

Regulating photoprotection improves photosynthetic growth and biomass production in Q_C-site mutant cells of the cyanobacterium *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803

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Abstract

We characterized the photosynthetic growth of wild-type (WT) and Q_C-site mutant cells of the cyanobacterium *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803 grown in a photobioreactor under medium-intensity [$\sim 70 \mu\text{mol}(\text{photon}) \text{m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$] and high-intensity [$\sim 200 \mu\text{mol}(\text{photon}) \text{m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$] light conditions. Photosynthetic growth rate (the exponential phase) increased about 1.1–1.2 fold for the A16FJ, S28A β , and V32F β mutant compared with WT cells under medium-intensity light and about 1.2–1.3 fold under high-intensity light. Biomass production increased about 17–20% for A16FJ and S28A β mutant cells as compared with WT cells under medium-intensity light and about 14–17% for A16FJ and V32F β mutant cells under high-intensity light. The greater photosynthetic growth rate and biomass production of these Q_C-site mutant cells could be attributed to the increased photosynthesis efficiency and decreased dissipation of wasteful energy from phycobilisomes in mutants vs. WT cells. Our results support that manipulation of photoprotection may improve photosynthesis and biomass production of photosynthetic organisms.

Additional key words: cytochrome *b*₅₅₉; photosynthesis; photosystem II; photoprotection; Q_C.

Introduction

Cyanobacteria have developed short-term light adaption mechanisms to regulate excitation energy transfer from the antenna complex (phycobilisome) to the photosystems to optimize photosynthesis efficiency and to protect the photosynthetic apparatus against photodamage. The two major mechanisms are state transitions (Bruce *et al.* 1989, Mullineaux and Allen 1990, Kondo *et al.* 2009) and orange carotenoid protein (OCP)-related nonphotochemical fluorescence quenching (NPQ) (Wilson *et al.* 2006, Kirilovsky 2015, Kirilovsky and Kerfeld 2016).

The state transition mechanism in cyanobacteria regulates the distribution of excitation energy from the phycobilisome to the two photosystems depending on changes in the redox state of the plastoquinone (PQ) pool by illumination conditions (Bruce *et al.* 1989, Mullineaux and Allen 1990, Kondo *et al.* 2009). In cyanobacteria, state 1, which enhances excitation energy transfer from the phycobilisome to PSII over PSI, is triggered by an oxidized PQ pool (induced by blue or far-red light),

whereas state 2, which enhances excitation energy transfer to PSI over PSII, is triggered by a reduced PQ pool (induced by orange light or dark adaptation). In addition, state transitions in cyanobacteria may involve relative movements between phycobilisome and/or photosystems, but the molecular mechanism is unclear (Kirilovsky 2015).

The OCP-related NPQ mechanism occurs in many cyanobacteria including the cyanobacterium *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803 (Wilson *et al.* 2006, Kirilovsky 2015, Kirilovsky and Kerfeld 2016). On absorbing blue-green light, the OCP undergoes conformational changes into the active red form, which interacts with the allophycocyanin core of the phycobilisome to induce the NPQ effect (dissipate excess light energy as heat) and thereby protect PSII reaction centers against photodamage. When blue-green (or white) light intensity is diminished, the red form of OCP is deactivated and released from the phycobilisome by the action of the fluorescence recovery protein, which stops the NPQ effect (Boulay *et al.* 2010).

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Abbreviations: Chl – chlorophyll; Cyt – cytochrome; F_m – the maximal fluorescence yield; F_{m, dark} – the maximal fluorescence yield in the dark; F₀ – the dark fluorescence yield; HP – high-potential form; IP – intermedium potential form; LP – low-potential form; NPQ – nonphotochemical fluorescence quenching; OCP – orange carotenoid proteins; PQ – plastoquinone; WT – wild-type control *Synechocystis* strain constructed in the same manner as site-directed mutants but with no mutation.

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A novel PQ molecule (Q_C) and its diffusion channel were discovered in the 2.9-Å resolution X-ray crystallographic structure model of PSII for the cyanobacterium *Thermosynechococcus elongatus* (Guskov *et al.* 2009, Müh *et al.* 2012). The head group of the Q_C molecule, situated in a hydrophobic environment, is constituted by the tails of lipids, Q_B , and a carotenoid molecule; the Q_C tail locates in a hydrophobic cavity surrounded by the transmembrane helices of cytochrome (Cyt) b_{559} α and β subunits and PsbJ, which is connected to the internal space of the thylakoid membranes. The Q_C site was proposed to function in exchange of PQ/PQH₂ on the Q_B site from the pool (Kaminskaya *et al.* 2007a,b) or to modulate the redox potential and reactivity of Cyt b_{559} (Kruk and Strzalka 1999, 2001; Bondarava *et al.* 2003, Guskov *et al.* 2009, Müh *et al.* 2012, Kaminskaya and Shuvalov 2013). However, recent high-resolution crystal structure models of PSII from *T. vulcanus* showed no occupancy of PQ on the Q_C site (Umena *et al.* 2011, Suga *et al.* 2015), possibly because of a loose binding of PQ to the Q_C site (Hasegawa and Noguchi 2014). The function of the Q_C site is still unclear.

To reveal the physiological function of the Q_C site in PSII, several Cyt b_{559} and PsbJ mutant cells with mutations on and near the Q_C site and near the opening of the proposed Q_C transfer channel in PSII were constructed and characterized in *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803 (Huang *et al.* 2016). Several Q_C -site mutant cells (*e.g.*, A16FJ, S28A β , and V32F β) showed a greater increase in PSII fluorescence yield than wild-type (WT) cells under medium-

intensity blue-light illumination because of enhanced transition from state 2 to 1. In addition, these Q_C -site mutant cells showed weakened effects of OCP-mediated NPQ under strong blue-light illumination (Huang *et al.* 2016). The results suggest that the mutations on the Q_C site of PSII may modulate short-term light adaptations of the photosynthetic apparatus (state transition and OCP-mediated NPQ) in *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803. In addition, these Q_C -site mutant cells (A16FJ, S28A β , and V32F β) showed greater photosynthetic growth and biomass production (about 1.1-fold and 30–40%, respectively) than that of WT cells under normal growth conditions [continuous illumination at $\sim 30 \mu\text{mol}(\text{photon}) \text{m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ and 30°C]. The improved photosynthesis and growth characteristics of these mutant cyanobacteria are intriguing because of their potential applications in enhancing the production of biofuels or valuable bioproducts of cyanobacteria.

In this work, in order to test whether these Q_C -site mutant cells show improved photosynthesis under different light conditions, we characterized the photosynthetic growth and biomass production of WT and Q_C -site mutant cells grown in a photobioreactor under both medium- and high-intensity light conditions. In addition, we characterized the redox properties of Cyt b_{559} in WT and Q_C -site mutant PSII core complexes. We discussed the potential applications of mutant cyanobacteria for enhancing the production of biofuels or valuable bioproducts of cyanobacteria.

Materials and methods

Growth and preparation of *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803 cells: WT and mutant *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803 cells were grown photoautotrophically in BG-11 medium in a growth chamber or photobioreactor (*Multi-Cultivator MC 1000-OD*, *Photon Systems Instruments*, Czech Republic) at 30°C under the light intensity conditions described in the figure legends. The construction of WT and mutant strains has been previously described (Huang *et al.* 2016). Cultures were continuously bubbled with sterile humidified air. Liquid cultures in exponential growth (OD_{730} : 0.7–1.2) were harvested and used for chlorophyll (Chl) fluorescence and functional analysis.

Biomass determination: An amount of 50 ml of culture in the photobioreactor was harvested after 120 h and concentrated to about 5 ml by centrifugation, then oven-dried in aluminium dishes for 24 h at 105°C. After being cooled to room temperature, dry mass was determined (Page *et al.* 2012, Huang *et al.* 2016).

Chl *a* fluorescence measurements at 22°C involved a dual pulse-amplitude-modulation (PAM) fluorometer (Walz, Germany). An amount of 16 $\mu\text{g}(\text{Chl})$ of WT or mutant cells was diluted into BG-11 medium (to a total volume of 1.6 mL), held at 22°C in a stirred, water-jacketed cell and

dark-adapted for 5 min. Time-dependent flash-induced transients of PSII fluorescence yield were recorded by using the automated Induction and Recovery Curve routine provided by the *DualPAM* software.

Preparation of His-tagged PSII core complexes: Oxygen-evolving His-tagged PSII core complexes were isolated from WT and mutant cells containing a His-tag on their CP47 proteins by using nickel-nitrilotriacetic acid affinity chromatography as described by Hung *et al.* (2010).

Reduced minus oxidized difference spectra of Cyt b_{559} in WT and mutant PSII core complexes: Optical absorption difference was measured in suspensions of WT and mutant PSII core complexes [$20 \mu\text{g}(\text{Chl}) \text{mL}^{-1}$] in 1 mL of MMNB buffer (25 mM MES, 5 mM MgCl_2 , 10 mM NaCl, 1 M glycine betaine, 0.03% β -DM, pH 5.7) at room temperature, on a *Perkin Elmer Lambda 35* UV/VIS spectrophotometer, with band width 0.5 nm. Four-step redox titration was performed as described by Chiu *et al.* (2013). The sample suspension was oxidized by adding 0.1 mM $\text{K}_3\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6$ (from a freshly made 10 mM stock solution), and the spectrum was recorded and stored as the oxidized spectrum. The sequential reduction of cytochromes

involved first adding hydroquinone (0.3 mM), followed by ascorbate (0.6 mM) and finally 2.5 mM dithionite (from a freshly made 500 mM stock solution).

Photosynthetic oxygen evolution: Steady-state rates of oxygen evolution were measured by using a Clark-type oxygen electrode (*YSI model 5331* oxygen probe, USA) fitted with a water-jacketed cell. An amount of 20 μg (Chl) of WT or mutant PSII core complexes was diluted into the

Results

Photosynthetic growth rate and biomass production of Qc-site mutant cells: Fig. 1 shows the photosynthetic growth curves for WT, A16FJ, S28A β , and V32F β mutant cells grown in the photobioreactor under white-LED-light illumination at medium intensity [$\sim 70 \mu\text{mol}(\text{photon}) \text{m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$] and high intensity [$\sim 200 \mu\text{mol}(\text{photon}) \text{m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$]. Photosynthetic growth rate (the exponential phase) was greater for A16FJ, S28A β , and V32F β mutant than that of WT cells under both light conditions (Fig. 1, Table 1). The doubling time of the exponential phase growth rate was 9.5, 8.1, 7.7, and 8.4 h for the WT, A16FJ, S28A β , and V32F β mutant cells under medium-intensity light, respectively, and 9.8, 7.8, 7.8, and 7.6 h under high-intensity light, respectively (Table 1). After the exponential phase, photosynthetic growth of S28A β mutant cells was significantly slower than that of WT and other mutant cells possibly because of photoinhibition under high-intensity light. In addition, biomass concentration calculated for 5-d cultures of A16FJ, S28A β , and V32F β mutant cells was about 1.17-, 1.20-, and 1.02-fold higher, respectively, than for WT cells under medium-intensity light and about 1.14-, 0.95-, and 1.17-fold under high-intensity light, respectively (Table 1). Therefore, biomass production significantly increased in A16FJ and S28A β mutant cells under medium-intensity light and in A16FJ and V32F β mutant cells under high-intensity light as compared with WT cells. Furthermore, photosynthetic growth rates and biomass production of WT and most mutant cells showed little or no increase under high- than medium-intensity light [~ 200 vs. $\sim 70 \mu\text{mol}(\text{photon}) \text{m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$]. Our results suggested that under $\sim 200 \mu\text{mol}(\text{photon}) \text{m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ light, a large portion of light energy was not utilized by mutant and WT cells for photosynthetic growth but likely dissipated as heat *via* the NPQ effect.

PSII fluorescence yield in the presence and absence of blue actinic light: Fig. 2 shows the changes in time-dependent flash-induced PSII fluorescence yield for WT and mutant cells under low-intensity blue actinic light [$\sim 30 \mu\text{mol}(\text{photon}) \text{m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$] followed by a period of recovery without actinic light. WT and mutant cultures were propagated in the bioreactor under continuous illumination of white-LED light at $\sim 70 \mu\text{mol}(\text{photon}) \text{m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$. In cyanobacteria, dark conditions induce the state 2. With

oxygen assay buffer (1 M sucrose, 50 mM MES, 25 mM CaCl_2 , 10 mM NaCl, pH 6.5) held at 25°C in a stirred, water-jacketed cell. Amounts of 1 mM potassium ferricyanide and 0.4 mM 2,6-dichloro-*p*-benzoquinone were added as an artificial electron acceptor into the oxygen assay buffer (to a total volume of 1.6 mL) (Chiu *et al.* 2013). Saturating illumination was provided from both sides of the water-jacketed cell by two fiber-optic illuminators (*Dolan-Jenner model MI 150*, USA).

$\sim 30 \mu\text{mol}(\text{photon}) \text{m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ blue actinic light, the increase in PSII fluorescence yield (due to the transition to the state 1) was greater in A16FJ, S28A β , and V32F β mutant cells (Fig. 2B–D) than that of WT cells (Fig. 2A). With $\sim 250 \mu\text{mol}(\text{photon}) \text{m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ blue actinic light, WT cells showed a strong quenching in PSII fluorescence yield (Fig. 3A). In contrast, A16FJ, S28A β , and V32F β mutant cells showed

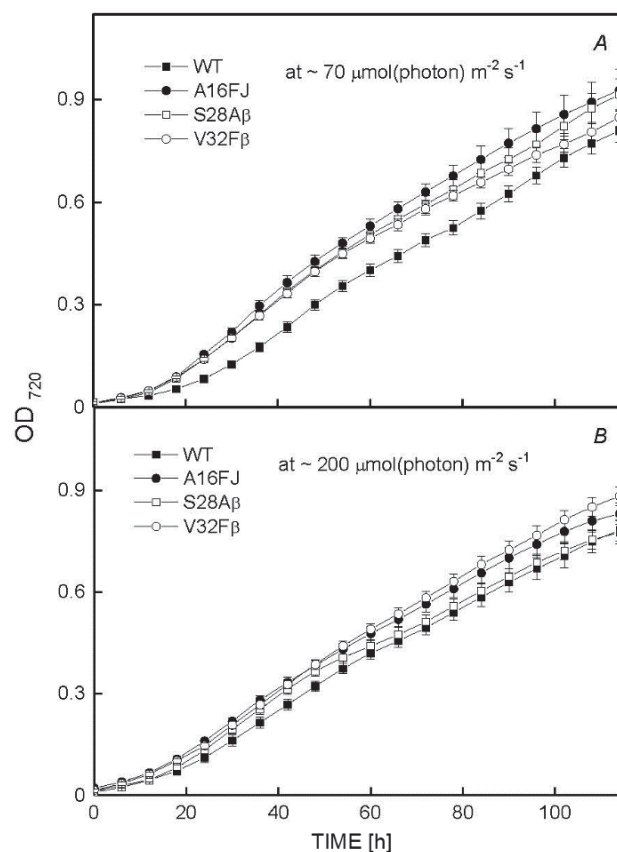


Fig. 1. Photosynthetic growth curves for wild-type (WT) and Qc-site mutant cells of the cyanobacterium *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803 grown in the *Multi-Cultivator MC 1000-OD* photobioreactor under medium-intensity light [$\sim 70 \mu\text{mol}(\text{photon}) \text{m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$] (A) and high-intensity light [$\sim 200 \mu\text{mol}(\text{photon}) \text{m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$] (B) (continued illumination with white LED light). The photosynthetic growth of the cultures was monitored by optical density 720 nm (OD_{720}) which measures light scattering. Data are mean $\pm$ SE of 3–5 independent experiments.

Table 1. Photosynthetic growth rates and biomass production in wild-type (WT) and A16FJ, S28A β , and V32F β Qc-site mutant cells of the cyanobacterium *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803. Cultures were grown in a photobioreactor at 30°C in ambient air and under continuous illumination [~ 70 or ~ 200 $\mu\text{mol}(\text{photon}) \text{m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$]. Photosynthetic growth rates were measured in the exponential phase of growth. Biomass concentrations of cultures were measured after about 120 h of growth. Data are mean $\pm$ SE from three independent experiments.

Light intensity [$\mu\text{mol}(\text{photon}) \text{m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$]	Strain	Doubling time [h]	Biomass concentration [mg mL $^{-1}$] (fold biomass of WT)
70	WT	9.5 $\pm$ 1.0	0.59 $\pm$ 0.04
	A16FJ	8.1 $\pm$ 0.3	0.69 $\pm$ 0.08 (1.17)
	S28A β	7.7 $\pm$ 0.8	0.71 $\pm$ 0.06 (1.20)
	V32F β	8.4 $\pm$ 0.2	0.60 $\pm$ 0.02 (1.02)
200	WT	9.8 $\pm$ 0.8	0.59 $\pm$ 0.03
	A16FJ	7.8 $\pm$ 0.6	0.67 $\pm$ 0.05 (1.14)
	S28A β	7.8 $\pm$ 0.1	0.56 $\pm$ 0.03 (0.95)
	V32F β	7.6 $\pm$ 0.4	0.69 $\pm$ 0.01 (1.17)

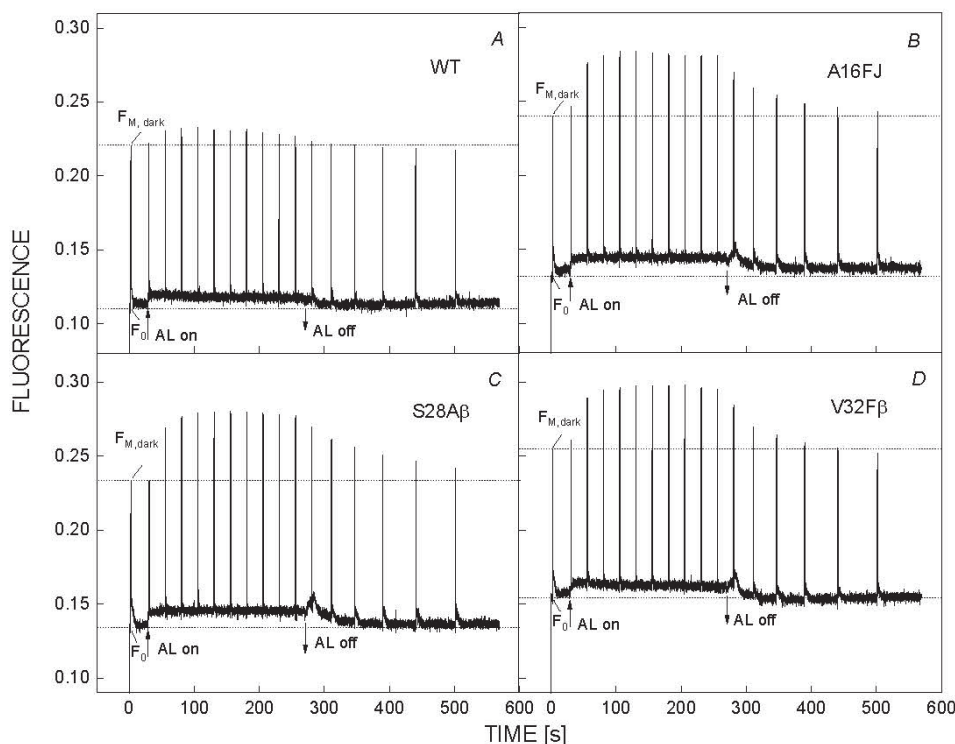


Fig. 2. Time-dependent flash-induced PSII fluorescence yield for WT (A), A16FJ (B), S28A β (C), and V32F β mutant cells (D) with and without low-intensity blue actinic light [light intensity of ~ 30 $\mu\text{mol}(\text{photon}) \text{m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$]. WT and mutant cultures were propagated in the photobioreactor under medium-intensity white LED light [~ 70 $\mu\text{mol}(\text{photon}) \text{m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$] and 30°C.

a slight increase in PSII fluorescence yield initially (due to the transition to state 1) and then exhibited a weakened effect of blue-light-induced NPQ than that of WT cells (Fig. 3B–D). A16FJ, S28A β , and V32F β mutations on and near the Q_C site in PSII may have a distinct inhibitory effect on OCP-mediated NPQ in mutant cells.

Determination of different potential forms of Cyt *b*₅₅₉ in WT and mutant PSII core complexes: To estimate the potential forms of Cyt *b*₅₅₉ in WT and mutant PSII core

complexes, we measured reduced minus oxidized optical difference spectra of the Cyt *b*₅₅₉ heme in WT, S28A β , and A16FJ mutant oxygen-evolving PSII core complexes by using four-step titration (Fig. 4). A hydroquinone-reduced minus ferricyanide-oxidized absorption difference spectrum (HF; Fig. 4, dashed line) was used to estimate the high potential (HP) form of Cyt *b*₅₅₉, and an ascorbate-reduced minus hydroquinone-oxidized absorption difference spectrum (AH; Fig. 4, thin line) was used to estimate the intermediate potential form of Cyt *b*₅₅₉. The dithionite-

reduced minus ascorbate-oxidized absorption difference spectrum (DA; Fig. 4, thick line) of Cyt b_{559} contains both the low-potential (LP) form of Cyt b_{559} and Cyt c_{550} . Because at 559.5 nm, Cyt c_{550} does not contribute significantly to the difference spectrum (Hung *et al.* 2010), we used the amplitude of DA absorption difference spectra at 559.5 nm to estimate the amount of the LP form of Cyt b_{559} . The oxygen-evolving WT PSII core complexes (Fig. 4A, Table 2) contained ~7% of the HP form, ~65%

of the IP form, and ~28% of the LP form of Cyt b_{559} . The ratios of redox potential forms of Cyt b_{559} were similar for A16FJ and S28A β mutant and WT PSII core complexes (Fig. 4 and Table 2), except that the LP form of Cyt b_{559} was slightly higher (~12%) for the S28A β mutant than that of WT PSII core complexes. Hence, the structure and redox properties of Cyt b_{559} in A16FJ and S28A β mutant PSII core complexes were mostly intact.

Discussion

We found photosynthetic growth rate (the exponential phase) and biomass production greater for most of Q_C-site mutant cells (A16FJ, V32F β , and S28A β) than that of WT cells under different growth-light conditions [ranging from

~30 $\mu\text{mol}(\text{photon})\text{ m}^{-2}\text{ s}^{-1}$ (Huang *et al.* 2016) to ~70 and ~200 $\mu\text{mol}(\text{photon})\text{ m}^{-2}\text{ s}^{-1}$ (this study)]. These Q_C-site mutant cells showed significant enhancement of the transition from state 2 to 1 during low-to-medium-intensity

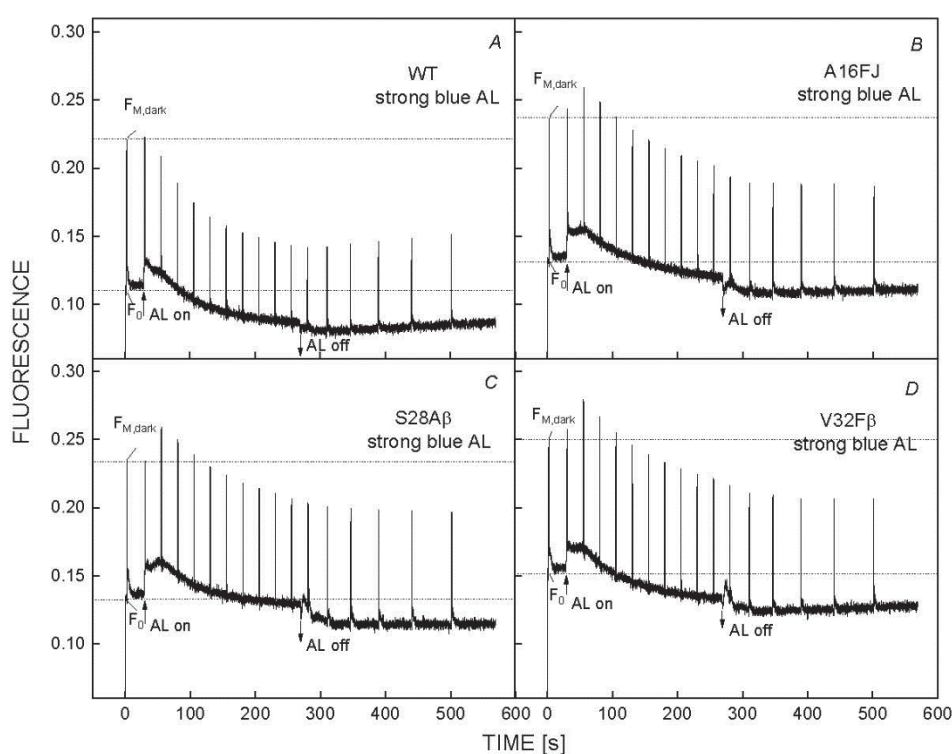


Fig. 3. Time-dependent flash-induced PSII fluorescence yield for WT (A), A16FJ (B), S28A β (C), and V32F β (D) mutant cells with and without high-intensity blue actinic light [light intensity of ~250 $\mu\text{mol}(\text{photon})\text{ m}^{-2}\text{ s}^{-1}$]. WT and mutant cultures were propagated in the photobioreactor under medium-intensity white LED light [~70 $\mu\text{mol}(\text{photon})\text{ m}^{-2}\text{ s}^{-1}$] and 30°C.

blue-light illumination and weakened effects of blue-light-induced NPQ during high-intensity blue-light illumination. Therefore, the increase in photosynthetic growth rate and biomass production in A16FJ, V32F β , and S28A β mutant cells could be attributed to the decreased dissipation of wasteful energy from phycobilisomes and improved photosynthesis efficiency as compared to WT cells.

In nature, cyanobacteria use diverse photoprotective mechanisms (including state transition and OCP-related NPQ) to prevent the formation of harmful reactive oxygen

species and ensure their survival under diverse stress conditions (*e.g.*, light, temperature, nutrients). Because of the trade-offs for photoprotection, photosynthesis in photosynthetic organisms in nature operates below the maximum efficiency. However, in controlled environments, such as growth chambers and photobioreactors, the minimized wasteful energy dissipation from the phycobilisome of cyanobacteria would significantly improve photosynthesis efficiency and biomass production. Our results are consistent with the proposal that manipulation

of photoprotection may improve photosynthesis in photosynthetic organisms (Murchie and Niyogi 2011, Stephenson *et al.* 2011, Kromdijk *et al.* 2016).

Recently, a novel role of Cyt *b*₅₅₉ in modulating photosynthetic light harvesting in PSII reaction centers of cyanobacteria was proposed. A spontaneously generated R7L α Cyt *b*₅₅₉ mutant of *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803 outcompeted WT cells under DCMU-inhibited photoheterotrophic conditions (Chiu *et al.* 2009). Data from 77 K fluorescence indicated that the R7L α mutation of Cyt *b*₅₅₉ may perturb the energy delivery from the phycobilisomes to PSII and thus protect mutant cells against DCMU-induced photo-oxidative stress. In addition, R7L α and R17L β Cyt *b*₅₅₉ mutant cells showed significant inhibition of OCP-mediated NPQ under strong blue light illumination and distinct acceleration of its dark recovery (Chiu *et al.* 2013). Thus, the R7L α and R17L β mutations on the cytoplasmic side of Cyt *b*₅₅₉ may affect the interaction between the phycobilisomes and PSII reaction centers, thereby affecting OCP-mediated NPQ and its dark recovery in mutant cells. Our results generally agree with this proposal, but the Q_C-site mutant cells have some properties that significantly differ from R7L α and R17L β Cyt *b*₅₅₉ mutant cells (*see* the discussion below).

Previous studies proposed that the Q_C site may be involved in modulating the redox potential and reactivity of Cyt *b*₅₅₉ (Kruk and Strzalka 1999, 2001, Bondarava *et al.* 2003, Kaminskaya and Shuvalov 2013). From *in silico* structural analysis of the Q_C site in PSII of WT and mutant PSII, replacing Ala16 residues of PsbJ or Val32 on the beta-subunit of Cyt *b*₅₅₉ residues with bulky phenylalanine may hinder or block the binding of the PQ molecule to the Q_C site in mutant PSII (Huang *et al.* 2016). In addition, the S28 β residue of Cyt *b*₅₅₉ (corresponding to Thr30 β residues of Cyt *b*₅₅₉ in *T. elongatus*) is situated near the opening of the Q_C channel toward the internal space of the thylakoid membranes (Guskov *et al.* 2009, Müh *et al.* 2012). Replacing the Ser28 residue with Ala might hinder the diffusion of the PQ molecules to the Q_C site in mutant PSII. Therefore, it needs verification whether these mutations on the Q_C site affect the redox properties and photoprotective function of Cyt *b*₅₅₉ in mutant PSII.

Several early studies suggested that Cyt *b*₅₅₉ may participate in secondary electron transfer pathways protecting PSII against damaging reactive oxygen species under photoinhibitory conditions (Whitmarsh and Pakrasi 1996, Stewart and Brudvig 1998, Shinopoulos and Brudvig 2012, Chu and Chiu 2015). In addition, prior mutagenesis and biochemical studies suggested possible roles of Cyt *b*₅₅₉ in assembly and stability of PSII (Pakrasi *et al.* 1988, Morais *et al.* 1998, Komenda *et al.* 2004). For example, R7L α and R17L β mutation on the cytoplasmic side of Cyt *b*₅₅₉ perturbed the structure of the heme-binding pocket and redox properties of Cyt *b*₅₅₉ in mutant PSII core complexes. R7L α and R17L β Cyt *b*₅₅₉ mutant cells showed impaired PSII activities were more susceptible to

photoinhibition and grew slower than WT cells under normal growth conditions (Chiu *et al.* 2009, 2013). In contrast, Q_C-site mutant cells (*e.g.*, A16FJ, S28A β , and V32F β) showed normal PSII activity and grew faster than WT cells under normal growth conditions (Huang *et al.* 2016). In addition, the redox properties of Cyt *b*₅₅₉ were similar between A16FJ and S28A β mutant and WT cells.

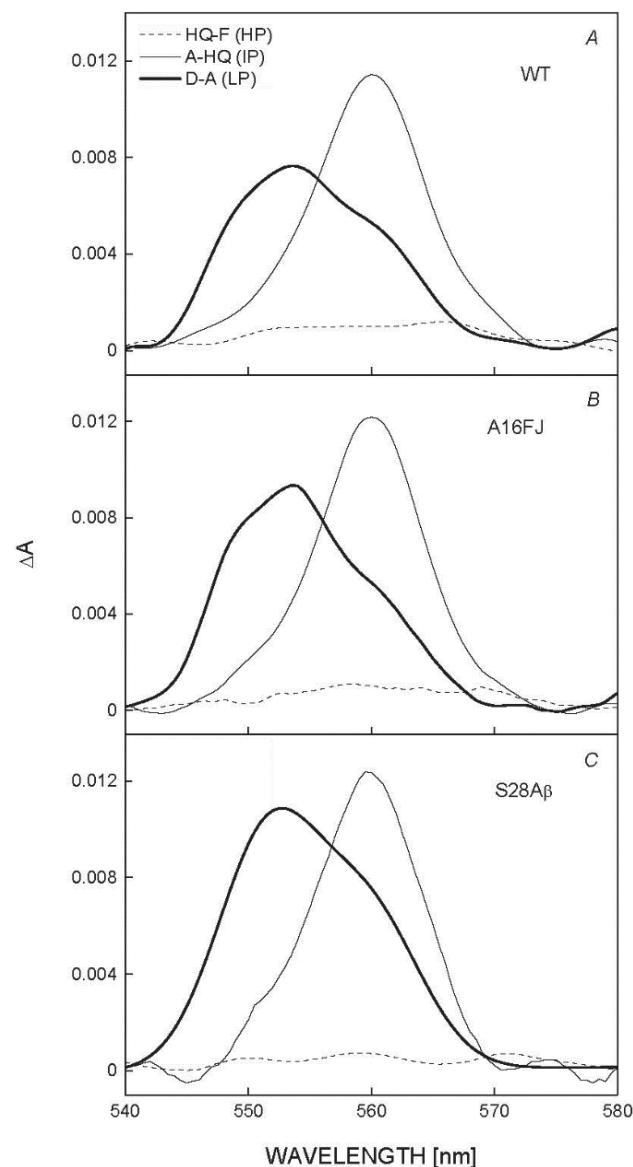


Fig. 4. Reduced minus oxidized difference spectra of Cyt *b*₅₅₉ heme in oxygen-evolving WT (A), S28A β (B), and A16FJ (C) mutant PSII core complexes by using four-step titration. HF, hydroquinone-reduced minus ferricyanide-oxidized difference spectrum (dashed line). AH, ascorbate-reduced minus hydroquinone-oxidized difference spectrum (thin line). DA, dithionite-reduced minus ascorbate-oxidized difference spectrum (thick line). HP, high potential. IP, intermediate potential. LP, low potential.

Table 2. Properties of WT and Qc-site mutant PSII core complexes. HP – high potential; IP – intermediate potential; LP – low potential. Data are mean $\pm$ SD from two independent experiments.

Strain	Oxygen evolution [$\mu\text{mol}(\text{O}_2) \text{mg}^{-1}(\text{Chl}) \text{h}^{-1}$]	Redox potential forms [%]		
		HP	IP	LP
WT	3200 $\pm$ 170	7 $\pm$ 1	65 $\pm$ 1	28 $\pm$ 3
S28A β	3060 $\pm$ 150	2 $\pm$ 2	58 $\pm$ 2	40 $\pm$ 4
A16FJ	2430 $\pm$ 60	6 $\pm$ 1	64 $\pm$ 4	30 $\pm$ 3

Several cyanobacteria strains, including *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803 and *Synechococcus elongatus* sp. PCC7942, have been used as biofactories for producing biofuels and valuable products (Machado and Atsumi 2012, Al-Haj *et al.* 2016, Gao *et al.* 2016). The genomes of the strains are

well characterized, and they are relatively easy to use for genetic engineering. In addition, cyanobacteria are able to capture and convert CO₂ photosynthetically into sugars and other bioproducts, which is an important incentive for using cyanobacteria for production of renewable energy and green chemicals to cope with global warming. Under our experimental conditions [light intensity from ~ 30 to $\sim 200 \mu\text{mol}(\text{photon}) \text{m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$], the improved photosynthesis growth and biomass production of these Qc-site mutant cells of *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803 are intriguing because of their potential applications as biofactories to increase the productivity of biofuels and valuable products. We are applying these Qc-site mutant cells to more harsh growth conditions (*e.g.*, strong light, high- and low-temperature stress) to explore their potential applications and limitations (Wilhelm and Selmar 2011).

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