

# Trichloroacetate Affects the Redox Active Tyrosine 160 of the D2 Polypeptide of the Photosystem II Core

R. Li<sup>a</sup>, N. Lin<sup>b</sup>, C. Xu<sup>a,\*</sup>, Y. Shen<sup>a</sup> and Govindjee<sup>c</sup>

<sup>a</sup> Shanghai Institute of Plant Physiology, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Shanghai 200032, PRC

<sup>b</sup> Shanghai Institute of Nuclear Research, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Shanghai 201800, PRC

<sup>c</sup> On sabbatical leave from Department of Plant Biology, University of Illinois, Urbana 61801, USA

Z. Naturforsch. **52c**, 782–788 (1997); received June 30/August 20, 1997

TCA-Treatment, Halogenated Acetates, 33 kDa Polypeptide, Y<sub>D</sub>/Y<sub>Z</sub>, EPR Signal II<sub>slow</sub>

Trichloroacetate (TCA) affects the redox property of Y<sub>D</sub> (tyrosine-160 on D2 polypeptide) after the removal of 33 kDa extrinsic polypeptide from the photosystem II (PSII) core. However, TCA has no obvious effect on the redox property of Y<sub>Z</sub>, confirming that the environments around Y<sub>Z</sub> and Y<sub>D</sub> are quite different. The conclusion on the effects on Y<sub>D</sub> is based primarily on the observation that Y<sub>D</sub><sup>+</sup> is not detected as the EPR signal II<sub>slow</sub> when 33 kDa polypeptide is released by TCA-treatment. Dialysis of the TCA-treated sample that allows the rebinding of mostly 33 kDa polypeptide restores Y<sub>D</sub><sup>+</sup>, showing that the loss of the EPR signal II<sub>slow</sub> takes place after the removal of 33 kDa polypeptide but not the release of manganese (Mn). Additionally, treatment of several halogenated acetates on Tris-washed PSII particles shows that the degree of their effects on suppressing EPR signal II<sub>slow</sub> is correlated with their hydrophobicity. It is postulated that Y<sub>D</sub> becomes more accessible to some small hydrophobic molecules depending upon their hydrophobicity when 33 kDa polypeptide is removed.

## Introduction

Photosystem II (PSII) includes at least seven intrinsic polypeptides (D1, D2, the  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  subunits of cytochrome b559, CP47, CP43, and the psbI gene product) and three extrinsic polypeptides with molecular masses of 33, 23, and 17 kDa as the key components of this photosystem (see reviews by Bricker and Ghanotakis, 1996; Rogner *et al.*, 1996). The 23 and 17 kDa polypeptides appear to play a role in the regulation of the action of calcium and of chloride, two cofactors involved

in oxygen evolution. The 33 kDa extrinsic polypeptide is much more tightly associated with the intrinsic PSII polypeptides than other polypeptides and is considered to be a manganese-stabilizing polypeptide (Debus, 1992; Seidler, 1996).

Two tyrosine residues, denoted as Y<sub>Z</sub> and Y<sub>D</sub>, have been identified as redox active components at the oxidizing side of the PSII electron transport chain (Barry and Babcock, 1987). Although they occur at symmetrical positions in the D1 and D2 polypeptides that form the PSII core (see e.g. Xiong *et al.*, 1996), they are kinetically and functionally different (Babcock *et al.*, 1989; Hoganson *et al.*, 1995). Oxidation of the tyrosine Y<sub>Z</sub> gives rise to characteristic EPR signal II<sub>very fast</sub> (decays in time scale of micro- to millisecond) and the appearance of EPR signal II<sub>slow</sub> (decays in time scale of hours) is due to another oxidized tyrosine Y<sub>D</sub><sup>+</sup>. These two EPR signals have similar spectral characteristics indicative of similar protein environment around the two tyrosines (Babcock *et al.*, 1989; Svensson *et al.*, 1991). However, there are subtle and important differences between them (Svensson *et al.*, 1991). Although the Y<sub>D</sub>/Y<sub>D</sub><sup>+</sup> couple is highly oxidizing (Em ≈ +720–760 mV at

**Abbreviations:** Chl, chlorophyll; DCA, dichloroacetate; EPR, electron paramagnetic resonance; MBA, monobromoacetate; MCA, monochloroacetate; Mes, 2-(morpholino)-ethanesulfonic acid; MFA, monofluoroacetate; MIA, monoiodoacetate; OEC, oxygen-evolving complex; PSII, Photosystem II; SDS-PAGE, sodium dodecyl-sulfate polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis; TCA, trichloroacetate; Tris, tris(hydroxymethyl)-aminomethane; Y<sub>D</sub>, redox-active tyrosine 160 of the D2 polypeptide; Y<sub>Z</sub>, redox-active tyrosine 161 of the D1 polypeptide.

Reprint requests to: Xu Chunhe, Shanghai Institute of Plant Physiology, Chinese Academy of Sciences, 300 Fenglin Road, Shanghai 200032, P. R. China.  
Fax: 86–21–6404–2385.

0939–5075/97/1100–0782 \$ 06.00 © 1997 Verlag der Zeitschrift für Naturforschung. All rights reserved.



Dieses Werk wurde im Jahr 2013 vom Verlag Zeitschrift für Naturforschung in Zusammenarbeit mit der Max-Planck-Gesellschaft zur Förderung der Wissenschaften e.V. digitalisiert und unter folgender Lizenz veröffentlicht: Creative Commons Namensnennung-Keine Bearbeitung 3.0 Deutschland Lizenz.

Zum 01.01.2015 ist eine Anpassung der Lizenzbedingungen (Entfall der Creative Commons Lizenzbedingung „Keine Bearbeitung“) beabsichtigt, um eine Nachnutzung auch im Rahmen zukünftiger wissenschaftlicher Nutzungsformen zu ermöglichen.

This work has been digitalized and published in 2013 by Verlag Zeitschrift für Naturforschung in cooperation with the Max Planck Society for the Advancement of Science under a Creative Commons Attribution-NoDerivs 3.0 Germany License.

On 01.01.2015 it is planned to change the License Conditions (the removal of the Creative Commons License condition “no derivative works”). This is to allow reuse in the area of future scientific usage.

pH $\approx$ 6) (Boussac and Etienne, 1984; Vass and Styring, 1991), EPR signal  $II_{\text{slow}}$  is extremely stable in the dark, indicating that  $Y_D^+$  is highly "insulated" from redox-active groups in the PSII complex as well as from the external medium (Babcock *et al.*, 1989; Svensson *et al.*, 1991). Detailed studies on chemical properties of both the tyrosines are required to understand their different behaviors in electron transport (Svensson *et al.*, 1991; Mino and Kawamori, 1994; Tang *et al.*, 1996).

A new method has been developed to release sequentially PSII extrinsic polypeptides: when PSII particles are incubated with increasing concentrations of trichloroacetate (TCA, pH 6.0), first 17, then 23 and finally 33 kDa polypeptide is released (Xu *et al.* 1995). The treatment is light and pH independent. In this paper, we have used this novel method to get further insight into the relationship between the 33 kDa polypeptide and  $Y_D$ . The results provide evidence that TCA affects  $Y_D$ , not  $Y_Z$ , after the removal of the 33 kDa extrinsic polypeptide. Thus, not only a difference in the environments of  $Y_D$  and  $Y_Z$  is confirmed, but an interaction of 33 kDa polypeptide and  $Y_D$  is suggested.

## Materials and Methods

PSII particles were prepared from spinach (*Spinacia oleracea*) leaves, as previously described (Xu *et al.*, 1995). For TCA-treatment, PSII particles were incubated (0.5 mg Chl/ml) with different concentrations of TCA (pH 6.0) at 0° C for 30 min in room light ( $3.2 \times 10^{-3} \text{ J} \cdot \text{cm}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ ). Collected after centrifugation at  $40\,000 \times g$  for 30 min, PSII particles were washed once and resuspended in SMN buffer (0.4 M sucrose, 50 mM Mes-NaOH, 15 mM NaCl) at pH 6.0 with added 5 mM  $\text{MgCl}_2$ , and then stored in liquid nitrogen until use. SDS-PAGE results (see Xu *et al.*, 1995) showed that 80, 250, or 500 mM TCA should be chosen as appropriate concentrations to release 90% of 17, 23 or 33 kDa polypeptides from PSII particles sequentially.

Tris-(0.8M, pH 8.2) washed PSII particles were prepared as described by Tamura and Chéniaie (1987). For further treatment with halogenated acetates (TCA, DCA, MFA, MCA, MBA or MIA), Tris-washed PSII particles were incubated with different concentrations of acetates (pH 6.0) at 0° C for 30 min in room light ( $3.2 \times 10^{-3} \text{ J} \cdot \text{cm}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ ), then collected as mentioned above.

For dialysis, the T-PSII particles (PSII particles kept for 30 min in 500 mM TCA, pH 6.0) were diluted with SMN buffer (1:4), and dialyzed twice against 25 mM Mes-NaOH (pH 6.0) at 4° C for 6 h in darkness. Pellets collected by centrifugation ( $40\,000 \times g$ , 25 min) were suspended in SMN buffer.

Polypeptide composition was analyzed by SDS-PAGE in the buffer system (see Laemmli, 1970) containing 6M urea. A slab gel containing 5% (stacking gel) and 13.75% (resolving gel) acrylamide was used. The densitogram of the gel stained in Coomassie brilliant blue R-250 was obtained with a Digital Imaging System (IS-1000).

The abundance of Mn was measured with a Shimadzu atomic absorption spectrometer (AA-6501F). Samples (20  $\mu\text{l}$ ) were dried at 105° C for 30 s, ashed at 1000° C for 20 s, and atomized at 2500° C for 3 s before measurement.

The dark-stable EPR spectra (signal  $II_{\text{slow}}$ ) were measured with samples frozen in the dark after an illumination of 5 min and then a dark-adaptation of 30 min at room temperature. The light-induced EPR signal II spectra were measured with samples frozen during continuous illumination after a 5 min-illumination at room temperature. The light intensity was  $9.5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ J} \cdot \text{cm}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ . All spectra were recorded at liquid nitrogen temperature (77 K) with a Varian E-112 spectrometer at X-band. Other spectral conditions are given in the legend of Fig. 1. The magnetic field was determined by an H-NMR field-meter and the microwave frequency by a superhigh frequency-meter.

Dipole moments of (halogenated) acetic acids were calculated by using the MMX molecular mechanics (forcefield) calculation method with the PCMODEL molecular modeling program (Anonymous, 1990). Calculation was made in an apolar solvent with a dielectric constant of 1.5 to minimize the energy of the molecular model and to get an optimal geometry of the model. The hydrophobic constants ( $\pi$ ) for acetic acid and halogenated acetic acids were estimated according Hansch and Leo (1979):  $\pi = \log P_x - \log P_H$ , where  $P_x$  is the partition coefficient (see Rappoport, 1976) of a halogenated derivative of acetic acid and  $P_H$  that of the parent molecule, acetic acid in this study. The  $\pi$  for acetic acid ( $x=H$ ) is defined as zero.

## Results and Discussion

Although close contacts between the 33 kDa polypeptide and CP47 are generally accepted, it was also suggested that the 33 kDa polypeptide may interact or shield essentially all of the intrinsic polypeptides of the PSII core (Debus, 1992; Frankel and Bricker, 1995). A specific interaction between the 33 kDa polypeptide and the D2 poly-

peptide was proposed based on the observation that changing Tyr-160 ( $Y_D$ ) to Phe in the D2 polypeptide of *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803 destabilized the binding of the 33 kDa polypeptide to isolated PSII particles (Noren *et al.*, 1991). Therefore, the relationship between the 33 kDa polypeptide and  $Y_D$  was studied in this paper.

EPR signal  $II_{slow}$ , an indicator of the oxidation of  $Y_D$ , was measured in PSII particles depleted of

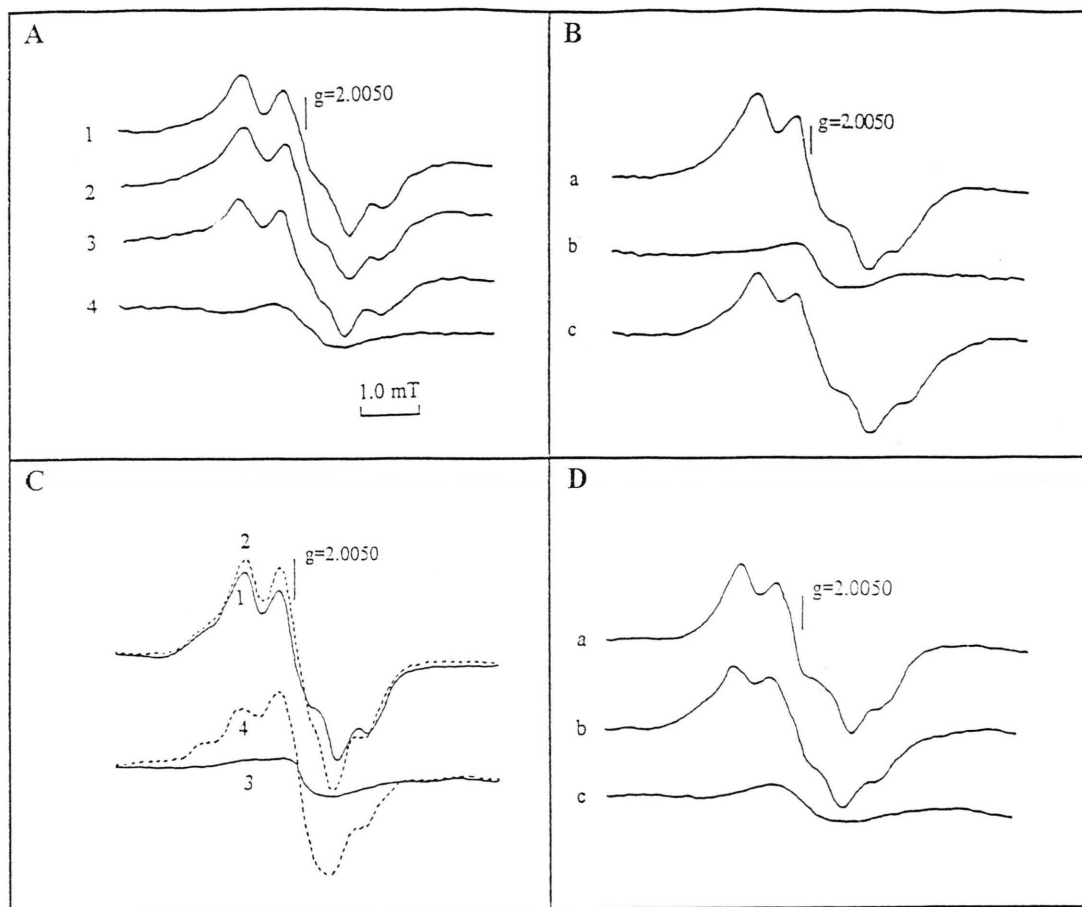


Fig. 1. EPR signals measured in PSII particles depleted of various extrinsic polypeptides. Chl concentrations are 3.6, 2.0, 3.0 and 3.0 mg/ml respectively in Panels A, B, C and D. Spectrometer conditions: modulation frequency, 100 kHz; microwave frequency, 9.17 GHz; microwave power, 0.5 mW; response time, 0.25 s; center field set,  $3.250 \times 10^{-1}$  T; sweep width,  $2.5 \times 10^{-2}$  T; modulation amplitude was  $3.2 \times 10^{-4}$  T in Panels A, C and D or  $1.6 \times 10^{-4}$  T in Panel B; receiver gain was  $8.0 \times 10^3$  in Panels A, C and D or  $4.0 \times 10^4$  in Panel B. Panel A. Effects of removal of extrinsic polypeptides by TCA-treatment on EPR signal  $II_{slow}$  displaying  $Y_D$ : (1) control; (2) -17 kDa; (3) -17, -23 kDa; (4) -17, -23, -33 kDa. Panel B. Effect of dialysis of PSII particles on the EPR spectra of signal  $II_{slow}$ : (a) control; (b) T-PSII particles (PSII particles incubated for 30 min in 500 mM TCA, pH 6.0); (c) dialyzed T-PSII particles. Panel C. Dark-stable (solid curves) and light-induced (broken curves) EPR signal  $II$  spectra of control and TCA-treated PSII particles. curve 1 and 2, control; curve 3 and 4, 500 mM TCA-treated PSII particles. Panel D. Effect of TCA on the EPR signal  $II_{slow}$  of Tris-washed (pH 8.2, 40 min) PSII particles: (a) control; (b) 0.8 M Tris-washed; (c) treated with 100 mM TCA (pH 6.0, 30 min) after the Tris-washing.

various extrinsic polypeptides. Fig. 1A shows the EPR signal  $I_{\text{slow}}$  measured in the presence or absence of 17; 17 and 23; as well as 17, 23 and 33 kDa extrinsic polypeptides after TCA-treatment, as outlined by Xu *et al.* (1995) and in Materials and Methods. When the 17 and 23 kDa polypeptides were removed from PSII, the EPR signal  $I_{\text{slow}}$  remained normal or only slightly modified (curves 2 and 3). However, when the 33 kDa polypeptide was also released, the amplitude of the EPR signal  $I_{\text{slow}}$  was greatly decreased (curve 4), indicating that the presence of 33 kDa polypeptide is related to the change of the redox characteristic of  $Y_D$ .

The 33 kD polypeptide has been known to be a Mn-stabilizing polypeptide (Seidler, 1996). Mn

content in PSII core was, thus, measured in the samples used for the EPR signal  $I_{\text{slow}}$  data. Table I shows that 500 mM TCA-treatment of PSII particles removes 96% of the Mn and is accompanied by the disappearance of EPR signal  $I_{\text{slow}}$ . Dialysis of the TCA-incubated PSII particles (T-PSII) was then made to study the relationship among 33 kDa polypeptide, Mn and  $Y_D^+$ . The SDS-PAGE analysis (Fig. 2A) shows that in 500 mM TCA-treated PSII particles, all three extrinsic polypeptides were released (lane 2). In dialyzed T-PSII particles, most of 33 kDa (and 30% of 23, 17 kDa) polypeptides had been reconstituted (lane 3 in Fig. 2B), and the EPR signal  $I_{\text{slow}}$  was recovered (Fig. 1B). Importantly, the Mn content of the dialyzed T-PSII particles was not

Table I. Comparison of the removal of extrinsic polypeptides, the preservation of Mn content and the appearance of the EPR signal  $I_{\text{slow}}$  ( $Y_D^+$ ) in various PSII particles.

Samples	Extrinsic polypeptides			Mn content		EPR signal $I_{\text{slow}}$ ( $Y_D^+$ )
	17 kDa	23 kDa	33 kDa	Mn/300 Chl	%	
Control	+	+	+	3.96	100	+
80 mM TCA-treated	–	+	+	3.84	97	+
250 mM TCA-treated	–	–	+	3.48	88	+
500 mM TCA-treated	–	–	–	0.16	4	–
0.8 M Tris-washed	–	–	–	0.13	3	+
Dialyzed T-PSII particles	–*	–*	+	0.32	8	+

+ Indicates the presence, – indicates the absence, –\* indicates retention of 30% of relative component in the control. T-PSII indicates PSII particles were incubated 30 min in 500 mM TCA, pH 6.0, in room light.

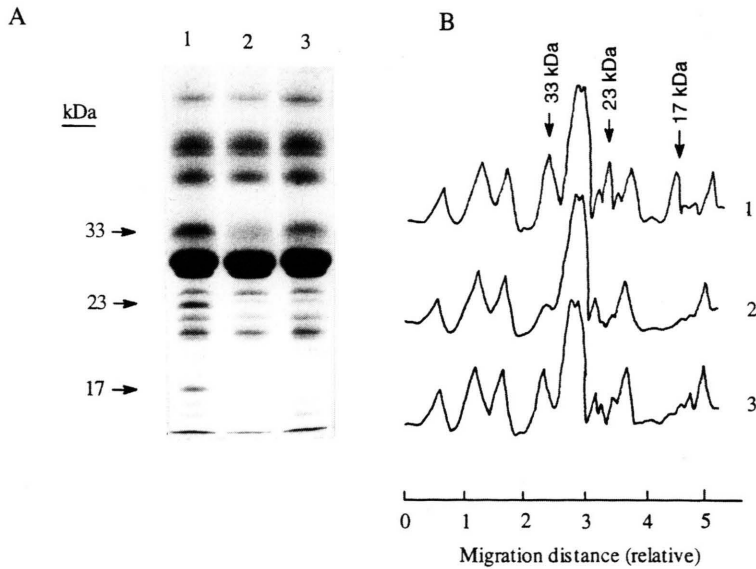


Fig. 2. SDS-PAGE electrophoretogram (A) and densitogram (B) of TCA-treated PSII particles: Lane 1, control; Lane 2, 500 mM TCA-treated; Lane 3, dialyzed T-PSII particles (T-PSII particles are PSII particles incubated for 30 min in 500 mM TCA, pH 6.0).

restored at all (Table I). It is, thus, obvious that the variability in the amplitude of the EPR signal  $II_{\text{slow}}$  is not related to the Mn, but to the presence of 33 kDa polypeptide. We suggest two alternatives to explain these results: (1) the 33 kDa polypeptide may be more closely associated with D2 polypeptide than assumed so far and, thus, affecting  $Y_D$  or (2) the release of the 33 kDa polypeptide induces some "conformational change" that indirectly affect  $Y_D^+$ , but not  $Y_Z^+$  (see later discussion).

Fig. 1C shows comparisons of the dark-stable or the light-induced EPR signal II spectra between the control and the TCA-treated PSII particles. Curves 1 and 3 are repetition of curves 1 and 4 in Fig. 1A and arise from  $Y_D^+$  but not from  $Y_Z^+$  because the half-time decay of  $Y_Z^+$  is far faster than that of  $Y_D^+$ . The light-induced spectra (broken curves) were recorded for samples illuminated for 5 min at room temperature and then frozen during continuous illumination, therefore both  $Y_D^+$  and  $Y_Z^+$  are observed in the control intact PSII particles (curve 2). It shows that the amplitude of the EPR signal II in the light-induced sample is 20% larger than that in the dark-stable samples. In the TCA-treated PSII particles (curve 4) in which the Mn complex had been removed (*cf.* data in Table I), the electron transport between Mn complex and  $Y_Z$  was blocked. This causes an accumulation of  $Y_Z^+$ . The amplitude of the EPR signal II shows a 20% decrease after the TCA-treatment in the light-induced PSII particles, not the amount as the 85% decrease shown for EPR signal  $II_{\text{slow}}$  affected by the TCA-treatment, implying that TCA has no

obvious effect on the redox property of  $Y_Z$ , and only a specific effect on  $Y_D$ .

Table I shows that 33 kDa polypeptide is removed not only in PSII particles by 500 mM TCA-treatment, but also by 0.8 M Tris-washing, as is well known (Kuwabara and Murata, 1983). However,  $Y_D^+$  is absent only in TCA-treated PSII particles; in the case of Tris-washing, the EPR signal  $II_{\text{slow}}$  displays a normal shape and hyperfine structure of a band-width of 19 gauss (curve b in Fig. 1D), indicating that TCA-treatment differs from Tris-washing in some crucial aspects.

The EPR signal  $II_{\text{slow}}$  was not detected in Tris-washed PSII particles after the treatment with lower concentration (100 mM) of TCA (curve c in Fig. 1D). It seems that after the removal of the 33 kDa polypeptide in TCA-treated PSII particles, TCA influences specially the redox property of  $Y_D$ . To further probe this effect, we systematically investigated effects of other halogenated acetates on redox property of  $Y_D$  in the 0.8 M Tris-washed PSII particles in which the 33 kDa polypeptide was already removed. Concentration, at which the hyperfine structure of EPR signal  $II_{\text{slow}}$  start to disappear, and most of the amplitude of EPR signal  $II_{\text{slow}}$  is suppressed, was chosen as an critical concentration. It is observed that halogenated acetates have different critical concentrations to suppress the EPR signal  $II_{\text{slow}}$  in Tris-washed PSII particles. The concentrations are in the order TCA<DCA<MIA<MBA<MCA<MFA (Table II). By comparison with some of their physicochemical properties, we found that the degree of the suppression of the EPR

Table II. Comparison of physicochemical properties and the critical concentrations of halogenated acetates, with each critical concentration of different acetates, the EPR signal  $II_{\text{slow}}$  is suppressed in the 0.8 M Tris-washed PSII particles.

Chemicals	Critical concentrations [mM]	Properties of chemicals		
		Dissociation constants ( $K_d$ )	Hydrophobicity onstants ( $\pi$ )	Dipole moment (Debye)
TCA	100	0.63	1.87	2.12
DCA	400	1.29	1.66	2.53
MIA	600	3.18	1.17	—
MBA	800	2.90	0.97	3.11
MCA	1400	2.86	0.65	3.25
MFA	>2000	2.58	0.06	3.14

DCA, dichloroacetate; MBA, monobromoacetate; MCA, monochloroacetate; MFA, monofluoroacetate; MIA, monoiodoacetate; TCA, trichloroacetate.



signal  $\Pi_{\text{slow}}$  (lowest to highest) correlates well with the hydrophobicity ( $\pi$ ) of chemicals, but not with their dissociation constants ( $K_d$ ) or dipole moments (Table II), both of which represent electrostatic or electrodynamic forces stabilizing the ordered, native structure of biomolecules. This indicates that a key property that affects the redox characteristic of  $Y_D$  is the molecular hydrophobicity of the halogenated acetates used. It is therefore postulated that TCA alters the redox state of  $Y_D$ , relying upon its molecular hydrophobicity. This may act through accessibility involving either of the two alternatives mentioned earlier, i.e., direct or indirect.

Svensson *et al.* (1991) analyzed the protein environment in the cavities around  $Y_D$  and  $Y_Z$  based on the analysis of hydrophilicity index of amino acid, and indicated that the environment around  $Y_D$  is more hydrophobic than that around  $Y_Z$ . This indication is taken by the authors to support our presumption concerning the hierarchy observed in the effect of various halogenated acetates with different hydrophobicities (Table II).

Although little is known about the function of  $Y_D$ , studies have shown that both the conformations of the  $Y_D$  component and of its immediate microenvironment in the PSII reaction center play crucial roles in maintaining its unique biological properties (Tommos *et al.*, 1993; Tang *et al.*, 1996). Thus, the changes in the local protein environment surrounding  $Y_D$  can influence its redox property. To summarize our results, we propose that the 33 kDa extrinsic polypeptide might help to keep special microenvironment around  $Y_D$ . When it is removed, the microenvironment around  $Y_D$  but not around  $Y_Z$  might become susceptible to attacks by small hydrophobic molecules or other factors.

#### Acknowledgements

We thank Cheng-Ming Zhou for technical assistance and Tian-Duo Wang for a critical reading of the manuscript. This study was supported by the Director's Fund of Chinese Academy of Sciences, Shanghai Branch (1996–1997), and Shanghai Municipal Foundation of Science and Technology (1997).

- Anonymous (1990), PCMODEL: Molecular Modeling software for the IBM PC/XT/AT and PS2 Apple Macintosh Series, Serena Software, Box 3076, Bloomington, Ind. pp. 47402–3076.
- Babcock G. T., Barry B. A., Debus, R. J., Hoganson C. W., Atamian M., McIntosh L., Sithole I. and Yocum C. F. (1989), Water oxidation in photosystem II: from radical chemistry to multielectron chemistry. *Biochemistry* **28**, 9557–9565.
- Barry B. A. and Babcock G. T. (1987), Tyrosine radicals are involved in the photosynthetic oxygen-evolving system. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* **84**, 7099–7103.
- Boussac A. and Etienne A. L. (1984), Midpoint potential of signal II (slow) in Tris-washed photosystem-II particles. *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* **766**, 576–581.
- Bricker T. M. and Ghanotakis D. F. (1996), Introduction to oxygen-evolution and the oxygen-evolving complex. In: *Oxygenic Photosynthesis: The Light Reactions* (Ort D. R. and Yocum C. F., eds.) Kluwer, Academic Publishers, Dordrecht, the Netherlands, pp. 113–136.
- Debus R. J. (1992), The manganese and calcium ions of photosynthetic oxygen evolution. *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* **1102**, 269–352.
- Frankel L. K. and Bricker T. M. (1995), Interaction of the 33-kDa extrinsic protein with photosystem II: Identification of domains on the 33-kDa protein that are shielded from NHS-Biotinylation by photosystem II. *Biochemistry* **34**, 7492–7497.
- Hansch C. and Leo A. (1979), In: *Substituent Constants for Correlation Analysis in Chemistry and Biology*. John Wiley & Sons, New York, pp. 174–176.
- Hoganson C. W., Lydakis-Simantiris N., Tang X.-S., Tommos C., Warncke K., Babcock G. T., Diner B. A., McCracken J. and Styring S. (1995), A hydrogen-atom abstraction model for the function of  $Y_Z$  in photosynthetic oxygen evolution. *Photosynthe. Res.* **46**, 177–184.
- Kuwabara T. and Murata N. (1983), Quantitative analysis of the inactivation of photosynthetic oxygen evolution and the release of polypeptides and manganese in the photosystem II particles of spinach chloroplasts. *Plant Cell Physiol.* **24**, 741–747.

- Laemmli U. K. (1970), Cleavage of structure proteins during the assembly of the head of bacteriophage T4. *Nature* **227**, 680–685.
- Mino H. and Kawamori A. (1994), Microenvironments of tyrosine D<sup>+</sup> and tyrosine Z<sup>+</sup> in photosystem II studied by proton matrix ENDOR. *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* **1185**, 213–220.
- Noren G. H., Boerner R. J., Bixby K. A. and Barry B. A. (1991), Characterization of an O<sub>2</sub>-evolving photosystem II preparation from the cyanobacterium *Synechocystis* 6803. *Biophys. J.* **59**, 145a.
- Rappoport Z. (1976) In: *Handbook of Tables for Organic Compound Identification*. CRC Publishers, Boca Raton, Fla.
- Rogner M., Boekema E. J. and Barber J. (1996), How does photosystem 2 split water? The structural basis of efficient energy conversion. *Trends Biochem. Sci.* **21**, 44–49.
- Seidler A. (1996), The extrinsic polypeptides of photosystem II. *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* **1277**, 35–60.
- Svensson B., Vass I. and Styring S. (1991), Sequence analysis of the D1 and D2 reaction center proteins of photosystem II. *Z. Naturforsch.* **46c**, 765–776.
- Tamura N. and Cheniae G. (1987) Photoactivation of the water-oxidizing complex in photosystem II membranes depleted of Mn and extrinsic proteins. *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* **890**, 179–194.
- Tang X.-S., Zheng M., Chisholm D. A., Dismukes G. C. and Diner B. A. (1996), Investigation of the differences in the local protein environments surrounding tyrosine radicals Y<sub>Z</sub> and Y<sub>D</sub> in photosystem II using wild-type and the D2-Tyr160Phe mutant of *Synechocystis* 6803. *Biochemistry* **35**, 1475–1484.
- Tommos, C., Davidsson L., Svensson B., Madsen C., Vermaas W. and Styring S. (1993), modified EPR spectra of the tyrosine D radical in photosystem II in site directed mutants of *Synechocystis* sp.PCC 6803: identification of side chains in the immediate vicinity of tyrosine D on the D2 protein. *Biochemistry* **32**, 5436–5441.
- Vass I. and Styring S. (1991), pH-dependent charge equilibria between tyrosine-D and the S states in photosystem II. Estimation of relative midpoint redox potentials. *Biochemistry* **30**, 830–839.
- Xiong J., Subramaniam S. and Govindjee. (1996), Modeling of the D1/D2 proteins and cofactors of the photosystem II reaction center: Implications for herbicide and bicarbonate binding. *Protein Science* **5**, 2054–2073.
- Xu C., Li R. Shen Y. and Govindjee. (1995), The sequential release of three extrinsic polypeptides in the PSII particles by high concentrations of trichloroacetate. *Naturwissenschaften* **82**, 477–478.