

REVIEW

Mechanisms of non-photochemical chlorophyll fluorescence quenching in higher plants

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Abstract

The excitation energy of pigment molecules in photosynthetic antennae systems is utilised by photochemistry, partly it is thermally dissipated, and partly it is emitted as fluorescence. Changes in the quantum yield of chlorophyll (Chl) fluorescence reflect the changes in quantum yield of photochemical reaction and thermal dissipation of the excitation energy. Decrease of the Chl fluorescence quantum yield is called the Chl fluorescence quenching. The decrease of the quantum yield that is accompanied by photochemical reactions has been termed the photochemical quenching, and the decrease accompanied by thermal dissipation of the excitation energy is called the non-photochemical quenching. This review deals with mechanisms of the non-photochemical quenching.

Additional key words: antenna pigments; cytochrome; P680; photosystem 2; reaction centre; singlet state; triplet state, zeaxanthin.

Introduction

Regulation of non-photochemical Chl fluorescence quenching: The non-photochemical quenching is regulated by the concentration of protons $[H^+]$ in thylakoid lumen (Briantais *et al.* 1979, Krause *et al.* 1988, Crofts and Horton 1991, Ruban and Horton 1995b). If Chls absorb more excitation energy than can be utilised by electron transport-dependent production of ATP and NADPH, protons accumulate in the lumen, and the $[H^+]$ in the lumen increases. If pH in the lumen drops below 5.5, processes are switched on which in various ways protect photosystem 2 (PS2) against excessive radiant energy.

Localisation of non-photochemical Chl fluorescence quenching: Non-photochemical quenching occurs on the level of the reaction centre of photosystem 2 (RC2), and on

Received 29 January 1997, accepted 24 April 1997.

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the level of the light-harvesting complex of photosystem 2 (LHC2) (Papageorgiou 1975). The non-photochemical quenching processes occurring in RC2 seem to be rather a protection through neutralisation of dangerous radicals arising during photoinhibition than dissipation of the excessive excitation energy. The main part of the quenching processes occurs on the level of LHC2 (Horton and Ruban 1993, 1994, Crofts and Yerkes 1994, Horton *et al.* 1994, Mullineaux *et al.* 1994, Ruban and Horton 1994). The LHC2 consists of four different Chl *a-b*-binding proteins (Peter and Thornber 1991). The bulk LHC2 which binds approximately 65 % of PS2 Chl is referred to as LHC2b, whereas the minor complexes, each accounting for only 5 % of Chl, are called LHC2a, LHC2c, and LHC2d (Peter and Thornber 1991). These minor complexes have also been named CP29, CP26, and CP24 (Jansson *et al.* 1992). Minor LHC2a,c,d play a key role in the quenching process, not only because these complexes are enriched in violaxanthin (Peter and Thornber 1991, Bassi *et al.* 1993), but also because they contain a site that binds protons upon their increasing concentration (Horton *et al.* 1992, Crofts and Yerkes 1994, Ruban *et al.* 1995). This is a strategic feature, because the minor LHC2a,c,d serve as bridges between the major LHC2 and RC2, and thus play a role in the regulation of excitation energy transfer from the main antennae complex LHC2b towards the RC2 (Bassi *et al.* 1993).

Mechanisms of non-photochemical quenching localised in RC2

increasing $[H^+]$ in the lumen \rightarrow release of Ca^{2+} \rightarrow inactivation of the oxygen evolving centre, OEC \rightarrow accumulation of $P680^+$ \rightarrow reduction of $P680^-$ by alternative ways \rightarrow $P680$ is able to accept additional excitation energy from LHC2 and thus to quench Chl fluorescence

Increasing $[H^+]$ in the thylakoid lumen causes a release of Ca^{2+} cations from the binding site close to OEC (Homann 1988, Ono and Inoue 1988, Krieger and Weis 1992, 1993) changing the redox processes on the donor side of the RC2. The release of Ca^{2+} cations makes Mn-clusters unable to move into a higher S-state, and thus donates electrons to the secondary electron donor Z of RC2 (Boussac and Rutherford 1988, Ono and Inoue 1989, 1990, Yocum 1991). The secondary electron donor Z cannot under these conditions reduce the oxidized form of the primary electron donor $P680^+$ (Boussac and Rutherford 1992) which normally occurs in the time range of ns. Hence, conditions suitable for alternative ways of the reduction of $P680^-$ arise. The reduction occurs in a time range of ms (Schlödter and Meyer 1987). $P680^-$ can be reduced alternatively by Q_A^- or Pheo $^-$ (Schreiber and Neubauer 1987, 1990, Krieger and Weis 1992, 1993, Krieger *et al.* 1992) or by cytochrome b_{559} (cyt b_{559} ; Falkowski *et al.* 1986, Thompson and Brudvig 1988, Barber and De Las Rivas 1993).

Reduction of $P680^+$ by Q_A^- (PS2 back reaction): The release of Ca^{2+} cations influences redox processes on both the donor and acceptor sides of RC2 (Krieger and Weis 1992, 1993, Krieger *et al.* 1993, 1995, Andréasson *et al.* 1995, Johnson *et al.* 1995). The release of Ca^{2+} cations shifts the redox state of Q_A towards higher values

(from $E_m = -80$ mV to $E_m = +140$ mV) (Krieger and Weis 1992, 1993, Krieger *et al.* 1993, 1995, Johnson *et al.* 1995) causing an inhibition of electron transfer from Q_A to Q_B (Andréasson *et al.* 1995). The effect of Ca^{2+} cation on the acceptor-side redox processes is probably mediated *via* a structural change of transmembrane helices acting as levers (Krieger and Weis 1992, Andréasson *et al.* 1995). The redox changes on the acceptor side of RC2 promote recombination of the radical pair $P680^+Q_A^-$ ($P680^+Pheo^-$) (Krieger and Weis 1992, 1993, Krieger *et al.* 1992, Andréasson *et al.* 1995). The $P680^-$ can be reduced by Q_A^- ($Pheo^-$) resulting in a singlet $^1P680^*$ or triplet $^3P680^*$ state of the primary electron acceptor (Booth *et al.* 1990, Schreiber and Neubauer 1990, Ramm and Hansen 1993) (see Fig. 1).

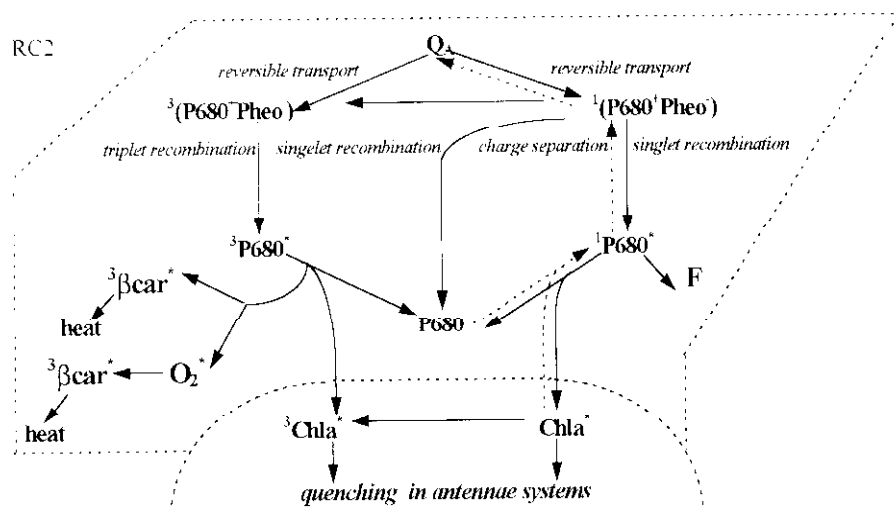


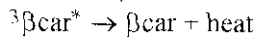
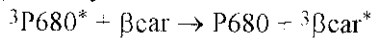
Fig. 1. A schematic model of processes associated with non-photochemical chlorophyll fluorescence quenching localised in RC2. The primary electron donor P680 accepts excitation energy from chlorophyll molecules of the antennae system and transforms it into the first singlet excited state $^1P680^*$. A charge separation occurs, resulting in radical pair $P680^+Pheo^-$. Electron from $Pheo^-$ is transported to Q_A . If the electron transport from OEC is inhibited, conditions favourable for charge recombination arise. The electron from Q_A^- is transported back to $Pheo$ resulting in a singlet $^1(P680^+Pheo^-)$ or triplet $^3(P680^+Pheo^-)$ radical pair (reversible transport). The singlet radical pair $^1(P680^+Pheo^-)$ is unstable and recombines (singlet recombination). The singlet recombination results either in the ground state P680 or the first singlet excited state $^1P680^*$, which is emitted as 50 μs recombination chlorophyll fluorescence or transferred back to the antennae systems where the excitation is quenched. The triplet radical pair $^3(P680^+Pheo^-)$ is unstable and recombines (triplet recombination). The triplet recombination results in the triplet excited state $^3P680^*$, which is quenched by β -carotene directly or indirectly *via* singlet oxygen. Triplet excitation $^3P680^*$ can also be transferred to the antennae system where it is quenched (for further details see the text).

Singlet state: An electron from the reduced form of the primary electron acceptor Q_A^- reduces $Pheo$ resulting in a singlet radical pair $^1(P680^+Pheo^-)$ (reversible transport). The singlet radical pair $^1(P680^+Pheo^-)$ is unstable and recombines (singlet recombination) into the ground state P680 or the first excited state $^1P680^*$ of the primary electron donor (Takahashi *et al.* 1987, Booth *et al.* 1990, Liu *et al.* 1993).

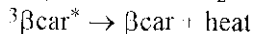
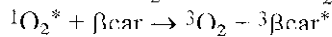
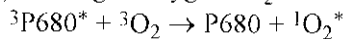
The ground state of the primary electron donor P680 is able to accept excitation energy from antenna systems and thus to quench Chl fluorescence. Excitation energy of the first excited state $^1\text{P680}^*$ is emitted as a 50 μs recombination fluorescence (Booth *et al.* 1990, Schreiber and Neubauer 1990) or may be transferred back to the antennae systems (Schatz *et al.* 1988), where the excitation is quenched (Schreiber and Neubauer 1989).

Triplet state: An electron from the reduced form of the primary electron acceptor Q_A^- can reduce Pheo resulting in a triplet radical pair $^3(\text{P680}^-\text{Pheo}^-)$ (reversible transport). The triplet radical pair $^3(\text{P680}^+\text{Pheo}^-)$ can also arise from the singlet radical pair $^1(\text{P680}^+\text{Pheo}^-)$ by dephasing of the pair electrons (Schreiber and Neubauer 1990, van Mieghem *et al.* 1995). The $^3(\text{P680}^+\text{Pheo}^-)$ is unstable and recombines (triplet recombination) to give rise to the triplet excited state of the primary electron donor $^3\text{P680}^*$ (Takahashi *et al.* 1987, Booth *et al.* 1990, Miller and Bruudvig 1991, Noguchi *et al.* 1993). The triplet excited state $^3\text{P680}^*$ is quenched by β -carotene or may be transferred to the antenna systems, where it is quenched (Schreiber and Neubauer 1990). The quenching of the triplet excited state $^3\text{P680}^*$ by β -carotene may occur directly or indirectly *via* singlet oxygen $^1\text{O}_2^*$ (Takahashi *et al.* 1987, Booth *et al.* 1990, Vass and Strying 1992, Telfer *et al.* 1994, Lambert and Redmond 1994) as is shown in the following scheme:

(1) directly:



(2) *via* singlet oxygen $^1\text{O}_2^*$:



The triplet excitation $^3\text{P680}^*$ may be accepted by the β -carotene molecule (Jensen *et al.* 1982, Takahashi *et al.* 1987, Bialek-Bylka *et al.* 1995). The β -carotene is able to dissipate excited energy into heat. The $^3\text{P680}^*$ can also be accepted by the triplet oxygen in the ground state $^3\text{O}_2$ leading to the singlet oxygen $^1\text{O}_2^*$. The singlet excitation of $^1\text{O}_2^*$ may be accepted by the β -carotene, the result of which is the triplet state $^3\beta\text{car}^*$ (Telfer *et al.* 1994). The β -carotene dissipates the triplet energy to heat. Triplet-triplet energy transfer from Chl *a* to β -carotene is possible, because the triplet energy level of the β -carotene lies below the triplet energy level of Chl *a* (Lambert and Redmond 1994). Also the energy transfer from singlet oxygen $^1\text{O}_2^*$ to β -carotene is possible, because the triplet energy level of the β -carotene is below the energy level of the singlet oxygen $^1\text{O}_2^*$ (Lambert and Redmond 1994). Triplet-triplet energy transfer from Chl *a* to β -carotene occurs *via* an electron exchange mechanism (Farhoosh *et al.* 1994). The life time of the triplet state $^3\text{P680}^*$ is about 1 ns under anaerobic conditions, however, under aerobic conditions it is only 33 μs . Thus in the presence of oxygen, $^3\text{P680}^*$ is quenched predominantly *via* $^1\text{O}_2^*$ (Mathis *et al.* 1989, Durrant *et al.* 1990).

Reduction of P680⁺ by *cytb*₅₅₉ (cyclic electron transport around PS2): The release of Ca²⁺ cations decreases the stability of the high-potential form of *cytb*₅₅₉ (HP *cytb*₅₅₉) and thus enables its conversion to the low-potential form of *cytb*₅₅₉ (LP *cytb*₅₅₉) (McNamara and Gounaris 1995, Mizusawa *et al.* 1995). The conversion of the HP *cytb*₅₅₉ ($E_m = 380$ mV) to LP *cytb*₅₅₉ ($E_m = 60$ mV) occurs probably *via* a conformation change of the HP *cytb*₅₅₉ molecule (Prasil *et al.* 1996). The LP *cytb*₅₅₉ can accept an electron from Pheo⁻ (Nedbal *et al.* 1992, Barber and De Las Rivas 1993) or plastoquinone (PQ) (Falkowski *et al.* 1986, Arnon and Tang 1988, Thompson and Brudvig 1988, Buser *et al.* 1992a,b). The HP *cyt b*₅₅₉ can directly donate an electron to the oxidized form of the primary electron donor P680⁺ (Arnon and Tang 1988, Satoh *et al.* 1990, Nedbal *et al.* 1992, Barber and De Las Rivas 1993), and indirectly *via* the secondary electron donor Z (Falkowski *et al.* 1986, Tamura *et al.* 1995) or *via* the accessory Chl *a* in the RC2 chl₂ *a* (Thompson and Brudvig 1988, Buser *et al.* 1992a,b).

Mechanisms of non-photochemical quenching localised in antennae systems

creation of Chl *a*-Chl *a* dimers → quenching by Chl

increasing [H⁺] in lumen <

conversion violaxanthin-zeaxanthin → quenching by zeaxanthin

Increasing [H⁺] in the lumen both causes a structural change of LHC2 leading to the creation of Chl *a*-Chl *a* dimers (aggregation of LHC2) and activates the enzyme violaxanthin deepoxidase leading to the conversion of violaxanthin, Vio, to zeaxanthin, Zea (xanthophyll cycle). The Chl molecules in Chl *a*-Chl *a* dimers can quench the singlet excited state of antenna Chls. The Zea probably quenches both the singlet and triplet Chl-excited states or it may play a role of an amplifier of the Chl *a*-Chl *a* dimer quenching. All possible cases of the quenching in the antenna systems are described in detail below.

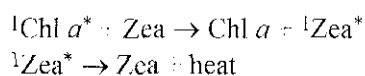
The quenching mediated by Chl

increasing [H⁺] in lumen → protonation of LHC2 proteins → structural change of LHC2 proteins → aggregation of LHC2 → association of Chl molecules in LHC2 → quenching:

The increasing [H⁺] in the lumen causes protonation of the LHC2 proteins. The H⁺s bind to the carboxyamino acid residues of LHC2 proteins exposed to the lumen side of the thylakoid membrane (Horton *et al.* 1991). Another way of the protonation of LHC2 proteins represents a binding of H⁺ to the carboxyamino acid residues of LHC2 proteins in the hydrophobic environment of thylakoid membrane (Noctor *et al.* 1991, 1993, Crofts and Yerkes 1994). In addition to the light-harvesting function, the LHC2 protein serves as a transport channel of protons released from the OEC into the lumen (Jahns and Junge 1990, 1993). Protons accumulate in the hydrophobic environment of the thylakoid membrane creating proton domains which act as a buffer of the protons. When this channel is blocked, protons leak to the stroma, but when it is absent (as in plants grown under intermittent irradiation), protons are

released directly into the lumen without the buffering. Protons in the buffering domains bind to the carboxyamino acid residues (aspartate and glutamate) of the minor LHC2a and LHC2c (Horton *et al.* 1992, Ruban *et al.* 1992b, Walters *et al.* 1994, Walters and Horton 1995). The protonation of the carboxyamino acid residues of LHC2 causes a structural change of this protein (Horton *et al.* 1991, 1994, Horton and Ruban 1993, 1994, Ruban and Horton 1995a). The carboxyamino acid residues are important for the structure of the transmembrane helix and co-ordination of pigment ligation to LHC2 proteins (Crofts and Yerkes 1994). Protonation of the carboxyamino acid residues evokes the charge neutralisation, which causes distortion of carboxyamino acid residues (Horton and Ruban 1994). The structural changes of LHC2 proteins allow these proteins to form aggregates (Ruban and Horton 1992, Pascal *et al.* 1995). The polarity of xanthophylls determined by the presence of terminal groups indicates the ability of xanthophylls to activate or inhibit aggregation of LHC2 (Ruban *et al.* 1993). Xanthophylls, such as Vio, neoxanthin and lutein, inhibit the aggregation of LHC2 and hence also the Chl *a*-Chl *a* quenching in LHC2 (Searle *et al.* 1990), whereas Zea promotes the aggregation of LHC2. The ability of xanthophylls to promote aggregation of LHC2 changes in the following order: neoxanthin < Vio < lutein < antheraxanthin < Zea (Ruban *et al.* 1993). Aggregation of LHC2 enables an association of Chl molecules in LHC2. Chl molecules come near together creating Chl-Chl dimers (Horton *et al.* 1991, Horton and Ruban 1994, Hagen *et al.* 1995). The physical mechanism of Chl fluorescence quenching in LHC aggregates is unknown. Aggregated Chl molecules may interact with one another influencing their electronic states and vibrational movements. The mechanism of Chl fluorescence quenching may be based upon strong interactions between electronic states and vibrational movements (Horton *et al.* 1991, Ruban and Horton 1992a).

Fluorescence quenching mediated by Zea: Its mechanism is still unclear. Zea may quench the singlet excited state $^1\text{Chl } a^*$ (Demmig-Adams 1990, Demmig-Adams and Adams 1992) by the following mechanism:



The singlet excited $^1\text{Chl } a^*$ transfers excitation energy to Zea, whereby Chl goes to the ground state Chl *a*, and Zea is transferred to the first singlet excited state $^1\text{Zea}^*$. The singlet $^1\text{Zea}^*$ is able to dissipate the excitation energy to heat.

Singlet-singlet energy transfer from Chl *a* to Zea is theoretically possible, because the first singlet excitation energy level of Zea lies below the first singlet excitation energy level of Chl *a* (Trash *et al.* 1979, Höfer *et al.* 1987, Owens *et al.* 1992, Frank *et al.* 1994). However, this energy transfer has so far not been shown *in vivo*. As the electron transition between the ground and first excitation energy levels in carotenoids' S_0 - S_1 is formally dipole-forbidden, the singlet-singlet energy transfer from Chl to Zea cannot be *via* Foester's dipole-dipole resonance interaction, but it must involve Dexter's electron exchange mechanism (Naqvi 1980, Höfer *et al.* 1987, Owens *et al.* 1992, Owens 1994). Two mechanisms of singlet-singlet energy transfer between Chl and Zea occurring *via* electron exchange mechanism are possible:

(1) Effect of local fields (Cosgrove *et al.* 1990, Owens *et al.* 1992, Owens 1994)

increasing $[H^+]$ in lumen \rightarrow protonation of LHC2 \rightarrow local fields \rightarrow energy overlap between S_1 level of Chl and S_1 level of Zea \rightarrow singlet-singlet energy transfer from Chl *a* to Zea \rightarrow quenching:

Increasing $[H^+]$ in the lumen cause protonation of LHC2 proteins. H^+ binds to carboxyamino acid residues of LHC2 protein exposed to the lumen (particularly to asparagin and glutamin) (Dilley *et al.* 1987). The protons bound to the LHC2 protein generate local fields, which interact with molecules of Chl bound to the LHC2 protein. The interaction between local fields of H^+ and molecules of Chl causes a shift of the first singlet excitation level S_1 of Chl towards the first singlet excitation level S_1 of Zea. The field-induced shift of the S_1 levels allows an overlap of both energy levels. The singlet-singlet energy transfer of excitation energy from Chl to Zea is possible.

(2) Aggregation of LHC2 (Adams *et al.* 1990, Ruban and Horton 1992, Ruban *et al.* 1992a)

increasing $[H^+]$ in lumen \rightarrow protonation of LHC2 proteins \rightarrow structural change of LHC2 proteins \rightarrow aggregation of LHC2 \rightarrow association of Chl *a* and Zea molecules \rightarrow singlet-singlet energy transfer from Chl *a* to Zea \rightarrow quenching:

Increasing $[H^+]$ in the lumen causes the protonation of LHC2 proteins. H^+ binds to carboxyamino acid residues of the protein LHC2 exposed to the lumen (particularly to asparagine and glutamine) (Dilley *et al.* 1987). Protonation of the LHC2 proteins results in a structural change of these proteins. This allows the aggregation of LHC2 and association of pigments bound to LHC2 proteins. Hence a singlet-singlet energy transfer of excitation energy from Chl to Zea is possible.

However, in a special case, when electron transition between the ground and first singlet excitation levels S_0 - S_1 is allowed, the singlet-singlet energy transfer may occur *via* the Foester's dipole-dipole resonance interaction (Hudson *et al.* 1982, Shreve *et al.* 1991).

(3) Asymmetric perturbations of the pigment environment

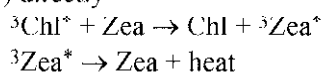
increased $[H^+]$ in lumen \rightarrow protonation of LHC2 proteins \rightarrow asymmetric perturbations of the pigment environment \rightarrow increase in the dipole strength of the Zea S_1 - S_0 transition \rightarrow transition S_1 - S_0 is allowed \rightarrow singlet-singlet energy transfer between Chl *a* and Zea \rightarrow quenching:

Increasing $[H^+]$ in the lumen causes protonation of the LHC2 proteins. This protonation induces an asymmetric perturbation at the Zea-binding site, leading to an increase in the dipole strength of the Zea S_1 - S_0 transition. The increase in dipole strength may allow the Zea S_1 - S_0 transition and thus also the singlet-singlet energy transfer from Chl *a* to Zea. However, there is no evidence yet about the three main constraints limiting the rate constant of energy transfer by the dipole-dipole mechanism such as the proximity of interacting molecules (R^{-6} law), mutual orientation (Foester's k-factor), and energy gap.

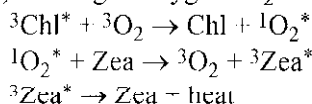
The above noticed mechanism of direct quenching of Chl fluorescence by Zea has not yet been proved. Nevertheless, both the Chl fluorescence quenching and Zea accumulation are high irradiance-dependent processes, but their kinetics are independent (Lichtenthaler *et al.* 1992, Lichtenthaler and Schindler 1992, Schindler and Lichtenthaler 1994, 1996). In spite of this, there is no doubt that Zea photoprotects the photosynthetic pigment apparatus.

Zea may also quench the triplet excited state $^3\text{Chl } a^*$ (Schreiber and Neubauer 1990, Lidon and Henriques 1993, Crofts and Yerkes 1994). The first singlet excited state $^1\text{Chl } a^*$ can change into the triplet excited state $^3\text{Chl } a^*$ by an intersystem crossing. This means a reorientation in which the magnetic moments of both electrons are orientated in parallel, and the molecule acquires an overall spin equal to 1. An alternative way of generating the triplet state is the back energy transfer of the triplet energy from RC2 into antenna systems (Schreiber and Neubauer 1990). Quenching of the first triplet excitation state $^3\text{Chl } a^*$ may occur directly or indirectly *via* singlet oxygen $^1\text{O}_2^*$ (Lidon and Henriques 1993) according to the following formulas:

(1) directly



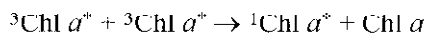
(2) *via* singlet oxygen $^1\text{O}_2^*$



The triplet, $^3\text{Chl } a^*$, transfers excitation energy to Zea which is transformed into the first triplet excited state $^3\text{Zea}^*$. The latter may dissipate excitation energy to heat. $^3\text{Chl } a^*$ can also transfer excitation energy to oxygen in its ground triplet state $^3\text{O}_2$, whereby Chl changes to the ground state Chl *a* and triplet oxygen $^3\text{O}_2$ into the singlet excited state $^1\text{O}_2^*$. The latter transfers excitation energy to Zea and transforms into the triplet ground state, whereas Zea changes into $^3\text{Zea}^*$. The latter might dissipate excitation energy to heat. Triplet-triplet energy transfer from Chl *a* to Zea may be possible, because the first triplet energy level of Zea lies below the first triplet excitation level of Chl (Frank *et al.* 1994). Triplet-triplet energy transfer between Chl and Zea may also occur *via* the electron exchange mechanism (Höfer *et al.* 1987).

Lichtenthaler and Schindler (1992) propose a different way of Zea-mediated Chl fluorescence quenching: Zea may respond directly with highly reactive oxygen species and become epoxidized in a non-enzymatic way to Vio, which is then reduced back to Zea *via* the xanthophyll cycle (Lichtenthaler and Schindler 1992).

If carotenoid quenching is saturated, the triplet excited states can be annihilated (Breton *et al.* 1979, Nechushtai *et al.* 1988):



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