



## Comparative studies of photophysical properties of Indole molecules

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### Abstract

In this study, a comparative investigation of 5-methyl-3-phenyl-1H-indole-2-carbohydrazide and 5-chloro-3-phenyl-1H-indole-2-carbohydrazide is presented. Molecular structures were determined, and their UV-visible absorption spectra along with  $^1\text{H}$  and  $^{13}\text{C}$  NMR chemical shift values were systematically analysed. The effect of pure solvents on the spectral properties was examined using solvatochromic theories. Ground- and excited-state dipole moments were estimated through the solvatochromic approach. The higher dipole moments observed in the excited state, together with the red shift in the emission spectra, suggest that the singlet excited state exhibits intramolecular charge-transfer (ICT) character. In addition, theoretical studies were performed using density functional theory (DFT) at the CAM-B3LYP/6-31+G(d,p) level with Gaussian software. Additionally, the energies of the highest occupied and lowest unoccupied molecular orbitals (HOMO and LUMO), as well as the global chemical reactivity descriptors (GCRD), were assessed at the DFT/B3LYP/6-311+G(d,p) level. Additionally, molecular electrostatic potential (MEP) maps were constructed to determine regions most susceptible to electrophilic and nucleophilic attack. The experimentally measured ground-state dipole moments (1.67 D and 13.1 D) were discovered to be greater than corresponding theoretical values (1.11 D and 6.44 D).

**Keywords:** Dipole moment; Indole-based compounds; Solvatochromic analysis; Gaussian 16W calculations

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## 1. Introduction

Indole derivatives are known to possess diverse biological activities such as anti-inflammatory, antiviral, anticancer, antimalarial, antioxidant, anti-HIV, antitubercular, antimicrobial, antidiabetic, and anticholinesterase properties. These diverse activities have stimulated significant research interest in the synthesis of novel indole-based compounds. Structurally, indole, also known as benzopyrrole, consists of a benzenoid nucleus with 10  $\pi$ -electrons (8 from the double bonds and two from the nitrogen lone pair), which imparts aromatic character. Similar to benzene, indole undergoes electrophilic substitution reactions readily due to extensive  $\pi$ -electron delocalization [1].

Indole is an essential heterocyclic scaffold and forms structural basis of several biologically significant compounds, including lysergic acid diethylamide (LSD), strychnine, and various plant alkaloids. In its pure form, indole is a colourless crystalline solid with a characteristic odour. Because biologically active pharmacophores contain indole nucleus, it has made a privileged structure in medicinal chemistry, leading to design and synthesis of numerous indole derivatives for pharmacological screening. Many natural products also contain the indole core, such as the amino acid tryptophan and plant hormone indole-3-acetic acid, formed by tryptophan degradation in higher plants. Owing to these features, indole derivatives continue to receive significant attention for their broad spectrum of biological and clinical applications. This work aims to highlight and summarize the pharmacological relevance of indole-based compounds [3].

When one or more carbon atoms in the ring are replaced with heteroatoms, the resulting cyclic structure is known as a heterocyclic molecule. "Heteroatoms" are the non-carbon atoms that make up these rings. Bicyclic heterocyclic compounds in which a pyrrole ring is fused to a benzene ring at the  $\alpha$ - and  $\beta$ -positions are referred to as indoles. In an indole, the benzene and pyrrole rings share a common double bond, forming a heterocyclic system with ten  $\pi$ -electrons contributed by four double bonds and the nitrogen atom's lone pair. Indole is a significant heterocyclic structure because it is a component of amino acid tryptophan seen in proteins, assists as core structure for drugs such as indomethacin, and forms the backbone of indole alkaloids—naturally occurring biologically active compounds in plants, encompassing strychnine as well as LSD.

The reaction kinetics "of indole (1a), N-methylindole (1b), 5-methoxyindole (1c), and 5-cyanoindole (1d) with a series of reference benzhydryl cations were examined in acetonitrile and/or dichloromethane. The second-order rate constants for these reactions showed a linear correlation with the electrophilicity parameter (E) of the benzhydryl cations. This relationship allows the calculation of nucleophilicity parameters, N and

s, for 1a-d using the linear free energy equation:  $\log k (20\text{ }^\circ\text{C}) = s (N + E)$  (*Acc. Chem. Res.* 2003, 36, 66). These nucleophilicity parameters successfully describe the reactivity of 1a-d with 4,6-dinitrobenzofuroxan (2), a neutral, highly electrophilic heteroaromatic compound whose electrophilicity (E) has recently been determined. Based on this framework, the kinetics of 2 with various indole derivatives were investigated in acetonitrile, establishing a reactivity ranking for this class of  $\pi$ -rich carbon nucleophiles across a broad nucleophilicity scale (N). Notably, plotting the measured N values against the  $pK_a$  ( $H_2O$ ) for protonation at the C-3 position of 5-X-substituted indoles and 5-X-substituted 2-methylindoles revealed two linear, parallel correlations. This divergence indicates that the 2-methyl group introduces steric hindrance, impeding the approach of 2 toward the C-3 position. The N vs.  $pK_a(H_2O)$  correlation for 5-X-substituted indoles provides a practical method to estimate the C-3 basicity of indoles whose acidity constants cannot be directly measured in strongly acidic aqueous media. [2] The indole framework is a key structural element in numerous natural and synthetic compounds with notable biological activity. This review highlights recent advancements in the chemical, biological, and pharmacological properties of important indole derivatives, emphasizing their significance in drug discovery and analytical applications [3-5].

## 2. Materials and methods

The indole derivative namely "5-methyl-3-phenyl-1H-indol-2-carbohydrazide [MPIC]" and "5-Chloro-3-phenyl-1H-indol-2-carbohydrazide [CPIC]" was synthesized by using reported method [7]. The molecular structure of the fluorescent molecule is given in Fig.1(a) and (b). The solvents used for the present work, methanol, ethanol, propanol, pentanol, hexanol, heptanol, nonanol, octanol, butanol, decanol, reagents and chemicals required for the synthesis and analysis were bought from Sigma Aldrich Pvt Ltd. They were utilized to obtain AR-grade. The required solutions were prepared at a fixed solute concentration ( $1 \times 10^{-5}$  M/L). In order to minimize the effect of self-absorption, the concentration of solute was kept sufficiently low to obtain spectroscopic grade solvents. Absorption and emission spectra were recorded on a PG Inst. Ltd., model T-90+, UV-Visible absorption spectrophotometer and fluorescence spectra on FP-8300 fluorescence spectrometer [6-11].

## 3. Theoretical background

### 3.1. Estimation of Ground ( $\mu_g$ ) and Excited State ( $\mu_e$ ) Dipole Moments

The influence of solvent polarity on the indole derivative was studied by using Solvatochromic shift method in solute-solvent mixtures. This method relies on "Onsager's reaction field theory, describing non-specific

electrostatic interactions. The independent equations used for estimating ground and excited state dipole moments of indole derivatives in several solvent of varying refractive index ( $n$ ) as well as dielectric constant'' ( $\epsilon$ ) are [12-16].

Lippert-Mataga Equation

$$\bar{\nu}_a - \bar{\nu}_f = m_1 F_1(\epsilon, n) + \text{Constant} \quad (1)$$

Bakhshiev's equation

$$\bar{\nu}_a - \bar{\nu}_f = m_2 F_2(\epsilon, n) + \text{Constant} \quad (2)$$

Kawski Chamma Vialette's equation

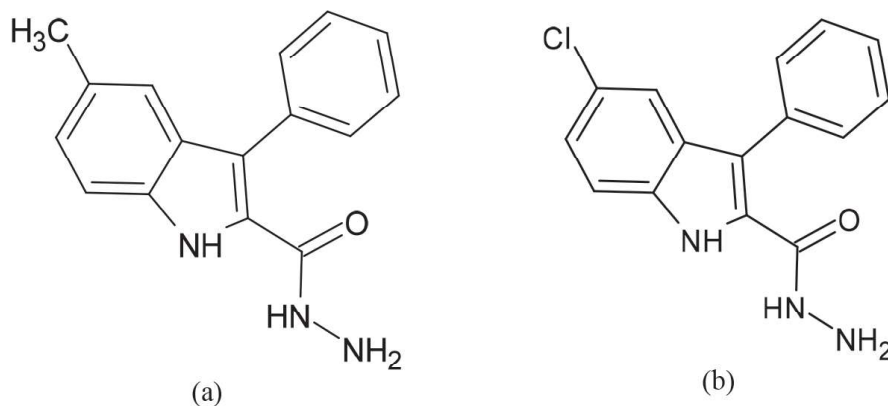
$$\frac{\bar{\nu}_a + \bar{\nu}_f}{2} = -m_3 F_3(\epsilon, n) + \text{Constant}, \quad (3)$$

where **a** and **f** represent the absorption and fluorescence maxima wavenumbers in  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  respectively, and solvent polarity functions  $F_1$ ,  $F_2$ , and  $F_3$  are provided below.

$$F_1(\epsilon, n) = \left[ \frac{\epsilon-1}{2\epsilon+1} - \frac{n^2-1}{2n^2+1} \right] \quad (4)$$

$$F_2(\epsilon, n) = \left[ \frac{\epsilon-1}{\epsilon+2} - \frac{n^2-1}{n^2+2} \right] \frac{(2n^2+1)}{(n^2+2)} \quad (5)$$

$$F_3(\epsilon, n) = \frac{2n^2+1}{2(n^2+2)} \left[ \frac{\epsilon-1}{\epsilon+2} - \frac{n^2-1}{n^2+2} \right] + \frac{3(n^4-1)}{2(n^2+2)^2} \quad (6)$$



**Figure 1:** Molecular structure of (a) MPIC and (b) CPIC molecule

The meanings of  $\epsilon$  and  $n$  are as usual. The plots of  $\bar{\nu}_a - \bar{\nu}_f$  v/s  $F_1(\epsilon, n)$ ,  $F_2(\epsilon, n)$  and  $\frac{\bar{\nu}_a + \bar{\nu}_f}{2}$  versus  $F_3(\epsilon, n)$  have been plotted respectively and the slopes  $m_1$ ,  $m_2$  and  $m_3$  are obtained respectively, as shown below.

$$m_1 = \frac{2(\mu_e - \mu_g)^2}{hca_0^3} \quad (7)$$

$$m_2 = \frac{2(\mu_e - \mu_g)^2}{hca_0^3} \quad (8)$$

$$m_3 = \frac{2(\mu_e^2 - \mu_g^2)}{hca_0^3} \quad (9)$$

The dipole moments  $\mu_e$  and  $\mu_g$  indicate the excited-state and ground-state dipole moments of an indole molecule. The letters 'a' denote the Onsager's cavity radius of the solute molecule, where 'h' is Planck's constant and 'c' is the velocity of light. Edward [17] uses the microscopic increment method to estimate 'a' value. The following equations (10) and (11) are obtained on the basis of equations (8) and (9)

$$\mu_g = \frac{m_3 - m_2}{2} \left[ \frac{hca_0^3}{2m_2} \right]^{\frac{1}{2}} \quad (10)$$

$$\mu_e = \frac{m_3 + m_2}{2} \left[ \frac{hca_0^3}{2m_2} \right]^{\frac{1}{2}} \quad (11)$$

### 3.2. Molecular-Microscopic Solvent polarity Parameter ( $E_T^N$ )

Utilizing spectral features, H-bonding or polarization dependency can be investigated.  $E_T^N$  Reichardt [18] suggested a connection between  $E_T^N$  and spectral shift. In their different theories, Reichardt and Ravi et al. suggested a connection among Stokes shift and  $E_T^N$ . Consequently, eq<sup>n</sup> (12) is derived

$$\bar{\nu}_a - \bar{\nu}_f = 11307.6 \left[ \frac{\Delta\mu^2 a_b^3}{\Delta\mu_b^2 a^3} \right] E_T^N + Constant, \quad (12)$$

where  $\Delta\mu = 9$  D and  $a_b = 6.2$  Å are the change in dipole moment on excitation. The change in dipole moment can be evaluated from the slope of the stokes shift versus  $E_T^N$  plot and is given by equation (13)[18].

$$\Delta\mu = \mu_e - \mu_g = \sqrt{\frac{m \times 81}{\left[ \frac{6.2}{a} \right]^3 \times 11307.6}}, \quad (13)$$

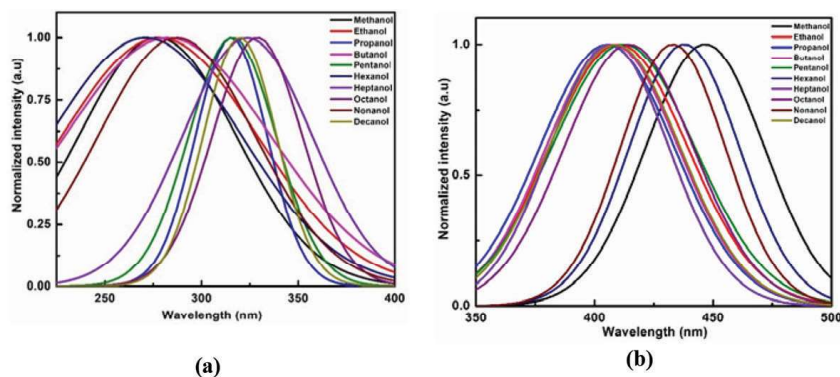
where m is the slope of the linear plot of  $E_T^N$  Vs Stokes shift.

## 4. Results and Discussions

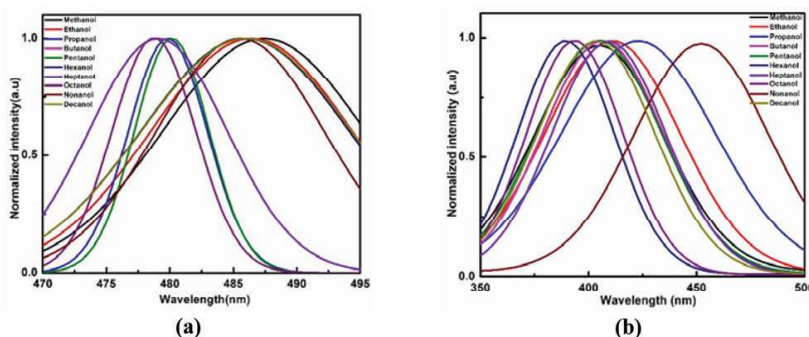
### 4.1. Estimation of ground and excited- state dipole moments

Absorption and fluorescence spectra “of synthesized probes were measured

repeatedly in solvents of different polarities for making sure reproducibility and minimize experimental errors. The verified spectra are presented in Figures 2 & 3, respectively [19-25].



**Figure 2:** (a) Absorption spectra and (b) Fluorescence spectra of MPIC in selected solvents



**Figure 3:** (a) Absorption spectra and (b) Fluorescence spectra of CPIC in selected solvents

The normalized absorption and emission spectra of MPIC and CPIC in various solvents are shown in Figures 2(a) and (b) and 3(a) and (b), correspondingly. The absorption and emission wavelengths range from 273 to 329 nm and 408 to 419 nm for MPIC, and 273 to 329 nm and 399 to 414 nm for CPIC, depending on the solvent [26]. A comparison of the spectra shows that the emission bands exhibit a larger shift than the absorption bands. This shift in the absorption and emission maxima is attributed to the dielectric constants of the solvents used. For recording emission spectra, samples were excited at their respective absorption maxima [27]. Longest wavelength absorption band corresponds to the intramolecular charge-transfer (ICT) transition, which also defines the excitation maxima. Table 1(a)-(b) summarizes the arithmetic mean, Stokes shift, and emission and absorption maxima of derivatives in different solvents. Switching the solvent from polar aprotic ethanol to methanol leads to noticeable spectral shifts in the absorption spectra, with values of 279nm for MPIC and 276, 275, & 269nm for CPIC. Similarly, emission maxima shift from 413nm for MPIC and 415, 401, & 405nm for CPIC. These changes indicate that variations in solvent

polarity and hydrogen-bonding capabilities influence the ground-state energy distribution of these derivatives. A comparison of emission maxima in ethanol and methanol further suggests that hydrogen-bonding properties of the solvents have a more pronounced effect on emission behaviour of both derivatives. Ethanol and methanol display Stokes shifts of 35842 cm<sup>-1</sup>, 36231 cm<sup>-1</sup>, & 36363 cm<sup>-1</sup>, 37174 cm<sup>-1</sup>, respectively [28-35].

**Table 1:** (a) and (b) The absorption maxima, emission maxima, corresponding wave- numbers, Stokes shift and arithmetic stokes shifts in cm<sup>-1</sup> for (a) MPIC and (b) CPIC in alcohols.

Solvents	$\bar{\nu}_a$	$\bar{\nu}_f$	$\bar{\nu}_a - \bar{\nu}_f$	$\left(\frac{\bar{\nu}_a + \bar{\nu}_f}{2}\right)$
Methanol	36231	24096	12135	30163
Ethanol	35842	24213	11629	30027
Propanol	31746	24390	7356	28068
Butanol	35460	24509	10951	29984
Pentanol	31746	24330	7416	28038
Hexanol	36630	24390	12240	30510
Heptanol	30864	24213	6651	27538
Octanol	30395	23866	6529	27130
Nonanol	34722	24271	10451	29496
Decanol	31347	24213	7134	27780

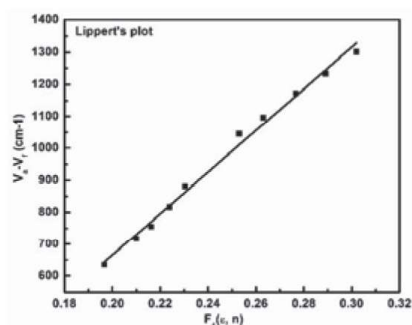
(a)

Solvents	$\bar{\nu}_a$	$\bar{\nu}_f$	$\bar{\nu}_a - \bar{\nu}_f$	$\left(\frac{\bar{\nu}_a + \bar{\nu}_f}{2}\right)$
Methanol	37174	24691	12483	30932
Ethanol	36363	24937	11426	30650
Propanol	31847	24813	07034	28830
Butanol	35971	24630	11341	30333
Pentanol	32051	25062	07439	28781
Hexanol	35971	24875	11096	30423
Heptanol	3125	24154	21029	13639
Octanol	3125	24509	21384	13817
Nonanol	35587	2500	33087	19043
Decanol	35971	24813	11158	30392

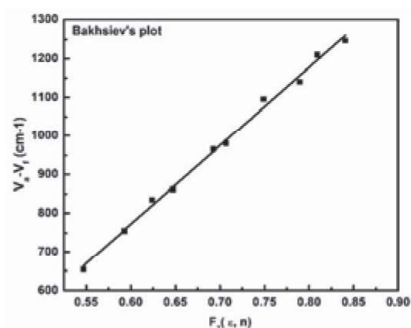
(b)

Table 1 (a) and (b) display the wavenumber “of absorption and emission along Stoke shift and arithmetic Stoke shift value respectively. From Fig. 3 (a), (b), and (c), it follows that,  $\bar{\nu}_a - \bar{\nu}_f$  v/s  $F_1(\mathcal{E}, n)$ ,  $F_2(\mathcal{E}, n)$  and  $\left(\frac{\bar{\nu}_a + \bar{\nu}_f}{2}\right)$  versus  $F_3(\mathcal{E}, n)$  need to be linear, with corresponding slopes of  $m_1$ ,  $m_2$ , and  $m_3$ . ‘a’ denotes solute derivative’s radius and value was measured employing J. T. Edwards’ molecular volume increment technique. Graphs of  $\bar{\nu}_a - \bar{\nu}_f$  v/s  $F_1(\mathcal{E}, n)$ ,  $F_2(\mathcal{E}, n)$  and  $\left(\frac{\bar{\nu}_a + \bar{\nu}_f}{2}\right)$  versus  $F_3(\mathcal{E}, n)$  are displayed in Fig. 3. Table

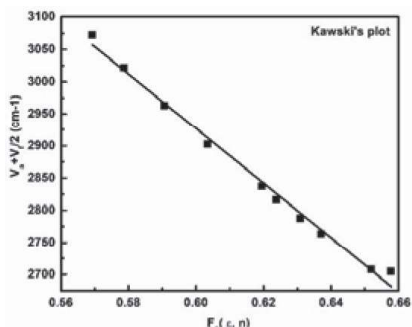
3 contains correlation factor, slope, & no. of" data. Each case is identified with favorable correlation factors. The quantum calculation provided value of (g), "experimental value of electric dipole moment ( $\mu_g$ ) and excited value of electric dipole moment ( $\mu_e$ ) calculated by employing the equations (13 & 14). The values of the dipole moment of ground and excited electric ratio and the dipole moment change ( $\Delta\mu$ ) are mentioned in Table 2. It is found that the dipole moments of the excited state are larger than those of the ground state. It is clear from Table 3 that the dipole moment of both derivatives is greater in the first excited state than it is in the ground state. Upon" excitation, dipole moment nearly doubles. As an outcome of "ICT," this implies that a more relaxed condition is present [36-40].



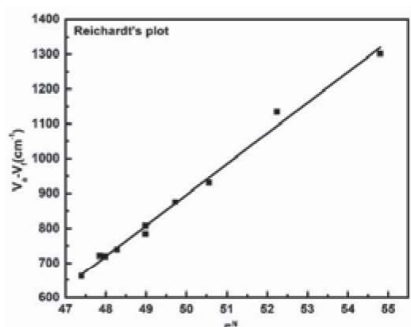
(a)



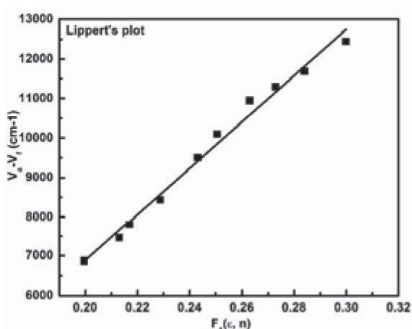
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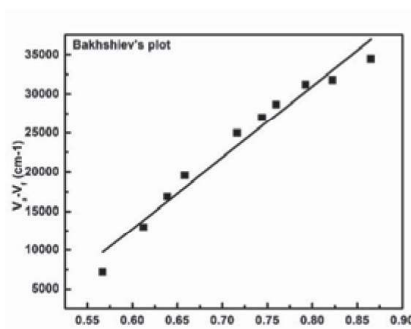
(c)



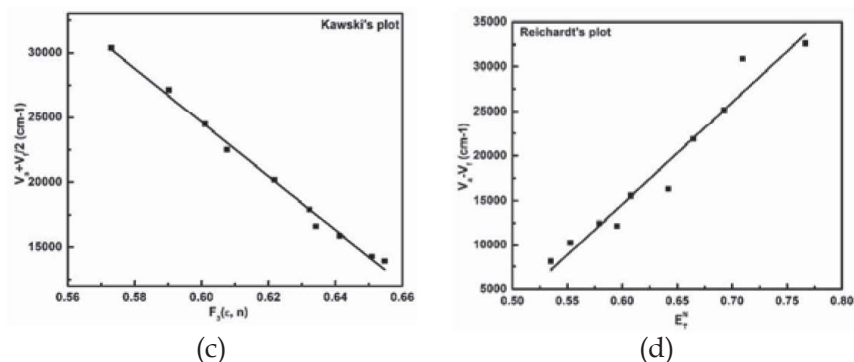
(d)



(a)



(b)



**Figure 4:** Variation of stoke's shifts with polarity functions, (a) Lippert, (b) Kawski-Chamma- Viallet's and (d) Microscopic solvent polarity ( $E_T^N$ ) functions for MPIC & CPIC.

## 4.2. Molecular-Microscopic Solvent Polarity Parameter ( $E_T^N$ )

The “plot of the Stokes shift for both derivatives in different solvents as a function of the microscopic solvent polarity parameter ( $E_T^N$ ) is shown in Figure 3(d). Stokes shift's observed linear dependence on  $E_T^N$  suggests a broad solute-solvent interaction in” which “the dielectric constant and solvent's refractive index both affect the shift. Table 2 summarizes the values obtained from applying Eq. (16) to the  $E_T^N$  parameter for computing excited-state dipole moment  $\mu_e^g$ . Remarkably, the excited-state dipole moments evaluated from ( $E_T^N$ ) approach are marginally greater than those derived using the Bakshiev and Kawski-Chamma-Viallet equations. This discrepancy might occur because the ( $E_T^N$ ) technique takes into consideration the molecular aspects of solvation, but it overlooks some solute-solvent interactions such hydrogen bonding and complex formation. Intramolecular charge transfer (ICT) is confirmed by a bathochromic (red) shift seen in both the emission and absorption bands when solvent polarity increases. This suggests that, as opposed to less polar ground state with mostly mesomeric structure, excitation results in creation of a highly dipolar excited state with a dominant nitro-phenoxy-methyl structure. In accordance with ICT behavior, the excited state is therefore more polar than ground” state [41–45].

**Table 2:** Ground state and excited state dipole moments of MPIC and CPIC

Molecular name	Radius 'a' (Å)	Slope	Dipole moments						
			$\mu_g^a$	$\mu_e^b$	$\mu_e^c$	$\mu_e^d$	$\mu_e^e$	$\mu_e^f$	$\mu_e^g$
MPIC	3.60	m = 88.20 m <sub>1</sub> = 6504 m <sub>2</sub> = 2032 m <sub>3</sub> = -4243	1.67	4.74	7.16	4.74	4.73	3.07	0.35
CPIC	3.58	m = 11444 m <sub>1</sub> = 5870 m <sub>2</sub> = 9125 m <sub>3</sub> = -20833	13.1	33.5	29.4	33.5	33.4	20.4	12.5

1Debye (D) =  $3.33564 \times 10^{-30} \text{cm} = 10^{-18} \text{esu cm}$ .

<sup>a</sup>The ground states dipole moments calculated using Equation. (10)

<sup>b</sup>The excited state dipole moment calculated by Equation. (11)

<sup>c</sup>The experimental excited state dipole moments calculated from Lippert's equation.

<sup>d</sup>The experimental excited state dipole moments calculated from Bakhshiev's equation.

<sup>e</sup>The experimental excited state dipole moments calculated from Chamma-Viallet's equation.

<sup>f</sup>The change in dipole moments from Equation (10) and (11).

<sup>g</sup>The change in dipole moments calculated from Equation (12).

### 4.3. Computational analysis

Ground-state optimizations of the synthesized dyes were performed "using DFT and TD-DFT at B3LYP/6-31G level of theory, combined with the integral equation formalism variant of the polarizable continuum model (IEFPCM) for accounting for solvation effects. Optimized molecular geometries and dipole moment directions of both molecules are illustrated in Figure 5. Ground-state dipole moments of molecules in gas phase and in various solvents were theoretically estimated employing DFT at the B3LYP/6-31G level, and findings are concluded in Table 3. The dipole moment values attained from ab initio calculations were found to be higher than those derived from experimental measurements. Additionally, the three-dimensional plots of the HOMO as well as LUMO for the synthesized fluorescent dyes are depicted in Figure 5. The computed HOMO & LUMO energy levels, along with the corresponding HOMO-LUMO energy gaps ( $\Delta E$ ), are represented in" Table 3 [46-47].

### 4.4. Global chemical reactivity descriptor (GCRD) parameters

To evaluate the reactivity and stability of the fluorophores, the "global chemical reactivity descriptors (GCRDs) were calculated utilizing equations (4-8) [31]. These comprised chemical softness (S), chemical hardness ( $\eta$ ), electronegativity ( $\chi$ ), chemical potential ( $\mu$ ), and the electrophilicity index ( $\omega$ ).

$$\eta = (\text{IP} - \text{EA}) / 2 \quad (14)$$

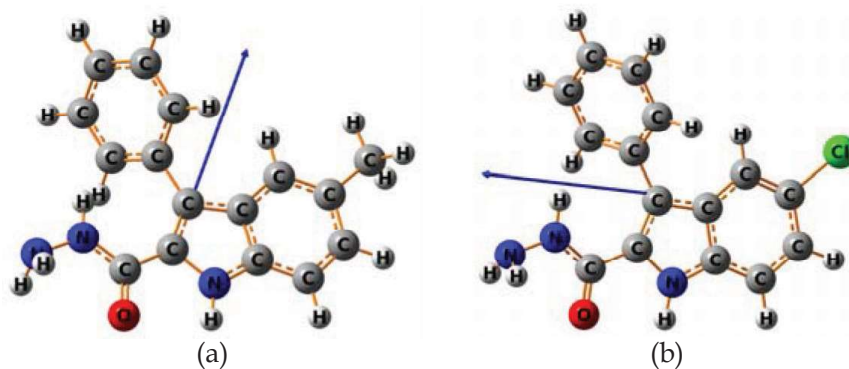
$$\mu = -\chi \quad (15)$$

$$\chi = (\text{IP} + \text{EA}) / 2 \quad (16)$$

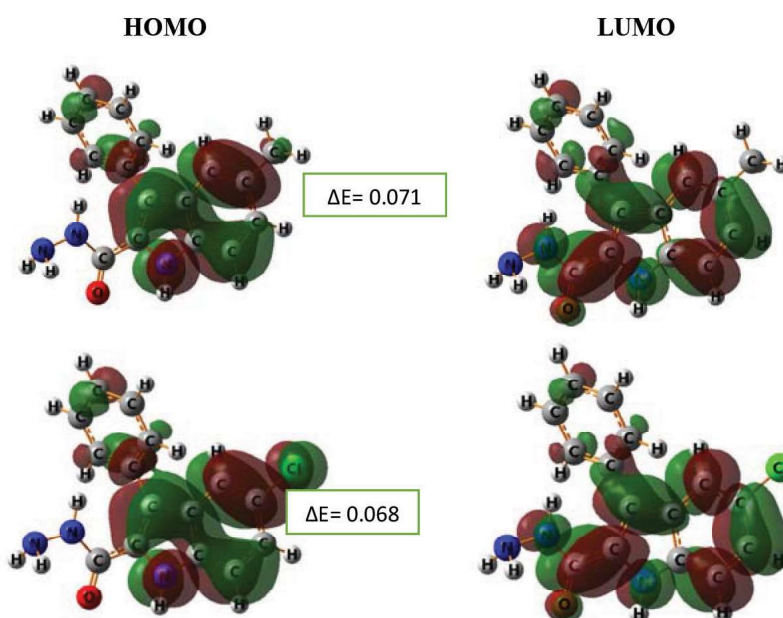
$$S = 1 / 2\eta \quad (17)$$

$$\omega = \mu^2 / 2\eta \quad (18)$$

where  $IP = -E_{\text{HOMO}}$  is the ionization potential and  $EA = -E_{\text{LUMO}}$  is the electron affinity of the molecule. The GCRD parameters for both fluorophores are shown in Table 7.



**Figure 5:** Ground-state optimized molecular geometries along with the direction of dipole moment.

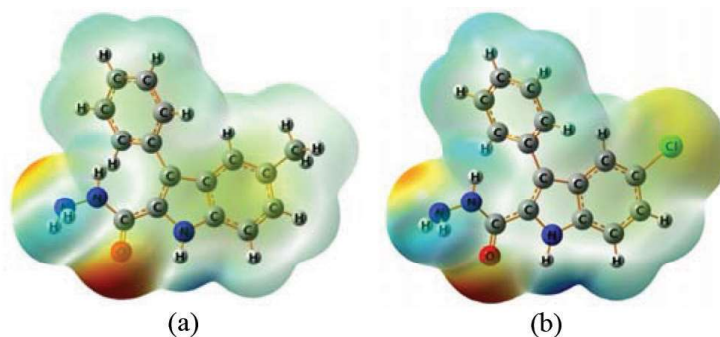


**Figure 6:** HOMO - LUMO Energy gap of MPIC and CPIC

**Table 3:** GCRD parameters of MPIC and CPIC calculated at the (B3LYP/6-31G(d)) level of theory.

Parameter	MPIC	CPIC
HOMO	-0.151	-0.158
LUMO	-0.080	-0.090
IP (eV)	0.151	0.158
EA (eV)	0.080	0.090
$\chi$ (eV)	0.116	0.124
$\mu$ (eV)	-0.116	-0.124
$\eta$ (eV)	0.035	0.034
S (eV <sup>-1</sup> )	14.15	14.64
$\omega$ (eV)	0.190	0.226

Molecular electrostatic surface potential (MESP) maps for both fluorophores were generated using the DFT-B3LYP/6-31G(d) method and are demonstrated in Figure 7. These maps display a color gradient ranging from red to dark blue, representing the most negative and most positive electrostatic potential regions, respectively. The overall color sequence (red, yellow, green, light blue, dark blue) reflects the transition from highly electron-rich areas (red) to highly electron-deficient areas (dark blue). Yellow regions indicate slightly less negative potential than red, light blue represents moderately positive regions, and green areas correspond to nearly neutral potential. The MESP analysis provides valuable information on the preferred sites for nucleophilic and electrophilic attack, as well as possible hydrogen-bonding interaction sites. Both fluorophores show well-defined nucleophilic and electrophilic regions, supporting their potential reactivity patterns [48–50].



**Figure 7:** Molecular electrostatic potential map of MPIC and CPIC

## 5. Conclusions

The photophysical behaviour of the newly synthesized indole derivatives was investigated using “steady-state absorption and fluorescence emission spectroscopy. Ground-state dipole moments were determined through both experimental measurements and theoretical calculations, with the experimental values discovered to be more than theoretical predictions. Excited-state dipole moments, calculated utilizing multiple solvatochromic equations, were of comparable magnitude across methods and consistently greater than the ground-state values, highlighting that the derivatives are more polar in their excited state. The energy band gap values obtained from” experimental and theoretical approaches showed good agreement, validating the computational methodology. In addition, GCRD parameter calculations and MESP mapping confirmed the presence of distinct electrophilic and nucleophilic regions in the molecules. Collectively, these findings demonstrate that the synthesized indole derivatives are promising candidates for applications in solar energy conversion, fluorescent probes, and chemo sensor technologies.

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