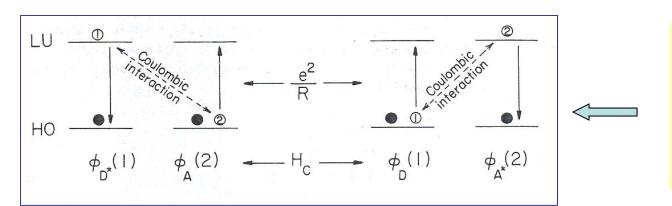
Molecular Photonics

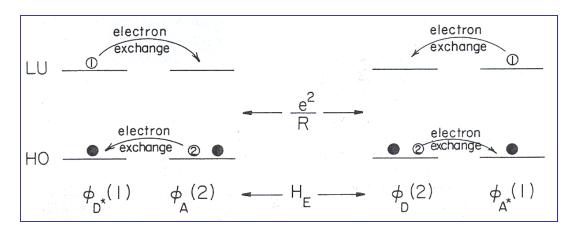
Lecture 5

Nonradiative energy transfer: Förster and Dexter mechanisms



Coulombic mechanism (dipole-dipole) is called Förster energy transfer mechanism

No direct orbital overlap necessary

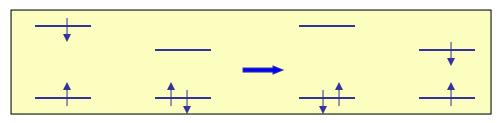


Exchange mechanism is called Dexter energy transfer mechanism

Direct orbital overlap necessary

Energy gradient (driving force) is important for energy transfer observation





Förster resonance energy transfer (FRET). Dominating mechanism.

The **FRET efficiency** is determined by three parameters:

- 1. The distance between the donor and the acceptor.
- 2. The spectral overlap of the donor emission spectrum and the acceptor absorption spectrum.
- 3. The relative orientation of the donor emission dipole moment and the acceptor absorption dipole moment.

k (Coulombic ET) $\sim 1/R^6$, where R=donor-acceptor distance.

The FRET efficiency E, which is defined as

$$E = 1 - \tau_{\rm D}'/\tau_{\rm D}$$

where ${\rm T'_D}$ and ${\rm T_D}$ are the donor fluorescence lifetimes in the presence and absence of an acceptor, respectively, or as $E=1-F_{\rm D}'/F_{\rm D}$

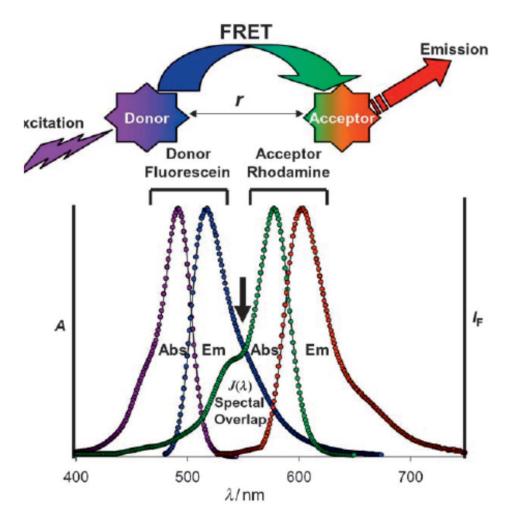
where F_D and F_D are the donor fluorescence intensities with and without an acceptor, respectively. E depends on the donor-to-acceptor separation distance r with an inverse 6th order law due to the dipole-dipole coupling mechanism:

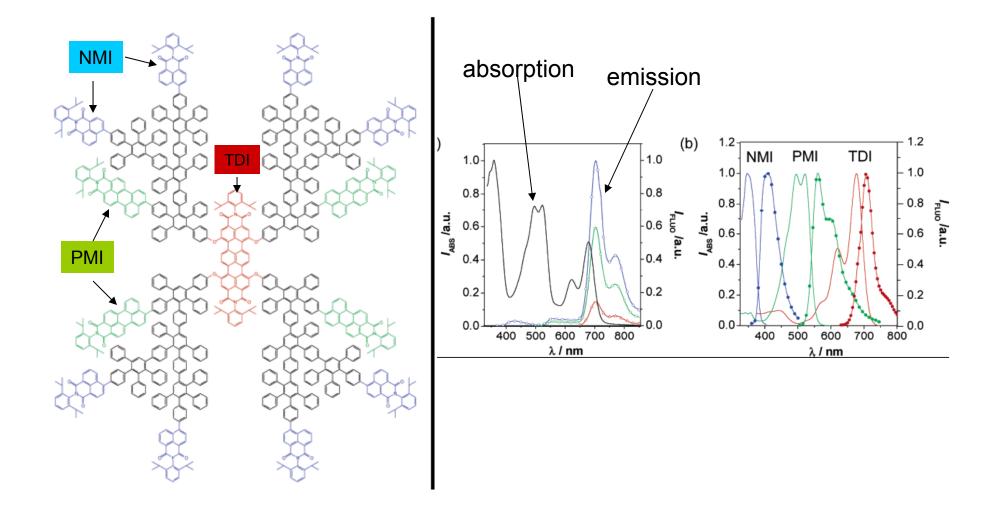
$$E = \frac{1}{1 + (r/R_0)^6}$$

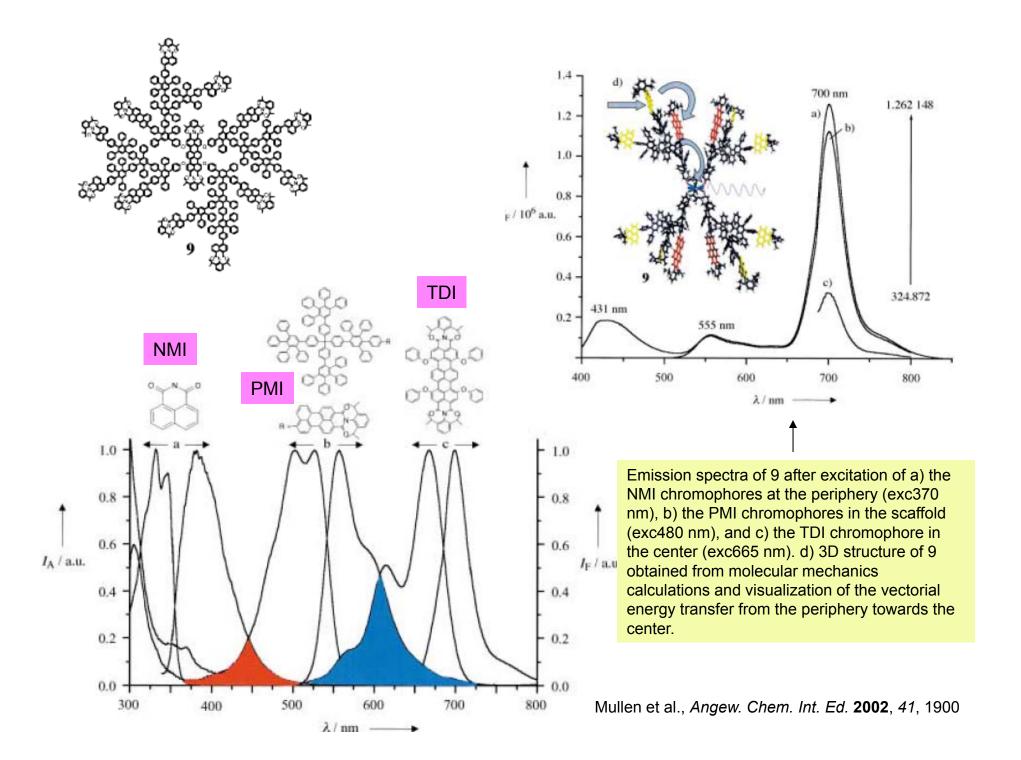
with R_0 being the Förster distance of this pair of donor and acceptor at which the FRET efficiency is 50%. The Förster distance depends on the overlap integral of the donor emission spectrum with the acceptor absorption spectrum and their mutual molecular orientation as expressed by the following equation:

$$R_0^6 = 8.8 \times 10^{23} \ \kappa^2 \, n^{-4} \, Q_0 \, J$$

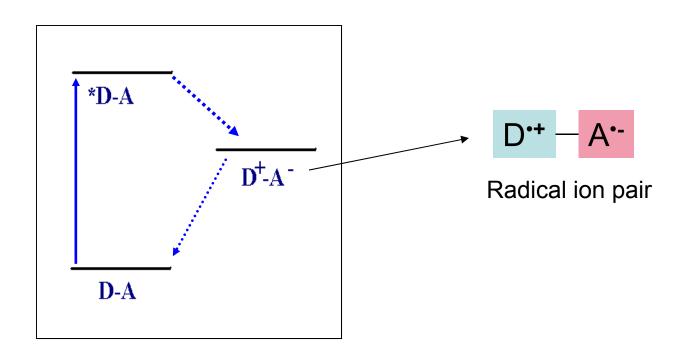
where κ^2 is the dipole orientation factor, n is the refractive index of the medium, Q_0 is the fluorescence quantum yield of the donor in the absence of the acceptor, and J is the spectral overlap integral.







Photoinduced Electron Transfer



Driving force for photoinduced electron transfer: Rehm-Weller equation for Thermodynamic analysis

$$\Delta G_{cs} = e(E_{ox}(D) - E_{red}(A)) - E_{00} - e^{2/4\pi\epsilon_{o}\epsilon_{s}R_{c}} - S$$
Coulombic attraction solvation term
$$\Delta G_{cs}$$

$$Excitation_{energy} E_{00}$$

$$Excit$$

 E_{ox} (D) and E_{red} (A) - Redox potentials (obtained electrochemically)

e = elementary charge, e=1 if units are eV

R_c= distance between D and A

 $\epsilon_{\text{EC}}\,$ - Dielectric constant of a solvent used in electrochemistry

es - Dielectric constant of a solvent used in electron transfer system

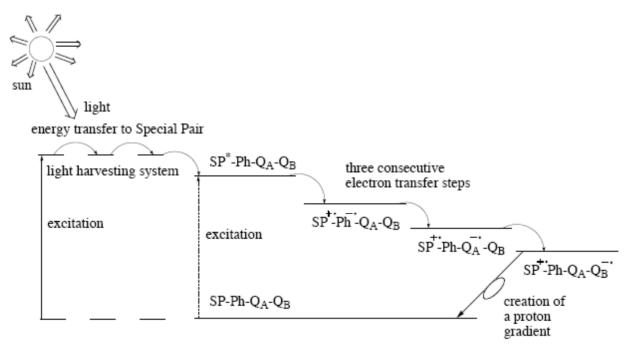
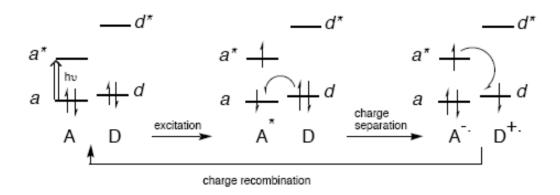


Fig. 2. Representation of the first events in photosynthesis. Light harvesting, followed by energy transfer to the special pair, and subsequently by three electron transfer steps. The charge separated state is used to created a transmembrane proton gradient.

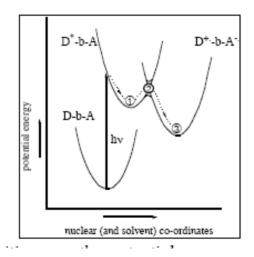
Rehm-Weller: useful but not precise

- E_{ox} (D) E_{red} (A) E₀₀ gives you an idea if you will get eT at all
- In polar solvents Coulombic term and solvation term are small and can be reliably estimated by Weller.
- In nonpolar solvents we have a problem Weller does not work well - Coulombic and solvation terms are significant. Weller does not deal well with solvent term in nonpolar solvents.
- Rule of thumb in nonpolar solvents for systems with D-A distance up to 15Å: calculate E_{ox} (D) E_{red} (A) E₀₀ then add 0.5 eV it will give you a (very) rough estimate of driving force.

Frontier Molecular Orbital Description

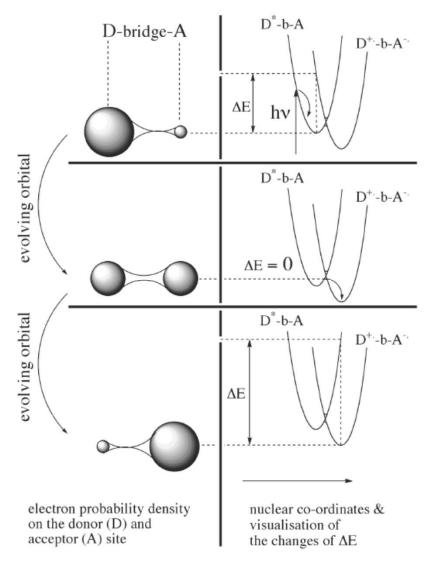


Parabolas Description



Electron transfer dynamics

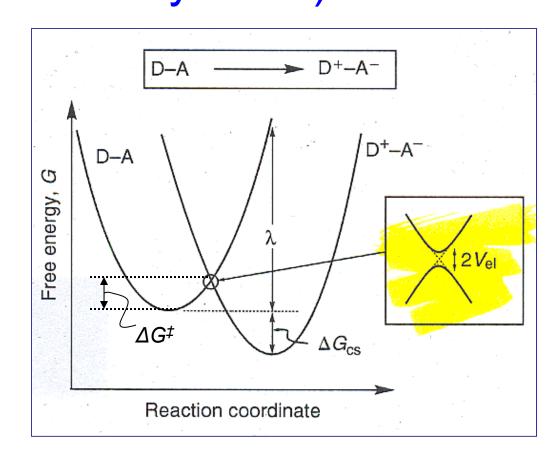
Visualization



- 1. After excitation the electron is still mainly lo calised on D, but there is already a small probability on A.
- **2.** At the crossing point (the barrier) there is an equal chance of finding the electron on both sides; $\Delta E = 0$, the electron is formally transferred.
- **3.** After relaxation into the well of the CT state the probability to find the electron on the A side is highest. ΔE has again increased sharply.

Marcus Theory (The Nobel Prize in Chemistry 1992)

From the analytical geometry of parabolas: $\Delta G^{\dagger} = (\lambda + \Delta G_{CS})^2 / 4\lambda$

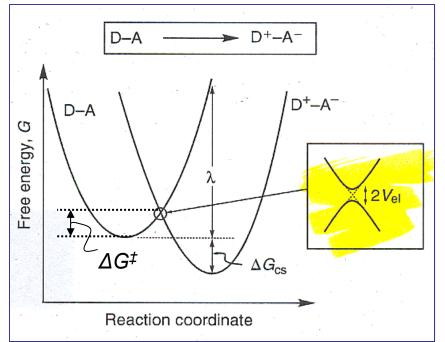


Classical Transition State Theory

$$k_{\rm ET} = \kappa_{\rm el} \nu_{\rm n} {\rm exp} \left[\frac{-\Delta G^{\dagger}}{k_{\rm B} T} \right] \tag{4}$$

where ν_n is the frequency of passage (nuclear motion) through the transition state $(D|A)^{\ddagger}$ ($\nu_n \sim 10^{13} \text{ s}^{-1}$), ΔG^{\ddagger} is the Gibbs energy of activation for the ET process, κ_{el} is the electronic transmission coefficient, k_B is the Boltzmann constant, and T is temperature. In the classical treatment κ_{el} is usually taken to be unity.

From the analytical geometry of parabolas: $\Delta G^{\dagger} = (\lambda + \Delta G_{CS})^2 / 4\lambda$



Marcus-Hush equation for electron transfer rate

$$k_{\rm et} = \frac{4\pi^2 |V_{\rm el}|^2}{h} \left\{ \frac{1}{4\pi \lambda k_{\rm B} T} \right\}^{1/2} \exp\left(\frac{-(\Delta G_{\rm cs} + \lambda)^2}{4\lambda k_{\rm B} T}\right)$$

Three important quantities that affect the magnitude of $k_{\rm et}$ are $V_{\rm el}$, $\Delta G_{\rm cs}$, and λ , the reorganization energy. The reorganization energy is an important concept in ET theory and is defined as the energy required to distort the reactant and its associated solvent molecules from their relaxed nuclear configurations to the relaxed nuclear configurations of the product and its associated solvent molecules.

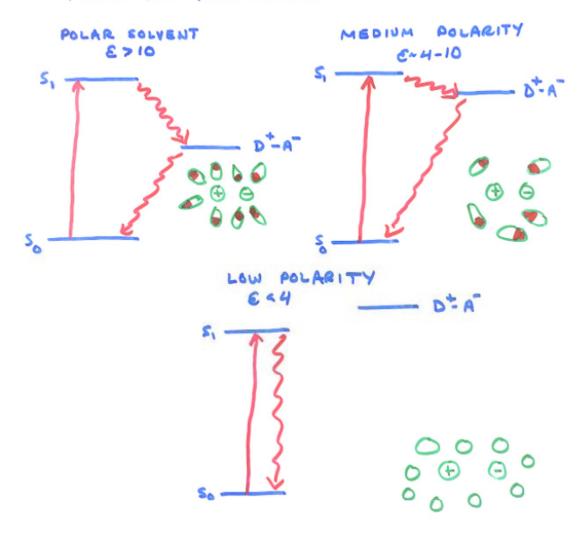
Reorganization Energy

$$\lambda_{\text{total}} = \lambda_{\text{int}} + \lambda_{\text{s}}$$

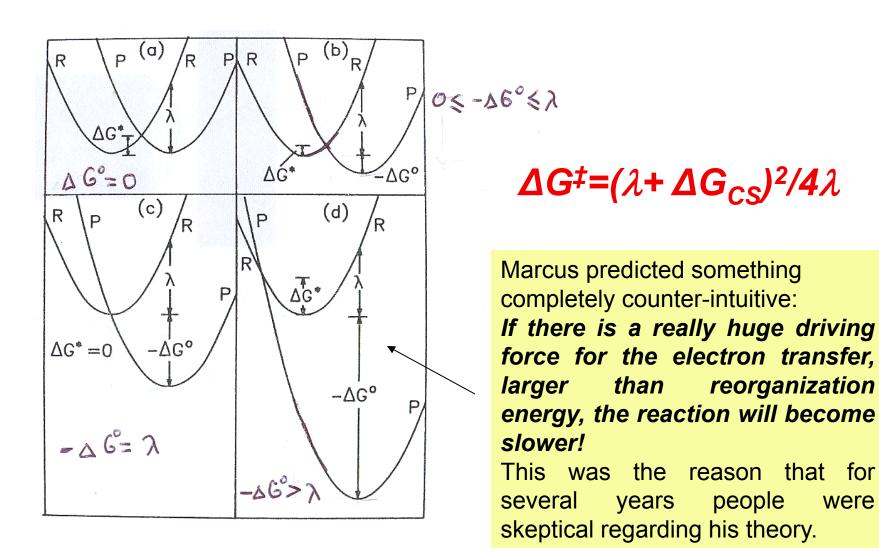
 λ_{int} – inner sphere reorganization energy. Called intramolecular reorganization energy. Arises from structural differences between the relaxed nuclear geometries of the reactant and product.

 λ_s – outer sphere reorganization energy. Called solvent reorganization energy. Arises from differences between the orientation and polarization of the solvent molecules surrounding the reactant and product.

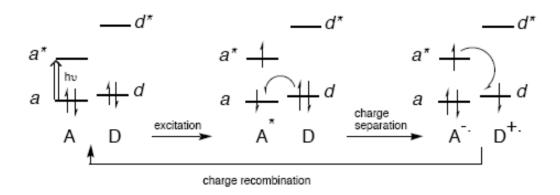
SOLVATION OF CHARGES BECOMES AN IMPORTANT ISSUE IN ELECTRON TRANFER REACTIONS



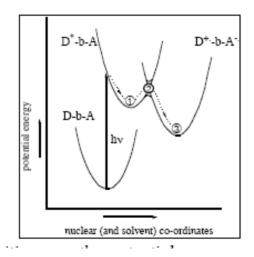
Inverted Region



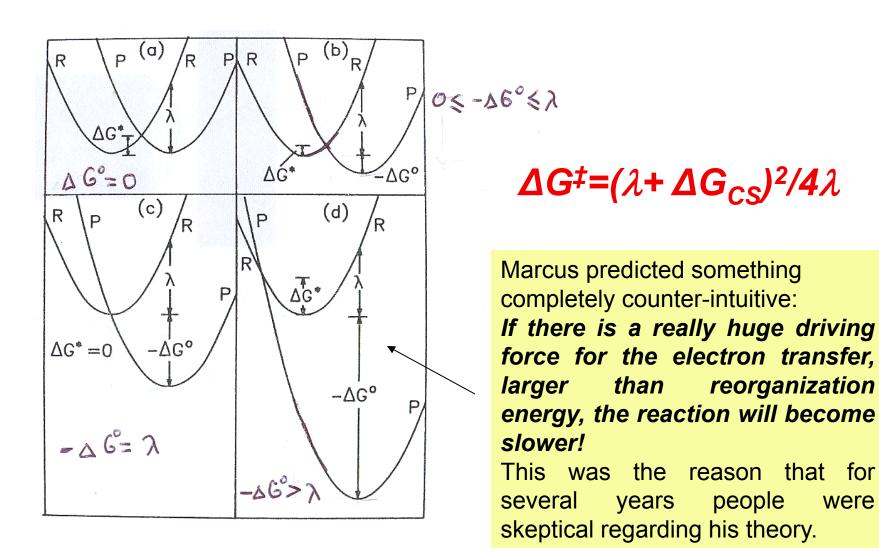
Frontier Molecular Orbital Description



Parabolas Description



Inverted Region



Inverted region - continued

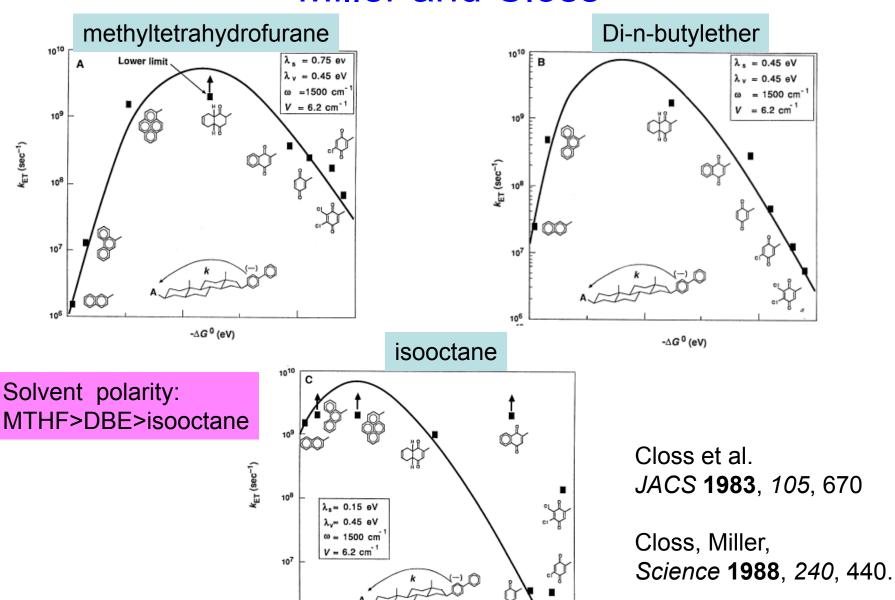
Marcus predicted something completely counterintuitive:

If there is a really huge driving force for the electron transfer, larger than reorganization energy, the reaction will become slower!

This was the reason that **for 30 years** (!) people were skeptical regarding his theory...until Closs and Miller demonstrated very clearly that inverted region exists.

They got Nobel Prize... for Marcus.

Miller and Closs



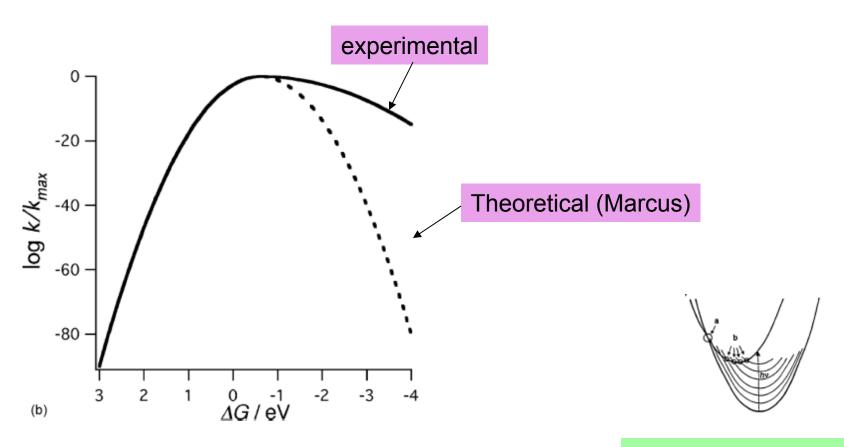
1.0

-∆G 0 (eV)

2.0

0.0

Inverted region and electronic coupling.

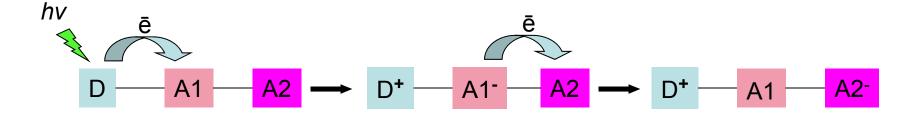


Inverted region: embedded curves, good vibrational coupling

Importance of the inverted region

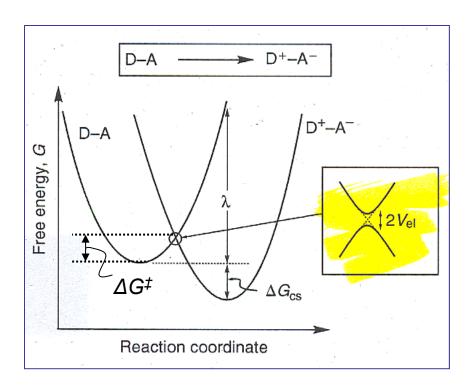
The Marcus theory predicts that, for a family of related reactants, k_{ET} should decrease with driving force (- ΔG^0), reach a maximum at - ΔG^0 = λ , and decrease as the driving force is increased further.

This is the *inverted region*, one key to photochemical energy conversion and storage in natural photosynthetic systems and to the design of molecular assemblies for artificial photosynthesis.



Electron transfer creates transiently stored, oxidative and reductive equivalents at the oxidized donor and reduced acceptor. If "recombination" by back electron transfer occurs in the inverted region, it is inhibited. This allows the redox equivalents to be transferred away from the initial site of excitation and utilized elsewhere. The role of the inverted region is paramount. The greater the energy stored, the greater the barrier to back electron transfer (the further electron goes the better – it will return slower due to larger driving force).

Electronic coupling

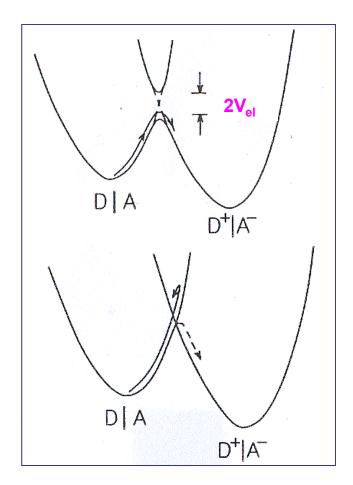


$$k_{\rm et} = \frac{4\pi^2 |V_{\rm el}|^2}{h} \left\{ \frac{1}{4\pi \lambda k_{\rm B} T} \right\}^{1/2} \exp\left(\frac{-(\Delta G_{\rm cs} + \lambda)^2}{4\lambda k_{\rm B} T}\right)$$

The matrix element V_{el} (*electronic coupling energy*) scales with the interaction energy between the donor orbital and the acceptor orbital that are associated with the migrating electron. This term depends on the overlap between two orbitals.

V_{el} fall off exponentially with increased interchromophore separation because of decreasing orbital overlap.

Adiabatic vs. Nonadiabatic Electron Transfer



The dividing line for electron transfer reactions can be roughly estimated by comparison the matrix element V_{el} with the thermal energy

Adiabatic: $V_{el} >> kT$ Nonadiabatic: $V_{el} << kT$

Adiabatic case: all species that have energy higher than activation energy will cross to the product state.

Nonadiabatic case: not all the species that reach the activation barrier cross over to the product surface.

Quantum Mechanical Corrections for Marcus Theory: vibronic (phonon) theory

Problems:

- Classical Marcus theory works well only if V_{el} ≥ kT
- Marcus theory does not predict temperature dependence correctly.
- Marcus theory does not explain electron transfer at very low temperatures.

Conclusion:

The assumption that the barrier should be always crossed is not always holds. Tunneling should be taken into account.

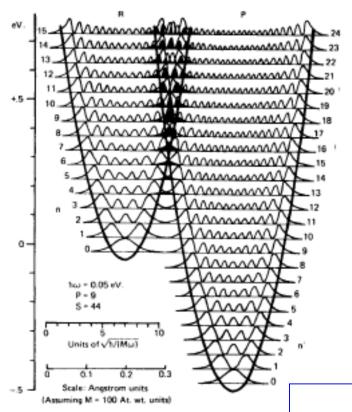


Figure 8. Schematic one-dimensional representation of the between reactant and product vibrational levels. The opti of the $\nu=0$ initial vibrational level is with the $\nu'=9$ pr Reproduced with permission from: DeVault, D. Quantum Tunneling in Biological Systems; Cambridge University P bridge, 1984. Copyright 1984 Cambridge University Pre

Vibrational overlap is of primary importance: electron transfer can occur above or below crossing point provided there is good vibrational overlap. Quantum corrections to Marcus theory dealing with vibrations (phonons) were introduced by Jortner and others.

Semiclassical eT theory (Jortner's theory):

$$k_{cs} = \frac{2\pi^{3/2}}{h\sqrt{\lambda_s k_B T}} (V)^2 \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{e^{-S} S^m}{m!} \exp \left[\frac{-(\lambda_s + \Delta G_{cs} + mhv_i)^2}{4\lambda_s k_B T} \right]$$

with the electron-vibronic (phonon) coupling $S = \lambda_i / h \nu_i$. Here ν_i is the average skeletal (IR)-vibration (in general between 300 and 2300 cm⁻¹). The " Σ " term indicates a summation over all "m" levels.

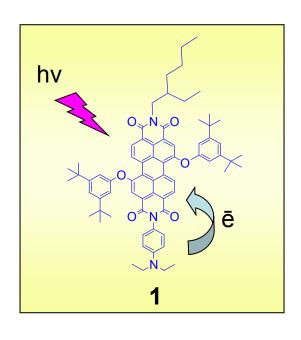
Barbara et al. describe it well

Factors that Influence Electron Transfer

Electron transfer rates depend on

- •Driving force ΔG⁰
- •Reorganization energy λ
- •Solvent (ΔG^0 , λ)
- •Electronic coupling V_{el}
- •Distance between donor (D) and acceptor (A) (ΔG^0 , λ , V_{el})
- •Orientation of D relative to A (V_{el})
- Temperature

Driving Force and Solvents



From Rehm-Weller equation

				* *			
	$E_{\scriptscriptstyle 1/2}^{\it RED}$	$E_{\scriptscriptstyle 1/2}^{\it OX}$	E _{S1} (eV)	$\Delta G_{CS}(eV)$		ΔG_{C}	_R (eV)
	(V)	(V)		MTHF	Toluene	MTHF	Toluene
1	-0.70	0.97	2.21	-0.67	-0.14	-1.58	-2.11

From transient absorption

	CS Time Co	onstant (ps)	CR Time Constant (ps)		
Compound	Toluene	MTHF	Toluene	MTHF	
1	0.7 ± 0.1	0.8 ± 0.3	16 ± 3	3.4 ± 0.5	

Slower charge recombination in less polar solvent indicates inverted region regime.

Rybtchinski, B., Sinks, L. E. & Wasielewski, M. R. *J. Phys. Chem. A* **2004**, *108*, 7497-7505.

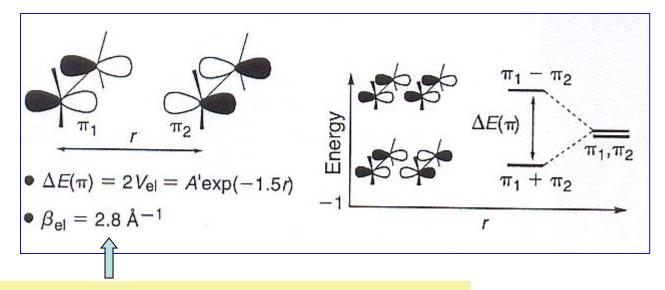
Distance dependence

```
V_{el} is proportional to \mathbf{e}^{-0.5\beta r} k_{ET} is proportional to \mathbf{e}^{-\beta r} \beta = damping factor \beta = distance
```

Large β – significant falloff of rates with distance Small β – rates are almost independent of distance (molecular wire)

Through-space distance dependence

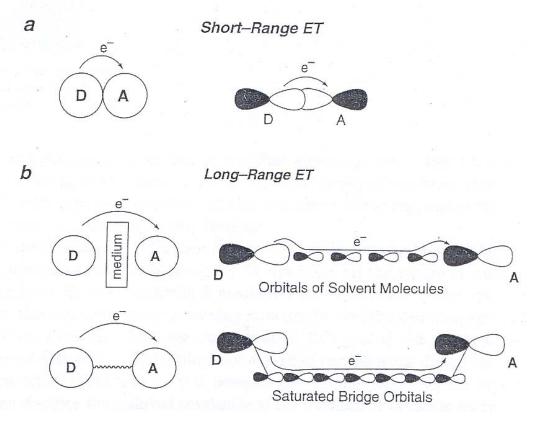
In the absence of any intervening medium (vacuum) the electronic coupling depends on direct through space overlap between the active orbitals of the donor and acceptor. Calculation for two ethylene molecules:



Large value for damping factor, which means that the eT rate occurring by a through-space mechanism should be attenuated by a factor as large as 20 per 1Å

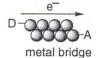
Bridge between donor and acceptor: how it influences eT

Figure 2. (a) Short-range ET. The donor and acceptor orbitals overlap strongly and ET takes place by a direct, through-space mechanism. (b) Long-range ET. Direct overlap between the donor and acceptor orbitals is negligible and ET occurs by an indirect mechanism involving electron tunnelling through the orbitals of the intervening medium, e.g. solvent molecules (upper) or a covalently linked saturated bridge (lower).



Hopping vs Superexchange

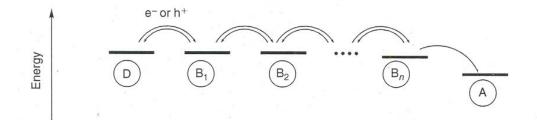
(a) Electrically conducting bridges: electron transport



polyacetylene bridge

molecular 'wire'

(b) Charge-hopping bridges: electron transport

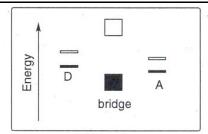


Hopping: charges reside on the bridge

(c) Electrically insulating bridges ('saturated' bridges): electron transfer



saturated hydrocarbon bridge



soliton band_

Superexchange: the bridge mediates electron transfer, although the charges never reside on it. One can say that the electron tunnels through the bridge.

Superexchange example: saturated bridge

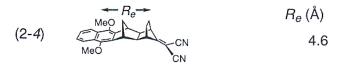


Table 1. Rate data for photoinduced charge separation and subsequent charge recombination in the dyads (2-n)

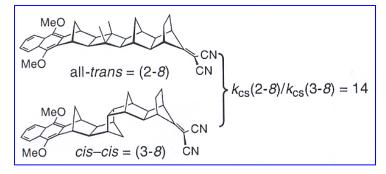
$$\bigcirc \text{OMe}$$

$$\bigcirc \text{CN}$$

System	Charge separation ra	Mean lifetime towards	
	Fluorescence measurements ^[68,70]	Pump-probe measurement ^[81]	charge recombination τ _{cr} [ns] ^B
(2-4)	≫5000	28 000	
(2-6)	3000	4890	0.5
(2-8)	670	1160	2.5
(2-9)	250	647	
(2-10)	120	180	43
(2-12)	13		297
(2-13)	1.2		1050

^A Measured in THF at 20°C. ^B From time-resolved conductivity measurements in 1,4-dioxane. [67,77,79,80]





Paddon-Row et al.