



# Structure of ATP synthase from an early photosynthetic bacterium *Chloroflexus aurantiacus*

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F-type ATP synthase ( $F_1F_0$ ) catalyzes proton motive force-driven ATP synthesis in mitochondria, chloroplasts, and bacteria. Different from the mitochondrial and bacterial enzymes,  $F_1F_0$  from photosynthetic organisms have evolved diverse structural and mechanistic details to adapt to the light-dependent reactions. Although complete structure of chloroplast  $F_1F_0$  has been reported, no high-resolution structure of an  $F_1F_0$  from photosynthetic bacteria has been available. Here, we report cryo-EM structures of an intact and functionally competent  $F_1F_0$  from *Chloroflexus aurantiacus* ( $CaF_1F_0$ ), a filamentous anoxygenic phototrophic bacterium from the earliest branch of photosynthetic organisms. The structures of  $CaF_1F_0$  in its ADP-free and ADP-bound forms for three rotational states reveal a previously unrecognized architecture of ATP synthases. A pair of peripheral stalks connect to the  $CaF_1$  head through a dimer of  $\delta$ -subunits, and associate with two membrane-embedded a-subunits that are asymmetrically positioned outside and clamp  $CaF_0$ 's  $c_{10}$ -ring. The two a-subunits constitute two proton inlets on the periplasmic side and two proton outlets on the cytoplasmic side, endowing  $CaF_1F_0$  with unique proton translocation pathways that allow more protons being translocated relative to single a-subunit  $F_1F_0$ . Our findings deepen understanding of the architecture and proton translocation mechanisms of  $F_1F_0$  synthases and suggest innovative strategies for modulating their activities by altering the number of a-subunit.

ATP synthase | proton translocation | photosynthesis | photosynthetic bacteria

F-type ATP synthase ( $F_1F_0$ ) catalyzes the proton motive force (PMF)-driven ATP synthesis at the final step of oxidative phosphorylation and photophosphorylation in mitochondria ( $mtF_1F_0$ ), chloroplasts ( $cfF_1F_0$ ), and bacteria ( $bF_1F_0$ ) (1–3). These enzymes comprise a soluble  $F_1$  (Fraction 1) that synthesizes ATP and a membrane-embedded  $F_0$  (Oligomycin-binding fraction) that translocates protons ( $H^+$ ) across the membrane.  $F_1$  is composed of a hexamer of three asymmetric heterodimers ( $\alpha_3\beta_3$ ) (4), and a central stalk (comprising the  $\gamma$ - and  $\epsilon$ -subunits in bacteria) that rotates inside  $\alpha_3\beta_3$  and attaches to a c-ring to form the “rotor” (5).  $F_0$  consists of the c-ring of 8 to 17 c-subunits, and an a-subunit that forms two aqueous half-channels to conduct proton translocation (6). The  $F_1$  and  $F_0$  a-subunit are connected by a single peripheral stalk on one side, forming the “stator” of the enzyme (7). The peripheral stalk comprises  $\delta$  and two b-subunits in most  $bF_1F_0$ . While  $cfF_1F_0$  and  $F_1F_0$  from some photosynthetic bacteria, such as cyanobacteria and purple non-sulfur bacteria, have two nonidentical but related subunits b and b' (8–14). The peripheral stalk composition of  $mtF_1F_0$  is more substantial, comprising OSCP (homologous to  $\delta$ -subunit), b, d, F6, f, i/j, and 8 subunits (15, 16). During ATP synthesis, PMF-driven rotation of the c-ring is transmitted by the central stalk to induce sequential conformational changes in  $\alpha_3\beta_3$ , where the catalytic sites alternate from being empty to being occupied by Mg-ADP and phosphate (Pi), which are further condensed to Mg-ATP (4). The proton translocation activity of  $F_0$  is thus coupled to the ATP synthesis in  $F_1$ , forming an efficient molecular turbine employing rotary catalysis for energy conversion (3, 17).

$F_1F_0$  synthases from photosynthetic organisms or organelles have modified the c- and  $\gamma$ -subunits to adapt the rapid PMF changes resulting from light fluctuations and light-dependent bioenergetic demands (6, 8). The c-ring stoichiometry determines the number of protons required for a full rotation of the rotor (3). Therefore, the bioenergetic cost of synthesizing a single ATP molecule can be evaluated by the  $H^+$ -to-ATP ratio, which equals the number of c-subunits (n) divided by the number of ATP molecules (three) synthesized per full rotation (18). Relative to  $bF_1F_0$  and  $mtF_1F_0$  having c-ring stoichiometries ranging from 8 to 13 (19–24), plant and cyanobacterial  $F_1F_0$  synthases have larger c-ring stoichiometries vary between 13 and 15 (8, 25), generating higher  $H^+$ -to-ATP ratios that are favored to maintain the PMF in a range where ATP synthesis is supported but photodamage is minimized (6, 26, 27). In response to light intensity and light/dark

## Significance

F-type ATP synthase ( $F_1F_0$ ) catalyzes proton motive force-driven ATP synthesis in mitochondria, chloroplasts, and bacteria. We have identified an architecture of  $F_1F_0$  from *Chloroflexus aurantiacus* ( $CaF_1F_0$ ), a bacterium from the earliest branch of photosynthetic organisms. Different from previously described ATP synthases,  $CaF_1F_0$  has two peripheral stalks and two proton-conducting a-subunits, which constitute two proton inlets and two proton outlets, endowing  $CaF_1F_0$  with unique proton translocation pathways that allow more protons (presumably double of the single a-subunit) to translocate across the membrane within a single cycle of ATP synthesis. Our findings provide structural insights into the proton translocation mechanism of ATP synthases from photosynthetic bacteria and suggest innovative strategies to modulate the function of  $F_1F_0$  synthases.

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The authors declare no competing interest.

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transitions,  $cF_1F_0$  regulates its activity through redox regulation of a disulfide bond formed in a  $\sim 40$  amino acid insertion of the  $\gamma$ -subunit (8, 28). Cyanobacterial  $F_1F_0$  contains an insertion in the  $\gamma$ -subunit but lacks redox regulation (29), indicating diversified regulatory mechanisms for the photosynthetic  $F_1F_0$  synthases. Given their central roles in light-driven ATP production, these  $F_1F_0$  synthases are viewed as attractive targets for modulating photosynthesis and photoconversion efficiencies in engineered plants, synthetic organelles, or light-driven biomimetic systems (27, 30–32).

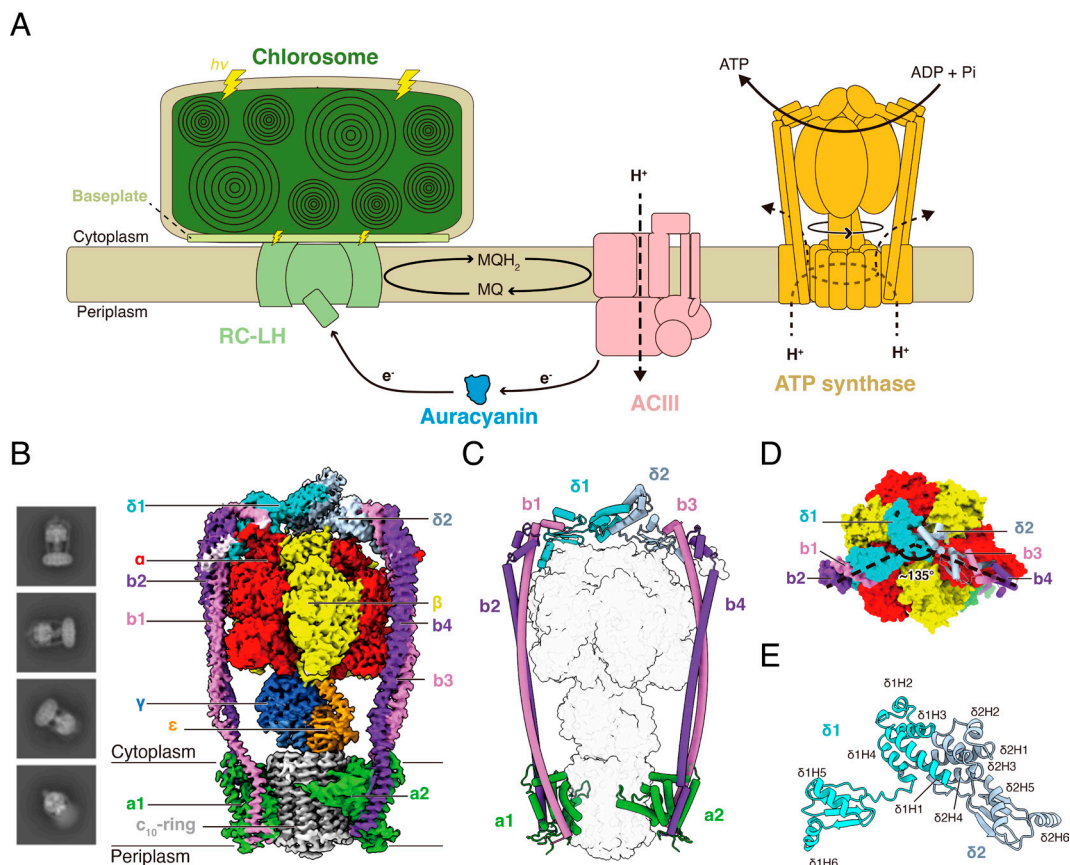
The complete structure of  $cF_1F_0$  from spinach has been resolved at high resolution, providing significant insights into the structural and mechanistic details of photosynthetic  $F_1F_0$  from higher plants. Although the crystal structure of the  $\gamma$ - $\epsilon$  complex from photosynthetic cyanobacterium *Thermosynechococcus elongatus* has been reported, high-resolution structure of an intact photosynthetic  $F_1F_0$  from photosynthetic bacteria is needed to deepen our understanding of the architecture and catalytic mechanism of  $F_1F_0$  from the early photosynthetic organisms. *Chloroflexus aurantiacus* (*C. aurantiacus*) is a representative bacterium of *Chloroflexi*, a phylum of green filamentous anoxygenic phototrophs (FAPs) that are evolved earlier than cyanobacteria and other anoxygenic phototrophs, thus forming the earliest branch of bacteria capable of photosynthesis (SI Appendix, Fig. S1) (33, 34). Different from plants, algae, and cyanobacteria, *C. aurantiacus* employs anoxygenic photosynthesis

through a unique light-dependent electron transport chain, which ultimately releases electrons and protons into the periplasm to generate the PMF required for ATP synthesis, comprises a peripheral antenna chlorosome, light-harvesting (LH)-reaction center (RC) complexes (35, 36), an alternative complex III (ACIII) (37, 38) and a blue-copper protein auracyanin (Ac) (39) that functionally replace the cytochrome  $b_6f$  complex and plastocyanin (PC) in oxygenic phototrophs (40, 41) (Fig. 1A).

Here, we isolated an intact and functionally competent  $F_1F_0$  from *C. aurantiacus* ( $CaF_1F_0$ ) and determined structures of  $CaF_1F_0$  in its ADP-free and ADP-bound forms for three rotational states. Different from any of the previously described ATP synthases,  $CaF_1F_0$  contains two peripheral stalks and two membrane-embedded  $\alpha$ -subunits that collectively constitute two proton inlet half-channels on the periplasmic side and two proton outlet half-channels on the cytoplasmic side, endowing  $CaF_1F_0$  with unique proton translocation pathways.

## Results

**Overall Structure of  $CaF_1F_0$ .** We isolated  $CaF_1F_0$  from phototrophically grown *C. aurantiacus* J-10-fl cells using a modification of previous methods (42). Blue native polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (PAGE) of  $CaF_1F_0$  showed a single band with a molecular weight near 669 kDa, and tricine–sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS)-PAGE revealed



**Fig. 1.** Overall structure of *Chloroflexus aurantiacus* ATP synthase ( $CaF_1F_0$ ). (A) Diagram illustrating the photophosphorylation process of *C. aurantiacus*. The light-dependent electron transport chain (ETC), which ultimately releases electrons and protons ( $H^+$ ) into the periplasm to generate the PMF required for ATP synthesis, comprises a peripheral antenna chlorosome, light-harvesting (LH)-reaction center (RC) complexes, an alternative complex III (ACIII), and a blue-copper protein auracyanin (Ac). (B) 2D class averages and side view of the cryo-EM maps of  $CaF_1F_0$  at rotational State 1. The overall structure comprises  $CaF_1$  ( $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma\epsilon$ ) and membrane-embedded  $CaF_0$  ( $\alpha_2c_{10}$ ) connected by two peripheral stalks ( $b_4\delta_2$ ). (C) The atomic model highlights two  $\alpha$ -subunits ( $a_1$  and  $a_2$ ) and two peripheral stalks ( $b_1b_2\delta_1$  and  $b_3b_4\delta_2$ ). (D) Top view of the  $CaF_1$  interactions with two peripheral stalks, separated by  $\sim 135^\circ$  (dashed black line); the  $\delta_1$ -C and  $\delta_2$ -C domains connect the  $b_1$ -subunit and the  $b_3$ -subunit to the  $CaF_1$  head. (E) Dimer of the  $\delta$ -subunits. Each  $\delta$ -subunit comprises two domains separated by a flexible hinge. The N-terminal domain ( $\delta$ -N) is a bundle of four  $\alpha$  helices ( $\delta H_1$  to  $\delta H_4$ ); the C-terminal domain ( $\delta$ -C) is a four-stranded  $\beta$  sheet with two  $\alpha$  helices ( $\delta H_5$  to  $\delta H_6$ ). Two  $\delta$ -Ns are interlocked at the  $\delta H_1$  and  $\delta H_3$  helices to form a dimer. Subunit color code:  $\alpha$ , Red;  $\beta$ , Yellow;  $\delta_1$ , Cyan;  $\delta_2$ , Steel blue;  $\gamma$ , Blue;  $\epsilon$ , Orange;  $b_1$  and  $b_3$ , Orchid;  $b_2$  and  $b_4$ , Dark orchid;  $a$ , Forest green;  $c$ , Silver.

eight bands with molecular weights ranging from ~10 to 70 kDa (SI Appendix, Fig. S2 A and B). Peptide mass fingerprinting (PMF) showed eight  $\text{CaF}_1\text{F}_0$  subunits ( $\alpha\beta\gamma\epsilon\delta\text{abc}$ ); these are encoded by a gene cluster (*Caur\_3040-3047*) (SI Appendix, Table S1). When reconstituting the isolated complex into proteoliposomes,  $\text{CaF}_1\text{F}_0$  was fully active in synthesizing ATP, but it was autoinhibited in ATP hydrolysis (SI Appendix, Fig. S2 C and D).

Single particle cryo-EM analysis of the isolated  $\text{CaF}_1\text{F}_0$  generated three 3D maps, each with the rotor arrested in a different rotary state (named rotational States 1, 2, and 3) (SI Appendix, Figs. S2E and S3 A and B). These three maps were reconstructed and refined to overall resolutions of 2.84, 2.89, and 3.31 Å, respectively (SI Appendix, Fig. S3 A–D). Focused refinement of each state improved the local resolutions of the  $\text{CaF}_0$  regions to 3.16, 3.30, and 3.98 Å, and the local resolutions of the two peripheral stalks to 3.48, 3.85, and 4.60 Å (SI Appendix, Fig. S3E and Table S2). No nucleotide densities were observed in any of the three  $\beta$ -subunits, while all three  $\alpha$ -subunits were resolved with bound ATP molecules (SI Appendix, Fig. S2F). We therefore refer to these cryo-EM structures as “ADP-free  $\text{CaF}_1\text{F}_0$ .”

We subsequently incubated  $\text{CaF}_1\text{F}_0$  with Mg-ADP and successfully obtained the “ADP-bound”  $\beta$ -subunits in the  $\text{CaF}_1\text{F}_0$  structures for three rotational states at 2.89, 2.96, and 3.18 Å resolutions (SI Appendix, Fig. S4 A–D); further focused refinement improved the resolutions to 3.97, 4.10, and 4.28 Å for the  $\text{CaF}_0$  region and 4.08, 4.95, and 5.18 Å for the peripheral stalks in each rotational state (SI Appendix, Fig. S4E and Table S3). These cryo-EM maps enabled the building of accurate atomic models for the  $\alpha$ -,  $\beta$ -,  $\gamma$ -,  $\epsilon$ -, a-, b-, c-subunits, and the C-terminal domain of  $\delta$ -subunit (named  $\delta$ -C) in both the ADP-free and ADP-bound structures (SI Appendix, Figs. S5 and S6). The N-terminal domain of the  $\delta$ -subunit ( $\delta$ -N) was resolved in the rotational State 1, while it appeared at lower resolution and was not modeled in States 2 or 3 (Fig. 1B and SI Appendix, Fig. S2E).

$\text{F}_1\text{F}_0$  synthases contain a single peripheral stalk that exclusively connects the catalytic head ( $\alpha_3\beta_3$ ) and a membrane-embedded a-subunit on one side of the c-ring. Distinct from all ATP synthase/ATPase structures reported to date,  $\text{CaF}_1\text{F}_0$  consists of a  $\text{CaF}_1$  head ( $\alpha_3\beta_3$ ) and a membrane-embedded  $\text{CaF}_0$  ( $\text{a}_2\text{c}_{10}$ ) that are connected by two peripheral stalks ( $\delta_2\text{b}_4$ ) and a central stalk ( $\gamma\epsilon$ ), giving rise to a subunit stoichiometry of  $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma\epsilon\delta_2\text{a}_2\text{b}_4\text{c}_{10}$  (Fig. 1 B and C). On top of the  $\text{CaF}_1$  head, a homodimer of two  $\delta$ -subunits connects the b1- and b3-subunits to the  $\alpha_3\beta_3$  hexamer at two positions (separated by  $\sim 135^\circ$ ) (Fig. 1D). Within the  $\text{CaF}_0$  region, the coiled coils of the peripheral stalks b1b2 and b3b4 each bifurcate and anchor one copy of a-subunit, forming the stator of the enzyme (Fig. 1 B and C). The central stalk ( $\gamma\epsilon$ ) inserts into the  $\text{CaF}_1$  head and attaches to the  $\text{c}_{10}$ -ring as the rotor. This architecture of  $\text{CaF}_1\text{F}_0$  with two peripheral stalks and two a-subunits is also distinct from  $\text{TvF}_1\text{V}_0$  (43), which contains two peripheral stalks but has a single a-subunit (SI Appendix, Fig. S7).

**Conformational Plasticity of the Stalks.** The three rotational states of  $\text{CaF}_1\text{F}_0$  are differentiated by rotation of the central stalk and  $\text{c}_{10}$ -ring at  $\sim 120^\circ$ ,  $125^\circ$ , and  $114^\circ$  (Fig. 2A and SI Appendix, Fig. S8 and Movie S1). Rotation of the central stalk induces sequential conformational changes in the  $\text{CaF}_1$  head and forces it to tilt from the  $\text{CaF}_0$  symmetry axes, a process known as “precession” (8, 43). The precession angles between the  $\text{CaF}_1$  and  $\text{CaF}_0$  symmetry axes are measured at  $2.2^\circ$ ,  $0.3^\circ$ , and  $0.8^\circ$  for three rotational states (SI Appendix, Fig. S2E). Relative to the two a-subunits, the c-subunit positions are offset at  $\sim 9.3^\circ$  for rotational State 2 relative to States 1 and 3 (SI Appendix, Fig. S8C). This is similar to  $\text{cF}_1\text{F}_0$ , in which the rotor shows unequal rotation of  $\sim 103^\circ$ ,

$112^\circ$ , and  $145^\circ$  at three rotational states, and there is a  $\sim 10^\circ$  offset of the c-subunits (8). Superposition of the central stalks in the three rotational states gives RMSD values of 0.392 (between States 1 and 2), 0.558 (between States 2 and 3), and 0.731 (between State 3 and 1), indicating structural rigidity of the  $\gamma$ - and  $\epsilon$ -subunits (Fig. 2B). The central stalk rigidity resembles that in  $\text{bF}_1\text{F}_0$  and  $\text{cF}_1\text{F}_0$  (8, 21, 44). It is distinct from  $\text{TvF}_1\text{V}_0$  (which also has two peripheral stalks) (43) and  $\text{mtF}_1\text{F}_0$  (45), in which considerable flexibility occurs at the central stalk during rotation of the c-ring.

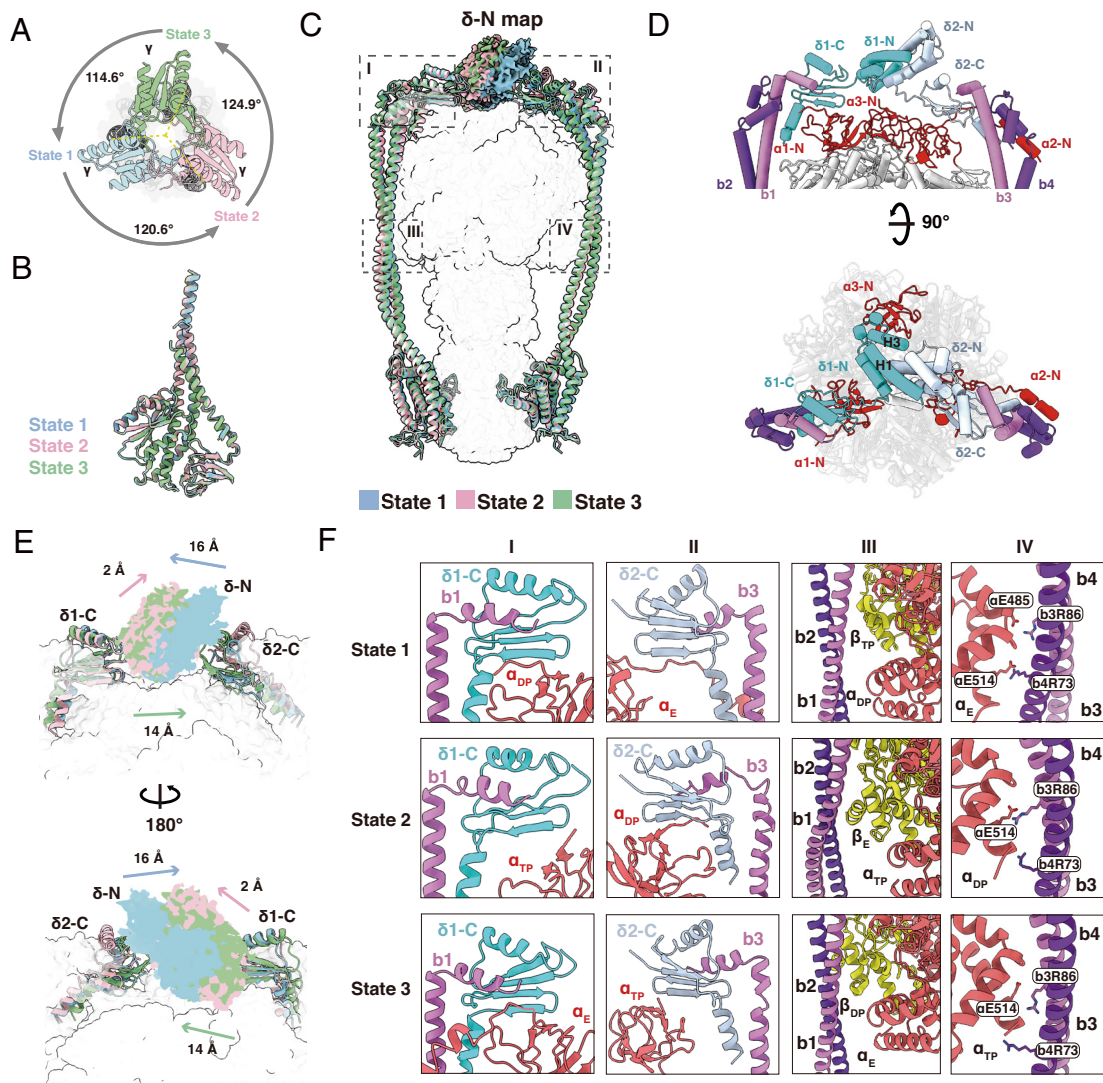
Different from any of the previously reported  $\text{F}_1\text{F}_0$ ,  $\text{CaF}_1\text{F}_0$  contains a dimer of two  $\delta$ -subunits that connects two peripheral stalks to the  $\text{CaF}_1$  head (Fig. 2C and SI Appendix, Fig. S7). Each  $\delta$ -subunit comprises two domains separated by a flexible hinge. The  $\delta$ -N domain (Met1-Arg85) consists of a bundle of four  $\alpha$  helices, it shares no structural similarity to any previously reported  $\delta$ -N structures (Fig. 1E and SI Appendix, Fig. S9A). Two  $\delta$ -N domains are interlocked at  $\delta\text{H1}$  and  $\delta\text{H3}$  helices, forming a dimer that sits in a central position on top of the  $\text{CaF}_1$  head (Fig. 2D). The positions of the  $\delta$ -N dimer shift by  $\sim 16$  Å,  $\sim 2$  Å, and  $\sim 14$  Å during the transitions from the State 1 to 2, from the State 2 to 3, and from the State 3 to 1 (Fig. 2E), respectively. These analyses indicate that the  $\delta$ -N dimer contributes to coordinate the conformational changes that occur during  $\text{CaF}_1$  precession.

Similar to previously reported  $\text{F}_1\text{F}_0$ , the  $\delta$ -C domain (Arg85-Ser157) contains a four-stranded  $\beta$ -sheet and two  $\alpha$  helices ( $\delta\text{H5}$  and  $\delta\text{H6}$ ) (Fig. 1E and SI Appendix, Fig. S9A). The  $\beta$ -sheet of each  $\delta$ -C interacts with the N-terminal  $\beta$ -barrel of the  $\alpha$ -subunits ( $\alpha 1$ -N and  $\alpha 2$ -N) through extensive hydrogen bonding interactions (Fig. 2D and SI Appendix, Fig. S9B). The  $\delta\text{H5}$  and  $\delta\text{H6}$  helices of  $\delta 1$ -C and  $\delta 2$ -C separately accommodate the kinked C-terminus of the b1- and b3-subunits (Fig. 2D). During the transitions among three rotational states, the  $\alpha$ -Ns are twisted in different directions but maintaining contact with the two  $\delta$ -Cs, in which only  $\delta 2$ -C confers minimal conformational changes (Fig. 2F and SI Appendix, Fig. S9 C and D).

In the middle coiled-coil regions of the peripheral stalks, b1b2-subunits are bent into distinct curvatures (without contacting the adjacent  $\alpha\beta$  heterodimers); yet for all three rotational states, b3b4-subunits are in close contact with the  $\alpha$ -subunits by salt bridges between amino acids pairs  $\alpha\text{Glu485}$ -b3Arg85 and  $\alpha\text{Glu514}$ -b3Arg73 (Fig. 2F). Among the three rotational states, no conformational changes occur at the membrane regions of the peripheral stalks that anchor the a-subunits (Fig. 2C). These findings indicate that the two peripheral stalks have conformational plasticities at the top  $\delta$ -subunit dimer and the middle coiled-coil regions during transition among the three rotational states. Compared to the single peripheral stalk in  $\text{cF}_1\text{F}_0$  and  $\text{bF}_1\text{F}_0$  synthases, the two peripheral stalks provide considerable structural stability and conformational flexibility for coupling  $\text{CaF}_1$  precession to  $\text{c}_{10}$ -ring rotation in  $\text{CaF}_0$ . As the  $\text{CaF}_0$  torsional force is transmitted by the central stalk to  $\text{CaF}_1$  catalytic sites, the middle coiled-coil regions of the two peripheral stalks each bend in distinct curvatures, which prevent wobbling of the  $\text{CaF}_1$  head and thus distribute energy minima between the rotary states. Ultimately, the dimer comprising two  $\delta$ -subunits twists on top of the  $\text{CaF}_1$  head, helping to release the elastic energy stored in the bent peripheral stalks.

**Mg-ADP Induced Conformational Change in  $\text{CaF}_1$  and  $\epsilon$ -Inhibition.** According to Boyer’s binding change mechanism for ATP synthesis and the structural studies of bovine mitochondria  $\text{F}_1$ , the three catalytic  $\beta$ -subunits adopt different conformations in sequential order from binding ADP and Pi ( $\beta_{\text{DP}}$ ), producing tightly bound ATP ( $\beta_{\text{TP}}$ ) to release of ATP ( $\beta_{\text{E}}$ ) (4, 46). Similar



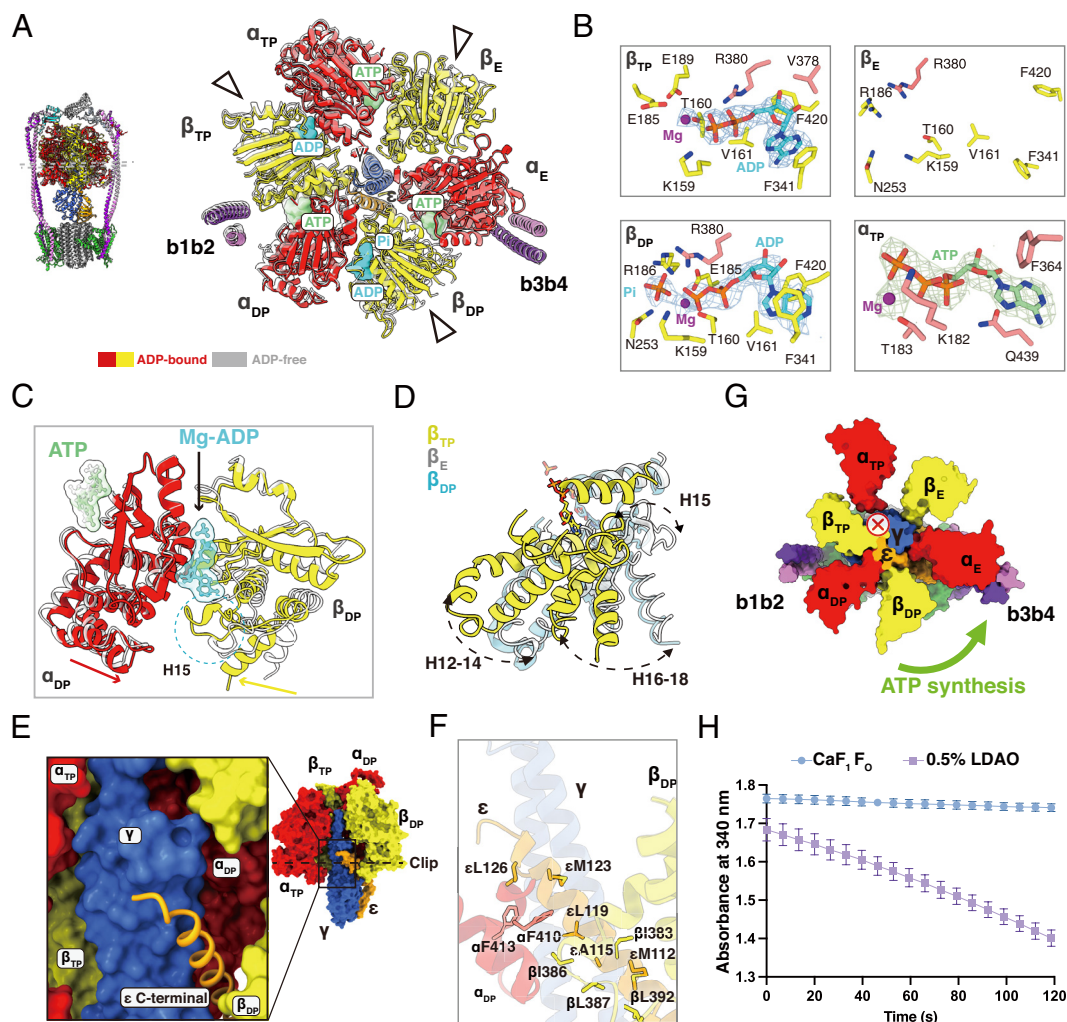


**Fig. 2.** Conformational flexibility of the stalks among three rotary states of  $CaF_1F_0$ . (A) Top view (from  $CaF_1$  to  $CaF_0$ ) of the central stalk (represented by the  $\gamma$ -subunit) and the  $c_{10}$ -ring (represented by the  $c_1$ -subunit) in rotational State 1 (light blue), State 2 (light pink), and State 3 (light green). In State 2, the central stalk is rotated by 120.6° relative to State 1; in State 3, the central stalk is rotated by 124.9° relative to State 2. The rotation angle from State 3 back to State 1 is 114.6°. (B) Superposition of the central stalk ( $\gamma$ ) in three rotational states. (C) Superposition of the two peripheral stalks aligned on the  $\alpha_1$ - and  $\alpha_2$ -subunits in three rotational states. Conformational changes of the *Top* and *Middle* coiled-coil regions that contact the  $CaF_1$  head are highlighted by dashed boxes and are labeled with roman numbers I-IV. (D) Side, and Top views of the interactions between two peripheral stalks ( $b_1b_2\delta_1$  and  $b_3b_4\delta_2$ ) and the  $CaF_1$  head ( $\alpha_3\beta_3$ ). (E) Conformational changes of the  $\delta$ -N dimer among three rotational states. The positions of the  $\delta$ -N dimer are shifted by ~16 Å, ~2 Å, and ~14 Å during the transitions from State 1 to 2, from State 2 to 3, and from State 3 to 1, while the  $\delta_2$ -C confers minimal conformational changes. (F) Close-up views of the conformational changes of two peripheral stalks and the  $CaF_1$  head among three rotational states. The amino acid residues involved in forming hydrogen bonding interactions are shown as sticks.

to reported  $F_1F_0$  synthases,  $CaF_1$  is composed of a hexamer of three conformationally different  $\alpha\beta$  heterodimers around a central stalk (Fig. 3A). Each  $\alpha$ - and  $\beta$ -subunit comprises an N-terminal  $\beta$ -barrel domain, a central nucleotide-binding domain, and a C-terminal helical domain (SI Appendix, Fig. S10A). Compared to  $\beta$ -subunit, each  $\alpha$ -subunit contains an additional N-terminal helix (N-helix) (SI Appendix, Fig. S10A). The N-helix is resolved in only one of the three  $\alpha$ -subunits; it interacts with  $b_3b_4$ -subunits through hydrophobic interactions, preventing random movement of this peripheral stalk (Fig. 3A and SI Appendix, Fig. S10B and C). In each rotational state of the ADP-free and ADP-bound structures, three  $\alpha$ -subunits adopt identical conformations, in which the nucleotide-binding sites are occupied with Mg-ATP (Fig. 3A and B and SI Appendix, Figs. S2F and S10D). The three catalytic  $\beta$ -subunits do not contain any nucleotides in the ADP-free structures, adopt “open” ( $\beta_E$ , empty), “closed” ( $\beta_{TP}$ , Mg-ADP bound), and “open” ( $\beta_{DP}$ , Mg-ADP, and Pi bound) conformations

similar to those observed in our ADP-bound structures (Fig. 3A and B). The nucleotide-binding sites of  $CaF_1F_0$  are highly conserved among  $F_1F_0$  synthases from bacteria to eukaryotes (Fig. 3B and SI Appendix, Fig. S11).

Superposition of the State 1 ADP-free and ADP-bound  $CaF_1F_0$  structures gives a main chain RMSD value of 0.399 Å, indicating that ADP binding does not obviously affect the  $CaF_1F_0$  conformation (Fig. 3A). Upon ADP binding, the C-terminal helical domains (helices H12-18) of  $\beta_E$ ,  $\beta_{DP}$  and  $\alpha_{DP}$ , especially helix15 (H15) of  $\beta_{DP}$  and  $\beta_E$  shift to positions close to the nucleotide-binding pocket (Fig. 3C and SI Appendix, Fig. S12A), implicating these regions in coordination of nucleotide binding. In the ADP-bound structure, the H15 helices in  $\beta_{DP}$  and  $\beta_{TP}$  are positioned close to the nucleotide-binding pocket (Fig. 3D and SI Appendix, Fig. S12B). These findings support that ADP binding induces conformational changes in  $\alpha_3\beta_3$  that effect ATP synthesis, with especially pronounced changes for the H15 helices in catalytic  $\beta$ -subunits.



**Fig. 3.** The  $CaF_1$  structure and autoinhibition by the  $\epsilon$ -subunit. (A) Cross-section through the nucleotide-binding domains of ADP-bound (colored) and ADP-free (white)  $CaF_1$  heads. Each  $\alpha\beta$  heterodimer is stalled in different conformations ( $\alpha_E\beta_E$ ,  $\alpha_{DP}\beta_{DP}$ ,  $\alpha_{TP}\beta_{TP}$ ) of the binding change mechanism. The catalytic  $\beta$ -subunits conferring conformational changes upon ADP-binding are indicated with hollow arrows. The central and peripheral stalks are shown to present their interactions with the  $CaF_1$  head. (B) Close-up views of the nucleotide-binding pockets in the catalytic  $\beta$ -subunits and noncatalytic  $\alpha$ -subunit. The  $\beta_{TP}$  site contains ADP (cyan) and Mg (purple); the  $\beta_{DP}$  site contains ADP, Pi (cyan), and Mg (purple);  $\beta_E$  is empty.  $\alpha_{TP}$  contains one ATP (green) and one Mg (purple). (C) Superposition of the  $\alpha_{DP}\beta_{DP}$  heterodimers in the ADP-bound (colored) and ADP-free (white)  $CaF_1F_0$ , showing the conformational changes (red and yellow arrows) of the C-terminal helical domains (H12-18). ATP (green) and Mg-ADP (cyan) are shown as sticks (fitted into the cryo-EM densities). (D) Side views of the aligned  $\beta_{TP}$  (yellow),  $\beta_{DP}$  (turquoise), and  $\beta_E$  (gray) in the ADP-bound  $CaF_1F_0$ , revealing substantial relocation (black dashed arrows) of C-terminal helical domains (H12-18). (E) Structure of the  $CaF_1$  in a surface representation, revealing insertion of  $\epsilon$ CTD into the  $CaF_1$  head. (F) Close-up views of the  $\epsilon$ CTD and  $\alpha_{DP}/\beta_{DP}$  interactions. Amino acid residues involved in forming hydrophobic interactions are shown as sticks. (G) Cross-section of the  $CaF_1$  head along the dashed line in panel (E). Steric clashes between the  $\epsilon$ -subunit (orange) and  $\beta_{TP}$  block rotation of the rotor in the direction of ATP hydrolysis but allow its free rotation for ATP synthesis (green arrow). (H)  $CaF_1F_0$  shows residual ATP hydrolysis activity, which is stimulated by adding 0.5% (v/v) lauryldimethylamine oxide (LDAO).

Previous studies have reported that the  $bF_1F_0$  from *Escherichia coli* (*E. coli*) (44, 47–49), *Bacillus PS3* (21), and *Acinetobacter baumannii* (*A. baumannii*) (50) avoid wasteful ATP hydrolysis by employing an extended C-terminal helix in the  $\epsilon$ -subunit ( $\epsilon$ CTD), which forms a single helix and maintains an “up conformation” to inhibit ATP hydrolysis. Analogous to these enzymes, the ADP-free and ADP-bound  $CaF_1F_0$  both contain an extended  $\epsilon$ CTD, which protrudes into the  $\alpha_{DP}$  and  $\beta_{DP}$  interface and extends along the  $\gamma$ -subunit to reach the central rotor cavity (Fig. 3E and SI Appendix, Fig. S12 B–F). The inserted  $\epsilon$ CTD forms extensive hydrophobic interactions with  $\alpha_{DP}$  and  $\beta_{DP}$ , forcing  $\beta_{DP}$  to adopt an open conformation (Fig. 3F and SI Appendix, Fig. S12 B and E). Insertion of the  $\epsilon$ CTD therefore physically blocks the clockwise rotation of  $\gamma$ -subunit (i.e., for ATP hydrolysis), but it is still free to turn counterclockwise for ATP synthesis (Fig. 3G). During one complete central stalk rotation, upon Mg-ADP and Pi binding,  $\beta_E$  transitions to the  $\beta_{DP}$  and then to  $\beta_{TP}$ , producing one ATP molecule that is ultimately released when the closed  $\beta_{TP}$  reverts to open  $\beta_E$

(SI Appendix, Fig. S10E). This scenario is consistent with our enzymatic analyses of  $CaF_1F_0$  showing autoinhibition of ATP hydrolysis activity and its stimulation by lauryldimethylamine oxide (LDAO) (Fig. 3H), a compound previously used to disable the  $\epsilon$ -inhibition in *E. coli*  $F_1F_0$  (48).

**$CaF_0$  Contains Two Membrane-Embedded  $\alpha$ -Subunits and One  $c_{10}$ -ring.** All proton-translocating ATP synthases/ATPases described to date contain a single  $\alpha$ -subunit, which lies outside the c-ring and conducts transmembrane proton translocation to power its rotation (8, 16, 19–21, 28, 44, 45, 47–59). Exceptionally,  $CaF_1F_0$  contains two instances of membrane-embedded  $\alpha$ -subunits, which asymmetrically surround and clamp a  $c_{10}$ -ring by interacting with two peripheral stalks on both sides (Fig. 4A and SI Appendix, Fig. S13A). Each  $\alpha$ -subunit of  $CaF_1F_0$  has a fold of six  $\alpha$ -helices ( $\alpha$ H1– $\alpha$ H6) that also occurs in chloroplasts (8), yeast (52), and other bacterial  $F_1F_0$  (20, 21, 44) (SI Appendix, Fig. S13 B and C). Both  $\alpha$ H1 and  $\alpha$ H2 span across the membrane and insert

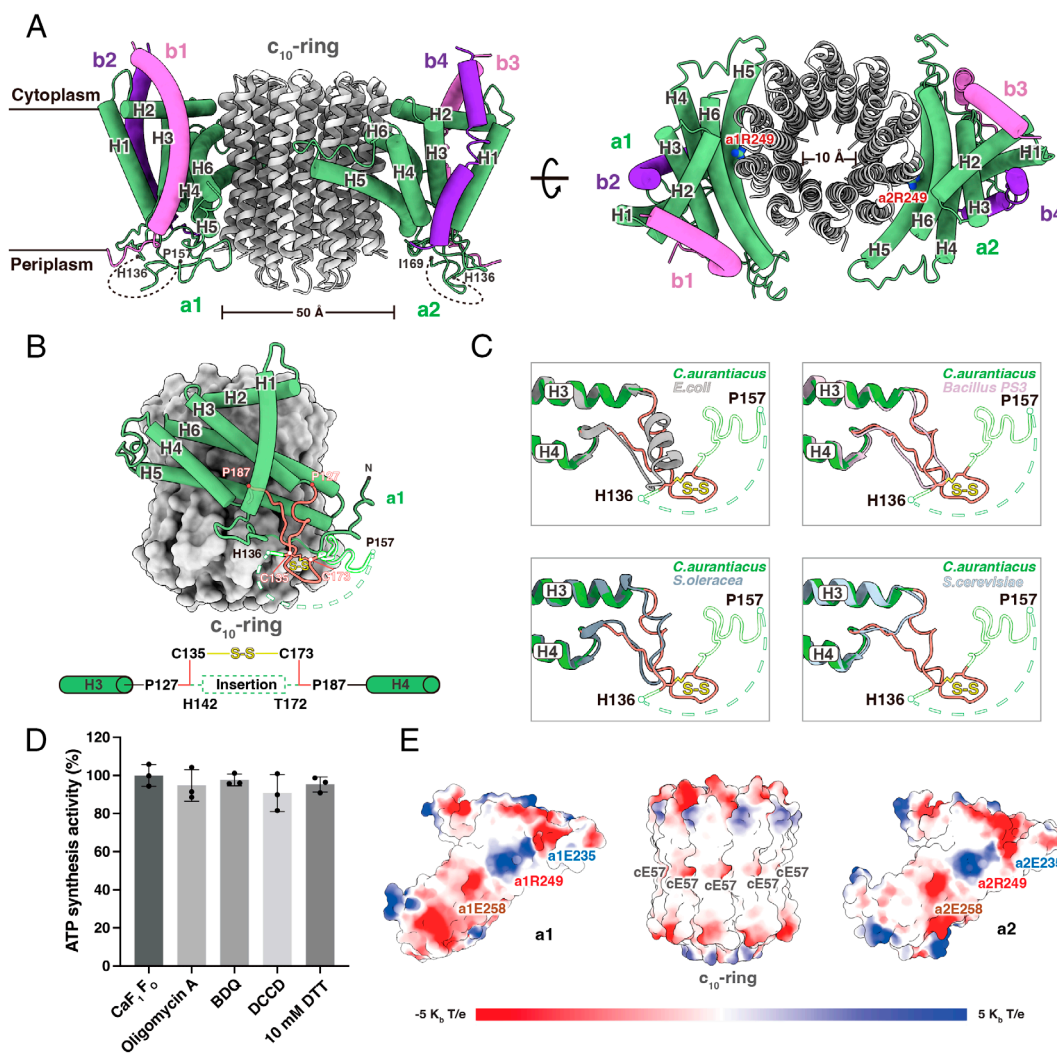


into the space between two peripheral b-subunits (Fig. 4*A* and *SI Appendix*, Fig. S13*A*). aH3-aH4 and aH5-aH6 helices form two long membrane-intrinsic hairpins, in which aH3-aH4 hairpin is in close contact with the peripheral stalks through extensive hydrophobic interactions, and aH5-aH6 hairpin constitutes the interface with the  $c_{10}$ -ring (Fig. 4*A*).

Compared to the a-subunits from *E. coli* (44), *Bacillus PS3* (21), *A. baumannii* (50), *Mycobacterium smegmatis* (*M. smegmatis*) (20), *Spinacia oleracea* (*S. oleracea*) (8), and *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* (*S. cerevisiae*) (52)  $F_1F_0$  synthases, *C. aurantiacus* a-subunit has a unique insertion sequence (His142-Thr172) within the aH3-aH4 linker (Pro127-Pro187) (Fig. 4*B* and *C* and *SI Appendix*, Fig. S14). Superposition of the  $CaF_1F_0$  a-subunit with that from *E. coli*, *Bacillus PS3*, *S. cerevisiae*, and *S. oleracea*  $F_1F_0$  indicate obvious structural similarity at the aH3-aH4 hairpin, while also revealing a

substantially longer aH3 and aH4 linker in  $CaF_1F_0$  that is partially disordered from His136 to Pro157 (Fig. 4*C*). Again, unique to  $CaF_1F_0$ , there is a Cys135-Cys173 disulfide bond that connects the aH3 and aH4 helices immediately in front of the disordered region, making the aH3-aH4 hairpin in  $CaF_1F_0$  adopt a similar conformation to those known for a-subunits of *E. coli*, *Bacillus PS3*, and *S. oleracea* (Fig. 4*B* and *C*). We found that exposure of  $CaF_1F_0$  to dithiothreitol (DTT) did not affect its integrity (blue native gel assay) or ATP synthesis activity (Fig. 4*D* and *SI Appendix*, Fig. S15*A*). The localization of the Cys135-Cys173 disulfide bond on the periplasmic surface of  $CaF_1F_0$  makes it distinct from the disulfide bond that has been observed in the  $\gamma$ -subunit of  $cF_1F_0$ , which employs redox regulation to avoid wasteful ATP hydrolysis in the dark (2, 8, 28, 61).

Each  $CaF_1F_0$  c-subunit resembles those in  $cF_1F_0$  and  $bF_1F_0$ , comprising a hairpin of two transmembrane  $\alpha$ -helices, which are



**Fig. 4.** Two a-subunits in  $CaF_1F_0$ . (A) Side (Left) and top (Right) views of  $CaF_1F_0$ , comprising two a-subunits (a1 and a2 in forest green) that lie outside and clamp a ~50 Å diameter  $c_{10}$ -ring (gray). Two peripheral stalks (b1/b3 in orchid, and b2/b4 in dark orchid) each bifurcate and anchor one copy of the a-subunit. The disordered regions in the a1-subunit (His136-Pro157) and a2-subunit (His136-Ile169) are indicated by dashed lines. The aArg249 checkpoints are shown as sticks. (B) Spatial organization for the Cys135-Cys173 disulfide bond and a-subunit insertion (His142-Thr172). Six conserved helices of the a1-subunit are shown as cylinders. The positions of the amino acid residues Pro127 and Pro187 in the aH3-aH4 linker and His136 and Pro157 in the disordered region are indicated with dots; the Cys135-Cys173 disulfide bond is shown as sticks. (C) Superposition of the  $CaF_1F_0$  a-subunit with those from *Escherichia coli* (PDB: 6OQW, gray), *Bacillus PS3* (PDB: 6N2Y, pink), *Spinacia oleracea* (PDB: 6FKF, steel blue), and *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* (PDB: 6CP6, light blue), indicating the structural conservation of the aH3-aH4 hairpins; the  $CaF_1F_0$  a-subunit has a substantially longer aH3-aH4 linker (partially disordered from His136 to Pro157). The Cys135-Cys173 disulfide bond immediately connects the aH3 and aH4 helices in front of the disordered region. (D) ATP synthesis activity of  $CaF_1F_0$  in 10 mM DTT, inhibitors oligomycin A, bedaquiline (BDQ), and dicyclohexylcarbodiimide (DCCD), respectively. Each bar represents the mean from  $n = 3$  separate assays, with errors are represented as SD from the mean. (E) Surface electrostatic potentials of the a1-subunit (Left),  $c_{10}$ -ring (Center), and a2-subunit (Right). The proton inlet (centered on E258) and outlet (centered on E235) half-channels in each a-subunit contain extensive negative charges. The positively, negatively, and neutrally charged residues on the surface are indicated with blue, red, and white, respectively. The surface electrostatic potential was calculated with the electrostatics plugin in ChimeraX (60) with the scale shown in units of  $k_B T/e$ .

connected by a loop that electrostatically attaches to the central stalk to guide its rotation (*SI Appendix, Fig. S15 B and C*). Strictly conserved Glu57 residues from each c-subunit are exposed on the outer membrane helix, forming a ring of negative charges on the exterior surface of the  $c_{10}$ -ring (Fig. 4E). The two  $\text{CaF}_1\text{F}_0$  a-subunits cover most of the exterior surface, leaving only three of the ten c-subunits completely exposed (Fig. 4B). Relative to a single a-subunit, the presence of two a-subunits increases the  $a/c_{10}$ -ring interface area (e.g., 7,021 Å<sup>2</sup> versus 2,825 Å<sup>2</sup> of *E. coli*  $\text{F}_1\text{F}_0$ ; *SI Appendix, Fig. S15D*). The two a-subunits also apparently “mask” the binding site for inhibitors that target the  $a/c$ -ring interface or the c-ring glutamates or aspartates (20, 56, 57, 62–64). Notably, such masking is supported by our enzymatic analyses, in which  $\text{CaF}_1\text{F}_0$  ATP synthesis activity was not affected by inhibitors known to target the c-ring glutamates [e.g., oligomycin A, bedaquiline (BDQ), and dicyclohexylcarbodiimide (DCCD)] (Fig. 4D). Thus, beyond revealing  $\text{CaF}_1\text{F}_0$ ’s unique architecture comprising two membrane-embedded a-subunits and one  $c_{10}$ -ring, these results suggest that  $\text{CaF}_1\text{F}_0$ ’s expanded  $a/c_{10}$ -ring interface area can plausibly explain the previously reported inability of multiple compounds to inhibit the ATP synthases.

**Proton Translocation Pathway in  $\text{CaF}_1\text{F}_0$ .** Previous studies have established that the a-subunit forms two half-channels (inlet and outlet) to and from the conserved glutamates or aspartates in the c-ring for proton translocation (8, 16, 19, 21, 44, 45, 48, 51–55, 58). The two half-channels are spatially and electrostatically separated by a strictly conserved arginine residue, which serves as “checkpoint” to prevent proton leakage from the inlet to the outlet half-channels (43, 54). In  $\text{CaF}_1\text{F}_0$  structure, we calculated the solvent-accessible regions of  $\text{CaF}_1\text{F}_0$  interior and identified four half-channels comprising aqueous cavities at the interface between two a-subunits and the  $c_{10}$ -ring (Fig. 5A). Each a-subunit contains two half-channels, both constitute negatively charged patches on the cytoplasmic (centered at aGlu235) and periplasmic sides (centered at aGlu258), which are separated by a patch of positive charge from a highly conserved aArg249 in the middle (Fig. 4E). The positive charge compensates with the negative charges of cGlu57 residues in the middle of the  $c_{10}$ -ring (Fig. 4E), ensuring that cGlu57 residues release protons before encountering the two checkpoints a1Arg249 and a2Arg249. The arrangement of two half-channels in each  $\text{CaF}_1\text{F}_0$  a-subunit resembles those observed in previously reported ATP synthases/ATPases. One distinction is the presence of the two a-subunits that form two inlet half-channels (inlet1 and inlet2) on the periplasmic side and two outlet half-channels (outlet1 and outlet2) on the cytoplasmic side separated with two Arg249 checkpoints (Fig. 5A and *SI Appendix, Fig. S16A*).

The structure of dimeric ATP synthase from bovine mitochondria provides evidence that the proton uptake from the mitochondrial matrix proceeds via a Grotthus chain of water molecules, suggested by the unmodeled density in the inlet half-channel (55). In  $\text{CaF}_1\text{F}_0$ , no clear cryo-EM densities of water molecules have been observed in any of the four half-channels. The dimension of the “L-shaped” inlet half-channel is  $\sim 7$  Å at the narrowest position, providing enough space for freely passing of the water molecules (*SI Appendix, Fig. S16 B and C*). In each a-subunit, the inlet half-channel begins from periplasmic aHis170 and aAsp171, and then passes through a tunnel formed by aHis31, aSer131, aGlu258, aGlu280 from the extended aH3 and aH4 linker and the U-turn half of the aH5-H6 hairpin. These proton-carrying residues are positioned with edge-to-edge distances of more than  $\sim 4.6$  Å (*SI Appendix, Fig. S16 D and E*), which are adequate for accommodating water molecules to conduct the proton transfer via a Grotthus mechanism. The inlet half-channel ends at aAsn253,

which can deliver proton to the nearby cGlu57 residue for protonation (Fig. 5B and *SI Appendix, Fig. S16 B–E*).

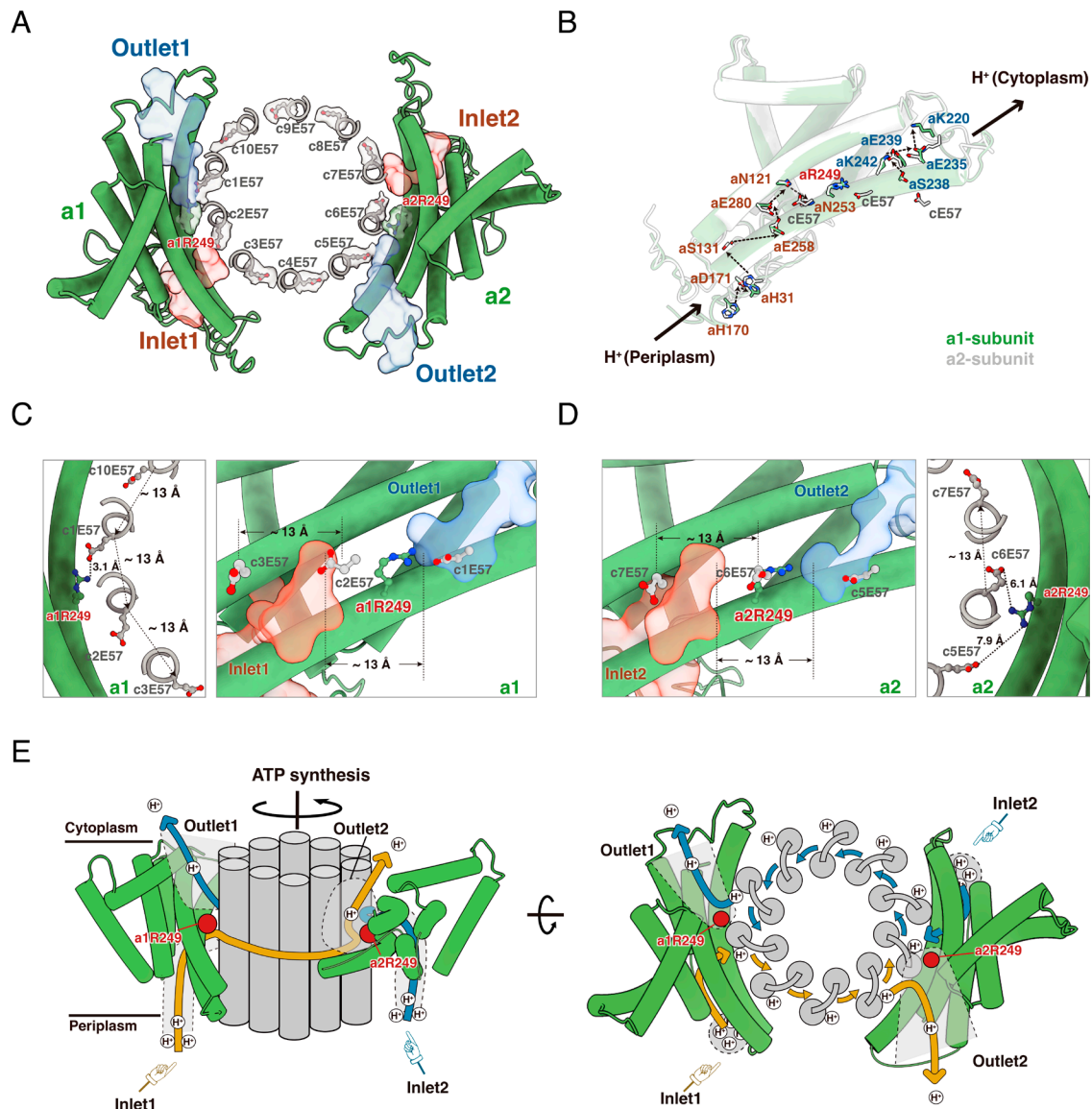
The outlet is delineated by an aqueous cavity composed of hydrophilic residues at the interface between the cytoplasmic half of the aH5-H6 hairpin and the  $c_{10}$ -ring, starting from the adjacent cGlu57 that receives proton, passing aSer238, aLys242, aGlu239 to aGlu235, and ending at aLys220 on the cytoplasmic side (Fig. 5B and *SI Appendix, Fig. S16 B–E*). These residues are positioned with edge-to-edge distances of more than  $\sim 4.0$  Å, except aGlu239 and aLys242 that forms a weak hydrogen bond (3.4 Å) (*SI Appendix, Fig. S16 D–E*), indicating the protons in the outlet half-channel could also be transferred via a Grotthus mechanism. Superposition of the two a-subunits revealed similar sidechain orientations of the amino acid residues that constitute the proton inlet and outlet half-channels (Fig. 5B).

The edge-to-edge distance of the inlet and outlet half-channels in each a-subunit is  $\sim 13$  Å, which matches the space between adjacent cGlu57 residues on the  $c_{10}$ -ring (Fig. 5 C and D). This distance matching allows simultaneous protonation of one cGlu57 and deprotonation of its adjacent cGlu57. Superposition of the ten c-subunits in rotational State 1 revealed distinct sidechain orientations of the cGlu57 residues (*SI Appendix, Fig. S15E*) and indicated that the protonated and deprotonated cGlu57 residues adopt different sidechain conformations during rotation. Specifically, at the interface of the  $c_{10}$ -ring and aH5-aH6 hairpin, c1Glu57 (numbered in the ATP synthesis direction) directs its carboxylate against the guanidine group of a1Arg249 (3.1 Å), forming a salt bridge that releases the proton and transiently arrests movement of the c1Glu57 carboxylate (Fig. 5C). On the other side, the protonated c5Glu57 carboxyl inserts against the outlet 2 and releases the proton, while the carboxylate of c6Glu57 stretches along the  $c_{10}$ -ring and rotates past the a2Arg249 checkpoint (Fig. 5 C and D).

These structural analyses reveal a putative proton translocation pathway in  $\text{CaF}_1\text{F}_0$ . During ATP synthesis, the presence of the two proton inlets (inlet1 and inlet2) allows protons to travel toward the negatively charged cGlu57 carboxylates at the  $a/c_{10}$ -ring interfaces. Once being protonated, driven by PMF, the neutralized cGlu57 carboxyl partitions into the lipid phase and makes one counterclockwise rotary substep [a full rotation of the  $c_{10}$ -ring comprises ten rotary substeps (51)]. Each rotary substep brings the adjacent cGlu57 into the  $a/c_{10}$ -ring interface for protonation, thus initiating subsequent rotary substeps. Upon encountering the a1Arg249 and a2Arg249 checkpoints, the cGlu57 residues release protons into the nearest outlets, where protons are translocated to the cytoplasm with higher pH. The cGlu57 residues mediate proton translocation for both inlets: protons from inlet1 are released to outlet2 following four rotary substeps of the  $c_{10}$ -ring, while protons from inlet2 are released to the nearest outlet1 following six rotary substeps. Thus, the sequential protonation and deprotonation of the cGlu57 residues drive rotation of the  $c_{10}$ -ring. After passing the a1Arg249 and a2Arg249 checkpoints, the deprotonated cGlu57 residues receive protons as they successively enter the inlet1 and inlet2, starting a new cycle of transmembrane proton translocation (Fig. 5E and *Movie S2*).

## Discussion

ATP synthases transform the energy inherent in the transmembrane electrochemical gradient into formation of a covalent phosphoanhydride bond stored in ATP. Here, based on structural analysis of  $\text{CaF}_1\text{F}_0$ , we have revealed an architecture with the proton translocation pathway unique from any previously described ATP synthases. Two pairs of peripheral stalks connect



**Fig. 5.** Proton translocation in  $\text{CaF}_1\text{F}_0$ . (A) The Top view of  $\text{a}_2\text{c}_{10}$  features the proton inlet and outlet half-channels on the  $\text{a}_1$ - and  $\text{a}_2$ -subunits and the  $\text{cGlu57}$  (silver sticks) conformations of the  $\text{c}_{10}$ -ring for rotational State 1. The long membrane-intrinsic hairpin of helices  $\text{aH5}$  and  $\text{aH6}$  follows the curvature of the  $\text{c}_{10}$ -ring, forming the periplasmic proton inlet half-channels (red transparent surface) and the cytoplasmic outlet half-channels (blue transparent surface). An  $\text{aArg249}$  (green sticks) in each  $\text{a}$ -subunit separates the two half-channels and prevents proton leakage. The ten  $\text{cGlu57}$  residues are shown as sticks (fitted into cryo-EM densities). (B) Superposition of the amino acid residues that constitute the proton translocating inlet (brown) and outlet (blue) half-channels of the  $\text{a}_1$ -subunit (green) and  $\text{a}_2$ -subunit (gray). (C) and (D) Edge-to-edge distances (black dashed lines) between the adjacent  $\text{cGlu57}$  residues on the  $\text{c}_{10}$ -ring and their interactions with the  $\text{aArg249}$  residues, and edge-to-edge distances (black arrows) between the inlet (red transparent surface) and outlet (blue transparent surface) half-channels in the  $\text{a}_1$ -subunit (C) and  $\text{a}_2$ -subunit (D). The hydrogen bond between  $\text{cGlu57}$  and  $\text{a1Arg249}$  is shown as a dashed line, with the distance labeled. (E) Proposed proton translocation pathway in  $\text{CaF}_1\text{F}_0$ . Driven by PMF, protons (black circles) from the periplasmic side enter the inlet1 and inlet2 half-channels (gray dash) and travel toward the negatively charged  $\text{cGlu57}$  carboxylates at the  $\text{a}/\text{c}_{10}$ -ring interfaces. Upon protonation, the neutralized  $\text{cGlu57}$  partitions into the lipid phase and makes one counterclockwise rotary substep (a full rotation of the  $\text{c}_{10}$ -ring comprises ten rotary substeps). Each rotary substep brings the adjacent  $\text{cGlu57}$  into the  $\text{a}/\text{c}_{10}$ -ring interface for protonation, thus initiating subsequent rotary substeps. When encountering the  $\text{a1Arg249}$  and  $\text{a2Arg249}$  checkpoints (red dots), the  $\text{cGlu57}$  residues release protons into the nearest outlet half-channels (gray dash), where protons are translocated to the cytoplasm with higher pH. Protons from inlet1 are released to outlet2 following four rotary substeps of the  $\text{c}_{10}$ -ring (orange arrow), while protons from inlet2 are released to the nearest outlet1 following six rotary substeps (blue arrow). After passing the  $\text{a1Arg249}$  and  $\text{a2Arg249}$  checkpoints, the deprotonated  $\text{cGlu57}$  residues receive protons as they successively enter the inlet1 and inlet2, starting a new cycle of transmembrane proton translocation.

to the  $\text{CaF}_1$  head through a dimer of two  $\delta$ -subunits and associate with two membrane-embedded  $\text{a}$ -subunits in  $\text{CaF}_0$ . The two  $\text{a}$ -subunits constitute two proton inlet half-channels on the periplasmic side and two proton outlet half-channels on the cytoplasmic side, adding a second proton translocation pathway. Given the essential role of the  $\text{a}$ -subunit in conducting transmembrane proton translocation, our finding of  $\text{CaF}_1\text{F}_0$ 's two  $\text{a}$ -subunits shakes up previous understanding about the structures and proton translocation mechanisms of ATP synthases.

Also distinct from previously described  $\text{F}_1\text{F}_0$  synthases,  $\text{CaF}_1\text{F}_0$  contains two peripheral stalks that are connected by a  $\delta$ -N dimer. Prior to our study, the  $\delta$ -N dimer has not been resolved in any of the reported  $\text{F}_1\text{F}_0$  structures. Multiple peripheral stalks have been observed in the  $\text{TiV}_1\text{V}_0$  (two) and  $\text{V-ATPases}$  (three) from human (65), rat brain (66), bovine brain (67), synaptic vesicles (68, 69), porcine kidney (70), yeast (71), and citrus fruit (72), but they are separately connected to the catalytic head via their C-terminal globular domains, leaving the space above the catalytic head unoccupied.



For  $F_1F_0$  synthases that contain a single peripheral stalk, the  $\delta$ -N ( $cF_1F_0$  and  $bF_1F_0$ ) or OSCP-N ( $mtF_1F_0$ ) occupies the space above the pseudorotational symmetry axis of the  $F_1$  head (SI Appendix, Fig. S7). At the same time as our studies, Ueno et al. have shown that the engineered *Bacillus PS3*  $F_1F_0$  can incorporate up to three peripheral stalks by deleting the  $\delta$ -N and genetically fusing the  $\delta$ -C to the N-terminal of  $\alpha$ -subunit (73), indicating that the  $\delta$ -N plays an important role in defining the number of peripheral stalks. Most likely, the  $\delta$ -N structurally breaks the pseudothreefold symmetry of the  $F_1$  head and limits the stoichiometry of the peripheral stalk to one (73).

To investigate the presence of the two peripheral stalks in  $CaF_1F_0$  from an evolutionary aspect, we constructed a phylogenetic tree based on the multiple sequence alignment of the  $\delta$ -subunits from  $F_1F_0$  synthases. The phylogenetic analyses showed that the  $\delta$ -subunits in  $F_1F_0$  synthases from the *Chloroflexi* phylum, such as *C. aurantiacus*, *Roseiflexus castenholzii*, and *Oscillochloris trichoides*, are classified into one group and conferring a close relationship (SI Appendix, Fig. S17 A and B). While the  $\delta$ -subunits of *C. aurantiacus* and other photosynthetic bacteria (such as *Synechocystis* sp., *Rhodobacter capsulatus*, and *Heliobacterium modesticaldum*) are clustered in different groups and are evolved independently (SI Appendix, Fig. S17 A and B). Compared to previously reported  $bF_1F_0$  synthases, the bacterial species from *Chloroflexi* phylum all contain a shortened  $\delta$ -N with  $\sim 20$  amino acid sequences missing in the primary amino acid sequences (SI Appendix, Fig. S17B). Structural alignment further revealed the absence of  $\alpha$ -helices in *C. aurantiacus*  $\delta$ -N (SI Appendix, Fig. S17C), creating sufficient space to accommodate a  $\delta$ -N dimer on top of the  $CaF_1$  head. Given that deletion of the  $\delta$ -N allows incorporation of up to three peripheral stalks in the engineered *Bacillus PS3*  $F_1F_0$  (73), the shortened  $\delta$ -N most likely contributes to assembly of the two peripheral stalks in  $CaF_1F_0$ . Because the shortened  $\delta$ -N is a common feature shared by the bacterial species from *Chloroflexi*, the presence of two peripheral stalks could be a specific feature of *Chloroflexi*  $F_1F_0$  synthases.

The most important functional significance of  $CaF_1F_0$  is the incorporation of two proton-conducting  $a$ -subunits accompanied with two peripheral stalks. Compared with  $F_1F_0$  synthases having a single  $a$ -subunit, it is notable that the two  $a$ -subunits in  $CaF_1F_0$  form two proton inlets and two proton outlets, allowing more protons (presumably double of the single  $a$ -subunit) to flow in-and-out the  $CaF_0$  during each cycle of ATP synthesis in  $CaF_1$ . As a result,  $CaF_1F_0$  is capable of translocating more protons from the periplasm to cytoplasm per ATP synthesized, yielding a higher  $H^+$ -to-ATP ratio relative to  $bF_1F_0$  synthases that also have a  $c_{10}$ -ring. This is supported by recent studies of the engineered *Bacillus PS3*  $F_1F_0$ , in which the enzyme containing three  $a$ -subunits showed an  $H^+$ -to-ATP ratio of 5.9, beyond the highest (5.0) among naturally occurring (one peripheral stalk and single  $a$ -subunit)  $F_1F_0$  synthases (73). Given the  $H^+$ -to-ATP ratio defines the energy cost and the PMF threshold for ATP synthesis, a high  $H^+$ -to-ATP ratio lowers the PMF required to overcome the Gibbs free energy of ATP synthesis ( $\Delta G_{ATP}$ ). Considering *C. aurantiacus* grows optimally under normal to alkaline pH conditions with adequate periods of direct sunlight in hot springs (55 to 70 °C) (33), the incorporation of two  $a$ -subunits contributes to increase the  $H^+$ -to-ATP ratio of  $CaF_1F_0$ , enabling ATP synthesis at low or unstable PMF conditions.

Our study of  $CaF_1F_0$  provides insights into the structure and proton translocation of ATP synthases from photosynthetic organisms. The unique structural features of  $CaF_1F_0$  apparently help to meet the bioenergetic demands under challenging environmental pressures. Regarding applications, the unique architecture of  $CaF_1F_0$  immediately suggests potentially innovative

strategies for modulating the proton translocation or  $H^+$ -to-ATP ratios of engineered ATP synthases and for manipulating photosynthesis in plants or light-driven biomimetic systems and energy metabolism in cells or synthetic organelles. That is, distinct from current efforts based on changing the  $c$ -ring stoichiometry, our findings support that researchers can rationally alter the number of  $a$ -subunits and/or peripheral stalks to specify distinct outcomes in terms of (for example) proton translocation capacity and enzyme stability. Our results can inspire future structural and mechanistic investigations of ATP synthases from other photosynthetic species, which will reveal whether the features of  $CaF_1F_0$  described here are unique to *C. aurantiacus* or are shared by the early photosynthetic organisms.

## Materials and Methods

**Isolation and Purification of  $CaF_1F_0$  from *C. aurantiacus*.** Preparation of *C. aurantiacus* membranes and membrane protein solubilization were carried out as described (42). Briefly, *C. aurantiacus* J-10-fl cells were cultured anaerobically at 50 °C under 180  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  illumination in a modified PE medium for 7 d (33). The cells were harvested by centrifugation at 10,000 $\times g$  for 10 min at 4 °C and were resuspended in buffer containing 50 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0 (buffer A) before homogenization using a high-pressure homogenizer (Union, China). The cell extracts were centrifuged at 22,000 $\times g$  for 10 min to remove the unbroken cells and insoluble lipids. The whole membrane components were then harvested by centrifugation at 200,000 $\times g$  for 2 h (Ti 70 rotor, 45,000 rpm) at 4 °C.

The membrane pellets were resuspended in buffer A and solubilized by 2% *n*-Dodecyl- $\beta$ -D-Maltopyranoside (DDM, Anatrace) with gentle stirring at room temperature for 1 h. The solubilized membranes were ultracentrifuged at 200,000 $\times g$  for 1 h at 4 °C. The supernatant was filtered through a 0.22  $\mu\text{m}$  Millipore filter and diluted with four-fold volume of the buffer A. The diluted supernatant was then loaded on a prepacked anion exchange chromatography column (HiTrap Q HP, GE Health) that had been pre-equilibrated with buffer A containing 0.05% DDM (buffer B). The fractions containing  $CaF_1F_0$  were eluted from the column with 0.1 M to 0.3 M NaCl in buffer B. The eluents were concentrated using Amicon filters (EMD Millipore), and were further purified using a Uniodec 200 PG 16/60 size-exclusion column (Union, China) in buffer containing 20 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 100 mM NaCl, 0.02% DDM (buffer C). The fractions verified by blue native PAGE and tricine-SDS-PAGE were used for cryo-EM analyses and other experiments.

**Cryoelectron Microscopy Grid Preparation and Data Collection.** The protein concentration of purified  $CaF_1F_0$  was determined by a bicinchoninic acid (BCA) Protein Quantification Kit (Vazyme Biotech Co. Ltd., China). 3  $\mu\text{L}$  of  $CaF_1F_0$  at a concentration of 3 mg/mL was applied to freshly glow-discharged GiGrid R1.2/1.3 300-mesh amorphous alloy film (Zhenjiang Lehua Technology Co. Ltd., China). Each grid was blotted for 3.0 s with a blot force of 1 under 100% humidity at 4 °C, and plunge-frozen in liquid ethane using a Mark IV Vitrobot plunge freezer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA). To obtain the ADP-bound conformation of  $CaF_1F_0$ , the purified  $CaF_1F_0$  was incubated with 5 mM  $\text{MgCl}_2$  and 48  $\mu\text{M}$  ADP before preparing the cryo-EM grids.

Cryo-EM images of the ADP-free and ADP-bound  $CaF_1F_0$  were recorded on a 300-kV Titan Krios microscope with a Selectris energy filter and Falcon 4 direct electron detector using EPU software (Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA). A calibrated magnification of 130,000 $\times$  was used for imaging, corresponding to a pixel size of 0.93 Å. Each movie was dose-fractionated to 40 frames under a total dose rate of 50  $\text{e}^-/\text{\AA}^2$  and an exposure time of 6 s in a defocus range of  $-0.8$  to  $-1.6$   $\mu\text{m}$ . In total, 10,853 movies of ADP-free  $CaF_1F_0$  and 10,705 movies of ADP-bound  $CaF_1F_0$  were collected. Further details are given in SI Appendix, Tables S2 and S3.

**Image Processing.** Motion correction and contrast transfer function (CTF) estimation were performed using CryoSPARC v3.3.2 (74). For the ADP-free  $CaF_1F_0$  dataset, a total of 2,463,962 particles were automatically selected from 10,853 micrographs, extracted, and subjected to two-dimensional (2D) classifications. After several iterations of 2D and three-dimensional (3D) classifications, 443,387 particles were selected and subjected for a new round of 3D classification. These particles were 3D classified into three classes using a 30-Å low-pass-filtered initial model and a full mask. According to the rotational positions of the central

stalk relative to the stator, the three classes with unequal particle numbers were assigned as three rotational states of  $\text{CaF}_1\text{F}_0$  (231,462 particles in State 1, 169,308 particles in State 2, and 42,617 particles in State 3). Several iterations of heterologous refinement and nonuniform refinement (75) of the particles in each class generated three maps with overall resolutions at 2.84 Å, 2.89 Å, and 3.31 Å, respectively, based on the gold standard Fourier shell correlation (FSC) cut-off of 0.143 (76) (*SI Appendix, Fig. S3*).

To improve the reconstruction of the  $\text{CaF}_0$  region and the peripheral stalks region, a soft-edged mask around the  $\text{CaF}_0$ , and a mask around  $\text{CaF}_0$  and the two peripheral stalks were separately applied before local realignment. Focused refinement of the  $\text{CaF}_0$  regions including a- and c-subunits improved the local resolutions to 3.16, 3.30, and 3.98 Å for each rotational state. Focused refinement including a-, c-, and b-subunits improved the local resolutions of the two peripheral stalks to 3.48, 3.85, and 4.60 Å for each rotational state (*SI Appendix, Fig. S3E*).

For the ADP-bound  $\text{CaF}_1\text{F}_0$  dataset, a total of 2,452,775 particles were automatically selected from 10,705 micrographs and extracted for 2D classifications. After several iterations of 2D and 3D classifications, 185,010 particles were selected and extracted for a new round of 3D classification, which sorted the particles into three main classes. After several iterations of heterologous refinement and nonuniform refinement of the particles (85,733 particles in State 1, 58,297 particles in State 2, and 37,529 particles in State 3), three final maps were produced with overall resolutions at 2.89 Å, 2.96 Å, and 3.18 Å, respectively, based on the gold standard FSC cut-off of 0.143 (*SI Appendix, Fig. S4*). Focused refinement of the ADP-bound  $\text{CaF}_1\text{F}_0$  improved the local resolutions of the  $\text{CaF}_0$  region to 3.97, 4.10, and 4.28 Å, and the peripheral stalks to 4.08, 4.95, and 5.18 Å for each rotational state (*SI Appendix, Fig. S4E*). The values of the angular distribution of particles from 3D refinement were visualized by ChimeraX (60). Local resolution was estimated with Resmap (77).

**Model Building and Refinement.** The initial model of the ADP-free  $\text{CaF}_1\text{F}_0$  was built by fitting *Bacillus PS3*  $\text{F}_1\text{F}_0$  (21) (PDB ID: 6N2Y) into the cryo-EM density map in UCSF Chimera (78). Based on the density map, the atomic model of the ADP-free  $\text{CaF}_1\text{F}_0$ , including the amino acid residues and cofactors, was manually built, and adjusted in Coot (79). Then real-space refinement in PHENIX (80) was used for model refinement, using the Ramachandran restraints followed by manual rebuilding in Coot. The structure of the ADP-bound  $\text{CaF}_1\text{F}_0$  was manually built using the refined model of ADP-free  $\text{CaF}_1\text{F}_0$  as a reference in Coot and was refined using the real-space refinement in PHENIX. The refinement statistics are summarized in *SI Appendix, Tables S2 and S3*. All figures were drawn in PyMOL (The PyMOL Molecular Graphics System, Version 2.5.2, Schrödinger, LLC.), UCSF Chimera, and ChimeraX.

**Reconstitution of  $\text{CaF}_1\text{F}_0$  into Proteoliposomes.** The purified  $\text{CaF}_1\text{F}_0$  was separately reconstituted into proteoliposomes using a modification of the previously described methods (81). 25 mg of phosphatidylcholine (Sigma-Aldrich) was suspended in 1 mL of lipid-solubilization buffer containing 10 mM Tricine-KOH (pH 8.0), 2 mM  $\text{MgCl}_2$ , and 1 mM dithiothreitol. The suspension was sonicated twice for 1 min (150 W, Scientz JY92-IIIN, China) and cooled on ice for 1 h, and was then mixed with 0.25 mg of  $\text{CaF}_1\text{F}_0$  in a lipid-to-protein ratio of 50:1 (wt/wt). To facilitate insertion of  $\text{CaF}_1\text{F}_0$  into the liposomes, 0.8% Triton X-100 was added to the mixture, which was cooled down on ice for 20 min before being gently stirred at room temperature for 45 min. Then three aliquots of Bio-Beads SM-2 (Bio-Rad) (80, 80, and 100 mg) were added to the mixture at time intervals of 90-, 90-, and 30-min to remove the included Triton X-100. After Bio-Bead removal by centrifugal filtration, the reconstituted  $\text{CaF}_1\text{F}_0$  proteoliposomes were immediately used for the ATP synthesis and hydrolysis activity assays.

**ATP Synthesis Activity.** The ATP synthesis activity of the reconstructed  $\text{CaF}_1\text{F}_0$  proteoliposomes was separately determined using the luciferase-luciferin system as previously described (81). The reaction was monitored using an ATP Assay Kit (Beyotime Biotechnology, China). Briefly, 20  $\mu\text{L}$  proteoliposomes were mixed with 80  $\mu\text{L}$  acidic buffer comprising 50 mM succinate (pH 4.5), 5 mM  $\text{NaH}_2\text{PO}_4$ , 2 mM  $\text{MgCl}_2$ , 0.5 mM ADP, 150 mM KCl, and 2  $\mu\text{M}$  valinomycin (freshly added). The mixture was incubated at room temperature for 5 min, to keep high proton concentrations inside the proteoliposomes. Then 20  $\mu\text{L}$  of the treated proteoliposomes was added into the reaction mixture (180  $\mu\text{L}$ ) containing 100 mM Tricine-KOH (pH 8.5), 5 mM  $\text{NaH}_2\text{PO}_4$ , 2 mM  $\text{MgCl}_2$ , 0.5 mM ADP, 150 mM KCl, 2  $\mu\text{M}$  valinomycin (freshly added), and 20  $\mu\text{L}$  luciferin/luciferase reagent. Instantly, the luminescence generated from the reaction was recorded by a multimode microplate reader (TECAN Spark, Switzerland) equipped with a luminometer. Production of ATP during the reaction was calculated from a standard curve, in which the luminescence was plotted against the ATP concentration. All data were obtained from three replicative experiments, with the mean and SD calculated and plotted.

**ATP Hydrolysis Activity.** The ATP hydrolysis activity of  $\text{CaF}_1\text{F}_0$  was measured as previously described (82).  $\text{CaF}_1\text{F}_0$  catalyzed ADP hydrolysis was coupled to pyruvate kinase (PK) that transfers a phosphate group from phosphoenolpyruvate (PEP) to ADP for pyruvate generation, and lactate dehydrogenase (LDH) that catalyzes the NADH-dependent conversion of pyruvate to lactate. The reaction mixture contains 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0), 150 mM NaCl, 2 mM  $\text{MgCl}_2$ , 0.1 mM NADH, 1.5 mM phosphoenolpyruvate, 3.2 units PK, 4 units LDH, 0.04% DDM, 0.1 mg/mL  $\text{CaF}_1\text{F}_0$ . The reaction was initiated by addition of 1 mM ATP, then the absorbance of NADH at 340 nm was recorded by a UV-vis spectrophotometer (Mapada P6, China) for 120 s at 37 °C. All enzymatic data were obtained from triplicate experiments.

**Data, Materials, and Software Availability.** Cryo-EM maps and atomic models data have been deposited in Electron Microscopy Data Bank (EMDB) (83) and Protein Data Bank (PDB) (84) (Cryo-EM maps have been deposited in the EMDB under the following accession numbers: EMD-60868, EMD-60869, EMD-60870, EMD-60871, EMD-60872, EMD-60873, EMD-60874, EMD-60875, EMD-60876, EMD-60877, EMD-60878, EMD-60879, EMD-60880, EMD-60881, EMD-60882, EMD-60883, EMD-60884, and EMD-60885. Atomic models have been deposited in the PDB under the following accession numbers PDB ID: 9ITJ, 9ITK, 9ITL, 9ITM, 9ITN, 9ITO, 9ITP, 9ITQ, 9ITR, 9ITS, 9ITT, 9ITU, 9ITV, 9ITW, 9ITX, 9ITY, 9ITZ, and 9IU0.). All study data are included in the article and/or supporting information.

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