

*Review*

**Activated Q-cycle as a common mechanism for cytochrome  $bc_1$  and cytochrome  $b_6f$  complexes**

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**Abstract**

Cytochrome  $bc_1$ -complexes of animals and bacteria (hereafter  $bc_1$ ), as well as related cytochrome  $b_6f$  complexes of plants and cyanobacteria (hereafter  $b_6f$ ) are dimeric quinol:cytochrome  $c$ /plastocyanin oxidoreductases capable of translocating protons across energy-converting membranes. The commonly accepted Q-cycle mechanism suggests that these enzymes oxidize two quinol molecules in their catalytic centers  $P$  to yield one quinol molecule in another catalytic center  $N$ . Earlier, based upon data on flash-induced redox changes of cytochromes  $b$  and  $c_1$ , voltage generation, and proton transfer in membrane vesicles of *Rhodobacter capsulatus*, we have put forward a scheme of an “activated Q-cycle” for the  $bc_1$ . The scheme suggests that the  $bc_1$  dimers, being “activated” by injection of electrons from the membrane ubiquinol pool via centers  $N$ , steadily contain two electrons in their cytochrome  $b$  moieties under physiological conditions, most likely, as a bound semiquinone in center  $N$  of one monomer and a reduced high-potential heme  $b$  in the other monomer. Then the oxidation of each ubiquinol molecule in centers  $P$  of an activated  $bc_1$  should result in a complete catalytic cycle leading to the formation of a ubiquinole molecule in the one of enzyme’s centers  $N$  and to voltage generation. Here it is argued that a similar pre-loading by two electrons can explain the available data on flash-induced reactions in cytochrome  $b_6f$ - complexes of green plants and cyanobacteria.

## 1. Introduction

Cytochrome  $bc_1$ -complexes of animals and bacteria (hereafter  $bc_1$ ), as well as related cytochrome  $b_{cf}$  complexes of plants and cyanobacteria (hereafter  $bf$ ) are oligomeric quinol:cytochrome  $c$ /plastocyanin oxidoreductases capable of translocating protons across energy-converting membranes (see [1-7] for reviews). Thereby one of the membrane-adjointing water phases becomes positively charged ( $p$ -side), whereas the other one charges negatively ( $n$ -side). The resulting transmembrane difference in electrochemical potential of proton ( $\Delta\tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ ) is contributed by chemical ( $\Delta pH$ ) and electrical ( $\Delta\psi$ ) components and reaches approx. 200–250 mV under physiological conditions [8]. Thus the proton translocation by these enzymes encounters a remarkable proton backpressure *in vivo*.

Triggering by flashes of light has been widely used for resolving the elementary catalytic steps in the  $bc_1$  complexes of phototrophic bacteria and the  $bf$  complexes of green plants (see e.g. [9-17]). Earlier, based on this kind of data, I have suggested that the operation of cytochrome  $bc_1$  complexes of phototrophic bacteria can be described by an “activated Q-cycle” model [18]. Here it is argued that the wealth of kinetic data on the operation of cytochrome  $bf$  complexes might be described by this scheme as well.

## 2. Mitchell’s Q-cycle and its modifications

As revealed by X-ray crystallography [19-24], the  $bc_1$  complexes are intertwined dimers (see Fig. 1A). The catalytic core of each  $bc_1$ -monomer is formed by three subunits: the membrane-embedded cytochrome  $b$ , the iron-sulfur Rieske protein, and the cytochrome  $c_1$ . The catalytic, hydrophilic domains of the two latter subunits are anchored in the membrane by solo hydrophobic  $\alpha$ -helices (Fig.1A). Each cytochrome  $b$  is a bundle of 8  $\alpha$ -helices that accommodates two hemes, namely the low- and high-potential protohemes ( $b_l$  and  $b_h$ , respectively, see Table 1 for the (midpoint) redox potentials of the components involved).

The number of subunits in  $bc_1$  complexes varies between 11 subunits in the mitochondrial  $bc_1$  and 3 catalytic subunits in some bacteria. It is noteworthy that the X-ray structure of the simplest cytochrome  $bc_1$ -complexes of *Rb. capsulatus*, which contains only 3 subunits, matches the structure of the three catalytic subunits of mitochondrial  $bc_1$  [25].

The operation of the cytochrome  $bc_1$  complex is routinely described by the Mitchell's Q-cycle mechanism [26-28]. Its original scheme is shown in Fig. 1B, whereas the current, structure-based scheme of the Q-cycle is plotted over the structure of the  $bc_1$  in Fig. 1A. As it could be seen, the interface between cytochrome  $b$  and the  $[\text{Fe}_2\text{S}_2]$  cluster-carrying domain of the Rieske protein (hereafter the *FeS domain*) forms the catalytic center  $P$  of the enzyme where quinol molecules are oxidized. Upon the unique, "bifurcated" reaction (originally suggested by Wikström and Berden [29]), the FeS domain accepts the first electron from the quinol molecule to pass it further, via cytochrome  $c_1$  and the water-soluble  $c$ -type cytochrome, to external electron carriers. The FeS domain, however, can reduce cytochrome  $c_1$  only after undocking from cytochrome  $b$  and rotating by ca.  $60^\circ$  [1]. The semiquinone molecule left in center  $P$  reduces the nearest heme  $b_l$  of the cytochrome  $b$ . From heme  $b_l$ , the electron moves across the membrane to heme  $b_h$  and then to the quinone-binding center  $N$  where another quinone molecule could be reduced first to a semiquinone and then to a quinol. Oxidation of each quinol molecule in center  $P$  should be followed by release of two protons, while the formation of a quinol molecule in center  $N$  should be accompanied by binding of two protons from the other side of the membrane (see Fig. 1B). Because the ubiquinol molecule that is formed in center  $N$  can be then oxidized in center  $P$ , two protons should be ultimately transferred across the membrane per each electron that passes through the  $bc_1$  complex. Therefore the Q-cycle scheme, besides accounting for a bizarre oxidant-induced reduction of cytochrome  $b$  [29, 30], explained the  $\text{H}^+/\text{e}^-$  stoichiometry of 2 as measured with the mitochondrial  $bc_1$  complex [31].

It is noteworthy that Mitchell has initially suggested that the semiquinone molecule in center  $N$  can be reduced to ubiquinol by a some other enzyme shown as “ $d$ ” in Fig. 1B (e.g. the succinate dehydrogenase was suggested to perform this function in mitochondria [27, 28]). However, the requirement of a special enzyme as a second electron donor for center  $N$  came in contradiction with the apparent ability of the liposome-incorporated  $bc_1$  complexes to pump - on their own - two protons per each processed electron [32]. Accordingly, the idea that the  $bc_1$  can work solo by turning over twice [33] gradually gained acceptance and was incorporated into the scheme of the “modified Q cycle” where a  $Q_N^{\bullet-}$  anion was suggested to form in center  $N$  after the first turnover of center  $P$ , whereas the formation of a  $Q_NH_2$  ubiquinol required oxidation of the next ubiquinol molecule in center  $P$  [13, 34].

Initially the operation of the cytochrome  $bc_1$  complexes was studied with preparations either of animal mitochondria, or submitochondrial particles, or isolated cytochrome  $bc_1$  complexes (see [35-38] for earlier reviews). These experimental models, however, were of little help in studying the mechanisms of  $\Delta\tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$  generation. These mechanisms could be better studied with chromatophores (inside-out vesicles of inner cellular membrane), which can be obtained by disruption of cells of phototrophic  $\alpha$ -proteobacteria *Rhodobacter sphaeroides* and *Rhodobacter capsulatus* (see [12, 39] for reviews). By using a spectrophotometric setup, it is possible to trace simultaneously the flash-induced redox reactions in the  $bc_1$  (by following the spectral changes of the hemes [12, 40]), the voltage generation (electrogenesis) at the chromatophore membrane (via the electrochromic spectral shift of intramembrane carotenoid pigments [9, 12, 39, 41]), and the binding or release of protons (by using pH indicators [42, 43]). Hence, the elementary steps of electron transfer (ET) can be correlated with the kinetics of voltage generation and of proton transfer (PT) in the same samples.

Chromatophore vesicles can be considered as bacterial energosomes since each of them contains a set of major energy-converting enzymes in their natural membrane environment. A

flash of light on a solution of chromatophores leads to the charge separation in the photochemical reaction centers (RC) and to the generation both of a reducing and oxidizing agents for the  $bc_1$ , namely mobile molecules of ubiquinol and oxidized cytochrome  $c_2$ , respectively. Accordingly, the reactions in  $bc_1$  can be flash-triggered in two different ways. Under oxidizing conditions, the  $bc_1$  is triggered by the interaction with the ubiquinol molecules that are produced by the RC. The respective kinetic data, however, are ambiguous since molecules of ubiquinol can bind not only in center  $P$  but also in center  $N$ . As the redox potentials of the ubiquinol/ubiquinone pair and of heme  $b_h$  are compatible (see Table 1), the molecules of ubiquinol can reduce heme  $b_h$  via center  $N$ , especially under alkaline conditions [1, 44, 45]. This kind of ambiguity is avoided in a more physiological set-up, when the membrane ubiquinone pool (ca. 100 molecules per one  $bc_1$  dimer) is pre-reduced yielding so-called *reducing* conditions. In this case, a flash-induced generation of a ubiquinol molecule in the RC can only marginally shift the redox state of the membrane ubiquinone pool, so that only cytochrome  $c_2$ , after being oxidized by the RC, can initiate the turnover of  $bc_1$  by oxidizing cytochrome  $c_1$ . The latter, in turn, can oxidize the FeS domain of the Rieske protein and provide thus an oxidant for ubiquinol in center  $P$ . On contrast, the fast reactions in the mitochondrial  $bc_1$  are routinely studied by prompt mixing of oxidized enzyme with reduced quinol as substrate (see e.g. [46-49]). In this setup, the quinol molecules can interact with centers  $N$  as well as with centers  $P$ , so that aforementioned ambiguity in the interpretation of kinetic data can be hardly avoided.

Since  $\alpha$ -proteobacteria are evolutionarily related to the ancestors of mitochondria [50], the  $bc_1$  of *Rb. capsulatus* is sensitive to the typical inhibitors of mitochondrial  $bc_1$  (see [1] and references cited therein). Accordingly, the reactions that are caused by ubiquinol oxidation in the  $bc_1$  are routinely discriminated by comparing the kinetic traces as measured in the absence of specific inhibitors of  $bc_1$  with the traces measured in their presence; routinely myxothiazol (a blocker of center  $P$ ) and/or antimycin (that blocks center  $N$ ) are used. In chromatophore

membranes, there are 2÷3 RCs per one  $bc_1$  monomer, so that each  $bc_1$  complex can turn over several times in response to a saturating flash of light. To establish genuine single-turnover conditions one has to use weak flashes of light, in response to which not more than one ubiquinol molecule can be oxidized in some  $bc_1$  complexes [17]. In sum, the chromatophores of *Rhodobacter* can be considered as a model of choice for studying the mechanisms of energy conversion by the  $bc_1$ .

The original Q-cycle scheme did not focus on the detailed molecular mechanisms of  $\Delta\tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$  generation in the  $bc_1$  [26-28]. In the earlier works, the generation of  $\Delta\tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$  in mitochondrial  $bc_1$  was related to the oxidation of heme  $b_h$  since the backpressure of the membrane potential was shown to retard this oxidation [36, 37, 40]. After the position of the cytochrome  $b$  hemes in the membrane (see Fig. 1) was resolved [19-24, 51-53], it became customary to attribute the “working” step of the catalytic cycle to the ET from heme  $b_l$  to heme  $b_h$ , towards the negatively charged side of the membrane. However, if so, the membrane voltage should have prevented not the oxidation, but the reduction of heme  $b_h$ , in contrast to experimental observations [35-37].

In chromatophore vesicles, simultaneous monitoring of redox-reactions and voltage generation showed routinely that the onset of flash-induced voltage generation was notably slower than the reduction of cytochrome  $b$  [17, 40, 41, 43, 54-57]; instead, the kinetics of voltage generation correlated with the oxidation of heme  $b_h$  in some experiments. Based on these observations, it has been suggested that the transmembrane ET to heme  $b_h$  is electrically silent [17, 43, 57-59]. Accordingly, the voltage generation by the  $bc_1$  was attributed predominantly to the electrogenic release of those protons that remained within the  $bc_1$  after the oxidation of ubiquinol and that should become “excessive” after the negative charges of electrons were neutralized by formation of ubiquinol in center  $N$  [17, 43, 57-61]. The kinetic correlation between the proton ejection by  $bc_1$  and the voltage generation [43, 60, 62, 63] can

be considered as a supportive evidence for this scheme. The electrical silence of the transmembrane ET towards heme  $b_h$  under coupled conditions is, most likely, related to the small driving force of this reaction. The equilibrium constant of the  $b_l \leftrightarrow b_h$  reaction has been shown to be 10-15 at pH 7 [64] in the *absence* of  $\Delta\psi$ . In the *presence* of  $\Delta\psi$  of  $> 100$  mV (as after a single saturating flash [65]), the respective  $\Delta G$  value should approach zero, so that ET against the transmembrane electric field, from heme  $b_l$  to heme  $b_h$ , could proceed only on condition of electric compensation. The compensation, as discussed elsewhere [18, 57-59], might be achieved by displacements of protons in the same direction and/or by dielectric relaxation of water molecules. Generally, the electrical silencing of the heme  $b_h$  reduction can be considered as a case of a protein control over biological ET, which, as argued elsewhere [66], should be a widespread phenomenon. For example, an electrically compensating, non-productive proton shuttling across the membrane, between the two cytochrome  $b$  hemes has been recently demonstrated for the membrane subunit of the fumarate reductase of *Wolinella succinogenes* [67].

The catalytic cycle of the  $bc_1$  could be further scrutinized by studying the Zn-treated chromatophores of *Rb. capsulatus* [17, 63]. The  $Zn^{2+}$  ions are well-established inhibitors of mitochondrial  $bc_1$  [68, 69] where they were suggested to block the proton release from center  $P$  [70] and were shown to bind close to this center in the crystal structure [71]. Venturoli and co-workers have recently characterized the Zn-binding sites in the  $bc_1$  of mitochondria and *Rb. capsulatus* by K-edge X-ray absorption fine-structure spectroscopy [72]. The spectra were interpreted as showing only one high-affinity Zn-binding site in the enzymes studied (at  $[Zn^{2+}] < 1$  mM, G. Venturoli, personal communication). It was concluded that Zn binds in the  $bc_1$  of *Rb. capsulatus* in the same position as in the crystal structure of mitochondrial  $bc_1$ , i.e. next to center  $P$  [72].



The investigation of flash-induced reactions in chromatophore vesicles of *Rb. capsulatus* under physiological conditions (with a half-reduced membrane ubiquinone pool) has shown that in the presence of  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  ions, added at  $< 100 \mu\text{M}$ , the flash-induced voltage generation in the  $bc_1$  became slower, but retained its full extent [17, 63]. Hence, the  $bc_1$  remained fully functional. Concurrently, the oxidation of heme  $b_h$  and the re-reduction of the cytochrome  $c_1$  by the Rieske protein slowed down. Due to the slower oxidation of heme  $b_h$ , the onset of its flash-induced reduction, otherwise elusive under these conditions, became resolvable. These data helped to identify two distinct steps of the catalytic cycle (see Fig. 2). During the first, Zn-insensitive step (Fig. 2A), the flash-induced oxidation of an ubiquinol molecule in center  $P$  led to the reduction of the FeS domain and to the fast, electrically silent (see above) reduction of approx. half of the heme  $b_h$  content. The re-reduction of cytochrome  $c_1$  by the FeS domain was, however, delayed, most likely because the reduced FeS domain remained docked to cytochrome  $b$ . The re-reduction of the latter happened during the second, Zn-sensitive step of the catalytic cycle (Fig. 2B). This step was coupled with the oxidation of heme  $b_h$ , voltage generation, and proton release into the chromatophore lumen [17, 63].

The concurrent action of  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  ions on the re-reduction of cytochrome  $c_1$  by the Rieske protein, voltage generation, and proton release from the  $bc_1$  [17, 63] might be related to the functioning of the  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$ -binding cluster of amino acid residues, as identified first in the structure of the mitochondrial  $bc_1$  [71] and then in the  $bc_1$  of *Rb. capsulatus* [72], as the proton outlet from center  $P$  [18, 58, 59, 70, 72, 73]. The comparative structural analysis shows that the  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$ -binding patch faces the water phase only when the FeS domain is undocked from cytochrome  $b$  (*cf.* Fig. 2A and 2B). When the FeS domain is docked to cytochrome  $b$ , it apparently "plugs" this tentative proton outlet (see Fig. 2A). Apparently, the proton(s) which are released upon the oxidation of ubiquinol in center  $P$  can escape into the water phase only after the FeS domain undocks and moves towards cytochrome  $c_1$  (see Fig. 2B). As argued elsewhere [58, 59], the binding of  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  ions can slow down both the proton

release from center  $P$  and the undocking of the FeS domain (e.g. by constraining the yellow-colored  $ef$  loop in Fig. 2 that have to be “pushed aside” to permit the movement of the FeS domain [74, 75]).

The observed kinetic correlation between the oxidation of heme  $b_h$  (via center  $N$ ) and the re-reduction of cytochrome  $c_1$  by the mobile FeS domain might reflect a coupling between the two quinone binding centers as suggested elsewhere [17, 58, 60, 61]. The molecular mechanism of this coupling in the  $bc_1$  of *Rb. capsulatus* was addressed by Cooley and co-workers [76, 77], while Covian and co-workers studied it in the  $bc_1$  of yeast and *Paracoccus denitrificans* [78-80]. In principle, the release of electrostatically uncompensated proton(s) from center  $P$  should be thermodynamically favorable and could help to drive the ubiquinol formation in center  $N$  [59].

It is noteworthy that a mechanistic impediment of ET from the FeS domain to the cytochrome  $c_1$  was envisioned by Mitchell as early as in 1981 [34]. Such an impediment should contribute to the prevention of short-circuiting in the  $bc_1$ . A short-circuiting might occur not only during the fast turnover of center  $P$  (see [2, 58, 81-86] for tentative mechanisms that might prevent the undesired escape of both electrons to the FeS cluster upon ubiquinol oxidation), but also later, provided that electron(s) at cytochromes  $b$  could find a way to escape via the FeS domain. Such an escape might be especially dangerous under coupled conditions since  $\Delta\psi$  steadily pushes electrons from center  $N$  and heme  $b_h$  towards center  $P$  [64, 87]. Hence, as argued elsewhere [58, 59], it might be useful to keep the reduced FeS domain docked to cytochrome  $b$  until the formation of ubiquinol molecule in center  $N$  - the “no return” point of the catalytic cycle.

Another set of modifications of the original Mitchell’s scheme has addressed the dimeric nature of the  $bc_1$ . De Vries et al. envisioned the possibility of a functionally relevant electron exchange between the two monomers [38, 88, 89]. The X-ray structures of the  $bc_1$  showed

the edge-to-edge distance between two  $b_l$  hemes in the  $bc_1$  dimer of less than 11 Å [19-24], so that electrons, according to the empirical rate/distance dependence for biological ET [90], should equilibrate within the  $bc_1$  dimer on the time scale of its turnover. This possibility was noted by Yu and co-workers [19] and was also incorporated into some structure-based schemes of dimeric Q-cycles [18, 61, 91-94].

### 3. Activated Q-cycle in the cytochrome $bc_1$ complex of phototrophic bacteria

In spite of all these modification of the original Q-cycle scheme, two sets of experimental observations, as obtained with chromatophores of *Rhodobacter*, have remained puzzling. First, in the absence of antimycin A, not more than a half of total heme  $b_h$  content could be reduced in response to a flash – in a broad range of experimental conditions [17, 40, 41, 43, 54-57]. Second, the relative extent and the rate of voltage generation by  $bc_1$  did not decrease under the conditions of weak flashing - when only one ubiquinol molecule could be oxidized per flash in some  $bc_1$  complexes [17]. It seemed that the catalytic cycle proceeded to completion even under single-turnover conditions, which were expected to yield only  $Q_N^{\bullet-}$  semiquinone molecules in some centers  $N$  (see Fig. 1A).

These observations could be explicated by the scheme of an *activated Q-cycle* [18, 95]. The scheme (see Fig. 3) suggests that the  $bc_1$  dimers, owing to a continuous electron injection from the membrane ubiquinol pool via centers  $N$ , are “activated” and contain two electrons in their cytochrome  $b$  moieties under physiological conditions. Most likely the two electrons are stored as a bound semiquinone in center  $N$  of one monomer and a reduced high-potential heme  $b$  in the other monomer [18]. Indeed, an oxidation of a ubiquinol molecule via center  $N$  brings the  $bc_1$  dimer into the state  $Q_N^{\bullet-}b_h^{\text{red}} \parallel b_h^{\text{ox}}$  (see [1] and references therein). In this state, however, the two negative charges in a  $bc_1$  monomer should repulse each other, prompting the escape of one electron into the other monomer (transition  $F \rightarrow A$  in Fig. 3).

While electron exchange between the monomers during the flash-induced  $bc_1$  turnover, as suggested in refs. [61, 91], is still debatable [1, 87], there is no thinkable way to prevent the “dark” electron equilibration between the monomers and, hence, the activation of the  $bc_1$  complexes (provided that the membrane ubiquinone pool is, at least, half-reduced). The  $Q_N^{\bullet-}$  semiquinone in the resulting  $Q_N^{\bullet-}b_h^{\text{ox}} \parallel b_h^{\text{red}}$  state should be EPR-silent due to a antiferromagnetic interaction with the oxidized heme  $b_h$  [96-98]. This EPR-silence might be the reason why the presence of one  $Q_N^{\bullet-}$  semiquinone per  $bc_1$  dimer under physiological conditions was not taken into account until it has been suggested first in refs. [18, 95] and after that in ref. [99].

If the  $bc_1$  dimer is in an activated  $Q_N^{\bullet-}b_h^{\text{ox}} \parallel b_h^{\text{red}}$  state, already the first flash-triggered ubiquinol oxidation in center  $P$  should lead to the formation of an ubiquinol molecule in the respective center  $N$  and, accordingly, to the electrogenic reactions of proton binding and release (as shown in Fig. 3). Hence, the kinetics of voltage generation by the  $bc_1$  complexes should not depend on the intensity of exciting flashes, and not more than half of the heme  $b_h$  content could be reduced by a flash of light, in accordance with experimental observations.

Otherwise, if the  $bc_1$  is not activated (that could happen under non-physiological, oxidizing conditions), the formation of the first ubiquinol molecule in center  $N$  would require not one, but two enzyme turnovers, at least, as suggested by the modified Q-cycle scheme of Crofts and co-workers [13]. Generally, the  $bc_1$  turns over much slower under oxidizing conditions than under reducing ones, when its activation is possible [17, 18, 56, 61].

The Mitchell’s Q-cycle starts from the oxidation of a quinol molecule in center  $P$  (see Fig. 1). The activated Q-cycle, in fact, starts from the oxidation of a ubiquinol molecule in center  $N$  followed by the activation of the  $bc_1$  ( $F \rightarrow A$  transition in Fig. 3). This rather bizarre view on the Q-cycle matches the earlier observations that center  $N$  – which is commonly believed to be the quinone-reducing one – binds the molecules of ubiquinol by order of magnitude more tightly than molecules of ubiquinone [100]. Under oxidizing conditions, the ubiquinol

molecules, which were produced in the RC in response to flashes, were shown to interact with center *N* much faster than with center *P* [44, 101, 102]. The crystal structures show that centers *N* of the  $bc_1$  dimer are easily accessible from the lipid bilayer in contrast to centers *P* [19].

It looks like that the  $bc_1$  first makes one activating turn backwards to oxidize one ubiquinol molecule via center *N* and to “load” its cytochrome *b* moiety by two electrons. Only then the  $bc_1$  makes two productive forward turns, each leading to an oxidation of one ubiquinol molecule in center *P* and formation of one ubiquinol molecule in center *N*. The total balance of the activated Q-cycle is the same as in the earlier Q cycle models [13, 33], namely two ubiquinol molecules are oxidized in centers *P* and one is formed in centers *N*. The pre-activation of the  $bc_1$  appears to preclude the situations when an eventual impediment in oxidation of a second ubiquinol molecule in center *P* could prevent the ubiquinol formation in center *N*. In addition, the pre-activation might be kinetically advantageous, particularly under coupled conditions; the estimates from refs. [64, 87], indicate that the electron injection into the  $bc_1$  dimer via center *N* (the “pre-loading” of the  $bc_1$ ) should be driven by  $\Delta\psi$  (see [18] for details).

#### **4. Activated Q-cycle in the cytochrome *b<sub>6</sub>f* complex?**

The cytochrome *b<sub>6</sub>f* complexes of green plants and cyanobacteria (see Table 2 for some of their properties) differ structurally from the  $bc_1$  complexes [3, 23, 103, 104]. For example, the cytochrome *b* of the  $bc_1$  (formed by 8 transmembrane helices) corresponds to the two subunits of the *b<sub>6</sub>f*: the N-terminal part of the cytochrome *b* is homologous to the cytochrome *b<sub>6</sub>* (4 transmembrane helices), whereas the C-terminal part resembles the subunit IV of the *b<sub>6</sub>f* complex (3 transmembrane helices). The cytochrome *b<sub>6</sub>* subunit, besides accommodating two *b*-type hemes, as in the  $bc_1$ , carries an additional *c*-type heme (heme  $c_n$  or heme  $c_i$ ) that does

not have a counterpart in the  $bc_1$  [3, 103-106]. The iron atom of this heme is connected to the propionate of heme  $b_h$  by a water bridge. The subunit IV binds single molecules of chlorophyll  $a$  and  $\beta$ -carotene, which are likely to be involved in photoprotection [7, 107-109]. In addition, the cytochrome  $f$ , which accepts electrons from the mobile FeS domain of the Rieske protein, although carries a  $c$ -type heme, is structurally unrelated to the cytochrome  $c_1$  of the  $bc_1$  [110]. In fact, only the positions of the  $b$ -type hemes overlap in the structures of  $bc_1$  and  $bf$  complexes [103].

In spite of these differences, the data on flash-induced reactions in the  $bf$  complexes show similarity with the respective reactions in the  $bc_1$  of phototrophic bacteria. In chloroplast thylakoids, where the plastoquinol oxidation in center  $P$  was triggered by flashes of light, the reduction of cytochrome  $b_6$  was usually faster than (i) re-reduction of cytochrome  $f$ , (ii) voltage generation in the  $bf$ , (iii) proton release into the thylakoid lumen, and (iv) proton binding by the  $bf$  [11, 15, 16, 111-113]. Similar to the situation in the  $bc_1$ , the latter four reactions showed a rough kinetic correspondence with the oxidation of cytochrome  $b_6$  (see e.g. [16, 113]).

Cramer and co-workers have shown that the flash-induced reduction of cytochrome  $b_6$  can be kinetically decoupled from the re-reduction of cytochrome  $f$  and voltage generation. Diverse mutations of amino-acid residues in cytochrome  $f$  retarded both the re-reduction of cytochrome  $f$  and the generation of the membrane voltage without affecting the cytochrome  $b_6$  reduction rate. Thereby the latter reaction was distinctly faster than the former two [114]. Furthermore, the kinetic discrepancy between the reduction of cytochrome  $b_6$  and the re-reduction of cytochrome  $f$  increased with the increase in the lumenal viscosity [115]. These results indicate that the undocking of a reduced FeS domain from cytochrome  $b_6$  – a precondition of the cytochrome  $f$  re-reduction – might be coupled to an electrogenic reaction, as it seems to happen in the  $bc_1$ .

Rappaport and Deniau have shown that the the initial slope of voltage generation by the *bf* was slowed four-fold by a H<sub>2</sub>O/D<sub>2</sub>O substitution, in contrast with the redox-reactions of cytochromes *f* and *b*<sub>6</sub> that were only little affected [116]. These authors concluded that a proton pump was triggered by the oxidation of plastoquinol in center *P*. In principle, these data are compatible with the aforementioned scheme where the voltage generation in the *bc*<sub>1</sub> resulted from the ultimate, electrostatically compensating re-distribution of protons.

Furthermore, two inhibitors of the *bf* complex, namely 2-*n*-nonyl-4-hydroxyquinoline *N*-oxide (NQNO) [117-119] and E-β-methoxyacrylate-stilbene (MOA-stilbene) [15], were shown to retard concurrently the flash-induced re-reduction of cytochrome *f*, the oxidation of cytochrome *b*<sub>6</sub> and the onset of voltage generation, thereby hardly affecting the rate of the flash-induced cytochrome *b*<sub>6</sub> reduction and the steady turnover of the *bf*. Apparently, this kind of weak inhibition resembles the aforementioned action of Zn<sup>2+</sup> ions on the *bc*<sub>1</sub>. NQNO and MOA-stilbene were suggested to interact with center *N* of the *bf*. The X-ray structure of the *bf* that was crystallized in the presence of NQNO has shown that, indeed, this quinone analogue binds as an axial ligand to heme *c*<sub>n</sub> and apparently imitates the binding of a plastoquinone molecule [120]. Hence, the slowing of the cytochrome *f* re-reduction and voltage generation in response to the binding of NQNO in center *N* might imply a connection between centers *N* and *P*, similar to the coupling between the two quinone-binding centers in the *bc*<sub>1</sub> (*vide supra*).

It was repeatedly shown that, in the absence of inhibitors, only about 0.5 heme *b* per *bf* monomer could be reduced in response to a flash, with this fraction increasing two-fold in the presence of NQNO [11, 15, 16, 111-113]. Later it was found that NQNO decreases the midpoint potential of heme *c*<sub>n</sub> by > 200 mV [121]. Hence, in the absence of NQNO the reduction of cytochrome *b*<sub>6</sub> by the first electron leads apparently to an even spreading of this electron over the *c*<sub>n</sub>/*b*<sub>h</sub> heme pair [106]. Appearance of a second electron at the *c*<sub>n</sub>/*b*<sub>h</sub> heme

pair should prompt a two-electron reduction of a plastoquinone molecule to plastoquinol in center  $N$  [3, 106], surpassing a stable semiquinone as a reaction intermediate (in contrast to the  $bc_1$ ). Not surprisingly, a stable semiquinone has never been observed in the  $bf$  complexes. The flash-induced reactions in the  $bf$  were shown to be much faster in pre-illuminated samples than after their dark adaptation under oxidizing conditions (see [15, 122] and references therein). To explain this feature, Rich and co-workers put forward a scheme where the initial turnover(s) of an oxidized  $bf$  yielded a metastable, slowly relaxing enzyme intermediate,  $I$ , with one electron being spread over the  $(b_l b_h Q_N)$  system. It was proposed that if the subsequent turnover of the enzyme proceeded before the state  $I$  decayed to the initial oxidized state, the rate of this turnover was rapid. In the view of new data on functional dimerization of the  $bf$  [103, 104, 123] and on redox properties of its constituents [7, 106, 121], the hypothetical state  $I$  might be tentatively attributed to a dimeric  $bf$  where one electron is shared by the  $c_N/b_h$  heme couple in each monomer. This state, however, formally corresponds to the activated state  $Q_N^{\cdot-} b_h^{\text{ox}} \parallel b_h^{\text{red}}$  in the  $bc_1$  complex (state A in Fig. 3) where one electron is “stored” in each cytochrome  $b$  moiety.

Based on this analysis, a scheme of an activated Q-cycle in the cytochrome  $bf$  complex can be suggested (Fig. 4). Here the activated  $bf$  is pre-loaded by two electrons that reside at the two  $c_N/b_h$  heme pairs. Then the oxidation of the each plastoquinol molecule in center  $P$  - in response to a flash of light - will yield a plastoquinol molecule in center  $N$ . By analogy with the  $bc_1$ , it is tempting to suggest that the reduction of the FeS cluster and the  $c_N/b_h$  heme pair after the oxidation of a plastoquinol molecule in center  $P$  (transition  $A \rightarrow B$  in Fig. 4) might proceed faster than the subsequent steps coupled with formation of plastoquinol in center  $N$  (transition  $B \rightarrow C$  in Fig. 4). The electrical neutralization of the system upon plastoquinol formation in center  $N$  might be coupled with electrogenic proton displacements and explain the observed kinetic coupling between the oxidation of cytochrome  $b_6$ , re-reduction of cytochrome  $f$ , voltage generation and proton transfer reactions [11, 15, 16, 111-113].



The lack of a semiquinone stabilizing capacity should hinder the dark activation of the *bf* via plastoquinol oxidation in center *N*, as well as the eventual decay of this state via plastoquinol formation in center *N*. The *bf* complex, however, can be dark-activated via reduction of heme  $c_n$  by ferredoxin as depicted in Fig. 4. Although this reaction remains highly debated, evidence in its favor were obtained both *in vitro* [124] and *in vivo* (see [125, 126] and references therein).

The ubiquinone pool is half-reduced both in cells of *Rhodobacter* [127] and in respiring mitochondria [128]. Therefore the activated state of the  $bc_1$  seems to be in equilibrium with the membrane ubiquinol pool *in vivo* and represent the physiological state of the enzyme [18]. To what extent the activated state of the *bf* is populated in living organisms is yet to be established. On the one hand, the plastoquinol pool can become oxidized *in vivo* (see [129, 130] and references therein). On the other hand, a continuous reduction by ferredoxin might help to keep the *bf* in a metastable, “pre-loaded” state. In addition, the aforementioned absence of a stable semiquinone in center *N* might account for the long life time of the activated state in the *bf*, this life time can reach minutes in the absence of externally added redox mediators [15, 122]. Hence, owing to the possibility of heme  $c_n$  reduction by ferredoxin and the longevity of the activated state, the *bf* complexes might remain activated even when the membrane plastoquinone pool gets sporadically oxidized. It is tempting to speculate that the well-recognized redox regulation of electron flows between the two photosystems of green plants (see [129-131] and references therein) might help to keep the cytochrome *bf* complex in an activated state.

## 5. Conclusions and outlook

The Q-cycle schemes of Peter Mitchell [27, 28] have invoked the delivery of the second electron to center  $N$  by some other enzyme complex (shown as “ $d$ ” in Fig. 1B). Although Mitchell has noted that center (i) (center  $N$ ) of mitochondrial  $bc_1$  may be, in principle, a self-contained ubiquinone reductase [28], the Q-cycle schemes that he suggested for the  $bc_1$  complexes of phototrophic bacteria and the  $bf$  complexes of plants all invoked tentative second electron donors [28]. By invoking additional electron donors, Mitchell may have tried to avoid the incompleteness of the Q-cycle: while the substrate quinol is irreversibly utilized in center  $P$ , the formation of the product quinol in center  $N$  is incomplete in the absence of a second electron donor and depends on the availability of a second quinol molecule for center  $P$  (see e.g. Fig. 1A). The activated Q-cycle schemes (see Fig. 3 and 4) suggest an alternative way to avoid unfinished catalytic cycles: here the cytochrome  $b$  moieties can be pre-reduced by mobile quinol and/or ferredoxin molecules, that should enable one-shot quinol formation in centers  $N$ .

Which enzyme complexes provide electrons for the molecules of quinol and ferredoxin? In chromatophores of *Rhodobacter* the major supplier of reduced ubiquinol molecules is the RC - that was suggested to donate the second electron for ubiquinone reduction in center  $N$  (center (i)) by Mitchell [28]. In mitochondria, the molecules of ubiquinol come from various dehydrogenases, including the succinate dehydrogenase that was envisioned by Mitchell as the donor of the second electron. In the green plants and cyanobacteria, Mitchell suggested the photosystem II as the second electron donor for the  $bf$  [28]. Here it is yet to be established yet, whether the  $bf$  is activated by plastoquinol molecules that come from the Photosystem II or by ferredoxin molecules that are reduced by Photosystem I, or by both. In this framework, the concept of the activated Q-cycle (Fig. 3 and 4) might be considered as an updated version of the original Mitchell's scheme (Fig. 1B).

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## Captions to Figures

Fig. 1. Q-cycle in the cytochrome  $bc_1$  complex.

A, the conventional Q-cycle scheme as plotted over the X-ray structure of the three catalytic subunits of a dimeric  $bc_1$  of phototrophic bacteria (the X-ray structure of the  $bc_1$  of *Rhodobacter sphaeroides* (PDB entry 2QJY [24]) was used). Yellow arrows, ET steps; green arrows, ubiquinone/ubiquinol exchange events. The figure was produced with the VMD software package [132].

B, the original Q-cycle scheme of Mitchell. The figure is based on Fig. 1 from ref. [27] and Fig. 3 from ref. [28]. The symbol (o) corresponds to center  $P$ , the symbol (i) marks center  $N$ . The additional donor of the second electron to center (i) is denoted “ $d$ ”. Otherwise the original Mitchell’s notation was changed to the currently used one (see the text for details).

Fig. 2. Electron and proton transfer events during the turnover of the  $bc_1$  (the figure is taken from ref. [59]). Black arrows, electron transfer events; red arrows, proton transfer events; dotted dark red arrows, dielectric relaxation of protein/water. The redox centers are colored as in Fig. 1. The segment of the  $ef$  loop of cytochrome  $b$  that interferes with the movement of the FeS domain is shown as a thick yellow tube.

(A) The faster step of ubiquinol oxidation in center  $P$ . The picture is based on the high resolution structure of the yeast  $bc_1$  (PDB entry 1EZV [133]). The bound stigmatellin in center  $P$  was replaced by ubiquinone. Water molecules, which are found in the vicinity of center  $P$  are shown as red balls. The four amino acid residues which bind a  $Zn^{2+}$  ion in chicken  $bc_1$  are depicted in violet.

(B) The slower, Zn-dependent step of ubiquinol reduction in center  $N$ . The picture is based on the structure of the chicken  $bc_1$  (PDB entry 1BCC [20]). Ubiquinol in center  $N$

is shown in the same position as it is found in the yeast  $bc_1$  [133]. The four amino acid residues, which bind a  $Zn^{2+}$  ion in the  $bc_1$  of chicken [71] and, most likely, of *Rb. capsulatus* [72], are colored as follows: Asp-253, pink, Glu-255, violet, His-268, green (all three are residues of cytochrome  $b$ ), His-121 of cytochrome  $c_1$ , light green.

Fig. 3. Activated Q-cycle in the cytochrome  $bc_1$  complex. Thin black arrows, electron transfer steps; thick red arrows, proton transfer steps; thick gray arrows, quinone/quinol exchange reactions. Blue “lightning signs“ indicate those steps that can be triggered by flashes of light in the  $bc_1$  of phototrophic bacteria. Protons are depicted as red circled crosses. The cartoon in the middle shows a tentative structure of an activated  $bc_1$  with a  $Q_N^-$  semiquinone and a reduced heme  $b_h$  present in different monomers (colored in magenta and red, respectively, the PDB entry 1EZV [133] was used). For other explanations, see the text and ref. [18].

Fig. 4. Activated Q-cycle in the cytochrome  $bf$  complex (tentative scheme). Electrons at the  $c_N/b_h$  heme pair are shown as circled minus signs (magenta). Because of space limitations, plastoquinone is denoted as Q and not PQ. Otherwise the notation is similar to that in Fig. 3. A, the activated state of the  $bf$ : the FeS clusters and cytochromes  $f$  are pre-reduced and one electron is shared by each  $c_N/b_h$  heme pair. Transition A  $\rightarrow$  B, fast oxidation of a plastoquinol molecule in center  $P$ : an electron vacancy migrates from the photosystem I to the  $bf$  complex after the flash; the oxidized FeS domain docks to cytochrome  $b_6$  and binds a plastoquinol molecule in center  $P$ ; oxidation of this plastoquinol molecule is accompanied by a delivery of an electron and a proton to the FeS cluster leaving a semiquinone in center  $P$ ; the second electron goes from the semiquinone, via heme  $b_l$ , to the pre-reduced  $c_N/b_h$  heme pair; the FeS domain remains docked to cytochrome  $b_6$  and plugs the proton outlet from center  $P$ . Transition B  $\rightarrow$  C, slow formation of a plastoquinol molecule in center  $N$  and voltage generation: a two-electron oxidation of the  $c_N/b_h$  heme pair generates a plastoquinol molecule

in center  $N$  and causes electrogenic binding of two protons from the  $n$ -side of the membrane; the formation of this plastoquinol molecule (or its release from center  $N$ ) enables undocking of a reduced FeS domain and its movement towards cytochrome  $f$ ; the oxidation of the reduced and protonated FeS domain by cytochrome  $f$  is accompanied by proton release into the water phase; concomitantly protons leave center  $P$  via the outlet that is now open; displacement of all these protons across the membrane dielectric, as well as the re-orientation of the intra-membrane dipoles, account for a large electrogenic reaction. Transition  $C \rightarrow D$  and  $D \rightarrow E$  describe the oxidation of the second plastoquinol molecule in the other center  $P$  and are essentially similar to the transitions  $A \rightarrow B$  and  $B \rightarrow C$ , respectively. Blue dashed arrows indicate that the  $bf$  can be activated (transition  $F \rightarrow A$ ) either via the reduction of heme  $c_n$  by ferredoxin, or via the light-induced oxidation of two plastoquinol molecules in center  $P$ , or through the dark oxidation of a plastoquinol molecule via center  $N$ .