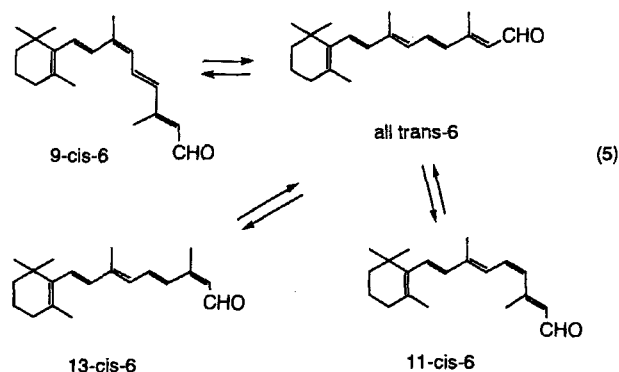
Photoisomerizations affording a mixture of *cis*- and *trans*-olefins were much faster than the photocyclodimerization when cinnamic acid,<sup>52</sup> 1,2-dinaphthylethylene,<sup>53</sup> and benzothiazovinylinidenetriazenes<sup>54</sup> were irradiated in micelle solutions. An interesting and selective formation of *trans*-stilbene was attained by applying silicalite. Thus, irradiation of *cis*-stilbene was done in the presence of silicalite using 3,4-dimethylbenzophenone as a sensitizer. *Trans*-stilbene

(*trans*-5) once formed is intercalated selectively in a silicate cavity of 6 Å diameter, resulting in the irreversible transformation into pure *trans*-isomer.<sup>55</sup>



As will be described later, stilbazolium cation<sup>56a-c</sup> and cinnamate anion<sup>57</sup> can be efficiently intercalated in montmorillonite and hydrotalcite clays, respectively. Interestingly, the major photochemical reactions of the clay-intercalated olefins were not the *cis-trans*-isomerizations but their cyclodimerizations, implying that the restricted reaction fields govern the photoreactivity.

Adsorption of retinal (**6**) on silica gel shifts its absorption maximum by 50 nm to a longer wavelength. UV irradiation of adsorbed retinal gave rise to 11-*cis*-retinal at the photostationary state along with a mixture of several isomers (Table 4). A preferential isomerization to 11-*cis*-isomer was explained by the stereoelectronic effect of olefin rather than the polar effect of the silica gel surface.<sup>58</sup>



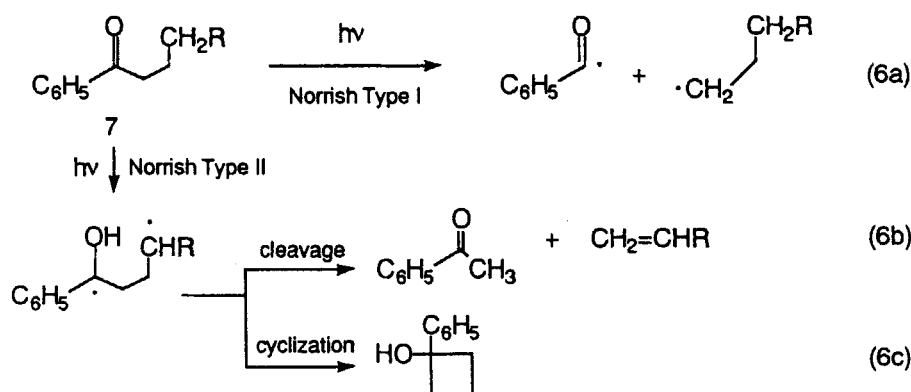
**TABLE 4**  
Product Distribution on Irradiation of All *trans*-Retinal (All-*trans*-6)

Medium	Quantum yield		Photostationary state			
	All <i>trans</i> →9- <i>cis</i>	All <i>trans</i> →13- <i>cis</i>	All <i>trans</i>	9- <i>cis</i>	11- <i>cis</i>	13- <i>cis</i>
Hexane	—	—	70	5	0	24
3-Methylpentane	0.015	—	—	—	—	—
Ethanol	—	—	53	7	20	25
Methanol	0.0006	0.0018	—	—	—	—
SiO <sub>2</sub> /hexane	0.018	0.11	29	22	36	12

Alumina selectively adsorbs *cis*-thioindigo, but not the corresponding *trans*-isomer. Because of the stereospecific adsorption, a one-way photoisomerization takes place from *trans* to *cis*.<sup>59</sup> *Cis*-thioindigo adsorbed on alumina was shown to be photochemically inert.

## 2. The Norrish Type I and II Reactions

Photolysis of carbonyl compounds results in homolytic  $\alpha$ -fissions and/or  $\gamma$ -hydrogen abstractions. The former is called Norrish type I, and the latter Norrish type II reaction (Equation 6).



It appears that the Norrish type II reaction is dependent on the reaction media on the basis of its stereochemical requirements for the intramolecular hydrogen abstraction via a six-membered transition state. Hence, the Norrish type II reaction via the cyclic transition state would be unfavorable under the conditions of spatially restricted environments. The quantum efficiencies for the photochemical reaction of butyrophenone (7, R=H) are summarized in Table 5. The data in Table 5 suggest that butyrophenone, when incorporated

**TABLE 5**  
The Quantum Yields for Photolysis of Butyrophenone (7, R=H)

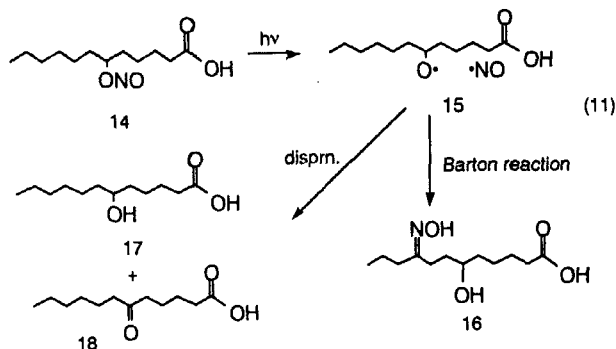
Reaction media	$\Phi_{\text{Type II}}$
Tert-butanol	$1.02 \pm 0.03$
SDS micelle	$0.80 \pm 0.02$
CTAC micelle	$0.72 \pm 0.02$
Benzene	$0.27 \pm 0.03$
LB membrane	$<0.001$

in LB membrane, is constrained and unfavorable for the the cyclic transition state.<sup>60a,b</sup> Almost equal efficiencies in either the micelle or the usual solvents show that there is no significant differ-

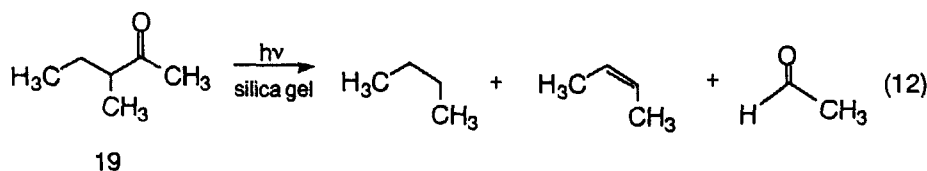
ence in viscosity between them. This is in accordance with an observation that the micelle interior is disordered and not as viscous as *tert*-butanol.<sup>61</sup> When butyrophenone is incorporated in the LB membrane of arachidic acid, neither type I nor type II reaction takes place at all. In the LB membrane, butyrophenone is assumed to be organized as rigid molecular aggregates, and hence, the radical pairs, once they are formed, tend to recombine facily, yielding the original ketone.



celles. There could be several explanations for this, including polarity of the media. No dramatic change, however, was observed in the photolysis in a variety of solvents, both polar and nonpolar.<sup>73a</sup> Because of its microviscosity, potassium dodecanoate (KDC) micelle retarded the Barton-type reaction involving the cyclic transition state to abstract hydrogen atom.<sup>73b</sup> Instead, the resulting alkoxy radical underwent disproportionation giving alcohol (17) and ketone (18).

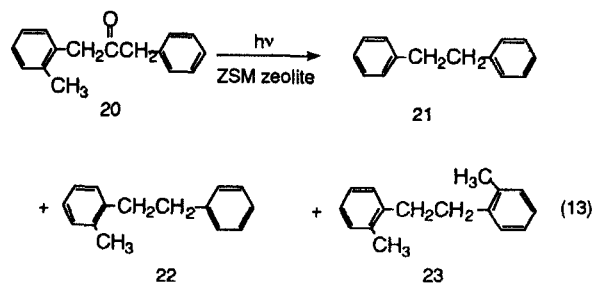


In contrast to micelle systems, silica gel adsorbs various hydrophobic organic compounds by means of hydrogen bonding, dispersion force, and/or electrostatic force. For example, carbonyl oxygen of ketone (19) is hydrogen bonded to the hydroxyl group of silica surface, which reduces the hydrogen abstraction of an excited carbonyl group by lowering its  $n\pi^*$  nature; the Norrish type I reaction (Equation 12) becomes a major photoprocess.<sup>74a</sup> The lowest triplet state is reported to be  $\pi,\pi^*$  in nature in case of *p*-methoxyacetophenone embedded in Vycor glass.<sup>74b</sup> It is interesting to note that a zeolite cavity respects molecular sizes and controls product selectivity.



Thus, the photolysis of *o*-methyl bibenzyl ketone (20) in hydrophobic zeolite (ZSM, cavity diameter of 6 Å) gave only symmetrical dibenzyls (21 and 23), whereas the *p*-substituted benzyl radical yielded unsymmetrical dibenzyl (cf. 22). Turro

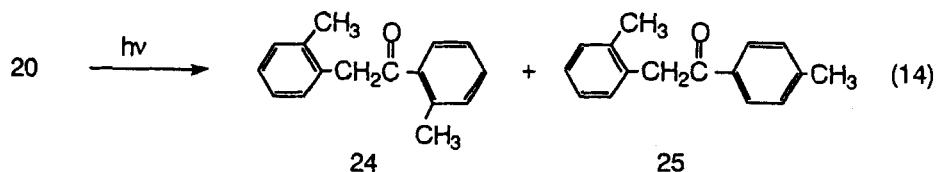
et al.<sup>75a</sup> explained that the *o*-substituted benzyl radical, but not the *p*-substituted benzyl radical, is too large to be accommodated in the cavity and therefore is diffused into the bulk. Unsubstituted and *p*-methyl-substituted benzyl radicals dimerize in the cavity, but the *o*-substituted benzyl radical dimerizes only in the bulk solution.



### 3. Rearrangements

A large number of radical-pair-type photo rearrangements are known to occur in homogeneous organic solvents. It is intriguing to see that molecular movements might be affected by organized media controlling rearranged products. Zeolites are crystalline aluminosilicates with cages and channel systems that can host a variety of organic transformations. This intracrystalline space is akin to a solvent and is describable in terms of solvatochromic indicators. For example, a faujasite zeolite includes a solvatochromic indicator in its cage as a zwitterionic form stabilized with Lewis acid ( $\text{Na}^+$ ) and bases (oxygen of the framework).<sup>75b</sup>

Irradiation of 20 in X- or Y-type zeolites with larger cavities of a diameter about 13 Å was subject to a photo rearrangement to form 24 and 25.<sup>76a</sup> In the restricted space of the cavity, radical pairs have longer lives, with time

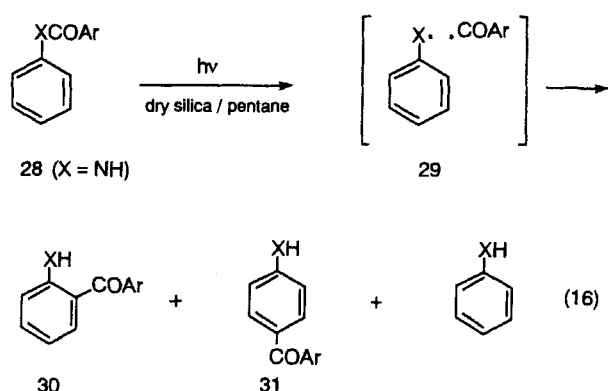


enough to rotate freely, leading to the observed rearrangement. Exchangeable cations in the zeolite cavity significantly affect product distribution.<sup>76b,c</sup> Going from  $\text{Li}^+$  to  $\text{Na}^+$  to  $\text{K}^+$ , rearranged products (e.g., **24** and **25**) are increased at the expense of the formation of diphenylethane (e.g., **22**). This is in correlation to the steady decrease of the amount of void space in a zeolite in the order from  $\text{Li}^+$  to  $\text{Na}^+$  to  $\text{K}^+$ . Product distribution from dibenzylketones was found to be dramatically dependent on the loading percentage of the starting ketone in zeolite. The amount of loaded ketones resulted in the increase of rearranged products and, at the same time, the decrease of diphenylethanes, which is explained by the rapid diffusion of the resulting radical pairs.<sup>77</sup> Photochemistry of zeolite-intercalated reactants is sensitive to simple coadsorbates such as water, benzene, cyclohexane, and hexane.<sup>78a,b</sup> Thus, the inclusion of organic molecules in the supercage of zeolite causes a significant congestion of void space and restricts the diffusional and rotational motion of radical pairs produced by the photolysis of **20**. As a result, the formation of **21–23** was suppressed, but the yields of **24** and **25** were increased; the addition of water caused a different result.<sup>78</sup> Preferential adsorption of water molecules in the cavity surface induced displacement of **20** to the external surface. Hence, the radical pair diffused freely and drastically decreased the formation of **24** and **25**.<sup>76a,79</sup>

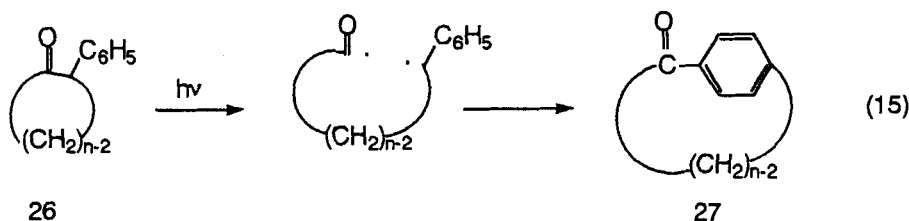
The homolysis of cyclic ketone (**26**) in the zeolite cavity is reported to give ring-expanded ketone (**27**), as shown in Equation 15. This is contrasted to the results in solutions giving good yields of alkenols.<sup>80,81</sup> The molecular size of **26** with  $n > 15$  is too large to be intercalated in the

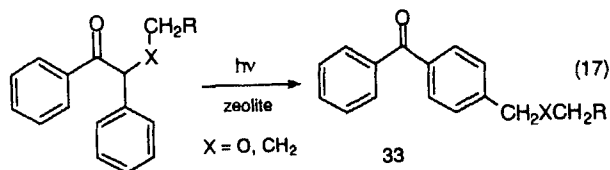
zeolite cavity. It is true, however, that the ring-expanded ketones (**27**) were formed in the cavity on irradiation in the presence of X-type zeolite. The typical photochemical reaction controlled by the zeolite cavity could be explained as radical pairs. Radical pairs formed by the photolysis of **26** can now enter the cavity and then cyclize at the *para* position of phenyl.<sup>82</sup>

deMayo et al.<sup>83,84</sup> noted that the photochemical Fries rearrangement of arylanilides (**28**) adsorbed on silica gel resulted in clearer reactions, although the yields of **30** and **31** were low compared with those in homogeneous solutions. The clear rearrangement on the silica surface was rationalized by assuming a difficult separation of radical-pair intermediates and their effective recombination.



On UV irradiation, benzoin alkyl ethers and alkyl deoxybenzoins gave the rearranged benzophenones along with other photo products (Equation 17).<sup>64</sup>





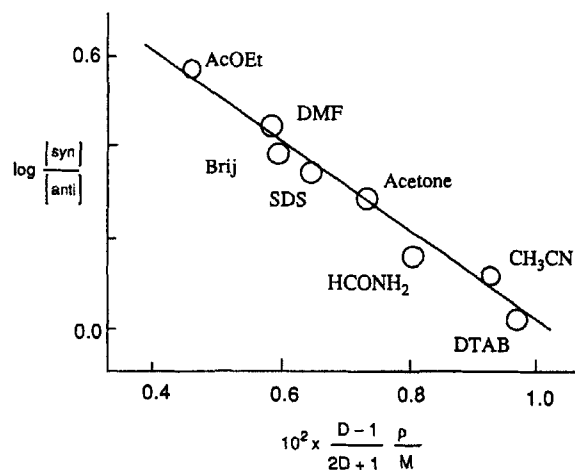
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## B. Bimolecular Reactions

### 1. Cyclodimerizations

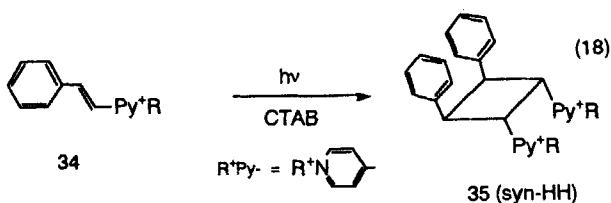
Photochemical [2 + 2] cyclodimerizations are useful probes for understanding the alignment of olefin molecules, organized or not, in heterogeneous fields. Various types of organized media have been used for the cyclodimerizations. Thus, the photochemical cyclodimerization of 9-methylanthracenes<sup>85</sup> and 9-hydroxymethylanthracenes<sup>86</sup> is known to give head-to-head dimers, indicating their parallel orientation in CTAB and SDS micelles. In contrast, the cyclodimerization of acenaphthene was shown to be governed by the polarities of the solvents used. As shown in Figure 7, a linear relationship between  $\log ([\text{syn-dimer}]/[\text{anti-dimer}])$  and polarities also is true in the cases of SDS and dodecyltrimethylammonium iodide micelles.<sup>87,88</sup> This indicates that acenaphthene molecules are



**FIGURE 7.** Dependence of  $\log [\text{syn}]/[\text{anti}]$  on the solvent polarity,  $(D-1)/(2D+1) \times n/M$  for the photochemical cyclodimerization of acenaphthene. (From Mayer, H., Schuster, F., and Sauer, J., *Tetrahedron Lett.*, 1289, 1986. With permission.)

organized in electrostatic fields by micelles, in contrast to the case of anthracenes.

An interesting result was obtained for the photodimerization of surfactantized stilbazolium ions **34** ( $R=C_{16}H_{34}$ ) dissolved in CTAB micelles. Stereochemistry of the resulting dimer was essentially *syn*-head-to-head (*syn*-HH), which is in sharp contrast to the dimer of *syn*-head-to-tail (*syn*-HT) in relatively highly concentrated solutions. The preferential formation of *syn*-HH dimer in CTAB micelles clearly reflects that the surfactant stilbazolium ions are aligned parallel on the CTAB micelle surface.<sup>21a</sup> A similar stereochemistry in

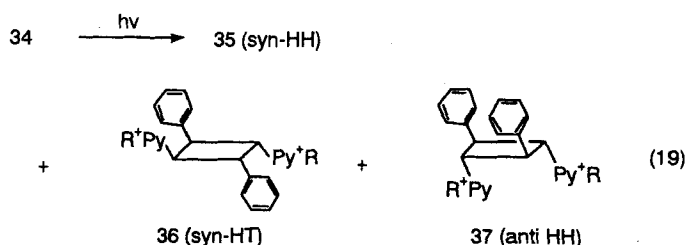


cyclodimers has been observed from olefins accommodated in bilayer membranes.<sup>89,90</sup>

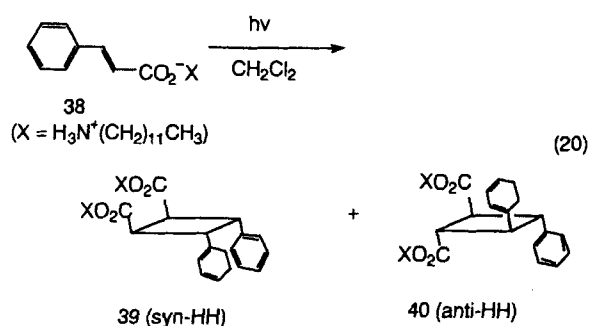
Equimolar mixtures of protonated stilbazolium ions (**34**,  $R=H$ ) with AOT anions form reversed micelles dissolvable in organic solvents, such as chloroform, carbon tetrachloride, and benzene. Aggregation of stilbazolium ions was evidenced by the fact that the micelle system exhibited a strong excimer fluorescence, whereas a homogeneous solution emitted only monomer fluorescence under similar concentrations. The ion pair in the reversed micelle yielded mainly the *syn*-HH dimer (**35**) along with minor formations of *syn*-HT and *anti*-HH dimers.<sup>91</sup> This reaction system is advantageous because of the simple and convenient procedure for product isolation; that is, the reactions mixture after irradiation was treated with concentrated HCl anthraquinone followed by the extraction with dichloromethane to give dimers. Reversed micelles contain water droplets of various sizes in their core. As shown in Table 6, a larger droplet lowered the stereoselectivity of the *syn*-HH dimer, implying a loosening of molecular packing in the reversed micelle.

**TABLE 6**  
**Effect of Water on Product Distribution from**  
**Photolysis of Stilbazolium Ion (34) in an AOT**  
**Reversed Micelle in Hexane**

Initial concentration (mM)			Yield (%)			
[34] (R=H)	[AOT]	[H <sub>2</sub> O]	<i>cis</i> -34	35	36	37
1.0	2.0	5	27	56	5	12
1.0	2.0	10	27	51	—	21
1.0	2.0	20	27	60	6	8
1.3	7.9	64	49	29	15	7
2.4	6.5	78	77	6	17	—



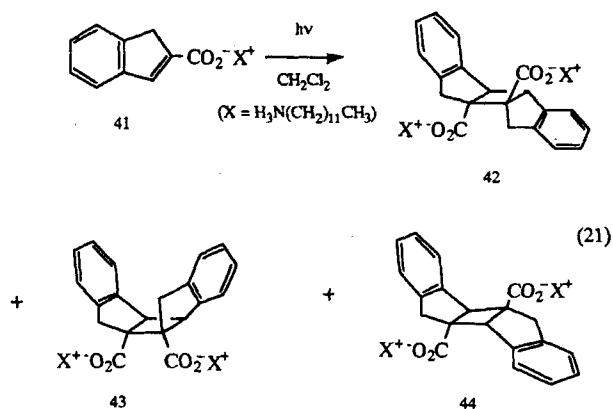
Cinnamic acids form ion pairs with laurylamine that are dissolvable in hydrophobic solvents as small aggregates consisting of several ion pairs. Irradiation of ion pair (38) resulted in the formation of *syn*- and *anti*-HH dimers (39 and 40) in a ratio of about 4:1.<sup>52</sup> The observed



stereochemistry of the pair aggregates was different from that in solid state, where a *syn*-HT dimer was formed, reflecting the packing of the crystal structure. The quantum yield for the *syn*-HH dimer formation was significantly high (i.e.,  $\Phi$  0.15), which is more than 20 times higher than that in the absence of laurylamine.

Another interesting point is a solvent effect for the stereoselectivity in the photodimerization

of laurylammonium 2-indenecarboxylate (41).<sup>92</sup> Table 7 shows that the increasing polarity of solvents shifts a preferential dimer formation from *syn*-HH to *anti*-HH dimers. It is apparent that polar solvents may change molecular alignment in the reversed micelles in organic solvents.



A contrasting result was obtained during the photolysis of 3-alkylcyclopentenone (45) in KDC micelles. Regioselectivities of HT- and HH-dimers were reversed by solvents, that is, benzene or KDC micelle.<sup>93a,b</sup> As listed in Table 8, the HH-

**TABLE 7**  
Effect of Solvent on the Isomer Distributions from the Irradiation of Laurylammonium 2-Indene-Carboxylate (41)<sup>a</sup>

X in 41	Solvent	Isomeric cyclodimer (%)			
		42( <i>anti</i> -HH)	43( <i>syn</i> -HH)	44( <i>anti</i> -HT)	
H <sub>3</sub> N(CH <sub>2</sub> ) <sub>11</sub> Me <sup>b</sup>	CH <sub>2</sub> Cl <sub>2</sub>	13	72	14	—
	C <sub>6</sub> H <sub>6</sub>	12	74	14	—
	C <sub>6</sub> H <sub>6</sub> <sup>c</sup>	10	74	16	—
	CHCl <sub>3</sub>	19	54	28	—
	MeOH	85	—	11	4
	MeCN	88	—	12	—

<sup>a</sup> Conversion 30–55%.

<sup>b</sup> Irradiation time of 0.5 h.

<sup>c</sup> Dried by distillation over calcium hydride.

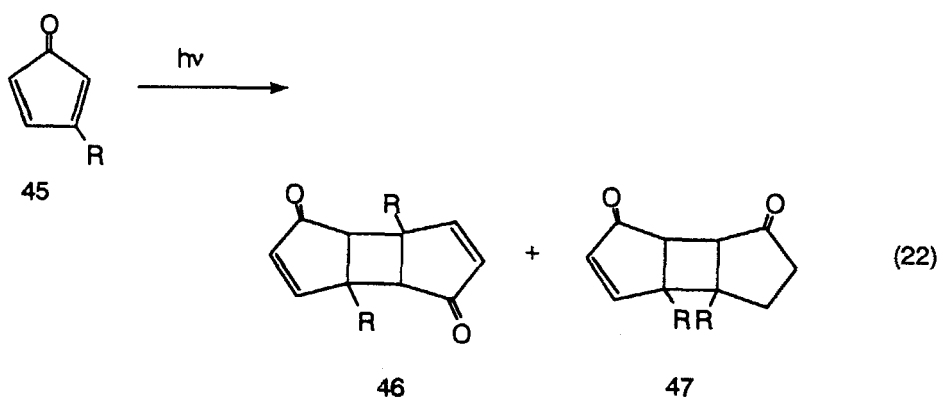
**TABLE 8**  
Photochemical  
Cyclodimerization of 3-  
Alkylcyclopentenone (45)

Medium	46 (HT) (%)	47 (HH) (%)
Benzene	91	9
Methanol	50	50
KDC micelle	2	98

dimer was predominant in the micelle system. A preferential formation of HH-dimers in micelles also is noted in the photodimerization of isophorones<sup>94</sup> and coumarines.<sup>95</sup> The regiochemistry of the dimers is reasonably assumed to be a reflection of the mutual organized alignment of olefin molecules in micelles. Spherically structured aggregates, presented before as normal or reversed micelles (Figure 2),

suggest similarly aligned molecules and seem to explain the observed regiochemistry of cyclodimers. Other examples also are shown here.<sup>96,97</sup>

Photodimerization of 2-methoxynaphthalenes (48, R=H) in SDS or CTAB micelles resulted in the exclusive formation of a demethylated product (49) through *cis*-dimer (Table 9).<sup>96</sup> This is in contrast to solution photochemistry, wherein only

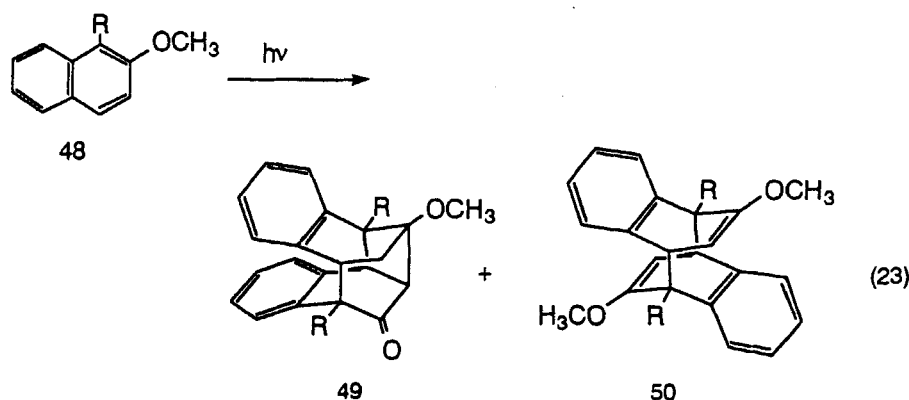


**TABLE 9**  
**Effect of Micelles on the Photocyclodimerization**  
**of 2-Methoxynaphthalenes (48)**

Medium	49 ( <i>cis</i> )		50 ( <i>trans</i> )	
	R=H (%)	R=CH <sub>3</sub> (%)	R=H (%)	R=CH <sub>3</sub> (%)
Benzene	—	—	80	—
Cyclohexane	—	45	—	50
SDS micelle	60	45	—	—
CTAC micelle	71	61	—	—

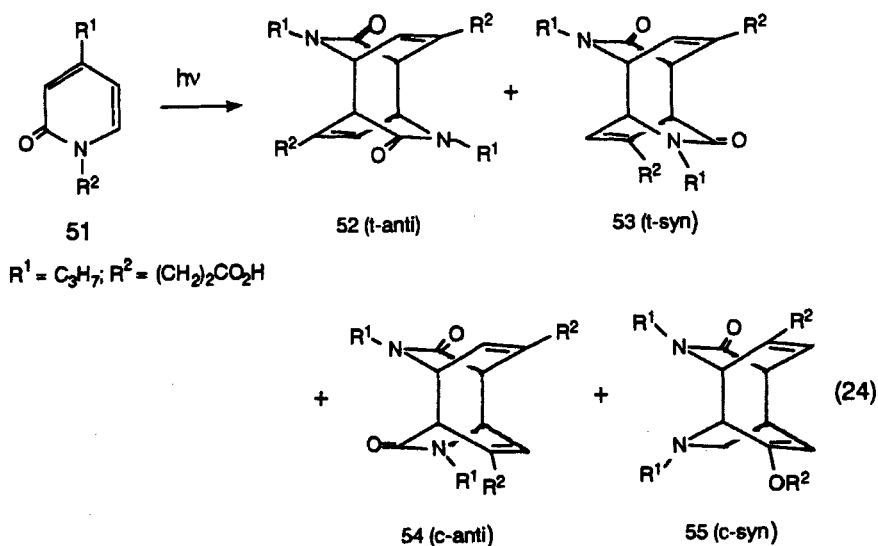
the corresponding *trans*-dimer (50) is observed. These results are rationalized on the basis of the preorientation of 48 in micelles.

plies that 51 dimerizes in a completely nonselective manner, approaching adjacent pyridones in homogeneous solutions. In contrast, the



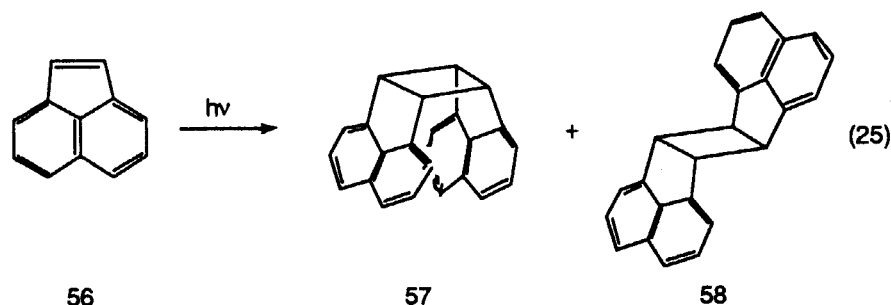
Similarly, irradiation of *N*- $\omega$ -carboxyalkyl-2-pyridone (51) in water gave rise to a random mixture of dimers, 52, 53, 54, and 55 in yields of 48, 24, 14, and 14%, respectively. This im-

CTAB micelle is shown to regulate the orientation of the pyridones in its micelle interface on the basis of the exclusive formation of *cis*-isomers (52:53:54:55 = 0:0:65:35).



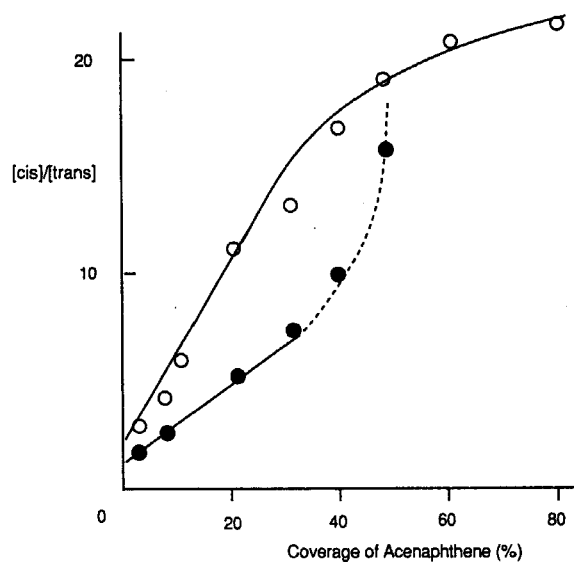
Photocyclodimerization occurred on the surface of the inorganic solid. That is, acenaphthene on silica surface (**56**) gave *cis*- and *trans*-cyclodimers.<sup>98</sup> It should be noted that a singlet excited acenaphthene formed an excimer with a

0.1 to 20% coverage. This indicates that the strong excimer fluorescence, even with 0.1% coverage, is realized only through the formation of a cluster of olefin molecules.<sup>102</sup> The cluster formation is supported by the fact that the preferential forma-



neighboring molecule, leading to the formation of a *cis*-dimer, whereas triplet excited **56** resulted in the formation of a *trans*-isomer via a stepwise radical pathway. The excited singlet ( $S_1$ ) of **56**, because of its short lifetime (about  $1 \times 10^{-9}$  s), formed a complex only with the nearest olefin. On the other hand, the excited triplet acenaphthene may have diffused approximately 300 Å within its lifetime,  $1 \times 10^{-6}$  s. These factors are clearly reflected by the increasing *cis/trans* ratios with the increasing olefin molecules on  $\text{SiO}_2$  surfaces, as shown in Figure 8. The rapid diffusion of some aromatic molecules on the surface has been measured using time-resolved laser flash spectrophotometry with a diffuse reflectance technique.<sup>99</sup> Thus, the excited triplet benzophenone has been shown to be dynamically quenched by naphthalene on silica gel with a diffusion-controlled rate.<sup>100a,b</sup>

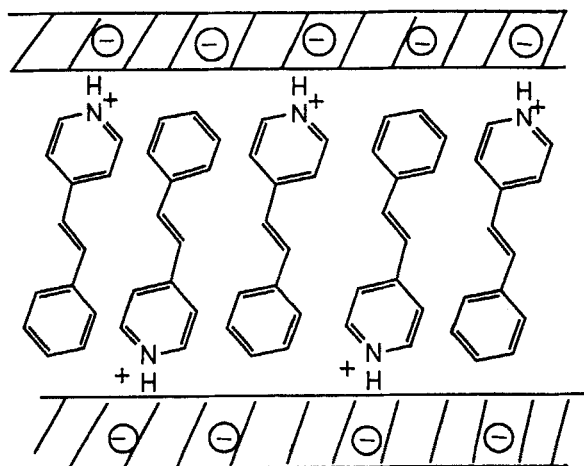
Clay interlayers also are useful electrostatic fields for photochemical cyclodimerization. Thus, stilbazolium ions intercalated on montmorillonite interlayers were shown to undergo a selective cyclodimerization to yield a *syn*-HT dimer.<sup>56,57</sup> The high regioselectivity for the *syn*-HT dimer clearly indicates the predominant antiparallel alignment of stilbazolium ions; that is, the stilbazolium ions were alternatively adsorbed on upper and lower layer surfaces of clay, as depicted in Figure 9. In fact, it is known that clay minerals may form a bilayer film of intercalated alkylammonium ions.<sup>101</sup> Interestingly, only excimer fluorescence was observable from clay-intercalated stilbazolium ions in a wide range of



**FIGURE 8.** Plot of isomer ratio against acenaphthylene coverage: (○) with tumbling and (●) with tumbling in the presence of acenaphthene (total coverage: 1.46 mmol/g of silica gel). (From Bauer, R. K., Borenstein, Jr., deMayo, P., Okada, K., Rafalska, M., Ware, N. R., and Wu, K. C., *J. Am. Chem. Soc.*, 104, 4635, 1982. With permission.)

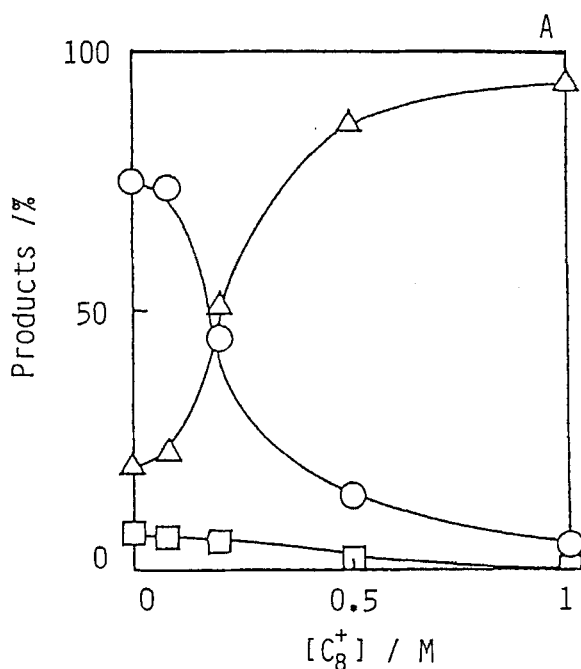
tion of the *syn*-HT dimer is always observed, regardless of the short coverage, but the adsorbed stilbazolium cations have been realized among particles through an adsorption equilibrium with external bulk solution.<sup>56c</sup>

Another interesting aspect of clay interlayers was revealed by the effect of alkylammonium ions coadsorbed; that is, the clusters of intercalated stilbazolium ions were found to be dissoci-

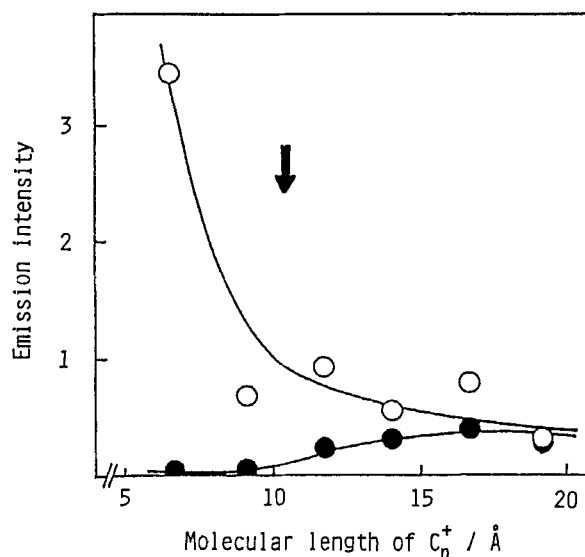


**FIGURE 9.** A schematic representation of the alkene packing in the interlayers of saponite clay.

ated by adding alkylammonium ions with a molecular length longer than that of the olefin. Coadsorption of long-chain alkylammonium ions effectively quenched the photocyclodimerization of the stilbazolium ion (Figure 10) as well as the excimer fluorescence (Figure 11). Layer distances



**FIGURE 10.** Effect octylammonium ions ( $C_8^+$ ) on photoreactivity of preintercalated stilbazolium ion on clay.  $\circ$ :syn head-to-tail dimer;  $\square$ :syn head-to-head dimer;  $\triangle$ : cis-stilbazolium ion.



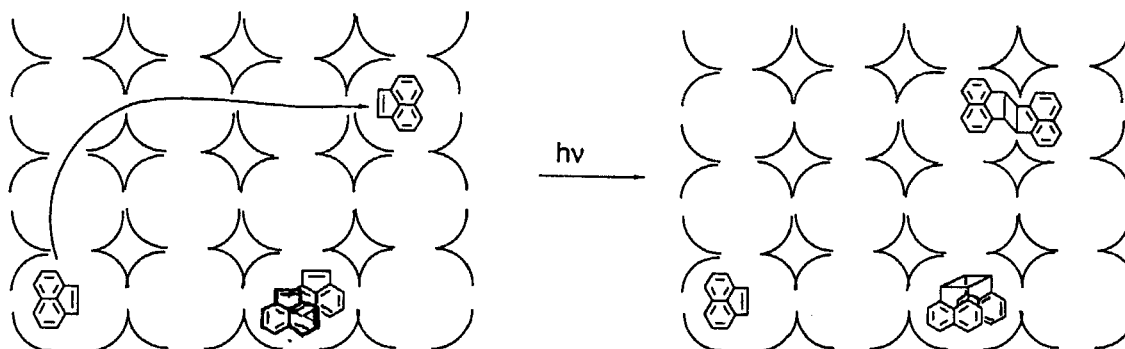
**FIGURE 11.** Effect of molecular lengths of alkylammonium ion ( $C_n^+$ ) on the emission of stilbazolium ion intercalated on clay.  $\circ$ :excimer fluorescence at 495 nm;  $\bullet$ :monomer fluorescence at 423 nm.

of the olefin-intercalated clay were estimated by X-ray diffraction analysis to be 9.2 to 9.5 Å, which is somewhat shorter than the molecular length of the olefin, 10.4 Å. The cation-adsorbing sites of the clay were scattered on both sides of the interlayers with average intervals of about 11 Å. Thus, the olefin molecules are adsorbed almost perpendicularly to both surfaces with an alternative stacking, as shown in Figure 9.

Hydrotalcite, an anion-exchanging clay, adsorbs anionically charged olefins such as cinnamate or stilbenecarboxylate anion in its interlayers. The adsorption equilibria are dependent on the kinds of anions. For example, about 37% of the cinnamate anion was intercalated from an equivalent mixture of the clay and cinnamate anion, but stilbenecarboxylate was adsorbed quantitatively. The intercalated carboxylates were photodimerized exclusively to get the corresponding *syn*-HH dimers.<sup>57</sup> Noteworthy here is the lack of *E-Z* photoisomerization, which is in contrast to the reaction in homogeneous solutions. The selective formation of *syn*-HH dimers also indicates the close packing of olefin molecules.

Photocyclodimerization of acenaphthene was found to be susceptible to a space restriction by

the zeolite cavity. When the olefin was irradiated in a cavity of Y-type zeolite with a supercage diameter of 13 Å, the *cis*-cyclodimer (circa 8 Å in diameter) was yielded through an exciplex formation in the cage. The *trans*-cyclodimer (circa 14 Å) is too large to be accommodated in one cavity and is believed to be formed in the cavity linking two supercages, as depicted in Figure 12.<sup>103</sup> The size of the metal cations in the supercage was found to affect the ratio of *cis*- and *trans*-dimers by changing the free volume of the cage.



**FIGURE 12.** Schematic drawings of photocyclodimerization of acenaphthene intercalated in zeolite cavity. (From Ramamurthy, V., Corbin, D. R., Kumar, C. V., and Turro, N. J., *Tetrahedron Lett.*, 31, 47, 1990. With permission.)

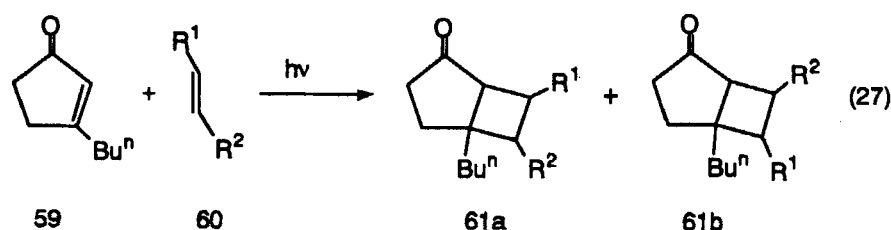
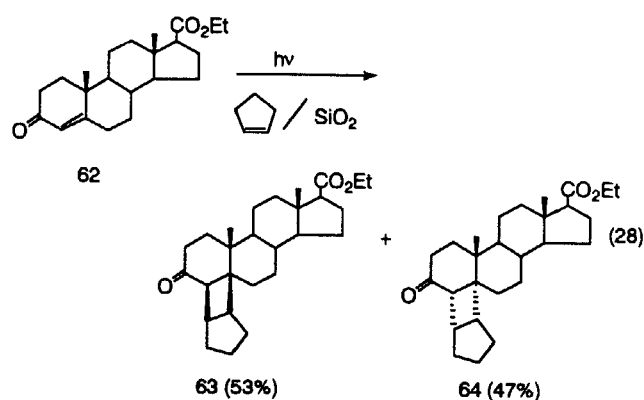
## 2. Crossed Addition

Photochemical crossed additions of olefins are likewise controlled by electrostatic fields. For example, the regiochemistry of the photochemical addition of olefins with cyclopentenone was dependent on the reaction media or micelles.<sup>104a,b</sup> The results are summarized in Table 10. The polar carbonyl groups are directed to the outer interface of KDC micelles and the hydrophobic carbon chains to the inner core. This orientation effect by micelles explains the observed regiochemistry of the adducts.

**TABLE 10**  
**Effect of Reaction Media on Photochemical Cycloaddition of Cyclopentenone (59) with Olefins**

Medium	Olefin (60)		Yield (%)	
	R <sub>1</sub>	R <sub>2</sub>	61a	61b
Cyclohexane	—	n-C <sub>6</sub> H <sub>13</sub>	53	47
KDC micelle	—	—	88	22
Cyclohexane	OAc	H	25	75
KDC micelle	—	—	51	49
Cyclohexane	—	—	0	100
KDC micelle	—	—	70	30

In the case of a hindered ketone (62) adsorbed on silica gel, the photochemical cross addition occurs preferentially on the more hindered side (Equation 28). The stereochemistry was

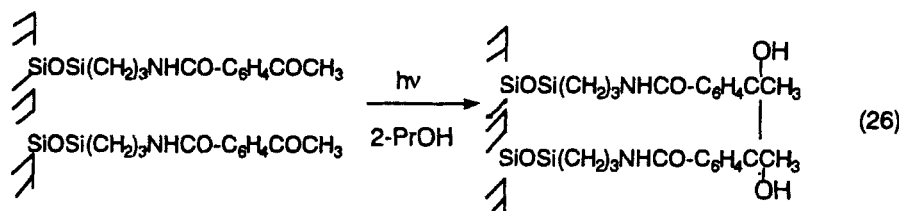


explained by a selective hydrogen bonding of carbonyl with silanol on the silica gel surface from the less hindered side. Thus, the more hindered side of the ketone was open for the attack of cyclopentene.<sup>105,106</sup>

### 3. Hydrogen Abstractions

Excited triplet ketones take hydrogen atoms from solvent molecules and yield alcohols and/or 1,2-diols. Photolysis of a mixture of SDS and benzophenone-4-carboxylate led to the insertion of the benzophenone carbonyl into the alkyl chain of SDS.<sup>107,108</sup> Detailed product analyses showed that the excited carbonyl randomly attacked the entire chain of SDS from C-5 to C-11. This suggested extensive coiling and folding of the detergent chains in the micelle.

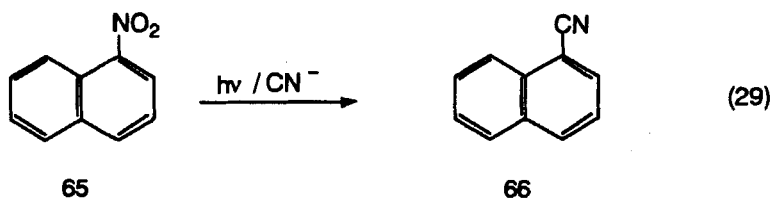
Aromatic ketones covalently bound on silica surface undergo a forced photopinacolization,<sup>109a</sup> as shown in Equation 26, whereas the reaction in micelles causes a crossed adduct between ketones and solvent alcohols.



An optical active sensitizer covalently bonded to a silanol group on the SiO<sub>2</sub> surface, on irradiation, discriminates the chirality of *N,N*-dimethyl-1-phenethylamines as quencher.<sup>109b</sup>

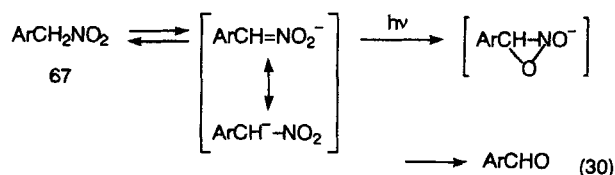
### 4. Substitutions

Aromatic nitro compounds, such as 4-nitrophenyl alkylesters, 1-nitronaphthalene, and 4-methoxy-1-nitronaphthalene, undergo photochemical substitutions with cyanide ions. The CTAB micelle reportedly increases the quantum yield of the reaction by a factor of about 6800,



whereas the SDS micelle strongly inhibits the reaction.<sup>110</sup> The dramatic effect of the CTAB micelle is due to the concentration effect of the cyanide ion on the cationic surface.

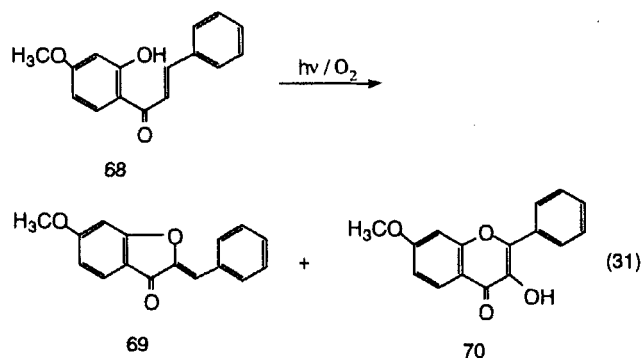
The photodecomposition of 4-nitrophenyl-nitromethane (**67**) is accelerated 67-fold by the presence of a CTAB micelle.<sup>111</sup> This dramatic acceleration was explained by the stabilization of the acinitrate anion by reducing the pK<sub>a</sub> value of **67** by 1 pK<sub>a</sub> unit. In general, micelles concentrate both substrates and attacking reagents, hence,



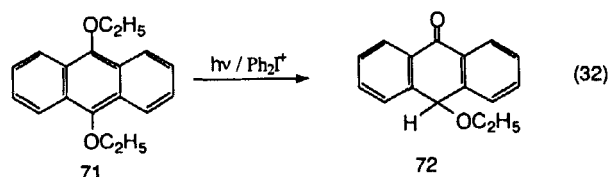
accelerating the reactions between them. It should be kept in mind, however, that excited lifetimes of substrates are sometimes shortened by the increased polarity of micelle interfaces.<sup>112</sup>

### 5. Oxidations

Methylene blue (MB)-sensitized photooxidation of styrylketone (**68**) gives rise to oxidatively cyclized products (**69** and **70**) in the presence of SDS micelles. The hydrophobic interior of SDS micelles concentrates the hydrophobic substrate and oxygen, enhancing the reaction of singlet oxygen, an intermediate excited reagent, with **68** in the micelle hydrophobic core.<sup>113</sup>



On UV irradiation, 9,10-diethoxyanthracene (**71**) was oxidized by iodonium biphenyl to give ethoxyanthrone (**72**).<sup>114a</sup> One electron oxidation of excited **71**<sup>\*1</sup> by Ph<sub>2</sub>I<sup>+</sup> induces the oxygen-carbon



bond homolysis leading to **72**. The reaction was retarded by the addition of AOT reversed micelles. This was because a heavy atom effect of Ph<sub>2</sub>I<sup>+</sup> promotes the intersystem crossing of **71**<sup>\*1</sup> to **71**<sup>\*3</sup>, which was followed by rapid picoseconds deactivation to a homolytically dissociation process and, as a result, suppressed the electron transfer between **71**<sup>\*1</sup> and Ph<sub>2</sub>I<sup>+</sup>.<sup>114b,c</sup> On the other hand, the replacement of Ph<sub>2</sub>I<sup>+</sup> with alkyl viologen (RV<sup>2+</sup>) increased the photooxidation.

### C. Energy Transfer Reactions

Energy transfers are important photochemical processes, yielding an excited acceptor (A<sup>\*</sup>) by an excited energy transfer from an excited donor (D<sup>\*</sup>) to A.

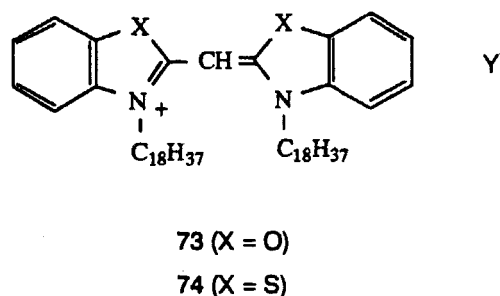


The use of sensitizers is essential in cases in which substrates are not absorbing incident light in suitable UV/visible regions. As described earlier, the photosynthesis centers of plants are com-

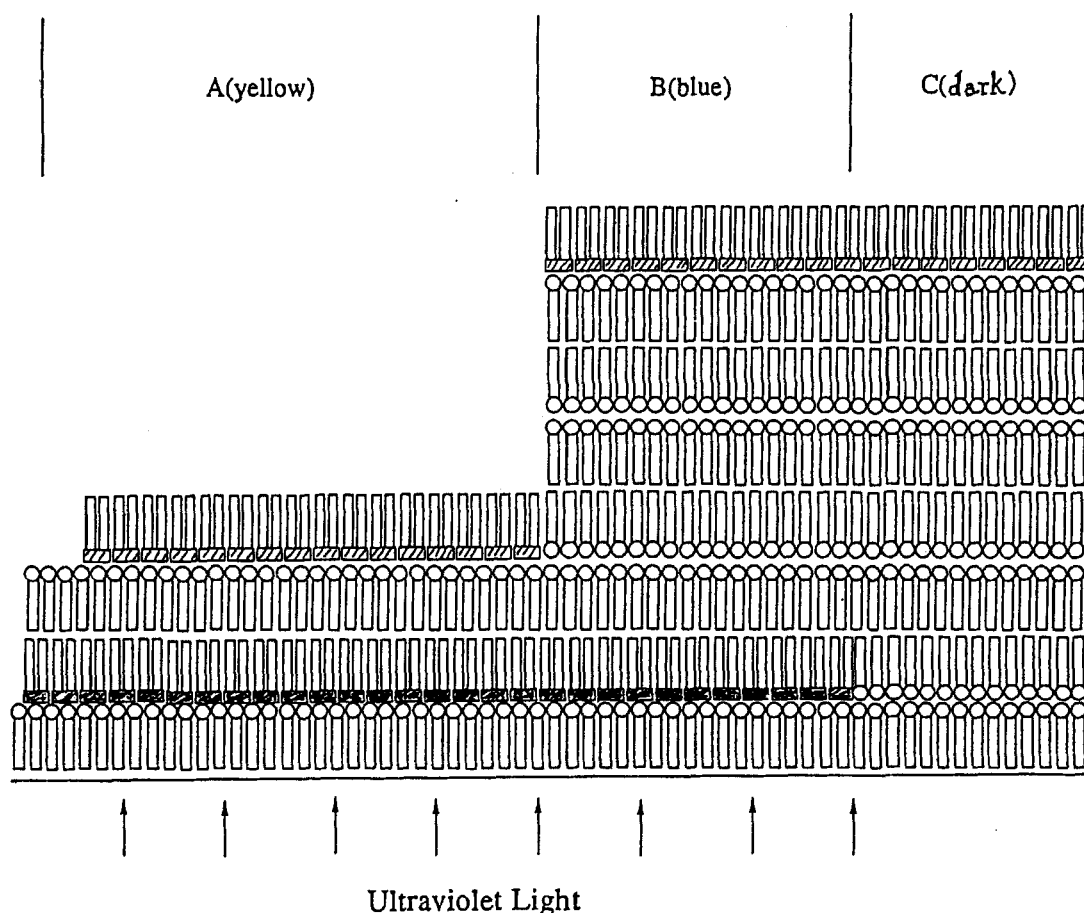
posed of a series of light-absorbing chlorophylls, electron mediators, and redox reaction systems that are elaborately organized in a lipid bilayer membrane; the efficient transfer of excitation energy takes place among the antenna chlorophyll in chloroplasts, practically without self-quenching.

Micelles are suitable for constructing efficient energy transfer systems in which D and A pairs can be confined in a small volume of micelle particles. Selective energy transfers between D<sup>\*</sup> and A in SDS and CTAB micelles have been attained because of the high local concentration of D and A.<sup>115a-d</sup>

An elegantly organized energy transfer was studied by Kuhn and Möbius.<sup>20,116a,b</sup> They constructed multilayer assemblies that consisted of oxacyanine (**73**) and thiocyanine (**74**) insulated by pure arachidic acid layers, as shown in Figure 13. Energy transfer from excited **73** to **74** was confirmed at a distance of 50 Å by the observation of a sensitized yellow fluorescence from **74**<sup>\*</sup>. The energy transfer was not observed at a longer distance of 150 Å, which was too far for the energy transfer from **73**<sup>\*</sup> to **74**.



A systematic study was reported on the dependence of energy-transfer efficiencies on the distance between D<sup>\*</sup> and A. The sophisticated multilayer assemblies were composed of Ru(II)-(2,2'-bipyridine)<sub>2</sub>(2,2'-bipyridine-4,4'-dicarboxylic acid)<sup>2+</sup> donor layer (D) and 1,1'-dioctadecyl-4,4'-carbocyanine acceptor layer (A), which were insulated by arachidate spacer layers. The effect of spacer distance, d (Å), on the relative luminescence intensities, I<sub>d</sub>/I<sub>∞</sub>, of D<sup>\*</sup> was studied, where I<sub>d</sub> and I<sub>∞</sub> were the intensities of the ruthenium luminescence in the presence and the absence of A, respectively.<sup>116b</sup> Because the fluorescence maximum of D overlapped with the absorption



**FIGURE 13.** Schematic structure of a monolayer assembly with two components consisting of the energy donor (**73**, oxacyanine) and the acceptor (**74**, thiocyanine): a yellow fluorescence from the acceptor in zone (A), a blue fluorescence from the donor in zone (B), and no emissions are observed in zone (C).  $\square$ , **73**;  $\blacksquare$ , **74**;  $\text{—}$ , arachidic acid. (From Kuhn, H. and Möbius, D., *Angew Chem. Int. Ed. Engl.*, 10, 620, 1971. With permission.)

spectrum of A, the Forster-type resonance energy transfer was operative and is expressed theoretically by Equation 34.<sup>117</sup> The relationship between  $I_d/I_\infty$

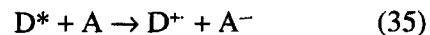
$$I_d / I_\infty = 1 + (d_0 / d)^4 \quad (34)$$

and  $d$  is shown in Figure 14 and clearly suggests that the  $D^*-A$  energy transfer in this system is of the Forster type.

#### D. Electron Transfer Reactions

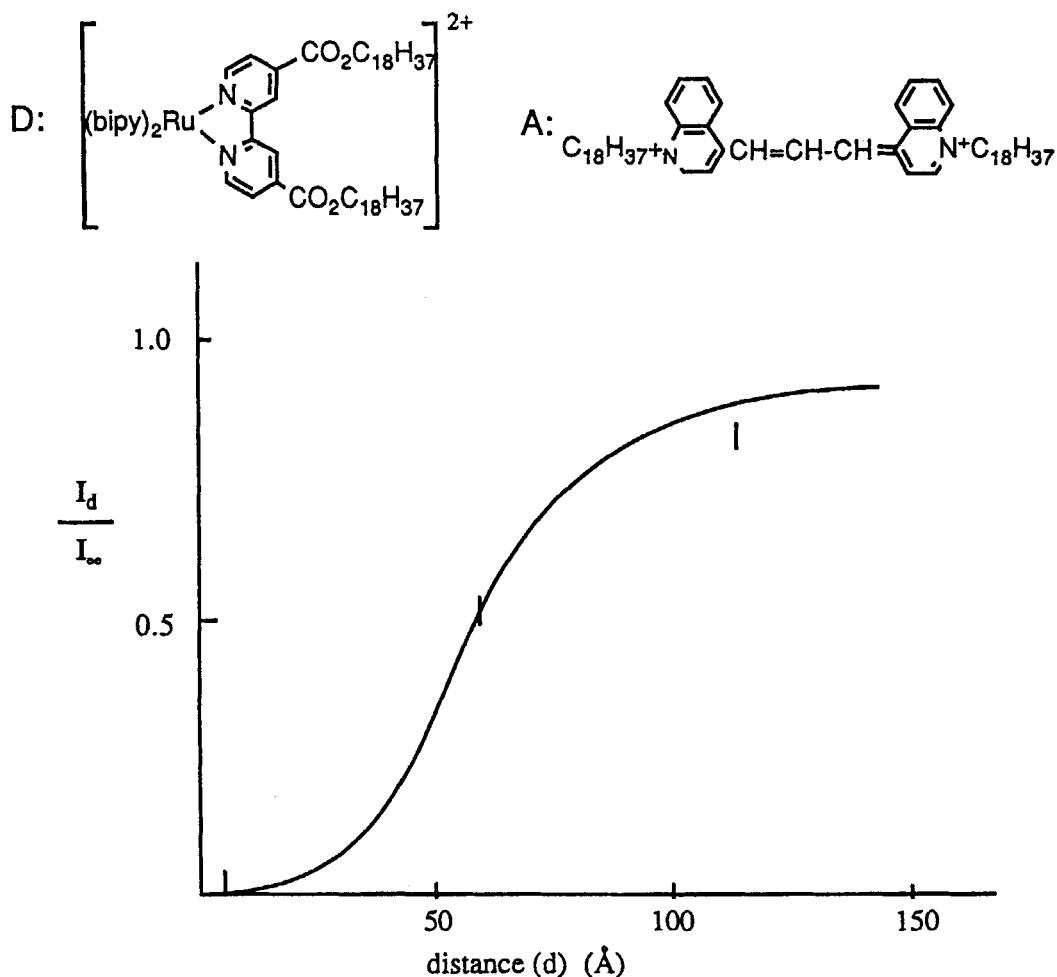
An electron transfer between an excited sensitizer  $D^*$  and an acceptor A gives rise to a pair of

charge separated species,  $D^+$  and  $A^-$  (Equation 35). The resulting charge separation is to be erased, if no other reactions of  $D^+$  and  $A^-$  occur, by a rapid back electron transfer to regenerate D and A (Equation 36).



#### 1. Charge Separations Using Electrostatic Fields

To use the charge-separated species for any chemical reaction, some device must be con-



**FIGURE 14.** Energy transfer in monolayer assembly. A luminescence intensity of D against distance (d) between monolayers D and A. (From Seefeld, K.-P., Möbius, D., and Kuhn, H., *Helv. Chim. Acta*, 60, 2608, 1977. With permission.)

structured to suppress the facile back-electron transfer.<sup>118a,b</sup> Ionic interfaces of micelles are effective devices for such a purpose. A micelle surface forms an electric double layer with a steep electric gradient over a few hundred angstroms. Two mechanisms are envisaged for the stabilization of charge-separated states, as illustrated in Figure 15.<sup>119</sup> When either one of the charge-separated species is repelled from the alike-charged surface, an oppositely charged species interacts strongly with the surface electrostatically, resulting in an effective charge separation

[(A) in Figure 15]. An alternative case is shown as B in Figure 15; an isothermic electron relay proceeds among the acceptors series of  $A_1$ ,  $A_2$ ,  $A_3$ , etc. stabilizing the charge-separated  $D^+$  and  $A^-$  by the long distance.

A typical example is the dramatic effect of SDS micelles on the photochemical charge separation between zinc(II) tetraphenylporphyrin (ZnTPP) and sodium 2,6-disulfonatoanthraquinone (**75**,  $R=\text{SO}_3\text{Na}$ ), eventually yielding sodium 2,6-disulfonatoanthranol (**76**,  $R=\text{SO}_3\text{Na}$ ).<sup>120</sup>

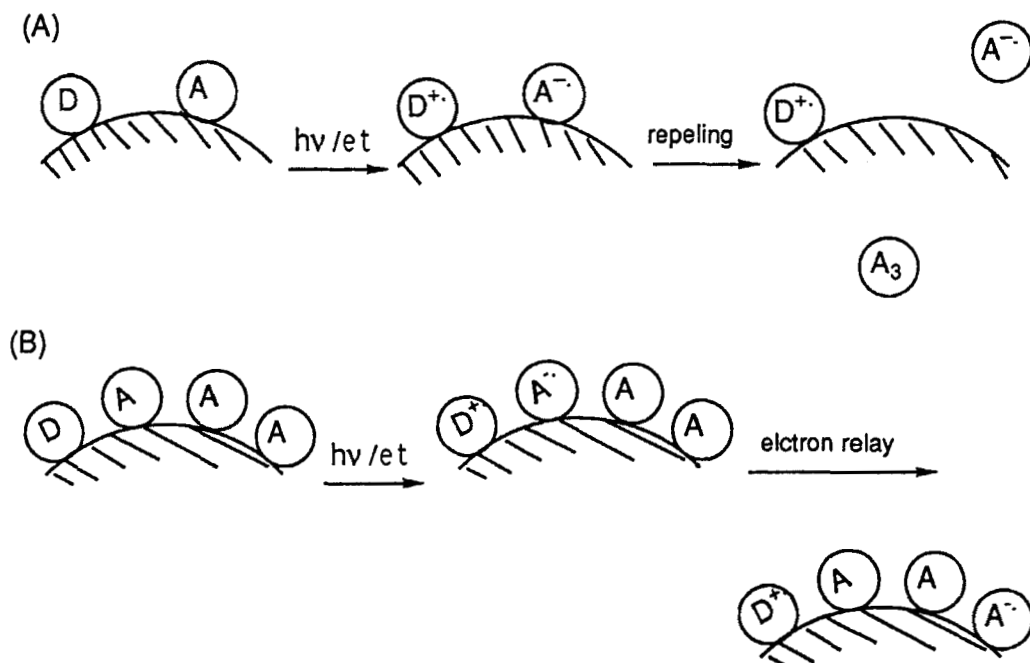
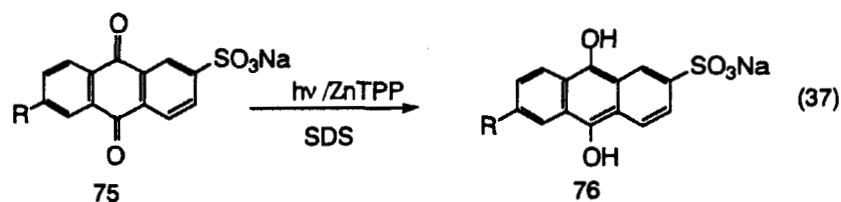


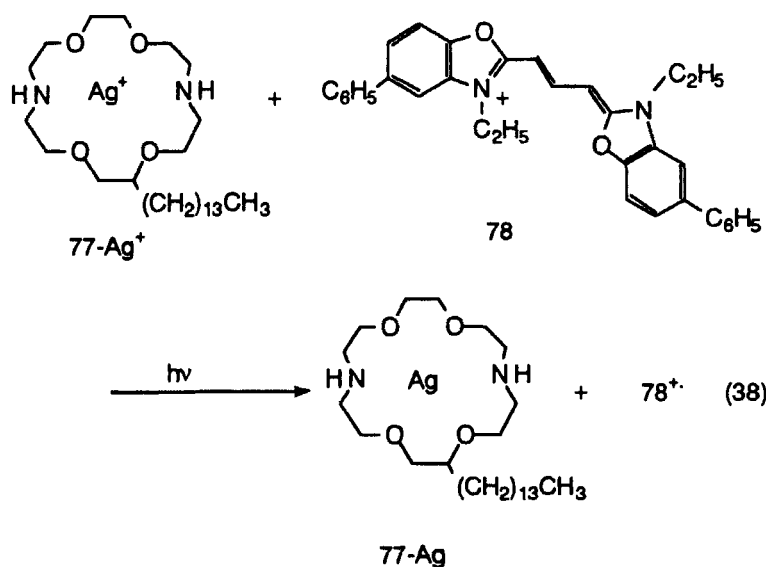
FIGURE 15. Two possible mechanisms for stabilization of a charge-separated species.



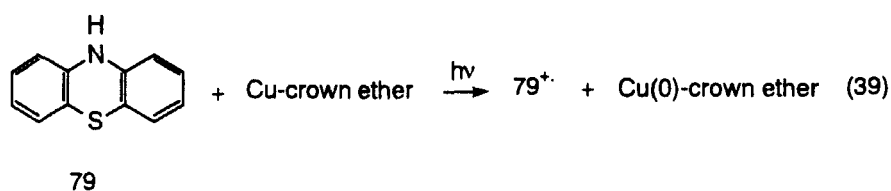
The back-electron transfer is effectively suppressed by the electrostatic repulsion of anion radical **75** from the anionic micelle surface. A similar effect also is noted in the photochemical charge separation between an excited  $\text{Ru}(\text{bpy})_3^{2+}$  and *N,N'*-dimethylaniline<sup>121</sup> or *N*-butylphenothiazine.<sup>122,123</sup> The remarkable effect of micelles has been reported for the charge separation between anthraquinone-2-sulfonate (**75**,  $\text{R}=\text{H}$ ) and the hydroxide ion; that is, the addition of CTAB micelles or benzylhexadecyldimethylammonium bromide (BHDB)-reversed micelles accelerates the photochemical one-electron transfer from hydroxide ion to the excited quinone **75**<sup>\*</sup>, yielding its anion radical (**75**<sup>•−</sup>) or dianion (**75**<sup>2−</sup>).<sup>124</sup> Another effect of the CTAB micelle was reported in the

electron transfer between a neutral ZnTPSPyP sensitizer and anthraquinone **75** ( $\text{R}=\text{SO}_3\text{Na}$ );<sup>125</sup> the electron transfer becomes possible by dissociating the ZnTPSPyP-quinone complex by the anionic micelle.

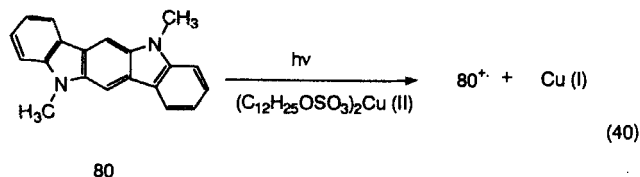
A crown ether surfactant (**77**) forms micelle aggregates even in dilute concentrations of  $10^{-5} \sim 10^{-3} \text{ M}$ .<sup>126</sup> Such a micelle efficiently accommodates silver ion in its crown ether core. Irradiation of cyanine dye (**78**) in the presence of **77**- $\text{Ag}^+$  micelle leads to a rapid electron transfer within 1.5 ns, giving a micelle-including metallic silver.<sup>127</sup> In this case, the oxidized cyanine dye (**78**<sup>+</sup>) is separated from the reduced silver metal by the micelle aggregate.



An efficient photoinduced electron transfer has been observed from *N*-methylphenothiazine (**79**) to copper(II) ion incorporated in crown ether micelles.<sup>128</sup> The charge-separated state is accomplished by expelling the resulting cationic **79**<sup>+</sup> from the micelle surface. The reduction product is metallic Cu(0), which is stabilized by the crown ether as in the case of **77-Ag(0)**.

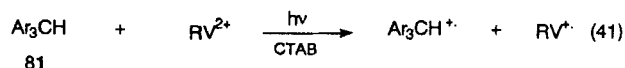


Efficient electron transfer reactions can be realized by using redox reagents as counterions of anionic micelles.<sup>129</sup> Thus, copper(II) dodecylsulfate forms a micelle with a cupric ion on the surface. Irradiation of dihydroindol[3, 2-*b*] ocarbazole (**80**) dissolved in copper(II) dodecylsulfate micelle resulted in an effective electron transfer from **80** to cupric ion.

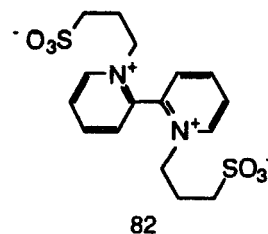


Triarylmethane dyes (**81**) bound to polyelectrolytes undergo photochemical electron transfer to alkyl viologen (**RV**<sup>2+</sup>) on irradiation. Addition

of CTAB micelles in this system increased the population of an excited triplet, a precursor of the electron donor, by a heavy atom effect of the micelle.<sup>130</sup>

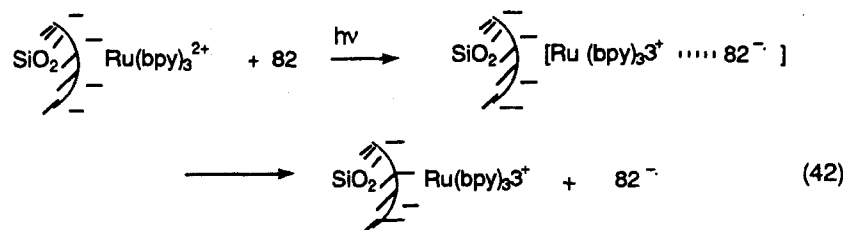


The anionic surface of silica gel also is effective for a charge separation between an excited Ru(bpy)<sub>3</sub><sup>2+</sup> and a sulfonate viologen (**82**). The sulfonate substituents neutralized the cationic charges on viologen nitrogens and reduced the



electrostatic attraction between **82** and silica gel. When **82** is reduced, the resulting radical (**82**<sup>+</sup>) is anionically charged and repelled from the sur-

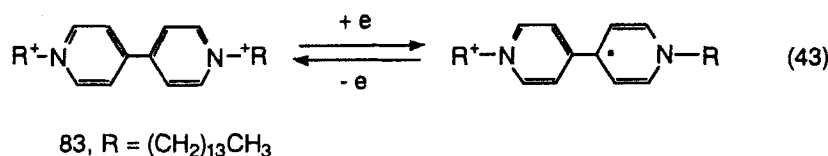
face. The back-electron transfer becomes  $10^2 \sim 10^3$  times as slow as that in the absence of silica gel.<sup>131a</sup>



Photochemical electron-transfer quenching of excited pyrene by *N,N'*-dimethylaniline (DEA) adsorbed on silica surfaces was completely ineffective below the respective DEA monolayer value. Such DEA inertness is interpreted in terms of its strong interaction with surface silanol groups. It is evident that the slopes of Stern-Volmer plots markedly increase above monolayer coverage.<sup>131b</sup>

## 2. Electron Relays by the Use of Electron Mediators

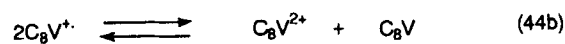
Viologen with long alkyl chains (**83**) is an excellent electron carrier between aqueous and oil phases. Methyl viologen ( $\text{MV}^{2+}$ ), even after one-electron reduction, is hydrophilic and remains in an aqueous phase. Viologen **83** also is hydrophilic, but its reduced cation radical becomes hydrophobic. Irradiation of  $\text{Zn(II)TPP}$  or  $\text{Ru(bpy)}_3^{2+}$  in CTAB micelles, including the surfactant viologen **83**, resulted in a stable charge separation; that is, the reduced viologen  $\text{83}^{\cdot+}$  had a lifetime of several milliseconds.<sup>132</sup> The reduced viologen  $\text{83}^{\cdot+}$  migrated from bulk water to the micelle interior. Thus, a stable charge separation was attained between the excited donor and the electron carrier.



An interesting photochemical electron pumping system, using alkyl viologens as electron carriers, has been constructed by Tabushi et al., as illustrated in Figure 16.<sup>133</sup> In aqueous phase I, alkyl viologens ( $\text{RV}^{2+}=\text{X}$ ) were reduced photochemically by  $\text{ZnTPPS}$ , which was regenerated by the reaction with sodium thiosulfate. The re-

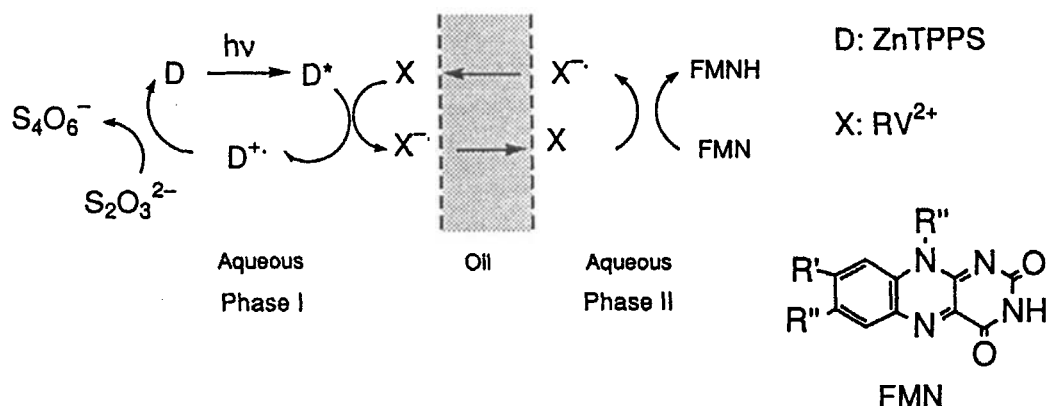
duced radical cation  $\text{X}^{\cdot+}$  transferred into the hydrophobic phase, which, on the opposite side, was in contact with aqueous phase II. Flavin mononucleotide (FMN) dissolved in phase (II) was reduced to FMNH by  $\text{X}^{\cdot+}$  at the interface with the oil phase. Thus, electrons were simply transferred from aqueous phase I to phase II. It is interesting to note that the efficiency of electron transfer was dependent on the chain length of alkyl viologens, reflecting the hydrophobicity of its reduced form.<sup>134</sup>

When the dioctylbipyridinium ion ( $\text{C}_8\text{V}^{2+}$ ) was reduced to its cation radical ( $\text{C}_8\text{V}^{\cdot+}$ ) by excited  $\text{Ru(bpy)}_3^{2+}$ , the radical  $\text{C}_8\text{V}^{\cdot+}$  was shown to yield disproportionately a neutral diradical ( $\text{C}_8\text{V}$ ) that is soluble in organic phase (Equation 44b). By using a water-oil two-phase system, in Fig-



ure 16, the two-electron reduced viologen was applied to reduce 1,2-dibromides dissolved in phase II.<sup>135</sup>

A bilayer membrane of dipalmitoyl-D,L-phosphatidylcholine (DPL) may adsorb  $\text{Ru(bpy)}_3^{2+}$  and octadecyl viologen ( $\text{C}_{18}\text{V}^{2+}$ ) on inner and outer interfaces divided by the hydrophobic bilayer. An electron transfer occurred through



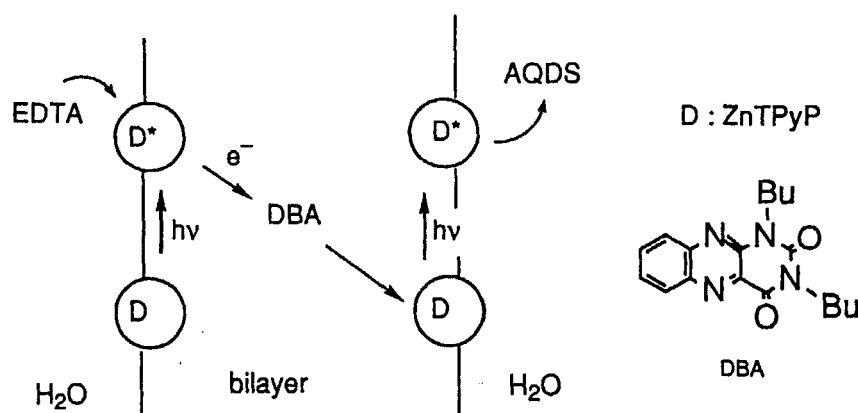
**FIGURE 16.** Photochemical electron pumping using alkyl viologen as the mediator. (From Tabushi, I., Yazaki, A., Koga, N., and Iwasaki, K., *Tetrahedron Lett.*, 21, 373, 1980. With permission.)

the bilayer membrane to yield a pair of oxidized and reduced species,  $\text{Ru}(\text{bpy})_3^{3+}$  and  $\text{C}_{18}\text{V}^+$  separated on both sides, the quantum yield being as high as 0.027.<sup>136</sup> A similar charge separation was reported for a pair of  $\text{ZnTPyP}^+$  and viologens in lipid vesicles.<sup>137,138</sup>

As outlined in Figure 17, concurrent excitation of  $\text{ZnTPyP}$  adsorbed on both sides of riposome

the inner aqueous phase, and the electron was transferred through DBA as a mediator to another  $\text{ZnTPyP}$  on the opposite interface. The second step is the photochemical reduction of anthraquinone disulfonate (AQDS) to  $\text{AQDSH}_2$ .<sup>141</sup>

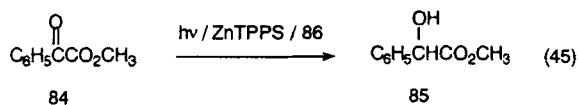
Quinolinium salt (**86**) is an excellent mediator for the photoreduction of keto carboxy-



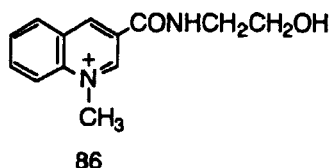
**FIGURE 17.** Two-step photochemical electron transfer across a bilayer membrane. (From Matsuo, T., Itoh, K., Takuma, K., Hashimoto, K., and Nagamura, T., *Chem. Lett.*, 1009, 1980. With permission.)

bilayer interfaces is an elegant model system of an electron transfer reaction mimicking photosynthesis.<sup>139,140</sup> In the photochemical electron transfer across the bilayer membrane, excited  $\text{ZnTPyP}$  was reduced by EDTA (ethylene diamine tetraacetic acid) in

lates.<sup>142</sup> That is, the photochemical reduction of methyl benzoylformate (**84**) to  $\alpha$ -hydroxyphenylacetate (**85**) was attained by using  $\text{ZnTPPS}$  sensitizer and quinolinium amide **86** as the electron mediator. The irradiation of a mixture of **84**,  $\text{ZnTPPS}$ , and **86** in the presence

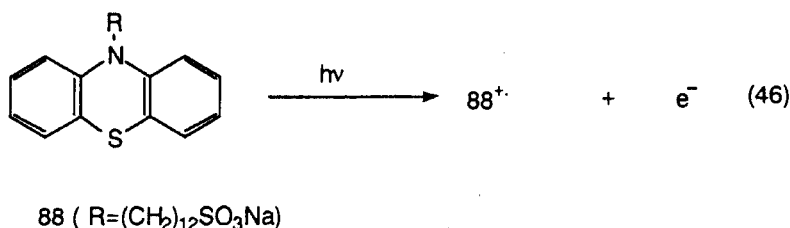


of CTAB micelles resulted in the formation of  $\alpha$ -hydroxyacetate **85**. In this case, mediator **86** was solubilized in the hydrophobic core of CTAB micelles, but anionically charged ZnTPPS was



in the bulk water because of the electrostatic repulsion with the micelle surface. As depicted in Figure 18, the quinolinium salt **86** carried electrons efficiently from the micelle surface to the hydrophobic interior via the reduced form **87**.

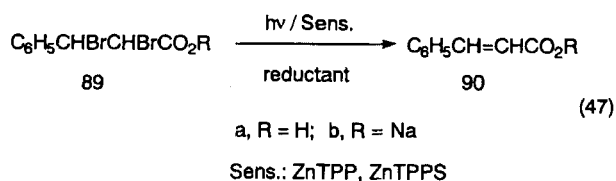
A photochemical ejection of electrons has been observed in the case of surfactantized phenothiadine (**88** R=(CH<sub>2</sub>)<sub>12</sub>SO<sub>3</sub>Na). On UV il-



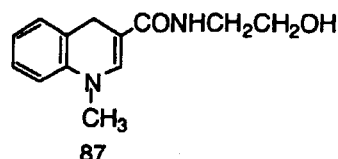
lumination, the surfactant molecules ejected electrons to give cation radical **88**<sup>•+</sup>, which was significantly stable with a lifetime of a few days.<sup>143a-c</sup>

### 3. Some Electron-Transfer-Induced Reactions

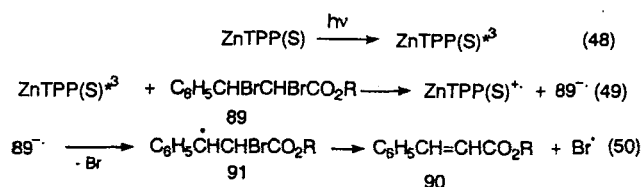
The effect of micelles has been studied on the photochemical debromination of 2,3-dibromocinnamic acid (**89**) with suitable reductants and sensitizers.<sup>144</sup> ZnTPP was used as a hydrophobic sensitizer and its sulfonate (ZnTPPS) as an anionic sensitizer. EDTA or triethanol amine (TEtOA) was used as the reductant.



Debromination was initiated by a one-electron transfer from the sensitizer to **89** by de-



tecting a transient ZnTPP(S)<sup>•+</sup> by laser flash spectroscopy. In addition, the following characteristics were noted in the reaction: (1) radical species were intervened during the sequence because a controlled reaction in toluene yielded diphenylethane and benzylbromide at the expense of cinnamic acid; and (2) the quantum yields for the formation of **90** exceeded unity, implying the occurrence



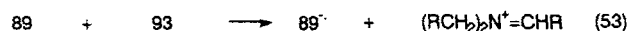
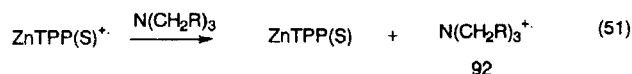
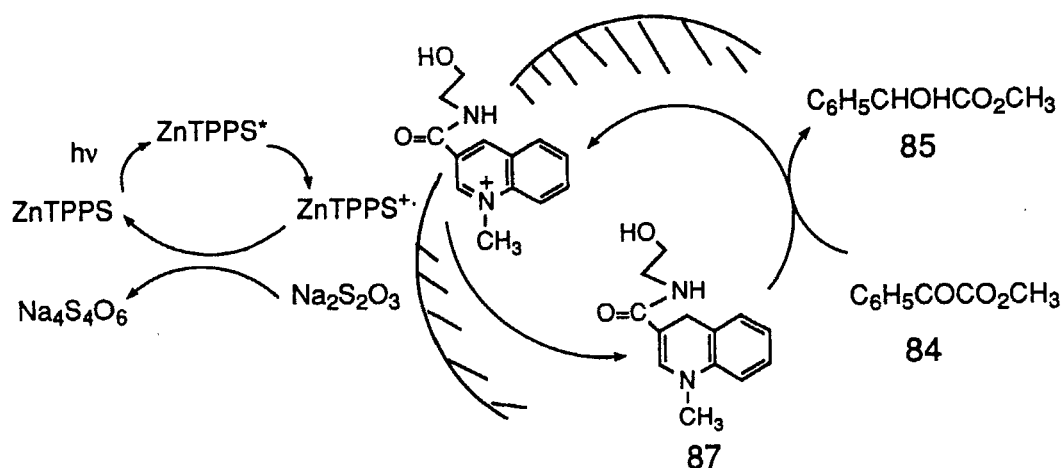


Table 11 shows the effect of CTAB on debromination efficiencies of **89**. The most effective was system S→S, where both ZnTPPS and **89b** were adsorbed on the anionic micelle interface; and the most ineffective was system I→I, where ZnTPP and **89a** were in the micelle interior. System S→S was about 14 times as efficient as I→I. Intermediate efficiencies were observed in the case of system S→I or I→S, where the sensitizer and dibromide (**89**) were separately dissolved either in the interface or the interior.<sup>9</sup>



**FIGURE 18.** ZnTPPS-sensitized reduction of methyl benzoylformate (**84**) to methyl α-hydroxyphenylacetate (**85**) in CTAB micelle, mediated by quinolinium ion (**86**). (From Tabushi, I., Kugimiya, S., and Mizutani, T., *J. Am. Chem. Soc.*, 105, 1658, 1983. With permission.)

**TABLE 11**  
**Debromination of 2,3-Dibromocinnamic Acid (**89**) Sensitized by ZnTPP or ZnTPPS in Micelles**

Sensitizer	Acceptor/reductant <sup>a</sup>	Surfactant	System <sup>b</sup>	Formation of 90 (Φ)
ZnTPP	<b>89a</b> (R=H)/EDTA	CTAB	I→I	0.04
ZnTPP	<b>89a</b> (R=H)/TEOA	SDSme <sup>c</sup>	I→I	0.01
ZnTPP	<b>89b</b> (R=Na)/EDTA	CTAB	I→S	0.28
ZnTPPS	<b>89a</b> (R=H)/EDTA	CTAB	S→I	0.36
ZnTPPS	<b>89b</b> (R=Na)/TEOA	CTAB	S→S	1.39

<sup>a</sup> EDTA = ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid; TEOA = triethanolamine.

<sup>b</sup> Notation of system is described in the text.

<sup>c</sup> SDSme: a mixture of SDS (10 mM), amylalcohol (61 mM), and dodecane (16 mM).

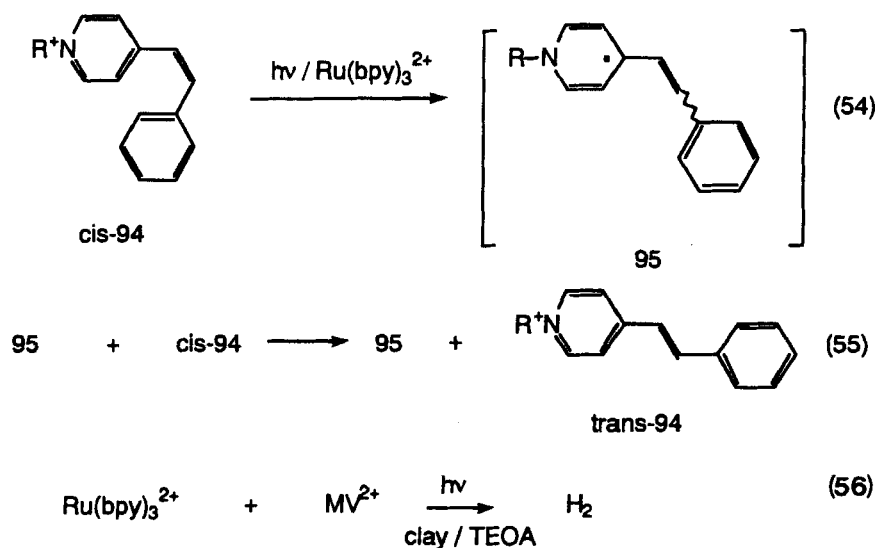
Overall quantum yields for debromination are correlated with the efficiencies of a net charge separation between sensitizer and **89**. The superiority of S→S over other systems can be explained by the following points: (1) the back-electron transfer was slowed by the charge separation of ZnTPP(S)<sup>+</sup> and 89<sup>−</sup> on the electrostatic field of the CTAB micelle; (2) the accompanying attraction was weakened by the neutralization of the net charge with the anionic surfactant.

Another method to separate an oxidized species from a reduced one is shown in Figure 15B. A typical example is a Ru(bpy)<sub>3</sub><sup>2+</sup>-sensitized *cis*-to-*trans*-isomerization of stilbazolium ions adsorbed on SDS micelles.<sup>29</sup> It was concluded that the *cis*-to-*trans* one-way isomerization proceeded via pyridyl radicals formed by photochemical one-electron reductions. Noteworthy here is the high quantum yield for the isomerization in the presence of SDS. Table 12 summarizes the variable quantum yields with the types of micelles used. Most interesting in Table 12 is the fact that the resulting quantum yields were practically the same with the N<sub>A</sub> of the anionic micelles; that is, all the molecules adsorbed on a micelle underwent the *cis*-to-*trans*-isomerization by only one photon. This indicates an electron-relay chain reaction (Equations 54 and 55) on the micelle surface, as illustrated in Figure 19.

Poly(styrenesulfonate) anion provides a polyanionic field with a wide range of 100 to 5000 anionic sites, which are expected to form much larger molecular aggregates of *cis*-stilbazolium ions. In fact, sodium poly(styrenesulfonate), with a degree of polymerization of 5000, was shown to gather about 4300 molecules of **94** on its polymer chain. However, the observed quantum yields for the isomerization were not as high as those expected from the degree of polymerization.<sup>145</sup> The quantum yields were always around 100, irrespective of the size of the aggregates. These almost constant quantum yields suggest a formation of clusters similar to micelles. The electron relay would be confined in one cluster with N<sub>A</sub> of about 90 (Table 13).

The same *cis*-to-*trans*-isomerization of *cis*-**94** also takes place on silica colloid surfaces with a quantum efficiency more than unity. Because the adsorption of olefins caused the precipitation of colloids, it was impossible to adsorb the olefins sufficiently to induce an efficient electron relay reaction.<sup>146</sup>

Clay interlayers are sometimes used for photochemical charge separation.<sup>147,148</sup> Thus, Ru(bpy)<sub>3</sub><sup>2+</sup>-sensitized electron transfer occurs in the presence of methyl viologen, MV<sup>2+</sup>, triethanolamine, and clay colloids. Reduced viologen radical cations donate an electron to the proton, yielding molecular hydrogen (Equation 56).

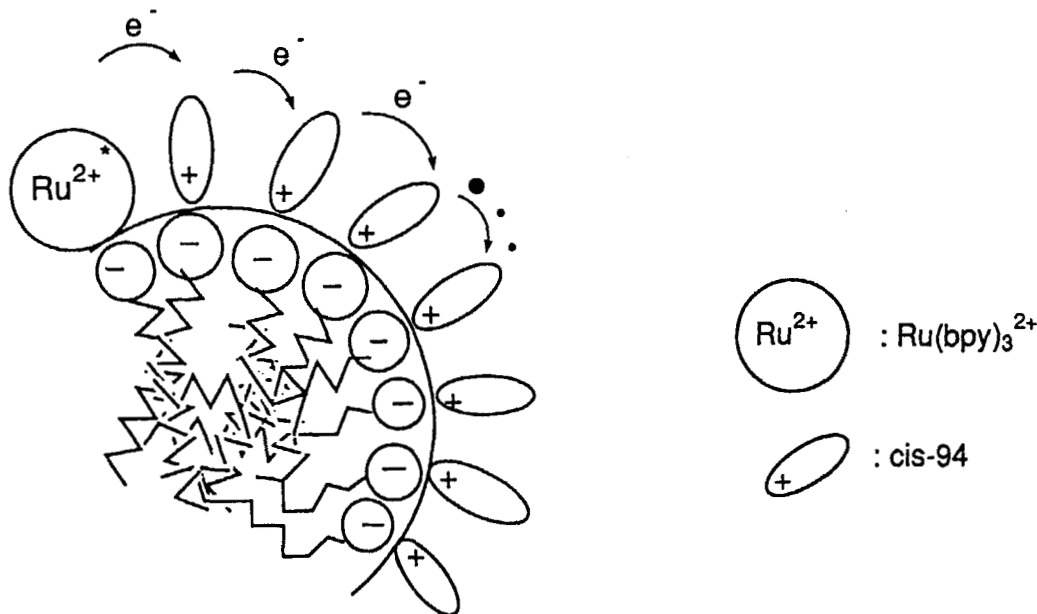


**TABLE 12**  
Limiting Quantum Yields  $(\Phi_{c \rightarrow t})_{\max}$  for the Isomerization of *cis*-94 in Various Surfactant Systems<sup>a</sup>

Surfactant	$(\Phi_{c \rightarrow t})_{\max}$	Aggregation number	
		$N_A^0$	$N_A$
None	$0.5 \pm 0.03$		
Sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS)	$64 \pm 2$ (63)	62	70
Sodium decyl sulfate (SDeS)	$49 \pm 1$	50	60
Sodium tetradecyl sulfate (STS)	$86 \pm 4$	82	
SDS microemulsion	$98 \pm 9$	100	113
DTAB <sup>b</sup>	$0.73 \pm 0.05$	50	

<sup>a</sup> Conditions:  $[\text{Ru}(\text{bpy})_3^{2+}]$   $7.7 \times 10^{-6}$  to  $9.7 \times 10^{-5}$  M; [surfactant], 1.8 to  $6.0 \times 10^{-3}$  M; [*cis*-94]  $2.0$  to  $7.2 \times 10^{-3}$  M.

<sup>b</sup> Dodecyltrimethylammonium bromide.



**FIGURE 19.** Schematic picture for the electronic-relay chain reaction.

An efficient charge-separation was observed when the sensitizer and methyl viologen were adsorbed separately on different interlayers.<sup>149</sup> The separated adsorptions may be attained on the basis of different ion densities on every layer.<sup>150</sup> Hydrogen generation was also observed using  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{Eu}^{2+}$ , nitrobenzene, and dimethylanilinium ion as electron acceptors.<sup>151</sup> It is noted here that these acceptors

diffuse into the clay interlayers at rates close to those observed in homogeneous solutions.<sup>56c</sup>

A remarkably enhanced decomposition of water was observed on irradiation of a mixture of  $\text{Ru}(\text{bpy})_3^{2+}$ -adsorbed sepiolite clay and  $\text{Eu}^{2+}$ -coated aluminum hydroxide in water when  $\text{RuO}_2$  and platinum colloid were coated on the sepiolite clay, respectively.<sup>152,153</sup>

TABLE 13

Adsorption and Aggregation Numbers of *cis*-94 Cation on PSS<sup>n-</sup> Anion and the Quantum Yields ( $\Phi_{c \rightarrow t}$ ) for Ru(bpy)<sub>3</sub><sup>2+</sup>-Sensitized Isomerization of *cis*-94 in Water

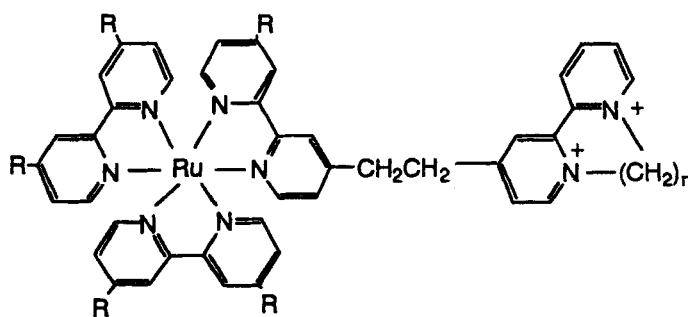
No.	Mol. weight	Polymer degree ( <i>n</i> )	Polystyrenesulfonate, PSS <sup>n-</sup>		$\Phi_{c \rightarrow t}$	
			Adsorption no.	Aggregation no. (N <sub>A</sub> )	1/1	3/1
1	None				1.1	
2	SDS			70	64	
3	2 × 10 <sup>4</sup>	100	82 (82%)		51	84
4	7 × 10 <sup>4</sup>	360	342 (95%)	93	60	93
5	3.5 × 10 <sup>5</sup>	1700			44	107
6	5 × 10 <sup>5</sup>	2400	2140 (89%)	78	44	119
7	1 × 10 <sup>6</sup>	4900	4800 (90%)	74	66	110
8	1.06 × 10 <sup>6</sup>	5100	4350 (87%)	79	58	106

Zeolites are used as templates for organizing photochemically active molecules in a photochemical electron transfer involving Ru(bpy)<sub>3</sub><sup>2+</sup> and MV<sup>2+</sup>. On irradiation of trapped Ru(bpy)<sub>3</sub><sup>2+</sup>, MV<sup>+</sup> was formed in neighboring cages that was stable on the hour-time scale.<sup>154a,b</sup> As a more improved system for photochemical electron transfers, the following diad system, D-S-A, has been presented. By intercalating a ruthenium complex (**96**) with a covalently bound viologen-like acceptor (DQ<sup>2+</sup>), the DQ<sup>2+</sup> moiety was inserted into the cavity of zeolite, keeping the RuL<sub>3</sub><sup>2+</sup> moiety out in the bulk.<sup>155</sup>

zeolite resulted in the charge-separated state of less than 100 ns. The charge separation of the longer lifetime was accomplished through the efficient electron relay from the reduced DQ<sup>+</sup> to BV<sup>2+</sup> molecules incorporated in the zeolite cavity.

Hydrogen evolution has been observed in the case of xanthene and MV<sup>2+</sup> paired on a silica colloid surface,<sup>156</sup> which is similar to the previous example of an efficient charge separation between excited Ru(bpy)<sub>3</sub><sup>2+</sup> and anionic electron acceptor **82** (Equation 42).

Potassium niobate, K<sub>4</sub>Nb<sub>6</sub>O<sub>17</sub>, is a layer-structured compound that includes hydrated and

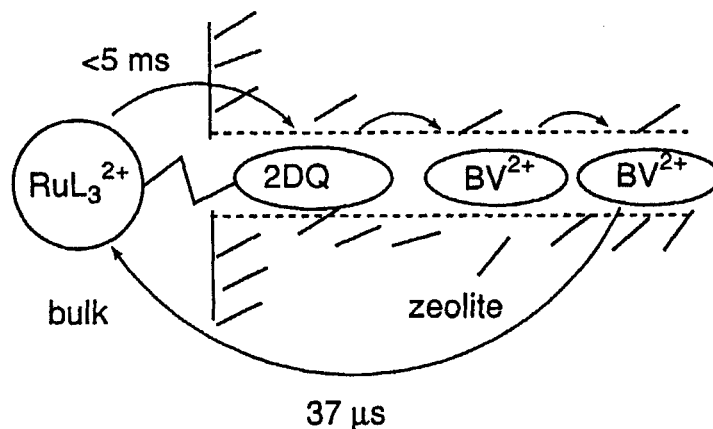


**96** (R = H and CH<sub>3</sub>; n = 2-3) [RuL<sub>3</sub><sup>2+</sup>—2DQ]

Irradiation of **96** with zeolite, having benzyl viologen (BV<sup>2+</sup>, B—PhCH<sub>2</sub> in **83**) in zeolite cavities, resulted in the efficient charge separation between **96** and BV<sup>2+</sup>. As shown in Figure 20, the charge-separated species persisted for 37 ms, whereas a control experiment without the

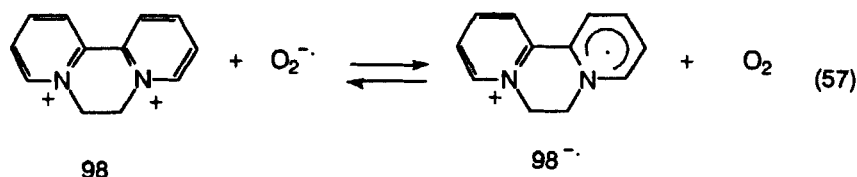
unhydrated potassium ions in every other layer. Irradiation of methyl viologen intercalated in the layer gave rise to the stable cation radical MV<sup>2+</sup>, which lasted a few days.<sup>157-159</sup>

Zeolite cavities are potentially useful for the immobilization of reactive intermediates that are



**FIGURE 20.** The efficient charge separation of **96** in a zeolite cavity. (From Krueger, J. S., Mayer, J. E., and Mallouk, T. E., *J. Am. Chem. Soc.*, 110, 8232, 1988. With permission.)

otherwise subject to rapid diffusive annihilation in solution. The stabilization of the radical cation  $MV^{2+}$  is much improved in a cavity of zeolite Y. The introduction of molecular oxygen resulted in quenching of the zeolite-trapped viologens, but the subsequent evacuation of oxygen retrieved the blue color of the cation radical when **98** was used (Equation 57).<sup>160</sup> The redox process was retrievable more than 10 times. Superoxide anion  $O_2^-$  formed on silica gel has been studied using EST techniques.<sup>161</sup>



#### IV. SCOPE OF ELECTROSTATIC REACTION FIELDS

The various kinds of reaction fields described here include interfaces that adsorb or accommodate photoreactive compounds and sometimes organize them into a geometrically arranged conformation. Such a sterically controlled system, in contrast to solution photochemistry, may provide unique photochemical reactivities characteristic of molecular arrangements. The electrostatic fields also are suitable for developing an efficient photochemi-

cal charge separation, mimicking photosynthesis by plants. It is certain that further developments of sophisticated reaction fields may provide new fields in photochemistry and photobiology.

#### ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The authors are grateful to Mr. Morio Inaishi for preparing the manuscript.

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