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**Dissipation of excess energy  
triggered by blue light in  
cyanobacteria with CP 43' (IsiA)**

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**ONE-SENTENCE SUMMARY:**

**The stress-induced peripheral chlorophyll antenna in cyanobacteria is found to confer a new type of photoprotection that is triggered by blue light.**

**ABSTRACT**

**The chlorophyll-protein CP43' induced by stress conditions in cyanobacteria with the *isiA* gene is shown to serve as an antenna for photosystem II, in addition to its known role as an antenna for photosystem I. At high light intensity, however, it is converted to an efficient trap for chlorophyll excitations that protects system II from photo-inhibition. In contrast to the 'energy-dependent non-photochemical quenching' in chloroplasts, this photo-protective energy dissipation in cyanobacteria is triggered by a blue light receptor. The induction is proportional to light intensity. Induction and decay of the quenching have the same large temperature-dependence.**

Sunlight is the driving force for photosynthesis. At the level of individual cells, the available light intensity varies unpredictably. Photosynthetic organisms can adjust to changes in average light intensity in various ways, together called photo-acclimation. They also have to cope with light intensity fluctuations that are too large or too fast for photo-acclimation to occur (1). This is especially clear in the case of the oxygen-evolving photosystem II (PSII), where over-saturating excitation leads to a rapid inhibition when destruction of the reaction center protein D1 becomes faster than its replacement (2). In the chloroplasts of algae and higher plants, excessive illumination induces a change in the chlorophyll binding antenna proteins that accelerates thermal dissipation of the excitation energy, as conveniently monitored by a decrease of the chlorophyll fluorescence yield (2, 3). This 'non-photochemical quenching' (NPQ) appears to be triggered by excessive acidification of the thylakoid lumen when consumption of the proton gradient by ATP synthesis cannot keep up with its generation by electron transport. It involves de-epoxidation of xanthophylls bound to the antenna proteins (4, 5) and requires specific

polypeptides, like PsbS in higher plants (6, 7). In some cases NPQ can reduce the excitation rate of PSII reaction centers by an order of magnitude (8).

A comparable photo-protective mechanism has not been reported for cyanobacteria, whose shorter generation time allows for a more rapid photo-acclimation (9). They normally have phycobilisomes (PBS) instead of chlorophyll binding antenna proteins. Under stress conditions, however, many cyanobacteria such as *Synechococcus* PCC 7942 and *Synechocystis* PCC6803 synthesize a chlorophyll-binding polypeptide called CP43', the product of *isiA* (10, 11, 12). CP43' is a homolog of the PSII core antenna protein CP43 (PsbC) and of Pcb in *Prochlorococcus* and *Prochloron*, which serves as a peripheral antenna for both photosystems (13, 14). CP 43' was recently shown to be an antenna for PSI (15, 16, 17, 18). A role in light-harvesting for PSII has also been proposed (19). However, the effective cross-section of PSII was actually found to be smaller in the presence of CP43' in *Synechococcus* PCC 7942, suggesting that CP43' is an efficient quencher of chlorophyll excitations that protects PSII from over-excitation (20, 21).

It seems unlikely that the same protein could serve both as an antenna and as an excitation sink, unless it can exist in a non-quenching as well as in a quenching form. Here we demonstrate that the accumulation of CP 43' is, in fact, accompanied by the appearance of a reversible, light-induced NPQ that provides an effective protection against photoinhibition of PSII. A first characterization of induction and decay of this cyanobacterial NPQ reveals that its regulation is completely different from the analogous phenomenon in chloroplasts of photosynthetic eukaryotes.

Iron-starvation of *Synechocystis* PCC 6803 (22a) leads to gradual changes in the relative concentrations of CP43', PSI and PSII over generations. Especially the iron-rich

PSI is severely down-regulated, while CP43' is up regulated (11). To monitor the changing photosystem composition, fluorescence emission spectra were measured at 77 K with preferential chlorophyll excitation (22a). The PSI peak was shifted from 723 to 719 nm and decreased relative to the amplitude of the PSII emission peaks at 685 nm and 695 nm, reflecting a decrease of the fraction of chlorophyll associated with PSI. The F685/F695 ratio increased from less than 1 in the control cells to 1.5 after 4 days of iron starvation and up to 2 after 10 days. CP43' not only contributes to PSI excitation but also to PSII and ultimately accumulates in a form that does not efficiently transfer excitation energy to either photosystem and fluoresces at 685 nm.

At room temperature, the fluorescence normally comes from PSII. Its yield can vary between  $F_0$ , at maximum photochemical quenching, and a maximum level  $F_m$ , when accumulation of the reduced electron acceptor  $Q_A^-$  prevents photochemical activity. To estimate the effective antenna size of PSII, we measured the rise time of the light-induced fluorescence increase in the presence of DCMU (22a), which blocks electron transfer beyond  $Q_A$  (23). When chlorophylls were excited at an intensity that produced a half-rise time of 80 ms in control cells, the half-rise time was 28 ms in iron-starved cells. Iron starvation caused a nearly 3-fold increase of the chlorophyll antenna size of PSII.

Figure 1 shows recordings by a pulse amplitude modulated (PAM) fluorometer of light-induced Chl fluorescence yield changes in control cells (A) and iron-depleted cells (B, C) as detected by non-actinic modulated red excitation (22a). The up and down arrows mark the beginning and end of the actinic illumination by saturating white light. The positive spikes (visible before and after the saturating illumination) indicate the fluorescence yield in the absence of photochemical quenching. The saturating illumination

caused a fluorescence rise to  $F_m$  followed by a pronounced decrease due to a non-photochemical quenching in both types of cells, but the properties of the NPQ are different.

In control cells (Figure 1A), the NPQ only quenches  $F_m$  and persists after illumination. These properties are characteristic of the quenching by PSII centers that are damaged by photo-inhibition (known as 'qI' (24)). In iron-starved cells (Figure 1B and C), the NPQ appears much faster, quenches both  $F_0$  and  $F_m$ , and disappears after illumination. These properties are qualitatively similar to the 'energy dependent' NPQ of the PSII antenna in chloroplasts (known as 'qE' (24)). The difference between Fig. 1B and 1C is in the extent of iron starvation, 4 days and 10 days, respectively. Iron deficiency causes an increase of  $F_0$  and  $F_m$  because the fraction of Chl associated with the low-fluorescent PSI decreases. At a later stage  $F_m$  increases to a lesser extent than  $F_0$ , due to the increasing contribution of CP43' fluorescence. The large NPQ reached in Figure 1C shows that it also quenches the fluorescence of CP43' that is not functionally connected to either photosystem. This indicates that the NPQ is associated with CP 43' and does not depend on its binding to PSII (or, presumably, to PSI).

The relative concentration of the non-photochemical quencher in Fig. 1A and B, quantified as  $F_m/F_m' - 1$ , with  $F_m'$  denoting the quenched  $F_m$  level (8), is plotted in Figure 1D. In control cells, NPQ steadily increased during illumination, reaching a value of 0.8 at 15 min, and did not decrease after illumination. In iron-starved cells, the NPQ rapidly reached 1.4 during the illumination, and decayed afterwards to 0.2, showing that a much smaller fraction of PSII centers was photo-inhibited than in the control cells. The decrease of the excitation rate of PSII centers by NPQ was confirmed by measurements of the initial slope of the saturation curve of oxygen evolution before and after NPQ induction by a

continuous illumination (22a). The slope was decreased by 40 % by the presence of a NPQ of 1.5 (for  $F_m$ ), in agreement with the observed quenching of  $F_0$  (8). We conclude that NPQ in iron-starved cells protects PSII considerably from photo-inhibition.

Figure 2 compares the fluorescence yield changes induced in iron-starved cells by illumination in different spectral regions. The corresponding NPQ is shown in panel D. In A, a filter transmitting up to 600 nm was used. B shows that selective excitation in the 450-550 nm region was not much less effective in inducing NPQ, although the incident light intensity was 40% lower than in A and clearly less saturating. Even more surprising is the result in panel C: saturating excitation at wavelengths above 520 nm, where both PBS and chlorophyll absorb, produced almost no reversible NPQ. The quenching state of CP43' is not induced by photosynthetic electron transport. We also found no evidence for involvement of the pH gradient. NPQ associated with CP43' is induced only by excitation of a blue light photoreceptor.

The initial rate of NPQ induction by blue light is proportional to light intensity; no saturation was found at intensities up to  $1 \text{ mE} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$  (Fig. 3A). The decay rate after illumination is mono-exponential, independent of the illumination used. Both induction and decay were strongly temperature-dependent. Fig. 3B shows that their Arrhenius plots were linear and parallel in the measured range of 5 – 35 °C, with an activation enthalpy of 46 kJ/mole. These findings suggest that the quenching state is formed with a temperature-dependent quantum yield from the excited state of the blue light receptor and spontaneous reversal to the non-quenching state requires thermal activation to the same rare conformation of the local molecular environment that is required for the light-induced reaction to succeed.

Ferrous iron is an essential constituent of photosynthetic reaction centers. Qualitatively, the observed responses of *Synechocystis* to iron starvation may be explained by the need to economize on reaction center production. To compensate for their decreased abundance, the remaining reaction centers are pushed to higher activity: The CP43' proteins added to PSI and PSII increase the absorption cross section and hence the average excitation rate per reaction center. In photo-acclimated cells however, such an increase would lead to photo-destruction at times of saturating light intensity. In this perspective, it is not surprising that the accumulation of CP43' coincides with the appearance of a powerful regulation mechanism that causes dissipation of the energy absorbed by CP43' at high light intensity.

Without CP43', cyanobacterial PSII contains chlorophyll only in the core complex, about 35 chlorophylls/PSII. We found that CP43' could increase the PSII chlorophyll antenna size nearly three times (80/28), so, around 70 chlorophylls per PSII were added. If CP43' contains 13 chlorophylls, like its homolog CP43, up to 5 CP43' proteins can be associated with each PSII core. The same number of Pcb proteins, another homolog of CP43', is constitutively associated with PSII in *Prochloron* and the structure of that complex (13) may serve as a model for that of PSII in iron-starved *Synechocystis*. Apparently PSII cannot bind more than 5 CP43' units. Additional CP43' accumulated during prolonged iron starvation was found to be highly fluorescent, independent of the redox state of  $Q_A$ .

Blue light converts CP43' to an efficient sink for excitation energy that reduces the rate of PSII photo-inhibition in strong light substantially. The conversion rate is proportional to light intensity, to the thermal population of a conformational state required



for the conversion, and to the fraction of un-converted CP43' remaining. The quenching state is unstable and decays in minutes, independent of light intensity, but dependent on the same thermal activation. Compared to the photoprotective NPQ in chloroplasts, this simple two-state equilibrium of CP43'-associated NPQ seems relatively unsophisticated. As argued above, however, its primary function may not be to cope with rapid light intensity fluctuations, but to adjust the extra excitation rate provided by CP43' to an already photoacclimated system.

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## FIGURE LEGENDS

### Figure 1

Chlorophyll fluorescence yield changes induced by 15 minutes illumination with white light at  $2 \text{ mE}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ . The spikes at 1 min intervals result from flash-induced saturation to probe the yield in the absence of photochemical quenching. A: control cells; B: 4 days iron-starved; C: 10 days iron-starved; D: NPQ kinetics ( $= F_m/F_m' - 1$ ) calculated from the data in A and B.

### Figure 2

Fluorescence yield changes of 4-days iron-starved cells induced by 15 minutes illumination by (A) blue light (up to 600 nm,  $1 \text{ mE}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ ), (B) green light (450-550 nm,  $0.6 \text{ mE}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ ), and (C) orange light ( $> 520 \text{ nm}$ ,  $1 \text{ mE}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ ). D: NPQ kinetics for A, B, and C.

### Figure 3

Light intensity and temperature dependence of NPQ induction and decay. A: initial rate of the NPQ rise at the onset of illumination with blue light. B: Arrhenius plot of the temperature dependence of this rate (solid symbols) and of the rate constant of NPQ decay after illumination (open symbols).

**Figure 1**  
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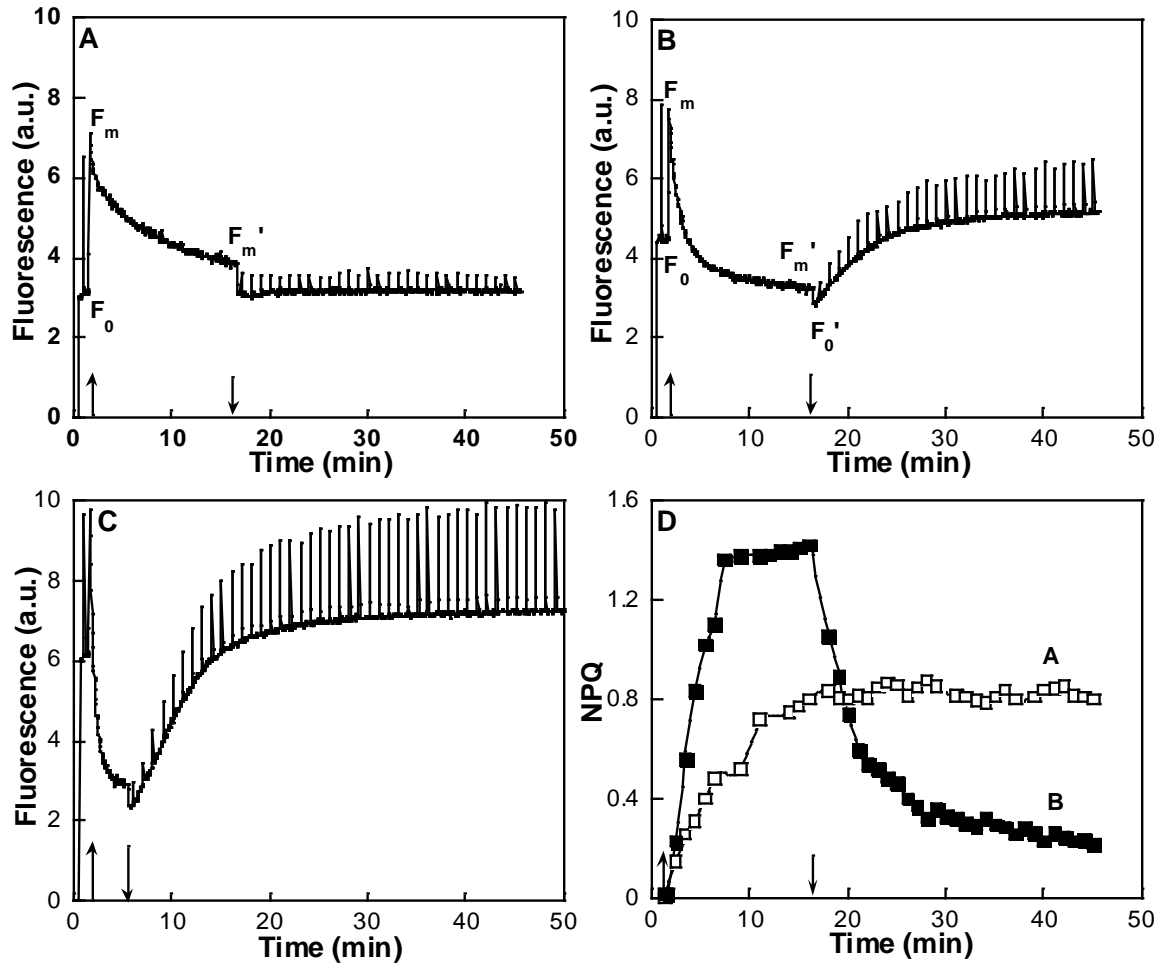


Figure 2  
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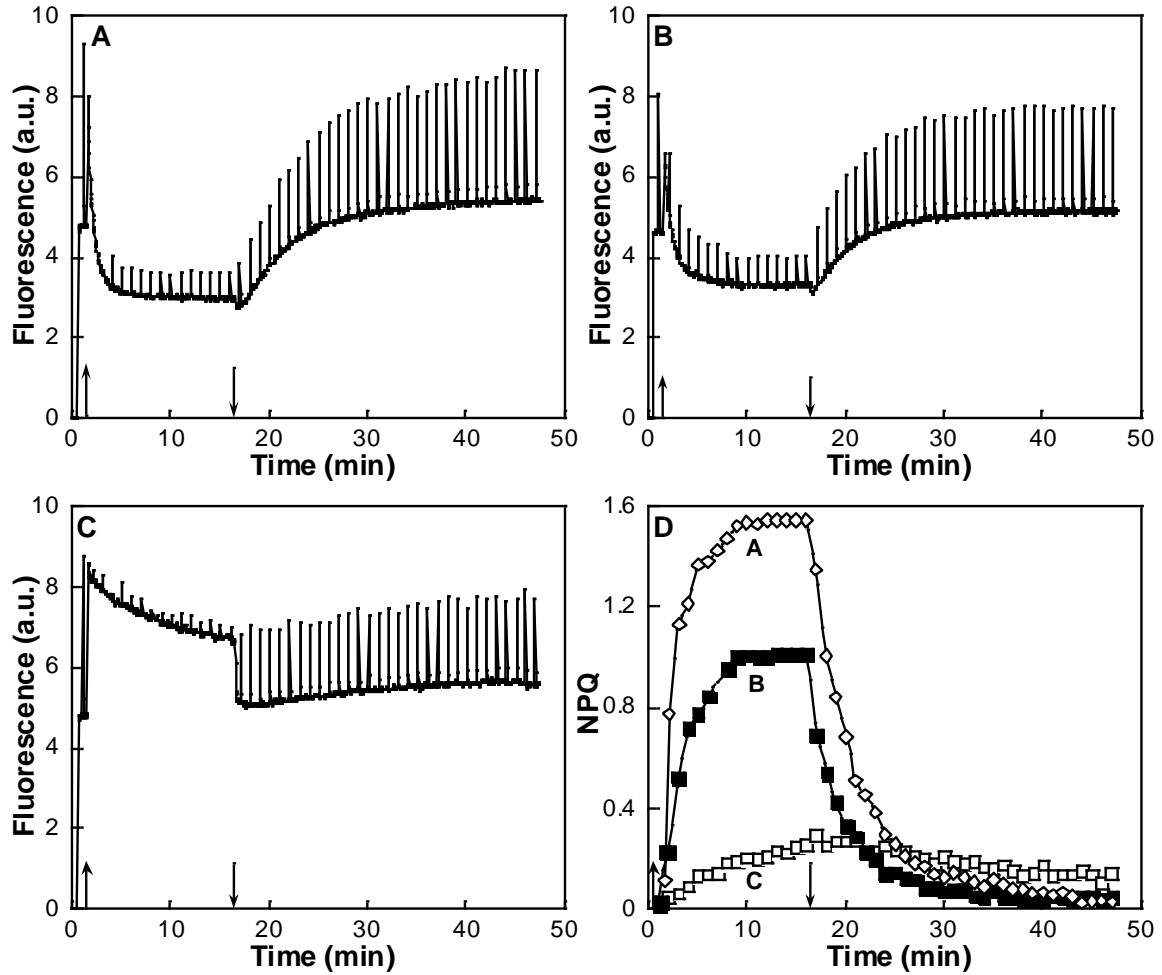
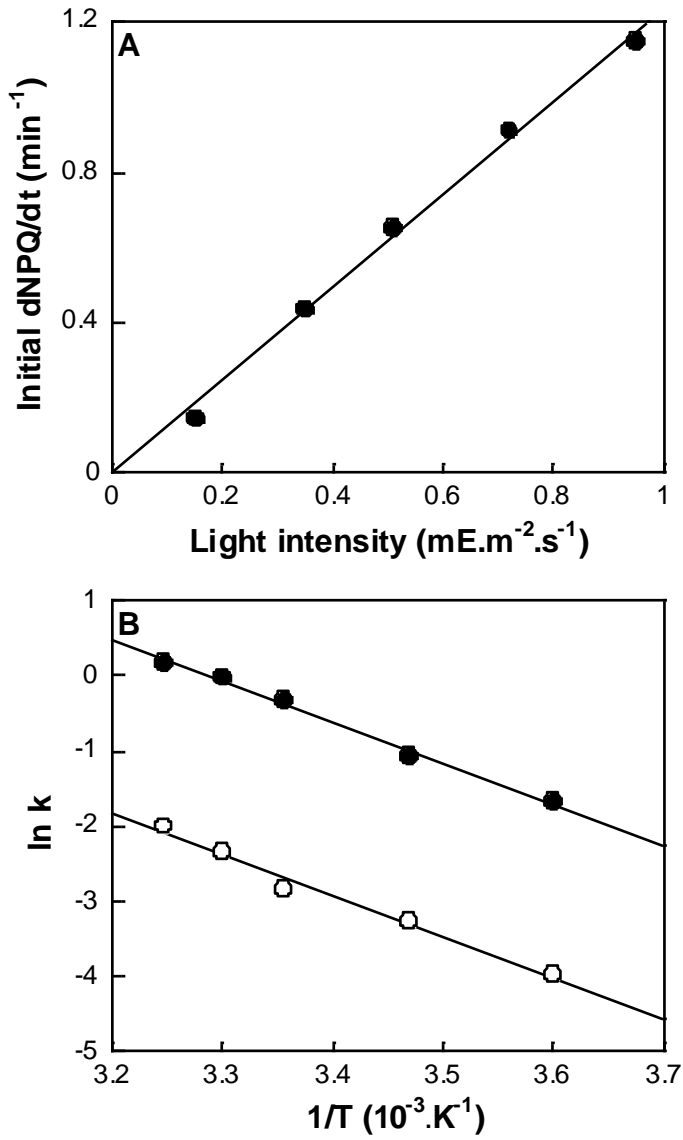


Figure 3  
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# Photoprotective quenching by CP43' in cyanobacteria triggered by blue light

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## Supplemental Online Material

### Materials and Methods

*Synechocystis* PCC 6803 (Pasteur collection) was grown photo-autotrophically in 100-mL batch cultures at 32 °C in BG11 medium at a light intensity of 70  $\mu\text{E}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$  in a thermostated shaker (Gallenkamp) with a CO<sub>2</sub> enriched atmosphere. For iron starvation, cells in their late exponential phase were diluted five times in iron-deficient medium. They continued to grow exponentially, and were diluted in fresh iron-deficient medium every other day, up to 10 days after onset of starvation. The growth rate slowed down during iron starvation (0.7 of the initial rate after 4 days down to 0.3 after 10 days).

Fluorescence emission spectra at 77 K were measured in a Hitachi spectro-fluorometer with excitation at 440 nm. 20  $\mu\text{L}$  samples were rapidly vacuum-sucked onto a paper filter that was plunged in liquid nitrogen immediately after.

Light-induced chlorophyll fluorescence yield changes at room temperature were measured using a PAM-101 Walz fluorometer (Walz, Effletrich, Germany) (*S1*). Samples at a concentration of 5 ( $\mu\text{g}$  chlorophyll). $\text{mL}^{-1}$  were dark-adapted for 10 minutes before measurement. Fluorescence induction kinetics in the presence of DCMU were measured with the setup described in (*S2*). 3-(3',4'-dichlorophenyl)-1,1-dimethylurea (DCMU) was

added to a dark-adapted sample 15 min before measurement, at a final concentration of 200  $\mu\text{M}$ . Light-induced oxygen evolution was measured with a Clark electrode (Hansatech, King's Lynn, UK).

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