

Chemiosmotic coupling in Oxidative Phosphorylation: the history of a hard 1 experimental effort hampered by the Heisenberg indeterminacy principle. 2

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ABSTRACT

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Understanding how biological systems convert and store energy is a primary goal of biological research. However, despite the formulation of Mitchell's chemiosmotic theory, which allowed taking fundamental steps forward, we are still far from the complete decryption of basic processes as oxidative phosphorylation (OXPHOS) and photosynthesis. After more than half a century, the chemiosmotic theory appears to need updating, as some of its assumptions have proven incorrect in the light of the latest structural data on respiratory chain complexes, bacteriorhodopsin and proton pumps. Moreover, the existence of an OXPHOS on the plasma membrane of cells casts doubt on the possibility to build up a transversal proton gradient across it, while paving the way for important applications in the field of neurochemistry and oncology. Up-to date biotechnologies, such as fluorescence indicators can follow proton displacement and sinks, and a number of reports have elegantly demonstrated that proton translocation is lateral rather than transversal with respect to the coupling membrane. Furthermore, the definition of the physical species involved in the transfer (proton, hydroxonium ion or proton currents) is still unresolved even though the latest acquisitions support the idea that protonic currents, difficult to measure, are involved. It seems that the concept of diffusion of the proton expressed more than two centuries ago by Theodor von Grotthuss, is decisive for overcoming these issues. All these uncertainties remember us that also in biology it is necessary to take into account the Heisenberg indeterminacy principle, that sets limits to analytical questions.

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INTRODUCTION

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The "chemiosmotic theory" formulated by Peter Mitchell (Mitchell, 1961), a Researcher with an Anglo-Saxon training in chemistry, dates back to more than 50 years. The theory has universally been accepted since, although it immediately raised several controversies, which they lasted until today. An upgrading of the chemiosmotic theory appears necessary, having the enormous progress



34 of bio analytic techniques defined the fine structure of the macromolecular complexes involved in 35 oxidative phosphorylation (OXPHOS). This allows getting further insight into the real proton 36 pathway, a key issue of the theory. In all evidence, it appears that a free proton osmosis would be 37 impossible, as the proton has a huge destructive force and therefore would destroy any biological 38 membrane it passes through. Moreover, in the last years, studies carried out by several laboratories 39 allowed to overcome a basic postulate of the chemiosmotic theory according to which the aerobic 40 synthesis of ATP is characterized by the need of closed compartments. In fact, it was demonstrated 41 that many biological membranes, devoid of closed compartments and of mitochondria, conduct OXPHOS with high efficiency (Calzia et al., 2010)(Roehlecke et al., 2013)(Mangiullo et al., 42 2008)(Panfoli et al., 2012)(Ravera et al., 2011b)(Ravera et al., 2013)(Ravera et al., 2018), 43 challenging the idea that it is exclusive of mitochondria, thylakoid and bacteria. Of particular 44 45 interest are the reports of the ability of plasma membranes to synthesize ATP outside the cell, as 46 they harbour the five complexes of respiration (Mangiullo et al., 2008)(Arakaki et al., 2003)(Arakaki et al., 2007)(Kita & Arakaki, 2015) (Adriano et al., 2011)(Chang et al., 2012)(Lee et 47 al., 2016). 48 49 The existence of an extra-mitochondrial aerobic ATP synthesis –driven by a machinery very 50

similar to that expressed in mitochondria- challenges the concept of a transversal proton gradient built up across the cell wall with protons gathered on the outer side. New paradigms are needed to explain the basic mechanisms of aerobic metabolism. Here we debate the possibility to update the chemiosmotic theory, understanding the ultimate proton role, which could help in developing new strategies for innovative research centered on cellular bioenergetics.

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The Chemiosmotic Theory and F₁F₀-ATPsynthase

- 57 The 1961 basic formulation of Mitchell's theory is schematically depicted in Figure 1, where ATP
- 58 synthase is also indicated, differently from the original formulation where it, necessarily, was not
- 59 depicted (Kagawa & Racker, 1966). In the original formulation, ATP synthesis was attributed to the
- 60 membrane as a whole, as a generic subtraction of H + and OH to ADP and orthophosphate to form
- 61 ATP.

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- The Theory is based on three basic postulates: 62
 - 1) An electron transport chain that transfers H⁺ from one side to other side of the membrane;
 - 2) ATP synthase synthesizes ATP by translocation H⁺ and vice versa for ATP hydrolysis
- 65 3) impermeability of the inner mitochondrial membrane to ionic species thereby including 66 protons.



The experimental data in support of the theory came successively and are reported in literature as a 67 68 huge amount of contributions. Reviews have been published and we refer to them for a 69 complete documentation (Ernster & Schatz, 1981)(Hatefi, 1985), only the most significant issues being mentioned here. Particularly influential were the data produced in 1966 by Jagendorf & Uribe 70 in the famous "acid bath experiment" (Jagendorf & Uribe, 1966). They obtained an ATP synthesis 71 72 inducing a transmembrane leap of pH in chloroplasts in vitro. In the same year the Racker et al. 73 (Kagawa & Racker, 1966) ascertained that the synthesis of ATP occurred on the so-called "spheres" 74 referred to as F₁ subunits of the ATP-synthase. Since then the basic contribution of F₁F₀-ATPsynthase to the OXPHOS became clear. Developments in the molecular knowledge regarding 75 76 F_1F_0 -ATP synthase have been comprehensively addressed in many reviews (Walker et al.,

1990)(Stock et al., 2000)(Junge & Nelson, 2015).

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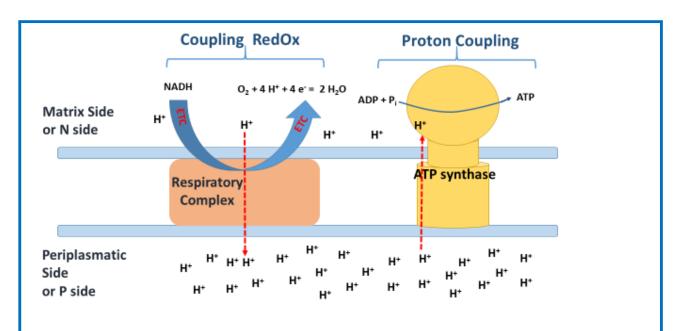


Figure 1: Schematic representation of the 1961 Mitchell chemiosmotic theory.

A delocalized coupling is depicted among proton extruded by the electron transport chain (ETC) and ATP synthesis. The overall process is arbitrarily divided in the two phases: the "Coupling RedOx", in which the proton movement is operated by the ETC, and the "Proton Coupling", in which proton movement is coupled with ATP synthesis, by F_1F_0 -ATPsynthase.

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The basic requirement for the OXPHOS is a coupling between redox processes, proton translocation and ATP synthesis. The global coupling can arbitrarily be divided in two distinct phases: a coupling between the oxidation-reductive process and the protonic translocation, referred as "RedOx

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83	Coupling" (see left side of Figure 1) and the coupling between protons accumulated on the p-side of
84	the membrane moving to the n-side through the ATP synthase, which determines the synthesis of
85	ATP, here referred as "Proton Coupling" (see right side of Figure 1). About the first coupling, the
86	recent review "The mechanism of coupling between oxido-reduction and proton translocation in
87	respiratory chain enzymes " (Papa, Capitanio & Papa, 2018) evaluated the main characteristics, the
88	recent experimentation and even the controversies around that. Considerable attention was devoted
89	in the 80s and 90s of last century to clarifying the structural-functional details of the respiratory
90	complexes (I, II, III and IV) and F1F0-ATPsynthase (Complex V). Important was the study of
91	respiratory complexes organized in supercomplexes (Schägger & Pfeiffer, 2001)(Wittig et al.,
92	2006)(Bianchi et al., 2004) with the demonstration that the loss of their aggregation leads to an
93	increase in the production of reactive oxygen species (Bianchi et al., 2004)(Lenaz et al., 2016). The
94	possible participation of Complex V has never been demonstrated (Wittig et al., 2006) . The study
95	of supercomplexes has also benefited from the extraordinary surveys carried out on X-rays (Letts,
96	Fiedorczuk & Sazanov, 2016).
97	By contrast, the "Proton Coupling" (see Figure 1-right) appears to be the most critical passage of
98	the whole OXPHOS process. Literature reports a number of experiments performed with
99	$reconstructed\ systems\ (Yoshida\ et\ al.,\ 1975) (Sone\ et\ al.,\ 1977), i.e.\ F_1F_o-ATP synthase\ incorporated$
100	into phospholipid vesicles, carried out about fifteen years after Mitchell's hypothesis. Vesicles
101	obtained from the membranes from the purple Halobacterium salinarium, synthesized ATP as a
102	result of illumination and it was thus demonstrated that illumination moved protons through the
103	membrane supporting the synthesis of ATP. Decisive in 1977 (Sone et al., 1977) was the
104	reconstitution experiment in artificial membranes of ATP synthase purified by <i>Thermophilic</i>
105	bacterium that synthesized ATP thanks to a transient shift in membrane potential $(\Delta \Psi)$ induced by
106	valinomycin, allowing rapid passage of K^+ ions across a membrane on the sides of which different
107	salt concentrations were set. These experiments demonstrated that proton translocation is the crucial
108	step for the "Proton Coupling" between protonic movement and ATP synthesis. On this general
109	topic, pivotal is the minireview of Wolfang Junge ^[15] , which on one hand enhances the versatility of
110	the F_1F_o -ATPsynthase nano-machine " unique in converting electrochemical, mechanical and
111	chemical forms of energy" and on the other hand points out that there is still much to be understood
112	about the chemical-physical basis of such process.
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116	Controversies about the Chemiosmotic Theory
117	A long struggle was necessary for the chemiosmotic theory formulated by Peter Mitchell (Mitchell,
118	1961) to be widely accepted. The controversy, central to the history of bioenergetics for more than
119	half a century, appears tackled by more than 200 articles (Weifu Lee, 2012) and to have lasted until
120	the most recent years. Giovanni F. Azzone, many years ago (1972) published the manuscript
121	"Oxidative phosphorylation, a history of unsuccessful attempts: is it only an experimental
122	problem?"(Azzone, 1972) that already highlighted what did not convince in the theory and that
123	wished for answers from the fine analysis of the macromolecular structures involved in
124	chemiosmosis.
125	The harshest criticisms came from John Prebble (Prebble, 2001), which emphasized the lack of
126	experimental data in support of the theory. Wolfang Junge effectively described in 2013 (Junge,
127	2013) the chronicle of the dispute, which even took harsh tones. His review "Half a century of
128	molecular bioenergetics" examines many issues of bioenergetics, including chemiosmotic theory.
129	Brown & Simcook in their article (Brown, Brown & Simcock, 2011) considered the motivations
130	that have convinced the scientific community to accept the chemiosmotic theory, regardless of great
131	skepticism welcoming it at the beginning. Authors note that: " $science\ shows\ tremendous\ resistance$
132	to change and it takes extraordinary perseverance to persuade the community".
133	A controversial issue was the correlation between $\Delta\Psi$ and the proton motive force, often
134	considered equivalent entities (Wiedenmann, Dimroth & von Ballmoos, 2008). It was postulated
135	that a $\Delta\Psi$ with positive charge on the external p-side of the internal mitochondrial membrane and
136	negative on the n-side in contact with mitochondrial matrix would let protons enter through the
137	$rotor \ F_o \ that \ synthesizes \ ATP \ in \ the \ matrix, \ thanks \ to \ its \ mechanical \ connection \ with \ the \ F_1 \ moiety.$
138	Protons would gather across the coupling membrane like chemical ions, creating a driving force for
139	$F_1F_o\text{-}ATP \ synthase \ to \ synthesize \ ATP, \ realizing \ the \ \text{``Proton Coupling''}. \ However, \ the \ yield \ in \ ATP$
140	poorly correlates with bulk-to-bulk membrane potential (Krulwich et al., 1996)(Mulkidjanian,
141	Heberle & Cherepanov, 2006) so that the basic chemiosmotic theory appears inadequate (Wolf,
142	Grubmüller & Groenhof, 2014).
143	The awarding of the 1978 Nobel Prize for chemistry to Peter Mitchell cooled the dispute, but not
144	definitively. In fact, in 1979, there was a heated confrontation published by TRENDS (Tedeschi $\&$
145	Rottenberg, 1979) between Henry Tedeschi, who disproved the idea that the metabolic activity of
146	mitochondria could contribute to membrane potential and Hagai Rottenberg which instead defended
147	Mitchell's theory. The original theory provides a protonated "delocalized coupling" (as depicted in
148	Figure 1) while a "localized coupling" has seen Robert Williams as a great supporter (Williams,



L49	19/5). In the paper "Proton-Electrostatics Hypothesis for Localized Proton Coupling" J. W. Lee
L50	(Weifu Lee, 2012) reports a rigorous chemical/physical experiment in favour of localized coupling,
l51	demonstrating furthermore that the thylakoid membrane can be a "proton capacitor". The putative
152	existence of a proton capacitor is a matter of great importance and later, H. A. Saeed and J. W. Lee
153	(A. Saeed & W. Lee, 2015) showed that protons can actually accumulate on the membrane surface
L54	even though they never reside in the aqueous phase. Moreover, concerning the experimental
L55	verification of the "proton coupling", a recent elegant investigation in HeLa cells, bioengineered
156	with green fluorescent protein as pH indicator inserted in respiratory complex III and in F_{o} moiety
L57	of ATP synthase, points to a localized coupling (Rieger, Junge & Busch, 2014).
L58	A report entitled "Proton migration along the membrane surface and retarded surface to bulk
159	transfer" by Heberle et al. (Heberle et al., 1994) interestingly reconciles the two visions, providing
L60	proof that proton transfer from a proton generator (bacteriorhodopsin) to an acceptor, (water-soluble
l61	pH indicators) is faster if occurring on the membrane rather than when protons are released in the
L62	aqueous bulk. Ferguson (Ferguson, 1995) emphasized Heberle et al.'s experiments, concluding that
163	the delocalized coupling and lateral proton transfer (localized coupling), between the proton
L64	generator and user, occurs very rapidly on the membrane, as compared to the slower and transversal
L65	passage through the aqueous bulk. In this context, the recent paper form Von Ballmoos group
L66	observed that $\Delta\Psi$ and ΔpH are equivalent for the coupling with ATP-synthase (Wiedenmann,
L67	Dimroth & von Ballmoos, 2008). A primary role for membrane buffering on proton mobility in
L68	general can be hypothesised (Junge & McLaughlin, 1987). The experimental data (Capaldi et al.,
L69	1994)(Turina, Samoray & Graber, 2003) showing a close thermodynamic correlation between
L70	valinomycin-induced $\Delta\Psi$ and ATP synthesis in reconstituted systems are very important, but it
l71	seems plausible that they induce a transmembrane protonic flow that probably differs from the path
L72	in a native environment. Moreover, the eminent English chemist Robert Williams clearly rejected
L73	the hypothesis of the accumulation of protons from p-side: "the p-phase corresponds to the
L74	infinitely extended external space. If protons are extruded into this "Pacific Ocean", they would be
L75	diluted and the entropic component of the pmf would be lost " (Williams, 1978). Williams observed
176	that "I made it clear that protons in the membrane rather than an osmotic trans-membrane gradient
L77	of protons were required to drive ATP formation" based on a series of considerations that excluded
L78	the presence of free protons from p-side(Williams, 1975). An elegant demonstration of Williams's
L79	localized coupling hypothesis came in 1976 (Yaguzhinsky et al., 1976) by an experiment in which
180	purified ATP synthase was added to the octano-water interface. It was observed that protons
181	accumulate in octane, a Brønsted acid, leading to ATP synthesis by ATP synthase. These data have



L82	also been recently confirmed (Eroshenko et al., 2012). Eighteen years later, it was reported that
183	"our results suggest that protons can efficiently diffuse along the membrane surface between a
L84	source and a sink (for example H+-ATP synthase) without dissipation losses into the acqueous
L85	bulk" (Heberle et al., 1994). From all the cited data it can be concluded that protons (or protonic
L86	currents) are confined into the membrane, while proton exit from the membrane is to be considered
L87	only as a fallback way of escape, mostly in vitro reconstituted conditions.
188	Membrane Potential
189	A direct measurement of membrane potential of the mitochondrial inner membrane with
190	microelectrodes was only be accomplished by Tedeschi, who showed the existence of a positive
191	inside and negative outside mitochondrial membrane potential ($\Delta\Psi$) (Tupper & Tedeschi,
L92	1969a)(Tupper & Tedeschi, 1969b). Such potential (contrary to the canonical) interestingly
193	coincides with that calculated on the basis of the ionic species present on the membrane sides
194	(Harris & Pressman, 1969). Clearly, knowledge of the entity and especially the sign of this potential
195	is fundamental for understanding the basic functioning of chemiosmosis, as emerges from the
196	already mentioned historical dispute between Henry Tedeschi and Hagai Rottenberg (Tedeschi &
L97	Rottenberg, 1979).
198	To measure $\Delta\Psi$, laboratory tests currently utilize lipophilic fluorescent compounds whose response
199	is considered to be related to $\Delta\Psi.$ However, tests conducted with rhodamine have cast doubts on
200	such correlation (Scaduto Jr. & Grotyohann, 1999) since these indicators inhibited the
201	mitochondrial respiration, so they disturb the system. As such compounds dissolve into the
202	membranes, they may reflect the membrane behaviour, in fact they inhibit a membrane intrinsic
203	process, i.e. the OXPHOS, but do not interfere with $\Delta\Psi.$ Surely, in vitro, proton passage across
204	membranes can be forced with rapid movements of potassium ions by addition of valinomycin
205	(Sone et al., 1977)(Schmidt & Gräber, 1987). A laboratory procedure utilizing valinomycin and
206	also nigericin has been widely used to create a transient $\Delta\Psi$ operating a delocalized coupling
207	linking $\Delta\Psi$ and ATP synthesis, but this does not exclude that in the native membranes a localized
208	coupling would operate, independently of $\Delta\Psi$.
209	A crucial issue: the Membrane Permeability to Protons
210	In an old study (1986) Giovanni Felice Azzone and coll. highlighted the uncertainties of the proton
211	cycle (Zoratti et al., 1986). In the same year Grzesiek and Dencher (Grzesiek & Dencher, 1986)
212	showed that the phospholipid membranes are intrinsically permeable to protons. Data show that
213	phospholipid membranes, normally impermeant to ionic solutes (transversal or permeability
214	diffusion coefficients varying between 10^{-12} to 10^{-14} cm/sec), exhibit a significant proton



15	permeability, varying from 10^{-3} to 10^{-9} cm/sec. Such variability may be justified by a buffering
16	capacity of the membranes for protons: proton diffusion value could depend on the higher or lower
17	degree of pre-existing protonation. Recently, the proton leak through lipid bilayers was modelled as
18	a concerted mechanism (Grzesiek & Dencher, 1986)(Tepper & Voth, 2006)(Shinoda, 2016). Tepper
19	and Voth (Tepper & Voth, 2006) provided a theoretical interpretation of proton permeability, based
20	on the formation of transient membrane spanning aqueous solvent structure. High proton
21	permeability has also been confirmed in liposomes, independently form their phospholipid
22	composition (Brookes, Hulbert & Brand, 1997). It is clear that a high degree of permeability to
23	protons is <i>per se</i> in contrast to the third of the aforementioned basic postulates of the chemiosmotic
24	theory. With regard to the relationship between membrane and aqueous phase, many observations
25	confirm the existence of a layer of water molecules on the two sides of the membrane which to
26	some extent isolate it from the aqueous phases present on its two sides (Mulkidjanian &
27	Cherepanov, 2006)(von Hansen, Gekle & Netz, 2013)(Kundacina, Shi & Pollack, 2016).
28	Proton solvation.
29	The actual proton path across the membrane, their putative concentration on both sides of the
30	membrane and the consequent membrane potential have been the object of countless studies. A
31	central issue is the knowledge of the actual chemical species of the proton: free, or in the form of
32	H_3O^+ ? This depends on the phase in which the proton is located. Protons possess peculiar chemical
.33	properties, being essentially an atomic nucleus. Free protons do not exist in the aqueous phase,
34	being solvated to H_3O^+ , from which the extraction of a proton would be virtually impossible. In
35	fact, in the transition from H_3O^+ to free proton a strong energy barrier higher than 500 meV, must
36	be overcome as specified in the paper: "Proton in the well and through the desolvation barrier"
37	(Mulkidjanian, 2006), which corresponds to the enormous amount of 262.400 Cal/mol (Zhan &
38	Dixon, 2001). An immense literature exists on the subject (Mulkidjanian, 2006)(Weifu Lee,
39	2012)(Cherepanov, Junge & Mulkidjanian, 2004)(Mulkidjanian et al., 2005). An interesting report
40	(Bal, Kurowska & Maret, 2012), not sufficiently taken into account, calculated the number of free
41	protons (actually in the form of H_3O^+) in the volume of a mitochondrion, which is of the femtoLiter
42	order of magnitude. This study demonstrated, starting from basic physical chemical data (Avogadro
43	number, ionic water product, mathematical pH expression and mitochondrial volume), that free
44	protons in a mitochondrial periplasmic space are too few (less than ten) to support any process
45	dependent on proton translocation in the aqueous bulk across the membrane and absolutely
46	inadequate to support the thousands of ATP synthase molecules present in a mitochondrion.
47	Moreover, the pH value inside the mitochondrion resulted to differ by 0.5 units from what



248	previously believed (Żurawik et al., 2016). Moreover, the huge energy associated with proton
249	solvation would have a negative consequence: a free membrane proton would quickly be "sucked"
250	by the near aqueous phase, releasing the huge energy associated with the solvation process, to the
251	detriment of the membrane.
252	Grotthuss mechanism and proton translocation through the membranes.
253	A putative mechanism for proton diffusion was hypothesized more than two centuries ago by
254	Theodor von Grotthuss (Grotthuss, 1805) and is synthetically explained by Kreuer: "Proton
255	diffusion according to the Grotthuss mechanism occurs much faster than molecular diffusion
256	because it is uncoupled from the self-diffusion of its mass" (Kreuer, 1996). Protons would not
257	diffuse as a mass, rather as a charge, the latter moving between water molecules or protonable
258	groups of suitable macromolecules of the membranes. The Grotthuss mechanism allows better
259	understanding of the possible ways in which protons or species derived from them move in
260	biological systems. DeCoursey published a review entitled "Voltage-gated proton channels and
261	other proton transfer pathways", which exhaustively analyzes proton movement in water and
262	biological membranes (Kreuer, 1996), including HV1 channels which specifically transfer protons
263	in aqueous phase, therefore actual acidity from one side of the membrane to the other. The
264	mechanism of the voltage gated proton channel $H_{\rm V}1$ is not as yet resolved, as emblematically stated
265	by DeCoursey in the paper entitled "The voltage-gated proton channel: a riddle, wrapped in a
266	mystery, inside an enigma" (DeCoursey, 2015). Two mechanisms have been proposed for $H_V 1$ as
267	schematically depicted in Figure 2, where on the left side is represented the so-called "frozen water"
268	mechanism, in which the channel traps one or more molecules of water which allows protons to
269	pass through with Grotthuss-style proton hopping, as in the typical case of Gramicidin (Pomès &
270	Roux, 2002). On the right side of Figure 2 is depicted a passage of proton with
271	protonation/deprotonation of ammino acid side-chain, that would realize the so-called "proton
272	wire", already proposed in the 1978 paper "Molecular mechanisms for proton transport in
273	membranes" by Nagle & Morowitz (Nagle & Morowitz, 1978). The topic was consolidated
274	successively by Nagle & Nagle (Nagle & Tristram-Nagle, 1983). DeCoursey in a debate recently
275	$published \ on \ the \ Journal \ of \ Physiology \ supports \ the \ mechanism \ shown \ in \ the \ right \ part \ of \ Figure \ 2$
276	that provides the action of proton wires through the membrane (DeCoursey, 2017), while Bennettt
277	& Ramsey (Bennett & Ramsey, 2017a)(Bennett & Ramsey, 2017b) support a mechanism of
278	passage through molecule of water as schematized on the left of Figure 2. Interestingly, both
279	mechanisms are based on the Grotthuss proton movement between i) water molecules in the case of



280 the water channel (on the left) and ii) between side chains of amino acids in the case of protons 281 wires (on the right). The proton movement in membranes (both biological and artificial) has been analyzed by many 282 rigorous chemical/physical studies. The article -"Proton Holes" in Long-Range Proton Transfer 283 284 Reactions in Solution and Enzymes: A Theoretical Analysis- shows that other compounds in 285 addition to water are involved in the "proton hopping" (Riccardi et al., 2006a), and is interesting 286 that a quantum-mechanical approach is applied (Riccardi et al., 2006b). The article "Grotthuss 287 mechanisms: from proton transport in proton wires to bioprotonic devices" presents devices such as proton diodes, transistors, memories and transducers, semiconductor electronic devices that use 288 289 the Grotthus mechanism (Miyake & Rolandi, 2016). 290 Notably, H_V1 only allows the passage of protons balancing their concentration between two 291 aqueous compartments separated by a membrane. This property does depend on the membrane 292 potential $\Delta\Psi$, similarly to other ion membrane devices abundant in biological membranes (for 293 example the Na⁺ and K⁺ voltage gated channels), acting exclusively on the conformation of the 294 H_V1 protein. It appears therefore that to carry protons through the membrane there are ad hoc 295 structures that deeply differ from the respiratory complexes, both for the function finality, and for

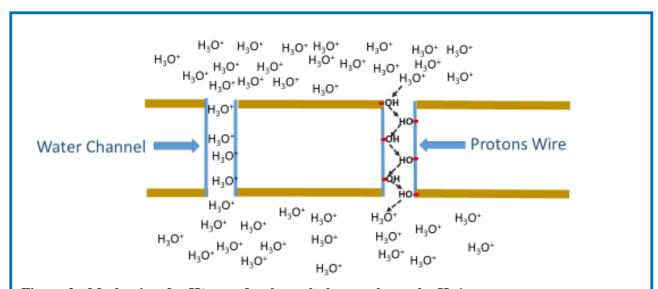


Figure 2: Mechanism for H^+ transfer through the membrane by Hv1. Left, water channel model: the water molecules allow protons to pass through with Grotthuss-style H^+ hopping. Right, proton wire model: a charge migration occurs (through with Grotthuss-style H^+ hopping) on polar groups of side chains of amino acids of Hv1.

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298	the molecular mechanism. Moreover, the process would be quantitatively linked to an unwanted
299	acidification of a closed compartment. From these and other evidences it can be concluded that the
300	native proton movements in the respiring membranes, when there is no need for acidification of the
301	milieu on one side of a membrane, must take place entirely inside the membrane (Morelli et al.,
302	2013). As far as the respiratory complexes are concerned, on the other hand, it is theorized that the
303	proton and membrane potential movements are mutually dependent, in that the pumping of protons
304	would generate the membrane potential, which is impossible for thermodynamic considerations that
305	we will elaborate later on.
306	Moreover this comparison between proton movement in support of the OXPHOS and the actual
307	protonic movement in nature sheds light on the fact that when protons are really transferred through
308	a membrane i) they are never in the form of free protons and ii) are subject to the Grotthuss-style
309	proton hopping. Hence the need for chemiosmotic theory to be revised in the light of all this
310	emerges.
311	Plausible proton pathways inside the respiring membranes.
312	Having established the clear divergence between the pathways of the solvated proton and of the
313	proton alone, in light of the detailed molecular structural data now available we can seek for the
314	proton plausible pathways inside the respiring membrane, even if it is a just a plasma-membrane.
315	The respiratory complexes able of handling protons are Complex I, III and IV, whose structural
316	studies have benefited of the progress of X-ray analysis and of cryo-microscopy. Excellent
317	investigations are available on the subject, here for simplicity we mention the studies on Complex I
318	(NADH: ubiquinone oxidoreductase) from Leonid Sazanov and collaborators (Baradaran et al.,
319	2013)(Sazanov, 2015) and Complex IV (Cytochrome c Oxidase).
320	Numerous structural X-ray studies were conducted on Complex I from <i>Escherichia coli</i> (Efremov
321	& Sazanov, 2011), Thermus thermophiles (Baradaran et al., 2013), and from mammalian ovine
322	(Ovis aries) mitochondria (Fiedorczuk et al., 2016) and with cryo-microscopy on Complex I from
323	Bos taurus (Vinothkumar, Zhu & Hirst, 2014)(Zhu, Vinothkumar & Hirst, 2016). The complexity
324	of the macromolecular aggregation of Complex I is impressive: in the mammalians it is formed by
325	as many as 45 polypeptides and its assembly needs an unknown number of chaperons, so
326	indispensable that the impairment of just one of them $(B17.2L\)$ causes of a progressive
327	encephalopathy (Ogilvie, Kennaway & Shoubridge, 2005). Authors state that: " $results\ demonstrate$
328	that B17.2L is a bona fide molecular chaperone that is essential for the assembly of complex I and
329	for the normal function of the nervous system."



330	As only 5 alpha-helices have been found in the Complex I structure, in order to allow for proton
331	translocation, it was necessary to postulate the existence of two hemi channels: one from the matrix
332	(n) side to the centre of the respiratory complex, referred here to as the "proton entrance hemi
333	channel " and the other from the centre to the periplasmatic (p) side here indicated as "proton exit
34	hemi channel". However, only the latter was well identifiable in Complex I (Efremov & Sazanov,
35	2011). Instead, the entry pathway has not been identified with certainty so much so that we only can
336	talk about putative pathways labelled with "? "(Efremov & Sazanov, 2011). Furthermore, it clearly
337	emerges from the X-ray studies that there is an obvious proton tunnelling at the centre of the
38	Complex I. Comprehensive studies on the protonic movement inside Complex I have been carried
339	out by the Helsinki Bioenergetic Group of Martin Wikström, which highlighted uncertainty margins
340	on the stoichiometry of protonic extrusion that appears closer to 3 H ⁺ /2e ⁻ (Wikström & Hummer,
341	2012) instead to the classic 4 H ⁺ /2e ⁻ . Also, in the review di Verkhovskaya & Bloch (Verkhovskaya
342	& Bloch, 2013) (of Helsinki Bioenergetic Group) four mechanisms for proton translocation are
343	proposed and the "proton entrance half channel" is not identified with certainty, while the "proton
344	exit half channel" is clearly identifiable. Emblematically on the website of the Helsinki
345	Bioenergetic Group it is written "the mechanism of proton transfer in Complex I remains
346	completely enigmatic".
347	As far as Complex IV (Cytochrome c-oxidase) is concerned, the proton translocation of has been
348	studied in depth (Brzezinski, 2004). In their recent review, Martin Wikström & Vivek Sharma talk
349	of an "anniversary": "Proton pumping by cytochrome c oxidase - A 40 year anniversary"
350	(Wikström & Sharma, 2018). Among the many quotations in this review the Chemical Review of
351	the Wikström group stands out (Wikström, Krab & Sharma, 2018). It goes into the details of the
352	possible molecular processes carried out by Complex IV (Wikström, Krab & Sharma, 2018),
353	thereby including proton translocation. The topic is complex and more putative pathway of protons
354	are well developed in the review , that we can not here detail here (Wikström, Krab & Sharma,
355	2018). For the "proton entrance half channel" for each molecule of oxygen reduced to water they
356	need 4 H ⁺ and it is hypothesized that another 4 H ⁺ for a total of 8 enter through this channel. It
357	seems unlikely that there exists equivalence between protons that exist as mass and link to water
358	molecules, and protons that should move as a charge, according to the Grotthuss mechanism.
359	Proposal for a localized Complex I-ATP Synthase coupling
360	Taking into account what reported above, it is possible to trace a plausible proton pathway within
361	the respiring membrane. Just in 2006 a direct proton transfer was proposed to couple the Complexes
362	I, III, IV respiratory pathway with FoF1-ATP Synthase (Papa, Lorusso & Di Paola, 2006).



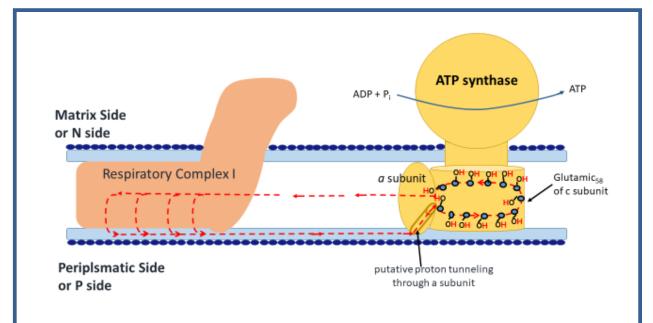


Figure 3: A possible H⁺ circuit inside respiring membrane.

The water insulating shield on both side of the membrane are shown by blue ellipsoids. The image proposes that the H^+ (red dotted line) are transferred to the Glu 58 (E58) at the centre of subunit c through subunit a of ATP synthase by proton tunnelling. H^+ would flow from the periplasmic side, always bound to phospholipid heads. This can be arranged in each layer of the membrane.

However, in a recent review (Papa, Capitanio & Papa, 2018) the concept of transmembrane proton motor force to move the ATP Synthase is reinforced, although it is noted that many aspects of coupling are not yet clarified. Clear cut consideration was proposed some years ago (1991) by Akeson & Deamer(Akeson & Deamer, 1991) about speed of proton translocation through putative proton channel as limiting step for ATP synthesis by FoF1 ATP-synthase. For the sake of simplicity, we only examine the coupling between the Respiratory Complex I and the F1Fo-ATP synthase. The existence of a proton pathway at the centre of Complex I is quite clear, and we can hypothesize that the protons are sent to the well-identified four "exit half channel", as shown in Figure 3. The proton donor at the centre of Complex I has already been tentatively identified in the phospholipid cardiolipin (CL) (Morelli et al., 2013), which appears essential for the OXPHOS. However, for example, phosphatidylethanolamine (PE) is a valid phospholipid for the functioning of the OXPHOS (Tasseva et al., 2013). The experimentation recently carried out by Von Ballmoos group (von Ballmoos et al., 2016)(Nilsson et al., 2016) is clear, and also unconventional, on the role played by phospholipids. In fact, pure phosphatidylcholine (PC) is excellent for the coupling, while it increases when the membrane is formed by PC + PE. By contrast, it is dramatically inhibited if



380	the membrane is formed by PC + CL, incredibly diverging from the traditional role assigned to CL.
381	This research is also important because experiments are performed with a reconstructed system,
382	more adherent to the " $\rm H$ $^+\!/ATP$ coupling ". Here, the driving force that feeds ATP synthase was not
383	the rapid transfer of K^+ generated by valinomycin, a widely used method, but the bo_3 oxidase of
384	Escherichia coli, analogue to the respiratory Complex I of vertebrates.
385	It emerges that all the membrane phospholipids can act as mobile proton transporters, hindering
386	their relocation in the near aqueous medium, so that protons are never free. The exergonic process
387	of proton solvation would release an impressive amount of energy (262.400 Cal/mol) (Zhan &
388	Dixon, 2001) which, if not transferred on a generic acceptor, would generate heat, devastating not
389	only for the membrane but also for the whole cell integrity. Complex I would transfer protons to
390	the p side of the membrane, but these would not be dispersed in the aqueous bulk. In fact it is well
391	documented the existence of a barrier of water molecules attached to the membrane, determining
392	the lateral displacement of protons on the phosphate heads of phospholipids (Prats, Tocanne &
393	Teissié, 1985)(Teissié et al., 1985)(Serowy et al., 2003) to meet a sink that is the ATP synthase
394	subunit that through a proton wire (Panfoli et al., 2017)(Brändén et al., 2006) would leads the
395	proton to the rotor (see Figure 3), accommodating on the central glutamic or aspartic residue
396	(depending on the species) of the c subunit which in variable numbers from 8 to 15 make up the
397	rotor Fo (Watt et al., 2010). As Fo rotates it is conceivable that the proton returns to the centre of
398	Complex I, an highly hydrophobic environment, thus closing the protonic circuit. This last passage,
399	from the rotor exit to the centre of the respiratory complex, appears plausible, for the operativity of
400	the Brownian motion (diffusion) of particles in a highly anisotropic environment that can occurs
401	efficiently (Yaguzhinsky et al., 1976)(Saffman & Delbrück, 1975) and a direct passage of the
402	proton exiting the subunit at the entrance to the Complex is theoretically possible. Moreover the
403	investigations of the Von Ballmoos group have produced exhaustive studies with reconstructed
404	systems (von Ballmoos et al., 2016)(Nilsson et al., 2016)(von Ballmoos, Wiedenmann & Dimroth,
405	2009), in which a direct transfer of proton on the p-side of the membrane from Complex I to ATP-
406	synthase is evident. Their recent paper also demonstrates that proximity to the membrane between
407	the respiratory complex and ATP synthase is required for the "proton coupling" (Nilsson et al.,
408	2016). However, the fact remains that the last part of the protonic circuitry (i.e. from Fo moiety of
409	ATP-synthase to respiratory complexes) is only hypothetical.
410	Extramitochondrial oxidative phosphorylation
411	The Chemiosmotic Theory(Mitchell, 1961) as it was formulated is a process that can only take
412	place in organelle possessing double membrane systems forming closed compartments to entrap



protons, such as mitochondrial cristae, bacteria and thylakoids. Here, for the sake of simplicity, we
have considered the mitochondrial inner membrane, even though in recent years, it has been shown
that the oxidative phosphorylation (OXPHOS), coupled to aerobic ATP synthesis, also occurs in
extra-mitochondrial districts, as rod outer segment (OS) disks (Calzia et al., 2014)(Calzia et al.,
2013)(Bianchini et al., 2008)(Panfoli et al., 2009), myelin sheath (Ravera et al., 2009) (Ravera et
al., 2011b)(Morelli et al., 2011)(Ravera et al., 2015), plasma membrane (Mangiullo et al., 2008)
(Arakaki et al., 2003)(Arakaki et al., 2007)(KITA & ARAKAKI, 2015)(Adriano et al.,
2011)(Chang et al., 2012)(Lee et al., 2016)(Taurino & Gnoni, 2018)(Taurino et al., 2016)(Gao et
al., 2017) extracellular vesicles shedding form cells, such as exosomes and microvesicles, which
seem to carry an unsuspected metabolic signature (Panfoli et al., 2016). In particular, recent data
indicate an active extramitochondrial OXPHOS in the endoplasmic reticulum of platelets which
both have elevated ATP need but possess very little mitochondria (Ravera et al., 2018).
It is worth noting that photoreceptor OS, specialized subcellular compartment that contains lesser
molecular system as compared to bulk cytosol, have allowed important discoveries. In fact,
Transducin, discovered in the rod OS in 1981, is considered the G protein prototype (Fung, Hurley
& Stryer, 1981); in 1986 the OS were proven to contain a considerable amount of the second
messenger cyclic GMP (Fesenko, Kolesnikov & Lyubarsky) and finally in 2009 data emerged
accomplishing the discovery of an extramitochondrial OXPHOS (Panfoli et al., 2009), coupled to
aerobic ATP synthesis in the OS(Panfoli et al., 2012) (Bruschi et al., 2018)
Interestingly, the synthesis of extracellular ATP by F_1F_0 -ATPsynthase on plasma membrane has
been recently demonstrated in human neutrophils (Gao et al., 2017) confirming data previously
obtained (Mangiullo et al., 2008) (Taurino & Gnoni, 2018)(Taurino et al., 2016)(Karelin,
Demidova & Globa, 1992)(Quillen et al., 2006)(Ravera et al., 2011a)(Kim et al., 2004)(Ma et al.,
2010). Since the plasma membrane potential is positive on the outside and negative on the inside, in
would favor the ATP hydrolysis rather than the synthesis. This datum is in line with the postulated
independence of F_1F_0 -ATPsynthase activity from the membrane potential and therefore it is
plausible that this synthesis of ATP depends on the proton intramembranous coupling.
Conclusion
The impressive amount of experimental data cited appears globally in contrast with the above cited
three assumptions underlying the chemiosmotic theory. First of all, it excludes that the protons can
accumulate on the coupling membrane surface, whose high permeability would dissipate, and
essentially since it would correspond to an extreme acidity incompatible with any vital process.
Secondly, since diffusion does occur, it is clear that the membrane potential is irrelevant to



446	translocation. Thirdly, it can be excluded that the respiratory complexes operate a transmembrane
447	proton transfer from the aqueous bulk, where the proton would exist as hydroxonium ion. This
448	appears to rule out the actual possibility that ATP synthase can overcome the energy barrier, higher
449	than 500 meV (Mulkidjanian, 2006) required to extract the proton from water, leaving space for the
450	localized coupling hypothesis (Cherepanov, Junge & Mulkidjanian, 2004)(Mulkidjanian et al.,
451	2005) as dehydration/hydration reaction from hydroxonium ion to free protons would require
452	262.400 Cal/mol (Zhan & Dixon, 2001). Which are the actual processes acting on the FoF1-ATP
453	synthase? There is no certainty, as highlighted by the emblematic title of an article by John Walker
454	"The ATP synthase: the understood, the uncertain and the unknown" (Walker, 2013). In this
455	controversial scenario a decisive contribution is undoubtedly the sophisticated bioengineering
456	experiment that labelled the IV respiratory complex and ATP-Synthase with proteins of the GFP
457	family, to experimentally observe a local ΔpH triggered by the respiratory substrate galactose
458	(Rieger, Junge & Busch, 2014). Observations were conducted in cultured HeLa cells. The authors
459	conclude: "the observed lateral variation in the proton-motive force necessitates a modification to
460	Peter Mitchell's chemiosmotic proposal". The experimentally proven lateral proton motive force is
461	in line with the hypothesis of localized coupling. Indeed, today a constellation of clues leads us to
462	hypothesize the existence of protonic currents internal to the membrane, with the formation of
463	possible circuits travelled by the positive elementary charge, thus realizing a localized coupling that
464	excludes an osmotic nature of the process. To trace this circuit, at least for the possible coupling
465	between respiratory Complex I and ATP-synthase it appears realistic that Complex I may transfer
466	protons from its central part to the periplasmatic side, allowing them to travel on the membrane
467	surface thanks to the heads of phospholipids (Prats, Tocanne & Teissié, 1985)(Teissié et al., 1985)
468	finally entering by tunnelling in the subunit a of the ATP-synthase (Panfoli et al., 2017)(Ivontsin,
469	Mashkovtseva & Nartsissov, 2017) (see Figure 3). Moreover several studies show that the
470	membrane is isolated from the aqueous bulk thanks to a layer of water molecules on both sides of
471	the membrane, which consolidates the idea that the membrane is radically distinct and isolated from
472	the liquid phase (Kundacina, Shi & Pollack, 2016). Considering the isolated two phases, the only
473	way evolution could pursue to link proton movement to ATP synthesis was a nanomachine
474	connecting the proton movement inside the membrane to the deformation mechanics of the F1
475	sphere immersed in the aqueous phase.
476	We can reasonably assume that the proton movement inside the membranes occurs as a charge,
477	according to the proton hopping Grotthuss mechanism with the establishment of "protonic currents"
478	inside the membrane (Tepper & Voth, 2005). In the non-biological field we find a remarkable



adherence to this theory for the development of protonic devices (as proton diodes, transistors,
memories and transducers, semiconductor electronic) (Miyake & Rolandi, 2016) that could replace
devices widely used in electronics. It is surprising that the two areas, the biological and the
physical-chemical one, have ignored each other. Since in the history of biology the application of
physic-chemical methodologies has led to dramatic advances in biology (we may remind the reader
that the resolution of the DNA structure (WATSON & CRICK, 1953) was obtained with the
fundamental application of X-ray crystallography, developed in 1913 by Williams Henry Bragg and
his son Lawrence for the study of inorganic crystals) it is desirable that this fusion of knowledge
can be realized in the years to come. Furthermore, the classical mechanical approach cannot be used
to approach these currents. In fact, any time there is a movement of charge bound to a mass, the
dualism that cannot be assessed by classical mechanics, instead quantum mechanics must be
applied, and in this perspective lay the promising recent quantum-mechanical approach by Riccardi
et al (Riccardi et al., 2006b) , Ivontsin et al. (Ivontsin, Mashkovtseva & Nartsissov, 2017). There is
the need to take into account the Heisenberg indeterminacy principle as Philip Hunter already
highlighted: "A quantum leap in biology. One inscrutable field helps another, as quantum physics
unravels consciousness" (Hunter, 2006).

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Abbreviations used

- 502 OXPHOS, Oxidative Phosphorylation; $\Delta\Psi$, membrane potential; HV1, potential-dependent proton
- 503 pump; Complex I, NADH: ubiquinone oxidoreductase; ETC: Electron Transport Chain; CL:
- 504 cardiolipin; PE: phosphatidylethanolamine; BR: bacteriorhodopsin.

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