

Intramolecular Relaxation Dynamics Mediated by Solvent–Solute Interactions of Substituted Fluorene Derivatives. Solute Structural Dependence

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Cite This: *J. Phys. Chem. B* 2021, 125, 12486–12499

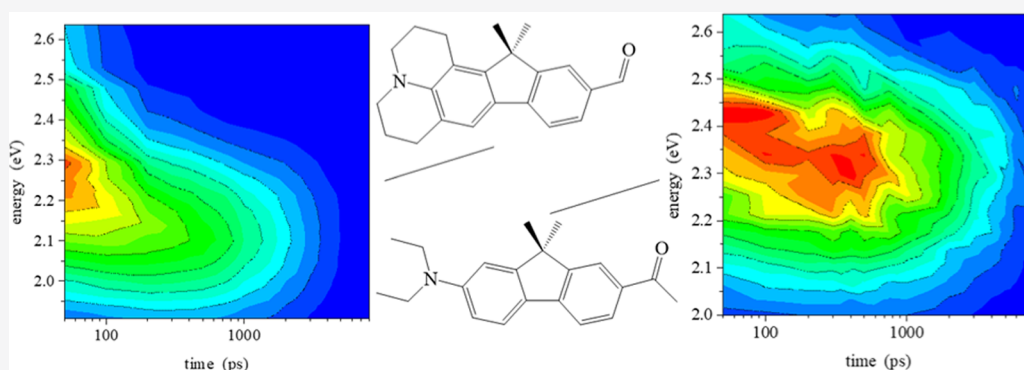
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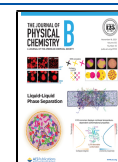
ABSTRACT: Several fluorene derivatives exhibit excited-state reactivity and relaxation dynamics that remain to be understood fully. We report here the spectral relaxation dynamics of two fluorene derivatives to evaluate the role of structural modification in the intramolecular relaxation dynamics and intermolecular interactions that characterize this family of chromophores. We have examined the time-resolved spectral relaxation dynamics of two compounds, NCy-FRO and MK-FRO, in protic and aprotic solvents using steady-state and time-resolved emission spectroscopy and quantum chemical computations. Both compounds exhibit spectral relaxation characteristics similar to those seen in FRO, indicating that hydrogen bonding interactions between the chromophore and solvent protons play a significant role in determining the relaxation pathways available to three excited electronic states.

INTRODUCTION

Photoactivated chemical reactants are a class of compounds with reactivities that can be controlled through light activation. These molecules become reactive only when in an excited electronic state, and this property is central to achieving high spatial and temporal control of chemical reactions. Applications such as precision chemistry and high-speed chemical sensing are enabled by this class of compounds. Prior to utilizing a photoactivated reagent in a chemical reaction, the relevant excited-state properties of the reagent must be understood at a level sufficient to provide insights into the reaction mechanism and potentially the reaction coordinate. In principle, photoreagents can be used to perform proton or electron exchange reactions, with proton exchange reactions being studied more extensively to date. The photoreagent for proton exchange reactions can function as a proton donor (photoacid)^{1–17} or as a proton acceptor (photobase).^{18–23} Photoacids are more numerous than photobases, and recent work has demonstrated a family of photobases capable of very large changes in basicity ($\Delta pK_b \sim 14$).^{18–20}

The excited-state behavior of one of the few known super-photobases, FRO-SB (Figure 1a), has been characterized recently in protic and aprotic solvent environments, and the reaction coordinate and excited states have been identified for the solvent proton abstraction reaction.^{18–20} In an effort to understand more fully the photoinduced change in reactivity of FRO-SB from a structural perspective, we have studied the excited-state relaxation dynamics of the aldehyde precursor, FRO (Figure 1b).²⁴ Using steady-state and time-resolved emission spectroscopy in conjunction with *ab initio* quantum chemistry calculations, multiple unresolved bands were found to contribute to the broad and relatively featureless steady-state emission spectrum of FRO in both protic and aprotic

Received: July 20, 2021
Revised: October 28, 2021
Published: November 9, 2021



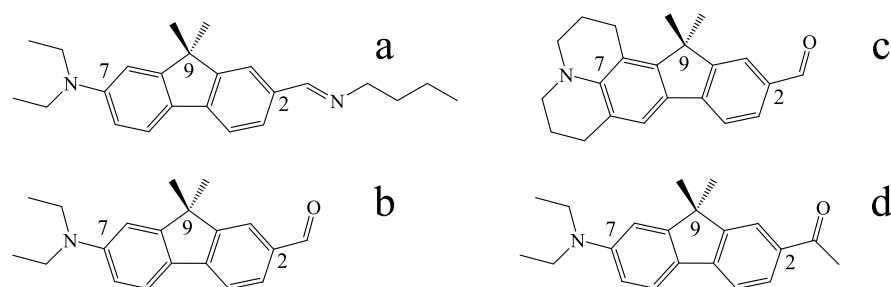
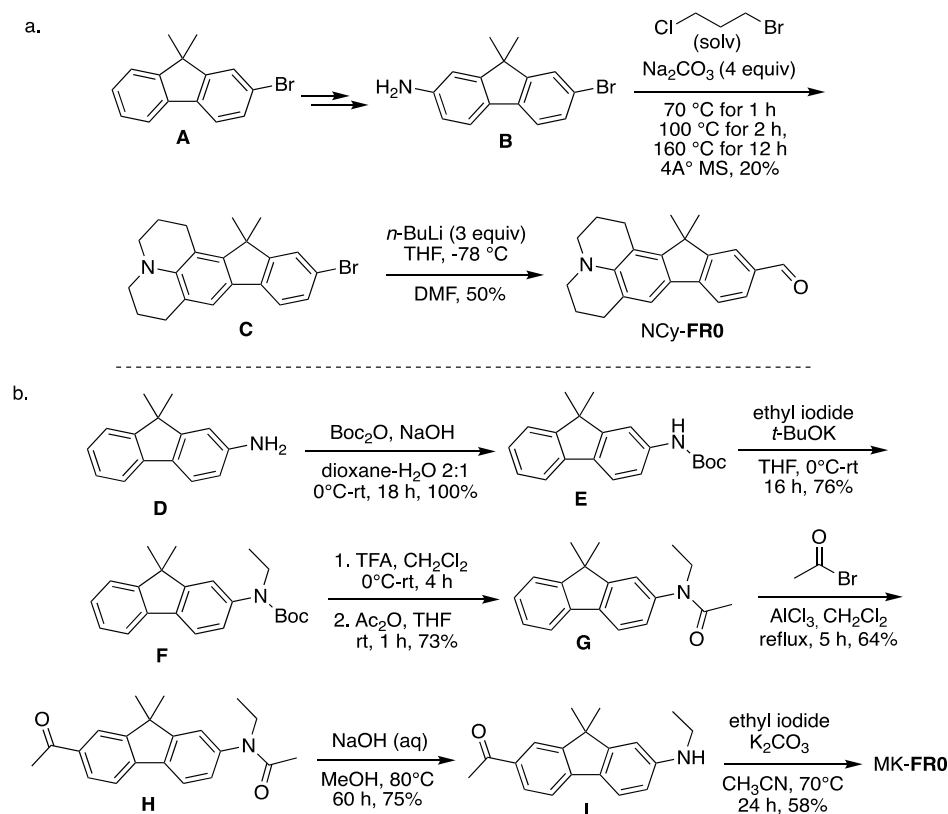


Figure 1. Molecular structures of (a) FR0-SB Schiff base, (b) FR0 precursor, (c) NCy-FR0 structural precursor, and (d) MK-FR0 structural precursor.

Scheme 1. Synthesis of (a) NCy-FR0 and (b) MK-FR0



solvents. The individual bands were associated with three excited singlet electronic states in relatively close energetic proximity. The solvent medium was found to exhibit significant control over the coupling and relaxation rates between the electronic states in FR0. State-dependent relaxation dynamics were observed in protic solvents, whereas the coupling between electronic excited states was markedly different for FR0 in dipolar aprotic solvents. The state-dependent relaxation dynamics of FR0 in protic solvents were found to depend on solvent hydroxyl group concentration, analogous to the behavior seen for the super-photobase FR0-SB. For the FR0 precursor, quantum chemical calculations demonstrated that the S_2 state exhibited a change in electron density distribution that is localized in the vicinity of the aldehyde moiety, which is significantly different from the electron density distributions for either the S_1 or S_3 states. This state-dependent variation in electron density distribution at the aldehyde gives rise to state-dependent differences in the permanent dipole moment, and we postulated that hydrogen bonding to FR0 in its S_2 state

mediated intramolecular relaxation pathways involving this electronic state. The site for the relevant hydrogen bond is the carbonyl oxygen, with the lone pairs on the oxygen presumably interacting with solvent hydroxyl protons.

The postulate that solvent hydrogen bonding interactions with the FR0 aldehyde carbonyl moiety are primarily responsible for the observed spectral dynamics can be tested by making systematic structural changes to the FR0 molecule and relating these changes to the spectral relaxation dynamics of the modified compounds. We report those studies here. Two FR0 derivatives were examined, NCy-FR0 (Figure 1c), possessing a cyclized amino functionality, and MK-FR0 (Figure 1d), the methyl ketone analogue of the FR0 aldehyde. These structural modifications were targeted because of their ability to address two specific issues. The first issue, whether or not the charge-transfer excited state(s) contributes to the observed spectral relaxation dynamics, can be evaluated by restricting the rotational freedom of the FR0 amino group. The cyclization of the amino functionality of FR0 and comparison

of the spectral relaxation dynamics of the free and cyclized species address this issue directly. The second issue is the role of the aldehydic proton in the observed spectral dynamics. Replacement of the aldehydic proton with a methyl group to form the methyl ketone affords a direct examination of the role of the carbonyl moiety. The data reported here reveal the absence of contributions from charge-transfer excited states to the observed spectral dynamics. Subtle differences are seen in the spectral dynamics of the aldehyde and ketone. While both compounds undergo hydrogen bonding with protic solvents, the differences in the electron density distributions of the aldehyde and ketone moieties lead to differences in dipolar contributions to the observed dynamics.

EXPERIMENTAL AND COMPUTATIONAL DETAILS

Materials. *n*-Propanol (99.7%, anhydrous) and dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO, $\geq 99.9\%$, anhydrous) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich and used as received. All chemicals and solvents were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich and used without further purification. Syntheses of NCy-FR0 and MK-FR0 are depicted in Scheme 1a,b, respectively.

C: Scheme 1a depicts the synthesis of NCy-FR0 starting from the known 9,9-dimethylated monobromo fluorene A.²⁵ The bromo amine B (200 mg, 0.7 mmol, 1 equiv), 1-bromo-3-chloropropane (0.6 mL), Na₂CO₃ (297 mg, 2.8 mmol, 4 equiv), and 4 Å MS (50 mg) were added to a 50 mL flask and heated with vigorous stirring under an argon atmosphere by a gradual increase in temperature (70 °C for 1 h, 100 °C for 2 h, and 160 °C for 12 h). The resulting mixture was then cooled to room temperature, the excess 1-bromo-3-chloropropane was distilled off, and the residue was picked up in CH₂Cl₂. The crude solution in dichloromethane was extracted with water two times and dried with anhydrous sodium sulfate, and the solvent of the combined organics was removed under reduced pressure. The residue was washed with hot MeOH three times, and the product, obtained as a brown solid (50 mg, 0.14 mmol, 20%), was used in the next step.

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 7.40 (s, 1H), 7.33 (m, 2H), 7.15 (s, 1H), 3.20 (q, $J = 6.5$ Hz, 4H), 3.01 (t, $J = 6.4$ Hz, 2H), 2.83 (t, $J = 6.5$ Hz, 2H), 2.01 (dt, $J = 18.1, 6.1$ Hz, 4H), 1.55 (s, 6H). ¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 155.67, 148.01, 143.19, 138.87, 129.73, 126.73, 125.26, 120.80, 119.28, 118.73, 118.50, 118.27, 50.79, 50.08, 48.21, 28.43, 25.12, 24.35, 22.12, 21.89.

NCy-FR0: The bromo fluorene C (500 mg, 1.4 mmol, 1 equiv) was dissolved in dry THF (30 mL), and the solution was cooled down to -78 °C under an argon atmosphere. *n*-Buli (2.5 M in hexane, 1.7 mL) was added to the resulting solution dropwise and stirred for 45 min. Formylation of the resulting metal-halogen exchanged intermediate was achieved by addition of dry DMF (2.7 mL, 25 equiv), which was stirred for 2 h at -78 °C and at room temperature for another 12 h. The reaction was quenched with water (10 mL) and extracted with ethyl acetate three times; the combined organics were dried with sodium sulfate, and the solvent was removed under reduced pressure. The resulting crude was washed with hot MeOH three times and dried to get the pure compound as a yellow fluorescent solid (222 mg, 0.7 mmol, 50%).

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ : 9.95 (s, 1H), 7.81 (d, $J = 1.0$ Hz, 1H), 7.73 (dd, $J = 8$ Hz, 1.5 Hz, 1H), 7.56 (d, $J = 7.9$ Hz, 1H), 7.25 (s, 1H), 3.22–3.26 (m, 4H), 3.03 (t, $J = 6.4$ Hz, 2H), 2.84 (t, $J = 6.5$ Hz, 2H), 2.10–1.88 (m, 4H), 1.59 (s, 6H). ¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ : 192.01, 154.03, 150.13,

146.78, 144.29, 131.16, 126.99, 125.76, 122.00, 120.95, 119.97, 118.13, 117.67, 50.69, 50.00, 47.86, 28.43, 24.94, 24.24, 21.87, 21.62.

E: The synthesis of MK-FR0 is depicted in Scheme 1b. A solution of 9,9-dimethyl-9H-fluoren-2-amine D, (1 equiv, 4.77 mmol, 1.0 g) dissolved in a mixture of dioxane–H₂O (2:1) and 2 N NaOH (0.6 mL) was cooled to 0 °C. Boc₂O (1.75 equiv, 1.21 mmol, 0.265 g) was added in one portion, and the mixture was stirred while warming to room temperature, for 18 h. The reaction was quenched by acidifying the solution with 1 M KHSO₄ (0.5 mL) to pH 3, which yielded the product as a precipitate. The precipitated solid was then washed with ice-cold water (3 mL), dioxane–H₂O (2:1, 5 mL) and hexanes (5 mL) and was subsequently dried overnight in the presence of P₂O₅ to yield a yellow-white solid (0.99 g, 100%). The product was used without further purification in the next step.

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): 1.48 (s, 6 H), 1.55 (s, 9H), 6.54 (bs, 1H), 7.19 (dd, $J = 8.2, 2.0$ Hz, 1H), 7.32 (td, $J = 7.4, 1.3$ Hz, 1H), 7.43–7.40 (m, 1H), 7.67–7.61 (m, 3H).

F: To an ice-cold mixture of *tert*-butyl (9,9-dimethyl-9H-fluoren-2-yl)carbamate E (1 equiv, 3.23 mmol, 1 equiv) and ethyl iodide (2.5 equiv, 8.07 mmol, 0.65 mL) dissolved in dry THF (25 mL) was added potassium *tert*-butoxide (4 equiv, 12.9 mmol, 1.5 g) in three portions over 30 min. The resultant mixture was stirred overnight for 16 h. After this time, H₂O (15 mL) was added, and the mixture was extracted with CH₂Cl₂ (3 \times 10 mL) and dried over anhydrous magnesium sulfate, and the solvent was removed under reduced pressure. The resulting crude compound was purified using flash chromatography (0 \rightarrow 12% EtOAc in hexanes) to yield the pure product as a pale-yellow oil (0.82 g, 76%).

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 1.20 (t, $J = 7.1$ Hz, 3H), 1.44 (s, 9H), 1.49 (s, 6H), 3.73 (q, $J = 7.1$ Hz, 2H), 7.16 (d, $J = 7.5$ Hz, 1H), 7.23 (s, 1H), 7.30–7.37 (m, 2H), 7.42–7.45 (m, 1H) 7.66 (d, $J = 8.0$ Hz, 1H), 7.69–7.72 (m, 1H).

G: A solution of *tert*-butyl (9,9-dimethyl-9H-fluoren-2-yl)(ethyl)carbamate F (1 equiv, 0.723 mmol, 0.244 g) in dry CH₂Cl₂ (6 mL) was cooled to 0 °C followed by the dropwise addition of trifluoroacetic acid (10 equiv, 7.23 mmol, 0.55 mL). The solution was stirred at this temperature for 30 min and was warmed to room temperature where it was stirred for an additional 4 h. The reaction was then quenched using saturated NaHCO₃ (10 mL), and the organic layer was separated. The aqueous layer was extracted with CH₂Cl₂ (3 \times 10 mL), and the combined organics were dried over anhydrous sodium sulfate, and the solvent was removed under reduced pressure. The crude deprotected fluorene was used directly in the next step without any further purification. The intermediate was then redissolved in THF (5 mL) followed by addition of acetic anhydride (2 equiv, 1.45 mmol, 0.14 mL), and the mixture was stirred at ambient temperature for 1 h. The reaction was quenched with saturated NaHCO₃ (10 mL), followed by separation of the organic layer. The aqueous layer was extracted with CH₂Cl₂ (3 \times 10 mL), and the combined organics were dried over anhydrous sodium sulfate, and the solvent was removed under reduced pressure. The crude acylated product was purified via flash chromatography (1:9 EtOAc/hexanes), yielding the pure compound G as a beige-yellow solid (0.148 g, 73%).

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 1.18 (t, $J = 7.2$ Hz, 3H), 1.51 (s, 6H), 1.91 (s, 3H), 3.82 (t, $J = 7.2$ Hz, 2H), 7.13 (dd, $J = 7.9, 1.9$ Hz, 1H), 7.21 (d, $J = 1.9$ Hz, 1H), 7.35–7.39 (m, 2H), 7.38–7.45 (m, 1H), 7.72–7.77 (m, 2H).

H: To a solution of *N*-(9,9-dimethyl-9*H*-fluoren-2-yl)-*N*-ethylacetamide **G** (1 equiv, 0.49 mmol, 0.138 g) in dry CH₂Cl₂ (8 mL) under an atmosphere of argon was added aluminum chloride (3 equiv, 1.5 mmol, 0.20 g). The mixture was stirred for 5 min before the dropwise addition of acetyl bromide (1 equiv, 0.49 mmol, 0.036 mL). The mixture was stirred at 40 °C for 4 h, where at each hour, fresh portions of aluminum chloride (3 equiv, 1.5 mmol, 0.20 g) were added to the reaction. The mixture was quenched by the slow addition of NaHCO₃ (5 mL); the organic layer was separated, and the aqueous layer was extracted with CH₂Cl₂ (3 × 10 mL). The combined organic mixture was dried over anhydrous magnesium sulfate, and the solvent was removed under reduced pressure, yielding the crude compound. The crude was purified via flash chromatography (30 → 80% EtOAc in hexanes), yielding the product **H** as a pure white solid (0.101 g, 64%).

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 1.19 (t, *J* = 7.1 Hz, 3H), 1.54 (s, 6H), 2.00 (s, 3H), 2.68 (s, 3H), 3.84 (q, *J* = 7.2 Hz, 2H), 7.15–7.20 (m, 1H), 7.25 (m, 1H), 7.79–7.84 (m, 2H), 7.99 (dd, *J* = 8.0, 1.6 Hz, 1H), 8.07 (d, *J* = 1.6 Hz, 1H).

I: To the solution of *N*-(7-acetyl-9,9-dimethyl-9*H*-fluoren-2-yl)-*N*-ethylacetamide **H** (1 equiv, 0.316 mmol, 0.102 g) dissolved in methanol (2 mL) was added 6 N NaOH (0.4 mL). The mixture was stirred at 80 °C for 60 h, before cooling it to room temperature. The reaction was diluted with water (5 mL) and extracted with CH₂Cl₂ (3 × 5 mL), and the combined organics were dried over anhydrous magnesium sulfate. The solvent was removed under reduced pressure, and the crude was purified via flash chromatography (5 → 25% EtOAc in hexanes) to yield pure compound **I** as a yellow solid (0.067 g, 75%).

¹H NMR (500 MHz, DMSO-*d*₆): δ 1.19 (t, *J* = 7.1 Hz, 3H), 1.40 (s, 6H), 2.57 (s, 3H), 3.06–3.17 (m, 1H), 5.99 (t, *J* = 5.2 Hz, 1H), 6.57 (dd, *J* = 8.3, 2.1 Hz, 1H), 6.69 (d, *J* = 2.2 Hz, 1H), 7.60 (d, *J* = 8.2 Hz, 1H), 7.65 (d, *J* = 8.0 Hz, 1H), 7.88 (dd, *J* = 7.8, 1.6 Hz, 1H), 7.87 (d, *J* = 1.6 Hz, 1H).

MK-FRO: Ethyl iodide (4 equiv, 0.356 mmol, 0.0915 mL) was added to a stirred solution of 1-(7-(ethylamino)-9,9-dimethyl-9*H*-fluoren-2-yl)ethan-1-one **I** (1 equiv, 0.089 mmol, 0.025 g) and K₂CO₃ (1.5 equiv, 0.134 mmol, 0.0184 g) in dry acetonitrile (1.0 mL). The mixture was stirred at 70 °C for 24 h, before quenching with the addition of H₂O (3 mL). The organic layer was then extracted with CH₂Cl₂ (3 × 2 mL), and the combined organics were dried over anhydrous magnesium sulfate. The solvent was removed under reduced pressure, followed by purification of the crude yellow solid by flash chromatography (5 → 20% EtOAc in hexanes) to yield the pure compound as a yellow solid (0.016 g, 58%).

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): 1.24 (t, *J* = 7.0 Hz, 6H), 1.49 (s, 6H), 2.64 (s, 3H), 3.46 (q, *J* = 7.1 Hz, 4H), 6.67–6.72 (m, 2H), 7.56–7.63 (m, 2H), 7.91 (dd, *J* = 8.0, 1.6 Hz, 1H), 7.98 (d, *J* = 1.6 Hz, 1H).

Sample Preparation. Following synthesis, each compound was stored in ethanol at a concentration of 1 mM. The compounds were prepared for spectroscopic analysis following a procedure similar to that used for **FRO**. Briefly, each compound was brought to dryness with N₂(g) and reconstituted in the solvent system to be studied (*n*-propanol, DMSO, and a binary solvent mixture of *n*-propanol/DMSO). Sample concentrations were ca. 5 × 10⁻⁶ M for the spectroscopic measurements.

Steady-State Emission and Time-Resolved Fluorescence Spectroscopy.

Collection of steady-state and time-resolved emission spectra was performed using the same instrumentation and parameters for analysis of **FRO**,²⁴ and the time-correlated single-photon counting (TCSPC) instrument has been described in detail elsewhere.²⁶ The time resolution of this instrument, determined by its instrument response function, is ca. 35 ps. Excitation of the samples was at 440 nm with 5 ps pulses. For time-domain TCSPC measurements, emission decays were acquired across the wavelength range of 470–620 nm, in 10 nm increments. The acquired time-domain polarized emission data components were exported to Microsoft Excel (Microsoft Office 365, Microsoft Corporation, Redmond, WA). Microcal Origin (OriginPro 9.0, OriginLab Corporation, Northampton, MA) was used for subsequent data processing and analysis, band fitting, and determination of fluorescence lifetime decay constants.

Summary of Computational Protocol. In addition to the abovementioned experiments, we report the results of quantum chemistry computations following the protocol described in ref 24. Thus, for each of the molecular species considered in this work, we calculated the vertical excitation energies corresponding to the four lowest singlet excited states using the composite procedure combining the equation-of-motion coupled-cluster approach with singles and doubles (EOMCCSD)²⁷ employing the 6-31+G* basis set^{28–30} with the triple corrections of the δ-CR-EOMCC(2,3) method of refs 313233 and the 6-31G basis.³⁰ We also computed dipole moments, transition dipole moments, oscillator strengths, Mulliken charges, and electron densities characterizing the ground and four lowest singlet excited states using the EOMCCSD/6-31+G* approach. In ref 24, all calculations were performed using the GAMESS package.^{34,35}

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

To investigate the effects of structural changes to the **FRO** molecule on spectral dynamics, spectroscopic fluorescence

Table 1. S₀ → S_n Vertical Excitation Energies ω_n^(EOMCC) and the Permanent Dipole Moments μ_n Characterizing the Lowest Four Excited Singlet States of NCy-FRO in the Gas Phase^a

state	ω _n ^(EOMCC) (eV)	μ _n (D)
S ₁	3.46	14.4
S ₂	3.82	2.2
S ₃	3.80	8.9
S ₄	4.15	4.3

^aThe dipole moment of NCy-FRO in the ground S₀ state is 6.0 D.

lifetime measurements were performed for NCy-FRO and MK-FRO in *n*-propanol and DMSO to represent the same protic and aprotic media used in the analysis of **FRO**. The results of quantum chemical calculations for NCy-FRO and MK-FRO were used in conjunction with the time-resolved emission data to gain insights into the structure dependence of the relaxation dynamics. We have studied the spectral dynamics of NCy-FRO to evaluate the role of large amplitude motion. For NCy-FRO, the diethyl amino group on **FRO** is tethered to the fluorene ring system (Figure 1c), preventing rotation about the ring carbon to the amino nitrogen bond. This structural modification prevents the amino nitrogen from participating in a twisted intramolecular charge-transfer state.

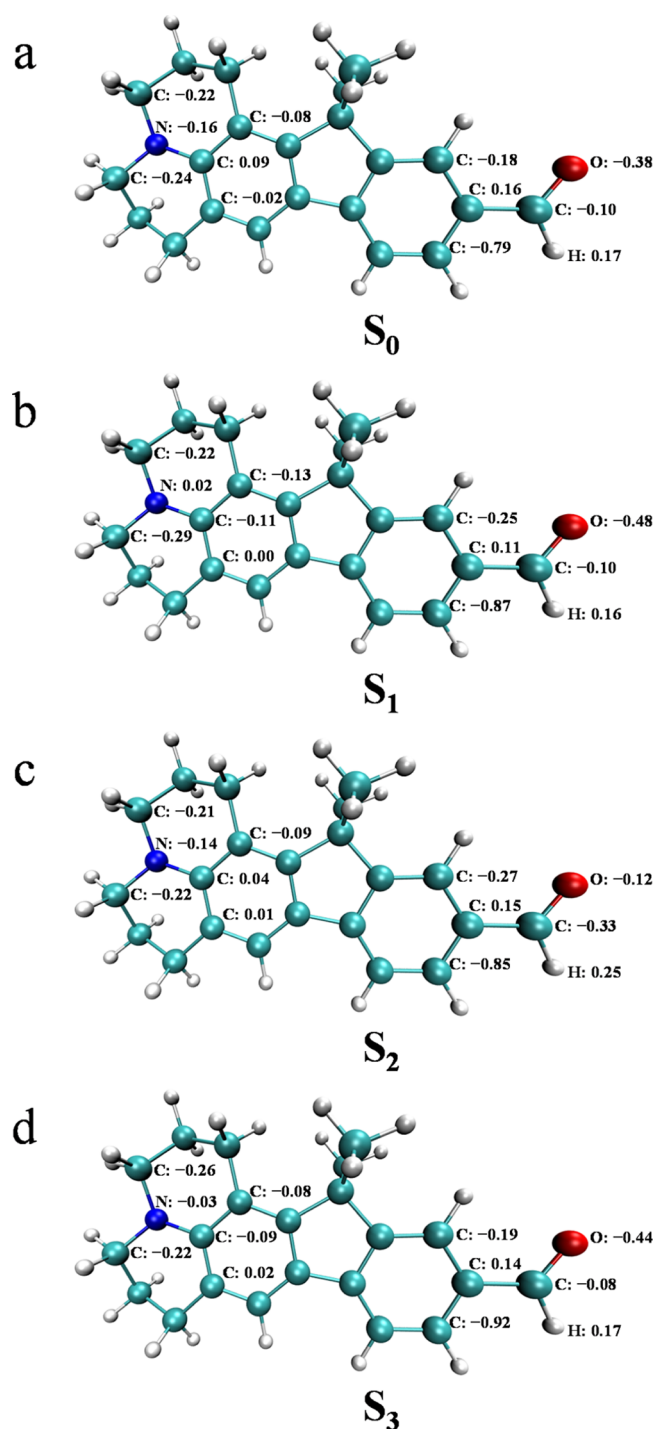


Figure 2. Structure of the isolated NCy-FRO chromophore in its ground electronic S_0 state and the computed Mulliken charges for selected atoms in (a) S_0 , (b) S_1 , (c) S_2 , and (d) S_3 states of NCy-FRO.

Our quantum chemical calculations for NCy-FRO show three excited singlet states in close energetic proximity (Table 1), similar to FRO. The energetic proximity of these three states is consistent with facile relaxation between S_3 , S_2 , and S_1 . Note that the computed vertical excitation energies characterizing the $S_0 \rightarrow S_2$ and $S_0 \rightarrow S_3$ transitions differ by only 0.02 eV, which is within the uncertainty range of our computational protocol. Thus, we also examined other properties associated with the S_2 and S_3 states of NCy-FRO, such as the permanent and transition dipole moments, and compared them with those

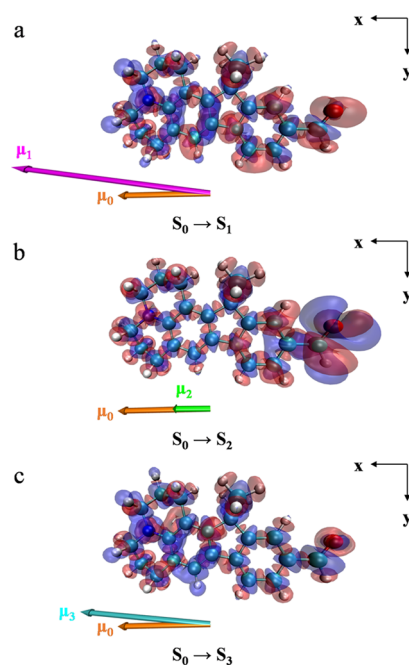


Figure 3. Structure of the isolated NCy-FRO molecule in its ground electronic S_0 state and the electronic density difference associated with the vertical transitions from S_0 to (a) S_1 , (b) S_2 , and (c) S_3 states of NCy-FRO. The red/blue color indicates an increase/decrease in electron density upon the $S_0 \rightarrow S_n$ ($n = 1-3$) excitation, respectively. The dipole moment vectors characterizing the S_0 (orange), S_1 (magenta), S_2 (green), and S_3 (cyan) states of NCy-FRO are shown as well.

reported in ref 24 for the FRO precursor molecule to determine the state ordering shown in Table 1. Our calculations indicate that the permanent dipole moment of NCy-FRO in its S_2 singlet excited state is noticeably smaller than that characterizing the remaining excited states listed in Table 1. In analogy to FRO, solvent–solute interactions in the S_2 state appear to play a substantial role in mediating intramolecular relaxation dynamics for NCy-FRO. The transition dipole moments and oscillator strengths characterizing vertical excitations in NCy-FRO are similar to those obtained for FRO in ref 24 and presented in Table S1 in the Supporting Information.

The Mulliken charges for the aldehyde functionality, specifically the carbonyl group, in the S_2 state of NCy-FRO (Figure 2) are almost identical to those of FRO in the S_2 excited state.²⁴ The carbonyl oxygen exhibits a more positive charge in the S_2 state, with an effective charge of ca. -0.1 , than in the S_1 and S_3 states, where the carbonyl oxygen carries ca. -0.4 effective charge (Figure 2). The state-dependent changes in the Mulliken charges of the aldehyde moiety are manifested as state-dependent changes in permanent dipole moments for each excited state (Table 1), shown visually, along with the corresponding S_n-S_0 electron density differences, in Figure 3. The Mulliken charge on the amino nitrogen atom is close to zero in the ground state and the excited states (Figure 2). There is no evidence from the computational data of any contribution from a charge-transfer species to the excited electronic states. Thus, the interactions between solvent protons and the amino nitrogen are expected to be modest, and no state dependence is expected. Not surprisingly, the results of our quantum chemical calculations for NCy-FRO are very similar to those obtained for FRO. Large-amplitude

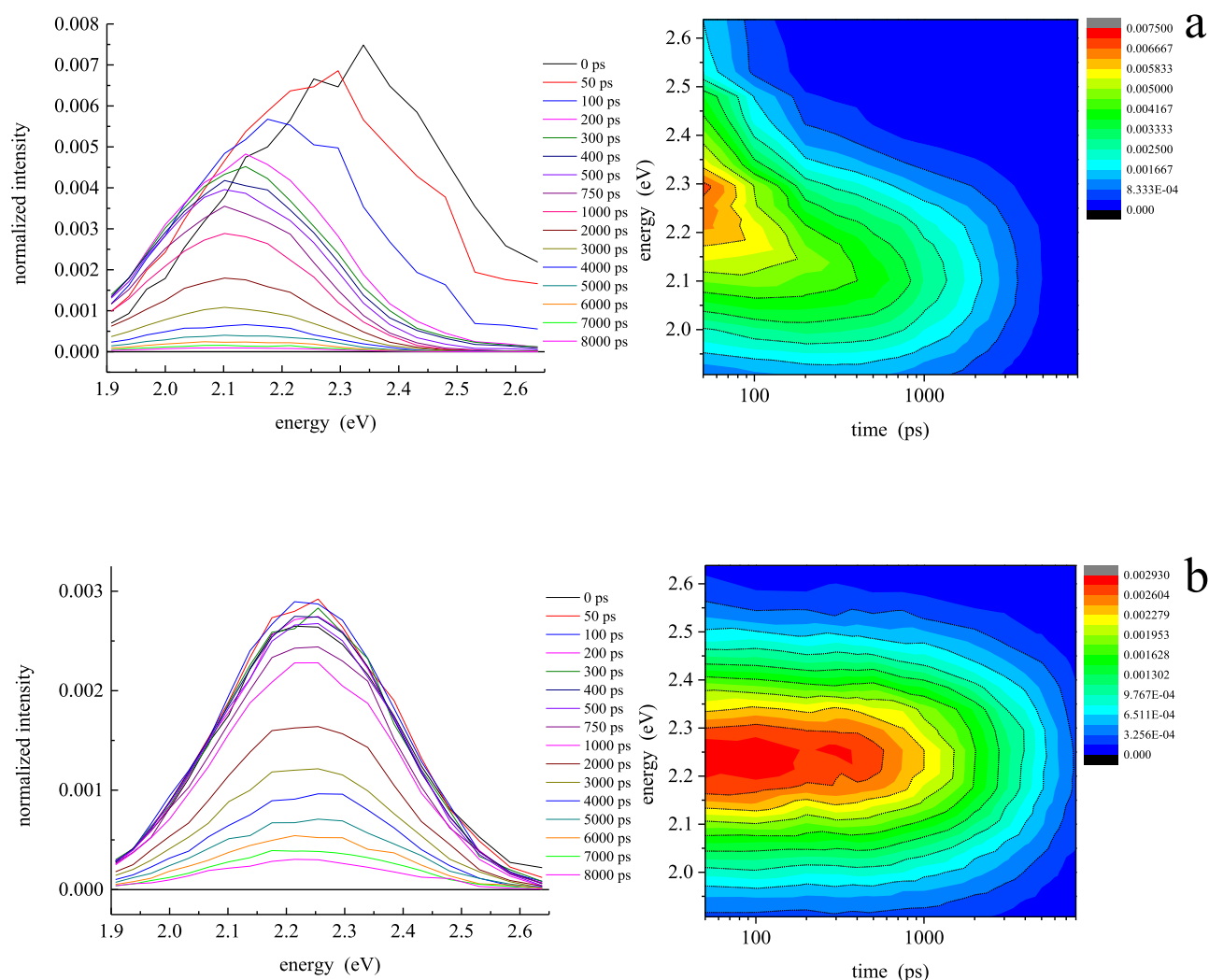


Figure 4. Time-resolved emission spectra for NCy-FR0 in (a) *n*-propanol and (b) DMSO extracted from experimental fluorescence lifetime data. For the spectra in the left panels, the time corresponding to each spectrum is provided in the legends. The right panels are contour plots of the time-resolved spectra.

Table 2. Fitted Rate Constants for the Relaxations Associated with Each of the Three Fitted Emission Bands (Spectral Features) for NCy-FR0 in *n*-Propanol and DMSO

rate constant (Hz)	solvent	
	<i>n</i> -propanol ($\times 10^9$)	DMSO ($\times 10^9$)
k_{32}	9.21 ± 0.87	0.08 ± 0.03
k_{31}	4.93 ± 1.14	0.08 ± 0.07
k_{30}	8.26 ± 1.22	0.21 ± 0.08
k_{21}	0.52 ± 0.30	0.05 ± 0.02
k_{20}	1.46 ± 0.41	0.24 ± 0.02
k_{10}	0.65 ± 0.25	0.80 ± 0.14

rotational motion of the amino group is thus shown to not contribute to the spectral dynamics seen for the FR0 chromophore.

Before proceeding to the discussion of our experimental results, it is important to consider at the outset how to interpret the time-resolved fluorescence data. Time-resolved spectral evolution of broad, relatively featureless emission bands has been reported previously, and the appropriate treatment of such data depends on information beyond the spectral shift alone. The central question is whether the time-

resolved red shift of a broad emission spectrum could, in principle, be either due to the relaxation of a single electronic manifold along a coordinate mediated by the rate at which the surrounding medium relaxes^{36–44} or due to intramolecular relaxation between unresolved electronic state manifolds within the molecule.^{45–54} For most complex organic chromophores, it is likely that both intermolecular interactions and intramolecular relaxation contribute to the observed spectral dynamics. Quantum chemical computations can be of assistance in resolving the electronic structure of organic chromophores.^{24,50,51} When multiple electronic states are shown to exist in close energetic proximity, intramolecular relaxation is expected to contribute to the observed spectral dynamics, although our quantum chemical computations cannot accurately predict the extent to which the intramolecular processes operate because such computations cannot account for intermolecular (solvent–solute) interactions at a level sufficient to model environmental mediation of the intramolecular relaxation processes.

We also recognize that it is unusual for higher excited singlet states to play a significant role in the radiative relaxation dynamics of an organic chromophore.^{55,56} However, vibronic intensity borrowing can play a role in accounting for relaxation

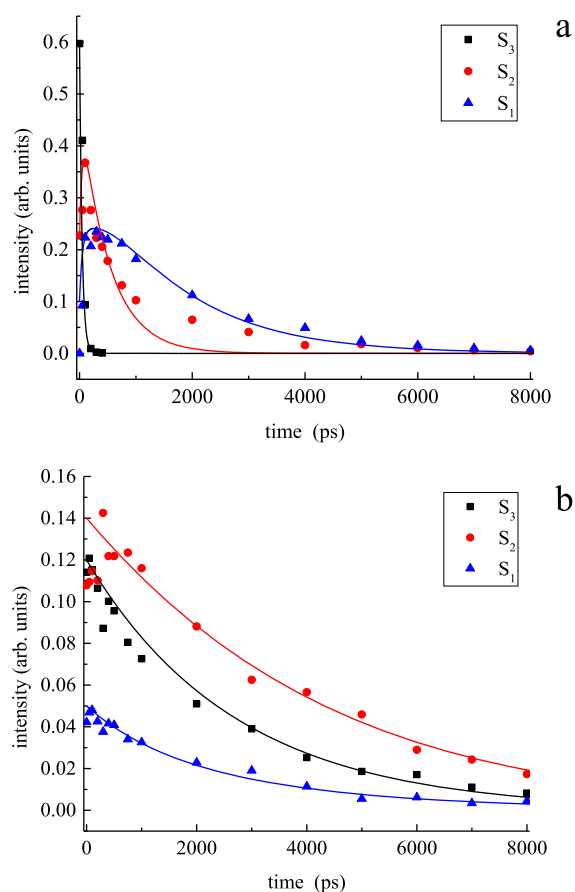


Figure 5. Time-dependent band intensities for three fitted emission bands for NCy-FRO in (a) *n*-propanol and (b) DMSO. The data are fitted to the kinetic model using the rate constants in Table 2.

dynamics between electronic states that are mediated by the properties of the local environment.^{57–59} For the structurally modified FRO chromophores studied in this work, namely, NCy-FRO and MK-FRO (vide infra), there are several closely spaced electronic states, and this situation can give rise to substantial modification of the relative intensities of the absorption and emission bands when compared to results calculated assuming either a vacuum or continuum dielectric medium. Our findings for the unmodified FRO molecule shown in ref 24 are also consistent with vibronic intensity borrowing, accounting for the spectral dynamics that we observe.

The excited-state relaxation dynamics of NCy-FRO are consistent with the results of our quantum chemical calculations. Time-resolved fluorescence lifetime decays in *n*-propanol and DMSO were collected over a wavelength range (470–620 nm) and normalized to the steady-state fluorescence emission spectra collected for each solvent medium. The time-resolved spectra were generated from the experimental lifetime decays (Figures S1 and S2 in the Supporting Information) at various time points across the collection period as a function of emission wavelength (Figure 4). The results display a spectral shift (wavelength dependence) in protic media (Figure 4a), whereas the dynamics remain constant in aprotic media (Figure 4b).

To further investigate the observed spectral dynamics of NCy-FRO, the steady-state emission spectrum in each solvent was treated in the same way described for that of FRO²⁴ to

identify the three Gaussian bands within the broad spectra (Figure S2 in the Supporting Information). The corresponding intensities of each fitted band within the extracted time-resolved spectra (Figure 4) were determined, and from these fits, we generate the time evolution of each band, which corresponds to the solvent–solute complex in each excited state. Consistent with the analysis of FRO, the highest-energy emission band was assigned to the $S_3 \rightarrow S_0$ emission, the intermediate band was assigned to $S_2 \rightarrow S_0$, and the lowest-energy band was assigned to the $S_1 \rightarrow S_0$ emission. Taking the resulting time-dependent band intensities, we applied a kinetic model²⁴ to determine the fitted rate constants associated with the relaxations in each state (i.e., the relaxation of each fitted emission band), which are presented in Table 2 and Figure 5. We present this model in the Supporting Information (Figure S3 and eqs S.1–S.6 in the Supporting Information). The determination of best-fit rate constants using this model does not provide unique rate constants because this is an inherently underdetermined problem. Nevertheless, it is possible to apply self-consistency across the datasets and enforce trivial limits such as positive values only for rate constants. With the abovementioned caveat, we present the fitted rate constant values in Table 2.

Several trends emerge from these fitted results. The relaxation dynamics of NCy-FRO in *n*-propanol appear to be qualitatively different from those in DMSO (Table 2). The fitted rate constants for NCy-FRO in *n*-propanol are consistent with those determined for FRO in *n*-propanol, indicating that hydrogen bonding with solvent protons plays the same role in both systems. For NCy-FRO in DMSO, three rate constants are observed with magnitudes larger than the associated error; these are all associated with direct transitions from the excited electronic state to the ground state ($S_3 \rightarrow S_0$, $S_2 \rightarrow S_0$, $S_1 \rightarrow S_0$) (Table 2). The magnitudes of the rate constants for relaxation between excited states ($S_3 \rightarrow S_2$, $S_3 \rightarrow S_1$, and $S_2 \rightarrow S_1$) are an order of magnitude smaller and in all cases barely larger than their uncertainties. We attribute this finding for DMSO to the absence of excited-state-to-excited-state relaxation in aprotic media. For NCy-FRO, hydrogen bonding with the solvent molecules mediates access to relaxation channels between excited states. Most importantly, however, we see similar dynamics in protic media for NCy-FRO and FRO, reinforcing the assertion that solvent–solute hydrogen bonding interactions proceed predominantly at chromophore carbonyl oxygen, independent of amino nitrogen.

We next investigated the excited-state behavior of MK-FRO to determine the effects of substituting the aldehyde proton with a methyl group on FRO. To investigate the effects of this substitution on the corresponding excited-state behavior, time-resolved lifetime data were collected for MK-FRO in *n*-propanol and DMSO (Figure S4 in the Supporting Information). Consistent with the spectral dynamics of FRO and NCy-FRO, prominent time-domain spectral dynamics were seen in the experimental data for MK-FRO in *n*-propanol (Figure 6a), and the absence of spectral dynamics was observed in DMSO (Figure 6b). It is worth noting that the shift in λ_{max} observed for MK-FRO in DMSO compared to NCy-FRO in DMSO (Figure 4b) is due to the addition of the methyl group, which alters the electron density distribution of the excited states and the magnitudes of the permanent dipole moments.

Quantum chemical calculations revealed similar excited-state energetics for MK-FRO and FRO. Similar to FRO, the vertical

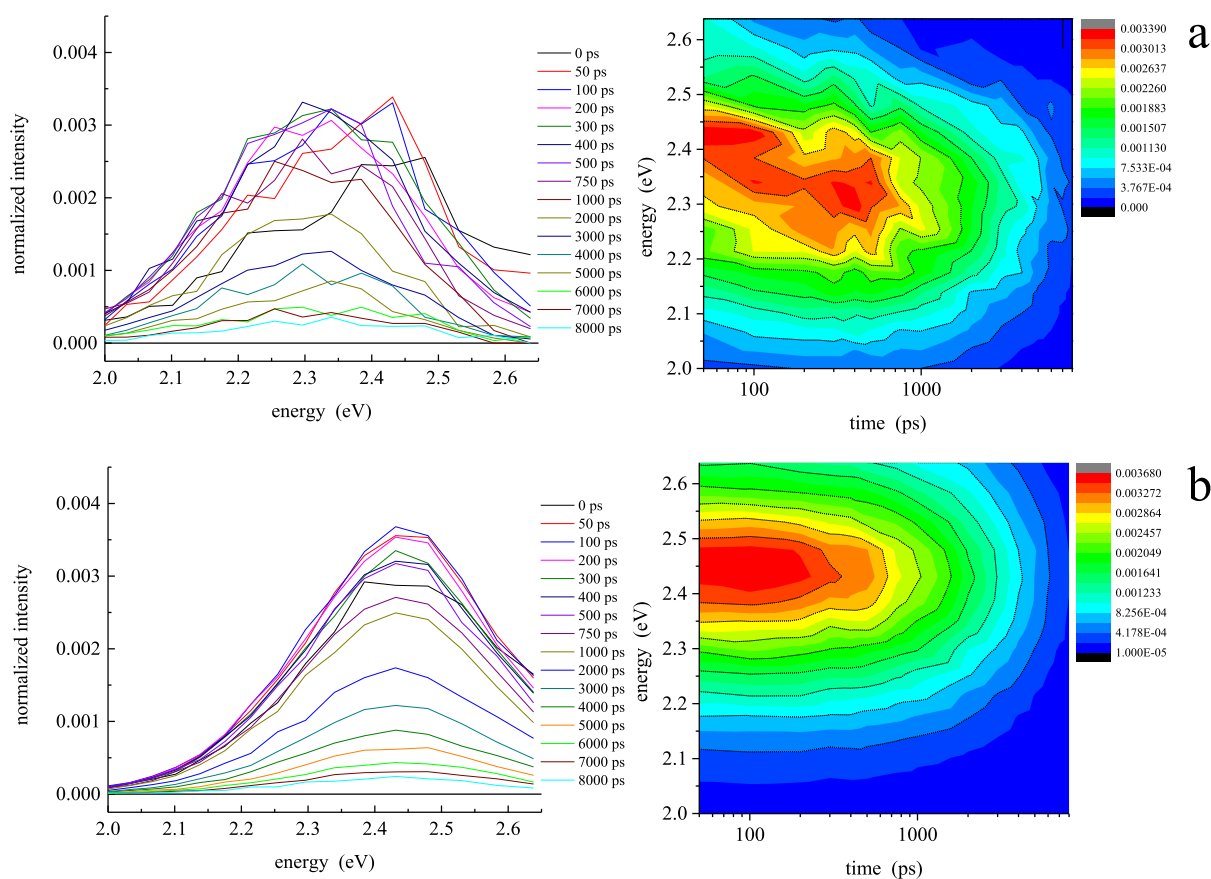


Figure 6. Time-resolved emission spectra for MK-FR0 in (a) *n*-propanol and (b) DMSO extracted from experimental fluorescence lifetime data. For the spectra in the left panels, the time corresponding to each spectrum is provided in the legends. The right panels are contour plots of the time-resolved spectra.

Table 3. $S_0 \rightarrow S_n$ Vertical Excitation Energies $\omega_n^{(\text{EOMCC})}$ and the Permanent Dipole Moments μ_n Characterizing the Lowest Four Excited Singlet States of MK-FR0 in the Gas Phase^a

state	$\omega_n^{(\text{EOMCC})}$ (eV)	μ_n (D)
S_1	3.64	13.3
S_2	3.89	1.6
S_3	3.95	9.3
S_4	4.28	4.4

^aThe dipole moment of MK-FR0 in the ground S_0 state is 5.2 D.

excitation energies for the three lowest excited singlet states of MK-FR0 are within close energetic proximity, and the permanent dipole moment of the S_2 state is significantly smaller than that characterizing the S_0 , S_1 , and S_3 states (Table 3). Computational data for the spectroscopic properties (transition dipole moments and oscillator strengths) of MK-FR0 are similar to those of FR0 as well and can be found in Table S2 in the Supporting Information. Despite the similarity of the results obtained for MK-FR0 and FR0, small differences in Mulliken charges and the corresponding electron density distributions in the vicinity of the carbonyl moiety have significant consequences, as seen in the experimental time-resolved data. The Mulliken charges and the permanent dipole moment vectors for MK-FR0 are presented in Figures 7 and 8, respectively.

While the experimental time-resolved spectra indicate the same qualitative role of solvent–solute hydrogen bonding

interactions for FR0 and MK-FR0 (Figure 6), the Mulliken charges reveal different charge distributions around the carbonyl moiety for FR0 and MK-FR0. The S_2 state plays a solvent-dependent mediating role in intramolecular relaxation dynamics for both chromophores. However, when compared with the Mulliken charges on the aldehyde group in NCy-FR0 (Figure 2), which are very similar to those obtained for the FR0 aldehyde group in ref 24, the Mulliken charges on the MK-FR0 ketone carbon, oxygen, and methyl carbon all differ from those seen for FR0. We believe that these differences account for subtle differences in the solvent-dependent trends in the fitted rate constants seen for the two molecules. The carbonyl carbon in the S_0 , S_1 , and S_3 states is much more positive in MK-FR0 (Figure 7) than that in NCy-FR0 (Figure 2), with an effective charge of ca. 0.4. The effective charge decreases to 0.16 in the S_2 state. Consistent with NCy-FR0, the charge of the carbonyl oxygen is sufficiently negative in the S_0 , S_1 , and S_3 states (ca. -0.5) and decreases to -0.17 in the S_2 state. The methyl carbon in MK-FR0, however, accumulates a substantial negative charge (ca. -0.8) in all states, which affects the local dipole moment of the methyl ketone moiety. Given the effective charges for these atoms in the S_0 , S_1 , and S_3 states, the net dipole moment would fall along the axis of the bond between the carbonyl carbon and ring carbon. However, in the S_2 state, there is a comparatively smaller dipole moment between the carbonyl carbon and oxygen, contrasted by a much larger local dipole moment between the carbonyl carbon and methyl carbon. Thus, the net dipole moment of the ketone group would lie along the bond between the carbonyl and

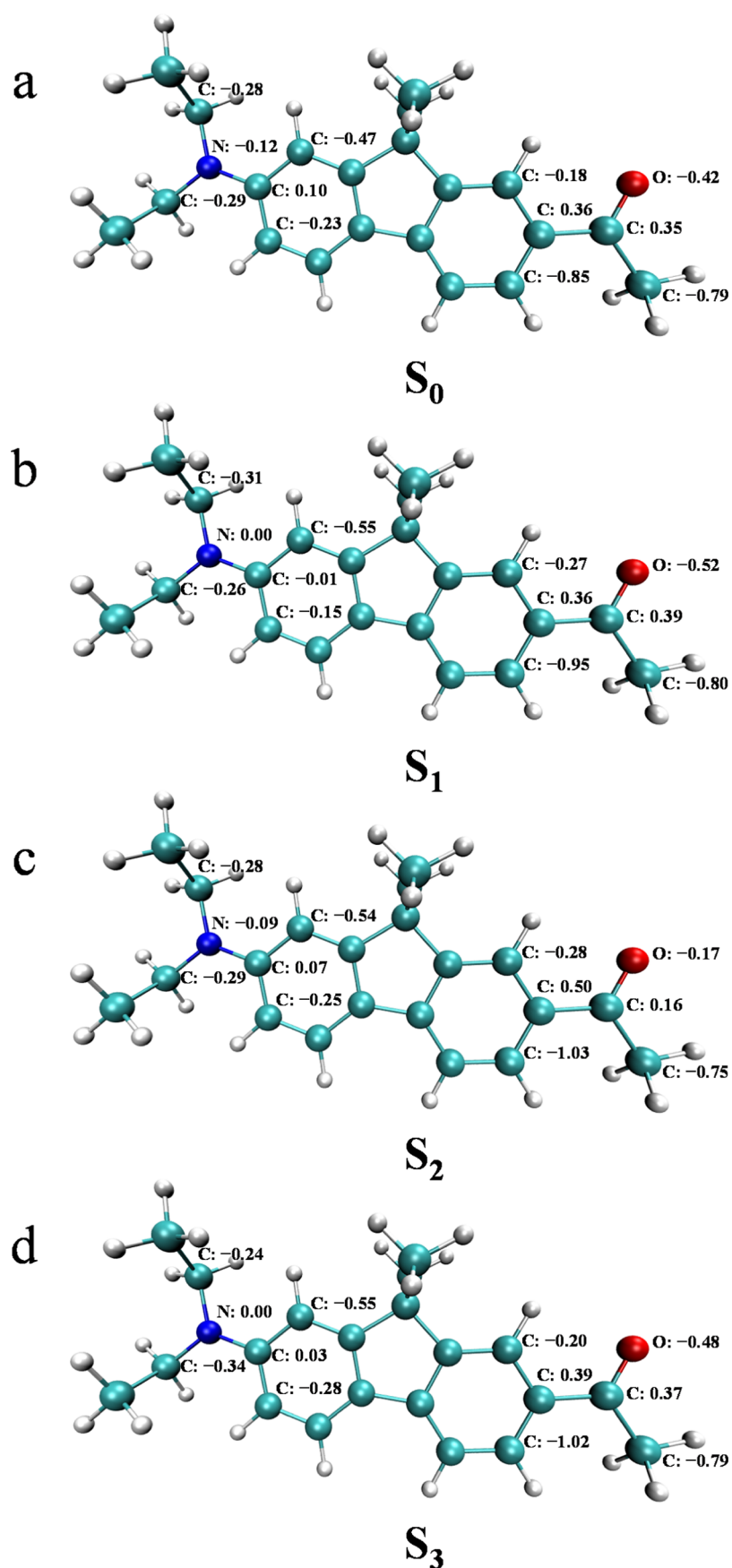


Figure 7. Structure of the isolated MK-FR0 chromophore in its ground electronic S_0 state and the computed Mulliken charges for selected atoms in (a) S_0 , (b) S_1 , (c) S_2 , and (d) S_3 states of MK-FR0.

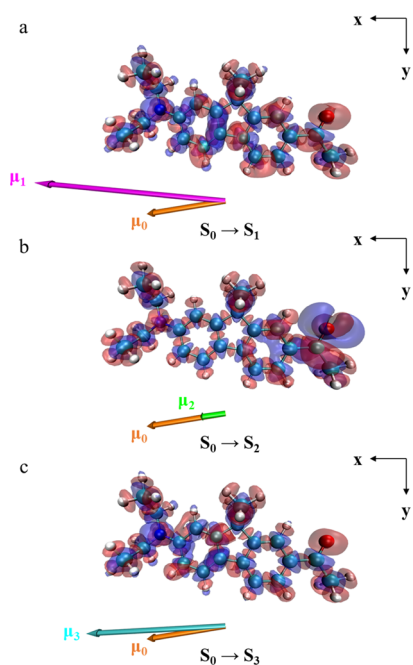


Figure 8. Structure of the isolated MK-FRO molecule in its ground electronic S_0 state and the electronic density difference maps associated with the vertical transitions from S_0 to (a) S_1 , (b) S_2 , and (c) S_3 states of MK-FRO. The red/blue color indicates an increase/decrease in electron density upon the $S_0 \rightarrow S_n$ ($n = 1-3$) excitation, respectively. The dipole moment vectors characterizing the S_0 (orange), S_1 (magenta), S_2 (green), and S_3 (cyan) states of MK-FRO are shown as well.

methyl carbon atoms. In the aldehyde group in NCy-FRO and FRO, the carbonyl carbon is sufficiently more negative in the S_2 state (ca. -0.3 effective charge; Figure 2), giving rise to a net local dipole moment in a different direction from that in MK-FRO, which would in turn affect the nature of hydrogen bonding.

To assess the effects of hydroxyl group concentration ($[\text{OH}]$) on the relaxation dynamics of MK-FRO, time-resolved spectra were acquired for MK-FRO in binary *n*-propanol and DMSO solvent systems, as was performed for FRO in ref 24. The individual time-resolved spectra and the corresponding time-domain lifetime data from which the spectra were extracted are presented in Figures S5 and S6 in the Supporting Information. The positions of the unresolved bands within the broad steady-state spectrum of MK-FRO in each solvent system were fitted (Figure S7 in the Supporting Information), and the corresponding intensities were extracted to generate the time evolution of each band (Figure 9). The rate constants corresponding to each band decay were fitted using the previously developed kinetic model, and the fitted rate constants are reported in Table 4.

As seen for FRO, there is a $[\text{OH}]$ dependence for several of the rate constants for MK-FRO, particularly for the transitions from the S_3 state (Table 4). The solvent-dependent trends for MK-FRO are opposite to those reported for FRO in the binary solvent system, as k_{32} , k_{31} , and k_{30} increase with increasing $[\text{OH}]$. This is likely an indication of facile interstate relaxation to the S_2 state, at which point the kinetics are slowed. This is supported by a sufficient decrease in rate constants observed for the transitions associated with the S_2 state (k_{21} and k_{20}),

demonstrating the modulating effect of this state on the relaxation dynamics of MK-FRO.

Based on these results, it appears that hydrogen bonding interactions of the chromophore carbonyl oxygen with solvent hydroxyl protons still play a central role in determining the spectral dynamics of MK-FRO, but the details of the relevant solvent–solute interactions are likely different from those for NCy-FRO and FRO, which are both aldehydes. The interactions between the carbonyl oxygen and solvent proton create an associated local dipole moment, which will interact with the local dipole moments of the chromophore carbonyl functionalities. As discussed above, the local dipole moments for the ketone and aldehyde for MK-FRO and FRO, respectively, are oriented differently. While hydrogen bonding interactions still occur for MK-FRO at the carbonyl oxygen, the nature of this interaction will be altered by the difference in the local dipole moments of the MK-FRO methyl group compared to the FRO aldehyde proton. As such, the $\text{R}-\text{O}-\text{H}\cdots\text{O}=\text{C}$ solvent–solute interaction may align in a spatially different orientation compared to that for FRO. This hypothesis will be the focus of future work currently underway as part of this collaborative effort. Based on the data we have presented in this work, hydrogen bonding interactions in the S_2 remain the mediating factor in the excited-state behavior of FRO structural precursors, indicating that the spectral dynamics are structurally invariant. However, as demonstrated with MK-FRO, while hydrogen bonding mediates relaxation, the nature of the hydrogen bonds is directly related to the functionalities surrounding the FRO carbonyl group.

CONCLUSIONS

We have reported on the excited-state behavior and spectral dynamics of two structural precursors to the FRO molecule, NCy-FRO and MK-FRO. Through the use of quantum chemical calculations in concert with experimental data, we have determined that solvent–solute hydrogen bonding interactions still occur upon structural modification to either pendant functionality on the FRO core structure. The effect of amino group rotation on the spectral relaxation dynamics was determined to be negligible, as the spectral dynamics, Mulliken charges, and permanent dipole moments for NCy-FRO agreed well with those characterizing FRO. The ketone analogue MK-FRO exhibited similar spectral relaxation dynamics to FRO in protic solvents, although subtle differences are observed for the aldehyde and the ketone, and these differences are thought to result from differences in the local charge density distributions seen for the aldehyde and ketone functionalities. These differences give rise to changes in the details of the optimum solvent–solute hydrogen bonding configuration. Despite this difference, both structural precursors were determined to exhibit spectral dynamics similar to those of FRO, demonstrating the effect of solvent–solute interactions, particularly those in the S_2 excited state, as the mediators in molecular relaxation dynamics.

It is useful to consider how these results relate to the superphotobase properties of FRO-SB. While this connection remains to be made directly, what is clear is that relaxation of population between excited electronic states that characterize the fluorene chromophore depends sensitively on their local environment and on the presence or absence of species capable of hydrogen bonding. From our earlier work on FRO-SB, it is clear that the reaction coordinate for proton abstraction from the solvent is dependent on the mode of

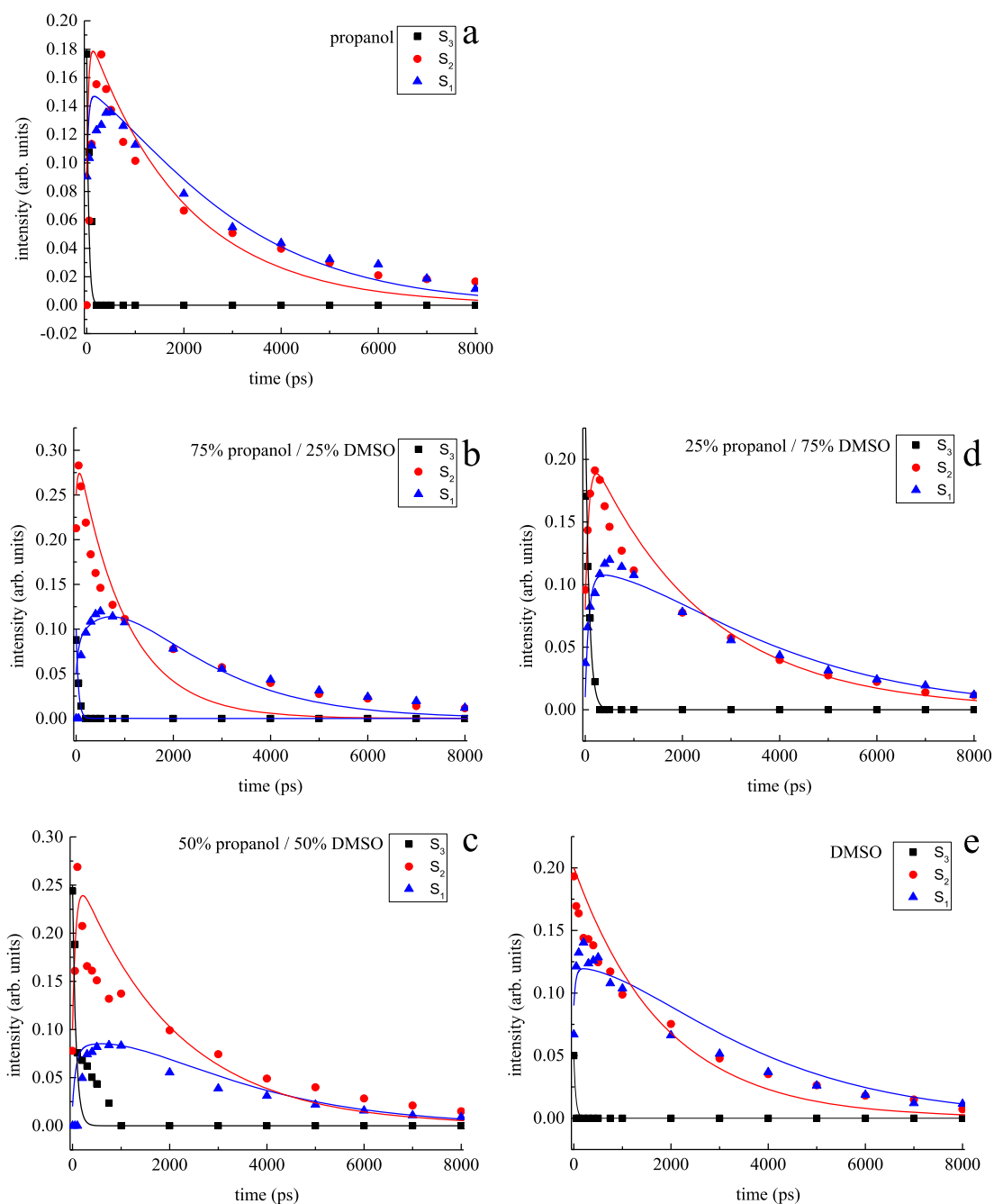


Figure 9. Time-dependent band intensities for three fitted emission bands for MK-FR0 in (a) *n*-propanol, (b) 75% *n*-propanol/25% DMSO, (c) 50% *n*-propanol/50% DMSO, (d) 25% *n*-propanol/75% DMSO, and (e) DMSO. The data are fitted to the kinetic model using the rate constants in Table 4.

Table 4. Fitted Rate Constants for the Relaxations Associated with Each of the Three Fitted Emission Bands (Spectral Features) for MK-FR0 in *n*-Propanol, DMSO, and Binary Solvent Systems of Increasing *n*-Propanol Concentration in DMSO

rate constant (Hz)	solvent				
	<i>n</i> -propanol ($\times 10^9$)	75% <i>n</i> -propanol ($\times 10^9$)	50% <i>n</i> -propanol ($\times 10^9$)	25% <i>n</i> -propanol ($\times 10^9$)	DMSO ($\times 10^9$)
k_{32}	14.76 ± 0.42	11.78 ± 3.16	9.69 ± 0.65	6.91 ± 0.34	0.24 ± 0.25
k_{31}	8.94 ± 0.34	7.54 ± 1.22	3.44 ± 0.59	5.19 ± 0.59	14.58 ± 0.85
k_{30}	2.26 ± 0.47	2.14 ± 0.38	1.25 ± 0.63	1.16 ± 0.48	9.92 ± 0.58
k_{21}	0.39 ± 0.09	0.49 ± 0.14	0.27 ± 0.12	0.28 ± 0.07	0.28 ± 0.11
k_{20}	0.11 ± 0.07	0.51 ± 0.14	0.22 ± 0.14	0.14 ± 0.07	0.26 ± 0.10
k_{10}	0.66 ± 0.11	0.64 ± 0.16	0.65 ± 0.27	0.53 ± 0.10	0.46 ± 0.10

excitation,⁶⁰ with the clear implication that the relaxation pathway within the chromophore, which involves multiple excited electronic states, is of central importance to the photobase behavior of the imine nitrogen Schiff base in FR0-SB. In the structural precursors reported here and in ref 24, the intramolecular relaxation dynamics also influence the electron density distribution in the same relative position on the fluorene ring system, indicating that solvent interactions with the chromophores mediate the intramolecular relaxation dynamics. It is thus not simply the imine functionality of FR0-SB that gives rise to its super-photobase behavior. The electronic structure and intramolecular relaxation dynamics of the fluorene derivative chromophore play an important role in the photobase properties of FR0-SB.

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acs.jpbc.1c06475>.

Calculated transition dipole moments and oscillator strengths, time-resolved intensity data, steady-state absorption and emission spectra, fits of steady-state emission spectra to three Gaussian functions, kinetic model, and time-resolved spectra for mixed propanol–DMSO solvent systems (PDF)

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

■ ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was funded by a seed grant from DARPA and AMRDEC (W31P4Q-20-1-0001). Partial support comes from the NIH (grant nos. 2R01EY016077-08A1 and 5R01EY025383-02 R01 to G.J.B. and R01GM101353 to B.B.), the NSF (grant no. CHE1836498 to M.D.), and the U.S. DOE (grant no. DE-FG02-01ER15228 to P.P.). This work was supported in part through computational resources and services provided by the Institute for Cyber-Enabled Research at Michigan State University. The views and conclusions contained in this document are those of the authors and should not be interpreted as representing the official policies, either expressed or implied, of the Defense Advanced Research Projects Agency, the U.S. Army, or the U.S. Government. The authors would like to thank Dr. Ilias Magoulas for providing the code used in generating the electronic density difference maps shown in this work.

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