Assembly of the membrane domain of ATP synthase in human mitochondria

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Abstract

The ATP synthase in human mitochondria is a membrane bound assembly of 29 proteins of 18 kinds. All but two membrane components are encoded in nuclear genes, synthesized on cytoplasmic ribosomes and imported into the matrix of the organelle. Here, they are assembled into the complex with ATP6 and ATP8, the products of overlapping genes in mitochondrial DNA. Disruption of individual human genes for the nuclear encoded subunits in the membrane portion of the enzyme leads to the formation of intermediate vestigial ATPase complexes that provide a description of the pathway of assembly of the membrane domain. The key intermediate complex consists of the F₁-c₈ complex inhibited by the ATPase inhibitor protein, IF₁, and attached to the peripheral stalk, with subunits e, f and g associated with the membrane domain of the peripheral stalk. This intermediate provides the template for insertion of ATP6 and ATP8 which are synthesized on mitochondrial ribosomes. Their association with the complex is stabilized by the addition of the 6.8 proteolipid, and the complex is coupled to ATP synthesis at this point. A structure of the dimeric yeast F₀ membrane domain is consistent with this model of assembly. The human 6.8 proteolipid (yeast j-subunit) locks ATP6 and ATP8 into the membrane assembly, and the monomeric complexes then dimerize via interactions between ATP6 subunits and between 6.8 proteolipids (j-subunits). The dimers are linked together back-to-face by DAPIT (diabetes associated protein in insulin sensitive tissue; yeast subunit k) forming long oligomers along the edges of the cristae.

Significance Statement

Mitochondria generate the cellular fuel, adenosine triphosphate (ATP) to sustain complex life. Production of ATP depends on oxidation of energy rich compounds to produce the proton motive force (pmf), a chemical potential difference for protons,
across the inner membrane. The pmf drives the ATP synthase, a molecular machine with a rotary action, to synthesize ATP. We have shown that the assembly of human ATP synthase in the inner organellar membrane involves the formation of a monomeric intermediate made from twenty-five nuclear encoded proteins into which the two mitochondrially encoded subunits are inserted and then sealed by association of another nuclear encoded protein, thereby dimerizing the complex. Association of a final nuclear protein oligomerizes the dimers back-to-face along the cristae edges.

Introduction

The ATP synthase in human mitochondria provides most cellular ATP under aerobic conditions. Energy derived from oxidative metabolism generates a proton-motive force (pmf) across the inner membrane of the organelle, and the ATP synthase harnesses the pmf to make ATP from ADP and phosphate (1, 2). Human ATP synthase is an assembly of 29 subunits of 18 types (including the regulatory protein, IF1) with a combined molecular weight of 592 kDa (3). The subunits are organized into membrane extrinsic and membrane intrinsic domains, linked by central and peripheral stalks (Fig. 1).

The protein subunits emanate from two genomes. In humans and other vertebrates, ATP6 and ATP8 are encoded in overlapping genes in mitochondrial DNA (4) and are translated inside mitochondria. The other subunits, produced from nuclear genes, are translated in the cellular cytoplasm, imported into the organelle and assembled together with ATP6 and ATP8 to produce the complete ATP synthase. Although the assembly of the yeast ATP synthase has been studied extensively (5, 6), until recently, relatively little was known about how human ATP synthase is assembled. However, gene-editing now permits individual subunits of the human enzyme to be removed, and the consequences for assembly can then be examined. Thus, in the absence of subunit c an incomplete ATP synthase is formed lacking the c₈-ring, ATP6,
ATP8, DAPIT and 6.8PL (7). Likewise, removal of either the OSCP or subunit b leads to loss of the entire peripheral stalk, plus ATP6, ATP8, and the five supernumerary subunits, leaving F1-c8 inhibited by IF1 (8). The mitochondria in human ρ0 cells lack organellar DNA, and contain another incomplete ATP synthase, necessarily with no ATP6 or ATP8 (7, 9). These incomplete vestigial ATP synthases give insights into the pathway of assembly of the complete enzyme. Here, we have investigated the effects of the selective removal of supernumerary membrane subunits e, f, g, DAPIT and 6.8PL on assembly of human ATP synthase.

Results

Human Cells Lacking Supernumerary Subunits. The human genes ATP5I, ATP5J2, ATP5L, USMG5 and C14orf2 (SI Appendix, Fig. S2) encoding, respectively, subunits e, f, g, DAPIT and 6.8PL of ATP synthase were disrupted in HAP1-WT (wild-type) cells (SI Appendix, Tables S1 and S2; Fig. S3). Each of the mutant cells, HAP1-Δe, -Δf, -Δg, -ΔDAPIT and -Δ6.8PL, did not express the eponymous subunit (Fig. 2). The removal of subunits e, f, g or DAPIT had little effect on cellular growth (SI Appendix, Fig. S4), except that HAP1-Δe cells reached a similar level of confluence to HAP1-WT cells, and then declined. Also, the growth of HAP1-Δg cells was slightly retarded, but reached a maximum growth similar to controls. In contrast, the removal of 6.8PL retarded cellular growth, but there is no extant explanation. The removal of any one of subunits e, f or g had a severe effect on respiration (SI Appendix, Fig. S4), and is similar to removing the OSCP or subunit b or c (7, 8). In HAP1-Δe, -Δf or -Δg cells, the lack of effect of oligomycin indicated that the vestigial ATP synthase is uncoupled from pmf. In HAP1-Δ6.8PL cells, there was evidence of coupled ATP synthase, albeit at reduced levels, and also of a residual functional respiratory chain. The HAP1-ΔDAPIT
cells retained almost normal levels of coupled ATP synthase and respiration. The effects of removal of 6.8PL and DAPIT differ from earlier proposals (10, 11).

**Vestigial ATP Synthases.** HAP1 cells lacking any one of subunits e, f, g, DAPIT and 6.8PL all assemble vestigial ATP synthase complexes (Fig. 3). Each has a full complement of the α-, β-, γ-, δ- and ε-subunits forming the F1-domain, and of the peripheral stalk subunits OSCP, b, d and F6. The HAP1-Δe, -Δf and -Δg cells, but not the HAP1-ΔDAPIT and -Δ6.8PL cells, also lack ATP6 and ATP8. The effects of deleting one supernumerary subunit on the absence or presence of another are more difficult to discern, but removal of either subunit e or g is accompanied by the loss of all other supernumerary subunits, and loss of the 6.8PL accompanies the removal of subunit f.

The subunit compositions of purified vestigial complexes defined by quantitative mass spectrometry (MS) were in agreement with the gel profiles (Fig. 4; SI Appendix, Fig. S5; Datasets S1-S10), and the analyses of mitoplasts (SI Appendix, Figs. S5 and S6; Datasets S11-S20) were consistent with the following conclusions. Removal of subunit e or g was accompanied by loss of all other supernumerary subunits, plus ATP6 and ATP8. The peripheral stalk subunits were depleted partially, but the rest of the complex was unaffected. The vestigial complex from HAP1-Δf cells lacked ATP6, ATP8, DAPIT and 6.8PL, but otherwise had a full complement of subunits. In contrast, when DAPIT was removed, all other subunits were retained fully. The removal of the 6.8PL led to partial loss of ATP6, ATP8 and DAPIT only. In every instance save one, the formation of the vestigial complexes was accompanied by an elevation in the relative level of IF1-M1 (7). The exception was the removal of DAPIT where the levels of all forms of IF1 were unchanged. In mitoplasts from HAP1-Δe, -Δf, -Δg and -Δ6.8PL cells, the relative levels of DAPIT were decreased to a lesser extent
than in vestigial complexes, indicating the presence of the free protein unassociated with the vestigial ATPase complex (SI Appendix, Fig. S5). Conversely, the similarities of changes in the content of other subunits between mitoplasts and vestigial ATP synthase complexes, suggests that there is no significant pool of unassembled forms of these subunits.

**Oligomeric State of Vestigial ATP Synthases.** The oligomeric states of the WT and vestigial ATP synthases became less stable with increasing concentration of digitonin (Fig. 5). There was no evidence for the persistence in any of the mutant cells either of the oligomeric complexes observed in the WT-enzyme, or, with the exception of HAP1-ΔDAPIT cells (Fig. 5; SI Appendix, Fig. S7), and possibly -Δf cells (Fig. 5A, left panel) of the dimeric complex; the dimeric state in HAP1-ΔDAPIT cells was reduced relative to WT-cells. In contrast, in all cases, a vestigial monomeric complex was present, although in HAP1-Δe, -Δf and -Δg cells, but not in HAP1-Δ6.8PL and HAP1-ΔDAPIT cells, its apparent molecular weight is slightly smaller than that of the monomeric WT-ATP synthase, reflecting their subunit compositions. In HAP1-Δe, -Δf, -Δg and -Δ6.8PL cells, a complex smaller than the monomeric complexes is probably F1-c(8) (s1 in Fig. 5). In HAP1-WT, -Δf, -ΔDAPIT and -Δ6.8PL, but not -Δe or -Δg cells, there were high levels of a series of smaller sub-complexes (s2 in Fig. 5) containing subunit b, but not F1-subunits or subunit d.

**Turnover of Subunits.** When HAP1, HEK or fibroblast cells were grown in the presence of glucose, where the cells are predominantly glycolytic, DAPIT was significantly less stable than any of the other subunits of the ATP synthase including 6.8PL (SI Appendix, Fig. S8; Datasets S21-S24). In contrast, when the cells were grown in the presence of galactose, which enforces dependence on oxidative phosphorylation, the difference between DAPIT and other subunits was abolished almost entirely.
Discussion

The vestigial ATP synthase complexes characterized here and previously (7, 8) have been arranged in an order that describes a branched pathway of assembly of the membrane domain of the enzyme (Fig. 6). In one arm, the F1-c8 complex, A, is converted to B by addition of the peripheral stalk. Insertion of subunits e and g into B, together or singly in either order, produces complex C, and subsequent addition of subunit f yields complex E. In the second arm, complex D, consisting of the F1-domain plus the peripheral stalk and subunits e, f and g, is converted to E by the addition of the c8-ring. In complexes A-E, ATP synthesis is uncoupled from pmf, and the hydrolytic activity of their F1-domains appears to be inhibited by IF1. The two arms converge at E, a complex of thirteen nuclear encoded subunits plus IF1 each imported individually into the mitochondrial matrix before or during assembly. This complex, made of a total of twenty-five proteins, provides the template for the insertion of ATP6 and ATP8 singly, in either order, or together. Both are translated on mitochondrial ribosomes, probably close to the matrix surface of the inner membrane. The resulting complex F is partially coupled to ATP synthesis (SI Appendix, Fig. S4E), and is somewhat unstable as ATP6 and ATP8 are sub-stoichiometric. The addition of 6.8PL stabilizes ATP6 and ATP8 in complex G, producing an active enzyme coupled to ATP synthesis with no accompanying increase of IF1 (Fig. 4; SI Appendix, Fig. S4D).

In mitochondrial membranes, the ATP synthase is dimerized via interactions in the membrane domain, and the dimers form extensive front-to-back rows along the edges of the cristae (12–14). Dimerization of the yeast enzyme depends on the presence of subunits e and g (15), and they associate sequentially with a monomeric complex leading to an assembly ready to dimerize (16). In a structure of the dimeric Fo membrane domain of the yeast enzyme (17), neither of these subunits makes contacts
across the monomer-monomer interface, which involves mainly contacts between the two subunits j and the two ATP6 subunits. However, the requirement for the presence of e and g for dimerization to occur is explained by the assembly pathway for the human enzyme, as both subunits have to be present in the growing complex before ATP6 (and ATP8) can be inserted, and subsequently stabilized by the association of 6.8PL (Fig. 6). Two important conclusions can now be drawn. First, the 6.8PL and yeast subunit j are almost certainly functional orthologs, and relationships between their sequence and positions of trans-membrane α-helices support this view (SI Appendix, Fig. S9A). Second, dimerization most likely follows the insertion of ATP6 and ATP8 and association of the 6.8 PL. The native gel analyses (Fig. 5) and those published elsewhere (7, 9) are in accord with this suggestion. The final step in the assembly pathway, the addition of DAPIT, produces the fully assembled enzyme, complex H (Fig. 6). DAPIT is the most peripheral of the membrane subunits, and unless it is stabilized by the addition of exogenous phospholipids, mild detergents other than digitonin remove it from the purified complex (18, 19). The most likely role of DAPIT is to form links between dimers of ATP synthase to produce the rows of dimeric complexes along the “edges” of the cristae (12–14). In the model of the yeast dimeric Fo-domain, the incomplete structure of subunit k is associated with subunit ATP6 and is distal from the monomer-monomer interface (Fig. 7). In this position, it is well placed to make contacts between dimers in the oligomeric rows of dimers in mitochondrial inner membranes. It is likely that DAPIT and yeast subunit k are orthologs (SI Appendix, Fig. S9B). Therefore, the S. cerevisiae and human ATP synthases have the same complement of subunits (Table S3). The relative stability of DAPIT under conditions of oxidative metabolism may reflect its role in dimer-dimer interactions
during the re-modeling of mitochondria associated with fission and fusion of the
dynamic network of mitochondria in cells.

In *S. cerevisiae*, assembly factors ATP11 and ATP12 participate in the
formation of the F₁-domain (20). Another assembly factor FMC1 (formation of
complex V assembly factor 1) helps at elevated temperatures, and its loss can be
compensated by overexpression of ATP12 (21). The human orthologs are ATPAF1,
ATPAF2 and C7orf55 (22, 23), but since their role is in the formation of the F₁-domain,
it is unsurprising that they were not significantly associated with complexes A-G (Fig.
6; SI Appendix, Fig. S5 and Datasets S1-S20). Another assembly factor INAC (inner
membrane assembly complex), made of components of 22 and 17 kDa, is required for
the assembly of the yeast peripheral stalk (6, 24). However, no human orthologs have
been recognized from sequences, and how the human peripheral stalk is assembled,
before being added to the F₁-domain or to complex A (Fig. 6), remains unclear. A
subcomplex of subunits b, e and g has been proposed to be an assembly intermediate
(25), and it may be among the s2 subcomplexes (Fig. 5B). It is worth noting that the
extrinsic membrane domain of the bovine peripheral stalk assembles from its four
constituent proteins *in vitro*, and that the assembled complex will then associate with
the bovine F₁-ATPase spontaneously to produce an F₁-peripheral stalk complex
(lacking the membrane domain); both events proceed without the aid of exogenous
protein factors (26). The compositions of complexes B and D (Fig. 6) show that the
peripheral stalk can be added to either the separate F₁-domain or the F₁-domain in the
F₁-c₈ complex, and a similar conclusion has been reached with the yeast ATP synthase
(6). The yeast c₁₀-ring probably assembles separate from the F₁-domain or the F₁-
peripheral stalk complex, and subsequently the F₁-c₁₀ complex or the fully assembled
enzyme forms (5, 6). A similar process may operate in human mitochondria, but the
mechanisms of assembly of the c₈-ring and the *S. cerevisiae* c₁₀-ring necessarily differ, as the human c-subunit is encoded by three nuclear genes and is imported into the organelle (27, 28), whereas the yeast c-protein is a mitochondrial gene product made in the mitochondrial matrix (29). Additionally, yeast ATP6 is made as a precursor with an N-terminal extension, which is removed by the inner membrane protease ATP23 during assembly (30, 31); human ATP6 has no precursor. Also, yeast ATP6 and ATP8 are associated first, with either the peripheral stalk or the F₁-peripheral stalk subcomplex, together with assembly factors ATP23, ATP10 and INAC, and then associated with the c₁₀-ring to form the complete complex (5, 6). This pathway differs from the one proposed here for the human enzyme as ATP6 and ATP8 are incorporated after the F₁-peripheral stalk-c₈ complex has formed, and then this complex is stabilized by the 6.8PL (Fig. 6, complexes F and G).

TMEM70 is a membrane protein that has been suggested to participate in the assembly of the membrane domain of human ATP synthase (32, 33), but neither this protein nor any other plausible assembly protein was increased in their association with vestigial complexes A-G (Fig. 6; *SI Appendix*, Fig. S5 and Datasets S1-S20). However, it seems likely that assembly proteins do participate in this pathway, and other methods such as complexomics (34, 35) may be more successful in identifying candidates.

**Materials and Methods**

Human genes *ATP5I, ATP5J2* and *ATP5L* were disrupted in HAP1 cells by CRISPR-Cas9 with pairs of guide RNAs (*SI Appendix*, Table S1) as described before (7), leading to clonal cells HAP1-Δe, -Δf and -Δg, respectively. Clonal cells HAP1-Δ6.8PL (*C14orf2*) and HAP1-ΔDAPIT (*USMG5*) were purchased from Horizon Discovery, Cambridge, U. K. Cell proliferation was monitored with an Incucyte HD instrument.
(Essen Bioscience), and the oxygen consumption of cells was measured in a Seahorse XF e24 (Agilent Technologies). The oligomeric state of ATP synthase and vestigial complexes was examined by BN-PAGE and Western blotting. ATP synthase and vestigial complexes were immuno-purified from mitoplasts, analyzed by SDS-PAGE, stained with Coomassie blue and bands analyzed by MS. Proteins were subject to stable isotope labelling by amino acids in cell culture (SILAC), and quantitated by MS. For details, see SI Appendix.

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**Figure Legends**

*Fig. 1.* Organization of subunits in monomeric ATP synthase in mammalian mitochondria. Black horizontal lines represent the inner membrane; IMS, intermembrane space. The peripheral stalk (subunits OSCP, F₆, b and d) is on the right. Subunit b has two N-terminal transmembrane α-helices interacting directly or indirectly with subunits e, f, g, DAPIT and 6.8PL, which have no known roles in synthesis or hydrolysis of ATP. Each has a single predicted transmembrane α-helix (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S1). The membrane domain of subunit b is associated with mitochondrially
encoded subunits ATP6 and ATP8. The N-terminal region of ATP8 has a single transmembrane α-helix and its C-terminal region extends into the peripheral stalk; ATP8 and subunit b keep ATP6 in contact with the c8-ring. The pmf drives the rotation of this ring and the attached central stalk (subunits γ, δ and ε) by the translocation of protons through the interface between the c8-ring and ATP6. The rotation of the central stalk carries energy into the three catalytic sites in the F1 domain (subunit composition αβ3γδε); an α-subunit has been removed to expose the central γ-subunit.

Fig. 2. Absence from clonal HAP1 cells of individual supernumerary subunits of ATP synthase. Mitoplasts were prepared from HAP1-wild type (WT) cells and HAP1-Δe, -Δf, -Δg, -ΔDAPIT and -Δ6.8PL clonal cells. In the HAP1-Δf cells, f1 and f2 denote isoforms of subunit f. The mitoplasts were extracted with dodecylmaltoside. The extracts were fractionated by SDS-PAGE and Western blotted with antibodies against the corresponding subunits. Citrate synthase (cs) provided loading controls.
**Fig. 3.** Subunit compositions of vestigial ATP synthase complexes produced by removal of individual supernumerary membrane subunits. The complexes were immuno-purified from mitoplasts derived from HAP1-WT (wild type), -Δe, -Δf, -Δg, -ΔDAPIT and -Δ6.8PL cells, fractionated by SDS-PAGE and stained with Coomassie blue. The positions of subunits are indicated. IgG, immunoglobulin.
**Fig. 4.** Effects of removal of individual supernumerary membrane subunits on human ATP synthase. (A)-(E), relative abundances of subunits, and forms M1, M2 and M3 of IF1, in immuno-purified ATP synthase and vestigial complexes, from clonal cells. (A), HAP1-Δe; (B), HAP1-Δf; (C), HAP1-Δg; (D), HAP1-ΔDAPIT; and (E), HAP1-Δ6.8PL. The histograms, derived from *SI Appendix*, Fig. S5 and Datasets S1-S10, are the median values of both relative abundance ratios determined for proteins found in complementary SILAC experiments. Error bars show the range of the two values. IF1-M1, -M2 and -M3 are different mature forms of IF1, and f-1 and f-2 are isoforms of subunit f (Swissprot P56134). Similar experiments conducted on mitoplasts are presented in *SI Appendix* Fig. S6.
Fig. 5. Oligomeric states of ATP synthase and vestigial forms in HAP1 cells. ATP synthase and vestigial complexes were extracted at various digitonin/protein (g/g) ratios indicated above the lanes, from mitoplasts of HAP1-WT, HAP1-Δe, HAP1-Δf, HAP1-Δg, HAP1-ΔDAPIT, and HAP1-Δ6.8PL cells. Extracts were fractionated by BN-PAGE, and complexes were revealed by Western blotting with antibodies against various subunits of ATP synthase: (A), β-subunit; (B), b-subunit; (C), γ-subunit; (D), d-subunit. cs, citrate synthase as loading control. The positions of the complexes are
indicated on the left; o, oligomers; d, dimers; m, monomers; s1, F1-c8 sub-complexes; s2, sub-complexes containing subunits b, e and g.

Fig. 6. Pathway of assembly of the membrane domain of human ATP synthase. Panels A-D and F and G, intermediate vestigial complexes, and subunit compositions characterized from mitochondria of clonal cells: A, HAP1-Δb or -ΔOSCP; B, HAP1-Δe or -Δg; C, HAP1-Δf; D, HAP1-Δc; F, HAP1-Δ6.8PL; G, HAP1-ΔDAPIT. E, vestigial complex from the mitochondria of ρ0 cells. The horizontal black lines denote the boundaries of the inner mitochondrial membrane. Panel H, the complete monomeric ATP synthase.
Fig. 7. Structure of the dimeric $F_o$ domain the ATP synthase from *S. cerevisiae* (17). The $c_{10}$-ring is grey and other subunits are colored and identified on the structures. In (A) and (B), the two associated monomers are viewed from the matrix and from the inter-membrane space, respectively. The interface between monomers is formed mainly by the two ATP6 (or a) subunits and by the two j-subunits. Here, it is proposed that subunit j and the human 6.8PL (labelled 6.8) are orthologs. It is also proposed that subunit k is the ortholog of human DAPIT and that these subunits assist in the formation of oligomeric structures consisting of rows of dimers along the edges of the mitochondrial cristae.
Assembly of the membrane domain of ATP synthase in human mitochondria

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Materials and Methods

Gene disruptions. The genes for the e, f, g, DAPIT and 6.8PL subunits were disrupted individually in human HAP1-WT cells by CRISPR-Cas9 technology (1). The structures of the genes are shown in SI Appendix, Fig. S2. HAP1 cells have a haploid karyotype, except for the presence of a fragment of chromosome 15 in chromosome 19 and a reciprocal translocation between chromosomes 9 and 22. None of these features affects the genes in question, as ATP5I, ATP5J2, ATP5L, USMG5 and C14orf2 are on chromosomes 4, 7, 11, 10 and 14, respectively. For ATP5I, ATP5J2 and ATP5L, pairs of gRNAs characteristic of exon I and intron A were selected (SI Appendix, Table S1). Each pair was introduced independently into HAP1-WT cells, and screening of clones from single cells for the absence of subunit e, f or g led to the identification of HAP1-Δe, -Δf and -Δg cells. The deletions in HAP1-Δe, -Δf and -Δg cells were 51, 83 and 104 bp, respectively, (SI Appendix, Table S2 and Fig. S3, parts A, B and C). Each deletion had arisen from two gRNAs and non-homologous end-joining of the deleted genomic DNA. All three deletions included the translational start codon and upstream sequence, and extended across the junction between exon I and intron A, into intron A. The gene disruptions of USMG5 and
C14orf2 in HAP1-ΔDAPIT and HAP1-Δ6.8PL cells, had been introduced with single gRNA molecules by Horizon Discovery, Cambridge, U. K. The 43 bp deletion in the former extends from the 3’ end of intron B into exon III, and does not include the translational start codon, which is in exon II, and the impact on transcription of the 5’-coding region is not known (SI Appendix, Fig. S3D). The 10 bp deletion in the HAP1-Δ6.8PL cells introduces a frame-shift after codon 17 with the effects of conserving codon 18, mutating codons 19-22 and introducing a termination codon at codon 23 (SI Appendix, Fig. S3E).

Cell Culture. HAP1-WT (Horizon Discovery) and clonal cells were cultured in Iscove’s modified Dulbecco’s medium under standard conditions (2). Cell proliferation was monitored with an Incucyte HD instrument (Essen Bioscience) and oxygen consumption rate (OCR) was measured in a Seahorse XF24 analyzer (Agilent Technologies), as described before (2). OCR was normalized to cell number by the sulforhodamine B assay (3). Stable isotope labelling of proteins with amino acids in cell culture (SILAC) of HAP1-WT and gene disrupted clonal cells was carried out as described before (2). Human embryonic kidney cells (HEK293) and immortalized human skin fibroblast cells (a gift from Dr. E. Fernandez-Vizarra, MRC-Mitochondrial Biology Unit, Cambridge, U. K.) were cultured at 37°C under 5% CO₂ in high glucose (4.5 g/l) Dulbecco’s Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM) supplemented with fetal bovine serum (10% v/v), penicillin (100 U/ml) and streptomycin (100 µg/ml). To assess the effect on protein turnover of substituting glucose for galactose in cell culture media, skin fibroblasts were cultured in DMEM lacking glucose, pyruvate and all amino acids (Dundee Cell Products Ltd, Dundee, U. K.), supplemented for SILAC, and in addition with glucose (25 mM) or galactose (25
mM), pyruvate (1 mM) and all other amino acids at standard concentrations for DMEM.

**General methods.** Cell protein concentrations were determined by either the bicinchoninic acid assay (Thermo Fisher Scientific) or the detergent compatible protein assay (BioRad). Mitoplasts were prepared from cells with digitonin, as described before (2, 4). Extracts of mitoplasts made with dodecylmaltoside (DDM; 1%, w/v) were fractionated by SDS-PAGE, and subunits of ATP synthase and citrate synthase were detected by Western blotting. The oligomeric states of ATP synthase and vestigial complexes in digitonin extracts of mitoplasts were examined by BN-PAGE and Western blotting. Samples of mitoplasts were re-suspended to ca. 5 mg/ml in NativePAGE sample buffer (Thermo Fisher Scientific) containing digitonin (6-10 g/g protein), kept at 4°C for 15 min, and then centrifuged (10,500 x g, 20 min, 4°C). The supernatants were treated with benzonase (Merck Millipore) at room temperature, centrifuged again, and soluble complexes fractionated by BN-PAGE at 4°C in 3-12% acrylamide gradient Bis-Tris gels (Thermo Fisher Scientific) according to the manufacturer’s instructions for Western blotting. The origins of the antibodies have been described before (5), or are given in SI Appendix Table S4. ATP synthase was purified from digitonin solubilized mitoplasts with an immuno-capture resin (Abcam) as described before (2). For the SDS-PAGE profiles (Fig. 3), digitonin in the bead wash solution was replaced by DDM (0.05% w/v). Samples for mass spectrometric analysis were reduced and alkylated in gel sample buffer, fractionated by SDS-PAGE and stained with Coomassie blue R250 dye (6). Bands were excised and proteins digested in-gel with trypsin (7). The extracted peptide mixtures were analyzed in a MALDI-TOF-TOF instrument (model 4800, AB-Sciex) and the proteins were identified from the tandem-MS data (8).
**Protein quantitation.** Relative quantitation of proteins was derived from mass spectrometric data from SILAC samples (9). LC-MS-MS of tryptic peptide mixtures was performed on a Proxeon EASY-nLC system coupled directly to a Q-Exactive Orbitrap mass spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Heavy and light peptide mass data were analyzed with MaxQuant version 1.5.8.3, and the integrated Andromeda search engine (10, 11) employing a Swiss-Prot human protein database (January 2017) modified to include mature forms of ATPIF1, denoted as IF1-M1, -M2 and -M3, with N-terminal residues Phe-25, Gly-26 and Ser-27, respectively (12, 13). Search parameters were: MS tolerance 4.5 p.p.m.; MS/MS tolerance 20 p.p.m.; Trypsin/P with two missed cleavages; Cys-carbamidomethyl fixed; oxidation (Met) and acetyl (protein N-term) variable; Arg-10 and Lys-8. The MaxQuant output was managed further with Perseus (14). Protein ratios for ATPIF1 were calculated manually using data specific for the unique N-terminal peptides of the various mature forms of ATPIF1, located in the MaxQuant evidence file, and represent the median of the assigned specific peptide ratios, where MaxQuant ISO-MSMS peptide values were used only if fewer than three MULTI-MSMS peptide ratios were obtained. The basis of quantitative experiments using SILAC has been described previously (15).

**Analysis of turnover rates of ATP synthase subunits in the native enzyme.** Cells were cultured for 24 h in light SILAC medium, transferred into heavy SILAC medium for varying periods of time (1-24 h), washed with PBS and then harvested. Mitochondrial inner membranes were prepared from the cells (6) and membrane protein complexes extracted with DDM (3 g/g protein) and analyzed by BN-PAGE. The proteins in the gels were stained with Coomassie blue R250. Bands corresponding to monomeric ATP synthase were excised and the proteins were digested in-gel with trypsin. The peptides were extracted and relative quantitation of
proteins was performed by quantitative mass spectrometry and MaxQuant data processing as described above. Heavy/light protein ratios were transformed to give the proportion of light labelled protein, and were expressed as the percentage of light labelled protein remaining at each time point. Because the cells proliferate, the quantity of heavy labelled proteins increases over time. Therefore, the absolute rates of protein turnover were not determined, but the values represent the relative differences in equilibrium state established by synthesis and degradation of proteins.

References


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Results

(A) Human subunit e.

(B) Human subunit f.

(C) Human subunit g.

(D) DAPIT.

(E) 6.8PL.

Fig. S1. Predicted structures of supernumerary subunits of human ATP synthase. (A-E), secondary structures of mature subunits e, f-1, g, DAPIT and 6.8PL, respectively, predicted with Jpred 4 (16) and PSIPRED v3.3 (17). H and E below the sequences denote residues predicted to form α-helices or β-sheets, respectively. In subunits e, f-1, DAPIT and 6.8PL, yellow boxed regions are transmembrane α-helices predicted with TMHMM (18). In subunit g, a transmembrane α-helix was predicted by TMPred (https://www.ch.embnet.org/software/TMPRED_form.html), but not TMHMM. In subunits f and g, the N-terminal alanine residues are acetylated, and internal methionine residues, denoted as M, are potential secondary translation initiation sites.
Fig. S2. Structures of the human genes for five supernumerary subunits of ATP synthase. ATP5I, ATP5J2, ATP5L, USMG5 and C14orf2 encode the e, f, g, DAPIT and 6.8PL subunits, respectively. Black and unfilled boxes represent, respectively, protein coding and non-coding regions in exons. Exons are labelled with roman numerals. Introns are depicted as intervening continuous lines. The sizes of introns and coding regions of exons are given in base pairs (bp). The scale bar in ATP5I represents 100 bp, and those in ATP5J2, ATP5L, USMG5 and C14orf2 correspond to 500 bp. The exon-intron information was obtained from http://www.ensembl.org. The structures of ATP5I, ATP5J2, ATP5L, USMG5 and C14orf2 correspond to reference sequences NM_007100, NM_004889, NM_006476, NM_001206426 and NM_004894, respectively. A second isoform of subunit f is produced from an alternative splice variant of ATP5J2, at the exon I-intron A boundary, producing a transcript 18 bp shorter at the 3’ end of exon I (RefSeq NM_001003713). Images were drawn with the Exon-Intron graphic maker (http://wormweb.org/exonintron).
Table S1. Target sites for gRNA molecules employed in the disruption of human genes ATP5I, ATP5J2 and ATP5L, encoding subunits e, f and g, respectively, of human ATP synthase

<table>
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<tr>
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<th>Sequence</th>
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<tr>
<td>ATP5I-1</td>
<td>GTGCTTCCGGTGCGGAGGTC</td>
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<td>ATP5I-2</td>
<td>TCCGCTCATCAAGGTGATCC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATP5J2-1</td>
<td>TCGCGCGGTCCGGGCACAGCG*</td>
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<tr>
<td>ATP5J2-2</td>
<td>GTAAGGCTGTTTGGACTCCG</td>
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<td>ATP5L-1</td>
<td>GCGGTTTCGGGGCGACGGACT*</td>
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<td>ATP5L-2</td>
<td>AGCGGATGAGAACCACCGCG</td>
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*anti-sense sequence used for gRNA

Table S2. Primers employed in the amplification by PCR of regions targeted by gRNAs in ATP5I, ATP5J2 and ATP5L.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Primers</th>
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<tr>
<td>ATP5I-Forward</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATP5I-Reverse</td>
<td>CCAGAGCAGTGAGCCG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATP5J2-Forward</td>
<td>CTGCAGGACCCTCGGATTTT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATP5J2-Reverse</td>
<td>TTCACCTCCACGCTAAC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATP5L-Forward</td>
<td>GGTTTCGGGACCTCTACGA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATP5L-Reverse</td>
<td>ATCTGCAGGTCAGACGAGTG</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Fig. S3.** Disruption of genes for supernumerary subunits of ATP synthase. CRISPR directed deletions were introduced into HAP1 cells in the sequences of the following genes: (A), *ATP5I*; (B), *ATP5J2*; (C), *ATP5L*; (D), *USMG5*; and (E), *C14orf2*. The corresponding clonal cells HAP1-Δe, -Δf, -Δg, -ΔDAPIT and -Δ6.8PL were isolated subsequently. Carets indicate the PAM (protospacer adjacent motif) sequences for each guide RNA, and solid lines the target sequences for guide RNAs. In (A)-(C), the wild-type (WT) sequences are parts of exon I and intron A (grey box), aligned with the corresponding deleted sequences. The arrows indicate the start codons in exon I. In (D), the WT DNA sequence in part of intron B (grey box) and exon III, is aligned with the corresponding mutated sequence. In (E), the upper panel is an internal DNA sequence in exon II of *C14orf2* aligned with the corresponding deleted sequence, and the lower panel shows the impact of the deletion on the sequence of the 6.8PL subunit. In (A)-(E), the deleted regions are denoted by dashed lines, and in (E), asterisks indicate mutations introduced by the process of non-homologous repair.
**Fig. S4.** Impact of disruption of genes for supernumerary subunits e, f, g, DAPIT and 6.8PL on growth and respiration of HAP1 cells. (A-E), growth rates (left hand side) and cellular oxygen consumption rates (OCR) (right hand side) of HAP1-WT cells (●) and HAP1 cells with disrupted genes for subunits (■). A, Δe; B, Δf; C, Δg; D, ΔDAPIT; E, Δ6.8PL. Growth rates were measured by seeding $10^5$ cells into each well of a 6-well plate, and by monitoring their confluence over time. Where necessary, initial confluences were adjusted to similar levels for comparison. The data points are the mean values ±SD (n=2-3 wells). OCR was measured before and after sequential additions of oligomycin (Oligo), carbonyl cyanide-4-(trifluoromethoxy)phenylhydrazone (FCCP), and a mixture of rotenone and antimycin A (Rot/AA). Data represent the mean ±SEM (n=6-10 wells).
Fig. S5. Effects on protein relative abundance of the individual deletion of supernumerary subunits of the human ATP synthase complex in HAP1 cells. (A)-(E), relative abundances of proteins in immuno-purified ATP synthase and vestigial complexes (left-hand panels), and in mitoplasts (right-hand panels). (A), HAP1-Δe; (B), HAP1-Δf; (C), HAP1-Δg; (D), HAP1-ΔDAPIT; and (E), HAP1-Δ6.8PL. Samples were prepared from a 1:1 mixture of HAP1-Δ cells with HAP1-WT cells that were differentially SILAC-labelled, and the experiments were performed twice, using reciprocal SILAC labelling orientations. The ratios from each experiment are plotted on the horizontal and vertical axes, respectively, of a scatter plot as the log base 2 value. ●, ATP synthase subunits and forms of the inhibitor protein, IF1; ○, assembly factors ATPAF1, ATPAF2, C7orf55 and TMEM70; •, all other proteins. Protein ratios are listed in SI Appendix, Datasets S1 to S20.
Fig. S6. Effects of removal of individual supernumerary membrane subunits on human ATP synthase. (A)-(E), relative abundances of ATP synthase subunits, and forms M1, M2 and M3 of IF₁, in mitoplasts from clonal cells. (A), HAP1-Δe; (B), HAP1-Δf; (C), HAP1-Δg; (D), HAP1-DAPIT; and (E), HAP1-6.8PL. The histograms, derived from SI Appendix, Fig. S5 and Datasets S11-S20, are the median values of both relative abundance ratios determined for proteins found in complementary SILAC experiments. Error bars show the range of the two values. IF₁-M1, -M2 and -M3 are different mature forms of IF₁, and f-1 and f-2 are isoforms of subunit f (Swissprot P56134). Except for mitoplasts from HAP1-Δ6.8PL cells, where the values for the 6.8PL and ATP8 are from a single peptide ratio for the control heavy isotope/Δ6.8PL light isotope experiment, the protein ratio is derived from a minimum of two peptide ratios from each complementary SILAC experiment. In the HAP1-Δf and -Δ6.8PL samples, the relative abundance of the c-subunit was not determined.
Fig. S7. Effect of deletion of DAPIT on the assembly of ATP synthase. Mitoplasts were prepared from HAP1-wild type cells (WT) and HAP1-ΔDAPIT cells at passage 9 (left hand panels) or passage 24 (right hand panels), solubilized with digitonin (dig), and protein complexes were fractionated by BN-PAGE and transferred electrophoretically to a polyvinylidene difluoride membrane. ATP synthase complexes were detected with an antibody against the α-subunit. o, oligomer; d, dimer; m, monomer. Citrate synthase (CS) was employed as a loading control.
Fig. S8. Turnover of assembled subunits of ATP synthase. Experiments were performed in (A), HAP1 cells; (B), HEK cells; (C) and (D), fibroblasts. Cells were grown initially in ‘light’ SILAC medium and then from time zero in ‘heavy’ SILAC medium. In (A), (B) and (C), the culture medium contained 25 mM glucose; in (D), the glucose was replaced by 25 mM galactose. After various periods of growth, cells were harvested, and mitochondrial membranes were prepared. Membrane proteins were solubilized with DDM (3 g/g), and fractionated by BN-PAGE. The bands containing ATP synthase were excised, the proteins digested with trypsin, and the peptides were analysed by quantitative mass spectrometry. The heavy/light protein ratios produced by MaxQuant were converted to the residual percentage of light-labelled protein. (●), α-subunit; (■), β-subunit; (▲), γ-subunit; (▼), δ-subunit; (◆), ε-subunit; (●), b-subunit; (■), d-subunit; (▲), F₆-subunit; (▼), OSCP; (●), e-subunit;
(◼), f-subunit; (▲), g-subunit; (▼), 6.8PL; (◆), ATP8; (●), ATP6. In panel (A), no data are shown for the ε-subunit, and in panels (B), (C) and (D), for ATP6. In panel (C), single time points represent subunits ε and 6.8PL, and in (D), similarly for 6.8PL. The data are taken from SI Appendix, Datasets S21 to S24. In (A) to (D), no data were obtained for subunit c.

A

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<th>6.8kd_HUMAN</th>
<th>MLQSIKNIWMPKPYTTWYOEI IWIGMCFIIVYKIRAADKRSEKALKASEAPGHH--</th>
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B

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*: : * * * . . . : . * * . : : . *

DAPIT_HUMAN --------------------------------------

ATP19_YEAST NKDEEKFJENYLKHHSEKQA 68

**Fig. S9.** Comparison of sequences of 6.8PL and DAPIT subunits of human ATP synthase with proposed yeast orthologs. (A), 6.8PL and yeast subunit j (ATP18); (B), DAPIT and yeast subunit k (ATP19). Asterisks denote identities and colons and full stops conserved residues. The alignments were produced with CLUSTAL. The blue regions denote transmembrane α-helices predicted with Jpred 4 (16) and TMHMM (18) in the human proteins and observed in the structures of the yeast proteins (19).
Table S3. Equivalent genes and orthologous subunits in human and yeast ATP synthases

<table>
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<th>Gene</th>
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<td>epsilon</td>
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<td>i or j</td>
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<td>USMG5</td>
<td>Diabetes-associated protein in insulin-sensitive tissues</td>
<td>ATP19</td>
<td>k</td>
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* Subunit l (20) was not found in the structure of F_o from S. cerevisiae (19).
† C1, C2 and C3 are identical subunits encoded in three different genes.
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