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Discerning vibronic molecular dynamics using time-resolved photoelectron spectroscopy

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Dynamic processes at the molecular level occur on ultrafast time scales and are often associated with structural as well as electronic changes. These can in principle be studied by time-resolved scattering^{1–3} and spectroscopic methods, respectively. In polyatomic molecules, however, excitation results in the rapid mixing of vibrational and electronic motions, which induces both charge redistribution and energy flow in the molecule^{4,5}. This ‘vibronic’ or ‘non-adiabatic’ coupling is a key step in photochemical⁶ and photobiological processes⁷ and underlies many of the concepts of molecular electronics⁸, but it obscures the notion of distinct and readily observable vibrational and electronic states. Here we report time-resolved photoelectron spectroscopy measurements that distinguish vibrational dynamics from the coupled electronic population dynamics, associated with the photo-induced internal conversion, in a linear unsaturated hydrocarbon chain. The vibrational resolution of our photoelectron spectra allows for a direct observation of the underlying nuclear dynamics, demonstrating that it is possible to obtain detailed insights into ultrafast non-adiabatic processes.

The Born-Oppenheimer approximation (BOA), an adiabatic separation of electronic from nuclear motions, has the pivotal role in defining the potential energy surface and thus permits a mechanistic picture of molecular dynamics. The breakdown of the BOA is due to the motions of the atoms near the intersections of

potential surfaces belonging to different electronic states. This mixing of vibrational and electronic motions in excited molecules can in principle be inferred from both frequency-resolved and time-resolved optical spectroscopies. Time-resolved experiments may be generally understood as preparing an excited state with a pump pulse and then, as a function of time, projecting it with a probe pulse onto a final state which acts as a template^{9–17}. Ideally, the final state should be well characterized. Photoionization detection has several conceptual and practical advantages¹⁰. The ion state may be well characterized by independent methods such as high resolution photoelectron spectroscopy and *ab initio* computation. Photoelectron detection has the additional advantage that the signal may be dispersed with respect to kinetic energy and angular distribution. Photoelectron spectroscopy has, compared with optical spectroscopies, fairly relaxed selection rules: any molecular state can be ionized (no ‘dark’ states). A simplified but very useful picture is that emission of an independent outer electron can occur without the simultaneous electronic reorganization of the ion core (Koopmans’ approximation). Partial photoionization probabilities can differ drastically with respect to the molecular orbital nature of the neutral electronic state. If a given electronic configuration correlates—upon removal of the outermost electron—to the electronic configuration of the ground electronic state of the cation, then the corresponding photoionization probability is much higher than if it does not.

Time-resolved photoelectron spectroscopy (TRPES) has been proposed as a technique for the study of ultrafast non-adiabatic processes^{10–14} and spin-orbit coupling¹⁵ in isolated polyatomic molecules. The TRPES method has been shown to provide details

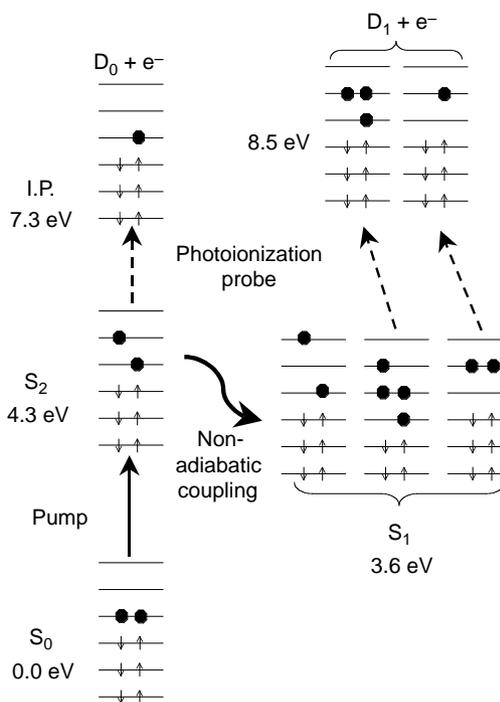


Figure 1 Molecular orbital configurations and photoionization correlations in all-*trans* 2,4,6,8-decatetraene, DT. The optically coupled S₂ (excitation at 4.3 eV shown by straight solid arrow) state is a singly excited configuration, whereas the lower-lying optically forbidden S₁ (3.6 eV) state is composed of both singly and doubly excited configurations. The curved solid arrow indicates non-adiabatic coupling in the excited state. On removal of the highest-lying electron, S₂ correlates with the D₀ cation ground-state configuration with an ionization potential (I.P.) of 7.3 eV, whereas S₁ correlates predominantly with the D₁ cation excited-state configurations at 8.5 eV. It is therefore expected, assuming a single active electron, that the photoionization electronic channel should switch from D₀ + e⁻ to D₁ + e⁻ during the S₂ → S₁ internal conversion. The dashed arrows indicate the most probable ionization channels.

of vibrational dynamics in simple molecules on single potential surfaces^{10,16,17}. In polyatomic molecules, non-adiabatic coupling leads to an evolving electronic state symmetry and therefore a changing correlation upon ionization. A switching of the photoelectron band is expected, providing a record of the electronic population dynamics. The detailed vibrational structure of each band simultaneously reveals the nuclear dynamics in each of the coupled electronic states.

We demonstrate our method by studying ultrafast internal conversion in a linear polyene: all-*trans* 2,4,6,8 decatetraene (DT, C₁₀H₁₄). Linear polyenes are hydrocarbon chains that have long been an area of fundamental and applied research¹⁸. Their non-adiabatic dynamics leads to the fundamental process of *cis-trans* photoisomerization. Polyenes form the light-harvesting antennae in vision (rhodopsin) and light-driven transmembrane proton pumps (bacteriorhodopsin). The investigation of polyene photophysics is central to our understanding of electron delocalization and electron correlation in molecules. They have also been used to test quantum chemical theory, as their lowest excited state contains doubly excited configurations¹⁹. DT provides a classic example of internal conversion in a polyene²⁰, making it a good candidate for testing our method.

The molecular orbitals that are important in the internal conversion of DT (ionization potential 7.3 eV) can be seen in Fig. 1. These calculated excited electronic states of the molecule and radical cation were obtained with the QCFF/PI + CISD (quantum consistent force field/ π -electrons + configuration interaction singles and doubles) method^{21,22}. The S₀(1¹A_g) electronic ground state is a single configuration. The first optically allowed transition, at 4.3 eV, is S₂(1¹B_u) ← S₀. The S₂ state is a singly excited configuration. The lowest excited state, however, is the dipole forbidden S₁(2¹A_g) state²³ which arises from configuration interaction between singly and doubly excited A_g configurations, as shown in Fig. 1. Non-adiabatic coupling, leading to ultrafast internal conversion from S₂ to S₁, is promoted by vibrational motions of B_u symmetry. The ionization energies of the continua discussed here are low enough to ensure that the electrons are independent²⁴ and that Koopmans' approximation applies. The most probable electronic configurations of the cation expected on removal of the highest-lying electron from the neutral excited state are indicated in Fig. 1 by the dashed arrows. It can be seen that the S₂ excited state correlates with the D₀(1²B_g) ground electronic state of the cation. The S₁ state, by contrast, correlates predominantly with the D₁(1²A_u) first excited ionic state. We can expect, therefore, a change in the ion state correlation to occur during internal conversion.

Our study of the S₂ to S₁ internal conversion in DT used the femtosecond pump-probe TRPES method described previously^{10,11}. In Fig. 2a we show the energy level scheme relevant to this experiment. A femtosecond pump pulse at 287 nm prepared the excited S₂ state at its electronic origin. The system then evolves into a vibrationally hot (0.7 eV) S₁ electronic state via internal conversion. The evolving electronic symmetry is observed by projecting the wavepacket onto several cation electronic states using an ultraviolet probe photon of sufficient energy (here, 235 nm). As the non-adiabatic dynamics proceeds, the changing electronic character alters the photoionization electronic channel, leading to a band switching in the time-resolved photoelectron spectrum.

The experimental photoelectron kinetic energy spectra (Fig. 2b) are characterized by a rapid shift of electrons from an energetic band ($\epsilon_1 = 2.5$ eV) to a broad, structured low-energy band (ϵ_2). This shift is the direct signature of the changing electronic symmetry induced by non-adiabatic coupling. The ϵ_1 band is due to ionization of the S₂ into the D₀ ion state. The ϵ_2 band arises from photoionization of the S₁ state that correlates with the D₁ ion state: its appearance is due to population of the S₁ state by internal conversion. Integration of the photoelectron bands directly reveals the S₂ to S₁ internal conversion timescale of 386 ± 65 fs. A previous estimate²⁵ based on linewidth measurements was around 0.25 ps.

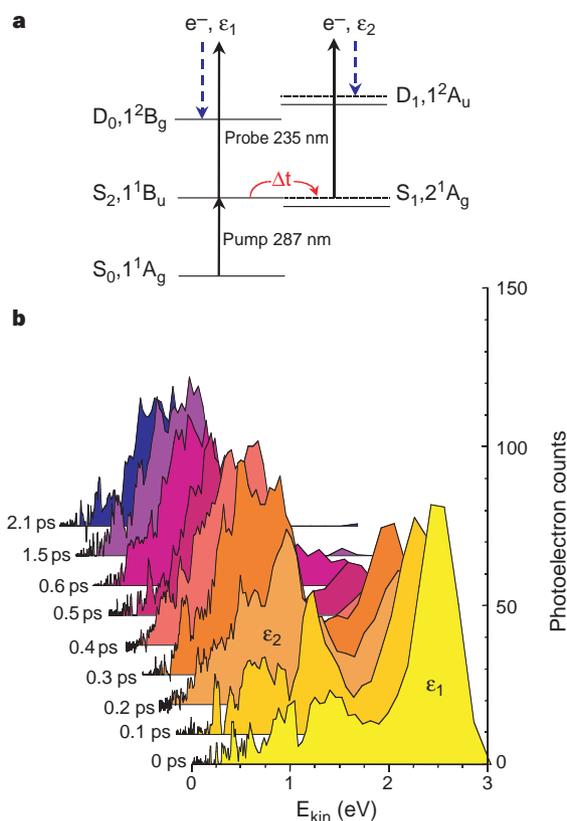


Figure 2 Time-resolved vibrational and electronic dynamics during internal conversion in DT. **a**, Level scheme for one-photon probe ionization. The pump laser prepares the optically bright state S₂. Due to ultrafast internal conversion, this state converts to the lower-lying state S₁ with 0.7 eV of vibrational energy. The expected ionization propensity rules, according to Fig. 1, are shown: S₂ → D₀ + e⁻ (ϵ_1) and S₁ → D₁ + e⁻ (ϵ_2). The dashed lines indicate electron emission. **b**, Femtosecond time-resolved photoelectron kinetic energy (E_{kin}) spectra of DT pumped at 287 nm and probed at 235 nm. There is a rapid shift (~400 fs) in the distribution: from (ϵ_1), an energetic peak at 2.5 eV due to photoionization of S₂ into the D₀ cation ground electronic state; to (ϵ_2), a broad, structured band at lower energies due to photoionization of vibrationally hot S₁ into the D₁ cation first excited electronic state. The structure in the low-energy band reflects the vibrational dynamics in S₁. The time delay between the pump (excitation) and the probe (ionization) laser pulses is indicated by Δt .

We note that the results in Fig. 2 contain much more information than the overall (integrated) internal conversion time. It can be seen that there is vibrational structure in the photoelectron spectra. This structure yields information about the state-to-state vibrational dynamics which promotes and tunes the electronic population transfer, and the ensuing intramolecular vibrational energy redistribution in the 'hot' molecule which occurs on the S₁ potential surface (subjects of our current theoretical investigations).

We have confirmed the above results by comparing them with another scheme using both one- and two-photon ionization. In this case, the first probe photon is above the ionization potential but below D₁ (Fig. 3a). As above, the S₂ state (again prepared at 287 nm) ionizes into D₀, here producing the slow, sharp electron band seen at $\epsilon_1 = 0.4$ eV in Fig. 3b. This band is the same as the $\epsilon_1 = 2.5$ eV band from Fig. 2, but is shifted to lower energy due to the lower-energy probe photon. The band decays rapidly with a time constant of 377 ± 47 fs, providing an independent determination of the S₂ → S₁ conversion time in agreement with that of Fig. 2. The D₁ ion state is no longer energetically accessible from S₁ via a single photon. At 352 nm, however, our probe laser intensity was sufficient to allow absorption of a second photon. Two-photon ionization accesses different ion electronic states due to the symmetry of the two-

photon electric dipole operator, as indicated in Fig. 3a, producing energetic electrons. The S_1 correlations upon two-photon probe ionization can now also include D_0 and D_2 (a higher-lying ion state), producing the broad, energetic ϵ_2 electron bands in Fig. 3b. The switching (at invariant laser intensity) from one-photon to a two-photon favoured ionization again indicates the selectivity of the photoionization process for given electronic state symmetries.

Many photoinduced polyatomic unimolecular reactions are based on vibrationally 'hot' molecules formed via ultrafast internal conversion²⁶. A fundamental question in unimolecular reaction rate theory is that of the assumption of statistical energy redistribution due to intramolecular vibrational energy redistribution being very fast compared with reaction²⁷. Many models and interpretations are based upon the supposition of fast, complete intramolecular vibrational energy redistribution. Increasingly, however, this assumption has come into question²⁸. We believe that our method could present new views of the extent and timescale for the onset of statistical behaviour in an isolated, energized molecule.

Finally, we note possible extensions of the technique we report here. If, for symmetry reasons, the coupled neutral electronic configurations correlate to the same ion electronic configuration, then the electronic–nuclear mixing cannot be clearly discerned by a

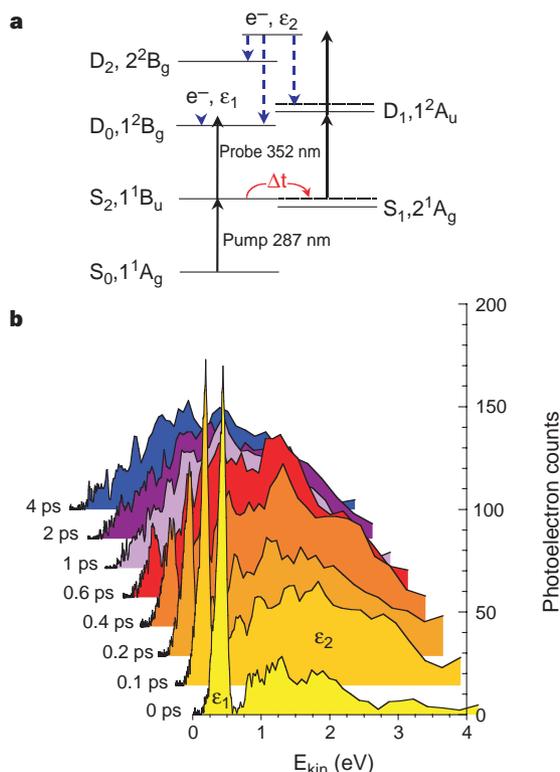


Figure 3 Time-resolved vibrational and electronic dynamics in DT using two-photon ionization. **a**, Level scheme in DT for one- and two-photon probe ionization. The pump laser is identical to that in Fig. 2 and prepares the same S_2 state wavepacket. The expected ionization propensity rules are: $S_2 \rightarrow D_0 + e^- (\epsilon_1)$ for one-photon ionization (as in Fig. 2) and $S_1 \rightarrow D_0, D_1, D_2 + e^- (\epsilon_2)$ for two-photon ionization. The dashed lines indicate electron emission. **b**, Femtosecond time-resolved photoelectron kinetic energy spectra of DT pumped at 287 nm and probed at 352 nm, using both one- and 2-photon probes. At 352 nm, the D_1 ion state is not energetically accessible from the S_1 state via a single photon transition. Confirming the results of Fig. 2, there is a rapid shift (~ 400 fs) in the distribution: from (ϵ_1) a peak at 0.4 eV due to one-photon ionization of S_2 into the D_0 cation ground electronic state; to (ϵ_2) a broad, structured band at higher energies (1–3.5 eV) due to two-photon ionization of the vibrationally hot S_1 state into the D_0 cation ground and excited electronic states. The photoionization channel switches from a one-photon to a two-photon process during the internal conversion, indicating again that the electronic structure of the ionization continuum is selective of the evolving electronic symmetry in the neutral state.

photoelectron kinetic-energy analysis alone. In such cases, the photoelectron angular (that is, partial wave) distributions^{29,30}, which reflect electron angular-momentum correlations on ionization, should in general still change during a non-adiabatic process. The molecular ionization continuum could provide an interesting template for the study of time-resolved molecular dynamics: ionic vibrational and rotational structure are sensitive to nuclear dynamics, while the ion electronic and the electron partial wave structure are sensitive to electronic population dynamics. We hope that these experimental methods, when combined with dynamical calculations, will provide new insights into the non-adiabatic processes that underpin our understanding of photochemistry, material photosciences and molecular electronics. □

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