Towards understanding photodegradation pathways in lignins: The role of intramolecular hydrogen-bonding in excited states

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ABSTRACT: The photoinduced dynamics of the lignin building blocks syringol, guaiacol and phenol were studied using time-resolved ion yield spectroscopy and time-resolved velocity map imaging. Following irradiation of syringol and guaiacol with ultraviolet light, the excited state dynamics display a quantum beat pattern attributed to OH and OMe torsion and OMe flapping motions. We attribute this behavior to changes in the geometry of the S0, S1 and D0 of syringol and guaiacol. In syringol, H-atom elimination is observed at excitation wavelengths encapsulating these modes, having a direct effect on the photostability of the molecule. From these results we develop a more intimate structure-dynamics-function understanding of photodegradation in lignins.

Second only to cellulose, lignin is the most abundant naturally occurring biopolymer on Earth. Present in the cell walls of all vascular plants, it is responsible for providing structural support, water transport and protection against microorganisms. However, due to the heterogeneous nature of the polymer itself, our knowledge of the precise macromolecular structure of lignin is still lacking. It is known that across different plant species, the various structures, and properties associated with them, are dictated by the stoichiometric proportions of just three monomers: p-coumaryl, coniferyl and sinapyl alcohols, termed monolignols.

Despite the importance of these molecules, very little is known about the photochemistry of lignin, or the monolignols themselves. Previous high-resolution spectroscopy measurements have been carried out on the closely related analogues p-vinylphenol, p-coumaric acid, and o-methoxyphenol (guaiacol). More recently, Zwier and co-workers have reported the first spectroscopic study of the monolignols and β-O-4/β-β dilignols. These studies have provided new insights to the conformer-specific spectroscopies of model lignins, potentially yielding knowledge of structure-function relationships in the larger polymer network through this ‘bottom-up’ study of the building-blocks themselves.

Here, we use an analogous reductionist approach as a stepping-stone for understanding ultraviolet (UV) induced photodegradation pathways within lignin in greater detail. Currently, it is known that one of the primary mechanisms driving this process involves the photo-catalyzed formation of phenoxy (PhO) radical sites, generated following the loss of H-atoms, eventually leading to undesired discoloration and structural weakening. With this in mind, we elect to compare and contrast the UV-induced excited state dynamics of phenol, guaiacol and syringol (Figure 1a-c), which are model chromophores of lignin, derived from p-coumaryl, coniferyl and sinapyl alcohols, respectively. Unlike phenol, the presence of the methoxy-group(s) in guaiacol and syringol, ortho to the hydroxy-group, leads to an intramolecular H-bond between these two functional moieties, which distorts the geometry from planarity in the first electronically excited ππ* state (S1), relative to the planar ground state (S0) structure (Figure 1d-f). In this contribution, we demonstrate how the different molecular structures of these three UV chromophores in their S1 states – specifically, the degree of H-bonding – can dramatically influence their excited state dynamics, and in turn the relative propensities for forming PhO sites (i.e. their relative ‘photostabilities’), thereby taking a first step towards a more complete...
plete structure-dynamics-function picture of photodegradation in lignin.

The detailed experimental procedure has been described elsewhere\textsuperscript{15,16} and in the SI. The techniques implemented are time-resolved ion-yield (TR-IY) spectroscopy\textsuperscript{17} and velocity map ion imaging (VMI).\textsuperscript{18} Following excitation of phenol, guaiacol or syringol using a broadband (~500 cm\textsuperscript{-1}) femtosecond (fs) pulses, a coherent superposition of low frequency Franck-Condon (FC) active modes are excited in the S\textsubscript{1} state, preparing a vibrational wavepacket.\textsuperscript{19} As this wavepacket evolves over time, it is then projected (photoionized) onto the ground state of the cation (D\textsubscript{0}) using a second time-delayed (\(\Delta t\)) fs probe pulse, and the resulting parent\textsuperscript{+} ion signal is recorded as a function of \(\Delta t\). The pump and probe pulses intercept a molecular beam of target molecules seeded in helium. The pump pulse is centered around the S\textsubscript{1} origin band whilst the probe pulse is tuned to photoionize slightly above the adiabatic ionization potential (IP\textsubscript{ad}) of the molecule of interest. VMI is also used to monitor any loss of H-atoms after excitation. Any H-atoms are resonantly ionized to form H\textsuperscript{+} with a 243 nm probe pulse at \(\Delta t = 1.2\) ns. H\textsuperscript{+} is then detected using VMI, and the recorded 2-D H\textsuperscript{+} velocity map images transformed into desired 1-D total kinetic energy release (TKER) spectra using an image reconstruction algorithm\textsuperscript{20} and Jacobian.

We begin our discussion with phenol, which serves as a benchmark for comparison with guaiacol and syringol. Figure 2a presents a phenol\textsuperscript{+} transient (triangles and black line) following excitation at 275 nm and probing with 300 nm. The IP\textsubscript{ad} of phenol is evaluated as 8.51 eV\textsuperscript{21} and thus the combined photon energy of 8.64 eV (275 nm + 300 nm) means we are only slightly above the IP\textsubscript{ad} by 0.13 eV. The phenol\textsuperscript{+} transient is similar to those reported previously using higher probe energies,\textsuperscript{22,23} and shows a sharp rise at \(\Delta t = 0\) which then plateaus across our 5 ps time window. This plateau is unsurprising, given that the S\textsubscript{1} lifetime of phenol has been previously determined as ~2.4 ns.\textsuperscript{23} Further inspection of the transient also shows that, within the signal-to-noise, the ion signal exhibits no obvious ‘quantum beating’\textsuperscript{19} which one might anticipate if there were any large amplitude molecular rearrangements in the S\textsubscript{1} state (cf. Ref. 24). This is re-enforced by the fast Fourier transform (FFT) of this transient (Figure 2a, inset), which shows no emerging frequencies, and is also in-line with the fact that the S\textsubscript{0} and S\textsubscript{1} state geometries of phenol are similar.\textsuperscript{25}

Figure 2b presents a guaiacol\textsuperscript{+} transient following excitation to S\textsubscript{1} with 278 nm and probing with 338 nm (squares and dashed line). The IP\textsubscript{ad} of guaiacol is located at 7.94 eV,\textsuperscript{26} with the combined energy of the pump and probe being 8.12 eV, yielding an excess energy of 0.18 eV. The measured transient of guaiacol\textsuperscript{+} is similar to that recorded for phenol\textsuperscript{+} in so much that there is an initial sharp rise at \(\Delta t = 0\) which then plateaus within our 5 ps temporal window. However, the similarities with phenol cease here. Following the initial rise, the guaiacol\textsuperscript{+} signal shows a small, but evident sub-1 ps decay, with a pronounced quantum beat superimposed on top. We recall that, unlike phenol, the S\textsubscript{1} geometry in guaiacol is non-planar (Figure 1e) in that it distorts out-of-plane in a double minimum potential well. The observed decay is thus attributed to an overall variation in the ionization cross-section that follows the initial geometry rearrangement out of the FC region of the initially prepared S\textsubscript{1} state towards the non-planar minimum (cf. catechol\textsuperscript{15}).

We now consider the origins of the observed quantum beat. An analysis of the guaiacol\textsuperscript{+} transient with a FFT (Figure 2b,
inset) reveals that the beat contains two dominant frequencies with associated energies of 143 cm\(^{-1}\) and 163 cm\(^{-1}\), which correspond to wavenumber separations of vibrational eigenstates within the initially prepared wavepacket on S\(_1\). These

![Figure 3](image.png)

**Figure 3.** Schematic demonstrating the evolution of the initially excited wavepacket (red) out of the FC detection window along the \(\phi\) coordinate on the S\(_1\) potential of guaiacol.

difference frequencies align very well with the known band separations in an even quanta vibrational progression of the out-of-plane OMe ‘flapping’ mode (\(\phi\), which exhibits by far the largest FC activity in the REMPI/LIF spectra,\(^{14,28,29}\) and highlights the dominant motions involved in the initial geometry rearrangement on guaiacol’s S\(_1\) surface. Combined with the strong FC activity, the pronounced beating in \(\phi\) in Figure 2b can be understood with reference to the schematic in Figure 3. After excitation from the planar S\(_0\) ground state, a vibrational wavepacket in the \(\phi\) coordinate is prepared on S\(_1\) as the geometry relaxes towards its non-planar minimum. However, the final D\(_0\) state of guaiacol\(^+\) is planar, (see SI) and the nuclear configuration is once again different, now between S\(_1\) (non-planar) and D\(_0\) (planar), resulting in a variable ionization cross-section to D\(_0\) along \(\phi\) as the wavepacket oscillates on S\(_1\) (Figure 3, red arrows). Provided the vibrational wavepacket is localized (i.e. not dephased), this results in the characteristic beat seen in Figure 2b. Interestingly, by selecting a probe wavelength such that the combined pump and probe energy far exceeds the IP\(_{ad}\), we find that the beats in the TR-FY signal for guaiacol\(^+\) (as well as syringol\(^+\) – *vide infra* and SI) vanish (cf. Ref 25), demonstrating the sensitivity of the detection window to the probe wavelength (Figure 3, green arrows).

We note that the broadness of the peaks in the FFT reflects the limited time window that these beats persist before they dampen out, most likely due to the rapid dephasing of the vibrational wavepacket. This proposition is reinforced by taking note of the fact that our pump is very likely exciting multiple quanta in the out-of-plane OMe ‘flapping’ mode (\(\phi\)). Indeed, we have extended the guaiacol\(^+\) transient out to 100 ps and find no evidence of revivals, suggesting that population in S\(_1\) is channeled irreversibly into orthogonal vibrational modes. This contrasts revivals (and fractional revivals) that have been observed in electronic\(^{30-33}\) and vibrational wavepackets\(^{34-38}\) excited in atoms and diatomic molecules, respectively. In order to extract a time constant for the dephasing time, \(\tau_d\), we fit our measured transient to two cosine functions (with frequencies corresponding to the wavenumber separation of the vibrational states extracted from our FFT), superimposed with an exponential decay (fit details in SI). The results of this fit (Figure 2b, blue line) return a dephasing lifetime of \(\tau_d = 3.0\) ps, and we discuss the significance of this value below, in relation to the results obtained for syringol.

Figure 2c shows the syringol\(^+\) transient obtained following excitation at 275 nm and probing at 332 nm (circles and dashed line). The combined photon energy of 8.2 eV is enough to surmount the \(-7.9\) eV IP\(_{ad}\) in syringol (adiabatic ionization potential scan shown in SI). As with the transient observed in guaiacol (Figure 2b), following an initial sharp rise at \(\Delta t = 0\), there is a clear beating in the syringol\(^+\) signal that damps by 5 ps, with no evidence of revivals (see SI). Shown inset is the FFT of the same data set, which contains two major frequency components of 78 cm\(^{-1}\) and 112 cm\(^{-1}\). As with guaiacol, these correspond to wavenumber separations of vibrational states within the wavepacket on S\(_1\), however, spectral congestion in the known REMPI spectrum of syringol makes assigning these modes more cumbersome.\(^{14}\) Nonetheless, based on (i) the dominant FC activity of the OMe torsion (\(\tau_{OMe}\)) and \(\phi\) modes upon excitation to S\(_1\)\(^{14}\) and (ii) the predicted geometry changes in the S\(_1\) state of syringol (Figure 1f), these frequencies most likely arise from combination modes involving \(\tau_{OMe}\) and \(\phi\), and are present in the transient for the same reasons outlined above (cf. Figure 3).

Once again, we fit the syringol\(^+\) transient using the method described above (Figure 2c, red line) and extract a dephasing time of \(\tau_d = 1.5\) ps, noticeably faster than that observed in guaiacol (cf. 5.0 ps). Given that the measured REMPI spectrum of syringol is significantly more congested than that for guaiacol,\(^{14}\) it is not surprising that the dephasing time determined for syringol is faster; the greater density of states in the initial superposition drives faster dephasing of the vibrational wavepacket.

Intriguingly, we see that the beats in the syringol\(^+\) transient (Figure 2c), relative to the total ion signal, have greater amplitude than those observed in the guaiacol\(^+\) transient (Figure 2b). We offer two possible explanations for this and discuss the validity of each in turn. The first is that in syringol, the initial composition of the wavepacket may only include a limited set of vibrational levels, composed primarily of \(\tau_{OMe}\) and \(\phi\) modes. However, REMPI spectra indicate that the density of vibrational states in S\(_1\) for syringol is far greater than that of guaiacol\(^{14}\), likely ruling out this conjecture. The second is that the enhanced ionization (detection) window is more localized in nuclear configuration space for syringol than in guaiacol. Credence to this argument comes from the much greater deviation from planarity in S\(_1\) for syringol vs guaiacol. Indeed, time-dependent density functional theory (TD-DFT) calculations on syringol predict that following excitation from S\(_0\) \(\leftrightarrow\) S\(_1\), the H-bonded OMe group distorts \(\sim 50^\circ\) out-of-plane in one direction, while the OH group, accompanied to a lesser extent by the ‘free’ OMe group, bends \(\sim 25^\circ\) in the other direction (Figure 1f). The geometry change is far less pronounced for the OH and OMe groups in guaiacol. Given this fact, coupled with the planar syringol\(^+\) geometry (calculated TD-DFT/M05-2X/6-311++G(d,p)), the magnitude of the modulation in ionization efficiency is expected to be enhanced by virtue of the larger
displacement between $S_i$ and $D_0$ geometries in syringol. The gradual rise in ion yield, shown in the ionization efficiency scan of syringol (relative to guaiacol) near the adiabatic threshold (SI), infers such a scenario.

Given our above evidence for pronounced out-of-plane geometry changes in guaiacol and syringol’s $S_i$ states, which is absent in phenol’s, we now pose the question, how does this affect the relative propensities for photo-induced H-atom loss and formation of PhO sites in these three lignin chromophores? For phenol, recent studies demonstrate that a $^1\pi\pi^*$ ($S_2$) state, which is dissociative along the O–H coordinate (see potential energy cuts in Ref. 16), is responsible for producing PhO + H species at all excitation energies above (and including) the $S_1$ origin (via either tunneling below an $S_1/S_0$ conical intersection at $>248$ nm or by ultrafast coupling onto $S_2$ at shorter wavelengths), as identified through the characteristic measurements already suggest that in para substituted analogues of these chromophores, distorted excited state geometries will still likely play a role in the ensuing dynamics. With this in mind, the work here offers another key step towards developing a more intimate structure-dynamics-function understanding of photodegradation in lignin.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

AUTHOR INFORMATION

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REFERENCES

(40) The present studies have focused on photoexcitation around the S1 origin of these chromophores. At higher excitation energies we anticipate other H-atom loss channels to be active.