Conformational changes of baseplate regulating tail contraction of *Staphylococcus* phage 812

Short title: Tail contraction of *Staphylococcus* phage 812

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Abstract

Phages with contractile tails employ elaborate mechanisms to penetrate bacterial cell walls and deliver their genomes into the host cytoplasm. Here, we used cryo-EM to show that the baseplate of phage 812, a member of the *Kayvirus* genus, which infects Gram-positive *Staphylococcus* strains, is formed of a core, wedge modules, and baseplate arms carrying receptor-binding proteins 1 and 2 and tripod complexes. Upon binding to a host cell, the receptor-binding proteins of phage 812 baseplate reorient and undergo conformational changes. The changes to the tripod complexes trigger the release of the central spike and weld proteins, which expose peptidoglycan-degrading domains of the hub proteins. Changes in the positions of baseplate arms are transmitted through wedge modules to tail sheath initiator proteins. The ring of the tail sheath initiator proteins expands and triggers the contraction of the tail sheath, which shortens to 50% and pushes the tail tube 10-30 nm into the bacterial cytoplasm. Homologous molecular mechanisms are probably shared by phages of the *Herelleviridae* family with contractile tails to infect Gram-positive bacteria.

Keywords: bacteriophage, baseplate, contraction, genome delivery, viral structural proteins.

Introduction

Tailed phages use baseplates at the end of their tails to attach to the host cell surface to initiate infection (Nobrega *et al*, 2018). The cell binding of phages with contractile tails is coupled with a conformational change to the baseplate that triggers tail sheath contraction (Leiman & Shneider, 2012). The tail tube penetrates the cell wall and enables the ejection of the phage genome into the bacterial cytoplasm. Most of the phages with contractile tails and contractile injection systems (CISs) structurally characterized to date attack Gram-negative bacteria (Taylor *et al*, 2016; Li *et al*, 2023; Wang *et al*, 2023b; Yang *et al*, 2023a, 2023b; Yu *et al*, 2024; Sonani *et al*, 2024; Marín-Arraiza *et al*, 2025). Current knowledge regarding the mechanisms employed to breach the cell walls of Gram-positive bacteria is limited.

Phages of the genus *Kayvirus* of the family *Herelleviridae* (Barylski *et al*, 2020) exhibit high lytic activity against the Gram-positive bacterium *Staphylococcus aureus* (Botka *et al*, 2019; Łobocka *et al*, 2012; Vandersteegen *et al*, 2011). This human pathogen can cause skin and epithelial infections, as well as bacteremia that can develop into life-threatening sepsis (Kwiecinski & Horswill, 2020; Grunenwald *et al*, 2018). *S. aureus* is frequently resistant to antibiotics, which has renewed interest in phage therapy (Venturini *et al*, 2022; Petrovic Fabijan *et al*, 2020; Uyttebroek *et al*, 2022). The best studied *Kayvirus*, phage K, shares 98.5% of the genome identity with a polyvalent phage 812. Host range mutants of phage 812 were shown to infect more than 90 % of *S. aureus* isolates (Pantůček *et al*, 1998; Botka *et al*, 2019). Major components of the *S. aureus* cell wall are peptidoglycan and teichoic acids (Schaechter, 2009; van Dalen *et al*, 2020). Phage 812 and related *Kayvirus* phages recognize the backbone and side-chain moieties of the wall teichoic acid (Xia *et al*, 2011; Takeuchi *et al*, 2016; Krusche *et al*, 2025).

It has been shown that a virion of 812 is formed by an icosahedral head with a diameter of 90 nm and a 240-nm-long tail that ends with a lentil-shaped baseplate (Nováček *et al*, 2016). Upon binding to the *S. aureus* cell wall, the baseplate transforms into a double-layered disc-shaped conformation. Furthermore, the structure of phage A511 of the *Herelleviridae* family, which infects Gram-positive *Listeria* and is morphologically similar to 812, has also been determined (Guerrero-Ferreira *et al*, 2019). However, the resolutions of the previous studies of 812 and A511 were limited to 13 and 14 Å, respectively, which prevented the identification of some of the baseplate components and characterization of their conformational changes that enable cell wall binding, tail contraction, and genome delivery.

The naming convention for baseplate components was established in the pioneering studies of phage T4. The core of the baseplate is formed by the central hub (Taylor *et al*, 2016, 2018), which serves as a centerpiece for the baseplate assembly and a platform for the tail tube polymerization. Six wedge complexes encircle the core and provide the foundation for tail sheath assembly (Taylor *et al*, 2016, 2018). Baseplate core proteins of contractile-tailed phages exhibit high structural conservation (Taylor *et al*, 2016, 2018; Veesler & Cambillau, 2011). In addition, the structures of the baseplate core proteins are shared by CISs (Park *et al*, 2018; Ge *et al*, 2020; Weiss *et al*, 2022; Xu *et al*, 2022; Desfosses *et al*, 2019; Jiang *et al*, 2019; Cai *et al*, 2024). The outer baseplate of contractile-tailed phages can be either simple, containing one or two tail fibers to bind to host cellular receptors (Li *et al*, 2023; Wang *et al*, 2023b; Yang *et al*, 2023a, 2023b; Yu *et al*, 2024; Sonani *et al*, 2024), or more intricate, such as that of T4 (Taylor *et al*, 2016).

Here, we used a combination of cryogenic electron microscopy (cryo-EM), X-ray
crystallography, nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy (NMR), and AlphaFold2 predictions to
build the molecular structure of the tail and baseplate in extended and contracted conformations of
a *Kayvirus* representative, 812. Based on a comparison of the pre- and post-contraction structures,
we propose a sequence of conformational changes that propagate from the baseplate periphery to
the core and trigger the tail sheath contraction.

Results and Discussion

The structure of baseplate of 812 with extended tail

The structure of the pre-contraction 812 baseplate with imposed sixfold symmetry was previously determined to a resolution of 13 Å using cryo-EM (Nováček *et al*, 2016). Here, we show that the 812 baseplate, similar to that of A511 (Guerrero-Ferreira *et al*, 2019), is only approximately sixfold symmetric. An initial asymmetric reconstruction with distinct three-fold symmetric features enabled the determination of the overall baseplate structure to a resolution of 5.9 Å after imposing the C3 symmetry (Fig. 1, Appendix Figure S1A, B, Appendix Table S1). The baseplate of 812 is lentil-shaped with a diameter of 655 Å and height of 310 Å, and its constituent proteins can be assigned to a core, six wedge modules, and six arms decorated with three types of putative receptor-binding proteins (Fig. 1, Appendix Table S2).

Each of the baseplate arms is formed by the arm scaffold protein (GenBank: KJ206563.2, gp117) and the arm segment proteins (gp118) (Fig. 1). The baseplate arm provides attachment sites for proteins with putative receptor binding functions: two trimers of the tripod proteins (gp119), a trimer of receptor-binding protein 1 (RBP1, gp121), and a trimer of receptor-binding protein 2 (RBP2, gp123) (Fig. 1A-D). The trimer of tripod proteins located closer to the tail axis (inner tripod) is oriented with its receptor-binding domains pointing away from the phage head (Fig. 1A-D). In contrast, the receptor-binding domains of tripod proteins attached to the baseplate arm further away from the tail axis (outer tripod) point towards the phage head (Fig. 1B-D). Trimers of RBP1 and RBP2 are attached to the end of the baseplate arm (Fig. 1A-D). The RBP1 reaches from one baseplate arm to the neighboring one, where it interacts with RBP2 (Fig. 1A, B). RBP2 points towards the tail sheath (Fig. 1C, D). In every alternating baseplate arm, the RBP1-RBP2 interaction is mediated by a coupler protein (gp122) (Fig. 1A, D).

The threefold symmetry of the 812 baseplate is most apparent in the distinct conformations of the alternating baseplate arms and the positions of the putative receptor-binding proteins attached to them (Fig. 1A-D). The alternating arrangement of baseplate arms is caused by different angles at which the arms point away from the tail axis (Fig. 1B). The upper baseplate arms radiate from the tail axis at an angle of 72°, while the lower baseplate arms radiate at an angle of 62°. The differences in the baseplate arm angles position the six inner tripods to form a shape of an equilateral triangle when viewed along the tail axis towards the phage head (Fig. 1A). The distinct angles of baseplate arms also influence the interactions of tripod proteins with the tail sheath. The outer tripod attached to the upper baseplate arm interacts with the first tail sheath disc (Appendix Figure S2A). In contrast, the outer tripod bound to the lower baseplate arm does not interact with the tail sheath (Appendix Figure S2B).

Each baseplate arm protrudes radially from a wedge module. A localized reconstruction of the wedge modules and baseplate core reached a resolution of 3.0 Å (Fig. 2, Appendix Figure S1C, S3, S4). Each wedge module is a heterotrimer formed by two copies of wedge protein (gp116) and an N-terminal part of the arm scaffold protein (gp117) (Fig. 2, Appendix Figure S4). Two neighboring wedge modules that connect to the upper and lower baseplate arms assume distinct conformations (Appendix Figure S5A-C).

Six wedge modules encircle the baseplate core composed of tail tube initiator, tail sheath initiator, hub, assembly, central spike, and weld proteins (Fig. 2, Appendix Figure S5). The hexamer of tail tube initiator proteins (gp113) and trimer of hub proteins (gp110) form a channel, which

extends the tail tube channel into the baseplate. The trimer of central spike proteins (gp112), bound
to the three copies of weld protein (gp111), plugs the baseplate channel at the level of the hub
proteins (Fig. 2A, B). The hexamer of tail tube initiator proteins is surrounded by six copies of each of
the tail sheath initiator (gp115) and assembly proteins (gp114), which are placed above each other
(Fig. 2A, Appendix Figure 5).

It is likely that the overall threefold symmetry of the 812 baseplate is determined during
assembly by the asymmetric addition of baseplate proteins to the trimer of hub proteins. The
structural differences propagate into the baseplate periphery, resulting in the alternating angles of
the baseplate arms relative to the tail axis (Fig. 1B). The same mechanism is probably employed to
establish the threefold symmetry of the A511 baseplate (Guerrero-Ferreira *et al*, 2019). In contrast,
baseplate core proteins of structurally characterized phages were shown to be arranged with quasi-
sixfold symmetry (Taylor *et al*, 2016; Li *et al*, 2023; Wang *et al*, 2023b; Yang *et al*, 2023a, 2023b; Yu
et al, 2024; Sonani *et al*, 2024).

Central spike protein blocks the baseplate channel and protrudes from the baseplate

The trimer of central spike proteins of 812 blocks the baseplate channel and protrudes more than 30
nm from the baseplate (Fig. 3A, B). The central spike protein can be divided into oligosaccharide-
binding (OB), β-prism, coiled-coil, knob, and petal domains (Appendix Figure S6A, Appendix Table
S3). The OB and β-prism domains were resolved in the reconstruction of the pre-contraction 812
baseplate (Fig. 2A). The structure of the coiled-coil domain was predicted using AlphaFold2 (Jumper
et al, 2021) (Fig. 3B, Appendix Figure S6A), and structures of the knob and petal domains were
determined by cryo-EM and single-particle reconstruction of a recombinantly produced central spike
protein (Fig. 3B, Appendix Figure S7H, Appendix Table S1). The OB and β-prism domains have
conserved structures shared by central spike proteins of other phages and CISs (Ge *et al*, 2020; Jiang
et al, 2019; Xu *et al*, 2022; Li *et al*, 2023; Yang *et al*, 2023a, 2023b; Yu *et al*, 2024; Sonani *et al*, 2024;
Desfosses *et al*, 2019; Weiss *et al*, 2022). The two domains bind to the inside of the channel formed
by the hub proteins (Fig. 2A, B, Appendix Figure S4). The coiled-coil, knob, and petal domains
protrude from the 812 baseplate and are not resolved in the cryo-EM reconstruction of the
baseplate, due to the coiled-coil domain's flexibility (Fig. 3A). Structural prediction indicates that the
coiled-coil domains from the three central spike proteins form a 22-nm-long fiber, reminiscent of the
tail needle from phage P22 (Bhardwaj *et al*, 2009) (Fig. 3B, Appendix Figure S6A). The knob domain
has a tumor necrosis factor-like fold (Eck & Sprang, 1989), similar to that of the head domains of
receptor-binding proteins from lactococcal phages Tuc2009 and 1358 (Legrand *et al*, 2016; Farenc *et
al*, 2014; McCabe *et al*, 2015) and a lectin from *Burkholderia cenocepacia* (Šulák *et al*, 2010) which
indicates that the knob domain may bind to saccharides from the bacterial cell wall. The petal
domain of the central spike protein has an α/β-barrel fold structurally similar to phosphodiesterases,
such as the GlpQ protein from *B. subtilis* that cleaves teichoic acid during phosphate starvation
(Myers *et al*, 2016; Shi *et al*, 2008). Additionally, the petal domain includes two conserved histidines
commonly found in active sites of phosphodiesterases, suggesting the domain's putative cleavage
activity (Fig. 3C).

Phages with contractile tails and CISs attacking Gram-negative bacteria pierce the outer
bacterial membranes using puncturing tips formed of proteins with β-prism or β-helix domains
(Browning *et al*, 2012; Kanamaru *et al*, 2002; Shneider *et al*, 2013). In contrast, to infect Gram-
positive *S. aureus*, phage 812 has to penetrate a 50-70-nm-thick layer of teichoic acids and

peptidoglycan. Therefore, we propose that the knob and petal domains of the central spike of 812

bind to and degrade the host teichoic acids to expose the peptidoglycan layer for degradation by the

cleaver domain of the hub protein (see below).

Hub proteins facilitate penetration of the tail tube through the cell wall and cell membrane

The three hub proteins form a ring, extending the tail channel into the 812 baseplate (Fig. 2A-C). The

hub protein can be divided into channel-forming domains I to IV and clamp and cleaver domains

(Appendix Figure S6B, Appendix Table S3). The channel-forming domains I and III have beta-barrel

folds and are positioned next to each other so that the head-proximal interface formed by the

trimer of hub proteins has pseudo-sixfold symmetry for binding the hexamer of tube initiator

proteins (Appendix Figure S4). In contrast, the channel-forming domains II and IV of the hub protein,

positioned below domains I and III, respectively, are structurally distinct and form interfaces for

binding the trimer of central spike proteins to the inside of the hub channel (Appendix Figure S4).

The channel-forming domains I-IV are structurally similar to those of the gp27 of phage T4, for which

the domain naming convention was established (Kanamaru *et al*, 2002). Homologs of the channel-

forming domains can also be identified among phages with long non-contractile tails (Tal proteins)

(Veesler & Cambillau, 2011; Kizziah *et al*, 2020) and CISs (Vgrg-like proteins) (Taylor *et al*, 2018;

Büttner *et al*, 2016; Leiman *et al*, 2009) (Appendix Table S3).

The cleaver domain of the hub protein, the structure of which was determined using NMR

(Fig. 3D, Appendix Figure S6B, Appendix Table S4), has the characteristic fold of the cysteine- and

histidine-dependent amido-hydrolase/peptidase (CHAP) (Bateman & Rawlings, 2003), and contains

the conserved catalytic triad Cys699-His759-Glu777 (Sanz-Gaitero *et al*, 2014) (Fig. 3D). Accordingly,

zymogram analysis demonstrated that a recombinant cleaver domain degrades *S. aureus* cell walls

(hence the name cleaver) (Appendix Figure S8), which agrees with previous functional studies of hub

protein homologs from the related phage K (Becker *et al*, 2008; Paul *et al*, 2011). The clamp domain

of the hub protein is formed by ten short α-helices that connect the central spike protein to weld

proteins (Fig. 2B, C, and 3E). The clamp domain is structurally similar to pore-forming saposin-like

proteins, which employ positively charged residues to interact with the negatively charged surfaces

of lipid membranes (Willis *et al*, 2011; Lee *et al*, 2006) (Appendix Table S3). Since the clamp domain

of the 812 hub protein contains a long positively charged patch of residues, as the saposin-like

proteins do (Fig. 3E), we speculate that it may bind the *S. aureus* membrane to facilitate its

penetration by a tail tube. In addition to gp27 of T4 featuring a lysozyme domain, more hub proteins

equipped with enzymatic domains have been reported recently (Yu *et al*, 2024; Cai *et al*, 2024).

Therefore, we propose that the hub proteins of 812 and related phages enable genome delivery by

degrading peptidoglycan to facilitate penetration of the tail tube through the cell wall.

Tail tube initiator, weld, assembly, and tail sheath initiator proteins complete the baseplate core

Three weld proteins bind to the central spike, hub, and three inner tripod proteins, connecting them

together (Fig. 2A-C, Appendix Figure S4 and S9). Six assembly and six tail sheath initiator proteins

surround the hub and tail tube initiator proteins to complete the structure of the baseplate core

(Fig. 2A, B, E, F, Appendix Figure S4). The tube initiator and sheath initiator proteins are organized

with sixfold symmetry. In contrast, the central spike, weld, hub, and assembly proteins are organized

with threefold symmetry that determines the overall organization of the baseplate when the 812 tail
is in extended conformation.

The weld protein of 812 can be divided into the N-terminal lid and C-terminal clip domains,
which are connected by a 14-residue-long linker (Appendix Figure S6D). The lid domain interacts
with an inner tripod and serves as a lid covering the peptidase site of the cleaver domain of the hub
protein (Appendix Figure S9). Therefore, releasing the weld protein from the baseplate upon host
cell binding exposes the active site of the cleaver domain of the hub protein to hydrolyze the cell
wall peptidoglycan. The clip domain of the weld protein, located closer to the tail axis, binds the
weld protein to the central spike protein (Fig. 2C). The clip domain has the CHAP protein fold similar
to that of the cleaver domain of the hub protein (Gillespie *et al*, 2015; Wu *et al*, 2019) (Fig. 3F).
However, the clip domain lacks the conserved catalytic residues Cys-His-Glu required for the
peptidoglycan cleavage (Sanz-Gaitero *et al*, 2014) (Fig. 3F). Thus, the clip domain is likely
enzymatically inactive, but may have retained peptidoglycan-binding ability, similar to the RipD
protein from *M. tuberculosis* (Böth *et al*, 2014). There is no homolog of the weld protein in the
baseplate of the related phage A511 (Guerrero-Ferreira *et al*, 2019; Habann *et al*, 2014). The weld
protein may be unnecessary for A511 because of the differences in the cell wall composition
between *Staphylococcus* and *Listeria* (Schaechter, 2009).

The assembly protein of 812 is formed by a compact bundle of nine α-helices. The assembly
protein interacts with the wedge protein and the C-terminal handle of the tail tube initiator protein
(Fig. 2E, Appendix Figure S4). There are proteins with a compact globular structure and in the
equivalent position in the baseplates of pyocin R2 and phages Pam3, E217, A-1, and Milano
(Appendix Table S3), indicating the structural role of these proteins in baseplate cores (Ge *et al*,
2020; Li *et al*, 2023; Yang *et al*, 2023a; Yu *et al*, 2024; Sonani *et al*, 2024).

The hexamer of tail tube initiator proteins binds to the trimer of hub proteins and, on the
other side, to a hexamer of tail tube proteins (Fig. 2A). The tail tube initiator protein can be divided
into the N-terminal β-barrel domain and the C-terminal α-helical handle, which stretches along the
hub protein and reaches the assembly protein in the baseplate core (Appendix Figure S4, S6C). The
tail tube initiator proteins from pyocin R2 and phages E217 and Pam3 contain extensions similar to
the C-terminal handle of the 812 tail tube initiator protein, suggesting an evolutionary link between
phage and pyocin baseplates (Leiman & Shneider, 2012; Veesler & Cambillau, 2011).

The tail sheath initiator protein of 812 is composed of the LysM and handshake domains
(Appendix Figure S6E). The handshake domain, containing two β-strands, interacts with the N- and
C-termini of tail sheath proteins from the first tail sheath disc and the C-terminus of tail sheath
protein from the second tail sheath disc to form a five-stranded β-sheet (Appendix Figure S10C).
Therefore, the interactions of the tail sheath and tail sheath initiator proteins can initiate assembly
of the 812 tail sheath. Proteins containing domains with structures similar to the handshake domain
are integral to the baseplates of most CISs and phages with contractile tails (Taylor *et al*, 2018;
Büttner *et al*, 2016; Maxwell *et al*, 2013) (Appendix Table S3).

252
Wedge modules attach baseplate arms to the baseplate core

Wedge modules are structural components of phage baseplates, which enable the attachment of
peripheral baseplate proteins to the baseplate core (Taylor *et al*, 2016; Watts & Coombs, 1990).
Here, we show that the wedge module of 812 is formed by two wedge proteins with different
conformations, A and B, and the N-terminal 176 residues of the arm scaffold protein (Fig. 2A,

Appendix Figure S4 and %B, C). Wedge protein can be divided into N-terminal α-helices, wing,
trifurcation, and dimerization domains (Appendix Figure S6F, G), and the part of the arm scaffold
protein belonging to the wedge module can be divided into N-terminal α-helices and a trifurcation
domain (Fig. 4A, B, D). Individual parts of the 812 wedge module are structurally conserved and can
also be found in the baseplate of phage T4 (Taylor *et al*, 2016). The N-terminal helices and
trifurcation domains mediate contacts between the proteins forming the wedge module (Fig. 2F,
Appendix Figure S5A-C). The wing domain of wedge protein A binds to the hub and central spike
proteins (Fig. 2D). In contrast, the wing domain of wedge protein B binds to the tail sheath initiator
protein (Fig. 2F). The six wedge modules form an iris around the baseplate core (Appendix Figure
S5A), as described in phage T4 (Taylor *et al*, 2016). Dimerization domains of wedge proteins mediate
interactions between neighboring wedge modules (Appendix Figure S58A). Even though the
neighboring wedge modules differ in their conformations due to the overall threefold symmetry of
the baseplate, the contacts between the dimerization domains are similar (Appendix Figure S5A-C,
F).

Baseplate arms provide attachment sites for putative receptor-binding proteins

To address the flexibility of the lower and upper baseplate arms from a phage with the extended tail,
a series of sub-particle reconstructions were performed, resulting in resolutions ranging from 3.8 to
6.3 Å (Appendix Figure S1E-O and S3, Appendix Table 1).
Baseplate arms of 812 are formed by docking loop 1, linker 1, bulge domain including docking loop 2,
linker 2, elbow domain, linker 3, and C-terminal domain of the arm scaffold protein that are
reinforced by six dimers of the arm segment proteins named A-F (Fig. 4A, B, D, Appendix Figure
S11A). We employed X-ray crystallography to determine the structure of the arm segment protein
(Fig. 4C, Appendix Table S5) and AlphaFold2 (Jumper *et al*, 2021) to predict the structures of the arm
scaffold protein domains (Appendix Figure S11A). The structures were fitted and refined into the
sub-particle reconstruction cryo-EM maps of the upper and lower arms. The arm segment protein is
composed of an N-terminal α-helix followed by a three-stranded β-sheet and a bundle of loops and
short β-strands (Fig. 4C). The overall structure of the arm segment protein is similar to those of gp8
from phage T4 and gp105 from phage A511 (Guerrero-Ferreira *et al*, 2019; Leiman *et al*, 2003). The
interactions between the C-terminal β-strands of arm segment proteins from neighboring dimers are
mediated by linkers of the arm scaffold protein (Fig. 4E). The linkers of the arm scaffold protein fill
the gaps between the dimers of arm segment proteins, creating continuous, seven-stranded β-
sheets, as has been speculated previously (Guerrero-Ferreira *et al*, 2019). The cryo-EM map contains
resolved density only for the linker 1 and a part of the linker 2 (Fig. 4D). The density likely belonging
to the remainder of linker 2, linker 3, and the C-terminal domain could be observed in a difference
map after the subtraction of the densities belonging to the arm segment proteins (Fig. 11B-E).
The arm scaffold protein provides attachment sites for two trimers of tripod proteins, one
trimer of RBP1, and one trimer of RBP2. The 28 residues-long docking loop 1 of the arm scaffold
protein forms the binding site for the inner tripod complex, while the 40-residue-long docking loop 2
enables attachment of the outer tripod complex (Fig. 4A, B, D). The docking loops have triangular
structures that fit into crevices formed by the trimers of tripod proteins (Appendix Figure S12A-D).
Despite the different length, the docking loops have hydrophobic residues arranged in equivalent
positions in the inner and outer tripod crevices (Appendix Figure S12E)

Predicted structure of the elbow domain of the arm scaffold protein with a double β-
sandwich fold could be placed at the periphery of baseplate arms, where it forms a protuberance
pointing towards the neighboring baseplate arm (Fig. 4B). Close to the elbow domain, a low-
resolution density emerging from below the arm segment C likely belongs to a part of the arm
scaffold protein that attaches RBP2 (Appendix Figure S11D). Arm segment dimers D, E, and F create
an arch at the baseplate periphery, with the linker 3 likely running along the segments (Fig. 4A,
Appendix Figure 11B, C). RBP1 is attached to the baseplate arm where a low-resolution density
emerges from the arm segment F (Appendix Figure S11E). At the end of the baseplate arm, a density
was identified that could accommodate the C-terminal domain of the arm scaffold protein with
predicted β-sandwich fold, although it could not be positioned in the reconstruction with confidence
(Appendix Figure S11E).

Baseplate of 812 contains twelve tripod protein complexes

The most prominent components of the 812 baseplate are the twelve trimers of tripod
proteins (Fig. 1A-D). We predicted structures of the tripod proteins in 812 with an extended tail
using AlphaFold2 (Jumper *et al*, 2021) and refined their structure in the corresponding parts of the
reconstructions of the baseplate arms (Fig. 5A-E, Appendix Figure S13). The tripod protein can be
divided into spine, flap, fiber, base, fin, leg, anchor, and hook domains (Fig. 5E). The flap domain
contains an insertion loop, three of which play a role in the attachment of the tripod complex to the
arm scaffold protein (Fig. 5C-E). The base and fin domains of tripod proteins have ten-stranded β-
sandwich folds of carbohydrate-binding module families 16 and 61 (Cid *et al*, 2010; Bae *et al*, 2008)
(Fig. 5E, Appendix Table S3), indicating that they may bind glycans from the *S. aureus* cell wall. The
leg domain includes fifteen β-strands, eight forming a β-sandwich that is structurally similar to
lectin-like protein Cwp84 from *C. difficile* (Bradshaw *et al*, 2014) (Fig. 5E, Appendix Table S3),
suggesting another possible receptor-binding site. The anchor domain with a β-sandwich fold is
followed by the hook domain with sequence similarity to LysM proteins, indicating it may bind
peptidoglycan (Buist *et al*, 2008) (Fig. 5E, Appendix Figure S14, Appendix Table S3).

Receptor-binding and coupler proteins

The baseplate of 812 contains six trimers of each of RBP1 and RBP2 with putative receptor-
binding activities (Fig. 1A-D). We employed AlphaFold2 (Jumper *et al*, 2021) to predict the structures
of RBP1 and RBP2 and refine them in the corresponding parts of the cryo-EM map of the pre-
contractionbaseplate (Fig. 5F-K). RBP1 consists of an antenna domain, three tower domains, and a
tip domain, all positioned along the symmetry axis of the trimer, and a wing domain protruding
laterally from the second tower domain (Fig. 5J). The tower domains are structurally similar to each
other and contain characteristic six-stranded β-sheets. The antenna domain mediates the binding of
RBP1 to the end of the baseplate arm near the arm segment F and the tip domain of RBP1 points
towards the neighboring baseplate arm (Fig. 5F, G). RBP2 has the same domain composition as
RBP1, except for the wing domain, which is missing (Fig. 5K). In the baseplate, the antenna domain
of RBP2 binds near arm segment C, and the tip domain is in contact with a wedge module (Fig. F, G,
Appendix Figure S2). Baseplate of 812 before tail contraction contains three copies of coupler
proteins. One coupler protein connects the tip domain of RBP1 from a lower baseplate arm to the

antenna domain of RBP2 from the neighboring upper baseplate arm (Fig. 5F). In contrast, RBP1 from
the upper baseplate arm interacts directly with RBP2 from the lower baseplate arm (Fig. 5G).
Resolved structure of the coupler protein (residues 5-75 out of 124) contains two β-sheets and the
closest structural homolog is the tail fiber assembly protein from phage Mu, where it serves as a
chaperone for correct folding of the tail fiber (North *et al*, 2019).
348
Re-arrangement of RBPs and tripod complexes during tail contraction

Tailed phages use receptor-binding proteins from their baseplates to attach to host cells. For phages
with contractile tails, the receptor binding is accompanied by reorganization of the baseplates,
which may include conformational changes to individual proteins (Nobrega *et al*, 2018; Taylor *et al*,
2016; Nováček *et al*, 2016). It has been proposed that the reorganization starts at the baseplate
periphery, propagates to the inner baseplate, and triggers the contraction of the tail sheath (Leiman
& Shneider, 2012; Taylor *et al*, 2016). The overall asymmetric reconstruction of the baseplate of 812
with the contracted tail reached the resolution of 6.6 Å (Appendix Figure S7A, Appendix Table S1).
The post-contraction baseplate has the shape of a six-pointed star with a diameter of 713 Å and a
thickness of 344 Å (Fig. 6A-C). The conformational change transforms the baseplate to sixfold
symmetry, with all six baseplate arms protruding at 83° and positioned at the same distance from
the tail axis (Fig. 6A-C, Appendix Figure S7B). Focused reconstructions including tail sheath initiator,
wedge module, inner tripod and tail sheath proteins show that the central part of the baseplate is
stable, reaching local resolutions up to 3.1 Å (Appendix Figure S7C, D, and S15). The sub-particle
reconstruction of the post-contraction baseplate arm contains resolved density of arm segment
protein dimers A-C as well as of the docking loop1, linker 1, bulge domain with the docking loop 2,
and part of the linker 2 of the arm scaffold protein, inner and outer tripods, and RBP2 (Fig. 6D,
Appendix Figure S7E, F, and S15). RBP1, arm segments D-F, and the remainder of the arm scaffold
protein are not resolved in the reconstruction of the post-contraction baseplate, likely due to the
flexibility of the structure (Fig. 6A-D). Comparing the structures of the baseplates of 812 particles
with extended and contracted tails enabled us to describe conformational changes controlling the
baseplate rearrangement and tail sheath contraction. The reorganization of the 812 baseplate is
probably initiated by the interaction of the RBP1 with teichoic acid as its putative receptor. In the
post-contraction baseplate, RBP2 trimers are oriented parallel with the tail axis, and their tip
domains face away from the phage head (Fig. 6A-D). The movement of RBP1 and RBP2 provides
space for the outer tripod complexes to rotate ~170° to point their receptor-binding domains away
from the phage head (Fig. 6A-D). The inner tripod complexes assume positions with their axes
parallel to the tail axis (Fig. 6A-D).
The interactions between the tripod complexes and the docking loops 1 and 2 of the arm
scaffold protein are preserved after the baseplate re-organization (Fig 6E, F). As described above, the
docking loop 2 of the arm scaffold protein, which binds the outer tripod complex, is twelve residues
longer than the docking loop 1 that binds the inner tripod complex (Appendix Figure 12E). The extra
residues of the docking loop 2 enable the ~170° rotation of the outer tripod complexes during the
baseplate transformation.
The tripod complexes not only rotate, but also undergo complex conformational changes
(Fig. 5E and 6G): (i) The second and third spine helices move towards the first spine helix by 10 and
16 Å, respectively. (ii) The fiber domain moves 13 Å towards the flap domain and rotates 20°
counterclockwise around the tripod threefold symmetry axis when looking from the bottom of the

tripod. (iii) The base domain shifts 24 Å along the third spine helix while rotating 174° around an axis
perpendicular to the tripod symmetry axis. (iv) The fin domain moves 56 Å to protrude laterally from
the tripod. (v) The three leg domains detach from the flap domains and move 88 Å to interact with
each other under the base domains. (vi) The anchor and hook domains were not resolved in the
cryo-EM reconstruction of the baseplate from a phage with a contracted tail (Fig. 6G); however,
phage particles attached to the cell wall contain density at the bottom of the tripod complexes,
suggesting that the anchor and hook domains stretch along the tripod threefold axis toward the cell
wall (Appendix Figure S16). Similar density under the tripod complexes was observed in micrographs
of contracted phage A511 attached to *Listeria* cells, and in the baseplate reconstructions of the
spontaneously contracted 812 (Nováček *et al*, 2016) and A511 (Guerrero-Ferreira *et al*, 2019).
Because of their positioning after the tripod conformational change and their sequence similarity to
peptidoglycan-binding proteins of the LysM family (Appendix Figure S14), we speculate that the
hook domains of 812 and related phages bind the host cell wall.

The conformational change of tripod proteins is required to form tripod-tripod interactions
in phages with contracted tails. In particular, the rotation and translation of the base domain are
essential to expose an interface to which a fiber domain of the neighboring tripod complex binds
through an interface with a buried surface area of 1,900 $Å^2$ (Appendix Figure S17). Each inner tripod
complex connects two inner tripods from neighboring baseplate arms and an outer tripod complex
attached to the same baseplate arm. Additionally, one fiber domain of each outer tripod complex
interacts with tower domains 1 and 2 of RBP2 (Fig. 6B). The contacts mediated by the fiber domains
probably stabilize the baseplate structure in phages with contracted tails.

Overall, the recognition and adhesion of 812 to the host cell requires re-orientation of the
RBP1, RBP2, and conformational changes of tripod complexes, affecting the positions of the six arms
of the post-contraction baseplate. Less extensive conformational changes were described for the
receptor-binding proteins of other phages (Li *et al*, 2023; Šiborová *et al*, 2022; Sciara *et al*, 2010).

Conformational changes to the baseplate core prompt tail sheath contraction

The structure of wedge modules and baseplate core is affected by the rearrangement of receptor-
binding proteins and baseplate arms, which in turn trigger the contraction of the tail sheath. The
polypeptide chains of arm scaffold proteins link baseplate arms of 812 to the wedge modules (Fig.
4A, B). Therefore, the changes in the position and orientation of baseplate arms cause the iris-like
structure formed by the wedge modules to expand in diameter from 104 to 122 Å (Appendix Figure
S5A, D). The expansion of the iris is enabled by the movement of the dimerization and trifurcation
domains relative to each other, which brings the six wedge modules to an identical conformation
(Appendix Figure S5D, E). In contrast, the interactions between the dimerization domains of wedge
proteins remain the same as in the baseplate of the extended tail (Appendix Figure S5F). A similar
expansion was described for gp6 and gp7 during the transition of the T4 baseplate from its extended
to contracted state (Taylor *et al*, 2016). In phage 812, the expansion of the diameter of the tail
sheath initiator hexamer, which probably occurs together with that of the wedge iris, is enabled by
the partial unfolding of the linker helices between LysM and handshake domains (Appendix Figure
S10A, B, D, and E). The unfolding of the linker enables the tail sheath initiator proteins to maintain
the same contacts within the hexamer and with wedge modules as in the baseplate of the extended
tail (Appendix Figure S10G, H). The handshake domain of the tail sheath initiator protein inclines 17°

(Appendix Figure S10B, E) and, together with the wedge iris expansion, triggers the contraction of

the tail sheath, as discussed below.

The tail of 812 in extended conformation can bend

Contractile tails of phages differ in their length and mechanical properties. Tail bending up to 90°

has been observed for *Herelleviridae* phages infecting *Staphylococcus* (Nováček *et al*, 2016; Klumpp

et al, 2010), *Listeria* phage A511 (Guerrero-Ferreira *et al*, 2019), and phage Milano (Sonani *et al*,

2024) from genus *Schmittlotzvirus* of an unclassified family. In contrast, the ~100-nm-long tails of

Straboviridae phages, represented by T4, are rigid (Kostyuchenko *et al*, 2005). The flexibility of the

longer tails was speculated to be an adaptation to withstand mechanical forces without breaking

(Nováček *et al*, 2016; Zinke *et al*, 2022). To explain the ability of the 812 tail to bend without

breaking, we determined the structure of the extended 812 tail to a resolution of 4.2 Å (Fig. 6H,

Appendix Figure S7G, Appendix Table S1). Both tail tube and tail sheath proteins are arranged as six-

start helices with a rise of 39.2 Å and twist of 21.2° (Fig. 6H).

The tail tube protein of 812 has an eight-stranded β-barrel fold with a protruding stacking

loop, characteristic of tail tube proteins of long-tailed phages and CISs (Zinke *et al*, 2022) (Appendix

Figure S18A). Whereas the outer surface of the 812 tail tube features roughly equal distribution of

positively and negatively charged residues, the inner surface of the tail tube is negatively charged,

probably to facilitate the passage of the phage DNA during ejection (Appendix Figure S18B, C). The

ability of phage Milano to bend was attributed to the missing loop in the β-barrel domain of the tail

tube protein (Sonani *et al*, 2024). The phage Milano tail tube straightening, after contraction, was

speculated to be caused by the negative electrostatic potential of its outer surface (Sonani *et al*,

2024). However, since the tail tube of 812 contains the loop between the β-strands 6 and 7

(Appendix Figure S18D) and its outer surface charges are balanced (Appendix Figure S18B), its

bending and straightening are likely enabled by different mechanisms.

The sheath protein of 812 can be divided into domains I-IV, according to the convention

established for the tail sheath protein (gp18) of phage T4 (Leiman & Shneider, 2012) (Appendix

Figure S19A). In an extended tail, the domains I and II of the 812 tail sheath proteins interact with

tail tube proteins and mediate contacts between tail sheath proteins (Appendix Figure S19B, C).

Domains III and IV are positioned successively next to domain II at the tail surface (Appendix Figure

S19B). The two-stranded β-sheet of domain I is augmented by accepting the N- and C-termini of tail

sheath proteins from a disc positioned closer to the phage head (Appendix Figure S19C). By

mediating the handshake interactions, the domain I interconnects tail sheath proteins from

successive discs. These interactions are conserved in the tail sheath structures of numerous phages

and CISs (Taylor *et al*, 2016; Ge *et al*, 2020; Jiang *et al*, 2019; Xu *et al*, 2022; Li *et al*, 2023; Wang *et al*,

2023b; Yang *et al*, 2023a, 2023b; Yu *et al*, 2024; Sonani *et al*, 2024; Desfosses *et al*, 2019; Weiss *et al*,

2022; Kudryashev *et al*, 2015; Ouyang *et al*, 2022). The domain II of the tail sheath protein is formed

by six β-strands surrounded by eight α-helices, whereas domains III and IV each contain a beta-

sandwich flanked by an α-helix (Appendix Figure S19A). Domain III contacts domain IV of the tail

sheath protein from the disc located closer to the baseplate (Appendix Figure S19D). Additionally,

domain IV interacts with domain II of the neighboring tail sheath protein from the same disc

(Appendix Figure S19D). The domain IV of the T4 gp18 is not involved in inter-subunit contacts

(Aksyuk *et al*, 2009); however, the bulkier domain III of the T4 tail sheath protein (168 residues)

interacts with another tail sheath protein from the disc closer to the phage head (Aksyuk *et al*,

2009). We speculate that interactions of domains III and IV of the 812 tail sheath proteins allow a
spring-like movement of the subunits relative to each other, which enables 812 tail bending
(Appendix Figure S19E).

Contraction of the tail sheath

In phages with contractile tails and CISs, the rearrangement of the baseplate induced by binding to a
target cell wall triggers the contraction of the tail sheath, which transforms from the extended state
to a lower energy contracted state (Maghsoodi *et al*, 2019). The released energy of the tail sheath
contraction is used to drive the tail tube through the host cell wall (Ge *et al*, 2020; Li *et al*, 2023; Yu
et al, 2024; Nováček *et al*, 2016; Guerrero-Ferreira *et al*, 2019). The contracted tail sheath of 812,
which was reconstructed to a resolution of 3.2 Å, broadens to 276 Å in diameter (Fig. 6I, Appendix
Figure S7J, Appendix Table S1). The sheath broadening is coupled to a change in the rise and twist of
the six-start helix formed by the tail sheath proteins to 18.8 Å and 30.6°, respectively (Fig. 6I). The
successive discs of the contracted tail sheath are brought closer to each other due to the tilting of
domain I by 47° compared to its extended conformation (Fig. 6J) while maintaining the inter-subunit
handshake interactions among domains I from successive discs (Appendix Figure S19F, G). During
contraction, the individual domains of the tail sheath protein of phage 812, unlike those of T4 and
some CISs (Jiang *et al*, 2019; Aksyuk *et al*, 2009; Ge *et al*, 2015), move relative to each other, which
enables the formation of the more extensive contacts between the subunits (Appendix Figure S19H).
The buried surface area of intersubunit contacts per tail sheath monomer increases from ~5,500 Å in
the extended tail sheath to ~9,500 Å in the contracted tail sheath. We speculate that the enlarged
contacts stabilize the straight structure of the contracted tail sheath, which is less flexible than the
extended one.

It has been shown for phages T4 and A511 and R-type diffocin that the contraction of the tail
sheath is gradual and occurs as a wave along the tail axis (Guerrero-Ferreira *et al*, 2019; Cai *et al*,
2024; Maghsoodi *et al*, 2019; Moody, 1973). In agreement with the previous *in vitro* observations,
we captured particles of 812 with a partially contracted tail sheath attached to the *S. aureus* cell wall
(Appendix Figure S16). Furthermore, the cryo-EM reconstructions of baseplate-proximal parts of the
tail sheath in the extended and contracted state provide structures of discrete intermediates of
contraction (Appendix Figure S1D, S7C). The first three baseplate-proximal tail sheath discs of the
extended 812 tail sheath differ in conformation from those in the central part of the extended tail
sheath (Appendix Figure S20A, B). The deviation occurs gradually, with the first tail sheath disc being
the most affected (Appendix Figure S20B). Similar deviations of baseplate-proximal tail sheath
proteins were observed in the R2 pyocin and T6SS (Ge *et al*, 2020; Nazarov *et al*, 2018). The first
three sheath discs of 812 have their organization shifted toward that of the contracted tail sheath,
which may reduce the activation energy required to initiate the tail sheath contraction (Fraser *et al*,
2021).

In the contracted tail sheath of 812, the structures of the first six baseplate-proximal tail
sheath discs deviate from those of the central part of the contracted tail sheath (Appendix Figure
S20C, D). Similar to the extended tail sheath, the first contracted sheath disc is the most affected,
and the sixth one the least affected (Appendix Figure S20D). The first two baseplate-proximal sheath
discs have the rise increased by 5.5 Å relative to the tail sheath disc from the center of the
contracted tail sheath (Appendix Figure S20D). The absence of a twist difference may be due to the
more extensive contacts between consecutive tail sheath discs than in the extended tail, which is

probably incompatible with deviations in the angle of the helical twist. Interactions with the sheath
initiator and wedge module proteins likely cause the altered structure of the baseplate-proximal tail
sheath discs and directly couple the conformational changes of baseplate proteins with the sheath
contraction.
522
Changes in the baseplate structure required for cell wall penetration

Phages with contractile tails infecting Gram-positive bacteria employ enzymes that degrade teichoic
acid and peptidoglycan to facilitate tail tube penetration through the cell wall (van Dalen *et al*, 2020;
Fernandes & São-José, 2018). Phage 812 may use the petal domain of the central spike protein to
cleave teichoic acid (Fig. 3B, C); however, the central spike protein needs to be released from the tail
channel to enable the genome ejection. We speculate that the conformational change to inner
tripods, which disrupts their interaction with weld proteins, triggers the release of the weld and
central spike proteins from the baseplate. Dissociation of the weld protein is required to enable the
cleaver domains of the hub protein to interact with and degrade the cell wall peptidoglycan
(Appendix Figure S9). This indicates that the weld and central spike proteins of 812 are released
before the cell wall penetration by the tail tube. In contrast, the central spike proteins of phages T4
and E217, which infect Gram-negative bacteria, are released from baseplates after puncturing the
host outer membrane (Li *et al*, 2023; Nishima *et al*, 2011; Wenzel *et al*, 2020).
Relative rotation of consecutive tail sheath discs in the extended 812 tail is 21.2°, whereas
that of the contracted tail sheath is 30.6°. Since the tail contains 51 tail sheath discs, as the 812 tail
sheath contracts, the tip of the tail tube is pushed through the teichoic acid and peptidoglycan layers
while rotating about its axis by 475° (see Methods). The rotation of the hub proteins at the tip of the
tail tube can enhance their peptidoglycan degradation activity by bringing them into contact with
more substrate. Once the peptidoglycan layer is breached, the clamp domains of the hub proteins
can interact with the *S. aureus* cytoplasmic membrane. It was shown that after the penetration of
the outer membrane and peptidoglycan layer, gp27 from T4 (a homolog of the hub protein from
812) remains associated with the tip of the tail tube and probably interacts with the ejected tape
measure protein to form a pore through the inner membrane of *E. coli* (Hu *et al*, 2015). The tail tube
of 812 penetrates 10-30 nm into the *S. aureus* cytoplasm, depending on the thickness of the cell
wall, which varies between 50-70 nm (Nováček *et al*, 2016). Therefore, unlike in T4, the hub proteins
of 812 are probably not required to form a pore in the *S. aureus* membrane, and their role in
genome delivery may be limited to facilitation of the penetration of the cell wall and cytoplasmic
membrane by the tail tube tip. Whether the hub and other baseplate core proteins remain
associated with the tip of the tail tube after the membrane penetration remains unknown.
552
Conclusions

In this study, we employed a combination of cryo-EM, X-ray crystallography, NMR, and structure
prediction methods to elucidate the intricate mechanisms employed by phage 812 to penetrate the
S. aureus cell wall in preparation for transferring its genetic material into the host cytoplasm. While
most of the previously structurally characterized phages with contractile tails target Gram-negative
bacteria, our focus has been on 812 attacking *S. aureus*, a representative of Gram-positive bacteria,
which are comparatively less explored. We show that the baseplate of the phage 812 comprises a

core, wedge modules, and baseplate arms that carry RBP1, RBP2, and tripod complexes (Fig. 1A-D).
Upon binding to the *S. aureus* cell wall, the baseplate symmetry transitions from threefold to sixfold,
which is enabled by a series of conformational changes that propagate from the baseplate periphery
to the core (Fig. 6A-C). Based on our results, we propose a model of 812 cell adhesion and
penetration (Fig. 7). During the attachment, the putative receptor-binding proteins reorient, and
tripod complexes undergo conformational changes to enable host cell surface binding (Fig. 7A, B).
Subsequently, the central spike proteins degrade cell wall teichoic acids (Fig. 7A, B). In contrast,
phages employ central spike proteins with rigid β-prism or β-helix domains to penetrate the outer
membrane of Gram-negative bacteria(Browning *et al*, 2012; Kanamaru *et al*, 2002; Shneider *et al*,
2013). The conformational changes to the tripod complexes of 812 trigger the release of the central
spike and weld proteins from the baseplate, which enables the hub proteins to cleave peptidoglycan
(Fig. 7C, D) and facilitate penetration of the tail tube through the cell membrane (Fig. 7D, E). Changes
in the baseplate arms' positions relayed through wedge modules to the hexamer of tail sheath
initiator proteins cause an expansion of its diameter, triggering a tail sheath contraction (Fig. 7C-E).
The structures of the baseplate core, tail sheath, and tail tube proteins of 812 are similar to those of
phages and CISs targeting Gram-negative bacteria CISs (Park *et al*, 2018; Ge *et al*, 2020; Weiss *et al*,
2022; Xu *et al*, 2022; Desfosses *et al*, 2019; Jiang *et al*, 2019; Sonani *et al*, 2024; Yang *et al*, 2023a; Li
et al, 2023; Yu *et al*, 2024; Wang *et al*, 2023a; Taylor *et al*, 2016), indicating that the mechanism
triggering the tail sheath contraction is conserved among the phages infecting hosts with distinct cell
wall properties. The baseplate-proximal tail sheath discs of the extended 812 particle have an
altered structure, which may lower the energy barrier required to initiate the tail sheath contraction.
The tail sheath shortens from 200 to 96 nm upon contraction (Nováček *et al*, 2016), pushing the tail
tube's tip through the peptidoglycan layer and plasma membrane 10-30 nm into the cytoplasm,
depending on the local thickness of the *S. aureus* cell wall. The hub proteins with putative
peptidoglycan-degrading activity are positioned at the tip of the 812 tail tube and may facilitate its
penetration through the cell wall. In contrast, T4 baseplate lysozymes are released from the
baseplate into the periplasmic peptidoglycan layer of Gram-negative *E. coli* (Kanamaru *et al*, 2002;
Arisaka *et al*, 2003). The molecular characterization of the 812 baseplate structure and the
mechanism of cell wall binding open up the possibility of a rational design of engineered
bacteriophages　　　to　　　target　　　specific　　　bacterial　　　strains.

Materials and Methods

Bacteriophage 812 propagation and purification

For the 812 virion preparation, 150 mL of meat peptone broth (13 g/l nutrient broth, 3 g/l yeast extract, 5 g/l tryptone, pH 7.2) was inoculated with 2.5 ml of the overnight culture and incubated at 37°C with aeration until the culture reached an optical density (OD600) of 0.5-0.6. Next, the culture was supplemented with 2 mM CaCl2 and infected with 15 ml of phage lysate (~108 PFU/ml). The mixture was incubated at 37°C with shaking at 340 RPM. After 2-3 hours, the first signs of bacterial lysis appeared, and the mixture was placed in the fridge at 4°C overnight. The next day, the lysate was centrifuged for 30 minutes at 5,000 g and 4°C to remove cell debris. The supernatant was collected, filtered through a 0.45 μm filter, and stored at 4°C. Phage particles were pelleted by centrifugation at 54,000g for 2.5 hours at 4°C using a Beckman 50.2 Ti rotor. The supernatant was discarded, and 100 μl of phage buffer (10 mM NaCl, 10 mM CaCl$_2$, 50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8) was added to each centrifuge tube. The pellets were left to dissolve overnight at 4°C with shaking. The next day, the resuspended phage sample was loaded onto a cesium chloride step gradient (1.4, 1.45, 1.5, and 1.7 g/ml), prepared in the phage buffer, and centrifuged at 40,000 RPM for 4 hours at 4°C using a Beckman SW41Ti rotor. After centrifugation, the visible bands were collected and dialyzed against phage buffer overnight at 4°C.

Induction of 812 tail contraction and genome release *in vitro*

To induce contraction of the 812 tail, a previously reported protocol was modified (Fokine *et al*, 2004). The purified phage sample (10^{12} PFU/ml) in phage buffer was supplemented with teichoic acid from *Staphylococcus aureus* (SIGMA) at a concentration of 100 μg/ml, then diluted 10x using a solution of 3M urea in the phage buffer and incubated at 42°C for 45 min. After incubation, the sample was diluted 3x in the phage buffer and treated with Turbonuclease (Abnova) at a final concentration of 3.5 U/ml for 15 min at room temperature. Phage particles were pelleted by centrifugation at 75,000 x *g* at 4°C for 1 h using a 50.2 Ti rotor (Beckman Coulter) and resuspended in the phage buffer.

Identification of structural proteins of the phage baseplate

The purified 812 phage was resuspended in Laemmli buffer and boiled for 3 min. Subsequently, the sample was treated with Turbonuclease (Abnova) at a final concentration of 2 U/μl for 15 min at room temperature. Proteins from the phage particles were separated using tricine gradient gel electrophoresis. Major protein bands were cut from the gel and used for mass spectrometry analysis. Mass spectrometry data processing and analyses were performed using FlexAnalysis 3.4 and MS BioTools (Bruker Daltonics). Mascot software (Matrix Science, London, UK) was used for sequence searches in exported MS/MS spectra against the National Center for Biotechnology Information database and a local database supplied with the expected protein sequences. The mass tolerance of peptides and MS/MS fragments for MS/MS ion searches was 50 parts per million and 0.5 Da, respectively. The oxidation of methionine and propionyl-amidation of cysteine as optional modifications, and one enzyme mis-cleavage were set for all searches. Peptides with a statistically significant peptide score ($P < 0.05$) were considered.

Cryo-EM phage sample preparation, data collection, motion correction, and CTF estimation

Purified 812 (10^{11} PFU/ml) in phage buffer (4 µl), either in the extended or contracted state, was
pipetted onto a holey carbon-coated copper grid (R2/1, mesh 200; Quantifoil), blotted and vitrified
by plunging into liquid ethane using a Vitrobot Mark IV (FEI). The vitrified sample was transferred to
a Titan Krios electron microscope (Thermo Fisher) operated under cryogenic conditions and at an
acceleration voltage of 300 kV. The beam was aligned for parallel illumination in NanoProbe mode,
and coma-free alignments were performed to remove the residual beam tilt. Micrographs of 812
with extended tail were collected at a magnification of 105,000× using a K3 direct electron detector
(Gatan) operating in counting mode, resulting in a calibrated pixel size of 0.8336 Å/pix. Imaging was
done under low-dose conditions (total dose 40.8 e-/Å^2) and with defocus values ranging from −0.5 to
−2.0 µm. A two-second exposure was fractioned into 40 frames and saved as a movie. Micrographs
of 812 in a contracted state were collected at a magnification of 130,000x using a K2 Summit direct
electron detector (Gatan) operating in counting mode, resulting in a calibrated pixel size of 1.057
Å/pix. Imaging was done under low-dose conditions (total dose 42 e-/Å^2) and with defocus values
ranging from −1.0 to −2.4 µm. A seven-second exposure was fractioned into 40 frames and saved as
a movie. Automated data acquisitions were performed using the software Serial EM. The movies
were corrected for global and local motion during acquisition using MotionCor2 (Zheng *et al*, 2017),
and saved as dose-weighted micrographs. Defocus values were estimated from aligned non-dose-
weighted micrographs using the program Gctf (Zhang, 2016).

Reconstruction of the baseplate of phage 812 with extended tail

A total of 444 particles were manually picked from random 1000 micrographs using Relion (Scheres,
2015) and used to train Topaz (Bepler *et al*, 2019). Automated picking with Topaz on 26,731
micrographs yielded 64,874 particle coordinates. Particles were initially extracted into a 1,280 px box
and binned 4x (320 px box size, 3.3344 Å/px). Two rounds of 3D multireference classification
followed by two rounds of reference-free 2D classification resulted in a selection of 17,393 particles.
Particles were 3D refined with no symmetry imposed, and the previously reconstructed native
baseplate (EMD-8210), low-pass-filtered to 60 Å, was used as an initial model. Two rounds of
subsequent 3D classifications yielded 4,195 particles, which were re-extracted with 2x binning into a
640 px box (1.6672 Å/px). A further round of 3D classification yielded a final set of 3,586 particles.
After correction of anisotropic magnification and beamtilt, an asymmetric reconstruction reached a
resolution of 8.4 Å after post-processing; imposing C3 symmetry improved the resolution to 5.9 Å
after post-processing.
To improve the reconstruction of the core and wedge proteins, 8,470 particles of a 3D refined
baseplate were re-extracted with 2× binning into a 640 px box (1.6672 Å/px). After one round of 3D
refinement and 3D classification with a mask including the core and wedge modules and no
symmetry imposed, particles were assigned to optics groups, and CTF refinements were carried out.
A subsequent re-extraction of 8,368 particles to a 640 px box rescaled to a 512 px box (1.042 Å/px)
was followed by 3D refinement with C3 symmetry imposed. After one round of CTF refinements and
Bayesian polishing, the final map reached the resolution of 3.0 Å after post-processing using a
structure-derived mask.
To improve the reconstruction of the baseplate-proximal tail, the 3D refined baseplate map was
segmented, and the segment containing the tail sheath initiator protein and the first three disks of

tail sheath and tail tube protein was used to calculate the center-of-mass coordinates for targeted
re-extraction. Using this offset, 8,919 particles of 3D refined baseplate were re-extracted into a 640
px box and binned 2× to a 320 px box (1.6672 Å/px). Four rounds of asymmetric 3D refinements and
classifications reduced the dataset to 4,071 particles. These particles were re-extracted into a 640 px
box and rescaled to a 512 px box (1.042 Å/px), then 3D refined with C3 symmetry imposed. After
three rounds of CTF refinements and Bayesian polishing, the final map reached the resolution of 3.4
Å after post-processing using a structure-derived mask.

To improve the reconstruction of the lower and upper baseplate arms, the 3D refined baseplate
map was segmented and the segments corresponding to the lower and upper arms were used to
calculate the center-of-mass coordinates for a modified localized reconstruction protocol (Ilca *et al*,
2015) (github.com/fuzikt/localrec). Using these offsets, 26,748 particles for each arm were re-
extracted into a 720 px box and binned 2× to a 360 px box (1.6672 Å/px). One round of 3D
refinement and classification produced 22,031 particles for the lower arm, and 19,727 particles for
the upper arm; further 3D classifications revealed classes with variable conformations. To address
the heterogeneity for each arm, maps of the lower and upper arms were segmented into several
subparts, and center-of-mass coordinates were calculated for every subpart. For each arm subpart,
one or two rounds of 3D refinement with Blush regularization and 3D classification were performed;
when a subpart reconstruction reached ~4.5 Å resolution, particles were assigned to optics groups
and subjected to CTF refinements. Structure-derived masks were used for post-processing to
generate the final subpart maps.

In all the above cases, the resolution after post-processing was calculated according to the gold
standard FSC = 0.143 criterion. The local resolution for each map was computed using Relion
(Kimanius *et al*, 2021).

Reconstruction of the baseplate of phage 812 with a contracted tail

Out of 15,371 micrographs of phages in the post-contraction state, the first 1,000 micrographs were
used to manually pick 7,539 particles using crYOLO (Wagner *et al*, 2019). Particles were then
extracted and binned 4x to a 208 px box size (4.228 Å/px) using Relion (Zivanov *et al*, 2020). After a
single round of reference-free 2D classification, all aligned particles were re-extracted unbinned to
an 832 px box size (1.057 Å/px) with re-centering of the offsets to x,y,z coordinates equal to 0,0,0.
Then, particles were imported into Topaz (Bepler *et al*, 2019) with a down-sampling factor of 8. After
training the neural network, the positions of particles were predicted using a radius of r = 36 and a
picking threshold of t = 0. After the picking coordinates were corrected for the sampling factor,
54,841 particles were extracted using a 960 px box size and binned 4x to a 240 px box size (4.228
Å/px) using Relion (Kimanius *et al*, 2021). After several rounds of reference-free 2D classification,
31,308 particles were subject to asymmetric 3D reconstruction and classification, using the
previously reconstructed post-contraction baseplate (EMD-8212) low-pass-filtered to 60 Å as an
initial model. The resulting 25,487 particles were re-extracted to a 1280 px box and binned 2x to
obtain a 640 px box size (2.114 Å/px). After 3D classification, 21,264 particles were 3D refined, and
the final asymmetric map reached the resolution of 6.6 Å after post-processing. Another 3D
refinement with C6 symmetry imposed yielded a final map with a resolution of 4.4 Å after post-
processing.

To improve the reconstruction of the core, wedge module, and inner tripod proteins, 3D refined
post-contraction baseplate particles were re-extracted to a 720 px box (1.057 Å/px), and a 3D

refinement was performed using a focused mask encompassing selected regions. The particles were
assigned to their respective optics groups, and several rounds of CTF refinements (anisotropic
magnification estimation, beam tilt, trefoil, and tetrafoil aberrations estimation, and fitting of the
defocus and astigmatism parameters per particle) were performed. Then, two rounds of Bayesian
polishing and subsequent 3D refinements and CTF refinements were performed. The final map
reached the resolution of 3.1 Å after post-processing. The final post-processing step was also
performed using a mask encompassing the first six tail sheath discs, core, wedge module, and inner
tripod proteins, and a subunit of the arm segment protein, resulting in a map with a resolution of 4.1
Å after post-processing.
To improve the reconstruction of the post-contraction baseplate arm, the 3D refined post-
contraction baseplate map was segmented, and the segment corresponding to the arm was used to
calculate the center-of-mass coordinates for a modified localized reconstruction protocol (Ilca *et al*,
2015) (github.com/fuzikt/localrec). Using these offsets, 152,894 particles were re-extracted into a
480 px box and binned 2× to a 240 px box (2.114 Å/px). After subtraction of the surrounding signal,
three rounds of asymmetric 3D refinements and classifications were performed to select particles
with the most pronounced density belonging to the RBP2 protein. A total of 15,390 particles were
re-extracted into a 480 px box unbinned (1.057 Å/px), assigned to optics groups, and subjected to
two rounds of 3D and CTF refinements, yielding a final map with a resolution of 4.1 Å after post-
processing.
To improve the reconstruction of the arm segment B, bulge domain of the arm scaffold protein, and
the top part of the outer tripod proteins, 93,601 particles from early 3D classification of the post-
contraction baseplate arm were subjected to two rounds of 3D refinement with Blush regularization
and 3D classification using a focused mask encompassing the selected region. The baseplate arm
map was segmented, and center-of-mass coordinates were calculated for a subpart including the
selected region. Using the coordinate offsets, 56,778 particles were re-extracted into a 256 px box
unbinned (1.057 Å/px) and the surrounding signal was subtracted. One round of 3D and CTF
refinements yielded a final map with the resolution of 4.4 Å after post-processing.
In all the above cases, the resolution after post-processing was calculated according to the gold
standard FSC = 0.143 criterion. The local resolution for each map was computed using Relion
(Kimanius *et al*, 2021).
749
Reconstruction of the extended tail

The 812 tails were manually boxed using the program e2helixboxer.py from the EMAN2 suite (Tang
et al, 2007), and the helical segments were extracted in a 360 px box using Relion (Zivanov *et al*,
2020). Tail edges and bent and damaged particles were removed from the dataset by multiple
rounds of reference-free 2D classification. A map of the 812 tail in its extended conformation (EMD-
4051), low-pass-filtered to 50 Å, was used as an initial model for the 3D refinement of 18,188
particles using a helical refinement protocol with C6 symmetry imposed. The helical refinement and
the per-particle CTF refinement were iterated until convergence. The final map reached a resolution
of 4.2 Å after post-processing. The resolution after post-processing was calculated according to the
gold standard FSC = 0.143 criterion. Local resolution maps were computed using Relion (Zivanov *et*
al, 2020).
761

Reconstruction of the contracted tail

A total of 106,091 particles were manually picked from 4,833 micrographs using the program e2helixboxer.py from the EMAN2 suite (Tang *et al*, 2007), and the helical segments were extracted using a 400 px box size (1.061 Å/px) in Relion (Zivanov *et al*, 2020). Tail edges and bent and damaged particles were removed from the dataset by multiple rounds of reference-free 2D classification. Then, 85,549 particles were subjected to several rounds of 3D refinement and classification with C6 symmetry imposed. A map of the contracted tail determined previously (EMD-4052) filtered to 50 Å was used as an initial model for the 3D refinement of 69,969 particles using a helical refinement protocol with C6 symmetry imposed. The final map reached an average resolution of 3.0 Å after post-processing. The resolution after post-processing was calculated according to the gold standard FSC = 0.143 criterion. The local resolution map was computed using Relion (Zivanov *et al*, 2020).

Localized reconstruction of the tail tube from the phage with a contracted tail

Information about particle positions and orientations from the final reconstruction of the post-contraction baseplate was used to extract sub-particle images of the tail tube with a modified localized reconstruction protocol (Ilca *et al*, 2015) (github.com/fuzikt/localrec). The initial set of 25,203 sub-particles centered on the contact region between the tail tube and wedge A proteins was extracted to a 256 px box size (1.057 Å/px) and subjected to several rounds of reference-free 2D classifications in Relion (Zivanov *et al*, 2020). After the initial 3D refinement with imposed C6 symmetry, a single 3D classification was performed. The selected 12,906 particles belonging to the best class were further refined with imposed C6 symmetry and maximum allowed deviations from previous orientations of 10°. The final map reached an average resolution of 3.6 Å after post-processing. The resolution after post-processing was calculated according to the gold standard FSC = 0.143 criterion. The local resolution map was computed using Relion (Zivanov *et al*, 2020).

Calculation of tail tube rotation during tail sheath contraction

Electron micrographs of the phages with extended tails were used to determine that the tail contains 51 tail sheath discs. The rotation between consecutive discs of tail sheath proteins is 21.1° in the extended tail sheath and 30.6° in the contracted tail. The rotation of the tail tip upon tail contraction was calculated as follows. Taking the first tail sheath disc as a reference point, the rotation of 50 tail sheath discs with a 21.1° twist equals the overall rotation of 1055°. For the contracted tail sheath, the rotation of 50 tail sheath discs with the 30.6° twist equals to the overall rotation of 1530°. The overall rotation of the extended tail sheath was subtracted from the overall rotation of the contracted tail sheath, resulting in a difference of 475°.

Cryo-EM of 812 attached to *S. aureus* cell wall fragments

S. aureus SA 812 was cultured in 100 ml of meat peptone broth (1 g of Lab-Lemco (Difco), 5 g of yeast extract powder L21 (Oxoid), 10 g of peptone L37 (Oxoid), and 5 g of NaCl were dissolved in distilled water to a final volume of 1000 ml, and the pH was adjusted to 7.4 using 10 M NaOH) at 37°C until OD_{600}=0.3. Cells were harvested by centrifugation at 3,000 × *g* for 15 min. The resulting

pellet was resuspended in 80% isopropanol to a final volume of 10 ml and incubated for 1 h at room
temperature. The suspension was centrifuged at 1,000 × *g* at room temperature for 15 min. The
resulting supernatant was transferred to another tube, and cell wall fragments were harvested by
centrifugation at 20,000 × *g* for 30 min. The resulting pellet was resuspended in 100 µl of the phage
buffer and mixed with 812 at MOI 10, relative to the starting bacterial culture. After 5 min of
incubation at room temperature, the sample was applied to a holey carbon-coated copper grid for
electron microscopy (R2/1, mesh 200; Quantifoil), blotted, and vitrified by plunging into liquid
ethane using a Vitrobot Mark IV (FEI), blot force 2, blotting time 2 s. Grids were imaged at a
magnification of 17,000 ×, using a Tecnai TF20 operated (FEI) under cryogenic conditions and at an
acceleration voltage of 200 kV.

Production of recombinant cleaver domain of hub protein

The DNA segment encoding the cleaver domain of the hub protein (residues 650-808) was amplified
from the genomic DNA of phage 812 by PCR using forward and reverse primers
(5'GTAGCCATGGAACAAAGTAGTGGA3' and 5'TAGGATCCTTTATTTCTTATCGTAAA3'). Using restriction
cloning, the amplicon was cloned into the vector pET28a(+) (Novagen/Merck), providing a T7 tag and
a His6 tag at the C-terminus of the protein. An *E. coli* expression strain BL21(DE3) was transformed
with the construct using a standard heat shock procedure (45 s at 42°C). An overnight culture was
used to inoculate 1 l of 2% Luria-Bertani broth (Oxoid) supplemented with kanamycin (50 µg/mL)
and cultivated at 37°C until OD_{600}=0.5. The protein expression was induced with 0.4 mM IPTG, and
was allowed to progress for 4-6 h at 30°C.
For nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy (NMR), the cleaver domain was produced in M9
minimal medium supplemented with traces of metals, vitamins, and 2 g/L [^{13}C]glucose or 0.5 g/L
$^{15}NH_4$Cl (Cambridge Isotope Laboratories). *E. coli* BL21 (DE3) was grown to OD_{600} = 0.5, and the gene
expression was induced with 0.4 mM IPTG and continued at 30 ºC for 12 h. The cultures were
harvested, resuspended in the sonication buffer (100 mM Tris-Cl, pH 8, 500 mM NaCl, 4 mM DTT, 10
mM imidazole, 0.1 % TritonX-100), and subjected to sonication (Sartorius Labsonic® M), followed by
centrifugation at 14,000 x *g* and 4°C for 45 min. The supernatant was filtered (0.45 µm cut-off,
Corning Inc.), loaded into a 5 ml Histrap column (GE Healthcare), pre-equilibrated with the loading
buffer, and connected to an AKTA FPLC system (GE Healthcare). After the column was washed with
15 column volumes of the loading buffer (50 mM Tris-Cl, 300 mM NaCl, 20 mM imidazole), gradient
elution was performed using the elution buffer (50 mM Tris-Cl, 300 mM NaCl, 500 mM imidazole).
Fractions with protein were pooled, concentrated, and loaded onto a HiLoad 16/600 Superdex 75 pg
size-exclusion chromatography column (GE Healthcare Life Sciences), followed by an isocratic elution
with 100 mM Na-phosphate, pH 6.8, 150 mM NaCl. Purified protein was pooled, and the buffer was
exchanged by performing two washes with 20 mM Na-phosphate buffer, pH 6.8, using an Amicon
Ultra 15 filter (10 kDa cut-off, Millipore). While exchanging the buffer, the sample was concentrated
to 20 mg/ml. For the NMR studies, the protein was concentrated at 35 mg/ml while buffer-
exchanged to 25 mM Na-phosphate, pH 6.6, and 100 mM NaCl.

Zymogram analysis

The cleaver domain of the hub protein after Histrap purification was separated on a conventional
12.5% polyacrylamide gel using SDS-PAGE. Polyacrylamide gels (12,5 %) for zymograms contained
0.5% bacterial cell walls, prepared from *S. aureus* CCM 885 cells, autoclaved at 121 ºC for 5 min.
Samples of the cleaver domain were mixed with loading buffer (1% SDS, 6% sucrose, 100 mM
dithiothreitol, 10 mM Tris, pH 6.8, 0.0625% bromophenol blue) and boiled for 5 min before loading
onto SDS-PAGE gels and zymograms. The SDS-gel and zymogram were separated using gel
electrophoresis. After the gel electrophoresis, the zymogram was washed for 30 min with distilled
water to remove SDS. To renature the cleaver domain, the zymogram was soaked at room
temperature in distilled water for 2-4 h, and then for 1 h in the buffer containing 150 mM Na-
phosphate, pH 7.0, 0.1% Triton X-100, and 10 mM $MgCl_2$. The zymogram was stained for 3
h with 0.1% methylene blue in 0.001% KOH and washed with water. The peptidoglycan-hydrolytic
activity of the cleaver domain of the hub protein was detected as a clear zone on a dark blue
background.
856

NMR structure determination of cleaver domain of hub protein

NMR spectra were recorded at 298 K in an 850 MHz Bruker Avance III spectrometer equipped with a
^{1}H/^{13}C/^{15}N TCI cryogenic probe head with z-axis gradients. The composition of the NMR sample was
1.8 mM uniformly ^{13}C-, ^{15}N-labeled cleaver domain in a buffer containing 25 mM sodium phosphate,
pH 6.6, 100 mM NaCl, 1.5 mM DTT, and 10% D_2O for the lock. Three sparsely sampled 4D NMR
experiments were acquired: 4D HC(CC-TOCSY(CO))NH, 4D ^{13}C,^{15}N edited HMQC-NOESY-HSQC
(HCNH), and 4D ^{13}C,^{13}C edited HMQC-NOESY-HSQC (HCCH). Sequential and aliphatic side chain
assignments were obtained automatically using the 4D-CHAINS algorithm (Evangelidis *et al*, 2018)
and checked manually. Backbone dihedral angle restraints were derived from TALOS (Shen *et al*,
2009) using a combination of five kinds (H^{N}, H$^{\alpha}$, C$^{\alpha}$, C$^{\beta}$, N) of chemical shift assignments for each
residue in the sequence. NOE cross-peaks from the two 4D NOESY spectra (HCNH and HCCH) were
assigned automatically by CYANA 3.0 (Güntert, 2009) in structure calculations with torsion angle
dynamics. Unambiguous distance and torsion angle restraints (Appendix Table S3) were used in a
water refinement calculation (Linge *et al*, 2003), applying the RECOORD protocol (Nederveen *et al*,
2005). The quality of the NMR-derived structure ensembles was validated using PSVS (Bhattacharya
et al, 2007).
873

Production of recombinant central spike protein

The gene for central spike protein was amplified from the genomic DNA of phage 812 using forward
and   reverse   primers   (5'AGATTGGTGGCTCGGATGATTTAAATGTAAAAGGATTAGTTTTA3'   and
5'GAGGAGAGTTAAGACTTATTAAATCTTTTTATATTCATCTAGGTAGTTTGTAAA3'). Compared to the full-
length gene, the first 17 nucleotide triplets from the 5' end of the amplified gene were omitted, as
they code for the first 17 residues of the central spike protein, which were predicted to be
disordered by the secondary structure prediction using the program Phyre (Kelley *et al*, 2015). The
truncated gene was cloned into a vector derived from pET22b, which was modified to provide a
His6-SUMO-tag fusion followed by the Ulp1 cleavage site at the N-terminus of the protein. The *E. coli*
expression strain BL21(DE3) was transformed with the construct using a standard heat shock

procedure (45 s at 42°C). An overnight culture was used to inoculate 2% Luria-Bertani broth (Sigma)
supplemented with ampicillin (50 µg/ml). Cells were cultivated at 37°C and 250 rpm until OD_{600}=0.5,
followed by cultivation at 16°C and 250 rpm for 24 h without the induction of expression, as soluble
central spike protein was only produced after non-induced leaky expression. Cells were harvested in
a typical yield of 8 g per liter of cell culture, resuspended in 2.5 ml of the loading buffer (50 mM Na/K
phosphate, pH 7, 200 mM NaCl) per g of cell pellet, and subjected to chemical disintegration (0.5 %
octylthioglucoside, 1 mg/ml lysozyme, 2 U/ml Turbonuclease, 1 mM PMSF, 5 mM TCEP) at 6°C
overnight. The lysate was centrifuged at 20,000 x *g* and 8°C for 30 min. The resulting supernatant
was filtered (0.45 µm cut-off, Corning Inc.) and loaded into a 5 ml Histrap column (GE Healthcare)
pre-equilibrated with the loading buffer and connected to an AKTA FPLC system (GE Healthcare).
After the column was washed with 15 column volumes of the loading buffer, gradient elution was
performed using the elution buffer (50 mM Na/K phosphate, pH 7.0, 200 mM NaCl, 500 mM
imidazole). Eluted fractions containing the central spike protein, as determined by SDS-PAGE analysis
using 12.5 % polyacrylamide gels, were pooled and supplemented with 5 mM TCEP before the
cleavage of the purification tag overnight at 6°C using the in-house prepared Ulp1 protease. The
cleavage solution was desalted using a HiPrep^{TM} 26/10 Desalting column (Cytiva) before reverse
affinity chromatography using the 5 ml Histrap column (GE Healthcare). Cleaved protein collected in
the flow-through fraction was concentrated (30 kDa cut-off; Amicon® Ultra; Merc Millipore) and
loaded into a Superdex 16/600 200 pg column (GE Healthcare) pre-equilibrated with the loading
buffer (50 mM Na/K phosphate, pH 7.0, 200 mM NaCl), followed by an isocratic elution.
Monodisperse fractions were analyzed by SDS-PAGE and concentrated to a final concentration of 5
mg/ml.
906
Cryo-EM reconstruction of recombinant central spike protein

The purified central spike protein sample was diluted in buffer (50 mM Na/K phosphate, pH 7.0, 200
mM NaCl) to a concentration of 0.8 mg/ml and then diluted 10x in water. Four µl of the central spike
protein at a concentration of 0.08 mg/ml were applied onto a holey carbon-coated copper grid
(R1.2/1.3, mesh 200; Quantifoil) glow-discharged for 60 s from both sides. The excess of the sample
was blotted for 1 s with filter paper (Whatman No. 1) using blot force -2 and immediately plunge-
frozen in liquid ethane using a Vitrobot Mark IV (FEI). The instrument chamber was maintained at
100 % humidity and at 4°C. Cryo-EM data were collected using a Titan Krios TEM (Thermo Fisher
Scientific) operated at 300 kV and equipped with a K2 Summit direct electron detector (Gatan). The
beam was aligned for parallel illumination in NanoProbe mode, and the residual beam tilt was
removed by coma-free alignments. The software SerialEM was used to acquire the data in the
electron counting mode at 130,000x magnification, corresponding to a calibrated pixel size of 1.04
Å/px over a defocus range of -0.3 to -3.0 µm. The exposure of 8 s with a dose rate of 6.6 e$^-$/px/s was
fractionated into 40 frames (total dose 57 e$^-$/Å^2, 1.425 e$^-$/Å^2 per frame). A total of 3,120 micrographs
were collected. For each movie, the drift and gain correction was performed with MotionCor2
(Zheng *et al*, 2017), while the contrast-transfer function was estimated using the program Gctf
(Zhang, 2016). crYOLO (Wagner *et al*, 2019) was used to pick particles from micrographs denoised
using the program janni (Wagner, 2019). Particles were manually picked from 10 micrographs and
used to train the neural network. The resulting 487,160 coordinates were used to extract particles to
a 256 px box size and binned 2x to a 128 px box size (2.08 Å/px) using Relion (Zivanov *et al*, 2020).
Several rounds of 2D classification sorted out classes of the central spike protein's C-terminal

domains, containing 226,791 particles. These particles were re-extracted and binned to a 128 px box
size (2.08 Å/px) using Relion 5.0 beta (github.com/3dem/relion/tree/ver5.0). Three additional
rounds of reference-free 2D classification resulted in 135,736 particles, which were used for 3D
reconstruction using the initial model generated by the stochastic gradient descent algorithm within
Relion. Subsequent 3D classifications did not improve the quality or resolution of the reconstruction.
Therefore, all 135,736 particles were re-extracted unbinned to a 256 px box (1.04 Å/px) and assigned
to their respective optics groups. Several rounds of CTF refinements, including anisotropic
magnification estimation, beam tilt and trefoil aberrations estimation, and fitting of the defocus and
astigmatism parameters per micrograph, improved the resolution of the post-processed map to 3.6
Å. Then, two rounds of Bayesian polishing and subsequent 3D refinement with Blush regularization
and CTF refinements were performed. The final map reached a resolution of 3.2 Å. The resolution
after post-processing was calculated according to the gold standard FSC = 0.143 criterion. Local
resolution maps were computed using Relion (Kimanius *et al*, 2021).
941

Production of recombinant Arm segment protein

The gene encoding the arm segment protein was cloned into the pET-28b(+) vector
(Novagen/Merck), providing a His6 tag at the C-terminus of the protein. An *E. coli* expression strain
BL21(DE3) was transformed with the construct using a standard heat shock procedure (45 s at 42°C).
An overnight culture was used to inoculate 2% Luria-Bertani broth (Sigma) supplemented with 1 mM
MgCl2, 1 % glucose, and ampicillin (50 µg/ml), followed by cultivation at 37°C and 250 rpm until
OD_{600}=0.5. The expression was induced with 0.4 mM IPTG at 18°C and was allowed to progress for
17 h. Cells were harvested and lysed using the lysis buffer (0.5 % octyl-thioglucoside, 1 mg/ml
lysozyme, 2 U/ml Turbonuclease, 1 mM PMSF, 5 mM TCEP) at room temperature for 30 minutes,
and subsequently disintegrated with an Emulsiflex C3 (Avestin). After centrifugation at 20,000 x *g*
and 8°C for 30 min, the supernatant was filtered (0.45 µm cut-off, Corning Inc.) and loaded into a 5
ml Histrap column (GE Healthcare) pre-equilibrated with the loading buffer (50 mM HEPES, pH 8,
200 mM NaCl, 40 mM imidazole) connected to an AKTA Pure FPLC system (GE Healthcare). The
protein was eluted in one step using the elution buffer (50 mM HEPES, pH 8, 200 mM NaCl, 500 mM
imidazole). Eluted fractions containing the arm segment protein, detected by SDS-PAGE analysis on
12 % polyacrylamide gels, were loaded into a Superdex 16/600 75 pg column (GE Healthcare) pre-
equilibrated with the loading buffer (50 mM HEPES, pH 8, 200 mM NaCl), followed by an isocratic
elution. Monodisperse fractions were analyzed by SDS-PAGE and concentrated to a final
concentration of 14 mg/ml.
961

Crystallization and X-ray structure determination of recombinant arm segment protein

The arm segment protein was crystallized by vapor diffusion using the sitting-drop method at 21°C.
The protein sample at a concentration of 14 mg/ml was used to prepare drops with protein to
precipitant ratios of 200 nl : 100 nl, 100 nl : 100 nl, and 100 nl : 200 nl in MRC 3-drop 96-well plates
using a Dragonfly robot (SPT Labtech) with a range of commercially available screens (Molecular
Dimensions, Hampton Research, Qiagen-Nextal). Thick needle-like crystals were observed in the
drops containing the solution of 1.6 M LiCl, 0.1 M Tris, pH 7.5, 25 % w/v PEG 4,000. The same

crystallization solution was used to prepare hanging drops for vapor diffusion. Crystals were
harvested from the hanging drops and flash-vitrified in liquid nitrogen.
Diffraction data were recorded at 100 K on the Proxima-2A beamline at the Soleil synchrotron (Paris,
France). Native crystals were soaked in I3C using the I3C phasing kit (Hampton Research), and the
dataset was phased using the multiple wavelength anomalous dispersion method. The diffraction
data from the crystals soaked with I3C were collected at 12.67 ke⁻V and 5.00 ke⁻V. The structure of
the arm segment protein was determined using the program SHELXD (Schneider & Sheldrick, 2002).
The native diffraction data recorded from the crystals of the arm segment protein were phased
using the program Phaser (McCoy *et al*, 2007), and the structure was determined using the
anomalous data as a molecular replacement model. Refinement was performed manually using the
program *Coot* (Emsley *et al*, 2010) and automatically in *REFMAC5* (Vagin *et al*, 2004). The structures
were validated using *MolProbity* (Williams *et al*, 2018).
981
Structure prediction, determination, and refinement using cryo-EM maps

The structures of phage proteins were predicted using the program Alphafold2 (Jumper *et al*, 2021)
and fitted into their densities as rigid bodies or by individual domains using the programs Chimera
(Pettersen *et al*, 2004) or ChimeraX (Meng *et al*, 2023), and then adjusted interactively using ISOLDE
(Croll, 2018). The structures were iteratively improved using the real-space refinement implemented
in the *Phenix* package (Liebschner *et al*, 2019), and corrected manually using programs *Coot* (Emsley
et al, 2010) and ISOLDE (Croll, 2018). The geometry evaluation of models was performed using
MolProbity (Williams *et al*, 2018).
990
991 **Visualization and structure analysis**

992 Chimera (Pettersen *et al*, 2004) and ChimeraX (Meng *et al*, 2023) were used to visualize maps and
993 structures. PISA web server (Krissinel & Henrick, 2007) was used to calculate interface areas.
994 Sequences were analyzed using Clustal Omega (Sievers & Higgins, 2018) available via the EMBL-EBI
995 server (Madeira *et al*, 2022) and visualized with Jalview (Waterhouse *et al*, 2009).
996
Construction of the composite maps

Composite maps of pre- and post-contraction baseplates were constructed in ChimeraX using the
volume maximum command. Given variable resolution and quality of consensus, focused and sub-
particle maps, the numeric threshold levels were adjusted individually, and the command option
scaleFactors fromLevels was used. In case of the pre-contraction baseplate, sub-particle
reconstructions of lower (Appendix Figure S1F-K) and upper (Appendix Figure S1M-O) baseplate
arms were combined with the overall reconstruction of the lower (Appendix Figure S1E) and upper
(Appendix Figure S1L) baseplate arm, respectively. Then, newly constructed maps of the lower and
upper arms were combined with reconstructions of the core and wedge module proteins (Appendix
Figure S1C) and baseplate-proximal tail (Appendix Figure S1D) to create the final composite map of
the pre-contraction baseplate.
In the case of the post-contraction baseplate, sub-particle reconstruction of the arm segment B
(Appendix Figure S7F) was combined with the post-processed reconstruction of the baseplate arm

(Appendix Figure S7E). To better visualize the density of the RBP2, a refined map (without post-
processing) of the baseplate arm was segmented, and the density corresponding to the RBP2 and an
unassigned density at the baseplate periphery were extracted. This map was then combined with
the baseplate arm map created in the previous step. Finally, the newly constructed map of the
baseplate arm was combined with the reconstruction of the core, wedge module, inner tripod, and
baseplate-proximal tail sheath proteins (Appendix Figure S7C) and reconstructions of the tail tube
(Appendix Figure S7I) stacked onto each other to create the final composite map of the post-
contraction baseplate.

Data and Code Availability

Data availability

Cryo-EM maps and structure coordinates were deposited into the Electron Microscopy Data Bank (EMDB) and Protein Data Bank (PDB), respectively, with the following accession numbers: Structure of whole baseplate and baseplate-proximal tail of phage with extended tail computed with no symmetry imposed: EMD-55950. Structure of whole baseplate and baseplate-proximal tail of phage with extended tail computed with imposed threefold symmetry: EMD-55951 and PDB-9TIC. Structure of core and wedge module proteins of phage with extended tail computed with imposed threefold symmetry: EMD-55952 and PDB-9TID. Structure of baseplate-proximal tail of phage with extended tail computed with imposed threefold symmetry: EMD-55953 and PDB-9TIE. Structure of lower baseplate arm of phage with extended tail computed with no symmetry imposed: EMD-55954 and PDB-9TIF. Structure of lower baseplate arm (segment A) of phage with extended tail computed with no symmetry imposed: EMD-55955 and PDB-9TIG. Structure of lower baseplate arm (segment B) of phage with extended tail computed with no symmetry imposed: EMD-55956 and PDB-9TIH. Structure of lower baseplate arm (segment C,D) of phage with extended tail computed with no symmetry imposed: EMD-55957 and PDB-9TII. Structure of lower baseplate arm (segment D,E,F) of phage with extended tail computed with no symmetry imposed: EMD-55958 and PDB-9TIJ. Structure of lower baseplate arm (uRBP1-lRBP2) of phage with extended tail computed with no symmetry imposed: EMD-55959 and PDB-9TIK. Structure of lower baseplate arm (lRBP1-uRBP2) of phage with extended tail computed with no symmetry imposed: EMD-55960 and PDB-9TIL. Structure of upper baseplate arm of phage with extended tail computed with no symmetry imposed: EMD-55961 and PDB-9TIM. Structure of upper baseplate arm (segment A) of phage with extended tail computed with no symmetry imposed: EMD-55962 and PDB-9TIN. Structure of upper baseplate arm (segment B) of phage with extended tail computed with no symmetry imposed: EMD-55963 and PDB-9TIO. Structure of upper baseplate arm (segment C,D,E,F) of phage with extended tail computed with no symmetry imposed: EMD-55964 and PDB-9TIP. Composite structure of whole baseplate and baseplate-proximal tail of phage with extended tail: EMD-55977.

Structure of whole baseplate and baseplate-proximal tail of phage with contracted tail computed with no symmetry imposed: EMD-55966. Structure of whole baseplate and baseplate-proximal tail of phage with contracted tail computed with imposed sixfold symmetry: EMD-55967 and PDB-9TIR. Structure of core, wedge module, arm segment, inner tripod, and baseplate-proximal tail sheath proteins of phage with contracted tail computed with imposed sixfold symmetry: EMD-19972 and PDB-9EUJ. Structure of core, wedge module, and inner tripod proteins of phage with contracted tail computed with imposed sixfold symmetry: EMD-19973 and PDB-9EUK. Structure of baseplate arm of phage with contracted tail computed with no symmetry imposed: EMD-55968 and PDB-9TIS. Structure of baseplate arm (segment B) of phage with contracted tail computed with no symmetry imposed: EMD-55969 and PDB-9TIT. Composite structure of whole baseplate, baseplate-proximal tail sheath and tail tube of phage with contracted tail: EMD-55978 and PDB-9TIW.

Structure of extended tail computed with imposed sixfold symmetry: EMD-50093 and PDB-9F04. Structure of tail tube of phage with contracted tail computed with imposed sixfold symmetry: EMD-50094 and PDB-9F05. Structure of contracted tail sheath computed with imposed sixfold symmetry: EMD-50095 and PDB-9F06. Structure of central spike protein (knob and petal domains) computed with imposed threefold symmetry: EMD-19974 and PDB-9EUL.

1061   The NMR structure of the cleaver domain of the hub protein was deposited to PDB under the

1062   accession number 9EUM. The X-ray structure of the arm segment protein was deposited to PDB

1063   under the accession number 9FKO.

1064

1065   **Code availability**

1066   All custom scripts used during the single-particle data reconstruction are available at

1067   https://github.com/fuzikt/starpy.

Acknowledgments

We gratefully acknowledge the core facilities Cryo-electron microscopy and tomography, Biomolecular Interactions and Crystallography, Proteomics, and Josef Dadok National NMR Centre of CIISB, Instruct-CZ Centre, supported by MEYS CR (LM2023042) and European Regional Development Fund-Project „UP CIISB" (No. CZ.02.1.01/0.0/0.0/18_046/0015974). We gratefully acknowledge support from the National Institute of Virology and Bacteriology (Program EXCELES, Project ID No. LX22NPO5103) - Funded by the European Union - Next Generation EU and the project New Technologies for Translational Research in Pharmaceutical Sciences /NETPHARM, project ID OP JAC CZ.02.01.01/00/22_008/0004607, which is co-funded by the European Union. This work received funding from ERC Consolidator Grant No. 101043452 to P.P. Computational resources were provided by the e-INFRA CZ project (ID:90254), suppoted by the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports of the Czech Republic.

1080 **Disclosure and Competing Interests Statement**

1081 The authors state they have no competing interests or disclosures.

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¹³⁹⁷ **Main figures:**

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¹³⁹⁹ **Fig. 1. Structure of phage 812 baseplate. (A-D)** The composite cryo-EM map of the 812 baseplate is
¹⁴⁰⁰ viewed along (A) and perpendicular (B-D) to the tail axis. Protein components of the baseplate and
¹⁴⁰¹ tail are colored according to the scheme depicted in panel E. Pictograms indicate the upper and
¹⁴⁰² lower baseplate arms. The height and width of the baseplate, tail axis, angles of baseplate arms
¹⁴⁰³ relative to the tail axis, and distances of baseplate arms from the tail axis are indicated. **(C, D)** Side
¹⁴⁰⁴ views of the 812 baseplate, with two front and two rear baseplate arms removed to display the
¹⁴⁰⁵ wedge modules and baseplate core. **(E)** Scheme of part of the 812 genome encoding tail and
¹⁴⁰⁶ baseplate genes.
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Fig. 2. Structure of 812 wedge modules and baseplate core. (A-F) The cryo-EM map of wedge modules and baseplate core. Individual proteins are colored according to the scheme depicted in Fig. 1E. Names of selected proteins and protein domains are indicated. **(A)** Side view of wedge modules and baseplate core shown as a whole (left) and with front half removed (right). The positions of sections shown in panel B are indicated on the left. **(B)** Sections through the wedge modules and baseplate core viewed towards the phage head. Positions of close-up views of selected regions displayed in panels C-F are indicated as black circles. **(C-F)** Close-up views of selected regions from sections in panel B.

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Fig. 3. Central spike, hub, and weld proteins. (A) Cryo-electron micrograph of the 812 baseplate.
The white dashed rectangle indicates the putative position of the coiled-coil, knob, and petal
domains of the trimer of central spike proteins. **(B)** Composite cryo-EM map of 812 baseplate and
cryo-EM map of the knob and petal domains of central spike protein trimer. The baseplate is shown
in gray except for the central spike (pink), hub (red), and weld (green) proteins. The front part of the
baseplate has been removed. The coiled-coil domains of the central spike proteins predicted using
AlphaFold2 are shown in cartoon representation. **(C, D)** Cartoon representations of the petal domain
of the central spike protein (C) and the cleaver domain of the hub protein (D). Side chains of residues
forming putative hydrolytic sites are shown in stick representation. Insets show details of the
putative hydrolytic sites. **(E)** Cartoon (left) and surface (right) representations of the clamp domain
of the hub protein. The molecular surface is colored according to Coulombic electrostatic potential
in the range from -20 to 20 kcal/(mol·e^-) at 298 K. **(F)** Cartoon representation of the clip domain of
the weld protein. Side chains of residues forming a putative receptor-binding site are shown as
sticks. The structures shown in panels C-F were determined using cryo-EM or NMR, as indicated.
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Fig. 4. Structure of baseplate arm. (A) Schematic representation of the baseplate arm and part of the wedge module. Attachment sites of tripods, RBP1, and RBP2 are indicated. **(B)** Composite cryo-EM map of the lower baseplate arm with structures of arm scaffold and arm segment proteins shown in cartoon. The distal end of the baseplate arm, probably corresponding to the C-terminal domain of the arm scaffold protein, is shown as a white surface. Parts of the baseplate arm with fitted structures are shown as white semi-transparent surfaces Arm segment dimers A to F are indicated. **(C)** The structure of the dimer of arm segment proteins, determined using X-ray crystallography, is shown in a cartoon **(D)** Cartoon representation of the domains of the arm scaffold protein. Domain names and selected chain termini are indicated. Domain structures predicted using AlphaFold2 and not fitted into the cryo-EM maps are shown in dotted rectangle. The linear diagram (bottom) representing arm scaffold protein domains is colored according to the structures. **(E, F)** Cartoon representation of the interaction of the C-terminal β-strands of arm segment proteins with the arm scaffold protein. Views are indicated in the panel B.

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Fig. 5. Tripod and receptor-binding proteins of 812 baseplate. (A) Schematic representation of the
baseplate arm and part of the wedge module of 812 with the extended tail. **(B)** Composite cryo-EM
map of the lower baseplate arm. Part of the map corresponding to the inner and outer tripod
protein trimers is shown as a white semi-transparent surface. Part of the map corresponding to the
arm scaffold and arm segment proteins is shown as an opaque surface colored according to the
protein type. Structures of the tripod proteins are shown in cartoon representation. Views of panels
C and D are indicated. **(C, D)** Detailed views of attachment sites of inner (C) and outer (D) tripod
protein trimers to the docking loops 1 and 2, respectively, of the arm scaffold protein. **(E)** The
structure of the tripod protein is shown in cartoon representation and colored by domains. Domain
names and chain termini are indicated. **(F, G)** Composite cryo-EM maps of the two neighboring
baseplate arms. Parts of maps corresponding to RBP1, RBP2 (F, G) and coupler (F) proteins are
shown as a white semi-transparent surface. Parts of maps corresponding to the arm scaffold and
arm segment proteins is shown as an opaque surface colored according to the protein type.
Structures of RBP1, RBP2 and coupler proteins are shown in cartoon representation. Views of panels
H and I are indicated. **(H, I)** Detailed views of protein interactions indicated in panels F (H) and G (I).
(J, K) Structures of RBP1 (J) and RBP2 (K) monomersare shown in cartoon representation and colored
by domains. **(L)** The structure of the coupler protein is shown in cartoon.
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Fig. 6. Structures of 812 baseplate, tripods, and tail sheath after the tail sheath contraction. (A)

Schematic representation of conformational changes of the baseplate arm and tripod complexes.

The pink asterisk indicates the putative attachment site of RBP1, which was not resolved in the

reconstruction of the contracted baseplate. Green asterisks indicate the putative position of the

anchor and hook domains of tripod proteins, which were not resolved in the reconstruction. **(B, C)**

Composite cryo-EM maps of the contracted baseplate are viewed along (B) and perpendicular to (C)

the tail axis. Proteins are colored according to Fig. 1D, and names of selected components are

indicated. In panel C, the height and width of the baseplate, position of the tail axis, angle of

baseplate arms relative to the tail axis, and distance of baseplate arms from the tail axis are

indicated. **(D)** Composite cryo-EM map of the baseplate arm from contracted baseplate. The distal

end of the baseplate arm that could not be interpreted is shown as a white surface. Part of the

baseplate arm with fitted structures is shown as white semi-transparent surface. Structures are

shown in cartoon representation. Views of panels E and F are indicated. **(E, F)** Detailed views of

attachment sites of inner (E) and outer (F) tripod protein trimers to the docking loops 1 and 2,

respectively, of the arm scaffold protein. **(G)** Cartoon representation of the tripod protein is colored

by domains. The structures of the anchor and hook domains of the tripod protein, which were not

resolved in the cryo-EM reconstruction of the contracted baseplate, were predicted using

AlphaFold2, and their putative positions are indicated in panel A by green asterisks. Domain names

and chain termini are indicated. **(H, I)** Cryo-EM map of the extended tail (H) and composite cryo-EM

map of the contracted tail (I). For each panel, complete maps are shown on the left, and maps with

the front half of the tail sheath removed shown on the right. Protein components are colored

according to the legend below the panel. **(J)** Comparison of the structures of tail sheath proteins in

extended and contracted conformations. The structures are shown in cartoon representation, and

their domains II were superimposed. Angles of the long axes of domain I relative to the tail axis are

indicated for each conformation.

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Tail sheath Tail tube Hub Weld Central spike Tail tube initiator Assembly Tail sheath initiator Wedge A Wedge B Arm scaffold Arm segment Tripod RBP1 RBP2

Fig. 7. Scheme of 812 cell adhesion and penetration mechanism. (A) The baseplate of phage 812 comes in contact with the cell wall of *S. aureus*, trimers of RBP1 bind to teichoic acid, and the petal domains of the central spike proteins cleave teichoic acid below the baseplate. **(B)** Trimers of RBP2 rotate and bind to teichoic acid. **(C)** Tripod complexes undergo a conformational change and anchor the baseplate to the cell wall. Central spike and weld proteins detach from the baseplate. The diameter of the iris formed by wedge modules increases, leading to a conformational change to tail sheath initiator proteins and baseplate-proximal sheath discs. The remaining baseplate core proteins detach from the sheath initiator and wedge module proteins. **(D)** As the contraction of the sheath discs propagates towards the phage head, the tail tube with tail tube initiator, hub, and assembly proteins at its tip is driven through the cell wall. The cleaver domain of the hub protein degrades the peptidoglycan. **(E)** The tail tube penetrates the cytoplasmic membrane, and its tip reaches the cytoplasm. However, it is not known whether the baseplate core proteins remain associated with the tip of the tail tube during the membrane penetration. WTA - wall teichoic acid; LTA - lipoteichoic acid; PG - peptidoglycan; PM - plasma membrane. The scheme is colored according to the list of proteins at the bottom.