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Published in:

The Journal of Physical Chemistry Part B

DOI:

[10.1021/jp401873k](https://doi.org/10.1021/jp401873k)

2013

Document Version:

Peer reviewed version (aka post-print)

[Link to publication](#)

Citation for published version (APA):

Christensson, N., Zidek, K., Magdaong, N. C. M., LaFountain, A. M., Frank, H. A., & Zigmantas, D. (2013). Origin of the Bathochromic Shift of Astaxanthin in Lobster Protein: 2D Electronic Spectroscopy Investigation of beta-Crustacyanin. *The Journal of Physical Chemistry Part B*, 117(38), 11209-11219. <https://doi.org/10.1021/jp401873k>

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The Origin of the Bathochromic Shift of Astaxanthin in Lobster Protein: 2D Electronic Spectroscopy Investigation of β -crustacyanin

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KEYWORDS: β -crustocyanin, astaxanthin, two-dimensional electronic spectroscopy, ultrafast spectroscopy, bathochromic shift, exciton-vibrational model

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Abstract

We report on ultrafast spectroscopy study of β -crustacyanin - the carotenoprotein responsible for the coloration of the lobster shell. β -crustacyanin is formed by two closely positioned astaxanthin molecules encapsulated in protein. The two-dimensional (2D) electronic spectroscopy together with two-color pump-probe were applied to investigate the electronic structure, excited state dynamics and the influence of the excitonic interaction between the two carotenoids in β -crustacyanin.

By using the ~ 20 fs laser pulses tuned to absorption bands of the S_0 - S_2 and S_1 - S_n transitions of carotenoids we were able to trace full excitation relaxation dynamics, starting with S_2 - S_1 relaxation on the ~ 30 fs timescale and finishing with the ground state recovery of 3.2 ps. Superimposed on the relaxation dynamics in the 2D spectra we observed long-lived beating signals at the characteristic frequencies of astaxanthin vibrational modes. We assign these oscillations to the ground-state vibrational wavepacket dynamics.

All features of the 2D spectra, including amplitude and phase maps of the long-lived oscillations, were reproduced by employing exciton-vibronic model. Consistent modeling of all optical properties of β -crustacyanin (including absorption and circular dichroism spectra) points to the relatively weak coupling between the two astaxanthin molecules (~ 250 cm^{-1}). This implies that the excitonic coupling provides insignificant contribution to the bathochromic shift in β -crustacyanin. We discuss the origin of the shift and propose that it is caused by two major effects: conformational changes of astaxanthin molecules (increase in effective conjugation length) together with increased charge transfer character of the S_2 state. We put the bathochromic shift in the broad perspective of other “blue” carotenoids properties.

Introduction

β -crustacyanin (β -Cr) counts among the most studied carotenoproteins owing to its unique and intriguing optical properties.¹⁻⁶ It is the basic building block of the pigment protein complex α -crustacyanin (α -Cr), which is responsible for the coloration of lobsters and other blue-black crustaceans. X-ray crystallography investigations have revealed that β -Cr binds two astaxanthin (AXT)

molecules at a minimum inter-molecular distance of 7 Å.² Upon binding to the protein, the absorption maximum shifts from 480-490 nm for the carotenoids in solution to approximately ~580 nm, corresponding to a bathochromic shift of 4000 cm⁻¹(Figure1).¹ In nature, β-Crs aggregate into an octamer named α-Cr, which has absorption shifted even further to 630 nm..

A number of theoretical and experimental studies have addressed the issue of the bathochromic shift in β-Cr and the mechanism of coloration of the crustaceans.¹⁻⁶ However, biochemical and some quantum chemical investigations favor distinctly different explanations for the shift. The proposed mechanisms can be divided into three groups.

The first mechanism is the resonance coupling between the two AXT molecules in β-Cr. The coupling is mediated by both large transition dipole moments of the carotenoids as well as by the small inter-molecular distance, which results in a redistribution of the energies of the excited states. Simple calculations based on the dipole-dipole interaction approximation supported this view and predicted a bathochromic shift of about 4000 cm⁻¹.⁵ However, such simplified calculations are known to overestimate resonance coupling when inter-molecular distance is comparable to the size of the molecules.⁷ Calculations employing more advanced methods did not confirm this result and predicted a more moderate coupling of 250 cm⁻¹.^{4,8} Furthermore, assignment of a significant influence of the excitonic coupling to the bathochromic shift is in disagreement with the observation of shifts of similar magnitude in asteriarubin, a caroteno-protein binding a single carotenoid, and also contradicts the extensive reconstitution studies.¹ Similar conclusions can be drawn from the experiments on aggregated AXTs lacking the spectral shift,⁹ effectively demonstrating that a short inter-molecular distance cannot alone be the explanation for the observed bathochromic shift.

The second mechanism involves site-specific interactions with the protein takes place in β-Cr. For instance the shift is conditioned by the presence of the C₄ carbonyl groups (see Figure1),¹ which can undergo an additional protonation by histidine residues in protein.^{1,4} However, the experimental study of ¹³C-labeled AXT molecules by using nuclear magnetic resonance brought evidence against strong protonation of the carbonyl groups.⁵

Third, AXT in β-Cr adopts a different conformation compared to solution. The end rings of

AXT in β -Cr become almost co-planar with the conjugated chain, which increases the effective conjugation length.² Nevertheless, the increase in effective conjugation length cannot be the only explanation for the bathochromic shift, as even one of the longest carotenoids (M19, $N_{\text{eff}}=17$) does not appear blue in solution.¹⁰

Besides the insight into the origin of the crustaceans coloration, β -Cr provides an excellent model system for studies of the interaction between closely positioned carotenoid found in photosynthetic protein-pigment complexes and in artificial carotenoid aggregates.¹¹ Of particular interest is the peridinin-chlorophyll-protein (PCP) complex, where the carotenoid-carotenoid distances vary in the range of 4-11 Å and the role of interaction between carotenoids on funneling the energy towards chlorophylls remains unexplored.¹²

In this work we employed two-dimensional electronic spectroscopy (2DES) in combination with two-color pump-probe to investigate the excited state dynamics and electronic structure of β -Cr. 2DES has proven to be a powerful tool for disentangling dynamics in complicated molecular systems,^{13,14} and can provide valuable information about inter-molecular couplings and system-bath interaction. By virtue of the combination of high time resolution (~ 20 fs) 2DES and pump-probe techniques we were able to capture the energy relaxation between the S_2 and S_1 states manifold. Superimposed on the system relaxation in the 2D spectra we observed clear signatures of ground state vibrational wavepackets dynamics and analyze the corresponding amplitude and phase maps in detail.

We present a model highlighting the interplay of resonance coupling between AXTs and the high frequency vibrational modes characteristic of carotenoids, which provides a unified description of linear absorption, circular dichroism (CD) as well as 2DES and pump-probe results. On the basis of these results we conclude that the resonance interaction between the carotenoid makes a minor contribution to the bathochromic shift in β -Cr. In the end, we discuss other major contributions to the bathochromic shift as conformational change and carotenoid-protein interactions, where AXT structure (specific interactions) as well as general properties of carotenoids (non-specific interactions) play important roles.

Experimental

Sample preparation

β -Cr was extracted from the carapace of an American lobster (*Homarus americanus*) according to the protocol of Zagalsky.^{15,16} Unless otherwise stated, all preparations were done in the cold and under low light. One large (~1 kg) lobster was sacrificed by deep-freezing at -20°C, and the carapace was removed and scrubbed under cold water to remove the hypodermis and other uncalcified parts. The cleaned carapace was left to dry overnight in a cold room at 4 °C, after which time all parts of the shell were broken into small pieces and ground in a grinder, using ~10 sec bursts to avoid heating the sample.

The ground pieces were then sieved through a brass U.S.A. standard test sieve (30 mesh per inch) and transferred immediately to 4 L of Tris-borate buffer comprised of 0.3 M boric acid adjusted to pH 6.8 using solid Tris (Fisher Scientific). This mixture was then ground for 16 hours in the cold room using a rotary ball mill until it had a powder consistency. A foamy suspension was also present in the ball mill. Both the foamy suspension and the powdered material were filtered on a Büchner funnel layered with Hyflo* SuperCel* Filter Aid (Fisher Scientific) and washed with Tris-borate buffer followed by water.

The protein was extracted by resuspending the dry cake from the Büchner filtration step in 5 L of a 10% EDTA pH 7.5 aqueous solution. The mixture was stirred overnight then filtered through a layer of filter aid. The dark blue filtrate was then stored in a freezer at -20°C while the dry cake was extracted again by stirring in 5 L of EDTA solution for another 48 hours. All of the blue filtrates were then combined, and the pH was adjusted to 7.5 using 2 M HCl.

The pigment-protein complexes were precipitated using solid ammonium sulfate to 50% saturation (313 g/L), filtered twice on a Büchner funnel layered with filter aid and redissolved in 0.2 M potassium phosphate buffer at pH 7. The precipitation of impurities was achieved by bringing the solution to 30% ammonium sulfate saturation (176 g/L) and centrifuging the sample for 30 min at 20000 g in a Sorvall RC-5B superspeed centrifuge using an SS34 rotor. The supernatant was

removed and adjusted to 50% ammonium sulfate saturation and stored at 4°C. Subsequently, the sample was centrifuged at 20000 g for 30 min in a Sorvall RC-5B superspeed centrifuge using an SS34 rotor and the precipitate containing the pigment-protein complexes was dissolved in 50 mM potassium phosphate buffer at pH 7. The ammonium sulfate concentration was reduced by dialysis against the same buffer for 24 hours.

Column chromatography was performed to separate β -Cr (purple fraction) from the α -Cr and δ -Cr (blue fractions). The solution was loaded onto a DEAE-cellulose (Sigma-Aldrich, catalog number D-6418) column (2.4 cm i.d., 10 cm length) prior-equilibrated by washing with 0.5 M and subsequently 50 mM potassium phosphate buffer at pH 7. β -Cr (purple eluate) passed directly through the column upon elution with the 50 mM potassium phosphate buffer and was collected and stored in a solution containing 60% saturated ammonium sulfate. The blue fraction containing α -Cr and δ -Cr as well as residual β -Cr was collected by gradient elution using 0-1.0 M KCl in 50 mM potassium phosphate buffer. The components of the blue fraction were further separated by stepwise elution on another DEAE-cellulose column using 0.050 M, 0.150 M and 0.250 M phosphate buffer at pH 7 which eluted β -Cr, δ -Cr and α -Cr, respectively.

All purified protein samples were adjusted to 50% saturated ammonium sulfate and stored in the freezer at -20°C until ready for use.

Two-dimensional electronic spectroscopy

2DES measurements were carried out on a double modulation lock-in detection setup.¹⁷ Yb:KGW amplified laser system (Pharos, Light Conversion) working at repetition rate of 20 kHz was used to pump a home-built non-collinear optical parametric amplifier (NOPA). By using the NOPA, infrared laser pulses (1030 nm) were converted into visible region (590 nm, bandwidth of ~60 nm) with a pulse duration of 15 fs. The generated visible pulses were divided into four beams of equal intensity by a beam splitter (beams 1,2 and 3,4) and a transmission grating (1 – 2, and 3 – 4) with delays introduced by a delay line (population time, t_2) and fused silica wedges (coherence time, t_1). Finally, beams were focused in the boxcar geometry to overlap in the sample. Beam 4 (the

local oscillator, LO) arrived ~ 1 ps in advance and was attenuated approximately 1000 times. In order to extract 2DES signal from the scattering of pump pulses, beams 1 and 2 were modulated by two phase-locked optical choppers running at frequency ratio of 3/7. Interferograms of the 2DES signal and the LO pulse were continuously read out by the CCD camera and signals modulated at both sum and difference frequencies of the choppers were recorded. 2D spectra were collected by scanning the coherence time t_1 from - 48 fs to 48 fs with a step of 0.8 fs. The real part of the 2D spectra was obtained by phasing corresponding 2D spectrum projection to the spectrally resolved pump-probe signal.¹⁸

The pump-probe experiments were carried out on the same experimental setup. Beams 1 and 3 were blocked, while beams 2 and three times attenuated 4 were used as pump and probe pulses, respectively. Beams 2 and 4 were each modulated by optical choppers and the probe spectrum was detected by the CCD and recorded on the sum and difference frequencies of the choppers. Two-color pump-probe measurements were carried out by using one NOPA (Light Conversion) to generate the excitation wavelength of 590 nm, (bandwidth of 50 nm, pulse duration of 20 fs) and a second NOPA (home-built) to generate the probe wavelength of 765 nm, (bandwidth of 95 nm, pulse duration of 14 fs). The pump and probe pulses passed through the setup in the identical way as in the single-color experiment.

All experiments were carried out at room temperature. No change in β -Cr absorption during measurements was observed. The sample was driven by a peristaltic pump through the 0.2 mm optical path flow cell (0.2 mm thin quartz windows) and optical density of the sample was kept at about 0.1.

Vibronic-exciton model

Electronic structure and linear spectroscopy

Linear and nonlinear spectra of carotenoids are strongly influenced by the presence of the two strong intra-molecular vibrational modes corresponding to the C-C (f_2) and C=C (f_1) vibrations

of the polyene chain. For AXT, additional strong coupling to the bath, as well as disorder of the terminal rings, erases the vibrational structure typically seen for linear carotenoids. The linear- and nonlinear-response of carotenoids have previously been modeled using the lineshape function approach^{19–21}, which is able to treat arbitrary coupling between electronic and nuclear degrees of freedom exactly. In the present case, the additional resonance coupling between the carotenoids will lead to a mixing of the vibrational manifolds of the two monomers in the excited state. Rather than attempting a perturbative expansion in the excitonic coupling,²² we introduce the two strongest vibrational modes directly into the system Hamiltonian together with the electronic resonance coupling. After diagonalization, we obtain vibronic-exciton states, which represent mixed vibrational and electronic states of the two molecules in the dimer.²³ The residual intra- and inter-molecular nuclear modes are treated as a thermal heat bath giving rise to coherence and population dynamics on the vibronic-exciton eigenstates of the system. The results presented below is a straightforward generalization of the single-mode results discussed in a number of recent publications.^{24–26}

The Hamiltonian of the system, including the two carotenoids together with the vibronic manifold of the two vibrational modes, is written as

$$H_S = \sum_{n, \mathbf{q}_e} [E_n - E_b + \mathbf{f} \cdot \mathbf{q}_e] |n, \mathbf{q}_e\rangle \langle n, \mathbf{q}_e| + J_0 \sum_{n, \mathbf{q}_e} \sum_{m, \mathbf{q}'_e} (1 - \delta_{n,m}) \langle \mathbf{q}_e | \mathbf{0} \rangle \langle \mathbf{q}'_e | \mathbf{0} \rangle |n, \mathbf{q}_e\rangle \langle m, \mathbf{q}'_e|, \quad (1)$$

where the vectors $\mathbf{f} = [f_1, f_2]$ and $\mathbf{q}_e = [q_1, q_2]$ denote the vibrational frequencies and the quantum numbers in the excited state of the two vibrational modes, respectively. J_0 is the electronic resonance coupling and the brackets denote the Frank-Condon amplitudes. E_n is the energy of the AXT monomer and E_b is the bathochromic shift (see discussion below). The eigenvalues of H_S are given by $E_\alpha = \hbar\omega_\alpha$ and the eigenstates of the system are expressed using the monomeric combined electronic/vibrational states and the expansion coefficients c_{n, \mathbf{q}_e} as

$$|\alpha\rangle = \sum_{n, \mathbf{q}_e} c_{n, \mathbf{q}_e} |n, \mathbf{q}_e\rangle. \quad (2)$$

The transition dipole moment from the electronic ground state with the vibrational quantum numbers \mathbf{q}_g to an eigenstate $|\alpha\rangle$ in the first vibronic exciton manifold is given by

$$\mu_{\alpha\lambda} = \sum_{n, \mathbf{q}_e} c_{n, \mathbf{q}_e} \mathbf{d}_n \langle \mathbf{q}_e | \mathbf{q}_g \rangle, \quad (3)$$

where d_n denotes the monomer electronic transition dipole moment vector. $\lambda = 2\pi \sum \mathbf{q}_g - \mathbf{0}$ denotes the energy of the vibrational configuration in the ground state, where we have adopted the short hand notation $[0, 0] \equiv \mathbf{0}$.

The two vibrational modes have high frequencies and will not be populated at room temperature. To calculate the linear absorption spectrum, we can thus safely assume that only vibrational ground state is initially populated. Within this approximation, the linear absorption spectrum is given by

$$OD(\omega) = \Re \left\langle \sum_{\alpha} \int_0^{\infty} \mu_{\alpha 0}^2 e^{-g_{\alpha\alpha}(t) - \Gamma_{\alpha} t} e^{i(\omega_{\alpha 0} + \omega)t} dt \right\rangle_{\Delta}, \quad (4)$$

where $g_{\alpha\alpha}(t)$ is the lineshape function in the eigenstate representation^{25,27} and Γ_{α} is the population relaxation rate of state α . $\langle \rangle_{\Delta}$ denotes average over the inhomogeneous distribution of pigment transition energies. The circular dichroism spectrum (CD) is calculated in a similar fashion using the rotation strength $r_{\alpha 0}$ instead of $\mu_{\alpha 0}^2$.²⁸ The rotation strength is given by

$$r_{\alpha 0} = \sum_{n, \mathbf{q}_e < m, \mathbf{q}'_e} c_{n, \mathbf{q}_e} c_{m, \mathbf{q}'_e} \langle \mathbf{q}_e | \mathbf{0} \rangle \langle \mathbf{q}'_e | \mathbf{0} \rangle \mathbf{R}_{nm} \cdot (\boldsymbol{\mu}_n \times \boldsymbol{\mu}_m), \quad (5)$$

where \mathbf{R}_{nm} is the displacement vector between the two electronic transition dipoles $\boldsymbol{\mu}_n$ and $\boldsymbol{\mu}_m$, and \times denotes the vector cross-product.

The electronic coupling between the AXT molecules in β -Cr has been the subject of intensive debate with theoretically predicted values ranging from 250 to 4000 cm^{-1} .^{5,6,8} Due to the close proximity of the carotenoids, this value can not be estimated with the dipole-dipole approximation, and in this work we will use the value from quantum chemical calculations on the complete dimer^{6,8} corresponding to $J_0 = 250 \text{ cm}^{-1}$. This coupling strength is much less than the width

of the (linear) absorption spectrum of the monomer, indicating that the average eigenstates in the dimer will be similar to those in the isolated monomers. We therefore introduce the approximation $g_{\alpha\alpha}(t) = g(t)$ in eq 4.

Furthermore, this localization implies that population relaxation between the vibronic states in the first exciton manifold is slow due to the small vibronic-exciton overlaps (see equation 3 in Ref. 25) and will be similar to the vibrational relaxation rate in the monomer. Therefore in the following we will assume that the population relaxation rate is dominated by relaxation from the S_2 to the S_1 manifold. The final approximation thus amounts to the substitution $\Gamma_\alpha = \Gamma$ in eq 4, where we use $\Gamma = \frac{1}{30} \text{ fs}^{-1}$ obtained from the pump-probe kinetics (see next section). These two approximations are also employed for the calculation of the 2D spectrum.

The frequencies of the two strong vibrational modes in carotenoids have been studied by a number of techniques. Here we use typical values for carotenoids with an effective conjugation length of 11;²⁹ $f_2 = 1155 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ and $f_1 = 1520 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ corresponding to the C-C and C=C vibrations and set the Huang-Rhys factors of both modes to 0.6. Resonance Raman spectroscopy has shown that the f_2 mode gains in intensity and that the f_1 mode shifts down in frequency (20 cm^{-1}) upon binding of AXT to the protein.^{1,5} These effects are beyond the simple model presented here and we will keep the frequencies the same as for the monomers. The large Huang-Rhys factors of the two vibrational modes implies that a large number of vibrational states needs to be explicitly included in the Hamiltonian. Here we include all vibrational states with maximum 6 quanta in each mode giving in total 72 vibronic-exciton states in the dimer.

The nuclear modes not treated explicitly give rise to dephasing via the lineshape function in eq 4. The lineshape function is determined by the cosine transform of the spectral density reflecting the density of states of these modes weighted by the coupling strength of each mode.²⁷ The spectral density for AXT in solution has been determined by three-pulse photon echoes in Ref. 19. However, unlike in Ref. 19 we treat the “slow” modes as a true inhomogeneous broadening (explicit averaging over disorder). We keep the ratio of “fast” to “slow” nuclear motions as estimated in Christensson et al.,¹⁹ and use a total reorganization energy of 1000 cm^{-1} and a disorder (Δ) of

1250 cm⁻¹ (FWHM).

Two-dimensional spectra

The 2DES and pump-probe experiments, as shown below, revealed that the excited state lifetime in β -Cr is very short (~ 30 fs). The short excited state lifetime, in combination with the absence of significant changes to the 2D lineshapes for $t_2 > 100$ fs, indicates that the 2D spectra measured after $t_2 = 100$ fs can be modeled in the Markov approximation and the Liouville pathways propagating in the excited state during t_2 can be ignored. The relevant Liouville pathways contributing to the ground state bleach (GSB) signal are illustrated by the Feynman diagrams in Figure 7. In the Markov approximation, we can express these pathways via the transition dipole moments and the Greens function propagators as²⁶

$$R_{\alpha\beta,\lambda}^{NR} = \left\langle \mu_{\alpha 0} \mu_{\alpha\lambda} \mu_{\beta\lambda} \mu_{\beta 0} G_{\alpha 0}(t_1) G_{\lambda}^{(2)}(t_2) G_{\beta 0}(t_3) \right\rangle_{\Omega\Delta}, \quad (6)$$

$$R_{\alpha\beta,\lambda}^R = \left\langle \mu_{\alpha 0} \mu_{\alpha\lambda} \mu_{\beta 0} \mu_{\beta\lambda} G_{\alpha 0}^*(t_1) G_{\lambda}^{(2)*}(t_2) G_{\beta\lambda}(t_3) \right\rangle_{\Omega\Delta},$$

where $\alpha\beta$ represent the labels of the involved excited states and λ is the frequency difference between *bra* and *ket* sides after two interactions (i.e. 0, f_1 or f_2). The Greens function propagators are given by $G_{\alpha\lambda}(t) = e^{(-i\omega_{\alpha\lambda}t - \Gamma t - g(t))}$ and $G_{\lambda}^{(2)}(t) = e^{-i\lambda t}$ and the star (*) denotes complex conjugation. The brackets denote average of the involved transition dipole moments over a random distribution of orientations (Ω) and pigment energies (Δ). To calculate the 2D spectrum we evaluate the double Fourier transform of the rephasing and nonrephasing pathways in eq 6. For the non-rephasing pulse order

$$S_{NR}(\omega_1, t_2, \omega_3) = \sum_{\alpha\beta,\lambda} A_{\lambda}^{NR}(\omega_1, \omega_3) R_{\alpha\beta,\lambda}^{NR}(\omega_1, \omega_3) e^{-i\lambda t_2}, \quad (7)$$

where $A_{\lambda}^{NR}(\omega_1, \omega_3)$ is an amplitude factor reflecting the magnitude of the electric field E at

the frequencies of interactions for the particular Liouville pathway. From the Feynman diagrams shown in Figure 7 we can write

$$A_{\lambda}^R(\omega_1, \omega_3) = E(\omega_1)E(\omega_1 - \lambda)E(\omega_3), \quad (8)$$

$$A_{\lambda}^{NR}(\omega_1, \omega_3) = E(\omega_1)E(\omega_1 - \lambda)E(\omega_3 - \lambda). \quad (9)$$

For $\lambda = 0$, we recover the time independent GSB contribution. The square root of the laser spectrum in Figure 1 was used as the electric field in the calculations.

Results and Discussion

Linear Spectra

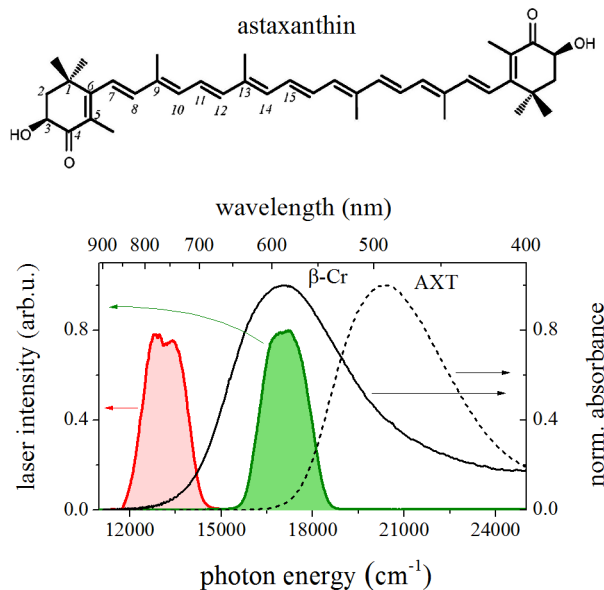


Figure 1: Upper panel: chemical structure of astaxanthin molecule. Lower panel: absorption spectra of astaxanthin molecules in chloroform (dashed line) and in β -Cr (solid line); spectra of the laser pulses used to study S_0 - S_2 absorption region (filled green area) and S_1 - S_n excited state absorption region (filled pink area).

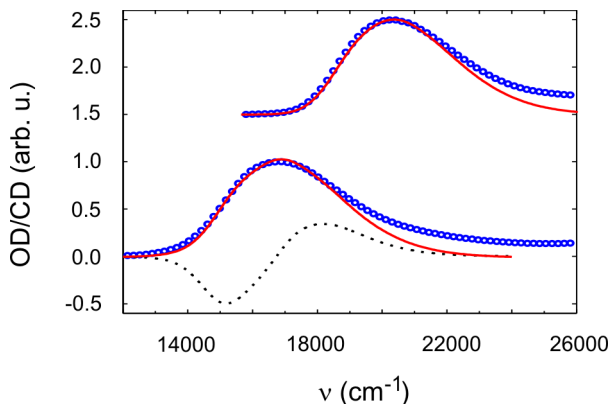


Figure 2: Linear absorption spectrum of astaxanthin in chloroform and in β -Cr (blue circles) together with a fit discussed in the text (red line). Also shown is the simulated CD spectrum based on the model (dotted line).

AXT in chloroform displays a featureless broad spectrum typical for carotenoids having carbonyl groups on the terminal rings (see Figure 1).^{30,31} The absorption maximum shifts from 20350 cm^{-1} (491 nm) to 17080 cm^{-1} (585 nm) when two AXTs are bound to the protein and form β -Cr. Figure 2 shows the simulations of the linear absorption spectra of both the AXT monomer in solution and β -Cr together with the measured spectra. For the simulation of the linear spectrum of AXT we used an S_2 lifetime of 160 fs,³ and a bathochromic shift of $E_b = 3650\text{ cm}^{-1}$ was subtracted from the transition energy in order to reproduce the absorption maximum of β -Cr.

We also present the simulated CD spectrum of β -Cr, which shows a characteristic doublet structure with the negative feature at lower frequencies. The splitting between the negative peak and the zero crossing is 1500 cm^{-1} , which is very close to the experimental value.¹ This demonstrates that the large splitting seen in the CD spectrum is consistent with the moderate resonance coupling.^{4,8} Unlike the experimental CD spectrum, the negative peak in the simulated CD spectrum is stronger than the positive one. We point out that asteriarubin, a protein which only binds a single carotenoid, shows a positive CD signal which roughly follows the linear absorption spectrum and which has a similar magnitude to that of β -Cr¹. This implies that the carotenoids themselves gives a contribution to the CD spectrum. Such effects are not included in our model where the CD signal vanish when the resonance coupling approaches zero.

The difficulties of obtaining a qualitative match to the entire CD spectrum, as well as the broad

lineshapes, makes it problematic to determine the upper bound on the resonance coupling. To illustrate the effect of resonance coupling on the linear spectra we performed the calculations for the resonance coupling of 500 cm^{-1} . This value leads to a blue shift of the linear absorption spectrum by 250 cm^{-1} , an increase of the width of the spectrum by 400 cm^{-1} , and an increase of the splitting in the CD spectrum to 1650 cm^{-1} . For the resonance coupling above 1250 cm^{-1} we observe a clear splitting of the linear spectra into two components where the feature at high frequency is stronger, compared to the low-frequency one.

Thus we conclude that a coupling larger than 1000 cm^{-1} is not consistent with the linear spectroscopy data and the large splitting found in the CD spectrum does not originate from large excitonic coupling, but results from very broad lineshapes and high density of vibronic-exciton states. The weak coupling in comparison to the linewidths shows that the electronic states in β -Cr are largely monomeric in nature and we will therefore in the remaining sections use standard notation for the carotenoid excited states.

Excited state dynamics

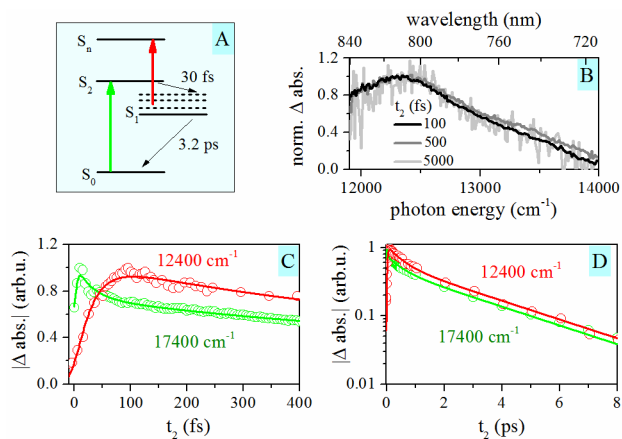


Figure 3: (A) Scheme of the energy states and dynamics in β -Cr (green and red arrows – photon energies of laser pulses, black arrows – relaxation processes). (B) Normalized transient absorption spectra for several pump-probe delays (t_2) indicated in the legend. Fast (C) and slow (D) dynamics of pump-probe signal (red open circles) and integrated 2DES signal (green open circles) fitted by a three-exponential function (solid lines, see text for details).

We will first turn to the excited state dynamics in β -Cr, which we investigated by using pump-

probe experiments tuned to the S_0 - S_2 and S_1 - S_n transitions (see Figure 3 A). The transient absorption spectra in the NIR region depicted in Figure 3 B revealed a broad excited state absorption (ESA) band, which can be assigned to the S_1 - S_n transition. Maximum of the band (12400 cm^{-1}) is shifted by 5000 cm^{-1} compared to the absorption maximum, which is similar to the shift observed for α -Cr (shift of 4200 cm^{-1}).³ As the shape of the spectrum did not change with t_2 , we will focus here exclusively on the kinetics of the signal maximum.

The kinetic trace at 12400 cm^{-1} , shown in Figure 3 C and D, exhibit a sub-100 fs rise followed by a slow decay on a picosecond timescale. At the same time, kinetics in the GSB region exhibit a sub-100 fs decay followed by the relaxation on a ps timescale.

It is possible to fit the kinetics at 12400 and 17400 cm^{-1} by a three-exponential function convoluted with experimental setup response function (Gaussian function with FWHM of 20 fs). Three components feature lifetimes of 30 fs, 500 fs and 3.2 ps – see Table 1 for details and Figure 3A for the model of the electronic structure with assigned relaxation processes.

Table 1: Fitting parameters obtained by the simultaneous fit of signal kinetics in Figure 3 C and D by a three-exponential function convoluted with the Gaussian function (experimental setup response function, FWHM 20 fs).

ν_{probe} (cm^{-1})	τ_1 (fs)	A_1 (%)	τ_2 (fs)	A_2 (%)	τ_3 (fs)	A_3 (%)
17400	30	30	500	25	3200	45
12400		-100		45		55

The slowest component, 3.2 ps, reflects the ground state recovery and is manifested as a decay in both the GSB and in the ESA signals. Interestingly, there is a striking correlation between AXT absorption band position (20800 cm^{-1} in solvent, 17100 cm^{-1} in β -Cr, and 15900 cm^{-1} in α -Cr) and the S_1 lifetimes (5 ps, 3.2 ps, and 1.8 ps, respectively).³ The S_1 lifetime in carotenoids is known to correlate with the effective conjugation length.¹¹ For instance, carotenoid 3'-hydroxyechinenone (3HEN) has an S_1 lifetime of 6.5 ps in solution, which decreases to 3.3 ps when the carotenoid is bound in the orange carotenoid protein.³² Based on the crystal structure, it was concluded that the reduction of the S_1 lifetime resulted from a planarization of the end-rings in the binding pocket.

In the case of β -Cr and α -Cr, this would imply that additional planarization takes place upon aggregation of the β -Cr subunits. However, the crystal structure of β -Cr shows that end-rings are almost perfectly planar already in β -Cr² and it is difficult to envision that further planarization of the carotenoids could be responsible for the large change in the S₁ lifetime between β -Cr and α -Cr. Nonetheless, resonance Raman experiments have shown that the frequency of the f_1 vibration is lower in α -Cr than in β -Cr,⁵ indicating a further extension of the effective conjugation length²⁹ in agreement with the decrease of the S₁ lifetime. However, the change of the f_1 frequency is rather small and it is unlikely that increasing the effective conjugation length is alone responsible for the large reduction of the S₁ lifetime. Other interactions may be important in this case.³³

The intermediate component, with a 500 fs time constant, is more difficult to assign. Ilagan et al.³ observed a similar decay component in α -Cr and assigned it to vibrational relaxation in the S₁ manifold. We find that this component is present in both S₁-S_n ESA as well as in the GSB signal which makes an assignment similar to vibrational relaxation unlikely. Without more information about the spectrum of this component, a decisive assignment is not possible because it could in principle reflect a general decay of the signal due to system-bath interactions.

The fastest component manifest itself as a decay in the S₀-S₂ signal and, at the same time, as a rise in the S₁-S_n ESA. Therefore we assign the 30 fs component to relaxation from the S₂ to S₁ manifold. This relaxation time is about 5 times faster than the corresponding one for the carotenoid in solution,³ but quite similar to the value obtained for short chain carotenoids,³⁴ where the S₂-S₁ relaxation time is about 45 fs due to a reduced S₂-S₁ energy gap. If we use the S₁ lifetime to obtain a (rough) estimate of the S₁ energy, we obtain a shift of ~ 400 cm⁻¹ compared to solution. On the other hand, the S₂ energy shifts by ~ 4000 cm⁻¹. This leads to a reduction in the S₂-S₁ energy gap down to a value which is similar to that observed for the short chain carotenoids.³⁴

Two-dimensional Spectra

Further insight into the β -Cr dynamics can be obtained by employing the 2DES measurements. The 2D spectrum of β -Cr is featureless with a rectangular shape, which does not change signifi-

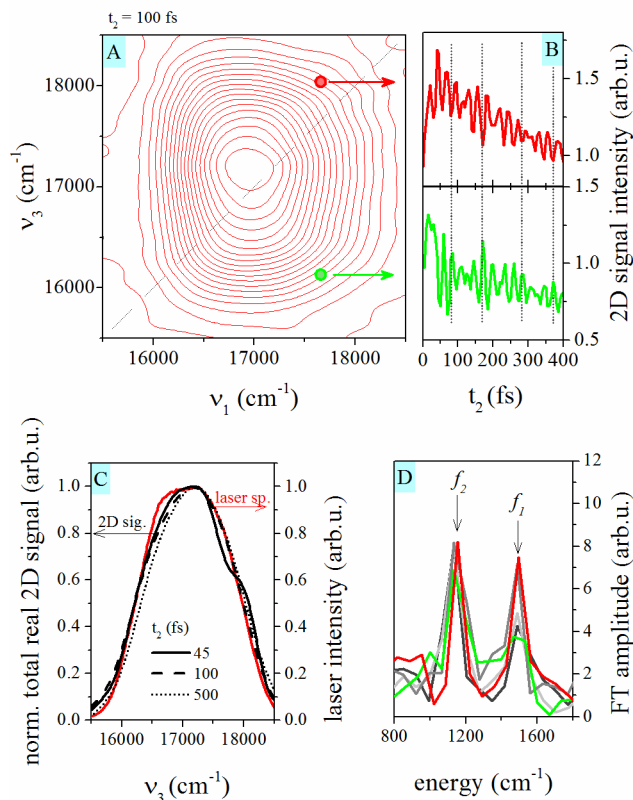


Figure 4: (A) The real part of the 2D spectrum of β -Cr at population time of 100 fs. (B) Signal dynamics in population time for two different spectral regions ($\nu_1 = 17660$ cm $^{-1}$; red: $\nu_3 = 18140$ cm $^{-1}$; green: $\nu_3 = 16230$ cm $^{-1}$) with a pronounced out of phase oscillation pattern. Dotted lines serve as guides to the eye. (C) Normalized real part of the 2D spectra of β -Cr for $\nu_1 = 17200$ cm $^{-1}$ at various population times (black lines) compared to the used laser spectrum (red line). (D) FT amplitude of the 2DES population time kinetics presented on panel (B) (red and green line) and for other spectral positions in the 2D spectrum (gray lines).

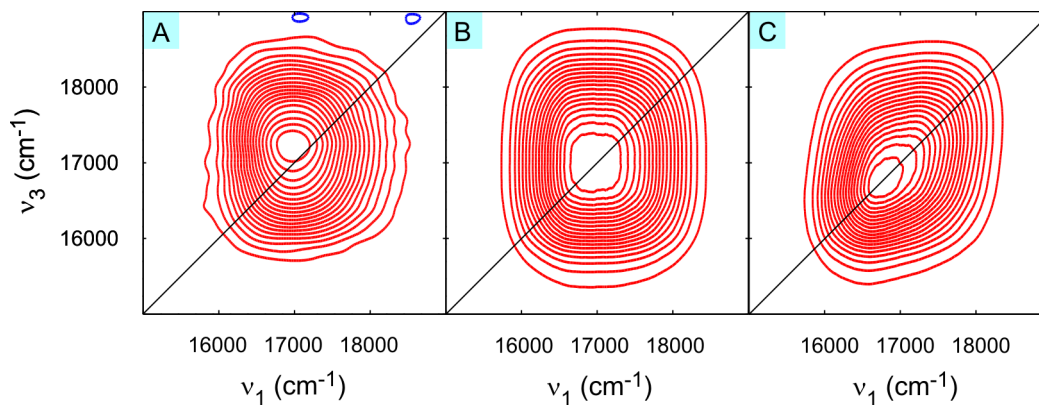


Figure 5: A) Experimental 2D spectrum of β -Cr at 1 ps. B) Simulation of the stationary ground state bleach contribution. C) Simulation of the stationary ground state bleach contribution without the cross-peak contributions. Contour lines are drawn in 5% intervals starting from 5%.

cantly for $t_2 > 100$ fs, only decays with the ground state recovery time of 3.2 ps (see Figure 4A). The fact that the absorption band of β -Cr significantly exceeds the used laser spectrum (see Figure 1), has a significant impact on the observed lineshapes, which follows laser spectrum profile. This is illustrated in Figure 4C, which compares the 2DES signal cut along the ν_3 axis and the laser spectrum.

The experimentally obtained 2D spectra can be readily reproduced by the presented exciton-vibronic model, as it is illustrated in Figure 5 comparing the simulated GSB contribution with the experimental 2D spectrum at $t_2 = 1$ ps. Both the simulated and experimental spectra have a rectangular shape, which is slightly more elongated along the ν_3 axis. This elongation can be understood from the amplitude factors in eq 8 and 9, which bring about an asymmetric distortion of the 2D spectrum. Traditionally, large anti-diagonal width is taken as an indication of a largely homogeneous transition.³⁵ Thus the square shape of the spectrum points to the transition that is largely homogeneously broadened. Indeed, the large coupling to the bath in the case of carotenoids together with the short S_2 life-time gives rise to a large homogeneous broadening. On the other hand, the lack of vibrational structure in the linear absorption spectrum of the monomer and in β -Cr indicates that the system has significant inhomogeneity. Our theoretical treatment based on vibronic-exciton eigenstates provides the explanation for the shape of the spectrum. The square shape has its origin in the large number of overlapping cross-peaks resulting from transitions to all vibronic-exciton states in the excited state manifold. Figure 5 illustrates the influence of these cross-peak contributions by comparing the simulation including all possible pathways with the simulation including “diagonal” contribution only (i.e. $R = R_{\alpha\beta} \delta_{\alpha\alpha}$). Neglecting the cross-peak contributions results in a 2D spectrum, which is more elongated along the diagonal and reflects the inhomogeneity of the system. However, including all contributions is required to recover the characteristic shape of the experimental spectrum.

Population time evolution analysis of the 2D spectrum reveals long-lived oscillations (see Figure 4B), which decay only on a picosecond timescale. As it is evident from Figure 4B, the oscillations barely decay during the first 400 fs. A Fourier transform (FT) maps of the 2DES signal

dynamics (Figure 4D) revealed two modes with frequencies of $\sim 1500 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ (mode f_1) and $\sim 1150 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ (mode f_2). These wavenumbers correspond to the two dominant vibrational modes of the polyenic chain in AXT: the C-C and C-H in plane bending ($f_2 = 1155\text{-}1158 \text{ cm}^{-1}$), and the C=C stretching vibrations ($f_1 = 1498\text{-}1520 \text{ cm}^{-1}$).^{5,36} Based on the similarities to the known frequencies of vibrational modes in AXT and on the observation that the oscillations' lifetime greatly exceeds the lifetime of the excited state, we assign them to the vibrational wavepacket dynamics in the ground state.

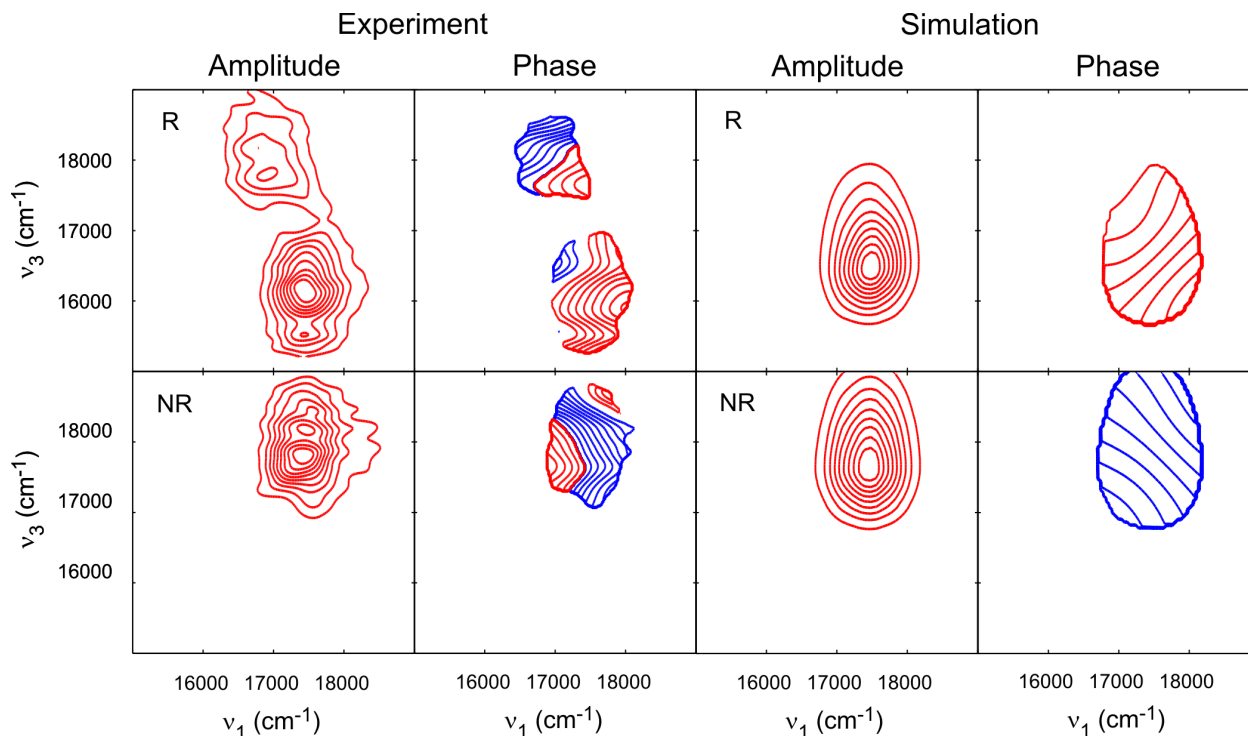


Figure 6: FT amplitude and phase maps of the oscillations in β -crustacyanin of the $f_2 = 1150 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ mode. Contour lines are drawn in 10 % intervals starting from 10 %. Negative values in the phase maps are shown as blue lines. Left side of the figure shows the experimental results and the right side the results of the model discussed in the text.

To analyze the oscillations further, amplitude and phase maps were generated from a FT over t_2 for a 45×45 grid of v_1 and v_3 values in the 2D spectrum. The amplitude and phase maps for rephasing and non-rephasing pulse order for the f_2 vibration at 1150 cm^{-1} are shown in Figure 6. Analysis of the f_1 mode revealed qualitatively similar results and will not be discussed further.

Starting with the amplitude maps, we find that a significant oscillation amplitude is only ob-

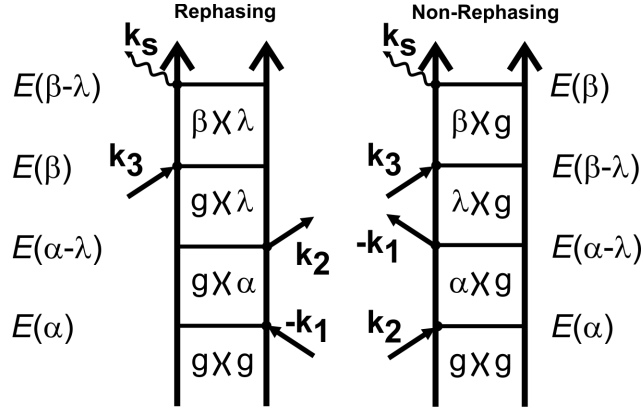


Figure 7: Double-sided Feynman diagrams for the ground state bleaching pathways.

served above $\nu_1 = 17000 \text{ cm}^{-1}$. The appearance of the amplitude maps can be understood from the rephasing (R) and non-rephasing (NR) Feynman diagrams shown in Figure 7 and from the amplitude factors in eq 8 and 9. First, the second term in eq 8 and 9 shows that if the first interaction has a low frequency, it will not be possible to excite the vibrational level in the ground electronic state with the second interaction. Therefore no oscillation amplitude at low ν_1 can be detected. The difference between R and NR pulse order is manifested during the last two interactions. For R pathways, the emission (4:th interaction, curved arrow) does not return the system to the vibrational ground state but to a vibrational excited state. The maximum in the amplitude map will thus be found at $\nu_3 \approx \nu_1 - \lambda$. For the NR pathways, the third interaction interacts with the excited vibrational mode in the ground state. Such excitation will preferentially lead to emission at $\nu_3 \approx \nu_1$, because the states at lower energy are effectively discriminated against by the lack of spectral amplitude at lower frequencies.

The phase maps do not have such an intuitive explanation as the amplitude maps. The phase of the oscillation is determined by the product of the transition dipole moments.³⁷ In the case of a monomer, this product can be recast in terms of the relevant Frank-Condon amplitudes and depending on the quantum numbers of the involved states, the pathway can have either a positive or negative sign.^{38,39} However, when realistic lineshapes are included, the phase will vary with the detuning from resonance.³⁹ In the dimer model we have a large number of pathways contributing to the signal. Furthermore, we average over disorder meaning that a point in the 2D spectrum does

not correspond to a well defined detuning (or well defined phase).

For vibronic excitons, the mixing of different vibronic transitions in the excited state manifold leads to further complications in the interpretation. In the present case, the mixing between the two monomers is rather weak due to the strong influence of the vibrational modes and the large inhomogeneous broadening. In fact, we find that the amplitude and phase maps look qualitatively similar when the electronic coupling is set to zero. This confirms the conclusion from the preceding section that the electronic states can be considered as largely monomeric in β -Cr.

The simple model outlined above is capable of explaining both the non-oscillating and oscillating contributions to the 2D spectrum quite well. A complication in the analysis is the broad bandwidth of β -Cr compared to the laser pulses. The finite bandwidth of the pulses limits the information that can be extracted from the spectrum. Here we have adopted a very simple approach where the simulations are carried out in the impulsive limit and the effect of the finite bandwidth on the time-independent and coherent pathways are accounted for by scaling the amplitude of each pathway by the electric fields of the involved interactions. This simple procedure is clearly sufficient to understand the spectra. However, the limitation of the approach can be seen in Figure 5, where the simulated spectrum is noticeably wider than the experimental one and the splitting between the peaks in the R and NR amplitude maps is underestimated (see Figure 6). These differences are related to the neglect of phase of the electric fields and the pulse overlap effects⁴⁰ Furthermore in experimental R amplitude map additional low amplitude peak at high ν_3 frequencies is observed, whereas it is completely missing in corresponding simulated map. At the moment we do not have an interpretation of this feature. We can only speculate about the origin of discrepancies, but note that signatures of vibrational modes in coherent spectroscopy respond sensitively to small amounts of chirp of the excitation pulses.⁴⁰

Bathochromic shifts in β - and α -crustacyanin

The discussion in the preceding sections have largely confirmed the findings from several recent quantum chemical studies suggesting a weak electronic coupling in β -Cr.^{4,6} We can conclude that

the linear spectrum and the CD spectrum of β -Cr can be accounted for by a model with a moderate resonance interaction between the carotenoids. The resonance interaction does not lead to any significant shifts of the absorption maximum, and as pointed out by Neugebauer,⁶ it actually shifts the spectrum somewhat to the blue. To reach an agreement with the experimental spectrum, we introduced a parameter E_b to account for the bathochromic shift. To this point we have treated E_b as a free parameter and in the following we discuss the different contributions to E_b and try to estimate their magnitudes.

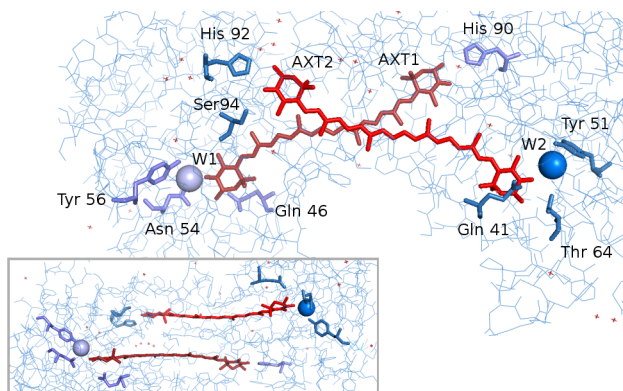


Figure 8: Structure of β -Cr illustrating interaction of the AXT dimer shown in red with protein environment (thin lines): top view (main figure) and side view (bottom left panel). Residues (thick lines) and water molecules (spheres) important for interaction between AXTs and protein are highlighted.⁴ Other water molecules are denoted as red crosses.

First we will turn to AXT conformation changes. In solution, AXT adopts an *s-cis* conformation where the β -iodene rings are twisted with respect to the polyenic chain. The S_1 lifetime in solution is 5 ps, which corresponds to an effective conjugation length of ~ 10.5 -11, implying that the central polyene chain contributes to the effective conjugation length.³ Upon binding in β -Cr, the terminal rings planarize (see the side view of β -Cr in Figure 8) and the carotenoid adopts an *s-trans* conformation.² The S_1 lifetime drops to about 3 ps, indicative of a conjugation length of 11.5-12. In this configuration, the carbon bonds on the terminal rings are fully conjugated (*s-trans*). Based on these effective conjugation lengths, we can estimate that the S_2 energy drops approximately 600 - 1000 cm^{-1} .^{11,41} The role of planarization can be directly evaluated by comparing AXT to cathaxanthin analogues where the 18 methyl group was removed to minimize steric interaction

and to favor a s-trans configuration. This procedure resulted in a shift of the linear absorption from 486 to 512 nm (1000 cm^{-1}).⁴² Thus, a red shift of approximately 1000 cm^{-1} seems to be a good estimate of the effect of increased conjugation in β -Cr. We note that this value is in a good agreement with quantum chemical calculations based on the crystal structure.^{5,6} Turning to α -Cr, both the red-shift of the f_1 vibration as well as the decrease of the S_1 lifetime indicates further extension of the effective conjugation. Because the conjugated system in β -Cr already comprise the carbons on the terminal rings, we conclude that further extension of the conjugation must involve the C_4 -keto carbonyls. However, by comparing linear carotenoids with 12 and 14 conjugated bonds we can conclude that such an increase in conjugation only decreases the S_2 energy by a few hundred wavenumbers ($\sim 300\text{ cm}^{-1}$) and can not be responsible for the difference between α -Cr and β -Cr.^{11,34}

An important factor for the bathochromic shift is a change in polarizability upon excitation of carotenoids resulting from the large (extended) conjugated system. For conjugated polyenes, the polarizability of a state is related to the bond length alternation (BLA), where a low (high) BLA leads to high (low) values of the polarizability.^{43,44} States with A_g symmetry (i.e. the covalent states S_0 and S_1) display a high degree of BLA as compared to B_u states (i.e. the ionic states S_2 and S_n), giving rise to a large polarizability difference upon transition from S_0 to S_2 (and from S_1 to S_n). This effect is manifested as a large sensitivity of the S_0 - S_2 transition energy to solvent polarizability or refractive index. For instance, the S_0 - S_2 transition of astaxanthin shifts by 1200 cm^{-1} between n-hexane (refractive index 1.375) and CS_2 (refractive index 1.63).⁴⁵

The polarizability change upon excitation for AXT in solution and AXT bound in α -Cr has been investigated by Stark spectroscopy.³⁶ It was shown that upon binding to the protein, the polarizability change ($\Delta\alpha$) increased by 50% and the dipole moment difference ($\Delta\mu$) doubled. Studies on different carotenoids in solutions⁴⁶ and in proteins⁴⁷ have demonstrated that $\Delta\alpha$ correlates with the conjugation length. Thus, the observed increase in $\Delta\alpha$ seems to be related to the conformational change upon binding as evident from the decrease in S_1 lifetime and the down-shift of the f_1 vibration. The increase in $\Delta\alpha$ revealed by the Stark experiments implies that bound carotenoids

are even more sensitive to dispersive interactions than the carotenoid in solution.

To estimate the spectral shift of AXT between solution (n-hexane) and the Cr environment, we assume that the dielectric properties of the protein can be approximated by pyridine. Its optical dielectric constant of 2.25 is in line with common values for the optical dielectric constant of proteins (2-2.1) and results in a reasonable estimate of the protein induced shift for other carotenoproteins (700 out of 1000 cm^{-1} in LH2 and 700 of 820 cm^{-1} in LH1). However, unlike these carotenoids, AXT in Cr undergoes a significant conformational change upon binding to the protein and an effective increase in the conjugation length. This increase in conjugation length leads to an increase in $\Delta\alpha$ by 50%, as it was shown by Stark experiments. By using the difference between the absorption maxima for AXT in n-hexane and in pyridine (850 cm^{-1}),⁴⁵ we estimate the bathochromic shift due to the dielectric environment to be about 1200 cm^{-1} .

The two mechanisms discussed in the preceding sections are of a general nature and are to a certain extent of relevance to all carotenoids bound in proteins. For instance, 3HEN in orange carotenoid protein³² also experiences a conformational change, which increases the effective conjugation length and leads to a red-shift due to both mechanisms discussed above. However, the S_0 - S_2 transition in orange carotenoid protein only shifts by 1000 cm^{-1} . In the case of AXT in β -Cr, our estimates give a somewhat larger value ($\sim 2200 \text{ cm}^{-1}$), but it is nonetheless clear that these two mechanisms alone cannot account for the large bathochromic shifts found for β -Cr and α -Cr. Clearly, what distinguishes β -Cr from the other carotenoproteins must be either a specific property of the AXTs, a specific AXT-protein interaction, or the combined influence of both.

Besides α -Cr and β -Cr, other “blue” carotenoids exist in nature or have been artificially synthesized. One common feature of these “blue” carotenoids is that they all incorporate electron acceptors in the conjugated system.^{1,48-50} The acceptor creates an electronic pull and a partial charge separation that affects states of different symmetry in different ways. States of A_g symmetry has a high BLA and the largely confined charges will not be perturbed to a large extent. In B_u states (i.e. S_2), the BLA is significantly less and the electrons are freer to move. For these states, a larger dipole will be formed. When the molecule is placed in a moderately polar environment

like the crustacyanin binding pocket (Figure 8), the partial charge separation due to the acceptor will thus result in a red-shift of the S_0 - S_2 transition.¹ The effect of the acceptors strength on the S_0 - S_2 energy gap has been demonstrated by Marder et al.⁴⁹ Increasing the acceptor strength gave rise to a large $\Delta\mu$ and red-shifts of thousands of cm^{-1} . Similar effects have been demonstrated for symmetrically substituted carotenoids - adding a second carbonyl to an s-trans analogue of cathaxanthin shifts the absorption maximum from 512 to 552 nm (1100 cm^{-1}).⁴² Even more dramatic shifts have been observed when a sulfur atom is substituted into the place of the oxygen.⁵⁰

However, unlike the red-shift of the S_0 - S_2 transition induced by the incorporated acceptors described above, the electronic pull mechanism in β -Cr must be activated by the protein. Support for this idea can be found in the reconstitution study by Britton et al.¹ These experiments revealed that i) the carbonyls are essential for the large bathochromic shift, ii) conjugation must extend to the carbonyl groups iii) the carbonyls must be in the position 4 - a carbonyl located at 3, although completely conjugated like in rhodoxanthin, does not lead to a red-shift. This implies that the interaction between the carbonyls and specific amino acids (i.e. histidines: His 90 and His 92)² and water in the protein plays a decisive role. Important residues for the AXT-protein interaction are depicted in Figure 8.⁴

This discussion leads to a qualitative explanation for the mechanism responsible for the bathochromic shift in β -Cr. Upon binding to the protein, AXT is forced into a conformation where the rings are planar with the polyene chain. The planarization leads to an extension of the conjugation out to the C_4 carbonyl groups. H-bonding of the carbonyls acts to increase their electron acceptor character, which serves to increase the electronic pull on the π -system.⁵¹ This partial charge transfer (CT) character results in a red-shift of the S_0 - S_2 transition analogue to other carotenoids with electron acceptors incorporated into the π -system. In order for the charge transfer mechanism to be operational, a conformational change bringing the carbonyls into the conjugated system is required. As soon as the carotenoid is removed from the binding pocket, the carotenoid returns to the cis- conformation and the carbonyls are no longer part of the conjugated π -system. This in turn explains that AXT does not exhibit any spectral shifts between protic and aprotic solvents and why

the position of the keto-carbonyls is critical for the formation of the large bathochromic shift .⁴⁵

This mechanism connects bathochromic shift of the AXT within the β -Cr protein environment to the family of other “blue” carotenoid and indicates that there is a common mechanism behind all these observations. Furthermore, it offers a consistent explanation of both the reconstitution studies as well as the optical and Stark experiments discussed in the preceding sections. It is also likely that a similar mechanism is active in asteriarubin although this can not be confirmed due to the lack of structure of the protein.

Upon aggregation into α -Cr, the absorption maximum shifts further to the red. From the decrease in the S_1 lifetime and the downshift of the f_1 frequency, we can conclude that the effective conjugation length increases. This can explain a part of the additional red-shift, but not the 1400 cm^{-1} observed in the experiment. The lack of structure for α -Cr makes it difficult to pin down the origin of this additional bathochromic shift. The CT mechanism discussed above will be sensitive to the environment surrounding the carbonyls and we can speculate that a compression of the binding pocket, leading to shorter hydrogen bonding distances, increases the strength of the CT interaction leading to even larger bathochromic shifts.

Conclusions

Linear and nonlinear spectroscopic methods together with numerical modeling have been applied to investigate the electronic structure, excited state dynamics and the influence of the excitonic interaction between the two carotenoids in β -Cr. We find that the linear spectrum, circular dichroism, and 2D spectra are consistent with a weak coupling between the two carotenoids. Our estimation of the excitonic coupling is in good agreement with recent quantum chemical calculations. The strong coupling to the two main vibrational modes of the carotenoid, in addition to a significant inhomogeneity, leads to a weak mixing between the manifold of electronic/vibrational states of the two monomers. The states can thus be considered to be largely monomeric, which was confirmed by analysis of the wavepacket modulations seen in the 2D spectra.

The excited state dynamics in β -Cr involves a 30 fs deactivation of the initially populated S_2 state. This value is about 5 times faster than for the monomer in solution. This difference can be traced back to a decrease in the S_2 - S_1 energy gap, which leads to the reduced relaxation time. The S_1 lifetime is found to be 3.2 ps, which places it in between the lifetimes found for the monomer in solution (5 ps) and in α -Cr (1.8 ps).³ The reduction in lifetime is the result of planarization of the end-rings and an increase of the effective conjugation length.

The effectively weak electronic coupling implies that the excitonic effect is not relevant for the bathochromic shift in β -Cr. Rather, the origin of this shift can be traced to two connected effects. Upon binding to the protein, AXT planarizes and the effective conjugation length increases. This leads to a direct decrease of the S_2 energy due to increased conjugation and to an indirect decrease of the S_2 energy in the protein environment due to the increase in polarizability difference caused by the conformational change. The direct and indirect contribution to the red-shift resulting from the conformational change is estimated to account for approximately half of the bathochromic shift. The remaining shift is proposed to originate from a partial charge transfer character of the S_2 state due to an electronic pull from the carbonyls. This effect is enabled by the conformational change, which allows the carbonyls to couple to the π -conjugated system and is enhanced by hydrogen bonding of the carbonyls in the protein environment. The proposed model of electron accepting groups responsible for the bathochromic shifts connects AXT in the β -Cr environment to the other “blue” carotenoids where electron acceptors incorporated into the conjugated system results in dramatic changes of the absorption spectra.

Acknowledgement

The work in Lund was supported by the Swedish Research Council and the Knut and Alice Wallenberg Foundation. NC was supported by Austrian Science Foundation (FWF) and OeAD. Work in the laboratory of HAF was supported by grants from the National Science Foundation (MCB-0913022) and the University of Connecticut Research Foundation.

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