CryoEM structure of the outer membrane secretin channel pIV from the f1 filamentous

bacteriophage

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Abstract

The Ff family of filamentous bacteriophages infect gram-negative bacteria, but do not cause

lysis of their host cell. Instead, new virions are extruded via the phage-encoded pIV protein,

which has homology with bacterial secretins. Here, we determine the structure of pIV from

the f1 filamentous bacteriophage at 2.7 Å resolution by cryo-electron microscopy, the first

near-atomic structure of a phage secretin. Fifteen f1 pIV subunits assemble to form a gated

channel in the bacterial outer membrane, with associated soluble domains projecting into the

periplasm. We model channel opening and propose a mechanism for phage egress. By single-

cell microfluidics experiments, we demonstrate the potential for secretins such as pIV to be

used as adjuvants to increase the uptake and efficacy of antibiotics in bacteria. Finally, we

compare the f1 pIV structure to its homologues to reveal similarities and differences between

phage and bacterial secretins.

Introduction

The Ff family of filamentous bacteriophages includes f1, fd and M13, and is one of the

simplest biological systems known[1]. Filamentous phages such as Ff have many uses in

biotechnology and nanotechnology[2]; examples include as a cloning vector, and in phage

display for screening protein-ligand and protein-protein interactions. Ff is also increasingly

employed in nanotechnology, being engineered to adopt a variety of different forms such as

nano-wires, nanorings and branched structures[3,4]. With the recent, and much publicised,

global antimicrobial resistance crisis[5,6], there has been a renewed campaign in exploring the

use of phages and their proteins to target pathogenic bacteria[7,8]. Understanding the structural

and functional details of phage lifecycles is thus of broad interest for both fundamental and

applied biological science research.

Phages f1, fd and M13 share 98.5% sequence identity and infect the gram-negative bacterium

Escherichia coli. The primary binding receptor is the F-pilus - a long filamentous appendage

assembled on the bacterial cell surface. Phage virions are 1 µm long and 6-7 nm wide, with a

circular single-stranded DNA genome encoding for 11 phage proteins. The phage genome is

encapsulated within several thousand copies of the major phage coat protein pVIII and is

capped by protein complexes consisting of pIII/pVI and pVII/pIX at either end[9]. Phages bind

to the F-pilus via the pIII/pVI cap, which is followed by pilus retraction and binding of phage

to the TolQRA complex in the host cell cytoplasmic membrane[10]. The phage genome is

released into the bacterial cytoplasm, DNA is replicated and phage proteins are expressed[11].

New virions are assembled and released from the cell via a complex of three phage-encoded

proteins: pI, pXI and pIV, which form a trans-membrane complex[12]. pI (an ATPase) and pXI

span the inner membrane with pIV located in the outer membrane[13].

pIV is a secretin family protein, with sequence similarity to bacterial secretins at the core of

the Type IV pilus assembly machinery and the Type II and Type III secretion systems[14]. A

number of high-resolution structures of bacterial secretins have been determined which have

allowed detailed comparisons to be made[15,16]. All secretins are multimeric channel proteins,

ranging in molecular weight from 670 kDa to >1 MD. Reports of stoichiometry range

between twelve and fifteen subunits per complex, divided into a number of different domains.

The C-terminal domain integrates into the bacterial outer membrane and forms a double-

walled ß-barrel with a central gate forming a stricture at the centre[17]. Varying numbers of

soluble N-domains connect to the ß-barrel and project into the periplasm. The N-domains are

often poorly ordered in cryo-electron microscopy (cryoEM) structures, presumably due to

their flexibility. Type II secretins can also differ at the externally-exposed side of the ß-barrel,

with *Vibrio*-type complexes possessing a cap gate and *Klebsiella*-type lacking this feature[15].

A cryoEM structure of the f1 pIV (f1pIV) protein determined at 22 Å resolution[18] showed a

barrel-like complex with a large pore running through the centre containing a pore-gate.

We present here the cryoEM structure of the closed state of f1pIV to 2.7 Å resolution, the

first near-atomic resolution structure of a phage secretin protein. Based on the conserved

nature of secretins, we computationally model the open state f1pIV structure and its

interaction with f1 phage. By correlating our structures to phenotypic data on f1 and f1pIV,

we propose a mechanism for phage egress. We also employ a mutant of f1pIV that produces

a leaky *E. coli* phenotype and demonstrate by single-cell microfluidics that the macrolide

antibiotic roxithromycin is taken up efficiently by the f1pIV-expressing bacteria. The f1pIV

atomic structure is used to interpret our findings, which have important translational

implications for the use of secretins as therapeutic adjuvants to increase antibiotic delivery to

bacteria. Finally, we reveal the common structural motifs shared by f1pIV and bacterial

secretins, and differences in their electrostatic surface charges and modular architecture.

Results

Structure of the f1pIV secretin

The 670 kDa f1pIV secretin channel was expressed recombinantly in *E. coli* and purified in

the presence of CHAPS detergent by Ni^{2+} affinity and size exclusion chromatography. Pure

protein was identified by SDS-PAGE, Western blot and mass spectrometry analysis

(Supplementary Fig. 1). CryoEM data were collected and processed in Relion 3.1[19]

(Supplementary Table 1). Averaging the protein particles together in 2D showed that f1pIV

particles are composed of fifteen identical subunits (Fig. 1a); no variation in symmetry was

observed. 3D reconstruction produced a 2.7 Å map with C15 symmetry applied (Fig. 1b and

Supplementary Fig. 2).

The N-terminal part of f1pIV is comprised of two periplasmic N domains: the far N-terminal

N0 domain (residues 1-88) and the N3 domain (108-172), which are joined together with a

19-residue linker (89-107) (Fig. 2a). The N3 domain links to the C-terminal secretin domain

(175-405) via a two amino acid linker (173-174) (Fig. 2a). The quality of our map allowed

the N3 and secretin domains to be unambiguously modelled into the density (Fig. 1c, 2b, c),

with clear side chain densities visible in most areas (Fig. 2d). The fifteen subunits pack

against each other to form the secretin channel, with each subunit contributing a four-

stranded ß-sheet to the multimer, culminating in a large ß-barrel composed of 60 ß-strands

(Fig. 2b, c). The ß-sheets lie at an angle of 41° relative to the central axis of the pore. Within

the ß-barrel is a smaller inner barrel comprised of four ß-strands from each f1pIV subunit

(Fig. 2c, e-g). The inner ß-barrel is angled parallel to the pore axis and provides a scaffold for

two extended loops that reach into the centre of the pore, known as Gate 1 and Gate 2[20] (Fig.

2c, g). The interface between the outer and inner ß-barrels is composed mostly of

hydrophobic residues, and strengthened further with a salt bridge between Glu 185 and Arg

337 (both residues are highly conserved amongst homologues) (Fig. 2e, Supplementary Fig. 3

and 4). Extensive hydrogen bonds are formed in the inner and outer ß-barrels; within each

individual subunit, and also between each subunit and its immediate neighbours (Fig. 2f). In

the outer ß-barrel, subunit 1 forms 28 intra-subunit mainchain hydrogen bonds, and 20 inter-

subunit mainchain hydrogen bonds (10 with each neighbouring subunit). In the inner ß-barrel

and gate, subunit 1 forms 34 intra-subunit mainchain hydrogen bonds and 16 inter-subunit

ones (8 with each neighbouring subunit). The interface between neighbouring N3 domains is

mostly hydrophobic, and no hydrogen bond interactions are observed between them in our

structure. For reasons of flexibility (Supplementary Fig. 2), the extracellular part of the ß-

barrel was missing interpretable density (36 amino acid residues, positions 199-234) as well

the very centre of the pore in the Gate 1 loop (15 residues, positions 275-289).

The f1pIV secretin measures 96 Å from the extracellular face of the ß-barrel to the N-

terminus of the N3 domain, and 112 Å across at its widest point (the extracellular part of the

ß-barrel. The diameter across the inner ß-barrel is 90 Å. The pore width is constricted further

in two areas; at the central gate (40 Å) and at the N3 domains (74 Å). There are however

disordered loops in both the N3 domain and Gate 1, both pointing into the centre of the pore,

so these distances could be smaller.

The globular N3 domain consists of 65 residues which fold to form a three-stranded ß-sheet

packed against two α-helices, joined by the short two amino acid linker to the ß-barrel (Fig.

2a, b, c, g). The far N-terminal N0 domain and its associated 19 residue linker region

(residues 1-107, Fig. 2a) could not be observed in our structure. In the 2D classes, a hazy area

could be seen in the expected region, suggesting that N0 could be present but extremely

flexible (Fig. 1a, red arrow). Tryptic digest mass spectrometry was used to confirm that all of

the regions for which we either did not see density, or could not interpret the density, were

physically present (Fig. 2a).

To provide insight into the structure of the N0 domain, we employed four complementary

methods. We performed a Blast search of f1pIV N0 plus the associated linker region

(residues 1-107) against all structures in the Protein Data Bank. This resulted in a single hit

for the PulD secretin from *Klebsiella pneumoniae* (6HCG) with 33% sequence identity over

63 residues. We used this structure to produce a homology model of the f1pIV N0 domain in

Swiss-Model[21]. The same f1pIV N0-linker domain sequence was also submitted to the I-

TASSER[22], Robetta[23] and AlphaFold 2[24] structural prediction servers. The resulting models

from all methods were compared and seen to be in agreement for the folded domain (residues

2-71; Supplementary Fig. 5a). The N0 domain is thus most likely formed by two α-helices,

flanked by a two-stranded β-sheet on one side and a three-stranded β-sheet on the other. We

used the structure from I-TASSER to generate a composite model with our f1pIV structure

(Fig. 2g). Three key residues in the N0 domain have been identified as important for

mediating the interactions with the periplasmic domains of pI/pXI: Met 5[25] and Glu 4

combined with Ile 69[26]. Mapping these residues to the N0 domain shows that they are

predicted to lie at the face of N0 which would be directly opposed to pI/pXI in the

cytoplasmic membrane (Supplementary Fig. 5b).

The four N0 models diverge at residues 72-107, which is in agreement with this region being

a flexible linker (Figure 2a, Supplementary Fig. 5a). The linker region has been modelled in a

fully extended conformation and the position of the N0 domain obtained by overlaying the

f1pIV structure with that of the *Klebsiella* PulD secretin (6HCG[27], Supplementary Fig. 5c);

the distance between N0 and N3 could be closer if the linker takes on a more compact

structure. The entire length of f1pIV (from the extracellular face of the β-barrel to the N-

terminal periplasmic domain of N0) in our composite model is 220 Å. This agrees well with

the distance needed for f1pIV to cross the *E. coli* periplasm (with a width of 210 Å)[28] and

reach the pI/pXI proteins in the inner membrane.

Membrane integration of f1pIV

An additional band of density was observed in our EM map which was unaccounted for,

lying in approximately the centre of the surface of the ß-barrel (Fig. 3a). This formed a ring

around the outside of the secretin domain, reminiscent of detergent belts typically seen in

cryoEM structures of membrane proteins[29]. We modelled the detergent CHAPS, used during

purification, into this density. Two molecules of CHAPS were observed to bind to each f1pIV

subunit, forming a circle of detergent around the barrel (Fig. 3b). The detergent molecules

were bound to a ring of aromatic residues (Phe 184, Tyr 359 and Tyr 394), forming an

aromatic girdle. An additional aromatic girdle was observed nearer the extracellular region of

the ß-barrel formed by Phe 194 and Phe 196. Such clusters of aromatic residues are often

observed at the lipid-water interface in membrane-spanning ß-barrels of gram-negative

bacteria, and allow for protein positioning in the membrane[30]. Colouring the surface of f1pIV

by hydrophobicity confirms that the two aromatic girdles lie within the two main regions of

high hydrophobicity on the protein surface (Fig. 3c).

The Gate region

The inner ß-barrel, Gate 1 and Gate 2 loops form the full gate region that projects into the pore. The Gate 1 loops extend to the centre, presumably sealing the channel (Fig. 2g). Sequence alignments show high sequence conservation for Gate 1 amongst secretin homologues, while Gate 2 is less well conserved (Supplementary Fig. 3). In both cases, the areas of highest sequence conservation are found where the gates join the inner ß-barrel, with the more variable regions lying in the loop regions which face the centre of the pore. There are two highly conserved glycine residues (Gly 267 and Gly 297 in f1pIV) found at the boundary of Gate 1, which are believed to form a hinge for gate opening[31] (Supplementary Fig. 3, Fig. 4a). An extensive hydrogen bonding network was observed within the gate region (Fig. 4a). Hydrogen bonds are formed within each gate (6 mainchain intra-gate bonds in Gate 1, and 3 mainchain intra-gate bonds in Gate 2), tethering each loop together tightly. As seen in all other secretin structures to date, the Gate 1 loop has an unusual twisted conformation. Inter-gate hydrogen bonds are formed between neighbouring subunits, with Gate 1 from one chain forming four mainchain hydrogen bonds with Gate 2 (including the hinge residues) from the neighbouring subunit (Fig. 4a). Specific residues add further stability to the gate region. For example, a highly conserved Arg 293 in Gate 1 forms hydrogen bonds with the side chain of a conserved Asn 269 within the same gate (conserved in phage secretins), and with the backbone carbonyl oxygen of an unconserved Val 332 from Gate 2 of the neighbouring subunit (Fig. 4b, Supplementary Fig. 3). As Asn 269 is conserved mostly amongst phage but not bacterial secretins, we also analysed the role of this residue in context of the pIV structure. Asn 269 forms 4 hydrogen bonds – one each with Arg 293 and Asn 295 within the Gate 1 loop, and two with Thr 334 from the Gate 2 loop of the neighbouring subunit, demonstrating the role of this residue in promoting a high level of stability.

Opening the f1pIV channel

The f1pIV pore must undergo significant structural rearrangements to allow phage to egress.

To provide insight into the mechanism of channel opening, we compared our f1pIV structure

to existing closed and open gate structures of a homologous protein: the Type III secretin

InvG from *Salmonella typhimurium* (6PEE and 6Q15)[32]. Structural alignment of the two

InvG structures highlights the main differences between the open and closed states

(Supplementary Fig. 6). The core of the secretin domain and the conformation of the loops

remain similar; differences are seen in the position of the gate loops relative to the barrel, the

ß-lip and an extended loop in the N3 domain. Both gate loops move to pack against the outer

ß-barrel in the open form. The Gate 1 loop moves with a hinge-like motion, while the Gate 2

loop twists. The ß-lip at the extracellular edge of the ß-barrel also moves away from the

centre of the pore in the open structure, and there is movement of an extended loop (not

present in f1pIV) in the N3 domain. Our closed f1pIV structure aligns well to the InvG closed

state, with a Root Mean Square Deviation (RMSD) of 1.051 Å (Supplementary Fig. 6). The

f1pIV closed gate loops were thus modelled into the open form based on their position in

InvG (Supplementary Fig. 6 and Fig. 4c).

This model reveals how the f1pIV Gate 1 would likely pivot upwards and outwards on the

highly conserved hinge residues Gly 267 and Gly 297, located at the top of the inner ß-barrel

(Fig. 4a, c, d, Supplementary Fig. 3). The twisting motion in Gate 2 could occur around the

conserved Asp 321 and Asn 335 (Fig. 4d, Supplementary Fig. 3). These movements would

move both gate loops closer to the outer ß-barrel and thus result in an opening of the pore

from the ~40 Å measured in our closed structure to 65 Å (Fig. 4e). To confirm that these

dimensions are sufficient for egressing phage, we docked the fibre diffraction structure of an

fd phage (2C0W)[33] into the open state of f1pIV (Fig. 4f). Colouring the phage by electrostatic

potential shows a clear negative charge on the outer surface (Fig. 4g). In contrast, the

electrostatic surface potential within the f1pIV pore is more varied. In closed and open states,

there is a band of positive charge in the area closest to the extracellular side, followed by a

band of negative charge near the gate region. In the open state, the aperture revealed by gate

opening is mostly positively charged (Fig. 4g).

Mapping mutations to f1pIV that cause a leaky *E. coli* phenotype

Wild type *E. coli* cells (strain K12) cannot transport the bile salt deoxycholate across their

outer membranes, and those which are deficient in the LamB maltoporin cannot transport

large maltooligosaccharide sugars. Previous studies[20,34,35] have revealed a number of

mutations in the f1pIV protein that render the pore leaky to these substrates. Atomic-level

detail of the f1pIV structure can now be used to understand how these mutations cause their

effect. We mapped leaky mutations discovered by random mutagenesis (Supplementary

Table 2)[20] on to the f1pIV structure (Fig. 5a, b). The overwhelming majority (90%) were

found to lie in the gate region (the Gate 1 and Gate 2 loops or inner ß-barrel). Three

mutations (A121V, D123Y, G147V) conferring leakiness to deoxycholate and maltopentaose

were identified in the N3 domain, all at the interface closest to the inner ß-barrel; one

mutation (I183V) was observed in the outer ß-barrel (Fig. 5a). The authors also tested

susceptibility of *E. coli* expressing different f1pIV mutants to the antibiotics vancomycin and

bacitracin (which are too large to cross the bacterial outer membrane). By mapping these to

our f1pIV structure, we can visualise directly that all mutants which conferred antibiotic

susceptibility were located in the gate region (4 with sensitivity to vancomycin alone, 12 with

sensitivity to both vancomycin and bacitracin) (Fig. 5b).

We used the map of f1pIV mutants to understand more about the delicate balance of

interactions in the gates (Supplementary Table 2). The conserved Gate 1 hinges (Gly 267 and

Gly 297) pack closely together within the inner ß-barrel (Fig. 4d). Changing Gly 267 or Gly

297 to any other sidechain in the model causes steric clashes. Hinge mutations would thus

disrupt the packing in the region, interfere with hinge motion and prevent proper gate closure.

Asn 269, Arg 293 and Asn 295 in Gate 1 take part in a tight hydrogen bonding network in the

closed structure (Fig. 4b) that differs to the other secretins analysed (e.g. in Fig. 6). Mutations

in any one of these residues results in leaky f1pIV (Fig 4b; Supplementary Table 2,

Supplementary Fig. 7). We can now rationalise how these mutations lead to a more open gate

structure - by disrupting the hydrogen bonding network within the Gate 1 loop and between

two neighbouring gates.

Antibiotic uptake through an f1pIV leaky mutant

The antibiotic vancomycin is hydrophilic and bacitracin is amphipathic; both are sufficiently

small to pass through the open f1pIV pore (Supplementary Fig. 8). *E. coli* expressing the

previously characterised f1pIV mutant S324G are sensitive to both antibiotics[20,36]. Ser 324 is

located in Gate 2, where mutation to a glycine will destroy the hydrogen bond made between

the Ser 324 sidechain and the backbone nitrogen of Ser 326 (Fig. 5c). Mutation to a glycine

could also change the position of the peptide backbone, potentially altering the hydrogen

bonds that are currently made between the Ser 324 carbonyl oxygen and the sidechain of Gln

328 from the neighbouring subunit, and those made between the backbone nitrogen of Ser

324 and the carbonyl oxygen of Ile 333 (Fig. 5c). The combined effect of these mutations

likely results in increased mobilisation of the gate and improved antibiotic uptake.

Here we aimed to understand whether the uptake and efficacy of hydrophobic antibiotics

could be improved by expressing leaky f1pIV in *E. coli*. Hydrophobic macrolides are often

used as first-line antibiotics, however, they are used typically to treat infections caused by

gram-positive but not most gram-negative bacteria due to slow uptake across the outer

membrane[37]. The macrolide antibiotic roxithromycin is widely clinically employed[38], and our

modelled open gate structure reveals that it is sufficiently small to pass through the open

f1pIV channel unhindered (Supplementary Fig. 8). Using single-cell analysis with the

microfluidic mother machine and time-lapse microscopy[39,40], bacteria were injected into

channels and the accumulation of fluorescent antibiotics measured[41]. Specifically, we

employed a recently introduced fluorescent derivative of roxithromycin (roxithromycin

linked to nitrobenzoxadiazole -roxithromycin-NBD), which largely maintains the antibiotic

potency of the parental drug[37]. Accumulation of roxithromycin-NBD was significantly

higher in *E. coli* cells expressing f1pIV^{S324G} compared to wild type f1pIV (Fig. 5d). We also

measured the minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) for roxithromycin and determined a

one-notch shift against the mutant compared to the wild-type (64 and 96 µg/ml, respectively).

This indicates that the higher accumulation of roxithromycin-NBD corresponds to a higher

efficacy of the antibiotic in cells expressing leaky f1pIV^{S324G}.

Structural comparison of f1pIV with other secretins

As our structure is the first of a phage secretin at near-atomic level, we compared f1pIV to

different classes of bacterial secretins[31,32,42] (Fig. 6a, b, c, Supplementary Fig. 9). All

secretins share the same overall architecture of the double-walled ß-barrel and the first and

last periplasmic domains (N0 and N3), but differ in the number of additional N domains

(reviewed by Filloux and Voulhoux[15]). The Gate 1 and Gate 2 loops are all in similar

conformations, pointing into the centre of the pore from the inner ß-barrel. The N3 domains

are broadly similar, with the one notable difference being an extended loop region in the

Type III InvG secretin which extends up towards the central gate area (Fig. 6c;

Supplementary Fig. 9). In general, there is increasing disorder within domains closest to the

N-terminus, and many structures have no clear density for their N0 domains.

Differences between secretins are seen on the extracellular face of the ß-barrel with the

Vibrio-type group of Type II secretins posessing a cap gate which forms a much narrower

opening when compared to the other open-edged ß-barrels. From sequence analysis

(Supplementary Fig. 4), we believe f1pIV will not have a cap structure at the extracellular

side of the ß-barrel, but we could not see this region in our cryoEM map, likely for reasons of

flexibility (Supplementary Fig. 2). We are missing density for 36 residues, which is the

typical size of the ß-lip domain in phage secretins (Supplementary Fig. 4). In contrast, the

bacterial Type II secretins typically have 51-60 residues in the ß-lip region, while those with

a cap gate have around 80 residues here. Phage secretins are therefore expected to have a

more compact ß-lip structure than their bacterial counterparts.

At the far C terminus of the protein, the Type II and Type III secretins have a helical domain

(the S-domain) that packs against the outside wall of the outer ß-barrel (Fig. 6c). The S-

domain binds pilotin molecules, which are essential for the assembly and/or localisation of

secretins to the outer membrane. f1pIV and the Type IV pilus secretins do not have an S-

domain, with their respective C-termini being located at the periplasmic side of the outer ß-

barrel (Fig. 6c). Interestingly, the Type IV pilus secretins bind to their pilotin partner via a

hydrophobic girdle around the ß-barrel, in a similar place to the central hydrophobic girdle

that we have observed in f1pIV (Supplementary Fig.10).

We used the Consurf server[43] to perform a sequence alignment of f1pIV homologues, map

them to the f1pIV structure and colour them by the degree of sequence conservation (Fig.

6d). The area of greatest conservation lies within the inner ß-barrel and the region of outer ß-

barrel that packs against it, demonstrating the importance of this region for protein stability

and/or function. The N3 domain is more variable, likely as a result of evolution to suit the

function of the individual system. We also compared the electrostatic surface potential

between the different classes of secretins (Fig. 6b and Supplementary Fig. 9). The outside

surfaces have a mixture of positively and negatively charged areas, with some very clear

bands of hydrophobicity, as expected for outer membrane proteins. The surface charge inside

the secretins is quite varied; differences presumably arose to accommodate the particular

shapes and electrostatic charges of substrate that each secretin transports.

Discussion

f1pIV is the first near-atomic resolution example of a phage secretin. The protein has a

similar overall architecture to bacterial secretins, but differs in its electrostatic surface

potential inside the pore and in the number of N domains. f1pIV is relatively compact, with

no cap gate, no C-terminal S-domain, and one N3 and one N0 domain; an arrangement which

could have arisen to save valuable space in the limited capacity of the phage genome.

The phenotypes of many previously characterised mutants can be rationalised with our

structure. f1pIV shows extensive hydrogen bonding within the outer and inner ß-barrel

domains, as well as hydrophobic interactions and a salt bridge between the inner and outer

walls. Mutation of two conserved hydrophobic residues at the interface to glycines (I312G

and I314G) prevents multimer formation[20]. In addition, inclusion of a His-tag on the external

loop between the inner and outer ß-barrels has a destabilising effect, but this can be rescued

by introducing a hydrophobic mutation (S318I)[44], which lines the interface. The conserved

hydrophobic residues between inner and outer ß-barrels are clearly important for folding and

stability, and highlight the importance of the unusual double-walled architecture.

In order for the phage to pass through f1pIV, the central gate must open. Our findings,

alongside f1pIV phenotypic data and the conserved architecture of the secretin family, can be

used to propose a mechanism (Fig. 7). Our data show that the periplasmic N-terminal N0

domain is extremely dynamic. This is likely due to the absence of the pI/pXI inner membrane

interaction partners, which interact with the N0 domain of f1pIV on phage egress[12,25,26]. This

flexibility may allow f1pIV to sample a wider amount of periplasmic space than a rigid

structure, allowing the N0 domains to locate and bind to the inner membrane assembly

proteins. Bearing in mind that pI/pXI interaction with f1pIV is required for phage

assembly[12,25], this suggests that gate opening may be triggered by interaction of the N0

domain of f1pIV with the pI/pXI inner membrane components. Both ATP and the proton

motive force are required to assemble phage[12,45], and phages with mutations in the pI protein

Walker A motif are non-functional for assembly[12]. It is thus tempting to speculate that

interaction of the pIV N0 domain with the periplasmic domain of pI/pXI could result in

energy transfer from the pI ATPase to help drive phage egress. The egressing phage will

subsequently encounter the N3 domain. Introducing mutations into the N3 domain of f1pIV

causes partial gate opening[20], highlighting its role in transducing information from the

periplasmic N domains into the ß-barrel. The involvement of N3 in channel opening has also

been predicted for Type II and Type III secretins[31,32,46,47].

Our model of the open state of f1pIV highlights how the central gate loops will likely move

to allow phage to egress via conserved hinge residues on the extracellular side of the inner ß-

barrel. A 10 residue in-frame deletion in Gate 2 results in leaky multimers that are non-

functional in phage assembly and egress[20], suggesting that passage of phage through f1pIV is

not a passive process. It is plausible that interaction of the f1 cap proteins pVII/pIX with the

f1pIV gate will be required to fully open the pore, assisted by the force of the assembling f1

phage. The hydrogen bonding that we observe within Gate 1 and Gate 2 means that the loops

do not alter their conformation significantly, rather both loops are pivoted around their

hinges. The hydrogen bonds between neighbouring subunits means that all gates would move

synchronously.

The surface of the phage (comprised of pVIII) is negatively charged, whereas open f1pIV

contains a mixture of positive and negative charge, with mostly positively charged residues in

the periplasmic chamber. f1pIV can tolerate a degree of variation with respect to the pVIII

coat of exported phage. For example, f1 phages with short peptides linked to the surface-

exposed N-terminus are produced with similar efficiency as the wild-type phage[48]. There are

however key residues that may be important in maintaining specific electrostatic interactions.

For example, deletion of a predominantly negatively charged sequence (Gly3 Asp4 Asp5)

from pVIII results in f1 phage that is defective in assembly[48]. In addition, the leaky mutant

f1pIV[E292K] exhibits the highest sensitivity to antibiotics and a 10-fold decrease in phage

assembly relative to wild-type[20]. The negatively charged sidechain of Glu 292 points into the

lower cavity of the pore (Supplementary Fig. 7). Replacing this with a positively charged

lysine residue would alter the electrostatic potential in this area, potentially interfering with

phage assembly. It is therefore likely that a mixture of both attractive and repulsive forces are

important for phage assembly and egress, similar to the findings reported for the assembly

and rotation of the bacterial flagellar rod[49].

f1pIV shows most sequence similarity to GspD from *Klebsiella pneumoniae* (Supplementary

Fig. 11), and thus it is plausible that the ancestral f1 phage captured a Type II secretin which

subsequently evolved to meet the needs of phage assembly and egress. Indeed, a number of

filamentous phages do not encode a secretin, but rather hijack one from their bacterial

host[50,51]. We predict that the outermost hydrophobic girdle in f1pIV forms the membrane

embedded domain, as has been proposed for other secretin structures[15,16,42,52]. The other

hydrophobic girdle (located half way down the barrel) would then lie within the periplasm, in

a similar position to where pilotins are seen to bind to other secretins (Supplementary Fig.

10)[53]. The fact that this hydrophobic girdle has been evolutionarily maintained in f1pIV, even

in the absence of a phage pilotin, highlights its functional importance. In support of this, the

C-terminus of f1pIV is in close vicinity to the girdle, and C-terminal His-tags result in non-

functional f1pIV[44]. In addition, chimeras of f1pIV with C-terminal pilotin-binding S-domains

from other secretins (PulD and InvG) are only targeted to the outer membrane and functional

for phage assembly in the presence of their respective pilotins (PulS or InvH)[54,55]. The C-

terminus and hydrophobic girdle are thus an important interaction surface, with one

possibility being that the phage system is able to hijack bacterial pilotins, or pilotin-like

proteins, to aid its targeting and assembly.

Uptake of hydrophilic and amphipathic antibiotics have been tested with f1pIV previously,

whereas hydrophobic drugs have not. We demonstrate that the leaky mutant f1pIV^{S324G}

allows *E. coli* to accumulate the hydrophobic macrolide roxithromycin to a greater extent

than its wild type counterpart. Ser 324 mutation to Gly likely destroys important hydrogen

bonds and alters the position of the peptide backbone, resulting in a more open gate structure

that is non-selective to the hydrophobicity of the molecule passing through. These findings,

along with our f1pIV atomic model and the conserved nature of secretins, supports targeting

the secretin family as an antimicrobial approach[56,57]. For example, *in silico* and *in vivo*

screens could be used to identify molecules that can destabilise the gates, in effect sensitising

any secretin-expressing pathogen to a wide range of antibiotics. Phage therapy is also

receiving renewed attention, and filamentous phages have been engineered to carry lethal

genes to bacteria[58-60]. Leaky f1pIV could be cloned into the genome of phages of interest, and

on protein expression channels would open in the host bacterial outer membrane, allowing

antibiotics to enter. Both of these approaches would add much needed artillery to our library

of therapeutic tools needed to combat the increasing rise of antimicrobial resistance.

Methods

The system of amino acid numbering used throughout is for the mature wild-type f1pIV

protein (minus the 21 signal sequence residues). Standard reagents were purchased from

Sigma-Aldrich unless otherwise stated.

Bacterial strains

All bacterial strains used were *E. coli* K12 derivatives. TG1 electrocompetent cells were

purchased from Lucigen and used for expression of f1pIV for cryoEM studies. Strain K2040

[MC4100 *ΔlamB106 degP41* (Δ Pstl-Km^R)] described in[20] was used for the microfluidics

experiments.

Expression and purification of f1pIV

His-tagged f1pIV was recombinantly expressed in *E. coli* and purified in the presence of

CHAPS detergent (Melford) based on previously published methods[36,61]. The wild type

protein was engineered to have a 9 residue His tag (SAHHHHHHH) inserted at position 308

and a stabilizing S318I mutation[44]. Protein expression was induced with 1 mM IPTG

overnight at 20°C and cells were lysed by sonication. The membrane fraction was solubilized

in 5% (w/v) CHAPS, 50 mM Tris pH 7.6, 500 mM NaCl, 30 mM imidazole and incubated

with Ni^{2+} Sepharose beads. f1pIV was eluted with a 0.03-1 M imidazole gradient, and then

further purified by gel filtration chromatography on a Superose 6 Increase 10/300 GL column

(GE Healthcare) in 1% (w/v) CHAPS, 25 mM Na HEPES pH 8.0, 500 mM NaCl, 0.5 mM

EDTA. Purified f1pIV was separated on an Any kD mini-protean TGX gel (Biorad),

electrophoretically transferred to PVDF membrane and incubated with an anti-pIV antibody

at 1:2000 dilution, followed by secondary goat anti-rabbit IgG (H+L)-HRP conjugate

(Biorad) at 1:3000 dilution, which was detected by Clarity™ Western ECL substrate

(Biorad).

Cryo-EM grid preparation and data collection

The f1pIV purified sample (3 µl of ~0.7mg/ml) was applied to graphene oxide-coated lacey

carbon grids, 300 mesh (Agar Scientific) without any glow discharge, and frozen on a Mark

IV Vitrobot (Thermo Fisher Scientific, 4°C, 100% relative humidity, blot force 0, blot time 4

sec). Micrographs were collected on a 300 kV Titan Krios microscope (Thermo Fisher

Scientific) with a K3 direct electron detector (Gatan) at the Electron Bio-imaging Centre

(eBIC) at Diamond Light Source, UK. Data were collected using EPU software (Thermo

Fisher Scientific) with a pixel size of 1.072 Å (0.536 Å super-resolution) and a defocus range

from -2.5 µm to -1.3 µm. Further details are shown in Supplementary Table 1. A subset of

data was collected in normal mode (dataset 1), and a second subset in super-resolution mode

(dataset 2).

Cryo-EM image processing

Warp[62] was used for motion correction, CTF correction and particle picking. 241,591

particles were picked from 7,037 micrographs for dataset 1 and 330,389 from 14,336 for

dataset 2. Both sets of data were processed separately and combined in the latter stages of

data processing. Several rounds of 2D classification and 3D refinement were implemented in

Relion[19] followed by CTF refinement and polishing steps. The statistics of data collection and

model reconstruction are shown in Supplementary Table 1, and data quality checks[63,64] are

shown in Supplementary Fig. 2.

Model building and refinement

A homologous structure of the Type II secretin GspD from Enteropathogenic *Escherichia*

coli (5W68)[52] was manually placed in the cryoEM map using Chimera[65]. Subsequent

building and model adjustments were performed using Coot[66]. Bulky residues, glycine

residues and unique sequence patterns were used to guide sequence assignment during model

building. 15-fold symmetry was applied in Chimera, and the multimeric structure was refined

using Refmac from the CCPEM suite[67], with the quality of the model evaluated using the

validation tools in Coot and Molprobity[68]. DeepEMhancer[69] was used for denoising and

postprocessing of the maps, which were then analysed to check for additional information

that could be modelled from the improved maps. A Fourier Shell Correlation (FSC) curve

showing the quality of the model to map fit (calculated with Phenix)[64] is shown in

Supplementary Fig. 2.

Mass spectrometry analysis

A sample of f1pIV was run on an SDS-PAGE gel (Any kD mini-protean TGX, Biorad),

stained with Coomassie, and the band of interest excised with a sterile scalpel blade. The gel

band was subjected to in-gel tryptic digestion using a DigestPro automated digestion unit

(Intavis Ltd.) and the resulting peptides were fractionated using an Ultimate 3000 nano-LC

system in line with an Orbitrap Fusion Tribrid mass spectrometer (Thermo Scientific). In

brief, peptides in 1% (vol/vol) formic acid were injected onto an Acclaim PepMap C18 nano-

trap column (Thermo Scientific). After washing with 0.5% (vol/vol) acetonitrile 0.1%

(vol/vol) formic acid peptides were resolved on a 250 mm × 75 μm Acclaim PepMap C18

reverse phase analytical column (Thermo Scientific) over a 150 min organic gradient, using 7

gradient segments (1-6% solvent B over 1 min., 6-15% B over 58 min., 15-32%B over 58

min., 32-40%B over 5 min., 40-90%B over 1 min., held at 90%B for 6min and then reduced

to 1%B over 1min.) with a flow rate of 300 nl min−1. Solvent A was 0.1% formic acid and

Solvent B was aqueous 80% acetonitrile in 0.1% formic acid. Peptides were ionized by nano-

electrospray ionization at 2.2 kV using a stainless-steel emitter with an internal diameter of

30 μm (Thermo Scientific) and a capillary temperature of 250°C.

All spectra were acquired using an Orbitrap Fusion Tribrid mass spectrometer controlled by

Xcalibur 2.1 software (Thermo Scientific) and operated in data-dependent acquisition mode.

FTMS1 spectra were collected at a resolution of 120 000 over a scan range (m/z) of 350-

1550, with an automatic gain control (AGC) target of 400 000 and a max injection time of

100ms. Precursors were filtered according to charge state (to include charge states 2-7), with

monoisotopic peak determination set to peptide and using an intensity range from 5E3 to

1E20. Previously interrogated precursors were excluded using a dynamic window (40 s +/-10

ppm). The MS2 precursors were isolated with a quadrupole mass filter set to a width of 1.6

m/z. ITMS2 spectra were collected with an AGC target of 5000, max injection time of 50 ms

and HCD collision energy of 35%.

The raw data files were processed and quantified using Proteome Discoverer software v1.4

(Thermo Scientific) and searched against the UniProt *Escherichia coli* database (4349

sequences) plus the supplied amino acid sequence using the SEQUEST algorithm. Peptide

precursor mass tolerance was set at 10 ppm, and MS/MS tolerance was set at 0.8 Da. Search

criteria included carbamidomethylation of cysteine (+57.0214) as a fixed modification and

oxidation of methionine (+15.9949) as a variable modification. Searches were performed

with full tryptic digestion and a maximum of 1 missed cleavage was allowed. The reverse

database search option was enabled and all peptide data was filtered to satisfy false discovery

rate (FDR) of 5%.

Sequence alignments and homology modelling

The sequence of the N terminal region of the model that was not accounted for in our

structure (residues 1-107) was subjected to a Blast search[70] against all sequences in the

Protein Data Bank. A sequence alignment of the top hit was performed on f1pIV with

Praline[71] and Swiss-Model[21] used to create a homology model of the f1pIV N0 domain. In

addition, the sequence of the f1pIV N0 domain was submitted to the I-TASSER structural

prediction server[22], to the Robetta structural prediction server[23], and to the Alphafold 2

structural prediction server[24]. The top predicted models for all methods were in agreement for

residues 2-71 where they started to diverge. Open and closed gate structures of InvG from

Salmonella typhimurium were superimposed with the closed structure of f1pIV, and Gate 1

and 2 loops were modelled into an open position using Coot. 15-fold symmetry was applied

to produce a model of the f1pIV open state.

The Consurf server[43] was used to perform a sequence alignment of f1pIV homologues (101

unique sequences with 35-100% sequence similarity from the UniProt database were used for

this analysis), map them to the f1pIV structure and colour them by the degree of sequence

conservation.

Determination of minimum inhibitory concentration

E. coli cells were freshly transformed with plasmid pPMR132^{WT} or pPMR132^{S324G} and single

colonies of *E. coli* f1pIV^{WT} or *E. coli* f1pIV^{S324G} were picked and cultured at 37 °C in FB

media (2.5% (w/v) tryptone, 0.75% (w/v) yeast extract, 0.6% (w/v) NaCl, 0.1% (w/v)

glucose, 50 mM TrisHCl (pH 7.5)). Plasmid DNA was miniprepped and sequenced for each

experiment to ensure there had been no additional mutations. Protein expression was induced

overnight (in FB media plus 0.5 mg/ml bovine serum albumin) with 1mM IPTG at 20 °C,

then diluted 40-fold and grown to OD$_{600}$ = 0.5. 60 µl of roxithromycin stock (640 µg/ml in

DMSO) were added to the first column of a 96-well plate. 40 µl of the induction media (FB

media, 1mM IPTG, 0.5 mg/ml BSA) was added to the first column, and 30 µl to all other

wells. 70 µl solution was then withdrawn from the first column and serially transferred to the

next column until 70 µl solution withdrawn from the last column was discharged. The mid-

log phase cultures (i.e. OD$_{600}$ = 0.5) were diluted to 10^6 colony forming units (c.f.u.)/ml and

30 µl was added to each well, to give a final concentration of 5×10^5 c.f.u/ml. Each plate

contained two rows of 12 positive control experiments (i.e. bacteria growing in induction

media without roxithromycin) and two rows of 12 negative control experiments (i.e.

induction media only). Plates were incubated at 37 °C overnight. The minimum inhibitory

concentrations (MICs) of roxithromycin against *E. coli* f1pIV^{WT} and *E. coli* f1pIV^{S324G} were

determined visually, with the MIC being the lowest concentration well with no visible growth

(compared to the positive control experiments).

Single-cell microfluidics

Single-cell microfluidics experiments to measure the intracellular accumulation of

roxithromycin-NBD were carried out as previously reported[37,39,41]. Briefly, overnight cultures

were prepared as described above and a 50 ml aliquot was centrifuged for 5 min at 2,600 xg

at 37 °C and resuspended at an OD$_{595}$ of 75. A 2 μl aliquot of this suspension was injected in

the microfluidic mother machine device and incubated at 37 °C. The microfluidic device was

completed by the integration of fluorinated ethylene propylene tubing (1/32" × 0.008"). The

inlet tubing was connected to the inlet reservoir which was connected to a computerised

pressure-based flow control system (MFCS-4C, Fluigent). The microfluidic device was

mounted on an inverted microscope (IX73 Olympus, Tokyo, Japan) and the main

microchamber of the mother machine was washed into the waste reservoir by flowing media

at 100 μl/h for 2 h. Images were collected via a 60×, 1.2 N.A. objective (UPLSAPO60XW,

Olympus) and a sCMOS camera (Zyla 4.2, Andor, Belfast, UK). After this initial 2 h growth

period in growth media, the microfluidic environment was changed by flowing media

containing roxithromycin-NBD at a concentration of 46 μg/ml. Upon acquiring a bright-field

image the microscope was switched to fluorescent mode and FITC filter using custom built

Labview software. A fluorescence image was acquired by exposing the bacteria to the blue

excitation band of a broad-spectrum LED (CoolLED pE300white, Andover, UK) at 20% of

its intensity. Bright-field and fluorescence imaging was carried out every 10 min. The entire

assay was carried out at 37 °C in an environmental chamber (Solent Scientific, Portsmouth,

UK) surrounding the microscope and microfluidics equipment. Images were processed as

previously described[37,39,41].

Data availability

The 3D cryoEM density maps generated in this study have been deposited in the Electron

Microscopy   Data   Bank   (EMDB)   under   accession   code   EMD-12874

[https://www.ebi.ac.uk/pdbe/entry/emdb/EMD-12874]. The atomic coordinates have been

deposited   in   the   Protein   Data   Bank   (PDB)   under   accession   number   7OFH

[http://doi.org/10.2210/pdb/7OFH/pdb]. The source image data used in this study have been

deposited to the Electron Microscopy Public Image Archive (EMPIAR) under accession

number EMPIAR-10807 [https://dx.doi.org/10.6019/EMPIAR-10807]. Source data for Fig. 5d

are provided with this paper.

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Author contributions

R.C. expressed and purified the protein, prepared samples for cryoEM, processed cryoEM

data, built the atomic model, interpreted results and prepared figures. M.M. collected and

processed cryoEM data. U.L. performed microfluidics experiments and analysed single-cell

data. K.S. prepared samples for single-cell microfluidic experiments and supported R.C. S.P.

designed single-cell microfluidics experiments. M.R.L.S and M.A.T.B designed and

synthesised the macrolide fluorescent probes used in the microfluidics experiments. B.D.

interpreted data. J.R. and V.A.M.G. conceptualised the project; V.A.M.G. designed the

research, obtained funding for the project and wrote the manuscript with R.C. All authors

commented on the manuscript.

Competing interests statement

The authors declare no competing interests.

Figure 1. f1pIV cryoEM data and atomic model. a) Left, 2D class averages from Relion. A red arrow highlights a hazy area, likely resulting from protein flexibility. Right, a cross-section through the initial 3D model from Relion (generated without symmetry applied), highlighting the observed c15 symmetry (yellow arrows), displayed using IMOD[72]. **b)** Final 3D reconstruction shown from left to right as top view, side view and side view sliced through the centre. c) f1pIV protein structure modelled into the experimental density map shown as a top view, side view and side view sliced through the centre. A single f1pIV subunit is shown as a cyan cartoon with the remaining 14 subunits in yellow; the EM map is shown in light grey. A band of 3-[(3-cholamidopropyl)dimethylammonio]-1-propanesulphonate (CHAPS) detergent molecules are shown as purple sticks.

Figure 2. Structural details of f1pIV. a) Domain structure and amino acid sequence of f1pIV, showing the N0 domain (dark grey), the N3 domain (blue), and the β-barrel secretin domain (light grey). The regions forming the outer β-barrel are shown in pink, and those forming the inner β-barrel in cyan. Residues highlighted in yellow in the amino acid sequence were observed in the cryoEM map. Underlined residues were confirmed to be present in the cryoEM sample by mass spectrometry analysis. **b)** Cartoon representation of the f1pIV multimer (top and side views) with a single molecule coloured as follows: N3 domain in blue, outer β-barrel in pink, inner β-barrel in cyan, Gate 1 in orange, Gate 2 in green, and CHAPS molecules as purple sticks. **c)** Cartoon representation of the f1pIV multimer with all chains coloured as in b). CHAPS molecules have been removed for clarity. **d)** Residues 292-303 (incorporating part of the Gate 1 loop and the inner β-barrel) showing representative density. **e)** The interface between the inner and outer β-barrels is lined mostly with hydrophobic residues which are shown as sticks, and coloured by atom (N in blue, O in red, S in yellow). A salt bridge is formed at the edge of this interface between conserved residues Glu 185 and Arg 337 (dashed blue line). **f)** Inter- (blue dashed lines) and intra- (red dashed lines) subunit hydrogen bonds are formed connecting the inner and outer β-barrels. One subunit (position 1) is coloured as in b), and the neighbouring subunits (in positions 2 and 15) are shown in grey. Only mainchain hydrogen bonds are shown; images have been clipped for clarity. **g)** Composite model of a single f1pIV subunit shown as front and side views. The structure built into the EM map is coloured as in b), with a homology model of the N0 domain in dark grey.

Figure 3. Positioning of the f1pIV multimer in the *E. coli* outer membrane. a) The f1pIV cryoEM map in side view (yellow) shows density that was unaccounted for after the atomic model had been built (purple). **b)** The f1pIV atomic model is shown as space-filled atoms in light grey with the CHAPS shown as purple sticks. There are two bands of aromatic residues shown in yellow (aromatic girdles). The enlarged panels (blue boxes) show the two girdles in greater detail with the aromatic residues labelled. One full molecule of CHAPS, and one consisting only of the aromatic rings (CHAPS*) were modelled in to the ring of density. CHAPS is shown as purple sticks, and the f1pIV subunits are coloured as in Fig. 2b. **c)** f1pIV atomic model shown as surface representation is coloured by hydrophobicity, ranging from the most hydrophilic areas (dark cyan), through white, to the most hydrophobic areas (orange).

Figure 4. The Gate region, channel opening, and interaction with phage. a) Extensive inter- (blue dashed lines) and intra- (red dashed lines) gate hydrogen bonds are formed between neighbouring subunits and within Gate 1 and Gate 2, colouring as in Fig. 2b. Only main chain hydrogen bonds are shown. **b)** Close up to show the hydrogen bonding interactions of Arg 293 and Asn 269 in Gate 1. Arg 293 forms intra-gate hydrogen bonds with Asn 269, and inter-gate hydrogen bonds with Val 332 in Gate 2 of the neighbouring subunit. Asn 269 forms intra-gate hydrogen bonds with Arg 293 and Asn 295 in Gate 1, and two inter-gate bonds with Thr 334 from the Gate 2 loop of the neighbouring subunit. Gate 1 from subunit 1 is shown in orange and Gate 2 from subunit 15 in grey, and coloured by atom (N in blue, O in red). **c)** Structural superimposition of a single f1pIV subunit closed state structure (pink) with f1pIV modelled in the open gate position (green), shown in front, side and back views. **d)** Close up showing the Gate 1 (Gly 267, Gly 297) and Gate 2 (Asp 321, Asn 335) hinge residues in blue. **e)** The closed (pink) and open (green) multimers shown as space-fill representation in top view. **f)** Left, structure of an fd virion (2C0W) in cartoon form. Centre and right, manual docking of the fd virion (blue space-filled representation) into the open f1pIV secretin pore (green surface representation) in side and top views respectively. **g)** Left, electrostatic surface potential of the fd virion coloured red for negative and blue for positive. Centre and right, electrostatic surface potential of the closed (pink) and open (green) states of the f1pIV pore, coloured as per the fd virion.

Figure 5. Antibiotic susceptibility in *E. coli* expressing leaky mutants of f1pIV. a) Front and side views showing all mutants[24] that were leaky to both maltopentaose and deoxycholate as magenta sticks. **b)** Front and side views showing the mutations which caused sensitivity to the antibiotics vancomycin and bacitracin as green sticks. Mutations which caused sensitivity to vancomycin only are shown as orange sticks. In parts a) and b) the 15-residue loop from residues G275-Q289 (labelled), which is disordered in our structure, has been modelled in for representation purposes. The position of the Ser 324 mutation to Gly (S324G), analysed in part d), is also shown. **c)** Gate 2 loop showing the key hydrogen bonds made by Ser 324. Subunit 1 is shown in purple, with neighbouring subunits 2 and 15 in red and green respectively. The close up shows that Ser 324 forms intra-gate hydrogen bonds with Ile 333 and Ser 326 (red dashed lines), and an inter-gate hydrogen bond with Gln 328 from a neighbouring subunit (blue dashed lines) (N in blue, O in red). **d)** Top, individual *E. coli* cells expressing f1pIV^S324G take up fluorescently labelled roxithromycin. No fluorescence change was observed for the cells expressing wild type f1pIV (f1pIV^WT). Scale bar, 5 μm. Bottom, scatter graph depicting the fluorescence change for f1pIV^WT and f1pIV^S324G samples, confirming roxithromycin uptake in the S324G mutant. Data were analysed using an unpaired t-test with Welch's correction. **** = p ≤ 0.0001. n = 241 biologically independent cells for f1pIV^WT and n = 260 for f1pIV^S324G; error bars represent standard error of the mean.

Figure 6. Structural comparison of f1pIV with a selection of different classes of bacterial secretins. Secretins are aligned at the β-barrel domain. f1pIV is shown in pink (this study:7OFH), the Type III secretin InvG from *Salmonella typhimurium* in sea green (6PEE), the Type II secretin GspD from *E. coli* K12 in gold (*Klebsiella*-type, 5WQ7), the Type II secretin GspD from *Vibrio cholerae* in blue (*Vibrio*-type, 5WQ8) and the Type IV pilus secretin PilQ from *Vibrio cholerae* in orange (6W6M). The secretins are shown in **a)** as multimers (with one subunit coloured lime green). Periplasmic N domains not observed in the maps are shown as grey boxes. **b)** Electrostatic surface potential comparison of multimers cut-through to show the inner surface inside the pore. **c)** Structural superimposition of the selected secretin subunits (shown individually in Supplementary Fig. 8) in front (left) and side (right) views. **d)** Sequence conservation amongst the secretin family plotted on to the f1pIV structure, calculated using Consurf and based on 100 unique homologues from the UniProt database sharing 35-100% identity.

Figure 7. Model for filamentous phage egress. a) f1pIV with the gate in the closed state (salmon pink). The N3 (blue) and N0 (yellow) domains project into the periplasm. N0 is attached to N3 via a long linker and is flexible. **b)** N0 (now green, activated) is bound to the inner membrane complex of pI/pXI (purple) with pIV (orange) primed to open. **c)** Egressing phage (blue) interacts with the N3 domain (now green, activated), triggering opening of pIV (now green, open) by rearrangement of the gate. The pVIII phage capsid was drawn using the 2C0W structure, and the pVII/pXI cap added as a cartoon.

CryoEM structure of the outer membrane secretin channel pIV from the f1 filamentous bacteriophage

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Accession	Description	Score	Coverage	# proteins	# unique peptides	# peptides	# PSMs	Area	# AAs	MW (kDa)	Calc. pI
f1pIV	f1pIV sequence	2641.11	77.78	1	40	40	973	3.630E11	405	43.4	5.06
P0A853	Tryptophanase OS=Escherichia coli (strain K12)	248.61	79.83	1	39	39	91	4.152E9	471	52.7	6.23
P0ABB4	ATP synthase subunit beta OS=Escherichia coli (strain K12)	180.28	77.61	1	28	28	56	7.750E8	460	50.3	5.01
P0ABB0	ATP synthase subunit alpha OS=Escherichia coli (strain K12)	120.71	49.32	1	21	22	36	2.840E8	513	55.2	6.13
P0A6U8	Glycogen synthase OS=Escherichia coli (strain K12)	118.33	41.93	1	19	19	38	9.668E8	477	52.8	6.62
P13035	Aerobic glycerol-3-phosphate dehydrogenase OS=Escherichia coli (strain K12)	94.42	56.09	1	23	23	32	1.994E8	501	56.7	7.44
P0A6F3	Glycerol kinase OS=Escherichia coli (strain K12)	93.32	54.78	1	25	25	32	3.567E8	502	56.2	5.50
P77804	Protein YdgA OS=Escherichia coli (strain K12)	91.30	58.17	1	23	23	29	9.258E7	502	54.7	5.17
P0CE47	Elongation factor Tu 1 OS=Escherichia coli (strain K12)	71.19	73.60	2	21	21	27	1.377E8	394	43.3	5.45
P0AFG6	Dihydrolipoyllysine-residue succinyltransferase component of 2-oxoglutarate dehydrogenase complex OS=E. coli (strain K12)	63.11	34.57	1	15	15	20	1.909E8	405	44.0	5.81

Supplementary Figure 1. Purification of f1pIV verified by **a)** SDS-PAGE and **b)** Western blot. Lane 1, Biorad Precision Plus All Blue Marker; lane 2, total soluble protein; lane 3, total membrane protein; lane 4, solubilized membrane protein; lanes 5-10, fractions from size exclusion chromatography. The f1pIV subunit is indicated with an orange arrowhead and the multimer by a blue arrowhead. Lane 1 (protein markers) was cut away and visualized with white light, hence the difference in colouring compared to the rest of the blot. **c)** Mass spectrometry analysis. The top ten proteins identified in the mass spectrometry analysis are shown, with f1pIV clearly being the most abundant protein present. Protein preparations, SDS-PAGE and Western blotting were repeated multiple times during sample optimisation (n>3). Mass spectrometry was performed once from the same sample that was used for cryoEM imaging.

Supplementary Figure 2. f1pIV data quality. a) FSC curve obtained from Relion. The calculated final map was determined at 2.7 Å resolution using Fourier shell correlation at the 0.143 cut-off.

Red curve = rlnCorrectedFourierShellCorrelationPhaseRandomizedMaskedMaps.

Green curve = rlnFourierShellCorrelationUnmaskedMaps.

Blue curve = rlnFourierShellCorrelationMaskedMaps.

Black curve = rlnFourierShellCorrelationCorrected.

b) f1pIV cryoEM map coloured by local resolution (calculated with Resmap).

c) FSC curve showing the quality of the model to map fit (calculated with Phenix).

Supplementary Figure 3. Sequence alignment of the Gate region of 16 homologues from UniProtKB/Swiss-Prot coloured by conservation. Sequence 001 is f1pIV; 002-005 and 016 are other phage secretins. Gate 1 is indicated with an orange line and Gate 2 with a green line. Hinge residues Gly 267 and Gly 297 in the Gate 1 loop are denoted by circles and hinge residues Asp 321 and Asn 335 in the Gate 2 loop by squares. Residues involved in hydrogen bonding (Asn 269, Arg 293, Asn 295, Val 332, Thr 334; discussed in text and shown in Fig. 4b) are highlighted with arrow heads. A highly conserved Arg 337 found in a salt bridge in the interface between the inner and outer β-barrels is shown with an asterisk.

Supplementary Figure 4. Sequence alignment of the ß-barrel lip region of 16 homologues from UniProtKB/Swiss-Prot coloured by conservation. Sequence 001 is f1pIV; 002-005 and 016 are other phage secretins. The cap region is indicated with a blue line. Phage sequences have 36-37 residues in the ß-lip region. The remaining sequences are from bacterial Type II secretion systems and have 51-59 residues in this region. A highly conserved Glu 185 found at top of the interface between the inner and outer β-barrels is denoted by an asterisk.

Supplementary Figure 5. Modelling the N0 domain. a) Structural superimposition of N0 homology models produced by Swiss-Model (light blue), I-TASSER (brown), Robetta (RoseTTAfold algorithm, magenta) and AlphaFold 2 (dark blue). The models are in agreement for residues 2-71 (the folded domain) and differ from residues 72-107 (the flexible linker). The amino termini are labelled N and the individual carboxyl termini are labelled C. **b)** The N0 domain model obtained from Alphafold with residues Glu 4, Met 5 and Ile 69 shown as magenta sticks and labelled. Arrows are included to show the relative positioning of the N0 domain within the periplasm. **c)** Structural superimposition of the PulD secretin from *Klebsiella pneumoniae* (6HCG, green) with f1pIV composite model (brown).

Supplementary Figure 6. Modelling f1pIV in the open state. a) Structural alignment of open (blue; 6Q15) and closed (yellow; 6PEE) states of InvG from *Salmonella typhimurium* in front, side and back views from left to right. **b)** Structural alignment of the closed state of InvG (yellow; 6PEE) and f1pIV (this study: 7OFH; pink) in front, side and back views from left to right. The average distance between the atoms of the two superimposed proteins was measured using the Root Mean Square Deviation (RMSD), giving a value of 1.051 Å between 94 pruned atom pairs. **c)** Structural alignment of the open state of InvG (blue; 6Q15) and f1pIV (this study: 7OFH; pink) in front, side and back views from left to right. **d)** Structural alignment of the open state of InvG (blue, 6Q15) and f1pIV modelled in an open form (purple) in front, side and back views from left to right.

Supplementary Figure 7. f1pIV leaky mutants. An f1pIV 15-mer is shown as a cut-through, viewed from the centre of the pore. Residues Asn 269, Glu 292, Arg 293 and Asn 295 are shown in stick form in the Gate 1 loop (orange), residues Ser 324, Ile 333 and Gln 328 are shown in stick form in the Gate 2 loop (green). Hinge residues Gly 267 and Gly 297 are shown with asterisks. Colouring as per Fig. 2b.

Supplementary Figure 8. Antibiotic uptake through open f1pIV. The open f1pIV model (coloured by hydrophobicity with the most hydrophobic areas coloured orange, through white, to the most hydrophilic in dark cyan) with bacitracin (yellow, amphipathic), vancomycin (lime green, hydrophilic) and roxithromycin (purple, hydrophobic) shown as surfaces. The chemical structures of each antibiotic are shown below.

Supplementary Figure 9. Structural comparison of f1pIV with a selection of different classes of bacterial secretins. Secretins are aligned at the β-barrel domain. f1pIV is shown in pink (this study: 7OFH), the Type III secretin InvG from *Salmonella typhimurium* in sea green (6PEE), the Type II secretin GspD from *E. coli* K12 in gold (*Klebsiella*-type, 5WQ7), the Type II secretin GspD from *Vibrio cholerae* in blue (*Vibrio*-type 5WQ8) and the Type IV pilus secretin PilQ from *Vibrio cholerae* in orange (6W6M). The secretins are shown in **a)** as multimers (with one subunit coloured lime green). Periplasmic N domains not observed in the map are shown as grey boxes. The corresponding individual subunits are shown in **b)** in front and side view. **c)** Electrostatic surface potential comparison of multimers and in **d)** cut-through to show the inner surface inside the pore.

Supplementary Figure 10. Comparison of electrostatic surfaces and pilotin binding. Secretins are aligned at their β-barrel domains. **a)** Electrostatic surface charge representation of f1pIV (this study: 7OFH) and PilQ from *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (*pa*PilQ) with pilotin removed (6VE2). **b)** Electrostatic surface charge representation of f1pIV showing CHAPS molecules bound (purple sticks) and *p*aPilQ showing the pilotin TsaP bound (cartoon representation in green).

Results colour-coded for amino acid conservation

The current colourscheme of the alignment is for **amino acid conservation**.

The conservation scoring is performed by PRALINE. The scoring scheme works from 0 for the least conserved alignment position, up to 10 for the most conserved alignment position. The colour assignments are:

Unconserved 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 Conserved

Supplementary Figure 11. Sequence alignment performed with Praline. The closest homologue of f1pIV based on sequence identity is GspD from *Klebsiella pneumoniae*.

Data collection and processing	Dataset 1	Dataset 2
Acceleration voltage (kV)	300	300
Nominal magnification (x)	81k	81k
Pixel size (Å)	1.072	0.536 (super-res)
Frame rate (s^{-1})	11.93	11.93
Exposure time (s)	3.52	3.52
Total exposure (e$^-$/Å)	42.059	42.059
Particles		
Micrographs used for selection	7,037	14,336
Defocus range (μm)	-2.5 to -1.3 (0.2 μm steps)	-2.5 to -1.3 (0.2 μm steps)
Total number of particles	241,591	330,389
In final 3D reconstruction	16,104	95,575
	Dataset 1 and Dataset 2 combined	
Resolution		
"Gold-standard" at FSC 0.143 (Å)	2.7	
Map-sharpening B factor (Å^2)	0	
Model refinement		
Model composition	15 identical subunits	
Non-hydrogen atoms, per chain	1,742	
Protein residues, per chain	231	
Ligands, per chain	2	
R.M.S. Z scores		
Bond lengths (Å)	0.48	
Bond angles (°)	0.72	
R.M.S.D		
Bond lengths (Å)	0.031	
Bond angles (º)	1.903	
Validation		
Ramachandran angles (%)		
Favoured	88	
Allowed	12	
Outliers	0	
Clashscore	14	
Rotamer outliers (%)	2	
Resolution estimates (Å)		
Model resolution (0/0.143/0.5) - masked	2.5/2.6/2.7	
Model resolution (0/0.143/0.5) - unmasked	2.4/2.5/2.9	

Supplementary Table 1. The statistics of data collection, model reconstruction, refinement and validation.

f1pIV leaky mutation	Location in structure	Leaky to maltopentaose sugars /deoxycholate	Leaky (sensitive) to vancomycin	Leaky (sensitive) to bacitracin
A121V	N3 domain	✓	✗	✗
D123Y	N3 domain	✓	✗	✗
G147V	N3 domain	✓	✗	✗
I183V	Secretin domain	✓	✗	✗
G259S/D	Gate region	✓	✗	✗
S263F	Gate region	✓	✓	✓
G267D	Gate region	✓	✗	✗
N269D	Gate region	✓	✓	✓
V270I	Gate region	✓	✓	✓
P271S	Gate region	✓	✗	✗
I273V	Gate region	✓	✗	✗
G275D	Gate region	✓	✗	✗
R276C	Gate region	✓	✗	✗
V277A	Gate region	✓	✗	✗
G279D	Gate region	✓	✗	✗
S281P	Gate region	✓	✗	✗
A282G	Gate region	✓	✓	✗
N283K	Gate region	✓	✗	✗
V284A	Gate region	✓	✗	✗
F288L	Gate region	✓	✗	✗
E292K	Gate region	✓	✓	✓
R293C	Gate region	✓	✗	✗
N295S	Gate region	✓	✓	✓
V296I	Gate region	✓	✗	✗
G297V	Gate region	✓	✗	✗
S322N	Gate region	✓	✓	✓
S324G	Gate region	✓	✓	✓
S325P	Gate region	✓	✓	✓
S326F	Gate region	✓	✓	✗
T327A	Gate region	✓	✓	✗
Q328G	Gate region	✓	✓	✓
A329T/V	Gate region	✓	✗	✗
S330N	Gate region	✓	✗	✗
D331N	Gate region	✓	✓	✓
I333V	Gate region	✓	✓	✗
T334A	Gate region	✓	✓	✓

Supplementary Table 2. Leaky f1pIV mutants. The leaky mutants from Spagnuolo *et al*[20] were plotted onto the f1pIV structure shown in Fig. 5a and b. Residues discussed at various points in the main text are shown in bold.