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A newly identified linker protein Apcl regulates light harvesting under red light in *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803

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Abbreviations: PS: photosystem; PBS: phycobilisome; APC: allophycocyanin

Abstract

Phycobilisomes are versatile cyanobacterial antenna complexes that harvest light energy to drive photosynthesis. They can adapt to various light conditions, for example, dismantling under high light to prevent photo-oxidation and arranging in rows under low light to increase light harvesting efficiency. Light quality also influences phycobilisome structure and function, as observed under far-red light exposure. Here we describe a new phycobilisome linker protein Apcl (previously hypothetical protein Sll1911), expressed specifically under red light (620 nm), or upon chemically induced reduction of the plastoquinone pool. We characterized Apcl in *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803 using mutant strain analyses, phycobilisome binding experiments, and protein interaction studies. Deletion of *apcl* conferred high light tolerance to *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803 as compared to the wild type strain, exhibiting a reduction of energy transfer from phycobilisomes to the photosystems under high light. Binding experiments revealed that Apcl replaces the linker protein ApcG at the membrane-facing side of the phycobilisome core via a paralogous C-terminal motif. Additionally, the N-terminal region of Apcl was found to interact with photosystem II. Our findings highlight the importance of phycobilisome remodeling for adaptation to different light conditions. The characterization of Apcl provides new insight into the mechanisms by which cyanobacteria optimize light-harvesting in response to varying light conditions.

Introduction

Harvesting of light energy in photosynthetic organisms is highly regulated to drive photosynthesis under diverse environmental conditions (Sanfilippo et al., 2019). In cyanobacteria, light is captured by water-soluble phycobilisomes (PBSs), which are pigment-protein complexes that transfer absorbed energy to the reaction centers of photosystems embedded in the thylakoid membrane (Gantt et al., 1968; Govindjee and Shevela, 2011). One example of antenna adaptation is the formation of rows of PBSs closely packed with photosystem II (PSII) under low light (Ho et al., 2017; Rast et al., 2019). Likewise, light quality changes trigger adaptive mechanisms to optimize photosynthesis, such as state transitions, which regulate the allocation of energy to PSII or photosystem I (PSI) to prevent saturation of the electron transport chain and the production of reactive oxygen species (Tamary et al., 2012). Other adaptive processes in cyanobacteria include proteome changes, such as the reduction of the size of antenna complexes under intense light and the expression of the Orange Carotenoid Protein for the dissipation of excess light energy captured by the PBS (Kirilovsky and Kerfeld, 2016; Zavrel et al., 2019; Kerfeld and Sutter, 2024; Srivastava et al., 2024).

PBSs harvest light energy through cyanobilins, pigments covalently bound to phycobiliproteins, which tune their spectroscopic properties (Adir et al., 2020; Beck, 2024) to ensure directionality of energy transfer from rods to the core and ultimately to the photosystems (Sil et al., 2022). The PBS from *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803 (hereafter referred to as *Synechocystis*) consists of a tricylindrical core surrounded by six rods forming a hemidiscoidal arrangement (Adir et al., 2020; Dominguez-Martin et al., 2022; Bryant and Gisriel, 2024; Sauer et al., 2024). Linker proteins play an important role in the PBS structure by connecting the core cylinders and attaching the rods to the core (Bryant and Canniffe, 2018; Dominguez-Martin et al., 2022; Sauer et al., 2024).

PBSs have been reported to undergo structural remodeling involving various proteins to tune light harvesting under light quality changes (Bryant and Gisriel, 2024). The recently identified cyanobacterial PBS linker, ApcG (Dominguez-Martin et al., 2022) has been shown to play a role in energy transfer from PBS to the photosystems (Espinoza-Corral

et al., 2024). An algal ApcG homolog (Lpp2) was subsequently identified in the hemiellipsoidal PBS from red alga *Porphyridium purpureum* (You et al., 2023). More recently, the ApcG ortholog from the cyanobacterium *Arthrospira* sp. FACHB439 was shown to interact with PSII through its N-terminal region. The interaction appears to be transient and unstable (Zhang et al., 2024). Likewise, in *Synechocystis*, the PBS rods containing the linker protein CpcL are able to interact with PSI, which might regulate photosynthetic activity under stress conditions, such as iron deficiency (Watanabe et al., 2014; Shimizu et al., 2023; Zheng et al., 2023). In addition, cyanobacteria express the chlorophyll binding protein IsiA in response to iron deficiency, forming rings of IsiA monomers around PSI (Guikema and Sherman, 1983; Burnap et al., 1993; Toporik et al., 2019). Under low light conditions, IsiX (homolog of IsiA) is expressed along with ApcD4 and ApcB3 which have been proposed to form antenna-like complexes interacting peripherally with PSI (Soulier et al., 2020; Soulier et al., 2022; Gisriel et al., 2023a). A unique adaptation of cyanobacterial photosynthesis is the expression of far-red light PBSs, consisting of rodless bicylindrical cores exhibiting red shifted absorbance maxima as the specific proteins expressed under these conditions tune the spectral properties of the bilins (Gisriel, 2024; Gisriel et al., 2024).

Here we identify and characterize a new PBS linker protein. We identified this protein, previously known as hypothetical protein Sll1911, through its sequence homology to the C-terminal, PBS-binding region of ApcG. We named this linker protein Apcl; ApcH was recently named in the heptacylindrical PBS from *Anthocerotibacter panamensis* (Jiang et al., 2023). While the C-terminal region of Apcl interacts with the PBS, its N-terminal region interacts with PSII, enabling energy transfer from PBS to PSII. An *apcl* deletion mutant demonstrated light tolerance to high light intensities compared to wild type (500-1000 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$). We propose that under conditions that reduce the plastoquinone pool, Apcl can substitute for ApcG in binding to the PBS and interacts with PSII, increasing the efficiency of photosynthesis. Our results describe a new linker protein and a new mode for the remodeling of the interaction of the PBS with PSII under different environmental conditions.

Results

Apcl homologs contain a conserved PBS binding motif

The recently described linker protein ApcG shows a conserved C-terminal PBS binding motif that interacts with ApcA at the membrane-facing side of the PBS core (Dominguez-Martin et al., 2022). When we searched cyanobacterial proteomes with only the PBS binding motif of ApcG, we were able to identify a large number of homologs (244 in 377 proteomes that contain ApcE, see **Supplementary Table S1** and Methods for details). Interestingly, these homologs aligned well with the PBS binding motif but were very different from ApcG in the rest of their primary structure (**Figure 1A**). The homolog in *Synechocystis* corresponds to the hypothetical protein Sll1911 which we have named Apcl in accordance with precedent in the literature (Jiang et al., 2023).

Analysis of the sequence conservation among the 244 Apcl homologs revealed three discrete regions in the protein: the N-terminal region, middle region, and the PBS binding motif (**Figure 1B**). The C-terminal region of Apcl resembles the ApcG PBS binding motif in terms of its sequence (**Figure 1A**) and predicted alpha helical structure. Beyond the conserved C-terminal region, ApcG and Apcl share no significant sequence homology.

However, as the ApcG N-terminal regions interact with PSII in the thylakoid membrane (Espinoza-Corral et al., 2024), we hypothesized that the N-terminal region of Apcl could likewise interact with other complexes and tether the PBS to them. An Alphafold structure prediction (Jumper et al., 2021) suggests that the N-terminal region of Apcl is unstructured while the middle region shows secondary structure elements with a moderate confidence score (**Figure 1C**). The C-terminal FxxM motif of ApcG (also found in the PBS linker protein CpcG (Zheng et al., 2025)) which interdigitates with ApcA (Dominguez-Martin et al., 2022) is also conserved across all Apcl homologs (**Figure 1B**), suggesting that Apcl binds to a similar site in the PBS core.

A sequence search of 377 cyanobacterial genomes that contain at least one gene encoding for ApcE shows that Apcl homologs are found in 64 % of the cyanobacterial genomes (244 out of 377) in contrast to ApcG which is found in 86 % of the genomes

(325 out of 377) (**Supplementary table S1**). PBSs can be classified into different types based on the length of ApcE (Bryant and Canniffe, 2018); they can either be bicylindrical (Glazer et al., 1979), tricylindrical (Bryant et al., 1979; Zheng et al., 2021) or pentacylindrical (Glaser et al., 1992; Ducret et al., 1998). Interestingly, ApcI is more often found in PBSs with a bicylindrical or tricylindrical core (180 out of 194 and 8 out of 9 respectively) compared to pentacylindrical PBS (56 out of 174) (**Figure 1D**). In contrast, ApcG seems to be the more common PBS linker protein as it is present in the majority of the species analyzed regardless of their PBS core type (**Figure 1D**).

Expression and physiological role of ApcI in light harvesting

To study the role of ApcI (*sll1911* gene locus) we generated a deletion strain ($\Delta apcI$), replacing its native coding sequence with a chloramphenicol resistance cassette. Using the previously characterized $\Delta apcG$ strain (Espinoza-Corral et al., 2024), we then generated a double mutant for both linker proteins ($\Delta apcI$ - $\Delta apcG$), replacing the native coding sequence of *apcI* by a kanamycin resistance cassette while in the strain with the *apcG* replaced by a chloramphenicol resistance cassette (**Supp. Figure S1**). Strains were grown under different white light intensities to compare their behavior at high light intensities. The $\Delta apcI$ strain showed a similar phenotype to the wild type between 25 - 750 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ and improved light tolerance at the highest tested light intensity of 1000 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$. On the other hand, the $\Delta apcG$ strain showed an increased light tolerance compared to both wild type and $\Delta apcI$ strains above 500 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$. Strikingly, the double mutant strain ($\Delta apcI$ - $\Delta apcG$) showed remarkable light tolerance in contrast to the wild type, $\Delta apcI$ and $\Delta apcG$ strains for which specific growth rates started to decrease as a consequence of photo-inhibition above 750 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ (**Figure 2A**). Pulse amplitude modulation fluorometry measurements showed that the maximal electron transport rate (ETR_{max}) decreased for wild type, $\Delta apcI$ and $\Delta apcG$ strains under high light while the double mutant maintained ETR_{max} constant throughout all light intensities (**Figure 2B**). Furthermore, the double mutant showed lower ETR_{max} compared to the other strains at low and middle light intensities (between 25 and 500

185 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$) suggesting impaired energy transfer from PBSs to the
186 photosystems as a consequence of the loss of both ApcG and ApcI (**Figure 2B**).
187 Interestingly, an analysis of non-photochemical quenching (qN, a parameter to diagnose
188 light stress) measured in strains grown under $1000 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ showed that
189 wild type, ΔapcI and ΔapcG strains experienced similar levels of light stress unlike the
190 double mutant strain where negligible qN was measured (**Figure 2C**). Whole-cell
191 absorption spectra from all strains were similar when grown under normal conditions (i.e.,
192 $25 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$), however mutant strains showed increased absorbance
193 between 400 to 500 nm (**Figure 2D**). To better resolve the spectral features, we recorded
194 low temperature absorption spectra (77K), showing a similar trend indicating carotenoid
195 accumulation compared to wild type (**Figure 2E**).

196
197 The high light tolerance exhibited by the ΔapcI strain compared to wild type (**Figure 2A**)
198 suggests that ApcI could play a role in energy transfer from PBSs to the photosystems at
199 the thylakoid membrane. To test this, we compared low temperature fluorescence spectra
200 (77K) from cells grown under white and red light (hereafter referring to a light source with
201 a peak at 620 nm), exciting chlorophyll (at 430 nm) and PBS (at 590 nm) separately.
202 Emission spectra were represented as relative values to the normalization point being
203 either 800 nm (chlorophyll emission spectra) or 660 nm (PBS emission spectra).
204 Chlorophyll emission spectra for cells grown under white light were indistinguishable
205 among strains, indicating that PSII (680 nm peak) and PSI (720 nm peak) abundance
206 was unaffected by the lack of *apcI* (**Figure 3A**). Moreover, red light grown cultures
207 (reducing plastoquinone pool and inducing state II) (Fuente et al., 2021; Zavrel et al.,
208 2024) showed a higher PSII fluorescence for wild type and ΔapcI compared to ΔapcG
209 and the double mutant ($\Delta\text{apcI}\text{-}\Delta\text{apcG}$), consistent with the observed effect of ApcG on
210 photosystem energy balance (Espinoza-Corral et al., 2024) (**Figure 3B**). Interestingly,
211 when exciting PBSs with white or red light grown cultures, PSII and PSI showed
212 decreased fluorescence for all mutant strains compared to the wild type strain, indicating
213 that the lack of either linker protein reduces the energy transfer from PBSs to both
214 photosystems (**Figure 3**). Statistical analyses after emission peak deconvolution revealed

that after exciting at 430 nm (**Supp. Figure 2**), photosystem fluorescence was not significantly different across strains, except for a reduction in PSI fluorescence in double mutant strain (**Figure 3C**). In contrast, PBS emission spectra deconvolution (**Supp. Figure 3**) for $\Delta apcI$ and $\Delta apcI\text{-}\Delta apcG$ strains showed a significant reduction in relative fluorescence of both photosystems when excited at 590 nm under white or red light (**Figure 3D**). Interestingly, the single mutant $\Delta apcG$ strain showed a reduction of PSII fluorescence only in cultures grown under red light (**Figure 3D**). We tested whether CO₂ supplementation and the light intensity differences between white light (25 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$, with CO₂ supplementation) and red light (4 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$, without CO₂ supplementation) conditions contributed to chlorophyll emission spectra differences. However, cultures grown under 4 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ of white light (without CO₂ supplementation) showed spectra similar to the cells grown under 25 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ (**Supp. Figure S4**). Additionally, we monitored the level of PSII, PSI and PBS protein accumulation by western blots using antibodies against their respective marker proteins. Interestingly, PSII and PBS levels were stable among strains grown under white or red light, while PSI showed a reduction only in wild type strains grown under red light (**Supp. Figure S5**). Therefore, we conclude that the emission spectra differences among strains were not due to different levels of PBSs or photosystems.

Proteomic analysis indicates that Apcl expression is induced under increasing light intensities (Zavrel et al., 2019). Additionally, transcriptomic data showed higher *apcI* transcripts in red light grown cultures (Luimstra et al., 2020). Using antibodies raised against full length Apcl (**Supp. Figure S6**), we identified that Apcl expression is indeed triggered by red light exposure (4 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$), while we could not detect Apcl in white light grown cultures (**Figure 4A**). Since red light exposure is known to trigger state II in cyanobacteria which is characterized by a highly reduced plastoquinone pool (Khorobrykh et al., 2020; Fuente et al., 2021; Zavrel et al., 2024), we hypothesized that the reduced plastoquinone pool in the thylakoid membrane is the trigger for Apcl expression. To test this, we cultivated wild type and $\Delta apcI$ strains under white light (25

$\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$) in the presence of DBMIB (an inhibitor of the cytochrome b₆f complex consequently preventing the oxidation of the plastoquinone pool) (Mao et al., 2002), thus chemically creating a potential trigger for Apcl expression. In the presence of DBMIB (Dibromothymoquinone), we could detect Apcl in wild type cultures grown under white light (**Figure 4B**). Further, we incubated the wild type strain for one day under red light in the presence or absence of DCMU (N-(3,4-dichlorophenyl)-N-dimethylurea, an inhibitor of electron transport chain at PSII, to prevent the reduction of plastoquinone pool) (Mao et al., 2002). Indeed, an oxidized plastoquinone pool created by DCMU precludes the expression of Apcl in cultures grown under red light (**Supp. Figure S7**), confirming that the plastoquinone pool redox state is likely the trigger for Apcl expression, rather than the specific light quality. We then analyzed the localization of Apcl in *Synechocystis* cells by comparing membrane and soluble fractions from cultures grown under red light. Interestingly, Apcl was mainly found in the soluble fraction, consistent with its putative interaction with the PBS, while a small portion of it remained with the membrane fraction (**Figure 4C**).

Apcl interacts with the PBS and PSII

Because the C-terminal region of Apcl is similar to the PBS binding motif from ApcG (e.g., FxxM motif which interdigitates with ApcA, **Figure 1A**) (Dominguez-Martin et al., 2022), we tested for the binding of Apcl to the PBS *in vitro*. Isolated PBSs from wild type and double mutant $\Delta\text{apcl}-\Delta\text{apcG}$ strains were incubated with purified full length Apcl (**Supp. Figure S6A**) followed by a discontinuous sucrose gradient centrifugation to separate unbound protein (located at the top of the sucrose gradient, F1) and collected the PBS fraction (F2) (**Figure 5A**). Fractions containing PBSs were precipitated by trichloroacetic acid (TCA) and analyzed by Western blot using Apcl specific antibodies. Interestingly, Apcl was found to bind only to PBSs in the double mutant strain $\Delta\text{apcl}-\Delta\text{apcG}$ (**Figure 5B**), suggesting that a wild type PBS-bound ApcG prevents the interaction of Apcl at the same site. Antibodies against Apcl cross-react with ApcG, however, the two proteins can be distinguished by their molecular masses (15 kDa for Apcl and 20 kDa for ApcG) (**Supp. Figure S8**). To confirm that Apcl and ApcG bind to the same site we performed competition experiments using isolated PBSs from the double mutant strain $\Delta\text{apcl}-\Delta\text{apcG}$

and the purified proteins Apcl and ApcG (**Supp. Figure S6**). When mutant PBSs ($\Delta apcl$ - $\Delta apcG$) were incubated with a mixture of Apcl and ApcG at equimolar ratio, ApcG prevented the binding of Apcl to PBSs, supporting the hypothesis that these proteins bind to the same site in the PBS core (**Figure 5C**).

While their C-terminal regions are structurally and functionally similar, the lack of similarity between the rest of the Apcl and ApcG suggests that these proteins play different roles and interact with different partners. Low temperature fluorescence from $\Delta apcl$ showed impaired energy transfer to both PSI and PSII (**Figure 3**), suggesting it plays a role in the interaction between PBSs and photosystems. To identify the interaction partner of Apcl at the thylakoid membrane, we designed a truncated version of Apcl, replacing its PBS binding motif with a His tag (Apcl $\Delta 74-128$ -His) that allowed both purification of the protein as well as a method to pull down interaction partners (**Figure 6A**). However, incubation of Apcl $\Delta 74-128$ -His with solubilized thylakoids (in the presence of 1 % dodecyl-beta-D-maltoside) induced aggregation of Apcl (**Supp. Figure S9A**). We then incubated Apcl $\Delta 74-128$ -His with the soluble fraction from *Synechocystis* lysates and we found that the eluate from nickel beads was green (**Supp. Figure S9B**). Western blot analyses using the eluate from Apcl $\Delta 74-128$ -His incubated with the soluble fraction from cyanobacteria lysates showed the presence of the D1 protein of PSII (PsbA) but no detectable APC nor PSI proteins (PsaB) (**Figure 6B**). In order to confirm the interaction of Apcl with PSII, we generated a complemented strain for Apcl by replacing the native *psbA2* gene copy with the *apcl* wild type open reading frame in the background of the $\Delta apcl$ - $\Delta apcG$ strain. This strategy ensured strong expression of *apcl* under the control of the *psbA2* promoter (*PpsbA2*) (Englund et al., 2016; Espinoza-Corral et al., 2024). Thylakoid complexes were separated on native gels and transferred to a membrane for the detection of Apcl using antibodies. Indeed, Apcl could be detected at the band where PSII is located (**Figure 6C**), suggesting that the N-terminal extension of Apcl binds to PSII.

Discussion

Linker proteins play fundamental roles in regulating energy transfer between the PBS and the photosystems. Their distinct features may relate to the overall PBS architecture as

well as the environment in which they evolved. For example, the recently discovered protein ApcH acts as an anchor for the two extra core cylinders in the heptacylindrical PBS from *Anthocerotibacter panamensis* (Jiang et al., 2023). Besides the terminal emitters ApcE and ApcD that are known to participate in energy transfer to PSII and PSI, respectively (Gindt et al., 1992; Dong et al., 2009; Liu et al., 2013), recent cryogenic electron tomography structures of an algal PBS interacting with photosystems revealed additional linker proteins involved in the PBS-PS interaction (You et al., 2023). Under low light and far-red light conditions, the cyanobacterial photosynthetic apparatus undergoes major remodeling along with alterations of the PBS structure. These structural shifts include the synthesis of chlorophyll *f* and *d* in PSII and rodless bicylindrical cores composed of specific phycobiliproteins that tune the absorption of bilins to drive photosynthesis under far-red light (Ho et al., 2016; Ho et al., 2017; Herrera-Salgado et al., 2018; Gisriel et al., 2023b). In *Synechocystis*, the linker protein ApcG participates in the PBS interaction with PSII as well as in regulating energy balance between photosystems (Espinoza-Corral et al., 2024), highlighting the role of linker proteins in PBS energy transfer. Apcl is a new member of the family of PBS linker proteins and was discovered due to its PBS binding motif, which is similar to that of ApcG. The occurrence of Apcl among relatively fewer cyanobacterial species compared to ApcG suggests that Apcl is a specialized, adaptive linker protein, while ApcG is the main PBS-PSII linker under ambient conditions (**Supplementary table S1**). Indeed, *Synechocystis* proteomic data shows that under normal conditions (with a combination of red and blue photons and 25 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ light intensity) ApcG levels are a hundredfold more abundant compared to Apcl (Zavrel et al., 2019). Additionally, increasing light intensity during *Synechocystis* cultivation reduces ApcG accumulation along with other antenna proteins while the expression of Apcl increases (Zavrel et al., 2019), suggesting a specific role of Apcl under high light conditions. Furthermore, Apcl occurrence in cyanobacteria is more often associated with bi- and tri-cylindrical PBSs and less often in pentacylindrical (**Figure 1D**), suggesting there may be a correlation with PBS core structure and the linker protein that interacts with the photosystems.

Cyanobacterial growth under high light conditions (from 500 to 1000 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ white light) is impaired as a consequence of photo-damage caused by the saturation of PSII (Nishiyama et al., 2006). However, comparison of wild type to single mutant strains ΔapcI and ΔapcG shows that the loss of function of either linker protein provides tolerance to high light conditions, with the ΔapcG strain exhibiting higher light tolerance compared to the ΔapcI strain (**Figure 2A**). Interestingly, *apcI* transcripts are more abundant under high light (Kopf et al., 2014), red light (Luimstra et al., 2020) and darkness (Saha et al., 2016) (conditions known to reduce the plastoquinone pool) (Khorobrykh et al., 2020; Fuente et al., 2021) compared to normal conditions (25 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ white light), which suggests an adaptive role for *Apcl* under these conditions. Surprisingly, the double mutant $\Delta\text{apcI}-\Delta\text{apcG}$ strain displayed remarkable light tolerance highlighting the role of these linker proteins in light harvesting (**Figure 2A**). Additionally, the $\Delta\text{apcI}-\Delta\text{apcG}$ strain showed slower growth rate under lower light intensities compared to single mutants and wild type (from 25 to 300 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ white light), consistent with the role of these linker proteins in the PBS-PS interaction (**Figure 2A**). Interestingly, the ETR_{max} of the double mutant $\Delta\text{apcI}-\Delta\text{apcG}$ strain did not change under higher light intensities (**Figure 2B**), which could explain why this strain exhibits light tolerance; it might not be able to saturate the electron transport rate when missing both the *ApcG* and the *Apcl* linker proteins. Absorption spectra of strains grown under normal conditions (25 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ white light) showed higher absorbance between 400 and 500 nm for mutant strains. Low temperature absorbance spectra measurements suggest that this increase of absorbance (especially for ΔapcI) is very likely to be due to carotenoids (**Figure 2D-E**). Carotenoids are known to accumulate in cyanobacteria under stress conditions (Zakar et al., 2017; Rodrigues et al., 2023), which indicates that mutant strains ΔapcI and ΔapcG might experience stress due to the lack of the connectivity between PBSs and photosystems.

The behavior of the mutant strains compared to wild type suggests that their energy transfer from PBSs to photosystems is reduced. In 77K emission spectra when exciting

chlorophyll (at 430 nm), no differences were observed between wild type and $\Delta apcI$ strains grown under white or red light (**Figure 3**). In contrast, $\Delta apcG$ and double mutant $\Delta apcI\text{-}\Delta apcG$ strains showed lower PSII emission when grown under red light triggering state II (Calzadilla and Kirilovsky, 2020; Fuente et al., 2021), consistent with the role of ApcG in photosystem energy balance (Espinoza-Corral et al., 2024). On the other hand, PBS emission spectra (exciting at 590 nm) showed lower PSII and PSI fluorescence for all mutant strains compared to wild type under both white and red light (**Figure 3**), indicating that ApcI is indeed necessary for the energy transfer from PBSs to the photosystems. It is interesting that while $\Delta apcG$ showed differences in both chlorophyll and PBS emission spectra compared to wild type, $\Delta apcI$ only showed differences in PBS emission spectra, suggesting that only ApcG participates in regulating energy balance between photosystems. The expression of ApcI is shown to be triggered by a reduced plastoquinone pool, either induced by red light, or chemically (**Figure 4**). Interestingly, comparison of growth and ETR_{max} under red light cultivation showed that the double mutant $\Delta apcI\text{-}\Delta apcG$ strain did not show light tolerance as it does under white light cultivation. On the contrary, the highest light tolerance between the tested strains was found in $\Delta apcG$ (**Supp. Figure S10**). Under red light, $\Delta apcI$ strain performed slightly worse compared to wild type as well as to $\Delta apcG$, which suggests a putative role of ApcI under light quality changes (**Supp. Figure S10**). Although ApcI expression is lower under white light compared to red light (**Figure 4**) (Jahn et al., 2018), the single mutant $\Delta apcI$ strain exhibits a reduction of PSII and PSI fluorescence compared to wild type under both white and red light (**Figure 3**), indicating that ApcI participates in light harvesting under both light quality conditions. Despite the more reduced plastoquinone pool triggered by red light compared to white light illumination (Fuente et al., 2021), ApcI mediated PBS-PSII interaction did not lead to a plastoquinone pool over reduction (**Supp. Figure S11**) suggesting no photo-damage occurs under the conditions tested to trigger ApcI expression. On the contrary, it seems to optimize electron transport rate on the thylakoid membrane, which helps to keep ATP/NADPH ratio stable over a wide range of light intensities (Hoper et al., 2024).

PBS binding and pulldown experiments show that Apcl and ApcG bind to PBSs in the same site (**Figure 5**), and the Apcl N-terminus (residues 1-73) binds to PSII (**Figure 6**). Furthermore, an Apcl homolog from the cyanobacterium *Synechococcus sp.* PCC 7002 (LcpA, gene A0913) was recently shown to interact with PSII (Zheng et al., 2025), consistent with Apcl pulldown experiments (**Figure 6**). Moreover, a mutant strain lacking LcpA exhibited impaired growth and reduced O₂ evolution under white light compared with the wild type (Zheng et al., 2025), also consistent with our findings (**Figure 2 and 3**). These results pose the question of the localization of Apcl, either attached to the PBS or at the thylakoid membrane. Localization of Apcl from strains grown under red light showed that the majority of Apcl is in the soluble fraction (**Figure 4C**). However, PBSs isolated from strains grown under red light, which induces the expression of Apcl (**Figure 4C**), did not have Apcl bound but ApcG was present (**Supp. Figure S12**). Nevertheless, the lack of Apcl still reduces the energy transfer from PBSs to photosystems as shown in 77K emission spectra (**Figure 3**), which supports the ability of Apcl to bind to PBSs and mediate its interaction with PSII (**Figure 5&6**). These observations strongly suggest that Apcl interacts peripherally with PSII at the thylakoid membrane; this explains its accumulation in the soluble cell extract (**Figure 4C**), while absent in isolated PBSs (**Supp. Figure S12**) but present in solubilized thylakoids (**Figure 6**). Our observations lead to a model for the expression and interaction of Apcl with PSII in which, under normal conditions (balanced redox state of the plastoquinone pool), ApcG mediates the PBS-PSII interaction, however under the conditions that reduce the plastoquinone pool, such as red light, ApcG is replaced by Apcl (**Figure 7**).

Both ApcG and Apcl support growth under low light conditions (**Figure 2**). While ApcG is ubiquitous among cyanobacteria, the less frequent occurrence of genes encoding Apcl in cyanobacterial genomes (**Figure 1D**) suggests an auxiliary role in light harvesting, consistent with its expression triggered by light quality changes (**Figure 4**). Interestingly, while both linker proteins do not share sequence homology in their N-terminal and middle regions, they both interact with PSII, suggesting that their interactions occur at different sites of the PSII complex. Further investigation is required to identify the specific subunits

from PSII that interact with either ApcG or ApcI to understand their specific roles in the association of the PBS and PSII under light quality changes.

Materials and methods

Bioinformatics and structure prediction

The sequences identified as ApcG in Dominguez-Martin et al. (2022) were truncated to their C-terminal PBS-binding motif (*Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803, ApcG, sll1873, residues 75-121) and used to generate an HMM search model by aligning them with ClustalW 2.1 and standard parameters (Thompson et al., 1994), trimming with trimAl (Capella-Gutiérrez et al., 2009) with parameters "-fasta -gt 0.6 -cons 30 -w 3", and the HMMs were generated using hmmbuild 3.3.2 (<http://hmmer.org/>) with standard parameters (Potter et al., 2018) against the *Synechocystis* proteome which identified Sll1911 as a positive hit. Then a curated list of cyanobacterial proteomes as described in Dominguez-Martin et al. (2022) containing a full-length ApcE (377 proteomes) was searched with hmmsearch 3.3.2 with parameter "-T 40" (<http://hmmer.org/>) (Potter et al., 2018) to identify 244 protein homologs of ApcI (Sll1911 in *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803) (**Supplementary table S1**). Cyanobacterial proteomes were further classified into bicylindrical, tricylindrical and pentacylindrical according to the length of their ApcE protein. The structural prediction for ApcI was obtained using AlphaFold prediction (Jumper et al., 2021).

Cyanobacterial growth conditions

Synechocystis sp. PCC 6803 strains were cultivated in BG-11 medium (Rippka et al., 1979), buffered to pH 8 with 10 mM HEPES, at 28°C to 30°C, constant illumination (25-30 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$, white light) and supplemented with 3% CO₂ (v/v) with agitation (160 rpm), corresponding to normal conditions. Cultures grown under red light (4 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$) (**Supp. Figure S13**) were cultivated in BG-11 medium as stated above but without CO₂ supplementation. Selection of mutant strains was performed on BG-11 plates supplemented with 3 g/L sodium thiosulfate and solidified with 1.2% Difco agar (w/v). The antibiotics chloramphenicol (25 $\mu\text{g/mL}$), kanamycin (50 $\mu\text{g/mL}$) and

spectinomycin (20 µg/mL) were supplemented to the selection media when appropriate. In case of DBMIB (dibromothymoquinone) or DCMU (3-(3,4-dichlorophenyl)-1,1-dimethylurea) treatments, cyanobacteria cultures grown under normal conditions (OD₇₂₀ 1-1.5) were supplemented either with 50 µM of DBMIB and incubated under the same conditions for another 6 hours, or with 20 µM DCMU and incubated under red light for 24 hours followed by protein extraction.

Growth curves were recorded in Multi-Cultivator MC-1000-MIX (Photon System Instruments, Czechia) in turbidostat regime (OD₇₂₀ = 0.5 – 0.51, corresponding with ~10⁷ cells mL⁻¹) in BG-11 cultivation medium with FeCl₃ as the iron source, 50 µM EDTA (van Alphen et al., 2018) and with 17 mM HEPES buffer (pH ≈ 8). Temperature during all turbidostat cultivations was set to 30 °C. CO₂ was supplemented by Gas Mixing System GMS-150 (Photon System Instruments) in final concentration 0.5 % (v/v), flow rate within each 80 mL cultivation tube was set to ~ 40 mL min⁻¹. Light was provided by red (R615) and warm white (WW) LEDs of the Multi-Cultivator; intensities were set to 10 – 1000 µE m⁻² s⁻¹. The cultures were kept under each particular condition for at least 24 h. This period was long enough to secure full metabolic acclimation (Rodrigues et al., 2023). Specific growth rates were calculated as described in Espinoza-Corral et al. (2024).

Photosynthetic parameter measurements

After cyanobacteria growth stabilization in Multi-Cultivators, sampling was performed to measure rapid light curves in light-acclimated state (AquaPen, Photon System Instruments) from which maximum electron transport rate ETR_{max} and non-photochemical quenching coefficient q_N were derived according to the following equations:

$$Q_Y = \frac{F_{m'} - F_t}{F_{m'}} \quad (1)$$

$$ETR = Q_Y * PAR \quad (2)$$

$$ETR_{max} = ETR * \left(\frac{\alpha}{\alpha + \beta} \right) * \left(\frac{\beta}{\alpha + \beta} \right)^{\frac{E}{\alpha}} \quad (3)$$

$$q_N = \frac{F_{m'(max)} - F_m'}{F_{m'(max)} - F_{in}} \quad (4)$$

where F_m' and F_t are maximal and steady-state fluorescence in light-acclimated state, respectively, Q_Y is quantum yield of PSII (unitless), PAR is photosynthetically active radiation (units $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$), ETR is electron transport rate (units electron $\text{m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) (Ralph and Gademann, 2005), ETR_{max} is maximum electron transport rate, $F_{m'(max)}$ is maximal steady-state fluorescence throughout all tested light intensities of the rapid light curves, F_{in} is steady-state fluorescence at the onset of the rapid light curves measurement, and q_N is a coefficient of non-photochemical quenching, related to dissipation of the captured light energy into heat. The coefficients α and β are slopes of the rapid light curves related to quantum efficiency of photosynthesis and photoinhibition, respectively, derived from light curves fitting (Platt et al., 1980).

In addition, fast fluorescence induction kinetic curves (OJIP) were measured. After sampling from Multi-Cultivators, the cultures were dark-acclimated for 15-20 min, and the OJIP kinetic was measured in MULTI-COLOR PAM (Walz, Germany) using 625 nm saturation pulse of intensity $2,000 \mu\text{E m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ and duration 600 ms. The parameter V_J , corresponding to the redox state of the plastoquinone pool (Toth et al., 2007; Tsimilli-Michael et al., 2009) was calculated as:

$$V_J = \frac{F_J - F_{in}}{F_m - F_{in}} \quad (5)$$

where F_J is fluorescence at the J-level of the OJIP curve, identified by the use of a second derivation of the fluorescence signal (Akinyemi et al., 2023) around 1 ms, and F_m is maximal fluorescence yield.

Low-temperature fluorescence and absorption spectroscopy

Absorption spectra were recorded with a white probe beam and a multichannel CCD spectrometer in a fiber-optical spectrometer as described previously (Rose et al., 2023).

Low temperature absorption spectra were recorded by decreasing the temperature stepwise to maintain cell integrity (**Supp. Figure S14**). Fluorescence spectra (**Supp. Figure S15**) were recorded with a home-built instrument (Gurchiek et al., 2020) employing a broadband LED and a compact double monochromator as an excitation source (2 nm spectral bandpass) and a detection system consisting of a 0.15 m spectrograph (4 nm spectral bandpass) and a back-illuminated CCD detector. Whole-cell samples suspended in a 60/40 (v/v) glycerol/BG-11 mixture (Espinoza-Corral et al., 2024) were held in 1 cm path length quartz cuvettes in a sample-in-gas liquid nitrogen cryostat (Oxford Instruments OptistatDN, with a MercuryITC temperature controller). The absorption and fluorescence instruments were controlled by LabVIEW (National Instruments) programs. The spectra reported here are the average of those from three replicate samples.

Generation and genotyping of *Synechocystis* strains

Wild type *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803 and $\Delta apcG$ strains (Espinoza-Corral et al., 2024) were used to generate *apcI* deletion strains. This was done by amplifying 500 bp upstream and downstream of *apcI* locus (*sll1911*) with primers oREC5 and oREC6 (**Supp. Table S2**) and cloning it into pJET1.2 generating plasmid pREC1. The *apcI* was deleted from pREC1 by inverse PCR using primers oREC7 and oREC8 introducing a *SacI* restriction site between the upstream and downstream regions of *apcI*, generating plasmid pREC2. A chloramphenicol resistance cassette as well as regions compatible for conjugation from pRL1075 (Black et al., 1993) were introduced into pREC2 using restriction site *SacI*, generating pREC3. Additionally, a second plasmid was generated for the incorporation of a kanamycin resistance cassette from pRL3313 into pREC2 using restriction site *SacI*, generating pREC8. A *Bom* site compatible for bacterial conjugation was incorporated into pREC8 using primers oREC48 and oREC49 generating pREC19. Over-expression of *ApcI* for complementation of mutant strains was obtained by cloning *apcI* gene using oREC14 and oREC15 into pET28a using restriction sites *XhoI* and *NdeI*, generating pREC5 which was used as template to amplify *apcI* with a T7 terminator region using primers oREC11 and oCK10, cloned into pBSA2K5 (to drive the transcription of *apcI* using *psbA2* promoter, *PpsbA2*) (Lagarde et al., 2000) using restriction sites *BamHI*

and *NdeI* generating pREC7. A bom site compatible for conjugation was incorporated into pREC7 using primers oREC25 and oREC26 generating pREC10. Additionally, an *aadA* resistance cassette against spectinomycin was incorporated into pREC10 amplifying *aadA* from pRL3332 using primers oREC46 and oREC47 and restriction digestion using site *BamHI*, generating pREC18. Finally, a C-terminal His tag in *apcl* from pREC18 was removed using primers oREC50 and oREC51, generating pREC32. Wild type and $\Delta apcG$ strains were transformed by conjugation (Black et al., 1993) for the deletion of *apcl* gene using pREC3 (for generating single mutant $\Delta apcl$ with chloramphenicol resistance cassette) or pREC19 (transforming $\Delta apcG$ for the double mutant of $\Delta apcG$ - $\Delta apcl$ with chloramphenicol and kanamycin resistance cassettes). Genotyping of strains for *apcl* deletion was performed by extracting gDNA (Billi et al., 1998) and amplifying the wild type gene using oREC16 and oREC17, deletion with chloramphenicol cassette using primers oREC16 and oREC27 and deletion with kanamycin cassette using primers oREC16 and oREC44. Furthermore, the deletion of *apcG* was monitored amplifying *apcG* wild type using oREC12 and oREC13 and deletion with oREC12 and oREC27. Likewise, complementation of the single mutant $\Delta apcl$ and double mutant $\Delta apcG$ - $\Delta apcl$ was performed by conjugation using plasmid pREC32 (with spectinomycin resistance cassette). Genotyping of *apcl* complementation was performed by amplifying a region containing *apcl*, *psbA2* promoter (*PpsbA2*) and T7 terminator using primers oREC58 and oCK11 using as template gDNA from cyanobacteria.

Protein expression and purification from *E. coli*

Expression of Apcl and ApcG was done by transforming BL21 DE3 (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA) with the corresponding plasmids. For Apcl expression, the *apcl* gene from *Synechocystis* gDNA was amplified using primers oREC55 and oREC56 and cloned into a linearized pBbE2k vector using primers oCK23 and oCK24 by Gibson assembly (Gibson et al., 2009), generating pREC44 for the expression of Apcl with His-SUMO tag at its N-terminus under the control of tetracycline inducible promoter. In case of ApcG, the wild type *apcG* gene from *Synechocystis* gDNA was amplified with primers oREC59 and oREC60 (incorporating a His tag followed by a TEV site at the N-terminus of ApcG) and cloned by blunt ligation into pSL119 linearized with primers oCK3 and oCK4, resulting

in pREC49. The recombinant Apcl^{Δ74-128}-His protein started with sub-cloning *apcl* gene from pREC18 into pET11b using restriction digestion sites *BamHI* and *NdeI* which incorporated the His tag at the C-terminus of Apcl in pREC41. The truncation of Apcl deleting the PBS binding motif was performed by inverse PCR of pREC41 using primers oREC33 and oREC37, generating pREC45. Finally, the construct for His-[TEV]-ApcG expression was sub-cloned from pREC49 into pREC44 using restriction sites *NdeI* and *BamHI* generating pREC52 for the expression of His-[TEV]-ApcG under the control of tetracycline inducible promoter.

Expression of His-SUMO-Apcl was performed by transforming BL21 DE3 with pREC44 and growing 4 liters of culture in luria broth at 37°C and induced when OD₆₀₀ reached ~0.7 with 10 μg/mL anhydrous tetracycline at 25°C overnight. Cells were centrifuged and resuspended in Buffer A (50 mM Tris pH 8, 200 mM NaCl) with protease inhibitor cocktail (Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA), Dnase I (Sigma) and 50 mM imidazole followed by cell lysis using 2 passes through a cell disruptor (Constant Systems, Aberdeenshire, UK) at 15 kPSI. The soluble protein fraction was obtained by centrifuging the cell lysate for 30 min at 45,000 g and 4°C. The fusion protein His-SUMO-Apcl was purified by loading the cell lysate supernatant to a 5 mL HisTrap HP column (GE Healthcare, Little Chalfont, UK), washed with Buffer A, followed by a 5-column volume (CV) of 90% Buffer A and 10% Buffer B (v/v) (50 mM Tris pH 8, 200 mM NaCl, 500 mM imidazole) and eluted with a 5 CV gradient from 10% to 100% Buffer B (v/v). The purified His-SUMO-Apcl was incubated with ULP enzyme (purified in-house from plasmid pARH236 for the expression of fusion protein His-MBP-ULP) at a 1 to 20 ratio in Buffer A overnight at 4°C followed by a subtractive His trap purification using a 5 mL HisTrap HP column (GE Healthcare, Little Chalfont, UK) (GE Healthcare, Little Chalfont, UK) passing the mixture of His-SUMO-Apcl with ULP through the HisTrap column retaining His-SUMO as well as ULP and collecting the flowthrough containing tagless Apcl. Subsequently, Apcl was concentrated using an Amicon tube (Milipore) with 3 kDa cutoff and loaded onto a size exclusion column Superdex 200 increase 10/300 GL (Cytiva) using Buffer A at 4°C (**Supp. Figure S4A**). Finally, Apcl eluted from size exclusion chromatography at size of 32 kDa (**Supp. Figure S4B**) calculated using gel filtration standard (Bio-Rad, 1511901) (**Supp. Figure S4C**).

Expression of recombinant ApcI^{Δ74-128}-His using pREC45 was done by transforming BL21 DE3 and inducing 1 liter of cells at OD₆₀₀ ~0.7 with 1 mM IPTG overnight at 25°C. Cells were pelleted and resuspended in Buffer A (50 mM Tris pH 8, 200 mM NaCl) with protease inhibitor cocktail (Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA), Dnase I (Sigma) and 50 mM imidazole followed by cell disruption using a French press at 4°C. The soluble fraction was obtained by centrifugation for 30 min at 4°C and 45,000 x g and subjected to Histrap purification as described above. The elution from the Histrap column was further loaded onto an anion exchange resin (TOYOPEARL DEAE-650, CV 5 mL) using Buffer A with 20 mM NaCl collecting the flowthrough that contained the purified ApcI^{Δ74-128}-His.

Moreover, expression of the recombinant His-[TEV]-ApcG was done by transforming BL21 DE3 with pREC52 and using 1 liter of culture grown in LB at 37°C and induced when reaching OD₆₀₀ ~0.7 with 10 μg/mL anhydrous tetracycline at 25°C overnight. Cells were pelleted and resuspended in Buffer A supplemented with protease inhibitor cocktail (Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA), Dnase I (Sigma) and 50 mM imidazole followed by cell lysis using 2 passes through a cell disruptor. Cell lysate was centrifuged for 30 min and 45,000 x g at 4°C to obtain soluble protein fraction which was loaded onto a 5 mL HisTrap HP column. Elution of His-[TEV]-ApcG from Histrap column was performed as described above. Purified His-[TEV]-ApcG was incubated with TEV protease (purified in-house from plasmid pRK793, Addgene 8827) (Kapust et al., 2001) in Buffer A at a ratio of 1 to 20 at 4°C overnight. The digestion of His-[TEV]-ApcG with TEV protease was subsequently loaded onto a 5 mL HisTrap HP column collecting the flowthrough containing tagless ApcG (**Supp. Figure S4E**) following the same protocol above for ApcI. Finally, ApcG was further purified using cation exchange resin (TOYOPEARL SP-650, CV 5 mL) and performed the chromatography by gravity at 4°C as described in Espinoza-Corral et al. (2024). Protein concentration was measured using the BCA method (Pierce BCA Protein Assay Kit, 23227, Thermo Scientific).

***Synechocystis* protein extraction**

Cyanobacteria strains grown under normal conditions or red light were cultivated in 10 mL of BG-11 media in 25 mL flasks with agitation till they reached OD₇₂₀ 0.5-1. Total protein extraction was obtained by centrifuging cyanobacteria cells followed by resuspension in extraction buffer at 4°C (50 mM HEPES pH 7.0, 25 mM CaCl₂, 5 mM MgCl₂, 10% [v/v] glycerol, and protease inhibitor cocktail). Subsequently, cells were broken by French press, followed by the addition of Triton X-100 1% (v/v) and incubation for 10 min on ice. Cell debris was discarded with 2 min centrifugation at 2,000 x g at 4°C. When separating soluble and membrane fractions from cyanobacteria cultures, cell pellets were resuspended in buffer TMK (50 mM Tris pH 7.5, 10 mM MgCl₂ and 10 mM KCl) with protease inhibitor cocktail (Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA). After cell disruption by French press, intact cells were discarded in the pellet by centrifuging the samples for 1 min at 2,000 x g and 4°C and the supernatant was further centrifuged for 30 min at 20,000 x g and 4°C. Supernatant corresponding to the total soluble protein fraction was rescued and the pellet was resuspended in buffer TMK corresponding to membrane fraction. Protein concentration was measured using the BCA method (Pierce BCA Protein Assay Kit, 23227, Thermo Scientific).

Immunoblot analysis

Proteins were separated into SDS-PAGE gels and transferred to a nitrocellulose membrane (Amersham, Protran) followed by blocking with 5% fat-free milk (w/v) in TBS (Tris 20 mM and 150 mM NaCl) at room temperature for 1 hour. Incubation of primary antibodies was done overnight at 4°C in TBS-T (TBS with 0.01% tween-20 [v/v]) (anti-PsbA; AS05 084A, anti-PsaB; AS10 695, anti-APC; AS08 277, anti-RPS; AS08 309, Agrisera). Membranes were washed 3 times with TBS-T for 15 min at room temperature and incubated with secondary polyclonal anti-rabbit antisera HRP for one hour at room temperature (Jackson ImmunoResearch, 111-035-003), followed by 3 additional washes with TBS-T and visualized by enhanced chemiluminescence technique.

Primary antibodies against ApcG and Apcl were raised immunizing rabbits with the purified proteins (**Supp. Figure S4**) (Genscript). Bleedings from rabbits were used in

dilutions of 0.25 mL into 1 mL of TBS-T. Antibodies against OCP were used as described in Wilson et al. (2012).

Membranes were mildly stripped by two washes for 10 min at room temperature with stripping buffer (200 mM glycine pH 2.2, 0.01% SDS [w/v] and 0.1% tween-20 [v/v]) followed by two subsequent washes with TBS. Stripped membranes were blocked for one hour at room temperature with 5% fat-free milk (w/v) in TBS before incubating with primary antibodies, as described earlier.

Pull-down experiments

Wild type *Synechocystis* cultures of 1 liter grown in BG-11 for 1 week under normal conditions were centrifuged and resuspended in 0.1 M phosphate buffer and pH 7.5 with protease inhibitor cocktail and 50 mM imidazole (Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA) at 4°C. Cells were broken by French press with 4 passes followed by a first centrifugation of 1 min and 2,000 x g to discard intact cells and a second of 30 min and 45,000 x g at 4°C. The soluble fraction was rescued, and the membrane fraction was solubilized with 10 mL solubilization buffer (1% dodecyl-beta-d-maltoside [w/v], 750 mM aminocaproic acid, 50 mM Bis-Tris pH 7-, and 50 mM imidazole) followed by an incubation of 30 min on ice. Solubilized membranes (majority thylakoids) were centrifuged for 30 min at 30,000 x g and 4°C discarding the pellet (insoluble complexes).

Pull-down experiments were performed using the purified Apcl^{Δ74-128}-His pre incubated in NTA nickel beads (0.8 mL CV) with either soluble proteins or solubilized thylakoids. Beads were incubated for 1 hour at 4°C and gentle rotation. Non-interacting proteins were washed off from the beads by centrifuging them for 2 min and 100 x g at 4°C followed by 4 washes using 10 CV of either 0.1 M phosphate buffer and pH 7.5 with 50 mM imidazole (when using soluble protein fraction) or solubilization buffer (when using solubilized thylakoids). Elution was obtained by washing the beads with 0.1 M phosphate buffer and pH 7.5 with 200 mM imidazole or solubilized buffer with 200 mM imidazole.

Separation of protein in first native dimension and second denaturing dimension gels

Samples from pull down experiments using either soluble proteins or solubilized thylakoids as well as solubilized thylakoids from different strains were loaded onto gradient native gels as described by Schagger and Vonjagow (1991). Native gels were run without Coomassie brilliant blue as described by Espinoza-Corral et al. (2024). Second denaturing dimension was utilized to separate the proteins from native gels into 12% SDS-PAGE gels supplemented with 4 M urea. Proteins were visualized using the method described by Blum et al. (1987).

PBS binding assays

Cyanobacteria PBSs from wild type and mutant strains were isolated following the method described in Espinoza-Corral et al. (2024). Isolated PBSs (obtained from a first sucrose gradient centrifugation) were incubated for 4 hours at 15°C under gentle rotation with either purified Apcl or a mixture of ApcG and Apcl (equimolar ratio, added simultaneously) at a molar concentration of PBS/linker of 0.0015 using 15 pmol of PBS and 10000 pmol linker protein in 0.8 M phosphate buffer (pH 7.5). Samples were loaded onto discontinuous sucrose gradients (corresponding to a second sucrose gradient centrifugation after the initial PBSs isolation) in steps of 1.50, 1.0, 0.75, 0.50, and 0.25 M phases in phosphate buffer (0.8 M, pH 7.5) and centrifuged overnight at 22°C and 25,000 rpm to separate unbound proteins (top of the gradient) from PBS bound proteins (between 0.75 M and 1.00 M sucrose phases). Fractions were recovered from the sucrose gradients (F1 unbound proteins at the top and F2 corresponding to PBS bound proteins) and precipitated by TCA for further analyses.

Accession numbers

Sequence data from this article can be found in **Supp. Table S1** containing proteins IDs for Uniprot library.

Software

Figures were produced using Adobe Illustrator CS6 and GraphPad Prism version 6.0 (GraphPad Software, La Jolla, CA, USA; www.graphpad.com). Semiquantitative analyses of western blots were generated using ImageJ (<https://imagej.nih.gov>). The sequence conservation logo was generated with Weblogo ([Crooks et al. 2004](#)) using trimmed sequences by trimAl (Capella-Gutiérrez et al., 2009). AlphaFold2 was used for structure prediction of Apcl (Jumper et al., 2021). Analysis of the rapid light curves and OJIP curves fluorescence data was performed with the use of own-built Python scripts; the tool is available online at <https://tools-py.e-cyanobacterium.org>.

Author contributions

R.E.-C. designed and conducted the research, analyzed the data, and wrote the article; T.Z. conducted cyanobacteria growth experiments and photosynthetic parameter measurements and analyzed the data; J.C. analyzed the data; C.L. and K.Y. conducted low-temperature absorption and fluorescence spectra measurements and W.F.B. analyzed the data; C.A.K. and M.S. designed research, analyzed the data, and wrote the article; all authors provided comments on the manuscript and contributed to experimental design.

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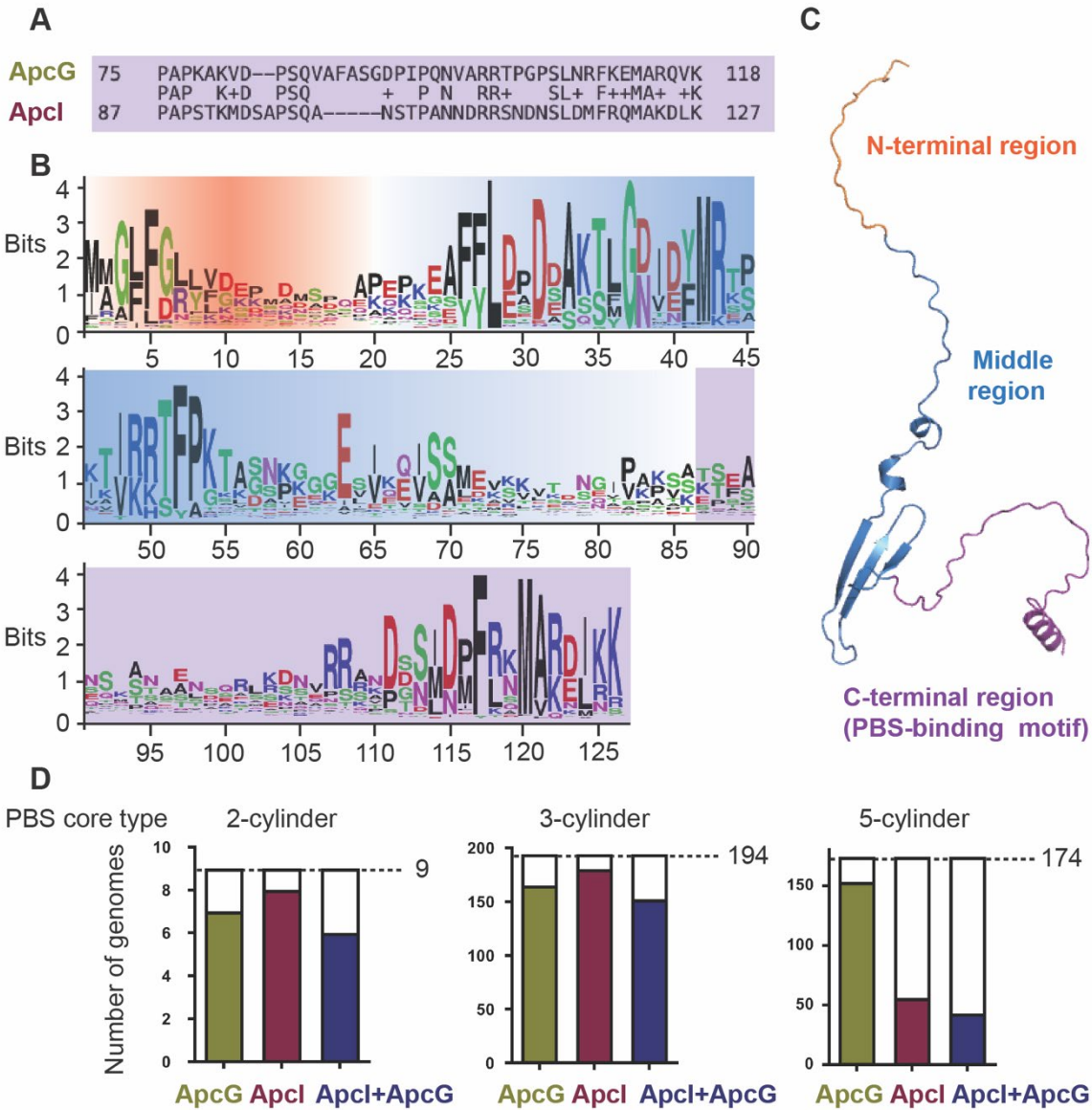


Figure 1. Sequence and structure overview of Apcl and its occurrence in cyanobacteria. (A) Sequence alignment of the C-terminal regions (PBS-binding motif) of ApcG and Apcl. (B) Amino acid sequence conservation logo based on 244 Apcl homologs. The N-terminal region is highlighted in orange; the middle region is highlighted in blue, and the PBS-binding motif is highlighted in purple. (C) AlphaFold structure prediction of Apcl highlighting the three regions, color coded as in (B). (D) A total of 377 ApcE-containing genomes were categorized according to their PBS-core type using the domain architecture of the *apcE* gene product as diagnostic. The number of genomes containing a gene encoding for either ApcG or Apcl is shown in bars as well as for the number of genomes with co-occurrence of genes encoding for both ApcG and Apcl.

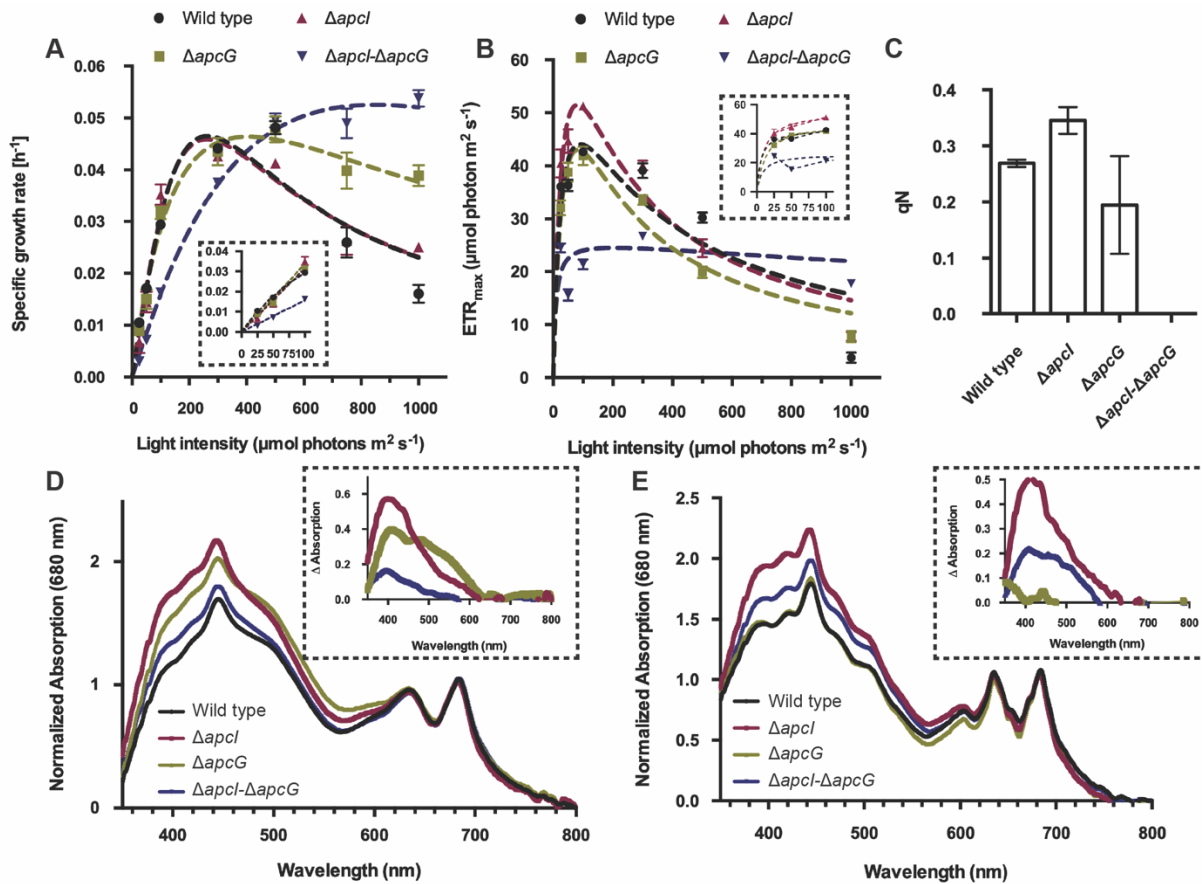


Figure 2. Physiological characterization of *apcI* strains. (A) Comparison of specific growth rate for $\Delta\text{apcG-}\Delta\text{apcI}$ and double mutant strains with wild type under white light of intensities 25 - 1000 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$. Values correspond to averages of four biological replicates and error bars to SEM (standard error of mean). Fitting curves (Platt et al., 1980) are shown to model the behavior of the strains. Growth rates for the low light intensities are shown within a zoom-in dashed box. (B) Maximal electron transport rate (ETR_{max}) comparison for single and double mutants with wild type. Values correspond to averages of three biological replicates while error bars correspond to SEM. ETR_{max} for the low light intensities are shown within a zoom-in dashed box. (C) Non-photochemical quenching (qN) in strains grown under 1000 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$. Values are presented as relative units (r.u.) (D) Whole-cell absorption spectra at room temperature from single, double mutants and wild type strains grown under 25 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ of white light. Values correspond to normalized signals relative to their absorption at 680 nm. Curves represent averages of three biological replicates. (E) Whole-cell absorption spectra measured at 77K for wild type and mutant strains grown under 25 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ of white light. Values correspond to averages of three biological replicates and are presented as relative units (r.u.). Spectra in (D) and (E) are shown without error bars for clarity, and insets in (D) and (E) correspond to average spectra of mutant strains after subtracting the wild type absorption spectrum.

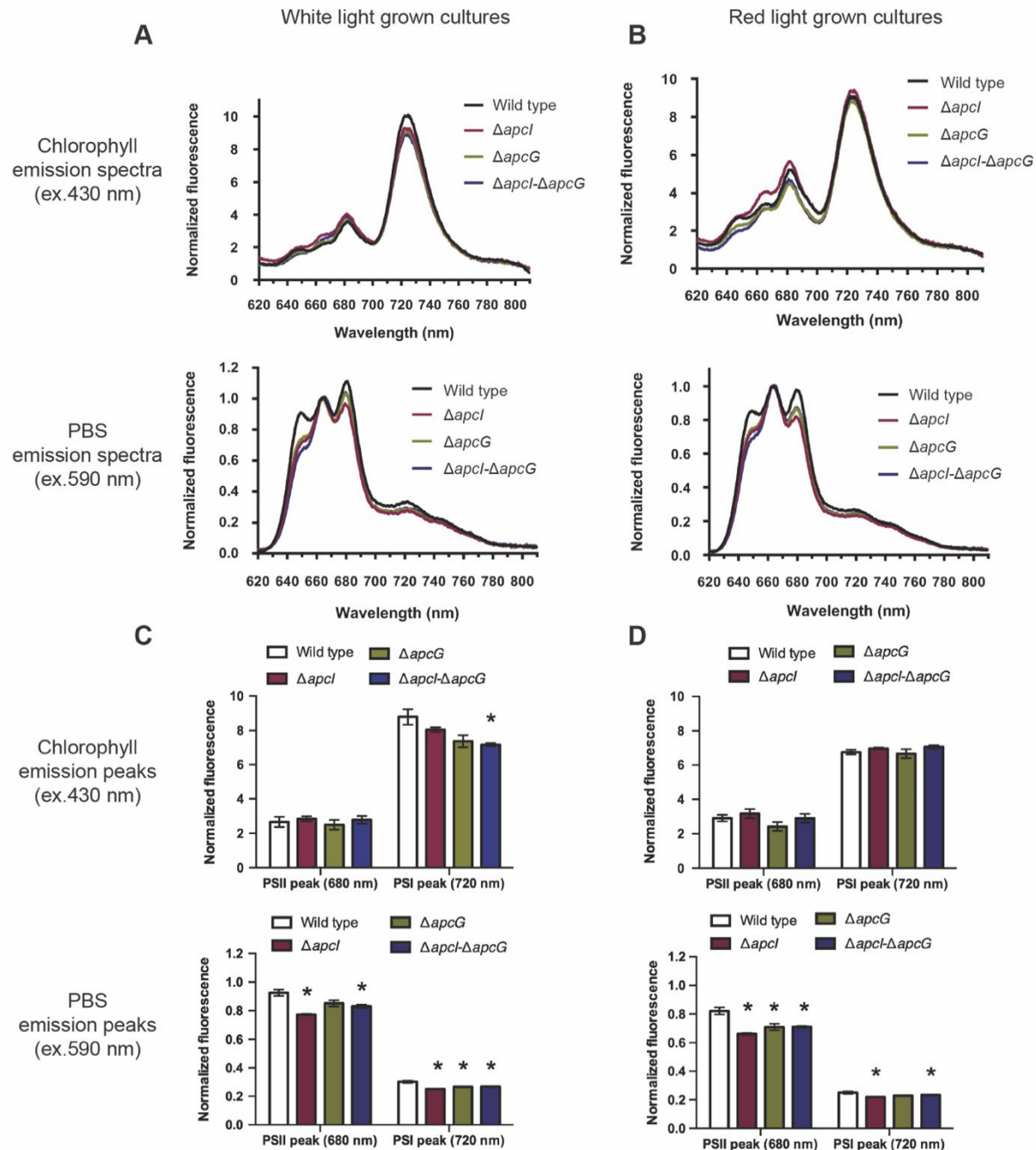


Figure 3. PBS energy transfer is impaired by the absence of Apcl. Cultures were grown under white light ($25 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$) or red light ($4 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$) for 4 days till they reached OD_{720} of 1–1.5 to record their whole-cell fluorescence emission spectra at 77K. Emission spectra of strains grown under white light are shown in panel (A), while those grown under red light are shown in (B). The spectra correspond to the means of three biological replicates. Chlorophyll emission spectra were normalized by their fluorescence at 800 nm while PBS emission spectra were normalized using the PBS peak at 660 nm. (C) Statistical analysis of deconvoluted peaks for PSII (680 nm) and PSI (720 nm) obtained under white light ($25 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$) and (D) for those under red light ($4 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$). Values correspond to mean and error bars to SEM of three biological replicates. An asterisk represents statistical significance ($P < 0.05$) relative to the wild type strain.

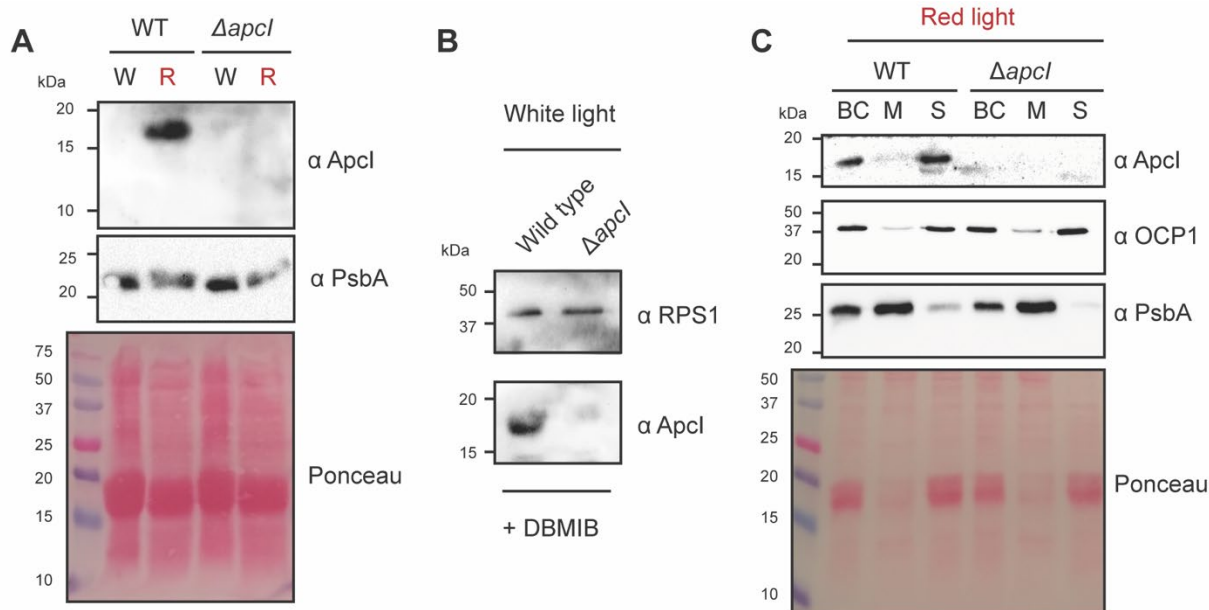


Figure 4. Expression of Apcl is induced by red light and a highly reduced plastoquinone pool. Expression of Apcl was monitored using antibodies raised against Apcl full length under different conditions. (A) Wild type and *apcl* deletion strains were grown under white light (denoted as W with light intensity of $25 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$) or red light (denoted as R with light intensity of $4 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$) to analyze the presence of Apcl in cell lysates. The subunit PsbA from PSII was used as a control. A total of $50 \mu\text{g}$ of protein was loaded on each lane. (B) Wild type and *apcl* deletion strains were grown under white light in the presence of DBMIB ($50 \mu\text{M}$) for 6 hours to detect Apcl in cell lysates. Antibodies against the protein RPS1 were used as protein loading control. A total of $25 \mu\text{g}$ of protein was loaded on each lane. (C) Strains were grown under red light for the expression of Apcl. Cell lysates (broken cells: BC) were further separated into membrane (M) and soluble fractions (S) by centrifugation, a total of $25 \mu\text{g}$ of protein were loaded on each lane. Antibodies against PsbA were used as a marker for the membrane fraction, while antibodies against OCP1 were used as a marker for the soluble fraction. Western blots shown correspond to a representative experiment out of three biological replicates.

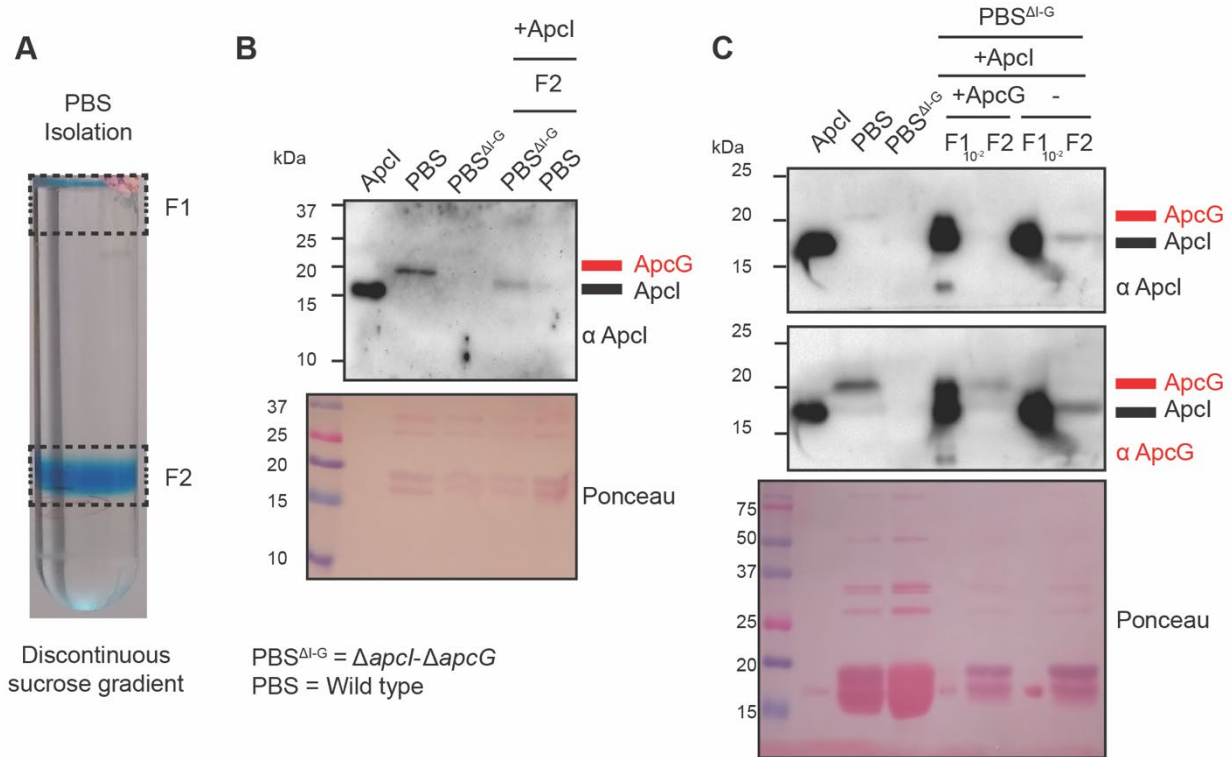


Figure 5. Apcl and ApcG interchangeable interaction with PBS core. Isolated PBSs from wild type (denoted as PBS here) and double mutant (Δ apcl- Δ apcG; denoted as PBS Δ I-G) strains were used to perform binding assays with purified ApcG and Apcl. **(A)** Discontinuous sucrose gradient profile for the separation of intact PBSs (fraction F2) discarding the excess of unbound protein (F1). **(B)** Wild type and mutant PBSs were used in binding assays with purified Apcl. As a control, the purified protein Apcl was loaded along with isolated PBSs (precipitated by TCA) and fraction F2 (precipitated by TCA). **(C)** Competition binding assay using purified ApcG and Apcl. Fractions were loaded on the gel as described in **(B)**. The nitrocellulose membrane was stripped after the detection of Apcl (highlighted in black) followed by incubation with antibodies against ApcG (highlighted in red). Western blots shown correspond to a representative experiment out of three biological replicates. Antibodies against Apcl cross-react with ApcG, nevertheless the two linkers can be distinguished by molecular masses (indicated by colored bars at the right side of the immunoblots).

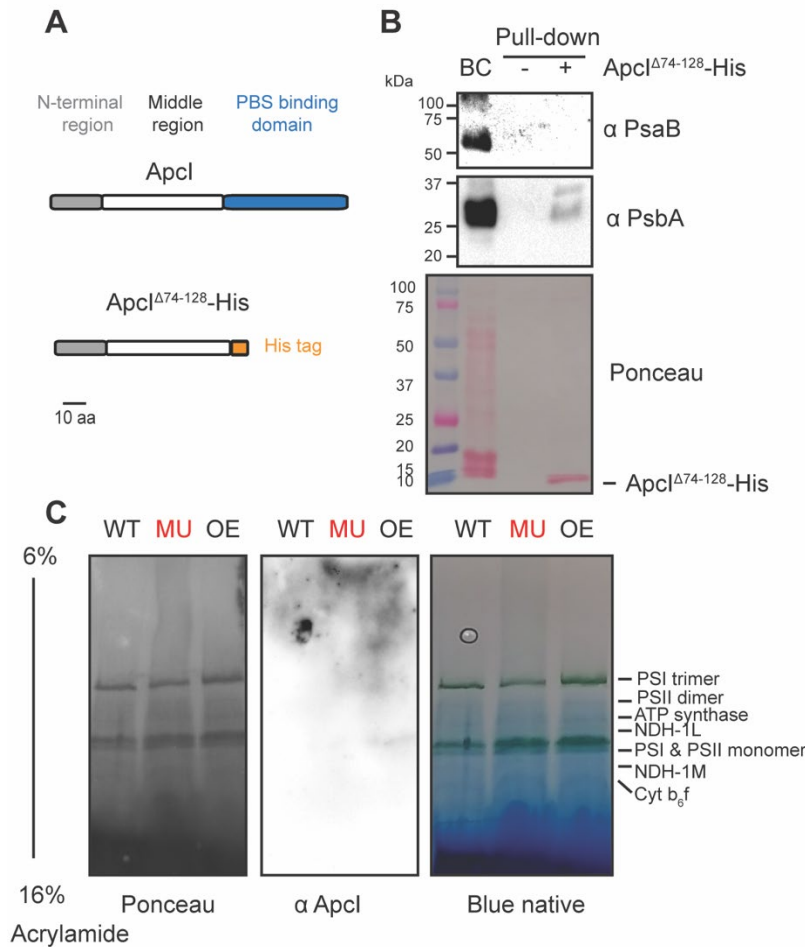


Figure 6. Apcl interacts with the PSII complex in the thylakoid membrane. (A) Truncated form of Apcl generated to perform pull-down experiments by replacing the PBS binding motif by a C-terminal His tag. (B) Pull-down experiments were performed using nickel beads preloaded with Apcl^{Δ74-128}-His followed by incubation in the presence of *Synechocystis* soluble protein fraction. Antibodies against protein markers were used against PSI (PsaB), PSII (PsbA) and PBS (allophycocyanin; APC). As a control for antibodies, 20 μg of proteins from broken cells (BC) from *Synechocystis* (grown under white light, 25 μmol photons m⁻²·s⁻¹) were used to detect the marker proteins. (C) The strains wild type, double mutant (in red as MU; $\Delta apcl\text{-}\Delta apcG$) and over-expressor (OE; *PpsbA2::apcl* in the background of $\Delta apcl\text{-}\Delta apcG$) were used to detect Apcl in blots made transferred from blue native gels.

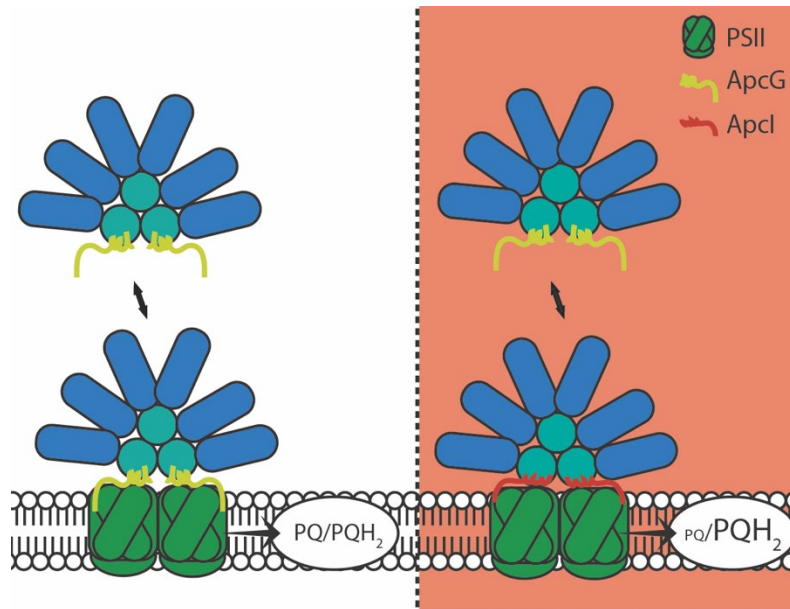
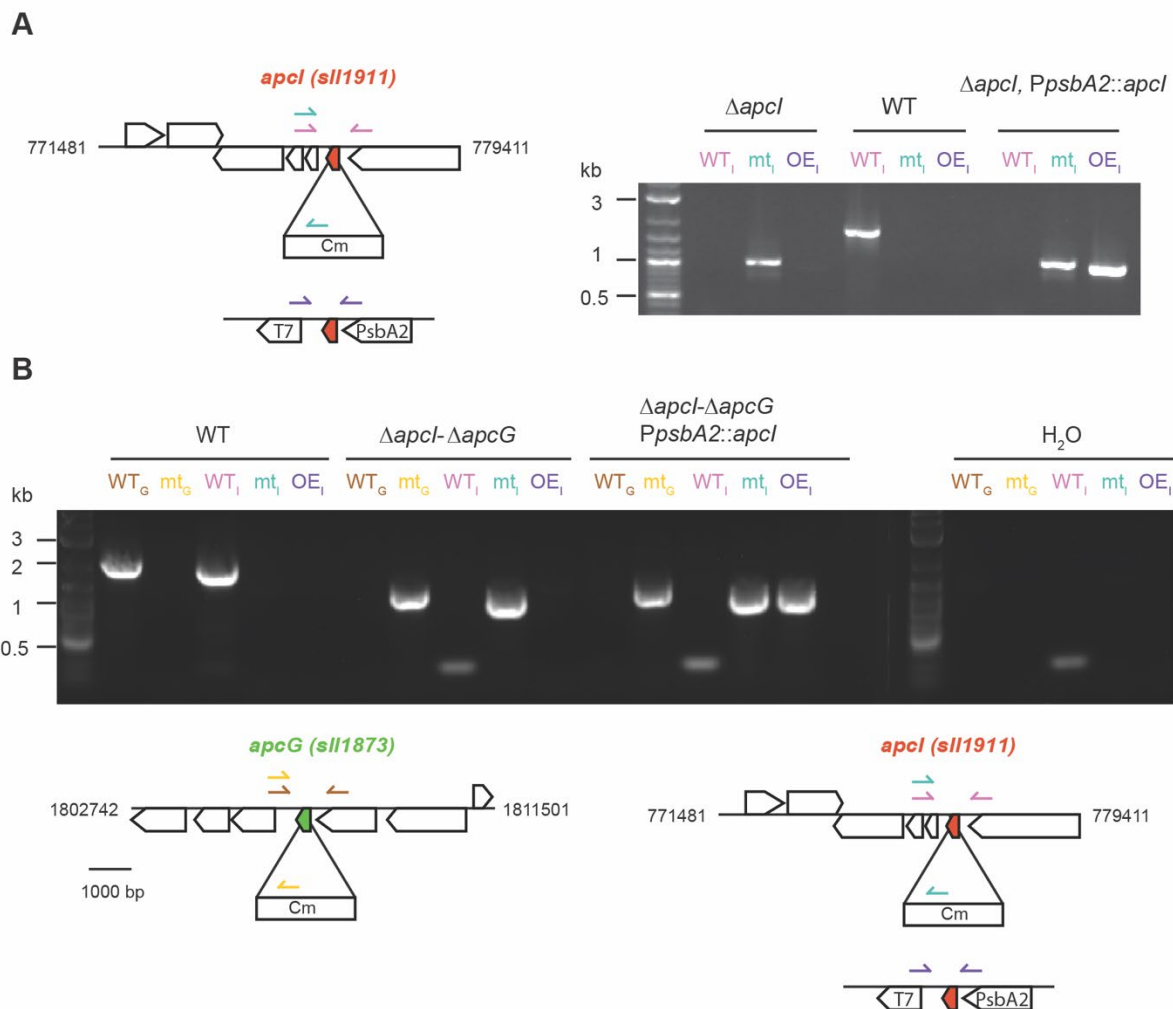
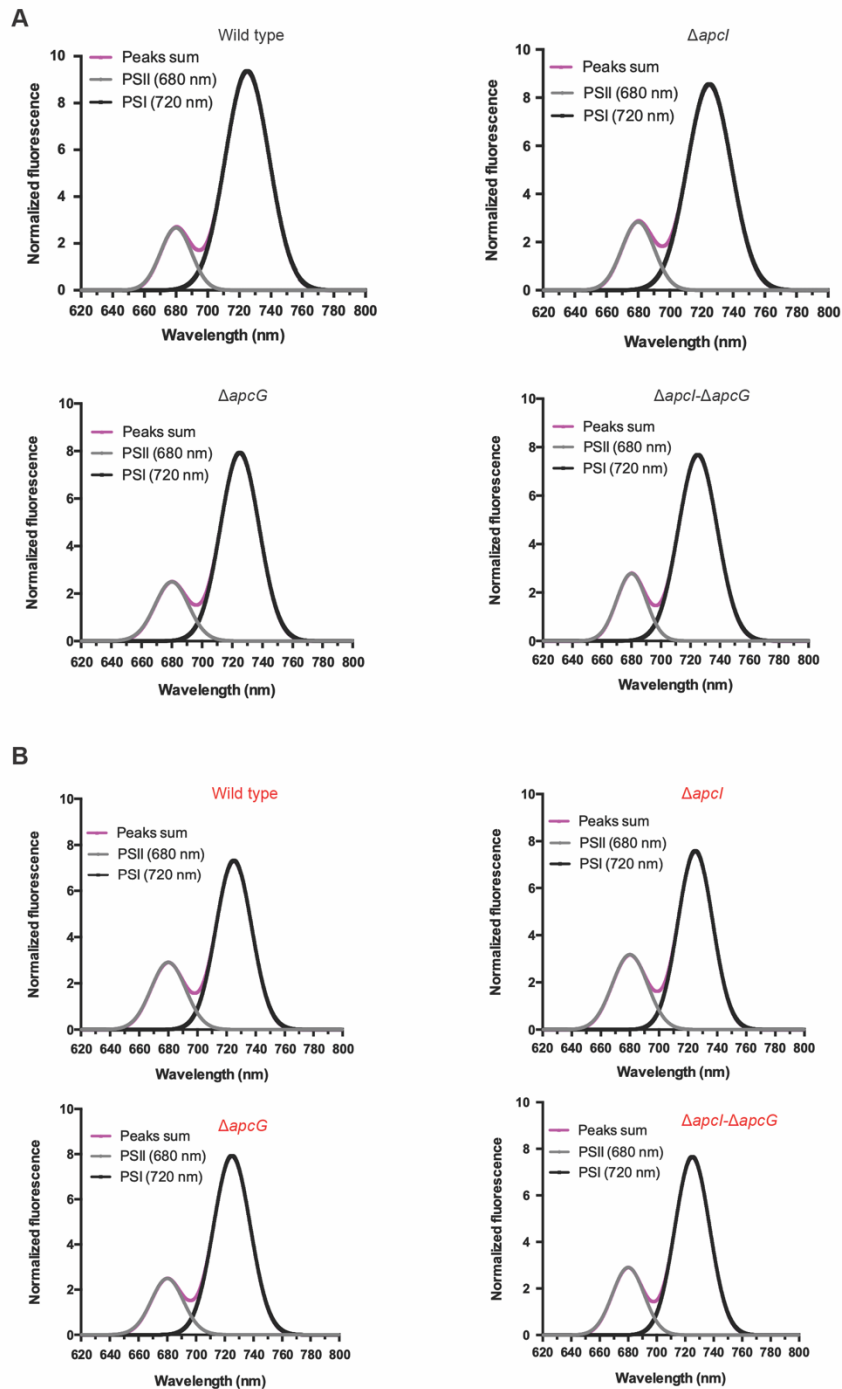


Figure 7. Model for Apcl expression and interaction with PSII. Under white light (left panel), the plastoquinone pool is balanced between oxidized and reduced. However, under red light (right panel) the plastoquinone pool becomes more reduced, triggering the expression of Apcl (**Figure 4**) which remains associated with the thylakoid membrane via its N-terminal region (consisting of residues 1-73 which include N-terminal and middle regions) as evident from an Apcl over-expression strain (**Figure 6**). Upon PBS interaction with PSII, ApcG is replaced by Apcl through the C-terminal PBS binding motif of Apcl (**Figure 5**).

Supplemental figures (S1-15)



Supplementary figure S1. Genotyping of cyanobacteria strains. (A) Wild type *Synechocystis* was used to delete the endogenous *apcI* gene by replacing it with a chloramphenicol resistance cassette. The *apcI* deletion strain was used to over-express Apcl under the control of the *psbA2* promoter. (B) An *apcG* deletion strain was used to generate a double mutant deleting *apcI* by replacing it with a kanamycin resistance cassette. Additionally, this double mutant strain was used to generate an over-expressor of Apcl under the control of the *psbA2* promoter (*PpsbA2*). As a control water was added instead of template for each PCR reaction. Primers used for each PCR reaction are color coded being; WT_I amplification for the wild type gene *apcI*, MU_I mutant amplification for the insertion of either chloramphenicol (Cm) or kanamycin (Kan) cassette replacing the *apcI* gene, OE_I over expression PCR for the replacement of the gene *psbA2* by *apcI* under the control of the promoter *PpsbA2*, WT_G amplification for the wild type gene *apcG*, MU_G mutant amplification for the insertion of a chloramphenicol (Cm) cassette replacing the *apcG* gene.



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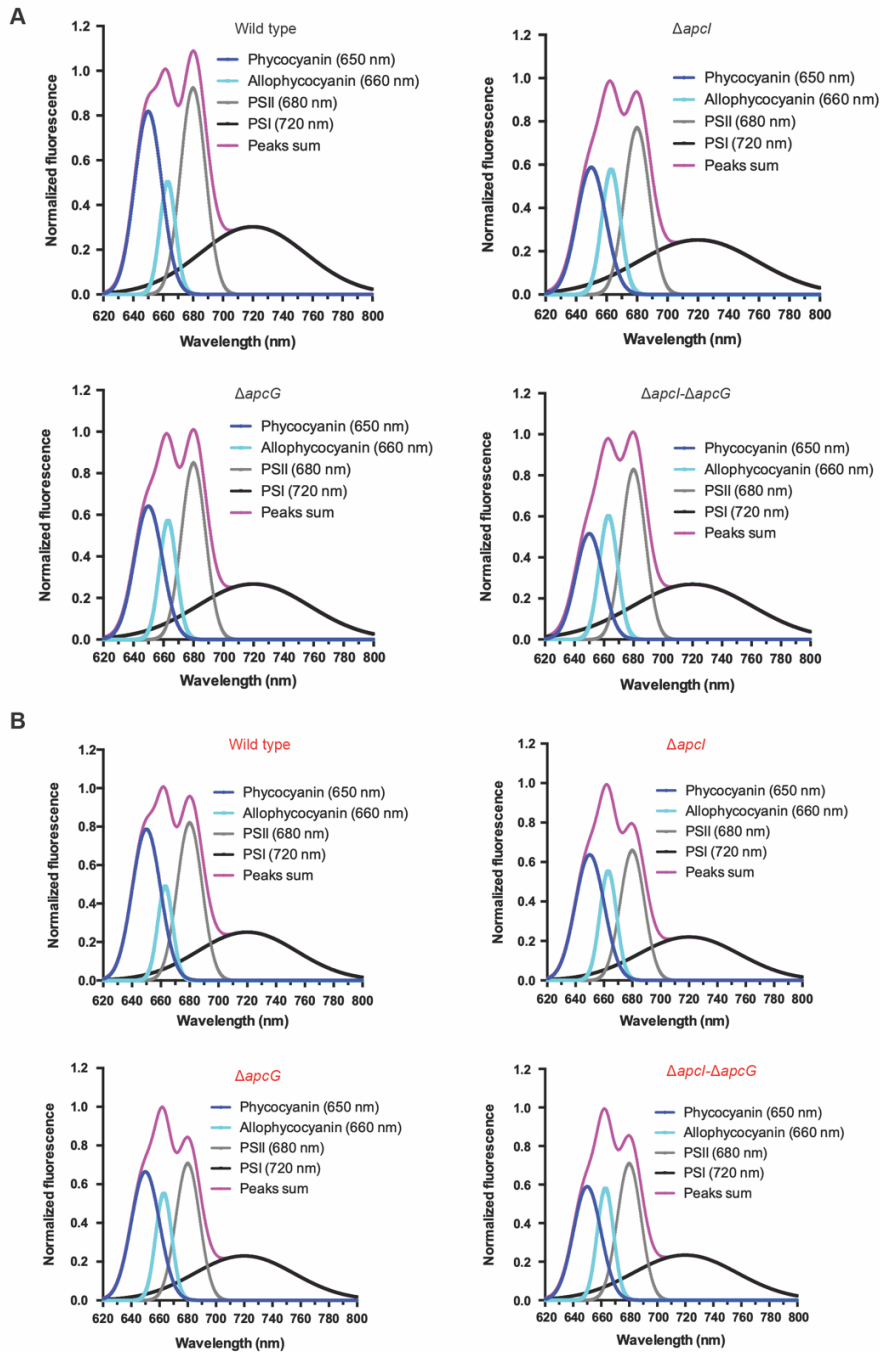
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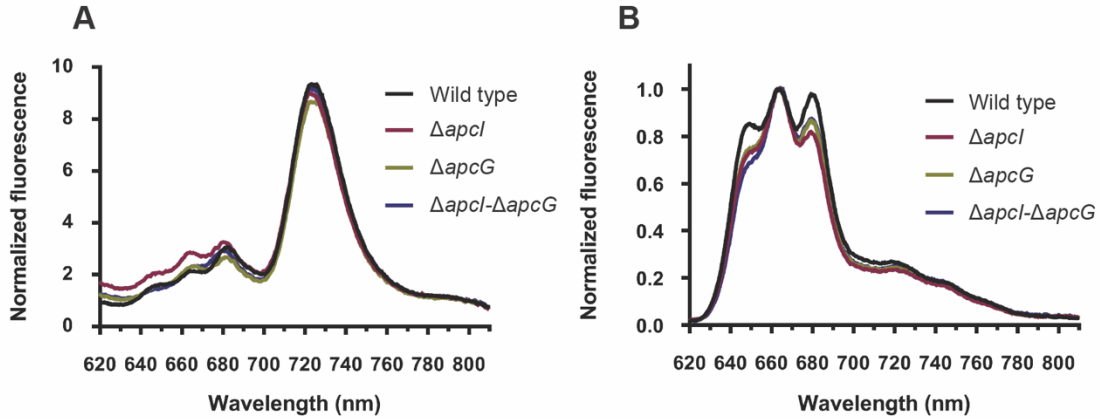
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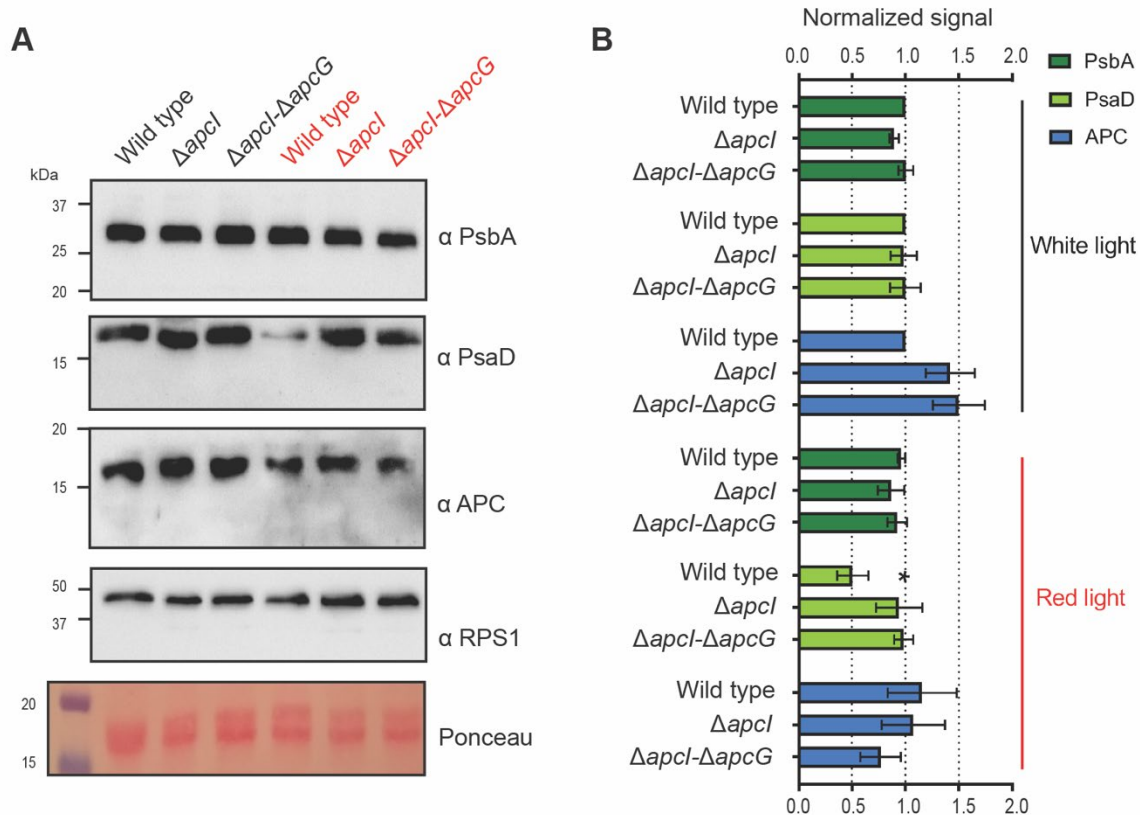
Supplementary figure S2. Peak deconvolution of chlorophyll low-temperature emission spectra. Cyanobacterial strains were grown under white light ($25 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$) or red light ($4 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$), and their whole-cell emission spectra were recorded at 77 K. Peak deconvolution was performed by fitting relative spectra (**Figure 3A and B**) to a sum of two Gaussian peaks (PSII at 680 nm and PSI at 720 nm). Gaussian peaks summatory was fitted to relative spectra for the minimum summatory of square error (below 100). Deconvoluted peaks are shown for strains grown under white light (**A**) or red light (**B**). Values represent the mean of three biological replicates.



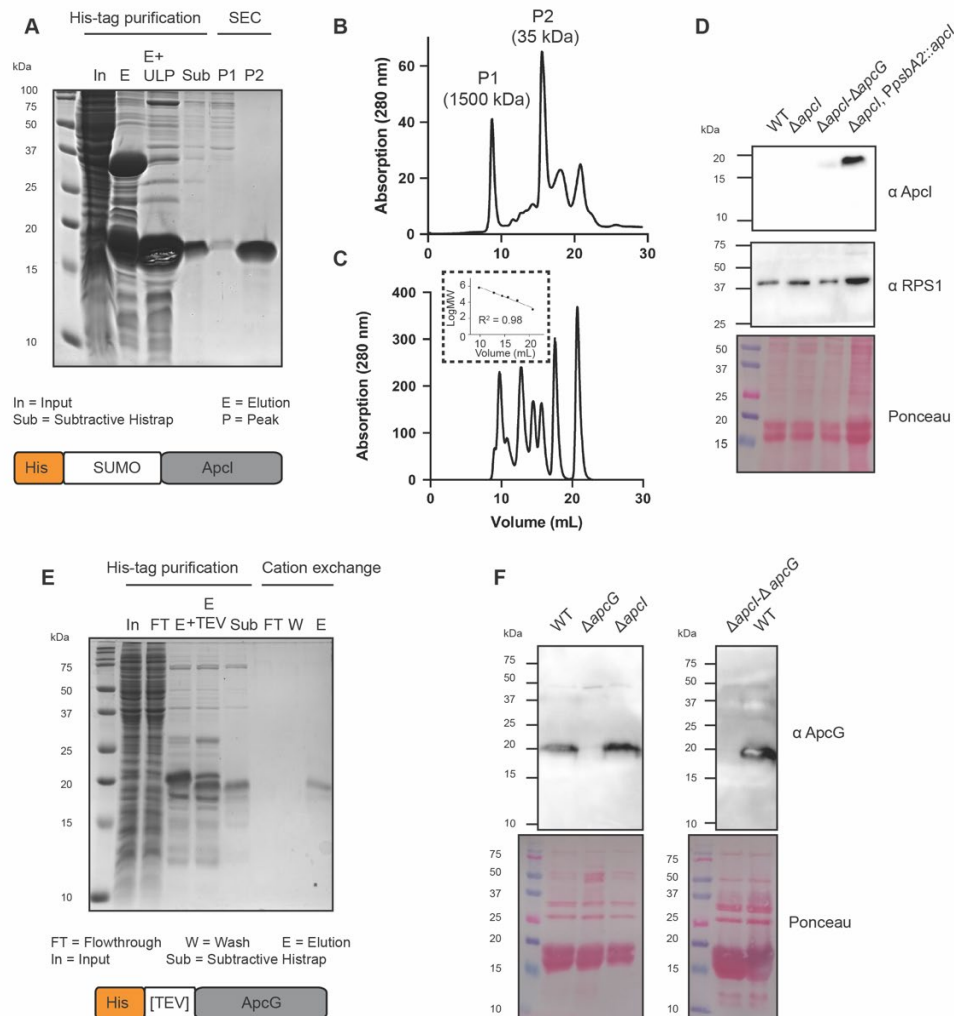
Supplementary figure S3. Peak deconvolution of PBS low-temperature emission spectra. Cyanobacterial strains were grown under white light ($25 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$) or red light ($4 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$), and their whole-cell emission spectra were recorded at 77 K. Peak deconvolution was performed by fitting the relative spectra (**Figure 3A and B**) to a sum of four Gaussian peaks (phycocyanin at 650 nm, allophycocyanin at 660 nm, PSII at 680 nm, and PSI at 720 nm). Gaussian peaks summatory was fitted to relative spectra for the minimum summatory of square error (below 100). Deconvoluted peaks are shown for strains grown under white light (**A**) or red light (**B**). Values represent the mean of three biological replicates.



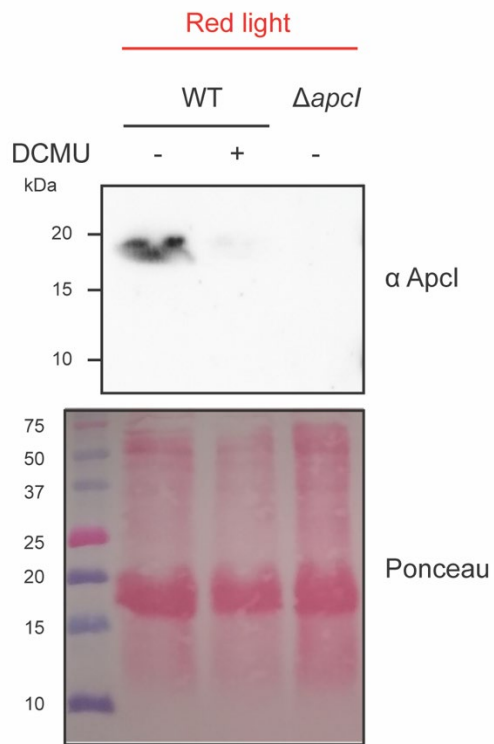
Supplementary figure S4. Low temperature emission spectra for cultures grown under low white light. Cyanobacteria strains were grown under low white light ($4 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$) without CO_2 supplementation, and their whole-cell emission spectra were recorded at 77K. Chlorophyll emission spectra are shown on panel (A) (excitation wavelength of 430 nm) and PBS emission spectra on panel (B) (excitation wavelength of 590 nm). Values correspond to the means of three biological replicates. Chlorophyll emission spectra were normalized by their fluorescence at 800 nm, while PBS emission spectra were normalized using the peak of PBS at 660 nm.



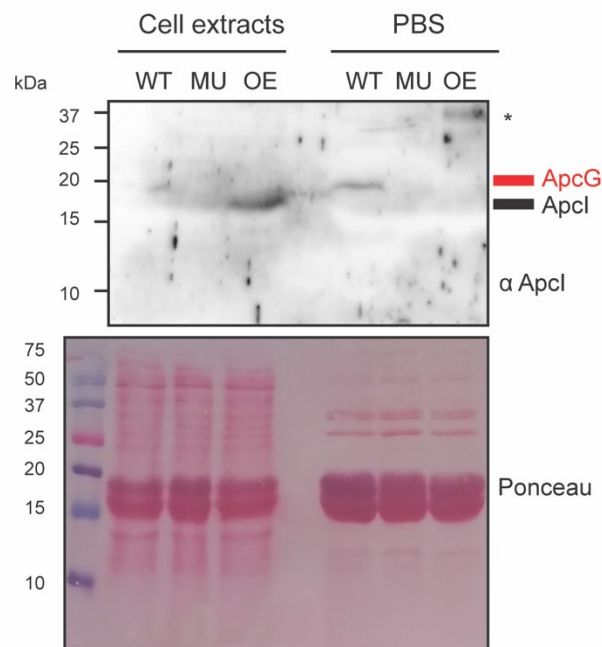
Supplemental figure S5. Comparison of photosynthetic complexes abundance among cyanobacteria strains. Wild type, single mutant ($\Delta apcl$), and double mutant ($\Delta apcl-\Delta apcG$) strains were grown under white (25 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$) and red light (4 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$) for 4 days to analyze the abundance of photosynthetic complexes from cell lysates. **(A)** Western blot analyses of strains grown under white light (black font) and red light (red font) detecting marker proteins for PSII (PsbA), PSI (PsdD) and PBS (allophycocyanin; APC). Antibodies against RPS1 were used as protein loading control. Images correspond to a representative experiment out of three biological replicates. A total of 25 μg of protein content was loaded on each lane. **(B)** Semi-quantitative analyses of western blot signals for marker proteins. Signals for each of the three biological replicates were normalized according to the signal obtained from wild type grown under white light (first lane of the western blot). Values correspond to mean and error bars to SEM of three biological replicates. An asterisk represents statistical significance at P value of 0.05.



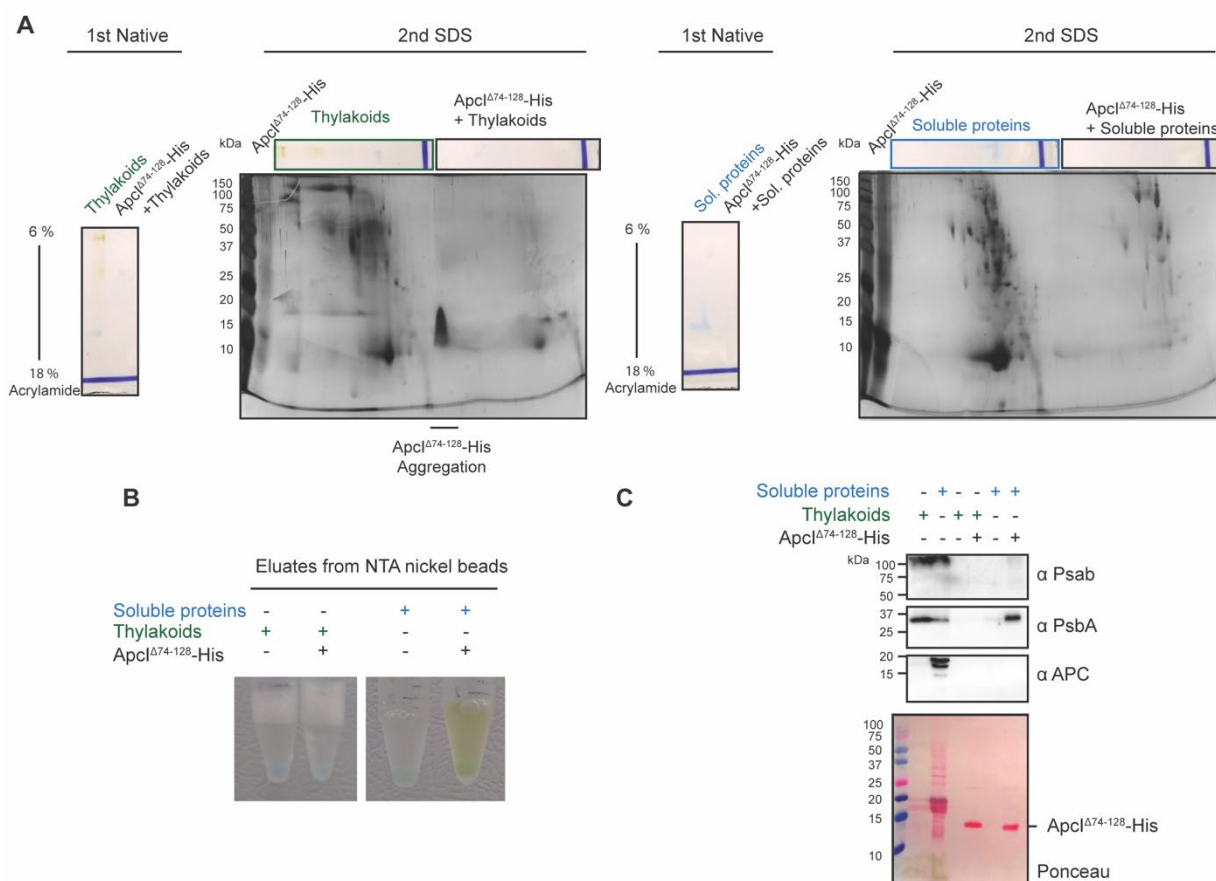
Supplementary figure S6. Protein purification and antibodies generation. (A) The full length of Apcl was N-terminally fused to His-SUMO for purification by IMAC. Afterwards, the SUMO tag was digested by adding protease His-ULP allowing Apcl to appear in the flowthrough of a subsequent subtractive His tag purification. This fraction was further separated by size exclusion chromatography where the second peak (P2) corresponds to the pure Apcl protein. (B) Size exclusion chromatogram for the collection of Apcl after its purification by His tag. (C) Standard proteins chromatogram for size exclusion chromatography. In a dashed square it is shown the R^2 as well as the standard curve used for calculations. (D) Antibodies were generated using the purified protein on A. To confirm that the antibodies detect Apcl in cyanobacteria, cell lysates were prepared from wild type (WT) single mutant ($\Delta apcI$), double mutant ($\Delta apcI$ - $\Delta apcG$) and Apcl over-expressor strain ($\Delta apcI$, $PpsbA2::apcI$). Antibodies against RPS1 were used as protein loading control. A total of 50 μ g of protein content was loaded on each lane. (E) The full length of ApcG was fused to a His tag at its N-terminus with a TEV protease site for the removal of the tag after His tag purification. After purifying the His tagged fusion protein, the His tag was removed by adding protease His-TEV allowing ApcG to appear in the flowthrough of a subsequent subtractive His tag purification. The protein was further purified through a cation exchange gravity column. (F) Antibodies were generated using the purified protein on D. To confirm that the antibodies detect ApcG, isolated PBSs were obtained from wild type (WT) single mutants for *apcI* and *apcG*, and double mutant ($\Delta apcI$ - $\Delta apcG$). A total of 100 μ g of protein content was loaded on each lane after TCA precipitation to remove sucrose from PBSs.



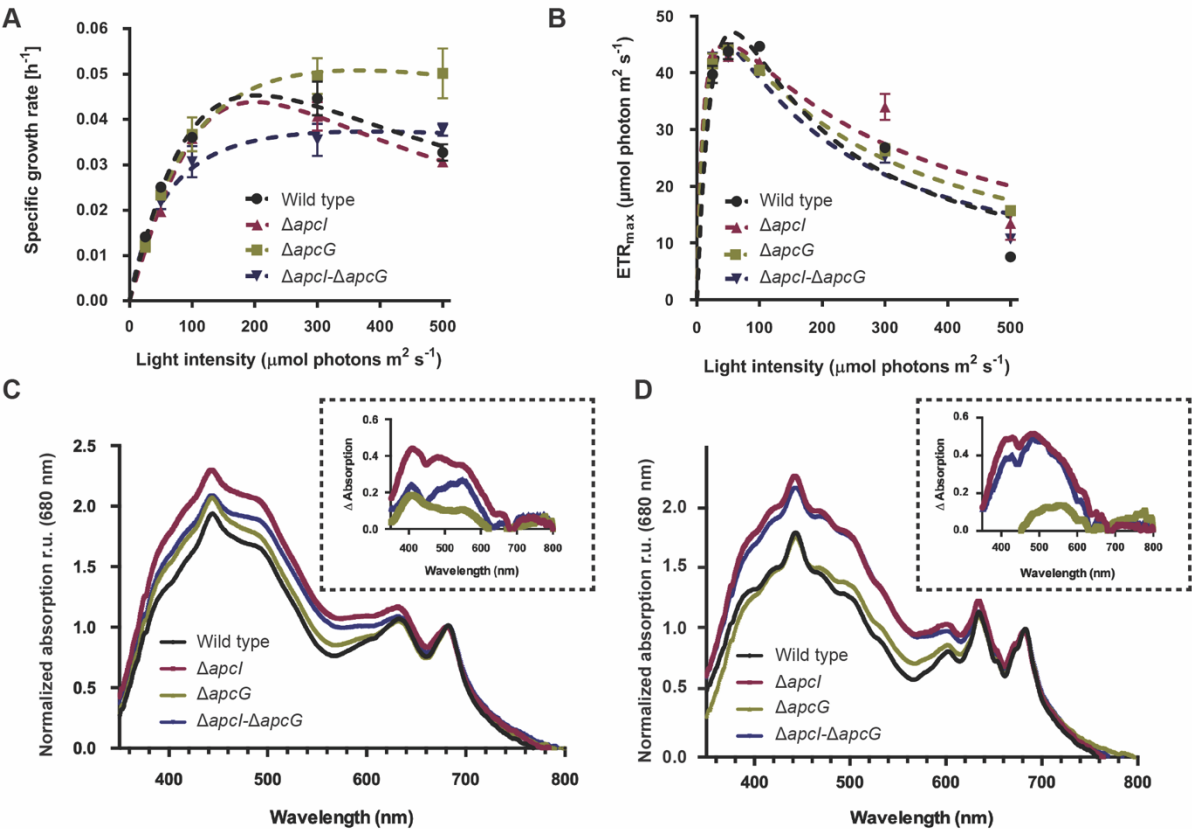
Supplementary figure S7. An oxidized plastoquinone pool prevents the expression of Apcl under red light illumination. Wild type and $\Delta apcI$ strains were grown under red light illumination ($4 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$) for one day. Wild type strain was grown in the presence or absence of DCMU $20 \mu\text{M}$. Total protein extracts were obtained from cultures and $50 \mu\text{g}$ of protein were loaded onto a gel to immuno-detect the expression of Apcl using specific antibodies. Figure corresponds representative experiment out of three biological replicates.



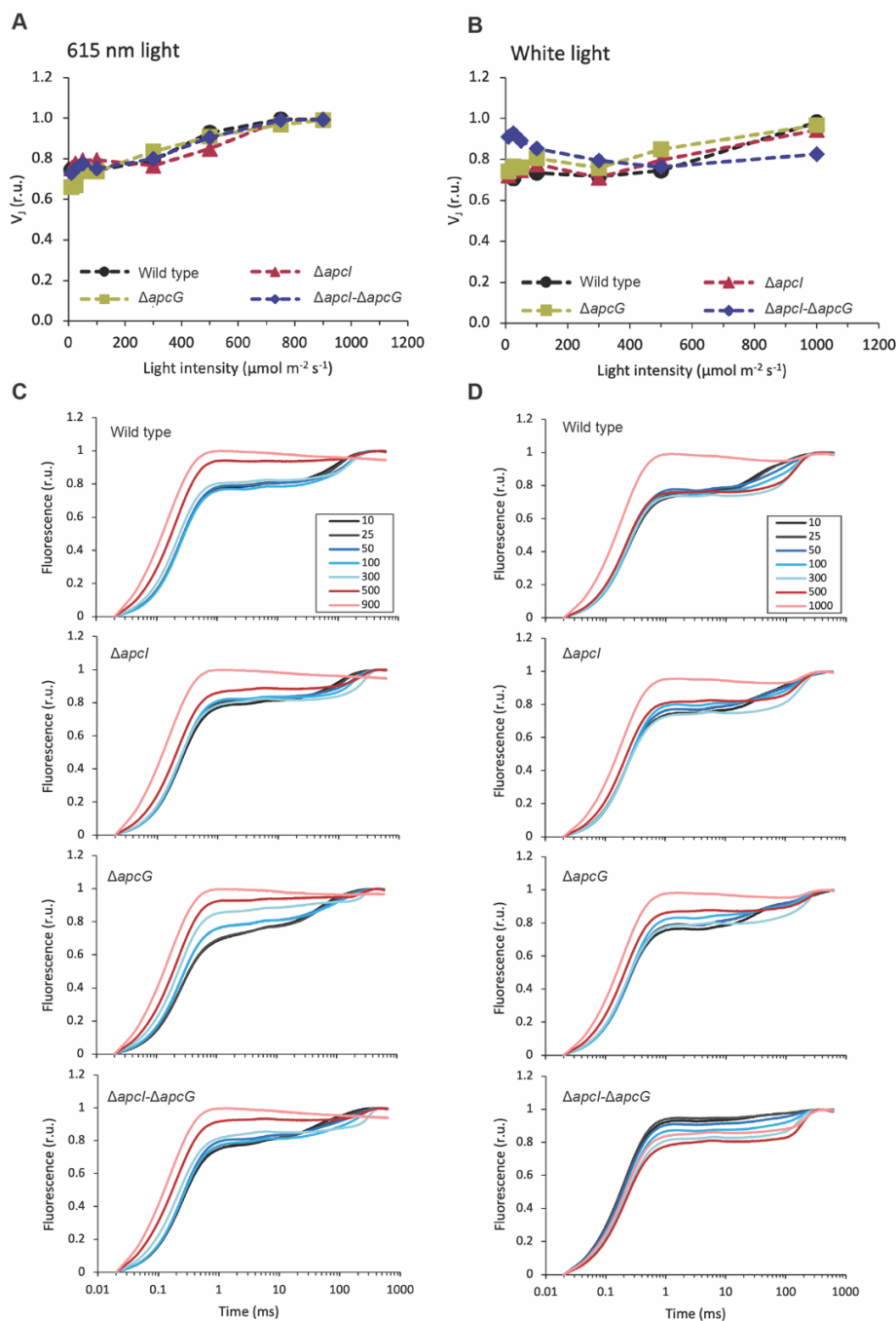
Supplementary figure S8. Cross reaction of antibodies against Apcl. Cell extracts and isolated PBSs (precipitated by TCA) from wild type (WT), double mutant (MU; $\Delta apcl$ - $\Delta apcG$) and over-expressor (OE; *PpsbA2::apcl* in the background of $\Delta apcl$ - $\Delta apcG$) were loaded onto a gel (50 μ g of protein content on each lane) to later transfer the proteins to a nitrocellulose membrane and incubate it with antibodies against Apcl. On the right side of the immunoblot in red it is indicated the cross-reaction with ApcG while in black it is shown the size shift for Apcl. Comparison of the wild type (WT) and double mutant (MU; $\Delta apcl$ - $\Delta apcG$) PBSs shows that antibodies against Apcl do recognize ApcG. An asterisk indicates an unspecific band (around 37 kDa) recognized by antibodies against Apcl that was not reproducible in other biological replicates. Strains were grown under white light (25 μ mol photons $m^{-2} \cdot s^{-1}$).



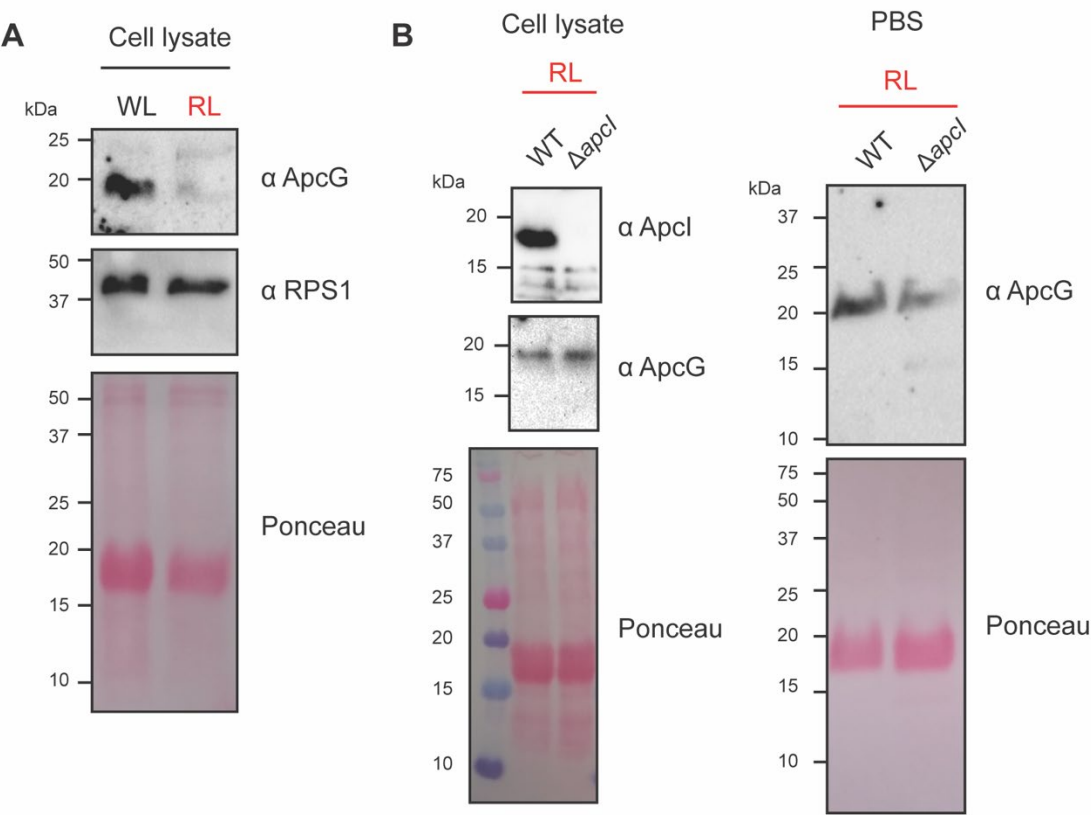
Supplementary figure S9. Pull-down assays using ApcI truncated version. A truncated version of ApcI was generated replacing its PBS binding motif by a His tag (ApcI^{Δ74-128}-His). After pre-loading nickel beads with ApcI^{Δ74-128}-His, fractions of either soluble proteins or solubilized thylakoids were incubated with the nickel beads containing ApcI^{Δ74-128}-His. Eluates using 200 mM imidazole were obtained after washing the beads with 50 mM imidazole. As a control, empty nickel beads were incubated with either soluble proteins or solubilized thylakoids. **(A)** First native and second denaturing (SDS) dimensions gels were ran using eluates from pull-down experiments using either soluble proteins or solubilized thylakoids. ApcI^{Δ74-128}-His aggregates are shown on the left panel when the protein was incubated with solubilized thylakoids containing 1 % dodecyl-beta-D-maltoside. **(B)** Eluates from control and pre-loaded ApcI^{Δ74-128}-His nickel beads incubated with either soluble proteins or solubilized thylakoids. **(C)** Pull-down immunoblots for the detection of marker proteins from PSII (PsbA), PSI (PsaB) and PBS (allophycocyanin, APC) using nickel beads pre-charged with ApcI^{Δ74-128}-His.



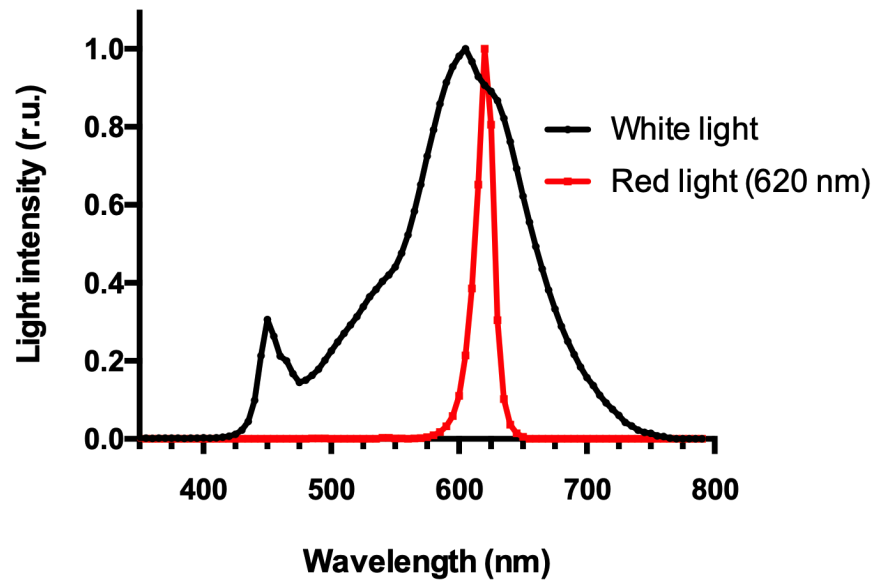
Supplementary figure S10. Strains phenotypes under increasing red light intensities. (A) wild type, single and double mutant strains for *apcG* and *apcl* were grown under increasing red light intensities and their specific growth measured. Values correspond to averages of four biological replicates and error bars to SEM. (B) Maximal electron transport rate of all cyanobacteria strains was measured from cultures grown under different light intensities. Values correspond to average of three biological replicates and error bars to SEM. (C) Room temperature whole-cell absorption spectra of cyanobacteria strains grown under red light ($4 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$). (D) 77K whole-cell absorption spectra under red light ($4 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$). Values for (C) and (D) correspond to averages of three biological replicates presented as relative units (r.u.) and insets to average spectra of mutant strains after subtracting the wild type absorption spectrum.



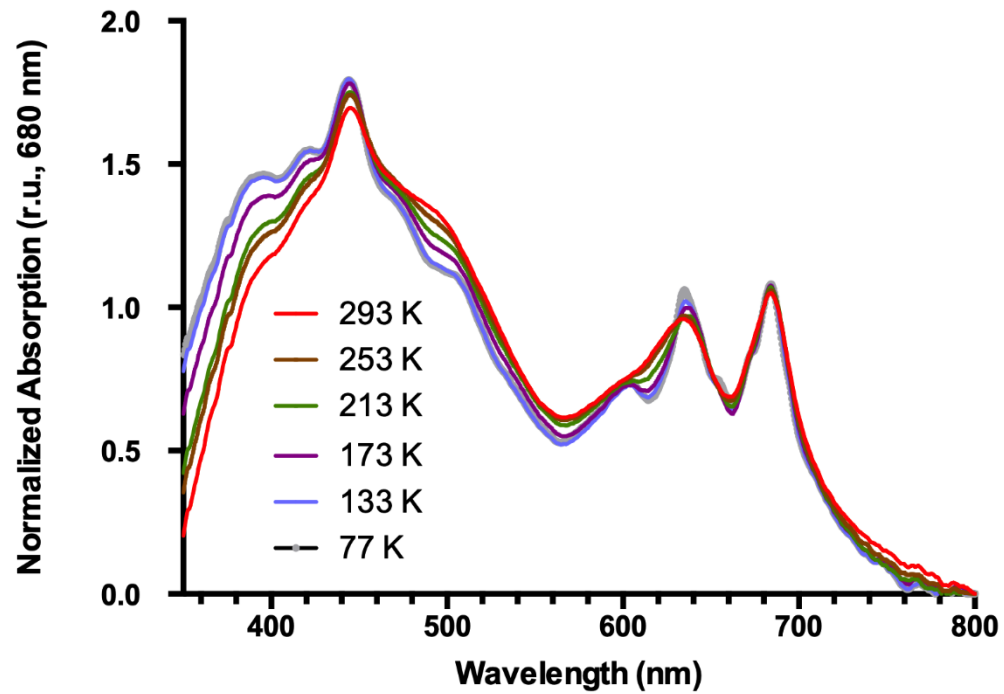
Supplementary figure S11. Fast fluorescence induction kinetics (OJIP) and the derived parameter V_J as a proxy of the redox state of the plastoquinone pool. The normalized F_J fluorescence, V_J (A, B), serving as a proxy for the redox state of the plastoquinone pool (Toth et al., 2007; Tsimilli-Michael et al., 2009) was calculated from fast fluorescence induction curves under red light (C) and white light (D) according to Eq. (4). The values represent averages (relative units, r.u.) from three biological replicates, error bars represent SD. The OJIP curves, measured after 20 min dark acclimation, were double normalized before plotting and are shown without error bars for clarity. The legends in panels (C) and (D) represent intensity of red and white light, respectively, under which the strains were cultivated (in units $\mu\text{E m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$).



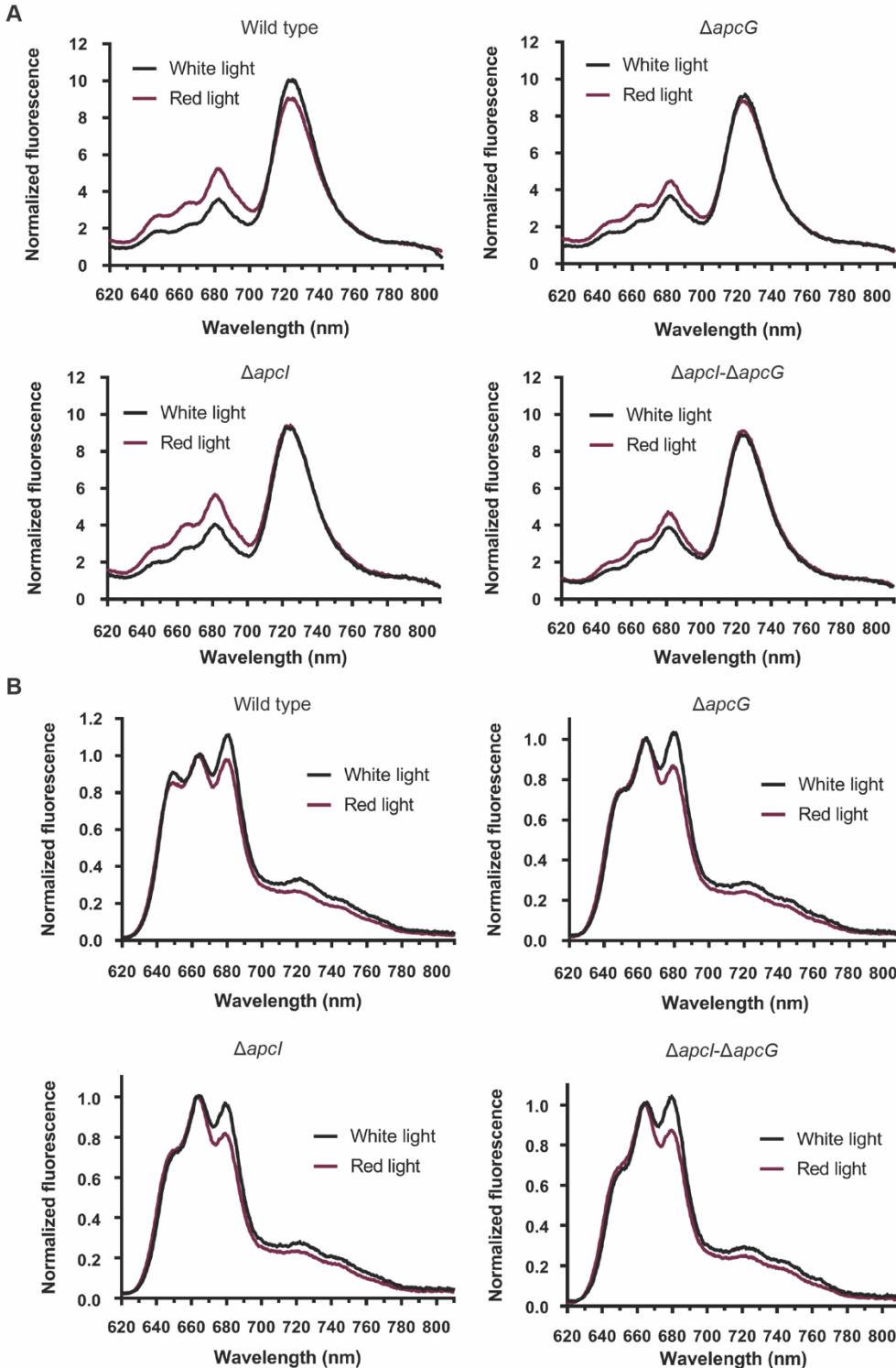
Supplementary figure S12. ApcG protein levels in isolated PBSs from white and red light grown cultures. (A) Wild type *Synechocystis* cultures were grown to observe the abundance of ApcG in cell lysates from cultures grown for four days under white (WL, 25 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$) or red light (RL, 4 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$). (B) Cell lysates and isolated PBSs from wild type and *apcI* deletion strains grown under red light were loaded onto a gel to detect the abundance of ApcG as well as Apcl, however no signal was obtained using antibodies against Apcl in isolated PBS samples. A total of 50 μg of protein content was loaded on each lane for sections (A) and (B). Immunoblots correspond to a representative experiment out of three biological replicates.



Supplementary figure S13. Light sources spectra. Emission spectra of light sources used for growth of cyanobacteria strains. Light intensity is represented as relative units (r.u.).



Supplementary figure S14. Absorption spectra under decreasing temperatures. Wild type *Synechocystis* cultures were grown under normal conditions (white light) till $OD_{720} = 1$, and their absorption spectra recorded from 293 K decreasing the temperature of the sample down to 77K. Curves correspond to averages of three biological replicates and are presented as relative units (r.u.).



Supplementary figure S15. Emission spectra of individual strains grown under white and red lights. (A) Chlorophyll emission spectra recorded for all strains under white (25 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$) and red lights (4 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$) by exciting at 430 nm (normalized at 800 nm). (B) PBS emission spectra of strains grown under white and red lights (normalized at 660 nm). Values correspond to means of three biological replicates.