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Interaction of the Halobacterial Transducer to a

Halorhodopsin Mutant Engineered so as to Bind the Transducer:

Cl Circulation within the Extracellular Channel

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Abbreviations: bR, bacteriorhodopsin; cRNA, complementary RNA; CP, cytoplasmic; DDM, n-dodecyl-β-D-maltoside; EC, extracellular; hR, halorhodopsin; HtrI, halobacterial transducer of sR; HtrII, halobacterial transducer of pR; MCP, methyl-accepting chemo-taxis protein; phR, halorhodopsin from Natronomonas pharaonis; pHtrII, HtrII from Natronomonas pharaonis; pHtrII, HtrII from Natronomonas pharaonis; pHtrII<sup>1-159</sup>, N-terminal sequence of 159 amino acid residues of pHtrII; ppR, phoborhodopsin from Natronomonas pharaonis; pR, phoborhodopsin; shR, halorhodopsin from Halobacterium salinarum; sR, sensory rhodopsin.

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#### **ABSTRACT**

An alkali-halophilic archaeum, Natronomonas pharaonis, contains two rhodopsins that are halorhodopsin (phR), a light-driven inward  $\operatorname{Cl}^-$  pump and phoborhodopsin  $(p\operatorname{pR})$ , the receptor of negative phototaxis functioning by forming a signaling complexes with a transducer, pHtrII. Previously, we reported that the phR double mutant, P240T/F250Y $^{phR}$ , can bind with pHtrII [Y. Sudo et al. (2006) J. Mol. Biol. 357, 1274-1282]. This mutant itself can transport Cl, while the net transport was stopped upon formation of the complex. The flash photolysis data were analyzed by a scheme in which phR $\Rightarrow$  P<sub>1</sub>  $\rightarrow$  P<sub>2</sub>  $\rightarrow$  P<sub>3</sub>  $\rightarrow$  P<sub>4</sub>  $\rightarrow$  phR. The P<sub>3</sub> of the wild-type and the double mutant contained two components, Xand O-intermediates. After the complex formation, however, the P<sub>3</sub> of the double mutant lacked the X-intermediate. observations imply that the X-intermediate (probably the N-intermediate) is the state having Cl in the cytoplasmic binding site and that the complex undergoes an extracellular  $\operatorname{Cl}^-$  circulation due to the inhibition of formation of the X-intermediate.

### INTRODUCTION

Halorhodopsin (hR) is a light-driven inward Cl pump expressed in the membrane of halobacterium and was originally found in halophilic Halobacterium salinarum, archaea (1-3). Halorhodopsin is a colored membrane protein whose absorption maximum is located at 578 nm. This protein has all-trans retinal as a chromophore as is true of other archaeal rhodopsins such as bacteriorhodopsin (bR)(4,5), sensory rhodopsin (sR; also called sensory rhodopsin I, SRI) (6,7) and phoborhodopsin (pR; also called sensory rhodopsin II, SRII) (8-11). These archaeal rhodopsins have the same global fold, and the chromophore binds to a conserved lysine residue on the seventh helix (G-helix) via a protonated Schiff base.

Out of four kinds of archaeal rhodopsins, two, bR and hR, function as a light-driven ion pump, while the other two function as a photoreceptor. sR (or SRI) acts as a receptor of the positive and negative photo-taxis (6): the ground state of sR whose absorption maximum is located around 590 nm is

a receptor of the positive photo-taxis, while its long-life photo-intermediate absorbing 373 nm light is a receptor of the negative phototaxis. On the other hand, pR (or SRII) is a receptor of negative photo-taxis, and its absorption maximum is located around 500 nm (8-11). Thus, the archaea are attracted to long-wavelength light ( $\lambda > 520$  nm) where they obtain solar energy via bR and hR whose  $\lambda_{\text{max}}$ 's are located at 570 - 580 nm. On the other hand, the archaea show avoidance of short-wavelength light ( $\lambda < 520$  nm) containing dangerous UV light.

These photoreceptors form 2:2 complexes in the membrane with the respective cognate transducer proteins, HtrI (for SR or SRI) and HtrII (for pR or SRII) (12-14). These complexes transmit the light signal to a cytoplasmic part of the transducer to activate the phosphorylation cascades that modulate the flagella motors (15). The transducer (HtrI or HtrII) is a two-transmembrane helical protein that belongs to a family of methyl-accepting chemo-taxis proteins

(MCPs) (16,17). MCP exists as a homo-dimer composed of a 50-60 kDa subunit and forms a ternary complex with CheA and CheW.

How do the photoreceptor and the transducer form the signaling complex? The X-ray crystallographic structure of the complex between ppR and pHtrII reveals the formation of three hydrogen bonds whose pairs are Tyr199ppR/Asn74pHtrII and Thr189ppR/Glu43pHtrII/Ser62pHtrII (18), where ppR and pHtrII are, respectively, pharaonis phoborhodopsin (also called NpSRII) and pharaonis halobacterial transducer II, which are both derived from Natronomonas pharaonis. The importance of these hydrogen bonds to the binding has been proved experimentally (19). Interestingly, bR and hR that originally cannot bind with pHtrII become able to bind when hydrogen bond-forming amino acid residues are introduced at their proper positions.

In this paper, we examined the  $Cl^-$  transport activity and photocycle of the complex between a truncated pHtrII ( $pHtrII^{1-159}$ , an N-terminal sequence of 159 amino acid residues) and a phR (halorhodopsin from N. pharaonis) mutant in which the hydrogen bond-forming amino acid residues are introduced.

We observed that 1) the complex formation blocks the  $Cl^-$ -pumping of phR(P240T/F250Y) and 2) a certain photo-intermediate (called tentatively X) is not observed after the complex formation during the photocycle. We will discuss the possible mechanism of the  $Cl^-$ -transport of hR.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

Protein expression and purification. The constructions of expression plasmids for C-terminal His-tagged wild-type phR and  $pHtrII^{1-159}$  were reported previously (19-21). The plasmids for the phR mutants were prepared with a Quikchange site-directed mutagenesis kit (Stratagene Cloning Systems, San Diego, CA). The proteins were prepared as described (20,21). Briefly, these proteins were expressed in E. coli BL21 (DE3) cells, solubilized with 1.5%  $n-dodecyl-\beta-D-maltoside$  (DDM) and purified by a Ni-NTA agarose column and a subsequent gel filtration column. samples were then concentrated by ultrafiltration necessary) and dialyzed against the appropriate buffer

solutions.

Denaturation kinetics of phR mutants. The thermal stability of the phR mutants was examined as described previously (22). The residual phR amounts after incubation at high temperatures (60 or  $70^{\circ}$ C) were estimated from the absorbance at 578 nm using a Model V-560 spectrophotometer (Jasco, Tokyo, Japan).

Protein expressions in Xenopus oocytes. For in vitro synthesis of complementary RNA (cRNA), the genes encoding wild-type phR, the P240T/F250YphR mutant and pHtrII<sup>1-159</sup> were cloned into the pGH19 plasmid. The target genes including C-terminal His-tags were amplified by PCR using the plasmid DNAs for their expressions in E. coli cells as templates. The PCR was carried out using two overlapping primers introducing 3'-HindIII restriction sites. The amplified DNA fragments were sub-cloned into pGEM-T vector (Promega), and the DNA sequences were confirmed using a standard procedure (377 DNA

sequencer, Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA). The obtained plasmids were restricted, and the resultant DNA fragments were ligated to the *Eco*RI and *Hind*III sites of the pGH19 plasmid. The resultant product was partially sequenced to confirm the orientation of the insert. Capped cRNAs were synthesized from the obtained pGH19 plasmids using a mMESSAGE mMACHINE kit (Ambion, Inc., Austin, TX).

The isolation of *Xenopus* oocytes was performed as described previously (23). For the expression of the wild-type phR and its double mutant P240T/F250Y<sup>phR</sup>, 50 ng of the cRNAs were injected. For the co-expressions of P240T/F250Y<sup>phR</sup> and pHtrII<sup>1-159</sup>, 30 ng of P240T/F250Y<sup>phR</sup> and 0-10 ng of pHtrII<sup>1-159</sup> cRNAs were injected. The oocytes were incubated for 3-5 days at 18°C in the presence of 1-3  $\mu$ M all-trans retinal.

The relative expression amounts of the proteins were evaluated using the antibody against His-tags fused to their C-terminuses. The oocytes expressing the target proteins were homogenized and then centrifuged at  $1,000 \times g$  for 10 min.

The membrane fraction was collected from the supernatant after further centrifugation at  $10,000 \times g$  for 20 min. The obtained membrane fractions were analyzed by the Western blot according to a standard procedure.

Photo-induced current measurements. The electrophysiological recordings were performed as described previously (23). The potential of the oocyte membrane was clamped at -50 mV using the two-electrode voltage clamp technique. The perfusion buffer was 10 mM Hepes, pH 7.4, including 96 mM NaCl, 2 mM KCl, 1.8 mM CaCl<sub>2</sub> and 1 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>. The photo-induced current was calculated as the difference in the steady state current before and after irradiation with a green light (530  $\pm$  18 nm).

Flash photolysis spectroscopy. All measurements were performed at  $20^{\circ}\text{C}$ , and the absorbance values of the samples were 0.5-1.0 at 580 nm. The buffer solution used was 10 mM Mops, pH 7.0, including 0.1% DDM and various concentrations

of NaCl. For the photocycle measurements of P240T/F250Y<sup>phR</sup> bound with  $pHtrII^{1-159}$ , they were mixed so that at least 90% of P240T/F250Y<sup>phR</sup> forms the complex within the sample cell. Here, the amount of  $pHtrII^{1-159}$  necessary for >90% formation was calculated using the previously reported dissociation constant, 29.1  $\mu$ M, between P240T/F250Y<sup>phR</sup> and  $pHtrII^{1-159}$  (19).

The details of the flash-photolysis apparatus and the procedure for data analysis were reported previously (21). The transient absorption changes induced by a laser pulse (Nd:YAG, 532 nm, 7 ns, 5 mJ/pulse) were acquired in a computer at every 0.5  $\mu s$  between -44 and 220 ms. The data before the laser pulse (-44 - 0 ms) were adopted as a baseline for the calculation of the following absorption change. At each selected measuring wavelength (every 10 nm from 410 to 710 nm), 50 - 100 laser pulses were used to improve the S/N ratio. The data points were then selected by choosing a logarithmic time scale to reduce the number of points. The scattered laser pulse caused a strong artifact. At 530 nm, the artifact continued up to 25  $\mu$ s. For the following fitting analysis,

thus, the data at 30 wavelengths except for 530 nm were adopted. Those data after 10  $\mu s$  were fitted.

The method of analysis was based on that of Chizhov et al. (24,25). The obtained data were fitted simultaneously with the multi-exponential function using the Origin (OriginLab, Northampton, MA) and Igor Pro(WaveMetrics, Lake Oswego, OR). The data weight was determined independently for each wavelength by estimating the average error from the baseline part (-44 to 0 ms). For each data set, the fittings were performed using 3-5 exponential functions. In all data sets, the reductions in the standard deviation of the weighted residuals were saturated at a 4-exponential function. Thus, the further analysis was performed according to the following sequential model:  $P_0 \Rightarrow P_1 \rightarrow P_2 \rightarrow P_3 \rightarrow P_4 \rightarrow P_0$ , where  $P_0$  means the unphotolyzed original state, and  $P_i$  (i=1-4) means the photochemically defined state that may contain a physically defined intermediates in some cases. By using the fitting results at a 4-exponential function, the time constants  $\tau_i$  and the absorption differences between  $P_i$  and  $P_0$ 

 $(\Delta \epsilon_i)$  were calculated. Independently, we fitted the measured absorption spectrum of the unphotolyzed state (250-750 nm) with the sum of three skewed Gaussian functions and the terms expressing background scattering (A + B/ $\lambda^4$ ;  $\lambda$  in nm). skewed Gaussian function is defined by the four parameters:  $\lambda_{\text{max}}$  (in nm),  $A_{\text{max}}$  (amplitude at  $\lambda_{\text{max}}$ ),  $\rho$  (skewness of the absorption band) and  $\Delta v$  (half-bandwidth in cm<sup>-1</sup>) (24). For the spectrum of the unphotolyzed state, the three skewed Gaussian functions correspond with the main absorption band around 580 nm, the  $\beta$ -band around 400 nm and the band due to aromatic amino acid residues around 280 nm, respectively, and the sum of the first two expresses the retinal spectrum in the  $P_0$  state. By adding the retinal spectrum of the  $P_0$  state to the absorption differences  $(\Delta\epsilon_{\rm i})$  , we finally obtained the absolute spectra of the  $P_{\rm i}$  states. For further details, see previous reports (21,24,25).

#### RESULTS

# A phR mutant that is able to bind with pHtrII

A previous report has showed that a phR double mutant,  $P240T/F250Y^{phR}$  can bind to  $pHtrII^{1-159}$  with a dissociation constant of 29.1  $\mu$ M, which was proved by isothermal titration calorimetry (19). Here, we examined the binding using another method; when ppR or its mutants can form a complex with  $pHtrII^{1-159}$ , the thermal stability of the complex increases in comparison with the pigment alone, which is easily observable by measuring the denaturation rate at high temperature (22). Figures 1 A and B show the denaturation rates of the single mutants of  $P240T^{phR}$  and  $F250Y^{phR}$ , indicating no or weak interactions between these mutants and the pHtrII<sup>1-159</sup>. Even at a large molar ratio of  $pHtrII^{1-159}$ , no essential changes in their thermal stabilities were observed. Figure 1 C clearly shows the increase in the thermal stability of the double mutant P240T/F250Y $^{phR}$  in the presence of  $pHtrII^{1-159}$ .

Figure 1 also shows that the simultaneous mutations, P240T/F250Y, make the protein unstable. These residues face the outside of the protein, and so the displacements by the hydrophilic residues may alter the interaction with the solvent and/or the detergent. This instability was measurable only at high temperature (60°C). During the photo-electric current and the flash-photolysis experiments performed below 25°C, the denaturation of the double mutant was negligible.

Photo-electric current through Xenopus oocyte membrane co-expressing the phR mutant and  $pHtrII^{1-159}$ 

Electrophysiological methods using Xenopus oocyte expression system have been proven to be useful for investigation of ion-channels and electrogenic transporters. bR, channelrhodopsin and ppR have been investigated using this method, and the results obtained provided valuable insight (26-29). Figure 2 shows the photo-induced electrical current

through the oocyte membrane expressing phR in the presence or absence of  $pHtII^{1-159}$ . Here, we present the currents measured with a perfusion buffer including about 100 mM Cl<sup>-</sup>. With the increasing Cl<sup>-</sup> concentration, the current increased and became almost saturated at 100 mM Cl<sup>-</sup> (data not shown). The left histogram in Fig. 2 A represents the amount of current via wild-type phR. Bamberg and coworkers observed the photo-induced current by bR expressing in the oocyte membrane, and the current in this experiment is much larger than that of bR (26).

The right histogram in Fig. 2 A represents the electrical current by the double mutant of phR,  $P240T/F250Y^{phR}$ . The amount of expressed proteins evaluated by the Western blot was about half that of the wild-type (lanes 1 and 2 in Fig. 2 C) Thus, the relative pumping activity of the double mutant is estimated to be about a quarter of that of the wild-type. Because these two mutated residues are pointed to the outside of phR, the direct interaction of these residues with the transporting  $C1^-$  ion might not be probable; thus, we do not

know the reason for the weak pumping activity of the double mutant at present.

Figure 2 B represents the effect of pHtrII on the phR pumping activity. The injected cRNA of P240T/F250Y<sup>phR</sup> was kept at 30 ng, while that of pHtrII<sup>1-159</sup> was varied from 0 to 10 ng. The molar ratios of actually expressed proteins were approximately 1:0, 1:0.4, 1:1.8, 1:3.9 from left to right, which were estimated from the bands of lanes 3-6 in Fig. 2 C. The expressed amounts of P240T/F250Y<sup>phR</sup> were not essentially affected by the co-expression of pHtrII<sup>1-159</sup>. These results clearly reveal that the pumping activity of the double mutant decreases with an increase in the molar ratio of pHtrII<sup>1-159</sup>.

Complete blocking of the Cl<sup>-</sup>-pumping activity was not observed, however. On the other hand, the co-expression of ppR (F86D<sup>ppR</sup>; due to a larger photo-current than the wild-type) and  $pHtrII^{1-159}$  in the oocyte blocks nearly completely except for the transient signal observed immediately after the illumination is applied (30). One of possible reasons for the

incomplete blocking is the large dissociation constant,  $K_D$ ; the  $K_D$  for the binding of the wild-type ppR and pHtrII<sup>1-159</sup> is 0.16 µM in 0.05% DDM, while that of the phR double mutant is 29.1 µM in the same detergent (19), meaning that the binding of the phR mutant with  $pHtrII^{1-159}$  is approximately 180-fold weaker than that of ppR. Another point to be considered is the concentrations of these proteins in the oocyte membrane, which may not be estimated, however. Although within the membrane, the binding might become stronger than in the solution with detergent, it is probable that the protein concentrations may be too small for complete binding. Therefore, we conclude that the complex between phR and pHtrII abolishes the pumping activity. The same conclusions have been drawn for sR (SRI) and ppR (NpSRII) (31,32).

Another difference in the photocurrent between ppR and phR is the initial transient signal reported in ppR (NpSRII) mentioned above (30). For the present phR experiments, no such initial transient signals were observed. It is noted that in the present experiments, the recording of signals was

done with a pen-writing recorder that has a slow response, and such transient signals might be ignored. Further studies are necessary and the origin of these transient signals (if they exist) is the next aim of the investigation.

# Flash-photolysis studies

Flash-photolysis experiments were performed for the purified wild-type phR, P240T/F250Y<sup>phR</sup> and its complex with pHtrII<sup>1-159</sup> in the presence of various concentrations of Cl<sup>-</sup>. These three proteins were prepared independently from the E. coli membranes. For a sample of the complex, the purified P240T/F250Y<sup>phR</sup> and pHtrII<sup>1-159</sup> were mixed so that more than 90% of P240T/F250Y<sup>phR</sup> forms the complex (see MATERIALS AND METHODS). Figure 3 shows the transient absorption changes at three selected wavelengths that are representative of the formation and decay of L (500 nm) and O (650 nm) intermediates and the depletion and recovery of the initial unphotolyzed state (580 nm). All samples showed essentially the same photocycle in

terms of the appearance of the representative intermediates, L and O. However, remarkable differences are seen in the 650 nm decay: a prolonged decay appeared upon complex formation at 0.2 M Cl<sup>-</sup> (right upper panel). Moreover, the difference in the accumulation of the O-intermediate is also notable. For wild-type phR, the accumulation of the O-intermediate decreases at a high concentration of 4.0 M Cl<sup>-</sup> (lower left panel). This decrease is moderate for P240T/F250Y<sup>phR</sup> (lower middle panel) and the complex (lower right panel).

The transient absorption changes at wavelengths from 410 to 710 nm (every 10-nm interval) were acquired at six (for the wild-type) or five (for the others)  $Cl^-$  concentrations. These data sets were fitted independently with 4 exponential equations as described in MATERIALS AND METHODS. The results of the fitting analysis are summarized in Fig. 4. The panels in the upper row show the  $Cl^-$  dependencies of four time constants for the decay of the  $P_1$ - $P_4$  states. In all three samples,  $\tau_3$  and  $\tau_4$  depend on the  $Cl^-$  concentration.  $\tau_3$  is commonly accelerated by the increase in  $Cl^-$  concentration, but

the changes in  $\tau_4$  are different between the wild-type phR and others. With increasing Cl<sup>-</sup> concentration,  $\tau_4$  increases slightly for wild-type phR but decreases for P240T/F250Y $^{phR}$  and its complex with  $pHtrII^{1-159}$ .

In the panels from the second to bottom rows, the spectra of  $P_1-P_4$  are depicted together with the spectrum of the unphotolyzed state  $(P_0)$ . In all three samples, the spectra of  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  were almost the same and were independent of the Cl concentration. Those absorption maximum were about 520 nm, and so these states are assigned to the  $L_1-$  and  $L_2$ -intermediates, respectively. A significant difference among the three samples was observed in the  $P_3$  state. The  $P_3$ spectra of the wild-type have two peaks, implying a contribution from two physically defined intermediates in the equilibrium. This was confirmed by the global fitting of  $P_3$ spectra. As shown in Fig. 5 A, the  $P_3$  spectra were simulated well employing the sum of the skewed Gaussian functions. One component has an absorption maximum at around 610 nm. Judging from the absorption, this is the O-intermediate. Another

having a  $\lambda_{\text{max}}$  of ~ 510 nm is tentatively called the X-intermediate. It is noted that Chizhov and Engelhard also reported the existence of an intermediate having a  $\lambda_{\text{max}}$  similar to that of X and named it the N-intermediate (25). obtained spectra of X- and O-intermediates are plotted in Fig. 5 B. With the increasing Cl concentration, a considerable shift in the equilibrium occurs from the O- to the X-intermediate. As shown in Fig. 4, the  $P_3$  of  $P240T/F250Y^{phR}$ also appears to consist of X- and O-intermediates, but the shift in the equilibrium from the O- to X-intermediate occurs moderately. For the  $P_3$  of the  $P240T/F250Y^{phR}-pHtrII^{1-159}$ complex, the shift from O- to the X-intermediate was not observed even at 4.0 M Cl concentration. This disappearance of the X-intermediate is a notable difference from the Cl<sup>-</sup>-transporting photocycles of the wild-type and the double mutant. The Cl -not-transporting photocycle of the complex may lack the X-intermediate itself.

The  $P_4$  spectra of both the wild-type and  $P240T/F250Y^{phR}$  are almost the same as that of their unphotolyzed state ( $P_0$ ).

Thus, these P<sub>4</sub> states consist mainly of the phR'-intermediate, which might be a precursor of the original unphotolyzed state. On the other hand, the  $P_4$  state of the  $P240T/F250Y^{phR}-pHtrII^{1-159}$ complex had spectra slightly different from the  $P_0$  state. This difference becomes evident at low Cl concentrations and causes the prolonged decay observed at 650 nm as shown in Fig. 3. Figure 6 shows the absorption differences between the  $P_4$ and  $P_0$  states  $(P_4-P_0)$ . The absorption difference is evident for the complex (panel C). The difference becomes small as the Cl<sup>-</sup> concentration increases. Moreover, small but similar absorption differences are also seen for the wild-type and the double mutant (panels A and B). These differences may originate in a slight contribution of a red-shifted intermediate other than the phR'-intermediate.

## **DISCUSSION**

The present paper obtained the following results: The first is that the interaction of P240T/F250Y $^{phR}$  with pHtrII blocked the net Cl transport. Complete blocking was not obtained,

which may be due to a relatively weak binding between these components. The second is that the X-intermediate constituting  $P_3$  was not seen during the photocycle of the complex between  $P240T/F250Y^{phR}$  and  $pHtrII^{1-159}$ , and the amount of this intermediate of  $P240T/F250Y^{phR}$  alone was smaller than that of the wild-type phR (compare  $P_3$  components in Fig. 4). The photocycle rates of the wild-type phR, the double mutant and the complex were not significantly changed (see Fig. 3 and the top panels of Fig. 4). Comparison of the magnitude of the photocurrents (Fig. 2) with the amounts of the X-intermediate constituting  $P_3$  (Fig. 4) suggests that there is a rough correlation between these two factors.

For the complex, there is a direct correlation between the disappearances of  $Cl^-$ -pumping activity and the X-intermediate. These observations imply that the complex undergoes a photocycle lacking the X-intermediate whose formation is important for the  $Cl^-$  transport. For the double mutant alone, both the pumping activity and the amount of X-intermediate in  $P_3$  were smaller than those of the wild-type.

In the case of the double mutant alone, thus, some extent of the excited molecules may undergo the Cl<sup>-</sup>-not-transporting photocycle as does the complex. The remaining molecules may undergo the Cl<sup>-</sup>-transporting photocycle. The co-existence of two photocycles appears consistent with the results for the double mutant alone. At present, however, we cannot explain the mechanism by which the double mutations cause the heterogeneity in the photocycle.

For the wild-type and the double mutant, the equilibrium between X- and O-intermediates in the P<sub>3</sub> states were shifted by the Cl<sup>-</sup> concentration. The photo-current measurements shown in Fig. 2 were performed at a Cl<sup>-</sup> concentration of about 100 mM. At such a low Cl<sup>-</sup> concentration, the spectra of the P<sub>3</sub> states of the wild-type and the double mutant are dominated by the O-intermediate as is the P<sub>3</sub> state of the complex. For the wild-type and the double mutant, however, this does not mean that their Cl<sup>-</sup>-pumping photocycles also lack the X-intermediate at the low Cl<sup>-</sup> concentration. At the P<sub>3</sub> state of the Cl<sup>-</sup>-pumping photocycle, the X- and O-intermediates are

considered to form the equilibrium quickly compared with the transition between the  $P_i$  states. The shift in the equilibrium toward the O-intermediate makes the X-intermediate unremarkable. However, the O-intermediate should still form the fast equilibrium with the X-intermediate even at the low  $C1^-$  concentration.

The shift in the equilibrium in the  $P_3$  state due to the  $C1^-$  concentration means that this equilibrium should accompany the release and uptake of  $C1^-$  between the protein and the external medium. For the wild-type phR, Váró et al. (33) and Chizhov and Engelhard (25) also described a fast equilibrium between the anion-bound (X-intermediate) and the anion-free (O-intermediate) state. Due to the increase in the  $C1^-$  concentration, the equilibrium shifts from the O- to the X-intermediate. This suggests that the O-intermediate is a  $C1^-$ -free state, which is very credible from its  $\lambda_{max}$ . The formation of this intermediate is thus associated with the  $C1^-$  release, probably to the cytoplasmic (CP) space. This is

consistent with the conclusion drawn by other previous investigators (34-38).

Therefore, before the O-intermediate, an intermediate having bound  $Cl^-$  in the CP channel should exist. Previous reports (21,39,40) proposed that the binding site in the CP channel is Thr-203 for shR and Thr-218 for phR. If the  $Cl^-$  binding site in the CP channel is only this position (39,40), only one intermediate having  $Cl^-$  in the CP binding site should exist and the candidate may be either X or  $P_2(L_2)$ .

As for the reaction sequence from the  $P_2$  to  $P_4$  states of the wild-type phR, there are 4 possible models as shown in Fig. 7. The absorption differences between the  $P_4$  and  $P_0$  state (shown in Fig. 6) imply that the  $P_4$  state includes not only phR' but also a small contribution from a red-shifted intermediate. Because a component whose  $\lambda_{max}$  is located at a longer wavelength than that of the original pigment is only the O-intermediate, the red-shifted component of  $P_4$  may be the O-intermediate. It does not seem that the spectrum of  $P_4$  is contributed from a component having a shorter wavelength such

as the X-intermediate. From these observations, we may rule out both models C and D. Thus, the phR'-intermediate may be formed by the decay of the O-intermediate. During the O  $\rightarrow$  phR' transition,  $Cl^-$  may enter into the binding site in the extracellular (EC) channel, because phR' has almost the same photochemical properties of unphotolyzed phR having only one  $cl^-$  in the EC channel; the crystal structure of shR (halorhodopsin from H. salinarum) shows that the unphotolyzed state has only one  $cl^-$  in the EC channel (39).

According to the model B, the  $P_2(L_2)$ -intermediate should have  $Cl^-$  in the CP binding site, and during the  $P_2(L_2) \rightarrow 0$  transition,  $Cl^-$  should be released. This implies no definite role of the X-intermediate, which is contradictory to the present observation that the intermediate of X is very important for the  $Cl^-$  transport. Therefore, model A is considered to be the most probable, and we assume the  $Cl^-$  movement to be as shown in Fig. 8.

The dependences of the X and O amounts on  $Cl^-$  concentration (shown in Fig. 5 A) are accountable by the above

scheme. When we adopt this scheme, the Cl<sup>-</sup> entry from EC space may drive the decay of the O-intermediate, which pushes the  $X \to 0$  transition and results in Cl<sup>-</sup> release into the CP space. Thus, the high concentration of Cl<sup>-</sup> in the environment may prompt the Cl<sup>-</sup> transport. A mechanism for the fast equilibrium between the X-intermediate (Cl<sup>-</sup>-binding in CP channel) and the O-intermediate (Cl<sup>-</sup>-free) is awaited in a further important study.

What is the physical identity of the X-intermediate? There are two possibilities: one is that X is distinct from  $L_2$  while the other is that X is  $L_2$ . According to the first possibility, the X-intermediate should have one  $Cl^-$  in the CP channel, and the  $L_2$  state may have  $Cl^-$  in the EC channel, probably near the Schiff base and Arg123 (Arg108 of shR) provided that the  $Cl^-$  binding site in the CP channel is the only one (39,40). Because the  $Cl^-$  movement is confined within the molecule,  $\tau_2$  does not show the  $Cl^-$  dependence as was observed. Based on these considerations, X-intermediate is most probably assigned to the N-intermediate proposed previously.

Muneyuki et al. (41) and Ludmann et al. (38) described that the electrogenetic steps were the formation and decay of the N-intermediate, which is consistent with the present scheme.

Next let us consider the second possibility that X is maximum wavelength of absorption of the  $L_2$ . The X-intermediate ( $\sim 510$  nm) may be favorable for this. If we adopt this assumption, Cl might pass through the Schiff base region from the EC to the CP channel during the  $L_1$  to  $L_2$ transition. This may be contradictory to the conclusion drawn by Muneyuki et al. (41) and Ludmann et al. (38) mentioned above. When the possible molecular events are considered as below, this assumption leads to a somewhat more complicated story than the first assumption that X is N. However, this possibility that X is  $L_2$  cannot be completely ruled out at present (42). To solve the question regarding the timing of the Cl movement from the EC to the CP channel is one of the key points in solving the physical identification of the X-intermediate as well as the Cl pumping mechanism.

Regardless of the physical identity of X, the experimental evidence obtained is that the transducer binding prevents the formation of X while the O-intermediate is observable. Note that at the X-intermediate, Cl is present at the CP binding site while the O-intermediate does not contain Cl . Because Cl resides at the EC binding site in unphotolyzed phR, Cl should circulate within the EC channel under the transducer binding condition, resulting in the cessation of electrical current. A cartoon is illustrated in Fig. 9, which shows the possible mechanism of the blocking. The  $Cl^-$  binding site in CP is Thr218 of phR (21) that is located at the F-helix. The transducer interacts with phR at the Fand G-helices. This strongly suggests the necessity of the conformational change in the F - G helices at X-intermediate such as the opening of the F-helix occurs in bR at the late M- and N-intermediate (43-48).

If X is  $L_2$ , the story may become somewhat complicated:  $Cl^-$  passes from EC to the CP channel at the  $L_1$  to  $L_2$  transition and should return to the EC channel again in the case of complex.

The dead end of the  $Cl^-$  exit at the CP channel due to a so-called cytoplasmic closure by the transducer and the flip of the N-H dipole (13-cis to all-trans retinal) at the  $L_2$  to 0 transition might possibly exert a driving force for this return of  $Cl^-$ , but this does not seem to occur. Hence, the assumption that X is N (not  $L_2$ ) may provide a more straightforward explanation.

The transducer binding occurs at the EC half of the archaeal rhodopsins and the mutated  $240^{\rm th}$  and  $250^{\rm th}$  positions are located at the F-G loop (positioned at the EC space) and the middle of the G-helix, respectively. The intermediate of phR' may be a state where  $Cl^-$  is located at the EC channel different from that of the unphotolyzed phR. The change in the amino acid residues at the  $240^{\rm th}$  and  $250^{\rm th}$  positions may alter the  $Cl^-$ -locating position in phR', which may give rise to the change in the equilibrium between phR'- and O-intermediate in the  $P_4$  state and the  $Cl^-$  dependence of  $\tau_4$  from those of the wild-type.

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## FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. Denaturation kinetics of the phR mutants. The phR mutants were incubated at high temperatures in the absence or presence of pHtrII<sup>1-159</sup>, and the residual amounts of the mutants were determined by their absorption at 578 nm. The incubation temperatures were 70°C for P240T<sup>phR</sup> (A), 60°C for F250Y<sup>phR</sup> (B) and P240T/F250Y<sup>phR</sup> (C). The concentrations of these mutants were 10  $\mu$ M, and the mole ratios of the mutants and pHtrII<sup>1-159</sup> are denoted in the figures.

Figure 2. The photo-induced currents *via p*hR and P240T/F250Y<sup>phR</sup> expressed in *Xenopus* oocytes, and the Western blot analysis for the protein expressions. (A) The photo-induced current *via* wild-type *p*hR and its P240T/F250Y<sup>phR</sup> mutant. The expression amount of the mutant was about half that of the wild-type (lanes 1 and 2 in panel (C)). (B) The change in the photo-induced current *via* the P240T/F250Y<sup>phR</sup> mutant with the increase in the expression amount of *p*HtrII<sup>1-159</sup>.

In the oocytes used, the expression amounts of  $P240T/F250Y^{phR}$ were almost the same. Here, the photo-induced current was plotted against the mole ratio of expressed P240T/F250YphR and  $p \mathrm{HtrII}^{\mathrm{1-159}}$  evaluated by the corresponding Western blots (lanes 3-6 in panel (C)). Through the measurements in panels (A) and (B), the membrane potential was clamped at -50 mV. Each bar represents the mean  $\pm$  SD for between 9-11 oocytes. (C) The Western blot analysis of the membrane fractions of the oocytes using the anti-His-Tag monoclonal antibody. The upper bands correspond with wild-type phR or P240T/F250YphR, and the lower bands correspond with  $pHtrII^{1-159}$ . Lanes 1 and 2: the oocytes were injected with 50 ng of cRNAs of wild-type phR and P240T/F250YphR, respectively. Lanes 3-6: the cRNA amounts of  $P240T/F250Y^{phR}$  were kept at 30 ng, while those of  $pHtrII^{1-159}$ were varied as 0, 2.5, 5 and 10 ng, respectively.

Figure 3. Flash-induced transient absorption changes at typical wavelengths. Buffer solutions were 10 mM Mops at pH

7.0 containing 0.1% DDM and 0.2 M (upper row) or 4.0 M (lower row) NaCl. All measurements were performed at  $20^{\circ}\text{C}$ .

Figure 4. Results of the global fitting of flash-photolysis data. The top row represents the dependence of the time constants of the  $P_1$ - $P_4$  states on the  $C1^$ concentration. In the panels from the second to bottom rows, the absolute spectra of photochemically defined states  $P_1$ - $P_4$ at six Cl concentrations between 0.2 and 4.0 M are depicted with the spectrum of the unphotolyzed state  $P_0$  (gray solid line). At the  $P_3$  and  $P_4$  states, notable differences were seen in their absolute spectra, and so the numbers are depicted in the panels to denote the Cl concentration as: 1, 0.2 M; 2, 0.4 M; 3, 0.6 M; 4, 1.0 M; 5, 2.0 M; 6, 4.0 M. The spectrum of  $P_0$  is expressed by the sum of two skewed Gaussian functions whose parameters were  $\lambda_{\text{max}}$ =575.1 nm,  $\lambda_{\text{max}}$ =1.0,  $\rho$ =1.58 and  $\Delta v=3254.3 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  for the main absorption band and  $\lambda_{\text{max}}=405.6 \text{ nm}$ ,  $A_{\text{max}}=0.09$ ,  $\rho=1.24$  and  $\Delta v=1693.1$  cm<sup>-1</sup> for the  $\beta$ -band (for details, see MATERIALS AND METHODS). The absorption spectra were identical between wild-type phR and P240T/F250Y $^{phR}$ .

spectra did not change throughout all the conditions we used.

Figure 5. Multi-Gaussian fit of the P<sub>3</sub> state of wild-type phR. (A) The absolute spectra of the  $P_3$  state at various  $Cl^$ concentrations (0) were fitted simultaneously by the sum of the three skewed Gaussian functions expressing the X- and O-intermediates and their  $\beta$ -bands. Here, we assumed that their  $\beta$ -bands were identical with that of the unphotolyzed state  $(P_0)$ . The fitting results are shown in smooth lines. The numbers depicted in the figure denote the Clconcentrations as shown in Fig. 4. The inset shows the change in the fractions of X- and O-intermediates under various Clconcentrations. (B) Spectra of X- and O-intermediates determined. For comparison, the spectra of  $P_0$  (gray solid line), and the  $P_2$  and  $P_3$  states are also plotted. The parameters of the skewed Gaussian functions are  $\lambda_{max}$ =507.1 nm,  $A_{\text{max}}=0.56$ ,  $\rho=1.64$  and  $\Delta v=2688.1$  cm<sup>-1</sup> for the main band of the X-intermediate, and  $\lambda_{\text{max}}$ =604.9 nm,  $\lambda_{\text{max}}$ =1.05,  $\rho$ =1.47 and

 $\Delta v=3198.5 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  for that of the O-intermediate, respectively.

Figure 6. Absorption differences between the  $P_4$  and  $P_0$  states of (A) wild-type phR, (B)  $P240T/F250Y^{phR}$  and (C) its complex with  $pHtrII^{1-159}$ . The differences in the relative absorbances,  $P_4-P_0$ , are plotted. The  $Cl^-$  concentrations are denoted in the figures.

Figure 7. Possible models for the reaction sequence from the  $P_2$  to  $P_4$  states of the wild-type phR.

Figure 8. Plausible reaction sequence from the  $P_2$  to  $P_4$  states of the wild-type phR. At the  $P_3$  state, the X- and O-intermediates are in the equilibrium accompanying the release and uptake of  $Cl^-$  at the CP side. The reuptake of  $Cl^-$  at the EC side proceeds during the  $O \rightarrow phR'$  transition. The contribution of the O-intermediate to the  $P_4$  state is very small, and so the  $P_4$  state is represented here by only the phR'-intermediate.

Figure 9. The model of the external Cl circulation during the photocycle of the P240T/F250Y $^{phR}$ - $pHtrII^{1-159}$  complex. upper and lower paths express the photocycles of the wild-type phR and the P240T/F250Y $^{phR}$ -pHtrII $^{1-159}$  complex, respectively. Here, we assume that the formation of the X-intermediate appearing in the normal photocycle accompanies the Cl displacement from the Schiff base to its binding site in the CP channel. The binding with pHtrII<sup>1-159</sup> disturbs the CP opening of  $P240T/F250Y^{phR}$ , which results in the blocking of the Cl displacement to the CP channel. Consequently, the release and reuptake of Cl occur at only the EC side during the formation and decay of the O-intermediate. phR'-intermediate of the complex may take a slightly different Cl configuration from that of the normal photocycle (for details see text).

Fig. 1

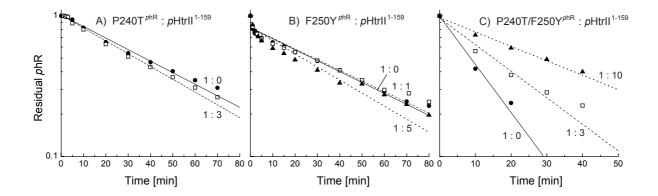


Fig. 2

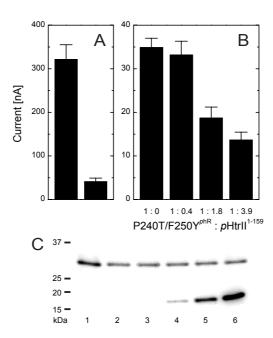
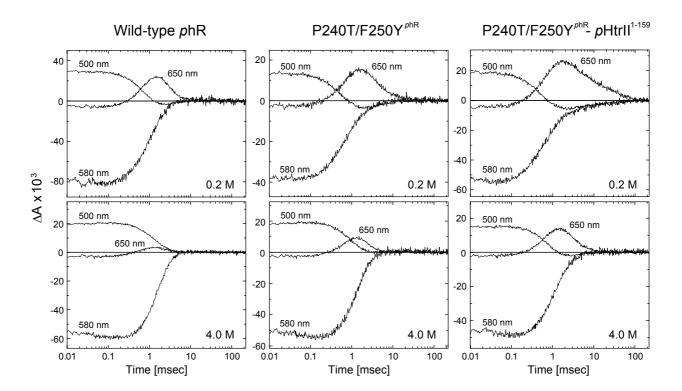
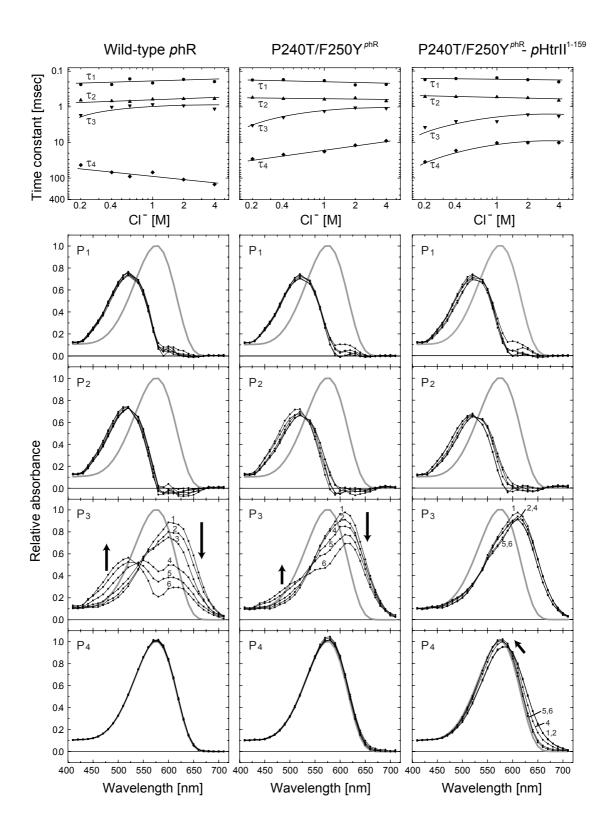


Fig. 3





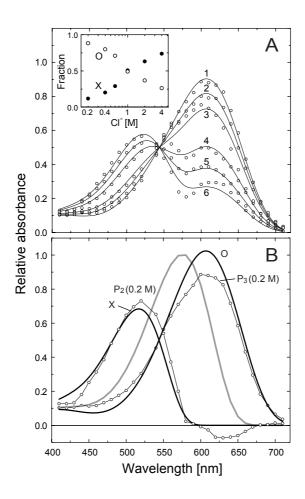


Fig. 6

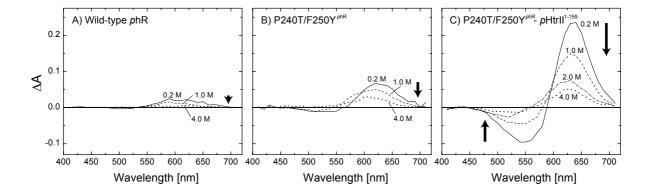


Fig. 7

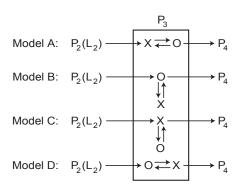


Fig. 8

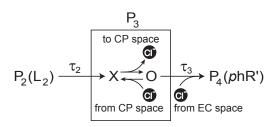


Fig. 9

