

C-Terminal Mutations in the Chloroplast ATP Synthase γ Subunit Impair ATP Synthesis and Stimulate ATP Hydrolysis[†]

Feng He,[‡] Hardeep S. Samra,[‡] Eric A. Johnson,[§] Nicholas R. Degner,[‡] Richard E. McCarty,[§] and Mark L. Richter^{*‡}

Department of Molecular Biosciences, The University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kansas 66045, and Department of Biology, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Maryland 21218

Received August 7, 2007; Revised Manuscript Received November 16, 2007

ABSTRACT: Two highly conserved amino acid residues, an arginine and a glutamine, located near the C-terminal end of the γ subunit, form a “catch” by hydrogen bonding with residues in an anionic loop on one of the three catalytic β subunits of the bovine mitochondrial F_1 -ATPase [Abrahams, J. P., Leslie, A. G., Lutter, R., and Walker, J. E. (1994) *Nature* 370, 621–628]. The catch is considered to play a critical role in the binding change mechanism whereby binding of ATP to one catalytic site releases the catch and induces a partial rotation of the γ subunit. This role is supported by the observation that mutation of the equivalent arginine and glutamine residues in the *Escherichia coli* F_1 γ subunit drastically reduced all ATP-dependent catalytic activities of the enzyme [Greene, M. D., and Frasch, W. D. (2003) *J. Biol. Chem.* 278, 5194–5198]. In this study, we show that simultaneous substitution of the equivalent residues in the chloroplast F_1 γ subunit, arginine 304 and glutamine 305, with alanine decreased the level of proton-coupled ATP synthesis by more than 80%. Both the Mg^{2+} -dependent and Ca^{2+} -dependent ATP hydrolysis activities increased by more than 3-fold as a result of these mutations; however, the sulfite-stimulated activity decreased by more than 60%. The Mg^{2+} -dependent, but not the Ca^{2+} -dependent, ATPase activity of the double mutant was insensitive to inhibition by the phytotoxic inhibitor tentoxin, indicating selective loss of catalytic cooperativity in the presence of Mg^{2+} ions. The results indicate that the catch residues are required for efficient proton coupling and for activation of multisite catalysis when MgATP is the substrate. The catch is not, however, required for CaATP-driven multisite catalysis or, therefore, for rotation of the γ subunit.

The ATP synthase enzymes of chloroplasts, mitochondria, and bacteria are composed of two protein segments, F_0 (factor O) and F_1 (factor 1). The F_0 segment is a membrane-spanning proton transporter. The chloroplast F_0 (CF_0)¹ contains four different polypeptide subunits (I–IV) with a stoichiometry of $I_1II_1III_{14}IV_1$. The F_1 segment contains the catalytic sites for ATP synthesis and hydrolysis. The chloroplast F_1 (CF_1) is comprised of five different polypeptide subunits (α – ϵ) with a stoichiometry of $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma_1\delta_1\epsilon_1$. The α and β subunits alternate to form a hexameric ring with three catalytic sites located one on each of the three β subunits at $\alpha\beta$ interfaces, and three noncatalytic sites located one on each of the three α subunits, at the alternate $\alpha\beta$ interfaces (1, 2).

The three catalytic sites are structurally asymmetric, the result of differential interactions between each of the three $\alpha\beta$ pairs and the single-copy γ subunit (1, 3, 4). During ATP hydrolysis, cooperative ATP binding, hydrolysis, and ADP release result in directional rotation of the γ subunit (1, 3, 5, 6). During ATP synthesis, the proton gradient is considered to drive rotation of the γ subunit in the opposite direction, forcing the catalytic sites through the reverse sequence of conformational states. This results in sequential high-affinity binding of ADP and P_i , ATP synthesis and then ATP release (3, 6, 7). The crystal structure of the bovine mitochondrial F_1 identified several points of contact or “catches” between the γ subunit and the $\alpha_3\beta_3$ hexamer that potentially represent some (or all) of the asymmetric contacts responsible for defining the different conformational states of the catalytic sites (1). One such contact involves two highly conserved residues, an arginine and a glutamine, near the C-terminal tip of the γ subunit, that form hydrogen bonds with residues on an anionic loop on one of the three β subunits. In two of the three β subunits, the anionic loops form interfacial contacts with the nucleotide phosphate-binding P-loops within the nucleotide binding pockets. The catalytic site associated with the third β subunit does not contain bound nucleotide. In this site, the catch in the C-terminus of γ appears to have pulled the anionic loop away from the P-loop by several angstroms (1). This observation implies that formation of the catch helps to reduce the affinity of the

[†]This work was supported by grants from the National Science Foundation (MCB0212908) and the U.S. Department of Defense (W99INF.05.1.0054). H.S.S. was a Recipient of a National Institutes of Health Predoctoral Training Grant Fellowship (GM08545).

^{*}To whom correspondence should be addressed: Department of Molecular Biosciences, The University of Kansas, 1200 Sunnyside Ave., Lawrence, KS 66045. Telephone: (785) 864-2664. Fax: (785) 864-5321. E-mail: richter@ku.edu.

[‡]The University of Kansas.

[§]Johns Hopkins University.

¹Abbreviations: ACMA, 9-amino-6-chloro-2-methoxyacridine; DTT, dithiothreitol; CF_1 , EcF_1 , MF_1 , and TF_1 , catalytic coupling factor 1 from chloroplasts, *Escherichia coli*, mitochondria, and thermophilic bacteria, respectively; $CF_1(-\delta\epsilon)$, CF_1 deficient in the δ and ϵ subunits; CF_0 , proton-transporting chloroplast factor O; Tricine, N-[2-hydroxy-1-bis-(hydroxymethyl)ethyl]glycine; Tris, tris(hydroxymethyl)aminomethane; PMS, phenazine methylosulfate.

nucleotide at this site (8), and forming and breaking the catch is considered to constitute an "escapement mechanism" that is a critical step in the cooperative binding change process (9). The importance of the catch residues for catalysis in EcF₁ was demonstrated by selective substitution of the equivalent residues, Arg268 and Gln269, with leucine which was expected to block their potential for hydrogen bonding to the anionic loops on the β subunits. Indeed, either mutation resulted in an almost complete loss of both ATP hydrolysis and synthesis (9).

In the full-length structure of the bovine MF₁ γ subunit, the last ~45 residues of the C-terminus extend from the base (membrane side) of the $\alpha_3\beta_3$ hexamer nearly to the top of the hexamer where the last 12 residues fit snugly into a tightly packed ring of structure formed by the N-termini of the alternating α and β subunits. Abrahams et al. (1) suggested that this structure may act as a bearing for rotation of the γ subunit, and this concept has been used in modeling rotational catalysis by several groups (10–12). To examine the idea that the γ C-terminus acts as a bearing during rotation, a series of mutant CF₁ γ subunits was constructed having between 6 and 20 amino acids deleted from the γ C-terminus (13). Remarkably, deleting up to 14 residues from γ , including all of the putative bearing-forming residues, stimulated rather than inhibited both the Ca²⁺-dependent and Mg²⁺-dependent ATP hydrolysis activities, indicating that the tip residues are not required as a rotational bearing in CF₁. Subsequent studies indicated that the last 14 residues of the EcF₁ (14) and TF₁ (15) γ subunits are likewise dispensable for ATP hydrolysis and γ rotation. However, deletion of residues beyond the last 14 in CF₁ γ , down to and including the putative catch residues Arg304 and Gln305, resulted in a decrease of more than 80% in the ATPase activity, and the remaining activity was insensitive to the allosteric inhibitor tentoxin, an indication that the residual activity was no longer a multisite cooperative process (16, 17). This observation reinforced the structural data suggesting that the catch formed between the conserved arginine and glutamine may be a general feature of the F₁ enzymes and that it is required for the binding change process and for generation of rotational torque. This is, however, in contrast with results obtained more recently with TF₁ in which deletion of 21 residues from the γ C-terminus, although reducing the ATPase rate to less than 1% of that of the wild type, failed to abolish γ rotation, indicating that multisite catalytic cooperativity was retained (15).

Interestingly, successive removal of residues from the C-terminal tip of the CF₁ γ subunit resulted in successive loss of the oxanion activation of the MgATPase activity of CF₁ (13). Removing 20 residues from the C-terminus abolished oxanion (sulfite) stimulation altogether (13). Free magnesium ions or MgADP strongly inhibits the ATP hydrolysis activities of F₁-ATPases by forming a stable MgADP–enzyme complex (18–20). The effect is particularly pronounced in the mitochondrial and chloroplast enzymes and is considered to be a physiologically important regulatory mechanism, preventing futile ATP hydrolysis which would otherwise deplete essential ATP pools when electron transport is inactive (18, 21). Oxanions such as bicarbonate or sulfite are thought to compete with metal-binding ligands within the nucleotide binding pocket leading to faster release of ADP (13, 18, 21). The loss of oxanion

stimulation in the deletion mutants provided the first evidence of the involvement of the γ C-terminus in oxanion activation (13).

To examine the role(s) of individual catch residues in catalysis and oxanion activation, mutant CF₁ γ subunits were prepared in which Arg304, Gln305, and neighboring Arg302 were substituted, singly, in pairs, or all together with alanine or leucine. The mutant γ subunits were assembled with recombinant α and β subunits from F₁ of the photosynthetic bacterium *Rhodospirillum rubrum* (RrF₁) (21–24). This hybrid enzyme has been extensively characterized as a model photosynthetic enzyme and was shown recently to be capable of ATP hydrolysis-driven rotational catalysis (25). The study resulted in two very interesting observations. The first was that single mutations of the catch residues not only failed to eliminate ATPase activity but also in some cases significantly stimulated catalytic turnover. In addition, significant turnover persisted even when all three putative catch residues were substituted together. The second observation was that mutation of Gln305 to alanine completely abolished the stimulatory effect of oxanions on Mg²⁺-dependent ATP hydrolysis. These observations clearly indicated that the catch residues affect catalysis in different ways in EcF₁, TF₁, and the photosynthetic F₁ and that they are not universally required for cooperative multisite catalysis. They also confirmed that catch residues are involved in oxanion activation with the intriguing possibility that they are involved in communication between adjacent catalytic and noncatalytic sites (8).

In this study, we have examined the involvement of catch residues in proton-coupled processes in the photosynthetic enzyme by reconstituting the γ mutants at Arg302, Arg304, and Gln305 with an $\alpha_3\beta_3$ hexamer prepared from native CF₁ using previously established procedures (4). The reconstituted mutant enzymes exhibited several novel features. Most interestingly, the triple mutant, in which all three residues were substituted with alanine, showed a dramatically stimulated CaATPase activity (k_{cat} of 500 s^{−1} compared to a value of 140 s^{−1} for the wild-type enzyme), a partially stimulated MgATPase activity, and a markedly decreased response to stimulatory oxanions. In contrast, the ATP synthesis activity of all of the mutants decreased in parallel with loss of oxanion stimulation. In addition, the residual oxanion-stimulated MgATPase activity of the triple mutant was insensitive to the allosteric inhibitor tentoxin in contrast to the CaATPase activity which remained fully sensitive. The results are consistent with the hypothesis that the formation of the catch is an essential step in proton-coupled ATP synthesis and hydrolysis but does not represent an essential step in the multisite cooperative binding change process or, therefore, in ATP-dependent generation of γ subunit rotation.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Materials. Intact CF₁ and CF₁ lacking δ and ϵ subunits were isolated from fresh market spinach as described elsewhere (26, 27). Purified CF₁ was stored as an ammonium sulfate precipitate at 4 °C and desalted prior to use. A mixture containing approximately equal amounts of the native ϵ and δ subunits was isolated from CF₁ and stored for short periods (1–3 days) at 4 °C or for longer periods at −20 °C in a buffer containing 20% ethanol (v/v) and 30% glycerol (v/v)

(27–29). DEAE-cellulose, antibiotics (ampicillin, tetracycline, and chloramphenicol), Sephadex G50, and Ni-NTA resin were purchased from Sigma. Hydroxyapatite HTP gel was from Bio-Rad. Tryptone and yeast extract were obtained from DIFCO. ATP (grade II) and urea (ultrapure) were purchased from Fluka. Dialysis tubing (8000 molecular weight cutoff) was obtained from Biodesign Inc. (New York, NY). All other chemicals were of the highest quality reagent grade available.

Mutation of the γ Subunit. Mutant CF₁ γ subunits were constructed by enzymatic amplification of the pET8c- γ .BB1 expression plasmid (13). Primers were obtained from Integrated DNA Technologies with chemically phosphorylated 5' termini. PCRs, plasmid DNA purification, and bacterial transformation were carried out as described in detail elsewhere (24, 30). The resulting plasmid was transformed into competent *Escherichia coli* XL1-blue cells. Cloned plasmid was then isolated and transformed into the expression host *E. coli* BL21(DE3)/pLysS, in which mutant CF₁ γ proteins were expressed in insoluble inclusion bodies as described previously (4). The entire sequence of each mutant gene was confirmed by the Iowa State DNA Sequencing Facility.

Assembly and Purification of Recombinant $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma$ Complexes. CF₁ γ subunits were solubilized in urea and folded as described in earlier reports (4, 13, 30). Native chloroplast $\alpha_3\beta_3$ hexamers were prepared and purified from CF₁ by hydroxyapatite chromatography (4). Folded γ subunits were reconstituted with $\alpha_3\beta_3$ hexamers and purified by DEAE anion exchange chromatography (4).

Reconstitution of $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma$ Assemblies with Thylakoid Membranes Deficient in CF₁. Spinach chloroplast thylakoids were prepared and treated with NaBr to generate CF₁-deficient membranes (31, 32). Purified reconstituted $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma$ assemblies were incubated with the ϵ δ preparation (27, 28) at a saturating molar ratio (15 μ g of $\delta\epsilon$ per 10 μ g of $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma$) at room temperature in 40 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0) for 1 h. The assembly was passed through a Sephadex G50 centrifuge column to remove unbound ϵ and δ subunits. The purified assembly (100 μ g) was reconstituted with CF₁-deficient thylakoid membranes (equivalent to 20 μ g of chlorophyll) in a buffer containing 20 mM Tricine-NaOH (pH 8.0), 1 mM MgCl₂, and 0.2 mg/mL bovine serum albumin in a final volume of 0.5 mL on ice for 10 min.

ATP Hydrolysis Assays. Enzyme samples (5–20 μ g) were preincubated with 10 mM dithiothreitol for a minimum of 10 min at room temperature in 25 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8) to reduce the regulatory disulfide bridge in the γ subunit prior to the assay (27). The Mg²⁺- and Ca²⁺-dependent ATP hydrolysis activities were measured by incubation with 2 μ g of enzyme for 5 min at 37 °C in 1 mL of assay mixture containing 25 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8) and ATP, MgCl₂, or CaCl₂ at the concentrations indicated in the figure legends. An equal volume of 0.5 M trichloroacetic acid was added to stop the reaction, and the concentration of P_i was measured as described previously (33). In the tentoxin titrations of Figures 5 and 6, the enzyme was preincubated with tentoxin at the concentrations indicated in the figure legends for 5 min in 0.5 mL of 25 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0). The assay was initiated by addition of 0.5 mL of double-strength assay mixture. Tentoxin was dissolved in acetone, and compensating amounts of acetone were added to samples such that the

final concentration was the same ($\leq 2\%$, v/v) in all samples. Protein concentrations were determined using the Bradford method (34). Kinetic constants were obtained using Sigma-Plot.

Proton Permeability Measurements. Reconstituted thylakoid membranes equivalent to 20 μ g of chlorophyll were assayed for light-dependent pH gradient formation using 9-amino-6-chloro-2-methoxyacridine (ACMA) fluorescence quenching in an assay buffer with a total volume of 1 mL containing 40 mM Tricine-NaOH (pH 8.0), 50 mM NaCl, 50 μ M phenazine methosulfate (PMS), 2 μ M ACMA, and 2.5 mM ascorbate (pH 6.8). Quenching of the fluorescence of ACMA (excitation at 410 nm and emission at 450 nm) was measured as described previously (31, 35, 36). Actinic light was supplied by an LED spotlight emitting at 660 nm at an intensity of 200 μ mol m⁻² s⁻¹. The quenching signal was reported as a percentage of the ratio of $\Delta F/F$ of mutant assemblies relative to that of wild-type CF₁, where ΔF was the difference in fluorescence (dark minus light) and F the steady-state fluorescence in the dark (36).

ATP Synthesis Measurements. ATP synthesis was assessed in 1 mL of assay mixture containing 500 mM Tricine-NaOH (pH 8.0), 500 mM NaCl, 5 mM MgCl₂, 0.05 mM PMS, 2 mM potassium phosphate (pH 7.0), 1 mM ADP (ATP-free), 0.1 mM diadenosine pentaphosphate, and reconstituted thylakoid membranes equivalent to 20 μ g of chlorophyll. The reaction was carried out under a light intensity of 2.5×10^6 ergs cm⁻² s⁻¹ for 2 min at 22 °C. Trichloroacetic acid was added to the reaction mixture to a final concentration of 0.5% (v/v) after the light was switched off, and the mixture was centrifuged at 30000g for 5 min at room temperature. After a 20-fold dilution, the resulting supernatant was assayed for ATP concentration using a Sirius II luminometer in which 100 μ L of the supernatant solution was mixed in a Sarstedt tube with 100 μ L of instantly injected assay buffer containing 25 mM Tris-acetate (pH 7.75), 2 mM EDTA, 50 mM DTT, 0.02 mM D-luciferin, 1.5 mg/mL BSA, 20 mM magnesium acetate, and 0.3 μ g/mL luciferase. The luminescence was measured by integrating the signal for 5 s after injection. The same reaction mix was used to determine concentrations of ATP standards (10^{-11} to 10^{-5} M in 10-fold increments) dissolved in 25 mM Tris-acetate (pH 7.75).

RESULTS

Assembly Competency of Mutant Chloroplast γ Subunits. Mutant and wild-type chloroplast γ subunits were expressed, folded, and assembled with native chloroplast $\alpha_3\beta_3$ hexamers as described previously (4, 13). The reconstituted assemblies were purified by gel filtration (22) and exhibited electrophoretic profiles on sodium dodecyl sulfate gels that were indistinguishable from that of the native CF₁- δ , ϵ complex (not shown). The purified $\alpha_3\beta_3$ hexamer displayed specific activities for MgATP and CaATP hydrolysis of approximately 0.1 μ mol min⁻¹ mg⁻¹, and the MgATPase activity was not stimulated by addition of the oxyanion sulfite. In contrast, the purified, reassembled complex containing the wild-type γ subunit had a specific CaATPase activity of 20 μ mol min⁻¹ mg⁻¹ and a MgATPase activity of 2.5 μ mol min⁻¹ mg⁻¹ that was stimulated 23-fold upon addition of 50 mM sulfite. These latter properties of the reconstituted enzyme are essentially identical to those of the native CF₁- δ , ϵ complex (27, 28).

ATPase Activities of Mutant F₁ Assemblies. Three residues in the C-terminal region of the chloroplast γ subunit were targeted in this study. Residues equivalent to Arg304 and Gln305 of the CF₁ γ subunit were identified in the crystal structure of bovine MF₁ to form hydrogen bonds with residues on an anionic loop of one of the three β subunits. The contact was suggested to be necessary for creating the asymmetric nucleotide binding properties of the enzyme involved in the binding change process (1). A residue equivalent to Arg302 in the CF₁ γ subunit is sufficiently close to an anionic loop on an α subunit in the bovine MF₁ to form a salt link (1). Substitution of this residue with leucine resulted in a marked stimulation of the MgATPase activity of the hybrid photosynthetic F₁ assembly, indicating that it also plays a role in modulating catalytic function (8).

Arg302 and Arg304 were initially substituted with leucine to negate the positive charge while maintaining a side chain similar in size. Subsequently, Gln305, then Arg304 and Gln305 together, and finally all three residues together were substituted with alanine to eliminate the potential of these residues to form hydrogen bonds with residues on the α and β subunits. All of the mutant assemblies were exposed to 10 mM DTT in a preincubation step to reduce the regulatory disulfide bond that is present in the γ subunit. Reduction is necessary for maximum activation of the ATP hydrolysis activity (27). The ATPase activities of the F₁ assemblies containing the mutant γ subunits are shown in Figure 1, and the k_{cat} values are summarized in Table 1. Marked differences were observed between the Ca²⁺- and Mg²⁺-dependent activities. The CaATPase activity of the γ R302L mutant decreased by 20%, but those of the γ R304L and γ Q305A mutants increased by 26 and 91%, respectively. The MgATPase activities of all three mutants increased significantly (Figure 1b), the greatest increase (~2-fold) being that of the γ R304L mutant. Interestingly, the rates of MgATPase activity in the presence of the activating oxyanion sulfite decreased in each case, the greatest decrease (~50%) also being observed with the γ R304L mutant (Figure 2 and Table 1).

The effects of simultaneous substitution of γ Arg302 and γ R304, γ R304 and γ Q305, or all three residues together on the ATPase activities are shown in Figure 3, and the k_{cat} values are summarized in Table 1. The γ R302L/R304L double mutant was very similar to the γ R302L single mutant in showing a partially reduced CaATPase activity and an enhanced MgATPase activity. The γ R304A/Q305A double mutant and the triple mutant exhibited remarkably high CaATPase activities, the highest that we have ever recorded and approximately 3-fold higher than the activity of the wild-type enzyme. The MgATPase activities of the double and triple mutants were also elevated 3–4-fold over the wild-type activity. In contrast, the sulfite-activated catalytic rates were significantly reduced in all of the mutants (Figure 4 and Table 1).

Loss of Sensitivity to Tentoxin. The fungal phytotoxin tentoxin is a potent inhibitor of cooperative multisite catalysis by CF₁ (16). Maximum inhibition is reached at a concentration of approximately 1 μ M. Higher concentrations of tentoxin lead to reactivation of the inhibited form, and significant stimulation occurs at still higher concentrations (37–39). The results of titration of the wild-type and mutant assemblies with tentoxin are shown in Figures 5 and 6. The

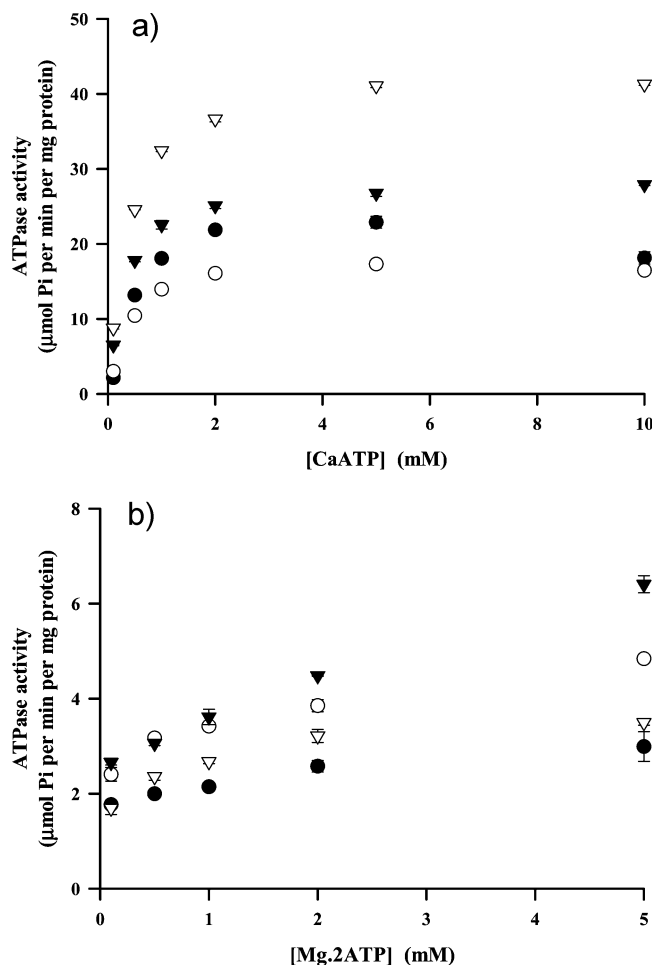


FIGURE 1: ATP hydrolysis by CF₁ assemblies containing single C-terminal γ mutations. ATP hydrolysis assay mixtures contained a 1:1 Ca²⁺:ATP ratio (a) or a 0.5:1 Mg²⁺:ATP ratio (b) at the indicated concentrations: (●) CF₁ γ _{wild-type}, (○) CF₁ γ _{R302L}, (▼) CF₁ γ _{R304L}, and (▽) CF₁ γ _{Q305A}. Error bars represent standard deviations ($n = 3$).

data are representative titrations that were performed twice with the same outcome. The Ca²⁺-dependent ATPase activities of the wild type and mutants exhibit full sensitivity to inhibition by tentoxin (Figure 5A). In contrast, the MgATPase activities of the mutants (Figure 5B) exhibit decreased sensitivity to tentoxin inhibition. The MgATPase activities of the γ R304A/Q305A double mutant and the γ R302A/R304A/Q305A triple mutant were unaffected. The effect of tentoxin on the sulfite-stimulated MgATPase activities of the mutants is shown in Figure 6. All of the mutants except the γ R302L single mutant showed a decreased sensitivity to tentoxin inhibition, the maximum effect being obtained with the double γ R304A/Q305A mutant and the triple mutant. Thus, the C-terminal mutations selectively interfered with tentoxin inhibition of the MgATPase activity of the enzyme. All of the mutant enzymes exhibited the typical reactivation and/or stimulation of both MgATPase and CaATPase activities that occur at higher concentrations of tentoxin, indicating that only inhibition of MgATPase activity was affected.

Effects of Mutations on Proton-Coupled Functions. The $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma$ assemblies containing the recombinant γ subunits were first reconstituted with the δ and ϵ subunits and then reconstituted with CF₁-deficient thylakoid membranes (28, 40). In the absence of CF₁, protons flow freely through CF₀ and the thylakoid membranes are unable to maintain an

Table 1: Summary of k_{cat} Values for γ Mutant F_1 Assemblies

γ mutant	k_{cat} (s^{-1}) ^a			R^c
	Ca^{2+}	Mg^{2+}	Mg^{2+} and sulfite ^b	
$\text{CF}_1(\alpha\beta)_3\gamma_{\text{wild-type}}$	136.9 ± 13.7	15.6 ± 1.4	353.0 ± 24.2	22.6
$\text{CF}_1(\alpha\beta)_3\gamma_{\text{R302L}}$	109.1 ± 4.1	25.4 ± 2.3	264.8 ± 8.1	10.4
$\text{CF}_1(\alpha\beta)_3\gamma_{\text{R304L}}$	172.9 ± 2.0	35.2 ± 7.0	161.4 ± 9.7	4.6
$\text{CF}_1(\alpha\beta)_3\gamma_{\text{Q305A}}$	261.6 ± 3.0	19.9 ± 1.4	238.6 ± 7.8	12.0
$\text{CF}_1(\alpha\beta)_3\gamma_{\text{R302L/R304L}}$	101.6 ± 3.1	69.3 ± 12.5	196.2 ± 20.2	2.8
$\text{CF}_1(\alpha\beta)_3\gamma_{\text{R304A/Q305A}}$	441.6 ± 13.2	46.7 ± 6.3	138.8 ± 14.0	3.0
$\text{CF}_1(\alpha\beta)_3\gamma_{\text{R302A/R304A/Q305A}}$	499.8 ± 14.5	49.6 ± 15.2	167.2 ± 16.2	3.4

^a k_{cat} values were calculated using the nonlinear regression tools in Sigma Plot 8.0. Errors are expressed as standard deviations ($n = 3$). ^b Sodium sulfite (50 mM) was added to the assay mixture. ^c Ratio of activity in the presence of sulfite to that in the absence of sulfite.

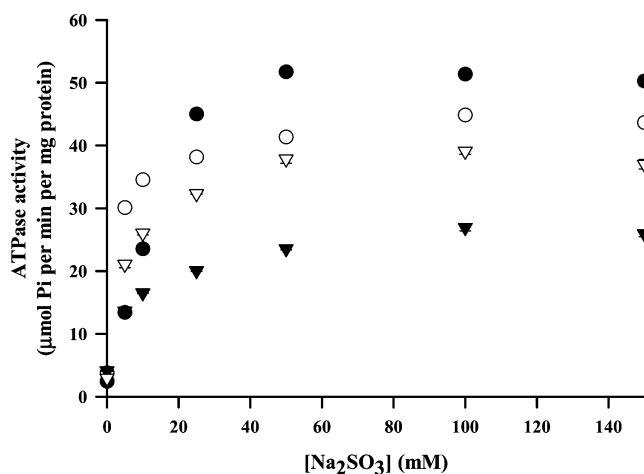


FIGURE 2: Sulfite activation of CF_1 assemblies that contain chloroplast γ subunits with single C-terminal mutations. The ATP hydrolysis activities were determined in the presence of 4 mM ATP, 2 mM MgCl_2 , and the indicated concentrations of sodium sulfite: (●) $\text{CF}_1\gamma_{\text{wild-type}}$, (○) $\text{CF}_1\gamma_{\text{R302L}}$, (▼) $\text{CF}_1\gamma_{\text{R304L}}$, and (▽) $\text{CF}_1\gamma_{\text{Q305A}}$. Error bars represent standard deviations ($n = 3$).

effective proton gradient. Addition of CF_1 blocks the free flow of protons across the membrane, restoring the ability to form and maintain a proton gradient (26, 28, 32).

The capacity of F_1 assemblies containing the mutant γ subunits to block the free flow of protons across the membrane was determined using ACMA fluorescence (36, 41). Thylakoid membranes reconstituted with CF_1 assembled using the recombinant wild-type γ subunit showed a maximum light-dependent quenching of ACMA fluorescence of ~60%, the same as that observed in membranes reconstituted with native CF_1 (not shown). In contrast, the capacities of the assemblies containing the γ mutants to block proton flow through CF_0 were significantly reduced (Table 2). This was not likely to be due to a reduced level of binding of mutant assemblies to the membranes. First, the degree of quenching did not increase with increasing concentrations of CF_1 , indicating that saturation had been achieved; second, modifications of the γ subunit of CF_1 (e.g., reduction and specific cleavage by trypsin) do not affect the binding of CF_1 to CF_0 (42), and third, generation of a measurable transmembrane pH gradient requires that 90% or more of the CF_0 is complexed with CF_1 (43). Thus, the assemblies containing the γ mutants appeared to be proton-leaky.

The results shown in Table 2 further indicate a loss of ATP synthesis capacity by the mutant enzymes. The triple mutant was most affected, having only ~13% of wild-type ATP synthesis. Interestingly, the reduced ATP synthesis capacity of the mutants paralleled the reduction in sulfite-

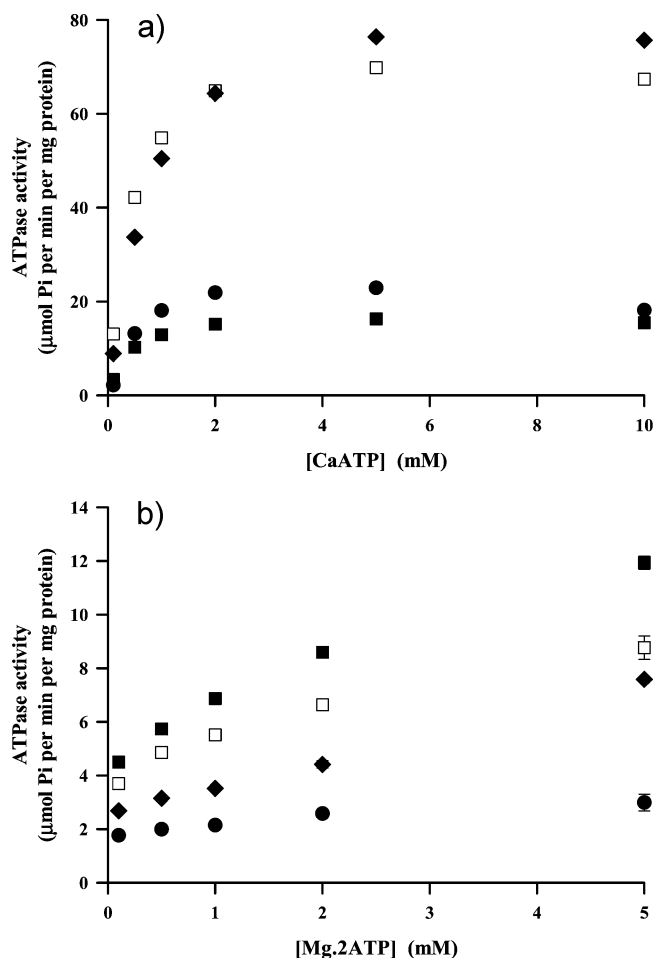


FIGURE 3: ATP hydrolysis by CF_1 assemblies containing multiple C-terminal γ mutations. ATP hydrolysis assay mixtures contained either a 1:1 Ca^{2+} :ATP ratio (a) or a 0.5:1 Mg^{2+} :ATP ratio (b) at the indicated concentrations: (●) $\text{CF}_1\gamma_{\text{wild-type}}$, (■) $\text{CF}_1\gamma_{\text{R302L/R304L}}$, (□) $\text{CF}_1\gamma_{\text{R304A/Q305A}}$, and (◆) $\text{CF}_1\gamma_{\text{R302A/R304A/Q305A}}$. Error bars represent standard deviations ($n = 3$).

stimulated MgATPase activity (Table 1) which in turn paralleled the increase in CaATPase activity (Table 1).

DISCUSSION

Catch Residues Are Not Essential for Cooperative Multisite Catalysis by CF_1 . The results of this study confirm the importance of the catch residues in governing catalytic rates in CF_1 . Single mutations of Arg304 or Gln305 led to increased rates of ATP hydrolysis; the Q305A mutation increased the rate of MgATP hydrolysis to a greater extent than the R304L mutant, whereas the R304L mutant increased the rate of CaATP hydrolysis to a greater extent than the

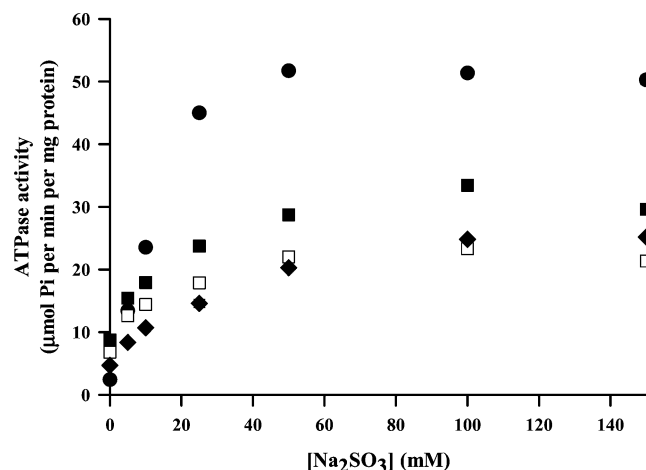


FIGURE 4: Sulfite activation of CF₁ assemblies with double and triple C-terminal γ mutations. The ATP hydrolysis activities of purified enzyme assemblies were determined in the presence of 4 mM ATP, 2 mM MgCl₂, and the indicated concentrations of sodium sulfite: (●) CF₁ γ _{wild-type}, (■) CF₁ γ _{R302L/R304L}, (□) CF₁ γ _{R304A/Q305A}, and (◆) CF₁ γ _{R302A/R304A/Q305A}. Error bars represent standard deviations ($n = 3$).

Q305A mutant. Mutation of Arg302 to leucine resulted in a small decrease in CaATPase activity and an increase in MgATPase activity. The different degrees by which the mutations affect catalysis are assumed to result from different contributions of the three residues in binding the γ subunit to the α and β subunits. In general, it appears that reducing the amount of contact between γ and $\alpha\beta$ subunits results in higher ATPase activity. This is in stark contrast to the effects of mutation of residues equivalent to γ R304 and γ Q305 to leucine in EcF₁ which drastically reduced the rate of catalytic turnover (9). Remarkably, the double γ R304A/Q305A and triple γ R302A/R304A/Q305A mutants showed a greater than 3-fold increase in CaATPase activity compared to the wild-type enzyme. The elevated rate of CaATP hydrolysis was fully sensitive to tentoxin, indicating that it resulted from normal cooperative multisite nucleotide interactions (16). The triple mutant contains four sequential alanine residues from position 302 through 305. These substitutions should eliminate any potential of this region of the γ subunit to form hydrogen bonds or salt links with the anionic loops on α and β subunits and therefore to form the catch. The fact that the triple mutant is more active as an ATPase than the native enzyme indicates that the catch residues are not critical for the cooperative multisite catalysis. From this result, we infer that forming the catch is not an essential step in driving unidirectional rotation of the γ subunit, although this remains to be demonstrated experimentally. This result is consistent with the results of the TF₁ γ deletion study (15).

The Catch Residues Are Required for Oxyanion Activation of the Mg²⁺-Inhibited State of CF₁. Substitution of either Arg302, Arg304, or Gln305 with leucine or alanine significantly reduced the level of sulfite activation of ATP hydrolysis (Table 1). The γ R304L mutant was most affected, having a ratio of sulfite-stimulated to basal ATP hydrolysis of $\sim 5/1$ compared to $\sim 23/1$ for the wild-type enzyme. A similar effect was observed previously when the γ mutants were assembled into the hybrid enzyme containing the α and β subunits from *R. rubrum* (8). In that case, replacement of Gln305 with alanine alone or in combination with

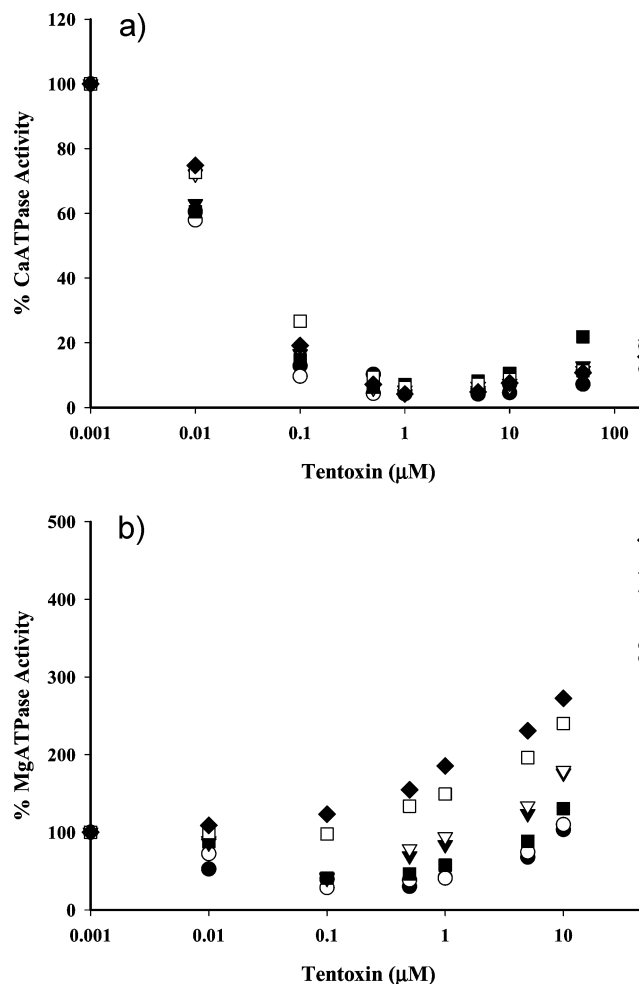


FIGURE 5: Titration of γ mutants with tentoxin. ATP hydrolysis assay mixtures contained either 5 mM ATP and 5 mM CaCl₂ (a) or 4 mM ATP and 2 mM MgCl₂ (b). Samples were preincubated with tentoxin at the indicated concentrations for 5 min prior to initiation of the assay: (●) CF₁ γ _{wild-type}, (○) CF₁ γ _{R302L}, (▼) CF₁ γ _{R304L}, (▽) CF₁ γ _{Q305A}, (■) CF₁ γ _{R302L/R304L}, (□) CF₁ γ _{R304A/Q305A}, and (◆) CF₁ γ _{R302A/R304A/Q305A}. Error bars represent standard errors ($n = 2$).

mutations of Arg302 and Arg304 completely eliminated the sulfite-induced stimulation of MgATP hydrolysis.

It was noted previously (8) that residues equivalent to Arg302, Arg304, and Gln305 in the bovine MF₁ structure (Arg252, Arg254, and Gln255) form a bridge across a noncatalytic $\alpha\beta$ interface, linking the adjacent α and β subunits together. Freshly isolated CF₁ contains two very tightly bound molecules of ADP (44), one in a catalytic site and one in a noncatalytic site (45–47). The enzyme is latent with respect to MgATP hydrolysis due to the presence of MgADP bound tightly in a noncatalytic site on the enzyme (45, 46, 48). Pretreatment of CF₁ with MgATP results in activation of the MgATPase activity by filling one or more noncatalytic sites with MgATP (49). Once activated, the ADP that is tightly bound in the catalytic site is assumed to rapidly exchange with MgATP via the cooperative binding change process (50). Oxyanions such as sulfite decrease the binding affinity of nucleotides at noncatalytic sites and increase the extent of nucleotide exchange at catalytic sites (51). In view of these properties, and by analogy to the MF₁ structure, the observed effects of mutating the catch residues on the sulfite-stimulated ATP hydrolysis activity of the hybrid enzyme led

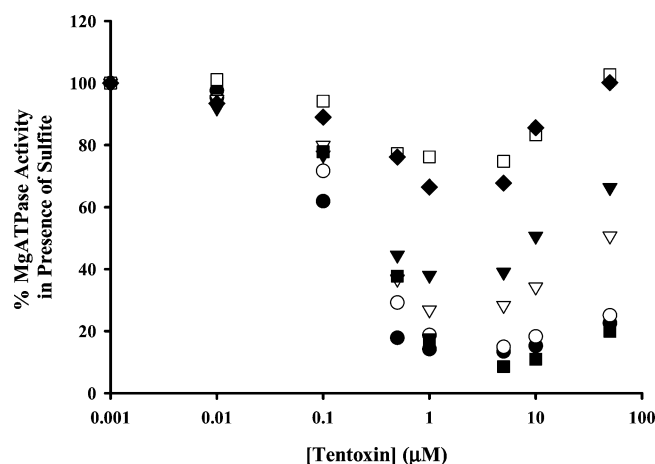


FIGURE 6: Tentoxin inhibition of sulfite-stimulated MgATP hydrolysis. ATP hydrolysis assay mixtures contained 4 mM ATP, 2 mM MgCl₂, and 25 mM Na₂SO₃. Samples were preincubated with tentoxin at the indicated concentrations for 5 min prior to initiation of the assay: (●) CF₁γ wild-type, (○) CF₁γR302L, (▼) CF₁γR304L, (▽) CF₁γQ305A, (■) CF₁γR302L/R304L, (□) CF₁γR304A/Q305A, and (◆) CF₁γR302A/R304A/Q305A. Error bars represent standard errors (*n* = 2).

Table 2: Proton Gradient Formation and ATP Synthesis by Mutant γ F₁ Assemblies

γ mutant	relative ΔF/F (%) ^a	ATP synthesis [μmol of P _i h ⁻¹ (mg of chl) ⁻¹]	% of WT
CF ₁ (αβ) ₃ γ wild-type	100	66.0 ± 3.4	100
CF ₁ (αβ) ₃ γR302L	64	30.6 ± 1.9	46
CF ₁ (αβ) ₃ γR304L	39	15.9 ± 3.2	24
CF ₁ (αβ) ₃ γQ305A	55	23.8 ± 1.2	36
CF ₁ (αβ) ₃ γR302L/R304L	40	18.6 ± 2.0	28
CF ₁ (αβ) ₃ γR304A/Q305A	42	12.3 ± 1.2	19
CF ₁ (αβ) ₃ γR302A/R304A/Q305A	36	8.5 ± 1.1	13

^a ACMA quenching and ATP synthesis by purified F₁ assemblies were assessed as described in Experimental Procedures. Errors are expressed as standard deviations (*n* = 4).

to the hypothesis that the activating effect of oxyanions results from stimulation of exchange of MgATP for MgADP in a noncatalytic site and that occupancy of the noncatalytic site by MgATP is communicated to the catalytic site via the catch residues (8). The effects of the γ mutations on the sulfite-stimulated MgATPase activity of the homogeneous chloroplast enzyme described in this study are consistent with this hypothesis. The selective loss of sensitivity to tentoxin of the MgATPase activity further suggests that loss of connectivity across the noncatalytic interface that occurs with the γ triple mutant results in the loss of the cooperative exchange of the ADP tightly bound in one of the three catalytic sites. The rate of release of the tightly bound ADP from the catalytic site limits the rate of MgATP hydrolysis (18).

Tentoxin is known to block the cooperative exchange of nucleotides among the three catalytic sites that leads to high rates of multisite catalysis (16). One explanation for the loss of tentoxin sensitivity in the triple mutant that is consistent with the hypothesis is that, in the absence of the residues necessary to form the catch, cooperative exchange of the ADP that is tightly bound to a catalytic site is either blocked or greatly inhibited. If this is indeed the case, the residual tentoxin-insensitive activity must then result from single-site or two-site catalysis at the remaining site or sites. A thorough analysis of exchange of tightly bound ADP from

catalytic and noncatalytic sites in the triple mutant is currently in progress to determine if the nonexchangeable ADP is located in a catalytic or noncatalytic site.

The observation that cooperative multisite hydrolysis of CaATP is unaffected or enhanced by removal of the catch residues is consistent with past studies indicating that free Ca²⁺ ions at concentrations of several millimolar are not inhibitory (21). Thus, Mg²⁺ ions but not Ca²⁺ ions specifically induce the inhibited conformational state of the enzyme. Since Ca²⁺ is a substrate for multisite ATP hydrolysis and can drive γ subunit rotation (25), it follows that the Mg²⁺-induced state defined in the MF₁ structure may not represent an essential conformational intermediate in the binding change process that leads to rotation of the γ subunit.

In general, the results of this study in which mutants were assembled with the native α and β subunits agree with those of the previous study in which the mutants were assembled with the hybrid enzyme (8). There are, however, some differences worth noting. First, in the hybrid enzyme, while single mutants stimulated the CaATPase activity to very high levels (*k*_{cat} ~ 640 s⁻¹), the double and triple mutants partially inhibited CaATPase activity (50–80%) in contrast to the large stimulation observed in this study. One possible explanation for the difference is that the combined mutations partially destabilized the hybrid enzyme. The catalytic activities of the hybrid containing the wild-type γ subunit are significantly higher than those of the native enzyme which may result from fewer contacts between the γ subunit and the α₃β₃ hexamer (13). Thus, a further reduction could lead to destabilization and loss of activity. Second, differences were observed in the extent of sulfite stimulation by the single mutations. For example, the γR304L mutant had no apparent effect in the hybrid but reduced sulfite-stimulated activity by ~40% in this study. The reverse was true for the Q305A mutant which eliminated oxanion stimulation in the hybrid but only partially inhibited this activity in the native enzyme. This points to subtle differences in the binding interactions among the catch residues in the different enzyme assemblies, and more studies are needed to identify these differences.

The Catch Residues Are Important for Mg²⁺-Dependent Proton-Coupled ATP Synthesis. The effects of mutation of the catch residues on proton-coupled functions (Table 2) paralleled the loss of sulfite-stimulated MgATP hydrolysis (Table 1). The triple mutation in the γ subunit caused CF₀F₁ to become proton-leaky and reduced the ATP synthesis capacity to ~13% of that of the wild type. The ratio of sulfite-stimulated to unstimulated MgATPase activity was similarly reduced by ~85% in the triple mutant compared to that of the wild-type enzyme. This relationship is very significant. Light-dependent activation of ATP synthesis or hydrolysis by the CF₀F₁ complex has been shown to coincide with conversion of the enzyme from a form which has MgADP or MgATP tightly bound to catalytic and noncatalytic sites which is nonexchangeable with medium nucleotides to a form in which the tightly bound nucleotides can be rapidly exchanged with medium nucleotides (20, 47, 52). In contrast, adding MgADP to the enzyme in the dark following light activation results in the rapid conversion of the enzyme to the latent, inhibited form (53).

Activation of the latent ATPase activity of membrane-bound CF₀F₁ is a two-step process. Formation of a trans-

membrane pH gradient (Δ pH) induces a conformation in which a disulfide bridge between two vicinal thiols within a special regulatory domain of the γ subunit is reduced by thioredoxin (54). Disulfide reduction has been shown to result in a shift in the conformation of the inhibitory ϵ subunit releasing its inhibitory effect (55, 56). Addition of a small amount of trypsin following reduction of the disulfide results in cleavage within the regulatory domain of γ and permanent loss of ϵ inhibition (27, 42, 56). However, the MgATPase activity of the enzyme remains latent even after disulfide reduction and trypsin cleavage of the γ subunit, requiring either the presence of a Δ pH or addition of oxyanions as a second activating step (42). In this respect, oxyanions mimic the proton gradient in overcoming the inhibition by free Mg²⁺ or MgADP. We have shown in this study that the γ catch residues play an important role in both the Δ pH and oxyanion activation processes. At least one step in this mechanism involves exchange of MgADP for MgATP into a noncatalytic site and communication of this exchange to catalytic sites. Mutation of the catch residues in the hybrid enzyme resulted in the complete loss of the oxyanion stimulation of catalysis (8). In CF₁, however, mutating the catch residues slowed, but did not eliminate, oxyanion stimulation. One possible explanation for the difference is that while oxyanions stimulate release of MgADP from catalytic sites as well as exchange of nucleotides in noncatalytic sites in CF₁ (25), they effect only noncatalytic nucleotide exchange in the hybrid. This explanation is supported by the observation that the MgATPase activity of the hybrid is already partially activated in the absence of activating oxyanions (22).

In the crystal structure of bovine MF₁, the β_{DP} (with ADP bound) and β_{TP} (with ATP bound) subunits form additional catches with the γ subunit that involve the conserved DELSEED loop sequences on the β subunits with residues in the C-terminus of the γ subunit from Met23 to Val26 and from Leu77 to Lys87, and from Arg228 to 230 on the N-terminus of the γ subunit (1). The catches are thought to assist in closing the catalytic sites upon nucleotide binding by forcing an upward motion of the helical structure that contains the DELSEED loop which is connected to residues located in the nucleotide binding pocket. The DELSEED loop is extended downward in the β_E subunit in the absence of bound nucleotide (1). Interestingly, an earlier study with EcF₁ (57) indicated that mutation of one of the catch residues, Met23, to lysine strongly affected proton coupling and ATP synthesis activities but had a much weaker effect on ATPases activity. In a more recent study in TF₁ (58), the entire DELSEED loop (DELSDED in PS3 F₁) was substituted with alanine residues. The substitutions were expected to eliminate the γ - β catch interactions involving the DELSEED loop segment of the β subunit. Interestingly, the ATPase activity of the mutant was partially inhibited (~60%), yet the mutant was still fully capable of generating the same amount of rotational torque as the wild-type enzyme. These results are consistent with our observations of the effects of mutations within the upper catch and strongly support the idea that at least two of the catches identified in the crystal structure of MF₁ are primarily involved in coupling interactions and less important for the binding change process leading to γ rotation.

In summary, the residues identified in the crystal structure of MF₁ to form a catch between the C-terminus of the γ

subunit and anionic loops on one of the three $\alpha\beta$ subunit pairs are not required for the binding change process in CF₁ and, therefore, are not required for generating rotational torque. Instead, they are specifically required for an activating mechanism involving exchange of inhibitory ADP for ATP in one or more noncatalytic sites on CF₁ that leads to rapid release of product ADP from catalytic sites via the binding change process during MgATP hydrolysis. Inhibitory binding of MgADP to CF₁ serves to prevent futile ATP hydrolysis under physiological conditions in the dark when electron transport is no longer active. The proton-driven conformational steps that lead to rapid exchange of inhibitory MgADP and subsequent activation of the enzyme cannot be ascertained from existing crystal structures of F₁ and F₀F₁ enzymes and will require new experimental approaches for their elucidation.

REFERENCES

1. Abrahams, J. P., Leslie, A. G., Lutter, R., and Walker, J. E. (1994) Structure at 2.8 Å resolution of F₁-ATPase from bovine heart mitochondria, *Nature* 370, 621–628.
2. Girault, G., Berger, G., Galmiche, J. M., and Andre, F. (1988) Characterization of six nucleotide-binding sites on chloroplast coupling factor 1 and one site on its purified β subunit, *J. Biol. Chem.* 263, 14690–14695.
3. Boyer, P. D. (1993) The binding change mechanism for ATP synthase: Some probabilities and possibilities, *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 1140, 215–250.
4. Gao, F., Lipscomb, B., Wu, I., and Richter, M. L. (1995) In vitro assembly of the core catalytic complex of the chloroplast ATP synthase, *J. Biol. Chem.* 270, 9763–9769.
5. Boyer, P. D. (1997) The ATP synthase: A splendid molecular machine, *Annu. Rev. Biochem.* 66, 717–749.
6. Cross, R. L. (2000) The rotary binding change mechanism of ATP synthesis, *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 1458, 270–275.
7. Milgrom, Y. M., and Cross, R. L. (2005) Rapid hydrolysis of ATP by mitochondrial F₁-ATPase correlates with the filling of the second of three catalytic sites, *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* 102, 13831–13836.
8. He, F., Samra, H. S., Tucker, W. C., Mayans, D. R., Hoang, E., Gromet-Elhanan, Z., Berrie, C. L., and Richter, M. L. (2007) Mutations within the C-terminus of the γ subunit of the photosynthetic F₁-ATPase activate MgATP hydrolysis and attenuate the stimulatory oxyanion effect, *Biochemistry* 46, 2411–2418.
9. Greene, M. D., and Frasch, W. D. (2003) Interactions among γ R268, γ Q269, and the β subunit catch loop of *Escherichia coli* F₁-ATPase are important for catalytic activity, *J. Biol. Chem.* 278, 51594–51598.
10. Cui, Q., Li, G., Ma, J., and Karplus, M. (2004) A normal mode analysis of structural plasticity in the biomolecular motor F₁-ATPase, *J. Mol. Biol.* 340, 345–372.
11. Gao, Y. Q., Yang, W., and Karplus, M. (2005) A structure-based model for the synthesis and hydrolysis of ATP by F₁-ATPase, *Cell* 123, 195–205.
12. Oster, G., and Wang, H. (2000) Reverse engineering a protein: The mechanochemistry of ATP synthase, *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 1458, 482–510.
13. Sokolov, M., Lu, L., Tucker, W., Gao, F., Gegenheimer, P. A., and Richter, M. L. (1999) The 20 C-terminal amino acid residues of the chloroplast ATP synthase γ subunit are not essential for activity, *J. Biol. Chem.* 274, 13824–13829.
14. Muller, M., Panke, O., Junge, W., and Engelbrecht, S. (2002) F₁-ATPase, the C-terminal end of subunit γ is not required for ATP hydrolysis-driven rotation, *J. Biol. Chem.* 277, 23308–23313.
15. Hossain, M. D., Furuike, S., Maki, Y., Adachi, K., Ali, M. Y., Huq, M., Itoh, H., Yoshida, M., and Kinoshita, K., Jr. (2006) The rotor tip inside a bearing of a thermophilic F₁-ATPase is dispensable for torque generation, *Biophys. J.* 90, 4195–4203.
16. Hu, N., Mills, D. A., Huchzermeyer, B., and Richter, M. L. (1993) Inhibition by tentoxin of cooperativity among nucleotide binding sites on chloroplast coupling factor 1, *J. Biol. Chem.* 268, 8536–8540.

17. Sokolov, M., and Gromet-Elhanan, Z. (1996) Spinach chloroplast coupling factor CF1- $\alpha_3\beta_3$ core complex: Structure, stability, and catalytic properties, *Biochemistry* 35, 1242–1248.
18. Du, Z. Y., and Boyer, P. D. (1990) On the mechanism of sulfite activation of chloroplast thylakoid ATPase and the relation of ADP tightly bound at a catalytic site to the binding change mechanism, *Biochemistry* 29, 402–407.
19. Moyle, J., and Mitchell, P. (1975) Active/inactive state transitions of mitochondrial ATPase molecules influenced by Mg^{2+} , anions and aurovertin, *FEBS Lett.* 56, 55–61.
20. Zhou, J. M., Xue, Z. X., Du, Z. Y., Melese, T., and Boyer, P. D. (1988) Relationship of tightly bound ADP and ATP to control and catalysis by chloroplast ATP synthase, *Biochemistry* 27, 5129–5135.
21. Du, Z., Tucker, W. C., Richter, M. L., and Gromet-Elhanan, Z. (2001) Assembled F1- $\alpha\beta$ and Hybrid F1- $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma$ -ATPases from *Rhodospirillum rubrum* α , wild type or mutant β , and chloroplast γ subunits. Demonstration of Mg^{2+} versus Ca^{2+} -induced differences in catalytic site structure and function, *J. Biol. Chem.* 276, 11517–11523.
22. Tucker, W. C., Du, Z., Gromet-Elhanan, Z., and Richter, M. L. (2001) Formation and properties of hybrid photosynthetic F1-ATPases. Demonstration of different structural requirements for stimulation and inhibition by tentoxin, *Eur. J. Biochem.* 268, 2179–2186.
23. Tucker, W. C., Du, Z., Hein, R., Richter, M. L., and Gromet-Elhanan, Z. (2000) Hybrid *Rhodospirillum rubrum* F₀F₁ ATP synthases containing spinach chloroplast F₁ β or α and β subunits reveal the essential role of the α subunit in ATP synthesis and tentoxin sensitivity, *J. Biol. Chem.* 275, 906–912.
24. Tucker, W. C., Du, Z., Hein, R., Gromet-Elhanan, Z., and Richter, M. L. (2001) Role of the ATP synthase α -subunit in conferring sensitivity to tentoxin, *Biochemistry* 40, 7542–7548.
25. Tucker, W. C., Schwarz, A., Levine, T., Du, Z., Gromet-Elhanan, Z., Richter, M. L., and Haran, G. (2004) Observation of calcium-dependent unidirectional rotational motion in recombinant photosynthetic F1-ATPase molecules, *J. Biol. Chem.* 279, 47415–47418.
26. McCarty, R. E., and Racker, E. (1968) Partial resolution of the enzymes catalyzing photophosphorylation. 3. Activation of adenosine triphosphatase and ^{32}P -labeled orthophosphate-adenosine triphosphate exchange in chloroplasts, *J. Biol. Chem.* 243, 129–137.
27. Richter, M. L., Snyder, B., McCarty, R. E., and Hammes, G. G. (1985) Binding stoichiometry and structural mapping of the ϵ polypeptide of chloroplast coupling factor 1, *Biochemistry* 24, 5755–5763.
28. Richter, M. L., Patrie, W. J., and McCarty, R. E. (1984) Preparation of the ϵ subunit and ϵ subunit-deficient chloroplast coupling factor 1 in reconstitutively active forms, *J. Biol. Chem.* 259, 7371–7373.
29. Younis, H. M., Winget, G. D., and Racker, E. (1977) Requirement of the δ subunit of chloroplast coupling factor 1 for photophosphorylation, *J. Biol. Chem.* 252, 1814–1818.
30. Samra, H. S., Gao, F., He, F., Hoang, E., Chen, Z., Gegenheimer, P. A., Berrie, C. L., and Richter, M. L. (2006) Structural analysis of the regulatory dithiol-containing domain of the chloroplast ATP synthase γ subunit, *J. Biol. Chem.* 281, 31041–31049.
31. Cruz, J. A., Harfe, B., Radkowski, C. A., Dann, M. S., and McCarty, R. E. (1995) Molecular dissection of the ϵ subunit of the chloroplast ATP synthase of spinach, *Plant Physiol.* 109, 1379–1388.
32. Kamienietzky, A., and Nelson, N. (1975) Preparation and Properties of Chloroplasts Depleted of Chloroplast Coupling Factor 1 by Sodium Bromide Treatment, *Plant Physiol.* 55, 282–287.
33. Taussky, H. H., and Shorr, E. (1953) A microcolorimetric method for the determination of inorganic phosphorus, *J. Biol. Chem.* 202, 675–685.
34. Bradford, M. M. (1976) A rapid and sensitive method for the quantitation of microgram quantities of protein utilizing the principle of protein-dye binding, *Anal. Biochem.* 72, 248–254.
35. Cruz, J. A., Radkowski, C. A., and McCarty, R. E. (1997) Functional Consequences of Deletions of the N Terminus of the ϵ Subunit of the Chloroplast ATP Synthase, *Plant Physiol.* 113, 1185–1192.
36. Evron, Y., and McCarty, R. E. (2000) Simultaneous measurement of ΔpH and electron transport in chloroplast thylakoids by 9-aminoacridine fluorescence, *Plant Physiol.* 124, 407–414.
37. Mochimaru, M., and Sakurai, H. (1997) Three kinds of binding site for tentoxin on isolated chloroplast coupling factor 1, *FEBS Lett.* 419, 23–26.
38. Pinet, E., Gomis, J. M., Girault, G., Cavellier, F., Verducci, J., Noel, J. P., and Andre, F. (1996) Tentoxin has at least two binding sites on CF1 and ϵ -depleted CF1 ATPases isolated from spinach chloroplast, *FEBS Lett.* 395, 217–220.
39. Santolini, J., Haraux, F., Sigalat, C., Moal, G., and Andre, F. (1999) Kinetic analysis of tentoxin binding to chloroplast F1-ATPase. A model for the overactivation process, *J. Biol. Chem.* 274, 849–858.
40. Patrie, W. J., and McCarty, R. E. (1984) Specific binding of coupling factor 1 lacking the δ and ϵ subunits to thylakoids, *J. Biol. Chem.* 259, 11121–11128.
41. Evron, Y., Johnson, E. A., and McCarty, R. E. (2000) Regulation of proton flow and ATP synthesis in chloroplasts, *J. Bioenerg. Biomembr.* 32, 501–506.
42. McCarty, R. E. (2005) ATP synthase of chloroplast thylakoid membranes: A more in depth characterization of its ATPase activity, *J. Bioenerg. Biomembr.* 37, 289–297.
43. Weiss, M. A., and McCarty, R. E. (1977) Cross-linking within a subunit of coupling factor 1 increases the proton permeability of spinach chloroplast thylakoids, *J. Biol. Chem.* 252, 8007–8012.
44. Shapiro, A. B., Huber, A. H., and McCarty, R. E. (1991) Four tight nucleotide binding sites of chloroplast coupling factor 1, *J. Biol. Chem.* 266, 4194–4200.
45. Digel, J. G., Kishinevsky, A., Ong, A. M., and McCarty, R. E. (1996) Differences between two tight ADP binding sites of the chloroplast coupling factor 1 and their effects on ATPase activity, *J. Biol. Chem.* 271, 19976–19982.
46. Digel, J. G., and McCarty, R. E. (1995) Two tight binding sites for ADP and their interactions during nucleotide exchange in chloroplast coupling factor 1, *Biochemistry* 34, 14482–14489.
47. Malyan, A. N. (2006) ADP and ATP binding to noncatalytic sites of thiol-modulated chloroplast ATP synthase, *Photosynth. Res.* 88, 9–18.
48. Malyan, A. N., and Strotmann, H. (1994) Energy-dependent changes in the ATP/ADP ratio at the tight nucleotide binding site of chloroplast ATP synthase, *Photosynth. Res.* 42, 169–172.
49. Milgrom, Y. M., Ehler, L. L., and Boyer, P. D. (1991) The characteristics and effect on catalysis of nucleotide binding to noncatalytic sites of chloroplast F1-ATPase, *J. Biol. Chem.* 266, 11551–11558.
50. Murataliev, M. B., and Boyer, P. D. (1992) The mechanism of stimulation of MgATPase activity of chloroplast F1-ATPase by non-catalytic adenine-nucleotide binding. Acceleration of the ATP-dependent release of inhibitory ADP from a catalytic site, *Eur. J. Biochem.* 209, 681–687.
51. Malyan, A. N., and Vitseva, O. I. (2001) Interaction of sulfite with the noncatalytic and catalytic sites of chloroplast coupling factor cf1, *Biochemistry (Moscow)* 66, 410–414.
52. Malyan, A. N. (2005) Light-dependent incorporation of adenine nucleotide into noncatalytic sites of chloroplast ATP synthase, *Biochemistry (Moscow)* 70, 1245–1250.
53. Carmeli, C., and Lifshitz, Y. (1972) Effects of P 1 and ADP on ATPase activity in chloroplasts, *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 267, 86–95.
54. Ketcham, S. R., Davenport, J. W., Warncke, K., and McCarty, R. E. (1984) Role of the γ subunit of chloroplast coupling factor 1 in the light-dependent activation of photophosphorylation and ATPase activity by dithiothreitol, *J. Biol. Chem.* 259, 7286–7293.
55. Richter, M. L., and McCarty, R. E. (1987) Energy-dependent changes in the conformation of the ϵ subunit of the chloroplast ATP synthase, *J. Biol. Chem.* 262, 15037–15040.
56. Soteropoulos, P., Ong, A. M., and McCarty, R. E. (1994) Alkylation of cysteine 89 of the γ subunit of chloroplast coupling factor 1 with N-ethylmaleimide alters nucleotide interactions, *J. Biol. Chem.* 269, 19810–19816.
57. Al-Shawi, M. K., and Nakamoto, R. K. (1997) Mechanism of energy coupling in the FOF1-ATP synthase: The uncoupling mutation, γ M23K, disrupts the use of binding energy to drive catalysis, *Biochemistry* 36, 12954–12960.
58. Yoshida, S., and Anraku, Y. (2000) Characterization of staurosporine-sensitive mutants of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*: Vacuolar functions affect staurosporine sensitivity, *Mol. Gen. Genet.* 263, 877–888.