Cryo-EM structure of the Type IV pilus extension ATPase from enteropathogenic

Escherichia coli

Ashok R. Nayak[1], Pradip K. Singh[2], Jinlei Zhao[2], Montserrat Samsó[1*], Michael S. Donnenberg[2*]

[1]Department of Physiology and Biophysics and [2]Department of Internal Medicine, Virginia

Commonwealth University, Richmond, VA.

Corresponding authors. Email addresses: montserrat.samso@vcuhealth.org,

michael.donnenberg@vcuhealth.org

ABSTRACT

Type 4 pili (T4P) are retractable surface appendages found on numerous bacteria and archaea

that play essential roles in various microbial functions, including host colonization by pathogens.

An ATPase is required for T4P extension, but the mechanism by which chemical energy is

transduced to mechanical energy for pilus extension has not been elucidated. Here we report the

cryo-electron microscopy (cryo-EM) structure of the BfpD ATPase from enteropathogenic

Escherichia coli (EPEC) in the presence of either ADP or a mixture of ADP and AMP-PNP. Both

structures, solved at 3 Å resolution, reveal the typical toroid shape of AAA+ ATPases and

unambiguous six-fold symmetry. This six-fold symmetry contrasts with the two-fold symmetry

previously reported for other T4P extension ATPase structures, all of which were from

thermophiles and solved by crystallography. In the presence of the nucleotide mixture, BfpD

bound exclusively AMP-PNP and this binding resulted in a modest outward expansion in

comparison to the structure in the presence of ADP, suggesting a concerted model for hydrolysis.

De novo molecular models reveal a partially open configuration of all subunits where the

nucleotide binding site may not be optimally positioned for catalysis. ATPase functional studies

reveal modest activity similar to that of other extension ATPases, while calculations indicate that

this activity is insufficient to power pilus extension. Our results reveal that, despite similarities in

primary sequence and tertiary structure, T4P extension ATPases exhibit divergent quaternary

configurations. Our data raise new possibilities regarding the mechanism by which T4P extension

ATPases power pilus formation.

INTRODUCTION

Type 4 pili (T4P) are the most ancient and widespread class of pili, produced by Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria and by archaea (1). T4P are composed of thousands of copies of a major pilin protein arranged in a helical array (2). They are assembled and retracted by a complex machine composed of several essential proteins, including a dedicated extension ATPase most often called PilB that is essential for pilus biogenesis. Prior to incorporation into the pilus, pilin is an integral transmembrane protein (3). Thus, PilB is thought to provide mechanical energy required to extricate the pilin from the cytoplasmic membrane to assemble the pilus. The enzyme activities of several purified T4P extension ATPases have been measured *in vitro*, with reported rates varying from 0.7 to 700 nanomoles of ATP hydrolyzed per minute per mg protein (4-9). How this *in vitro* activity relates to pilus extension, which has been measured in microns per second (10-12), remains unclear. Many bacteria also have one or more dedicated retraction ATPases (4, 10, 12, 13).

Precisely how conformational changes induced by ATP hydrolysis are transduced by PilB to lift and extricate pilin from the membrane so that it can be added to the base of the growing pilus remains an unanswered question (14). High-resolution structures of catalytic domains of three closely related PilB-family ATPases solved by X-ray crystallography revealed a two-fold symmetry of the hexamers (14-17), whereas other members of the AAA+ family of ATPases display six-fold symmetry (18-20). The PilB structures, all from thermophilic Gram-negative bacteria, have several other features in common: (1) all are hexamers; (2) the first N-terminal domain (N1D) is not visualized; (3) a flexible linker separates the second N-terminal domain (N2D) from the C-terminal domain (CTD), which contains the catalytic site; (4), a density is consistent with a Mg^{2+} ion and (5) remote from the active site, is a zinc-binding motif. Within each structure are three pairs of

subunits on opposite sides of the hexamer. In one pair, relative to the other two, the N2D is rotated

towards the center of the toroid (NTD-in), while in the other two pairs the N2D is rotated away

from the center (NTD-out). A symmetric, rotatory mechanism of hydrolysis has been proposed,

which results in a "scooping" motion in which the CTD is displaced upward and toward the center

of the ring, where it could translate this motion to membrane-bound pilin (14, 15).

PilB from *Thermus thermophilus* (TtPilB) was also examined by cryo-EM, both bound to the non-

hydrolysable ATP analogue adenylyl-imidodiphosphate (AMP-PNP) and without exogenous

nucleotide. Although resolution of only ~8 Å was achieved, this structure showed for the first time

the second and third of three predicted N1Ds (16). This more complete structure showed two

hexamers joined by a constriction. One of the hexamers, into which the N2D-CTD crystal structure

was docked, showed clear two-fold symmetry. The other hexamer, presumably representing the

second and third N1Ds, appeared to display six-fold rather than two-fold symmetry. Comparison

of the hexamers in the presence of AMP-PNP and without added nucleotide showed little

evidence for the symmetric rotary model, nor for translation of movement through the center of

the multimer. Instead, cryo-EM shows an outward shift in the center of mass of the AMP-PNP

structure relative to the structure solved without addition of nucleotide, rather than the change in

the orientation of the N2D-CTD protomers seen by crystallography (14, 15). Evidence of

displacement of the N1D hexamer by 10-13 Å was also reported. The authors suggested an

alternative model linking the N1D displacement to pilin extrication.

Overall, while available PilB structures have provided valuable information, there is no agreement

yet on the significance of the two-fold symmetry, whether it is critical to explain the mechanism

by which chemical energy is converted to mechanical energy, and which structural changes are

caused by ATP hydrolysis.

Here, we focused on the extension ATPase from a Gram-negative human pathogen,

enteropathogenic *Escherichia coli* (EPEC), which expresses a bundle-forming pilus (BFP)

distantly related to T4P of thermophiles (21). We purified the full-length EPEC PilB homologue,

BfpD, determined its structure by cryo-EM both in the presence of ADP alone and in the presence

of a mixture of ADP, ATP, and AMP-PNP, achieving unprecedented resolutions of 3.0 and 3.1 Å,

respectively, and measured its enzyme activity. The six-fold symmetry that we observed suggests

a concerted, rather than a symmetric rotary mechanism of energy coupling that may have

implications relevant to all PilB family members.

RESULTS

Negative staining and cryo-EM of BfpD reveal a six-fold symmetry

Purified BfpD was prepared under two nucleotide conditions: either in the presence of ADP (BfpD-

ADP dataset), or in the presence of ADP, ATP and the non-hydrolysable ATP analog, AMP-PNP

(termed BfpD-ANP dataset) at a ratio of 2:4:5. We reasoned that the presence of ATP would allow

completion of catalysis culminating in occupancy by the nucleotide preferred by each subunit,

depending on its position in the catalytic cycle. Examination of BfpD-ANP by negative staining in

the presence of a reducing agent showed the expected toroid structure, and further reference-

free alignment showed 2D averages with six-fold symmetry with protruding edges (Fig. S1).

After confirming structural integrity of the sample, cryo-EM and high throughput data collection

yielded 7,207 good movies and 313,223 good particles for BfpD-ADP. For BfpD-ANP, a dataset

of 9,853 good movies and 424,708 good particles with well-distributed orientation yielded two

classes, with 214,673 and 58,944 particles, respectively. Reference-free 2D averaging

demonstrates unambiguous six-fold symmetry in both nucleotide states (Fig. S2-S3). Subsequent

3D reconstruction with C6 symmetry yielded resolutions of 3.1 Å, 3.0 Å and 3.7 Å for BfpD-ADP,

BfpD-ANP class-1 and BfpD-ANP class-2, respectively (Figs.1, S2-S3). BfpD-ANP class-1 has

an outward N2D compared to BfpD-ANP class-2. The dimensions of BfpD are 130 Å maximum

width, 68 Å height, with a central pore measuring 30 Å in diameter on one side and twice this

diameter on the other.

Overall BfpD structure, active site, and hexameric association

De novo models were built for residues 107-219, which represents the N2D and 232-534, which

represents the CTD (Fig. 2A, B). N1D and the eight residues intervening the two domains were

not visualized, probably owing to intrinsic flexibility, as has been reported for other T4P extension

ATPases (14-17). The catalytic site is formed by the interface between the Arginine finger (Arg

217) of N2D, the Walker A motif (260-267), and the catalytic loop of the CTD (294-310) of each

subunit (Figs 2-3). For the BfpD-ANP dataset, despite the addition of ADP, ATP, and AMP-PNP,

the active site of all monomers was fully occupied by electron density consistent with AMP-PNP,

suggesting that ultimately ANP occupied the active sites and remained there. The presence of

ANP in the catalytic site results in an outward N2D movement, stabilized by interaction between

Arg 217 and the γ-phosphate. Both structures show catalytic glutamate residue Glu295 and

Walker B motif Glu338, 5.3-11.6 Å and 6 Å, respectively, from the phosphorus atom in the terminal

nucleotide phosphate (Figs. 2, 3). The loop (294-310) carrying the catalytic Glu295 has a well-

defined cryo-EM density and is positioned closer to the nucleotide in BfpD-ADP compared to

BfpD-ANP, assisted by a hydrogen bond between ADP and Tyr296 (Figs. 2, 3). Additionally, in

the BfpD-ADP map, Mg^{2+} is seen between Ser267 (from the Walker A motif) and the beta-

phosphate of ADP. As in other PilB-family members, Zn^{2+} is observed far from the catalytic site

and from the subunit interface (Fig. 2B), coordinated by the zinc-finger-like tetracysteine motif

(Cys403, Cys406, Cys445, Cys446).

The electrostatic map shows the toroid surface lined by the N2D domains as the side that likely

faces the membrane, because, in comparison to the CTD side, its positive charge density is

significantly higher (Fig. 4 A, B). Each subunit forms a chevron-like structure pointing to the right

(+ subunit) when seen sideways with the N2D on top (Figs. 1, 4C). At the inter-subunit interface,

the outer corner of the chevron, formed by the CTD, points towards the inner corner of the

neighboring (+) subunit, interacting by the N2D/CTD and CTD/CTD+ interfaces, with ~1400 $Å^2$

buried surface area. The ATP binding site is not involved in the inter-subunit interaction. Several

residues face each other within 3.8 Å, suggesting potential salt bridges or hydrogen bonds

between adjacent subunits. Starting from the N´ terminus of the subunit in the left, the pairs of

residues likely forming hydrogen bonds are R328-Q203, N286-Y213, N286-K129, and those likely

forming salt bridges are D330-R140, D332-R140, K383-D376, D386-R475 (Fig. 4C), where the

second residue is from the (+) subunit.

Presence of trinucleotide induces an expansion in the AAA+ ATPase while preserving the

six-fold symmetry

Comparison of the BfpD-ADP and BfpD-ANP structures reveals a subtle outward shift in position

of the N2D with respect to the CTD such that the mobile innermost N2D loops delineate a circle

of 65 Å in diameter (distance between diagonally located Ala172 residues) in the presence of

ADP, and 70-73 Å diameter in the presence of ANP class 1 and 2, respectively (Fig. 1). This

change is accompanied by a slight change in angle of 1.1° for the N2D and 1.6° for the CTD

between each monomer and the vertical axis for the BfpD-ANP structure compared to the BfpD-

ADP structure (Movie S1), which is consistent with the outward shift in the center of mass

described in the much lower resolution TtPilB cryo-EM structure (16). The conservation of six-fold

symmetry in both BfpD structures suggests that the subunits may work in a concerted manner to

translate chemical to mechanical energy.

The N2D-CTD domains of BfpD have an intermediate rotation state

We compared BfpD with the four other T4P extension ATPases homologues, each of which has

two-fold symmetry, to try to understand the mechanistic basis of force generation.

The TtPilB-ATPγS crystal structure (PDB ID:5IT5) is an elongated hexamer with two-fold

symmetry (15). In TtPilB, all six subunits are bound to ATPγS. However, one pair of opposing

subunits in the hexameric ring is in the N2D-in, or "closed" conformation, and the other four

subunits are in the N2D-out "open" conformation. The four open N2D-out subunits are

superimposable, as are the two closed N2D-in subunits (Fig. 5A). With the C-terminal domains

superimposed, we found that the open subunits have a 57º outward rotation of their N2D domain,

i.e., away from the center of the toroid (N2D-out), when compared to the closed subunits (Fig.

5A). Comparing BfpD-ANP to TtPilB-ATP indicated an intermediate conformation: the BfpD N2D

is rotated by ~42º from the TtPilB closed conformation and 18º from the TtPilB open conformation

(Fig. 5B). Similar results were obtained for BfpD-ADP, as the rotation of N2D between the two

nucleotide states was ~1º.

The *Geobacter metallireducens* PilB (GmPilB)-ANP and GmPilB-ADP crystal structures are also

two-fold symmetric hexamers, wherein four subunits are bound to ANP or ADP, respectively (14).

The other two subunits in GmPilB-ANP and GmPilB-ADP structures bind to ADP and are empty,

respectively. Two fully closed (N2D-in), two fully open (N2D-out), and two open intermediate

subunits were found in GmPilB-ANP (PDB ID: 5TSH). Within each of the three pairs, the two

subunits are superimposable (Fig. S4). The fully open pair of subunits are rotated ~60º in their

N2D from the closed subunits. However, the N2Ds of the intermediate-open subunits are rotated

by 11º inward from the fully open subunits or rotated by 49º from the closed pair of subunits. BfpD-

ANP showed ~46º rotation in its N2D domain from the GmPilB-ANP closed subunits. Consistent

with the three distinct kinds of subunits, the nucleotide-binding pockets of GmPilB at the N2D-

CTD domain interfaces have different occupancy by ATP and thus varied affinity to the nucleotide.

The N2D-in subunits have 100% occupancy of ANP and are proposed to be the active ATP

hydrolysis interface. The catalytic Glu395 at this interface is located closest (at ~6 Å) from the

phosphorous atom of the ANP terminal phosphate. The other two pairs of subunits with ANP and

ADP form an open and closed ATP binding pockets with N2D twists and 0º and 49º respectively

and partial occupancy of 58-60% ANP and 44-54 % ADP, respectively. Larger γ-P distances of

terminal phosphates, ~10 Å at the ADP and 7-8 Å at the ANP interface, are suggestive of ATP

binding and ADP/ATP exchange sites.

Furthermore, the *G. sulfurreducens* PilB (GsPilB) apo structure (PDB ID: 5ZFR) was also found

to possess three distinct N2D conformations (17). Two pairs of the open N2D subunits have 66º

and 59º rotations from the closed (N2D-in) pair of subunits (Fig. 5A). BfpD-ANP showed a ~42º

rotation in its N2D domain from the GsPilB-ANP closed subunits (not shown).

The moderate twist of the N2D domain in the BfpD structure is suggestive of a partially open

conformation. The N2D twist is similar to that of the pair of subunits in the GmPilB-ANP structure

with a N2D twist of 48º, nevertheless with a distinct rotation axis. As Glu338 and the catalytic

glutamate Glu295 are 5.3-11.6 Å away from the γ-phosphate of ANP, it appears that the ATPase

captured by cryo-EM is a pre-hydrolysis intermediate between the ADP/ATP exchange and ATP

hydrolysis steps of the catalysis cycle. The single rotation state of the N2D domain with respect

to the CTD in the case of BfpD concurs with its six-fold symmetry.

Insertions in the BfpD sequence might account for its six-fold symmetry

Amino acid sequences from five type-4 pilus extension ATPase homologues, including three that

form two-fold symmetric structures and two from pathogens that have extension ATPases closely

related to those of the thermophiles, were compared with BfpD. BfpD showed conservation in the

catalytic glutamate, Walker A/B motifs and arginine fingers which are required for nucleotide

binding, stability and hydrolysis (Fig. 6). However, several insertions were observed when the

N2D and CTD were aligned separately. The N2D contains four conserved arginines, two of which

are bound by ATP in the pair of active hydrolyzing subunits in TtPilB (PDB ID: 5IT5). We observed

insertions in BfpD around Arg183, Arg217, the linker, and in the catalytic loop that harbors the

critical catalytic residue, Glu295 (Fig. 6). We hypothesize that a longer linker and a shift in

arginine fingers might be responsible for a different N2D twist seen in BfpD. Furthermore, half of

the inter-subunit contacts in BfpD-ANP and BfpD-ADP structures were not conserved among its

two-fold symmetric homologues. Taken together, the above sequence differences in the linker

and oligomerization interface might be implicated in the observed six-fold symmetry in BfpD.

BfpD ATPase activity and kinetics

According to molecular modeling with another AAA+-family ATPase (22), the putative catalytic

E295 residue in our cryo-EM BfpD model seems to be positioned further from the nucleotide than

required for catalysis (Fig. 3 and Movie S2). We therefore examined BfpD activity, using enzyme

that had been purified by metal affinity and size exclusion chromatography. We varied the

concentration of ATP in the reaction and determined that the apparent V_{max} and K_m of BfpD at 0.5

mg/ml are 2.69 ± 0.34 µmole min^{-1} and 239.31 ± 117.63 µM, respectively (Fig. 7A). At an ATP

concentration of 3 mM, the specific activity of BfpD was 3.16 ± 0.60 nmol min^{-1} mg^{-1} (Fig 7B),

which is consistent with published results for other PilB family extension ATPases (4-7). To

assess the role of residues mapped to the catalytic site, we expressed and purified BfpD variants

that had mutations in the catalytic glutamate (BfpD$_{E295C}$), and in both that residue and the

conserved Walker B glutamate (BfpD$_{E295C\ E338Q}$). The single and double glutamate mutations

reduced the catalytic rate by 5- and 12-fold, supporting their important role in ATP catalysis.

However, in each case, we were able to measure specific activity above background spontaneous

hydrolysis (Fig 7A). The specific activity of BfpD$_{E295C}$ was 0.69 ± 0.28 nmol min^{-1} mg^{-1} and that of

BfpD$_{E295C\ E338Q}$ was 0.38 ± 0.10 nmol min^{-1} mg^{-1}. Importantly, while a plasmid encoding wild type

BfpD was able to complement a *bfpD* null mutant to restore bacterial auto-aggregation

characteristic of EPEC expressing BFP, plasmids encoding either the E295C or the E338Q BfpD

variants were not (Fig. 7C). Thus, the residual activity we were able to detect is insufficient for

function.

DISCUSSION

Using cryo-EM, we determined the structure of BfpD, the extension ATPase of the EPEC bundle-

forming T4P. The structure is noteworthy for a number of reasons. It is the first near-atomic

structure of a T4P PilB homologue in its native, frozen-hydrated state. It is the first such structure

from a pathogenic bacterium. It is an enzyme that is distantly related to its homologues solved to

date, all of which were from thermophiles (14). Despite its phylogenetic distance, the BfpD

monomer is similar to those of other PilB structures (14-17). As has been the case with all PilB

structures solved to date, the full BfpD N-terminus (N1D) was not visualized. In addition, the eight

residues intervening the N2D and CTD domains, where flexible linkers exist in the PilB structures,

were not resolved here. BfpD was determined either in the presence of ADP or ADP plus ANP.

In the BfpD-ANP reconstruction, despite the presence of ADP, ATP and ANP, the six nucleotide

binding sites were occupied by the triphosphate or its analogue. Transition from BfpD-ADP to

BfpD-ANP resulted in a slight outward shift of the top part of the toroid, a tendency more

pronounced in BfpD-ANP class 2. A similar conformational transition was observed by lower-

resolution cryo-EM for the TtPilB-ANP structure relative to the structure purified without nucleotide

(14, 15). The BfpD monomers are in a nearly identical conformation in both cases. The isolated

N2D and CTD domains of BfpD superimpose well with those determined for other PilB structures,

while the relative N2D-CTD position is intermediate between the two more extreme open and

closed conformations manifested by the other PilB structures.

In contrast to the similarity among monomers of PilB structures, the BfpD quaternary structure

revealed unambiguous six-fold symmetry, while those of the PilB enzymes from thermophilic

bacteria show two-fold symmetry. The two-fold symmetry is the basis for a symmetric rotary model

coupling ATP hydrolysis to large domain shifts, proposed to be translated via the conserved

polytopic membrane protein, PilC in the center of the toroid, to lift pilin from the membrane (14,

15). In contrast, a six-fold symmetry is more compatible with a concerted model, in which all

catalytic sites act synchronously. Of note, the crystal structure of a catalytically inert C-terminal

proteolytic fragment of TtPilB containing the N2D and CTD also displayed two-fold symmetry (16),

as does the crystal structure of the N2D-CTD fragment of GsPilB, which was solved in its apo

form (17). Thus, ATP hydrolysis is not required for the two-fold symmetry.

TtPilB was also examined by cryo-EM, both bound to AMP-PNP and without exogenous

nucleotide, achieving resolution of only ~8 Å, but, for the first time, the second and third of three

predicted N1Ds were observed (16). Comparison of the hexamers in the presence of AMP-PNP

and without added nucleotide showed an outward shift in the center of mass of the AMP-PNP

structure relative to the structure purified without addition of nucleotide (14, 15). They also

observed evidence of displacement of the N1D hexamer by 10-13 Å and suggested an alternative

model for energy transduction in which the N1D displacement is linked to pilin through a

transmembrane complex of essential T4P biogenesis proteins called PilM, PilN, PilO, and PilP.

The BfpD structures in the presence of ADP and AMP-PNP, while not compatible with the

symmetric rotary model, show subtle differences in the position of the N2D with respect to the

CTD that are similar to those seen in the TtPilB cryo-EM structures (16). These shifts may

represent evidence for transduction of mechanical energy at the periphery of the toroid, rather

than through PilC at its center. Given that structures of the N1Ds of T4P ATPases have yet to be

solved, it is possible that these differences are amplified by conformational changes and

transmitted through PilM and PilN to the outer surface of the cytoplasmic membrane. Support for

this alternative model is found in the structure of the related type 2 secretion ATPase N1D in

complex with the PilM homologue (23) and in the complex formed by a T4P pilin with the PilM,

PilN, PilO transmembrane assembly (24).

The conformation of the BfpD nucleotide binding site raises interesting questions about its

catalytic activity, as the distances of the putative catalytic Glu295 and of the conserved Walker B

Glu338 are approximately 5.3-11.6 Å and 6 Å from the phosphorus atom in the ANP γ-phosphate,

respectively. This appears to be too far for activation of the water molecule that is responsible for

hydrolysis (20). By comparison, the corresponding distances of 6-6.5 Å at the tightest interface in

the GmPilB-ANP structure, suggesting that all subunits in the BfpD-ANP structure are in a pre-

hydrolytic conformation. Nevertheless, we were able to demonstrate that BfpD has ATPase

activity that is comparable to that reported for several other such enzymes (4-8). Surprisingly, we

were also able to measure ATPase activity above background in a BfpD variant that has mutations

in both Glu295 and Glu338, which suggests that mere binding of ATP to the open pocket facilitates

hydrolysis. However, the residual activity is insufficient for pilus biogenesis, as demonstrated by

expressing these variants in a *bfpD* null mutant. We further suggest that neither the *in vitro* activity

we were able to measure in wild type BfpD, nor that of any other PilB homologue is sufficient to

power T4P extension. BfpD specific activity of about 3 nmol min^{-1} mg^{-1} corresponds to 0.02 ATP

molecules hydrolyzed per second per hexamer. In contrast, given an axial rise of 10.5 Å,

corresponding to 952 subunits per micron in a T4P (25), real-time video demonstrates that the

rate of T4P extension equates to 333 - 1072 subunits added per second (10-12). Assuming that

each subunit added requires at least one ATP, these *in vitro* enzyme activity measurements fall

short of the values required *in vivo* by more that 10,000-fold. If six ATPs are required per subunit,

this shortfall multiplies correspondingly. Modifications to the *in vitro* assays, such as addition of

phospholipids or partner proteins (26), or imposed hexamerization (27), as well adjustments to

the assumptions, would do little to alter this arithmetic. A similar conclusion was reached by the

authors of the study that described a thermophilic PilB enzyme with specific activity of 700

nanomoles mg^{-1} min^{-1} (9). They suggested that enzyme activity must be higher *in vivo* where

partner proteins are in optimal orientation and concentration. Interestingly, these authors

described complex enzyme kinetics including substrate inhibition at concentrations exceeding 1.5

mM ATP and a non-linear relationship between substrate concentration and catalytic rate below

that concentration. They interpreted these results as consistent with the symmetric rotary model

of catalysis that had been proposed for TtPilB. In contrast, BfpD displayed simple Michaelis-

Menton kinetics compatible with a concerted model. The fact that all enzyme subunits were

occupied by the nucleotide triphosphate or triphosphate analogue in the presence of ADP, ATP,

and ANP is also consistent with a concerted model.

In summary, we report the first 3D structure of a T4P extension ATPase from a human pathogen.

The BfpD structure determined under cryogenic conditions in a native state, unparalleled in its

detail, in the presence of ADP and a non-hydrolysable ATP homologue, lays a structural

foundation to understand similarities and differences of T4P machinery among different clades.

The study expands our understanding of mechanisms of catalysis, activation, and energy

transduction of the PilB family of T4P extension ATPases.

METHODS

Site-directed mutation of putative BfpD active site residues

All bacterial strains and plasmids used in this study are listed in Table S2. A codon-optimized

bfpD gene in plasmid BfpD-Hcp (GenScript, USA, a kind gift from Dr. Kurt Piepenbrink, Fig. S5)

was amplified using PCR with primers BfpDNcoI and BfpDXhoI (Table S3), creating a Leu to Val

substitution at codon two to allow cloning into a pET30a plasmid vector at NcoI/XhoI sites and

creating plasmid pJZM005. Fast-Cloning (28) was used to introduce substitutions for glutamate

codons at amino acid positions 295 and 338 of BfpD in plasmids pJZM005 and pJZM032,

respectively. In short, a pair of primers (Table S3) was designed such that each has a

complementary sequence including the mutated codon and divergent sequences overlapping with

bfpD. Codons specifying neutrally charged hydrophilic amino acids of similar size to glutamate

were chosen to minimize disruptions to structure and those that could be expressed and purified

were studied further. The PCR products were digested with DpnI and subsequently transformed

into *E. coli* DH5α competent cells. The plasmids pJZM032 and pJZM042 encoding BfpD$_{E295C}$ and

BfpD$_{E295C\ E338Q}$ respectively, were confirmed by sequencing, expressed, and purified from *E. coli*

BL21(DE3) as described below. To make plasmids for *in vivo* complementation, we first

constructed a plasmid harboring wild type *bfpD* in low-copy-number cloning vector pWKS30 (29).

To do this, *bfpD* with its N-terminal His tag and S tag, was isolated from pRPA405 (30) as an

XbaI-SacI fragment, and inserted into pWKS30. The resultant plasmid pEMM1 was later

discovered to lack its native stop codon, while a stop codon on the vector was noted downstream,

thus adding an elongated non-native C-terminus to the predicted protein. We used FastCloning

to restore a TAG stop codon in its original position in pEMM1, and the new plasmid was named

pJZM031. Thereafter, pJZM031 was used as template to introduce E295C and E338Q mutations

to obtain pJZM032 and pJZM036, respectively. FastCloning was used to introduce the E295C

mutation. For the E338Q mutation, we first introduced the mutation using overlap extension PCR

(31), which was later cloned into pJZM031 (XbaI/SacI digested). Auto-aggregation and

disaggregation were assessed as previously described (30). Briefly, overnight cultures of

E2348/69, UMD926 and VCU019 containing pWKS30, pJZM031, pJZM032, or pJZM036 were

diluted 100-fold in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (Corning) and grown for 4 h at 37 °C

before examination by phase-contrast microscopy.

BfpD, BfpD$_{E295C}$ and BfpD$_{E295C\ E338Q}$ expression and purification

For purification of BfpD, *E. coli* strain BL21(DE3) pJZM005 was grown at 37°C in Luria-Bertani

medium to an optical density at 600 nm (OD$_{600}$) of 0.6 and induced with 1 mM isopropyl β-D-1-

thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG) at 16°C overnight. Cells were harvested by centrifugation,

sonicated in lysis buffer (50 mM PO$_4$, 300 mM NaCl, pH 8.0, 10 mM imidazole), and purified by

affinity chromatography on Cobalt-NTA resin, created by stripping nickel from a Ni-NTA (Qiagen,

USA) column with 100 mM EDTA and replacing with 10 mM CoCl$_2$. Fractions eluted with 250 mM

imidazole were analyzed by SDS page, combined, and dialyzed against buffer (20 mM Tris–HCl,

pH 7.6, 100 mM NaCl, 1 mM MgCl$_2$, 2 mM DTT) at 4°C. For some experiments, a Suprose6 10/300

column was used to achieve further purification, as noted.

Negative staining and 2D averaging

366   BfpD in 20 mM Tris (pH 7.6), 0.1 M NaCl, 5 mM MgCl$_2$, 2 mM DTT and 1 mM ADP was diluted to

367   0.01-0.03 mg/ml and stained with 0.75% uranyl nitrate using an established protocol (32). Images

368   were acquired at 50000X magnification in low dose mode with a Tecnai F20 microscope operated

369   at 120kV. Reference-free 2D averages were obtained with the SPIDER program (33).

Cryo-EM grid preparation and data acquisition

The cryo-EM sample buffer consisted of 20 mM Tris (pH 7.6), 0.1 mM NaCl, 5 mM MgCl$_2$, 2mM

DTT and 0.5 mM CHAPSO, and additionally either a mixture of ADP (1 mM), ATP and ANP at a

2:4:5 millimolar ratio or 1 mM ADP alone. Usage of CHAPSO improved BfpD orientation in

vitreous ice which enabled successful 3D reconstruction. The 300 mesh UltraAufoil -1.2/1.3 holey-

gold (Quantifoil, Germany) grids were cleaned with a customized protocol (34) prior to glow

discharge. Purified BfpD was diluted to 4.5 mg/ml and 3 µl was applied to a glow-discharged 300

mesh UltraAufoil -1.2/1.3 holey-gold (Quantifoil, Germany). Grids were blotted for 2 s with ash-

free Whatman® Grade 540 filter paper in a Vitrobot Mark IV (ThermoFisher Scientific) and plunged

into liquid ethane. Sample quality and distribution was assessed on a Tecnai F20 (ThermoFisher

Scientific) electron microscope. Data acquisition was carried out in a Titan Krios transmission

electron microscope (ThermoFisher Scientific) operated at 300 kV and counting mode, with a

Gatan K3 detector and a 10 eV slit width Gatan Quantum Energy Filter (GIF). Datasets were

collected in automated mode with the program Latitude (Gatan) with cumulative electron dose of

60 e-/Å^2 applied over 40 frames.

Single-particle image processing

Movie stacks collected for BfpD-ANP and BfpD-ADP datasets were processed in cryosparc2.15.

Gain-normalization, movie-frame alignment, dose-weighting, and full and local motion correction

were carried out with the patch motion correction. Global and local contrast transfer function

values were estimated from non-dose weighted motion-corrected images using patch CTF

module. Bad micrographs with ice and ethane contamination and poor CTF fits were discarded.

Subsequent image processing operations were carried out using dose-weighted, motion-

corrected micrographs. 2D-class average images obtained from 1000 manually picked particles

were used to pick about 2.83 and 1.04 million particles in ANP and ADP datasets. Extensive 2D-

classifications of 4-8 rounds yielded 424708 and 313223 pure particles which led to 2.98 and 3.1

Å consensus maps. The reported resolutions of the cryo-EM maps are based on FSC 0.143

criterion (35). Six-fold rotational symmetry (C6) confirmed from the 2D class averages was applied

during 3D refinement. The density of ANP was confirmed at the interphase of N2D and CTD,

though 2.5:1 millimolar mixture of ANP and ADP was used in the mixed nucleotide dataset. A

summary of image processing of the ANP and ADP datasets can be found in Figs S1, S2,

respectively.

De novo model building and structure refinement

A crude model for a single BfpD subunit was built using the ADP map with _Phenix.map_to_model_

tool (36), which was improved by chain tracing. The regions from 107-223 (N2D), 231-534 (CTD)

were built. The density for the N-terminus (N1D; 1-106) and flexible linker connecting N2D and

CTD (224-230) was not visualized. A clear density for a loop spanning 294-310 in the ADP

structure was obtained which is disordered in the ANP structure. The monomeric model was

expanded to a hexamer model. Local density fit of the modeled sequence was improved over an

iterative process of amino acid fitting in Coot (37) alternated with real space refinement in PHENIX

(38). Real space refinement was carried out with NCS constraints and secondary structure and

Ramachandran restraints. Comprehensive model validation was carried out with PHENIX and

PDB validation server at https://validate-rcsb-2.wwpdb.org/ and are summarized in Table S1.

Surface charge was calculated with chimera (39). Figures were generated with The PyMOL

Molecular Graphics System, Version 2.0 Schrödinger, LLC (https://pymol.org) and chimera.

ATPase activity

ATPase activity was measured using a previously established method (40, 41) with slight

modifications. In brief, stocks of BfpD purified by cobalt affinity chromatography were prepared in

assay buffer (150 mM Tris–HCl, pH 7.6, 300 mM NaCl, 1 mM $MgCl_2$, 2 mM DTT) to achieve 0.5

mg/ml in the final reaction and mixed with various concentrations (50 μM - 1500 μM) of freshly

prepared ATP in the same assay buffer. The reaction mixtures (in triplicate) were aliquoted to 96-

well plates (one plate for each time point) and incubated at 37°C. At the defined time points, the

reaction was stopped by adding 100 μl of the assay reagent (a 3:1 mixture of freshly prepared

0.045% malachite green hydrochloride in water and 4.2% ammonium molybdate in 4 N HCl, along

with 1% Triton X-100) and followed by 20 μL of citrate solution (34%). The absorbance at 655 nm

was measured on a Clariostar Monochromator Microplate Reader (BMG Labtech). The ATPase

activity was extrapolated from a standard curve of a set of defined phosphate concentrations

present in two columns of each plate. To measure apparent K_m and V_{max}, various ATP

concentrations, and the reaction was terminated at multiple time points. Released PO_4

concentration was plotted as a function of time for the different ATP concentrations and the slope

was used as initial velocity (V_0). Data from seven biological replicates were fit by nonlinear

regression to the Michaelis-Menten equation with SigmaPlot® (Systat Software, Inc.) to calculate

apparent K_m and V_{max}. The specific activity of BfpD was measured by varying BfpD concentrations

(0.125 – 2.0 mg/ml) in the assay buffer (above) with 3 mM ATP and a 30 min reaction time at

37°C. The rate of T4P extension in microns per time was estimated from several studies with

various methods (10-12) and from an estimate of 952 T4P subunits per micron in the pilus (25).

Appendix

Supplementary material for this article is available in a separate file.

Data availability

Cryo-EM maps of BfpD-ANP class-1, 2 and BfpD-ADP have been deposited in the Electron

Microscopy Databank (EMDB) with accession codes 27795, 27796 and 27797 respectively.

Atomic models of BfpD-ANP class-1, 2 and BfpD-ADP have been deposited in the RCSB PDB

database with accession codes 8DZE, 8DZF, and 8DZG respectively.

Acknowledgments

We are grateful to Kurt Piepenbrink (currently at University of Nebraska) for a providing codon-

optimized BfpD construct. Cryo-grid preparation and screening were carried out at the Cryo-EM

Unit at Virginia Commonwealth University (VCU), and data collection was carried out at the

Molecular Electron Microscopy Core Facility at the University of Virginia (UVA) (supported by NIH

U24 GM116790). We thank Dr. Kelly Dryden for cryo-EM data collection. Supported by VCU

Accelerate Fund (to M.D. and M.S), NIH R56 AI111767 (to M.D.), and NIH R01 AR068431 (to

M.S).

Author contributions

455   J.L. performed protein purification and mutagenesis; P.K.S. performed enzyme assays; A.R.N.

456   performed protein cryo-grid preparation, image processing and model building; A.R.N, M.S. and

457   M.D. interpreted the structural data; M.D. and M.S conceived, designed and supervised all

458   experiments, M.D., M.S., and A.N. wrote the manuscript.

Conflict of interest

461   Authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

References

1.　Singh PK, Little J, Donnenberg MS. 2022. Landmark Discoveries and Recent Advances in Type IV
Pilus Research. Microbiol Mol Biol Rev doi:10.1128/mmbr.00076-22:e0007622.

2.　Craig L, Forest KT, Maier B. 2019. Type IV pili: dynamics, biophysics and functional consequences.
Nat Rev Microbiol 17:429-440.

3.　Zhang HZ, Donnenberg MS. 1996. DsbA is required for stability of the type IV pilin of
enteropathogenic escherichia coli. Mol Microbiol 21:787-97.

4.　Jakovljevic V, Leonardy S, Hoppert M, Sogaard-Andersen L. 2008. PilB and PilT are ATPases acting
antagonistically in type IV pilus function in *Myxococcus xanthus*. J Bacteriol 190:2411-21.

5.　Hendrick WA, Orr MW, Murray SR, Lee VT, Melville SB. 2017. Cyclic Di-GMP Binding by an
Assembly ATPase (PilB2) and Control of Type IV Pilin Polymerization in the Gram-Positive
Pathogen Clostridium perfringens. J Bacteriol 199.

6.　Sakai D, Horiuchi T, Komano T. 2001. Atpase activity and multimer formation of Pilq protein are
required for thin pilus biogenesis in plasmid R64. J Biol Chem 276:17968-75.

7.　Chiang P, Sampaleanu LM, Ayers M, Pahuta M, Howell PL, Burrows LL. 2008. Functional role of
conserved residues in the characteristic secretion NTPase motifs of the Pseudomonas aeruginosa
type IV pilus motor proteins PilB, PilT and PilU. Microbiology (Reading) 154:114-126.

8.　Kruse K, Salzer R, Joos F, Averhoff B. 2018. Functional dissection of the three N-terminal general
secretory pathway domains and the Walker motifs of the traffic ATPase PilF from *Thermus*
thermophilus. Extremophiles 22:461-471.

9.   Sukmana A, Yang Z. 2018. The type IV pilus assembly motor PilB is a robust hexameric ATPase with

complex kinetics. Biochem J 475:1979-1993.

10.   Maier B, Koomey M, Sheetz MP. 2004. A force-dependent switch reverses type IV pilus retraction.

Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 101:10961-6.

11.   Skerker JM, Berg HC. 2001. Direct observation of extension and retraction of type IV pili. Proc Natl

Acad Sci U S A 98:6901-4.

12.   Ellison CK, Dalia TN, Vidal Ceballos A, Wang JC, Biais N, Brun YV, Dalia AB. 2018. Retraction of DNA-

bound type IV competence pili initiates DNA uptake during natural transformation in *Vibrio*

cholerae. Nat Microbiol 3:773-780.

13.   Clausen M, Koomey M, Maier B. 2009. Dynamics of type IV pili is controlled by switching between

multiple states. Biophys J 96:1169-77.

14.   McCallum M, Tammam S, Khan A, Burrows LL, Howell PL. 2017. The molecular mechanism of the

type IVa pilus motors. Nat Commun 8:15091.

15.   Mancl JM, Black WP, Robinson H, Yang Z, Schubot FD. 2016. Crystal Structure of a Type IV Pilus

Assembly ATPase: Insights into the Molecular Mechanism of PilB from *Thermus thermophilus*.

Structure 24:1886-1897.

16.   Collins R, Karuppiah V, Siebert CA, Dajani R, Thistlethwaite A, Derrick JP. 2018. Structural cycle of

the *Thermus thermophilus* PilF ATPase: the powering of type IVa pilus assembly. Sci Rep 8:14022.

17.   Solanki V, Kapoor S, Thakur KG. 2018. Structural insights into the mechanism of Type IVa pilus

extension and retraction ATPase motors. FEBS J 285:3402-3421.

18.   Jessop M, Arragain B, Miras R, Fraudeau A, Huard K, Bacia-Verloop M, Catty P, Felix J, Malet H,

Gutsche I. 2020. Structural insights into ATP hydrolysis by the MoxR ATPase RavA and the LdcI-

RavA cage-like complex. Commun Biol 3:46.

19.   Landsberg MJ, Vajjhala PR, Rothnagel R, Munn AL, Hankamer B. 2009. Three-dimensional

structure of AAA ATPase Vps4: advancing structural insights into the mechanisms of endosomal

sorting and enveloped virus budding. Structure 17:427-37.

20.   Zhang X, Shaw A, Bates PA, Newman RH, Gowen B, Orlova E, Gorman MA, Kondo H, Dokurno P,

Lally J, Leonard G, Meyer H, van Heel M, Freemont PS. 2000. Structure of the AAA ATPase p97.

Mol Cell 6:1473-84.

21.   Stone KD, Zhang HZ, Carlson LK, Donnenberg MS. 1996. A cluster of fourteen genes from

enteropathogenic *Escherichia coli* is sufficient for the biogenesis of a type IV pilus. Mol Microbiol

20:325-37.

22.   Priess M, Goddeke H, Groenhof G, Schafer LV. 2018. Molecular Mechanism of ATP Hydrolysis in

an ABC Transporter. ACS Cent Sci 4:1334-1343.

23.   Abendroth J, Murphy P, Sandkvist M, Bagdasarian M, Hol WG. 2005. The X-ray structure of the

type II secretion system complex formed by the N-terminal domain of EpsE and the cytoplasmic

domain of EpsL of *Vibrio cholerae*. J Mol Biol 348:845-55.

24.   Karuppiah V, Collins RF, Thistlethwaite A, Gao Y, Derrick JP. 2013. Structure and assembly of an

inner membrane platform for initiation of type IV pilus biogenesis. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A

110:E4638-47.

25.   Craig L, Volkmann N, Arvai AS, Pique ME, Yeager M, Egelman EH, Tainer JA. 2006. Type IV pilus

525   structure by cryo-electron microscopy and crystallography: implications for pilus assembly and

526   functions. Mol Cell 23:651-62.

527   26.   Camberg JL, Johnson TL, Patrick M, Abendroth J, Hol WG, Sandkvist M. 2007. Synergistic

528   stimulation of EpsE ATP hydrolysis by EpsL and acidic phospholipids. EMBO J 26:19-27.

529   27.   Lu C, Turley S, Marionni ST, Park YJ, Lee KK, Patrick M, Shah R, Sandkvist M, Bush MF, Hol WG.

530   2013. Hexamers of the type II secretion ATPase GspE from *Vibrio cholerae* with increased ATPase

531   activity. Structure 21:1707-17.

532   28.   Li C, Wen A, Shen B, Lu J, Huang Y, Chang Y. 2011. FastCloning: a highly simplified, purification-

533   free, sequence- and ligation-independent PCR cloning method. BMC Biotechnol 11:92.

534   29.   Wang RF, Kushner SR. 1991. Construction of versatile low-copy-number vectors for cloning,

535   sequencing and gene expression in *Escherichia coli*. Gene 100:195-9.

536   30.   Crowther LJ, Anantha RP, Donnenberg MS. 2004. The inner membrane subassembly of the

537   enteropathogenic Escherichia coli bundle-forming pilus machine. Molecular Microbiology 52:67-

538   79.

539   31.   Higuchi R, Krummel B, Saiki RK. 1988. A general method of in vitro preparation and specific

540   mutagenesis of DNA fragments: study of protein and DNA interactions. Nucleic Acids Res 16:7351-

541   67.

542   32.   Ohi M, Li Y, Cheng Y, Walz T. 2004. Negative Staining and Image Classification - Powerful Tools in

543   Modern Electron Microscopy. Biol Proced Online 6:23-34.

33. Shaikh TR, Gao H, Baxter WT, Asturias FJ, Boisset N, Leith A, Frank J. 2008. SPIDER image

processing for single-particle reconstruction of biological macromolecules from electron

micrographs. Nat Protoc 3:1941-74.

34. Passmore LA, Russo CJ. 2016. Specimen Preparation for High-Resolution Cryo-EM. Methods

Enzymol 579:51-86.

35. Scheres SH, Chen S. 2012. Prevention of overfitting in cryo-EM structure determination. Nat

Methods 9:853-4.

36. Terwilliger TC, Adams PD, Afonine PV, Sobolev OV. 2018. A fully automatic method yielding initial

models from high-resolution cryo-electron microscopy maps. Nat Methods 15:905-908.

37. Emsley P, Lohkamp B, Scott WG, Cowtan K. 2010. Features and development of Coot. Acta

Crystallogr D Biol Crystallogr 66:486-501.

38. Afonine PV, Poon BK, Read RJ, Sobolev OV, Terwilliger TC, Urzhumtsev A, Adams PD. 2018. Real-

space refinement in PHENIX for cryo-EM and crystallography. Acta Crystallogr D Struct Biol

74:531-544.

39. Pettersen EF, Goddard TD, Huang CC, Couch GS, Greenblatt DM, Meng EC, Ferrin TE. 2004. UCSF

Chimera--a visualization system for exploratory research and analysis. J Comput Chem 25:1605-

12.

40. Lanzetta PA, Alvarez LJ, Reinach PS, Candia OA. 1979. An improved assay for nanomole amounts

of inorganic phosphate. Anal Biochem 100:95-7.

41.   Yamagata A, Milgotina E, Scanlon K, Craig L, Tainer JA, Donnenberg MS. 2012. Structure of an

564   essential type IV pilus biogenesis protein provides insights into pilus and type II secretion systems.

565   J Mol Biol 419:110-24.

Figures
568

Figure 1. Cryo-EM maps of six-fold symmetric BfpD and its nucleotide binding pocket. 3D
570

reconstruction of BfpD in (A) ADP and (B) a mixture of ADP, ATP, and ANP resolved at 3.0 Å and
571

3.1 Å resolution shown in two orthogonal orientations. Top row, view N2D facing the viewer.
572

Bottom row, side view with N2D at the top. The diameter of BfpD toroid center expands by ~5 Å
573

(arrows) in the presence of ANP compared to the diphosphate. Each subunit is colored differently,
574

and the nucleotide is represented in cyan. The EM density for the loop harboring catalytic Glu295
575

(magenta) is well defined in the ADP structure, but not in the ANP structure (red oval).
576

Figure 2. *De novo* models of BfpD-ADP (A) and BfpD-ANP (B). In the upper panel, each monomer is represented in a different color. The middle panel shows the domain organization of one subunit with the nucleotide, Mg^{2+}, ordered catalytic loop and tetracysteine motif shown in BfpD-ADP. Key amino acids at the N2D-CTD domain interface responsible for nucleotide binding (black) and hydrolysis (magenta) are shown in the lower panel. The catalytic Glu295 and Walker B Glu338

584   are positioned at 5.3-11.6 and ~6 Å in ADP and ANP models respectively. In the BfpD-ANP model,

585   an interaction between the γ-phosphate and Arg217 repositions the loop carrying the catalytic

586   Glu295.

Figure 3. BfpD active site reorganization upon ATP hydrolysis. 2D representation of the BfpD

catalytic site in (A) BfpD-ADP, (B) BfpD-ANP-class1, and (C) BfpD-ANP-class2 structures. The

detail shows changes in the interaction network associated with the conformational change that

occurs upon transition from dinucleotide to trinucleotide bound. Arg217 repositions to stabilize

and place the γ-phosphate of ANP at a farther distance from Glu295. Hydrogen bonds, in Å, are

594   shown with green dashed lines, non-bonded interactions are shown by red arcs. Tyr296 and

595   Arg217 are highlighted to emphasize their important role in the indicated conformations.

Figure 4. Charge distribution and interacting surfaces of BfpD. Surface electrostatics representation for BfpD-ADP (A) and BfpD-ANP (B). Top, the N2D facing surface of BfpD that has clusters of positively charged residues (in blue), suggesting this side most likely faces the plasma membrane. Bottom, CTD facing surface showing overall negatively charged residues (in red). (C) Top, side view of two neighboring BfpD subunits with the interacting space highlighted (green). Bottom, the CTD of the left subunit (tan) interacts with the N2D+ and CTD+ of the subunit (salmon) on the right. Salt bridges and hydrogen bonds <3.7 Å are shown.

Figure 5. The N-terminal domain of BfpD has a distinct twist and rotation axis. (A) Two distinct

conformations of pilus extension ATPase subunits were found in two-fold symmetric TtPilB,

GmPilB, and GsPilB bound to ATP, AMP-PNP (ANP), and phosphate (pp) respectively. In A, the

closed, left, and open, right, subunits are overlaid, keeping the CTDs fixed. The arrow shows

rotation in N2D from closed to open conformation in each structure. In (B) and (C), the N2D

domain of enteropathogenic *E. coli* BfpD is compared with the TtPilB-ATP and GmPilB-ANP

structures, respectively. The arrow in the left indicates transition from closed TtPilB-ATP or

GmPilB-ANP to BfpD-ANP. The arrow in the right indicates transition from TtPilB-ATP-open to

BfpD-ANP. For the two-fold structures, the comparisons between BfpD and "open" are shown for

the more extreme open (N2D-out) conformation; see Fig. S4.

Figure 6. Sequence comparisons of T4P extension ATPase N2D and CTD domains and inter-

subunit contacts in BfpD. The alignment of BfpD with five homologues is shown. TtPilB, GmPilB,

and GsPilB form two-fold symmetric hexamers and PilB from *P. aeruginosa* and *N. meningitidis*

are members of the type-4 pilus ATPases more closely related to them than to BfpD. (A) Domain

organization. (B) alignment of the N2D domains shows insertions in BfpD between three

conserved Arginine fingers relative to the other enzymes. (C) alignment of the CTD domains

shows insertions in the linker region and in the catalytic loop. Sequence elements required for

nucleotide binding (Walker A), hydrolysis (Glu295, Glu338) and zinc binding are highlighted.

Amino acids forming inter-subunit contacts between CTD and N2D/CTD$^+$ of neighboring subunits

are indicated, with text specifying the partner contact. Interactions unique to BfpD are colored

red.

Figure 7. Specific activity, kinetics, and function of BfpD. (A) Rate of inorganic phosphate production as a function of the concentration of ATP for wild type BfpD, from which the apparent K_m and V_{max} were calculated using Sigma Plot software. Data are from seven biological replicates. (B) Specific activity of BfpD with native (wild type), cysteine substituted for glutamate 295 (single mutant), and both E295C and E338Q substitutions (double mutant). The mean and standard error of the means of seven biological replicates is shown. Analysis of variance revealed significant differences (P < 0.001) between groups. (C) phase-contrast micrographs of (1) wild type, (2) *bfpD* mutant, and *bfpD* mutant strains complemented with plasmids encoding (3) wild type BfpD, (4) BfpD$_{E295C}$, and (5) BfpD$_{E338Q}$. Large aggregates of bacteria indicative of BFP expression are seen in panels 1 and 3. Bars indicate 40 microns.

A
65Å

B
70Å

90°

ADP

ordered
catalytic
loop$^{294-310}$

68 Å

ANP

130 Å

A

N2D-in

TtPilB-ATP-closed
GmPilB-ANP-closed
GsuPilB-pp-closed

linker

CTD-fixed

N2D-out

TtPilB-ATP-open
GmPilB-ANP-open
GsuPilB-pp-open

twist angle
=55-60°

CTD-fixed

B

EcBfpD-ANP
TtPilB-ATP-closed
twist angle =42°

EcBfpD-ANP
TtPilB-ATP-open

C

EcBfpD-ANP
GmPilB-ANP-closed
twist angle =46°

EcBfpD-ANP
GmPilB-ANP-open