

# Theory of Fluorescence Depolarization by Anisotropic Brownian Rotations

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On the basis of a generalized diffusion equation for the rotational motion of an asymmetric rigid rotor a general expression for steady-state fluorescence depolarization has been obtained.

## 1. Introduction

The recently detected inertial effect on the behaviour of the fluorescence anisotropy  $r = \frac{3}{2} J_{\parallel} / J - \frac{1}{2}$  as a function of the viscosity  $\eta$  of a solvent for prolate luminescent molecule, the transition moment of which lies along its longer axis (see [1, 2] and refs. quoted there), was explained using the non-Markovian generalized diffusion equation [1]. The aim of the present note is to extend the previous results to the case of anisotropic diffusion and to derive the general expression for a steady-state depolarization. The problem is solved by reducing it to the case of Markovian diffusion and use of the final results of Chuang and Eisinger [3]. It is worthy of mention that the inertial effect upon  $r$  was recently considered by Sarshevskii *et al.* [4] who used the diffusion equation with time-dependent diffusion constant. This approximation is however worse in comparison with our approach [2].

The different treatments of the rotational Brownian motion of a nonspherical body in terms of a Fokker-Planck-Kramers equation or stochastic integrodifferential equation were presented in papers of Ford, Lewis, McConnell, Scaife, and Morita (see [5] and refs. quoted there) together with an application to the theory of dielectric relaxation.

## 2. Theory

Consider the rotational Brownian motion of a nonspherical body (molecule) assuming that the

axes 1, 2, 3 are the main ones of a friction tensor ( $\xi_{kl}$ ) and an inertial tensor ( $I_{kl}$ ). By  $p(\Omega, t)$  we denote the probability density of a given orientation  $\Omega$  of molecule at time  $t$ . Applying the method presented in [1] one can derive the following approximative integrodifferential equation (generalized diffusion equation) for the function  $p(\Omega, t)$ :

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} p(\Omega, t) = - \int_0^t \mathcal{H}[G(s)] p(\Omega, t-s) ds \quad (1)$$

where the operator  $\mathcal{H}[D]$ ,  $D = (D_1, D_2, D_3)$  is defined as

$$\mathcal{H}[D] = \sum_{k=1}^3 D_k \mathcal{L}_k^2, \quad (2)$$

and  $\vec{\mathcal{L}}$  is the quantum mechanical angular momentum operator;  $\{D_k\}$  – real numbers (cf. [3]). The functions  $G_k(s)$ ,  $k = 1, 2, 3$  are the angular velocity autocorrelation functions

$$G_k(s) = \langle \omega_k(s) \omega_k(0) \rangle, \quad s \geq 0. \quad (3)$$

The fluorescence anisotropy at time  $t$  after an instantaneous light pulse of excitation is given by

$$r(t) = \int d\Omega p(\Omega, t) R(\Omega), \quad (4)$$

where the functions  $p(\Omega, 0)$  and  $R(\Omega)$  are determined by the orientation of absorption and emission dipoles, respectively [3]. The steady-state fluorescence anisotropy for an exponential decay of fluorescence is expressed as

$$r = \frac{1}{\tau} \int_0^\infty e^{-t/\tau} r(t) dt, \quad (5)$$

where  $\tau$  is a mean fluorescence life time. Therefore introducing the Laplace transformation

$$f(t) \rightarrow \hat{f}(\lambda) = \lambda \int_0^\infty e^{-\lambda t} f(t) dt \quad (6)$$

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and using (1)–(4) and properties of transformation (6) we obtain

$$r = \hat{r} \left( \frac{1}{\tau} \right) = \int d\Omega \left\{ \left[ 1 + \tau^2 \mathcal{H} \left[ \hat{G} \left( \frac{1}{\tau} \right) \right] \right]^{-1} \cdot p(\Omega, 0) \right\} R(\Omega). \quad (7)$$

One can easily check that the formula (7) may be obtained from the corresponding expression for a Markovian diffusion equation [3]

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} p(\Omega, t) = -\mathcal{H}[D]p(\Omega, t) \quad (8)$$

if we replace  $D_k$  by  $\hat{D}_k \equiv \tau \hat{G}_k(1/\tau)$ . Hence we may use the results of paper [3] to obtain the following final expression:

$$r = 0.3 \left( \frac{4q_1q_2\gamma_1\gamma_2}{1+3(\hat{D}_3+\hat{D})\tau} + \frac{4q_2q_3\gamma_2\gamma_3}{1+3(\hat{D}_1+\hat{D})\tau} + \frac{4q_3q_1\gamma_3\gamma_1}{1+3(\hat{D}_2+\hat{D})\tau} + \frac{\beta+\hat{\alpha}}{1+(6\hat{D}+2\hat{A})\tau} + \frac{\beta-\hat{\alpha}}{1+(6\hat{D}-2\hat{A})\tau} \right). \quad (9)$$

Here

$\mathbf{q} = (q_1, q_2, q_3)$  – unit vector of emission dipole,

$\boldsymbol{\gamma} = (\gamma_1, \gamma_2, \gamma_3)$  – unit vector of absorption dipole,

$$\begin{aligned} \beta &= \sum_{k=1}^3 q_k^2 \gamma_k^2 - \frac{1}{3}, \\ \hat{\alpha} &= \frac{1}{\hat{A}} \sum_{k=1}^3 \hat{D}_k \left\{ (q_k^2 + \gamma_k^2 - 2q_k^2 \gamma_k^2) + \sum_{l \neq k} q_l^2 \gamma_l^2 \right\} \\ \hat{D} &= \frac{1}{3} \sum_{k=1}^3 \hat{D}_k, \\ \hat{A} &= \left[ \sum_{k=1}^3 \hat{D}_k^2 - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k \neq l=1}^3 \hat{D}_k \hat{D}_l \right]^{1/2} \end{aligned} \quad (10)$$

and

$$\hat{D}_k = \int_0^\infty e^{-t/\tau} \langle \omega_k(t) \omega_k(0) \rangle dt. \quad (11)$$

In order to calculate  $\hat{D}_k$  one may use the results of [5], which are exact in the case of a symmetrical body and approximative for an asymmetrical one. However, very often it is sufficient to use an exponential approximation for  $\langle \omega_k(t) \omega_k(0) \rangle$  which may be obtained from the following approximative

Langevin equation, which differs from the exact one [5] by terms of order  $(\omega_k \omega_l)$ :

$$I_k \frac{d\omega_k}{dt} = -\xi_k \omega_k + M_k(t), \quad k = 1, 2, 3. \quad (12)$$

Here  $\{I_k\}$   $\{\xi_k\}$  are the diagonal elements of the inertial and friction tensor, respectively;  $M_k(t)$  = random torque.

Within this approximation we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{D}_k &= D_k \frac{1}{1 + 6A_k D_k \tau}, \\ D_k &= \frac{kT}{\xi_k}, \quad A_k = \frac{I_k}{6kT\tau^2}. \end{aligned} \quad (13)$$

For a special case, if  $I_1 = I_2 = I$ ,  $\xi_1 = \xi_2 = \xi$ , and  $\mathbf{q}$  or  $\boldsymbol{\gamma}$  is parallel to the axis 3 we have the well-known formula [1], [2]

$$\begin{aligned} r &= r_0 \frac{1 + A\tau/\theta}{1 + (1 + A)\tau/\theta}, \\ \text{where} \quad \theta &= \frac{\xi}{6kT}, \quad A = \frac{I}{6kT\tau^2}, \\ r_0 &= 0.6 (\cos^2 \delta - \frac{1}{3}), \quad \delta\text{-angle between } \mathbf{q} \text{ and } \boldsymbol{\gamma}. \end{aligned} \quad (14)$$

### 3. Example

Consider a simple, but different from (14), example of application of formula (9). We assume a prolate shape of the molecule but with the transition moment (say  $\mathbf{q}$ ) perpendicular to the long axis. Moreover we assume for simplicity that

$$\begin{aligned} I_1 = I_2 = I \gg I_3 \quad \text{and therefore} \quad A_3 &= 0, \\ D_1 = D_2 = D \leq D_3, \\ q_1 = 1, \quad q_2 = q_3 = 0, \quad \gamma_1^2 &= \cos^2 \delta, \\ \gamma_2 = 0, \quad \gamma_3^2 &= 1 - \cos^2 \delta. \end{aligned} \quad (15)$$

Usually we assume that  $\xi_k \sim \eta$ , where  $\eta$  is the macroscopical viscosity of the solution. The experimental results may be represented as the function [1, 2]

$$r_0/r = g(1/\eta). \quad (16)$$

It is convenient to introduce a new variable  $\theta$ ,

$$\frac{1}{\theta} = \frac{1}{\tau} \frac{dg(x)}{dx} \Big|_{x=0} \cdot \frac{1}{\eta}, \quad (17)$$

and to compare the experimental results with theoretical expressions for the function

$$r_0/r = f(\tau/\theta). \quad (18)$$

After long but simple calculations one can obtain, using (9)–(13), the function  $f(\cdot)$  for the model described by (15) ( $\tau$  is assumed to be a constant).

$$y = f(x) = \frac{\{1 + F(x)H(x)\}\{1 + F(x)[2 - H(x)]\}}{1 + F(x)W(x)}. \quad (19)$$

Here

$$y = r_0/r, \quad x = \tau/\theta,$$

$$W(x) = 1 + \frac{0.2}{r_0} \frac{1 - \chi M(x)}{1 + 2\chi M(x)},$$

$$F(x) = \frac{x}{1 - \sigma} \left[ \frac{1}{1 + 2\chi} + \frac{2\chi M(x)}{1 + 2\chi} \right],$$

$$H(x) = \frac{3\chi M(x)}{1 + 2\chi M(x)},$$

$$M(x) = \left[ 1 + \frac{A}{1 - \sigma} x \right]^{-1},$$

$$A = \frac{I}{6kT\tau^2}, \quad \sigma = \frac{0.2}{r_0} \frac{1 - \chi}{1 + 2\chi} < 1,$$

$$r_0 = 0.6 [\cos^2 \delta - \frac{1}{3}], \quad \chi = D/D_3 \leq 1.$$

Figure 1 shows plots of the function  $y = f(x)$  for a few sets of parameters  $\chi, r_0, A$ .

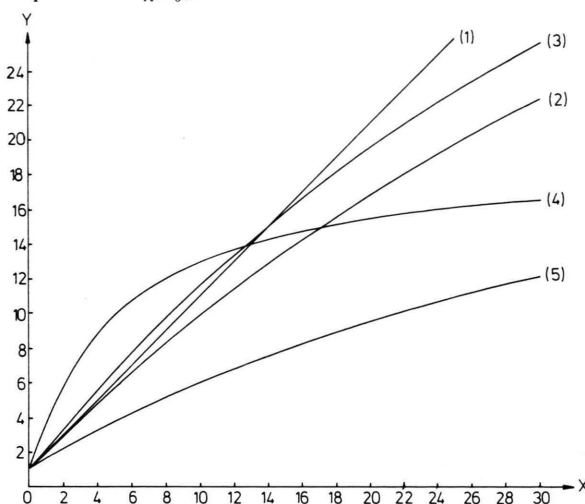


Fig. 1. Function  $y = f(x)$ .

- (1)  $\chi = 1, A = 0$  (Perrin formula);
- (2)  $\chi = 0.5, r_0 = 0.2, A = 0.01$ ;
- (3)  $\chi = 0.5, r_0 = 0.1, A = 0.007$ ;
- (4)  $\chi = 0.3, r_0 = 0.1, A = 0.02$ ;
- (5)  $\chi = 0.1, r_0 = 0.3, A = 0.01$ .

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