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Ultrafast relaxation kinetics of the dark S_1 state in all-*trans*- β -carotene explored by one- and two-photon pump-probe spectroscopy

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1. Introduction

All-*trans*-carotenoids play important roles in light-harvesting in both plant and bacterial photosynthesis. In bacterial photosynthesis, carotenoids absorb light energy in the blue–green spectral region and transfer it rapidly and efficiently to nearby bacteriochlorophylls [1]. A detailed understanding of this excitation energy transfer process requires precise knowledge of the electronic excited state structures of carotenoids, because photon energy is frequently stored as electronic excitation of carotenoids before it is transferred to the (bacterio) chlorophylls [1].

The S₀ ground state of all-*trans*-carotenoids has A_g^- symmetry assuming that their linear polyene backbone has C_{2h} point group symmetry. The lowest singlet excited state, S₁ (the $2^1A_g^-$ state), is optically forbidden because it has the same A_g^- symmetry as the ground state. Therefore, the S₂ ($1^1B_u^+$) state is the lowest one-photon optically allowed state [2]. The ultrafast relaxation kinetics of carotenoids have been widely investigated by pump–probe measurements following one-photon excitation to S₂ [3–10]. Recently, the vibrational relaxation processes of S₁ have attracted much attention because of their unique vibronic character [11–18]. Our previous studies of the femtosecond stimulated anti-Stokes Raman

ABSTRACT

Femtosecond one- and two-photon pump-probe dispersive spectroscopic measurements have been applied to the investigation of the vibrational relaxation kinetics of the dark $S_1 (2^1 A_g^-)$ state in β -carotene, combining a higher sensitive detection system with tunable visible and infrared excitation pulses. The two-photon excitation measurements enable the preferential detection of the dark S_1 state. The tunable infrared excitation pulses allowed selective excitation to a different vibrational level of S_1 . The S_1 dynamics are early delay times depend strongly on excitation energy. A dependence of the initial S_1 dynamics on excitation energy is discussed in term of the vibrational relaxation of S_1 .

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measurements [11–13] and the dependence of the relaxation kinetics on excitation energy in β -carotene [10] have suggested that the timescale of the vibrational relaxation of the C=C stretching mode in S₁ is comparable with that of the S₁ \rightarrow S₀ internal conversion. In contrast, some other investigators have claimed that hot S₁ is cooled within 1 ps [14–18]. Since the observed S₁ dynamics follow the internal conversion from S₂, these S₁ dynamics are often complicated by contribution from relaxation process from higher energy singlet states.

Here, a novel approach using direct two-photon excitation to S_1 has been utilized to clarify this situation and to determine the vibronic structures and probe the relaxation kinetics of S_1 [19–31]. Walla et al. have applied two-photon excitation measurements to β -carotene in photosystem I and shown efficient excitation energy transfer from a vibrational hot level of S_1 to Q_y of chlorophyll *a* [21,23,32]. The efficient energy transfer from a vibrational hot level has been theoretically predicted [33], but the mechanism of this process is not well understood. The pathway of energy flux from S_1 to the Q_y band of chlorophylls or bacteriochlorophylls is one of the important channels in both plant and bacterial photosynthesis [1]. Therefore, further investigations of the vibrational relaxations in S_1 are important to clarify the mechanism of the excitation energy transfer from vibrational hot states.

Sensitive detection systems using a lock-in amplifier and other techniques have been applied in the previous two-photon pumpprobe studies [20–22]. However, previous studies only used single channel detection. Here we use a multichannel detector in order to obtain more complete spectral information on S_1 . Charge coupled

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devices (CCD) have been widely used to in multichannel detectors. However, the data readout time of CCD is not fast enough (exposure and readout time is typically several hundreds milliseconds) and as a result the signal-to-noise ratio of the observed spectra is not always satisfactory because of slow fluctuations of the light source [34]. Therefore, data acquisition times of the order of a few minutes are required in order to obtain a sufficient signal-tonoise ratio at any given delay. The problems can be overcome by using a photo-diode array because it can read out data without delay at the pulse repetitions of 1 kHz [35–38].

In this study, the S_1 relaxation kinetics of β -carotene have been studied by femtosecond pump-dispersive probe spectroscopy following direct two-photon excitation to the S_1 ($2^1A_g^-$) state and by one-photon excitation to the $S_2(1^1B_{\mu}^+)$ state, using tunable excitation pulses. The S_0 - S_1 transition is two-photon allowed because both S_0 and S_1 have same A_g^- symmetry [2,39]. The two-photon technique is advantageous because it allows the relaxation kinetics of the low-lying one-photon forbidden S₁ state to be probed without any interference from higher excited states. Several studies have shown the time-resolved S₁ dynamics after two-photon excitation to S₁. However, the results were not spectrally well resolved [20–22]. In the present experimental setup, a white continuum was used as probe pulses and they were detected by photo-diode arrays where the data readout was synchronized with the rate of excitation pulses (1 kHz). Using this system, the S_1-S_n transient absorption spectra could be recorded with a high signal-to-noise ratio at ranged delay times. Tunable excitation pulses allowed us to selectively excite different vibrational levels of S₁.

2. Experimental

The experimental setup used for the femtosecond one- and two-photon pump-probe measurements with the sensitive detection system is illustrated in Fig. 1. A mode-locked Ti:Sapphire oscillator (Avesta) and a kHz regenerative amplifier (Spectra Physics, Spitfire) was used as the femtosecond light source. Output pulses were divided into excitation and probe pulses. Outputs of two types of optical parametric amplifiers were used as the excitation pulses. One was pumped by second harmonic pulses (3.06 eV) and the output photon energy could be tuned between 1.77 eV and 2.58 eV. The other one was pumped by the fundamental pulses (1.53 eV) and the output photon energy could then be tuned between 0.95 eV and 1.13 eV. The excitation pulses were modulated



Fig. 1. A schematic picture of multichannel kHz detection system. FW: fundamental wave, SH: second harmonics, OPA: optical parametric amplifier, PDA: photodiode array, AD: analog to digital.

at 500 Hz by an optical chopper (MC1000A, Tholabs) locked to the laser repetition of 1 kHz. Excitation intensity was set to 50 nJ/pulse for one-photon excitation measurements and 1 µJ/pulse for twophoton excitation measurements. A white continuum generated in a 5.0 mm sapphire plate was used as the probe pulses. The probe pulses were detected by photo-diode arrays (1024 pixels NMOS linear image sensor S3903-1024Q or 256 pixels InGaAs linear image sensor C8061-01, Hamamatsu) following passage through a spectrometer (MS3504I, Monochromator-Spectrograph Imaging, SOLAR TII Ltd.). The data from the photo-diode array were read out at the pulse repetition rate and digitized by a fast analog to digital conversion card (1.25 Ms/s and 16 bit resolution, NI-6251, National Instruments). The timing between the modulation frequency of the excitation pulses and the data readout was synchronized by a home-built system. By using the photo-diode array as the detection system, the signal-to-noise ratio could be increased more than a factor of 10 (noise level is less than 10^{-4} OD) compared with our previous study using a CCD detector [34].

The instrumental response function of the system, determined by cross-correlation between the excitation and probe pulses, was better than 150 fs. The cross-correlation function was used to determine the precise zero time delay at each probe energy. After chirp compensation, experimental error of the determined zero time delay was less than 20 fs.

All-*trans*- β -carotene was purchased from Wako Pure Chemical Industries Ltd. and purified by crystallization from benzene, twice. The purified sample was dissolved in cyclohexane and circulated in a flow cell with quartz windows, that has an effective optical path-length was 0.5 mm. The optical density of the sample was 1.0 at the absorption maximum of the steady-state absorption (2.73 eV). All measurements were performed at room temperature.

The steady-state absorption spectrum of β -carotene in cyclohexane is shown in Fig. 2. The absorption and fluorescence spectra of S₁, calculated from the parameters determined by the steadystate S₁ fluorescence measurement in solution [40], are also shown in Fig. 2. The vibrational structures in the steady-state spectra are mainly due to the C=C and C-C stretching modes [40]. For the one-photon pump-probe measurement, the excitation energy was set to 2.54 eV corresponding to the 0-0 transition of S₂. Excitation energies of 0.98 eV and 1.05 eV were selected for the twophoton excitation measurements. These energies correspond to 0-1 and 0-2 two-photon transitions of the C=C stretching modes in S₁, respectively. A pump-probe measurement following 0-0



Fig. 2. Steady-state spectra of β -carotene in cyclohexane. The S₁ absorption (broken line) and fluorescence (dashed-and-dotted line) spectra were reconstructed using the parameters determined from measurement of the S₁ fluorescence [40]. The single arrow and the double arrows indicate energies of one-photon excitation (OPE) to S₂ and two-photon excitations (TPEs) to S₁, respectively.

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