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Ultrafast Dynamics in Light-Driven Molecular Rotary Motors Probed by Femtosecond Stimulated Raman Spectroscopy

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S Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: Photochemical isomerization in sterically crowded chiral alkenes is the driving force for molecular rotary motors in nanoscale machines. Here the excited-state dynamics and structural evolution of the prototypical light-driven rotary motor are followed on the ultrafast time scale by femtosecond stimulated Raman spectroscopy (FSRS) and transient absorption (TA). TA reveals a sub-100-fs blue shift and decay of the Franck–Condon bright state arising from relaxation along the reactive potential energy surface. The decay is accompanied by coherently excited vibrational dynamics which survive the excited-state structural evolution. The ultrafast Franck–Condon bright state relaxes to a dark excited state, which FSRS reveals to have a rich spectrum compared to the electronic ground state, with the most intense Raman-active modes shifted to significantly lower wavenumber. This is discussed in terms of a reduced bond order of the central bridging bond and overall weakening of bonds in the dark state, which is supported by electronic structure calculations. The observed evolution in the FSRS spectrum is assigned to vibrational cooling accompanied by partitioning of the dark state between the product isomer and the original ground state. Formation of the product isomer is observed in real time by FSRS. It is formed vibrationally hot and cools over several picoseconds, completing the characterization of the light-driven half of the photocycle.

INTRODUCTION

The design and synthesis of molecular machines is a major challenge for chemistry and chemical biology,^{1–5} with the stimulation and control of molecular motion at its heart. Power can be delivered to molecular machines both chemically and electrochemically, but the least invasive approach is conversion of light energy to mechanical motion. In the 1990s, Feringa and co-workers developed a family of unidirectional light-driven molecular motors based on a chiral sterically crowded alkene core.^{4,6,7} These rotary motors function by successive orthogonal photochemical and thermal steps, where the structure and stereochemistry impose unidirectional rotation about the olefinic bond (Figure 1).^{8–10} Their synthetic versatility has opened up numerous opportunities for applications as light-driven molecular motors in nanomachines. Successive generations of molecular motors enabled control over the rate-determining thermal step and operation at ever higher frequencies (currently exceeding 1 MHz). Recent advances have enabled the chiral center to be dispensed with;^{9,11–13} several examples have already featured in molecular-scale devices.^{14–17}

Despite the exquisite control achieved over the thermal step of their operation, the lack of synthetic control over the photochemical quantum yield of the power stroke (Figure 1) reduces the motor's efficiency, resulting in absorbed energy

being dissipated as heat.^{9,10} Rational control by design of this step necessitates understanding the excited-state dynamics, and how they lead to partitioning between isomerization and unproductive relaxation back to the original ground state. Quantum chemical calculations by Filatov and co-workers determined that excited-state pathways for molecular motors are dependent on accessible conical intersections (CIs), where efficient radiationless decay to the ground state occurs.^{18,19} These CIs were characterized by a twist about the central double bond and a strong pyramidalization at one of the olefinic carbon atoms. Populations were calculated yielding a sub-picosecond excited-state lifetime and a quantum yield of ca. 0.3, in qualitative agreement with experimental observations. Experimentally, Conyard et al. measured excited-state dynamics with sub-50-fs resolution time-resolved fluorescence and picosecond transient absorption.^{20,21} They resolved a biphasic excited-state relaxation, with a dominant initial fluorescence decay of <100 fs, which was assigned to excited-state structural evolution from a Franck–Condon excited bright state to a dark state on the S₁ potential energy surface. The weak dependence of the bright state's decay time on solvent viscosity was consistent with motion along a coordinate which does not

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Figure 1. Molecular rotor photocycle. Absorption of a photon reduces the olefinic bond order, giving rise to isomerization of **1a** to yield the metastable ground state **1b**. A second thermally activated step completes the isomerization and re-forms the initial ground state. The cycle is then repeated.

displace a large solvent volume, such as the pyramidalization coordinate identified in calculations. The S_1 dark state was observed in transient absorption to relax to the S_0 ground state in ca. 1.5 ps. The appearance of the 1.5 ps decay as a component in the bright-state fluorescence was interpreted as an equilibration between the two states.^{20,21} Superimposed on the fluorescence decay were oscillations arising from coherent excitation of vibrational modes in the S_1 state.²⁰

Following these early investigations of excited-state dynamics, there have been a number of developments in research calculating the temporal evolution of nuclear and electronic structure on the excited-state potential energy surface of the prototypical molecular motor **1a** (Figure 1) and related molecules.^{22–28} Some new and potentially more efficient motors have been described.^{22,29,30} In many of these calculations, the nature and structure of the dark state plays a key role yet remains a topic of debate.^{25,28} Here we combine femtosecond stimulated Raman spectroscopy (FSRS) and transient absorption (TA) experiments with 100 fs time resolution to resolve the excited-state structural dynamics of **1a**.³¹ These two complementary techniques have been shown to provide high levels of detail in resolving structural dynamics in a number of photochemical and photobiological reactions.^{32–35} In particular, resonant FSRS (and its time domain analogue^{36–40}) provides the time-dependent vibrational signature of the resonant transient states.

Applied to **1a**, FSRS yields new experimental insight into molecular structural evolution associated with motor photochemistry. Very recently, the first calculations of the vibrational spectrum of the dark excited electronic state of **1a** were reported and compared with picosecond transient IR data. This represents an important first step in characterizing dark-state structure, but the early-time IR spectra were dominated by low-lying electronic transitions.²⁵ Here, using FSRS, we provide a well-resolved Raman spectrum of the dark state between 200 fs and 100 ps after excitation. A feature of resonance-enhanced FSRS is that it yields a spectrum unperturbed by ground-state bleaches or other sources of transient IR absorption.⁴¹ Thus, these FSRS data provide an essential test of future calculations. The TA data are consistent with earlier fluorescence studies, but detailed analysis of TA and FSRS together reveals an important role for intramolecular vibrational redistribution (IVR) in each step. Further, the FSRS data characterize the formation of vibrationally hot **1b** from the dark state in real time, while TA data reveal the persistence of vibrational coherence following conversion of the light to dark state.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The TA data for **1a** in cyclohexane (Figure 2A) show two excited-state absorption bands at 760 and 550 nm. Within 100

Figure 2. Ultrafast transient absorption. (A) TA spectra from 470 to 800 nm showing fast decay/rise of the bright/dark state on a 100 fs time scale, followed by a common population decay time of 1.6 ± 0.2 ps, leading ultimately to repopulation of the ground state and formation of the isomer **1b**, which absorbs at <500 nm. (B) The corresponding kinetics measured at wavelengths within the two transient bands, showing the coherent vibrational dynamics at early times (further details are presented in Supporting Information, SI4, including details on the fitting procedures and analysis).

fs, the 760 nm transition shifts to higher energy and decays to a nonzero final value. Simultaneously, the 550 nm band gains amplitude, reaching a maximum at 120 fs. A more accurate time constant for this primary step cannot be obtained, as it is close to the instrumental time resolution, but a 100 fs time scale is

consistent with time-resolved fluorescence studies of **1a**, which had a dominant decay time of 80 fs.^{20,21} Thus, the 760 nm TA can be assigned to the fluorescent (bright) Franck–Condon excited state. Beyond 120 fs, both bands decay uniformly, with a time constant of 1.6 ± 0.2 ps, to the baseline, leaving a long-lived transient absorbing below 500 nm (Figure 2). This long-lived transient is assigned to formation of **1b**, which has its absorption onset below 500 nm (Figure S8). As previously noted,²¹ **1b** is formed directly as the 1.6 ps excited-state intermediate decays; consistent with that, an isosbestic point is observed at 480 nm, persisting over the first 1 ps (Figure 2A). The isosbestic point is absent at later times, being replaced by a monotonic decay. The loss of the isosbestic point is ascribed to vibrational cooling in the ground state of **1b**, which is formed from the 550 nm absorbing excited state with considerable excess energy. As the **1b** ground state cools, the hot-band contribution to the red-edge absorption (ca. 480 nm) will decrease, thus modifying the shape of the spectrum.

These TA data are consistent with the previous model developed on the basis of time-resolved fluorescence and picosecond TA.^{20,21} The newly observed ultrafast decay in the 760 nm TA band is assigned to the short-lived bright state. Its decrease in amplitude and blue shift reflects the ultrafast structural distortion as the Franck–Condon excited state evolves toward a dark state, to which the rapidly rising 550 nm TA is assigned. These states establish an equilibrium and decay in parallel with the 1.6 ps decay constant. The dark state partitions via a CI to either the original ground state, **1a**, or the metastable state, **1b**. The principal conclusions concerning population dynamics on the excited-state potential surface are summarized in Figure 3.

Figure 3. Schematic 1D plot of energy as a function of reaction coordinate. In this representation of the multidimensional reactive potential energy surface, the Franck–Condon excited bright state absorbs at 760 nm. As structural relaxation occurs in 100 fs toward the dark state, the S_1 energy decreases but the spectrum blue shifts, requiring increasing energy separation to S_n . The dark state is formed in 100 fs and absorbs at 550 nm. Its structure is significantly different from that of the bright state, such that the higher (S_n) excited state need not be of the same origin as the bright state, and other intermediate states of lower transition moment may exist. As the dark state forms, the S_0 energy increases, and internal conversion to the ground state may occur at CIs. Note that the structural coordinate connecting bright and dark states need not be the same as that connecting the dark state to the CI and **1b**.

The coherently excited vibrational oscillations observed in time-resolved fluorescence are also observed in the TA data (Figure 2B). The residual data recovered after subtraction of the 1.6 ps exponential fit were analyzed in terms of a sum of damped cosine functions, with a sum of three functions required to obtain a good fit. The frequencies recovered were 114, 172, and 271 cm^{-1} , consistent with earlier fluorescence data.²⁰ The damping time constants have large errors associated with them (Supporting Information, section S14), but a mean value of 530 fs is recovered. These coherently excited modes in the excited electronic state are most apparent in the bright state but are also present in the dark state TA (Figures 2B, S6, and S7). This is a significant result, showing that the vibronic coherences initially excited in the Franck–Condon bright state are preserved during the extensive structural reorganization leading to the dark state. The correspondence between frequencies in the dark and bright states, and a mean damping time which is longer than the ca. 100 fs required for light to dark conversion, suggests an assignment to “spectator modes”, i.e., modes that modulate the energy or transition moment of the excited state but are not directly modified during the reaction. The persistence of such coherent vibrational dynamics into the dark state may have implications for the quantum yield of the isomerization, as recent simulations suggest that passage through a conical intersection is a function of vibrational coherence.⁴²

For the FSRS measurements, the 550 nm wavelength for the Raman pump (see Experimental Details) was chosen to be resonant with the S_1 -to- S_n transition of the dark state (Figure 3). Since the transition is strong (Figure 2A), the FSRS spectra will be dominated by resonantly enhanced Raman-active modes of the dark state. The time-dependent FSRS spectra (Figure 4A,B) are compared with the steady-state stimulated Raman spectra of the **1a** ground state and with the long-time (averaged over 70–100 ps) FSRS response shown in Figure 4C. The latter measurement corresponds to a difference spectrum between the stimulated Raman spectra of the **1a** and **1b** ground states, but given that the red-shifted absorption spectrum of **1b** (Figure S9) is more strongly resonant with the Raman pump wavelength, we expect its contribution to dominate the spectrum. The stimulated Raman spectrum for **1a** is in good agreement with the steady-state resonance Raman spectrum (Figure S10), as expected.

These experimental ground-state spectra are complemented by DFT calculations for **1a** and **1b** (Figure 4C). There is good agreement between calculation and experiment. The Raman spectrum of **1a** is dominated by two broad modes around 1580 cm^{-1} matching the intense pair of calculated modes. The experiment suggests a red shift for the most Raman-active modes between **1a** and **1b**, which is again reproduced in the calculation. The DFT calculations reveal that, for both **1a** and **1b**, the cluster of modes around $1400\text{--}1700 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ arise mainly from C=C stretches, with the most intense (for **1a** calculated at 1564 and 1547 cm^{-1} , and for **1b** red-shifted at 1532 and 1503 cm^{-1}) having major contributions from the stretch of the olefinic bridging bond; detailed DFT assignments are presented in Table S1, and the bond displacements for the five most Raman-active modes of **1a** and **1b** are shown in Figure S5. A major contribution from bridge-localized modes in the resonance Raman spectrum suggests that such modes are displaced in the transition between the ground and bright states. DFT calculations of the HOMO and LUMO for **1a** are shown in Figure 5. It is apparent that the excitation is localized

Figure 4. Time-dependent evolution of the FSRS data for excited **1a** in cyclohexane (A) and methanol (B). (C) Experimental stimulated Raman spectra of **1a** in the two solvents (blue, methanol; green, cyclohexane) compared with the long-time FSRS spectrum (pink) and the DFT-calculated Raman spectra for **1a** (cyan) and **1b** (red). (D) EAS recovered through a double-exponential global analysis of the FSRS data in (A); the quality of fit is shown in the inset. Complete details of the data analysis are presented in SI9, Figures S13–S15.

on the C=C bond and that the HOMO and LUMO are bonding and antibonding with respect to electronic excitation. This is wholly consistent with both the Raman enhancements and a reduced bond order in the excited state leading to the twisting and pyramidalization reported in calculations.

Figure 5. HOMO and LUMO from the DFT calculation (SI3) showing localization of excitation on the bridging bond.

The FSRS signals beyond 170 fs decay monotonically (Figure 4A). The 100 fs rise resolved in TA is not recovered, as the first 170 fs of data are obscured by a coherence artifact during pulse overlap. FSRS experiments conducted in both polar H-bonding methanol and nonpolar cyclohexane yielded very similar spectra (Figure 4A,B) and kinetics. This suggests that intramolecular electronic and nuclear structure relaxation dominate the excited-state dynamics and that the medium has only a minor effect on dark-state structure.

The FSRS decay is non-single-exponential (see below), but the mean time constant (1.4 ps) is in accord with that for TA decay (1.6 ps). This confirms the assignment of the FSRS to the dark state. The most intense FSRS signals are observed at 1430 and 1345 cm⁻¹ (Figure 4A), markedly red-shifted with respect to the most intense experimental ground-state Raman bands (1585 and 1560 cm⁻¹, Figure 4B). Similar but smaller red shifts were noted in studies of the “stiff-stilbene” photoisomerization, which also proceeds following excitation localized on a bridging C=C bond.⁴³ The 70 cm⁻¹ red shift in that case was associated with a calculated lengthening of the ethylenic bond by 7 pm. The larger red shift seen here suggests an even larger change in **1a** structure; such large shifts are consistent with the results of theoretical calculation. For example, Filatov calculated that the bridging bond extends by 13 pm between the ground state and the lowest energy CI in an earlier generation alkene-based molecular motor.¹⁸ A similarly large extension of an ethylenic bond was calculated upon excitation of diphenyl dibenzofulvene.⁴⁴ The red shift in the dominant modes detected in FSRS is thus interpreted as reflecting localization of the S₀→S₁ excitation on the olefinic bridging bond (Figure 5), leading to reduced bond order in the Franck–Condon excited state, which in turn allows the structural evolution (pyramidalization and twisting^{18,19}) to form the dark-state structure, which has a significantly extended bridging bond compared to the ground state.

An alternative explanation for the red shift is that higher quanta of the C=C stretch are populated in the Franck–Condon state and retain their population in the dark state. In that case, the FSRS spectra may reflect a “hot band” Raman transition from $\nu = 1$ to 2, thus red-shifted due to anharmonicity. This is a less likely explanation, as the C=C stretch plays a major role in the electronic transition and is thus strongly perturbed upon excitation, undergoing a large frequency shift. Further, the bridging C=C bond is intimately involved in the highly anharmonic reaction coordinate (twisting, stretching, and pyramidalization). Both of these factors will contribute to very strong coupling with low-frequency background modes, and ultrafast intramolecular

vibrational relaxation (IVR) will occur for any population initially in the C=C stretch.

Two other features of the FSRS spectra deserve comment. The Raman line widths in the excited state (Figure 4A,B) are on the order of 50 cm^{-1} , significantly broader than those measured in the ground state (Figure 4C), the widths of which mainly reflect the instrumental resolution. The broad line width can in part be ascribed to lifetime broadening, with the 1.5 ps lifetime yielding a line width of ca. 15 cm^{-1} . In addition, as noted above (Figure 3), the dark state is formed rapidly in an energetically downhill process. Thus, the dark state is expected to have considerable excess energy residing, after rapid IVR, in low-frequency modes. Coupling between this hot vibrational distribution and the higher frequency stretch modes probed in FSRS will also contribute to an increased line width. The second noteworthy feature is that a significantly larger number of modes contribute to the excited-state Raman spectra than appear in the ground state. The appearance of numerous Raman-active modes is not in itself surprising. The ground-state DFT calculation reveals numerous modes in this region, largely associated with C=C stretches localized on the fluorene and naphthyl rings of **1a** (S13, Table S1). We assign the difference between the sparse ground-state and rich excited-state spectra observed here to the dominance of the bridge C=C stretch in the S_0 – S_1 resonance-enhanced spectrum, arising from the expected large displacement (Figure 5). The FSRS spectrum, on the other hand, is resonant with S_1 – S_n , and thus need not show the same enhancement pattern. Detailed assignment of the FSRS spectrum therefore requires both high-quality calculations of the dark-state spectrum and further experiments with isotopically labeled samples; progress in this direction is encouraging.²⁵

One further possible origin of additional modes in FSRS is a contribution from the S_n state, arising from coherence Stokes Raman scattering (CSRS). Ernstring et al. recently showed the appearance of S_1 vibrations in broadband CSRS measurements resonant with the S_0 → S_1 transition.⁴⁵ This seems less likely here, as the inherently ultrafast lifetime of higher excited S_n states will make any such contribution extremely broad and thus difficult to resolve.

Significantly, the shape of the FSRS spectrum evolves over time (Figure 4A). In particular, the pair of higher frequency modes at 1590 and 1520 cm^{-1} are well resolved at 170 fs but ill defined by 1 ps. The evolution persists for ca. 10 ps when the final state is formed. The final state (time-averaged spectrum in Figure 4C) is readily identified as **1b** by a comparison with the calculated Raman spectrum (see below). Thus, to a first approximation, the spectral evolution can be considered simply as decay of the dark state to form **1b** (and **1a**), where the formation of **1b** yields the mode at ca. 1560 cm^{-1} , which “fills in” the intensity between the $1590/1520\text{ cm}^{-1}$ pair. Such a mechanism predicts an evolution with a single time constant and single final species, **1b**. The FSRS were analyzed using a global analysis procedure assuming this model, and the evolution-associated spectra (EAS) are presented in Figure S13b. While qualitatively satisfactory, the single-exponential fit does not adequately describe the data. For example, first, the deviation between experimental and fitted intensities around 2–4 ps at 1430 cm^{-1} is apparent. Second, the recovered time constant is 1 ps, which is less than the 1.6 ps dark-state decay time measured accurately in TA. Finally, the long-time “final” spectrum has a nonphysical sloping baseline that does not correspond to **1b** (Figure 4B,C). Consequently, we added an

additional component to the global analysis. In that case, the fit is good (Figure S16), the mean decay time reflects the time constant recovered from the TA, and the final spectrum has a flat baseline. Essentially the same results as in Figure 4D were obtained for methanol (Figures S13 and S14).

The global analysis shows the FSRS relaxing in 400 fs to an intermediate spectrum which already contains part of the **1b** spectrum but is otherwise similar to the early-time spectrum. We suggest that the origin of the non-single-exponential decay of the dark state lies in its ultrafast formation. Being formed in ca. 100 fs, the initial dark state will appear with a nonthermal population in low-frequency modes which will depend on the initial excitation energy and the intramolecular coupling. On a picosecond time scale this population evolves, leading to different mode coupling patterns, which will in turn modify the high-frequency spectra observed in Figure 4. Similar spectral evolution has been seen in other systems by FSRS.⁴⁶ There is no reason to expect *a priori* such an intramolecular relaxation to be governed by an exponential decay law, so the intermediate EAS simply reflects a continuous evolution of the dark-state spectrum, and it is this spectral evolution which lends the FSRS a nonexponential relaxation, while the dark-state population decay kinetics are monoexponential.

A second important feature of the FSRS is the long-lived (permanent on the 100 ps time scale) pair of transitions at 1550 and 1510 cm^{-1} . As mentioned above, these are assigned to vibrational modes of the metastable **1b** form, even though **1b** is not fully resonant with the Raman pump (Figure S9). Since FSRS records the difference spectrum, these transitions, if they are from **1b**, must arise from a vibrational mode which is shifted with respect to **1a**. The DFT calculation indeed predicts two such shifted modes with significant Raman amplitude and contributions from the olefinic C=C stretch (Figure 4C and S15); this is consistent with an assignment of the long-lived FSRS to **1b**. These data thus show that **1b** forms directly from the dark state. We further note a slow (tens of picoseconds) shift of the **1b** mode to higher frequency (Figure 4A), which we ascribe to excess energy in S_0 , which is formed with a high vibrational temperature by isoenergetic internal conversion from the S_1 dark state. The initially formed hot ground state will relax by IVR to populate a distribution of low-frequency modes. The effect of anharmonic coupling of these low-frequency modes to the C=C stretch is to shift the Raman-active mode to lower wavenumber.⁴⁷ As the low-frequency modes transfer energy to the solvent on a picosecond time scale, the C=C mode shifts to higher wavenumber, as observed.

Finally, we note the occurrence of a weak and persistent negative signal at 1590 cm^{-1} . A long-lived negative feature is not expected from the S_1 → S_n resonance used to generate the FSRS. Such features have been observed in other FSRS experiments^{41,48} and may reflect the appearance of dispersive lineshapes.⁴⁸ However, we note that this negative signal matches closely the most intense ground-state feature in the Raman spectrum. There are additional (albeit nonresonant) pathways through which the ground state could contribute to the FSRS spectrum.⁴¹ Consequently, the possibility of ground-state modes contributing even in the fully resonant S_1 → S_n FSRS spectrum is a complicating feature which should be borne in mind when analyzing such data.

CONCLUSION

We have investigated excited-state dynamics of the best established light-driven molecular motor. Both ultrafast population dynamics and the vibrational structure of an intermediate dark excited electronic state in the photocycle have been characterized. The bright Franck–Condon excited state decays in <100 fs to establish an equilibrium with the dark state. This excited-state structure change is accompanied by coherent excitation of vibrational modes. The vibrational coherences are attenuated in the dark state but nevertheless survive the 100 fs structural evolution from the bright state. The dark-state spectrum is characterized by a marked decrease in the frequency of Raman-active modes. This is assigned to elongation and weakening of the bridging olefinic bond. Other C=C ring-localized modes are resolved in the dark state with greater amplitude compared to the ground electronic state, due to a change in the resonance condition. Further intramolecular relaxation was observed in the dark state through evolution of the FSRs spectral profile. The excited dark-state population decays directly back to the ground electronic state in 1.6 ps, partitioning between the original (**1a**) and metastable (**1b**) forms. The photochemical product **1b** is formed from the dark state with considerable excess vibrational energy. This excess energy relaxes via ultrafast IVR and subsequently cools by energy transfer to the solvent on the tens of picoseconds time scale.

EXPERIMENTAL DETAILS

The synthesis and characterization of **1a** has been described elsewhere.¹¹ Measurements were made in a 0.2 mm cuvette with an OD of 0.4; excitation was at 390 nm. The laser source is detailed elsewhere.⁴⁹ The spectrometers used for TA and FSRs and the measurement and signal processing procedures are detailed in the Supporting Information. The global analysis software used has been described elsewhere.⁵⁰

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the ACS Publications website at DOI: 10.1021/jacs.7b03599.

Sections SI1, transient absorption spectroscopy measurements; SI2, femtosecond stimulated Raman spectroscopy measurements; SI3, calculated vibrational modes of **1a** and **1b**; SI4, analysis of coherent oscillations in TA measurements; SI5, steady-state absorption and fluorescence; SI6, ground-state resonant Raman spectroscopy compared to stimulated Raman; SI7, unfiltered FSRs data; SI8, decay associated spectra; and SI9, global analysis of FSRs dynamics, including Figures S1–S16, Tables S1 and S2, and supplementary references (PDF)

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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