

1 **Short title:** The function of terminal oxidases in cyanobacteria

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Distinguishing the roles of thylakoid respiratory terminal oxidases in the cyanobacterium *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803¹

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One-sentence summary: Electron sinks, comprising the O₂ utilizing respiratory terminal oxidases and flavodiiron proteins, contribute to photoprotection and regulation of photosynthesis under light in cyanobacteria.

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71 **Abstract**

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73 Various O₂-utilizing electron sinks, including the soluble flavodiiron proteins (Flv1/3), and
74 the membrane-localized respiratory terminal oxidases (RTOs), cytochrome *c* oxidase
75 (Cox) and quinol oxidase (Cyd), are present in the photosynthetic electron transfer chain of
76 *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803. However, the role of individual RTOs and their relative
77 importance compared to other electron sinks is poorly understood, particularly under light.
78 Via membrane inlet mass spectrometry gas-exchange, chlorophyll *a* fluorescence, P700
79 analysis and inhibitor treatment of wild-type and various mutants deficient in RTOs,
80 Flv1/3 and photosystem I, we investigated the contribution of these complexes to the
81 alleviation of excess electrons in the photosynthetic chain. For the first time we
82 demonstrated the activity of Cyd in O₂ uptake under light, although it was detected only
83 upon inhibition of electron transfer at the cytochrome *b₆f* site and in $\Delta flv1/3$ under
84 fluctuating light conditions, where linear electron transfer was drastically inhibited due to
85 impaired PS I activity. Cox is mostly responsible for dark respiration and competes with
86 P700 for electrons under high light. Only the $\Delta cox/cyd$ double mutant, but not single
87 mutants, demonstrated a highly reduced PQ pool in darkness and impaired gross O₂
88 evolution under light, indicating that thylakoid-based RTOs are able to compensate
89 partially for each other. Thus both electron sinks contribute to alleviation of excess
90 electrons under illumination: RTOs continue to function under light, operating on slower
91 time ranges and on a limited scale, whereas Flv1/3 responds rapidly as a light-induced
92 component and has greater capacity.

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106 Cyanobacteria (oxygenic photosynthetic bacteria) inhabit a range of highly variable
107 aquatic and terrestrial environments, which are diverse in light and in the availability of
108 nutrients. With the exception of *Gloeobacter* species, all cyanobacteria contain a series of
109 internal thylakoid membranes, where a photosynthetic electron transport chain (ETC) is
110 localized. This ETC consists of four major protein complexes: photosystem II (PS II),
111 cytochrome *b₆f* (Cyt *b₆f*), photosystem I (PS I) and ATP synthase, similar to that of
112 eukaryotic photosynthetic organisms (Fig. 1). The photosynthetic electron transfer chain
113 provides energy (ATP) and reducing equivalents (reduced ferredoxin (Fd), NADPH) for
114 carbon anabolism and other vital processes.

115

116 Following absorption of photons by the large external light-harvesting antenna, the
117 phycobilisome, the excitation energy is directed to the reaction centers of PS II and PS I,
118 where charge separation occurs. In PS II, this process is followed by splitting of water to
119 molecular oxygen and protons, which are released into the lumen, and extraction of
120 electrons for the reduction of P680⁺. Electrons ejected from P680, the primary donor of PS
121 II, are forwarded to pheophytin, then to plastoquinone molecules (PQ), Q_A and Q_B.
122 Following double reduction and protonation, plastoquinol (PQH₂) diffuses from the Q_B
123 pocket into the membrane. PQH₂ is oxidized by Cyt *b₆f*, resulting in proton translocation to
124 the lumen and electron transfer to the lumen-localized soluble electron carriers,
125 plastocyanin (Pc) or cytochrome *c₆* (Cyt *c₆*). These small proteins donate electrons to
126 P700⁺, the oxidized primary electron donor of PS I. Electrons extracted from P700 during
127 charge separation are transferred via a chain of cofactors incorporated in PS I to Fd, a
128 soluble electron carrier on the cytosolic side of the thylakoid membrane. The Fd:NADP⁺
129 oxidoreductase (FNR) concludes the linear electron transport chain by catalyzing the
130 formation of NADPH. A proton gradient established during photosynthetic electron
131 transfer is used by ATP synthase for the production of ATP.

132

133 In the model cyanobacterium *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803 (hereafter *Synechocystis*) the
134 thylakoid membrane is not just the site of photosynthesis but also respiration (reviewed in
135 Vermaas, 2001; Mullineaux, 2014a; Lea-Smith et al., 2016). The respiratory electron
136 transfer chain transfers electrons extracted from organic molecules into the PQ pool.
137 NAD(P)H dehydrogenase-like complex type 1 (NDH-1), succinate dehydrogenase (SDH)
138 and possibly one to three different NAD(P)H dehydrogenases type 2 (NDH-2) may
139 participate in PQ pool reduction (Mi et al., 1992; Ohkawa et al., 2000; Cooley et al., 2000;

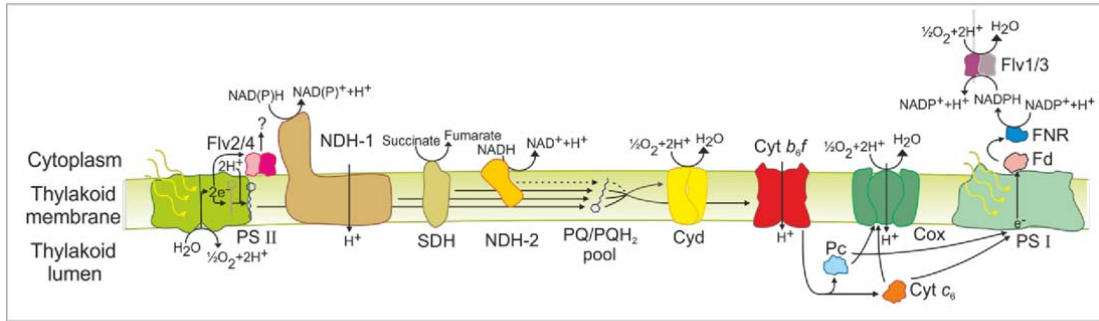


Figure 1. Schematic diagram of the thylakoid membrane-localized photosynthetic and respiratory electron transfer chains. Lines indicate electron transport; dotted lines indicate possible but poorly characterized electron transfer pathways. PS II, Photosystem II; Flv2/4, Flavodiiron proteins 2/4; Flv1/3, Flavodiiron proteins 1/3; PQ, plastoquinone; PQH₂, plastoquinol; Cyt *b₆f*, cytochrome *b₆f* complex; Pc, plastocyanin; Cyt *c₆*, cytochrome *c₆*; PS I, Photosystem I; Fd, ferredoxin; FNR, ferredoxin-NADP⁺ oxidoreductase; NDH-1, NAD(P)H dehydrogenase-like complex type 1; SDH, succinate dehydrogenase; NDH-2, NAD(P)H dehydrogenase type 2; Cyt *bd* quinol oxidase; Cox, cytochrome *c* oxidase.

Howitt et al., 1999). PQH₂ oxidation can then occur via either Cyt *b₆f* or respiratory terminal oxidases (RTOs). In *Synechocystis*, the cytochrome *bd* quinol oxidase (Cyt *bd*), encoded by *cydAB*, reduces O₂ with electrons presumably taken directly from the PQ pool (Berry et al., 2002). Although Cyt *bd* does not pump protons across the membrane, it contributes to the thylakoid membrane potential by releasing protons from PQH₂ oxidation into the lumen, and by generating water using protons removed from the cytoplasm (reviewed in Hart et al., 2005). The *aa₃*-type cytochrome *c* oxidase complex (Cox), encoded by *coxBAC*, is situated only in the thylakoid membrane and can accept electrons from Pc and Cyt *c₆* (Howitt and Vermaas, 1998; Nomura et al., 2006; Lea-Smith et al., 2013). Therefore, Cyt *b₆f*, the PQ pool and Pc/Cyt *c₆* are shared by both the photosynthetic and respiratory electron transfer chains (Scherer, 1990). Cox is present in all cyanobacteria sequenced thus far (Pils and Shmetterer, 2001; Lea-Smith et al., 2013). Based on similarity with better characterized *aa₃*-type cytochrome *c* oxidase complexes from other bacteria, Cox can potentially couple the transfer of electrons to O₂ with the translocation of protons across the membrane (Iwata et al., 1995; Brändén et al., 2006).

An additional electron transport chain is localized in the cytoplasmic membrane, which lacks Cox (Huang et al., 2002) and Cyt *b₆f* (Schultze et al., 2009). This simpler pathway consists of electrons donated to PQ by NDH-2 and/or SDH, followed by transfer from

149 PQH₂ to RTOs. Localization of Cyd in the thylakoid membrane has been confirmed but
150 this complex may also be present in the cytoplasmic membrane (Howitt and Vermaas,
151 1998; Berry et al., 2002). Another RTO, the alternative oxidase complex (ARTO), encoded
152 by *ctaCHIDIIEII*, probably oxidizes the PQ pool and has been localized only to the
153 cytoplasmic membrane in *Synechocystis* (Huang et al., 2002; Pisareva et al., 2007). Thus
154 ARTO does not have a significant impact on photosynthetic electron transfer (Abramson et
155 al., 2000; Lea-Smith et al., 2013). However, a recent study suggested a possible role for
156 ARTO in reductive Fe uptake (Kranzler et al., 2014). An additional quinol oxidase, which
157 is closely related to the plastid terminal oxidase (PTOX) of plants, has been identified in a
158 range of cyanobacteria but is not present in *Synechocystis* (McDonald et al., 2011).

159

160 The main role of RTOs is to provide metabolic energy required during dark periods
161 (Matthijs and Lubberding, 1988). RTOs are not essential in *Synechocystis* when cells are
162 subjected to continuous moderate or high light (Lea-Smith et al., 2013, Howitt and
163 Vermaas, 1998; Pils and Schmetterer, 2001), or 12 h dark/12 h moderate light (40 μmol
164 $\text{photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) cycle regimes (Lea-Smith et al., 2013). However, the presence of Cox is
165 essential for viability under low light (Kufryk and Vermaas, 2006) and the presence of at
166 least one thylakoid-based RTO (Cyd or Cox) is required for survival under a 12 h dark/12
167 h high light (150 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) square cycle regime (Lea-Smith et al., 2013).

168

169 Studies of RTO mutants by gas-exchange under light are complicated in oxygenic
170 photosynthetic organisms, due to the O₂ evolving activity of PS II and the existence of
171 other processes capable of O₂ photoreduction. Flavodiiron proteins Flv1 and Flv3 are
172 responsible for the majority of O₂ uptake in the light in cyanobacteria (Allahverdiyeva et
173 al., 2011; Helman et al., 2003, 2005). These proteins likely form a functional couple
174 (Flv1/3) and reduce O₂ directly to water, conceivably, using NADPH formed as a result of
175 linear electron transfer (Vicente et al., 2002; Helman et al., 2003). Moreover,
176 cyanobacteria possess an active photorespiratory metabolism (Eisenhut et al., 2006, 2008)
177 and photorespiratory O₂ uptake plausibly contributes to the total O₂ uptake in the light and
178 in particular during C_i limitation (Allahverdiyeva et al., 2011). Therefore, the role of
179 individual RTOs and their relative importance compared to other electron sinks under light
180 conditions is poorly studied. In this work we used wild-type (WT) and various mutants of
181 *Synechocystis* in combination with specific inhibitors targeting electron transfer chain
182 components, to address the role of RTOs in the light. We demonstrate that Cyd is the key

183 RTO under light, capable of light-induced O₂ uptake under sub-optimal conditions. By
184 contrast, Cox is responsible for the majority of dark respiration but can also contribute to
185 regulation of electron flow to PS I under light in specific cases.

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188 RESULTS

189 Light-induced O₂ uptake in *Synechocystis* cells in the absence and presence of 190 inhibitors.

191 For a precise study of O₂ uptake in *Synechocystis* cells we used Membrane Inlet Mass
192 Spectrometry (MIMS) and ¹⁸O₂-enriched O₂. In contrast to a classical oxygen electrode,
193 which only measures net O₂ production under illumination, MIMS analysis can
194 differentiate between gross O₂ produced by PS II and O₂ uptake under illumination based
195 on increase of ¹⁶O₂ and decrease of ¹⁸O₂, respectively, in the reaction medium. When O₂
196 exchange was monitored in cultures during dark to light (400 μmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹)
197 transition, the WT demonstrated strong O₂ uptake of 34.6±6.7 μmol O₂ [mg Chl]⁻¹ h⁻¹
198 under illumination, which was drastically higher than the O₂ uptake of the cells in darkness
199 (8.3±1.2 μmol O₂ [mg Chl]⁻¹ h⁻¹) (Fig. 2, Fig. S1, the averaged values and SDs are provided
200 in Table 1). The difference between light and dark O₂ uptake rates is defined as the light-
201 induced O₂ uptake rate. The $\Delta flv1/3$ mutant lacking the Flv1 and Flv3 proteins
202 demonstrated a slightly higher O₂ uptake rate in darkness than the WT (10.8±1.6 μmol O₂
203 [mg Chl]⁻¹ h⁻¹), and a similar O₂ uptake rate in the light to that in darkness (Fig. S1). Thus,
204 a strong light-induced O₂ uptake component observed in the WT was missing in the
205 $\Delta flv1/3$. This was in line with previous reports, demonstrating that O₂ uptake in WT
206 *Synechocystis* was strongly stimulated in the light due to Flv1/3 activity occurring
207 downstream of PS I (Helman et al., 2003, 2005; Allahverdiyeva et al., 2011, 2013, Mustila
208 et al. 2016).

209
210 To investigate a possible role of RTOs functioning at the PQ pool level and to exclude
211 contribution of the Flv1/3 to light-induced O₂ uptake, we performed MIMS experiments in
212 the presence of 2,5-dibromo-6-isopropyl-3-methyl-1,4-benzoquinone (DBMIB), an
213 inhibitor of PQH₂ oxidation at the site of Cyt *b₆f* (Trebst et al., 1970; Yan et al., 2006). In
214 WT cells in the presence of DBMIB, the dark O₂ uptake rate was 10.1±1.5 μmol O₂ [mg
215 Chl]⁻¹ h⁻¹, whereas in the light the rate of total O₂ uptake was two-fold higher than that in
216 darkness (21.1±2.8 μmol O₂ [mg Chl]⁻¹ h⁻¹) (Fig. 2, Table 1). This demonstrates that a
217 strong light-induced O₂ uptake is occurring in WT cells in the presence of DBMIB. To
218 clarify the origin of this O₂ uptake we supplemented the cells, in addition to DBMIB, with
219 2,6 dichloro-*p*-benzoquinone (DCBQ), an artificial acceptor of electrons from PS II (Graan
220 and Ort, 1986). Under these conditions, light-induced O₂ uptake was completely

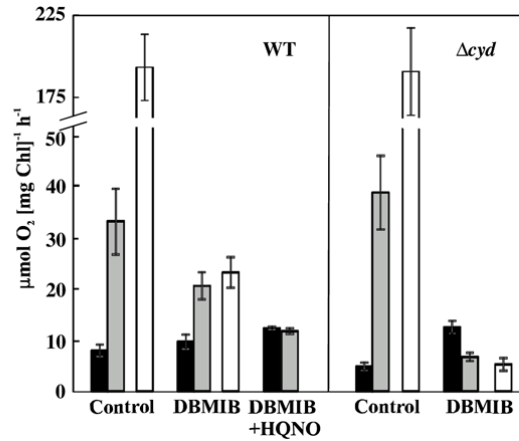


Figure 2. The rates of O_2 exchange in the WT and Δcyd mutant cells incubated in darkness for 5 min and then illuminated with a strong white light ($400 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$) for the next 5 min. Black bars and grey bars indicate the rates of total O_2 uptake by cells in darkness and under the light, respectively; white bars indicate the gross O_2 production rate. Measurements were performed either in the absence of inhibitors (control) or in the presence of DBMIB or DBMIB + HQNO. Mean \pm SD, $n=3-5$.

eliminated (Fig. S2A), implying strong competition between DCBQ and an unknown acceptor which can mediate the light-driven flow of electrons to O_2 .

Importantly, in the presence of DBMIB, the gross O_2 evolution rate of WT cells decreased significantly (from $193.3 \pm 20.1 \mu\text{mol } O_2 [\text{mg Chl}]^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$ in the control cells to $24.2 \pm 3.1 \mu\text{mol } O_2 [\text{mg Chl}]^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$, Fig. 2, Table 1), becoming nearly equal to the total O_2 uptake rate under the light. Consequently, the rate of net photosynthesis in the presence of DBMIB was close to zero (Table 1).

Next we used 2-n-heptyl-4-hydroxyquinoline N-oxide (HQNO), an inhibitor of Cyd (Pils et al., 1997). Supplementation of the DBMIB-treated cells with HQNO also completely eliminated the light-induced component of O_2 uptake (Fig. 2, Table 1). Thus the rate of O_2 uptake was observed to be similar between darkness and light, suggesting that Cyd is responsible for the light-induced fraction of O_2 uptake under the studied conditions. Addition of HQNO alone to the WT cells did not significantly affect total O_2 uptake under light (Fig. S2B), presumably due to the compensatory effect of other O_2 consuming pathways, such as Cox and Flv1/3.

It is important to note that the addition of DBMIB also increased dark O_2 uptake in WT *Synechocystis* cells (from $8.3 \pm 1.2 \mu\text{mol } O_2 [\text{mg Chl}]^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$ to $10.1 \pm 1.5 \mu\text{mol } O_2 [\text{mg Chl}]^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$, Table 1), which is in line with a previous report (Zhang et al., 2013). This result raises a question whether DBMIB itself could act as an electron shuttle to O_2 (Bukhov et al.,

2003; Belatik et al., 2013), thus making interpretations difficult. In order to clarify the origin of increased O₂ uptake in the presence of DBMIB, the WT cells were further treated with KCN, which is an inhibitor of both Cyd and Cox (Howitt and Vermaas 1998). Addition of KCN to the DBMIB-treated WT cells completely abolished the light-induced component of O₂ uptake, suggesting a role for RTOs (Fig. S2C). However O₂ uptake in darkness decreased only slightly in the presence of KCN, demonstrating a residual O₂ uptake with a rate of about 7.4 μmol O₂ [mg Chl]⁻¹ h⁻¹ occurring similarly under both darkness and light conditions in DBMIB supplemented cells (Fig. S2C). This suggests the existence of “background” O₂ uptake in the presence of DBMIB. Importantly this “background” O₂ uptake is insensitive to light, therefore would not affect the interpretation of light induced O₂ uptake in the WT. To clarify further the effect of this compound, we measured O₂ evolution rates of WT cells supplemented with different DBMIB concentrations using a Clark-type electrode. With increasing DBMIB concentrations the net O₂ production decreased gradually to almost zero at a concentration of 25 μM DBMIB (Fig. S2D), which is in line with the MIMS experiments (Table 1), and suggests that DBMIB act as an electron transfer inhibitor in *Synechocystis* cells. Our results differ from Belatik et al. (2013), which describe high O₂ production rates even at low DBMIB concentrations, and concluded that DBMIB could act as electron acceptor for PS II in spinach thylakoids. This discrepancy could be due to different experimental set ups and the different organisms used.

262

263 **Light-induced O₂ uptake in *Synechocystis* cells deficient in RTOs.**

264 In order to confirm the results obtained with the inhibitors, we subjected mutants deficient in Cyd, Cox and Cox/Cyd to MIMS analysis, first in the absence of inhibitors (Table 1). 265 Dark respiration was reduced in the Δ*cyd* and Δ*cox* mutants and almost abolished in 266 Δ*cox/cyd*. Interestingly, light-induced O₂ uptake was significantly higher in both the Δ*cyd* 267 and Δ*cox* mutants compared to the WT, presumably due to up-regulation of the other RTO 268 pathway (Fig. 2, Table 1). In line with this, Δ*cox/cyd* demonstrated nearly similar light- 269 induced O₂ uptake rates to the WT. Likewise, the total light O₂ uptake was also increased 270 in the single mutants, whereas substantial decrease was observed in Δ*cox/cyd* compared to 271 the WT. All RTO-deficient mutants demonstrated similar gross and net O₂ production rates 272 to WT cells (Table 1).

274

275 In the presence of DBMIB, the rate of dark O₂ uptake was similar between all strains,
 276 whereas the light-induced O₂ uptake was completely inhibited in the Δcyd and $\Delta cox/cyd$
 277 mutants, and also significantly reduced in Δcox (Table 1). Overall, this resulted in a greatly
 278 reduced rate of total O₂ uptake under light in Δcyd and $\Delta cox/cyd$, but not in Δcox . DBMIB
 279 also caused a drastic reduction in gross O₂ production in Δcyd and $\Delta cox/cyd$, so that the
 280 rates were equal to the total O₂ uptake rates under light, as observed in WT cells. The
 281 addition of HQNO to the DBMIB-treated cells did not alter O₂ uptake rates in Δcyd cells.
 282 Similar to the WT, the addition of DBMIB and HQNO to Δcox eliminated light-induced
 283 O₂ uptake detected in the presence of DBMIB only. These results correlated with the
 284 experiments performed on WT cells with inhibitors and confirmed that Cyd is responsible
 285 for the majority of light-induced O₂ uptake in the presence of DBMIB.

286

287 **The impact of RTOs under fluctuating light conditions**

288 It was recently reported that the $\Delta flv1/3$ mutant exposed to fluctuating light (FL)
 289 conditions exhibited extensive damage to PS I, a drastic decrease in net photosynthesis and
 290 to the KCN-sensitive component of light-induced O₂ uptake (Allahverdiyeva et al., 2013).
 291 To address a possible role of Cyd in light-induced O₂ uptake under FL conditions, MIMS
 292 analysis was undertaken in WT and $\Delta flv1/3$ cells incubated under the FL 20/500 regime
 293 (20 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ background light interrupted by 30 s pulses of 500 $\mu\text{mol photons}$
 294 $\text{m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ light every 5 min) for 3 days. The samples were analyzed either in the absence
 295 (control) or in the presence of HQNO, following illumination of the cells with strong white
 296 light of 400 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$. In WT cells, the addition of HQNO did not significantly
 297 affect the light-induced fraction of O₂ uptake (Fig. 3). Interestingly, the addition of HQNO
 298 to $\Delta flv1/3$ cells acclimated to FL conditions resulted in an 86% inhibition of the light-
 299 induced O₂ uptake rate, indicating a significant contribution of Cyd to O₂ uptake in the
 300 light.

301

302 To investigate further a possible role for Cyd and Cox in the acclimation of cyanobacterial
 303 cells to fluctuating light, the growth of RTO-deficient mutants was monitored under the FL
 304 20/500 regime for several days. No significant differences were observed in the growth of
 305 the mutants, compared to WT cells (Fig. 4A). Previously it has been shown and we have
 306 also confirmed that the $\Delta cox/cyd$ double mutant is not viable when subjected to a 12 h
 307 dark/12 h high light (150 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) square-wave cycle regime (Lea-Smith et

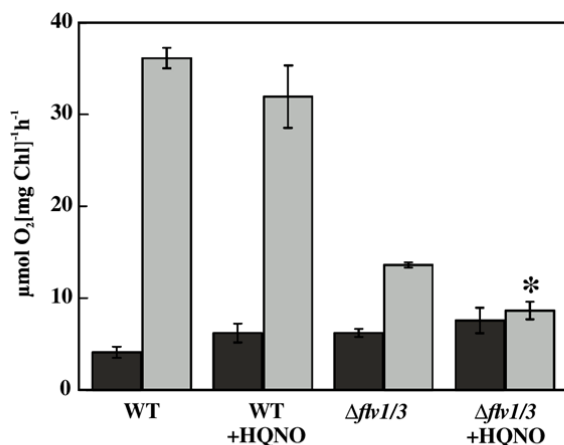


Figure 3. The rates of total O₂ uptake in darkness (black bars) and under the light (grey bars) in the WT and $\Delta fvl/3$ acclimated for 3 days to the fluctuating light FL 20/500 regime (20 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ background light interrupted by 30-s pulses of 500 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ light every 5 min). Measurements were performed using MIMS on cells incubated in darkness for 5 min and then illuminated with a strong white light (400 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) for 5 min either in the absence (control) or in the presence of HQNO. Mean \pm SD, n=3, asterisk indicates statistically significant difference between measurement with HQNO compared to control samples ($P < 0.05$).

al., 2013, Fig. S3A). Interestingly, when the duration of alternating dark and high-light phases was decreased to 5 min (5 min dark/5 min high-light 200 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) the $\Delta cox/cyd$ mutant survived (Fig. 4B). However, the growth of this strain and of the Δcox mutant was slower after 7 days, compared to the WT and Δcyd .

Gas-exchange analysis of the PS I-less mutant

A possible role of RTOs in light-stimulated electron transfer to O₂ in the PS I-less mutant (Shen et al., 1993), which is lacking functional PS I, was also studied by MIMS gas-exchange analysis. The ΔPSI cells demonstrated strong light-induced O₂ uptake which was insensitive to HQNO. However, this could be completely abolished by the addition of KCN (Fig. 5). These results indicated that in the cells lacking functional PS I, it is not Cyd but Cox which is shuttling electrons to O₂ during sudden, strong illumination.

Response of photosynthesis in RTO-deficient mutants to increasing light intensities

To characterize the impact of RTOs on photosynthetic electron transfer, “rapid light curves”, representing the response of photosynthetic parameters to gradually increasing light intensities, were recorded (Fig. 6). During the experiment the cells were illuminated with actinic light of different intensities for 60 s and a saturating pulse was applied at the end of each light period. The effective yield of PS II, Y(II), and the donor side limitation

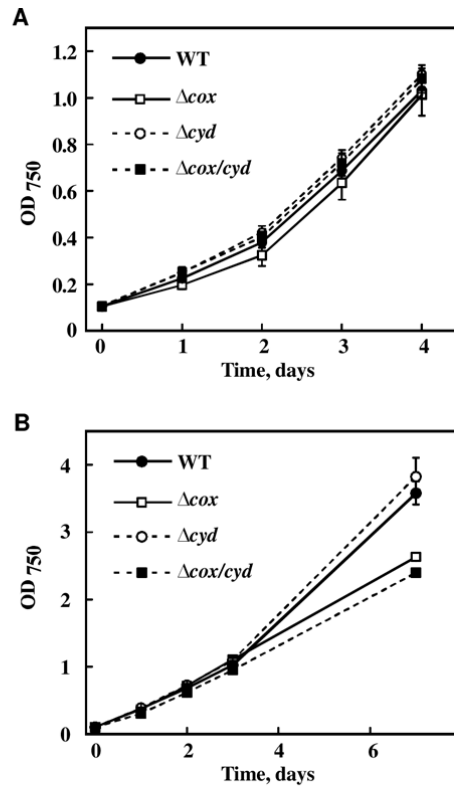


Figure 4. The growth of *Synechocystis* WT and RTO-deficient mutants under: (A) fluctuating light, FL 20/500 (20 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ background light, interrupted every 5 min with 30 s high light pulses of 500 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$); (B) 5 min dark / 5 min high light (200 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) square-wave cycles. Mean \pm SD, n=3.

of PS I, Y(ND), were specifically addressed to monitor the status of the intersystem electron transfer chain. The Δcox mutant was similar to the WT in the dynamics of Y(II), whilst Δcyd and $\Delta\text{cox/cyd}$ demonstrated a decrease of Y(II) under increasing light intensities (Fig. 6A). In Δcyd cells a decrease in PS II yield was observed under light intensities ranging from 57 to 220 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$. The $\Delta\text{cox/cyd}$ double mutant already displayed a decrease in PS II yield at the lower light intensities, starting at 10 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ (Fig. 6A).

The dynamics of the donor side limitation of PS I, Y(ND), was again similar between WT and Δcox cells; Y(ND) rose gradually as the light intensity increased (Fig. 6B). Interestingly, in Δcyd and $\Delta\text{cox/cyd}$ mutant cells, Y(ND) rose faster than in the WT and significantly exceeded the WT values at 58 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ (Fig. 6B). However under higher light intensities, starting from 220 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$, there was a slight but statistically significant difference ($P < 0.05$) in Y(ND) between Δcyd and $\Delta\text{cox/cyd}$. This result suggests that under high light the reduced electron flow to P700 in the Δcyd mutant

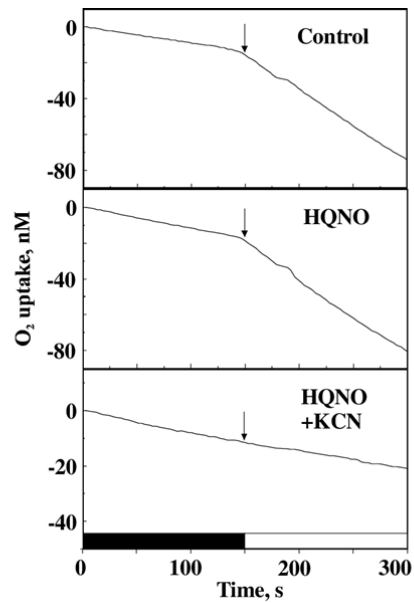


Figure 5. MIMS analysis of O_2 uptake by PS I-less mutant cells in the absence (control) and in the presence of HQNO and HQNO+KCN. O_2 uptake was monitored for 5 min in darkness and 5 min under the light intensity of $150 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$. Arrows indicate the beginning of illumination. The slope of the curves does not provide a precise quantitative measure of the rate of O_2 consumption until it is corrected for the isotopic ratio ($^{16}\text{O}/^{18}\text{O}$).

was presumably due to increased competition for electrons between PS I and Cox. No significant difference between WT and RTO-mutants was observed in acceptor side limitation of PS I, Y(NA) (Fig. S4).

To investigate whether sensitivity of the *Cyd*-deficient mutants to increasing light intensities would affect the growth of cells under high light, we grew highly diluted cultures of the WT and RTO-deficient mutants at a continuous light intensity of $500 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ (Fig. S3B). None of the mutants exhibited light-sensitivity under these conditions and all cultures reached a similar OD_{750} after 2 days of growth.

Analysis of the PQ pool redox status in RTO-mutants in darkness

Next we studied the PQ pool redox state in RTO-deficient mutants in darkness and under far-red (FR) illumination using Chl fluorescence analysis (Fig. 7). The dark-adapted cells of WT, Δcox and Δcyd demonstrated similar F_0 levels of minimal fluorescence in the dark, whereas $\Delta\text{cox}/\text{cyd}$ cells had a significantly higher F_0 level (Table S1). Next, a saturating pulse was applied to the cells to obtain the maximum fluorescence signal in darkness (F_M^D). All strains demonstrated similar F_M^D values (Table S1). The double mutant retained a higher level of fluorescence in the dark compared to the WT, whilst the Δcox cells

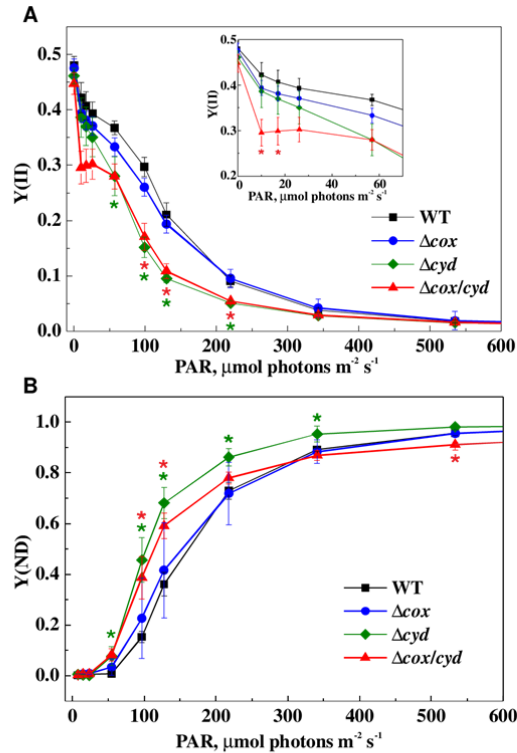


Figure 6. Rapid light curves of the WT and RTO-deficient mutants: (A) PS II yield, Y(II); (B) Donor side limitation of PS I, Y(ND). Mean \pm SD, $n=3$. Asterisks indicate a statistically significant difference compared to the WT ($P < 0.05$).

360 exhibited a slower relaxation of saturating pulse-induced fluorescence during the
 361 subsequent dark period (Fig. 7).

362

363 Due to the high flow of electrons to the electron transport chain from respiratory
 364 complexes, cyanobacterial cells are usually in State II during dark periods (Mullineaux and
 365 Allen, 1986) and therefore demonstrate low F_M^D values. In order to induce a State II to
 366 State I transition cells were then exposed to FR for 8 s to preferentially excite PS I and
 367 facilitate oxidation of the PQ pool. FR application did not affect the fluorescence level in
 368 the WT and single mutants; however, it resulted in a sudden drop of fluorescence in the
 369 $\Delta\text{cox/cyd}$ double mutant, to a level just slightly above those of WT and single mutant cells
 370 (Fig. 7). A FR-mediated decrease of fluorescence suggested a highly reduced PQ pool in
 371 $\Delta\text{cox/cyd}$ cells in darkness, which is in agreement with an earlier study by Howitt *et al*
 372 (2001). When a saturating pulse was applied over a FR background, all strains
 373 demonstrated an increased F_M^{FR} (Fig. 7, Table S1). Afterwards the relaxation of
 374 fluorescence was again recorded in darkness. The fluorescence levels of WT and Δcyd
 375 cells dropped down to a value similar to their initial F_0 levels. The fluorescence signal of

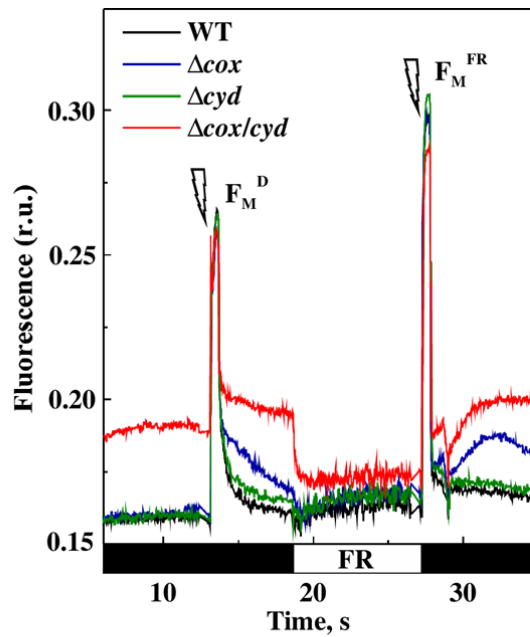


Figure 7. Fluorescence analysis of the WT and RTO-deficient mutant cells. Fluorescence was recorded in darkness (minimal fluorescence, F_0 , black bars on the timescale) and under far-red light (FR). Saturating pulses indicated by flashes were fired to monitor maximum fluorescence level in the dark (F_M^D) and under the FR background (F_M^{FR}). The values are provided in Table S1. Samples were adjusted to a Chl concentration of $15 \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ and dark-adapted for 10 min before the measurements. Results of one representative experiment of three independent experiments are shown.

the $\Delta\text{cox}/\text{cyd}$ mutant immediately returned to its initial higher level, demonstrating rapid reduction of the PQ pool in darkness. The Δcox cells demonstrated only a transient increase and subsequent relaxation of the fluorescence level after the termination of FR illumination.

Characterization of PS II functional status in RTO-mutants

To analyze in detail the functional status of PS II in the RTO mutants, the maximum quantum yield of PS II (F_V/F_M) was first measured with the Dual-PAM fluorometer in the presence of DCMU. The values did not differ significantly between the WT and mutants (Table S1). This is in line with the MIMS data showing nearly similar gross O_2 production in all studied RTO-deficient mutants compared to the WT (Table 1).

Next, the status of the PS II acceptor and donor sides in these strains was precisely addressed by comparing the relaxation kinetics of the flash-induced fluorescence yield. Following a single-turnover flash, relaxation of the variable fluorescence yield in darkness

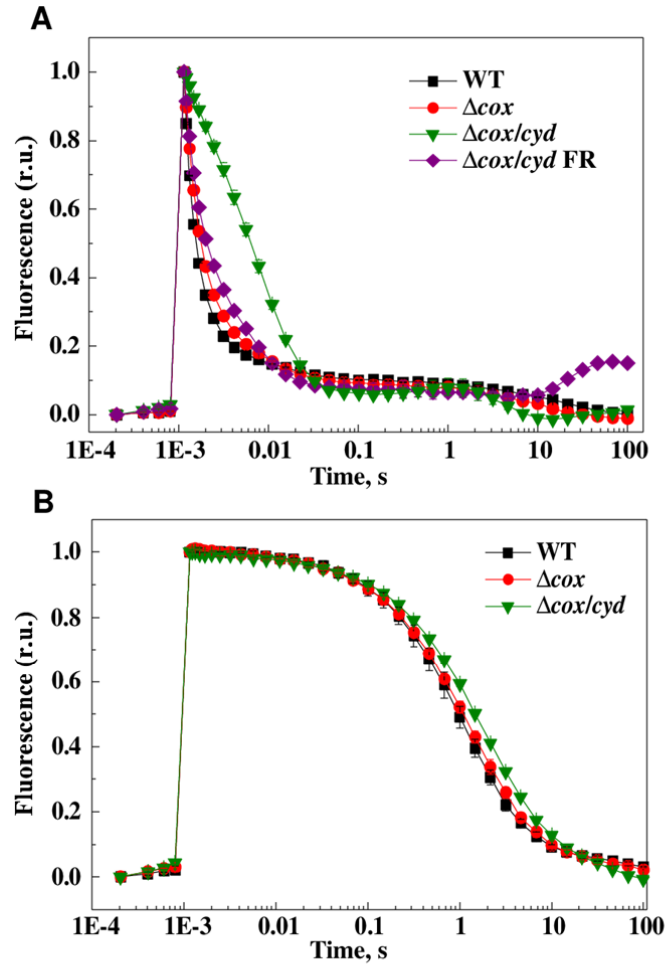


Figure 8. Relaxation of the flash-induced fluorescence yield in darkness.

Q_A^- re-oxidation was monitored: (A) from the dark-adapted WT (black squares), Δcox (red circles), $\Delta\text{cox}/\text{cyd}$ (green diamonds) and $\Delta\text{cox}/\text{cyd}$ (purple diamonds) cells pre-illuminated with far-red light for 30 s; (B) in the presence of 20 μM DCMU. Mean \pm SD, $n=3$. The F_0 and F_M values were normalized to 0 and 1, respectively, to facilitate comparison of the kinetics.

391 reflects the Q_A^- re-oxidation via forward Q_A -to- Q_B electron transfer and back
 392 recombination with $S_{2/3}$ states of the water-oxidizing complex of PS II. The fluorescence
 393 relaxation kinetics were comparable for WT and Δcyd cells (Fig. S5A), whilst Δcox
 394 showed a slower fluorescence decay and the $\Delta\text{cox}/\text{cyd}$ mutant demonstrated a drastically
 395 slower decay (Fig. 8A). These data indicated modified electron transfer at the PS II
 396 acceptor side in Δcox , which is exacerbated further in the $\Delta\text{cox}/\text{cyd}$ mutant cells.
 397 Interestingly, the fluorescence relaxation curve of $\Delta\text{cox}/\text{cyd}$ displayed a slight “wave
 398 phenomenon”, showing a dip at the time point of approximately 50 ms and a transient rise

399 of fluorescence at about 1 s after the flash. Deák et al. have recently observed similar
400 kinetics of fluorescence relaxation in *Synechocystis* cells when the electron flow to O₂ was
401 inhibited under anoxic conditions (Deák et al., 2014). This was due to transient oxidation
402 of the highly reduced PQ pool by PS I, followed by its re-reduction from cytosolic
403 components via the NDH-1 complex.

404

405 In order to clarify whether the slower relaxation kinetics of the Δcox and $\Delta\text{cox}/\text{cyd}$ mutants
406 were due to a reduced PQ pool, or to structural modifications in the PS II complex, strong
407 FR illumination was applied to cells just before fluorescence measurements. Pre-
408 illumination of the $\Delta\text{cox}/\text{cyd}$ cells with FR, preferentially exciting PS I and thus oxidizing
409 the PQ pool, significantly accelerated the fluorescence decay, bringing the curve closer to
410 that of Δcox cells (Fig. 8A). However, after 10 s of darkness the fluorescence level of the
411 $\Delta\text{cox}/\text{cyd}$ cells again started to increase. These results strongly suggest that a slowdown of
412 the Q_A re-oxidation rate in $\Delta\text{cox}/\text{cyd}$ was predominantly due to a highly reduced PQ pool
413 in darkness. However, FR illumination did not significantly affect the fluorescence
414 relaxation kinetics of the Δcox cells (Fig. S5B).

415

416 In the presence of DCMU, which blocks electron transfer at the Q_B site, Q_A⁻ re-oxidation
417 occurs via charge recombination with the donor side components, mostly the S₂ state of the
418 water oxidizing complex (Vass et al., 1999). Interestingly, in the presence of DCMU,
419 $\Delta\text{cox}/\text{cyd}$ still demonstrated slightly slower fluorescence relaxation, compared to the WT,
420 likely indicating accumulation of PS II centers with a modified donor side in the mutant
421 cells. The Δcox and Δcyd cells showed a similar relaxation kinetics profile to the WT (Fig.
422 8B).

423

424 **The P700 redox state in the RTO-deficient mutants**

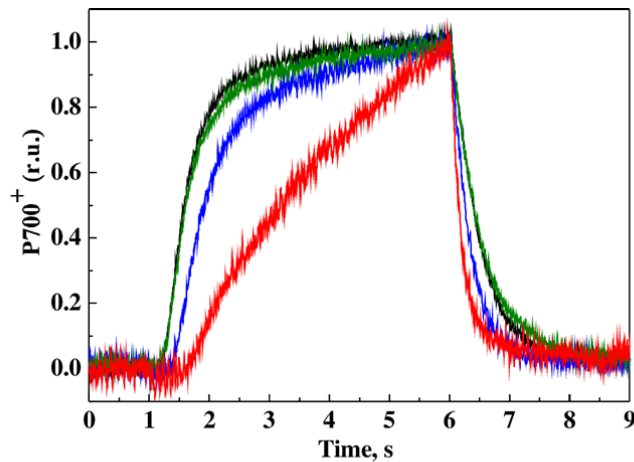


Figure 9. P700 oxido-reduction. P700 oxidation and re-reduction in the WT and mutant cells illuminated with strong far-red light for 5 s. WT (black); Δcox (blue); Δcyd (green); $\Delta\text{cox/cyd}$ (red). Curves were normalized to the same amplitude to facilitate comparison of the kinetics. Results of one representative experiment of three independent experiments are shown.

The redox state of P700 was monitored during dark-light-dark transitions by the application of strong FR light (Fig. 9). The kinetics of P700 oxidation and re-reduction were similar between WT and Δcyd cells. The Δcox mutant demonstrated a small lag-phase during oxidation of P700 and faster re-reduction compared to the WT. Drastically slower oxidation and faster re-reduction was recorded for the $\Delta\text{cox/cyd}$ mutant, as compared to the WT and single mutants (Fig. 9). This is in line with the fluorescence analysis results, implying a highly reduced PQ pool in $\Delta\text{cox/cyd}$ cells in darkness. However, the maximum amount of oxidizable P700 (P_M) did not differ significantly between the WT and RTO-deficient mutants (Table S1).

The PS II/PS I ratio in the RTO-deficient mutants

In order to determine whether the modified redox state of the PQ pool observed in the double mutant during dark-to-light transitions affected energy transfer between photosystems, the 77K fluorescence emission spectra of the WT and RTO-deficient mutants was analyzed. Spectra of mutant cells excited with either 440-nm (Chl excitation) or 580-nm (phycobilisome excitation) light did not differ from the WT spectra (Fig. S6), suggesting the absence of significant changes in the PS II/PS I ratio and in energy transfer from phycobilisomes to the reaction centers of photosystems. In addition, total protein fractions were isolated from the cells grown under continuous light ($50 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) and probed with a range of antibodies. The amount of PsaB and PsbA (D1), proteins in

445 the reaction centers of PS I and PS II, respectively, were similar between all strains (Fig.
446 S7). Likewise amounts of the ATP synthase β subunit and Flv2, Flv3 and Flv4 were
447 similar between all strains.

448

449

450 **DISCUSSION**

451 The intersystem electron transport chain of photosynthetic organisms plays an important
452 role in regulation of the photosynthetic apparatus. The Cyt *b₆f* complex in higher plants is
453 known to act in photosynthetic control, regulating electron flow to PS I (Nishio and
454 Whitmarsh, 1993; Joliot and Johnson, 2011; Suorsa et al., 2013). In *Synechocystis*, the
455 presence of thylakoid membrane-localized terminal oxidases, Cyd and Cox, strongly
456 suggests that RTOs may regulate the intersystem electron transport, not only under dark
457 conditions, but also during light periods. In *Synechocystis*, the total O₂ uptake in the light
458 could consist of two components: the “respiratory component” and the light-induced
459 component. The “respiratory component” can be detected in darkness but could also
460 contribute to the total O₂ uptake observed under light, whereas the light-induced
461 component can only be monitored upon the application of light and is estimated by
462 subtracting the “respiratory component” from total O₂ uptake under light. Shifting cells
463 from darkness to dim light is known to inhibit O₂ uptake by RTOs (Kok effect), likely
464 because of higher affinity of PS I for electrons from Pc and Cyt *c₆* (Kok, 1949). However,
465 accurately determining the contribution of specific respiratory RTOs to the total O₂ uptake
466 under moderate or high light is a challenge, mainly because it is not known how their
467 relative activity changes under different conditions.

468

469 **Cyd contributes to the redox poise of the PQ pool under light**

470 It was generally accepted that addition of DBMIB should maintain a reduced PQ pool
471 during periods of illumination by blocking electron transport at the site of Cyt *b₆f* (Trebst
472 et al., 1970; Yan et al., 2006). Therefore, in numerous studies, DCMU or DBMIB was
473 added to cyanobacterial cells in order to simulate either an oxidized or reduced redox state
474 of the PQ pool (Hihara et al., 2003; Huang et al., 2003). However, recent data obtained via
475 HPLC demonstrated that in WT *Synechocystis* cells the PQ pool is not as highly reduced
476 during illumination in the presence of DBMIB as previously thought (Schuurmans et al.,
477 2014). Here we demonstrate that, following inhibition of linear electron transport with
478 DBMIB, WT cells of *Synechocystis* are capable of light-induced O₂ uptake, indicating the
479 presence of an alternative electron exit route from the PQ pool to O₂ in the light (Fig. 2).
480 Observed stimulation of O₂ reduction in the light was completely missing after the addition
481 of HQNO to DBMIB treated WT and Δ *cox* cells as well as in the Δ *cyd* and Δ *cox/cyd* cells
482 subjected to DBMIB only (Fig. 2, Table 1). Thus, Cyd contributes to the light-induced O₂
483 uptake observed in the WT when linear electron transport is limited.

484

485 Earlier studies already suggested that Cyd is involved in oxidation of the PQ pool
486 (Schneider et al., 2001; Berry et al., 2002; Schneider et al., 2004). However, those studies
487 were based on an indirect fluorescence method. Through application of the $^{18}\text{O}_2$ isotope
488 and the MIMS technique, we could directly demonstrate the O_2 uptake activity of Cyd
489 (Fig. 2) and also confirmed that Cyd accepts electrons directly from the PQ pool, since the
490 addition of DCBQ eliminated Cyd-mediated light-induced O_2 uptake (Fig. S2A). In the
491 presence of DBMIB, the rates of total O_2 uptake in the light were similar to the rates of
492 gross O_2 production by PS II. Therefore the rate of net photosynthesis was close to zero in
493 the WT and single mutants (Table 1). Importantly, the gross O_2 production rates were
494 about four times higher in the WT and Δcox cells compared to the Δcyd and $\Delta\text{cox/cyd}$
495 suggesting that the quinol-oxidizing activity of Cyd contributes to alleviation of PS II
496 acceptor side limitation and facilitates gross O_2 production in the presence of DBMIB.
497 This is corroborated by earlier reports which demonstrated an increased level of Cyd
498 associated with impairment of the Cyt b_6f complex in the mutants lacking LepB1 and
499 PetC1 (Zhang et al., 2013; Tsunoyama et al., 2009).

500

501 A decrease of the effective PS II yield in the Δcyd and $\Delta\text{cox/cyd}$ mutant cells upon a
502 sudden increase in light intensity indicates, that in the absence of Cyd, electrons
503 accumulate in the PQ pool and affect the Y(II) levels (Fig. 6A). These data also
504 demonstrate that PQH₂ oxidation by Cyt b_6f is the rate-limiting step in the linear electron
505 transport under sub-optimal conditions. Conservation of the PQH₂ oxidizing terminal
506 oxidases, either Cyd, ARTO or PTOX, in all sequenced cyanobacteria which are
507 potentially exposed to high light, further emphasizes the importance of an alternative
508 electron exit pathway to that provided by Cyt b_6f (Lea-Smith et al., 2013). An example
509 occurs in the marine cyanobacterium, *Synechococcus* WH8102, which exhibits a
510 significant flow of electrons to O_2 , likely via PTOX, and is caused by the highly reduced
511 state of the PQ pool due to the shortage of Cyt b_6f and PS I in an iron-limited environment
512 (Bailey et al., 2008). Moreover, Δcyd develops high PS I donor side limitation more
513 rapidly under elevated light intensities (Fig. 6B), due to up-regulated Cox activity, as is
514 shown by the increased light-induced O_2 uptake rate in this strain (Table 1). Previous
515 studies also suggest that the activity of RTOs in the light might be regulated by the redox

state of Pc and Cyt *c* (in the case of Cox) and, plausibly, by the redox state of the PQ pool (in the case of Cyd, PTOX and possibly ARTO) (Ardelean and Peschek, 2011).

Interplay between Cyd and flavodiiron proteins

It is clear that both Flv1 and Flv3 are responsible for the light-induced O₂ uptake in *Synechocystis* at least during dark to high light transitions (Fig. S1, Helman et al., 2003; Allahverdiyeva et al., 2011). Helman et al. (2005) estimated that in low CO₂-grown cells of $\Delta flv3$, RTOs redirect 6% of electrons originating from water splitting to O₂ in the light. Thus, upon application of strong light, the mutant retains the “respiratory component” of O₂ uptake driven by RTOs as an alternative sink for light-driven electrons. In agreement with this, under fluctuating light conditions, where electron transfer chain is drastically inhibited in $\Delta flv1/3$ due to damage to PS I (Allahverdiyeva et al., 2013), the $\Delta flv1/3$ mutant showed an HQNO-sensitive light-induced O₂ uptake (Fig. 3). This is yet another demonstration of Cyd-driven light-induced O₂ uptake when cells are grown under sub-optimal conditions, despite the absence of changes in *cyd* transcript level under FL (Mustila et al., 2016).

It has been previously reported that light-induced O₂ uptake in the $\Delta flv1/3$ cells under FL was functioning at full capacity when cells were exposed to background dim light (20 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$), and that this did not increase further upon the application of high-light pulses. Therefore, Cyd cannot rescue the fatal $\Delta flv1/3$ phenotype (Allahverdiyeva et al., 2013). The unambiguous importance of Flv1 and Flv3 under fluctuating light indicates that they are functioning on a fast time scale downstream of PS I, and have a higher capacity as an electron sink under these conditions, compared to the RTOs. In part this could be due to the soluble nature of Flv1 and Flv3, which would facilitate rapid association with NADPH and allow large amounts of protein to accumulate in the cytosol. In contrast, RTOs are membrane-localized and may be limited in number, due to the highly crowded nature of the thylakoid membrane. Following rapid light changes, a time consuming redistribution of protein complexes occurs within the membrane in order to facilitate efficient electron transfer (Mullineaux, 2014b; Liu et al., 2012).

Cox is mostly active in dark respiration, and can be substituted by Cyd under light conditions

549 The contribution of Cyd to dark respiration seems to be minor, since the redox state of the
 550 PQ pool in Δcyd cells was not affected in darkness, as confirmed via P700 oxido-reduction
 551 (Fig. 9), Q_A^- re-oxidation kinetics (Fig. 8, Fig. S5), and fluorescence analysis (Fig. 7).
 552 However, the presence of Cyd was beneficial in Δcox cells under light, since the Q_A^- re-
 553 oxidation and the P700 oxido-reduction kinetics differed significantly between Δcox and
 554 $\Delta cox/cyd$ cells (Fig. 8, Fig. 9). In contrast to Δcyd , deletion of Cox drastically decreased
 555 the rate of dark respiration (Table 1; Howitt and Vermaas, 1998; Pils et al., 1997; Pils and
 556 Schmetterer, 2001) and had a prominent effect on the redox state of the PQ pool in
 557 darkness (Fig. 7, Fig. 8, Fig. 9), but not under illumination (Fig. 6). Therefore, in
 558 *Synechocystis*, Cox can be efficiently substituted by Cyd under illumination. Nevertheless,
 559 in the PS I-less mutant of *Synechocystis*, Cox instead of Cyd was the main RTO shuttling
 560 electrons to O_2 in the light (Fig. 5). Since Cox is required for chemoheterotrophic growth
 561 of *Synechocystis* (Pills et al., 1997) and the PS I-less mutant grows in the presence of
 562 glucose under a low light intensity of $5 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$, it is highly possible that Cox
 563 is the main thylakoid-localized RTO in this mutant. However, since the PS I-less mutant is
 564 highly sensitive to light (Shen et al., 1993), the contribution of Cox as an electron shuttle
 565 to O_2 is likely to be less efficient compared with PSI activity or this could be a transient
 566 phenomenon. It is possible that under specific conditions Cox also produces ROS via a
 567 mechanism similar to PTOX in plants (Heyno et al., 2009; Feilke et al. 2014; Yu et al.
 568 2014), thereby generating oxidative damage to the cells. On the other hand, rapid light
 569 curve analysis demonstrated a slight but significant difference in Y(ND) values between
 570 Δcyd and $\Delta cox/cyd$ cells under higher light intensities indicating competition between PS I
 571 and Cox for electrons in the Δcyd mutant (Fig 6B). Thus, both Cyd and Cox have a role in
 572 regulating the amount of electrons arriving to PS I in the light, although Cox activity only
 573 increases only in the absence of Cyd.

574

575 **The role of RTOs in dark/light transitions**

576 Despite strong evidence for thylakoid-based RTOs regulating photosynthetic electron
 577 flow, deletion mutants do not demonstrate a strong photoautotrophic growth phenotype
 578 under continuous moderate light (Howitt and Vermaas, 1998; Lea-Smith et al., 2013), high
 579 light (Fig. S3B, Lea-Smith et al., 2013) and fluctuating light intensity regimes (Fig. 4A).
 580 Thus, it is likely that when the Flv1/3 complex is functioning properly under illumination,
 581 RTOs are not essential. However, during periods of darkness, only RTOs can oxidize the

582 PQ pool, as demonstrated by the $\Delta\text{cox}/\text{cyd}$ mutant having a drastically slower oxidation
583 and faster re-reduction rate of P700, and slower Q_A^- re-oxidation kinetics in the dark (Fig.
584 7, Fig. 8, Fig. 9). Importantly, the PQ pool in the double mutant could be immediately
585 oxidized by the application of strong FR light (Fig. 7, Fig. 8) but not by the application of
586 low light. The latter result could be concluded from a decreased Y(II) in the light curve
587 analysis at 10-30 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ light intensity (Fig. 6A). However, in the same
588 experiment under moderate and high light intensities, $\Delta\text{cox}/\text{cyd}$ behaved similarly to the
589 Δcyd cells.

590

591 Either Cox or Cyd is required for survival of cells under 12 h high light/12 h dark square-
592 wave cycles (Fig. S3A, Lea-Smith et al., 2013) but interestingly not under 12 h high
593 light/12 h dark sinusoidal-wave cycles (Lea-Smith et al., 2013) or 5 min high light/5 min
594 dark square-wave cycles (Fig. 4B). Therefore, the importance of RTOs seems to depend on
595 both the length of the dark and light periods and the amount of photodamage occurring
596 during the light period. Indeed, significant ROS production and inactivation of the PS II
597 complex was observed in the double mutant subjected to 12 h high light/12 h dark square-
598 wave cycles only at the end of a long dark period, possibly due to an insufficient amount
599 of ATP for PS II repair and an over-reduced PQ pool (Lea-Smith et al., 2013). Under 12 h
600 high light/12 h dark sinusoidal-wave cycles, (i) cells are not subjected to rapid high light
601 exposure, reducing damage to PS II, moreover (ii) damaged PS II centers have a
602 possibility for efficient repair during a low light phase before a dark period, therefore the
603 cells have a reduced energy requirements for repair, which can be substituted by
604 alternatives to dark respiration, most likely fermentation.

605

606 Under short dark/light periods (Fig. 4B) the cells may be able to oxidize the PQ pool
607 regularly, thus generating ATP and reducing power which can be used in darkness,
608 although not as efficiently as the WT, since growth of the Δcox and $\Delta\text{cox}/\text{cyd}$ mutants was
609 reduced after 7 days.

610

611 CONCLUSION

612 Through the use of well-defined mutants and inhibitors combined with MIMS gas-
613 exchange analysis, we show the subtle effects of loss of RTO complexes on each part of
614 the photosynthetic electron transfer chain. Importantly, RTO-mediated respiratory O_2

uptake can continue at a similar rate upon high light illumination, thus contributing to oxidation of the PQ pool. Cox is the most important RTO in dark respiration, but also competes with PS I for electrons, functioning as a regulator of the electron flow to this photosystem under high light. Under illumination, Cyd is the major RTO oxidizing PQH₂. However, Cyd only up-regulates O₂ photoreduction under certain conditions, specifically when Flv1 and Flv3 protein activity is insufficient to prevent linear electron transport blockage at the level of Cyt *b₆f* or PS I. Flv1 and Flv3 proteins are not involved in dark respiration but are responsible for the majority of the light-induced O₂ uptake component. Thus both RTOs and Flv1/3 pathways play an important role in alleviation of excess electrons using O₂ as a terminal acceptor under illumination: RTOs continue to function in the light, although operating on slower time ranges and on limited scale, whereas Flv1/3 responds rapidly as a light-induced component and with greater capacity.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Strains and Culture Conditions

The strains used in this study included *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803 (WT), mutants lacking respiratory terminal oxidases: Δcyd , Δcox , $\Delta cox/cyd$ (all described previously in Lea-Smith et al., 2013); mutant deficient in flavodiiron proteins: $\Delta flv1/flv3$ (Allahverdiyeva et al., 2011) and the PS I-less mutant (Shen et al., 1993). Cells were maintained in BG11 medium buffered with 10mM N-[Tris(hydroxymethyl)methyl]-2-aminoethanesulfonic acid (TES-KOH, pH 8.2) under continuous illumination of 50 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ (PAR), 3% CO₂, 30 °C with gentle agitation (120 rpm). For all physiological experiments cells were inoculated to OD_{750nm}=0.5-0.6 and shifted to ambient CO₂ conditions for 3 days before measurements. Experimental cultures were cultivated in AlgaeTron AG130 growth chambers (PSI Instruments, Czech) under continuous illumination of 50 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ (provided by cool-white LED), unless mentioned otherwise. For the high light growth experiments, a dilution series of cells starting from OD₇₅₀=0.1 were subjected to a light intensity of 500 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$. For the MIMS measurements of fluctuating light-treated cells, cultures at an OD₇₅₀=0.5-0.6 were shifted to a light regime with a background light of 20 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ interrupted by 30 s pulses of 500 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ light every 5 min (FL 20/500). For the growth experiments under fluctuating light

648 conditions, cells were subjected to FL 20/500 or a 5 min dark/5 min 200 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2}$
649 s^{-1} light regime starting from an $\text{OD}_{750}=0.1$. For all activity measurements, cells were
650 harvested and resuspended in fresh BG11 medium at the desired Chl concentration and
651 acclimated for 1 h under respective growth conditions before the measurements. The PS I-
652 less mutant was grown in the presence of 5 mM glucose at a light intensity of 5 μmol
653 $\text{photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$.

654

655 **Membrane Inlet Mass Spectrometry (MIMS)**

656 Online measurements of $^{16}\text{O}_2$ (mass 32) production and $^{18}\text{O}_2$ (mass 36) consumption were
657 monitored using mass spectrometry (model Prima PRO, Thermo Scientific). The
658 membrane inlet system consists of a thermo-regulated DW1 oxygen electrode chamber,
659 which is connected to the vacuum line of the mass spectrometer via a gas-permeable thin
660 Teflon membrane (1 mil stretch membrane, YSI Inc, Ohio, USA), which seals the bottom
661 of the chamber. For analyses, 1.5 ml of cell suspension at a Chl concentration of 15 μg
662 mL^{-1} was placed into the measuring chamber and stirred continuously. Gases dissolved in
663 the medium diffuse through the Teflon membrane to the ion source of the mass
664 spectrometer. Prior to the measurement, $^{18}\text{O}_2$ (isotope purity > 98%; CK Gas Products Ltd)
665 was injected by bubbling at the top of the suspension until the concentrations of $^{16}\text{O}_2$ and
666 $^{18}\text{O}_2$ were equal. Then samples were measured for 5 min in darkness to record O_2
667 consumption caused by respiration. Following this period, actinic light (400 $\mu\text{mol photons}$
668 $\text{m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$; 150 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ in the case of the PS I-less mutant) was applied via a
669 150 Watt, 21 V, EKE quartz halogen-powered fiber optic illuminator (Fiber-Lite DC-950,
670 Dolan-Jenner, MA, USA). Gas-exchange kinetics and rates were determined according to
671 Beckmann et al. (2009). The final concentration of inhibitors and electron acceptors used
672 in MIMS experiments was 25 μM DBMIB, 50 μM HQNO, 0.5 mM DCBQ and 1 mM
673 KCN. All the measurements were performed in the presence of 1 mM NaHCO_3 .

674

675 **Protein Isolation, Electrophoresis, and Immunodetection**

676 Total protein extracts of *Synechocystis* cells were isolated as described in Zhang et al.
677 (2009). Proteins were separated by 12% (w/v) SDS-PAGE containing 6 M urea,
678 transferred to a PVDF membrane (Immobilon-P, Millipore) and analyzed with the protein-
679 specific antibodies.

680

681 **Fluorescence measurements**

682 The Chl fluorescence from intact cells was recorded with a pulse amplitude modulated
683 fluorometer Dual-PAM-100 (Walz, Germany). Prior to measurements, cell suspensions at
684 a Chl concentration of $15 \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ were dark-adapted for 10 min. Saturating pulses of
685 $5,000 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (300 ms) and strong far-red light (720 nm, 75 W m^{-2}) were
686 applied to samples when required. The maximum quantum yield of PS II was calculated as
687 $(F_M - F_0)/F_M = F_V/F_M$, and measured in the presence of 20 μM DCMU from dark-adapted
688 cells upon the application of red actinic light of $200 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ for 1 min.

689

690 The kinetics of the Chl fluorescence decay after a single-turnover saturating flash were
691 monitored using a fluorometer FL 3500 (PSI Instruments) according to Vass et al. (1999).
692 Cells were adjusted to a Chl concentration of $7.5 \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ and dark-adapted for 5 min
693 before measurements. When indicated, measurements were performed in the presence of
694 20 μM DCMU. In some experiments cells were illuminated for 30 s with a strong far-red
695 light before application of the flash.

696

697 The fluorescence emission spectra at 77K were measured from intact cells using a
698 USB4000-FL-450 (Ocean Optics) spectrofluorometer. Samples were removed from
699 cultures, adjusted to a Chl concentration of $7.5 \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$, rapidly frozen in liquid nitrogen
700 and excited with 580 nm or 440 nm light generated with interference filters 10 nm in
701 width.

702

703 **P700 Oxidation and Re-reduction**

704 Oxidation and re-reduction of P700 was monitored using a Dual-PAM-100 (Walz). Cell
705 suspensions at a Chl concentration of $20 \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ were dark-adapted for 2 min before
706 measurements. For P700 oxidation, cells were illuminated with strong far-red light (720
707 nm, 75 W m^{-2}) for 5 s and the subsequent re-reduction was recorded in darkness.

708

709 **Light Curves**

710 Rapid light curves were measured without dark adaptation of the cells using standard
711 protocols programmed into a Dual-PAM-100 (Walz) with the 60 s illumination periods
712 gradually increasing in light intensity. At the end of each light period a saturating pulse
713 was applied to monitor the photosynthetic parameters. The effective yield of PS II, $Y(\text{II})$,

714 was calculated as $(F_M' - F_S)/F_M'$. The Y(ND), non-photochemical quantum yield of PS I
 715 caused by the donor side limitation, was calculated as (P/P_M) . The Y(NA), acceptor side
 716 limitation of PS I, was calculated as $[(P_M - P_M') / P_M]$.

717

718 **Acknowledgments:** We are grateful to Dr. W. Vermaas for sharing the PS I-less mutant.

719

720

721 **Table 1.** O₂ exchange rates of the WT and mutant cells. Rates are in $\mu\text{mol O}_2 [\text{mg Chl}]^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$
 722 ¹. Mean \pm SD, n=3-5. Asterisks indicate a statistically significant difference compared to
 723 the WT (P<0.05).

| Gas-exchange conditions | | | WT | Δcyd | Δcox | $\Delta cox/cyd$ |
|-------------------------|---------------------------|---------------|------------------|------------------|-------------------|------------------|
| Control | O ₂ uptake | Dark | 8.3 \pm 1.2 | 5.1 \pm 0.8* | 3.5 \pm 0.5* | 0.3 \pm 0.2* |
| | | Light-induced | 26.3 \pm 6.9 | 35.3 \pm 8.3* | 38.4 \pm 5.5* | 24.7 \pm 3.0 |
| | | Total Light | 34.6 \pm 6.7 | 40.5 \pm 7.5 | 41.5 \pm 5.1* | 24.9 \pm 3.0 |
| | O ₂ production | Gross | 193.3 \pm 20.1 | 190.7 \pm 26.4 | 190.25 \pm 18.1 | 184.9 \pm 21.5 |
| | | Net | 158.6 \pm 19.3 | 150.3 \pm 19.2 | 148.7 \pm 15.1 | 159.6 \pm 22.5 |
| DBMIB | O ₂ uptake | Dark | 10.1 \pm 1.5 | 13.1 \pm 1.3 | 12.8 \pm 3.1 | 9.3 \pm 1.3 |
| | | Light-induced | 11.6 \pm 2.3 | N/A | 7.9 \pm 0.6 * | N/A |
| | | Total Light | 21.5 \pm 2.8 | 7.0 \pm 0.8* | 20.7 \pm 2.5 | 7.7 \pm 1.9* |
| | O ₂ production | Gross | 24.2 \pm 3.1 | 5.5 \pm 1.3* | 19.8 \pm 3.8* | 2.75 \pm 0.4* |
| | | Net | 2.9 \pm 0.2 | N/A | N/A | N/A |
| DBMIB+ HQNO | O ₂ uptake | Dark | 12.9 \pm 0.3 | 11.3 \pm 3.5 | 10.9 \pm 3.9 | 10.2 \pm 0.2* |
| | | Light-induced | N/A | N/A | N/A | N/A |
| | | Total Light | 12.3 \pm 0.6 | 7.0 \pm 1.1 | 10.8 \pm 3.4 | 9.8 \pm 0.5 |

724

725 Figure Legends

726 **Figure 1.** Schematic diagram of the thylakoid membrane-localized photosynthetic and
 727 respiratory electron transfer chains. Lines indicate electron transport; dotted lines indicate
 728 possible but poorly characterized electron transfer and proton pathways. PS II,
 729 Photosystem II; Flv2/4, Flavodiiron proteins 2/4; Flv1/3, Flavodiiron proteins 1/3; PQ,
 730 plastoquinone; PQH₂, plastoquinol; Cyt *b*₆f, cytochrome *b*₆f complex; Pc, plastocyanin;
 731 Cyt *c*₆, cytochrome *c*₆; PS I, Photosystem I; Fd, ferredoxin; FNR, ferredoxin-NADP⁺
 732 oxidoreductase; NDH-1, NAD(P)H dehydrogenase-like complex type 1; SDH, succinate

733 dehydrogenase; NDH-2, NAD(P)H dehydrogenase type 2; Cyd, cytochrome *bd* quinol
734 oxidase; Cox, cytochrome *c* oxidase.

735

736 **Figure 2.** The rates of O₂ exchange in the WT and Δcyd mutant cells incubated in darkness
737 for 5 min and then illuminated with a strong white light (400 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) for the
738 next 5 min. Black bars and grey bars indicate the rates of total O₂ uptake by cells in
739 darkness and in the light, respectively; white bars indicate the gross O₂ production rate.
740 Measurements were performed either in the absence of inhibitors (control) or in the
741 presence of DBMIB or DBMIB + HQNO. Mean \pm SD, n=3-5.

742

743 **Figure 3.** The rates of total O₂ uptake in darkness (black bars) and in the light (grey bars)
744 in the WT and $\Delta flv1/3$ acclimated for 3 days to a fluctuating light FL 20/500 regime
745 (20 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ background light interrupted by 30 s pulses of 500 $\mu\text{mol photons}$
746 $\text{m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ light every 5 min). Measurements were performed using MIMS on cells incubated
747 in darkness for 5 min and then illuminated with a strong white light (400 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2}$
748 s^{-1}) for 5 min either in the absence (control) or in the presence of HQNO. Mean \pm SD, n=3,
749 asterisks indicates statistically significant difference between measurement with HQNO
750 compared to control samples (P<0.05).

751

752 **Figure 4.** The growth of *Synechocystis* WT and RTO-deficient mutants under: (A)
753 fluctuating light, FL 20/500 (20 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ background light, interrupted every
754 5 min with 30 s high light pulses of 500 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$); (B) 5 min dark / 5 min
755 high light (200 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) square-wave cycles. Mean \pm SD, n=3.

756

757 **Figure 5.** MIMS analysis of O₂ uptake by PS I-less mutant cells in the absence (control)
758 and in the presence of HQNO and HQNO+KCN. O₂ uptake was monitored for 5 min in
759 darkness and 5 min under a light intensity of 150 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$. Arrows indicate the
760 beginning of illumination. The slope of the curves does not provide a precise quantitative
761 measure of the rate of O₂ consumption until it is corrected for the isotopic ratio (¹⁶O/¹⁸O).

762

763 **Figure 6.** Rapid light curves of the WT and RTO-deficient mutants: (A) PS II yield, Y(II);
764 (B) Donor side limitation of PS I, Y(ND). Mean \pm SD, n=3. Asterisks indicate a
765 statistically significant difference compared to WT (P<0.05).

766 **Figure 7.** Fluorescence analysis of the WT and RTO-deficient mutant cells. Fluorescence
767 was recorded in darkness (minimal fluorescence, F_0 , black bars on the timescale) and
768 under far-red light (FR). Saturating pulses indicated by flashes were fired to monitor
769 maximum fluorescence level in the dark (F_M^D) and under the FR background (F_M^{FR}). The
770 values are provided in Table S1. Samples were adjusted to a Chl concentration of 15 μg
771 mL^{-1} and dark-adapted for 10 min before the measurements. A representative curve of
772 three independent experiments is shown.

774 **Figure 8.** Relaxation of the flash-induced fluorescence yield in darkness. Q_A^- re-oxidation
775 was monitored: (A) from the dark-adapted WT (black squares), Δcox (red circles),
776 $\Delta\text{cox/cyd}$ (green diamonds) and $\Delta\text{cox/cyd}$ (purple diamonds) cells pre-illuminated with far-
777 red light for 30 s; (B) in the presence of 20 μM DCMU. Mean \pm SD, $n=3$. The F_0 and F_M
778 values were normalized to 0 and 1, respectively, to facilitate comparison of the kinetics.

780 **Figure 9.** P700 oxido-reduction. P700 oxidation and re-reduction in the WT and mutant
781 cells illuminated with strong far-red light for 5 s. WT (black); Δcox (blue); Δcyd (green);
782 $\Delta\text{cox/cyd}$ (red). Curves were normalized to the same amplitude to facilitate comparison of
783 the kinetics. A representative curve of three independent experiments is shown.

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MATERIALS AND METHODS

Oxygen Evolution Measurements with a Clark-type oxygen electrode

The effect of different DBMIB concentrations on the net O₂ production was measured with a Clark-type oxygen electrode (Hansatech Ltd, Norfolk, England) at 30°C under 400 μmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹ actinic light applied via a 150 Watt, 21 V, EKE quartz halogen-powered fiber optic illuminator (Fiber-Lite DC-950, Dolan-Jenner, MA, USA). Before measurements the cells were collected and resuspended in fresh growth medium at a chlorophyll concentration of 15 μg mL⁻¹. All the measurements were performed in the presence of 1 mM NaHCO₃.

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FIGURES

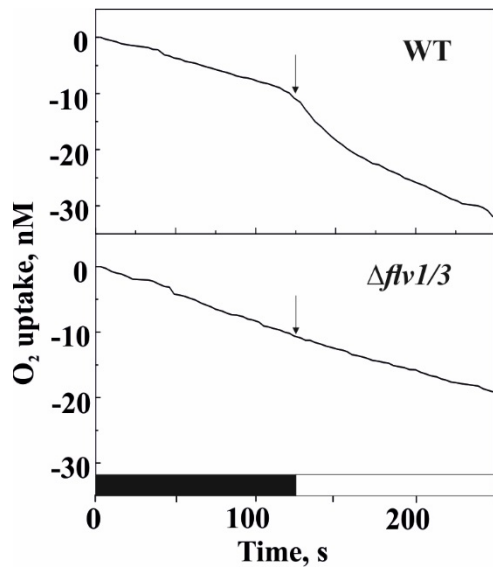


Figure S1. MIMS analysis of O₂ uptake by WT and $\Delta flv1/3$ cells during dark to light transition. Arrows indicate the beginning of illumination with a strong white light at an intensity of $400 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$. The slope of the curves does not provide a precise quantitative measure of the rate of O₂ consumption until it is corrected for the isotopic ratio ($^{16}\text{O}/^{18}\text{O}$).

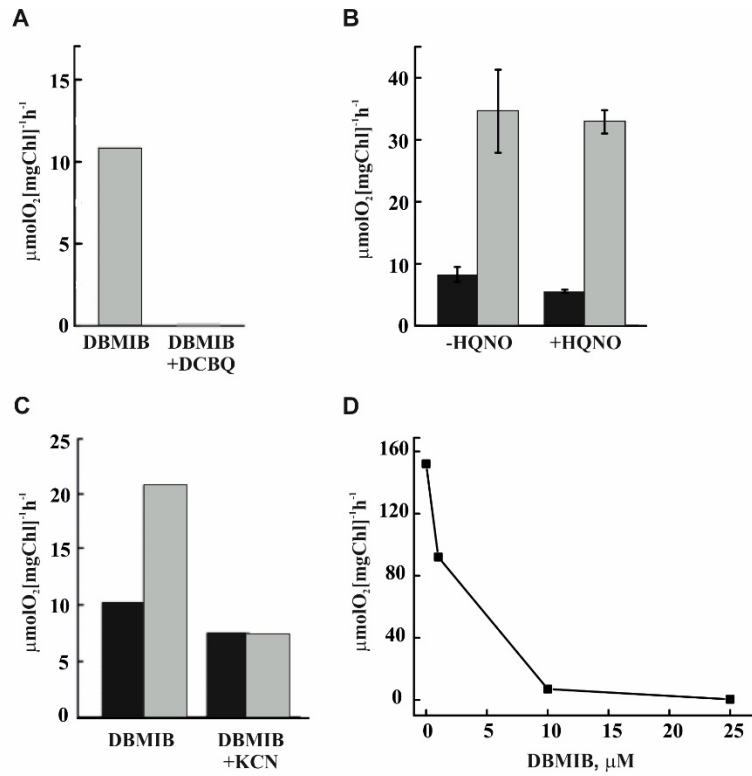


Figure S2. The rates of O_2 uptake and O_2 production in WT *Synechocystis* cells: (A) Light-induced O_2 uptake in the presence of DBMIB and DBMIB+DCBQ; (B) Total O_2 uptake in darkness (black bars) and in the light (grey bars) without and in the presence of HQNO, mean \pm SD, n=3-4; (C) Total O_2 uptake in darkness (black bars) and in the light (grey bars) in the presence of DBMIB or DBMIB+KCN and (D) Net O_2 production in the presence of increasing DBMIB concentrations.

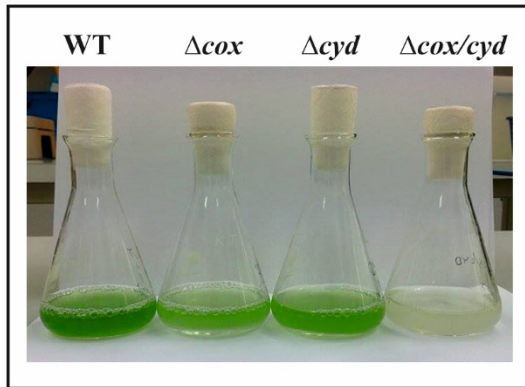
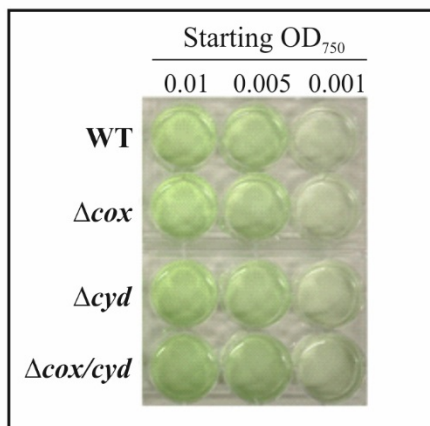
A**B**

Figure S3. The growth of *Synechocystis* WT and RTO-deficient mutant cells under different light conditions: (A) 12 h dark / 12 h high light ($200 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) square cycles for 8 days; (B) constant high light at an intensity of $500 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ for 2 days.

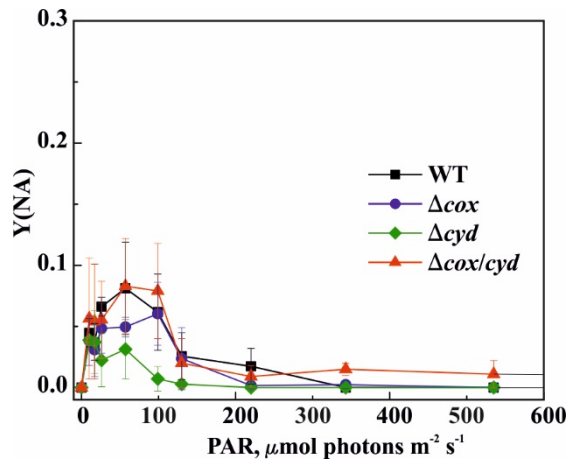


Figure S4. Acceptor side limitation of PS I Y(NA) of the WT and RTO-deficient mutants calculated from the rapid light curves. Mean \pm SD, n=3.

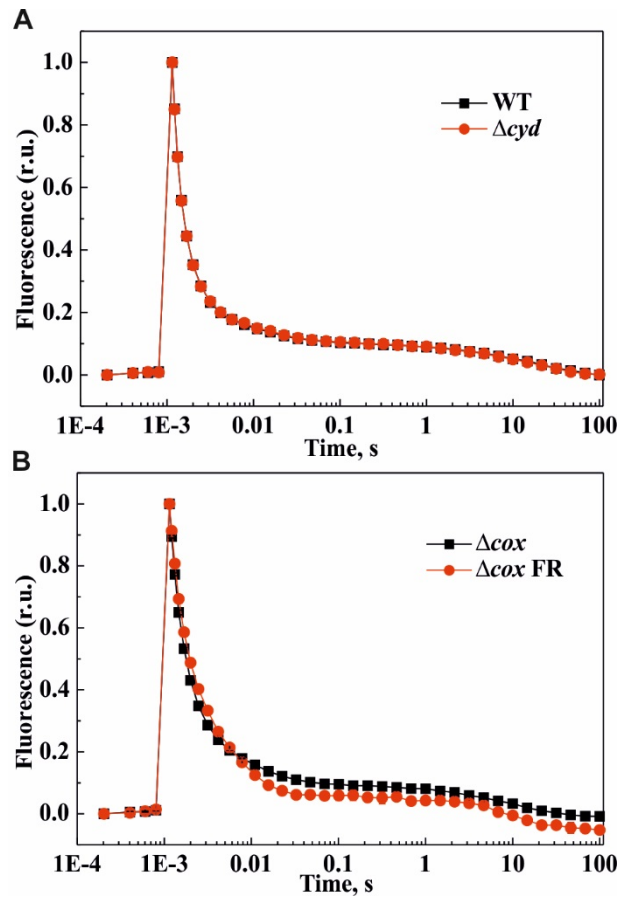


Figure S5. Relaxation of the flash-induced fluorescence yield from WT and RTO mutants: (A) WT and Δcyd cells were dark-adapted for 5 min before the experiment; (B) Δcox cells were dark-adapted for 5 min or pre-illuminated by far-red light before the experiment. Mean \pm SD, $n=2-3$. Curves were normalized to the same amplitude to facilitate comparison of the kinetics.

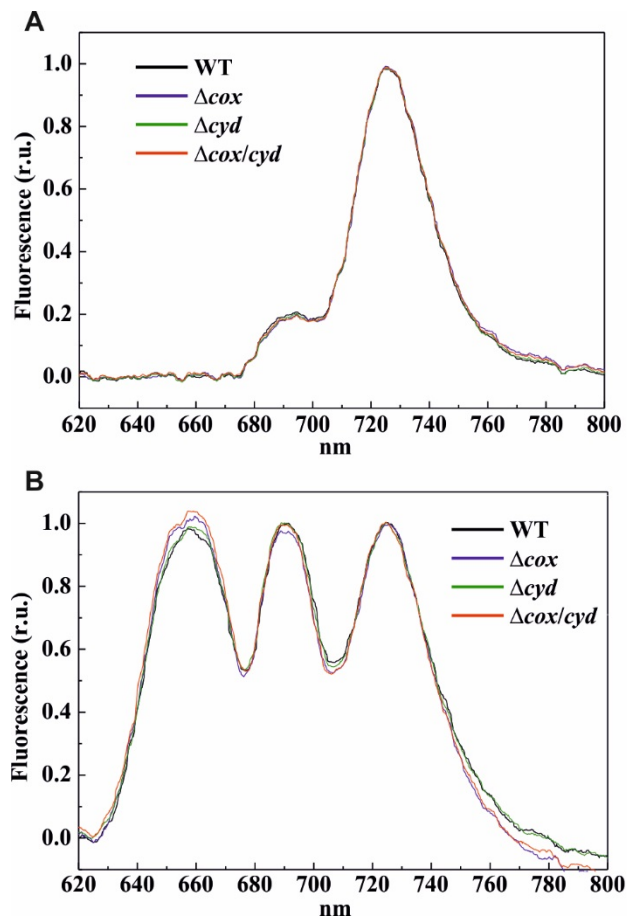


Figure S6. Fluorescence emission spectra recorded at 77K : (A) from the cells excited with 580-nm light; (B) from the cells excited with 440-nm light.

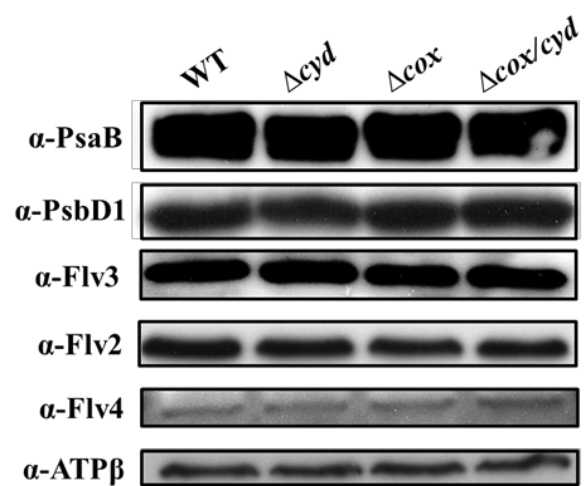


Figure S7. Protein analysis of the WT *Synechocystis* and RTO-deficient mutants.

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