

## Energy-Linked Binding of $P_i$ Is Required for Continuous Steady-State Proton-Translocating ATP Hydrolysis Catalyzed by $F_o \cdot F_1$ ATP Synthase<sup>†</sup>

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Received July 28, 2006; Revised Manuscript Received September 28, 2006

**ABSTRACT:** The presence of medium  $P_i$  (half-maximal concentration of 20  $\mu\text{M}$  at pH 8.0) was found to be required for the prevention of the rapid decline in the rate of proton-motive force (pmf)-induced ATP hydrolysis by  $F_o \cdot F_1$  ATP synthase in coupled vesicles derived from *Paracoccus denitrificans*. The initial rate of the reaction was independent of  $P_i$ . The apparent affinity of  $P_i$  for its “ATPase-protecting” site was strongly decreased with partial uncoupling of the vesicles.  $P_i$  did not reactivate ATPase when added after complete time-dependent deactivation during the enzyme turnover. Arsenate and sulfate, which was shown to compete with  $P_i$  when  $F_o \cdot F_1$  catalyzed oxidative phosphorylation, substituted for  $P_i$  as the protectors of ATPase against the turnover-dependent deactivation. Under conditions where the enzyme turnover was not permitted (no ATP was present),  $P_i$  was not required for the pmf-induced activation of ATPase, whereas the presence of medium  $P_i$  (or sulfate) delayed the spontaneous deactivation of the enzyme which was induced by the membrane de-energization. The data are interpreted to suggest that coupled and uncoupled ATP hydrolysis catalyzed by  $F_o \cdot F_1$  ATP synthases proceeds via different intermediates.  $P_i$  dissociates after ADP if the coupling membrane is energized (no E·ADP intermediate exists).  $P_i$  dissociates before ADP during uncoupled ATP hydrolysis, leaving the E·ADP intermediate which is transformed into the inactive ADP( $\text{Mg}^{2+}$ )-inhibited form of the enzyme (latent ATPase).

$F_o \cdot F_1$  synthases (ATPases) catalyze the production of ATP from ADP and  $P_i$  at the expense of the transmembrane proton ( $\text{Na}^+$ )-motive force (pmf),<sup>1</sup> generated by electron transfer reactions in the respiratory chains of mitochondria, chloroplasts, and bacterial plasma membranes. They are also capable of pmf generation with the use of energy from ATP hydrolysis; thus, the  $F_o \cdot F_1$  complex phenomenologically operates as the reversible energy-transducing device. The integral structures of  $F_o \cdot F_1$ 's in all species studied so far are remarkably similar (1–4). The structures (5, 6), as related to rotary binding change mechanism (7–10) and kinetic properties (11) of  $F_1$ -type ATPases, have been extensively discussed.

When assayed either in the presence or in the absence of the ATP-regenerating system,  $F_1$  and  $F_o \cdot F_1$  ATPases exhibit complex time-dependent kinetics that are due to the relatively slow (as compared with the enzyme turnover) formation of the so-called ADP( $\text{Mg}^{2+}$ )-deactivated form, the phenomenon characteristic for all  $F_1$ -type ATPases that have been studied. The fractional population of the ADP( $\text{Mg}^{2+}$ )-inhibited form in a certain preparation of  $F_1$  ATPase depends on a number

of factors, such as the ATP/ADP ratio, pmf, free  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$  and inorganic phosphate concentrations, and the particular source of the enzyme (reviewed in ref 11). The most intriguing property of the ADP( $\text{Mg}^{2+}$ )-deactivated ATPase is that being inactive in ATP hydrolysis, it is fully competent in the ATP synthase activity (12, 13).

Evidence that  $F_o \cdot F_1$  operates in the specific “hydrolase” or “synthase” modes depending on the presence of ATP, ADP, and pmf has been gradually accumulating (12–16). To create a model describing the reaction pathways in either the hydrolytic or synthetic direction of catalysis, quantitative information about interactions of the substrates (products), ATP, ADP,  $P_i$ , and  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$ , with the enzyme is required. Numerous important studies of the nucleotide binding properties of  $F_1$  from different sources have been published and reviewed (see ref 17 and references cited therein). Less attention has been paid to  $P_i$  as the product (substrate) of ATP hydrolysis (synthesis), although its binding properties seem equally important for the understanding of the  $F_o \cdot F_1$  operation mechanism. Recently, we have shown that the presence of  $P_i$  in the assay mixture is required for the steady-state ATP hydrolysis catalyzed by tightly coupled vesicles derived from *Paracoccus denitrificans* plasma membrane (18). This paper describes further analysis of this phenomenon. To our knowledge, multiple effects of  $P_i$  on  $F_1$ -type ATPases which may or may not be directly related to the mechanism of ATP synthesis have never been reviewed, and a brief account of the available data on this topic as outlined below seems to be appropriate for the introduction.

Soluble bovine heart and *Escherichia coli*  $F_1$ 's bind more than 1 mol of  $P_i$  per mole of enzyme with an apparent affinity

<sup>†</sup> This work was supported by the Russian Foundation for the Fundamental Studies (Grant 05-04-48809 to A.D.V.).

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<sup>1</sup> Abbreviations: CCCP, carbonyl cyanide 3-chlorophenylhydrazone;  $\text{CF}_o \cdot \text{F}_1$ ,  $\text{EF}_o \cdot \text{F}_1$ ,  $\text{MF}_o \cdot \text{F}_1$ ,  $\text{PF}_o \cdot \text{F}_1$ , and  $\text{TF}_o \cdot \text{F}_1$ , ATP synthase complexes in chloroplasts, *Escherichia coli*, bovine heart mitochondria, *Paracoccus denitrificans*, and thermophilic *Bacillus* PS3, respectively; NBD-Cl, 7-chloro-4-nitrobenzofurazan; pmf ( $\Delta\bar{\mu}_{\text{H}^+}$ ), difference between the electrochemical potential of the hydrogen ion at different sides of the coupling membrane.

in the micromolar range (19–21). Sulfate, sulfite, and chromate enhance  $P_i$  binding, whereas efrapeptin and azide, the specific inhibitors of ATP hydrolysis, inhibit  $P_i$  binding (19, 20). The removal of tightly bound nucleotides from  $MF_1$  prevents  $P_i$  binding, which is restored by preincubation of the enzyme with purine nucleotides (22).  $P_i$  bound to  $F_1$  is displaced by medium phosphate (19). Both the binding of  $P_i$  to and the dissociation of  $P_i$  from  $MF_1$  are slow processes that proceed on a minute time scale (19). The slow displacement of bound  $P_i$  is, however, greatly accelerated by ATP or ADP (23). Under the unisite ATP hydrolysis ( $[MF_1] \geq [ATP]$ ), the first-order rate constant for  $P_i$  and ADP release has been estimated to be  $4 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$  (24, 25).  $P_i$  ( $K_a \sim 1 \text{ mM}$ ) was shown to stimulate the energy-promoted hydrolysis of ATP bound at a single high-affinity ( $K_a \sim 10^{12} \text{ M}^{-1}$ ) catalytic site of  $F_o \cdot F_1$  in coupled submitochondrial particles (26).

Variable  $K_m$ 's for  $F_o \cdot F_1$ -catalyzed synthesis of ATP have been reported in the literature. These are 0.5–6 mM for  $MF_o \cdot F_1$  (27–31), 0.6–3.5 mM for  $EF_o \cdot F_1$  (32–34), 10 mM for  $TF_o \cdot F_1$  (35), 0.25 mM for  $CF_o \cdot F_1$  (36), and 0.15–0.35 mM for  $PF_o \cdot F_1$  (37–39). The apparent affinity of  $F_o \cdot F_1$  for  $P_i$  in oxidative phosphorylation was shown to dependent on the rate of respiration and/or the steady-state magnitude of pmf (27, 29, 30, 33, 37, 39). An order of the substrates binding to  $F_1$  during ATP synthesis, if the same for different species, remains uncertain. Evidence for both ordered (31, 40) and random (38, 39) kinetic mechanisms has been published. Kayalar et al. (41) and Perez and Ferguson (38) have suggested a randomly ordered bi-uni reaction catalyzed by  $MF_o \cdot F_1$  and  $PF_o \cdot F_1$ , respectively, whereas the compulsory ordered mechanisms where  $P_i$  binds first [ $MF_o \cdot F_1$  (31)] or ADP binds first [ $CF_o \cdot F_1$  (40)] have been suggested for oxidative and photophosphorylation, respectively.

The fact that the exchange of medium  $P_i$  with  $H_2^{18}O$  catalyzed by coupled submitochondrial particles in the presence of ATP and ADP is as sensitive to uncoupling as [ $^{32}P$ ]ATP exchange and net oxidative phosphorylation, whereas during uncoupled ATP hydrolysis, each  $P_i$  that is released contains more than one water  $^{18}O$  (intermediate exchange), was interpreted as evidence of the requirement of energy for binding of  $P_i$  to the catalytic site where the reversible energy-independent ATP formation takes place (42). The energy-independent enzyme-bound ATP formation from medium  $P_i$  has been directly demonstrated for  $CF_1$  (43),  $CF_o \cdot F_1$  (44),  $MF_1$  (45), and  $TF_1$  (46). The half-maximal concentration of  $P_i$  required for this reaction was in the range of 20–40 mM.

$P_i$  was shown to increase the ATPase activity of rat liver mitochondria (47), submitochondrial particles derived therefrom (48, 49), or bovine heart soluble  $F_1$  (49) at 1–20 mM. This phenomenon is apparently due to the antagonistic effect of  $P_i$  on  $ADP(Mg^{2+})$ -induced deactivation of  $F_1$  or  $F_o \cdot F_1$  (50, 51). Indeed,  $P_i$  decreases the extent of high-affinity  $ADP$ -specific inhibitory binding in submitochondrial particles by 2 orders of magnitude ( $7 \times 10^{-8}$  and  $5 \times 10^{-6} \text{ M}$  in the absence and presence of 10 mM  $P_i$ , respectively) (50).  $P_i$  ( $K_d = 1 \text{ mM}$ ) also increases the rate of activation of the  $ADP$ -inhibited  $MF_o \cdot F_1$  in the absence of free  $Mg^{2+}$  (51). The  $\alpha$ -subunit “noncatalytic” site-deficient  $TF_1 \alpha_3\beta_3\gamma$  complex and  $F_o \cdot F_1$  reconstituted from this complex are incapable of ATP hydrolysis because of instant entrapment of ADP in

their tight inhibitory site (14, 52). These mutant enzymes, however, catalyze continuous ATP hydrolysis in the presence of high (maximal rate at 150 mM)  $P_i$  concentrations (53). The trypsin cleavage of the  $\epsilon$ -subunit of  $EF_1$  in the presence of ADP and  $Mg^{2+}$  was protected by  $P_i$  at the half-maximal concentration of 50  $\mu\text{M}$  (54).  $P_i$  was also shown to protect ATPase in submitochondrial particles against irreversible inactivation by NBD-Cl at half-maximal efficiency reached at 0.2 mM (55). Recently, the “coupling” effect of  $P_i$  (along with ADP) at relatively low concentrations (half-maximal at 30  $\mu\text{M}$ ) on the proton translocating activity of  $F_o \cdot F_1$  ATPase in *Rhodobacter capsulatus* chromatophores has been described (56).

Coupled plasma membrane vesicles derived from *P. denitrificans* do not catalyze ATP hydrolysis unless they are exposed to respiration-induced pmf (18, 57). As noted above, the presence of medium  $P_i$  was found to be indispensable for the pmf-induced proton-translocating ATP hydrolysis catalyzed by  $PF_o \cdot F_1$  (18). Here we have examined the dependence of coupled ATPase on  $P_i$ . The data show that energy-dependent high-affinity  $P_i$ -binding site(s) must be occupied by  $P_i$  or by other anions (arsenate and sulfate) during the steady-state proton-translocating ATP hydrolysis to prevent the  $ADP(Mg^{2+})$ -induced inhibition of the enzyme. The minimal kinetic scheme describing coupled and uncoupled ATP hydrolysis catalyzed by  $F_o \cdot F_1$  ATP synthases is proposed and discussed with regard to the mechanism and reversibility of ATP hydrolysis.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

*P. denitrificans* (strain 1222) plasma membrane vesicles were prepared from a culture grown in the presence of succinate and nitrate (58). Under optimal conditions (57), the vesicles catalyzed the pmf-activated proton-translocating ATPase reaction [ $150 \text{ nmol min}^{-1} (\text{mg of protein})^{-1}$ ] and succinate-supported ATP synthesis [ $300 \text{ nmol min}^{-1} (\text{mg of protein})^{-1}$ ] at 30 °C. ATP hydrolysis and ATP synthesis were more than 90% sensitive to venturicidin and uncoupler, respectively. The rates of ATP hydrolysis or ATP synthesis were measured as small pH changes followed by Phenol Red responses (59). The level of inorganic phosphate was determined as described in ref 60. The standard reaction mixture for the ATPase assay was comprised of 0.25 M sucrose, 0.1 M KCl, 2.5 mM Hepes, 0.1 mM EDTA, 5.5 mM  $MgCl_2$ , 2.5 mM succinate, 20 mM malonate, 2 mM ATP (potassium salts, pH 8.0), and 25  $\mu\text{M}$  Phenol Red. ATP synthesis was assessed in the standard reaction mixture (except malonate was absent) supplemented with inorganic phosphate and ADP. The transmembrane potential was followed as Oxonol VI (1.5  $\mu\text{M}$ ) response at 624–602 nm. Oxygen consumption was assessed amperometrically with a platinum-coated oxygen-sensitive electrode. Other experimental details were described in our previous paper (18) or are given in the figure legends. Protein content was determined by the biuret procedure with bovine serum albumin as a standard. All fine chemicals were from Sigma, while other reagents were of the highest purity available from local suppliers.

## RESULTS

The following background is relevant to the results on the steady-state pmf-induced ATPase activity of  $PF_o \cdot F_1$ . It has

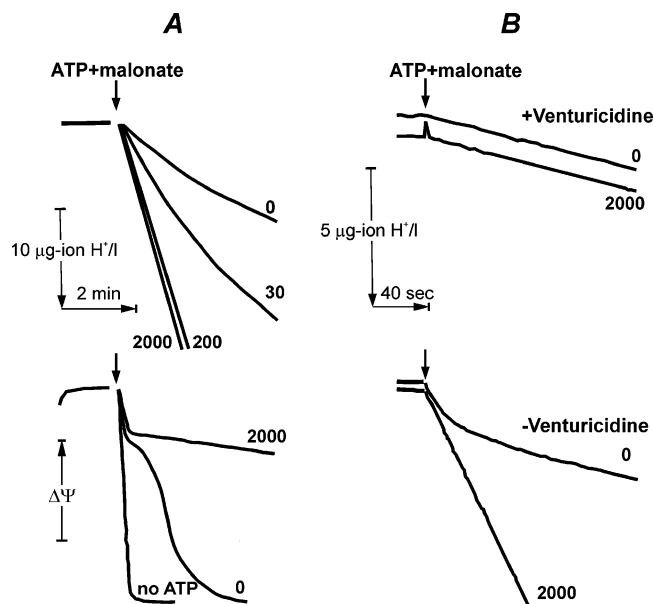


FIGURE 1: Effect of medium  $P_i$  on the time course of ATP hydrolysis. The vesicles ( $65 \mu\text{g/mL}$ ) were added to the standard reaction mixture containing no malonate. After incubation for 2 min (coupled pmf-generating respiration), ATP hydrolysis was initiated by simultaneous addition of 1 mM ATP and 20 mM malonate (to eliminate succinate oxidation). (A) ATP hydrolysis (top panel, Phenol Red response) and membrane energization (bottom panel, Oxonol VI response) were followed in the standard reaction mixture containing  $P_i$  at the micromolar concentrations given on the curves. (B) Initial rate tracing of ATPase at higher sensitivity and time resolution. To ensure that the initial burst of Phenol Red response is, indeed, due to ATP hydrolysis, the control tracings where the vesicles were preincubated for 30 min with venturicidin, the specific inhibitor of prokaryotic ATPase ( $2 \mu\text{g}/\text{mg}$  of protein), are shown (top curves).

been shown that venturicidin-sensitive ATP hydrolytic activity of the vesicles as prepared is negligible unless pmf across the membrane is created by coupled oxidation of the respiratory substrate (succinate) (18). The proton-translocating ATP hydrolysis can then be seen if succinate oxidation is prevented by malonate. The ATPase activity thus revealed is stimulated by mild uncoupling (slight increase in the vectorial  $H^+$  cycling rate) and is inhibited if the membrane permeability for protons is sufficiently high to collapse pmf. The continuous steady-state ATPase activity is thus self-supporting: pmf generated by  $F_0F_1$  ATPase is used to maintain the enzyme in its catalytically competent state. One should realize that any influence which decreases the rate of enzyme turnover is expected to cause two effects: a decrease in the overall enzyme activity and, as a result, a decrease in the fraction of active enzyme due to pmf reduction. Figure 1A shows the actual tracing of ATP hydrolysis and the membrane energization when the enzyme assays were conducted in the presence of different concentrations of  $P_i$ .

ATP hydrolysis coupled with pmf generation was not seen in the absence of  $P_i$  in the assay, whereas zero-order ATPase and significant pmf generation, evident from the steady-state Oxonol response, proceeded in the presence of 2 mM  $P_i$ . Only transitory maintenance of pmf and a time-dependent decrease in the ATPase activity which was synchronous with a decrease in the magnitude of the Oxonol VI response were observed in the absence of  $P_i$ . The results shown in Figure 1A prompted us to follow the rate of the ATPase reaction at

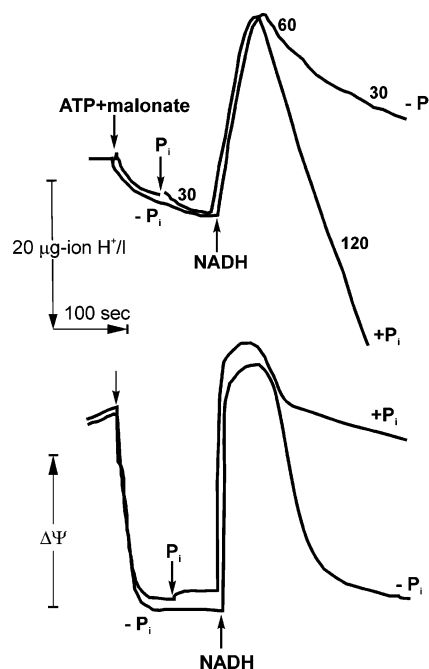


FIGURE 2:  $P_i$  is unable to reactivate ATPase that is deactivated during ATP hydrolysis in the absence of  $P_i$ . ATP hydrolysis (top panel, Phenol Red response) and membrane energization (bottom panel, Oxonol VI response) were followed in the standard reaction mixture containing vesicles ( $73 \mu\text{g/mL}$ ). After ATPase activity has declined (in the absence of  $P_i$ ), 2 mM  $P_i$  was added where indicated followed by the addition of  $35 \mu\text{M}$  NADH. Oxidation of NADH by the respiratory chain was accompanied by alkalinization of the medium according to the stoichiometric equation  $\text{NADH} + H^+ + \frac{1}{2}\text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{NAD}^+ + \text{H}_2\text{O}$ , which was evident from the Phenol Red response (top panel) and transitory membrane energization (bottom panel). In the control experiments (not shown), NADH oxidation followed by the change in absorption at 340 nm was found to be synchronous with alkalinization of the medium followed by Phenol Red response. Neither ATPase activity nor the membrane energization was affected by the addition of NADH to the assay medium originally containing 2 mM  $P_i$ . The specific ATPase activities (nanomoles per minute per milligram of protein) are indicated by the numbers on the curves (top panel).

higher sensitive and time resolution. As seen in the traces shown in Figure 1B, the absence of ATPase activity in the samples containing no  $P_i$  was only apparent: the initial rates of ATP hydrolysis were independent of  $P_i$ , and a rapid decline of ATPase was seen in the absence of  $P_i$ . Determining whether the rapid deactivation of ATPase seen in the absence of  $P_i$  could be reversed was worth investigating. Figure 2 shows that the addition of 2 mM  $P_i$  (the concentration which is sufficient to support continuous zero-order proton-translocating ATP hydrolysis as depicted in Figure 1A) after the activity had declined did not induce ATPase activity. However, the activity was fully restored if the membranes were energized (as seen from the Oxonol VI response) by oxidation of a limited amount of NADH. After NADH has been consumed, rapid zero-order ATP hydrolysis was observed.

Next we investigated the pmf dependence of the protecting effect of  $P_i$  against the enzyme deactivation. The time-dependent ATPase activity measured at a fixed time (20 s) after initiation of the reaction by simultaneous addition of ATP and malonate was plotted as a function of  $P_i$  concentration in the assay mixture containing various concentrations of protonophoric uncoupler (CCCP) (Figure 3).



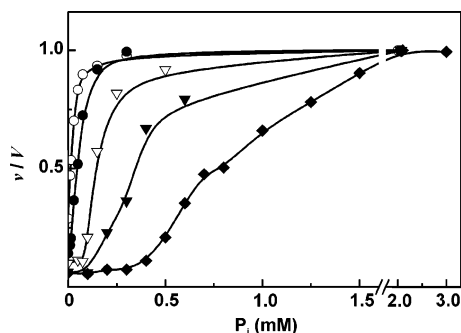


FIGURE 3: Effect of mild uncoupling on the protection of ATPase against deactivation by  $P_i$ . ATP hydrolysis was followed in the standard reaction mixture [containing vesicles ( $65 \mu\text{g/mL}$ )] and supplemented with  $P_i$  (concentrations are indicated on the abscissa). The specific ATPase activities ( $v$ ) were estimated from the slopes of the reaction course curves 20 s after the reaction was initiated by the addition of ATP, malonate, and CCCP (simultaneously) as in Figure 1: (○) 0, (●) 0.3, (▽) 1.0, (▼) 2.0, and (◆) 3.0  $\mu\text{M}$  uncoupler. The specific initial rates ( $V$ ) were stimulated upon uncoupling, and apparent rates estimated 20 s after time zero were normalized ( $v/V$ ), where  $V$  corresponds to the rates seen at given uncoupler concentrations in the presence of 2 mM  $P_i$ . Please note that true initial rates were  $P_i$ -independent as shown in Figure 1.

Although this approach is not quantitative, the results that were obtained clearly show that the apparent affinity of  $P_i$  for its ATPase “protecting” site is pmf-dependent. The half-maximal concentration of  $P_i$  ( $P_{i,0.5}$ ) required for full ATPase activity was 15  $\mu\text{M}$  and drastically increased upon partial uncoupling. It was noted that  $P_{i,0.5}$  was variable depending on the coupling efficiency for different batches of the vesicle preparations. In attempts to clarify the variability of  $P_{i,0.5}$  values, various ATPase assay media were tested. Surprisingly, no  $P_i$  requirement for the continuous zero-order ATP hydrolysis was found at all when KCl was omitted from the standard mixture. Further inspection revealed that the assay mixture (with or without KCl) contained 10  $\mu\text{M}$   $P_i$  as contamination from the vesicles (17 nmol/mg) and from potassium hydroxide used for the pH adjustment. In a KCl-free assay mixture, this concomitant  $P_i$  (10  $\mu\text{M}$ ) was sufficient to protect ATPase against deactivation. From the data shown in Figure 3 and described above, it became evident that the energy-dependent high-affinity  $P_i$  binding is required to protect  $PF_0F_1$  ATPase against the deactivation. This conclusion was corroborated by the partial uncoupling effect of potassium chloride: the respiratory control ratio determined with NADH as the substrate was 4.2 and 3.3 in the absence and presence of 0.1 M KCl, respectively. These results agree with those of Kell et al. (61), who have reported that the presence of KCl decreased the pmf of *P. denitrificans* vesicles respiring with NADH from 150 to 115 mV.

Next, the specificity of  $P_i$  in its ATPase protective effect was studied. Arsenate (almost as efficient as  $P_i$ ) and sulfate (less efficiently) were able to protect the enzyme activity (Figure 4), whereas acetate (10 mM) was ineffective.

Sulfate was shown to compete with  $P_i$  when the rates of respiration-supported ATP synthesis were measured at saturating ADP concentrations. The apparent  $K_m$  for  $P_i$  and the  $K_i$  for sulfate were 150 and 180  $\mu\text{M}$ , respectively, if estimated assuming a simple competitive type of inhibition (results not shown). Although competition between  $P_i$  and sulfate in oxidative phosphorylation was evident, the double-reciprocal plots obtained in the presence of sulfate deviated

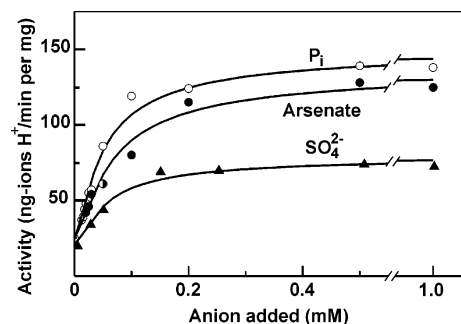


FIGURE 4: Arsenate and sulfate substitute for  $P_i$  in the protecting effect against the turnover-dependent deactivation of ATPase. The experimental conditions were the same as those described in the legend of Figure 3, except the uncoupler was not added.

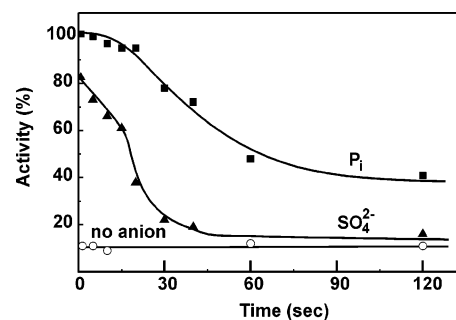


FIGURE 5: Protective effect of  $P_i$  and sulfate on spontaneous deactivation of ATPase after de-energization of the membranes. Vesicles (80  $\mu\text{g/mL}$ ) were preincubated in the standard assay mixture containing no malonate for 2 min (energization of the membranes). Malonate (20 mM) was then added, and ATP hydrolysis was initiated by the addition of 2 mM ATP at the time indicated on the abscissa. The initial rates were measured as described in the legend of Figure 1A.  $P_i$  (2 mM) or sulfate (2 mM) was added to the assay medium where indicated. The circles depict data from the case in which no protecting anion was added.  $P_i$  and sulfate did not affect pmf-induced activation of ATPase. One hundred percent corresponds to a specific activity of 150  $\text{nmol min}^{-1} (\text{mg of protein})^{-1}$ .

from a straight line in the high concentration range. This phenomenon was not further studied.

The most likely reason for the deactivation of ATPase in the absence of added  $P_i$  during turnover as shown in Figure 1 seemed to originate from the widely studied although not completely understood so-called  $\text{ADP}(\text{Mg}^{2+})$ -induced inhibition, the phenomenon characteristic of all  $F_1$ -type ATPases studied so far (62). In particular, latent  $PF_0F_1$  ATPase was shown to be kinetically equivalent to the azide-trapped,  $\text{ADP}(\text{Mg}^{2+})$ -inhibited  $MF_0F_1$  (18). Although  $P_i$  was unable to reactivate ATPase in the absence of pmf (Figure 2), we reasoned that activating anions ( $P_i$  and sulfate) should, at least partially, prevent the “spontaneous” (in fact, ADP reassociation-induced) transformation of active ATPase into its latent form. The results presented in Figure 5 show that this was, indeed, the case. Both  $P_i$  and  $\text{SO}_4$  delayed deactivation caused by elimination of pmf.

## DISCUSSION

Numerous stable enzyme–substrate (products) complexes are expected to exist when  $F_0F_1$  catalyzes the steady-state ATP hydrolysis or (and) synthesis. At least five different forms of an ATPase having a single catalytic site [empty and ATP-, (ADP+ $P_i$ )-, ADP-, and  $P_i$ -loaded] are anticipated

at any given concentration of the substrate and products. This number becomes as large as 35 for  $F_1$ -type ATPases (three catalytic sites), assuming that bindings of ATP and  $P_i$  at a single catalytic site are mutually exclusive. What particular complexes are kinetically significant during the steady-state ATP hydrolysis and/or pmf-supported ATP synthesis remains to be established.

We showed here, for the first time, the significant effect of  $P_i$  at low physiologically relevant concentrations (comparable with its apparent  $K_m$  in oxidative phosphorylation) on the steady-state coupled ATPase activity.  $P_i$  drastically increases the steady-state ATPase activity catalyzed by pmf-induced ATPase with no effects on the "initial" rates (Figure 1). The time-dependent decrease in the rate of the ATPase reaction catalyzed by  $MF_0 \cdot F_1$  was shown to be a consequence of the turnover-dependent formation of the  $ADP(Mg^{2+})$ -inhibited enzyme (62). The findings that  $P_i$  protects  $PF_0 \cdot F_1$  ATPase against spontaneous deactivation (Figure 5) and that this deactivation is, in fact, caused by the rebinding of ADP which dissociates during pmf-induced activation (18) suggest that the  $ADP(Mg^{2+})$ -inhibited form of the enzyme is the key intermediate responsible for the effect of  $P_i$  on the steady-state ATP hydrolysis.

The kinetic scheme that consistently explains the findings reported in this paper is depicted in Figure 6.

We propose that the major pathway of coupled proton-translocating ATP hydrolysis (when pmf is present) proceeds via steps 1–4 and  $P_i$  irreversibly leaves the enzyme after ADP dissociation. Essentially irreversible step 4 is likely to be the "stroke" step which is coupled with proton translocation. A predominance of steps 3 and 4 over steps 5 and 6 during coupled steady-state catalysis is presumably due to the inability of  $P_i$  to dissociate from the  $E \cdot (D + P_i)$  complex (energy-dependent tight binding of  $P_i$  to the  $E \cdot D$  complex).  $P_i$  rapidly and irreversibly dissociates (step 5) when the pmf decreases, thus leaving the  $E \cdot D$  complex which then isomerizes into the dead-end  $E^* \cdot D$  complex [step 7, formation of the  $ADP(Mg^{2+})$ -inhibited enzyme]. The reaction pathway via steps 1, 2, 5, and 6 operates when uncoupled  $F_0 \cdot F_1$  or the soluble  $F_1$  catalyzes ATP hydrolysis. When pmf-induced, pmf-generating ATP hydrolysis proceeds in the presence of arsenate or sulfate (Figure 4), the ternary  $E \cdot (D + As)$  or  $E \cdot (D + SO_4)$  complexes are formed, thus protecting the enzyme from isomerization into the dead-end  $ADP(Mg^{2+})$ -inhibited species. We believe that the kinetic scheme shown in Figure 6 is qualitatively valid for all  $F_0 \cdot F_1$ -type ATPases. The differences in the kinetics of  $MF_0 \cdot F_1$ , prokaryotic  $F_0 \cdot F_1$ , and  $CF_0 \cdot F_1$  ATPase activity seem likely to be quantitative rather than qualitative; the relative affinities of ADP and  $P_i$  for the catalytic sites of  $F_1$  ATPases and the rate constants for individual steps are evidently variable among the species.

$P_i$  does not inhibit coupled (this paper) or uncoupled (50) ATP hydrolysis catalyzed by  $F_1$ -type ATPases. This phenomenon is hard, if not impossible, to explain if any reversibly operating ATPase/synthase model to be considered taking into account the fact that  $P_i$  is the substrate of pmf-driven ATP synthesis with an apparent  $K_m$  in the millimolar range (see the introductory section).

It seems unlikely that the reversal of steps 6, 5 (energy-dependent tight  $P_i$  binding), 2, and 1 is the reaction pathway during ATP synthesis. The evidence for random kinetics of

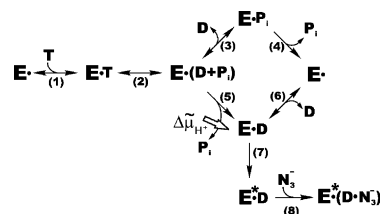


FIGURE 6: Kinetic scheme describing two reaction pathways for coupled and uncoupled ATP hydrolysis catalyzed by pmf-activated  $PF_0 \cdot F_1$  ATPase. T and D stand for ATP and ADP, respectively. The scheme does not attempt to assign individual kinetically distinct steps to the structural rearrangements of the enzyme during the catalysis such as the conformational change within the catalytic sites (open, closed, and half-closed conformations) and the particular position of the  $\gamma$ -subunit relative to the  $\alpha$ -subunit– $\beta$ -subunit interface nucleotide-binding sites. For the sake of simplicity, the enzyme is shown as a single catalytic unit and occupation of three (63) or two (64) catalytically competent sites by ATP, ADP, and  $P_i$  at each step is not specified. For example, one  $\beta$ -subunit may participate in step 1, whereas another  $\beta$ -subunit may catalyze the chemical transformation depicted as step 2 (binding change mechanism) (7). The participation of  $Mg^{2+}$  as nucleotide– $Mg^{2+}$  complexes and free cations is also not specified. Steps 1–6 are the catalytic turnover steps. Step 5 likely corresponds to the release of  $P_i$  during unisite catalysis by mutated  $TF_1$  accompanied by the conformational change in the  $\beta$ -subunit (65). The dead-end  $ADP(Mg^{2+})$ -inhibited form (latent  $PF_0 \cdot F_1$  ATPase) is marked with an asterisk. This form is apparently intrinsically very stable in  $PF_0 \cdot F_1$  and additionally stabilized in  $MF_0 \cdot F_1$  if azide is present (step 8). An azide anion ( $pK_a = 4.7$ ) may occupy a  $P_i$ -binding site, thus producing an  $E^* \cdot (ADP + N_3^-)$  complex (66) structurally analogous to the enzyme–tightly bound ATP complex or  $ADP \cdot \text{aluminum-fluoride}$  (5) or  $ADP \cdot V_i \cdot \text{fluoride}$  (67) complexes. Slow (compared to the catalytic turnover) isomerization of the  $E \cdot D$  intermediate into the dead-end  $ADP(Mg^{2+})$ -inhibited form is shown as step 7. Step 5 is shown as pmf-dependent  $P_i$  binding and/or dissociation; i.e.,  $P_i$  binds tightly or dissociates irreversibly when the coupling membrane is energized or de-energized, respectively. "Reversible" and "irreversible" steps are indicated by double-headed and single-headed arrows, respectively. The term irreversible is used solely to indicate that no binding of a particular ligand occurs at physiologically relevant concentrations. The scheme is an extension of the originally proposed kinetic mechanism of uncoupled ATP hydrolysis catalyzed by  $F_1$ -type ATPase (62, 68) as adapted for the more physiologically relevant proton translocation-coupled reaction.

ATP synthesis catalyzed by  $PF_0 \cdot F_1$ , the same species that used in these studies, has been presented (39). The dead-end  $ADP(Mg^{2+})$ -inhibited form, which is stabilized by azide in  $MF_0 \cdot F_1$  (68) or intrinsically stable in  $PF_0 \cdot F_1$  (18), is an unlikely intermediate of ATP synthesis because the latter process is azide-insensitive (12, 14) and, more significantly, the mutated  $TF_1$  incapable of ATP-promoted activation of the inhibited form is fully active in the ATP synthase reaction (14). The apparent affinity of  $P_i$  for the energized  $PF_0 \cdot F_1$  is much higher [ $K_{0.5} = 8\text{--}15 \mu\text{M}$  (this paper)] than the apparent  $K_m$  for  $P_i$  in the ATP synthesis reaction (this paper and ref 38). Taken together, these facts agree with the proposal that different states (conformations) of  $F_0 \cdot F_1$  catalyze pmf-generating ATPase or pmf-driven ATP synthase reactions (12–16). Further detailed kinetic studies of  $F_0 \cdot F_1$  operating in the ATP synthase mode, particularly with respect to the order of the substrates binding to the enzyme, are required to determine whether the intermediates of uncoupled or coupled ATP hydrolysis catalyzed by  $F_1$  are different from those which exist during coupled ATP synthesis. The molecular mechanism for the ATPase–ATP synthase switch remains unclear. A likely candidate is the  $\epsilon$ -subunit for which

two dramatically different structures have been established (69, 70). The specific binding of ATP to the  $\epsilon$ -subunit accompanied by its up and down conformational change has been suggested to serve as the physiologically important ATP-sensing mechanism (71). The kinetic scheme shown in Figure 6 attempts to interpret the findings reported in this paper with minimal assumptions. At present, more complex models, such as the possibility of the specific pmf-sensitive  $P_i$  binding at the site separated from the  $\beta$ -subunit-located catalytic sites ( $\epsilon$ -subunit?), cannot be excluded.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENT

We thank Dr. E. V. Gavrikova for her great help in preparation of tightly coupled *P. denitrificans* vesicles.

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BI061520V