I. Introduction

Oxidation of amino acids with singlet oxygen (\(^{1}\text{O}_2\)) is an important process associated with biological aging and diseases, photodynamic therapy for cancer treatment, and photochemical transformations in the atmosphere. Because of these biological and photochemical implications, there has been considerable interest in studying these reactions. Most of the experiments are carried out in solution, and the reaction products are identified using chromatographic and spectrophotometric methods. These reactions are often referred to as “photooxidation” because \(^{1}\text{O}_2\) is generated with ultraviolet or visible light in the presence of sensitizers (i.e., \(\text{sensitizer} \rightarrow \text{sensitizer}^*\), followed by \(\text{sensitizer}^* \rightarrow \text{sensitizer} + \text{O}_2\)).

Since other reactive oxygen species (such as \(\text{O}_2^-\)) may be generated simultaneously during photosensitization and contribute to the reaction, together with various coupled experimental parameters (pH, solvent, temperature, etc.), it is difficult to characterize the reaction intermediates and early products, and to interpret the reaction mechanism.

Tyrosine is one of five amino acids that are most susceptible to oxidative damage by \(^{1}\text{O}_2\). It represents important sites of photooxidative damage in proteins. The solution-phase photo-oxidation rate of tyrosine depends on experimental conditions such as pH, as well as peptide linkages. It was recently proposed that at pH ≤ 7 and in the presence of an \(\alpha\)-amino group (e.g., free Tyr and Tyr-Gly), the reaction proceeds via a ring closure process to form an indolic hydroperoxide intermediate, which subsequently dissociates into the corresponding alcohol. However, in the absence of a free \(\alpha\)-amino group (e.g., Gly-Tyr), the cyclization reaction does not occur. Instead, the benzene ring-derived hydroperoxide is formed and slowly decays into alcohol.

Here we report a detailed study of ion-excited molecule reaction dynamics for protonated tyrosine (TyrH\(^+\)) and \(^{1}\text{O}_2\) in the gas phase using an electrospray-ionization (ESI) guided-ion-beam scattering apparatus. Integral cross sections were measured over a wide range of collision energies (\(E_{\text{col}}\)). To unravel the reaction mechanism, extensive theoretical approaches were employed. Quantum chemistry calculations were used to find complexes and transition states on the reaction coordinate, then Rice–Ramsperger–Kassel–Marcus (RRKM) theory was used to predict their properties. Finally, direct dynamics trajectory simulations were used to provide additional mechanistic insight.

Many groups are active in studying ion-molecule reactions of amino acids and small peptides, including using ion-molecule reactions as probes of gas-phase structures. One interesting feature of ESI is that it may allow biomolecules to retain their native-like structures when transferred from solution to the gas phase. This makes the native conformations of biomolecules at least metastable in the gas phase. As suggested by Bowers et al., the dielectric constant of the vacuum (\(\varepsilon_{\text{vacuum}} = 1\)) is close to that of the local environment of biomembranes (\(\varepsilon_{\text{protein}} = 2\sim4\), and \(\varepsilon_{\text{lipid}} = 2\)) thus the gas phase resembles a biomembrane and provides a simplified, yet not unrealistic, model of the membrane environment.

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II. Experimental Details

A. Instrument and Operating Conditions. A schematic representation of a new ESI, guided-ion-beam tandem mass spectrometer that was used in the present experiment, is shown in Figure 1. The basic concept is similar to guided-ion-beam apparatuses used by other groups. Here we describe the instrument in detail, emphasizing the unique features that are pertinent to our specific applications. The apparatus can be divided into five sections: (1) ion source; (2) hexapole ion guide; (3) quadrupole mass filter; (4) octopole ion guide and scattering cell; and (5) second quadrupole mass filter and detector. Briefly, ions are generated in an ESI source, thermalized in a hexapole ion guide and mass-selected using a quadrupole mass filter, and then interact with neutral reactant gas in an octopole ion beam guide. Ionic reactants and products are mass analyzed by a second quadrupole mass filter, and detected.

The sample solution containing tyrosine hydrochloride (MP Biomedicals) is prepared at a concentration of 5 × 10^{-4} M in HPLC grade methanol and water (1:1 volume ratio). The solution is sprayed into the ambient atmosphere through an electrospray needle using a syringe pump (KdScientific model 100), at a constant flow rate of 0.03 mL/h. The electrospray needle is prepared from 36-gauge hypodermic stainless steel tubing (0.11 mm o.d. × 0.05 mm i.d., Small Parts Inc.), and biased at 3000–3200 V relative to ground. The electrospray needle is mounted on an X-Y-Z stage, so that its position can be adjusted to optimize the ESI performance. The positively charged droplets formed from the electrospray needle are fed into a heated desolvation capillary assembly. The distance between the electrospray needle tip and the capillary entrance is ∼1 cm. The capillary assembly, similar to an arrangement used by Armentrout and co-workers, consists of a stainless steel capillary tubing (1.38 mm o.d. × 0.66 mm i.d. × 25.4 cm long, VICI Precision Sampling Inc.) which fits tightly into a 9.5 mm o.d. × 1.6 mm i.d. stainless steel tube (Higher Pressure Equipment Co.). The assembly is electrically isolated from the front flange using a polyetheretherketone (PEEK) insulator, which allows us to bias the capillary tubing at 100–110 V relative to ground and heat it to 170 °C using heating tape during experiments. Charged liquid droplets and solvated ions undergo continuous desolvation as they pass through the heated capillary, converting to gas-phase ions. Ions are focused toward the capillary axis by the strong gas flow and then transported through the long capillary. The capillary carries ions into the source chamber of the instrument, which is pumped by a 12 L/s rotary pump (Edwards model RV12). The pumping speed of the turbomolecular pump is adjusted to 70% of its full speed (300 L/s) to keep a pressure of ∼15 × 10^{-3} Torr in the second chamber. At this pressure range, the mean free path of most ions is around 1–2 mm. Therefore, the interaction of ions with background gas (mainly air and solvent molecules) in the hexapole ion guide leads to collisional focusing, and thermalization of internal and translational energies of ions. Ions subsequently pass into the third vacuum chamber through an aperture lens, enter a set of entrance focusing lenses followed by a quadrupole mass filter. The quadrupole mass filter uses Extrel 9.5 mm diameter trifilter rods operating at 1.2 MHz (Extrel model 150QC) to cover the mass-to-charge ratio range from 1 to 2000. Mass-selected ions are injected into an octopole ion guide via four focusing lenses, the last of which is held at near-ground potential. The octopole ion guide consists of eight 3.18 mm diameter centerless-ground stainless steel rods, 36.2 cm long, arrayed on a 1.27 cm diameter circle, with rf provided by another rf generator of the same design as that used for the hexapole ion guide. In addition, dc bias voltage is applied to the ion guide, and its amplitude can be varied from −500 to +500 V via an operational power supply (Kepco BOP 500M). The dc bias voltage allows control of the kinetic energy (E_{lab}) of ions in the laboratory frame, thereby setting the collision energy (E_{col}) between ions and reactant gas molecules in the center-of-mass frame, i.e., E_{col} = E_{lab} × m_{neutral} / (m_{ion} + m_{neutral}), where m_{neutral} and m_{ion} are masses of neutral and ionic reactants, respectively. Midway along its length, the octopole is surrounded by a scattering cell. The gas cell is constructed of 3.81 cm i.d. × 11 cm long stainless steel sleeve. To limit its gas conductance, a stainless steel octopole rod holder is attached to each end of the sleeve. The rod holders are isolated from the sleeve with PEEK insulators. Gas is introduced into the cell using stainless steel flexible tubing through a leak valve (Granville Philips model 203). Scattering cell gas pressure is measured by a capacitance manometer (MKS Baratron 690 head and 670 signal conditioner). Both product ions and the remaining reactant ions are collected by the octopole ion guide, extracted by a set of lenses, and mass-analyzed by the second quadrupole mass filter.
mass filter. For this experiment, the second mass filter (Extral 9.5 mm diameter trifilet rods) is operating at 2.1 MHz, giving a mass-to-charge ratio range from 1 to 500, but with higher ion transmission and better mass resolution. Ions are detected by an off-axis electron multiplier (DeTech model 411) operating in positive-ion pulse counting mode. The random detector counting noise is less than 1 s⁻¹. The third and fourth vacuum chambers are each pumped by a 700 L/s oil diffusion pump (Edwards Diffstak 160/700P), and the detector chamber is pumped by a 300 L/s oil diffusion pump (Edwards Diffstak 100/300P). During experiments, their pressures are typically 1 × 10⁻⁷, 2 × 10⁻⁶, and 1 × 10⁻⁷ Torr, respectively.

The detector signal is amplified by a 100 MHz preamplifier/discriminator (Advanced Research Instruments FT-100), and processed using the standard pulse-counting technique. The instrument is interfaced to two National Instruments PCI-6229 multifunction DAQ cards, controlled by LabVIEW programs developed for ion-counting, mass scans, ion kinetic energy calibrations, and cross section measurements, each with graphical display of the data.

The TyrH⁺ ion beam intensity is typically 10⁸ ions/s and constant within 10%. We performed retarding potential analysis (RPA) using the octopole as the retarder (i.e., primary ion beam constant within 10%). We performed retarding potential analysis, which corresponds to an energy spread of 0.06 eV in the center-of-mass laboratory frame (lower x-axis). Closed circles: ion intensity versus the octopole retarding voltage (upper x-axis). Open circles: the first derivative of the retarding potential analysis curve. Solid line: a Lorentzian curve fitted to the data points with a mean of 0.75 eV and a fwhm of 0.31 eV.

![Figure 2](image.png)

**Figure 2.** Kinetic energy profile for Na⁺(proline), shown in the laboratory frame (lower x-axis). Closed circles: ion intensity versus the octopole retarding voltage (upper x-axis). Open circles: the first derivative of the retarding potential analysis curve. Solid line: a Lorentzian curve fitted to the data points with a mean of 0.75 eV and a fwhm of 0.31 eV.

due to reactions inside the scattering cell. To calibrate the effective length of the scattering cell, we measured the cross section for collision-induced dissociation of Na⁺(proline) with Xe, and scaled our results to that of Moision and Armentrout, which was obtained using two different ion sources, a dc discharge/flow tube source and an ESI ion source. The calibration was performed at multiple cell pressures (0.05, 0.10, 0.15, and 0.25 mTorr), and the relative uncertainty in calibration is determined to be 10–15%. However, there may exist some absolute uncertainty due to the possibility of different collection efficiencies for reactant ions (Na⁺(proline), m/z = 138) and product ions (Na⁺, m/z = 23). The calibrated effective cell length is close to what was found for a similar guided-ion-beam scattering cells calibrated using Ar⁺ + D₂ → ArD⁺ + D. Therefore, the calibration suggests that, in fact, our collection efficiency is at least reasonably uniform for widely spread reactant and product ion masses.

An obvious issue regarding this ESI ion source is the internal energy distribution of the primary ions. Due to thermalization in the hexapole, we expect the internal energy to be approximately thermal. To address this issue, the energy dependence of the CID cross section of Na⁺(proline) + Xe was fit using the modified line-of-centers model:

\[
sig(E_{\text{col}}) = \frac{(E_{\text{col}} + E_{\text{vib}} + E_{\text{rot}} - E_0)^n}{E_{\text{col}}} \tag{1}\]

for \((E_{\text{col}} + E_{\text{vib}} + E_{\text{rot}}) > E_0\), otherwise, \(\sig(E_{\text{col}}) = 0\). Here \(\sig(E_{\text{col}})\) is the cross section, \(E_0\) is the threshold energy, \(n\) is a fitting parameter used to adjust the slope of \(\sig(E_{\text{col}})\) (equal to 1.0 in the canonical LOC model). To fit experimental data, this model \(\sig(E_{\text{col}})\) function is convoluted with the experimental broadening functions, including those from ion beam and target gas velocities and ion rotational and vibrational energies. The fitting was done using the program developed by Anderson and co-worker. Our interest is in probing the distribution of reactant ion vibrational energy. To this end, we used values of \(E_0 = 1.94\) eV and \(n = 1.5\) determined by Armentrout et al. For target xenon atoms, a Maxwell–Boltzmann distribution of velocities at 300 K was used. For Na⁺(proline) ions, we used the RPA measured kinetic energy distribution (Figure 2), and assumed a Maxwell–Boltzmann distribution of rotational energy at 300 K, leaving only \(E_{\text{vib}}\) adjustable (\(E_{\text{rot}}\) is simply a scaling factor, it does not affect the threshold or curvature of the cross section). In the fitting, the vibrational energy distribution is a function of \(E_{\text{vib,peak}}\):

\[
P(E_{\text{vib}}) = \frac{(E_{\text{vib}})^{1/2} \times \exp(-E_{\text{vib}}/2E_{\text{vib,peak}})}{(E_{\text{vib,peak}})^{1/2} \times \exp(-0.5)} \tag{2}\]

where \(E_{\text{vib,peak}}\) is the most probable vibrational energy of the Boltzmann distribution by summing over the partition function. Vibrational frequencies of Na⁺(proline) were calculated at the B3LYP/6-311G** level of theory and scaled by a factor of 0.9613. The model \(\sig(E_{\text{col}})\) was run through a Monte Carlo simulation that includes all experimental broadening factors. For each experimental \(E_{\text{col}}\), the simulation was repeated for 20000 samples, thereby building up a simulated cross section for comparison with the experiment. Due to the large number of vibrational modes in Na⁺(proline), kinetic shifts in the threshold...
are expected; i.e., collision energy significantly in excess of the dissociation limit is required to drive fragmentation on the experimental time scale (200−500 μs). To correct for the kinetic shifts, RRKM lifetimes were calculated with the program of Zhu and Hase, assuming orbiting transition states for kinetic shifts, RRKM lifetimes were calculated with the program of Zhu and Hase,35 assuming orbiting transition states for dissociation. The RRKM results were then used to decide each sample would lead to detectable dissociation or not. The kinetic shift for this system is around 0.15 eV.

Figure 3 shows experimental cross sections for collision-induced dissociation of Na⁺(proline) with Xe as a function of collision energy. Open circles: experimental cross sections. Solid line: simulation based on the modified line-of-centers model.

C. Generation of Singlet Molecular Oxygen. One of the unique features of this experiment is the fact that the neutral reactant is an electronically excited state. Singlet molecular oxygen (a1Δg) is generated by microwave discharge in a 1:1 mixture of O₂:Ar. The gas flow from the leak valve passes through a 6.3 mm o.d. × 3.0 mm i.d. alumina discharge tube surrounded by an Evenson resonant microwave cavity, which is excited using a 2450 MHz microwave power supply (Optos Instruments, model MPG-4). The exit end of the discharge tube is coated by mercuric oxide to remove O atoms. The discharge is about 40 cm from the scattering entrance, and the light from the discharge is trapped to avoid direct photolysis of the ions or production of background ions by photodesorption from the ion guide surface. When the gas pressure of the scattering cell is 0.3 mTorr, the pressure in the discharge tube is 120 mTorr, and the flow velocity inside the tube is 960 cm/s. The discharge is ignited by a Tesla spark coil (ElectroTechnic Products Inc., model BD-10AS), and the forward microwave power is more than 20 W. At a pressure of 120 mTorr, it is difficult to obtain a stable discharge of pure oxygen without causing arcing. Adding argon improves the discharge stability. The presence of Ar does not affect the O₂ reaction measurement, because Ar is unreactive with TyH⁺, except for collision-induced dissociation, which can be measured independently. The collision cross section (σcoll) taken as the greater of the ion-induced dipole capture (σcap)36 and hard sphere cross section (σhard-sphere), was about 40−50 Å² for both O₂ + TyH⁺ and Ar + TyH⁺. σhard-sphere was calculated from the orientation-averaged contact radii of TyH⁺ and O₂ (or Ar), and exceeds σcap for Ecol > 0.3 eV. The pressure of O₂/Ar in the scattering cell is maintained at 0.3−0.36 mTorr to provide reasonable signals for the small reaction cross section of the present system, while keeping multiple collision effects to an insignificant level. In this range of pressure, the probability of TyH⁺ ions undergoing a single collision is ~15%, and of double collisions is <3%. The majority of TyH⁺ ions (>82%) pass through the scattering cell without any interaction with Ar or O₂. To ensure that the ¹O₂ yield is constant over our pressure range, a consistency check was performed by measuring cross sections at cell pressure of 0.3 m Torr and 0.36 mTorr, with excellent agreement. Higher or lower cell pressures were not used, to avoid significant multiple collisions or unstable discharge conditions. The discharge cavity is cooled by air blown into the interior of the cavity, and the temperature of the discharge tube is kept below 55 °C. We calculated that the residence time of gas in the discharge is 1−2 ms, and the specific energy deposition per molecule (calculated from forward microwave emission power, the power reflected from the cavity, and the density of gas) is 14 eV.

It has been reported that vibrational excitation of O₂ molecules is negligible in microwave discharge as examined by monitoring coherent anti-Stokes Raman scattering from O₂(3Σg−) therefore, most O₂(3Σg−) molecules are in the vibrational ground state. The absolute concentrations of O₂(a1Δg), O₂(b1Σg−), and O(Π) were not determined using emission detection in the present experiment, but such a discharge typically produces 2.5−9% O₂(a1Δg), 10−3−10−2% O₂(b1Σg−), and 10−4% O(Π).42,43 We calculated the deactivation of ¹O₂ (a1Δg) due to self-quenching and collisional quenching by the wall and gaseous species in the downstream tubing. The overall quenching rate is ~0.05 s⁻¹, and the travel time of ¹O₂ (a1Δg) downstream is <50 ms; thus the deactivation of ¹O₂ (a1Δg) during its residence time in the system is <0.3%. The quenching of ¹O₂(b1Σg−) is spin-allowed and thus is ~10³ times more efficient than that of ⁰O₂ (a1Δg).36 The lifetime of O atoms with respect to recombination is in the range of milliseconds under the conditions of our inlet line, and therefore, any O atoms not removed by collision with mercuric oxide would decay along the gas line. We measured the mass spectra of the background gas in the octopole chamber using an electron impact ionization source, and found no increase of O⁺ intensity when the microwave discharge lights.

To check the reactivity of TyH⁺ toward ground state O₂ and Ar, we run the experiments with ground state O₂, and with pure Ar (with the discharge on and off) at the same total cell pressure. Because the cross section we are measuring for reaction of TyH⁺ and ¹O₂ is small, it is important to minimize systematic variation in experimental conditions that might be caused by drifting potentials, changes in ion beam intensities, ¹O₂ yield, etc. In the experiments, we cycled through the different collision energies several times. The RPA measurements of primary ions were performed before and after each experiment to check the initial kinetic energy of the primary ion beam. The entire experiment was repeated several times to check the reproducibility. On the basis of the reproducibility of the cross section measurements taken over a 3 week period, we estimate that the relative error is <20%.

III. Computational Details

To aid in reaction coordinate interpretation, ab initio calculations were performed at the B3LYP/6-21G and B3LYP/6-31+G* levels of theory, using Gaussian 03 (C.01). Geometries were optimized by calculating the force constants at every step. Vibrational frequencies and zero-point energies were scaled by a factor of 0.9613 and 0.9804, respectively. All the transition
The error from inadequate sampling of reactant parameter space is the same for all batches, and tends to cancel when comparing batches for different impact parameters.

All trajectories started with an initial center-of-mass reactant separation of 9.0 Å, and were terminated either when the distance between the final products exceeded 9.0 Å, or after 2000 steps. The error in the energy due to the long-range potential at 9 Å is less than 7 meV. Approximate one thousand trajectories were calculated, each taking ~260 CPU hours on an Intel dual-core based cluster. For trajectory visualization we used the program gOpenMol.52 Detailed analysis of individual trajectories and statistical analysis of the trajectory ensemble was done with programs written for this purpose.50,53–55

One obvious issue with using the QCT method to probe dynamics is that vibrational energy is not quantized. At the start of the trajectories, vibrational energy is partitioned appropriately to represent the initial internal temperature. Lack of quantization allows unphysical distribution of energy between vibrational modes during and after collisions,56,57 including having trajectories where the final \( E_{\text{z gördert}} \) is below the zero point level. Because we are working at high collision energies, such obviously unphysical behavior is not observed in our trajectories. We note that the purpose of our trajectory simulations is to probe the gross features of the reaction mechanism, particularly at early times in the collisions; thus errors from classical treatment of the nuclear motions should be minimal.

IV. Results and Discussion

A. Integral Cross Section. For TyrH\(^+\) (m/z 182) + \(^1\)O\(_2\) product ions are observed at m/z 180 over the collision energy range 0.1–3 eV. At high collision energies, product ions are also observed at m/z 165 and 136, even when the O\(_2\) microwave discharge is off. Products with m/z 165 and 136 correspond to the elimination of NH\(_3\) and of (H\(_2\)O + CO), respectively, from TyrH\(^+\), and are attributed to collision-induced dissociation.58–60 Product ions of m/z 180, which are not observed with Ar or ground state O\(_2\), correspond to the transfer of two hydrogen atoms from TyrH\(^+\) to form H\(_2\)O\(_2\) (referred to as H\(_2\)T channel). There are four possible routes leading to the H\(_2\)T channel as shown below and the product structures are given in Figure 6. The energetics are derived from B3LYP/6-31+G\(^*\) calculations. In principle, the m/z 180 product ions could also be due to the elimination of H\(_2\) by collision-induced dissociation of TyrH\(^+\). However, we can discount this channel, except perhaps at high energies, because it is calculated to be at least 1.1 eV endergonic.

As discussed above, the concentrations of O and O\(_2\)(b\(_2\)Σ\(^+\)) in the scattering cell are negligible. O\(_3\) is another species that potentially could be produced in the discharge or during quenching of \(^1\)O\(_2\).49 O\(_3\) can react with TyrH\(^+\), and the main ozonation product is dihydroxyl phenylalanine formed by addition of one oxygen atom.51,62 Because no (TyrH + O\(_3\)) (m/z 198) ion is observed, we conclude that the ozone concentration is also negligible, and therefore, that H\(_2\)O\(_2\) is a product from the reaction with \(^1\)O\(_2\).

Production of H\(_2\)O\(_2\) from reaction of TyrH\(^+\) with \(^1\)O\(_2\) is surprising and has not been reported in solution-phase photo-oxidation. In fact, despite the significant body of work probing \(^1\)O\(_2\) chemistry, there is little known about production of H\(_2\)O\(_2\) from \(^1\)O\(_2\) reactions with biomolecules. We are aware of only a few previous studies looking at production of H\(_2\)O\(_2\) from \(^1\)O\(_2\)-mediated oxidation. One was the reaction of \(^3\)O\(_2\) and ascorbate in solution, reported by Buettner et al.53 Subsequently the same group reported a 1:1 stoichiometry and proposed a hydroperoxide intermediate.64 Antibodies could generate H\(_2\)O\(_2\) from \(^1\)O\(_2\),
HOC₆H₄CH₂CH(COOH)NH₃⁺ + O₂ → HOC₆H₄CH₂CH(COOH)NH₃⁺ + H₂O₂ (HE5) ΔH_rxn = −1.37 eV
HOC₆H₄CH₂CH(COOH)NH₃⁺ + H₂O₂ → HOC₆H₄C(C=O)H₂C(=O)(COOH)=NH₃⁺ + H₂O₂ (HE6) ΔH_rxn = −1.52 eV
OC=(C₃H₃CH₂CH(COOH)NH₃⁺ + H₂O₂ → OC=(C₅H₇CH₂CH(COOH)NH₃⁺ + H₂O₂ (HE7) ΔH_rxn = −0.64 eV
OC=(C₅H₇CH₂CH(COOH)NH₃⁺ + H₂O₂ → OC=(C₅H₇CH₂CH(COOH)NH₃⁺ + H₂O₂ (HE8) ΔH_rxn = −0.75 eV

and the process is catalytic. It is interesting to note that antibodies harbor tyrosine, although in that paper tyrosine is interpreted as a photosensitizer for ¹O₂ generation. More recently, Eyte et al. reported production of H₂O₂ in the reactions of ¹O₂ with C₃H₇O₂ and (CH₃)₂CHO. The biological implication of these reactions is that locally produced ¹O₂ with a short lifetime can diffuse to distant targets in biological systems.

We will focus the rest of our discussion on the H₂T channel, producing H₂O₂ from ¹O₂. The integral cross section for the H₂T channel is given in Figure 4, over the E_{col} range from 0.1 to 3.0 eV, in the center-of-mass frame. Note that the absolute values of cross sections were calculated using a 5% ¹O₂ yield in the microwave discharge. We obtained the value of 0.5% on the basis of the specific energy deposition per molecule in the discharge. The correlation between ¹O₂% and specific energy deposition in O₂ molecules is independent of the discharge type. In the present experiment, the specific energy deposition is 14 eV per molecule, which corresponds to a 5% ¹O₂ yield. Our calculated ¹O₂ yield is well within the reported range of 2.5–9%. under similar microwave discharge conditions, measured using ¹O₂ emission detection schemes.

We state that the absolute uncertainty in the cross section, arising largely from uncertainty in the ¹O₂ concentration, could be as large as a factor of 2. This source of uncertainty does not affect the relative cross section, i.e., the collision energy dependence, which is our primary interest here. The relative uncertainty is estimated to be ~20%. The reaction is strongly suppressed by collision energy at low E_{col}, becoming energy independent at E_{col} > 1.0 eV. Note that the various CID channels do not interfere with H₂O₂ production at low E_{col}, because they have thresholds estimated to be between 1.1 and 1.7–1.8 eV (calculated at B3LYP/6-31+G*). The nearly energy-independent cross section above ~1 eV may include a contribution from the H₂ elimination CID channel, which is ~1.1 eV endothermic. There is a decrease of the cross section at our lowest E_{col}. Since heavy ion/light neutral kinematics for the present system is expected to result in a good collection efficiency for product ions at low E_{col}, a dip of cross section suggests that there may be a bottleneck or barrier, or another channel overwhels and shuts down the H₂T channel.

Based on the estimated cross section values, the reaction efficiency (ε_{reaction}/ε_{collision}) is only ~3% at E_{col} = 0.2 eV, drops to 2.5% at E_{col} = 0.5 eV, and drops to less than 1% at E_{col} above 1.0 eV. One interesting mechanistic question is why the reaction efficiency is so low, despite the fact that the reaction is exothermic. The extremely low efficiency may reflect interchannel competition between the chemical reaction and physical quenching of ¹O₂.

B. Reaction at Low Collision Energies.

1. Reaction Coordinate. One issue for interpretation of amino acid chemistry is that amino acids exist in various geometric conformations resulting from the flexibility of their structures. The α-amino nitrogen is the preferred protonation site for tyrosine. Considering all possible conformations, 3 orientations for the C=O−C bond, 2 for −COOH, 2 for carboxyl −OH, and 2 for phenolic −OH, a total of 24 conformations are expected for TyrH⁺. Eighteen of these are found to be stable at B3LYP/6-31+G* level of theory. Their structures and relative energies (with respect to 2B, the lowest energy conformation at B3LYP/6-31+G*) are summarized in Figure 5. Each structure represents a pair of conformers, corresponding to two different orientations of the phenolic −OH on the ring, with small energy differences (within 10 meV). This is consistent with those found for neutral tyrosine. Calculations of the reaction coordinate were focused on one of the most stable conformations, 1A in Figure 5. (1A is the lowest energy conformation at the level of B3LYP/6-21G which we used for trajectory simulations.) It is certainly possible that interconversion between various conformations might occur in the course of reaction. It seems unlikely, however, that different conformations would significantly change the reaction coordinate, and our trajectory calculations confirm this conclusion.

Ab initio computational results for the reaction coordinate of TyrH⁺ + O₂ are summarized in Figure 6, with the reactants shown near the center at zero energy. The energies are from a combination of B3LYP/6-21G and B3LYP/6-31+G* calculations. Eight weakly bound complexes (C1–C8) and eight covalently bound complexes (including six endoperoxides and two hydroperoxides) were found. We attempted to locate transition states (TSs) connecting the complexes to reactants and products, and those found are indicated in Figure 6. The details of the geometries for these complexes, TSs, and products are available upon request to the corresponding author. C1–C4 can be characterized as reactant-like, electrostatically bound complexes. All four complexes have O₂ oriented parallel to the phenol ring, with the closest distances between O₂ and the phenol ring being 1.9–2.4 Å. The affected carbon atoms are slightly displaced from the ring plane toward O₂. The binding energies are ~1.2 eV (with respect to reactants) for C1 and C2, and ~0.3 eV for C3 and C4. C1 and C2 are more stable than C3 and C4, because of the hydrogen bonding between amino hydrogen and O₂. C5–C8 are hydrogen-bonded complexes. C5 has both −C=H and −NH₃ hydrogen atoms bonded to O₂ moiety with H···O distances of 1.8–2.3 Å. C6 has the hydrogen bonds formed between −C=H/C₅H₅ and O₂ with H···O distances of 1.8–2.5 Å. C7 and C8 have hydrogen bonds between phenol H and O₂ moiety with H···O distances of 1.8 Å. The binding energies of C5 and C6 are ~0.5 eV with respect to the reactants, and those of C7 and C8 are ~0.72 eV. Presumably, C1 and C2, C3 and C4, and C5 and C6 can interconvert rapidly. Because no rearrangement is required to form all these reactant-like complexes, it is unlikely that there would be significant activation barriers inhibiting their formation.

Bicyclic endoperoxides (E1A/B, E2, E3A/B, and E4) and hydroperoxides (H7 and H8) are covalently bound intermediates. Endoperoxides can be grouped on the basis of their orientations. Endoperoxides E1A/B and E2, converted from weak complexes C1 and C2 via TS1A/1B and TS2, have oxygen atoms bonded to two para-C atoms of the phenol ring with the backbone bent toward O₂. Endoperoxides E3A/B and E4, are analogues to E1A/B and E2, except that the backbone is bent away from O₂. For E1A/B and E3, the hydrogen bonds between amino hydrogen and O₂ moiety help stabilize the structures. Consequently, the energies of E1A/B and E2 are lower by 1 eV compared to those of E3A/B and E4. Hydroperoxides H7 and
H8 (both of which were observed in the trajectory simulations) are converted from C7 and C8, via an ene reaction with abstraction of the phenolic H atom. In the solution, the oxidation of para-alkyphenol with 1O2 results in para-hydroperoxy-quinols. However, this structure is not observed in our direct trajectory simulations. Note that the nascent endoperoxides and hydroperoxides have high internal energies. Various fragmentation pathways of these complexes can be expected, such as dissociation back to reactants, elimination of H2O2, or decay to ground state 1O2.

The calculations suggest possible pathways leading to H2T products at low collision energies. Hydroperoxides H7 and H8 can eliminate H2O2 to give the corresponding H2T products. Elimination of H2O2 is common for allylic hydroperoxides in the presence of a labile hydrogen on a neighboring atom. More recently, Davies et al. reported production of H2O2 from collision-induced dissociation of hydroperoxide products generated from sensitized photooxidation of tryptophan, valine and leucine. The structures of H2T product ions could not be determined by the present experiment, and the structures of HE7 and HE8 in Figure 6 are from ab initio calculations (we took off an H2O2 moiety and used the remaining structures of the hydroperoxides as the initial structures for geometry optimizations). We also ran trajectory simulations for hydroperoxides for several picoseconds at HF/3-21G, with randomly distributed internal energy equivalent to what the complex would have in reaction. During the trajectory time, the benzene ring breaks between C-OOH and C-O, which supports the calculated structures of HE7 and HE8. The heats of reaction (ΔH_rxn) for HE7 and HE8, are calculated to be −0.64 and −0.75 eV, respectively. We were not able to locate the transition states from H7 and H8 to HE7 and HE8 but would not expect activation barriers above the reactant energy for H2O2 elimination. Complexes C5 and C6 might act as intermediates for direct H2T. Two low energy pathways are found linking C5 and C6 to H2T products, either transferring two H atoms from −C=H and −NH3 of C5 (via TS5), or transferring two H from −C=H and −C=H2 of C6 (via TS6). ΔH_rxn values for corresponding products HE5 and HE6 are −1.37 and −1.52 eV, respectively. However, there are higher energy barriers associated with these two channels (+0.17 eV for TS5 and −0.13 eV for TS6). We cannot exclude the existence of some additional reaction pathway(s) leading to H2O2 but conclude that the pathways included in Figure 6 are certainly important.

2. Complex-Mediated Mechanism? To evaluate whether the complexes and reaction paths identified in ab initio calculations can account for the experimental observation, we have to calculate the reaction efficiency expected from statistical decay of the intermediate complexes. We first used the ratio of the density of states (DOS) in these complexes to determine the relative formation efficiencies so that we can determine which complexes might have significant contributions to the “statistical” reaction. The DOS would also determine the importance of each structure if interconversion between complexes is facile. The DOS is energy dependent, and it turns out that at low E_col only complexes C1, C2, C7, and C8 are important. Complexes C3−C6 have high energies and low DOS, making their contributions negligible. For this reason, only C1, C2, C7, and C8 are considered further. The DOS ratios for (C1 + C2):(C7 + C8) are 97.5:2.5 at E_col = 0.1 eV, 96.4 at E_col = 0.2 eV, and 95.5 at E_col = 0.5 eV.

Besides formation efficiency, the mechanistic importance of the complexes depends on their lifetimes and decomposition branching. We calculated RRKM rates for decomposition of each complex for all decomposition channels indicated by dashed lines in Figure 6. No barriers are expected for decay of these complexes “back to reactants”; thus orbiting transition states have been assumed. The orbital angular momentum L was estimated from the collision cross sections, i.e., L = µν_c (σ_col/τ)^1/2, where µ and ν_c are the reduced mass and relative velocity of collision, respectively. At low collision energies (E_col < 0.5 eV), these complexes have lifetimes ≥10 ps. For comparison, the classical rotational period of the complex estimated using the average angular momentum is 7 ps at E_col = 0.1 eV, decreasing to 4 ps at E_col = 0.5 eV. We also estimated the direct reaction time, taken as the time required for 5 Å motion at the relative speed of the reactants. This gives a measure of how long a direct collision would last at the same collision energy. This “fly by” time ranges from 0.6 psec at E_col = 0.1 eV to 0.27 ps at E_col = 0.5 eV. The complex lifetimes are, thus, significantly longer than the “fly by” times, and comparable to the complex rotational periods.

However, the existence of suitable complexes does not mean that the mechanism is necessarily complex-mediated. A better test is to compare the experimental and RRKM predicted reaction efficiency. RRKM calculations predict that the dominant decay channel for C1 and C2 corresponds to forming endoperoxides, with negligible branching back to reactants (<0.1%). At low E_col the dominant decay channel for C7 and C8

Figure 4. Cross sections for production of H2O2 from the reaction of protonated tyrosine with 1O2, as a function of collision energy.

Figure 5. Different conformations of protonated tyrosine calculated at B3LYP/6-31+G*, and their energies relative to 2B (indicated below each structure, in eV). Note that the rotation of the phenolic −OH results in a pair of stable conformations, only one of which is illustrated, and the energy of the other is given in parentheses.
correspond to forming hydroperoxides. The branching between decay of C7 and C8 to hydroperoxides and “back to reactants” is 80:20 at $E_{\text{col}} = 0.1$ eV, decreasing to 60:40 at $E_{\text{col}} = 0.2$ eV and 10:90 at $E_{\text{col}} = 0.5$ eV. Assuming the dominant decay pathway for hydroperoxides is to H2T, the net reaction efficiency for H2T is the product of the probability of trapping into C7 and C8 and the branching ratio to hydroperoxides. The RRKM reaction efficiencies for H2T are estimated to be 2% at $E_{\text{col}} = 0.1$ eV, 2.4% at $E_{\text{col}} = 0.2$ eV, and 0.5% at $E_{\text{col}} = 0.5$ eV. Taking the collision cross section as an upper limit for complex formation, we can estimate the complex-mediated contribution to H2T is 1.5 Å² at $E_{\text{col}} = 0.1$ eV, 1.7 Å² at $E_{\text{col}} = 0.2$ eV, and 0.2 Å² at $E_{\text{col}} = 0.5$ eV. For $E_{\text{col}}$ up to 0.2 eV, therefore, the estimated complex contribution to the H2T cross section is close to the experimental measured cross sections. The complex-mediated model also reproduces the decrease of cross section at lowest $E_{\text{col}}$. This suggests that complex mediation may be important at our lowest energies. Note, however, that RRKM predicates a much faster decrease of the cross sections with increasing $E_{\text{col}}$ than is observed experimentally. For example, at $E_{\text{col}} = 0.5$ eV, the experimental H2T cross section is about 5 times larger than the RRKM predicted value, suggesting that

Figure 6. Schematic reaction coordinate for protonated tyrosine and $^{1}\text{O}_{2}$. Energies of complexes, TSs, and products, relative to reactants, are indicated (in eV) below each structure. Energies are derived from a combination of B3LYP/6-21G and B3LYP/6-31+G* values, including zero point energies. For H2T products (HE5–HE8), the energies include that of H2O2.
complex mediation is a minor mechanism for energies above a few tenths of an electronvolt.

The observation of low reaction efficiency is consistent with solution-phase results. According to solution-phase experiments, photooxidation of tyrosine by $^{1}\text{O}_2$ is pH dependent.$^{75-78}$ Chemical quenching of $^{1}\text{O}_2$ by tyrosine is only observed in basic solution, when the dissociated phenolate group is present.$^{5,79}$ In acidic solution when the phenolic group is in the molecular form, quenching of $^{1}\text{O}_2$ is merely a physical process. Chemical quenching only accounts for <1% of total quenching. As discussed above, the complex-mediated model predicts formation of various endoperoxides with efficiency over 90%. This raises two closely related questions: Can endoperoxides decay back to reactants? Can endoperoxides act as intermediates for physical quenching of $^{1}\text{O}_2$? Both questions hinge on the properties of endoperoxides and will be discussed below.

C. Reaction at High Collision Energies.

1. Nature of the Trajectories at $E_{\text{col}} = 3.0$ eV. Trajectory calculations were run for $E_{\text{col}} = 3.0$ eV. Roughly 90% of all trajectories are characterized as direct, nonreactive scattering, resulting in conversion of some collision energy into vibrational and rotational energy ($T \rightarrow E_{\text{internal}}$ conversion). The H2T trajectories can be grouped into two classes, either via direct, concerted H2 transfer ($\sim$2% of total trajectories) or by forming hydroperoxides H7 and H8 ($\sim$4%). The latter are assumed to eventually decay to H2T products based on the RRKM branching discussed above, but it is not practical to propagate the trajectories long enough to observe this decay. The remaining trajectories (4%) form a mixture of endoperoxides.

Trajectories representative of two H2T mechanisms are illustrated in Figure 7a,b, both showing changes of various distances and the potential energy (PE) during the trajectory. The CM distance is the distance between the centers of mass of the collision partners, and in Figure 7a the two $r_{\text{CH}}$ and $r_{\text{OH}}$ distances correspond to the two C–H bonds being broken, and the two H–O bonds being formed in the reaction. The oscillation in the bond lengths and PE reflects the vibrations of the reactants and products, including ZPE. Figure 7a shows a direct H2T trajectory, with only one turning point in the relative motion of the reactant centers of mass; i.e., there is no sign of mediation by a complex in this collision. The time for reactant approach is $\sim 120$ fs, and the time during which the interaction is strong is $\sim 50$ fs. We note that actual transfer of two H atoms, defined as the time point where the CH bonds of tyrosine extends by more than 2 times the normal amplitude, occurs right after the CM turning point. Note also that the H2T reaction is concerted; i.e., the two CH bonds break simultaneously, and the two OH bond form at the same time.

Figure 7b shows the formation of a hydroperoxide, with a similar reactant approach time. No dissociation was observed for the hydroperoxide during the trajectory time (800 fs). It is interesting to note that of the hydroperoxides formed in trajectories, 75% have the structure of H8, and 25% have the structure of H7, because the latter involves the rotation of phenolic =OH in TyrH$^\text{+}$. Direct H2T reaction is observed only in trajectories where the collision geometry allows the simultaneous rupture of two C–H (or C–H and N–H) bonds in tyrosine while forming the two O–H bonds in H$_2$O$_2$, as shown in Figure 7a. Such a complicated process can occur only in collisions with “O$_2$ in parallel to the two H atoms being transferred”, i.e., with collision geometries similar to those of C5 or C6 in Figure 6. Since direct H$_2$ transfer occurs very close to the center-of-mass turning points, we examined the correlation between reaction probability and reactant orientation at the center-of-mass turning points for each collision. Typically, for impact parameters less than 2.0 Å, only $\sim$8% of collisions have favorable reactant orientations at their center-of-mass turning points, and of these only 10% actually lead to H$_2$ transfer. Most hydroperoxide-forming trajectories have O$_2$ close to the phenolic group of TyrH$^\text{+}$, and the chance of having such orientation at the time when reactants start to collide is only $\sim$13%, out of these collisions $\sim$30% form hydroperoxides. Therefore, at high collision energies, the reaction efficiency is mostly controlled by the reactant impact parameter and collision orientation.

2. Trajectory Reaction Cross Section. Because trajectories were calculated at discrete b values, the trajectory cross sections were estimated using an extended closed trapezoidal approximation$^{80}$ to the usual integral form (eq 3), where $P(b)$ is the fraction of reactive trajectories at each impact parameter, i.e., the opacity function.

$$\sigma = 2\pi \int_0^{b_{\text{max}}} P(b) b \, db = \pi \sum_{b_{\text{max}}} \frac{b_{\text{max}}}{b_{\text{max}}} \left[ P(b) \times b_{+1} \right] \times (b_{+1} - b_{+1})$$  (3)

The trajectory opacity functions are given in Figure 8. The error limits given for $P(b)$ are statistical, based on the number of total trajectories and reactive trajectories for each impact parameter, and obviously do not include any systemic errors. We lump the direct H2T and hydroperoxide channels to calculate H2T
opacity functions. Also shown in Figure 8 are \( b \)-weighted opacity functions \( P(b) \times b^2 \) (i.e., the contribution of each range of \( b \) to the reaction cross section). For both H2T and endoperoxide channels, \( P(b) \) decrease at large \( b \). The maximum \( b \) at which reactions are observed is 2.0 Å for direct H2T, and 3.5 Å for hydroperoxides and endoperoxides. The values of \( b_{\text{max}} \) are close to the orientation-averaged hard-sphere collision radius of 3.8 Å. Because the cross section scales like \( P(b) \times b \), the major contribution to the cross sections comes from collisions with \( b \) between 1.0 and 3.0 Å for both H2T and endoperoxide channels. The absolute cross sections are \( 1.4 \pm 0.7 \) Å² for the H2T channel (0.3 Å² from direct H2T and 1.1 Å² from hydroperoxide-mediated), and 0.9 ± 0.4 Å² for the endoperoxide channel, respectively. The trajectory calculated H2T cross section is considerably higher than the experimental measured cross section (0.2 Å²) at this high energy. While the discrepancy may arise from the errors in the quantum chemistry method used to calculate forces as well as the absolute experimental uncertainty, we tentatively attribute the main discrepancy to the fact that the QCT method cannot simulate physical quenching of \( ^1\text{O}_2 \), because trajectories are confined to the lowest energy singlet potential energy surface.

For the direct H2T channel, we also calculated energy distributions associated with the products. At \( b = 0.1, 0.5, 1.0, 1.5, \) and 2.0 Å, the mean recoil energies \( \langle E_{\text{recoil}} \rangle \) are 0.45, 0.32, 0.35, 0.46, and 1.23 eV, respectively; and the mean rotational energies \( \langle E_{\text{rot}} \rangle \) are 0.61, 0.50, 0.75, 0.47, and 0.25 eV, respectively. The values of \( \langle E_{\text{recoil}} \rangle \) increase with increasing \( b \) because large \( b \) collisions have more energy tied up in orbital motion and less along the line-of-centers for \( T \rightarrow E_{\text{ vib}} \) conversion. \( \langle E_{\text{recoil}} \rangle \) peaks in the middle of the reactive range of \( b \), because orbital angular momentum and the collision moment arm increase with increasing \( b \); however, the strength of the collisional interaction becomes weak at large values of \( b \). The \( b \)-averaged values of \( \langle E_{\text{recoil}} \rangle \) and \( \langle E_{\text{rot}} \rangle \) are 0.70 and 0.46 eV; thus most of the available energy is partitioned to product vibrational energy.

Both the ab initio reaction coordinate for low collision energies and the trajectories at \( E_{\text{coll}} = 3.0 \) eV show that the system can produce a mixture of endoperoxides. Based on complex forming efficiency and complex decay branching, RRKM theory predicts that, at lowest \( E_{\text{coll}} \), cross section for forming endoperoxides is up to 62 Å². In fact, formation of endoperoxides overwhelms at \( E_{\text{coll}} \leq 0.1 \) eV. This explains why the experimental H2T cross section drops off at \( E_{\text{coll}} = 0.1 \) eV. However, none of these endoperoxides survives long enough to be detected in our instrument. The possibility of generating these intermediates raises an interesting dynamics question: Can these endoperoxides contribute to physical quenching of \( ^1\text{O}_2 \)? Several pieces of evidence support this idea. The reversible binding of \( ^1\text{O}_2 \) to aromatic compounds by a \([4 + 2]\) cyclization mechanism has been reported before.81,82 The excitation energy of the triplet state of TyrH⁺ is calculated to be 3.2 eV at B3LYP/6-31+G*, and the excitation energy of \( ^1\text{O}_2 \) is 0.98 eV, so physical quenching (see eq 4 below) is energetically accessible at \( E_{\text{coll}} = 3.0 \) eV. Generally, physical quenching arises from a charge-transfer induced intersystem crossing between \( ^1\text{TyrH}^+/^1\text{O}_2 \) and \( ^3\text{TyrH}^+/^3\text{O}_2 \) within an exciplex.4 It is a spin-allowed electronic energy transfer:33

\[
\text{TyrH}^+ + ^1\text{O}_2 \rightarrow [\delta^1\text{TyrH}^+\cdots\delta^1\text{O}_2] \rightarrow \]

\[
[3^3\text{TyrH}^+\cdots3\text{O}_2] \rightarrow ^3\text{TyrH}^+ + 3\text{O}_2 \quad (4)
\]

We looked at the possibility of intracomplex charge transfer by examining the Mulliken charge on the \( \text{O}_2 \) moiety in the endoperoxides, and it turns out that the \( \text{O}_2 \) moiety has a negative charge more than −0.5. Therefore, endoperoxides (if formed) may be good candidates for mediating energy transfer at higher collision energies. At low collision energies, the electronic energy transfer is not energetically accessible, but physical quenching of \( ^1\text{O}_2 \) could arise via electronic to vibrational energy transfer between reactants in endoperoxides.4

The issue of energy transfer during collisions raises a question about the use of QCT methods for trajectory simulations of \( ^1\text{O}_2 \) reaction. There may exist two electronic states contributing to the lowest Born–Oppenheimer potential that the trajectory runs on, and the system may possibly go from \( ^1\text{TyrH}^+ + ^1\text{O}_2 \) to \( ^3\text{TyrH}^+ + 3\text{O}_2 \) as reactants separate. There are two concerns here.50,51 First, the QCT method does not allow nonadiabatic transitions at surface crossing seams. Such transitions would be important if the transition between the two states is abrupt. The fact that all trajectories have total energy conserved to the sum of individual electronic energies and rovibrational energies of \( ^1\text{TyrH}^+ \) and \( ^1\text{O}_2 \) may imply that the transition, if existing, might be smooth. Another problem is this system is a likely candidate for multiconfiguration wave functions. We tested this problem by running single point CASSCF(10,10) calculations for all geometries explored in the trajectories and found that the Hartree–Fock configuration is strongly dominant (coefficient >0.9), i.e., that multifeference wave functions should not be an issue in this system.

V. Conclusions

An electrospray-ionization, guided-ion beam tandem mass spectrometer was developed to examine the collision energy dependence of biomolecular ion interactions with molecules, including excited states. We are able to generate an intense and stable ion beam, with narrow kinetic energy spread and well thermalized ion internal energy distributions. We have measured the reaction of protonated tyrosine with the electronically excited singlet state of molecular oxygen (\( ^{1}\text{O}_2, a^\Delta \)), as a function of collision energy. Combined with electronic structure calculations and quasi-classical trajectory simulations, we have demonstrated that hydrogen peroxide is the product of this reaction and have provided a mechanism with considerable detail. At low energies, the reaction may be mediated by hydroperoxides, and at high
energies a direct, concerted double H atom transfer also contributes. Competition with physical quenching is important and probably leads to the observed drop in reaction efficiency at 76e < 0.2 eV.

The current study may provide further understanding of tyrosine photooxidation susceptibility in biological systems and provide a basis for the development of models for photochemical transformations of tyrosine in atmospheric particles/drops. Assuming the pH of rainwater ranges from 3.5 to 5.7, a large fraction of tyrosine in atmospheric drops exist in the protonated state, and reactions of tyrosine with photoformed 1O2 account for most loss of tyrosine in atmosphere.3,4

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