

# Charge Separation in Photosynthetic Reaction Centers under Femtosecond Excitation

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**Abstract**—The process of electron transfer from the primary electron donor  $P^*$  to the primary electron acceptor  $B_A$  in the reaction center of *Rhodobacter sphaeroides* R-26 under 30 fsec pulse excitation was studied in this work with the aim of establishing a relationship between the nuclear subsystem motion and charge transfer. For this purpose the fsec and psec oscillations in the bands of stimulated emission of  $P^*$  and in the band of reaction product  $B_A^-$  at 1020 nm were investigated. It was established that the reversible formation of the  $P^+B_A^-$  state is characterized by two vibration modes (130 and 320  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ) and connected with an arrival of the wavepacket induced by fsec excitation to the intersection of potential surfaces  $P^*B_A$  and  $P^+B_A^-$ . The irreversible formation of the  $P^+B_A^-$  state with the time constant of 3 psec is followed by oscillations with frequencies of 9 and 33  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ . These results show that the irreversibility of electron transfer is determined by two factors: 1) by a difference between the energy width of the wavepacket and the gap between the named surfaces; 2) by a difference between the duration of wavepacket residence near the intersection of the surfaces and the relaxation time of the  $P^+B_A^-$  state.

**Key words:** photosynthesis, reaction center, electron transfer, wavepacket, femtosecond spectroscopy

The reaction center (RC) of purple bacteria consists of three protein subunits (L, M, and H for light, medium, and heavy, respectively), four bacteriochlorophyll molecules, two bacteriopheophytin molecules, two quinone molecules, and one non-heme iron atom. The complete 3-D structure of RC has been determined by X-ray analy-

sis [1-4]. Two bacteriochlorophyll molecules form a dimer that is the primary electron donor, P. It is shifted to the side of the photosynthetic membrane that corresponds to the lumen surface of chloroplast membrane. P is located at the axis of  $C_2$ -symmetry of the RC. Bilaterally along this axis and deeper in the membrane are located two molecules of monomer bacteriochlorophyll ( $B_A$  and  $B_B$ , where indexes A and B denominate the photoactive (A) and non-photoactive (B) chain of chromophores), and then two bacteriopheophytin molecules ( $H_A$  and  $H_B$ ). At the opposite side of the membrane corresponding to the stromal surface of the chloroplast membrane, terminal electron acceptors, quinones  $Q_A$  and  $Q_B$ , are located also bilaterally of the axis of  $C_2$ -symmetry of the RC. The electron transfer passes via chromophores of the active chain (P,  $B_A$ ,  $H_A$ , and  $Q_A$ ) with high efficiency (quantum yield of 100%) [3]. Then the electron from  $Q_A^-$  is transferred to  $Q_B$  via the Fe atom which is liganded by four histidine residues and is located at the axis of  $C_2$ -symmetry of the RC.

A large body of research [5-13] has established that the primary act of charge separation in reaction centers (RCs) of purple bacteria is electron transfer from the excited primary electron donor  $P^*$  to a monomeric bacte-

**Abbreviations:** RC) reaction center; P) primary electron donor, a dimer of bacteriochlorophyll molecules;  $B_A$ ) primary electron acceptor, the monomer bacteriochlorophyll molecule localized in the active chain;  $B_B$ ) monomer bacteriochlorophyll localized in the non-active chain;  $H_A$ ) the bacteriopheophytin localized in the active chain;  $Q_A$ ) the quinone localized in the active chain; Pheo) a plant pheophytin;  $\Psi(x,t)$ ) wavefunction;  $\varphi_{n+j}$ ) fundamental harmonic oscillator function;  $\Delta G^0$ ) free energy;  $\Delta A$ ) absorption difference ("light minus dark");  $k$ ) rate constant of electron transfer;  $\sigma(r)$ ) transmission coefficient;  $\nu$ ) frequency factor;  $\Delta G^*$ ) free energy of activation;  $E_{\text{reor}}$ ) reorganization energy;  $V$ ) electron interaction energy between P and  $B_A$ ;  $P_{\text{wp}}$ ) probability of transition of wavepacket to the potential surface of state  $P^+B_A^-$ ;  $\Delta E_{\text{wp}}$ ) energy width of wave packet;  $E_{\text{wp}}$ ) energy of wave packet;  $\Delta V_{\text{elec}}$ ) energy of electrostatic interaction;  $\Delta V_{\text{QQ}}$ ) interaction energy between P and  $B_A$ ;  $\Delta V_{\text{QH}}$ ) interaction energy of P and  $B_A$  with protein and crystal water atoms;  $\Delta V_{\text{ind}}$ ) interaction energy of P and  $B_A$  with induced dipoles.

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riochlorophyll molecule  $B_A$ . This step occurs within  $\sim 3$  psec at 293K. Then the electron is transferred from  $B_A^-$  to a bacteriopheophytin  $H_A$  within  $\sim 1$  psec and from  $H_A^-$  to quinone  $Q_A$  within  $\sim 200$  psec. Decreasing the temperature to 5–10 K accelerates all these processes 2–3-fold. The appearance of the  $P^*$  state results in bleaching of  $P$  absorption bands at 870 and 600 nm and in a stimulated emission at 920 nm as well. In parallel with electron transfer from  $P^*$  to  $B_A$ , the stimulated emission at 920 nm decreases and is accompanied by bleaching of a  $B_A$  absorption band at 800 nm and appearance of a  $B_A^-$  absorption band at 1020 nm. This process is more pronounced with RCs in which  $H_A$  is replaced by plant pheophytin (Pheo) [13] since the Pheo $^-$  redox potential value is more negative than that of  $H_A^-$ . The energy of  $P^+Pheo^-$  state is  $\sim 200$   $\text{cm}^{-1}$  above that of  $P^+B_A^-$  [14]. As a result, electron transfer from  $B_A^-$  to Pheo is absent at low temperature. Pheo takes a virtual part in electron transfer from  $B_A^-$  to  $Q_A$  with time constant 1.8 nsec instead of 100 psec in native RCs at 5K [13].

The recombinant fluorescence method has shown [15, 16] that the energy of the  $P^+B_A^-$  state is 350–550  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  lower than the energy of  $P^*B_A$ . The recombination time of  $P^+B_A^-$  is about 1 nsec [13], this being threefold lower than the  $P^*B$  lifetime ( $\sim 300$  psec). The electron transfer from  $B_A^-$  to  $H_A$  is followed by loss of a free energy portion from 0.12 eV [5] to 0.25 eV [17]. For RCs from *R. viridis*, it was recognized by measuring  $E_{1/2}$  [18] that the free energy decrease ( $\Delta G^\circ$ ), due to the transition from  $P^*H_A$  to  $P^+H_A^-$  state is about 0.07 eV or 570  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ; this is equal to the  $\Delta H$  value determined by the recombination fluorescence. For these RCs the values  $E_{1/2}$  were directly determined for  $P/P^+$  (+515 mV) and for  $H_A^-/H_A$  (–620 mV) [18]. The sum of these values give  $\Delta G^\circ = 1.14$  eV, which is 0.06 eV lower than the energy of the light quantum of the 0–0 transition of  $P$  (1015 nm). A similar value (0.08 eV or 645  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ) was determined for  $\Delta H$ . Hence it follows that the  $P^+B_A^-$  and  $P^+H_A^-$  states may be quite close to each other in RCs of this type; this has been shown experimentally as well [19]. The recombination time of  $P^+H_A^-$  is 15 nsec at 293K and 20 nsec at 77K [20]; this is 20-fold slower than the recombination time of  $P^+B_A^-$  according to the distance between the centers of  $P$  and  $B_A$  (11 Å) and  $P$  and  $H_A$  (16 Å).

Thus the primary act of charge separation in bacterial RCs takes place with the participation of two species,  $P^*$  and  $B_A$ . The process has a time constant of 1.6 psec at 5K (see [13]) and 3 psec at 293K (see [21]). Most simply, the  $P^+B_A^-$  state is recorded at modified RCs in which the bacteriopheophytin molecule  $H_A$  is replaced by a plant pheophytin molecule Pheo. Thus, in this work the mechanism of the primary act was studied using modified RCs.

**Femtosecond absorption spectroscopy** of chemical and biological systems permits not only to determine the sequence of a reaction, by the electron transfer for example, but to follow the motion of the nuclear subsystem

resulting from the electron transfer as well. Actually, when a chromophore ( $P$  in our case) is excited by very short ( $\leq 30$  fsec) pulses with broad spectral width the excited state,  $P^*$ , is generated as a superposition of wavefunctions of many vibrations instead of one particular vibrational excitation and a so-called “wavepacket” is formed as follows (see, for example [22]):

$$\Psi(x,t) = (2\nu + 1)^{-0.5} \sum_j \varphi_{n+j} \exp\{-i\omega(n+j+0.5)t\}, \quad (1)$$

where  $\varphi_{n+j}$  is the fundamental function of a harmonic oscillator and  $\omega$  is the mechanical oscillation frequency. A remarkable property of the wavepacket (1) is that it looks like semi-classical particles.

**Femtosecond oscillations in  $P^*$  emission.** When  $P$  is transferred from the ground to the excited state a wavepacket is formed which begins to move over the surface of potential free energy of the excited state  $P^*$ . The wavepacket, being a superposition of nuclear wavefunctions, includes also the energy of excited electron, which varies along with the nuclear subsystem as well. As a result, the wavepacket has an emission whose spectrum is clearly time dependent because the surface of the  $P^*$  state is shifted along the nuclear coordinate with respect to the ground state surface  $P$  (Fig. 1). It is evident from Fig. 1 that on excitation of  $P$  by femtosecond pulses ( $\leq 30$  fsec) the wavepacket is formed at the left side of the potential surface  $P^*$ , being shifted to the right with respect to the surface of the ground state. Then motion of the wavepacket occurs on the surface with a 260 fsec period that was found in a number of works by Vos et al. [23–27]. When the wavepacket is at the left side of the surface, it emits fluorescence with wavelength near 895 nm, and when it is at the right side, then with wavelength near 930 nm. The difference of emission wavelengths depends on the distance between the emitting point at the  $P^*$  surface and the point at the  $P$  surface connected by the vertical line. It is evident that the wavepacket spends most of the time in the region where its potential energy is minimal and kinetic energy is maximal. The points on the left and right sides of the surface of the wavepacket are visited once per period and in antiphase. In contrast, at the point where the wavepacket momentum is maximal (near the surface bottom) the wavepacket visits twice per period and spends minimal time at this point. Thus, the fluorescence of the wavepacket with apparent fsec antiphase oscillation is observed near 895 and 930 nm, where the formation of distinct emission peaks is recorded [21, 24]. Oscillations of emissions with different spectra and phases are possible only when a shift of the potential surfaces of the excited and ground states takes place. If such shift is absent, then the emission spectrum is time independent and the oscillations are absent too. For oscillations with 260-fsec period, a rapid decay is characteristic in native RCs. The second oscillation maximum at 930 nm is less than the first by a factor of 5 and is more than the third by a factor of 5

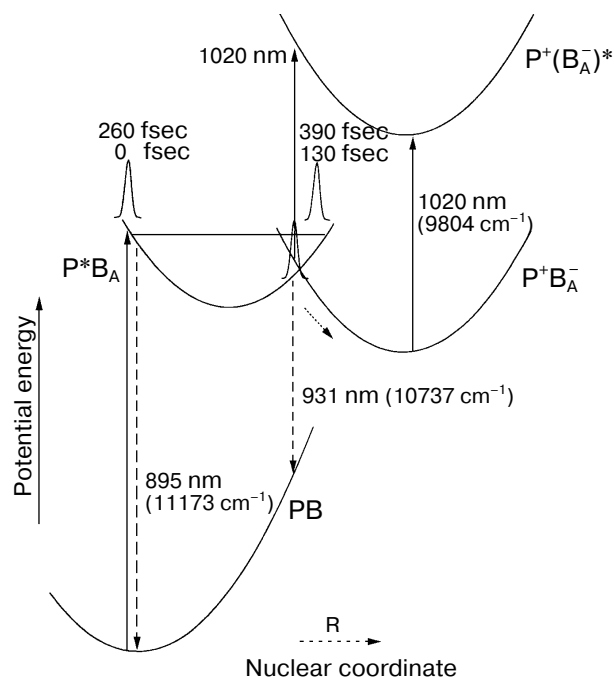


Fig. 1. Scheme of wavepacket motion along the potential surface of excited state  $P^*B_A$  and its emission from the opposite sides of the potential surface to the surface of the ground state  $P_B A^-$ . Intersection of potential surfaces  $P^*B_A$  and  $P^+B_A^-$  at which the absorption band of  $B_A^-$  at  $1020\text{ nm}$  has been observed is also shown. The same band is observed after thermalization of  $P^+B_A^-$  because the shift of  $P^+B_A^-$  and  $P^+(B_A^-)^*$  surfaces is small.

too. Thus, only 20% of an initial wavepacket is able to enter the next cycle. In the  $D_{LL}$  mutant, oscillations with a changed period of  $400\text{ fsec}$  are recorded near  $945\text{ nm}$  and decay significantly slower: each subsequent maximum is 1.5-fold lower than the preceding one [23]. This fact points to a certain connection between the oscillations and the charge separation process.

Although so far the oscillations of only one mode were discussed, the whole spectrum of femtosecond oscillations of the stimulated emission of  $P^*$ , which extends from  $10$  to  $400\text{ cm}^{-1}$  and includes modes with frequencies at  $15, 70, 92, 122, 153, 191,$  and  $329\text{ cm}^{-1}$  [24], can be analyzed by means of Fourier transform. It is characteristic that the main part of the mentioned vibration modes was first found at  $31, 73, 110, 147, 175,$  and  $205\text{ cm}^{-1}$  [28] by the hole-burning method at  $1.7\text{ K}$ . Later, similar modes were found in Raman scattering spectra [29] at  $34, 71, 95,$  and  $128\text{ cm}^{-1}$ . Small difference between frequency values may be due to the used RCs isolated from different bacteria.

**Femtosecond oscillations in the bands of the primary donor and acceptor of the electron in RCs.** The charge separation between  $P^*$  and  $B_A$  and the following electron transfer to  $H_A$  and  $Q_A$  occurs in bacterial RCs with 100%

efficiency over a wide range of temperatures from  $5$  to  $293\text{ K}$ . Measurements of the electron transfer from  $P^*$  to  $B_A$  with femtosecond time resolution are most interesting because just for that reaction it is possible to study the relationship of the nuclear wavepacket motion and the electron transfer. To study this question, measurements were carried out [30–32] in the  $P^*$  stimulated emission band as well as in the  $B_A$  absorption band at  $293\text{ K}$ . Similar measurements were performed at  $15\text{ K}$  (see [33]), but in this case the contribution of  $P^*$  in that spectral region is too high due to fine effects of  $B_A$  and  $B_B$  band shifts under the influence of  $P^*$  and due to formation of bands characteristic of  $P^*$ . As a result, it is difficult to see the oscillation connected with reduction of  $B_A$ . The situation is significantly easier at  $293\text{ K}$  because the  $B_A$  and  $B_B$  bands are broad and consequently the fine effects of band shifts under the field of  $P^*$  are eliminated [30–32].

It was demonstrated [32] that on the short-wavelength side of the  $P^*$  emission at  $890\text{ nm}$  the period of initial intensive oscillations is located in the region of  $240\text{ fsec}$ ; that corresponds to an oscillation frequency of about  $140\text{ cm}^{-1}$  which was recorded earlier in similar measurements at  $10\text{ K}$  [24] as well as in the hole-burning spectra [28]. It is important also that this mode is the basis for  $P$  absorption simulation at different temperatures [34]. This means that one of the vibrational levels of this mode is populated when  $P$  is transferred to the excited state; that process leads to nuclear motions whose sense is discussed below.

As already mentioned, oscillations within the range  $130$ – $140\text{ cm}^{-1}$  are recorded also in the  $B_A$  absorption band at  $805\text{ nm}$  in antiphase with the stimulated emission at  $890\text{ nm}$  and, consequently, in phase with the emission at  $930\text{ nm}$  [32]. Fourier transformation of the oscillation at  $890$  and  $805\text{ nm}$  showed not only this mode but also another modes at  $10, 32, 43,$  and  $84\text{ cm}^{-1}$ . It is important that the amplitude ratio for some of these modes is different for  $890$  and  $805\text{ nm}$ . The amplitude for the  $130$ – $140\text{ cm}^{-1}$  mode is practically the same, but the amplitude of oscillations at  $10$  and  $32\text{ cm}^{-1}$  are significantly higher for the kinetics at  $805\text{ nm}$ . The  $32\text{ cm}^{-1}$  mode oscillations are clearly seen in the  $2$ – $3$ -psec part of the initial kinetics, this suggesting the real origin of this mode. As the absorption changes near  $800\text{ nm}$  may reflect the changes in the  $B_A$  band, it was supposed [31, 32] that the oscillation at  $130$ – $140$  and  $32\text{ cm}^{-1}$  is directed along the reaction coordinate of electron transfer from  $P^*$  to  $B_A$ . Both modes are clearly seen in the absorption spectrum of  $P$  [34] as well as in the hole-burning spectrum for  $P$  excitation in the  $0$ – $0$  transition region [28]. This indicates the existence of remarkable amplitude of these oscillations under  $P$  excitation. This is also important for realization of their function in the electron transfer from  $P^*$  to  $B_A$ . At the same time, it was noted [32] that a supplementary investigation on participation of these oscillations in the electron transfer is needed to make a final conclusion. This is due

to a possibility that these oscillations may be connected with the own oscillations of  $P^*$ , with the  $B_A$  and  $B_B$  bands shift, and with absorption changes of  $B_A$  and  $B_B$  under the influence of the  $P^*$  field. The two later possibilities as well as the possibility of oscillations due to the electron transfer from  $P^*$  to  $B_A$  are not in contradiction with the fact that oscillations in the B band are in phase at both sides of the absorption at 800 nm [31, 32]. In contrast, the absorption of  $P^* \rightarrow P^{**}$  or  $B \rightarrow B^*$  types for oscillations in  $P^*$  state and in ground state B does not correspond to experimental data. Measurements [32] with the YM210W mutant having remarkably decreased rate of the electron transfer from  $P^*$  to  $B_A$  showed that the 10 and 30  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  modes are appreciably suppressed in the kinetics at 805 nm. This may indicate the participation of these modes in the charge separation process too. From another side, the molecular dynamics calculations [35] indicate the same possibility; these calculations show that the mode near 17  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  modulates the distance between P and  $B_A$ . The change in the distance between  $P^*$  and  $B_A$  may be important for the electron transfer.

At the same time, additional information about fsec oscillations in the product of charge separation  $P^+B_A^-$  may significantly clarify this process. With this aim, measurement of the band formation at 1020 nm which belongs to the radical anion  $B_A^-$  and directly indicates the appearance of  $P^+B_A^-$  was carried out in this work.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

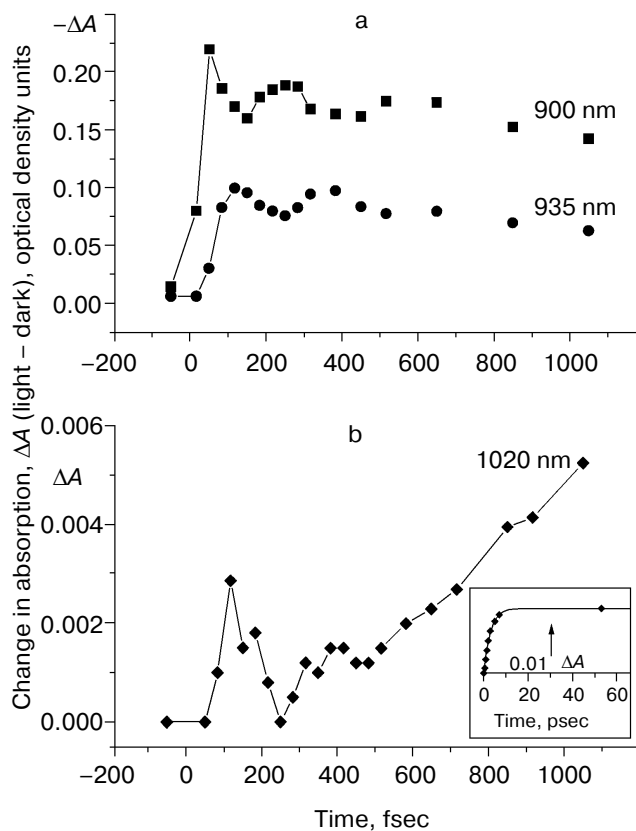
RC of *Rhodobacter sphaeroides* R26 were isolated as described in [36]. The bacteriopheophytin was replaced by plant pheophytin according to the procedure described in [12]. The optical density of the samples was 0.5 at 860 nm at 293 K in a 1-mm cell. Dithionite (5 mM) addition to the samples with subsequent illumination by unfocused light of an incandescent lamp for ~1 min was used to maintain the  $PB_AH_AQ_A^-$  state of the RCs. All measurements were carried out at room temperature.

A detailed description of the experimental setup constructed at the Belozersky Institute of Physico-Chemical Biology of Lomonosov Moscow State University can be found in [21]. A femtosecond mode-locked Ti:sapphire laser (26 fsec pulse duration) was used as the master generator of the spectrometer. A single pulse expanded to 10 psec by a stretcher was amplified by an 8-pass Ti:sapphire amplifier and then was compressed by a compressor to the initial fsec pulse width. The amplified fsec pulses were focused onto a water cell to produce a light continuum. An RG 850 filter (Melles Griot, USA) cut off the wavelength region below 850 nm. Approximately 96% of the total energy of the continuum was used for pump pulses and the remaining 4% for probe and reference pulses. The pump and probe pulses passed through a delay line and the sample. Then the probe and

reference pulses were sent to a polychromator coupled to an optical multichannel analyzer (ORIEL, France). The operating frequency of the spectrometer was 2 Hz. The cross-correlation width of the pump and probe pulses corresponded to ~30 fsec pulse duration. The relative position of the zero time delay did not exceed 30 fsec within the 900–1100 nm region. The delay between pump and probe pulses was changed with an accuracy of ~20 fsec. The difference (light-minus-dark) absorption spectra  $\Delta A(\lambda)$  are the results of averages of several hundred measurements.

## RESULTS

Investigation of fsec oscillations in the  $B_A$  absorption band at 1020 nm was undertaken to solve the problem of the participation of definite oscillation modes in the charge separation in RCs. This band is sensitive to the formation of primary product,  $P^+B_A^-$ , i.e., of the charge separation between  $P^*$  and  $B_A$ . This approach gives significant information about the mechanism of nuclear movement coupling in the  $P^*B_A$  state and the electron transfer



**Fig. 2.** Kinetics of  $\Delta A$  at 900, 935, and 1020 nm for pheophytin-modified *Rb. sphaeroides* RCs excited by 30-fsec pulses at 870 nm at 293K. The inset shows the  $\Delta A$  kinetics at 1020 nm from 0 to 53 psec.

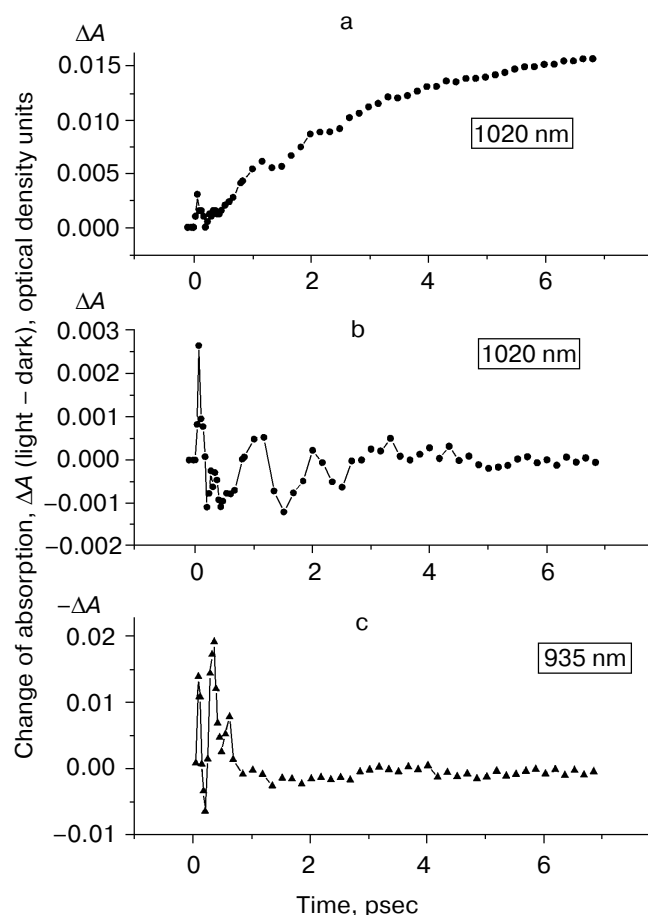


Fig. 3. Kinetics of  $\Delta A$  at 1020 nm (a) and its oscillating part (b) and the oscillating part of  $\Delta A$  kinetics at 935 nm (c) for pheophytin-modified *Rb. sphaeroides* RCs at 293K.

since the 1020-nm band is not present in the initial RC absorption. It is characteristic just for the radical anion of bacteriochlorophyll [37].

Figure 2 shows that the 1020-nm band formation in pheophytin-modified RCs from *Rb. sphaeroides* follows in phase oscillations of the  $P^*$  stimulated emission at 935 nm (and it also follows in phase  $B_A$  band bleaching at 805 nm according to [32]). Appearance of the band at 1020 nm is reversible with  $\sim 120$ -fsec delay and partly reversible with 380-fsec delay as well as at 1 and 2 psec (Fig. 3). Characteristically, the in-phase oscillations at 935 and 1020 nm are out-of-phase with oscillations at 900 nm (the maximum at 895 nm [24]) (Fig. 2). Amplitudes of oscillations at 935 and 1020 nm for 120 fsec time delay normalized to the maximal  $\Delta A$  values of these kinetics are close to each other (0.19 and 0.20, respectively). This means that to 120 fsec delay time a mixed state of  $P^*$  and  $P^+B_A^-$  is formed that emits light at 935 nm ( $P^*$ ) and absorbs at 1020 nm ( $B_A^-$ ). The residence time of the wavepacket in the crossing region of two surfaces at 120 fsec delay is  $\sim 100$  fsec.

The oscillation kinetics at 1020 nm, which is a difference of the initial kinetics (Fig. 3a) and exponentially increasing curve with 3 psec time constant, is shown in Fig. 3b. One can see an oscillation with  $\sim 1$ -psec period besides a fast oscillation with a  $\sim 260$ -fsec period. Such picosecond oscillations are not seen in the kinetic curve at 935 nm (Fig. 3c). Figure 4 shows results of a Fourier transformation of the oscillating part of the kinetics at 935 nm (a), 1020 nm (b), and 805 nm (c) (the latter is taken from [32]). All these spectra have a broad band with peak at  $130$ - $140$   $\text{cm}^{-1}$  ( $240$ - $260$  fsec period). At the same time, a characteristic frequency at  $30$ - $33$   $\text{cm}^{-1}$  ( $\sim 1$  psec period) that is seen in the Fourier spectra of kinetics at 805 and 1020 nm is lacking or significantly depressed in the Fourier spectrum of the kinetic curve at 935 nm. Modes at  $27$  and  $42$   $\text{cm}^{-1}$  are observed in the 890-nm kinetics of native RCs, but their amplitudes are 2-3-fold lower than the amplitude of the  $130$ - $140$   $\text{cm}^{-1}$  mode [32]. The same relationship of these modes was observed in a hole-burning spectrum [28].

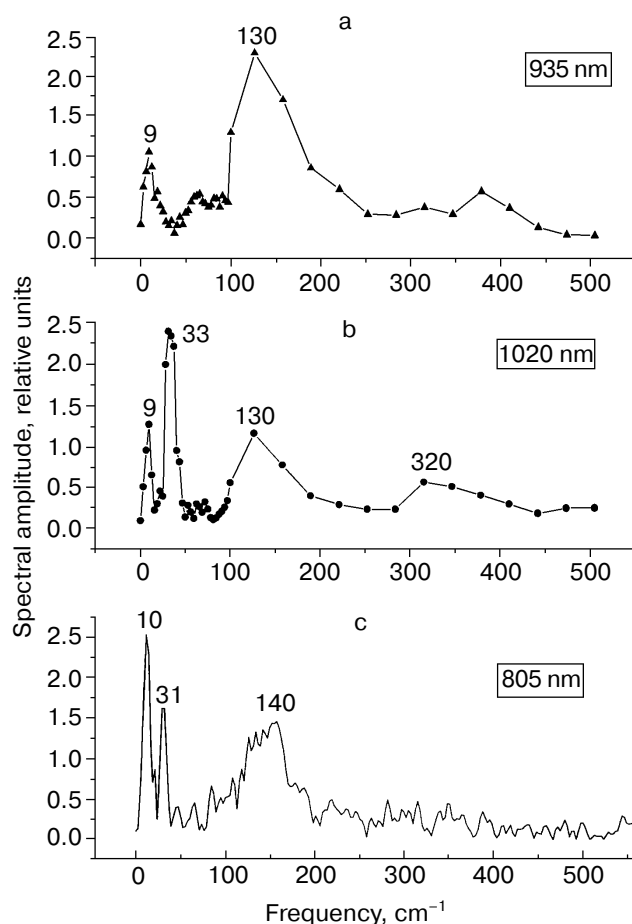


Fig. 4. Fourier transform spectrum of kinetics at 935 nm (a) and at 1020 nm (b) that are shown in Fig. 3 and of kinetics at 805 nm (c) from [32] for pheophytin-modified *Rb. sphaeroides* R-26 RCs.



case  $\nu$  has the meaning of an effective frequency of the nuclear motion along the reaction coordinate. If  $\sigma(r) \ll 1$  (non-adiabatic case), then the expression for  $k$  can be obtained according to quantum mechanical calculations. The constant of electron transfer rate ( $k$ ) in the first approach is determined in the following way:

$$k = 2\pi/\hbar |V|^2 (4\pi E_{\text{reor}} k_B T)^{-0.5} \exp\{- (\Delta G^\circ + E_{\text{reor}})^2 / (4E_{\text{reor}} k_B T)\}, \quad (3)$$

where  $E_{\text{reor}}$  is an energy of reorganization,  $\Delta G^\circ$  is a free energy of reaction, and  $V$  is a coupling interaction value between  $P$  and  $B_A$ .

The results may indicate the necessity of modifying the assumed theory describing the relationship of the nuclear wavepacket motion and the electron transfer. Because the wavepacket represents a semi-classical particle (1) and the electron transfer occurs during each access to the intersection of the initial reagent surface ( $P^*B_A$ ) and reaction product surface ( $P^+B_A^-$ ) (an adiabatic reaction), then the classical approach (2) appears more appropriate for description of the process. However, it is seen from measurements of the mode with frequency 130–140  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  that  $\sigma(r)$  has two independent components: 1) nuclear (nuc), and 2) electronic (el). Actually, practically complete mixing of states  $P^*$  and  $P^+B_A^-$  is observed at 120 fsec delay because the oscillation amplitudes at 930 and 1020 nm normalized to the maximal  $\Delta A$  value at the corresponding wavelength are close to each other (0.19 and 0.2, respectively). This means that  $\sigma_{\text{el}}$  approaches 1. On the other hand,  $\sigma_{\text{nuc}}$  is equal to 0 because the electron transfer is fully reversible and the wavepacket as a whole returns to the  $P^*$  state surface. That is why the transmission coefficient must be presented as a product of both named parts. Then Eq. (2) can be rewritten in the form:

$$k = \sigma_{\text{nuc}} \sigma_{\text{el}} \nu \exp(-\Delta G^*/k_B T). \quad (4)$$

In the case of the mode with 30–33  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  frequency,  $\sigma_{\text{el}}$  is large as well due to the long residence of the wavepacket at the place of intersection. However, the  $\sigma_{\text{nuc}}$  value exceeds 0 because the electron transfer is irreversible in part (see below).

Figure 5 shows the ground state  $PB_A$ , the excited state  $P^*B_A$ , and the charge transfer state  $P^+B_A^-$  presented as parabolic multidimensional surfaces of potential energy; in the figure these surfaces are shown by its parabolic cross-sections (one-dimensional curves). The potential curve of the  $P^*B_A$  state is shifted to the left along a nuclear coordinate  $R$  relative to the curve of  $PB_A$ . An absorption of  $P$  in RC has a maximum at 870 nm at 293K (890 nm at 10K) that corresponds to transfer at one of the vibration levels with the frequency of 130–140  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  (see above). On excitation of  $P$  by femtosecond pulses ( $\leq 30$  fsec), the wavepacket is formed at the specified surface and starts to move on the surface with 240–260 fsec period. Emission

of the wavepacket at the left side of the potential curve (Fig. 5) corresponds to the short-wavelength emission at 895 nm (11,173  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ) and at the right side to the long-wavelength emission at 931 nm (10,737  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ). The maximum of the 0–0 transition is located near 907 nm (11,025  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ) [34] and the emission maximum after a thermalization is at 920 nm (10,870  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ). Considering this, it is possible to estimate that the initial potential energy of the wavepacket is 150  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  above the energy of the bottom of the surface. Thus, the wavepacket for the 130–140  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  mode may include a superposition of wavefunctions of three vibration levels 0, 1, and 2 if each level has approximately the same contribution.

An emission of the wavepacket at 931 nm (10,737  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ) is asymmetric relative to the 0–0 transition (11,025  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ) and to the emission at 895 nm (11,173  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ). The symmetric emission is located at 946 nm (10,575  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ) and was not observed experimentally. A possible explanation of this fact may be that the wavepacket emits at some point of a potential surface that is significantly distorted under some physical disturbances. An intersection with the potential surface of the reaction product  $P^+B_A^-$  may serve as such disturbance (Fig. 5). This assumption is in accordance with presented experimental data.

The frequencies indicated in Fig. 5 show that the surface intersection point is at a level of 32  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  from the bottom of  $P^*B_A$ . The scheme can be used to find the reorganization energy,  $E_{\text{reor}}$ , which is equal to 635  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ . An independent determination of  $E_{\text{reor}}$  gave a value of 1.6 kcal/mol or 560  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  [39], this being close to the value from obtained from the scheme in Fig. 5.

Since the value of electron coupling of  $P$  and  $B_A$  ( $V$ ) is in the range from 6 to 32  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  [40–42], this means that the intersection of the  $P^*B_A$  and  $P^+B_A^-$  surfaces is split by a value of  $2V \cong 30 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ . So the barrier between  $P^*B_A$  and  $P^+B_A^-$  states does not exceed  $\sim 15 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ .

As found, the point of intersection of the surfaces is at 32  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  above the bottom of the  $P^*B_A$  surface. This may indicate also that the wavepacket meets an obstacle in a form of splitting surfaces at the surface of the 130–140  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  mode, resulting in its dephasing. If another mode surface (about 30  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ) is nearby, then the wavepacket may pass to the new surface, losing some part of its energy. The period of the wavepacket oscillation increases to 1 psec in this case. The duration of wavepacket residence near the intersection increases too. This assumption is proved by the experimental data. Actually, the time of appearance of the 33  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  oscillation coincides with the time of the first peak at 1020 nm at 120 fsec (130  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  mode), i.e., at the  $P^*B_A$  and  $P^+B_A^-$  intersection point (Figs. 2 and 3). From the other side, Fourier transform of oscillations at 10K [24] contains several modes at 31, 69, 92, 122, and 153  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  on the background of the broad band near 130  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ . On average, frequencies of these modes are different at 31  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ . This 31  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  frequency may be a fundamental one, while all other may be its harmonics. In other words,

the wavepacket with 130–140  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  frequency can be split into harmonics of the 30–33  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  mode in the vicinity of the  $\text{P}^*$  and  $\text{P}^+\text{B}_\text{A}^-$  surfaces intersection point. If the duration of wavepacket residence near the intersection point for the 130–140  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  mode at 120 fsec is  $\sim 100$  fsec, then for the 30–33  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  mode at 1 psec this time increases to  $\sim 600$  fsec (Fig. 3).

The scheme in Fig. 5 also explains the difference in oscillation amplitudes of the 130–140 and 30–33  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  modes observed on the  $\text{P}^*\text{B}_\text{A}$  surface and in the  $\text{P}^+\text{B}_\text{A}^-$  product. The 30–33  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  mode may have minor amplitude under direct P excitation, unlike the 130–140  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  mode, which determines the absorption spectrum of P and whose vibration levels accept the excited electron [34]. However when the wavepacket reaches the intersection of the  $\text{P}^*\text{B}_\text{A}$  and  $\text{P}^+\text{B}_\text{A}^-$  surfaces at the level of 32  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  above the  $\text{P}^*\text{B}_\text{A}$  surface bottom, the wavepacket motion of the 130–140  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  mode suffers dephasing and passing to the 30–33  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  mode surface. This is clearly seen in the product wavelength at 1020 nm.

The reversibility and probability of the electron transfer at the intersection point of the  $\text{P}^*\text{B}_\text{A}$  and  $\text{P}^+\text{B}_\text{A}^-$  surfaces is determined by at least two factors. The first is related to the energy width of the wavepacket ( $\geq 300 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) on the 130–140  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  mode surface that is too large in comparison with the energy gap between the surfaces ( $2V \cong 30 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ). As a result, the probability of the wavepacket transition ( $P_\text{wp}^0$ ) to the potential surface of  $\text{P}^+\text{B}_\text{A}^-$  state does not exceed 0.1. After reaching the intersection point, the wavepacket returns back to the same  $\text{P}^*\text{B}_\text{A}$  surface with the 130–140  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  frequency or to the 30–33  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  surface. During the wavepacket motion on the surface of 30–33  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  frequency, its width probably does not exceed 60  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  and is comparable with the energy gap between the surfaces ( $\cong 30 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ). That is why the first factor is not absolutely limiting for the passage of the wavepacket to the  $\text{P}^+\text{B}_\text{A}^-$  state surface.

The second factor is connected with a relationship between the rate of electron transfer at the intersection point of surfaces and the duration of wavepacket residence at this point. This relation can be estimated by comparison of initial oscillation amplitudes normalized to the maximal amplitude  $\Delta A$  at 935 nm (relative amplitude of the wavepacket at the  $\text{P}^*$  surface) and at 1020 nm (relative amplitude of the wavepacket at the  $\text{P}^+\text{B}_\text{A}^-$  surface). According to Figs. 2 and 3, at 120-fsec time delay this ratio is equal to 0.19/0.20, respectively. This means that almost all electron density distributes between  $\text{P}^*$  and  $\text{B}_\text{A}$  when the wavepacket is near the intersection point at this time delay.

In contrast, the duration of wavepacket residence near 1-psec delay (Fig. 3b) for the 33  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  mode is about 600 fsec. The electron can be distributed between  $\text{P}^*$  and  $\text{B}_\text{A}$  even more effectively. Reversibility of this transfer is determined most probably by an ability of the wavepacket transition from one surface ( $\text{P}^*\text{B}_\text{A}$ ) to another ( $\text{P}^+\text{B}_\text{A}^-$ ).

As mentioned above, the energy widths of the wavepacket for this mode (about 60  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ) exceeds twofold or less the energy gap (about 30  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ) between the surfaces. Therefore,  $\geq 50\%$  of RCs may be transferred to the  $\text{P}^+\text{B}_\text{A}^-$  state irreversibly. Figure 3a shows that the reversibility of the electron transfer is about 50% within the interval from 0.5 to 1.5 psec, in line with the above estimates.

The question of what is a driving force of the wavepacket transition from one surface to another is interesting too. Previously, we denoted  $P_\text{wp}^0$  as the probability for the wavepacket to pass through the point of intersection of the two surfaces:

$$P_\text{wp}^0 \cong 2V/\Delta E_\text{wp}, \quad (5)$$

where  $\Delta E_\text{wp}$  is the energy width of the wavepacket and  $2V$  is the width of the gap between the surfaces.

However, the full probability must include an exponential factor if the wavepacket energy,  $E_\text{wp}$ , is less than the energy barrier at the intersection point of the two surfaces ( $\Delta G^*$  in Fig. 5). Thus, it is necessary to use an additional factor ( $\exp[-\Delta G^*/E_\text{wp}]$ ):

$$P_\text{wp} = 2V/\Delta E_\text{wp} \exp(-\Delta G^*/E_\text{wp}). \quad (6)$$

From (6) it follows that if  $E_\text{wp} \gg \Delta G^*$ , then  $P_\text{wp} = P_\text{wp}^0$ . This suggests that the wavepacket kinetic energy must be positive at the place of potential surface intersection for the free wavepacket motion from one surface to another. When  $E_\text{wp} = \Delta G^*$  (kinetic energy is equal to 0), the factor  $\exp(-\Delta G^*/E_\text{wp}) = 0.368$  is almost 3-fold lower than 1.

It is evident from Fig. 5 that  $\Delta G^*$  does not exceed 15  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  when the surface splitting is taken into account. Thus, the factor  $\exp(-\Delta G^*/E_\text{wp}) = 0.68$  for the 33  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  mode for which we assume  $E_\text{wp} \cong 30 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ . However, the real energy barrier may be less than 15  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ . It follows also that the dimer nature of P may be important for the creation of the initial momentum of nuclear motion during the transition to the excited state that is necessary for effective electron transfer.

Of prime importance are the molecular dynamics calculations on the problem of the participation of certain oscillations of the nuclear subsystem in the electron transfer reaction. The question of certain oscillations of molecular groups participating in the electron transfer can be solved only by means of such calculations. One example of such calculation for *R. viridis* RCs is described in [35]. A sphere with 29-Å radius surrounded the center on the line between P and B. The electrostatic interaction energy ( $\Delta V_\text{elec}(t)$ ) including interaction of P and  $\text{B}_\text{A}$  with each other ( $\Delta V_\text{QQ}$ ), with protein atoms and crystallographic water ( $\Delta V_\text{QM}$ ), with induced dipoles in protein and crystallographic water ( $\Delta V_\text{ind}$ ) was calculated. The molecular dynamic trajectories had a 1-fsec step at 293K, and  $\Delta V_\text{elec}(t)$  values worked out after each 10 steps. An autocorrelation function  $\Delta V_\text{elec}(t)$  of the  $\text{PB}_\text{A}$  and  $\text{P}^+\text{B}_\text{A}^-$  states



was found from motion trajectories of these states. It was found that the autocorrelation function of the  $PB_A$  state oscillates with a frequency about  $0.5 \text{ psec}^{-1}$  ( $17 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ). These oscillations are suppressed in the  $P^+B_A^-$  state. Also, it was found that the  $17 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  mode includes protein motions that modulate the relative position and orientation of the P and  $B_A$  molecules because the same frequency is observed in the autocorrelation function  $\Delta V_{QQ}$  showing a direct interaction of primary electron donor and acceptor. It is important that the intense frequency at  $28 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  in  $\Delta V_{QQ}$  was found in experiments on femtosecond oscillations.

Thus, the molecular dynamics calculations and fsec oscillations experiments show similar effects connected with mutual motions of P and B molecules that is also connected with the motions of some amino acid residues. First of all, this is related to the  $30 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  range of frequencies which accompany the irreversible charge separation in RCs as the experiment shows. In this connection, femtosecond investigations show that the excitation of a single electron of P does not result in charge separation. Only the motion of the nuclear subsystem, first in  $P^*$  itself (probably with a frequency within the  $130\text{--}140 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  range) and then also in its environment including the  $B_A$  molecule as well leads finally to the electron transfer from  $P^*$  to  $B_A$  with the creation of the primary product  $P^+B_A^-$ . This nuclear motion probably results in the shortest possible distance between  $P^*$  and  $B_A$  or, in terms of the previous discussion, the movement takes place along the reaction coordinate up to the intersection point of the two potential surfaces of  $P^*B_A$  and  $P^+B_A^-$ . Momentum resulting from such motion can be used for the electron transfer when  $P^*$  and  $B_A$  touch each other as well as for the further movement leading to a separation of reaction products  $P^+$  and  $B_A^-$ . In other words, the coupled motion of nuclear and electron subsystems is a necessary condition for effective light energy conversion to the energy of separated charges in photosynthesis.

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