## TRIBUTE

# Novel effects of methyl viologen on photosystem II function in spinach leaves

Da-Yong Fan · Husen Jia · James Barber · Wah Soon Chow

Received: 28 January 2009/Revised: 5 May 2009/Accepted: 13 May 2009/Published online: 3 June 2009 © European Biophysical Societies' Association 2009

**Abstract** Methyl viologen (MV) is a well-known electron mediator that works on the acceptor side of photosystem I. We investigated the little-known, MV-induced inhibition of linear electron flow through photosystem II (PS II) in spinach-leaf discs. Even a low [MV] decreased the (1) average, light-adapted photochemical efficiency of PS II traps, (2) oxidation state of the primary quinone acceptor QA in PS II during illumination, (3) photochemical efficiency of lightadapted open PS II traps, (4) fraction of absorbed light energy dissipated constitutively in a light-independent manner or as chlorophyll (Chl) a fluorescence emission, (5) Chl a fluorescence yield corresponding to dark-adapted open reactioncenter traps  $(F_0)$  and closed reaction-center traps  $(F_m)$ , and (6) half-time for re-oxidation of Q<sub>A</sub> in PS II after a singleturnover flash. These effects suggest that the presence of MV accelerates various "downhill" electron-transfer steps in PS

II. Therefore, when using the MV to quantify cyclic electron flow, the inhibitory effect of MV on PS II should be taken into account.

**Keywords** Cyclic electron flow ·

Exciton-radical pair equilibrium · Linear electron flow · Methyl viologen · Photosystem II

Adenosine triphosphate

#### **Abbreviations**

ATP

 $NADP^{+}$ 

Cyclic electron flow
Chlorophyll
Cytochrome
psbA, B gene product, respectively
Chl fluorescence corresponding to open
and closed PS II traps in the dark-
adapted state, respectively
Chl fluorescence corresponding to open
and closed PS II traps in the light-
adapted state, respectively
Variable Chl a fluorescence in the light-
adapted state $(=F_{\rm m}{}' - F_{\rm o}{}')$
Linear electron flow
Methyl viologen

"Proteins, membranes and cells: the structure-function nexus" Contribution from a special symposium in honour of Professor Alex Hope of Flinders University, South Australia, held during the annual scientific meeting of the Australian Society for Biophysics, Canberra, ACT, Australia, September 28-October 1, 2008.

D.-Y. Fan · H. Jia · W. S. Chow (⊠) Photobioenergetics Group, School of Biology, College of Medicine, Biology and Environment, The Australian National University, Canberra, ACT 0200, Australia e-mail: chow@rsbs.anu.edu.au

D-Y Fan

State Key Laboratory of Vegetation and Environmental Change, Institute of Botany, The Chinese Academy of Sciences, 100093 Beijing, China

J. Barber

Division of Molecular Biosciences, Faculty of Science, Imperial College, London SW7 2AZ, UK

dinucleotide phosphate The fraction of absorbed light either  $\Phi_{f,D}$ dissipated constitutively as heat in a

Oxidized nicotinamide adenine

light-independent manner or emitted as

Chl a fluorescence

The fraction of absorbed light partitioned  $\Phi_{NPO}$ as heat dissipation in a light-dependent

manner

 $\Phi_{PS}$  II The average quantum yield of PS II

photochemistry in the light



$P_{680}, P_{700}$	Special	Chl	pair	in	the	PS	II,	I	reaction

centers, respectively

PC Plastocyanin
PQ Plastoquinone
Ph Pheophytin

PS I, II Photosystem I, II, respectively

Q<sub>A</sub>, Q<sub>B</sub> Primary, secondary quinone acceptor in

PS II, respectively

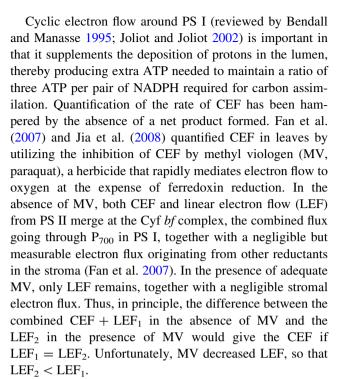
qP Oxidation state of  $Q_A$ 

#### Introduction

Photosynthesis begins with absorption of light by photosystem II (PS II) and PS I complexes spanning photosynthetic membranes (thylakoids or membrane sacs) that separate an outer aqueous phase (the stroma) from an inner aqueous space (the lumen). The structure and organization of photosynthetic membranes is closely related to function, as reviewed succinctly by Ort and Yocum (1996). Each photosystem is made up of many protein subunits, pigments, and redox cofactors. Light induces the oxidation of water at a catalytic site within the PS II complex, in a unique reaction that occurs at an optimal thermodynamic driving force:

$$2H_2O \rightarrow O_2 + 4H^+ + 4e^-$$

The oxygen is a by-product. The protons are deposited in the lumen of thylakoids, while the electrons are transferred uphill and then downhill via plastoquinone (PQ) to the membrane-spanning cytochrome (Cyt) bf complex. The Cyt bf complex oxidizes PQH2, depositing additional protons in the lumen. Half of the electrons are transferred onwards to plastocyanin (PC), while the other electrons go through a Q cycle that includes two Cyt b haems within the complex, and which functions to reduce PQ and translocate more protons into the lumen. The reduced PC delivers electrons to P<sub>700</sub><sup>+</sup> (oxidized special Chl pair) in PS I, in which light drives an uphill electron transfer, followed by downhill transfer to reduce ferredoxin that in turn reduces NADP+ (oxidized nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate) to NADPH. Some of the electrons carried by ferredoxin, instead of reducing NADP<sup>+</sup>, are channelled back to the Cyt bf complex in cyclic electron flow (CEF) around PS I, translocating more protons into the lumen in the process. The protons in the lumen diffuse through the membrane-spanning ATP synthase down a proton electrochemical potential gradient, forming ATP from ADP and inorganic phosphate. NADPH and ATP then drive the reduction of carbon dioxide to sugars in the stroma of the chloroplast.



It is well known that MV mediates electron transfer to oxygen at the acceptor side of PS I. In addition, we observed an inhibition of LEF by MV in spinach leaves in using MV to abolish CEF (Jia et al. 2008). However, to our knowledge no specific study of the mechanism of inhibition of PS II LEF by MV seems to have been reported apart from two remotely related papers by (1) Yruela et al. (2001) on the effects of MV on light-induced absorption spectra of the D1-D2-Cyt b559 complex of PS II in anaerobic conditions and (2) Schansker et al. (2005) on the effects of MV and dibromothymoquinone in relation to the role of PS I in the Chl a fluorescence rise OJIP. In this paper, we report on an investigation of the mechanism of action of MV on PS II electron transfers and photochemical efficiency. Our results suggest that the effects on PS II parameters arise from MV-mediated acceleration of "downhill" electron transfers between redox components within PS II.

### Materials and methods

Growth of plants

Spinacea oleracea L. (cv. Yates hybrid 102) plants were grown in a polycarbonate greenhouse at approximately 28/15°C (day/night) under natural light during autumn and winter (maximum  $\sim 1,000 \; \mu mol$  photons m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>). The potting mixture was supplemented by a slow-release fertilizer (Osmocote, Scotts Australia, Castle Hill).



#### Vacuum infiltration of leaf discs

Leaf discs ( $\sim$ 1.5 cm diameter) were floated on water under fluorescent light (100 µmol photons m $^{-2}$  s $^{-1}$ ) for 1 h. They were then immersed in water or a solution of MV at a selected concentration, vacuum infiltrated, blotted with absorbent paper, and allowed to evaporate off excess intercellular water in darkness. The total dark time before measurement was  $\sim$ 1 h. Vacuum infiltration with water, followed by loss of excess inter-cellular water, decreased the electron flux to  $P_{700}$  by about 18% compared with no infiltration. Therefore, the control for MV infiltration was infiltration with water.

Measurement of electron flow to  $P_{700}^+$ by post-illumination re-reduction kinetics of  $P_{700}^+$ 

Redox changes of P<sub>700</sub> in spinach-leaf discs were observed with a dual wavelength (820/870 nm) unit (ED-P700DW) attached to a pulse amplitude modulation (PAM) fluorometer (Walz, Effeltrich, Germany) and used in the reflectance mode (Chow and Hope 2004; Fan et al. 2007). Each leaf disc was placed inside a chamber with a transparent lid. A piece of matting moistened with a mixture of 1 M NaHCO<sub>3</sub> and 1 M Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> at pH 9 was placed inside the closed chamber to supply ca. 1% CO<sub>2</sub>. The light guide was positioned at an angle of about 60° to the plane of the leaf disc, while an actinic light was directed at an angle of about 45° but on the other side of the normal to the leaf surface.

Actinic light was provided by an array of light-emitting diodes (LED 700-66-60, Roithner LaserTechnik, Vienna) fitted with a focusing lens, with a peak emission at 697 nm (full width at half peak height = 24 nm). The spectral irradiance was measured by an LI1800 spectroradiometer (Licor, USA), the integrated irradiance at the leaf surface being ca. 500  $\mu$ mol photons m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> (650–740 nm) at maximum. The actinic light was transmitted by an electronic shutter triggered open by a pulse/delay generator (Model 565, Berkeley Nucleonics, USA) for a 120-s interval and then turned off. Each leaf segment was illuminated only once, after a standard total dark treatment time of 1 h.

All post-illumination  $P_{700}^+$  signals were normalized to the maximum signal corresponding to maximum photo-oxidizable  $P_{700}$  ( $P_{700}^+_{\rm max}$ ) to give the fraction of oxidized  $P_{700}$  at any instant (Fan et al. 2007; Jia et al. 2008). The rereduction kinetics were well fitted by a sum of three negative exponentials, with normalized amplitudes  $A_1$ ,  $A_2$ , and  $A_3$  (=1  $-A_1-A_2$ ), and rate coefficients  $k_1$ ,  $k_2$ , and  $k_3$ . The initial rate of post-illumination re-reduction of  $P_{700}^+$  is  $A_1k_1+A_2k_2+A_3k_3$ , equal to the total electron flux to  $P_{700}^+$  immediately before cessation of illumination, having units  $e^-$  s<sup>-1</sup>  $P_{700}^{-1}$ .

The photochemical efficiency of PS II in the dark-adapted state measured by Chl a fluorescence

The relative chlorophyll (Chl) a fluorescence yield ( $F_{\rm o}$ ) corresponding to open PS II reaction-center traps was measured using a Pulse Amplitude Fluorometer (PAM 101, H. Walz, Effeltrich, Germany) fitted with an ED101 BL emitter/detector that excited fluorescence with modulated blue light ( $\sim$ 0.1  $\mu$ mol photons m $^{-2}$  s $^{-1}$ ). Chl a fluorescence above 660 nm was detected, with relatively little contamination by PS I fluorescence. The maximum relative Chl a fluorescence yield ( $F_{\rm m}$ ) was measured with a 1-s saturating light pulse ( $\sim$ 10,000  $\mu$ mol photons m $^{-2}$  s $^{-1}$ ).

PS II in the light-adapted state measured by Chl *a* fluorescence

A leaf disc was placed inside the same chamber, and Chl fluorescence was measured in the same geometry as for investigating  $P_{700}^+$  kinetics using a PAM fluorometer. The same LED actinic light with a peak wavelength at 697 nm was also used to determine the relative Chl a fluorescence yield (F) at 120 s illumination and the maximum relative Chl a fluorescence yield in the light-acclimated state  $(F_{\rm m}')$ . The average quantum yield of PS II photochemistry (Genty et al. 1989),  $\Phi_{\rm PS~II} = (1 - F/F_{\rm m}')$ , was taken as a directly proportional measure of linear electron transport rate through PS II (ETR), since it is often used to calculate ETR as  $(1 - F/F_{\rm m}') \times I \times$  absorptance  $\times \alpha$  where I is the irradiance and  $\alpha$  the fraction of absorbed light partitioned to PS II (Schreiber 2004).

The oxidation state of the primary quinone acceptor ( $Q_A$ ) in PS II was calculated as  $qP = (F_m{}' - F)/(F_m{}' - F_o{}')$ , where the Chl a florescence yield  $F_o{}'$  is for open PS II traps in the light-adapted state (Schreiber 2004).  $F_o{}'$  was calculated from  $F_o{}, F_m{}$ , and  $F_m{}'$  (Oxborough and Baker 1997).

The photochemical efficiency of open PS II traps was calculated as  $F_{\rm v}'/F_{\rm m}'$ , where  $F_{\rm v}'=F_{\rm m}'-F_{\rm o}'$ . The fraction of absorbed light partitioned as heat dissipation in a light-dependent manner was calculated as  $\Phi_{\rm NPQ}=F/F_{\rm m}'-F/F_{\rm m}$ ; the fraction of absorbed light either dissipated constitutively as heat in a light-independent manner or emitted as Chl a fluorescence was calculated as  $\Phi_{\rm f,D}=F/F_{\rm m}$  (Hendrickson et al. 2004). Note that  $\Phi_{\rm PS}$  II +  $\Phi_{\rm NPQ}$  +  $\Phi_{\rm f,D}=1$ .

Decay of the Chl a fluorescence yield after a flash

The decay of the flash-induced increase in Chl *a* fluorescence yield in a leaf disc was measured at room temperature using a pulse-modulated fluorometer (PAM101 and 103, Walz, Effeltrich, Germany). A single-turnover flash was given by an XE-STC xenon flash lamp unit (model



XF-103, Walz). Weak monitoring light (650 nm) was applied at 1.6 kHz and automatically changed to 100 kHz when a single actinic flash was given. Data acquisition (time constant 15  $\mu$ s) was achieved by home-built equipment and a computer program (Chow and Hope 2004). Twenty successive flashes were given every 5 s, and the signals were averaged.

# Results

Decrease in the electron flux through PS I with increase in [MV] and associated changes in Chl fluorescence parameters of PS II

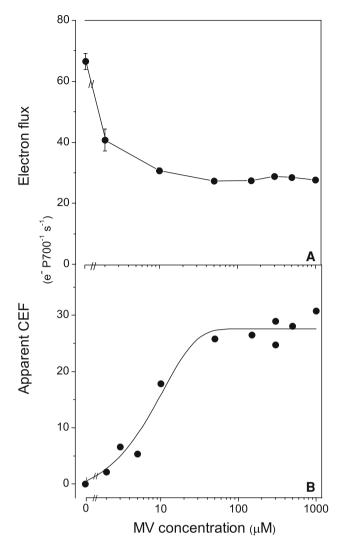
The electron flux through  $P_{700}$  decreased by a factor of  $\sim\!2$  on increasing [MV], reaching a steady electron flux at  $\geq\!50~\mu\text{M}$  (Fig. 1a). This decrease was partly due to an inhibition of ferredoxin-dependent CEF by MV which outcompeted ferredoxin for reducing equivalents. However, the decrease was also partly caused by inhibition of PS II by MV. This is shown in Fig. 2a, where infiltration with even 2  $\mu\text{M}$  MV decreased  $\Phi_{PS~II}$  considerably. Since LEF is directly proportional to  $\Phi_{PS~II}$ , we conclude that MV inhibited LEF.

In Fig. 1a, the electron flux at each [MV] in general consisted of an LEF component and any residual CEF that was not yet completely abolished by MV. The maximum extent of the CEF abolishable by MV, after correction for inhibition of LEF by MV (see Jia et al. 2008), can be equated with the true CEF. At a nonsaturating [MV], however, we obtained only the apparent CEF (Fig. 1b). It is seen that as [MV] increased, the apparent CEF increased; above about 50  $\mu$ M MV, which was apparently needed to abolish the entire CEF, the saturated CEF was taken as the true CEF value ( $\sim$ 28 e $^-$  P $^{-1}_{700}$  s $^{-1}$  or  $\sim$ 40% of the total electron flux through P $_{700}$  in the selected light regime).

 $\Phi_{PS\ II}$  is equal to the product of qP and  $F_v'/F_m'$ . Figure 2b shows that qP decreased substantially at low [MV], rising somewhat at higher [MV].  $F_v'/F_m'$  also decreased to some extent in the presence of MV (Fig. 2c). Thus, the decrease in  $\Phi_{PS\ II}$  was due to both a more reduced state of  $Q_A$  (restricting the onward linear flow of electrons) and lower photochemical efficiency of light-adapted open PS II traps.

Partitioning of absorbed light energy in PS II

While  $\Phi_{PS~II}$  is the fraction of absorbed light energy utilized photochemically, the fraction  $\Phi_{f,D}$  is constitutively lost either as heat in a light-independent manner or as fluorescence emission.  $\Phi_{f,D}$  is normally roughly constant, perhaps increasing marginally with irradiance (Hendrickson et al. 2004). Interestingly,  $\Phi_{f,D}$  decreased slightly in



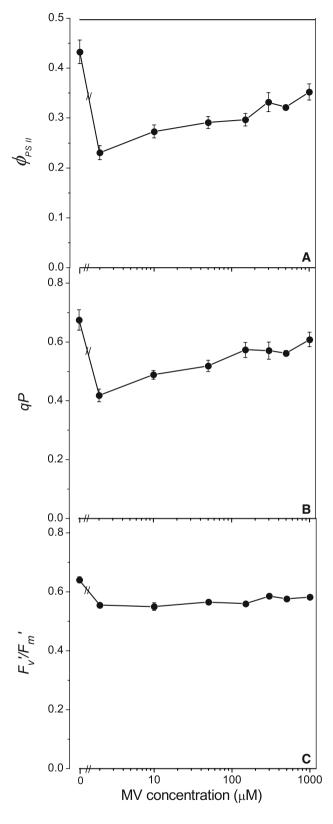
**Fig. 1** a The electron flux through  $P_{700}$  as a function of [MV], measured as the initial rate of re-reduction of  $P_{700}^{-1}$  at the instant of cessation of illumination (2 min,  $\sim 500$  µmol photons m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>, peak wavelength 697 nm from an array of light-emitting diodes). This electron flux is assumed equal to that just before cessation of illumination. **b** The apparent CEF obtained as the difference between the electron flux for a water-treated sample and that of a sample treated with a selected [MV]. The latter flux (in the presence of MV) was corrected for an inhibitory effect of MV on the LEF (see Jia et al. 2008). Values are means of four to six leaf discs  $\pm$  SE (pooled from two separate experiments)

the presence of MV (Fig. 3a). The sum of  $\Phi_{PS~II}$ ,  $\Phi_{f,D}$ , and  $\Phi_{NPQ}$  is unity. With the decreases in  $\Phi_{PS~II}$  and  $\Phi_{f,D}$ , the remainder,  $\Phi_{NPQ}$ , increased markedly at low [MV], decreasing slightly on further increasing [MV] (Fig. 3b).

Changes in  $F_0$  and  $F_m$  in dark-adapted leaf discs

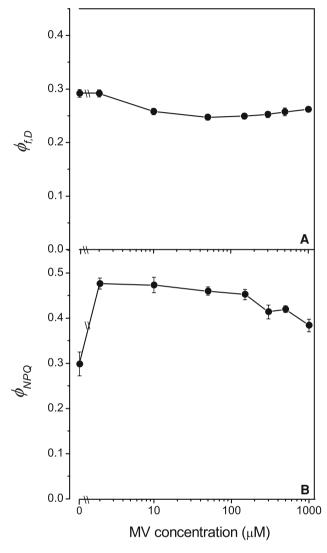
To further probe the effects of MV on PS II, we measured  $F_{\rm o}$  and  $F_{\rm m}$ , the Chl a fluorescence yield corresponding to open and closed PS II traps in the dark-adapted state,





respectively.  $F_{\rm o}$  decreased slightly at low [MV] before increasing to some extent at high [MV] (Fig. 4a).  $F_{\rm m}$  behaved similarly, suggesting that their changes had a common cause (Fig. 4b).

**Fig. 2** Effects of increasing [MV] on **a** the photochemical efficiency  $\Phi_{PS\ II}$  averaged over closed and open PS II traps; **b** the oxidation state qP of the primary quinone acceptor  $Q_A$  in PS II; and **c** the photochemical efficiency  $F_v'/F_m'$  of open, light-adapted PS II traps. Measurements were made at 2 min illumination time. Other conditions as in Fig. 1. Values are means of four to six leaf discs ± SE

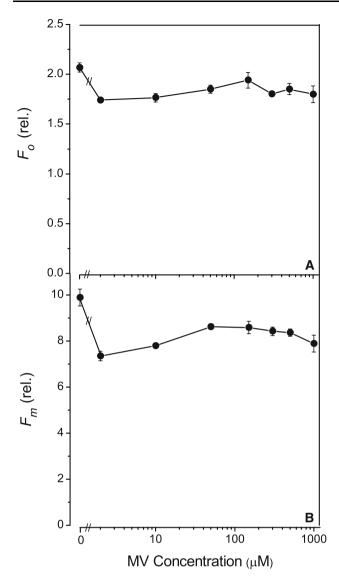


**Fig. 3** The fraction of absorbed light energy lost nonphotochemically and constitutively in a light-independent manner and as Chl a fluorescence ( $\Phi_{f,D}$ , a), and the fraction dissipated nonphotochemically in a light-dependent manner ( $\Phi_{NPQ}$ , b). Measurements were made at 2 min illumination time. Other conditions as in Fig. 1. Values are means of four to six leaf discs  $\pm$  SE

# The kinetics of re-oxidation of $Q_A^-$

On reduction of the primary quinone acceptor  $Q_A$  in PS II after a flash, re-oxidation occurs when the electron is transferred onwards with multi-phasic kinetics to the secondary quinone acceptor or to other acceptors such as an electron hole on the donor side of PS II (Renger et al.





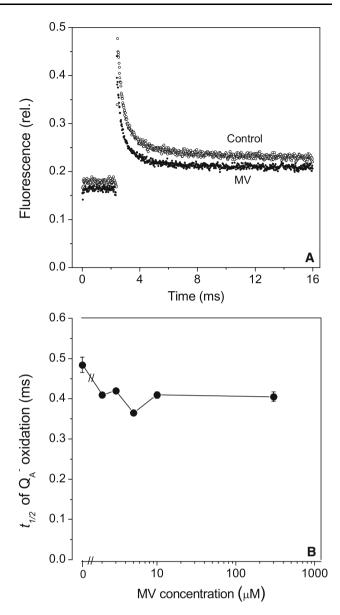
**Fig. 4** Effects of increasing [MV] on a  $F_o$  and b  $F_m$ . Leaf discs were dark-adapted for about 60 min before measurement. Values are means of four to six leaf discs  $\pm$  SE

1995). Examples of such re-oxidation kinetics are shown in Fig. 5a. An overall inverse measure of the rate of electron transfer is the half-time,  $t_{1/2}$ , for  $Q_A^-$  re-oxidation. Figure 5b shows that  $t_{1/2}$  decreased slightly at  $[MV] \ge 2 \mu M$ , suggesting that  $Q_A^-$  re-oxidation was accelerated somewhat.

#### Discussion

An explanation of the inhibition of PS II parameters by low concentrations of MV

A simple explanation that is consistent with many of the effects of MV on PS II is that electron mediation by even low concentrations of MV accelerated the "downhill"

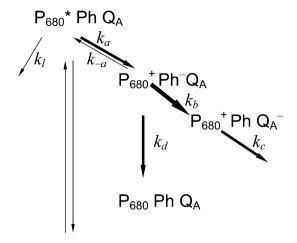


**Fig. 5** a Kinetic traces showing the decrease in Chl a fluorescence yield after a single-turnover flash given to dark-adapted leaf discs, associated with  $Q_A^-$  re-oxidation, in water or leaf discs treated with 300  $\mu$ M MV. A flash overload artefact obscured the initial rise of the signal. Each trace is the average of 20 signals. **b** The half time,  $t_{1/2}$ , for re-oxidation of  $Q_A^-$  after a flash. Values are means of four to six leaf discs  $\pm$  SE

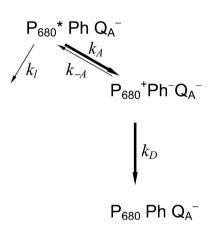
electron transfers within PS II, as depicted by thicker arrows in Fig. 6. Simple viologens such as MV are redox active species that can facilitate electron-transfer processes (Monk 1998). On reduction to the radical cation, the MV molecule,  $\sim 1.1$  nm from end to end (Russell and Wallwork 1972), has an unpaired electron delocalized throughout the  $\pi$ -framework of the bipyridyl nucleus. Even the N and N' substituents at either end of the molecule bear some of the charge (Evans et al. 1977). The delocalized charge of MV<sup>+•</sup> may enhance the rate of electron transfer in PS II if



# Open



# Closed



**Fig. 6** A diagram showing an open and a closed PS II reaction-center trap, with energy transfer between them indicated by *thin vertical arrows*. "Downhill" electron transfers hypothesized to be accelerated by MV are indicated by *thick arrows*. In an open trap,  $k_a$  is the rate coefficient for charge separation,  $k_b$  for charge stabilization,  $k_c$  for reoxidation of  $Q_A^-$ ,  $k_d$  for dissipative charge recombination to the ground state of  $P_{680}$ , and  $k_{-a}$  for charge recombination to the excited state of  $P_{680}$ . In a closed trap,  $k_A$  is the rate coefficient for charge separation,  $k_D$  for dissipative charge recombination to the ground state of  $P_{680}$ , and  $k_{-A}$  for charge recombination to the excited state of  $P_{680}$ . In each trap, excitation energy may also be lost in the antenna with rate coefficient  $k_1$ 

the radical is inserted into the protein matrix between two redox cofactors. Such an effect may be expected to occur even when [MV] is low. Indeed, low [MV] sufficient to achieve a minimum  $\Phi_{PS\ II}$  ( $\sim 2~\mu M)$  is consistent with this explanation. [PS II] is estimated to be about 10 nM in leaf tissue, two orders of magnitude smaller than 2  $\mu M$ . However, as the PS II protein matrix has to compete with numerous other Donnan indiffusible negative charges in the cells for the dicationic MV, it seems likely that it adsorbs only a small portion of the MV infiltrated into the tissue.

The mechanism of action of MV in this explanation requires an elongated, redox-active molecule that is also a divalent cation, with delocalization of the unpaired electron on reduction of MV to a radical cation. These special properties of MV cannot be mimicked by Mg<sup>2+</sup>, despite the abundance of Mg<sup>2+</sup> in the chloroplast.

Acceleration of  $Q_A^-$  re-oxidation and  $Q_A$  reduction by MV in open PS II traps

The half-time,  $t_{1/2}$ , for re-oxidation of  $Q_A^-$  after a flash was shortened by  $\mu M$  concentrations of MV (Fig. 5). This is taken as direct evidence of electron mediation by MV, the electron going to (1) a specific site in PS II, presumably the  $Q_B$  pocket where PQ is bound or about to bind, or (2) the S-states on the donor side of PS II (Renger et al. 1995). Despite the faster loss of an electron from  $Q_A^-$ , however,  $Q_A$  was kept more reduced during illumination, as indicated by the lower qP at low [MV] (Fig. 2b). This suggests that MV accelerated reduction of  $Q_A$  ( $k_b$  in Fig. 6) even more than it accelerated the oxidation of  $Q_A^-$  ( $k_c$  in Fig. 6).

Possible acceleration of charge separation by MV in open PS II traps

In a PS II complex with an intact antenna, as opposed to an isolated reaction center, the rate coefficient for charge separation in an open-trap  $k_a$  is proportionally smaller, being inversely influenced by the number of pigment molecules (Schatz et al. 1988); indeed  $k_a$  is only slightly larger than  $k_b$  (Trissl and Lavergne 1995). Therefore, any increase in  $k_a$  due to the presence of MV would also help to keep  $Q_A$  more reduced (i.e., qP would be smaller, as observed).

Decrease in  $F_{\rm v}'/F_{\rm m}'$  due to low [MV]

The lower qP was partly responsible for the lower  $\Phi_{PS\ II}$  (Fig. 2a). Since  $\Phi_{PS\ II} = qP \times (F_v'/F_m')$ , a decrease in  $F_v'/F_m'$  (the efficiency of open PS II traps) in the presence of low [MV] was also responsible for the lower  $\Phi_{PS\ II}$ . Presumably the decrease in  $F_v'/F_m'$  was due to an acceleration of dissipative charge recombination of the radical pair  $P_{680}^+Ph^-$  to the ground state directly, i.e., increased  $k_d$  in Fig. 6, where  $P_{680}$  is the primary donor in PS II and Ph (pheophytin) is the primary acceptor in PS II. Normally  $k_d$  in open traps is smaller than that in closed traps by three orders of magnitude (Trissl and Lavergne 1995). Perhaps MV increased  $k_d$  even in open traps.

Partitioning of absorbed light energy in PS II

While  $\Phi_{PS~II}$  is the fraction of absorbed energy utilized in photochemical conversion by PS II, the fraction  $\Phi_{f,D}$  is lost



as heat in a constitutive, light-independent manner or as Chl a fluorescence.  $\Phi_{f,D}$  is practically an inevitable loss, which explains the observations that (1) the best photochemical efficiency of PS II is about 80-85% in a healthy leaf in a dark-adapted state or in low light and (2) the maximum quantum yield of oxygen evolution of diverse C3 plants in nonstress conditions is 0.106 as compared with a theoretical 0.125 mol O<sub>2</sub> (mol absorbed photons)<sup>-1</sup> (Björkman and Demmig 1987). Hendrickson et al. (2004) suggested that this constitutive loss is due to the equilibrium between excitons and the radical pair  $P_{680}^{+}$ Ph<sup>-</sup>, which acts as a shallow trap of the excitation energy. Although the quantum yield of charge separation (formation of the radical pair) is very high (ca. 0.96), the shallowness of the PS II reaction-center trap means a high likelihood of charge recombination to yield an excited state that will lead to charge separation again. If each primary charge separation has an efficiency of 0.96, then four successive charge separations will bring the overall efficiency down to 0.85. In our present hypothesis, an increase in  $k_b$  due to the presence of MV would decrease the probability of charge recombination, thereby decreasing  $\Phi_{\rm f,D}$  as observed (Fig. 3a).

With the decreases in both  $\Phi_{f,D}$  and  $\Phi_{PS~II}$  in the presence of low [MV], it is expected that  $\Phi_{NPQ}$  would increase as observed in Fig. 3b since their sum is equal to unity.

Decreases in  $F_0$  and  $F_m$  in the presence of low [MV]

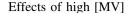
A low [MV] brought about a small but significant decrease in both  $F_{\rm o}$  and  $F_{\rm m}$ . These changes in Chl fluorescence yield can also be accommodated in our present hypothesis. In the exciton-radical pair equilibrium model, Trissl and Lavergne (1995) obtained the following expressions for the two quantities (symbols in Fig. 6). For an open PS II trap,

$$F_o = \frac{k_f}{\frac{k_a(k_b + k_d)}{k_a + k_b + k_d} + k_l}$$

where  $k_{\rm I}$  is the loss at the antenna and  $k_{\rm f}$  the radiative decay rate coefficient of an antenna pigment. It can be shown that an increase in either  $k_{\rm b}$  or  $k_{\rm d}$  will decrease  $F_{\rm o}$ . Further, any increase in  $k_{\rm a}$  due to MV (hinted at above in relation to possible acceleration of charge separation by MV in open PS II traps) obviously decreases  $F_{\rm o}$ . For a closed PS II trap,

$$F_m = \frac{k_f}{\frac{k_A k_D}{k_{-A} + k_D} + k_l}$$

It can be shown that an increase in  $k_{\rm D}$  will decrease  $F_{\rm m}$ . Further, any increase in  $k_{\rm A}$  due to MV obviously decreases  $F_{\rm m}$ . Therefore, we suggest that the observed decreases in  $F_{\rm o}$  and  $F_{\rm m}$  may be due to enhancement of charge separation and/or charge recombination to the ground state of  $P_{680}$  in the respective open and closed PS II traps.



qP in Fig. 2b decreased to a minimum at a low [MV], showing that Q<sub>A</sub> was maximally reduced; it recovered to a considerable extent at a high [MV]. It is likely that a high [MV]  $\geq$ 50  $\mu$ M was needed to efficiently transfer electrons out of the acceptor side of PS I, notably to oxygen, thereby keeping the PQ pool more oxidized.  $\Phi_{PS}$  II (Fig. 2a) behaved in a similar manner as did qP. Thus, LEF through PS II decreased to a minimum at a low [MV], but recovered to a considerable extent at a higher [MV] because of the enhanced electron transfer from the acceptor side of PS I. Therefore, high concentrations of MV partially improved LEF through PS II despite an inhibition at a low [MV]. Consistent with the requirement of high concentrations of MV to transfer electrons out of the acceptor side of PS I, maximum apparent CEF was achieved at ≥50 µM MV (Fig. 1b). At lower concentrations, MV could not completely abolish CEF, so that the apparent CEF was small.

In conclusion, the various effects of MV on PS II function are likely to be due to the acceleration of downhill electron transfers mediated by MV molecules adsorbed to PS II. It appears that excessive enhancement of charge separation led to closing of PS II traps, resulting in inhibition of LEF. This inhibitory effect justifies, indeed necessitates, the correction of LEF when MV is used to quantify CEF (Jia et al. 2008).

**Acknowledgments** We gratefully acknowledge the support of this work by an Australian Research Council (Grant DP0664719) to W.S.C. and J.B., and by The National Natural Science Foundation of China (No. 30770346) and an Endeavour Fellowship (both to D.-Y.F.).

# References

Bendall DS, Manasse R (1995) Cyclic photophosphorylation and electron transport. Biochim Biophys Acta 1229:23–38. doi: 10.1016/0005-2728(94)00195-B

Björkman O, Demmig B (1987) Photon yield of O<sub>2</sub> evolution and chlorophyll fluorescence characteristics at 77 K among vascular plants of diverse origin. Planta 170:489–504. doi:10.1007/BF00 402983

Chow WS, Hope AB (2004) Electron fluxes through photosystem I in cucumber leaf discs probed by far-red light. Photosynth Res 81:77–89. doi:10.1023/B:PRES.0000028396.83954.36

Evans AG, Evans JC, Baker MW (1977) Electron spin resonance study of the dimerization equilibrium of the radical cation of 1, 1'-diethyl-4, 4'-bipyridylium diiodide in methanol. J Am Chem Soc 99:5882–5884. doi:10.1021/ja00460a006

Fan D-Y, Nie Q, Hope AB, Hillier W, Pogson BJ, Chow WS (2007) Quantification of cyclic electron flow around photosystem I in spinach leaves during photosynthetic induction. Photosynth Res 94:347–357. doi:10.1007/s11120-006-9127-z

Genty B, Briantais J-M, Baker NR (1989) The relationship between the quantum yield of photosynthetic electron transport and quenching of chlorophyll fluorescence. Biochim Biophys Acta 990:87–92



- Hendrickson L, Furbank RT, Chow WS (2004) A simple alternative approach to assessing the fate of absorbed light energy using chlorophyll fluorescence. Photosynth Res 82:73–81. doi:10.1023/B:PRES.0000040446.87305.f4
- Jia H, Oguchi R, Hope AB, Barber J, Chow WS (2008) Differential effects of severe water stress on linear and cyclic electron fluxes through photosystem I in spinach leaf discs in CO<sub>2</sub>-enriched air. Planta 228:803–812. doi:10.1007/s00425-008-0783-4
- Joliot P, Joliot A (2002) Cyclic electron transfer in plant leaf. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 99:10209–10214. doi:10.1073/pnas.10230 6999
- Monk PMS (1998) The viologens. Physicochemical properties, synthesis and applications of the salts of 4, 4'-bipyridine. Wiley, Chichester
- Ort DR, Yocum CF (1996) Electron transfer and energy transduction in photosynthesis: an overview. In: Ort DR, Yocum CF (eds) Oxygenic photosynthesis: the light reactions. Kluwer, Dordrecht, pp 1–9
- Oxborough K, Baker NR (1997) Resolving chlorophyll a fluorescence images of photosynthetic efficiency into photochemical and non-photochemical components—calculation of *qP* and *Fv'/Fm'* without measuring *Fo'*. Photosynth Res 54:135–142. doi: 10.1023/A:1005936823310
- Renger G, Eckert H-J, Bergmann A, Bernarding J, Liu B, Napiwotzki A, Reifarth F, Eichler HJ (1995) Fluorescence and spectroscopic studies of exciton trapping and electron transfer in photosystem II of higher plants. Aust J Plant Physiol 22:167–181

- Russell JH, Wallwork SC (1972) The crystal structures of the dichloride and isomorphous dibromide and diiodide of the *N*, *N'*-dimethyl-4, 4'-bipyridylium ion. Acta Crystallogr B28:1527–1533
- Schansker G, Tóth SZ, Strasser RJ (2005) Methylviologen and dibromothymoquinone treatments of pea leaves reveal the role of photosystem I in the Chl *a* fluorescence rise OJIP. Biochim Biophys Acta 1706:250–261. doi:10.1016/j.bbabio.2004.11.006
- Schatz GH, Brock H, Holzwarth AR (1988) Kinetic and energetic model for the primary processes in photosystem II. Biophys J 54:397–405. doi:10.1016/S0006-3495(88)82973-4
- Schreiber U (2004) Pulse–amplitude–modulation (PAM) fluorometry and saturation pulse method: an overview. In: Papageorgiou GC, Govindjee (eds) Advances in photosynthesis and respiration. Chlorophyll a fluorescence: a signature of photosynthesis, vol 19. Springer, Dordrecht, pp 279–319
- Trissl H-W, Lavergne J (1995) Fluorescence induction from photosystem II: analytical equations for the yield of photochemistry and fluorescence derived from analysis of a model including exciton-radical pair equilibrium and restricted energy transfer between photosynthetic units. Aust J Plant Physiol 22:183–193
- Yruela I, Torrado E, Roncel M, Picorel R (2001) Light-induced absorption spectra of the D1–D2-cytochrome b559 complex of photosystem II: effects of methyl viologen concentration. Photosynth Res 67:199–206. doi:10.1023/A:1010682416016

