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### UNIVERSIDAD NACIONAL AUTONOMA DE MEXICO

### UNIDAD ACADEMICA DE LOS CICLOS PROFESIONAL Y DE POSGRADO DEL COLEGIO DE CIENCIAS Y HUMANIDADES

# Hidrólisis y liberación de ATP durante la aceleración de la catálisis unisitio por la $F_1$ -ATPasa mitocondrial. Efecto de la trifluoroperazina.

Tesis para obtener el grado de Doctor en Invesigación Biomédica Básica.

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# **PAGINACION VARIA**

## COMPLETA LA INFORMACION

La presente tesis consta de un trabajo publicado y un manuscrito en revisión. El primer trabajo se realizó bajo la asesoría de los Dres. Marietta Tuena de Gómez Puyou y Armando Gómez Puyou, en sus laboratorios del Instituto de Fisiología Celular de la UNAM. El segundo trabajo se comenzó en los mismos laboratorios, pero la mayor parte del mismo se concluyó en el Departamento de Bioquímica del Instituto Nacional de Cardiología "Ignacio Chávez", en el laboratorio del tesista. Quisiera expresar mi más sincero agradecimiento a los Dres. Marietta Tuena de Gómez Puyou y Armando Gómez Puyou por todo el apoyo y la paciencia con la que ambos me enseñaron a estudiar la vida con la misma pasión con la que la vivo.

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### ABREVIATURAS

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AMP-PNP	Adenil-5'-imidodifosfato.

 $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  ATP marcado radiactivamente con <sup>32</sup>P en el fosfato y.

DCCD Diciclohexilcarbodiimida.

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DMSO Dimetilsulfóxido.

Fo Canal de protones de la FoF1-ATPasa

-dete de eder-

F<sub>1</sub> Parte soluble de la F<sub>0</sub>F<sub>1</sub>-ATPasa.

Pi Fosfato inorgánico.

PPi Pirofosfato.

RMN Resonancia Magnética Nuclear.

TFP Trifluoroperazina.

### INDICE

### INTRODUCCION CARACTERISTICAS FUNCIONALES Y ESTRUCTURALES DE LA FoFI-ATPasa. 2 FUNCION Y ESTRUCTURA DEL CANAL DE PROTONES (Fo) 3 FUNCION Y ESTRUCTURA DE LA F1-ATPasa 8 CINETICA UNISITIO Y COOPERATIVIDAD POSITIVA DE LA F. 13 **OBJETIVO GENERAL Y OBJETIVOS PARTICULARES** 17 **RESULTADOS Y CONCLUSIONES** 19 **DISCUSION Y PERSPECTIVAS** 22 REFERENCIAS 27

### INTRODUCCION

El mecanismo por el cual se sintetiza el ATP a partir de ADP y Pi durante la fosforilación oxidativa y la fotofosforilación permanece aún oculto dentro de las membranas transductoras de energía. Este mecanismo se ha entendido de forma parcial gracias a varios avances técnicos y conceptuales. Uno de los grandes pasos en el campo de la bioenergética y en la biofisica de membranas en general, fue la aceptación de la Teoría Quimiosmótica de Peter Mitchiell (1981), en la cual se propuso que la síntesis de ATP no ocurre por medio de un intermediario fosforilado, sino que el intermediario es un gradiente electroquímico de protones establecido a través de las membranas transductoras de energía.

Dentro de este contexto quimiosmótico, las preguntas que quedan por resolver se concentran en los mecanismos del funcionamiento de las proteínas transductoras de energía. El avance en este campo ha sido muy lento debido a que la membrana misma impone, además de una barrera de permesbilidad, una barrera técnica para poder estudiar la estructura y la función de las proteínas integrales de membrana. Es por esto que por ejemplo, en el caso de la  $F_0F_1$ -ATPasa que tiene una parte catalítica soluble ( $F_1$ ) y un canal de protones ( $F_0$ ) membranal, ha sido muy útil solubilizar la parte  $F_1$ , la cual mantiene la actividad de hidrólisis del ATP (Penefsky *et al.*, 1980).

Recientemente se han logrado avances notables en el análisis estructural de las proteínas transductoras de energía. En primer término figura la resolución por difracción de rayos-X del centro de reacción fotosintético de *Rhodopseudomonas viridis* (Deisenhofer *et al.*, 1985), y más recientemente, la F<sub>1</sub>-ATPasa mitocondrial (Abrahams *et al.*, 1994) y la citocromo oxidasa de *Paracoccus denitrificans* (lwata *et al.*, 1995). En esta última, se ha logrado descifrar la estructura terciaria de la enzima de mitocondrias de corazón de res (Tsukihara *et al.*, 1996), siendo la estructura proteica de mayor peso molecular de la cual se ha obtenido la estructura cristalográfica. Este es un gran paso para entender el mecanismo de acoplamiento o de transporte de cada una de estas proteínas. Otro caso importante es la resolución de la estructura de la porina de *Rhodobacter capsulatus* (Weiss *et al.*, 1990), aunque ésta no es una proteína transductora de energía, también constituyó un avance muy significativo en el conocimiento de las estructuras proteícas transmembranales.

La presente tesis se enfoca en el mecanismo catalítico de la  $F_1$ -ATPasa mitocondrial, la parte soluble del complejo  $F_0F_1$ . Este complejo está presente a lo largo de toda la escala filogenética. En las eubacterias ayuda a mantener un gradiente de protones para el transporte de nutrientes, y también funciona como ATP sintetasa. En los eucariontes, es la enzima que lleva a cabo la síntesis de ATP por medio de la fotofosforilación y la fosforilación oxidativa en cloroplastos y mitocondrias, respectivamente.

### CARACTERISTICAS ESTRUCTURALES Y FUNCIONALES DE LA FOFT-ATPasa.

En todos los organismos de donde se ha aislado, esta enzima se compone de tres sectores, el canal de protones F<sub>0</sub>, la parte soluble F<sub>1</sub> y el cuello que conecta a ambos sectores. La complejidad estructural de la enzima aumenta conforme se avanza en la escala filogenética (Tabla I). La estructura más simple es la del complejo F<sub>0</sub>F<sub>1</sub> de *E. coli*, esta enzima contiene tres subunidades en el canal de protones (a<sub>1</sub>, b<sub>2</sub> y c<sub>10-12</sub>) y 5 más en la parte F<sub>1</sub> ( $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma_1\delta_1\epsilon_1$ ). Las estequiometrías de cada subunidad se muestran como subindices. En eucariontes, las diferencias principales se observan en la parte F<sub>0</sub>. En cloroplastos se aumenta una subunidad a las tres mencionadas para la enzima de *E. coli*. Mientras que en la enzima mitocondrial, el número de subunidades del canal se incrementa a 9 o 10. Sin embargo, es importante señalar que en la parte F<sub>1</sub> de las diferentes especies, la nomenclatura para la subunidades corresponde en homologías estructurales sólamente en las subunidades  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$  y  $\gamma$ , mientras que las subunidades  $\delta$  y  $\epsilon$  de la enzima mitocondrial son diferentes a las de *E. coli* y cloroplasto (Tabla I).

Las diferencias estructurales de las  $F_0F_1$ -ATPasas de *E. coli*, cloroplasto y mitocondria se reflejan en su funcionamiento y en la regulación de su actividad. Por ejemplo, la  $F_1$  mitocondrial tiene una actividad hidrolítica que es de 3 a 5 veces mayor a la de la  $F_1$  de *E. coli* y a la de cloroplasto. Además, la enzima de cloroplasto contiene un puente disulfuro en la subunidad  $\gamma$  que se reduce o se oxida por la tiorredoxina en el estroma del cloroplasto, dependiendo de las condiciones de iluminación. En la luz, este puente disulfuro se reduce, permitiendo el funcionamiento de la enzima; en la obscuridad, se restablece este puente disulfuro para impedir la actividad de hidrólisis



TABLA I. SUBUNIDADES QUE COMPONEN AL COMPLEJO  $F_0F_1$  DE *E. coli.*, CLOROPLASTOS Y MITOCONDRIAS.

Esta tabla muestra la disposición general que tiene el complejo  $F_0F_1$  de todas las especies. Las subunidades que componen a la parte soluble ( $F_1$ ), al cuello, y al canal de protones ( $F_0$ ) se describen a la derecha a una atura aproximada a su localización en la enzima. Las estequiometrías se señsian como subindices. Entre paréntésis se muestra la nomenclatura de las subunidades de cloroplasto. En la última columna se muestran los pesos moleculares de las subunidades más importantes del complejo  $F_0F_1$  de mitocondrias de crazón de res. Los datos fueron recolectados de Joshi y Burrows (1990), Walker *et al.* (1991), y de Pedersen y Amzel (1963).

de ATP en condiciones desenergizadas (Ketcham *et al.*, 1984). Por otro lado, la enzima mitocondrial tiene una proteína inhibidora (Pullman y Monroy, 1983) que se asocia a una subunidad  $\beta$  de la F<sub>1</sub>. Esta proteína inhibidora disminuye en dos órdenes de magnitud la velocidad de hidrólisis del ATP de la F<sub>1</sub> soluble y del complejo F<sub>0</sub>F<sub>1</sub>. Sin embargo, la síntesis de ATP no es afectada por esta proteína porque la presencia de un gradiente de protones induce su reacomodo dentro de la estructura de la F<sub>1</sub> (Gómez-Puyou *et al.*, 1979). Esta forma de regulación es diferente al de la enzima de cloroplasto. En la enzima de *E. coli* la subunidad  $\varepsilon$  funciona como un inhibidor, y se regula de manera similar a la proteína inhibidora de la mitocondria.

### FUNCION Y ESTRUCTURA DEL CANAL DE PROTONES (Fo).

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El nombre "F<sub>0</sub>" con el que se conoce al canal de protones, fue designado inicalmente por el grupo de Racker para una preparación solubilizada con detergente que al ser reconstituída con F<sub>1</sub> soluble, hacía que la actividad de ATPasa recuperara su sensibilidad a la oligomicina (Racker, 1976). Este sector F<sub>0</sub> puede reconstituirse en

membranas artificiales y tener actividad de transporte de protones en ausencia de F. (Kagawa v Racker, 1966; Célis, 1980; Negrin et al., 1980; Friedl v Schairer, 1981; Schneider y Altendorf. 1982). Las subunidades esenciales para la translocación de protones son las tres presentes en E. coli (ver Table I). Estas subunidades se conservan en cloroplastos y mitocondrias, a las cuales se les han añadido otros péptidos que podrían tener una función relacionada con la biogénesis, estabilidad o regulación de la enzima (Tabla I). Es posible que estas subunidades adicionales se havan integrado en la superficie externa de las subunidades centrales del canal, como ocurre con las subunidades supernumerarias de la citocromo oxidasa de bovino (Tsukihara et al., 1996), El funcionamiento de la F<sub>0</sub> depende de un carboxilo (Asp-61 en E.col) que se localiza a una altura media del ancho de la bicapa membranal en la subunidad c. La modificación de este carboxilo con diciclohexilcarbodiimida (DCCD), o su cambio por mutagénesia dirigida a otro aminoácido, bloquea el transporte de protones (Beechev et al., 1987; Cattell et al., 1971; Fillingame, 1975; Sebald y Hoppe, 1981, Hoppe y Sebald, 1984). Un dato importante a este respecto es que la modificación con DCCD de una sola subunidad c de las 10-12 existentes detiene por completo el transporte de protones (Hermolin y Fillingame, 1989). Este resultado sugiere que el funcionamiento del canal es similar al de la F1, dado que la inactivación de uno solo de los tres sitios catalíticos generalmente inactiva completamente a la enzima (revisado en Bover, 1993). En otras palabras, las subunidades o del canal de protones parecen tener un mecanismo cooperativo o alternante en su funcionamiento. La subunidad b del canal extiende una parte soluble hacia afuera de la membrana para hacer contacto con la parte C-terminal de las subunidades  $\alpha \vee \beta$  de la F<sub>1</sub> (Wilkens et al., 1994), posiblemente a través de la interacción con las subunidades y,  $\delta$  y  $\epsilon$  (Howitt et al., 1996).

En la mayoria de los complejos  $F_0F_1$  descritos, la hidrólisis del ATP induce un bombeo de protones, pero se ha encontrado que el complejo  $F_0F_1$  de la bacteria *Propiogenium modestum* bombea iones de sodio, además de protones (Hilpert *et al.*, 1984; Laubinger y Dimroth, 1988; 1989). Este cambio de especificidad de protones por sodio en el complejo  $F_0F_1$  se ha observado también en otras bacterias como son *Acetobacterium woodii* (Reidlinger y Müller, 1994), *Methanosarcina mazei* (Becher y

Müller, 1994) y posiblemente en *Vitreoscille* (Efiok y Webster, 1992). Estos resultados sugieren que el mecanismo de transporte de protones por F<sub>0</sub> es similar al de un canal iónico, y no al de un conducto por el cual algunos residuos de aminoácidos van protonándose y desprotonándose durante el funcionamiento de la enzima, como parece ser el caso de la citocromo oxidasa (lwata *et al.*, 1995; Tsukihara *et al.*, 1996). En otras palabras, es muy probable que F<sub>0</sub> funcione como un canal específico para el ión hidronio (H<sub>3</sub>O<sup>\*</sup>). A este respecto, se ha construido un complejo F<sub>0</sub>F<sub>1</sub> híbrido consistente en una parte F<sub>1</sub> de *E. coli* y un canal de protones de *P. modestum*. Esta quimera acopla la hidrólisis o síntesis de ATP al transporte de sodio, y en ausencia del catión transporta protones de manera acoplada a la síntesis o hidrólisis de ATP (Kaim y Dimroth, 1993; 1994). Estos resultados sugieren fuertemente que el complejo F<sub>0</sub>F<sub>1</sub> de diferentes especies puede transporta al menos dos diferentes iones por medio de un mecanismo común, acoplado a la hidrólisis o síntesis de ATP.

La estructura del canal de protones se conoce de manera rudimentaria. El arregio en la membrana de las tres subunidades esenciales es una incógnita. Sin embargo, se sabe que las porciones hidrosolubles de las subunidades b v c forman parte importante del cuello que contacta a las subunidades de la  $F_1$ . Estructuralmente. la subunidad b forma una trenza de dos alfa hélices en su parte extramembranal que compone parte del cuello (Dunn, 1992). La parte hidrofílica de la subunidad c establece contactos con las subunidades y y s de la parte F1 (Zhang y Fillingame, 1995; Watts et al., 1995). Además, se sabe que la estructura de la subunidad c es del tipo hélice-asahélice, formando una horquilla (Figura 1). Esta estrucutra de la subunidad c se pudo conocer gracias a su solubilización en solventes orgánicos y a un análisis de resonancia magnética nuclear (RMN) (Girvin y Fillingame, 1994). Aunque tal estructura no se obtuvo en la membrana, las coordenadas descritas para los aminoácidos de la subunidad c concuerdan con muchos estudios previos de mutagénesis y modificación química. Las dos subunidades b existentes en Fo contienen un cruce transmembranal v una región hidrofílica expuesta del lado del cuello de la F1. Por otro lado, la subunidad a parece contener cinco cruces transmembranales. El modelo más reciente del arregio de estas tres subunidades esenciales del canal Fo, propone una disposición central de las subunidades a y b, rodeadas de las 10-12 subuniades c (Howitt et al., 1996; Fig. 1).







Figura 1. Estructura terciaria de la subunidad c y su posible distribución en el canal F<sub>0</sub> de E. col/ respecto a las subunidades a y b. En la parte superior se muestra una imagen estereoscópica de la estructura terciaria de la subunidad c obtenida por RMN en un medio apoiar (tomado de Girvin y Fillingame, 1994). En la α-hélice derecha se muestra al aspártico esencial 61 modificado con un análogo paramagnético del DCCD. La parte inferior es una perspectiva perpendicular al piano de la membrana de la posible distribución de las subunidades a, b y c en el canal de protones F<sub>0</sub>. Las subunidades c rodean a las cinco posibles α-hélices hidrofóbicas de la subunidad a, y a un dímero de subunidades b. Los residuos de aminoácidos que se indican son importantes para el transporte de protones y su cercanía relativa se infinió de resultados de complementación de mutantes puntuales (tomado de Howitt ef a/., 1996). La cercanía entre la alanina 24 y el aspártico 61 de la subunidad c se puede verificar claramente en la parte superior. En la figura 2 se muestra un esquema con la localización de las subunidades  $\gamma$ ,  $\epsilon$  y c, respecto a las subunidades  $\alpha$  y  $\beta$  de la F<sub>1</sub> de *E. coli.* La estructura terciaria de la subunidad  $\epsilon$  se determinó por medio de RMN (Wilkens *et al.*, 1995) y su orientación se dedujo de los resultados obtenidos a partir de construcciones de puentes disulfuro (Capaldi *et al.*, 1996).





Figura 2. Orientación de la subunidad  $\varepsilon$  respecto a la subunidades  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ ,  $\gamma$  y c en el complejo F<sub>0</sub>F<sub>1</sub> de *E. coli*. La estructura de la subunidad  $\varepsilon$  fué resuelta por experimentos de RMN. Su orientación en el cuello de F<sub>1</sub> se dedujo del análisis de la estructura terciaria con experimentos de entrecruzamiento y formación de puentes disulfuro entre las subunidades  $\beta$  y  $\varepsilon$ . Esta figura muestra un estado de la enzima asociado con ADP. Cuando la enzima une ATP, ocurre un rearreglo de las subunidades  $\gamma$  y  $\varepsilon$  en el cual, las dos  $\alpha$ -hélices del dominio C-terminal de la subunidad  $\varepsilon$  se separan de una subunidad  $\beta$ . Por otro lado, la subunidad  $\gamma$  y parece tener un movimiento rotacional (ver texto) (Tormado de Capaldi et al., 1996).

### FUNCION Y ESTRUCTURA DE LA F1-ATPasa.

La parte F<sub>1</sub> de estas enzimas puede solubilizarse y aislarse como una F<sub>1</sub>-ATPasa activa (Penefsky *et al.*, 1960). La ausencia de F<sub>0</sub> y de potencial electroquímico de protones en la F<sub>1</sub> impide que esta enzima solubilizada pueda sintetizar ATP y liberarlo al medio. Sin embargo, la F<sub>1</sub> es capaz de sintetizar ATP en un medio de dimetilsulfóxido (Sakamoto y Tonomura, 1983; Yoshida, 1983; Sakamoto, 1984; Gómez Puyou, *et al.*, 1986; Kandpal, *et al.*, 1987; Beharry y Bragg, 1991a, 1991b; Beharry y Bragg, 1992). En estas condiciones, el ATP sintetizado permanece unido a la enzima debido a la ausencia de energía para acoplarla a la liberación del ATP del sitio catalítico hacia el medio. De manera similar, se ha demostrado que la F<sub>1</sub> puede sintetizar pirofosfato (PPI) (Tuena de Gómez-Puyou *et al.*, 1993), el cual puede ser liberado al medio en donde se ha diluído el DMSO, presumiblemente gracias a su baja energía de unión al sitio catalítico de la F<sub>1</sub> (Tuena de Gómez-Puyou *et al.*, 1995).

La F, contiene tres sitios catalíticos y tres sitios de unión a nucleótidos no cataliticos (Cross y Nalin, 1982; Bullough et al., 1988). Estos sitios se encuentran intercalados en las seis interfases «/B que contiene la enzime (Abrahams et al., 1994). Las subunidades 8 contienen a la mayoría de los aminoácidos que componen a los sitios catalíticos, y las subunidades a contienen anélogamente a los aminoácidos de los sitios no catalíticos (Fig. 3). Los sitios catalíticos funcionan de manera cooperativa; muestran cooperatividad negativa en la unión a nucleótidos (Tiedos et al., 1982) y cooperatividad positiva en la cinética de catálisis (Kayalar et al., 1977: Hackney y Bover, 1978: Hutton v Bover, 1979: Grubmever v Penefsky, 1981: Grubmever et al., 1982: O'Neal y Bover, 1984). Los sitios no catalíticos inducen la cooperatividad negative que muestran los sitios catalíticos (Jault y Allison, 1993; Edel et al., 1993). La cooperatividad positiva parece inducirse por la interacción de los nucleótidos con los sitios catalíticos (revisado en Penefsky y Cross, 1991). Sin embargo, de acuerdo con los resultados del segundo trabajo que se presente en esta tesis, existe la posibilidad de que la cooperatividad positiva de la enzima se pueda inducir a través de ambos tipos de sitios.





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Figura 3. Estructura tridimensional de la Fi-ATPasa mitocondrial de corazón de res obtenida por cristalografia de ravos-X. El recuedro a muestra la estructura completa de las subunidades a (rojo).  $\beta(amarillo) \neq |a|$  mitad de las subunidad y (violeta). Se observa la alternancia de las subunidades  $\alpha \neq \beta$ que rodean a dos  $\alpha$ -hélices de la subunidad y. La subunidad y muestra una fracción de sus dos hélices y una pequeña hélice adicional que protruven afuera del hexámero de subunidades o y B, formando una parte del cuello que conecta a E<sub>1</sub> con E<sub>2</sub>. El ángulo superior derecho muestra la diferente disposición de las subunidades marcadas con subíndices de acuerdo al nucleótido unido a las interfases catalíticas de las subunidades  $\alpha \neq \beta$  ( $\alpha_{e}$ - $\beta_{E}$  corresponde a una interfase vacía,  $\alpha_{TP}$ - $\beta_{TP}$  a una interfase con AMP-PNP unido. V gra-Bre corresponde a une interfase con ADP unido). El inciso b muestra un detalle de la estructura anterior, las subunidades are y Boe, y en el centro las tres hélices de la subunidad y. Se muestra la homología estructural de las subunidades 🛛 y B, ambas contienen 3 dominios diferentes. Un dominio N-terminal que forma un barril de hoias B, un dominio central de estructura c/B de unión a nucleótidos (se distinguen los nucleótidos unidos en estos dominios en color negro) y un dominio Cterminal formado de  $\alpha$ -hélices. Se puede ver claramente que las hélices de la subunidad  $\gamma$ correspondientes a sus extremos C y N terminal abarcan la distancia cubierta por los dos últimos dominios de las subunidades  $\alpha$  y  $\beta$  en el centro del completo F<sub>1</sub>. El inciso c muestra un corte transversal de la estructura del inciso a, a la altura del dominio C-terminal de las subunidades a y B, observada desde la parte "inferior". Esta perspectiva muestra a las seis interfases catalíticas y no catalíticas con los nucleótidos asociados en negro. Las interfases catalíticas son  $\alpha_{e}$ - $\beta_{e}$ ,  $\alpha_{Te}$ - $\beta_{Te}$  y  $\alpha_{De}$ - $\beta_{Oe}$ , nombradas de acuerdo al grado de apertura observado. Estas diferencias de estructura en las interfases cataliticas concuerdan con el modelo catalítico de cambio de unión propuesto por Boyer donde se propone la existencia de un sitio abierto (O), uno semiabierto (L) y uno cerrado (T) (Ver texto y Figura 4). Los diagramas se tomaron de Abrahams et al., (1994).

El mecanismo por el cual se expresa la cooperatividad positiva de la enzima parece basarse en la alternancia de los tres sitios catalíticos durante la catálisis de la F1 (Kayalar et al. 1977; Hackney v Bover, 1978; Hutton v Bover, 1979; Bover, 1987. 1989, 1993). Se sabe que los sitios catalíticos son heterogéneos en sus propiedades funcionales (Bullough et al., 1987) y en su estructura (Abrahams et al., 1994). Sin embargo, se ha demostrado que existe una sola ruta catalítica por la cual esta enzima hidroliza al ATP (Hutton y Boyer, 1979; Hacney et al., 1979; Kohlbrenner y Boyer, 1983). Esto sugiere fuertemente que los tres sitios catalíticos que en un momento dado tienen propiedades diferentes, convergen alternadamente en un mismo mecanismo de reacción. El modelo de catálisis que explica la mavoría de los datos experimentales que se han encontrado sobre la estructura y funcionamiento de estos sitios catalíticos. es el modelo de cambio de unión de Bover (revisado en Bover, 1987; 1989; 1993). Este modelo propone que los tres sitios catalíticos van alternándose simultáneamente en tres diferentes conformaciones; abierto (O), semiabierto (L) y cerrado (T) (Fig. 4a). La unión de substrato en un sitio catalítico, y la energía proveniente del gradiente de protones (en el complejo  $F_0F_1$ ), induciría un cambio de unión en los otros dos sitios catalíticos para liberar al ATP recién sintetizado, y para aumentar la afinidad por ADP y Pi (Fig. 4A).

El modelo de cambio de unión concuerda con la hipótesis de que la alternancia de los sitios catalíticos se puede explicar por medio de un mecanismo rotacional en el cual las subunidades pequeñas de la F1 podrían rotar durante la catálisis para cambiar la conformación de los sitios catalíticos de manera alternada (Bover y Kohlbrenner. 1981), Recientemente, esta hipótesis adquirió mas fuerza debido a que en la estructura cristalográfica de la F1 mitocondrial, la subunidad  $\gamma$  forma dos largas  $\alpha$ -hélices acomodadas en un oscudo eje de simetria entre las subunidades  $\alpha \vee \beta$ , a manera de un eje de rotación para la F<sub>1</sub> (Fig. 3). Se han tratado de estudiar los posibles movimientos conformacionales de las subunidades de bajo peso molecular de la F1. Los resultados más concluventes se han encontrado para la subunidades y y  $\varepsilon$ . Inicialmente, se observó por medio de microscopía electrónica que la subunidad y de E. coli marcada con metales pesados, puede alternar su posición entre una subunidad  $\alpha$  y una  $\beta$ después de hidrolizar ATP (Gogol et el., 1990). Algunos cambios de posición similares se han demostrado recientemente para la subunidad s de la F1 de E. coli por medio de experimentos de entrecruzamiento por puentes disulfuro (Aggeler et el., 1995; Aggeler y Capaldi, 1996; Grüber y Capaldi, 1996). De manera similar, se trató de entrecruzar o formar puentes disulfuro entre las subunidades de bajo peso molecular de F1 con una subunidad  $\alpha$  o  $\beta$  para detener la posible rotación entre estas subunidades. Los resultados de estos experimentos han sido controversiales (Musier y Hammes, 1987; Kandpal y Boyer, 1987; Tozer y Dunn, 1986). Sin embargo, se han reportado tres trabajos recientes que sugieren fuertemente la rotación de la subunidad y durante la catálisis. Estos trabajos se basaron en la estructura cristalográfica de la F1 mitocondrial. En el primer trabajo, se construvó genéticamente un puente disulfuro entre la subunidad y y una de las tres subunidades ß de la F<sub>1</sub> de E. coli. Se encontró que este disulfuro inhibe completamente la actividad hidrolítica de la enzima. Después. se observó que la subunidad y podía cambiar de posición este disulfuro, orientándolo hacia las otras dos subunidades  $\beta$  reconstituídas y marcadas con <sup>35</sup>S. Este cambio de posición de la subunidad y respecto a las subunidades  $\beta$  fue dependiente del tratamiento con MaATP, después de reducir el disulfuro original y antes de reoxidar

nuevamente a la enzima reconstituida (Duncan *et al.*, 1995). Este experimento se ha reproducido en el complejo  $F_0F_1$  reconstituído, encontrándose resultados similares, con la importante observación de que el cambio de posición de la subunidad y fué inhibido por la modificación química de  $F_0$  con DCCD (Zhou *et al.*, 1996). Este resultado muestra que los movimientos de la subunidad y en  $F_1$  están asociados al paso de protones por  $F_0$ .

El otro estudio que ha mostrado la rotación de la subunidad y es el análisis de la relaisción de la absorción de luz polarizada de la subunidad y de cloroplasto marcada con eosina-5-maleimida (Sabbert et al., 1996). En este estudio, el cromóforo unido covalentemente a la subunidad y fue expuesto a dos haces de luz polarizada, uno que se mantuvo fijo v otro cuvo vector se hizo alternar entre dos orientaciones, una paralela y otra perpendicular respecto al primer haz. Este último fue un láser usado para excitar y apagar a una fracción de los cromóforos orientados en paralelo respecto al láser. El segundo haz de polarización alternante, se usó para medir la diferencia de absorción en ambas orientaciones respecto al láser. Si el cromóforo no rotara, se conservaría la diferencia de absorción entre ambas orientaciones del segundo haz polarizado; sin embargo, si el cromóforo rota, esta diferencia decae debido a la reorientación de los cromóforos excitados. El resultado mostró un decaimiento de la diferencia de la absorción del cromóforo en ambas orientaciones del segundo haz polarizado, lo cual mostró que la subunidad y rota durante la catálisis. Esta rotación fue dependiente de MgATP, no se observó en presencia de un análogo de ATP no hidrolizable (AMP-PNP), y se detectó en un ángulo de ~ 200°, alrededor de la hélice más larga de la subunidad y (ver Fig. 3).

Estos resultados apoyan fuertemente la hipótesis de catálisis rotacional por la  $F_1$ , la cual está de acuerdo con el mecanismo de cambio de unión de Boyer. Sin embargo, aún no se ha demostrado que esta rotación ocurra de manera efectiva en un ángulo de 360° durante la síntesis de ATP por el complejo  $F_0F_1$ , y si guarda relación con la velocidad de hidrólisis.

El mecanismo de acoplamiento entre  $F_0$  y  $F_1$  está basado en movimientos conformacionales. Aunque para conocer con detalle este mecanismo aún falta mucho trabajo, se ha propuesto una hipótesis que concuerda con la mayoría de los datos

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funcionales y estructurales. Por ejemplo, anteriormente se mencionó que tanto el canal  $F_0$  como la parte soluble  $F_1$  son inhibidos por la modificación de una sola de sus subunidades esenciales con DCCD. Esto hace suponer que ambos sectores funcionan de manera alternante y cooperativa. Respecto al sector  $F_0$ , desde hace algunos años (Hoppe y Sebald, 1986) se propuso que las subunidades c podrían funcionar de manera rotacional y concertada con la subunidad a para translocar protones De acuerdo con esta propuesta, se conocen los antecedentes mencionados de la posible rotación de la subunidades c del canal  $F_0$  (Watts *et al.*, 1995). De acuerdo con estos datos, el grupo de Cross ha propuesto que la rotación de la subunidad y está acoplada a una rotación homóloga de las subunidades c de  $F_0$ . Un esquema de esta hipótesis se muestra en la Fig 4b. Este modelo concuerda con los datos experimentales mencionados previamente, sin embargo, se requiere de más experimentos para ponerlo a prueba.

Dentro de este contexto, una pregunta que está abierta es si la subunidad  $\gamma$ podría rotar o no en sentidos opuestos durante las reacciones contrarias de hidrólisis o síntesis de ATP que cataliza el complejo F<sub>0</sub>F<sub>1</sub> (Capaldi *et al*, 1996). A este respecto, en la presente tesis se propone un modelo de catálisis rotacional en donde los resultados que se describen a continuación podrían explicarse suponiendo que la subunidad  $\gamma$ puede rotar en dos sentidos opuestos durante la inducción de la cooperatividad positiva de la enzima.

### CINETICA UNISITIO Y COOPERATIVIDAD POSITIVA DE LA F1.

Para obtener las constantes de reacción del ciclo catalítico de esta enzima, es necesario medir la hidrólisis de ATP en un solo sitio catalítico. Para esto, el grupo de Penefsky diseñó las condiciones de "catálisis unisitio", en las cuales la F<sub>1</sub> soluble se mezcla con cantidades subestequiométricas de [ $\gamma^{32}$ P]ATP. La F<sub>1</sub> tiene un sitio catalítico de alta afinidad por nucleótidos, y éste es el único que se ocupa con el [ $\gamma^{32}$ P]ATP que se añade en condiciones unisitio (Grubmeyer y Penefsky, 1981; Grubmeyer *et al.*, 1982; Penefsky, 1988). Esto permite medir las constantes de velocidad del ciclo catalítico del sitio de alta afinidad de la enzima. Esta catálisis unisitio se caracteriza por



Figura 4. Modelo de cambio de unión en la síntesis de ATP, asociado a la posible rotación de la subunidad y en el complejo  $F_0F_1$ . En el recuadro A se muestra un dibujo simplificado de la  $F_1$  ATPasa en el cual, de acuerdo al modelo de cambio de unión de Boyer, los tres sitios catalíticos se presentan en tres estados conformacionales diferentes O, L y T (ver texto). La subunidad y se muestra en el centro de  $F_1$ . El primer cambio de unión que ocurre en la fase uno se induce por la energía proveniente del gradiente de protones, provocando un incremento de afinidad por ADP y Pi, y una liberación de ATP simultánemente. Este cambio de unión está asociado a la rotación de la subunidad  $\gamma$ . En la fase 2, la síntesis de ATP ocurre espontánemente en el sitio T, sin consumo de energía del gradiente de protones. En este estado, la enzima puede unir ADP y Pi en el sitio abierto y reiniciar otro ciclo catalítico repitiendo la fase 1. En el dibujo inferior (B) se muestra un modelo de acoplamiento para el complejo  $F_0F_1$ , en el cual el flujo de protones por  $F_0$  induciria la rotación de las subunidades c, las cuales al estar asociadas a la subunidad  $\gamma$  inducurían los cambios conformacionales de los sitios catalíticos en  $F_1$  (Tomado de Cross y Duncan, 1996).

ser 10<sup>5</sup> veces más lenta que la catálisis en condiciones saturantes de sustrato (revisado en Penefsky y Cross, 1991). En estas condiciones no se expresa la cooperatividad positiva de la enzima debido a que hay un único sitio catalítico ocupado en una fracción de las enzimas.

Después de conocer los valores de las constantes de velocidad del ciclo unisitio de la enzima, se obtuvieron varias conclusiones importantes repecto a la energética de hidrólisia/síntesis de ATP dentro del sitio catalítico (Fig. 4). Esto implica que la reacción de hidrólisis o síntesis de ATP en este sitio catalítico ocurre de manera espontánea. por lo cual se supone que esta reacción no está acoplada al transporte de protones por el canal F<sub>0</sub> (Fig. 4). Por otro lado, se observó que las reacciones mas exerciónicas del ciclo catalítico unizitio en el sentido hidrolítico son la entrada del ATP y la salida de Pi (Al-Shawi v Senior, 1988; Al-Shawi et al., 1989; Al-Shawi et al., 1990). Si este ciclo se analiza en sentido inverso, es decir en el sentido sintético, se puede predecir que los pasos mas endergónicos durante la síntesis de ATP serían la liberación del ATP del sitio catalítico, y la entrada de Pi. Estas predicciones se han confirmado experimentalmente, dado que el arupo de Bover había observado que las reacciones de hidrólisis y síntesis de ATP ocurren de manera reversible dentro del sitio catalítico (Kavalar et al., 1977; Hackney y Boyer, 1978; Hutton y Boyer, 1979). De acuerdo con estas predicciones. Penefsky demostró que la liberación del ATP unido a un sitio catalítico de alta afinidad en el complejo  $F_0F_1$  de partículas submitocondriales, se induce con un aradiente de protones generado con NADH (Penefsky, 1985).

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La manera mas clara de detectar experimentalmente la cooperatividad positiva de la enzima es la de inducir la transición de catálisis unisitio a catálisis multisitio en la  $F_1$ . Esto se logra al añadir un exceso de nucleótidos a la  $F_1$ -ATPasa que está catalizando hidrólisis unisitio de  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP. En estos experimentos, se observa un incremento abrupto en la cantidad de  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP hidrolizado, que comunmente se describe como un salto en la hidrólisis del  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP unido previamente al sitio catalítico de alta finidad de la enzima. Este salto de hidrólisis se cree que ocurre en respuesta a la unión de los nucleótidos fríos a los sitios catalíticos que están vacios.

Estos experimentos han sido muy útiles en el análisis de la catálisis unisitio de la

F1 ATPasa. Por ejemplo, mediante esta metodología de aceleración de catálisis, se midieron las constantes de velocidad del ciclo de catálisis unisitio de la enzima (Cross *et al.*, 1982). Sin embargo, un resultado que no se ha analizado en todos estos experimentos de aceleración de catálisis, es que después de que la enzima ha pasado de catálisis unisitio a multisitio, no se hidroliza rápidamente el 100% del [ $\gamma^{32}$ P]ATP unido previamente en condiciones unisitio. A este respecto, en los trabajos que contiene esta tesis se muestra que la fracción del [ $\gamma^{32}$ P]ATP que no se hidroliza en los primeros segundos después de la transición de catálisis unisitio a multisitio, se libera al medio en respuesta de la adición de ADP o de ATP en exceso.

Estos resultados son importantes por que no se había detectado anteriormente que la inducción de la cooperatividad positiva de la  $F_1$  indujera la liberación del substrato ([ $\gamma^{32}P$ ]ATP) de su sitio catalítico de alta afinidad. Unicamente se había detectado la aceleración de su hidrólisis (Cross *et al.*, 1982; Penefsky y Cross, 1991). El otro aspecto importante de esta reacción de liberación, es que constituye la etapa final, y la más endergónica, de la fosforilación oxidativa que realiza el complejo  $F_0F_1$ .

Por otro lado, el primer trabajo que contiene esta tesis muestra un estudio inicial de la reacción de catélisis unisitio en ausencia y en presencia de un inhibidor parcial de la actividad de ATPasa multisitio, la trifluoroperazina (TFP). La TFP es un inhibidor reversible, no competitivo con ATP, que disminuve la actividad multisitio de la ATPasa hasta un 70% (García et al., 1995). Se sabe que la TFP pertenece a un grupo de inhibidores parciales de la F1-ATPasa conocido como el grupo de los cationes anfipáticos. Estas moléculas son inhibidores no competitivos con ATP de la actividad de hidrólisis multisitio de la enzima (Vanderkooi et al., 1981; Chazotte et al., 1982; Palatini, 1982; Adade et al., 1984; de Meis et al., 1988), pero se desconoce a qué nivel del ciclo catalítico de la  $F_1$  es que actúan. Un enfoque con el cual se iniciaron los presentes estudios, fue el de averiguar qué ocurre en la catálisis unisitio de una enzima que trabaja al 30% de su actividad multisitio, en presencia de TFP. A reserva de la posible alternancia entre los sitios catalíticos de la F1, era probable que la enzima inhibida con TFP conservara uno o dos sitios catalíticos funcionales, o alternativamente que todos los sitios catalíticos se inhibieran parcialmente con la TFP. En el primer caso, se esperaría que la TFP tuviera un efecto de todo o nada en la catálisis unisitio

por la F<sub>1</sub>. El segundo caso concordaría con una inhibición parcial de la hidrólisis unisitio de [ $\gamma^{32}$ P]ATP por la F<sub>1</sub>. Además de este estudio de la catálisis unisitio, también se estudió si esta inhibición por TFP involucra un efecto en la cooperatividad de la enzima.

### **OBJETIVO GENERAL.**

Inducir la transición cooperativa de catálisis unisitio a multisitio de la F<sub>1</sub>-ATPasa con diferentes substratos para acelerar la hidrólisis y/o la liberación del [ $\gamma^{32}$ P]ATP unido al sitio catalítico de alta afinidad de la enzima, en ausencia y en presencia de la TFP.

OBJETIVOS PARTICULARES.

- Medir la hidrólisis unisitio de [y<sup>32</sup>P]ATP por la F<sub>1</sub>-ATPasa en ausencia y en presencia de la TFP.
- Medir el cociente de  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP unido/<sup>32</sup>Pi unido a la F<sub>1</sub>-ATPasa en condiciones de hidrólisis unisitio en ausencia y en presencia de TFP.
- -Medir la constante de velocidad de liberación de <sup>32</sup>Pi de la  $F_1$  en condiciones de hidrólisis unisitio de [ $\gamma^{32}$ P]ATP.
- -Inducir la transición de hidrólisis unisitio de  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  a hidrólisis multisitio en ausencia y presencia de TFP.
- -Medir la posible liberación del [ $\gamma^{32}$ P]ATP unido previamente a la F<sub>1</sub> en condiciones de catálisis unisitio, durante la aceleración a catálisis multisitio inducida por ADP. Esta liberación se mide por medio de la accesibilidad del [ $\gamma^{32}$ P]ATP a una trampa de glucosa-hexocinasa.
- -Determinar si el PPi es o no un inductor alostérico de la hidrólisis unisitio de [ $\gamma^{32}$ P]ATP por la F<sub>1</sub>-ATPasa soluble.
- -Determinar si el PPi, a una concentración máxima de 5 mM, puede inducir la liberación del [ $\gamma^{32}$ P]ATP unido a la F<sub>1</sub>-ATPasa en condiciones de hidrólisis unisitio.
- -Determinar si las reacciones de hidrólisis y liberación del (y<sup>32</sup>P)ATP se pueden separar experimentalmente por medio de sus respectivas afinidades por los nucleótidos.
- -Proponer una explicación para la hidrólisis y la liberación de [ $\gamma^{32}$ P]ATP que expresa la F<sub>1</sub> durante la transición de catálisis unisitio a multisitio, con un modelo que concuerde

con el mecanismo catalítico de cambio de unión de Boyer, y con el posible mecanismo rotacional de la  $F_1$ -ATPasa.

**RESULTADOS Y CONCLUSIONES.** 

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En el artículo y el manuscrito que se anexan, se muestan los resultados obtenidos a partir de los objetivos planteados anteriormente. Estos resultados se pueden resumir en los siguientes puntos.

- Primer trabajo:"Unisite hydrolysis of  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  by soluble mitochondrial F<sub>1</sub>-ATPase and its release by excess ADP and ATP. Effect of trifluoperazine. " Autores: José J. García, Armando Gómez-Puyou y Marietta Tuena de Gómez Puyou<sup>1</sup>.

La hidrólisis unisitio de  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP por la F<sub>1</sub>-ATPasa se inhibió parcialmente por TFP. Los efectos de la TFP en el ciclo catalítico de la enzima se observaron en dos etapas distintas: i) se encontró un incremento en el cociente  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP unido/<sup>32</sup>Pi unido respecto a la enzima control, que desfavorece a la hidrólisis unisitio, y ii) la TFP disminuye parcialmente la liberación del producto <sup>32</sup>Pi del sitio catalítico. Estos dos efectos contribuyen a la inhibición parcial de la actividad unisitio de la enzima. Respecto al efecto de la TFP en la cooperatividad positiva de la enzima, se encontró que inhibió en un 15% la transición de catálisis unisitio a multisitio de la F<sub>1</sub>-ATPasa, probablemente debido a la separación funcional de los sitios catalíticos en esta fracción de las enzimas. Debido a que la liberación del <sup>32</sup>Pi es un paso limitante en la catálisis unisitio, se esperaría que el efecto de la TFP en este paso fuera el de mayor contribución a la inhibición de la catálisis multisitio por la F<sub>1</sub>.

Estos resultados sugieren que la TFP inhibe a la ATPasa por un efecto en la velocidad de la catálisis en cada uno de los tres sitios catalíticos de la enzima, y no por una inactivación selectiva de uno o dos de los sitios activos de la F<sub>1</sub>.

Por otro lado, se encontró una observación importante al estudiar la aceleración de la catálisis unisitio por ADP. Este nucleótido aceleró la hidrólisis del [ $\gamma^{32}$ P]ATP previamente unido a la F<sub>1</sub> en condiciones unisitio, y produjo la liberación de una fracción del [ $\gamma^{32}$ P]ATP unido a la enzima. Este resultado muestra que la aceleración de catálisis unisitio por la F<sub>1</sub> puede producir dos reacciones opuestas: hidrólisis y liberación del [ $\gamma^{32}$ P]ATP desde el sitio catalítico de alta afinidad hacia el medio acuoso. Esta observación es relevante ya que la única reacción que se había detectado

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Este trabajo está publicado en el *Journal of Bioenergetics and Biomembranes* 29:61-70 (1997), y se realizó en su totalidad bajo la dirección, y en los laboratorios de los Dres. Marietta Tuena de Gómez Puyou, y Armando Gómez Puyou, en el instituto de Fisiología Celular de la UNAM

anteriormente durante la aceleración de catálisis de la F<sub>1</sub> soluble era la hidrólisis. La liberación del [ $\gamma^{32}$ P]ATP se había reportado solamente una vez con anterioridad en una mutante puntual de la F<sub>1</sub> de *E.coli* afectada en la cooperatividad positiva de la enzima (Al-Shawi *et al.*, 1989), pero nunca en una F<sub>1</sub>-ATPasa soluble totalmente funcional.

La importancia de la liberación del  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  de la F<sub>1</sub>, radica también en el carácter endergónico de la salida del ATP. Como se mencionó en la introducción, la liberación del ATP es la última fase de la reacción de síntesis de ATP, y se induce por el potencial electroquímico de protones en el complejo F<sub>0</sub>F<sub>1</sub>. Por lo tanto, este trabajo muestra que la energía de unión del ADP es suficiente para inducir la liberación del  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  unido a un sitio catalítico de alta afinidad de la F<sub>1</sub>-ATPasa soluble.

**Original** Article

# Unisite Hydrolysis of $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP by Soluble Mitochondrial F<sub>1</sub>-ATPase and Its Release by Excess ADP and ATP. Effect of Trifluoperazine

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Some of the characteristics of unisite hydrolysis of  $(\gamma^{32}P)ATP$  as well as the changes that occur on the transition to multisite catalysis were further studied. It was found that a fraction of  $\sqrt{12}$  platP bound at the catalytic sites of F, under unisite conditions undergoes both hydrolysis and release induced by medium nucleotides upon addition of millimolar concentrations of ADP or ATP. The fraction of  $(\gamma^{32}P)$ ATP that undergoes release is similar to the fraction that undergoes hydrolytic cleavage, indicating that the rates of the release and hydrolytic reactions of bound  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP are in the same range. As part of studies on the mechanisms through which trifluoperazine inhibits ATP hydrolysis, its effect on unisite hydrolysis of  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP was also studied. Trifluoperazine diminishes the rate of unisite hydrolysis by 30-40%. The inhibition is accompanied by a nearly tenfold increase in the ratio of  $(y^{32}P|ATP)$ <sup>32</sup>Pi bound at the catalytic site and a 50% diminution in the rate of  $^{32}$ Pi release from the enzyme into the media. Trifluoperazine also induces heterogeneity of the three catalytic sites of F, in the sense that in a fraction of F, molecules, the high-affinity catalytic site has a turnover rate lower than the other two. Trifluoperazine does not modify the release of previously bound  $\left[\gamma^{32}P\right]$ ATP induced by medium nucleotides. The latter indicates that hindrances in the release of Pi do not necesarily accompany alterations in the release of ATP even though both species lie in the same site.

KEY WORDS: ATP release; mitochondrial F<sub>1</sub>; trifluoperazine; unisite ATP hydrolysis.

### INTRODUCTION

The mitochondrial ATP synthase is formed by a membrane moiety ( $F_0$ ) that allows the coupling of electrochemical H<sup>+</sup> gradients to the synthesis of ATP by the catalytic portion,  $F_1$ . The latter may be obtained as a soluble protein that catalyzes the hydrolysis of ATP (Penefsky *et al.*, 1960). It is formed by five different subunits in a stoichiometry of  $3\alpha$ ,  $3\beta$ ,  $1\gamma$ ,  $1\delta$ ,  $1\epsilon$ , in order of decreasing molecular weight (Knowles and Penefsky, 1972a,b; Foster and Fillingame, 1982; Moradi-Améli and Godinot, 1983, Pedersen and Amzel,

1993). F<sub>1</sub> has six binding sites for adenine nucleotides, three of which possess catalytic properties (Garret and Penefsky, 1975: Cross and Nalin, 1982; Xue et al., 1987; Cross, 1988). Some years ago, the important observation was made (Grubmever and Penefsky, 1981; Grubmeyer et al., 1982) that at concentrations of ATP lower than those of the enzyme, F<sub>1</sub> catalyzed ATP hydrolysis through the function of only one catalytic site. The kinetics and thermodynamics of the various steps of unisite hydrolysis have been thoroughly studied (Grubmeyer et al., 1982; Cross et al., 1982; Al-Shawi and Senior, 1988; Al-Shawi et al., 1990; Cunningham and Cross, 1988). Also, sitedirected mutagenes in F<sub>1</sub> from E. coli (Duncan and Senior, 1985; Parsonage et al., 1987; Al-Shawi et al., 1989; Wood et al., 1987; Weber et al., 1994; Omote

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et al., 1995) and inhibitors of  $F_1$  have been used to gain insight into the steps of the catalytic cycle (Kandpal et al., 1985; Tommasino and Capaldi, 1985; Noumi et al., 1987a,b). The reaction sequence of unisite catalysis is

 $F_{1} + ATP \xrightarrow{F_{1}'ATP} F_{1}'ADP'F_{1} \xrightarrow{F_{1}'ADP'} F_{1} \xrightarrow{ADP} F_{1}$   $(1) \qquad (2) \qquad (3) \qquad (4)$ Scheme 1

Although F<sub>1</sub> can function with only one catalytic center, it has been extensively documented (Grubmeyer and Penefsky, 1981; Cross et al., 1982; Hackney and Bover, 1978; Hutton and Bover, 1979; O'Neal and Boyer, 1984) that the rate of unisite hydrolysis is accelerated approximately 105 times when excess ATP is added. This is due to an increase in the rates of substrate hydrolysis and product release from the catalytic site upon filling of the other catalytic sites, i.e., the alternating site mechanism of Bover et al. (Hackney and Boyer, 1978; Hutton and Boyer, 1979; Kayalar et al., 1977; Boyer, 1993). In confirmation of previous data (Grubmeyer and Penefsky, 1981; Cross et al., 1982; Hackney and Boyer, 1978; Hutton and Boyer, 1979; O'Neal and Boyer, 1984), it was found that under unisite hydrolysis of  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$ , the addition of excess ATP or ADP enhanced the rate of hydrolysis of  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP bound to the catalytic site: however, it was now observed that the addition of excess ATP (or ADP) caused the release of a fraction of the bound [y<sup>32</sup>P]ATP.

The effect of trifluoperazine (TFP)<sup>2</sup> on unisite ATP hydrolysis was also determined. This was because at saturating ATP concentrations, the maximal inhibition attained with TFP is approximately 70% (García *et al.*, 1995), and thus it was considered of interest to explore the mechanisms that lead to an enzyme that works at 30% of its maximal velocity. It was found that TFP inhibited by about 30% unisite hydrolysis; the inhibition was accompanied by an increase in the ratio of bound ATP/Pi at the catalytic site and a diminution in the rate of Pi release.

In the light of the data observed with and without TFP, it was studied if the alterations of steps 2 and 3 induced by TFP reflect on ATP release from the catalytic site induced by excess nucleotides. The results show that although TFP affects the rates of steps 2 and 3, the release of bound  $\{\gamma^{32}P\}ATP$  induced by medium nucleotides was not affected. This indicates that impairements in the release of one of the species (Pi) do not necessarily accompany modifications in the release of ATP, even though both share the same site.

### MATERIALS AND METHODS

All nonradioactive chemicals were from Sigma: <sup>32</sup>Pi was purchased from NEN and used without further purification for the preparation of  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  according to Glynn and Chappell (1964). Soluble F1 was prepared from bovine heart mitochondria as described elsewhere (Tuena de Gómez-Puyou and Gómez-Puyou, 1977); its ATPase activity at 24°C was 60-80 µmol per min per mg as measured spectrophotometrically at pH 8.0 (García et al., 1995). F, was stored at 4°C in a 50% ammonium sulfate suspension that contained 4 mM ATP and 2 mM EDTA, pH 7.4. Before use, the suspension was centrifuged and the pellet dissolved at a concentration of 5 mg per ml in 40 mM MES/Tris, 3 mM Mg-acetate, and 1 mM KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>, pH 8.0; the dissolved enzyme was passed by centrifugation through Sephadex G-50 columns (Grubmeyer and Penefsky, 1981) equilibrated with the same buffer. Protein in the eluate was determined according to Lowry et al., (1951) using bovine serum albumin as standard. TFP was freshly prepared for each experiment; its concentration was calculated using a molecular extinction coefficient of  $\log \epsilon = 4.5$  at 258 and nm (Post et al., 1980).

### **Unisite ATP Hydrolysis**

The standard buffer used in all unisite reactions contained 40 mM MES/Tris, 3 mM magnesium acetate, and 1 mM KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> adjusted to pH 8.0 with KOH. F<sub>1</sub>,  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP (1-2 × 10<sup>5</sup> cpm/nmol), TFP, and other reactants added during unisite hydrolysis were dissolved in this standard buffer. Unisite hydrolysis was started by mixing 100 µl of 2 µM F<sub>1</sub> with 100 µl of 0.6 µM [ $\gamma^{32}P$ ]ATP. At a ratio of 0.3 ATP/F<sub>1</sub> only the high-affinity hydrolytic site is filled (Grubmeyer *et al.*, 1982; Penefsky, 1988). In studies with TFP, this was added at the desired concentration in both the buffer and enzyme solutions. At various times, the reaction was arrested by mixing with 0.3 ml 8.3% trichloroacetic acid. When the transition of unisite to multisite hydrolysis was studied, Mg-ATP or Mg-ADP (5 mM

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Abbreviations: EDTA, ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid: MES. 2[N-morpholino]ethanesulfonic acid; TFP, trifluoperazine; Tris, tris[hydroxymethyl]aminomethane.

### Release of [7<sup>32</sup>P]ATP by F1-ATPase in Unisite-to-Multisite Transitions. Effect of TFP

final concentration) was added to the unisite reaction mixture (cold chase), and at various times, the reaction was arrested with trichloroacetic acid (5% final concentration). The final volume of the arrested samples was 0.5 or 1.0 ml; to these 0.5 ml of 3.3% ammonium molybdate dissolved in 3.75 N H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> and 0.2 ml of acetone were added. The resulting phosphomolybdate complex was extracted with 1 ml of butyl acetate; the organic phase was discarded and the extraction repeated two more times. From the radioactivity of the aqueous phase the amount of  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP that remained was calculated.

# Binding of [ $\gamma^{32}$ P]ATP and <sup>32</sup>Pi to F<sub>1</sub> during Unisite Hydrolysis

To this purpose, 55 or 110 µl of soluble F<sub>1</sub> (2-4  $\mu$ M) was mixed with equal volumes of  $(\gamma^{32}P)ATP$  $(0.6-1.2 \mu M, respectively)$ . At the desired times, the mixture was passed by centrifugation (1.5 min) through Sephadex G-50 columns equilibrated with the unisite buffer without ATP; when the effect of TFP was explored, the equilibrating buffer also contained TFP. The eluates were received in 100 µl of 10% SDS. An aliquot was used to measure protein, and the rest divided into two portions. One was used to determine total radioactivity (<sup>32</sup>Pi +  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$ ) bound to F<sub>1</sub>; the other was extracted three times with butyl acetate after formation of the phosphomolybdate complex as described above. The radioactivity of the remaining aqueous phase was used to calculate the amount of bound  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$ ; from the difference of the total radioactivity and that of  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$ , the amount of <sup>32</sup>Pi bound to F<sub>1</sub> was calculated. The eluate of buffer without F<sub>1</sub> contained 1-2% of the total radioactivity introduced.

### Rate Constant of <sup>32</sup>Pi Release

This was determined by incubation of 100  $\mu$ l mixtures of { $\gamma^{32}$ P}ATP with F<sub>1</sub> under unisite conditions with and without TFP. After 20 s the mixtures were passed through Sephadex centrifugation columns and the eluate received in 0.1 ml of 10% SDS (time zero in the experiments). Identical samples of the unisite mixtures were also passed through the centrifuge columns; these eluates were received in empty tubes. At the indicated times (see Results section), the latter eluates were again passed by centrifugation through

Sephadex columns and received in SDS for determination of protein, total radioactivity, and its distribution into  ${}^{32}P$  and  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  as described above. The decrease in the amount of  ${}^{32}P$  bound to  $F_1$  in the second eluates was used to calculate the rate of  ${}^{32}P$  release.

### Release of Bound [732P]ATP after a Cold Chase

This was determined by incubating F<sub>1</sub> with  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  under unisite conditions, followed by the addition of 5 mM ADP, 10 mM glucose, and 1 mg/ml of hexokinase (360 units). After 5 min, the reaction was arrested with HCl 1.3 N final concentration. The samples were placed in boiling water at 90-93°C for 30 min in order to hydrolyze the existing  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP. Thereafter, the samples were extracted with butyl acetate after formation of the phosphomolybdate complex (see above). The radioactivity that remained in the aqueous phase after the heat treatment ([<sup>32</sup>P]glucose-6-phosphate) was considered to correspond to  $\gamma^{32}$ PATP that became accessible to hexokinase in the cold chase. Control experiments showed that after heat treatment, less than 1% of  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  remained and that at least 98% [32P]glucose-6-phosphate was heat resistant. Other control experiments showed that all  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP added to a mixture that contained hexokinase and glucose (with and without F<sub>1</sub>) was trapped as [<sup>32</sup>P]glucose-6-phosphate and that 5 mM MgADP did not interfere with hexokinase.

### RESULTS

At saturating concentrations of ATP, TFP modifies the kinetics of the ATPase activity of F1. It diminishes the  $V_{max}$  by approximately 70%, whereas the  $K_m$  for Mg-ATP is increased from 0.1 to 0.2 mM (García et al., 1995). In consequence, TFP diminishes  $V_{max}/K_m$ by about twofold. To probe into the mechanisms that lead to an enzyme that works with 50% efficiency, the effect of TFP on unisite ATP hydrolysis was determined. Figure 1 shows the hydrolysis of 0.3  $\mu M$  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  by 1  $\mu M$  F<sub>1</sub>, with and without TFP. In a time course, an initial rapid burst of hydrolysis was followed by a slower rate of ATP breakdown. The initial burst reflects the velocity of binding of ATP to the catalytic site and the establishment of an equilibrium between hydrolysis and synthesis of bound  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP. The slower phase is a state in which <sup>32</sup>Pi is produced and slowly released into the media (GrubTime (sec) Fig. 1. Unisite hydrolysis of  $(\gamma^{32}P)ATP$  by F<sub>1</sub>. Effect of TFP. Unisite hydrolysis was measured as described under Materials and Methods. At zero time, 100 µl of 2 µM F<sub>1</sub> was mixed with 100 µl of 0.6 µM  $(\gamma^{32}P)ATP$ . Where indicated, the mixtures contained 100 µM TFP. At the times shown, the reaction was stopped with 5% trichloroacetic acid final concentration and diluted to a volume of 0.5 ml. After extracting <sup>32</sup>P<sub>1</sub>, the amount of remaining  $(\gamma^{22}P)ATP$  was determined.

meyer et al., 1982); this was inhibited by TFP by 38% (average of five identical experiments  $\pm$  8.3).

## Distribution of bound ATP and Pi at the Catalytic Site

The decrease in the rate of unisite  $\left[\gamma^{32}P\right]ATP$ hydrolysis induced by TFP suggested that in its presence the amount of ATP that bound to F<sub>1</sub> was lower, or that TFP hindered the breakdown of bound  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$ . Therefore, F<sub>1</sub> was incubated under conditions for unisite hydrolysis with and without TFP, and at different times, the mixtures were passed by centrifugation through Sephadex columns. Analysis of the eluate showed that in both cases, most of the radioactivity introduced (0.3 mol/mol F<sub>1</sub>) had bound to the enzyme (Figs. 2 and 3). Hence, TFP did not interfere with ATP binding. However, when the distribution of the radioactive label into 32Pi and [y32P]ATP was determined, a significant difference between the two samples became apparent. TFP shifted the distribution of <sup>32</sup>P between [ $\gamma^{32}$ P]ATP and [<sup>32</sup>P]Pi bound towards  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$ . The shift to a higher ATP/Pi ratio at the catalytic site could be observed at concentrations of TFP as low as 5  $\mu$ M (Fig. 3). This shift was likely due to the binding of TFP to a high-affinity site of F<sub>1</sub>, since with 5  $\mu$ M TFP, the ratio of TFP/F<sub>1</sub> was 2.5.

### Release of <sup>32</sup>Pi From the Catalytic Site

Under unisite conditions, there is continuous synthesis and hydrolysis of ATP at the catalytic site (Hackney and Boyer, 1978; Kayalar et al., 1977). Thus, it was studied if the change induced by TFP on the ratio of ATP/Pi at the catalytic site was related to the rate at which Pi is released from the enzyme into the media. Accordingly, F<sub>1</sub> was incubated under unisite conditions with and without TFP for 20 s and thereafter passed through Sephadex centrifugation columns: F, in the eluate contained [v<sup>32</sup>P]ATP and <sup>32</sup>Pi (Fig. 4). In order to determine the rate of Pi release, aliquots of identical eluates were filtered again at different times through Sephadex columns. In accordance with the reported value of  $3 \times 10^{-3}$  s<sup>-1</sup> (Grubmever *et al.*, 1982), the rate constant of Pi release in control F, was  $3.1 \times$  $10^{-3}$  s<sup>-1</sup>; with TFP, this decreased to  $1.7 \times 10^{-3}$  s<sup>-1</sup> (an inhibition of 45%). In both cases, the data fitted a first-order equation (Fig. 4). The reason why this decrease is slightly (7%) higher than the inhibition of unisite hydrolysis by TFP (see above) is not clear.

### Transition of Unisite to Multisite Catalysis

One of the most notable features of F<sub>1</sub>-ATPase is its strong positive cooperativity (Grubmeyer and Penefsky, 1981; Cross et al., 1982; Hackney and Boyer 1978; O'Neal and Boyer, 1984). In fact, the addition of high concentrations of ATP to F<sub>1</sub> catalyzing unisite hydrolysis increases 30 times the rate of hydrolysi at the catalytic site, whereas that of product release increases by a factor of 10<sup>5</sup> (Cross et al., 1982; Cun ningham and Cross, 1988; Penefsky and Cross, 1991 In consonance with these data, Fig. 5 shows that th addition of saturating ATP concentrations to F<sub>1</sub> under going unisite catalysis produced a rapid breakdow of the bound  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$ . However, not all the boun [y<sup>32</sup>P]ATP was hydrolyzed after introduction of exce ATP. After the hydrolytic burst (one second after th addition of excess ATP), about 30% of the  $[\gamma^{32}P]AT$ introduced at the beginning of the experiment was n hydrolyzed. In TFP-treated  $F_1$ , the cold chase al: produced a burst of hydrolysis; however, in this cas the sum of  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP hydrolyzed during unisite hydr lysis and the hydrolysis attained in the first second after the cold chase was lower than in control F<sub>1</sub>. T data of Fig. 5 also show that with or without TFP, t rapid burst of hydrolysis induced by excess ATP w followed by a slower rate of hydrolysis of  $[\gamma^{32}P]A$ 





Fig. 2. Amount of  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  and  $^{32}P_i$  bound to F, under unisite conditions. Effect of TFP. Unisite hydrolysis was started by mixing 55  $\mu$ l of 2  $\mu$ M F, with 55  $\mu$ l of 0.6  $\mu$ M  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$ . At the indicated times, 100  $\mu$ l of the mixture was passed through centrifuge columns. The eluates were received in 100  $\mu$ l 10% SDS and the amount of protein,  $^{32}P_i$ , and  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  was determined as described under Materials and Methods. The left and right panels show experiments without and with 100  $\mu$ M TFP, respectively. (0,0) total  $^{32}P$  ( $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP + {}^{32}P_i$ ), (0,0)  $^{32}P_i$ , and ( $(\Delta, \Delta)$ ) ( $\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  bound at the catalytic site.



Fig. 3. Effect of different concentrations of TFP on the  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  to  $^{32}Pi$  ratio at the catalytic site of F<sub>1</sub> undergoing unsite hydrolysis. Unsite hydrolysis was started by mixing 110 µl of 4 µM F<sub>1</sub> with 110 µl of 1.2 µM  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  that contained the indicated final concentrations of TFP. Ten seconds later, 100-µl samples were passed through Sephadex columns containing the same concentration of TFP and the eluate was received in 100 µl 10% SDS. In the latter, the amount of protein, total  $^{32}P$  ( $\phi$ ),  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  ( $\infty$ ), and  $^{32}Pi$  ( $\Delta$ ) were determined; ( $\blacksquare$ ) ratio of  $^{32}Pi/[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  at the catalytic site.



Fig. 4. Rate of Pi release from F<sub>1</sub> catalyzing unisite hydrolysis of  $\{\gamma^{32}P\}ATP$ . Effect of TFP. Unisite hydrolysis was initiated by mixing 110 µl 4 µM F<sub>1</sub> with 110 µl of 1.2 µM  $\{\gamma^{32}P\}ATP$ , with and without 100 µM TFP. The experimental details are described under Materials and Methods. At time zero, the samples without and with TFP contained 0.15 and 0.025 nmol of <sup>32</sup>Pi per nmol of F<sub>1</sub>. The logarithm of the fraction of bound <sup>32</sup>Pi remaining at different times is plotted against time. From the slope of the decrease in the amount of <sup>32</sup>Pi bound to F<sub>1</sub>, the first-order rate constants were calculated. The values obtained were 3.1 × 10<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> and 1.7 × 10<sup>-3</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> for the control and the TFP treated samples, respectively.



Fig. 5. Transition from unisite to multisite hydrolysis. Effect of TFP. Unisite hydrolysis was measured as in Fig. 1 (2  $\mu$ M F<sub>1</sub> and 0.6  $\mu$ M ( $\gamma^{3}P$ ]ATP) and was allowed to proceed for 25 s; at this time 100  $\mu$ l of 15 mM Mg-ATP was added to give a final 5 mM concentration of Mg-ATP in the cold chase. At the times indicated the reaction was arrested with trichloroacetic acid. <sup>32</sup>Pi was extracted as described and the amount of [ $\gamma^{32}P$ ]ATP remaining was determined. The results show the percent of total [ $\gamma^{32}P$ ]ATP hydrolyzed.

These results suggested that the portion of the bound  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  that was not hydrolyzed in 1 s after the cold chase was released and mixed with medium ATP, which thereafter underwent hydrolysis. In the presence of TFP, the rate of  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  hydrolysis that followed the hydrolytic burst was lower than in control F<sub>1</sub>, as expected from the inhibiting effect of TFP on ATP hydrolysis at saturating substrate concentrations (de Meis *et al.*, 1988; García *et al.*, 1995).

## Hydrolysis and Release of $(\gamma^{32}P)$ ATP Bound under Unisite Conditions

The possibility that in a cold chase a portion of the  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  bound at the catalytic site could be released into the medium and mixed with cold nucleotides was directly determined. In F<sub>1</sub> loaded with  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  under unisite conditions, the introduction of millimolar concentrations of ADP (similarly to ATP) induces a burst of hydrolysis of previously bound  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  (Grubmeyer and Penefsky, 1981). Hence, excess ADP together with hexokinase plus glucose was added to F<sub>1</sub> undergoing unisite hydrolysis of  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$ . As the activity of hexokinase introduced was in a tenfold excess over the hydrolytic activity of F<sub>1</sub>, most of the  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  released from the enzyme upon the addition of ADP would be trapped by hexokinase, yielding  $[^{32}P]$ glucose-6-phosphate. Under unisite conditions, only about 2% of the total  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  that had been introduced was accessible to hexokinase (Fig. 6). At this state, the addition of ADP + hexokinase produced a burst of hydrolysis of about 20% of the enzyme bound  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$ ; the rest was found as  $[^{32}P]g]ucose-6$ -phosphate. Thus, upon the addition of ADP, close to 30% of the bound  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  became accessible to hexokinase, which indicates that this fraction of the previously bound  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  had the capacity to be released into the medium when excess ADP is added. A release of  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  of similar magnitude was observed in the presence of TFP.

In order to further discard the possibility that any free  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  could contribute to the formation of [<sup>32</sup>P]glucose-6-phosphate induced by ADP (Fig. 6), a control experiment was made in which previous to the addition of excess ADP (± glucose-hexokinase), F (1 µM) was mixed with 0.3 µM [v<sup>32</sup>P]ATP and 15 s later the mixture was filtered through Sephadex columns. Ten seconds after filtration, the eluted enzyme retained almost half of added [y<sup>32</sup>P]ATP (0.142 mol/ mol F<sub>1</sub>). Of this bound nucleotide, 70% (0.1 mol/mol F<sub>1</sub>) was hydrolyzed in 2 s after adding excess MgADP; 30% (0.042 mol/mol Fi) was released by MgADP and trapped by hexokinase-glucose, and 3% (0.004 mol/ mol F<sub>1</sub>) was accessible to hexokinase in the absence of MgADP. Thus, as observed with the unfiltered enzyme (Fig. 6), the fraction of  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  not committed to rapid hydrolysis was also trapped by hexokinase ir filtered F<sub>1</sub> undergoing unisite hydrolysis.

The overall results of Figure 6 show that the fraction of  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  that underwent hydrolysis nearly equalled the fraction that is released by medium nucle otides. This indicates that notwithstanding the presence of TFP, the rate of  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  release was as fast a that of the splitting reaction (approximately 300 s<sup>-1</sup> see Penefsky, 1988). However, it is pointed out that in the presence of TFP, after 2 s of applying a colchase with either ADP or ATP. about 15% of enzym bound [y<sup>32</sup>P]ATP was not hydrolyzed, and not release into the media (Fig. 7). Nonetheless, this  $[\gamma^{32}P]AT$ was at a catalytic site as illustrated by the followin experiment. To F<sub>1</sub> catalyzing unisite hydrolysis c  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  for 25 s in the presence of TFP, an AT chase was applied; at 35 s the samples were filtere through Sephadex columns as in Fig. 7. A sample the was received in SDS had 0.025 nmol ATP per nmo F<sub>1</sub>. Identical samples were received in empty tube and quenched with SDS; after 5 min the ATP conte decreased to 0.003 nmol per F<sub>1</sub>; after 15 min, no AT was detected. The failure of a fraction of previous



Fig. 6. Hydrolysis and release of  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP bound to F. under unisite conditions after a cold chase. Effect of TFP, F1 was incubated under unisite conditions (6 µM F1 and 1.8 µM [y32P]ATP). After 25 s, the reaction was either guenched with HCI (1.3 N, final concentration), or supplemented with 15 mM MgATP or 15 mM MgADP (5 mM final concentrations) as indicated. After 2 s the reaction was stopped with HCI; afterwards, the amount of remaining (y<sup>32</sup>P)ATP was determined (open bars). In separate samples, after 25 seconds of hydrolysis, the unisite mixture was supplemented with 5 mM MgADP, 30 mM glucose, and 350 units per ml of hexokinase (HK) (final concentrations); after 5 min the reaction was quenched with HCI. The amount of [y<sup>32</sup>P]ATP that remained and [<sup>32</sup>P]glucose-6-phosphate formed (filled bars) was determined as described under Materials and Methods. The first two bars (left side) show the amount of  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP hydrolyzed at 25 s of incubation. Where indicated, the mixtures contained 100 µM TFP throughout the various treatments. Note that after a cold chase with Mg-ADP + hexokinase, the totality of the radioactivity was accounted for, either as [y<sup>32</sup>P]ATP or [<sup>32</sup>P] glucose-6-phosphate, whereas in the presence of TFP, 15%  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP was not hydrolyzed, nor trapped by hexokinase.

bound ATP to undergo release or hydrolysis after repeated turnovers after a cold chase suggests that TFP produces a heterogeneity of hydrolytic sites. Functional and structural heterogeneity of catalytic sites has been reported (Melese and Boyer, 1985; Beltrán *et al.*, 1988; Bullough *et al.*, 1987; Fromme and Gräber, 1989; Matsuno-Yagi and Hatefi, 1990; Bragg and Hou, 1990; Shapiro and McCarty, 1990; Abrahams *et al.*, 1994). It is also evident that in the presence of TFP, the site that retains and slowly hydrolyzes bound  $\{\gamma^{22}P\}ATP$  exhibits a high affinity for ATP, otherwise it would have been released into the media.

### DISCUSSION

In confirmation of reported data (Grubmeyer and Penefsky, 1981; Grubmeyer et al., 1982; Cross et al., 1982; Penefsky, 1988), it was observed that at concen-

trations of ATP lower than F<sub>1</sub> concentrations, ATP rapidly binds to the enzyme and thereafter undergoes slow hydrolysis: in this state, excess ATP produces a rapid cleavage of a 70-80% portion of enzyme-bound  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  as the consequence of an enhancement in its rate of hydrolysis and an increase in the rate of product release (Grubmever et al., 1982; Cross et al., 1982; Penefsky, 1985, 1988; Souid and Penefsky, 1995 and Fig. 5); Penefsky (1988) suggested that the 20-30% portion of  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  that is not rapidly hydrolyzed was due to enzyme heterogeneity. However, in the present experiments we observed that in the transition of uni- to multisite hydrolysis, a fraction of approximately 30% of the bound [y<sup>32</sup>P]ATP is released into the media. This illustrates that upon addition of excess ADP or ATP,  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  bound at the catalytic site under unisite conditions can follow two pathways, i.e., hydrolysis or release. This indicates that the reported unisite rates of ATP binding and


Fig. 6. Hydrolysis and release of  $(\gamma^{32}P)$ ATP bound to F<sub>1</sub> under unisite conditions after a cold chase. Effect of TFP. F1 was incubated under unisite conditions (6 µM F<sub>1</sub> and 1.8 µM [y<sup>32</sup>P]ATP). After 25 s, the reaction was either quenched with HCI (1.3 N, final concentration), or supplemented with 15 mM MgATP or 15 mM MgADP (5 mM final concentrations) as indicated. After 2 s the reaction was stopped with HCl; afterwards, the amount of remaining  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  was determined (open bars). In separate samples, after 25 seconds of hydrolysis, the unisite mixture was supplemented with 5 mM MgADP, 30 mM glucose, and 350 units per ml of hexokinase (HK) (final concentrations); after 5 min the reaction was guenched with HCl. The amount of  $(\gamma^{32}P)$ ATP that remained and  $(\gamma^{32}P)$ glucose-6-phosphate formed (filled bars) was determined as described under Materials and Methods. The first two bars (left side) show the amount of  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP hydrolyzed at 25 s of incubation. Where indicated, the mixtures contained 100 µM TFP throughout the various treatments. Note that after a cold chase with Mg-ADP + hexokinase, the totality of the radioactivity was accounted for, either as  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  or  $[^{32}P]$  glucose-6-phosphate, whereas in the presence of TFP, 15%  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP was not hydrolyzed, nor trapped by hexokinase.

bound ATP to undergo release or hydrolysis after repeated turnovers after a cold chase suggests that TFP produces a heterogeneity of hydrolytic sites. Functional and structural heterogeneity of catalytic sites has been reported (Melese and Boyer, 1985; Beltrán *et al.*, 1988; Bullough *et al.*, 1987; Fromme and Gräber, 1989; Matsuno-Yagi and Hatefi, 1990; Bragg and Hou, 1990; Shapiro and McCarty, 1990; Abrahams *et al.*, 1994). It is also evident that in the presence of TFP, the site that retains and slowly hydrolyzes bound  $[\gamma^{22}P]$ ATP exhibits a high affinity for ATP, otherwise it would have been released into the media.

### DISCUSSION

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In confirmation of reported data (Grubmeyer and Penefsky, 1981; Grubmeyer et al., 1982; Cross et al., 1982; Penefsky, 1988), it was observed that at concen-

trations of ATP lower than F<sub>1</sub> concentrations, ATP rapidly binds to the enzyme and thereafter undergoes slow hydrolysis; in this state, excess ATP produces a rapid cleavage of a 70-80% portion of enzyme-bound  $(\gamma^{32}P)ATP$  as the consequence of an enhancement in its rate of hydrolysis and an increase in the rate of product release (Grubmeyer et al., 1982; Cross et al., 1982; Penefsky, 1985, 1988; Souid and Penefsky, 1995 and Fig. 5); Penefsky (1988) suggested that the 20-30% portion of  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  that is not rapidly hydrolyzed was due to enzyme heterogeneity. However, in the present experiments we observed that in the transition of uni- to multisite hydrolysis, a fraction of approximately 30% of the bound  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  is released into the media. This illustrates that upon addition of excess ADP or ATP,  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP bound at the catalytic site under unisite conditions can follow two pathways, i.e., hydrolysis or release. This indicates that the reported unisite rates of ATP binding and



Fig. 7. Amount of  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  bound and  $^{32}Pi$  bound to F<sub>1</sub> after acceleration of unisite hydrolysis by cold chases. F<sub>1</sub> (50 µl, 6 µM) was mixed with  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  (50 µl, 1.8 µM) to start unisite hydrolysis. After 25 s, 100 µl of unisite buffer (no chase), 10 mM MgATP, or 10 mM MgADP were added to give 5 mM final concentrations of cold nucleotides. At the times shown, samples were filtered through centrifuge columns, and the amount of  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$ , <sup>332</sup>P<sub>1</sub> and protein eluted from the columns were measured as described in Figs. 2–4 and in Materials and Methods. The upper panel shows the total radioactivity bound to F<sub>1</sub>, the middle panel shows the amount of  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$ , and the lower panel the amount of  $^{33}Pi$ . Control experiments are shown in white bars, and the experiments made in the presence of 100 µM TFP in shaded bars.

hydrolysis in F, would be slightly underestimated. since these values have been calculated assuming that none of the bound  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  is released into the media. In fact, in particulate F<sub>1</sub>, Suoid and Penefsky (1995) found a value of  $2.3 \times 10^5 \,\mathrm{M^{-1} \, s^{-1}}$  for ATP binding measured by the cold chase technique which increased to  $8 \times 10^5 \,\mathrm{M}^{-1} \,\mathrm{s}^{-1}$  when measured with a hexokinase trap. It is important to mention that a release of bound  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  under unisite conditions induced by excess ATP has been previously detected by a hexokinase trap; this release was observed in a mutant of F<sub>1</sub> from E. coli (B-M209I) in which the unisite hydrolysis and the transition from unisite to multisite catalysis are impaired. This mutant was thought to promote the release of bound  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  by the binding of medium ATP at a second or third catalytic site (Al-Shawi et al., 1989).

### García, Gómez-Puyou, and Gómez-Puyou

This work also probed the mechanisms through which TFP (de Meis et al., 1988; García et al., 1995). similarly to other amphipatic cations (Palatini, 1982; Adade et al., 1984; Chazotte et al., 1982; Laikind and Allison, 1983; Bullough et al., 1989), produces a partial inhibition of ATP hydrolysis at saturating substrate concentrations. It was found that unisite catalysis was partially inhibited by TFP, and that TFP diminished the rate of Pi release during unisite catalysis. As the inhibiting effect of TFP on ATP synthesis, and hydrolysis at saturating ADP or ATP concentrations is prevented by Pi in a competitive form (de Meis et al., 1988; García et al., 1995), it is likely that TFP acts by hindering the movements of Pi to and from the catalytic site. Rosing et al. (1977) and Al-Shawi et al. (1990) showed that the partition of Pi from the media into the catalytic site requires a fairly large energy input, which implies that the release of Pi from the catalytic site is energetically favorable. Therefore, it is likely that TFP acts by imposing kinetic impairements to the partition of Pi between the media and the catalytic site. This alteration could account for the inhibition of ATP hydrolysis induced by TFP; however, it is noted that TFP also increases the ratio of ATP/Pi bound to the high-affinity catalytic site of F<sub>1</sub>, and induces a heterogeneity of the catalytic sites, which may also contribute to its inhibiting effect on ATP hydrolysis. In other conditions, heterogeneity of catalytic sites has also been observed (Bullough et al., 1987: Vázquez-Laslop and Drevfus, 1990: Murataliev and Bover, 1994). An increase in the ATP/Pi ratios at the catalytic site during unisite conditions was also observed by Al-Shawi et al. (1989) in mutants of the B from E. coli in which amino acids located at or near the catalytic site were substituted by less polar residues. Thus, as previously suggested (de Meis et al., 1988; de Meis, 1989), it is possible that TFP increases the hydrophobicity of the catalytic site. thereby shifting the equilibrium between ATP and ADP + Pi.

Taken together, the data of this work show (i) that in the transition of unisite to multisite hydrolysis, a fraction of the previously bound ATP is released by medium nucleotides, and (ii) that in unisite conditions, TFP imposes hindrances in Pi release and increases the ratio of ATP/Pi at the catalytic site. Hence, it was asked if the change in ATP/Pi ratio and the hindrances in Pi release from the catalytic site induced by excess adenine nucleotides. The results showed that the amoun of bound  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP that is released by medium nucleo

tides, as well as the initial entrance of  $(\gamma^{32}P)ATP$  into the catalytic site, were nearly of the same extent with and without TFP. However, the rate of Pi release was 50% lower in the presence of TFP. A similar pattern in the effect of TFP is observed in multisite hydrolysis and respiration-driven ATP synthesis; TFP lowers the V<sub>max</sub> of ATP hydrolysis with only a moderate increase in the K<sub>m</sub> for ATP, whereas the inhibition of ATP synthesis driven by electron transport is observed only at relatively low Pi concentrations (García et al., 1995). Therefore, the results in soluble and particulate F<sub>1</sub> indicate that TFP induces alterations in the partition of Pi between the media and the enzyme; however, the results also show that these alterations do not accompany modifications of the partition of ATP, albeit both Pi and ATP occupy the same catalytic site. In this respect, it is pointed out that Al-Shawi and Senior (1992) indicated that the environment of the catalytic site in unisite catalysis is more hydrophobic when it is occupied with ATP than when it has ADP. Therefore. it is possible that these differences in hydrophobicity of the catalytic site are related to different pathways of partition of the two species. ATP and Pi, into and from the catalytic site.

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- Segundo trabajo: "Acceleration of unisite catalysis of mitochondrial  $F_1$ -ATPase by ATP, ADP and pyrophosphate: hydrolysis and release of the previously bound  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP". Autores: José J. García, Armando Gómez-Puyou, Ernesto Maldonado y Marietta Tuena de Gómez Puyou.<sup>2</sup>

En este trabajo se determinaron algunos de los factores que pueden inducir tanto la hidrólisis como la liberación del (v<sup>32</sup>PIATP del sitio catalítico de alta afinidad de la F1, durante la inducción de su cooperatividad positiva. Por un lado, se encontró un nuevo inductor alostérico de la hidrólisis unisitio de  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  catalizada por la F<sub>1</sub> soluble; el PPi. Además, se encontró que el PPi (5 mM) no induce la reacción de liberación del [y<sup>32</sup>PIATP, Por otro lado, también se determinó que el ATP es un inductor tanto de la hidrólisis como de la liberación del (v<sup>32</sup>PIATP unido a la F, en condiciones unisitio. Este resultado es importante porque en el primer trabajo solamente se había demostrado que la liberación era inducida por ADP. Sin embargo, el resultado más interesante de este trabajo fue que la hidrólisis y la liberación del  $(\sqrt{32}P)ATP$  se induieron con diferente afinidad por un mismo nucleótido. Es decir, a concentraciones  $\leq$  10 µM, el ADP y el ATP produjeron substancialmente la hidrólisis de ( $v^{2}$ PIATP, sin inducir significativamente la liberación de éste hacia el medio. Para inducir la liberación se necesitó agregar concentraciones de ADP o de ATP  $\geq$  10 µM. Esto implica que la población total de moléculas de  $F_1$  que están realizando hidrólisis unisitio de ( $\sqrt{32}$ PIATP. puede separarse en dos fracciones de moléculas al agregar un exceso de ADP o de ATP: un 50 % de las enzimas inducen la hidrólisis del [y<sup>32</sup>PIATP a mayor velocidad que su liberación, con una mayor afinidad aparente por los nucleótidos; y otro 50 % de enzimas que inducen la liberación del substrato a mayor velocidad que su hidrólisis.

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Este trabajo está en proceso de revisión, y se comenzó en los laboratorios de los Dres. M. Tuena de Gómez Puyou y A. Gómez Puyou, en el Instituto de Fisiología Celular de la UNAM. Un 60 % restante del trabajo experimental se continuó y se concluyó en el Departamento de Bioquímica del Instituto Nacional de Cardiología, en el laborationo del presente tesista.

## DISCUSION Y PERSPECTIVAS

Son varias las aportaciones que se desprenden de los resultados anteriores. A conticuación se discutirán por separado los efectos de la TFP en la catálsis unisitio de la F<sub>1</sub>, y la liberación del [ $\gamma^{32}$ P]ATP inducida por ADP y ATP.

## Mecanismo de acción de la TFP como inhibidor de la F1-ATPasa.

En el primer trabajo de esta tesia, se encontró en cuáles pasos del ciclo catalítico unisitio de la F1 soluble es en donde actúa la TFP como un inhibidor parcial. Este es un avance importante para el entendimiento del mecanismo de inhibición de los cationes anfipáticos, dado que no se habían reportado estudios similares con otros inhibidores de este tipo. Los dos pasos catalíticos que disminuyó la TFP fueron el equilibrio  ${}^{32}$ Pi/ $\Gamma_{V}{}^{32}$ PIATP unidos a la enzima, y la velocidad de liberación de Pi. En comparación con los efectos de la TFP en la catálisis multisitio, se puede señalar que el efecto en el cociente <sup>32</sup>PI/Гу<sup>32</sup>PIATP se obtuvo a concentraciones muy baias de TFP (desde 5 uM). Sin embargo, la inhibicón de la catálisis multisitio se obtiene de manera significative a concentraciones de TFP mayores a 5 uM (García et al., 1995). Por lo tanto, el efecto de la TFP en la velocidad de salida del Pi parece ser el más importante para inhibir tanto la catálisis unisitio como la hidrólsis multisitio de ATP. Esta interpretación concuerda con el hecho de que la inhibición de la hidrólsis multisitio de la F1 soluble se revierte con Pi (de Meis et al., 1988). Además, se sabe que en la síntesis de ATP catalizada por el complejo FoF1, el efecto de la TFP es competitivo con Pi (García et al., 1995). En resumen, hay varias semejanzas que se pueden señalar entre la inhibición por TFP de la hidrólisis unisitio y multisitio catalizadas por la F1-ATPasa: 1) inhibición parcial de la actividad; 2) efecto no competitivo con ATP: v 3) efecto en la partición del Pi hacia y desde los sitios catalíticos de la F1. Estas semejanzas sugieren fuertemente que la TFP afecta de manera parcial a los tres sitios catalíticos de la F1 soluble, disminuyendo la velocidad de salida del Pi durante la hidrólisis, y la velocidad de entrada de Pi durante la síntesis de ATP. Además, los datos también sugieren que la TFP induce una ligera disminución en la comunicación alostérica de los sitios catalíticos de la enzima.

Los efectos de varios cationes afipáticos y anestésicos locales, como la TFP, en la actividad de la F<sub>1</sub> suelen tener características similares. Entre estas similitudes se hallan las siguientes: inhibición parcial no competitiva con ATP, sensibilidad al Mg, Ki en el intervalo  $\mu$ M, sensibilidad al pH y dependencia respecto a la hidrofobicidad del inhibidor (Vanderkooi *et al.*, 1981;Chazotte *et al.*, 1982; Palatini, 1982; Adade *et al.*, 1984; de Meis *et al.*, 1988; García *et al.*, 1995). Con base en estas propiedades comunes, se puede sugerir que el mecanismo por el cual la TFP inhibe a la catálisis unisitio y multisitio de la F<sub>1</sub>, podría ser el mismo por el cual actúa el resto de los cationes anfipáticos y anestésicos locales para inhibir la actividad de esta enzima.

Hidrólisis y liberación del  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP unido al sitio catalítico de alta afinidad de la  $F_{1-}$ ATPasa inducidas por ATP, ADP y PPi. Un modelo de catálisis rotacional que explica la hidrólisis y la liberación.

La pregunta que surge de los presentes resultados es acerca del mecanismo por el cual el ADP o el ATP inducen la liberación del [v<sup>32</sup>PIATP unido al aitio catalítico de alta afinidad de la F1. Los resultados muestran que la hidrólisis y la liberación del ATP ocurre en diferentes fracciones de las moléculas de F1, y que ambas fracciones pueden expresarse diferencialmente gracias a sus diferentes afinidades por ATP. ADP y PPi. Sin embargo, no se constesta cuál es el mecanismo por el cual, el ADP o el ATP inducen la hidrólisis o la liberación del (v<sup>32</sup>PIATP. Entender este mecanismo será un acercamiento para entender cómo se expresa la etapa final de la síntesis de ATP por el complejo F<sub>2</sub>F<sub>1</sub>. Una manera de extender estos estudios a condiciones más fisiológicas, es determinar cómo se induce la liberación del  $[\gamma^{32}$ PIATP del complejo F<sub>2</sub>F<sub>1</sub> acoplado. Algunos antecedentes muestran que tal liberación se induce por ADP, como se observó con la F<sub>1</sub> soluble en este trabajo. Sin embargo la liberación del  $1\sqrt{3^2}$ PIATP unido al compleio  $F_0F_1$  inducida por ADP ocurrió de una manera estrictamente dependiente de la presencia de un gradiente electroquímico de protones (Souid y Penefsky, 1995). La pregunta importante es entonces cómo es que esta liberación ocurre en la F<sub>1</sub> soluble en respuesta a la energía de unión de los nucleótidos y en ausencia del gradiende de protones. Es posible que algunos cambios conformacionales (o rotacionales) que ocurren durante la inducción de la liberación del

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 $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  esten limitados cinéticamente en el complejo F<sub>0</sub>F<sub>1</sub>, y que en la F<sub>1</sub> soluble tales cambios puedan ocurrir sin restricciones cinéticas. Sin embargo, también existe la posibilidad de que la liberación del  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  que se observó en la F<sub>1</sub> soluble, no se induzca de manera alostérica, sino que sea el producto de un recambio directo del ADP o del ATP por el  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  en el mismo sitio catalítico de alta afinidad de la enzima. Aunque esta posibilidad no se puede descartar con los presentes resultados, es difícil entender cómo es que una fracción de las enzimas recambiarían al  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  en lugar de hidrolizarlo. Un posibilidad que concordaría con esta interpretación sería que la fracción del  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  que se libera al medio estuviera unida inicialmente a algún sitio no-catalítico, o a una fracción inactiva de enzimas. Sin embargo, dado que el 98-100% del  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  afiadido a la F<sub>1</sub> en condiciones unisitio se hidroliza en cuestión de algunos minutos (ver los presentes resultados), es posible asegurar que prácticamente todo el  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  se une a un solo sitio catalítico de alta afinidad de una población de enzimas 100% activas.

Por otro lado, al suponer que la liberación del 1/32PIATP de la Fi inducida por ADP o por ATP ocurre por medio de un mecanismo alostérico, podría hallerse un mecanismo tanto de hidrólisis como de liberación si se toma en cuenta el modelo de sitios catalíticos alternantes (Bover, 1993) en conjunto con la posible rotación de la subunidad y de la F1 (Duncan et al., 1995; Sabbert et al., 1996; Zhou et al., 1997), Para esto, se propone el siguiente modelo de aceleración de catálisis bi-rotacional (Fig. 5); 1) de acuerdo con el mecanismo de cambio de unión de Boyer, de los tres sitios catalíticos existentes O L y T. el sitio catalítico de alta afinidad sería el sitio T: 2) el sitio T ocupado con  $f_{\gamma}^{32}$ PIATP en condiciones unisitio solo puede seguir dos secuencias de cambios conformacionales inducidas por la unión de nucleótidos exógenos: T-L->O o T→O→L: 3) en el primer caso, la transición T→L induciría una mayor hidratación del sitio catalítico y esto debería favorecer la hidrólisia del ( $v^{32}$ P)ATP (de Meis, 1989); mientras que la transición L->O induciria la liberación de los productos (ADP  $\vee$  <sup>32</sup>Pi). Por otro lado, la transición  $T \rightarrow O \rightarrow L$  induciría una disminución abrupta en la afinidad por el [y<sup>32</sup>P]ATP y su consecuente liberación a una velocidad mavor que la de su hidrólizis: 4) es posible que las tres conformaciones de los sitios catalíticos se establezcan en respuesta a los diferentes contactos que mantiene la subunidad  $\gamma$  con



Fig. 5. Modelo bi-retactional por medio del cual se podrían inducir tanto la hidrólisis como la liberación de  $(\gamma^{3P})ATP$  durante la aceleración de la Cathlisis unisitio de la F<sub>1</sub>-ATPasa mitocondrial. En condiciones unisitio, el sitio que seria ocupado por el  $(\gamma^{3P})ATP$  seria el sitio T. En el centro de la F<sub>1</sub> se muestra la subunidad y esquematizada con tres líneas señalando las tres conformaciones de los sitios catalíticos. Se propone que la rotación interna de esta subunidad en contra o a favor de las manocillas del reloj, podría ocurrir en dos fracciones de la población total de enzimas representadas en las partes superior e inferior del esquema, respectivamente. Es probable que en una sola molécula de F<sub>1</sub> se puedan inducir ambos sentidos de rotación por la unión de nucleótidos, esto se esquematiza con un estado de equilibrio entre las dos posibles estados rotacionales inducidos. Los nucleótidos (o el PPi) afiadidos podrían interactuar con el sitio L o con el sitio O, debido a esto no se precisa el estado de ocupación de los otros dos sitios catalíticos. La rotación en contra de las manecillas del reloj induciría las transiciones T→L→O, produciendo la hidrátición del sitio ocupado por el  $(\gamma^{3P})ATP$  y la hidrólisis de éste. La rotación a favor de las manecillas del reloj induciría las transiciones T→D→L, produciendo la liberación del  $(\gamma^{3P})ATP$  a una velocidad mayor a la cuel se podría hidrolizar. Otros detalles del modelo se describen en el texto. ANP significa ADP o ATP.

las subunidades  $\beta$  de la F<sub>1</sub>, y por lo tanto, la rotación de esta subunidad induciría simultáneamente los cambios de unión propuestos en el modelo de Boyer (Cross, 1994; Cross y Duncan, 1996); 4) si la subunidad y puede rotar en dos direcciones diferentes en la F<sub>1</sub> soluble, se obtienen las transiciones T→L→O o T→O→L, respectivamente (Fig. 5). Si estas rotaciones opuestas ocurren en dos poblaciones de diferentes de la enzima, entonces se obtiene tanto la hidrólisis como la liberación del [ $\gamma^{32}$ P]ATP inducidos alostéricamente por ADP o ATP. Es posible que estas dos poblaciones de enzima se expresen por la interacción de los nucleótidos exógenos con dos sitios vacios de diferente afinidad, y que el PPi tenga muy baja afinidad por el sitio que induce la liberación del [ $\gamma^{32}$ P]ATP (ver los resultados presentes). Si este modelo resulta correcto, indicaría que en la F<sub>1</sub> soluble la subunidad y tiene la libertad conformacional de rotar en ambos sentidos. Sería muy interesante analizar si esta rotación en dos sentidos pueder a currir durante la síntesis e hidrólisis de ATP llevada a cabo por el complejo F<sub>0</sub>F<sub>1</sub> completo.

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Zhou, Y., Duncan, T., Bulygin, V. V., Hutcheon, M. L. y Cross, R. L. (1998) Biochim. Biophys. Acta 1275, 98-100. Acceleration of Unisite Catalysis of Mitochondrial F<sub>1</sub>-ATPase by ATP, ADP and Pyrophosphate: Hydrolysis and Release of the Previously Bound [ $\gamma^{32}$ P]ATP<sup>†</sup>.

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## ABBREVIATIONS

AMP-PNP, adenyl-5'-yl imidodiphosphate; EDTA; Ethylenediaminetetrascetic acid; MES, 2[N-Morpholino]ethanesulfonic acid; PPi, pyrophosphate; TNP-ADP, TNP-ATP, and TNP-ITP, the 2',3'-O-(2,4,6-trinitrophenyl) derivatives of ADP, ATP and ITP; Tris, Tris[hydroxymethyl]aminomethane.

## ABSTRACT

The effect of adding ATP, ADP and pyrophosphate (PPi) on hydrolysis and release of  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  bound to a high affinity catalytic site of soluble F<sub>1</sub> from bovine heart mitochondria under unisite conditions (Grubmever, C., Cross, R. L. and Periefsky, H. S. (1982) J. Biol. Chem. 257:12092-12100) was studied. In consonance with the previous data, it was observed that mM concentrations of ATP and ADP added to F1 undergoing unisite catalysis, produces a marked acceleration of hydrolysis of  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP that had been previously bound to F<sub>1</sub> at substoichiometric concentration of  $1y^{32}$ PIATP to F<sub>1</sub>. PPi also produced a hydrolytic burst of a fraction of the previously bound [v<sup>32</sup>PIATP; kinetic data suggested that for production of optimal hydrolysis by PPi of the bound  $[v^{32}P]ATP$ , two binding sites must be filled by PPi, their apparent Kd were 27 and 240 LM. Nonetheless, the extent of the hydrolytic burst induced by Mg PPi was lower than that induced by ADP and ATP. In F<sub>1</sub> in which PPi had produced a hydrolytic burst of the bound  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$ , the addition of ATP induced a second burst of hydrolysis. By means of filtration experiments and enzyme trapping, it was also studied if ATP, ADP and PPi produce release of the tightly bound [v<sup>32</sup>PIATP, At mM concentrations. ATP and ADP brought about release of about 25% of the previously bound [y32PIATP. However, at µM concentrations, ADP and ATP accelerated the hydrolysis of the previously bound  $I_{v}^{32}$ PIATP, but not its release. Hence, the hydrolytic and release reactions could be separated, indicating that the two reactions require the occupancy of different sites in F<sub>1</sub>. With PPi, no release of the tightly bound ( $\gamma^{22}$ PIATP

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was observed. Since release of ATP from a high affinity catalytic site of F<sub>1</sub> represents the terminal step of oxidative phosphorylation, the data illustrate that the binding energy of substrates to F<sub>1</sub> is critical to the ejection of ATP into the media. In fact, the failure of PPi to induce release of  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP bound to F<sub>1</sub> under unisite conditions is probably due to its lower binding energy.

## INTRODUCTION

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ン ン The F<sub>0</sub>F<sub>1</sub>-ATPase/ATP synthase of bacteria, chloroplasts, and mitochondria is a multisubunit enzyme complex that catalyzes the synthesis of ATP from ADP and inorganic phosphate (Pi) during oxidative or photo-phosphorylation. Catalysis takes place in the F<sub>1</sub> portion of the complex which can be detached from the membrane as a soluble enzyme; it exhibits a high ATPase activity (Penefsky et al., 1960) and in presence of cosolvents, such as dimethyl sulfoxide, it has the capacity to synthesize enzyme bound ATP (Sakamoto & Tonomura, 1983; Yoshida, 1983; Sakamoto, 1984; Gómez-Puyou, et al., 1986; Kandpal, et al., 1987; Beharry & Bragg, 1991a, 1991b, 1992) and pyrophosphate, (PPi) (Tuena de Gómez-Puyou et al., 1993, 1995). F<sub>1</sub> is formed by five different subunits  $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma_1\delta_{1}\epsilon_1$  with the indicated stoichiometries. It has three catalytic and three non-catalytic sites that are located in the interfases formed by the  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  subunits (Williams and Coleman, 1982; Lüben et al., 1984; Noumi et al., 1987; Abrahams et al., 1994).

The mechanism through which the ATP synthase carries out synthesis and hydrolysis of ATP has been extensively studied. With respect to  $F_1$  function, it has been proposed that during steady-state hydrolysis, the three catalytic sites work through the binding change mechanism of Boyer et al. (Kayalar et al. 1977; Hackney & Boyer, 1978; Hutton & Boyer, 1979; Boyer, 1987, 1989, 1993). This hypothesis proposes that the catalytic sites exist in three different conformations (open, loose and tight), and that these conformations alternate upon binding and release of substrates

and products. The alternancy of the catalytic sites is thought to be driven by the binding energy of the substrates and by the H+ gradient. The model is in line with the crystallographic structure of bovine heart  $F_1$  (Abrahams et al., 1994), and experiments that suggest that during hydrolysis, the  $\gamma$  subunit rotates between the core of the  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  subunits (Duncan et al., 1995; Sabbert et al.; 1996, Zhou et al., 1998).

Important knowledge of the kinetics (Grubmever & Penefsky, 1981; Grubmever et al., 1982) and thermodynamics (Al-Shawi & Senior, 1988; Al-Shawi et al., 1989; Al-Shawi et al., 1990) of the hydrolytic reaction has been obtained from the studies of  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP hydrolysis under unisite conditions (Grubmeyer & Penefsky, 1981; Grubmever et al., 1982). In the latter reaction, substoichiometric concentrations of  $f_{7}^{32}$ PIATP are incubated with F<sub>1</sub>; this results in the binding of  $f_{7}^{32}$ PIATP to the high affinity catalytic site of F1, where it is slowly hydrolyzed. At this state, the addition of relatively high concentrations of ATP or ADP produces a burst of hydrolysis of the bound  $1\sqrt{32}$ PIATP. as consequence of a 10<sup>5</sup>-fold increase in the rate of product release (for review see Penefsky and Cross, 1991, but see Revnafarie and Pedersen, 1997). However, various reports show that only about 70-80 % of the bound ( $\gamma^{32}$ PIATP that is bound to the high affinity catalytic site of F<sub>1</sub> is hydrolyzed in the first catalytic turnovers of multisite activity induced by the addition of high concentrations of ATP or ADP to mitochondrial  $F_1$  undergoing unisite catalysis (Grubmeyer and Penefsky, 1981; Grubmeyer et al., 1982; Penefsky 1988). Further studies with particulate (Souid and Penefsky, 1995) and soluble  $F_1$  (García et al., 1997), showed that upon addition of ADP, the  $\int \sqrt{3^2} PIATP$  that was not hydrolyzed was released into the media.

The release into the media of ATP bound at the high affinity catalytic site of F<sub>2</sub> is an endergonic reaction (Al-Shawi & Senior, 1988; Al-Shawi et al., 1990), and it is accepted that during electron transport driven phosphorylation, its transfer into the media consumes an important amount of the energy of electrochemical H\* gradients. In this context, it is relevant that Souid & Penefsky (1995) recently showed that in F1 of submitochondrial particles that had been loaded with [y32PIATP under unisite conditions, a substantial amount of  $f_{2}^{32}$ PIATP was released when a H+ gradient and ADP were applied. These data strongly suggest that the release of  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  that had been bound to soluble  $F_1$  under unisite conditions is part of the overall reaction that occurs during electron transport driven ATP synthesis. Therefore, it was further studied, how the release and the hydrolytic reactions of [y<sup>32</sup>P)ATP that has been bound to soluble mitochondrial F, under unisite conditions are affected by ADP. ATP and PPi. The results show that hydrolysis and release of  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  are consequence of different events: the former is triadered by relatively low concentrations of ADP and ATP. whereas the release of  $(\gamma^{32}P)ATP$  into the media requires significantly higher concentrations. In addition, it was found that in contrast to ADP and ATP. PPi which has a lower binding energy (Weber & Senior, 1995) induces (y<sup>32</sup>PIATP hydrolysis, but not the ejection of [y32P]ATP into the media.

### Materials.

All nonradioactive chemicals were obtained from Sigma.  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  was prepared according to Glynn & Chappell (1984) using  $[^{32}P]Pi$  obtained from New England Nuclear; its specific activity was between 1 to 3 x 10<sup>6</sup> cpm/nmol. Soluble F<sub>1</sub> from bovine heart mitochondria was prepared as described elsewhere (Tuena de Gómez-Puyou & Gómez-Puyou, 1977). It was stored at 4<sup>e</sup>C as a suspension in 50 % ammonium sulfate, 4 mM ATP and 2 mM EDTA, pH 7.4. Before each experiment an aliquot of the enzyme suspension was centrifuged and the precipitate dissolved in 40 mM MES/Tris, 3 mM Mg-acetate and 1 mM KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>, pH 8.0. Thereafter, it was passed by centrifugation trough Sephadex G-50 columns that had been equilibrated in the same buffer. Protein was determined in the eluate according to Lowry et al. (1951).

## Methods

## Promotion of Unisite $(\gamma^{2}P)$ ATP Hydrolysis by F<sub>1</sub>-ATPase.

In the standard method for measuring unisite  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  hydrolysis, 50 µl of 2 µM F<sub>1</sub> dissolved in 40 mM MES/Tris, 3 mM Mg-acetate and 1 mM Pi, pH 8.0, was mixed with 50 µl of the same buffer that in addition contained 0.6 µM  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$ . At various times, the reaction was arrested with trichloroacetic acid (6 %, final concentration) in a final volume of 0.5 ml. To the latter mixture, 0.5 ml of 3.3 % ammonium molybdate in 3.75 N H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> was added and the phosphomolybdate complex was extracted three times with 1 ml of butyl acetate. The radioactivity that remained in the aqueous phase

([ $\gamma^{32}$ P]ATP) was determined; from this value the amount of [ $\gamma^{32}$ P]ATP hydrolyzed was calculated.

To determine the effect of ATP, ADP and PPi on hydrolysis of  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP that had been bound under unisite conditions, 100 µl of the mixture in which F<sub>1</sub> had been undergoing unisite  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP hydrolysis was mixed with 350 µl of the standard buffer that also had the indicated concentrations of Mg-ATP, MgADP, and Mg-PPi. At the desired times, the reaction was stopped with 6% trichloroacetic acid, and the amount of  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP that remained after the various treatments was determined as described above.

To examine if ADP or PPi induced the release of  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP bound to F<sub>1</sub> under unisite conditions, the standard unisite mixture was supplemented with 350 µl that had the desired concentrations of ADP or PPi in 40 mM MES/Tris, 3 mM Mg-acetate, and 1 mM Pi, pH 8.0; this mixture also contained 25 units of hexokinase and 10 mM glucose. The activity of hexokinase was in 10-fold excess over the multisite hydrolytic activity of F<sub>1</sub>. In control samples, only the buffer plus hexokinase and glucose were added. The reactions were arrested 30 seconds after the addition of the hexokinase mixture with HCI (1.3 N, final concentration). To determine the amount of  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP transformed into  $[^{32}P]$ glucose-6-phosphate (Penefsky, 1985), the HCI mixture was placed in boiling water for 15 min. After cooling to room temperature, <sup>32</sup>Pi was extracted as described above and the radioactivity that remained in the aqueous phase was considered to correspond to  $[^{32}P]$ glucose-6-phosphate i.e  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP that had been become accessible to hexokinase. Controls in each experiment showed that close to 100 % (98-99 %) of

 $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  was hydrolyzed and that the amount of  $[^{32}P]glucose-6$ -phosphate was not affected by the heat treatment. Additional controls in these experiments showed that when  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  was added to a mixture of hexokinase and F<sub>1</sub>, all the  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  was transformed into  $[^{32}P]glucose-6$ -phosphate, and also that the presence of PPi did not affect the activity of hexokinase.

# Measurements of [y<sup>32</sup>P]ATP and [<sup>32</sup>P]Pi Bound to F1

To determine the amount of  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  and  $[^{32}P]Pi$  bound to F<sub>1</sub>, 100 µl of the indicated reaction mixtures were passed by centrifugation through columns of Sephadex G-50 (Penefsky, 1977) that had been equilibrated with the mixture in which the reaction was carried out (except for  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$ ). The eluates (approx 100 µl) were received in 100 µl 10 % sodium dodecyl sulfate. In the eluates, protein,  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  and  $[^{32}P]Pi$  were determined as described before.

## RESULTS

Effect of PPi on the Acceleration of Unisite [y<sup>32</sup>P]ATP Hydrolysis.

It has been shown that PPi estimulates the multisite ATPase activity of F<sub>1</sub> (Kalashnikova et al., 1988; Jault & Allison, 1993; Jault et al., 1994). Therefore, it was asked if PPi, similarly to ATP and ADP (Grubmeyer & Penefsky, 1981), accelerates hydrolysis of  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP bound under unisite conditions. Accordingly, 1  $\mu$ M F<sub>1</sub> was incubated with 0.3  $\mu$ M [ $\gamma^{32}P$ ]ATP for 25 seconds; in this time essentially all [ $\gamma^{32}P$ ]ATP had been bound to the high affinity catalytic site F<sub>1</sub>, and lied in equilibrium with <sup>32</sup>Pi and ADP at the catalytic site (Cross et al., 1982). At this state, 5 mM ATP or PPi was added. The two compounds accelerated hydrolysis of bound [ $\gamma^{32}P$ ]ATP, albeit the extent of the hydrolytic burst was higher with ATP (Fig. 1). In both cases, the rapid phase was followed by a relatively slow phase of [ $\gamma^{32}P$ ]ATP hydrolysis, and within 5 min all the [ $\gamma^{32}P$ ]ATP had been hydrolyzed.

The affinity of the binding sites of F<sub>1</sub> for PPi and azido-nitrophenyl-PPi are in the  $\mu$ M range (Kironde & Cross, 1986; Issartel et al., 1987; Michel et al., 1989; Peinnequin et al., 1992; Weber & Senior, 1995); thus, it was studied if in this concentration range PPi accelerates [ $\gamma^{32}$ P]ATP hydrolysis. To this purpose, different concentrations of PPi were added to F<sub>1</sub> loaded with substoichiometric amounts of [ $\gamma^{32}$ P]ATP; it is noted that the highest PPi concentration that could be assayed was 5 mM (at higher concentrations, PPi precipitated). Two seconds after the addition of PPi, the reaction was arrested. The extent of the hydrolytic burst increased with PPi concentration (Fig.

2), and a Lineweaver Burk plot of the data (inset, Fig. 2) showed two slopes with affinities of approximately 20 and 200  $\mu$ M. Results from three independent determinations showed that these values were 27 ± 10 and 240 ± 70  $\mu$ M (± s.d.). This suggests that the filling of at least two binding sites for PPi operate in the acceleration of hydrolysis of [ $\gamma^{32}$ P]ATP bound at the high affinity catalytic site of F<sub>1</sub>.

Regarding the sites that operate in the hydrolytic burst of  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  bound under unisite conditions, it was explored if after PPi had induced a hydrolytic burst of a portion of the bound  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$ , hydrolysis of the  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  that remained could still be accelerated by excess ATP. It was found that after a PPi induced burst of  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$ hydrolysis had taken place, the further addition of ATP produced a second hydrolytic burst of the remaining  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  (Fig. 3). Thus, it appears that although most of the  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  bound under unisite conditions is committed to hydrolysis, the filling of PPi binding sites does not suffice to induce full hydrolysis of the bound  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$ ; this suggests that ATP and PPi occupy different sites in F<sub>1</sub>, or that the particular characteristics of ATP are needed for maximal hydrolysis of the bound  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$ .

# **PPi** Does Not Produce Release of $[\gamma^{22}P]$ ATP Bound to $F_1$ Under Unisite Conditions.

The addition of high concentrations of ADP or ATP to F<sub>1</sub> undergoing unisite catalysis accelerates the rate of hydrolysis of the previously bound  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  (Cross et al., 1982); however, it has been shown that ADP also produces the partition of a fraction of the bound  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  into the media (Souid & Penefsky, 1995; García et al., 1997). Therefore, it was studied if PPi induces  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  release. In these

experiments, two protocols were followed. In one,  $F_1$  undergoing unisite ( $\gamma^{32}$ PIATP hydrolysis was mixed with 5 mM PPi, and thereafter passed by centrifugation through Sephadex columns, In the experiments, two controls were included i.e. F1 was mixed with buffer alone or with buffer that had 5 mM ATP; the resulting mixtures were also passed through Sephadex columns. In the eluates, the amount of protein, (y<sup>32</sup>P)ATP and [<sup>32</sup>PIPi were determined. In consonance with published data (Duncan & Senior, 1985: Bullough et al., 1987: Noumi et al., 1987: Al-Shawi & Senior, 1988, 1989), the eluate of F1 that had been mixed with buffer contained (y<sup>32</sup>P)ATP and (<sup>32</sup>P)Pi in a stoichiometry that was close to one (Table I). In contrast, in the eluates of  $F_1$  that had been treated with ATP. no radioactivity was detected; this was expected since excess ATP produces a rapid breakdown of the bound [y<sup>32</sup>P]ATP as consequence of acceleration of product release (but see below). As shown in Table I. PPi also produced a hydrolytic burst of bound [ $\gamma^{32}$ P]ATP, but the eluate still contained [ $\gamma^{32}$ P]ATP and <sup>32</sup>Pi. As shown below, the presence of  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  in F<sub>1</sub> is not due to release and rebinding of  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$ .

This issue was further explored in experiments in which  $F_1$  that had been incubated with substoichiometric amounts of  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  was mixed with PPi and a large excess of hexokinase and glucose. Under these conditions any  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  in the media would be converted into  $[^{32}P]g]ucose-6$ -phosphate. Before the addition of PPi, essentially all  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  introduced was inaccessible to hexokinase (Table II). When PPi was added to the  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$ - $F_1$  complex, a hydrolytic burst of a fraction of the bound  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  took place, but this was not accompanied by the formation of a

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significant amount of [<sup>32</sup>P]glucose-6-phosphate. A relevant control in these experiments was to add 0.3  $\mu$ M [ $\gamma^{32}$ P]ATP to a mixture that contained F<sub>1</sub> and hexokinase. In the latter conditions, all the added [ $\gamma^{32}$ P]ATP was converted into [<sup>32</sup>P]glucose-6-phosphate (Table II, third line). In addition to showing that hexokinase effectively trapped all the [ $\gamma^{32}$ P]ATP, this control also illustrated that the presence of [ $\gamma^{32}$ P]ATP in the eluate from Sephadex columns in the experiment of Table I, or the relatively slow rate of [ $\gamma^{32}$ P]ATP hydrolysis that took place after addition of PPi (Fig. 1) was not consequence of release and re-binding of [ $\gamma^{32}$ P]ATP to F<sub>1</sub>.

ADP and ATP Induced Hydrolysis and Release of [y<sup>32</sup>P]ATP Bound Under Unisite Conditions.

The data of Tables I and II showed that although PPi produced a hydrolytic burst of  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP bound under unisite conditions, it did not cause its release. This suggested that promotion of the hydrolytic and release reactions of the tightly bound  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP could be separately induced. This possibility was first explored by determining the effect of different ADP concentrations on hydrolysis and release of  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP that had been bound to F<sub>1</sub> under standard conditions (Fig. 4); release was determined by the accesibility of  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP to hexokinase. Near-maximal acceleration of  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP hydrolysis was observed with 10  $\mu$ M ADP. Below this concentration, hardly any  $[^{32}P]$ glucose-6-phosphate was formed, but as ADP concentration was raised, there was a progressive increase in the amount of  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP that became accesible to hexokinase. The Kd<sub>app</sub> for the latter reaction calculated from three different

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determinations was 44± 10  $\mu$ M (±s.d.). The differences in concentration required for promotion of the hydrolytic and release reactions suggest that the number and affinity of the sites that are occupied by ADP are central to the pathway that tightly bound [ $\gamma^{32}$ P]ATP follows. Figure 3 also shows that ATP, at concentrations equivalent to those of ADP, produced a higher hydrolytic burst of the bound [ $\gamma^{32}$ P]ATP.

Taken together the experiments of Tables I and II and Figure 3 show that the hydrolytic reaction of  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP bound to the high affinity catalytic site can be induced separately from the release reaction by using either PPi, or by adding relatively low ADP concentrations. It was thus explored if the two reactions could also be observed when ATP is added to F<sub>1</sub> that is carrying out unisite  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP hydrolysis. In one set of experiments (Table III), F<sub>1</sub> previously loaded with  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP was mixed with 5 µM or 5 mM ATP or ADP; afterwards the mixture was centrifuged through Sephadex columns. In accordance with the data of Figure 4, 5 µM and 5 mM ATP produced a nearly equal hydrolytic burst of the previously bound  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP, but there were differences in the  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP content of the eluates. The eluate of F<sub>1</sub> treated with 5 mM ATP had no  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP and  $[^{32}P]$ Pi. The experiments with ADP yielded similar results, except that a small fraction of  $[^{32}P]$ Pi remained bound to F<sub>1</sub> after addition of 5 mM ADP.

The latter results with ATP agree with the data of Milgrom & Murataliev (1987) who showed that after acceleration of catalysis by 20  $\mu$ M ATP, a 20 % fraction of the previously bound [<sup>32</sup>P]Pi co-eluted with F<sub>1</sub> after passage through Sephadex columns. These findings could suggest that there is a population of enzymes in which hydrolysis

of previously bound  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP does not take place in the first turnover with cold ATP, and that a number of turnovers higher than the few that took place with 5 µM ATP is needed to hydrolyze all the bound  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP. In this respect, it is noted that in early experiments on the acceleration of unisite hydrolysis by ATP, two rates of hydrolysis of previously bound  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP were observed and this finding was adscribed to enzyme heterogeneity (Cross et al., 1982; Penefsky, 1988). Alternatively, and in the light of the data obtained with PPi and ADP (Figs 1-4), it was considered that under unisite catalysis, a fraction of the enzymes could be prone for release of the tightly bound  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP. Indeed, the absence of  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP in the eluate of F<sub>1</sub> treated with 5 mM ATP (Table III) could reflect that  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP was released from F<sub>1</sub> and removed when it was passed through the Sephadex columns.

Therefore, further experiments were carried out to explore if the addition of ATP to F<sub>1</sub> undergoing unisite [ $\gamma^{32}$ P]ATP hydrolysis produces its release. Figure 1, as well as other reports (Cross et al., 1982; Penefsky, 1988; García et al., 1997), show that the addition of excess ATP produces a hydrolytic burst that is followed by a slower phase of [ $\gamma^{32}$ P]ATP hydrolysis. The latter coincides with hydrolysis of medium ATP suggesting that a portion of the bound [ $\gamma^{32}$ P]ATP mixed with medium ATP. Thus, to F<sub>1</sub> loaded with [ $\gamma^{32}$ P]ATP, 5 mM ATP was added, this was followed one second later by the addition of hexokinase. It was found that a 28 % fraction of previously bound [ $\gamma^{32}$ P]ATP was transformed into [ $^{32}$ P]glucose-8-phosphate (Table IV). In control experiments, 5 mM [ $\gamma^{32}$ P]ATP was mixed with F<sub>1</sub> undergoing unisite hydrolysis of non-radioactive ATP. In these conditions, 15 % of [ $\gamma^{32}$ P]ATP was hydrolyzed in one second of reaction time.

This hydrolysis correlated with the 10 % hydrolysis expected from a multisite  $F_1$ -ATPase activity of 70  $\mu$ mol/min/mg. Therefore, it appears that excess ATP indeed produces release of [ $\gamma^{32}$ P]ATP bound at the high affinity catalytic site of  $F_1$ .

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## DISCUSSION

The finding that relatively high concentrations of ATP or ADP accelerate the breakdown of  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP bound to F<sub>1</sub> under unisite conditions, has been instrumental for many studies on the mechanisms that operate during ATP hydrolysis by soluble F<sub>1</sub> (for review see Penefsky & Cross, 1991). Nonetheless, as shown in this work, the addition of relatively high adenine nucleotide concentrations to F<sub>1</sub> undergoing unisite  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP hydrolysis also produces release of a portion of the tightly bound  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP. The latter is of importance since during oxidative or photosynthetic phosphorylation, release of synthesized ATP consumes an important amount of electrochemical H+ energy; the free energy diagram of hydrolysis under unisite conditions is in consonance with this conclusion (AI-Shawi & Senior, 1988; AI-Shawi et al., 1990). Thus, kowledge of the factors that lead to release of  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP from a high affinity catalytic site acquire particular relevance.

## Hydrolysis and Release of [y<sup>32</sup>P]ATP bound under Unisite Conditions.

Acceleration of hydrolysis of  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP bound under unisite conditions can be induced by ATP, ADP, and PPi; in addition, it has been shown that TNP-ITP, TNP-ATP and AMP-PNP (Grubmeyer & Penefsky, 1981) produce similar effects. Apparently, there is not a large specificity for the molecule that induces important acceleration of hydrolysis of the tightly bound  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP. However, it is noted that ATP, ADP and PPi produce hydrolytic bursts of  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP of different extents; i.e. 0.10 ± 0.02, 0.07 ± 0.01

and 0.05  $\pm$  0.01 mol/mol F<sub>1</sub>, respectively (data calculated from 4-7 different determinations  $\pm$  s.d.). Moreover, it was found that after a hydrolytic burst of [ $\gamma^{32}$ P]ATP had been induced by PPi, the further addition of ATP produced a second burst of hydrolysis. These findings indicate that acceleration of hydrolysis of [ $\gamma^{32}$ P]ATP bound under unisite conditions can be induced by the occupancy of various sites in F<sub>1</sub>. From the data in this work, it cannot be ascertained if these sites are catalytic or non-catalytic.

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It was also observed that the filling of the sites that trigger [ $\gamma^{32}$ P]ATP hydrolysis by ADP or ATP may be accompanied by its release into the media; however, this latter event may be separated from the hydrolytic reaction. For instance, hydrolysis of the tightly bound [ $\gamma^{32}$ P]ATP could be triggered by concentrations of ADP and ATP that do not produce release. It is also relevant that, at variance with ADP and ATP, PPi at relatively high concentrations does not induce release of the tightly bound [ $\gamma^{32}$ P]ATP. In this regard, it is possible that PPi concentrations higher than those that could be experimentally assayed are needed to produce [ $\gamma^{32}$ P]ATP release. Nevertheless, these various observations indicate that partition of [ $\gamma^{32}$ P]ATP into the media requires the occupancy of sites different from those that trigger hydrolysis, or alternatively, the filling of a site with relatively low affinity for PPi.

In soluble F<sub>1</sub>, the transition of unisite to multisite hydrolysis of  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  by excess ATP may lead to the expression of two different rates of hydrolysis of the previously bound  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$ . This has been attributed to heterogeneity in the

population of  $F_1$  (Cross, et al., 1982), or to an intrinsic heterogeneity of the catalytic sites of  $F_1$  (Bullough et al., 1987). In the presently described experiments, it was observed that high concentrations of ATP and ADP produce rapid hydrolisis of only a fraction of the previously bound  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$ , the rest is ejected into the media. This could indicate the existence of a heterogeneous population of  $F_1$  in which  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  in a fraction of the enzymes is committed to hydrolysis and in another to release. However this raises the question of why in the latter population, PPi does not produce release of  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$ .

Thermodynamic analysis of unisite hydrolysis by  $F_1$  (Al-Shawi & Senior, 1988; Al-Shawi et al., 1989, 1990) indicates that release of  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP bound to a high affinity site of the enzyme is an endergonic reaction, and that ADP binding is a favorable reaction. In this context, it is relevant that  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP bound to a high affinity binding site of particulate  $F_1$  could be released provided a H<sup>+</sup> gradient was established (Penefsky, 1985); this process was enhanced by ADP (Souid & Penefsky, 1995). Taken together, these findings suggest that the observed  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP release from  $F_1$ represents the terminal step of oxidative phosphorylation, and that energy input from electrochemical H<sup>+</sup> gradients plus the binding energy that derives from the binding of ADP to F<sub>1</sub> results in optimal ejection of the tightly bound  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP.

These observations may explain why the occupancy of sites in  $F_1$  by PPi does not produce release of the tightly bound [ $\gamma^{32}$ P]ATP. The values reported in this work of the Kd<sub>app</sub> of soluble  $F_1$  for PPi (27 and 240  $\mu$ M) agrees with the range of affinities described previously (0.3-230  $\mu$ M) (Kironde & Cross, 1986; Issartel et al., 1987; Michel

et al., 1989; Peinnequin et al., 1992; Weber & Senior, 1995). This suggests that the inability of PPi to induce release of  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP bound to F<sub>1</sub> under unisite conditions could be related to its binding energy; it is lower than that of ATP or ADP, and in consecuence lower than that required to release  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP from its high affinity catalytic site. Moreover, it is relevant that in soluble F<sub>1</sub> in which  $[^{32}P]$ PPi and  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP have been synthetized in the presence of dimethylsulfoxide, only the former is released upon dilution of the cosolvent (Tuena de Gómez-Puyou et al., 1995), which egain illustrates that PPi binding is less tight than that of ATP.

Thus, this work shows that the hydrolytic reaction of the tightly bound  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  can be separated from the release reaction. It is also relevant that hydrolysis and release of the tightly bound  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  may be induced by ADP and ATP, and that PPi which has a lower binding energy than ATP and ADP, induces its hydrolysis, but not its release.
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25

Biophys. Acta 1275, 96-100.

TABLES

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Table I: Effect of ADP and PPi on  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  and  $[^{32}P]Pi$  bound to F<sub>1</sub> under Unisite Conditions.

Additions to F1 undergoing unisite catalysis	[y <sup>32</sup> P]ATP hydrolyzed (mol/mol F1)	Bound [732P]ATP Bound [32P]Pi	
		(mol/mol F1)	(mol/mol F <sub>1</sub> )
Buffer	0.110	0.210	0.090
5 mM MgATP	0.190	ND	ND
5 mM MgPPi	0.160	0.056	0.092

 $F_1$  was incubated in the standard conditions for unisite hydrolysis of [ $\gamma^{32}$ P]ATP. After 10 seconds of incubation, the indicated additions were made and 10 seconds later, the samples were centrifuged through Sephadex columns and in the eluate, the amount of protein, [ $\gamma^{32}$ P]ATP and [ $^{32}$ P]Pi were determined (see Methods section). In the control, buffer without ATP or PPi was added. ND indicates that no radioactivity was detected in the eluate. The Table also shows the amount of [ $\gamma^{32}$ P]ATP that had been hydrolyzed at the time in which the various samples were centrifuged.

[y <sup>32</sup> P]ATP hydrolyzed	[γ <sup>32</sup> P]ATP transformed into [ <sup>32</sup> P]Glucose-6-phosphate	
(mol/mol F <sub>1</sub> )	(mol/mol F <sub>1</sub> )	
0.130	0.003	
0.186	0.006	
0	0.3	
	[γ <sup>32</sup> P]ATP hydrolyzed (mol/mol F <sub>1</sub> ) 0.130 0.186 0	

Table II: Accesibility to Hexokinase of  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  Bound to F<sub>1</sub> Under Unisite Conditions.

 $F_1$  was incubated in the standard unisite conditions of  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  hydrolysis. After 20 seconds of incubation, samples were quenched with acid to determine the amount of  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  hydrolyzed or supplemented with hexokinase and glucose to determine the amount of  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  accessible to hexokinase; the latter reactions were arrested 30 seconds later. In other identical tubes, 5 mM PPi without and with hexokinase was added; the reactions were arrested 2 and 30 seconds later in order to determine the amount of  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  hydrolyzed and that that become accessible to hexokinase. The amount of  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  and  $[^{32}P]glucose-8-phosphate was determined$ as described under*Methods* $. In the experiment of the third line, <math>[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  was added to a mixture of  $F_1$  and hexokinase plus glucose, and 30 seconds later, the amount of  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  hydrolyzed and transformed into  $[^{32}P]glucose-8-phosphate was determined.$ 

27

Table III: Effect of ATP and ADP on  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  and  $[^{32}P]Pi$  Bound to F<sub>1</sub> under Unisite Conditions.

Additions to F1 undergoing unisite hydrolysis	[γ <sup>32</sup> P]ATP hydrolyzed (mol/mol F <sub>1</sub> )	Bound [7 <sup>32</sup> P]ATP (mol/mol F <sub>1</sub> )	Bound [ <sup>32</sup> P]Pi (mol/mol F <sub>1</sub> )
Buffer	0.150	0.080	0.086
5 μ <b>M MgA</b> TP	0.202	0.025	0.035
5 mM MgATP	0.220	ND	ND
5 μ <b>M MgAD</b> P	0.193	0.030	0.028
5 mM MgADP	0.195	ND	0.018

Unisite  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  hydrolysis was allowed to proceed for 10 seconds under the standard conditions. At this time, 100 µl of buffer, or ATP or ADP at the indicated concentrations were added; 10 seconds latter, the mixtures were either acid quenched to determine the amount of  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  hydrolyzed, or passed through Sephadex columns. In the latter eluates, protein,  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  and  $[^{32}P]Pi$  were determined. ND indicates that no radioactivity was detected.

TABLE IV: ATP Induced Release of  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP that had been Bound to F<sub>1</sub> under Unisite Conditions.

Additions to F <sub>1</sub>	[ <sup>32</sup> P]ATP hydrolyzed	[7 <sup>32</sup> P]ATP tansformed into [ <sup>32</sup> P]Glucose-6-phosphate	
undergoing unisite catalysis	(% of total added)		
		(% of total [γ <sup>32</sup> P]ATP added)	
Buffer	42	2	
5 mM ATP	53	28	

Unisite  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP hydrolysis was allowed to proceed for 10 seconds. At this time, identical samples were treated with 100 µL of buffer, or with 5mM MgATP. After one second, the reaction was quenched with acid, to determine the amount of  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP hydrolyzed, or supplemented with hexokinase + glucose; the latter samples were quenched with acid 30 seconds later in order to determine the amount of  $[^{32}P]$ glucose-6-phosphate formed.

## **FIGURE LEGENDS**

Figure 1. Effect of ATP and PPi on Hydrolysis of  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP Bound Under Unisite Conditions to Soluble F<sub>1</sub>. At time zero, the incubation of 1 µM F<sub>1</sub> with 0. 3 µM  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP was started and at the times shown the reaction was arrested with trichloroacetic acid. At the arrow, 350 µl of buffer that contained MgATP (e — e) or MgPPi (o — o) were added (5 mM final concentration), and the reactions were allowed to proceed for the times shown before adding trichloroacetic acid. At the points shown, the amount of  $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP hydrolyzed was determined. The lower curve (□ — □) shows the unlaite reaction profile in which no ATP or PPi were added. For further details see *Methods* section.

Figure 2. Effect of different Concentrations of MgPPi on Hydrolysis of  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$ Bound Under Unisite Conditions. F<sub>1</sub> was incubated with  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  under the standard conditions for unisite hydrolysis. After 10 seconds of incubation, the amount of  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  hydrolyzed was determined; in the figure, this is shown as the point with zero PPi concentration. To identical samples, 350 µl of buffer that contained MgPPi to yield the indicated final concentrations were added; after 5 seconds the reaction was arrested. The inset is a Lineweaver Burk plot of the data in which the amount of  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  hydrolyzed after the addition of PPi minus the observed without PPi was plotted against the indicated PPi concentrations.

30

Figure 3. Hydrolysis of  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  Bound Under Unisite Conditions After Treatment With PPi and ATP. F<sub>1</sub> was loaded with  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  under unisite conditions. After 20 seconds of incubation, 5 mM MgATP or MgPPi was added; these additions resulted in a hydrolytic burst of  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$ . F<sub>1</sub> that had been treated with PPi was subsequently exposed to 5 mM MgATP; this induced a second hydrolytic burst.

Figure 4. Effect of Different Concentrations of ADP and ATP on Hydrolysis of  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  Bound to F<sub>1</sub> under Unisite Conditions. F<sub>1</sub> was loaded under the usual conditions for unisite  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  hydrolysis for 20 seconds. At this time, the amount of  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  hydrolyzed was determined. Also at this time, identical samples were treated with: i) the indicated condentrations of ADP (e — e) or ATP (o — o), and 2 seconds later the reactions were quenched with acid and the amount of  $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$  hydrolyzed was determined, or ii) the indicated concentrations of ADP plus hexokinase and glucose were added (g — g); thirty seconds later the reactions were acid quenched and the amount of  $[^{32}P]$ glucose-6-phosphate formed was determined (see Methods section).

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