

Minireview

Function and organization of Photosystem I polypeptides*

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Abstract

Photosystem I functions as a plastocyanin:ferredoxin oxidoreductase in the thylakoid membranes of chloroplasts and cyanobacteria. The PS I complex contains the photosynthetic pigments, the reaction center P700, and five electron transfer centers (A₀, A₁, F_X, F_A, and F_B) that are bound to the PsaA, PsaB, and PsaC proteins. In addition, PS I complex contains at least eight other polypeptides that are accessory in their functions. Recent use of cyanobacterial molecular genetics has revealed functions of the accessory subunits of PS I. Site-directed mutagenesis is now being used to explore structure-function relations in PS I. The overall architecture of PSI complex has been revealed by X-ray crystallography, electron microscopy, and biochemical methods. The information obtained by different techniques can be used to propose a model for the organization of PS I. Spectroscopic and molecular genetic techniques have deciphered interaction of PS I proteins with the soluble electron transfer partners. This review focuses on the recent structural, biochemical and molecular genetic studies that decipher topology and functions of PS I proteins, and their interactions with soluble electron carriers.

Abbreviation: NHS – N-hydroxysuccinamide

Introduction

PS I is a heteromultimeric Chl-protein complex in the photosynthetic membranes that generate ATP and NADPH by oxygenic photosynthesis in cyanobacteria and chloroplasts. PS I is localized in the non-appressed thylakoid regions in chloroplasts (Anderson and Melis 1983). Similarly, the PS I in cyanobacterial membranes is spatially distributed in a radial asymmetric fashion, with higher concentration in the outermost thylakoids of a cyanobacterial cell (Sherman et al. 1994). PS I catalyzes the photooxidation of plastocyanin or cytochrome *c*₆ on the luminal side and photoreduction of ferredoxin or flavodoxin on the stromal (in chloroplasts) or cytoplasmic (in cyanobacteria) side of photosynthetic membranes. PS I also

participates in cyclic electron transport. PS I contains polypeptides and cofactors required to absorb photons, use their energy to cause the primary photochemical charge separation, and then to stabilize these charges by spatial displacement of electrons through a series of electron transfer centers. PS I can be isolated as monomers (~ 340 kDa) or as trimers. A monomer of PS I complex consists of at least eleven different polypeptides, approximately 100 Chl *a* molecules, several β -carotenes, and two phylloquinones. Cofactors of PS I participate in electron transport across the membrane from plastocyanin to ferredoxin in the following sequence: *Plastocyanin* (*Cu-protein*) or *cytochrome c*₆ (*heme*) → P700 (Chl *a* dimer) → A₀ (Chl *a*) → A₁ (phylloquinone) → F_X (a [4Fe-4S] center) → F_A or F_B ([4Fe-4S] centers) → *ferredoxin* ([2Fe-2S] center) or *flavodoxin* (*flavin*). The cofactors of PS I are bound to the PsaA, PsaB and PsaC proteins. The remaining subunits of PS I do not bind electron transfer cen-

* This review is dedicated to Prof. J. Philip Thornber, in whose laboratory PRC was introduced to the green world of chlorophyll-proteins.

ters. Details of electron transfer kinetics have been recently described (Lagoutte and Mathis 1989; Golbeck 1992; Setif 1992). Similarly extensive reviews discuss structures of soluble electron-transfer partners of PS I (Gross 1993; Morand et al. 1994; Redinbo et al. 1994).

The primary structures of individual PS I subunits and the overall mechanism of PS I function are remarkably conserved among cyanobacteria, green algae and plants (Golbeck 1992). The major difference is the existence of membrane-embedded light-harvesting complexes associated with the PS I of green algae and higher plants. The light harvesting complexes serve as additional antenna to harvest the light and funnel its energy to the PS I reaction center. The biochemistry light harvesting complexes and biophysics of energy trapping in photosystem I have been recently reviewed (Setif 1992; Thornber et al. 1993, 1994; Van Grondelle et al. 1994). PS I, the P840 photosynthetic reaction center of green sulfur bacteria and P800 reaction center of Heliobacteria share structural and functional similarities, indicating a common evolutionary origin (see reviews by Golbeck 1993a; Lockau and Nitschke 1993).

Details of PS I architecture are currently being revealed by X-ray diffraction analysis of PS I crystals (Krauß et al. 1993; Fromme et al. 1994), biochemical characterization of PS I topology (Ortiz et al. 1985; Lagoutte and Vallon 1992; Vallon and Bogorad 1993; Xu et al. 1994a,b), and the success in generating cyanobacterial mutants that lack specific polypeptides of PS I (Chitnis and Nelson 1992a; Chitnis and Chitnis 1993; Cohen et al. 1993; Xu et al. 1994c,d,e, 1995). The targeted cyanobacterial and algal mutants have also revealed the roles of PS I proteins in mediating electron transfer through PS I and in regulating and stabilizing the quaternary structure of the complex. In this minireview, we describe the recent advances in our understanding of the organization and function of PS I polypeptides. We will discuss recent structural, biochemical and molecular genetic studies that decipher topology and functions of PS I proteins, and their interactions with soluble electron carriers.

Polypeptides of Photosystem I

PS I is a heteromultimeric membrane-protein complex that is composed of at least eleven polypeptides in cyanobacteria (Fig. 1) and three additional ones in plants and algae. PS I subunits are believed to be

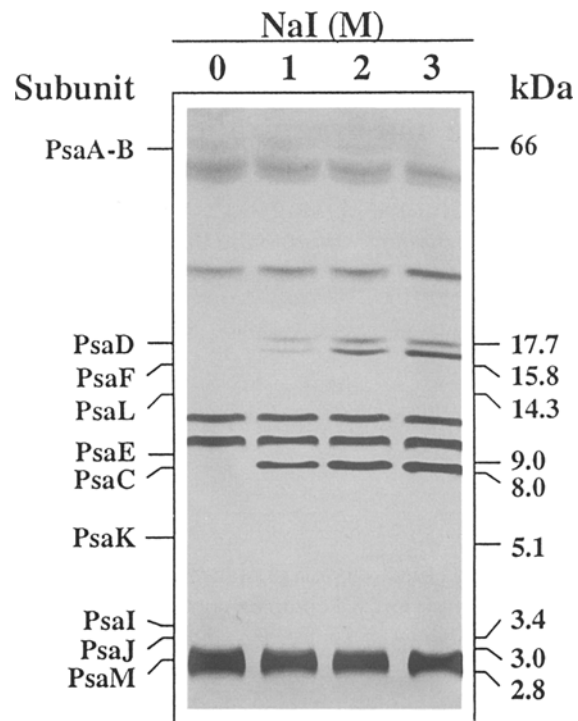


Fig. 1. Polypeptide composition of the PS I complex from *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803. PS I complexes were purified by solubilization of thylakoid membranes by Triton X-100, followed by DEAE-cellulose chromatography and sucrose gradient ultracentrifugation (Xu et al. 1994b). The complexes were treated with different concentrations NaI to identify the peripheral and transmembrane subunits of PS I. The polypeptides in PS I complexes containing 5 μ g Chl were separated on a Tricine-urea-SDS-PAGE (Xu et al. 1994c) and visualized by silver staining. The subunits labeled in the figure have been identified using immunodetection and N-terminal amino acid sequencing, and their molecular masses were determined from migration of the following protein markers: insulin (2.9 kDa), bovine trypsin inhibitor (6.2 kDa), lysozyme (14.3 kDa), β -lactoglobulin (18.4 kDa), carbonic anhydrase (29 kDa), ovalbumin (43 kDa), and bovine serum albumin (68 kDa).

present as one copy per P700 reaction center (Bruce and Malkin 1988a,b; Scheller et al. 1989a). They vary considerably in their molecular weights, hydrophobicity and their location with respect to the lipid bilayer. PsaC, PsaD, and PsaE are the only subunits of cyanobacterial PS I that can be removed by chaotropic treatment (Fig. 1; Ikeuchi 1992), thereby demonstrating their peripheral nature. All cofactors of PS I bind to PsaA, PsaB, and PsaC (Table 1). The remaining subunits of PS I are likely to be accessory in their function.

PS I proteins are encoded in both chloroplast and nuclear genomes of eukaryotes; the *psaA*, *psaB*, *psaC*,

Table 1. Polypeptide subunits of PS I

Subunit	Gene	Mass (Predicted)	Cofactors	Functions	Properties
PsaA (Ia, PS I-A) PsaB (Ib, PS I-B)	<i>psaA</i> <i>psaB</i>	83.0 (66) 82.4 (66)	~ 100 chlorophyll <i>a</i> P700 chlorophyll <i>a</i> dimer 12–16 β carotenes 2 phylloquinones 1 [4Fe-4S] cluster (F_x)	Light-harvesting Charge separation Photoprotection Charge stabilization Charge stabilization	Transmembrane proteins with 8–11 putative helices
PsaC (VII, PS I-C)	<i>psaC</i>	8.9 (8)	2 [4Fe-4S] centers (F_A, F_B)	Terminal electron acceptor donate e^- to ferredoxin	Peripheral on stromal (cytoplasmic) side
PsaD (II, PS I-D)	<i>psaD</i>	15.6 (17.7)	None	Ferredoxin-docking; Stable assembly of PS I; Correct orientation of PsaC	Peripheral on stromal (cytoplasmic) side
PsaE (IV, PS I-E)	<i>psaE</i>	8.0 (8)	None	Facilitates interaction with ferredoxin; Essential for cyclic electron transport	Peripheral on stromal (cytoplasmic) side
PsaF (III, PS I-F)	<i>psaF</i>	15.7 (15.8)	Chlorophyll a^b	Plastocyanin-docking for fast electron transfer	One putative transmembrane helix; large exposure on luminal side
PsaG (? , PS I-G)	<i>psaG</i>	10–10.8	None ^a	Interaction with LHCI? <i>Only in chloroplasts</i>	Two putative transmembrane helices
PsaH (VI, PS I-H)	<i>psaH</i>	10.2–11	None	Interaction with LHCI? <i>Only in chloroplasts</i>	Peripheral on stromal side
PsaI (IX, PS I-I)	<i>psaI</i>	4.3 (3.4)	None ^a	Normal organization of PsaL; trimerization?	One putative transmembrane helix
PsaJ (VIII, PS I-J)	<i>psaJ</i>	4.4 (3.0)	None ^a	Normal organization of PsaF	One putative transmembrane helix
PsaK (PS I-K)	<i>psaK</i>	8.5 (5.1)	None ^a	?	Two putative transmembrane helices
PsaL (V, PS I-L)	<i>psaL</i>	16.6 (14.3)	None ^a	PS I trimerization	Two or three putative transmembrane helices
PsaM (PS I-M)	<i>psaM</i>	3.4 (2.8)	None ^a	Cyclic electron flow	One putative transmembrane helix
PsaN (PS I-N)	<i>psaN</i>		None	?	Peripheral on <i>p</i> -side

The subunit nomenclature used in this review is given in the beginning while the alternative names in the literature are given in the parentheses.

The molecular masses predicted from the deduced primary sequences of *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803 PS I are given; the apparent mass observed during PAGE is parenthesized. For PsaG, PsaH, and PsaN a ranges of molecular masses of proteins from higher plants are given. For PsaK, PsaI, and PsaM the predicted masses are calculated from *Synechococcus elongatus* sequences.

^a Although not demonstrated, may potentially bind chlorophyll.

^b PsaF from higher plants has been isolated as a chlorophyll-protein complex, termed LHCIc, (see Thorber et al. 1993).

psaI, *psaM*, and *psaJ* genes are localized in the chloroplast genome, while others are located in the nucleus (see review by Ikeuchi 1992). In many plants, the nuclear-encoded PS I subunits are often present in multiple isoforms (Obokata et al. 1993). These proteins are synthesized as precursors and imported into chloroplasts. The precursors of PsaF and PsaN have bipartite transit sequences that target them to thylakoid lumen (Mant et al. 1994; Nielsen et al. 1994). The genes encoding most PS I subunits of barley (Okkels et al. 1992; Kjærulff et al. 1993; Knoetzel and Simpson 1993), spinach (Flieger et al. 1993), *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*, *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803 (Chitnis et al. 1993; Xu et al. 1994e, 1995), *Synechococcus elongatus* (Mühlenhoff et al. 1993) and *Synechococcus* sp. PCC 7002 have been cloned and characterized (see the review by Bryant 1992 for pre-1992 sources). The deduced primary sequences of PS I proteins have provided clues about their structure and function. In addition, biochemical resolution-reconstitution experiments and subunit-deficient cyanobacterial mutants have identified roles of PS I subunits.

PsaA-PsaB

These homologous, highly conserved, and hydrophobic subunits form the catalytic core of PS I (Fish et al. 1985a,b; Fish and Bogorad 1986). Examination of the amino acid sequences of PsaA-PsaB deduced from their genes revealed several structural features. First, PsaA and PsaB contain 11 hydrophobic domains each. These regions are 19–25 residues length and may cross membranes (Fish et al. 1985a; Kirsch et al. 1986). At least eight of these regions form transmembrane helices, while one may be positioned parallel to the membrane plane (Krauß et al. 1993; Fromme et al. 1994). Second, most charged residues are present in the extramembrane loops and may be involved in interaction with smaller subunits and diffusible electron carriers. Third, a high count of histidine residues is found in the transmembrane helices (Fish et al. 1985a,b). These histidine residues were proposed to be involved in coordinating the Chl molecules associated with PS I (Fish et al. 1985a). Fourth, the conserved cysteine residues in PsaA and PsaB (two in each protein) provide the ligands to the bound iron-sulfur cluster F_x . Fifth, PsaA and PsaB contain leucine zipper motifs (Kossel et al. 1990; Webber and Malkin 1990). Significance of these features is being tested through structural analysis and site-directed mutagenesis.

PsaC

The terminal electron transfer centers (F_A and F_B) of PS I are coordinated by the 8.8-kDa protein PsaC (see review by Golbeck 1992). It is a acidic hydrophilic protein with 81 amino acids. PsaC is an extraordinarily conserved protein; a comparison of the deduced amino acid sequences of PsaC from plants, algae and cyanobacteria shows that, with the exception of some conservative replacements near N-terminus and in the center of the protein, most residues are completely conserved during evolution (Bryant 1992). Therefore the function and interprotein interactions of this protein place significant constraints over its structure. The most notable feature of PsaC includes nine conserved cysteines, eight of which participate in ligating the Fe-S centers. Although some models for the conformation of PsaC have been proposed on the basis of its similarity to the bacterial ferredoxins (Dunn and Gray 1988; Golbeck 1993b), the structure of PsaC is yet to be determined.

PsaD

It is a conserved peripheral protein with 139–144 amino acids in cyanobacteria and an additional ~ 23 residues in higher plants (Golbeck 1992). The extra amino acids form an extension at the N-terminus of the plant PsaD. Topological studies have shown that the N-terminal extension of eukaryotic PsaD is accessible to proteases (Lagoutte and Vallon 1992; Zilber and Malkin 1992). Although conformation of PsaD is unknown, biochemical analysis has shown that the C-terminal domain of PsaD is surface-exposed (Xu et al. 1994b). Secondary structure predictions based on Chou-Fasman or Garnier algorithms indicates significant α helical structure in PsaD. In general, PsaD is a basic protein and thus may be able to interact with PsaC and ferredoxin through electrostatic interactions. PsaD is implicated in many functions. It is required for stable organization of PsaC, PsaL and PsaE into PS I (Li et al. 1991b; Chitnis and Nelson 1992a; Xu et al. 1994a). Characterization of the PsaD-less mutants of *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803 has demonstrated the essential role of PsaD in interaction with ferredoxin and flavodoxin (Xu et al. 1994c).

PsaE

It is a conserved, peripheral subunit on the stromal (cytoplasmic) side of PS I. Cyanobacterial PsaE is 70–

75 amino acids long, while plant and algal PsaE has an N-terminal extension (see review by Bryant 1992). Similar to plant PsaD, the extension in spinach PsaE is accessible to exogenous proteases (Lagoutte and Vallon 1992). In contrast, the C-terminal Glu63 and Glu67 and Lys74 in PsaE of *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803 are exposed on the surface of PS I (Xu et al. 1994b; see also Rousseau et al. 1993). The solution conformation of *Synechococcus* sp. PCC 7002 PsaE, proposed from NMR analysis, reveals that the protein has an antiparallel five-stranded β -sheet structure (Falzone et al. 1994a,b). In this structure, the N- and C-termini are close to each other. Therefore the N-terminal extension may make the C-terminal domain of plant PsaE inaccessible to proteases, thus providing an explanation for the apparent contradiction between the topological studies on the plant and cyanobacterial PsaE. The C-terminal surface exposed domain of PsaE may be involved in its interaction with ferredoxin, that has been demonstrated from cyanobacterial mutants (Rousseau et al. 1993; Xu et al. 1994c) and biochemical depletions (Sonoike et al. 1993; Strotmann and Weber 1993). PsaE may also be required for cyclic electron transport around PS I (Yu et al. 1993b). PsaE in the PS I complex can be chemically cross-linked to ferredoxin:NADP⁺ oxidoreductase (Anderson et al. 1992), indicating an additional role for PsaE in interaction with ferredoxin:NADP⁺ oxidoreductase.

PsaF

Until recently, PsaF was considered a peripheral subunit on the luminal side of PS I (for example, see Golbeck 1992). However, several reports demonstrate that it is an integral membrane protein. Chaotropic treatments have been routinely used to distinguish between the peripheral and integral membrane proteins. PsaF resists removal from cyanobacterial PS I by 3 M NaI (Fig. 1) or by 8 M urea (Li et al. 1991a). Similarly, PsaF from plant PS I is resistant to removal by n-butanol (Oh-oka et al. 1988) or by alkaline salt treatment (Tjus and Andersson 1991). In contrast, treatment of PS I complexes with high concentration of detergents, such as Triton X-100, removes PsaF from the core complex (Bengis and Nelson 1977). Extraction of a membrane-protein by Triton X-114 or organic solvents depends on the overall hydrophobicity of the protein. Spinach PsaF partitions with Triton-X 114, indicating its hydrophobic nature (Zilber et al. 1990; Tjus and Andersson 1991). The amino acid sequences of PsaF deduced from the gene sequences reveal two

moderately hydrophobic regions in this protein (Chitnis et al. 1991). A cross-linked product that is recognized by both anti-PsaE and anti-PsaF antibodies can be obtained by treatment of PS I with N-ethyl-3-3 [dimethylaminopropyl] carbodiimide or with glutaraldehyde, showing that regions of PsaE and PsaF are in close proximity (D.A. Bryant, personal communication; V.P. Chitnis and P.R. Chitnis, unpublished results). PsaF is synthesized as a precursor protein with a transit sequence typical of proteins targeted to thylakoid lumen, suggesting the N-terminal bulk of the protein is exposed on the luminal side and the C-terminal hydrophobic domain serves as a stop-transfer sequence. This would indicate that the C-terminal hydrophilic domain of PsaF is exposed on the *stromal* (cytoplasmic) side of the membranes and may interact with PsaE.

Function of PsaF remains controversial. Based on biochemical depletion and chemical cross-linking experiments, this subunit has been proposed to function as the plastocyanin or cytochrome *c*₆ docking site on the oxidizing side of PS I (Bengis and Nelson 1977; Nechushtai and Nelson 1981; Wynn and Malkin 1988; Hippler et al. 1989; Wynn et al. 1989a,b). In contrast, the PsaF-less mutant strains of *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803 do not show any defect in their photoautotrophic growth, cytochrome *c*₆-dependent NADP⁺ photoreduction activity of PS I or P700⁺ rereduction kinetics (Chitnis et al. 1991; Xu et al. 1994c,e). Biochemical depletion of PsaF also does not affect activity of cyanobacterial PS I (Hatanaka et al. 1993).

PsaG

This is a moderately conserved subunit that contains ~ 100 amino acids (Golbeck 1992). It has only been detected in eukaryotic PS I. Despite the initial discrepancies in the prediction of its transmembrane helices (Steppuhn et al. 1988; Franzen et al. 1989; Okkels et al. 1992), it is now believed that PsaG contains two putative transmembrane helices placed towards the termini and a highly hydrophilic large extramembranal loop. From the positive inside rule (Gavel et al. 1991), the N-terminus of PsaG is predicted to be in the lumen (Okkels et al. 1992). PsaG shares some sequence homology with PsaK. PsaG may play a role in interaction with LHCI.

PsaH

It is another PS I subunit that has only been detected in algae and plants (Ikeuchi 1992). It is ~ 95 amino acids in length and has conserved primary structure (Golbeck 1992). The mature PsaH protein contains an N-terminal acidic domain, a central hydrophobic domain and a C-terminal basic region. PsaH is an extrinsic subunit on the stromal side of PS I (Tjus and Andersson 1991; Zilber and Malkin 1992). Like PsaG, PsaH may play a role specific for PS I from plant and algae.

PsaI

The deduced amino acid sequences of PsaI from plants and cyanobacteria shows high degree of conservation (Xu et al. 1995). PsaI of the *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803 does not contain obvious consensus sequences for binding of prosthetic groups. Unlike *psaI* of another cyanobacterium *Anabaena variabilis* ATCC 29413 (Sonoike et al. 1992), the *psaI* gene from *Synechocystis* codes for the mature polypeptide without a presequence. The PsaI subunits contain a central hydrophobic domain flanked by hydrophilic N- and C-termini (Scheller et al. 1989b). The hydrophobic region potentially could make a kinked transmembrane helix. PsaI in intact spinach thylakoids is not accessible to external proteases (Zilber and Malkin 1992). Furthermore, PsaI is resistant to removal by chaotropic agents (Scheller et al. 1989b; Xu et al. 1994a,d). Therefore, PsaI is an integral membrane protein containing one transmembrane helix. The N-terminus of PsaI may be exposed on the luminal side of thylakoids. PsaI of *Anabaena variabilis* has a presequence that is predicted to assist thylakoid translocation. The C-terminal hydrophilic domain of PsaI in barley contains several positively charged residues (Scheller et al. 1989b). If the positive inside rule for predicting topology of membrane proteins (Von Heijne and Gavel 1988) applies to PsaI in barley, the C-terminal domain of this protein may face the stromal (cytoplasmic) side of the photosynthetic membranes. While PsaI in cyanobacterial and higher plants shares some common features in hydropathy profile, the C-terminus of cyanobacterial and liverwort PsaI contains several negatively charged residues. The significance of these differences in overall charges in the C-termini of PsaI from cyanobacterial and higher plants is not understood. PsaI may be involved in correct organization of PsaL (Xu et al. 1995).

PsaJ

PsaJ is a 4.4-kDa hydrophobic protein, which has been identified in PS I preparations from cyanobacteria (Ikeuchi et al. 1991, 1993; Xu et al. 1994e) and higher plants (Ikeuchi et al. 1990). Its deduced amino acid sequence reveals a highly conserved sequence of 22 amino acids which may span the membrane. The hydrophilic N-terminal domain of PsaJ is only 4–5 amino acids long while the C-terminal domain has overall negative charge and > 15 amino acids (Golbeck 1992). PsaJ is not required for the electron-transfer function of PS I (Xu et al. 1994e). It, however, may interact with PsaF and PsaE (Xu et al. 1994d). The exact nature of these interactions or their importance in vivo is not known. Orientation of PsaJ with respect to thylakoids is not clear. It is likely that the relatively large C-domain of PsaJ may be on the stromal (cytoplasmic) side and interacts with PsaE.

PsaK

It is an integral membrane-protein that is tightly associated with the PsaA-PsaB complex. It can be removed from this complex by treatment with thiol reagents, without affecting PS I charge separation (Wynn and Malkin 1990). Deduced primary sequences of PsaK from higher plants and cyanobacteria do not show high degree of homology (Golbeck 1992), however, they do contain two hydrophobic domains predicted to be membrane-spanning alpha-helices. From positive inside rule (Gavel et al. 1991), the N-terminus of PsaK may be in the lumen of thylakoids. The comparison of the deduced primary sequences of PsaK and PsaG shows significant similarity, suggesting that an ancestral gene has been duplicated in a chloroplast progenitor to evolve into *psaG* and *psaK*, but remained single in cyanobacteria (Kjærulff et al. 1993). The role of PsaK in the function and structure of PS I remains to be studied.

PsaL

A comparison of the deduced primary structures of PsaL shows a greater diversity than seen in other subunits (Golbeck 1992). However, the protein contains several conserved regions of homology, most notably in the hydrophobic regions. Hydropathy analysis of PsaL suggests the presence of a hydrophilic N-terminal domain followed by two potential transmembrane domains (Chitnis et al. 1993). A relatively

large N-terminal domain of PsaL in stacked spinach thylakoids resists proteolysis and is predicted to be located on the stromal side (Zilber and Malkin 1992). This subunit is required for PS I trimer formation and is a component of the connecting domain that links three monomers to form a trimer (Chitnis and Chitnis 1993).

PsaM

It is a small polypeptide (~ 3 kDa, ~ 29 amino acids) and has recently been detected in cyanobacterial PS I (Ikeuchi et al. 1993; Xu et al. 1994c). The amino acid sequences have a rather short (~ 17 amino acids) hydrophobic domain in the protein, flanked by hydrophilic termini. Figure 1 clearly shows that PsaM cannot be removed by chaotropes, indicating that PsaM is an integral membrane-protein. Distribution of charged residues in PsaM suggests that N-terminus of PsaM may be exposed in the lumen of thylakoids (Ikeuchi et al. 1993). Although PsaM has not been shown to be present in plant PS I preparations, an open reading frame coding for a PsaM-like peptide is present in the liverwort chloroplast genome (Ohyama et al. 1986).

PsaN

This 9 kDa extrinsic polypeptide of plant PS I is located on the luminal side of thylakoids (He and Malkin 1992). It does not bind any cofactors and is not required for NADP⁺ photoreduction. Recently a barley cDNA clone encoding the PsaN subunit of PS I was isolated (Knoetzel and Simpson 1993). The mature PsaN is 85 amino acids in length, with no putative membrane-spanning region. Its transit peptide routes this protein to thylakoid lumen by a *sec*-independent pathway (Mant et al. 1994). In contrast, PsaF is routed by a *sec*-dependent pathway. Considering the presence of a bacterial-type presequence for a cyanobacterial PsaF, it is likely that PsaN was added to PS I after the divergence of chloroplasts and cyanobacteria. This subunit has not yet been detected in the PS I preparations from cyanobacteria. Function of PsaN is not known.

Molecular genetic studies to reveal structure-function relations in PS I

In recent years, biochemical and genetic methods have been elegantly combined and extensively used

to identify functions of PS I polypeptides and to decipher structure-function relations. The cyanobacterium *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803 has been the most popular organism for molecular genetic dissection of the photosynthetic apparatus. A glucose-tolerant strain of *Synechocystis* can be grown under photoheterotrophic and light-activated heterotrophic conditions, enabling one to obtain mutants defective in the photosynthetic electron transport (Anderson and McIntosh 1991). This cyanobacterium has been used to generate the earliest subunit-deficient PS I mutants (Chitnis et al. 1989a,b). Later other cyanobacterial species and the green alga *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* have also been used by several groups to create PS I mutants. Here we review the use of molecular genetics to study structure-function relationships in the electron transfer subunits of PS I and to identify functions of the accessory subunits of PS I.

Mutagenesis of the PS I subunits that bind electron-transfer centers

Biochemical analyses have demonstrated that the PsaA, PsaB, and PsaC subunits of PS I bind electron-transfer centers. Several subunit-deficient mutants lacking one or more of these subunits have been generated. Inactivation of *psaA* or *psaB* of *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803 results in the absence of PS I in the thylakoids of mutants, showing that these subunits cannot form homodimers and the presence of PsaA-PsaB heterodimer is essential for the assembly of the complex (Smart et al. 1992, 1994; Smart and McIntosh 1993). Although these mutant strains required light-activated photoheterotrophic conditions for growth, other groups have generated PsaA- or PsaB-less cyanobacterial mutants in *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803 (Shen et al. 1993), *Anabaena variabilis* (Toelge et al. 1991; Nyhus et al. 1993), or *Synechococcus* sp. PCC 7002 (D.A. Bryant, personal communication) that can be grown under low light intensity or in dark. A mutant strain of *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* with an inactive *psaB* due to a frame-shift mutation is also available (Bingham et al. 1991). All these mutants have similar phenotypes with respect to PS I assembly and function.

With the availability of subunit-deficient mutants, vigorous site-directed mutagenesis of PsaA-PsaB is now focused on identifying the residues that bind different cofactors. An obvious choice for such approach was mutations in the cysteine residues that have been proposed as F_x ligands. When Cys565 in PsaB of *Syne-*

chocystis sp. PCC 6803 was mutated to serine, histidine or aspartic acid, the mutations greatly reduced accumulation of PS I (Smart et al. 1993). The serine mutant contains sufficient PS I to perform detailed EPR analysis. The C565S mutant PS I contains a [3Fe-4S] and [4Fe-4S] clusters at F_X that are capable of electron transfer to F_A/F_B (Warren et al. 1993). Therefore, Cys565 coordinates F_X , which in turn is essential for stable assembly of PS I core. Mutation of another cysteine residue in *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* has also indicated a similar role of F_X in PS I assembly (Webber et al. 1993). Mutagenesis of the leucine zipper motif in PsaB does not provide support for a major structural role of the leucine zipper in reaction center dimerization (Smart et al. 1993).

Mutant strains with inactive *psaC* have been generated in *Anabaena variabilis* (Mannan et al. 1991), *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803 (L. McIntosh, personal communication), and *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* (Takahashi et al. 1991). Although all these mutants lack EPR signals that can be attributed to F_A/F_B , the lack of PsaC has different effects on the assembly of the complex in different organisms. PS I core is not stably assembled in the PsaC-less mutant of *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*, but is assembled and functional in charge separation in the cyanobacterial mutants. PsaD and PsaE cannot be detected in the membranes of PsaC-less cyanobacterial mutants (Mannan et al. 1994).

An in vitro reconstitution approach has been successfully used to determine role of the conserved cysteines in PsaC (Zhao et al. 1990, 1992; Li et al. 1991b). PsaD, PsaE and PsaC of *Synechococcus* sp. PCC 7002 have been produced in *Escherichia coli* for in vitro reconstitution with a biochemical prepared PS I core (P700- F_X). These experiments showed that the substitution of Cys14 by an aspartate led to the formation of a [3Fe-4S] center at F_B , while the similar substitution at Cys51 led to a [3Fe-4S] center at F_A . These results indicate that the F_A cluster is liganded by Cys 21, 48, 51, and 54 while Cys 11, 14, 17 and 58 are ligated to the cluster F_B (Zhao et al. 1992). Phenotype of the reconstituted PsaC mutants shows that reduction of F_A and F_B are independent of each other, thus favoring two parallel pathways of electron transfer through PsaC. Further site-directed mutations showed that the ninth cysteine (Cys34) does not participate in ligating either F_A or F_B (Yu et al. 1993a). This approach allows functional characterization of the proteins before and after assembly into PS I (Yu et al. 1993a).

Targeted mutagenesis to reveal functions of the accessory subunits

The accessory subunits of PS I do not bind any redox-active cofactors. The conservation of the predicted primary sequences of these PS I polypeptides from cyanobacteria and higher plants suggests a high selection pressure during evolution. The cyanobacterial and chloroplast PS I have similar structure and mechanism of electron transfer. This suggests important roles for these polypeptides. Biochemical depletion and targeted mutagenesis can be used to study roles of the accessory subunits in PS I function and organization. Subunit-specific cyanobacterial mutants with deletion or interruption of the *psaD* (Chitnis et al. 1989b), *psaE* (Chitnis et al. 1989a; Rousseau et al. 1993; Zhao et al. 1993), *psaF* (Chitnis et al. 1991; Xu et al. 1994e), *psaI* (Xu et al. 1995), *psaJ* (Xu et al. 1994d), *psaK* (D.A. Bryant, personal communication), *psaL* (Chitnis and Chitnis 1993; Chitnis et al. 1993), and *psaM* (D.A. Bryant, personal communication) genes have been generated and characterized. Several combinatorial mutants that lack more than one accessory subunit are also available (Chitnis and Chitnis 1993; Cohen et al. 1993; Xu et al. 1994c). The study of these mutants have revealed the following functions of the accessory subunits.

(a) Interaction with soluble electron acceptors

The accessory subunits provide topological surfaces for accurate docking and orientation of the soluble electron carriers on the reducing sides of PS I, thereby allowing a mechanism to modulate PS I activity. Plastocyanin and cytochrome c_6 interact with the oxidizing side of PS I while ferredoxin and flavodoxin transiently associate with the reducing side of PS I.

Reducing site of PS I is required for the reduction of ferredoxin. Flavodoxin replaces ferredoxin in cyanobacteria growing in iron-depleted medium (Morand et al. 1994). Ferredoxin or flavodoxin mediated $NADP^+$ photoreduction, and a direct examination of ferredoxin or flavodoxin reduction have been used to characterize the function of subunit-deficient PS I complexes from *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803 (Rousseau et al. 1993; Xu et al. 1994c). PsaD-less cyanobacterial membranes are unable to reduce $NADP^+$ via ferredoxin (Xu et al. 1994c). Also, the absence of PsaD in these membranes drastically reduces flavodoxin reduction rates (< 10% of wild type). In contrast, the lack of PsaE has more severe effect on ferredoxin reduction

than on flavodoxin reduction. It seems that interaction of flavodoxin with PS I has less stringent structural requirements (Xu et al. 1994c). Also, extramembrane regions of PsaL, PsaJ or PsaF may not form an essential part of the reducing site of PS I because the PS I complexes of mutants lacking these subunits have normal ferredoxin- or flavodoxin-mediated NADP⁺ reduction activity (Xu et al. 1994c). Therefore, PsaD, PsaE and PsaC are the essential components of the reducing side of PS I. Protease accessibility and NHS-biotinylation experiments have shown that a C-terminal domain of PsaD is exposed on the surface of PS I (Xu et al. 1994b). Deletions in the C-terminus of PsaD do not abolish the ability of the mutant proteins to assemble into PS I in vitro (Chitnis and Nelson 1992a). Therefore, the surface-exposed domain is not essential for the assembly of PsaD into PS I complex and may interact with ferredoxin. These results are indeed consistent with biochemical characterization of the reducing site by topographical and chemical cross-linking investigations (Zilber and Malkin 1988; Lelong et al. 1994; Xu et al. 1994b).

Besides the linear electron transfer that results in NADP⁺ photoreduction, PS I also participates in cyclic electron flow. Although the identity of electron acceptor in the cyclic pathway is not known, characterization of PsaE-less strain of *Synechococcus* sp. PCC 7002 (Yu et al. 1993b) has shown that PsaE is essential for cyclic electron flow around PS I. Recently obtained PsaM-less mutant of *Synechococcus* sp. PCC 7002 also shows defect in cyclic electron flow (D.A. Bryant, personal communication).

(b) Protection of the electron transfer centers

P700*/P700 has the lowest calculated redox potential (−1290 mV) for any biological redox center. Other electron transfer centers are also extremely electronegative (−1010 to −530 mV) (see reviews by Golbeck and Bryant 1991; Setif 1992). Protection of these centers is an essential condition for PS I to function in an oxygenic photosynthetic environment. Some accessory subunits of PS I may provide physical isolation of the electron transfer centers, protect them from wasteful oxidation and allow only regulated oxidation to occur. Turnover of PS I is increased in the PsaE-less *Synechocystis* mutant strain (Chitnis and Nelson 1992b). The PsaD-PsaE-less mutant strain of *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803 dies under higher light intensity or temperature due to photooxidative damage (Q. Xu and P.R.

Chitnis, unpublished results). PsaD and PsaE may have protective roles on the reducing side of PS I.

(c) Structural and regulatory role in the organization of PS I

Some accessory subunits interact with other subunits and orient them properly. Other accessory subunits, like PsaL are essential components of the trimeric quaternary structure of PS I, that has been demonstrated in the photosynthetic membranes of cyanobacteria (Kruip et al. 1994). Several PsaL-less mutant strains have been obtained in *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803; trimeric PS I cannot be obtained from the PsaL-less strains (Chitnis and Chitnis 1993; Chitnis et al. 1993). Therefore, PsaL is essential for the formation of stable PS I trimers. Furthermore, PsaL in monomers, but not in the trimers is susceptible to thermolysin digestion, suggesting the positioning of PsaL in the trimer-forming domain of PS I. Recently, addition of Ca⁺² was found to stimulate formation of PS I trimers. Calcium binds to the PsaL subunit of PS I, thus suggesting a regulatory role of PsaL in trimer formation (V.P. Chitnis and P.R. Chitnis, unpublished results).

PS I (Table 1), PS II (see review by Pakrasi and Vermaas 1992) and Cyt b₆/f (Pierre and Popot 1993) complexes contain many hydrophobic polypeptides of ≤ 4 kDa. These proteins have one putative transmembrane helix flanked by short hydrophilic, charged domains. PsaJ, PsaI and PsaM polypeptides of PS I belong to this group (Table 1). Recent characterization of PsaI- and PsaJ-less mutants of *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803 indicates that these polypeptides are 'nuts and bolts' in the structure of PS I. They assist in the correct organization of other subunits by anchoring peripheral proteins and stabilizing transmembrane helices in lipid bilayer. Analysis of PS I organization in a PsaJ-less mutant of *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803 has revealed that PsaJ may interact with both PsaE and PsaF (Xu et al. 1994d). It is possible, for example, that a PsaJ-PsaF interaction may involve stabilization of the transmembrane helix of PsaF. The putative transmembrane region of PsaF is shorter and less hydrophobic than typical transmembrane helices (Chitnis et al. 1991). The highly hydrophobic transmembrane helix of PsaJ may stabilize the PsaF helix. Targeted inactivation of *psaI* in *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803 has revealed a role of PsaI in the normal organization of the PsaL subunit of PS I (Xu et al. 1995). PsaL is removed from the PS I core after detergent extraction of the PsaI-less membranes. A structural interaction between PsaL and PsaI

may stabilize association of PsaL with the PS I core. PsaL in the wild-type and PsaL-less membranes equally resists chaotropic extraction, but exhibits an increased susceptibility to proteolysis in the mutant strain. Similar role of PsaM in organization of other subunits, perhaps PsaK, has not been identified.

Thus the accessory polypeptides of PS I interact with soluble electron acceptors, protect the redox centers, and assist in PS I assembly and organization of the complex. In addition the hydrophobic accessory subunits may interact with other membrane proteins, such as pigment-carrier proteins. In cyanobacteria, they may also participate in energy transfer from phycobilisomes to PS I, either by interacting with phycobilisomes or by binding Chl *a* molecules that are crucial in energy transfer. Changes in state transitions in some cyanobacterial mutants indicate such role for PsaK, PsaF, and PsaJ (D.A. Bryant, personal communication). Integral membrane-proteins in plants and algae, especially PsaG and PsaH, may interact with LHCI. These functions of accessory proteins of PS I are yet to be demonstrated.

Structure and organization of PS I

PS I structure has been studied by negative staining electron microscopy and X-ray crystallography. Organization of PS I subunits has also been inferred from their hydropathy profiles determined from deduced amino acid sequences, nature of their transit peptides and from biochemical experiments involving protease accessibility, antibody epitope mapping, chemical cross-linking and reconstitution. Although a clear picture of the organization of PS I subunits may be forthcoming from the finer resolution of PS I crystal-structure, topological explorations of the PS I complexes aid and complement interpretation of X-ray crystallographic data. Based on the available information, Fig. 2 presents a model for the organization for PS I polypeptides in cyanobacteria.

Electron microscopy and X-ray crystallographic studies

Electron microscopy has provided valuable information on the global shape and size of different PS I complexes (Boekema et al. 1994) and X-ray crystallography has permitted a somewhat more detailed knowledge of secondary and tertiary structural elements of

the reaction center core subunits (Krauß et al. 1993; Fromme et al. 1994).

The negative staining electron microscopy, mainly performed on the PS I complexes isolated from cyanobacteria, predicted the complex to be either an ellipsoid of 18×8 nm (Williams et al. 1983), or a disk shape with a diameter of about 19 nm and a thickness of 6 nm (Boekema et al. 1987). The trimeric form of the cyanobacterial PS I was measured to be a triangular disk of $18 \times 6 \times 6$ nm and the monomeric PS I has been described to be a pear-shape of $15 \times 9 \times 6$ nm (Ford et al. 1988; Ford and Holzenburg 1988). The reaction centers have a ridge of 2.5–3.0 nm height projecting from one side of the membrane while their other side is rather flat and exhibits a shallow, central indentation (Ford et al. 1990; Bottcher et al. 1992; Kruip et al. 1993). This ridge has been proposed to be composed of the PsaC, PsaD and PsaE subunits. The other side, presumably the luminal side, is flat, but has a 3 nm deep indentation in the center, perhaps caused by a partial separation between PsaA and PsaB where plastocyanin can dock during electron transfer (Bottcher et al. 1992; Kruip et al. 1993). Several subunit-deficient cyanobacterial mutants are now being used in electron microscopy studies to determine approximate locations of PS I subunits in the overall architecture of PS I. For example, electron microscopy of the wild type and PsaF-PsaJ-less PS I trimers from *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803 suggest that the lack of PsaF and PsaJ cause changes in a contiguous area on the opposite side from the trimer-forming domain (E. Boekema, J. Kruip, P.R. Chitnis and M. Rögner, unpublished results).

These electron microscopy studies have yielded valuable information concerning the overall shape and size of PS I complexes. These studies do not (and cannot) provide detailed structure of the complex. The exact packing of eleven or more proteins in a compact PS I structure will only be understood from atomic resolution X-ray diffraction analysis of PS I crystals. PS I of *Synechococcus elongatus* (Witt et al. 1987), *Mastigocladus laminosus* (Almog et al. 1991), *Synechococcus* sp. PCC 7002 (Tsiotis et al. 1993) and *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803 (Reilly and Nelson 1988) have been crystallized. The three dimensional structure of trimeric PS I from *Synechococcus elongatus* has been proposed at 6 Å resolution (Krauß et al. 1993). According to this model, a monomer of PS I consists of a 'catalytic domain' and a smaller 'connecting domain' that links monomers to form a trimer. The absence of trimers in the PsaL-less mutants of *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803 indicates that the smaller domain with two

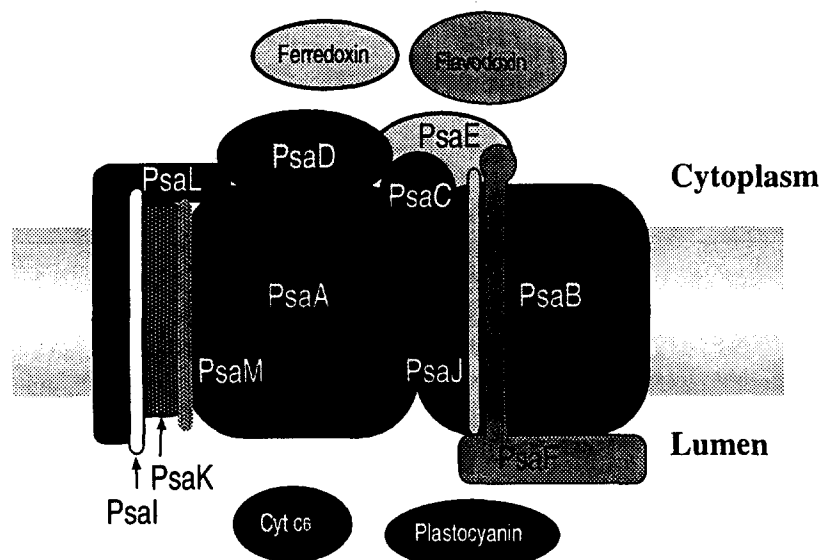


Fig. 2. A model for the organization of PS I polypeptides in cyanobacteria. The rationale behind the specific spatial arrangement shown in the model is discussed in the text and in Table 2. Exact location of PsaM with respect to other subunits is not known. Also, PsaA and PsaB in this model are arbitrarily assigned.

transmembrane helices (j and k in (Krauß et al. 1993)) may belong to PsaL (Chitnis and Chitnis 1993). The crystal-analysis of PS I has indicated locations of the [4Fe-4S] clusters F_X , F_A and F_B , 28 α -helices and 45 Chl a molecules. PsaA and PsaB were proposed to contain eight transmembrane helices each (Krauß et al. 1993). The two core subunits were found to relate to each other by a two-fold rotation symmetry axis that passes through the Fe-S cluster F_X . Although the 6 Å structure has provided some tentative assignments regarding organization of PS I complex, a more accurate assignment of the different protein subunits within the complex could not be accomplished due to the low resolution of this analysis.

Topology of the PS I complex

Biochemical studies have shown that two large subunits (PsaA and PsaB) and some low molecular weight subunits (PsaF, PsaL, PsaK, PsaG, PsaI, PsaJ, and PsaM) are integral membrane-proteins with highly hydrophobic transmembrane domains (Ortiz et al. 1985; Zilber et al. 1990; Tjus and Andersson 1991; Xu et al. 1994c,e). PsaD, PsaC, PsaE, and PsaH are peripheral proteins on the stromal (cytoplasmic) side of photosynthetic membranes (Li et al. 1991a; Tjus and Andersson 1991; Lagoutte and Vallon 1992). PsaN is

a peripheral protein on the lumenal side of membranes (He and Malkin 1992).

What regions of PS I proteins are exposed on the surface? Proteases, and surface-labeling techniques are used to address this question. Early studies demonstrated that the PS I core (PsaA-PsaB) is an integral membrane-proteins complex (Ortiz et al. 1985; Malkin 1986). However, considerable parts of the PsaA-PsaB extend outside the membrane into stroma and lumen (Sadewasser and Sherman 1981; Ortiz et al. 1985). Recent investigations using proteases indicated that the N-terminal domains of PsaA and PsaB in plant and cyanobacterial PS I are more accessible to proteases (Zilber and Malkin 1992; Xu et al. 1994e), suggesting that the C-terminal domains are involved in the formation of PsaA-PsaB heterodimer and in interaction with other subunits. Chemical modification of arginine residues in PsaA-PsaB core and trypsin-treatment of the core indicate that arginyl residues in PsaA-PsaB interact with PsaC (Rodday et al. 1993). Another study using antibodies to synthetic peptides has shown that residues 413–421 of PsaA are exposed on the stromal surface of the membrane (Vallon and Bogorad 1993). Immunogold labeling also indicates that residues 371–379 and 497–505 are exposed on the lumenal surface of the thylakoids (Vallon and Bogorad 1993). Therefore the F_X center and the N-termini of the core proteins is located on the stromal (cytoplasmic) side of the

thylakoids. Accessibility of primary amines to NHS-biotin is yet another criterion used to probe the protein surfaces that are exposed to aqueous phase. Both PsaA and PsaB have surface-exposed lysine residues (Xu et al. 1994b). Further studies are necessary to accurately identify the surface topology of the PS I core.

On the reducing side of PS I, some domains of the PsaD, and PsaE subunits of PS I are exposed to proteases (Zilber and Malkin 1992; Chitnis and Chitnis 1993; Xu et al. 1994c). Only limited cleavage sites are accessible for proteolytic digestion of spinach PsaD (Zilber and Malkin 1992). The N-terminal domain of PsaD, that is absent in the cyanobacterial PS I, is exposed to the stroma whereas the bulk of the protein is protected. Further partial mapping of exposed epitopes indicated that another region between Met 74 and Met 140, that includes a cluster of basic amino acids, is also accessible to proteases (Lagoutte and Vallon, 1992). Proteolytic treatment of spinach PsaE revealed that the N-terminal domain of this protein is also exposed to the stroma (Lagoutte and Vallon, 1992; Zilber and Malkin, 1992). In a detailed topological study of the reducing side of cyanobacterial PS I, the surface-exposed domains were identified using NHS-biotinylation and proteases (Xu et al. 1994b). A lysine-containing region of PsaC and the C-terminal regions of PsaE and PsaD are exposed on the surface of cyanobacterial PS I. In plant PS I, PsaH is also exposed on stromal side, but its surface topology is not known (Zilber and Malkin, 1992).

The topology of smaller hydrophobic proteins of PS I (PsaF, PsaL, PsaK, PsaG, PsaI, PsaJ, and PsaM) is not clearly understood (Zilber and Malkin 1992). In intact plant thylakoids, PsaF is not accessible to proteases. PsaL contains a protease-accessible cleavage site, probably in the loop between two carboxyl-proximal proposed transmembranal spans, indicating that this loop is stromal-exposed. A central part of PsaK is also exposed on the stromal side of the membranes (Zilber and Malkin, 1992). Surface-exposed domains in other PS I subunits are not known.

How are PS I proteins organized with respect to each other? Chemical cross-linking, reconstitution experiments, and phenotypes of subunit-deficient mutants have revealed several subunit interactions in PS I (Table 2). This data can be used to propose a model for the organization of PS I proteins (Fig. 2). PsaD, PsaE and PsaC are in contact with each other and a considerable part of PsaC is probably buried under PsaD and PsaE (Oh-Oka et al. 1989; Xu et al. 1994a). These studies are supported by the analysis of

subunit-specific cyanobacterial mutants. PsaC is more accessible to chaotropic agents in PsaD-less mutant while PsaD and PsaE do not assemble in vivo into PS I of PsaC-less cyanobacterial mutant (Mannan et al. 1994). Cross-linking experiments with glutaraldehyde have identified additional nearest-neighbor pairs in cyanobacterial PS I: PsaD-PsaE, PsaE-PsaF, and PsaL-PsaD (Xu et al. 1994a). Examination of PS I in PsaD-less and PsaL-less strains of *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803 have further confirmed the importance of PsaD-PsaL interaction in their assembly into PS I complex (Xu et al. 1994a). In similar studies, structural interactions between PsaJ and PsaF and between PsaI and PsaL have been shown (Xu et al. 1994d, 1995). PsaL and PsaI are required for the formation of PS I trimers (Chitnis and Chitnis 1993; Xu et al. 1995) and may constitute the connecting domain of PS I, that was identified in X-ray crystallographic analysis (Krauß et al. 1993). The connecting domain may be linked to the catalytic domain through PsaD-PsaL interactions. PsaF and PsaJ may be localized close to each other to the opposite side from the connecting domain. The only transmembrane helices that can be attributed to the PsaK and PsaM hydrophobic subunits are between the connecting domain and the catalytic domain. This placement is consistent with the accessibility of PsaK to proteases in monomeric PS I, but not in trimeric PS I (Chitnis and Chitnis 1993).

Interaction of PS I with soluble electron carriers

Interactions on the reducing side of PS I

The interprotein electron transfer on the reducing side of PS I is a complex process. At least three proteins (PsaC, PsaD, and PsaE) in PS I must interact with ferredoxin for electron transfer to occur (Rousseau et al. 1993; Xu et al. 1994c). The interaction between ferredoxin and PS I involves electron transfer in a series of iron-sulfur centers. Recently, kinetics of reduction of soluble cyanobacterial ferredoxin by cyanobacterial PS I were investigated by flash absorption spectroscopy (Setif and Bottin 1994). This study revealed the existence of three different first order components with $t_{1/2}$ of ~ 500 ns, $20 \mu\text{s}$ and $100 \mu\text{s}$. The 500 ns phase corresponds to electron transfer from F_A/F_B to ferredoxin. These analyses also indicated the presence of at least two types of PS I-ferredoxin complexes, all competent in electron transfer.

Table 2. Subunit Interactions in PS I complex

Subunit	Interacting subunit	Evidence ^a	Reference
PsaA	PsaB	Resolution X-ray	(Fish and Bogorad 1986) (Krauß et al. 1993)
PsaA-PsaB	PsaC	Resolution	(Golbeck et al. 1988)
PsaA-PsaB	PsaD, PsaE Other subunits	Resolution EM X-ray	(Li et al. 1991b) (Kruip et al. 1993) (Krauß et al. 1993)
PsaC	PsaD	Reconstitution Cross-linking Genetic	(Li et al. 1991b) (Oh-Oka et al. 1989; Xu et al. 1994a) (Mannan et al. 1994)
PsaC	PsaE	Cross-linking Genetic	(Oh-Oka et al. 1989; Xu et al. 1994a) (Mannan et al. 1994)
PsaD	PsaE	Reconstitution Cross-linking Topological	(Chitnis and Nelson 1992a) (Oh-Oka et al. 1989; Xu et al. 1994a) (Xu et al. 1994c)
PsaD	PsaL	Cross-linking Topological	(Xu et al. 1994a) (Xu et al. 1994a,e)
PsaE	PsaF	Cross-linking Topological	(D.A. Bryant, personal communication; V.P. Chitnis, P.R. Chitnis, unpublished results) (Xu et al. 1994d,e)
PsaE	PsaJ	Topological	(Xu et al. 1994d)
PsaF	PsaJ	Topological	(Xu et al. 1994d)
PsaI	PsaL	Topological	(Xu et al. 1995)

^a Evidence: The *resolution*-reconstitution experiments show requirement of one protein for reconstitution of the other subunit. *EM* (electron microscopic) and *X-ray* diffraction analysis show interaction between two proteins. Chemical *cross-linking* of two proteins by homo- or hetero-bifunctional reagents demonstrate nearest-neighbor relations between two proteins while the *topological* studies involving treatment with chaotropes and proteases indicate subunit interactions. The absence or decreased accumulation of specific proteins in the subunit-specific *genetic* mutants also indicate assembly requirements and subunit interactions.

Which proteins of PS I interact with ferredoxin? Ferredoxin accepts electrons from F_A-F_B of PsaC, implying that these proteins should contact each other. The physical association between PsaC and ferredoxin has not yet been demonstrated. The major obstacle in the association of PsaC and ferredoxin is the unfavorable electrostatic interactions; both PsaC and ferredoxin have strong electronegative surfaces at the physiological pH. Therefore docking proteins are required to facilitate the interaction by providing clusters of oppositely charged amino acids. PsaD and PsaE are required for the interaction and reduction of ferredoxin (Rousseau et al. 1993; Xu et al. 1994c).

What types of interactions are involved between PS I and ferredoxin? Current evidence suggests that the interactions are electrostatic in nature. Spectroscopic study of ferredoxin reduction by PS I suggests that complex formation precedes electron transfer and the rate constants for complex formation depend on ionic concentration, especially magnesium ions, suggesting electrostatic interactions between ferredoxin and PS I (Hervas et al. 1992; Setif and Bottin 1994). The zero-length cross-linker N-ethyl-3-(dimethylaminopropyl)-carbodiimide, which reacts carboxyl and amino groups of proteins, can be used to cross-link ferredoxin to PsaD (Zanetti and Merati 1987; Zilber and Malkin 1988; Wynn et al. 1989a). The lysyl residue at position

106 of PsaD from *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803 can be cross-linked to the glutamyl residue at the position 93 in ferredoxin from the cyanobacterium (Lelong et al. 1994). The phenotype of PsaD-less cyanobacterial mutants is consistent with the functional requirement of PsaD for ferredoxin-docking (Xu et al. 1994c). The nature of interactions between PsaE and ferredoxin are not known.

Interactions on the oxidizing side of PS I

The interaction of plastocyanin with PS I is not clearly understood. Spectroscopic measurements revealed that two types of interactions between plastocyanin and plant PS I. A fast phase with $t_{1/2}$ of 12–14 μ s and a second slower phase with life-time $t_{1/2}$ of 200 μ s (Haehnel et al. 1980; Bottin and Mathis 1985). The fast rate can be attributed to the association of plastocyanin in the vicinity of P700, whereas the slower phase may represent a distant plastocyanin population (Haehnel et al. 1980; Bottin and Mathis 1985). PsaF is essential for the fast electron transfer (Hippler et al. 1989). In cyanobacteria and algae, plastocyanin and cytochrome c_6 can donate electrons to PS I (Diaz et al. 1994; Hervas et al. 1994). Plastocyanin and Cyt c_6 from *Anabaena* sp. PCC 7119 have similar association constants for the complex formation with spinach PS I (Medina et al. 1993). Thermodynamic analysis has shown that PS I-mediated oxidation of plastocyanin as well as Cyt c_6 from an alga takes place with a two-step kinetics (Diaz et al. 1994). In contrast, laser flash kinetic analysis of cyanobacterial Cyt c_6 and plastocyanin oxidation by PS I suggests an apparent one-step bimolecular collisional mechanism (Hervas et al. 1994). At physiological pH, Cyt c_6 is more efficient than plastocyanin in donating electrons to the cyanobacterial PS I (Hervas et al. 1994).

Which regions in plastocyanin interact with PS I? Site-directed mutagenesis has shown that a hydrophobic region containing Leu12 on the surface of the spinach plastocyanin is crucial for the association and for electron transfer to PS I (Nordling et al. 1991). In a separate study, when Gly10 or Ala90 in a conserved flat hydrophobic surface around the copper ligand His87 of spinach plastocyanin were replaced by the bulky hydrophobic Leu, the formation of the PC-PS I complex was abolished. Therefore, these two residues are part of the structures required for the docking of plastocyanin on PS I and for the efficient electron transfer from plastocyanin to P700⁺ (Haehnel et al. 1994). What constitutes the oxidizing site on the luminal sur-

face of PS I? PsaF has been proposed to function as a docking site for plastocyanin or Cyt c_6 (see earlier discussion on PsaF). However, PsaF is not essential for the electron transfer (Xu et al. 1994e). Based on a low resolution surface fitting model, the helices of PsaA and PsaB that are parallel to the luminal membrane-surface have been proposed to form the plastocyanin-docking site (Fromme et al. 1994). These helices contain a conserved structural motif that is shared by NdhH subunit of NADH:plastoquinone oxidoreductase and the CD helix in L and M subunits of the reaction center of purple bacteria (Kuhn et al. 1994). All these enzymes interact with soluble electron carriers and may have similar mechanism for docking. Functional significance of the putative docking sites on PsaA-PsaB needs to be tested by site-directed mutagenesis.

The current model for the plastocyanin-PS I interaction and electron transfer in plants contains a four-step mechanism (Haehnel et al. 1994). First, long-range electrostatic interactions between the negative patch of plastocyanin and positive residues on PsaF are formed. In a second stage, the flat hydrophobic patch of plastocyanin docks tightly on a hydrophobic site, probably comprised of the two membrane-attached helices, of PsaA-PsaB. These two association steps allow the fast electron transfer with a $t_{1/2}$ of 12–14 μ s. The interaction ends with a facilitated release of the oxidized plastocyanin.

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