A Quantum Chemical Study on the Mechanism of Cis—Trans Isomerization in Retinal-like Protonated Schiff Bases

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Abstract: The dynamics of the photochemical cis—trans isomerization in retinal-like protonated Schiff bases is studied by means of MNDO/CI calculations. The aim of these calculations is a better understanding of the mechanism which accounts for the highly regioselective and efficient photoisomerization of rhodopsin and bacteriorhodopsin in the primary step after light absorption. Calculations on the model compound protonated 1-imino-2,4-pentadiene show that the regioselectivity and efficiency of this reaction can be explained from the intrinsic properties of this molecule. Whereas it is found that the protonated Schiff bases have a lowest \( \text{B}^* \)-like excited state, the second \( \text{A}^* \)-like excited state is particularly photochemically labile. This latter state serves in diminishing (or even removing) the barrier on the potential energy surface of the initially excited state, thus enhancing the rate for photoisomerization. The transition probability for a radiolysis return of the excited molecule to its ground state was evaluated explicitly for the photoisomerization around the various double bonds in protonated 1-imino-2,4-pentadiene by means of semiclassical trajectory calculations. The transition probability depends on the energy gap between the ground and excited state and the nonadiabatic coupling between these states for the 90° twisted molecule. The extent of the energy gap is related to the distance from the twisted bond to the nitrogen atom. The role of this electron-deficient nitrogen atom is to stabilize the polarized resonance structure which describes the 90° twisted molecule in the excited state. When this stabilization is too strong, the polarized resonance structure drops below the diradical ground state which results in an increased energy gap and a reduced efficiency of photoisomerization. The possibility for a concerted bicycle pedal isomerization around both double bonds is investigated by a calculation of the two-dimensional energy surfaces and nonadiabatic couplings for a combined rotation around these two bonds. A strictly bicycle pedal motion is found to be unfavorable, but a mechanism which involves a complete rotation around one double bond assisted by a partial rotation of the second double bond might provide a route for the photoisomerization of the retinylidene chromophore in the confined environment of a protein. Calculations on a model compound of the protonated Schiff base of retinal show that the extent of the stability of the 90° twisted molecule in the excited state can be directed by locating external point-charges around the molecule. In nature, these point-charges are provided by the protein opsin, and their presence has been used to explain the opsin shift of the various intermediates in the photocycles of rhodopsin and bacteriorhodopsin. Our calculations show that these external point-charges also have an important impact on the energy gap between the ground and excited state and, therefore, on the regioselectivity and efficiency of photoisomerization in the retinylidene chromophore. The primary step in the photoisomerization in bacteriorhodopsin can be best understood from an external point-charge model with a negative counterion near the protonated nitrogen atom and an ion pair near the cyclohexene ring.

1. Introduction

The first step of the vision process involves the absorption of light by rhodopsin which transduces the light information into a nerve signal.1 Bacteriorhodopsin acts as a light-driven proton pump in the purple membrane of the halophilic microorganism Halobacterium halobium. It converts the light energy into an electrochemical gradient across the cell membrane.2 Rhodopsin and bacteriorhodopsin have in common that they are constructed from a covalent linkage between a protonated Schiff base of retinal and the \( \epsilon \)-amino group of a lysine residue of the apoprotein opsin. In both systems, the primary step after light absorption involves a photochemical cis—trans isomerization of the retinylidene chromophore.3 This process is known to proceed on a (sub)picosecond time scale with a high quantum yield of cis—trans isomerization (e.g., \( \Phi = 0.7 \) for rhodopsin).4

In rhodopsin, the conformation of the retinylidene chromophore is 11-cis and upon light absorption it is isomerized to the all-trans form (bathorhodopsin). This conversion is characterized by a red shift of the UV absorption maximum from 498 to 548 nm. Bathorhodopsin is stable below \(-140 \) °C and its ground-state energy is 16 kcal/mol higher than that of Br-Br.5 Some questions that rise are how opsin directs the regioselectivity of the cis—trans isomerization and what conditions are necessary to account for the unusually rapid and efficient reaction. This is especially intriguing when it is borne in mind that the retinylidene chromophore has only a very limited space within the pocket of the surrounding protein. A thorough understanding of these features asks for a detailed knowledge of the intrinsic characteristics of the retinylidene chromophore. Once these are known, it may be deduced how the protein can direct the regioselectivity and increase the efficiency of the photoisomerization.

Freedman and Becker6 studied the photoisomerization of various intermediates of the \( \pi \)-butylamine Schiff base of retinal in detail. They found that the regioselectivity of the photoisomerization in retinal-like protonated Schiff bases is strongly affected by the presence of an external point-charge model with a negative counterion near the protonated nitrogen atom and an ion pair near the cyclohexene ring. This is especially intriguing when it is borne in mind that the retinylidene chromophore has only a very limited space within the pocket of the surrounding protein. A thorough understanding of these features asks for a detailed knowledge of the intrinsic characteristics of the retinylidene chromophore. Once these are known, it may be deduced how the protein can direct the regioselectivity and increase the efficiency of the photoisomerization.

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found that the quantum yields for the 9-cis, cis-cis, 13-cis, and all-trans isomers are less than 0.01 in hexane. Going from the nonpolar solvent hexane to the polar solvent methanol, the quantum yields for these isomers increase with a maximum of 0.24 for the 11-cis isomer. Whereas the photoproducts of the cis isomers are always the all-trans isomer, irradiation of the all-trans isomer gives a mixture of the cis isomers (Φc = 0.12) of which the 11-cis is predominantly formed. Upon protonating the Schiff base, only the 11-cis isomer shows an efficient isomerization to the all-trans isomer (Φc = 0.24, independent of solvent polarity). The quantum yield of isomerization of the protonated all-trans isomer was 0.14 in all solvents, being almost only slightly higher than the quantum yield for the unprotonated species in a polar solvent. Again, the 11-cis isomer was predominantly formed.

Freedman and Becker explained these differences from the characteristics of the two lowest excited singlet states of the retinylidene Schiff base. These excited states are related to the two lowest singlet states of the set of trans linear polyenes which have C2 symmetry. One excited state is constructed from the promotion of an electron from the highest occupied σ-MO to the lowest unoccupied σ*-MO. The symmetry of this singlet (σ−σ*) excited state is B1. The + sign refers to the symmetry of the configurations in the CI expansion of a PPP wave function. The transition to this state is symmetry allowed and is responsible for the strong absorption band in the UV spectra of these polyenes. Additionally, there is an excited state with the same symmetry as the ground state (σ+σ*) to which there is a single photon transition. This state is symmetry forbidden in C2 symmetry so that it is not observed in the UV spectrum. Its presence was first indicated by quantum chemical calculations. In a CI expansion, this state is described by the doubly excited (σ+σ*) configuration and two singly excited configurations (σ−σ*) and (σ−σ*), in which σ and σ* refer to the σ-MOs just below the HOMO and just above the LUMO, respectively.

With the advent of two-photon spectroscopy the location of this A1 state became possible, and it has been shown to be the lowest excited singlet state in long-chain polyenes. The same level ordering is found for the retinylidene Schiff bases. In valence bond formalism, the wave function of the B1 state is dominated by ionic configurations, whereas the A1 state is mainly built up from covalent configurations. This indicates that the polarity of the solvent and of the protonation state of the Schiff base may have a different impact on these two states. This prompted Freedman and Becker to explain the observed photochemistry of the isomers of the σ-butyllamine Schiff base of retinal as a function of solvent polarity and protonation state in terms of the mixing of the B1 and A1 states.

By means of INDO-CISD (configuration interaction with single and double excitations) calculations, Birge and Hubbard indicated that particularly the A1 state is photochemically labile for cis-trans isomerization and that its interaction with the B1 state might be responsible for the formation of a barrierless potential energy surface for cis-trans isomerization in this latter state. However, this interaction alone cannot account for the fact that the photoisomerization of the isomers of the (protonated) Schiff bases is confined to one particular double bond. Therefore, we have performed MNDO/CI calculations for the model compound protonated 1-linomino-2,4-pentadiene (pentamidine-H+), which has all relevant elements necessary to demonstrate the most important features that control the cis-trans isomerization in protonated Schiff bases.

Potential energy curves of the ground and lower singlet excited states were calculated for the isomerization of the various double bonds in this molecule. The qualitative shape of these curves can be explained from the stability of the resonance structures which describe the ground and lowest excited state of the 90° twisted conformations. It is shown that the relative stability of these resonance structures may explain the rate (barrierless potential energy curve) and the quantum yield of isomerization (energy gap and nonadiabatic coupling between the ground and excited state in the 90° twisted region). The nonadiabatic interactions between the various singlet states were calculated explicitly from the multiconfigurational wave functions, which enables the evaluation of the probability for a radiationless transition to the ground state by means of semiclassical trajectory calculations. Finally, some preliminary results are presented which show how the protein can direct the photoisomerization process by supplying external point-charges in the neighborhood of the retinylidene chromophore.

II. Calculational Method

The dynamics of photoexcited molecules can be studied using a strictly quantum chemical formalism, as we have used before for the description of the dynamics of cis-trans isomerization of small polyenes. However, this method can only be applied for one-dimensional isomerizations with a moment of inertia which is independent of the twist angle. In the present case, this restriction does not hold. Especially for the rotation around the central C=C bond in pentamidine-H+ and most of the motions involving rotations around several bonds simultaneously, the moment of inertia strongly depends on the twist angle. Therefore, the semiclassical trajectory method has been used to study the dynamics of cis-trans isomerization in pentamidine-H+. Similar calculations have been performed by Warshel and Birge in the study on the photoisomerization of the retinylidene chromophore. However, their calculations were based on a more or less semiemipirical expression for the nonadiabatic coupling. Our calculations make explicit use of calculated nonadiabatic couplings.

In the semiclassical trajectory method, the time-dependent wave function is written as an expansion of the wave functions of the electronic states:

\[ \Psi(t) = \sum K \Psi_K(t) \]

In this equation, \( \Psi_K(t) \) represents the wave function of state K which depends on the electron coordinates (r) and parametrically on the twist angle \( \theta \). E_K(\theta) stands for the potential theory curve of this state. The time-dependent contribution of the electronic state K to the total wave function \( \Psi(t) \) equals \( \Psi_K e^{-iE_K(\theta) t} \). The contribution of the electronic ground state \( \Psi_0 \) can be written as the transition probability of the molecule from the excited state to the ground state. The (complex) coefficients \( a_k(t) \) are found by substituting eq 1 in the time-dependent Schrödinger equation:

\[ i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \Psi(t) = H(t) \Psi(t) \]

resulting in a set of differential equations:

\[ a_k(t) = \left( \Psi_k e^{-iE_k(\theta) t} \right) / H_k(t) \]

In this equation, \( E_k(t) \) represents the nonadiabatic coupling function, which can be calculated from the multiconfigurational wave functions of the electronic states (vide infra):

\[ E_k(t) = \left( \Psi_k e^{-iE_k(\theta) t} \right) \]

The nuclear velocity \( \dot{\theta}(t) \) was obtained from the classical equations of motion. In these calculations no energy dissipation to the other degrees

of freedom was assumed. Hence the classical Hamiltonian can be written as:

$$H = \frac{1}{2}i^2(\theta)^2 + E_k(\theta) \quad (5)$$

The angular dependent moment of inertia $I(\theta)$ needed in eq 5 was evaluated by a calculation of the kinetic energy at a constant $\theta$ of the molecular moving on the potential energy curve of the initially excited state. For all isomerizations, three singlet states were included in the calculations. It was assumed that all trajectories started on the potential energy curve of the first excited state (state = 1), because this state was found to have the largest oscillator strength. In practice, several trajectories were run with various initial conditions corresponding to a different excess kinetic energy of the excited molecule. This approach mimics the situation in which an ensemble of vibrational levels is excited, each with its own excess vibrational energy.

The potential energy curves $E_k(\theta)$ were obtained from a MNDO11 SCF calculation followed by a configuration interaction with the CIPS12 algorithm. Starting from a zeroth order wave function including six leading configurations (see Scheme I) for the three lowest singlet states, the most important configurations were selected from a second-order perturbation after generating all possible configurations single or double excited with respect to the reference space.

The final CI space was constructed from a collection of the selected configurations at various nuclear conformations. No essential changes (level ordering of states, shapes of the potential energy curves, etc.) were found upon increasing the active MO space from 6 MOs (selection threshold $\eta = 0.00$; 170 configurations) to 20 MOs ($\eta = 0.02$; 450 configurations). A program was written to calculate natural orbitals, charge and bond densities, transition dipole moments ($\mu_{KL}(\theta) = \langle \Psi_k(\theta)|\mu_{KL}|\Psi_l(\theta)\rangle$) and oscillator strengths ($f_{KL} = \frac{1}{2}\langle \Delta E_{KL}|\mu_{KL}|\Delta E_{KL}\rangle$) for multi-intra-configuration wave functions.

The nonadiabatic coupling functions $g_{KL}(\theta)$ can be expressed as:

$$g_{KL}(\theta) = g_{KL}^{C}(\theta) + g_{KL}^{MO}(\theta) \quad (6)$$

In this equation, $g_{KL}^{C}(\theta)$ involves the differentiation of the CI coefficients and $g_{KL}^{MO}(\theta)$ the differentiation of the molecular orbitals. Both terms were evaluated approximately by a two-point numerical procedure with a stepsize of $\Delta \theta = 0.02^\circ$. The MNDO results were compared with our ab initio calculations for the cis-trans isomerization of small polyenes. The results of both methods are found to correspond qualitatively well, the main difference being that ab initio calculations tend to overestimate transition energies (especially for the $(\pi-\pi^*)$ excited state) whereas the MNDO calculations underestimate excitation energies.

### III. Results

#### A. Double Bond Rotations in Pentanimine-H⁺

The aim of this work is to demonstrate some essential characteristics of the cis-trans isomerization in protonated Schiff bases. Special attention has been drawn to the possibility of simultaneous double bond rotations for which we calculated two-dimensional potential energy surfaces of the lowest single state and nonadiabatic couplings among them. Considering the large amount of calculations involved, pentanimine-H⁺ was chosen as the smallest molecule which incorporates all essential elements of a protonated Schiff base.

The relatively small dimensions of this molecule made it possible to optimize all geometrical parameters for each electronic state individually with a reasonably large multiconfigurational wave function. It is known that especially the bond lengths of the carbon–carbon bonds may change drastically upon twisting such bond.23 This is demonstrated in Figure 1 for the twist around the C3-C4 bond of pentanimine-H⁺.

Because of the electron-withdrawing capacity of the protonated nitrogen atom, already in the planar conformation the picture of alternating single and double bonds has almost vanished. The former double bonds are elongated whereas the single bonds have become shorter. This effect is more accentuated near the nitrogen atom. When the C3-C4 bond is twisted, that $\pi$-bond is broken and, consequently, the optical bond length increases. The effect of this twist on the optimal bond lengths of the other bonds is much smaller.

In the same figure, the effect of a separate geometry optimization in the ground and first excited state on the energy of the ground state is shown. Despite the fact that the geometrical parameters are markedly different in both states, the effect on the energy of the ground state is minimal. The energy barrier for a rotation around the C3-C4 bond is 34.5 kcal/mol when optimized in $S_1$ and 34.1 kcal/mol when optimized in $S_0$. The same effect is found for the excited states and for rotations around other bonds. It is clear that in this case the influence of a separate geometry optimization in the ground and excited states on the general appearance of the potential energy curves is minimal. Therefore, we have used one idealized geometry for all calculations ($r_{C-C1} = 1.40 \, \text{Å}$, $r_{C-C5} = 1.42 \, \text{Å}$, $r_{C-C4} = 1.35 \, \text{Å}$, $r_{N-CI} = 1.10 \, \text{Å}$, $r_{N-H} = 1.00 \, \text{Å}$, all bond angles $120^\circ$). For an extensive study of the dependence of the energy of the ground state and excited state on the carbon–carbon bond lengths we refer to the work of Warshel.24

The potential energy curves and nonadiabatic coupling for the rotations around the N-C1, C3-C4 and C4-C5 bonds are shown in Figure 2. For the N-C1 and C4-C5 bonds, the curves are symmetric (or antisymmetric for certain couplings) with respect to $\theta = 90^\circ$. The rotation around the central C3-C4 bond represents an isomerization from the cis isomer ($\theta = 0^\circ$) to the trans isomer ($\theta = 180^\circ$). The ground state energy of the cis isomer is 7.3 kcal/mol higher than that of the trans isomer. This difference is obviously too high because the steric repulsion is underestimated for the idealized geometry (with all bond angles $120^\circ$).

The isomerization rate is determined by the moment of inertia associated with the rotation and, more important, the slope of the potential energy curve of the excited state near the vertical absorption maximum ($\theta = 0^\circ$ or $\theta = 180^\circ$). This slope is markedly different for the three rotations considered, already indicating that there is a large difference to be expected for the dynamics of photochemical cis-trans isomerization around these bonds.

The quantum yield of cis-trans isomerization is related to the nonadiabatic coupling in the region where the potential energy curves of the ground and excited states come close. The extent of the nonadiabatic coupling determines the probability for a radiationless transition (vide supra), and, in its turn, this probability determines the quantum yield.17 Qualitatively, it can be said that the probability increases when the energy gap between two possible

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Figure 2. Energy curves and nonadiabatic couplings for a rotation around the N-C(1) (a), the C(2)-C(3) (b), and the C(4)-C(5) (c) bonds in pentanimine-H^+.

Figure 3. Calculated charge and bond densities (in parentheses) of the three lowest singlet states of planar pentanimine-H^+.

We found that the 1B^+_u state is the lowest excited state, in agreement with other calculations and experimental data for protonated Schiff bases. The energy splitting between the two states is calculated to be 0.42 eV (9.7 kcal/mol) and their wave functions are slightly mixed: |Ψ(1B^+_u)| = 0.39|Ψ(1A^+_g)| + 0.19|Ψ(1A^+_g)| + 0.12|Ψ(1A^+_g)| = 0.16|Ψ(1B^+_u)| - 0.20|Ψ(1A^+_g)| + 0.55|Ψ(1A^+_g)| + 0.41|Ψ(1A^+_g)| and, therefore, has a more antibonding character than the 1B^+_u state. This is reflected in the larger decrease in bond densities of the double bonds going from the ground state to the 1A^+_g state compared to the 1B^+_u state (Figure 3). This effect is more accentuated for the C(2)-C(3) and C(4)-C(5) bonds than for the N-C(1) bond, which implicates that a rotation around the former two bonds is energetically favored in the 1A^+_g state. As the 1A^+_g state is located above the 1B^+_u state for the planar geometry, the energy difference between the two states will decrease upon twisting. Because there is no symmetry in the molecule, the potential energy curves will exhibit an avoided crossing. This is indeed the case as can be seen from the peaks in the g_{ij} coupling functions of Figure 2.


Figure 4. Resonance structures for pentanimine-H⁺ 90° twisted around the N-C₄ (a), the C₂-C₃ (b), or the C₄-C₅ (c) bond. Because of the positive charge of the molecule, it is difficult to identify a particular resonance structure as a diradical or a zwitterion. For convenience, they are identified as D or Z merely indicating that the two former π electrons are located at different sides or at the same side of the twisted bond, respectively. The subscripts indicate the bond which is 90° twisted.

In the first configuration, one electron is located on each side. Therefore, this configuration is a diradical (D) and has no net dipole moment. In the latter two configurations, the two electrons are located on one side of the twisted bond. These configurations are zwitterionic (Z) and have a strong dipole moment. The first time this polarization of charge upon twisting an excited double bond was theoretically described, it was found to occur in a small region around θ = 90°. Therefore, this effect was called "sudden polarization". Many calculations at various levels of theory have confirmed this effect, but showed that the polarization already develops in an earlier stage so that the term "sudden" is somewhat confusing.

In the limiting case of a twisted symmetric alkene (like ethylene or trans-hexatriene twisted around the central double bond), there is no difference between Z₁ and Z₂, and the electronic wave functions of S₁ and S₂ are essentially linear combinations of these two resonance structures. Therefore, the excited states of these symmetric molecules do not have a dipole moment. When this symmetry is broken by introducing a substituent on one side of the twisted bond, the former degeneracy is lifted and one of the resonance structures is energetically stabilized whereas the other is destabilized. As a result, the energy gap between S₁ and S₂ increases and their wave functions now resemble Z₁ and Z₂.

Such a situation is fulfilled for (protonated) Schiff bases. The electron-deficient nitrogen atom (the N end) is strongly stabilized.

Figure 5. Calculated charge densities of the ground state (S₀) and first excited state (S₁) for a rotation around the C₄-C₅ bond (θ₂) in pentanimine-H⁺. The charge densities are summed for all atoms at the N end (qₑ) and the C end (qₑ) of the molecule.

The fact that the direction of these energy sequences is opposite for the D and Z states indicates that there might be a bond for which the D and Z states come close in energy. For this bond, the energy gap between S₀ and S₁ is minimal. Twisting a bond which is closer to the N end of the molecule increases this energy gap because Z is too strongly stabilized. Twisting a bond which is closer to the C end of the molecule increases the energy gap because Z is not enough stabilized.

Our calculations show that the optimal condition for stabilization and destabilization occurs for the twist (θ₂) around the central C₄-C₅ bond. Figure 5 gives the charge densities on each side of this twisted bond for S₀ and S₁, as a function of the twist angle (θ₂). It clearly shows the polarization of charge and it follows that at θ₂ = 90° the ground state ("Z") bears the positive charge at the C end of the molecule. From the situation for twisting in ethylene, it is known that Z correlates with the doubly excited state D₂ = X₂ isn't X₂. Therefore, the energy curve of the A₁ state shows a negative slope for a twist around a double bond for which the 90° twisted structure is strongly stabilized in the excited state. The size of the slope depends on the extent of this stabilization.

As indicated before, the time-dependent probability of finding the molecule in a certain electronic state K equals |<K|t>⟩². The contribution of the ground state |<0|t>⟩² is always equal to 1, and the probability for a radiationless transition. This value can then be used to evaluate the quantum yield of cis-trans isomerization. We have calculated these contributions |<K|t>⟩² for the various isomerizations in pentanimine-H⁺.

For the rotation around the C₄-C₅ bond (Figure 2c), there is a strong nonadiabatic interaction between the two excited states at θ₂ = 0° and θ₂ = 180°, as can be seen from the peaks in the nonadiabatic coupling function g₂ = g₂(θ₂) at these angles. As a result, we found that the contribution of the second excited state to the total wave function |<K|t>⟩² increased to a value of 0.60. On the other hand, the contribution of the electronic ground state |<0|t>⟩² did not exceed a value of 0.06. When it is assumed that molecules cross over to the ground state with conservation of the direction of rotation, it follows that only a small fraction of the molecules will reach the isomerized structure in the ground state after the first passage of the 90° region. The rest of the molecules will start to oscillate back and forth in the energy minimum with an equal probability to cross over to the ground state in either direction of the isomerization (provided the energy of the system does not decrease via intramolecular energy dissipation or collisions with the environment). The result is an almost 1:1 distribution of the

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(31) The quantum yield of isomerization can be calculated from the expression: Φ = (1 - f)/2 - (n₀(t))², where f is the fraction of the molecules which do not reach the crossing region.
cis and trans isomers in the ground state. Another important factor controlling the dynamics is the energy barrier on the potential energy curve of the first excited state. Because of this barrier, a number of trajectories corresponding to vibrational levels with low energies will not reach the crossing region. Therefore, molecules with such low vibrational energies will not isomerize but exhibit other processes (such as fluorescence and other photochemical processes). This will reduce the quantum yield of cis-trans isomerization.

In contrast to the isomerization around the C2-C3 bond, a calculation of the contributions of the electronic states for a rotation around the central C2-C3 bond showed that in this case the transition probability to the ground state is much larger (Q(t)) = 0.30). This is a direct result of the small energy gap and correspondingly large nonadiabatic coupling at t = 90° (see Figure 2b). From the value of 0.30, a quantum yield for an isomerization of 0.59 is calculated (assuming that no other processes occur). This value may be compared with the value of 0.7 observed for rhodopsin and indicates that this latter system must also have a barrierless potential energy surface in the excited manifold and a similar small energy gap and correspondingly large nonadiabatic coupling with the ground state for the twisted structure.

The transition probability is found to be almost identical for the cis → trans isomerization and the trans → cis isomerization. However, for this latter isomerization the energy barrier on the potential energy curve of the first excited state will decrease the number of trajectories which reach the crossing region. Therefore, the quantum yield for an isomerization of the sterically hindered cis isomer will be larger than for the isomerization of the trans isomer. Such a difference in quantum yield between these two directions of isomerization is frequently found and must thus be contributed to the absence of a barrier on the potential energy surface in the excited state as a result of steric hindrance for one of the two isomers.

In summary, it is found that there is a relation between the distance from the twisted bond to the N end of the protonated Schiff base, the energy gap between S0 and S1, and the slope of the diabatic energy curve of the 1AG state. In its turn, the shape of this curve determines the shape of the energy curve of the absorbing 1B* state. For pentanimine-H+ the optimal conditions occur for the isomerization around the central double bond for which the stabilization of the 90° twisted structure in the excited state leads to both a barrierless potential energy curve and a minimal energy gap and correspondingly large transition probability to the ground state. Evidently, protonated Schiff bases have an intrinsic control of the regioselectivity and efficiency of cis-trans isomerization, which depend on the distance between the twisted bond and the nitrogen atom. Such a regioselectivity is found indeed for the photosomerization of protonated allylimine, and it gives a possible explanation for the photochemical behavior of the protonated Schiff bases of retinal.

B. Multiple Double Bond Rotations in Pentanimine-H+. It has been argued by several research groups that the isomerization around one double bond cannot occur for the retinylidene chromophore in the confined pocket of the surrounding protein. Therefore, mechanisms have been proposed which involve the simultaneous isomerization of two double bonds (the "bicycle pedal" model) or the simultaneous isomerization of a double bond and an adjacent single bond (the "hula twist" model). From an inspection of the bond densities of the excited states of pentanimine-H+ (Figure 3), it follows that a simultaneous rotation around the two carbon-carbon double bonds should be energetically favorable. Therefore, we performed MNDO/CI calculations for the two-dimensional reaction surfaces for the twist around these bonds (θ1 and θ2). The results are shown in Figures 6 and 7. The energy curves for the twist around the C2-C3 and C2-C4 bonds as shown in Figure 2 are essentially the sections of the two-dimensional surfaces which correspond to θ1 = 180° and θ2 = 180°, respectively.

From an inspection of Figure 6 it is seen that there is a region near θ1 = θ2 = 90° where the energy of S1 increases, whereas the top of the energy surface of the ground state levels off. This is a result of a crossing of the wave functions describing S1 and S2, going from θ1 = θ2 = 0° (180°) to θ1 = θ2 = 90°. To demonstrate this, the potential energy curves representing a simultaneous isomerization for the two bonds out of phase (θ1 = -θ2) are given in Figure 8.

This latter isomerization is especially interesting to describe the cis-trans isomerization of the retinylidene chromophore, where
the N end is anchored to the protein via a covalent linkage, because the motion of the N end in this concerted isomerization is minimal. For pentanimine-H⁺, the angle-dependent moment of inertia for this motion is almost identical with that for the rotation around the C₅-C₆ bond alone. Evidently, the orientation of the terminal CH₃ group does not influence this moment of inertia significantly. However, the effect of a combined rotation will be much larger in the situation where the molecule is linked to a heavy fragment or a protein.

The relevant resonance structures for the doubly twisted structure can be deduced from the occupation of the MOs for this geometry (Figure 9). For S₀ and S₁, the bond between C₄-C₅ and C₅-C₆ has become a real double bond. The resonance structures for these states differ mainly by the location of the positive charge in the molecule. This already indicates that these states will be differentially influenced by a charged environment.

The potential energy curve for the out-of-phase rotation of the two double bonds (Figure 8) shows that this motion is unfavorable in both the ground and the excited state. The potential energy barrier in the excited state is 11.2 kcal/mol. Besides, there is a very strong nonadiabatic coupling between the two states for a twist angle less than 90°. The dynamic calculations for this combined rotation showed that the contribution of the ground state (\( \text{Si}_1\)) to over to the ground state at this angle, the potential energy curve of this state reaches a value of 0.60 for this twist angle. When the molecule crosses over to the ground state at this angle, the potential energy curve of this state will direct it back to the initial conformation. The number of trajectories which will cross the energy barrier on the potential energy curve for Si and enter the second region of strong coupling is smaller. A crossing to the ground state in this second region will lead to the isomerized product. Therefore, the quantum yield of cis-trans isomerization via this coupled motion will be relatively small.

In Figure 7 the nonadiabatic couplings \( g_{01,1}(\theta_1,\theta_2) \) (values for \( \theta_1 = \theta_2 \)) between the two former states (one of the former states described by the MO's \( \psi \)) across the two-dimensional reaction surface. It can be seen that \( g_{01,1} \) depends more strongly on \( \theta_1 \) than on \( \theta_2 \). The opposite holds for \( g_{01,0} \). In regions where the nonadiabatic coupling is large, the probability for a radiationless transition is relatively large (provided that the nuclear velocity is large as well; vide supra). Therefore, any combined rotation bringing the molecule in such a region may represent a trajectory which is favorable for a radiationless transition. A trajectory is imaginable in which the C₄-C₅ bond isomerizes from \( 0° \) to \( 180° \) while in the meantime the C₅-C₆ bond rotates partly to a twist angle of approximately 60° and then rotates back. Such a mechanism would generate a route with a large transition probability. It has the advantage that the overall reaction only involves the isomerization of one double bond, as is observed for rhodopsin. The other bond only assists the reaction in that it brings the molecule in a region of large coupling, whereas the volume needed for the isomerization is smaller. A more complete treatment of this concerted mechanism asks for the solution of trajectory equations in two dimensions. Present work is aimed at performing such calculations.

A similar concerted bicycle pedal motion has been proposed for the thermal isomerization of light-adapted BR₄₀ to dark-adapted BR₄₆. Resonance Raman spectra show that this transformation involves the isomerization from all-trans-retinal to 13,15-dicis-retinal. From the bond densities given in Figure 3, it follows that a simultaneous rotation around the N-C¹ and C₅-C₆ bonds is unfavorable for pentanimine-H⁺ in the excited state. Because of the complementarity of the thermal and photochemical processes, this mechanism may provide a route for the thermal process.

In conclusion, the cis-trans isomerization in pentanimine-H⁺ is found to be most effective via an isomerization of the central double bond. However, a partial rotation of the adjacent carbon–carbon double bond may assist the reaction in bringing the molecule into a region of strong nonadiabatic coupling while reducing the volume needed for rotation.

IV. Influence of External Point Charges

From the calculations for pentanimine-H⁺ it follows that the regioselectivity and efficiency of photoisomerization in protonated Schiff bases is directly related to the bond densities of the reactant in the excited state and the relative stability of the resonance structures describing the ground and excited state of the 90° twisted molecule. This stability was shown to depend on the distance from the nitrogen atom to the twisted bond. For a bond which is too close to the nitrogen atom the ground state, which is described by a Z structure (the C₄-C₅ bond in the N end of the molecule, the C fragment positively charged), is too strongly stabilized. The excited state, now described by a D structure (one of the former electrons at each side of the twisted bond, the N fragment negatively charged) is so strongly destabilized that the energy minimum on the excited-state potential energy surface becomes less deep. In this situation, the energy gap between S₀ and S₁ is relatively large. On the other hand, twisting a bond which is too far from the nitrogen atom results in an opposite stabilization of the Z and D structures (now describing S₁ and S₀, respectively). However, the effect is the same because the minimum on the excited-state potential energy surface is less deep and the energy gap with the ground state relatively large.

The determining factor in this description is the stabilization of the positive charge in either of the two fragments on each side of the twisted bond. This feature indicates that the various twisted structures will be differentially influenced by a polarizable (solvent) or charged (surrounding protein) environment. Freedman and Becker argued that the variety in quantum yields of isomerized products upon irradiation of the n-butylamine Schiff base of retinal as a function of protonation state and solvent polarity could be explained from the mixing of the \( \text{B}^+2 \) state into the \( \text{A}^- \) state. The charge stabilization in the excited state of the twisted molecule now introduces a structure that weakly influences the shape of the potential energy surface and, therefore, the dynamics and quantum yields of the various photoisomerizations. Moreover, it offers an explanation for the regioselectivity of isomerization in the irradiated reactant.

For the free (protonated) Schiff base, the optimal condition will be fulfilled for the isomerization around one particular double bond. For the protonated n-butylamine Schiff base of retinal this seems to be the C₁₋C₂ double bond (\( \Phi = 0.24, \Phi_m = 0.14 \)). When the chromophore is embedded in opsin, the quantum yield of isomerization in rhodopsin is strongly increased (\( \Phi = 0.67, \Phi_m = 0.50 \)), whereas for bacteriorhodopsin it is found that


The idealized geometry was used for all calculations. A restricted molecule is found to be a suitable model for the protonated Schiff base of retinal. In this model compound, the cyclohexene ring of retinal is replaced by a vinyl group which is arbitrary twisted by 60° out of the plane of the polyene chain. This restricted molecule is found to be a suitable model for the protonated Schiff base of retinal. In this model compound, the cyclohexene ring of retinal is replaced by a vinyl group which is arbitrary twisted by 60° out of the plane of the polyene chain. This restricted molecule is found to be a suitable model for the protonated Schiff base of retinal.
An inspection of the changes in the bond densities going from the ground state to the \( \text{B}^*_\text{S} \) (S1) and \( \text{A}^*_\text{S} \) (S2) states shows that it is the latter state which has the most antibonding character. Therefore, the \( \text{A}^*_\text{S} \) state is expected to be especially photochemically labile. The antibonding character of the double bonds in this state is found to increase going from the N end of the molecule to the vinyl group. This implies that a photoisomerization is expected for those double bonds close to the vinyl group (vide supra). The bond densities of the single bonds are found to increase upon excitation. From this observation it is suspected that rotations around these single bonds do not contribute to a decrease in energy of the excited states of the protonated Schiff bases of retinal.

Therefore, it seems that the hula-twist model of Liu et al. does not apply for photochemical isomerizations in these molecules.34

In this calculation an exception seems to be the \( C_9-C_{10} \) single bond for which the bond density slightly decreases (S2 → S1). This suggests that a rotation around this particular single bond might be energetically favorable in the excited state. Such a rotation has been proposed by Schulten and Tavan for the primary photoreaction in bacteriorhodopsin. On the other hand, a simultaneous twist around two double bonds seems plausible from these calculations.

The calculated potential energy curves for a rotation around the \( C_9-C_{10} \), the \( C_{11}-C_{12} \), and the \( C_{13}-C_{14} \) bonds in RET-H⁺ are shown in Figure 11. They clearly show the characteristics of a prototyped Schiff base as demonstrated for pentamine-H⁺. Both the energy barrier on the potential energy curve of the first excited state and the energy gap between S1 and S0 for the 90° twisted molecule strongly depend on the distance from the twisted bond to the nitrogen atom. The energy barriers for the trans (\( \theta = 180° \)) to cis (\( \theta = 0° \)) isomerizations are 3.2 \( C_9-C_{10} \), 2.2 \( C_{11}-C_{12} \), and 5.9 \( C_{13}-C_{14} \) kcal/mol, respectively. These values lie in the order of the value of 2 kcal/mol obtained by Huppert and Rentzepis from luminescence measurements for the isomerization of the protonated Schiff base of retinal.

The calculated energy gaps at \( \theta = 90° \) are 3.1 \( C_9-C_{10} \), 13.5 \( C_{11}-C_{12} \), and 34.8 \( C_{13}-C_{14} \) kcal/mol, respectively. For RET-H⁺ 90° twisted around the \( C_9-C_{10} \) bond, the ground state is found to be a D structure (the N end positively charged) and the first excited state a Z structure (the C end positively charged). For RET-H⁺ 90° twisted around the \( C_{11}-C_{12} \) and \( C_{13}-C_{14} \) bonds, the Z structure is so strongly stabilized that it has become the ground state.

It follows from the energy curves that both the size of the energy barrier in S1 and the energy gap with S0 favor an isomerization around the \( C_9-C_{10} \) double bond for RET-H⁺. However, experiments for this compound show a preferred isomerization of the \( C_{11}-C_{12} \) double bond. This discrepancy probably raises from the fact that the influence of the solvent is not included in this calculation (vide supra). A solvent will increase the transition energy to the \( \text{B}^*_\text{S} \) state and, consequently, increase the energy gap for RET-H⁺ 90° twisted around the \( C_9-C_{10} \) double bond and decrease this value for RET-H⁺ 90° twisted around the \( C_{11}-C_{12} \) and \( C_{13}-C_{14} \) double bonds.

A comparison of the energy curves for the cis isomers (\( \theta = 0° \)) shows an additional element which directs the photoisomerization. Because of the steric hindrance between the methyl group at \( C_{13} \) and hydrogen atom at \( C_{14} \), the energy curve for the isomerization from 11-cis (\( \theta_1 = 0° \)) to all-trans (\( \theta_1 = 180° \)) is barrierless in the excited state. The calculated energy is underestimated (as is obvious from the energy difference of 9.3 kcal/mol between the 11-cis and the all-trans isomers) because the molecule was not optimized for the 11-cis isomer. No such steric hindrance is present for the 9-cis and 13-cis isomers so that this feature offers an additional reason for the efficient cis-to-trans isomerization in the 11-cis isomer of the protonated Schiff base of retinal.

It is generally accepted that the proton at the Schiff base of the retinylidene chromophore interacts with a negatively charged counterion. The presence of this negative charge is of great importance for the stability of the resonance structures of the twisted molecule. To demonstrate this, we calculated the energy curves for a rotation around the \( C_{9}-C_{10} \), the \( C_{11}-C_{12} \), and the \( C_{13}-C_{14} \) double bonds of RET-H⁺ with a negative charge fixed at a distance of 3 Å from the proton at the nitrogen atom in the all-trans conformation (see Scheme II). These calculations mimic the situation for bacteriorhodopsin. During the rotation of the double bonds, the negative point-charge was fixed at its initial position. The calculated energy gaps between S0 and S1 in the various orthogonal conformations are given in Table 1.

The effect of the negative point-charge is to stabilize the D structures (with the N end positively charged) and to destabilize the Z structures (with the C end positively charged). As a matter of course, this stabilization is more effectuated for small distances between the twisted molecule and the negative charge. This distance decreases going from the molecule 90° twisted around the \( C_9-C_{10} \) double bond to the molecule 90° twisted around the \( C_{13}-C_{14} \) double bond. Therefore, the effect of the negative charge is largest for this latter isomerization. The energy gap between S0 and S1 for RET-H⁺ 90° twisted around the \( C_{13}-C_{14} \) double bond

Table 1. Influence of External Point-Charges on the Energy Gap Between S0 and S1 for RET-H⁺ (1) 90° twisted around the \( C_9-C_{10} \), \( C_{11}-C_{12} \), and \( C_{13}-C_{14} \) Bonds, RET-H⁺ with a Negative Charge Fixed at 3 Å from the Proton at the Nitrogen Atom in the All-Trans Isomer (2), an Additional Negative Charge at 3 Å Above \( C_3 \) (3), and an Additional Positive Charge 3 Å above \( C_7 \) (4) (see Scheme II).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bond Configuration</th>
<th>Energy Gap S0-S1 (kcal/mol)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( C_9-C_{10} )</td>
<td>1.3 (Z) 13.5 (D) 34.8 (D)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( C_{11}-C_{12} )</td>
<td>6.1 (Z) 8.9 (D) 14.9 (D)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( C_{13}-C_{14} )</td>
<td>16.8 (D) 22.8 (D) 37.3 (D)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( C_{13}-C_{14} )</td>
<td>16.9 (Z) 4.1 (Z) 12.3 (D)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The energies are in kcal/mol. D and Z refer to the character of the 90° twisted molecule in the excited state (see text).
Cis–Trans Isomerization in Schiff Bases

The electron-deficient nitrogen atom causes a strong stabilization of the polarized structure of the 90° twisted molecule in the excited state, resulting in a decrease of the energy gap between the ground and excited state. When this stabilization is too strong, the polarized Z structure drops below the diradicalar D structure, thereby increasing the energy gap again. This energy gap is found to depend on the distance from the twisted bond to the nitrogen atom, which explains the intrinsic regioselectivity for cis–trans isomerization in free protonated Schiff bases.

Dynamical calculations on the isomerization of the double bonds in pentanimine–H⁺ by means of semiclassical trajectory calculations made it possible to evaluate explicitly the transition probability of the excited molecule to the ground state. This transition probability depends on the energy gap and the extent of the nonadiabatic coupling between the ground and excited state. The largest transition probability (0.30) was found for the central double bond in pentanimine–H⁺. The difference between the cis → trans and trans → cis isomerizations arises from the presence of an energy barrier on the potential energy curve for this latter reaction. This causes a number of molecules with low vibrational energies in the excited state not to reach the region of strong coupling. As a result, the quantum yield of this isomerization is smaller than for the reverse reaction.

From an inspection of the bond densities of pentanimine–H⁺ it follows that a simultaneous (bicycle pedal) rotation of the two double bonds should be energetically feasible. A calculation of the transition probability for this concerted motion shows that a radiationless transition is most likely to occur for a twist angle less than 90° so that the molecule will return to the initial conformation. However, a calculation of the potential energies and nonadiabatic couplings for the two-dimensional reaction surface of the two double bonds shows that a rotation around the central double bond can be assisted by a partial rotation of the other double bond. This mechanism may be important for the isomerization of the retinylidene chromophore in the confined environment of the protein.

Finally, we described the influence of external point-charges on the mechanism of cis–trans isomerization. Such external point-charge models have been proposed in literature to account for the opsin shift of various intermediates in the photocycles of rhodopsin and bacteriorhodopsin. Our calculations on a model for the retinylidene chromophore show that these point-charges also have a very important impact on the stability of the resonance structures of the twisted molecule and, therefore, on the efficiency of photoisomerization. From these calculations it follows that the primary step in the photoisomerization of bacteriorhodopsin can best be understood from an external point-charge model with a negative charge near the protonated nitrogen atom and an ion pair near the cyclohexene ring. This type of calculations can be very helpful in elucidating the mechanism of the strikingly efficient cis–trans isomerization in the retinylidene chromophore and in developing model systems for an experimental verification of this mechanism.

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