Structural and mechanistic insights into human choline transport 1 2 Tsai-Hsuan Weng¹, Ainara Claveras Cabezudo^{2,3}, Wiebke Jösting¹, Andre Bazzone⁴, Sonja Welsch⁵, Gonca Gursu¹, Gerhard 3 Hummer^{2,6}, Di Wu^{1*}, Schara Safarian^{1,7,8*} 4 5 Affiliations $\begin{array}{r}
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26 Abstract

27 Human feline leukaemia virus subgroup C receptor-related proteins 1 and 2 (FLVCR1 and 2) are major 28 facilitator superfamily transporters from the solute carrier family 49. Dysregulation of these ubiquitous 29 transporters has been linked to various haematological and neurological disorders. While both FLVCRs 30 were initially proposed to hold a physiological function in heme transport, subsequent studies 31 questioned this notion. Here, we used structural, computational and biochemical methods and 32 conclude that these two FLVCRs function as human choline transporters. We present cryo-electron 33 microscopy structures of FLVCRs in different inward- and outward-facing conformations, captured in 34 the apo state or in complex with choline in their translocation pathways. Our findings provide insights 35 into the molecular framework of choline coordination and transport, largely mediated by conserved 36 cation- π interactions, and further illuminate the conformational dynamics of the transport cycle. Moreover, we identified a heme binding site on the protein surface of the FLVCR2 N-domain, and 37 observed that heme actively drives the conformational transitions of the protein. This auxiliary binding 38 39 site might indicate a potential regulatory role of heme in the FLVCR2 transport mechanisms. Our work

- 40 resolves the contested substrate specificity of the FLVCRs, and sheds light on the process of maintaining
- 41 cellular choline homeostasis at the molecular level.

42 Introduction

43 The feline leukaemia virus subgroup C receptor (FLVCR) family, a member of the major facilitator superfamily (MFS) of secondary active transporters, consists of four paralogues encoded by the human 44 SLC49 gene group¹. FLVCR1 (SLC49A1) was initially identified as the cell receptor for feline leukaemia 45 46 virus (FeLV), a retrovirus that causes profound anaemia in cats by interfering with erythropoiesis². 47 FLVCR2 (SLC49A2), another major member of the family, shares 60% sequence identity with FLVCR1 in the transmembrane domain but does not bind to the feline leukaemia virus subgroup C envelope 48 49 protein³. Both transporters exhibit ubiquitous tissue distribution in humans and have significant 50 haemato- and neuropathological implications^{1,4}. Dysfunction of FLVCR1 caused by germline mutations 51 is associated with posterior column ataxia with retinitis pigmentosa (PCARP)⁵, while its alternatively 52 spliced isoforms have been linked to Diamond-Blackfan anaemia (DBA)⁶. Similarly, truncation and 53 missense mutations in the gene encoding for FLVCR2 are associated with the autosomal-recessive cerebral proliferative vasculopathy known as Fowler syndrome^{7,8}. Furthermore, both FLVCR variants 54 55 are suggested to play a key role in cell development and differentiation, including angiogenesis and tumorigenesis^{9–12}. 56

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Here, we studied the molecular architecture, the conformational landscape, and the contested substrate specificity of human FLVCR1 and FLVCR2 using single-particle analysis cryogenic electron microscopy (SPA cryo-EM) and molecular dynamics (MD) simulations. Our findings indicate that FLVCR1 and FLVCR2 both represent previously uncharacterized, ubiquitous human choline transporters.

62 Results

63 Overall architecture of FLVCR1 and FLVCR2

We stably integrated the human *SLC49A1* and *SLC49A2* genes into human embryonic kidney cells (HEK293), and recombinantly produced wildtype FLVCR1a (hereafter referred to as FLVCR1) and FLVCR2 variants with C-terminal flag-tag modifications, respectively. Affinity-purified samples of each transporter were subjected to SPA cryo-EM (Supplementary Fig. 1).

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69 We determined the respective structures of apo FLVCR1 and FLVCR2 at 2.9 Å resolution, captured in 70 inward-facing conformations (Fig. 1a,b and Extended Data Fig. 1 and 2). Both FLVCR paralogs share a 71 common MFS-type architecture composed of 12 transmembrane α -helices (TM) arranged into two 72 pseudo-symmetrical domains¹³ (Fig. 1c). In both inward-facing structures, the N-domain (TM1-6) and 73 the C-domain (TM7-12) are connected by a long and flexible loop containing two short horizontal 74 helices (H1 and H2) on the inner side of the membrane (Fig. 1). On the inner side of FLVCR2, we resolved 75 a short helical segment at the C-terminus (H3), while the density of the FLVCR1 C-terminus was less 76 pronounced (Extended Data Fig. 3). Further, we identified an N-linked glycosylation site at N265 of 77 FLVCR1 which locates within the external loop connecting TMs 5 and 6 (EL5-6; Fig. 1a). This 78 glycosylation pattern is absent in the analogous site of the FLVCR2 structure.

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80 The inward-facing conformations of FLVCR1 and FLVCR2 exhibit a close resemblance to each other, with 81 a root mean square deviation (C α r.m.s.d.) of 0.993 Å. Both structures feature a wedge-shaped solventaccessible cavity that is mainly created by the separation of TMs 4 and 5 of the N-domain from TMs 10 82 83 and 11 of the C-domain (Extended Data Fig. 4a). This space extends halfway across the membrane with 84 a similar depth of around 23 Å in both (Fig. 2c and Extended Data Fig. 4b). On the level of the outer 85 leaflet, TMs 1, 2, and 5 of the N-domain and TMs 7, 8, and 11 of the C-domain pack tightly against each other and thus shield the central cavity from the external space (Extended Data Fig. 4a). Notably, TMs 86 87 1, 4, and 7 exhibit disordered regions at their C-terminal ends, followed by short kinked helical motifs 88 designated TMs 1b, 4b, and 7b (Fig. 1c and Extended Data Fig. 3).

89 <u>Conformational difference between inward- and outward-facing structures of FLVCR2</u>

90 From the as-isolated FLVCR2 samples we were able to determine not only the inward-facing 91 conformations but also the outward-facing conformation from class averages of even particle 92 distribution (Fig. 2a and Extended Data Fig. 2a). The outward-facing conformation of FLVCR2 is 93 characterized by a cavity that is accessible from the external space created by a rocker-switch rigid-94 body motion of the two domains (Fig. 2b,c and Supplementary Video 1). This motion shifts the outer halves of all TMs away from the central axis, while the inner halves adopt an inward movement to 95 96 obstruct the exit (Fig. 2b). The cavities in outward- and inward-facing conformations are 7.4 Å and 8.6 97 Å wide at their respective openings (Fig. 2c). The wedge-like volume of both cavities is surrounded by 98 an uncharged and hydrophobic protein environment, lined by mostly conserved residues (Extended 99 Data Fig. 5). Compared to the inward-facing cavity, the outward-facing cavity demonstrates a more 100 restricted pathway within its central region. In this narrowed segment of the cavity, the channel ends 101 at W102 and Y325, two residues that are highly conserved in both FLVCR transporters (Fig. 2c and 102 Extended Data Fig. 4b and 5).

103

104 In line with an alternating-access model, the inward-facing conformation of FLVCR2 features a tightly-105 sealed external gate. This is mainly achieved by the juxtaposition of TM1b (N-domain) and TM7b (C-106 domain; Fig. 2c,d). The inter-domain interaction between these two motifs is stabilized by a hydrogen 107 bonding network consisting of two pseudo-symmetry-related asparagine residues (N110-N332), as well 108 as E343 (TM8) and N239 (EL5-6; Supplementary Fig. 2). Furthermore, we identified a stable inter-109 domain salt bridge between D124 (TM2) and R333 (TM7b), presumably reinforcing the external 110 occlusion (Fig. 2c,d, and Supplementary Fig. 2). FLVCR1 appears to employ a similar gating mechanism 111 on its external side, given that all the residues involved in the hydrogen bonding network of FLVCR2 are 112 found to be highly conserved between these two paralogs (Extended Data Fig. 4b,c). However, the 113 D124-R333 salt bridge in FLVCR2 is not conserved in FLVCR1. While the location of the D147 residue in 114 FLVCR1 aligns with that of D124 in FLVCR2, FLVCR1 possesses a glutamine taking the position of the 115 arginine (Extended Data Fig. 4c).

117	During the transition from inward- to outward-facing conformation of FLVCR2, interactions contributing
118	to the external gate become disrupted, while the formation of the internal gate occludes the central
119	cavity from the internal side. TM4b of the N-domain moves in proximity to the N-terminal end of TM11
120	of the C-domain to establish a first level of occlusion (Fig. 2b,c). An interaction network consisting of
121	several hydrogen bonds and a salt bridge is found within this region (Fig. 2e). E435 (TM11) plays a
122	central and versatile role by stably forming a hydrogen bond with S203 (TM4b) and a concurrent salt
123	bridge with R200 (TM4b; Fig. 2e and Supplementary Fig. 2). An additional inter-domain hydrogen
124	bonding site is identified between S199 (TM4b) and S439 (TM11; Fig. 2e and Supplementary Fig. 2). In
125	the peripheral region, K372 and R374 (EL8-9) approach N209 (EL4-5) and S212 (TM5) to form hydrogen
126	bond pairs and thus block the lateral accessibility of the cavity (Fig. 2e and Supplementary Fig. 2). A
127	second level of occlusion was observed beneath the internal ends of TMs 4, 10 and 11, where H1 and
128	H3 are positioned in close proximity (Fig. 2c,f). Here, the backbone carbonyl group and amide nitrogen
129	of A283 (H1) form stable hydrogen bonds with N497 (H3) and Y431 (IL10-11), respectively (Fig. 2f and
130	Supplementary Fig. 2). Together with the loop connecting TMs 10 and 11, the two helical motifs H1
131	and H3 serve as a latch to secure the closure of the two domains on the internal side.

132 <u>Substrate-specificity and auxiliary binding sites</u>

The transport substrates of both FLVCR1 and FLVCR2 have been contested for decades^{14–17}. Both FLVCR1 and FLVCR2 were previously proposed to hold a function in heme transport. With the goal of assessing their heme-binding capabilities and localizing the putative heme-binding site, we performed cryo-EM experiments using heme as a potential substrate.

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A central observation upon determining the structure of heme-supplemented FLVCR2 was that the 138 139 presence of heme resolved the conformational heterogeneity, fully driving the transporter into the 140 outward-facing conformation (Fig. 3a and Extended Data Fig. 2b). Surprisingly, no density features of 141 heme were noticeable within the central cavity. Instead, we observed a density corresponding to heme 142 in the vicinity of the N-terminus of TM1 on the internal side, where it replaces the density we assigned 143 as a lipid molecule in the apo outward-facing structure (Fig. 3a,b). The protein surface in this particular 144 region displays a patch of positive charges, suggesting the heme molecule to be held in place by the 145 formation of electrostatic interactions between its two propionate groups and the side chains of R81, 146 R82, and K273 (Fig. 3b and Extended Data Fig. 5d). The map density of bound heme in our structure 147 indicates local mobility in the heme position due to the absence of macrocycle rigidifying axial 148 coordination (Fig. 3b). By contrast, cryo-EM studies on FLVCR1 in the presence of heme did not reveal 149 any heme binding or notable conformational changes. It is to note that neither the cavity dimensions 150 nor the residues lining the central cavities of FLVCR1 and FLVCR2 suggest the existence of a heme-151 binding pocket.

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To further characterize the molecular nature of heme binding in FLVCR2, we carried out atomistic MD simulations, focusing on FLVCR2 in a lipid bilayer composed of 75% palmitoyloleoyl phosphatidylethanolamine (POPE) and 25% palmitoyloleoyl phosphatidylglycerol (POPG). To probe possible binding into the transport pathway, we first placed a heme close to the cavity opening in the outward-facing conformation. In the subsequent MD simulations, the heme immediately crossed the solvent layer and periodic boundary to interact with the loop region on the internal side for the 159 remainder of the simulation (Supplementary Video 2). We then positioned heme on the inner side of 160 the bilayer near the binding site observed by cryo-EM at the N-terminus of TM1 (Fig. 2c). In all replicas, 161 the contact between heme and the R82 residue was lost early in the simulations as the heme 162 reoriented and was absorbed into the lipid bilayer. However, the contact between one of the 163 propionate groups and R83 was consistently maintained. Upon membrane insertion, the heme formed 164 additional contacts with other residues (Supplementary Fig. 3). Stable interactions were observed between the methyl group of heme and I270 (TM6), as well as one of the propionate groups and K273 165 166 (TM6). Our MD simulation data, together with our structural findings, point to the existence of a heme-167 binding site at the N-domain of FLVCR2, located near the inner surface of the membrane. This finding 168 is in line with previously reported results demonstrating heme-binding at the N-terminal segment of 169 FLVCR2¹⁸.

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Subsequently, we focused our attention on choline as a potential substrate of FLVCR1 and FLVCR2 based 171 172 on the characteristic tryptophan-tyrosine clusters observed at the presumed substrate-binding cavities 173 of FLVCR1 and FLVCR2, respectively. This chemical environment is found analogously in the prokaryotic choline transporter LicB, as well as predicted models of eukaryotic choline transporters^{19–21} (Extended 174 175 Data Fig. 6). Indeed, we obtained cryo-EM maps of choline-bound structures of FLVCR1 and FLVCR2 at 176 a resolution of 2.6 Å and 2.8 Å, respectively (Fig. 3d, e and Extended Data Fig. 2b and 3c). Both structures 177 were captured in the inward-facing conformation, suggesting that choline is also capable of resolving 178 the conformational heterogeneity in FLVCR2 by trapping it in an inward-facing substrate-bound state. Intriguingly, this effect is opposite to that of heme described above. The choline-bound structures 179 180 exhibit a C α r.m.s.d. of 0.688 Å (FLVCR1) and 1.002 Å (FLVCR2) to their respective apo inward-facing 181 structures. The choline-bound inward-facing structures of FLVCR1 and FLVCR2 resemble each other and 182 their substrate binding sites are found in analogous locations within the transporter scaffold. The 183 bound choline molecule is caged inside the central binding site between the two domains of the FLVCRs, 184 surrounded mainly by TMs 1, 2, 4, 5, 7, and 11 (Fig. 3d,e). The binding sites in the two transporters are formed by a suite of conserved residues. The central coordinating tryptophan residue (W102^{FLVCR1} and 185

W125^{FLVCR2}) of TM1 is located above the choline, constraining the diffusion of the molecule towards the 186 external gate. Two additional aromatic residues of TM7, one tyrosine (Y325 FLVCR1 and Y349 FLVCR2) and 187 one phenylalanine (F348^{FLVCR1} and F324^{FLVCR2}), line the peripheral space of the binding site and restrict 188 the movement of the choline within the pocket. Our MD simulations demonstrate that the quaternary 189 ammonium group of choline stably interacts with the conserved tryptophan residue (W125^{FLVCR1} and 190 W102^{FLVCR2}), forming concomitant cation- π interactions with both the tryptophan and tyrosine residues 191 192 (Fig. 3f,g). The hydroxyl group of the choline molecule showed more versatile interactions. Two 193 asparagine residues identified near the hydroxyl group formed transient hydrogen bonds with choline 194 during our simulations. In addition, at least two interacting water molecules were consistently present 195 near the OH-group of the bound choline, which was predominantly oriented away from the conserved 196 tryptophan towards the solvent phase (Supplementary Fig. 4 and Supplementary Video 3). It is 197 noteworthy that all these coordinating residues are fully conserved in mammals, suggesting a 198 specialized role of FLVCRs in recognizing and transporting choline across species (Fig. 3h).

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To gain further insights into the spectrum of substrate selectivity of FLVCR1 and FLVCR2, we performed 200 201 nano differential scanning fluorimetry (nanoDSF) using choline, phosphocholine, and betaine as 202 candidate substrates (Fig. 3i and Extended Data Fig. 7). For both transporters, strong quenching of 203 tryptophan fluorescence could be observed by the addition of choline, but not its structurally related 204 metabolites (Fig. 3i). We determined choline dissociation rate constants for FLVCR1 at $25.10 \pm 1.26 \,\mu$ M and FLVCR2 at $125.22 \pm 4.87 \,\mu M^{22}$. Subsequently, we attempted to assess the kinetic properties of both 205 206 FLVCRs via a solid-supported membrane-based electrophysiological (SSME) approach (Fig. 3j). For both 207 transporters we observed a rapid increase in current upon application of choline, followed by a fast 208 current decay, which can be attributed to an electrogenic substrate binding induced pre-steady state 209 (PSS) event. However, only for FLVCR2, a second current phase was observed, revealing a much slower 210 decay time constant. This current phase is typical for transport events that slowly charge the membrane capacitor in SSME experiments^{23,24}. Despite the structural similarities described above, FLVCRs seem to 211 212 have different kinetic fingerprints that might either originate from subtle structural differences

213 identified at the termini of the two transporters, or specific requirements to their surrounding 214 environment. Further, our data indicate that FLVCR-facilitated choline transport displays no immediate 215 pH dependency within the physiological range tested in our assay (Extended Data Fig. 8). Thus, we 216 conclude that FLVCRs most likely represent choline-driven uniporters. We then determined choline 217 binding affinities based on the PSS peaks and obtained values of 0.52 ± 0.07 mM for FLVCR1 and 3.28 218 \pm 0.31 mM for FLVCR2. While the absolute affinities deduced from the SSME experiments are weaker 219 than those from the more direct DSF measurements, which may reflect an underlying transport phase, 220 the relative values consistently demonstrate a similar 5- to 6-fold difference in choline affinity between 221 the two transporters²⁵. We note that our DSF-derived binding affinities more likely reflect values that 222 are realistic in a biological setting, as plasma choline concentrations are relatively stable at 5-10 μ M²⁶.

223 Translocation pathway of choline in FLVCRs

224 MFS transporters typically cycle between inward- and outward-facing conformations, facilitating 225 substrate translocation in an alternating-access manner. Substrate binding often plays a pivotal role in eliciting the conformational transitions²⁷. Our cryo-EM data support this mechanism for at least FLVCR2, 226 227 where we see a full transition from the outward-facing to inward-facing state upon choline binding. 228 Our MD simulations map the route for substrate entry along the pathway in the outward-facing 229 conformation of FLVCR2. After spontaneously diffusing into the opening, choline initially interacts with 230 several residues near the protein surface, mainly D124 (Supplementary Fig. 5). It sequentially 231 approaches the deeper recesses of the cavity, primarily engaging with conserved aromatic residues 232 W102 and Y325. In a particular entry event, we observed choline moving to a position below the W102 233 residue within the binding site, consistent with our observations in the choline-bound structure of 234 FLVCR2 (Supplementary Video 4).

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The substantial global conformational changes triggered by choline further alter the local arrangement of substrate-coordinating residues within the translocation pathway. The rearrangement of the binding site results in a more constricted pocket, promoted by the inward movement of the conserved residues closer to the choline molecule (Extended Data Fig. 9a). The repositioning of these residues, especially of the aromatic side chains, restricts the accessibility of the binding pocket and promotes choline capture and engulfment.

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The choline-bound inward-facing conformations likely represent the pre-release phase during the translocation. In their choline-bound structures, the cavities of both FLVCRs share common characteristics, exhibiting a neutral interior but a negatively charged surface at the exit (Extended Data Fig. 5b,e). FLVCR1 features a slightly smaller cavity volume of 513 Å³ compared to 579 Å³ of FLVCR2 (Extended Data Fig. 9b). In an inter-domain interaction site at the cavity opening, a serine residue of TM4 (S222^{FLVCR1} and S199^{FLVCR2}) and a glutamate side chain of TM11 (E459^{FLVCR1} and E435^{FLVCR2}) remain in close proximity even with the internal gate open (Extended Data Fig. 9c,d). While these conserved

residues may interact to limit pathway accessibility, a peripheral solvent-accessible channel emerging from the internal space to the binding site reveals a semi-open translocation pathway in the cholinebound inward-facing conformations of both transporters (Extended Data Fig. 9b).

253

254 In our MD simulations, we captured a spontaneous choline release event from FLVCR2 through the 255 semi-open pathway that would complete the translocation process (Supplementary Video 5). The 256 choline spontaneously left the binding site after ~700 ns, transited in steps through the half channel, 257 and then escaped into the solvent at ~900 ns. Our apo inward-facing structures plausibly illustrate the 258 following post-release states. We speculate that an event occurs during the substrate release process 259 in both FLVCRs, resulting in the dissipation of the conserved serine-glutamate interactions and causing 260 the full opening of the internal cavity. This is suggested by our observations that the distance between 261 the S-E residues expands in the apo inward-facing structures relative to the choline-bound states $(\Delta d_{FLVCR1} = 3.3 \text{ Å and } \Delta d_{FLVCR2} = 5.2 \text{ Å};$ Fig. 2e, Extended Data Fig. 4d and 9c,d). A subtle conformational 262 263 transition takes place upon the release of the choline in both FLVCRs, manifested by a rigid-body shift 264 between two domains that moves the inner halves slightly away from the central axis perpendicular to 265 the membrane plane (Extended Data Fig. 9e,f). The rearrangement of the TMs results an increased 266 angle between the N-domain and C-domain, widening by 0.9° in FLVCR1 compared to 4.3° in FLVCR2. Consequently, the central cavities become less compact, enlarging from volumes of 513 Å³ and 579 Å³ 267 268 for FLVCR1 and FLVCR2, to 771 Å³ and 1046 Å³, respectively. Meanwhile, the molecular architecture of 269 the external gate remains largely unchanged in the post-release inward-facing states of both FLVCRs 270 (Fig. 2d, Extended Data Fig. 4c and 9c).

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Choline binding and release events drive additional local rearrangements in the translocation pathway
of FLVCR2. The inward-facing apo structure of FLVCR2 reveals a distinct lateral opening of the pathway,
directed towards the inner membrane leaflet of the lipid bilayer (Extended Data Fig. 10). This channel,
located between TM5 (N-domain) and TM8 (C-domain), accommodates a lipid/detergent-like density
in the apo state, as observed in our cryo-EM results (Extended Data Fig. 10b). Yet, when choline is

present in the central cavity, residue F220 seals the opening and prevents the lipid/detergent-like density from accessing the channel (Extended Data Fig. 10c). The relevance of this site for environmental interactions was further supported during our simulations with FLVCR2, where lipidentering events were observed (Extended Data Fig. 10a). The displacement of F220 allowed one of the lipid's acyl tails to enter and reside within this channel. Whether or not this might be connected to a putative allosteric regulatory mechanism linked to lipid binding in FLVCR2 as observed in other MFStype transporters remains to be further investigated^{28,29}.

284 Discussion

285 FLVCR transporters were considered to be human heme transporters. In this study, we have determined 286 cryo-EM structures of FLVCR1 and FLVCR2 in distinct apo, heme and choline-bound states, providing 287 valuable insights into architecture, substrate interaction and conformational dynamics of these two 288 MFS transporters. Our data support previous studies regarding the heme-binding properties of FLVCR2, 289 yet clearly demonstrate that choline is the transport substrate of both FLVCRs. Based on our structural 290 findings, we suggest a rocker-switch alternating-access mechanism for the transport cycle of choline 291 import (Fig. 4). As the resting state, the apo outward-facing FLVCR2 conformation is set up for choline 292 binding from the external space. Substrate-induced conformational changes drive FLVCR2 towards its 293 inward-facing state. Finally, the choline will be released to the cytosol or the mitochondrial matrix, 294 depending on the sub-cellular localization of FLVCR1 and FLVCR2¹⁸. Subsequent to choline release, 295 FLVCRs will transition into their outward-facing state in order to re-initiate the transport cycle. Our 296 structural data did not reveal fully occluded conformations that are key features of alternating access. 297 Hence, we suspect that these occluded conformations exist only transiently and rapidly convert 298 towards either the inward- or outward-facing conformations.

299

300 Our findings suggest that FLVCRs act as uniporters, conducting facilitated diffusion across the 301 membrane. Uniporters conventionally utilize the chemical potential of substrates as the only energy source driving the transport process thermodynamically³⁰. This mechanism appears to match the 302 303 kinetic fingerprints of FLVCRs observed in the SSM-based assays. Our cryo-EM data also reveal that 304 choline-binding prompts the conformational transition in FLVCR2 from the outward-facing to the 305 inward-facing state without requiring additional energy inputs. Corroborating this finding, our MD 306 simulation of FLVCR2 captured several spontaneous entry events of choline into the cavity in the 307 outward-facing conformation, including a traverse below the central coordinating tryptophan residue, 308 reminiscent of the local binding environment in the inward-facing choline-bound state (Supplementary 309 Fig. 5 and Supplementary Video 4). Furthermore, we observed a release event of choline from the 310 inward-facing conformation of FLVCR2 (Supplementary Video 5).

311

312 While choline is the primary transport substrate for FLVCR2, it should be highlighted that heme can 313 also induce conformational changes, albeit leading to the opposing outward-facing state. This concurs with the previous reports that FLVCR2 is capable of binding heme with the N-domain yet not 314 transporting it^{16,18,31}. As labile cytoplasmic heme is readily degraded by heme oxygenase, we anticipate 315 316 that the heme interaction of FLVCR2 will be restricted to mitochondria where heme biogenesis takes 317 place. We performed matrix targeting sequences (MTSs) predictions to identify the targeting sequence 318 of FLVCR2³². The N-terminal region of FLVCR2 exhibits a propensity score comparable to that of proteins 319 known to be trafficked to the mitochondria (Supplementary Fig. 6). Correspondingly, the endogenous 320 FLVCR2 protein, originating from its chromosomal locus, has been previously reported to localize within 321 mitochondria¹⁸. We conclude that the physiological role of FLVCR2 is most likely to act as a 322 mitochondrial choline importer that may be regulated by the availability of heme within the 323 mitochondrial matrix. In addition, our MD simulations revealed that a physiological mitochondrial 324 membrane potential influences the rates of choline entry and release in FLVCR2, favoring inward-325 directed translocation of this positively charged substrate (Supplementary Fig. 7 and Supplementary 326 Table 1). Choline import in rat kidney mitochondria was previously found to depend on the membrane potential, which matches with our observations³³. In contrast to FLVCR2, FLVCR1 showed no binding or 327 328 response to heme, and obtained a very low propensity score in the MTSs prediction (Supplementary 329 Fig. 6). Combined with insights from genome-wide association study data, we presume that FLVCR1 acts as a plasma membrane-localized choline transporter³⁴. 330

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The successful elucidations of FLVCR structures in their choline-bound state establish the SLC49 family as a new class of human choline transporters²⁰. Despite the positive charge of choline, the fully conserved binding site in FLVCRs exhibits a neutral charge environment. As a result, the coordination of bound choline is predominantly mediated by the cation- π interaction formed between the trimethylammonium group of choline and conserved aromatic residues. In a similar manner, the bacterial choline transporter LicB features a binding site composed of six aromatic and one amide side 338 chains, including W17 of TM1 that corresponds to the critical coordinating tryptophan residues in FLVCRs¹⁹ (Extended Data Fig. 6a). We performed a comparative analysis using the AlphaFold2 structures 339 340 of other putative human choline transporters (Extended Data Fig. 6b-d). Our examination of these 341 structures reveals binding pockets containing aromatic residues. In the high-affinity choline transporter 342 SLC5A7, the putative binding pocket encompasses four tryptophan and two tyrosine residues, 343 potentially forming a cation- π trap. The CTL (SLC44) family members feature a unique fold and the exact 344 position of their binding site remains unclear due to the absence of high-resolution structures. However, 345 the putative pocket of human SLC44A1 suggests the involvement of a tyrosine residue in choline coordination³⁵. The SLC22 family members share the same MFS fold with FLVCRs, and their putative 346 binding site with a broad substrate spectrum also contains aromatic and amide side chains that are 347 potential participants in choline coordination³⁶. Our structural findings and analyses suggest that 348 349 cation- π interactions may be a common principle for choline coordination. While the cation- π 350 interaction appears to be highly specific and selective for substrate coordination in FLVCRs, our data 351 suggest that the hydroxyl group of choline preferentially forms promiscuous and dynamic interactions 352 either with the surrounding protein environment, such as amide-containing residues, or with water 353 molecules.

354

355 Choline, an indispensable guaternary ammonium cation with water-soluble vitamin-like characteristics, 356 is vital for a myriad of biological processes³⁷. Dietary choline uptake mediated by certain transporters is necessary as our bodies have limited capacity for *de novo* synthesis³⁸. Choline deficiency is linked to 357 358 a plethora of undesired health consequences, for instance, skeletal muscle atrophy and 359 neurodegenerative diseases³⁹. Additionally, abnormal choline metabolism is emerging as a hallmark for oncogenesis and pathological inflammatory conditions^{20,40,41}. Disorders including PCARP and DBA 360 361 associated with FLVCR1 and the Fowler syndrome related to FLVCR2 might stem from choline deficiency 362 that leads to developmental or degenerative complications. In conjunction with the known physiological importance of choline and our current findings, a link between defective FLVCR function 363 364 and the associated pathologies becomes evident. Choline stands as the precursor for essential

compounds, such as the membrane phospholipid phosphatidylcholine (PC), the neurotransmitter 365 acetylcholine, and the methyl group donor betaine³⁹. Altered choline metabolism is apt to cause 366 367 abnormal cell proliferation and differentiation conditions, impacting especially the nervous and 368 hematologic systems due to disturbances in neurotransmitter synthesis and methylation activities^{42,43}. 369 Beyond these impacts, choline metabolism in macrophages also affects mitochondrial morphology and 370 metabolism⁴¹. The disruption of PC synthesis results in the destruction of mitochondrial cristae, 371 compelling cells to rely only on substrate-level phosphorylation for ATP production. A handful of animal 372 studies have further underscored the interplay between choline supplementation and brain 373 development, particularly in angiogenesis^{44–47}. Choline deficiency has been linked to decreased DNA methylation within the promoters of genes that are important regulators of angiogenesis⁴⁴. Moreover, 374 375 dysfunctional mutations or complete loss of choline transporters SLC5A7 or SLC44A1 have been 376 implicated in certain neurodegenerative conditions, including but not limited to distal hereditary motor 377 neuronopathy, congenital myasthenic syndrome, and childhood-onset neurodegeneration⁴⁸⁻⁵². The 378 precise molecular mechanisms linking choline transport to these disorders are not yet fully deciphered 379 and require further study given their clinical implications.

380 Online Methods

381

382 Generation of Inducible HEK293 Stable Cell Lines.

The complementary DNAs of full-length wildtype FLVCR1 (human SLC49A1, NCBI Reference Sequence 383 384 NM 014053) and FLVCR2 (human SLC49A2, NCBI Reference Sequence: NM 017791) were cloned into 385 pcDNA5/FRT/TO (Invitrogen) vectors, respectively. The gene for both FLVCRs was modified by a C-386 terminal FLAG fusion tag. Further details are found in sequence data provided as supplementary 387 information (Supplementary Tables 2 and 3). The recombinant Flp-In T-REx293-FLVCR1 and Flp-In T-388 REx293-FLVCR2 cell lines were generated by using a tetracycline-inducible and commercially available Flp-In T-REx host-cell line system from Invitrogen. Flp-In T-REx293 cells were cultured in high-glucose 389 390 Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's Medium (DMEM; Sigma-Aldrich) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS; Gibco), 1% Pen/Strep (Gibco), 1 μg ml⁻¹ Zeocin (Thermo Fisher), and 15 μg ml⁻¹ blasticidin 391 392 S hydrochloride (AppliChem) at 37 °C in an atmosphere of 5% CO₂. Cells were not tested for mycoplasma contamination. For stable integration, the pcDNA5/FRT-FLVCR1-FLAG and pcDNA5/FRT-393 394 FLVCR2-FLAG vectors were cotransfected with the Flp recombinase encoding expression vector pOG44 395 (Thermo Fisher) at a 1:13 mass ratio, respectively. All transfection procedures were performed with 396 Lipofectamine[™] 2000 reagent according to the manufacturer's instructions (Thermo Fisher). To select 397 stable clones, transfected cells were cultivated with growth medium containing 100 μ g ml⁻¹ hygromycin 398 B (AppliChem).

399

400 **Production and Purification of the human FLVCR1 and FLVCR2.**

For protein production, the Flp-In T-REx293-FLVCR1 and Flp-In T-REx293-FLVCR2 cell lines were cultured in roller bottles (Greiner Bio-One) in growth media containing 100 μ g ml⁻¹ hygromycin B for 14 d under the above-mentioned conditions. Gene expression was induced at 100% confluence by adding a final concentration of 2 μ g ml⁻¹ doxycycline hydrochloride. After 72 h, cells were harvested with Accutase solution (Sigma-Aldrich) and stored at -80 °C until further use. Harvested cells were suspended in cold lysis buffer containing 25 mM Tris pH 7.4, 150 mM NaCl, and 0.1 g ml⁻¹ SigmaFast 407 ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA)-free protease inhibitor (Sigma-Aldrich) and disrupted by 408 stirring under high-pressure nitrogen atmosphere (750 MPa) for 45 min at 4 °C in a cell-disruption 409 vessel (Parr Instrument). The cell lysate was centrifuged at 8,000*g* at 4 °C for 15 min. Subsequently, the 410 low-velocity supernatant was centrifuged at 220,000*g* at 4 °C for 60 min. Pelleted membranes were 411 resuspended and stored in a storage buffer containing 25 mM Tris pH 7.4, 150 mM NaCl, 10% glycerol 412 (v/v), and 0.1 g ml⁻¹ SigmaFast EDTA-free protease inhibitor (Sigma-Aldrich).

413

414 All purification steps of both FLVCRs were performed at 4 °C. Isolated membranes were solubilized with 415 1% (w/v) lauryl maltose neopentyl glycol (LMNG; GLYCON Biochemicals) with gentle stirring for 1 h. 416 The insoluble membrane fraction was removed via ultracentrifugation at 220,000q for 1 h. 417 Subsequently, the supernatant was incubated with ANTI-FLAG® M2 Affinity Gel resin (Merck) for 1 h. 418 The resin was preequilibrated with a buffer containing 50 mM Tris pH 7.4, 150 mM NaCl, and 0.02% 419 LMNG (w/v). The washing step was performed using 20 column volumes (CVs) of wash buffer [50 mM 420 Tris pH 7.4, 150 mM NaCl, 5% (v/v) glycerol, and 0.02% LMNG). The protein was eluted from the M2 421 resin with 10 CVs of the same buffer supplemented with 4 mM FLAG® Peptide (Merck). The eluted 422 sample was concentrated and subjected to a Superdex 200 Increase 10/300 column (GE Healthcare) 423 equilibrated with size exclusion chromatography (SEC) buffer [50 mM Tris pH 7.4, 150 mM NaCl, and 424 0.001% (w/v) LMNG]. Peak fractions were pooled, concentrated to 1.5 mg ml⁻¹ using an Amicon 50-kDa 425 cut-off concentrator (Merck Millipore), and stored for further analysis.

426

For the dodecyl maltoside (DDM) and cholesterol hemisuccinate (CHS) solubilized samples used for proteoliposome reconstitution, the proteins were purified based on the same protocol. The membrane solubilization buffer contains 1% (w/v) DDM/0.2% (w/v) CHS instead of LMNG. Similarly, the wash buffer contains 0.1% (w/v) DDM/0.02% (w/v) CHS, and the SEC buffer contains 0.02% (w/v) DDM/0.004% (w/v) CHS.

432

433 Immunoblotting

Affinity-purified proteins were subjected to SDS-PAGE and immunoblotting. FLAG-tagged FLVCR1 and FLVCR2 were detected using anti-FLAG (F3165, Sigma-Aldrich) antibodies at 1:1,000 dilution. Antimouse IgG antibody conjugated with alkaline phosphatase (A9316, Sigma-Aldrich) was used as secondary antibody at 1:5,000 dilution.

438

439 Nano differential scanning fluorimetry (nanoDSF)

440 NanoDSF measurements were carried out using Prometheus Panta (NanoTemper Technologies). 441 Purified protein samples were diluted with DSF buffer containing 50 mM HEPES pH 7.4, 150 mM NaCl, 442 and 0.001% (w/v) LMNG to 1 μ M. Buffers with different concentrations of choline, phosphocholine, or 443 betaine were prepared by serial dilutions of DSF buffer containing 4 mM of the compounds. The protein 444 samples were mixed with an equal volume of DSF buffer or the compound-containing buffer with a 445 final protein concentration of 0.5 μ M and then incubated at room temperature for 15 min. A volume 446 of 10 µl mixed solution was used per Prometheus high sensitivity capillary (NanoTemper Technologies). A temperature ramp of 1 °C min⁻¹ from 25 to 95 °C was applied while the intrinsic protein fluorescence 447 at 330 and 350 nm was recorded. Analysis of the initial ratio of F_{350}/F_{330} was carried out using Python 448 449 libraries including pandas, numpy, scipy and seaborn in Visual Studio Code (Microsoft). Three technical 450 replicates were recorded for data analysis.

451

452 **Proteoliposome preparation**

453 1-palmitoyl-2-oleoyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphoethanolamine (POPE, Avanti) and 1-Palmitoyl-2-oleoyl-sn-454 glycero-3-phospho-(1'-rac-glycerol) (POPG, Avanti) in chloroform (25mg ml⁻¹) were mixed at the ratio 455 of 3:1 (w/w), followed by gentle evaporation of the chloroform and overnight desiccation under a 456 stream of nitrogen gas. The dried lipids were suspended in internal buffer comprised of 50 mM HEPES pH 7.4, 150 mM NaCl to a final concentration of 12.5 mg ml⁻¹ and sonicated until homogenous. The 457 458 lipid solution was subjected to three freeze-thaw cycles and extruded through a 400-nm polycarbonate 459 filter (Avestin) to generate unilamellar vesicles. The liposomes were destabilized by the addition of 0.13% 460 (w/v) Triton-X100 (Sigma) at room temperature. Purified DDM/CHS-solubilized FLVCR1 or FLVCR2

461 samples was added at a 1:50 protein-to-lipid mass ratio and incubated for 15 min at 4 °C. Protein-free 462 liposomes were prepared in parallel using the same concentration of DDM/CHS. The detergent was 463 removed by several additions of SM2-BioBeads (Bio-Rad). Firstly, 0.05 g ml⁻¹ of BioBeads were added to the sample and incubated with gentle agitation for 1 h at 4 °C, then 0.05 g ml⁻¹ BioBeads were added 464 followed by incubation overnight at 4 °C, and finally 0.08 g ml⁻¹ BioBeads were added with 2-h 465 466 incubation at 4 °C. BioBeads were removed by filtration and liposomes were collected by ultracentrifugation at 264,000q for 20 min and resuspended at a concentration of 8 mg ml⁻¹ lipids in 467 468 internal buffer. The reconstituted liposomes were flash frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80 °C.

469

470 SSM-based electrophysiology (SSME) assays

SSM-based electrophysiology was performed on a SURFE²R N1⁵³ (Nanion Technologies). For all 471 experiments, preparation of 3-mm sensors was performed as described⁵⁴. For measurements, a single 472 473 solution exchange configuration was employed that consisted of three phases of 0.5 s duration each: 474 flow of non-activating solution (NA), activating solution (A), and non-activating solution (NA). Both NA 475 and A were prepared from the same main buffer (30 mM HEPES, 30 mM MES, and 300 mM NaCl at pH 476 7.4), while A was supplemented with choline chloride and NA was prepared by adding NaCl in an 477 equimolar manner. For the choline dose response curve, 50 mM choline chloride and 50 mM NaCl were 478 used to achieve A0 and NA (with the highest salt concentration), followed by dilution of A0 using NA 479 to generate all A solutions with choline concentrations ranging between 50 to 0.02 mM choline, while 480 keeping the total osmolarity constant. Proteoliposomes or liposomes (negative control) were thawed 481 and diluted 1:5 in NA, and sonicated using a bath sonicator for 20 s. A volume of 10 μ l of the diluted 482 proteoliposomes were added to the sensors, and then centrifuged at 2,000*q* for 30 min. Assays were 483 performed on both sample and negative control to distinguish currents originating from FLVCRs and 484 artifact currents induced by the choline⁺/Na⁺ exchange due to interactions of the ions with the 485 membrane surface. Currents corresponding to different substrate concentrations were measured on 486 the same sensor, with a total of four different sensors. To determine transport kinetics of choline for 487 each FLVCR transporter, the measured currents for a given substrate concentration had the average 488 value of the corresponding negative control current subtracted from it. For the measurement at 489 different pH conditions, again the single solution exchange configuration was used. The main buffer 490 was titrated to different pH values that are physiologically relevant, ranging between 6 and 8, before 491 splitting into A supplemented with 15 mM choline chloride and the corresponding NA supplemented 492 with 15 mM NaCl. Before each measurement at a given pH, the pH was equilibrated via incubation for 493 3 minutes in NA solution at the given pH. Subsequently, peak currents were measured upon the 494 addition of A at the same pH. All pH values were measured sequentially using the same sensor, with a 495 total of four sensors. For both dose response curves and pH measurements, the error bars represent 496 the s.d. As the peak current signal can be a combined effect of electrogenic PSS and transport events²⁴, 497 we use the EC₅₀ parameter to describe the concentration that generates the half maximum response. 498 Analysis of the data was performed in OriginPro (OriginLab Corporation).

499

500 Cryo-EM sample preparation

501 In order to collect cryo-EM data of FLVCR1 and FLVCR2 in different sample conditions, different 502 combinations of FLVCR proteins and putative substrate molecules were prepared. For both as-isolated 503 samples of FLVCRs, the protein concentration was adjusted to approximately 1.5 mg ml⁻¹ and subjected 504 to plunge freezing. For samples supplemented with heme, heme loading was performed prior to the 505 SEC during protein purification with a 10-fold molar excess to the protein concentration. Peak fractions 506 were pooled and concentrated to 1.5 mg ml⁻¹ before sample vitrification. For samples supplemented with choline, purified proteins were adjusted to 1.5 mg ml⁻¹ and choline was added at a final 507 508 concentration of 1 mM. The samples were incubated for 10 minutes at room temperature before 509 plunge freezing. Identical plunge freezing conditions were applied for all samples: Quantifoil R1.2/1.3 510 copper grids (mesh 300) were washed in chloroform and subsequently glow-discharged with a PELCO 511 easiGlow device at 15 mA for 90 seconds. A volume of 4 μ l sample was applied to a grid and blotting was performed for 4 seconds at 4 °C, 100% humidity with nominal blot force 20 immediately before 512 513 freezing in liquid ethane, using a Vitrobot Mark IV device (Thermo Scientific).

515 Cryo-EM image recording

516 For each cryo-EM sample, a dataset was recorded in Energy-Filtered Transmission Electron Microscopy (EF-TEM) mode using either a Titan Krios G3i or a Krios G4 microscope (Thermo Scientific), both 517 518 operated at 300 kV. Electron-optical alignments were adjusted with EPU 3.0 - 3.4 (Thermo Scientific). 519 Images were recorded using automation strategies of EPU 3.0 - 3.4 in electron counting mode with 520 either a Gatan K3 (installed on Krios G3i) or a Falcon4 (installed on Krios G4) direct electron detector. 521 For Gatan K3 detector, a nominal magnification of 105,000, corresponding to a calibrated pixel size of 522 0.837 Å was applied, and dose fractionated movies (80 frames) were recorded at an electron flux of approximately 15 e⁻ x pixel⁻¹ x s⁻¹ for 4 s, corresponding to a total dose of ~80 e⁻/A². For Falcon4 detector, 523 a nominal magnification of 215,000, corresponding to a calibrated pixel size 0.573 Å was applied, dose 524 525 fractionated movies were recorded in electron-event representation (EER) format at an electron flux of approximately 4 e⁻ x pixel⁻¹ x s⁻¹ for 5 s, corresponding to a total dose of \sim 50 e⁻/A². Images were 526 527 recorded between -1.1 and -2.0 µm nominal defocus. Data collection quality was monitored through 528 EPU v. 3.0-3.4 and CryoSparc Live (versions 3.0 and 4.0)⁵⁵.

529

530 Cryo-EM image processing

For each acquired dataset, the same cryo-EM image processing approach was applied: MotionCor2 was 531 used to correct for beam-induced motion and to generate dose-weighted images⁵⁶. Gctf was used to 532 533 determine the contrast transfer function (CTF) parameters and perform correction steps⁵⁷. Images with estimated poor resolution (>4 Å) and severe astigmatism (>400 Å) were removed at this step. Particles 534 were picked by TOPAZ and used for all further processing steps⁵⁸. 2D classification, initial model 535 536 generation, 3D classification, CTF refinement, Bayesian polishing, 3D sorting, and final map 537 reconstructions were performed using RELION (versions 3.1 and 4.0) or cryoSPARC (versions 3.0 and 4.0)^{55,59,60}. Fourier shell correlation (FSC) curves and local-resolution estimation were generated in 538 RELION or cryoSPARC for individual final maps. A schematic overview of our processing workflow, and 539 540 a summary of map qualities are shown in Extended Data Figs. 1-3, and Supplementary Table 4.

542 Model building and geometry refinement

The first atomic model of FLVCR1 and FLVCR2 were built into the respective EM density maps of the as-543 isolated state in Coot (version 0.8) or ISOLDE within ChimeraX (version 1.5 and 1.6)⁶¹⁻⁶³, using the 544 AlphaFold predicted structures as initial templates²¹. After manual backbone tracing and docking of 545 side chains, real-space refinement in Phenix was performed (version 1.18)⁶⁴. Refinement results were 546 547 manually inspected and corrected if required. This model was used as a template to build all subsequent atomic models. The finalized models were validated by MolProbity implemented in 548 549 Phenix⁶⁵. Map-to-model cross-validation was performed in Phenix (version 1.18). FSC_{0.5} was used as 550 cut-off to define resolution. A summary of model parameters and the corresponding cryo-EM map statistics is found in Supplementary Table 4. The finalized models were visualized using ChimeraX. The 551 built models of both FLVCR proteins in different states were used as starting structures for MD 552 553 simulations.

554

555 Molecular dynamics simulations

All simulations were run using GROMACS 2022.4⁶⁶. The protein structures were embedded in a lipid 556 bilayer with 75% POPE and 25% POPG with CHARMM-GUI⁶⁷ and solvated in TIP3P water with 150 mM 557 NaCl. The charmm36m force field⁶⁸ was used with the improved WYF parameter set for cation-pi 558 559 interactions⁶⁹. Initial systems were minimized for 5000 steepest descend steps and equilibrated for 450 560 ps of MD in an NVT ensemble and for 1.5 ns in an NPT ensemble. Position restraints of 4000 and 2000 kJ mol⁻¹ nm⁻² in the backbone and side chain heavy atoms, respectively, were gradually released during 561 equilibration. The z-positions of membrane phosphates, as well as lipid dihedrals, were initially 562 restrained with force constants of 1000 kJ mol⁻¹ nm⁻² and 1000 kJ mol⁻¹ rad⁻², respectively, which were 563 564 gradually released during equilibration. The initial time step of 1 fs was increased to 2 fs during NPT 565 equilibration. Long range electrostatic interactions were treated with particle-mesh Ewald (PME) with a cut-off of 1.2 nm⁷⁰. Van-der-Waals interactions were cut off beyond a distance of 1.2 nm. The LINCS 566 567 algorithm was used to constrain the bonds involving hydrogen atoms⁷¹. During equilibration, a constant 568 temperature of 310 K was maintained with the Berendsen thermostat, using a coupling constant of 1

ps⁷². Constant pressure of 1 bar was established with a semi-isotropic Berendsen barostat and a
coupling constant of 5 ps. In the production runs, a Nosé–Hoover thermostat and a Parrinello–Rahman
barostat were used^{73,74}.

572

573 We used our cryo-EM structures as initial models for simulations of apo and choline-bound inward-574 facing FLVCR1, apo and choline-bound inward-facing FLVCR2, and apo outward-facing FLVCR2. An initial 575 structure of choline-bound outward-facing FLVCR2 was generated aligning apo outward-facing FLVCR2 576 to choline-bound inward-facing FLVCR2 and maintaining choline in the cavity. In choline entry 577 simulations, the apo structures were used with 380 mM choline in solution. Simulations of hemebound outward- and inward-facing FLVCR2 were prepared by manually placing heme close to the 578 579 observed binding region in the N-terminus of the apo structures, outside of the lipid bilayer. 580 Additionally, a simulation of FLVCR2 in the outward-facing conformation was conducted, with the heme initially positioned in front of the cavity entrance. Three replicas with random initial velocities from the 581 582 Boltzmann distribution were run for the rest of the systems. Choline release simulations were 583 interrupted after choline exit from the cavity, and hence have variable duration. For all other systems, each replica was run for 1 µs. To reproduce mitochondrial membrane potential, an additional set of 584 585 simulations was run for choline-bound inward- and outward-facing, and apo outward-facing FLVCR2 586 with choline in solution, in which an electric field of -200 mV was applied in the z-dimension.

587

Visual Molecular Dynamics (VMD) and MDAnalysis were used to visualize and analyze the trajectories,
 respectively^{75,76}.

590

591 Interior tunnels and cavities

592 Tunnels and cavities were mapped with MOLE 2.5 with a bottleneck radius of 1.2 Å, bottleneck 593 tolerance 3 Å, origin radius 5 Å, surface radius 10 Å, probe radius 5 Å and an interior threshold of 1.1 Å⁷⁷.

- 595 We calculated the volume of the cavity using CASTp with a bottleneck radius of 1.4 Å. Residues 297-
- 596 320 and 512-516 were removed from the FLVCR1 model to avoid the misattribution of the volume
- 597 between internal loops to the cavity volume⁷⁸. Analogously, residues 272-296 and 487-502 were not
- 598 included in the cavity volume calculation of FLVCR2.
- 599

600 Multiple sequence alignments

- 601 Multiple sequence alignments of FLVCR1 and FLVCR2 from homo sapiens, Felis catus, Mus musculus,
- 602 and *Sus scrofa* were performed using Clustal Omega⁷⁹.

603 Data availability

- Cryo-EM maps are deposited at the Electron Microscopy Data Bank under accession numbers: <u>EMD-</u>
 <u>18334</u>, <u>EMD-18335</u>, <u>EMD-18336</u>, <u>EMD-18337</u>, <u>EMD-18338</u>, <u>EMD-18339</u>. Atomic models of human
 FLVCR1 and FLVCR2 have been deposited to the Protein Data Bank under accession numbers: <u>8QCS</u>,
 <u>8QCT</u>, <u>8QCX</u>, <u>8QCY</u>, <u>8QCZ</u>, <u>8QD0</u>. All other data is presented in the main text or supplementary materials.
- 608 Source data are provided with this paper.
- 609

610 Acknowledgements

- We thank Hartmut Michel for support and providing infrastructural resources. We thank ChatGPT by
 OpenAI for assistance with language editing and polishing of the manuscript. We thank the Central
 Electron Microscopy Facility at MPI of Biophysics for technical support and access to instrumentation.
- 614

615 Funding

- 616 This work was supported by the Max Planck Society and the Nobel Laureate Fellowship of the Max617 Planck Society.
- 618

619 Author contributions

620 T-H.W. purified proteins, performed biochemical assays, prepared grids, collected cryo-EM data, processed cryo-EM data, refined the structure, built the model, co-drafted the manuscript, and 621 prepared figures. A.C.C. performed MD simulations, analyzed data, co-drafted the manuscript, and 622 623 prepared figures. W.J. performed cell productions, optimized purification conditions, and purified proteins. A.B. performed SSM-based assays, analyzed data, and prepared figures. S.W. calibrated and 624 625 aligned the microscope. G.G. assisted in cell culturing and protein purification. G.H., D.W., and S.S. supervised the project. D.W. implemented cell production and protein purification, prepared grids, 626 627 performed initial cryo-EM screening experiments, collected cryo-EM data, analyzed data, drafted the 628 manuscript, and funded the project. D.W. and S.S. initiated the project. S.S. designed research, 629 evaluated data, funded the project, drafted the manuscript, and generated figures.

630

631 Competing interests

632 The authors declare no conflict-of-interest.

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797

798 Fig. 1: Cryo-EM structures of FLVCR1 and FLVCR2 in their inward-facing state.

Cryo-EM density (top) and atomic model (middle and bottom) of inward-facing FLVCR1 (a), and inward-799 800 facing FLVCR2 (b). The N- and C-domains are coloured in different shades of blue and green for FLVCR1 801 and FLVCR2, respectively. A transparent cryo-EM density lowpass-filtered at 6 Å is shown to visualize 802 the detergent belt surrounding the transmembrane region. The internal view (bottom) shows the 803 arrangement of TMs, with inner side helices highlighted in orange (FLVCR1) or pink (FLVCR2). The 804 sidechain of N265 in FLVCR1 and its N-linked glycan (grey) are shown as stick models. c, Schematic 805 diagram of FLVCR family showing the topology of the secondary structure. Motifs that are not observed 806 in both cryo-EM structures of FLVCR1 and FLVCR2 are shown as dashed lines.





809 Fig. 2: Structural heterogeneity and gating mechanism of FLVCR2.

810 a, Cryo-EM density (top) and atomic model (bottom) of outward-facing FLVCR2. b, Structural superposition of FLVCR2-OF^{apo} (dark green) and FLVCR2-IF^{apo} (light green). c, Cut-away views of the 811 812 surface representation showing the cavity shape of FLVCR2-IF^{apo} (left) and FLVCR2-OF^{apo} (right). Two 813 central aromatic residues are shown as sticks. Cross-sections of inter-domain interactions in FLVCR2-IF^{apo} (left) and FLVCR2-OF^{apo} (right) are shown from the external (d), or from the internal side (e). f, 814 815 Internal view of FLVCR2-OF^{apo} showing the inter-domain interactions between H1 and H3. Residues 816 participating in the inter-domain interactions are shown as sticks; hydrogen bonds and salt bridges are 817 labelled with dashed lines.



820 Fig. 3: Cryo-EM structures of FLVCR1 and FLVCR2 in complex with choline and heme.

821 a, Cryo-EM density (left) and ribbon model (right) of the heme-bound outward-facing FLVCR2 (FLVCR2-822 OF^{heme}). The heme molecule is shown in ball-and-stick representation, and the corresponding cryo-EM 823 density is coloured in purple. **b**, Close-up views of the heme-binding site in FLVCR2-OF^{heme} (top) and in 824 FLVCR2-OF^{apo} (bottom) with locally-filtered cryo-EM density. Residues in close proximity to heme are 825 shown as sticks. A lipid molecule (grey ball-and-stick) is fitted into the lipid-like density at the hemebinding site of FLVCR2-OF^{apo}. c, Time-resolved distance plot between heme and interacting residues 826 827 from MD experiments are shown. A snapshot of FLVCR2-heme interaction during the simulation is 828 shown. For simplicity, only the phosphates of POPE/POPG are shown as red spheres. d,e, Cryo-EM densities and atomic models of the choline-bound inward-facing FLVCR1 (FLVCR1-IF^{choline}) structure, 829 and the choline-bound inward-facing FLVCR2 (FLVCR2-IF^{choline}) structure, respectively. The bound 830 831 choline is shown as ball-and-stick model; binding site residues are shown as sticks. f,g, Time-resolved

832 distance plots between choline and the highly-conserved tryptophan and tyrosine residues forming the 833 choline-binding pockets of FLVCR1 (f) and FLVCR2 (g) obtained from MD simulation runs. A cation- π interaction is assumed for distance <4 Å (grey dashed line). h, Protein sequence alignment of choline-834 835 binding pocket residues (red block) in FLVCR1 and FLVCR2 across various mammalian species. Indicated 836 residue numbers refer to FLVCR1 and FLVCR2 from homo sapiens. i, Choline-binding affinity of FLVCR1 837 (left) and FLVCR2 (right) determined by nanoDSF. Data are represented as mean ± standard deviation 838 (s.d.; n = 3). j, Representative choline-induced current traces of FLVCR1 (left) or FLVCR2 (right) containing proteoliposomes. Representative current traces of protein-free liposomes induced by 50 839 840 mM choline are shown as magenta dashed lines. Data are represented as mean \pm s.d. (n = 4).



843 Fig. 4: Proposed model for choline transport by FLVCR2.

Schematic illustration of FLVCR2 conformations during the choline transport cycle. Green-coloured states represent experimentally obtained conformations in this study. States coloured in grey are hypothesized based on knowledge about the commonly characterized alternative-access mechanism of MFS transporters.

848



850 Extended Data Fig. 1: Single-particle cryo-EM analysis of human FLVCR1.

a,b, Summary of the data processing procedure of the as-isolated FLVCR1 sample and FLVCR1
supplemented with choline. c,d, Local resolution estimation (left) and Fourier shell correlation (FSC)
curves (right) of the final cryo-EM maps of FLVCR1-IF^{apo} and -IF^{choline}.

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856 Extended Data Fig. 2: Single-particle cryo-EM analysis of human FLVCR1.

- 857 **a-c**, Summary of the data processing procedure of the as-isolated FLVCR2, heme-supplemented, and
- 858 choline-supplemented FLVCR2 samples. **d-g**, Local resolution estimation (top) and FSC curves (bottom)
- of the final cryo-EM maps of FLVCR2-IF^{apo}, FLVCR2-OF^{apo}, FLVCR2-OF^{heme}, and FLVCR2-IF^{choline}.



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862 Extended Data Fig. 3: Cryo-EM density and model fitting.

Cryo-EM map and model fits of the transmembrane and intracellular helices of FLVCR1-IF^{apo} (**a**), FLVCR1-IF^{choline} (**b**), FLVCR2-IF^{apo} (**c**), FLVCR2-OF^{apo} (**d**), FLVCR2-OF^{heme} (**e**), and FLVCR2-IF^{choline} (**f**). The map for choline and the surrounding residues is shown for the choline-bound states of FLVCR1 and FLVCR2, respectively.



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869 Extended Data Fig. 4: Structural comparison between FLVCR1-IF^{apo} and FLVCR2-IF^{apo}.

a, Structural comparison of FLVCR1-IF^{apo} and FLVCR2-IF^{apo} in tube representation, viewed from the lipid
bilayer (left), extracellular side (top-right), and intracellular side (bottom-right).
b, Cut-away view of
FLVCR1-IF^{apo} in surface representation showing the cytoplasmic cavity. Two central aromatic residues
are shown as sticks.
c,d, Cross-sections of inter-domain interactions in FLVCR1-IF^{apo} as indicated in (b),
viewed from the extracellular side (c), or from the intracellular side (d). Residues corresponding to the
inter-domain interaction residues in FLVCR2 are shown.



877

878 Extended Data Fig. 5: Chemicophysical properties of FLVCR structures and conservation analyses.

Surface charge, hydrophobicity, and conservation analyses of FLVCR1-IF^{apo} (**a**), FLVCR1-IF^{choline} (**b**), FLVCR2-IF^{apo} (**c**), FLVCR2-OF^{apo} (**d**), and FLVCR2-IF^{choline} (**e**). From left to right: Surface viewed from the lipid bilayer and both C and N domains viewed from the domain interface coloured by electrostatic potential, the domain interface coloured by hydrophobicity, and the domain interface coloured by

- sequence conservation. The cavity in the different states of both FLVCRs is outlined with dashed lines.
- Two important central pocket residues (W125 and Y349 in FLVCR1; W102 and Y325 in FLVCR2) are
- 885 indicated.



887 Extended Data Fig. 6: Structures of bacterial and mammalian choline transporters.

Experimental or predicted structures of bacterial choline transporter LicB (PDB 7B0K; **a**) and other known human choline transporters SLC5A7 (AlphaFold AF-Q9GZV3-F1; **b**), SLC44A1 (PDB 7WWB; **c**), and SLC22A5 (AlphaFold AF-O76082-F1; **d**). The lower panels show the close-up views of their respective binding sites. Choline or putative choline-binding cavities are highlighted in pink. Cholinebinding residues or residues lining a putative choline-binding site are indicated in yellow.



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895 Extended Data Fig. 7: Binding affinity screening of FLVCRs in the presence of choline or its metabolites 896 by nano differential scanning fluorimetry (nanoDSF).

a-c, Representative nanoDSF measurements (F_{350}/F_{330}) along a temperature ramp from 25°C to 95°C (top) and the respective first derivative (bottom) of detergent-solubilized FLVCR1 and FLVCR2 in the presence of a serial dilution of choline (**a,d**), phosphocholine (**b,e**), or betaine (**c,f**). **g**, Representative negative-control assay using a purified human sodium transporter from the SLC9 family in the presence of a serial dilution of choline. Magenta lines represent measurements of the samples without choline. Red vertical dashed lines represent the melting temperatures of the samples without choline and the samples of FLVCRs with 2 mM choline.



905

906 Extended Data Fig. 8: SSM-based electrophysiological profiles of FLVCRs in proteoliposomes.

907 **a**, Current traces for FLVCR1 (left) or FLVCR2 (right) proteoliposomes with buffers at different pH as

908 indicated in the figure. **b**, Normalized peak currents for FLVCR1 (left) and FLVCR2 (right) based on the

909 measurement in (a). Data are represented as mean \pm s.d. (n = 4).



912 Extended Data Fig. 9: Structural comparison of FLVCRs in their choline-bound inward-facing states. **a**, Choline-binding sites of FLVCR2-OF^{apo} (top) and FLVCR2-IF^{choline} (bottom) with the distance between 913 W102 and Y325 shown as dashed lines. b, Cut-away views of FLVCR1-IF^{choline} (top-left) and FLVCR2-914 915 IF^{choline} (top-right) showing the inward-facing cavity. Two central aromatic residues are shown as sticks. The surfaces shown below are the IF^{apo} and IF^{choline} states of FLVCR1 (left) and FLVCR2 (right) viewed 916 from the internal side. The dashed circles indicate the peripheral channel in the choline-bound state. 917 c,d, Cross-sections of inter-domain interactions in FLVCR1-IF^{choline} (left) and FLVCR2-IF^{choline} (right) as 918 indicated in (b), viewed from the external side (c), or from the internal side (d). e, Structural comparison 919

- 920 of FLVCR1-IF^{choline} and FLVCR1-IF^{apo}, viewed from the lipid bilayer (left), external side (top-right), and
- 921 internal side (bottom-right). **h**, Structural comparison of FLVCR2-IF^{choline} and FLVCR2-IF^{apo}, viewed from
- 922 the lipid bilayer (left), external side (top-right), and internal side (bottom-right).



923

924 Extended Data Fig. 10: Lateral gate in the inward-facing state of FLVCR2.

a, An MD-snapshot of FLVCR2 in the inward-facing state showing the entry of a lipid acyl group into the
lateral gate in the cytoplasmic leaflet. The POPE molecule is shown in yellow and heteroatom colour
codes. For simplicity, only the phosphates of the other POPE/POPG are shown as red spheres. b,c,
Cryo-EM density maps of FLVCR-IF^{apo} and -IF^{choline} in viewing angle of the lipid-binding site. The
lipid/detergent density is coloured grey. Lipid/detergent density entering the lateral gate is shown in
yellow. The three residues at the lateral gate are shown as stick models.

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