PHTHALOCYANINE FLUORESCENCE AT HIGH CONCENTRATION: DIMERS OR REABSORPTION EFFECT?

S. Dhami¹, A. J. de Mello¹, G. Rumbles*¹, S. M. Bishop¹, D. Phillips¹ and A. Beeby²
¹Department of Chemistry, Imperial College of Science, Technology & Medicine, South Kensington, London SW7 2AY, UK and
²Department of Chemistry, Durham University, South Road, Durham DH1 3LE, UK

(Received 11 July 1994; accepted 15 November 1994)

Abstract—For tetrasulfonated aluminum phthalocyanine (AlPcS₄), dimer formation is characterized in the absorption spectrum by a broadening of the Q-band and the appearance of a new band at the red edge of the spectrum. The high concentrations required to produce dimers, however, often leads to anomalous observations in fluorescence spectroscopy. In the present study, we have examined the photophysical characteristics of two dye systems; AlPcS₄ in a 66% ethanol/water mixture and disulfonated aluminum phthalocyanine in methanol. Using absorption spectroscopy, the formation of dimers is shown to be prevalent only in the case of AlPcS₄. The fluorescence emission spectra in both cases, however, exhibit similar spectral changes with increasing dye concentration. The measured fluorescence decay profiles for both dyes also show similar trends: They are monoexponential, invariant with emission wavelength and have decay times that increase with dye concentration. These distortions are sometimes incorrectly attributed to dimer fluorescence. We find no evidence for the existence of dimer fluorescence and demonstrate that these data can be readily explained, by taking into consideration the effects of reabsorption of fluorescence.

INTRODUCTION

The sulfonated aluminum phthalocyanines, AlPcS_n† (n = 0-4), are of considerable interest as they show excellent photodynamic activity. Incorporation of sensitizers into biological membranes invariably results in high local concentrations $(10^{-5}-10^{-4} M)^{2.3}$ where dimers or higher aggregates may form. It is known, however, that phthalocyanine dimers and higher order aggregates are much more inactive than monomers as sensitizers. In order to rationalize their photobiological effect it is important to characterize fully the photophysical properties of the monomeric and aggregated forms.

It is well established that porphyrin dimers and higher oligomers have reduced fluorescence quantum yields relative to the monomeric forms⁵ but are still photobiologically active, playing an important role in the photodynamic action of hematoporphyrin derivative sensitizers. 6 Conversely, the phthalocyanine dimers and aggregates are generally believed to have facile deactivation pathways available to the excited electronic states and are believed to be essentially nonfluorescent and, because they do not lead to the triplet state, are not directly involved in photodynamic action. 5.7 For example, Wagner et al.4 have shown that on varying the degree of sulfonation of gallium phthalocyanine there is a decrease in singlet oxygen production, which is consistent with an increase in dimerization. Ohno et al.8 found that the model dimer compound, bis(phthalocyanato) tin IV, which forms face-to-face stacking dimers, was nonfluorescent. This lack

Recently Yoon et al. 15 reported red-shifted emission and increased fluorescence decay times compared to the monomer from concentrated solutions of AlPcS₄ and attributed this to fluorescence from dimeric or aggregated species. These results are unusual when compared to the existing literature on other phthalocyanine species discussed above and the findings of our own group in recent work with various sulfonated aluminum phthalocyanines. 16 An alternative explanation for these observations is the distortion of the monomer emission by reabsorption of radiation by ground state species. This is likely to occur at high concentrations of phthalocyanine solutions due to their large extinction coefficients and high degree of spectral overlap between absorption and emission spectra. Such effects are frequently overlooked although they have been discussed in the literature 17-19 and are commonly referred to as the inner filter or a reab-

of fluorescence from the dimer was attributed to rapid relaxation processes from a low-lying (lower than the lowest excited singlet state) dipole forbidden charge resonance state. Intense fluorescence from model µ-oxo bridged porphyrin dimers, 9-12 (TPPSc)2, (TPPAl)2 and (TPPNb)2, has similarly been attributed to emission from the lowest excited singlet state, the charge resonance state in these species being of higher energy. Spikes and Bommer¹³ have reported that the dimer of tetrasulfonated zinc phthalocyanine, ZnPcS₄, displays no fluorescence emission and, similarly, using fluorescence emission and thermal lensing techniques Negri et al. 14 have determined that the dimer of the diamide of zinc tetracarboxyphthalocyanine also does not fluoresce. These observations are believed to be due to an increase in the rate of internal conversion from the first excited singlet state, upon dimer formation, which will result in a reduction in the fluorescence and triplet quantum yields.

^{*}To whom correspondence should be addressed.

 $[\]dagger$ Abbreviations: AIPcS_n, sulfonated aluminum phthalocyanine; PDT, photodynamic therapy.

342 S. Dhami *et al.*

sorption effect. Clearly these two models differ considerably and it is very important to distinguish which occurs. The presence of photoactive phthalocyanine aggregates would have important implications for photodynamic therapy (PDT) using these compounds. Using time-resolved and steady-state techniques it is possible to distinguish between the fluorescent aggregate and reabsorption models. Our data, obtained from aqueous/alcoholic AlPcS_n solutions, are analyzed accordingly.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Chemicals. Disulfonated aluminum phthalocyanine (AlPcS₂) was prepared according to the method of Ambroz et al.²⁰ and tetrasulfonated aluminum phthalocyanine (AlPcS₄) was prepared using the condensation method²¹ and identified using elemental analysis. The purity of the samples was checked using reversed-phase HPLC.²² Water was purified by distillation followed by processing in an ELGA UHQ. Methanol and ethanol (BDH, HPLC grade) were tested to ensure that no extraneous fluorescence was present and used without further purification.

Steady-state absorption and fluorescence measurements. Absorption spectra were recorded on a conventional UV/visible spectrophotometer (Perkin-Elmer Lambda 2). The spectra of the most concentrated solutions were obtained by replacing the standard, 10 mm pathlength quartz cuvette with a 1 mm cuvette. Corrected fluorescence emission spectra (excitation at 610 nm) were obtained with a Spex FluoroMax spectrofluorometer using a standard quartz cuvette (10 mm × 10 mm). The bandpass of both excitation and emission slits was 0.6 nm.

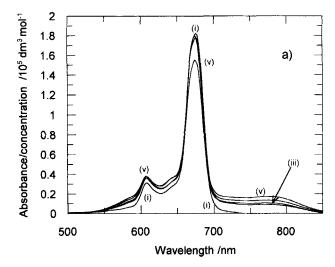
Time-resolved fluorescence measurements. Fluorescence decays were recorded using the technique of time-correlated single photon counting. Excitation was provided using a cavity-dumped rhodamine 6G dye laser (Coherent 590 CD/7220), synchronously pumped by the second harmonic of a mode-locked Nd:YAG laser (Coherent Antares 76-s). This produced a 3.8 MHz pulse train of 8 ps pulses at a wavelength of 610 nm. Fluorescence was collected perpendicular to excitation and passed through a polarizer set at the magic angle. The detection system consisted of a 0.22 m double monochromator (Spex), photomultiplier tube (Hamamatsu R928), constant fraction discriminator (Ortec 584), time-to-amplitude converter (Ortec 547) and a multichannel pulse height analyzer (Canberra 35). This produced a typical instrument response function of 450 ps full width at half maximum.

All decays were collected to 20 000 counts in the channel of maximum intensity and analyzed by a nonlinear, least-squares, iterative reconvolution fitting procedure.²³ Plots of the weighted residuals, autocorrelation function, serial correlation coefficient and reduced chi-squared were used to judge the quality of the fit.

RESULTS

The normalized absorption spectra of AlPcS₄ in a 66% ethanol/water mixture and AlPcS₂ in methanol at various concentrations are shown in Fig. 1. These spectra have been normalized to the amount of phthalocyanine added to the solution.

In the case of AlPcS₄, on increasing concentration, the intensity of the Q-band peak, at 670 nm, decreases and a broad shoulder at the red edge of this absorption is seen to grow in, which can be attributed to dimer or higher order aggregate absorption.⁵ The spectra for AlPcS₂ show no evidence of aggregate formation, except at the highest concentration $(6.37 \times 10^{-5} \text{ mol dm}^{-3} \text{ of the dye})$. Therefore, in this instance, the ordinate corresponds to the extinction coefficient, with a value of $1.8 \times 10^{5} \text{ dm}^{3} \text{ mol}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$ at 670 nm, in agreement with the literature value.^{24,25} For AlPcS₄ this is



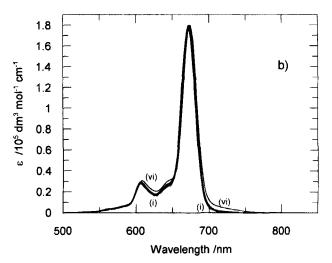


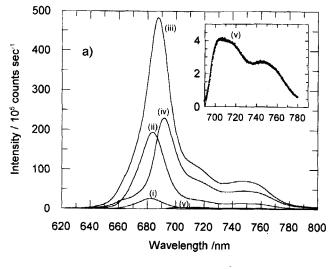
Figure 1. Absorption spectra of (a) AlPcS₄ in 66% (vol/vol) EtOH/ H_2O at concentrations of (i) 0.11, (ii) 1.1, (iii) 5.6, (iv) 21.8 and (v) 110×10^{-6} mol dm⁻³; and (b) AlPcS₂ in MeOH at concentrations of (i) 0.2, (ii) 0.6, (iii) 3.1, (iv) 6.3, (v) 12.5 and (vi) 63.7 \times 10^{-6} mol dm⁻³.

not the case, because the phthalocyanine does not exist in purely monomeric form.

The fluorescence spectra of both systems, with excitation at 610 nm, are shown in Fig. 2. As the concentration of dye increases, the emission spectrum initially increases in intensity with a shift in the emission maximum to longer wavelengths. At very high concentrations, the emission appears to diminish in intensity and to have two emission maxima. This can be seen more clearly for AlPcS₄ in the inset of Fig. 2a.

The AlPcS₄ spectra normalized to the emission maximum are shown in Fig. 3a. The shift in the emission maximum from 681 nm, at the lowest concentration, to 705 nm at the highest concentration is clearly visible. From this figure, the corresponding growth in intensity at 750 nm appears to be a second emission band.

With the exception of the very highest concentration, no aggregate absorption is observed for AlPcS₂, and the emission spectra can be normalized to the concentration of the dye and these are shown in Fig. 3b. In these instances the emis-



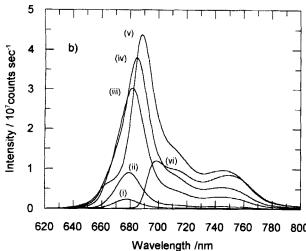
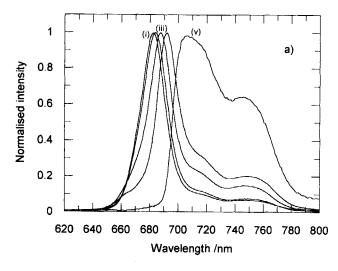


Figure 2. Corrected fluorescence emission spectra of (a) AlPcS₄ in 66% (vol/vol) EtOH/H₂O at concentrations of (i) 0.11, (ii) 1.1, (iii) 5.6, (iv) 21.8 and (v) 110×10^{-6} mol dm⁻³ (inset shows spectrum at highest concentration and corresponding simulated spectrum using Eq. 1); and (b) AlPcS₂ in MeOH at concentrations of (i) 0.2, (ii) 0.6, (iii) 3.1, (iv) 6.3, (v) 12.5 and (vi) 63.7 \times 10⁻⁶ mol dm⁻³.

sion maxima also shift from 680 nm, at low concentration, to 697 nm, at high concentration. However, unlike the normalization procedure used for the AlPcS₄ spectra in Fig. 3a, the intensity of the shoulder at 750 nm shows only a modest decrease. For AlPcS₄, this simple normalization procedure of the emission spectra is not valid because the concentration of the emitting species is not known.

Fluorescence decay curves were measured for both species at the concentrations indicated above, with excitation at 610 nm and emission recorded at 15 nm intervals across the emission profile. Without exception, all the fluorescence decays could be well described by a monoexponential decay function yielding a single fluorescence decay time for each concentration, which did not vary with the emission wavelength. The data are plotted in Fig. 4 as a function of dye concentration. For both AlPcS₄ and AlPcS₂, the fluorescence decay time increases with increasing concentration approaching an asymptotic value at high concentration.



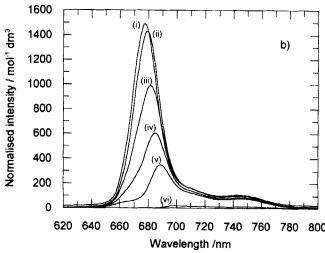


Figure 3. (a): Spectra shown in Fig. 2a normalized to unity at the maximum intensity. (b): Spectra shown in Fig. 2b normalized to concentration of phthalocyanine.

DISCUSSION

The Stokes shift for most phthalocyanines is small (220 cm⁻¹) and thus the overlap of the absorption and emission spectra is large. This effect is further accentuated when dimers are formed, as the red-shifted absorption occurs beneath the emission spectrum. In the present study the observed emission originates from the center of a conventional 1 cm cuvette and traverses 0.5 cm of the bulk solution prior to detection.

Under normal circumstances, when reabsorption is suspected, efforts are made to use an experimental arrangement that minimizes the effect. ²⁶ The most common method, when using a fixed 90° detection system, is to use front face illumination by employing a triangular cross-section cuvette, such that the incidence angle of the excitation beam is ca 30° to the front face of the cuvette. There are both advantages and disadvantages to this approach: The excitation beam is not attenuated by the solution and thus more light reaches the region that is viewed by the optics of the detection system. If such an arrangement was used here, the measured fluorescence spectra would increase in intensity with increasing dye concentration and not show an initial rise followed by a

344 S. Dhami *et al.*

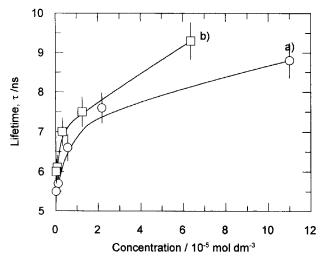


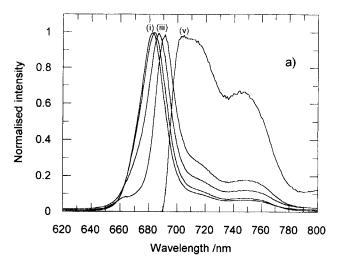
Figure 4. Variation of fluorescence decay time with concentration for (a) AlPcS₄ in 66% (vol/vol) EtOH/H₂O and (b) AlPcS₂ in MeOH.

drop (see Fig. 2a). It is not guaranteed that this approach eliminates the distortion to the profiles of the emission spectra and the lengthening of the measured decay times, although these effects would be minimized. Difficulties in using front face illumination to minimize reabsorption occur when the optical density of the solution at the excitation wavelength does not result in complete absorption of the excitation light at the surface, and penetration into the bulk of the solution occurs. Thus, for solution concentrations that are not sufficiently high to result in complete attenuation of the excitation light, the influence of reabsorption, although minimized, still occurs. Our reasoning for choosing a 1 cm pathlength cuvette is two-fold. For the concentration range that we have used, front face illumination does not result in complete attenuation of the excitation light, and thus it is difficult to predict the effects of distortion. Secondly, our concentration range matches that of Yoon et al., 15 where a 1 cm cuvette was used, thus enabling an alternative interpretation of their data.

The extent of reabsorption will depend on: (1) the overlap between the absorption spectrum, $\epsilon(\nu)$, and the molecular fluorescence spectrum, $F(\nu)$; (2) the solution concentration, c; (3) the specimen thickness, l, through which the fluorescence photons have to escape. The distorted emission spectrum expected after reabsorption, $F'(\nu)$, can therefore be predicted, to a first approximation, using the following relationship,

$$F'(\nu) = F(\nu)[10^{-\epsilon(\nu)cl}]. \tag{1}$$

The molecular fluorescence spectrum was approximated by a spectrum measured under dilute conditions $(1 \times 10^{-7} \text{ mol dm}^{-3})$. The term $-\epsilon(\nu)cl$ in Eq. 1 can be considered to be proportional to the measured absorption spectrum. Hence the emission spectra distorted by reabsorption can be simulated. The measured and simulated spectra of 1.1×10^{-4} M AlPcS₄ in 66% ethanol/water can be seen in the inset of Fig. 2. The agreement is exceptional and assumes an effective pathlength l, through which the emission must travel, of 0.45 \pm 0.02 cm. The remaining spectra have also been simulated using the same technique and are shown in Fig. 5a. These spectra have been normalized to the emission maximum and



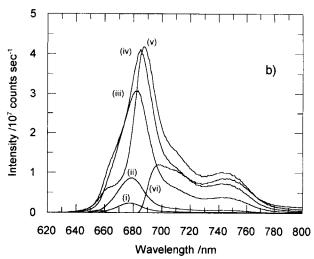


Figure 5. Spectra simulated using Eq. 1 for (a) AlPcS₄ in 66% (vol/vol) EtOH/H₂O using effective pathlengths, l, of (i) 0.0, (ii) 0.73, (iii) 0.48, (iv) 0.34 and (v) 0.45 (\pm 0.02) cm (data are normalized to unity at the maximum intensity for comparison with experimental data shown in Fig. 3a); and (b) AlPcS₂ in MeOH using effective pathlengths, l, of (i) 0.0, (ii) 0.75, (iii) 0.71, (iv) 0.57, (v) 0.49 and (vi) 0.31 (\pm 0.02) cm (for comparison with experimental data shown in Fig. 2b).

can be compared with the measured spectra shown in Fig. 3a. A similar procedure was employed for AlPcS₂ in methanol. The simulated spectra are shown in Fig. 5b and can be compared with the experimentally measured spectra shown in Fig. 2b. The predicted value of the effective pathlength would be 0.5 cm based on the geometry of the cuvette in the fluorometer. The actual values required for a good fit, as listed in the respective figure legends, are seen to differ from this ideal value. From Eq. 1, it can be seen that the dependence upon pathlength is more critical at high concentration than at low concentration due to the power dependence of $F'(\nu)$ on I. In addition, this calculation neglects the effects of re-emission and the finite collection angle. In all cases, however, the measured spectra can be simulated using this simple procedure.

When the emission spectra are normalized to unity, as shown in Fig. 3a for AlPcS₄, the shift in the emission max-

Table 1. Experimental and decay times simulated using Eqs. 2-4

Concentration (10 ⁻⁶ M)	Experimental τ (ns) (\pm 5%)	Simulated τ (ns)
	/vol) EtOH/H ₂ O, using f 0.4 and an effective pa	
0.1	5.5	5.5
1.1	5.7	5.8
	6.6	+
5.6		6.5
21.8	7.6	7.8
110.0	8.8	8.9
	using a fluorescence quave pathlength, l, of 0.5 c	
0.2	6.0	6.0
0.6	6.1	6.2
3.1	7.0	7.0
6.3	7.3	7.8
12.5	7.5	8.8
63.7	9.3	10.8

imum with increasing concentration is apparent. In addition, it appears that a new spectral feature grows in intensity on the red edge of the emission at 750 nm; this has been reported to originate from aggregate fluorescence. It is important to note that the AIPcS₂ system, which shows no aggregation, still exhibits the same spectral shifts and apparent growth of a new species at 750 nm. The simulated spectra over the same concentration range indicate clearly that the spectral changes are due to reabsorption and not to aggregate emission. In addition, direct excitation into the supposed aggregate absorption band at 725 nm, yielded no detectable emission.

The phenomenon of re-emission, neglected by the above procedure, can be investigated by observing the time-resolved emission properties. The observed fluorescence decay times τ' can be modelled using the expression¹⁷

$$\tau' = \frac{\tau}{1 - aq} \tag{2}$$

where τ is the molecular fluorescence decay time obtained from a dilute solution, a is the probability of reabsorption of an emitted photon and q is the molecular fluorescence quantum efficiency. The product aq can be calculated from Eq. 3.¹⁷

$$aq = \int_0^\infty F(\nu)[1 - 10^{-\epsilon(\nu)cl}] d\nu$$
 (3)

where $F(\nu)$ is normalized by the relation

$$\int_0^\infty F(\nu) d\nu = q.$$
 (4)

Although the expression in Eq. 2 approximates to emission from the center of a sphere, it allows a reasonable prediction of a fluorescence decay time distorted by the reabsorption effect to be made. More advanced methods are available to evaluate 19 or eliminate 18 the influence of reabsorption when measuring fluorescence decay profiles. 18.19 Sakai et al. 19 have shown that the effect of reabsorption increases the measured fluorescence decay times and at very high concentrations it produces nonexponential decays. The concentration range

used here did not exhibit any measurable nonlinearity in the fluorescence decay profiles. In conclusion, both simple ¹⁷ and more advanced treatments ¹⁹ of the effects of reabsorption predict an increase in the measured decay time with concentration.

Using the fluorescence spectrum recorded under dilute conditions, as the molecular fluorescence spectrum, $F(\nu)$, and assuming fluorescence quantum yields of 0.40 and 0.56 for AlPcS₄ in aqueous ethanol and AlPcS₂ in methanol,²⁷ respectively, the measured fluorescence decay times were simulated. These data are tabulated in Table 1. All decays are seen to be single exponential, as judged by the stringent fitting criteria discussed in the Materials and Methods and invariant with emission wavelength. Furthermore, an excellent correlation between the measured fluorescence decay time and that calculated using Eq. 2 is observed. If the emission peak at high concentration at 750 nm was due to dimer emission. the fluorescence decay profiles would be expected to be at least biexponential, with the relative yields of at least two decay times varying with the emission wavelength at which the decay was measured; this is not observed. This evidence, combined with the fluorescence spectral data, indicates that the effects of concentration on the measured photophysical characteristics can be explained solely by a reabsorption effect.

CONCLUSIONS

The steady-state emission spectra of the sulfonated aluminum phthalocyanines, AlPcS₄ and AlPcS₂, show similar distortions with increasing concentration. For both dyes the fluorescence decay curves, as a function of concentration, are monoexponential and invariant with emission wavelength. In the case of AlPcS₄ in 66% ethanol/water, the absorption spectra show clear evidence of dimer or aggregate formation in the form of an absorption at lower energy than the normal monomer. With the exception of the very highest concentration, there is no evidence for aggregation of AlPcS₂ in methanol. This observation alone suggests that the fluorescence data cannot be interpreted in terms of dimer or aggregate fluorescence. Furthermore, direct excitation of the dimer absorption band of AlPeS₄ at 725 nm yields no fluorescence that can be attributed to a dimer species. We conclude that there is no fluorescence from dimers of AlPcS4 under the experimental conditions used here.

Using a simple model of fluorescence reabsorption we have successfully interpreted both the steady-state and time-resolved fluorescence data. The distortions in the emission spectra are a result of the high degree of spectral overlap between the absorption and emission spectra. With increasing dye concentration the effect manifests itself as an apparent shift in the emission maximum and a relative increase in the intensity of the emission shoulder at 750 nm. This is independent of the dye studied, with both the aggregating and nonaggregating systems exhibiting the same effect. Similarly, both systems exhibit the same trend in the fluorescence decay data, with the decay times increasing with increasing dye concentration, as predicted by theory. 17,19

To conclude, our results do not support the argument of aggregate fluorescence, as suggested by Yoon *et al.*¹⁵ Conversely, they can be rationalized fully using a simple model

S. Dhami et al.

based on a reabsorption effect. In view of the importance of the photophysics of soluble phthalocyanines in the field of PDT, where high dye concentrations occur, we feel that this is a very important distinction to be made. Moreover, this distinction should be emphasized in order to avoid future misinterpretation.

Acknowledgements—We thank the SERC for financial support to A.J.D. and S.M.B., Kodak Ltd. for awarding a case scholarship to A.J.D. and British Petroleum for awarding a studentship to S.D. We also thank Dr. B. Crystall for assistance with the time-resolved fluorescence apparatus.

REFERENCES

- Chan, W. S., J. F. Marshall, R. K. Svenson, J. Bedwell and I. Hart (1990) Effect of sulphonation on the cell and tissue distribution of the photosensitizer aluminium phthalocyanine. Cancer Res. 50, 4533-4538.
- Moan, J. and H. Anholt (1990) Phthalocyanine fluorescence in tumours during PDT. Photochem. Photobiol. 51, 379-381.
- Ambroz, M., A. J. MacRobert, J. Morgan, G. Rumbles, M. S. C. Foley and D. Phillips (1994) Time-resolved fluorescence spectroscopy and intracellular imaging of disulfonated aluminium phthalocyanine. J. Photochem. Photobiol. 22, 105-117.
- Wagner, J. R., H. Ali, R. Langlois, N. Brasseur and J. E. van Lier (1987) Biological activities of phthalocyanines—VI. Photooxidation of L-tryptophan by selectively sulfonated gallium phthalocyanines: singlet oxygen yields and the effects of aggregation. *Photochem. Photobiol.* 45, 587-594.
- Reddi, E. and G. Jori (1988) Steady state and time-resolved spectroscopic studies of photodynamic sensitizers; porphyrins and phthalocyanines. Rev. Chem. Intermed. 10, 241-268.
- Moan, J. (1984) The photochemical yield of singlet oxygen from porphyrins in different states of aggregation. *Photochem. Photobiol.* 39(4), 445–449.
- Martin, P. C., M. Gouterman, B. V. Pepich, G. E. Renzoni and D. C. Schindele (1991) Effects of ligands, solvent and variable sulfonation on dimer formation of aluminum and zinc phthalocyanine sulfonates. *Inorg. Chem.* 30, 3305-3309.
- Ohno, O., N. Ishikawa, H. Matsuzawa, Y. Kaizu and H. Ko-bayashi (1989) Exciton coupling in bis(phthalocyaninato) tin(IV). J. Phys. Chem. 93, 1713–1718.
- Ortl, E., J. L. Bredas and C. Clarisse (1990) Electronic structure of phthalocyanines: theoretical investigation of the optical properties of phthalocyanine monomers, dimers and crystals. 92(2), 1228-1235.
- Kaizu, Y., N. Misu, K. Tsuji, Y. Kaneko and H. Kobayashi (1985) Electronic spectra of the aluminum (III) complexes of 5,10,15,20-tetraphenylporphin and 2,3,7,8,12,13,17,18-octaethylporphin. *Bull. Chem. Soc. Jpn.* 58, 103-108.
- Ohno, O., Y. Kaizu and H. Kobayashi (1985) Luminescence of some metalloporphins including the complexes of the IIIB metal group. J. Chem. Phys. 82, 1779–1787.
- Gouterman, M., D. Holten and E. Lieberman (1977) Porphyrins XXXV. Exciton coupling in μ-oxo scandium dimers. Chem. Phys. 25, 139-153.

- Spikes, J. D. and J. C. Bommer (1986) Zinc tetrasulphophthalocyanine as a photodynamic sensitiser for biomolecules. *Int. J. Radiat. Res.* 50, 41-47.
- Negri, R. M., A. Zalts, E. A. San Roman, P. F. Aramendia and S. E. Braslavsky (1991) Carboxylated zinc-phthalocyanine, influence of dimerization on the spectroscopic properties. An absorption, emission and thermal lensing study. *Photochem. Pho*tobiol. 53, 317-322.
- Yoon, M., Y. Cheon and D. Kim (1993) Absorption and fluorescence spectroscopic studies on dimerization of chloroaluminum (III) phthalocyanine tetrasulfonate in aqueous alcoholic solutions. *Photochem. Photobiol.* 58(1), 31–36.
- Dhami, S. D., J. J. Cosa, S. M. Bishop, M. S. C. Simpson and D. Phillips (1993) Photophysics of sulfonated aluminium phthalocyanines in reversed micelles. *Proc. S.P.I.E.* 2078, 475– 482.
- Birks, J. B. (1970) Photophysics of Aromatic Molecules. Wiley, New York.
- Hammond, P. R. (1979) Self-absorption of molecular fluorescence, the design of equipment for measurement of fluorescence decay, and the decay times of some laser dyes. *J. Chem. Phys.* 70(8), 3884–3894.
- Sakai, Y., M. Kawahigashi, T. Minami, I. Takakazu and S. Hirayama (1989) Deconvolution of non-exponential emission decays arising from re-absorption of emitted light. *J. Luminesc.* 42, 317–324.
- Ambroz, M., A. Beeby, A. J. MacRobert, M. S. C. Simpson, R. K. Svenson and D. Phillips (1991) Preparative, analytical and fluorescence spectroscopic studies of sulfonated aluminium phthalocyanine photosensitisers. J. Photochem. Photobiol. 9, 87-95.
- Ali, H., R. Langlois, J. R. Wagner, N. Brasseur, B. Paquette and J. E. van Lier (1988) Biological-activities of phthalocyanines. 10. Syntheses and analyses of sulfonated phthalocyanines. *Photochem. Photobiol.* 47, 713-717.
- Bishop, S. M., B. J. Khoo, A. J. MacRobert, M. S. C. Simpson, D. Phillips and A. Beeby (1993) Characterisation of the photochemotherapeutic agent disulfonated aluminium phthalocyanine and its high-performance liquid chromatographic separated components. J. Chromatogr. 646, 345-350.
- O'Connor, D. V. and D. Phillips (1984) Time-Correlated Single-Photon Counting. Academic Press, London.
- Darwent, J., I. McCubbin and D. Phillips (1982) Excited singlet and triplet state electron-transfer reactions of aluminum(III) sulfonated phthalocyanine. J. Chem. Soc. Faraday Trans. 2 78, 347-357.
- Brasseur, N., H. Ali, R. Langlois and J. E. van Lier (1987) Biological-activities of phthalocyanines 7. Photoinactivation of V-79 chinese hamster cells by selectively sulfonated gallium phthalocyanines. *Photochem. Photobiol.* 46, 739-744.
- Parker, C. A. (1968) Photoluminescence of Solutions. Elsevier, Amsterdam.
- Beeby, A., S. M. Bishop, H. G. Meunier, M. S. C. Simpson and D. Phillips (1992) Complexing of fluoride ions to disulfonated aluminium phthalocyanine. In *Photodynamic Therapy and Bio*medical Lasers (Edited by P. Spinelli, M. Dal Fante and R. Marchesini), pp. 732-736. Elsevier, The Netherlands.