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ENERGY TRANSFER AND KINETIC STUDIES OF ELECTROCHEMILUMINESCENCE OF AROMATIC HYDROCARBONS

bу

Thomas David Santa Cruz

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in

The University of South Florida

December, 1976

Major Professor: Associate Professor Daniel L. Akins

GRADUATE COUNCIL UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH FLORIDA TAMPA, FLORIDA

CERTIFICATE OF APPROVAL

PH.D. DISSERTATION

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with a major in Chemistry has been approved by the Examining Committee on <u>October 15, 1976</u> as satisfactory for the dissertation requirement for the Ph.D. degree.

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This dissertation is dedicated to

my parents, Roque and Alma

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ENERGY TRANSFER AND KINETIC STUDIES OF ELECTROCHEMILUMINESCENCE OF AROMATIC HYDROCARBONS

by

Thomas David Santa Cruz

An Abstract

Of a dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the Department of Chemistry in the University of South Florida

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Major Professor: Associate Professor Daniel L. Akins

ABSTRACT

A proposed reaction mechanism is examined for the generation of electrochemiluminescence as a consequence of the electroreduction of an aromatic hydrocarbon in the presence of a bulk oxidant precursor, benzoyl peroxide (BPO). The reduced aromatic hydrocarbon, a radical anion, induces the decomposition of the bulk oxidant precursor into a reactive radical oxidant, the benzoyloxy radical. When the benzoyloxy radical oxidizes a radical anion to the neutral species, there exists an excess of energy in the reaction which is sufficient to cause the neutral aromatic hydrocarbon to be electronically excited to the triplet energy state. The triplet state molecule then reacts with BPO forming the cation radical of the aromatic hydrocarbon. The cation radical undergoes an annihilation reaction with an anion radical producing two neutral molecules of the aromatic hydrocarbon. However, there exists sufficient excess energy in this reaction to excite one of the molecules to an electronically excited state. If the amount of this excess energy is large enough, then the lowest excited singlet state is produced and luminescence is detected from its radiant decay; otherwise a triplet state is formed, again. As the population of triplet molecules increases triplet-triplet annihilation occurs producing an excited singlet state and a ground state molecule, the former luminescing.

A mechanism is postulated as the result of several logical premises; this is followed by experimental evidence testing these premises. Electrochemiluminescence is observed for a variety of aromatic hydrocarbons and binary mixtures of aromatic hydrocarbons. Finally, a mathematical derivation of the time dependency of the emission intensity is presented based on the mechanism. Experimental intensity-time data are fitted by means of a nonlinear least squares analysis to the derived intensitytime function. The analysis of the results indicates: the triplet species undergoes a quenching reaction which does not lead to luminescence, and the induced decomposition of BPO and the anion-cation annihilation reaction are diffusion controlled.

Abstract approved: Daniel L. Akins

Major Professor Daniel L. Akins Associate Professor Department of Chemistry

Date of Aproval

I. INTRODUCTION

1.1. General Electrochemiluminescence

Many atoms and molecules exhibit luminescence (radiative decay from excited electronic states) and the means by which the excitation is achieved has been used to classify the various types of luminescence. A comprehensive discussion of luminescence is presented by Harvey [1]; his listing includes candoluminescence, pyroluminescence, thermoluminescence, phosphorescence, and many more.

Quite often studies of luminescence provide information about the composition of the emitting system and information about the processes that take place prior to and after the excitation. In recent years considerable interest has been centered on reactions that convert chemical energy into light (chemiluminescence), of these considerable interest has been given to the reactions leading to a particular type of chemiluminescence of aromatic hydrocarbons in polar aprotic solvents, where the emitting species is the product of a homogeneous electron transfer reaction between electrochemically generated radical anions and a bulk oxident. Such luminescence is termed electrogenerated chemiluminescence (ecl). A considerable amount of attention has focused on ecl since its recent detection [2-4] and has led to a series of outstanding review articles [5-10]. Studies of ecl have traditionally utilized two electrolytic techniques: an alternating current electrolysis [2,4] or a

direct current electrolysis [3]. In both of these techniques, the radical anion and radical cation are generated and subsequently undergoelectron transfer annihilation to produce an excited molecule and a ground state molecule. The alternating current technique is one in which the potential at a single working electrode is repetitively stepped positive and negative, creating first one radical ion and then its complement. The direct current technique involves two electrodes in very close proximity; at one electrode the radical anion is produced and at the other electrode radical cation is produced. The ions mix by diffusion or some other form of mass transfer. The alternating current technique produces an emission which is periodic, while the direct current technique produces a steady-state emission.

Recently, Chandross and Sonntag [11,12] generated chemiluminescene from radical anions by chemical means. The procedure was to produce a solution of radical anions by the stoichiometric (1:1) addition of potassium metal to a solution containing the aromatic hydrocarbon, and then to add to this solution an oxidizing agent. Upon the addition of the oxidizing agent, luminescence was observed. Chandross and Sonntag reported several oxidizing agents: 9,10-dichloro-9,10-diphenylanthracene (DPACl₂), benzoyl peroxide (BPO), p-toluenesulfonyl chloride, p-toluenesulfonic acid anhydride, oxalyl chloride, mercuric chloride, aluminium chloride, and chlorine. Shortly thereafter, Weller and Zachariasse [13] reported similar results using the perchlorate salt of the cation radical of tetramethyl-p-phenylene diamine (Wurster's Blue Perchlorate) as the oxidizing agent. Subsequently, Livingston and Leonhardt [14] reported similar results with stannic chloride, antimony pentachloride, tetracyanoethylene, and peroxydisulfate as oxidizing agents. In all of these

cases the solvents used had low dielectric constants which made electrochemical application almost impossible.

More recently, Siegel and Mark [15,16] observed ecl in the electrochemical reduction of 9,10-diphenylanthracene (DPA) and other aromatic hydrocarbons in the presence of DPACl₂ or 1,2-dibromo-1,2-diphenylethane (DPEBr₂). From their observations they proposed a mechanism for ecl which incorporates the direct formation of the excited singlet state of the emitting species. To satisfy the energetics for the systems used, they had to postulate the homogeneous generation of a very strong oxidant.

A short time later Akins and Birke [17] using BPO instead of DPACl₂ as the bulk oxidant precursor, reported observations similar to those of Siegel and Mark. They observed emission from several different aromatic hydrocarbons, and their binary mixtures. However, Akins and Birke suggested major modifications in the mechanism for *ecl* put forth by Siegel and Mark; they proposed the formation of excited triplets and the generation of radical cations through triplet quenching by a homogeneous oxidant.

1.2. The Electrochemistry of Aromatic Hydrocarbons

There are several good sources [18-21] of information on the electrochemistry of aromatic hydrocarbons in aprotic solvents. An important and unique feature of their electrochemistry is that the electron is not transferred between particular atoms or functional groups, but is transferred directly to or from the π -electron system of the entire molecule. Moreover, the reduction of aromatic hydrocarbons generally occurs in two steps: the reduction of the parent hydrocarbon to a radical anion; followed by reduction to the dianion. The reduction potential of the

first step generally lies between -1.2 and -2.2 volts versus the saturated calomel electrode (v vs. SCE) and that for the second step is about 0.5 volts more negative.

The oxidation of aromatic hydrocarbons is much more complicated than the reduction. The oxidation also occurs in two steps but is not as well defined due to chemical reactions which are coupled to the rate of generation of the radical cations and dications [24,25].

Homogeneous electron transfer rate constants between the parent hydrocarbon and the radical ions have been measured [24-26]. They lie between 10^8 - 10^{10} $\underline{\text{M}}^{-1}$ sec⁻¹ and suggest that the heterogeneous electrochemical rate constants [27] lie between 10^2 and 10^4 cm sec⁻¹ (which makes the corresponding reactions essentially diffusion controlled). This fast transfer of electrons also occurs between species in systems of mixed aromatic hydrocarbons and is important since it leads to an equilibrium state in which the radical anion having the most positive polarographic couple and the radical cation with the least positive polarographic couple are the predominate species present.

Other interesting points referred to by the literature [18-20] are that in certain aprotic solvents radical ions are more stable (i.e., less reactive towards the solvents), electron transfer is enhanced, and aromatic hydrocarbons are more soluble than in aqueous solvents.

1.3. Energetic Considerations in ECL

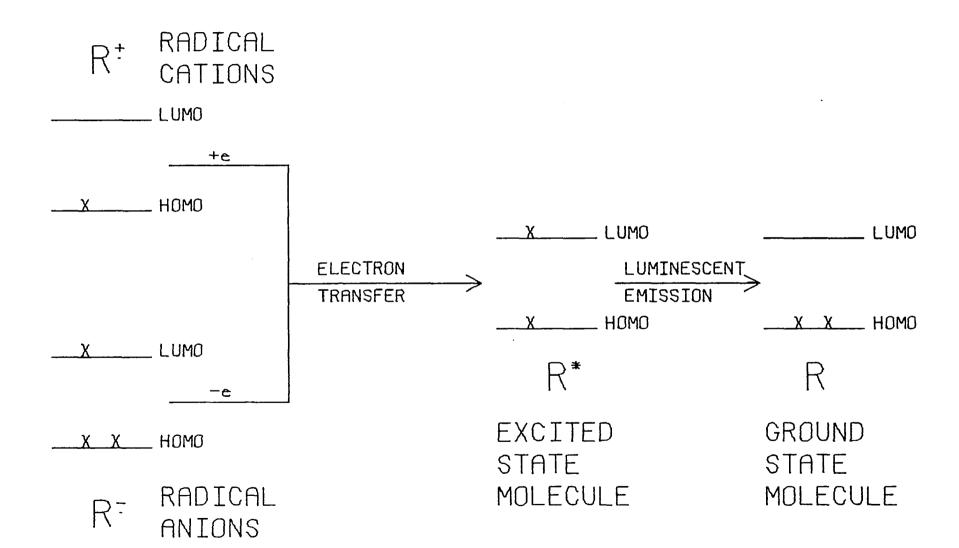
Some of the fundamental energy requirements in ecl are discussed here.

A simple molecular orbital-reaction diagram to aid in this purpose is shown in Figure 1, it is intended to show changes in the electron

Figure 1. Molecular Orbital Reaction Diagram

Representation of Electron Transfer

Luminescence.



state of the species and not an overall state diagram. The radical anion ($R^{\overline{i}}$ in the lower left of the figure) loses an electron in an oxidation step. If there is sufficient excess energy in the enthalpy change, $-\Delta H$, then the electron can be removed from the highest occupied molecular orbital (H0M0) of the radical anion. Thus an excited state neutral molecule ($R^{\overline{i}}$ in the center) is formed. In a similar way, the radical cation ($R^{\overline{i}}$ in the upper left) can be reduced. Again, if there is sufficient excess energy in the enthalpy change, the electron can be placed in the lowest unoccupied molecular orbital (LUM0). And an excited state neutral molecule is formed.

The enthalpy change, $-\Delta H$, for the annihilation of radical ions can be calculated [28,29] by the following equation

$$-\Delta H = nF \left(E_{c} - E_{a} \right) - T\Delta S \tag{1.3.1}$$

where E_c and E_a are the standard potentials for the cathodic and anodic reaction of the aromatic hydrocarbon, respectively, and ΔS is the enthropy change, and can be calculated from the expression,

$$\Delta S = \frac{nF \Delta (E_c - E_a)}{\Delta T}$$
 (1.3.2)

with an approximate value of 6.7×10^{-4} eV/°K. The symbol n, F, and T have their standard meanings of the number of moles of electrons exchanged, Faraday constant, and temperature (°K), respectively.

In order for the annihilation of R^{7} and R^{7} to cause ecl, $-\Delta H$ must be greater than the energy of some excited state. When the $-\Delta H$ is greater than the energy required for the formation of the lowest excited singlet state, the process is termed energy sufficient. When the $-\Delta H$ is less than the energy required to form the lowest excited singlet state, yet greater than that required for the formation of the triplet state, the

process is then termed energy deficient. In the case of energy deficient systems the mechanism to explain the observed ecl postulates that the triplet molecules (${}^{3}R^{*}$) undergo triplet-triplet annihilation [5-8,68a]

$${}^{3}R^{*} + {}^{3}R^{*} + {}^{1}R^{*} + R$$
 (1.3.3)

to form an excited singlet molecule $({}^{1}R^{*})$.

With this foundation, we proceed to a discussion of ecl mechanisms.

1.4. Mechanisms for ECL

There are several mechanisms postulated for *ecl* in systems containing a bulk oxidant and some emitting species [12,15-17,30].

In order to better discuss these mechanisms we shall specify here certain useful symbols and representations:

R the neutral ground state aromatic hydrocarbon;

R the excited state;

R the excited singlet state;

³R^{*} the excited triplet state;

R the radical anion;

R the radical cation;

0x the bulk oxidant

0x⁻ the intermediate reduction product of 0x;

 A^{-} the anion decomposition product of $0x^{-}$;

B' the radical decomposition product of $0x^{-}$;

B reduced B'.

Fundamental to all proposed mechanisms for ecl are the electrode reactions

$$R + e \rightarrow R^{\overline{}}$$
 (1.4.1)

and

$$0x + ne \rightarrow Products$$
 (1.4.2)

An apparent simple route leading to ecl is the direct formation of R* through electron transfer between 0x and R $^{-}$,

$$R^{-} + 0x \rightarrow R^{+} + 0x^{-}$$
 (1.4.3)

However, this reaction in order to produce an excited state (singlet or triplet) would require that the electrochemical couple for the oxidant-intermediate, $E(0x/0x^{-})$, be much more positive than what is known for most oxidants.

The induced homogenous generation of another stronger oxidant (e.g., from decomposition of the oxidant) is a more viable postulate. A strong radical oxidant can be generated by the two reactions,

$$R^{-} + 0x \rightarrow R + 0x^{-}$$
 (1.4.4)

$$0x^{-} \rightarrow A^{-} + B^{-}. \qquad (1.4.5)$$

An electron transfer reaction between the radical anion and the stronger oxidant might be expected to generate an excited state

$$R^{-} + B^{+} \rightarrow R^{+} + B^{-}.$$
 (1.4.6)

A consideration of energetics suggests what would be the excited state. For the reaction where the excited singlet is produced,

$$R^{-} + B^{+} \rightarrow R^{+} + B^{-},$$
 (1.4.7)

the electrochemical couple for the radical oxidant-ion, $E(B^*/B^-)$, must actually be of greater magnitude than the couple for the radical cation-parent, $E(R^*/R)$, in most cases. In this case, the reaction between the

radical oxidant and the neutral aromatic hydrocarbon forming the radical cation,

$$R + B^{+} \rightarrow R^{+} + B^{-},$$
 (1.4.8)

would be thermodynamically favored over reaction 1.4.7 and due to the high concentrations of R and B' would be kinetically favored as well. However, reactions 1.4.7 and 1.4.8 necessitate that the electrochemical couple $E(B^*/B)$ be unusually large. Alternatively, the reaction where the excited triplet is produced,

$$R^{-} + B^{+} \rightarrow {}^{3}R^{+} + B^{-},$$
 (1.4.9)

does not impose the need for as large an electrochemical couple and is feasible on both thermodynamic and kinetic grounds. The excited state triplet molecules can undergo a triplet-triplet annihilation reaction [68b],

$${}^{3}R^{*} + {}^{3}R^{*} \rightarrow {}^{1}R^{*} + R$$
 (1.4.10)

followed by an emission reaction,

$${}^{1}R^{*} \rightarrow R + hv \tag{1.4.11}$$

The triplet-triplet annihilation reaction is possible due to the long life of the triplet state. However, the long life can also lead to another possible reaction,

$${}^{3}R^{*} + B^{*} \rightarrow R^{+} + B^{-}$$
 (1.4.12)

Where quenching of the triplets by the radical oxidant produces a radical cation. This reaction is thermodynamically feasible. In fact, the quenching of the triplet molecules by the bulk oxidant,

$${}^{3}R^{+} + 0x \rightarrow R^{+} + 0x^{-}$$
 (1.4.13)

is also thermodynamically feasible and more likely due to the high concentration of bulk oxidant.

With the generation of radical cations, the radical anion-cation annihilation reaction can occur,

$$R^{-} + R^{+} \rightarrow R^{+} + R$$
 (1.4.14)

For aromatic hydrocarbon systems in which radical anion-cation annihilation is energy deficient, reaction 1.4.14 is an extremely inefficient step; it is analogous to delayed fluorescence in photoluminescence.

The discussion, thus far, has dealt with the presence of only one aromatic hydrocarbon (unmixed systems). In Chapter III, the discussion widens to include the cases where more than one aromatic hydrocarbon is present (mixed systems). Presented below is a postulated mechanism for unmixed systems initially proposed by Akins and Birke [17]:

Electrode Reactions

$$R + e \rightarrow R^{\overline{\bullet}} \tag{1.4.1}$$

$$0x + ne \rightarrow Products$$
 (1.4.2)

Radical Oxidant Generations

$$R^{\overline{}} + O_X \rightarrow R + O_X^{\overline{}}$$
 (1.4.4)

$$0x^{-} \rightarrow A^{-} + B^{-} \qquad (1.4.5)$$

Triplet Generation

$$R^{-} + B^{+} \rightarrow {}^{3}R^{+} + B^{-}$$
 (1.4.9)

Triplet Quenching

$$^{3}R^{*} + 0x \rightarrow R^{\dagger} + 0x^{\dagger}$$
 (1.4.12)

Radical Anion-Cation Annihilation

$$R^{+} + R^{+} \rightarrow 1,3_{R}^{*} + R$$
 (1.4.14)

Triplet-Triplet Annihilation

$${}^{3}R^{*} + {}^{3}R^{*} \rightarrow {}^{1}R^{*} + R$$
 (1.4.10)

Luminescence Emission

$${}^{1}R^{*} \rightarrow R + h\nu \tag{1.4.11}$$

This scheme is reasonable for both energy sufficient and energy deficient systems, with triplet-triplet annihilation being unimportant in the energy sufficient case.

1.5. Relevant BPO Chemistry

Since BPO plays an essential role in this investigation specific mention is given here of its relevant chemistry.

The electrochemical reduction of BPO is known [31-34] to cause a homolytic cleavage of the oxygen-oxygen bond (0/0) in a two electron step producing benzoate ions. This reduction is clearly irreversible. The half wave potential for the reduction is a function of the protogenic character of the solvent. In aqueous systems, a value of +0.10 V vs. SCE is reported [32-34]; in 95% ethanol, a value of -0.04 V vs. SCE is reported [31]; in dimethylformamide (DMF) an aprotic solvent, a value of -0.04 V vs. SCE is reported [31].

As early as 1934, Haber and Weiss [35] had proposed a general

mechanism for induced decomposition of peroxides. The Haber-Weiss mechanism postulates the induced decomposition of a peroxide by ions, molecules, or radicals which transfer one electron to the peroxide. The peroxide containing the additional electron is then postulated to heterolytically break down to form a radical plus an anion. Horner and Schwenk reported [36] the decomposition of BPO by amines in a one electron transfer step to form the benzoyloxy radical, benzoate ion, and amine product. Wieland, Ploetz, and Indest [37] reported the production of triphenylmethyl benzoate, tetraphenylmethane, and benzoic acid upon the addition of the triphenylmethyl radical to a benzene solution of BPO at room temperature. Later, Hammond, Rudesill, and Modic [38] re-examined this reaction and verified Wieland's proposed mechanism. The mechanism involved the one electron transfer to the BPO from the triphenylmethyl radical to form benzoyloxy radical and benzoate ion. Hammond pointed out that no carbon dioxide was generated.

Garst, Walmsley, and Richards [39] reported that alkali benzophenone ketyl induced a radical-anion decomposition of BPO and is evidence for step (1.4.4) and (1.4.5) in the mechanism proposed by Akins and Birke [17]. In the reaction of the radical-anion with BPO in benzene, only benzoic acid is produced and the solvent plays no part in the reaction scheme. Hartman, Sellers, and Turnbull [40] observed that the decomposition of the benzoyloxy radical is strongly affected by the temperature and the solvent, so precautions must be taken to avoid the formation of CO_2 .

Thus the mechanism for ec1 which we presented above involving BPO and benzoyloxy radicals as the bulk oxidant and radical oxidant, respectively, is reasonable.

1.6. Objectives and Nature of this Study

The work presented in this dissertation is concerned with the verification of the mechanism proposed by Akins and Birke [17] for ecl produced as a consequence of the electroreduction of an aromatic hydrocarbon in the presence of BPO, a bulk oxidant precursor. The objectives of this study are to show that this type of chemiluminescence is observable from a large number of aromatic hydrocarbons and that the postulated elementary reactions are essential.

II. ECL OBSERVED UPON THE REDUCTION OF AROMATIC HYDROCARBONS IN THE PRESENCE OF BPO

II.1. Introduction

In surveying the iterature of ecl of aromatic hydrocarbons, two general types of ecl have been investigated. The more widely studied type is that resulting when the radical anions and cations are electrolytically generated and undergo radical anion-cation annihilation to produce an excited state molecule [3-9]. The second type of ecl involves the reduction of the aromatic hydrocarbon in the presence of a bulk oxidant at an electrode without the electrolytic generation of radical cations. This second type of ecl has received only minor attention [15-17,30,41,42].

The bulk oxidants which have been used are DPACl₂, DPEBr₂, 5,12-dibromo-5,12-dihydro-5,6,11,12-tetraphenylnaphthacene (RBr₂) and BPO. An intrinsic disadvantage of the halogenated hydrocarbons for the general production of *ecl* is that they produced the radical anion of their parent compound as a product and they produced the *ecl* of their parent compound at the reduction potential of their parent compound, with the exception of DPEBr₂ whose parent compound does not emit [16]. The parent compound of BPO would be benzoic acid which has a very negative reduction potential and very high energy excited states and therefore BPO seemed to be a logical choice as a general purpose bulk oxidant to eliminate the problems of the parent compounds reduction.

11.2. Experimental

II.2.1. Chemicals, Solvents, and Gases

The following aromatic hydrocarbons were received from the manufacturer with stated purity greater than or equal to 99%. The aromatic hydrocarbons were used without any further purification.

- 1. Carbazole, Aldrich Chemical Company.
- 2. Pyrene, Aldrich Chemical Company.
- 3. Picene, Aldrich Chemical Company.
- 4. Anthracene, Eastman Organic Chemicals.
- 5. Benzophenone, J. T. Baker Chemical Company.
- 6. Acridine, Eastman Organic Chemicals.
- 7. 9,10-Dimethylanthracene (DMA), Aldrich Chemical Company.
- 8. Fluoranthene, Aldrich Chemical Company.
- 9. 9,10-Diphenylanthracene (DPA), Aldrich Chemical Company.
- 10. Coronene, Aldrich Chemical Company.
- 11. Thianthrene, Aldrich Chemical Company.
- 12. Perylene, Aldrich Chemical Company.
- 13. Decacyclene, Professor Brian Stevens, University of South Florida.
- 14. Rubrene, Aldrich Chemical Company.
- 15. Azulene, Aldrich Chemical Company.
- 16. Acenaphthylene, Aldrich Chemical Company.
- 17. Phenylcarbazole, Aldrich Chemical Company.
- 18. Thioxanthene, Aldrich Chemical Company.
- 19. 9-Fluorenone, Aldrich Chemical Company.
- 20. Fluorescein, J. T. Baker Chemical Company.
- 21. 2,2'-Bipyridine, Eastman Organic Chemicals.
- 22. 9,10-Dichloranthracene (DCA), Aldrich Chemical Company.

The BPO was used as received from the J. T. Baker Chemical Company. The tetraethylammonium perchlorate (TEAP) was used as received from Eastman Chemicals as the supporting electrolyte. Spectroquality N,N'-dimethylformamide (DMF) was used as received from Matheson, Coleman, and Bell. The purified dry nitrogen gas was supplied by Airco.

Lengthy and arduous purification procedures were omitted for much of these experiments because the position and relative intensities of the emission features conform to those found by others when *ecl* was observed from similar systems under strenuous purification.

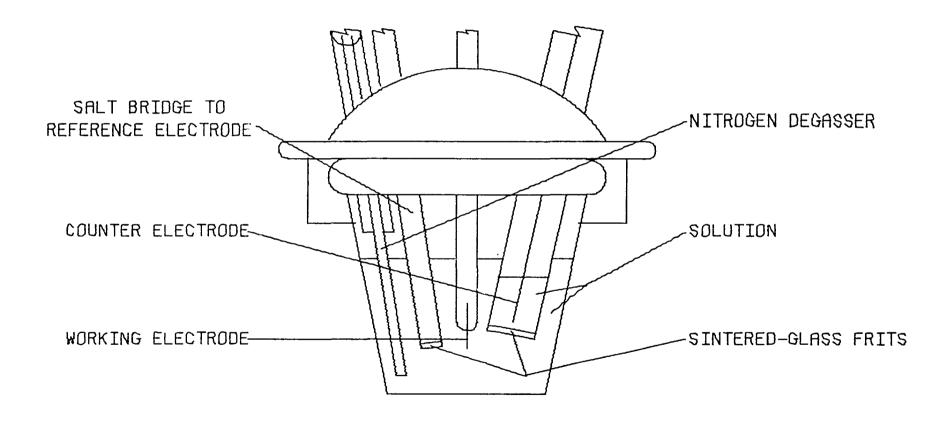
Solutions of the aromatic hydrocarbon and BPO were prepared at approximately 1 $\underline{\text{mM}}$ aromatic hydrocarbon and 20 $\underline{\text{mM}}$ BPO in DMF with a supporting electrolyte concentration of 0.10 M TEAP.

11.2.2. Equipment and Procedure

The electrolysis was done in a commercial electrochemical cell (Brinkman Instruments, Model EA 880), see Figure 2. The potential was controlled by a Wenking, Model 68 FR 0.5, potentiostat which was operated in the conventional three electrode configuration. The working electrode was a rectangular platinum sheet electrode with a surface area of $\sim 1~{\rm cm}^2$. The counter electrode was a coiled platinum wire which was in an isolated compartment connected by a fine sintered glass frit. The reference electrode was a saturated calomel electrode (SCE) which was also isolated from the reaction by a salt bridge with a fine sintered glass frit at the end near the electrode.

The electrolysis cell was mounted on an optical bench where lenses were used to focus the observed emission into the entrance slits of a scanning monochromator (SPEX 1704). The intensity was detected by an photomultiplier (EMI 9558 QB) tube (PM tube) cooled to -20°C, which was

Figure 2. The Electrochemical Cell for ECL.



housed at the exit slit of the monochromator.

The solutions were thoroughly degassed with a stream of dry nitrogen gas before the beginning of electrolysis. During electrolysis while ecl was observed, a stream of dry nitrogen gas was continually and vigorously passed through the solution. This, although imprecise, convective hydrodynamic control is thought to have limited the concentration gradients to a thin Nerstian layer at the surface of the electrode.

The ecl spectra were recorded when the applied potential was 0.15 to 0.20 volts more negative than the reduction potential of the aromatic hydrocarbon. The slit apertures of the monochromator were set at 1.000 nm and the scan rate was 25 nm/min. The photocurrent of the detector was converted to a voltage output by either an electrometer or an integrated spike to pulse converter. The R-C time constant in both cases was approximately 7.5 seconds. A schematic of the system for recording spectra is seen in Figure 3. A record of the emission spectrum of ecl was recorded on a Hewlett Packard Model 7100 B strip chart recorder.

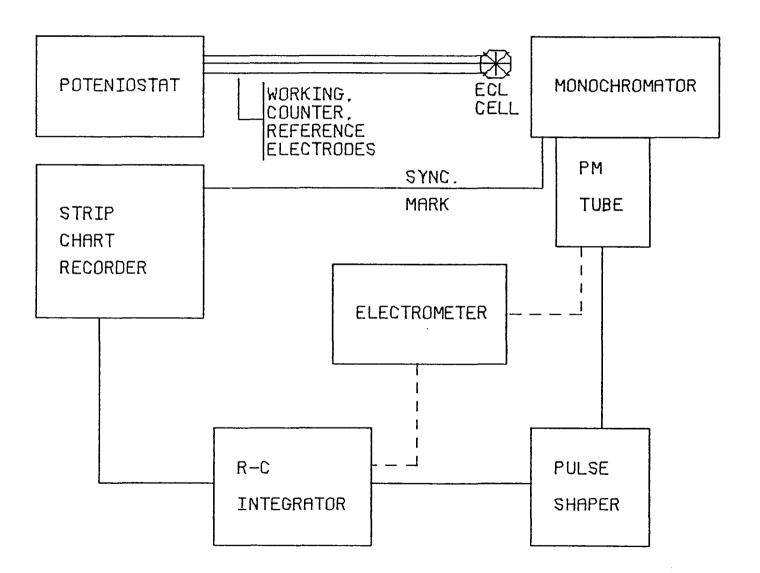
11.3. Results and Discussion

The results of the reduction of several aromatic hydrocarbons in the presence of BPO as a test for ecl are shown in Table 1. In this table, the peak wavelength of the ecl emission is given in nanometers, otherwise if the emission was weak and unstructured or absent it is duly noted.

These results demonstrate that *ecl* is generally observed upon the electroreduction of aromatic hydrocarbons in the presence of BPO.

Spectroscopic and electrochemical data are presented for thirteen of these aromatic hydrocarbons in Table 2. The energy level of the lowest excited state of the singlet and the triplet are given in the second and

Figure 3. Schematic for ECL Spectrum Collection System.



 $\label{eq:TABLE 1}$ Observations of \emph{ECL} Emission for Selected Aromatic Hydrocarbons

Chemical	Observed Emission Peak or Explanation
Carbazole	very weak emission, no distinct structure
Pyrene	very weak emission, no distinct structure
Picene	410 nm
Anthracene	450 nm
Benzophenone	large intersystem crossing rate [44,45]
Acridine	405 nm
9,10-DMA ^a	very weak emission, no distinct structure
Fluoranthrene	480 nm
9,10-DPA ^b	437 nm
Coronene	472 nm
Thianthrene	radical anion is very unstable [46]
Perylene	473 nm
Decacyclene	514 nm
Rubrene	575 nm
Azulene	non-radiative decay occurs [44]
Acenaphthylene	the excited states are known to dimerize [47]
Phenylcarbazole	370 nm
Thioxanthene	radical anion is very unstable [48]
9-Fluorenone	large intersystem crossing rate [45]
Fluorescein	very weak emission, no distinct structure
2,2'-Bipyridine	very weak emission, no distinct structure
9,10-DCA ^C	432 nm

^aDCA = dichloroanthracene

 $^{^{\}rm b}{
m DMA}$ = dimethylanthracene

 $^{^{\}rm C}{
m DPA}$ = diphenylanthracene

TABLE 2 Spectroscopic and Electrochemical Data for Aromatic Compounds $(^1\text{E}^* \text{ and } ^3\text{E}^* \text{ in eV and E}_{\text{a}} \text{ and E}_{\text{c}} \text{ in V. } \underline{\textit{vs}}. \text{ SCE})$

Chemical	¹E*	3 _E *	ξ a	E _c
Carbazole	4.04 [49]	3.04 [50]	1.16 [51]	2.68 [6]
Pyrene	3.33	2.08	1.12	2.09
Picene	3.30	2.49	1.33 [52]	2.28 [13]
Anthracene	3.28	1.82	1.29	1.92
Benzophenone	3.27	3.01	` -	1.72
Acridine	3.19	1.96 [53]	1.58	1.54 [54]
9,10-DMA ^a	3.10	1.80	0.91 [52]	1.96 [8]
Fluoranthrene	3.0 [16]	2.29	1.44	1.74
9,10-DPA ^b	3.0 [16]	1.81	1.19 [55]	1.84 [55]
Coronene	2.95	2.37	1.23	2.04
Thianthrene	2.86 [56]	2.60 [56]	1.22 [46]	2.54 [46]
Perylene	2.85	1.56	1.01	1.67
Rubrene	2.36	1.73 [58]	0.82	1.41

^aDMA = dimethylanthracene

 $^{^{\}rm b}$ DPA = diphenylanthracene

third columns, respectively. The majority of this information is taken from the thesis of K. Zachariasse [28] except where noted otherwise. The electrochemical data of the polarographic oxidant and reduction potentials are given in the fourth and fifth columns, respectively. The majority of this information is taken from the Mann and Barnes [19] unless otherwise noted. An examination of the postulated mechanism can be made using the data of Table 2 and the observed results in Table 1.

Reactions of particular interest in the proposed mechanism are the annihilation reaction,

$$R^{+} + R^{+} \rightarrow R^{*} + R,$$
 (11.3.1)

the reaction in which the excited state is produced by the homogeneous oxidation of the radical anion by the radical oxidant,

$$R^{-} + B^{+} \rightarrow R^{+} + B^{-},$$
 (11.3.2)

and the reaction in which the excited triplet is quenched by an oxidant to form the radical cation,

$${}^{3}R^{*} + 0x \rightarrow R^{+} + 0x^{-}$$
 (11.3.3)

Thermodynamic suppositions on the feasibility of these reactions can be made based on the tabulated data and experimental observations.

A statement of whether the energetics of the reaction II.3.1, the radical ion annihilation, are energy sufficient or energy deficient can be made once the enthalpy change, $-\Delta H$, is calculated

$$-\Delta H = E_a - E_c - 0.1$$
. (11.3.4)

Calculated values of $-\Delta H$ for reaction II.3.1 are presented in the second column of Table 3. When the enthalpy change is greater than the energy level of the lowest excited singlet state,

$$-\Delta H > {}^{1}E^{*},$$
 (11.3.5)

the reaction is said to be energy sufficient. Otherwise the reaction is said to be energy deficient (i.e., so long as, $-\Delta H > 3E^{+}$). Therefore, it can be said, based on the second column, that carbazole, anthracene, acridine, 9,10-DMA, perylene, and rubrene are energy deficient and that picene, fluoranthene, coronene, and thianthrene are energy sufficient. However, there is an uncertainty of about 0.1 volts in this calculation, which is contributed by the spectroscopic and electrochemical data and the assumption that the entropy correction is 0.1 eV. This certainty clouds the issue of the energy sufficiency for pyrene and 9,10-DPA. Although other workers have assigned pyrene as being energy deficient [58] and 9,10-DPA as being energy sufficient [59].

The energetics of the reaction, the production of the excited state, II.3.2, can also be examined. In this case the enthalpy change cannot be calculated but a minium value of ΔH can be assigned from the spectroscopic data. The entropy, here, is assumed to be zero. The equations

$$^{1}E^{*} \leq -\Delta H = E_{o,s} - E_{c}$$
 (11.3.6)

and

$${}^{3}E^{*} \leq -\Delta H = E_{o,t} - E_{c}$$
 (11.3.7)

are used to find $E_{o,s}$ and $E_{o,t}$ which are the minimum electrochemical potentials of the couple of the radical oxidant-ion, $E(B^*/B^-)$, respectively, for the formation singlet or triplet states. The evaluation of $E_{o,s}$ and $E_{o,t}$ is presented in the third and fourth columns of Table 3.

TABLE 3 Values of - Δ H for the Anion-Cation Annihilation Reaction (in volts), $E_{o,s},\ E_{o,t},\ \text{and}\ E_{o,c}\ (\text{in V.}\ \underline{\textit{vs}}.\ \text{SCE})$

Chemical	- ∆H	E _{o,s}	E _{o,t}	E _{o,c}
Carbazole	3.74	1.36	0.36	-1.88
Pyrene	3.24	1.34	-0.01	-0.83
Picene	3.51	1.02	0.21	-1.16
Anthracene	3.11	1.36	-0.10	-0.53
Benzophenone	-	1.55	1.29	-
Acridine	3.02	1.65	0.42	-0.42
9,10-DMA ^a	2.78	1.13	-0.17	-0.89
Fluoranthrene	3.08	1.40	0.55	-0.85
9,10-DPA ^b	2.93	1.35	-0.03	-0.62
Coronene	3.17	0.91	0.33	-1.14
Thianthrene	3.66	1.04	0.78	-1.38
Perylene	2.58	1.18	-0.11	-0.55
Rubrene	2.13	0.95	0.33	-0.92

^aDMA = dimethylanthracene

 $^{^{}b}$ DPA = diphenylanthracene

There are two points here which conflict with the direct production of singlets. For every compound examined except picene, fluoranthene, coronene, and thianthrene the calculated value $E_{O,S}$ is greater than the oxidation potential of the aromatic hydrocarbons. This would imply the formation of radical cations from the neutral ground state species of the parent compound instead of reaction II.3.2. Also, from cyclic voltammetry [12,17] of benzoate an irreversible oxidation wave from +0.8 to 1.8 V <u>vs.</u> SCE is observed. This suggests that the electrochemical couple between the benzoyloxy radical (B') and benzoate (B) is about +0.8 V <u>vs.</u> SCE. This potential is less than the minima $E_{O,S}$ calculated. The calculated $E_{O,t}$ values are in harmony with experimental observations except for benzophenone which, however, does not exhibit ecl.

A similar type of evaluation can be made for reaction II.3.3, the radical cation formation. The negative of the enthalpy change must be greater than the energy level of the lowest triplet state (i.e.,

$$^{3}E^{*} < -\Delta H = E_{a} - E_{o,c}$$
 (11.3.8)

where $E_{\rm o,c}$ represents the most negative reduction potential for the bulk oxidant possible for producing the radical cation from the excited triplet). The evaluation of $E_{\rm o,c}$ is more negative than the reduction potential of BPO (-0.4 \underline{vs} . SCE) for all the cases examined; this evidence lends credence to the formation of the radical cation.

In summary, ecl produced by the electroreduction of aromatic hydrocarbons in the presence of BPO is observed in a large number of cases, the ecl observed in these cases is consistent with our postulated mechanism.

It is also shown that the direct production of the singlet state, as proposed in other mechanisms, is not feasible since the potential required for the redox couple of the radical oxidant would have to be very large.

III. MIXED SYSTEMS AND ENERGY TRANSFER

III.1. Introduction

Ecl [17,61-74] and chemiluminescence [13,28,65-67] have been observed for mixed systems (i.e., systems having two or more aromatic hydrocarbons present). A considerable amount of information about the mechanism can be revealed by the use of mixed systems, and various types of energy transfer are involved.

The electron exchange rates of aromatic hydrocarbons are diffusion controlled as discussed in section 1.2. The reactions

$$R_1^7 + R_2 + R_1 + R_2^7$$
, (111.1.1)

and

$$R_1^{\dagger} + R_2 \stackrel{\rightarrow}{\leftarrow} R_1 + R_2^{\dagger}$$
, (111.1.2)

are equilibrium reactions where R_1 and R_2 represent different aromatic hydrocarbons. The Nernst equations can be written for reactions III.1.1 and III.1.2 above,

$$[R_{2}^{-}] = \frac{[R_{1}^{-}][R_{2}]}{[R_{1}]} \exp \left\{ \frac{nF}{rT} \left[E(R_{1}/R_{1}^{-}) - E(R_{2}/R_{2}^{-}) \right] \right\}$$
 (III.1.3)

$$[R_{2}^{+}] = \frac{[R_{1}^{+}][R_{2}]}{[R_{1}]} \exp \left\{ \frac{nF}{rT} \left[E(R_{2}^{+}/R_{2}) - E(R_{1}^{+}/R_{1}) \right] \right\}$$
(111.1.4)

where the representation E(o/r) stands for the redox couple of the reduction reaction,

$$o + e^- \rightarrow r$$
.

This is a reassertion of the fact that there should be only one species of radical anion, in a mixed system, that being the one with the least negative redox reduction couple and there will be only one species of radical cation present that being the one with the least positive redox oxidation couple.

Apart from the redox type of energy transfer, there can be energy transfer by the electronically excited states. The basic energy transfer reactions which must be examined are

$${}^{1}R_{1}^{*} + R_{2} \rightarrow R_{1} + {}^{1}R_{2}^{*}$$
 (111.1.5)

and

$${}^{3}R_{1}^{*} + R_{2} \rightarrow R_{1} + {}^{3}R_{2}^{*}$$
 (111.1.6)

These reactions can occur by means of either of two processes: collisional transfer or radiative transfer.

Since the excited singlet states have a very short lifetime before radiative decay, collisional transfer of energy is negligible. Radiative transfer of energy between singlet states is possible, but the critical concentrations required [68b] for such a process to be observed are significantly greater than the concentrations used in these studies. The excited triplet state is much longer lived than the excited singlet state, and collisional transfer processes are important. In all the collisional encounters between excited triplets and other aromatic hydrocarbons, the triplet energy can be transferred to the aromatic hydrocarbon having the lower triplet energy level. The radiative transfer of the excited triplet state is normally negligible because of the low absorption intensity of acceptors for singlet to triplet transitions.

In these mixed systems, another type of energy transfer can occur

which is the mixed annihilation of radical ions. This is represented by the reaction shown below.

In this reaction, an exciplex $(R_1R_2)^{\frac{1}{n}}$ is formed, which is short lived. Upon the dissociation of the exciplex the aromatic hydrocarbon with the lower excited singlet level (in the case of energy sufficiency) is excited, or the aromatic hydrocarbon with the lower excited triplet (in the case of energy deficiency) remains in the excited state. The lifetimes of the exciplex species in these studies is assumed to be short lived, since no exciplex emission is observed. Other workers [13,28,55,64-67] have observed and characterized exciplexes, but they used solvents which have lower dielectric constants and thereby prolong the exciplex lifetimes.

III.2. Experimental

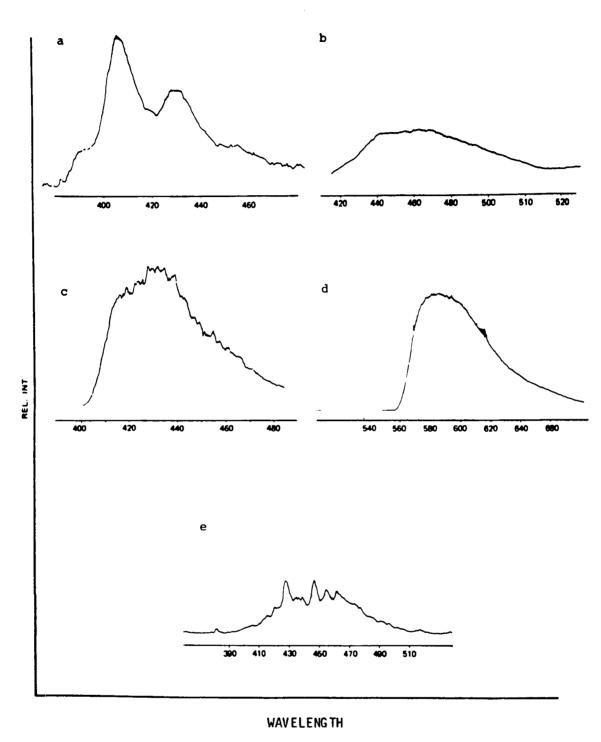
This experimental is essentially the same as in section II.2. The solvent used was DMF with $0.10~\underline{\text{M}}$ TEAP used as the supporting electrolyte and $0.020~\underline{\text{M}}$ BPO used as the bulk oxidant. The aromatic hydrocarbons used were all ca. 1 mM in concentration.

The applied potentials were 0.15 to 0.20 volts more negative than the potential requires to reduce both aromatic hydrocarbons present.

All the binary combinations of anthracene, coronene, 9,10-DPA, fluoranthracene, and rubrene were observed for *ecl* with BPO present.

Identification of the emitting species was made by spectral feature comparison. Figure 4 shows the ecl spectrum of each of the aromatic

Figure 4. ECL Spectra of Aromatic Hydrocarbons Recorded in nm vs Relative Intensity: (a) anthracene;
(b) fluoranthene; (c) 9,10-DPA; (d) rubrene; and (e) coronene.



hydrocarbons. It is obvious that each spectrum is reasonably characteristic. In all cases, ecl was observed from only one of the components of the mixtures

III.3. Results and Discussion

The resulting emissions of the binary mixtures were presented in Table 4, where the emitting species observed are indicated. These results are consistent with predictions which are made using our postulated mechanism. In Table 5, the predicted radical ion species which are predicted to be formed are shown; beneath each pair are their related polarographic potentials of reduction or oxidation in volts versus the saturated calomel electrode. Using these potentials the negative enthalpy change for the radical ion annihilation reaction was calculated; the excited state species can then be predicted. In Table 6, the predicted excited state species is shown; beneath each is given the negative enthalpy change in volts or electron volts.

III.3.1. Mixtures Involving Rubrene

In all the mixtures involving rubrene, its uniquely low oxidation and reduction potentials favor only the generation of rubrene radical ions. Their annihilation reaction is energy deficient producing the excited triplet state. No collisional transfer of triplet energy is possible due to the uniquely low triplet energy level of rubrene, and the triplets must then undergo a triplet-triplet annihilation reaction in order to produce the observed emission.

	IJ	J				Cene
ture	J)				ene. R = rubr
Luminescing Component of the Binary Mixture	Q	Q	۵			anthracene, $C = coronene$, $D = 9.10-DPA$, $F = fluoranthene$, $R = rubrene$
ng Component of	LL.	L	U	Q		e. D = 9.10-DPA
Luminesci	æ	ĸ	œ	œ	<u>«</u>	C = coronene
		A	ပ	Q	LL.	A = anthracene.

	R	LL.	D	C
∢	R*/R:	A ⁺ /F ⁻	o;/o	c ⁺ /A ⁻
	(0.82/-1.41)	(1.29/-1.74)	(1.19/-1.84)	(1.23/-1.92)
U	R+/R:	C*/F	0 ⁺ /0 ⁻	
	(0.82/-1.41)	(1.23/-1.74)	(1.19/-1.84)	
0	R*/R=	D ⁺ /F ⁻		
	(0.82/-1.41)	(1.19/-1.74)		
LL.	R-/R-			
•	(0.82/-1.41)			

A = anthracene, C = coronene, D = 9,10-DPA, F = fluoranthene, R = rubrene

TABLE 6 Proposed Excited States which are formed by the Radical Ion Annihilation, with $-\Delta H$ (in volts)

	R	F	D	С
А	3 _R *	l _F *	¹ D*	¹ c*
	(2.13)	(2.93)	(2.93)	(3.05)
С	3 _R *	¹c*	[]] D*	
	(2.13)	(2.87)	(2.93)	
D	3 _R *	3 _D **		
	(2.13)	(2.83)		
F	3 _R *			
	(2.13)			

A = anthracene, C = coronene, D = 9,10-DPA, F = fluoranthene, R = rubrene

111.3.2. Mixtures of Fluoranthene with Anthracene, Coronene, and 9,10-DPA

In the case of the mixture of fluoranthene with anthracene, the radical cation of anthracene and the radical anion of fluoranthene are formed. Their annihilation reaction is energy sufficient for the generation of the excited singlet state of fluoranthene which is observed to emit.

In the case of the mixtures of fluoranthene with coronene, the radical cations of coronene and the radical anions of fluoranthene are formed. Their annihilation reaction is energy sufficient for the generation of the excited singlet state of coronene which is observed to emit.

In the case of the mixture of fluoranthene with 9,10-DPA, the radical cations of 9,10-DPA and radical anions of fluoranthene are formed. Their annihilation reaction is energy deficient for either 9,10-DPA or fluoranthene. Therefore the excited triplet state of 9,10-DPA is generated since it has the lower triplet energy level. The triplets must undergo a triplet-triplet annihilation reaction in order to produce the excited singlet state of 9,10-DPA which is observed to emit.

III.3.3. Mixtures of 9,10-DPA with Anthracene and Coronene

In the cases of the mixtures of 9,10-DPA with anthracene and 9,10-DPA with coronene, the radical ions of 9,10-DPA are the only ones formed. Their annihilation reaction is energy sufficient for the generation of the excited singlet state of 9,10-DPA which is observed to emit in both cases. It should be noted that coronene has a lower excited singlet energy level than 9,10-DPA, but is not involved in the annihilation ion reaction and collisional transfer does not occur.

111.3.4. Mixtures of Coronene with Anthracene

In the case of the mixture of coronene with anthracene, the radical cations of coronene and the radical anions of anthracene are formed.

Their annihilation reaction is energy sufficient for the generation of the excited singlet state of coronene which is observed to emit.

III.4. Summary

In summary, the results are in total agreement with the predictions using our postulated mechanism. Significant are the mixtures of 9,10-DPA with coronene and 9,10-DPA with fluoranthene. In the case of the 9,10-DPA-coronene mixture, emission is observed from 9,10-DPA which has the higher excited singlet energy level, our mechanism predicts this, others do not. In the case of 9,10-DPA-fluoranthene, compounds in which normally (unmixed systems) follow a singlet route, must in these mixtures follow an energy deficient triplet route. Neither of these mixtures had been reported in the literature.

Having extended the discussion of our postulated mechanism to mixed systems, the scheme of section I.4 should also be expanded. Below such a scheme is given subscripts $\underline{\mathbf{i}}$ and $\underline{\mathbf{j}}$ are used to differentiate between multiple aromatic hydrocarbons.

Electrode Reactions

$$R_{i} + e \rightarrow R_{i}^{-}$$
 (111.4.1)

$$R_{i} + e \rightarrow R_{i}^{7}$$
 (111.4.2)

$$0x + ne \rightarrow Products$$
 (111.4.3)

Anion Exchange

$$R_{i}^{\overline{\cdot}} + R_{j} \rightarrow R_{i} + R_{j}^{\overline{\cdot}}$$
 (111.4.4)

Cation Exchange

$$R_{i}^{\dagger} + R_{j} \rightarrow R_{i} + R_{j}^{\dagger}$$
 (111.4.5)

Radical Oxidant Generation

$$R_{i}^{T} + 0x \rightarrow R_{i} + 0x^{T}$$
 (111.4.6)

$$0x^{-} \rightarrow A^{-} + B \qquad (III.4.7)$$

Triplet Generation

$$R_{i}^{-} + B^{+} \rightarrow {}^{3}R_{i}^{*} + B^{-}$$
 (111.4.8)

Triplet Exchange

$${}^{3}R_{i}^{*} + R_{j} \rightarrow R_{i} + {}^{3}R_{j}^{*}$$
 (111.4.9)

Triplet Quenching (to form the cation)

$${}^{3}R_{i}^{*} + 0x \rightarrow R_{i}^{+} + 0x^{-}$$
 (111.4.10)

Radical Anion-Cation Annihilation

$$R_{i,j}^{\dagger} + R_{i,j}^{\dagger} \rightarrow {}^{1,3}R_{i,j}^{*} + R_{i,j}$$
 (111.4.11)

Triplet-Triplet Annihilation

$$3R_{i}^{*} + 3R_{i}^{*} \rightarrow R_{i}^{*} + R_{i}$$
 (111.4.12)

Luminescence Emission

$${}^{3}R_{1}^{*} \rightarrow R_{1} + hv$$
 (111.4.13)

This scheme explains both energy sufficient and energy deficient cases. It is also general enough to describe mixed and unmixed systems of aromatic hydrocarbons.

IV. TIME DEPENDENCE OF ECL EMISSION

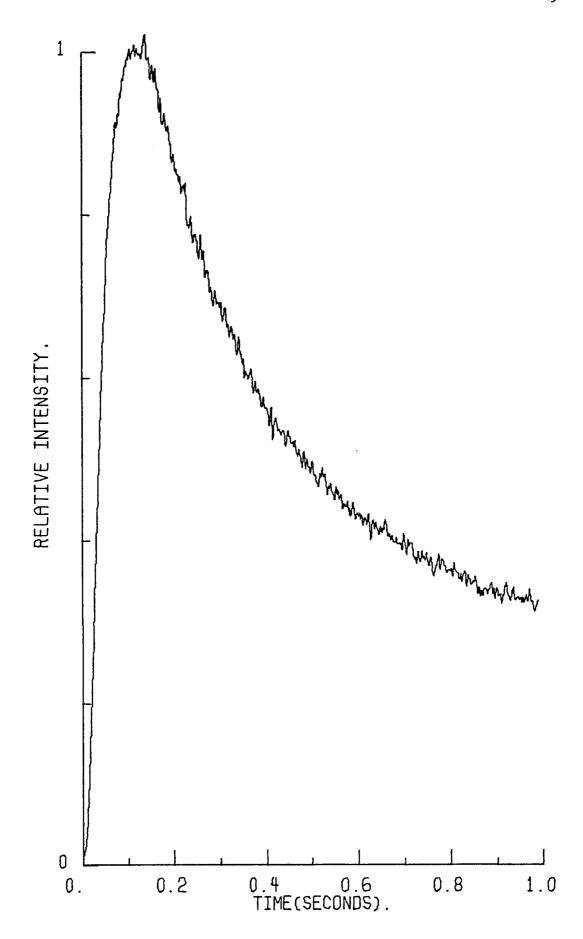
IV. 1. Introduction

The temporal dependency of the ecl emission intensity is clearly an important check of any proposed mechanism for ecl. The intensity can be measured as a function of time, and is illustrated in Figure 5. Characteristic to the observation is the slow rise of the intensity to a peak and then even slower decay of the intensity to a constant level, for the systems we have dealt with. The detailed shape can be modified by changes in the emitter species. Prior attempts have been made [30, 58,69-77] to match experimental observation with proposed mechanisms; in all of the previous cases, the digital simulation technique of Feldberg [78] was used. This technique has the limitation of being a simulation of a phenomenon, physically controlled by a number of intermediate reaction processes which cannot be properly accounted for. In this chapter, the postulated mechanism for ecl, which was based on Akins and Birke's mechanism [17], is used to formulate an intensity-time function which is fitted to the experimental data and returns rate constants for the specific elementary steps in the mechanism.

IV.2. The Mechanism for Energy Sufficient Systems

The ecl mechanism postulated to specify the important heterogeneous and homogeneous chemical reactions in an energy sufficient system in which radical ions are generated in the presence of BPO are shown below:

Figure 5. An Example of an Intensity versus Time Plot



$$R + e^{-} \xrightarrow{k_1} R^{-}$$
 (IV.2.1)

$$BPO + 2e^{-\frac{k_2}{2}} 2B^{-\frac{k_2}{2}}$$
 (IV.2.2)

$$R^{-} + BPO \xrightarrow{k_3} R + BPO^{-}$$
 (IV.2.3)

$$BPO^{-} \xrightarrow{k_4} B^{-} + B^{-}$$
 (IV.2.4)

$$R^{-} + B^{+} \xrightarrow{k_{5}} {}^{3}R^{+} + B^{-}$$
 (1V.2.5)

$$^{3}R^{*} + BPO \xrightarrow{k_{6}} R^{+} + BPO^{-}$$
 (1V.2.6)

$$R^{+} + R^{-} \xrightarrow{k_{7}} {}^{1}R^{*} + R$$
 (1V.2.7)

$$1_R$$
* $\xrightarrow{k_8}$ $R + h\nu$ (IV.2.8)

where R, R, R, R, R, † , R, † , † , † R, and BPO have their previous meaning and B and B are, respectively, the benzoate ion and the benzoyloxy radical of the BPO radical intermediate decomposition.

It is known that several of the above elementary reactions have very large rate constants, and hence, for reasonable concentration levels, occur quite rapidly. By coupling the reactions with faster reaction rates to those with slower reaction rates, the number of reactions and reactant species are reduced. The reaction process described by coupling two reactions has the reaction rate of the rate determining step (i.e., the slower process). The disproportionation of the BPO intermediate and the

luminescence emission, reactions IV.2.4 and IV.2.8, respectively, are the reactions which are known to have fast reaction rates. Thereby, the combining of reactions IV.2.3 and IV.2.4, respectively, the formation of the radical intermediate and its disproportionation by the radical anion, gives

$$R^{-} + BPO \longrightarrow R + B^{-} + B^{-},$$
 (IV.2.9)

while combining reactions IV.2.4 and IV.2.6, this time the formation and disproportionation of the B radical intermediate by the triplet, gives

$$^{3}R^{*} + BPO \xrightarrow{k_{6}} R^{+} + B^{-} + B^{-},$$
 (IV.2.10)

and combining reactions IV.2.7 and IV.2.8, respectively, the excited singlets formation and its luminescent emission, give

$$R^{+} + R^{-} \xrightarrow{k_{7}} 2R + h\nu$$
 (1V.2.11)

In this description of the processes leading to ecl the quenching of reactive species has been totally ignored. This is done with the intent of eliminating complications, the inclusion of possible quenching reactions would be collossal. Besides the physical and chemical quenching of the electronically excited states, there can also be quenching of the free radicals by impurities to consider. The specific impurities and their concentrations are not known. The omission of these reactions definitely introduces a source of error. It also introduces a clear hierarchy of cumulative reaction efficiencies due to the order of reaction processes. A visualization of the ecl process by a verbal discussion should make this concept clearer. Initially, at the time before the electrode is stepped from an electroinactive to an electroactive potential, the solution contains the bulk concentrations

of the aromatic hydrocarbon and the BPO. After the electrode potential is stepped to an electroactive potential, in which both the aromatic hydrocarbon and the BPO are reduced at the electrode surface. The rates of the reduction reactions are controlled by the diffusion of the aromatic hydrocarbon and the BPO up to the electrode surface and their respective reduction products away from the electrode surface. Of the reduction products only the radical anion of the aromatic hydrocarbon is significant, it forms a gradient of concentration from the electrode out into the solution bulk. In specific volume elements there the radical anion is oxidized by the BPO yielding the principle products of the radical oxidant and the neutral ground state aromatic hydrocarbon. This reaction is the major source of the highly reactive radical oxidant which oxidizes another radical anion. This time the neutral species is excited to a triplet energy state. The triplet state can be further oxidized to the radical cation by the abundant BPO present, also generated is radical oxidant. The radical cation and a radical anion then undergo annihilation producing the neutral species and a photon.

Important to realize in the above description is that R^{7} concentration is in a spacial gradient which diminishes as one moves away from the electrode surface. The BPO concentration is seen to be constant over the volume elements of chemical activity. The species ${}^{3}R^{*}$, R^{*} , and R^{*} are generated in a localized volume element and are consumed in that element.

IV.3. Formulation of the Boundary Value Problem

The expression for the *ecl* intensity as a function of time is also a function of the kinetic rate constants and concentrations of the

initial species. The solution of the full time and spatial dependent boundary-value problem provides such an expression. The mass transfer-reaction rate expression for the heterogeneous processes and the reaction rate expressions for the homogeneous processes which were described earlier in this chapter are given below.

$$\frac{\partial C_R}{\partial t} = D_R \frac{\partial^2 C_R}{\partial x^2} + k_3 C_R - C_{BPO} + k_7 C_R - C_R +$$
 (IV.3.1)

$$\frac{{}^{3}C_{BPO}}{3t} = D_{BPO} \frac{{}^{3}C_{BPO}}{3x^{2}} - k_{3}C_{R} - C_{BPO} - k_{6}C_{R}C_{BPO}$$
(1V.3.2)

$$\frac{\partial c_R^-}{\partial t} = D_R^- \frac{\partial^2 c_R^-}{\partial x^2} - k_3 c_R^- c_{BPO}^- - k_5 c_R^- c_B^- - k_7 c_R^- c_R^+$$
 (IV.3.3)

$$\frac{{}^{3}C_{B}}{{}^{3}t} = k_{3}C_{R} - C_{BPO} + k_{6}C_{3}C_{BPO} - k_{5}C_{R} - C_{B}$$
 (1V.3.4)

$$\frac{\partial c_{3R}}{\partial t} = k_5 c_R - c_B - k_6 c_{3R} c_{BP0}$$
 (1V.3.5)

and

$$\frac{\partial C_R^+}{\partial t} = k_6 C_{3_R}^{C_{BPO}} - k_7 C_R^{-C_R^+}$$
 (IV.3.6)

where C_R , C_{BPO} , C_R^- , C_B , C_{3R}^- , and C_R^+ represent the concentrations of R, BPO, R $^{\bar{*}}$, B * , $C_{R}^{\bar{*}}$, and R $^{\bar{*}}$ and $C_{R}^{\bar{*}}$, $C_{R}^{\bar{*}}$, and $C_{R}^{\bar{*}}$, respectively.

The initial and boundary conditions for the above equations are: $C_R(x,o) = C_R^\circ, \ C_R(o,t>o) = o; \ C_{BPO}(x,o) = C_{BPO}^\circ, \ C_{BPO}(o,t>o) = o; \ C_{R}^-(x,o)$ = o, $C_{R}^-(o,t>o) = C_R^\circ; \ \text{as well as,} \ C_B(x,o) = C_{3_R}(x,o) = C_{R}^+(x,o) = o; \ \text{where}$

 C_{R}° and C_{BPO}° are the respective bulk concentrations of R and BPO.

The observed intensity of the ecl emission, I_{obs} , is directly proportional to the spacial integral of the product of the radical ions' concentrations, as shown

$$I_{obs}(t) \propto \int_{0}^{\infty} C_{R}^{-}(x,t)C_{R}^{+}(x,t) dx$$
 (1V.3.7)

Several simplifying assumptions to this rigorous description are necessary in order that the formulation of the intensity-time equation can be made. A critical assumption is that the BPO concentration is constant and equal to the initial bulk concentration of BPO. The bulk concentration is so large that its depletion by higher order reactions is negligible and its depletion at the electrode surface exists over a very small distance. Another good assumption is that all the diffusion coefficients are equal, D; this assumption is standard to problems involving mass transport. Two other necessary assumptions are that

$$k_3 c_R - c_{BPO}^{\circ} >> k_5 c_R - c_{B} + k_7 c_R - c_{R} + ,$$
 (1V.3.8)

and that

$$k_3^{c} R^{-c_{BPO}^{\circ}} >> k_6^{c} c_{BPO}^{c}$$
 (IV.3.9)

since the process (reaction IV.2.3) represented on the left of the inequalities is proposed to be more efficient than the other processes represented, the concentrations of $R^{\frac{1}{4}}$ and BPO are also in greater concentrations than the other species, and that reaction IV.3.3 is suggested to have a fast reaction rate.

With these stated assumptions, the mass transfer and reaction rate equations can be rewritten as follows;

$$\frac{ac_{R}}{at} = D \frac{a^{2}c_{R}}{ax^{2}} + k_{3}c_{R} - c_{BPO}^{\circ}, \qquad (1V.3.10)$$

$$c_{BPO} = c_{BPO}^{\circ} \tag{1V.3.11}$$

$$\frac{\partial C_R^-}{\partial t} = D \frac{\partial^2 C_R^-}{\partial x^2} - k_3 C_R^- C_{BPO}^{\circ}$$
 (IV.3.12)

$$\frac{\partial C_{B}}{\partial t} = k_{3}C_{R} - C_{BPO}^{\circ} + k_{5}C_{R} - C_{B}$$
 (IV.3.13)

$$\frac{\partial c_{3R}}{\partial t} = k_5 c_R - c_B - k_6 c_{3R} c_{BPO}^{\circ} , \qquad (1V.3.14)$$

and

$$\frac{\partial^{c} R^{+}}{\partial t} = k_{6}^{c} c_{3R}^{c} c_{BP0}^{o} - k_{7}^{c} c_{R}^{-c} c_{R}^{+}$$
 (1V.3.15)

IV.4. Solution to the Boundary Value Problem

The concentration of R^- can be found by applying Laplace transformation techniques to equation IV.3.12. The transformation equation has a solution:

$$\overline{C}_{R} = c_{1} \exp \left[x \left(\frac{s + k_{3} C_{BPO}^{\circ}}{D} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \right] + c_{2} \exp \left[-x \left(\frac{s + k_{3} C_{BPO}^{\circ}}{D} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \right]$$
(1V.4.1)

which upon the application of the initial and boundary conditions becomes

$$\overline{C}_{R}^{-} = \frac{C_{R}^{\circ}}{s} \exp \left[-x \left(\frac{s + k_{3}C_{BPO}^{\circ}}{D} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \right] . \qquad (1V.4.2)$$

The inverse transformation [79] of equation IV.4.2 is

$$C_{R}^{-} = \frac{C_{R}^{\circ}}{2} \exp \left[-\left(\frac{k_{3}C_{BPO}^{\circ}}{D}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \right] \operatorname{erfc} \left[\frac{x}{2(Dt)^{\frac{1}{2}}} - \left(k_{3}C_{BPO}^{\circ}t\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \right]$$

$$\exp \left[\frac{k_{3}C_{BPO}^{\circ}}{D}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \operatorname{erfc} \left[\frac{x}{2(Dt)^{\frac{1}{2}}} + \left(k_{3}C_{BPO}^{\circ}t\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \right]$$
(IV.4.3)

where erfc is the complementary error function (i.e.,

erfc(x) =
$$1 - \frac{2}{\pi^{\frac{1}{2}}} \int_{0}^{x} \exp[-t^{2}] dt$$
.)

It is evident at this point that an approximation for ${\rm C_R}^-$ must be made in order to continue the derivation. The assumption that a "steady state" concentration-distance profile is established

$$\lim_{t \to \infty} C_{R}^{-}(x,t) = C_{R}^{\circ} \exp \left[-x\left(\frac{k_{3}C_{BPO}^{\circ}}{D}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}\right]$$
 (1V.4.4)

at diffusion limited times or greater (i.e., $t \ge x^2/D$) and at times less than those of the diffusion limit $C_R^- = D$. Therefore, the following discontinuous function can be written for C_R^- :

$$C_{R}^{-}(x,t) = \begin{cases} o & \text{for } (t < x^{2}/D) \\ C_{R}^{\circ} \exp \left[-x \left(\frac{k_{3}C_{BPO}^{\circ}}{D} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \right] & \text{for } (t \ge x^{2}/D) \end{cases}$$

$$(1V.4.5)$$

The rate expressions for $\mathbf{6}^{\circ}$, ${}^{3}R^{*}$, and R^{\dagger} concentrations are of a general class of differential equations [80],

$$y' = f(x) + g(x) y$$
 (1V.4.6)

The general solution for this class of differential equation is

$$y = c_1 \exp \left[\int_0^x g(t) dt \right] +$$

$$\exp \left[\int_0^x g(t) dt \right] \int_0^x f(t) \exp \left[-\int_0^t g(z) dz \right] dt$$
(IV.4.7)

Since the initial condition for each of the species is zero then the solution is simplified to:

$$y = \exp\left[\int_{c}^{x} g(t)dt\right] \int_{c}^{x} f(t) \exp\left[-\int_{c}^{t} g(z)dz\right] dt$$
 (IV.4.8)

Therefore the solutions for c_B , c_{3R} , and c_R + can be found:

$$c_{\phi}(x,t) = k_{3}c_{BP0}^{\circ} \exp \left[-k_{5}\int_{0}^{t} c_{R}^{-}(x,\tau)d\tau\right]_{0}^{t} c_{R}^{-}(x,\tau)$$

$$\exp \left[k_{5}\int_{0}^{t} c_{R}^{-}(x,t')dt'\right]d\tau , \qquad (IV.4.9)$$

$$c_{3_{R}}(x,t) = k_{5} \exp \left[-k_{6}c_{BP0}^{\circ}t\right]_{O}^{t} c_{R}^{-}(x,\tau)c_{B}(x,\tau)\exp \left[k_{6}c_{BP0}^{\circ}\tau\right]d_{T},$$
(1V.4.10)

and

$$c_{R}^{+}(x,t) = k_{6}c_{BP0}^{\circ} \exp \left[-k_{7_{0}} \int_{0}^{t} c_{R}^{-}(x,\tau) d\tau\right] \int_{0}^{t} c_{3_{R}}(x,\tau)$$

$$\exp \left[k_{7_{0}} \int_{0}^{t} c_{R}^{-}(x,t') dt'\right] d\tau . \qquad (IV.4.11)$$

It is apparent here that a further approximation of c_R^- is necessary for the evaluation of the above equations. By taking the first order term of a series expansion, one obtains:

$$C_{R}^{-}(x,t) = \begin{cases} o & \text{for } (t < x^{2}/D) \\ C_{R}^{\circ} & \text{for } (t > x^{2}/D) \end{cases}$$
 (IV.4.12)

The evaluation of $C_{\overline{B}}$ is possible with this $C_{\overline{R}}$ -approximation, and one obtains:

$$C_{B}(x,t) = \begin{cases} o & \text{for } (t < x^{2}/D) \\ \frac{k_{3}C_{BPO}^{\circ}}{k_{5}} & 1 - \exp[k_{4}C_{R}^{\circ}(\frac{x^{2}}{D} - t)] \end{cases} \text{ for } (t \ge x^{2}/D)$$

Now knowing c_{B} , c_{3R} can be evaluated,

$$c_{3R}^{(x,t)} = \begin{cases} o & \text{for } (t < x^{2}/D) \\ \frac{k_{3}c_{R}^{\circ}}{k_{6}} - \frac{k_{3}c_{BP0}^{\circ}c_{R}^{\circ}}{(k_{6}c_{BP0}^{\circ} - k_{5}c_{R}^{\circ})} \exp[k_{5}c_{R}^{\circ}(\frac{x^{2}}{D} - t)] + \\ \frac{k_{3}k_{5}c_{R}^{\circ}}{k_{6}(k_{6}c_{BP0}^{\circ} - k_{5}c_{R}^{\circ})} \exp[k_{6}c_{BP0}^{\circ}(\frac{x^{2}}{D} - t) \text{ for } (t \ge x^{2}/D) \end{cases}$$

Finally, knowing c_{3R} , c_{R} + can be evaluated,

$$C_{R}^{+}(x,t) = \begin{cases} o & \text{for } (t < x^{2}/D) \\ a_{1}^{2} + a_{2}^{2} \exp[k_{5}C_{R}^{\circ}(\frac{x^{2}}{D} - t)] + \\ a_{3}^{2} \exp[k_{6}C_{BPO}^{\circ}(\frac{x^{2}}{D} - t)] + \\ a_{4}^{2} \exp[k_{7}C_{R}^{\circ}(\frac{x^{2}}{D} - t)] \end{cases}$$
for $(t \ge x^{2}/D)$

where

$$a_{1} = k_{3}^{c} c_{BP0}^{o} / k_{7}$$

$$a_{2} = \frac{k_{3}^{k} k_{6}^{c} c_{BP0}^{o}}{(k_{7} - k_{5}) (k_{6}^{c} c_{BP0}^{o} - k_{4}^{c} c_{R}^{o})}$$

$$a_{3} = \frac{k_{3}^{k} k_{5}^{c} c_{R}^{o} c_{BP0}^{o}}{(k_{6}^{c} c_{BP0}^{o} - k_{5}^{o} c_{R}^{o}) (k_{7}^{c} c_{R}^{o} - k_{6}^{o} c_{BP0}^{o})}$$

and

$$a_4 = - (a_1 + a_2 + a_2).$$

Since functional forms of C_R^+ and C_R^- have been found, the observed intensity proportionality can be evaluated,

ensity proportionality can be evaluated,
$$\begin{bmatrix}
o & & & \text{for } (t < x^2/D) \\
1 - \exp[-(k_3 c_{BPO}^{\circ} t)^{\frac{1}{2}}] \\
\hline
k_7 (k_3 c_{BPO}^{\circ})^{\frac{1}{2}}] & + \\
\frac{b_1 & \text{Daw}[(k_5 c_R^{\circ} t)^{\frac{1}{2}}]}{(k_5 c_R^{\circ})^{\frac{1}{2}}} & + \\
\hline
\frac{b_2 & \text{Daw}[(k_6 c_{BPO}^{\circ} t)^{\frac{1}{2}}]}{(k_6 c_{BPO}^{\circ})^{\frac{1}{2}}} & + \\
\hline
\frac{b_3 & \text{Daw}[(k_7 c_R^{\circ} t)^{\frac{1}{2}}]}{(k_7 c_R^{\circ})^{\frac{1}{2}}} & + \\
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\frac{b_3 & \text{Daw}[(k_7 c_R^{\circ} t)^{\frac{1}{2}}]}{(k_7 c_R^{\circ})^{\frac{1}{2}}} & + \\
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\frac{b_3 & \text{Daw}[(k_7 c_R^{\circ} t)^{\frac{1}{2}}]}{(k_7 c_R^{\circ})^{\frac{1}{2}}} & + \\
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\frac{b_3 & \text{Daw}[(k_7 c_R^{\circ} t)^{\frac{1}{2}}]}{(k_7 c_R^{\circ})^{\frac{1}{2}}} & + \\
\hline
\frac{b_3 & \text{Daw}[(k_7 c_R^{\circ} t)^{\frac{1}{2}}]}{(k_7 c_R^{\circ})^{\frac{1}{2}}} & + \\
\hline
\frac{b_3 & \text{Daw}[(k_7 c_R^{\circ} t)^{\frac{1}{2}}]}{(k_7 c_R^{\circ})^$$

where:

$$b_1 = \frac{{}^{-k_6}{}^{c}_{BPO}^{\circ}}{(k_7 - k_5)(k_6}{}^{c}_{BPO}^{\circ} - k_5}{}^{c}_{R}^{\circ})$$

$$b_2 = \frac{k_5 c_R^{\circ 2}}{(k_6 c_{BPO}^{\circ} - k_5 c_R^{\circ})(k_7 c_R^{\circ} - k_6 c_{BPO}^{\circ})}$$

$$b_3 = -(1/k_7 + b_1 + b_2)$$

and Daw is the Dawson function (i.e.,

Daw (t) =
$$\exp[-x^2]$$
 $\int_{t}^{x} \exp[t^2]dt$.)

Equation IV.4.16 is a proportionality in order to change it into an equality it must be divided onto itself at a particular time, tp,

$$I(t) = \frac{I_{obs}(t)}{I_{obs}(tp)}$$
 (1V.4.17)

A convenient choice of tp is the time at which there is a peak maximum in intensity. The experimental data is then normalized and tp is easily found.

IV. 5. Experimental

IV.5.1. Chemicals, Solvents, and Gases

Fluoranthene (Flu) and 9,10-diphenylanthracene (DPA) were the aromatic hydrocarbons used. Both were received from the Aldrich Chemical Company and used without any further purification. Their stated purities were 99% for Flu and 99.9% + for DPA. The BPO was also received from the Aldrich Chemical Company and used at stated purity of 98% without further purification. The TEAP was received from Eastman Organic Chemicals Company as the perchlorate salt or as the chloride or bromide salt and converted to the perchlorate salt [81]. The TEAP was in all cases recrystallized a minimum of twice in ethanol (100%) and dried at 50°C under vacuum in excess of five days (mp 351-352°C).

Benzonitrile was the solvent used. It was received from the Aldrich Chemical Company and was distilled with only the boiling fraction between 191-192°C being retained. The benzonitrile was then stored in an air tight brown bottle over a slurry of molecular sieve and activated alumina. and the bottle remained sealed until used in order to insure dryness.

Dry nitrogen gas was used to degas the solutions free of oxygen prior to the start of an experiment and it was also used to maintain a blanket of inert gas over the solutions surface during an experiment. The nitrogen gas was used as received from Airco Products.

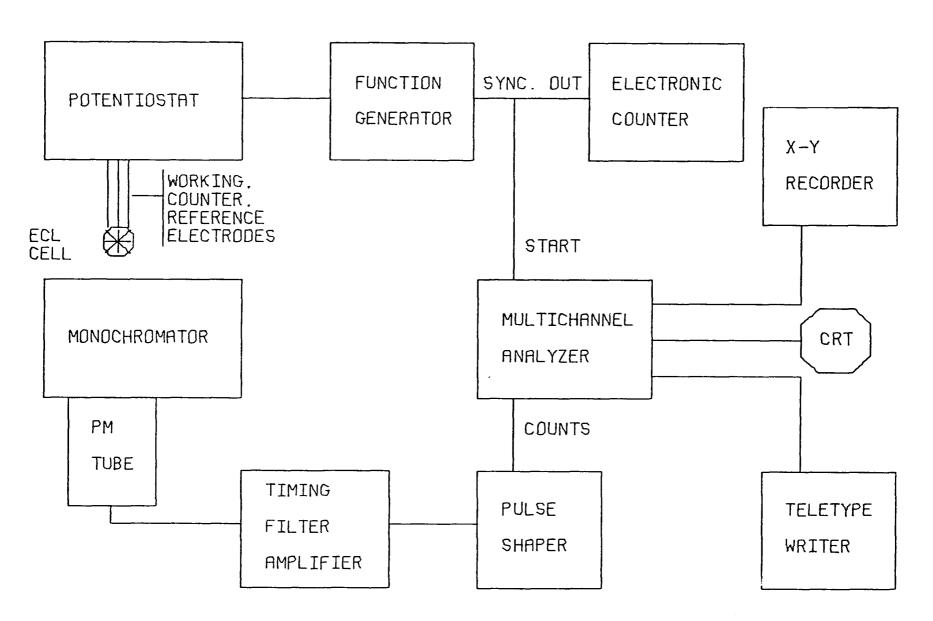
The solutions prepared contained varying concentrations of aromatic hydrocarbons but all the solutions contained 20.0 $\underline{\text{mM}}$ BPO and 0.100 $\underline{\text{M}}$ TEAP.

IV.5.2. Equipment

A schematic of the equipment used is shown in Figure 6.

The electrochemical cell is the same as described in section 11.2.2. Also, the same counter and reference electrodes were used, however, the working electrode was changed to a platinum wire electrode of length 0.63 cm and diameter 0.075 cm, thereby having a surface area of 0.15 cm². The potential of the working electrode was controlled by a Wenking, model 68FR 0.5, potentiostat operated in the conventional three electrode configuration. The applied potential was programmed by a Hewlett Packard, model 3300A function generator. The function used was a square wave, appropriately adjusted to step from +0.15 V vs. SCE to 0.10 to 0.20 volts more negative than the reduction potential of the aromatic hydrocarbon.

Figure 6. Schematic for ECL Intensity-Time Collection System.



The electrolysis cell was mounted on an optical bench where lenses were used to focus the emission into the entrance slits of a SPEX 1704 scanning monochromator. The slit apertures of the monochromator were set at 1.000 mm. An EM19558QB photomultiplier tube (PM-tube), which was housed at the exit slit of the monochromator, detected the emission intensity. The PM-tube was cooled to -20°C for the purpose of minimizing thermal noise. The PM-tube transduced light photons into current spikes. They were sent to an Ortec 454 timing filter amplifier across a 50 Ω load resistor. The voltage output was then sent through a pulse-shaping and discriminating circuit [43] which discrimates against shot noise and shapes the spikes into pulses of 3 µsec duration and +3 to 10 volt amplitude. Good disparity between an average single photon pulse and an average dark or shot noise pulse was noted. The pulses were then counted by a multichannel analyzer (Nuclear Data Series 100 or Series 1100) in a multichannel scaling model. The individual channels of the multichannel analyzer's memory were used as a sequence of counters with each channel counting pulses for a predetermined dwell time. At the completion of each dwell time, the counting operation is shifted to the next channel in the memory. The result is a time histogram of the count rate data where each channel represents a sequential time interval. Since the voltage function of the applied potential is repetitive, it was possible to signal average the data over a number of cycles. The beginning of each cycle was signaled by the syncronous output of the function generator which triggered the multichannel analyzer and registered a count on an electronic counter.

The frequency of cycling was 0.10 Hz, which allowed collection every

ten seconds for five seconds with a five-second relaxation time.

Upon the completion of an experiment, the multichannel analyzers offered several modes of data output, which included oscilloscope traces, x-y recorder plots, hard copy teletype printouts, and paper tapes.

IV.6. Data Reduction

The output record of each experiment is released by the multichannel analyzer as counts per channel. The physical form of the records obtained is paper tape. Before the analysis could begin, various transformations on the data record were necessary.

The paper tape record was converted into a magnetic tape record which facilitated the handling. The record written on magnetic tape is formatted as card images; an example of this data stored on the magnetic tape is shown in Figure 7. The first card (or line) is the label which is needed as a identifier of the record as it is referenced by the computer programs and referenced to in experimental notes. The second card contains information on the instrumental parameters of a particular experiment (here e.g., 465 voltage cycles were recorded, 950 channels of the multichannel analyzer were used, the information in channel one is to be ignored, and the dwell time used was 0.8 milliseconds). The remainder of cards after the information card contained the counts for each channel. This is a serial listing from left to right, listing ten channels per card, card by card.

The next stage in preparing the data record for analysis is rewrite in a suitable format for analysis after "fix-up" criteria have been applied. At the beginning of each record, there are several

Figure 7. An Example of a Record of Raw Data from Magnetic Tape.

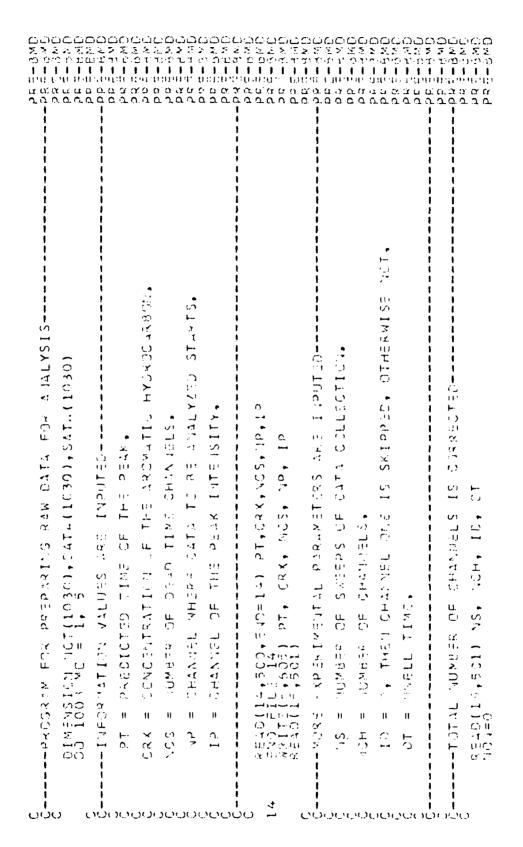
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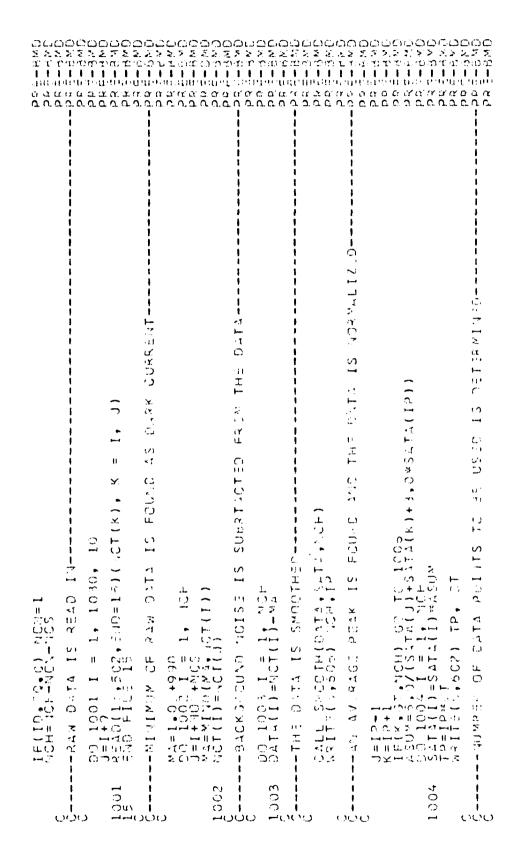
channels containing counts which were collected prior to the application of the excitation potential. The counts in these channels represent the PM-tube's level of background noise. This count level is subtracted from the record and these channels are eliminated from the record. The use of all channels of counts as data in the analysis is prohibitive, since each record contains several hundred channels, therefore the counts are then smoothed by averaging five adjacent channels and weighting the average arithmetically (the central channel receiving the heaviest weight). The counts are then normalized to the counts in the peak maximum. A computer program for performing the above operations is shown in Figure 8.

The program is written in FORTRAN computer language. The program writes the data, beginning with the channels containing normalized counts of greater than 0.4, queued from every third channel. These counts are written with their corresponding time variable and weighting factor. The weighting factor assigned is the square root of the number of counts until the peak intensity is reached, then the weighting factor is assigned unity. Besides writing the data in proper format, the program inserts the information cards required by the analysis program. An example of the data set produced is shown in Figure 9. The information cards consist of: a problem (PROBLM) card, a maximum (MAXMUM) card, a minimum (MINMUM) card, a parameter (PARAM) card, and a finish (FINISH) card. The problem card transmits to the analysis program: an identifying label (121BI), the number of variables per observations (3), the index of the dependent variable (2), the number of observations (271), the number of parameters (4), the tolerance for pivoting (0.10000), the criterion of convergence (0.00001), the maximum number of iterations (100), the number of variable format cards (1), and the index of the weighting variable (3). The maximum and minimum cards set respective

Figure 8. A Listing of the Computer Program which

Changes the Raw Data into a Formatted Form.





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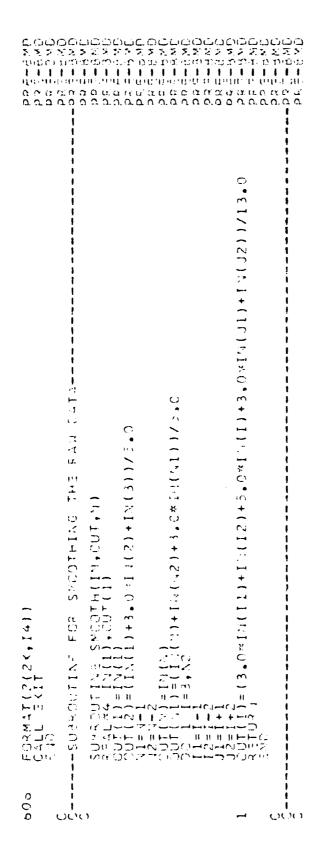


Figure 9. An Example of Formatted Data Submitted to the Analysis Program.

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limits on the parameters. The parameter card gives the initial estimate for the parameters. The finish card indicates the end of the information.

The analysis program used was the nonlinear least squares routine (BMDO7R) of the BMD Biomedical Computer Programs package [82]. The program returns r parameters, p, from a weighted least squares fit of a user supplied function, f.

$$y = f(x_1, ..., x_t; P_1, ..., P_r)$$
 (IV.6.1)

with t independent variables, x. The exordium is specified by the user in the initial estimates of parameter values, the program then minimizes the mean square error:

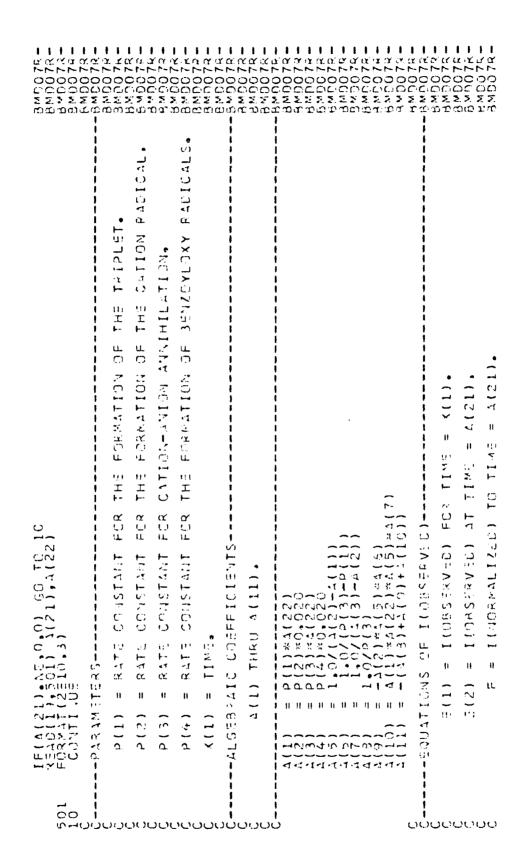
$$S^{2} = \frac{1}{n-r} \sum_{i=1}^{n} [(y_{i} - f(x_{i}), ..., x_{it}; P_{1}, ..., P_{r}))^{2} \cdot w_{i}] \qquad (1V.6.2)$$

by means of stepwise Gauss-Newton iterations [83,84], where in equation IV.6.2, n is the number of observations and w_i 's are the weighting variables. A user supplied subprogram (see Figure 10) is required in which the function and the partial derivatives of the function with respect to each parameter are evaluated.

The user supplied subprogram (Figure 10) and the data (Figure 9) are submitted together with the analysis program to the computer. After approximately 300 seconds of computer time (IBM 360/65), the results which are shown in Figure 11 are returned. The results can be divided into four parts: information, iterations, diagnostics, and data. The information is a documented listing of the data from the problem card and a listing of the upper and lower limits allow the parameters. Next is a listing of the iteration steps which starts with the user supplied

Figure 10. The User Supplied Subprogram.

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Figure 11. An Example of the Results from Computer Analysis.

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initial estimates and the error mean square, followed by changes in the parameters to minimize the error mean square. The last line of the iterations are best estimates found by the program under the stated conditions. Since the technique of nonlinear least squares is intrinsically dependent upon the initial estimates of the parameters, repeated submissions to the computer with different estimates may be necessary. The diagnostics are meant to help make the judgements on changes in the estimates. The asymptotic standard deviation and correlation matrix indicate the "goodness" of the final parameter values. Finally, the data is listed in addition to that imputed, the values of the function, the residual error and the standard deviation of the predicted value of the function are given.

IV.7. Results

The results from the numerical analysis of fifteen experiments are presented in Tables 7, 8, and 9. The rate constants in these tables, k_3 , k_5 , k_6 , and k_7 correspond to the reactions for the formation of the radical oxidant, the formation of the triplet, the formation of the cation, and the annihilation-emission. In all cases, the rate constants, k_3 and k_7 , were found to be insensitive to change for values between 1.0×10^9 and 1.0×10^{10} (i.e., the diffusion limit), except in one case. However, the error mean square was best minimized in this range, in all cases the error mean square was less than 5×10^{-3} except for $7.46 \times 10^{-6} \, \text{M}$ DPA which was 9×10^{-2} .

In Table 7, seven concentrations of fluoranthene are presented; for this table, the emission intensity detected was from the total emission band. In Table 8, three concentrations of fluoranthene are presented; here the emission intensity detected was 470 nm. In Table 9, five

TABLE 7

Rate Constants at Various Concentrations of Fluoranthene

where Total Emission was Detected

(F1u)	k ₃	k ₅	k ₆	k ₇	Error Mean Square
1.10 × 10 ⁻⁵	1.0 × 10 ¹⁰	2.26 × 10 ⁵	1.00 × 10 ⁴	9.0 x 10 ⁹	3.23×10^{-3}
2.76 x 10 ⁻⁵	5.0 × 10 ⁹	1.26 x 10 ⁵	1.54×10^4	5.0 × 10 ⁹	6.36×10^{-4}
6.91 x 10 ⁻⁵	1.0 × 10 ⁹	6.27×10^4	1.56 x 10 ⁴	1.0 × 10 ⁹	2.80×10^{-3}
1.74×10^{-4}	5.0 × 10 ⁹	3.03×10^4	9.96 x 10 ³	5.0 × 10 ⁹	9.05×10^{-4}
4.32 × 10 ⁻⁴	6.9 × 10 ⁹	2.58×10^4	5.39×10^2	9.0 × 10 ⁹	1.10×10^{-3}
1.08×10^{-3}	5.0 × 10 ⁹	9.84×10^3	7.93×10^2	5.0 × 10 ⁹	8.68×10^{-4}
2.70 x 10 ⁻³	5.0 × 10 ⁹	3.26 × 10 ³	1.08 × 10 ³	5.0 × 10 ⁹	1.21 × 10 ⁻³

concentrations are in units of moles/liter

rate constants are in units of liters/mole/second

TABLE 8

Rate Constants at Various Concentrations of Fluoranthene
for the Emission Wavelength of 470 nm

			Square
10 ⁹ 3.04 x 1	10 ⁵ 2.35 × 10 ⁴	9.0 × 10 ⁹	4.49×10^{-3}
1.23 x 1	10^4 4.63 × 10^3	5.0 × 10 ⁹	8.68×10^{-4}
10 ¹⁰ 2.14 × 1	10^3 1.13 × 10^3	9.0 × 10 ⁹	1.21×10^{-3}
	10 ⁹ 1.23 x	10^9 1.23×10^4 4.63×10^3	10^9 1.23×10^4 4.63×10^3 5.0×10^9

concentratios are in units of moles/liter

rate constants are in units of liters/mole/second

TABLE 9

Rate Constants at Various Concentrations of 9,10-Diphenylanthracene for the Emission Wavelength of 435 nm

[DPA]	k ₃	k ₅	k ₆	k ₇	Error Mean Square	
7.46 × 10 ⁻⁶	2.6 × 10 ⁸	7.53 × 10 ⁵	2.38×10^3	9.0 x 10 ⁹	1.49×10^{-2}	
3.73×10^{-5}	5.0 × 10 ⁹	2.13×10^5	2.16×10^3	5.0 × 10 ⁹	3.19×10^{-3}	
1.86×10^{-4}	5.0×10^9	6.21×10^{4}	2.28×10^3	5.0 × 10 ⁹	2.79×10^{-3}	
9.32×10^{-4}	1.0×10^{10}	1.26 × 10 ⁴	1.53 x 10 ³	1.0×10^{10}	1.09×10^{-3}	
4.66×10^{-3}	1.0×10^{10}	4.00×10^3	9.57×10^2	1.0 × 10 ¹⁰	1.24×10^{-3}	

concentrations are in units of moles/liter
rate constants are in units of liters/mole/second

concentrations of DPA are presented; here the emission intensity detected was at 435 nm.

In addition to the results presented in these tables, all fifteen experiments are graphically displayed in the appendix in sets of three figures. The sets comprised of a figure of the raw data from magnetic tape, a figure of the "fixed" smoothed data, and a composite of the "fixed smoothed" data and the fitted data.

IV.8. Discussion of Results

IV.8.1. Variable Rate Constants

It is apparent from an examination of the tables of results (Tables 7, 8, and 9) that the rate constants for the reactions of the formation of triplets and the formation of the cations vary with concentration.

In an effort to understand why this variation occurs, log-log plots of concentraiton versus rate constant are constructed from the results in Tables 7 and 9 for k_5 and k_6 , respectively and are shown in Figures 12, 13, 14, and 15. The slopes of the best fitting straight line for the log-log plot of concentration versus k_5 for fluoranthene (Figure 12) and DPA (Figure 14) are -0.73 and -0.83, respectively. This would indicate a near-inverse relationship between the rate constant, k_5 , and the concentration of the aromatic hydrocarbon. The slopes of the best fit straight line for the log-log plot of concentration versus k_6 for fluoranthene (Figure 13) and DPA (Figure 15) are -0.61 and -0.13, respectively, although a straight line fit for Figure 13 is not significant due to the wide scatter of points. This would indicate that k_6 is essentially independent of the concentration of aromatic hydrocarbon.

We believe that the variation in the rate constants is due to our neglecting the possibilities of quenching of the triplets by a quencher Q,

$$^{3}R^{*} + Q \xrightarrow{^{k}Q} R + Q^{1}$$
 (1V,8.1)

Figure 12. Log-Log Plot of Fluoranthene Concentration and the Rate Constant for Triplet Formation. (Standard Error = 9.0×10^{-2})

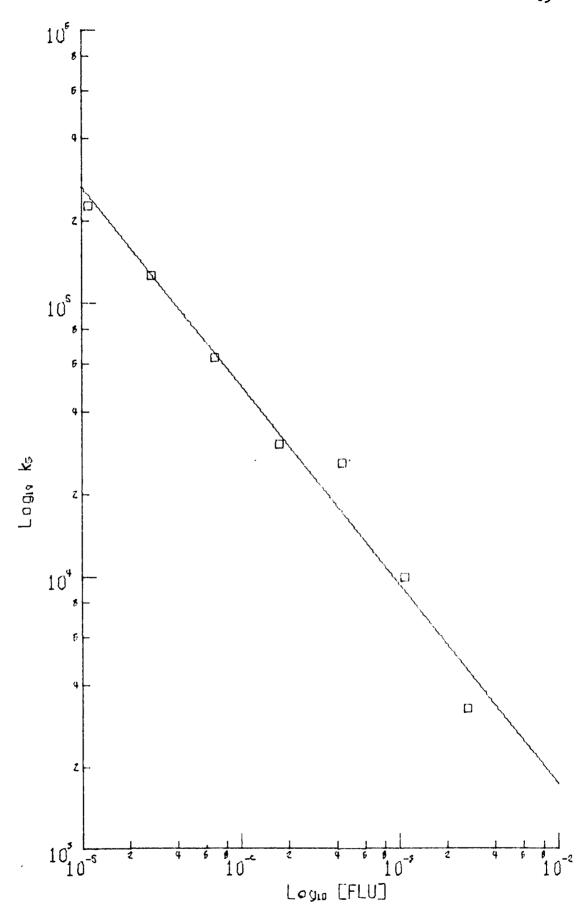


Figure 13. Log-Log Plot of Fluoranthene Concentration and the Rate Constant for Cation Formation. $(Standard\ Error = 3.5 \times 10^{-1})$

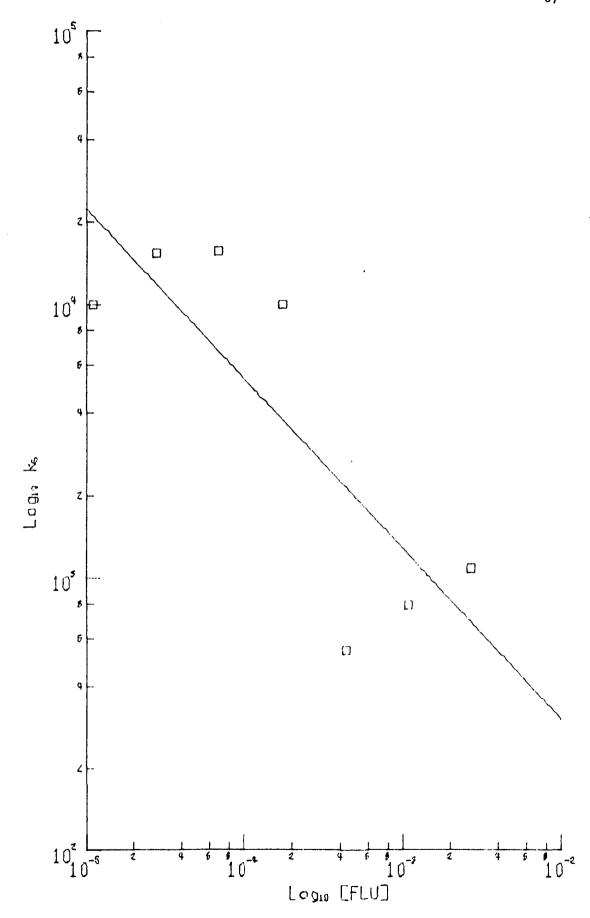


Figure 14. Log-Log Plot of DPA Concentration and the Rate Constant for Triplet Formation. $(Standard\ Error=3.8\times10^{-2})$

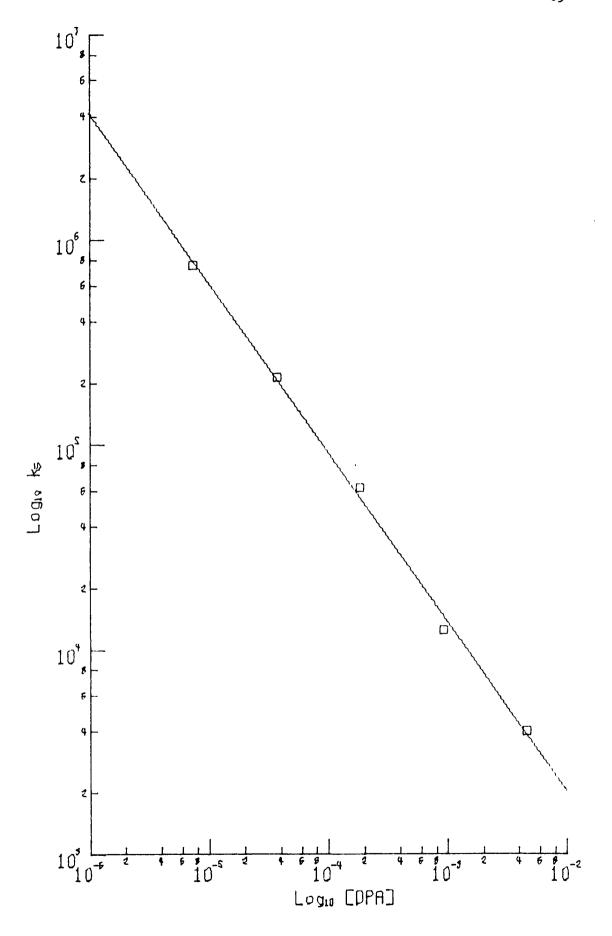
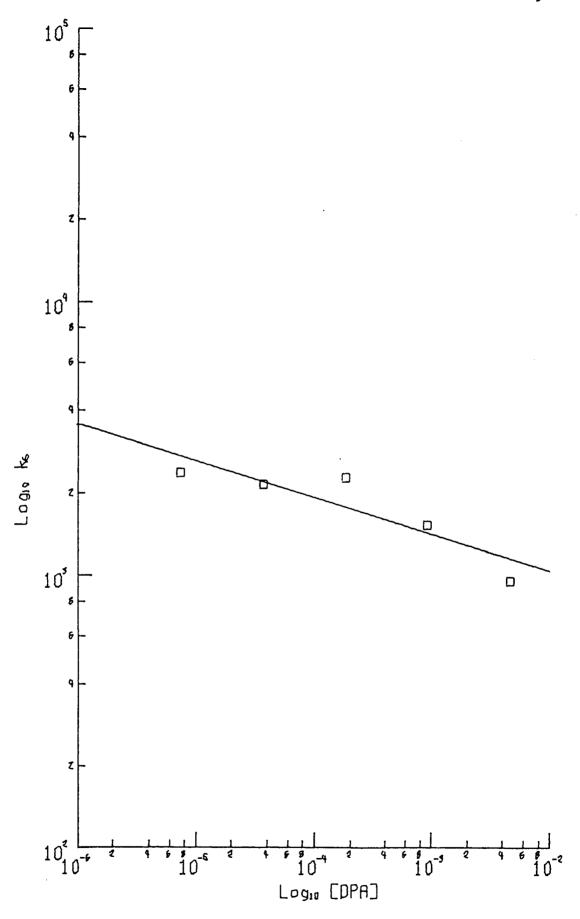


Figure 15. Log-Log Plot of DPA Concentration and the Rate Constant for Cation Formation. $(Standard\ Error=3.9\times10^{-2})$



A justification of this belief is based on the following rationale. The rate expression for ${\it C}_{\it 3R}$ derived from the postulated mechanism is,

$$\frac{dC_{3R}}{dt} = k_5 C_R - C_B - k_6 C_{3R} C_{BPO}^{\circ}$$
 (IV.8.2)

If the mechanism is revised to include reaction IV.8.1 then

$$\frac{dc_{3R}}{dt} = k_{5}^{\dagger} c_{R} - c_{B} - k_{6}^{\dagger} c_{3R} c_{BPO} - k_{Q} c_{3R} c_{Q}$$
 (1V.8.3)

where k_5^1 and k_6^2 are the "revised" rate constants for the respective reactions for triplet formation and cation formation and C_{φ} is the concentration of the quenchers. By setting equation IV.7.2. and IV.7.3 to be equal, the meaning of k_5 and k_6 can be shown,

$$k_{5} = k_{5}^{\prime} + \frac{(k_{6} - k_{6}^{\prime}) C_{3_{R}} C_{BPO}^{\circ} - k_{Q} C_{3_{R}} C_{Q}}{C_{R} - C_{B}}$$
 (1V.8.4)

and

$$k_6 = k_6' + \frac{k_Q c_Q}{c_{BPO}^{\circ}} + \frac{(k_5 - k_5') c_R - c_B}{c_{3_R} c_{BPO}^{\circ}}$$
 (1V.8.5)

The approximation that

$$c_{R}^{-} \simeq c_{R}^{\circ}$$
 (IV.8.6)

is taken from the solution of the boundary value problem (i.e., equation IV.4.12) to be valid here. If we then assume k_5' is much smaller than k_5 then equation IV.8.4 can be interpreted as saying that k_5 is inversely proportional to C_R° . And, in equation IV.8.5, if k_5' is assumed to be smaller than k_5 , then k_5 cancels the effect of C_R^- and the expression indicates C_R° is independent of it.

Other workers have reported cases of triplet quenching in *ecl* studies [60-63,69,70,72,74,75,85,86]. These workers suggest two particularly

common quenchers as being molecular oxygen and radical ions. Oxygen is suspected of being present at concentrations of \underline{ca} . 10^{-6} \underline{M} [85] and is a known quencher of triplets. Radical ions of which the primary reactant R^{-} is one, can quench triplets since the radical ions are paramagnetic. Besides these quenchers, the possibilities of other impurities are still present.

IV.8.2. Discussion of Excimers

It should be briefly noted in passing that there is no evidence of excimer emission at least in the case of fluoranthene. A comparison of the three results in Table 9 with those of Table 8 shows that there is very little difference in the rate constants derived from emission at a singlet wavelength and that derived from the total emission. This is as expected, since the observations of excimer emissions in *ecl* were found when solvents of much lower dielectric strength were used.

V. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the objectives of this dissertation have been met.

A mechanism for explaining the ecl process in which emission results as a consequence of electroreduction of an aromatic hydrocarbon in the presence of a bulk oxidant precursor has been developed and tested.

This study has shown that: (i) the process is general to a number of aromatic hydrocarbons, (ii) mixed systems involving energy transfer can be explained, (iii) an attempt to describe the ecl process in terms of the emission intensity and time will be possible only with further studies and an understanding of the quenching routes which involve the triplet species produced, (iv) the rates of the reactions for generating the radical oxidant and annihilation-emission are near the diffusion control limit, and (v) excimers do not play an important role in the emission in solvents of medium to high dielectric strength.

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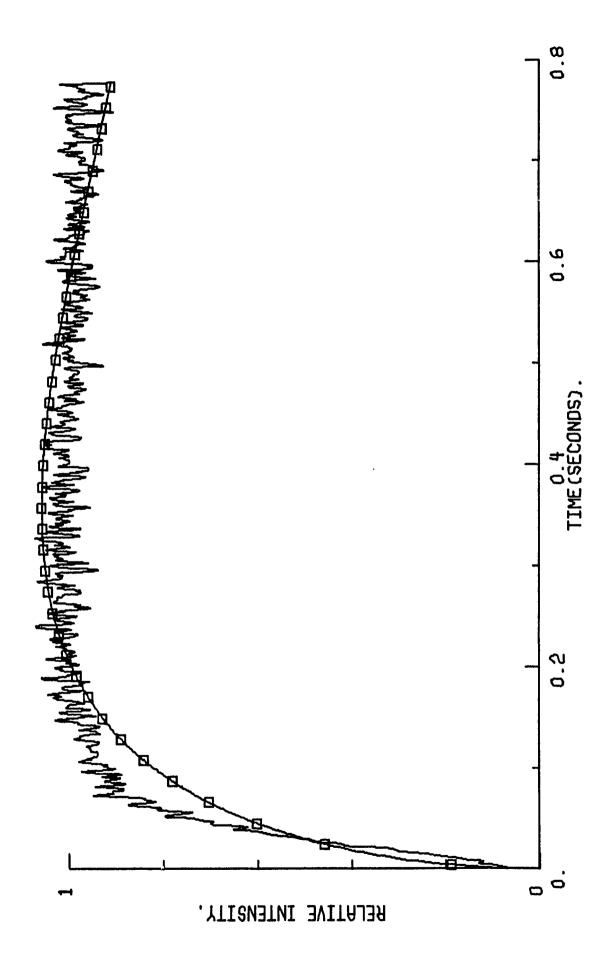
APPENDIX

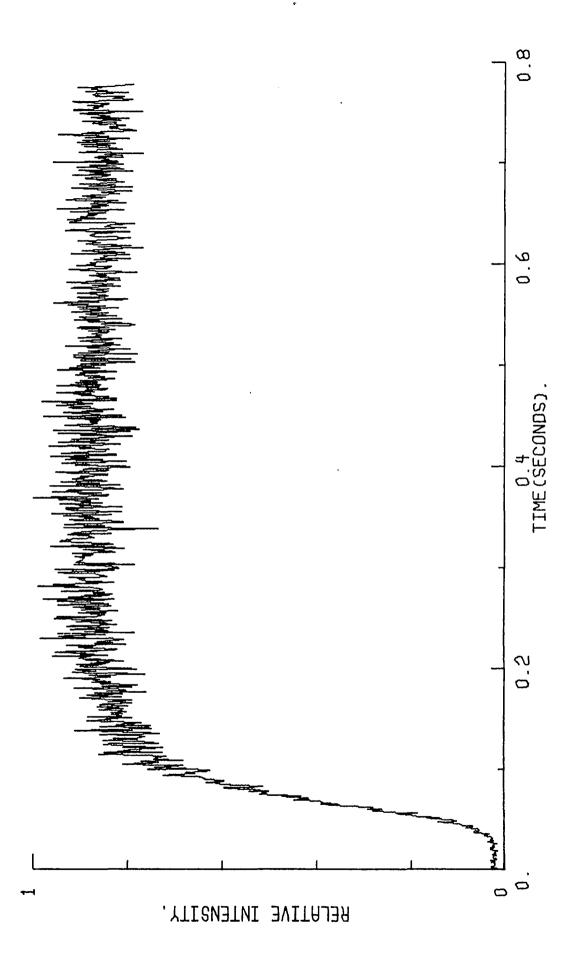
Figure 16. The Intensity-Time Plots of 1.10 x 10⁻⁵ M Fluoranthene

Collected Using the Total Emission Band for (a) Raw Data,

(b) "Fixed" Smoothed Data, and (c) Composite of "Fixed"

Smoothed Data and Fitted Data (open squares).





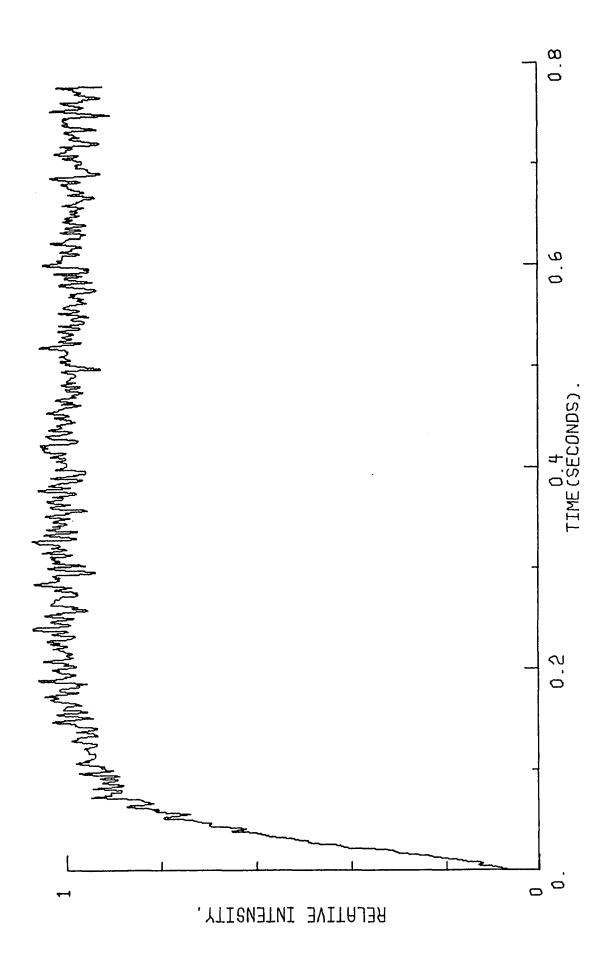
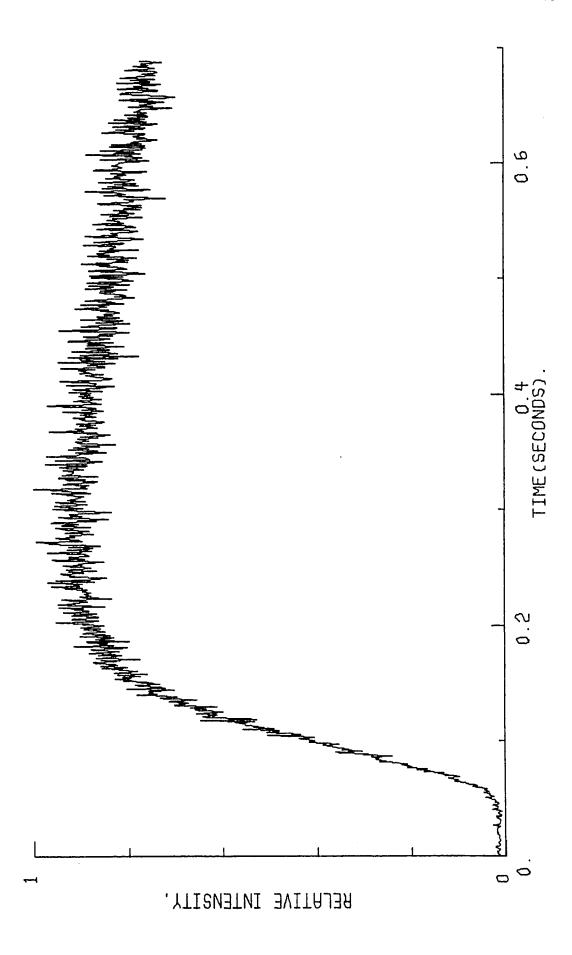


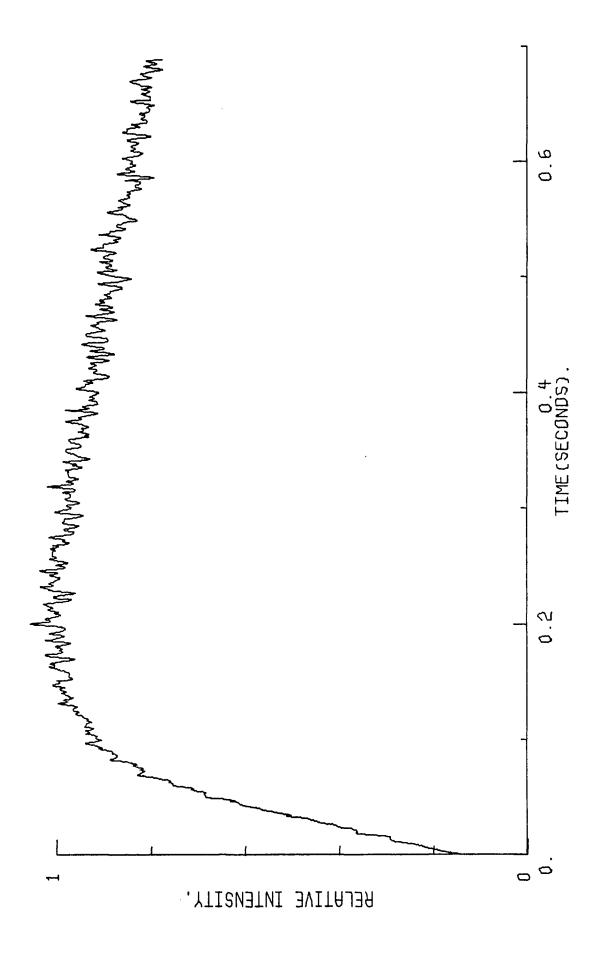
Figure 17. The Intensity-Time Plots of 2.76 x 10⁻⁵ M Fluoranthene

Collected Using the Total Emission Band for (a) Raw Data,

(b) "Fixed" Smoothed Data, and (c) Composite of "Fixed"

Smoothed Data and Fitted Data (open squares).





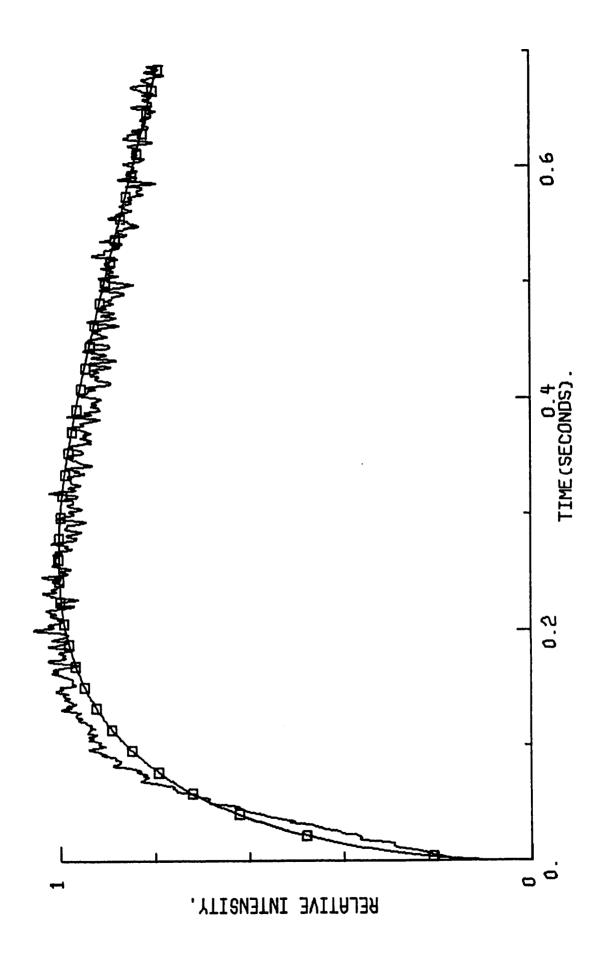
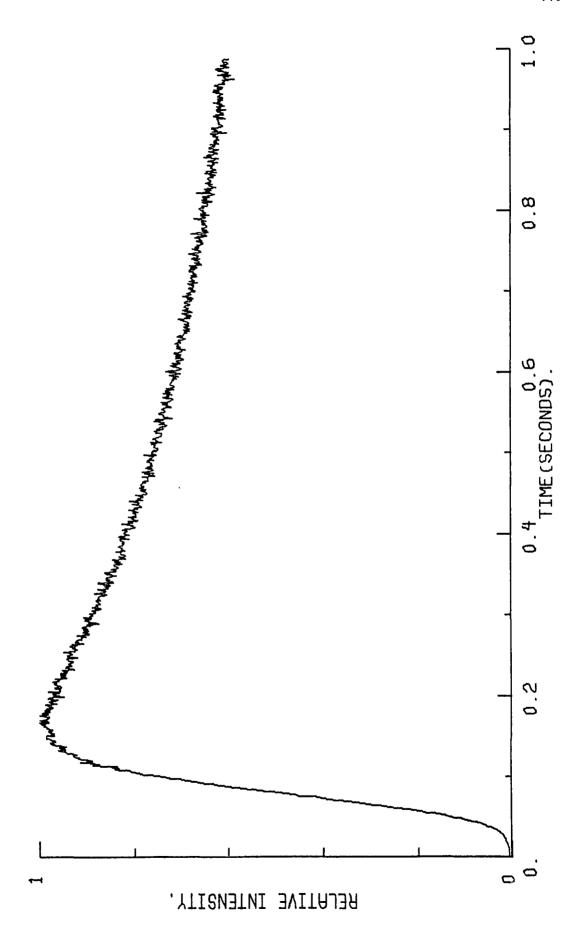


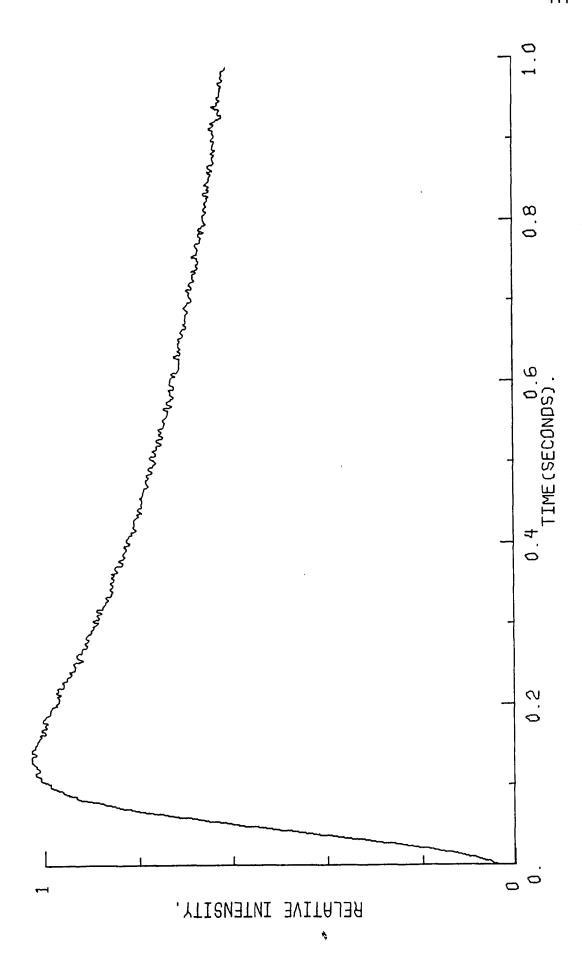
Figure 18. The Intensity-Time Plots of 6.91 x 10⁻⁵ M Fluoranthene

Collected Using the Total Emission Band for (a) Raw Data,

(b) "Fixed" Smoothed Data, and (c) Composite of "Fixed"

Smoothed Data and Fitted Data (open squares).





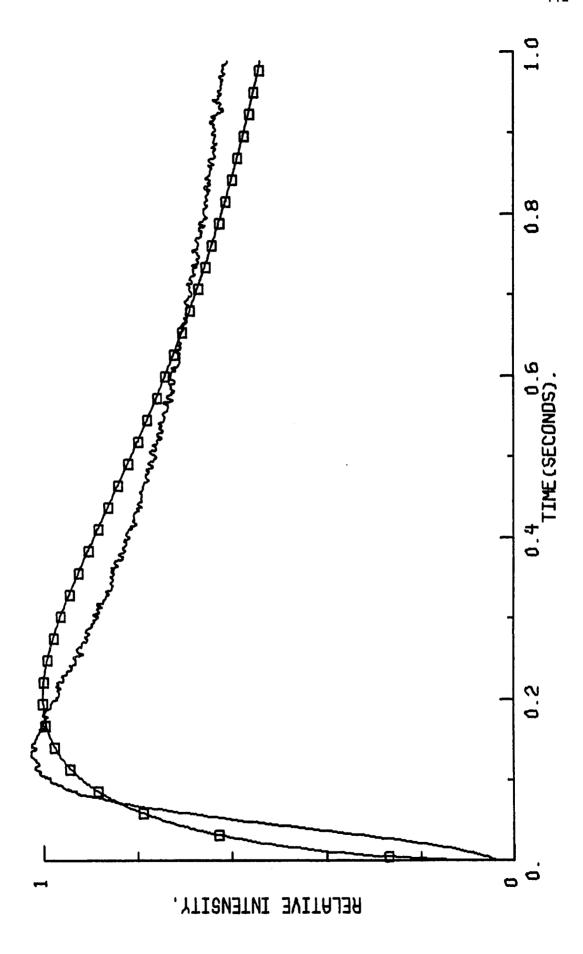
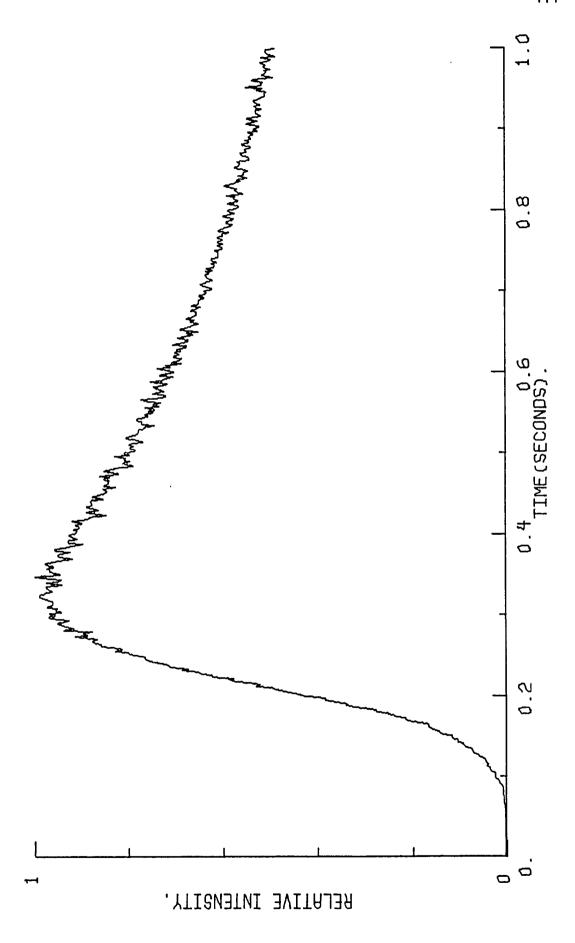


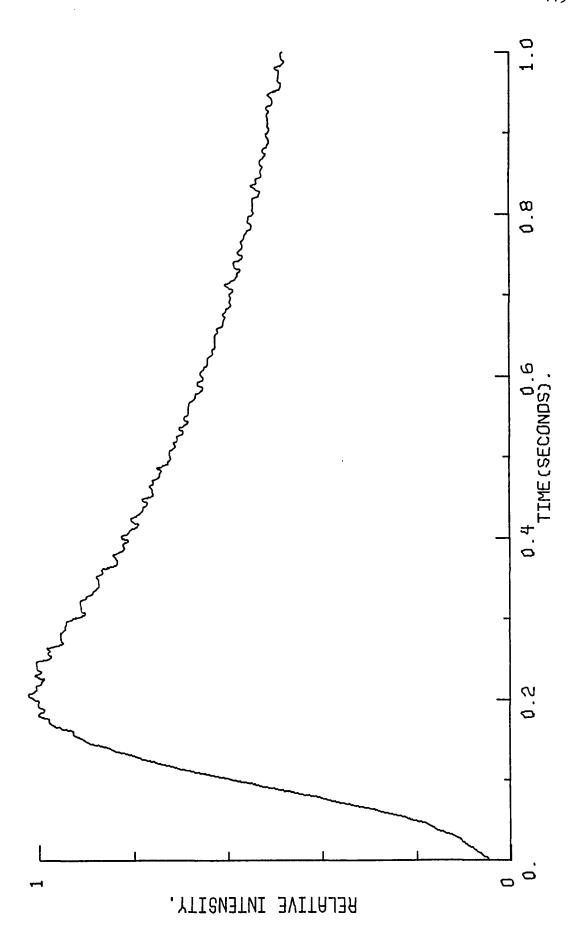
Figure 19. The Intensity-Time Plots of 1.74 x 10⁻⁴ M Fluoranthene

Collected Using the Total Emission Band for (a) Raw Data,

(b) "Fixed" Smoothed Data, and (c) Composite of "Fixed"

Smoothed Data and Fitted Data (open squares).





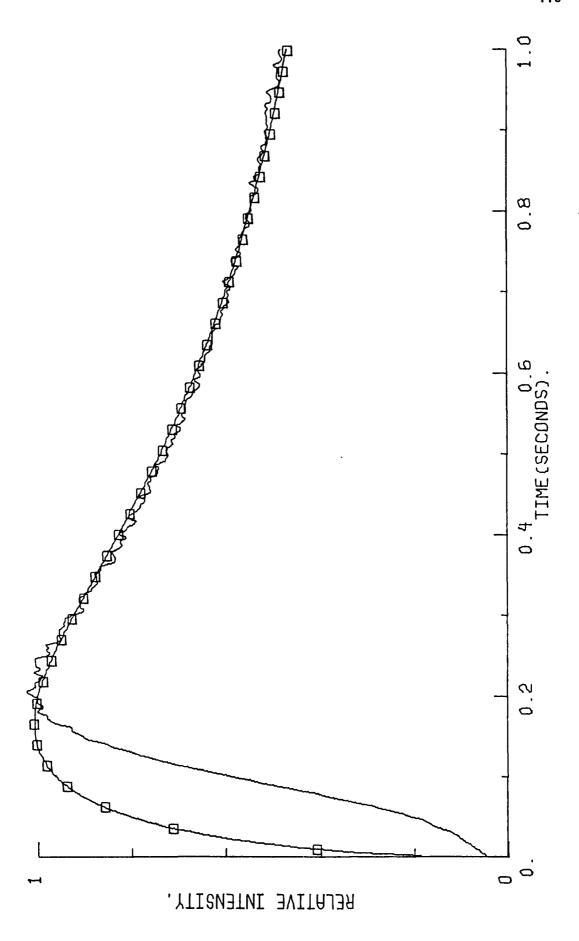
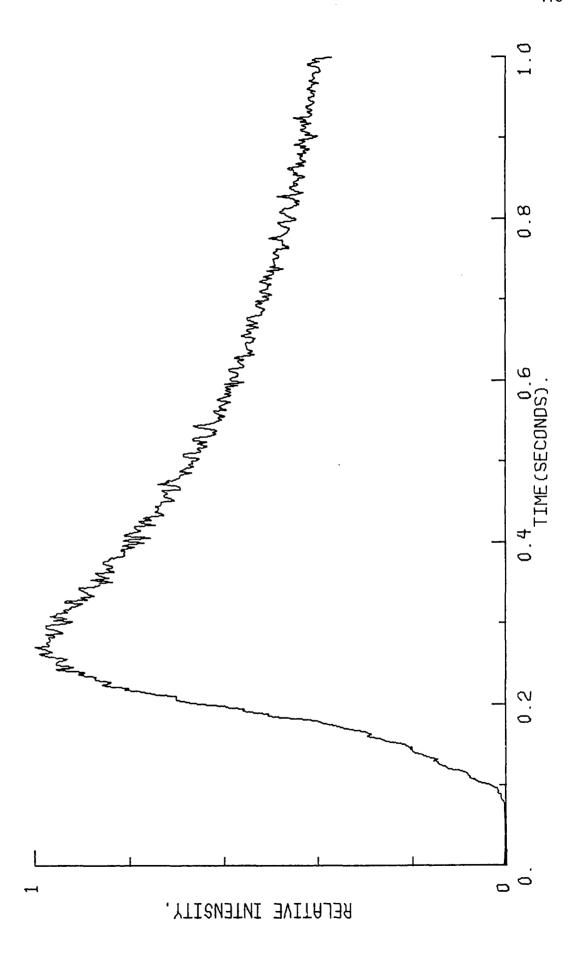


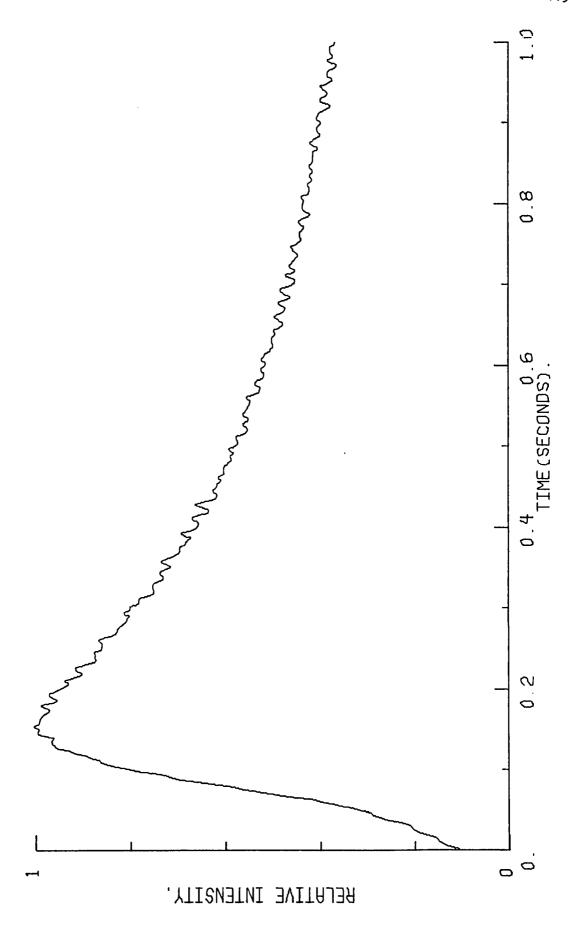
Figure 20. The Intensity-Time Plots of 4.32 x 10⁻⁴ M Fluoranthene

Collected Using the Total Emission Band for (a) Raw Data,

(b) "Fixed" Smoothed Data, and (c) Composite of "Fixed"

Smoothed Data and Fitted Data (open squares).





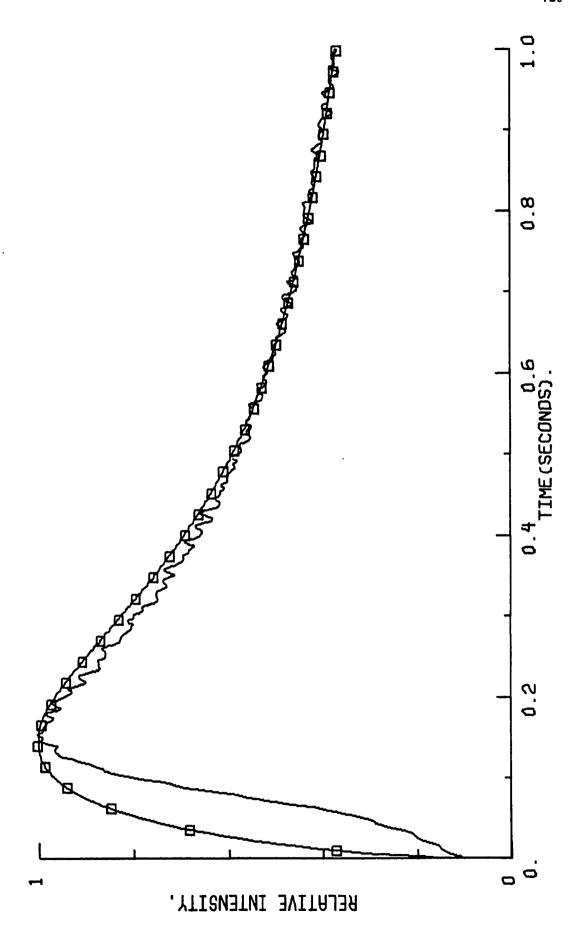
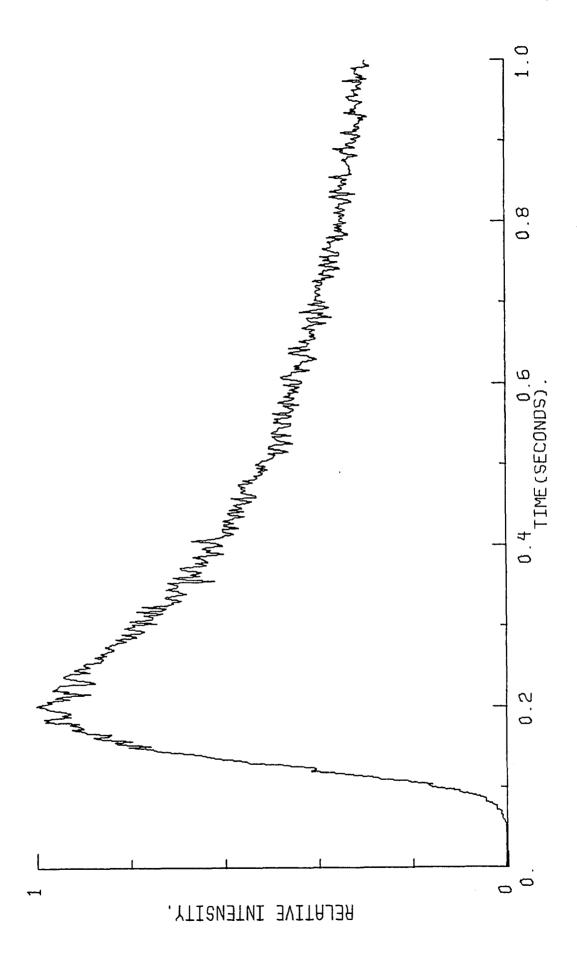


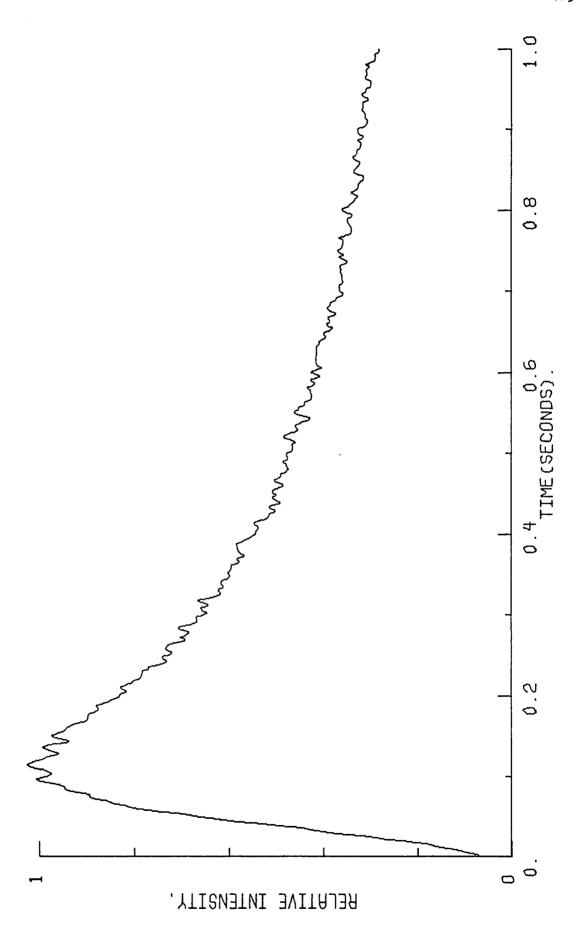
Figure 21. The Intensity-Time Plots of 1.08 x 10⁻³ M Fluoranthene

Collected Using the Total Emission Band for (a) Raw Data,

(b) "Fixed" Smoothed Data, and (c) Composite of "Fixed"

Smoothed Data and Fitted Data (open squares).





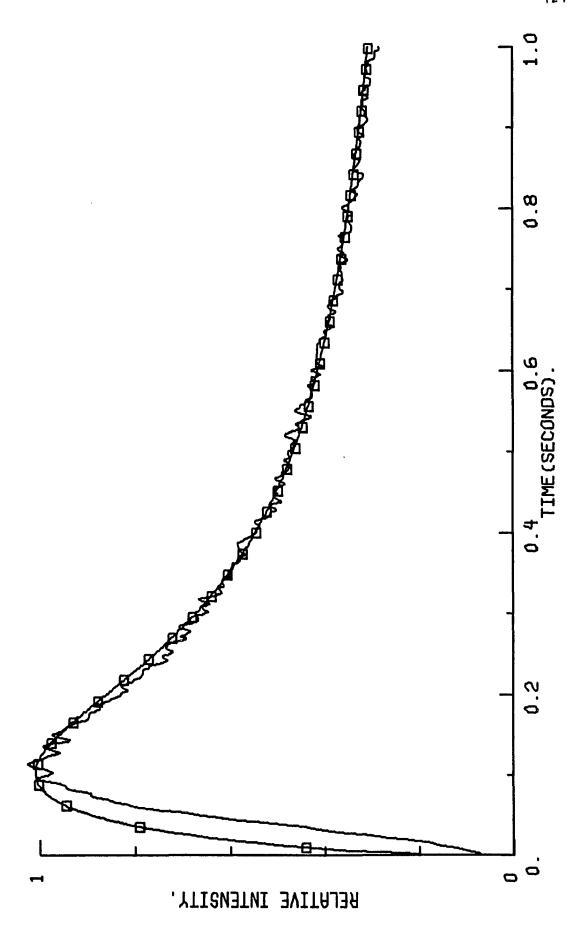
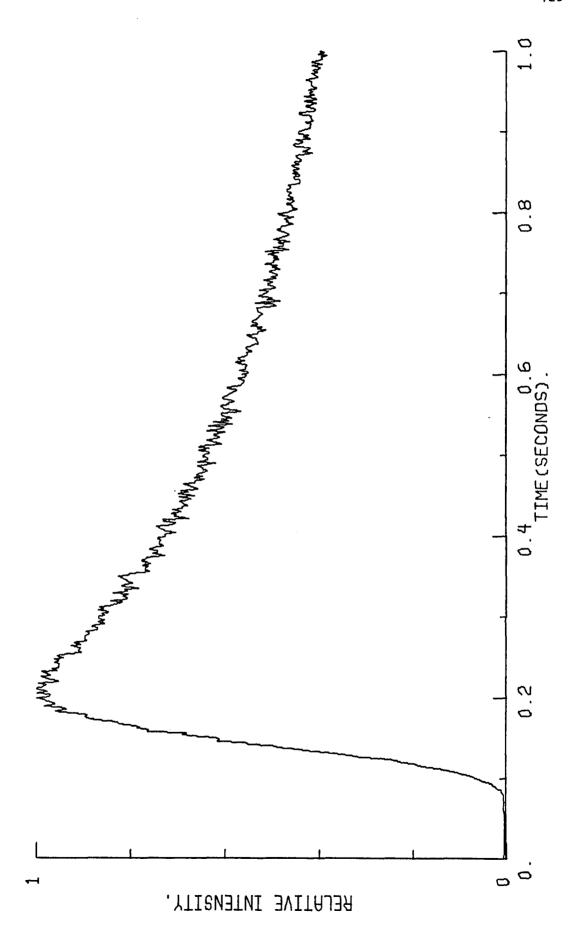


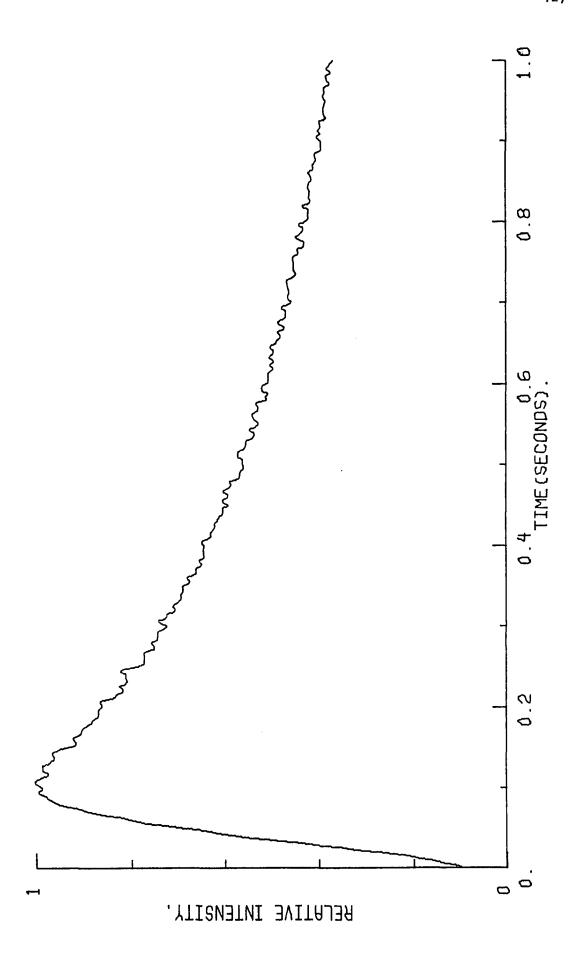
Figure 22. The Intensity-Time Plots of 2.70 x 10⁻³ M Fluoranthene

Collected Using the Total Emission Band for (a) Raw Data,

(b) "Fixed" Smoothed Data, and (c) Composite of "Fixed"

Smoothed Data and Fitted Data (open squares).





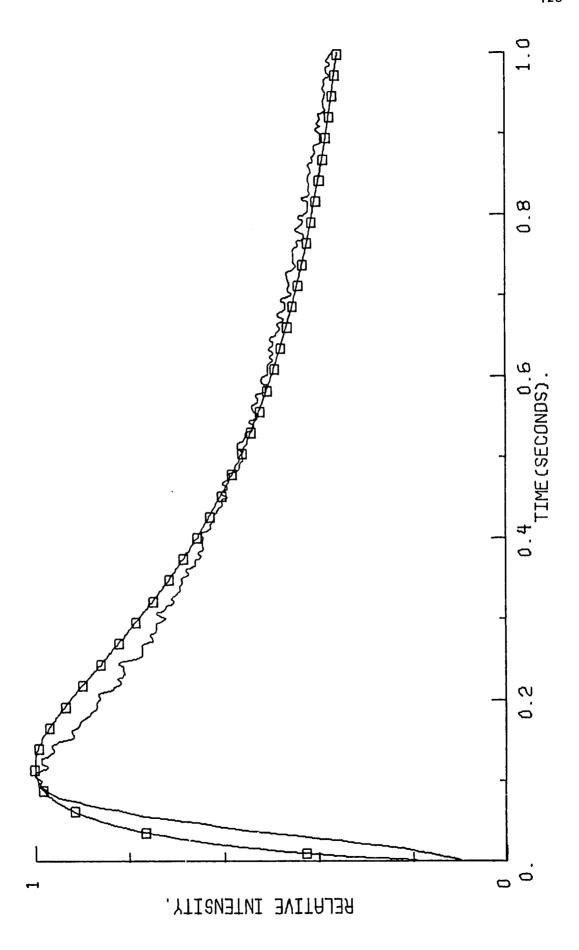
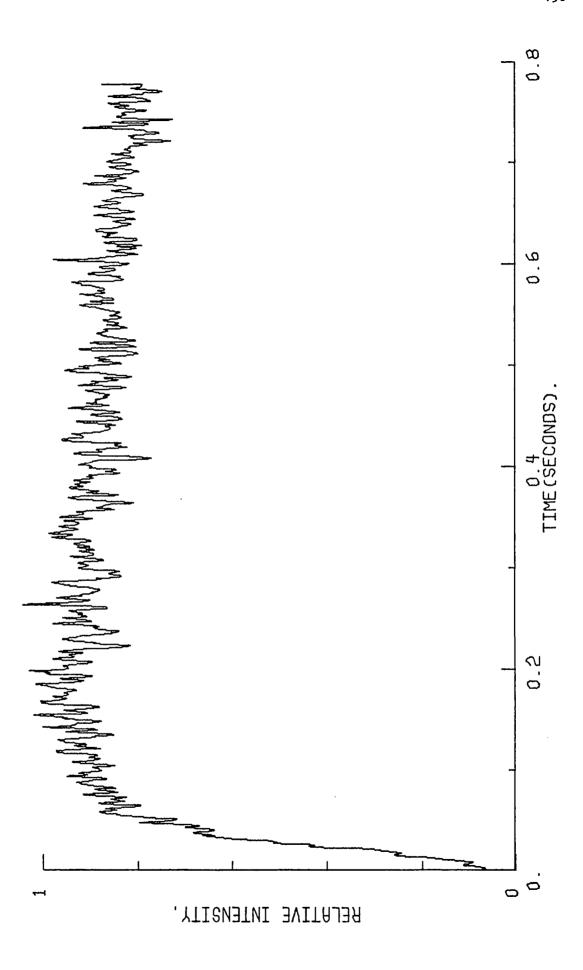
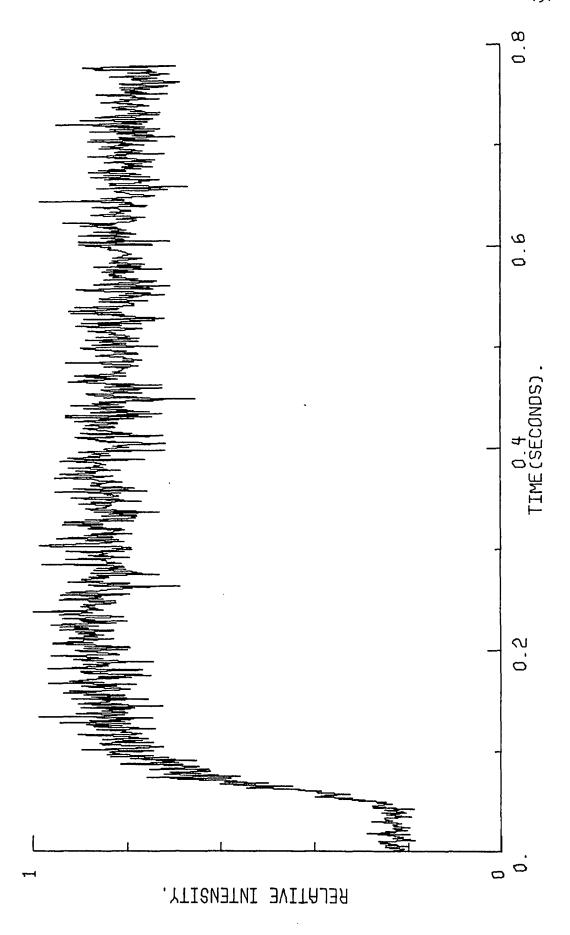


Figure 23. The Intensity-Time Plots of 1.10 x 10⁻⁵ M Fluoranthene Collected at the Wavelength of 470 nm for (a) Raw Data, (b) "Fixed" Smoothed Data, and (c) Composite of "Fixed" Smoothed Data and Fitted Data (open squares).





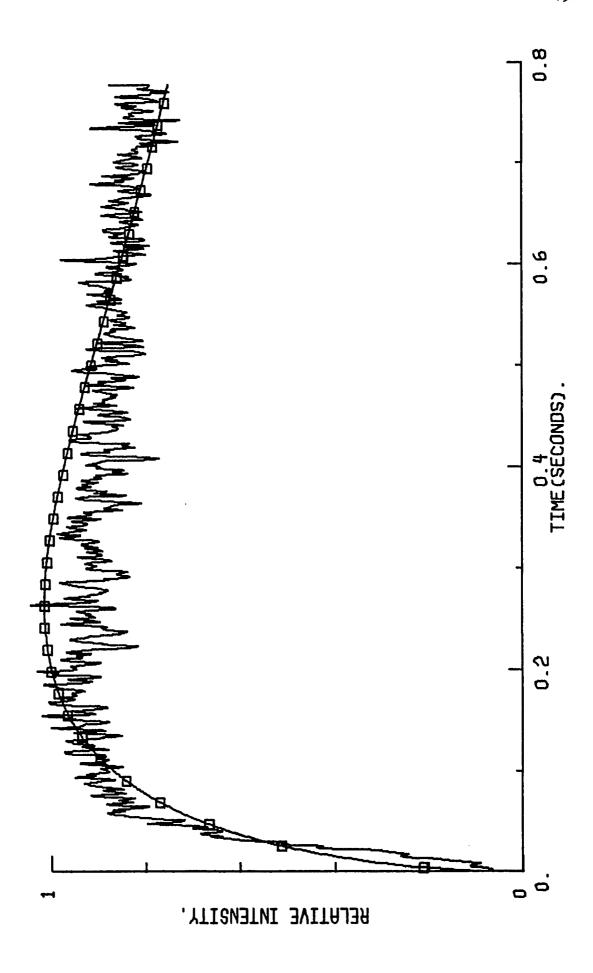
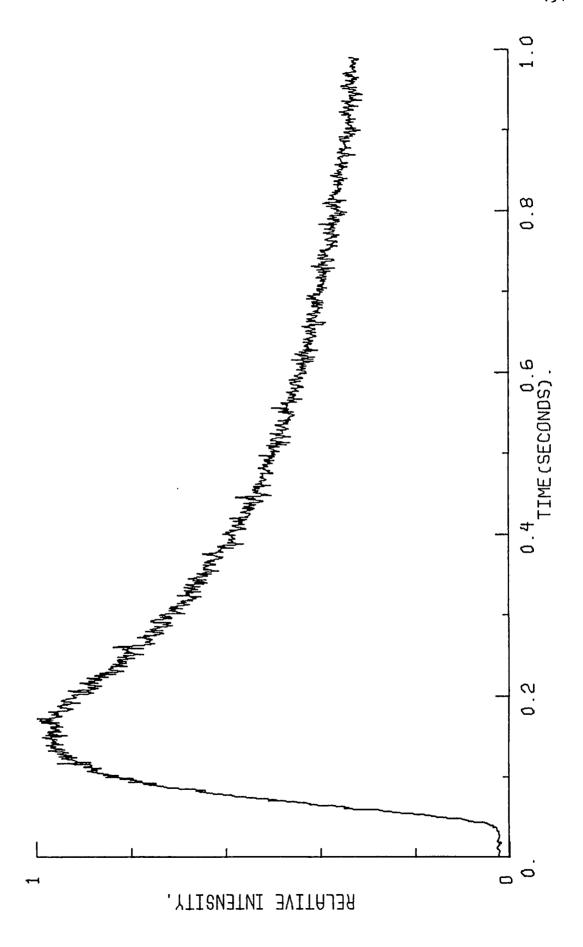
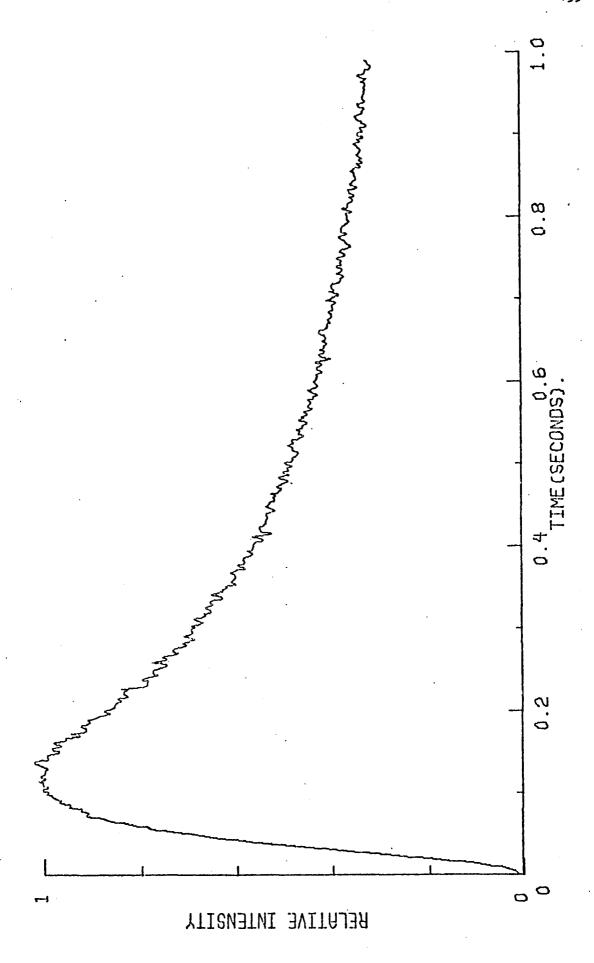


Figure 24. The Intensity-Time Plots of 1.08 x 10⁻³ M Fluoranthene Collected at the Wavelength of 470 nm for (a) Raw Data, (b) "Fixed" Smoothed Data, and (c) Composite of "Fixed" Smoothed Data and Fitted Data (open squares).





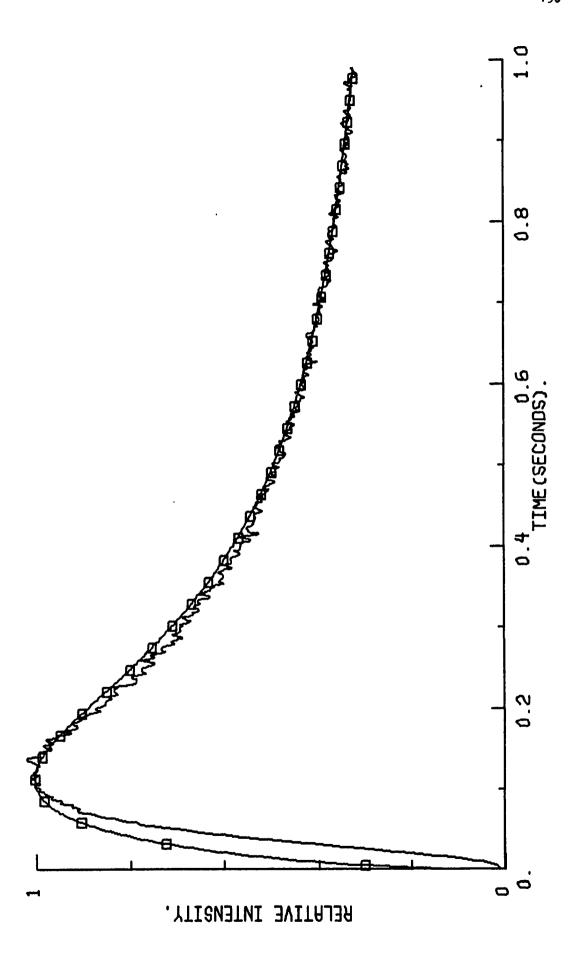
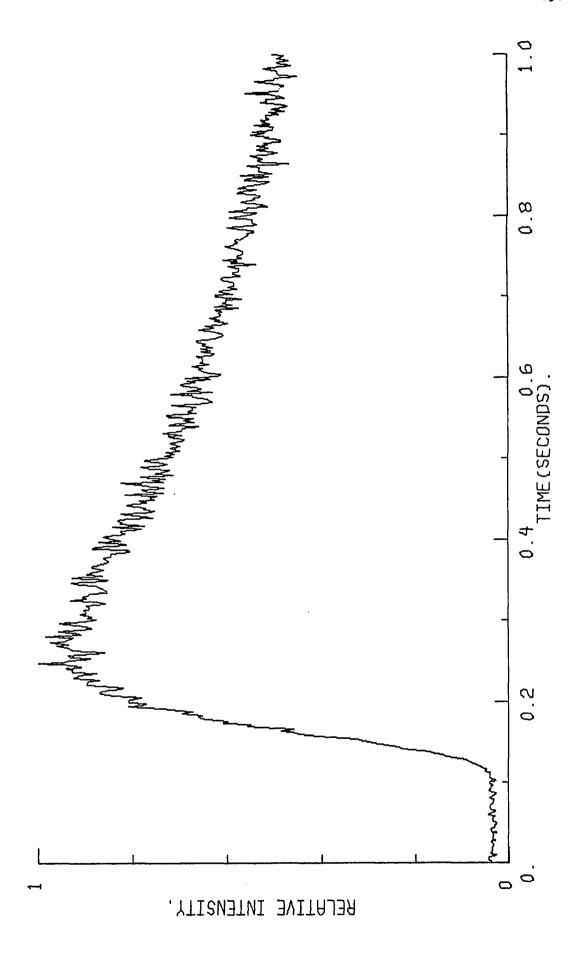
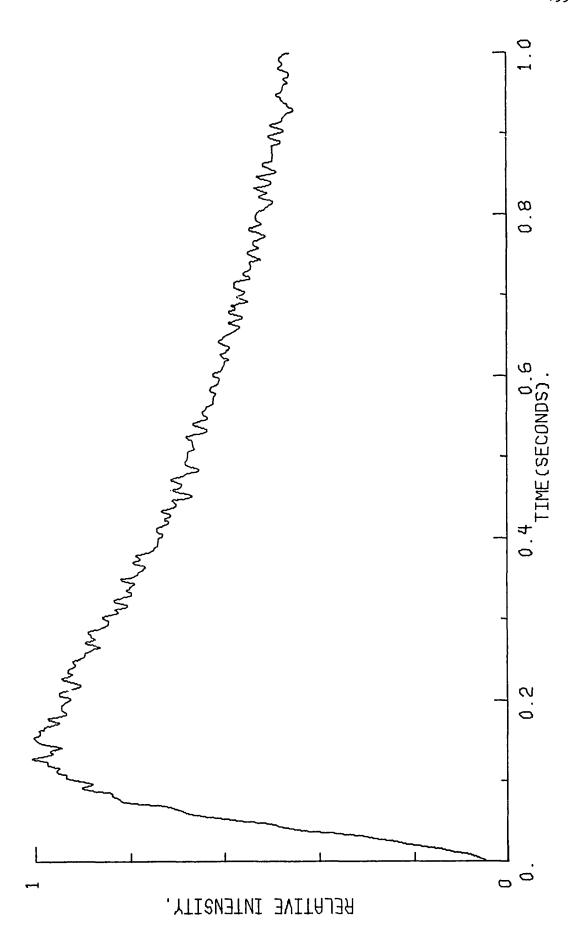


Figure 25. The Intensity-Time Plots of 2.70 ~ 10⁻³ M Fluoranthene Collected at the Wavelength of 470 nm for (a) Raw Data, (b) "Fixed" Smoothed Data, and (c) Composite of "Fixed" Smoothed Data and Fitted Data (open squares).





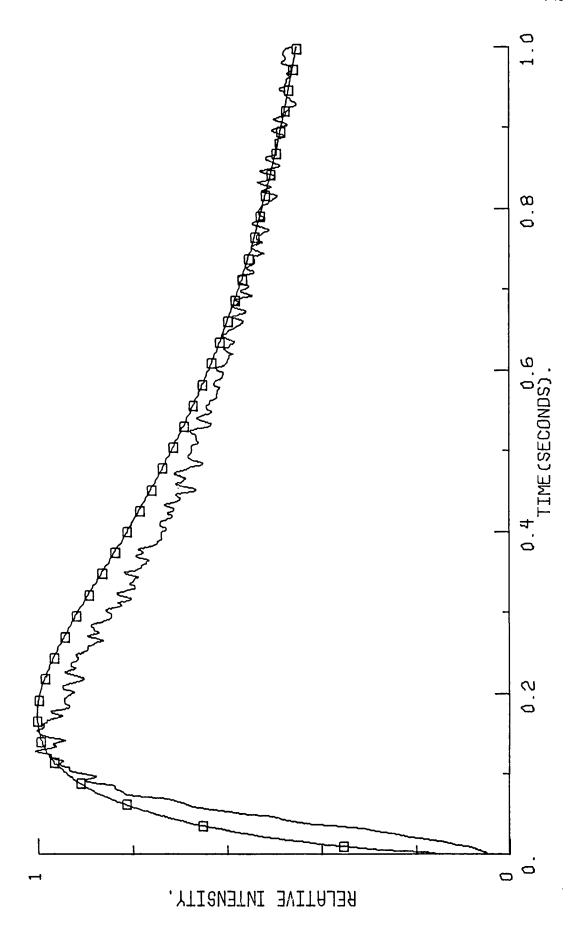
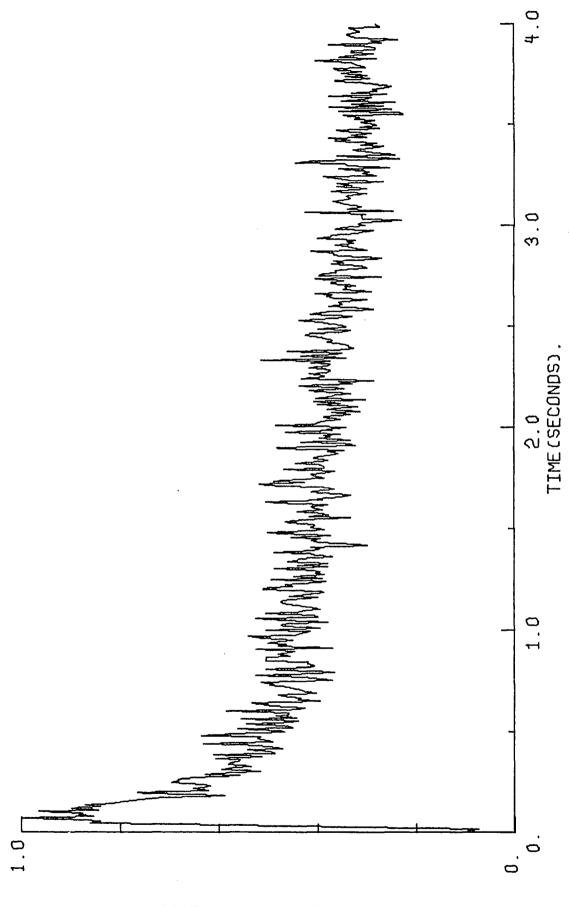
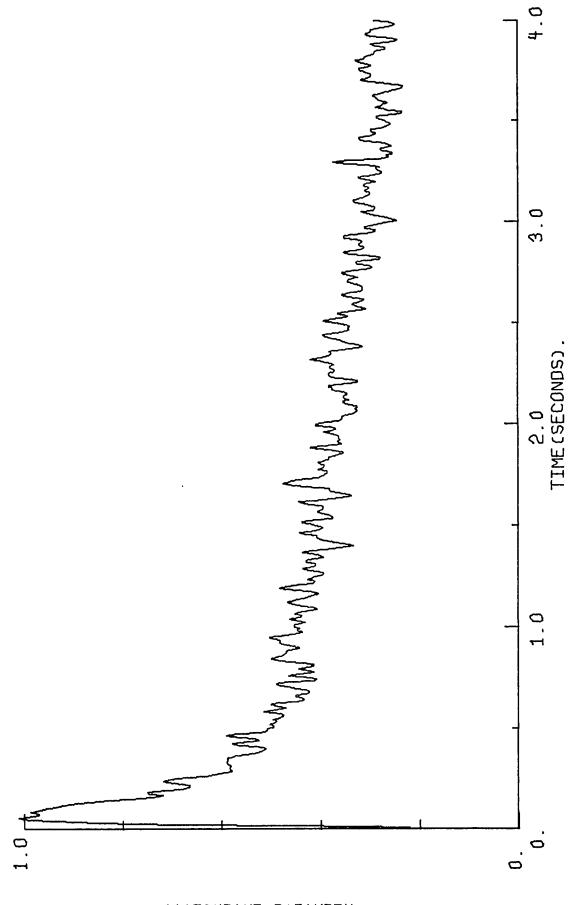


Figure 26. The Intensity-Time Plots of 7.46 x 10⁻⁶ M DPA Collected at the Wavelength of 435 nm for (a) Raw Data, (b) "Fixed" Smoothed Data, and (c) Composite of "Fixed" Smoothed Data and Fitted Data (open squares).



RELATIVE INTENSITY.



RELATIVE INTENSITY.

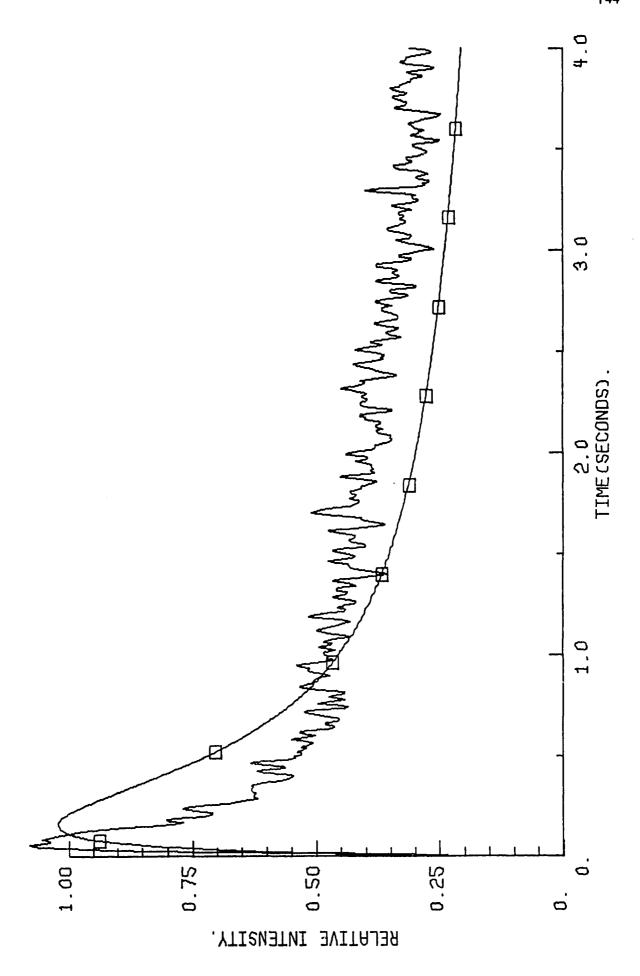
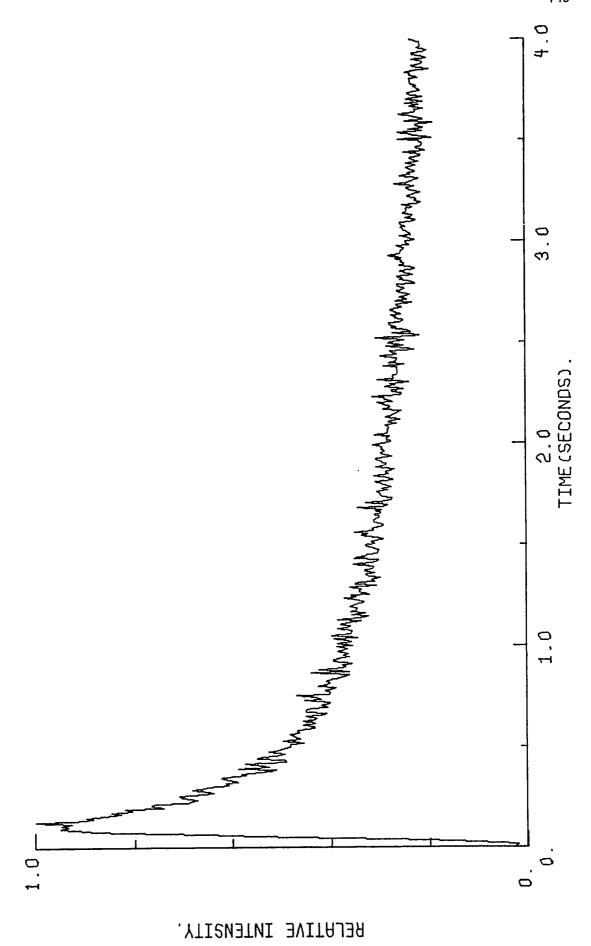
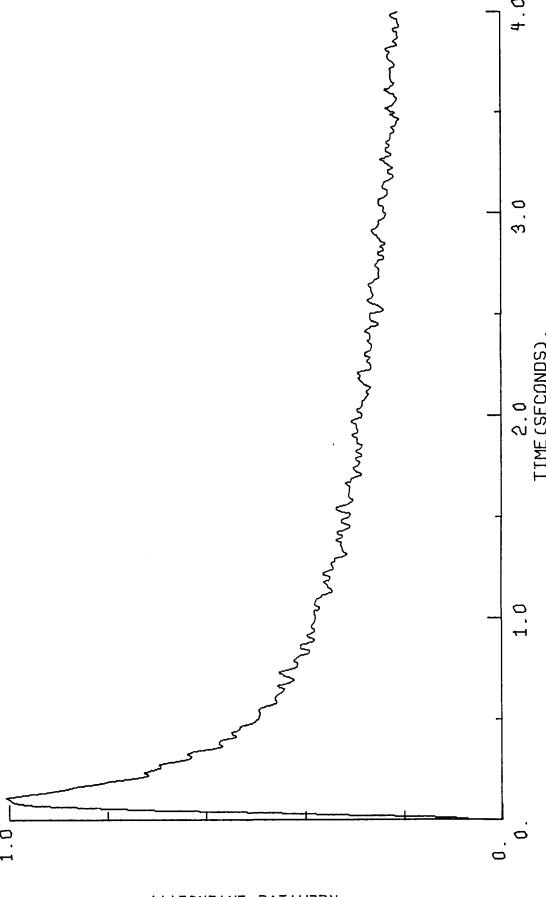


Figure 27. The Intensity-Time Plots of 3.73 x 10⁻⁵ M DPA Collected at the Wavelength of 435 nm for (a) Raw Data, (b) "Fixed" Smoothed Data, and (c) Composite of "Fixed" Smoothed Data and Fitted Data (open squares).







RELATIVE INTENSITY.

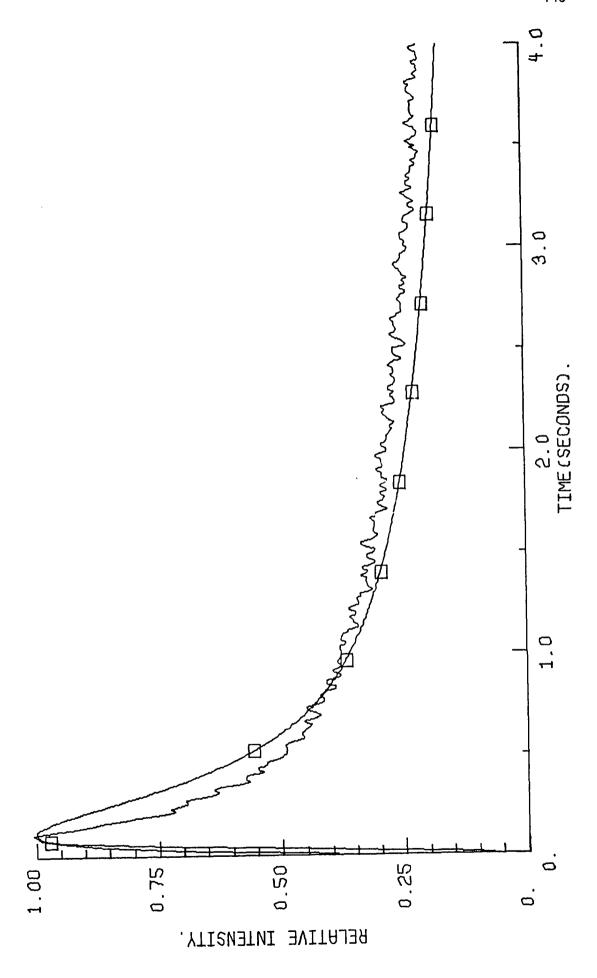
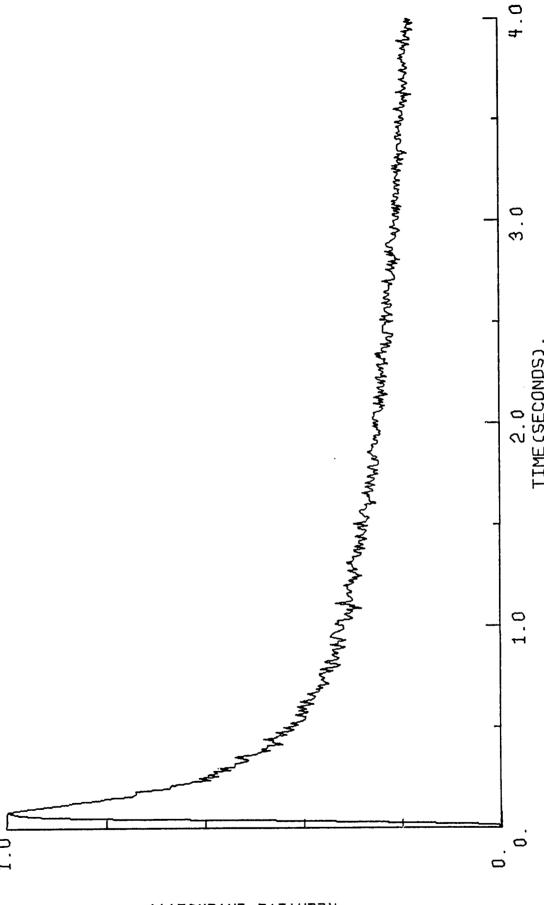
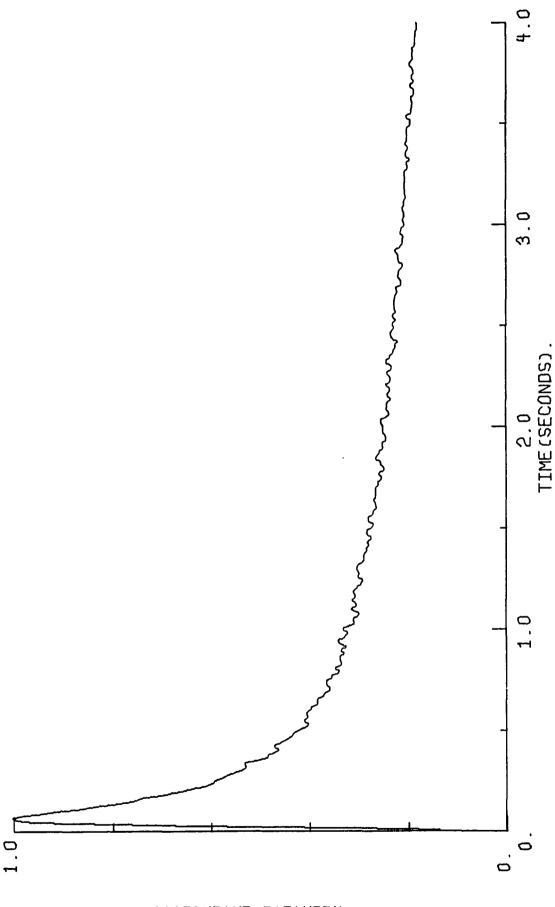


Figure 28. The Intensity-Time Plots of 1.86 x 10⁻⁴ M DPA Collected at the Wavelength of 435 nm for (a) Raw Data, (b) "Fixed" Smoothed Data, and (c) Composite of "Fixed" Smoothed Data and Fitted Data (open squares).



RELATIVE INTENSITY.



RELATIVE INTENSITY.



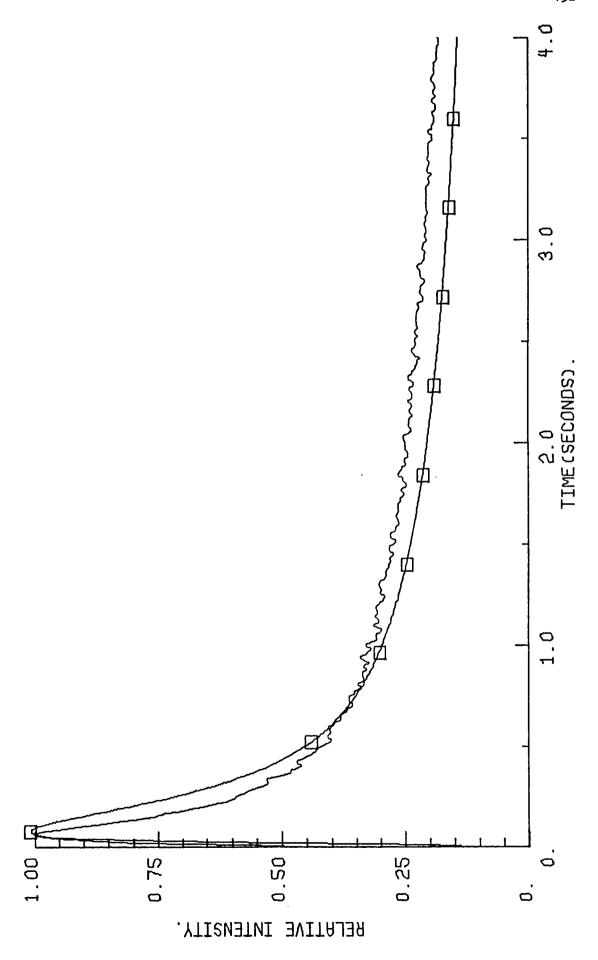
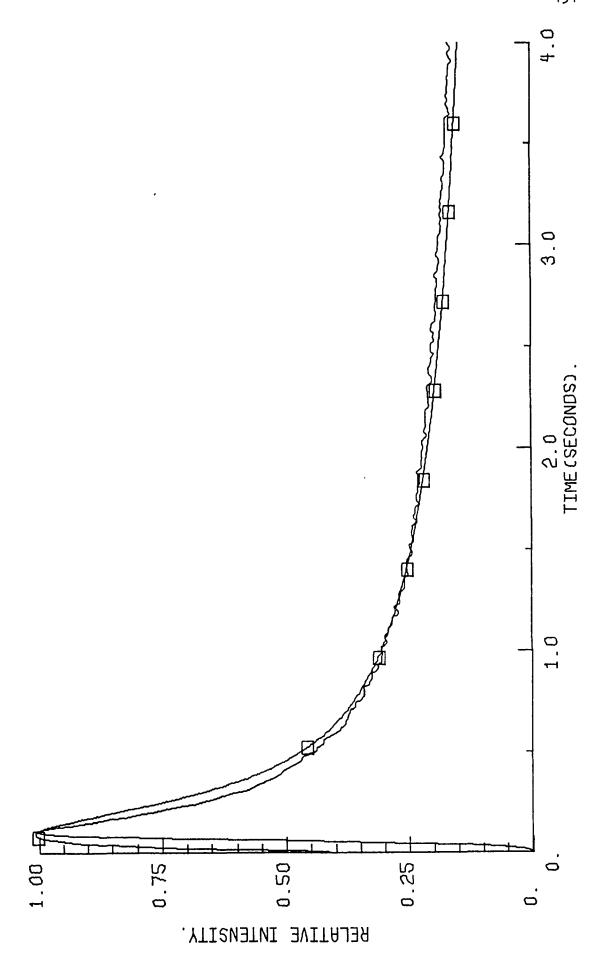
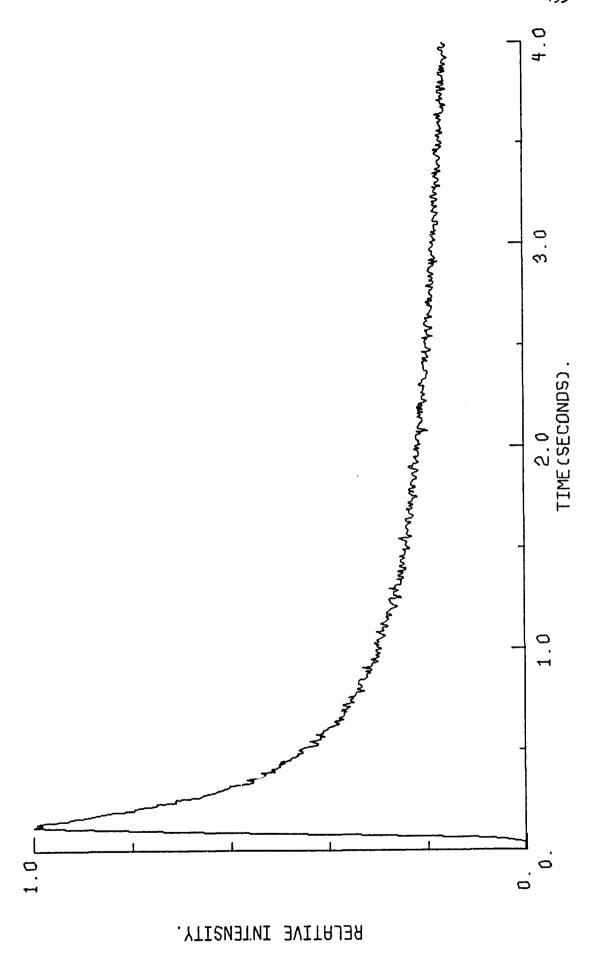


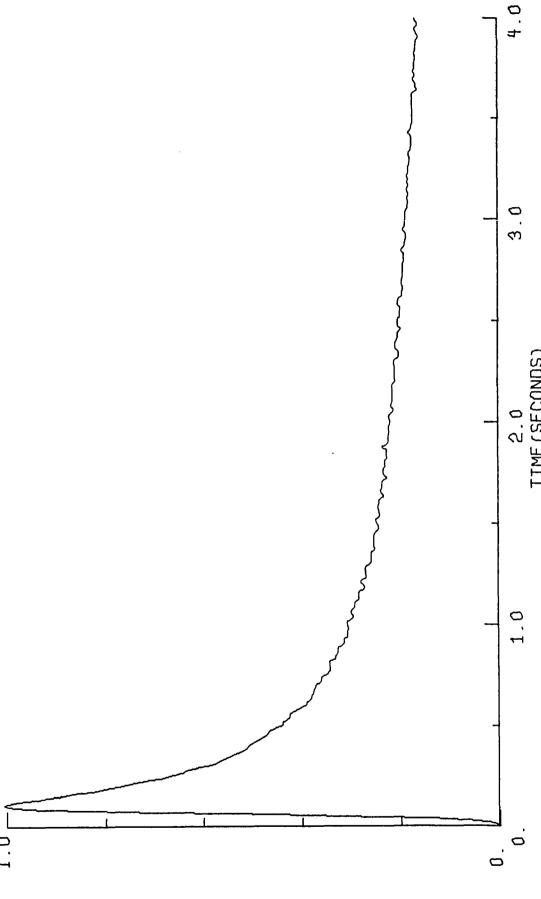
Figure 29. The Intensity-Time Plots of 9.32 x 10⁻⁴ M DPA Collected at the Wavelength of 435 nm for (a) Raw Data, (b) "Fixed" Smoothed Data, and (c) Composite of "Fixed" Smoothed Data and Fitted Data (open squares).





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RELATIVE INTENSITY.

Figure 30. The Intensity-Time Plots of 4.6- x 10⁻³ M DPA Collected at the Wavelength of 435 nm for (a) Raw Data, (b) "Fixed" Smoothed Data, and (c) Composite of "Fixed" Smoothed Data and Fitted Data (open squares).

