

# **RSC Advances**

# **Investigation on Electron Transfer from Isolated Spinach Thylakoids to Indium Tin Oxide**





# **Page 1 of 6 RSC Advances**

# RSC Advances RSC Publishing

# **ARTICLE**

# **Cite this: DOI: 10.1039/x0xx00000x**  Received 00th January 2012, Accepted 00th January 2012 DOI: 10.1039/x0xx00000x **www.rsc.org/ Investigation on Electron Transfer from Isolated Spinach Thylakoids to Indium Tin Oxide**  Herlina Arianita Dewi<sup>a, 1</sup>, Fangben Meng<sup>b</sup>, Barindra Sana<sup>a</sup>, Chunxian Guo<sup>a, 2</sup>, Birgitta Norling<sup>c</sup>, Xiaodong Chen<sup>b</sup>, Sierin Lim<sup>a\*</sup> The electrons generated by the photosynthetic water splitting have been studied for direct electron transfer under light irradiation. Isolated thylakoids are incorporated as biocatalyst with indium tin oxide (ITO) as the electrode in a two-chamber photosynthetic electrochemical cell (PEC). The generated photocurrent is compared between deposited and dispersed thylakoids. The physical properties of deposited thylakoids are observed using field emission scanning electron microscopy (FESEM) and absorbance spectroscopy techniques. The results show the presence of thylakoids with bound photosystems including light harvesting antennas and other protein complexes. Further investigations reveal that the direction of electron transfer can be tuned by varying the applied potentials to promote bi-

directional photocurrent. The maximum cathodic photocurrent is obtained at 50 mV vs. standard calomel electrode (SCE), while the maximum anodic photocurrent is enhanced with increasing positive potential applied. Our observation indicates the possibility of either reduction of  $O_2$  or  $H_2O_2$  as the prominent cathodic photocurrent source, while electron transfer from thylakoids to ITO yields the anodic

**Introduction**  The photosynthetic water splitting that is driven by light harvesting antenna excitation and reaction center charge separation has drawn many interests for its potential applications in the development of biological photovoltaic devices. Approaches to exploit the natural photosynthesis process have been reported on light harvesting antenna, isolated chloroplast or thylakoid<sup>1</sup>, and whole photosynthetic

organisms such as algae, cyanobacteria, and green or purple

photocurrent.

photosynthesis reactions, efficient contacts between photosynthetic material and electrode as the electron collector is necessary. One issue in surface-immobilized protein is conformational change or denaturation leading to its inactivation<sup>7</sup>. In this study, we focus on investigating the electron transfer between photosynthetic material and electrode in a two-chamber photosynthetic electrochemical cell (PEC) (Figure 1A).





Figure 1. (A) Schematic of two-chamber PEC with dotted red lines showing the deposited thylakoids on ITO. Enlarged view: Electron transport pathway is shown in dotted lines, while thunderbolts indicate light energy excitation. (B) Electron transport chain (ETC) in thylakoid membranes. PS: photosystem, Q and X: primary electron acceptor, PQ: plastoquinone pool, Cyt *b*<sup>6</sup> *f*: cytochrome *b*<sup>6</sup> *f*, PC: plastocyanin. Arrow toward outside the ETC indicates the shuttled electron from ETC. Dotted lines show the electron blockage.

Herein, isolated thylakoids and ITO are used as photosynthetic material and electrode, respectively. To study the effects of proximity and contact between thylakoids and ITO, we compare the photocurrent generated by deposited and dispersed preparations. In addition, the effects of mediator (2,6-dichlorophenol-indophenolin oxidized form; DCPIP<sup>ox</sup>) and herbicide  $(3-(3,4-\text{dichlorophenyl})-1,1-\text{dichlorophenyl})$ dimethylurea; DCMU) (Figure1B)<sup>8, 9</sup> toward the generated photocurrent are further explored. The function of DCPIP is to intercept generated electrons at the end of PSI, while DCMU is used to block the electron transfer at plastoquinone pool. Aside from mediator and herbicide,  $O_2$  or  $H_2O_2$  generated during photosynthetic water splitting have been reported to influence the generated photocurrent<sup>10</sup> and is also investigated.

# **Material and Method**

#### **Chloroplasts and thylakoids isolation**

Chloroplasts were isolated from spinach leaves through several centrifugation steps following SIGMA chloroplast isolation kit protocol (Cat#CP-ISO). Spinach leaves (5 g) were ground in 20 mL chloroplast isolation buffer (CIB) containing 300 mM sorbitol (Aldrich), 100 mM Tris (Bio-Rad), 10mM sodium chloride (Aldrich), 5 mM magnesium chloride (MP Biomedics), and 1% (w/v) bovine serum albumin (BSA) (Aldrich) as stabilizer at pH 7.8. Leave extract was filtered using 100-um filter mesh (Aldrich) and centrifuged at 200*×g* for 3 minutes to remove the cell debris. The supernatant was further centrifuged at 1000*×g* for 7 minutes and the isolated chloroplasts were collected as green pellet.

The chloroplasts were subsequently dispersed in a sugar-free environment to induce osmotic shock for isolation of the  $thvlakoids<sup>11</sup>$ . The concentration was determined as the total chlorophyll mass using acetone extraction method $^{12}$ . Briefly, isolated thylakoids were diluted 100 times in 80%  $(v/v)$  acetone solution followed by centrifugation at 3000*×g* for 2 minutes to retain the supernatant. The concentration, expressed as unit chlorophyll basis, was calculated by measuring the supernatant optical density (OD) at 652 nm ( $\varepsilon_{\text{chlorophvll}}$  = 36 L.g<sup>-1</sup>.cm<sup>-1</sup>).

# **Electrode preparation**

ITO (~1.1 mm ITO thickness and <10  $\Omega$ /cm<sup>2</sup> resistance) glass was purchased from Wintek Technology Singapore Pte. Ltd. To remove any contaminants, the ITO glass was sonicated twice in acetone followed by water for 10 minutes. The electrode active area was  $\sim$ 1  $\text{cm}^2$ .

The thylakoids were deposited on electrode surface using physical adsorption by dropping  $\sim$ 10  $\mu$ L of the preparations spread evenly onto the ITO surface. The modified electrode was dried at room temperature for 30 minutes in the dark. All electrodes were prepared fresh right before use. The investigation on loose interaction was done by dispersing the same thylakoid amount in the PEC chamber with bare ITO as the electrode.

The morphology of the adsorbed thylakoids was observed using field emission scanning electron microscope (FESEM, JEOL JSM-6700F). The dried thylakoids were sputtered with platinum prior to observation. Optical absorbance was observed from 400 nm to 700 nm to monitor the bound protein complexes and light harvesting antennas in the thylakoids.

#### **Electron transfer observation**

The electron transfer between thylakoids and electrodes was observed by monitoring the photocurrent generation using twochamber PEC configuration separated by a proton exchange membrane (PEM) (GasHub). The anode chamber contained 10 mM potassium phosphate buffer (pH 7.2) (Merck/Fluka), while the cathode chamber was filled with 50 mM potassium ferricyanide (Aldrich) in water. Both chambers were supplemented with 100 mM potassium chloride (Merck). Carbon cloth (GasHub) at  $\sim$ 5 cm<sup>2</sup> was used as both reference and counter electrode in the cathode chamber, while ITO electrode was used as the working electrode in the anode chamber.

The generated photocurrent was measured using electrochemical workstation 660D Potentiostat/Galvanostat (CH Instruments, Inc.) with no applied bias. A tungsten halogen lamp (100 W Philips A1/215 light bulb) without any additional filter was used as the light source. Light intensity was kept constant at approximately 350 µmol m<sup>2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> inside the anode chamber as quantified using QRT1 Quantitherm (Hansatech). A metal shield was used as a shutter to simulate dark condition at predetermined time points. The mediator and inhibitor were added into the anode chamber to investigate their effects on the generated photocurrent. DCPIP $O<sup>o</sup>$  (2,6-dichlorophenolindophenol; 60  $\mu$ M) was used to intercept electrons from electron transport chain while saturating  $DCMU$  (100  $\mu$ M) was used to block electron transfer from PSII to PSI<sup>8, 9</sup> .

To study the catalytic reduction of  $O_2$  or  $H_2O_2$  on ITO, cyclic voltammetry (CV) was performed using a standard threeelectrode configuration with a scan rate of 50 mV/s. ITO glass was used as working electrode while platinum foil and standard calomel electrode (SCE) served as the counter and reference electrode. As-stated anolyte phosphate buffer was used as the

electrolyte. The effect of external applied potential to the ITO electrode in the presence of thylakoids was studied.

# **Results and Discussion**

## **Protein complexes and light harvesting antennas retain their integrities upon deposition**

The isolated thylakoids containing photosynthetic complexes are deposited onto the surface of the ITO. The phospholipid molecules that self-assemble into lipid bilayer of the thylakoid consist of hydrophilic heads oriented outside exposed to the aqueous environment and hydrophobic tails buried between the two layers. Lipid bilayer promotes hydrophilic interaction with  $ITO<sup>13</sup>$ . Thus, when adsorption of the isolated thylakoids is performed, direct interaction occurs between the exposed hydrophilic head of the thylakoids and the ITO surface. However, direct deposition of the photosynthetic complexes embedded in the lipid bilayer onto solid surface, such as ITO, may compromise their biological structure and function. To demonstrate that the light harvesting complexes are still bound to the thylakoid and electrode after the deposition protocol, we performed absorbance scan in the visible light range on the ITOdeposited thylakoids.

Distinct absorbance peaks corresponding to chlorophyll *a* (680 nm), chlorophyll *b* (shoulder at 650 nm), as well as Soret band containing peaks for both chlorophylls *a*, *b*, and carotenoids are identified in the spectrum obtained from the electrode with deposited thylakoids (Figure 2A).



Figure 2. (A) UV-Visible absorbance spectrum of physically deposited thylakoids showing absorbance peak at 680 nm. (B) FESEM image of physically deposited thylakoids on ITO, scale bar is 10 µm.

The presence of these absorbance peaks suggests that the protein complexes and light harvesting antennas remain embedded in the thylakoid membrane with tight contact to the electrode<sup>14, 15</sup>. The electron micrograph shows well distribution of thylakoids without any aggregation upon adsorption onto ITO (Figure 2B). Each of the adsorbed thylakoids may act as an independent micro-electrode and thus contribute to the collective photocurrent.

## **The effect of interaction distance, DCPIPox, and DCMU**

Deposition of thylakoids on the electrode is hypothesized to promote close interaction and facilitate electron transfer that result in enhancement of photocurrent. The correlation between interaction distance and electron transfer is studied using deposited (physical adsorption) and dispersed thylakoids in the presence of  $DCPIP^{ox}$  as an artificial electron acceptor. It is well-reported that DCPIP<sup>ox</sup> interrupts ETC at PSI primary electron acceptor (Figure  $1)^{9, 16}$ . The  $\sim$ 12  $\mu$ A photocurrent change for electrode prepared through physical adsorption indicates preserved thylakoid activities (Figure 3). In contrast, measurement using blank and control electrodes in PEC containing dispersed preparations show negligible photocurrent. The observations indicate that close interaction is a crucial factor for the generated photocurrent. Based on this observation, the subsequent experiments are performed using ITO electrode with deposited thylakoids.



Figure 3. Photocurrent of thylakoids/ITO in the presence of DCPIP<sup>ox</sup>, inset shows dispersed and blank preparations.

Investigation of the site of electron transfer that contributes to the photocurrent generation is conducted by intercepting or blocking of electron transfer between the moieties in the ETC. Figure 1B illustrates the sites of DCPIP and DCMU interception and blockage. In the absence of  $DCPIP<sup>ox</sup>$ , a small photocurrent of 200nA is generated indicating the possibility of direct electron transfer (Figure 4). The photocurrent increases to  $\sim$ 15  $\mu$ A in the presence of the mediator DCPIP<sup>ox</sup> demonstrates a process with more efficient electron transfer. Upon addition of DCMU, which functions to block the electron transfer from PSII to PSI, the generated photocurrent diminished to 50 nA despite the presence of  $DCPIP^{ox}$ . The observation indicates that PSI may be the site of electron transfer from ETC to DCPIP. By contrast, in the presence of DCMU and absence of DCPIP<sup>ox</sup>, no photocurrent is observed as expected.



Figure 4. (A) Photocurrent of thylakoids/ITO in the presence of  $DCPIP<sup>ox</sup>$ ,  $DCPIP<sup>ox</sup>$  and  $DCMU$ , no mediator, and no mediator and DCMU; inset shows photocurrent in the presence of DCPIP<sup>ox</sup> and DCMU, no mediator, and no mediator and DCMU. (B) Enlarged inset revealing the nanoscale photocurrent.

# **The effect of applied potentials**

To study the effect of applied potentials, a standard three-electrode configuration system is used in a one-chamber electrochemical cell. When different potentials are applied in the absence of mediator, photocurrent can be generated in two directions. Anodic photocurrent (positive direction) indicates electron transfer from thylakoids to ITO, while cathodic photocurrent (negative direction) represents electron transfer from the ITO to electron acceptors in the anode chamber. The bi-directional photocurrent under different working potentials has been previously reported in other systems, such as DNA/CdS and CdS quantum dots $17$ , .

Cathodic photocurrent is observed upon applying negative bias potentials, and the highest cathodic photocurrent is observed upon application of approximately -50 mV vs. SCE (Figure 5A). The reversed photocurrent polarity from cathodic to anodic may be a result of direct electron transfer due to plastocyanin diffusion to electrode upon applying  $~+125$  mV vs.  $SCE^{19}$  (Figure 5B). The observations prompted us to further investigate the source of the cathodic photocurrent.



Figure 5. (A) Anodic and cathodic photocurrent generation at different applied potentials in the absence of mediator. Experiment was performed in a single chamber. ITO electrode size is  $1 \text{ cm}^2$ . (B) A plot of generated photocurrent vs. applied potential showing reversed photocurrent polarity at ~+125 mV vs. SCE.

The presence of photosynthetic products,  $O_2$  or  $H_2O_2$ , is hypothesized to be potential sources for cathodic photocurrent. In intact chloroplasts, the  $H_2O_2$  generated during photosynthesis is neutralized by ascorbate peroxidase (APX) in the stroma. However, isolated thylakoids are devoid of the  $H_2O_2$  scavenging mechanism due to the removal of stroma and stromal proteins<sup>20</sup>. Since electron acceptors are limited in the isolated thylakoids,  $O_2$  generated during water splitting serves as electron acceptor at PSI and forms the reactive oxygen species (ROS)  $H_2O_2^{10}$ . To demonstrate that the

generation of cathodic photocurrent originates from the reduction of  $O_2$  or  $H_2O_2$ , cyclic voltammetry is performed in the absence or presence of thylakoids.

In the absence of thylakoids, the gradual increase of cathodic current and peak shift upon  $H_2O_2$  addition (Figure 6A) are consistent with previous reports<sup>21, 22</sup>. In addition to  $H_2O_2$  reduction, the presence of  $O<sub>2</sub>$  has been suggested to contribute to the observed cathodic current<sup>21</sup>. To remove residual  $O_2$ , the electrolyte is bubbled with  $N_2$ . An obvious decrease in cathodic current background is observed following the removal of  $O_2$  from the electrolyte. In the presence of thylakoids, redox peaks at -0.5 V and +0.5 V vs. SCE are identified, and an increase of 300 nA in cathodic photocurrent is detected upon illumination at  $\sim$ -0.5 V vs. SCE (Figure 6B). The CV curves presented here support the hypothesis that  $O_2$  and  $H_2O_2$  generated from the photosynthetic light reaction serve as possible sources of the observed cathodic photocurrent.



Figure 6. CV of ITO (A) in the absence of thylakoids at various  $H_2O_2$  concentrations without  $N_2$  bubbling and (B) in the presence of thylakoids with  $N_2$  bubbling.

# **Conclusions**

In this work, we investigated electron transfer in isolated thylakoids during photosynthetic reaction by comparing the photocurrents under different conditions. The photoelectrochemical study reveals that significant photocurrent is generated by the physically deposited thylakoids on the ITO surface, especially in the presence of DCPIP<sup>ox</sup>. More interestingly, application of varying potentials results in a bi-directional photocurrent. Reduction of  $H_2O_2$  or  $O_2$  on the electrode surface is speculated to be possible sources of the observed cathodic photocurrent, while the anodic photocurrent is a result of direct electron transfer from the thylakoid to the ITO.

# **Acknowledgements**

We thank Enrico Marsili of Singapore Centre on Environmental Life Sciences Engineering (SCELCE) at Nanyang Technological University (NTU) for technical discussions and critical comments on the manuscript. This work is supported by NTU New Initiative Funding (NIF-FY2010) to S.L, B.N., and X.C. and College of Engineering Central Fund (CoE/10) to S.L. and X.C. and by grant M4080306 from NTU to B.N.

## **Notes and references**

<sup>a</sup>Division of Bioengineering, School of Chemical and Biomedical Engineering, Nanyang Technological University, Singapore 637457. *b* School of Materials Science and Engineering, Nanyang

Technological University, Singapore 639798.

*c* School of Biological Sciences, Nanyang Technological University, Singapore 637551.

1 Present address: Energy Research Centre @NTU (ERI@N), Nanyang Technological University, 50 Nanyang Drive, Singapore 637553.

<sup>2</sup> Present address: Institute for Clean Energy  $\&$  Advanced Materials, Southwest University and Chongqing Key Laboratory for Advanced Materials and Technologies of Clean Energies, Chongqing 400715, China.

### **References**

- 1. K. B. Lam, E. A. Johnson, M. Chiao and L. Lin, *Journal of Microelectromechanical Systems*, 2006, **15**, 1243-1250.
- 2. T. Yagishita, S. Sawayama, K.-i. Tsukahara and T. Ogi, *Solar Energy*, 1997, **61**, 347-353.
- 3. M. Torimura, A. Miki, A. Wadano, K. Kano and T. Ikeda, *Journal of Electroanalytical Chemistry*, 2001, **496**, 21-28.
- 4. Y. Zou, J. Pisciotta, R. B. Billmyre and I. V. Baskakov, *Biotechnology and Bioengineering*, 2009, **104**, 939-946.
- 5. T. Yagishita, T. Horigome and K. Tanaka, *Journal of Chemical Technology & Biotechnology*, 1993, **56**, 393-399.
- 6. J. P. Badalamenti, C. I. Torres and R. Krajmalnik-Brown, *Biotechnology and Bioengineering*, 2013, **110**, 1020-1027.
- 7. M. Wahlgren and T. Arnebrant, *Trends in Biotechnology*, 1991, **9**, 201-208.
- 8. J. G. Metz, H. B. Pakrasi, M. Seibert and C. J. Arntzer, *FEBS Letters*, 1986, **205**, 269-274.
- 9. S. Izawa, in *Methods in Enzymology*, ed. P. Anthony San, Academic Press, Editon edn., 1980, vol. Volume 69, pp. 413-434.
- 10. K. Asada, K. Kiso and K. Yoshikawa, *Journal of Biological Chemistry*, 1974, **249**, 2175-2181.
- 11. S. G. Reeves and D. O. Hall, in *Methods in Enzymology*, ed. P. Anthony San, Academic Press, Editon edn., 1980, vol. Volume 69, pp. 85-94.
- 12. D. I. Arnon, *Plant Physiology*, 1949, **24**, 1-15.
- 13. H. Gao, G.-A. Luo, J. Feng, A. L. Ottova and H. Ti Tien, *Journal of Photochemistry and Photobiology B: Biology*, 2000, **59**, 87-91.
- 14. K. Sauer and R. B. Park, *Biochimica et Biophysica Acta (BBA) - Specialized Section on Biophysical Subjects*, 1964, **79**, 476-489.
- 15. J. S. Kahn and T. T. Bannister, *Photochemistry and Photobiology*, 1965, **4**, 27-32.
- 16. I. R. Vassiliev, Y. S. Jung, M. D. Mamedov, A. Semenov and J. H. Golbeck, *Biophysical journal*, 1997, **72**, 301-315.
- 17. M. El Harakeh, L. Alawieh, S. Saouma and L. I. Halaoui, *Physical Chemistry Chemical Physics*, 2009, **11**, 5962- 5973.
- 18. R. Gill, F. Patolsky, E. Katz and I. Willner, *Angewandte Chemie*, 2005, **117**, 4630-4633.
- 19. J. O. Calkins, Y. Umasankar, H. O'Neill and R. P. Ramasamy, *Energy & Environmental Science*, 2013, **6**, 1891-1900.
- 20. K. Asada, *Plant Physiology*, 2006, **141**, 391-396.
- 21. F. Miomandre, P. Audebert, M. Maumy and L. Uhl, *Journal of Electroanalytical Chemistry*, 2001, **516**, 66-72.
- 22. X. Cai, B. Ogorevc, G. Tavcar and J. Wang, *Analyst*, 1995, **120**, 2579-2583.