**BBA 42874** 

# The reaction of H<sub>2</sub>S with the photosynthetic water-oxidizing complex and its lack of reaction with the primary electron acceptor in spinach

M. Sivaraja. D. Hunziker and G.C. Dismukes

Department of Chemistry, Princeton University, Princeton, NJ (U.S.A.)

(Received 16 February 1988) (Revised manuscript received 12 August 1988)

Key words: Photosynthesis; Water oxidation; Oxygen evolution; Photosystem II; Metalloenzyme

Inhibition of photosynthetic water oxidation by H2S, a substrate analog, has been investigated using equilibrium titrations and EPR spectroscopic detection of the electron donors in spinach Photosystem II (PS II) membranes and compared to inhabition by NH2OH. Like NH2OH, H2S inhibits formation of the S2 oxidation state of the water oxidizing complex by a two-step process in the dark. Initially, reversible inhibition of  $S_2$  occurs upon binding to a high affinity site in the dark ( $S_1$ ) state at a low concentration of inhibitor (50% inhibition: 0.07 μmol H<sub>2</sub>S/mg Chl, corresponding to about 15 H<sub>2</sub>S/PS II). This causes no loss of steady-state O2 evolution and can be reversed by illumination at room temperature, which causes multiple turnovers. At higher concentrations, irreversible inhibition occurs due to the cooperative release of 3 out of 4 Mn<sup>2+</sup>/PS II using mild washing conditions, with parallel loss of O<sub>2</sub> evolution activity. This stoichiometry of Mn release is preserved throughout the entire concentration range of inhibition by both H,S and NH,OH, suggesting a common binding site for at least 3, and possibly all 4, of the Mn ions which are present in PS II. This is consistent with independent earlier work showing the net release of 4 Mn/PS II using stronger washing conditions, and also with EPR spectroscopic evidence assigning the S, multiline signal to a cluster of 3-4 Mn ions. The concentration of H,S which induces 50% irreversible inhibition is 17-fold greater than that required for NH,OH. Qualitatively, the weaker inhibition by H,S is consistent with its lower oxidation potential compared to NH<sub>2</sub>OH. However, the quantitative agreement is poor, suggesting that other environmental factors must be involved in determining their relative inhibition strengths. Unlike NH2OH, H2S does not affect the structure of the primary quinone electron acceptor,  $Q_{-}^{-}$ -His-Fe (structure by analogy to bacterial reaction centers), as seen by formation of the normal EPR signals at g = 1.8 and g = 1.9 for the photoreduced semiguinone, instead of the shifted resonance at g = 2.1observed with NH2OH. H2S is therefore unable to bind to the NH2OH site on the acceptor side of PS II.

### Introduction

All the substrate analog-type inhibitors of the water oxidizing complex, such as NH<sub>2</sub>OH, NH<sub>2</sub>NH<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, etc. [1-7], that have thus far been studied in detail contain nitrogen or oxygen.

This report presents the first in depth studies of the reaction of the sulfur containing water analog. H<sub>2</sub>S with the water-oxidizing complex. Our aim is to see whether new insights into the unsolved

These inhibitors bind to the water-oxidizing complex and alter the redox state by either reduction or oxidation of manganese. NH<sub>2</sub>OH is the most potent of these. Although these are believed to bind directly to manganese, the evidence for this is indirect and as yet unproven.

Correspondence: G.C. Dismukes, Department of Chemistry, Princeton University, Princeton, NJ 08544, U.S.A.

mechanism of water oxidation might be revealed by the use of a sulfur-containing substrate analog. Earlier studies have provided a basis for this expectation, since sulfide has already been found to act as an electron transport inhibitor at an unspecified site between water and PS II in both plant chloroplasts and cyanobacterial cells [8,9]. Since selected redox data and binding constants for sulfur vs. oxygen and nitrogen ligands to free Mn2+ in solution are available, it is possible to ascertain which of these factors, if any, determine the effectiveness of these analogs as inhibitors. Furthermore, if ii25 can displace bound water from manganese, then a variety of spectroscopic methods which are sensitive to ligand covalency. such as EPR, electronic absorption, EXAFS, etc., could provide new structural information on the manganese site.

### Materials and Methods

The preparation of PS II membranes and the assay of O<sub>2</sub> rate activity are the same as described previously [7]. Concentrated PS II membranes that had been frozen in a 200 mM sucrose buffer containing 30% glycerol were thawed and washed in a medium containing 200 mM sucrose/15 mM NaCl/20 mM Mes/2 mM EDTA prior to use. These gave absolute O<sub>2</sub> evolution rates in the range of 350-450  $\mu$ M O<sub>2</sub>/mg Chl per h.

The H2S stock solution was prepared by starting with a crystal of Na<sub>2</sub>S·9H<sub>2</sub>O that was 2-3 times larger than the final amount needed to make a 100 mM stock solution. This crystal was partly dissolved in deionized water to remove oxidation products on the crystal surface. The remaining crystal of pure Na2S was then dissolved in an appropriate volume of degased deionized water. The pH of this solution was reduced from about 12.5 to about 6.8 with HCl to give a colorless solution. Lowering the pH below this gave a yellow solution that was unsuitable. This stock was used within half an hour for treatment of the PS II membranes. If the initial crystal was not cleaned, the solution became yellow after reduction of the pH to 6.8.

Both the stock and final H<sub>2</sub>S solutions were assayed for H<sub>2</sub>S to determine its concentration. For the stock solution, H<sub>2</sub>S was directly assayed by iodometric titration [10]. In the range 9-50 mM, the measured value was within 20% of the value determined based on the weight of the  $Na_2S$   $9H_2O$ .

For measuring H,S concentrations in the range 0-1 mM a direct colorimetric titration was found to be unsuitable, due to the very low concentrations involved. For measurements in this range, a large volume (1 liter) of the dilute H<sub>2</sub>S solution was treated with CdCl, under slightly basic conditions and the precipitated CdS was filtered and redissolved in a smaller volume (50 ml) under acidic conditions. This solution was then assayed iodometrically as above. At 0.25 mM H2S (gravimetric), the actual concentration in solution was found to be 0.18 mM, hence the actual concentration is 1.4-times lower than the gravimetric value. When air-saturated water was used to dilute the stock solution to 0.25 mM (gravimetric), the measured concentration was found to be 0.16 mM after 15 min incubation. This indicates that, within the error of the method, there was little additional consumption of H2S by air redissolved in the 20 min incubation time used here.

For treatment with  $H_2S$ , the PS II membranes were resuspended to a chlorophyll concentration of about 1 mg/ml and dark-adapted for at least 30 min at 273 K to favor population of the  $S_1$  state.  $H_2S$  was then added in the dark to 1 ml of the membranes and allowed to incubate for 20 min in the dark. The suspension was then pelleted at  $48\,000\times g$  for 30 min and analyzed for manganese,  $O_2$  activity and by EPR. For EPR measurements, an alternate method was sometimes used in which incubation with  $H_2S$  at a chlorophyll concentration of 4 mg/ml was carried out directly on the EPR samples without subsequent centrifugation. The results of the two methods were the same.

Manganese was determined by atomic absorption using a graphite furnace. EPR spectra were obtained at 9.5 GHz on a Varian E-12 spectrometer operating with 10 kHz field modulation and fitted with an Oxford Instruments ESR-900 continous flow helium cryostat. The S<sub>2</sub> multiline EPR signal was observed at 10 K after illumination at 200 K by a tungsten source. Cytochrome b-559 was monitored as the oxidized low potential form by EPR at g = 2.95.

#### Results

Binding of H2S to the S1 state

As was the case for our previous studies of water-oxidation inhibitors [7,11], the yield of the S<sub>2</sub> multiline EPR signal was used as an indicator of the extent of loss or blockage upon binding in the dark to the precursor state S<sub>1</sub>. Curve 1 in Fig. 1 shows the course of loss of the S<sub>2</sub> multiline EPR signal during equilibrium titration against H<sub>2</sub>S added in the dark at 277 K. The sample was assayed by illumination at 200 K. The amount of H<sub>2</sub>S is normalized to the amount of chlorophyll in the sample. The yield decreases monotonically;

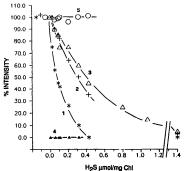


Fig. 1. The effect of H2S on the O2 evolution rate and the yield of EPR signals in spinach PS II membranes. Curve 1 (\*): the yield of the S2 multiline EPR signal generated by CW illumination at 200 K after incubation with H2S in the dark for 15 min followed by centrifugation and resuspension in buffer. Curve 2 (+): yield of the S2 multiline EPR signal produced by CW illumination at 200 K, as for curve 1, but after consuming the H2S by photooxidation at 277 K and dark readapting. Curve 3 (a): steady-state O2 rate after treatment as in curve 1. Curve 4 ( $\triangle$ ): yield of the g = 4.1 signal for the altered S<sub>2</sub> state manganese center after treatment as in curve 1. Curve 5 (O): Yield of the g = 2.95 signal for low potential  $c \ge b-559$  observed in the dark. The curves are drawn to aid in distinguishing the data sets only. EPR conditions: microwave freq., 9.22 GHz; microwave power, 20 mW; modulation amplitude, 32 G; sample temperature, 10 K. Chlorophyll concentration = 3.5-4.0 mg/ml. Suspension buffer: 200 mM sucrose/20 mM Mes/15 mM NaCl (pH 6.5). Exogenous acceptor: 0.5 mM 2,5-DCBO in 1-2% methanol.

50% loss occurs at 0.07  $\mu$ mol H<sub>2</sub>S/mg Chl and 100% loss occurs at 0.45  $\mu$ mol H<sub>2</sub>S/mg Chl (0.07  $\mu$ mol H<sub>2</sub>S/mg Chl (0.07  $\mu$ mol H<sub>2</sub>S/mg Chl corresponds to about 15 H<sub>2</sub>S/PS II; one photosynthetic unit corresponds to  $225 \pm 25$  chlorophyll) [12–14]. Evidence that some of this loss is photoreversible is given in curve 2. This shows the S<sub>2</sub> multiline EPR signal yield after warming the treated samples to 277 K and illuminating them with a 20 W tungsten source for 2 min, followed by a second dark adaptation for 30 min and reillumination at 200 K. This treatment consumes H<sub>2</sub>S, apparently by photo-oxidation in analogy with the behavior of NH<sub>2</sub>OH [7,11]. Irreversible loss of 50% of the signal occurs at an H<sub>2</sub>S concentration of 0.31  $\mu$ mol/mg Chl.

In untreated membranes, another EPR spectral form of the manganese center comprising the water-oxidizing complex has been reported at g=4.1. It forms if the illumination is performed at 140 K instead of 200 K [15,16]. A negligible yield of this form of the  $S_2$  state was seen in both untreated and  $H_2S$ -treated (curve 4) PS II membranes when illuminated at 200 K. Therefore, the loss of the  $S_2$  multiline signal induced by  $H_2S$  is not replaced by the other known spectral form of the manganese center during the course of the titration. This loss of signal is therefore attributed to a loss in population of the  $S_2$  oxidation state.

Curve 3 shows that the steady-state O<sub>2</sub> evolution rate closely parallels the yield of centers which retain the photoreversible multiline signal in curve 2. The difference between curve 2 and the control yield is attributed to centers which lose the S<sub>2</sub> multiline signal irreversibly and essentially in parallel with loss of water oxidation activity.

The reversible loss of the  $S_2$  multiline signal seen below 0.45  $\mu$ mol  $H_2S/mg$  Chl in curve 1 is not accompanied by a change in the yield of oxidized low potential cytochrome b-559, as observed by its resonance at g = 2.95 (curve 5).

The reversible loss of the multiline signal seen at low  $H_2S$  concentrations (curve 1) was sometimes not seen. The reason for this irreproducibility was not investigated in detail, but appears to have something to do with consumption of  $H_2S$  by either inadvertent illumination, residual oxidants present in the PS II membranes or dissolved  $O_2$  in the degassed buffer. On the other hand, the titration curve for the irreversible loss of the multiple of the second of the content of the second of the content of the content of the second of the content of t

tiline signal did not vary. Also, at pH = 6.5, where these experiments were performed,  $H_2S$  exists in equilibrium with  $HS^-$  ( $pK_a = 7.0$ ), and so the relative concentration of these is very sensitive to the medium pH.

# Release of manganese from PS II by H2S

The irreversible losses of the multiline signal and  $O_2$  evolution, given by curves 2 and 3 in Fig. 1, are accompanied by a parallel release of Mn from the membranes into the supernatant as monitored by the Mn retained in the pellet as shown in Fig. 2.

The total number of Mn atoms per PS II varied between 4.5 and 5.0 for different preparations. At 6.5 µmol H2S/mg Chl O2, the activity is completely lost and the PS II membranes still retain about 1 Mn/PS II. Thus, 3.5-4.0 Mn are susceptible to H2S release. Comparing Fig. 2 and curve 3 of Fig. 1, we see that release of the first manganese atom at 0.03 µmol H2S/mg Chl does not affect O2 activity, identifying this population with extraneous Mn. This can also be removed by repeated washings with chelators [2,17,18]. Thus, of the 3.5-4 Mn which need to be present for optimal activity in these samples, a total of 2.5-3 are released by mild washing in H2S. More Mn can be released using stronger washing conditions. Release of 3-4 Mn is also seen upon incubation with low NH2OH concentration, the precise amount being a function of the washing conditions [7,12].

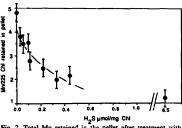


Fig. 2. Total Mn retained in the pellet after treatment with H<sub>2</sub>S in the dark followed by centrifugation and resuspension in buffer.

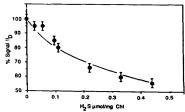


Fig. 3. The effect of H<sub>2</sub>S concentration of the yield of EPR signal II. Chlorophyll concentration = 3.5-4.0 mg/ml, exogenous acceptor = 0.5 mM 2,5-DCBQ in dimethyl sulfoxide. EPR conditions as in Fig. 1, except microwave power = 0.1 mW and modulation amplitude = 4.0 G.

# Primary electron acceptor

We have shown previously that NH<sub>2</sub>OH reacts with PS II membranes at a second site which induces a shift of the EPR resonance of the primary quinone electron acceptor,  $Q_A^-$ His-Fe, from g=1.9 to a new resonance at g=2.1 [7,11]. By contrast, H<sub>2</sub>S gave no evidence for modification of either of the acceptor signals at g=1.9 or 1.82 at concentrations below 4.5  $\mu$ mol H<sub>2</sub>S/mg Chl (data not shown).

#### Signal II

The titration curve given in Fig. 3 shows that  $\rm H_2S$  reacts in the dark with PS II membranes to reduce the oxidized species responsible for signal II (both dark and slow components). The signal intensity is reduced to about 55% at 0.45  $\mu$ mol  $\rm H_2S/mg$  Chl, where  $\rm O_2$  evolution activity is completely abolished. Comparing Figs. 2 and 3, we see that reduction of signal II by  $\rm H_2S$  occurs in parallel with the release of manganese.

### Discussion

The reversible reaction of H<sub>2</sub>S with the wateroxidizing complex

The X-intercept of curve 1 in Fig. 1 indicates that a maximum of 0.45  $\mu$ mol H<sub>2</sub>S/PS II) are required to completely eliminate formation of the S<sub>2</sub> multiline EPR signal. At this concentration, only 40% of the signal is recoverable: the remaining 60% is irreversibly lost (Fig. 1,

curve 2) due to the release of manganese (Fig. 2). In comparing the results from Fig. 1 with the reversible loss of the S2 multiline signal by NH2OH [7,11], we see that the inhibition constant for H2S is about 17-times smaller than that for NH,OH (86 H,S/PS II versus 5 NH,OH/PS iI). Both H2S and NH2OH induce the photoreversible loss of the S<sub>2</sub> state by a reaction that involves an undetermined number of molecules, although the latter is less than or equal to 4 NH<sub>2</sub>OH/PS II [7,19]. Like NH2OH [1,4,6,7,19,20], binding occurs in the dark (S<sub>1</sub> State) at 277 K and is accompanied by two-electron reduction of either the S<sub>1</sub> state in the dark or the S2 state, following illumination at 200 K. The present data alone do not allow an unambiguous choice between these two options.

The reaction center does indeed turn over during illumination, as seen by the undiminished yield of the reduced primary quinone EPR signal (data not shown). The reversible loss of the  $S_2$  multiline signal is not due to conversion to the g=4.1 form of the manganese complex, as seen by the lack of formation of this signal during the course of the  $H_2S$  titration (Fig. 1, curve 4).

From the data in Figs. 1 and 2, we conclude that the mechanism of inhibition by H<sub>2</sub>S is qualitatively the same as that expressed by NH2OH. The mechanism of the latter involves initial binding with the water-oxidizing complex in the S1 state, followed by two-electron reduction of the manganese complex in either the S<sub>1</sub> or S<sub>2</sub> states. The cumulative evidence from both EPR and EX-AFS studies identifies the S<sub>2</sub> state as the target for reduction initiated either by a flash at room temperature [7] or by CW illumination at 200 K [20]. This is also supported by the faster reactivity between NH2OH and the S2 state compared to the slower rate of binding in the dark to the S<sub>1</sub> state [21,7]. The following general scheme summarizes the reactions which this class of inhibitors appear to initiate: Binding:

$$nI + PSII(S_1) \rightarrow I_n \cdot PSII(S_1^*)$$
 (1)

S<sub>2</sub> Inactivation:

$$I_n \cdot PS \operatorname{II}(S_1^*) \xrightarrow{h_F} I_n \cdot PS \operatorname{II}(S_2^*) \rightarrow PS \operatorname{II}(S_0^*) + n \operatorname{I}^{ox}$$
 (2)

Mn Release:

$$mI + I_n \cdot PS \cdot II(S_1^*) \rightarrow I_n \cdot PS \cdot II(S_1^*) \cdot I_m$$
  

$$\rightarrow 3Mn^{2^n} + PS \cdot II(Mn^*)$$

(3)

Initially, the inhibitor (I) binds in the dark  $S_1$  state to a site on the water-oxidizing complex designated PS II( $S_1$ ) at a stoichiometry of nI/PS II,  $n \le 4$  (reaction 1). Upon illumination, formation of a stable  $S_2$  state is suppressed by facile two-electron reduction to form  $S_0^*$  and oxidized  $S_0^*$  (reaction 2). In the dark, an excess of the inhibitor can bind to initiate the release of  $S_0^*$  and oxidized  $S_0^*$  II and to irreversibly eliminate  $S_0^*$  evolution (reaction 3). This model disagrees with the recent model given by Beck and Brudvig [6] for  $S_0^*$  in the dark instead of  $S_0^*$  reduction. This is based on the observation that once  $S_0^*$  NH<sub>2</sub>OH binds to the site on the water-oxidizing complex, it is not in equi-

librium with free NH<sub>2</sub>OH, which can be scavenged with chemical oxidants. This could be attributed

to strong binding in the S, state or to a lack of

accessibility of the scavengers to the NH2OH site,

rather than reduction of S<sub>1</sub>.

Radmer and Ollinger [22,23] have given evidence showing that N- and O-substituted derivatives of NH<sub>2</sub>OH are less effective inhibitors of O<sub>2</sub> evolution, in a manner which correlates with their size rather than redox potential. Since H<sub>2</sub>S is smaller than NH<sub>2</sub>OH, size alone cannot be a criterion for the weaker inhibition constant of H<sub>2</sub>S at the water-oxidizing complex site. This is consistent with earlier work on NH<sub>2</sub>OH emphasizing the importance of local environmental effects rather than inhibitor size alone as the determining factor in inhibitor effectiveness [12].

Two possible reasons for the weaker inhibition constant of H<sub>2</sub>S versus NH<sub>2</sub>OH could be a lower redox potential for oxidation, or a lower binding affinity around the site for oxidation. We will consider the latter case first, and will use divalent ion stability constant data from the literature for comparison [24]. This is a valid conparison only if the binding sites for H<sub>2</sub>S and NH<sub>2</sub>OH are the same and if it involves a metal ion with a net charge of +2. Although there is circumstantial information supporting binding of these analogs

to manganese, there is little direct information. Furthermore, although there is good evidence that the oxidation state of manganese is Mn(III) in the S<sub>1</sub> state [25,26], the net charge is unknown. If binding affinity alone was the source of the difference in inhibition, then we would expect just the opposite result, since S donor ligands bind with greater affinity to divalent aqueous metal ions than do N or O donor ligands of comparable size. This may be seen in the association constants for divalent metal ions in aqueous solution with the chelating ligand XCH<sub>2</sub>CH<sub>2</sub>NH<sub>2</sub> given in Eqn. (4) [24].

$$M^{2+} + XCH_2CH_3NH_2 \rightarrow M(XCH_2CH_3NH_2)^{2+}$$
 (4)

For M = Zn and X = OH,  $NH_2$  and  $SH_1 \log K =$ 3.7, 5.7 and 10.22, respectively. For M = Ni and X = OH,  $NH_2$  and  $SH_1$ , log K = 2.98, 7.35 and 10.05, respectively. These data suggest that the relative binding affinities alone for S versus N and O donor ligands do not account for the difference in inhibition of H,S versus NH2OH at the wateroxidizing site. Hence, there must be other factors that are important, such as binding to a site other than Mn, or reversed binding affinities for higher oxidation states than Mn2+, or an unusual local environment around the manganese, or different oxidation potentials for NH2OH versus H2S. The preference for coordination of smaller atomic radii ligands with increasing oxidation state of manganese (MnO<sub>2</sub>, Mn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, MnO<sub>4</sub>, for example) in synthetic compounds may also account for the higher reactivity of NH2OH over H2S with the water-oxidizing complex.

We next consider differences in the redox properties of these inhibitors. Both NH<sub>2</sub>OH and H<sub>2</sub>S can undergo two-electron oxidation chemistry. The thermodynamically most favorable reactions to consider in aqueous solutions are listed in Eqns. 5, 6 and 7

#### Redox potential

$$2NH_2OH \leftrightarrow 2e^- + 2H_2O + 2H^+ + N_2(g) + 1.69 V$$
 (5)  
 $HS^- + OH^- \leftrightarrow 2e^- + H_2O + S_{(s)}$  + 0.52 V (6)

$$H_2S_{(ac)} \longleftrightarrow 2e^- + 2H^+ + S_{(b)}$$
 + 0.14 V (7)

The acid dissociation constants for  $NH_3OH^+$  and  $H_2S$  are  $1.1 \cdot 10^{-6}$  [27] and  $1.0 \cdot 10^{-7}$  [28], respectively, from which we see that there is a

considerable amount of the conjugate bases for both these weak acids in solution at the pH of our experiments (pH 6.5). Only the neutral form of NH2OH has been found to be effective for inhibition of water oxidation [2]. In the case of H,S, the pH dependence has not been examined. The data in Eqns. 5-7 indicate that NH2OH is a considerably stronger two-electron reductant than H-S or HS- in aqueous media. While there is evidence pointing to N<sub>2</sub> as the only gaseous product of the reaction between PS II and NH2OH [22,23], no information is yet available on the products of the reaction with H2S. The site of formation of N2 is still controversial, with evidence pointing to the water-oxidizing complex [22,23] and to the oneelectron donor Z+ [6]. If the thermodynamic differences in eqns. 5 and 6 were the sole determining factor in the inhibition constants, then one could expect that NH, H would exhibit a much greater inhibition constant by a factor of 1040. Such a difference is not observed, so these simple arguments are unable to quantitatively account for the factor of 17 difference in inhibition expressed by the these substrate analogs, although the relative order is correctly predicted. Either environmental factors in the binding site could be important in reducing the difference between these potentials, or the reaction with the water-oxidizing complex which causes inhibition of the S, state may involve reactions other than those considered in Eqns. 5-7.

# The irreversible reaction of $S_1$ with $H_2S$

Fig. 4 gives a plot of data taken from Figs. 2 and 1 (curve 3), graphed as the number of Mn which remain bound vs. the % O2 evolution activity. The data were fitted to a straight line using a least-squares fit (residual = 0.93). Because the slope is constant, it shows that, throughout the course of the titration, all PS II centers release the same number of Mn ions. The value of the slope gives the average number of Mn ions that are released per inactivation event (2.7 ± 0.3 Mn/PS II, the error is set by the limits on the number of Chl per PS II). Also shown in Fig. 4 is equivalent titration curve for NH2OH; the raw data were taken from Ref. 7. This also shows a linear relationship with the same slope (residual = 0.99). demonstrating that the manganese site behaves

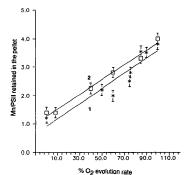


Fig. 4. The correlation between the amount of Mn retained in the PS II complex as a function of the % of O<sub>2</sub> evolution activity remaining following treatment with H<sub>2</sub>S (curve 1) or NH<sub>2</sub>OH (curve 2). The data for H<sub>2</sub>S are from Figs. 1 and 2, while the NH<sub>2</sub>OH data are from Ref. 7.

the same way with both inhibitors. These data suggest that both H<sub>2</sub>S and NH<sub>2</sub>OH react with the water-oxidizing complex to release manganese cooperatively in amounts equal to about 2.7 Mn/PS II. This would come about most easily if there is a common binding site for at least 3 Mn ions, either as a single cluster or perhaps in association with the remaining 1 Mn/PS II which is not as easily extracted. This is consistent with earlier EPR studies [25,29,30] and EXAFS studies [26,31], establishing the existence of a cluster of 2-4 Mn ions.

## Reactivity of H<sub>2</sub>S with signal II

Fig. 3 shows that signal II is reduced by H<sub>2</sub>S in a reaction that occurs in parallel with the release of Mn. This indicates that accessibility to the radical formed from <sup>160</sup>Tyr located on the D<sub>2</sub> polypeptide, which is believed to be responsible for signal II [32], is controlled by the release of Mn. This conclusion is in agreement with the enhanced decay kinetics observed previously for the reduction of signal II by exogenous donors in Mn-depleted membranes [33].

Lack of H<sub>2</sub>S binding to the primary electron acceptor

There is at least one difference in the mode of reactivity of H2S vs. NH2OH. Unlike NH2OH, H-S does not have a high affinity binding site affecting the QA-His-Fe primary electron acceptor complex of PS II, as seen by the lack of any change in the EPR signals for the photo-reduced semiguinone. If binding of H<sub>2</sub>S at the acceptor site occurs, it must have an affinity which is more than 100-fold weaker than that of NH2OH. The effect of NH2OH binding to this site is to induce a large shift of the normal EPR signal observed at g = 1.9-2.1 [7,11]. The lack of a shift with H<sub>2</sub>S may not be understandable in terms of differences in binding affinity to the ferrous ion, since sulfur donor ligands bind considerably more strongly (106-107) than oxygen and nitrogen donor ligands to coordinately unsaturated divalent transition metal ions (vide supra). This situation may be reversed if the metal ion already has several strongly bound ligands, such as the four imidazole ligands presumed to coordinate to the ferrous ion by analogy with bacterial reaction centers [11]. In such cases, a weaker  $\pi$  donor ligand than  $H_2S$ . such as NH2OH, may exhibit stronger binding to the metal. Other factors, such as relative strengths of H-bonding, may play a more important role in determining binding affinities of these inhibitors to the acceptor site.

### Acknowledgements

These studies were supported by the Department of Energy under grant No. DE-FG02-84CH 10199, and the New Jersey Commission on Science and Technology under grant No. 240020-7.

#### References

- 1 Bouges, B. (1971) Biochim. Biophys. Acta 234, 103-112.
- Cheniae, G. and Martin (1971) Plant Physiol. 41, 568-575.
   Hanssum, B. and Renger, C. (1985) Biochim. Biophys.
- 3 rianssum, B. and Renger, G. (1985) Biochim. Biophys.
   Acta 810, 225-234.
   4 Velthuys, B.R. and Kok, B. (1978) Biochim. Biophys. Acta
- 502, 211-221.

  5 Mano I Takahashi M.A and Asada K (1986) Biochem
- 5 Mano, J., Takahashi, M.-A. and Asada, K. (1986) Biochemistry 26, 2495-2501.
- 6 Beck, W.F. and Brudvig, G.W. (1987) Biochemistry 26, 8285-8295.

- 7 Sivaraje, M. and Dismukes, G.C. (1988) Biochemistry 27, 3467-3475.
- Oren, A., Padan, E. and Avron, M. (1977) Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci. USA 74, 2152–2156.
- Oren, A., Padan, E. and Avron, M. (1979) Biochim. Biophys. Acta 546, 270-279.
- 10 Vogel, A.I. (19780 Textbook of Quantitative Inorganic Analysis, Longman Scientific & Technical series, John Wiley & Sons, New York.
- 11 Sivaraja, M. and Dismukes, G.C. (1988) Biochemistry 27, 6297-6306.
- 12 Tamura, N. and Cheniae, G. (1985) Biochim. Biophys. Acta 809, 245-259.
- 13 Ghanotakis, D.F., O'Malley, P.J., Babcock, G.T. and Yocum, C.F. (1983) in The O<sub>2</sub> Evolving system of Photosynthesis (Inoue, Y. et al., eds.), pp. 91-101, Academic Press, Japan.
- 14 Cammarata, K., Tamura, N., Sayre, R. and Cheniae, G. (1984) in Advances in Photosynthesis Research (Sybesma, G., ed), Vol. I, pp. 311-320, Martinus Nijhoff Publishers, Dordrecht.
- 15 Casey, J.L. and Sauer, K. (1984) Biochim. Biophys. Acta 767, 21-28.
- 16 Zimmermann, J.L. and Rutherford, A.W. (1984) Biochim. Biophys. Acta 767, 1160-1167.
- 17 Yocum, C.F., Yerkes, C.T., Blankenship, R.E., Sharp, R.R. and Babcock, G.T. (1981) Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci. USA 78, 12, 7507-7511.
- 18 Abramowicz, D.A. (1984) PhD Thesis, Princeton University.
- 19 Forster, V. and Junge, W. (1986) FEBS Lett. 186, 153-157.

- 20 Guiles, R.D., Yachandra, V.K., McDermott, A.E., Britt, R.D., Dexheimer, S.L., Sauer, K. and Klein, M.P. (1986) in Progress in Photosynthetic Research (Biggins, J., ed.), Vol. I, pp. 561-564, Martinus-Niihoff Publishers, Dordrecht.
- 21 Andreasson, L.E. and Hansson, O. (1986) in Progress in Photosynthesis Research (Biggins, J., ed.), Vol. I, pp. 503-510, Martinus-Nijhoff Publishers, Dordrecht.
- Radmer, R. and Ollinger, O. (1983) FEBS Lett. 152, 39-42.
   Radmer, R. and Ollinger, O. (1984) in Advances in Photosynthetic Research (Sybesma, C., ed.), Vol. I, pp. 135-144.
- 24 Smith, R.M. and Martell, A.E. (1975) in Critical Stability Constants, Vols. 3 and 4, Plenum Press, New York.
- 25 Dismukes, G.C. and Siderer, Y. (1981) Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci. USA 78, 274-278.
- 26 Yachandra, V.K., Guiles, R.D., McDermott, A., Britt, R.D., Dexhimer, S.L., Sauer, K. and Klein, M.P. (1986) Biochim. Biophys. Acta 850, 324-332.
- 27 Robinson, R.A. and Bower, V.E. (1961) J. Phys. Chem. 65, 1279.
- 28 Zhdanov, S.I. (1975) in Encylopedia of the Electrochemistry of the Elements (Bard, A.J., ed.), Vol. 4, pp. 274-282, Marcel Dekker, New York.
- 29 Dismukes, G.C., Ferris, K. and Watnick, P. (1982) Photobiochem. Photobiophys., 31, 243-256.
- 30 DePaula, J.C., Beck, W.F. and Brudvig, G.W. (1986) J. Am. Chem. Soc. 108, 4002–4009.
- 31 Kirby, J.A., Robertson, A.S., Smith, J.P., Thompson, A.C., Cooper, S.R. and Klein, M.P. (1981) J. Am. Chem. Soc., 103, 5529-5537.
- 32 Debus, R.J., Barry, B.A., Babcock, G.T. and McIntosh, L. (1988) Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci. USA 85, 427-430.