Acid/base-regulated reversible electron transfer disproportionation of N–N linked bicarbazole and biacridine derivatives†

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Regulation of electron transfer on organic substances by external stimuli is a fundamental issue in science and technology, which affects organic materials, chemical synthesis, and biological metabolism. Nevertheless, acid/base-responsive organic materials that exhibit reversible electron transfer have not been well studied and developed, owing to the difficulty in inventing a mechanism to associate acid/base stimuli and electron transfer. We discovered a new phenomenon in which N–N linked bicarbazole (BC) and tetramethylbiacridine (TBA) derivatives undergo electron transfer disproportionation by acid stimulus, forming their stable radical cations and reduced species. The reaction occurs through a biradical intermediate generated by the acid-triggered N–N bond cleavage reaction of BC or TBA, which acts as a two electron acceptor to undergo electron transfer reactions with two equivalents of BC or TBA. In addition, in the case of TBA the disproportionation reaction is highly reversible through neutralization with NEt3, which recovers TBA through back electron transfer and N–N bond formation reactions. This highly reversible electron transfer reaction is possible due to the association between the acid stimulus and electron transfer via the acid-regulated N–N bond cleavage/formation reactions which provide an efficient switching mechanism, the ability of the organic molecules to act as multi-electron donors and acceptors, the extraordinary stability of the radical species, the highly selective reactivity, and the balance of the redox potentials. This discovery provides new design concepts for acid/base-regulated organic electron transfer systems, chemical reagents, or organic materials.

Introduction

Regulation of the electron transfer redox process on organic substances by external stimuli (light, electric field, pressure, pH, chemicals, etc.) is a fundamental issue in both science and technology, which affects organic materials, chemical synthesis, and biological metabolism.† The development of redox-active organic compounds and assembled systems that show functional responses to external stimuli leads to wide applications. Among the external stimuli, the control of the electron transfer redox reaction on organic substances by light or electric field has been extensively studied and developed for organic materials/devices and chemical syntheses.‡,† Light and electric field directly induce the electron transfer redox reaction, which is followed by the functional response. In contrast, it is more difficult to design and develop redox-active organic compounds responsive to stimuli such as acid/base or other chemicals,§ because these stimuli do not directly induce electron transfer or redox conversion, but rather protonation, complexation, or adsorption. Thus, for regulation by these stimuli it is necessary to connect the chemical or physical changes to the electron transfer or redox transformation, which is followed by the
functional response. Other important factors are the reversibility or repeatability of the reaction and the sustainability of the response of the system, which require either the redox reaction process to be reversible in the presence of the opposite stimulus (e.g., neutralization) or the responsive material to be a catalyst that repeatedly undergoes a redox reaction. These requirements make the development of acid/base-responsive organic materials with multi-functional properties very difficult. Although many acid-responsive organic compounds, including pH indicators, have been developed, acids regulate non-redox processes such as isomerization, complexation, or conformational change, followed by the functional response. Only tetra-functional processes such as isomerization, complexation, or conformational change, followed by the functional response. Only tetra-functional processes (Scheme S1). However, the reaction is either very low yielding (~1%) or requires very strong acids (conc. H2SO4) due to the simple protonation and subsequent electron transfer mechanism. To realize a more efficient acid-responsive electron transfer system, a sophisticated mechanism to associate the acid/base stimuli with an electron transfer reaction is necessary. As examples of other chemical stimuli, metal ion-promoted or anion-mediated electron transfer has been reported in donor–acceptor type TTF derivatives, utilizing conformational change or supramolecular assembly induced by metal ion or anion complexation as the efficient switching mechanism.

During the course of our study of N–N linked 1,1’,9,9’-bicarbazole (BC) and 9,9,9,9’-tetramethyl-4,4’,10,10’-biacridine (TBA) derivatives (Fig. 1), we encountered an unexpected phenomenon in that their 1H NMR spectra in CDCl3 showed extremely broad signals, which turned out to be due to the acid-responsive generation of unknown radical species. The unknown radical species generated by addition of acids in organic solvents were highly stable in air at room temperature under acidic conditions. Furthermore, to our surprise, BC or TBA was recovered in high yields on neutralization with NEt3. Tetramethyl-4,4’-tert-butylcarbazole (TBA) was synthesized from 2,7-di-tert-butylcarbazole 1,1’-dibromide with NI(1,10-phen)3 in acetone. Ni(COD)2-mediated reductive coupling of 3 afforded BC in 69% yield. In another pathway, BC was afforded through neutralization with NEt3, recovering TBA through back electron transfer and N–N bond formation reactions. This high reversibility was realized by the acid-regulated N–N bond cleavage/formation reactions, which provided an efficient switching mechanism, and the balance of the redox potentials of the chemical species involved. Here, we report the full identification of these compounds and the phenomenon and its mechanism through thorough experimental investigations and theoretical calculations.

Results and discussion

Synthesis

Several synthetic pathways to 1,1’,9,9’-bicarbazole (BC) with t-Bu groups from 3,6-di-t-butylcarbazole 1 were developed (Scheme 2). Bromocarbazole 2, prepared from 1, was converted to dimer 3 in 75% yield through the oxidative coupling of the nitrogen atoms by KMnO4 in acetone. Ni(COD)2-mediated reductive coupling of 3 afforded the desired BC in 69% yield. In another pathway, dimer 4 was obtained from 2 in 87% yield by Ni(COD)2-mediated reductive coupling. Dimer 4 was also synthesized in 41% yield through the direct oxidative coupling of carbazole 1 using FeCl3. Oxidative coupling of the nitrogen atoms in 4 using Bu4NNO2 in pyridine afforded BC in 65% yield. Tetramethyl-4,4’,10,10’-biacridine (TBA) was synthesized from 2,7-di-tert-butyl-9,10-dihydro-9,9-dimethylacridine 5 (Scheme 3). Bromocarbazole 6,
obtained from 5 by bromination, was converted to dimer 7 in 95% yield by Ni(COD)2-mediated reductive coupling. Oxidative coupling of 7 using Bu4NMnO4 in pyridine afforded TBA in 86% yield.

Disproportionation of 1,1,9,9′-bicarbazole (BC)

The X-ray crystallographic analysis showed a characteristic helical molecular shape of BC, with the dihedral angle $\angle C_{8a}N_9N_9C_{8a} = 48^\circ$ due to the steric repulsion between the C and C′ rings ($C_{8a}$-$C_{8a}$ distance = 3.33 Å) (Fig. 2). The color of the solution of BC in CH2Cl2 was yellow, and the UV-Vis-NIR absorption spectrum showed absorption at 461 nm (Fig. 3a and c). BC exhibited strong green fluorescence with an emission maximum at 522 nm in CH2Cl2 (Fig. 3b and e), and the quantum yield was determined to be 69%. While the structure of BC was unambiguously determined by X-ray crystallographic analysis, the 1H NMR spectrum in CDCl3 showed extremely broad signals (ESI†). In contrast, the solid state 13C, 1H, and 15N NMR spectra of BC showed the expected signals associated with the structure (Table S1 and Fig. S1–S4†). In order to explain this unexpected phenomenon, we investigated the effects of potential factors such as light, air, and solvent, and the origin of the broadening turned out to be a hydrochloric acid contaminant in the CDCl3. Thus, we examined the effects of acids on the physical properties of BC. When the solution of BC in CH2Cl2 was treated with CF3CO2H (TFA) at room temperature under either aerobic or anaerobic conditions, the color of the solution drastically changed from yellow to deep indigo-blue (Fig. 3d). In the UV-Vis-NIR spectrum recorded in CH2Cl2, the absorption of BC at 461 nm decreased on addition of CF3CO2H and new broad absorptions at 540 and 635 nm appeared in the visible to near-infrared light region (Fig. 3a). The intensities of the new absorption bands increased on addition of more CF3CO2H, and they were nearly saturated on addition of 500 mol% CF3CO2H. In accordance with the absorption spectral change, the emission of BC also disappeared after the addition of CF3CO2H.

![Fig. 2](image_url) ORTEP drawings of BC at 50% probability level obtained by X-ray crystallographic analysis. The disorder of one of the t-butyl groups is omitted for clarity.

![Scheme 2](image_url) Synthesis of bicarbazole (BC). Reagents and conditions: (a) N-bromosuccinimide (110 mol%), SiO2, CH2Cl2, rt, 4 h, 86%; (b) KMnO4 (250 mol%), acetone, 60 °C, 4 h, 75%; (c) Ni(COD)2 (150 mol%), COD (150 mol%), 2.2′-bipyridyl (150 mol%), THF, 45 °C, 6 h, 69%; (d) Ni(COD)2 (300 mol%), COD (300 mol%), 2.2′-bipyridyl (300 mol%), THF, 80 °C, 6 h, 87%; (e) FeCl3 (200 mol%), CH2Cl2, rt, 15 min, 41%; (f) Bu4NMnO4 (200 mol%), pyridine, 70 °C, 24 h, 65%.

![Scheme 3](image_url) Synthesis of tetramethylbiacridine (TBA). Reagents and conditions: (a) N-bromosuccinimide (103 mol%), CHCl3, 60 °C, 1 h, 57%; (b) Ni(COD)2 (300 mol%), COD (300 mol%), 2.2′-bipyridyl (300 mol%), THF, 80 °C, 6 h, 95%; (c) Bu4NMnO4 (250 mol%), pyridine, rt, 12 h, 86%.

![Fig. 3](image_url) (a) UV-Vis-NIR spectral changes of BC (1.00 mM) on addition of 0, 100, 200, 500, and 2000 mol% CF3CO2H in CH2Cl2 measured with a 1 mm cell. (b) Emission spectrum of BC (0.18 mM) in CH2Cl2 (excited at 460 nm). (c) Photo of the solution of BC (1.0 mM) in CH2Cl2. (d) Photo of the solution of BC (1.0 mM) with 2000 mol% CF3CO2H in CH2Cl2. (e) Photo of the solution of BC (1.0 mM) in CH2Cl2 under UV light.
dichloroethane, benzene, toluene, hexane, 2-propanol) or with other Brønsted acids \([\text{CH}_3\text{SO}_3\text{H}, \text{CF}_3\text{SO}_3\text{H}, (\text{CF}_3\text{SO}_2)\text{NH}, \text{picric acid}]\), as well as with Lewis acids \([\text{BF}_3\cdot\text{OEt}_2, \text{MgBr}_2\cdot\text{OEt}_2, \text{AgPF}_6, \text{ZnCl}_2]\), but almost no change or slight change was observed with ethyl acetate, THF, \(\text{CH}_3\text{CO}_2\text{H}, \text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{CO}_2\text{H}\), or phenol (Fig. 4). The dependence of the spectral change on the amount of acid indicated that the reaction is at equilibrium under acidic conditions (Fig. 3a and S7a†). The yellow color of BC and its absorption in the UV-Vis-NIR spectrum were in turn recovered by addition of \(\text{NEt}_3\) to neutralize the \(\text{CF}_3\text{CO}_2\text{H}\) (Fig. 5a). The recovery yield of BC was determined to be 72% based on the absorption intensity at 461 nm. The \(^1\text{H}\) NMR spectrum of BC in freshly distilled \(\text{CD}_2\text{Cl}_2\) showed slightly broad signals associated with BC, and the signals became sharper on addition of 200 mol% \(\text{NEt}_3\) to neutralize the trace amount of contaminant acid (Fig. 6). In contrast, the addition of 200 mol% \(\text{CF}_3\text{CO}_2\text{H}\) resulted in disappearance of the signals due to significant broadening, which suggests the generation of a paramagnetic radical species. This result prompted us to measure the ESR spectrum, in which a signal due to the radical species formed by BC in the presence of \(\text{CF}_3\text{CO}_2\text{H}\) in \(\text{CH}_2\text{Cl}_2\) was observed (Fig. 7a). These results clearly demonstrate that the acid-responsiveness of BC is not caused by simple protonation/deprotonation or tautomerization, but is the result of an acid-responsive generation of a radical species involving the homolytic cleavage of a bond or electron transfer of BC under equilibrium. In addition, a surprising observation is the remarkably high stability of the radical species. These experiments can be conducted under air at room temperature without special handling, and no decomposition occurs. Indeed, the UV-Vis-NIR spectra of BC in the presence of \(\text{CF}_3\text{CO}_2\text{H}\) in \(\text{CH}_2\text{Cl}_2\) scarcely changed even after 7 days in the dark at room temperature under air (Fig. 5b), indicating the extremely high stability of the radical species. BC is also recovered from the generated radical species in 72% yield by neutralization with \(\text{NEt}_3\). To elucidate this phenomenon, we further investigated the generated species and the reaction.

The generated radical species was characterized and assigned as the mono-radical cation \(\text{BC}^+\) (Scheme 1a) from the following results. The nearly quintet ESR signal (Fig. 7a) indicates delocalization over the bicarbazole structure with hyperfine splitting due to two nitrogen atoms. The ESR signal of BC with \(\text{CF}_3\text{CO}_2\text{D}\) is almost identical to that with \(\text{CF}_3\text{CO}_2\text{H}\) (Fig. 7b), showing that the nitrogen atom is not protonated, since no hyperfine splitting due to the proton is observed. No zero-field splitting of the signal obtained at 5 K in frozen \(\text{CH}_2\text{Cl}_2\) (Fig. S5a†) and no forbidden \(D_{\text{m}}=\frac{1}{2}\) half-field transitions

![Figure 4](image1.png)

**Fig. 4** (a) UV-Vis-NIR spectral changes of BC (5.00 \(\times\) 10\(^{-2}\) mM) on addition of 2000 mol% \(\text{CF}_3\text{CO}_2\text{H}\) in organic solvents. (b) UV-Vis-NIR spectral changes of BC (5.00 \(\times\) 10\(^{-2}\) mM) on addition of 2000 mol% acids (10 000 mol% picric acid and \(\text{CH}_3\text{CO}_2\text{H}\)) in \(\text{CH}_2\text{Cl}_2\).

![Figure 5](image2.png)

**Fig. 5** (a) UV-Vis-NIR spectra of BC (1.00 mM), BC with 2000 mol% \(\text{CF}_3\text{CO}_2\text{H}\), and BC with 2000 mol% \(\text{CF}_3\text{CO}_2\text{H}\) followed by addition of 4000 mol% \(\text{NEt}_3\) in \(\text{CH}_2\text{Cl}_2\) measured with a 1 mm cell. (b) UV-Vis-NIR spectra of BC (1.00 mM) with 2000 mol% \(\text{CF}_3\text{CO}_2\text{H}\) in \(\text{CH}_2\text{Cl}_2\) after 8 h, 1 day, 3 days, and 7 days in the dark at 20 °C under air measured with a 1 mm cell.

![Figure 6](image3.png)

**Fig. 6** (a) \(^1\text{H}\) NMR spectrum of BC in freshly distilled \(\text{CD}_2\text{Cl}_2\). (b) \(^1\text{H}\) NMR spectrum of BC with 200 mol% \(\text{NEt}_3\) in \(\text{CD}_2\text{Cl}_2\). (c) \(^1\text{H}\) NMR spectrum of BC with 200 mol% \(\text{CF}_3\text{CO}_2\text{H}\) in \(\text{CD}_2\text{Cl}_2\).
were observed, indicating that the spin state is a doublet \((S = 1/2)\). The lack of temperature dependence of the \(IT\) value \((I = \text{double integral of the ESR signal}, T = \text{temperature})\) at 5–100 K in frozen \(\text{CH}_2\text{Cl}_2\) supports the doublet spin state (Fig. 8a). For further confirmation, the electron spin transient nutation (ESTN) spectrum based on the pulsed-ESR technique was measured at 5 K. (Fig. 8b). In the ESTN spectrum, a signal was observed at the nutation frequency \(\omega_0 = 15.2\) MHz \((S = 1/2)\), but not at \(\omega_1 = \sqrt{2}\omega_0 = 21.5\) MHz \((S = 1)\), confirming the doublet spin. Finally, the identity of the doublet spin radical was determined to be the cation radical \(\text{BC}^{+}\), due to the fact that its UV-Vis-NIR spectrum agrees with the UV-Vis-NIR spectrum of \(\text{BC}\) generated by the electrochemical or chemical oxidation of \(\text{BC}\) (Fig. 9). The cyclic voltammogram (CV) of \(\text{BC}\) shows two reversible oxidation waves at 0.17 V and 0.83 V (vs. \(\text{Fc/Fc}^+\)), in which \(\text{BC}\) is oxidized to \(\text{BC}^{+}\) and \(\text{BC}^{2+}\), respectively (Fig. 10a). Based on the CV results, \(\text{BC}^{+}\) and \(\text{BC}^{2+}\) were generated by the electrolysis of \(\text{BC}\), and their UV-Vis-NIR spectra were measured. The UV-Vis-NIR spectrum of electrochemically generated \(\text{BC}^{+}\) with an absorption maximum at 635 nm is nearly identical to that of \(\text{BC}\) with \(\text{CF}_3\text{CO}_2\text{H}\) in 1,2-dichloroethane (Fig. 4a). Chemical oxidation of \(\text{BC}\) by NOPF\(_6\) (Fig. 9b) and \(\text{I}_2\) (Fig. S7b) also generated \(\text{BC}^{+}\), which shows absorption at 635 nm, although the absorption overlaps with that of \(\text{I}_2\) in the case of \(\text{I}_2\) oxidation. Simulation (EasySpin)* of the ESR signal of \(\text{BC}^{+}\) afforded the hyperfine coupling (hfc) constants \(a = 6.0\) G due to coupling to two nitrogen nuclear spins, and 1.8, 1.4, 0.2, 0.2, and 0.2 G due to coupling to ten hydrogens (Fig. 7a). DFT calculations on \(\text{BC}^{+}\) [UoB97XD/6-31G(d)] showed that the spin density is delocalized over the whole bicarbazole skeleton (Fig. 11). The structure of \(\text{BC}^{+}\) was confirmed by X-ray crystallographic analysis of a single crystal of the cation radical complex \(\text{BC}^{+}\text{I}_2\text{-IC}_6\text{H}_5\) obtained through oxidation of \(\text{BC}\) with \(\text{I}_2\) in iodobenzene–MeOH (Fig. 12, S5b and S7cf). As a characteristic feature of \(\text{BC}^{+}\), the N–N bond length (1.35 Å) and the \(\angle\text{C}_8\text{a}N\text{N}_5\text{C}_a\text{N}_a\) dihedral angle (21°) are shorter and narrower than the 1.41 Å and 48° of \(\text{BC}\), which agrees with the trend \((\text{BC}^{+}: 1.35\) Å and \(18°, \text{BC}: 1.39\) Å and \(42°)) predicted by DFT calculations.

While \(\text{BC}^{+}\) is generated through the one-electron oxidation of \(\text{BC}\) under acidic conditions, we wondered what the counter oxidant (electron acceptor) was, since there was no added oxidant. The possibility of acid, solvent, or air being the oxidant was discounted because the reaction takes place under various conditions using different kinds of acids or solvents, even in an anaerobic atmosphere. By combining the experimental and computational data, we finally determined that the reaction is the disproportionation of \(\text{BC}\), in which \(\text{BC}\) acts as both a one-electron reductant (donor) and a two-electron oxidant (acceptor) (Scheme 1a). In this equation, one equivalent of \(\text{BC}\) is reduced to \(\text{BCH}_3\) and two equivalents of \(\text{BC}\) are oxidized to \(\text{BC}^{+}\) in the presence of three equivalents of \(\text{CF}_3\text{CO}_2\text{H}\), with the result that three equivalents of \(\text{BC}\) react with three equivalents of \(\text{CF}_3\text{CO}_2\text{H}\). This reaction stoichiometry \((\text{BC} : \text{CF}_3\text{CO}_2\text{H} = 1 : 1)\) was determined by a Job’s continuous variation plot (Fig. 13).
UV-Vis-NIR absorption spectra were measured at different ratios of BC to CF3CO2H with a constant total concentration of BC + CF3CO2H = 2.00 mM (Fig. 13a). The absorbance of BC** at 635 nm was chosen for the Job's continuous variation plot because only BC** shows absorption at 635 nm, whereas BC, CF3CO2H, and BCH3+ do not (Fig. 3a and S7ef†). The plot showed maximum absorbance at a ratio of BC : CF3CO2H = 50 : 50 (Fig. 13b), indicating that the ratio of BC and CF3CO2H is 1 : 1. According to the equation in Scheme 1a, 2/3 of the BC would be converted to BC**, giving a 67% yield. This yield was determined by a comparison between the absorbance intensity of BC** obtained under acidic conditions (2000 mol% CF3CO2H) and the absorbance intensity of BC** obtained under chemical oxidation conditions (NOPF6), using the same concentration of BC (Fig. 9b). For the chemical oxidation, in which all BC is quantitatively oxidized to BC++ by addition of NOPF6, the absorbance of BC++ at 635 nm was saturated at 0.76, while the absorbance observed under acidic conditions was saturated at 0.48. Thus, 0.48/0.76 = 63% BC++ generated under acidic conditions. The formation of BCh3+ was also indicated by UV-Vis-NIR spectral measurements. The spectrum of BC++ was subtracted from the spectrum of the mixture of BC++ and BCh3+ obtained from BC and 2000 mol% CF3CO2H, giving a nearly identical spectrum to that of BCh3+ (Fig. S7d–f†). The formation of BCh3+ was also confirmed by quenching the generated BC++ and BCh3+ with hydrazine or NET3 (Scheme 4 and Fig. 5a). After the formation of BC++ and BCh3+ from BC and 2000 mol% CF3CO2H, quenching with 10 000 mol% hydrazine afforded BC in 68% isolated yield and BCH2 in 31% isolated yield. Quenching with 4000 mol% NET3 afforded BC in 72% isolated yield and BCH2 in 18% isolated yield, with tetracarbazole 8 (Fig. 14) obtained as a by-product in ~3% yield. These experiments clearly confirmed the disproportionation reaction in Scheme 1a. The equilibrium constant and Gibbs free energy in CH2Cl2 were determined as $K = 1.0 \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-3}$ and $\Delta G = 12 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ (298 K) from the absorption spectrum of BC with 200 mol% CF3CO2H (Fig. 3a, absorbance = 0.71 at 635 nm), and $\varepsilon = 1.5 \times 10^4 \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$ for BC++ at 635 nm (Fig. 9b, NOPF6).

Reversible disproportionation of tetramethyl-4',4',10,10'-biacridine (TBA)

The X-ray crystallographic analysis of TBA showed a helical molecular shape with the dihedral angle $\angle \text{C5aN10N10C5a} = 83^o$ and the C5–C5 distance = 3.61 Å (Fig. 15), which is larger than those observed in BC. TBA was found to undergo acid-responsive electron transfer disproportionation (Scheme 1b) in a similar manner to BC, and this was fully investigated by experiments and calculations. While the $^1$H NMR spectrum of TBA in freshly distilled CD2Cl2 or with 1000 mol% NET3 clearly showed the signals associated with TBA, the $^1$H NMR spectrum obtained in the presence of CF3CO2H showed almost no signals due to the generation of paramagnetic radical species (Fig. S9†). The solution of TBA in CH2Cl2 showed a yellow color and green emission (Fig. 16b and c). The UV-Vis-NIR spectrum of TBA indicated that the absorption maximum in the visible region is at $\lambda_{max} = 412 \text{ nm}$, and the emission spectrum indicated that the emission maximum is at $\lambda_{max} = 518 \text{ nm}$ (Fig. 16a and d), with a quantum yield of 17% in benzene. On treatment with CF3CO2H, the color of the solution changed to deep violet under both aerobic and anaerobic conditions (Fig. 16c). In the UV-Vis-NIR spectrum, the absorption of TBA at $\lambda_{max} = 412 \text{ nm}$ decreased,
and a new broad absorption at $\lambda_{\text{max}} = 824$ nm corresponding to TBA$^+$ appeared in the visible to near infrared light region (Fig. 16a and S8a†). The fluorescence also disappeared (Fig. 16d and f). The increase in the intensity of the band at 824 nm was nearly saturated on addition of 400–2000 mol% CF$_3$CO$_2$H. Similar changes were also observed in other organic solvents (CHCl$_3$, CCl$_4$, 1,2-dichloroethane, hexane, benzene, toluene, anisole) and with other weak Brønsted acids (CCl$_3$CO$_2$H, picric acid), as well as Lewis acids [MgBr$_2 \cdot$OEt$_2$, ZnCl$_2 \cdot$OEt$_2$], but almost no change or slight change was observed with ethyl acetate, THF, CH$_3$CO$_2$H, phenol, C$_6$H$_5$CO$_2$H, LiClO$_4$, and LiCl (Fig. S8b and c†). The reaction is at equilibrium under acidic conditions, as indicated by the dependence of the spectral change on the amount of acid and the concentration (Fig. 16a and S8d†). In the ESR spectral measurements, a signal corresponding to TBA$^+$ obtained from TBA and CF$_3$CO$_2$Hi nC H$_2$Cl$_2$ was observed (Fig. 16g), while no signal was observed for TBA in the presence of NEt$_3$. The ESR spectrum was fitted using a simulation with hfc constants $a = 7.1$ G due to coupling to two nitrogen nuclear spins, and 1.0, 0.5, 0.3, 0.3, and 0.2 G due to coupling to ten hydrogens (Fig. 16g), which agrees with TBA$^+$ having an unpaired electron that is delocalized over the entire biacridine skeleton (Fig. S12a†). The fact that the ESR spectrum with CF$_3$CO$_2$D is identical to that with CF$_3$CO$_2$H, the lack of observation of zero-field splitting and forbidden $D_{\text{ms}} = C_6 \overline{2}$ half-
field transitions, and the lack of temperature dependence of the 
IT value at 5–80 K also support the doublet spin state of TBA$^+$
(Fig. S6a and b†). The UV-Vis-NIR spectrum of TBA$^+$ generated
from TBA with CF$_3$CO$_2$H agreed with those of TBA$^{2+}$ formed
by the electrochemical or chemical (I$_2$, DDQ, NOPF$_6$) oxidation of
TBA (Fig. 16h and i), confirming that the radical species is TBA$. TBA$^+$ also exhibited high stability under acidic conditions.
The UV-Vis-NIR spectrum scarcely changed, even after
13 days in the dark at room temperature under air (Fig. 16j).

A comparison between the absorbance intensity (0.53) of TBA$^{2+}$
obtained under acidic conditions and the absorbance intensity
(0.78) of TBA$^+$ obtained by oxidation with DDQ or I$_2$ provided a
yield of 68% (0.53/0.78) TBA$^{2+}$, which was formed by 2/3 of the
TBA (Fig. 16l). The formation of TBAH$_2$ was indicated by the
UV-Vis-NIR spectra. Subtraction of the spectrum of TBA$^+$ from
the spectrum of the mixture of TBA$^{2+}$ and TBAH$_4$ gave a nearly
identical spectrum to that of TBAH$_2$ (Fig. S8e–g†). The pres-
ence of TBAH$_2$ was also observed by electrochemical analysis
(CV) (Fig. 16k and l). While only the oxidation of TBA to TBA$^{2+}$ at
E$_{1/2}$ = -0.05 V and further oxidation to TBA$^{3+}$ at 0.72 V (vs.
Fc/Fc') were observed as two reversible waves under neutral
conditions, a new oxidation wave at E$_{1/2}$ = 0.31 V appeared for
TBA with CF$_3$CO$_2$H, which is consistent with the oxidation potential of TBAH$_2$ at E$_{1/2}$ = 0.31 V. The formation of TBAH$_2$
was finally confirmed by quenching the generated TBA$^{2+}$ and
TBAH$_4$ with hydrazine, which gave TBA in 65% isolated yield
and TBAH$_2$ in 32% isolated yield (Scheme 5).

While the reaction of TBA is similar to that of BC, three
informative differences were observed. One difference is the
reaction stoichiometry of TBA and CF$_3$CO$_2$H (Scheme 1). The
Job’s continuous variation plot (Fig. 17 and S8h†) provided a ratio
of TBA : CF$_3$CO$_2$H of 3 : 4, while the ratio of BC : CF$_3$CO$_2$H is 3 : 3
(Fig. 13). Thus, the reduced product TBAH$_2$ is concluded to be di-
protonated, whereas BCH$_2$ is mono-protonated (Scheme 1). This
difference is attributed to the greater basicity of dimethylacridine
than carbazole. The equilibrium constant and Gibbs free energy
in CH$_2$Cl$_2$ were determined as $K = 6.5 \times 10^{17}$ M$^{-4}$ and $\Delta G = 24$
kJ mol$^{-1}$ (298 K) from the absorption spectrum of TBA with
100 mol% CF$_3$CO$_2$H (Fig. 16a, absorbance = 0.29 at 824 nm), and
$\varepsilon = 7.9 \times 10^{3}$ L mol$^{-1}$ cm$^{-1}$ for TBA$^+$ at 824 nm (Fig. 16l, NOPF$_6$).
The second difference is the remarkable reversibility of the
reaction of TBA on neutralization with NEt$_3$. Upon quenching
with 4000 mol% NEt$_3$ after the conversion of BC to BC$^+$/CF$_3$CO$_2^-$/ and
BCH$_2$/2CF$_3$CO$_2^-$ on addition of 2000 mol% CF$_3$CO$_2$H in
CH$_2$Cl$_2$, BC was recovered in 72% yield, concomitant with BCH$_2$
in 18% yield (Fig. 5a and Scheme 4). In contrast, addition of NEt$_3$
recovered TBA in 98.6% yield based on the absorption intensity
at 412 nm (Scheme 5, Fig. 18a and Table S2†). $^1$H NMR experi-
ments also demonstrated the high recovery of TBA (Fig. S9†).
This remarkably high reversibility was confirmed for up to five
cycles by UV-Vis-NIR spectral measurements during repeated
acidification/neutralization on addition of CF$_3$CO$_2$H
(94 000 mol%) and NEt$_3$ (~120 000 mol%) to TBA, giving an
average of 97.6% recovery yield per cycle based on the absorb-
ance at 412 nm (Fig. 18b–d). The difference in the reversibility
was attributed to the difference in the redox potentials of BC and
TBA. The third difference is in the reaction mechanism and
relates to the reaction order during the N–N bond cleavage step.
The differences in the reversibility of the reaction and the reaction
order are discussed in the following sections.

Reaction mechanism of disproportionation
The proposed mechanisms of the electron transfer dispro-
portionation reactions of BC and TBA are shown in Schemes 6 and

![Scheme 5](image-url)

**Scheme 5** Quenching of the disproportionation of TBA.

![Fig. 17](image-url)

**Fig. 17** (a) Continuous variation of the UV-Vis-NIR spectra in CH$_2$Cl$_2$
on changing the TBA/CF$_3$CO$_2$H ratio. The concentration of TBA +
CF$_3$CO$_2$H is 4.00 mM and a 1 mm cell was used. (b) Continuous
variation plot of the absorbance at 824 nm versus the TBA/CF$_3$CO$_2$H
ratios from (a).

![Fig. 18](image-url)

**Fig. 18** (a) UV-Vis-NIR spectra of TBA (0.100 mM), TBA with
2000 mol% CF$_3$CO$_2$H, and TBA with 2000 mol% CF$_3$CO$_2$H followed
by addition of 3000 mol% NEt$_3$ in CH$_2$Cl$_2$. (b) UV-Vis-NIR spectra
during repeated acidification/neutralization by addition of CF$_3$CO$_2$H and NEt$_3$
to TBA (0.100 mM) in CH$_2$Cl$_2$ for up to five cycles. (c) Absorbance
at 412 nm and (d) absorbance at 822 nm for the UV-Vis-NIR spectra in (b)
during repeated acidification/neutralization by addition of CF$_3$CO$_2$H
and NEt$_3$ to TBA in CH$_2$Cl$_2$ for up to five cycles.
Under the condition of [BCH⁺] = [CF₃CO₂⁻], [BCH⁺] is given as:

\[ [\text{BCH}^+] = K_1^{1/2}[\text{BC}]^{1/2}[\text{CF}_3\text{CO}_2\text{H}]^{1/2} \]

Thus, the reaction rate is 0.5 order with respect to both BC and CF₃CO₂H, which is consistent with the observed reaction orders.

\[ v = k_1 K_1^{1/2}[\text{BC}]^{1/2}[\text{CF}_3\text{CO}_2\text{H}]^{1/2} \]

Using the reaction model, the activation energy barrier of BC in CH₂Cl₂ was determined to be ΔG° = 28 kcal mol⁻¹ (293 K) (Tables S4 and 5†). On the other hand, the kinetic experiments for TBA showed that the reaction is 1st order with respect to TBA and 2nd order with respect to CF₃CO₂H (Fig. 20 and Tables S6 and 7†), indicating that di-protonation of TBA precedes the N–N bond cleavage reaction [Scheme 8(3)]. The fact that the N–N bond cleavage reaction of TBA occurs after di-protonation rather than mono-protonation is consistent with the greater basicity of TBA than that of BC. The activation energy barrier of TBA in CH₂Cl₂ was determined to be ΔG° = 11 kcal mol⁻¹ (293 K) (Fig. S11 and Table S8†). This value is much lower than the 28 kcal mol⁻¹ of BC, showing that the reaction of TBA with CF₃CO₂H is much faster than that of BC. In the case of BC, the di-protonation pathway would be disfavored compared with mono-protonation, due to the lower basicity. The results of the kinetic experiments also confirm that the N–N bond cleavage of BCH⁺ to form BCH⁺⁺, or of TBAH₂⁺⁺ to form TBAH₂⁺⁺⁺, is the rate-determining step, and that the bimolecular electron transfer reaction from BC to BCH⁺ or from TBA to TBAH₂⁺⁺⁺ is not the rate-determining step, because the reaction would be 2nd order with respect to BC or TBA in the implausible latter mechanism.

The reaction mode of the N–N bond cleavage reactions must be the thermally allowed disrotatory retro-6π-electrocyclization. The N–N bond cleavage reaction processes under neutral and acidic conditions were further examined by density functional theory (DFT) calculations [U06-B97XD/6-31G(d)] in order to confirm this (Fig. 21 and 22). Under neutral conditions (Fig. 21a and 22a), the activation energy for the disrotatory retro-6π-electrocyclization is very high (TS-BC: 47.7 kcal mol⁻¹, TS-TBA: 47.8 kcal mol⁻¹), and BC and TBA are thermodynamically much more stable than the open-shell singlet biradical states (BC⁺⁺: 42.4 kcal mol⁻¹, TBA⁺⁺⁺: 23.8 kcal mol⁻¹) formed after N–N bond cleavage. Thus, the N–N bond cleavage reactions do not take place under neutral conditions. In contrast, after mono-protonation of BC under acidic conditions (Fig. 21b), the calculated energy barrier between the mono-protonated BCH⁺ and the neutralized BCH⁺⁻⁻⁻ is much lower than the TS-BC or TS-TBA.
and the transition state TS-BCH becomes lower (+22.9 kcal mol⁻¹), and the open-shell singlet state BCH⁺ becomes more stable (−6.4 kcal mol⁻¹) than BCH⁺. This calculated energy barrier is consistent with the experimental value (ΔG‡ = 28 kcal mol⁻¹) after accounting for the energy required to protonate BC to form BCH⁺, which demonstrates the high feasibility of the N–N bond cleavage reaction under acidic conditions. The value of the energy barrier between BCH⁺ and TS-BCH⁺ also supports the proposed reaction model, in which BCH⁺ is the intermediate [Schemes 6 and 8(1) and (2)]. Both mono-protonation and di-protonation mechanisms were calculated for TBA under acidic conditions (Fig. 22b and c). In the case of di-protonation, cis-di-protonation of TBA is necessary for the thermal disrotatory retro-6π-electrocyclization. The calculated energy barriers between mono-protonated TBAH⁺ and TS-TBAH⁺, and between cis-di-protonated TBAH₂⁺ and TS-TBAH₂⁺ also become lower (TS-TBAH⁺: +19.2 kcal mol⁻¹, TS-TBAH₂⁺: +2.6 kcal mol⁻¹), and the open-shell singlet states were more stable (TBAH⁺: −12.5 kcal mol⁻¹, TBAH₂⁺: −60.4 kcal mol⁻¹), supporting the N–N bond cleavage reaction under acidic conditions. After accounting for the protonation energy, the di-protonation mechanism is consistent with the experimental energy barrier (ΔG‡ = 11 kcal mol⁻¹). Although the energy barrier of the mono-protonation mechanism is also low enough for the reaction of TBA to proceed, the calculated values indicate that the di-protonation mechanism is faster than the mono-protonation mechanism. The experimental reaction orders and the relatively small calculated barrier (+2.6 kcal mol⁻¹) between TBAH₂⁺ and TS-TBAH₂⁺ suggest...
that TBAH$_2^{2+}$ is not an intermediate, and that the cis-di-protonation of TBA is followed by the N–N bond cleavage reaction without the formation of an intermediate [Schemes 7 and 8(3)]. After the formation of the electron-deficient BCH$^{1+}$ or TBAH$_2^{2+}$, electron transfer from the electron-rich BC or TBA takes place (Schemes 6 and 7). The results of the electrochemical analysis (Fig. 10a and b and 16k and l and Table 1) indicate that the lower oxidation potentials of BC (0.17 V) and TBA (0.05 V) compared with those of BCH (0.74 V) and TBAH$_2$ (0.31 V) promote electron transfer from BC to BCH$^{1+}$ and from TBA to TBAH$_2^{2+}$. Protonation to form BCH$_3^{1+}$ or TBAH$_4^{2+}$ also assists the electron transfer process under equilibrium under acidic conditions (Schemes 6 and 7). The observation of no NMR signals corresponding to BC and BCH$_3^{1+}$ or TBA and TBAH$_4^{2+}$, even in the presence of small amounts of acid, indicates that the electron transfer is under fast equilibrium.

**Reaction mechanism of the reversible disproportionation**

The proposed mechanisms for the recovery of BC and TBA on treatment with NEt$_3$ after the disproportionation are shown in Schemes 6 and 7. The reversible reaction of TBA features back electron transfer and N–N bond formation enabled by the acid-regulated N–N bond cleavage/formation reactions, which provide an efficient switching mechanism, and the balance of the redox potentials. The difference in the reversibility of the reactions of BC and TBA can be explained by the difference in the redox potentials versus that of NEt$_3$ (Table 1). Theoretically, 67% BC$^+$ and 33% BCH$_3^+$, or 67% TBA$^+$ and 33% TBAH$_4^{2+}$, are formed through disproportionation on acidification of BC or TBA. When the mixture was quenched with hydrazine, BC$^{1+}$ and TBA$^{1+}$ were reduced by electron transfer from hydrazine, and BCH$_3^+$ and TBAH$_4^{2+}$ were neutralized by hydrazine almost simultaneously. Thus, the recovered products (68% BC and 31% BCH$_3$, or 65% TBA and 32% TBAH$_2$) reflected the ratio of the disproportionation products formed in the reaction (Schemes 4 and 5). On the other hand, when the mixture obtained from TBA was quenched with NEt$_3$, TBA was recovered in 99% yield (Fig. 18a and Scheme 5). This result indicates that NEt$_3$ acts only as a base to neutralize TBAH$_4^{2+}$ to TBAH$_2$, and that TBAH$_2$ is converted back to TBA through back electron transfer between TBA$^{1+}$, deprotonation by NEt$_3$, and the N–N bond forming 6π-electrocyclization (Scheme 7). The formation of TBA from TBAH$_2$ was reproduced by electrochemical oxidation in the presence of NEt$_3$. Whereas the electrochemical oxidation (CV) of TBAH$_2$ with sweeping up to 0.59 V in the absence of NEt$_3$ showed only a reversible oxidation wave corresponding to TBAH$_2$/TBAH$_2^{1+}$ (Fig. 16l), the oxidation in the presence of NEt$_3$ with sweeping up to 0.36 V converted TBAH$_2$ to TBA$^{1+}$ through the electrochemical oxidation and deprotonation of TBAH$_2$ by NEt$_3$ to form TBA$^{1+}$,
the thermal disrotatory 6π-electrocyclization of TBA to form TBA, and the electrochemical oxidation of TBA to form TBA$, as indicated by the observation of the TBA$TBA redox wave (Fig. 23a and b). The oxidation potential of TBAH$_2$ of 0.31 V is lower than the 0.45 V of NEt$_3$ (Table 1 and Fig. 16l and 23c), which indicates that TBAH$_2$ is a stronger electron donor than NEt$_3$, and is better able to reduce TBA$ to TBA. Based on the total recovery yield (99%) of TBA, 64% of TBA$ out of the theoretically formed 67% TBA$ would be reduced by 32% TBAH$_2$ out of the 33% TBAH$_2$ formed, while 3% of TBA$ would be reduced by NEt$_3$ (Scheme 7). Judging by the oxidation potentials of TBA ($-0.05$ V) and TBAH$_2$ (0.31 V), the back electron transfer process between TBA$ and TBAH$_2$ is unfavorable. Nevertheless, these redox potentials are close enough for the back electron transfer to proceed under equilibrium to form TBA$*, aided by deprotonation by NEt$_3$. To complete this unfavorable equilibrium, the N–N bond forming 6π-electrocyclization plays an important role. Based on the DFT calculations (Fig. 22a), the N–N bond formation reaction of TBA* to form TBA via TS-TBA under neutral conditions is likely to proceed irreversibly, judging by the low activation energy

Table 1  Electrochemical oxidation potentials$a$

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>BC</th>
<th>BCH</th>
<th>TBA</th>
<th>TBAH$_2$</th>
<th>NEt$_3$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$0.17$ V</td>
<td>$0.74$ V</td>
<td>$-0.05$ V</td>
<td>$0.31$ V</td>
<td>$0.45$ V</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$a$ In CH$_2$Cl$_2$ containing 0.1 M Bu$_4$NClO$_4$ (vs. Fe/Fc$^+$). $^b$ Differential pulse voltammetry (DPV).

Fig. 22  DFT calculations of the N–N bond cleavage/formation reactions of TBA [Uw897XD/6-31G(d)]. (a) Neutral conditions. (b) Mono-protonated conditions. (c) Di-protonated conditions. t-Butyl groups are omitted for the calculations.

Fig. 23  (a) CV of TBAH$_2$ with 1000 mol% NEt$_3$ in CH$_2$Cl$_2$ containing 0.1 M Bu$_4$NClO$_4$ (vs. Fe/Fc$^+$). (b) Expanded views of the CVs of TBA (Fig. 16k), TBAH$_2$ + NEt$_3$ (a), TBAH$_2$ (Fig. 16l), and NEt$_3$ (c) (vs. Fe/Fc$^+$). (c) CV of NEt$_3$ in CH$_2$Cl$_2$ containing 0.1 M Bu$_4$NClO$_4$ (vs. Fe/Fc$^+$).
from BC was quenched with NEt$_3$, only a slightly higher yield (72%) of BC and a lower yield (18%) of BCH$_2$, compared with the yields obtained with hydrazine, were recovered (Fig. 5a and Scheme 4). Based on the recovery yield of BC (72%), only 10% of the yields obtained with hydrazine, were recovered (Fig. 5a and Scheme 4).

Judging by the similarity of their structures to those of BC and TBA (Fig. 24), would be promising substrates for the transformation of TBA and TBA (Fig. 24). While the syntheses and some generation of BC and TBA, compounds 11, which share “a hydrazinohelicene structure” with BC and TBA (Fig. 24), would be promising substrates to undergo acid-triggered electron transfer disproportionation. Furthermore, “the diarylphenanthroline structure” of compound 10, which is also present in BC, TBA, and 11, could be the required minimum structure for the reaction. In order to reveal the scope and limitation of acid/base-regulated electron transfer disproportionation, the reactivity of related N–N linked polyheterocyclic compounds should be investigated, and this is now in progress.

**Fig. 24** Tetraphenylhydrazine 9, 9,10-dihydro-9,10-diphenylphenanthroline 10, biphenothiazine 11a, biphenoxazine 11b, and biphenazine 11c.

**Related N–N linked polyheterocyclic compounds**

Tetraphenylhydrazine 9 (Fig. 24) was reported to undergo acid-promoted homolytic N–N bond cleavage under strong acidic conditions (HCl, $H_2$SO$_4$) in the early 1900s. However, the generated aminium radical is unstable and forms decomposition products in this case. While the syntheses and some properties of 9,10-dihydro-9,10-diphenylphenanthroline 10 (ref. 16) and biphenothiazine 11a (ref. 17) (Fig. 24) were reported, their reactivities toward acids were not investigated. Judging by the similarity of their structures to those of BC and TBA, compounds 11, which share “a hydrazinohelicene structure” with BC and TBA (Fig. 24), would be promising substrates to undergo acid-triggered electron transfer disproportionation. Furthermore, “the diarylphenanthroline structure” of compound 10, which is also present in BC, TBA, and 11, could be the required minimum structure for the reaction. In order to reveal the scope and limitation of acid/base-regulated electron transfer disproportionation, the reactivity of related N–N linked polyheterocyclic compounds should be investigated, and this is now in progress.

**Conclusions**

After the elucidation of the overall reactions of BC and TBA, including the detailed mechanisms, it was recognized that the characteristic chemical and physical properties of the components involved in these reactions and the external acid/base stimuli are flawlessly associated with each other in order to establish these electron transfer reactions. Specifically, the acid-regulated N–N bond cleavage/formation reactions of TBA act as an efficient switch, even with weak acids, and the balanced redox potentials of the components establish the highly reversible electron transfer reaction. Importantly, this discovery is not limited to just the electron transfer disproportionation of two organic molecules, but it also provides new design concepts for acid/base-regulated organic electron transfer systems, reducing/oxidizing chemical reagents, and functional organic materials. The notable chemical and physical properties of BC and TBA, such as their excellent multi-electron redox properties and the acid-induced radical formation, are promising for wide applications.

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**Notes and references**


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12 The compounds without N–N covalent bonds have two conformations (extended and folded), depending on the positions of the two carbazoles or acridines. Both conformers of each compound were optimized by DFT calculations and the conformers with lower energy are shown in Schemes 6–8 and Fig. 21 and 22. See also ESI†.


14 The closed-shell singlet, the triplet, and the open-shell singlet states were calculated, giving the lowest energies for the open-shell singlet states.

