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► **To cite this version:**

Yuki Takegawa, Makoto Nakamura, Shin Nakamura, Takumi Noguchi, Julien Sellés, et al..  
New insights on ChlD1 function in Photosystem II from site-directed mutants of D1/T179 in  
*Thermosynechococcus elongatus*. *Biochimica biophysica acta (BBA) - Bioenergetics*, 2019, 1860,  
pp.297 - 309. 10.1016/j.bbabi.2019.01.008 . hal-03980604

**HAL Id: hal-03980604**

**<https://hal.science/hal-03980604>**

Submitted on 9 Feb 2023

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## New insights on Chl<sub>D1</sub> function in Photosystem II from site-directed mutants of D1/T179 in *Thermosynechococcus elongatus*



Yuki Takegawa<sup>a,1</sup>, Makoto Nakamura<sup>a,1</sup>, Shin Nakamura<sup>b</sup>, Takumi Noguchi<sup>b</sup>, Julien Sellés<sup>c</sup>, A. William Rutherford<sup>d</sup>, Alain Boussac<sup>e,\*</sup>, Miwa Sugiura<sup>a,f,\*\*</sup>

<sup>a</sup> Graduate School of Science and Technology, Ehime University, Bunkyo-cho, Matsuyama, Ehime 790-8577, Japan

<sup>b</sup> Division of Material Science, Graduate School of Science, Nagoya University, Furo-cho, Chikusa-ku, Nagoya, 464-8602, Japan

<sup>c</sup> Institut de Biologie Physico-Chimique, UMR CNRS 7141 and Sorbonne Université, 13 rue Pierre et Marie Curie, 75005 Paris, France

<sup>d</sup> Department of Life Sciences, Imperial College, London SW7 2AZ, United Kingdom

<sup>e</sup> I<sup>2</sup>BC, UMR CNRS 9198, CEA Saclay, 91191 Gif-sur-Yvette, France

<sup>f</sup> Proteo-Science Research Center, Ehime University, Bunkyo-cho, Matsuyama, Ehime 790-8577, Japan

### ARTICLE INFO

#### Keywords:

Photosystem II  
Reaction center  
Chl<sub>D1</sub>  
P<sub>680</sub>  
Electrochromic shifts

### ABSTRACT

The monomeric chlorophyll, Chl<sub>D1</sub>, which is located between the P<sub>D1</sub>P<sub>D2</sub> chlorophyll pair and the pheophytin, Pheo<sub>D1</sub>, is the longest wavelength chlorophyll in the heart of Photosystem II and is thought to be the primary electron donor. Its central Mg<sup>2+</sup> is liganded to a water molecule that is H-bonded to D1/T179. Here, two site-directed mutants, D1/T179H and D1/T179V, were made in the thermophilic cyanobacterium, *Thermosynechococcus elongatus*, and characterized by a range of biophysical techniques. The Mn<sub>4</sub>CaO<sub>5</sub> cluster in the water-splitting site is fully active in both mutants. Changes in thermoluminescence indicate that i) radiative recombination occurs via the repopulation of \*Chl<sub>D1</sub> itself; ii) non-radiative charge recombination reactions appeared to be faster in the T179H-PSII; and iii) the properties of P<sub>D1</sub>P<sub>D2</sub> were unaffected by this mutation, and consequently iv) the immediate precursor state of the radiative excited state is the Chl<sub>D1</sub><sup>+</sup>Pheo<sub>D1</sub><sup>-</sup> radical pair. Chlorophyll bleaching due to high intensity illumination correlated with the amount of <sup>1</sup>O<sub>2</sub> generated. Comparison of the bleaching spectra with the electrochromic shifts attributed to Chl<sub>D1</sub> upon Q<sub>A</sub><sup>-</sup> formation, indicates that in the T179H-PSII and in the WT\*3-PSII, the Chl<sub>D1</sub> itself is the chlorophyll that is first damaged by <sup>1</sup>O<sub>2</sub>, whereas in the T179V-PSII a more red chlorophyll is damaged, the identity of which is discussed. Thus, Chl<sub>D1</sub> appears to be one of the primary damage site in recombination-mediated photoinhibition. Finally, changes in the absorption of Chl<sub>D1</sub> very likely contribute to the well-known electrochromic shifts observed at ~430 nm during the S-state cycle.

### 1. Introduction

Oxygenic photosynthesis provides the main input of energy into biology. This process produces food, fibers and fossil fuels, and energizes the atmosphere with O<sub>2</sub>. Photosystem II (PSII), the water-oxidizing enzyme of the cyanobacteria, algae and higher plants is at the

heart of oxygenic photosynthesis. In cyanobacteria, the PSII complex comprises 17 trans-membrane and 3 extrinsic membrane proteins. These 20 subunits bind 35 chlorophylls, 2 pheophytins, 2 hemes, 1 non-heme iron, 2 plastoquinones (Q<sub>A</sub> and Q<sub>B</sub>), the Mn<sub>4</sub>CaO<sub>5</sub> cluster, 2 Cl<sup>-</sup>, 12 carotenoids and 25 lipids [1,2]. Sequential excitations of PSII allow the Mn<sub>4</sub>CaO<sub>5</sub> cluster to accumulate oxidizing equivalents. The

**Abbreviations:** Chl, chlorophyll; Chl<sub>D1</sub>/Chl<sub>D2</sub>, monomeric Chl on the D1 or D2 side, respectively; DCMU, 3-(3,4-dichlorophenyl)-1,1-dimethylurea; DMSO, dimethyl sulfoxide; EPR, electron paramagnetic resonance; FCCP, *p*-(trifluoromethoxy)-phenylhydrazine; FTIR, Fourier transform infrared; MES, 2-(*N*-morpholino) ethanesulfonic acid; P<sub>680</sub>, primary electron donor; P<sub>D1</sub> and P<sub>D2</sub>, individual Chl on the D1 or D2 side, respectively, which constitute a pair of Chl with partially overlapping aromatic rings; Pheo<sub>D1</sub> and Pheo<sub>D2</sub>, pheophytin on the D1 or D2 side, respectively; PPBQ, phenyl *p*-benzoquinone; PSII, Photosystem II; Q<sub>A</sub>, primary quinone acceptor; Q<sub>B</sub>, secondary quinone acceptor; TL, thermoluminescence; WT\*3, *T. elongatus* mutant strain containing only the *psbA3* gene, 43-H, *T. elongatus* mutant strain which has a His-tag on C-terminus of CP43

\* Corresponding author.

\*\* Correspondence to: M. Sugiura, Graduate School of Science and Technology, Ehime University, Bunkyo-cho, Matsuyama, Ehime 790-8577, Japan.

E-mail addresses: [alain.boussac@cea.fr](mailto:alain.boussac@cea.fr) (A. Boussac), [miwa.sugiura@ehime-u.ac.jp](mailto:miwa.sugiura@ehime-u.ac.jp) (M. Sugiura).

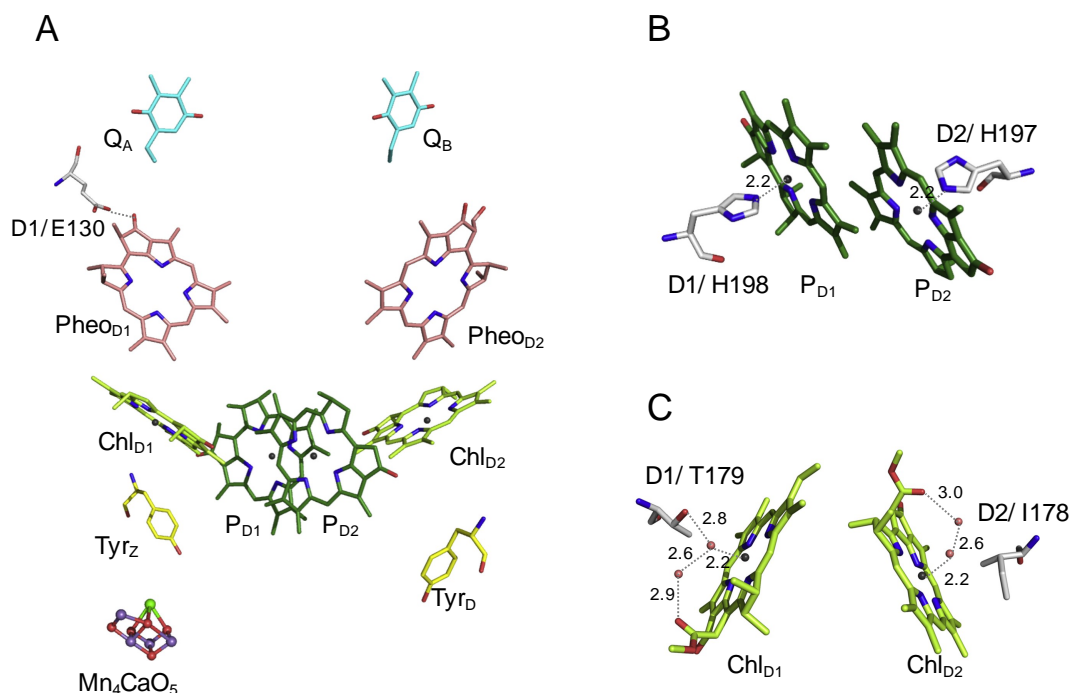
<sup>1</sup> These authors equally contributed to this work.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bbambio.2019.01.008>

Received 3 October 2018; Received in revised form 17 December 2018; Accepted 26 January 2019

Available online 29 January 2019

0005-2728/© 2019 Published by Elsevier B.V.



**Fig. 1.** Arrangement of cofactors for electron transfer in PSII including Pheo<sub>D1</sub> (A), structure of P<sub>D1</sub> and P<sub>D2</sub> with ligand amino acid residues (B), and structure around Chl<sub>D1</sub> and Chl<sub>D2</sub> (C). The figures were drawn with MacPyMOL with the A monomer in PDB 4UB6. D1/E130 in panel A was drawn by substituting E130 for Q130 in the PDB 4UB6 structure in which D1 is PsbA1.

Mn<sub>4</sub>CaO<sub>5</sub> cluster thus cycles through five redox states denoted S<sub>n</sub>, where *n* stands for the number of stored oxidizing equivalents [3,4]. Upon formation of the S<sub>4</sub>-state, two molecules of water are oxidized, the S<sub>0</sub>-state is regenerated and O<sub>2</sub> is released.

The conversion of solar energy into chemical energy typically involves the absorption of a photon by one of the chlorophylls in the antenna. The resulting excitation is transferred to the photochemical trap which absorbs close to 680 nm, P<sub>680</sub>, and which includes the four chlorophyll *a* molecules, P<sub>D1</sub>, P<sub>D2</sub>, Chl<sub>D1</sub>, Chl<sub>D2</sub> (Fig. 1A). The X-ray crystal structure at 1.9 Å resolution [1,2] shows that the ligands of the Chl pigments are not identical. Most of the chlorophylls bound to PSII have histidine ligands to their Mg<sup>2+</sup> ions, these include P<sub>D1</sub> and P<sub>D2</sub> with the D1/H198 and D2/H197, respectively, (Fig. 1B). The Chl<sub>D1</sub> and Chl<sub>D2</sub> are unusual in that they have water as ligands to their Mg<sup>2+</sup> ions (Fig. 1C). The structures around the water ligands of Chl<sub>D1</sub> and Chl<sub>D2</sub> however are not identical; the water ligand to Chl<sub>D1</sub> is hydrogen bonded to D1/T179, while the water ligand to Chl<sub>D2</sub> is not involved in H-bonding, with the residue corresponding to D1/T179 being D2/I178, which is unable to accept a H-bond (Fig. 1C).

A role for Chl<sub>D1</sub> as the primary donor was suggested in the 1980s based on evidence from comparative spectroscopy, reviewed in [5,6], and has gained support from spectroscopic studies of site-directed mutants [7–9] (see below) and from ultrafast spectroscopy [10–12]. Strong support was also provided by the recent finding that long-wavelength photochemistry can take place in chlorophyll *f*-containing PSII thanks to the presence of a single long-wavelength chlorophyll in the heart of the reaction center located at the position of Chl<sub>D1</sub> [5].

The involvement of the Chl<sub>D1</sub> and Chl<sub>D2</sub> in the charge separation process, reviewed in [6], was investigated by individually modifying their spectral properties in site-directed mutants. In a study of the D1/H198Q and D2/H197N site-directed mutants in *Synechocystis* PCC 6803 it was proposed that at temperatures below 77 K, Chl<sub>D1</sub> was a long-wavelength trap located at 684 nm, whereas at higher temperatures P<sub>D1</sub> progressively shared more of the excitation and thus becomes more involved in the charge separation [7]. In a further study, the D1/T179 residue, which is in the close vicinity of Chl<sub>D1</sub> (Fig. 1C), was replaced by

either a histidine or a glutamate [7,8]. A spectroscopic characterization of these mutants confirmed that the triplet state, produced upon charge recombination from <sup>3</sup>[P<sub>680</sub><sup>+</sup>Pheo<sup>−</sup>], was localized on Chl<sub>D1</sub> [7,8] as previously shown by EPR [13] and infrared spectroscopy [14]. The band at 673 nm, which mainly originates from P<sub>D1</sub> and which is bleached in the difference spectrum, was unaffected in the D1/T179H and D1/T179E mutants. In contrast, the electrochromic band-shift, with a positive peak at 679 nm and a negative peak at 683 nm in the wild type sample, was blue-shifted by 1 nm in the D1/T179E mutant and red-shifted by 2–3 nm in the D1/T179H mutant [8]. This band shift was therefore attributed to the Q<sub>Y</sub> band of Chl<sub>D1</sub>, which is electrochromically shifted in response to the formation of the P<sub>680</sub><sup>+</sup>Q<sub>A</sub><sup>−</sup> state. The red-shift of the absorbance spectrum of Chl<sub>D1</sub> in the D1/T179H mutant has been proposed to originate from an electronic polarizability of the π-system of the imidazole moiety of D1/H179 stabilizing the excited state of Chl<sub>D1</sub> [7].

It is widely agreed that the Chl<sub>D1</sub> has the lowest site energy of the core chlorophylls at helium temperature, e.g. [15] and references therein, and simulations are able to predict the spectral change in the D1/T179H mutant [16]. At room temperature, the excited state is more distributed on the six core pigments and it is predicted that \*Chl<sub>D1</sub> remains the longest wavelength species and thus the slightly preponderant state. In agreement with that, two kinetically distinct steps are observed in the charge separation process at 77 K, e.g. [11] and references therein. The fastest one occurring in ~1 to 5 ps time range attributed to the \*[Chl<sub>D1</sub>Pheo<sub>D1</sub>] → Chl<sub>D1</sub><sup>+</sup>Pheo<sub>D1</sub><sup>−</sup> reaction [11] (see [12] for work done at room temperature) whereas that occurring in 25–30 ps time range corresponds to the \*[P<sub>D1</sub>Chl<sub>D1</sub>] → P<sub>D1</sub><sup>+</sup>Chl<sub>D1</sub><sup>−</sup> reaction [11].

The non-radiative charge recombination process occurs *via* different routes (reviewed in [17–19]); *i*) the pathway involving the formation of the <sup>3</sup>Chl<sub>D1</sub> triplet state from the P<sub>680</sub><sup>+</sup>Pheo<sub>D1</sub><sup>−</sup> radical pair [20], *ii*) the direct and indirect routes, between P<sub>680</sub><sup>+</sup> and Q<sub>A</sub><sup>−</sup> [21,22]. In a small fraction of centers, the charge recombination occurs *via* the population of a luminescent state [21]. The luminescent state it thought to be shared over all the chlorophylls of PSII, see [23] for a recent discussion,

but the identity of the first excited state formed by the back reaction has received little attention from researchers and has remained relatively undefined. However, based on the super-luminescence of the chlorophyll *f*-containing PSII, it was recently suggested that  $^*Chl_{D1}$  is likely to be the luminescent state formed from recombination of the  $Chl_{D1}^+Pheo^-$  radical pair [5]. It was suggested that the  $^*Chl_{D1}$  would be the first excited state formed upon radiative recombination not only in the long wavelength variant PSII but also in normal PSII [5]. This suggestion has yet to be tested.

In order to obtain new insights on the involvement of  $Chl_{D1}$  in electron transfer processes and how the nature of the  $Chl_{D1}$  ligand may affect its properties, two site-directed mutants in the thermophilic cyanobacterium *Thermosynechococcus elongatus* have been designed. The first one was D1/T179H, in which the possibility is provided for the  $Mg^{2+}$  of  $Chl_{D1}$  to have a histidine as a ligand, as for most of the other chlorophylls. The second was D1/T179V, which would eliminate the possibility for the water that ligands the  $Mg^{2+}$  to donate a H-bond to the threonine, this would mean the liganding environment for  $Chl_{D1}$  would be similar to that of  $Chl_{D2}$  (Fig. 1C). These mutants, which were both fully active for  $O_2$  evolution, were characterized by a combination of techniques (EPR, FTIR, fluorescence and absorption spectroscopies at room temperature and 77 K, time-resolved UV–vis absorption spectroscopy, polarography and thermoluminescence) and several insights were gained concerning the primary reactions of PSII and also the initial sites of photodamage under high light.

## 2. Material and methods

### 2.1. Construction of the T179H and T179V mutants and Photosystem II preparation

The *T. elongatus* strain used was the  $\Delta psbA_1$ ,  $\Delta psbA_2$  deletion mutant [24], called WT\*3, constructed from the *T. elongatus* 43-H strain that had a His<sub>6</sub>-tag on the carboxy terminus of CP43 [25]. For the construction of the D1/T179H and D1/T179V site-directed mutants, the positions around +533 from the initial codon of *psbA\_3* ORF were substituted on a plasmid DNA in order to introduce the T179H and T179V substitutions and to create restriction sites for *Msc* I and *Bsa* I, respectively, by a Quick-Change Lightning Site-Directed Mutagenesis Kit (Agilent Technologies) as shown in Fig. 2A. After introduction of the plasmid DNA into the host cells by using a Gene Pulser (BioRad), mutant cells were selected from the cells on DTN agar plate containing 5  $\mu$ g mL<sup>-1</sup> of chloramphenicol, 6  $\mu$ g mL<sup>-1</sup> of gentamycin (Gm), and 40  $\mu$ g mL<sup>-1</sup> of kanamycin. Fig. 2C shows the results of the genomic DNA analyses around site-directed mutation of segregated cells. After PCR amplification of the mutated region by using a forward primer (Fw; 5'-CTACAACGGTGGCCCTACCAACTG-3') and a reverse primer (Rv; 5'-GCTGATACCCAGGGCAGTAAACCAGATGCC-3') (Fig. 2B), the PCR products were digested with *Msc* I or *Bsa* I for T179H and T179V, respectively. As shown in Fig. 2C, amplified a 554-bp DNA fragments (Fig. 2C, lanes 2 and 4) were completely digested with *Msc* I for separation into a 216 bp and a 338 bp or *Bsa* I for separation into a 215 bp and a 339 bp for T179H (lane 3) and T179V mutants (lane 5), respectively. Then, the genomic DNA sequence of the open reading frame of *psbA\_3* was confirmed by nucleotides sequencing by using a GenomeLab GeXP DNA sequencer (Beckman Coulter).

PSII purifications were achieved as previously described [26]. PSII were suspended in 1 M betaine, 15 mM CaCl<sub>2</sub>, 15 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 40 mM MES, pH 6.5 then frozen in liquid nitrogen until use.

### 2.2. SDS-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis

Purified PSII (8  $\mu$ g Chl each) suspended in 40 mM MES/NaOH (pH 6.5), 10 mM NaCl, 10 mM CaCl<sub>2</sub>, 10 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 0.03% *n*-dodecyl- $\beta$ -D-

maltoside were solubilized with 2% lithium laurylsulfate, and then analyzed by an SDS-polyacrylamide 16–22% gradient gel electrophoresis containing 7.5 M urea as previously described [27].

### 2.3. Oxygen evolution and consumption

Oxygen evolution was measured under continuous illumination at 25 °C by polarography using a Clark-type oxygen electrode (Hansatech) with saturating white light through infrared and water filters. For  $O_2$  evolution, the initial activity was measured in the presence of 0.5 mM 2,6-dichloro-*p*-benzoquinone, dissolved in dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO), as an electron acceptor. The medium used contained 20 mM MES, 15 mM CaCl<sub>2</sub>, 15 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 20 mM NaCl, pH 6.5.

### 2.4. Singlet oxygen production

Singlet oxygen production was detected by histidine mediated oxygen uptake measurements under high light illumination conditions (20,000  $\mu$ mol photons m<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>) at 25 °C, as previously described in [28,29]. The activity was measured in 20 mM MES buffer (pH 6.5) containing 15 mM CaCl<sub>2</sub>, 15 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 20 mM NaCl in the presence of 10 mM L-histidine and 25  $\mu$ M DCMU (3-(3,4-dichlorophenyl)-1,1-dimethylurea) at chlorophyll concentration of 5  $\mu$ g mL<sup>-1</sup> by using a Clark-type oxygen electrode (Hansatech).

### 2.5. EPR spectroscopy

X-band cw-EPR spectra were recorded with a Bruker Elexsys 500 X-band spectrometer equipped with a standard ER 4102 (Bruker) X-band resonator, a Bruker teslameter, an Oxford Instruments cryostat (ESR 900) and an Oxford ITC504 temperature controller. The S<sub>2</sub> multiline state was induced by illumination with an 800 W tungsten lamp filtered by water and infrared cut-off filters. Illuminations for approximately 5–10 s at temperatures close to 198 K in a non-silvered Dewar in ethanol cooled with dry ice. The triplet state was measured under illumination at 4.2 K inside the EPR cavity. The illumination was done with a low voltage halogen lamp (Philips GX5.3, 24 V, 250 W) filtered by water and infrared cut-off filters.

PSII samples were loaded in the dark into quartz EPR tubes at 1.1 mg of Chl mL<sup>-1</sup> and dark-adapted for 1 h at room temperature. The samples were then synchronized in the S<sub>1</sub>-state with one pre-flash [30]. Flash illumination at room temperature was provided by a neodymium:yttrium–aluminum garnet (Nd:YAG) laser (532 nm, 550 mJ, 8 ns Spectra Physics GCR-230-10). After a further 1 h dark-adaptation at room temperature the samples were frozen in the dark to 198 K in a dry-ice/ethanol bath and then transferred into liquid N<sub>2</sub>, (77 K). Prior to recording the spectra the samples were degassed at 198 K.

### 2.6. Thermoluminescence measurements

Thermoluminescence (TL) glow curves were measured with a lab-built apparatus [31,32]. Purified PSII were diluted to 10  $\mu$ g Chl mL<sup>-1</sup> in 1 M betaine, 40 mM MES, 15 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 15 mM CaCl<sub>2</sub>, pH 6.5 and then dark-adapted for 1 h at room temperature before the addition of 10  $\mu$ M DCMU. Flash illumination was done at 0 °C by using a saturating xenon flash. One second after the flash illumination, the samples were heated at the constant heating rate 0.7 °C/s and TL emission was detected. It was verified that after the dilution the PSII samples had the same OD at 673 nm.

### 2.7. UV–visible time-resolved absorption change spectroscopy

Absorption changes measurements were measured with a lab-built spectrophotometer [33], in which the absorption changes are sampled





## 2.9. 77 K Fluorescence spectra

Fluorescence emission spectra of cells were recorded at  $\sim 77$  K using a Fluorescence spectrophotometer F-2700 (Hitachi High Tech. Co., Japan) as previously described in [34]. PSII samples were suspended in 20 mM MES (pH6.5) containing 20 mM NaCl and 200 mM mannitol at 5  $\mu\text{g Chl mL}^{-1}$ . The PSII were illuminated in liquid  $\text{N}_2$  at 440 nm with a resolution of 20 nm. The fluorescence emission spectra were measured with the scan speed of 300  $\text{nm min}^{-1}$  with a resolution of 2.5 nm.

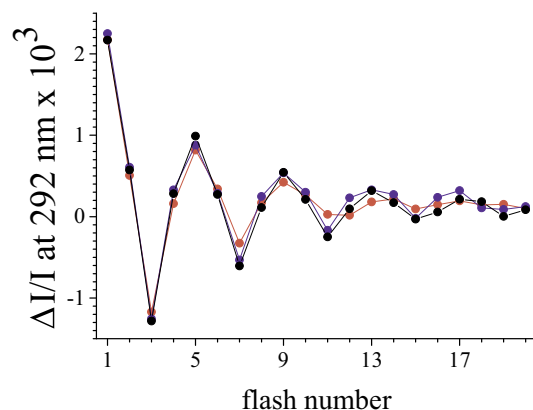
## 2.10. FTIR measurements

Light-induced  $\text{P}_{680}^+/\text{P}_{680}$  FTIR difference spectra were measured using a Bruker VERTEX 80 spectrophotometer following the method described previously [35]. An aliquot of the PSII suspension was mixed with 1  $\mu\text{L}$  of 500 mM potassium ferricyanide and 1  $\mu\text{L}$  of 10 mM SiMo on a  $\text{CaF}_2$  plate, lightly dried under  $\text{N}_2$  gas flow, and covered with another  $\text{CaF}_2$  plate with 0.7  $\mu\text{L}$  of water. The sample temperature was adjusted to 265 K in a cryostat (Oxford, model DN1704). Single-beam spectra with 1-s scans were recorded under dark and during illumination, and the measurement was repeated 5000, 4000, and 2000 times for the WT\*3-PSII, T179H-PSII, and T179V-PSII samples, respectively.

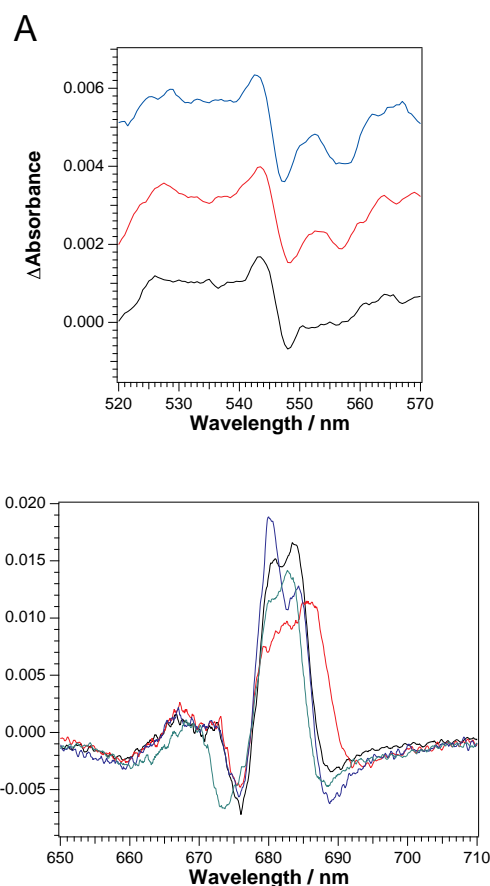
## 3. Results

### 3.1. Intactness of the mutant PSII

The *T. elongatus* D1/T179H and D1/T179V mutant cells were able to grow photo-autotrophically under moderate light intensity ( $\sim 50$   $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ), although the T179V mutant cells were more sensitive to very high light conditions ( $\sim 200$   $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ), see Fig. S1. Active PSII could be purified from both types of mutant cells. The oxygen evolution activity of isolated PSII from WT\*3, T179H and T179V was 3500  $\mu\text{mol O}_2 (\text{mg Chl})^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$ ,  $\sim 3500$   $\mu\text{mol O}_2 (\text{mg Chl})^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$ , and  $\sim 2500$   $\mu\text{mol O}_2 (\text{mg Chl})^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$ , respectively. No loss of subunits in isolated PSII in either of the mutants was detected by SDS-polyacrylamide electrophoresis (not shown). Fig. 3 shows the amplitude of the absorption changes at 292 nm induced by each flash of a sequence given to dark-adapted samples and recorded in the WT\*3-PSII (black points), the T179H-PSII (red points) and the T179V-PSII (blue points). Measurements were done 100 ms after the flashes, i.e. after the reduction of  $\text{Tyr}_Z$  by the  $\text{Mn}_4\text{CaO}_5$  cluster was complete [36,37]. This wavelength corresponds to an isosbestic point for



**Fig. 3.** Sequence of the amplitude of the absorption changes at 292 nm using a series of saturating flashes (spaced 300 ms apart) and given to WT\*3-PSII (black trace), T179H-PSII (red trace) and T179V-PSII (blue trace). The samples ( $[\text{Chl}] = 25$   $\mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ ) were dark-adapted for 1 h at room temperature before the addition of 100  $\mu\text{M}$  PPBQ dissolved in DMSO. The measurements were done 100 ms after each flash.



**Fig. 4.** Light-minus-dark difference absorption spectra recorded at 77 K. After the recording of the spectrum on the dark-adapted samples illumination at 77 K was given before the recording of the light spectrum on WT\*3-PSII (black spectrum), T179H-PSII (red spectrum), T179V-PSII (blue spectrum) and H198Q-PSII (green spectrum in Panel B). Panel A shows the spectral region including the C-550 band-shift and the  $\alpha$ -band of  $\text{Cytb}_{559}$ . Panel B shows the spectral region including the reaction  $\text{Q}_V$  electrochromisms. The light-minus-dark spectrum in H198Q-PSII was multiplied by a factor 1.3 to normalize its amplitude to the same amount of  $\text{Q}_A^-$  as in the 3 other samples. Indeed, the amplitude of the C-550 band-shift was 1.3 times smaller in this sample.

$\text{PPBQ}^-/\text{PPBQ}$ , the added electron acceptor, and is in a spectral region where the absorption of the  $\text{Mn}_4\text{CaO}_5$  cluster depends on the  $\text{S}_n$ -states [37]. No significant differences in the oscillating pattern are observed between the two PSII mutants and the WT\*3-PSII thus confirming that both mutants are fully active.

In *Synechocystis* 6803, the absorption spectrum at  $\sim 77$  K of the T179H-PSII mutant in the  $\text{Q}_V$  region has been found to be slightly modified with a decrease in the absorption around 682 nm [8]. A similar decrease at 682 nm was also observed in the *T. elongatus* T179H mutant (see Fig. S2A). Fig. 4 shows the effect of a continuous illumination at  $\sim 77$  K in WT\*3-PSII, T179V-PSII and T179H-PSII. Under these conditions, the side-path donors expected to be oxidized are either Car,  $\text{Chl}_Z$  or  $\text{Cytb}_{559}$  and the dominant reduced electron acceptor formed is  $\text{Q}_A^-$ , e.g. [38–40]. The light-minus-dark absorption spectra recorded at  $\sim 77$  K from 350 nm to 800 nm is shown in Fig. S2B. Panels A and B in Fig. 4 shows the light-minus-dark absorption spectra with an expanded wavelength scale in two specific regions. Panel A (see also Fig. S3) shows the spectral region from 520 nm to 570 nm, which includes the electrochromic blue shift of the  $\text{Pheo}_{D1}$   $\text{Q}_X$  absorption induced by the formation of  $\text{Q}_A^-$  and known as the C-550 shift. This band-shift was centered at  $\sim 547$  nm in the 3 samples, a wavelength that is characteristic of the presence of the hydrogen bond from D1/E130 to the  $^{13}$ -keto group of  $\text{Pheo}_{D1}$  which occurs when D1 is PsbA3

in WT\*3-PSII (Fig. 1A), e.g. [26,41] and references therein. A bleaching centered at 557–558 nm was also observed in the 3 samples. This corresponds to the  $\alpha$ -band of Cyt<sub>b</sub><sub>559</sub> which decreased in intensity upon the oxidation of the cytochrome as expected upon an illumination at 77 K. Data in Fig. S3 shows a more oxidation of Cyt<sub>b</sub><sub>559</sub> in both mutants under the 77 K continuous illumination.

Panel B in Fig. 4 shows the reaction center Q<sub>Y</sub> electrochromisms upon Q<sub>A</sub><sup>-</sup> reduction [41]. One band shift (the red-shift) was centered at ~678 nm in the WT\*3-PSII. This band shift mainly originates from the effect of the formation of Q<sub>A</sub><sup>-</sup> on the absorption of the P<sub>D1</sub>P<sub>D2</sub> pair in the ground state [42,43]. This band shift was not significantly modified in the D1/T179 mutants thus showing that the mutations of T179 did not affect the absorption of P<sub>D1</sub>P<sub>D2</sub>. The second band shift (a blue-shift) corresponds to the change in the absorption of Chl<sub>D1</sub> upon Q<sub>A</sub><sup>-</sup> formation. This band shift was centered at ~686 nm in WT\*3-PSII and was red-shifted by ~3 nm to ~689 nm in the T179H-PSII. The red-shift of this band shift is very similar to that observed upon the formation of (P<sub>D1</sub>P<sub>D2</sub>)<sup>+</sup>Q<sub>A</sub><sup>-</sup> in *Synechocystis* 6803 [8,9] where a shift from 682 nm to ~685 nm was reported. In contrast, in the T179V-PSII, the band shift attributed to Chl<sub>D1</sub> seemed to be not significantly modified. Interestingly, a blue-shift of the negative part of the differential signal at 676–677 nm was observed in the D1/H198Q mutant upon Q<sub>A</sub><sup>-</sup> formation (green spectrum). A blue shift of the bleaching corresponding to the P<sup>+</sup> formation was also observed in such a mutant [7,24].

### 3.2. Time-resolved flash-induced absorption changes in the Soret region

In the present work, the effect of the mutations on the P<sub>680</sub><sup>+</sup>Q<sub>A</sub><sup>-</sup> - minus-P<sub>680</sub>Q<sub>A</sub> difference spectrum was also measured at room temperature, Fig. 5, by recording the time-resolved flash-induced absorption changes around 430 nm. In this spectral region, the redox changes of several species, such as the Chls, cytochromes, Tyr<sub>Z</sub> and Q<sub>A</sub>, give rise to absorption changes. The most prominent of these, however, is a strong Soret band bleaching in the 433 nm region associated with the formation of P<sub>680</sub><sup>+</sup>. In Fig. 5, the absorption changes were measured 5 ns after the first flash given to dark-adapted PSII *i.e.* in the S<sub>1</sub>-state, and therefore corresponded to the S<sub>1</sub>Tyr<sub>Z</sub>P<sub>680</sub>Q<sub>A</sub> to S<sub>1</sub>Tyr<sub>Z</sub>P<sub>680</sub><sup>+</sup>Q<sub>A</sub><sup>-</sup> transition. Although no major differences were detected between the WT\*3-PSII and the two mutants at room temperature, the spectra appeared very slightly broader in the two mutants (~1 nm), with a broadening to the red in the T179H-PSII and to the blue in the T179V-PSII. The same results were obtained after averaging the spectra recorded on the first four flashes (see Fig. S4).

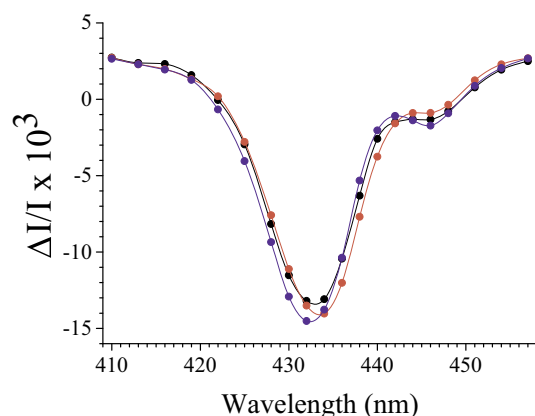


Fig. 5. Flash-induced absorption changes measured in WT\*3-PSII (black trace), T179H-PSII (red trace) and T179V-PSII (blue trace) 5 ns after the first flash given on dark-adapted PSII. Upon dark-adaptation for 1 h at room temperature, 100  $\mu$ M PPBQ (dissolved in DMSO) was added to the samples with [Chl] = 25  $\mu$ g mL<sup>-1</sup>.

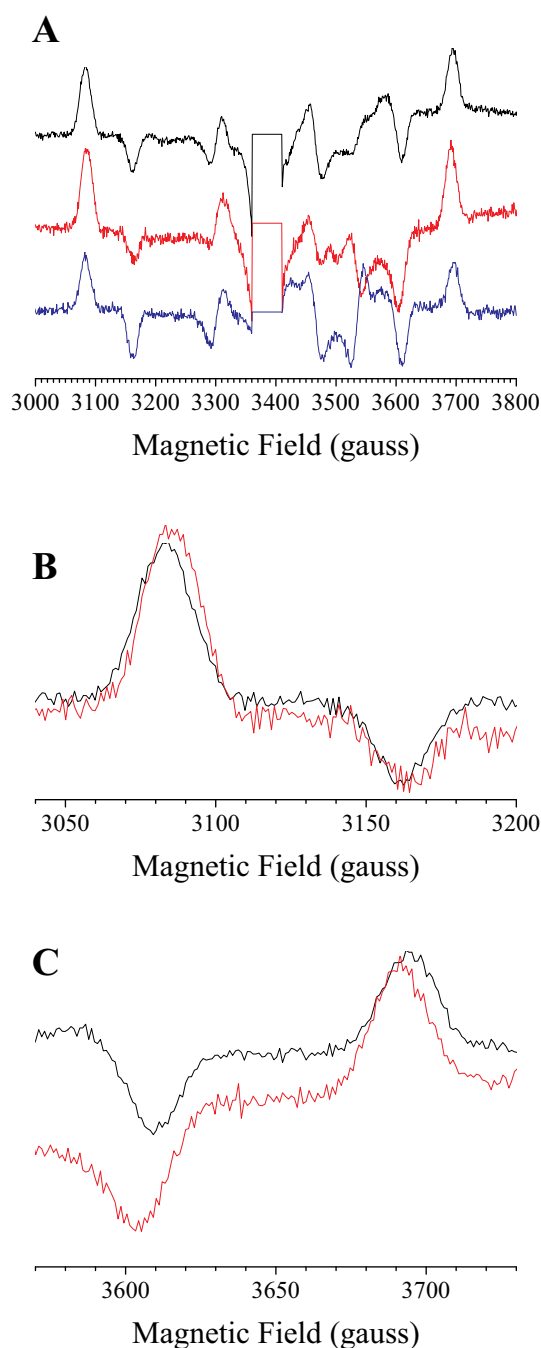
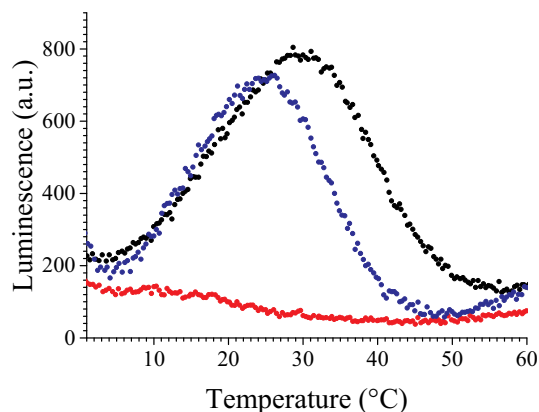


Fig. 6. Triplet EPR signals in WT\*3-PSII (black trace), T179H-PSII (red trace) and T179V-PSII (blue trace). The samples were pretreated with 40 mM dithionite and illumination at room temperature followed by dark adaptation before freezing [47,48]. Panel A shows the full spectra and Panels B and C show the external lines with an expanded magnetic field scale in WT\*3-PSII (black trace) and T179H-PSII (red trace). The spectra are light-minus-dark-spectra recorded at 4.2 K under illumination and in the dark after the illumination. Instrument settings: modulation amplitude, 25 G; microwave power, 63  $\mu$ W; microwave frequency, 9.4 GHz; modulation frequency, 100 kHz. The saturated radical signal centered at ~3385 gauss has been deleted.

Fig. 6A shows the triplet EPR signal [20] known to be localized on Chl<sub>D1</sub> [13,14]. The difference spectra are the light spectra measured under continuous illumination at 4 K minus the spectra recorded in the dark after the illumination. The triplet signal has the same spin polarization in the two mutants when compared to the WT\*3-PSII. The extra signal present in all samples at around 3550 gauss does not arise from

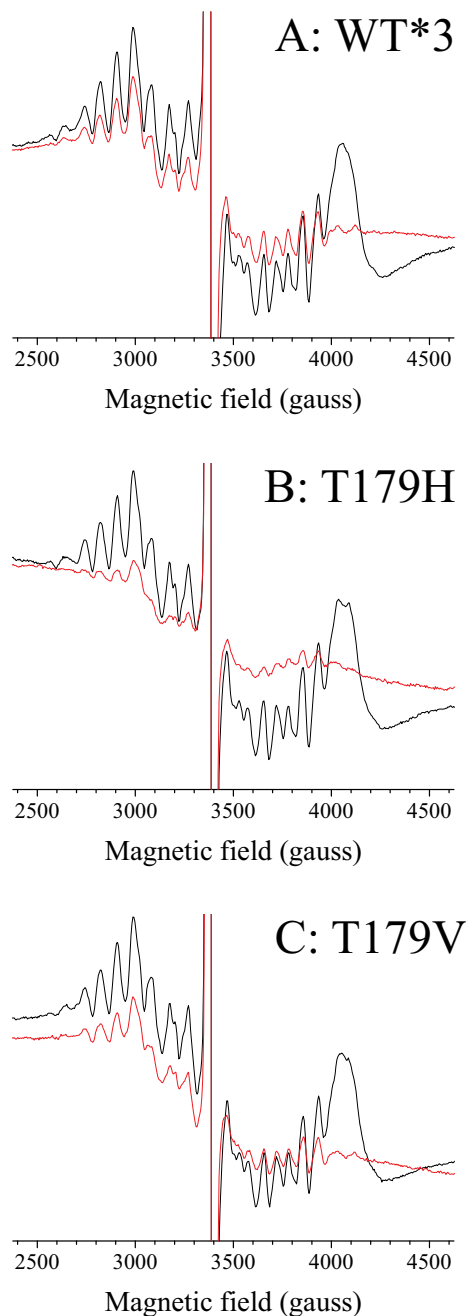


**Fig. 7.** Thermoluminescence glow curves from  $S_2Q_A^-$ /DCMU charge recombination measured after one flash given at 0 °C in WT\*3-PSII (black trace), T179H-PSII (red trace) and T179V-PSII (blue trace). The samples were previously dark-adapted at room temperature for 1 h before the addition of DCMU and being loaded into the cuvette and illuminated. The heating rate was 0.7 °C/s.

the triplet signal. This unidentified EPR signal is often detected in the His-tag PSII in the presence of a high amount of dithionite as is the case here [44] but was also detected in PSII from *Synechocystis* 6803 which had no His<sub>6</sub>-tag [45]. Fig. 6B and C show the external resonances with an expanded magnetic field scale. Although the triplet EPR signal is not expected to be very sensitive to the environment of the  $^3\text{Chl}$  species, e.g. [20,45–48], the spectral changes detected in Fig. 6 show that the modifications in the environment of the  $^3\text{Chl}_{D1}$  in the T179H-PSII mutant became detectable with the total width of the signal smaller by ~10 gauss. This narrowing could reflect a change from water to His as the  $\text{Chl}_{D1}$  ligand in the D1/T179H mutant. Indeed, the  $^3\text{P}_{700}$  EPR signal is slightly narrower than the  $^3\text{Chl}_{D1}$  EPR signal [49], and  $\text{P}_{700}$  has His ligands [50]. The T179V mutant seems to have a different proportionality for the Z peaks compared to the Y and X peaks. This could indicate a change in the relative lifetimes of the triplet sublevels: either the “Z” sublevel got faster or the “X” and “Y” sublevels got slower.

The intactness of the  $\text{Mn}_4\text{CaO}_5$  cluster in the T179H-PSII and T179V-PSII allowed us to study the charge recombination process by thermoluminescence in these mutants. Fig. 7 shows the TL curves, in the presence of DCMU, resulting from the  $S_2Q_A^-$  charge recombination recorded in WT\*3-PSII (black curve), T179H-PSII (red curve) and T179V-PSII (blue curve). In the WT\*3-PSII the peak was at 31 °C. In the T179V-PSII, the peak temperature was decreased to 24 °C with a slight decrease in the area. In the T179H-PSII, the peak of the TL band was further down shifted to ~14 °C with a dramatic decrease of the area. The small amplitude of the TL curve in the T179H-PSII was the reason to use a fast heating rate in this study, i.e. 0.7 °C/s. Indeed, with slower heating rates the signal became undetectable. As a consequence of this high heating rate, the peaks appeared at temperatures higher than those generally reported for the  $S_2Q_A^-$ /DCMU charge recombination in *T. elongatus* [24,26].

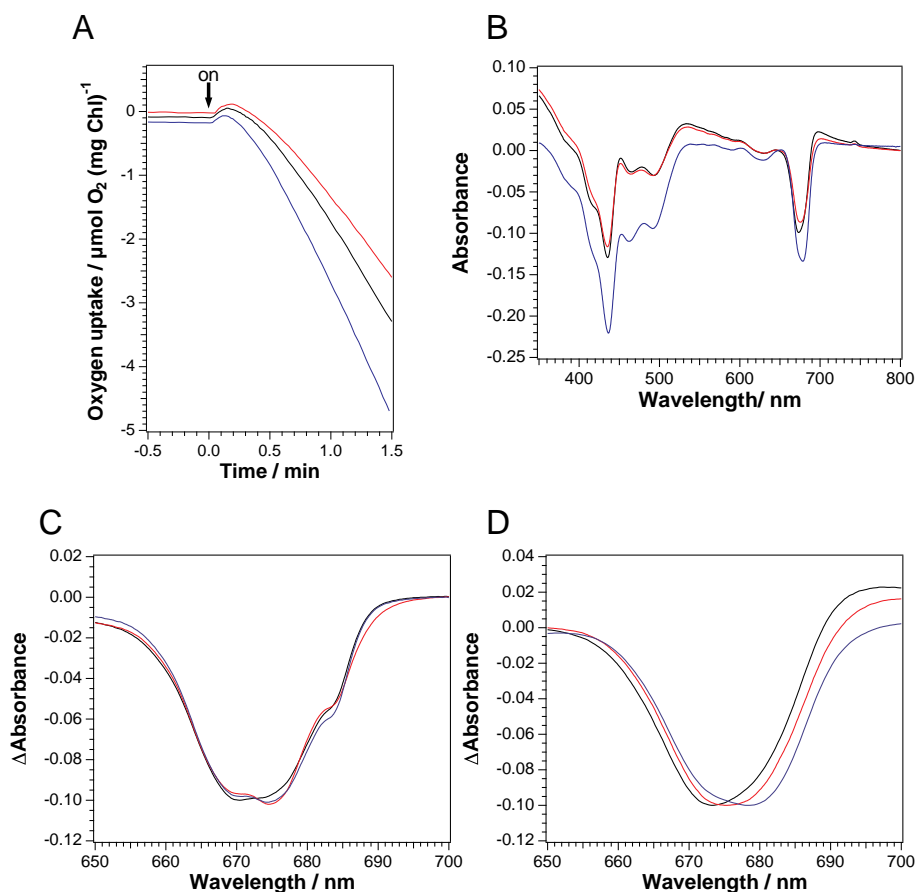
A change in the energy level of the radical pairs populated during the charge recombination process can be tested for by looking at the charge recombination rates which mainly depend on the direct and indirect routes, involving either  $\text{P}_{D1}^+$  or  $\text{Chl}_{D1}^+$ . Fig. 8 shows the low spin,  $S = 1/2$ ,  $S_2$  multiline EPR signal recorded after an illumination at 200 K given to WT\*3-PSII (panel A), T179H-PSII (Panel B) and T179V-PSII (Panel C). The spectra shown in black are the light-minus-dark spectra recorded immediately after the illumination at 200 K. The vertical scales in the 3 panels are identical, which makes the amplitude of the spectra comparable. A similar amount of  $S_2$  was induced in the 3 samples since no high-spin  $S_2$  signals were detected in any of the 3 samples in the conditions used here (not shown). The amplitude of the



**Fig. 8.** EPR spectra recorded in WT\*3-PSII (Panel A), T179H-PSII (Panel B) and T179V-PSII (Panel C). Spectra were recorded either after white light illumination at 198 K (dark spectra) or after a further dark period of 5 min at room temperature following the illumination at 198 K (red spectra).  $[\text{Chl}] = 1.1 \text{ mg mL}^{-1}$ . Instrument settings: Temperature, 8.6 K; modulation amplitude, 25 G; microwave power, 20 mW; microwave frequency, 9.4 GHz; modulation frequency, 100 kHz. The saturated signal centered at ~3385 gauss originated from  $\text{Ty}_D^{\bullet}$ .

$Q_A^- \text{Fe}^{2+} Q_B^-$  signal at  $g = 1.66$  (~4000–4200 gauss) [51–53] induced by the 200 K illumination in the absence of an added electron acceptor was also similar in the 3 samples thus showing that the amount of  $Q_A \text{Fe}^{2+} Q_B^-$  prior to the illumination was similar. The addition of DCMU in the dark-adapted PSII mutants was therefore not expected to result in a different proportion of closed centers in the  $Q_A^- \text{Fe}^{2+}$ /DCMU state prior to the flash illumination in the TL experiment reported above. The spectra in red are the light-minus-dark spectra for which the light spectra were recorded after a further dark period of 5 min at





**Fig. 9.** Panel A:  $O_2$  consumption measured under illumination at  $20,000 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  in the presence of  $10 \text{ mM l-histidine}$  and  $25 \mu\text{M DCMU}$  with WT\*3-PSII (black trace), T179H-PSII (red trace) and T179V-PSII (blue trace). The arrow indicates the starting point of light irradiation. The data are the average of 3 independent measurements. Panel B: difference spectra measured at room temperature in WT\*3-PSII (black spectrum), T179H-PSII (red spectrum) and T179V-PSII (blue spectrum) after *minus*-before high light illumination given at  $45^\circ\text{C}$  with a light intensity of  $\sim 500 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ . Panel C: difference spectra between 650 and 700 nm measured at 77 K in WT\*3-PSII (black spectrum), T179H-PSII (red spectrum) and T179V-PSII (blue spectrum) after *minus*-before high light illumination. The PSII samples were arbitrarily normalized to the same amplitude at 673 nm. Panel D: Difference spectra “after-*minus*-before” high light illumination measured at room temperature in WT\*3-PSII (black trace), T179H-PSII (red trace) and T179V-PSII (blue trace). The spectra were arbitrarily scaled to the same amplitude.

$\sim 20$ – $22^\circ\text{C}$  following the illumination at 200 K. In WT\*3-PSII, approximately 60–70% of the multiline was still detected after the 5 min at room temperature, whereas in the T179V-PSII and T179H-PSII less than 40% and 10%, respectively, were detected. The TL signal originating for the  $S_3Q_B^-$  charge recombination was also monitored after two flashes (Fig. S5) with similar effects of the mutations on the peak temperature and TL amplitude to those seen in Fig. 7. Upon a further dark-period of 5 min following the 2 flash illumination, the TL signal was smaller in the mutants becoming almost undetectable in the T179H-PSII. The results of these experiments are consistent with the more efficient non-radiative charge recombination in the two mutants, particularly in the T179H-PSII.

The ability of the mutants with modified Chl<sub>D1</sub> properties to evolve  $O_2$  prompted us to study to what extent the mutations may affect the production of reactive oxygen species, in particular the singlet  $^1O_2$  known to be formed by the reaction of  $^3O_2$  with  $^3Chl_{D1}$ . By using the protocol described by Rehman et al. [28] the data in Fig. 9A shows that under the high light illumination used in this study, the  $^3O_2$  consumption that is assumed to be proportional to the production of  $^1O_2$  [28,29], was  $163 \mu\text{mol (mg Chl)}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$ ,  $148 \mu\text{mol (mg Chl)}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$  and  $227 \mu\text{mol (mg Chl)}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$  in WT\*3, T179H and T179V, respectively. Therefore, the  $^1O_2$  release under the high light illumination was decreased by  $\sim 10\%$  in the T179H-PSII and enhanced by  $\sim 40\%$  in the T179V-PSII. Panel B in Fig. 9 shows that under high light illumination the chlorophyll bleaching was also slightly larger in the T179V-PSII and slightly smaller in the T179H-PSII. This result suggests that the bleaching could be, at least in part, correlated to the amount of  $^1O_2$  produced. Fig. 9C and D show the difference spectra “after-*minus*-before” room temperature high light illumination, measured at 77 K and room temperature, respectively. They show the bleached species with

an expanded scale in the  $Q_Y$  region of Chl  $a$  (all spectra in Panels C and D have been normalized to the same amplitude). In both mutants the red-shift of the spectra indicates that some of the bleached chlorophyll (s) exhibit a spectrum slightly red-shifted compared to the bleached Chl in the WT\*3-PSII. By comparison with the amplitude of the bleaching in WT\*3-PSII, the difference spectra appeared slightly broader and slightly bigger above 673 nm, particularly in the T179V-PSII in which the shoulder at 683.5 nm seemed more pronounced.

### 3.3. Fluorescence spectra at 77 K

At 77 K, the fluorescence emission at 695 nm has been proposed to arise from the longest wavelength CP47 chlorophyll, whereas the emission at 685 nm has been assigned to arise from chlorophyll(s) absorbing at 683 nm in CP47 and CP43, which transfer excitation slowly to the photochemical heart of the reaction center [54]. Fig. 10 shows that the fluorescence spectra at  $\sim 77 \text{ K}$  were also affected in the two mutants studied here with a shift of the main peak from 686.5 nm in WT\*3-PSII to 687.5 nm in T179H-PSII and an increase in the fluorescence at  $\sim 695 \text{ nm}$  in the T179H-PSII and a decreased 695 nm fluorescence in the T179V-PSII.

### 3.4. Electrochromism in the Soret region

The oxidation/reduction and protonation/deprotonation reactions on the electron donor side of PSII are also known to change the electrostatic environment of the chlorophylls, shifting their absorption spectra with the size and direction of the shifts depending on the distance and orientation of the chlorophyll relative to the location of the charge [37,55,56]. In plant PSII, electrochromic shifts in the blue

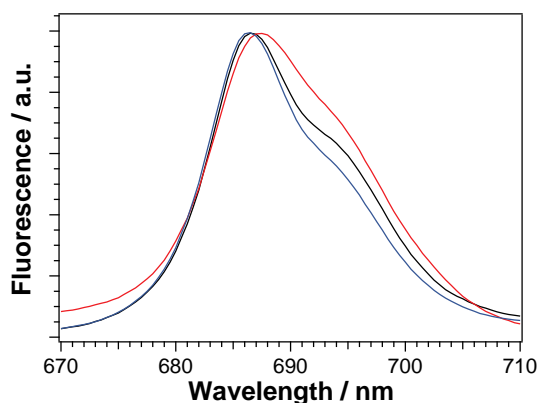


Fig. 10. Fluorescence spectra recorded at 77 K in WT\*3-PSII (black trace), T179H-PSII (red trace) and T179V-PSII (blue trace). The wavelength of the light for the fluorescence excitation was 440 nm.

region of the chlorophyll spectrum and their pH dependence have been reported for the  $S_1$  to  $S_2$ ,  $S_2$  to  $S_3$  and  $S_0$  to  $S_1$  transitions [37,55] and, from the positions of the peaks and troughs of the electrochromic shifts, it has been found that the amplitude of the 428 nm-*minus*-440 nm in a flash sequence oscillated with a period of four. The identity of the chlorophyll(s) sensitive to the redox state of the  $Mn_4CaO_5$  cluster however remains to be determined.

Panel A in Fig. 11 shows the difference spectra induced by each of the first 6 flashes given to dark-adapted WT\*3-PSII. These spectra recorded 100 ms after the flashes, *i.e.* when only the charge on the  $Mn_4CaO_5$  cluster contributes, are comparable to those recorded in plant PSII [37]. Panel B in Fig. 11 shows the amplitude of the difference, 428 nm-*minus*-440 nm, after each flash of a sequence given to dark-adapted samples and recorded in the WT\*3-PSII (black), in the T179H-PSII (red) and in the T179V-PSII (blue). As shown in Fig. 3 for the measurements at 292 nm, the oscillations with a period of four are clearly detectable at least until the 20<sup>th</sup> flash and no significant differences in the oscillating pattern were observed between the two PSII mutants and the WT\*3-PSII except for the first flash.

In the work done on plant PSII [37,55] the spectra were recorded in the presence of carbonyl cyanide *p*-(trifluoromethoxy)-phenylhydrazone (FCCP), which is an accelerator of the deactivation of the S-states [37]. The presence of FCCP allowed several sequences on the same sample to be recorded by shortening the duration of a complete dark-adaptation. Consequently, in the published work [37,55] the first flash data contained no or smaller contributions from centers that remain in  $S_1$  after the first flash (*i.e.* from either  $S_1Tyr_D \rightarrow S_2Tyr_D \rightarrow S_1Tyr_D$  or the less likely [57]  $S_0Tyr_D \rightarrow S_1Tyr_D$  transitions). Note that these reactions are also eliminated by the pre-flash protocol in the EPR experiments reported above. The protocol using FCCP in plant PSII was prone to complications due to secondary effects and much time and effort was needed to avoid them [37,55], thus the use of FCCP was avoided in the present work on *T. elongatus*. Moreover, although the signal on the first flash in Panel B of Fig. 11 differs in the mutants when compared to the WT\*3-PSII in this spectral region, the similar amplitude of the oscillations on the following flashes shows that the spectral difference was mainly limited to the first flash as previously observed [37].

Panel C in Fig. 11 shows the difference spectra recorded on the third flash, *i.e.* in the transition in which the electrostatic constraints are relaxed since the enzyme cycle has returned to the lowest redox state ( $S_0$ ) in the majority of centers. The black spectrum was recorded in WT\*3-PSII, the red spectrum in T179H-PSII and the blue spectrum in T179V-PSII. Two observations can be made: *i*) in WT\*3-PSII, the spectrum very likely contained two spectral components, and *ii*) the difference spectra in the two mutants were similar and slightly differed from that in WT\*3-PSII.

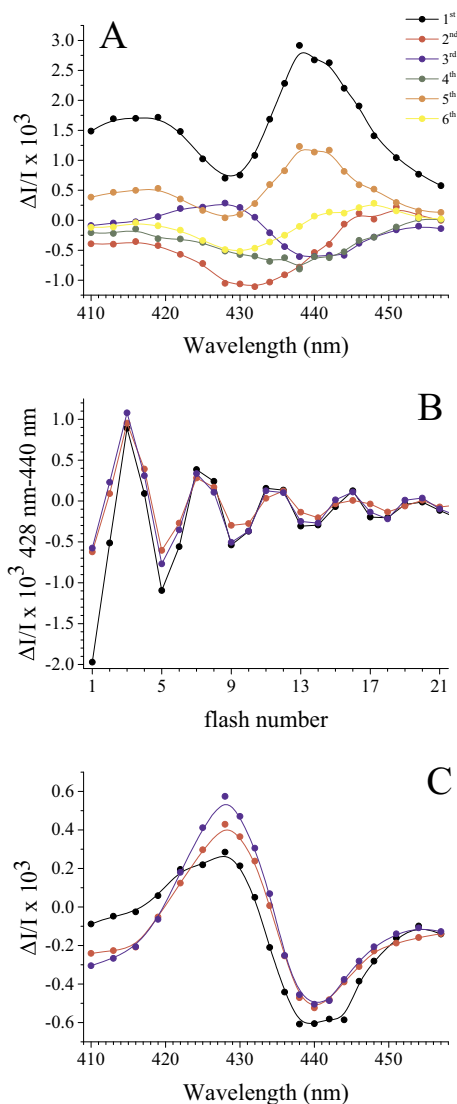


Fig. 11. Panel A: Flash-induced absorption changes measured 100 ms after each of the first 6 flashes given to dark-adapted WT\*3-PSII. Panel B: Sequence of the amplitude of the absorption changes 440 nm-*minus*-428 nm measured as in Panel A in WT\*3-PSII (black trace), T179H-PSII (red trace) and T179V-PSII (blue trace). Panel C: Flash-induced absorption changes measured 100 ms after the 3rd flash given to WT\*3-PSII (black trace), T179H-PSII (red trace) and T179V-PSII (blue trace). Upon dark-adaptation for 1 h at room temperature, 100  $\mu$ M PPBQ (dissolved in DMSO) was added to the samples with [Chl] = 25  $\mu$ g mL<sup>-1</sup>.

#### 4. Discussion

The oscillating patterns at 292 nm in Fig. 3 show that both the T179H-PSII and the T179V-PSII mutants were fully active at room temperature. The similar amplitude of the  $S_2$  multiline EPR signal formed at 200 K in the WT\*3-PSII and the two mutants shows that the  $S_1$  to  $S_2$  transition at 200 K also remained unaffected by the mutations (see Fig. 8). The similar amplitude of the Pheo<sub>D1</sub> band-shift at 550 nm upon illumination at 77 K, which is proportional to the amount of  $Q_A^-$  present, shows that the charge separation remained similarly efficient at 77 K in both mutants and in the WT\*3-PSII (see Fig. 4A).

The light-*minus*-dark absorption spectra recorded at 77 K are almost identical to those recorded earlier at 8 K in WT\*3-PSII [41], see also Fig. S3. As the time-resolved 550 nm band-shift from Pheo<sub>D1</sub> was recorded at room temperature, it was significantly broader than those in the literature recorded at low temperatures, although the band-shift was

centered at the same wavelength, which is characteristic of PSII in which D1 is PsaA3 (see Fig. S2B and Fig. S3). The full light-minus-dark absorption spectra, Fig. S2B, exhibits some bands below 550 nm showing that the oxidation of a carotenoid also occurred in a proportion of centers in addition to the oxidation of Cyt<sub>b</sub><sub>559</sub>.

The data in Fig. 4B show that the band-shift centered at ~686 nm in WT\*3-PSII which is attributed to a blue-shift of the Chl<sub>D1</sub> absorption upon Q<sub>A</sub><sup>-</sup> formation, was red-shifted by ~3 nm to ~689 nm in the T179H-PSII. This shift to longer wavelength is very similar to that observed upon the formation of P<sub>D1</sub><sup>+</sup>Q<sub>A</sub><sup>-</sup> in *Synechocystis* 6803 by time-resolved measurements under flash excitation at 77 K [8,9]. In contrast, in the T179V-PSII, the Chl<sub>D1</sub> band-shift was not significantly modified compared to the WT\*3-PSII.

The spectral features at shorter wavelengths (the red-shift centered at ~678 nm, the blue shift at 674 nm and the possible red-shift at 664 nm), which presumably arise from the other reaction center pigments, including P<sub>D1</sub> and P<sub>D2</sub> [15,42], underwent no or minor modifications in terms of their wavelength position in the T179H and T179V mutants. This agrees with the earlier report of a lack of spectroscopic changes associated with P<sub>D1</sub> in the P<sub>D1</sub><sup>+</sup>Q<sub>A</sub><sup>-</sup> difference spectra caused by the T179H mutation [8,9].

At room temperature, the time-resolved P<sub>680</sub><sup>+</sup> spectra (see Fig. 5) appeared to be slightly broadened in the two mutant PSII when compared to WT\*3-PSII. This broadening could suggest a very slight increase of the proportion of the P<sub>D1</sub><sup>+</sup>P<sub>D2</sub> state in T179H-PSII and a very slight increase of the P<sub>D1</sub>P<sub>D2</sub><sup>+</sup> state in T179V-PSII when compared to the WT\*3-PSII [58]. However the P<sub>680</sub><sup>+</sup>-minus-P<sub>680</sub> FTIR difference spectra also recorded at 265 K (see Fig. S6) did not show a change in the ratio of the amplitude of the positive bands at 1724 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 1709 cm<sup>-1</sup> attributed to the asymmetric distribution of a positive charge on P<sub>D1</sub> and P<sub>D2</sub>, respectively [34]. Thus it seems that the P<sub>D1</sub><sup>+</sup>/P<sub>D2</sub><sup>+</sup> ratio was not significantly affected by the mutations. In agreement with that, the electron transfer from Tyr<sub>Z</sub> to P<sub>680</sub><sup>+</sup> also remained unaffected in the mutants, see Fig. S4B. The data above show that at room temperature the P<sub>680</sub><sup>+</sup>Q<sub>A</sub><sup>-</sup> state remained essentially unmodified in functional terms and in the two mutants in full agreement with the literature [8,9].

In T179H-PSII, the room temperature spectrum of the bleached Chl after high light illumination has its peak red-shifted by ~2 nm (see Fig. 9B and C). The amplitude and the direction of the shift are similar to those of the Chl<sub>D1</sub> spectrum. Thus, this could indicate that in this mutant the <sup>1</sup>O<sub>2</sub> produced by the <sup>3</sup>Chl<sub>D1</sub> + <sup>3</sup>O<sub>2</sub> reaction reacts directly with Chl<sub>D1</sub>. This also occurs with the WT\*3-PSII, thus indicating that Chl<sub>D1</sub>, the location of the triplet [13], is among the first chlorophylls to be damaged by the singlet oxygen that is generated by energy transfer from the chlorophyll triplet. The red-shift in the fluorescence maximum from 685 to 688 nm correlates with the absorption peak of Chl<sub>D1</sub> in the T179H mutant, indicating that Chl<sub>D1</sub> itself may be the main emitter at 77 K.

For the T179V mutant, the situation seems more complex. The absorption spectrum appeared only slightly modified in both the time-resolved spectra (Fig. 5) and in terms of the Q<sub>A</sub><sup>-</sup> induced band-shift at 77 K data (Fig. 4B). In contrast the chlorophyll bleached by high light was significantly red-shifted in this mutant. These effects in the T179V-PSII may be explained as follows. The high light illumination was done in non-frozen conditions, it is known that after its formation at the Chl<sub>D1</sub> site, the triplet can migrate onto other chlorophylls at non-cryogenic temperatures [59]. In this mutant the migration may be favored by the symmetrization so that the triplet escapes and localizes at another chlorophyll with a low energy triplet state, in this case (one of) the lowest energy Chls, which could be the red trap in CP47. In support of this hypothesis, it has been observed in single-molecule experiments that a loss in the fluorescence emission at 695 nm could be due to the migration of the triplet to red-most chlorophylls, either Chl29 or Chl11 in CP47 [60–62]. During the lifetime of the <sup>3</sup>Chl29 triplet state, the Chl29 is not expected to contribute to the fluorescence spectrum [60]. The lower of fluorescence at 695 nm seen in the T179V-PSII could

represent a similar phenomenon but enhanced by the mutation (see Fig. 10).

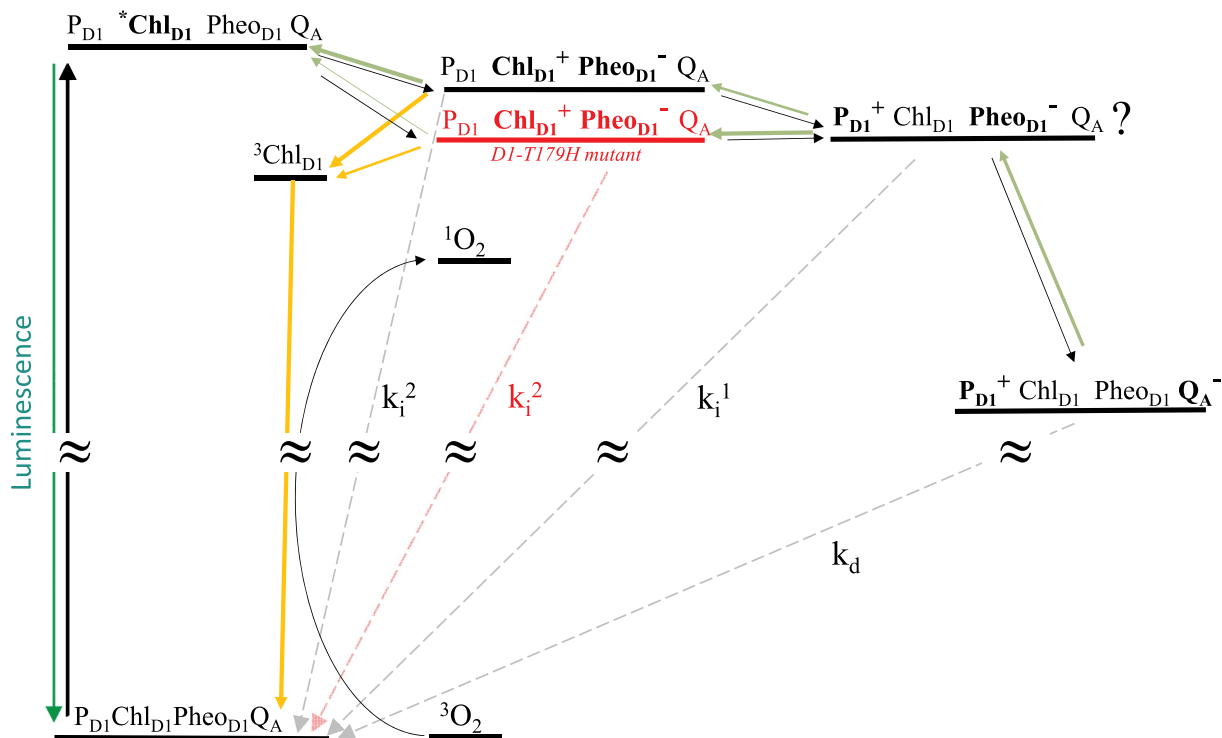
This model however has its weaknesses. Given the specific distance limitations of the Dexter mechanism associated with triplet transfer, triplet migration all the way to the rather distant far red antenna chlorophyll in the CP47 seems rather unlikely and we also might expect the triplet to encounter carotenoid on the way. Another explanation that seems possible is that the diminished Chl<sub>D1</sub> bleaching due to the mutational perturbation, simply allows the second most vulnerable site to be bleached. As the longest wavelength chlorophylls in the system, the CP47 chlorophylls are the most likely chlorophylls to be over-excited when the usual photochemistry in the reaction center is perturbed. Indeed the long-wavelength CP47 chlorophylls are considered to represent an emission site that favors displacement of the excitation away from the center of the reaction center for regulation and protection [62]. This mechanism would make more sense physiologically if the excitation were quenched efficiently upon arrival at the long-wavelength emitter. The candidates for this role include PSI or carotenoids under physiological conditions; in the isolated cores it is not unlikely that putative carotenoids are removed or perturbed. Without the protective quenching, the chlorophylls acting as terminal emitters would likely be bleached by the <sup>1</sup>O<sub>2</sub> produced by O<sub>2</sub> reacting with chlorophyll triplet formed at long wavelength chlorophyll on CP47.

Fig. 9A shows a correlation between the lower production of <sup>1</sup>O<sub>2</sub> (monitored by <sup>3</sup>O<sub>2</sub> consumption), less chlorophyll bleaching both in the absorption spectra (Fig. 9B) and greater tolerance to growth in high light (Fig. S1) in the T179H-PSII. In this mutant, charge recombination appeared much faster than in the WT\*3-PSII and the T179V-PSII (see Fig. 7), which could indicate either a shorter lifetime for the Chl<sub>D1</sub><sup>+</sup>Pheo<sub>D1</sub><sup>-</sup> state, or another faster non-radiative route that is also a non-triplet route. In turn, that could be an explanation for a smaller amount of <sup>3</sup>Chl<sub>D1</sub> under these conditions and therefore less <sup>1</sup>O<sub>2</sub>. A similar relationship has been previously proposed in mutant with a modified energy level of Pheo<sub>D1</sub> [28].

In the Chl<sub>f</sub>-containing PSII from *Chroococcidiopsis thermalis* grown in 750 nm light, Chl<sub>D1</sub> appears to be the only one of the six central chlorins that is changed to a long wavelength pigment (Chl<sub>f</sub> or less likely Chl<sub>d</sub>), while Chl<sub>D2</sub>, P<sub>D1</sub> and P<sub>D2</sub> remained Chl<sub>a</sub>, and both pheophytins remained pheophytin *a* [5]. The TL bands arising from the S<sub>2</sub>Q<sub>A</sub><sup>-</sup>/DCMU and from S<sub>2</sub>Q<sub>B</sub><sup>-</sup> charge recombination were enhanced by a factor > 25. These data were explained by a model in which the energy gap between the luminescent excited state of chlorophyll and its precursor radical pair was smaller than in normal Chl<sub>a</sub>-containing PSII. The luminescent state was assigned to a long wavelength version of \*Chl<sub>D1</sub> (Chl<sub>f</sub> or Chl<sub>d</sub>) and this was supported by the identification of Chl<sub>D1</sub> absorbing at ~720 nm. The precursor radical pair was attributed to Chl<sub>D1</sub><sup>+</sup>Pheo<sub>D1</sub><sup>-</sup> [5].

The situation in normal Chl<sub>a</sub>-containing PSII is expected to be more complex than the special case in which Chl<sub>D1</sub> is at a uniquely low energy compared to the other central cofactors [5]. However in the present case, where the Chl<sub>D1</sub> has been specifically modified by mutation, this recent, more detailed model [5] seems appropriate. Theoretical treatments have been developed that explain how TL is affected by changes of the energy levels of the relevant radical pairs involved in PSII back-reactions [17,63], and based on these models and on the new considerations for the luminescence mechanism [5], the much weaker TL intensity in the T179H-PSII mutant seen here can be explained. The mutation increases the energy gap between the precursor radical pair, usually taken as P<sub>D1</sub><sup>+</sup>Pheo<sub>D1</sub><sup>-</sup> but here taken as Chl<sub>D1</sub><sup>+</sup>Pheo<sub>D1</sub><sup>-</sup>, and the luminescent state, which we consider to be mainly \*Chl<sub>D1</sub> but which in this “normal” PSII is likely to equilibrate over the rest of the chlorin pigments. This increased energy gap in the mutant suggests that a histidine ligand to Chl<sub>D1</sub> may decrease the potential of the Chl<sub>D1</sub><sup>+</sup>/Chl<sub>D1</sub> couple.

The second effect of the T179H mutation on the TL seen in Fig. 7 was a decrease of the peak temperature by > 15 °C and an increase in



**Fig. 12.** A simplified scheme of the energetics (on a standard free energy scale) and recombination pathways in the D1/T179H-PSII compared to the wild type that could explain the main phenomena reported in the present work. The energy levels of all states are taken to be the same in both variant forms except for a decrease in the energy level of the primary radical pair,  $[\text{Chl}_{\text{D1}}^+ \text{Pheo}_{\text{D1}}^-]$ , in the mutant (in red). The energy gaps are not to scale. The energy scale is broken as indicated by the line breaks. Only the cofactors involved in the primary reactions are shown, the other cofactors ( $\text{Tyr}_Z$ ,  $\text{P}_{\text{D2}}$ ,  $\text{Mn}_4\text{O}_5\text{Ca}$ ,  $\text{Q}_B$ , the side-path electron donors) are relevant to the experiments but not to the mechanism illustrated. For the sake of clarity the spin-state of the radical pairs are not shown. The triplet form of the primary radical pair,  $^3[\text{Chl}_{\text{D1}}^+ \text{Pheo}_{\text{D1}}^-]$ , can recombine to form the  $^3\text{Chl}_{\text{D1}}$  triplet state, while the singlet form of the same radical pair can recombine to form the excited singlet state or the ground state. At room temperature the excited singlet state is expected to be shared over all the chlorophylls in PSII and any of these can be radiative (not shown). The small change in the color of  $\text{Chl}_{\text{D1}}$  represents a small decrease in the energy level of  $^*\text{Chl}_{\text{D1}}$  but this is taken to be negligible in the scheme. The decrease in the energy level of the primary radical pair in the mutant results in *i*) a decrease in the radiative route (indicated by the thinner green arrows back to the excited state), *ii*) less energy required to reform the primary radical pair (a smaller energy gap for the back-reaction from the secondary radical pair  $[\text{P}_{\text{D1}}^+ \text{Pheo}_{\text{D1}}^-]$ ) favoring formation of the primary radical pair (thicker green line), *iii*) lower yield of triplet due to less efficient formation from the primary radical pair (as indicated by the thinner orange arrow) due to less driving force, as illustrated and/or with a possible more favorable direct recombination (red  $k_i^2$  vs black  $k_i^2$ ) from the radical pair (as expected considering this reaction is likely to be in the inverted Marcus region [65]). The situation shown is not a unique solution but it has the advantage of remaining within current models and relying on a single phenomenon, a single redox change (a decrease in the potential of  $\text{Chl}_{\text{D1}}$ ). It provides a simple working model that can be tested by future experimentation on these and related mutants.

the rate of charge recombination. This TL temperature decrease is taken as an indication that the final precursor radical pair (*i.e.*  $\text{Chl}_{\text{D1}}^+ \text{Pheo}_{\text{D1}}^-$ ) is more easily populated from its own precursor radical pair (*i.e.*  $\text{P}_{\text{D1}}^+ \text{Pheo}_{\text{D1}}^-$  in the charge recombination process, see Fig. 12). This would also fit with a lowering of the potential of the  $\text{Chl}_{\text{D1}}^+/\text{Chl}_{\text{D1}}$  couple (see Fig. 12).

In this model there is no need to invoke changes in the  $E_m$  of components other than  $\text{Chl}_{\text{D1}}$ . While such changes cannot be ruled out they are not needed to explain the basic observations. This simple model fits well with the experimental data showing a shift in the spectrum of  $\text{Chl}_{\text{D1}}$  and no significant changes in the absorption spectra of  $\text{P}_{\text{D1}}$ ,  $\text{P}_{\text{D2}}$  and  $\text{Pheo}_{\text{D1}}$ . The small shift in the absorption of the  $\text{Chl}_{\text{D1}}$  (3 nm) reflects a very small change in the energy (8.5 meV) of the  $^*\text{Chl}_{\text{D1}}$  state and this is unlikely to be relevant to the mechanistic effect observed given the heat of the environment ( $k_B T = 26$  meV).

Fig. 12 summarizes the simple model used above for the T179H-PSII. Compared to previous models, the non-radiative routes ( $k_i^1$  and  $k_i^2$ ) now involves the two states,  $\text{Chl}_{\text{D1}}^+ \text{Pheo}_{\text{D1}}^-$  and  $\text{P}_{\text{D1}}^+ \text{Pheo}_{\text{D1}}^-$  radical pairs as in the charge separation process, see [64] for a review. There are many interesting aspects of this kind of model that are worth noting and investigating but these are outside the scope of this article, which aims simply to apply the new thinking [5] to explain the basic observations in the present study. The key points are that the decrease in the energy level of the  $\text{Chl}_{\text{D1}}^+ \text{Pheo}_{\text{D1}}^-$  radical pair due to

modification of the  $\text{Chl}_{\text{D1}}$  environment results in less luminescence and a lower temperature TL peak. It also could be consistent with less chlorophyll triplet formation (Fig. 9A) resulting in less photodamage (Fig. 9B) *in vitro* and therefore possibly *in vivo*.

In the T179V-PSII mutant the TL was less affected than in the T179H-PSII. From the down-shift of the TL peak temperatures, the decrease of the energy level of the  $\text{Chl}_{\text{D1}}^+ \text{Pheo}_{\text{D1}}^-$  state in the T179V-PSII relative to that of the wild type PSII seemed to be approximately half of that in the T179H-PSII mutant. However, from the amplitude of the TL signal the energy gap between the  $\text{Chl}_{\text{D1}}^+ \text{Pheo}_{\text{D1}}^-$  state and  $^*\text{Chl}_{\text{D1}}$  seemed only slightly affected in the T179V-PSII. In contrast, the site of damage as manifest by bleaching seems to be shifted to the long wavelength chlorophyll in CP47 as discussed above. The mechanistic link between the perturbation at the level of  $\text{Chl}_{\text{D1}}$  and resulting bleaching on the CP47 chlorophyll has yet to be established.

In plant PSII, an electrochromic shift in the blue region and its pH dependence has been reported for the  $S_1$  to  $S_2$ ,  $S_2$  to  $S_3$  and  $S_0$  to  $S_1$  transitions [36,55]. However, the chlorophyll(s) involved remained to be fully identified. The electrochromic shift of a pigment, here a chlorophyll, depends on the orientation of the chromophore, the distance between the chromophore and the charge, and the nature (positive, negative) and intensity of the charge, *e.g.* [5,56]. It is therefore not surprising that the spectra in Fig. 11 contain more than one component taking into account the complex electron and proton events in the S-



state cycle, in particular in the  $S_3$  to  $S_0$  transition. The important point that we want to address here is that in the two mutants, the broader components became narrower and underwent a slight red-shift, by  $\sim 1$  nm, of the electrochromic band-shift. Since  $\text{Chl}_{D1}$  is a pigment which has a modified absorption in the mutants, at least in the T179H-PSII, the results above suggest that  $\text{Chl}_{D1}$  could be a chlorophyll that has the absorption spectrum sensitive to the electrostatic changes due to the changes in charge occurring on the donor side of PSII.

In this study, two mutations close to  $\text{Chl}_{D1}$  have been designed and studied: the D1/T179H and the D1/T179V. In both mutants, the PSII remained fully active allowing us to get new insights on the  $\text{Chl}_{D1}$  involvement in PSII electron transfer. More generally, the data show that the presence of a histidine in a position that makes it a potential  $\text{Chl}_{D1}$  ligand or the presence of a valine, which is predicted to make  $\text{Chl}_{D1}$  almost symmetric to  $\text{Chl}_{D2}$ , did not greatly alter the PSII function despite the apparently lower energy level of  $\text{Chl}_{D1}^+ \text{Pheo}_{D1}^-$  radical pair in the T179H-PSII. In contrast, this decrease seems to favour the indirect charge recombination, which decreases the recombination route forming of the  $^3\text{Chl}_{D1}$  triplet state, making this mutant resistant to high light-induced photodamage *in vivo* and *in vitro*. It is worth comparing this photodamage-resistant mutant to strains isolated from extreme environments that seem naturally resistant to photoinhibition. This could represent a modification that could be engineered in strains for use in biotechnology. Similar mutants at the  $\text{Chl}_{D2}$  site could help in future studies to better understand the asymmetry in the environments of  $\text{Ch}_{D1}$  and  $\text{Ch}_{D2}$ .

## Transparency document

The [Transparency document](#) associated with this article can be found, in online version.

## Acknowledgements

Collaboration between France and Japan was supported by JSPS-KAKENHI grant in Scientific Research on Innovative Areas “Innovations for Light-Energy Conversion ( $I^4\text{LEC}$ )” (JP17H06433). MS and TN were supported by JSPS-KAKENHI grant in Scientific Research on Innovative Areas JP17H06435 and JSPS KAKENHI grant JP17H03662, and MS was supported by a JSPS-KAKENHI grant JP17K07367. AB was supported by the French Infrastructure for Integrated Structural Biology (FRISBI) ANR-10-INBS-05. AWR was supported by BBSRC grant BB/R001383/1 and a grant from the Leverhulme Trust (PRG-2017-223).

## Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bbabo.2019.01.008>.

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## Supplementary material

### New insights on Chl<sub>D1</sub> function in Photosystem II from site-directed mutants of D1/T179 in *Thermosynechococcus elongatus*:

Yuki Takegawa<sup>\*a</sup>, Makoto Nakamura<sup>\*a</sup>, Shin Nakamura<sup>b</sup>, Takumi Noguchi<sup>b</sup>, Julien Sellés<sup>c</sup>,  
A. William Rutherford<sup>d</sup>, Alain Boussac<sup>e§</sup>, Miwa Sugiura<sup>a,f§</sup>

\*These authors equally contributed to this work.

§Corresponding authors: [miwa.sugiura@ehime-u.ac.jp](mailto:miwa.sugiura@ehime-u.ac.jp), [alain.boussac@cea.fr](mailto:alain.boussac@cea.fr)

<sup>a</sup>Graduate School of Science and Technology, Ehime University, Bunkyo-cho, Matsuyama, Ehime 790-8577, Japan.

<sup>b</sup>Division of Material Science, Graduate School of Science, Nagoya University, Furo-cho, Chikusa-ku, Nagoya, 464-8602, Japan

<sup>c</sup>Institut de Biologie Physico-Chimique, UMR CNRS 7141 and Sorbonne Université, 13 rue Pierre et Marie Curie, 75005 Paris, France.

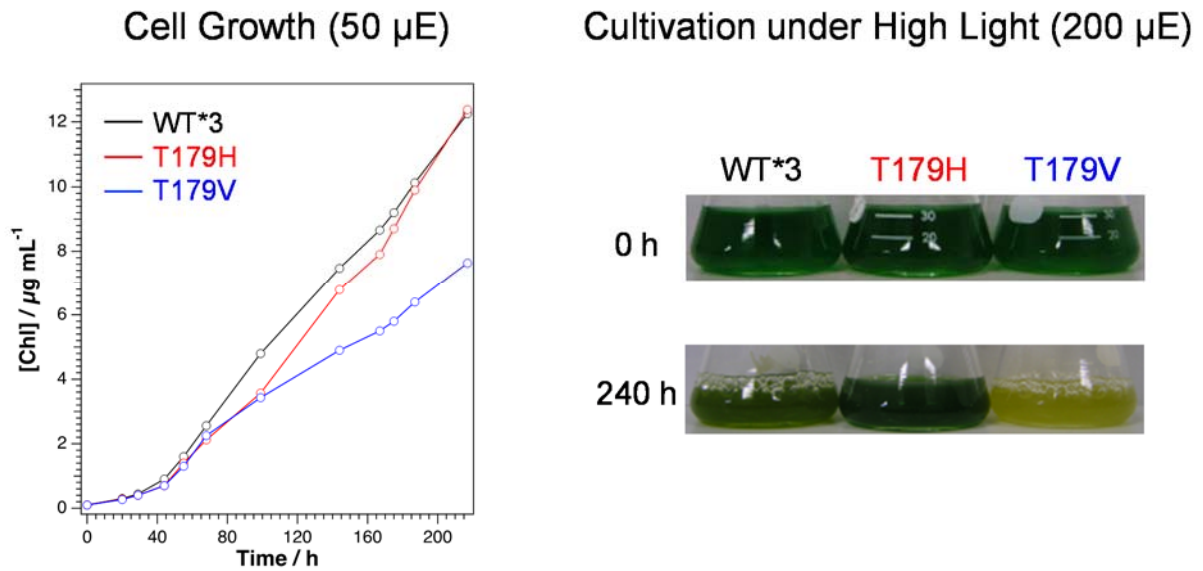
<sup>d</sup>Department of Life Sciences, Imperial College, London SW7 2AZ, United Kingdom.

<sup>e</sup>I<sup>2</sup>BC, UMR CNRS 9198, CEA Saclay, 91191 Gif-sur -Yvette, France.

<sup>f</sup>Proteo-Science Research Center, Ehime University, Bunkyo-cho, Matsuyama, Ehime 790-8577, Japan.

**Figure S1 :**

Cell growth under moderate light conditions ( $50 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ) at  $45^\circ\text{C}$  and cultivated cells under relatively high light conditions ( $200 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ) for 240 h.



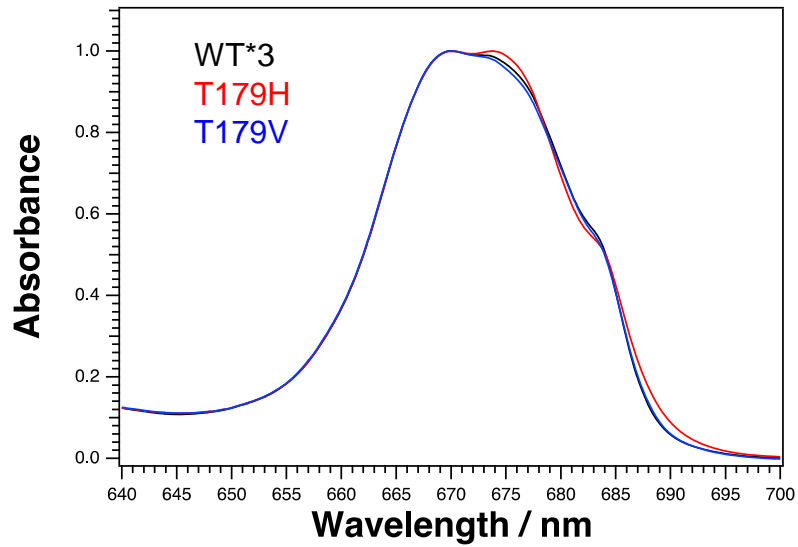
Under the moderate light conditions, the growth rate of the T179H cells was very similar to that of WT\*3 cells. In contrast, the rate of T179V cells was slower than WT\*3 and T179H cells.

When cultivated under relative high light conditions, the WT\*3 cells exhibited some photodamages, and T179V cells were more affected by high light in contrast to T179H cells.

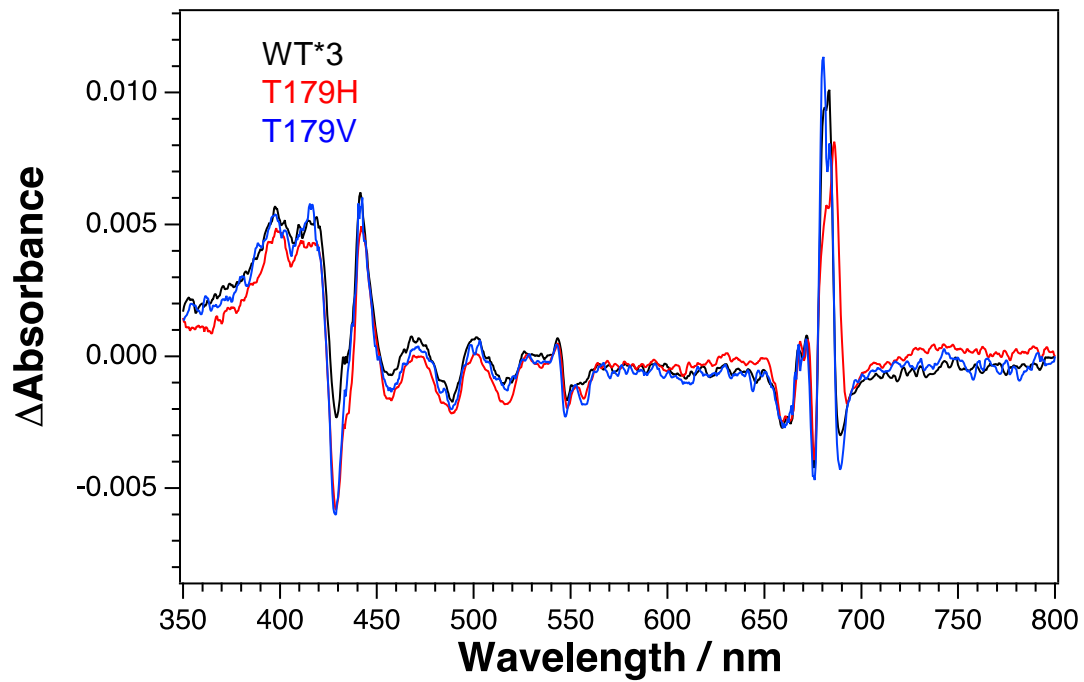
**Figure S2 :**

Absorption spectra around chlorophyll  $Q_Y$  band (640 – 700 nm) at 77 K and light *–minus–* dark absorption spectra of PSII of WT\*3 (black), T179H (red) and T179V (blue) between 350 nm and 800 nm upon illumination at 77 K.

### Absorption Spectra around $Q_Y$ Band at 77 K

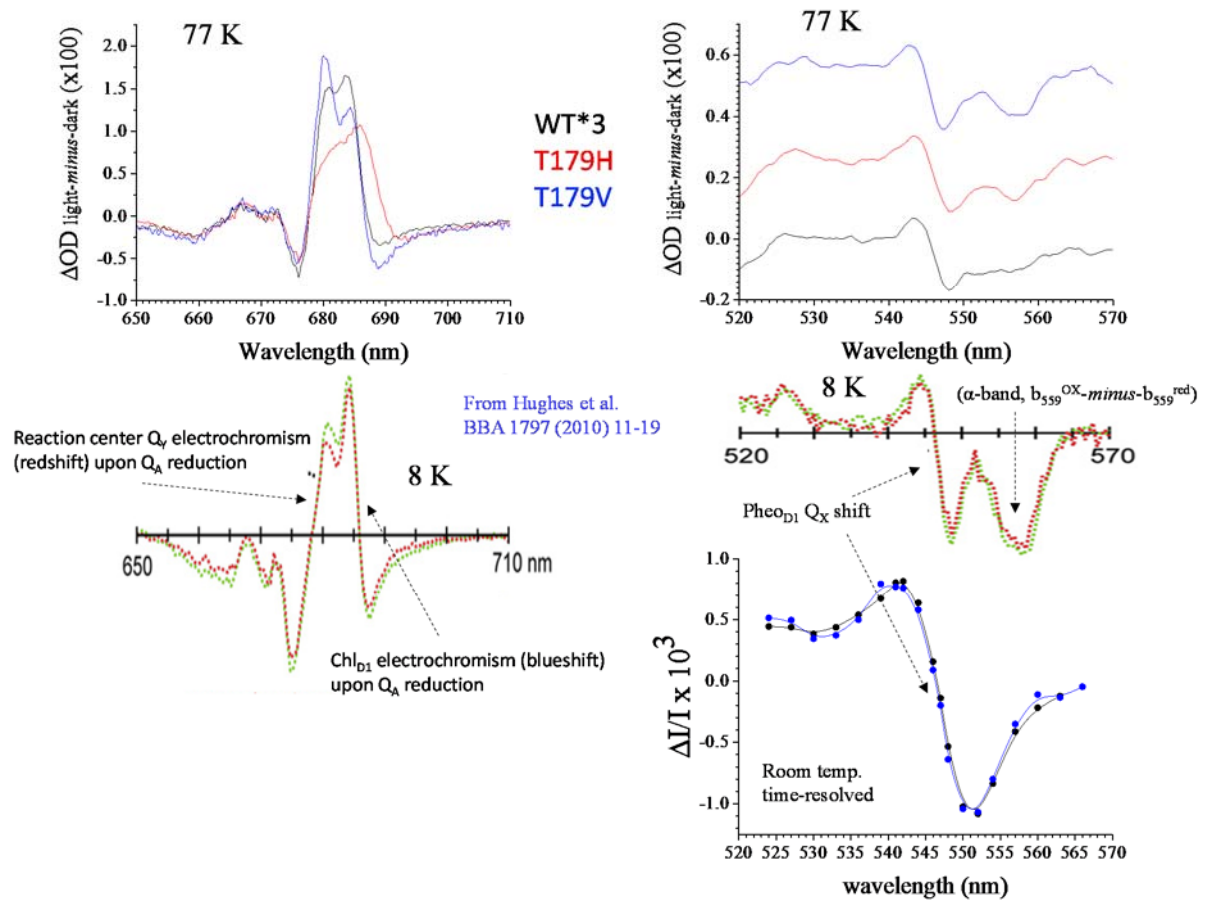


### Light *–minus–* dark Absorption Spectra at 77 K



### Figure S3 :

Comparison of the light-*minus*-dark difference spectra recorded in this work at 77 K and at room temperature with those recorded previously at 8 K in WT\*3-PSII by Hughes et al (Biochim. Biophys. Acta 1797 (2010) 11-19).

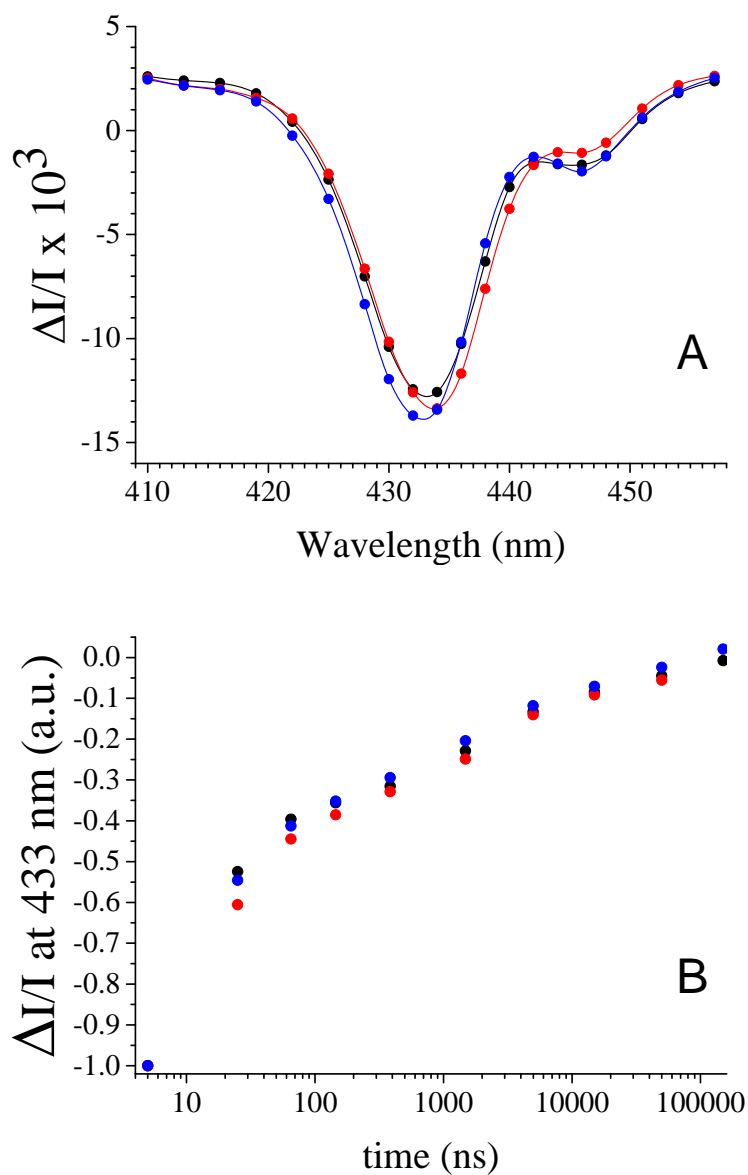




**Figure S4 :**

Panel A: Average of the first four flash-induced absorption changes measured in WT\*3-PSII (black trace), T179H-PSII (red trace) and T179V-PSII (blue trace) 5 ns after the first flash given on dark-adapted PSII.

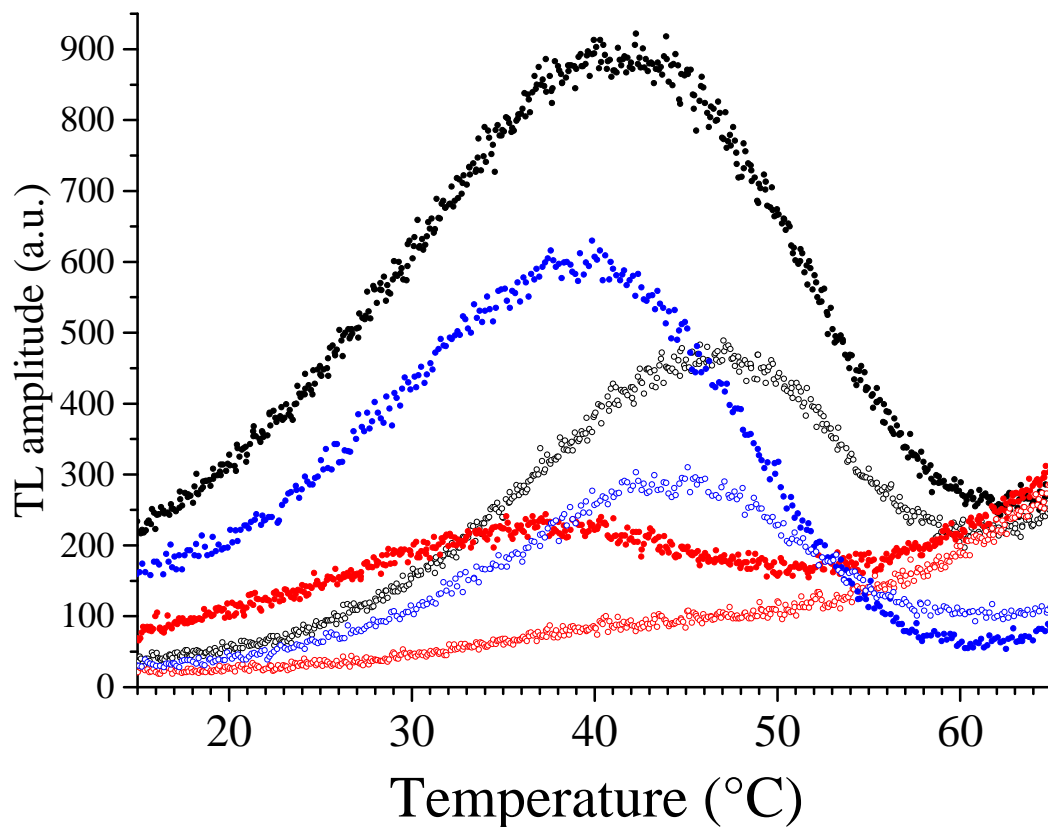
Panel B: Kinetics of flash-induced absorption changes measured at 433 nm in WT\*3-PSII (black trace), T179H-PSII (red trace) and T179V-PSII (blue trace) after the 1<sup>st</sup> flash given on dark-adapted PSII. [Chl] = 25  $\mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ .



**Figure S5 :**

Thermoluminescence glow curves from  $S_3Q_B^-$  charge recombination measured after two flashes given at  $0^\circ\text{C}$  in WT\*3-PSII (black trace), T179H-PSII (red trace) and T179V-PSII (blue trace). The samples were previously dark-adapted at room temperature for 1 h before to be loaded into the cuvette and illuminated. The heating rate was  $0.3^\circ\text{C}/\text{s}$  and the heating started either one second after the 2 flash illumination (full circles) or 300 s after the 2 flash illumination.

For the 3 PSII samples the TL peak recorded after a 300 s dark-period following the 2 flash illumination appeared at a higher temperature. This is very likely due to a distribution of  $S_3Q_B^-$  states which decay with a distribution of kinetics with the states having the faster recombination rates decaying in first during the 300 s dark-period.



**Figure S6 :**

$P_{680}^+/P_{680}$  FTIR difference spectra in WT\*3-PSII (black), T179H-PSII (red), and T179V-PSII (blue).

