

¹⁸O Isotope Exchange Measurements Reveal that Calcium Is Involved in the Binding of One Substrate-Water Molecule to the Oxygen-Evolving Complex in Photosystem II

Garth Hendry and Tom Wydrzynski*

Photobioenergetics, Research School of Biological Sciences, The Australian National University, Canberra ACT 0200, Australia

Received February 18, 2003; Revised Manuscript Received April 1, 2003

ABSTRACT: Direct evidence is presented to show that calcium is inherently involved in the binding of one of the two substrate-water molecules to the oxygen-evolving complex in photosystem II. Previous rapid (millisecond range) ¹⁸O isotope exchange measurements between added H₂¹⁸O and the photogenerated O₂ have shown that the two substrate–water molecules bind to separate sites throughout the S-state cycle, as revealed by their kinetically distinct rates of ¹⁸O exchange [Hillier, W., and Wydrzynski, T. (2000) *Biochemistry* 39, 4399–4405]. Upon extraction of the functionally bound calcium using either a low-pH/citrate treatment or a NaCl/A23187/EGTA treatment and subsequent reconstitution of activity with strontium, we show for the first time a specific increase in the slow rate of ¹⁸O exchange by a factor of 3–4. This increase in the slow rate of exchange is consistently observed across the S₁, S₂, and S₃ states. In contrast, the fast phase of ¹⁸O exchange in the S₃ state appears to be affected little upon strontium reconstitution, while the fast phases of exchange in the S₁ and S₂ states remain largely unresolvable, at the detectable limits of the current techniques. The results are discussed in terms of a possible substrate bridging structure between the functional calcium and a catalytic manganese ion that gives rise to the slowly exchanging component.

Water oxidation in photosynthesis occurs in a special pigment–protein complex called photosystem II (PSII)¹ and is catalyzed by a cluster of four manganese ions (Mn₄) and a redox-active tyrosine (Y_Z) [for extensive reviews, see the special issue on photosynthetic water oxidation of *Biochimica et Biophysica Acta* (2001) 1503, 1–259]. Collectively, the catalytic domain is known as the oxygen-evolving complex (OEC). The OEC reaction sequence proceeds through a series of four light-driven, one-electron oxidation steps, which begins from an initial “S₀” state and advances through to a metastable “S₄” state. Once S₄ has been reached, O₂ is released within 1–2 ms, the S₀ state is regenerated, and the reaction sequence begins anew. In dark-adapted samples, the OEC relaxes to the stable S₁ state (1, 2).

Calcium is known to be an essential cofactor for photosynthetic water oxidation (3, 4). The number of intrinsic Ca²⁺ sites in PSII has been determined using a variety of experimental approaches (5–10). It is generally agreed that there are two physiologically important Ca²⁺-binding sites per PSII reaction center: a high-affinity site located within the light-harvesting array and a low-affinity site located within the OEC. Selective removal of Ca²⁺ from the low-affinity OEC site abolishes the O₂ evolving activity, which can be largely restored by the re-addition of Ca²⁺ (10–20 mM) or, to a lesser extent, of Sr²⁺ (11–13). It has been

shown that Sr²⁺ reactivates the same number of O₂-evolving centers as Ca²⁺, but results in a slower turnover of the reaction sequence (13–15). The release of the functional Ca²⁺ from the OEC is facilitated by the removal of the 17 and 23 kDa extrinsic proteins (16, 17), suggesting that these proteins modulate the affinity of the Ca²⁺ binding site (18, 19).

Substitution with other metal cations at the Ca²⁺ site has been used in attempt to elucidate the role of Ca²⁺ in O₂ evolution. Two main factors seem to determine the metal cation selectivity of the Ca²⁺ site: (1) the size of the binding cavity and (2) the negative charge density of the ligand array (18). Using steady-state enzyme kinetic analysis, Vrettos et al. (18) examined the reversible inhibition of O₂ evolution by a series of mono-, di-, and trivalent metal cations. Their results indicated that the Ca²⁺ site is highly size selective and that only divalent and trivalent metal cations of similar ionic radii to Ca²⁺ could compete at the Ca²⁺ site. On the other hand, monovalent cations with a smaller ionic radius, such as Na⁺, appear to be unable to bind to the Ca²⁺ site due to its high negative charge density. In contrast, Ono et al. (20) found that O₂ evolution could be competitively inhibited by monovalent cations such as K⁺, Rb⁺, and Cs⁺, which have larger ionic radii than Ca²⁺. By using thermoluminescence and S₂-state, Mn-multiline EPR measurements, the authors provided evidence to show that the Ca²⁺ site can indeed be occupied by K⁺, Rb⁺, and Cs⁺. Interestingly, under these conditions, the protein structure in the vicinity of the Mn₄ cluster is significantly perturbed (21).

*To whom correspondence should be addressed. E-mail: TOM@rsbs.anu.edu.au. Telephone: +61 (02) 6125 5892. Fax: +61 (02) 6125 8056.

¹ Abbreviations: Chl, chlorophyll; OEC, oxygen-evolving complex; PSII, photosystem II.

Perturbations to the Ca^{2+} site are known to modify the redox and magnetic properties of the OEC. For example, PSII preparations reconstituted with Sr^{2+} produce the so-called S_2 -state, split EPR signal at $g = 4.1$, which is concomitant with a decrease and modification of the S_2 -state, Mn-multiline EPR signal at $g = 2$ (13). In contrast, for Ca^{2+} -depleted preparations, redox transitions beyond the S_2 state are blocked and result in the formation of different EPR signals. In particular, the Mn-multiline signal under this condition was found to be stable for long periods of time (hours) at room temperature and to exhibit narrower ^{55}Mn hyperfine splittings (22–24). Interestingly, formation of this Mn-multiline signal was found to be dependent on the presence of the chelators used during the Ca^{2+} depletion procedure (e.g., citrate, EGTA, and EDTA) (24, 25). Upon further illumination of Ca^{2+} -depleted samples at 277 K, a broad signal centered at $g = 2$ appears. The organic radical responsible for this signal was initially identified as an oxidized histidine (26, 27). However, on the basis of ENDOR and ESEEM measurements, it was suggested that the radical signal arises from interactions with Y_Z^{ox} (28–31).

The recent 3.7–3.8 Å X-ray crystal structures of PSII from *Thermosynechococcus elongatus* (32, 33) have identified the position, size, and shape of the Mn_4 cluster involved in O_2 evolution. However, it has not provided any details about the location of the Ca^{2+} site. Nevertheless, there is mounting evidence that Ca^{2+} is in the proximity of the Mn_4 cluster. Substitution of the Ca^{2+} site with Mn^{2+} results in a strong enhancement in the spin relaxation of S_2 -state, Mn-multiline EPR signals (34). NMR studies after substitution of the Ca^{2+} site with $^{113}\text{Cd}^{2+}$ indicate that the binding pocket consists of a symmetrical, six-coordinate sphere containing oxygen, nitrogen, and chlorine ligands (35). Mn EXAFS measurements have indicated a significant interaction of Ca^{2+} (Sr^{2+}) with the Mn_4 cluster at ~ 3.3 Å (36, 37), in which this interaction is strongly inhibited upon Ca^{2+} depletion (ref 38 and reviewed in ref 39). It has been suggested that Ca^{2+} is ligated to the Mn_4 cluster via a carboxylate bridge (40). Support for this idea originally came from FTIR difference spectroscopy, in which certain COO^- stretching modes were associated with Ca^{2+} interactions (41); however, the same modes have also been interpreted in terms of chelator interactions with the catalytic site (20).

A number of different roles have been proposed for Ca^{2+} in the water oxidation mechanism. Early suggestions implied that Ca^{2+} optimizes the structure of the catalytic site (3, 42), through the regulation of electrostatic constraints (14) or by providing a docking site for the Cl^- cofactor (43, 44). Ca^{2+} has also been suggested to play a “gatekeeper” role by controlling solvent water access (19, 23). However, it has been argued that if the role of Ca^{2+} were purely structural in nature, then other metal cations with similar ionic properties would be able to restore at least some activity in Ca^{2+} -depleted preparations, whereas only Sr^{2+} can functionally replace Ca^{2+} (18, 20). Thus, it has been proposed that Ca^{2+} plays a direct role in photosynthetic water oxidation, in particular, by acting as a binding site for the substrate water (43, 45–49).

To address the role of Ca^{2+} in photosynthetic water oxidation, we have undertaken kinetic measurements of ^{18}O exchange in PSII samples following replacement of the functional Ca^{2+} with Sr^{2+} . Using special time-resolved mass

spectrometric techniques that kinetically distinguish the binding of the two substrate-water molecules to the OEC, we present the first evidence that Ca^{2+} directly interacts with the binding for one of the two substrate-water molecules.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Sample Preparation. PSII-enriched membrane fragments were isolated from fresh market spinach according to the procedure of Berthold et al. (50). Briefly, thylakoid membranes were solubilized in 5% Triton X-100 buffered in 30 mM MES/NaOH (pH 6.3), 15 mM NaCl, and 5 mM MgCl_2 , by gentle stirring for 20 min in the dark at 4 °C. The PSII samples were collected by centrifugation for 20 min at 36000g and 4 °C and were washed and resuspended in a standard buffer medium consisting of 30 mM MES/NaOH (pH 6.3), 15 mM NaCl, 5 mM MgCl_2 , and 400 mM sucrose. The PSII-enriched membranes were then snap-frozen in liquid N_2 at a density of 2–4 mg of Chl/mL and stored at -80 °C until they were used.

Calcium Depletion. Acid-induced depletion of the functional Ca^{2+} from the OEC was performed using a low-pH/citrate treatment (36, 51). Samples treated in this manner are called “ Ca^{2+} -depleted”. PSII-enriched membranes were first washed in 0.25 mM MES/NaOH (pH 6.3), 15 mM NaCl, and 400 mM sucrose and suspended to a density of 4 mg of Chl/mL. They were then diluted with an equal volume of a citrate buffer medium containing 20 mM citrate (pH 3.0), 15 mM NaCl, and 400 mM sucrose and allowed to incubate at 0 °C for 5 min with gentle stirring. After incubation, the sample was rapidly brought to physiological pH by diluting it (1:2) with a buffer medium consisting of 50 mM MES/NaOH (pH 6.3), 15 mM NaCl, 400 mM sucrose (Ultragrade, BDH), and 100 μM EGTA. The Ca^{2+} -depleted PSII membranes were collected by centrifugation for 20 min at 36000g and 4 °C and resuspended in a similar buffer medium containing 25 mM MES/NaOH (pH 6.3), 15 mM NaCl, 400 mM sucrose (Ultragrade, BDH), and either 50 mM SrCl_2 , 50 mM CaCl_2 , or no other additions. The samples suspended in the SrCl_2 - or CaCl_2 -containing buffers were allowed to incubate for 2–3 h at 4 °C. Finally, the samples were pelleted and resuspended in a small amount of the supernatant before being snap-frozen in liquid N_2 and stored at -80 °C until the measurements could be taken.

Alternatively, the functional Ca^{2+} was depleted from the OEC using a NaCl/A23187/EGTA treatment, which also removes the 17 and 23 kDa extrinsic proteins (9, 18). Samples treated in this manner are called “ Ca^{2+} /Ex-depleted”. In this case, PSII-enriched membranes were suspended to a density of 0.5 mg of Chl/mL in 40 mM MES/NaOH (pH 5.0), 1.5 M NaCl, 1 mM EGTA, and the Ca^{2+} ionophore A23187 (20 μM), and the mixture was gently stirred for 2.5 h in the dark at 4 °C. The sample was pelleted by centrifugation for 20 min at 36000g and 4 °C and washed using the same buffer medium but without A23187. The sample was then resuspended in a second buffer medium consisting of 40 mM MES/NaOH (pH 6.3), 400 mM sucrose (Ultragrade, BDH), 15 mM NaCl, and 1 mM EGTA. The sample was then washed two more times in the same buffer medium but without EGTA. The Ca^{2+} /Ex-depleted PSII membranes were resuspended in the same wash buffer (without EGTA) containing either 50 mM SrCl_2 , 50 mM

CaCl₂, or no other additions. The samples suspended in the SrCl₂- or CaCl₂-containing buffers were allowed to incubate for 2–3 h at 4 °C. Finally, the samples were pelleted and resuspended in a small amount of the supernatant before being snap-frozen in liquid N₂ and stored at –80 °C until the measurements could be taken. All glassware and centrifuge tubes used in the Ca²⁺ depletion procedures were washed with 2 M HNO₃, and the buffers were treated with Chelex-100 (Bio-Rad) to ensure minimal Ca²⁺ contamination from the reagents that were used.

O₂ Evolution Measurements. Initial steady-state rates of O₂ evolution were measured at 25 °C using a Clark-type electrode (Hansatech) under continuous saturating illumination (custom-built 150 W tungsten light source, viz. >5000 μmol m^{–2} s^{–1}). A typical assay contained 10 μg of Chl/mL with 1 mM K₃Fe(CN)₆ and 400 μM phenyl-*p*-benzoquinone (PPBQ) as electron acceptors in the final suspension medium for each particular sample. Chlorophyll concentrations were determined according to the method of Porra et al. (52).

Mass Spectrometric Measurements. Isotopic determinations of the flash-induced O₂ produced by PSII-enriched samples were made at *m/e* 34 and 36 using an in-line mass spectrometer (Vacuum Generation MM6, Winsford) as described previously (53, 54). A stirred, closed chamber system was used for the rapid equilibration of 25 μL of H₂¹⁸O (98.5% enrichment, Isotech, Miamisburg, OH) into 160 μL of the sample. Injection of the labeled water was achieved using a Hamilton CR700-200 spring-loaded syringe triggered by a computer-actuated solenoid. Samples were activated using saturating light flashes (fwhh ~ 8 μs) provided by a battery of xenon flash lamps (FX-1163 lamp with internal reflector, 4 μF at 1 kV capacitor, EG&G, Salem, MA) through a fiber optic situated directly in front of the sample chamber window. The flash/injection protocols used to assess the ¹⁸O exchange in the various S states are given in Figure 1 of ref 55 and were controlled via a computer. Accurate timing intervals were established from a digital oscilloscope (Tektronix, model 350).

The ¹⁸O exchange measurements were taken in the presence of 1 mM K₃Fe(CN)₆ and 400 μM PPBQ. Samples were first preset in the S₁ state by a preflash followed by a 10 min dark period at room temperature. For each exchange measurement, electron acceptors were added to an aliquot, and the aliquot was loaded into the sample chamber in the dark and degassed for 10 min at 10 °C prior to the particular flash/injection sequence. For an optimal signal-to-noise (S/N) ratio, the sample concentration was adjusted to 0.5 mg of Chl/mL for the S₃-state measurement and to 0.2 mg of Chl/mL for the S₂- and S₁-state measurements using the final suspension medium for each particular sample. After the rapid turnover flashes were given, due to the time it takes for the gas to diffuse from the sample chamber to the ionizing source of the mass spectrometer, a series of normalization flashes were applied at 0.05 Hz. To minimize S-state deactivation between the normalization flashes, measurements were taken at 10 °C.

The O₂ background introduced into the sample during the injection of H₂¹⁸O was subtracted from the photogenerated O₂ by performing a pre-injection under the same conditions but without illumination. To reduce the size of the O₂ background, small quantities of glucose, glucose oxidase, and catalase were added to the labeled water prior to injection

without interference from the photogenerated O₂. The signal amplitude for the third flash (Y₃) in the turnover sequence, less the contribution from the injection (Y_{inj}) and double hits (Y_{2x}, as calculated in ref 56), was normalized to the sum of flashes 4–7 given in the normalization sequence, to correct for small variations in sample concentration and membrane permeability between different measurements

$$Y_{3N} = \frac{(Y_3 - Y_{inj} - Y_{2x})}{\sum_{n=4}^7 Y_n} \quad (1)$$

The Y_{3N} value at each exchange time was then further normalized to the value obtained after complete exchange (i.e., 10 s) to give Y_{3C}. Finally, the data at fast exchange times (≤10 ms) was corrected for the 175 s^{–1} injection response of the sample chamber as described in ref 54. The level of ¹⁸O enrichment (ε) in the sample chamber was ~12%, as determined according to ref 56.

At *m/e* 34, plots of the corrected O₂ yields after the third flash, ³⁴Y_{3C}, versus the ¹⁸O exchange time in a particular S state, Δ*t*, are clearly biphasic and were analyzed as the sum of two exponentials:

$$^{34}Y_{3C} = 0.57[1 - \exp(-^{34}k_2t)] + 0.43[1 - \exp(-^{34}k_1t)] \quad (2)$$

where the relative contributions from the two phases follow from the isotopic distribution due to exchange at two independent sites (54).

In contrast, at *m/e* 36, plots of ³⁶Y_{3C} versus Δ*t* exhibit only one kinetic phase and were analyzed in terms of a single exponential:

$$^{36}Y_{3C} = [1 - \exp(-^{36}kt)] \quad (3)$$

Sigma Plot (SPSS, Chicago, IL) was used to fit the data according to eqs 2 and 3.

RESULTS

Extraction procedures for removal of the functional Ca²⁺ from the OEC typically employ a combination of NaCl, chelator(s) (e.g., Chelex 100 and/or citrate, EGTA, and EDTA), illumination, low pH, and the Ca²⁺ specific ionophore A23187 (9, 18, 51). The exposure to a high ionic strength using high concentrations of NaCl (i.e., >1 M) in some treatments (9, 18) targets the specific removal of the 17 and 23 kDa extrinsic proteins, which are known to enhance the binding affinity of Ca²⁺ (18, 19). In contrast, the low-pH/citrate treatment induces a temporary dislocation of these proteins, which rebind to PSII upon restoring a neutral pH (57). In this study, we used both a low-pH/citrate treatment and an NaCl/A23187/EGTA treatment to remove the functional Ca²⁺ from the OEC. In the former case, we found in our samples that ~80% of the 33, 23, and 17 kDa extrinsic proteins are retained after treatment. In the latter case, ~90% of the 33 kDa extrinsic protein and only ~2% of the 23 and 17 kDa extrinsic proteins are retained after treatment (58).

Upon removal of the functional Ca²⁺ from the OEC, the steady-state rate of O₂ evolution is largely inhibited. This is shown in Table 1 where the residual activity of Ca²⁺-depleted

Table 1: O₂-Evolving Activities and Kok Parameters for PSII Samples Depleted of Ca²⁺ and Reconstituted with Ca²⁺ or Sr²⁺

	O ₂ evolution			
	activity ^a	% control	α^b	β^c
untreated PSII	681 ± 9	100	0.119	0.046
Ca ²⁺ -depleted PSII ^d	34 ± 7	5	nd ^e	nd ^e
Ca ²⁺ -depleted PSII with CaCl ₂ ^f	429 ± 19	63	0.175	0.065
Ca ²⁺ -depleted PSII with SrCl ₂ ^g	219 ± 32	32	0.192	0.081
untreated PSII	767 ± 11	100	0.101	0.042
Ca ²⁺ /Ex-depleted PSII ^h	15 ± 8	2	nd ^e	nd ^e
Ca ²⁺ /Ex-depleted PSII with CaCl ₂ ⁱ	360 ± 15	47	0.181	0.073
Ca ²⁺ /Ex-depleted PSII with SrCl ₂ ^j	146 ± 22	19	0.217	0.092

^a Rates of O₂ evolution expressed as micromoles of O₂ per milligram of Chl per hour. ^b Fraction of misses. ^c Fraction of double hits. ^d PSII membranes subjected to low-pH/citrate treatment and depleted of Ca²⁺. ^e Not determined. ^f PSII membranes subjected to low-pH/citrate treatment and reconstituted with Ca²⁺. ^g PSII membranes subjected to low-pH/citrate treatment and reconstituted with Sr²⁺. ^h PSII membranes subjected to NaCl/A23187/EGTA treatment and depleted of Ca²⁺ and the 17 and 23 kDa extrinsic proteins. ⁱ PSII membranes subjected to NaCl/A23187/EGTA treatment and reconstituted with Ca²⁺. ^j PSII membranes subjected to NaCl/A23187/EGTA treatment and reconstituted with Sr²⁺. See the text for details.

and Ca²⁺/Ex-depleted samples is only 2–5% of the untreated control. Significant restoration of activity is achieved by incubating the depleted samples in either 50 mM CaCl₂ or 50 mM SrCl₂ for extended periods of time (viz. 2–3 h). The rates of O₂ evolution for the Ca²⁺-depleted samples recover to ~63% of the untreated control upon incubation with CaCl₂ and to ~32% upon incubation with SrCl₂, while for the Ca²⁺/Ex-depleted samples, the recovered activities are ~47 and ~19%, respectively.

Figure 1 shows the normalized O₂ flash yield patterns at *m/e* 34 for Ca²⁺-depleted and Ca²⁺/Ex-depleted samples reconstituted with Ca²⁺ or Sr²⁺. The measurements were taken at 10 °C following complete isotopic equilibration after the addition of H₂¹⁸O (i.e., at an exchange time of >10 s). The depleted samples reveal normal period 4 oscillations in the presence of either CaCl₂ or SrCl₂. The respective miss (α) and double hit (β) parameters as determined by the Kok method of analysis (1, 2) are listed in Table 1. The relatively heavier damping in O₂ flash yield oscillations for the reconstituted samples correlates with the overall reduced steady-state O₂-evolving activities; however, the period 4 oscillations indicate that normal turnover of the S-states occurs.

To determine the effect(s) of Sr²⁺ replacement at the Ca²⁺ site on the behavior of substrate-water binding, the rates of ¹⁸O exchange were determined for Ca²⁺-depleted and Ca²⁺/Ex-depleted samples reconstituted with Sr²⁺. Depleted samples reconstituted with Ca²⁺ are considered to be the controls in these measurements. Isotopic determinations of the flash-induced O₂ produced by the Ca²⁺- and Sr²⁺-reconstituted samples were recorded at *m/e* 34 in the S₁ and/or the S₂ and S₃ states at 10 °C. The results are shown in Figure 2 for Ca²⁺-depleted samples and in Figure 3 for Ca²⁺/Ex-depleted samples. In these measurements, the corrected O₂ yields after the third flash in the turnover sequence (³⁴Y_{3C}) are plotted as a function of the H₂¹⁸O exchange time (Δt) in the various S states. In both Ca²⁺-depleted and Ca²⁺/Ex-depleted samples, upon reconstitution with either Ca²⁺ or Sr²⁺, the exchange data exhibit strong biphasic behavior in

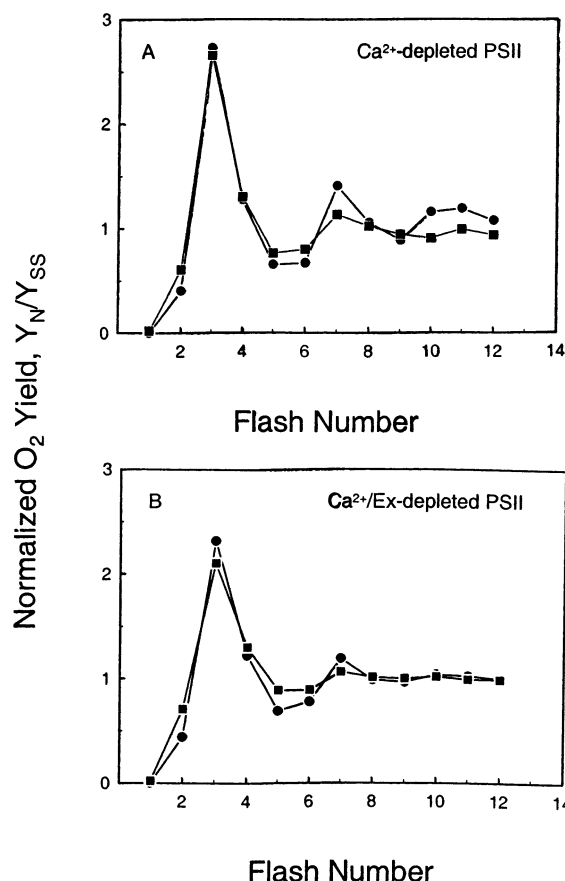


FIGURE 1: O₂ flash yields normalized to the same steady-state value for (A) Ca²⁺-depleted PSII samples prepared by low-pH/citrate treatment and (B) Ca²⁺/Ex-depleted PSII samples prepared by NaCl/A23187/EGTA treatment and reconstituted with Ca²⁺ (●) or Sr²⁺ (■). Measurements were taken at *m/e* 34 following complete isotopic equilibration upon addition of H₂¹⁸O at 10 °C. The derived miss and double hit parameters according to the Kok model are listed in Table 1.

all of the S states that were assessed. As calculated according to eq 2, the corresponding rate constants for the slowly and quickly exchanging components are listed in Table 2. Comparisons of these data indicate that the overall rates of slow ¹⁸O exchange for Ca²⁺-reconstituted samples in the S₃, S₂, and S₁ states are very similar to those for intact PSII-enriched membrane samples, as taken from ref 59. In the S₃ state, the fast ¹⁸O exchange is also virtually unaffected; however, as in the control, the rates of fast exchange in the S₂ and S₁ states are unresolved, where ³⁴k₂ > 175 s⁻¹ and ³⁴k₂ > 100 s⁻¹, respectively.

The most significant finding is revealed by the data for the slow ¹⁸O exchange in Sr²⁺-reconstituted samples (Figures 2 and 3 and Table 2). In the S₃ state for the Ca²⁺-depleted samples, there is an ~3–4-fold increase in the slow exchange rate (³⁴k₁) from 1.4 ± 0.1 s⁻¹ in the Ca²⁺-reconstituted control to 5.2 ± 1.6 s⁻¹ in the Sr²⁺-reconstituted sample. Interestingly, the same trend is observed in the earlier S states as well, where the slow exchange rates (³⁴k₁) increase from 2.1 ± 0.3 to 7.7 ± 2.4 s⁻¹ in the S₂ state and from 0.023 ± 0.002 s⁻¹ to 0.082 ± 0.012 s⁻¹ in the S₁ state. Similarly, for the Ca²⁺/Ex-depleted samples, the slow ¹⁸O exchange rates (³⁴k₁) also increase upon Sr²⁺ reconstitution, from 1.5 ± 0.2 to 5.1 ± 2.1 s⁻¹ in the S₃ state and from 1.5 ± 0.5 to 5.3 ± 1.4 s⁻¹ in the S₂ state. In contrast, the fast ¹⁸O exchange

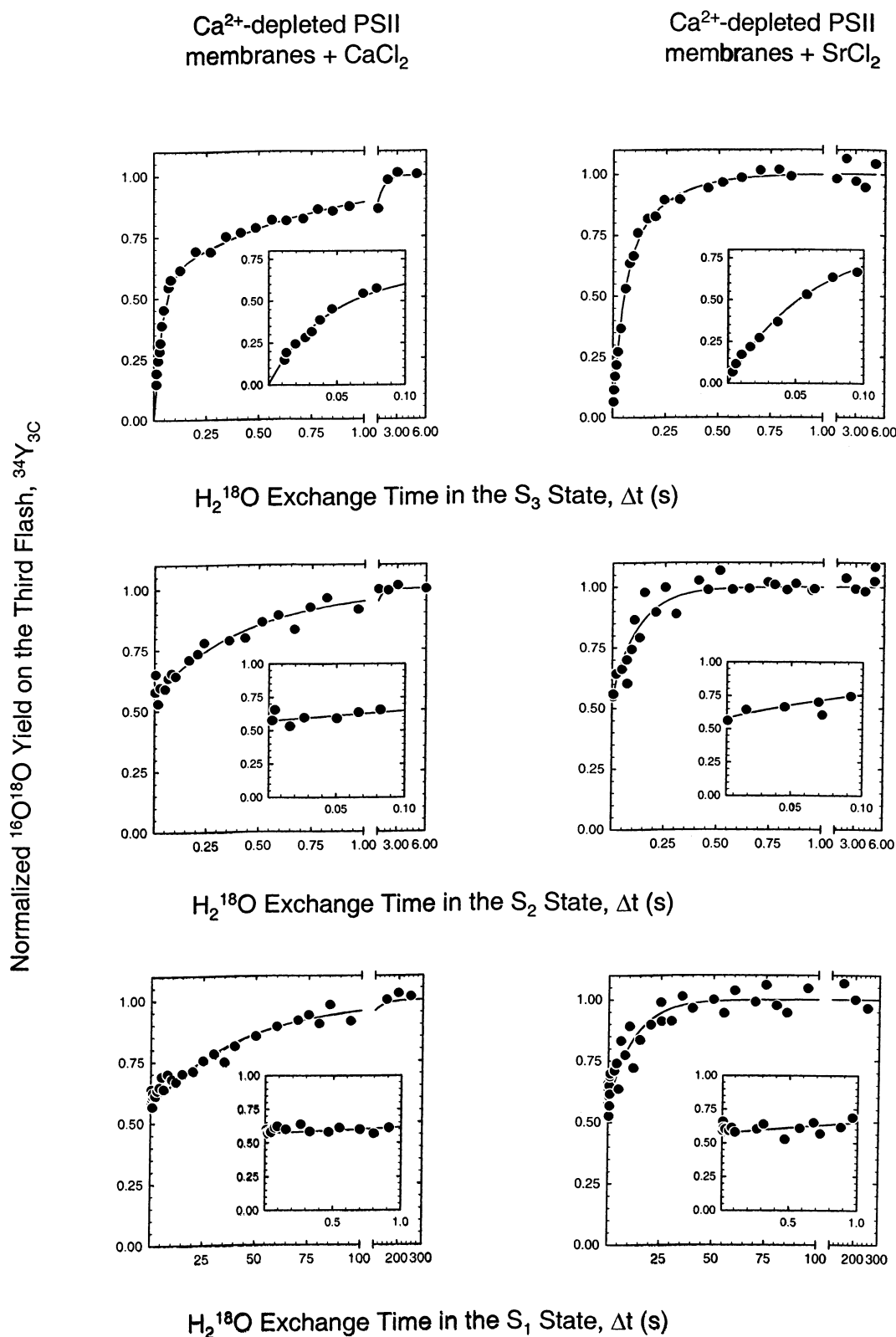


FIGURE 2: ¹⁸O exchange measurements in the S₃, S₂, and S₁ states taken at *m/e* 34 for Ca²⁺-depleted PSII samples prepared by low-pH/citrate treatment and reconstituted with Ca²⁺ or Sr²⁺. Measurements were taken as a function of the exchange time (Δ*t*) in each S state at 10 °C. Solid lines are kinetic fits to the data according to eq 2. The insets reveal expanded time ordinates for the first 100 ms in the S₃ and S₂ states and for first 1000 ms in the S₁ state.

when measured in the S₃ state in either the Ca²⁺-depleted or the Ca²⁺/Ex-depleted sample is not significantly influenced by Sr²⁺ reconstitution. These results clearly indicate that the two types of Ca²⁺ depletion procedures are affecting the same site.

To confirm these observations, measurements were also taken at *m/e* 36 for Sr²⁺-reconstituted, Ca²⁺-depleted preparations in the S₃ and S₂ states, which provides an independent measure of ³⁴*k*₁. The data are presented in Figure 4 and, as expected, reveal monoexponential kinetics. The correspond-

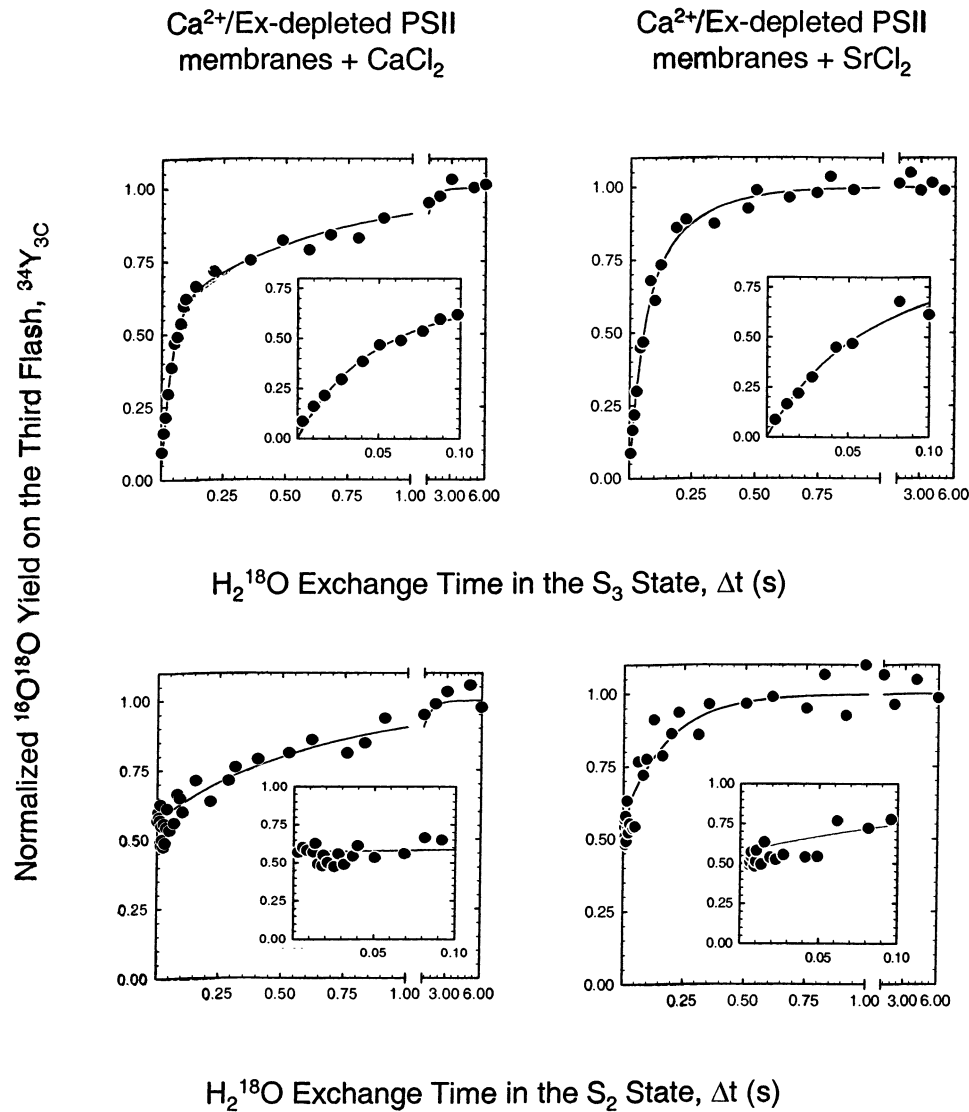


FIGURE 3: ^{18}O exchange measurements in the S_3 and S_2 states taken at m/e 34 for Ca^{2+} /Ex-depleted PSII samples prepared by NaCl/A23187/EGTA treatment and reconstituted with Ca^{2+} or Sr^{2+} . The measurements were taken as a function of the exchange time (Δt) in each S state at 10 °C. Solid lines are kinetic fits to the data according to eq 2. The insets reveal expanded time ordinates for the first 100 ms in the S_3 and S_2 states.

Table 2: ^{18}O Exchange Rate Constants Determined at m/e 34 and 36 for Ca^{2+} - and Sr^{2+} -Reconstituted Photosystem II Samples

	^{18}O exchange rate constants at 10 °C								
	S_3 state			S_2 state			S_1 state		
	$^{34}k_1$ (s^{-1})	$^{34}k_2$ (s^{-1})	^{36}k (s^{-1})	$^{34}k_1$ (s^{-1})	$^{34}k_2$ (s^{-1})	^{36}k (s^{-1})	$^{34}k_1$ (s^{-1})	$^{34}k_2$ (s^{-1})	^{36}k (s^{-1})
untreated PSII ^a	2.5 ± 0.2	30 ± 2	2.4 ± 0.2	1.9 ± 0.3	≥ 175	2.1 ± 0.3	0.022 ± 0.003	> 100	nd ^b
Ca^{2+} -depleted PSII with CaCl_2 ^c	1.4 ± 0.1	27 ± 2	nd ^b	2.1 ± 0.3	≥ 175	nd ^b	0.023 ± 0.002	> 100	nd ^b
Ca^{2+} /Ex-depleted PSII with CaCl_2 ^d	1.5 ± 0.2	27 ± 3	nd ^b	1.5 ± 0.5	> 175	nd ^b	nd ^b	nd ^b	nd ^b
Ca^{2+} -depleted PSII with SrCl_2 ^e	5.2 ± 1.6	23 ± 5	5.8 ± 0.3	7.7 ± 2.4	≥ 175	9.4 ± 0.6	0.082 ± 0.012	> 100	nd ^b
Ca^{2+} /Ex-depleted PSII with SrCl_2 ^f	5.1 ± 2.1	22 ± 6	nd ^b	5.3 ± 1.4	> 175	nd ^b	nd ^b	nd ^b	nd ^b

^a Exchange rate constants obtained from ref 59. ^b Not determined. ^c PSII membranes subjected to low-pH/citrate treatment and reconstituted with Ca^{2+} . ^d PSII membranes subjected to NaCl/A23187/EGTA treatment and reconstituted with Ca^{2+} . ^e PSII membranes subjected to low-pH/citrate treatment and reconstituted with Sr^{2+} . ^f PSII membranes subjected to NaCl/A23187/EGTA treatment and reconstituted with Sr^{2+} . See the text for details.

ing rate constants given in Table 2 are as follows: $^{36}k = 5.8 \pm 0.3 \text{ s}^{-1}$ for the S_3 state, and $^{36}k = 9.4 \pm 0.6 \text{ s}^{-1}$ for the S_2 state. These values compare reasonably well with the rates obtained for the slow exchange in the m/e 34 data upon Sr^{2+} reconstitution in both the Ca^{2+} -depleted and Ca^{2+} /Ex-depleted samples (Table 2). These data clearly indicate a

Sr^{2+} specific effect on the rate of the slow ^{18}O exchange across each of the S states that were assessed.

DISCUSSION

Although the exact role of Ca^{2+} in O_2 evolution remains unresolved, numerous experimental data demonstrate a

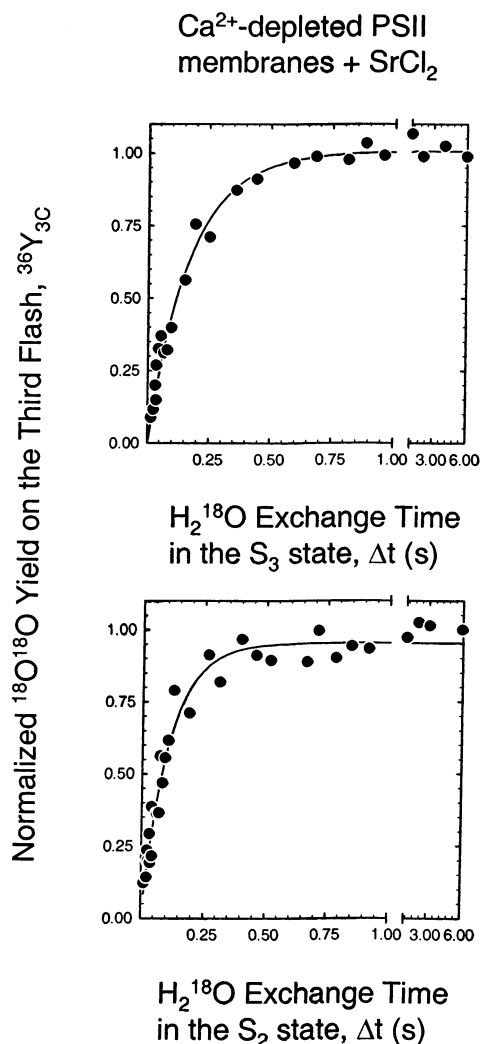


FIGURE 4: ¹⁸O exchange measurements in the S₃ and S₂ states taken at *m/e* 36 for Ca²⁺-depleted PSII samples prepared by low-pH/citrate treatment and reconstituted with Sr²⁺. The measurements were taken as a function of the exchange time (Δ*t*) in each S state at 10 °C. Solid lines are kinetic fits to the data according to eq 3.

structural and functional intimacy of Ca²⁺ with the OEC. Recent proposals suggest that Ca²⁺ plays a direct role in the water oxidation chemistry, in particular, by acting as a substrate-binding site which orients a water molecule in a nucleophilic attack during the S₃ → [S₄] → S₀ transition (45–48). In an effort to address these proposals, the rates of ¹⁸O exchange were determined for PSII-enriched membrane preparations depleted of Ca²⁺ and subsequently reconstituted with either Sr²⁺ or Ca²⁺.

Because of the selectivity of the mass spectrometric measurements (i.e., detection of centers that are only active in O₂ evolution), determination of the rate of ¹⁸O exchange in Ca²⁺- and Sr²⁺-reconstituted PSII samples provides a useful probe for the involvement of Ca²⁺ in substrate-water binding. Since Sr²⁺ is the only other metal ion that replaces Ca²⁺ and still maintains O₂-evolving activity (18), the application of this technique cannot be extended to studies in which the Ca²⁺ site is occupied by other metal ions with similar (or dissimilar) physical properties (e.g., Cd²⁺, La³⁺, or Dy³⁺).

We reported earlier that small variations in the rate constants for the two phases of ¹⁸O exchange can occur

depending on the source and type of sample preparation (60). For example, the rate of slow exchange in the S₃ state in spinach thylakoids is approximately twice the rate of slow exchange in spinach core particles and half the rate of slow exchange in *Synechocystis* thylakoids. However, the fact that the ¹⁸O exchange in Ca²⁺-reconstituted samples is not terribly different from the ¹⁸O exchange in native PSII (Table 2) indicates that the structural and functional integrity of the OEC is not dramatically perturbed by the extraction or reconstitution procedures used in this study. Hence, changes in the exchange behavior upon reconstitution with Sr²⁺ can be ascribed directly to the effects of occupation of the Ca²⁺ site by Sr²⁺.

Comparison of the rates of slow ¹⁸O exchange (i.e., ³⁴*k*₁) upon Sr²⁺ reconstitution in both Ca²⁺-depleted and Ca²⁺/Ex-depleted samples clearly shows an ~3–4-fold increase with respect to the slow exchange upon Ca²⁺ reconstitution (Figures 2 and 3 and Table 2). Most importantly, the relative magnitude of this increase is maintained throughout all of the S states that have been assessed (i.e., S₃, S₂, and S₁) (Figures 2 and 3 and Table 2). As an independent measure of the slow exchange, the single-exponential kinetics from the *m/e* 36 data for Sr²⁺-reconstituted, Ca²⁺-depleted samples were also determined, since the doubly labeled ¹⁸O₂ product is limited by the slowest ¹⁸O exchange process (54). In these measurements as well, the rate of ¹⁸O exchange upon Sr²⁺ reconstitution was found to be increased, where the ³⁶*k* values are comparable to the ³⁴*k*₁ values in the S₃ and S₂ states (Figures 2 and 4 and Table 2). Thus, there is a distinct Sr²⁺ specific effect on the slow ¹⁸O exchange.

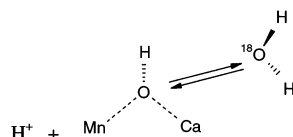
On the other hand, the rate for the fast ¹⁸O exchange remains relatively unaffected upon Sr²⁺ reconstitution, in either Ca²⁺-depleted or Ca²⁺/Ex-depleted samples in the S₃ state (Figure 2 and Table 2). In the latter case, we may have expected a small decrease in the rate of fast exchange, since we observed earlier that the removal of the 17 and 23 kDa extrinsic proteins by a simple salt wash leads to an ~30% decrease in the rate of fast exchange, with or without the addition of CaCl₂ (59). However, there was no obvious decrease, within the experimental error of the measurements, so we must assume that other aspects of the extraction procedures obscure this effect. As a consequence, the fast exchange in the S₂ (or the S₁) state could not be resolved in these samples. Regardless, it is clear that the slow ¹⁸O exchange is affected by Sr²⁺ reconstitution while the detectable fast exchange is not, in contrast to earlier expectations (47, 53).

The Sr²⁺ ion has an inherently larger ionic radius than the Ca²⁺ ion (1.12 and 0.99 Å, respectively). A larger ionic radius results in lengthened bonds, reduced hydration enthalpy, and a tendency toward increased coordination geometry (61–64). Thus, it can be expected that the corresponding ligand exchange for Sr²⁺ will be faster than for Ca²⁺. Using the normal Eyring relation between the rate constant and the activation free energy [$\log(k/k') \sim \Delta(\Delta G) \sim \Delta pK$] and the difference in proton binding affinities between Sr²⁺ and Ca²⁺ ions in water (Δ*pK* ~ 0.4) (64), the water exchange rate for the aqua complex of Sr²⁺ is estimated to be ~3 times faster than for Ca²⁺. Since the slow ¹⁸O exchange in all of the S states that were assessed is accelerated ~3–5-fold upon Sr²⁺ reconstitution compared with Ca²⁺ reconstitution, it is attractive to suggest that the

slowly exchanging component directly involves a Ca^{2+} (Sr^{2+}) interaction.

The rates of water exchange for hydrated metal ion complexes have been extensively characterized (reviewed in refs 61–63). For $[\text{Ca}(\text{OH}_2)_6]^{2+}$ and $[\text{Sr}(\text{OH}_2)_6]^{2+}$ complexes, the rates of water exchange are on the order of 10^8 – 10^9 s^{-1} , which is 7–8 orders of magnitude larger than the rates of slow exchange in Ca^{2+} - and Sr^{2+} -reconstituted PSII (where $^{34}k_1$ is in the range of 10^0 – 10^1 s^{-1}). If substrate water is indeed bound to Ca^{2+} , then it is important to consider factors that can slow the exchange kinetics. The most likely of these to be relevant for PS II are the positive charge density of the Mn_4 cluster and the steric hindrance by the immediate (and distal) ligand environment. As discussed above, we showed that the removal of the 17 and 23 kDa extrinsic proteins, which represents an accessibility barrier to the Mn_4 cluster by exogenous reductants (65), has no effect on the slow exchange and at most only a small effect ($\sim 30\%$ decrease) on the fast exchange (59). Thus, the effect of steric hindrance is likely to be small by comparison. On the other hand, the positive charge density on the Mn_4 cluster may have a quite strong influence.

On the basis of the XANES assignment of Mn oxidation states, it is generally accepted that the Mn_4 cluster is predominantly composed of Mn(III) and Mn(IV) ions [see the special issue on photosynthetic water oxidation of *Biochimica et Biophysica Acta* (2001) 1503, 1–259]. However, the water exchange rates for hydrated Mn(III) and Mn(IV) ions are not known, as the strong oxidizing potential of these ions dictates that they do not readily exist as aqueous ions in solution. Nevertheless, a comparative analysis with Fe or Ru ions in different oxidation states reveals that the water exchange rate in general decreases by $\sim 10^4$ for a formal oxidation state increase from +2 to +3 (61). Similarly, a comparison with the Cr(III) ion provides an estimate for the water exchange rate at Mn(IV) since the two ions are isoelectronic. It therefore can be expected that the water exchange rates for hydrated Mn(IV) should be in the range of 10^{-6} – 10^{-4} s^{-1} , while for hydrated Mn(III), they should be in the range of 10^{-2} – 10^0 s^{-1} (61). These predictions are in close agreement with the computational analysis by Kuzek and Pace (48), where the water ligand exchange rates in the primary coordination sphere of $\text{Mn(III)(H}_2\text{O)}_6$ and $\text{Mn(IV)-(H}_2\text{O)}_6$ were estimated to be in the range of 10^0 – 10^1 and 10^{-7} – 10^{-8} s^{-1} , respectively. Thus, if Ca^{2+} is indeed involved in the binding of substrate water, it may be possible to reconcile the overall magnitude of the observed slow exchange rate (i.e., $^{34}k_1 = 10^0$ – 10^1 s^{-1}) by invoking a bridging structure between Ca^{2+} and a higher-oxidation state Mn ion. In this hypothesis, the isotopic exchange of the bound substrate would be modulated by the influence of two very different ionic configurations. The isotopic exchange at such a site can be simply depicted as



However, it is important to keep in mind that factors other than the oxidation state and ionic radii can also have a major

impact on the substrate-water exchange. Of particular relevance would be H-bonding networks, which have been shown to be important for proton-coupled electron transfers in PSII [see the special issue on photosynthetic water oxidation of *Biochimica et Biophysica Acta* (2001) 1503, 1–259]. It has been suggested that a Ca^{2+} -bound water forms a H-bond with the bridging oxygen in a $\text{Mn}_2(\mu\text{-O})_2$ unit (47, 66). Thus, upon substitution of the Ca^{2+} site with Sr^{2+} , the local H-bonding network may be altered such that the exchange rate of the slowly exchanging water increases at a nearby though chemically different site. Evaluation of H-bonding contributions, however, will require further advances in our knowledge of the molecular structure of PSII. Similarly, the influence of the functional Ca^{2+} on the binding of the substrate water could also be exerted through secondary, outer sphere effects, for example, by controlling the approach of the solvent to the slowly exchanging site (23). To determine this as well will require further studies on the molecular structure of PSII. Although it is not possible to discern the precise chemical nature of the substrate binding sites at this time, the results reported in this study do clearly reveal an inherent interaction between the binding of one of the substrate-water molecules and the functional Ca^{2+} .

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

We sincerely thank Drs. Warwick Hillier and Charles Dismukes for many fruitful discussions of this work and offering many useful suggestions. We also thank Mr. Joel Freeman for assistance in the preparation of the manuscript.

REFERENCES

- Kok, B., Forbush, B., and McGloin, M. (1970) *Photochem. Photobiol.* 11, 457–475.
- Forbush, B., Kok, B., and McGloin, M. (1971) *Photochem. Photobiol.* 14, 307–321.
- Yocum, C. F. (1991) *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 1059, 1–15.
- Debus, R. J. (1992) *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 1102, 269–352.
- Han, K.-C., and Katoh, S. (1993) *Plant Cell Physiol.* 34, 585–593.
- Han, K.-C., and Katoh, S. (1995) *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 1232, 230–236.
- Chen, C., and Cheniae, G. M. (1995) in *Photosynthesis: from Light to the Biosphere* (Mathis, P., Ed.) pp 329–332, Kluwer Academic Publishers, Dordrecht, The Netherlands.
- Ädelroth, P., Lindberg, K., and Andreasson, L.-E. (1995) *Biochemistry* 34, 9201–9207.
- Kalosaka, K., Beck, W. F., Brudvig, G., and Cheniae, G. (1990) *Curr. Res. Photosynth.* 1, 721–724.
- Grove, G. N., and Brudvig, G. W. (1998) *Biochemistry* 37, 1532–1539.
- Ghanotakis, D. F., Topper, J. N., Babcock, G. T., and Yocum, C. F. (1984) *FEBS Lett.* 170, 169–173.
- Ono, T., and Inoue, Y. (1989) *Arch. Biochem. Biophys.* 275, 440–448.
- Boussac, A., and Rutherford, A. W. (1988) *FEBS Lett.* 236, 432–436.
- Boussac, A., Sétif, P., and Rutherford, A. W. (1992) *Biochemistry* 31, 1224–1234.
- Westphal, K. L., Lydakis-Simantris, N., Cukier, R. I., and Babcock, G. T. (2000) *Biochemistry* 39, 16220–16229.
- Ghanotakis, D. F., Babcock, G. T., and Yocum, C. F. (1985) *FEBS Lett.* 192, 1–3.
- Miyao, M., and Murata, N. (1984) *FEBS Lett.* 168, 118–120.
- Vrettos, J. S., Stone, D. A., and Brudvig, G. W. (2001) *Biochemistry* 40, 7937–7945.
- Vander Meulen, K. A., Hobson, A., and Yocum, C. F. (2002) *Biochemistry* 41, 958–966.
- Ono, T.-A., Rompel, A., Mino, H., and Chiba, N. (2001) *Biophys. J.* 81, 1831–1840.

21. Kimura, Y., Hasegawa, K., and Ono, T.-A. (2002) *Biochemistry* 41, 5844–5853.
22. Boussac, A., Zimmerman, J.-L., and Rutherford, A. W. (1989) *Biochemistry* 28, 8984–8989.
23. Sivaraja, M., Tso, J., and Dismukes, G. C. (1989) *Biochemistry* 28, 9459–9464.
24. Ono, T., and Inoue, Y. (1990) *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 1020, 269–277.
25. Boussac, A., Zimmerman, J.-L., and Rutherford, A. W. (1990) *FEBS Lett.* 277, 69–74.
26. Boussac, A., Zimmerman, J.-L., Rutherford, A. W., and Lavergne, J. (1990) *Nature* 347, 303–306.
27. Berthomieu, C., and Boussac, A. (1995) *Biochemistry* 34, 1541–1548.
28. Hallahan, B. J., Nugent, J. H. A., Warden, J. T., and Evans, M. C. W. (1992) *Biochemistry* 31, 4562–4573.
29. Gilchrist, M. L., Ball, J. A., Randall, D. W., and Britt, R. D. (1995) *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* 92, 9545–9549.
30. Tang, X. S., Randall, D. W., Force, D. A., Diner, B. A., and Britt, R. D. (1996) *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* 118, 7638–7639.
31. Force, D. A., Randall, D. W., and Britt, R. D. (1997) *Biochemistry* 36, 12062–12070.
32. Zouni, A., Witt, H. T., Kern, J., Fromme, P., Krauss, N., Saenger, W., and Orth, P. (2001) *Nature* 409, 739–743.
33. Kamiya, N., and Shen, J.-R. (2003) *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* 100, 98–103.
34. Booth, P. J., Rutherford, A. W., and Boussac, A. (1996) *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 1277, 127–134.
35. Matysik, J., Nachtgeal, G., van Gorkom, H. F., Hoff, A. J., and de Groot, H. J. M. (2000) *Biochemistry* 39, 6751–6755.
36. Latimer, M. J., DeRose, V. J., Mukerji, I., Yachandra, V. K., Sauer, K., and Klein, M. P. (1995) *Biochemistry* 34, 10898–10909.
37. Cinco, R. M., Robblee, J. H., Rompel, A., Fernandez, C., Yachandra, V. K., Sauer, K., and Klein, M. P. (1998) *J. Phys. Chem. B* 102, 8248–8256.
38. Latimer, M. J., DeRose, V. J., Yachandra, V. K., Sauer, K., and Klein, M. P. (1998) *J. Phys. Chem. B* 102, 8257–8265.
39. Robblee, J. H., Cinco, R. M., and Yachandra, V. K. (2001) *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 1503, 7–23.
40. Yachandra, V. K., DeRose, V. J., Latimer, M. J., Mukerji, I., Sauer, K., and Klein, M. P. (1993) *Science* 260, 675–679.
41. Noguchi, T., Ono, T.-A., and Inoue, Y. (1995) *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 1228, 189–200.
42. Ghanotakis, D. F., and Yocum, C. F. (1990) *Annu. Rev. Plant Physiol. Mol. Plant Biol.* 41, 255–276.
43. Rutherford, A. W. (1989) *Trends Biochem. Sci.* 14, 227–232.
44. Tommos, C., and Babcock, G. T. (1998) *Acc. Chem. Res.* 31, 18–25.
45. Pecoraro, V. L., Baldwin, M. J., Caudle, M. T., Hsieh, W.-Y., and Law, N. A. (1998) *Pure Appl. Chem.* 70, 925–929.
46. Siegbahn, P. E. (2000) *Inorg. Chem.* 39, 2923–2935.
47. Vrettos, J. S., Limburg, J., and Brudvig, G. W. (2001) *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 1503, 229–245.
48. Kuzek, D., and Pace, R. J. (2001) *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 1503, 123–137.
49. Carrell, T. G., Tyryshkin, A. M., and Dismukes, G. C. (2001) *J. Biol. Inorg. Chem.* 7, 2–22.
50. Berthold, D. A., Babcock, G. T., and Yocum, C. F. (1981) *FEBS Lett.* 134, 231–234.
51. Ono, T.-A., and Inoue, Y. (1988) *FEBS Lett.* 227, 147–152.
52. Porra, R. J., Thompson, W. A., and Kriedemann, P. E. (1989) *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 975, 384–394.
53. Messinger, J., Badger, M., and Wydrzynski, T. (1995) *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* 92, 3209–3213.
54. Hillier, W., Messinger, J., and Wydrzynski, T. (1998) *Biochemistry* 37, 16908–16914.
55. Hillier, W., and Wydrzynski, T. (2000) *Biochemistry* 39, 4399–4405.
56. Hillier, W. (1999) Ph.D. Thesis, The Australian National University, Canberra, Australia.
57. Shen, J.-R., and Inoue, Y. (1991) *Plant Cell Physiol.* 32, 453–457.
58. Hendry, G. (2003) Ph.D. Thesis, The Australian National University, Canberra, Australia.
59. Hendry, G. S., and Wydrzynski, T. (2002) *Biochemistry* 41, 13328–13334.
60. Hillier, W., Hendry, G., Burnap, R. L., and Wydrzynski, T. (2001) *J. Biol. Chem.* 276, 46917–46924.
61. Hillier, W., and Wydrzynski, T. (2001) *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 1503, 197–209.
62. Richens, D. T. (1997) in *The Chemistry of Aqua Ions*, John Wiley and Sons, West Sussex, England.
63. Lincoln, S. F., and Merbach, A. E. (1995) *Adv. Inorg. Chem.* 42, 1–88.
64. Westerhausen, M. (1998) *Coord. Chem. Rev.* 176, 157–210.
65. Vander Meulen, K. A., Hobson, A., and Yocum, C. F. (2002) *Biochemistry* 41, 958–966.
66. Riggs-Gelasco, P. J., Mei, R., Ghanotakis, D. F., Yocum, C. F., and Penner-Hahn, J. E. (1996) *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* 118, 2400–2410.

BI034279I