Chaperonin GroEL–GroES Functions as both Alternating and Non-Alternating Engines

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Abstract

A double ring-shaped GroEL consisting of 14 ATPase subunits assists protein folding, together with co-chaperonin GroES. The dynamic GroEL–GroES interaction is actively involved in the chaperonin reaction. Therefore, revealing this dynamic interaction is a key to understanding the operation principle of GroEL. Nevertheless, how this interaction proceeds in the reaction cycle has long been controversial. Here, we directly imaged GroEL–GroES interaction in the presence of disulfide-reduced α-lactalbumin as a substrate protein using high-speed atomic force microscopy. This real-time imaging revealed the occurrence of primary, symmetric GroEL:GroES$_2$ and secondary, asymmetric GroEL:GroES$_1$ complexes. Remarkably, the reaction was observed to often branch into main and side pathways. In the main pathway, alternate binding and release of GroES occurs at the two rings, indicating tight cooperation between the two rings. In the side pathway, however, this cooperation is disrupted, resulting in the interruption of alternating rhythm. From various properties observed for both pathways, we provide mechanistic insight into the alternate and non-alternate operations of the two-engine system.

Introduction

Chaperonins are a structurally conserved class of molecular chaperones that mediate protein folding to the native, functional state in cells [1,2]. The best studied chaperonin, Escherichia coli GroEL, is a cylindrical protein complex formed by two heptameric rings stacked back to back, each consisting of identical ATPase subunits [3]. GroEL functions together with the lid-like co-chaperonin GroES. GroES is a single homo-heptameric ring and binds to the ends of the GroEL cylinder depending on the nucleotide state of GroEL. The mechanism of productive protein folding assisted by GroEL and GroES has been studied extensively [4–6]. Nonnative, unfolded proteins with exposed hydrophobic residues bind to GroEL at its apical domain that presents a hydrophobic surface for this binding [7]. Then, the substrate protein is encapsulated into the hydrophilic cavity of GroEL upon its binding to ATP and GroES, accompanied by a large conformational change of GroEL [8,9]. The encapsulated protein can fold in this environment, which takes several seconds, the time needed for one ATP turnover cycle to be completed in the GroES-bound ring. Subsequently, GroES dissociates and then the substrate protein is released from GroEL. Because the two rings of GroEL are identical, these processes proceed at each ring of GroEL.

However, how the reaction cycle proceeds in the “two-engine” system has long been controversial. In a widely accepted model, it is postulated that only one ring binds GroES throughout the cycle, so that the asymmetric GroEL:GroES$_1$ complexes (referred to as the bullet complexes) are exclusively formed in the steady-state ATPase cycle. The origin of this asymmetry has been considered to be the inter-ring negative cooperativity in ATP binding by GroEL [10–12]; that is, only one ring can bind ATP, resulting in the exclusive formation of bullet complexes because GroES can only bind to the ATP-bound ring [13], although GroES is thought to be able to bind to the ADP–Pi-bound ring as well. Only after the bound ATP
is hydrolyzed in the GroES-bound ring (cis-ring), the opposite GroES-free ring (trans-ring) can bind ATP. Actual ATP binding to the trans-ring induces the release of GroES, ADP, and the encapsulated substrate protein from the opposite ring [14,15], while the second GroES binds to the trans-ring to form a new cis-ring. Thus, this model has concluded that the two rings of GroEL alternately bind and release GroES and hence alternate function as well. In another model, however, both rings of GroEL are supposed to be able to bind ATP simultaneously and hence also bind GroES simultaneously to form symmetric GroEL:GroES$_2$ complexes (referred to as the football complexes). Several lines of evidence have been provided for the existence of a large population of the football complexes in the presence of ATP [16–27]. However, this model has not gained broad consensus. This is mainly because the methods used hardly allow direct detection of dynamic molecular events occurring at each ring.

Here, using high-speed atomic force microscopy (HS-AFM) [28,29], we directly observed the dynamic GroES association and dissociation events at each ring of individual GroEL molecules during the steady-state ATPase cycle in the presence of disulfide-reduced $\alpha$-lactalbumin. HS-AFM is now established and has recently been used with great success to visualize protein molecules in dynamic action [30–32]. The GroEL–GroES interaction was previously observed by HS-AFM during the course of establishment of this microscopy [33,34]. However, in these studies, GroEL was immobilized in an end-up orientation on a mica surface, making it infeasible to study the two-engine cycle. In the present study, we used streptavidin two-dimensional (2D) crystals as a substrate, onto which GroEL molecules were immobilized in a side-on orientation through the streptavidin–biotin linkage [35]. This system allowed us to study the dynamic GroEL–GroES interaction occurring during the two-engine cycle at a nearly saturating concentration of GroES. The HS-AFM imaging of the GroEL–GroES interaction in the steady-state ATPase cycle revealed various properties of the interaction and thus provided mechanistic insight into the two-engine cycle as follows. The symmetric football complexes are primarily formed, while the two engines operate alternately in a main pathway but non-alternately and non-simultaneously in a side pathway. The alternate operation in the main pathway is made possible by inter-ring communications; ATP hydrolysis into ADP–Pi in one ring triggers GroES dissociation from the opposite ring, while the resulting asymmetric bullet structure retards ADP dissociation from the trans-ring. This retardation can contribute to providing an enough time for the substrate protein to be released from the trans-ring but in turn could possibly result in frequent, incomplete nucleotide replacement of ADP with ATP at the trans-ring. With this incomplete exchange, the inter-ring communication is very likely to be vanished, and therefore, the reaction pathway is sidetracked into the side pathway.

Results

Patterns of dynamic GroEL–GroES interaction

For HS-AFM visualization of dynamic GroEL–GroES interaction at the two rings of GroEL, the D490C GroEL mutant biotinylated at Cys490 was immobilized in a side-on orientation on the streptavidin 2D crystal surface [35,36] (Fig. 1a). Since this surface is highly resistant to nonspecific protein binding [35], GroES appeared in HS-AFM images only when it was bound to the immobilized GroEL. This property allowed the use of a high concentration of GroES (1 $\mu$M), unlike conventional single-molecule fluorescence microscopy. Figure 1b presents HS-AFM images that were captured at ~4 frames/s (fps) for dynamic GroEL–GroES interaction in the presence of ATP and a substrate protein, disulfide-reduced $\alpha$-lactalbumin (Movie S1). The successive images clearly displayed multiple rounds of GroES association/dissociation events at each ring of GroEL (Fig. 1b and c).

In the repeated cycles, the symmetric football complexes appeared most frequently (~67%), while the bullet complexes appeared moderately (~33%) (Fig. 2A), consistent with a previous electron microscopy study [37]. Next, we analyzed the order of association and dissociation of GroES at the two rings by choosing the bullet complexes as an initial state (Fig. 2B). These dynamic events observed are largely classified into Type I and Type II; in Type I, the cis/trans states interchange between the two rings after a round of association and dissociation of GroES, resulting in the polarity change between the initial and second bullet complexes; whereas in Type II, no cis/trans interchange occurs, resulting in no change of the polarity. The probabilities of occurrence of Type I and Type II processes are ~0.69 and ~0.31, respectively. These processes mostly proceeded through formation of the football complexes (Fig. 2Bb and Be). To a lesser extent, no intermediate state appeared in Type I process (Fig. 2Ba and Bd). In addition, processes going through the GroES-free state were only rarely observed (Fig. 2Ba and Bd). As described later, the occurrence of the two types of processes, Type I and Type II, is not an artifact that might have resulted from miss-capture of the second bullet complexes due to insufficient temporal resolution, but is consistent with a previous single-molecule fluorescence microscopy study [21].

Decay kinetics of football and bullet complexes

The football complexes formed in Type I and Type II processes are different species, as revealed by their distinct decay kinetics. The histogram of lifetime for the football complex in Type I process (hereafter we refer to as Type I football) was well fitted to a
single-exponential function with a rate constant of \( k^{\text{I}} = 0.49 \text{ s}^{-1} \) (\( \chi^2 = 0.84, \rho > 0.71 \)) (Fig. 3a, blue lines), so that Type I football decays in the first-order reaction. In contrast, the histogram of lifetime for the football complex in Type II process (we refer to as Type II football) showed a maximum at ~2 s and was well fitted to a curve obtained for a sequential two-step reaction with rate constants of \( k^{\text{II}}_1 = 1.14 \text{ s}^{-1} \) and

![Diagram](image-url)
$k_{-1}^{F-II} = 0.59 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ($\chi^2 = 1.46, p = 0.054$) (Fig. 3b, blue lines; Note S1). This suggests that in Type II football, the dissociation of the second bound GroES is likely to be caused by certain reactions occurring in its bound ring with the rate constants $k_{-1}^{F-II}$ and $k_{-2}^{F-II}$, as the decay process of Type II football is identical to a process that leads to dissociation of the second bound GroES, unlike in Type I process where the decay of Type I football occurs by dissociation of the early bound GroES.

Supposing that Type II football is apparently formed due to miss-capture of a bullet complex that occurs on route to the formation of the second football complex, its lifetime should be approximately $2/k_{1}^{F-I} = 4.08$ s, and its decay kinetics should follow a sequential two-step reaction with rate constants, both of which are identical to $k_{-1}^{F-I} = 0.49$ s$^{-1}$.

Because the decay kinetics exhibited by Type II football is largely inconsistent with these features, Type II football is a real entity.

Next, we analyzed the decay kinetics of the bullet complexes to obtain a clue to an origin of the formation of the two types of football complexes. The lifetime of the bullet complex that was followed by Type I football was well fitted to a single-exponential function with a rate constant of $k_{-1}^{B-I} = 2.75$ s$^{-1}$ ($\chi^2 = 0.48, p > 0.94$) (Fig. 3c, blue lines). Also, the lifetime of the bullet complex that was followed by Type II football was well fitted to a single-exponential function, but its rate constant $k_{-1}^{B-II}$ was noticeably smaller than $k_{-1}^{B-I}$, that is, $k_{-1}^{B-II} = 2.02$ s$^{-1}$ ($\chi^2 = 0.52, p > 0.94$) (Fig. 3d). Therefore, there are two types of bullet complexes; one (we refer to as Type I bullet) leads to the formation of Type I football, and the
other bullet (we refer to as Type II bullet) leads to the formation of Type II football. However, the ratio of the rate constants $k_{B-I}/k_{B-II} \approx 1.36$ cannot account for the probabilities of occurrence of Type I and Type II footballs (i.e., ~0.67 and ~0.33, respectively), as described below. The rate constants, $k_{F-I} = 0.49 \text{ s}^{-1}$ and $k_{B-I} = 2.75 \text{ s}^{-1}$, provide the probabilities of appearance of Type I football and Type I bullet as 0.85 and 0.15, respectively, which are apparently inconsistent with those mentioned above, even

![Fig. 3. Histograms and their best fitting results for lifetime of GroEL–GroES complexes and residence time of bound GroES. The insets in (a–e) show the cumulated numbers of corresponding events (gray bars) together with curves calculated using rate constants obtained by fitting their histograms to corresponding models (blue lines for a–d; blue, green and red lines for e). “n” attached to each inset indicates the total number of observed events. (a) Histogram (gray bars) for lifetime of Type I football and the best result of its fitting to a single-exponential function (blue line). (b) Histogram (gray bars) for lifetime of Type II football and the best result of its fitting to a sequential two-step reaction model (blue line). (c) Histogram (gray bars) for lifetime of Type I bullet and the best result of its fitting to a single-exponential function (blue line). (d) Histogram (gray bars) for lifetime of Type II bullet and the best result of its fitting to a single-exponential function (blue line). (e) Histogram (gray bars) for residence time of GroES and the best result of its fitting to a sequential four-step reaction model (solid and dashed red lines). The dashed red lines show the best result of fitting performed under the restriction of $k_3 = k^{B-I}$ and $k_4 = k^{F-I}$, while the solid red lines show the best result of fitting performed without restriction. The green and blue lines show the best results obtained when the histogram for residence time of GroES was fitted to sequential two-step and three-step reaction models, respectively. The inset (right) shows the initial lag-time phase of the cumulated number of GroES dissociation events.](image-url)
when considering the presence of Type II process. This discrepancy is due to the limited time of observation of the reaction cycle (Note S2).

Type I football could possibly be classified into two subtypes responsible for the formation of Type I and Type II bullet complexes, but it is not the case. This is because the rate of first-order transition from Type I football to Type II bullet was nearly identical to that of Type I football to Type I bullet (Fig. S1). This conclusion was also supported by the fact that both Type I and Type II bullets are formed after Type II football, with respective probabilities similar to those of the occurrence of Type I and Type II bullets after Type I football (probabilities: \( \frac{449}{671} \approx 0.67 \) for Type I bullet formation, and \( \frac{222}{671} \approx 0.33 \) for Type II bullet formation). In fact, the numbers of events that Type II process occurred by \( n \)-times in succession were \( \mathcal{N}_2 = 172 \), \( \mathcal{N}_3 = 53 \), and \( \mathcal{N}_4 = 15 \), where \( \mathcal{N}_n (n = 2–4) \) represents the total number of Type I and Type II bullet complexes formed after Type II football in the \((n - 1)\)th round. Thus, the probability of going through Type II process is approximately kept constant at \( \approx 0.33 \), regardless of the number of successive rounds of Type II process. As such, the two types of bullet complexes always occur with respective constant probabilities, after either type of football complex.

**Kinetic reaction scheme**

From the results above and the analyses described below, the reaction scheme for GroEL–GroES interaction in the steady-state ATPase cycle was constructed (Fig. 4). The reaction cycle proceeds through two distinct main and side pathways, where Type I and Type II footballs are formed, respectively. Branching into the two pathways occurs at and is determined by the bullet complexes. The main pathway is consistent with a symmetric chaperonin cycle as proposed previously [24]. In contrast, in the side pathway, the product formed by the decay of Type II football is in the same cis/trans-ring arrangement as that of the previous bullet complex; that is, the GroES that has been bound until the reaction reaches the branching point is kept attached during the entire period of the side pathway. Therefore, its residence time, \( \approx 7.5 \) s (or longer when the reaction proceeds in succession to the side pathway), is significantly longer than that in the main pathway, \( \approx 4.4 \) s. On contrary, the residence time of the second bound GroES (\( \approx 2.6 \) s) in the side pathway, which is identical to the lifetime of Type II football, is significantly shorter than the residence times of the early bound GroES (\( \approx 7.5 \) s) and the bound GroES in the main cycle (\( \approx 4.4 \) s).

From the values obtained above for \( k_{F-1}, k_{B-1}, k_{F-II}, k_{F-II}' \), and \( k_{B-II} \) and from the probability of occurrence of Type II bullet, \( r \approx 1/3 \), we obtained the average cycle time of GroEL–GroES interaction, \( \langle T_c \rangle \approx 6.33 \) s, in a way described in Note S3. Supposing that 14 ATP molecules are hydrolyzed per GroEL molecule during \( \langle T_c \rangle \), the steady-state ATPase activity is estimated to be \( 2.2 \) s\(^{-1}\) per GroEL molecule. This estimated value is somewhat larger
than but similar to the value of 1.5 s$^{-1}$ per GroEL molecule measured biochemically for GroEL–GroES in the presence of an unfoldable substrate protein, α-lactalbumin [38], the same substrate protein used in the present study.

Type II football in the side pathway shown in pale colors (Fig. 4) indicates an intermediate state that is distinct from Type II football initially formed upon GroES binding. The existence of this intermediate state was deduced from the histogram for lifetime of Type II football as mentioned above (Fig. 3b). Type I football shown in pale colors (Fig. 4) is discussed in the next section.

Kinetics undergone by bound GroES in the main pathway

Previous single-molecule fluorescence microscopy measurements have shown that dissociation of GroES from a GroEL ring occurs in two steps, through the formation of one kinetic intermediate [36,39]. In these studies, however, measurements were performed under the condition that only one GroES was bound to GroEL (i.e., at a low concentration of GroES, 4 nM). Here, we examined the kinetics undergone by a bound GroES in the main circular pathway under the condition that the football complexes are predominantly formed in the presence of 1 μM GroES. Figure 3e shows a histogram for the residence time of GroES. As was the case with the previous studies, the distribution of the residence time showed a maximum, but it significantly deviated from the curve best fitted to a sequential two-step reaction ($\chi^2 = 1.51, p = 0.016$; Fig. 3e, green lines). For details of the residence time analysis, see Notes S4 and S5. It would be most plausible that before the final dissociation, the bound GroES simply undergoes the first football complex, the subsequent bullet complex and the second football complex in this order. However, the histogram largely deviates from the corresponding curve (Fig. S2). A deviation was also noticed, although to a lesser extent, even when the histogram was fitted to a sequential three-step reaction without restriction ($\chi^2 = 0.92, p = 0.60$), as depicted in the cumulated number of GroES dissociation events (Fig. 3e, blue lines). In this fitting (Fig. 3e, right, blue line), a significant advancement is evident at the initial phase in the lag period, compared to the experimental data (Fig. 3e, right, black dots). Therefore, we postulate that the bound GroES undergoes three intermediates (besides the initial football complex) before its dissociation. The histogram was well fitted to a curve for a sequential four-step reaction with rate constants of $k_1 = 0.92$ s$^{-1}$, $k_2 = 0.90$ s$^{-1}$, $k_3 = 2.81$ s$^{-1}$, and $k_4 = 0.51$ s$^{-1}$ ($\chi^2 = 0.70, p = 0.90$) (Fig. 3e, solid red lines). The cycle time of the main pathway calculated from the values of these four rate constants and $k^{B\text{-}I}$ becomes 4.89 s, which is very close to that calculated from the values of $k^{B\text{-}I}$ and $k^{F\text{-}I}$, that is, $2 \times (1/k^{B\text{-}I} + 1/k^{B\text{-}I}) = 4.80$ s.

However, precisely determining the four rate constants from one histogram is difficult. In addition, the histogram does not tell the order of reactions corresponding to these four rate constants. Therefore, we constructed a sequential four-step reaction model by considering several issues and reassessing the histogram under plausible restrictions, as described below. First, the values of $k_3 = 2.81$ s$^{-1}$ and $k_4 = 0.51$ s$^{-1}$ are similar to the values of $k^{B\text{-}I} = 2.75$ s$^{-1}$ and $k^{F\text{-}I} = 0.49$ s$^{-1}$, respectively, indicating that the reaction step corresponding to $k_3$ occurs at decay of the bullet complex, while the reaction step corresponding to $k_4$ occurs at decay of either the initial or final football. Moreover, the sum of the values of $1/k_1$ and $1/k_2$, ~2.2 s approximately coincides with $1/k^{F\text{-}I}$ (~2.04 s). It is well known that substrate protein is encapsulated into the internal cavity of GroEL after the binding of ATP and GroES to the trans-ring, which instantly induces movement of the apical domain of the newly formed cis-ring. This apical movement has been reported to occur in 0.56–1.47 s (rate constant, 0.68–1.8 s$^{-1}$) after ATP addition, depending on the particular substrate protein [40]. Since the values of $k_1$ and $k_2$ are in this range, either $k_1$ or $k_2$ is very likely to represent the rate of encapsulation. Therefore, two successive reaction steps corresponding to $k_1$ and $k_2$ occur during the decay of the initial football complex (see Fig. 4), and the rate constant $k_3$ can now be assigned to the rate of final dissociation of the second bound GroES (at the decay of the last football complex). However, the dissociation of another (i.e., early bound) GroES from the initial football occurs in one step, suggesting that this GroES dissociation occurs in parallel to the encapsulation reaction and the subsequent unspecified reaction (corresponding to either $k_1$ or $k_2$) occurring in the opposite ring. Because of $1/k_1 + 1/k_2 \approx 1/k^{F\text{-}I}$, completion of this unspecified reaction must be synchronized with the dissociation of the early bound GroES. Therefore, the encapsulation reaction and the apical domain movement do not seem to affect the counter ring. Collectively, we conclude that after GroES binds to a GroEL ring, this GroES undergoes the football complex (depicted in pale colors in Fig. 4), the subsequent bullet complex and the last football complex in this order. Following this scheme, we reassessed the histogram for the residence time of GroES under the restriction of $1/k_1 + 1/k_2 = 1/k^{F\text{-}I}$, $k_3 = k^{B\text{-}I}$, and $k_4 = k^{F\text{-}I}$, resulting in $k_1 = 1.14$ s$^{-1}$ and $k_2 = 0.87$ s$^{-1}$ ($\chi^2 = 0.73, p = 0.88$). The fitting curve obtained by this reassessment (Fig. 3e, dashed red lines) was nearly indistinguishable from the initial one (Fig. 3e, solid red lines). Note that $k_1 = 1.14$ s$^{-1}$ is identical to the value of $k^{F\text{-}I}$. 
**Discussion**

The acquired HS-AFM images of GroEL–GroES interaction in the presence of α-lactalbumin indisputably displayed that the football complexes are indeed primarily formed during the repeated reaction cycles. Moreover, the HS-AFM images showed that in the main pathway, the two rings of GroEL operate alternately as previously postulated [21,24,25]. Cooperative interactions between the two rings must govern this cyclic, alternate operation. In a prevailing view [2,4], a negative, cooperative effect between the two rings has been considered to inhibit ATP binding to the trans-ring until one ATP turnover is completed in the cis-ring, resulting in exclusive formation of the bullet complexes in the reaction cycle. Our results are inconsistent with this view. However, this prevailing view has now been somewhat modified by a recent fluorescence cross-correlation spectroscopy study [38]. This study showed that symmetric and asymmetric complexes are formed by 54% (close to our observation of 67%) and 23%, respectively, in the presence of unfoldable substrate proteins α-lactalbumin and α-casein, whereas in the presence of foldable substrate proteins, symmetric complexes are formed by less than 10% [38]. In the near future, this dependence on substrate proteins should be further assessed using different methods including HS-AFM because the formation of football complexes with populations much larger than 10% has been reported even in the presence of foldable substrate proteins [17–23,26,27]. In another model, although in the case of the absence of substrate protein, ADP dissociation from the trans-ring has been considered to limit the reaction cycle, resulting in the accumulation of bullet complexes. In fact, when ATP and ADP coexist in solution, ADP has been shown to be bound to the trans-ring [20,41]. Moreover, it has been shown that even after the detachment of GroES from the cis-ring, ADP resides in the same ring [42,43]. However, in a related model, this negative cooperativity effect on the ADP release from the trans-ring has been considered to be weakened by substrate protein bound to the same ring. Therefore, binding of ATP and GroES to the trans-ring is accelerated [24,41], and hence, the football complex is considered to be formed during the chaperonin cycle [22,25].

However, as shown in our HS-AFM observation, Type I bullet stays for $1/k_{\text{off}}^{\text{trans}} \sim 0.36 \text{s}$ even in the presence of substrate protein and 1 μM GroES. This lifetime is much longer than the time required for GroES binding to the ATP-bound trans-ring, considering the second-order rate constant for GroES binding in the presence of substrate protein, $1–3 \times 10^7 \text{M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$ [40] and the GroES concentration used here. As such, regarding ADP dissociation, negative cooperativity still effectively acts on the trans-ring even in the presence of substrate protein. This suppression of ADP release in the asymmetric bullet complex is reminiscent of the hand-over-hand movement of myosin V on actin; its identical two heads alternately take the leading and trailing positions. This alternate process is made possible by strain-mediated suppression of ADP release from the leading head [30,44]. Therefore, suppression of ADP release in an asymmetric structure seems to be a common strategy for alternate operation of two-engine ATPase systems.

In the main pathway (see Fig. 4), after binding to the trans-ring of GroEL, the bound GroES undergoes three intermediates before dissociation (besides the initial football complex itself), as revealed by its residence time analysis. Two of the three intermediates are Type I bullet and the last football complex. This coincidence of the intermediate species indicates that the two rings communicate with each other in these two intermediate states. In Type I bullet, a negative cooperativity effect exists, as mentioned above. In the final football complex, a positive cooperativity effect that induces the final dissociation of the GroES must also exist. In order for this positive cooperative effect to engender, a certain reaction must have proceeded in the opposite ring until or just before the final dissociation of the bound GroES. During this period, encapsulation of substrate protein into the cavity occurs in the new cis-ring but does not seem to affect the opposite ring because the encapsulation occurs earlier than the final dissociation of GroES and because this dissociation occurs in one step. The rate of ATP hydrolysis to ADP–Pi in the presence of foldable substrate proteins has been reported to be in the range of $0.31 \text{s}^{-1} – 0.36 \text{s}^{-1}$ [39,45]. Taking into account the higher ATPase activities of GroEL in the presence of unfoldable substrate proteins [38], the value of $k_{\text{off}}^{\text{trans}}$ (0.49 s$^{-1}$) can be considered to correspond to the rate of ATP hydrolysis into ADP–Pi. Therefore, we propose that ATP hydrolysis in the new cis-ring triggers Pi release and hence final dissociation of GroES from the opposite ring. However, this proposition appears inconsistent with a previous view that the binding of ATP to the trans ring (not ATP hydrolysis) triggers GroES dissociation from the cis ring, or the binding of both ATP and substrate protein synergistically triggers it [14,15]. Nonetheless, this view has been gained for the chaperonin cycle where bullet complexes are predominantly or exclusively formed in the presence of foldable substrate proteins. Therefore, the inter-ring coupling for GroES dissociation may possibly depend on the type of substrate proteins.

To understand the cause of branching into the side pathway, we summarize its major properties: (i) The early bound GroES never dissociates; rather, the newly bound GroES dissociates at the exit of the side pathway; (ii) The formation of Type II bullet leads to the side pathway; (iii) The bullet complex
formed at the exit of the side pathway can proceed to either pathway; (iv) The probabilities of branching into the main and side pathways (~2/3 and ~1/3, respectively) cannot be accounted for by the rate constants $k^{B-I} = 2.75 \text{ s}^{-1}$ and $k^{B-II} = 2.02 \text{ s}^{-1}$; (v) The rate of Type II football formation (2.02 s$^{-1}$) is smaller than that of Type I football formation (2.75 s$^{-1}$); (vi) Type II football decays in two steps, whereas Type I football decays in one step; (vii) Type II football has a moderately longer lifetime (~2.6 s) than Type I football (~2.04 s); and (viii) Importantly, the side pathway occurs even in the absence of substrate protein (Fig. 5).

It has been postulated that the substrate protein initially tethered to the apical domain of GroEL would have two or three different fates [46,47]. However, these fates have nothing to do with the pathway branching (Note S6) because the side pathway occurs even in the absence of substrate protein. Although there is no direct evidence at this stage, we consider that the incomplete exchange of nucleotide at the trans-ring may cause sidetracking into the side pathway, while complete exchange of seven ADPs with seven ATPs assures the GroE system to go through the main pathway. In bullet complexes, the rate of ADP dissociation from the trans-ring is suppressed, as described above. This suppression provides an enough time for the substrate protein to be released from the trans-ring but in turn could possibly cause frequent, incomplete nucleotide replacement at the trans-ring, which would direct the reaction process toward the side pathway. This hypothesis is consistent with partial stochasticity of ATP hydrolysis, as suggested by a previous study [25], and with all the observed properties of Type II process. For example, the partially remained ADP should somewhat reduce the affinity of the trans-ring for GroES, which is consistent with the smaller rate constant $k^{B-II} = 2.02 \text{ s}^{-1}$ than $k^{B-I} = 2.75 \text{ s}^{-1}$. This weaker GroEL–GroES association would possibly reduce the rate of ATP hydrolysis to ADP–Pi in the new cis-ring, consistent with the longer lifetime of Type II football than Type I football. Moreover, the hydrolysis of reduced number of ATP molecules in the new cis-ring must significantly reduce its positive cooperative effect on the dissociation of the early bound GroES from the opposite ring, which is consistent with the fact that in the side pathway, the early bound GroES never dissociates.

**Materials and Methods**

**Proteins**

The D490C GroEL was produced by site-directed mutagenesis. D490C GroEL and wild-type GroES were expressed in *E. coli* XL1-Blue and purified as described.

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**Fig. 5.** Successive HS-AFM images showing dynamic GroEL–GroES interaction in the absence of substrate protein. The numbers shown are the frame number. As indicated at frame 102, the polarity of the bullet complex is unchanged from the previous bullet (frame 89) after a round of dissociation and association of GroES. Although not shown in this figure, 7 out of 47 total GroES binding and release events observed showed the formation of Type II football. The imaging was performed 22 °C in a solution containing 25 mM Hepes-KOH, 100 mM KCl and 5 mM MgCl$_2$, 1 μM GroES, 2 mM ATP, and 2 mM DTT. Imaging rate, ~4 fps; imaging area, 95 × 41 nm$^2$. 
previously [48]. Purified D490C GroEL was labeled with biotin by the reaction with biotin-PEAC-maleimide for 30 min at 25 °C as described [35]. The molar ratio of biotin introduced per GroEL subunit was determined to be 0.8 using 4′-hydroxyazobenzene-2-carboxylic acid (Wako Chemicals, Osaka) [49]. Streptavidin and α-lactalbumin were purchased (Wako Chemicals, Osaka and Nacalai Tesque, Kyoto, respectively).

Streptavidin 2D crystals

Streptavidin 2D crystals were prepared on the surface of mica-supported lipid planar bilayer containing biotin-lipid, as described [35]. Briefly, the mica-supported lipid bilayer was first obtained by a vesicle fusion method. After washing the excess lipids, crystallization of streptavidin was performed by deposition of streptavidin (0.2 mg/ml) dissolved in crystallization buffer (10 mM HEPES-KOH, 150 mM NaCl, and 2 mM CaCl2 (pH 7.4)) on the lipid bilayer surface, followed by incubation for 2 h. Then, the streptavidin 2D crystals were chemically stabilized by the application of 10 mM glutaraldehyde mixed with the crystallization buffer. After 5 min of incubation, the reaction was quenched using 20 mM Tris added to the crystallization buffer.

HS-AFM

Observations were carried out in amplitude modulation mode using a laboratory-built HS-AFM setup [28,29]. Small cantilevers used are custom made by Olympus (spring constant of 0.1 N/m and the first resonant frequency of 0.8 MHz in water). Sharp tips were fabricated on the original tip by electron beam deposition and then by argon-plasma etching. The biotinylated D490C GroEL diluted to 25 nM was applied to the streptavidin 2D crystals. After 3 min of incubation, unattached GroEL was washed out with buffer. HS-AFM imaging was performed at an imaging rate of ~4 fps at 22 °C in a solution containing 25 mM HEPES-KOH, 100 mM KCl and 5 mM MgCl2, 1 μM GroES, 1 μM bovine α-lactalbumin, 2 mM ATP, and 2 mM DTT. For HS-AFM imaging in the absence of substrate protein shown in Fig. 5, bovine α-lactalbumin was omitted from the solution.

Data analyses

The species of GroEL–GroES complexes were able to be identified by visual inspection of HS-AFM images, thanks to the high-resolution images. The analyses of lifetimes of the bullet and football complexes and the residence time of bound GroES were performed with a software program constructed using Mathematica 10.2 (Wolfram Research, Illinois). The histograms for lifetime of Type I football were fitted to an equation for a sequential two-step reaction (Note S1). The residence time of bound GroES in the main pathway was fitted to equations for sequential two-step, three-step, or four-step reactions (Note S2). The fitting results were also depicted with curves obtained by using corresponding equations for the cumulated number of events that occur during the period from Δt to nΔt, where n is the integer and Δt is the frame time of imaging (Note S4). This depiction provides better inspection of the fitting results than the use of curves for lifetime or residence time distribution. The details of data analysis for sequential three- and four-step reactions are described in Note S5.

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jmb.2016.06.017.

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Abbreviations used:
HS-AFM, high-speed atomic force microscopy; 2D, two-dimensional.

References


