Identification of a Protein Mediating Respiratory Supercomplex Stability

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SUMMARY

The complexes of the electron transport chain associate into large macromolecular assemblies, which are believed to facilitate efficient electron flow. We have identified a conserved mitochondrial protein, named respiratory supercomplex factor 1 (Rcf1—Yml030w), that is required for the normal assembly of respiratory supercomplexes. We demonstrate that Rcf1 stably and independently associates with both Complex III and Complex IV of the electron transport chain. Deletion of the RCF1 gene caused impaired respiration, probably as a result of destabilization of respiratory supercomplexes. Consistent with the hypothetical function of these respiratory assemblies, loss of RCF1 caused elevated mitochondrial oxidative stress and damage. Finally, we show that knockdown of HIG2A, a mammalian homolog of RCF1, causes impaired supercomplex formation. We suggest that Rcf1 is a member of an evolutionarily conserved protein family that acts to promote respiratory supercomplex assembly and activity.

INTRODUCTION

Mitochondria are unique and complex organelles that perform essential functions in many aspects of cell biology. It is not surprising, therefore, that mitochondrial dysfunction is associated with many forms of human disease. This includes relatively common disorders, such as cancer (Kroemer and Poussegur, 2008), diabetes (Patti and Corvera, 2010), and neurodegenerative disease (Lessing and Bonini, 2009). Beyond these common disorders, which are all age-related, mitochondrial dysfunction is thought to derive from the physical proximity of the electron transport chain (ETC) and the mtDNA. The ETC is the major source of reactive oxygen species (ROS) in most cells. This ROS load is then in immediate proximity to the mtDNA, which is highly sensitive to mutagenic insult. Mutated mtDNA is then postulated to be a causal factor in further ETC dysfunction, leading to a vicious cycle of ROS production (Wallace, 2005). The challenge for the ETC is to conduct reactive electrons via soluble carriers, through three distinct multiprotein complexes, to oxygen. When this conductive process is disturbed, the risk of ROS production increases. Because this oxidative stress/ETC/aging axis is of such relevance to human disease, it is of great importance to understand the mechanisms that have evolved to prevent inappropriate ROS production. One biochemical phenomenon that has been postulated to control ETC malfunction and prevent mitochondrial ROS production is the assembly of the individual ETC complexes into massive conduction machines called respiratory supercomplexes (Cruciat et al., 2000; Lenaz and Genova, 2009).

The clear importance of mitochondria has led to extensive efforts to define the mitochondrial proteome in many species. The best current inventory of mammalian mitochondrial-resident proteins consists of 1,098 proteins (Pagliarini et al., 2008). Surprisingly, nearly 300 of these proteins are largely or completely unstudied (Pagliarini et al., 2008). Included among this number are many that are conserved throughout the eukaryotic kingdom. Such conservation implies that they perform a function that is of fundamental importance for cell viability. As a result, we initiated a project to identify the functions of a subset of these highly and evolutionarily conserved but uncharacterized mitochondrial proteins. We previously described the function of SDH5/SDHAF2, which is required for assembly of ETC Complex II and is mutated in multiple families afflicted with the paraganglioma tumor syndrome (Bayley et al., 2010; Hao et al., 2009). We also described Vms1, which plays an important role in stress-responsive recruitment of the ubiquitin-proteasome machinery to mitochondria for protein degradation (Heo et al., 2010).

Herein, we describe the function of Rcf1, which we show is a stable component of ETC supercomplexes and is required for their normal stability. In Saccharomyces cerevisiae, ETC supercomplexes are assemblies in the mitochondrial inner membrane that contain, among other proteins, both cytochrome bc1 complex (Complex III) and cytochrome c oxidase complex (Complex IV) and perhaps Complex II as well (Stuart, 2008). In mammals, supercomplexes often also contain Complex I...
These huge macromolecular assemblies are believed to enable more efficient electron flow between complexes and to promote complex stability (Suthammarak et al., 2010). This efficiency is believed to reduce electron loss from ETC and ROS generation (Genova et al., 2008). Not surprisingly, we show that the \( rcf1 \) mutant, which exhibits decreased supercomplex assembly, has increased mitochondrial oxidative damage. We also show that knockdown of \( HIG2A \), one of the mammalian orthologs of \( RCF1 \), impairs supercomplex assembly in mouse cells. We, therefore, speculate that the \( RCF1 \) gene family plays an evolutionarily conserved role in maintaining mitochondrial function through the optimal assembly of electron transport chain complexes. Thereby, it might be a component of the cellular system to delay ROS-induced and age-associated degeneration.

**RESULTS**

**Rcf1 Is an Integral Mitochondrial Inner Membrane Protein Required for Normal Respiration**

Using the yeast \( S. \ Ceriseviiae \) as the primary model system, we first verified mitochondrial localization of the Rcf1 (Yml030w/Aim31) protein using two complementary methods. First, we generated a strain expressing an Rcf1-GFP fusion protein from the native promoter, which is fully functional as assessed by suppression of the \( rcf1 \) phenotype (data not shown). This strain was cotransformed with a plasmid expressing a mitochondria-targeted red fluorescent protein (MtRFP). As seen in Figure 1A, we observed complete overlap between the mitochondrial RFP signal and the Rcf1-GFP signal. Under no conditions did we find extramitochondrial GFP fluorescence.

In parallel, we also biochemically examined the localization of the Rcf1 (Yml030w/Aim31) protein using two
Upon biochemical fractionation, Rcf1-His$_6$/HA$_3$ was detected in the whole-cell lysate, but was essentially absent from the post-mitochondrial supernatant (Figure 1B). The purified mitochondria fraction was subjected to either proteinase K digestion with or without swelling to rupture the outer membrane (mitoplasts) or with Triton X-100 to rupture all membranes. Rcf1 was partially degraded in mitoplasts and was completely degraded upon Triton X-100 treatment. This pattern is similar to that observed for Cox2, which is an integral protein of the mitochondrial inner membrane (Figure 1B). Independently, we found that this same Rcf1 fusion protein was stably associated with mitochondrial membranes even following high salt and bicarbonate extraction (Figure 1C). This is consistent with the bioinformatic prediction that Rcf1 and its relatives have two transmembrane domains and are therefore likely to be integral membrane proteins (Figure S1A available online). Taken together, these results suggest that Rcf1 is an integral protein of the mitochondrial inner membrane that is required for normal respiratory activity.

Rcf1 Stably Associates with Complex III and Complex IV of the Electron Transport Chain

To determine the biochemical mechanism that underlies the role of Rcf1 in mitochondrial respiration, we identified proteins associated with Rcf1-His$_6$/HA$_3$ expressed at endogenous levels. After two-step purification, we observed at least nine discrete bands, which were absent in the empty vector negative control (Figure 2A). These bands primarily contained subunits of either Complex III or Complex IV from the electron transport chain (Figure 2A and Table S1). Together, these results demonstrate that Rcf1 is an integral protein of the mitochondrial inner membrane that is required for normal respiratory activity.

To begin to understand the role of Rcf1 in mitochondrial function, we generated an rcf1$\Delta$ mutant and subjected it to growth assays in comparison to a wild-type (WT) strain. The rcf1$\Delta$ mutant exhibited impaired growth on all nonfermentable carbon sources tested, including acetate (Figure 1D). This phenotype was exacerbated when the experiment was conducted at 37°C (Figure 1D, bottom), consistent with a destabilization of proteins or protein complexes in the rcf1$\Delta$ mutant. This slow-growth phenotype on nonfermentable carbon sources is consistent with a partial failure in respiration in the rcf1$\Delta$ mutant. To directly assess respiration, we measured oxygen consumption in the WT and rcf1$\Delta$ mutant strains. The rcf1$\Delta$ mutant had roughly 30% of WT oxygen consumption on glucose medium and substantial respiratory defects on lactate and glycerol medium (Figures 1E and S1B). Together, these results demonstrate that Rcf1 is an integral protein of the mitochondrial inner membrane that is required for normal respiratory activity.

Rcf1 Physically Interacts with Respiratory Complex III and IV

(A) Mitochondria from an EV-containing WT strain or an rcf1$\Delta$ mutant strain expressing Rcf1-His$_6$/HA$_3$ were subjected to two-step purification. The final eluate was analyzed by silver staining. Discrete bands were excised and the protein identity was determined by mass spectrometry as indicated in the text. (B) Digitonin-solubilized mitochondria extracted from yeast strains either expressing Rcf1-His$_6$/HA$_3$ (+) or not (-) were immunoprecipitated using anti-HA antibody. One percent of the mitochondrial lysate and the final eluate were immunoblotted using anti-Cor1 & Qcr2, Cox1, Cox2, Cox3, Cox4, and HA antibodies. * indicates IgG light chain.

(C) Rcf1-His$_6$/HA$_3$ was purified from digitonin and DDM-solubilized mitochondria, respectively. The final eluate was visualized by silver stain, and protein identities were determined by mass spectrometry. Cox3 is indicated based on SDS-PAGE/western blot because it was not detected by mass spectrometry.

(D) Mitochondria extracted from a strain harboring a plasmid expressing Rcf1 or Rcf1-His$_6$/HA$_3$ were solubilized by digitonin or DDM and subjected to BN-PAGE/western blot. Rcf1, Complex III, and Complex IV were immunoblotted by anti-HA, Cor1 & Qcr2, and Cox2 antibodies, respectively.
components of both Complex III and Complex IV with Rcf1 was confirmed using immunoprecipitation of the Rcf1-His6/HA3 fusion protein (Figure 2B). Note that we observed a clear interaction with Cox3. Perhaps due to its sequence and chemical properties, Cox3 was not detected by mass spectrometry of the Rcf1 eluate (Table S1).

It is well known that Complex III and Complex IV physically associate with one another, forming respiratory supercomplexes (Schägger and Pfeiffer, 2000; Wittig and Schägger, 2009). Therefore, it was not surprising that those two complexes simultaneously copurify with Rcf1. To further explore the interrelationships between Rcf1, Complex III, and Complex IV, we repeated the Rcf1-His6/HA3 purification experiment using both digitonin-solubilized and dodecylmaltoside (DDM)-solubilized mitochondria. Although we again observed the same set of Complex III and Complex IV subunits in the digitonin sample, the Complex III subunits did not copurify with Rcf1-His6/HA3 in the DDM-solubilized sample (Figure 2C). Digitation has been shown to be mild enough to maintain Complex III/Complex IV associations in III2/IV2 supercomplexes, whereas detergent condition but loses the association with Complex III in DDM.

This pattern of associations between Rcf1 and the ETC complexes suggested two possibilities. One possible interpretation is that Rcf1 associates directly with Complex IV and the copurification with Complex III is indirect, occurring via the Complex III/Complex IV interaction. The other possibility is that Rcf1 interacts with both complexes independently, perhaps even serving as a contact point between the two complexes. To systematically address this question, we monitored the association between Rcf1 and Complex III subunits (Cor1, Qcr2, and Cyt1) and between Rcf1 and Complex IV subunits (Cox1, Cox2, Cox3, and Cox4) in mutants that lead to the loss of either Complex III or Complex IV (Figure 3A). The copurification of Complex IV with Rcf1 in DDM conditions was recapitulated in this assay. A qcr7Δ mutant causes severe failure of Complex III assembly and Rcf1 shows no association with Cor1 or Qcr2 in this mutant (Figures 3A, lane 11, and 3B, lane 20), even though both Cor1 and Qcr2 are present in the mitochondrial lysate (Figures 3A, lane 3, and 3B, lane 10).
Interestingly, deletion of QCR7 does not destroy the interaction between Rcf1 and Cyt1, raising the possibility that Rcf1 might be associated more closely with Cyt1 than Cor1 or Qcr2. As expected, deletion of CYT1 also leads to the loss of Rcf1 interaction with Cor1 and Qcr2 (Figure 3A, lane 12). In both of these mutants, however, the Rcf1 interactions with Cox1, Cox2, Cox3, and Cox4 were maintained. For Cox1, Cox2, and Cox4, Rcf1 interactions were compromised but remained significantly above background. Interestingly, the Rcf1/Cox3 interaction was not negatively affected by either the qcr7Δ or cyt1Δ mutations, suggesting that it might be more proximal to the Rcf1 interaction site than Cox1, Cox2, or Cox4. These data demonstrate that Rcf1 interacts stably with Complex IV even in the absence of association with Complex III.

The more interesting question, however, is whether Rcf1 maintains an association with Complex III in the absence of Complex IV. To address this question, we monitored association between Rcf1 and Complex III subunits in four different mutants lacking properly assembled Complex IV. They each lead to distinct defects in the expression, translation, or assembly of different Complex IV subunits. Deletion of COX11, which encodes a Cox1 assembly factor, causes impaired synthesis of Cox1 (Barrientos et al., 2004; Horng et al., 2004). Pet494 and Mss51 are translational activators of COX3 and COX1, respectively, and their deletion causes loss of their respective target (Costanzo and Fox, 1986; Perez-Martinez et al., 2003). Cox6 is a Complex IV subunit that might play a role in oxygen sensing and is indispensable for the stability and activity of Complex IV (Wright et al., 1995). None of these mutants has intact, properly assembled Complex IV. In all cases, however, Cor1, Qcr2, and Cyt1 copurified with Rcf1, albeit at a reduced level compared to the WT strain (Figure 3A, lanes 13–16). As observed earlier, we again saw that Cox3 maintained an association with Rcf1 when other Complex IV subunits did not. In spite of this, depletion of Cox3 by mutation of PET494 did not prevent the association of Rcf1 with Complex III subunits (Figure 3A, lane 15). Even after a stringent two-step purification, the same results were obtained for the WT, qcr7Δ, and cox11Δ strains (Figures S2A and S2B).

The recent publication of higher resolution structures of respiratory supercomplexes (Alhoff et al., 2011; Dudkina et al., 2011) has provided some insight into the more intimate relationship between Rcf1 and Cox3. These structures show that Cox3, Cox7, and Cox13 comprise the majority of the interface with Complex III. As shown above, loss of Cox3 failed to abolish the ability of Rcf1 to coprecipitate Complex III subunits (Figure 3B, lane 17). Additionally, neither loss of Cox7 or Cox13 abrogated the Rcf1/Complex III interaction (Figure 3B, lanes 18 and 19). Unlike the other Complex IV mutants, the cox13Δ mutant had no deleterious effect on the Rcf1 interaction with either Complex III subunits (Cor1, Qcr2, and Cyt1) or Complex IV subunits (Cox2 and Cox3). Therefore, even the loss of those proteins that are likely to be most intimately associated with Rcf1 within Complex IV doesn’t abolish the Rcf1 interaction with Cor1, Qcr2, and Cyt1. Although it is possible that subcomplexes of Complex IV remain in any one of these mutants and could mediate the interaction between Rcf1 and Complex III, it is unlikely that the same subcomplex bearing that bridging activity is found in each of these many mutants. We therefore conclude that Rcf1 has the rather unusual property of interacting directly with components of Complex III and Complex IV, independent of association with the other.

Rcf1 Promotes the Stability of Complex III/Complex IV Supercomplexes

If Rcf1 interacts directly with both Complex III and Complex IV and, therefore, serves as a point of contact between the two complexes, it is possible that an rcf1Δ mutant might exhibit defects in their association. BN-PAGE analysis was conducted on the WT and rcf1Δ mutant grown in raffinose medium to induce mitochondrial biogenesis. As assessed by α-Cor1/Qcr2 immunoblot, Complex III migration in the WT strain was almost completely as the Complex III2/IV2 tetramer (Figure 4A, left). A small amount of the III2/IV complex was observed, but we detected no free Complex III. Complex III in the rcf1Δ mutant, however, showed a loss of association with Complex IV. There was a shift from the fully assembled III2/IV2 complex toward the III2/IV complex and some free III2 dimer was detected. Examination of Complex IV (Cox3 immunoblot) showed a similar loss of the III2/IV2 complex and an increase in the III2/IV complex and free Complex IV in the rcf1Δ mutant (Figure 4A, middle). A similar phenotype was observed for the rcf1Δ mutant in stationary phase cultures grown in glucose (Figure S3A). Again, we observed a shift from the fully assembled III2/IV2 complex toward the III2/IV and III2 complexes. We detected free Complex IV in the WT strain that was decreased in the rcf1Δ mutant, raising the possibility that Complex IV might be less stable to BN-PAGE analysis under some conditions in the absence of Rcf1. This appears to not be general, however, because we observed increased free Complex IV in the rcf1Δ mutant grown in raffinose medium (Figure 4A). The migration of Complex V was unaffected by loss of Rcf1 (Figure S3A). In both raffinose and glucose cultures, these effects on supercomplex organization occurred in the absence of any substantial effect on the steady-state levels of Complex III or Complex IV subunits (Figures 4B and S3B). Although the rcf1Δ mutant may exhibit a defect in Complex IV assembly or stability, these data strongly suggest that there is a specific defect in the Complex III/Complex IV association.

Measurement of complex activity following BN-PAGE was consistent with these results. As expected, Complex V/ATP synthase exhibited normal activity in the rcf1Δ mutant (Figures S3C and S4C). Total Complex IV activity was decreased in the rcf1Δ mutant, and this impairment was due primarily to a loss of activity in the III2/IV2 complex (Figures S3C and S4C). The loss of Complex IV activity could be due to an intrinsic defect in Complex IV or to loss of association with Complex III, which has been shown to result in Complex IV defects in mammalian systems (Acín-Pérez et al., 2008; Gil Borlido et al., 2010). Quantitative assays confirmed these results and also showed that Complex III activity is unaffected by deletion of RCF1 (Figure 4C). We also noticed a slight but reproducible defect in the activity of Complex II in the rcf1Δ mutant (Figure S3C), possibly indicating that the interactions between Rcf1 and Complex II subunits (Table S1) have functional importance.

Rcf1 doesn’t appear to be a stoichiometric constituent of the Complex III/Complex IV supercomplex. When we immunoprecipitate Rcf1, we coprecipitate a smaller amount of both
Complex III subunits (Cor1, Qcr2, and Cyt1) and Complex IV subunits (Cox1, Cox2, Cox3, and Cox4) than when we immunoprecipitate a typical Complex IV subunit, Cox4 (Figure S3D). Based on that and its apparent function, we reasoned that overexpression of Rcf1 might increase the amount of respiratory supercomplexes. As seen in Figure 4D, expression of Rcf1 from a multicopy 2μ plasmid caused a subtle shift in the Complex IV migration pattern in cells grown in raffinose. Free Complex IV was lost and both the III2IV and III2IV2 complexes were increased in abundance, indicating that increased Rcf1 dosage can promote supercomplex formation. Although subtle, this effect is reproducible under distinct growth conditions—stationary phase in glucose medium (Figure S3E).

RCF1 Genetically Interacts with AAC2 and COX13 to Stabilize Respiratory Supercomplexes

Two other molecules have been shown previously to be important for the assembly of respiratory supercomplexes: the lipid cardiolipin and the ADP/ATP translocase Aac2. Loss of either of these molecules was found to destabilize supercomplexes (Dienhart and Stuart, 2008; Zhang et al., 2002). We wanted to examine the genetic relationship between RCF1, AAC2, and the gene encoding cardiolipin synthase CRD1, which is required for cardiolipin synthesis. Therefore, we constructed strains lacking these three genes in all possible combinations and examined their growth under different conditions. The aac2D strain exhibited a complete inability to grow on nonfermentable carbon sources, making it impossible to use such medium to examine respiratory growth (Figure S4A). As an alternative, we examined the survival of these strains in stationary phase, which is also an indicator of respiratory capability (Gray et al., 2004). When grown at 30°C to log phase, all mutants exhibited normal survival (Figure 5A, left panel). Even at day 4 of stationary phase, the three single mutants and the crd1D rcf1D double mutant showed no loss of viability. However, both of the other double mutants showed a substantial defect in survival and the triple-mutant was even more severely affected (Figure 5A, right). When grown at 37°C, the same general pattern was evident, but the synergistic growth defects were more pronounced. These data demonstrated that loss of the RCF1 and CRD1 genes does not
result in a synergistic or even an additive phenotype. One possible explanation is that these two genes act in the same pathway to promote respiration, a conclusion that is supported by biochemical data described below. On the other hand, loss of AAC2 causes a synergistic survival defect with both the rcf1Δ and crd1Δ mutants, a result that is consistent with Aac2 acting in parallel with both Rcf1 and Crd1 to promote supercomplex assembly or stability. Both Aac2 and cardiolipin have significant roles outside of supercomplex stabilization, which makes it difficult to draw mechanistic conclusions from genetic interactions.

To directly assess the assembly and stability of respiratory supercomplexes in these mutants, we subjected the same strains to BN-PAGE analysis after growth in raffinose. As Figure 5 shows...
observed before, the rcf1Δ mutant showed depletion of the III2/IV2 complex, as determined both by Complex III and Complex IV immunoblot (Figure 5C, lanes 2 and 10). The aac2Δ mutant exhibited a very similar phenotype (Figure 5C, lanes 4 and 12). The crd1Δ single mutant showed a stronger defect, with an almost complete absence of the III2/IV2 complex and a significant amount of the IIIΔ and IV species (Figure 5C, lanes 3 and 11). As seen in the growth assays, the crd1Δ rcf1Δ double mutant showed no additive phenotype and was nearly identical to the crd1Δ single mutant (Figure 5C, lanes 5 and 13). The aac2Δ rcf1Δ double mutant on the other hand showed a more substantial loss of the III2/IV2 complex than either single mutant (Figure 5C, lanes 6 and 14). There was a clear synthetic phenotype in the aac2Δ crd1Δ double mutant, which had a nearly complete loss of all supercomplexes (Figure 5C, lanes 7 and 15). Although deletion of AAC2 and CRD1 caused a decrease in the steady-state levels of some Complex IV subunits, deletion of RCF1 caused no effect on any Complex III or Complex IV subunits, even in the context of double mutants that had a synthetic effect on supercomplex organization (Figure S4B). Similar phenotypes were observed in BN-PAGE analysis of these strains, which were grown to stationary phase in glucose (Figure S4C). Another factor that occupies the predicted interface between Complex III and Complex IV is Cox13. In isolation, the cox13Δ mutant exhibits WT growth on both glucose and glycerol/ethanol plates (Figure 5D). The cox13Δ, rcf1Δ double mutant, however, has a more dramatic growth phenotype than the rcf1Δ single mutant when grown under respiratory conditions (Figure 5D). This growth phenotype is accompanied by a severe loss of higher-order respiratory supercomplexes, as determined by BN-PAGE analysis of the strain grown in different conditions. The cox13Δ single mutant shows depletion of the III2/IV2 complex similar to that observed in the rcf1Δ mutant (Figure 5E). The cox13Δ rcf1Δ double mutant, however, shows almost a complete loss of the intact III2/IV2 supercomplex and a marked shift to lower order complexes.

**Increased Mitochondrial Oxidative Stress in the rcf1Δ Mutant**

The physiological importance of mitochondrial ETC supercomplexes has not been precisely defined. It has been speculated, however, that the assembly of individual complexes into supercomplexes enables more efficient electron flow and decreases the risk of electron stalling. One predicted physiological manifestation of reduced electron stalling would be decreased generation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) by the ETC. As a means of assessing the level of oxidative damage in the mitochondrial matrix of the rcf1Δ mutant, we measured the activity of aconitase. This mitochondrial enzyme is highly susceptible to inactivation by ROS, due to oxidation of an exposed Fe/S cluster. Therefore, aconitase activity is a measure of the in vivo burden of oxidative stress and damage in the mitochondrial matrix (Criscuolo et al., 2005; Gardner et al., 1995). In log phase cultures, we observed an ~20% decrease in aconitase activity in the rcf1Δ mutant, compared to an ~60% decrease in activity in a mutant lacking the mitochondrial Mn2+-dependent superoxide dismutase, Sod2 (Figure 6A). In stationary phase cultures, which are subject to enhanced respiratory activity and elevated oxidative stress, the aconitase activity was more severely affected in both mutants. We previously showed that overexpression of RCF1 caused a modest stabilization of higher-order supercomplex structures. RCF1 overexpression also caused a nearly 2-fold increase in aconitase activity (Figure 6B). As described previously, additional loss of COX13 confers a synergistic growth and supercomplex assembly phenotype upon the rcf1Δ mutant strain. The cox13Δ rcf1Δ double mutant also exhibited a more profound loss of aconitase activity relative to either of the two single mutants (Figure 6C).

We also monitored the susceptibility of WT and mutant strains to exogenous hydrogen peroxide. Mutants with higher in vivo production of ROS are typically more sensitive to this exogenous stress. Compared to WT, the dose-dependent lethality in response to hydrogen peroxide is exacerbated in the rcf1Δ mutant (Figure 6D). In addition, we also measured the expression of the endogenous ROS defense system, as exemplified by the mitochondria-specific superoxide dismutase Sod2. The rcf1Δ mutant has elevated Sod2 protein levels relative to the WT control (Figure 6E), which is consistent with this mutant having elevated endogenous oxidative stress, particularly in mitochondria. We hypothesize that this increased oxidative damage and sensitivity result from accelerated ROS production by the electron transport chain. This ETC dysfunction is a predictable result of impaired assembly of individual complexes into supercomplexes, which promotes reliable, solid-state electron transmission. As another manifestation of ETC dysfunction, the rcf1Δ mutant exhibited impaired maximal respiration in the presence of CCCP, which causes dissipation of the mitochondrial membrane potential and a compensatory acceleration of respiration in WT cells (Figure 5S; compare to Figure 1E). The impaired stimulated respiration in the rcf1Δ mutant was accompanied by markedly increased sensitivity to CCCP-induced cell death (Figure 6F).

**The HIG2A Mammalian Homolog of RCF1 Plays a Role in Supercomplex Stability**

As previously described, our selection of RCF1 for detailed study was based partially upon evolutionary conservation among eukaryotes. We were interested to determine whether the role we discovered for Rcf1 in supercomplex organization might also extend to RCF1 orthologs in other species. The mouse and human genomes contain five homologs of RCF1, which are subdivided into two classes that are defined by the two genes with the broadest expression pattern, HIG1A and HIG2A (Figure S1A). HIG1A was originally described as being strongly inducible by hypoxia in a HIF-1-dependent manner (Denko et al., 2000; Kasper and Brindle, 2006). To determine whether either HIG1A or HIG2A were required for normal supercomplex assembly or stability in mammalian cells, we transfected cells with siRNAs targeted to these two genes. Knockdown of HIG1A (Figure S6B) had no effect on the pattern of supercomplex assembly (Figure S6A), which is more complicated in mammalian cells due to the presence of Complex I and the stable incorporation of both Complex II and Complex V (Acín-Pérez et al., 2008). On the other hand, knockdown of HIG2A (Figure 7B) caused a depletion of all higher order supercomplexes that contain Complex IV, particularly the I+II+III+IV (#3), I+III+IV (#4), and III+IV (#6) species (Figure 7A) (Acín-Pérez et al., 2008). Supercomplex species that do not contain Complex IV,
such as the two I+III+V complexes (#1 and #5), were either unaffected or slightly increased upon HIG2A depletion (Figure 7A). To more rigorously evaluate a role for HIG2A and its encoded protein in supercomplex stability, we generated three additional siRNAs targeted to HIG2A, two of which caused significant depletion of the HIG2A mRNA; the other did not (Figure 7D). The two additional efficacious siRNAs (Si2 and Si3) caused an identical phenotype to that observed for Si1 (Figure 7C). Specifically, we again observed a loss of supercomplex species containing Complex IV and either unaffected or increased levels of Complex IV-independent species. At longer exposure of the anti-Cox1 immunoblot, we also saw a profound depletion of the #2 I+II+III+IV species in Si2- and Si3-treated cells (Figure 7C, panel 5). We observed a slight reduction in the amount of free, fully assembled Complex IV and a slight increase in an incomplete Complex IV (IV*). Although these results demonstrate a role for HIG2A in C2C12 myoblast cells, it is possible that the four additional mammalian HIG family members serve a related function in different cell types or different conditions. Determining their precise roles and contributions in Complex IV and supercomplex assembly and stability requires additional study.

DISCUSSION

Based on the data presented herein, we conclude that Rcf1 is a component of respiratory supercomplexes and is required for their normal stability. We also conclude that although Rcf1 is not essential for basal mitochondrial function, but is essential for optimally efficient ETC function and respiration. Evidence that supports these conclusions is detailed below.

First, Rcf1 directly interacts with respiratory supercomplexes. When we purified Rcf1, we copurified stoichiometric amounts of both Complex III and Complex IV, the major components of S. cerevisiae ETC supercomplexes. We considered the alternative explanation that Rcf1 is a previously unidentified component of Complex IV. The association with Complex III could be indirect, occurring only as a consequence of the interaction between Complex III and Complex IV. The fact that extraction of mitochondria with the relatively harsh detergent DDM causes the loss of Rcf1/Complex III association could be seen as supporting this view. However, none of the seven distinct COX mutants that we have analyzed, six of which exhibit failed assembly of Complex IV and the destruction of many of its subunits, have lost the association of Rcf1 with Complex III subunits. Interactions of Rcf1 with Cor1, Qcr2, and Cyc1 are maintained in spite of the fact that Rcf1 has lost all detectable interaction with Cox1, Cox2, Cox3, Cox4, and, presumably, other Complex IV subunits for which we do not have usable antibodies. Similarly, loss of the Complex III subunit Cyt1 leads to a complete failure
of Rcf1 to interact with central Complex III subunits Cor1 and Qcr2, although interactions with Complex IV subunits are maintained.

In general, although mutations impairing either Complex III or IV assembly do not eliminate the interaction of Rcf1 with the other Complex, the interactions are significantly weakened. One exception to this is the Complex IV subunit, Cox3. The qcr7Δ and cyt1Δ (Complex III) mutations eliminate the interaction of Rcf1 with the core Cor1 and Qcr2 subunits of Complex III. They also greatly impair the Rcf1 interaction with Complex IV subunits Cox1, Cox4, and, to a lesser extent, Cox2. The Rcf1 interaction with Cox3, however, is essentially unaffected.

The Rcf1/Cox3 interaction also seems to be unusually persistent in the face of Complex IV destruction. The cox11Δ, mss51Δ, and cox6Δ (all Complex IV) mutations each eliminate the interaction of Rcf1 with Cox1, Cox2, and Cox4, but the interaction with Cox3 is maintained, albeit at a reduced level. In spite of this seemingly special relationship between Cox3 and Rcf1, loss of Pet494, which completely blocks the expression of Cox3, does not destroy the interaction of Rcf1 with Complex III.

The data demonstrating an intimate association between Rcf1 and Cox3 has been confusing until recently. If Rcf1 interacts independently with both Complex III and Complex IV, it must occupy a position close to the interface between them in the respiratory supercomplex. The structure of the III2/IV2 supercomplex from S. cerevisiae, however, suggested that Cox3 was situated on the face of Complex IV that was opposite to the Complex III interaction site (Heinemeyer et al., 2007). This model was based on low-resolution data, and the rotational orientation of Complex IV was quite speculative. Recently, much higher-resolution electron microscopy reconstructions of the bovine I/III2/IV supercomplex were completed and published (Althoff et al., 2011; Dudkina et al., 2011). These data clearly show the Complex IV orientation to be rotated relative to Complex III, placing Cox3 at the site of the Complex III/Complex IV interface. Interestingly, the docking of the crystal structures of Complex III and Complex IV into the EM model demonstrated a clear gap between the two complexes, particularly in the juxtamembrane region (Dudkina et al., 2011). Based on its small size and two transmembrane domains, this is the region that should be occupied by Rcf1. It is possible that in addition to cardiolipin, which was postulated to occupy this position, Rcf1 fills this space and stabilizes the Complex III/Complex IV interaction.

Second, RCF1 has a robust genetic interaction with AAC2, which has been implicated previously in stabilizing ETC supercomplexes (Dienhart and Stuart, 2008). In assays of stationary phase survival, RCF1 and AAC2 exhibited a profound synthetic phenotype, particularly at elevated temperature. Such a growth phenotype is potentially due to destabilization of supercomplexes, as we showed using blue native-PAGE. AAC2 has a nearly identical relationship with CRD1, which encodes cardiolipin synthase and is necessary for the synthesis of this lipid.
Like Aac2, cardiolipin has also been implicated in the stability of respiratory supercomplexes. There was no additivity, on the other hand, between RCF1 and CRD1. Although we don’t yet know how these molecules interrelate in their stabilization of supercomplexes, these varied genetic interactions imply that they don’t all function identically or independently.

We also observed a strong genetic interaction between RCF1 and COX13. The Cox13 protein is predicted to occupy the interface between Complex III and Complex IV. Our data shows a modest loss of the III2/IV2 supercomplexes in the cox13Δ single mutant, which is dramatically exacerbated in the cox13Δ rcf1Δ double mutant. This synergistic loss of supercomplexes is accompanied by a synthetic growth defect and accelerated generation of oxidative stress, as determined by loss of aconitase activity. These phenotypes are consistent with the proposed role of Rcf1 in supercomplex stabilization and with the proposed role of supercomplexes in prevention of oxidant production.

Finally, loss of Rcf1 leads to a loss of the fully assembled III2/IV2 supercomplexes and an increase in lower order structures. The majority of Complex III and IV appears to assume the III2/IV assemblage but a significant amount of both complexes dissociate completely from the other. It is important to note that this effect seems to be specific because assembly of the other OXPHOS complexes is not impaired. HIG2A, one of the mammalian homologs of RCF1, appears to play a similar role in mouse cells. Treatment with any of three siRNAs that deplete the HIG2A mRNA causes a reduction of all Complex IV-containing respiratory supercomplexes.

Although we have not explored this possibility to date, it is likely that the extent and nature of respiratory supercomplexes is tightly regulated and responsive to environmental conditions. For example, we predict that nutrient availability, oxygen concentration, and ATP demand are all likely stimuli for the adjustment of supercomplex status. This could be accomplished through transcriptional or posttranscriptional regulation of RCF1 or its homologs in other species. HIG1A, the mouse ortholog of RCF1 whose depletion had no effect on supercomplex organization in C2C12 cells, is robustly induced by hypoxia (Denko et al., 2000). Perhaps HIG1A plays a more prominent role under hypoxia or in different cells. Indeed, it has been shown to protect pancreatic β-cells from apoptosis in response to a variety of stimuli (Wang et al., 2006). Due to its relatively simple supercomplex content, S. cerevisiae has only one interaction that can be targeted for regulation, between Complex III and Complex IV. In mammals, however, a much more complicated pattern exists. Complexes I, II, III, IV, and V are all components of respiratory supercomplexes, and their inclusion and stoichiometry is variable (Aycin-Pérez et al., 2008). The makeup of these complexes is a likely target of metabolic regulation.

We certainly do not fully understand the consequences of the loss of supercomplex formation. We do observe, however, that there is a substantial reduction in respiratory activity, as measured by total oxygen consumption in the rcf1Δ mutant. Perhaps of more interest, it appears that the rcf1Δ mutant also has elevated oxidative stress and damage in the mitochondrial matrix. This was determined by the loss of aconitase activity, hypersensitivity to exogenous hydrogen peroxide, and an upregulation of the endogenous oxidative stress defenses. These are common phenotypes among strains that combat an elevated level of endogenous oxidative stress. One of the factors that have kept us from an understanding of the effects of supercomplex assembly and disassembly is an inability to genetically manipulate supercomplex formation without disrupting other mitochondrial functions. As best we can determine, RCF1 deletion causes a specific defect in supercomplex formation in yeast and HIG2A silencing does the same in mouse cells. These will be valuable tools in understanding the role and importance of the assembly of these intricate machines.

**EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES**

**Assessment of Submitochondrial Localization**

These experiments were performed following a protocol adapted from (Bol-dogh and Pon, 2007). Mitochondria were incubated in the isotonic SH buffer or hypertonic H buffer (20 mM HEPES-KOH) with and without 1% Triton X-100. Protease K was added and incubated on ice for 20–30 min, and digestion was stopped by adding PMSF. Samples were denatured in 6X Laemmli buffer and resolved by 12% SDS-PAGE, followed by immunoblot. To assess the solubility of Rcf1, intact mitochondria were extracted by 100 mM Na2CO3 and 1 M KCl for 20 min on ice. Supernatant was isolated by centrifuging samples at 100,000 × g for 20 min (MLA-130, Beckman Coulter) and precipitated in 15% TCA. The precipitated supernatant fraction and insoluble membrane fraction were solubilized in 1X Laemmli buffer, and resolved by 12% SDS-PAGE, followed by immunoblot.

**Two-Step Rcf1-His/HA Purification**

Crude mitochondria isolated from strains grown in synthetic glycerol/ethanol medium were solubilized in 0.8% digitonin or dodecylmaltoside (DDM) for 1 hr at 4°C. For the first step of the purification, cleared mitochondria lysate was incubated with equilibrated Ni-NTA beads for 1 hr at 4°C. Beads were washed 5 times with buffer containing 20 mM imidazole. Protein was eluted by 250 mM imidazole. For the second step of the purification, final eluates of the first purification were mixed with anti–HA antibody conjugated agarose (Sigma) for 1 hr at 4°C. Agarose was incubated with equilibrated Ni-NTA beads for 1 hr at 4°C. Agarose was washed twice with PBS, scraped from dishes, and pelleted. Roughly 150 mg

**Blue-Native Polyacrylamide Gel Electrophoresis (BN-PAGE)**

BN-PAGE was performed as described previously (Wittig et al., 2006). Yeast mitochondria were solubilized in 1% digitonin or DDM and mammalian mitochondrial membranes were solubilized in 2% digitonin. Lysate was resolved on a 3%–13% gradient native gel using a PROTEAN II xi Cell gel running system (Bio-rad). Western blot was performed as the regular procedure using a Trans-Blot transfer cell (Bio-rad). Membrane was blocked in 5% nonfat milk/TBS and probed with antibodies as indicated.

**Solution ETC Complex Activity Assay**

These experiments were performed following a protocol adapted from (Magri et al., 2010). Ubiquinol:cytochrome c oxidoreductase (Complex III) activity was determined by measuring the rate of cytochrome c reduction by ubiquinol at 550 nm. Complex III specific activity was calculated by deducting the rate of cytochrome c reduction of a parallel reaction with antimycin A. Cytochrome c oxide (Complex IV) activity was determined by measuring the rate of cytochrome c oxidation. Complex IV-specific activity was verified by adding KCN into the reaction mixture. ATP synthase (Complex V) activity was determined by measuring the rate of NADH oxidation. ATP synthase specific activity was verified by adding oligomycin to stop the reaction. The specific Complex V activity was calculated by deducting the rate of NADH oxidation in the presence of oligomycin.

**Isolation of Mammalian Mitochondria**

The procedure was adapted from (Bozidis et al., 2007). C2C12 cells were washed twice with PBS, scraped from dishes, and pelleted. Roughly 150 mg
cell pellet was resuspended in 2 ml of ice-cold MTE buffer. Cells were lysed by sonication (continuous pulse on power setting of 3.5) 3 times for 10 s each. Cell debris and nuclei were pelleted at 1,400 × g for 10 min. Crude mitochondria were recovered from the supernatant fraction by centrifuging at 10,000 × g for 10 min. Mitochondrial pellet was rinsed with MTE and resuspended in it. Protein concentration was determined by Bradford assay.

**Statistics**

Data are presented as the means ± standard deviation (SD). Statistical significance was evaluated by the Student’s t test. *, p < 0.05; **, p < 0.01; ***, p < 0.0005.

**SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION**

Supplemental Information includes Supplemental Experimental Procedures, Figures S1–S6, and Tables S1 and S2 and can be found with this article online at doi:10.1016/j.cmet.2012.02.006.

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