

Kinetics and Pathways of Charge Recombination in Photosystem II<sup>†</sup>Fabrice Rappaport,<sup>\*,‡</sup> Mariana Guergova-Kuras,<sup>‡</sup> Peter J. Nixon,<sup>#</sup> Bruce A. Diner,<sup>§</sup> and Jérôme Lavergne<sup>¶</sup>

CNRS UPR 1261, Institut de Biologie Physico-Chimique, 13 rue Pierre et Marie Curie, 75005 Paris, France, and Department of Biochemistry, Imperial College, London, SW7 2AY, United Kingdom, and CR & D, Experimental Station, E. I. du Pont de Nemours & Co., Wilmington, Delaware, 19880-0173, USA, and CEA-Cadarache, DSV DEVM, Laboratoire de Bioénergétique Cellulaire (UMR163 CNRS CEA, Univ-Méditerranée CEA1000), 13108 Saint Paul-lez-Durance Cedex, France

Received February 22, 2002; Revised Manuscript Received May 6, 2002

**ABSTRACT:** The mechanism of charge recombination of the  $S_2Q_A^-$  state in photosystem II was investigated by modifying the free energy gap between the quinone acceptor  $Q_A$  and the primary pheophytin acceptor Ph. This was done either by changing the midpoint potential of Ph (using mutants of the cyanobacterium *Synechocystis* with a modified hydrogen bond to this cofactor), or that of  $Q_A$  (using different inhibitors of the  $Q_B$  pocket). The results show that the recombination rate is dependent on the free energy gap between Ph and  $Q_A$ , which confirms that the indirect recombination pathway involving formation of  $Ph^-$  has a significant contribution. In the mutant with the largest free energy gap, direct electron transfer from  $Q_A^-$  to  $P^+$  predominates. The temperature dependence of the recombination rate was investigated, showing a lower activation enthalpy in this mutant compared with the WT. The data allow the determination of the rate of the direct route and of its relative weight in the various strains. The set of currently accepted values for the midpoint potentials of the  $Q_A/Q_A^-$ ,  $Ph/Ph^-$ , and  $P^+/P^*$  couples is not consistent with the relatively rapid rate of the indirect recombination pathway found here, nor with the 3% yield of delayed fluorescence as previously estimated by de Grooth and van Gorkom (1981, *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 635, 445–456). It is argued that a likely explanation is that the midpoint potentials of the two latter couples are more positive than believed due to electrostatic interactions. If such is the case, the estimation of the midpoint potential of the  $P^+/P$  and  $S_2/S_1$  couples must also be revised upward, with values of 1260 and 1020 mV, respectively.

The study of the recombination process occurring in photosynthetic reaction centers from the light-induced charge separated state has been a precious tool to investigate the electron transfer reactions and equilibria in the acceptor and donor chains of such systems. Several competing pathways are generally involved. Direct electron transfer may occur from the reduced terminal acceptor considered (e.g., the quinone acceptor  $Q_A^-$ ) to the oxidized donor (e.g., the primary donor  $P^+$ ). Indirect pathways may also occur where the electron passes through the primary pheophytin acceptor or even repopulates the excited state of the chlorophyll donor ( $P^*$ ). The latter route has generally a small yield, but is important from an experimental standpoint, since it gives rise to delayed fluorescence emission.

The photochemical process in the reaction center of photosystem II of oxygenic photosynthesis is  $PPh \rightarrow P^*Ph \rightarrow P^+Ph^-$ , where  $P^1$  denotes the primary donor, and Ph is the primary acceptor (the pheophytin of the active branch on the  $D_1$  polypeptide) (see ref 1 for a review). The formation

of the singlet excited state  $P^*$  generally occurs through excitation transfer from an antenna pigment. The transient radical pair ( $P^+Ph^-$ ) may decay through electron transfer from  $Ph^-$  to  $P^+$ , or by reforming  $P^*$  (followed by radiative or nonradiative exciton decay), but the most probable process is the stabilization of charge separation through the redox equilibria occurring on the acceptor side:  $Ph^-Q_A \leftrightarrow PhQ_A^-$ , and on the donor side:  $S_1Y_ZP^+ \leftrightarrow S_1Y_Z^{ox}P \leftrightarrow S_2Y_ZP$ . The  $S_2/S_1$  couple denotes oxidation states of the Mn cluster involved in the storage of oxidizing equivalents in the water oxidase and  $Y_Z$  is the secondary donor (tyrosine  $D_1-161$ ). Several routes for charge recombination can be considered: electron transfer from  $Q_A^-$  to  $P^+$  or from  $Ph^-$  to  $P^+$  (in these cases, the  $P^+/P$  couple is involved), or reformation of  $P^*$  followed by exciton decay (the  $P^+/P^*$  couple is involved). Other routes, such as electron transfer from  $Ph^-$  to  $S_2$  (Mn cluster) or  $Q_A^-$  to  $Y_Z^{ox}$ , can be disregarded due to the distances and equilibrium constants involved (see Discussion). We are thus considering three competing recombination processes, namely, the “direct” pathway involving electron transfer from  $Q_A^-$  to  $P^+$ , the “indirect” pathway

<sup>†</sup> This work was supported by the CNRS (F.R., M.G.-K., and J.L.), the USDA (NRICGP/USDA 97–35306–4882) to B.A.D., the BBSRC and the Royal Society (P.J.N.) and the CEA (J.L.).

\* To whom correspondence should be addressed. Phone: 33 1 58 41 50 59. Fax: 33 1 58 41 50 22. E-mail: rappaport@ibpc.fr.

<sup>‡</sup> CNRS UPR 1261.

<sup>#</sup> Imperial College.

<sup>§</sup> E. I. du Pont de Nemours & Co.

<sup>¶</sup> CEA-Cadarache, DSV DEVM, Laboratoire de Bioénergétique Cellulaire (UMR163 CNRS CEA, Univ-Méditerranée CEA1000).

<sup>1</sup> Abbreviations:  $D_1$ , the  $D_1$  polypeptide of the PSII reaction center; DCMU: diuron, 3-(3,4-dichlorophenyl)-1,1-dimethylurea; HEPES: *N*-(2-hydroxyethyl)piperazine-*N'*-(2-ethanesulfonic acid); P: the primary donor of photosystem II; Ph: pheophytin, primary electron acceptor in photosystem II; PSII: photosystem II;  $Q_A$ : primary quinone acceptor in photosystem II;  $Y_Z$ :  $D_1$ -Tyr161, the redox active tyrosine of PSII on the  $D_1$  polypeptide.

Table 1: Estimations of the Midpoint Potentials in PS II<sup>a</sup>

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Q <sub>A</sub> /Q <sub>A</sub> <sup>-</sup>	Ph/Ph <sup>-</sup>	P <sup>+</sup> /P*	P <sup>+</sup> /P	S <sub>2</sub> /S <sub>1</sub>
-30 mV	-640 mV	-705 mV	1125 mV	885 mV
direct	direct	indirect	indirect	indirect

<sup>a</sup> The values in columns (1) and (2) were directly obtained from redox titrations. The other values all rely on (2) as explained below. (1) Data from refs 44 and 45. (2) Data from refs 63, 64. (3) Based on (2) and the  $\Delta G_0$  of the exciton-radical pair equilibrium (45–80 mV, data from refs 79 and 80) for PSII with normal antenna content). See also, for D<sub>1</sub>D<sub>2</sub>b<sub>559</sub> particles: (81, 82) and for *Synechocystis* core particles: (16). (4) Deduced from (3) and the 1830 meV value of the singlet–singlet transition of P. (5) Deduced from (4) and assuming  $\Delta G_0 = 240$  mV between P<sup>+</sup>S<sub>1</sub> and PS<sub>2</sub> (representative of the range of estimations indicated in the text).

involving electron transfer from Ph<sup>-</sup> to P<sup>+</sup> and the excitonic pathway. All three routes involve formation of P<sup>+</sup> through electron-transfer equilibrium with S<sub>2</sub>. This scheme (leaving out the secondary donors) also applies to the reaction center of purple bacteria, where the recombination processes are better known than in PS II. The dominant pathway depends on the species. In *Rhodobacter sphaeroides* (2) or *Rhodobacter capsulatus* (3, 4), direct transfer from Q<sub>A</sub><sup>-</sup> (a ubiquinone molecule) to P<sup>+</sup> predominates, whereas in *Rhodospseudomonas viridis*, where Q<sub>A</sub> is a menaquinone with a more negative midpoint potential, the indirect route through BPh<sup>-</sup> predominates at room temperature (5). The direct route was found activationless (its rate is even accelerated at cryogenic temperatures), in contrast with the indirect route (see ref 6 for a review). The above pattern can be modified by substituting different quinones for Q<sub>A</sub> (2, 7). The key parameter is the free energy gap between BPh and Q<sub>A</sub>: the thermally activated indirect route dominates when this gap is small enough, otherwise the direct, activationless path is favored.

In PS II, the relative weight of the indirect and direct pathways is not known. In his 1985 review, van Gorkom suggested that the indirect route was the major process at room temperature (8). Indeed, Reinman and Mathis found that P<sup>+</sup>Q<sub>A</sub><sup>-</sup> charge recombination in Mn-depleted PSII, at pH 4 is thermally activated (9). In a recent thermoluminescence study, Vavilin and Vermaas brought qualitative evidence supporting a significant contribution of both the direct and indirect pathways in a temperature range close to or slightly lower than room temperature (10).

It should be realized, however, that currently accepted values of the redox couples involved in PS II (as compiled in Table 1) would predict a negligible contribution of the indirect route. The  $\Delta E_m$  between Q<sub>A</sub> and Ph would be about 600 mV, corresponding to an equilibrium constant of 10<sup>10</sup> at room temperature. On the other hand, the electron-transfer rate from Ph<sup>-</sup> to Q<sub>A</sub> is around 3.3 ns<sup>-1</sup> (11–13), so that the backward rate should be 0.33 s<sup>-1</sup>. This rate constant provides an upper limit for the recombination through the indirect pathway. It is, however, more than 3 orders of magnitude smaller than the observed rate of recombination of P<sup>+</sup>Q<sub>A</sub><sup>-</sup> (700–6000 s<sup>-1</sup>, see ref 1, for a review). This would seem to rule out completely the indirect pathway and to make the direct electron transfer from Q<sub>A</sub><sup>-</sup> the only significant recombination route. Yet, there is at least one significant piece of evidence that does not agree with the figures of Table 1. The yield of the excitonic pathway was estimated

at about 3% by de Groot and van Gorkom (14). From the values of Table 1, the equilibrium constant between Q<sub>A</sub><sup>-</sup> and P\* should be 10<sup>11</sup> ( $\Delta E_m = 675$  mV) which would make delayed fluorescence an extremely weak phenomenon and markedly disagrees with the observed yield. The maximum rate of the excitonic pathway  $v_e$  is  $k_e/K_e$ , where  $k_e$  is the rate constant for exciton deactivation and  $K_e$  is the overall equilibrium constant  $[S_2PQ_A^-]/[S_1P^*Q_A]$ . Since the observed recombination rate is about 0.2 s<sup>-1</sup>, the finding of a 3% yield for the excitonic pathway implies  $v_e \approx 6 \times 10^{-3}$  s<sup>-1</sup>. With  $k_e \approx 3 \times 10^8$  s<sup>-1</sup> (15, 16), one would obtain  $K_e \leq 3 \times 10^8/6 \times 10^{-3} = 5 \times 10^{10}$ , thus a maximum of 642 meV for the free energy difference between the exciton and the stabilized S<sub>2</sub>Q<sub>A</sub><sup>-</sup> state. This is less than the energy difference given by Table 1 between the exciton and the state P<sup>+</sup>Q<sub>A</sub><sup>-</sup> and would just leave no room for the stabilization occurring on the donor side between P and the S system. A similar analysis was previously developed by van Gorkom (8) who concluded that the energy gaps on the acceptor side were smaller than generally believed, with a  $\Delta E_m$  between Q<sub>A</sub> and Phe of about 340 mV that would make the indirect route the major recombination pathway.

The data reported in the present work show that the indirect pathway is indeed the major route for recombination in PS II, in clear disagreement with the  $E_m$  estimations of Table 1. We have compared the recombination kinetics in the wild type and in two mutants of the cyanobacterium *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803. The mutants bear a substitution of the glutamine D<sub>1</sub>-130 to either glutamate (Q130E strain) or leucine (Q130L) to modify the strength of the hydrogen bond between this residue and Ph. As previously shown (17–19), these substitutions result in modifications of the midpoint potential of the Ph/Ph<sup>-</sup> couple in a similar way as achieved for the bacterial P by Allen and co-workers (20) (these authors engineered mutant strains of *R. sphaeroides* which presented important shifts of the midpoint potential of the primary donor due to the addition or removal of hydrogen bonds to P). As illustrated below, the recombination rate of PS II is modified in the Q130 mutants, demonstrating the involvement of the indirect pathway. This finding leads to a significant revision of the  $E_m$  values shown in Table 1. This revision is of particular consequence, since the only values that were directly measured from equilibrium redox titrations are those of Q<sub>A</sub> and Ph, while the others, including those pertaining to the donor side, are positioned with respect to these at distances estimated from the various equilibrium constants.

## MATERIAL AND METHODS

All the *Synechocystis* 6803 strains used here are derivatives of the glucose-tolerant strain described in ref 21. The control strain, referred to here as WT, is strain TC35, a deletion mutant containing just one (*psbA3*) of the three members of the *psbA* gene family. Mutants D1-Q130E and D1-Q130L were constructed as described in ref 22 and have been used in previous studies (17, 18). The cyanobacteria were grown in glucose-free BG11 medium under dim light. Cells were harvested by centrifugation at 3000g for 5 min and resuspended in fresh BG11 medium to which 0.3 mM *p*-benzoquinone, 0.3 mM ferricyanide, and 50 mM Hepes pH 7.2 was added. The optical density at 730 nm was 0.8. DCMU or bromoxynil were added to inhibit the electron

transfer from  $Q_A^-$  to  $Q_B$ , at concentrations of 10 and 30  $\mu\text{M}$ , respectively, that were checked to be saturating. To measure the  $S_2Q_A^-$  decay, a single flash was given to whole cells, and the rate of relaxation of the chlorophyll fluorescence yield was examined. Fluorescence was measured with a home-built spectrophotometer described in ref 23. The actinic flash was a xenon flash lamp (2  $\mu\text{s}$  at half-height) with a broad band blue filter. The fluorescence emission was excited by discrete weak monochromatic flashes (450 nm) and detected through a combination of filters rejecting wavelengths  $< 650$  nm. Experiments at variable temperature were done in a similar way, using the setup described by Joliot et al. (24).

To estimate the distortion caused by the nonlinear dependence of the fluorescence yield with respect to  $[Q_A^-]$  (25, 26), we compared the kinetics induced by a saturating flash and by a weak flash hitting 15% of the centers (not shown). In the latter case, the distortion is expected to be negligible. The "true" recombination kinetics thus obtained is about 3.4-fold slower than that observed after a saturating flash (based on the ratio of the half-times), and the plot of the saturating vs weak flash kinetics gives a hyperbolic dependence with  $p \approx 0.74$  for Joliot's connection parameter (25). With respect to this parameter some variability was observed, probably due to an unknown parameter in culture conditions. However, the half-times found after correction were similar. The finding of a pronounced hyperbolic dependence in this material is at variance with ref 22 but was previously observed in cyanobacteria (27). The recombination kinetics observed when using either the weak flash or saturating flash had multiple components and could be fitted by a sum of two exponentials. Such a heterogeneous decay of  $S_2Q_A^-$  appears to be the rule in PS II (28) and was also observed for  $P^+Q_A^-$  recombination (29, 30). It may be noted that by itself, the hyperbolic distortion would transform a single decay exponential into nonexponential fluorescence kinetics. The fluorescence kinetics after the saturating flash happened to be well fitted by a sum of two exponentials (Figure 1), but this is mainly coincidental and bears no simple relationship with the components of the recombination kinetics. This decomposition was only used to check that the mutants had a similar kinetic heterogeneity as the WT (i.e., both apparent phases were slowed or accelerated to similar extent and their relative amplitude remained similar). To quantify the recombination rate, we used the overall half-time of the fluorescence decay in the expression  $\nu_{\text{rec}} = \ln(2)/(3.4t_{1/2})$ , where the factor 3.4 accounts for the acceleration of the fluorescence decay (saturating flash) with respect to the recombination kinetics (weak flash).

## RESULTS

According to resonance Raman measurements (31) and predicted folding or structural models (32–34), the residue present at position 130 of polypeptide  $D_1$  lies in the vicinity of pheophytin A and could provide a hydrogen bond to the C9-keto group of this cofactor. The role of this residue was investigated by site-directed mutagenesis in which the glutamine was replaced by a glutamic acid (Q130E) or a leucine (Q130L). The Q130E mutation is particularly conservative as a glutamic acid occupies this position in higher plants and the photosynthetic purple bacteria. The consequences of the Glu to Leu, or Glu to Gln substitutions on

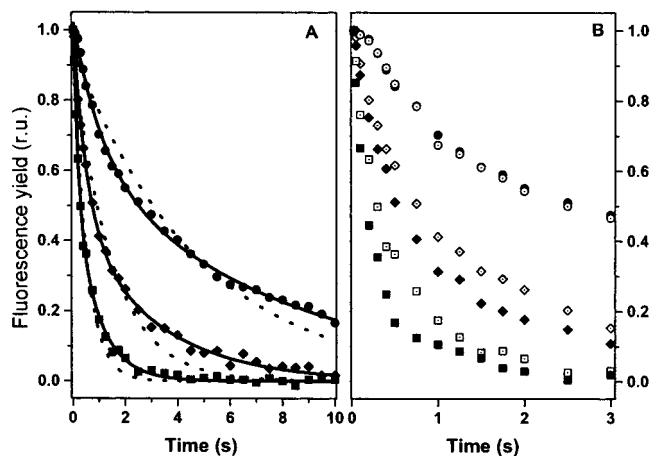


FIGURE 1: (A) Decay of the fluorescence yield after a saturating flash in the presence of DCMU in whole cells of *Synechocystis* 6803 WT (diamonds), Q130E (squares), and Q130L (circles). The overall lifetimes (i.e.,  $\ln 2/t_{1/2}$ ) are 300 ms, 700 ms, and 2 s for the Q130E, WT, and Q130L, respectively. The solid lines are the best fits with a sum of two exponentials (half-times: Q130E: 110 ms (55%), 600 ms (45%), WT: 300 ms (50%), 1.7 s (50%), and Q130L: 850 ms (50%), 5.2 s (50%)). (B) The decay kinetics observed in the presence of DCMU (open symbols) or bromoxynil (solid symbols).

the BPh $^-$ /BPh FTIR spectrum have been investigated in *R. sphaeroides* and *R. viridis* reaction centers (35, 36). These studies show that the hydrogen bond to the 9-keto group of the bacterio pheophytin is weakened or suppressed when Glu is replaced by Gln or Leu, respectively, and that the Leu mutation results in a structural modification evidenced by a frequency shift of the 10a-ester group of the pheophytin. In PSII, a hydrogen bond between the pheophytin ring and the Glu130 has been recently evidenced by high-field EPR. According to these studies, the strength of this hydrogen bond is decreased when the glutamic acid is replaced by a glutamine and further weakened when changed for a leucine (19). As expected, the mutations affect the midpoint potential of the pheophytin. This was shown by Merry et al. (18) who found that that the free energy stored in the radical pair after charge separation in PS II reaction centers purified from Q130E and Q130L was smaller or larger, respectively, than in the wild type. In this manner, the authors estimated that the  $E_m$  of the pheophytin couple was shifted by +33 mV in Q130E and by -74 mV in Q130L with respect to the WT. This agrees with a previous study of the same group reporting modifications of the quantum yield of primary charge separation (decreased in Q130L and increased in Q130E with respect to WT) (17). Consequently, these mutations are expected to change the difference in free energy between the  $\text{Ph}Q_A^-$  and the  $\text{Ph}^-Q_A$  states and thus the probability to repopulate the  $P^+\text{Ph}^-$  state from the  $P^+Q_A^-$  state. The comparison of the recombination kinetics in the WT, the Q130E, and the Q130L strains provides a tool to study the contribution of the thermally activated repopulation of the  $P^+\text{Ph}^-$  state to this process.

Figure 1A shows the decay of the fluorescence yield after a single saturating flash in the presence of DCMU, in the WT (diamonds), the Q130E (squares), and the Q130L (circles) strains. The kinetics may be fitted by a sum of two exponentials (see legend), but this decomposition bears little significance because of the distortion caused by the hyperbolic dependence of the fluorescence yield on the amount



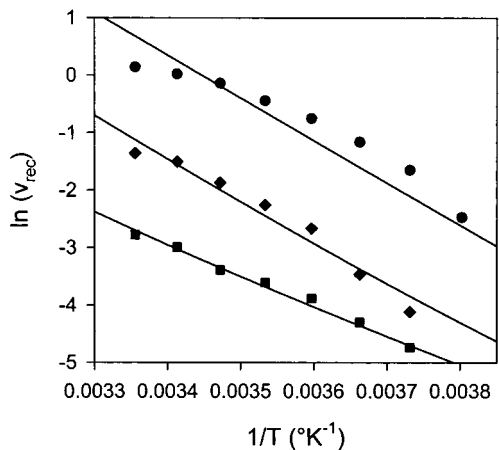


FIGURE 2: Arrhenius plots  $\ln(v_{\text{rec}})$  vs  $1/T$  for the recombination kinetics in the presence of DCMU for the three strains: Q130E, circles; WT, diamonds; Q130L, squares. The lines are theoretical plots obtained with  $G_{\text{SP}} (T = 293 \text{ K}) = 233 \text{ meV}$  ( $\Delta H = 53 \text{ meV}$ ,  $\Delta S = 0.61 \text{ meV K}^{-1}$ ),  $G_{\text{QPh}} (T = 293 \text{ K}) = 345 \text{ meV}$  ( $\Delta H = 285 \text{ meV}$ ,  $\Delta S = -0.20 \text{ meV K}^{-1}$ ). The shifts of  $E_m(\text{Ph})$  with respect to the WT are  $-74 \text{ mV}$  and  $+35 \text{ mV}$  for Q130L and Q130E, respectively. Other parameters as derived in the text ( $k_{\text{QP}} = 410 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ,  $k'_{\text{PhP}} = 1.6 \times 10^9 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ).

of closed centers (see Methods). To characterize the recombination rate, we have used the quantity  $v_{\text{rec}} = \ln(2)/(3.4t_{1/2})$ , where  $t_{1/2}$  is the overall half-time of the fluorescence decay and the factor 3.4 is the correction for the apparent acceleration caused by the hyperbolic distortion. As shown in Figure 1A, the Q130E substitution results in an increased rate with respect to the control strain TC35 by a factor of about 4, while the Q130L substitution slows down the recombination by about the same factor. Thus, it appears that the recombination rate is sensitive to the  $E_m$  of Ph, demonstrating a significant contribution of the indirect pathway. At  $20^\circ \text{C}$ , we obtained  $v_{\text{rec}} \approx 0.22 \text{ s}^{-1}$  for the WT,  $1.02 \text{ s}^{-1}$  for Q130E, and  $0.05 \text{ s}^{-1}$  for Q130L (in spinach PS II, one has  $v_{\text{rec}} \approx 0.2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ).

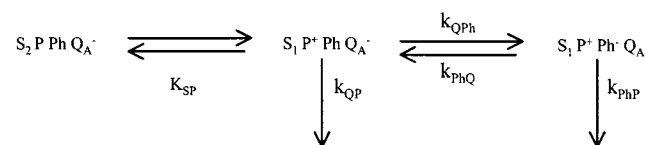
Another way to modify the  $\Delta E_m$  of the  $\text{Ph}^- \text{Q}_A \leftrightarrow \text{Ph Q}_A^-$  equilibrium is to change the  $E_m$  of the  $\text{Q}_A/\text{Q}_A^-$  couple. Krieger-Liszky and Rutherford (37) reported that the redox potential of this couple is more negative in the presence of phenolic inhibitors of the  $\text{Q}_B$  pocket such as bromoxynil than in the presence of a phenyl urea inhibitor such as DCMU. Figure 1B shows the fluorescence yield decay in the WT, Q130E, and Q130L strains, in the presence of DCMU (open symbols) and bromoxynil (closed symbols). Both in Q130E and WT the decay was faster when using bromoxynil, by factors of about 1.75 and 1.5, respectively. In the Q130L strain, however, the decay was not sensitive, within experimental accuracy, to the nature of the inhibitor. The acceleration caused by bromoxynil in the WT and in Q130E is again consistent with a significant contribution of the indirect pathway, which is favored when the  $\Delta E_m$  between Ph and  $\text{Q}_A$  is smaller.

To determine the activation enthalpies involved in the recombination process, we measured the temperature dependence of the  $\text{S}_2\text{Q}_A^-$  lifetime. The plots of  $\ln(v_{\text{rec}})$  as a function of  $1/T$  are presented in Figure 2. The temperature range is restricted to the region  $-5$  to  $25^\circ \text{C}$  because we observed irreversible (or very slowly reversible) modifications of the kinetics when cooling below  $-5^\circ \text{C}$  or heating

above  $25^\circ \text{C}$ . This problem was not remedied when suspending the cells in a glycerol/water mixture. In the three strains, the rate of charge recombination significantly decreased when lowering the temperature. The plots are approximately linear for the WT and Q130L, with activation enthalpy of 610 and 450 meV, respectively.

## DISCUSSION

*Direct vs Indirect Recombination Pathways.* The present results show that the recombination rate of state  $\text{S}_2\text{Q}_A^-$  is sensitive to the free energy gap between Ph and  $\text{Q}_A$ . When this gap is decreased or increased, either by changing the  $E_m$  of Ph (by substitution of the Q130 residue) or that of  $\text{Q}_A$  (by changing the inhibitor), the rate is accelerated or slowed, respectively. A straightforward conclusion is that the indirect pathway, passing via the  $\text{P}^+\text{Ph}^-$  state represents a significant contribution to the overall process. The sensitivity to the nature of the inhibitor is lost, however, in the Q130L mutant, suggesting that in this mutant, the indirect pathway has been slowed to such an extent that the direct pathway has become predominant. Accordingly, the recombination rate in this mutant can be taken as a good approximation for the rate  $v_{\text{dir}}$  of the direct pathway (we denote by  $v$  the effective rate constants pertaining to the decay of state  $\text{S}_2\text{Q}_A^-$ , using  $k$  in other cases). In this manner, one obtains  $v_{\text{dir}} = 0.05 \text{ s}^{-1}$ . On the other hand, the recombination rate in the WT is  $v_{\text{rec}} = 0.22 \text{ s}^{-1}$ . Since  $v_{\text{rec}} = v_{\text{dir}} + v_{\text{ind}}$  (where  $v_{\text{ind}}$  stands for the rate of the indirect pathway and neglecting the excitonic pathway), one deduces  $v_{\text{ind}} = 0.17 \text{ s}^{-1}$ . Thus, in the WT, the indirect pathway is predominant and accounts for  $0.17/0.22 = 77\%$  of the overall process. We will now discuss the information that can be derived from these data concerning the  $E_m$  changes of the Ph/ $\text{Ph}^-$  couple in the mutants with respect to WT and compare this with the estimations obtained by Merry et al. (18). We consider the kinetic scheme:



where the indicated rate constants are  $k_{\text{QP}}$  and  $k_{\text{PhP}}$  for recombination from  $\text{Q}_A^-$  and  $\text{Ph}^-$ , respectively,  $k_{\text{PhQ}}$  and  $k_{\text{QPh}}$  are for electron transfer between  $\text{Q}_A$  and Ph, and  $K_{\text{SP}}$  is the equilibrium constant  $[\text{S}_2\text{P}]/[\text{S}_1\text{P}^+]$ . We assume that the latter equilibrium is rapid with respect to recombination (this assumption is supported by the very rapid recombination rate observed in electroluminescence experiments despite the moderate electrogenicity between  $\text{S}_2$  and P (see ref 14)). This implies

$$v_{\text{dir}} = \frac{k_{\text{QP}}}{K_{\text{SP}}} \quad (1)$$

As will be verified later, the approximation based on a rapid equilibrium on the acceptor side is not valid, and we use the more accurate expression (see Figure 3 for a recombination scheme in PSII):

$$v_{\text{ind}} = \frac{1}{K_{\text{SP}}} \frac{k_{\text{QPh}}k_{\text{PhP}}}{k_{\text{PhP}} + k_{\text{PhQ}}} = \frac{1}{K_{\text{SP}}K_{\text{QPh}}} \frac{k_{\text{PhQ}}k_{\text{PhP}}}{k_{\text{PhP}} + k_{\text{PhQ}}} \quad (2)$$

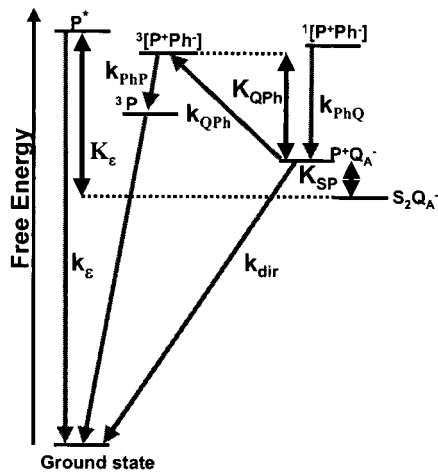


FIGURE 3: Recombination scheme in PS II, indicating the rate (ks and gray arrows) and equilibrium (Ks and black double arrows) constants featuring in Table 3.

where  $K_{QPH} = k_{PhQ}/k_{QPh}$ . The rationale for eq 2 is that whenever state  $S_1P^+Ph^-Q_A^-$  is formed, it has a probability  $k_{PhP}/(k_{PhP} + k_{PhQ})$  to recombine. It may be seen that this expression agrees with the rapid equilibrium approximation when  $k_{PhQ} \gg k_{PhP}$  and conversely expresses the rate limitation by  $k_{QPh}$  when  $k_{PhQ} \ll k_{PhP}$ . Equation 2 may be rewritten:

$$v_{ind} = \frac{k'_{PhP}}{K_{SPH}} \quad (3)$$

where  $K_{SPH} = K_{SP}K_{QPh}$  is the overall equilibrium constant  $[S_2PPhQ_A^-]/[S_1P^+Ph^-Q_A^-]$  and  $k'_{PhP}$  is the rightmost term in eq 2. One has, at a temperature around 300 °K:

$$60 \log K_{SPH} = E_m^P - E_m^S + E_m^Q - E_m^{Ph} \quad (4)$$

where the  $E_m$ 's are the midpoint potentials of the various couples expressed in mV. For a mutant where  $E_m^{Ph}$  is shifted by  $\Delta E_m^{Ph}$  with respect to the WT,

$$v_{ind}(\Delta E_m^{Ph}) = v_{ind}(0)10^{\Delta E_m^{Ph}/60} \quad (5)$$

(assuming that the rate constants  $k_{PhQ}$  and  $k_{PhP}$  are not significantly modified). The overall recombination rate is then:

$$v_{rec}(\Delta E_m^{Ph}) = v_{dir} + v_{ind}(0)10^{\Delta E_m^{Ph}/60} \quad (6)$$

The solid line in Figure 4 shows a plot of  $\ln(v_{rec})$ , assuming  $v_{dir} = 0.05 \text{ s}^{-1}$  (the recombination rate of Q130L) and  $v_{ind}(0) = 0.17 \text{ s}^{-1}$  (so that  $v_{rec}(0) = 0.22 \text{ s}^{-1}$  as found for the WT). The solid horizontal lines indicate  $\ln(v_{rec})$  for each strain. One can thus estimate  $\Delta E_m^{Ph} \approx +48 \text{ mV}$  for Q130E and  $\Delta E_m^{Ph} \leq -90 \text{ mV}$  for Q130L. These shifts are somewhat larger than found by Merry et al.; (+33 and -74 mV, respectively, indicated by the vertical lines). On the other hand, if we combine Merry's estimates for the  $\Delta E_m^{Ph}$  and our recombination rates (symbols) and search for the best fit using eq 6, we obtain  $v_{dir} = 0.04 \text{ s}^{-1}$  and  $v_{ind}(0) = 0.23 \text{ s}^{-1}$  (dashed curve in Figure 4). This would imply that the recombination process in Q130L still involves a 20% ( $1 - 0.04/0.05$ ) contribution of the indirect pathway and that the acceleration caused by bromoxynil was below our experi-

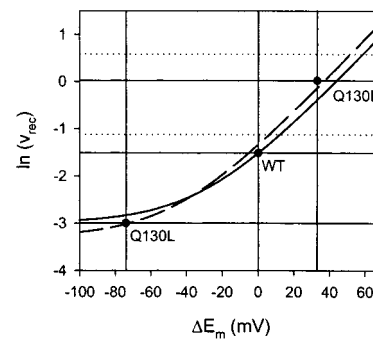


FIGURE 4: A plot of  $\ln(v_{rec})$  for the three strains (with DCMU, solid horizontal lines, or with bromoxynil, dotted horizontal lines) vs the shift of  $E_m(Ph)$  with respect to the WT. The solid vertical lines indicate the  $\Delta E_m$  values determined by Merry et al. for Q130L and Q130E. The solid curve is the theoretical prediction (for the DCMU data) assuming  $v_{dir} = 0.05 \text{ s}^{-1}$  (Q130L value) and  $v_{ind} = 0.17 \text{ s}^{-1}$  (WT value - Q130L value). The dashed curve is the best fit (for the DCMU data) with  $v_{dir}$  and  $v_{ind}$  as free parameters (the fit values are 0.04 and  $0.23 \text{ s}^{-1}$ , respectively).

mental resolution. The dotted horizontal lines in Figure 3 show the recombination rates measured in the presence of bromoxynil for WT and Q130E. The  $\Delta E_m^Q$  caused by this inhibitor with respect to DCMU can be estimated at about -14 mV, much smaller than determined in spinach PS II (-90 mV) by Krieger et al. (37).

**Donor Side Equilibrium and Direct Recombination Rate.** Relevant literature data about  $K_{SP}$  can be summarized as follows. The equilibrium constant for electron transfer between P and  $Y_Z$  has been estimated in the 5–29 range (38–40) during the transient equilibrium reached in the microsecond range following a flash. This would imply a 40–90 meV energy gap. From electroluminescence measurements, Vos et al. (41) estimated a 55 meV difference between  $S_2/S_1$  and  $Y_Z^{ox}/Y_Z$ . Adding these values gives  $G_{SP} = 95–145 \text{ meV}$ . Both measurements, however, are obtained at short times and the relevant value for  $G_{SP}$  may include additional stabilization occurring on a longer time-scale. Another estimation uses the ratio of recombination rates of  $P^+Q_A^-$  and of  $S_2Q_A^-$ . In Mn depleted material, with  $Y_Z$  oxidized prior to the flash, the  $P^+Q_A^-$  recombination proceeds with a rate constant of  $6000 \text{ s}^{-1}$  (in spinach thylakoids, 29) or  $4100 \text{ s}^{-1}$  (in *Synechococcus*, 42) based in both cases on the major fast phase of the multiphasic decay. In a mutant of *Synechocystis* with  $Y_Z$  deleted, Metz et al. (43) measured a rate of  $700 \text{ s}^{-1}$ . The recombination rate of  $S_2Q_A^-$  in spinach is about  $0.2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ . This would imply  $K_{SP} = 3 \times 10^4 - 3.5 \times 10^3$ , or  $G_{SP} = 200–260 \text{ meV}$ . A complication arises from the finding (44, 45) that the midpoint potential of  $Q_A$  is shifted up by about 150 mV in Mn-depleted material where the  $P^+Q_A^-$  recombination was measured. According to the present study, this effect should markedly slow the recombination, probably switching from the indirect-dominant to direct-dominant regime (as observed here when comparing the Q130E and Q130L strains). This would imply, roughly, a 20-fold slowing, meaning that the  $P^+Q_A^-$  recombination rate is in the range  $12 \times 10^4 - 14 \times 10^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$  in  $O_2$ -evolving PSII, i.e.,  $G_{SP} = 290–350 \text{ meV}$ .

It thus appears that the uncertainty on  $G_{SP}$  is very large. We can, however, obtain an independent estimate by comparing our value of  $v_{dir} \approx 0.05 \text{ s}^{-1}$  with the value of  $k_{PQ}$  determined at low temperature. A rate of  $410 \text{ s}^{-1}$  ( $t_{1/2} \approx 1.7$

Table 2

<p><b>Estimations from the literature:</b></p> <p>Rate constants: <math>k_e = 3 \cdot 10^8 \text{ s}^{-1}</math> (15;16), <math>k_{PhP} = 3 \cdot 10^9 \text{ s}^{-1}</math> (48), <math>k_{PhQ} = 3.3 \cdot 10^9 \text{ s}^{-1}</math> (11;13), <math>k_{QP} = 410 \text{ s}^{-1}</math> (9;30).</p> <p>Yield of the excitonic recombination pathway: <math>\eta = 0.028</math> (14).</p> <p><b>Rate constants for <math>S_2Q_A^-</math> recombination (this paper):</b></p> <p><math>v_{rec} = 0.22 \text{ s}^{-1}</math>, <math>v_{dir} = 0.05 \text{ s}^{-1}</math>, <math>v_{ind} = 0.17 \text{ s}^{-1}</math>.</p> <p><b>Equations and numerical values derived in the text:</b></p> $K_{SP} = \frac{k_{QP}}{v_{dir}} \approx 10^4 \text{ (} G_{SP} \approx 240 \text{ meV)}$ $v_{ind} = \frac{k'_{PhP}}{K_{SP} K_{QPh}} \text{ with } k'_{PhP} = \frac{k_{PhQ} k_{PhP}}{k_{PhQ} + k_{PhP}} = 1.6 \cdot 10^9 \text{ s}^{-1}$ $K_{QPh} = \frac{k'_{PhP}}{v_{ind} K_{SP}} \approx 10^6 \text{ (} G_{QPh} \approx 360 \text{ meV)}$ $K_\varepsilon = \frac{k_\varepsilon}{\eta v_{rec}} \approx 5 \cdot 10^{10} \text{ (} G_\varepsilon \approx 640 \text{ mV)}$
---

ms) was reported by several groups (9, 30) for  $P^+Q_A^-$  recombination at cryogenic temperatures. This rate constant clearly pertains to the direct pathway (because of the high activation energy implied by the indirect route). It is in very good agreement with the empirical expression derived from Marcus theory by Moser and co-workers (46), stating that for an activationless reaction:

$$\log(k) = 15 - 0.6R \quad (7)$$

where  $R$  is the edge to edge distance in Angstroms. From the crystallographic data (Table 2), one has  $R = 20.4 \text{ \AA}$  between P and  $Q_A$ , which would predict  $k_{PQ} \approx 575 \text{ s}^{-1}$  (applying the standard deviation estimated by Moser and co-workers, the range is 240–1380  $\text{s}^{-1}$ ). It is unlikely that this maximum rate could be significantly accelerated at room temperature (in bacteria, the homologous reaction is actually slower at room temperature by a factor 3–4 compared with low temperature). If we assume that it is essentially temperature independent, then  $k_{PQ} \approx 410 \text{ s}^{-1}$  and  $K_{SP} \approx k_{PQ}/v_{dir} \approx 10^4$ . We will thus adopt  $G_{SP} = 240 \text{ meV}$  as a reasonable value. This is in good agreement with the estimations derived from the overall recombination rates of  $S_2Q_A^-$  and  $P^+Q_A^-$ , provided that the correction accounting for the  $E_m$  shift of  $Q_A$  in Mn-depleted material is ignored. A possible explanation is that the disruption of the Mn cluster affects in a similar

way both  $Q_A$  and Ph, so that the  $\Delta E_m$  between them is little modified.

The recombination rate of  $P^+Q_A^-$  (direct + indirect routes) can then be estimated to be  $v_{rec} K_{SP} \approx 0.22 \times 10^4 = 2200 \text{ s}^{-1}$ , which is in reasonable agreement with the values (4000–6000  $\text{s}^{-1}$ ) measured in Mn-depleted material in the presence of  $Y_Z^{ox}$  (notice that these figures represent the fast phase of the multiphasic recombination).

**Equilibrium Constants on the Acceptor Side and Indirect Recombination Rate.** We have obtained  $v_{ind} \approx 0.17 \text{ s}^{-1}$  in the WT. From this value and literature data concerning  $k'_{PhP}$  (see eqs 2–3), we will now estimate the equilibrium constant  $K_{SPh}$ . Our working scheme is indicated in Figure 3, while Table 2 summarizes the numerical values and equations. Depending on the spin correlation, the radical pair  $P^+Ph^-$  can be found in a singlet or triplet state. The magnetic interaction between the unpaired electrons residing on  $P^+$  and  $Ph^-$  is negligible, so that the singlet and triplet states should be isoenergetic (same enthalpy). The triplet state has, however, a 3-fold degeneracy, which implies that its entropy is larger than that of the singlet by  $k_B \ln(3)$  (where  $k_B$  is the Boltzmann constant), corresponding to a lower free energy by about 30 mV (at room temperature) (8). When formed from  $P^*$ , the radical pair is initially entirely in the singlet state and, if electron transfer to  $Q_A$  is prevented, the singlet–

triplet equilibration occurs in the 5–50 ns time range (47). On the other hand, when the radical pair is formed from a stabilized state (e.g.,  $P^+Q_A^-$ ), the spin equilibrium is present from the start. The rate constant of the decay of the triplet state, forming triplet P ( $^3P$ ), has been estimated at about  $3 \text{ ns}^{-1}$  at 290 K (48). Altogether, these figures are consistent with the rate of  $0.05 \text{ ns}^{-1}$  found for the decay of  $P^+Ph^-$  (accompanied by formation of  $^3P$ ) when formed in the light in the presence of the quinol form of  $Q_A$  (so that electron transfer is prevented while keeping an electrically neutral form of  $Q_A$ ) (49). The rate-limiting process appears to be the spin dephasing, while the triplet electron-transfer reaction  $^3[P^+Ph^-] \rightarrow ^3P$  is the fastest and major pathway for the radical pair decay. The  $3 \text{ ns}^{-1}$  rate constant for this process turns out to be similar to that of the  $Ph^-$  to  $Q_A$  electron transfer. Clearly, the  $^1[P^+Ph^-] \rightarrow ^1P$  recombination process must be much slower than that if a good quantum yield of the charge stabilized state is desired. As suggested by van Gorkom (8), the exciton-radical pair equilibrium, together with the nonexponential (null initial rate) of the singlet–triplet conversion are likely to minimize losses through the triplet pathway during the charge separation process. On the basis of the above considerations, we assume that this route, with rate constant  $\approx 3 \text{ ns}^{-1}$ , is the major decay process for the radical pair  $P^+Ph^-$  and neglect the decay from the singlet state (thus,  $k_{PhP} \approx 3 \text{ ns}^{-1}$ ). Notice that the forward rate  $k_{PhQ}$  must be the same for the triplet and singlet states of the radical pair. The degeneracy of the triplet affects the backward rate (3-fold larger than for the singlet) and is appropriately taken into account in the above equation, provided  $k_{QPh}$  and  $K_{QPh}$  refer to the triplet state.

With  $k_{PhQ} = 3.3 \times 10^9 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ,  $k_{PhP} = 3 \times 10^9 \text{ s}^{-1}$ , one obtains for  $k'_{PhP}$  (defined in eqs 2–3):  $k'_{PhP} = k_{PhQ}k_{PhP}/(k_{PhP} + k_{PhQ}) = 1.610^9 \text{ s}^{-1}$  and therefore  $K_{SPh} = k'_{PhP}/v_{ind} \approx 10^{10}$ , corresponding to a free energy difference of about 600 meV between states  $S_2PPhQ_A^-$  and  $^3(S1P^+Ph^-Q_A)$ . This is close to the enthalpy difference deduced from the temperature dependence of the recombination rate of the WT (or of spinach PS II, see below).

We obtained above (see introduction), using de Grooth's estimation of the yield of the exciton pathway, a figure of 640 meV for the free energy gap between  $S_2Q_A^-$  and the exciton. If one assumes that  $P^*$  is isoenergetic with an antenna of 200 chlorophylls, this implies an entropic stabilization of 140 meV due to exciton dilution over the antenna (or 100 mV in PSII core complexes with 40 chlorophylls). The free energy level difference between  $P^*$  and the  $S_2Q_A^-$  state is then about 780 meV. For the energy difference between  $P^*$  and the triplet radical pair, we have thus  $780 - 600 = 180 \text{ meV}$ , or 150 meV between  $P^*$  and the singlet radical pair. This is close to the 135 meV estimated by Booth et al. from luminescence measurements in the 100 ns time range using  $D_1D_2b_{559}$  reaction centers (50) and suggests that there is no major relaxation process that would further stabilize  $P^+Ph^-$  when formed during the recombination of  $S_2Q_A^-$ .

The free energy difference  $G_{QPh}$  between  $Q_A$  and Ph is (600 meV –  $G_{SP}$ ). Therefore, if  $G_{SP} \approx 240 \text{ meV}$ , then  $G_{QPh} \approx 360 \text{ meV}$ . This implies that the 610 meV value of Table 1 is overestimated by about 250 meV.

*Other Recombination Routes.* We have only considered thus far the recombination routes involving electron transfer

Table 3: Edge-to-Edge and Center-to-Center Distances in PS II, from the PDB Coordinates of 1FE1 (38)<sup>a</sup>

	P	Ph	$Q_A$
Mn ( $S_2$ )		<b>24.6</b>	<b>38.6</b>
$Y_Z$		<b>18.5</b>	<b>33.0</b>
P		<b>8.3</b>	<b>20.4</b>
Ph	<i>15.5 (P<sub>A</sub>)</i>		
	<i>19.5 (P<sub>B</sub>)</i>		
$Q_A$		<i>11.1</i>	

<sup>a</sup> Bold: edge to edge distance, italic: center to center.  $P_A$  and  $P_B$  are the chlorophylls of the special pair on the A ( $D_1$ ) and B ( $D_2$ ) branches, respectively.

to  $P^+$  and disregarded other possibilities, such as electron transfer to Mn ( $S_2$ ) or  $Y_Z^{ox}$  (from  $Ph^-$  or  $Q_A^-$ ). Upper limits for the relative weights of these pathways can be obtained by combining the available information on equilibrium constants and distances. Using eq 7 and the distance data of Table 3 (from ref 51), one obtains  $2 \times 10^{-5} \text{ s}^{-1}$  for  $Y_Z^{ox}Q_A^- \rightarrow Y_ZQ_A$  (i),  $2 \text{ s}^{-1}$  for  $S_2Ph^- \rightarrow S_1Ph$  (ii) and  $8000 \text{ s}^{-1}$  for  $Y_Z^{ox}Ph^- \rightarrow Y_ZPh$  (iii). Process (i) is obviously negligible. The other ones can be discarded, too, by considering the equilibrium constants involved to form these states. Assuming that  $k_{PhP} \approx 3 \times 10^9 \text{ s}^{-1}$ , then process (ii) could be competitive only if  $S_2$  were about  $10^9$  times more populated than  $P^+$ , in contrast with the equilibrium constant of  $10^4$  estimated above. Similarly, process (iii) could be competitive if  $Y_Z^{ox}$  were about  $4 \times 10^5$  times more populated than  $P^+$ , again larger than the overall equilibrium constant between  $S_2$  and P. Thus, all these possibilities can be neglected—with, however, a smaller margin for case (iii).

*Temperature Dependence.* The Arrhenius plots shown in Figure 2 yield estimations of the activation enthalpy for the recombination reaction:  $H_{ac} \approx 610 \text{ meV}$  for the wild type and  $\approx 450 \text{ meV}$  for the Q130L mutant. The plot obtained for Q130E is not linear, with a smaller slope in the high temperature region (a similar but less pronounced trend is also observed for the wild type). Due to this problem and because of the restricted temperature range that the cells could withstand, quantitative analysis of the data is limited. Nevertheless, there is clearly a decrease of the activation enthalpy in the Q130L mutant with respect to WT. This is good qualitative evidence that the recombination process switches from a regime where the indirect pathway is significant (WT) to one dominated by the direct pathway (Q130L). Indeed, when the  $\Delta E_m$  between  $Q_A$  and Ph is increased, the contribution of the indirect pathway must undergo both a decrease of its rate and an increase of its activation enthalpy, while this does not affect the contribution of the direct pathway (which is expected to have a smaller activation enthalpy). Thus, this observation confirms our interpretation of the bromoxynil/DCMU experiment. The activation enthalpy found for the WT (610 meV) is somewhat larger than that measured by Kanazawa and Kramer in spinach thylakoids (578 meV), which could be expected since plant PS II has a glutamate at position 130, thus equivalent to Q130E (this equivalence must be qualified, however, because the recombination rate of chloroplast PS II is closer to that of the cyanobacterial WT than to Q130E). A much larger activation enthalpy was estimated from thermoluminescence data ( $\approx 810 \text{ meV}$ ) (52). It should be noted, however, that the theoretical framework used for such



estimations, either using the Randall-Wilkins equation (53) or the more elaborate treatment developed by Devault and co-workers (54) all assume that the excitonic pathway is the only decay process for  $S_2Q_A^-$ , which is obviously inappropriate. The recent study of Vavilin (10) showing drastic changes of the thermoluminescence peak temperature and intensity in mutants where the  $E_m$  of P is modified gives a clear illustration of this point.

According to the present interpretation, the activation enthalpy for Q130L ( $\approx 445$  meV) should reflect essentially the  $\Delta H$  between the  $S_2/S_1$  and  $P^+/P$  couples. If such is the case, and if  $G_{SP}$  is 240 meV, the entropy of the  $S_2P$  state must be significantly lower than that of  $S_1P^+$  ( $T\Delta S \approx 200$  meV). On the other hand, the activation enthalpy for the indirect pathway (about 610 meV in the WT, or 578 meV in spinach PS II) is similar to our estimate of  $G_{SPh} \approx 600$  meV, which suggests that the overall entropy difference between states  $S_2Q_A^-$  and  $P^+Ph^-$  is small. This implies that entropy contribution to  $G_{SP}$  would be partly canceled out by a contribution of opposite sign in  $G_{QPh}$  ( $T\Delta S \approx -60$  meV at room temperature, according to the fit shown in Figure 2). The finding by Reinman and Mathis or van Gorkom et al. (9, 55) of  $\Delta H_{QPh} \approx 160$  meV (from the activation enthalpy of the recombination of  $P^+Q_A^-$  in spinach PS II) also suggests a significant negative  $\Delta S$  at this step (i.e., one would have in this case  $G_{QPh} \approx 360$  meV with  $\Delta H = 160$  meV and  $T\Delta S = -200$  meV).

*A Revision of the  $E_m$  Picture.* We have argued that the currently accepted  $E_m$  values compiled in Table 1 cannot account for the recombination data. The  $\Delta E_m$  between the ( $Q_A/Q_A^-$ ) and ( $Ph^-/Ph$ ) or ( $P^+/P^*$ ) couples must be smaller by about 250 mV. Only two of the  $E_m$  values featured in the table have been directly measured from redox titrations, that of  $Q_A$  and that of Ph. The question is then, which is the "wrong" one: is it  $Q_A$  (that should be located around  $-300$  mV rather than  $-30$  mV) or Ph (that should be located around  $-390$  mV rather than  $-640$  mV)? It may be noted that both sets of data pertain to rather slow time scales (the seconds range for recombination experiments, or minutes for redox titrations), where relaxation phenomena, proton equilibria in particular, may be expected to be completed. It is possible, however, that some very slow relaxation process ( $> 1$  s) is responsible for the discrepancy. The multiphasic character of the decay may actually be taken as a hint for such a process.

The redox titration data for the  $E_m$  of  $Q_A$  found in the literature are rather scattered. Roughly, three ranges of values were reported, around  $-250$ ,  $0$ , and  $125$  mV (reviewed in ref 45). The  $-30$  mV figure featured in Table 1 is taken from the work of the Rutherford group (for titrations run in the presence of DCMU) (37, 44, 45) and appears as the most reliable one, owing to a systematic evaluation of critical parameters: effects of mediators, inhibitors, donor side integrity. The authors found little pH dependence of the  $E_m$ , at variance with the case of bacterial chromatophores. The low titration wave around  $-250$  mV remains mysterious (see e.g., refs 56–58) but appears unlikely to reflect the  $Q_A/Q_A^-$  couple proper, since it was not observed when titrating the C-550 change (57). An additional reason for rejecting values in the  $-300$  mV region as reported by Thielen and van Gorkom (59) is that this would lead to unacceptably low values for the midpoint potentials of the donor side cofactors,

as explained below. It may also be argued that in algae in vivo under anaerobic conditions, the redox poise is such that  $Q_A$  is reduced in the dark (60), while in the  $b_6f$  complex, heme  $b_h$  is entirely reduced and  $b_l$  remains mostly oxidized (61). This confirms that the midpoint potential of  $Q_A$  is significantly more positive than that of  $b_l$  ( $\approx -150$  mV (62)). As to the high potential wave appearing in some  $Q_A$  titrations Krieger and co-workers proposed that it results from the disassembly of the Mn-cluster caused by its reduction when poisoning PS II at low redox potentials in the presence of redox mediators. The disruption of the Mn cluster induces a  $+150$  mV shift of the  $E_m$  of  $Q_A$ , and this has been proposed to account for the titration wave around  $+125$  mV and to be a major source for the scatter of the reported values (44, 45).

Although we cannot rule out the possibility that the "operating potential" of  $Q_A$  could be more negative on the time scale of recombination (seconds) than that appearing in redox titrations (minutes), we consider as more likely that the discrepancy arises from the estimation of  $E_m(Ph)$ , as previously proposed in ref 44. Indeed, the very negative value of  $E_m(Ph)$  renders its determination delicate. The titrations must be performed at low pH (pH 10–11) to prevent hydrogen formation (63, 64). In these experiments, the amount of oxidized Ph was assayed by measuring the amount of  $Ph^-$  that can be photoaccumulated under prolonged continuous illumination. Such harsh conditions may affect the protein properties. The estimates obtained in this manner in *R. viridis* range from  $-400$  to  $-600$  mV (5, 65–67) and from  $-600$  to  $-650$  mV in PSII (63, 64). Besides the problem of the reliability of the redox titrations, one should consider electrostatic interactions that may have significance with regard to the present issue. A first effect is the interaction between Ph and the anionic  $Q_A^-$  expected to be present at the low potential poise where Ph titrates in. Recently, Gibasiewicz et al. (68) estimated this interaction at about 90 mV. Thus, the measured  $E_m$  of Ph would be 90 mV lower than the true value (unless  $Q_A$  was in a neutral reduced form such as  $Q_AH_2$  in these experiments). A second effect is the interaction between  $P^+$  and  $Ph^-$ , that will cause a stabilization of the  $P^+Ph^-$  state. The center-to-center distance is about 16 Å (assuming the cation is predominantly located on the D1 member of the special pair, see ref 69) and the expected Coulombic interaction is thus in the range 45–225 mV ( $\epsilon_r = 20$ –4, respectively). From electrostatic calculations based on the structure of the bacterial reaction center, Parson et al. estimated the interaction between  $P^+$  and  $BPh_L^-$  to be about 160 meV (4 kcal/mol) (70). This is precisely what would be needed, in addition to the 90 meV interaction of  $Q_A^-$  and Ph to obtain a 250 meV shift. It should be noted that these effects have a different status: the first one means that the titrated  $E_m(Ph)$  is artifactually offset with respect to the "true" value because of the interaction with  $Q_A^-$ , whereas the second one implies that the operational  $E_m(Ph)$ , regarding the exciton/radical pair equilibrium or the population of the radical pair from a more stabilized state, is more positive than the "true"  $E_m$  because of the interaction with  $P^+$ .

The issues discussed here for PS II have been the object of a number of studies in the bacterial reaction center (2, 5, 7). The indirect recombination route through BPh is predominant in *R. viridis* (where  $Q_A$  is a menaquinone with lower  $E_m$  than ubiquinone), or in modified centers from *R.*



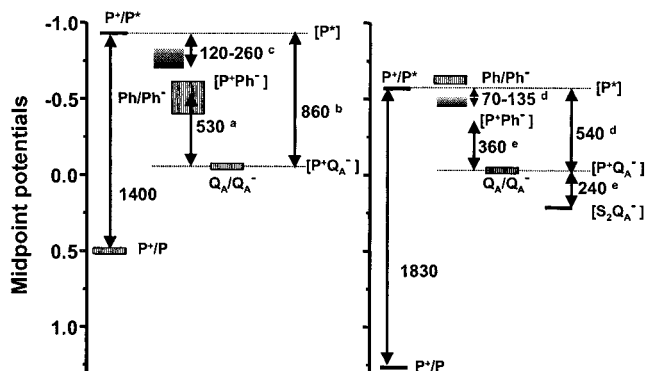


FIGURE 5: Energetics of the excited and radical pair states in *R. sphaeroides* (left) and photosystem II (right). The redox couples are positioned with respect to the midpoint potentials scale (in V). The relative energy levels of charge-separated states (indicated between brackets) are plotted with respect to the  $E_m$  of  $Q_A$ . The gray boxes indicate the range of midpoint potentials obtained in equilibrium redox titrations. For  $\text{Ph}/\text{Ph}^-$ , no data are available for *R. sphaeroides*, and we used results from *R. viridis* (5, 65–67). The PS II titrations of  $\text{Ph}/\text{Ph}^-$  are from refs 63 and 64. The levels indicated with solid lines are midpoint potentials deduced from free energy changes (the latter indicated by arrows, values expressed in meV). The time-dependent relaxation between  $\text{P}^*$  and  $\text{P}^+\text{Ph}^-$  is symbolized by shaded boxes [c: (72, 83) for *sphaeroides* and d: (50, 81) for PS II]. The free energy difference between  $\text{P}^+\text{Ph}^-$  and  $\text{P}^+\text{Q}_A^-$  in *R. sphaeroides* has been determined from its estimation in anthraquinone-substituted reaction centers (370 meV) and the difference in midpoint potentials between anthraquinone and ubiquinone (160 mV) (a: 83). The free energy change between  $\text{P}^*$  and  $\text{P}^+\text{Q}_A^-$  was taken from (b: 74) for *R. sphaeroides* and derived from the luminescence yield (d: 14) for PS II. Other values are determined in this paper (e).

*sphaeroides* with a reduced free energy gap between BPh and  $Q_A$  (e.g., by substituting anthraquinones for  $Q_A$  (2, 7, 71). In such cases, the recombination rates lead to estimates of the  $\Delta G$  between quinone and BPh (e.g., about 370 meV in anthraquinone substituted centers) which are markedly smaller than those derived from the exciton–radical pair equilibrium as measured in the subnanosecond range, suggesting that the  $\text{P}^+\text{BPh}^-$  state undergoes substantial stabilization at later times (7). This view is supported by luminescence studies showing evidence of relaxation phases occurring on a broad range of time scales (72). The  $E_m$  of BPh obtained by redox titration (thus, obviously, under “relaxed” conditions) is about  $-620$  mV (67, 73), corresponding to  $G_{\text{QBPh}} \approx 620 - 210 = 410$  meV (where  $-210$  mV is the  $E_m$  of the anthraquinone). This is larger by 40 meV than the value required to match the recombination data, but the discrepancy is clearly not as big as in PS II. A comparison between the  $E_m$  data in bacteria and PS II is shown in Figure 5 to highlight the point made in this paper. Roughly similar values have been found for (B)Ph and  $Q_A$  (in reaction centers with UQ, as *R. sphaeroides*), while the recombination route is direct in bacteria and predominantly indirect in PS II. Also, the luminescence yields differ by many orders of magnitude. Indeed, according to the data of Arata and Parson (74), the absolute value of the radiative contribution to the excitonic pathway in *R. sphaeroides* is about  $2 \times 10^{-8}$ . Such a low value clearly implies that the relative weight of the total excitonic pathway in the recombination process is much smaller than in PSII (3%, 14). Altogether, this points to an erroneous  $E_m$  picture in PS II. A point that remains unclear, however, is why the discrepancy that we ascribe to the  $E_m$

of (B)Ph is only about 60 mV in bacteria versus 250 mV in PS II. The ( $\approx 90$  meV) interaction between  $Q_A^-$  and Ph that was proposed to affect the redox titration of Ph may not occur in bacteria if the binding of one proton (as suggested by the pH dependence of the  $E_m$  of  $Q_A$  in chromatophores) cancels the effect. The other contribution ( $\approx 160$  meV) ascribed to the electrostatic interaction between  $\text{P}^+$  and (B)Ph $^-$  should however be present.

On the basis of de Grooth’s estimate for the excitonic recombination yield, we have estimated the free energy difference between  $\text{P}^*\text{Q}_A$  and  $\text{S}_2\text{PQ}_A^-$  to be around 780 meV. Thus, if  $G_{\text{SP}} = 240$  meV, the free energy difference between  $\text{P}^*\text{Q}_A$  and  $\text{P}^+\text{Q}_A^-$  is 540 meV. Then, if we accept  $E_m(Q_A) \approx -30$  mV as a reliable value for the “operating potential” of  $Q_A$  during recombination (i.e., if we consider that no significant relaxation occurs on a longer time-scale than the seconds time-range, see above), this has significant consequences on the estimation of the  $E_m$  of the donor side cofactors. Indeed, the midpoint potentials of ( $\text{P}^+/\text{P}^*$ ), ( $\text{P}^+/\text{P}$ ), ( $\text{Y}_Z^{\text{ox}}/\text{Y}_Z$ ) and those of the S states have not been measured directly, but located primarily with respect to (Ph/Ph $^-$ ). First, one obtains  $E_m(\text{P}^+/\text{P}^*) \approx -540 - 30 = -570$  mV (assuming that the interaction between  $\text{P}^+$  and  $Q_A^-$  is negligible). This is 150 mV higher than the  $-720$  mV figure quoted in Table 1 (the offset is smaller than the above estimate of 250 mV because the estimation featured in Table 1 did not take into account the entropic stabilization of the exciton on the antenna). Then, one has  $E_m(\text{P}^+/\text{P}) \approx 1830 - 570 = +1260$  mV (taking 1830 mV as the energy of the singlet–singlet transition on P, see Figure 5), again 150 mV higher than in Table 1. Furthermore,  $E_m(\text{S}_2/\text{S}_1) \approx 1260 - 240 = 1020$  mV. This implies that the driving force for water oxidation is significantly larger than previously estimated and it would then be less of an amazing feat (see, e.g., refs 1, 75, 76–78) to ensure the efficiency of this complex reaction (the midpoint potential of the  $\text{O}_2/\text{H}_2\text{O}$  couple is  $+930$  mV at pH 5, which is likely close to the physiological pH of the lumen). Conversely, if one had chosen the alternative option assuming that the titration value of Ph is correct and that the midpoint potential of  $Q_A$  is 250 mV lower than  $-30$  mV, one would obtain  $E_m(\text{P}^+/\text{P}) \approx 1010$  mV and  $E_m(\text{S}_2/\text{S}_1) \approx 770$  mV. This would make water oxidation impossible unless the higher states have  $E_m$ ’s close to 1000 mV, in which case only 10 mV would be available to drive the oxidation of  $\text{S}_2$  and  $\text{S}_3$  by  $\text{P}^+$ .

## ACKNOWLEDGMENT

We warmly thank J. Breton for stimulating discussions, and A. W. Rutherford for his gift of bromoxynil as well as for his fruitful interest in this work.

## REFERENCES

- Diner, B. A., and Babcock, G. T. (1996) in *Oxygenic Photosynthesis: The Light Reactions* (Ort, D. R., and Yocum, C. F., Eds.) pp 213–247, Kluwer Academic Publishers, Dordrecht.
- Gunner, M. R., Liang, Y., Nagus, D. K., Hochstrasser, R. M., and Dutton, P. L. (1982) *Biophys. J.* 37, 226.
- Baciou, L., Bylina, E. J., and Sebban, P. (1993) *Biophys. J.* 65, 652–660.
- Miksovská, J., Maroti, P., Tandori, J., Schiffer, M., Hanson, D. K., and Sebban, P. (1996) *Biochemistry* 35, 15411–15417.
- Shopes, R. J., and Wraight, C. A. (1987) *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 893, 409–425.

6. Parson, W. W. (1996) in *Protein Electron Transfer* (Bendall, D. S., Ed.) pp 125–160, BIOS Scientific Publishers Ltd, Oxford.
7. Woodbury, N. W., Parson, W. W., Gunner, M. R., Prince, R. C., and Dutton, P. L. (1986) *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 851, 6–22.
8. van Gorkom, H. J. (1985) *Photosynth. Res.* 6, 97–112.
9. Reinman, S., and Mathis, P. (1981) *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 635, 249–258.
10. Vavilin, D. V., and Vermaas, W. F. (2000) *Biochemistry* 39, 14831–14838.
11. Bernarding, J., Eckert, H.-J., Eichler, H.-J., Napiwotzki, A., and Renger, G. (1994) *Photochem. Photobiol.* 59, 566–573.
12. Nuijs, A. M., van Gorkom, H. J., Plijter, J. J., and Duysens, L. N. M. (1986) *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 848, 167–175.
13. Trissl, H.-W., and Leibl, W. (1989) *FEBS Lett.* 244, 85–88.
14. De Grooth, B. G., and van Gorkom, H. J. (1981) *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 635, 445–456.
15. Ide, J. P., Klug, D. R., Kühlbrandt, W., Giorgi, L. B., and Porter, G. (1987) *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 893, 349–364.
16. Nordlund, T. M., and Knox, W. H. (1981) *Biophys. J.* 36, 193–201.
17. Giorgi, L. B., Nixon, P. J., Merry, S. A. P., Joseph, D. M., Durrant, J. R., Rivas, J. D., Barber, J., Porter, G., and Klug, D. R. (1996) *J. Biol. Chem.* 271, 2093–2101.
18. Merry, S. A. P., Nixon, P. J., Barter, L. M. C., Schilstra, M. J., Porter, G., Barber, J., Durrant, J. R., and Klug, D. (1998) *Biochemistry* 37, 17439–17447.
19. Dorlet, P., Xiong, L., Sayre, R. T., and Un, S. (2001) *J. Biol. Chem.* 276, 22313–22316.
20. Allen, J. P., and Williams, J. C. (1995) *J. Bioenerg. Biomembr.* 27, 275–283.
21. Williams, J. G. K. (1988) *Methods Enzymol.* 167, 766–778.
22. Nixon, P. J., Trost, J. T., and Diner, B. A. (1992) *Biochemistry* 31, 10859–10871.
23. Joliot, P., Béal, D., and Frilley, B. (1980) *J. Chim. Phys.* 77, 209–216.
24. Joliot, P., Joliot, A., and Verméglio, A. (1997) *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 1318, 374–384.
25. Joliot, P., and Joliot, A. (1964) *C. R. Acad. Sci. Paris* 258, 4622–4625.
26. Paillotin, G. (1976) *J. Theor. Biol.* 58, 237–252.
27. Diner, B. A., and Wollman, F.-A. (1979) *Plant Physiol.* 63, 20–25.
28. Bennoun, P. (1970) *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 216, 357–363.
29. Conjeaud, H., and Mathis, P. (1980) *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 590, 353–359.
30. Hillmann, B., and Schlodder, E. (1995) *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 1231, 76–88.
31. Moënné-Loccoz, P., Robert, B., and Lutz, M. (1989) *Biochemistry* 28, 3641–3645.
32. Diner, B. A., Nixon, P. J., and Farchaus, J. W. (1991) *Curr. Opin. Struct. Biol.* 1, 546–554.
33. Svensson, B., Etchebest, C., Tuffery, P., van Kan, P., Smith, J., and Styring, S. (1996) *Biochemistry* 35, 14486–14502.
34. Ruffle, S. V., Donnelly, D., Blundell, T. L., and Nugent, J. H. A. (1992) *Photosynth. Res.* 34, 287–300.
35. Breton, J., Bibikova, M., Oesterhelt, D., and Nabdryk, E. (1999) *Biochemistry* 38, 11541–11552.
36. Breton, J., Nabdryk, E., Allen, J. P., and Williams, J. A. C. (1997) *Biochemistry* 36, 4515–4525.
37. Krieger-Liszkay, A., and Rutherford, A. W. (1998) *Biochemistry* 37, 17339–17344.
38. Brettel, K., Schlodder, E., and Witt, H. T. (1984) *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 766, 403–415.
39. Eckert, H.-J., and Renger, G. (1988) *FEBS Lett.* 236, 425–431.
40. Rappaport, F., Porter, G., Barber, J., Klug, D., and Lavergne, J. (1995) in *Photosynthesis: From Light to Biosphere* (Mathis, P., Ed.) pp 345–348, Kluwer Academic Publishers, Dordrecht.
41. Vos, M. H., van Gorkom, H. J., and van Leeuwen, P. J. (1991) *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 1056, 27–39.
42. Gerken, S., Dekker, J. P., Schlodder, E., and Witt, H. T. (1989) *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 977, 52–61.
43. Metz, J. G., Nixon, P. J., Rögner, M., Brudvig, G. W., and Diner, B. A. (1989) *Biochemistry* 28, 6960–6969.
44. Johnson, G. N., Rutherford, A. W., and Krieger, A. (1995) *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 1229, 202–207.
45. Krieger, A., Rutherford, A. W., and Johnson, G. N. (1995) *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 1229, 193–201.
46. Moser, C. C., Page, C. C., Farid, R., and Dutton, P. L. (1995) *J. Bioenerg. Biomembr.* 27, 263–274.
47. Haberkorn, R., and Michel-Beyerle, M. E. (1979) *Biophys. J.* 26, 489–498.
48. Volk, M., Gilbert, M., Rousseau, G., Richter, M., Ogrodnik, A., and Michel-Beyerle, M. E. (1993) *FEBS Lett.* 336, 357–362.
49. van Mieghem, F. J. E., Brettel, K., Hillmann, B., Kamlowski, A., Rutherford, A. W., and Schlodder, E. (1995) *Biochemistry* 34, 4798–4813.
50. Booth, P. J., Crystall, B., Ahmad, I., Barber, J., Porter, G., and Klug, D. R. (1991) *Biochemistry* 30, 7573–7586.
51. Zouni, A., Witt, H. T., Kern, J., Fromme, P., Krauss, N., Saenger, W., and Orth, P. (2001) *Nature* 409, 739–743.
52. Vass, I., Horvath, G., Herczeg, T., and Demeter, S. (1981) *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 634, 140–152.
53. Randall, J. F., and Wilkins, J. H. F. (1945) *Proc. Royal Soc.* 184, 389.
54. Devault, D., Govindjee, and Arnold, W. (1983) *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* 80, 983–987.
55. van Gorkom, H. J., Meiburg, R. F., and De Vos, L. J. (1986) *Photosynth. Res.* 9, 55–62.
56. Cramer, W. A., and Butler, W. L. (1969) *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 172, 503–510.
57. Diner, B. A., and Delosme, R. (1983) *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 722, 443–451.
58. Evans, M. C. W., Atkinson, Y. E., and Ford, R. C. (1985) *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 806, 247–254.
59. Thielen, A. P. G. M., and van Gorkom, H. J. (1981) *FEBS Lett.* 129, 205–209.
60. Diner, B. A. (1977) *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 460, 247–258.
61. Joliot, P., and Joliot, A. (1994) *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* 91, 1034–1038.
62. Pierre, Y., Breyton, C., Kramer, D., and Popot, J.-L. (1995) *J. Biol. Chem.* 270, 29342–29349.
63. Klimov, V. V., Allakhverdiev, S. I., Demeter, S., and Krasnovskii, A. A. (1979) *Dokl. Akad. Nauk SSSR* 249, 227–230.
64. Rutherford, A. W., Mullet, J. E., and Crofts, A. R. (1981) *FEBS Lett.* 123, 235–237.
65. Prince, R. C., Leigh, J. S., and Dutton, P. L. (1976) *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 440, 622–636.
66. Shuvalov, V. A., Krakhmaleva, I. N., and Klimov, V. V. (1976) *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 449, 597–601.
67. Rutherford, A. W., Heathcote, P., and Evans, M. C. W. (1979) *Biochem. J.* 182, 523.
68. Gibasiewicz, K., Dobek, A., Breton, J., and Leibl, W. (2001) *Biophys. J.* 80, 1617–1630.
69. Diner, B. A., Schlodder, E., Nixon, P. J., Coleman, W. J., Rappaport, F., Lavergne, J., Vermaas, W. F., and Chisholm, D. A. (2001) *Biochemistry* 40, 9265–9281.
70. Parson, W. W., Chu, Z.-T., and Warshel, A. (1990) *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 1017, 251–272.
71. Sebban, P. (1988) *FEBS Lett.* 233, 331–334.
72. Peloquin, J. M., Williams, J. C., Lin, X. M., Alden, R. G., Taguchi, A. K. W., Allen, J. P., and Woodbury, N. W. (1994) *Biochemistry* 33, 8089–8100.
73. Shopes, R. J., and Wraight, C. A. (1986) *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 848, 364–371.
74. Arata, H., and Parson, W. W. (1981) *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 638, 201–209.
75. Haumann, M., and Junge, W. (1996) in *Oxygenic Photosynthesis: The Light Reaction* (Ort, D. R., and Yocum, C. F., Eds.) pp 165–192, Kluwer Acad., Dordrecht.
76. Rappaport, F., and Lavergne, J. (2001) *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 1503, 246–259.
77. Renger, G. (2001) *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 1503, 210–228.
78. Tommos, C., and Babcock, G. T. (2000) *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 1458, 199–219.
79. Klimov, V. V., Allakhverdiev, S. I., and Pashchenko, V. Z. (1978) *Dokl. Akad. Nauk. SSSR* 242, 1204–1207.
80. Holzwarth, A. R. (1986) *Photochem. Photobiol.* 43, 707–725.
81. Booth, P. J., Crystall, B., Giorgi, L. B., Barber, J., Klug, D. R., and Porter, G. (1990) *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 1016, 141–152.
82. Roelofs, T. A., Gilbert, M., Shuvalov, V. A., and Holzwarth, A. R. (1991) *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 1060, 237–244.
83. Woodbury, N. W., and Parson, W. W. (1986) *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 850, 197–210.