









Common Photophysical Processes

Primary absorption	$S + hv \rightarrow S^*$		
Excited-state absorption	$S^* + h\nu \rightarrow S^{**}$		
	$\mathrm{T}^{\star} + h\nu \to \mathrm{T}^{\star\star}$		
Fluorescence	$S^* \rightarrow S + hv$		
Stimulated emission	$S^* + hv \rightarrow S + 2hv$		
Intersystem crossing (ISC)	$S^{\star} \rightarrow T^{\star}$		
Phosphorescence	$T^* \rightarrow S + hv$		
Internal conversion (IC)	$S^{\star} \rightarrow S$		
Collision-induced emission	$S^* + M \rightarrow S + M + hv$		
Collisional deactivation	$S^* + M \rightarrow S + M$		
	$T^{\star} + M \longrightarrow S + M$		
Electronic energy transfer:			
Singlet-singlet	$S^* + S \rightarrow S + S^*$		
Triple-triplet	$T^{\star} + T \rightarrow T + T^{\star}$		
Excimer formation	$S^* + S \rightarrow (SS)^*$		
Energy pooling			
Singlet-singlet	$S^{\star} + S^{\star} \longrightarrow S^{\star \star} + S$		
Triple-triplet	$T^* + T^* \rightarrow S^* + S$		

Primary Quantum Yield

 The primary quantum yield, φ, the number of photophysical or photochemical events that lead to primary products divided by the number of photons absorbed by the molecules in the same interval, or the radiation-induced primary events divided by the rate of photo absorption:

 $\varphi = \frac{number of events}{number of photons absorbed}$ $= \frac{v(rate of the process)}{I_{abs} (int ensity of light absorbed)}$

Primary Quantum Yield

• The sum of primary quantum yields for all photophysical and photochemical events must be equal to 1:

$$\sum_{i} \varphi_{i} = \sum_{i} \frac{v_{i}}{I_{abs}} = 1$$

• From the above relationship, the primary quantum yield may be determined directly from the experimental rates of ALL photophysical and photochemical processes that deactivate the excited state: v_i

$$\varphi_i = \frac{v_i}{\sum v_i}$$

Decay Mechanism of Excited Singlet State

Absorption:	$S + hv_i \rightarrow S^*$	$v_{\rm abs} = I_{\rm abs}$
Fluorescence:	$S^* \rightarrow S + hv_i$	$v_{\rm f} = k_{\rm f}[{\rm S}^*]$
Internal conversion:	$S^* \rightarrow S$	$v_{\rm IC} = k_{\rm IC}[{\rm S}^*]$
Intersystem crossing	r: S → T*	$v_{\rm ISC} = k_{\rm ISC}[{\rm S}^*]$
S* is an excited sin	glet state, and T* is an ex	cited triplet state.
The rate of decay: $\frac{d[S^*]}{dt}$	$\frac{]}{=} = -k_f[S^*] - k_{IC}[A$	S^*] - $k_{ISC}[S^*]$
When the incident light is	turn off, the excited sta	te decays exponentially:
$\left[S^*\right]_t = \left[S^*\right]_0 e^{-1}$	$-t/ au_0$ with	$\tau_0 = \frac{1}{k_f + k_{IC} + k_{ISC}}$

Fluorescence Quatum Yield

 If the incident light intensity is high and the absorbance of the sample is low, we may invoke the steady-state approximation for [S*]:

$$I_{abs} - k_f[S^*] - k_{IC}[S^*] - k_{ISC}[S^*] = 0$$

Consequently,

$$I_{abs} = k_{f}[S^{*}] + k_{IC}[S^{*}] + k_{ISC}[S^{*}]$$

The expression for the quantum yield of fluorescence becomes:

$$\phi_{f,0} = \frac{v_f}{I_{abs}} = \frac{k_f}{k_f + k_{IC} + k_{ISC}}$$

Quenching

• The presence of a quencher, Q, opens an additional channel for deactivation of S*:

 $S^* + Q \rightarrow S + Q \quad v_Q = k_Q[Q][S^*]$

Now the steady-state approximation for [S*] gives:

$$I_{abs} - k_f[S^*] - k_{IC}[S^*] - k_{ISC}[S^*] - k_Q[Q][S^*] = 0$$

The fluorescence quantum yield in the presence of quencher becomes:

$$\phi_f = \frac{k_f}{k_f + k_{IC} + k_{ISC} + k_Q[Q]}$$

Quenching & Stern-Volmer Plot

• The ratio of $\Phi_{f,0}/\Phi_f$ is then given by

$$\frac{\varphi_{f,0}}{\varphi_f} = 1 + \tau_o k_Q[Q]$$

 Therefore a plot of the left-hand side of the above equation against [Q] should produce a straight line with the slope τ₀k_Q. Such a plot is called **Stern-Volmer** plot.



 The fluorescence intensity and lifetime are both proportional to the fluorescence quantum yield, plot of I_{f,0}/I₀ and τ₀/ τ against [Q] should also be linear with the same slope and intercept as 								
$\frac{\varphi_f}{\varphi} = 1 + \tau_o k_{\varrho}[\varrho]$ • The quenching of tryptophan fluorescence by dissolved O ₂ gas was monitored by measuring emission lifetimes at 348 nm in aqueous solutions. Determine the quenching rate constant for this process								
[O ₂]/(10 ⁻² M) Tau/(10 ⁻⁹ s)	0 2.6	2.3 1.5	5.5 0.92	8 0.71	10.8 0.57			

3 Common Mechanisms for Bimolecular Quenching

1. Collisional deactivation:

 $S^* + Q \rightarrow S + Q$

is particularly efficient when Q is a heavy species such as iodide ion.

2. Resonance energy transfer: $S^* + Q \rightarrow S + Q^*$

- 3. Electron transfer:
 - $S^* + Q \rightarrow S^+ + Q^-$
 - or $S^* + Q \rightarrow S^- + Q^+$

Energy Transfer Processes

(Forster theory,1952) Energy transfer is more efficient when:

1. The energy donor and acceptor are separated by a short distance, in the nanometer scale.

2. Photons emitted by the excited state of the donor can be absorbed directly by the acceptor.

The efficiency of energy transfer, E_{T} , equals

$$E_T = 1 - \frac{\phi_f}{\phi_{f,0}} \qquad \qquad E_T = \frac{R_0^6}{R_0^6 + R^6}$$

Where R is the distance between the donor and the acceptor. R_0 is a parameter that is characteristic of each donor-acceptor pair.

Fluorescence resonance energy transfer (FRET)



Electron transfer reactions (Marcus theory)

- The distance between the donor and acceptor, with electron transfer becoming more efficient as the distance between donor and acceptor decrease.
- The reaction Gibbs energy, Δ_rG, with electron transfer becoming more efficient as the reaction becomes more exergonic.
- The reorganization energy, the energy cost incurred by molecular rearrangements of donor, acceptor, and medium during electron transfer. The electron transfer rate is predicted to increase as this reorganization energy is matched closely by the reaction Gibbs energy.









