PCCP

Accepted Manuscript



This is an *Accepted Manuscript*, which has been through the Royal Society of Chemistry peer review process and has been accepted for publication.

Accepted Manuscripts are published online shortly after acceptance, before technical editing, formatting and proof reading. Using this free service, authors can make their results available to the community, in citable form, before we publish the edited article. We will replace this Accepted Manuscript with the edited and formatted Advance Article as soon as it is available.

You can find more information about *Accepted Manuscripts* in the **Information for Authors**.

Please note that technical editing may introduce minor changes to the text and/or graphics, which may alter content. The journal's standard <u>Terms & Conditions</u> and the <u>Ethical guidelines</u> still apply. In no event shall the Royal Society of Chemistry be held responsible for any errors or omissions in this *Accepted Manuscript* or any consequences arising from the use of any information it contains.



www.rsc.org/pccp

### COMMUNICATION

# Photo-electrochemical communication between cyanobacteria (*Leptolyndbia* sp.) and osmium redox polymer modified electrodes

Received ooth January 2012, Accepted ooth January 2012

Cite this: DOI: 10.1039/xoxxooooox

DOI: 10.1039/x0xx00000x

www.rsc.org/

Kamrul Hasan<sup>\*a</sup>, Huseyin Bekir Yildiz<sup>b</sup>, Eva Sperling<sup>a</sup>, Peter O' Conghaile<sup>c</sup>, Michael A. Packer<sup>d</sup>, Dónal Leech<sup>c</sup>, Cecilia Hägerhäll<sup>a</sup>, Lo Gorton<sup>\*a</sup>

Photosynthetic microbial fuel cells (PMFCs) are an emerging technology for renewable solar energy conversion. Major efforts have been made to explore the electrogenic activity of cyanobacteria, mostly with practically unsustainable reagents. Here we report on photocurrent generation ( $\approx 8.64 \ \mu \text{ Acm}^{-2}$ ) from cyanobacteria immobilized on electrodes modified with an efficient electron mediator, Os<sup>2+/3+</sup> redox polymer. And by addition of ferricyanide to the electrolyte, cyanobacteria generate the current density maximum at  $\approx$ 48.2  $\mu \text{ Acm}^{-2}$ .

Photosynthetic microbial fuel cells (PMFCs) are an emerging prospective technology for CO<sub>2</sub> free renewable solar energy production and rely on photosynthesis for generation of electricity<sup>1</sup>. Cyanobacteria account for 20-30% of global photosynthetic productivity and convert solar energy into chemical energy<sup>2</sup>. They contain both respiratory and photosynthetic systems in their thylakoid membranes unlike higher plants and algae and any excess electrons generated in photosynthesis can be shared with the respiratory system<sup>3</sup>. Moreover, cyanobacteria have their own mechanism to prevent photo-damage at high light intensity and are able to survive under different environmental conditions, e.g., at irregular levels of CO<sub>2</sub>, diverse light exposure, and dryness<sup>4</sup> that are supposed to give them a long stability in PMFCs<sup>5</sup>.

Therefore cyanobacteria form a practical potential to explore in harnessing solar energy in a versatile global area.

Studies have revealed that cyanobacteria may be exploited in photo-bioelectrochemical cells via direct electron transfer (DET) with electrodes<sup>2,6</sup>. They have been explored for biofuel generation<sup>7</sup> as well as heavy metal remediation<sup>8</sup>. Cyanobacteria have greater advantages over metal reducing bacteria, since any external organic carbon sources are not needed for electricity generation<sup>2</sup>. Energy generation from isolated photosynthetic reaction centers, photosystem I (PSI), photosystem II (PSII), and thylakoids require complex isolation and immobilization techniques resulting in shortterm stability that limits their use in applications<sup>5</sup>. Reports demonstrated different cvanobacteria in PMFCs, e.g. Anabaena sp.<sup>9</sup>, Synechococcus sp.<sup>10</sup> and Synechocystis sp.<sup>11</sup> and mostly using artificial redox mediators to carry out the extracellular electron transfer from the cells to the electrode. However, the use of environmentally unfriendly, unsustainable and practically unfeasible artificial electron mediators in PMFCs limits their practical application currently<sup>6</sup>. In contrast, the use of flexible osmium redox polymers (ORPs) has

already been very successfully used for enzyme based reagentless biosensors<sup>12</sup>, where they fulfil both to supply the system with a mediator (that does not diffuse away with time) but also forms a 3-D immobilization matrix (a hydrogel) for the enzyme. Besides that polymeric mediators draw attention due to their efficient shuttling properties, stable adsorption on electrode surface and the possibility to form multiple layers of enzymes<sup>13</sup> as well as bacterial cells<sup>14,15</sup>.

Here in this communication we report on electrochemical communication of Lyptolyngbia sp. with an ORP modified graphite (CYN82)<sup>16</sup> electrode. Cyclic voltammetry (CV) and chronoamperometry (CA) measurements have been used to record the photocurrent generation. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first time PMFCs with such an admirable polymeric mediator is reported. To measure the photocurrent density generated by cyanobacteria, the response registered under light off conditions is subtracted from that registered under light on conditions. All potentials mentioned here are referred to Ag|AgCl (sat. KCI) if not stated otherwise.

Cyanobacteria convert  $H_2O$  and  $CO_2$  to glucose by photosynthesis and under dark conditions they consume glucose for survival. They can generate electricity from both the photosynthetic and the respiratory machinery that provide the foundation of PMFCs if these electrons are collected<sup>17</sup>.

To investigate the presence of photosynthetic pigment inside CYN82, absorbance spectra measurement were made of the extracted photosynthetic dye and it was confirmed that the most essential photosynthetic pigment responsible for current generation<sup>18</sup>, chlorophyll a appeared at a wavelength of 665 nm. In addition other necessary pigments such as chlorophyll b and carotenoids were visible in the spectrum at ~400 nm (Supplementary Figure 1). The appearance of these pigments at their particular wavelengths confirms the necessary photosynthetic activity of CYN82<sup>19</sup>.

DET between the cells and electrodes is preferable than mediated electron transfer (MET) for power generation, since it minimizes the over-potential in bio-electrochemical systems and simplifies the electrochemical cell design and operation. We investigated whether the CYN82 can communicate with a solid bare graphite electrode directly without any mediator. It has been revealed that DET of cyanobacteria<sup>5</sup> is feasible via their naturally produced nanowires like the metal reducing bacteria<sup>20</sup>. To investigate for the possibility for DET, CYN82 cells were adsorbed on a bare graphite electrode and illuminated with a fibre optic light source with a light intensity of 44 mWcm<sup>-2</sup> (a light intensity where photosynthesis is no longer limited by light) and only pure electrolyte was present as electron donor (Fig. 1).



"Figure 1. DET between CYN82 (9.5  $\mu$  g, wet weight) and a bare-graphite electrode. Electrolyte: 10 mM phosphate buffer at pH 7.0, 10 mM NaCl and 5 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, applied potential: 350 mV vs. Ag|AgCl (sat. KCl), light intensity: 44 mWcm<sup>-2</sup>, black and red arrows stand for light off and on, respectively."

It was shown (Fig. 1) that when the CYN82 cells were illuminated they generate a photocurrent of 1.30  $\mu$  Acm<sup>-2</sup> evaluated as the difference in registered current density between situations "light on" and "light off" (6.85-5.70  $\mu$  Acm<sup>-2</sup>). We anticipate there might be interactions between oxygen containing functional groups on the surface of the graphite<sup>21</sup> and quinones present in the photosynthetic electron transfer chain (PETC) of

CYN82. Previously it was reported that the plastoquinone pool in PETC is responsible for the direct electrogenic activity between the cells and the electrode<sup>5</sup>. The reason for current generation was attributed to photo-electrolysis of water by the PETC inside the CYN82 cells.

In contrast, while the light was turned off the photocurrent decreases, since in the absence of light no water-splitting can occur, which is the origin of the free electron that can be transferred to the electrode surface through the PETC (Fig. 1). It can be proposed here that PETC in the CYN82 cells is responsible for the photocurrent generation. Control experiments with unmodified graphite electrodes yielded no photocurrent when illuminated.

То photocurrent improve the densitv we ORP<sup>14,22</sup> four different cationic investigated (Supplementary Figure 2) denoted Os-A, Os-B, Os-C and Os-D having different functional redox groups on their side chains and with various redox potentials (E°') ranging from -0.007 (Os-A), 0.12 (Os-B), 0.22 (Os-C) and 0.35 V (Os-D) vs. Ag|AgCl (sat. KCI). This potential window covers a large part of the potential range of PETC and therefore it supposed to possibly extract electrons is generated from PETC of the CYN82 cells at various positions. The approximate E°' of the participating redox complexes in the PETC are +1.0 (P680), -1.05 (P680\*), +0.21 (P700), -1.52  $(P700^*)$ , -0.47  $(PQ_A)$ , -0.3  $(PQ_B)$ , -0.11  $(Cyt \ b_6 f)$ and +0.11 (PC) V vs. Ag|AgCl (sat. KCl) data extracted from the earlier report <sup>23</sup>.



Scheme I:

A. Schematic potential electrons transfer sites of cyanobacterial cells immobilized on a graphite electrode via different redox complexes in the PETC e.g., PSII, plastoquinone (PQ), cytochrome  $b_6$ f (Cyt  $b_6$ f), plastocyanin (PC), PSI, and ferridoxin (Fd). OEC, Phe, PQ<sub>A</sub>, PQ<sub>B</sub>, PQH<sub>2</sub> and ATP syn represent oxygen evolving complex, pheophytin, plastoquinone A, plastoquinone B, plastoquinol and ATP synthase respectively. PSI and PSII refer to the photosynthetic reaction centres and their respective pigments are P680 (P680\*) and P700 (P700\*), where \* signifies the excited state.

B. The immobilization of cyanobacteria on ORP modified graphite electrode surface and illumination approach.

In Scheme I the possible electron transfer sites are presented. Recently, Os-C was successfully used to "wire" heterotrophically grown *Rhodobacter capsulatus* cells<sup>24</sup>, where it forms a 3-D hydrogel through electrostatic interactions between the cationic ORP and the anionic bacterial cell membrane and precipitating onto the electrode surface. A similar interaction is expected to take place between the ORP and the CYN82 cells.

Which among the four different ORPs, with a particular E°' and a distinctive chemical structure, can generate the comparatively highest possible photocurrent is important to investigate. The photocurrent generation with Os-A, Os-B, Os-C,

and Os-D exhibited 1.32, 4.24, 8.64 and 6.33  $\mu$  Acm  $^2$  (Fig. 2). The photocurrent increases linearly



"Figure 2. Comparison of background corrected (light off conditions) photocurrent generation mediated with (A) Os-A, (B) Os-B, (C) Os-C and (D) Os-D; the E°' of Os-A, Os-B, Os-C and Os-D was -0.007, 0.12, 0.22 and 0.35 V vs. Ag|AgCl respectively, applied potential: +130 mV > E°' of each ORP, electrolyte: 10 mM phosphate buffer at pH 7.0, 10 mM NaCl and 5 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, light intensity: 44 mWcm<sup>-2</sup>, black and red arrows stand for light off and on respectively. The results of four different experiments with the four different ORPs have been combined in this figure."

with an increased E°' of ORP except for Os-D. It is expected that when increasing the E°' that a higher photocurrent should be exhibited as the thermodynamic driving force is increased to donate electrons to the ORP. However, the accessibility of the side chains, onto which the mediating functionality is located, to the electron-donating site in the PETC should also be of importance. The lower E°' values of P680\*, P700\*, PQ<sub>A</sub>, PQ<sub>B</sub>, PQ, and Cyt  $b_6$ f compared to the E°' values of the ORPs indicate that they should be able to donate electrons to the ORP. Control experiments with the ORPs but with the absence of cells revealed no photocurrent when illuminated.

However, the short lifetime of P700\* and P680\* makes them unlikely to be possible electron donors to ORP rather than for the natural electron acceptors in the electron transfer pathway of the

photosystems. The increase in photocurrent generation from Os-A to Os-C indicates that E°' of the ORP plays an important role in accepting electrons from PETC. Reduced plastoquinone (PQH<sub>2</sub>), known for having a long life time and predominant presence in PETC<sup>25</sup>, makes it the best possible electron donor, whereas Cyt  $b_6$ f and PC could also make some impact. Here, it is remarkable that Os-C generates the highest photocurrent (8.64  $\mu$  Acm<sup>-2</sup>) possibly because of its better accessibility in the lipid bilayer membrane, higher E°', and greater solubility<sup>13</sup>. Therefore, the rest of the experiments were conducted with this polymer.

The concentration of CYN82 on the electrode surface was optimized and it was found that 9.5  $\mu$ g (wet weight) shows the highest photocurrent (Supplementary Fig. 3). When the concentration increased (>9.5  $\mu$ g) the photocurrent goes down possibly due to the formation of too thick a cell layer, where light does not reach through the entire layer of cells. Therefore, all the experiments presented here were conducted with this optimized concentration.

To investigate the effect of illumination on graphite electrode modified according to different approaches CVs were made at all levels. There is an insignificant influence of light either on a bare graphite electrode (Figures 3A & 3B) or on the Os-C polymer modified electrode (Figures 3C & 3D). The E°' of Os-C was found to be 0.22 V and agreement with closelv in the previously determined value<sup>26</sup>. In comparison with just Os-C, When CYN82 cells were immobilized on Os-C modified electrodes and in the absence of light (Fig. 3F), the intensity of both the anodic and the cathodic peak currents goes down since the CYN82 cells retard the redox response of the osmium redox centers of Os-C due to the strong electrostatic interactions. A similar change in response was observed for electrodes modified with such type of polymers with and without



"**Figure 3.** CVs of (A) bare graphite electrode with light off, (B) bare graphite electrode with light on, (C) Os-C modified electrode with light off, (D) Os-C modified electrode with light on, (E) CYN82 immobilized on Os-C modified electrode with light on, (F) CYN82 immobilized on Os-C modified electrode with light off, applied potential: 350 mV vs Ag|AgCl (sat. KCl), light intensity: 44 mWcm<sup>-2</sup>. Electrolyte: 10 mM phosphate buffer at pH 7.0, 10 mM NaCl, and 5 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>."

The most significant response was observed for electrodes modified with both CYN82 cells in combination with Os-C modified and when illuminated (Fig. 3E), the anodic and cathodic current increases. The  $Os^{2+/3+}$  redox centres in the polymer matrix are reduced by available electrons from photo-electrolysis of the electrolyte and reoxidized at the electrode surface polarized at a higher potential ( $E_{appl} > E^{\circ}$ ' of Os-C). It can be assumed from these CVs that the Os<sup>3+</sup> moieties can easily accept electrons produced during the photosynthetic event and shuttle them to the electrode.

The influence of light intensity on the generation of photocurrent was investigated and the results are shown in Supplementary Fig. 4. Studies showed that the light intensity has a significant influence on the photosynthetic carbon reduction cycle, however, too much light may destroy the photosynthetic apparatus especially of PSII<sup>27</sup>. It is

known that the light intensity to saturate photosynthesis is obtained for a light intensity of 25 mWcm<sup>-2</sup>. In our experiments it shows that the photocurrent increases from 2.32 to 9.21  $\mu$  Acm<sup>-2</sup> when increasing the light intensity from 44 to 680 mWcm<sup>-2</sup>. A similar response relation was observed for isolated thylakoid membranes from spinach<sup>28</sup>. This is attributed to the fact that while the light intensity increases, a larger portion of the plastoquinone pool in PETC gets reduced by the electrons available from photolysis of the electrolyte and will become oxidized at the electrode resulting in a higher photocurrent. To avoid any kind of photo-damage of the photosynthetic machinery of the CYN82 cells, it was decided to conduct all the experiments at 44 mWcm<sup>-2</sup>.

Ferricyanide is known to mediate electron transfer from multiple photosynthetic reaction centers to electrodes and can diffuse easily through the cell membranes and is a suitable choice because of its low inherent photo activity compared to any quinone derivatives that are also commonly used as mediators<sup>18</sup>. To explore the effect of ferricyanide on the photocurrent, it was added to the electrolyte while the CYN82 cells were immobilized on the surface of a bare graphite electrode. The results show that CYN82 cells generate 5.92  $\mu$  Acm<sup>-2</sup> in the presence of 1.0 mM ferricyanide when the light was turned on (Supplementary Fig. 5).

To boost up the generation of the photocurrent, one soluble (ferricyanide) and one polymeric mediator (Os-C) were used together. Ferricyanide is known to be an efficient electron acceptor for both PS I and PS II<sup>29</sup>, and Os-C is known to exhibit efficient electron transfer properties with bacterial cells<sup>14</sup>. When the CYN82 cells were immobilized on the Os-C modified electrode, the photocurrent upon addition of 1 mM ferricyanide the photocurrent increased from 6.74 to 48.15  $\mu$  Acm<sup>-2</sup> (Fig. 4).



"Figure 4. Improvement of photocurrent generation with double mediator. The figure shows background corrected (light off conditions) current density. CYN82 immobilized on Os-C modified electrode, [ferricyanide]: 1 mM, applied potential: 350 mV vs. Ag|AgCl (sat. KCl), light intensity: 44 mWcm<sup>-2</sup>. Electrolyte: 10 mM phosphate buffer at pH 7.0, 10 mM NaCl, and 5 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, black and red arrow stands for light off and on respectively."

The reason can be attributed to that the low molecular weight ferricyanide rendering it a much higher diffusing capability into the membrane than the Oc-C polymer and results in a much more efficient electron transfer from the cells to the electrode. A similar increase in response was demonstrated when the cyanobacterial cells were treated with another soluble mediator *p*-benzoquinone<sup>5</sup>. A higher catalytic response is also observed for *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* cells when using a double mediator system<sup>30</sup>. Control experiments with ferricyanide in solution and with bare graphite exhibited no significant photocurrent when illuminated.

The source of photocurrent generation is of great importance to discover and especially which particular photosynthetic pigment is responsible for donating electrons to the ORP. Among all photosynthetic inhibitors, diuron is the most widely used and known particularly for inhibiting PSII blocking the electron transfer from PSII to plastoquinone (PQ) by binding with either PQ<sub>A</sub> or PQ<sub>B</sub>. When diuron binds with PQ<sub>B</sub> the electron

transfer is shut down entirely, whereas binding with PQ<sub>A</sub> it slows down the electron transfer rate<sup>31</sup>. The effect of inhibition by diuron at different concentrations as well as comparison with noninhibited photocurrent is displayed in Supplementary Fig. 6. While the concentration of diuron was increased gradually from 0 mM to 0.4 mM, the photocurrent generation went down from 8.52 to 1.20  $\mu$  Acm<sup>-2</sup> and at 0.5 mM, more than 90% of the original photocurrent is inhibited. It can be inferred from this phenomenon that in our case diuron most probably binds with PQ<sub>B</sub>. A reasonable suggestion could be made from this point that photo-electrolysis of the electrolyte by PS II is the major source of photocurrent in this entire system.

### Conclusions

In this work both direct and mediated electrogenic activity of cyanobacterial cells have been confirmed as the source of photocurrent. Of the four investigated ORPs, Os-C yields a significant photocurrent generation of 8.64  $\mu$  Acm<sup>-2</sup>, possibly because of a combination of a high E°', a greater accessibility to the membrane of the cyanobacterial cells, and a better solubility. When ferricyanide was added to the electrolyte in combination with the ORP the photocurrent reaches a maximum of 48.15  $\mu$ Acm<sup>-2</sup>. We believe this observation has substantial implication for future photosynthetic solar energy conversion. No optimization of the electrode with any conductive nanomaterials and engineering of the cyanobacterium have been attempted to enhance the photocurrent density. However, for further progress of power generation future work should focus on; the use of threedimensional electrode of superior material and conductivity, greater design of the electrochemical cell, improved immobilization technique. An understanding of the photosynthetic light harvesting complex on the molecular level and a detailed investigation of its electron transfer mechanism would be useful to reveal Nature's own finely tuned energy generation process.

### Acknowledgements

The authors thank The Swedish Research Council (projects: 2010-5031, 2010-2013), The Nanometer consortium at Lund University (nmc@LU), The European Commission (projects NMP4-SL-2009-229255 "3D-Nanobiodevice", FP7-PITN-GA-2010-264772 "Chebana" and FP7-PEOPLE-2013-ITN "Bioenergy") and Federation of European Biochemical Societies, FEBS for financial support.

#### Notes and references

<sup>a</sup> Department of Analytical Chemistry/Biochemistry and Structural Biology, Lund University, P.O. Box 124, SE-22100 Lund, Sweden

<sup>b</sup>Department of Chemistry, Karamanoglu Mehmetbey University, 70100, Karaman, Turkey

<sup>c</sup>School of Chemistry, National University of Ireland Galway, University Road, Galway, Ireland

<sup>d</sup>Cawthron Institute, Private Bag 2, Nelson, New Zealand

Corresponding author:

Lo.Gorton@biochemistry.lu.se Kamrul.Hasan@biochemistry.lu.se

#### References

1. A. J. McCormick, P. Bombelli, A. M. Scott, A. J. Philips, A. G. Smith, A. C. Fisher and C. J. Howe, *Energ. Environ. Sci.*, 2011, **4**, 4699-4709.

2. J. M. Pisciotta, Y. Zou and I. V. Baskakov, *PLoS ONE*, 2010, **5**, e10821.

3. W. F. J. Vermaas, in eLS, John Wiley & Sons, Ltd, Chichester, 2001, DOI: 10.1038/npg.els.0001670.

4. W. Adams Iii, C. R. Zarter, K. Mueh, V. e. Amiard and B. Demmig-Adams, In Photoprotection, Photoinhibition, Gene Regulation, and Environment, eds. B. Demmig-Adams, W. Adams, III and A. Mattoo, Springer Netherlands, 2006, vol. 21, ch. 5, pp. 49-64.

5. N. Sekar, Y. Umasankar and R. P. Ramasamy, *Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys.*, 2014, **16**, 7862-7871.

6. M. Rosenbaum, Z. He and L. T. Angenent, *Curr. Opin. Biotechnol.*, 2010, **21**, 259-264.

7. O. Kruse, J. Rupprecht, J. H. Mussgnug, G. C. Dismukes and B. Hankamer, *Photochem. Photobiol. Sci.*, 2005, **4**, 957-970.

8. C. F. Meunier, J. C. Rooke, A. Léonard, H. Xie and B. L. Su, *Chem. Commun.*, 2010, **46**, 3843-3859.

9. K. Tanaka, R. Tamamushi and T. Ogawa, J. Chem. Technol. Biotechnol., 1985, **35**, 191-197.

10. T. Yagishita, T. Horigome and K. Tanaka, J. Chem. Technol. Biotechnol., 1993, 56, 393-399.

11. Y. Zou, J. Pisciotta, R. B. Billmyre and I. V. Baskakov, *Biotechnol. Bioeng.*, 2009, **104**, 939-946.

12. A. Heller, Acc. Chem. Res, 1990, 23, 128-134.

13. A. Heller, Curr. Opin. Chem. Biol., 2006, 10, 664-672.

14. K. Hasan, S. A. Patil, D. Leech, C. Hägerhäll and L. Gorton, *Biochem. Soc. Transact.*, 2012, **40**, 1330-1335.

15. V. Coman, T. Gustavsson, A. Finkelsteinas, C. Von Wachenfeldt, C. Hägerhäl and L. Gorton, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.*, 2009, **131**, 16171-16176.

16. V. M. Luimstra, S. J. Kennedy, J. Güttler, S. A. Wood, D. E. Williams and M. A. Packer, *J. Appl. Phycol.*, 2013, 1-9.

17. T. M. Moriuchi, Keisuke; Furukawa, Yuji, *I. J. Prec. Eng. Manufact.*, 2007, **9**, 23-27.

18. J. O. Calkins, Y. Umasankar, H. O'Neill and R. P. Ramasamy, *Energy Environ. Sci.*, 2013, **6**, 1891-1900.

19. J. Pisciotta, Y. Zou and I. Baskakov, *Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol.*, 2011, **91**, 377-385.

20. Y. A. Gorby, S. Yanina, J. S. McLean, K. M. Rosso, D. Moyles, A. Dohnalkova, T. J. Beveridge, I. S. Chang, B. H. Kim, K. S. Kim, D. E. Culley, S. B. Reed, M. F. Romine, D. A. Saffarini, E. A. Hill, L. Shi, D. A. Elias, D. W. Kennedy, G. Pinchuk, K. Watanabe, S. Ishii, B. Logan, K. H. Nealson and J. K. Fredrickson, *P. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA.*, 2006, **103**, 11358-11363.

21. K. F. Blurton, Electrochim. Acta., 1973, 18, 869-875

22. J. Du, C. Catania and G. C. Bazan, *Chem. Mat.*, 2013, **26**, 686-697.

23. I. McConnell, G. Li and G. W. Brudvig, *Chem. Biol.*, 2010, **17**, 434-447.

24. K. Hasan, S. A. Patil, K. Go'recki, D. Leech, C. Hägerhäll and L. Gorton, *Bioelectrochemistry*, 2013, **93**, 30-36

25. J. Kruk and S. Karpinski, *Biochim. Biophys. Acta – Bioenerg.*, 2006, **1757**, 1669-1675.

26. M. N. Zafar, F. Tasca, S. Boland, M. Kujawa, I. Patel, C. K. Peterbauer, D. Leech and L. Gorton, *Bioelectrochemistry*, 2010, **80**, 38-42.

27. I. Vass, Biochim. *Biophys. Acta (BBA) – Bioenerg.*, 2012, **1817**, 209-217

28. K. Hasan, Y. Dilgin, S. C. Emek, M. Tavahodi, H.-E. Åkerlund, P.-Å. Albertsson and L. Gorton, *ChemElectroChem*, 2014, **1**, 131-139.

29. M. Mimeault and R. Carpentier, *Enzyme Microb. Technol.*, 1988, **10**, 691-694.

30. A. Heiskanen, V. Coman, N. Kostesha, D. Sabourin, N. Haslett, K. Baronian, L. Gorton, M. Dufva and J. Emnéus, *J. Anal. Bioanal. Chem.*, 2013, **405**, 3847-3858.

31. B.D. Hsu, J.Y. Lee and R. L. Pan, *Biochem. Bioph. Res. Co.*, 1986, **141**, 682-688, doi: 10.1016/S0006-291X(86)80226-1 Page 8 of 8