

Review

Coupling of electron and proton transfer in oxidative water cleavage in photosynthesis

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Abstract

This minireview addresses questions on the mechanism of oxidative water cleavage with special emphasis on the coupling of electron (ET) and proton transfer (PT) of each individual redox step of the reaction sequence and on the mode of O—O bond formation. The following topics are discussed: (1) the multiphasic kinetics of Y_Z^{ox} formation by $P680^{+\bullet}$ originate from three different types of rate limitations: (i) nonadiabatic electron transfer for the “fast” ns reaction, (ii) local “dielectric” relaxation for the “slow” ns reaction, and (iii) “large-scale” proton shift for the μs kinetics; (2) the ET/PT-coupling mode of the individual redox transitions within the water oxidizing complex (WOC) driven by Y_Z^{ox} is assumed to depend on the redox state S_i : the oxidation steps of S_0 and S_1 comprise separate ET and PT pathways while those of S_2 and S_3 take place via proton-coupled electron transfer (PCET) analogous to Jerry Babcock’s hydrogen atom abstractor model [Biochim. Biophys. Acta, 1458 (2000) 199]; (3) S_3 is postulated to be a multistate redox level of the WOC with fast dynamic equilibria of both redox isomerism and proton tautomerism. The primary event in the essential O—O bond formation is the population of a state $S_3(\text{P})$ characterized by an electronic configuration and nuclear geometry that corresponds with a complexed hydrogen peroxide; (4) the peroxidic type $S_3(\text{P})$ is the entatic state for formation of complexed molecular oxygen through S_3 oxidation by Y_Z^{ox} ; and (5) the protein matrix itself is proposed to exert catalytic activity by functioning as “PCET director”. The WOC is envisaged as a supermolecule that is especially tailored for oxidative water cleavage and acts as a molecular machine.

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1. Introduction

The essential steps of photosynthetic water cleavage take place within the multimeric protein complex of Photosystem II (PS II) that acts as water–plastoquinone oxidoreductase and is anisotropically incorporated into the thylakoid membrane [1]. Recently, great achievements have been made in unraveling the structural features and the spatial arrangement of the cofactors by crystallization of PS II core complexes from thermophilic cyanobacteria *Thermosynechococcus* (*T.*) *elongatus* and *Thermosynechococcus vulcanus* and X-ray structure analysis. At present, structural data are available at a resolution of 3.8 [2] and 3.7 Å [3], respectively.

Two functional elements of PS II are specific for oxygen-evolving species and unique among all photosynthetic

organisms: (a) a special chlorophyll-*a* complex P680 with the exceptionally strong oxidizing power of its cation radical $P680^{+\bullet}$ and (b) a catalytic unit (symbolized by WOC) for oxidative cleavage of two water molecules into molecular oxygen and four protons that are released into the thylakoid lumen.

The “inner sanctum” of the water oxidizing complex (WOC) is a redox active $\text{Mn}_4\text{—Ca}$ unit embedded into the heterodimeric protein matrix of polypeptides D1 and D2 that also carries all other cofactors required for this process (for reviews, see Refs. [1,4,5]). In addition to the D1/D2 heterodimer the large lumen exposed loops E of polypeptides CP43 and CP47 and the extrinsic 33 kDa proteins are essential constituents for the assembly and/or stability of the WOC and regulation of the system (see Ref. [6] and references therein). These components are present in all oxygen-evolving organisms while two additional regulatory extrinsic subunits were replaced by entirely new proteins during evolution (see Ref. [7] and references therein).

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The oxidative water cleavage occurs via a pathway referred to as Kok cycle [8]. This “clock” comprises five redox states of the WOC referred to as S_i ($i=0, \dots, 4$). The sequence of oxidation steps is energetically driven by $P680^{+\bullet}$ with Tyr residue 161 of polypeptide D1 (vide infra) acting as redox mediator [1,4,5]. The overall reaction pattern summarized in Fig. 1 shows not only the redox states of the Kok-cycle but in addition “superreduced” states S_{-i} . At present, states down to S_{-3} are well characterized (see Ref. [9] and references therein); preliminary evidence for S_{-4} and S_{-5} has also been reported [10] but remains to be confirmed by further studies. These “superreduced” states are assumed to be involved as intermediates in the pathway of photoactivation [11,12].

The unraveling of three points is of key relevance for a deeper understanding of the mechanism of oxidative water cleavage (for a more detailed list, see Ref. [13]): (i) the coupling between electron and proton transfer steps of both Y_Z^{ox} formation and subsequent oxidative S_i state transitions, (ii) the electronic configuration and nuclear geometry of each redox state S_i , and (iii) the reaction coordinate for oxygen–oxygen bond formation.

This minireview (for a personal perspective on the history of our growing knowledge, see Ref. [14]) addresses three aspects on the basis of our current stage of knowledge and with special emphasis of the seminal work of Jerry Babcock on the functional role of Y_Z , its identification and the properties of Y_Z^{ox} . The following topics will be discussed by using the scheme of Fig. 1 as a guiding line: (a) kinetics and mechanism of Y_Z^{ox} formation with $P680^{+\bullet}$ as oxidant, (b) kinetics and mechanism of S_i state oxidation by Y_Z^{ox} and (c) hypothesis of S_3 as to be a multistate redox level that acts

in its peroxidic type form $S_3(P)$ as entatic state for formation of complexed O_2 .

2. Kinetics and mechanism of Y_Z^{ox} formation with $P680^{+\bullet}$ as oxidant

The unraveling of the nature of Y_Z and its identification as tyrosine residue Y161 of polypeptide D1 has been achieved by Jerry Babcock et al. [15–17]. He also showed by EPR studies that reduction of $P680^{+\bullet}$ and oxidation of Y_Z exhibit coincidental kinetics in PS II preparations deprived of an intact WOC and therefore Y_Z is acting as direct reductant of $P680^{+\bullet}$ [18]. This conclusion was confirmed by complementary measurements of transient optical absorption changes in the UV/NIR region [19]. Using the latter approach at higher time resolution, the kinetical coincidence of $P680^{+\bullet}$ reduction and Y_Z oxidation was also detected in samples with an intact WOC [20].

It is important to note that Y_Z is never the only reductant of $P680^{+\bullet}$ because $Q_A^{\bullet-}$ always competes as electron donor to $P680^{+\bullet}$. Therefore, the kinetics strongly depend on the functional state of Y_Z and integrity of the WOC. If Y_Z^{ox} stays oxidized, $P680^{+\bullet}$ becomes reduced by $Q_A^{\bullet-}$ with a half lifetime of 100–200 μs [21,22]. It represents a dissipative electrogenic back reaction [23,24] and exhibits virtually no kinetic H/D isotope exchange effect [25]. An indispensable consequence of this dissipative pathway are incomplete S_i redox transitions of the WOC. A recent study reveals that $P680^{+\bullet} Q_A^{\bullet-}$ recombination accounts to a large extent if not completely for the probability of misses (α) in the physiological pH range of the lumen (neutral to moderately acidic)

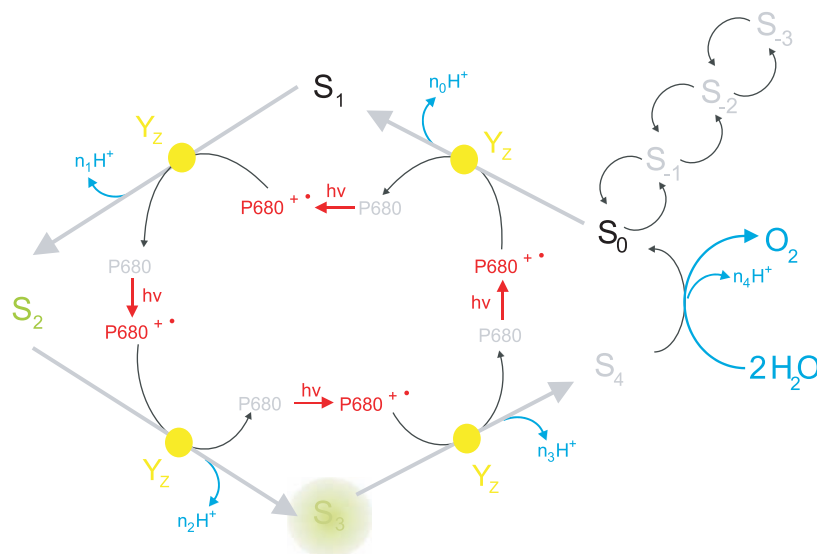


Fig. 1. Extended Kok-cycle of oxidative water cleavage. The photooxidation of P680 is marked in red, the redox mediator Y_Z in yellow and substrate ($2H_2O$)/products ($O_2/4H^+$) in blue, the metastable redox states S_2 and S_3 in green and superreduced states (S_{-1} , S_{-2} , S_{-3}) in grey. Recently, evidence has been presented for the population of S_{-2} and S_{-3} in frost-sensitive plants under cold stress [113]. For the sake of simplicity, the slow dark relaxation reactions of S_0 , S_2 and S_3 are omitted (for a review, see Ref. [1]).

[26]. Minimum α -values of 6–8% were observed in intact spinach thylakoids at 4 °C and pH 6.5 [27]. Interestingly, virtually the same low α -values were recently found in thylakoids from *T. elongatus* but in this case the α -minimum is attained at 25 °C rather than at 4 °C [28]. The $\text{P680}^{+\bullet}$ reduction by Y_Z is characterized by three striking features: (i) a surprisingly complex multiphasic time course in the ns/ μ s time domain [29–31], (ii) a marked dependence on the redox state S_i of the WOC [29,31,32], and (iii) a drastic change of the reaction coordinate in samples lacking a functionally competent WOC as reflected by a marked kinetic H/D isotope exchange effect [25,33] and a comparatively high activation energy [33–35]. In the following, only the characteristics of systems with an intact WOC will be briefly discussed.

In general, basically two types of mechanisms can be responsible for the strikingly multiphasic kinetics of $\text{P680}^{+\bullet}$ reduction by Y_Z : (i) sample heterogeneity in the time domain of the reaction, or (ii) homogeneous process including different types of sequential rate limitation. The former mechanism has been discussed in terms of slow transitions (order of 10 ms) between particular conformational states [36] but the latter appears to be more likely when taking into account the different kinetic H/D isotope effects (vide infra) and the similarity of the kinetic pattern in different sample preparations. Therefore, the following considerations will be based on the second mechanism. Essentially three types of kinetics are relevant for further considerations: (i) “fast” ns-component (20–50 ns), (ii) “slow” ns-component (300–600 ns) and (iii) μ s-components.

2.1. Mechanism of $\text{P680}^{+\bullet}$ reduction by Y_Z via “fast” ns kinetics

The extent of the “fast” ns kinetics depends on the oxidation states S_i of the WOC with markedly larger normalized amplitudes in S_0 and S_1 than in S_2 and S_3 [31,32]. In the dark-adapted state S_1 [37] $\text{P680}^{+\bullet}$ reduction by Y_Z is dominated by “fast” ns-kinetics with 20 ns lifetime originally reported in Ref. [38]. The most interesting feature of this “fast” ns component is its rather small activation energy of about 10 kJ/mol [32] in the range of 248–295 K. A similarly weak temperature dependence was found at all S_i -states of the WOC in $271 < T \leq 298$ K [39]. This general phenomenon of small E_A values was later confirmed by others [40]. However, the authors of Ref. [40] now question their own data for the special case of the WOC attaining S_2 and report a value of about 25 kJ/mol for E_A [41]. Our recent data (P. Kühn, H.-J. Eckert and G. Renger, unpublished results) are not in favor with this result. There is no reason for a drastic revision of our original conclusions on comparatively small E_A values, in marked contrast to the statement of Ref. [41].

Based on the rather small E_A value a mechanism was discussed for the “fast” ns kinetics where the proton of the

OH group of Y_Z is shifted within a hydrogen bond to a nearby base X [32]. Several studies provided convincing evidence that His 190 of polypeptide D1 is of key relevance for Y_Z oxidation by $\text{P680}^{+\bullet}$ [42–46]. Although most studies were performed with systems lacking an intact WOC, the results suggest that His 190 is the most likely candidate to act as base X for proton transfer in the “fast” ns reaction. Analyses within the framework of the Marcus theory of nonadiabatic electron transfer [47] led to the conclusion that the “fast” ns kinetics is limited by electron transfer [35,48]. This idea is supported by the lack of a kinetic H/D isotope exchange effect [49] and the reorganization energy λ of 0.5–0.6 eV [35,50]. As a consequence, the proton shift within the presumed hydrogen bond has to take place in < 20 ns, and questions arise on its nature. In the most simple scenario, the phenolic proton is directly attached to one N-atom of His 190. Depending on the structure, two different configurations have to be considered [26]. In the case of a conventional hydrogen bond the pK values of Y_Z and H190 have to be properly tuned by the protein matrix so that ΔpK is significantly smaller than 4.0 to satisfy the requirements of the transition state theory for a proton shift in < 20 ns (see Ref. [51] for details). Alternatively, at a short enough distance between the electronegative atoms sharing the hydrogen in the bridge, a unique functional element is established referred to as low-barrier hydrogen bond (LBHB) that is a new feature in understanding the catalytic mechanism of several enzymes (for a review, see Ref. [52]). It is important to note that the concept of an LBHB is not restricted to the singular case of a direct H-bonding between Y_Z and His 190 but it could also be established by including water molecule(s). This has been nicely illustrated for a concerted nonclassical transfer of two or three protons along hydrogen bond bridges in aspartate proteases [53]. Detailed density function theory (DFT) calculations in model systems revealed that analogous phenomena most likely occur also in superoxide dismutases [54,55]. One very attractive water species as a hydrogen bonding link between amino acid residues is the Zundel-ion H_5O_2^+ [56] that exhibits quite different behavior in different environments. It can switch from a normal hydrogen bond with O–O distances > 2.7 Å to a LBHB configuration with a distance of < 2.5 Å, depending on the charge distribution with the surrounding groups. Under some conditions, a rather abrupt transition can occur between both states [57].

It has to be emphasized that the idea of one or two water molecules forming a structurally well-defined link of hydrogen bonds between Y_Z and His 190 is not in contradiction with the conclusion that the environment around Y_Z is rather “dry” in systems with intact WOC and becomes “wet” after destruction of the WOC [35,48]. The key point is a well-defined array of one or two water molecules which drastically differs from that of bulk water with large structural fluctuations.

Recently observed new light-induced EPR signals were interpreted as to reflect Y_Z oxidation at liquid helium temperature [58,59] and taken as indirect evidence for the

phenolic proton of Y_Z being part of a LBHB bond [59]. However, regardless of the strength of the arguments, these findings do not permit any straightforward extrapolation to a functional competent PS II at room temperature because already minor distance changes owing to freezing can drastically alter the hydrogen bond character (vide supra).

At present, sound conclusions can be neither drawn on the geometry of the hydrogen bond nor on its possible LBHB character under physiological conditions. Detailed FTIR studies for samples with full oxygen evolution capacity and structural data of much higher resolution are indispensable prerequisites for further reliable considerations.

The above mentioned considerations reveal that—regardless of mechanistic details—structural distortions can significantly alter modes of coupling between electron and proton transfer, as clearly illustrated by a marked increase of the kinetic H/D exchange effect and the activation energy in samples lacking a competent WOC [25,33–35]. Therefore, results obtained with this sample type do not provide a sound basis for mechanistic conclusions. In particular, the discovery of stoichiometric coupling between Y_Z oxidation and release of one H^+ into the aqueous bulk phase in Tris-washed inside–out thylakoids [60] does not necessarily reflect the proton pathway in PS II complexes with an intact WOC (vide infra).

2.2. Mechanism of $P680^{+\bullet}$ reduction in “slow” ns kinetics

Compared with the “fast” ns relaxation, the “slow” ns kinetics exhibit an opposite dependence on S_i with smaller normalized amplitudes in S_0 and S_1 than in S_2 and S_3 [31,32]. Accordingly, the two different ns kinetics are not reflections of sample heterogeneity and questions arise on the origin of the multiphasic kinetics. It is now well accepted that protein dynamics and cascades of relaxation processes are of key relevance in regulating the kinetics of redox reactions of biological organisms in general [61], and in particular in bacterial reaction centers [62] and PS II [63,64]. Therefore, the “slow” ns kinetics have been assumed to originate from relaxation processes that shift the redox equilibrium between $P680^{+\bullet}Y_Z$ and $P680Y_Z^{\text{ox}}$ towards the latter state [65]. Since both types of ns kinetics do not exhibit a H/D exchange effect [49], the rate-limiting relaxation reaction(s) of the “slow” ns kinetics are inferred to reflect a dielectric response near the reactants rather than a “large” scale proton shift. The activation energy of this process is not yet resolved. A former study presents virtually S_i -independent E_A values in the range of 8.2–14.4 kJ/mol (within the experimental error) [40]. This finding is in line with our recent results for the “slow” ns kinetics in PS II core complexes from spinach (P. Kühn, H.J. Eckert and G. Renger, unpublished results). Recently, however, the activation energy has been reported to be rather small (<10 kJ/mol) when the WOC attains S_0 and S_1 but drastically increases to 25–30 kJ/mol in the case of S_2 and S_3 [41]. Further studies are required to clarify this point.

2.3. Mechanism of $P680^{+\bullet}$ reduction via μs kinetics

Apart from the reduction by $Q_A^{-\bullet}$ (vide supra), μs kinetics with lifetimes in the range of 30–50 μs were found that exhibit a characteristic period four oscillation [29,31,32]. A breakthrough in understanding their origin was achieved by the finding that replacement of exchangeable protons by deuterons significantly affects the oscillation pattern of the μs kinetics [26,66,67]. Accordingly, relaxation processes within a hydrogen bond network are most likely rate-limiting for the “35 μs kinetics”. This idea is supported by recent findings using a Y160F mutant of *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* [68]. Basically two alternative structures can be considered for the dimension of proton delocalization: (i) capture inside the protein matrix or (ii) release into the luminal bulk phase. The second mode of removing the proton from Y_Z upon its oxidation by $P680^{+\bullet}$ is an essential postulate of Jerry Babcock’s hydrogen atom abstractor model presented in 1995 [69]. Although this is a very attractive model and a stoichiometric H^+ release into the outer bulk phase has been found in Tris-washed inside–out vesicles [60], the proton transport pathways in PS II complexes with an intact WOC are still not clarified and is a matter of controversial discussions [48,70–72]. Directly related to this problem is the question as to what extent the mode of proton delocalization and eventual release into the lumen depends on the redox state S_i of the WOC (see Section 3).

2.4. Reaction pattern of $P680^{+\bullet}$ reduction by Y_Z and regulatory effects

Fig. 2 summarizes the reaction sequence of $P680^{+\bullet}$ reduction by Y_Z in PS II complexes with intact WOC. This scheme implies that protein dynamics and mode of hydrogen bonding essentially affect the overall kinetics. Likewise, it is easily understandable that at distances of 7–8 Å between Y_Z and the manganese cluster [2,3] the WOC in different redox states modulates the kinetics of Y_Z^{ox} formation (see above description). Among different parameters of physiological relevance (temperature, pH, water content) the role of Ca^{2+} is of special interest because it is not only an essential constituent of the WOC (see Ref. [73] and references therein) but in general also a very important component of a great variety of signaling and regulatory proteins (see textbooks of biochemistry).

Ca^{2+} -specific effects on $P680^{+\bullet}$ reduction kinetics are induced by different treatments. In mildly trypsinized PS II membrane fragments the extent of μs kinetics is drastically enhanced at the expense of ns kinetics. This effect is largely and specifically reversed by addition of Ca^{2+} [50,74,75]. Low pH/citrate treatment of PS II core complexes gives rise to a similar phenomenon [76]. It was concluded that removal of the single Ca^{2+} from the Mn_4 –Ca unit of the WOC disturbs the tuning of the apparent pK of base X that is hydrogen-bonded with Y_Z [76]. However, this proposal is conclusive only if the applied treatment exclusively removes the single

Rate limitations of P680⁺ reduction by Y_z

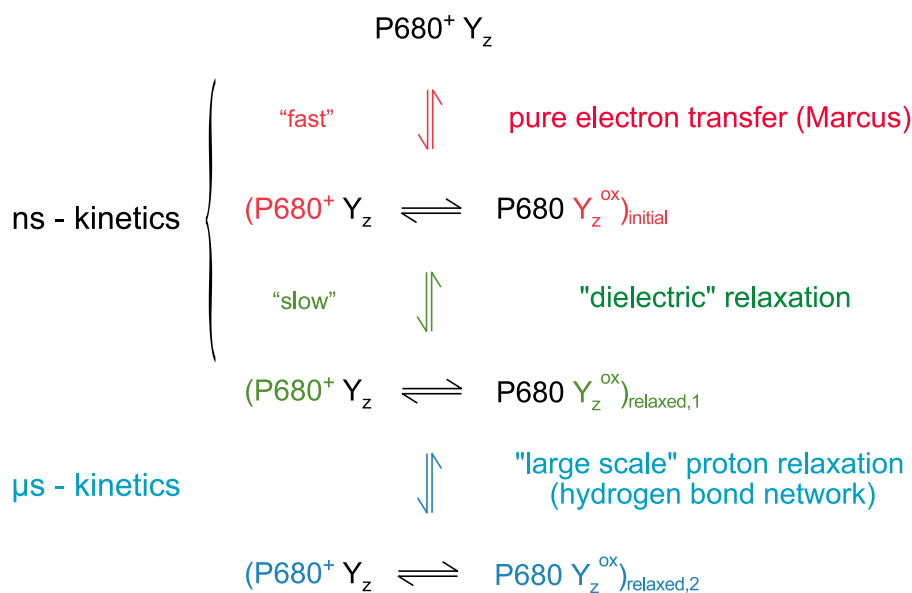


Fig. 2. Scheme of P680⁺ reduction by Y_z. The different types of kinetics and their limitations by nonadiabatic electron transfer, “dielectric” and “large-scale” proton relaxations are marked in red, green and blue, respectively (for further details, see text).

Ca²⁺ from the WOC and resuspension in Ca²⁺-containing buffer causes nothing more than reinsertion of the cation into its empty site. In this respect, it has to be emphasized that the general problem of ambiguity with conclusions gathered from data of treated samples has been emphasized in many reports and is perfectly illustrated by a recent study on the Cl[−] effect [77] (see also Section 3). Therefore, it appears worth considering a multiple mode of Ca²⁺ action [78], especially by taking into account the proposed role of Ca²⁺ in regulation of localized versus delocalized coupling of membrane energization by ΔpH [79]. An illustrative example for fine-tuning of the reactivity of cofactors has been recently reported for horseradish peroxidase C where binding of two endogenous Ca²⁺ at distances of >10 Å from the catalytic site is required for maintaining the structural integrity of the functional geometry of the heme [80].

Regardless of the detailed mechanism, the currently available data indicate that Ca²⁺-binding essentially affects structure and mode of hydrogen bonding, thus regulating not only the kinetics of P680⁺ reduction by Y_z, but also S₃ oxidation by Y_z^{ox} (see next section).

3. Kinetics and mechanism of S_i state oxidation by Y_z^{ox}

First kinetic information on the reduction of Y_z^{ox} was obtained by Babcock et al. [81] by time-resolved EPR studies on signal II_{vf}. Despite the restricted time resolution, three important conclusions could be drawn: (a) the rate constants of the individual oxidation steps in the Kok cycle are in the range of (1 ms)^{−1} up to ≥ (100 μs)^{−1}; (b) the rate

depends on the redox state S_i; and (c) the rate constant for Y_z^{ox} reduction by the WOC in redox state S₃ virtually coincides with that of the release of molecular oxygen. It is worth mentioning that the latter finding was one of the cornerstones of Jerry's considerations that eventually led to the hydrogen atom abstractor model.

In marked contrast to its rather complex formation kinetics (see Section 2), Y_z^{ox} induces individual oxidation steps in the WOC that can be satisfactorily described by a mono-exponential time course with the exception that the oxidation of S₃ often exhibits a small lag phase [82–86]. These reactions are characterized by comparatively small kinetic H/D isotope effects and activation energies with values that depend on S_i [87–91]. The data gathered from different sample types permit three conclusions on the reaction coordinates of the individual redox steps in the WOC: (i) there is virtually no change during evolutionary development from cyanobacteria to higher plants [92]; (ii) there exist no significant differences between mesophilic and thermophilic organisms; and (iii) apart from the conserved PS II-O subunit [7], the nature or even the presence of other extrinsic subunits are without effect, except of an influence on S₃ oxidation kinetics [35].

Data evaluation within the framework of the Marcus theory of nonadiabatic electron transfer [47] revealed that the reorganization energy of the oxidation step Y_z^{ox}S₂ → Y_zS₃ is much larger (1.6 eV) than for S₀ and S₁ oxidation (0.6–0.7 eV) [11] and by using empirical rate constant–distance relationships [93] values of ≥ 15 Å are obtained for the van der Waals' distance between Y_z and the redox-active Mn₄–Ca unit of the WOC [35]. These values

exceed distances of 7–8 Å gathered from the X-ray structure [2,3] by at least a factor of two. This “discrepancy” suggests that the redox transitions in the WOC are not rate-limited by the electron transfer step but rather represent triggered reactions, most likely owing to proton movement. It is one of the great impacts of Jerry Babcock’s work to emphasize the paramount importance of proton-coupled electron transfer (PCET) in oxidative water cleavage. In his hydrogen atom abstractor model, all oxidation steps in the WOC are concerted PCETs driven by the tyrosyl radical Y_2^\bullet [48,69,94]. This conclusion appears to be supported by experiments where all S_i -state transitions are retarded by nearly the same factor of 3–5, when the native Ca^{2+} is replaced by its surrogate Sr^{2+} [95]. The important role of hydrogen bond network(s) for the WOC reactions has been recently nicely illustrated by an excellent report on the Cl^- effect. It provides convincing evidence that Cl^- probably participates in establishing a proton relay network by interaction with charged amino acid residues rather than being an integral constituent of the WOC [77]. However, the very attractive hydrogen atom abstractor model probably needs refinement by taking into account two striking differences in the nature of the S_i -state transitions: (i) $S_0 \rightarrow S_1$ and $S_1 \rightarrow S_2$ are metal-centered reactions, while $S_2 \rightarrow S_3$ is most likely either a ligand-centered oxidation (see Refs. [76,96] and references therein, but see also Ref. [97] for discussion of controversial conclusions), or the transition into a multistate redox level of the WOC as outlined here and in former reports [1,11]; and (ii)

the stoichiometry of H^+ release coupled with S_0 and S_1 oxidation depends on several parameters (sample type, pH) while the oxidative S_3 formation leads under all conditions to the stoichiometric release of one proton (for reviews, see Refs. [70,71,98,99]). It is therefore concluded that the mode of coupling between electron and proton transfer differs for the S_0 and S_1 oxidation steps from that of S_2 and S_3 and only in the latter case a concerted PCET takes place. The pathway(s) could include water molecules as bridges (for detailed discussion, see Refs. [100,101]). If one accepts that S_2 formation is accompanied by accumulation of a positive charge [70,71,98,99 but see Ref. [94]], a reorientation of water dipole(s) can be induced that gives rise to a switch in the proton transfer pathway in a similar way as was recently proposed for cytochrome *c* oxidase [102]. This presumed “water dipole switch” giving rise to different geometries of the hydrogen bond network in the WOC might also be responsible for the characteristic S_i -state dependence of the kinetics of the “slowly” exchanging substrate water molecule with a striking retardation in the dark relaxed redox state S_1 [103] of the WOC.

4. Hypothesis of S_3 acting as entatic state for O–O bond formation and O_2 evolution

According to a widely accepted dogma the essential O–O bond is not formed before the WOC attains the

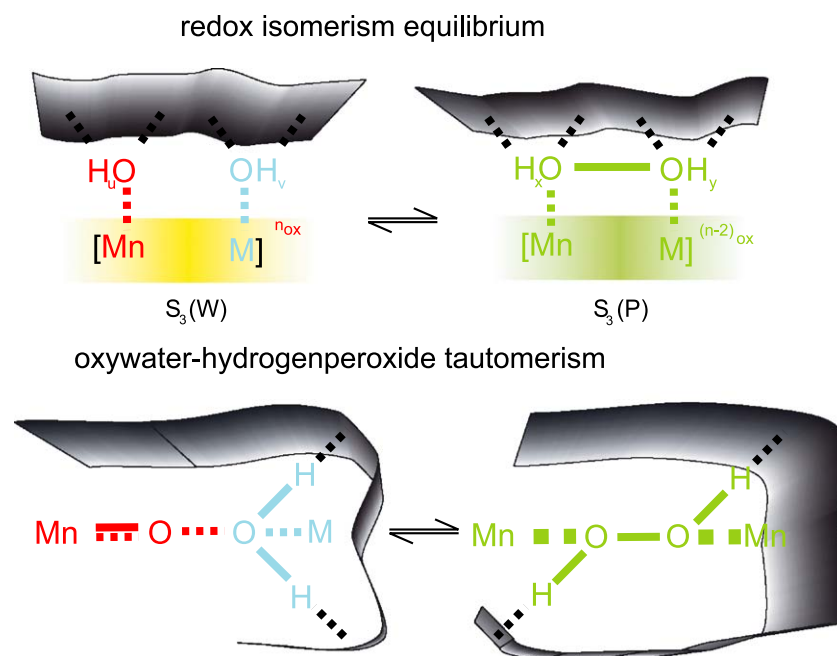
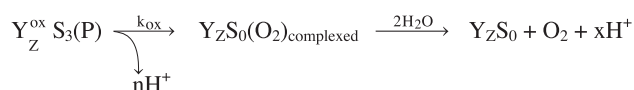


Fig. 3. Schematic representation of the proposed redox isomerism (top part) and oxywater-hydrogen peroxide tautomerism (bottom part) of the multistate redox level S_3 of the WOC. The electronic configuration (top) and protonation (bottom) of the presumed hydrogen-peroxide state is labeled in green, the asymmetric binding of substrate water in blue and red. M symbolizes a not yet assignable metal ion (either Mn or Ca), indices u, v, x and y in the top panel indicate hydrogen bonding of the substrate to the protein matrix, n_{ox} is the total oxidation state of the Mn_4 –Ca unit. For the sake of simplicity, these indices are omitted in the bottom panel. Dynamic changes of the protein matrix coupled with the transitions between different forms of the S_3 equilibria are symbolized by differently shaped grey areas, the symbols $S_3(W)$ and $S_3(P)$ describe states where substrate water attains the formal redox levels of water and peroxide, respectively.

formal redox state S_4 (including $S_3Y_Z^{\text{ox}}$). Based on early thermodynamic considerations [104,105], it was proposed that this key step of the overall process occurs at the electronic level of a peroxidic configuration and that this state can be formed already at S_3 [104]. Later, in a refined model S_3 was postulated to be a multistate redox level of the WOC comprising fast dynamic isomerism and oxywater–hydrogen peroxide tautomerism equilibria. Within the framework of this model schematically summarized in Fig. 3 (for details, see Ref. [100] and references therein) the peroxidic form $S_3(P)$ is unique. When Y_Z^{ox} is generated by $P680^{+*}$, the equilibria of Fig. 3 spontaneously shift toward the peroxide form $S_3(P)$ that is assumed to be the entatic state (an entatic state resembles in its nuclear configuration the geometry of the transition state of an enzymatic reaction, see Ref. [106]) for formation of complexed O_2 . Accordingly, Y_Z^{ox} becomes reduced simultaneously with the appearance of O_2 coordinated to the catalytic site in formal redox state S_0 , followed by very rapid and exergonic product substrate/exchange [104] as described by the following equation:



This mechanism is in line with the virtual kinetic coincidence of Y_Z^{ox} reduction by S_3 and oxygen release [107].

As an extension of the current model it is further proposed that the structured microenvironment not only determines the reactive properties of the Mn_4 –Ca unit as an apoprotein (for an illustrative example of tuning the properties of metal centers via hydrogen bonding in Mn- and Fe-superoxide dismutases, see Ref. [108]), but itself exhibits catalytic activity as a functional constituent of the WOC. It is assumed to act as a “PCET director” which favors the O–O bond formation. The most convincing experimental support for the hypothesis of an active role of the protein were recently published FTIR studies in PS II core preparations from *T. elongatus* [109]. Apart from the WOC, first evidence was presented for protein-driven oxygen enzymology even without specific cofactors. Experimental data support antibody catalyzed water oxidation by singlet oxygen ($^1\Delta_g O_2$) [110]. The reaction sequence probably involving H_2O_3 leads to H_2O_2 formation. Quantum mechanical calculations provide plausible mechanisms and especially offer an explanation for the role of the protein structure in the unexpected chemistry [111]. The wealth of “exotic” oxygen species like HO_3^{\bullet} radicals during the pathway of antibody-catalyzed chemical modification of antigens (Ref. [112]) illustrates the role of particular protein motifs.

It has to be emphasized that the extended model considers the WOC as a supermolecule especially tailored for the delicate process of oxidative water cleavage including definite pathways for substrate entry and product release.

As a consequence, the widely used conventional concept of cofactor and apoprotein is not pertinent for gaining a deeper understanding of the mechanism of this fascinating process.

Note added in proof

During the preparation of the proofs of this article two studies were reported that provide clear evidence for the existence of a definite water transport pathway from the catalytic site of cytochrome *c* oxidase into the bulk phase [114] and the decisive role of the water channel and a hydrogen bond network for a controlled and directed proton transport in the same enzyme [115]. These findings support the idea of the existence of defined substrate/product pathways also in the WOC.

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