

## Exothermic energy transfer

The rate constants for energy transfer processes which are exothermic by more than 3-4 kcal/mol and are spin allowed, frequently approach the diffusion controlled limit.

$$k_{diff} = \frac{8RT}{2000} = 2 \times 10^5 \frac{T}{2}$$

Representative diffusion controlled			
rate constants in units of: $10^{10} \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$			
isopentane	4.6		
benzene	1.6		
water	1.1		



# Conditions for trivial energy transfer

The "trivial" mechanism requires that D\* emits photons which A is capable of absorbing. The rate or probability per unit time of energy transfer from D\* to produce A\* will depend on:

- The quantum yield ( <sub>e</sub><sup>D</sup>) of emission by D\*.
- The number of A molecules (concentration) in the path of photons emitted by D\*.
- The light absorbing ability of A.
- The overlap of the emission spectrum of D\* and the absorption spectrum of A, with consideration given to the extinction coefficient of A at the wavelength of overlap.









## Förster or Coulombic energy transfer

In Coulombic energy transfer no electrons "change molecules", but rather two transitions occur simultaneously in a process that could be described as the transfer of a "virtual photon"; Since no electrons are actually transferred in the Coulombic mechanism, it is clear that this process cannot have an analogy in the case of electron transfer.

There cannot be electron transfer if electrons are not exchanged between donor and acceptor

## Förster mechanism

 $k_{eT} \text{ (total)} \qquad \left[ \left\langle \begin{array}{c} (D^*) & (A) \right| H_e \\ \end{array} \right] \quad \left( D \right) \quad \left( A^* \right) \right)^2$ 

Exchange

+ 
$$\langle (D^*) (A) | H_c | (D) (A^*) \rangle^2$$

Coulombic

$$k_{ET}$$
 (Coulombic)  $E^2 = \frac{\mu_D \mu_A}{R_{DA}^3}^2 = \frac{\mu_D^2 \mu_A^2}{R_{DA}^6}$ 

- •(a) The square of the transition dipole moment  $\mu D$ .
- •(b) The square of the transition dipole moment  $\mu A$ .
- •(c) The inverse sixth power of the separation between D\* and A (i.e. 1/R6).

This dipole-dipole coupling mechanism, frequently called the "Förster mechanism" can only be effective in singlet-singlet energy transfer because only multiplicity-conserving transitions have large transition dipoles

## **Electron exchange mechanisms**

- Energy transfer in some cases
  - always in the case of triplet-triplet energy transfer
- Triplet-triplet annihilation
- Charge transfer
- Charge translocation

A theory of energy transfer by electron exchange was worked out by Dexter:

$$k_{ET}$$
 (exchange) = KJ exp(-2 r<sub>DA</sub>/L)

- K is related to specific orbital interactions.
- J is the normalized spectral overlap integral, where normalized means that both the emission intensity  $(I_D)$  and extinction coefficient (A) have been normalized to unit area on the wavenumber scale.
  - J, by being normalized does not depend on the actual magnitude of A.
- rDA is the donor-acceptor separation relative to their van der Waals radii, L.
  - By being defined in this manner  $r_{DA}$  corresponds to the edge-to-edge separation

# Förster (Coulombic) vs. Dexter (exchange)

- The rate of dipole-induced energy transfer decreases as  $R^{-6}$  whereas the rate of exchange-induced transfer decreases as exp–(2r/L). This means that  $k_{ET}$ (exchange) drops to negligibly small values (relative to the donor lifetime) as the intermolecular (edge-to-edge) distance increases more than on the order of one or two molecular diameters (5-10Å).
- The rate of dipole-induced transfer depends on the oscillator strength of the D\* D and A A\* radiative transitions, but the rate of the exchange-induced transfer is independent of the oscillator strength of the D\* D and A A\* transitions.
- The efficiency of energy transfer (fraction of transfers per donor lifetime  $\sim k_{ET}/k_D$ ) by the dipole mechanism depends mainly on the oscillator strength of the A A\* transition (since a smaller oscillator strength for D\* D is compensated by a slower radiative rate constant), whereas the efficiency of energy transfer by the exchange interaction cannot be directly related an experimental quantity.







# **Properties of TTA in solution**

- The rate constants for TTA, k<sub>TTA</sub>, are generally very large.
- With lasers triplet state concentrations in excess of 10–5 M are common. Typical products k<sub>TTA</sub>[D\*(T1)] may then be around or over 10<sup>5</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>. Thus, any triplet with lifetime of a few microseconds (a common situation) will undergo at least some TTA in fluid solution.
- The high sensitivity with which fluorescence can be detected makes TTA an easily observable process even when it is not the major mechanism for triplet decay.

Substrate	Solvent	T, (K)	k <sub>TTA</sub> (109M <sup>-1</sup> s <sup>-1</sup>
Anthracene <sup>15</sup>	toluene	258	2.74
Anthracene <sup>15</sup>	toluene	298	4.10
1,2-Benzanthracene <sup>16</sup>	n-hexane	296	20.3
Pyrene <sup>17</sup>	cyclohexane	room T	$7 \pm 2$
Pyrene <sup>17</sup>	dodecane	room T	$5 \pm 1$
Pyrene <sup>17</sup>	hexadecane	room T	$1.9 \pm 0.2$
Pyrene <sup>17</sup>	hexadecane	room T	1.9 ± 0.2







#### Gas phase vs. solution redox properties

From the point of view of organic photochemistry, we will frequently be interested in charge transfer processes in solution. To determine the energetics associated with these processes, we could follow two distinct approaches:

- (a) We could calculate G for the gas phase reaction and then correct G to take into account the solvation energies for all the participants (i.e. D\*, A, D+• and A•) in the reaction.
- (b) We could employ the electrochemical potentials for the oxidation of reductions involved to calculate free energy changes directly in solution.





















