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THE ROLE OF CHLORIDE ION IN PHOTOSYSTEM II

I. EFFECTS OF CHLORIDE ION ON PHOTOSYSTEM II ELECTRON TRANSPORT AND ON HYDROXYLAMINE INHIBITION

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Summary

- 1. Chloroplasts washed with Cl⁻-free, low-salt media (pH 8) containing EDTA, show virtually no DCMU-insensitive silicomolybdate reduction. The activity is readily restored when 10 mM Cl⁻ is added to the reaction mixture. Very similar results were obtained with the other Photosystem II electron acceptor 2,5-dimethylquinone (with dibromothymoquinone), with the Photosystem I electron acceptor FMN, and also with ferricyanide which accepts electrons from both photosystems.
- 2. Strong Cl⁻-dependence of Hill activity was observed invariably at all pH values tested (5.5–8.3) and in chloroplasts from three different plants: spinach, tobacco and corn (mesophyll).
- 3. In the absence of added Cl $^-$ the functionally Cl $^-$ -depleted chloroplasts are able to oxidize, through Photosystem II, artificial reductants such as catechol, diphenylcarbazide, ascorbate and $\rm H_2O_2$ at rates which are 4-12 times faster than the rate of the residual Hill reaction.
- 4. The Cl⁻-concentration dependence of Hill activity with dimethylquinone as an electron acceptor is kinetically consistent with the typical enzyme activation mechanism: E(inactive) + Cl⁻ \rightleftharpoons E · Cl⁻ (active), and the apparent activation constant (0.9 mM at pH 7.2) is unchanged by chloroplast fragmentation.
- 5. The initial phase of the development of inhibition of water oxidation in Cl^- -depleted chloroplasts during the dark incubation with NH_2OH ($\frac{1}{2}$ H_2SO_4) is 5 times slower when the incubation medium contains Cl^- than when the medium contains NH_2OH alone or NH_2OH plus acetate ion. (Acetate is shown to be ineffective in stimulating O_2 evolution.)

6. We conclude that the Cl⁻-requiring step is one which is specifically associated with the water-splitting reaction, and suggests that Cl⁻ probably acts as a cofactor (ligand) of the NH₂OH-sensitive, Mn-containing O₂-evolving enzyme.

Introduction

In 1944, Warburg and Lüttgens [1] discovered that the Hill reaction in isolated chloroplasts required Cl⁻ (Warburg's Cl⁻ effect). Soon after the introduction of the concept of two photosystems [2,3], follow-up studies produced the first fruitful results when Bové et al. [4] demonstrated that the Cl⁻ effect is characteristic of reactions which involve Photosystem II. Izawa et al. [5] later located the site of Cl⁻ involvement on the oxidizing side of Photosystem II, and presented evidence that a step directly associated with the splitting of water molecules requires Cl⁻. In view of the fact that the Cl⁻ effect is also found in the lamellae from a green alga [6] and a blue green alga [7], it seems reasonably to assume that the Cl⁻ requirement is a general phenomenon common to all O₂-producing photosynthetic organisms, even though there are some skeptics [8,9]. As yet, however, nothing is known about the mechanism of Cl⁻ action.

During the last several years a variety of redox agents have been introduced which can interact directly with Photosystem II. A number of lipophilic oxidants have been introduced which can intercept electrons from Photosystem II [10-12]. A group of heteropoly compounds, represented by silicomolybdic acid, were shown to be capable of accepting electrons from Photosystem II in a DCMU-insensitive reaction [13-16]. In addition, the list of reducing compounds, used for electron donation to Photosystem II, has expanded considerably [17-19]. These and other recent developments in Photosystem II studies have strongly urged us to resume investigations of the Cl⁻ effect.

In resuming the study of the Cl⁻ effect, we have used EDTA-washed chloroplasts adopting the method described previously [5]. The reason for washing with EDTA is two-fold: (a) Functionally Cl⁻-depleted conditions can be elicited more easily in EDTA-washed chloroplasts than in regular, bufferwashed chloroplasts [5]: (b) EDTA uncoupling releases the rate limitation imposed by the energy-coupling mechanism. This EDTA uncoupling is not only important for observing the full effect of Cl⁻ on electron flow, but is also important in that it eliminates complications which are likely to arise from the salt effects on the rate-controlling coupling mechanism (see for example ref. 20).

Materials and Methods

Chloroplasts. Three different plants served as chloroplast sources: market spinach (Spinacia oleracea), greenhouse-grown tobacco (Nicotiana tabacum var. Samson) and greenhouse-grown corn (Zea mays). EDTA-washed "Cl-depleted" chloroplasts were prepared essentually as described before [5], and finally suspended in a medium containing 0.2 M sucrose, 20 mM HEPES/NaOH buffer (pH 7.2) and bovine serum albumin (2 mg/ml).

Subchloroplast particles. The above chloroplasts were sonicated at 0-4°C

for a total of 50 s with an Artek Sonic 300 Dismembrator, operated at 80% of full power. The sonication medium was the same as the medium used for stock suspension of chloroplasts. Two centrifugal fractions were collected from the sonicate: a fraction sedimented between $3000 \times g$ (6 min) and $25\,000 \times g$ (15 min), F_{3-25K} , and an ultracentrifugal fraction sedimented between $25\,000 \times g$ (15 min) and $140\,000 \times g$ (60 min), $F_{25-140K}$.

Chemicals. Most of the biochemicals and buffers used were from Sigma. The silicomolybdic acid and dibromothymoquinone (DBMIB) were generous gifts from Dr. A. Tsigdinos (Climax Molybdenum Co., Ann Arbor, Mich.) and Dr. N.E. Good, respectively. Chemicals used at relatively high concentrations (sucrose, buffers, etc.) were carefully tested for Cl⁻ in HNO₃-acidic media using AgNO₃ as the precipitant (sensitivity, 10⁻⁵ M) to avoid inclusion of Cl⁻ in our solutions. Tricine was found to contain sufficient amounts of Cl⁻ as impurity to require it to be purified by recrystallization (cold acetone precipitation from concentrated aqueous solution). For pH adjustment of Cl⁻-free solutions with a glass electrode, direct exposure of the solutions to the KCl/AgCl reference was avoided by using a sampling method or by use of a sodium citrate bridge. (Small volumes of solutions can easily built up a Cl⁻ concentration of 10⁻⁴ M during a short exposure to a KCl/AgCl or KCl/calomel reference.)

Measurements. Reactions were measured at 22° C, in most cases using a Clark-type O_2 electrode. The actinic light used was a rate-saturating broadband red light (620–700 nm, intensity, approx. 500 kergs · s⁻¹ · cm⁻²). The light source was a 500 W slide projector. When 2,6-dichlorophenolindophenol was used as the electron acceptor, the dye reduction was measured by monitoring the absorbance change of the reaction mixture at 600 nm. Reactions were run in a water-jacketed (22°C) 1-cm cell which was placed in a modified Beckman DU spectrophotometer furnished with Gilson-type electronics. A deep red light (650–700 nm; intensity 300 kergs · s⁻¹ · cm⁻²) was used as the actinic light to avoid overlapping of wavelengths with the measuring beam. The photomultiplier was protected from the actinic light by a layer of concentrated CuSO₄ solution and appropriate color filters. Occasionally ferricyanide reduction was measured optically (420 nm) using the same apparatus.

Results

Before presenting experimental data, it should be made clear that experiments described in this paper were all carried out using EDTA-uncoupled, functionally Cl⁻-depleted chloroplasts. In all experiments, with the exception of the last experiment (section 6), effects of Cl⁻ were determined by adding Cl⁻ (as NaCl) to the reaction mixture 2—3 min prior to illumination. The minimum dark preincubation time necessary to fully reactivate the chloroplasts by Cl⁻ addition was about 2 min at 22°C (reaction temperature).

1. Effects of Cl on DCMU-insensitive silicomolybdate reduction

If the site of Cl⁻ requirement is indeed at the O₂ evolution step of Photosystem II, then the Cl⁻ effect should be observed invariably regardless of the site of electron acceptance. The DCMU-insensitive Hill reaction with silicomolybdate as the oxidant should therefore show a Cl⁻ dependence in much the same

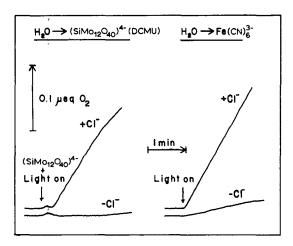


Fig. 1. Typical O_2 evolution traces for the Hill reaction using silicomolybdate and ferricyanide as electron acceptors in tobacco chloroplasts. The reaction mixture (1.5 ml) contained: 50 mM HEPES/NaOH buffer (pH 6.7), 10 mM NaCl (if added) and chloroplasts equivalent to 30 μ g chlorophyll/ml for ferricyanide reduction and 51 μ g/ml for silicomolybdate reduction. The concentration of silicomolybdate was 0.2 mM (with 5 μ M DCMU) and the ferricyanide concentration was 0.25 mM.

way as does the standard, DCMU-sensitive Hill reaction. This is shown to be the case. As Fig. 1 (left, —Cl⁻ trace) shows, in the absence of added Cl⁻ the chloroplasts were virtually unable to transfer electrons from water to silicomolybdate. The DCMU-insensitive Hill reaction was readily restored when NaCl (10 mM) was added to the reaction mixture 2 min prior to illumination (+Cl⁻ trace). A similarly dramatic Cl⁻ effect was observed for the DCMU-sensitive ferricyanide Hill reaction (Fig. 1, right traces). Fig. 2 indicates that the rate of DCMU-insensitive silicomolybdate reduction saturates at about 10 mM Cl⁻ where the

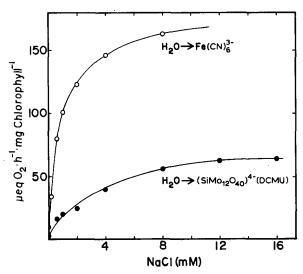


Fig. 2. O_2 evolution in tobacco chloroplasts as a function of Cl^- concentration. The reaction mixtures used were the same as in Fig. 1 except for the varied Cl^- concentrations.

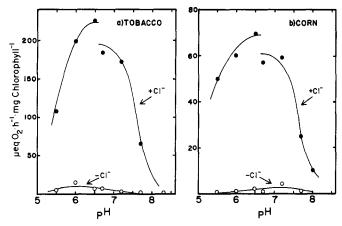


Fig. 3. pH dependence of O₂ production (with or without Cl⁻) in tobacco and corn (mesophyll) chloroplasts with silicomolybdate as the electron acceptor. The reaction mixtures were the same as in Fig. 1 except for the varied pH values. Buffers used were: MES for pH 5.5—6.5. HEPES for pH 6.7—7.7 and tricine for pH 8.0 and 8.3 (all at 50 mM with NaOH). If added, Cl⁻ (NaCl) was at 10 mM.

ferricyanide Hill reaction also saturates. Although the half-saturation concentrations of Cl⁻ were somewhat different (0.9 mM for ferricyanide reduction and 2 mM for silicomolybdate reduction), it seems clear that the two reactions have the same Cl⁻-sensitive step in common.

The experiments we have described so far were conducted using tobacco chloroplasts. Similar results were obtained also with corn (mesophyll) chloroplasts, except that the DCMU-resistant silicomolybdate reduction was considerably slower than in tobacco chloroplasts (data not shown).

2. The effect of pH

As shown by the pH profiles of Fig. 3, strong dependence of silicomolybdate reduction on Cl⁻ was observed over the entire range of pH values tested (5.5–8.3). Fig. 4 shows that the DCMU-sensitive Hill reaction also sharply

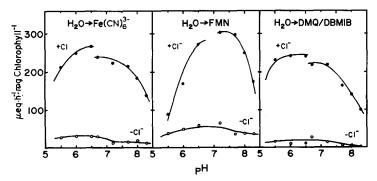


Fig. 4. pH dependence of the Hill reaction (with and without Cl^-) with three different electron acceptors: ferricyanide, flavin mononucleotide (FMN) and 2,5-dimethyl-p-benzoquinone (DMQ) with DBMIB. The ferricyanide and DMQ reactions were measured as O_2 evolution and the FMN reaction as O_2 uptake. Tobacco chloroplasts were used for the ferricyanide and FMN reactions and spinach chloroplasts for the DMQ reaction (chlorophyll, 35 μ g/ml). The concentrations of electron acceptors used were: ferricyanide, 0.25 mM; FMN, 0.1 mM; DMQ, 0.5 mM (with 2 μ M DBMIB). Other conditions were as in Fig. 3.

responds to Cl⁻ at all pH values and does so regardless of the site of electron acceptance. The low-potential oxidant FMN accepts electrons strickly through Photosystem I. The reduction of 2,5-dimethyl-p-benzoquinone in the presence of DBMIB [21] is almost certainly a pure Photosystem II reaction [11]. In the EDTA-washed, swollen chloroplast used here, ferricyanide seemed to accept electrons in large part directly from Photosystem II (only 50% inhibition by 1 μ M DBMIB).

3. Effect of other anions

Table I compares the effects of various anions (all added as sodium salts at 10 mM) on three reaction systems, $H_2O \rightarrow$ silicomolybdate (with DCMU), $H_2O \rightarrow$ dimethylquinone (with DBMIB) and $H_2O \rightarrow$ ferricyanide. As the table shows, the anion series determined for the activation of these three reactions were quite similar: $CI^- > Br^- > NO_3^- > I^- > HCOO^- > HCO_3^- > F^-$ (no effect). In this series the effectiveness of the first three anions (CI^- , Br^- , NO_3^-) is well known [1,4,22,23]. I⁻ was found effective by some workers [8,22,23] but not by others [4]. This discrepancy is probably related to the potential capability of I⁻ to donate electrons to Photosystem II [24]. The weakly effective HCO_3^- has been reported as inactive [23]. Acetate was found to be totally ineffective (not shown). F⁻ along with the di- and trivalent anions tended to give rates which were less than in the absence of added anions ("None" in the table).

4. Effect of Cl⁻ on Photosystem II donor reactions

The question of whether the oxidation of exogenous reductants by Photo-

TABLE I

THE EFFECTS OF VARIOUS ANIONS ON THE RATE OF $\mathbf{0}_2$ EVOLUTION IN C1-DEPLETED CHLOROPLASTS WITH THREE DIFFERENT ELECTRON ACCEPTORS

Tobacco chloroplasts were used for silicomolybdate and 2,5-dimethyl-p-benzoquinone reduction (DMQ), and spinach chloroplasts for ferricyanide reduction. The reaction mixtures contained 50 mM HEPES/NaOH buffer (pH 7.2), 10 mM anion (indicated), and chloroplasts equivalent to 30 μ g chlorophyll/ml for DMQ and ferricyanide experiments, and 50 μ g/ml for silicomolybdate experiments. The concentrations of acceptors used were: silicomolybdate, 0.2 mM (with 5 μ M DCMU); DMQ, 0.1 mM (with 2 μ M DBMIB); ferricyanide, 0.25 mM. For other conditions, see Methods.

Anion added *	μ equiv. O $_2 \cdot h^{-1} \cdot mg$ chlorophyll $^{-1}$			
	Silicomolybdate (DCMU)	DMQ (DBMIB)	Fe(CN) ₆ ³	
None	<3 (2) **	40 (18) **	33 (12) **	
Cl ⁻	122 (100)	220 (100)	274 (100)	
Br ⁻	97 (80)	200 (91)	196 (72)	
NO3	28 (23)	165 (75)	178 (65)	
I-	30 (25)	147 (67)	86 (31)	
нсоо-	30 (25)	112 (51)	73 (27)	
нсо3	12 (10)	85 (39)	83 (30)	
F	<3 (2)	42 (20)	19 (7)	
HPQ4 ***	<3 (2)	28 (12)	22 (8)	
SO4 ***	<3 (2)	20 (9)	21 (8)	

^{*} All anions were added as sodium salts (10 mM).

^{**} Values in parentheses are relative values.

^{***} Other di- and trivalent anions, such as citrate, oxalate, succinate and tartrate, all gave lower rates than in the absence of Cl⁻ ("None" in table).

TABLE II

OXIDATION OF ARTIFICIAL REDUCTANTS VIA PHOTOSYSTEM II IN CIT-DEPLETED CHLORO-PLASTS

The basic ingredients of the reaction mixtures (1.5 ml for O_2 assay and 2 ml for optical assay) were: 50 mM HEPES/NaOH buffer (pH 7.2), 10 mM NaCl (if added), indicated electron donors and acceptors, and chloroplasts equivalent to 33 μ g/ml. The concentrations of electron donors and acceptors used were: ferricyanide, 0.25 mM; FMN, 0.1 mM; D-ascorbate, 10 mM; catechol, 0.5 mM; 1.5-diphenylcarbohydrazide (DPC), 0.5 mM; H₂O₂, 10 mM; 2,5-dimethyl-p-benzoquinone (DMQ), 0.4 mM. For other conditions, see Methods. Cl⁻ data for the donor reactions are not included because Cl⁻ addition activated the water oxidation and no meaningful information was obtained from the results.

System	Cl ⁻	μ equiv. \cdot h ⁻¹ \cdot mg chlorophyll ⁻¹	Assay
$H_2O \rightarrow Fe(CN)_6^{3-}$	+	348	O ₂ evolution
$H_2O \rightarrow Fe(CN)_6^{3-}$		25	O ₂ evolution
H ₂ O → FMN	+	280	O2 uptake
$H_2^{\prime}O \rightarrow FMN$		40	O ₂ uptake
Ascorbate → FMN *	_	187	O2 uptake
Catechol → FMN * * * *		240	O2 uptake
DPC → FMN *·**		171	O ₂ uptake
$DPC \rightarrow Fe(CN)_6^{3-}$		105	Optical ***
$H_2O_2 \rightarrow DMQ$	-	293	O ₂ evolution
$H_2O_2 \rightarrow Fe(CN)_6^{3-}$	_	151	O ₂ evolution

^{*} The reaction mixture contained superoxide dismutase (Sigma; 200 units/ml) to prevent the radical oxidation of electron donors.

system II requires Cl^- has not been answered rigorously. The oxidation of NH_2OH ascorbate [5] and of Mn^{2+} [25] has been shown to occur in the absence of Cl^- , but the significance of these results may be subject to question because the chloroplasts used in these earlier experiments were abnormal in the sense that their water-splitting machinery had been destroyed (inevitably by the NH_2OH itself or deliberlately by heat-treament). The new experiments summarized in Table II clearly show that Cl^- -depleted chloroplasts were able, in the absence of Cl^- , to oxidize ascorbate, catechol, diphenylcarbazide and H_2O_2 at rates 4-12 times faster than that of the residual water oxidation. These reactions were highly (>90%) DCMU-sensitive, indicating an abligatory involvement of Photosystem II. Tests showed that chloroplasts pre-exposed to these reductants retained the Cl^- -dependent, O_2 -evolving capability largely unimpaired. These results strongly suggest that the Cl^- effect is indeed specific to the water-splitting mechanism.

5. Effect of Cl⁻ on sonicated chloroplasts

The Hill reaction in sonically fragmented chloroplasts shows a Cl^- concentration dependence, as shown in Fig. 5, which is kinetically very similar to that of the unsonicated chloroplasts. The magnitudes of the residual O_2 production, observed at $[Cl^-] = 0$, were close to what one would expect if the medium contained $0.2 \text{ mM } Cl^-$ as an impurity ($[Cl^-]_0 = 0.2 \text{ mM}$ in Fig. 5, inset). Although the actual level of Cl^- in the " Cl^- -free" media used was estimated to be less

^{**} The reaction mixture contained 0.5 mM D-ascorbate as electron reservoir.

^{***} Ferricyanide reduction was followed optically at 420 nm.

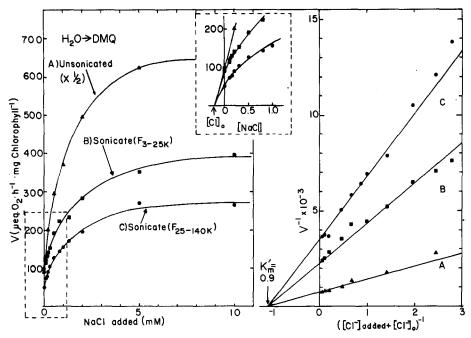


Fig. 5. The rate of O_2 evolution as a function of Cl^- concentration in normal (unsonicated) and sonicated spinach chloroplasts with 2,5-dimethylquinone (DMQ) as the electron acceptor. F_{3-25K} denotes a centrifugal fraction obtained between 3000 and 25 000 \times g, and $F_{25-140K}$ a fraction between 25 000 and 140 000 \times g. For details, see Methods. The reaction conditions were basically the same as for the DMQ experiment of Table I except that DBMIB was omitted in these experiments. For the explanations of the inset figure and the double-reciprocal plots, see text.

than 10^{-5} M (by AgNO₃ test), the reaction medium certainly contained some HCO₃, a weakly effective cofactor anion of O₂ production (see Table I). Moreover, it seems likely that the chloroplasts and subchloroplast particles used still retained significant amounts of Cl⁻ and HCO₃ (which may be trapped in the vesicles by the fixed membrane charges). These factors may add up to an effect equivalent to that of 0.2 mM Cl⁻. In the double reciprocal plots of Fig. 5 (right) we used Cl⁻ concentration values which were corrected for this "basal" concentration ([Cl⁻]₀). The plots for all three fractions display a linear dependence of V^{-1} on [Cl⁻]⁻¹ and a fixed $K'_{\rm m}$ (0.9 mM). The simplest interpretation of the data is to assume that Cl⁻ acts as a typical enzyme activator: E (inactive) + Cl⁻ \rightleftharpoons E-Cl⁻ (active), and that the activation constant, or apparent dissociation constant for E-Cl⁻, is unchanged by chloroplast fragmentation (K = 0.9 mM at 22°C, pH = 7.2). This enzyme activator hypothesis is further strengthened by the experiments described below.

6. Effect of Cl^- on the NH_2OH inhibition

In the dark NH₂OH selectively attacks and irreversibly destroys the Mncontaining O₂-evolving center (Mn enzyme) of Photosystem II [26,27] without abolishing the ability of Photosystem II to oxidize artificial reductants [5,19]. As clearly documented in the preceding sections, Cl⁻ removal exerts a similar "substrate-specific" inhibition of Photosystem II (except that the inhibition

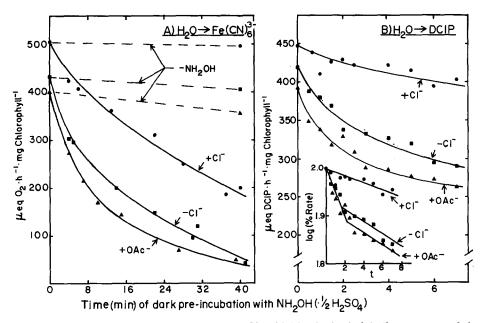


Fig. 6. The time courses of development of NH2 OH inhibition in the dark in the presence and absence of Cl (spinach chloroplasts). Ferricyanide and 2,6-dichlorophenolindophenol (DCIP) were used as electron acceptors in two separate experiments (A,B) with different batches of chloroplast preparations. Chloroplasts were incubated at 0°C in the dark with 0.4 mM NH₂OH (½ H₂SO₄) in three different media: (a) medium containing NH_2OH and buffer (20 mM HEPES/NaOH, pH $\bar{7}$.2) only, (b) medium containing NH2OH, buffer and 20 mM Cl (NaCl), and (c) medium containing NH2OH, buffer, and 20 mM OAc (sodium acetate). The concentration of chlorophyll in these preincubation mixtures was 330 µg/ml for DCIP experiments and 700 μ g/ml for ferricyanide experiments. The development of NH₂OH inhibition in each preincubation mixture was followed by timed samplings: Under dim room light, a small aliquot (60 µl) was taken quickly at indicated intervals and was added to a large volume (2 ml) of reaction medium which contained 40 mM HEPES/NaOH buffer (pH 7.2), 0.25 mM FeCy (or 25 µM DCIP) and excess Cl⁻ (20 mM NaCl). To equilibrate the chloroplasts with Cl⁻, the mixture was incubated for 2 min in the dark in the thermostated reaction chamber (22°C) and then illuminated for Hill reaction assay. O2 evolution (with ferricyanide) proceeded linearly at least for 30 s and DCIP reduction 10 s. Reaction rates were computed from these initial linear phases of the reaction. The values for zero-incubation time were obtained by sampling immediately before NH2OH was added to the preincubation mixtures. The DCIP experiments were repeated twice and the data from the second set of experiments were normalized to the data from the first set at t = 0. The ferricyanide experiments were repeated twice using different batches of chloroplasts. The results from the second set of experiments (not shown) were very similar to those shown in Fig. 6A.

is reversible). It is therefore reasonable to suspect that the Cl⁻-requiring step and the site of NH₂OH inhibition (Mn enzyme) may be in some way closely related. In line with this notion, we now present evidence that the Mn enzyme is more resistant to NH₂OH attack in the presence of Cl⁻ than in its absence. This is not an unspecific salt effect, since acetate, which is ineffective as a cofactor of water splitting, has no protective action. In this experiment, the progress of NH₂OH inhibition in the dark was followed under three different conditions: (a) Cl⁻-free, (b) Cl⁻-free but acetate ion present, and (c) with Cl⁻, as detailed in the legend for Fig. 6.

The results are clear. As the O₂ production data for Fig. 6A indicate, the NH₂OH inhibition in the dark progressed much more slowly in the presence of

 Cl^- ($t_{1/2}$ = 30 min) than in its absence ($t_{1/2}$ = 12 min). Acetate ion, added in lieu of Cl^- , failed to slow the progress of the NH₂OH inhibition ($t_{1/2}$ = 8 min). Fig. 6B shows a detailed analysis of the early phases of the development of the NH₂OH inhibition. In these experiments 2,6-dichlorophenolindophenol replaced ferricyanide as the electron acceptor, and the dye reduction was followed spectrophotometrically. The semilog plots of Fig. 6B (inset) reveal that the initial phase (2 min) of the development of the NH₂OH inhibition was about 5 times faster when no Cl^- was present in the NH₂OH-treatment medium than when Cl^- was present therein. These results strongly indicate a direct interaction between Cl^- and the target of NH₂OH inhibition, namely, the Mncontaining, O₂-evolving center. The implication of these results will be discussed below.

Discussion

Through the use of EDTA-washed, functionally Cl⁻-depleted chloroplasts we have demonstrated that the DCMU-insensitive silicomolybdate reduction [13–16] does indeed require Cl⁻. The dependence of silicomolybdate reduction on Cl⁻ was in fact even more pronounced than in other reaction systems, in the sense that virtually no O₂ production occurred in the absence of added Cl⁻ (Fig. 1). This is reminiscent of the fact that di- and trivalent anions added to the Cl⁻-free reaction mixture further decrease the residual rate of O₂ production (Table I). We suspect that these anions, including the silicomolybdate anion, are not only ineffective in catalyzing O₂ evolution, but may also enhance the depletion of residual Cl⁻ from the chloroplasts, for example through ion exchange or modification of the membrane state.

The silicomolybdate experiments, when taken together with the experiments involving the various artificial electron donors to Photosystem II (Table II), greatly reinforce the earlier conclusion [5,28] and leads us to the conviction that (a) the site of Cl^- involvement is on the water side of Photosystem II, and (b) the step requiring Cl^- is one which is specifically associated with the watersplitting mechanism. The fact that the oxidation of H_2O_2 by Photosystem II [29] does not require Cl^- (Table II) is of special interest. Using NH_2OH treated chloroplasts, Izawa and Pan [30] have recently studied the oxidation of H_2O_2 and obtained evidence that the protons released by the H_2O_2 oxidation are (e.g. ref. 31). Thus, the non-involvement of Cl^- in the H_2O_2 oxidation tends to dismiss the possibility that the role of Cl^- in H_2O is to act as a counterion to enable the internal release of protons.

We now believe that we have obtained evidence which strongly favors the view that Cl⁻ is a cofactor of an enzyme involved in O₂ evolution. Cheniae and Martin [26] have established that the bulk (70%) of the membrane-bound Mn is specifically associated with the machinery of water oxidation. Although little is known about the chemical nature of the "Mn enzyme" (O₂-evolving center), the enzyme is noted for its high susceptibility to denaturation by NH₂OH. Cheniae and Martin [26] showed that the Hill activity of chloroplasts (and of algae) exposed to 1–2 mM NH₂OH in the dark at 24°C rapidly diminished following biphasic kinetics. In our dark preincubation experiments at 0°C with a

low concentration (0.4 mM) of NH_2OH , we found the initial fast phase of the development of NH_2OH inhibition was almost completely prevented when 20 mM Cl^- coexisted with the NH_2OH during dark incubation. Acetate, which is inactive as a cofactor of O_2 evolution, had no such preventive effect (Fig. 6). The apparent antagonizing action of Cl^- against NH_2OH inhibition may be best explained by assuming that the cofactor action of Cl^- involves the binding of the ion to the O_2 -evolving Mn enzyme and that this ligand binding somehow alters the susceptibility of the enzyme to NH_2OH attack. Similarly, the simplest explanation of the hyperbolic rate vs. $[Cl^-]$ curves (Fig. 5) is to assume that a reversible Cl^- -enzyme binding does occur and that the binding follows the mass action law with n = 1. However, such a free equilibrium, implied by the kinetics, must be a result of some form of membrane modification (or "loosening") elicited by extensive washings; otherwise one would expect almost complete removal of Cl^- after 1 or 2 washings, which is not the case.

Monovalent anion activation or inactivation of redox enzymes is not an unusual phenomenon (see ref. 32). In fact, the anion series reported for the inhibition of xanthine oxidase [33] and for the activation of membrane-bound succinate dehydrogenase [34] share some intriguingly similar features with the series found for the activation of O_2 evolution: $Cl^- > Br^- > NO_3^- > I^- >$ $HCOO^- \ge HCO_3^- > F^-$ (Table I). As already pointed out, all the anion series for Hill activity found in the literature agree in placing Cl and Br at the top of the sequence. Discrepencies found for the sequence of the less active anions (e.g. HCO₃) may be explained, at least in part, as being due to the differences in permeability properties of the chloroplasts used by the individual workers. The relatively high permeability of the thylakoid membrane to the first 4 anions (Cl⁻, Br⁻, NO $_{3}$, I⁻) of the above series is well documented [35,36]. However, the anion permeability properties of EDTA-uncoupled chloroplasts have yet to be investigated. It is of interest to add here that our experiments with EDTA-washed, Cl⁻-depleted chloroplasts revealed a weak cofactor action of HCO₃ on O₂ evolution. This HCO₃ effect is presumably unrelated to Warburg's CO₂ effect (CO₂ or HCO₃ requirement of the Hill reaction [37]), an effect which is now believed to occur near the primary electron acceptor of Photosystem II [38]. Nevertheless, the existence of two sites of HCO₃ interaction near Photosystem II, one before and one after the photosystem, is highly intriguing.

During the preparation of this report, Terry [39] has published a paper which deals in part with the relation of the Cl⁻ content to the Hill activity of sugar beet chloroplasts. His data indicate that sucrose washing and EDTA washing were equally effective in terms of Cl⁻ removal but the Cl⁻ effect was much less pronounced in the sucrose-washed chloroplasts (2—3-fold stimulation in the sucrose-washed chloroplasts as opposed to 5—10-fold in the EDTA-washed chloroplasts). Thus, Terry questions the physiological significance of the Cl⁻ effect observed in EDTA-washed chloroplasts. However, his data (Table III of ref. 39) show that the Cl⁻-stimulated rate of ferricyanide reduction in the sucrose-washed chloroplasts was much lower than in EDTA-washed chloroplasts. This suggests that his sucrose-washed chloroplasts were still coupled, and consequently, the ferricyanide reduction rates (assayed without uncouplers) were limited by the energy coupling mechanism. Furthermore, Cl⁻

analysis for stock suspensions of chloroplasts * may not necessarily reflect the Cl⁻ content of the chloroplasts after they have been transfered to the higher temperature reaction media. Since the membrane diffusion processes would now be greatly accelerated, the degree of Cl⁻ depletion actually attained in the reaction mixture might be quite different depending on the state of the membrane.

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^{*} The Cl⁻ content data Terry gives for chloroplasts in Table III (ref. 39) seem to be in error. The data indicate that >90% Cl⁻-free chloroplasts still contain up to 30 μ mol Cl⁻ per mg chlorophyll. This value corresponds to a Cl⁻ concentration in the chloroplasts as high as 0.3 to 3 M, if one makes a reasonable assumption that the chlorophyll concentration in the chloroplasts is between 10 mM and 100 mM (cf. ref. 40). It is interesting to note that the recent neutron activation experiments of Nakatani and Barber [41] indicate that even in intact chloroplasts (pea, spinach) the Cl⁻ content is only 0.1 to 0.2 μ mol/mg chlorophyll.

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