Characterization of Aquifex aeolicus F_1F_0 ATP synthase and its heterologous production in Escherichia coli

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Eidesstattliche Erklaerung

Hiermit versichere ich, dass ich die vorliegende Arbeit selbstaendig angefertigt habe und keine weiteren Hilfsmittel und Quellen als die hier aufgefuehrten verwendet habe.

Chunli Zhang Frankfurt am Main

To my beloved daughters:

Wendi and Yadi

Publications

- **C. Zhang**, M. Marcia, J. D. Langer, G. Peng and H. Michel (2013). "Role of the N terminal signal peptide in the membrane insertion of *Aquifex aeolicus* F_1F_0 ATP synthase c-subunit." <u>FEBS J</u> **280**(14): 3425-3435.
- **C. Zhang**, M. Allegretti, J. Vonck, J. D. Langer, M. Marcia, G. Peng and H. Michel "Production of fully assembled and active *Aquifex aeolicus* F₁F₀ ATP synthase in *Escherichia coli*". <u>Biochim Biophys Acta</u> **1840**(1): 34-40.

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Zusammenfassung

Die F₁F₀ ATP-Synthase katalysiert die Synthese von ATP aus ADP und anorganischem Phosphat. Die hierfür benötigte Energie wird durch einen über die Zellmembran bzw. Innere Mitochondrienmembran bestehenden elektrochemischen Ionengradienten geliefert. Die F₁F₀ ATP-Synthase ist sowohl in Bakterien, als auch in Mitochondrien und Chloroplasten zu finden und dabei hoch konserviert.

Das Holoenzym besteht aus zwei größeren Subkomplexen, dem hydrophilen F_1 - und dem hydrophoben F_0 -Komplex. Der F_1 -Subkomplex besteht aus den Untereinheiten α , β , γ , δ und ϵ in der Zusammensetzung 3:3:1:1:1. Der membrangebundene F_0 -Komplex besteht aus den Untereinheiten a, b und c, in den Stöchiometrien 1:2: (8-15). Die Untereinheiten a und c sind für die Ionentranslokation zuständig. Die Untereinheiten γ und ϵ verbinden den F_1 -Subkomplex mit dem c-Ring des F_0 -Subkomplexes.

Neben der Einteilung in den hydrophoben und hydrophilen Teil des Enzyms kann die F_1F_0 ATP-Synthase auch in einen Stator (a, b, δ , α , β) und in einen Rotor (γ , ϵ , c) gegliedert werden. Bisher konnten atomare Strukturen nur von Subkomplexen oder einzelnen Untereinheiten bestimmt werden, wie zum Beispiel dem bovinen F_1 -Subkomplex oder den c-Ringen aus *Ilyobacter tartaricus*, *Bacillus pseudofirmus* und *Arthrospira platensis*. Strukturen für den bovinen Stator-Subkomplex konnten ebenfalls bestimmt werden.

Allerdings ist noch keine Struktur für das Holoenzym oder den membrangebundenen F_O-Subkomplex bekannt. Die Struktur des Holoenzyms in atomarer Auflösung könnte detaillierte Einblicke in den Ionen-Transportmechanismus geben, der bis heute nicht komplett geklärt ist.

Bisher konnte in unserem Labor gezeigt werden, dass die F_1F_0 ATP-Synthase aus *Aquifex aeolicus* aufgrund ihrer thermophilen Herkunft ein hoch stabiles Enzym darstellt, das als Holoenzym in seiner aktiven Form aufgereinigt werden konnte. Zusätzlich konnten neue strukturelle Daten für die F_1F_0 ATP-Synthase gewonnen werden, wie etwa eine Deformation des zentralen Stators (γ und ε -Untereinheiten) oder ein möglicher heterodimerer peripherer Stator im Vergleich zum Rinderenzym. Daher stellt die F_1F_0 ATP-Synthase aus *A. aeolicus* ein interessantes Ziel für weitere strukturelle und funktionelle Studien dar.

Es wurden vier Ziele für diese Doktorarbeit formuliert, basierend auf früheren Studien: (i) Ergänzung der bisherigen Charakterisierung der nativen F_1F_0 ATP-Synthase aus *A. aeolicus* (AAF₁F₀) durch bioinformatische, biochemische und funktionelle Studien, (ii) Etablierung eines

heterologen Expressionssystem für AAF₁F₀ in *E. coli*, (iii) Charakterisierung der so exprimierten ATP-Synthase (EAF₁F₀), (iv) Untersuchung von Eigenschaften der AAF₁F₀, wie etwa die Rolle des N-Terminus der c-Untereinheit, die nur mit Hilfe eines heterologen Expressionssystems durchgeführt werden können.

1) Charakterisierung der native A. aeolicus F₁F₀ ATP-Synthase (AAF₁F₀)

Durch den Einsatz bioinformatischer Methoden, wie dem *Multiple-Sequence Alignment*, der membranständigen Untereinheiten der F₁F₀ ATP-Synthase konnte gezeigt werden, dass: (i) die a-Untereinheit statt sechs nur fünf Membran durchspannende Helices hat; (ii) sowohl die b₁ als auch die b₂-Untereinheit (und nicht nur die b₁-Untereinheit) eine membraninsertierte N-terminale Helix besitzt. Allerdings besitzt nur die b₂-Untereinheit eine putative Signalsequenz vor der N-terminalen Helix, die im Laufe des Maturationsprozesses entfernt werden könnte; (iii) die c-Untereinheit eine bezüglich Hydrophobizität und Länge veränderte N-terminale Region besitzt. Dies kann Konsequenzen für die Membraninsertion und Assemblierung der ATP-Synthase haben.

Neben bioinformatischen Analysen wurde in dieser Arbeit ebenfalls eine Aufreinigung und biochemische Charakterisierung der AAF_1F_0 durchgeführt. Hierfür wurde das frühere Reinigungsprotokoll mit dem Ziel optimiert, die Stabilität des Holoenzyms zu verbessern bzw. das Auseinanderbrechen in kleinere Subkomplexe zu verhindern. Die hauptsächlicher Optimierung des Protokolls bestand in der Verwendung des neuen Detergenzes trans-4-(trans-4'-propylcyclohexyl)cyclohexyl-α-D-maltosid (α-PCC). Es zeigte sich, dass dieses Detergenz die Stabilität des Holoenzyms deutlich verbesserte im Vergleich zu den im Vorfeld verwendeten Detergenzien n-Dodecyl-β-D-maltosid (DDM) und n-Decyl-β-D-maltosid (DM).

Nachdem dieses Protokoll optimiert wurde, folgten funktionelle Studien, um experimentell AAF₁F₀ als Protonen-abhängige (und nicht Natrium) ATP-Synthase zu charakterisieren, da bioinformatische Studien bereits zeigten, dass das benötige Natrium-Bindemotif in der c-Untereinheit fehlt. MALDI-TOF massenspektrometrische Messungen ergaben, dass die c-Untereinheit der AAF₁F₀ nicht durch Natrium ionen vor der Bindung des kovalent bindenden "active site" Liganden *N'*,*N'*-dicyclohexyl-carbodiimid (DCCD) geschützt werden kann. Dieser Befund änderte sich auch unter nicht-physiologischen Natrium-Konzentrationen (150 mM) nicht, was typisch für Protonen-abhängige ATP-Synthasen ist.

Zusätzliche enzymatische Studien zeigten, dass die ATP Hydrolyse der AAF_1F_0 bei Temperaturen niedriger als 60°C vernachlässigbar gering ist. SDS-PAGE Analysen offenbarten, dass die γ -Untereinheit nur bei hohen Temperaturen von dem $\alpha\beta$ -Hexagon dissoziiert werden kann.

Einzelpartikel-Elektronenmikroskopische Untersuchungen zeigten eine leicht gebogene γ Untereinheit des Enzyms aus A. aeolicus im Vergleich zu der γ -Untereinheit der meisten anderen Organismen. Diese strukturelle Besonderheit ist bisher nur von der ATP-Synthase aus Caldlkalibacillus thermarum TA2.A1 bekannt, in der sie genutzt wird, um durch die Ausbildung von Salzbrücken die Rotation der γ -Untereinheit bei Raumtemperatur zu unterbinden. Bei Temperaturen über 60° C ist diese Interaktion nicht mehr stark genug, um die Rotation der γ -Untereinheit zu verhindern.

Die Reinheit der AAF_1F_0 erlaubte ebenfalls die Produktion von polyklonalen Antikörpern gegen die Untereinheiten α , β , γ , ϵ und c. Diese wurden zu einem späteren Zeitpunkt genutzt, um das heterologe Expressionssystem zu etablieren.

2) Herstellung eines artifiziellen Operons für die heterologe Expression der ATP-Synthase aus A. aeolicus

Um funktionelle Eigenschaften von AAF₁F₀ gründlicher untersuchen zu können, wurde ein heterologes Expressionssystem in *E. coli* etabliert. Die Konstruktion eines Vektorsystems erwies sich als Herausforderung, da: (i) AAF₁F₀ ein heteromultimeres Enzym mit einem Molekulargewicht von mehr als 500 kDa und einer komplexen Stöchiometrie verschiedener Untereinheiten ist; (ii) die *atp*-Gene in *A. aeolicus* nicht in einem Operon organisiert, sondern über vier verschiedene Genloci verteilt sind. Die neun *atp*-Gene sind auf sechs verschiedene DNS-Fragmente verteilt, wobei einige Gene in ihrer Sequenz überlappen. *E. coli* wurde trotz der hyperthermophilen Herkunft der AAF₁F₀ als Wirt für die heterologe Expression ausgewählt, da es ein sehr gut untersuchter Modellorganismus darstellt, der schon für die Expression verschiedener ATP-Synthasen erfolgreich eingesetzt wurde.

Die gewählte Strategie umfasste folgende Schritte: (i) die Expression von Genen für einzelne Untereinheiten (a, c, γ und ε) sowie für spezifische Kombinationen von Genen (b₁-b₂, a-c, a-b₁-b₂, γ-ε); (ii) Klonierung der *atp*-Gene in verschiedene kleinere Operons und Expression in verschiedenen Vektoren. Untersucht wurde dabei auch der Einfluss verschiedener nativer Codons und die Fähigkeit von *E. coli*, überlappender Gene zu erkennen und ein funktionelles Holoenzym zu produzieren. Co-Transformation von *E. coli* mit dem Vektor pRARE (codierend für seltene t-RNAs) stellte sich als extrem wichtig heraus, um die Unterschiede in der Codon-Nutzung zwischen *E. coli* und *A. aeolicus* zu überwinden; (iii) Expression zweier kleinerer Subkomplexe (F_1 -αβγ und F_1 -αβγε) jeweils mit einem N-terminalen His₆-tag an der β-Untereinheit zum Zweck der Detektion und Aufreinigung. Ein dritter Subkomplex bestehend aus F_0 -acb₁b₂d wurde ebenfalls erstellt; und (iv) Klonierung aller nötigen Gene in einen einzelnen Expressionvektor, der für die komplette

AAF₁F₀ kodierte. Die Gene der ATP-Synthase lagen in derselben Reihenfolge wie im *E. coli* Genom vor (abgesehen von *atpI*, welches in *A. aeolicus* fehlt). Die korrekte Stöchiometrie der einzelnen Untereinheiten ist kritisch für dieses Enzym und wird durch translationale Initiationsregionen (TIR) reguliert. Für die hier beschriebene Expression wurden die nativen TIR von *A. aeolicus* verwendet, inklusive 30 Basenpaare vor den Start-Codons der sechs Gene *atpB*, *atpE*, *aptF1*, *atpA*, *atpG* und *atpC*. Weiterhin wurden die Bereiche zwischen den Genen (um Restriktionsschnittstellen und Tags einzufügen) nur minimal verändert und die originale interzistronische Entfernungen zwischen benachbarten Genen beibehalten.

3) Charakterisierung der EAF₁F₀ und der beschriebenen Subkomplexe

Die während der Etablierung des heterologen Expressionssystems in *E. coli* gewonnenen Untereinheiten und Subkomplexe wurden ebenfalls biochemisch und funktionell charakterisiert, was zu folgenden Ergebnissen führte!

Die erfolgreiche Expression des b_1b_2 -Subkomplexes ergab, dass: (i) *E. coli* das native Operon sowie die überlappenden Gene aus *A. aeolicus* erkennen kann, (ii) dass die Untereinheiten b_1 und b_2 in *E. coli* Membranen einen Komplex formen können, (iii) sowie dass dieser Komplex aufgereinigt werden kann und in Detergenz solubilisierter Form über längere Zeit stabil bleibt.

Die gefundene Komplexbildung zwischen den Untereinheiten b₁ und b₂ in *E. coli*-Membranen, unterstützt die Beobachtung, dass sie zu einem heterodimeren, peripheren Stator assoziieren können. Dies konnte bisher nur für photosynthetisch aktive Bakterien gezeigt werden. Im Gegensatz dazu konnten die Untereinheiten a und c nicht exprimiert werden. Dies wurde bereits für andere ATP-Synthasen berichtet.

Die erfolgreiche Expression und Aufreinigung der Subkomplexe F_1 - $\alpha\beta\gamma$ und F_1 - $\alpha\beta\gamma\epsilon$ sowie deren biochemische Charakterisierung zeigte, dass diese Komplexe in katalytisch aktiver Form von einem artifiziellen Operon in *E. coli* exprimiert und aufgereinigt werden können. Alle Untereinheiten konnten durch Peptide Mass Fingerprinting (PMF) in Kombination mit Electro Spray Ionisation Mass Spectrometry (ESI-MS) nachgewiesen werden. Die Subkomplexe zeigten eine ATP-Hydrolyse Aktivität von 1,35 \pm 0,14 U/mg und 1,73 \pm 0,11 U/mg.

Rekombinante ATP-Synthase (EAF₁F₀) konnte in einer funktionell aktiven und vollständig assemblierten Form erhalten und aufgereinigt werden. Die Reinigung aus $E.\ coli$ Membranen erfolgte mit einer Affinitätschromatographie und Gelfiltration. Alle Untereinheiten der EAF₁F₀ konnten mit Hilfe native Gelelektrophorese, Western-Blot in Kombination mit polyklonalen Antikörpern gegen die Untereinheiten α , β , γ , ϵ , δ und c, sowie massenspektrometrisch

nachgewiesen werden. Interessanterweise assemblierten die Untereinheiten a und c der A. aeolicus ATP-Synthase erfolgreich zu einem Holoenzym trotz der unterschiedlichen Lipidzusammensetzung in E. coli. Weiterhin zeigten "in-gel" Aktivitätsbestimmungen als auch Phosphatbestimmungen eine ATP-Hydrolyse Aktivität von $12,77 \pm 3,96$ U/mg für EAF $_1$ F $_0$. Dies entspricht derselben Größenordnung der AAF $_1$ F $_0$ (29,65 \pm 3,66 U/mg). Die gemessenen Werte beschreiben eine spezifische ATP-Synthase Aktivität, da sie durch Azid (einem gängigen ATP-Synthase Inhibitor) um den Faktor 100 (0,17 \pm 1,85 U/mg) verringert werden konnten.

Elektronenmikroskopische Einzelmolekül aufnahmen zeigten, dass die Struktur des gereinigten Enzymkomplexes derjenigen eines voll assemblierten Holoenzym entspricht und identisch mit der Struktur der AAF₁F₀ ist. Das nach Elektroelution aus "Blue Native" Gelen entnommene EAF₁F₀ offenbarte in elektronenmikroskopischen Bildern die charakteristische Pilzstruktur. EAF₁F₀ ist etwa 200 Å lang und weist zwei definierte Subkomplexe auf. Der erste Subkomplex zeigt einen Durchmesser von 100 Å und kann sehr wahrscheinlich dem F₁-Komplex zugeordnet werden. Der zweite Subkomplex ist etwa 100 Å breit, liegt parallel zur vermuteten Membranebene, ist 45 Å hoch und kann sehr wahrscheinlich dem F₀-Komplex zugeordnet werden.

4) Charakterisierung des N-terminalen Abschnitts der c-Untereinheit und wahrscheinlicher Assemblierungsmechanismus der AAF_1F_O

Die Etablierung eines heterologen Expressionssystems erlaubt nun die Manipulation der Gene, die für die ATP-Synthase kodieren und damit die bereits bioinformatisch gewonnenen Daten experimentell zu verifizieren. Multiple Sequence Alignments haben gezeigt, dass die c-Untereinheiten der ATP-Synthase in vier verschiedene phylogenetische Gruppen eingeteilt werden können. Die c-Untereinheiten der ATP synthase aus A. aeolicus und anderer extromophiler Organismen kann in die Gruppe 2 eingeordnet werden. Einzigartig für diese Gruppe ist das Nterminale Ende der c-Untereinheit. Diese charakteristische Signalsequenz interagiert mit dem "Signal Recognition Particle" (SRP), wird im Laufe des Maturationsprozesses der c-Untereinheit abgeschnitten und ist essentiell für die Membraninsertion. Dies konnte experimentell belegt werden. Deletionen oder Mutationen dieser Signalsequenz resultierten in einem Abbruch der Expression der EAF₁F₀. Die c-Untereinheiten der Gruppen 1, 3 und 4 werden dagegen ohne Mitwirkung des SRP in die Membran insertiert. Demnach unterscheidet sich der Assemblierungsmechanismus der c-Untereinheit der Gruppe 2 von dem mesophiler Prokaryoten. In mesophilen Prokaryoten (z.B. E. coli) assemblieren die Untereinheiten c und b, bevor der F₁-Subkomplex an den restlichen Komplex angelagert wird. In dieser Arbeit konnte nun gezeigt werden, dass in A. aeolicus der F₁-Subkomplex nur mit Hilfe der b₁ und b₂ Untereinheiten an die membranständigen Untereinheiten assoziiert wird. Die c-Untereinheiten, die in A. aeolicus mit Hilfe eines für ATP-Synthasen einzigartigen SRP-abhängigem Mechanismus insertiert werden, werden dafür nicht benötigt.

Im Zuge dieser Arbeit wurde eine in *E. coli* exprimierte, vollständig assemblierte und voll funktionelle ATP-Synthase aus *A. aeolicus* aufgereinigt. Durch das etablierte heterologe Expressionssystem gelang es unter anderem den Insertionsmechanismus der c-Untereinheit der ATP-Synthase aus *A. aeolicus* aufzuklären. Weiterhin kann dieses heterologe Expressionssystem für einfache Mutagenese-, sowie "Cross-Linking"-Experimente genutzt werden. Hierdurch könnten Eigenschaften der ATP-Synthase charakterisiert werden, die bis dato noch unbekannt sind. Weiterhin bietet das hier präsentierte heterologe Expressionssystem eine Plattform, großer, mehrere Untereinheiten umfassender Enzymkomplexe mit komplizierter Stöchiometrie zu exprimieren, wie etwa Atmungskettenkomplexe, Transporter, oder andere makromolekulare Maschinen, die gerade im Fokus der aktuellen Forschung stehen.

Detailed English Summary

F₁F₀ ATP synthases catalyze the synthesis of ATP from ADP and inorganic phosphate driven by ion motive forces across the membrane. F₁F₀ ATP synthases are present in bacteria, mitochondria and chloroplasts and they have been remarkably conserved throughout evolution. The overall enzyme is composed of two distinct subcomplexes. The soluble F₁ subcomplex is formed by the subunits α , β , γ , δ , and ε in a 3:3:1:1:1 stoichiometry. It catalyzes ATP synthesis or hydrolysis via a so called binding change mechanism. The hydrophobic membrane-inserted F_O subcomplex is formed by subunits a, b, and c in a 1:2:(8-15) stoichiometry and is the center of ion translocation. Subunits γ and ε form a central stalk and subunits b and δ form a peripheral stalk thus providing a connection between the F₁ and the F₀ subcomplexes, which prevents uncoupling in the reciprocal rotation of F₁ and F₀ subunits. A number of ATP synthases have been characterized to date. High resolution structures are available for different parts of the ATP synthase complex, i.e. the bovine F₁ subcomplex, c-rings from *Ilyobacter tartaricus*, *Bacillus pseudofirmus* and *Arthrospira platensis* and subcomplexes of F1 and c-rings from yeast and bovine mitochondria. Structures of the peripheral stalk of bovine F₁F₀ ATP synthase were also determined. However, to date, no high resolution structure is available for the entire F₁F₀ ATP synthase complex. Furthermore, the mechanism of ion translocation remains unknown due to a lack of high resolution models for the membrane embedded subcomplex F_O.

Previous work from our lab reported that F_1F_0 ATP synthase extracted and purified from the native cells of the bacterium *Aquifex aeolicus* is highly stable, due to the hyperthermophilic nature of *A. aeolicus*. The enzyme can be purified in an active, fully assembled form and presents unique structural features such as a structurally bent central stalk and a putatively heterodimeric peripheral stalk. In contrast to other ATP synthases, the peripheral stalk of *A. aeolicus* ATP synthase is more rigid and remains intact during purification. Taken together, such features make *A. aeolicus* ATP synthase a promising candidate for studies aiming to determine the structure of the intact enzyme, which would provide an interesting model system for structural and functional studies on ATP synthases.

Based on these premises, this doctoral work had four main objectives: 1) to extend the previous characterization of native A. aeolicus F_1F_0 ATP synthase (hereafter named AAF_1F_0) by bioinformatic, biochemical and functional studies, 2) to create a heterologous expression system for producing this enzyme in E. coli, 3) to characterize the heterologously produced ATP synthase (hereafter named EAF_1F_0) and 4) to study properties of A. aeolicus F_1F_0 ATP synthase that could only be addressed using a heterologous expression system, i.e. the role of the N-terminus of subunit

c.

1) Characterization of the native A. aeolicus F₁F₀ ATP synthase (AAF₁F₀).

Bioinformatic studies based on multiple-sequence alignments on the membrane subunits of A. aeolicus F_1F_0 ATP synthase revealed that these subunits possess different properties than previously proposed using topology predictions. Specifically, the alignments suggested that (i) subunit a possesses five (and not six) transmembrane helices, (ii) both subunit b_1 and b_2 possess a membrane-inserted N-terminal helix, while subunit b_2 possesses a putative signal peptide preceding this N-terminal transmembrane helix which may be thus cleaved off in the mature form of subunit b_2 , and (iii) subunit c possesses an N-terminal region different in length and hydrophobicity from that of subunits c of other ATP synthases, with possible consequences on its membrane insertion and assembly mechanism.

In addition to studying the properties of its subunits bioinformatically, in this work AAF_1F_0 was also purified and characterized biochemically. Most importantly, the previously established purification protocol was optimized to enhance the stability of the complex and prevent its disassembly into smaller subcomplexes. The major improvement involved the identification of *trans*-4-(*trans*-4'-propylcyclohexyl)cyclohexyl- α -D-maltoside (α -PCC) as a new detergent that can stabilize the entire F_1F_0 complex much better than the previously used maltoside detergents n-dodecyl- β -D-maltoside (DDM) and n-decyl- β -D-maltoside (DM).

After optimizing the purification protocol for AAF_1F_0 , functional studies were performed to confirm experimentally that AAF_1F_0 is a proton-dependent (and not a sodium ion-dependent) ATP synthase, which was expected since the Na^+ binding site signature is not present in the sequence of *A. aeolicus* ATP synthase subunit c. Specifically, MALDI-TOF mass spectrometry (MS) was used to show that AAF_1F_0 subunit c is not protected by sodium and reacts with the covalent active-site ligand N',N'-dicyclohexyl-carbodiimide (DCCD) in the presence of over-physiological sodium concentrations (150 mM), a typical feature of proton-dependent ATP synthases.

Further enzymatic studies revealed that the ATP hydrolysis activity of AAF_1F_0 is negligible at temperatures below 60°C. While this observation is recurrent in enzymes from hyperthermophilic organisms, the enzymatic data, taken together with other biochemical and structural results, may be indicative of a specific structural-functional property of AAF_1F_0 . In particular, SDS-PAGE analysis revealed that subunit γ requires prolonged heat treatment to detach from subunits α / β , and single-particle electron microscopy (EM) revealed that subunit γ is bent, as mentioned above. In ATP synthase from *Caldalkalibacillus thermarum* TA2.A1, such features were correlated to a functionally important conformational switch of subunit γ , which may therefore also happen in A. *aeolicus* ATP synthase. Specifically, subunit γ may adopt an inactive, bent conformation forming

tight salt-bridges to α/β at room-to-low temperatures, and may then switch to an active, more extended conformation above 60 °C.

Finally, work on AAF_1F_0 also led to the generation of polyclonal antibodies against subunits α , β , γ , ϵ and c, which were greatly useful in the design and characterization of the heterologous expression system described below.

2) Cloning of an artificial operon for heterologous expression of A. aeolicus ATP synthase.

To enable a more manageable investigation on all unique properties characterizing the A. aeolicus ATP synthase, an expression system was developed in this work to produce the enzyme heterologously. The design of a heterologous expression vector for the A. aeolicus ATP synthase is very challenging because (i) A. aeolicus F_1F_0 ATP synthase is a large heteromultimeric enzyme of more than 500 kDa in size, with a complex and uncharacterized subunit stoichiometry and (ii) in A. aeolicus, the nine atp genes are not clustered in one operon, but they are distributed over four different genomic loci. In total, there are six different DNA fragments harboring the genes for the nine subunits of A. aeolicus F_1F_0 ATP synthase and some genes overlap. Despite the hyperthermophilic nature of A. aeolicus, the mesophilic host E. coli was chosen for the expression study because it is a cheap, well studied host that had already been successfully used for the production of many other ATP synthases.

The strategy used to produce the A. aeolicus ATP synthase in E. coli consisted of the following steps. In the first step, single-gene expression was attempted for individual subunits (a, c, γ and ϵ) and dual-gene expression was attempted for specific combinations of different subunits (b₁-b₂, a-c, a-b₁-b₂, γ-ε). At this step, the *atp* genes were cloned into the open reading frame (ORF) of several expression vectors. Expression tests served as checkpoints for assessing the ability of E. coli to recognize native operons, native codons, and overlapping genes and to produce functionally active intermediate complexes of the enzyme. Co-transforming the expression vectors with the commercial vector pRARE - which encodes rare tRNAs - revealed to be very beneficial in overcoming codon usage biases between A. aeolicus and E. coli. In the second step, expression was attempted for subcomplexes of ATP synthase including subunits located in different loci of A. aeolicus genome. With this strategy two subcomplexes were produced: F_1 - $\alpha\beta\gamma$ and F_1 - $\alpha\beta\gamma\epsilon$, both modified with an N-terminal His₆-tag on subunit β for detection and purification purposes. A third vector including all F_0 subunits and subunit δ (F_0 -acbb₂ δ) was also created. This second step guided the appropriate choice of intergenic regions and of the purification tag for artificial operons. Finally, in the third step, the genes for F_1 - $\alpha\beta\gamma\epsilon$ and for F_0 -acb₁b₂ δ were combined into a single expression vector, which thus contained all nine genes encoding the entire A. aeolicus F₁F₀ ATP

synthase. The artificial operon was designed to harbor the nine *atp* genes in the order *atpBEF1F2HAGDC*, the same order of the *atp* genes in the native operon from *E. coli*, except for gene *atpI* that is not present in the *A. aeolicus* genome. The correct stoichiometry of all subunits is regulated by accurate selection of the translation initiation regions (TIR). The native TIRs from *A. aeolicus* were used, including 30 base pairs upstream of the start codon of the six genes *atpB*, *atpE*, *atpF1*, *atpA*, *atpG* and *atpC* and introducing only minimal modifications to the native sequences to insert restriction sites and purification tags, but preserving the original intercistronic distance between neighboring genes.

3) Characterization of EAF₁F₀ and its subcomplexes.

At each step in the creation of the heterologous expression system, the subunits or subcomplexes that could be successfully expressed were characterized at a biochemical, functional and/or structural level, and such characterization led to the following significant results.

First, the successful production and purification of subcomplex b_1b_2 by dual-gene expression showed that (i) *E. coli* can recognize *A. aeolicus* native operons and overlapping genes, (ii) subunits b_1 and b_2 form a complex in the *E. coli* membranes and (iii) the complex can be purified to homogeneity and is stable in detergent over time. The observation that subunits b_1 and b_2 can associate to form a complex *in vitro* corroborates the previous hypothesis that these two subunits form a heterodimeric peripheral stalk in the native *A. aeolicus* ATP synthase, which is a unique case among ATP synthases of non-photosynthetic organisms. By contrast, membrane subunits a and c cannot be produced in *E. coli* in isolation, as already reported for other ATP synthases.

Second, the successful production and purification of subcomplex F_1 - $\alpha\beta\gamma$ and F_1 - $\alpha\beta\gamma\epsilon$ indicated that functionally active forms of *A. aeolicus* ATP synthase can be obtained from artificial operons in *E. coli*. All subunits were identified by peptide mass fingerprinting (PMF) followed by ESI-MS and the subcomplexes showed rates of ATP hydrolysis of 1.35 ± 0.14 U/mg and 1.73 ± 0.11 U/mg, respectively.

Finally and most importantly, also the production and purification of the entire ATP synthase complex (EAF₁F₀) was accomplished successfully. EAF₁F₀ was purified from the membranes of *E. coli* by affinity and size-exclusion chromatography. All subunits in the pure ATP synthase were identified by native gel electrophoresis, by Western blot analysis using the polyclonal antibodies specifically generated against subunits α , β , γ , ε , δ and ε , and by mass spectrometry. Remarkably, also the membrane subunits a and ε were identified, revealing that in the context of the whole enzyme they can be correctly incorporated into ATP synthase, despite the differences in the lipid composition between *A. aeolicus* and *E. coli* membranes. Furthermore, in-gel activity assays and

phosphate determination assays showed that the ATP hydrolysis activity of EAF₁F₀ is 12.77 ± 3.96 U/mg, a value of the same order of magnitude (43%) as for AAF₁F₀ (29.65 \pm 3.66 U/mg) and comparable to other respiratory complexes of *A. aeolicus* (i.e. respiratory complex I, sulfide:quinone oxidoreductase) and to other ATP synthases. Such enzymatic activity was reduced approximately 100 fold (0.17 \pm 1.85 U/mg residual activity) by 0.02% (w/v) sodium azide, a common inhibitor of bacterial ATP synthases.

Finally, single-particle electron microscopy (EM) showed that EAF_1F_O is fully assembled and possesses an identical structural organization as AAF_1F_O . After electro-elution from BN-PAGE gels, characteristic "mushroom" shaped-particles of EAF_1F_O could be observed. EAF_1F_O is ~200 Å long and has two distinct parts. One part possesses a globular shape with a diameter of 100 Å and likely corresponds to the F_1 subcomplex. The other part is approximately 100 Å wide parallel to the putative membrane plane and ~45 Å high and likely corresponds to the F_O subcomplex. Importantly, both the central and peripheral stalks are clearly visible in the EM images.

4) Characterization of the N-terminal segment of subunit c and hypotheses on the assembly mechanism of A. aeolicus ATP synthase.

The availability of a heterologous system to produce A. aeolicus ATP synthase allows for previously impossible manipulations of this enzyme at the genetic level. Therefore, this system was used to investigate the unique properties which had been identified bioinformatically for the Nterminal region of subunit c (see above). The multiple-sequence alignment revealed the presence of four phylogenetic groups of subunit c (groups 1 to 4). The subunit c from A. aeolicus F₁F₀ ATP synthase clusters together with subunit c of other early diverging and extremophilic organisms into what is reported here as the group 2. As a unique case for bacterial F₁F₀ ATP synthases, the Nterminal segment of group 2 members possesses features typical of signal peptides that interact with signal recognition particle (SRP). In this work, we proved experimentally that the N-terminus of A. aeolicus subunit c is indeed a signal peptide that is cleaved off in the mature form of subunit c. By designing mutations in our EAF₁F₀ construct, we proved that such a signal peptide is obligatorily required for membrane insertion, because deleting it or replacing it with the N-terminal segment of subunit c from other groups completely abolishes expression in our EAF₁F₀ construct. Therefore, we conclude that group 2 subunits c likely follow a SRP-dependent membrane insertion pathway different from that of other subunits c, which are instead known not to require SRP. As a consequence of these considerations and based on the results from our heterologous expression tests, we propose that group 2 ATP synthases may have evolved to follow a unique assembly mechanism different from that of other mesophilic prokaryotic homologues. In mesophilic organisms (i.e. E. coli) it is known that subunits b and c preassemble before recruiting the F₁

subcomplex to the membranes. Instead, in our experiments we noted that the F_1 subcomplex is recruited to the membranes by subcomplex b_1b_2 in the absence of subunit c. Therefore, it is possible that in A. aeolicus subunit c is incorporated into ATP synthase at a later stage of its assembly process, and this may be potentially correlated to the fact that its membrane insertion follows a unique SRP-dependent pathway.

In conclusion, the successful production of the fully assembled and active F₁F₀ ATP synthase from *A. aeolicus* in *E. coli* provides a novel genetic system to study *A. aeolicus* F₁F₀ ATP synthase. While this system has already enabled the investigation of the subunit c membrane insertion mechanism, many more experiments are now feasible. Genetic manipulation allows for relatively straightforward mutagenesis experiments and cross-linking experiments, with direct application for novel functional and structural studies to address the properties of ATP synthase that are still poorly characterized. At the same time, the heterologous expression system described in this work also constitutes a solid reference for designing strategies aimed at producing other large multisubunit complexes with complicated stoichiometry, i.e. other respiratory complexes, the nuclear pore complex, transporter systems and many other macromolecular machines that are currently very active research targets.

Abstract

This work presents a biochemical, functional and structural characterization of *Aquifex aeolicus* F_1F_0 ATP synthase obtained using both a native form (AAF₁F₀) and a heterologous form (EAF₁F₀) of this enzyme.

 F_1F_0 ATP synthases catalyze the synthesis of ATP from ADP and inorganic phosphate driven by ion motive forces across the membrane and therefore play a key cellular function. Because of their central role in supporting life, F_1F_0 ATP synthases are ubiquitous and have been remarkably conserved throughout evolution. For their biological importance, F_1F_0 ATP synthases have been extensively studied for many decades and many of them were characterized from both a functional and a structural standpoint. However, important properties of ATP synthases – specifically properties pertaining to their membrane embedded subunits – have yet to be determined and no structures are available to date for the intact enzyme complex. Therefore, F_1F_0 ATP synthases are still a major focus of research worldwide. Our research group had previously reported an initial characterization of AAF_1F_0 and had indicated that this enzyme presents unique features, i.e. a bent central stalk and a putatively heterodimeric peripheral stalk. Based on such a characterization, this enzyme revealed promising for structural and functional studies on ATP synthases and became the focus of this doctoral thesis. Two different lines of research were followed in this work.

First, the characterization of AAF_1F_0 was extended by bioinformatic, biochemical and enzymatic analyses. The work on AAF_1F_0 led to the identification of a new detergent that maintains a higher homogeneity and integrity of the complex, namely the detergent *trans*-4-(*trans*-4'-propylcyclohexyl)cyclohexyl- α -D-maltoside (α -PCC). The characterization of AAF_1F_0 in this new detergent showed that AAF_1F_0 is a proton-dependent, not a sodium ion-dependent ATP synthase and that its ATP hydrolysis mechanism needs to be triggered and activated by high temperatures, possibly inducing a conformational switch in subunit γ . Moreover, this approach suggested that AAF_1F_0 may present unusual features in its membrane subunits, i.e. short N-terminal segments in subunits a and c with implications for the membrane insertion mechanism of these subunits.

Investigating on these unique features of A. $aeolicus F_1F_0$ ATP synthase could not be done using A. aeolicus cells, because these require a harsh and dangerous environment for growth and they are inaccessible to genetic manipulations. Therefore, a second approach was pursued, in which an expression system was created to produce the enzyme in the heterologous host E. coli. This second approach was experimentally challenging, because A. $aeolicus F_1F_0$ ATP synthase is a 500-kDa multimeric membrane enzyme with a complicated and still not entirely determined stoichiometry and because its encoding genes are scattered throughout A. aeolicus genome, rather than being

organized in one single operon. However, an artificial operon suitable for expression was created in this work and led to the successful production of an active and fully assembled form of Aquifex aeolicus F₁F₀ ATP synthase. Such artificial operon was created using a stepwise approach, in which we expressed and studied first individual subunits, then subcomplexes, and finally the entire F₁F₀ ATP synthase complex. We confirmed experimentally that subunits b₁ and b₂ form a heterodimeric subcomplex in the E. coli membranes, which is a unique case among ATP synthases of non-photosynthetic organisms. Moreover, we determined that the b₁b₂ subcomplex is sufficient to recruit the soluble F₁ subcomplex to the membranes, without requiring the presence of the other membrane subunits a and c. The latter subunits can be produced in our expression system only when the whole ATP synthase is expressed, but not in isolation nor in the context of smaller F₀ subcomplexes. These observations led us to propose a novel mechanism for the assembly of ATP synthases, in which first the F_1 subcomplex attaches to the membrane via subunit b_1b_2 , and then cring and subunits a assemble to complete the F_O subcomplex. Furthermore, we could purify the heterologous ATP synthase (EAF₁F₀) to homogeneity by chromatography and electro-elution. Enzymatic assays showed that the purified form of EAF₁F₀ is as active as AAF₁F₀. Peptide mass fingerprinting showed that EAF₁F₀ is composed of the same subunits as AAF₁F₀ and all soluble and membrane subunits could be identified. Finally, single-particle electron microscopy analysis revealed that the structure of EAF₁F₀ is identical to that of AAF₁F₀. Therefore, the EAF₁F₀ expression system serves as a reliable platform for investigating on properties of AAF₁F₀.

Specifically, in this work, EAF₁F₀ was used to study the membrane insertion mechanism of rotary subunit c. Subunits c possess different lengths and levels of hydrophobicity across species and by analyzing their N-terminal variability, four phylogenetic groups of subunits c were distinguished (groups 1 to 4). As a member of group 2, the subunit c from A. $aeolicus F_1F_0$ ATP synthase is characterized by an N-terminal segment that functions as a signal peptide with SRP recognition features, a unique case for bacterial F_1F_0 ATP synthases. By accurately designing mutants of EAF₁F₀, we determined that such a signal peptide is strictly necessary for membrane insertion of subunit c and we concluded that A. aeolicus subunit c inserts into E. coli membranes using a different pathway than E. coli subunit c. Such a property may be common to other ATP synthases from extremophilic organisms, which all cluster in the same phylogenetic group.

In conclusion, the successful production of the fully assembled and active F_1F_0 ATP synthase from *A. aeolicus* in *E. coli* reported in this work provides a novel genetic system to study *A. aeolicus* F_1F_0 ATP synthase. To a broader extent, it will also serve in the future as a solid reference for designing strategies aimed at producing large multi-subunit complexes with complicated stoichiometry.

Abbreviations

The abbreviations used in this work are listed in the following table.

Table of abbreviations

1. Symbols for measures and units

Å	angstrom
°C	degrees celsius
Da	dalton
h	hour
L	liter
M	molar
min	minute
Pa	pascal
ppm	parts per million
rpm	rotations per minute
U	(enzymatic) unit
V (as unit)	volt
V (as measure)	volume
v/v	volume/volume
w/v	weight/volume
w/w	weight/weight

2. Biomolecules and non-conventional chemicals

AAF_1F_O	A. aeolicus ATP synthase isolated from native cells of A. aeolicus
ACN	acetonitrile
AHC	ammonium hydrogen carbonate
BCA	bicinchonin acid
BisTris	1,3-bis(tris(hydroxymethyl)methylamino)propane
ddH ₂ O	bidistilled water (Millipore)
DDM (also LM)	n-dodecyl-β-D-maltoside
DM	n-decyl-β-D-maltoside
EDTA	ethylendiaminetetracetic acid
EAF_1F_O	A. aeolicus ATP synthase heterologously produced in E. coli
α-PCC	trans-4-(trans-4'-propylcyclohexyl)cyclohexyl-α-D-maltoside
IPTG	Isopropyl-β-thiogalactopyranoside
βМЕ	2-mercapto-ethanol
MES	2-(N-morpholino)-ethanesulfonic acid
Ni-NTA	Ni-Nitrilotriacetic acid
SDS	sodium dodecyl sulfate
TEMED	N,N,N',N'-tetramethylethylenediamine

Tris Tris-hydroxymethyl-aminomethane

3. Techniques and instrumentation

BN	blue-native
CN	clear-native
EM	electron microscopy
ESI	electrospray ionisation
IMAC	immobilized-metal affinity chromatography
LC	liquid chromatography
MALDI	matrix-assisted laser desorption ionisation
MS	mass spectroscopy
PAGE	polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis
PMF	peptide mass fingerprint
SEC	size-exclusion chromatography
SMART	simple modular architecture research tool
TOF	time of flight

4. Databases and software

BLAST	Basic Local Alignment Search Algorithm
FASTA	FAST-All
NCBI	National Centre for Biotechnology Information
PDB	Protein Data Bank
T-COFFEE	Tree-based Consistency Objective Function For AlignmEnt Evaluation
TMHMM	Transmembrane Hidden Markov Model

5. General abbreviations

2-D	bi-dimensional
3-D	tri-dimensional
CMC	critical micelle concentration
conc	concentration
e.g.	exempli gratia (lat., engl.: for example)
et al.	et alii (lat., engl.: and others)
eq.	equation
i.e.	in exemplum (lat., engl.: for example)
M	protein molecular weight marker
MW	molecular weight
pI	isoelectric point
UV/Vis or Vis/UV	ultraviolet/visible

1. Introduction

Cells require energy to drive metabolic processes and maintain their homeostasis. The primary energy source for life on Earth is sunlight. Sunlight is converted into chemical energy through photosynthesis, which produces organic molecules. Besides photosynthetic organisms, chemolithoautotrophic organisms are also able to fix carbon and synthetize organic molecules, but they use chemical energy from inorganic compounds instead of sunlight. Organic molecules are then assembled (in anabolic processes) and disassembled (in catabolic processes) in a variety of enzymatic reactions, some of which are exergonic (energy-yielding) and some endergonic (energy-requiring). For efficient energy transfer from exergonic to endergonic processes, the cells store chemical energy in highly energized chemical bonds of intermediary molecules. The most widely used intermediary molecule for cellular energy transfer is adenosine triphosphate (ATP) (e.g. Voet and Voet (2004)).

Adenosine triphosphate (ATP) was discovered in 1929 (Lohmann, 1929) and was proposed to be the main energy transfer molecule in the cell in 1941 (Lipmann, 1941). The ATP molecule is composed of three distinct moieties, an adenine ring, a ribose and a triphosphate group. The triphosphate group is bound in position 5' of the ribose, and the three phosphates that compose it are termed as α , β , and γ . The α phosphate binds the ribose directly forming an ester bond, while the β phosphate binds to the α phosphate, and the γ phosphate binds to the β phosphate through two consecutive phosphoanhydride bonds (Figure 1.1). These phosphoanhydride bonds are highly

energized. They are moderately stable in the absence of enzymes but they can be hydrolyzed rapidly in the presence of enzymes (Westheimer, 1987). Their hydrolysis is exergonic. It releases ~ 30 kJ/mol per bond, and it can therefore be used to drive endergonic metabolic processes. It was calculated that in a resting human, around 40 kg of ATP are produced and consumed per day (Capaldi and Aggeler, 2002). Due to this high turnover of ATP and the impermeability of cell membranes for ATP, each cell has to produce its own ATP. Two main

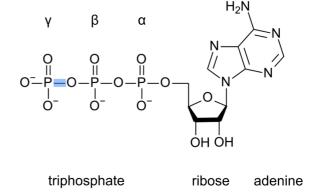


Figure 1.1. Adenosine triphosphate (ATP). ATP composes of adenine, ribose and triphosphate. The first phosphate (α) forms a 5'-ester bond with ribose. The second (β) and third (γ) phosphates are connected through highly energized phosphoanhydride bonds. The hydrolysis of the γ phosphoanhydride bond (shaded blue) releases ~ 30 kJ/mol.

biochemical pathways provide energy for cellular synthesis of ATP, substrate-level phosphorylation, and oxidative or photophosphorylation (e.g. Voet and Voet (2004)). Substrate-level phosphorylation consists of the transfer of highly energetic phosphoryl groups from intermediate molecules formed during catabolic reactions to adenosine diphosphate (ADP). Examples of substrate-level phosphorylation are anaerobic fermentation processes such as glycolysis, which typically generates 2 ATP molecules per molecule of glucose that is converted to pyruvate (e.g. Voet and Voet (2004)). Instead, in oxidative and photophosphorylation processes, chemical or light energy is converted into an electrochemical gradient across a biological membrane generating an ion (H⁺ or Na⁺) motive force that is then used by the enzyme ATP synthase to generate ATP. Oxidative phosphorylation is the most efficient pathway for producing cellular ATP, because it yields 30 - 36 ATP molecules per molecule of glucose that is converted to carbon dioxide and water (e.g. Voet and Voet (2004)).

1.1. Electron transport and oxidative phosphorylation

Although in net terms oxidative phosphorylation is a combustion reaction, cells have evolved to minimize heat dissipation and maximize conservation of chemical energy by separating the process into a series of separate steps. Throughout these steps, the electrons are gradually transferred from the initial donor (reduced organic or inorganic compounds) to intermediate acceptors (NADH, FADH₂, FeS clusters, quinones, heme groups, and metal ions), and subsequently to the final acceptor (molecular oxygen, O₂) by means of sequential oxidoreductive reactions. Depending on the nature of the initial electron donor, many different enzymes may take part in the electrontransport process. In all cases, a central role is played by a series of membrane-inserted enzymes that form the so-called respiratory chain complexes (respiratory complexes I-V). In 1961, Peter Mitchell first proposed that these respiratory complexes are responsible for generating the proton motif force (pmf) required by ATP synthase to synthetize ATP, a theory known as the chemiosmotic theory. Mitchell's chemiosmotic theory explains the mechanism of energy transduction and energy coupling between electron transport and ATP synthesis (Mitchell, 1961). According to Mitchell's theory, the pmf generated by the respiratory complexes consists of a proton (ion) concentration difference (ΔpH) and an electric potential difference ($\Delta \psi$) across biological membranes, and is expressed by Eq. (1.1):

pmf =
$$-\Delta \mu_{H^+}/F = \Delta \psi - (2.3 \text{ RT } \Delta pH)/F$$
 Eq.(1.1)

where F is the Faraday constant (96 485 C mol⁻¹); R is the molar gas constant (8.314 J mol⁻¹ K⁻¹), T is the temperature in Kelvin, and $\Delta \psi$ is expressed in volts. The value $\Delta \mu_{H^+}$ indicates how much energy is required (or released, depending on the direction of the transmembrane proton flow) to

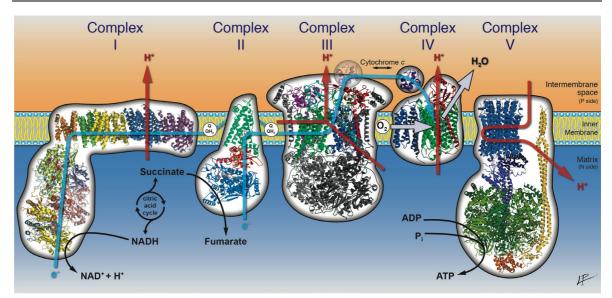


Figure 1.2. Schematic overview of the respiratory chain complexes. The figure represents 3-D structures determined for enzymes of the mitochondrial respiratory chain. Complex I (NADH:quinone oxidoreductase) oxidizes NADH, produced in the citric acid cycle, to NAD⁺ and reduces quinone (Q) to quinol (QH₂). The oxidoreduction reaction, which occurs in the soluble part of the enzyme (facing the mitochondrial matrix), is mechanically coupled to the transfer of 4 protons (H⁺) from the matrix to the intermembrane space mediated by the membrane-inserted subunits. Complex II (succinate:quinone oxidoreductase) oxidizes another product of the citric acid cycle, succinate, to fumarate, thereby also reducing Q to QH₂. This reaction is not known to be coupled to proton transfer. Complex III (quinol:cytochrome c oxidoreductase) transfer electrons from QH₂ to cytochrome c thereby pumping 2 H⁺ into the intermembrane space. Complex IV (cytochrome c oxidase) transfers electrons from cytochrome c to the final electron acceptor, molecular oxygen (O_2) , to produce water. Also this last oxidoreduction reaction is associated to the transfer of 4 H⁺ across the mitochondrial membrane. Finally, the proton gradient generated by complexes I-IV is used by complex V (ATP synthase) to produce ATP from ADP and inorganic phosphate (P_i). All structures are drawn in cartoon representations assigning different colors to individual subunits. Blue arrows depict the electron pathway. Red arrows depict the transport of protons. This figure was kindly provided by Paolo Lastrico (MPI of Biophysics, Frankfurt, Germany).

transport 1 mol of protons across the membrane. As an example, the mitochondrial respiratory chain complexes are depicted in Figure 1.2.

1.2. F_1F_0 ATP synthase (Respiratory complex V)

Most of the ATP produced in the cell is synthesized by the membrane-inserted heteromultimeric enzyme F_1F_0 ATP synthase, also known as rotary ATP synthase. This protein is an extremely high turnover enzyme that has to be constitutively active, because ATP has to be produced and supplied continuously to the cell. Therefore, the amount of ATP synthesized daily in a living organism by F_1F_0 ATP synthase can be very high. For instance, a resting human being uses his/her own body weight of ATP every day (Capaldi and Aggeler, 2002). As a consequence, ATP synthase is a crucial enzyme for the cell and not surprisingly malfunctions of this enzyme result in severe mitochondrial diseases that are often lethal or manifesting in children very shortly after birth (Houstek *et al.*, 2006).

ATP synthase was first discovered in bacterial crude extracts in 1956 (Brodie and Gray, 1956). Since then, genes encoding ATP synthase have been identified in all sequenced genomes, and it is now known that rotary ATP synthases are present in all three domains of life (Kibak *et al.*, 1992).

1.2.1. Classification, nomenclature and architecture

 F_1F_0 ATP synthase is one of three types of membrane-inserted ATPases, according to a classification based on function and taxonomic origin (Cross and Muller, 2004). F_1F_0 ATP synthases, also known as F-type ATP synthases, couple ion-translocation and ATP synthesis in bacteria, mitochondria and chloroplasts (Senior, 1988; Boyer, 1997). The letter "F" was historically chosen to distinguish this type of ATP synthases because these enzymes had been identified as "phosphorylation factors". More specifically, the term F_0 was introduced after the discovery that such phosphorylation factor is sensitive to oligomycin in mitochondria. Other membrane ATPase types are V-type ATPases, present in eukaryotic vacuoles and responsible for pumping protons across the membrane of intracellular compartments driven by ATP hydrolysis (Nelson and Taiz, 1989) and A-type ATP synthases, also called prokaryotic V-ATP synthases, which couple ion-translocation and ATP synthesis in archaea and some bacteria (Yokoyama *et al.*, 2003) and whose function is similar to that of F-type ATP synthases.

F₁F₀ ATP synthase is a sophisticated molecular motor and its three-dimensional structure has been selected throughout evolution to support its conformational dynamism in an efficient manner. As a large mushroom-shaped asymmetric protein complex, ATP synthase is composed of two distinct subcomplexes, F₁ and F₀, that function as opposing motors (Boyer, 1997; Stock et al., 2000; Senior, 2007; von Ballmoos et al., 2008; Junge et al., 2009; von Ballmoos et al., 2009). Under low ionic strength condition, the two subcomplexes F₁ and F₀ can be dissociated into two fully functional entities (Boyer, 1997). Moreover, depending on the physiological demand for ATP in the cell, ATP synthase can reverse its direction of operation (from ATP synthesis to ATP hydrolysis). The two subcomplexes, F₁ and F₀, are connected by a central rotating stalk and by a peripheral stator stalk that anchors the F₁ part to the membrane preventing its rotation. Therefore, F₁F₀ ATP synthase can be mechanically divided into two distinct parts, a rotor and a stator, as it was defined by crosslinking experiments (Tsunoda et al., 2001). The stalks are important not only from a structural point of view, because they hold the F₁ and F₀ subcomplexes together, but also from a functional point of view, because they guarantee that the two subcomplexes can reciprocally exchange energy. In its uncoupled state, the interaction between F₁ and F₀ is disrupted and the energy transduction is lost (Capaldi and Aggeler, 2002).

Each of the two subcomplexes F_1 and F_0 is by itself composed of multiple individual subunits. In bacteria the soluble F_1 part possesses the universal subunits composition $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma\delta\epsilon$. Whereas, the membrane-embedde F_0 part is formed by subunits ab_2c_{8-15} (the number of c subunits varies from 8-15 in different organisms) (Pogoryelov *et al.*, 2012). Therefore, in summary, bacterial F_1F_0

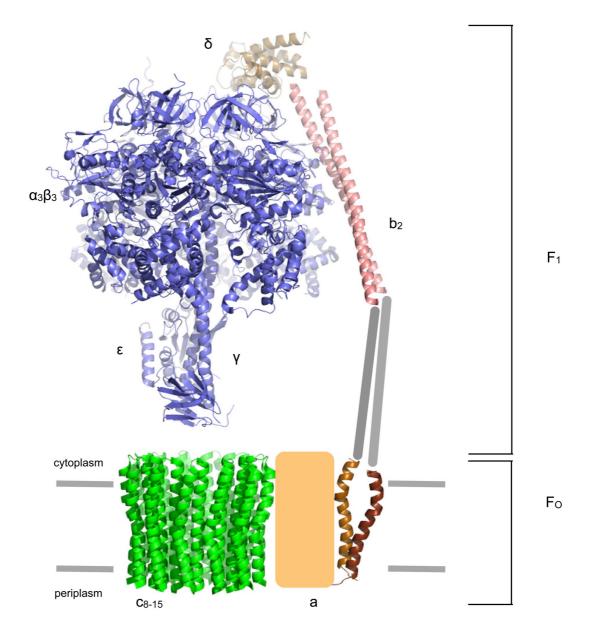


Figure 1.3. Architecture and subunit composition of bacterial F_1F_0 ATP synthase. The figure represents a composite ATP synthase model, manually drawn using the following structures: c-ring of *Ilyobacter tartaricus* ATP synthase (PDB id. 1CYE, green), F_1 subcomplex of *Escherichia coli* ATP synthase (PDB id. 1JNV, purple), subunit δ of *E. coli* ATP synthase (NMR structure, PDB id. 2A7U, light yellow), the dimerization domain of subunit b (PDB id. 1L2P, pink), and the membrane-inserted part of subunit b of *E. coli* ATP synthase (NMR structure, PDB id. 1B9U, brown). No high-resolution structural data is available for subunit a (thus represented as an orange rectangle) or for the hinge region of subunit b (represented as grey rods).

synthase is a multi-subunit membrane protein complex with a molecular mass of > 500 kDa, with stoichiometry $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma\epsilon\delta ab_2c_{8-15}$. In photosynthetic organisms (chloroplasts and cyanobacteria), the ATP synthase composition is the same as in the bacterial ATP synthase except for the presence of two, instead of one, isoforms of subunit b. In contrast, mitochondrial ATP synthase is much more complex and contains some additional subunits: F_1 comprises of α , β , γ , ϵ , δ and F_0 contains subunits c, a, b, d, F_6 , OSCP, and the accessory subunits e, f, g and A6L (Jonckheere *et al.*, 2012). Mitochondrial subunit δ is homologous to the bacterial subunit ϵ , whereas the homologue of the bacterial subunit δ in mitochondria is the oligomycin-sensitivity conferring protein (OSCP) (Walker and Dickson, 2006). The mitochondrial subunit ϵ and the accessory subunits e, f, g, and A6L have no counterpart in bacteria. Finally, subunit 9 in mitochondrial F_1F_0 ATP synthase (Yan *et al.*, 1994) corresponds to the bacterial subunit c, which is also called proteolipid since it can be extracted from membranes with organic solvents (Folch and Lees, 1951).

This work describes a bacterial F_1F_0 ATP synthase, therefore, the following description of more detailed properties of ATP synthase will focus specifically on the bacterial enzyme, unless otherwise stated (Figure 1.3).

1.2.2. Subunit composition and sequence conservation

In general, ATP synthase genes are well conserved throughout evolution (Boyer, 1997). However, specific considerations can be made to describe the specific level of sequence conservation of the individual subunits.

 F_1 subunits α and β share significant homology among themselves (α with α , β with β in different organisms) and between each other (α with β in the same organism). For instance, subunits α and β in bovine are about 20 % identical when comparing their amino acid sequences (Walker *et al.*, 1982). The subunits β from different organisms show exceptionally high sequence homology (i.e. 70 % identity between bovine and *E. coli* subunits β (Runswick and Walker, 1983)). This is likely explained by their determinant role as catalytic subunits (*vide infra*). In contrast, the other F_1 subunits γ , δ and ε , which are part of the central and peripheral stalk of the enzyme, show more variation in sequence and size (Boyer, 1997).

In addition, the F_O subunits show different level of sequence conservation. For instance, in subunit c the C-terminal region plays a central functional role in ion translocation, and is thus highly conserved, while the N-terminal region is not (see Results). The poor level of sequence conservation in the N-terminus of subunit c results in great variation in the length of the sequence of this subunit, ranging from a minimum of 66 amino acids in *Streptococcus pneumoniae* (Tettelin

et al., 2001) to a maximum of 1021 amino acids in Methanopyrus kandleri (Lolkema and Boekema, 2003). Subunit a also shows more variation in sequence and size (i.e. 23% overall identity between bovine and E. coli subunit a). Last but not least, the stalk subunit of F_0 , subunit b, like those stalk subunits of subcomplex F_1 , is poorly conserved in evolution (i.e. 6% identity between bovine and E. coli subunit b (Walker et al., 1987)).

1.2.3. The soluble F_1 subcomplex

1.2.3.1. Function of F_1 subcomplex

The F_1 subcomplex is an ATP-driven rotary motor in which subunit γ rotates against the $\alpha_3\beta_3$ -hexamer, which constitutes the catalytic core. Subunits α and β harbor six nucleotide-binding sites. The three catalytic sites reside in subunits β at the three α - β interfaces, whereas the other three nucleotide binding sites are non-catalytic and located in subunits α . It was determined that the minimal functional unit of the F_1 subcomplex is the $\alpha_1\beta_1$ subcomplex (Boyer, 1997).

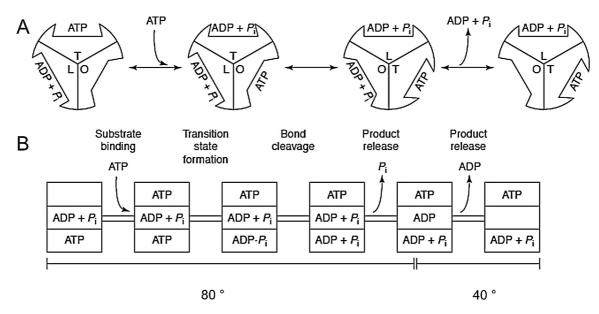


Figure 1.4. The Boyer binding-change mechanism. The figure depicts the mechanism of ATP hydrolysis. (A) Each catalytic site in the three β subunits cycles through three states, tight (T, ATP-bound), loose (L, ADP + P_i-bound) and open (O, empty), which possess different affinity to nucleotides. ATP binds to the O state to convert it into a T state. After hydrolysis, the T state is converted into the L state, from which the products can be released to recover the O state. The concerted switching of states in each of the sites in the subunit β is driven by a 120° rotation of subunit γ . (B) Substeps in the hydrolysis of one ATP molecule. ATP binding in the empty site (top rectangle) leads to the formation of the transition state in the ATP-bound site (bottom rectangle), where hydrolysis occurs. Hydrolysis is followed by the release of P_i first and then of ADP from the ADP+P_i-bound site (middle rectangle), which becomes empty. Each step is accompanied by two substeps of rotation of subunit γ , first by 80° ('ATP-waiting dwell') and then by 40° ('catalytic dwell') (Shimabukuro *et al.*, 2003). The figure is adapted from (Capaldi and Aggeler, 2002).

The mechanism of ATP synthesis is cooperative and explained by the binding-change mechanism proposed by Paul Boyer in 1993 (Boyer, 1993). The Boyer binding-change mechanism postulated that ATP synthesis is coupled with the alternation of three conformational states (open, loose and tight) of catalytic subunit β during the reaction cycle. The conformational changes in subunits β are accompanied by the rotation of subunit γ , which is driven by ion-translocation in the F_0 part. The key feature of this hypothesis is that at any given time of the reaction cycle, the three different catalytic sites on subunits B are each in a different conformation and possess each different nucleotide affinity. The open conformation has the lowest affinity for ADP and P_i and is the state that precedes binding of the reaction substrates. The loose conformation has a higher affinity for ADP than for ATP. Finally the tight conformation has the highest affinity for ATP. Each site alternates between the three states as the reaction proceeds. As a consequence of this mechanism, the actual energy-requiring steps for ATP synthesis are the binding of substrates to the open conformation and the release of product from the tight conformation, and not the chemical reaction of ATP synthesis itself (Boyer, 1997). Moreover, this mechanistic hypothesis also implies that the ATP synthase is regulated by a bi-site activation mechanism, meaning that ATP release from a given subunit β is only possible when ADP and P_i are bound to one of the other subunits (catalytic cooperativity of F₁). The Boyer binding-change mechanism is depicted in Figure 1.4.

The Boyer binding-change mechanism hypothesis is strongly supported by the available 3-D structures of F_1 subcomplexes (*vide infra*) and by various biochemical and spectroscopic

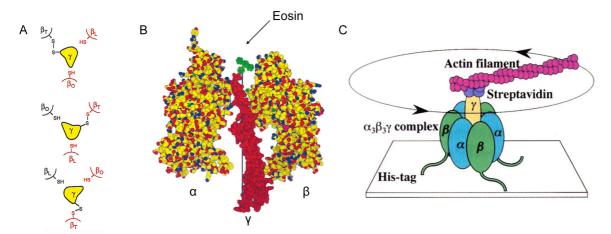


Figure 1.5. Rotation of subunit γ relative to the hexamer $\alpha_3\beta_3$. Rotation of subunit γ was proven for ATP hydrolysis with the following techniques: (A) Crosslinking: schematic diagram showing the cleavage and reformation of disulfide bridges engineered between subunits γ and β during ATP hydrolysis; (B) Polarized absorption recovery after photobleaching: a probe (eosin) is attached to subunit γ and its absorption is recorded keeping the hexamer $\alpha_3\beta_3$ immobilized on an anion-exchange resin; (C) Single-molecular rotation: the rotation of a fluorescent actin filament attached to subunit γ bound to His-tagged hexamer $\alpha_3\beta_3$ immobilized on a resin is directly videographed by fluorescence microscopy. The figure is adapted from Junge *et al.* (1997).

experiments, such as: 1) cross-linking of subunit γ to the C-terminal domain of subunit β which blocks activity of *E. coli* F₁-ATPase (Duncan *et al.*, 1995), 2) application of polarized absorption recovery after photobleaching to immobilized and γ -fluorescently labeled F₁-ATPase of chloroplasts (Sabbert *et al.*, 1997), and 3) attachment of a fluorescently labeled actin filament to subunit γ and subsequent observation of the rotation by video fluorescence microscopy of single F₁ molecule (Noji *et al.*, 1997) (Figure 1.5). The latter time-resolved single-molecule rotation experiment also enabled the direct observation of the rotation of subunit γ relative to the hexamer $\alpha_3\beta_3$ (Yasuda *et al.*, 2001). Specifically, this experiment proved that ATP hydrolysis drives the stepped rotation of subunit γ with a period of 120° under saturating concentration of Mg-ATP. In contrast, at substrate-limiting concentrations, two substeps of the rotation mechanism can be distinguished: first, the so-called 'ATP-waiting dwell' is accompanied by a rotation of 80°, and second, the 'catalytic dwell' is accompanied by a rotation of 40° (Junge *et al.*, 2009).

While subunits α , β and γ possess direct and well-characterized functional roles, F_1 -subunits ϵ and δ are also important. In all ATP synthases, subunit ϵ binds to subunit γ by its N-terminal domain to form the central stalk and is in direct connection to the c-ring of F_0 . The role of subunit ε is yet to be established precisely, but it is believed that this subunit is involved in the regulation of enzyme activity (Feniouk and Yoshida, 2008), in particular as an inhibitor of ATP hydrolysis (Kato et al., 1997; Kato-Yamada et al., 1999; Keis et al., 2006). In bacteria and in chloroplasts, but not in mitochondria, the C-terminal domain of subunit ϵ functions as a mobile regulatory element that can change conformation from an up-state to a down-state (Tsunoda et al., 2001). When subunit ε is in the up-state promoted by a higher $\Delta \mu_{H^+}$ or by ADP binding, the enzyme can catalyze ATP synthesis (Tsunoda et al., 2001). High concentrations of ATP induce the transition to the down-state, in which the enzyme reverses its mode of operation and catalyzes ATP hydrolysis (Suzuki et al., 2003). The presence of these two conformations was also demonstrated by cross-linking experiments for subunit ε of E. coli (Tsunoda et al., 2001) and of Bacillus PS3 (Suzuki et al., 2003). The inhibitory effect of subunit ε is caused by the direct electrostatical interaction between the positive charges in the C-terminal region of subunit ε and the negative charges in the conserved DELSEED motif of subunits β (Hara *et al.*, 2001). Some bacterial subunits ε bind ATP and may act as a built-in cellular sensor of ATP concentration (Kato-Yamada and Yoshida, 2003).

Finally, subunit δ together with the F_O -subunit b dimer form the peripheral stalk of bacterial ATP synthase, connecting F_1 -subunits $\alpha_3\beta_3$ with F_O -subunit a. Besides this structural role, subunit δ has no other known function.

1.2.3.2. Structure of F_1 subcomplex

The first high-resolution 3-D structure of the F_1 subcomplex $(\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma)$ was solved at 2.8 Å resolution in 1994 for the ATP synthase from bovine heart mitochondria (Abrahams et al., 1994). Since then, more crystal structures of the F₁ subcomplex were determined in different conformations and with different inhibitors, including aurovertin (van Raaij et al., 1996), efrapeptin (Abrahams et al., 1996), 4-chloro-7-nitrobenzofurazan (NBD) (Orriss et al., 1998), azide (Bowler et al., 2006), N, N'-dicyclohexylcarbodiimide (DCCD) (Gibbons et al., 2000), AlF₃ (Braig et al., 2000), and AlF₄ (Menz et al., 2001). Structures of the F₁ subcomplex from other organisms were also determined, including the native F₁ structure from rat (Bianchet et al., 1998), native (Groth and Pohl, 2001) and tentoxin-inhibited F₁ structures (Groth, 2002) from spinach chloroplast, and the F₁ structure from yeast (Kabaleeswaran et al., 2006; Kabaleeswaran et al., 2009; Dautant et al., 2010). Moreover, structures of F₁ subcomplexes in association with c-rings were solved for yeast (Stock *et al.*, 1999; Dautant et al., 2010) and bovine (Watt et al., 2010) ATP synthases, and the structure of the F₁ subcomplex in association with the peripheral stalk was determined for bovine ATP synthase (Dickson et al., 2006; Rees et al., 2009). Finally, several structures of the bacterial F₁ subcomplex were also determined, including those of E. coli (Cingolani and Duncan 2011), Bacillus PS3 (Shirakihara et al., 1997), and Bacillus sp. TA2. A1 ATP synthases (Stocker et al., 2007). Among all the F₁ structures, the highest resolution obtained was for the F₁ structure from bovine heart mitochondria at 1.9 Å resolution (Bowler et al., 2007).

All these structures show that the overall dimension of the F_1 subcomplex is ~125 Å in height and ~115 Å in diameter. Subunits α and β are arranged as a trimer of heterodimers ($\alpha_3\beta_3$) and are each composed of three domains, an N-terminal β -barrel, a central α -helical- β -sheet domain, and a C-terminal α -helical domain. Furthermore, the structures reveal the architecture of the central nucleotide-binding site domain. The latter is composed of a nine-stranded β -sheet with nine associated α -helices, and is characterized by common nucleotide-binding folds, the Walker A motif (GxxxxGKT/S) and the Walker B motif (R/KxxxGxxxL/VhhhhD) (Walker *et al.*, 1982). The structures of the F_1 subcomplex show the asymmetric features characteristic of the $\alpha_3\beta_3$ hexamers and predicted by the Boyer binding-change mechanism (Figure 1.6). Subunit β is typically trapped in the tight conformation binding to AMP-PNP (a non-hydrolyzable ATP analog) (β_{TP}), in the loose conformation binding ADP (β_{DP}), and in the open, empty conformation (β_E) (Abrahams *et al.*, 1994). Subunit γ extends through the $\alpha_3\beta_3$ hexamers forming two long coiled-coil α -helices and making only limited contacts with subunits α and β . The crystal structures reveal the asymmetry in the contacts between subunit γ and each of the catalytic subunits β (Abrahams *et al.*, 1994).

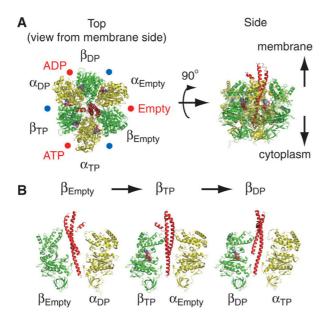


Figure 1.6. Crystal structure of the F_1 subcomplex α₃β₃γ from bovine mitochondrial **ATP synthase** (PDB id. 1BMF). Subunits α , β and γ are shown in yellow, green and red, respectively. (A) Three pairs of $\alpha\beta$ heterodimers are arranged around subunit γ . Three catalytic sites (red circles) are in subunit β , at the subunits α/β interface. Each site is occupied by AMP-PNP, ADP, or is empty $(\beta_{TP}, \beta_{DP} \text{ and} \beta_{Empty}, \text{ respectively})$. Each subunit α forming a catalytic site with one subunit β is designated as α_{TP} , α_{DP} and α_{Empty} , respectively. The other three non-catalytic sites in subunit α bind AMP-PNP (blue circles). The protruding part of subunit γ is directed towards the membrane side. (B) Conformational states of subunit β and of the catalytic α/β interface. β_{Empty} is in an open conformation in which the α -helical C-terminal domain is rotated upwards to open the cleft of the nucleotide-binding pocket. Both β_{TP} and β_{DP} have a closed conformation binding the nucleotide. Subunit γ makes limited contacts with α and β , sufficient to generate the torque that causes the conformational changes in subunit β. The figure is adapted from (Okuno et al., 2011).

Subunit ε binds to the protruding part of subunit γ (Gibbons *et al.*, 2000). The structure of subunit ε is composed of two domains: an N-terminal 10-stranded β -sandwich, and a C-terminal two α -helical hairpin (Wilkens *et al.*, 1995; Uhlin *et al.*, 1997). Two conformations of subunit ε in the up and down states, were revealed by comparing the X-ray crystallographic structures, the bovine DCCD-inhibited F₁-ATPase at 2.4 Å resolution and the *E. coli* $\gamma\varepsilon$ -complex at 2.1 Å resolution (Gibbons *et al.*, 2000; Rodgers and Wilce, 2000), and are relevant to understand its regulatory role (Tsunoda *et al.*, 2001). A more recent crystal structure of the *E. coli* F₁ complex revealed the structural basis for the inhibitory role of subunit ε to an even greater level of detail, showing that the C-terminal domain of subunit ε can adopt a highly extended conformation inserting deeply into the central cavity of the enzyme. In this conformation, subunit ε engages interactions with both the rotor and stator subunits preventing the functional rotation (Cingolani and Duncan, 2011). Finally, the structure of ATP-bound subunit ε from *Bacillus* PS3 at 1.9 Å resolution provides evidence for the hypothesis that the C-terminal helices of subunit ε can undergo an arm-like conformational change from the up-state to the down-state in response to changes in ATP concentration (Yagi *et al.*, 2007) (Figure 1.7).

Finally, subunit δ is located at the top of the $\alpha_3\beta_3$ hexamer, but so far the structure of bacterial subunit δ has not yet been solved by crystallographic methods, either in isolation or in complex with other subunits. It is known that subunit δ forms contacts with both subunit α and β , as confirmed by the EM reconstructions of *E. coli* F_1F_0 ATP synthase decorated with a monoclonal

antibody against subunit δ (Wilkens *et al.*, 2000), by NMR (Wilkens *et al.*, 2005) and by cross-linking data (Lill *et al.*, 1996; Ogilvie *et al.*, 1997; Rodgers and Capaldi, 1998). Cross-linking data also suggested that subunits δ and α interact via their N-terminal region (Lill *et al.*, 1996; Ogilvie *et al.*, 1997; Rodgers and Capaldi, 1998) and that subunits δ and b interact via their C-terminal region (McLachlin *et al.*, 1998). Instead, there is structural information for the mitochondrial homologue of subunit δ , namely subunit OSCP. The latter, which is predicted to be very similar to the bacterial subunit δ (Walker and Dickson, 2006), possesses an N-terminal domain consisting of a six- α -helix

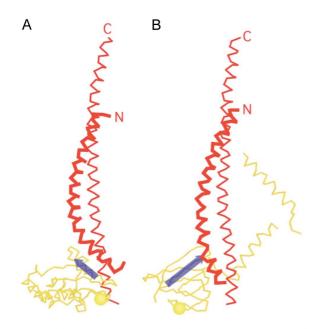


Figure 1.7. The two conformational states of subunit ε. Subunits γ and ε from structures 1E79 (A) (Gibbons *et al.*, 2000)) and 1FS0 (B) (Rodgers and Wilce, 2000)) are shown in red and yellow, respectively. Subunit ε is composed of an N-terminal β-sandwich and a C-terminal two α-helical hairpin. The latter can change from a down-state conformation (A) to an up-state conformation (B) to inhibit ATP hydrolysis (blue arrow). The figure is adapted from Capaldi and Aggeler (2002).

bundle, as revealed by NMR spectroscopy (Wilkens et al., 1997; Wilkens et al., 1997; Carbajo et al., 2005). Recently, the structure of the complex between bovine F₁-ATPase and stator subcomplex has been determined at a resolution of 3.2 Å (Rees et al., 2009). The structure reveals that the Nterminal domain of OSCP links the stator with F_1 -ATPase via α -helical interactions with the N-terminal region of subunit α_E . Its C-terminal domain makes extensive helixhelix interactions with the C-terminal αhelix of subunit b from residues 190-207. The linker region between the two domains of OSCP also appears to be flexible, enabling the stator to adjust its shape as the F₁ domain changes conformation during the catalytic cycle. A similar association may also occur between the subunit δ and the stator in the bacterial enzyme.

1.2.4. The membrane-embedded Fo subcomplex

1.2.4.1. Function of F_O subcomplex

The ATP synthase F_O -subcomplex translocates ions (H^+ or Na^+) across the membrane using an electrochemical gradient to generate a rotary torque. Ion translocation takes place at the interface of subunits a and c. Based on mutagenesis studies, highly conserved residues Asp or Glu in subunit c (i.e. Asp61 in *E. coli*) and Arg in subunit a (i.e. Arg210 in *E. coli*) are directly involved in ion

translocation (Vik and Antonio, 1994; Cain, 2000).

The most widely accepted model for ion translocation is the so-called half-channel model, first proposed by Wolfgang Junge (Junge *et al.*, 1997). According to this model, subunit a interacts with two subunits c at every rotation step and this interaction opens two access channels for ions, one reaching from one side of the membrane to the middle, the other from the middle to the opposite side of the membrane. When an ion enters the former half channel, it binds to the carboxyl group of the functional Asp/Glu residue in subunit c. Neutralization of this negatively charged residue allows subunit c to rotate away from subunit a. Upon such rotation, the neighboring subunit c approaches subunit a and releases its bound ion through the second half channel. After ion release, the functional Asp/Glu residue returns to a negatively charged state and forms an ionic contact with Arg in subunit a to start a new translocation cycle. The direction of rotary motion is determined by the ion concentration gradient established by the respiratory complexes between the two sides of the membrane (see above and Figure 1.8).

1.2.4.2. Structure of F_0 subcomplex

A high-resolution structure of the complete F_O complex is not yet available, which prevents a clear understanding of the ion-translocation mechanism. However, the general architecture of the F_O subcomplex is known from low resolution electron microscopy and AFM experiments, and from biochemical data. The simplest bacterial F_O motor is a membrane-inserted protein complex consisting of an oligomeric c-ring adjacent to subunit a and to the homodimer of subunit b.

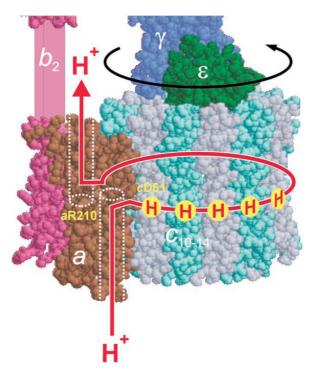


Figure 1.8. Proposed half-channel model for proton translocation in E. coli. Highly conserved residues Asp61 (cD61) of subunit c (grey and blue for the neighboring c monomers) and Arg210 (aR210) of subunit a (brown) are located in the middle of the membrane bilayer at the interface between subunits a/c, where they interact enabling the proton translocation. Putative access channels for proton translocation facing the periplasm and with the cytoplasm are shown as white dotted lines (the proton moves from cytoplasm to periplasm when ATP is hydrolyzed and vice versa when ATP is synthetized). During each cycle, the electronic cring rotor turns counterclockwise when ATP is hydrolyzed and clockwise when ATP synthetized. This rotation is coupled to the rotation of the central stalk subunits γ and ε (black arrow) that generates torque to power the chemically active F₁ motor by elastic mechanical-power transmission (not shown). The figure is adapted from Weber and Senior (2003).

The subunit b homodimer together with subunit δ of the F_1 subcomplex forms the so-called peripheral stalk. The interaction between subunits b and δ provides an important connection between the F_0 and the F_1 subcomplexes, which is then further reinforced by the interactions between F_1 subunits γ and ε with F_0 subunits c (Walker *et al.*, 1982; Walker and Dickson, 2006). Subunits b are typically between 130 and 180 amino acid residues in length. They are characterized by four regions (Dunn *et al.*, 2000): an N-terminal hydrophobic membrane-spanning region (residues 1-24), a tether region (residues 25-52), a dimerization region (residues 53-122) and a C-terminal binding region. The latter three regions are predominantly hydrophilic, which protrude from the membrane in a highly charged α -helical structure (Walker *et al.*, 1982), and interact with the F_1 part via subunits δ and α (Dunn *et al.*, 2000; Walker and Dickson, 2006). The structure of the N-terminal membrane-spanning region (residues 1-34) of subunit b from *E. coli* was solved by NMR in an organic solvent. The NMR structure showed that residues 4 - 22 form an α -helix, and probably represents the membrane anchor of this subunit (Dmitriev *et al.*, 1999). Cross-linking data showed that the two transmembrane helices in the b_2 homodimer are in close proximity (Dmitriev *et al.*, 1999) and interact with subunits a and c (Fillingame *et al.*, 2000). The structure of residues

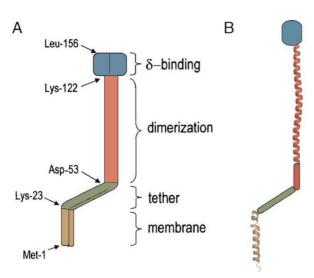


Figure 1.9. Proposed structure of *E. coli* subunit b. (A) Subunit b is composed of four regions: an N-terminal membrane-spanning region, a tether region, a dimerization domain and a C-terminal δ-binding region. Residues at the junctions between the different regions are labeled. (B) Composite structure model of a monomer of subunit b. The model was drawn from the NMR structure of the membrane domain (PDB id. 1B9U), the X-ray crystallographic structure of the dimerization domain (PDB id. 1L2P) and manually drawn rods that represent the tether and δ-binding regions. The figure is adapted from Walker and Dickson (2006).

62-122, which contains the so-called "dimerization domain", has been solved by X-ray crystallography at 1.5 Å resolution (Del Rizzo et al., 2002). Combined with small-angle X-ray scattering data, the structure indicates that this region forms a right-handed coiled-coil. Finally, the subunit δ-binding region is reported to have a more globular structure (Dunn et al., 2000) (Figure 1.9). Detailed structural information about the soluble part of the peripheral stalk has recently become available for bovine (Dickson et al., 2006; Rees et al., 2009) and bacterial V-type ATP synthase (Lee et al., 2010). Both structures confirmed that the stalk possesses a predominantly helical structure, even though the peripheral stalk of bacterial ATP synthase adopts a straighter conformation than that of its bovine counterpart (Del Rizzo et al., 2002; Del Rizzo et al., 2006).

The highly hydrophobic subunit a is the largest polypeptide of the F_O complex. It has been studied most extensively in E. coli, but unfortunately this subunit is extremely difficult to overproduce in vivo (von Meyenburg et al., 1985; Eya et al., 1989), and highly unstable in isolation (Akiyama et al., 1996), and thus it has not been possible to crystallize it. Therefore, besides information on the functional role of the conserved Arg residue described above, little information about subunit a is available. Surface labeling studies using cysteine mutants led to the proposal that E. coli subunit a, which is 271 amino acids long, consists of five transmembrane helices (aTMH1-5), with the Nterminal loop facing the periplasm and a C-terminal loop facing the cytoplasm (Vik et al., 2000; Zhang and Vik, 2003). Cross-linking studies have shown that residues 74 and 91 of the first cytoplasmic loop are in close proximity to subunit b (Long et al., 2002). Moreover, cross-linking data also revealed that aTMH2, 3, 4 and 5 form a four-helix bundle and that key functional residues are located in aTMH4 (Ser206, Arg210, and Asn214) near the periplasmic end and close to subunit c (Schwem and Fillingame, 2006). On the basis of an extensive cysteine scanning analysis and accessibility studies with cysteine-reactive chemicals (N-ethylmaleimide, Ag⁺), two distinct aqueous access pathways were mapped to aTMH2-5 (Angevine et al., 2007; Steed and Fillingame, 2009). Other experiments indicated that residues Glu219 and His245 are in close proximity to each other and possibly near the periplasmic entrance site for the substrate ion (Cain and Simoni, 1986; Cain and Simoni, 1988; Lightowlers et al., 1988; Hartzog and Cain, 1994). At present, the highest resolution structural information pertaining to subunit a was obtained by cryo-EM single particle analysis on Thermus thermophilus V-type ATPase, which was visualized at 9.7 Å resolution (Lau

and Rubinstein, 2010; Lau and Rubinstein, 2012). This results showed that the contact interface of subunit a with subunit c is rather minimal, limited to a narrow region in the middle of the membrane, and possibly mediated by lipid molecules (Lau and Rubinstein, 2010; Lau and Rubinstein, 2012) (Figure 1.10).

Similar to subunit a, subunit c is also highly hydrophobic. The structure of subunit c monomers was first investigated by biochemical methods (Fillingame *et al.*, 1990) and NMR spectroscopy (PDB id.:

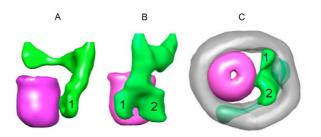


Figure 1.10. The interface between rotor and stator in F_O -ATP synthase. The picture shows three different views of V_O/A_O subcomplex of *Thermus thermophilus* V-type ATP synthase obtained by EM (Lau and Rubinstein, 2010). The rotor ring, subunit L (homologous to subunit a in F_1F_O ATP synthase) and the surrounding detergent micelle are shown in magenta, green and grey, respectively. (A) and (B) Views along the membrane plane. (C) View from the cytoplasmic side of the membrane. The figure is reproduced from Lau and Rubinstein (2010).

1A91) (Girvin *et al.*, 1998), which determined that generally subunit c is composed of a hairpin of two transmembrane helices connected by a short highly conserved cytoplasmic loop (RQPE) responsible for interacting with F_1 -subunits γ and ε (e.g. Pogoryelov *et al.* (2008)). Both the N- and C-terminal ends of subunit c are in the periplasm. In the context of the assembled F_1F_0 ATP synthase, subunit c monomers associate to form oligomeric rings (Meier 2003). Crystal structures available for different rings of subunit c show that these share a high similarity, possessing a cylindrical shape formed by an inner ring of N-terminal helices concentric to an outer ring of C-terminal helices, and by a central pore, filled with phospholipids to prevent ion leakage through the membrane (Meier *et al.*, 2001). Some c subunits form hourglass-shaped cylinders because their transmembrane helices are bent (i.e. in yeast, *Ilyobacter tartarticus*, *S. platensis* (Stock *et al.*, 1999; Meier *et al.*, 2005; Pogoryelov *et al.*, 2005)). Whereas, others form tulip-beer glass-shaped rings as their helices are straighter (i.e. in *Bacillus pseudofirmus* OF4 (Preiss *et al.*, 2010)).

Interestingly, c-rings possess constant stoichiometry in each given species, but different stoichiometries in different organisms. For example, cross-linking data together with atomic force

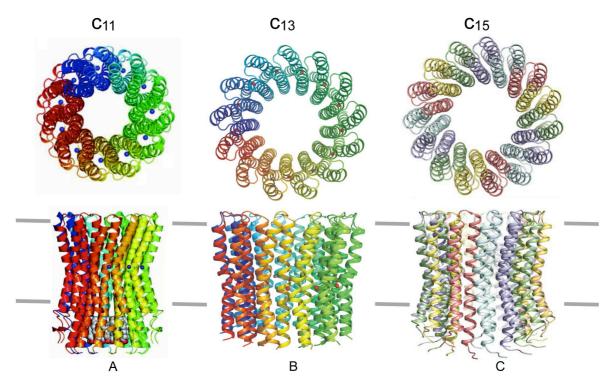


Figure 1.11. C-ring structures determined by X-ray crystallography. (A) *I. tartaricus* c₁₁ ring (left, PDB id. 1YCE, (Meier *et al.*, 2005)), (B) *B. pseudofirmus* OF4 c₁₃ ring (middle, PDB id. 2X2V, (Preiss *et al.*, 2010)) and (C) *S. platensis* c₁₅ ring (right, PDB id. 2WIE, (Pogoryelov *et al.*, 2009)). The figure represents the view of the c-rings from the cytoplasm (top) and parallel to the membrane plane (bottom).

microscopy (AFM) (Singh et al., 1996; Takeyasu et al., 1996) and electron microscopic reconstructions (Birkenhager et al., 1995) showed that the c-ring of E. coli F₁F₀ ATP synthase is composed of 10 subunits, similarly to that of yeast ATP synthase (PDB id.: 2XOK and 2WPD Stock et al. 1999; Dautant et al. 2010). In contrast, the c-ring of the bovine ATP synthase is composed of 8 subunits (PDB id.: 2XND (Stock et al., 1999; Dautant et al., 2010; Watt et al., 2010)), the prokaryotic F-type sodium-pumping ATP synthase from *I. tartaricus* by 11 (PDB id: 1YCE, (Meier et al., 2005)), the proton-pumping ATP synthase of B. pseudofirmus OF4 by 13 (PDB id: 2X2V, (Preiss et al., 2010)), and that of the ATP synthase of the cyanobacterium Arthrospira platensis by 15 (PDB id: 2WIE, (Pogoryelov et al., 2005)). The stoichiometry of the crings is dictated by specific conserved sequence features (i.e. a glycine-motif GxGxGxG), which determines the ion-to-ATP ratio of ATP synthase. This ratio was evolutionarily selected for based on the bioenergetic requirements of each individual species, i.e. the ion motif force generated across the membrane (Pogoryelov et al., 2012). For example, in fungi, eubacteria and plants chloroplasts, c-ring sizes of 10-15 subunits imply that these enzymes need 3.3-5 ions to make one molecule of ATP, while the c₈-ring stoichiometry of bovine ATP synthase implies higher efficiency and a lower bioenergetic cost of 2.7 protons per ATP molecule.

The conserved Asp/Glu residues involved in ion translocations are localized at the middle of the membrane plane on the outer C-terminal helix. In most c-rings structures, the ion binding-site is either in a H⁺ or Na⁺ locked conformation (Meier *et al.*, 2005; Murata *et al.*, 2005; Pogoryelov *et al.*, 2009; Preiss *et al.*, 2010) or in an open conformation bound to the inhibitor N,N'-dicyclohexylcarbodiimide (DCCD) (Pogoryelov *et al.*, 2010; Mizutani *et al.*, 2011). Only one apo-

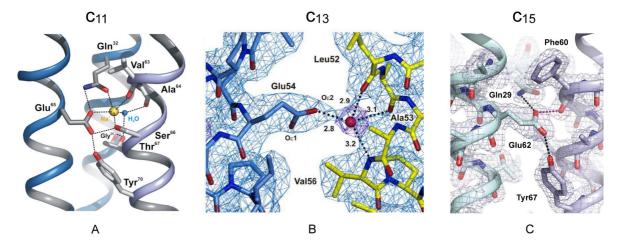


Figure 1.12. Structural details of the ion binding sites of Na⁺- and H⁺-dependent ATP synthases. (A) The Na⁺ binding site in *I. tartaricus* c₁₁ ring (PDB id. 1YCE, (Meier *et al.*, 2005)). (B) The H⁺ binding site in *B. pseudofirmus* OF4 c₁₃ ring (PDB id. 2X2V, (Preiss *et al.*, 2010)). (C) The H⁺ binding site in the *S. platensis* c₁₅ ring (PDB id. 2WIE, (Pogoryelov *et al.*, 2009)).

structure is in an open conformation (Symersky *et al.*, 2012). Besides the conserved Asp/Glu residue, other residues are also involved in ion coordination but these vary from species to species. For example, in the c-15 ring from *S. platensis*, the proton is coordinated by Gln29, Tyr67, and Phe60, while in the c-13 ring from *B. pseudofirmus* OF4, a water molecule coordinated by Glu54 from one helix and Leu52, Ala53 and Val56 from the adjacent helix coordinates the proton. The crystal structure of *I. tartaricus* c-11 ring shows that the binding signature for Na⁺ coordination involves four amino acids (Gln32, Glu65, Ser66, and Val63) and one structural water coordinated by Thr67 (Meier *et al.*, 2009). Thr67 is the only residue involved in binding that distinguishes Na⁺ ATP synthases from H⁺ ATP synthase (Meier *et al.*, 2009). An almost identical Na⁺ coordination was found in the crystal structure of the K-ring of the V-type ATPase from *Enterococcus hirae* (Murata *et al.*, 2005) (Figure 1.11 and 1.12).

1.2.5. ATP synthase biogenesis and assembly

Biogenesis of the F_1F_0 ATP synthase has been studied in *E. coli* and yeast, and a similar coordinated stepwise assembly mechanism was proposed. Assembly starts with the formation of subcomplex F_1 , and it is then followed by a sequential assembly of the membrane F_0 subcomplex, and finally, by the coupling of the subcomplexes F_0 to F_1 (Price and Driessen, 2010). Interestingly, the F_1 and F_0 sectors are not yet fully assembled before coupling occurs (Steffens *et al.*, 1984) (Figure 1.13).

In the assembly process, proteins of the Oxa family, namely YidC in *E. coli*, its homologues SpoIIIJ and YqjG in *Bacillus subtilis* (Saller *et al.*, 2009), its homologue Alb4 in chloroplasts of *Arabidopsis thaliana* (Benz *et al.*, 2009) and its homologue Oxa1 in mitochondria (Jia *et al.*, 2007), facilitate the insertion of the membrane subunits into the membrane and act as chaperones to support the correct formation of the ATP synthase complex.

A particularly critical step in the membrane biogenesis of ATP synthase is the assembly of the crings, a step that may even determine the total amount of active ATP synthase in mammals (Houstek *et al.*, 2006). Besides YidC, protein AtpI may be involved in the assembly of c-rings (Suzuki *et al.*, 2007; Brandt *et al.*, 2013). In bacterial genomes, the *atpI* gene is the first gene in the *atp* operon (Walker *et al.*, 1984; Santana *et al.*, 1994; Yokoyama *et al.*, 2000; Meier *et al.*, 2003; Keis *et al.*, 2004; Brandt *et al.*, 2013), but the protein AtpI is not present in the assembled holoenzyme. The AtpI's chaperone role in the assembly of the c-rings was proposed based on work on a hybrid F₁F₀ complex (F₁ from *Bacillus* PS3 and F₀ from *Propionigenium modestum*) expressed in *E. coli* (Suzuki *et al.*, 2007), and on work on *Bacillus* PS3 and *Acetobacterium woodii* ATP synthases (Suzuki *et al.*, 2007; Ozaki *et al.*, 2008; Brandt *et al.*, 2013).

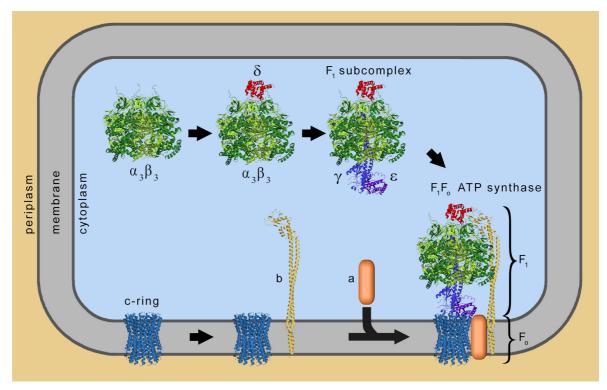


Figure 1.13. Assembly pathway for the F_1F_0 ATP synthase. The assembly of F_1 occurs in the cytoplasm where the subunits α , β , γ , δ , and ε form a globular structure (top). The assembly of F_0 occurs in a second assembly pathway (down), in which subunit c forms an oligomeric c-ring in the membrane onto which subunit b assembles. In the final step, subunit a is added to the complex $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma\varepsilon cb_2$. The structures used to depict the figure are F_1 - $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma\varepsilon$ subcomplex from bovine (PDB id. 1E79), subunit δ from *E. coli* (PDB id. 2A7U, N-terminal segment only), the peripheral stalk (representing subunit b) from *T. thermophilus* (PDB id. 3V6I) and c-ring from *I. tartaricus* (PDB id. 1CYE). The figure was adapted from (Dalbey *et al.*, 2011) by Paolo Lastrico (MPI of Biophysics, Frankfurt, Germany).

Also subunits a and b require additional factors besides YidC for their membrane insertion and assembly. In *E. coli*, it was proposed that the Sec translocon and the signal recognition particle (SRP) are involved (Yi *et al.*, 2004). The membrane insertion of subunit a requires that both subunits b and c are present in the *E. coli* membrane (Hermolin and Fillingame, 1995). It was shown that subunit a is actually not essential for the correct assembly of stable F₁F₀ complexes in *Bacillus* PS3 and *E. coli* (Vik and Simoni, 1987; Krebstakies *et al.*, 2005), and it can be added after purification to restore the activity of subunit-a-deprived ATP synthase complexes (Ono *et al.*, 2004). Therefore, it is plausible that this protein is added at the last step of ATP synthase biogenesis (Price and Driessen, 2010).

Finally, protein factors may also be required for the assembly of components of the mitochondrial F_1 subcomplex. For instance, in yeast, chaperones Atp12 and Atp11p were identified to bind subunits α and β (Wang and Ackerman, 2000; Wang *et al.*, 2000).

1.3. Aquifex aeolicus ATP synthase

Aquifex aeolicus VF5 is a hyperthermophilic bacterium, which grows optimally at 85-95 °C. It is one of the earliest diverging bacteria based on phylogenetic analysis of the 16S ribosomal RNA sequence. The cells of this bacteria are rod-shaped, with a length of 2-6 μ m and a diameter of around 0.5 μ m (Huber and Eder, 2006).

A. aeolicus is an obligate chemolithoautotroph, and it uses inorganic carbon as a source for both biosynthesis and inorganic chemical energy (Deckert et al., 1998). It is an obligate aerobic bacterium, but it can grow at very low concentrations of oxygen (as low as 7.5 ppm). A. aeolicus is cultured at 85 °C in liquid medium SME under an H₂/CO₂/O₂ (79.5:19.5:1.0), making its cells very expensive and non-manipulatable (Huber and Eder, 2006). A. aeolicus preferentially produces cellular energy through the so-called "Knallgas" reaction, where molecular hydrogen is oxidized to produce H₂O using molecular oxygen as the electron acceptor (Deckert et al., 1998). Finally, A. aeolicus fixes CO₂ through the reductive tricarboxylic acid cycle (Deckert et al., 1998).

The complete genome of *A. aeolicus* was sequenced in 1998 (Deckert *et al.*, 1998) and it is rather small (1,551,335 base pairs), corresponding to only one-third of the *E. coli* genome. Two pronounced features characterize *A. aeolicus* genome. First, the genome is densely packed: most

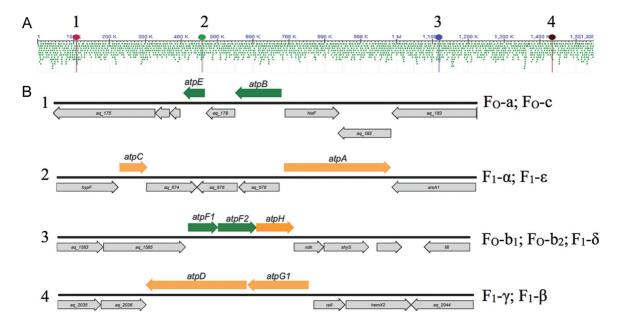


Figure 1.14. Organization of the F_1F_0 ATP synthase genes in *A. aeolicus*. (A) View of the whole genome of *A. aeolicus*. The nine genes encoding the ATP synthase subunits are split into four loci in the genome. (B) Enlarged view of the four loci. The nine *atp* genes are separated into six DNA fragments located in both the plus and minus DNA strands. Only *atpF1F2H* and *atpDG1* form operons. Genes encoding F_1 subunits are shown in orange, those encoding F_0 subunits are shown in green.

genes are apparently expressed in polycistronic operons and many convergently transcribed genes overlap slightly. Second, many genes that are functionally grouped within operons in other organisms are dispersed throughout the *A. aeolicus* genome. This is the case even for genes encoding subunits of the same enzyme. Specifically, this is true for the nine genes encoding subunits of ATP synthase (Deckert *et al.*, 1998; Peng *et al.*, 2006), which are distributed in four different genomic loci. At locus 1, the gene *atpB* encoding subunit a and the gene *atpE* encoding subunit c are separated by aq_178 encoding a universal stress protein. At locus 2, the gene atpC encoding subunit ϵ and the gene atpA encoding subunit α are separated by three genes encoding three hypothetical proteins, AQ_674 , AQ_676 and AQ_678 . At locus 3, a native operon includes the genes atpF1, atpF2 and atpH encoding the peripheral stalk subunits δ ₁, δ ₂ and δ ₃, respectively. These three genes are overlapping. Finally, at locus 4, another operon includes the genes atpD and atpG encoding subunits γ and β , respectively (Figure 1.14).

A. aeolicus F₁F₀ ATP synthase has been studied previously after isolation from the native membranes of the organism (Peng *et al.*, 2006). Strikingly, that work determined that A. aeolicus ATP synthase differs from the F₁F₀ ATP synthases of other non-photosynthetic organisms, because it possesses a hetero-, and not homo- dimeric peripheral stalk, composed of subunits b₁ and b₂ (Peng *et al.*, 2006). Furthermore, that work provided a first low resolution visualization of the enzyme by single particle electron microscopy raising the question whether its two stalks may be tilted and/or kinked (Peng *et al.*, 2006). Finally, another striking property of A. aeolicus ATP synthase is that its subunit c possesses a short, unusually positively charged N-terminal region (see Results). Despite this previous study, many properties of A. aeolicus ATP synthase still need to be determined. For instance, the stoichiometry of its c-ring is not yet characterized, its enzymatic properties were not studied, and its high resolution 3-D structure has not been obtained yet.

1.4. Open questions

Despite the wealth of functional and structural information on ATP synthase, several questions are still open for fully understanding this enzyme at a molecular level (Houstek *et al.*, 2006; Junge *et al.*, 2009). From a functional perspective, full kinetic and mechanistic characterization of the different ATP synthase reactions is needed. Particularly, it is important to integrate and make uniform all data obtained so far using enzymes from different organisms. Possibly, new theoretical approaches will need to be developed to extend the description of ATP synthase activity from the nanosecond time scale to the millisecond time scale, thereby explaining the activity of different types of ATP synthases in the context of cellular physiology. From a structural perspective, the mechanism of how ATP synthase assembles from its individual subunits needs to be understood better. Furthermore, a high-resolution structure of the complete F_O subcomplex is required to

visualize the ion-translocation pathway. Finally and most importantly, a high-resolution structure of the complete F_1F_0 ATP synthase is needed.

1.5. Aim of this work

In order to contribute to a more complete understanding of the structure and function of ATP synthase, and to complement the characterization of native A. aeolicus ATP synthase (hereafter AAF₁F₀) described above (Peng $et\ al.$, 2006), in this work we set out to produce A. $aeolicus\ F_1F_0$ ATP synthase in the heterologous host E. coli (hereafter EAF₁F₀).

This work specifically aimed to: i) clone individual subunits of A. aeolicus ATP synthase in E. coli; ii) produce, purify and functionally characterize those subunits in isolation or in the context of small soluble and membrane-inserted subcomplexes; iii) design and clone an artificial operon encoding all subunits of A. aeolicus ATP synthase; iv) express such operon in E. coli; v) purify the fully assembled EAF₁F₀ from the membranes of E. coli; and vi) undertake structural and enzymatic studies to assess its overall morphology and its functionality.

Heterologous production of such a large, multi-subunit, membrane-inserted complex as *A. aeolicus* ATP synthase is a challenging task. However, producing *A. aeolicus* ATP synthase in a heterologous genetic system would allow genetic and functional studies to characterize the unusual properties of its subunits, i.e. the heterodimerization of subunits b₁ and b₂, the unusual N-terminal segment of subunit c, or the putatively tilted structure of its stalks, and would open up the possibility to undertake experiments to support the ongoing structural investigation on the native enzyme. Moreover, to a broader extent, it will also serve in the future as a solid reference for designing strategies aimed to co-express large multi-subunit complexes with complicated stoichiometry and whose genes that are not grouped in an operon.

2. Results

To follow up on a previous report about $Aquifex\ aeolicus\ ATP$ synthase extracted and purified from native cells (AAF₁F₀, (Peng et al., 2006)), in this work we have set out to characterize this important enzyme further. We have pursued three different lines of research. First, we have extended the previous characterization of AAF₁F₀, determining that it is a proton-dependent ATP synthase, studying its enzymatic activity and assessing its stability in different detergents (see chapter 2.1). Second, we have created an expression system to produce the enzyme in the heterologous host $Escherichia\ coli$, obtaining a purified form of $A.\ aeolicus\ ATP$ synthase (EAF₁F₀) identical in structure and enzymatic properties to AAF₁F₀ (see chapter 2.2). Finally, we have used our heterologous system to determine important and unique properties of $A.\ aeolicus\ ATP$ synthase, i.e. that its subunit c possesses a previously uncharacterized N-terminal signal peptide (see chapter 2.3).

2.1. Bioinformatic and functional characterization of AAF_1F_0

2.1.1. Bioinformatic characterization

2.1.1.1. Sequence conservation

Multiple sequence alignments were performed using PSI-BLAST on sets of different homologues of subunits α , β , a, b and c, using sequences obtained from the SwissProt sequence database. A large variation was detected in the lengths of subunits a, b and c, compared to the length of the functional subunits a and a (Table 2.1). Accordingly, when the sequences used in the alignment were clustered using CD-HIT (Fu *et al.*, 2012), the numbers of clusters identified differed dramatically. We identified 114 clusters for subunit a, a and a clusters for subunits a and a clusters for subunits a and a were highly conserved whereas the membrane subunits a and a cwere less conserved, and a by poorly conserved.

Table 2.1: Statistics describing the sequence alignment of selected ATP synthase subunits

Subunit	Number of seq.	Length	Clusters	Clusters/Number of seq.
α	251	498 - 541	3	1.2%
β	251	457 - 574	1	0.4%
a	271	207 - 905	55	20.3%
С	218	66 - 196	48	22.0%
b	276	142 - 443	114	41.3%

2.1.1.2. Subunit a

A. aeolicus F₁F₀ ATP synthase subunit a is encoded by the atpB gene with a predicted length of 216 amino acids ($M_r = 24.01 \text{ kDa}$). No signal peptide is predicted for subunit a by SignalP. Topology prediction by TMHMM suggests the presence of six transmembrane helices in subunit a. These predictions are coutradict the results of a multiple-sequence alignment performed in this work, which suggests that A. aeolicus subunit a possesses 5 transmembrane helices (aTMH1-5, see Figure 2.1). The alignment results showed that aTMH2-5 are conserved: a functionally important arginine (Arg148) is located in aTMH4, together with other conserved residues (Leu149, Asn 152, Ala155 and Gly156). The highly conserved residues Gln195, Leu202 and Tyr 206 are located in aTMH5, and Asn74 and Pro80 are located in aTMH2. The alignment results also suggested that the N-terminal segment of subunit a is variable: (i) there are differences in the length of the N-termini of subunit a from V-type ATP synthases and F-type F₁F₀ ATP synthases: the V-type subunits a typically possess a 50-kDa N-terminal extension, while F-type subunits a are generally shorter (Figure 2.2); (ii) there are also differences in the length and topology of the N-termini of subunits a within F-type ATP synthases; in subunit a from A. aeolicus ATP synthase the N-terminus consists of a short N-terminal peptide followed by a transmembrane helix (aTMH1), while in the subunit a from E. coli it consists of a long polar peptide of ~ 40 amino acids. Moreover, an additional transmembrane helix (helix-0) is present in the subunit a from *I. tartaricus*, which is therefore composed of 6 transmembrane helices in total (Hakulinen et al., 2012) (see Figure 2.1). Furthermore, the subunit a of nuclear-encoded eukaryotic ATP synthases (i.e. yeast) possesses an N-terminal mitochondrial targeting sequence while the mitochondrial-encoded subunit a of eukaryotic ATP synthases (i.e. that from Bos taurus) possesses a short N-terminal peptide (see Figure 2.1). (iii) Finally, the localization of the N-terminal segment is probably also different in ATP synthases from different organisms. For instance, the N-terminal peptide of subunit a from I. tartaricus was suggested to be localized in the cytoplasm (Hakulinen et al., 2012), while that of E. coli to be located in the periplasm (Vik et al., 2000). A topology model of subunit a from A. aeolicus based on the prediction by the software SOSUI suggests that its N-terminal peptide is located in the periplasm.

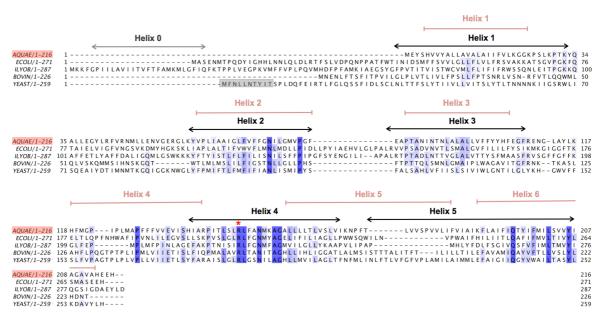


Figure 2.1. Sequence alignment of subunit a of F_1F_0 ATP synthases. Conserved residues are highlighted in blue. The functionally conserved arginine (Arg148 from A. aeolicus (AQUAE) subunit a) is marked with a red star. The 5 helices of E. coli (ECOLI) subunit a (Helix 1 – 5) are indicated by black arrows (Vik et al., 2000). The six helices of subunit a (Helix 1 - 6) from A. aeolicus predicted by TMHMM are indicated by light-red lines. The additional helix 0 of the I. tartaricus (ILYOB) subunit a is indicated by a gray arrow (Hakulinen et al., 2012). The mitochondrial targeting peptide of subunit a of yeast ATP synthase is highlighted in gray.

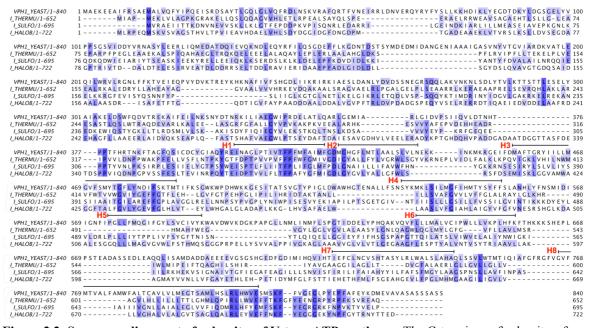


Figure 2.2. Sequence alignment of subunit a of V-type ATP synthases. The C-terminus of subunits a from V-type ATP synthases possesses an 8-helix (H1-H8) bundle (each helix is indicated by black lines). Whereas, the N-terminus is 50 kDa long and is soluble. The sequences from *T. thermophilus* (I_THERMU), *S. acidocaldarius* (I_SULFO), *H. salinarum* (I_HALOB) and yeast (VPH1_YEAST) are compared.

2.1.1.3. Subunits b_1 and b_2

A. aeolicus F_1F_0 ATP synthase subunits b_1 and b_2 are encoded by the genes atpF1 and atpF2. They are 144 and 185 amino acids long, with a calculated molecular weight of 16.71 and 21.23 kDa, respectively. Topology prediction by TMHMM suggests the presence of one transmembrane helix in subunit b₁ and of no transmembrane helices in subunit b₂. These predictions are in contrast to the results of a multiple-sequence alignment performed in this work, which suggests that in A. aeolicus both subunits b₁ and b₂ possess all 4 characteristic regions described for the subunit b from E. coli: a membrane-anchoring domain, a tether domain, a dimerization domain and an F₁-binding domain. In other words, the alignment suggests that both subunits b₁ and b₂ possess one putative transmembrane helix. However, considering that the N-terminal 17 amino acids of subunit b₂ are predicted to form a signal peptide by the software SignalP, it is possible that such region is not present in the mature form of the ATP synthase (see Figure 2.3). These observations are very similar to those reported for the ATP synthase of the photosynthetic bacterium Rhodospirillum rubrum, for which an N-terminal leader sequence (7 amino acid long) was found to be cleaved off from the mature subunit b' (Falk and Walker, 1988). Besides the presence of this putative Nterminal signal peptide in subunit b₂, the alignment results also suggest that the N-terminal segment of subunit b is as variable as that of other membrane subunits (i.e. subunits a and c, see chapter

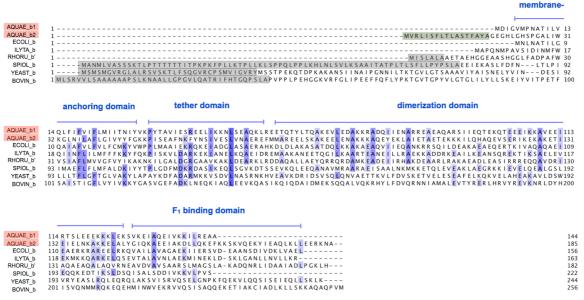


Figure 2.3. Sequence alignment of subunit b of F₁F₀ ATP synthases. Conserved residues are highlighted in blue. The characteristic four regions of subunit b described for *E. coli* are indicated by blue lines. They are: a membrane-anchoring domain, a tether domain, a dimerization domain and an F₁-binding domain. *A. aeolicus* subunit b₁ (AQUAE_b1) and b₂ (AQUAE_b2) are highlighted in red. The predicted signal peptide of subunit b₂ is highlighted in green. The mitochondrial targeting peptide for subunits b from yeast (YEAST_b) (Velours *et al.*, 1987) and bovine (BOVIN_b) (Walker *et al.*, 1987) mitochondria, the chloroplast targeting peptide for subunit b from spinach chloroplasts (SPIOL_b) (Herrmann *et al.*, 1993), and the cleave-off signal peptide for the subunit b from *R. rubrum* (RHORU_b) (Falk and Walker, 1988) are highlighted in gray.

2.1.1.2 and 2.3.3, respectively). For example a targeting peptide is required for nuclear-encoded mitochondrial (i.e. bovine and yeast) and chloroplast (i.e. spinach and wheat) subunits b to direct the cellular localization of the protein.

2.1.1.4. Subunit c

A more detailed bioinformatics analysis of subunit c is reported in chapters 2.3.2 and 2.3.3.

2.1.2. Functional characterization of native AAF₁F₀

2.1.2.1. Purification of AAF_1F_0

A. aeolicus cells were obtained from Archaeenzentrum (Regensburg, Germany) and treated as described (Peng *et al.*, 2006; Marcia, 2010). AAF_1F_0 was purified as previously reported (Peng *et al.*, 2006). Briefly, *A. aeolicus* membranes were solubilized in the detergent n-dodecyl-β-D-maltoside (DDM) and fractionated on a MonoQ column. Fractions containing AAF_1F_0 were identified by PMF-MS. From these fractions, AAF_1F_0 was further purified by a polishing SEC step in the detergent DDM. Finally AAF_1F_0 was aliquoted in buffers containing Tris-HCl pH 7.4, 150

one of the following three detergents: 0.05% DDM, 0.2% n-decyl-β-D-maltoside (DM) and 0.2% DM + 0.05% trans-4-(trans-4'propylcyclohexyl)cyclohexyl-α-Dmaltoside (α -PCC), respectively. Instead, other detergents (i.e. glucoside detergents, such as OG) are not suitable (data not shown). The sample was either used immediately or stored at 4 °C. The quality of the preparation was comparable to that of our previous report (Peng et al., 2006), as judged by size exclusion chromatography (SEC) (Figure 2.4 A), SDS-PAGE (Figure 2.4 B), and electron microscopy (EM) (see Figure 2.4 C). BN-PAGE and SEC suggested that a subcomplex formed by the hetero-dimer $\alpha_1\beta_1$ tends to dissociate from

mM NaCl, 10 mM MgCl₂, 0.05% NaN₃ and

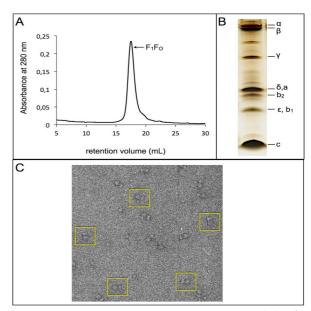


Figure 2.4. Characterization of AAF₁F₀. (A) The SEC profile of AAF₁F₀ in the detergent DM + α -PCC. (B) Silver-stained SDS-PAGE of AAF₁F₀. The subunits were characterized by PMF-MS. The c-ring dissociated into monomeric subunit c during SDS-PAGE. (C) Negative staining EM of AAF₁F₀. Five typical single molecules of AAF₁F₀ are indicated in yellow boxes.

the entire complex when AAF_1F_0 is stored in 0.05% DDM and 0.2% DM. In the buffer containing 0.2% DM, the subcomplex containing the peripheral stalk $b_1b_2\delta$ and subunit a also tends to dissociate from the entire complex. The stability of the complex is greatly enhanced by adding 0.05% α -PCC. Therefore, 0.05% α -PCC was used in our preparations (Figure 2.5).

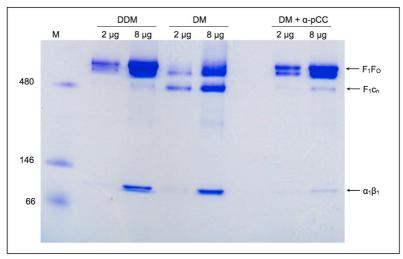


Figure 2.5. Blue-native PAGE of AAF₁F₀ in the presence of different detergents. Subcomplexes $\alpha_1\beta_1$ and F_1c_n , and the entire F_1F_0 complex were identified by PMF-MS and their position is indicated by black arrows on the right side of the gel. The gel shows that the stability of AA F_1F_0 in α -PCC is greatly enhanced. A native protein size marker (M) was used as a reference (the molecular weight of the standard proteins is indicated in kDa on the left).

2.1.2.2. AAF₁F₀ is H⁺-dependent, not Na⁺-dependent

We experimentally determined that AAF_1F_0 is a proton and not a sodium ion dependent ATP synthase, as expected from its sequence conservation pattern. To date, Na^+ -translocating ATP synthases rotor rings were found from *I. tartaricus*, *P. modestum*, *A. woodii* and *Enterococcus hirae*. The Na^+ -binding site was identified between each pair of adjacent subunit c (subunit K for *E. hirae*). The Na^+ binding signature comprises a five-group coordination shell, including four residues (Gln32, Glu65, Ser66 and Val63, numbering is from the subunit c of *I. tartaricus* ATP synthase) and one structural H_2O coordinated by Thr67. Thr67 is the only residue that distinguishes Na^+ -dependent ATP synthases from H^+ -dependent ATP synthases (Meier *et al.*, 2009). In subunit c from *A. aeolicus*, Gln32 is replaced by Met50, Val63 is replaced by Phe81, Ser66 is replaced by Thr84 and most importantly Thr67 is replaced by Ile85. Therefore, the analysis of the amino acid sequence suggests that AAF_1F_0 is a H^+ -dependent ATP synthase (Figure 2.6). We confirmed this hypothesis experimentally by MALDI-TOF MS. We determined that AAF_1F_0 subunit c is modified by N',N'-dicyclohexyl-carbodiimide (DCCD). DCCD is a common covalent inhibitor of H^+ -dependent F_1F_0 ATP synthases but not of Na^+ -dependent ATP synthases (Pisa *et al.*, 2007),

because Na^+ and DCCD compete for a common binding site, namely the active-site carboxylate of subunit c (Kluge and Dimroth, 1993). In our study we subjected AAF_1F_0 to DCCD treatment (see 4.2.5.2) in the presence of up to 150 mM NaCl, we extracted subunit c by common procedures (see 4.2.5.1) and we analyzed the sample by MALDI-TOF MS. The MS analysis indicated that within 15 min $\sim 30\%$ subunit c was modified by DCCD and that the modification reaction reached a plateau after 30 min when $\sim 80\%$ subunit c was modified (Figure 2.7 A and B). This behavior is typical for proton-dependent ATP synthases (Kluge and Dimroth, 1993).

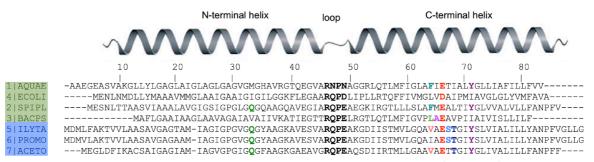


Figure 2.6. Sequence alignment of the subunit c of F₁F₀ ATP synthase. H⁺- and Na⁺-dependent ATP synthases are highlighted in green and blue, respectively. The conserved residues involved in H⁺ or Na⁺ binding are colored in bold. The cytoplasmic loop, connecting the N-terminal and C-terminal helices is shown in bold. The secondary structure is indicated by the schematics on top. The sequences from *A. aeolicus* (1), *E. coli* (4), *S. platensis* (2), *B. pseudofirmus* OF4 (3), *I. tartaricus* (5), *P. modestum* (6) and *A. woodii* (7) were used. The residue numbering corresponds to the *A. aeolicus* mature sequence (see Chapter 2.3.4).

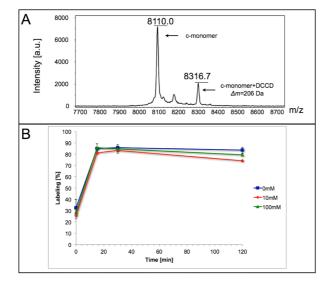


Figure 2.7. DCCD-labeling of the subunit c of AAF₁F₀. (A) MALDI-TOF MS spectra of subunit c labeled with DCCD. Two peaks centered at 8110.0 and 8316.7 Da correspond to unlabeled and DCCD-modified c monomers. Spectra recorded after 10 min incubation of AAF₁F_O with 100 μM DCCD, at pH 7.4, at room temperature. (B) Kinetics of DCCD labeling of the subunit c at different Na+ concentration. Purified AAF₁F₀ was incubated with 100 µM DCCD at room temperature, pH 7.4 at different NaCl concentrations of 0 mM (blue line), 10 mM (red line) and 100 mM (green line). DCCD labeling of the subunit c is independent of Na⁺ concentration. Each sample was measured in triplicates and data represents the mean of all measurements for each sample.

2.1.2.3. The ATP hydrolysis activity of AAF_1F_0 is comparable with the activity of other respiratory enzymes from *A. aeolicus*

The enzymatic ATP hydrolysis activity of purified AAF₁F₀ was determined via a phosphate determination assay (see Chapter 4.2.6.1). We determined that the ATP hydrolysis activity of

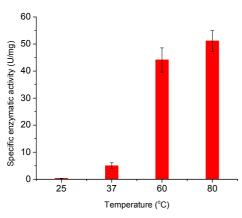


Figure 2.8. The ATP hydrolysis activity of AAF_1F_0 at different temperatures. AAF_1F_0 shows the highest ATP hydrolysis activity at 80 °C. Error bars indicate the standard deviation calculated from 3 independent measurements.

AAF₁F₀ is essentially undetectable at room temperatures, increases substantially at temperature above 60 °C and reaches its maximum at 80 °C (Figure 2.8). At 80 °C the ATP hydrolysis activity of AAF₁F₀ is 51.1 ± 3.8 U/mg. The pattern of temperature sensitivity and the values of specific enzymatic activity of the enzymes are comparable with the same parameters determined for other respiratory complexes of *A. aeolicus* (Peng *et al.*, 2003; Marcia *et al.*, 2010).

2.2. Generation of a heterologous system to produce A. aeolicus ATP synthase

2.2.1. Gene composition

A. aeolicus VF5 complete genome sequence (NC_000918) suggests that this organism possesses nine *atp* genes dispersed over six DNA fragments scattered throughout the genome (see Table 2.2 and Figure 1.14 for details).

Table 2.2: Properties of genes and corresponding subunits of the A. aeolicus F₁F₀ ATP synthase

Subunit	Gene	Gene length (bp)	Gene locus	MW (kDa)	Length (aa)	Stoichiometry
F _O -a	atpB	651	aq_179	24.01	216	1
F _O -b ₁	atpF1	435	aq _1586	16.71	144	1
F _O -b ₂	atpF2	558	aq _1587	21.23	185	1
Fo-c	atpE	303	aq _177	10.17	100	?
F_1 - α	atpA	1512	aq _679	55.57	503	3
F_1 - β	atpD	1437	aq _2038	53.32	478	3
F ₁ -γ	atpG	876	aq _2041	33.55	291	1
F ₁ -δ	atpH	546	aq _1588	20.73	181	1
F ₁ -ε	atpC	399	aq _673	14.81	132	1

2.2.2. Heterologous expression strategy for producing EAF₁F₀

The strategy used to produce A. aeolicus ATP synthase in the heterologous host E. coli consisted of the following steps (Figure 2.9). In the first step, single-gene expression was attempted for individual subunits (a, c, γ and ϵ) and dual-gene expression was attempted for specific combinations of different subunits $(b_1-b_2, a-c, a-b_1-b_2, \gamma-\epsilon)$. At this step, the *atp* genes were cloned into the open reading frame (ORF) of several different expression vectors (Surade et al., 2006). Expression tests served as checkpoints for assessing the ability of different host strains to use native operons, native codons, and gene overlaps and to produce functionally active intermediate complexes of the enzyme. In the second step, expression was attempted for subcomplexes of the ATP synthase including subunits located in different loci of A. aeolicus genome. The first subcomplex created with this strategy coded for subunits F₁-αβγ (vector pCL11), in which an Nterminal His₆-tag was fused to subunit β for detection and purification purposes. The artificial operon encoding F_1 - $\alpha\beta\gamma$ was then enlarged including subunit ϵ (F_1 - $\alpha\beta\gamma\epsilon$, vector pCL12). In parallel, a third vector was created including all subunits composing the F_O subcomplex and subunit δ (F_Oacb₁b₂δ, vector pCL02). This second step served to assess the importance of native intergenic regions, which were also cloned sequentially between the corresponding genes. In the final step, the genes for F_1 - $\alpha\beta\gamma\epsilon$ and for F_0 -acb₁b₂ δ were combined into a single expression vector (pCL21), which thus contained all nine genes encoding the entire A. aeolicus F₁F₀ ATP synthase.

In the following sections we report the results of relevant individual subunits (see chapter 2.2.3), subcomplexes (see chapter 2.2.4) and of the complete ATP synthase (see chapter 2.2.5) produced according to the strategy described.

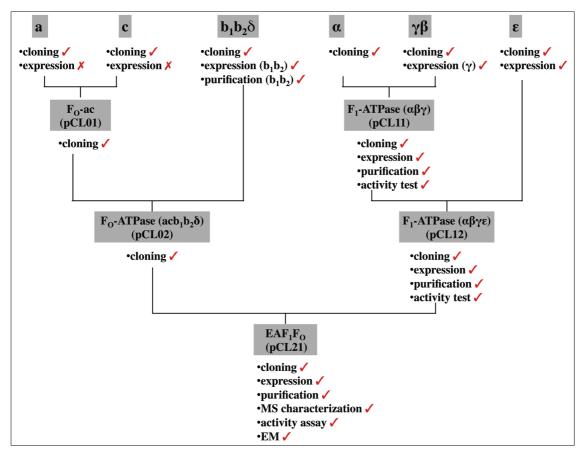


Figure 2.9. The EAF₁F_O expression strategy. Expression tests on the individual subunits (top line, successful steps highlighted by red ticks, unsuccessful steps by red crosses) showed that $E.\ coli$ can correctly process native $A.\ aeolicus$ operons, including those characterized by gene overlaps (i.e. b_1b_2), while other subunits (i.e. a and c) cannot be expressed individually. Furthermore, combinations of individual subunits in artificial operons (middle lines) led to the successful heterologous production of active and assembled subcomplexes of $A.\ aeolicus$ ATP synthase. Finally, the operons encoding such subcomplexes were combined into a single artificial operon to produce the entire $A.\ aeolicus$ ATP synthase in $E.\ coli$ (EAF₁F_O, bottom line). This complex was produced and purified in an active form and consisted of all individual subunits correctly assembled into the characteristic ATP synthase structure as observed by single-particle EM.

2.2.3. Single-gene and dual-gene expression

Single-gene expression was attempted for subunits a, c, γ and ϵ and dual-gene expression was attempted for the following combinations of subunits: b_1 - b_2 , a-c, a- b_1 - b_2 and γ - ϵ .

2.2.3.1. Strategy

Three different vector systems have been used for single-gene and dual-gene expression (Figure 2.10).

- The in-house modified pTTQ18 / pBAD / pQE expression vectors. These vectors contain only one multiple cloning sites (MCS), which is preceded by a ribosome binding site (RBS) and by the respective promoters, namely, a moderately strong hybrid *trp-lac* (*tac*) promoter for pTTQ18 vectors (Stark, 1987), a strong T5 promoter for pQE vector (Qiagen) and an *araBAD* promoter for pBAD vectors (Invitrogen). The vectors encode two sets of tags. The first set consists of a C-terminal fusion His₁₀ tag (A2 version). The second set consists of an N-terminal fusion His₁₀ tag and a C-terminal fusion strepII tag (C3 version). The additional set of vectors consist of an N-terminal MBP tag and C-terminal fusion His₁₀ tag, which was modified from A2-version vectors (MBP-fusion). These vectors were used to attempt to heterologously produce single subunits a and c, and the subcomplex consisting of subunits b₁ and b₂.
- ii) The modified bicistronic pBAD-CM1 expression vector. This vector contains two MCS, two optimal *E. coli* RBS preceding each MCS and one tightly regulated *araBAD* promoter preceding the first MCS. The vector additionally encodes a fusion His₆- and a StrepII-tags at the C-terminal of each target protein, respectively. The vector has been used to attempt to heterologously produce subcomplexes consisting of subunits a/c and subunits a/b₁/b₂.
- iii) The pETDuet-1 expression vector (Novagen). pETDuet-1 contains two MCS, each of which is preceded by a T7 promoter / *lac* operator and a RBS. It encodes a His₆ tag fused at the N-terminus of the first target protein and an S-tag fused at the C-terminus of the second target

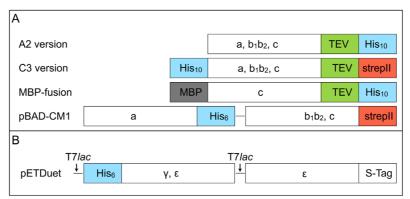


Figure 2.10. Single-gene and dual-gene expression vectors. Tags fused to the N- or C- termini of target proteins are shown in light blue (His₁₀ or His₆-tag), red (StrepII-tag), grey (MBP-tag) and white (S-tag), respectively. TEV protease recognition site is shown in green. (A) Based on the in-house modified pTTQ18 / pBAD / pQE expression vectors, expression vectors were constructed for subunits a, b_1b_2 and c. (B) Based on pETDuet-1, expression vectors were constructed for subunits γ and ε . Trlac indicates T7 promoter / lac operator.

protein. This vector has been used to produce the central stalk subunits γ and ϵ individually or in association.

2.2.3.2. Cloning

All primer sequences used for constructing the cloning and expression vectors for single subunits and dual subunits in *E. coli* are included in Table 4.12, while the individual empty vectors and the corresponding resulting vector are listed in Table 4.2 and 4.3 (see also Figure 2.10).

The genes *atpF1F2*, *atpB* and *atpE* were amplified from *A. aeolicus* genome using primers bb2-F/R, a-F/R and c-F/R, respectively. The genes were inserted into the ORFs of vectors pTTQ18-A2/C3, pQE-A2/C3, pBAD-A2/C3 at the BamHI/EcoRI site (Surade *et al.*, 2006). *atpE* was also inserted into the BamHI/EcoRI site of pET-G modified from pET-26 (+) (Novagen). In addition, *atpB* was also cut from the corresponding pBAD-A2 vector by restriction enzymes NcoI and EcoRI and inserted into the NcoI/EcoRI site of pBAD-CM1, resulting in the bicistronic vector a-pBCM. The gene *atpF1F2* amplified by the primer pairs bb2-pBCM-F/R were inserted into XbaI/SalI site of a-pBCM, resulting in vector a-bb2-pBCM for co-expressing subunit a, b₁ and b₂. The same procedure was applied to the gene *atpE* amplified by the primer pairs c-pBCM-F/R to generate vector a-c-pBCM for co-expression of subunits a and c. Finally, in vector c-pQE-A-MBP, *atpE* was fused with N-terminal MBP derived from vector pMAL (NEB).

2.2.3.3. Subcomplex b_1b_2 : an A. aeolicus native operon with overlapping genes can be recognized by E. coli

In A. aeolicus genome, the genes atpF1 (subunit b_1), atpF2 (subunit b_2) and atpH (subunit δ) form an operon that is characterized by the presence of overlaps. In particular, atpF1 and atpF2 overlap by 1 bp and atpF2 and atpH overlap by 8 bp (Figure 2.11).

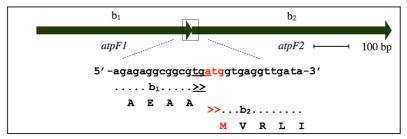


Figure 2.11. The scheme of A. aeolicus native operon atpF1F2 encoding subunits b_1 and b_2 . Two genes overlap by 1 bp (underlined red adenosine).

By producing subcomplex b_1b_2 , we attempted to test (i) whether the native operon atpF1F2 can be translated into subunits b_1 and b_2 by the heterologous host $E.\ coli$, and (ii) whether subunits b_1 and b_2 form a complex in $E.\ coli$.

Three expression vectors (pTTQ18, pQE and pBAD) with different promoters and two different sets of tags were chosen for producing b_1b_2 (see 2.2.3.1). The His₁₀-tagged subunit b_2 was detected by dot blot analysis and Western blot analysis using the monoclonal α -poly-histidine-alkaline phosphatase conjugated antibody. The heterologous production of subunit b_2 was detected from all vectors containing a C-terminal His₁₀-tag fused to subunit b_2 , but not from the vectors containing an N-terminal His₁₀-tag fused to subunit b_1 . Different promoters were associated with different production levels of the protein (Figure 2.12).

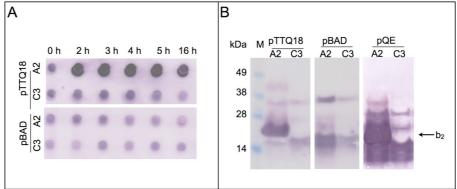


Figure 2.12. Expression tests on subcomplex b_1b_2. His₁₀ –tagged subunit b_2 was detected by dot blot analysis (A) and Western blot analysis (B) using anti-polyHistidine antibody.

The production level was further optimized by screening (i) combinations of different host strains (BL21, C43 and NM554 for pTTQ18 and pQE vectors, TOP10 for pBAD vector), (ii) different media (2× YT, TB, M9 and auto-induction TB (Novagen)), (iii) at various temperatures (18°C, 25°C, 30°C and 37°C), (iv) different IPTG concentrations (0.2 mM – 1 mM), and (v) different induction time (1 h – 16 h). His₁₀–tagged b₂ were detected by Western blot analysis in all these conditions with only slight variations in production levels. However, medium and induction time influenced significantly the amount of host cell mass that could be recovered. For example for bb2-pTTQ18-A expressed in *E. coli* C43 (DE3), the wet cell pellet increased from 0.83 g per liter (LB culture at 37°C induced by 1 mM IPTG for 2 h) to 7.7 g per liter (2× YT culture at 30°C induced by 0.02 mM IPTG for 16 h). Therefore, the highest yield was achieved using vector pTTQ18-A2 (Surade *et al.*, 2006) and using *E. coli* strain C43 (DE3) grown in 2× YT medium and induced by 0.2 mM IPTG at 30°C for 16 h.

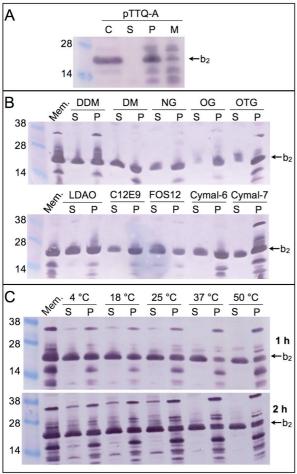


Figure 2.13. Subunit b₂ is expressed in *E. coli* membranes. After membrane preparation, subunit b₂ was detected in the membrane fraction (M) and in inclusion bodies (P), but not in the soluble fraction (S). The whole-cell lysate (C) served as positive control (Panel A). The protein b₂ was solubilized from membrane by various detergents (Panel B). The optimal yield of b₂ was obtained using DM at 50 °C for 1 h (Panel C). For panel (B) and (C), S indicates the solubilized fraction and P indicates the insolubilized fraction.

Subunits b_1 / b_2 could be identified in *E. coli* membranes by MS and Western blot and could be solubilized with various detergents, i.e. DDM, DM, NG, OG, NTG, LDAO, FOS-12, C12E9, Cymal-6 and Cymal-7. Two parameters of solubilization were further screened: temperature (4 °C, 18 °C, 25 °C, 37 °C and 50 °C) and length (1 h and 2 h). The highest yield was obtained using DM at 50 °C for 1 h. These conditions were thus used for further characterization (Figure 2.13).

Finally. b_1b_2 could be purified homogeneity as a subcomplex by IMAC and size-exclusion chromatography and the subcomplex was stable at 4°C for at least 5 days (Figure 2.14 A and B). dimensional blue native SDS polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (2D-BN/SDS-PAGE) further confirmed that subunits b₁ / b₂ form a stable complex (Figure 2.14 C). The subunits b_1 and b_2 were identified by mass spectrometry and peptide mass fingerprinting (Figure 2.15). The successful expression of subunits b₁ and b₂ as a complex showed that E. coli can use a native operon of A. aeolicus with gene

overlaps and that *A. aeolicus* ATP synthase subunits can associate into complexes in the *E. coli* membranes.

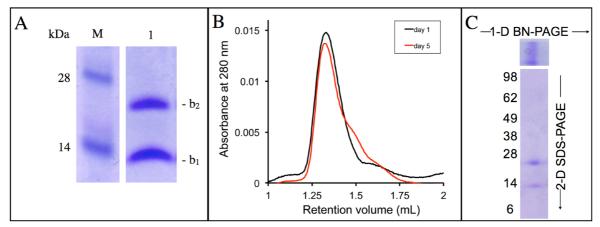


Figure 2.14. Subunits b₁ and b₂ form a subcomplex. Subunits b₁ and b₂ were purified from *E. coli* membranes and co-eluted as a single peak from a size-exclusion chromatographic column run in the presence of 0.25% (w/v) DM. Panel A shows a representative SDS-PAGE gel (M is a protein marker, the MW of the marker proteins is shown in kDa on the left of the gel). Panel B shows a representative SEC profile. The b_1b_2 subcomplex was also stable in detergent for at least 5 days at 4°C (panel B, red line). Panel C shows a representative 2D BN/SDS PAGE gel.

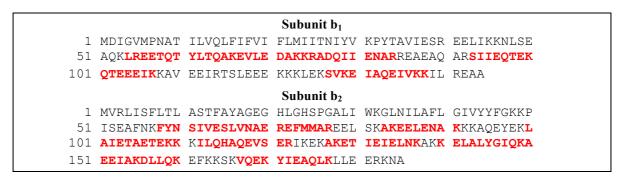


Figure 2.15. Subunits b₁ and b₂ were identified by PMF. Residues in red were identified by PMF followed by ESI-MS.

2.2.3.4. Membrane subunits a and c cannot be expressed individually in *E. coli*.

Unlike subunits b_1b_2 , membrane subunits a and c could not be obtained in isolation in *E. coli* using the same expression and optimization strategy applied to atpF1F2 as described above. More sophisticated strategies were also attempted on these subunits. For instance, atpE (subunit c) was cloned into vectors containing either stronger promoters (i.e. T7), or encoding an N-terminal maltose-binding protein (MBP). Furthermore, the bicistronic vector pBAD-CM1 (Surade, 2007) was used to produce subunit a together with subunit c, or subunit a together with subunits b_1b_2 in *E. coli*. In all resulting vectors, a His₁₀-tag or a strepII-tag was fused to subunits a and c (see 2.2.3.1 and Figure 2.10). However, none of the above strategies allowed expression of subunits a and c, confirming previous observations about the difficulty of producing the membrane components of

ATP synthases in isolation (von Meyenburg *et al.*, 1985; Arechaga *et al.*, 2003). These results made it necessary to obtain an artificial operon to express the membrane subunits in the context of the whole ATP synthase complex.

2.2.4. Expression of subcomplexes F_1 - $\alpha\beta\gamma$ and F_1 - $\alpha\beta\gamma\epsilon$ from artificial operons

To test the ability of *E. coli* to express ATP synthase complexes from artificial operons, we cloned the His_6 -tagged subcomplexes F_1 - $\alpha\beta\gamma$ and F_1 - $\alpha\beta\gamma\epsilon$. We chose these subcomplexes because (i) they are soluble and not membrane-inserted, (ii) we had raised polyclonal antibodies against their subunits, and (iii) we could perform enzymatic activity assays to test their functionality.

2.2.4.1. Subcomplex F_1 - $\alpha\beta\gamma$

Fusing atpA upstream of atpDG, an A. aeolicus native operon, we formed the first artificial operon atpAGD to express subcomplex F_1 - $\alpha\beta\gamma$. The expression of F_1 - $\alpha\beta\gamma$ (pCL11 vector) was tested in different host strains with and without the pRARE vector at different temperatures and at different

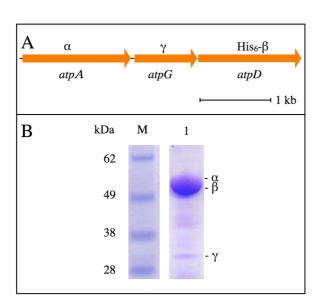


Figure 2.16. Subcomplex F₁- α β γ . The production of a complex of the subunits α , β and γ was achieved with an artificial operon obtained by fusing gene atpA upstream of the native operon atpGD and by including the respective native intergenic regions (A). The three subunits formed a complex in $E.\ coli$, which could be purified by affinity chromatography (corresponding SDS-PAGE gel shown in panel B).

time points after induction with 1 mM IPTG (see 4.2.3.6.2). Under most conditions in which the pRARE vector was used, Western blot analysis indicated the presence of subunit β in whole cell lysates and the maximal levels were obtained in strain C43 (DE3) at 37°C, induced with 1 mM IPTG for 6 h. All three subunits were isolated from the cytoplasmic fraction of E. coli cells and purified in a single IMAC step. The subunits were identified by in gel trypsin digestion followed by ESI-MS. The three subunits co-eluted in the same chromatographic fractions indicating that they form a complex in E. coli (Figure 2.16 and Figure 2.17). Furthermore, the complex also showed activity, with a rate of ATP hydrolysis of 1.35 ± 0.14 U/mg.

```
Subunit α
  1 MATLTYEEAL EILRQQIKDF EPEAKMEEVG VVYYVGDGVA RAYGLENVMA
 51 MEIVEFQGGQ QGIAFNLEED NVGIIILGSE TGIEEGHIVK RTGRILDAPV
101 GEGLVGRVID PLGNPLDGKG PIQFEYRSPV EKIAPGVVKR KPVHEPLQTG
151 IKAIDAMIPI GRGQRELIIG DRATGKTTVA IDTILAQKNS DVYCIYVAVG
201 QKRAAIARli elleregame yttvvvasas dpaslqylap fvgctigeyf
251 RDNGKHALII YDDLSKHAEA YRQLSLLMRR PPGREAYPGD VFYLHSRLLE
301 RAAKLNDDLG AGSLTALPII ETKAGDVAAY IPTNVISITD GQIYLEADLF
351 NKGIRPAINV GLSVSRVGGA AQIKAMKQVA GTLRLELAQF RELEAFVQFA
401 SELDKATQQQ INRGLRLVEL LKQEPYNPIP VEKQIVLIYA GTHGYLDDIP
451 VESVRKFEKE LYAYLDNERP DILKEISEKK KLDEELEKKI KEALDAFKQK
501 FVP
                         Subunit B
  1 MAEVIKGKVV QVIGPVVDVE FEGVKELPKI KDGLKTIRRA IDDRGNWFEE
51 VLFMEVAQHI GEHRVRAIAM GPTDGLVRGQ EVEYLGGPIK IPVGKEVLGR
101 IFNVAGQPID EQGPVEAKEY WPMFRNPPEL VEQSTKVEIL ETGIKVIDLL
151 QPIIKGGKVG LFGGAGVGKT VLMQELIHNI ARFHEGYSVV VGVGERTREG
201 NDLWLEMKES GVLPYTVMVY GQMNEPPGVR FRVAHTGLTM AEYFRDVEGQ
251 DVLIFIDNIF RFVQAGAEVS TLLGRLPSAV GYQPTLNTDV GEVQERITST
301 KKGSITAIQA VYVPADDITD PAPWSIFAHL DATTVLTRRL AELGIYPAID
351 PLESTSKYLA PEYVGEEHYE VAMEVKRILO RYKELOEIIA ILGMEELSDE
401 DKAIVNRARR IQKFLSQPFH VAEQFTGMPG KYVKLEDTIR SFKEVLTGKY
451 DHLPENAFYM VGTIEDVIEK AKQMGAKV
                         Subunit y
  1 MAKLSPRDIK RKIQGIKNTK RITNAMKVVS AAKLRKAQEL VYASRPYSEK
 51 LYELVGHLAA HVDTEDNPLF DVREERNVDV ILVTADRGLA GAFNSNVIRT
101 AENLIREKEE KGVKVSLILV GRKGFQYFTK RGYNVIKGYD EVFRKTVNFN
151 VAKEVAEIVK ERFLNGETDR VYLINNEMVT RASYKPOVRV FLPFEAOEKE
201 VEELGTYEFE VSEEEFFDYI VNLYLNYQVY RAMVESNAAE HFARMIAMDN
251 ATKNAEDLIR QWTLVFNKAR QEAITTELID ITNAVEALKA Q
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Figure 2.17. Identification of subunits α , β and γ by PMF. Residues in red were identified by ESI-PMF.

2.2.4.2. Subcomplex F_1 -αβγε

The pCL11 vector was extended by inserting the *atpC* gene (subunit ϵ) downstream of gene *atpD* (subunit β), resulting in vector pCL12. The four subunits α , β , γ and ϵ encoded by pCL12 were successfully expressed and detected by ESI-MS and by Western blot analysis against the corresponding antibodies. The four subunits co-eluted from chromatographic columns indicating that they formed a complex. The F_1 - $\alpha\beta\gamma\epsilon$ complex showed an ATP hydrolysis activity of 1.73 \pm 0.11 U/mg. BN-PAGE and MS analysis showed the presence of lower order subcomplexes (F_1 - $\alpha_2\beta_2$ and F_1 - $\alpha_1\beta_1$) in the preparation, besides the fully assembled F_1 -subcomplex (Figure 2.18 and Figure 2.19). Finally, the apparent molecular weight of the F_1 - $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma\epsilon$ complex was determined to be 375 kDa by the SEC calibration curve, in good agreement with the expected MW of 378 kDa calculated from the sequence of the proteins (Figure 2.20).

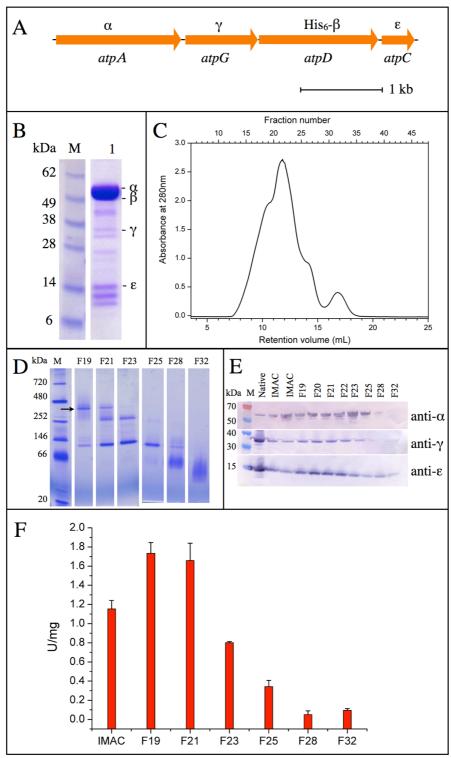


Figure 2.18. Subcomplex F₁**-αβγε.** The co-expression of the genes of subunits α , β , γ and ε was achieved by constructing expression vector pCL12. pCL12 harbors the artificial operon atpAGDC (panel A) formed by the DNAs of the corresponding atp genes and by their respective intergenic regions. All four genes were expressed. The encoded proteins were purified as a complex and identified by in-gel trypsin digestion followed by MS (representative SDS-PAGE gel in panel B, size-exclusion chromatographic profile in panel C, BN-PAGE of chromatographic fractions F19-F32 in panel D with an arrow indicating the fully assembled F₁- α ₃ β ₃ γ ε complex, Western blot analysis in panel E). The complex showed ATP hydrolysis activity (panel F).

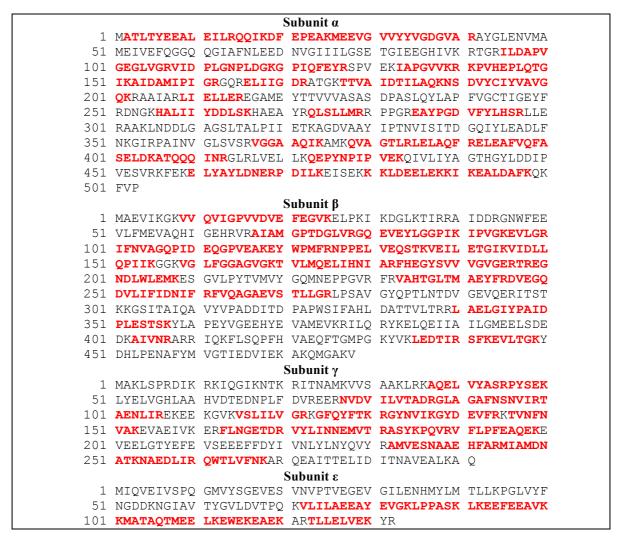


Figure 2.19. Identification of subunits α , β , γ and ε by PMF. Residues in red were identified by ESI-PMF.

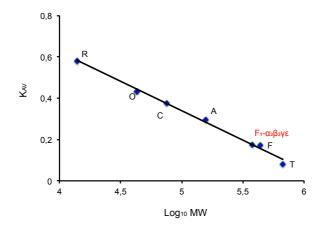


Figure 2.20. SEC calibration curves. The gel filtration column Supdex200 was calibrated in buffer D (20 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 5 mM MgCl₂, 150 mM NaCl, 2.5% (v/v) glycerol). The standards used are ribonuclease A (R, MW=13.7 kDa), ovalbumin (O, 43.0 kDa), conalbumin (C, 75.0 kDa), aldolase (A, 158 kDa), ferritin (F, 440 kDa) and thyrogloblulin (T, 669 kDa). The x-axis reports the logarithm of the protein's MW (log₁₀ MW). The y-axis reports a function (K_{AV}) of the retention volume (V). K_{AV} =(V-V₀)/(V_{tot}-V₀), V_{tot} corresponding to the total volume and V₀ to the void volume of the column. F₁- α₃β₃γε possesses an approximate MW of 375 kDa in very good agreement with the calculated MW of 378 kDa.

2.2.5. Expression of the entire EAF₁F₀ complex

2.2.5.1. Construction of the artificial operon: DNA amplification, manipulation and subcloning

Scheme of the successive steps of DNA amplification and manipulation used in this work for the construction of the artificial operon for production of EAF_1F_0 is shown in Figure 2.21. These steps are summarized below.

DNA fragment F1(+) was amplified using primers P1/P2 and inserted into cloning vector pJET1.2 (Clontech), which resulted in vector pJET01(+) containing genes atpB, aq_178 and atpE encoding subunit a, universal stress protein AQ_178 and subunit c. To remove aq_178 , vector pJET01(-) containing only atpB (subunit a) and atpE (subunit c) was also cloned by overlap extension PCR. For this purpose, gene atpB and gene atpE were first amplified from pJET01(+) using primers P1/P17 and P18/P2, respectively (P17 and P18 are reverse complements, and are composed of 17 bp from 3' end of atpB and 17 bp from 5' end of atpE, see Table 4.12). Then the two amplified DNA fragments were used as templates to form DNA fragment F1, which contains only atpB and atpE. F1 was inserted into cloning vector pJET1.2 resulting in pJET01(-) (see Figure 2.21)

DNA fragments 2, 3, 4 and 5 (F2, F3, F4 and F5, see Figure 2.21) were amplified using primer pairs P3/P4, P5/P6, P7/P8 and P9/10, respectively. All fragments were then inserted into cloning vector pJET1.2. The resulting vectors were named pJET02 (containing atpF1, atpF2 and atpH encoding subunit b_1 , b_2 and δ), pJET3 (containing atpA encoding subunit α), pJET4 (containing atpG and atpD encoding subunit γ and β), pJET5 (containing atpC encoding subunit ε).

pJET4 was successively modified to insert a His₆-tag at the N-terminus of subunit β by site-directed mutagenesis using primers P19/P20, resulting in vector pJET4 (+His₆) (see Figure 2.21).

To combine the genes of the different DNA fragments, series of subcloning steps were carried out, which generated the following intermediate vectors (Figure 2.22).

pCL11 (atpAGD), used for the production of subcomplex F₁- $\alpha\beta\gamma$, was constructed by three-way ligation. First, DNA fragment F3 (atpA, subunit α) was prepared by BamHI and XbaI double digestion from pJET3. Second, DNA fragment F4-His₆ (atpGD, subunits γ and His₆- β) was prepared by XbaI and SalI double digestion from pJET4 (+His6). Finally, F3 and F4 were ligated and inserted into the BamHI/SalI sites of vector pTrc99A.

pCL12 (atpAGDC), used for producing the subcomplex F_1 -αβγε, was obtained by inserting DNA fragment F5 (atpC, subunit ε), into the SalI/PstI site of vector pCL11. F5 was prepared by SalI and PstI double digestion from pJET5.

pCL02 (atpBEF1F2H), encoding membrane F_0 subunits a, c, b_1 , and b_2 and for soluble F_1 subunit δ , was also constructed by three-way ligation. First, DNA fragment F1 (atpBE, subunit a and c) was prepared by KpnI and BglII double digestion from pJET01(-). Second, DNA fragment F2 (atpF1F2H, subunit b_1 , b_2 and δ) was prepared by BglII and BamHI digestion from pJET02. Finally, F1 and F2 were ligated and inserted into the KpnI/BamHI restriction sites of pTrc99A.

Finally, vector pCL21 (atpBEF1F2HAGD) was used to obtain the entire A. aeolicus F_1F_0 complex. pCL21 was derived by cutting the DNA fragment encoding Fo-acb₁b₂ δ from pCL02 and inserting it into the KpnI/BamHI site of pCL12.

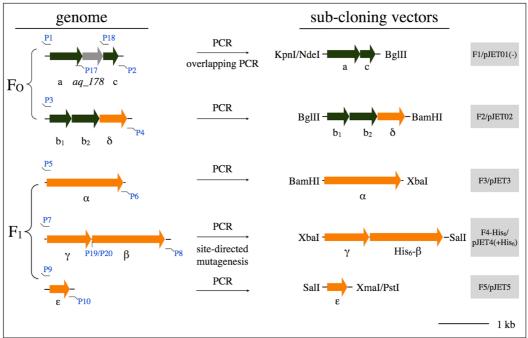


Figure 2.21. Scheme of the initial steps of construction of the artificial *atp* **operon.** These steps include the amplification of five DNA fragments (F1-F5) from the *A. aeolicus* genome (left), and the introduction of unique restriction sites (indicated by the corresponding restriction endonucleases in the middle) for ligation and sub-cloning into cloning vector pJET1.2 for DNA propagation. The vectors resulting from this process are shown on the right in gray boxes.

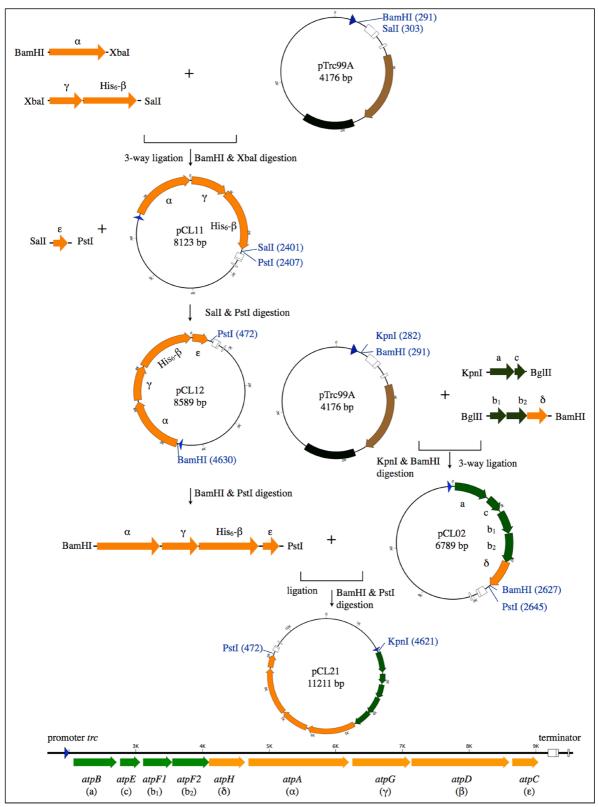


Figure 2.22. Scheme for the construction of intermediate expression vectors pCL11, pCL12, and pCL02 and of the expression vector pCL21 containing the whole *atp* operon.

2.2.5.2. The entire ATP synthase complex: the fully assembled His₆-EAF₁F₀ purified from the membranes of *E. coli*

Vector pCL21 harbors the nine *atp* genes in the order *atpBEF1F2HAGDC*, the same order of the *atp* genes in the native operon from *E. coli*, and resulting in an artificial operon of 7068 bp. The scaffold of pCL21 corresponds to vector pTrc99A, which had already been used for production of ATP synthases in the *E. coli* strain DK8 (Δ*atp*) (McMillan *et al.*, 2007; Hakulinen *et al.*, 2012; Brandt *et al.*, 2013) (Figure 2.23). It contains an inducible *trc* promoter (74 bp) located 60 bp upstream of the start codon of gene *atpB*. The His₆-tag was fused to the N-terminus of subunit β.

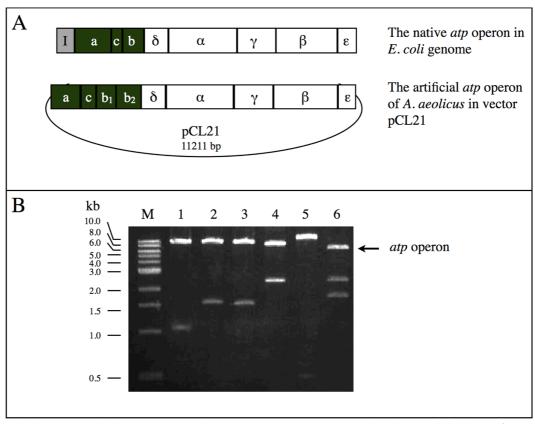


Figure 2.23. The artificial *atp* operon for heterologous production of EAF₁F₀. (A) Comparison of the organization of the native *atp* operon in *E. coli* (Walker *et al.*, 1984) and of the artificial *atp* operon designed for the *A. aeolicus* ATP synthase (vector pCL21). (B) 1% (w/v) agarose gel representing the DNA fragments composing the artificial operon obtained from pCL21 after digestion with different restriction endonucleases. M is a 1 kb DNA ladder, 1-6 indicate the DNA fragments obtained by digesting pCL21 with KpnI/BglII (*atpBE*, 1051 bp, lane 1), BglII/BamHI (*atpF1F2H*, 1576 bp, lane 2), BamHI/XbaI (*atpA*, 1558 bp, lane 3), XbaI/SalI (*atpGD*, 2401 bp, lane 4), SalI/PstI (*atpC*, 476 bp, lane 5), and NdeI/SmaI (entire *atp* operon, 7051 bp, indicated by an arrow, lane 6), respectively.

Expression of EAF₁F₀ from pCL21 was tested at various temperatures and time points after induction with 1 mM IPTG, and Western blot analysis revealed the highest levels for His₆-tagged subunit β in *E. coli* membranes when the cells were grown at 37°C for 6 h after induction (Figure 2.24). The identification of subunit β in *E. coli* membranes provided a first hint that the membrane components of the ATP synthase were also expressed and interacted to form a complex. We therefore attempted to purify the ATP synthase complex from *E. coli* membranes to assess whether it was composed of all subunits and was functional.

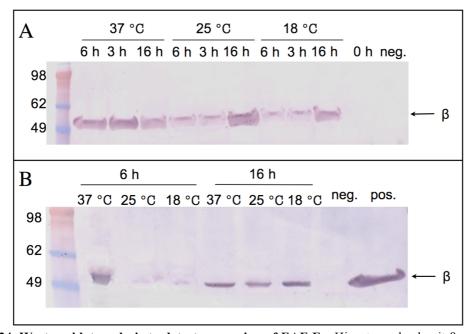


Figure 2.24. Western blot analysis to detect expression of EAF₁F₀. His₆-tagged subunit β was detected in the *E. coli* DK8 with pCL21 by Western blot analysis using anti-polyHistidine antibody in whole cell lysates (A) and membranes (B).

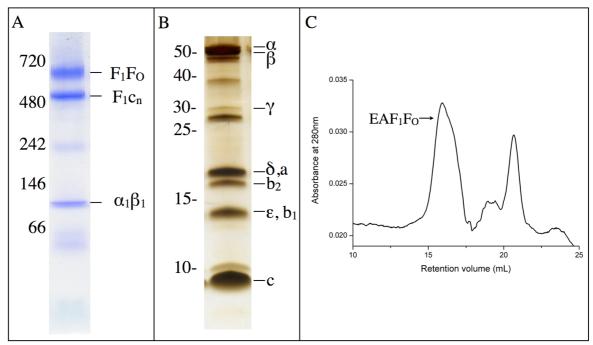


Figure 2.25. The fully assembled EAF_1F_0 purified from membranes of *E. coli*. The figure shows the characterization of EAF_1F_0 by BN-PAGE (A), silver-stained SDS-PAGE (B) and size exclusion chromotography (C).

The optimized purification protocol consisted of the following steps. *E. coli* membranes were solubilized by 3% (w/v) DDM and 3% (w/v) DM and subjected to heat treatment, which is a common procedure used to separate thermophilic proteins from the proteins of *E. coli* (e.g. (Imamura *et al.*, 2006)). After heat treatment,

the soluble components of the sample were fractionated by Ni-NTA affinity chromatography followed by SEC in the presence of a detergent mixture composed of 0.05% (w/v) DDM + 0.05% (w/v) α -PCC. All subunits co-eluted in the same fractions of the IMAC column, indicating that they form a membrane complex, which requires detergent for stability and assembly. The complex (EAF₁F₀) was observed as a single electrophoretic band on BN-PAGE gels on which it shows the same electrophoretic mobility as AAF₁F₀ (Figure 2.25), although both preparation subcomplexes in corresponding to F_1c_n (Figure 2.26) and $\alpha_1\beta_1$

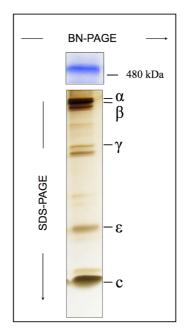


Figure 2.26. Silver-stained SDS-PAGE gel of F₁c_n subcomplex electro-eluted from BN-PAGE gel.

were also identified. In the complex all subunits of EAF_1F_0 were detected by ESI-PMF, including membrane subunits a and c (Figure 2.27 and Figure 2.28), which could not be obtained in isolation (see chapter 2.2.3.4).

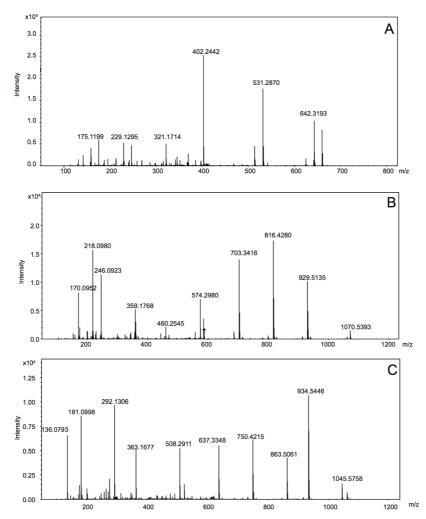


Figure 2.27. Mass-spectra of subunits a and c. Subunits a and c were digested with trypsin in the SDS-PAGE gel. MS/MS spectra of m/z = 409.2 (ion score 42), 587.8 (ion score 69) and 613.3 (ion score 72), identified as peptides GTQEGVR of subunit c (A), NMLLENVGER of subunit a (B), and YQALLEGYLR of subunit a (C), respectively.

```
Subunit a
  1 MEYSHVVYAL LAVALAIIFV LKGGKPSLKP TKYQALLEGY LRFVRNMLLE
 51 NVGERGLKYV PLIAAIGLFV FFGNILGMVP GFEAPTANIN TNLALALLVF
101 FYYHFEGFRE NGLAYLKHFM GPIPLMAPFF FVVEVISHIA RPITLSLRLF
151 ANMKAGALLL LTLVSLVIKN PFTLVVSPVV LIFVIAIKFL AIFIQTYIFM
201 ILSVVYIAGA VAHEEH
                           Subunit b<sub>1</sub>
  1 MDIGVMPNAT ILVQLFIFVI FLMIITNIYV KPYTAVIESR EELIKKNLSE
 51 AQKLREETQT YLTQAKEVLE DAKKRADQII ENARREAEAQ ARSIIEQTEK
101 QTEEEIKKAV EEIRTSLEEE KKKLEKSVKE IAQEIVKKIL REAA
                           Subunit b<sub>2</sub>
  1 MVRLISFLTL ASTFAYAGEG HLGHSPGALI WKGLNILAFL GIVYYFGKKP
 51 ISEAFNKFYN SIVESLVNAE REFMMAREEL SKAKEELENA KKKAQEYEKL
101 AIETAETEKK KILQHAQEVS ERIKEKAKET IEIELNKAKK ELALYGIQKA
151 EEIAKDLLQK EFKKSKVQEK YIEAQLKLLE ERKNA
                           Subunit c
  1 MMKRLMAILT AIMPAIAMAA EGEASVAKGL LYLGAGLAIG LAGLGAGVGM
 51 GHAVRGTQEG VARNPNAGGR LQTLMFIGLA FIETIALYGL LIAFILLFVV
                           Subunit a
  1 MATLTYEEAL EILRQQIKDF EPEAKMEEVG VVYYVGDGVA RAYGLENVMA
 51 MEIVEFQGGQ QGIAFNLEED NVGIIILGSE TGIEEGHIVK RTGRILDAPV
101 GEGLVGRVID PLGNPLDGKG PIQFEYRSPV EKIAPGVVKR KPVHEPLQTG
151 IKAIDAMIPI GRGQRELIIG DRATGKTTVA IDTILAQKNS DVYCIYVAVG
201 QKRAAIARLI ELLEREGAME YTTVVVASAS DPASLQYLAP FVGCTIGEYF
251 RDNGKHALII YDDLSKHAEA YROLSLLMRR PPGREAYPGD VFYLHSRLLE
301 RAAKLNDDLG AGSLTALPII ETKAGDVAAY IPTNVISITD GQIYLEADLF
351 NKGIRPAINV GLSVSRVGGA AQIKAMKQVA GTLRLELAQF RELEAFVQFA
401 SELDKATQQQ INRGLRLVEL LKQEPYNPIP VEKQIVLIYA GTHGYLDDIP
451 VESVRKFEKE LYAYLDNERP DILKEISEKK KLDEELEKKI KEALDAFKQK
501 FVP
                           Subunit B
  1 MAEVIKGKvv qvigpvvdve fegvkelpki kdglktirra iddrgnwfee
 51 VLFMEVAQHI GEHRVRAIAM GPTDGLVRGQ EVEYLGGPIK IPVGKEVLGR
101 IFNVAGQPID EQGPVEAKEY WPMFRNPPEL VEQSTKVEIL ETGIKVIDLL
151 QPIIKGGKVG LFGGAGVGKT VLMQELIHNI ARFHEGYSVV VGVGERTREG
201 NDLWLEMKES GVLPYTVMVY GQMNEPPGVR FRVAHTGLTM AEYFRDVEGQ
251 DVLIFIDNIF RFVOAGAEVS TLLGRLPSAV GYOPTLNTDV GEVOERITST
301 KKGSITAIQA VYVPADDITD PAPWSIFAHL DATTVLTRrl Aelgiypaid
351 PLESTSKYLA PEYVGEEHYE VAMEVKRILQ RYKELQEIIA ILGMEELSDE
401 DKAIVNRARR IQKFLSQPFH VAEQFTGMPG KYVKLEDTIR SFKEVLTGKY
451 DHLPENAFYM VGTIEDVIEK AKQMGAKV
                           Subunit \gamma
  1 MAKLSPRDIK RKIQGIKNTK RITNAMKVVS AAKLRKAQEL VYASRPYSEK
 51 LYELVGHLAA HVDTEDNPLF DVREERNVDV ILVTADRGLA GAFNSNVIRT
101 AENLIREKEE KGVKVSLILV GRKGFQYFTK RGYNVIKGYD EVFRKTVNFN
151 VAKEVAEIVK ERFLNGETDR VYLINNEMVT RASYKPQVRV FLPFEAQEKE
251 ATKNAEDLIR QWTLVFNKAR QEAITTELID ITNAVEALKA Q
                           Subunit 8
  1 MLKRKELARK AVRLIVKKVP KEKesilkvd eflgtlstay rkdkllrnff
 51 LSPQIDRNAK VKALESLAKK YDVPKEVLEV LEYLIDINAM ALIPEIKRLY
101 ELELEKLMGM LKGELILAKK PSKKLLEKIT KTINDILNRQ IEIEVKEDPS
151 LIGGFVFKTQ AFVLDTSVKT QLEKLARVGG V
                           Subunit &
  1 MIQVEIVSPQ GMVYSGEVES VNVPTVEGEV GILENHMYLM TLLKPGLVYF
 51 NGDDKNGIAV TYGVLDVTPQ KVLILAEEAY EVGKLPPASK LKEEFEEAVK
101 KMATAQTMEE LKEWEKEAEK ARTLLELVEK YR
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Figure 2.28. Identification of all subunits of EAF_1F_0 by PMF. Residues in red were identified by ESI-PMF.

2.2.6. EAF_1F_0 catalyzes ATP hydrolysis at the same rate of AAF_1F_0

A series of activity assays were performed to assess the enzymatic activity of the isolated EAF₁F₀ complex.

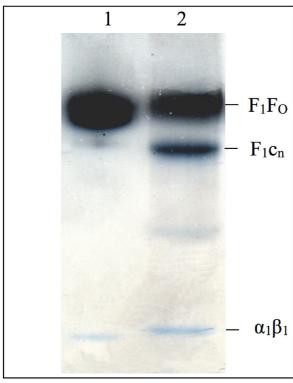


Figure 2.29. Functional characterization of EAF_1F_0 by in-gel ATP-hydrolysis activity at 80°C. With the production of phosphate, brownish lead sulfide precipitates form in the presence of Na_2S . Like AAF_1F_0 (lane 1), the fully assembled EAF_1F_0 (lane 2) also shows ATP hydrolysis activity. Some activity is also detectable for the subcomplex F_1c_n .

First, an in gel activity assay at 80°C was used to directly visualize ATP hydrolysis. With the production of phosphate, lead precipitation phosphate that turned brownish in the presence of Na₂S was directly observed in BN-PAGE gel bands of both fully assembled AAF₁F₀ and EAF₁F₀ (Figure 2.29). Additionally, the subcomplex F_1c_n purified from both native A. aeolicus and from E. coli also showed ATP hydrolysis activity, while F_{1} the This subcomplex $\alpha_1\beta_1$ was inactive. observation suggests that the minimum ATP hydrolytic unit in A. aeolicus ATP synthase is not the $\alpha_1\beta_1$ heterodimer as in the thermophilic bacterium PS3 (Harada et al., 1991) but probably a subcomplex including other subunits, as for E. coli ATP synthase (Futai et al., 1988).

Second, phosphate determination assays

were used to determine the ATP hydrolysis activity of AAF_1F_0 and EAF_1F_0 . Also this assay was performed at 80°C, which was determined to be the ideal working temperature for a number of other respiratory membrane complexes of *A. aeolicus* (Peng *et al.*, 2003; Marcia *et al.*, 2010). The results showed that ATP hydrolysis activity of EAF_1F_0 was 12.77 ± 3.96 U/mg, a value of the same order of magnitude (43%) as that of native AAF_1F_0 (29.65 \pm 3.66 U/mg, see chapter 2.1.2.4). Furthermore, the activity was reduced approximately 100 fold (0.17 \pm 1.85 U/mg residual activity) by 0.02% (w/v) sodium azide, a common inhibitor of bacterial ATP synthases. These results showed that EAF_1F_0 and EAF_1F_0 possess a comparable activity at 80 °C.

2.2.7. The structure of EAF₁F₀ is identical to that of AAF₁F₀

To obtain direct structural evidence that EAF₁F₀ was fully assembled, we used single-particle electron microscopy. After electro-elution from the BN-PAGE, characteristic "mushroom" shaped-particles of EAF₁F₀ could be observed by single particle analysis after negative staining. EAF₁F₀ is \sim 220 Å long and has two distinct parts. One part possesses a globular shape with a diameter of 110 Å and probably corresponds to the F₁ subcomplex. The other part is approximately 100 Å wide parallel to the putative membrane plane and \sim 60 Å high perpendicular to the putative membrane plane and probably corresponds to the F₀ subcomplex. Importantly, both the central and peripheral stalks are clearly visible in the EM images. Therefore, we conclude that EAF₁F₀ is fully assembled and shows a similar structural organization as AAF₁F₀ (Peng *et al.*, 2006) (Figure 2.30).

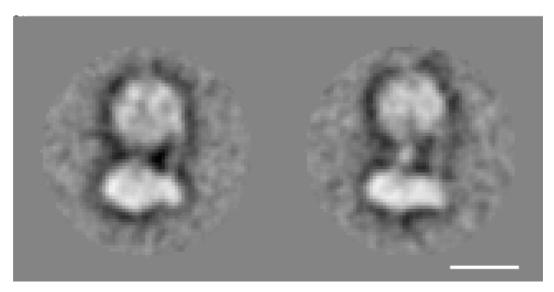


Figure 2.30. Structural characterization of EAF₁ F_0 by single-particle EM. Two class averages obtained by single particle analysis after negative staining show that EAF₁ F_0 is fully assembled. The peripheral stalk and the central stalk of the complex are clearly visible. EAF₁ F_0 shows an identical structure to the native AAF₁ F_0 (Peng *et al.*, 2006). The scale bar is 10 nm.

2.3. Use of EAF_1F_0 to study unique properties of A. aeolicus ATP synthase

2.3.1. Characterization of the N-terminus of A. aeolicus ATP synthase subunit c

Overall, rotary ATPases (including V-type ATPase and F-type ATP synthases) are evolutionarily well-conserved, but the N-terminal segments of their rotary subunits (subunit c) possess different

lengths and levels of hydrophobicity across species. By analyzing the N-terminal variability, we distinguished four phylogenetic groups of subunits c (groups 1 to 4), with *A. aeolicus* ATP synthase belonging to group 2, which also contains poorly characterized homologues from other predominantly thermophilic organisms. In order to characterize the subunit c from *Aquifex aeolicus* F_1F_0 ATP synthase, we made use of the heterologous expression system described above and we demonstrate that its N-terminal segment forms a signal peptide with SRP-recognition features, and is obligatorily required for membrane insertion.

2.3.2. Subunits c can be subdivided into four classes based on their sequences

During sequence alignments using PSI-BLAST and 218 subunit c sequences from different organisms, we detected a large variation in the lengths of these subunits. Based on the length distribution identified with PSI-BLAST and on available 3-D structures, we propose a 4-group classification scheme for subunit c (Table 2.3).

Group 1 subunits c are typically 66-92 amino acids long. They possess the most common topology among subunits c, with a short N-terminal tail preceding two transmembrane helices, connected by a cytoplasmic loop. This group includes the yeast mitochondrial encoded c subunit, prokaryotic subunits c from proton-pumping ATPases of *E. coli*, *B. pseudofirmus* OF4, and *A. platensis*, and the subunit c from sodium ion-pumping ATPase of *I. tartaricus*.

Group 2 subunits c are typically 96-118 amino acids long. This group comprises sequences of prokaryotic subunits c. The topology of these subunits c is unclear. Their length is too short to form four transmembrane helices (as in certain V-type ATPases, see below) but longer than required for the formation of two transmembrane helices. However, the multiple amino acid sequence

Table 2.3: Properties of the four groups of subunits c

Group	Length (AAs)	Average (AAs)	Size (kDa)	Characteristics	Туре
1	66-92	81	~8	two helices arranged in one hairpin	typical F-type ATPase
2	96-118	104	~8	putative cleaved-off N-terminal signal peptide and mature chain of two helices	some prokaryotic F- type and V-type ATPases
3	131-147	140	~8	cleaved-off mitochondrial targeting peptides and mature chain of two helices	mitochondrial F-type ATPase precursors
4	154-196	163	~16	four helices arranged in two hairpins, as results of gene duplication and gene fusion events	typical V-type ATPase

alignment and phylogenic tree analysis show that this group may possess an N-terminal signal peptide, which has been shown to be removed from some mature V-type subunits c (Denda *et al.*, 1989; Ihara *et al.*, 1997; Yokoyama *et al.*, 2000). Without counting the signal peptide, the length of the group 2 subunits c is similar to that of the subunits belonging to group 1, typically 66-92 amino acids. Therefore, it is likely that after removal of the N-terminal peptides, the mature subunits c possess two transmembrane helices.

Group 3 subunits c are 131-147 amino acids long. This group comprises the precursors of the mitochondrial nuclear-encoded subunits c that possess an N-terminal mitochondrial targeting peptide. Their mature chain possesses two transmembrane helices and its topology resembles that of group 1 subunits c (see above). Most likely, as a nuclear gene product, a longer precursor is synthesized on free ribosomes and imported into the mitochondrion in a post-translational process that involves removal of the targeting peptide from the N-terminal region of the precursor (Schatz and Butow, 1983; Hay *et al.*, 1984). In *Neurospora crassa*, the targeting peptide is 66 amino acids long (Viebrock *et al.*, 1982). The mitochondrial targeting peptides of three mammalian isoforms of the nuclear-encoded subunit c are 61, 68 and 67 amino acids long, respectively, and they are expressed in a tissue-specific manner, whereas the mature subunits c are identical (Gay and Walker, 1985; Yan *et al.*, 1994; Vives-Bauza *et al.*, 2010).

Group 4 subunits c are 154-196 amino acids long. This group includes large V-ATPase subunits c found in eukaryotic vacuoles and some bacteria. They are characterized by possessing two hairpins adding up to four transmembrane helices per monomer, as a result of gene duplication and gene fusion events (Mandel *et al.*, 1988; Hirata *et al.*, 1997).

Finally, in few cases even larger subunits c can be identified, i.e. the *Methanopyrus kandleri* Atype subunit c is 1021 amino acids long and possesses 13 helical hairpins (Lolkema and Boekema, 2003). The discussion of these subunits is beyond the scope of our work.

2.3.3. The N-terminal region of the subunits c is not conserved

After reducing redundancies of the sequences, a set of 53 sequences was selected for multiple-sequence alignment. The alignment shows that the C-terminal two-helix-motif of the ATPase subunits c – including the two functional helices and the functionally important Glu/Asp residues – are highly conserved across all 4 groups described above. In contrast there is no sequence similarity at the N-terminus of subunits c (Figure 2.31 and see Figure 3.3). The subunits c of the different groups can also be clustered in different branches of a phylogenetic tree (see Figure 3.4). Group 1 possesses a short N-terminal tail and group 4 possesses a second copy of the two-helical region as a result of gene duplication and fusion events. In group 3 the N-terminal segment corresponds to the mitochondrial targeting peptide. Whereas, Group 2 is exceptional because it possesses a longer N-terminal segment, as described above. Secondary structure prediction servers,

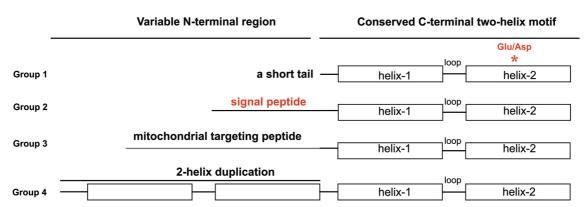


Figure 2.31. Subunits c cluster in four groups. While the C-terminal two-helix-motif of subunits c is highly conserved and harbors the functionally conserved residue (Asp or Glu, marked by a red star), the N-terminus of the subunits c is highly variable. Group 1 subunits c are characterized by a short N-terminal tail; group 2 by a putative signal peptide (highlighted in red); group 3 by a mitochondrial targeting sequence; and group 4 by a 2-TM-helix extension resulting from gene duplication and fusion events. The complete multiple-sequence alignment of subunits c is reported in Figure 3.3.

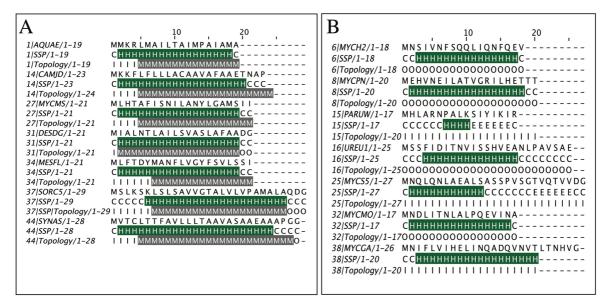


Figure 2.32. Topology prediction of the N-terminal region of group 2 subunits c. Acting as a signal peptide, the N-terminus of group 2 subunits c is either hydrophobic and thus predicted to be a putative transmembrane helix (M, highlighted in gray) (A), or non-hydrophobic and thus predicted to be a cytoplasmic (I) or an extracellular (O) extension (B). Secondary structure prediction (SSP) shows that a long N-terminal helix (H, highlighted in green) is a common feature of group 2 subunits c.

i.e. Psipred (Jones, 1999), predict the presence of a helix at the N-terminus of all group 2 sequences. However, the hydrophobicity of the N-terminal segments is different and two subgroups can be identified. In particular, for some sequences, the N-terminal segment is predicted to form a signal peptide, meaning that it can form an N-terminal transmembrane helix. In other subunits c instead, the N-terminal stretch is less hydrophobic and too short to form a transmembrane helix by itself (Figure. 2.32).

Therefore, on the basis of this bioinformatics analysis, we propose that group 2 subunits c possess a putative N-terminal signal peptide that is cleaved off from the mature subunits c after translation. Following this consideration, two questions arise. First, what is the role of the N-terminal segment of group 2 subunits c *in vivo*? Second, are there signal peptides also in prokaryotic F-type subunits c, as identified in V-type subunits c? To answer these questions, we characterized the F-type subunit c of the hyperthermophilic bacterium *A. aeolicus*.

2.3.4. The mature form of the native subunit c of A. aeolicus is 81 amino acids long

A. aeolicus F_1F_0 ATP synthase subunit c is encoded by the *atpE* gene with a predicted length of 100 amino acids ($M_r = 10.2 \text{ kDa}$). Therefore it belongs to group 2 as described above (typical length between 96-118 amino acids). Based on our multiple-sequence alignment, it possesses an N-terminal peptide of 29 amino acids preceding the conserved 2-helix C-terminal motif. If such an N-

terminal peptide was a signal peptide and was cleaved off post-translationally, as expected from our classification, the mature subunit c would be composed of 81 amino acids and possess a $M_r = 8.1$ kDa.

We determined the true size of the mature subunit c of A. aeolicus using the isolated form of native A. aeolicus F₁F₀ ATP synthase (Peng et al., 2006). After chloroform/methanol extraction (Cattell et al., 1971; von Ballmoos et al., 2002), the subunit c monomers were subjected to fulllength MALDI-TOF mass spectrometric analysis. The results show that the molecular weight of subunit c is 8.1 kDa (Figure. 2.33), which is in very good agreement with our expectations, that the N-terminal 19 amino acids are not present in the mature subunits c and that mature subunit c of A. aeolicus possesses 2 transmembrane helices.

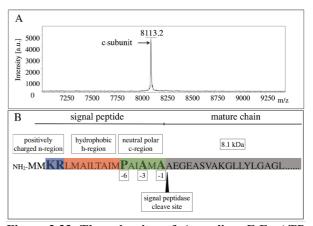


Figure 2.33. The subunit c of A. aeolicus F_1F_0 ATP synthase possesses an N-terminal signal peptide as indicated by mass spectrometry. (A) Full-length MALDI-TOF MS analysis of the native subunit c extracted from the membranes of A. aeolicus. The arrow indicates the peak at m/z = 8.1 kDa, corresponding to the size of the mature c-subunit (without the N-terminal 19 amino acids, which form a signal peptide). (B) The motifs characterizing the signal peptide of subunit c from A. aeolicus F₁F₀ ATP synthase. The signal peptide of the subunit c of A. aeolicus F₁F₀ ATP synthase is a bacterial signal peptide possessing typical SRP recognition features. These include positively charged n-region (in blue), hydrophobic h-region (in red) and neutral polar cregion (in green). Alanine (at -3 and -1 position) and proline (at -6 position), which are involved in signal peptide cleavage are marked in bold. N-terminal positively charged residues Arg and Lys, which interact with negatively charged phospholipid groups on the membrane during SRP- or Sec-mediated insertion, are also marked in bold.

2.3.5. The N-terminal signal peptide of A. aeolicus subunit c is recognized by E. coli and is crucial for membrane insertion of subunit c

Considering that homologous recombination is not feasible in A. aeolicus given the extreme environmental conditions that this organism requires to grow (Deckert et al., 1998), we investigated the biological role of the N-terminal signal peptide of the A. aeolicus subunit c using an E. coli-based heterologous system. In particular, we used E. coli DK8 (∆unc) cells and the pCL21 vector into which we inserted an artificial operon encoding the whole 9-subunit A. aeolicus ATP synthase. We designed three different constructs. The first one contains the native subunit c encoding gene atpE including its N-terminal signal peptide (total of 100 amino acids). The second and third ones are two different signal-peptide-deletion variants. One, named here pCL21- Δ SP, does not code for the signal peptide of 18 amino acids after the start codon. Its total length is 82 amino acids, corresponding to a calculated molecular size of 8112.62/8243.1 Da (-/+ methionine M1). This construct should successfully be expressed in E. coli if the role of the N-terminal signal peptide was not biologically relevant. The other construct, named here pCL21-MEN, was designed by replacing the DNA encoding the N-terminal peptide of the A. aeolicus subunit c (a group 2 member) by that of the N-terminal segment of the E. coli subunit c (a group 1 member). The former protein possesses 29 amino acids and the latter 7 amino acids preceding the 2-helix conserved C-terminal motif, respectively. Therefore, the first 7 amino acids of the E. coli subunit c (MENLNMD) were designed to replace the native N-terminal 29 amino acids of A. aeolicus. The total length of the resulting subunit c encoded by pCL21-MEN is 78 amino acids, corresponding to a calculated molecular size of 7929.42/8060.62 Da (-/+ methionine M1). This third construct should be expressed in E. coli following the insertion pathway typical of the E. coli subunit c if the N-terminus of the latter were also important for its membrane insertion (see chapter 3.5.1).

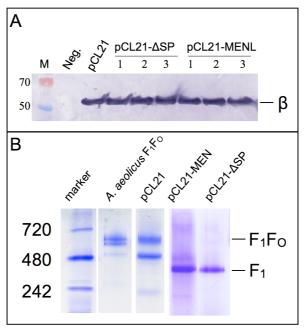


Figure 2.34. Production of the F₁ subcomplex in *E. coli.* (A) Identification of subunit β in the whole cell lysates of *E. coli* by western blot analysis using polyclonal polyHistidine antibodies. From left to right: Marker, Negative control, pCL21, pCL21- Δ SP (colonies 1 - 3), pCL21-MEN (colonies 1 - 3). (B) The assembled F₁F₀ and F₁ complexes purified from membranes of *E. coli*. The figure shows the characterization of F₁F₀ and F₁ complexes by BN-PAGE. From left to right: Marker, the purified F₁F₀ ATP synthase from *A. aeolicus*, pCL21, pCL21-MEN and pCL21- Δ SP. Arrows indicate the expected position of F₁F₀ and F₁ complexes. The results show that only the F₁ complex from the constructs pCL21-MEN and pCL21- Δ SP was successfully produced, whereas the entire EAF₁F₀ from the pCL21 construct was successfully produced.

All three constructs were transformed into *E. coli* and resulted in successful production of the F₁ part of the ATP synthase complex (Figure 2.34). However, when we analyzed the F₀ membrane-embedded part, we found strong differences in the production level of the three constructs. In particular, SDS-PAGE followed by Western blot analysis using a polyclonal antibody against the cytoplasmic loop of the subunit c revealed a clear signal for the subunit c in the pCL21 sample, but not in pCL21-ΔSP or pCL21-MEN (Figure. 2.35A). This result was confirmed by chloroform/methanol extraction followed by MALDI-TOF MS (Figure. 2.35B). In this experiment, the pCL21 sample shows a clear peak at an *m*/z value of 8112.7 Da corresponding to the size of the mature subunit c (8.1 kDa), while we could not detect any signal for the pCL21-ΔSP and pCL21-MEN constructs. Interestingly, the MS result also shows that the N-terminal 19 amino acids of subunit c were recognized and removed in *E. coli*, as a signal peptide. Furthermore, it suggests that the N-terminal signal peptide is crucial for the insertion of the *A. aeolicus* subunit c into the *E. coli* membranes and consequently that the *A. aeolicus* subunit c follows a membrane insertion pathway existing in *E. coli*, which is different from the one used by the native *E. coli* subunit c.

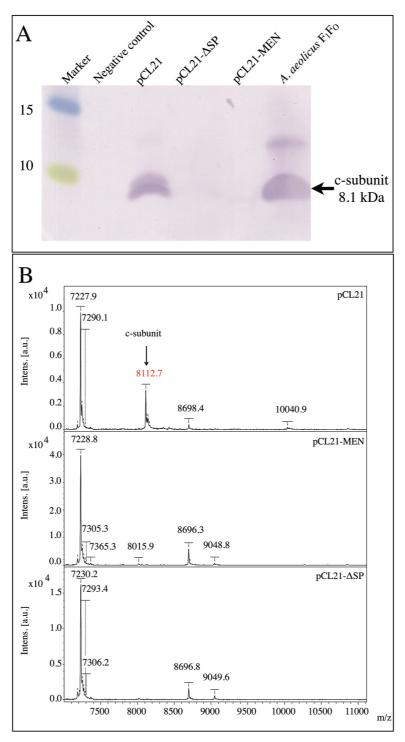


Figure 2.35. Identification of subunit c monomers in the membranes of *E. coli.* (A) Western blot analysis using polyclonal antibodies against the cytoplasmic loop of the subunit c from the *A. aeolicus* ATP synthase. Arrows indicate the expected position of the subunit c. From left to right: Marker, Negative control, pCL21, pCL21-ΔSP, pCL21-MEN, the purified F₁F_O ATP synthase from *A. aeolicus*. (B) MALDITOF MS analysis of full-length subunit c from *A. aeolicus* ATP synthase, heterologously produced in *E. coli.* From top to bottom: pCL21, without SP: 8112.62 Da, with SP: 10041.16/10172.35 Da (-/+ methionine), pCL21-MEN, 7929.42/8060.62 Da (-/+ methionine), pCL21-ΔSP, 8112.62/8243.1 Da (-/+ methionine). The results show that only the subunit c from the pCL21 construct was successfully expressed, and that it was expressed in the mature form, lacking the signal peptide.

3. Discussion

3.1. Producing proteins from thermophilic organisms in mesophilic hosts

Hyperthermophiles, i.e. A. aeolicus, live at temperatures above 80 °C (Horikoshi, 1998; Huber and Eder, 2006). At such high temperatures, proteins and nucleic acids normally denature and the membrane fluidity increases to lethal levels. The solubility of gasses is also altered affecting O₂ or CO₂ dependent metabolic pathways. Therefore, hyperthermophilic organisms have developed a number of different strategies to cope with the high temperature stress (Rothschild and Mancinelli, 2001; Jaenicke and Sterner, 2006; Gerday and Glansdorff, 2007). (i) Their membrane composition is different from that of mesophilic organisms to maintain optimal fluidity and reduced permeability (Jaenicke and Sterner, 2006; Gerday and Glansdorff, 2007). (ii) Their DNA stability is enhanced by elevated salt concentrations, polyamines, cationic proteins and supercoiling (Horikoshi, 1998). (iii) Their proteins are stabilized by increasing ion-pair content and compactness (Rothschild and Mancinelli, 2001; Jaenicke and Sterner, 2006; Gerday and Glansdorff, 2007). Some of these strategies may interfere with the production of proteins from thermophilic organisms in mesophilic hosts, i.e. the different lipid composition of the membranes. However, many reports demonstrate the successful production of proteins from thermophilic organisms in mesophilic hosts (Klinger et al., 2003; Kohlstadt et al., 2008; Obuchi et al., 2009; Stewart et al., 2012), including membrane proteins (Schutz et al., 2003; Rollauer et al., 2012) and large multimeric complexes (Matsui and Yoshida, 1995; McMillan et al., 2007). In this work, we succeeded for the first time to produce a large multimeric membrane protein complex from a hyperthermophilic organism in a mesophilic host using an artificial operon.

3.2. The strategy for the heterologous production of A. aeolicus ATP synthase in E. coli

To obtain the nine-subunit *A. aeolicus* ATP synthase complex in *E. coli*, two different strategies could theoretically be used, namely (i) production of the individual subunits followed by *in vitro* reconstitution (Futai *et al.*, 1988; Imamura *et al.*, 2006), or (ii) co-production of all the subunits in the same host. However, in practice, the first strategy is not applicable for the whole ATP synthase complex, because certain subunits (i.e. a) cannot be obtained well or at all in isolation [see Results and (von Meyenburg *et al.*, 1985; Arechaga *et al.*, 2003)]. Therefore, the second strategy was followed.

Little is known about transcription, translation and assembly of the A. aeolicus F_1F_0 ATP synthase in native A. aeolicus cells, but these processes must be rather complex in respect to other organisms because the atp genes are dispersed over four loci throughout the A. aeolicus genome (see chapter 1.3).

The *E. coli* F₁F₀ ATP synthase is better-studied and extensive characterization has been carried out to understand its expression and assembly (Futai *et al.*, 1988). The *atp* operon of *E. coli* consists of nine genes ordered *atpIBEFHAGDC* (Kanazawa and Futai, 1982; Walker *et al.*, 1984). It has a single promoter which initiates transcription 73 bp upstream of the start codon of gene I (*atpI*) (Kanazawa *et al.*, 1981; von Meyenburg *et al.*, 1982; Jones *et al.*, 1983; Porter *et al.*, 1983; Nielsen *et al.*, 1984). The *atp* operon is transcribed to produce a single, large polycistronic mRNA containing all nine cistrons, which are then translated at different rates to match the F₁F₀ ATP synthase stoichiometry (McCarthy *et al.*, 1985; McCarthy, 1988).

Furthermore, recombinant *E. coli* F_1F_0 ATP synthase was overproduced homologously in the *E. coli* DK8 (Δatp) strain (Klionsky *et al.*, 1984) with a recombinant plasmid containing the entire *atp* operon (Noji *et al.*, 1999; Ishmukhametov *et al.*, 2005). The *E. coli* strain DK8 (Δatp) was also used as a host strain for producing heterologously recombinant F_1 - $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma$ of *Bacillus* PS3 (Matsui and Yoshida, 1995), the entire F_1F_0 complexes of *I. tartaricus* (Hakulinen *et al.*, 2012), *C. thermarum* TA2.A1 (McMillan *et al.*, 2007) and *A. woodii* (Brandt *et al.*, 2013).

Because *E. coli* is well studied, and because it was used successfully for so many other ATP synthases, we chose it as a host organism also for our study. Given that *A. aeolicus* does not possess one *atp* operon, we preferred to design an artificial operon as similar as possible to the *E. coli* native one, rather than co-expressing the genes from several expression vectors, each possessing compatible origins of replication and independent antibiotic selection for maintenance (Tolia and Joshua-Tor, 2006). A number of limitations had to be taken into account for obtaining successful production and correct assembly of the whole complex, namely (i) composition of *atp* genes (see chapter 3.3.1), (ii) choice of intergenic regions and regulatory elements (see chapter 3.3.2), (iii) handling of gene overlaps (see chapter 3.3.3), and (iv) optimization of codon usage (see chapter 3.3.4). These limitations and the corresponding strategies used to overcome them will be discussed hereafter.

3.3. Properties of the artificial atp operon

3.3.1. Composition of the atp operon genes

When the artificial operon strategy was chosen, constructing an operon implied considering the following points related to the composition of the *atp* genes in *A. aeolicus*. First, genes for different isoforms of various subunits are present in the *A. aeolicus* genome (Deckert *et al.*, 1998), but only

some of them are to form the mature ATP synthase in native cells (Peng et al., 2006; Guiral et al., 2009). Therefore, such isoforms were not used in our work, i.e. gene atpG2 encoding an isoform of subunit y. In contrast, subunits present in different isoforms were all included in our artificial operon. This is specifically the case for subunits b₁ and b₂ that are encoded by a native operon together with atpH and form a hetero- and not a homo-dimeric peripheral stalk (Peng et al., 2006; Guiral et al., 2009). Moreover, A. aeolicus does not possess a homologue of the atpI gene, which is found in many other ATP synthase operons, including all those used for expression to date (Walker et al., 1984; Santana et al., 1994; Yokoyama et al., 2000; Meier et al., 2003; Keis et al., 2004; Brandt et al., 2013). Although not present in the assembled holoenzyme, the product of the gene atpI is involved in c-ring assembly (Suzuki et al., 2007; Ozaki et al., 2008; Brandt et al., 2013) and it was proposed to be species-specific, since atpI from E. coli could not substitute atpI from A. woodii (Brandt et al., 2013). However, compared to the other atp genes, sequence conservation of the atpI gene is low. For example for C. pasteurianum and E. coli, the sequence identity of the product of gene atpI is 19%, while for all other subunits it is 22-72% (Das and Ljungdahl, 2003). It is possible that atpI is so divergent in A. aeolicus that it was not identified to date, or that it is not conserved across species because it is not essential for all organisms (Das and Ljungdahl, 2003; Liu et al., 2013), and thus not present at all in A. aeolicus. We therefore attempted to produce A. aeolicus ATP synthase without the atpI gene in our artificial operon. Our successful expression results suggest that either atpI is not present in A. aeolicus, or it is not as species-specific as the one from A. woodii (Brandt et al., 2013), so that the correct assembly of our EAF₁F₀ could be facilitated by E. coli atpI gene, which is present in the DK8 strain that we used.

3.3.2. Regulation of expression: translation initiation regions (TIR)

ATP synthase is a heteromultimeric complex in which the correct reciprocal stoichiometry of all subunits needs to be carefully regulated. It is known that differential expression of the *E. coli atp* genes is controlled at two levels, post-transcriptionally via different types of translation initiation regions (TIR), and at the mRNA level due to the different mRNA stabilities (Schramm *et al.*, 1996). The post-transcriptional level of control via TIR is the predominant one and the one for which we had better control in the design of the artificial operon. The TIR of a gene includes the translation start codon, the Shine-Dalgarno (SD) region and the N-terminal region of the structural gene (McCarthy, 1988). For our *A. aeolicus atp* artificial operon, we designed TIRs on the basis of the following considerations.

First, given that the N-terminal regions of each gene are part of TIRs, we preferred to use complete TIRs from the *A. aeolicus* genes, instead of using mixed TIRs composed of segments from the host organism *E. coli* and segments contributed by *A. aeolicus* genes. This strategy simplified also the handling of gene overlaps (*vide infra*).

Second, we delimited A. aeolicus TIRs to include 30 bp upstream of the start codon of six genes, atpB, atpE, atpF1, atpA, atpG and atpC (see Table 3.1 and Table 3.2). For atpF2 and atpH, we did not modify their TIRs because these genes are encoded in a native operon together with atpF1. Finally, for atpD (subunit β), encoded in a native operon with atpG, 27 bp were introduced after its start codon to form an His $_6$ purification tag. We chose to include 30 bp upstream of each gene because it had been previously observed that certain atp genes possess important translational regulators in this region, i.e. a translational enhancer of atpE (subunit c) in E. coli (McCarthy et al., 1985). In addition, these 30-bp regions also include all other regulatory elements, such as the Shine-Dalgarno (SD) sequences and the start codons (see Table 3.2 and Table 3.3).

Third, we limited as much as possible all modifications of TIRs affecting the intercistronic distance between neighboring genes, because it is known that coupled translation of neighbouring genes also regulates translation initation in *E. coli* (Gerstel and McCarthy, 1989). For instance, in the *E. coli atp* operon, three genes are more tightly coupled (*atpFH* and *atpHA*) because they are separated by short intercistronic sequences (Hellmuth *et al.*, 1991). Increasing the distance between them decreases the degree of coupling, even if the original *atpA* TIR structure is maintained (Gerstel and McCarthy, 1989). Therefore, the intercistronic distance of genes belonging to operons in the *A. aeolicus* genome were not modified in our artificial *atp* operon. However, restriction sites had to be introduced for the other genes, *atpB*, *atpF1*, *atpA*, *atpG* and *atpC*, for cloning purposes. Our results show that the introduction of such restriction sites did not preclude the expression of EAF₁F₀.

Detailed considerations on the choice of different regulating elements are reported seperately in the following paragraphs, which discuss features of the integenic regions (see chapter 3.2.2.1), the Shine-Dalgarno (SD) regions (see chapter 3.2.2.2), and the translation start codons (see chapter 3.2.2.3).

Table 3.2: Length of TIRs selected for the A. aeolicus atp genes

Gene	Length (bp)	Upstream (bp)	Downstream (bp)	5'restriction site	3'restriction site
atpB	651	-30	+20	KpnI&NdeI	-
atpE	303	-30	+6	-	BglII
atpF1/F2/H	435/558/546	-30	+10	BglII	BamHI
atpA	1512	-30	+10	BamHI	XbaI
atpG/D	876/1437	-30	+6	XbaI	SalI
atpC	399	-30	+31	SalI	SmaI&PstI

Table 3.2: Sequences of TIRs selected for A. aeolicus atp operon

Subunit	DNA sequence	Stoichiometry
a	TCTGAGCCAATTGCAAAAGAGGTAAGGGAAATGGAGTACTCGCACGTAGT	1
c	CTTATAGTTAAATAAGCTTT <mark>AAGGAGG</mark> TAG <mark>GTG</mark> ATGAAGAGGTTAATGGC	?
b_1	ATTGCTATAATTGTTTAGCGGAGGAGAAGAATGGACATAGGAGTAATGCC	1
b_2	TGTAAAGAAAATTTTGAG <mark>AGAGG</mark> CGGCG <u>TGA</u> TGGTGAGGTTGATAAGTTT	1
δ	CTCAGTTAAAGCTCCT <mark>GGAGGAGAGG</mark> AAGA <mark>ATG</mark> CT <u>TAA</u> GAGGAAAGAACT	1
α	AAACCTTTAAAGAAGGTT <mark>AGGAGG</mark> TAGAGT <mark>ATG</mark> GCTACACTGACTTATGA	3
γ	TTTAGACATTAGTTTATAATAAGTAGCGTTATGGCGAAACTTTCTCCCAG	1
β	CTCTTAAAGCACAA <u>TAA</u> AGGAGGTTTATAG <mark>ATG</mark> GCGGAAGTGATTAAGGG	3
3	TTGGACTTTCTCTGGTATAATTT <mark>AGGG</mark> ATT <mark>ATG</mark> ATACAGGTTGAAATAGT	1

N.B.: start codons are in red, stop codons are underlined and the putative RBSs are highlighted by gray boxes.

3.3.2.1. Intergenic regions

To construct the artificial *atp* operon for EAF₁F₀ we included intergenic regions taken from *A. aeolicus* genome. We selected these regions manually (see Table 3.1 and Table 3.2), following a similar pattern as in the *E. coli* native *atp* operon (expression vector pKH7 (Noji *et al.*, 1999)). In the latter operon, the TIR of the first gene, *atpB*, is located +84 bp downstream of the promoter and the intergenic region between each pair of neighbouring genes are: *atpB-atpE* (46 bp), *atpE-atpF1* (58 bp), *atpF2-atpH* (14bp), *atpH-atpA* (12bp), *atpA-atpG* (50 bp), *atpG-atpD* (26bp), and *atpD-atpC* (12bp). +6 bp downstream of the stop codon of *atpC* there is a transcription terminator (46 bp). Correspondingly, in our artificial *atp* operon, the translation initiation site of *atpB* is located +60 bp downstream of the *trc* promoter and the intergenic regions between pairs of neighbour genes are *atpB-atpE* (50 bp), *atpE-atpF1* (42 bp), *atpF1-atpF2* (overlapping 1 bp), *atpF2-atpH* (overlapping 8 bp), *atpH-atpA* (46 bp), *atpA-atpG* (46 bp), *atpG-atpD* (13 bp), and *atpD-atpC* (42 bp). +94 bp downstream of the stop codon of *atpC*, there are three other terminators, rrnB, rrnB-T1 and rrnB-T2 belonging to vector pTrc99A.

3.3.2.2. Ribosome binding sites (RBS)

SD sequences are important elements in TIRs. Therefore, the ribosome binding sites (RBS) and the spacing regions between them and the start codons of the respective genes were designed considering their high level of conservation for all subunits (except for genes atpG and atpC, see Table 3.2). They are: AGAGG for atpB (5 bp from -13 bp to -9 bp), AAGGAGG for atpE (7 bp from -10 bp to -4 bp), GGAGG for atpF1 (5 bp from -11 bp to -7 bp), AGAGG for atpF2 (5 bp from -12 bp to -8 bp), two constitutive RBS for atpH (GGAGG, 5 bp from -14 bp to -10 bp and AGAGG, 5 bp from -9 bp to -5 bp), AGGAGG for atpA (6 bp from -12 bp to -7 bp), AGGAGG for atpD (6 bp from -13 bp to -8 bp). The rare putative RBS of atpG and atpC are AAG (3 bp from -10 bp to -8 bp), and AGGG (4 bp from -7 bp to -4 bp), respectively.

3.3.2.3. Start and stop codons

ATG is the most frequently used start codon. In *A. aeolicus*, eight of nine genes begin with the typical ATG start codon. Only *atpE*, represents an exception, beginning with GTG (see Table 3.3).

However, atp genes in E. coli, B. megaterium, B. subtilis, I. tartaricus also use GTG as a start codon (Walker et al., 1984; Brusilow et al., 1989; Santana et al., 1994; Meier et al., 2003). Therefore, the native start codon of atpE was not changed in our artificial operon. No rare start codon TTG was observed in A. aeolicus atp genes. TTG was instead proposed to play a role in regulating the respective stoichiometry of subunits c and a in C. thermarum TA2.A1 (Keis et al., 2004), it is a shared feature of the

Table 3.3: Start codon and stop codon of the *A. aeolicus atp* genes

Gene	Start codon	Stop codon
atpB	ATG	TGA
atpE	GTG	TAA
$atpF_{I}$	ATG	TGA
$atpF_2$	ATG	TAA
atpH	ATG	TAA
atpA	ATG	TAA
atpG	ATG	TAA
atpD	ATG	TAA
atpC	ATG	TAA

atpB genes from B. subtilis (Brusilow et al., 1989), B. megaterium (Santana et al., 1994) and C. thermarum TA2.A1 (Keis et al., 2004), and it is also present in subunit b of I. tartaricus ATP synthase (Meier et al., 2003) and subunits α and β in C. thermoaceticum TA2.A1 (Das and Ljungdahl, 1997).

In *A. aeolicus*, all genes possess TAA as a stop codon, except for genes encoding subunits a and b₁, which use TGA as a stop codon. All native stop codons were maintained in our artificial operon. Table 3.3 reports a summary of the start and stop codons used for the artificial operon.

3.3.3. Gene overlaps

Another feature that distinguishes A. aeolicus ATP synthase is the presence of overlaps in genes atpF1, atpF2 and atpH. In E. coli, there are no overlaps in genes of atp operon. However, overlaps are found in other operons, i.e. in trp (Platt and Yanofsky, 1975; Oppenheim and Yanofsky, 1980), his (Barnes and Tuley, 1983), gal (McKenney et al., 1981), frd (Cole et al., 1982), and tox (Yamamoto et al., 1982). Therefore, E. coli must be able to use gene overlaps. Furthermore, other atp operons with gene overlaps had already been successfully produced in E. coli, i.e. C. thermarum TA2 (McMillan et al., 2007), suggesting that foreign atp genes with overlaps can be used by E. coli. Our results confirm these observations, showing that gene overlaps between atpF1 and atpF2, atpF2 and atpH can be recognized by E. coli to coordinate gene expression of subunit b_1 , b_2 and δ .

3.3.4. Codon usage optimization

The mean difference of codon usage between *E. coli* and *A. aeolicus* is 30.91%. To obtain the best expression in *E. coli*, codon usage bias has been taken into account.

The codon usage bias can be overcome by two common approaches. First, synthetic genes optimized for host codon usage may be employed. Subunit c of spinach chloroplast ATP synthase was successfully expressed and purified in *E. coli* using a synthetic gene with codon optimization (Lawrence *et al.*, 2011). However, in general, this approach is more expensive especially for operons of large size. Second, the copy number of the tRNAs specific for rare codons in the host may be increased, i.e. co-expressing such tRNAs with the target gene using the commercial pRARE vector (Novagen).

Therefore, for expressing the 7 kb long artificial *atp* operon of EAF₁F₀, we selected this second approach. Notably, the replication origin pBR322 of vector pTrc99A, used to create vectors pCL11 and pCL21 is compatible with the p15A origin of the pRARE vector. The benefit of using pRARE was clearly demonstrated by the increase in expression levels of the F₁- $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma$ subcomplex in *E. coli* C43(DE3) cell and of subunit c in *E. coli* DK8 cells (Figure 3.1).

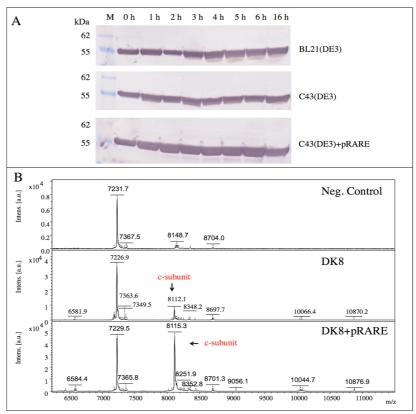


Figure 3.1. Effect of codon usage on heterologous expression of *atp* genes in *E. coli* shown by Western blot analysis and mass spectrometry. Co-expression of the pRare vector with the target genes can increase the levels of subunit β , as detected by Western blot analysis against poly-histidine antibody (A), and of subunit c, as detected by MALDI-TOF after chloroform-methanol extraction.

3.3.5. Position of purification tag

The design of intermediate constructs pCL11 and pCL12 (F_1 - $\alpha\beta\gamma$ and F_1 - $\alpha\beta\gamma\epsilon$) allowed us to define a favourable position for inserting a purification and detection tag, which was also used successively for the characterization of the full ATP synthase complex. We decided to fuse a His₆-tag to the N-terminus of subunit β on the basis of two observations. First, this peptide is exposed to solvent in all known 3-D structures of the F_1 complex (Abrahams *et al.*, 1994), so that a tag in that position should not interfere with structural assembly or with substrate binding. A tag in this position had also been successfully used for purification and single molecule rotation experiments on other ATP synthases (Noji *et al.*, 1997; Noji *et al.*, 1999; Ishmukhametov *et al.*, 2005; Matthies *et al.*, 2011). Second the *atpD* gene encoding subunit β is located at the 3' end of artificial operon *atpAGD*, so that detection of subunit β using Western blots provides an easy estimation of whether the genes of all other subunits are expressed. The same holds for the expression of the entire F_1F_0 ATP synthase complex from the artificial operon, in which gene *atpD* is also located at the 3' end.

3.4. The structure and function of heterologously produced A. aeolicus F_1F_0 ATP synthase

Using the expression strategy described above (see chapters 2.2.2 and 3.2), we were able to produce A. aeolicus ATP synthase heterologously in E. coli with a yield of approximately 0.06 - 0.15 mg of pure EAF₁F₀ per liter of cell culture (or 0.03 mg EAF₁F₀ per gram of E. coli wet cell pellet). This yield is comparable to that obtained for F₁F₀ ATP synthase of E. coli (Hakulinen, 2012), and slightly lower than that obtained for homologously recombinant V_1V_0 ATP synthase from E. E0.15 mg E1. E1. E2. E3. While expression is still low for crystallographic studies, it did allow us to undertake studies and to analyse the structural and functional properties of E1. E3. E4. E4. E5. E5. E6. E6. E7. E8. E8. E9. E

On the one hand, our enzymatic studies proved that the ATP hydrolysis activity of the pure EAF₁F₀ is comparable to that of the pure AAF₁F₀. The temperature dependence of EAF₁F₀ follows a similar trend as that of AAF₁F₀ and of other respiratory membrane complexes of *A. aeolicus* (Peng *et al.*, 2003; Marcia *et al.*, 2010) increasing substantially at temperatures above 60 °C and reaching its maximum at 80 °C. This result indicates that the F₁F₀ ATP synthase, produced from mesophilic organism *E. coli*, could cope with the high temperature stress. The protein complex might be stabilized by different strategies: (i) the presence of additional inter-subunit interactions (Russell *et al.*, 1997); (ii) the secondary structural elements stabilized by shorter surface loop connections, by optimized electrostatic and hydrophobic interactions, by disulfide bridges, by a pronounced hydrophobicity in the protein core and by a higher helical propensity of residues in α -helices

(Rothschild and Mancinelli, 2001; Jaenicke and Sterner, 2006; Gerday and Glansdorff, 2007). Morever, in general, the rate of ATP hydrolysis of EAF₁F₀ and AAF₁F₀ is in the same range as that of the F₁F₀ ATP synthase from *E. coli* (Ishmukhametov *et al.*, 2005). EAF₁F₀ is actually slightly less active than AAF₁F₀ (43 %), but such a trend is not unusual when comparing the activity of heterologously produced vs native enzymes. For instance, the F₁F₀ ATP synthase of *I. tartaricus* is ~3 fold less active when produced heterologously in *E. coli* (Hakulinen, 2012) in respect to the same enzyme isolated from native cells (Neumann *et al.*, 1998). Therefore, our expression system opens the way to previously impossible functional studies on *A. aeolicus* ATP synthase, i.e. by site-directed mutagenesis, cell viability studies, *in vivo* complementation experiments and *in vitro* enzymatic assays.

On the other hand, our single-particle EM reconstruction shows that EAF₁F₀ has an identical structure to AAF₁F₀. AAF₁F₀ is 230 Å long, its globular F₁ subcomplex possesses a diameter of 110 Å, and the c-ring in the F₀ subcomplex is ~ 90 Å wide and ~ 70 Å high (Peng *et al.*, 2006). These dimensions match well with those measured for EAF₁F₀ (see Figure 2.30). More importantly, the AAF₁F₀ single-particle reconstruction shows much stronger density for its peripheral stalk subunits b₁b₂ (Peng *et al.*, 2006) than F₁F₀ ATP synthases from other bacteria, e.g. *E. coli* (Bottcher *et al.*, 2000) and *C. thermarum* strain TA2. A1 (Matthies *et al.*, 2011). In this work, we observe the same strong signal for subunits b₁b₂ in EAF₁F₀, suggesting that in respect to other ATP synthases the peripheral stalk is more rigid and it remains intact during purification in *A. aeolicus* ATP synthase, independent if the enzyme is produced from native source or heterologously.

3.5. Novel properties of A. aeolicus ATP synthase discovered using EAF_1F_0

The heterologous expression system implemented with this work enabled us to define new properties of ATP synthase, which would not have been possible to discover without the heterologous expression of EAF₁F₀. Such properties specifically pertain to subunits b_1b_2 , γ and c, which present unique features in *A. aeolicus* ATP synthase.

Subunits b_1 and b_2 had previously been co-identified in the pure AAF₁F₀ (Peng *et al.*, 2006), but their mode of association in the enzyme complex was unclear. Our heterologous expression study now clarifies that subunits b_1 and b_2 can associate to form a complex *in vitro* and thus corroborates the previous hypothesis that *A. aeolicus* ATP synthase possesses a heterodimeric peripheral stalk and is therefore unique among ATP synthases of non-photosynthetic organisms (Peng *et al.*, 2006). Moreover, single-particle EM shows that EAF₁F₀ possesses a bent central stalk, comprised of subunits ε and γ , as it had already been observed also in AAF₁F₀ (Peng *et al.*, 2006). The bent

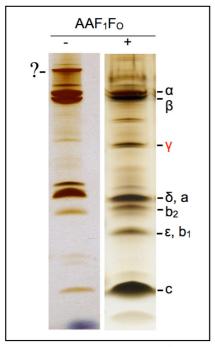


Figure 3.2. Silver-stained SDS-PAGE of AAF_1F_0 with (+) or without (-) heat treatment. The heat treatment is required for clear resolution of subunit γ band (red label) by SDS-PAGE. The arrow corresponds to an uncharacterized protein band with molecular weight higher than that of subunits α and β , and present only in the unheated sample. Possbily, such band corresponds to an SDS resistant assembly of ATP synthase subunits (including subunit γ), which fully dissociate only upon heat treatment.

conformation of the stalk, especially the bent subunit y may be indicative of a specific functional property of A. aeolicus ATP synthase, because in other organisms, i.e. the thermoalkaliphic bacterium C. thermarum TA2.A1, such a feature was associated to a blockage in ATP hydrolysis activity (Stocker et al., 2007). It was observed that in the bent conformation subunit γ is stabilized by two salt bridges with subunit β_{Empty} (with no bound-nucleotide) (γR10 and βD372, γR20 and \(\beta D375 \), and thus prevents rotation during ATP hydrolysis (Stocker et al., 2007). Interestingly, ATP hydrolysis activity of A. aeolicus F₁F_O ATP synthase is only observed temperatures above 60 °C, while purification and EM were performed at lowto-room temperature. Additionally subcomplexes of A. aeolicus ATP synthase are SDS-resistant and can only be fully dissociated by heat treatment. Specifically,

such heat treatment is necessary for visualizing subunit γ (Figure 3.2). Therefore, it may be that we have trapped ATP synthase in a blocked state with our purification and that higher temperatures are necessary to trigger the mobilization of subunit γ from a tight association with subunits α/β and to switch the ATP synthase from a resting state (typical of low-to-room temperatures) to the active state (formed at higher temperatures).

Additioanlly, such heat treatment is also necessary for visualizing subunit ε in SDS-PAGE. Interestingly, also subunit ε was described as an inhibitor of ATP hydrolysis activity in many bacteria i.e *E. coli*, *Bacillus* PS3 and *C. thermarum* TA2.A1 (Tsunoda *et al.*, 2001; Suzuki *et al.*, 2003; Keis *et al.*, 2006).

Finally, we discovered that subunit c unexpectedly contains an N-terminal signal peptide, which is strictly necessary for its correct membrane insertion. Since *A. aeolicus* subunit c could not be obtained in isolation (see chapter 2.2.3.4), the study of its N-terminal properties would not have been possible without the heterologous expression of EAF₁F₀. Considering that such a study on subunit c gave us broader phylogenetic insights into subunits c and led us to propose a new

assembly pathway for the whole ATP synthase complex, a more detailed discussion of these topics is reported separately in the following paragraphs.

3.5.1. A new phylogenetic classification of F_1F_0 ATP synthase based on the N-terminal sequence of their subunit c

Two major determinants influence the membrane insertion mechanism of membrane proteins. The first determinant consists of the interaction with the translocation machinery. To this respect, it is known that most membrane proteins are targeted to the Sec translocase (SecYEG) either by the signal recognition particle (SRP) and its receptor FstY (Ulbrandt et al., 1997; Herskovits et al., 2000; de Gier and Luirink, 2001) or by the translocase subunit SecB (Valent et al., 1998; Koch et al., 1999). Other membrane proteins follow a Sec-independent mechanism, mediated by YidC (Samuelson et al., 2000; van Bloois et al., 2004; van der Laan et al., 2004; Yi et al., 2004). The second determinant consists of the distribution of the charges along the protein, because this distribution determines the topology of the protein, i.e. in accordance to the positive-inside rule (von Heijne and Gavel, 1988). To date, the membrane insertion pathway used by the ATP synthase subunits c was characterized in E. coli and yeast mitochondria. In E. coli, the subunit c does not possess a signal peptide and is a substrate of the YidC pathway (van der Laan et al., 2004). In mitochondria, the subunit c is inserted into the membranes by Oxa 1, a YidC-homolog (Jia et al., 2007). Furthermore, it is known that at least two of three positively charged residues (K34, R41, R50) in the cytoplasmic loop of E. coli subunits c are required for YidC-mediated membrane targeting (Kol et al., 2008), although they do not need to occupy conserved positions in the loop region (Kol et al., 2008). However, it is not known whether these residues are the only requirement for regulating membrane insertion and topology of subunits c, or whether other regions of the protein are also important (Dalbey et al., 1995). For instance, the role of the N-terminal region of subunits c is unclear, despite this region being known to control the topology of proteins with two transmembrane segments (Nilsson and von Heijne, 1990; Gafvelin et al., 1997), like most subunits c, in particular via charged amino acids.

By performing an alignment of a large set of subunits c from different organisms, we noticed that their C-terminal two-helix-motif is well conserved, and so are the three positively charged residues involved in YidC recognition (see Figure 3.3). However, we noticed that subunits c are characterized by a remarkable heterogeneity at their N-terminus (see Figure 3.3). Based on this heterogeneity we have defined 4 groups of subunits c (see Figure 3.4). While the N-terminus of group 4 has relatively complex features, being composed of two hydrophobic N-terminal helices derived from gene duplication of the C-terminal two-helix-motif, the N-terminus of group 1 and 3 and that of group 2 subunits c are simpler and possess opposite characteristics.

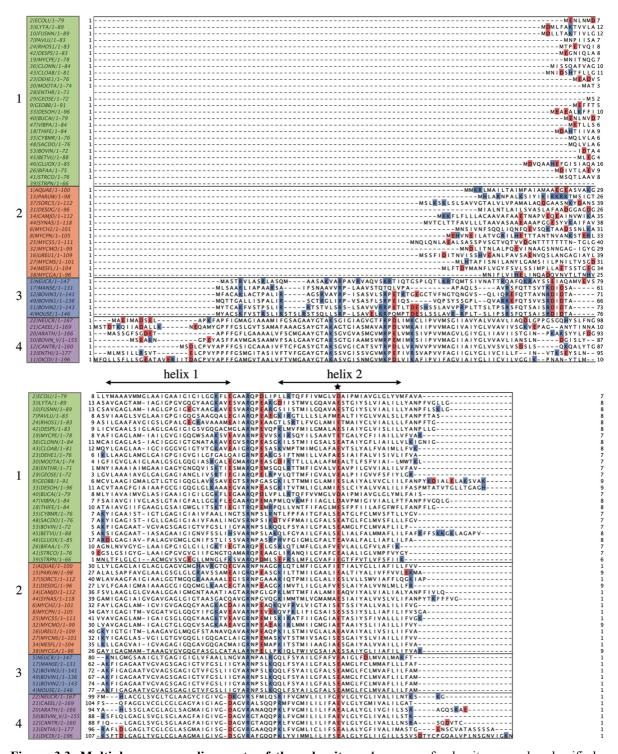


Figure 3.3. Multiple-sequence alignments of the subunits c. 4 groups of subunits c can be classified according to the variability of their N-terminal regions, while their C-terminal regions are highly conserved and possess 2 functional transmembrane helices (black arrows) connected by a positively charged cytoplasmic loop. The star marks the functional Asp/Glu residue in helix-2. Group 1 subunits c are highlighted in green, group 2 in red, group 3 in blue, and group 4 in purple. Positively charged residues (Arg, His and Lys) are shown in blue and negatively charged residues (Glu and Asp) are shown in red, respectively. A detailed list of the subunits c used is reported in Appendix Table A1.

Members of group 1 and of group 3 (in their mature form, after removal of the mitochondrial targeting sequence specific to this group) possess short, predominantly negatively charged N-terminal tails. In contrast, members of group 2 are unique in that they possess a long, and – in most cases – positively charged N-terminal tail (see Figure 3.3).

To investigate the biological role of the N-terminus of subunits c we have (i) studied the long, positively charged N-terminus of a group 2 target (*A. aeolicus*) both in native cells as well as in a heterologous expression system (*E. coli*), and (ii) exchanged the long, positive N-terminus of the same group 2 target by a group 1 short, negatively charged N-terminus. We found that the N-

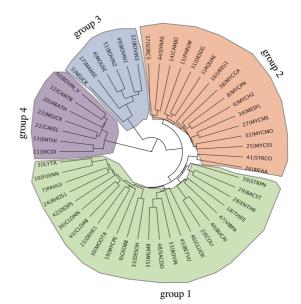


Figure 3.4. Phylogenetic clusters of subunit c. The groups of subunits c identified based on the N-terminal variability cluster in different branches of the phylogenetic tree. Group 1 are highlighted in green, group 2 in red, group 3 in blue, and group 4 in purple. The tree was derived from the multiple-sequence alignment reported in Figure 2.35 with the software Geneious.

terminus of group 2 subunits c is necessary for their correct membrane insertion both in homologous as well as in recombinant expression systems. Additionally, we found that such an N-terminus acts as a signal peptide not only in V-type subunits c (Denda *et al.*, 1989; Ihara *et al.*, 1997; Yokoyama *et al.*, 2000), but also in F-type subunits c, which was not known to date. Finally, we found that the long N-terminus of the group 2 subunits c cannot be replaced by the short N-terminus of group 1 subunits c, because such a replacement completely abolishes membrane insertion. Therefore, we suggest that the biological role of the N-terminus of group 1 subunits c is different from that of the N-terminus of group 2 subunits c. In particular, based on our results, we propose the following role for the N-terminus of each group (see Figure 3.5).

In group 1, the N-terminus does not play any role in membrane insertion. As proposed earlier, the prokaryotic subunits c of this group insert into the membrane through the YidC pathway, which is independent of the N-terminal peptide of membrane proteins, and they do not require the help of the SRP. Similarly, group 1 yeast subunits c – which are encoded in the mitochondrion – are inserted into the membrane by Oxa1, and do not require SRP either, which correlates well with the fact that there are no SRP homologs, nor homologs of its receptor or of any other Sec-components in yeast mitochondria (Glick and Von Heijne, 1996). Possibly, the same considerations might be also valid for group 4, however, the complication of the N-terminus of these subunits and the lack of experimental evidence prevents formulating clear hypotheses.

In group 3, which includes nuclear-encoded subunit c precursors, the N-terminus functions as a targeting sequence to guide the subunits c to their target organelle, the Mitochondrial mitochondrion. targeting occurs in two independent steps. First, protein precursors are imported into the mitochondrion by the Tim17-23 machinery (Bauer et al., 2000). Successively, their Ntargeting terminal peptides are proteolytically removed by the mitochondrial processing peptidase (MPP) and the mature protein is inserted into the inner mitochondrial membrane by the YidC homolog Oxa 1 (Stuart and Neupert, 1996;

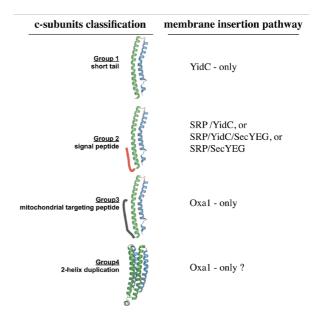


Figure 3.5. Membrane insertion pathways proposed for the 4 different groups of subunit c.

Stuart, 2002). The latter step is coupled to the translocation of the mature, short N-terminal tail across the membrane, which occurs in a similar manner as in *E. coli* (Rojo *et al.*, 1995). Therefore, also for group 3 subunits c the mature N-terminal tail does not play a direct role in membrane insertion.

Finally and uniquely among subunits c, the N-terminus of group 2 subunits c does play a role in membrane insertion, acting as an essential N-terminal signal peptide. In our target organism, A. aeolicus, this signal peptide possesses the following characteristics typical of SRP-recognition and SRP-mediated membrane insertion (von Heijne, 1985). First, it possesses a positively charged n-region, a hydrophobic central h-region and a neutral, polar c-region. The n-region includes two positively charged amino acids, lysine K3 and arginine R4 (see Figure 2.34B). Second, it follows the "-3, -1 rule", possessing an alanine residue at both -3 and -1 positions relative to the signal peptidase cleavage site, which is important for recognition and processing by signal peptidase I (Perlman and Halvorson, 1983; von Heijne, 1983; von Heijne, 1986). Third, a proline occupies position -6 relative to the cleavage site. This proline also facilitates the formation of the cleavage site, by breaking the α -helical structure of the peptide inducing the formation of a β -turn (Barkocygallagher et al., 1994). Deleting this signal peptide or substituting it with the N-terminus of subunits c from other groups completely abolishes membrane insertion.

We thus suggest that group 2 subunits c follow a membrane insertion pathway different from the other subunits c and possibly consisting of two steps. First, group 2 subunits c are likely to be recognized by SRP. Successively, they may be inserted into the membranes by either one of three pathways: 1) by YidC only. In this case, YidC recognition would be mediated by the three

positively charged cytoplasmic loop residues, and membrane insertion would follow a mixed SRP/YidC pathway, whose existence was suggested earlier for an artificial integral membrane protein (IMP) construct (Froderberg *et al.*, 2003); 2) by YidC and SecYEG. In this case, membrane insertion would probably follow a mixed SPR/Sec/YidC pathway that was interestingly also proposed for the ATP synthase subunits a and b (Yi *et al.*, 2004); 3) by SecYEG only. In this case, SecYEG recognition would likely be mediated by a classical SRP/SecYEG interaction.

3.5.2. A revised assembly pathway of F_1F_0 ATP synthase

The considerations discussed above about the N-terminal features of subunit c and the results of our expression trials with the two subunit-c deletion mutants have implications on the biogenesis and assembly of the F_1F_0 ATP synthase complex. Such processes have been studied in *E. coli* and yeast and showed a similar stepwise and coordinated assembly mechanism (see chapter 1.2.5). Assembly starts with the formation of the subcomplex F_1 , and it is then followed by a sequential assembly of the membrane F_0 subcomplex, and finally, by the coupling of the subcomplexes F_0 to F_1 (see Figure 1.13 and (Price and Driessen, 2010; Dalbey *et al.*, 2011)). However, in our expression system, we noticed a different behaviour for the *A. aeolicus* ATP synthase.

In our studies on the two subunit-c-deletion mutants, the assembled F_1 complex localized at the E. coli membranes despite the fact that these mutants failed to express subunit c (see chapter 2.3.5 and Figure 2.35). Subunit a was not detected in these mutants either, which is expected given that the membrane insertion of subunit a requires the presence of both subunits b and c (Hermolin and Fillingame, 1995) and that uncomplexed subunit a is readily degraded by FtsH (Akiyama $et\ al.$, 1996). Instead, subunits b_1 and b_2 were correctly expressed (Figure 3.6). Therefore, our results suggest that the intact F_0 subcomplex is not required for the heterologously produced F_1 subcomplex to associate with $E.\ coli$ membranes. Rather, it seems that the presence of subunits b_1 and b_2 (see Figure 3.6) is sufficient to mediate the recruitment of F_1 to the membranes. Such recruitment could be mediated by the hydrophilic part of subunit b, which in $E.\ coli$ was indeed

of subcomplex F_1 with F_0 (Price and Driessen, 2010). Therefore, our results suggest that the assembly of subcomplex F_1 to subunits of F_0 might happen earlier than previouly proposed (Price and Driessen, 2010; Dalbey *et al.*, 2011) and may follow the mechanism proposed in Figure 3.7.

suggested to be essential for the association

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MVRLISFLTL ASTFAYAGEG HLGHSPGALI
WKGLNILAFL GIVYYFGKKP ISEAFNKFYN
SIVESLVNAE REFMMAREEL SKAKEELENA
KKKAQEYEKL AIETAETEKK KILQHAQEVS
ERIKEKAKET IEIELNKAKK ELALYGIQKA
EEIAKDLLQK EFKKSKVQEK YIEAQLKLLE
ERKNA
```

Figure 3.6. Subunit b₂ was identified by PMF in the subunit c-deletion mutant pCL21-MEN. Residues in red were identified by PMF followed by ESI-MS.

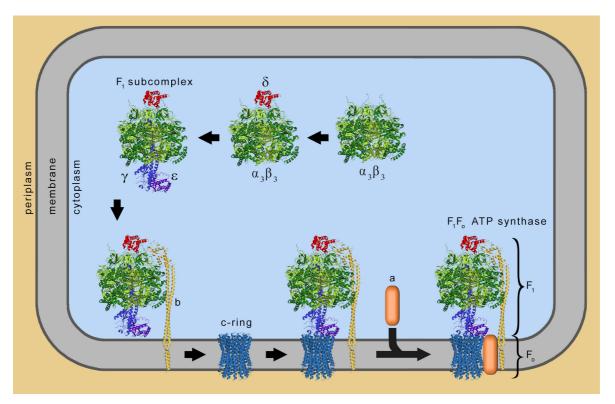


Figure 3.7. Proposed mechanism for the assembly of subcomplex F_1 to subunit b in the *E. coli* membranes. The assembly of F_1 occurs in the cytoplasm where the subunits α , β , γ , δ , and ε form a globular structure (top). The assembly of subunit b into *E. coli* membrane is c-ring independent (down). Assembly of the subcomplex F_1 to the *E. coli* via subunit b does not require the presence of the c-ring. Without the c-ring, subunit a cannot assemble into the subcomplex. The figures is modified from Figure 1.13 to reflect the different assembly pathway proposed for *A. aeolicus* ATP synthase. The figure was generated by Paolo Lastrico (MPI of Biophysics, Frankfurt, Germany).

3.6. Conclusions and future perspectives

In conclusion, this work has achieved (i) a deeper characterization of native A. $aeolicus F_1F_0$ ATP synthase by bioinformatic, biochemical and enzymatic analyses, (ii) the creation of a heterologous expression system to produce the enzyme in an active and fully assembled state in the heterologous host E. coli using an artificial operon, (iii) the discovery of new features of ATP synthase using such heterologous expression system, and (iv) the development of new hypotheses to describe the different membrane insertion and assembly mechanisms of ATP synthase.

Functional and enzymatic characterization demonstrated that A. aeolicus ATP synthase is H⁺-dependent, and not Na⁺-dependent. Its ATP hydrolysis mechanism needs to be triggered and activated by high temperatures, possibly inducing a conformational switch in subunit γ . Finally, unusual features were identified for membrane subunits a, b and c with important implications for the membrane insertion and assembly mechanism of ATP synthase.

Most importantly, the attempts to construct an heterologous expression system to produce the entire A. $aeolicus F_1F_0$ ATP synthase in the mesophilic host E. coli were successful. The enzymatic

assays and single-particle electron microscropy showed that the heterologously-produced ATP synthase is fully active and possesses the same structure as the one extracted from native A. aeolicus cells. Therefore, the project opens up new and exciting directions for future research on A. aeolicus ATP synthase. Such system has already enabled us to propose a new phylogenetic insight into subunit c and certainly many more experiments are now feasible. Genetic manipulation allows now for relatively straightforward functional studies, both in vivo and in vitro. For instance, by cross-linking and/or site-directed mutagenesis, one could study the binding mode of subunits b₁ and b_2 in the unusual heterodimeric peripheral stalk, the interface of subunit γ and subunits α/β in the F₁ subcomplex, or the interface of subunit a and c, which regulate ion translocation in the Fo subcomplex and which is one of the least understood regions of ATP synthases. Moreover, as we demonstrated for subunit c, also the role of the putative signal peptide of subunit b₂ should be investigated, i.e. by deletion and replacements of such a peptide. In parallel, more experimental evidence should be gathered to support our current hypothesis that the assembly pathway of A. aeolicus F₁F₀ ATP synthase may be unique and to determine whether the phylogenetic group 2 ATP synthases identified in this work possess other unique functional properties, besides the signal peptide in subunit c. Additionally, site-directed mutagenesis, crosslinking, tags and/or specific antibodies should be used to study the interaction between the peripheral stalk and subunit δ , which was previously suggested to present unusual features (Peng et al., 2006). Furthermore, many of the subcomplexes produced in this work are ready to be subjected to crystallization trials. For instance, the structure of subcomplex b_1b_2 would be very valuable because it would represent the first structure of a heterodimeric peripheral stalk of bacterial F₁F₀ ATP synthase and it could thus be compared to the available structure of the peripheral stalk of bovine F₁F₀ ATP synthase (Dickson et al., 2006; Rees et al., 2009) and V₁V₀ ATP synthase from T. thermophilus (Stewart et al., 2012). Additionally, such a structure could potentially also provide interesting insights into the mode of interaction of b_1b_2 with other elements of ATP synthase, i.e. subunit δ in the F_1 subcomplex or subunit c in the Fo subcomplex. Besides subcomplex b₁b₂, the subcomplex F₁ is ready for structural investigation. Obtaining its structure would be very valuable to understand the mechanism of temperature activation of A. aeolicus F₁F₀ ATP synthase and specifically the relevance of the bent conformation of subunit γ . For all structural studies, the heterologous expression system that was developed in this work would be very helpful not only for producing the targets, but also for introducing artificial amino acid modifications, i.e. mutations at surface residues, which are often required for improving the formation of crystal contacts and thus the resolution of diffraction as well as selenomethionine expression for facilitating the determination of the crystallographic phases (i.e. by multiple-wavelength anomalous dispertion, MAD).

Finally, to a broader extent, the heterologous expression system described in this work will also serve in the future as a solid reference for designing strategies aimed at producing large multisubunit complexes with complicated stoichiometry, i.e. other respiratory complexes, the nuclear pore complex, transporter systems and many other macromolecular machines that are all very active research targets nowadays.

4. Material and Methods

4.1. Material

4.1.1. Chemicals

All chemicals and enzymes were obtained in highest purity from Carl Roth GmbH (Karlsruhe Germany), Sigma-Aldrich (Taufkirchen Germany), New England Biolabs (Ipswich, USA), Thermo Scientific (Bonn, Germany), and Invitrogen (Carlsbad, USA) unless stated otherwise. Primers were obtained from Eurofins MWG operon (Ebersberg, Germany) and Sigma-Aldrich (Taufkirchen, Germany). DNA Sequencing was performed by Eurofins MWG Operon (Ebersberg, Germany) and Seqlab (Göttingen, Germany).

4.1.2. Organisms

4.1.2.1. Aquifex aeolicus

A. aeolicus VF5 cells were obtained from the Archaeenzentrum (Regensburg, Germany) and stored at -20 °C before use.

4.1.2.2. Escherichia coli strains

All E. coli strains used in this work are listed in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: List of *E. coli* strains.

Strains	Genotype	Reference/company
DK8	bglR thi rel1 HfrPO1 1100A(uncB-uncC)ilv::Tn10(Tet ^R)	(Klionsky et al., 1984)
DH5α	F- endA1 glnV44 thi-1 recA1 relA1 gyrA96 deoR nupG Φ80dlacZΔM15 Δ(lacZYA-argF)U169, hsdR17(rK- mK+), λ–	(Hanahan, 1985)
BL21 (DE3)	$F-$ ompT gal dcm lon hsdSB(rB- mB-) λ (DE3 [lacI lacUV5-T7 gene 1 ind1 sam7 nin5])	(Studier and Moffatt, 1986)
C43 (DE3)	F- ompT gal dcm hsdSB(rB- mB-)(DE3)	(Miroux and Walker, 1996)
NM554	recA13 araD139 Δ(ara-leu)7696 Δ(lac)l7A galU galK hsdR rpsL (Strr) mcrA mcrB	(Ludtke et al., 1999)
TOP10	F- $mcrA \Delta(mrr-hsdRMS-mcrBC) \phi 80 lacZ\Delta M15 \Delta lacX74 nupG recA1 araD139 \Delta(ara-leu)7697 galE15 galK16 rpsL(StrR) endA1 \lambda-$	Invitrogen
GM2163	ara-14 leuB6 fhuA31 lacY1 tsx78 glnV44 galK2 galT22 mcrA dcm-6 hisG4 rfbD1 R(zgb210::Tn10)TetS endA1 rpsL136 dam13::Tn9 xylA-5 mtl-1 thi-1 mcrB1 hsdR2	(Woodcock et al., 1989)

4.1.3. Plasmids

All empty vectors used in this work are listed in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: List of empty vectors.

Vectors	Features	Purpose	Reference
pTTQ18A2 ^a	Tac promoter ^e , pMB1, Amp ^R , C-terminal His ₁₀ -tag	Single gene expression	(Surade et al., 2006)
pTTQ18C3 ^a	Tac promoter ^e , pMB1, Amp ^R , N-terminal His ₁₀ -tag	Single gene expression	(Surade et al., 2006)
pQEA2 ^b	T5lac2 ^f promoter, pColE1, Amp ^R , C-terminal His ₁₀ -tag	Single gene expression	(Surade et al., 2006)
pQEC3 ^b	T5lac2 ^f promoter, pColE1, Amp ^R , N-terminal His ₁₀ -tag	Single gene expression	(Surade et al., 2006)
pETA2°	T7lac ^g promoter, pBR322, Kan ^R , C-terminal His ₁₀ -tag	Single gene expression	(Surade et al., 2006)
pETC3°	T7lac ^g promoter, pBR322, Kan ^R , N-terminal His ₁₀ -tag	Single gene expression	(Surade et al., 2006)
pBADA2 ^d	<i>ara</i> BAD promoter, pBR322, Amp ^R , C-terminal His ₁₀ -tag	Single gene expression	(Surade et al., 2006)
pBADC3 ^d	<i>ara</i> BAD promoter, pBR322, Amp ^R , N-terminal His ₁₀ -tag	Single gene expression	(Surade et al., 2006)
pBAD-CM1 ^d	araBAD promoter, pBR322, Amp ^R , C-terminal His ₆ -tag and C-terminal strepII-tag	Dual gene expression	(Surade et al., 2006)
pET22b(+)	T7 <i>lac</i> ^g promoter, pBR322, Amp ^R , C-terminal His ₆ -tag	Single gene expression	Novagen
pETDeut	T7 <i>lac</i> ^g promoter, pBR322, Amp ^R , N-terminal His ₆ -tag or C-terminal S-tag	Dual gene expression	Novagen
pTrc99A	pTrc ^e promoter, pBR322, Amp ^R	Operon expression	Amashem
pJET1.2	T7 promoter, pMB1, Amp ^R	Cloning	Clontech
pIVEX2.3d	T7 promoter, Amp ^R	In vitro expression	Roche
pRARE	Cm ^R , p15A	Codon usage optimization	Novagen

- a. Derived from pTTQ18, regulated and repressed by the lac repressor protein (lacI^q), induced by IPTG. Any *E. coli* host strain can be used because *lacI^q* allele is included in the plasmid. Basal expression.
- b. Derived from pQE80L (Qiagen). Regulated and repressed by the lac repressor protein, induced by IPTG. Any *E. coli* host strain can be used because lacI^q is included in the plasmid.
- c. Derived from pET26(+) (Novagen). Host for expression need to contain DE3 chromosomal copy of the gene for T7 RNA polymerase lysogens of bacteriophage (LacUV5 promoter).
- d. Derived from pBAD/His (invitrogen).
- e. Hybrid trp-lac promoter (tac) including tryptophan promoter and lac operator sequences.
- f. Hybrid promoter including Phage T5 promoter (recognized by *E. coli* polymerase) and two lac operator sequences.
- g. Hybrid T7-lac promoter including phage T7 promoter and lac operator sequences.

All vectors used in this work for single and dual gene expression are listed in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3: List of vectors generated for the single or dual gene expression of subunits a, b₁b₂ and c.

Name	Parental vectors	Cloned genes	Subunits
a-pTTQ-A	pTTQ18A2	atpB	a
a-pTTQ-C	pTTQ18C3	atpB	a
a-pQE-A	pQEA2	atpB	a
a-pQE-C	pQEC3	atpB	a
a-pBAD-A	pBADA2	atpB	a
a-pBAD-C	pBADC3	atpB	a
bb2-pTTQ-A	pTTQ18A2	atpF1F2	b_1b_2
bb2-pTTQ-C	pTTQ18C3	atpF1F2	b_1b_2
bb2-pQE-A	pQEA2	atpF1F2	b_1b_2
bb2-pQE-C	pQEC3	atpF1F2	b_1b_2
bb2-pBAD-A	pBADA2	atpF1F2	b_1b_2
bb2-pBAD-C	pBADC3	atpF1F2	b_1b_2
c-pTTQ-A	pTTQ18A2	atpE	С
c-pTTQ-C	pTTQ18C3	atpE	c
c-pQE-A	pQEA2	atpE	С
c-pQE-C	pQEC3	atpE	С
c-pBAD-A	pBADA2	atpE	С
c-pBAD-C	pBADC3	atpE	С
c-pET-G	pET-G	atpE	С
c-pQE-A-MBP	pQEA2	atpE	c+MBP
a-bb2-pBCM	pBAD-CM1	atpB-atpE	a, b ₁ b ₂
a-c-pBCM	pBAD-CM1	atpB-atpF1F2	a, c

All plasmids used for single artificial atp operon expression are listed in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4: List of vectors generated for the expression of the artificial atp operon.

Name	Parent vector	Cloned genes	Resistance ^a , origin
pJET01(+)	pJET1.2	atpB, aq_178, atpE	Ap ^R , pMB1
pJET01(-)	pJET1.2	atpBE	Ap ^R , pMB1
pJET02	pJET1.2	atpF1F2H	Ap ^R , pMB1
pJET3	pJET1.2	atpA	Ap ^R , pMB1
pJET4	pJET1.2	atpGD	Ap ^R , pMB1
pJET4(+His ₆)	pJET1.2	atpGD	Ap ^R , pMB1
pJET5	pJET1.2	atpC	Ap ^R , pMB1
pCL01	pTrc99A	atpBE	Ap ^R , pBR322
pCL02	pTrc99A	atpBEF1F2H	Ap ^R , pBR322
pCL11	pTrc99A	atpAGD	Ap ^R , pBR322
pCL12	pTrc99A	atpAGDC	Ap ^R , pBR322
pCL21	pTrc99A	atpBEF1F2HAGDC	Ap ^R , pBR322
pCL21(+strepII)	pTrc99A	atpBEF1F2HAGDC	Ap ^R , pBR322
pCL21-ΔSP	pTrc99A	atpBEF1F2HAGDC(Δc2-19)	Ap ^R , pBR322
pCL21-MEN	pTrc99A	atpBEF1F2HAGDC(Δc1-29:MENLNMD)	Ap ^R , pBR322

Ap^R, resistance to ampicillin; Cm^R, resistance to chloramphenicol.

4.1.4. Bacterial media and solutions

Bacterial media were autoclaved at 121°C for 20 min. All bacterial media used in this work are listed in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5: List of bacterial media.

Medium	Composition	Preparation
	1% (w/v) tryptone	10 g
I Dantani (I D) haath	0.5% (w/v) yeast extract	5 g
Luria-Bertani (LB) broth medium	1% (w/v) NaCl	10 g
medium	H ₂ O	Add to 1 L
	Adjust pH to 7.0 with NaOH	
	1.2% (w/v) tryptone	12 g
	2.4% (w/v) yeast extract	24 g
Terrific Broth (TB)	0.4% (v/v) glycerol	4 mL
medium	0.17 M KH ₂ PO ₄	23.1 g
	0.72 M K ₂ HPO ₄	125.4 g
	H ₂ O	Add to 1 L
2× YT medium	1.6% (w/v) tryptone	16 g
Z^ II IIICUIUIII	1% (w/v) yeast extract	10 g

	0.5% (w/v) NaCl.	5 g	
	H ₂ O	Add to 1 L	
	Adjust pH to 7.0 with NaOH		
TD (Auto industion)	Overnight Express TM Instant TB Medium (Novagen)	60 g	
TB (Auto- induction)	1% glycerol	10 mL	
	H ₂ O	Add to 1 L	
	42.26 mM Na ₂ HPO ₄	6 g	
	22.05 mM KH ₂ PO ₄	3 g	
	8.55 mM NaCl	0.5 g	
	18.7 mM NH ₄ Cl	1 g	
1.60	100 mM CaCl ₂	1 M CaCl ₂ / 0.1 mL	
M9	2 mM MgSO ₄	1 M MgSO ₄ / 2 mL	
	22.2 mM glucose	40% glucose/ 10 mL	
	Centrum Vitamin Mix (Whitehall-	7.5% (w/v) Centrum Vitamin Mix stock/	
	Much GmbH)	2 mL	
	H ₂ O	Add to 1 L	
	2% (w/v) tryptone	5 g	
	0.5% (w/v) yeast extract	1.25 g	
	10 mM NaCl	0.146 g	
	2.5 mM KCl	0.047 g	
SOC medium	10 mM MgCl ₂	1 M MgCl ₂ /2.5 mL	
	10 mM MgSO ₄	1 M MgSO ₄ /2.5 mL	
	20 mM glucose	1 M glucose/5 mL	
	H ₂ O	Add to 250 mL	
	Adjust pH to 7.0 with NaOH		
	34 mM KH ₂ PO ₄	4.6 g	
	64 mM K ₂ HPO ₄	14.6 g	
	20 mM (NH ₄) ₂ SO ₄	2.6 g	
	0.4% (w/v) sodium succinate 6H ₂ O	4 g	
	1 μM ZnCl ₂	10 mM ZnCl ₂ /100 μL	
	10 μM CaCl ₂	100 mM CaCl ₂ /100 μL	
a · ·	0.3 mM MgSO ₄ ·7H ₂ O	1M MgSO ₄ ·7H ₂ O/300 μL	
Succinate	1 μM FeSO _{4.} 7H ₂ O	10 mM FeSO ₄ ·7H ₂ O/100 μL	
	2 μg/mL thiamine hydrochloride	10 mg/mL thiamine hydrochloride/200 μL	
	50 μg/mL isoleucine	20 mg/mL isoleucine/2.5 mL	
	50 μg/mL valine	20 mg/mL valine/2.5 mL	
	50 μg/mL thymine	20 mg/mL thymine/2.5 mL	
	50 μg/mL asparagine	20 mg/mL asparagine/2.5 mL	
	H_2O	Add to 1 L	

All antibiotics used in this work are listed in Table 4.6. Antibiotics were sterilized by filtering through $0.2 \mu m$ membranes (Sarstedt Aktiengesellschaft & Co.).

Table 4.6: List of antibiotics.

Antibiotic	Stock solution	Working concentration (dilution)
Ampicillin	100 mg/mL in H ₂ O ^a	100 μg/mL (1:1000)
Carbenicillin	100 mg/mL in H ₂ O ^a	100 μg/mL (1:1000)
Chloramphenicol	34 mg/mL in ethanol	170 μg/mL (1:200)
Kanamycin	50 mg/mL in H ₂ O ^a	50 μg/mL (1:1000)
Streptomycin	10 mg/mL in H ₂ O ^a	50 μg/mL (1:200)
Tetracycline	10 mg/mL in ethanol	30 μg/mL (1:300)

a. These stock solutions were prepared in $H_2O/glycerol$ (1:1) to avoid repeated freezing/thawing cycles when stored at -20 °C.

4.1.5. Enzymes, proteins, markers and kits

All the restriction enzymes and DNA modifying enzymes were purchased from Fermentas and New England Biolabs (NEB). Other enzymes, proteins, markers and kits used in this work are listed in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7: List of enzymes, proteins, markers and kits.

Name	Supplier	Application
Albumin Standard (bovine serum)	Pierce	Protein concentration assay
Albumin fraction V (bovine serum, biotin-free)	Carl Roth	Western blot
Avidin (egg white)	Gerbu	Avidin-biotin interaction
CloneJET TM PCR Cloning Kit	Fermentas	Molecular cloning
DNA Clean & Concentrator TM -25 Kit	Zymo Research	DNA purification
Complete protease inhibitor cocktail tablets	Roche	Protease inhibitors
Quick Ligation TM Kit	NEB	Molecular cloning
GeneRuler TM 1 kb Plus DNA Ladder	Fermentas	DNA standard
GeneRuler TM 100 bp Plus DNA Ladder	Fermentas	DNA standard
G-spin TM Genomic DNA Extraction Kit (for bacterial)	iNtRON	Genomic DNA extraction
Lambda DNA-Mono Cut Mix	NEB	DNA standard
Lysozyme (egg white)	Fluka	Protein purification
NativeMark TM Protein Standard	Invitrogen	Protein standard
PageRuler TM Prestained Protein Ladder	Fermentas	Protein standard
PageRuler TM Prestained Protein Ladder Plus	Fermentas	Protein standard
Phusion® High-Fidelity DNA Polymerase	Finnzymes	PCR
QIAGEN® Plasmid Plus Midi Kit	Qiagen	DNA extraction
QIAprep® Spin Miniprep Kit	Qiagen	DNA extraction
QIAquick® Gel Extraction Kit	Qiagen	DNA purification
QIAquick® PCR Purification Kit	Qiagen	DNA purification
QuikChange®Lightening Site-Directed Mutagenesis Kit	Stratagene	Mutagenesis
Ribonuclease A	Roche	DNA extraction
SeeBlue® Plus2 Prestained Standard	Invitrogen	Protein standard
Supercoiled DNA Ladder	NEB	DNA standard
SilverQuest TM Staining Kit	Invitrogen	Protein staining
Zymoclean TM Gel DNA Recovery Kit	Zymo Research	DNA purification

4.1.6. Antibodies

All the antibodies and conjugated proteins used for Western blot analysis in this work are listed in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8: List of antibodies.

Туре	Target protein for detections	Antibodies / Conjugated proteins	Company	
	Poly-His-tagged proteins	A monoclonal α-poly-histidine-alkaline phosphatase conjugated antibody	Sigma-Aldrich	
	StrepII-tagged proteins	Streptavidin coupled to alkaline phosphatase	Sigma-Aldrich	
1 st	Subunit F ₁ -β	KHL-conjugated synthetic peptide polyclonal antibody	Purchased from Agrisera	
antibodies	Subunit F ₁ -α	AQUEA_AtpA	TI ()	
	Subunit F ₁ -γ	AQUEA_AtpG	The custom peptide polyclonal antibodies	
	Subunit F ₁ -ε	AQUEA_AtpC	generated by Thermo	
	Subunit F ₁ -δ	AQUEA_AtpH	Fisher Scientific for this work	
	Subunit F _O -c	AQUEA_AtpL	uns work	
2 nd antibody	IgG from rabbit	Monoclonal mouse anti-rabbit IgG conjugated with alkaline phosphatase	Sigma-Aldrich	

4.1.7. Chromatographic columns and matrices

All chromatographic columns and matrices used in this work are listed in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9: List of chromatographic columns and matrices.

Material	Separation type	Supplier
Mini Q 4.6/50 PE	Ion exchange	GE Healthcare
Mono Q 5/50 GL	Ion exchange	GE Healthcare
Superdex 200 3.2/30 GL	Size-exclusion	GE Healthcare
Superdex 200 5/150 GL	Size-exclusion	GE Healthcare
Superdex 200 10/300 GL	Size-exclusion	GE Healthcare
Sucrose 6 5/150 GL	Size-exclusion	GE Healthcare
TSK-GEL G4000SW	Size-exclusion	TOSOH Bioscience
HisTrap HP 1 ml	IMAC affinity chromatography	GE Healthcare
Ni-NTA agarose	IMAC affinity chromatography	Qiagen
Strep-Tactin Superflow [®] high capacity column	IMAC affinity chromatography	IBA
Disposable PD-10 desalting column	Size-exclusion	GE Health
C18	Reverse phase	NanoSeparation

4.1.8. Database, servers and software

The databases and servers used in this work are listed in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10: List of database and servers.

Database and server	URL	
BLAST	http://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi	
Compute pI/Mw	http://web.expasy.org/compute_pi/	
EMBL-EBI	http://www.ebi.ac.uk/services	
ExPASy: SIB Bioinformatics Resource Portal	http://www.expasy.org/	
Mascot	http://www.matrixscience.com/	
Membrane Protein Data Bank MPDB	http://www.mpdb.tcd.ie/	
MEMSAT-SVM	http://bioinf.cs.ucl.ac.uk/psipred/	
NCBI: National Center for Biotechnology Information	http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/	
PDB: Protein Data Bank	http://www.rcsb.org/	
PSIPRED v3.0	http://bioinf.cs.ucl.ac.uk/psipred/	
PubMed	http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed	
SignalP Server	http://www.cbs.dtu.dk/services/SignalP/	
Signal Peptide Database	http://www.signalpeptide.de/	
SOSUI WWW Server	http://bp.nuap.nagoya-u.ac.jp/sosui/	
TMHMM Server	http://www.cbs.dtu.dk/services/TMHMM/	
UniProt: Universal Protein Resource	http://www.uniprot.org/	
Web of Knowledge	http://www.webofknowledge.com/	

The software used in this work is listed in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11: List of software.

Software	Version	Application	Company or reference
BioTools	3.1 (build 2.22)	MS data analysis	Bruker Daltonics
Chromas Lite	2.01	Chromatogram editor	Technelysium
Clone Manager	Professional 9	Cloning simulation	Sci-Ed Software
CID-HIT	4.6	Sequence clustering	(Fu et al., 2012)
ClustalX	2.1	Multiple-sequence alignment	(Thompson et al., 1997)
Compass/Hystar	3.2	MS data analysis	Bruker Daltonics
Endnote	X5	Reference management	Thomson Reuters
Geneious	Basic 5.6.5	Phylogenic tree viewing	Biomatters Ltd
iWork	09 version 4.1	Apple office software	Apple
JalView	2.8	Sequence alignment viewing and editor	(Waterhouse et al., 2009)
MacVector	11.0.4	Cloning simulation	MacVector
Microsoft Office	2010	Microsoft office software	Microsoft
Origin	8.6.0	Data processing and analysis	OriginLab
Photoshop	CS5 extended 12.0.4	Image editor	Adobe
PyMOL	1.3	3D molecular visualizer	Schrödinger
T-Coffee	9.03	Multiple-sequence alignment	(Keller et al., 2011)
Unicorn	5.11	Äkta control system	GE Healthcare

4.2. Methods

4.2.1. Bioinformatics

The position of transmembrane helices in the analyzed sequences was predicted using the TMHMM server v2.0 (http://www.cbs.dtu.dk/services/TMHMM/) (Moller *et al.*, 2001). The secondary structure segments were predicted by PSIPRED v3.0 (http://bioinf.cs.ucl.ac.uk/psipred/) (Jones, 1999). Signal peptides were predicted by SignalP 4.0 (http://www.cbs.dtu.dk/services/SignalP/) (Petersen *et al.*, 2011) and MEMSAT-SVM (http://bioinf.cs.ucl.ac.uk/psipred/) (Nugent and Jones, 2009).

A set of 218 homologous sequences of the *A. aeolicus* subunit c were obtained after 3 iterations of a PSI-BLAST search (Position-Specific Iterated Basic Local Alignment Search Tool) (Schaffer *et al.*, 2001) with the SwissProt sequence database (Bairoch and Apweiler, 2000) using an E-value of 0.001. To reduce the redundancy, 48 clusters were identified using CD-HIT (the Cluster Database at High Identity with Tolerance tool) (Fu *et al.*, 2012) with a percentage of identity of 60%. An initial set of 48 sequences representative of the 48 clusters was obtained. 5 additional sequences were successively integrated into the initial set, which correspond to subunit c homologues of known 3-D structures, possessing previously characterized signal peptides. In total, the full set of

53 sequences was selected for multiple-sequence alignment. Multiple-sequence alignment was performed with the program T-Coffee version 9.03 (Keller *et al.*, 2011) and was manually adjusted. The final score of the alignment is 77, confidently above 40, the cut-off suggested by the developers of T-Coffee to be the minimum for a reliable result. The alignment was visualized and edited in Jalview v11.0 (Waterhouse *et al.*, 2009). The phylogenetic tree was visualized in Geneious basic 5.6.5 (http://www.geneious.com).

4.2.2. Molecular Biology

All molecular biology procedures followed the standard protocols recommended by the manufacturers, unless stated otherwise. In particular, detailed protocols are listed hereafter.

4.2.2.1. Isolation of genomic DNA from A. aeolicus

A. aeolicus genomic DNA was extracted using the G-spinTM Genomic DNA Extraction Kit for Bacteria (iNtRON Biotechnology), according to the manufacturer's protocol for Gram-negative bacteria. The typical yield of genomic DNA was 2-5 μg per 10 - 20 mg of wet *A. aeolicus* cell pellets. The genomic DNA was stored at 4 °C.

4.2.2.2. Isolation of plasmid DNA

Isolation of plasmid DNA from *E. coli* cells was carried out using suitable kits (Qiagen). Briefly, the Qiagen MiniPrep kit was used for purification of high-copy and low-copy plasmid DNA from 5 mL and 10 mL overnight cultures of *E. coli* grown in LB medium at 37 °C with vigorously shaking at 220 rpm. For large-scale preparations, the Qiagen MidiPrep kit was used for purification of plasmid DNA from 50 mL overnight cultures. The plasmid DNA was stored in 10 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.5 at -20 °C.

4.2.2.3. DNA amplification

Coding sequences for each subunit of AAF_1F_0 were obtained from NCBI (NC_000918) and used for primer design. Primers were custom synthesized by Sigma-Aldrich and are listed in Table 4.12. The stock and working concentrations of primers solutions was 100 μ M and 10 μ M, respectively. DNA fragments were amplified by polymerase chain reaction (PCR) using the Phusion DNA polymerase (Finnzymes) from *A. aeolicus* genomic DNA and using a T-Gradient themocycler (Biometra). Gradient PCR was used to determine the optimal annealing temperature between 50 °C and 70 °C. Analytical and preparative PCR cycles were performed in a volume of 10 μ L and 50 μ L, respectively. All reactions were set up on ice and a typical reaction included the components listed

in Table 4.13 and used the program listed in Table 4.14. Phusion DNA polymerase was added last into the reaction to prevent primer degradation caused by 3'->5' exonuclease activity. As a negative control, all components except the DNA template were used.

Table 4.12: List of primers used in this work.

	Primers	Sequence (5'-3')	Restrictio n sites
	a-F	CG <u>GGATCC</u> TGGAGTACTCGCACGTAGTTTACG	BamHI
	a-R	CG <u>GAATTC</u> GTGTGCTCCTCGTGTGCTACAGC	EcoRI
	bb2-F	CG <u>GGATCC</u> TGATGGACATAGGAGTAATGCCTAATG	BamHI
	bb2-R	CG <u>GGTCTCGAATTC</u> GTAGCATTCTTCCTCTCCAG	BsaI&Eco RI
single or	c-F	CG <u>GGATCC</u> TGGTGATGAAGAGGTTAATGGCTATCTT	BamHI
dual gene	c-R	CG <u>GAATTC</u> GTAACCACGAAGAGCAGTATGAAAG	EcoRI
	bb2_pBCM-F	CG <u>TCTAGA</u> ATGGACATAGGAGTAATGCCTAATG	XabI
	bb2_pBCM-R	CG <u>CGTCGAC</u> AGCATTCTTCCTCTCCAG	SalI
	c_pBCM-F	CG <u>TCTAGA</u> GTGATGAAGAGGTTAATGGCTATCTT	XabI
	c_pBCM-R	CG <u>CGTCGA</u> CAACCACGAAGAGCAGTATGAAAG	SalI
	P1	GGGGA <u>GGTACCCATATG</u> TAATCTGAGCCAATTGCAAAAGAG	KpnI&Nde I
	P2	CGCGCG <u>AGATCT</u> AAGGGCTTAAACCACGAAGAG	BglII
	Р3	CGCGCG <u>AGATCT</u> ATTGCTATAATTGTTTAGCGGAGG	BglII
	P4	GGGAAA <u>GGATCC</u> CTACGGCCATTTAAACACCTC	BamHI
	P5	GGGAAA <u>GGATCC</u> AAACCTTTAAAGAAGGTTAGGAGGTAG	BamHI
	P6	GGGAAA <u>TCTAGA</u> GGAGGGAGAGTTAGGGAACG	XabI
artificial	P7	CGCGCG <u>TCTAGA</u> TTTAGACATTAGTTTATAATAAGTAGCGTTATG	XabI
operon	P8	GAAAAA <u>GTCGAC</u> AGGGGCTTAAACTTTAGCCC	SalI
	P9	CGCGCG <u>GTCGAC</u> TTGGACTTTCTCTGGTATAATTTAGGG	SalI
	P10	GGGAAA <u>CTGCAGCCCGGG</u> TTTTCCCCGAAAGAAGGG	SamI&PstI
	P17	GCTTATTTAACTATAAGAAACTAGCAGTACCTTC ¹	-
	P18	GAAGGTACTGCTAGTTTCTTATAGTTAAATAAGC ¹	-
	P19	GGAGGTTTATAGATGAGAGGATCGCATCATCATCATCATCATGGTATGGCGG AAGTGATTAAGGG	-
	P20	CCCTTAATCACTTCCGCCATACCATGATGATGATGATGATGCGATCCTCTCAT CTATAAACCTCC	-

¹ 17 bp from 3' end of the gene *atpB* is in red, 17 bp from 5' end of the gene *atpE* is in black.

Table 4.13: Typical PCR reaction mixture.

Component	Volume/50 μL	Volume/10 μL	Final concentration
H ₂ O	add to 50 µL	add to 10 μL	
5× Phusion® HF Buffer	10 μL	4 μL	1×
2.5 mM dNTPs	4 μL	1 μL	200 μΜ
primer A (10 μM)	2.5 μL	0.5 μL	0.5 μΜ
primer B (10 μM)	2.5 μL	0.5 μL	0.5 μΜ
template DNA	× μL (250 ng)	× μL (50 ng)	250 ng
Phusion® Hot Start DNA Polymerase (2 U/μl)	0.5 μL	0.2 μL	0.02 U/μL

Table 4.14: Typical PCR cycling program.

Cycle step	Temperature	Time	Cycles
Initial denaturation	98°C	30 s	1
Denaturation	98°C	10 s	
Annealing	58-65°C	30 s	25-30
Extension	72°C	15-30 s/1 kb	
Final extension	72°C	10 min	1
rmai extension	4°C	hold	1

The resulting PCR products were analyzed by agarose gel electrophoresis. For downstream applications (i.e subcloning and restriction digestion), the DNA fragments of interest were either purified directly using the QIAquick PCR purification kit (Qiagen) or extracted from the gel using the QIAquick gel extraction (Qiagen) or Zymoclean gel DNA recovery (Zymo Research) kits following to the manufacturer's guidelines.

4.2.2.4. Agarose Gel Electrophoresis of DNA

Agarose gel electrophoresis was typically performed in 1% agarose (NEEO ultra quality, Carl Roth) gels in 0.5× TBE to separate DNA fragments of 0.5 kb – 10 kb or in 1× TAE to separate supercoiled DNA. DNA samples were prepared by addition of 10× loading buffer before the electrophoretic run. The run was performed using PowerPacTM Basic power suppliers (Bio-Rad), a self-made horizontal gel chamber, and 0.5× TBE or 1× TAE as running buffers, at room temperature. Typically the DNA gel was run at 120 V (6V/cm) for 60-90 min and the progress of the separation was monitored using colored dyes in the loading buffer. 100 bp or 1 kb DNA ladders (NEB) were used to identify the size of the DNA fragments. After electrophoresis, the gel was

stained in $0.5~\mu g/mL$ ethidium bromide (Roth) solution for 10-30~min at room temperature and destained in water for 5 - 10~min. The gels were subsequently visualized and photographed using a Bio-Rad gel documentation system with a 302~nm UV transilluminator or visualized under UV light (312~nm, Biometra TI1 transilluminator) to excise the DNA bands of interest. Buffers used for electrophoresis of DNA are listed in Table 4.15.

Table 4.15: List of buffers for agarose gel electrophoresis.

Buffer	Components	Preparations
	2 M Tris	242 g
TAE (50×)	1 M glacial acetic acid	57.1 mL
TAE (50×)	50 mM EDTA	100 mL 0.5 M EDTA (pH8.0)
	H_2O	Add to 1 L
	445 mM Tris	54 g
TDE (5)	445 mM boric acid	27.5 g
TBE $(5\times)$	10 mM EDTA	20 mL 0.5 M EDTA (pH8.0)
	H_2O	Add to 1 L
	50 % glycerol	2.5 mL glycerol
	10 mM EDTA	100 μL 0.5 M EDTA
DNA loading buffer (10×)	0.25% (w/v) Bromophenol Blue	1.25 mg (<i>dsDNA</i> of 300 bp)
	0.25% (w/v) xylene cyanolFE	1.25 mg (<i>dsDNA</i> of 4 kb)
	H_2O	Add to 5 mL

4.2.2.5. Quantification of nucleic acids

DNA concentration was determined using a NanoDrop® ND-1000 spectrophotometer (NanoDrop Technologies), according to the manufacturer's guidelines. Typically, 1 - 2 μL of DNA sample was used for measurement and constant 50 was chosen for calculating *dsDNA* concentration. The purity of DNA samples was estimated by the ratio of absorbance at 260 nm *vs* 280 nm and 230 nm. Pure DNA generally has a 260/280 absorption ratio of approximately 1.8, and a 260/230 absorption ration of approximately 2.0-2.2.

4.2.2.6. Digestion of DNA with restriction endonucleases

A typical DNA double digestion was prepared as reported in Table 4.16 using 1.5 mL tubes (Eppendorf) for conventional restriction enzymes and 0.2 mL PCR thin-walled tubes (Thermo Scientific) for the FastDigest restriction enzymes (Thermo Scientific), as described in manufacturer's guidelines. The preparative scale protocol was used if the DNA had to be used in downstream applications (i.e. ligation), while the analytical scale was used for screening purposes.

Table 4.16: Typical double digestion reaction.

	Prepa	Preparative scale	
	PCR product	Plasmid DNA	Plasmid DNA
Buffer (10×)	1×	1×	1×
DNA	1 μg	1-5 μg	50-200 ng
Restriction enzyme 1	2.5 μL	2.5 μL	1 μL
Restriction enzyme 2	2.5 μL	2.5 μL	1 μL
H ₂ O	Add to 50 μL	Add to 50 μL	Add to 20 μL

The restriction digestion reaction was incubated at 37°C for 1-2 hours (conventional restriction enzymes in Thermomixer® compact, Eppendorf) or for 15 min (FastDigest restriction enzymes in TRIO-Thermoblock, Biometra).

For vector preparation, dephosphorylation of the DNA ends was performed using calf intestine (CIAP) or shrimp alkaline phosphatase (SAP) to reduce the background of non-recombinant species due to self-ligation of the vector. The results of restriction digestion were analyzed by gel electrophoresis of DNA. For preparative purposes, the DNA of interest was purified using the DNA gel or QIAquick PCR purification kits and the MinElute reaction cleanup kit (Qiagen). Duplex DNA isolated from bacteriophage lambda (cI857ind 1 Sam 7) (λ DNA) was used as a control of DNA digestion.

4.2.2.7. Ligation

A typical DNA ligation reaction was prepared as reported in Table 4.17 using 1.5 mL tubes (Eppendorf). The reaction mixes were incubated at 16°C overnight or at 25°C for 1-2 h when conventional T4 DNA ligase (Epicentre) was used, and at 25 °C for 5 – 15 min according to the manufacture's guidelines when the Quick Ligation kit (NEB) was used. A molar ratio of 1:3 (vector:insert) was used in typical DNA ligation reactions and a ratio of 1:1:1 (vector: insert-1: insert-2) was used in 3-way ligation reactions. Heat inactivation was optionally performed when the conventional T4 DNA ligase was used but was avoided when the Quick ligation protocol was used because it dramatically reduced transformation efficiency.

Table 4.17: Typical ligation reaction.

	Conventional T4 ligase	Quick ligation Kit
T4 DNA ligase Buffer (10×) / Quick ligation Buffer (2×)	2 μL	10 μL
Vector DNA	50 - 200 ng	50 - 200 ng
Insert DNA	50 - 200 ng	50 - 200 ng
T4 DNA ligase / Quick T4 DNA ligase	1 μL	1 μL
H ₂ O	Add to 20 μL	Add to 20 μL

4.2.2.8. Preparation of chemically competent cells

Chemically competent cells were prepared according to one of the following two methods:

- a) The calcium chloride method. *E. coli* DH5 competent cells were prepared as described (Inoue *et al.*, 1990) but with minor modifications. A 1-2 mL of LB medium was inoculated with a single colony and cells were grown at 37°C overnight as a pre-culture. 1 mL of preculture was added into 100 mL of LB medium (supplemented with 10 mM MgCl₂) and shaken (100 rpm) at 18 °C to an OD₆₀₀ of 0.1 (approximately 1.5 h 3 h). The culture was then chilled on ice for 10 min, cells were pelleted at 4,400 × *g* for 10 min at 4 °C (Sigma 4K15 centrifuge). Cell pellets were gently resuspended in 33 mL of cold TB buffer (1/3 of culture volume) for washing. Afterwards, the cells were re-pelleted as described above (4 °C, 4,400 × *g* for 10 min) and gently resuspended in 8 mL of cold TB buffer. After adding 600 μL DMSO as a cryo-protecting agent, 250 μL aliquots of the resulting competent cells were transferred into sterile and pre-chilled microcentrifuge tubes, flash frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C. This method was the more efficient in preparing highly competent cells.
- b) The rubidium chloride method. 5 mL of LB medium was inoculated with a single colony and cells were grown at 37°C overnight as a pre-culture. 2.5 mL of pre-culture was added into 250 mL of SOC medium in a 1 L baffled flask and shaken (180 rpm) at 37°C to an OD₆₀₀ of 0.4 0.6. The culture was then chilled on ice, cells were pelleted at 4,400 × g for 15 min at 4 °C (Sigma 4K15 centrifuge, 6 × 40 mL culture in 50 mL tubes). Cell pellets were gently resuspended in 96 mL of cold RF1 buffer and incubated on ice for 20 min. The cells were then re-pelleted at 4 °C, 1,600 × g for 5 min, gently resuspended in 9.6 mL of cold RF2 buffer and incubated on ice for 5 min. 250 μL aliquots of the resulting competent cells were transferred into sterile and pre-chilled microcentrifuge tubes, flash frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C.

All buffers and solutions used for competent cell preparation are listed in Table 4.18.

Table 4.18: List of buffers used to prepare chemically competent cells.

Transformation Buffer	Working solution	Stock solution	Preparation
	15 mM CaCl ₂	1 M CaCl ₂	1.5 mL
	55 mM MnCl ₂	1 M MnCl ₂	5.5 mL
TB buffer	250 mM KCl	2 M KCl	12.5 mL
	10 mM PIPES-KOH pH 6.7	200 mM PIPES	5 mL
	H ₂ O		Add to 100 mL
	30 mM KOAc, pH 5.8	1 M KOAc	15 mL
	100 mM RbCl		6.046 g
RF1	50 mM MnCl ₂	1 M MnCl ₂	25 mL
KΓI	10 mM CaCl ₂	1 M CaCl ₂	5 mL
	15 % glycerol (v/v)		75 mL
	H ₂ O		Add to 500 mL
	100 mM MOPS/KOH, pH 6.8	1 M MOPS, pH6.8	0.5 mL
	10 mM RbCl	1 M RbCl	0.5 mL
RF2	75 mM CaCl ₂	1 M CaCl ₂	3.75 mL
	15 % glycerol (v/v)		7.5 mL
	H ₂ O		Add to 50 mL

4.2.2.9. Transformation of competent cells

Transformation of chemically competent cells was performed by heat shock. An aliquot of frozen competent cells were thawed on ice. 1 - 10 ng plasmid DNA or an aliquot of the ligation mixture (10 μ L or less) was mixed with 100 μ L competent cells in a cold sterile 1.5 mL microcentrifuge tube and incubated for 5 – 10 min on ice. The cells were then subjected to a heat shock at 42°C for 90 sec without shaking. Afterwards, the cells were transferred and incubated for 2 – 10 min on ice before adding 900 μ L SOC medium. The cells were outgrown at 37°C for 1 h. An aliquot (10 – 50 μ L for plasmid DNA and 50 μ L –1000 μ L for ligation mix) was plated on LB agar plates containing the appropriate antibiotics. The plates were incubated at 37°C overnight.

4.2.2.10. Screening of positive transformants

For subcloning, typically 2-5 single colonies were screened for positive transformants by performing Minipreps (see 4.2.2.2) and restriction digestion (see 4.2.2.6). As an alternative, the Rusconi prep was also used for identifying for positive clones (especially in the case of 3- way ligation reactions). The Rusconi prep is a rapid method for screening positive transformants based on the size of resulting plasmids. Cells from a single colony grown on solid agar or in liquid cultures were transferred into a microcentrifuge tube and mixed vigorously by vortexing with 20 μ l

of Rusconi mix (25 mM Tris/HCl, pH 7.5, 25 mM EDTA, 0.5 mg/mL lysozyme, 0.1 mg/ mL RNase, 10% (v/v) glycerol, and 0.025% (w/v) bromophenol Blue). The mixture was then incubated for 30 min at room temperature. Total DNA was extracted by adding 10 μ l of phenol/chloroform (1:1) mixture and mixing vigorously by vortexing. The cell debris was removed by centrifugation at 16,000 \times g, at room temperature for 5 min (Centrifuge 5415D, Eppendorf). The supernatant containing genomic DNA and plasmid DNA was analyzed directly on a DNA agarose gel. A supercoiled DNA ladder (NEB) was used to estimate the size of the supercoiled plasmid DNA.

The vector sequence of all positive transformants was further confirmed by DNA sequencing (see 4.2.2.11). For the identification of clones expressing the target protein, the colony blot procedure was used (see 4.2.4.10).

4.2.2.11. DNA sequencing

DNA sequencing was performed by SeqLab and Eurofin MWG Operon. Typically 600 – 1000 ng plasmid DNAs are required for one reaction. Sequencing primers used for the whole artificial *atp* operon are listed in Table 4.19.

Primers	Sequence (5' - 3')	
SP1_4414	GGCTGTGCAGGTCGTAAATC	
SP2_5096	CCCTCTCCCTCAGGTTATTC	
SP3_5696	TTAGCGGAGGAGAAGAATGG	
SP4_6424	GGCACAGGAATACGAGAAAC	
SP5_7133	GGAGGACCCTTCCCTTATAG	
SP6_7814	AGACCACTGTTGCGATAGAC	
SP7_8556	AGAACCCTACAACCCGATAC	
SP8_9337	AAACGGAGAAACCGATAGGG	
SP9_10078	TTGCGGGACAACCCATAGAC	
SP10_10738	GGTCCATATTCGCGCACCTC	
SP11_112	TTGAAGGAGAGGTGGGAATC	

4.2.2.12. Site-directed mutagenesis

Site-directed mutagenesis was performed by the following two methods:

a) **Quikchange methods.** The QuikChange®lightning Site-Directed Mutagenesis kit or The QuikChange®II Site-Directed Mutagenesis kit (Agilent Technologies) were used for site-

directed mutagenesis i.e inserting and/or deleting multiple amino acids, following the manufacturer's specifications. Site-directed mutagenesis was used for generating pCL21-MEN using pCL21 as the template and primers 5'-GTTAAATAAGCTTTAAGGAGGTAGATGGAAAACTGAATATGGATCTTCTGTAC CTTGGAGCAGGACTT-3' and its corresponding reverse complement as the mutagenic primers.

b) PCR site-directed mutagenesis. PCR site-directed mutagenesis was used for the pCL21-ΔSP construct, using pCL21 as the template with 5'-phosphorylated primers 5'-GCGGAAGGAGGCTTCC-3' (forward) and 5'-CACCTACCTCCTTAAAGC-3' (reverse). PCR products were purified using the QIAquick PCR purification kit (Qiagen), and linearized DNA was self-ligated using Quick ligation (NEB), and transformed into host cells using standard transformation protocol (see 4.2.2.9).

After site-directed mutagenesis, all constructs were confirmed by DNA sequencing (see 4.2.2.11).

4.2.2.13. Storage of *E. coli* strains

E.~coli strains were stored at -80°C in 15% glycerol (v/v). Typically, 150 μL of pre-sterilized glycerol (100%) were mixed vigorously by vortexing with 850 μL of a logarithmic-phase E.~coli culture suspension in LB medium. The glycerol stocks were then flash frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C.

4.2.3. Protein expression and isolation

4.2.3.1. Rapid expression screening

Culture medium was supplemented with the appropriate antibiotics in Erlenmeyer flasks, (at a culture/flask volume ratio of 1/5) and pre-warmed. The pre-warmed medium was then inoculated with an aliquot of overnight pre-culture (at a pre-culture /culture volume ratio of 1/20), and incubated at 37° C with vigorous shaking at 180 rpm until an OD_{600} of 0.6 was reached. 1 mL of cell suspension was harvested before induction for use as a control and was pelleted by centrifugation at $16,000 \times g$, 4° C for 5 min (Centrifuge 5415D, Eppendorf) and stored at -20° C. The cells were then induced with 1 mM IPTG (for vectors pTTQ18, pQE, pET, pCL) or 0.2% (w/v) arabinose (for vector pBAD) and incubated for different times (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 and 16 h) at various temperatures (18, 25, 30 and 37° C), in different media (see 4.1.4). 1 mL of cells were harvested by centrifugation at each time point as described above and stored at -20° C. Protein expression was first analyzed in whole cell lysate under denaturing condition. To prepare the whole

cell lysates, the corresponding cell pellets were resuspended in 100 μ L of 20% (w/v) SDS in water for 15 min at room temperature. The suspension was centrifuged at 16,000 \times g, at room temperature for 20 min (Centrifuge 5415D, Eppendorf) to remove cell debris and genomic DNA. The supernatant was analyzed by SDS-PAGE, Western blot and dot blot analysis (see 4.2.2.8 and 4.2.2.9).

The rapid expression screening procedure was also used for isolating membrane fraction in a small scale (see 4.2.3.4.1) to determine the solubility and localization of target proteins expressed in *E. coli* (see 4.2.3.3).

4.2.3.2. Preparative protein purification

1-2 L of appropriate culture medium was supplemented with the appropriate antibiotics in 5 L baffled flasks. The medium was then inoculated with 50 mL overnight pre-culture (at a pre-culture/culture volume ratio of 1/40), and incubated at 37°C with vigorous shaking at 150 rpm until an appropriate OD₆₀₀. The cells were then induced by adding IPTG depending on the protein complexes produced and incubating for a specific time and at specific temperatures (see 4.2.3.6 for details of producing subcomplexes b_1b_2 , F_1 - $\alpha\beta\gamma$, F_1 - $\alpha\beta\gamma$ and the whole EAF₁F₀ in *E. coli*). After induction, the cells were harvested by centrifugation at 4 °C, at $10,540 \times g$ for 30 min (Centrifuge Avanti J-26XP, Rotor JLA-8.1000, Beckman Coulter). Finally, the cell pellets were flash frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C.

4.2.3.3. Determination of protein cellular localization

To determine the protein cellular localization (membrane-inserted, cytoplasm, or inclusion bodies) cells were disrupted by mechanical methods using either tiny glass beads, 200 μ g/mL lysozyme, a French Press or a microfludizer depending on the preparation scale (see 4.2.3.4). The insoluble cytoplasmic fraction (cell debris and inclusion bodies) was collected by centrifugation at 4°C, at 23,000 × g for 30 min (Rotor GSA/SS34, Sorvall RC5B superspeed centrifuge). The membrane fraction was collected by centrifugation at 4 °C at 200,000 × g for 60 min (Rotor 70 Ti) or at 150,000 × g for 90 min (Rotor 45 Ti) (Ultracentrifuge Optima L-90K, Beckman Coulter) (see 4.2.2.4). The soluble cytoplasmic fraction was collected as the supernatant of the latter centrifugation step. The protein concentration of the three fractions was determined by BCA methods (see 4.2.4.1) and the fractions were analyzed by SDS-PAGE using a protein concentration of 10 μ g protein per well.

4.2.3.4. Membrane preparation

4.2.3.4.1. Small-scale membrane preparation

For small-scale membrane preparation, cell pellets obtained from 50 mL of culture were resuspended in 1 mL of cell lysis buffer (20 mM HEPES-NaOH, pH 8, 100 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 1 mM PMDF, 1 U/mL Benzonase, 3 mM MgCl₂, 200 µg/mL lysozyme). 1 mL of glass beads (0.1 - 0.2 mm diameter) was added and mixed by vortexing for 30 min at 4°C. The glass beads were removed using filtration and cell lysates were collected in a 13 mL tube by centrifugation at 800 rpm (Sigma 4K15 centrifuge). The lysate was centrifuged at 4°C, at 16,000 × g for 20 min (Centrifuge 5415D, Eppendorf) to remove the cell debris. The membranes were harvested by centrifugation at 4°C, $100,000 \times g$ for 1 h (Rotor TLA55, OptimaTMMax Ultracentrifuge, Beckman Coulter) and resuspended in membrane resuspension buffer (20 mM HEPES-NaOH, pH 8, 100 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA) to a final protein concentration of 10 mg/mL.

4.2.3.4.2. Large-scale membrane preparation

For large-scale membrane preparation, cell pellets from 1 L - 12 L of culture were resuspended in cell lysis buffer in a ratio of 1 g cells to 6 mL lysis buffer (20 mM HEPES-NaOH, pH 8, 100 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 1 mM PMDF, DNAase grade II, 3 mM MgCl₂). The cell suspension was homogenized using a disperser tool (Ultra-Turrax® T25 basic, IKA) and filtered through a porous membrane to remove cell clumps. The cell suspension was then passed through a French Press at a pressure of 19,000 psi (40K cell, Thermo Fisher Scientific) for 3 cycles. Alternatively, the cell suspension (200 mL or more) was lysed in a microfluidizer at a pressure of 12,000 psi (Microfluidics Corp) for 3 times. After cell disruption, the cell lysate was centrifuged at 4°C at 13, $000 \times g$ and 23, $000 \times g$ for 30 min, respectively, to remove the cell debris (Rotor GSA/SS34, Sorvall RC5B superspeed centrifuge). The supernatant containing the membranes was then ultracentrifuged at 4°C at 200,000 × g for 60 min (Rotor 70 Ti) or at 150,000 × g for 90 min (Rotor 45 Ti) (Ultracentrifuge Optima L-90K, Beckman Coulter). The membrane fraction was pelleted and washed with the membrane resuspension buffer one time. The membrane suspension was ultracentrifuged again as described above. The membrane pellet was resuspended in the membrane resuspension buffer (20 mM HEPES-NaOH, pH 8, 100 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, or in a buffer specified) to a typical protein concentration of 10 mg/mL and flash frozen in 10 mL aliquots (unless otherwise stated) using liquid nitrogen before being stored at -80°C.

4.2.3.5. Detergent screening for solubilization of membrane proteins

For membrane protein solubilization trials, 70 μ L of the membrane suspension buffer supplemented with 4% of the appropriate detergents were added to 70 μ L of membrane suspension containing with 1 mM PMSF. The solubilization was carried out at 4°C for 1 h. Insolubilized material was then separated from the solubilized membrane proteins by ultracentrifugation at 4°C for 1 h, at $100,000 \times g$ (Rotor TLA100, OptimaTMMax Ultracentrifuge, Beckman Coulter). The protein concentration of the total membrane suspension, of the solubilized supernatant and of the insolubilized pellets was determined by the BCA method and the three fractions were then analyzed by SDS-PAGE and western blot after loading 10 μ g protein per well. The detergents used in this screening procedure are listed in Table 4.20.

Table 4.20: List of detergents used for solubilization screens.

Table 1.20. List of detergents used for solubilization screens.				
Detergent	Abbrevia tion	CMC% (w/v)	Concentration for solubilization % (w/v)	Concentration for purification % (w/v)
n-dodecyl-β-D-maltoside	DDM	0.0087	1-2%	0.02-0.05
n-decyl -β-D-maltoside	DM	0.087	1-2%	0.1
n-octyl-β-D- glucopyranoside	OG	0.53	2-6%	0.9
n-nonyl-β-D- glucopyranoside	NG	0.2	1-2%	0.2
n-octyl-β-D- thioglucopyranoside	OTG	0.28	2-3%	0.3
n-dodecyl-N,N- dimethylamine-N-oxide	LDAO	0.026	1-2%	0.1
nonaethylene glycol monododecyl ether	C12E9	0.006	1-2%	0.02
dodecyl-phosphorylcholine	FOS-12	0.053	1-2%	0.08
cyclohexyl-hexyl-β-D- maltoside	Cymal-6	0.028	1-2%	0.05
Cyclohexyl-heptyl-β-D-maltoside	Cymal-7	0.01	1-2%	0.02

4.2.3.6. Protein overproduction and purification

4.2.3.6.1. Subcomplex b_1b_2

The sub-complex b_1b_2 was obtained using vector bb2-pTTQ-A in the host strain $E.\ coli\ C43(DE3)$ cultured in $2\times$ YT medium (supplemented with 0.5% (w/v) glucose, 50 µg/mL carbenicillin). Cells were induced by 0.2 mM IPTG to an OD_{600} of 0.7-0.8 and further grown at 30°C for 16 h. The cell

pellet was resuspended in buffer A supplemented with 1 mM PMSF and DNAaseI. Cells were lysed using the French Press method at 10,000 p.s.i. (for 3 cycles). Cell membranes were prepared as described above (see 4.2.3.4.2). Membranes were successively resuspended in buffer A (20 mM HEPES, pH 8.0, 3 mM MgCl₂, 1 mM EDTA, 100 mM NaCl) to a protein concentration of 10 mg/mL and divided into 10 mL aliquots. Membranes were solubilized by adding buffer B (20 mM HEPES, pH 7.5, 500 mM NaCl) supplemented with 20 mM imidazole, 1 mM PMSF, and 2% (w/v) DM at a ratio of 20 mL buffer per 100 mg total membrane proteins at 50°C for 1 h, and then ultracentrifuged at 200,000 × g for 1 h to remove the unsolubilized materials. The supernatant was incubated with Ni-NTA resin (Qiagen) pre-equilibrated with buffer B supplemented by 0.25% (w/v) DM at 4°C for 2 h (2 mL resin per 100 mg total membrane proteins). The resin was washed with buffer B supplemented by 0.25% (w/v) DM and imidazole concentrations increasing from 20 mM to 80 mM and then the sub-complex b_1b_2 was eluted by 300 mM imidazole. A final size-exclusion polishing chromatographic run was performed using a Superdex 200 PC3.2/30 column (GE healthcare) and the SMART system (Pharmacia) in buffer B with 0.25% (w/v) DM. Proteins were concentrated by Amicon Ultra devices with a molecular weight cut-off of 10 kDa (Millipore).

4.2.3.6.2. Subcomplexes F_1 - $\alpha\beta\gamma$ and F_1 - $\alpha\beta\gamma\varepsilon$

The subcomplexes F_1 - $\alpha\beta\gamma$ and F_1 - $\alpha\beta\gamma\epsilon$ were expressed from pCL11 and pCL12 vectors, respectively in the host strain *E. coli* C43 (DE3) already containing the pRARE vector for codon usage optimization. Cells were cultured in TB medium (supplemented with 50 µg/mL carbenicillin and 34 µg/mL chloramphenicol) to a cell density of 0.3-0.4 (OD₆₀₀), and then induced with 1 mM IPTG and cultured for further 6 h. Cells were harvested and proteins were extracted using a similar procedure as for subcomplex b_1b_2 but in buffer C (20 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0, 10 mM MgCl₂, 0.2 mM EDTA, 100 mM NaCl, 10% (v/v) glycerol, 1 mM PMSF, DNaseI). Proteins from the cytosolic fraction were then immediately separated on a Ni-NTA resin following a similar procedure as for subcomplex b_1b_2 but using buffer D (20 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 5 mM MgCl₂, 300 mM NaCl, 2.5% (v/v) glycerol) with imidazole concentrations of 30 mM (washing buffer) to 150 mM (elution buffer). Imidazole was then immediately removed from the eluate using a PD-10 column (GE healthcare) in buffer D with 150 mM NaCl only. Finally, the proteins were further separated on a Superdex 200 10/300 GL size-exclusion column (GE healthcare) on Äkta purifier systems (GE Healthcare) using the same buffer. Proteins were concentrated by Amicon Ultra devices with a molecular weight cut-off of 50 kDa (Millipore).

4.2.3.6.3. The whole EAF_1F_0 complex

The expression vector pCL21 was co-transformed in E. coli DK8 with the pRARE plasmid (Novagen). Transformants were selected on LB agar plates containing 50 μg/mL carbenicillin, 34 µg/mL chloramphenicol and 30 µg/mL tetracycline. For protein production, E. coli cells were grown in 2× YT medium (supplemented with 50 µg/mL carbenicillin and 34 µg/mL chloramphenicol) to a cell density of 0.3-0.4 (OD₆₀₀), and then induced with 1 mM IPTG and incubated for 6 h. Membranes were prepared following the same procedures used as subcomplex b₁b₂, but using buffer E (20 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0, 10 mM MgCl₂, 0.2 mM EDTA, 100 mM NaCl, 10% (v/v) glycerol) and resuspended to a protein concentration of 30 mg/mL in 8 mL aliquots. Membrane solubilization was carried out at 4 °C for 2 h by mixing 100 mg total membrane proteins with 15 mL buffer F (50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 2.3 mM MgCl₂, 300 mM NaCl, 46 mM imidazole, pH 7.5, 3% (w/v) DDM, 0.05% (w/v) α-PCC) supplemented with 1× complete protease inhibitor cocktail tablets, EDTA-free (Roche). After heat treatment at 50 °C for 30 min (Imamura et al., 2006), the extract was centrifuged at 200,000 × g for 1 h. The supernatant fraction was incubated at 4 °C for 2 h with Ni-NTA resin equilibrated with buffer G (20 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.4, 5 mM MgCl₂, 230 mM NaCl, 2.5% (v/v) glycerol, 0.05% (w/v) DDM, 0.05% (w/v) α-PCC) and supplemented with 30 mM imidazole (ratio of 4 mL resin per 100 mg total membrane proteins). The resin was washed with increasing imidazole concentrations up to 50 mM and EAF₁F₀ was then eluted in buffer G supplemented with 150 mM imidazole. Imidazole was then removed using a PD-10 column and the proteins were maintained in buffer G using only 150 mM NaCl and further purified on a TSK-GEL G4000SW column (TOSOH Bioscience) using Äkta purifier systems (GE Healthcare). Proteins were concentrated by Amicon Ultra devices with a molecular weight cut-off of 100 kDa (Millipore).

4.2.3.7. Protein purification

4.2.3.7.1. Affinity purification

For His-tagged protein purification, Ni-NTA agarose (Qiagen) was used in a batch procedure. The proteins were eluted in the relevant buffers containing an appropriated imidazole concentration (See details in 4.2.3.6). Alternatively HisTrap HP 1 ml (GE healthcare) was used with an Äkta purifier systems (GE Healthcare), following the manufacturer guidelines.

4.2.3.7.2. Size-exclusion chromatography (SEC)

For preparative purposes, the Superdex 200 10/300 GL column (GE healthcare) or the TSK-GEL G4000SW (TOSOH Bioscience) were used with an Äkta purifier systems (GE Healthcare). For analytical purposes, either the Superdex 200 PC 3.2/30 was used on the SMART system

(Pharmacia) or the Superdex 200 5/150 GL (GE healthcare) or the Superose 6 5/150GL (GE healthcare) were used on the Äkta purifier systems (GE Healthcare). Columns were equilibrated with 3 column volumes of running buffer, prior to each run that was performed according to the manufacturer guidelines. Size-exclusion column calibration was performed using the Gel Filtration Calibration Kit (GE Healthcare) with the appropriate running buffer.

4.2.3.7.3. Ion exchange chromatography

For preparative protein purification, the Mono Q 5/50 GL column (GE healthcare) was used on Äkta purifier systems (GE Healthcare). For analytical purposes, the Mini Q 4.6/50 PE column was used on the SMART system (Pharmacia). The column was pre-equilibrated with the relevant buffer but without NaCl, and the proteins were eluted with a segmented gradient to a final NaCl concentration of 1 M. The runs were performed according to the manufacturer guidelines.

4.2.4. Protein characterization by biochemical methods

4.2.4.1. Determination of protein concentration

Protein concentration was determined according to the following methods:

- a) BCA protein assay. In the bicinchoninic acid (BCA) protein assay the reagent was prepared as a 1:50 (v/v) mixture of BCA assay reagents A and B (Pierce) respectively. BSA samples at concentration ranges from 0.01 to 0.1 mg/mL or from 0.1 to 1 mg/mL were used as standards. 10 μL of water, of BSA standard or of protein sample were mixed with 200 μL reagent in a 96- well reaction plate (Nunc) and incubated for 30 min at 37 or 60°C, according to standard procedures. The absorbance at 562 nm was measured with a microtiter plate reader (Trista LB 941 Multimode, Berthold). The concentration of protein was calculated as an average of duplicates. This assay is compatible with relatively high (1%) concentrations of both ionic and non-ionic detergents, but not with imidazole. Therefore, this assay was used to determine the total protein concentration in the membrane and the concentration of the purified proteins (in buffer without imidazole).
- b) Bradford protein assay. In the Bradford protein assay, the dye reagent (Bio-Rad) was prepared with five-fold dilution in water. BSA samples at concentration ranges from 0.05 to 0.5 mg/mL were used as standards. As for the BCA protein assay, 10 μ L of each standard and sample solution were mixed with 200 μ L reagent, incubated at room temperature for 5 min and the absorbance was measured at 595 nm. The concentration of

protein was calculated as an average of duplicates. This assay was used to determine the purified protein in a buffer containing imidazole.

Finally, when the amount of the purified protein was very limited, the concentration was approximately estimated by measuring the absorbance of the protein at 280 nm in a NanoDrop ND-1000 spectrophotometer (one A_{280} unit = 1 mg/mL).

4.2.4.2. Denaturing gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE)

Denaturing gel electrophoresis was performed using the anionic detergent sodium dodecylsulfate (SDS). The protein samples mixed with sample buffers were typically incubated for 5 min at 90 °C. The samples were run in a commercial gel chamber (XCell SureLock Mini-Cell, Invitrogen) on NuPAGE® 4-16% Bis-tris gel (Invitrogen), at constant 200 V, for 45 min, using MES/SDS running buffer. Alternatively for proteins in the molecular weight range of 2-20 kDa, the samples were run on Novex® 10% tricine gels (Invitrogen), at constant 125 V, 90 min, using Tricine/SDS running buffer. Additionally, for optimal resolution of EAF₁F₀ on SDS-PAGE, 13.2 % tricine gels were self-cast (Schagger and von Jagow, 1987) using 1.0 mm thick gel cassettes (Invitrogen) as described in Table 4.21. The electrophoresis was performed using $1\times$ anode and $1\times$ cathode running buffer at constant 40 mA/ gel at 4°C for 2.5 h (Power HC power supply, Bio-Rad).

Table 4.21: List of buffers and chemicals used for casting the 13.2% tricine gels.

Chemicals	5% stacking gel (1 gel)	13.2% separating gel (1 gel)
30% (w/v) acrylamide/bis solution	533 μL	4.467 mL
3 M Tris/HCl pH 8.45	1.033 mL	3.333 mL
60 % glycerol	-	2.2 mL
10 % (w/v) SDS	31 μL	100 μL
TEMED	6 μL	5 μL
10% (w/v) APS	50 μL	50 μL
ddH ₂ O	2.533 mL	- mL
Total volume	4.186 mL	10.155 mL

Table 4.22: List of solutions used for SDS-PAGE electrophoresis.

Gel type	Solutions	Components
13.2% self- cast	1× Sample buffer	50 mM Tris/HCl, pH 6.8 2% (w/v) SDS 12% (v/v) glycerol 0.01% (w/v) bromophenol blue 0.01% servablue G
tricine gel	1× Anode running buffer	0.2 M Tris/HCl, pH 8.9
	1× Cathode running buffer	0.1 M Tris 0.1 M Tricine 0.1% (w/v) SDS pH 8.25
4-16% Bis-tris	5× Sample buffer	0.25 mM Tris/HCl, pH 8.0 25% (v/v) glycerol 12.5% (v/v) β-ME 7.5% (w/v) SDS 0.05% (w/v) bromophenol blue
(Invitrogen)	1× MES/SDS running buffer	50 mM MES 50 mM Tris 0.1% (w/v) SDS 1 mM EDTA pH 7.3
10% Tricine (Invitrogen)	4× Sample buffer	900 mM Tris HCl 24% (v/v) glycerol 8% (w/v) SDS 0.005% (w/v) Coomassie Blue G 0.005% (w/v) Phenol Red pH 8.45
(1× Tricine/SDS running buffer	100 mM Tris 100 mM Tricine 0.1% (w/v) SDS pH 8.3

4.2.4.3. Non denaturing gel electrophoresis (Native PAGE)

Native PAGE was performed with precast NativePAGE[™] Novex® 4-16% Bis-Tris Mini in an XCell SureLock[™] Mini-Cell chamber (Invitrogen) according to the manufacturer's specifications. The runs were all performed at 4°C, at 150 V for the first 60 min and then at 250 V for 30 min (Pharmacia LKB ECPS 3000/150).

Blue Native PAGE (BN-PAGE) was performed using 50 mM BisTris and 50 mM Tricine as the anode buffer and the same buffer supplemented with 0.02% (w/v) or 0.002% Coomassie brilliant blue G-250 as the dark or light blue cathode buffer, respectively. For BN-PAGE, the samples with

detergents were supplied with 5% (w/v) Coomassie brilliant blue G-250 as an additive prior to loading. For the Clear Native PAGE (CN-PAGE), the cathode buffer was supplied with 0.05% sodium deoxycholate (DOC).

Table 4.23: List of buffers used for BN-PAGE.

Buffers and solutions	Compositions
20× Cathode buffer additive	0.4% (w/v) Coomassie G-250 in H ₂ O
1× Running buffer	50 mM BisTris 50 mM Tricine
Light blue cathode buffer	0.02% Coomassie G-250 in 1× running buffer
Dark blue cathode buffer	0.002% Coomassie G-250 in 1× running buffer
Clear PAGE cathode buffer	0.05% DOC in 1× running buffer
1× sample buffer	50 mM BisTris 6N HCl 50 mM NaCl 3.17 % (v/v) glycerol 0.001% (w/v) Ponceau S pH 7.2

4.2.4.4. Electro-elution

After the electrophoretic run, stained protein bands containing EAF₁F₀ were excised from dark BN-PAGE gels. Proteins were eluted into a membrane cap with a molecular weight cut off (MWCO) of 12-15 kDa (Bio-Rad), using the Electro-Eluter Model 422 (Bio-Rad). The electro-elution was performed at 4°C overnight, in a buffer of 50 mM BisTris and 50 mM Tricine, at constant 8-10 mA/glass tube (Pharmacia LKB ECPS 3000/ 150). Typically 400-600 μ L of eluted proteins were collected and then concentrated by Amicon Ultra devices with a MWCO of 100 kDa (Millipore) and rebuffered in 20 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.4, 5 mM MgCl₂, 150 mM NaCl, 2.5% (v/v) glycerol, 0.05% (w/v) DDM, 0.05% (w/v) α -PCC.

4.2.4.5. Two-dimensional electrophoresis (2-D Native/SDS-PAGE)

2-D Native/SDS-PAGE was performed to investigate the subunit composition of the purified subcomplexes and whole complex. In the first dimension the gel was run as a light BN-PAGE (see 4.2.4.4). After electrophoresis, the gel strip was cut from the light BN-PAGE and transferred into a sterile 15 mL conical tube. The gel was successively incubated at room temperature in 5 mL

Reducing solution for 15-30 min, in 5 mL Alkylating solution for 15-30 min, and in 5 mL Quenching solution for 15 min. After decanting the Quenching solution, the gel strip was loaded on Novex®4-16% Bis-tris gels with 2D-well (Invitrogen). The gel strip was overlaid with $60 \mu L$ of $1 \times NuPAGE$ ® LDS sample buffer (Invitrogen), and the run was performed in $1 \times MES/SDS$ running buffer at 200 V at 4°C .

Alternatively, the gel lane was incubated in 1× cathode buffer (0.1 M Tris, 0.1 M Tricine, 0.1% (w/v) SDS, pH 8.25) and loaded on 13.2% tricine self-cast gel (in place of the stacking portion, see 4.2.4.5), preequilibrated by electrophoresis at 40 mV/gel at 4°C.

Table 4.24: List of buffers used for 2D Native/SDS-PAGE.

Buffers and solutions	Components
Reducing solution	1× NuPAGE® LDS sample buffer with 50 mM DTT
Alkylating solution	1× NuPAGE® LDS sample buffer with 50 mM N,N-Dimethylacrylamide (DMA)
Quenching solution	1× NuPAGE® LDS sample buffer with 50 mM DTT and 20% (v/v) ethanol

4.2.4.6. Gel staining

Gels were stained by either one of the following two methods:

- a) Coomassie blue staining. After electrophoresis, the gels were directly stained with Coomassie blue staining solution (detection range $5-10 \mu g$ protein). After $30-60 \mu g$ min at room temperature, the gels were destained using destaining solution.
- b) Silver staining. For higher detection sensitivity $(0.05 0.1 \mu g)$ protein), the gels were

Table 4.25: List of buffers used for Coomassie blue staining.

	Components	Preparation
Coomassie blue staining solution	0.04% (w/v) Coomassie brilliant blue R-250 40% (v/v) ethanol 10% (v/v) acetic acid H ₂ O	1 g 150 mL 50 mL Add to 500 mL
Coomassie blue destaining solution	30% (v/v) ethanol 10% (v/v) acetic acid H ₂ O	150 mL 50 mL Add to 500 mL

stained with silver nitrate (Nesterenko *et al.*, 1994). After electrophoresis, the gel was incubated in fixing solution for 5 min, then rinsed 3 times with water for 5 s and then washed in water for 5 min. The gel was then sequentially treated with 50% acetone for 5 min and 10% Na₂S₂O₃·5H₂O for 1 min, before being rinsed 3 times in water, stained with silver nitrate for 8 min, rinsed 2 more times with water, and finally developed. When the appropriate contrast was achieved, the developing solution was decanted, the gel was washed in acetic acid for 30 sec, and finally rinsed with water.

Alternatively silver staining was performed with the SilverQuestTM silver staining Kit (Invitrogen) following the manufacturer's specifications.

Table 4.26: List of solutions used for silver staining.

Step	Components	Volume
Fixation	50% acetone	60 mL
	50% TCA	1.5 mL
	37% HCHO	25 μL
Pretreatment	50% acetone	60 mL
Pretreatment	10% Na ₂ S ₂ O ₃ ·5H ₂ O	100 μL
	H ₂ O	Add to 60 mL
Staining	20% AgNO ₃	0.8 mL
	37% HCHO	0.6 mL
	H ₂ O	Add to 60 mL
Development	Na ₂ CO ₃	2 g
	37% HCHO	25 μL
	10% Na ₂ S ₂ O ₃ ·5H ₂ O	25 μL
	H ₂ O	Add to 60 mL
Stop	1% acetic acid	6 mL
	H ₂ O	Add to 60 mL

After Coomassie blue or silver staining, the gels were dried under vacuum at 80°C for 90 min (Membrane vacuum pump MP40 & Mididry D62, Biometra) to obtain xerogels on chromatography paper (0.34 mm 3MM Chr, Whatman).

4.2.4.7. Antibody production

In this work, five polyclonal antibodies ($AQUEA_AtpA$, AtpC, AtpG, AtpH, AtpL) were generated against A. aeolicus subunit F_1 - α , F_1 - ϵ , F_1 - γ , F_1 - δ and F_0 -c. These antibodies were raised in rabbits against chemically synthesized peptides coupled to keyhole limpet hemocyanin (KLH), followed by the 70 days immunization protocol. The peptides used were KEALDAFKQKFVP (AtpA),

EWEKEAEKARTLLELVEKYR (*AtpC*), KLSPRDIKRKIQGIKNTKR (*AtpG*), KTINDILNRQIEIEVKEDP (*AtpH*), and RGTQEGVARNPNAGGRLQ (*AtpL*), respectively (Thermo Fisher Scientific). The polyclonal antibodies were obtained from the crude sera by affinity purification (Thermo Fisher Scientific). See Appendix for the antigen profile and immunization protocol.

4.2.4.8. Western blot analysis

The proteins separated on SDS-PAGE gels were transferred to the PVDF membrane using the iBlot® 7-minute Blotting System (Invitrogen) and iBlot® Transfer Stack, PVDF Regular or Mini (Invitrogen). After the transfer was completed, the membrane was incubated in blocking buffer for 1 h at room temperature or overnight at 4 °C. After blocking, the membrane was subjected to immuno-detection using conventional methods. Briefly, the membrane was washed in 1× TBST buffer for 5 min with gentle agitation for 3 times, incubated with the primary antibodies for 1 - 2 h, then washed 3 times with 1× TBST buffer, incubated with the second antibodies conjugated to alkaline phosphase (AP) for 1 h, washed for 5 min (3 times) with 1× TBST buffer, and washed with AP buffer 3 times for 5 min. Finally, the signals were detected using the colorimetric BCIP-NBT detection system (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Alternatively, for faster analysis, the membrane was subjected to immune-detection by the SNAP i.d.® system (Millipore) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

The poly-His-tagged proteins were detected using a monoclonal α -poly-histidine-alkaline phosphatase conjugated antibody (Sigma-Aldrich) (1:2,000 dilution). StrepII-tagged proteins were detected by streptavidin coupled to alkaline phosphatase (Sigma-Aldrich). For detection of subunits F_1 - α , F_1 - γ , F_1 - ϵ F_1 - δ and F_0 - ϵ , the custom peptide polyclonal antibodies $AQUEA_AtpA$, $AQUEA_AtpG$, $AQUEA_AtpC$, $AQUEA_AtpH$, $AQUEA_AtpL$ (1:2,000 dilution) were generated and used as the primary antibodies (Thermo Fisher Scientific, see 4.2.4.7) and monoclonal mouse anti-rabbit IgG conjugated with alkaline phosphatase (Sigma-Aldrich) as the secondary antibody. Finally, for detection of subunit F_1 - β , KHL-conjugated synthetic peptide polyclonal antibody (Agrisera) was used with a 1:2,000 dilution as the primary antibody.

Table 4.27: List of solutions used for Western blot analysis.

Solutions	Components
Transfer buffer (1×)	25 mM Tris/HCl, pH 8.3
	150 mM glycine
	10% (v/v) methanol
TBST buffer (10×)	100 mM Tris/HCl, pH 8.0,
	1.5 M NaCl
	0.5% (v/v) Tween-20
Blocking buffer	1% (w/v) BSA in 1× TBST buffer
Blocking buffer (strep II)	2 μg avidin in 1× TBST buffer
AP buffer	100 mM Tris/HCl, pH 9.5,
	100 mM NaCl,
	5 mM MgCl ₂
BCIP-NBT detection buffer	250 μg/mL BCIP (solubilized in DMF)
	500 μg/mL NBT (solubilized in 70 % DMF)
	in 1× AP buffer
Ponceau S solution	0.1% (w/v) Ponceau S
ronceau 5 solution	5% (v/v) acetic acid

4.2.4.9. Dot blot analysis

Dot blotting was used for preliminary screening of protein expression in crude lysates. For dot blot analysis, PVDF membrane (Immobilon-P, Millipore) strips of 8×11 cm in size were soaked in methanol for 30 sec, washed in water for 5 min, washed with 150 μ L of $1 \times$ transfer buffer (25 mM Tris/HCl, pH 8.3, 150 mM glycine, 10% (v/v) methanol) with the use of 96-well dot blot apparatus (Bio-Rad) and decanted by applying vacuum. 30 μ L of samples (the whole cell lysates prepared in 20% SDS) were then applied on the PVDF membrane and incubated at room temperature for 30 min and decanted by applying vacuum. The PVDF membrane was washed 3 times with 150 μ L of TBST buffer and the buffer decanted by applying a vacuum. Finally, the membrane was developed as described for standard Western blot analyses (see 4.2.4.8).

4.2.4.10. Colony blot analysis

The colony-blot procedure was used to select the clones characterized by the highest protein overexpression phenotypes. Freshly transformed cells were plated on LB-agar plates (master plates) containing the appropriate antibiotics and grown overnight. Successively, the plates were equilibrated at room temperature for 15-30 min, and a sterile nitrocellulose transfer membrane (HATF 0.45 μ m, 82 mm in diameter, Millipore) was placed on the top of the colonies. The nitrocellulose membrane was then transferred to a fresh LB-agar plate (containing 250 mM IPTG and relevant antibiotics) with the colonies side up and expression was carried out at 37 °C for 4 h.

In parallel, the master plates were incubated at 30°C for 4 h to allow the colonies to regrow. The nitrocellulose membrane was then placed in a Petri dish on top of filter paper soaked with the solutions listed in Table 4.28 and incubated at room temperature as follows: 1) 10% SDS solution: 10 min; 2) Denaturing solution: 5 min; 3) Neutralization solution: 5 min; 4) Neutralization solution: 5 min; 5) 2 × SSC: 15 min. Finally, the membrane was developed as described for standard Western blot analyses (see 4.2.4.8).

Table 4.28: List of solution used for colony-blot analysis.

Solution for colony-blot analysis	Compositions
SDS solution	10 % (w/v) SDS
Denaturing solution	0.5 M NaOH 1.5 M NaCl
Neutralization solution	0.5 M Tris/HCl, pH 7.4 1.5 M NaCl
20 × SSC	87.65 g NaCl 50.25 g trisodium citrate·2H ₂ O H ₂ O up to 500 mL

4.2.5. Protein identification by mass spectrometry

4.2.5.1. Preparation of subunit c monomers from native A. aeolicus F_1F_0 ATP synthase

A. aeolicus F_1F_0 ATP synthase was purified as described (Peng et al., 2006). Its subunit c was extracted with organic solvents as described previously (Cattell et al., 1971; von Ballmoos et al., 2002), but with the following modifications. Typically, the sample (250 µg of protein or membrane) was mixed with a 10-fold excess of chloroform/methanol (1:1, v:v) to precipitate insoluble proteins. After centrifugation at room temperature for 5 min at 14,000 × g (Centrifuge 5415D, Eppendorf), 2.5 volumes of 10 mM Tris/HCl pH 8.0 were added to one volume of supernatant to achieve phase separation. The organic phase containing the hydrophobic subunits c was collected. The sample was then evaporated to dryness in a speed vacuum concentrator and stored at -20°C before analysis.

4.2.5.2. DCCD labeling assay

50 μ L of the native AAF₁F₀ at a concentration of 10 mg/mL was dialyzed with Slide-A-lyzer Mini Dialysis Units (MWCO 10 kDa, Pierce) against 1 L of buffer (20 mM Tris/HCl, pH 7.4, 20 mM MgCl₂, 0.05% (w/v) DDM) at 4 °C for 2 - 3 days. After dialysis, the sample was diluted to 2 mg/mL in the same buffer. For screening different NaCl concentrations, AAF₁F₀ (2 mg/mL) was diluted to 1 mg/mL with the same buffer supplemented with appropriate NaCl concentrations (final NaCl concentrations were 0 mM, 10 mM and 100 mM). Then 0.5 μ L of DCCD (100 uM) was added to 50 μ L of AAF₁F₀ (1 mg/mL) to a final concentration of 1 μ M, and incubated at room temperature. 10 μ L aliquots were taken at different time points (0 min (as the unlabeled control), 15 min, 30 min and 120 min, respectively), transferred into new microcentrifuge tubes and mixed with 10-fold excess of chloroform/methanol (1:1, v:v) to prepare the subunit c monomers for MALDI-MS as described above (see 4.2.5.1). Each measurement was performed in triplicate.

4.2.5.3. Peptide mass fingerprinting (PMF)

Identification of SDS-PAGE-separated proteins was performed on reduced and alkylated samples digested with trypsin and chymotrypsin. Instead, proteins to be identified in solution were treated with up to 5 M urea prior to reduction, alkylation and digestion. Using a nano-HPLC (Proxeon easy-nLC), the proteolytic peptides were loaded on reverse phase columns (trapping column: particle size 3μm, C18, L=20mm; analytical column: particle size 3μm, C18, L=15cm; NanoSeparations, Nieuwkoop, The Netherlands), and eluted in gradients of water (0.1% (v/v) formic acid, buffer MS(A)) and acetonitrile (0.1% (v/v) formic acid, buffer MS(B)) with a ramp of 5% to 65% MS(B) in up to 120 minutes at flow rates of 300 nl/min. Peptides eluting from the column were ionized online using a chip-based nano-electrospray source (Advion Triversa NanoMate, 2.5 μm nozzles, "G"-chips, Advion Biosciences, UK) and analysed in a quadrupole time-of-flight mass spectrometer (Bruker maXis). Mass spectra were acquired over the mass range 50-2200 m/z, and sequence information was acquired by computer-controlled, data-dependent automated switching to MS/MS using collision energies based on mass and charge state of the candidate ions.

The data sets were processed using a standard proteomics script with the software Bruker DataAnalysis 4.0 Service Pack 5 Build 283 and exported as Mascot generic files. Spectra were internally recalibrated using autoproteolytic trypsin fragments when applicable.

Proteins were identified by matching the derived mass lists against the NCBI nr database (downloaded from http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/) on a local Mascot server (Version 2.3.02, Matrix

Sciences, UK). In general, a mass tolerance \pm 0.02 Da for parent ion and fragment spectra, two missed cleavages, oxidation of Met and fixed modification of carbamidomethyl cysteine were selected as matching parameters in the search program. PMF was performed by Dr. Julian D Langer and Imke Wuellenweber, at Department of Molecular Membrane Biology, the Max Planck Institute of Biophysics, Frankfurt.

4.2.5.4. MALDI-TOF-MS measurements

Chloroform/methanol extracts were mixed in a 1:1 (v/v) ratio with matrix 2,5-dihydroxyacetophenone (15 mg/mL 2,5-dihydroxyacetophenone in 75% ethanol in 20 mM sodium citrate; Bruker Daltonics) or 2,5-dihydroxybenzoic acid (30 mg of 2,5-dihydroxybenzoic acid/100 µl of TA solution (0.1% trifluoroacetic acid/acetonitrile, 1:2 (v/v); Bruker Daltonics) and spotted on ground steel target plates (Bruker Daltonics). MALDI mass spectra were recorded in a mass range of 5–20 kDa using a Bruker Autoflex III Smartbeam mass spectrometer. Detection was optimized for *m/z* values between 5 and 20 kDa and calibrated using calibration standards (protein molecular weight calibration standard 1; Bruker Daltonics). MALDI-TOF-MS was performed by Dr. Julian D Langer, Imke Wuellenweber and myself, in Department of Molecular Membrane Biology, at the Max Planck Institute of Biophysics, Frankfurt.

4.2.6. Enzymatic activity assays

4.2.6.1. ATP hydrolysis activity assay by phosphate determination

ATP hydrolysis activity was measured monitoring phosphate production using the LeBel method (LeBel *et al.*, 1978) with minor modifications. The standard curve was prepared using 1 mg/mL K_2HPO_4 , corresponding to 0, 0.022, 0.044, 0.088, 0.131 and 0.175 µmol phosphate (Pi). The end volume of all samples was 400 µL. After incubation of samples in 100 µL of reaction buffer (50 mM Tris/HCl, pH 8.0, 3 mM MgCl₂, 10 mM ATP, pH 7.0) for 5 min at 80°C, the reaction was stopped by adding 500 µL 0.5 M trichloroacetic acid (TCA) and placing on ice. 500 µL freshly prepared LeBel-reagent (3.6 M acetic acid, 0.66 M sodium acetate, 20 mM copper sulfate, mixing LeBel-reagent A:B:C with a ratio of 6:1:1 in Table 4.29) was added to the reaction mixture and further incubated for 5 min at room temperature. The absorption of the copper-reduced phosphomolybdate complex was then measured in polystyrene cuvettes (10 × 4 × 45 mm, optical pathway 10 mm, Sarstedt) at room temperature at 745 nm using the Agilent 8453 UV-Vis spectroscopy.

Table 4.29: LeBel-reagent solutions.

Solutions	Components
LeBel-reagent A	0.25% (w/v) CuSO ₄ ·5H ₂ O
	4.6% (w/v) NaAc·3H ₂ O, pH 4.0
LeBel-reagent B	5%(w/v) Ammonium molybdate tetrahydrate
LeBel-reagent C	2% (w/v) 4-methyl-aminophenolhemisulfate
	5% (w/v) Na ₂ SO ₃

4.2.6.2. *In-gel* ATP hydrolysis assays

In-gel ATP hydrolysis assays were performed according to Peters (Peters *et al.*, 1992) with the following modifications. After electrophoresis, the BN-PAGE gel were incubated for 3 h at 80 °C in buffer I (50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0, 3 mM MgCl₂, 10 mM ATP, 0.05% (w/v) DDM, 2 mM Pb (NO₃)₂). After brief washing in water, the gels were stained with 1% (w/v) fresh sodium sulfide. The formation of brown lead sulfide precipitates was observed visually.

4.2.6.3. Preparation of inverted membrane vesicles

The cell suspension from 1 L culture was passed through French Press cell at a pressure of 16,000 psi (40K cell, Thermo Fisher Scientific) for 3 cycles. After cell disruption, the cell debris was removed by two-step centrifugation at 4°C for 30 min at 13,000 × g and 23,000 × g, respectively. The supernatant containing the membrane vesicles was then ultracentrifuged at 4°C for 60 min at 200,000 × g (Rotor 70 Ti) or for 90 min at 150,000 × g (Rotor 45 Ti) (Ultracentrifuge Optima L-90K, Beckman Coulter). The membrane vesicles were resuspended in 1 mL of buffer E (20 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0, 10 mM MgCl₂, 0.2 mM EDTA, 100 mM NaCl, 10% (v/v) glycerol), passed through a 10 mL Sephadex G-50 column (Sigma-Aldrich) prepared by soaking in water overnight, and equilibrated with the same buffer. The inverted membrane vesicles were flash-frozen as drops in liquid nitrogen and stored in liquid nitrogen until use. The inverted membrane vesicles were used for ATP synthesis measurement.

4.2.7. Single particle electron microscopy

EAF₁F_O eluted from Native PAGE gels was negatively stained with 1% (w/v) uranyl acetate. Electron micrographs were collected using a Philips CM120 (FEI, Eindhoven) at an accelerating voltage of 120 kV under low dose conditions. Images were taken at a magnification of $44,000 \times$ on Kodak SO-163 electron image film. The negatives were developed in full-strength D-19 developer for 12 min. Negatives were digitized on a PhotoScan scanner (Z/I Imaging, Aalen, Germany) at a

pixel size of 7 μm. Adjacent pixels were averaged to yield a pixel size on the specimen of 4.77 Å. Approximately 2000 particle images were selected using the boxer program from EMAN (Ludtke *et al.*, 1999) and aligned, classified and averaged using Imagic V (van Heel *et al.*, 1996). Single particle electron microscopy was performed by Dr. Janet Vonck and Matteo Allegretti, in Department of Structural Biology, at the Max Planck Institute of Biophysics, Frankfurt.

4.2.8. Protein crystallization

Crystallization was attempted for subcomplex b_1b_2 . Briefly, the homogeneous and purified protein solutions were concentrated to a final protein concentration of 6-8 mg/mL. Crystallization was then performed following the sitting-drop vapor diffusion method at 18° C. For random screening, 100 nL + 100 nL or 200 nL + 200 nL protein / reservoir drops were equilibrated against 100 µL reservoir solution using nanoliter dispensing robots Honeybee 963 (Cartesian Technologies) and Mosquito (TTP Labtech) in CrystalQuickTM 96-well plates (Greiner Bio-one). All buffers were prepared with ddH_2O (18Ω) and filtered (0.2 µm membrane cut-off) to ensure the highest homogeneity of the particles in solution. The crystallization plates were incubated at 18° C in the robotic incubator Crystal Farm (Bruker) and monitored by automatic imaging and the software crystal farm navigator. No successful crystallization hit was identified to date.

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Appendix

A.1. Bioinformatics

Table A.1: Amino acid compositions of the $\emph{A. aeolicus}\ F_1F_0$ ATP synthase deduced from the respective $\emph{atp}\ genes$

Amino acid	a	С	ca	b ₁	b ₂	δ	α	γ	β	3
Alanine	22	18	13	14	21	11	48	28	31	9
Arginine	6	4	3	8	5	9	28	21	25	2
Asparginine	9	2	2	4	7	5	13	20	10	4
Aspartic Acid	-	-	-	3	1	8	27	12	22	3
Cysteine	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-
Glutamic Acid	10	4	4	25	29	18	47	32	48	21
Glutamine	2	2	2	9	7	4	23	9	20	4
Glycine	14	16	16	1	8	7	43	11	45	9
Histidine	6	1	1	-	3	-	6	3	9	1
Isoleucine	19	9	6	18	14	14	44	17	37	5
Leucine	34	16	14	11	21	29	50	22	36	14
Lysine	9	2	1	17	28	28	32	23	29	12
Methionine	7	7	2	3	3	4	8	6	14	6
Phenylalanine	20	4	4	3	8	6	14	14	18	2
Proline	11	2	1	2	2	6	24	5	25	6
Serine	7	1	1	5	9	7	16	9	13	4
Threonine	7	4	3	9	5	7	19	15	24	7
Tryptophan	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	1	4	1
Tyrosine	10	2	2	3	7	4	21	13	16	6
Valine	23	6	6	9	6	14	38	30	52	16
Total	216	100	81	144	185	181	558	399	503	132

a: mature subunit c without the signal peptide

Table A.2: List of the c-subunits used for multiple-sequence alignments

Group	Label	Organism	Accession number
	>2 ECOLI	Escherichia coli K-12	gi 56404993
	>3 ILYTA	Ilyobacter tartaricus	gi 75526948
	>7 PAVLU	chloroplast Pavlova lutheri	gi 114650
	>9 GEOBB	Geobacter bemidjiensis Bem	gi 224487646
	>10 FUSNN	Fusobacterium nucleatum subsp. nucleatum ATCC 25586	gi 81763577
	>18 THIFE	Acidithiobacillus ferrooxidans	gi 728934
	>19 MYCPE	Mycoplasma penetrans HF-2	gi 81748107
	>23 DEHE1	Dehalococcoides ethenogenes 195	gi 123732469
	>24 RHOS1	Rhodobacter sphaeroides ATCC 17029	gi 224487618
	>26 BIFAA	Bifidobacterium adolescentis ATCC 15703	gi 224487626
	>28 ENTHR	Enterococcus hirae ATCC 9790	gi 114669
	>29 GEOSE	Geobacillus stearothermophilus	gi 1168601
	>30 MOOTA	Moorella thermoacetica ATCC 39073	gi 123739208
	>33 DESOH	Desulfococcus oleovorans Hxd3	gi 224487660
	>35 CYBMR	mitochondrion Cyberlindnera mrakii	gi 3121815
	>36 CLONN	Clostridium novyi NT	gi 224487643
	>39 STRPN	Streptococcus pneumoniae TIGR4	gi 61219626
	>40 BUCAI	Buchnera aphidicola str. APS (Acyrthosiphon pisum)	gi 11131203
	>41 STRCO	Streptomyces coelicolor A3(2)	gi 61219624
	>42 DESPS	Desulfotalea psychrophila LSv54	gi 81692932
	>43 CLOAB	Clostridium acetobutylicum ATCC 824	gi 5915735
	>45 BETVU	mitochondrion Beta vulgaris	gi 114496
	>46 GLUOX	Gluconobacter oxydans 621H	gi 81352056
	>47 VIBPA	Vibrio parahaemolyticus RIMD 2210633	gi 60391832
	>48 SACDO	mitochondrion Saccharomyces douglasii	gi 48428794
	>53 BOVIN	Bos taurus (cattle)	PDB:2XND
	>1 AQUAE	Aquifex aeolicus VF5	gi 3913149
	>6 MYCH2	Mycoplasma hyopneumoniae 232	gi 81378799
	>8 MYCPN	Mycoplasma pneumoniae M129	gi 2493074
	>14 CAMJD	Campylobacter jejuni subsp. doylei 269.97	gi 24487634
	>14 CANIJD	Candidatus Protochlamydia amoebophila UWE25	gi 81697604
	>16 UREU1	Ureaplasma urealyticum serovar 10 str. ATCC 33699	gi 224487686
	>25 MYCS5	Mycoplasma synoviae 53	gi 224487717
	>27 MYCMS	Mycoplasma synoviae 55 Mycoplasma mycoides subsp. mycoides SC str. PG1	gi 81697959
	>31 DESDG	Desulfovibrio alaskensis G20	gi 224487719
	· ·	-	1
	>32 MYCMO	Mycoplasma mobile 163K	gi 81614341
	>34 MESFL	Mesoplasma florum L1	gi 81695704
	>37 SORC5	Sorangium cellulosum So ce56	gi 224487664
	>38 MYCGA	Mycoplasma gallisepticum str. R(low)	gi 33860136
	>44 SYNAS	Syntrophus aciditrophicus SB	gi 224487712
	>4 MOUSE	Mus musculus (house mouse)	gi 51338784
	>5 NEUCR	Neurospora crassa OR74A	gi 114671
	>17 MANSE	Manduca sexta (tobacco hornworm)	gi 12585194
	>49 BOVIN1	Bos taurus (cattle)	gi 416684
	>51 BOVIN2	Bos taurus (cattle)	gi 114680
	>52 BOVIN3	Bos taurus (cattle)	gi 109940311
	>11 DICDI	Dictyostelium discoideum	gi 1718094
	>12 CANTR	Candida tropicalis	gi 2493143
	>13 ENTHI	Entamoeba histolytica	gi 3915253
	>20 ARATH	Arabidopsis thaliana (thale cress)	gi 27923954
	>21 CAEEL	Caenorhabditis elegans	gi 3334407
	>22 NEUCR	Neurospora crassa OR74A	gi 74626388
	>50 BOVIN_V	Bos taurus (cattle)	gi 137477



Figure A1. Sequence alignment of subunit α of F_1F_0 ATP synthases and V_1V_0 ATPases. The sequences of F_1F_0 ATP synthases from A. aeolicus, E. coli, I. tartaricus, bovine and yeast and those of V_1V_0 ATPase from T. thermophilus, H. salinarum, S. acidocaldarius, yeast and bovine are compared. Subunits α are conserved and the conserved residues are highlighted in blue. Nuclear-encoded subunits α possess a mitochondrial targeting sequence. Such N-terminal amino acid sequence is removed from mature subunits α as mitochondrial targeting sequence. It corresponds to the first 43 amino acids of bovine heart ATP synthase.

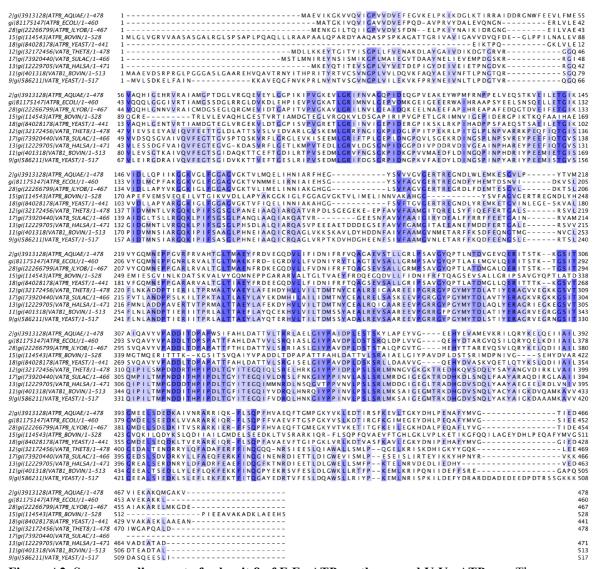


Figure A2. Sequence alignment of subunit β of F_1F_0 ATP synthases and V_1V_0 ATPases. The sequences of F_1F_0 ATP synthases from A. aeolicus, E. coli, I. tartaricus, bovine and yeast and those of V_1V_0 ATPase from T. thermophilus, H. salinarum, S. acidocaldarius, yeast and bovine are compared. Subunits β are highly conserved and the conserved residues are highlighted in blue. Nuclear-encoded subunits β possess a mitochondrial targeting sequence, which corresponds to the first 48 amino acids of bovine heart ATP synthase..

A.2. Codon usage

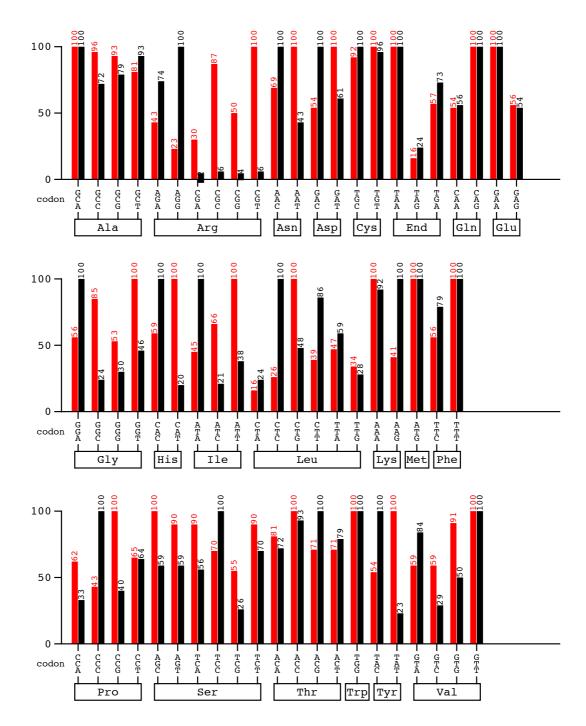


Figure A3. Codon usage difference between A. aeolicus and E. coli analysized by Graphical Codon Usage Analyser (GCAU). Codon tables of E. coli and A. aeolicus are shown in red and black, respectively.

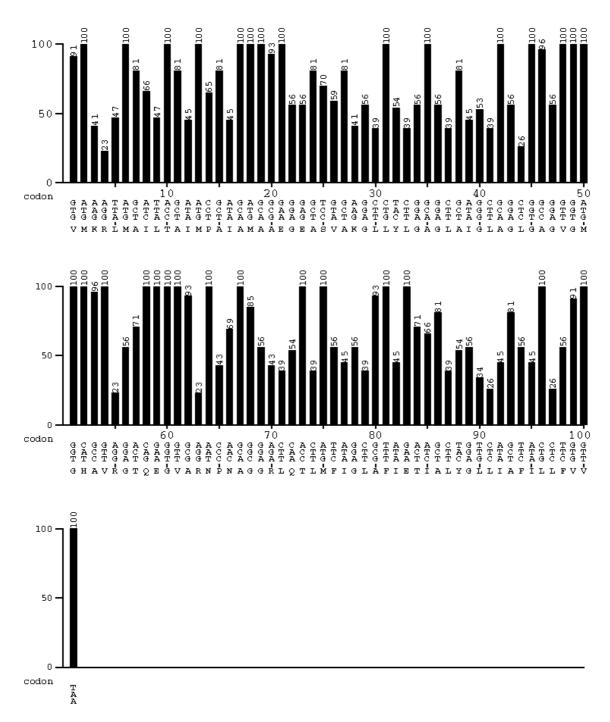


Figure A4. Codon usage in subunit c. The figure reports the codons of subunit c from *A. aeolicus* ATP synthase compared to the codon usage table of *E. coli* analysized by Graphical Codon Usage Analyser (GCAU).

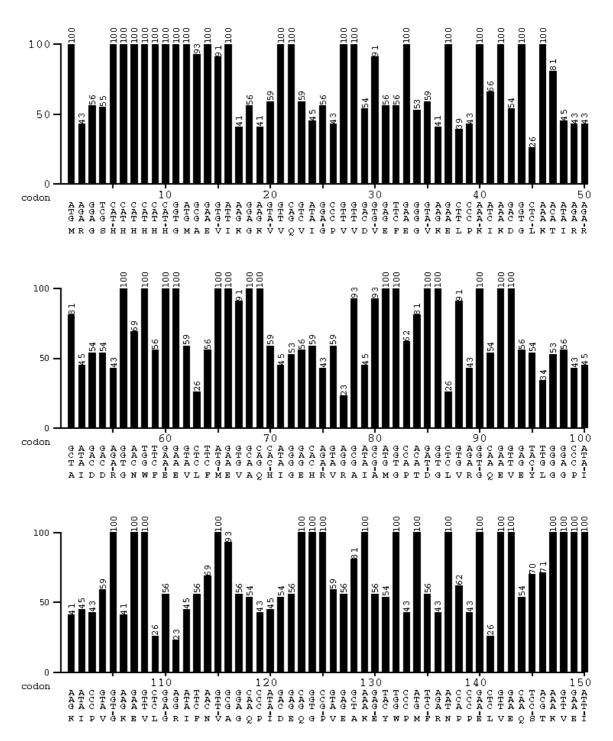


Figure A5. Codon usage in subunit β. The figure reports the codons of subunit β from *A. aeolicus* ATP synthase compared to the codon usage table of *E. coli* analysized by Graphical Codon Usage Analyser (GCAU) (continues).

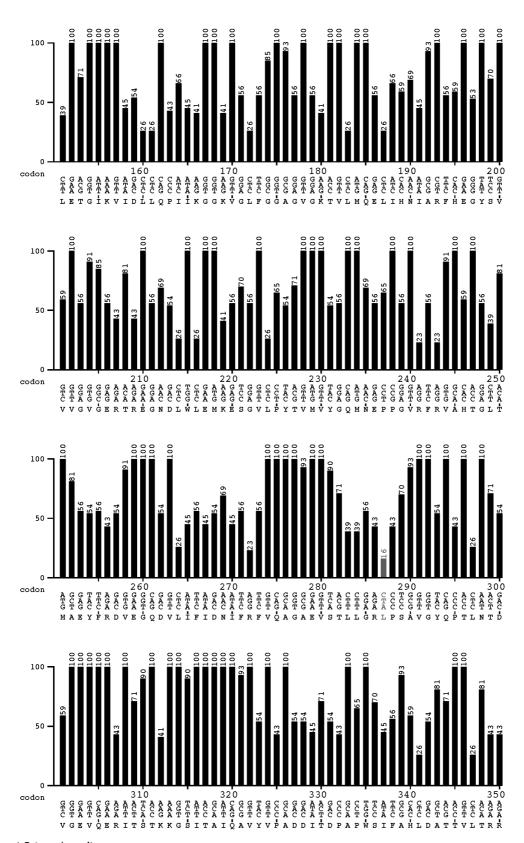


Figure A5 (continued).

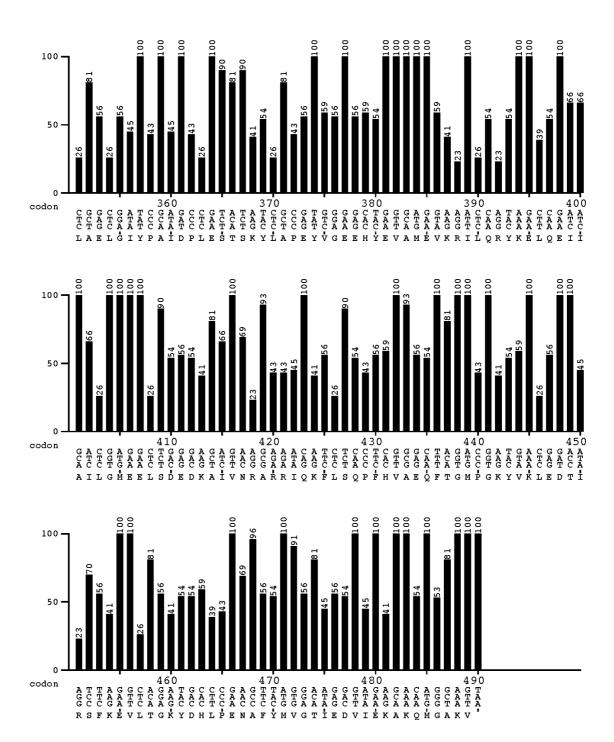


Figure A5 (continued).

A.3. Plasmid maps and DNA sequences

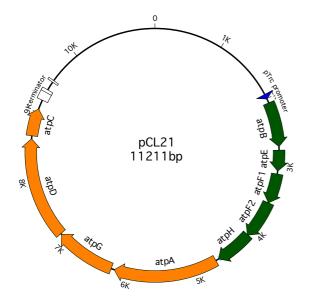


Figure A6. Plasmid map of vector pCL21

pTrc promoter	1935 - 2008
atpB / subunit a (aq_179)	2069 - 2719
atpE / subunit c (aq_177)	2770 - 3072
atpF1 / Subunit b ₁ (aq_1586)	3115 - 3549
atpF2 / Subunit b ₂ (aq_1587)	3549 - 4106
atpH / Subunit δ (aq_1588)	4099 - 4644
atpA / Subunit α (aq_679)	4691 - 6202
atpG / Subunit γ (aq_2041)	6249 - 7124
atpD / Subunit β (aq_2038)	7138 - 8607
atpC / Subunit ε (aq_673)	8650 - 9048
rrnB-teminator	9186 - 9343
rrnB_T1_terminator	9309 - 9352
rrnB_T2_terminator	9484 - 9511

Features

Location

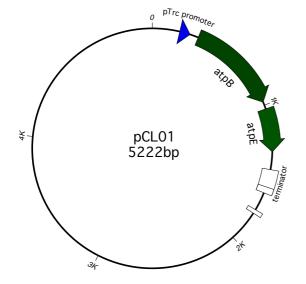
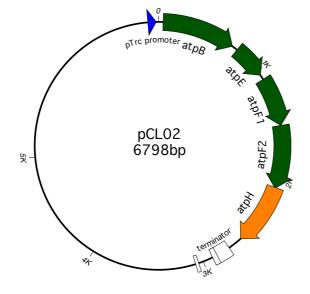


Figure A7. Plasmid map of vector pCL01

Features	Location
pTrc promoter	193 - 266
atpB / subunit a (aq_179)	327 - 977
atpE / subunit c (aq_177)	1022 - 1330
rrnB-teminator	1455 - 1612
rrnB_T1_terminator	1578 - 1621
rrnB_T2_terminator	1753 - 1780
rrnB_T2_terminator	1753 - 1780



Location
6705 - 6778
41 - 691
742 - 1044
1087 - 1521
1521 - 2078
2071 - 2616
2745 - 2902
2868 - 2911
3043 - 3070

Figure A8. Plasmid map of vector pCL02

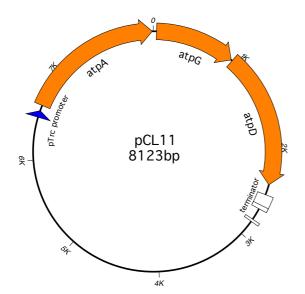
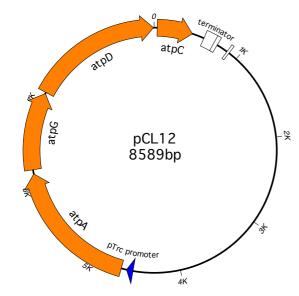


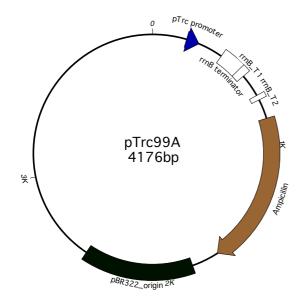
Figure A9. Plasmid map of vector pCL11

Features	Location
pTrc promoter	6467 - 6540
atpA / Subunit α (aq_679)	6601 - 8112
atpG / Subunit γ (aq_2041)	36 - 911
atpD / Subunit β (aq_2038)	925 - 2394
$atpC$ / Subunit ε (aq_673)	8650 - 9048
rrnB-teminator	2507 - 2664
rrnB_T1_terminator	2630 - 2673
rrnB_T2_terminator	2805 - 2832



Features	Location
pTrc promoter	4532 - 4605
atpA / Subunit α (aq_679)	4666 - 6177
atpG / Subunit γ (aq_2041)	6224 - 7099
atpD / Subunit β (aq_2038)	7113 - 8582
atpC / Subunit ε (aq_673)	36 - 434
rrnB-teminator	572 - 729
rrnB_T1_terminator	695 - 738
rrnB_T2_terminator	870 - 897

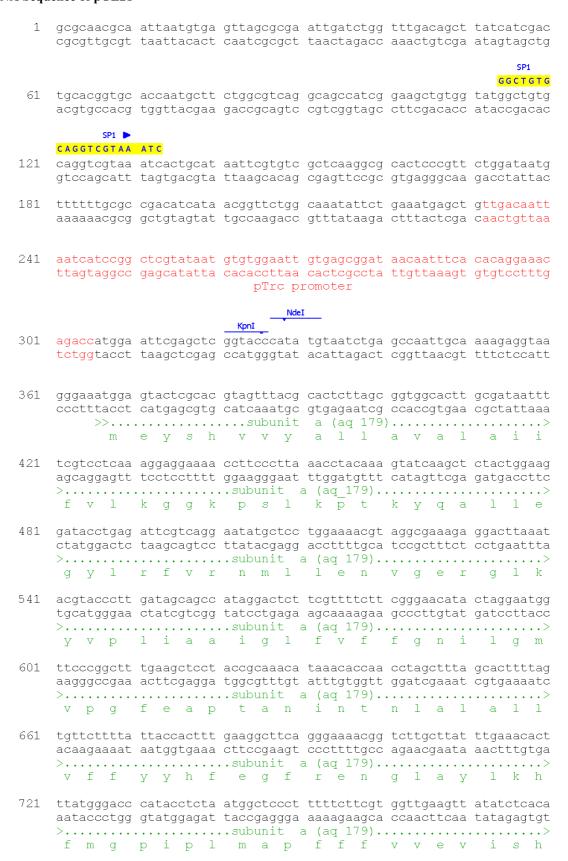
Figure A10. Plasmid map of vector pCL12



Features	Location
pTrc promoter	193 - 266
Ampicillin	846 - 1706
pBR322_origin	1861 - 2480
rrnB-teminator	409 - 566
rrnB_T1_terminator	532 - 575
rrnB_T2_terminator	707 - 734

Figure A11. Plasmid map of empty vector pTrc99A

DNA Sequence of pCL21



SP2 > CCCTC TCCCTCAGGT TATTC 781 tagcaagacc aatcaccctc tccctcaggt tattcgcaaa catgaaagcg ggagcactcc atcgttctgg ttagtgggag agggagtcca ataagcgttt gtactttcgc cctcgtgagg >.....> iar pitl slr lfa n m ka gal 841 tacttettae tttagtaage etggttatea agaateeatt eaegetggta gtateaeegg atgaagaatg aaatcattcg gaccaatagt tettaggtaa gtgcgaccat catagtggcc >.....> l l l t l v s l v i k n p f t l v v s p 901 ttgtgcttat attcgttata gctataaagt tcctcgccat attcatacag acttacatct aacacqaata taaqcaatat cqatatttca aqqaqcqqta taaqtatqtc tqaatqtaqa >.....> v v l i f v i a i k f l a i f i q t y i 961 ttatgatact ctcggtggtt tacatagccg gagctgtagc acacgaggag cactgatatg aatactatga gagccaccaa atgtatcggc ctcgacatcg tgtgctcctc gtgactatac >.....subunit a (aq 179).....>> f m i l s v v y i a g a v a h e e h -1021 aaggtactgc tagtttctta tagttaaata agctttaagg aggtaggtga tgaagaggtt ttccatgacg atcaaagaat atcaatttat tcgaaattcc tccatccact acttctccaa subunit c (aq_177) >>.....> 1081 aatggctatc ttaaccgcta taatgcctgc tatagcaatg gcagcggaag gagaggcttc ttaccgatag aattggcgat attacggacg atatcgttac cgtcgccttc ctctccgaag >.....subunit c (aq 177)...... l m a i l t a i m p a i a m a a e g e a 1141 cgtagctaag ggacttetgt acettggage aggacttget atagggettg caggactegg gcatcgattc cctgaagaca tggaacctcg tcctgaacga tatcccgaac gtcctgagcc >.....> svak gll ylg agla i glagl 1201 tgccggagtt ggtatgggtc atgccgttag gggaactcag gaaggtgttg cgaggaatcc acggcctcaa ccatacccag tacggcaatc cccttgagtc cttccacaac gctccttagg >.....subunit c (aq_177).....> gagv g m g h a v r g t q e g v a r n 1261 caacgcaggc ggaagacttc aaacccttat gttcatagga cttgcgttta tagaaactat gttgcgtccg ccttctgaag tttgggaata caagtatcct gaacgcaaat atctttgata 1321 cgctctttac ggattgctca tagctttcat actgctcttc gtggtttaag cccttagatc gcgagaaatg cctaacgagt atcgaaagta tgacgagaag caccaaattc gggaatctag >.....>> ialy gll iaf illf vv-SP3 🕨 TTAGC GGAGGAGAAG AATGG 1381 tattgctata attgtttagc ggaggagaag aatggacata ggagtaatgc ctaatgcaac ataacgatat taacaaatcg cctcctcttc ttacctgtat cctcattacg gattacgttg >>...Subunit b1 (aq 1586)....> m d i g v m p n a 1441 aatcctcgtt caattgttca tcttcgtaat attcctaatg ataatcacta acatctacgt ttaggagcaa gttaacaagt agaagcatta taaggattac tattagtgat tgtagatgca tilv qlf ifv iflm iit niy

```
1501 aaagccctac accgcggtga tagaatccag agaagaactc attaagaaga acctctctga
    tttcgggatg tggcgccact atcttaggtc tcttcttgag taattcttct tggagagact
    >......>
    v k p y tav i e s r e e l i k k n l s
1561 agcacaaaag ttaagggaag aaactcaaac ctacctcact caggccaaag aagttctcga
    tcgtgttttc aattcccttc tttgagtttg gatggagtga gtccggtttc ttcaagagct
    eaqk lre etq tylt qak evl
1621 agatqcqaaq aaqaqqqcqq atcaaataat tqaaaacqca qqaaqqqaqq cqqaaqctca
    totacgottc ttctcccgcc tagtttatta acttttgcgt ccttccctcc gccttcgagt
    >.....>
    edak kradqi iena qre aea
1681 ggcgagaagc ataatcgagc agacggaaaa acaaaccgaa gaagagatta agaaagcagt
    cogotottog tattagotog totgootttt tgtttggott ottototaat totttogtoa
    >.....>
    qarsiie qte k qte eei k k a
1741 ggaggaaatc agaacctcct tagaagaaga gaagaagaag ctcgaaaagt ccgtaaagga
    cctcctttag tcttggagga atcttcttct cttcttcttc gagcttttca ggcatttcct
    veei rts lee ekkk lek svk
1801 aatagctcag gaaattgtaa agaaaatttt gagagaggcg gcgtgatggt gaggttgata
    ttatcqaqtc ctttaacatt tcttttaaaa ctctctccqc cqcactacca ctccaactat
    >......Subunit b1 (aq 1586).....>>
    eiaqeivkki lrea a-
                       Subunit b2 (aq 1587) >>.....
1861 agtttcttaa ctctggcttc tacttttgct tacgcgggtg aaggacattt gggacactcc
    tcaaagaatt gagaccgaag atgaaaacga atgcgcccac ttcctgtaaa ccctgtgagg
    >.....>
    sfl tlastfa y ag egh lghs
1921 cccggagcgc tgatctggaa agggctcaac atactcgcgt tcctcggaat agtttactac
    gggcctcgcg actagacctt tcccgagttg tatgagcgca aggagcctta tcaaatgatg
    >......>
p g a l i w k g l n i l a f l g i v y y
1981 tttggaaaaa aacccataag cgaagccttt aacaagttct acaactcaat agtggagagc
    aaaccttttt ttgggtattc gcttcggaaa ttgttcaaga tgttgagtta tcacctctcg
    >.....> (aq 1587).....
    fgk kpi seaf nkf yns ives
2041 ctcqtaaacq caqaaaqaqa qttcatqatq qcaaqqqaqq aactttcaaa aqctaaaqaq
    gagcatttgc gtctttctct caagtactac cgttccctcc ttgaaagttt tcgatttctc
    >.....>
    lvn aerefmm are els kake
                           SP4_new >
                     GGCACAG GAATACGAGA AAC
2101 gaactcgaaa atgcgaagaa aaaggcacag gaatacgaga aactcgcaat agaaaccgcg
    cttgagettt taegettett ttteegtgte ettatgetet ttgagegtta tetttggege
    >.....> (aq 1587).....
    ele nak kkaqeye kla i eta
2161 gaaacggaaa agaaaaagat actccagcac gcccaggaag tttccgaaag gataaaggaa
    ctttgccttt tcttttcta tgaggtcgtg cgggtccttc aaaggctttc ctatttcctt
    >.....Subunit b2 (aq 1587).....
    etekkkilqhaqevserike
```

SP4 🕨 AGGCTAAGG AGACGATAGA G aaggctaagg agacgataga gattgaactg aataaagcta agaaagaact cgccctttac 2221 ttccgattcc tctgctatct ctaacttgac ttatttcgat tctttcttga gcgggaaatg >.....> kak eti eiel n ka k ke laly 2281 ggaatacaga aggctgaaga aatagcaaag gatcttctcc aaaaagaatt caagaagtcc ccttatqtct tccqacttct ttatcqtttc ctaqaaqaqq tttttcttaa qttcttcaqq >.....> giq kae eiak dll qke fkks 2341 aaagttcagg aaaagtacat agaggctcag ttaaagctcc tggaggagag gaagaatgct tttcaaqtcc ttttcatqta tctccqaqtc aatttcqaqq acctcctctc cttcttacqa >.....> kvq eky ieaq lkl leerkna Subunit delta (aq 1588) >>..> 2401 taagaggaaa gaactcgcaa ggaaggctgt aaggctcata gtaaagaagg ttccaaagga attctccttt cttgagcgtt ccttccgaca ttccgagtat catttcttcc aaggtttcct >>> Subunit b2 (aq 1587) >.....Subunit delta (aq 1588)...... lkrk elarkavrli vkk vpk aaaggaaagc atcttaaagg ttgacgagtt cttaggaacc ctttccacag cttacaggaa tttcctttcg tagaatttcc aactgctcaa gaatccttgg gaaaggtgtc gaatgtcctt >.....> ekesilk vde flgt lst ayr 2521 qqacaaactc ctgagaaact tcttcctgtc gccccaaata gacagaaacg caaaggtaaa cctgtttgag gactctttga agaaggacag cggggtttat ctgtctttgc gtttccattt >......> k d k l l r n f f l s p q i d r n a k v 2581 agccctcgag tcacttgcga agaagtacga cgttccgaag gaagttctcg aagttctcga togggagete agtgaacget tetteatget geaaggette etteaagage tteaagaget >.....> kale sla kky dv pk evl evl gtacctcata gatataaacg ccatggctct tattccggag ataaagagac tatacgaatt catggagtat ctatatttgc ggtaccgaga ataaggcctc tatttctctg atatgcttaa eyli din ama lipe i kr lye agaactegaa aageteatgg gaatgettaa aggggaaete ataettgeaa agaaaceeag tottgagott ttcgagtacc cttacgaatt tccccttgag tatgaacgtt tctttgggtc >......> lele klm gml kgel ila kkp 2761 taaaaaactc ctagaaaaga ttacaaagac cataaacgat atcctaaaca gacagataga attitttgag gatcttttct aatgtttctg gtatttgcta taggatttgt ctgtctatct SP5_new GGAGGACC CTTCCCTTAT AG 2821 aattgaagta aaggaggacc cttcccttat aggtggtttt gtcttcaaga cgcaggcttt ttaacttcat ttcctcctgg gaagggaata tccaccaaaa cagaagttct gcgtccgaaa >.....> e i e v k e d p s l i g g f v f k t q a

[S5] Primer GTGTTTA 2881 cgttctggac acttctgtta aaacccagct tgaaaaactc gcaagagttg gaggtgttta gcaagacctg tgaagacaat tttgggtcga actttttgag cgttctcaac ctccacaaat f v l d t s v k t q l e k l a r v g g v BamHI [S5] Primer AATGGCCGTA GGG 2941 aatqqccqta qqqatccaaa cctttaaaqa aqqttaqqaq qtaqaqtatq qctacactqa ttaccggcat ccctaggttt ggaaatttct tccaatcctc catctcatac cgatgtgact > Subunit delta (aq 1588) Subunit alpha (aq 679) >>..... m at l3001 cttatgagga agcccttgag atactaagac aacagataaa ggatttcgaa cctgaagcca gaatactcct tcgggaactc tatgattctg ttgtctattt cctaaagctt ggacttcggt >.....> tye eale ilr qqi kdfe pea 3061 aaatggaaga agtaggtgta gtttactacg tcggtgatgg tgtagcaagg gcttacggtc tttaccttct tcatccacat caaatgatgc agccactacc acatcgttcc cgaatgccag >.....> kme evgv vyy vgd gvar ayg 3121 ttqaaaacqt aatqqcqatq qaaataqtaq aqtttcaqqq aqqqcaacaq qqaataqcct aacttttgca ttaccqctac ctttatcatc tcaaaqtccc tcccqttgtc ccttatcqqa len v m a m e i v e f q g g q q i a 3181 tcaacctcga agaggacaac gttggtatca taatcctcgg ttctgaaacg ggaatagaag agttggagct tctcctgttg caaccatagt attaggagcc aagactttgc ccttatcttc fnleedn vgi iilgset gie 3241 aagggcacat agtaaagaga acgggcagga tattggacgc tcccgttgga gaaggactcg ttcccgtgta tcatttctct tgcccgtcct ataacctgcg agggcaacct cttcctgagc >......>
e g h i v k r t g r i l d a p v g e g l 3301 ttggaagggt tatcgaccc ctcggaaacc ccctcgatgg taaaggaccc attcagtttg aaccttccca atagctgggg gagcctttgg gggagctacc atttcctggg taagtcaaac >.....> vgr vidp lgn pld g k g p i q f 3361 aataccgttc cccagttgaa aagatcgcac ccggtgttgt aaagagaaaa cccgttcacg ttatggcaag gggtcaactt ttctagcgtg ggccacaaca tttctctttt gggcaagtgc evr spve kiapqv vkrk pvh 3421 aaccccttca aacaggtatt aaagctatag acgctatgat tccaatagga aggggacaga ttggggaagt ttgtccataa tttcgatatc tgcgatacta aggttatcct tcccctgtct epl q t g i k a i d a m i p i g r g q SP6_new > AGACCAC TGTTGCGATA GAC 3481 gagagettat categgtgac agggetaegg gtaagaceae tgttgegata gacaceatae ctctcgaata gtagccactg tcccgatgcc cattctggtg acaacgctat ctgtggtatg reliigdrat gkt tvai dti

																			SP6
3541	tcgctca agcgagt	ttt	ctt	gtc	act	a c	aaa	tga	.cat	aaa	tgc	atcg	gc.	atc	ctg	tc	tttt	ctc	gcc
	l a		k																
3601	cgatago gctatco > a i	gag gctc	act tga 	cat gta	tga act	c g .Su	gagg ibun	aac it	ttt alph	ctc na (ttc aq	ctcg 679)	at.	acc	tta 	tg 	tggt	gtc	aac >
3661	ttgtago aacatco >	gaag	tcg	tag 	tct	a g .Su	ıggc ıbun	gta it	.gtg alph	agg ıa (tca aq	tgga 679)	gc	gtg	gga •••	аа 	caac	cta	cat
3721	cgatago gctatco > t i	ccct	cat 	gaa 	gtc	t c .Su	tgt bun	tgc it	ctt alph	tcg na (tgc aq	gtga 679)	gt.	agt.	ata 	tg 	ctgc	ctgg	aca >
3781	ccaagca ggttcgt > s k	gcg	cct 	tag	aat	g t .Su	ctg bun	tcg it	aga alph	gtg na (agg aq	agta 679)	ct.	ctt	ctg •••	ga •••	gggc	cat	ctc >
3841	aagctta ttcgaat > e a	ggg	gcc	act	.gca	c a .Su	iaga ibun	tgg it	agg alph	tga 1a (gtt aq_	ctga 679)	gg	aac 	ttt •••	ct 	cgac	gtt	ttg >
3901	ttaacga aattgct > l n	gct	gga •••	gcc	ccg	t c .Su	caa lbun	gag it	agt alph	gcc na (gta aq	acgg 679)	gt.	att.	aac •••	tt 	tgct	ttc	gcc >
3961	gtgacgt cactgca > g d	agcg	ccg	aat 	.gta	a g .Su	ıggt ıbun	gāt it	tgc alph	aat na (aga aq	ggta 679)	at.	gtc 	tgc 	ct 	gtct	ata	tgg >
4021	tcgaagc agcttcg > l e	gāāt 	gga 	gaa 	gtt	g t .Su	ttc bun	cat it	att alph	ētg a (gac aq	gata 679)	at	tgč 	atc 	с̄а •••	gaaa	ıgcc	aaa >
4081	ccagagt ggtctca > s r	agcc	acc	acg	ccg	t g .Su	stat Ibun	att it	tcc alph	gat na (act aq	ttgt 679)	cc.	aac	gcc •••	ct 	tggg	gagt	ctg
4141	tcgaact agcttga > l e	acg	agt 	caa 	gtc •••	t c	ttg bun	aac it	ttc alph	gaa ıa (agc aq	aagt 679)	ca.	agc ···	gaa •••	gā •••	ātto	gaac	tat
																			SP7 A A C
4201	aggcaac tccgttc >k	gggt 	āgt 	tgt 	tta •••	g t .Su	tgt ibun	ata it	cag alph	act na (ctg aq	agca 679)	tc	ttg.	agg •••	аċ •••	ttag	gttc 	ttg >

SP7 🕨 CCTACAACCC GATAC 4261 cctacaaccc gatacccgtt gaaaaacaaa tcgttctcat atacgccgga acgcacggat ggatgttggg ctatgggcaa ctttttgttt agcaagagta tatgcggcct tgcgtgccta >.....> pyn pip v ekqivliyag thg 4321 acctcgacga cattcccgta gagtctgtaa gaaagtttga aaaggaactc tacgcttacc tggagctgct gtaagggcat ctcagacatt ctttcaaact tttccttgag atgcgaatgg yld dip v e s v r k f e k e l y a y 4381 tagacaacga aagaccggac atactcaagg agataagtga aaagaagaaa ctcgacgaag atotqttqct ttctqqcctq tatqaqttcc tctattcact tttcttcttt qaqctqcttc >.....> ldn erpd ilk e isekkklde 4441 aactagagaa gaagataaaa gaggcgctcg acgccttcaa gcaaaagttc gttccctaac ttgatctctt cttctatttt ctccgcgagc tgcggaagtt cgttttcaag caagggattg >.....Subunit alpha (aq 679).....>> ele k k i k e a l d a f k q k f v p -XbaI 4501 totocotoot otagatttag acattagttt ataataagta gogttatggo gaaactttot agagggagga gatctaaatc tgtaatcaaa tattattcat cgcaataccg ctttgaaaga Subunit gamma (aq 2041) >>..... m akls 4561 cccagggaca taaagagaaa gatacaggga ataaagaaca cgaagagaat aacgaacgcg gggtccctgt atttctcttt ctatgtccct tatttcttgt gcttctctta ttgcttgcgc >......Subunit gamma (aq 2041).....> prd i kr kiqqikn tkr i tna 4621 atgaaagtcg tttccgccgc aaaactcagg aaagctcagg aactcgttta cgcttcccgt tactttcagc aaaggcggcg ttttgagtcc tttcgagtcc ttgagcaaat gcgaagggca >......Subunit gamma (aq 2041).....> m k v v s a a k l r k a q e l v y a s r 4681 ccctactcgg agaaactcta cgaactcgta ggacatctcg ctgcccatgt ggacacggaa gggatgagcc tctttgagat gcttgagcat cctgtagagc gacgggtaca cctgtgcctt >.....> pysekl yelv ghlaah vdte 4741 gataatcccc tctttgacgt gagggaagaa agaaacgttg acgttatcct cgttaccgca ctattagggg agaaactgca ctcccttctt tctttgcaac tgcaatagga gcaatggcgt >......> Subunit gamma (aq_2041)..... dnplfdvreernvdvilvta 4801 gacaggggtc tcgcgggagc tttcaattca aacgtaatca gaacagcgga aaatttaata ctgtccccag agcgccctcg aaagttaagt ttgcattagt cttgtcgcct tttaaattat drg lag afns nvirta en li 4861 agggagaagg aagaaaaggg tgttaaggtt agccttatac ttgtggggag aaagggcttt tocctottcc ttottttccc acaattccaa toggaatatg aacacccotc tttcccgaaa >......> ida (aq 2041)...... rekeek gvkv sli lvg rkgf 4921 cagtacttta cgaagagggg atacaacgta ataaagggat acgatgaagt ttttagaaag gtcatgaaat gcttctcccc tatgttgcat tatttcccta tgctacttca aaaatctttc

SP8 4981 accgtaaact tcaatgtggc taaagaggtg gcagaaatag taaaggagag gttcttaaac tggcatttga agttacaccg atttctccac cgtctttatc atttcctctc caagaatttg >.....> t v n f n v a k e v a e i v k e r f l n SP8 GGAGAAACCG ATAGGG 5041 ggagaaaccg atagggttta cttgataaac aacgagatgg tcacgagggc gagctacaaa cctctttggc tatcccaaat gaactatttg ttgctctacc agtgctcccg ctcgatgttt >.....> get drv ylin nem vtr asyk 5101 cctcaggtaa gggtcttcct gccttttgaa gcccaagaaa aagaagtgga agagcttgga ggagtccatt cccagaagga cggaaaactt cgggttcttt ttcttcacct tctcgaacct >.....> pqvrvflpfeaqekeveelg 5161 acttacgagt ttgaagtctc agaagaggag ttctttgact acatagtaaa cctgtacctt tgaatgctca aacttcagag tcttctcctc aagaaactga tgtatcattt ggacatggaa >.....> tye fev seee f f d y i v n l y l aactaccagg tatacagggc tatggttgag tccaacgcgg cggagcactt cgcgaggatg ttgatggtcc atatgtcccg ataccaactc aggttgcgcc gcctcgtgaa gcgctcctac >.....> nyq vyr am ve sna aeh farm 5281 atagcgatgg acaacgcaac caagaacgca gaggacctaa taaggcagtg gaccctcgtg tatogctacc tgttgcgttg gttcttgcgt ctcctggatt attccgtcac ctgggagcac >.....> iam dna tkna e dlirqwtlv 5341 ttcaacaagg caaggcagga agctattaca accgaactta tagatataac caacgctgtt aagttgttcc gttccgtcct tcgataatgt tggcttgaat atctatattg gttgcgacaa >.....> fnk arqeait telidi tnav 5401 gaagototta aagoacaata aaggaggttt atagatgaga ggatogcato atcatoatca cttcgagaat ttcgtgttat ttcctccaaa tatctactct cctagcgtag tagtagtagt >.....>> Subunit gamma (aq 2041) eal kaq->>.Subunit beta (aq 2038)..> mrgsh h h 5461 tcatggtatg gcggaagtga ttaagggaaa ggtagttcag gtcataggac ccgttgttga agtaccatac cgccttcact aattcccttt ccatcaagtc cagtatcctg ggcaacaact >.....> hhgmaevikg kvvq vig p v v 5521 cgtggagttc gaaggggtaa aggaacttcc caaaatcaaa gacggtctca aaacaataag gcacctcaag cttccccatt tccttgaagg gttttagttt ctgccagagt tttgttattc >.....> dvefegv kelpkik dgl kti 5581 aaqagctata gacgacagag gtaactggtt cgaagaagta ctcttcatgg aagtggcaca ttctcgatat ctgctgtctc cattgaccaa gcttcttcat gagaagtacc ttcaccgtgt >.....> rraiddr gnw feevlfm eva 5641 gcacataggg gagcacagag taagggcgat agcgatgggt ccaacagatg gtctcgtgag cgtgtatccc ctcgtgtctc attcccgcta tcgctaccca ggttgtctac cagagcactc >.....> qhig ehr vra iam g ptd glv

5701	>	caactcatga	acccccctgg Subunit beta	gtatttctat a (aq 2038)	cccgtaggta gggcatccat p v g	tccttcaaga
			SP9 ▶			
5761	>	ttcaacgttg aagttgcaac	gccctgttgg Subunit beta	catagacgag gtatctgctc a (aq 2038)	cagggtccgg gtcccaggcc q g p	atctccgatt
5821	>	gggtacaagt	ctttaggtgg Subunit beta	gcttgagcaa a (aq 2038)	gaacaatcca cttgttaggt e q s	gctttcaact
5881	ttaagaactt	tgcccataat	ttcaatatct Subunit beta	ggaggaggtc a (aq 2038)	cccatcataa gggtagtatt p i i	tcccaccatt
5941	ccaacctgag	aagccgccac	gccctcaacc Subunit beta	tttctggcaa a (aq_2038)	ctcatgcagg gagtacgtcc l m q	tcgagtaggt
6001	>	gcaaaggtgc	ttcccataag Subunit beta	gcaacagcaa a (aq 2038)	ggagtgggcg cctcacccgc g v g	tctcttgttc
6061	>	ctggagaccg	agctttactt Subunit beta	cctcaggcct a (aq 2038)	gttctccctt caagagggaa v l p	tgtgccaata
6121	ccaaatgcct	gtctacttgc	toggaggood Subunit beta	tcaatccaag a (aq_2038)	agggtggcac tcccaccgtg r v a	tgtggcctga
6181	>	ctcatgaagt	ctctgcacct Subunit beta	tccagtcctg a (ag 2038)	gttctcatat caagagtata v l i	agtatctgtt
6241	>	aagcaagtcc	gtccacgcct Subunit beta	tcaaagttgc a (aq 2038)	cttcttggaa gaagaacctt l l g	ctgatgggag
6301	>	atggtcgggt	gggagttatg Subunit beta	actgcagcca a (aq 2038)	gaagttcagg cttcaagtcc e v q	tttcttaatg
6361	>	tttccaagat	aatggcgtta Subunit beta	agtccgccaa a (aq 2038)	tacgttcccg atgcaagggc y v p	gtctgctgta
		C.C.T.	SP10 ► CCATATTCGC	CCACCEC		
6421	aactgacccc				gctacgaccg	ttctcacaag

xlv

6481	ttctgagcga >	ctcgagcctt	tatatcccgc atatagggcg Subunit beta i y p	ttatctaggg (aq 2038).	gagcttagat 	gtagattcat
6541	ggagcgaggg >	ctcatacagc	gagaagagca ctcttctcgt Subunit beta g e e	gatgcttcaa (aq 2038).	cgttaccttc	atttctccta
6601	agaggtttcc >	atgtttcttg	ttcaagaaat aagttcttta Subunit beta l q e	gtagcgttag a (aq 2038).	gagccatacc	ttcttgagag
6661	actgctcctg >	ttccgatagc	ttaacagggc aattgtcccg Subunit beta v n r	ctcttcttat (aq_2038)	gtcttcaagg	agagagttgg
6721	<pre>gaaggtgcaa ></pre>	cgcctcgtta	ttacaggtat aatgtccata Subunit beta f t g	cgggccattc (aq 2038)	atgcattttg	agctcctatg
6781	<pre>gtattccagg ></pre>	aagttccttc	ttctcacagg aagagtgtcc Subunit beta v l t	tttcatgctg a (aq 2038).	gtggaagggc 	ttttgcggaa
6841	gatgtaccac	ccttgttatc	aggacgttat tcctgcaata Subunit beta e d v	tcttttccgt (aq_2038).	tttgtttacc	cccgatttca
6901	aattcgggga		_	catattaaat		atgtccaact
			Subulife	epsiion (ad	- · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	i q v
6961	ttatcaaaga	ggcgtccctt	tggtttactc accaaatgag .bunit epsil m v y	ccctcttcat on (aq_673)	ctctcgcatt)	tgcaggggtg
		GAGGTGGGAA				
7021	ccaacttcct >	ctccaccctt	tccttgaaaa aggaactttt ubunit epsil i l e	ggtgtacatg on (aq 673)	gactactggg	agaactttgg
7081	acctgaacaa	atgaagttgc Si	gtgacgacaa cactgctgtt ıbunit epsil g d d	tttgccttat on (aq 673)	cgacattgga)	tgccgcaaga
7141	cctgcagtgg >	ggggttttcc Sı	ttctcattct aagagtaaga ubunit epsil	acgccttctt on (aq 673)	cgaatgcttc	agccttttga

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7201 tcctccagca agcaagctaa aagaagagtt tgaagaagcc gtgaagaaaa tggcaaccgc
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     >.....>
     l p p a s k l k e e f e e a v k k m a t
7261 ccaaactatg gaagagttaa aagagtggga gaaggaagca gaaaaggcaa gaactctctt
     qqtttqatac cttctcaatt ttctcaccct cttccttcqt cttttccqtt cttqaqaqaa
     >.....> in Subunit epsilon (ag 673).....>
     aqtmeel kewekea ekartl
                                                             SmaI
                                                            XmaI
7321 agaactcgtt gaaaagtaca gataactcaa aacccgtccc cttctttcgg ggaaaacccg
     tcttqaqcaa cttttcatqt ctattqaqtt ttqqqcaqqq qaaqaaaqcc ccttttqqqc
     >.....>> Subunit epsilon (aq 673)
     lelveky r
       PstI
7381 ggctgcaggc atgcaagctt ggctgttttg gcggatgaga gaagattttc agcctgatac
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     Ampicillin promoter
                                                    Ampicillin >
7921 tgagtattca acatttccgt gtcgccctta ttcccttttt tgcggcattt tgccttcctg
     actcataagt tgtaaaggca cagcgggaat aagggaaaaa acgccgtaaa acggaaggac
     >.....>
     m si q h f r v a l i p f f a a f c l p
7981 tttttgctca cccagaaacg ctggtgaaag taaaagatgc tgaagatcag ttgggtgcac
     aaaaacgagt gggtctttgc gaccactttc attttctacg acttctagtc aacccacgtg
                 ......Ampicillin.....
     v f a h p e t l v k v k d a e d q l g a
8041 gagtgggtta catcgaactg gatctcaaca gcggtaagat ccttgagagt tttcgccccg
```

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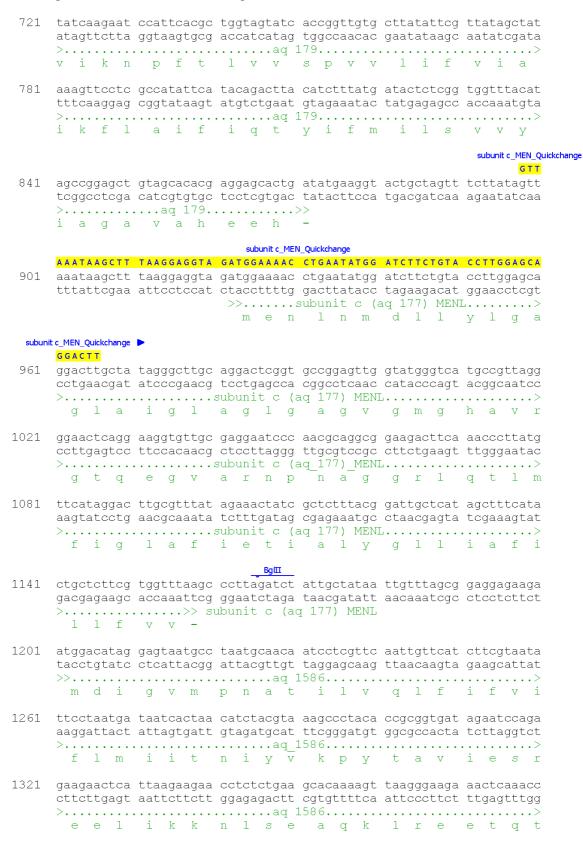
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		t i k				
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		s q g				
11101	ttttcttttt >	ccaccctggc ggtgggaccg t t l	cgggttatgc la	gtttggcgga cI	gaggggcgcg	caaccggcta >
11161	agtaattacg	agctggcacg tcgaccgtgc	tgtccaaagg	gctgaccttt	cgcccgtcac	t
	s 1 m	a la	r a v s	r 1 e	s a a	_

DNA sequence of subunit c in the vector pCL21- Δ SP

1	tigtgettat attegttata getataaagt teetegeeat atteatacag aettaeatet aacacgaata taagcaatat egatatttea aggageggta taagtatgte tgaatgtaga >>'aq 179> v l i f v i a i k f l a i f i q t y i	
61	ttatgatact ctcggtggtt tacatagccg gagctgtagc acacgaggag cactgatatg aatactatga gagccaccaa atgtatcggc ctcgacatcg tgtgctcctc gtgactatac>'aq 179>> f m i l s v v y i a g a v a h e e h -	
	Del2-19-Fw G CGGAAGGAGA	
	■ Del2-19-Rev	
	CGAAATTCC TCCATCCAC Del_A2-19_Quickchange	
101	GTTAAATA AGCTTTAAGG AGGTAGGTGG CGGAAGGAGA	
121	<pre>aaggtactgc tagtttctta tagttaaata agctttaagg aggtaggtgg cggaaggaga ttccatgacg atcaaagaat atcaatttat tcgaaattcc tccatccacc gccttcctct</pre>	
	Subunit c('aq_177) >> a e g	
	Del2-19-Fw ► GGCTTCC	
	Del_A2-19_Quickchange ►	
181	GGCTTCCGTA GCTAAGGG qqcttccqta qctaaqqqac ttctqtacct tqqaqcaqqa cttqctataq qqcttqcaqq	
	ccgaaggcat cgattccctg aagacatgga acctcgtcct gaacgatatc ccgaacgtcc	
	>	
241	actcggtgcc ggagttggta tgggtcatgc cgttagggga actcaggaag gtgttgcgag	
	tgagccacgg cctcaaccat acccagtacg gcaatcccct tgagtccttc cacaacgctc >Subunit c('aq 177)>	
	glgagvg mgh a \overline{v} rg tqegva	
301	gaatcccaac gcaggcggaa gacttcaaac ccttatgttc ataggacttg cgtttataga	
	<pre>cttagggttg cgtccgcctt ctgaagtttg ggaatacaag tatcctgaac gcaaatatct >Subunit c('aq 177)></pre>	
	rnpn aggrlq tlmf igl afi	
361	aactatcgct ctttacggat tgctcatagc tttcatactg ctcttcgtgg tttaagccct	
	<pre>ttgatagcga gaaatgccta acgagtatcg aaagtatgac gagaagcacc aaattcggga >Subunit c('aq 177)>></pre>	
	etialyglliafillfvv-	
	<u>BglII</u>	
421	tagatctatt gctataattg tttagcggag gagaagaatg gacataggag taatgcctaa	
	atotagataa ogatattaac aaatogooto otottottac otgtatooto attaoggatt >>aq 1586> m d i g v m p	
481	tgcaacaatc ctcgttcaat tgttcatctt cgtaatattc ctaatgataa tcactaacat	
	<pre>acgttgttag gagcaagtta acaagtagaa gcattataag gattactatt agtgattgta >aq_1586></pre>	
	natilvqlfifviflmiitn	
541	ctacgtaaag ccctacaccg cggtgataga atccagagaa gaactcatta agaagaacct	
	<pre>gatgcatttc gggatgtggc gccactatct taggtctctt cttgagtaat tcttcttgga >aq 1586></pre>	
	iyvk pyt avi [*] esre eli kkn	

DNA sequence of subunit c of the vector pCL-MEN



A.4. Antibodies generation

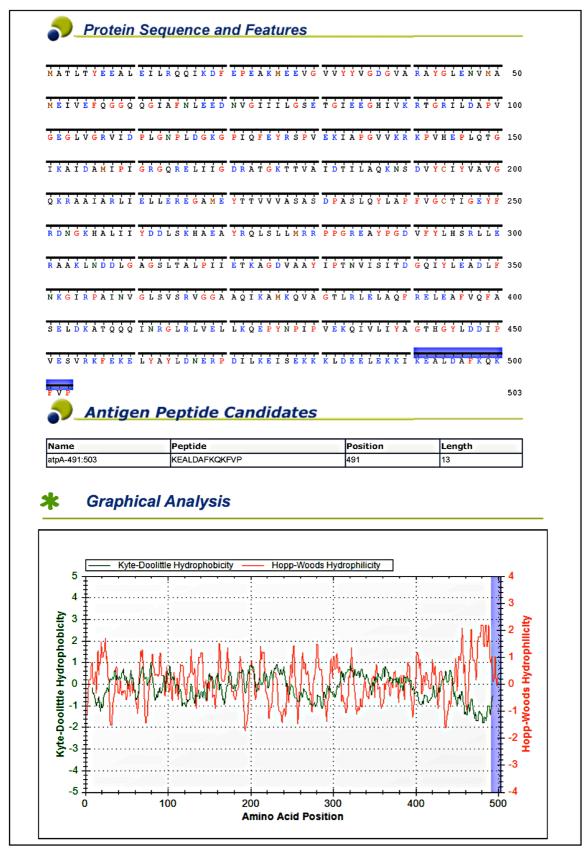


Figure A.12. Antigen profile of subunit α

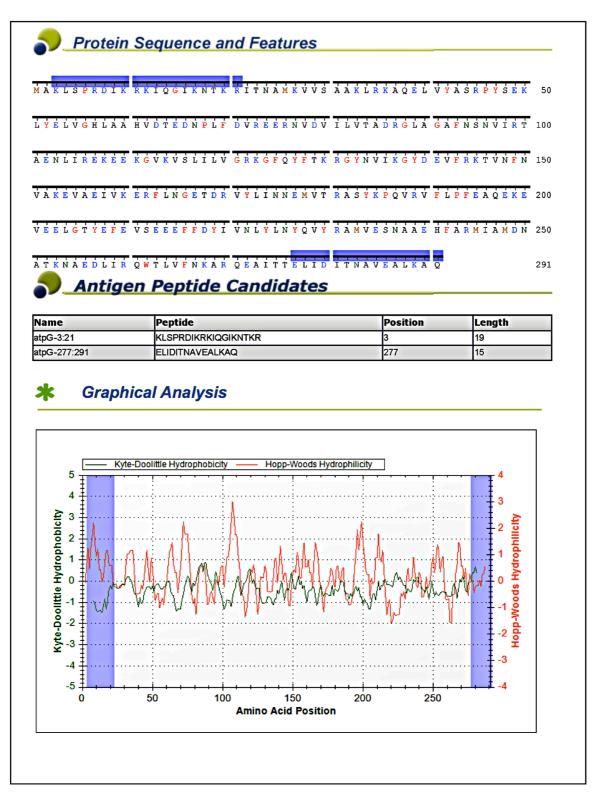


Figure A.13. Antigen profile of subunit γ

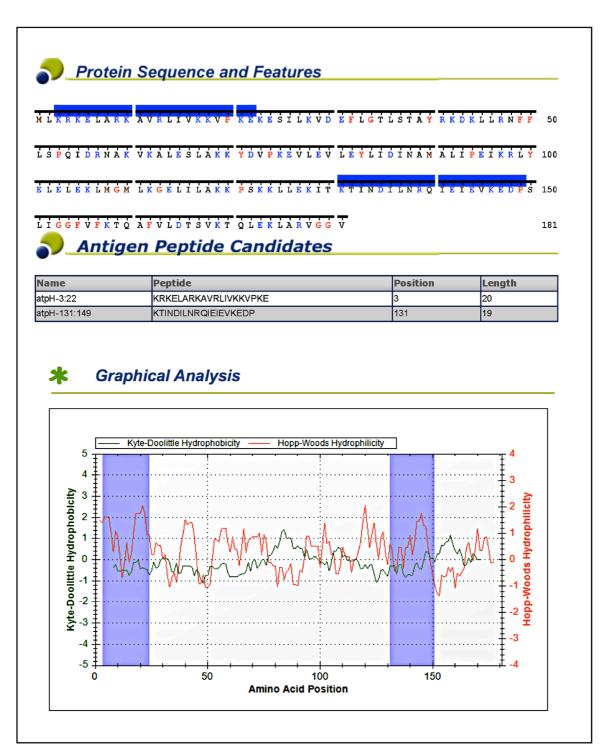


Figure A.14. Antigen profile of subunit δ

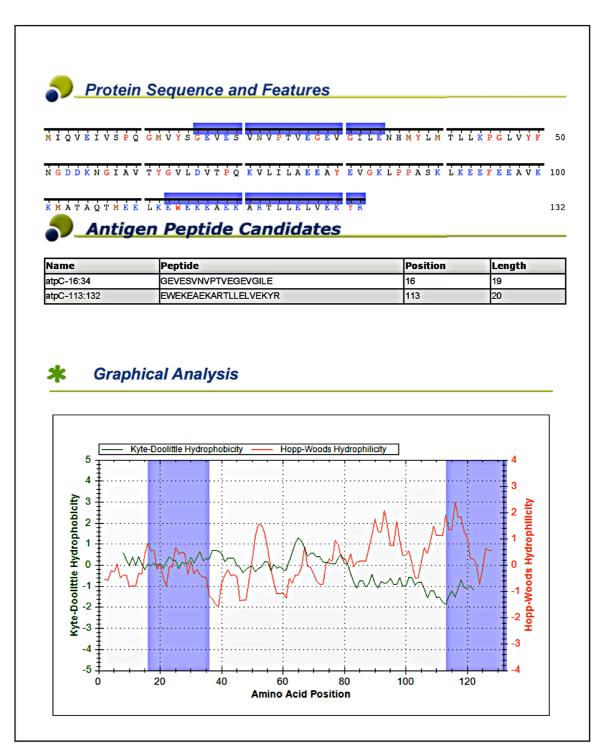


Figure A.15. Antigen profile of subunit ε

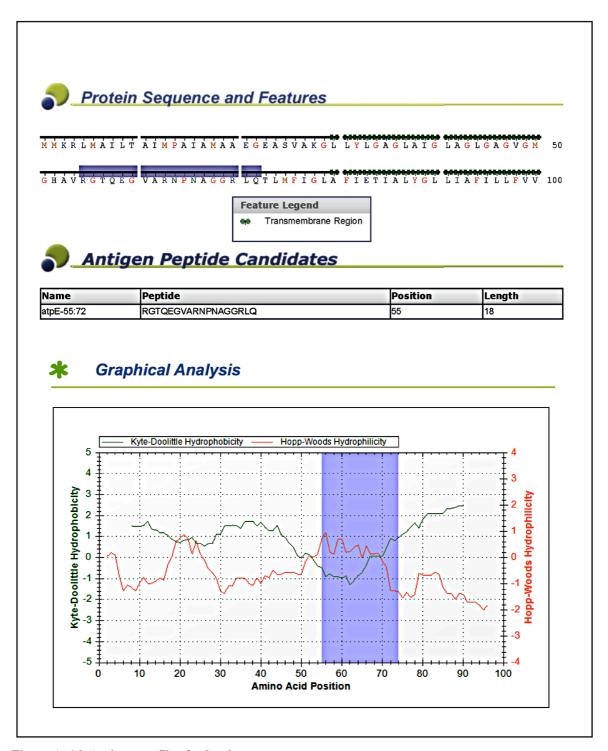


Figure A. 16. Antigen profile of subunit c

Table A3: 70 days rabbit immunization protocol against synthesized peptide (from Thermo Fisher)

Procedure	Protocol Day	Description
Control serum Collection	Day 0	Bleed 5mL per rabbit
Primary injection Day 1		Primary Immunization with 500ug of antigen in 10 sites, SQ
1 Booster	Day 14	Boost with 250ug antigen in 4 SQ sites
2 Booster	Day 28	Boost with 250ug antigen in 4 SQ sites
Serum Collection	Day 35	~25mL per rabbit
3 Booster	Day 42	Boost with 250ug antigen in 4 SQ sites
Serum Collection	Day 56, 58	Two production bleeds (~50mL total per rabbit)
ELISA and Shipping	Day 60	Verify disposition of rabbits, continue or terminate
Instruction Due Date	Day 72	Maintenance charges begin to accrue if instructions not received within time allowed

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Curriculum Vitae

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