A simplified and highly efficient cell-free protein synthesis system for prokaryotes

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Abstract

Cell-free protein synthesis (CFPS) systems are a powerful platform with immense

potential in fundamental research, biotechnology, and synthetic biology. Conventional

prokaryotic CFPS systems, particularly those derived from *Escherichia coli* (*E. coli*), often

rely on complex reaction buffers containing up to thirty-five components, limiting their

widespread adoption and systematic optimization. Here, we present an optimized *E. coli*

cell-free protein synthesis (*e*CFPS) system, which is significantly streamlined for high

efficiency. Through systematic screening, we successfully reduced the essential core

reaction components from 35 to a core set of 7. The thorough optimization of these seven

key components ensured that protein expression levels were not only maintained but

even substantially improved. Furthermore, we developed a much simpler procedure for

preparing the bacterial cytosolic extracts, a "fast lysate" protocol that eliminates the

traditional time-consuming runoff and dialysis steps, thereby enhancing the overall

accessibility and robustness of *e*CFPS. This optimized and user-friendly *e*CFPS

efficiently synthesizes challenging proteins, including functional, self-assembling vimentin,

and active restriction endonuclease *Bsa*I despite its strong cytotoxicity, and serves as a

powerful tool that will facilitate diverse applications in basic life science research and

beyond.

Introduction

Cell-free protein synthesis (CFPS) offers a powerful and flexible platform for biological research and biotechnological applications by reproducing the cellular protein synthesis process in an *in vitro* environment[1,2]. Compared to traditional cell-based expression systems, CFPS possesses several notable advantages, including rapid reaction kinetics, ease of operation, independence from cell culture, high tolerance to toxic proteins, and facile incorporation of non-canonical amino acids[3–5]. These characteristics position CFPS for broad applications in protein engineering, high-throughput screening, synthetic biology, and diagnostic reagent development[6,7].

Prokaryotic CFPS systems, especially those based on *E. coli* lysates, have garnered significant attention for their high protein synthesis yields and compatibility with genetic manipulations[8–13]. They have played a pivotal role in early molecular biology research and continue to be relevant in industrial protein production and biosensor development[1,14–16]. However, for a long time, most prokaryotic CFPS protocols have relied on complex buffer systems containing a large number of auxiliary components[17,18]. A comprehensive analysis of existing literature reveals that the composition of reaction buffers differs widely between protocols, both in the number of optional components and in the concentrations of individual components (**Table S1**). These complex systems, while effective, often lead to high costs, laborious preparation procedures, and potential interactions among components, posing significant challenges for further optimization and standardization, thereby limiting their widespread adoption in resource-constrained laboratories.

In recent years, the field of eukaryotic CFPS has seen remarkable progress in system optimization and simplification[19,20]. Highly optimized human *in vitro* translation systems have demonstrated that high-efficiency protein synthesis can be achieved with a minimal number of core components[19]. Recognizing the potential of such systematic optimization approaches, we hypothesized that similar strategies could be equally applicable and beneficial for *E. coli* CFPS systems by thoroughly analyzing the functions of existing components and integrating insights from previous reports on prokaryotic protein synthesis mechanisms. This study aimed to develop a highly simplified yet efficient *E. coli*

cell-free protein synthesis system (eCFPS). We conducted a systematic component

reduction screening of traditional eCFPS systems, successfully streamlining the core

components from thirty-five to just seven. The subsequent meticulous optimization of

these seven key components not only maintained but even improved protein expression

levels. Through these dual efforts—simplifying the reaction mixture and developing a

high-quality, dialysis-free "fast lysate" preparation—we established a highly accessible

and robust eCFPS platform which will accelerate diverse applications in life science

research.

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Results

Streamlining eCFPS: removal of dispensable components

To develop a more streamlined and efficient eCFPS system, we performed a systematic

screening of auxiliary components commonly found in traditional prokaryotic CFPS

protocols[17,21]. Our objective was to identify dispensable components while maintaining or

enhancing protein synthesis efficiency, thereby simplifying system preparation and

reducing costs. Starting with a comprehensive reaction mixture containing up to thirty-five

components[17], we iteratively evaluated the contribution of individual constituents through

luciferase reporter assays. Throughout this optimization, essential core components such

as creatine phosphate (CrP), creatine kinase (CrK), ATP, GTP, magnesium, and

potassium were maintained in the base reaction mixture[3,8,19]. Our systematic approach

allowed us to precisely determine the impact of each component on overall protein

synthesis yield, leading to the identification of both dispensable and critical factors.

Through this systematic screening, we first identified several components that could be

entirely removed from the reaction mixture without compromising protein synthesis

efficiency (**Figure 1**). Dithiothreitol (DTT), a reducing agent commonly included in both

transcription and translation systems to maintain protein sulfhydryl groups in a reduced

state and prevent aggregation, was found to be unnecessary within our specific system,

as its removal did not affect the final protein expression levels (**Figure 1A**). Similarly,

cyclic adenosine 3′,5′-monophosphate (cAMP), a regulator implicated in transcriptional

regulation[22–24], was also found to be dispensable for efficient protein synthesis (**Figure**

1B). Furthermore, we systematically evaluated other auxiliary components, including the molecular crowder polyethylene glycol 8000 (PEG8000), used to enhance macromolecular crowding[25–29]; ammonium ions (NH$_4^+$), typically included as an osmolyte and for its role in maintaining protein stability and solubility in *e*CFPS reactions[29–33]; and folinic acid, which serves as a crucial cofactor for nucleotide synthesis[8,33]. Our results consistently showed that removing these components had a negligible impact on overall protein synthesis performance (**Figure 1C-E**). These findings collectively demonstrate that a substantial portion of the auxiliary components in traditional *e*CFPS protocols can be eliminated, paving the way for a more streamlined and cost-effective system.

An evaluation of various concentrations of amino acids and tRNA was conducted, as these components are fundamental building blocks for protein synthesis[34–36]. Previous studies on *e*CFPS have highlighted the rapid degradation of certain amino acids, such as arginine, cysteine, and tryptophan, necessitating their replenishment for prolonged synthesis[37,38]. Our results showed that while these components are critical for achieving high yields, protein synthesis still occurs in their absence (**Figure 1F-G**). This suggests that while they are optimizable, tRNA and amino acids are not strictly essential for the reaction to proceed, likely due to residual amounts within the cell lysate (**Figure 1F-G**). Furthermore, we evaluated the role of nucleoside triphosphates (NTPs) in our system, which are essential for coupled transcription-translation. Interestingly, we found that protein synthesis could proceed without the addition of CTP or UTP (**Figure 1H-I and Figure S1**). While adding either ATP or GTP alone resulted in a very weak reaction, the presence of both ATP and GTP together recovered the reaction to approximately 40% of the complete NTPs mix (**Figure S1B-C**). This highlights the critical role for ATPase-dependent chaperones (e.g., DnaK) and GTPase-dependent elongation factors (e.g., EF-Tu and EF-G)[39], which are crucial for proper protein folding during synthesis[40].

Ultimately, this comprehensive screening allowed us to successfully reduce the core reaction components from thirty-five to just seven (**Figure 1J**).

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Figure 1 Optimization of eCFPS components. Protein expression levels from the eCFPS
system were measured using an Nanoluciferase (NLuc) reporter DNA. Green area in the graphs
indicate the common concentration range used in published protocols for eCFPS. Error bars
represent the standard error (SE) of at least three independent reactions. (**A-E**) Protein
expression levels of the eCFPS system supplemented with different concentration of DTT (**A**),
cAMP (**B**), PEG8000 (**C**), NH_4^+ (**D**), and folinic acid (**E**). (**F-I**) Protein expression levels of eCFPS
with various concentrations of tRNA (**F**), amino acids (**G**), CTP (**H**) and UTP (**I**). (**J**) A summary of
the supplement components before and after optimization.

Optimization of essential eCFPS components

While a core set of seven components was found to be sufficient for protein synthesis,
we conducted further fine-tuning to maximize the system's performance. First, we
optimized the concentrations of key salts and energy components (**Figure 2**). Our findings
reveal that the final protein expression level is highly dependent on the concentrations of
both magnesium (Mg^{2+}) and potassium ions (K^+), which are fundamental for the structural
integrity and catalytic activity of ribosomes, and various enzymatic reactions critical to
eCFPS[41,42]. Through a detailed matrix-based optimization, we first identified the optimal
concentrations of Mg^{2+} and K^+ to achieve maximum protein expression (**Figure 2A**).
Similarly, we conducted a separate screen to optimize the concentrations of Mg^{2+} and
PEG8000 as previous reports have suggested a cooperative relationship between them[17]
(**Figure 2B**).

A comprehensive evaluation of the core energy components was also performed. We
specifically focused on co-optimizing the concentrations of ATP and GTP, which serve as
both energy sources and building blocks[43–45], to maximize the yield of protein synthesis
(**Figure 2C**). Additionally, the energy regeneration system, primarily composed of CrP
and CrK, is vital for maintaining sustained ATP levels[46,47]. We found that CrP is crucial,
with no reaction occurring in its absence (**Figure S2A**). Initial experiments showed that
while CrK addition significantly boosted translation efficiency early on, reactions without
exogenous CrK could achieve a protein expression level approximately four times higher
at later time points (2 hours or more), suggesting the presence of an endogenous CrK-
like enzyme in the lysate (**Figure S2B**). A co-optimization screen for CrP and CrK
concentrations was also performed, and our results showed that optimizing the
concentrations of these components is critical for achieving and sustaining high protein
expression (**Figure 2D**). Furthermore, we optimized the pH and concentration of the
HEPES buffer, finding that a specific range was critical for maintaining stable and high
protein expression (**Figure 2E**). These multi-faceted optimizations ensured that each
component was present at its ideal concentration, leading to a synergistic effect that
significantly boosted the system's overall performance.

Figure 2 Optimization of essential components for *e*CFPS system. (**A**) Protein expression levels of the *e*CFPS system measured at varying concentrations of KGlu and MgGlu$_2$. (**B**) Protein expression levels of the *e*CFPS system measured at varying concentrations of MgGlu$_2$ and PEG8000. (**C**) Protein expression levels of the *e*CFPS system measured at varying concentrations of ATP and GTP. (**D**) Protein expression levels of the *e*CFPS system measured at varying concentrations of CrK and CrP. (**E**)

165   Protein expression levels of the *e*CFPS system measured at varying pH and buffer
166   concentrations. Data from all panels present mean ± SE, n = 3.

Performance characterization of the optimized eCFPS

To thoroughly evaluate the performance of our optimized *e*CFPS, we conducted a series
of experiments. We first investigated the kinetics of protein synthesis measuring the
expression over time at different temperatures (25°C, 30°C, and 37°C). Our results
demonstrate that the system exhibits robust protein synthesis across this range, with the
highest expression rates observed at the physiological temperature of 37°C (**Figure 3A**).
Next, we assessed the system's sensitivity to DNA concentration, finding that it could
efficiently utilize a wide range of reporter DNA templates to produce quantifiable protein
products, which were validated by both luminescence assays and western blot analysis
(**Figure 3B**). Furthermore, we investigated the impact of varying cell lysate volume ratios,
comparing our initial system with the newly optimized *e*CFPS. Our findings indicate that
the optimized system maintains superior protein expression even at different lysate-to-
buffer ratios (**Figure 3C**).

Figure 3 Characterization of the optimized *e*CFPS system. (**A**) Kinetics of protein
synthesis at 25°C, 30°C and 37°C over a 60-minute period. Data present mean ± SE, n
= 3. (**B**) Protein expression levels of the *e*CFPS system measured at varying DNA
concentrations for a reporter encoding a FLAG-tagged NLuc. The protein product was
quantified via a luminescence assay and confirmed by western blotting. Data present
mean ± SE, n = 3. (**C**) Comparison of protein expression levels from the initial and
optimized *e*CFPS systems at various cell extract volume ratios. Data present mean ± SE,
n = 4.

Comparative analysis of energy regeneration systems and expression of challenging proteins

To validate the efficacy of our optimized *e*CFPS, we benchmarked its performance against two widely used systems: the classical Phosphoenolpyruvate (PEP)-based energy system, a common alternative for ATP regeneration [6,7], and an initial CrP/CrK-based system (**Figure 4**). We utilized NLuc, representing a broadly applicable protein, and super-folder green fluorescent protein (sfGFP), with codons optimized for *E. coli* as reporter proteins and monitored their expression over time (**Figure 4A-B, Figure S3A**). Our results show that the optimized *e*CFPS consistently outperforms both the classical and initial systems, achieving significantly higher protein expression levels in a shorter period (**Figure 4A-B**). The robust expression was further confirmed by western blot analysis, which provided clear visual evidence of the superior protein yield from our optimized system (**Figure 4C-D, Figure S3B-C**). Finally, we validated the function of our system through antibiotic-mediated inhibition assays. Our results demonstrate that protein expression in the optimized *e*CFPS can be effectively inhibited by standard antibiotics, confirming its robust and native-like translation machinery (**Figure S3D**).

To further validate the system's capability in synthesizing challenging, functional proteins, we focused on the restriction endonuclease *Bsa*I (**Figure 4E-F**). Restriction endonucleases like *Bsa*I are notoriously difficult to express *in vivo* due to their specific DNA-cleaving activity, which is highly cytotoxic to the host *E. coli* cells. Traditional recombinant expression requires the compulsory co-expression of a corresponding methylase to protect the host genome, adding significant complexity to the system[48,49]. Leveraging the inherent cell-free advantage of circumventing cytotoxicity, we first demonstrated the system's utility by synthesizing the restriction endonuclease *Bsa*I[50], confirming its specific enzymatic activity via a DNA cleavage assay, which underscores the system's ability to produce complex, functional enzymes (**Figure 4E-F**). We confirmed that the *e*CFPS synthesized *Bsa*I was functionally active, successfully cleaving its substrate plasmid DNA (**Figure 4F**). Based on the standard definition of enzyme activity (1 U digests 1 μg of substrate DNA in 20 μL at 37°C in 1 h), we calculated the enzyme activity of our *e*CFPS-produced *Bsa*I to be in the range of $2 \times 10^3 \sim 2 \times 10^4$ U/mg (**Figure**

4F). The efficient production of this active enzyme demonstrates the power of our
simplified system for producing complex, cytotoxic proteins.

Next, we successfully expressed vimentin, an intermediate filament protein (**Figure 4G**).
Vimentin is a type III intermediate filament protein that forms part of the cytoskeleton[51]. It
is known to be difficult to express and handle due to its high propensity for aggregation.
Our *e*CFPS system efficiently expressed vimentin **(Figure 4G).** Crucially, the vimentin
expressed in our CFPS system demonstrated successful *in vitro* self-assembly into
filaments (**Figure 4H**), which was confirmed by negative-stain electron microscopy,
confirming the system's robust performance even for difficult-to-express, aggregation-
prone proteins (**Figure 4E-H**).

Figure 4 Benchmarking the optimized *e*CFPS system with different DNA templates.

(**A**) NLuc protein expression kinetics over time, comparing the PEP-based, initial CrP/CrK-based, and optimized CrP/CrK-based energy regeneration systems. Data present mean ± SE, n = 4. (**B**) sfGFP protein expression kinetics over time from the three energy regeneration systems. Data present mean ± SE, n = 3. (**C-D**) Western blot validation of protein expression for NLuc (**C**) and sfGFP (**D**) from the different eCFPS system shown in (**A-B**). Protein products were detected using an anti-FLAG antibody. The asterisk (*) indicates a non-specific band. (**E**) Western blot detection of His-FLAG-*Bsa*I expressed by the optimized eCFPS system using an anti-FLAG antibody. (**F**) Agarose gel electrophoresis confirming the functional activity of eCFPS-synthesized *Bsa*I via cleavage of a substrate plasmid. A 10-fold serial dilution of *Bsa*I was with 1x representing 0.05 mg/mL. NC (negative control) indicates no plasmid in the eCFPS reaction. S, L, and O indicate the respective position of the supercoiled, linear, and open circular forms of the plasmid. (**G**) Western blot analysis of vimentin expressed by the optimized eCFPS system using an anti-vimentin antibody. (**H**) Negative-stain electron microscopy image showing that vimentin expressed via eCFPS can successfully self-assemble into filaments *in vitro*.

A simplified method for bacterial lysate preparation and quality control

In addition to optimizing the reaction buffer, we sought to simplify the entire eCFPS procedure by developing an easy-to-use method for preparing the bacterial cell lysate. During lysate making, traditional methods, which often rely on time-consuming runoff and dialysis procedures[21,8], were replaced with a high-pressure homogenizer for efficient cell disruption, eliminating the need for additional dialysis. Compared to traditional biochemical methods such as ultrasonication, lysozyme treatment, or freeze-thaw cycles[52], this approach is faster and more convenient (**Figure 5A**). Additionally, endogenous T7 RNA polymerase in the optimized eCFPS lysate obviates exogenous addition, simplifying preparation and reducing costs while maintaining high translation efficiency (**Figure 5A**). We validated this new "fast lysate" preparation by rigorous quality control. We tested lysates prepared from cells harvested at various optical densities at 600 nm (OD_{600}). While the density did not significantly impact protein expression levels, a harvest optical density of $OD_{600}=2$ yielded the best performance (**Figure 5B**). The quality of the lysate, particularly the integrity of its translational machinery, was further

confirmed by sucrose gradient centrifugation (**Figure S4A**) and negative-staining
transmission electron microscopy (TEM) images (**Figure S4B**) showing well-resolved
70S ribosomes.

To further simplify the protocol, we evaluated the necessity of the traditional runoff and
dialysis steps[8] (**Figure 5A**). Our results from sucrose gradient analysis and TEM imaging
confirmed that ribosomes remained intact, and the *e*CFPS expression signal was
significantly higher without them (**Figure 5C-D, Figure S4B**). These findings confirm that
both the runoff and dialysis steps are dispensable for our system, allowing for a
significantly simplified and faster preparation. Additionally, our reliance on endogenously
expressed T7 RNA polymerase yields a significantly higher expression signal,
outperforming previously reported *e*CFPS systems by up to four-fold (**Figure 5D**).

Our optimized lysate preparation method yielded highly active and stable extracts. It is
capable of sustaining protein synthesis for up to 120 minutes (**Figure S4C**) and maintains
protein synthesis efficiency even after multiple freeze-thaw cycles, making it highly
suitable for routine laboratory use (**Figure 5E**).

Figure 5 Preparation of *e*CFPS from cultured *E. coli* Cells. (**A**) Flowchart of the *e*CFPS
preparation procedures. (**B**) Comparison of reaction efficiency in *e*CFPS using lysate with
bacteria cells harvested at different optical density. Data present mean ± SE, n = 3. (**C**)
Sucrose gradient sedimentation analysis of different lysates used for *e*CFPS, revealing

the presence of ribosome monomers. (**D**) Comparison of protein expression levels in

eCFPS system using lysates prepared by runoff, dialysis, and rapid endogenous T7 RNA

polymerase induction. Data present mean ± SE, n = 4. (**E**) Comparison of reaction

efficiency in eCFPS using lysates after different numbers of freeze-thaw cycles. Data

present mean ± SE, n = 3.

Discussion

In this study, we successfully developed a highly streamlined and efficient eCFPS system.

By systematically eliminating dispensable components from traditional protocols, we

reduced the complexity of the reaction mixture from thirty-five to a core set of just seven

components. This simplification represents a significant advancement over conventional

systems by not only drastically lowering the cost and effort of preparing the reaction buffer,

but also by minimizing potential inhibitory interactions between numerous auxiliary

components, thereby making the system more accessible for a wider range of

researchers and laboratories.

The thorough optimization of the seven core components was a critical step in achieving

high protein expression levels. Our detailed screening of key factors like salts, energy

components, and buffer conditions revealed that precise concentrations are essential for

optimal performance. The synergistic effect of these optimized components was evident,

particularly the energy source and regeneration system, which is based on CrK coupled

with CrP[37]. A notable finding from our optimization was the ability of our system to function

effectively without certain components traditionally considered essential. For example,

the removal of DTT did not negatively impact protein expression, suggesting that our

lysate preparation procedure may maintain sufficient reducing conditions or that the high

expression levels are sufficiently rapid that protein aggregation is not a major issue.

Similarly, the ability to achieve high protein yields with minimal or even no added tRNA

or CTP/UTP highlights the remarkable robustness and inherent capacity of our lysate,

likely due to residual components retained during our simplified preparation method. We

also observed that the protein synthesis signal was significantly higher without traditional

runoff and dialysis steps, strongly suggesting that these steps may inadvertently remove

endogenous components essential for efficient protein synthesis. The high activity of this

"fast lysate," which retains essential endogenous components, is the key factor enabling
the dramatic simplification of the reaction buffer. This led to a significant improvement in
protein synthesis yield compared to both classical and initial systems.

The benchmarking experiments clearly demonstrated that our optimized *e*CFPS system
provides higher protein expression levels compared to these traditional systems while
offering faster kinetics, which is a key advantage for high-throughput applications. The
successful production of active *Bsa*I restriction enzyme, a cytosolic toxic and difficult-to-
express protein, and the functional assembly of vimentin, a difficult-to-handle intermediate
filament protein[51], further validate the superior robustness and translational quality of our
optimized system beyond simple reporters like Nluc.

Our simplified lysate preparation method, the novel "fast lysate" protocol which eliminates
the time-consuming runoff and dialysis steps, further distinguishes this work. We
demonstrate that a highly active lysate can be prepared rapidly using a high-pressure
homogenizer, which enhances the overall accessibility and robustness of our *e*CFPS
system. The ability to use the lysate directly after a single centrifugation step, coupled
with the reliance on endogenous T7 RNA polymerase, makes our protocol one of the
most straightforward and rapid for producing high-quality *e*CFPS lysates. This
streamlined preparation procedure is a significant step toward making CFPS a more
routine and scalable tool for diverse applications.

In conclusion, our optimized and streamlined *e*CFPS system represents a significant
advancement in the field of prokaryotic cell-free protein synthesis. By drastically reducing
the number of reaction components and simplifying the lysate preparation procedure, we
have created a highly efficient, cost-effective, and user-friendly platform. This system is
poised to accelerate fundamental research and facilitate high-throughput protein
engineering, compound screening, and diagnostic development. Future work will focus
on further characterizing the endogenous factors in the lysate that enable the high
efficiency of our system and exploring its use in novel synthetic biology applications.

Methods

Plasmid construction

All plasmids and primers used in this study are detailed in Table S2. The NLuc and sfGFP reporter genes, each fused with a FLAG-tag, were cloned into a T7-driven expression vector. The sfGFP gene was optimized for *E. coli* codon usage to ensure efficient translation. The vector backbone was constructed using standard molecular biology techniques.

The *Bsa*I linear DNA templates was constructed from three DNA fragments amplified by PCR. To enhance template stability and mitigate nuclease degradation within the CFPS system, approximately 300 bp sequences were incorporated upstream and downstream of the *Bsa*I coding sequence. The fragments encoding the T7 promoter/upstream sequence (Fragment 1) and the T7 terminator/downstream sequence (Fragment 2) were amplified from the pJL1 plasmid. Separately, the gene fragment for the restriction endonuclease *Bsa*I was amplified from the pUC_*Bsa*I plasmid (Fragment 3). These three fragments were subsequently fused using overlap PCR to generate the final linear template, which was confirmed to lack the recognition sequence for the target *Bsa*I enzyme.

E. coli cell culture and lysate preparation

E. coli S30 cell lysate for CFPS was prepared using a simplified protocol adapted from a previously reported method[8]. Briefly, *E. coli* BL21(DE3) was cultured in LB medium at 37°C with shaking. Once the OD_{600} reached 0.8, endogenous T7 RNA polymerase expression was induced with 1 mM IPTG. The culture was then grown for an additional 2 hours before being harvested (when the OD_{600} reached 2-3). The cells were collected by centrifugation at 4000 *g* for 10 minutes at 4°C. The cell pellet was washed with 5 volumes of cold S30 buffer (10 mM HEPES-KOH pH 7.5, 14 mM Mg(OAc)$_2$, 60 mM KOAc) and then resuspended in S30 buffer at a ratio of 1 mL per gram of wet cell paste. Cell lysis was performed using a high-pressure homogenizer at 800 *bar* for two passes. The lysate was then clarified by centrifugation at 20,000 *g* for 10 minutes at 4°C, and the resulting supernatant, designated as the "fast lysate", was collected without subsequent runoff or dialysis steps. This omission ensures maximal retention of endogenous components,

contributing directly to the observed system efficiency. Lysate quality control was
assessed by (i) sucrose density gradient analysis and negative-staining TEM to confirm
the integrity of 70S ribosomes, and (ii) functional testing by monitoring the synthesis and
activity of the challenging restriction enzyme, *Bsa*I and vimentin. Finally, the fast lysate
was aliquoted and flash-frozen in liquid nitrogen before being stored at -80°C until use.

A step-by-step protocol is provided in the supplementary protocol.

eCFPS reactions for luciferase reporter assay

378 The optimized *e*CFPS reaction was performed in a 10 µL total volume containing the
379 components listed in **Table S3** and **Table S4**. Plasmid of NLuc reporter gene was used
380 as the template.

CFPS expression, protein purification and analysis

Protein expression levels were quantified using NLuc and sfGFP reporter systems. NLuc
activity was measured with the Nano-Glo luciferase assay system (Promega). Reaction
mixtures were diluted as specified in the source data to prevent signal saturation and then
analyzed on a microplate luminometer (BERTHOLD, Centro XS3 LB 960) to obtain the
luminescence units as described previously[53,54]. SfGFP fluorescence was used to
quantify protein synthesis following the methods reported[55]. Briefly, 5 µL of the reaction
mixture was added to 195 µL of fluorescence assay buffer (20mM HEPES-KOH pH7.5,
100mM NaCl, 5mM magnesium glutamate). Fluorescence was measured on a Cell
Imaging Multimode Reader (BioTek, Cytation 5) with an excitation wavelength of 485 nm
and an emission wavelength of 528 nm.

Western blotting analysis was performed to confirm protein synthesis of the *e*CFPS
reactions. Synthesized proteins were detected using a primary anti-FLAG (Sigma, Cat#:
M185-3L). Chemiluminescence was detected using a Gel Imaging System (Tanon).

Expression and purification of vimentin and *Bsa*I

The gene for human vimentin (GenBank NP_003371.2) was sub-cloned into the
pET507a vector for expression. *Bsa*I (4 mL reaction) and vimentin (1 mL reaction)
proteins were synthesized using a CFPS system. The core reaction mixture for both

proteins consisted of 16 mM magnesium glutamate, 250 mM potassium glutamate, 1.2

mM ATP, 2.4 mM GTP, 80 mM CrP, 125 µg/ml CrK, 13.3 ng/µl or 7.2 ng/µl DNA

template, and 50% cell extract.

For *Bsa*I purification, the 4 mL reaction mixture was centrifuged at 20,000 *g*, and the

supernatant was incubated with 600 µl of Ni beads for 1 h at 4°C. The beads were washed

five times with 2 mL of wash buffer (40 mM HEPES-KOH pH 7.5, 50 mM imidazole, 500

mM NaCl). Elution was performed with 2 mL of elution buffer (40 mM HEPES-KOH pH

7.5, 500 mM imidazole, 500 mM NaCl). The eluted *Bsa*I was desalted using a column

(desalting buffer: 40 mM HEPES-KOH pH 7.5, 500 mM NaCl, 1 mM DTT), concentrated

to 1 mg/ml, and stored at -80°C in the presence of 10% glycerol. *Bsa*I enzymatic activity

was validated in a 20 µL reaction containing 2 µL of 10x rCutsmart (NEB), 2 µg of a

substrate plasmid, and *Bsa*I enzyme diluted in a 10-fold gradient. The reaction was

incubated at 37°C for 1 h and visualized via agarose gel electrophoresis.

Vimentin synthesis was carried out in a 5 mL nuclease-free tube with static incubation at

37°C for 13 h. The *Bsa*I synthesis was performed in a 10 mL nuclease-free tube at 30°C

with shaking at 150 rpm for 13 h.

Vimentin filament assembly

Vimentin, expressed via CFPS, was refolded and prepared for assembly through a multi-

step gradient dialysis protocol. The protein was dialyzed at room temperature in a buffer

(5 mM Tris−HCl pH 8.5, 1 mM EDTA, 0.1 mM EGTA, 5 mM β-ME) sequentially containing

6 M, 4 M, and 2 M urea, with each step lasting 30 min. Subsequent overnight dialysis was

performed at 4°C in the same buffer lacking urea. The protein was finally dialyzed for 1 h

at room temperature into 5 mM Tris pH 8.5, 5 mM β-ME, ensuring the protein was in its

tetramer configuration, after which the sample was concentrated. To initiate filament

assembly, 20 µl of the concentrated protein solution was quickly mixed with 20 µl of

assembly buffer (5 mM Tris pH 8.5, 170 mM NaCl, 100 mM KCl, 5 mM MgCl$_2$) in a 200

µl PCR tube. The assembly reaction was incubated for 1 h in a PCR thermocycler

preheated to 25°C before being immediately transferred to ice. Filament formation was

subsequently verified by negative-stain transmission electron microscopy.

Negative-staining transmission electron microscopy (TEM)

Samples from vimentin assembly, the TEM samples were prepared by negative staining.
A glow-discharged, carbon-coated copper grid was first rinsed with 3 µL of protein buffer
(5 mM Tris pH 8.5, 5 mM β−ME). Then, 3 µL of the assembled sample solution was
incubated on the grid for 20s. The sample was fixed using 3 µL of 0.8% glutaraldehyde
solution for 20s. Finally, the grid was stained twice with 3 µl of uranyl acetate solution,
with each staining step lasting 90 s. Samples were observed using a Talos F200C
transmission electron microscope at a nominal magnification of 92,000.

Samples from the SDG were prepared for TEM. Fresh, glow-discharged carbon-coated
grids were immersed in 3 µL of the corresponding sample for 2 minutes. Excess solvent
was removed, and the grids were stained with uranyl acetate for 1 minute and air dried.

Sucrose density gradient (SDG) analysis

A volume of 170–180 µL of lysate was loaded onto a 10%–40% (w/w) SDG. The gradient
buffer contained 10 mM HEPES-KOH (pH 7.5), 14 mM $Mg(OAc)_2$, 60 mM KOAc. The
gradient was prepared using a simple diffusion method (Biocomp) and centrifugation at
38,000 rpm for 2.5 hours at 4°C in a Beckman SW41Ti rotor. Following centrifugation, the
gradient was fractionated using a density gradient fractionation system (Biocomp), with
continuous monitoring of the absorbance at 260 nm.

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W.L..

Contributions

X.L.,C.Z. and J.L. were responsible for obtaining experimental data and performing data processing. X.L. and C.Z. conducted biochemical experiments. X.L., C.Z., Z.Z. and W.L. analyzed the data and created charts. W.L. wrote the initial draft of the paper. All authors edited the paper.

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