

D1 protein of photosystem II: The light sensor in chloroplasts

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Abstract. Light, controls the "blueprint" for chloroplast development, but at high intensities is toxic to the chloroplast. Excessive light intensities inhibit primarily photosystem II electron transport. This results in generation of toxic singlet oxygen due to impairment of electron transport on the acceptor side between pheophytin and Q_B -the secondary electron acceptor. High light stress also impairs electron transport on the donor side of photosystem II generating highly oxidizing species Z^+ and $P680^+$. A conformational change in the photosystem II reaction centre protein D1 affecting its Q_B -binding site is involved in turning the damaged protein into a substrate for proteolysis.

The evidence indicates that the degradation of D1 is an enzymatic process and the protease that degrades D1 protein has been shown to be a serine protease. Although there is evidence to indicate that the chlorophyll *a*-protein complex CP43 acts as a serine-type protease degrading D1, the observed degradation of D1 protein in photosystem II reaction centre particles *in vitro* argues against the involvement of CP43 in D1 degradation. Besides the degradation during high light stress of D1, and to a lesser extent D2-the other reaction centre protein, CP43 and CP29 have also been shown to undergo degradation.

In an oxygenic environment, D1 is cleaved from its N- and C-termini and the disassembly of the photosystem II complex involves simultaneous release of manganese and three extrinsic proteins involved in oxygen evolution. It is known that protein with PEST sequences are subject to degradation; D1 protein contains a PEST sequence adjacent to the site of cleavage on the outer side of thylakoid membrane between helices IV and V.

The molecular processes of "triggering" of D1 for proteolytic degradation are not clearly understood. The changes in structural organization of photosystem II due to generation of oxy-radicals and other highly oxidizing species have also not been resolved. Whether CP43 or a component of the photosystem II reaction centre itself (D1, D2 or *cyl b559* subunits), which may be responsible for degradation of D1, is also subject to light modification to become an active protease, is also not known. The identity of proteases degrading D1, LHCII and CP43 and CP29 remains to be established.

Keywords, Photosystem II; D1 protein turnover; photoinhibition; chloroplast.

1. Light interaction in photosynthetic organisms

Light interception is dependent on the disposition of the photosynthetic tissues related to incoming radiations. In an individual canopy, the photosynthetic tissues orient themselves to maximize interaction with light, but in natural environments the quantity of light received by the leaves is rarely constant even at the top of the canopy.

The simultaneous operation of two photosystems for light dependent cleavage of water and NADP reduction and the fact that the quantum yield of photosynthesis

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is constant under varying light regimes would appear to require that both photosystems have an equal distribution of chlorophyll (chl). In spite of this requirement, the distribution of chl between the two photosystems is uneven; photosystem II (PS II) has larger light harvesting antenna than that of photosystem I (PS I) (Anderson and Osmond 1987). This imbalance in the distribution of chl is more pronounced in plants growing under conditions of shade (shade adapted species). Shade adapted species are characterized by extensive grana stacks and the degree of stacking is reflection of an uneven distribution of chl between the two photosystems. This stacking could be the result of an excess of the light harvesting chl *a/b* -protein complex (LHC II) in shade plants; LHC II may not be functionally associated with any of the photosystems and thus its primary role may be stacking the thylakoids. Grana stacking is one of the intriguing features of thylakoid structure whose functions are not yet clearly understood [stacking does not appear to be a device for increasing interception of light since *in vitro* experiments suggest that grana stacks absorb less light than the unstacked membranes (Jennings and Zucchelli 1985)].

When irradiance is high for a brief period, the attainment of the maximum quantum yield requires that PS II and PS I are excited at appropriate rates. This is achieved at least in part by reversible phosphorylation of small population of the peripheral LHC II of the PS II_{oC} centres that adjusts the relative cross-sections of the photosystems (see Dwivedi and Bhardwaj 1994). The phosphorylation-linked migration of LHC II from the appressed regions of the membrane is known to cause partial destacking as well as increase in PS I photochemistry. Since the PS II is sluggish (low quantum yield) compared to PS I, the coupling of phosphorylated-LHC II with PS I may be to use "sunflecks" and consequently increase cyclic photophosphorylation.

In the short term, the quantum yield of PS II is regulated by the non-photochemical quenching of excitation energy induced by a high transthylakoid Δ pH. This major regulatory response allows harmless dissipation of excess excitation energy as heat in the PS II antenna (Horton 1989). It is of fundamental importance for the protection of the photosynthetic apparatus against photo-destruction. Excess excitation energy must be dissipated to prevent over-reduction of the electron transport components.

Prolonged exposure to light levels where excitation energy exceeds the capacity for carbon assimilation can lead to photoinhibition. Photoinhibition is defined as the reduction in photosynthetic activity by excessive light and is evidenced by loss of quantum efficiency and changes in chl fluorescence characteristics (Powles 1984; Barber and Andersson 1992; Virgin *et al* 1992; Aro *et al* 1993).

Much progress has been made in understanding the molecular architecture of PS II as well as light dependent turnover of the proteins of PS II complex. This review attempts to cover the events that trigger photoinactivation of PS II electron transport during high light stress and the subsequent degradation of D1 protein. An attempt has also been made to highlight areas which need to be explored further.

2. The PS II complex

PS II is a supra-molecular complex made up of at least 25 proteins (see figure 1). A number of proteins bind chl, forming a light harvesting antenna. The smallest PS II reaction centre complex which binds the reaction centre pigment P680, the

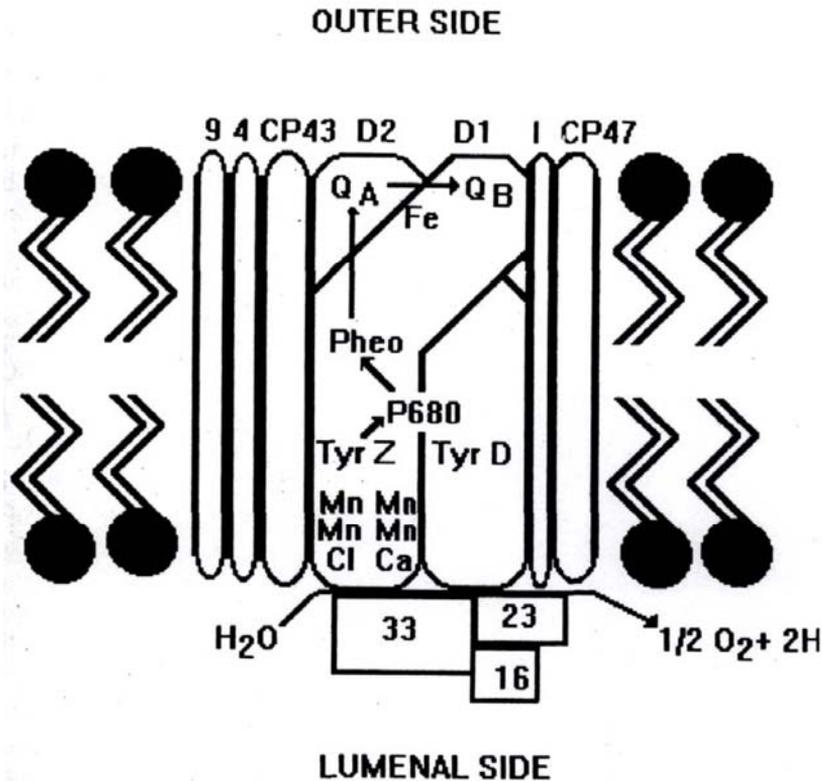


Figure 1. A schematic simplified presentation of the subunit structure of PS II. For simplicity LHC-II and other polypeptides are not shown. The PS II reaction centre consists of heterodimeric D1, D2 proteins and two subunits of *cyt b*₅₉₉. The redox components involved in charge separation and stabilization are bound to heterodimeric D1/D2. 'Z' is Tyr-161 in D1 polypeptide. The heterodimeric reaction centre binds 4-5 chl *a* and two pheophytin and a non-heme iron. Tyr is counter part of Tyr_Z in the side path. The secondary electron acceptors Q_A and Q_B are bound to D1 and D2 polypeptides, respectively. The two light harvesting chlorophyll *a*-protein complexes CP43 and CP47 are also shown. Four Mn atoms forming clusture and probably bound to D1 polypeptide constitute the charge storage catalyst. The other two co-factors Ca²⁺ and Cl⁻ also interact on one side with Mn clusture and stabilize three oxygen evolving extrinsic proteins on the lumenal side. Three extrinsic proteins involved in oxygen evolution are on the lumenal side while all other proteins are transmembrane proteins in the lipid bilayer. "I" is the product of *psbI* gene with a molecular mass of 4-5 kDa. The numbers indicate the molecular masses of the polypeptides. Adapted from the information existing in the literature.

primary acceptor pheophytin as well as the secondary acceptors Q_A and Q_B, consists of D1, D2 and the 9 and 4 kDa subunits of *cyt b* (Nanba and Satoh 1987; Barber *et al* 1987; Marder *et al* 1987). The heterodimeric D1-D2 proteins together bind four chl *a* and two pheophytin molecules. D1 and D2 are thus apoproteins of PS II reaction centre (Mattoo *et al* 1989).

The PS II core complex is composed of two major chl *a* binding antenna proteins CP47 and CP43 which are coded by the chloroplast *psbB* and *psbC* genes, respectively (figure 1). CP29 (Barber and Andersson 1992) and the 22 kDa intrinsic protein

shown to be a chl binding protein by Funk *et al* (1994) recently, form minor components of the light harvesting antenna.

PS II particles in addition to the reaction centre components, also contain three additional proteins-34, 23 and 16 kDa which are involved in oxygen evolution (Kuwabara and Murata 1982; Satoh *et al* 1983; Kuwabara *et al* 1985; Tang and Satoh 1985).

3. The PS II reaction centre D1 protein

3.1 Synthesis of D1 protein

The *psbA* gene, located on chloroplast genome and coding for D1 protein, is in most cases as a single uninterrupted copy in the large single copy (LSC) region near the inverted repeat. The gene location and nucleotide sequence of the gene in different species is highly conserved (< 90%) (Zurawski *et al* 1982; see also Trivedi *et al* 1994). The *psbA* gene is under the control of bacterial like promotor consensus sequences (-10/-35 sequences). The *psbA* promoter is a strongly expressed promoter (Gruissem and Zurawski 1985): any point mutation results in a *down* promoter mutation.

3.1a *Light regulation of D1 synthesis*: Gene transcripts increase substantially during etioplast transformation in light (Link 1982; Fromm *et al* 1985). The transcripts are quite stable in the stroma and their level has not been found to be altered during light-dark transitions. The transcript is probably stabilized by nuclear-coded protein(s) involving 3' inverted repeats of the mRNA (see Aro *et al* 1993).

Light is essential for the translation of the mRNA (Fromm *et al* 1985). Thus, the expression of *psbA* in algae and higher plants is controlled by light at the post-transcriptional or translational level. *psbA* transcripts have been found in non-polysomal fractions in the stromal phase in dark (Klein *et al* 1988). Thus either there may be a block in translation in dark or light promotes engagement of the transcripts into the polysomal fraction. A nuclear-coded 47 kDa protein has been identified to activate translation of the mRNA involving its binding to 5' end in light (see Aro *et al* 1993). The synthesis of complete D1 protein and its stabilization is also under control of transformation of protochlorophyllide to chl in light. The binding of chl to the growing polypeptide chain helps in completion and maturation of D1 protein (Mullet *et al* 1990). No D1 protein synthesis occurs in darkness (see Aro *et al* 1993).

Although there are apparently two initiation codons (met-1 and met-37), it has conclusively been proved that initiation begins at met-1 codon (Eyal *et al* 1987; Michel *et al* 1988) synthesizing a precursor which shows an apparent molecular mass of 33.5 to 34.5 kDa on SDS-PAGE, though from the number of codons in D1 transcript, a 39 kDa polypeptide is predicted (if transcription begins at met-1) (Zurawski *et al* 1982). The precursor is post-translationally processed from its C-terminal end (Marder *et al* 1984; Takahashi *et al* 1988) by probably a loosely bound thylakoid processing enzyme of 34 kDa (Inagaki *et al* 1989) after insertion of the precursor into the thylakoids.

Pulse chase experiments established that D1 protein is initially inserted into stromal lamellae and processed from C-terminal ala 344; the processed D1 protein

is then translocated from stroma to grana lamellae. The signal for translocation of processed D1 to the grana region is not known but the translocation is probably regulated by light-induced conformational change. The translocation of the processed D1 protein could probably be coupled to the increase in its hydrophobicity. Alternatively, stromal membranes being rich in proteins of PS I complex (and consequently more negatively charged stromal lamellae), processed D1 protein may be excluded from stromal region leading to integration of D1 protein in the appressed regions of the thylakoids.

The synthesis and turnover of D1 protein is regulated by light (Mattoo *et al* 1984). At low light ($30 \mu\text{E m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) under steady state conditions, the concentration of D1 protein is 85% and 15% in the grana and stroma, respectively (Callahan *et al* 1990). The half life of D1 protein is dependent on light intensity.

3.2 The structure of D1 protein

The deduced amino acid sequence of the *psbA* gene predicted a hydrophobic nature for D1 protein (Zurawski *et al* 1982) with five transmembrane helices (Trebst 1987). Besides five membrane spanning helices, the protein forms one CD helix (between helices III and IV) on the luminal side and another DE helix (between helices IV and V) on the stromal side. The electron donor to the oxidized P680 Z is a tyr-161 radical of the D1 protein (Barry and Babcock 1987). The helices IV and V are connected to each other by an Fe atom bridged *via* two histidine residues (His-215 and His-272) (figure 2). D1 protein is also connected to D2 protein through this Fe atom involving two other histidine bridges. This area is the Q_B site where plastoquinone (PQ) binds during electron transfer.

The herbicide and Q_B binding niche sites subject to mutations on D1 protein lie in the transmembrane helices IV and V and in the hydrophobic region between helices IV and V on the matrix side (Trebst 1987). All mapped mutations in D1 protein fall between amino acid residues 211 to 275. The mutation in this area does not affect Q_B binding. The amino acids modified by photoaffinity labelling (Oettmeier *et al* 1980; Dostatni *et al* 1988) could well be those that can not be mutated without loss of Q_B function.

3.3 The light dependent photoinactivation of PS II electron transport

The PS II is primary target of attack when plants are exposed to excessive light intensities (Barber and Andersson 1992; Salter *et al* 1992; Aro *et al* 1993). Impairment of PS II electron transport leads to photoinactivation. The impairment of PS II electron transport under excessive light intensities (more than encountered during growth) has been shown to be due to a functional impairment of Q_A on the reducing side of PS II or due to accumulation of highly oxidized species on the donor side of the PS II (see Aro *et al* 1993).

Considerable efforts have been made to identify the sites where photoinhibition starts, but the actual mechanism for light induced irreversible damage of the electron transport chain and the triggering event(s) are not clearly understood.

Two main mechanisms have been proposed: the first, referred to as the "acceptor side" mechanism, implies impairment at the level of secondary electron acceptors Q_A and/or Q_B (Kyle *et al* 1984; Setlik *et al* 1990; Styring *et al* 1990). The second,

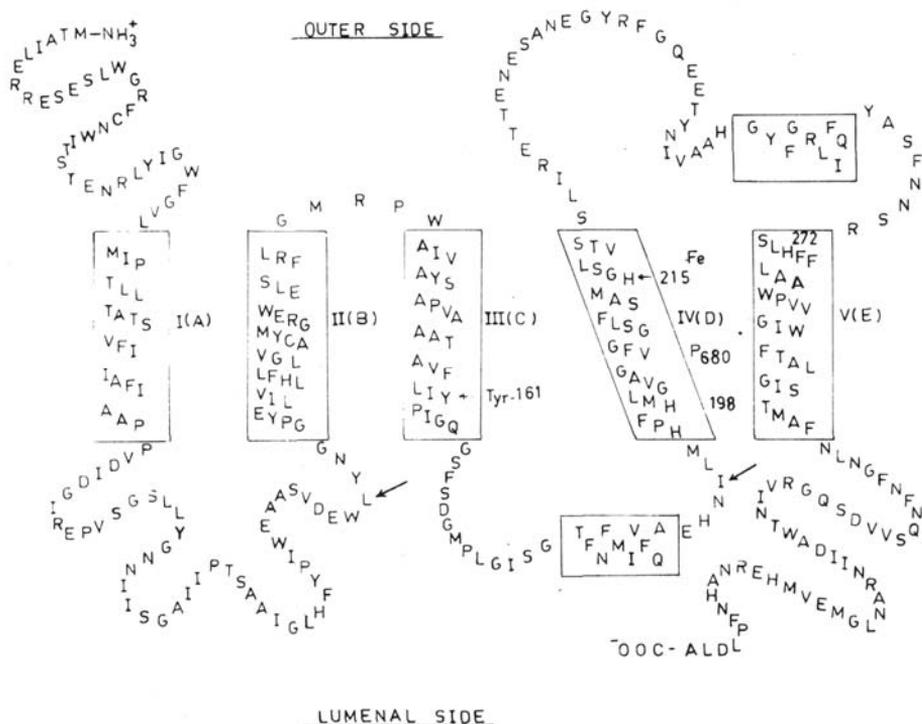


Figure 2. Predicted folding pattern of D1 protein of spinach and possible sites of cleavage of D1 protein during light-induced degradation. The D1 protein forms five transmembrane helices marked as I–V (A–E) as well as forms one CD helix on the luminal side and one DE helix on outer side. The protein sequence has been taken from the literature. Helix D is only expected to be tilted. Z that functions as electron donor to the oxidized P680 is a Tyr-161 (Barry and Babcock 1987). His-198 probably ligates with P680 while His-215 and His-272 stabilize the non-heme iron. The probable sites of cleavage of D1 after photoinactivation are marked with arrows. The model is modified from Barber and Andersson (1992) and is based on Trebst (1987).

referred to as the "donor side" mechanism implies the accumulation of highly oxidizing species such as Tyr^+ and/or P680^+ (Theg *et al* 1986; Jegerschold *et al* 1990).

3.3a The acceptor-side mechanism: Recent experimental evidence suggest that the damage to PS II under photoinhibitory conditions is due to the impairment of PS II electron transport on acceptor side of PS II.

The photoinactivation process during "acceptor side" induced inhibition has been resolved to four sequential stages (see Barber and Andersson 1992; Salter *et al* 1992; Aro *et al* 1993):

(i) Strong illumination leads to over-reduction of PQ which most likely leaves the Q_B site empty resulting in accumulation of an unusually long lived singly reduced Q_A^- with a half-life time of 30 s as compared to few hundred ms for a normally turning over Q_A .

- (ii) The accumulated \bar{Q}_A is stabilized by protonation, yielding $Q_A^-H^+$. The semi-stable intermediate $Q_A^-H^+$ is dark stable and is characterized by an electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR) signal. Only singly reduced Q_A is known to give an EPR signal.
- (iii) Further transition of \bar{Q}_A is characterized by the loss of EPR signal, characteristic of doubly reduced Q_A . This transition of \bar{Q}_A to a more stable state promoted by low pH probably suggests formation of doubly reduced Q_A-H_2 or Q leaves the binding site at the reaction centre (Styring *et al* 1990; Vass *et al* 1993).
- (iv) The final inactivation intermediate, which is the first irreversible one under aerobic conditions, is characterized by non-decaying prompt fluorescence (Fo) and absence of EPR signal. This non-decaying state is suggested to contain reaction centres with an empty Q_A site (see Aro *et al* 1993).

It has been demonstrated that the amount of Q_A lost from the photoinactivated PS II centres during photoinhibitory treatment of PS II core particles co-relates with the proportion of non-decaying centres, supporting the concept that Q_A leaves the reaction centre site (Styring *et al* 1990).

The photoinhibitory damage to PS II particles under aerobic and anaerobic conditions during photoinhibition are quite contrasting but expected. Strong illumination under aerobic conditions leads quickly to irreversible impairment of PS II electron transport and to the subsequent degradation of DI protein.

However, under anaerobic conditions, the recovery from the first three stages of photoinactivation is almost complete (see Aro *et al* 1993). Diuron has been shown to block the recovery process which suggests that recovery involves the re-establishment of electron transport between Q_A to Q_B (Mattoo *et al* 1984, 1989).

In the absence of a functional Q_A , a chl triplet state is formed (3P68O). The formation of chl triplets under photoinhibitory anaerobic conditions has been detected by EPR spectroscopy. Under aerobic conditions, oxygen quenches the triplet state, generating singrefoxygen and other oxygen-free radicals (Asada and Takahashi 1987; Prasil *et al* 1992). The involvement of oxygen-free radicals in DI degradation has been established using free radical scavengers (Sopory *et al* 1990; Mishra *et al* 1994) (see § 3.4).

3.3b The donor-side mechanism: The donor side induced mechanism of photoinactivation of PS II electron transport has been studied using thylakoids or PS II particles pre-treated with hydroxylamine (Blubaugh and Cheniae 1990) or that were chloride-depleted (Jegerschold *et al* 1990) or using site directed mutants in which the donor side ligands were altered (van der Bolt and Vermass 1992).

Donor side inactivation is due to impairment of PS II electron transport between the Mn cluster of the oxygen-evolving complex and P680 (Blubaugh and Cheniae 1990; Jegerschold *et al* 1990). In hydroxylamine treated PS II membranes, three kinetically distinguishable steps have been characterized (Blubaugh and Cheniae 1990); the first step is the decrease in the rate of electron transfer from Z to P680 probably followed by the loss of Z^+ . The second phase is slow and possibly is related with the loss of Ty_{rD} . In chloride depleted thylakoid membranes, both the inhibition of oxygen evolution and DI protein degradation is 15–20 times more sensitive. The protective effect of diuron (DCMU) in chloride depleted thylakoid membranes and the inhibition of diphenyl carbazide dependent indophenol (DPC \rightarrow DCIP) reduction under high photon flux density (PFD) suggests accumulation of $P680^+$ and/or Z^+ which trigger the degradation of DI protein.

In two site-directed D2 mutants of the cyanobacterium *Synechocystis*, the rate of photoinactivation of the PS II electron transport was found to be greater than in the wild type (van der Bolt and Vermaas 1992). Similarly, in another mutant in which the presumed ligand (His-197) to P680 was changed, leading to a decrease in the operating redox mid-point potential of the P680/P680⁺ couple, the rate of photoinactivation of the PS II electron transport was also greater than in the wild type (van der Bolt and Vermaas 1992). These results have been explained in terms of accumulation of oxidizing Z⁺/P680⁺.

Photoinhibition of photosynthesis appears to be an inevitable consequence of complicated redox photo-chemistry during the electron transfer from Z to PQ (Powles 1984; Andersson and Styring 1991; Barber and Andersson 1992; Prasil *et al* 1992; Salter *et al* 1992; Virgin *et al* 1992; Aro *et al* 1993). Both the synthesis and degradation of the D1 reaction center protein of PS II is regulated by light; but under high PFD, the rate of degradation is a function of light intensity. The restoration of PS II functions requires the degradation and removal of the degraded subunits of D1 protein followed by reinsertion of a fresh copy of D1 protein in the damaged reaction centre.

3.4 The degradation of D1 protein

Early *in vitro* studies on isolated pea and *Chlamydomonas* thylakoids demonstrated disappearance of 32 kDa-Q_B protein during photoinhibition (Mattoo *et al* 1984; Ohad *et al* 1985). The degradation products were identified as high molecular weight aggregates and these aggregates included the degradation products of D1 protein besides PS II subunits on SDS-PAGE (Schuster *et al* 1989). It was concluded that an intrinsic thylakoid protease is responsible for the D1 degradation after some strong light induced conformational change (Ohad *et al* 1985).

D1 protein degradation has been studied *in vivo* (Kyle 1987; Mattoo *et al* 1989; Prasil *et al* 1992; Salter *et al* 1992; Virgin *et al* 1992). The degradation of D1 polypeptide can also be observed *in vitro* (Andersson and Styring 1991; Barber and Andersson 1992). The degradation of D1 protein has been demonstrated after photoinhibition of isolated thylakoid preparations (Virgin *et al* 1988; Richter *et al* 1990), PS II preparations (Hundal *et al* 1990), PS II core preparations (Virgin *et al* 1990, 1992) and isolated reaction centre particles.

3.4a Light dependence of modification in the D1 protein: The induction of degradation of D1 is light dependent (Mattoo *et al* 1984; Salter *et al* 1992; Barbato *et al* 1992), but the degradation can proceed in total darkness after triggering event (Aro *et al* 1990). The degradation of D1 protein using PS II core preparations of Nanba and Satoh (1987) consisting of reaction center polypeptides CP47 and CP43 (Salter *et al* 1992) was studied. No proteolysis of D1 protein was observed unless photo-illuminated, suggesting that only the "light-triggered" D1 protein is subject to degradation (Salter *et al* 1992). PS II core particles photo-illuminated at low temperature were subject to degradation in dark at room temperature, suggesting that triggering of D1 is independent of degradation (Salter *et al* 1992).

The "light-triggered" D1 protein probably represents a modified form of D1 which is marked for degradation. The exact nature of light-triggered modification of D1 protein is not clear. However, the triggering event(s) leading to accumulation

of photodamaged D1 protein appear to be related to phosphorylation of D1 protein and/or conformational change(s) in the D1 protein induced by higher oxidizing species (Z^+ and $P680^+$) and oxygen-free radicals generated during photoinhibitory conditions. The loss of manganese (van-Wijk *et al* 1992) and the conversion of D1 protein into a low-mobility form designated as $D1^*$ (Callahan *et al* 1990) are indicators of the conformational change(s) in the D1 protein. A conformational change in the D1 protein on the Q_B -binding site is involved in converting the D1 into a substrate for proteolysis (Andersson 1994).

(i) *Role of oxygen-free radicals*: The triggering event(s) appears to be co-related with modification in D1 protein brought about by oxygen-free radicals generated during photoinhibitory conditions in an oxygenic environment (Sopory *et al* 1990; Mishra *et al* 1994). The free radical scavengers propylgallate and uric acid were (Sopory *et al* 1990) and histidine and rutin (Mishra *et al* 1994) were shown to inhibit D1 degradation. Concomitant with degradation of D1 in core particles during exposure to high light in oxygenic environment, there was significant disappearance of CP43 and CP29 as well as photobleaching of pigments (Mishra *et al* 1994). These results clearly establish that singlet oxygen and other oxygen-free radicals trigger a possible conformational change followed by proteolysis. However, data can not be taken as proof of autoproteolytic degradation of PS II reaction centre/core proteins.

(ii) *Phosphorylation induced modification of D1 protein*: The light dependent modification of D1 protein is its transformation to $D1^*$ (Callahan *et al* 1990). D1 protein can be converted into $D1^*$ *in vitro* in the non-photoinactivated thylakoids under conditions favouring protein phosphorylation (Aro *et al* 1993). In fact, D1 protein is one of the phosphoproteins observed *in vivo*. Thus, Andersson and co-workers (Aro *et al* 1993) concluded that the $D1^*$ form seen during electrophoresis represents the phosphorylated form of the D1 protein. It is relevant to point out that the $D1^*$ is present in the appressed membranes only (Callahan *et al* 1990) which are densely packed with PS II complex. Further, the ratio of D1/ $D1^*$ is dependent on light intensity (see Aro *et al* 1993). However, conversion of D1 protein to $D1^*$ is not a prerequisite for the degradation of D1 protein since no $D1^*$ formation was observed in light in isolated thylakoids in which the PS II electron transport on donor or acceptor side had been knocked out (see Aro *et al* 1993). This is an erroneous conclusion since light dependent phosphorylation of PS II proteins is not likely to occur under these conditions since phosphorylation is dependent on the activation of the kinase controlled by the redox state of cyt b_6-f (see Dwivedi and Bhardwaj 1994).

PS II proteins D1, D2, CP43, CP29, 9 kDa protein and the 27 and 25 kDa polypeptides of peripheral LHC II are known to be phosphorylated in light. It is interesting to note that except for the 9 kDa protein, these phosphoproteins are also subject to degradation in light (see also Andersson and Styring 1991). The degradation of phospho-LHC II in the unappressed regions of thylakoids has recently been shown (Andersson 1994; also personal communication).

It must be pointed out here that in many lower photosynthetic organisms, the light induced degradation of the D1 protein readily occurs without the phosphorylation of D1 protein (see Aro *et al* 1993). Thus, phosphorylation may not be prerequisite for D1 degradation *in vivo*.

3.4b *D1 degradation as an enzymatic process*: From the existing reports in literature, it is clear that light "triggered" or light activated D1 protein is a substrate for enzymatic degradation (and not simply photocleavage) since (i) the degradation could occur in complete darkness and at room temperature after previous exposure to high PFD under cold conditions (Aro *et al* 1990), (ii) the protein does not undergo a total cleavage and (iii) inhibitors of protease block the degradation of D1 protein. The degradation of D1 protein was inhibited by diisopropyl fluorophosphate (DFP) (Virgin *et al* 1991) and it was shown that 43 kDa (CP43) binds one molecule of DFP (Salter *et al* 1992). These results led Andersson and coworkers (Salter *et al* 1992) to suggest that CP43 may act as a serine type of protease using "triggered" D1 as the substrate for proteolysis (Callahan *et al* 1990). It is pertinent to mention that CP43 contains numerous serines, histidines and aspartates, the typical relay system in serine proteases. However, the observed degradation of D1 protein in PS II reaction centre particles (Barbato *et al* 1991), which lack CP43 argues against involvement of CP43 in D1 protein degradation. It may be possible that one of the components of the reaction centre itself may act as a protease since D1 protein degradation has been observed using reaction centre particles. The involvement of components of reaction centre or core complex also appears to be doubtful since D1 protein and to a lesser extent D2 (Andersson 1994) as well as CP43 and CP29 (Mishra *et al* 1994) are themselves subject to degradation in high light. Since the degradation proceeds both from luminal (N-terminal) and stromal sides (C-terminal), more than one protease may possibly be involved.

Different patterns for D1 protein degradation have been reported under different experimental conditions (Barbato *et al* 1991; Aro *et al* 1993). The D1 protein is thought to be cleaved during light induced turnover *in vivo* at or close to the QEEE sequence (Greenberg *et al* 1987) or at residue 238, both located in the loop on the outer side between helices IV and V.

Light dependent proteolysis of D1 protein gives rise to primary degradation fragments 23 and 16 kDa, in addition to 14, 13 and 10 kDa fragments (Salter *et al* 1992). Using ³²P-labelled D1 protein and sequence specific antisera, 23 and 16 kDa fragments were found to be degradation products originating from N- and C-termini of D1 protein (Salter *et al* 1992). The primary cleavage yielding N-terminal 23 kDa and a C-terminal 16 kDa is likely to occur at the exposed regions on the outer thylakoid surface between transmembrane helices IV and V of the D1 protein, as has been previously suggested (Mattoo *et al* 1989). The degradation products of D1 protein during donor side inactivation have been shown to be C-terminal 24 and 16 kDa fragments and an N-terminal 10 kDa fragment (Salter *et al* 1992; Barbato *et al* 1992).

The data of Friso *et al* (1993) suggest concurrent operation of both mechanisms leading to degradation of D1 protein. Further, since the D1 protein is cleaved both from C- and N-termini as well as from the outer and inner sides, more than one protease is expected to be involved. It remains to be established if CP43, acting as a serine type protease, also undergoes any modification/conformational change triggered by light, to be an active protease.

An aspect of photoinhibition which has not been touched in this review is the role of carotenoids in protection from photodamage. However, D1 turnover is known to occur even at low light intensities. The purpose of turnover of PS II proteins

cannot be photoprotection of PS II. It appears to be a consequence of the complicated PS II photochemistry in oxygenic environment and may result in down regulation of photosynthesis under intense light. Efforts should also be made to redesign D1 protein using site-directed mutagenesis, which will not be subject to photodamage.

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