

**Table 1**

Average number of phospholipid molecules bound to purified SQR.

The *E. coli* SQR was solubilized using 0.1% (1.9 mM), 1.0% (19 mM), 2.5% (48 mM) and 4.0% (76 mM) sucrose monolaurate from membranes with different phospholipid concentrations and purified in the presence of 0.5% (w/v) Lubrol PX. Values in parentheses are the molar ratios of SML to phospholipid in the membrane suspension.

SML <sup>†</sup> concentration (mM)	Phospholipid concentration in membrane suspension (mM)	Average No. of phospholipids per SQR monomer <sup>‡</sup>
1.9 (4.8)	0.4	11
19 (0.95)	20	10
19 (4.8)	4.0	8
48 (3.0)	12	6
48 (12)*	4.0	6
48 (24)	2.0	6
76 (3.8)	20	6
76 (19)	4.0	6

<sup>†</sup> Sucrose monolaurate (CMC 0.4 mM). <sup>‡</sup> The concentration of the purified SQR was estimated by  $A_{280}$  ( $A_{280} = 10.6$  for  $10 \text{ mg ml}^{-1}$  SQR solution). <sup>§</sup> It was assumed that the phospholipid contained only one P atom. <sup>\*</sup> Crystallization was performed for SQR solubilized under this condition.

530 mg SQR and the pellet obtained by centrifugation was dissolved again in buffer A. Residual impurities were successfully removed using a GE Healthcare Source 15Q column (70 ml bed volume). Fractions with an  $A_{412}/A_{280} > 0.6$  obtained by elution with 1000 ml of a linear gradient of 0–0.3 M NaCl were pooled (Fig. 1, lane 2). The purified SQR (200 mg) was then subjected to sucrose density-gradient ultracentrifugation. The pooled SQR was precipitated by adding solid PEG 3350 and dissolved again in a minimum amount of buffer A (~4 ml). The SQR solution (2 ml) was carefully loaded onto buffer A (~73 ml) containing a 6–40% (w/v) sucrose-density gradient and centrifuged at 200 000g overnight in a Hitachi P45AT fixed-angle rotor. The SQR, which focused as a deep reddish-coloured sharp band in the middle of the gradient (Fig. 1, lane 3), was separated from the broad pale-reddish upper half in approximately 95% yield, precipitated by PEG 3350 and stored at 193 K for subsequent use. Sodium malonate, an inhibitor of SQR, was added to all of the purification and crystallization steps in order to stabilize the enzyme.

## 2.5. Detergent exchange

Detergent exchange was performed at 277 K as follows. After purification in the presence of Lubrol PX, the SQR precipitated by PEG 3350 was dissolved in 20 mM Tris-HCl buffer pH 7.4 containing 2 mM sodium malonate, 200 mM KCl and 1% of the detergent of choice. The  $A_{280}$  of the SQR solution was set to about 10. After incubation for 20 min on ice, the enzyme was precipitated by adding a 1.4-fold volume of 40% (w/w) PEG 3350 when the type of detergent exchanged was an *n*-alkyl-oligoethylene glycol monoether ( $C_nE_m$ ). The pellet obtained by centrifugation was again dissolved in the same buffer and the enzyme was precipitated by PEG 3350 after a 20 min incubation period. This procedure was repeated several times. Exchanges to *n*-alkyl-glucosides ( $C_nG$ ) and *n*-alkyl-maltosides ( $C_nM$ ) were performed similarly, but the enzyme was precipitated by adding a 1.2-fold volume of 4.0 M ammonium sulfate. Since ammonium sulfate can cause phase separation of a solution containing  $C_nE_m$  and PEG can cause phase separation of a solution containing  $C_nG$  or  $C_nM$ , an appropriate choice of precipitants should be made in order to avoid the denaturation of the enzyme caused by phase separation. The completeness of detergent exchange was checked by thin-layer chromatography (Reiss-Husson, 1992).

**Table 2**

Average number of phospholipid molecules bound to purified SQR.

The *E. coli* SQR was solubilized and purified using different combinations of detergents. The concentration of phospholipids in the membranes was 4 mM, assuming that the phospholipid contained only one P atom.

Detergent used for		Average No. of phospholipids per SQR monomer <sup>†</sup>	Crystallization <sup>‡</sup>
Solubilization (2.5%)	Purification (0.5%)		
LDAO <sup>§</sup>	LDAO	~100	Failed
DOC <sup>¶</sup>	LDAO	~100	Failed
DOC	SMC <sup>††</sup>	19	Failed
SMC	SMC	16	Failed
SML <sup>‡‡</sup>	SML	6	Successful
SML	Lubrol PX <sup>§§</sup>	6	Successful
Lubrol PX	Lubrol PX	24	Failed
Lubrol PX (4%)	Lubrol PX	6	Successful

<sup>†</sup> The concentration of the purified SQR was estimated by  $A_{280}$  ( $A_{280} = 10.6$  for  $10 \text{ mg ml}^{-1}$  SQR solution). <sup>‡</sup> Results of crystallization trials according to the optimized procedure described in the text. <sup>§</sup> *N,N*-Dimethyldodecylamine-*N*-oxide (CMC 1.4 mM, 0.03%). <sup>¶</sup> Deoxycholic acid (CMC 5 mM, 0.2%). <sup>††</sup> Sucrose monolaurate (CMC 2.5 mM, 0.13%). <sup>‡‡</sup> Sucrose monolaurate (CMC 0.4 mM, 0.02%). <sup>§§</sup>  $C_{12}H_{25-11}(\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_2)_m\text{OH}$  ( $n = 12, 14; m = 9, 5$ ).

## 2.6. Crystallization and X-ray diffraction experiments

Crystallization conditions were screened by the hanging-drop vapour-diffusion technique using 96-well CrystalClear Strips (Hampton Research). The SQR was dissolved in 10 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.6 buffer containing 2 mM sodium malonate and the detergent of choice ( $A_{280} = 30$ ) and centrifuged for 20 min at 20 000g to remove any undissolved material. To set up the hanging-drop vapour diffusion, a droplet made up of 0.5  $\mu\text{l}$  SQR solution and 0.5  $\mu\text{l}$  reservoir solution was incubated over a well containing 100  $\mu\text{l}$  reservoir solution. Initial screening was carried out at 277 and 293 K using the commercially available crystallization kits Crystal Screen (Jancarik & Kim, 1991) and Crystal Screen II from Hampton Research.

X-ray diffraction experiments were performed using the synchrotron beamlines BL44XU at SPring-8 (Harima, Japan), BL-5A at PF and NW12A at PF-AR (Tsukuba, Japan). For X-ray diffraction experiments at 100 K, crystals were transferred to reservoir solution supplemented with 15% glycerol and then frozen by rapid submergence in liquid nitrogen. The data were processed and scaled using programs from the *HKL*-2000 suite (Otwinowski & Minor, 1997).

## 3. Results and discussion

### 3.1. Phospholipid content of purified SQR

Since the major constituent (~80% in weight) of the *E. coli* inner membranes is phospholipids (Tanford, 1980), the phospholipid content is a good indicator of the amount of lipid bound to the purified SQR. After solubilization from the membranes using 2.5% (w/v) sucrose monolaurate and purification in the presence of 0.5% (w/v) Lubrol PX as described in §2, the concentration of the phosphorus liberated from the phospholipid molecules bound to the purified SQR was measured. Assuming that the phospholipid molecules bound to the purified SQR contained one P atom and that the  $A_{280}$  of the  $10 \text{ mg ml}^{-1}$  SQR solution was 10.6, six bound phospholipid molecules per SQR monomer were detected. The phospholipid contents of SQR prepared under different solubilization conditions were also analyzed. Solubilization with 2.5% (w/v) or 4.0% (w/v) sucrose monolaurate gave a value of six regardless of the molar ratio between the detergent and phospholipid in the membrane suspension, whereas the phospholipid content increased to 11 on a decrease in the sucrose monolaurate concentration (Table 1). Therefore, these



six phospholipid molecules seem to be more tightly bound to the SQR. We also performed solubilization and purification using other commercially available detergents (Table 2). *N,N*-Dimethyldodecylamine-*N*-oxide (Fluka) and deoxycholic acid (Wako) produced SQR preparations containing ~100 phospholipid molecules. However, the phospholipid content was reduced to 19 when purification was performed in the presence of 0.5% (*w/v*) sucrose monooxalate (Dojindo). Accordingly, most of the phospholipid molecules were loosely bound to the SQR and were removed by the action of 0.5% (*w/v*) sucrose monooxalate. On the other hand, 2.5% (*w/v*) and 4% (*w/v*) Lubrol PX gave phospholipid contents of 24 and six, respectively. In the X-ray structure of *E. coli* SQR solubilized using 4% THESIT, which is virtually the same detergent as Lubrol PX, two well ordered phospholipid molecules, phosphatidylethanolamine and cardiolipin, were found per SQR monomer (Yankovskaya *et al.*, 2003). Since phosphatidylethanolamine and cardiolipin contain one and two P atoms, respectively, there are three P atoms per SQR monomer in the X-ray structure. The disagreement over the number of P atoms probably arises from two causes. Firstly, since the concentration of the SQR was estimated from the calculated molar extinction coefficient in this study, the number of P atoms determined are relative rather than absolute values. Secondly, there may be additional disordered phospholipid molecules which are not detected by X-ray analysis.

Since the Fiske-SubbaRow method only gives an average phospholipid content, it is not known whether or not the purified SQR was uniform in the number of bound phospholipid molecules. Following the Source 15Q column, the purified SQR with six bound phospholipid molecules was subjected to sucrose density-gradient ultracentrifugation at 200 000g overnight. After centrifugation, most of the SQR (about 95%) was focused in a sharp deep-reddish band which formed in the middle of the gradient, with a small amount of the enzyme (about 4%) spread broadly at the upper part of the gradient. The phospholipid content of the SQR in the sharp band was six, but in the broad band the phospholipid content was in the range 10–15 depending on the position of the gradient. This result indicates that the uniformity in the phospholipid content was improved by sucrose density-gradient ultracentrifugation.

### 3.2. Crystallization

After solubilization and purification using 2.5% (*w/v*) sucrose monolaurate and 0.5% (*w/v*) Lubrol PX, respectively, the purified SQR dissolved in 10 mM Tris-HCl buffer pH 7.4 containing 2 mM sodium malonate and 0.5% (*w/v*) Lubrol PX (50 mg ml<sup>-1</sup> protein) was subjected to a crystallization trial using commercially available screening kits. Aggregates of small crystals were observed in a large amount of amorphous precipitate using several reservoir solutions containing PEG as a precipitant. An attempt was made to optimize the crystallization conditions by using PEGs with different molecular weights and by varying the PEG concentration, the pH and the temperature. However, none of the conditions investigated improved the results. Since Lubrol PX is a heterogeneous detergent, the detergent was exchanged for commercially available synthetic homogeneous C<sub>12</sub>E<sub>8</sub> and C<sub>10</sub>E<sub>8</sub> (Fluka) and the screening was carried out again. However, no single crystals other than aggregates of small crystals were observed. Additive Screen kits (Hampton Research) were used to examine the effects of adding various compounds but also failed. Single crystals of *E. coli* SQR were finally obtained when either *n*-dodecyl-β-D-maltoside (C<sub>12</sub>M, Dojindo) or *n*-decyl-β-D-maltoside (C<sub>10</sub>M, Dojindo) was used as an additive, but their optimum quantities varied subtly from experiment to experiment.

To attain reproducible crystallization, the Lubrol PX in the purified SQR was exchanged for detergent mixtures composed of C<sub>12</sub>E<sub>8</sub> and C<sub>12</sub>M in ratios of 10:0, 9:1, 8:2 and 7:3 (by weight). Exchange to detergent mixtures with higher C<sub>12</sub>M content denatured the SQR and the addition of PEG 3350 caused phase separation of the SQR solutions, in which the SQR was concentrated in the phase enriched with the detergent. After detergent exchange, the enzyme was dissolved in 10 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.4 and 2 mM sodium malonate solution containing C<sub>12</sub>E<sub>8</sub> and C<sub>12</sub>M in the prescribed ratio with a total concentration of 0.2% (*w/v*) and optimization of the crystallization conditions was repeated. Plate-shaped deep-red crystals with typical dimensions of 0.2 × 0.1 × 0.02 mm (Fig. 2a) appeared reproducibly within 3 d from reservoir solution composed of 16% (*w/v*) PEG 3350, 100 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 2 mM sodium malonate and 200 mM KCl at 293 K when the ratio of C<sub>12</sub>E<sub>8</sub> and C<sub>12</sub>M was 8:2 (by weight).

Since it has been noted that phase separation plays a major role in the crystallization of membrane proteins (Garavito & Picot, 1990; Reiss-Husson, 1992), the concentrations of PEG 3350 that caused phase separation of solutions containing C<sub>12</sub>E<sub>8</sub> and C<sub>12</sub>M with a total concentration of 0.2% were examined at 293 K. The 10:0 solution, which contained only 0.2% (*w/v*) C<sub>12</sub>E<sub>8</sub> in 100 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 2 mM sodium malonate and 200 mM KCl, separated into two phases at 28% (*w/v*) PEG 3350. However, as the ratio of C<sub>12</sub>M increased, the concentration of PEG 3350 required gradually decreased to 23% and finally to 7% (*w/v*) PEG 3350 at 8:2 and 0:10, respectively. Therefore, the crystallization of *E. coli* SQR seems to take place using the 8:2 mixed detergent because the PEG 3350 concentrations necessary for crystallization and phase separation are closer to each other at 8:2 than those observed for the other mixed detergents with lower C<sub>12</sub>M contents. Interestingly, crystals of the same quality were also obtained at 7.5:2.5, but microcrystals formed only occasionally at 8.5:1.5. Crystals of the same crystal form were also obtained under a similar crystallization condition (20% PEG 3350, 100 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.2, 2 mM malonate and 200 mM KCl at 293 K) using an 8:2 mixture of C<sub>12</sub>E<sub>8</sub> and C<sub>10</sub>M. X-ray diffraction experiments were performed under liquid-nitrogen-cooled conditions at 100 K using synchrotron radiation. Although fresh crystals diffracted to better than 3 Å resolution, the diffraction limits rapidly reduced to lower than 4 Å resolution owing to radiation damage. Analysis of the symmetry and systematic absences of diffraction patterns indicated that the crystals belonged to the monoclinic space group *P*2<sub>1</sub>, with unit-cell para-

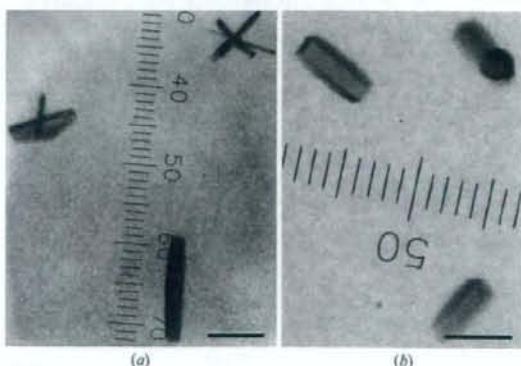


Figure 2. Crystals of *E. coli* SQR obtained using (a) 0.16% C<sub>12</sub>E<sub>8</sub> and 0.04% C<sub>12</sub>M and (b) 0.16% C<sub>10</sub>E<sub>8</sub> and 0.04% C<sub>10</sub>M. The scale bar represents 0.2 mm.

Table 3

Statistics of data collection and processing.

Values in parentheses are for the highest resolution shell.

Wavelength (Å)	1.000
Space group	$P4_122$ (or $P4_222$ )
Unit-cell parameters	
$a$ (Å)	121.8
$b$ (Å)	121.8
$c$ (Å)	633.4
Solvent content <sup>†</sup> (%)	62
Resolution range (Å)	40.0–2.9 (3.04–2.9)
No. of reflections	880368
Unique reflections	86980
Completeness (%)	82.0 (85.6)
$R_{\text{merge}}^{\ddagger}$ (%)	8.2 (49.9)
$I/\sigma(I)$	17.1 (3.7)

<sup>†</sup> Assuming the presence of three molecules in the asymmetric unit.  $\ddagger R_{\text{merge}} = \sum_{hkl} \sum_i |I_i(hkl) - \langle I(hkl) \rangle| / \sum_{hkl} \sum_i I_i(hkl)$ .

meters  $a = 121.3$ ,  $b = 186.3$ ,  $c = 216.4$  Å,  $\beta = 90.6^\circ$ . Assuming six SQR molecules ( $120 \text{ kDa} \times 6$ ) per asymmetric unit, the  $V_M$  value (Matthews, 1968) is calculated to be  $3.4 \text{ \AA}^3 \text{ Da}^{-1}$  with an estimated solvent content of 64%, which is comparable to that found in previous work (69%) by Yankovskaya *et al.* (2003).

In contrast, enzyme for which the detergent was exchanged from Lubrol PX to an 8:2 mixture of  $C_{10}E_8$  and either  $C_{12}M$  or  $C_{10}M$  crystallized in a different crystal form at 293 K from a reservoir solution composed of 20% PEG 3350, 100 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 2 mM sodium malonate and 200 mM KCl (Fig. 2*b*). Diffraction patterns were recorded on the BL44XU beamline of SPring-8 using a DIP6040 detector at a wavelength of 0.9 Å. The crystals belonged to the tetragonal space group  $P4_122$  (or  $P4_222$ ), with unit-cell parameters  $a = b = 121.8$ ,  $c = 633.4$  Å. Three SQR molecules per asymmetric unit gave a  $V_M$  value of  $3.3 \text{ \AA}^3 \text{ Da}^{-1}$  and an estimated solvent content of 62%. A total of 880 368 observed reflections were merged to 86 980 unique reflections in the 40.0–2.9 Å resolution range. The data-collection and processing statistics are summarized in Table 3. An attempt to solve the structure using the molecular-replacement method with the *MOLREP* program (Navaza, 1994) as implemented in the *CCP4* package (Collaborative Computational Project, Number 4, 1994) was carried out using the refined coordinates of *E. coli* SQR (PDB code 1nek). A solution with a trimer structure, which was consistent with the previous work of Yankovskaya *et al.* (2003), was obtained in space group  $P4_122$ . The trimer model was subsequently subjected to rigid-body refinement and gave an  $R$  factor of 39%. However, further refinement is not straightforward: the phospholipid molecules were not located currently because the electron densities of the membrane-anchoring hydrophobic regions were faint.

In conclusion, we show that the phospholipid content of purified SQR depends greatly on the detergent used for solubilization and

purification and that the enzyme with the fewest bound phospholipid molecules was successfully crystallized in two crystal forms using mixtures of  $C_nE_m$  and  $C_nM$ . The reaction centre of photosystem II has also been crystallized using detergent mixtures and the role of detergent mixtures in crystallization has been discussed by Rukhman *et al.* (2000). On the basis of the knowledge obtained in this study, we have succeeded in the crystallization of two membrane proteins, quinol:fumarate reductase from *Ascaris suum* mitochondria and recombinant cyanide-insensitive alternative oxidase from *Trypanosoma brucei*, using different mixtures of detergents (details will be published elsewhere).

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## RESEARCH LETTER

# Identification of new inhibitors for alternative NADH dehydrogenase (NDH-II)

Tatsushi Mogi<sup>1</sup>, Kazunobu Matsushita<sup>2</sup>, Yoshiro Murase<sup>3</sup>, Kenji Kawahara<sup>1</sup>, Hideto Miyoshi<sup>4</sup>, Hideaki Ui<sup>5</sup>, Kazuro Shiomi<sup>5</sup>, Satoshi Ōmura<sup>5</sup> & Kiyoshi Kita<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Biomedical Chemistry, Graduate School of Medicine, The University of Tokyo, Tokyo, Japan; <sup>2</sup>Department of Biological Chemistry, Faculty of Agriculture, Yamaguchi University, Yamaguchi, Japan; <sup>3</sup>Mycobacterium Reference Center, The Research Institute of Tuberculosis, Antituberculosis Association, Tokyo, Japan; <sup>4</sup>Division of Applied Life Sciences, Graduate School of Agriculture, Kyoto University, Kyoto, Japan; and <sup>5</sup>Kitasato Institute for Life Sciences and Graduate School of Infection Control Sciences, Kitasato University, Tokyo, Japan

**Correspondence:** Tatsushi Mogi, Department of Biomedical Chemistry, Graduate School of Medicine, The University of Tokyo, Bunkyo-ku, Tokyo 113-0033, Japan. Tel.: +81 3 5841 8202; fax: +81 3 5841 3444; e-mail: tmogi@m.u-tokyo.ac.jp

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acetic acid bacteria; respiratory chain; NADH dehydrogenase; inhibitor; antibiotics.

## Introduction

Obligate aerobic *Gluconobacter* is a genus of acetic acid bacteria that can oxidize a broad range of sugars, sugar alcohols and sugar acids. Low biomass yield and the rapid and incomplete oxidation of carbon sources (oxidative fermentation), which take place in the periplasm and is accompanied by the accumulation of products into the culture medium, make them suitable for industrial applications for bioconversion to obtain a variety of valuable products (Deppenmeier *et al.*, 2002; Adachi *et al.*, 2007). Key oxidation processes are catalyzed by dehydrogenases bound to the outer surface of the cytoplasmic membrane, and linked to the generation of proton-motive force (Matsushita *et al.*, 1994).

The recently released complete genome of *Gluconobacter oxydans* American Type Culture Collection 621H indicates that the respiratory chain lacks Complex I (NADH:quinone reductase, NDH-I), Complex II (succinate:quinone reductase) and Complex IV (cytochrome *c* oxidase) (Prust *et al.*,

## Abstract

In bacterial membranes and plant, fungus and protist mitochondria, NADH dehydrogenase (NDH-II) serves as an alternative NADH:quinone reductase, a non-proton-pumping single-subunit enzyme bound to the membrane surface. Because NDH-II is absent in mammalian mitochondria, it is a promising target for new antibiotics. However, inhibitors for NDH-II are rare and unspecific. Taking advantage of the simple organization of the respiratory chain in *Gluconobacter oxydans*, we carried out screening of natural compounds and identified scopafungin and gramicidin S as inhibitors for *G. oxydans* NDH-II. Further, we examined their effects on *Mycobacterium smegmatis* and *Plasmodium yoelii* NDH-II as model pathogen enzymes.

2005). Genes encoding putative Complex III (quinol:cytochrome *c* reductase) and cytochrome *c* have been identified, but their functions are unclear because of the absence of cytochrome *c* oxidase. NADH produced in the cytoplasm is reoxidized by a single-subunit NADH dehydrogenase (NDH-II), a key enzyme for the regeneration of an oxidized form of NAD. NDH-II is bound peripherally to the inner surface of the cytoplasmic membrane and does not pump proton. Quinols generated by membrane-bound dehydrogenases are directly oxidized by cytochrome *bo<sub>3</sub>* oxidase (Matsushita *et al.*, 1987) and/or cyanide-insensitive oxidase (Ameyama *et al.*, 1987).

Taking advantage of the simple organization of the *Gluconobacter* respiratory chain (Matsushita *et al.*, 1994), here, we identified new inhibitors for NDH-II, which has been shown to be crucial for the adaptation of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (Shi *et al.*, 2005) and malaria parasite *Plasmodium* spp. (Fisher *et al.*, 2007) to host environments. From the screening of natural antibiotics in the Kitasato Institute for Life Sciences Chemical Library (Ui *et al.*, 2007),

we found the inhibitory activity of 36-membered ring macrolide scopafungin (Johnson & Dietz, 1971) and cyclic decapeptide gramicidin S (GS) (Izumiya et al., 1979) (Fig. 1) for the *G. oxydans* NDH-II, and we examined their inhibitory mechanism and effects on *Mycobacterium smegmatis* and *Plasmodium yoelii* NDH-II.

## Materials and methods

### Preparation of bacterial membrane vesicles

*Gluconobacter oxydans* NBRC3172 (formerly *G. suboxydans* IFO12528) was grown aerobically in complex media containing 20 g of sodium D-gluconate, 5 g of D-glucose, 3 g of glycerol, 3 g of yeast extract and 2 g of polypepton (Nihon Pharmaceutical Co.) per 1 L using a 50-L jar fermentor at 30 °C. Cells were harvested at the late-log phase, suspended in 10 mM potassium phosphate (pH 6.0) and disrupted with a Rannie high-pressure laboratory homogenizer (model Mini-Lab, type 8.30H, Wilimington, MA). After centrifugation, to remove intact cells, the supernatant was centrifuged at 86 000 g for 60 min and precipitated membranes were suspended in 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.4) containing 10% sucrose and 3 mM EDTA. *Mycobacterium smegmatis* mc<sup>2</sup>155 was grown aerobically at 37 °C, and membrane vesicles were prepared from the stationary-phase cells (Kana et al., 2001).

### Preparation of malaria parasite mitochondria

Rodent malaria *P. yoelii* strain 17XL was injected intraperitoneally into 8-week-old female BALB/c mice, and parasite mitochondria were prepared as in Takashima et al. (2001). Rat liver mitochondria were prepared as in Johnson & Lardy (1967).

### Enzyme assay

NADH: ubiquinone-1 ( $Q_1$ ) reductase (NQR) activity of the membranes was measured at 25 °C in 100 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.4) containing 10% sucrose, 0.02% Tween 20 (Calbiochem), 10 mM KCN and 100  $\mu$ M  $Q_1$  with a V-660 double monochromatic spectrophotometer (JASCO, Tokyo, Japan) (Mogi et al., 2008), and reactions were initiated by addition of NADH ( $\epsilon_{340} = 6.3 \text{ mM}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$ , Roche) at a final concentration of 200  $\mu$ M. Mitochondrial NQR and succinate:  $Q_1$  reductase activities were determined in 50 mM potassium phosphate (pH 7.4) containing 1 mM  $\text{MgCl}_2$ , 0.02% Tween 20, 2 mM KCN and 100  $\mu$ M  $Q_1$  ( $\epsilon_{275} = 12.3 \text{ mM}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ), and reactions were initiated by 200  $\mu$ M NADH or 10 mM potassium succinate, respectively. NADH oxidase activity was measured in the absence of  $Q_1$ . Data analysis was carried out as in Mogi et al. (2008).

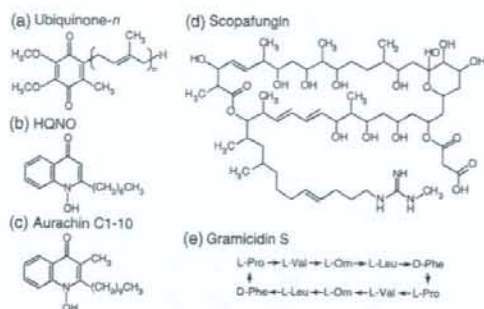


Fig. 1. Structures of ubiquinone, HQNO, aurachin C1–10, scopafungin and GS.

## Materials

Synthesis of aurachin C 1–10 (Miyoshi et al., 1999) was carried out as described previously. 2-Heptyl-4-hydroxyquinoline-*N*-oxide (HQNO) was obtained from Sigma.

## Results and discussion

### Screening of Kitasato Institute for Life Sciences Chemical Library

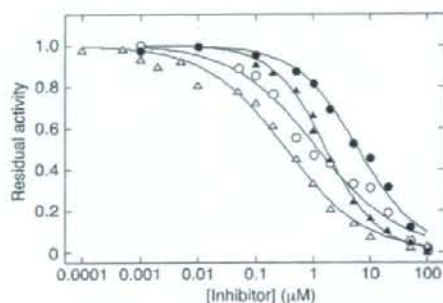
From the screening of a total of 304 microbial compounds (Ui et al., 2007) at final concentrations of 5  $\mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$  with *G. oxydans* membranes, we revealed the inhibitory activities of scopafungin (niphimycin; residual activity, 33%), GS (31%), polymixin B (51%), aculeacin A (63%), funiculosin (68%) and staurosporine (70%) on 0.2 mM NADH–0.1 mM  $Q_1$  reductase activity of NDH-II.

Inhibitors for NDH-II are rare and mostly nonspecific (Kerscher, 2000). Recently, quinolone derivatives [1-hydroxy-2-dodecyl-4(1*H*)quinolone, HQNO and aurachin C] were identified as potent inhibitors for the quinone reduction site of yeast NDH-II (Eschemann et al., 2005; Yamashita et al., 2007). We examined the effects of quinolone inhibitors on the *G. oxydans* NDH-II and found that HQNO and aurachin C 1–10 at 10  $\mu\text{M}$  reduced the NQR activity of the *G. oxydans* membranes to 28% and 12%, respectively, of the control level. Because of the limitation in the availability of isolated natural compounds, we examined further effects of scopafungin and GS (Fig. 1), which are not structurally related to ubiquinone, but showed potent inhibitory activities on the *G. oxydans* NDH-II.

### Determination of 50% inhibitory concentration ( $\text{IC}_{50}$ ) values for NDH-II inhibitors

We examined the dependence of the NQR activity on the concentration of GS, scopafungin, HQNO and aurachin C 1–10 and determined their  $\text{IC}_{50}$  to be  $1.2 \pm 0.2$ ,  $6.2 \pm 0.5$ ,





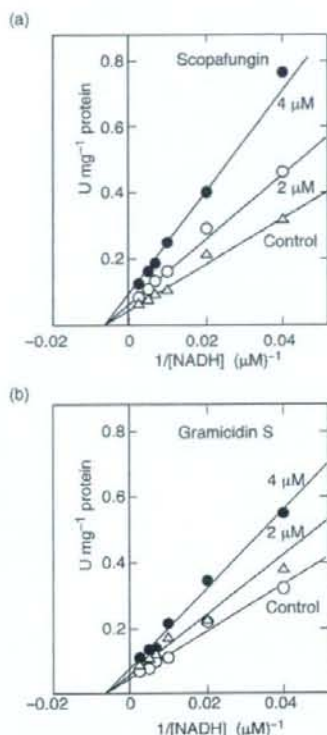
**Fig. 2.** Inhibition of *Gluconobacter oxydans* NDH-II by scopafungin, GS, HQNO and aurachin C 1-10. NQR activity of *G. oxydans* membranes ( $10 \mu\text{g protein mL}^{-1}$ ) was determined in the presence of scopafungin (●), GS (○), HQNO (▲) or aurachin C 1-10 (△). Data points were average values from duplicate assay. Control activity was  $10.2 \text{ U mg}^{-1} \text{ protein}$ .  $\text{IC}_{50}$  values for GS, scopafungin, HQNO and aurachin C 1-10 were estimated to be 1.2, 6.2, 1.7 and  $0.34 \mu\text{M}$ , respectively.

$1.7 \pm 0.1$  and  $0.34 \pm 0.04 \mu\text{M}$ , respectively (Fig. 2). The  $\text{IC}_{50}$  value for GS was  $< 3.5 \mu\text{M}$  for the *Escherichia coli* *bd*-type quinol oxidase (Mogi *et al.*, 2008), and the values for HQNO and aurachin C are comparable to 8 and  $0.2 \mu\text{M}$ , respectively, of yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* NDH (Yamashita *et al.*, 2007).

#### Kinetic analysis of inhibition of NADH- $\text{Q}_1$ reductase activity of NDH-II by scopafungin and GS

NADH-dependent NQR activity showed simple Michaelis-Menten kinetics with an apparent  $K_m$  value of  $157 \mu\text{M}$  for NADH (at  $0.2 \text{ mM } \text{Q}_1$ ) (Fig. 3). The  $K_m$  value for NADH was higher than those reported for yeast *Yarrowia lipolytica* NDE ( $15 \mu\text{M}$ ) (Kerscher *et al.*, 1999), yeast *S. cerevisiae* NDH ( $31 \mu\text{M}$ ) (de Vries & Grivell, 1988), human malaria *Plasmodium falciparum* NDH-II ( $17 \mu\text{M}$ ) (Biagini *et al.*, 2006) and *E. coli* Ndh ( $34 \mu\text{M}$ ) (Björklöf *et al.*, 2000).  $\text{Q}_1$ -dependent NQR activity followed Michaelis-Menten kinetics with an apparent  $K_m$  value of  $16.2 \pm 0.7 \mu\text{M}$  ( $\text{Q}_1$ ) (Fig. 4), which is similar to  $16 \mu\text{M}$  ( $\text{Q}_1$ ) in *P. falciparum* (Biagini *et al.*, 2006),  $5.9 \mu\text{M}$  ( $\text{Q}_1$ ) in *E. coli* (Björklöf *et al.*, 2000),  $6.4 \mu\text{M}$  ( $\text{Q}_2$ ) in *M. tuberculosis* (Kana *et al.*, 2001) and  $7 \mu\text{M}$  (decyl benzoquinone) in *Y. lipolytica* (Eschemann *et al.*, 2005).

Macrolide scopafungin and cyclic decapeptide GS (Fig. 1) are structurally unrelated to both NADH and ubiquinone, and serve as noncompetitive inhibitors ( $K_i = 5.5$  and  $1.4 \mu\text{M}$ , respectively) for the NADH-binding site of NDH-II (Fig. 3). Unexpectedly, scopafungin and GS were found to be a mixed-type inhibitor and a competitive inhibitor for the quinone-binding site, respectively (Fig. 4). These results

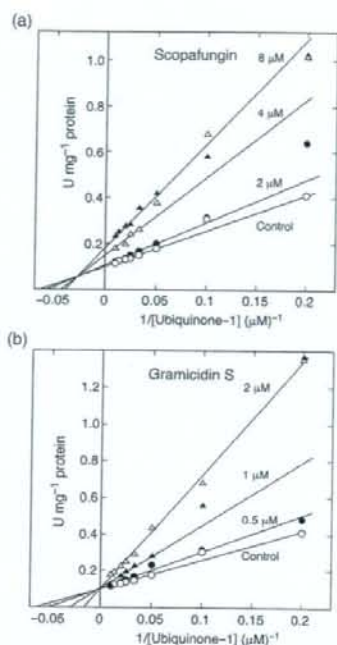


**Fig. 3.** Kinetic analysis of effects of scopafungin and GS on the NADH-dependent NQR activity of *Gluconobacter oxydans* NDH-II. (a) Noncompetitive inhibition by scopafungin. Apparent  $V_{max}$  values were estimated to be 19.3 (control), 17.2 ( $2 \mu\text{M}$  scopafungin) and 11.9 ( $4 \mu\text{M}$  scopafungin)  $\text{U mg}^{-1} \text{ protein}$  at  $K_m = 157 \mu\text{M}$ . (b) Noncompetitive inhibition by GS. Apparent  $V_{max}$  values were determined to be 21.9 (control), 16.5 ( $2 \mu\text{M}$  GS) and 13.2 ( $4 \mu\text{M}$  GS)  $\text{U mg}^{-1} \text{ protein}$  at  $K_m = 157 \mu\text{M}$ .

indicate that both compounds bind to a hydrophobic binding pocket on NDH-II molecule, which is closer to the quinone reduction site.

#### Effects of scopafungin and GS on *M. smegmatis* and *P. yoelii* NDH-II

Macrolide antibiotics are known to be more active against Gram-positive bacteria and fungi (Izumiya *et al.*, 1979), but targets remain to be determined while GS is active against Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria and several pathogenic fungi (Kondejewski *et al.*, 1996). The primary mode of the action of GS is generally assumed to perturb lipid packing, resulting in the destruction of the membrane integrity and enhancement of the permeability of the lipid bilayer (Prenner *et al.*, 1997). Very recently, we found that



**Fig. 4.** Kinetic analysis of effects of scopafungin and GS on the  $Q_1$ -dependent NQR activity of *Gluconobacter oxydans* NDH-II. (a) Mixed-type inhibition by scopafungin. Apparent  $K_m$  ( $\mu\text{M}$ ) and  $V_{max}$  ( $\text{U mg}^{-1}$  protein) values were estimated to be 15.5 and 9.6 (control), 17.4 and 9.0 (2  $\mu\text{M}$  scopafungin), 22.4 and 6.5 (4  $\mu\text{M}$  scopafungin) and 24.9 and 5.3 (8  $\mu\text{M}$  scopafungin). (b) Competitive inhibition by GS. The apparent  $K_m$  values were determined to be 16.9 (control), 21.7 (0.5  $\mu\text{M}$  GS), 37.5 (1  $\mu\text{M}$  GS) and 68.3 (2  $\mu\text{M}$  GS)  $\mu\text{M}$  at  $V_{max} = 10.1 \text{ U mg}^{-1}$  protein.

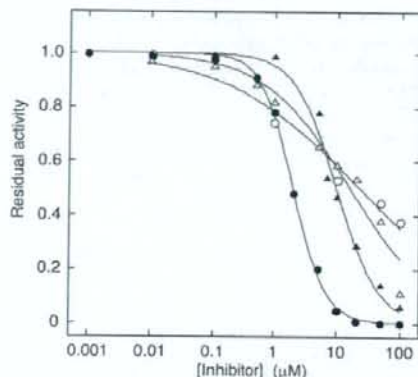
GS can directly inhibit the *E. coli* *bd*-type quinol oxidase in a mixed-type manner (Mogi et al., 2008). From the screening of the Kitasato Institute for Life Sciences Chemical Library with *G. oxydans* membranes, here, we identified scopafungin and GS as new inhibitors for NDH-II.

NDH-II is a promising target of new antibiotics because of the absence of NDH-II in mammalian mitochondria. The antiparasitic activities of NDH-II inhibitors, HQNO ( $\text{IC}_{50} = 3.5 \mu\text{M}$ ) (Fry et al., 1990) and 1-hydroxy-2-dodecyl-4(1H) quinolone ( $\text{IC}_{50} = 14 \text{ nM}$ ) (Saleh et al., 2007), have been reported previously. Thus, we examined the effects of scopafungin and GS on the NQR activity of *M. smegmatis* and rodent malaria *P. yoelii* NDH-II. At 10  $\mu\text{M}$ , scopafungin showed minor effects on rat liver mitochondrial Complex I, Complex II and Complex III plus IV, while GS reduced NADH oxidase activity to 35% of the control by inhibiting the Complex III plus IV activity (Table 1). Although the  $\text{IC}_{50}$  values of scopafungin and GS for rodent malaria NDH-II were rather high ( $16.1 \pm 3.0$  and  $23.0 \pm 7.1 \mu\text{M}$ , respec-

**Table 1.** Effects of GS and scopafungin on the rat liver mitochondrial respiratory enzymes

Enzyme activity	Relative residual activity (%)	
	10 $\mu\text{M}$ GS	10 $\mu\text{M}$ scopafungin
NADH : $Q_1$ reductase (Complex I)	107	89
Succinate : $Q_1$ reductase (Complex II)	90	82
NADH oxidase (Complexes I+III+IV)	35	84

Control activities were 154 (NADH :  $Q_1$  reductase), 247 (succinate :  $Q_1$  reductase) and 102 (NADH oxidase)  $\text{mU mg}^{-1}$  protein.



**Fig. 5.** Inhibition of *Mycobacterium smegmatis* and *Plasmodium yoelii* NDH-II by GS and scopafungin. Control activities of *M. smegmatis* membranes and *P. yoelii* mitochondria were 1.1 and 0.071  $\text{U mg}^{-1}$  protein, respectively. The  $\text{IC}_{50}$  values for GS were estimated to be 2.0 (*M. smegmatis*, ●) and 23 (*P. yoelii*, ○)  $\mu\text{M}$  and those for scopafungin were 9.8 (*M. smegmatis*, ▲) and 16 (*P. yoelii*, △)  $\mu\text{M}$ .

tively), both scopafungin and GS inhibited *M. smegmatis* NDH-II with  $\text{IC}_{50}$  values of  $9.8 \pm 0.7$  and  $2.0 \pm 0.1 \mu\text{M}$ , respectively (Fig. 5), which are better than 12  $\mu\text{M}$  of trifluoperazine for *M. tuberculosis* NDH-II (Yano et al., 2006). Because scopafungin did not show severe effects on mammalian respiratory enzymes, it is a candidate for antimicrobial agents. Here, we showed that the Kitasato Institute for Life Sciences Chemical Library (Ui et al., 2007) was a powerful source for new potent antibiotics targeting to respiratory enzymes. For the identification of potential candidates, screening with recombinant NDH-II is currently underway in our laboratory.

## Acknowledgements

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## Mitochondrial Dehydrogenases in the Aerobic Respiratory Chain of the Rodent Malaria Parasite *Plasmodium yoelii yoelii*

Kenji Kawahara<sup>1</sup>, Tatsushi Mogi<sup>1,\*</sup>, Takeshi Q Tanaka<sup>1</sup>, Masayuki Hata<sup>1</sup>,  
Hideto Miyoshi<sup>2</sup> and Kiyoshi Kita<sup>1,3</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Biomedical Chemistry, Graduate School of Medicine, the University of Tokyo, Hongo, Bunkyo-ku, Tokyo 113-0033; and <sup>2</sup>Division of Applied Life Sciences, Graduate School of Agriculture, Kyoto University, Sakyo-ku, Kyoto 606-8502, Japan

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In the intraerythrocytic stages of malaria parasites, mitochondria lack obvious cristae and are assumed to derive energy through glycolysis. For understanding of parasite energy metabolism in mammalian hosts, we isolated rodent malaria mitochondria from *Plasmodium yoelii yoelii* grown in mice. As potential targets for antiplasmodial agents, we characterized two respiratory dehydrogenases, succinate:ubiquinone reductase (complex II) and alternative NADH dehydrogenase (NDH-II), which is absent in mammalian mitochondria. We found that *P. y. yoelii* complex II was a four-subunit enzyme and that kinetic properties were similar to those of mammalian enzymes, indicating that the *Plasmodium* complex II is favourable in catalysing the forward reaction of tricarboxylic acid cycle. Notably, *Plasmodium* complex II showed IC<sub>50</sub> value for atpenin A5 three-order of magnitudes higher than those of mammalian enzymes. Divergence of protist membrane anchor subunits from eukaryotic orthologs likely affects the inhibitor resistance. Kinetic properties and sensitivity to 2-heptyl-4-hydroxyquinoline-*N*-oxide and aurachin C of NADH:ubiquinone reductase activity of *Plasmodium* NDH-II were similar to those of plant and fungus enzymes but it can oxidize NADPH and deamino-NADH. Our findings are consistent with the notion that rodent malaria mitochondria are fully capable of oxidative phosphorylation and that these mitochondrial enzymes are potential targets for new antiplasmodials.

**Key words:** complex II, inhibitor, mitochondria, NDH-II, rodent malaria.

Abbreviations: AC, aurachin C; DCIP, 2,4-dichlorophenolindophenol; DHO, dihydroorotate; DHOD, DHO dehydrogenase; HQNO, 2-heptyl-4-hydroxyquinoline-*N*-oxide; hrCNE, high-resolution clear-native electrophoresis; IC<sub>50</sub>, the 50% inhibitory concentration; NBT, nitro blue tetrazolium chloride; NDE, NDH-II bound to the outer surface of the mitochondrial inner membrane; NDI, NDH-II bound to the matrix side of the mitochondrial inner membrane; NQR, NADH:quinone reductase; Q<sub>n</sub>, ubiquinone-*n*; SDH, succinate dehydrogenase; SQR, succinate:quinone reductase; TCA, tricarboxylic acid.

### INTRODUCTION

Malaria remains one of the main global health problems, causing more than 1 million deaths per year, with about 90% of deaths and 60% of cases occurring in Africa, south of the Sahara (1). Mortality associated with malaria is mainly caused by the erythrocytic stage cells of human malaria *Plasmodium falciparum*. The emerging resistance against established drugs in *Plasmodium* populations (2) emphasizes the urgent need for the development of new antiplasmodial drugs.

Energy metabolism of *Plasmodium* is quite different from that of mammalian hosts. Intraerythrocytic stages of parasites have been considered for a long time to rely on incomplete oxidation of glucose with secretion of end products such as lactate and pyruvate (3) and to possess

mitochondria that lack oxidative phosphorylation and a functional tricarboxylic acid (TCA) cycle (4, 5). *Plasmodium* spp. lacks genes coded for the proton-translocating NADH dehydrogenase (NDH-I, complex I) present in mammalian mitochondria (6, 7) and uses a rotenone-insensitive single-subunit NADH dehydrogenase (NDH-II) (8), which is assumed not to oxidize deamino-NADH (9). Succinate:ubiquinone oxidoreductase (complex II, succinate dehydrogenase (SDH)) is a membrane-bound TCA cycle enzyme and consists of four subunits: a flavoprotein subunit (Fp, SDH1) and an iron-sulphur subunit (Ip, SDH2) form a soluble heterodimer, which binds to a membrane anchor *b*-type cytochrome [CybL (SDH3)/CybS (SDH4) heterodimer]. The *Plasmodium* SDH1 and SDH2 genes have been cloned by homology probing (10) while SDH3 and SDH4 appear highly divergent from orthologs and are still not annotated in the current database (6, 7). Membrane bound subunits *a* and *b* of ATP synthase also remain unidentified (6, 7), and thus complete mitochondrial ATP synthase was assumed to be absent in *Plasmodium* spp. (4, 5, 11–13). Recently, Painter *et al.* (13) claimed that

\*To whom correspondence addressed. Tel: +81-3-5841-3526, Fax: +81-3-5841-3444, E-mail: tmogi@m.u-tokyo.ac.jp

<sup>3</sup>Correspondence may also be addressed. Tel: +81-3-5841-3526, Fax: +81-3-5841-3444, E-mail: kitak@m.u-tokyo.ac.jp



the mitochondrial respiratory chain is required only for the regeneration of an oxidized form of ubiquinone, which serves as the electron acceptor for type 2 dihydroorotate dehydrogenase (DHOD), an essential enzyme for pyrimidine biosynthesis. It is widely accepted that the majority of the parasite's ATP demand is met through glycolysis (11).

On the contrary, atovaquone, an inhibitor of ubiquinol:cytochrome *c* reductase (complex III) (14), showed the antiparasitic activity for *P. falciparum* with the 50% inhibitory concentration (IC<sub>50</sub>) of 1 nM (15) and collapsed the mitochondrial membrane potential in *P. yoelii yoelii* (16). Uyemura et al. (8, 17) demonstrated oxidative phosphorylation and succinate respiration in trophozoites of rodent malaria parasites. These observations suggest that *Plasmodium* mitochondria possess all subunits for canonical complex II and ATP synthase and are fully capable of oxidative phosphorylation.

It was shown recently that metabolism in *P. falciparum* parasites grown in human patients is affected by varied oxygen and substrate levels and by host-parasite interactions (18). The authors found the induction of gene sets associated with oxidative phosphorylation including respiratory enzymes. For understanding energy metabolism in malaria parasites, the isolation of active mitochondria from parasites, which have been adapted to host environments, is essential. In this study, *P. y. yoelii* mitochondria were isolated from parasites grown in mouse erythrocytes and enzymatic properties of complex II and NDH-II were characterized. Two-dimensional PAGE analysis supports the presence of membrane anchors in *Plasmodium* complex II. These findings indicate that *Plasmodium* mitochondria are fully capable of succinate-dependent oxidative phosphorylation as suggested by previous observations (8, 17). Because the difference in the inhibitor sensitivity of complex II between *Plasmodium* and mammalian enzymes and the absence of NDH-II in mammalian mitochondria, these two enzymes are promising targets for new antimalarials.

#### MATERIALS AND METHODS

**Parasite Culture**—Animal care and experimental procedures were performed according to the Guidelines for Animal Experimentation, the University of Tokyo. *P. y. yoelii* strain 17XL was a kind gift of H. Otsuki (Ehime University). This strain can rapidly propagate without cerebral malaria and does not infect reticulocytes. About  $3.0 \times 10^7$  parasites were injected intraperitoneally to 8-week-old female BALB/c mice, and the developmental stage and parasitemia were monitored by examination of Giemsa-stained thin blood smears. About 7.5 ml of the blood was collected from 10 mice by cardiac puncture 130–140 h after infection. To remove leukocytes and platelets, the blood was mixed with 0.5 ml of heparin and passed over a powdered cellulose column (CF11; Whatman, Clifton; 0.5 ml/ml blood), which has been equilibrated with 20 ml of PBS (19). Erythrocytes were eluted with 30 ml of PBS and collected by centrifugation at 4°C at 800 × *g* for 5 min. In control experiments with uninfected mice, microscopic observations

and examination of complex II and dihydroorotate dehydrogenase (DHOD) activities excluded the possible contamination of mouse leukocytes in the eluate. Erythrocytes were washed three times with RPMI-1640 medium (Gibco) and then transferred to RPMI-1640 medium supplemented with 10% AlbuMax I (Gibco) at the hematocrit of 3%. Then erythrocytes were incubated at 37°C for 2 h under conditions of 90% N<sub>2</sub>, 5% O<sub>2</sub> and 5% CO<sub>2</sub>, and trophozoite-rich parasites were recovered by centrifugation as above.

**Preparation of Mitochondria**—To isolate parasites, infected erythrocytes were lysed for 10 min on ice with 0.1% (w/v) saponin and the lysate was centrifuged at 4°C at 2,380 × *g* for 10 min to remove erythrocyte membranes. Parasites were washed twice with PBS by centrifugation at 4°C at 5,800 × *g* for 10 min and resuspended with 10–20 ml of buffer A [225 mM mannitol, 75 mM sucrose, 5 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 5 mM KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>, 5 mM HEPES, 1 mM EGTA (pH 7.4)], supplemented with 0.1% (w/v) fatty acid-free bovine serum albumin (PAA Cell Culture Co.), 1 mM phenylmethanesulfonyl fluoride (Sigma) and 1 × Protease Inhibitor Cocktail for general use (Sigma). Parasites were disrupted by N<sub>2</sub> cavitation at 1,200 psi for 20 min with 4639 Cell Disruption Bomb (Parr, USA) (20). Lysate was centrifuged at 4°C at 700 × *g* for 8 min, and the resultant precipitate containing unbroken parasites was resuspended with 10 ml of buffer A and disrupted as above. This procedure was repeated twice to improve the parasite yield. Crude mitochondria were recovered from the supernatant by centrifugation at 4°C at 10,000 × *g* for 8 min and suspended in buffer A at ~5 mg protein/ml. Rat liver mitochondria were prepared as described by Johnson and Lardy (21).

**Enzyme Assay**—Enzyme assay was performed at 25°C with V-660 double monochromatic spectrophotometer (JASCO, Tokyo, Japan; <0.00005 Abs noise) or UV-3000 double wavelength spectrophotometer (Shimadzu Corp., Kyoto, Japan), and reactions were started by addition of substrates (electron donors). Succinate:quinone reductase (SQR) activity was determined as quinone-mediated succinate:2,4-dichlorophenolindophenol (DCIP) reductase in 50 mM potassium phosphate (pH 8.0) containing 10 mM potassium succinate, 100 μM ubiquinone-2 (Q<sub>2</sub>) and 45 μM DCIP ( $\epsilon_{600} = 21 \text{ mM}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) in the presence of 2 mM KCN. NADH:ubiquinone reductase (NQR) activity was measured in 50 mM potassium phosphate (pH 8.0) containing 200 μM NADH ( $\epsilon_{340} = 6.22 \text{ mM}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) and 100 μM ubiquinone-1 (Q<sub>1</sub>) in the presence of 10 μM atovaquone and 2 mM KCN (15). DHOD activity was measured as DHO:DCIP reductase in 30 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0) containing 500 μM DHO, 100 μM Q<sub>2</sub> and 45 μM DCIP in the presence of 2 mM KCN (20). DHO:cytochrome *c* reductase activity was determined with 20 μM horse cytochrome *c* ( $\epsilon_{550} = 19 \text{ mM}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) in place of 45 μM DCIP (20). For inhibition studies, the reaction mixture was preincubated for 5 min in the presence of 0.1% (w/v) sucrose monolaurate (Mitsubishi-Kagaku Foods Co., Tokyo, Japan) to disperse hydrophobic substrates and inhibitors. Kinetic analysis and the estimation of the 50% inhibitory concentration (IC<sub>50</sub>) were performed as described previously (22).



**Clear-Native Electrophoresis and Activity Staining**—Mitochondria were precipitated at 4°C at 20,400 × g for 5 min and resuspended at 6 mg protein/ml in 10 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.4) containing 1% sucrose monolaurate, 1 mM sodium malonate and Protease Inhibitor Cocktail by brief sonication. After 20 min incubation at 4°C with rotating, the mixture was centrifuged at 4°C at 107,000 × g for 30 min and supernatant was concentrated at 4°C at 4,000 × g with Nanosep ultrafiltration devices (MWCO 100,000, Pall Life Science). Solubilized mitochondrial proteins were subjected to high resolution clear-native electrophoresis (hrCNE) (23) with 3–12% Novex gels (Invitrogen) using 0.02% dodecylmaltoside and 0.05% sodium deoxycholate for the cathode buffer additives. Gels were incubated at 25°C for 10 min in 30 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.4) containing 20 mM potassium succinate and 0.5 mM nitro blue tetrazolium chloride (NBT), and then complex II band was visualized by 1 h incubation in dark in the presence of 0.2 mg/ml phenazine methosulphate. Protein bands were stained with GelCode (Pierce).

**Analysis of Membrane Anchor Subunits of Complex II**—Complex II bands identified as succinate:NBT reductase in hrCNE were cut out from gels and equilibrated with an equal amount of 2× SDS-PAGE sample buffer. Gel pieces were applied to 10–20% Supersep gels (Wako Pure Chemicals, Tokyo, Japan) and SDS-PAGE analysis was carried out. Protein bands were visualized by silver staining.

**Miscellaneous**—Protein contents of mitochondria and solubilized membrane proteins were determined with BIO-RAD and BCA protein assay reagent (Pierce), respectively, using bovine serum albumin as standard. Western blot analysis was carried out using anti-*P. falciparum* (Pf) Fp and anti-PfPp rabbit antiserum and cross-reacted bands were visualized by alkaline phosphatase-conjugated anti-rabbit IgG (Bio-Rad) (24).

## RESULTS

**Preparation of Plasmodium Mitochondria**—After infection of mice with rodent malaria parasites, we monitored amounts of erythrocytes and parasitemia and found that the number of parasites decreased sharply 140 h after infection as the number of the erythrocyte decreased. Thus, we collected the infected blood 130 to 140 h after infection. Leukocyte-free washed erythrocytes were incubated at 37°C for 2 h in RPMI-1640 medium supplemented with 10% AlbuMax I to adjust the developmental stage to trophozoites (trophozoite:ring:schizont = 7:2:1). Then the parasites were released from infected erythrocytes with 0.1% saponin and disrupted by the  $N_2$  cavitation method (20).

**Yield of Plasmodium Mitochondria**—SQR activity and DHOD activity of *P. y. yoelii* mitochondria were 5- and 3-fold, respectively, higher than those of the axenic cultured *P. falciparum* (20). Furthermore, yields of mitochondrial proteins (5.5 ± 1.3 mg protein) and total activities of complex II (56 ± 14 mU) and DHOD (132 ± 18 mU) after preparation from ten infected mice were much greater than those of *P. falciparum* mitochondria (1 mg protein, 2 mU (25), and 7 mU (20),

Table 1. Enzymatic properties of *P. y. yoelii* mitochondria.

Enzyme	Specific activity (mU/mg protein)	
	<i>P. y. yoelii</i> <sup>a</sup>	Rat liver
Succinate:DCIP reductase (complex II)	2.66 ± 0.02	188
NADH:Q <sub>1</sub> reductase <sup>b</sup>	42.2 ± 0.3	152
NADH:Cyt c reductase <sup>c</sup>	18.6 ± 1.6	ND <sup>d</sup>
DHO:DCIP reductase (DHOD)	10.5 ± 1.3	2.6
Q <sub>1</sub> H <sub>2</sub> oxidase (complex III + complex IV)	19.4 ± 0.2	166

<sup>a</sup>Values were mean ± SD. Freshly prepared *P. y. yoelii* mitochondria showed SQR, NQR and DHOD activities of 10.2 ± 0.1, 63.2 ± 10.1 and 24.1 ± 3.9 mU/mg protein ( $n = 6$ ), respectively. Enzyme activities were reduced to about one half after freeze-thaw of mitochondria preparations, which have been stored at -80°C. <sup>b</sup>NDH-II of *P. y. yoelii* or NDH-I of rat liver mitochondria were analysed. <sup>c</sup>(NDH-II of *P. y. yoelii* or NDH-I of rat liver mitochondria) + complex III were analysed. <sup>d</sup>ND, not determined.

respectively, from the 360-ml *in vitro* culture). Thus, in terms of the yield and specific activity, *P. y. yoelii* mitochondria are suitable for biochemical studies on mitochondrial enzymes of malaria parasites.

**Comparison of Mitochondrial Enzymes from *P. y. yoelii* and Rat Liver**—When comparing with rat liver mitochondria, SQR (complex II), NQR (NDH-II) and Q<sub>1</sub>H<sub>2</sub> oxidase (complex III plus complex IV) activity of *P. y. yoelii* mitochondria were 1.4%, 28% and 12%, respectively, of rat liver mitochondria whereas DHOD activity was 4-fold higher than that of rat liver mitochondria (Table 1). Rotenone [IC<sub>50</sub> = 13 nM for bovine complex I (26)] inhibited rat liver mitochondria complex I 95–97% at 1 μM while the inhibition of the *P. y. yoelii* NQR activity by 10 μM rotenone was only 20%. Since NQR activity of *P. y. yoelii* mitochondria followed a simple Michaelis-Menten kinetics (see below), we concluded that the enzyme activities are not due to contaminated mouse mitochondria derived from leukocytes or platelets.

**Enzymatic Properties of Plasmodium Complex II**—SQR activity of *P. y. yoelii* mitochondria displayed Michaelis-Menten kinetics (Fig. 1). Apparent  $K_m$  values for succinate and Q<sub>2</sub> were estimated to be 49 and 0.17 μM, respectively, which are close to 20 and 0.5 μM, respectively, of bovine complex II (27). Apparent  $K_m$  value for Q<sub>1</sub> was found to be 1.6 μM. Differences in  $K_m$  value (9-fold) and  $V_{max}/K_m$  ratio (19-fold) between Q<sub>1</sub> and Q<sub>2</sub> indicate that the 6-polypropenyl tail of the ubiquinone ring contributes to the binding affinity and that Q<sub>2</sub> is better substrate than Q<sub>1</sub>.

Then effects of the quinone-binding site inhibitors on the SQR activity were examined. Atpenin A5 and carboxin are known inhibitors for bovine complex II with IC<sub>50</sub> values of 4 nM and 1 μM, respectively (28) and plumbagin (5-hydroxy-2-methyl-1,4-naphthoquinone) has been reported to inhibit *P. falciparum* complex II (IC<sub>50</sub> = 5 μM) and the growth (IC<sub>50</sub> = 0.27 μM) (29). At 100 μM Q<sub>2</sub>, we found that IC<sub>50</sub> values for atpenin A5 and carboxin were 4.6 and 3.6 μM, respectively, in *P. y. yoelii* mitochondria and 7.1 nM and 3.8 μM, respectively, in rat liver mitochondria (Fig. 2). The inhibition by plumbagin was only 50% even at 100 μM.

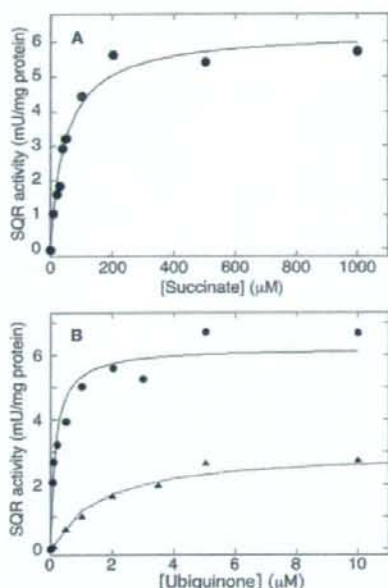


Fig. 1. Kinetic analysis of SQR activity of *P. y. yoelii* mitochondria. (A) As a function of the succinate concentration, SQR activity was examined at 6  $\mu$ g mitochondrial protein/ml in the presence of 0.1 mM  $Q_2$ . Data points were averages from three independent preparations ( $6.19 \pm 0.93$  mU/mg protein with 1 mM succinate and 0.1 mM  $Q_2$ ). Data were fitted to Michaelis-Menten kinetics with apparent  $K_m$  and  $V_{max}$  values of  $49.3 \pm 7.0$   $\mu$ M and  $6.26 \pm 0.27$  mU/mg protein, respectively. (B) As a function of the  $Q_1$  (circles) or  $Q_2$  (triangles) concentration, SQR activity was examined in the presence of 10 mM succinate. Data points were averages from two independent preparations ( $6.25 \pm 0.87$  mU/mg protein with 1 mM succinate and 0.1 mM  $Q_2$ ). Data were fitted to Michaelis-Menten kinetics with apparent  $K_m$  and  $V_{max}$  values of  $1.61 \pm 0.20$   $\mu$ M and  $3.03 \pm 0.12$  mU/mg protein, respectively, for  $Q_1$  and  $0.17 \pm 0.04$   $\mu$ M and  $6.20 \pm 0.30$  mU/mg protein, respectively, for  $Q_2$ .

**Membrane Anchor Subunits of Plasmodium Complex II**—For reduction of ubiquinone, *Plasmodium* complex II should have a quinone-binding pocket provided by Ip and the CybL/CybS heterodimer (30–32). For the examination of subunit structure of *Plasmodium* complex II, we first determined the molecular weight of *P. y. yoelii* complex II by hrCNE, followed by in-gel activity staining as phenazine methosulphate-mediated succinate:NBT reductase. An apparent molecular weight of *P. y. yoelii* complex II was estimated to be 135 kDa (Fig. 3, lane 2), which is comparable to 130 kDa of bovine and yeast complex II (33). Western blot analysis identified Fp and Ip as the 70- and 35-kDa proteins, respectively (Fig. 3, lanes 3 and 4), indicating that a sum of molecular weights of membrane anchor subunits is about 30 kDa. Subsequently, the 135-kDa bands in hrCNE were excised from gels and subjected to SDS-PAGE analysis. Due to an extremely low activity of *Plasmodium* complex II (~1% of mammalian mitochondria) and the diffusion of

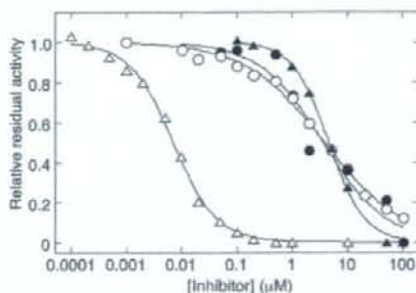


Fig. 2. Inhibition of SQR activity of *P. y. yoelii* mitochondria by atpenin A5 and carboxin. SQR activity of *P. y. yoelii* (closed symbols) and rat liver (open symbols) mitochondria was determined with 10 mM potassium succinate and 0.1 mM  $Q_2$  in the presence of atpenin A5 (triangles), and carboxin (circles). Data points were average values from two independent preparations.  $IC_{50}$  values were determined to be  $4.6 \pm 0.2$   $\mu$ M for atpenin A5 and  $3.6 \pm 1.0$   $\mu$ M for carboxin in *P. y. yoelii* mitochondria and  $7.1 \pm 0.3$  nM for atpenin A5 and  $3.8 \pm 0.1$   $\mu$ M for carboxin in rat liver mitochondria. Control activity of *P. y. yoelii* mitochondria was  $2.68 \pm 0.03$  mU/mg protein.

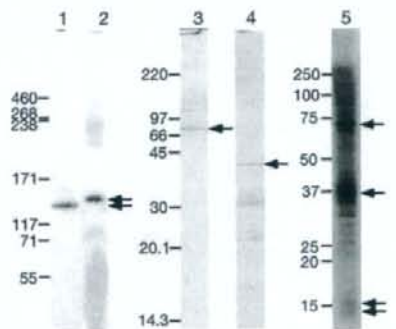


Fig. 3. Electrophoresis analysis of complex II in *P. y. yoelii* mitochondria. Solubilized mitochondrial proteins were subjected to hrCNE, and complex II of bovine (lane 1, 2.4  $\mu$ g protein) and *P. y. yoelii* (lane 2, ~0.4 mg protein) mitochondria were visualized by SDH activity staining. Arrows indicate complex II bands. For Western blot analysis, 10  $\mu$ g of mitochondrial proteins were subjected to 15% SDS-PAGE and Fp (lane 3) and Ip (lane 4), indicated by arrows, were identified by anti-Fp and anti-IP rabbit antisera, respectively. For identification of *P. y. yoelii* complex II subunits, complex II bands in hrCNE were excised from gels and subjected to 10–20% SDS-PAGE, followed by silver staining (lane 5). Putative subunits of *P. y. yoelii* complex II are indicated by arrows. HiMark Pre-stained High Molecular Weight Protein Standard (Invitrogen), Rainbow Colored Protein Molecular Weight Marker (High molecular weight range) (Amersham Pharmacia Biotech), and Precision Plus Protein Standard (Bio-Rad) were used as molecular weight standards for lanes 1 and 2, lanes 3 and 4, and lane 5, respectively.

a reduced product of NBT, it was difficult to cut out the complex II band but we were able to identify 70, 35, 16 and 14 kDa bands as putative subunits of the 135-kDa complex (Fig. 3, lane 5).



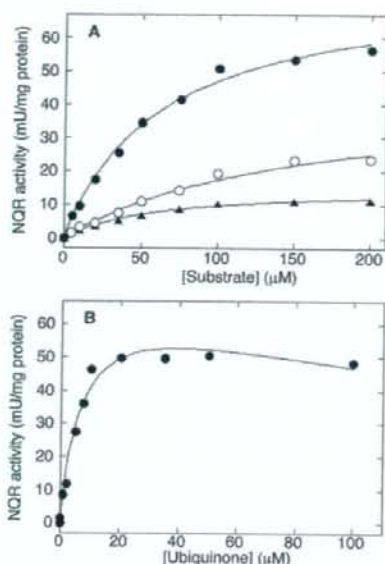


Fig. 4. Kinetic analysis of NQR activity in *P. yoelii* mitochondria. (A) As a function of the concentration of NADH (closed circle), NADPH (open circle) or deamino-NADH (closed triangle), NQR activity was examined at 6  $\mu\text{g}$  protein/ml in the presence of 0.1 mM  $Q_1$ . Data points were averages from two independent preparations (44.9  $\pm$  4.5 mU/mg protein with 0.2 mM NADH). Data were fitted to Michaelis-Menten kinetics with apparent  $K_m$  and  $V_{max}$  values of 63.2  $\pm$  6.9  $\mu\text{M}$  and 76.7  $\pm$  3.4 mU/mg protein, respectively, for NADH, 157  $\pm$  33  $\mu\text{M}$  and 44.4  $\pm$  5.4 mU/mg protein, respectively, for NADPH, 58.4  $\pm$  5.7  $\mu\text{M}$  and 15.1  $\pm$  0.6 mU/mg protein, respectively, for deamino-NADH. (B) As a function of the concentration of  $Q_1$ , NQR activity was examined in the presence of 0.2 mM NADH. Data points were average values from two independent preparations (48.6  $\pm$  7.9 mU/mg protein at 0.1 mM  $Q_1$ ). Data were fitted to substrate inhibition kinetics with apparent  $K_m$ ,  $V_{max}$  and  $K_{is}$  values of 7.2  $\pm$  1.7  $\mu\text{M}$ , 71.8  $\pm$  7.6 mU/mg protein, and 218  $\pm$  97  $\mu\text{M}$ , respectively, using the equation  $v = V_{max} S / (K_m + S + S^2 / K_{is})$ .

**Enzymatic Properties of Plasmodium NDH-II**—*Plasmodium* spp. lacks genes encoding complex I (6, 7) and uses a single-subunit NADH dehydrogenase (NDH-II) (8, 15). Upon permeabilization of mitochondria with 30  $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$  alamethicin, which forms pores large enough to permit the rapid diffusion of NADH (34), NQR and SQR activities increased 32% and 27%, respectively, indicating that *Plasmodium* NDH-II is likely located at the matrix side of the inner membrane.

When reactions were started by addition of NADH, NQR activity showed a simple Michaelis-Menten kinetics with apparent  $K_m$  and  $V_{max}$  values of 63  $\mu\text{M}$  for NADH and 77 mU/mg protein, respectively (Fig. 4A).  $K_m$  value for NADH was closer to 31  $\mu\text{M}$  of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* internal NDH-II (NDI1) (35) and 34  $\mu\text{M}$  of *E. coli* NDH-II (36) than 15  $\mu\text{M}$  of yeast *Yarrowia lipolytica* external NDH-II (NDE) (37). In contrast,

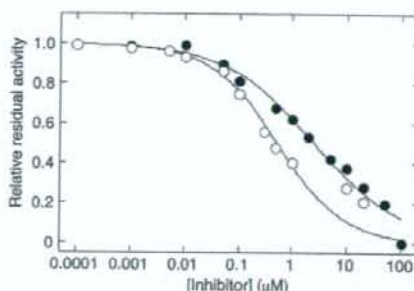


Fig. 5. Inhibition of NQR activity of *P. yoelii* mitochondria by HQNO and Aurachin C1-10. NQR activity of *P. yoelii* mitochondria was determined with 0.2 mM NADH and 0.1 mM  $Q_1$  in the presence of HQNO (closed circle) or aurachin C1-10 (open circle). Data points were average values from two independent preparations. Control activity of *P. yoelii* mitochondria was 45.6  $\pm$  1.3 mU/mg protein with 0.1 mM  $Q_1$ .  $IC_{50}$  values for HQNO and aurachin C1-10 were estimated to be 2.5  $\pm$  0.4 and 0.47  $\pm$  0.03  $\mu\text{M}$ , respectively.

$Q_1$ -started NQR activity showed substrate inhibition kinetics with  $K_m$  and  $K_{is}$  values of 7 and 218  $\mu\text{M}$ , respectively, for  $Q_1$  (Fig. 4B). Unlike *E. coli* NDH-II (36) and *Y. lipolytica* NDE (37), *P. yoelii* NDH-II can oxidize deamino-NADH ( $K_m = 58 \mu\text{M}$ ,  $V_{max} = 15$  mU/mg protein) and NADPH ( $K_m = 157 \mu\text{M}$ ,  $V_{max} = 44$  mU/mg protein) (Fig. 5A).  $V_{max}/K_m$  ratios indicate that *Plasmodium* NDH-II is more specific to NADH compared to NAD(P)H dehydrogenases from red beet root mitochondria [NDI (38) and NDE (39)].

Since mammalian hosts lack NDH-II, this enzyme is a promising target for new antiparasitic agents. However, inhibitors for NDH-II are rare and mostly unspecific (34). Fry *et al.* (11) examined effects of inhibitors on ATP level in erythrocytic *P. falciparum* and found that 2-heptyl-4-hydroxyquinoline *N*-oxide (HQNO) and 5-hydroxy-2-methyl-1,4-naphthoquinone (plumbagin) showed antimalarial activities with  $IC_{50}$  values of 4.0 and 3.5  $\mu\text{M}$ , respectively. In yeast, quinolone analogues HQNO and aurachin C 0-11 were shown to inhibit NDH-II with the  $IC_{50}$  values of 8 and 0.2  $\mu\text{M}$ , respectively (40). In this study, we examined effects of HQNO and aurachin C 1-10 (41) on NADH: $Q_1$  reductase activity and determined  $IC_{50}$  values to be 2.5 and 0.5  $\mu\text{M}$ , respectively (Fig. 5). Our data indicate that the quinolone analogues are potent inhibitors for *Plasmodium* NDH-II. Trifluoroperazine, the uncompetitive inhibitor in terms of  $Q_2$  for *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* NDH-II ( $IC_{50} = 12 \mu\text{M}$ ) (42), reduced the NADH: $Q_1$  reductase activity to 26% of the control at 100  $\mu\text{M}$ .

## DISCUSSION

**Properties of Plasmodium Complex II**—Parasitic nematodes adapted to hypoxic host environments, have modified respiratory chain, where isoforms of complex II serve as fumarate reductase (43, 44). Kinetic properties of *P. yoelii* complex II are similar to those of mammalian enzymes and thus suitable for catalysing the

Table 2. Effects of quinone-binding site inhibitors on SQR activity of *P. y. yoelii* mitochondria.

100 $\mu$ M inhibitor	<i>P. y. yoelii</i> mitochondria	Rat liver mitochondria
Control	100%	100%
Atpenin A5	<0.4	<0.05
Carboxin	<0.4	<0.05
Flutranil	58	22
TTFA	80	12
HQNO	54	94
Plumbagin	52	98
DNP-17	67	99

Control activities (mean  $\pm$  SD) were  $2.66 \pm 0.02$  (*P. y. yoelii*) and  $180 \pm 5$  (rat liver) mU/mg protein.

forward reaction of TCA cycle (i.e. the oxidation of succinate). It should be noted that *Plasmodium* complex II was more resistant to known quinone-binding site inhibitors for mammalian complex II (Table 2), probably due to the divergence of membrane anchor subunits of *Plasmodium* complex II.

From the whole cell lysate of *P. falciparum*, Suraveratun et al. (28) purified complex II as the Fp/Ip heterodimer with an apparent molecular weight of 90 kDa and claimed that it has a much lower  $K_m$  value (3  $\mu$ M) for succinate and plumbagin-sensitive SQR activity. However, the concentration (0.2%) of octyl glucoside used for the isolation of *P. falciparum* complex II was not enough for the solubilization of membrane proteins (i.e. critical micelle concentration of octyl glucoside is 0.73%). Octyl glucoside likely dissociates the Fp/Ip dimer from the membrane anchor and the aerobic isolation of the Fp/Ip dimer would damage the iron-sulphur clusters in Ip. Thus, SQR activity of such preparations need to be carefully examined.

*Plasmodium* CybL and CybS are still not annotated in the current database (6, 7), likely due to the divergence from ortholog sequences. However, 2D-PAGE analysis (Fig. 3), SQR activity (Fig. 1, refs. 20, 25) and the structure of quinone-binding site in complex II (30–32) support the presence of these membrane anchor subunits in *Plasmodium* spp. In membrane anchors of complex II, 'Rx<sub>10</sub>Sx<sub>2</sub>HR' (helix I) and 'YHx<sub>10</sub>D' (helix II) motifs in CybL and 'LHx<sub>10</sub>DY' (helix II) motif in CybS are conserved for quinone/haem binding. And only such motifs are conserved in protist membrane anchors (45). One candidate for *P. y. yoelii* CybL (accession no. XP\_731082, 10,086 Da) and one candidate for CybS (accession no. XP\_726783, 10,379 Da) can be identified from 3,310 ORFs shared by *P. falciparum* and *P. y. yoelii* on the basis of the size (<200 amino acid residues), the presence of transmembrane segments ( $\leq 3$ ), and the quinone/haem-binding motifs. PyCybL and PyCybS have two transmembrane regions and contain the quinone/haem-binding motifs, 'Rx<sub>14</sub>Sx<sub>2</sub>HY' and 'YYx<sub>10</sub>DY' motifs and 'Yx<sub>10</sub>G' motif, respectively. In *S. cerevisiae* strain S288C (Baker's yeast), CybS (accession no. NP\_010463) uses the Yx<sub>10</sub>DY motif, and the His-to-Tyr mutant of the CybL YHx<sub>10</sub>D motif retained a half of the enzyme activity and haem (46). Thus, in *Plasmodium* CybL and CybS, Tyr could also substitute the role of the conserved His residue in membrane anchor subunits. Although it

has to be tested by protein chemically in future studies, our data support that the subunit structure of *Plasmodium* complex II is similar to that of mammalian complex II.

*Properties of Plasmodium NDH-II*—Previously, Krungkrai et al. (47) isolated mitochondrial complex I from *P. falciparum* and *P. berghei* as a 130-kDa complex containing 38- and 33-kDa subunits. They claimed that NADH:ubiquinone-8 reductase activity was sensitive to rotenone (IC<sub>50</sub> = 12  $\mu$ M) and plumbagin (IC<sub>50</sub> = 6  $\mu$ M). However, NDH-I is not encoded by the *Plasmodium* genomes (6, 7) and concentrations of *n*-octyl glucoside used for the solubilization and purification were below its critical micelle concentration (CMC) where *n*-octyl glucoside cannot serve as a detergent. Alternative NADH dehydrogenase NDH-II is a rotenone-insensitive single-subunit enzyme (15, 34) and the apparent molecular weights and subunit structure of *P. falciparum* (acc. no. XP\_001352022 and MW 61,670) and *P. y. yoelii* (acc. no. XP\_731423, MW 66,156) NDH-II are totally different from those reported by Krungkrai et al. (47). The IC<sub>50</sub> value of mouse liver mitochondria for rotenone (8.4  $\mu$ M; Table 3 in ref. 47) was three orders of magnitude higher than the IC<sub>50</sub> reported for mammalian enzymes (26). Recently, Biagini et al. (15) used the whole cell lysate of *P. falciparum* and claimed that PfNDH-II was inhibited by diphenylene iodonium chloride (DPI, IC<sub>50</sub> of 15–25  $\mu$ M) and diphenyl iodonium chloride (IDP, IC<sub>50</sub> = 66  $\mu$ M). As pointed out by Vaidya et al. (48), the IC<sub>50</sub> for the enzyme was 100- and 10-fold higher than those for the growth inhibition and other NADH oxidases in the lysate may contribute to the activity. Very recently, it was reported that purified recombinant PfNDH-II was not inhibited by known NDH-I inhibitors and flavoenzyme inhibitors (DPI and IDP) (Dong, C., Patel, V., Clardy, J., and Wirth, D., personal communication). Thus, previous studies on *Plasmodium* NDH-II need to be reexamined. Our data indicate that *Plasmodium* NDH-II is a member of internal NDH-II (Ndi), which reoxidizes NADH in the mitochondrial matrix. Recently, Saleh et al. (49) demonstrated the antiplasmodial activity (IC<sub>50</sub> = 14 nM) of 1-hydroxy-2-dodecyl-4(1H)quinolone (HDQ), which has been identified as the potent inhibitor for *Y. lipolytica* NDE (IC<sub>50</sub> = 0.2  $\mu$ M) (50), demonstrating that *Plasmodium* NDH-II is a promising target for new drugs.

*Oxidative Phosphorylation in Plasmodium Mitochondria*—For a long time, it has been assumed that *Plasmodium* mitochondria cannot carry out oxidative phosphorylation (4, 5) because of a lack of membrane anchor subunits of ATP synthase (9, 11). Oxidative phosphorylation, succinate respiration (8, 17), and effects of respiratory complex inhibitors on the generation of membrane potential (16) in rodent malaria mitochondria support the notion that *Plasmodium* mitochondria are fully capable of oxidative phosphorylation. Careful analysis of current genome databases (6, 7) with partial subunits sequences of *Crithidia fasciculata* (51) and *Leishmania tarentolae* (52) could identify ten subunits of *P. falciparum* F<sub>1</sub>F<sub>0</sub>-ATP synthase, including membrane anchor subunits *a* (XP\_001347344) and *b* (XP\_001348969) (Mogi, T. and Kita, K., unpublished



results), which are found to be highly divergent from eukaryotic and bacterial counterparts. Thus, all canonical subunits of complex II and ATP synthase are present in *Plasmodium* spp., and malaria parasites can yield energy via oxidative phosphorylation. The *in vivo* expression profiles of parasites derived from infected patients showed the up-regulation of these enzymes under conditions similar to starvation in yeast (18).

#### CONCLUSION

We isolated active mitochondria from rodent malaria *P. y. yoelii* from infected mouse erythrocytes and characterized complex II and NDH-II. *Plasmodium* complex II is the four-subunit enzyme but its quinone-reduction site in the membrane anchor subunits seems structurally different from that of mammalian enzyme. *Plasmodium* NDH-II showed enzymatic properties similar to those of NDI and quinolones were found to be potent inhibitors. Alternative respiratory enzymes, which are absent in mammalian mitochondria, are as promising targets for new antibiotics (53, 54). We hope that our findings will help understanding of energy metabolism in malaria parasites and the development of new antimalarial drugs.

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#### CONFLICT OF INTEREST

None declared.

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## Antibiotics LL-Z1272 identified as novel inhibitors discriminating bacterial and mitochondrial quinol oxidases

Tatsushi Mogi<sup>a,\*</sup>, Hideaki Ui<sup>b</sup>, Kazuro Shiomi<sup>b</sup>, Satoshi Ōmura<sup>b</sup>, Hideto Miyoshi<sup>c</sup>, Kiyoshi Kita<sup>a</sup>

<sup>a</sup> Department of Biomedical Chemistry, Graduate School of Medicine, The University of Tokyo, Hongo, Bunkyo-ku, Tokyo 113-0033, Japan

<sup>b</sup> Kitasato Institute for Life Sciences and Graduate School of Infection Control Sciences, Kitasato University, Shirokane, Minato-ku, Tokyo 108-8641, Japan

<sup>c</sup> Division of Applied Life Sciences, Graduate School of Agriculture, Kyoto University, Sakyo-ku, Kyoto 606-8502, Japan

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### ABSTRACT

To counter antibiotic-resistant bacteria, we screened the Kitasato Institute for Life Sciences Chemical Library with bacterial quinol oxidase, which does not exist in the mitochondrial respiratory chain. We identified five prenylphenols, LL-Z1272 $\gamma$ ,  $\delta$ ,  $\epsilon$  and  $\zeta$ , as new inhibitors for the *Escherichia coli* cytochrome *bd*. We found that these compounds also inhibited the *E. coli* bo-type ubiquinol oxidase and trypanosome alternative oxidase, although these three oxidases are structurally unrelated. LL-Z1272 $\beta$  and  $\epsilon$  (dechlorinated derivatives) were more active against cytochrome *bd* while LL-Z1272 $\gamma$ ,  $\delta$ , and  $\zeta$  (chlorinated derivatives) were potent inhibitors of cytochrome *bo* and trypanosome alternative oxidase. Thus prenylphenols are useful for the selective inhibition of quinol oxidases and for understanding the molecular mechanisms of respiratory quinol oxidases as a probe for the quinol oxidation site. Since quinol oxidases are absent from mammalian mitochondria, LL-Z1272 $\beta$  and  $\delta$ , which are less toxic to human cells, could be used as lead compounds for development of novel chemotherapeutic agents against pathogenic bacteria and African trypanosomiasis.

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### 1. Introduction

The emergence of antibiotic-resistant strains of major pathogenic bacteria such as *Staphylococcus aureus* is an increasingly serious public health concern [1]. To evade bacterial drug-resistance mechanisms, new effective chemotherapeutic agents, which have novel mechanisms of action as well as different cellular targets compared with conventional antibiotics, need to be developed [2].

Cytochromes *bo* (CyoABCD) and *bd* (CydAB) are two terminal quinol oxidases of the aerobic respiratory chain in *Escherichia coli* and many other bacteria [3,4 for reviews]. Although they are structurally unrelated, both generate proton-motive force through the oxidation of quinols coupled to dioxygen reduction. Cytochrome *bo* is a proton-pumping heme-copper terminal oxidases and is predominantly expressed under highly aerated growth conditions. In contrast, cytochrome *bd* is a predominant terminal oxidase under microaerophilic growth conditions and performs a variety of physiological functions such as microaerophilic respiration and protection against oxygen stress. Further, cytochrome *bd* and its variant cyanide-insensitive oxidase (CioAB) play a key role in survival and adaptation of pathogenic bacteria that encounter host environments where dioxygen is progressively limited [5–9].

In long slender bloodstream forms of the parasitic protist *Trypanosoma brucei*, which causes sleeping sickness in human and nagana in

livestock, mitochondrial respiratory Complexes III and IV are down-regulated and alternative quinol oxidase (AOX) serves as a terminal oxidase [10,11]. AOX is a di-iron family protein bound to the matrix side of the inner membrane and cannot generate the proton-motive force. All three quinol oxidases have no counterparts in mammalian mitochondria, thus they are potential targets for novel antimicrobial chemotherapeutics. In fact, we previously identified ascofuranone (AF), a prenylphenol isolated from a phytopathogenic fungus *Ascochyta viciae* [12], as a potent inhibitor for the growth of *T. brucei* and trypanosome AOX (noncompetitive inhibition with IC<sub>50</sub> of 2 nM) [13,14].

By screening of hundreds of natural antibiotics in the Kitasato Institute for Life Sciences Chemical Library [15] with the *E. coli* cytochrome *bd*, we found that LL-Z1272 $\gamma$  has potent inhibitory activity. We extended our screening to related compounds and found that antibiotics LL-Z1272 $\beta$ ,  $\gamma$ ,  $\delta$ ,  $\epsilon$  and  $\zeta$  (Fig. 1), prenylphenols isolated from the fungus *Verticillium* sp. FO-2787 [16], are a unique set of natural compounds that can discriminate and inhibit alternative respiratory quinol oxidases. Thus, antibiotics LL-Z1272 are useful probes for understanding of molecular mechanisms of quinol oxidases and we hope that our findings contribute to the development of new antibiotics.

### 2. Materials and methods

#### 2.1. Isolation or source of antibiotics and inhibitors

LL-Z1272 $\beta$ ,  $\gamma$ ,  $\delta$ ,  $\epsilon$  and  $\zeta$  were isolated from the cultured mycelium *Verticillium* sp. FO-2787 [16]. Antibiotics LL-Z1272 $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ ,  $\gamma$ ,

\* Corresponding author. Tel.: +81 3 5841 8202; fax: +81 3 5841 3444.  
E-mail address: tmogi@m.u-tokyo.ac.jp (T. Mogi).



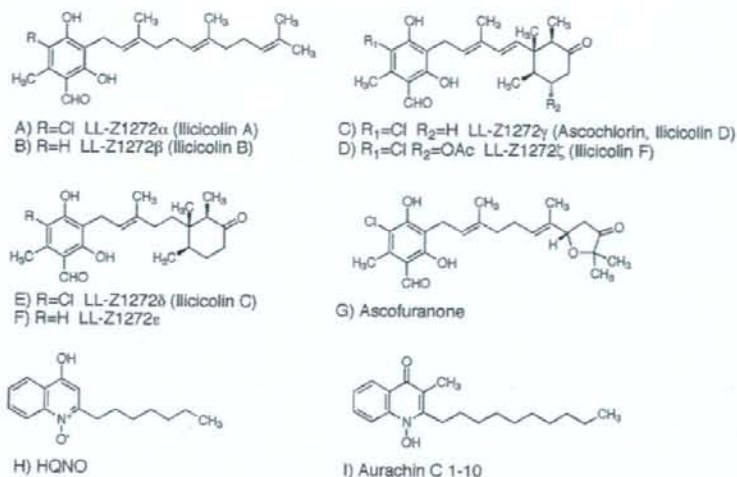


Fig. 1. Structures of antibiotics LL-Z1272 and related natural compounds.

$\delta$ ,  $\epsilon$  and  $\zeta$  have been originally isolated from an imperfect fungus *Fusarium* sp. as inhibitors for the growth of the protist *Tetrahymena pyriformis* [17]. Ilicicolin A, B, D, C, and F isolated from the fungus *Cylindrocladium ilicicola* [18] are also identical to LL-Z1272 $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ ,  $\gamma$ ,  $\delta$ , and  $\zeta$ , respectively [19]. AF and piericidin A were kind gifts from Drs. Masaichi Yamamoto (aRigen Pharmaceuticals, Inc.) and Shigeo Yoshida (Institute of Physical and Chemical Research), respectively. Synthesis of aurachin C 1-10 was described previously [20]. Antimycin A<sub>1</sub> and 2-heptyl-4-hydroxyquinoline N-oxide (HQNO) were purchased from Sigma.

## 2.2. Preparation of cytoplasmic membrane vesicles and purification of cytochrome *bd*

Cytochrome *bd*-overproduced membranes were isolated from *E. coli* ST4683/pNG2 ( $\Delta cyo \Delta cyd/cyd^+$  Tet<sup>R</sup>), which can overproduce *bd*-type quinol oxidase as the sole terminal oxidase [21]. Heme *d* content was  $2.1 \pm 0.1$  nmol/mg protein (i.e. approximately 20% of membrane proteins). Cytochrome *bd*-type quinol oxidase was purified from cytoplasmic membranes of *E. coli* GO103/pHN3795-1 (*cyo*<sup>+</sup>  $\Delta cyd/cyo$ <sup>+</sup> Amp<sup>R</sup>), as described previously [22]. Trypanosome AOX-overproduced membranes were isolated from *E. coli* FN102 (BL21 (DE3)  $\Delta hemA$ )/pTvAOX, which can express *Trypanosoma vivax* AOX as the sole functional quinol oxidase [23]. The expression level of AOX was estimated to be ~5% of membrane proteins by SDS-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis.

## 2.3. Quinol oxidase assay

The activity of the *E. coli* quinol oxidases was determined at 25 °C with a V-660 double monochromatic spectrophotometer (JASCO, Tokyo, Japan) with data acquisition at 0.05 s. The reaction mixture (1 ml) contained 50 mM potassium phosphate (pH 6.5), and 0.02% Tween 20 (protein grade, Calbiochem) [24]. Enzyme concentrations were 2.4 nM for cytochrome *bd* and 2 nM for cytochrome *bo*. Reactions were started by addition of ubiquinol-1 (Q<sub>1</sub>H<sub>2</sub>) at a final concentration of 100  $\mu$ M, and the activity was calculated by using a molar extinction coefficient of 12,300 at 278 nm. The activity of *T. vivax* AOX was measured in 50 mM

Tris-HCl (pH 7.4)-0.1% sucrose monolaurate (Mitsubishi-Kagaku Foods Co., Tokyo, Japan). Enzyme kinetics were analyzed based on the modified ping-pong bi-bi mechanism for cytochrome *bd* [21] or the Michaelis-Menten mechanism for cytochrome *bo* and *T. vivax* AOX, by using KaleidaGraph ver. 4.0 (Synergy Software, Reading, PA).

## 2.4. Dose-response analysis

Duplicate assays were performed at each concentration with two independent preparations of membranes. Dose-response data were analyzed by the nonlinear regression curve-fitting with KaleidaGraph ver. 4.0 as described previously [24]. IC<sub>50</sub> values in the presence of 100  $\mu$ M Q<sub>1</sub>H<sub>2</sub> were estimated by using the equation for the relative residual activity;  $v = 1 / (1 + ([\text{Inhibitor}] / \text{IC}_{50})^n)$  where *n* is the Hill coefficient [24].

## 3. Results

### 3.1. Analysis of inhibition of cytochrome *bd* by antibiotics LL-Z1272

In the course of our screening for inhibitors against the *E. coli* cytochrome *bd*, we identified LL-Z1272 $\gamma$  as an antibiotic that suppressed the Q<sub>1</sub>H<sub>2</sub> oxidation by the cytochrome *bd*-overproduced membranes (84% inhibition at 5  $\mu$ g/ml) greater than antimycin A (50%), a non-competitive inhibitor of cytochrome *bd* [25]. We extended our screening with antibiotics LL-Z1272 $\beta$ ,  $\gamma$ ,  $\delta$ ,  $\epsilon$  and  $\zeta$ , prenylphenols isolated from *Verticillium* sp. FO-2787 [16], and found that LL-Z1272 $\beta$  and  $\epsilon$  were more potent inhibitors for cytochrome *bd*. These compounds do not have a chlorine atom at position 5 of the phenol ring (Fig. 1), and the cyclohexanone ring of LL-Z1272 $\epsilon$  slightly increased the binding affinity to cytochrome *bd* (Table 1). The 50% inhibitory concentrations (IC<sub>50</sub>) for LL-Z1272 $\beta$  and  $\epsilon$  (dechlorinated derivatives) were determined to be 2.1 and 1.1  $\mu$ M (average values of two independent preparations), respectively, and are one-order of magnitude smaller than those of LL-Z1272 $\gamma$ ,  $\delta$  and  $\zeta$  (chlorinated derivatives) (Table 1). The IC<sub>50</sub> values for known inhibitors for cytochrome *bd* [20,25–27] are 10  $\mu$ M for piericidin A, 5  $\mu$ M for antimycin A, 1  $\mu$ M for HQNO, and 8.3 nM for aurachin C 1-10.

**Table 1**

Summary on  $IC_{50}$  values of quinol oxidase inhibitors for the *E. coli* cytochrome *bd* and *bo* and *T. vivax* AOX

Compounds	Cytochrome <i>bd</i> <sup>a</sup>	Cytochrome <i>bo</i> <sup>b</sup>	trypanosome AOX <sup>c</sup>
LL-Z1272 $\beta$	2.3 $\pm$ 0.1 <sup>d</sup>	1.2 $\pm$ 0.1	0.18 $\pm$ 0.02
LL-Z1272 $\gamma$	81 $\pm$ 17	0.082 $\pm$ 0.016	0.015 $\pm$ 0.001
LL-Z1272 $\delta$	32 $\pm$ 4	0.28 $\pm$ 0.02	0.046 $\pm$ 0.004
LL-Z1272 $\epsilon$	1.1 $\pm$ 0.1	7.2 $\pm$ 0.7	0.65 $\pm$ 0.09
LL-Z1272 $\zeta$	85 $\pm$ 7	0.37 $\pm$ 0.02	0.43 $\pm$ 0.02
Ascofuranone	47 $\pm$ 10	0.062 $\pm$ 0.003	0.0049 $\pm$ 0.0002
Aurachin C 1–10	0.0083 $\pm$ 0.0003	0.0023 $\pm$ 0.0001	28 $\pm$ 2

<sup>a</sup> The *E. coli* cytochrome *bd*-overproduced membranes.

<sup>b</sup> The purified *E. coli* cytochrome *bo*.

<sup>c</sup> The *T. vivax* AOX-overproduced membranes.

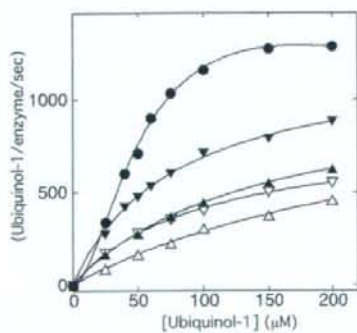
<sup>d</sup>  $\mu$ M.

### 3.2. Kinetic analysis of inhibition of cytochrome *bd* by LL-Z1272 $\beta$ and $\epsilon$

Effects of LL-Z1272 $\beta$  and  $\epsilon$  on the  $Q_1H_2$  oxidation by cytochrome *bd* were further analyzed kinetically. Control data were analyzed based on the modified ping-pong bi-bi mechanism by assuming the stabilization of dioxygen reduction intermediates [28] and apparent  $K_m$  and  $V_{max}$  values for the control were determined to 50  $\mu$ M and 2364  $Q_1H_2$ /enzyme/s, respectively, in 50 mM potassium phosphate (pH 6.5)–0.02% Tween 20 [24] (Fig. 2). In the presence of inhibitors, reactions followed the Michaelis–Menten kinetics (Fig. 2). LL-Z1272 $\beta$  acts as a noncompetitive inhibitor with  $K_i = 7.6 \pm 2.5$   $\mu$ M while LL-Z1272 $\epsilon$  serves as a competitive inhibitor with  $K_i = 1.00 \pm 0.03$   $\mu$ M (Fig. 2).

### 3.3. Dose–response analysis of inhibition of cytochrome *bo* by antibiotics LL-Z1272

In contrast to *bd*-type oxidase, the  $Q_1H_2$  oxidase activity of the *E. coli* cytochrome *bo* was more sensitive to chlorinated derivatives, LL-Z1272 $\gamma$ ,  $\epsilon$  and  $\zeta$ .  $IC_{50}$  values for LL-Z1272 $\beta$ ,  $\gamma$ ,  $\delta$ ,  $\epsilon$  and  $\zeta$  (averages from two preparations) were determined to be 1.2, 0.082, 0.28, 7.2 and 0.37  $\mu$ M, respectively (Table 1). The  $IC_{50}$  values for known inhibitors for cytochrome *bo* [20,27,29–31] are 0.3  $\mu$ M for HQNO, 0.14  $\mu$ M for pteridin A, and 2.3 nM for aurachin C 1–10, showing that cytochrome



**Fig. 2.** Effects of antibiotics LL-Z1272 on kinetic parameters for  $Q_1H_2$  oxidation by the *E. coli* cytochrome *bd*. Kinetic analysis was carried out in the absence of inhibitors ( $\bullet$ ) and the presence of 2 ( $\blacktriangledown$ ) or 5 ( $\nabla$ )  $\mu$ M LL-Z1272 $\beta$  or 2 ( $\blacktriangle$ ) or 5 ( $\triangle$ )  $\mu$ M LL-Z1272 $\epsilon$ . Control data was analyzed by using the equation  $v = SV_{max} / (S(1 + S/K_S) + 5K_m + K_m K_m)$  where  $K_S$  indicates the constant for substrate inhibition. Data obtained in the presence of inhibitors were analyzed based on the Michaelis–Menten kinetics. The apparent  $K_m$  ( $\mu$ M) and  $V_{max}$  ( $Q_1H_2$ /enzyme) values obtained were 50  $\pm$  4 and 2364  $\pm$  194, respectively, for the control ( $K_S = 381$   $\mu$ M), 79  $\pm$  5 and 1232  $\pm$  33, respectively, for 2  $\mu$ M LL-Z1272 $\beta$ , 100  $\pm$  5 and 826  $\pm$  21, respectively, for 5  $\mu$ M LL-Z1272 $\beta$ , 140  $\pm$  3 and 1065  $\pm$  12, respectively, for 2  $\mu$ M LL-Z1272 $\epsilon$ , 287  $\pm$  41 and 1113  $\pm$  107  $Q_1H_2$ /enzyme/s, respectively, for 5  $\mu$ M LL-Z1272 $\epsilon$ , respectively.

*bo* is more sensitive to these quinone analogs than cytochrome *bd*. It should be noted that LL-Z1272 $\gamma$  is a very potent inhibitor of cytochrome *bo*.

### 3.4. Kinetic analysis of inhibition of cytochrome *bo* by antibiotics LL-Z1272

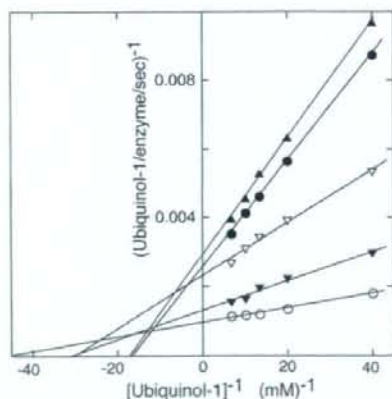
Effects of LL-Z1272 $\beta$ ,  $\gamma$ ,  $\delta$ , and  $\zeta$  on the  $Q_1H_2$  oxidation by cytochrome *bo* were further analyzed kinetically at different concentrations of inhibitors. Enzyme kinetics were analyzed based on the Michaelis–Menten mechanism [29,31], and we found that the inhibition mechanism was all mixed-type (Fig. 3). It should be noted that due to changes in assay conditions apparent  $K_m$  and  $V_{max}$  values were shifted to 23  $\mu$ M and 1035  $Q_1H_2$ /enzyme/s, respectively (Fig. 3), from 50  $\mu$ M and 515  $Q_1H_2$ /enzyme/s, respectively, in 50 mM Tris–HCl (pH 7.4)–0.1% sucrose monolaurate in our previous study [32].

### 3.5. Dose–response analysis of inhibition of trypanosome AOX by antibiotics LL-Z1272

Because of the structural similarity of antibiotics LL-Z1272 with trypanocidal AF (Fig. 1), we examined the effects of antibiotics LL-Z1272 on  $Q_1H_2$  oxidase activity of *T. vivax* AOX. From dose–response analysis with the AOX-overproduced *E. coli* membranes, we determined  $IC_{50}$  values for LL-Z1272 $\beta$ ,  $\gamma$ ,  $\delta$ ,  $\epsilon$ ,  $\zeta$ , AF and aurachin C1–10 to be 180, 15, 46, 650, 430, 4.9 nM and 28  $\mu$ M, respectively (Table 1). Our data indicate that 1) the furanone ring of AF is not essential for binding to trypanosome AOX, 2) the 5-chloride group on the phenol ring increases the binding affinity, and 3) aurachin C, the most potent inhibitor for bacterial quinol oxidases ( $IC_{50} = 8.3$  and 2.3 nM for the *E. coli* cytochrome *bd* and *bo*, respectively) [20,27], is 2 to 4 order of magnitude less active than the prenylphenols.

### 3.6. Kinetic analysis of inhibition of trypanosome AOX by antibiotics LL-Z1272

Effects of LL-Z1272 $\beta$ ,  $\gamma$ ,  $\delta$ ,  $\epsilon$  and AF on enzyme kinetics by *T. vivax* AOX were examined in the presence of detergents.  $Q_1H_2$  oxidation by *T. vivax* AOX followed the Michaelis–Menten kinetics



**Fig. 3.** Effects of antibiotics LL-Z1272 on kinetic parameters for  $Q_1H_2$  oxidation by the *E. coli* cytochrome *bo*. Kinetic analysis was carried out in the absence of inhibitors ( $\circ$ ) and the presence of 0.75  $\mu$ M LL-Z1272 $\beta$  ( $\blacktriangledown$ ), 0.2  $\mu$ M LL-Z1272 $\gamma$  ( $\blacksquare$ ), 0.75  $\mu$ M LL-Z1272 $\delta$  ( $\bullet$ ), and  $\zeta$  ( $\nabla$ ). Data were analyzed based on the Michaelis–Menten kinetics. The apparent  $K_m$  and  $V_{max}$  values obtained are 23  $\pm$  2 and 1035  $\pm$  28 (control), 43  $\pm$  4 and 841  $\pm$  30 (0.75  $\mu$ M LL-Z1272 $\beta$ ), 64  $\pm$  2 and 402  $\pm$  4 (0.2  $\mu$ M LL-Z1272 $\gamma$ ), 66  $\pm$  3 and 361  $\pm$  6 (0.75  $\mu$ M LL-Z1272 $\delta$ ), 46  $\pm$  4  $\mu$ M and 486  $\pm$  14  $Q_1H_2$ /enzyme/s (0.75  $\mu$ M LL-Z1272 $\zeta$ ), respectively.  $R$  values were  $>0.997$ .