



## The obligate respiratory supercomplex from *Actinobacteria*



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### ARTICLE INFO

#### Article history:

Received 25 February 2016

Received in revised form 27 June 2016

Accepted 23 July 2016

Available online 27 July 2016

#### Keywords:

menaquinone

*Actinobacteria*

respiratory chain

cytochrome oxidase

cytochrome *bc*<sub>1</sub> complex

supercomplex

### ABSTRACT

*Actinobacteria* are closely linked to human life as industrial producers of bioactive molecules and as human pathogens. Respiratory cytochrome *bcc* complex and cytochrome *aa*<sub>3</sub> oxidase are key components of their aerobic energy metabolism. They form a supercomplex in the actinobacterial species *Corynebacterium glutamicum*. With comprehensive bioinformatics and phylogenetic analysis we show that genes for *cyt bcc-aa*<sub>3</sub> supercomplex are characteristic for *Actinobacteria* (*Actinobacteria* and *Acidimicrobiia*, except the anaerobic orders *Actinomycetales* and *Bifidobacteriales*). An obligatory supercomplex is likely, due to the lack of genes encoding alternative electron transfer partners such as mono-heme *cyt c*. Instead, subunit QcrC of *bcc* complex, here classified as short di-heme *cyt c*, will provide the exclusive electron transfer link between the complexes as in *C. glutamicum*. Purified to high homogeneity, the *C. glutamicum bcc-aa*<sub>3</sub> supercomplex contained all subunits and cofactors as analyzed by SDS-PAGE, BN-PAGE, absorption and EPR spectroscopy. Highly uniform supercomplex particles in electron microscopy analysis support a distinct structural composition. The supercomplex possesses a dimeric stoichiometry with a ratio of *a*-type, *b*-type and *c*-type hemes close to 1:1:1. Redox titrations revealed a low potential *bcc* complex ( $E_m^{ISP} = +160$  mV,  $E_m^{b_L} = -291$  mV,  $E_m^{b_H} = -163$  mV,  $E_m^{CC} = +100$  mV) finely-tuned for oxidation of menaquinol and a mixed potential *aa*<sub>3</sub> oxidase ( $E_m^{CUA} = +150$  mV,  $E_m^{a/a_3} = +143/+317$  mV) mediating between low and high redox potential to accomplish dioxygen reduction. The generated molecular model supports a stable assembled supercomplex with defined architecture which permits energetically efficient coupling of menaquinol oxidation and dioxygen reduction in one supramolecular entity.

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### 1. Introduction

The phylum *Actinobacteria* [1] comprises medically and economically very important species, such as industrial producers of a variety of bioactive molecules and human pathogens. Examples include *Streptomyces*, which are the most abundant source of natural antibiotics [2], and the soil bacterium *Corynebacterium glutamicum*, which is used for production of glutamate and lysine at megaton scale per year and which has superior potential for production of other chemicals such as organic acids, diamines, or biofuels and for proteins [3,4]. Closely related to *C. glutamicum* are the diphtheria and tuberculosis (TB) causing species *C. diphtheriae* and *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* [5,6]. In aerobic respiration, which is a predominant form of cellular energy conversion

in *Actinobacteria*, exergonic electron transfer through respiratory chain complexes with dioxygen as terminal acceptor generates proton motive force (PMF) that drives ATP synthesis. Respiratory complexes can associate in supramolecular associations, the so called respiratory supercomplexes. They have been intensely studied in mitochondria [7], in which they may organize electron flux for an optimal use of available substrates [8]. Little is known about the actinobacterial counterpart. An actinobacterial respiratory supercomplex was first reported for *C. glutamicum* [9,10]. In this supercomplex, electron transfer from menaquinol to dioxygen is facilitated by a sequential reaction of cytochrome *bcc* complex<sup>1</sup> (*bcc* complex) and cytochrome *aa*<sub>3</sub> oxidase (*aa*<sub>3</sub> oxidase) which both contribute to PMF generation [11,12]. Co-purification of the complexes demonstrated their supramolecular

Abbreviations:  $E_m$ , midpoint potential; PMF, proton motive force; SEC, size exclusion chromatography; TB, tuberculosis.

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<sup>1</sup> Cytochrome *bcc* complex rather than cytochrome *bc*<sub>1</sub> complex is used for a consistent nomenclature in prokaryotic and eukaryotic respiratory complexes.

association and quinol oxidase activity [13]. No additional cytochrome *c* (cyt *c*) is present for electron transfer between the two complexes in *C. glutamicum*, as staining of protein extracts from whole cells for covalently bound heme showed the presence of a single, membrane bound *c*-type cytochrome, the di-heme QcrC subunit of *bcc* complex [13]. QcrC mediates electron transfer between the two enzymes, both heme groups of the di-heme class I cytochrome *c* are essential for the transfer [13].

*C. glutamicum* has a second branch of the respiratory chain with lower bioenergetic efficiency, in which the *bd* quinol oxidase directly oxidizes quinol and reduces dioxygen [12,14,15]. As *C. glutamicum* lacks a proton pumping NADH dehydrogenase, the major energy transducer in oxygenic oxidative phosphorylation are *bcc* complex and *aa*<sub>3</sub> oxidase. This is confirmed by the growth defect observed for a mutant lacking the *bcc* complex [15]. This supercomplex is thus of interest for optimizing efficiency in industrial production [11] and may provide opportunities to combat drug-resistant forms of TB [16]. Interestingly, *bcc* complex from *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* and *aa*<sub>3</sub> complex from *Mycobacterium smegmatis* were recently combined in a hybrid actinobacterial supercomplex similar to that of *C. glutamicum* [17]. The underlying structural and energetic principles of this supermolecular association are not clear and the question arises whether *bcc* complex and *aa*<sub>3</sub> oxidase generally form a supercomplex in *Actinobacteria*.

In respiratory chains, exergonic electron transfer is facilitated through a series of enzyme-embedded redox centers with increasing midpoint potentials. Different potentials are also known for the small lipophilic quinone molecules which transfer electrons between enzyme complexes *via* diffusion in the membrane. These quinones are specific to organisms and are used as taxonomic markers [18]. In contrast to many other aerobic organism which use high potential ubiquinone ( $E_{m7} = 90$  mV) [19], *Actinobacteria* as all other Gram-positive bacteria possess the low potential menaquinone ( $E_{m7} = -74$  mV) [18,20]. A correlation of high- and low-potential respiratory chains with ubiquinone and menaquinone, respectively, has been suggested [21]. Low redox potentials were measured for the Rieske iron sulfur protein (ISP), the quinol oxidizing subunit of *bc* complexes, of some menaquinone utilizing organisms [21,22]. Furthermore, our recent sequence analysis of cyt *b* and Rieske ISP suggested that the enzyme co-evolved with the substrate quinone species [23], and we proposed a low potential for these two catalytic subunits of actinobacterial *bcc* complex. However, with dioxygen as terminal electron acceptor, high potential cofactors are expected towards the oxygen reducing end.

Here we show with bioinformatics and phylogenetic analysis that not only the *C. glutamicum* genome harbors the genes encoding the cyt *bcc-aa*<sub>3</sub> supercomplex but that this genetic composition is characteristic for the majority of *Actinobacteria*. The analysis also demonstrates that the phylum lacks genes for additional class I cyt *c*, which could accomplish electron transfer between *bcc* complex and *aa*<sub>3</sub> oxidase, the homologs of mitochondrial complexes III and IV. Instead, the link between menaquinol-oxidizing and oxygen reducing complex and the characteristic feature of the supercomplex is subunit QcrC, which is shown to be a short di-heme cyt *c*. We therefore term the actinobacterial *bcc-aa*<sub>3</sub> supercomplex an obligatory supercomplex. Purified to homogeneity, the defined dimeric stoichiometry and highly uniform particles clearly indicate a distinct structural composition of the obligate supercomplex, which was substantiated by a structural model. The redox-tuned supercomplex has a low potential *bcc* complex, as predicted on the basis of the PDWY sequence for the Q<sub>o</sub> motif of actinobacterial cyt *b* [23], and a mixed-type potential *aa*<sub>3</sub> oxidase, thus accepting electrons with a low potential side and donating them to dioxygen with a high potential side. The stable assembled supramolecular association permits energetically efficient coupling of menaquinol oxidation and dioxygen reduction.

## 2. Materials and methods

### 2.1. Cell cultivation, membrane preparation and purification of *bcc-aa*<sub>3</sub> supercomplex

For production of supercomplex, *C. glutamicum* strain  $\Delta C-D_{St}$  (13032 $\Delta ctaD$  with pJCl-*ctaD<sub>St</sub>*) was cultivated as described [13] in buffered medium (100 mM potassium phosphate buffer, pH 6.8). 30 g of cells was suspended in 90 ml of 100 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5), 5 mM MgSO<sub>4</sub> and trace amount of Benzozase (Novagen) and broken by a Constant cell disrupter (TS series) at 35 kpsi with four passages. After removal of cell debris (10,000  $\times$ g for 30 min), the membranes were sedimented by ultracentrifugation (43,000  $\times$ g for 15 h). 1 g of cell membrane was solubilized in 20 ml of 100 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5), 2 mM MgSO<sub>4</sub>, 100 mM NaCl, 1% dodecyl-maltopyranoside (DDM) for 45 min at 4 °C. Insoluble material was removed by ultracentrifugation at 185,000  $\times$ g for 40 min, and the supernatant was subjected to streptavidin purification using a Strep-Tactin Superflow-HR column (IBA GmbH) equilibrated with Buffer W (100 mM Tris-HCl, 2 mM MgSO<sub>4</sub>, 100 mM NaCl and 0.015% DDM). Supercomplex was eluted in one step with 2.5 mM D-desthiobiotin dissolved in Buffer W and consequently purified *via* size-exclusion chromatography (TSKgel G4000 SW column, 7.5 mm  $\times$  60 cm, TOSOH Bioscience) using the same buffer without D-desthiobiotin. For calibration, the High Molecular Weight Gel Filtration Calibration Kit (GE Healthcare) was used. The purified protein was analyzed by SDS-PAGE (14% acrylamide/bisacrylamide) [24] and Blue-Native PAGE [25] and was visualized by silver staining.

### 2.2. Biochemical and biophysical analysis

The concentration of supercomplex was quantified from dithionite-reduced minus ferricyanide oxidized redox difference spectra at room temperature, using the respective extinction coefficients: heme *a*  $\Delta_{600-630} = 11.6$  mM<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-1</sup>, heme *b*  $\Delta_{562-577} = 22$  mM<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-1</sup>, heme *c*  $\Delta_{552-540} = 19.1$  mM<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-1</sup> [13]. The redox midpoint potentials of *a*-, *b*- and *c*-type hemes were determined by electrochemical titrations using an electrochemical thin layer cell [26] and monitored by absorbance spectroscopy from 400 to 800 nm as described before [27,28]. The purified supercomplex was dissolved in 50 mM sodium phosphate buffer pH 7.0, 100 mM NaCl, 20 mM MgSO<sub>4</sub> and 0.01% DDM. 7  $\mu$ l of the protein was mixed with a cocktail of mediators at a final concentration of 25  $\mu$ mol/l [29] for at least 1 h before loading into the electrochemical cell. The sample was titrated from -450 to +450 mV (SHE) at 10 °C, with a potential step of either 25 or 50 mV, and an equilibration time varying from 30 to 60 min per step. The absorbance spectra were recorded with a Cary 300 spectrophotometer. 5 spectra were averaged to improve the signal to noise ratio.

The redox midpoint potential of Rieske iron-sulfur cluster and Cu<sub>A</sub> was determined by redox titration and monitored by EPR spectroscopy. EPR spectra were recorded on a Bruker Elexsys E500 X-band spectrophotometer fitted with an Oxford Instruments He-cryostat and temperature control system. Conditions are indicated in the figure legend. Redox titrations were performed as described [30] in the presence of 50 mM MOPS buffer pH 7, 2 mM KCN, 20 mM glucose, glucose oxidase and mediators *p*-benzoquinone, 2,5-(OH)<sub>2</sub> *p*-benzoquinone, 1,2-naphthoquinone, phenazine methyl sulfate, and methylene blue at 100  $\mu$ M each. Reductive titrations were carried out by sodium dithionite, oxidative titrations by ferricyanide. The amount of reduced Rieske iron-sulfur cluster was evaluated on the *g<sub>y</sub>* line. EPR settings: temperature 15 K, microwave power 6.4 mW, microwave frequency 9.48 GHz, modulation amplitude 0.003 mT. The binding of stigmatellin was measured with EPR spectroscopy using streptavidin affinity chromatography purified supercomplex (38  $\mu$ M) and following EPR settings: temperature 15 K, microwave power 6.4 mW, microwave frequency 9.48 GHz, modulation amplitude 0.001 mT.

### 2.3. Electron microscopy and single particle analysis

The supercomplex samples were prepared on glow-discharged carbon-coated copper grids and negatively stained with 1% (w/v) uranyl acetate. Electron micrographs were taken on a Philips CM120 microscope at 120 kV under low dose conditions at a 44,000 fold magnification on Kodak SO-163 electron image film. The negatives were analyzed by optical diffraction for correct defocus, lack of drift and astigmatism and digitalized by a PhotoScan scanner at a pixel size of 7  $\mu\text{m}$ , corresponding to 1.59  $\text{\AA}$  on the specimen. Subsequently adjacent pixels were averaged to yield a pixel size of 4.77  $\text{\AA}$ . Total 1600 particles were selected and subjected to multi-reference alignment, multi-variate statistical analysis and classification using the IMAGIC-5 image processing package [31].

### 2.4. Bioinformatic analysis

Cyt *c* protein sequences were identified using HMMER (v. 3) [32] with the profile hidden Markov model of class I cyt *c* (PF00034 from the Pfam database, [33]) against the non-redundant, curated NCBI Reference Sequence (RefSeq) protein database release 59 (May 2013) [34]. All the protein sequences above the default inclusion threshold (e-value lower than  $1e^{-3}$ ) were collected. In addition, HMMER counts the number of cyt *c* domains, which facilitates the classification of multiple-domain proteins. The number of di-heme cyt *c* was reduced by homology clustering using the CD-HIT application [35] with threshold set to 40% identities, and 640 sequence representatives were selected. To define di-heme cyt *c* as a subunit of *bcc* complex (QcrC), it is presumed that *qcrC* should be allocated with cyt *b* (*qcrB*) and Rieske ISP (*qcrA*) in the *qcrABC* gene cluster, or the homologous *petABCD* cluster in the same genome. QcrB sequences were fetched by the profile hidden Markov model of cytochrome *b* N-terminal domain (PF00032) from the RefSeq database. The locus\_tag associated with each sequence was analyzed for all di-heme cyt *c* and QcrB [23]. 21 di-heme cyt *c* were found in the same gene cluster with cyt *b*, and therefore these sequences were defined as di-heme QcrC. For phylogenetic analysis, the di-heme QcrC of *C. glutamicum* was used to replace the di-heme QcrC from *Corynebacterium pseudotuberculosis* (YP\_006213938). CLUSTAL Omega [36] was used for calculating sequence alignment. Bayesian phylogenetic analysis was performed with MRBayes [37] with 8 chains, 100,000 generations, burnin set to 25% of the sample, and temperature set to 0.1. Phylogenetic trees were plotted by FigTree (<http://tree.bio.ed.ac.uk/software/figtree/>). The standalone NCBI BLAST+ application (v. 2.28) was used for managing the local copy of RefSeq database and performing homology search [38]. Transmembrane helices were predicted by TOPCONS [39] and TMHMM [40].

Homology modeling of QcrC and construction of a model of the supercomplex catalytic core. The homology model of the soluble domain of *C. glutamicum* QcrC was obtained using the X-ray structure of CcoP from *Pseudomonas stutzeri* (PDB 3mk7, [41]) as template. Sequence alignment (CLUSTAL Omega [36]) of QcrC and CcoP was optimized for gap position. The sequences have 49% similarity (Table S1, Fig. S1). The program MODELLER was used for modeling ([http://salilab.org/modeller; \[42\]](http://salilab.org/modeller; [42])). The model of the catalytic core of the supercomplex was constructed by manual docking of X-ray structures of homologous complexes and the QcrC homology model. QcrC was superimposed on subunit cyt  $c_1$  of the cyt *bc*<sub>1</sub> complex from *Paracoccus denitrificans* (PDB 2yiu, [43]) and cyt  $c_1$  was removed. The predicted transmembrane helices of Rieske ISP and di-heme QcrC were omitted (Table S1). Whereas the corresponding proteobacterial subunits have a single transmembrane helix (TMH), the former possesses three and the latter two TMHs. *C. glutamicum* QcrB has a C-terminal domain of 82 amino acids which would extend to the electronegative membrane side. Two molecules of *aa*<sub>3</sub> oxidase were positioned at each side of the *bcc* dimer using the X-ray structure of *aa*<sub>3</sub> oxidase from *Rhodobacter sphaeroides* (PDB 1m56, [44])

(Table S1). The TMH of QcrB and CtaE/F were located adjacent to each other bringing the second heme *c* and Cu<sub>A</sub> close to a distance of 14  $\text{\AA}$ . *C. glutamicum aa*<sub>3</sub> oxidase would have one more TMH based on topology prediction (Table S1). The model has a two-fold symmetry.

## 3. Results and discussion

### 3.1. Genes encoding the catalytic subunits of cyt *bcc-aa*<sub>3</sub> supercomplex are characteristic for Actinobacteria

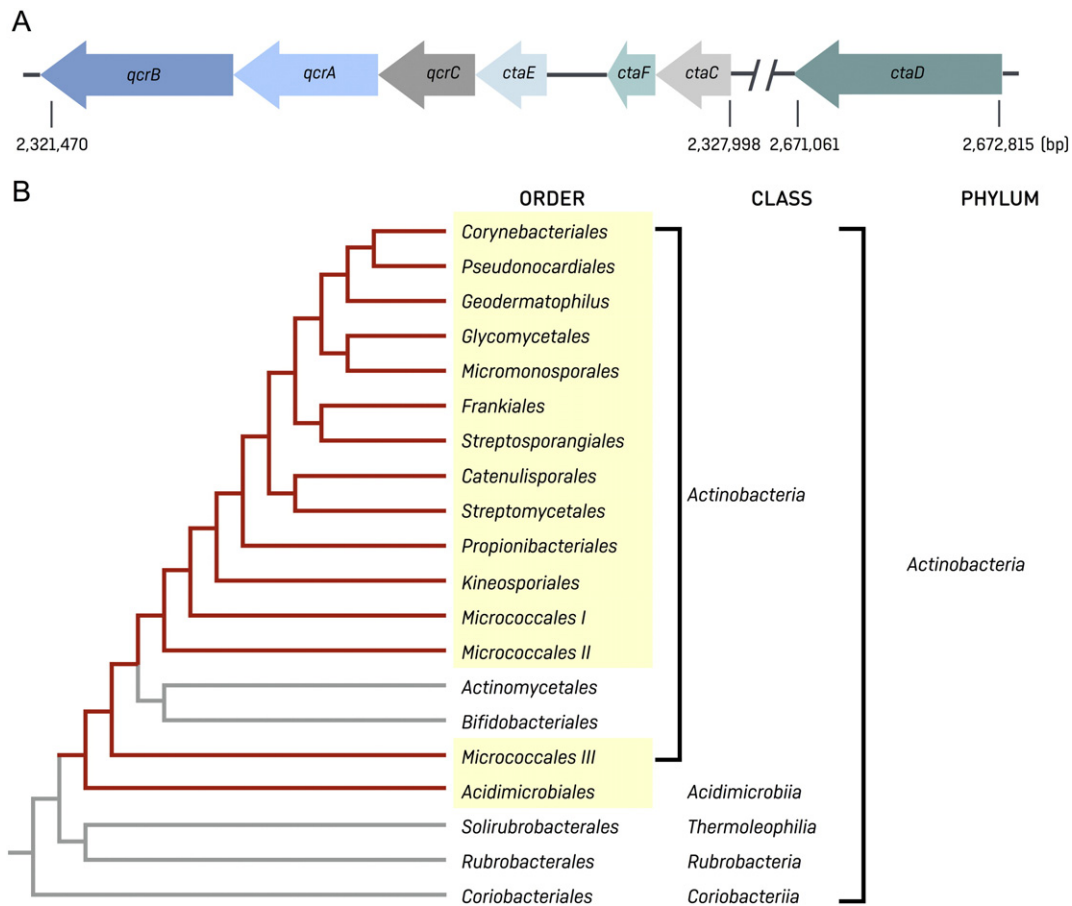
The catalytic core of the *C. glutamicum bcc-aa*<sub>3</sub> supercomplex consist of subunits QcrA, QcrB, QcrC, CtaC, CtaD, CtaE and CtaF, which are encoded by the gene clusters *qcrABC* and *ctaCEF* and gene *ctaD* (Fig. 1A and Table S1) [11]. In order to evaluate the distribution of these genes in the entire phylum Actinobacteria, homologous sequences were retrieved from the 732 actinobacterial genomes present in the NCBI database using HMMER homology-searching methods (see Materials and methods). Genes for the catalytic subunits are universally present in nearly all orders of the class Actinobacteria with the exceptions of the anaerobic orders Actinomycetales and Bifidobacteriales. They are also characteristic for the class Acidimicrobiia (Figs. 1B and S2).

### 3.2. Actinobacteria harbor di-heme QcrC genes but lack additional genes encoding c-type heme proteins

Di-heme QcrC was identified as sole c-type cytochrome in *C. glutamicum* and its structural and functional role for this supercomplex was shown [13]. In order to probe the exclusive presence of di-heme QcrC genes not only in *C. glutamicum* but in all phyla, a systematic analysis of the distribution of genes that encode class I cyt *c* proteins was carried out. The NCBI RefSeq protein database (Release 59, May 2013) was searched by the profile hidden Markov model of class I cyt *c* (Pfam entry PF00034). Genes encoding one up to six class I cyt *c* domains are widely distributed in the 16S rRNA based phylogenetic tree of all organisms (Fig. S3). Notably, Actinobacteria is the only phylum, in which genes for di-heme cyt *c* rather than mono-heme cyt *c* are predominantly present. Furthermore, genes encoding more than two cyt *c* domains are lacking in that phylum. The majority of actinobacterial di-heme cyt *c* genes belong to the *qcrABC* gene cluster and are thus di-heme *qcrC*. Most of them encode QcrC with two transmembrane helices and others with one helix (Dataset S1). They belong to the class Actinobacteria (513 sequences) and to the class Acidimicrobiia (2 sequences). The few actinobacterial genes encoding single class I cyt *c* domain proteins (11 sequences) are from the classes Acidimicrobiia and Rubrobacteria, which lack the *qcrABC* cluster (Table S2). They are fused with genes of other respiratory complexes as for instance genes of the *caa*<sub>3</sub> oxidase (Table S2) and are thus not relevant for the supercomplex. Finally, genes for copper based electron carriers such as plastocyanin were not identified in the phylum Actinobacteria (data not shown). To summarize, the phylogenetic analysis shows that not only *C. glutamicum* but in general Actinobacteria lack genes for mono-heme cyt *c* or other c-type heme proteins other than *qcrC*, strongly suggesting that di-heme QcrC is the sole link between *bcc* complex and *aa*<sub>3</sub> oxidase in an operational actinobacterial supercomplex.

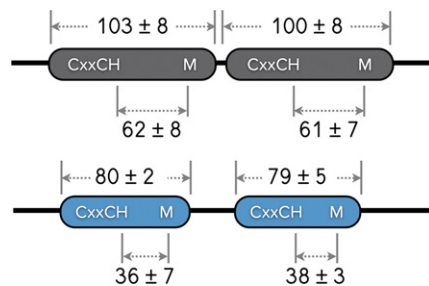
### 3.3. Actinobacterial *qcrC* encode small di-heme cyt *c*

In order to identify specific structural features of actinobacterial di-heme QcrC, a systematic analysis of all di-heme cyt *c* protein sequences throughout all kingdoms of life was performed. All di-heme cyt *c* sequences were retrieved from the NCBI RefSeq protein database and the total of 8839 hits was reduced to 640 representatives, which share sequence identity not higher than 40% using the sequence clustering algorithm CD-HIT [35]. For the identification of di-heme cyt *c* as QcrC subunit of cyt *bc* complex, the locus tags were paired with those of



**Fig. 1.** Phylogenetic distribution of cytbcc complex and  $aa_3$  oxidase genes in Actinobacteria. (A) Schematic depiction of genes encoding cytbcc complex (*qcrABC*) and  $aa_3$  oxidase (*ctaCDEF*) according to the genome of *C. glutamicum* ([http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genome/469?genome\\_assembly\\_id=166859](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genome/469?genome_assembly_id=166859)). *ctaD* is located 345 kb upstream of *ctaC*. (B) The occurrence of cytbcc complex and  $aa_3$  oxidase in the orders of Actinobacteria is mapped on a phylogenetic tree. The latter is based on the sequence of 35 conserved proteins [1] and was plotted with identical branching length. The presence of both complexes is indicated by red lines and yellow background. With the exceptions of the anaerobic orders Actinomycetales and Bifidobacteriales, the complexes are present in all other orders of the class Actinobacteria and in the class Acidimicrobiia. *Geodermatophilus* is a genus from Frankiales, which does not cluster with the order. Micrococcales is split in three branches on the tree and therefore denoted as I, II and III. Detailed statistics of the number of species encoding each enzyme subunit is summarized in Fig. S2.

QcrB [23]. In the representative di-heme cyt *c* data set, 21 QcrC sequences were identified. Remarkably, they show a systematic difference in length and were categorized accordingly into two groups (Fig. 2 and Table S4). Short di-heme QcrC sequences have a length of 79–80 residues for each domain and a distance of about 37 residues between the axial heme ligands. Long di-heme QcrC sequences have an average length of 102 residues for each domain and a distance of about 62 residues between the axial ligands (Fig. 2). The classes Actinobacteria and Acidimicrobiia have short di-heme QcrC sequences (Table S4), whereas the long are found in  $\epsilon$ -Proteobacteria, *Chloroflexi*, and low branching



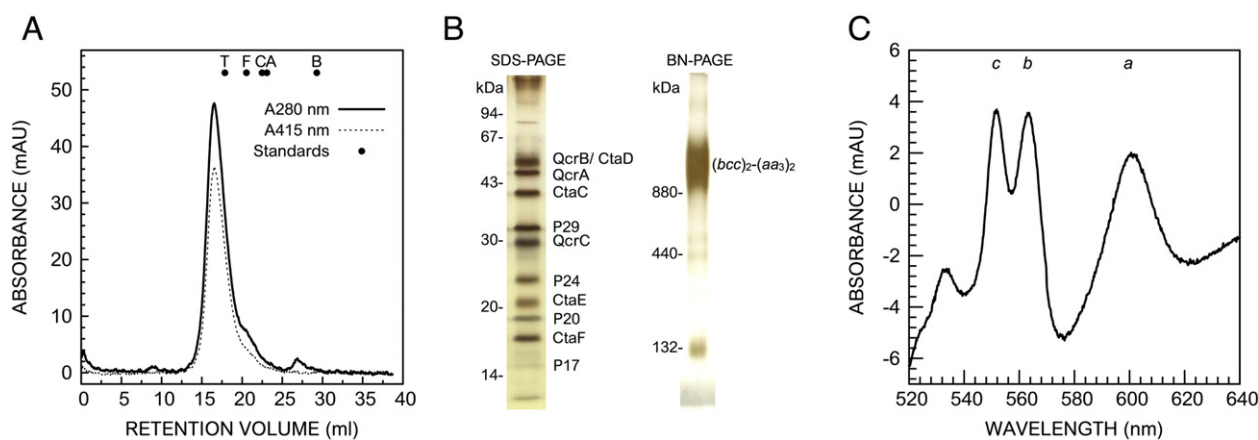
**Fig. 2.** Domain composition of di-heme QcrC. Domain structure of long (upper panel) and short (lower panel) di-heme QcrC. The average domain length and distances between heme axial ligand (His-Met) are listed as number of residues. They are derived from the representative data set of di-heme QcrC (see Fig. S4 and Table S4).

*Firmicutes*. Our classification of long and short di-heme cyt *c* sequences is consistent with Richard Dickerson's initial description of large and small soluble class I cyt *c* [45,46], i.e. the short di-heme QcrC comprises two small class I cyt *c* domains.

Taken together, genes of the catalytic subunits of cytbcc complex and cyt  $aa_3$  oxidase are present in nearly all orders of the phylum Actinobacteria. Genes of mono-heme cyt *c* are generally lacking in Actinobacteria. We suggest that characteristic for Actinobacteria is an obligate bcc- $aa_3$  supercomplex, in which direct interaction of the complexes is required to couple menaquinol oxidation and dioxygen reduction. In order to challenge this hypothesis, we analyzed the structural and energetic prerequisites of the supramolecular association using the supercomplex from *C. glutamicum* as prototype.

#### 3.4. The stoichiometry of bcc- $aa_3$ supercomplex from *C. glutamicum*

To determine the stoichiometry within the supramolecular association, the bcc- $aa_3$  supercomplex from *C. glutamicum* was purified to high homogeneity. Streptavidin-affinity chromatography (SAC) resulted in an average yield of 0.7 mg per liter of culture. The supercomplex was stable in subsequent size-exclusion chromatography (SEC), in which symmetrical protein- and heme-specific elution profiles indicated a homogenous and mono-disperse protein preparation with an apparent molecular mass higher than 669 kDa (Fig. 3A). In Blue Native (BN) PAGE analysis, the major supercomplex fraction migrated with an apparent mass of about 1100 kDa (Fig. 3B). The SEC purified supercomplex



**Fig. 3.** Characterization of SEC-purified *bcc-aa<sub>3</sub>* supercomplex from *C. glutamicum*. (A) Elution profile of supercomplex separated on a TSKgel 4000 SW column. Retention volumes of molecular mass standard proteins are indicated with black dots: T, thyroglobulin (669 kDa); F, ferritin (440 kDa); C, catalase (232 kDa); A, aldolase (158 kDa); B, conalbumin (75 kDa). The void volume of the SEC column is 8 ml. (B) Silver-stained gel after separation of purified supercomplex by SDS- and BN-PAGE. Molecular masses of co-migrated standard proteins are indicated. Subunits with molecular masses are listed in Table S1. (C) Dithionite-reduced minus ferricyanide-oxidized absorbance spectrum of purified supercomplex. The labels c, b, and a indicate the absorption maxima of the respective heme types (551, 563, and 600 nm).

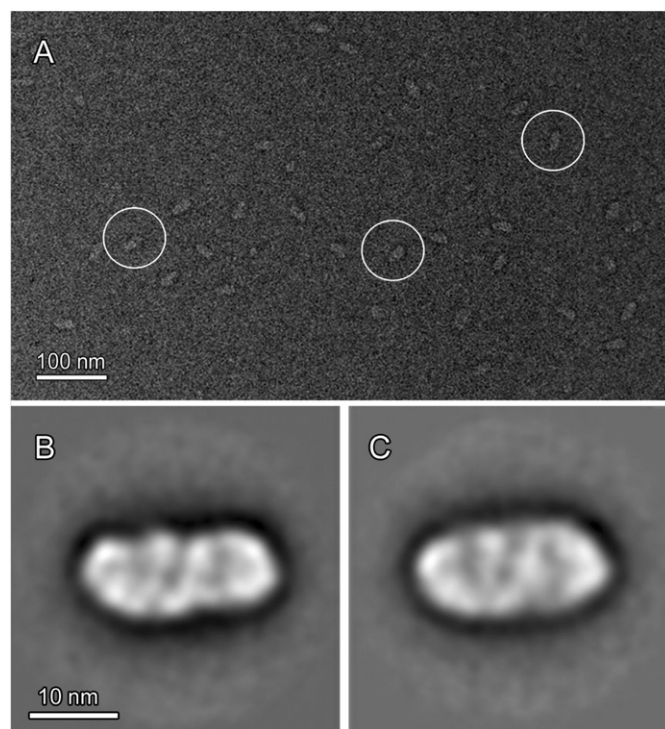
has a defined molecular shape. Single particle electron microscopy analysis of negatively stained specimens revealed highly homogeneous particles (Fig. 4A). Classification and averaging of 1600 images yielded two classes of particles (Fig. 4B and C). Both had a length of 22 nm, one with a width of 9 nm and the other of 10 nm. In the projection maps, they share a common central dark spot which connects to the upper boundary, and two dark three-leaf clover like structures at each side. The two classes are likely to represent the supercomplex residing on the carbon grid in two different tilting angles along its long axis. The dimensions of the particle and the lack of a clear detergent belt around it [47] suggests that the supercomplex is viewed almost perpendicular to the membrane plane, while the lack of two-fold symmetry indicates a slight tilt. SDS-PAGE analysis revealed the presence of all catalytic subunits of *bcc* complex (QcrA, QcrB, QcrC) and *aa<sub>3</sub>* oxidase (CtaC, CtaD, CtaE, CtaF) as well as of four accessory subunits previously identified (Fig. 3B) [13]. Analyzed by optical spectroscopy, the SEC purified supercomplex showed a characteristic redox difference spectrum with maximum absorbance of heme a, b, and c at 600, 563, and 551 nm, respectively (Fig. 3C). A molar ratio of 0.9:1.0:0.9 for a-, b-, and c-type hemes was determined.

The redox-active centers, namely hemes, FeS-cluster and Cu<sub>A</sub>-center, were characterized by EPR spectroscopy (Fig. 5A). The spectral properties of all hemes are similar to those of typical cyt *bc<sub>1</sub>* and heme-copper oxidases [48], so that the  $g_z = 3.65, 3.44$  and  $3.35$  lines could be assigned to ferric heme *b<sub>L</sub>*, heme *b<sub>H</sub>*, and c-type hemes, respectively. The low spin heme a was assigned to  $g_x = 1.45$  and  $g_z = 2.98$ . An identification of Cu<sub>A</sub> and of heme  $g_y$ -lines was hampered by the intense EPR signals between  $g = 1.8$  and  $g = 2.3$  (or 270 and 400 mT), owing to a characteristic manganese (Mn) incorporation into *aa<sub>3</sub>* oxidase [49]. Therefore, the supercomplex was purified from cells cultivated in medium with 400-fold lower (90 nM MnSO<sub>4</sub>) concentration. The Mn<sup>2+</sup> EPR signal was successfully decreased to non-detectable levels in the isolated supercomplex, and the typical signal of Cu<sub>A</sub> became visible. In addition, a derivative-shaped line at 2.25 was clearly discernible in the Mn-depleted sample. Applying the rule for low-spin heme compounds of  $\Sigma g^2 = 16$ , this line could be unambiguously attributed to  $g_y$  of heme a.

The EPR spectrum of the dithionite reduced isolated supercomplex revealed the characteristic signal of the Rieske iron-sulfur cluster at  $g_x = 1.83$  and  $g_y = 1.89$  (Fig. 5B). Interestingly, the  $g_x$  value was located at 4.5 mT lower field as compared to the respective line of the bovine [50] or the *Heliobacterium chlorum* [51] enzymes. Addition of the Q<sub>o</sub> site inhibitor stigmatellin to the isolated supercomplex resulted in a shift of this  $g_x$  signal towards higher fields from  $g_x = 1.83$  to  $g_x =$

1.81, accompanied by a broadening of the line. This observation is consistent with the spectral shift observed in bovine cyt *bc<sub>1</sub>* complex [50] and chloroplast cyt *b<sub>6f</sub>* complex [52], suggesting that stigmatellin binds to the Q<sub>o</sub> site of *C. glutamicum bcc* complex.

To summarize, the highly purified *C. glutamicum* supercomplex contained all known subunits and cofactors of *bcc* complex and *aa<sub>3</sub>* oxidase. Cyt *bc* complexes are functional dimers owing to the intertwined Rieske ISP [53], whereas *aa<sub>3</sub>* oxidase exists as dimer in mitochondria [54] or as monomer in bacteria [44]. As the purified supercomplex has an equal molar ratio of a-, b- and c-type hemes and dimeric *bcc* complex



**Fig. 4.** Single particle negative stain electron microscopy analysis of the supercomplex. (A) Section of an electron micrograph of SEC-purified supercomplex. White circles indicate three representative particles; (B) and (C): Projection maps represent class sums of 800 aligned projections each of the supercomplex with different orientations on the supporting carbon film.

contains four *b*-type (2 heme  $b_L$ , 2 heme  $b_H$ ) and four *c*-type hemes, the supercomplex thus comprises two  $aa_3$  oxidase molecules (2 heme *a* and 2 heme  $a_3$ ). Dimeric *bcc* complex with two  $aa_3$  oxidase molecules and the minimal number of accessory subunits has a calculated mass of 605 kDa (Table S1), thus a higher oligomeric association can be excluded from SEC and BN-PAGE results. With at least 72 transmembrane helices (TMH) (Table S1) the detergent contribution to the apparent mass will be higher than the 220–230 kDa DDM micelle of dimeric ion transporters with 24 TMH [55]. For BN-PAGE, a factor of 1.8 is typically considered to correct for bound detergent, lipid and dye molecules [55, 56]. Taking into account composition, apparent masses and quantification by BN-PAGE, SEC and spectroscopy, the purified *C. glutamicum* supercomplex has a dimeric  $(bcc)_2-(aa_3)_2$  stoichiometry.

### 3.5. Redox-tuned cofactors of the supercomplex

As *C. glutamicum* exclusively uses menaquinone ( $E_{m7} = -74$  mV) [20] rather than ubiquinone ( $E_{m7} = +90$  mV) [19], the question arose how the supercomplex is redox-tuned to use a low potential substrate and oxygen as terminal electron acceptor. The midpoint potentials of the redox-active metal centers were determined for purified supercomplex by electrochemical and chemical titrations monitoring hemes by absorption spectroscopy, Rieske ISC and  $Cu_A$  by EPR spectrophotometry (Fig. 5C). The midpoint potentials of the *b*-type hemes were clearly resolved in the electrochemically induced difference spectra monitored during redox titration. The  $E_{m7}$  of heme  $b_H$ , heme  $b_L$  and Rieske ISC were determined as  $-163 \pm 5$  mV,  $-291 \pm 5$  mV and  $+160 \pm 20$  mV versus standard hydrogen electrode (SHE'). Thus, the redox potentials of *bcc* complex are about 280 to 110 mV lower as compared to mitochondrial cyt  $bc_1$  complex ( $E_{m7}^{\text{heme } b_H} = +116$  mV,  $E_{m7}^{\text{heme } b_L} = -4$  mV,  $E_{m7}^{\text{Rieske ISC}} = +270$  mV for yeast [53]). The  $E_{m7}$  of Rieske ISC is close to the value determined for the Firmicutes menaquinone users *Helicobacterium chlorum* ( $120 \pm 10$  mV [51]) and *Bacillus PS3* ( $160 \pm 10$  mV [57]). In line with energy conversion through the Mitchellian Q cycle, the menaquinol potential is positioned about halfway between those of Rieske ISC and heme  $b_L$ . The two-electron reductant menaquinol has to be oxidized at the  $Q_o$  site in a bifurcated manner with electron transfer to heme  $b_L$  and Rieske ISP. *C. glutamicum bcc* complex is redox-tuned to use low potential menaquinol as substrate. Furthermore, the data provide the first experimental evidence for a low potential Rieske ISC in *Actinobacteria*, which was predicted on the basis of the sequence PDWY as  $Q_o$  motif in actinobacterial cyt *b* [23] and on the sequence signature motif of the Rieske ISC environment [58]. The experimental data augment the correlation among redox potentials, quinone species and phylum-specific pattern of  $Q_o$  motif, on which the proposed molecular evolution of the quinol oxidation motif is based [23].

Rieske ISC is the conceptual electron donor for the two *c*-type hemes of QcrC. The redox transitions of the di-heme are very close and a single value at  $E_{m7} = 100 \pm 20$  mV was determined. This potential is more than 160 mV lower than that of heme  $c_1$  from the ubiquinol oxidizing  $\alpha$ -proteobacterium *Paracoccus denitrificans* (268–338 mV [59]) and closer to that of the menaquinol oxidizing Firmicutes species *Helicobacterium modesticaldum* (71 mV [60]). In ubiquinone based respiratory chains, cyt  $c_1$  and mobile cyt *c* have midpoint potentials around 250 mV [61,62]. The midpoint potentials of heme  $b_H$ ,  $b_L$ ,  $c_1$  and Rieske ISC in *C. glutamicum* are 279, 287, 150 and 110 mV lower than the respective mitochondrial values (Fig. 6). Thus, the entire *bcc* complex is a low potential complex.

The  $aa_3$  oxidase possesses four redox-active centers.  $Cu_A$  accepts the electron from QcrC and transfer continues through heme *a* to the binuclear center heme  $a_3/Cu_B$ . The  $E_{m7}$  of  $Cu_A$  was determined to be 150 mV, however, due to the intense Mn EPR signal around  $g = 2$ , the error was estimated as 50 mV. It is considerably lower as compared to the mitochondrial center (290 mV, [62]), thus, the entry point to the oxidase is of low potential. Hysteresis was observed for titration of *a*-

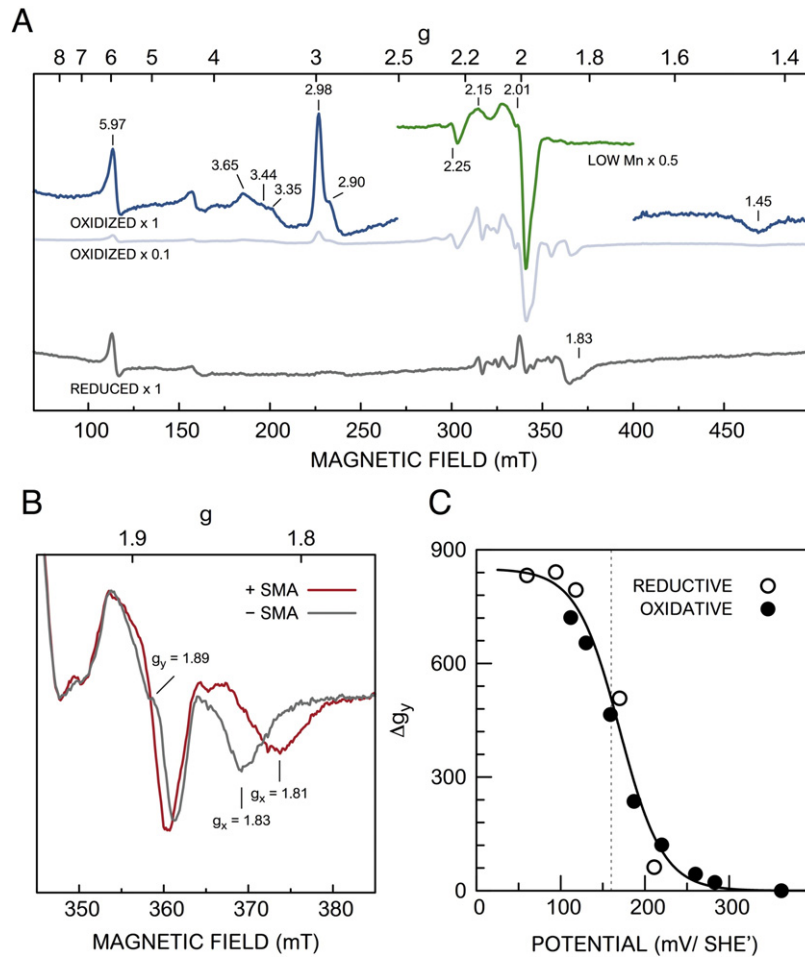
type hemes (Fig. S5). It results from anti-cooperative interaction between all oxidase cofactors, which is crucial for enabling and regulating the function of the enzyme and midpoint potentials of heme *a* and  $a_3$  cannot be individually assigned [63]. The average of the lower heme *a/a*<sub>3</sub> potential ( $E_{m7}^{a/a_3(1)} = +143$  mV) is about 80 mV lower than that of mitochondrial cyt *c* oxidase (220 mV [63]), thus it is close to the potentials of di-heme QcrC and  $Cu_A$  in line with a lower potential chain. In contrast, the higher heme *a/a*<sub>3</sub> potential ( $E_{m7}^{a/a_3(2)} = +317$  mV) is only slightly below the mitochondrial value ( $E_m = +360$  mV [63]). This appears to be reasonable as dioxygen is the common substrate. The  $aa_3$  oxidase thus connects low and high potential cofactors in one complex, and can be considered a mixed potential complex.

Taken together, low potential *bcc* complex provides the largest contribution to accommodate the 170 mV potential difference between menaquinone and ubiquinone. The differences between redox potentials of *C. glutamicum* and mitochondrial cyt  $bc_1$  complex and cyt *c* oxidase are largest for the *b*-type hemes and have medium values for Rieske ISC, *c*-type hemes and  $Cu_A$  (Fig. 6). For the *a*-type hemes, the difference alleviates from 80 mV to 40 mV. The electron transfer machinery of the actinobacterial supercomplex is elaborately fine-tuned for menaquinol oxidation and dioxygen as electron acceptor. Structural characterization is required to resolve how individual cofactor environment and overall structural composition facilitates the integrated supercomplex activity.

### 3.6. A structural model of the supercomplex compliant with biological electron transfer

A close contact between *bcc* complex and  $aa_3$  oxidase is needed for a functionally assembled supercomplex, as biological electron transfer requires distances of 14 Å or less for donor and acceptor cofactors [64]. As QcrC is the electron bridge from Rieske ISP to the oxidase, it appears plausible that the supercomplex has a defined architecture which is structurally constrained by QcrC. Using the NCBI conserved domain database [65], a CcoP-protein domain (PF13442) was identified in *C. glutamicum* QcrC. CcoP is the di-heme cyt *c* subunit of *cbb*<sub>3</sub> oxidase. It is very similar in domain length and axial heme ligands spacing (Table S4) compared to *C. glutamicum* QcrC (Fig. S1). A homology model of the latter was constructed using the X-ray structure of CcoP from *Pseudomonas stutzeri* [41] as template. Notably, the heme ligation is shared between the two domains in CcoP owing to interdomain helix swapping [41]. Indeed, a homology model was readily constructed keeping the conformation of interdomain helix swapping as in CcoP (Fig. 7). The two hemes are facing each other with their propionate groups in 3-Å distance, the vinyl and methyl groups of the hemes protrude in crevices to the protein surface. It is tempting to speculate that all actinobacterial short di-heme QcrC have intertwined domains.

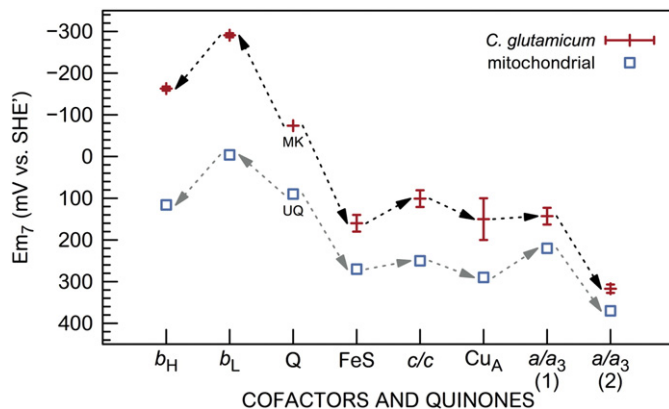
A structural model of *C. glutamicum* supercomplex could now be constructed using the QcrC homology model and X-ray structures of homologous cyt  $bc_1$  complex from *Paracoccus denitrificans* [43] and  $aa_3$  oxidase from *Rhodobacter sphaeroides* [44] (Fig. 8, Table S1). As the supercomplex has a dimeric  $(bcc)_2-(aa_3)_2$  stoichiometry and cyt *b* and Rieske ISP comprise an inseparable functional dimeric core, each of its monomers has to interact with an  $aa_3$  oxidase molecule through subunit QcrC. For construction of the model, subunit cyt  $c_1$  of cyt  $bc_1$  complex was replaced with di-heme QcrC superimposing the carboxyl-terminal *c*-type heme of di-heme QcrC onto heme  $c_1$ . The heme crevice faces the Rieske ISP with a cofactor distance close to 14 Å. The structure of  $aa_3$  oxidase was subsequently positioned adjacent to it, aligning  $Cu_A$  to the amino-terminal heme crevice of QcrC and keeping the cofactor distance close to 14 Å. The model has a compact rectangular shape with dimensions of 180 Å × 90 Å × 40 Å. The cofactor containing extramembranous domains including those of di-heme QcrC form an even layer on top of the transmembrane subunits. The model has a two-fold symmetry and fulfills distance constraints and dimeric



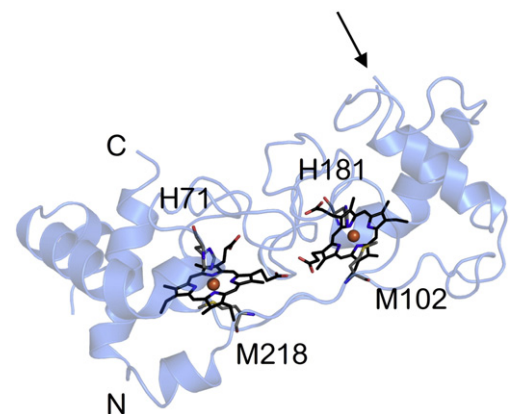
**Fig. 5.** Biophysical characterization of purified supercomplex by EPR spectroscopy. (A) EPR spectra of oxidized and reduced supercomplex. An intense Mn signal is visible between 300 and 350 mT (scaled to  $0.1 \times$ , oxidized). EPR signals of low-spin hemes ( $g = 3.65, 3.44, 3.35, 2.98, 2.90$  and  $1.45$ ) are present. EPR signal from the Cu<sub>A</sub> site ( $g = 2.01, 2.15, 2.23$ ) was measured from the supercomplex purified from a culture with  $90 \text{ nM Mn}^{2+}$ . The Rieske  $g_x$  signal ( $1.83$ ) is present in the reduced sample. (B) Binding of  $20 \mu\text{M}$  stigmatellin (SMA) shifted the  $g_x$  signal of the reduced Rieske iron-sulfur cluster (ISC) from  $1.83$  to  $1.81$ . (C) The midpoint potential of Rieske ISC was determined at  $160 \text{ mV (SHE}'$ ) by fitting the amplitude of the  $g_y$  line to a  $n = 1$  Nernst curve. The amount of reduced Rieske ISC was evaluated on the  $g_y$  line.

stoichiometry of the catalytic core. This architecture would permit integrated menaquinol oxidase activity catalyzed by the supercomplex without the addition of extra diffusible electron carriers. Notably,

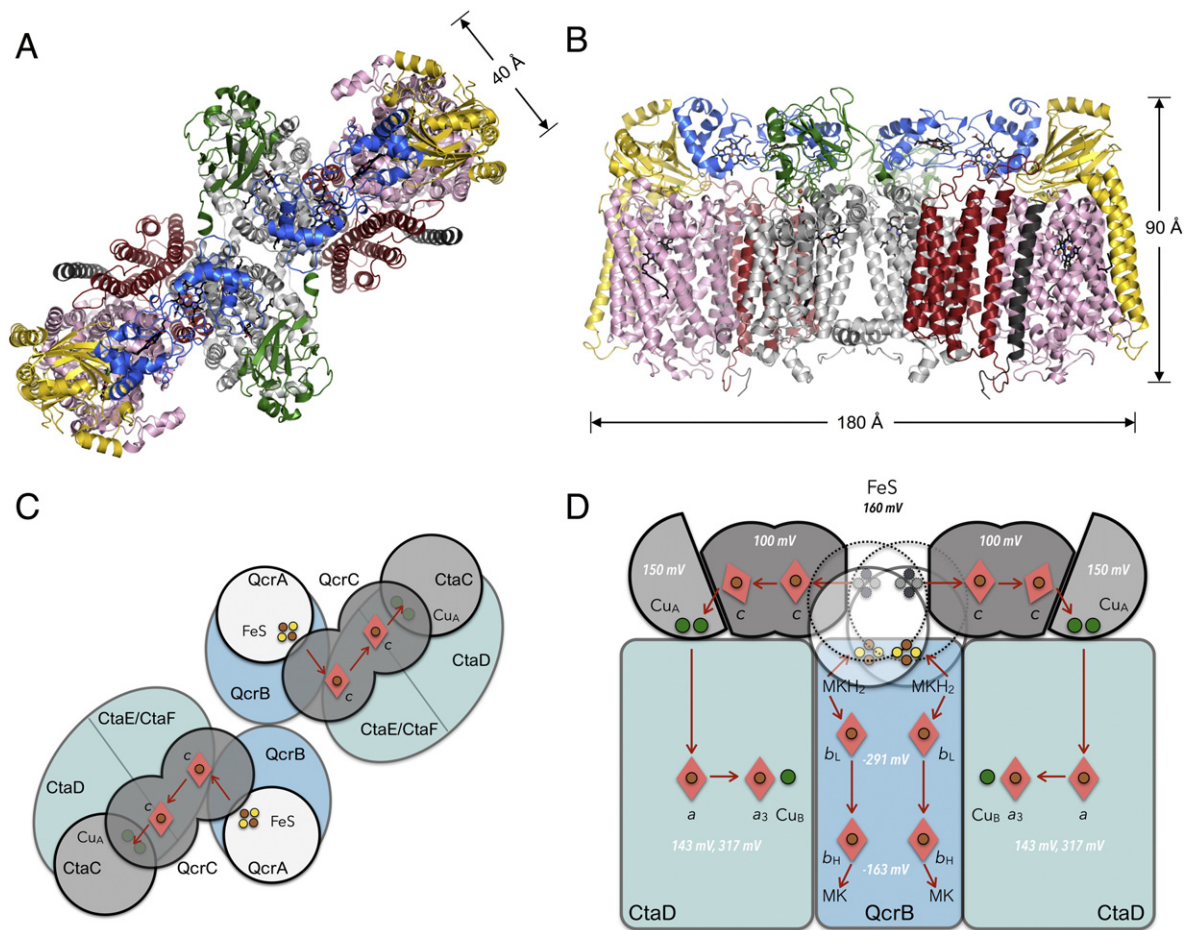
electron transfer between the two heme *c* cofactors would take place close and parallel to the membrane, whereas in the mitochondrial membrane, electrons are transferred between cyt *c*<sub>1</sub> and cyt *c* at least  $35 \text{ \AA}$  above and perpendicular to the membrane.



**Fig. 6.** Midpoint potentials determined for the purified supercomplex are shown in red with estimated errors. For comparison, midpoint potentials of mitochondrial enzymes as well as of the averaged two-step midpoint potential of the quinone substrate (Q) of *C. glutamicum* (menaquinol/-quinone, MK) and mitochondria (ubiquinol/-quinone, UQ) are shown (see text for references). The electron transfer routes between the cofactors are indicated with arrows, starting with ubi(mena)quinol oxidation at the Q<sub>o</sub> site and bifurcated electron transfer towards FeS and heme b<sub>L</sub>.



**Fig. 7.** Homology model of soluble domain of *C. glutamicum* QcrC using the X-ray structure of CcoP as template. The short di-heme cyt *c* has an intertwined heme coordination and axial heme ligands are indicated. C and N indicate the terminal TMH positions. The insertion 134–149 was omitted (arrow).



**Fig. 8.** Structural model of *C. glutamicum* respiratory chain supercomplex based on the biochemical and biophysical characterization of its compositions. (A) The structural model of the catalytic core supercomplex was built based on X-ray structures of QcrB (gray) and QcrA (Rieske ISP, green) from *P. denitrificans* (pdb 2yiu), X-ray structures of CtaD (pink), CtaC (yellow), CtaE (red) and CtaF (black) from *R. sphaeroides* (pdb 1m56), and the homology model of *C. glutamicum* QcrC (blue) viewed perpendicular to the membrane and parallel to the membrane (B). (C) Schematic representation of the subunit arrangement of the catalytic core of *bcc-aa<sub>3</sub>* supercomplex model viewed perpendicular to the membrane and parallel to the membrane (D), with the values of midpoint potential of redox active centers determined in this study. The electron transfer direction is indicated in red.

### 3.7. Supramolecular association with fine-tuned redox potentials permits efficient energy conservation

In respiratory chains, the free energy released from the stepwise exergonic electron transfer is conserved through proton translocation across the membrane. Dynamics and stoichiometry of respiratory chain components are of functional importance. Whereas information on bacterial respiratory supercomplexes is scarce, mitochondrial supercomplexes have been intensely studied. In mitochondria, which are highly dynamic organelles, there appears to be a dynamic distribution between freely diffusing complexes and supramolecular associations depending on the cellular conditions [8,66]. Our data strongly suggests that actinobacterial *bcc-aa<sub>3</sub>* supercomplex operates a structural entity with a defined architecture. For mitochondria, the generated PMF results in an energy cost of 200 meV for one positive charge transferred [62]. Thus an oxidizing cyt *c* pool or a reducing ubiquinol pool is required to drive mitochondrial cyt *bc<sub>1</sub>* complex activity under physiological conditions, as the reduction of cyt *c* by ubiquinol gives a free energy difference of 160 meV under standard conditions. In *C. glutamicum*, an *in vivo* PMF of 200 mV was experimentally determined [67], while 180 meV are released for QcrC reduced by menaquinol. As *C. glutamicum* *bcc* complex has no cyt *c* substrate pool for driving the forward reaction, a larger redox potential difference close to PMF is advantageous. For *aa<sub>3</sub>* oxidase, 550 meV free energy are liberated from dioxygen reduction in mitochondria [62], whereas 700 meV are

released when di-heme QcrC is injecting an electron. As a result, an excess of 150 meV free energy is available in *C. glutamicum* *aa<sub>3</sub>* oxidase to drive electron transfer and proton pumping. Thus, the association of *bcc* complex and *aa<sub>3</sub>* oxidase also appears to be energetically favorable for an efficient operation to pump protons in the presence of PMF.

## 4. Conclusion

We show that characteristic for *Actinobacteria* is the genetic composition for a respiratory supercomplex that is comprised of cyt *bcc* complex and cyt *aa<sub>3</sub>* oxidase. It is likely to be an obligatory supercomplex due to the lack of genes encoding alternative electron transfer partners. This *bcc-aa<sub>3</sub>* supercomplex is present in almost all actinobacterial species that are capable of aerobic metabolism. Based on characterization of the supercomplex from *C. glutamicum*, it combines a low potential *bcc* complex and a mixed potential *aa<sub>3</sub>* oxidase in defined spatial arrangement constrained by an indispensable short di-heme QcrC, thus facilitating energetically highly efficient coupled menaquinol oxidation and dioxygen reduction. Future studies need to elucidate the structural basis of redox tuning and the structural composition of the supercomplex. The actinobacterial supercomplex is of interest for improving efficiency of industrial production strains or for development of drugs against pathogens.



## Transparency Document

The Transparency document associated with this article can be found, in the online version.

## Acknowledgements

This work was supported by the German Research Foundation (CRC 746 to C.H., CRC 992 to C.H.) and the Excellence Initiative of the German Federal and State Governments (EXC 294 BIOSS to C.H.). P.H. is grateful to the Centre International de Recherche aux Frontières de la Chimie (icFRC, Strasbourg), the Agence National de la Recherche, CNRS and the University of Strasbourg. EPR facilities at EPR center of Aix-Marseille University received financial support from TGE RPE FR3443. We thank Dr. Christophe Wirth and Dr. Xenia Bogdanović for critical reading of the manuscript.

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