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- 1 Title:
- 2 Disentangling chloroplast ATP synthase regulation by proton motive force and thiol modulation in
- 3 Arabidopsis leaves
- 4

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18 Abstract:

19 The chloroplast ATP synthase (CF_1F_0) contains a specific feature to the green lineage: a γ -subunit 20 redox domain that contains a cysteine couple which interacts with the torque-transmitting 21 β DELSEED-loop. This thiol modulation equips CF₁F_o with an important environmental fine-tuning 22 mechanism. In vitro, disulfide formation in the γ-redox domain slows down the activity of the CF₁F₀ at 23 low transmembrane electrochemical proton gradient ($\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$), which agrees with its proposed role as chock based on recently solved structure. The γ -dithiol formation at the onset of light is crucial to 24 maximize photosynthetic efficiency since it lowers the $\Delta\tilde{\mu}_{\rm H^+}$ activation level for ATP synthesis in 25 vitro. Here, we validate these findings in vivo by utilizing absorption spectroscopy in Arabidopsis 26 27 thaliana. To do so, we monitored the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ present in darkness and identified its mitochondrial 28 sources. By following the fate and components of light-induced extra $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$, we estimated the ATP 29 lifetime that lasted up to tens of minutes after long illuminations. Based on the relationship between 30 $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ and CF₁F_o activity, we conclude that the dithiol configuration *in vivo* facilitates photosynthesis by driving the same ATP synthesis rate at a significative lower $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ than in the γ -disulfide state. The 31 32 presented in vivo findings are an additional proof of the importance of CF1F0 thiol modulation, 33 reconciling biochemical in vitro studies and structural insights.

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Keywords: chloroplast ATP synthase, electrochromic shift, redox regulation, photosynthesis,
 Arabidopsis, electrochemical proton gradient

37 Introduction

52

38 During photosynthesis, the electron transfer is coupled to a movement of protons across the

thylakoid membrane, generating an electrochemical proton gradient ($\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$) which consists of an osmotic component (the concentration gradient of hydrogen ions, ΔpH) and a membrane potential

41 ($\Delta \Psi$). For efficient photochemistry, the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ partitioning must be dynamically regulated via

- 42 thylakoid ion channels and antiporters [1, 2], as well as the chloroplast ATP synthase (CF₁F₀). The
- 43 latter catalyzes the conversion of the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ into the synthesis of ATP, subsequently used in the
- 44 Calvin-Benson-Bassham cycle. The enzyme consists of two portions [reviewed in 3, 4]: a membrane-
- 45 spanning F_0 (subunits $IV_1I_1II_1II_{14}$, or $a_1b_1b'_1c_{14}$) and a membrane-attached F_1 (subunits $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma_1\delta_1\varepsilon_1$). In 46 the chloroplast enzyme of vascular plants, during a 360° rotation of subunits $\gamma\varepsilon c_{14}$ against the static
- 47 subunits $\alpha_3\beta_3\delta$ abb', 14 H⁺ are translocated along the electrochemical gradient while 3 molecules of
- 48 ATP are synthesized [5]. Perfect coupling is observed in isolated chloroplasts, i.e., H^+ slip processes do 49 practically not occur *in vitro* [6, 7, for a different view see Ref. 8]. Being reversible, CF_1F_0 catalyzes
- 50 both the synthesis and hydrolysis of ATP and the reaction direction is determined by the extent of

The activity of the CF1Fo plays a central role in photosynthesis; it fuels the chemical phase of

- 51 the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ and the [ATP]/([ADP][P]) ratio [9].
- 53 photosynthesis with ATP but can also, via its conductivity for H^{\dagger} , participate in the regulation of the photochemical phase by modulating the osmotic component of the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ [10]. Indeed, the lumenal 54 55 pH is involved in the regulation of the photosynthetic electron transfer at two levels. It regulates the photoprotective mechanism in photosystem II (PSII) [11, 12] and the turnover of the cytochrome $b_6 f$ 56 57 through the so-called photosynthetic control [13]. Being at the crossroads of the dark and light phases of photosynthesis, the activity of CF1Fo needs to be fine-tuned and, although other 58 59 regulations exist [10, 14, 15], two main regulatory mechanisms can modulate the rates of the CF_1F_0 . 60 The first one is relevant for F-ATP synthase in general which is a regulation by its energy source, the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$. Above a threshold value of $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$, the transition of the inactive CF₁F₀ to a fully active form was 61 62 observed in isolated chloroplasts [16, 17]. Since the structural H⁺/ATP ratio (subunits c/β) differs slightly from the thermodynamic one, it is possible that a small $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ fraction is lost for ATP synthesis 63 64 during the CF₁F_o activation process when the membrane is energized from an equilibrated state [8]. Although the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ must contain a minimal $\Delta \Psi$ to allow for ATP synthesis at thermodynamic 65 66 equilibrium [18], several studies on chloroplasts and leaves demonstrated that each of the two 67 components of the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ can activate the enzyme if they allow the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ to reach this critical level 68 [19-23]. We call this level $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+activation}$ hereafter and it can be reached by high [ATP]/([ADP][P]) ratios 69 in vivo, alternatively to illumination. Specific to CF_1F_0 in the green lineage is a second mechanism, 70 "thiol modulation" or "redox regulation", which involves an insertion in the γ -subunit. The additional 71 domain harbors a redox-active Cys couple which forms a disulfide in the dark. Formation of the γ -72 disulfide is, in part, mediated by a thioredoxin-like2/2-Cys peroxiredoxin redox cascade in 73 Arabidopsis where electrons are transferred from the dithiol to H_2O_2 [24]. Dithiol formation is 74 catalyzed by thioredoxin at moderate light intensities [25] and by NADPH thioredoxin reductase C in 75 dim light [26, 27]. However, it is not fully understood why the redox switch evolved. An Arabidopsis mutant, termed *gamera*, remains in the γ -dithiol state in the dark by expressing a redox-insensitive γ -76 77 subunit isoform [28] and displays a stay green phenotype after several days in the dark [29]. It was 78 suggested that altered pH-dependent protein import might partially contribute to the phenotype. 79 The hypothesis that the slowdown of ATP hydrolysis preserves ATP in the dark [30], when the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ is 80 low and the disulfide is present, could not explain all the phenotypes upon extended dark adaptation

- 81 [29]. Moreover, point mutants of the redox-active Cys in Arabidopsis thaliana are viable [31]. This
- 82 suggests that the impact of thiol modulation may be more versatile than originally proposed. New 83 discoveries regarding developmental regulation of chloroplast ATP recruitment from the cytosol [32]
- 84 and photosynthetic γ -disulfide formation [24] support this view.
- From a structural perspective, the γ -redox domain in the disulfide form was found to act as an ATP 85 86 hydrolysis chock that is vicinal to the torque-transmitting β DELSEED-loop [33, 34], supporting earlier 87 findings on critical γ -/ β -subunit interactions during thiol modulation [35]. The redox switch also 88 affects ATP synthesis which was first demonstrated in vitro. The authors showed that the 89 dependency between the redox and $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ regulations of CF₁F_o stems from a lower $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+activation}$ 90 threshold in presence of the γ -dithiol [36], yielding half-maximal rates ~0.7 Δ pH units apart. A recent 91 CF_1F_0 structure of the γ -dithiol conformation suggests diminished torsional constraints upon 92 reduction of the disulfide [37]. Another level of steric adjustments may be established by the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ 93 which facilitates chemical labeling of various structurally buried residues in the γ -/ β -subunit interface, including the dithiol [reviewed in 38]. Taken together, this supports the idea that CF1Fo 94
- 95 experiences intertwined $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^{+}}$ and redox-dependent structural changes.
- 96 The main aim of this study is to confirm in vitro findings by Junesch and Gräber [36], thus stimulating 97 further CF_1F_0 thiol modulation investigations in vivo. It is of utmost interest to fully understand this 98 evolutionary strategy of photosynthesis in the green lineage since the beneficial effect of thiol 99 modulation is still under discussion while new structural insights emerge [29, 34, 37]. We 100 differentiated between distinct redox states by using the WT and the dithiol-locked gamera mutant 101 [28], in addition to an intermediate redox situation in the WT upon infiltration with the thiol 102 reductant TCEP. Then, we obtained a $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ -dependent CF₁F_o activity profile in the redox states by 103 introducing a spectroscopic technique that can also be utilized for CF1Fo mutant characterization 104 beyond thiol modulation.
- 105 Because the CF_1F_o activity is both $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ and redox regulated, the study of its redox regulation 106 requires the in vivo measurement of two parameters. First, the CF₁F_o activity which can be routinely 107 measured since photosynthetic membranes are spectroscopic voltmeters. Accordingly, the $\Delta \Psi$ can 108 be probed linearly by ECS, the electrochromic shift of photosynthetic pigments [39, 40, reviewed in 109 41]. Following a light-induced membrane energization in dark-adapted samples, the $\Delta \Psi$ (and ECS) decay is tightly linked to H⁺ translocation via CF₁F₀. ECS decay kinetics following a single-turnover 110 laser flash are therefore commonly used to probe CF₁F_o activity in vitro [e.g., 17] as well as in vivo 111 112 [e.g., 28, 42]. The second parameter is the measurement of the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{\mathrm{H}^+}$ extent. This is a methodological 113 bottleneck which can be circumvented on the basis of a previous protocol [23], best explained 114 through a simple analogy: To determine the unknown water volume in an opaque bottle one could add more water until reaching the maximal carrying capacity. Thus, even if the absolute value of the 115 116 spillage point remains unknown, the added water volume can be quantified and expressed in relation 117 to this reference/leak value. Regarding the measurement of the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ in the dark, Joliot and Joliot 118 [23] have shown that a threshold of $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ exists, which is a constant in a given photosynthetic 119 material and corresponds to the leak of protons through the thylakoid membrane in vivo ($\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+leak}$,
- 120 representing the maximal carrying capacity). In brief, the ECS-based protocol to measure the extent
- 121 of the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ in the dark ($\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+ dark}$ hereafter) consists in energizing the membrane with a very strong
- 122 light pulse and probing the ECS increase until the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+leak}$ is reached (i.e., measuring the *remaining* 123 empty volume).
- Since this work is founded on a previously introduced method [23], we tested two implicit 124 125 hypotheses before investigating the thiol modulation mechanism: (i) The method remains valid in

- 126 dark-adapted or illuminated leaves whatever the redox state of the γ -subunit domain, and (ii) there is 127 no significant ΔpH generation during the short saturating pulse so that the increase of ECS (which 128 probes $\Delta \Psi$) reflects the increase of $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$. After presenting the deconvolution basics first, we 129 continue to demonstrate that those hypotheses are respected. We measure $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ partitioning as a function of pulse duration and the ATP lifetime upon illumination before finally confirming that CF₁F_o 130 131 is mostly in the oxidized state in dark-adapted leaves (in contrast with a previous report [23]). Validating in vivo the model of Junesch and Gräber, our results show that the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+activation}$ of a 132 133 disulfide-containing CF₁F₀ was lowered (by $\Delta \Psi$ = 2.6 charge separations per photosystem I) and this 134 was confirmed in leaves infiltrated with TCEP, where the efficiency of the chemical reduction of the 135 γ -subunit was a little less than 50%.
- 136

138 Material and Methods

139

140 *Plant material and growth conditions*. The Columbia ecotype of *Arabidopsis thaliana* served as wild 141 type in this study. The *gamera* mutant and related rescued control lines were previously published 142 [28], and seeds were a kind gift of Dr. Jörg Meurer (Ludwig Maximilian University of Munich). Plants 143 were grown on soil in a growth chamber under a 16-h photoperiod at 22°C (18°C at night) for about 144 three weeks. The light intensity was set to 100 µmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹.

145

146 *Absorption changes.* The experimental setup was as described previously [23]. Absorption changes 147 were measured using a JTS spectrophotometer (Biologic). Pulses of saturating light are provided by 148 LEDs peaking at 630 nm (~ 2500 μ mol photons m⁻² s⁻¹), unless otherwise stated. This light irradiance 149 corresponds to ~2000 photons absorbed per second per photosystem I (PSI) or per PSII, based on the 150 measurement of changes in the membrane potential ($\Delta\Psi$) according to the method described 151 previously [23].

152

153 *Correction and normalization of ECS signals.* The light-induced membrane potential changes ($\Delta\Delta\Psi$) 154 were measured through the absorption changes at 520 nm (reflecting mostly ECS) for experiments 155 with short pulses (less than 20 ms), and 520 nm-546 nm for longer pulses (Fig 2). Indeed, subtracting 156 546 nm allows to correct for the contribution of cytochromes, P700 and scattering. However, the comparison between corrected data (520-546) and uncorrected data (520) shows that the 157 158 correction was not necessary for short pulses (Fig S1). To express the measured ECS signals in charge separations per PSI, we calibrated the ECS signal by the ECS increase corresponding to one charge 159 160 separation per PSI. For that, we divided all measured ECS signals in this work by ½ the ECS increase 161 following a single-turnover flash, provided by a dye laser at 690 nm pumped with a Nd:Yag laser. 162 Since all photosystems will generate one charge separation upon such a flash, the ECS measured 250 163 µs after the flash is proportional to the number of active PSI + PSII. Assuming equal concentrations of 164 both photosystem reaction centers, half this signal is equal to the sole contribution of PSI.

165

166 *Reproducibility.* The kinetics of ECS rise and decay were reproducible between different leaves of 167 different batches, but it was not the case of the extent of the ECS. This is because its amplitude 168 depends on the density of reaction centers and ECS probes per leaf area, which slightly varied in 169 different cultures. For this reason, for each experiment where the amplitude of ECS was probed, we

170 compared samples from the same batch of culture.

171

172 Chemicals and Inhibitors. We used chemical compounds by vacuum infiltration since the method did 173 not interfere with the $\Delta\Psi$ increase and decay kinetics as compared to non-infiltrated samples (see 174 Fig S2). All chemicals were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Tris(2-carboxyethyl)phosphine 175 hydrochloride (TCEP) was dissolved in water at 0.3 M and aliguots, adjusted to pH 7.0, were frozen until further use. Solutions of antimycin-A (AA, 40 mM), nonactin (40 mM), nigericin (Nig, 10 mM) 176 and Carbonyl cyanide 4-(trifluoromethoxy)phenylhydrazone (FCCP, 1 mM) were dissolved in ethanol 177 178 and usually served as 1000x stocks that were stored at -20°C. All vacuum-infiltrated leaves were 179 incubated in the dark for at least 15 min until measurements.

- 180
- 181
- 182 Results
- 183
- 184 185

1. Following membrane potential developments during and after saturating light pulses.

186 In order to study CF_1F_0 in γ -disulfide- and γ -dithiol-promoting conditions, we will first elaborate on an improved protocol which is based on a previous study [23] and allows to measure the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ already 187 188 present in dark-adapted leaves ($\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+ dark}$). Compared to the baseline $\Delta \Psi$ before light perturbation, 189 the method measures $\Delta \Psi$ changes ($\Delta \Delta \Psi$) induced by a short saturating light pulse, and the return to 190 baseline level (Fig 1). In this section, we will present the deconvolution routine of raw kinetics (ECS 191 amplitudes and decay phases) which will be revisited below in sections 3 and 4. We make the 192 reasonable hypothesis that short pulses (< 20 ms) induce exclusively $\Delta\Delta\Psi$ and that changes in the 193 ΔpH can be neglected [23] due to the high buffering capacity inside the lumen [43]. According to this 194 hypothesis (tested in section 2), ECS changes which are strictly speaking proportional to $\Delta\Delta\Psi$, 195 equally reflect changes in the electrochemical proton gradient ($\Delta \Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$).

196 Fig 1A illustrates how the baseline $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{\mathrm{H^+dark}}$ prior to the pulse influences the amplitude and kinetics of 197 the pulse-induced ECS (or $\Delta\Delta\tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$). To do so, we analyzed in water-infiltrated leaves at high and low 198 [ATP]/([ADP][P]) ratios, respectively. Low [ATP]/([ADP][P]) ratios were obtained when respiratory 199 ATP production was hampered in dark-adapted leaves by application of the cytochrome bc₁ inhibitor 200 antimycin-A (AA, open symbols in Fig 1). AA addition exploits the genetically regulated nucleotide 201 import machinery which metabolically couples chloroplast ATP levels to mitochondrial respiration 202 [23, 32, 44-47]. On the contrary, high [ATP]/([ADP][P]) ratios were reached after building up ATP 203 following a 30-s illumination (closed symbols). In all curves of Fig 1A, the ECS reached a plateau 204 during the pulse which was followed by a fast decay phase in darkness. Both amplitudes of the 205 plateau level and the fast decay phase depend on the light intensity of the applied pulse (Fig S3, not 206 varied in the main text). The fast phase likely involves H^+ leaks above a critical $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ ($\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+leak}$), which 207 is an *absolute* $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ reference in a given material *in vivo* [23]. This fast phase finishes after 10 ms 208 when the ECS decay kinetics becomes independent of the pulse light intensity (Fig S3), reflecting ATP 209 synthesis [23]. The 10-ms ECS signal in darkness ($\Delta \Psi_{10ms}$) is therefore independent of pulse intensity,

- 210 and also independent of the physiological conditions preceding the pulse. Thus, the $\Delta \Psi_{10ms}$ will be 211 used hereafter as the *experimental* reference of $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$. In turn, the ECS data in the following will be 212 expressed as negative values ($\Delta \Psi - \Delta \Psi_{10ms}$; Fig 1B) which corresponds to the "remaining empty 213 volume" of the opaque bottle analogy. Considering the outlined method, the larger pulse-induced 214 ECS amplitude in the presence of AA than after the pre-illumination is related to a lower basal 215 $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+dark}$ before the pulse in AA samples (Fig 1A). This was revealed after rescaling to our 216 experimental reference $\Delta \Psi_{10ms}$ (-6.7 vs. >-3.5 charge separations/PSI, Fig 1B). After the 30-s illumination and the following re-adaptation to darkness, the increase of the pulse amplitude with 217 218 the time in darkness (Fig 1A), again, indicated the continuous decrease of the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+dark}$ (Fig 1B) and 219 reflected the consumption of the extra ATP produced during the 30-s illumination.
- 220 According to Fig 1B and a previous report [23], the ECS decay kinetics after the pulse displayed three 221 phases. The first phase, completed in 10 ms and discussed before, was systematically discarded. A 222 second phase was completed in ~100 ms (phase 2) and was linked to ATP synthesis. Then, a 223 multiphasic slow decay (phase 3, completed in ~1 min) was observed only once the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ fell below a 224 threshold (at the end of phase 2, ~100 ms). This threshold corresponds to the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+activation}$ described 225 before [17, 19-23] and represented a second reference level, about 2 charge separations/PSI below 226 $\Delta \Psi_{10ms}$ (arrowhead in Fig 1B). Phase 3 indicated a slowly active CF₁F₀, or, alternatively, a small CF₁F₀ 227 fraction staying fully active.
- 228 We first decided to check whether this quantitative measurement of the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+dark}$ remained valid 229 regardless of the redox regulation mechanism. Figs 1C and 1D show similar experiments on WT 230 leaves infiltrated with the thiol reductant TCEP to cleave the γ -disulfide. Furthermore, the samples 231 were in the same physiological conditions as in Figs 1A and 1B (AA-treated or pre-illuminated 232 samples). In all cases, the ECS generation and the decay in the first tens of ms after the end of the 233 pulse resembled the untreated sample (Fig 1C). As in water-infiltrated leaves, AA-treated leaves in 234 the presence of TCEP showed a lower $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+dark}$ and illumination increased this pedestal (dashed lines 235 in Fig 1D), reflecting ATP accumulation during pre-illumination and consumption during re-236 adaptation to darkness. The $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ decay kinetics always seemed monophasic; we did not observe the 237 slow phase of ECS decay (absence of phase 3 in Fig 1D). This was true even in conditions where 238 $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+dark}$ was below the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+activation}$ of Fig 1B, i.e., when dark re-adaptation after the 30-s 239 illumination was longer than 9 min or in AA-treated samples. This observation at low $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ was in 240 agreement with the higher CF_1F_0 activity measured *in vitro* upon cleaving the γ -disulfide by chemical 241 thiol reductants [36]. A quantitative analysis will be given in section 4, demonstrating how the effect 242 of the γ -redox state influences the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ dependence of CF₁F_o activity. The comparison of the control 243 and TCEP-treated leaves validate our first hypothesis (mentioned in the introduction): The proposed 244 protocol to measure the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+dark}$ works in both the reduced and oxidized state, provided that no 245 ΔpH is generated during the pulse. This absence of pulse-induced ΔpH corresponds to the second 246 hypothesis, which will be addressed in the next section.





249 Fig 1: Pulse-induced ECS kinetics are shown in water-infiltrated leaves in the absence (A-B) or presence (C-D) of the mild reductant TCEP at 50 mM. Dark-adapted leaves were illuminated for 30 s (green-orange LED, 1000 250 μ mol photons m⁻² s⁻¹), followed by a dark re-adaptation for several minutes (indicated in the legend). +AA: 251 252 infiltrated with 40 µM antimycin-A without illumination. All the measurements were made on different leaves 253 from the same plant. In panels A and C, the dark-adapted (baseline) ECS level was arbitrarily set to 0 and only 254 the ECS kinetics during the pulse and in the initial relaxation phases are shown. In panels B and D, the $\Delta \Psi_{10ms}$ 255 values of all curves were set to 0 and only the ECS relaxation in the dark is shown (the value reached after 1 256 min relaxation is indicated with three dots on the right). The rapid transition between the fast and slow 257 relaxation phases ($\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+activation}$) is indicated in panel B by an arrowhead. The homothetic ECS curves in TCEP 258 samples of panel D decayed without an apparent $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+activation}$, and the major decay finished within ~1-s.

260

2. Obtaining the relative extent of $\Delta \Psi$ and ΔpH induced by short light pulses.

For the interpretation of the previous results regarding the evolution of $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$, we followed the opaque bottle analogy and have made the hypothesis that the $\Delta \Psi_{10ms}$ reference served as our $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ reference. This implied that the ΔpH generated until reaching $\Delta \Psi_{10ms}$ was insignificant, and only $\Delta \Psi$ increased during the short saturating light pulses. The demonstration of a negligible ΔpH contribution is crucial for this ECS-based method before introducing $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ -dependent CF₁F_o activity profiles in section 4, focusing on thiol modulation.

To test our hypothesis, we applied saturating light pulses of variable duration to dark-adapted leaves 267 and probed the extra $\Delta \Psi$ ($\Delta \Delta \Psi$), extra ΔpH ($\Delta \Delta pH$) and their sum ($\Delta \Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$) remaining after a 268 269 relatively short (15 s) dark recovery. To obtain those values, we applied a short 12-ms probing pulse 270 15 s after the first one and compared to a similar 12-ms probing pulse applied on a non-perturbed 271 sample (dark line and symbols, Fig 2A). The $\Delta\Psi$ was monitored throughout the measurement and 272 $\Delta\Delta\Psi$ was calculated as the difference between the dark-adapted ECS signal before the first light perturbation and the ECS signal 15 s later (Fig 2A). The $\Delta\Delta$ pH after 15 s was derived from the 12-ms 273 274 probing pulse, i.e., from the difference of its $\Delta \Psi_{10ms}$ value compared to fully dark adapted leaves (Fig 275 2A). A $\Delta\Delta$ pH usually appeared after prolonged light pulses but this was not the case in Fig 2A. 276 Therein, the ionophore nigericin (Nig) was used to exchange H^+ with K^+ as a proof of principle to favor 277 $\Delta\Delta\Psi$ at the expense of $\Delta\Delta$ pH. It is important to note that Nig also collapsed the proton motive force 278 for mitochondrial ATP synthesis and thus interfered with metabolic coupling between the organelles. 279 Accordingly, Nig infiltration resulted in a collapse of $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+dark}$ in the chloroplast (within ~15-30 min

incubation, see Fig S4 and Supplementary discussion). A duration of 15 s dark was necessary in this experiment to allow a partial relaxation of the electron carriers toward the dark-adapted state. Indeed, at the end of the first light pulse, the photochemistry of both photosystems was low due to the absence of acceptors (oxidized plastoquinones or oxidized ferredoxins) or donors (reduced P700). If the second light pulse was applied too early, photochemistry was insufficient to reach the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+leak}$

285 which made measurement of the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ impossible.

- 286 We followed those parameters in water-infiltrated (Fig 2B) and in Nig-treated leaves (Fig 2C) for 287 different durations of the first pulse (10 ms to 1 s light perturbation). Regardless of the first pulse duration, in both treatments the $\Delta\Psi_{\rm 10ms}$ upon the second pulse was smaller than in the 288 289 corresponding dark-adapted sample. This indicated that a significant amount of extra ATP, generated 290 during and after the first illumination, was still present after 15 s dark and increased the ΔpH ($\Delta \Delta pH$) 291 compared to the dark-adapted level. The ionophore Nig attenuated $\Delta\Delta pH$ (Fig 2C) but in water-292 infiltrated samples (Fig 2B), the $\Delta\Delta$ pH increment was significant only between the 100-ms and 500-293 ms light perturbations. These samples also sustained a significant $\Delta\Delta\Psi$, up to 0.4 charge 294 separation/PSI (dashed line in Fig 2B), although a stagnation for pulses longer than 100-ms was observed. The $\Delta\Delta\Psi$ after 15 s was always higher than 1 charge separation/PSI when Nig was present, 295 296 even for the shortest durations of the light pulse (dashed line in Fig 2C). The lowered $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+dark}$ by the 297 drug also influenced the $\Delta\Delta\tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ 15 s after a 10-ms pulse, increasing it from 0.2 in controls (Fig 2D) to 298 1.4 charge separations/PSI in Nig samples (Fig 2E). For a 1-s pulse, those values reached 1.1 and 2.8 299 charge separations/PSI for control and Nig samples, respectively.
- 300 The fact that short pulses (below 100 ms, Fig 2D) generated only small changes in ΔpH (smaller than 301 0.1 charge separation/PSI) validated our initial hypothesis. This indicated that, if probing light pulses 302 remain short, the ECS pulse method allowed the quantitative measurement of $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ with a potential error of 0.1 charge separation/PSI only. The higher $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ storage after 15 s dark in the Nig samples 303 304 was simply due to the slower relaxation of the pulse-induced $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ when the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+dark}$ was far below 305 the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+activation}$, as we described before in the case of the AA treated sample (Fig 1B). The 306 uncoupling by Nig was more efficient in collapsing $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{\mathrm{H^+dark}}$ compared to AA but, like other 307 uncouplers, Nig modified the different phases of ECS decay kinetics (Fig S4, see also Supplementary 308 discussion). Therefore, membrane integrity-preserving AA will be preferred for unbiased CF_1F_o 309 analysis at low $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+dark}$ (section 4).
- 310 In the first two sections, we have shown that our methodology is valid regardless of the redox state
- 311 of CF₁F_o. Moreover, it allows quantitative measurements of the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+dark}$ (relative to the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$
- 312 reference given by $\Delta \Psi_{10ms}$) provided that the saturating light pulse is (i) strong enough to reach the
- 313 $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+leak}$ (which is valid for the 2000 photons/PSI/s light irradiance used here), and (ii) short enough 314 to avoid the generation of ΔpH (which is valid for pulses shorter than 100 ms). This allows to follow
- 315 the kinetics of the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+dark}$ after a light perturbation in the next part.



317 Fig 2: The estimation of $\Delta\Delta\Psi$, $\Delta\Delta$ pH and $\Delta\Delta\tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ generated by an illumination is shown. The parameters were 318 measured 15 s after a saturating pulse of various duration. (A) Exemplary ECS measurement in the presence of 319 nigericin (open symbols light on, closed symbols darkness) measured as the difference between the absorption 320 changes at 520 nm and the one at 546 nm (see Methods). The leaf was illuminated with a first pulse of 500-ms 321 ($t \sim -15$ s), then ECS was followed for 15 s in the dark and a 12-ms probing pulse was used to determine the 322 new $\Delta \Psi_{10ms}$ reference (the probing pulse ended at t = 0 s). For the sake of visualization, the dark-adapted ECS 323 decay was shifted on the x-axis by 3 ms. (B) and (C) The initial phase of the $\Delta\Psi$ decay after the 12-ms pulse is 324 shown for leaves infiltrated with (B) water and (C) nigericin. The $\Delta\Delta\Psi$ at the end of the 15-s dark period is 325 indicated by horizontal dashed lines. The $\Delta\Delta\rho$ H corresponds to the difference between the $\Delta\Psi_{10ms}$ after the 326 saturating pulse and the one of a dark-adapted leaf (black closed squares). (D) and (E) The relationship of $\Delta\Delta\Psi$, 327 $\Delta\Delta$ pH and $\Delta\Delta\tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ with the duration of the first light pulse are shown for (D) water and (E) nigericin infiltrated 328 leaves. All the measurements in this figure were performed with leaves from the same plant, and are the 329 representative outcome of two independent experiments.

3. Showing that the sustained $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+ dark}$ elevation is a function of extra ATP after an illumination.

- 333 In this section, we use the method to follow the fate of the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ after an illumination by supposing 334 that the thermodynamic equilibrium is met during a dark period before the ECS measurement, and 335 that following $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ is equivalent to following the [ATP]/([ADP][P]) ratio.
- 336 After the 30-s illumination in water-infiltrated leaves (Fig 1B and additional measurements from the 337 same experiment), we re-plotted the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+dark}$ values as a function of the time in darkness (Fig 3A, 338 black open squares). The $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+dark}$ after the 30-s illumination was ~-1.2 charge separations/PSI relative to the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ reference ($\Delta \Psi_{10ms}$) in the water-infiltrated leaf (black open squares in Fig 3A); 339 340 being significantly higher than in the dark-adapted sample (~-4 charge separations/PSI, black dashed 341 line). After ATP formation in the light, the elevated $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+dark}$ remained constant for 5 min and, due to 342 slow ATP consumption [23], relaxed towards the dark-adapted value in ~30 min (Fig 3A). When 343 leaves were infiltrated with Nig before the 30 s illumination (open triangles in Fig 3A), the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+dark}$ 344 reached a lower level (-2.3 charge separations/PSI after 2 min dark) and relaxed to an even lower 345 value within ~15 min (-6.3 charge separations/PSI). As discussed, Nig may interfere with 346 mitochondrial ATP production in darkness, resulting in a lower $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+dark}$ and more rapid depletion of 347 extra ATP upon illumination.
- 348 The closed symbols in Fig 3A also show the lifetime of $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{\mathrm{H^+ dark}}$ and ATP in non-infiltrated WT leaves 349 after illuminations of different durations (between 3-s and 12-min). Interestingly, the elevated $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+dark}$ became independent on the illumination duration beyond 7 s (between ~-1.3 to -1.5 charge 350 351 separations/PSI). Moreover, a lag was observed in the relaxation, which increased with the time of illumination. Once ATP levels decreased slowly over ~20 min, the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+dark}$ reached a stable dark level 352 353 which corresponded to the dark-adapted value (~-3.5 charge separations/PSI, black solid line). The 354 water infiltration treatment had no effect, at least for illuminations not longer than 30 s, since the 355 curve for infiltrated leaves illuminated for 30 s was in between the 15-s and 40-s illumination curves 356 of the non-infiltrated ones (Fig 3A). To conclude, the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+dark}$ is dependent on the physiological 357 conditions. Nucleotide exchange between cell compartments is strictly controlled and, compared to 358 the reversible CF_1F_0 , passive ion movements across the membrane are slow [23, 32, 44-47].
- We also analyzed the light-induced changes of $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+dark}$ in the reduced and oxidized CF₁F_o forms before establishing a specific $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ dependency of CF₁F_o activity (next section). Besides infiltrating leaves with the thiol reductant TCEP, we also looked at the behavior of the *gamera* mutant, in which the CF₁F_o is in its reduced isoform (γ -dithiol) in the dark [28]. The $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ threshold ($\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+activation}$) at ~100 ms in darkness is characteristic for water-infiltrated samples with the γ -disulfide (arrowhead in
- Fig 3B, see also Fig 1B). It disappeared in presence of TCEP due to accelerated $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ decay kinetics at
- the end of phase 2. The $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ decay kinetics was even more accelerated in the *gamera* mutant. This
- phenotype, obtained in the *dpa1* genetic background [28], could be unambiguously attributed to the
 dithiol since the behavior of the *ATPC1*-complemented *dpa1* mutant, *dpa1c*, was similar to the WT
- 368 (Fig 3B; ATPC1 is the thioredoxin-sensitive γ -subunit isoform and ATPC2 is the isoform present in 369 gamera). Based on the pronounced slowdown of the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ decay after phase 2, we conclude that
- 370 CF_1F_0 was present mainly in its oxidized state in dark-adapted WT leaves, in contradiction with a
- 371 previous report [23]. Incomplete γ -disulfide reduction by TCEP infiltration resulted in a mixture of
- active and inactive CF_1F_0 (distributed homogeneously along the thylakoid membrane) and a continuous decay kinetics of the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$.
- 374 In TCEP-treated leaves, the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+dark}$ attained after the 30-s illumination was similar to the one in 375 water-infiltrated leaves (~-1.5 charge separations/PSI, blue open squares in Fig 3A). The capacity to

sustain an elevated $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+dark}$ after illumination was slightly less pronounced in TCEP samples. We 376 377 cannot rule out that TCEP infiltration also influenced the metabolic ATP sink capacity in the dark or 378 produced mild uncoupling of the membranes. We tested whether the effect of TCEP on thiol modulation developed further during the illumination and following relaxation in the dark, and 379 concluded that this effect is stable throughout the experiment (Fig S6). It is noteworthy that, at 380 381 variance with the effect of commonly used dithiothreitol (DTT), the kinetics of the fluorescence 382 increase in a dark-adapted leaf was not altered upon TCEP infiltration, eliminating a potential side 383 effect on the plastoquinone pool redox state (not shown). In a similar experiment, we analyzed the 384 effect of a 14-min pre-illumination on a non-infiltrated gamera mutant leaf (closed circle in Fig 3A). 385 At variance with the results obtained in the WT, we observed that illumination of the gamera mutant 386 induced a decrease of the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+dark}$ that returned to the dark-adapted level very slowly in ~ 45 min 387 (see red horizontal line). We conclude that ATPC2 produced a perturbation of CF_1F_0 that prevented 388 long term ATP accumulation during illumination. A lower gamera proton conductivity in steady-state 389 light was reported [28] which might reflect this CF₁F_o perturbation. The latter could be related to the 390 large slowdown of Calvin-Benson cycle activation (about a factor 4) and the larger transient NPQ. 391 formation observed on the mutant with respect to the WT (see Fig S5). This section demonstrates 392 that the ECS-based $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+dark}$ estimations provide thermodynamic snapshots of the [ATP]/([ADP][P]) 393 ratio in the chloroplast.



396 Fig 3: Light-induced ATP lifetime measurements and membrane potential ($\Delta \Psi$) decay kinetics in various 397 Arabidopsis genotypes are shown. (A) The effect of the γ -disulfide bond reduction on ATP accumulation and 398 relaxation after an illumination of different durations is displayed. The $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H}+_{dark}$ values are relative to the 399 $\Delta \Psi_{10ms}$ and horizontal lines refer to fully dark-adapted, non-infiltrated (solid) and infiltrated (dashed) samples. 400 The water-/TCEP-infiltrated WT samples were from the same plant, and the varied pre-illumination 401 experiments were performed on another plant. (B) Initial $\Delta \Psi$ decay kinetics of the WT are shown (infiltrated in 402 the dark with water or 50 mM TCEP), as well as the gamera mutant and the ATPC1-complemented dpa1 403 mutant, termed dpa1c. The slowdown at ~100 ms is shown with an arrowhead. Dashed lines indicate the $\Delta\Psi$ 404 decay value 1 min after the pulse.

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4. Obtaining $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ -dependent CF_1F_o activity profiles in the two γ -subunit redox states.

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409 The final aim of this work is to determine how the reduction/oxidation of the γ -disulfide modifies the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ regulation of CF₁F₀ activity. As outlined above, the pulse-induced ECS method to measure $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ 410 has been established and validated in both redox states. For CF_1F_0 activity determination, the ECS 411 decay rate after a single turnover laser flash is routinely obtained from exponential decay functions 412 [e.g., Ref. 42]. However, there is a bias due to the "b phase": a ~10-ms ECS rise after the flash due to 413 electrogenic contribution of the cytochrome $b_6 f$ activity which superimposes on the CF₁F₀-related ECS 414 decay. Moreover, we observed another poorly understood but precedingly documented [16, 17] 415 source of variation when using flashes. In short, the ECS decay rate after a flash not only depends on 416 417 the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+dark}$ but also on whether the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+activation}$ was surpassed during the light perturbation. We 418 tried to circumvent these sources of error and mitigate their contributions to the ECS decay by surpassing $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+activation}$ in all of our measurements, thus producing $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ -activated CF₁F_o (by 8-ms to 419 420 17-ms saturating pulses depending on the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+dark}$; see Fig 4). We then measured the rate constant of CF₁F_o as the slope of the ECS decay when ECS signals reached the level expected after a saturating 421 laser flash (i.e., $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+dark}$ +1 charge separation/PSI; see Fig 4). This procedure offered another 422 423 advantage: At the time of the slope measurement, i.e., few tens or hundreds of ms after the end of

424 the pulse, the contribution of the *b* phase was negligible compared to CF_1F_0 activity, although b_6f -425 catalyzed electron transfer between P700⁺ and PQH₂ lasted longer in our measurements.





428 Fig 4: Calculation of the CF₁F_o rate from the ECS decay kinetics is shown in water- and TCEP-infiltrated WT, as 429 well as gamera (only in panel D since the mutant could not accumulate ATP in the light and therefore sustained 430 a lower $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+dark}$). The data is part of Fig 5A and the rationale was to calculate the CF₁F_o rate when the 431 electrochemical proton gradient reached $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+dark}$ +1, in relation to the classical single turnover flash ECS decay 432 protocol. Each panel compares samples with similar $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+dark}$ (-1.4, -2.5, -3.1 and -4 charge separations/PSI) 433 from Figs 1B, 1D and 3B. The dashed lines on the bottom right indicate the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+dark}$ and the upper dashed lines 434 represent $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+dark}$ +1 charge separation/PSI. The semi-transparent angles visualize the ECS decay rate at this 435 point, expressed as R in Fig 5A. The $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+dark}$ was estimated by a ms-pulse and its duration is given in italics. In 436 panels A and B, the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+dark}$ remained above the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+activation}$ and only a fast phase of ECS decay was seen in 437 both γ -redox states. In panels C and D, the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+dark}$ was below the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+activation}$ of water-infiltrated WT leaves 438 and the ECS decay kinetics became biphasic in these samples. In the latter, the break in the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ decay kinetics 439 at the end of phase 2 revealed a CF₁F_o transition from an active toward an inactive form.

440

441 Fig 5A sums up all the CF₁F_o rate constants (obtained at $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+dark}$ + 1 charge separation/PSI) as a 442 function of the corresponding $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ values. The data presented in this manuscript so far lays the 443 foundations for Fig 5A: WT leaves (dark-adapted or during relaxation following a 30-s illumination), TCEP-treated WT leaves in the same conditions, as well as gamera leaves (dark-adapted or following 444 445 a 14-min illumination). Fig 5A also contains additional measurements obtained in comparable 446 experiments, such as dark-adapted gamera leaves in the presence of AA. The CF₁F₀ activity vs. $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ 447 curves of the reduced (gamera isoform) and oxidized (water-infiltrated WT) enzyme resembled the ones obtained in vitro [36]. The TCEP-infiltrated WT was intermediate, in agreement with a mixed 448 449 CF_1F_o redox population. Fig 5A shows that below $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+activation}$ of the oxidized form (~-2.2 charge 450 separations/PSI, see arrowhead in Fig 1B, Fig 3B), the CF₁F_o was always faster in the (partially) 451 reduced form. The rate constant of CF_1F_0 increased exponentially with $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ in the reduced form, as soon as $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ was above ~-4.7 charge separations/PSI (Fig 5A). 452

Both $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ -dependent activities of (chemically unmodified) CF₁F_o in WT and *gamera* have been fitted with a sigmoid function, similar to the *in vitro* study in spinach using thiol agents [36]. In fact, the plotted CF₁F_o rate constants of both genotypes were processed in one calculation by using a sum of two sigmoid functions (Fig 5A). In Equation 1, we forced via the constant *c* the first summand to bezero in the *gamera* plot, and the second summand to be zero in the WT plot:

458

459
$$y = c \times \left(\frac{A1}{1 + 10^{(x0.ox - x) \times p}}\right) + (1 - c) \times \left(\frac{A1}{1 + 10^{(x0.red - x) \times p}}\right)$$
 (Eq.1)
460

A1 defines shared maximal rate constants of $41.4 \pm 2.8 \text{ s}^{-1}$ (\pm standard error). The slope parameter of 461 462 the function is expressed as p (0.9 \pm 0.1). The $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ where the half-maximal CF₁F_o activities were 463 obtained for WT and gamera are defined as x0.ox (-1.0 \pm 0.1 charge separations/PSI) and x0.red (-3.6 464 \pm 0.1 charge separations/PSI), respectively. The TCEP sigmoid fitting curve in Fig 5A was obtained 465 with $c = 0.54 \pm 0.04$, suggesting about 54% of CF₁F_o in the oxidized γ -disulfide conformation. 466 Incomplete γ -disulfide cleavage could be related to the limited efficiency of TCEP [48]. This efficiency 467 value was close to the fraction of reduced CF_1F_0 in the presence of TCEP in Fig 5B, estimated from the 468 ECS decay kinetics in *gamera* and WT (already presented in Fig 3B). In Fig 5B, the relaxation of ECS 469 from the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+activation}$ (arrowhead) to $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+dark}$ (~-4 charge separation/PSI for the 3 curves) was fitted with a mono-exponential decay. Rate constants of 0.8 s⁻¹ in water-infiltrated WT were obtained in 470 the presence of ~100% γ -disulfide, and 30.6 s⁻¹ were measured with 100% γ -dithiol in gamera. 471 Accordingly, Fig 5B suggests that TCEP infiltration produced ~58% γ -disulfide cleavage in WT CF₁F₀ 472 473 since the rate constant was 13.4 s⁻¹. Unexpectedly, the partially reduced TCEP samples in Fig 5A 474 showed a faster ECS decay at the low $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+dark}$ +1 charge separation/PSI when AA was present (an 475 ECS decay kinetics comparison with fully reduced gamera CF_1F_0 is shown in Fig S7).

476 Supporting previous reports [36, 49], we did not observe an effect of the redox regulation on the 477 maximal CF_1F_0 activity at high $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ in WT. However, we did not manage to sustain high enough 478 $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+dark}$ to fully describe the plateau of maximal CF₁F_o activities (see 95% confidence intervals in Fig 479 5A). This was due to experimental constraints: First, in the oxidized form, it was not possible to reach 480 higher values of $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ because a sufficient dark period was needed after the 30 s illumination to 481 reoxidize PSI and PSII acceptors. Second, illumination decreased the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ in the reduced gamera 482 CF₁F_o (Fig 3A). Still, the observation that half-reduced TCEP samples and oxidized WT leaves produced similar rate constants at $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ ~-0.5 charge separation/PSI suggests that the CF₁F₀ activities in both 483 484 redox states were similar in this range of $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ (Fig 4A, Fig 5A).

Taken together, this section demonstrates that the CF_1F_0 redox state has a significant impact on its enzymatic activity *in vivo* and confirms previous *in vitro* studies: The reduced form of CF_1F_0 (in the *gamera* mutant, but also partially in the TCEP-treated WT) exhibited higher activity at low membrane energization.



491 Fig 5: The regulation levels of $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ and thiol modulation on ATP synthesis are shown. (A) The $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ -492 dependence of the CF1Fo activity in the oxidized (black) and reduced (red) forms are shown, as well as in the 493 intermediate situation of TCEP-infiltrated WT leaves (blue). Closed symbols: untreated leaves, open symbols: 494 leaves were additionally infiltrated with 40 μ M and 20 μ M antimycin-A (+AA). The $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ in each color-coded 495 group was modulated in independent samples (n in closed/open black 3/2, blue 1/2, red 1/3). Decay rate 496 constants, R, were obtained according to Fig 4. Fitted curves were calculated with Equation 1 and the 95% 497 confidence intervals are transparent. The water-infiltrated WT showed a $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+activation}$ of ~-2.2 charge 498 separations/PSI, and half-maximal R at ~-1.0 charge separations/PSI (dotted black line). The γ-dithiol-containing 499 gamera showed a half-maximal R at ~-3.6 charge separations/PSI (dotted red line) and a $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+activation}$ of ~-4.7 500 charge separations/PSI. (B) Different kinetics of the ECS decay are shown in the control and TCEP-treated WT, 501 as well as the gamera mutant at similar $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+ dark}$. Indicated by fitted ECS relaxation curves, a mono-exponential decay function starting below $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H}$ +_{activation} of the WT water sample (arrowhead) was used to calculate R of the 502 503 CF_1F_0 .

505 Discussion

506 Before finally visualizing the changing CF1Fo activity in vivo (Results section 4), various methodical 507 requirement were met to refine the ECS protocol [23] that estimates the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+dark}$. To do so, we 508 presented in section 2 that short saturating pulses do not generate a ΔpH and that pulse-induced ECS 509 changes reflect changes in $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$. In section 3, we showed that the measured $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+ dark}$ is a metabolic 510 feature, defined by the [ATP]/([ADP][Pi]) ratio at thermodynamic equilibrium, and that leak processes 511 are negligible. The final CF_1F_0 characterization let us conclude that the WT enzyme is in an oxidized 512 state in the dark, contrary to a previous report [23]. The rate constants we measured in the low $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ range (Fig 5A) were not zero although it was previously proposed that the CF_1F_o was fully inactive 513 514 below the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+activation}$ [16, 17]. If so, the activities below the apparent $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+activation}$ in Fig 5B (0.8 s⁻¹ in 515 WT vs. 30.6 s⁻¹ in gamera) would mean that 2-3% of the CF₁F_o was in the reduced form in the dark-516 adapted state in vivo, matching in vitro findings [49].

517 In the following four sections, we will discuss (i) the caveats of the presented CF_1F_0 data for strict 518 comparisons with the *in vitro* results, (ii) the sustained impact of an illumination period on $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+dark}$, 519 (iii) possible side effects of chemical infiltration with TCEP, and (iv) structure-function considerations. 520

520

521 (i) Precautions for strict comparisons of the presented CF_1F_0 data with in vitro results.

522 Overall, the obtained CF_1F_0 rate versus $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ curves *in vivo* resembled earlier *in vitro* results in 523 spinach chloroplasts where maximal ATP synthesis activity was independent from the redox state, 524 while half-maximal rates of reduced CF_1F_0 occurred at a lower ΔpH of ~0.7 units [36]. This 525 corresponds to a difference of ~42 mV when expressed in $\Delta \Psi$ equivalent. In our results, half-526 saturation of CF_1F_0 was 2.6 charge separations/PSI higher in the oxidized WT form compared to the 527 *gamera* mutant. The *in vivo* and *in vitro* results are therefore roughly compatible by accepting a value 528 of ~20 mV per PSI charge separation, which is the most accepted estimate [40, 50, 51].

529 However, our results are not suited for strictly comparing the absolute values of the electrochemical 530 gradient needed to reach half-saturation. The $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ values in our work are expressed in relative 531 values (by comparison to $\Delta \Psi_{10ms}$), whereas absolute values are reported in the *in vitro* work of 532 Junesch and Gräber. For a proper in vitro and in vivo comparison, our results should be expressed in 533 absolute values, too, which requires to obtain a situation where $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+dark}$ is zero. Several studies [23, 534 47] worked with appropriate inhibitors to completely collapse the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+dark}$, including ours. The 535 $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+dark}$ is built at the expense of the ATP present in the plastid in dark-adapted leaves, which 536 originates from mitochondrial ATP production as has been shown previously for algae [52], diatoms 537 [47], and vascular plants [23]. Although antimycin-A (AA) inhibits the cytochrome bc₁ complex in the 538 mitochondrial respiratory chain, it is known that the treatment does not eliminate this cellular ATP 539 source completely [47]. In that regard, we identified more effective treatments in WT (Fig S4) but 540 lowering $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+dark}$ by AA is preferred in our CF₁F_o characterization study despite individual differences 541 between samples (Supplementary discussion). Most importantly, the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+dark}$ -collapsing efficiency of 542 the chemical does not involve direct modification of the membrane and its electric permeability.

543 With this in mind, it is possible to discuss our results in the light of the 2.7 and 3.4 Δ pH units for half-544 saturation of the reduced and oxidized ATP synthesis rate *in vitro* (see reference 36 and Fig S8A). Let 545 us focus on oxidized samples where half-maximal rates *in vitro* were measured at a $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ equivalent 546 to ~201 mV [36]. This value yields ~10 charge separations/PSI with an estimated 20 mV per reaction 547 center turnover [40, 50, 51]. By referring to $\Delta \Psi_{10ms}$, our relative $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ values indicated half-548 saturation of oxidized CF₁F_o at -1.0 charge separation/PSI. We obtained the lowest values of $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+} dark$

for AA-infiltrated gamera leaves in our ECS data set which equilibrated down to ~-8.8 charge 549 550 separations/PSI (note that x-axis in Fig 5A is $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+dark}$ +1). We expect a residual $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+dark}$ when solely 551 relying on the respiratory inhibitor AA (Supplementary discussion). When matching half-saturation in both systems, the remaining $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+dark}$ in our oxidized CF₁F_o data set should be ~2.2 charge 552 553 separations/PSI (10 – 8.8 + 1.0), corresponding to ~44 mV or ~0.7 ∆pH units. Thus, we do acknowledge a significant discrepancy between our results and the ones obtained in vitro [36]. A 554 tentative conversion of our relative oxidized CF1F0 half-saturation values to an absolute $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ 555 556 expression yields 156 \pm 22 mV ((8.8 – 1.0) \times 20 mV; for reduced samples see also Fig S8B). We also 557 consider the possibility that the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ at ATP synthesis half-saturation of the fully reduced ATPC1 γ -558 dithiol in WT leaves does not resemble CF_1F_0 in gamera (see sections iii and iv).

559

560

(ii) What does the lifetime of ATP depend on?

561 In this work, we could measure the ATP lifetime after an illumination and showed that the accumulated ATP was saturated after 7 s of light. Prolonging the light duration only modified the lag 562 563 before the ATP pool relaxed. We favor the hypotheses that the increased ATP lifetime, as a function 564 of the pre-illumination period (closed squares in Fig 3A), was associated with the accumulation of 565 high energy bonds in different plastid metabolites and/or that free ATP levels were buffered by the 566 stromal adenylate kinase activity as proposed recently [53, 54]. The view that metabolic ATP 567 consumption occurs within the chloroplast at higher rates than leaking towards other compartments is supported in a nucleotide transporter study. Therein, the ATP exchange rate between chloroplast 568 569 and cytosol was rather slow, and free ATP diminished rapidly in the dark after illumination [32]. 570 According to the fluorescent ATP sensor data, free MgATP levels varied in the stroma from 0.2 mM 571 (darkness) to 0.5 mM (light), while cytosolic MgATP was about 2 mM [32, 55]. Thus, a delayed post-572 illumination decline of the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+dark}$ in Fig 3A could be related to slow metabolite conversions that 573 consume plastidic ATP. For instance, high levels of ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate and 1,3-574 bisphosphoglycerate in the Calvin-Benson cycle could be part of a feedback inhibition that prevents 575 their own ATP-consuming synthesis. Furthermore, the deactivation of the Calvin-Benson cycle in the 576 dark [23] was in the same time range as the decay of $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+dark}$. On the other hand, the thioredoxin targets fructose-1,6-bisphosphatase and sedoheptulose-1,7-bisphosphatase may have become 577 578 partially reduced when infiltrating leaves with TCEP (midpoint redox potential of -290 mV [56]), thus 579 favoring their activation. Additionally, it is not known whether TCEP influences the phosphate group 580 transfer between ATP and AMP (yielding 2 ADP) through cysteine redox chemistry in chloroplast 581 adenylate kinase 5 [53]. In turn, this could explain a slightly earlier onset of the consumption of ATP 582 after 30-s illumination in TCEP-infiltrated samples (cf. open squares in Fig 3A).

583

584

(iii) Possible side effects of TCEP infiltration

In Fig 5A, the fit of the TCEP-infiltrated experimental data by the sum of two sigmoids failed at low 585 586 $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$: significantly elevated rates were observed in the presence of TCEP + AA (open blue diamonds, 587 see also Fig S7 for kinetics comparison with gamera + AA). We provide three possibilities for our 588 observations, none of which we can endorse at this point: First, it is possible that γ -disulfide cleavage 589 by TCEP was further advanced (> 50%) when the WT CF₁F₀ population was under the influence of an increased cellular redox poise due to respiration inhibition. To further substantiate this hypothesis, 590 the measurement of approximative $R < 1 \text{ s}^{-1}$ would have required the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+ dark}$ to collapse even below 591 592 the values obtained in Fig 5A for TCEP + AA. The associated difficulties of achieving such situations 593 are outlined in the Supplementary discussion. This hypothesis also implies that ATP synthesis onset in

reduced WT CF₁F_o is below that shown in Fig 5A for the gamera CF₁F_o isoform. Secondly, we cannot 594 595 rule out that TCEP infiltration had weak uncoupling effects or, thirdly, modified ion channel/antiporter activity. Possible TCEP targets could be an activation of $\Delta\Psi$ -consuming anion 596 597 channels such as VCCN1 [2], or a deactivation of $\Delta\Psi$ -generating H⁺/cation antiporters such as KEA3 598 [1]. However, there is currently no evidence of VCCN1/KEA3 thiol regulation, nor were their activities 599 analyzed at low $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+dark}$. It has been reported that reduction of chloroform-extracted CF₁ by DTT 600 resulted in the reversible dissociation of the ε -subunit which would produce membrane uncoupling 601 [57-59], if this was the case with TCEP in vivo. Accordingly, the slightly earlier onset of $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+dark}$ 602 decrease upon illuminating TCEP-infiltrated samples might be due to a slow leak process (Fig 3A). 603 Considering the remaining uncertainties on the TCEP + AA data, further studies are necessary to 604 clarify whether CF₁F₀-independent processes produce slightly elevated ECS decay rate constants.

605 606

(iv) Combining function, structure, and physiology

607 In the following, we underpin our thiol modulation study in the light of structural findings since 608 contribution of $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ is poorly understood. The γ -redox domain as such forms an L-shaped double 609 hairpin (Fig 6A, light green in magnified area). The second hairpin interacts with the β -subunit 610 DELSEED motif and supposedly forms an ATPase chock during rotation in the oxidized state [34]. 611 Alternatively, the γ -disulfide stabilizes the redox domain intrinsically rather than establishing the 612 chock element [37]. Based on a proportion shift of the three rotary states, lower energetic barriers 613 may occur during rotary transitioning due to an increased flexibility and lower torsional constraints in 614 the reduced enzyme [37].

615 Critical structural alterations between the interactors (γ -redox domain and β -DELSEED loop) can be 616 expected as a function of $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$. For instance, various buried residues (e.g., γ K222 and β K399 in Fig 617 6A) have been chemically modified in illuminated thylakoids only [reviewed in 38, 60, 61]. Although 618 details of these CF₁F_o rearrangements are not clear yet, the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ may transiently modify the sum of 619 interactions with the β -DELSEED loops by uncovering parts of the γ -redox domain in a reversible 620 fashion. In turn, the γ -redox domain exposure may enhance the chemical-to-mechanical energy 621 transduction efficiency and could be a feature of the CF_1F_0 activation. The influence of $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ quantity 622 [8] and quality [18] on CF₁F_o activation has been investigated by various groups.

623 Upon reaching $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+ \text{leak}}$ in our experiments at the end of the ms-pulses, the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ -activated CF₁F_o was 624 obtained in both redox states (Fig 6B above dashed line). The surplus of $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ was consumed at 625 maximal rates during this ~100-ms phase in the dark until reaching a turning point, i.e., $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+activation}$ 626 in WT (arrowhead in Fig 6B, the corresponding threshold in gamera was below the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+dark}$). 627 Stabilized by the disulfide, we hypothesize that the γ -redox domain is buried again which slows down the WT by altering the sum of interactions with the β -DELSEED loops (Fig 6B, below dashed line). It 628 was shown that the redox domain experiences the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{\mathrm{H}^+}$, becoming more solvent-accessible [25-27, 629 630 49, 62, 63]. The intrinsic $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+activation}$ in WT may represent the critical driving force level for ATP 631 synthesis where transient resting times in between rotary states are long enough to allow for molecular relaxation during dwells. A different dwelling without the rigidity-enhancing γ -disulfide 632 633 might account for a lower $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+activation}$ in gamera. Note that the amino acid sequences between ATPC1 (WT) and ATPC2 (gamera) are significantly different in the redox domain with profound 634 effects on steady-state rates [64], which may relate to isoform-specific contacts with the β -DELSEED 635 636 loop. Considering the effects and limits of chemical reduction (section iii), it is likely that disrupting 637 the disulfide in ATPC1 by mutation will yield a different activity profile as shown in Fig 5A for gamera.

639 Conclusion

- 640 The intertwining of CF_1F_o and $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ includes various regulatory loops such as thiol modulation which
- has physiological consequences. By increasing light utilization efficiency, a highly conductive CF_1F_0 at
- 642 low $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ maximizes the photosynthetic output for CO₂ fixation. Here, we introduced and discussed a 643 versatile spectroscopic *in vivo* assay to disentangle the molecular consequences of thiol modulation
- 643 versatile spectroscopic *in vivo* assay to disentangle the molecular consequences of thiol modulation 644 on the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ to ATP conversion efficiency. Moreover, the ECS protocol may be transferred to other
- 645 CF_1F_0 mutants in the future, for instance of the ε -subunit. Its C-terminus was found retracted in the
- spinach structure [34, 37] which dismissed its previously established role as intrinsic ATPase inhibitor
- 647 [65-67]. Our assays may help to consolidate those views since some ε -subunit features were also
- 648 entangled with $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ [65, 68]. By following the [ATP]/([ADP][Pi]) ratio at thermodynamic equilibrium,
- 649 we revealed a hampered ATP storage capacity in the *gamera* mutant in extension to its other
- 650 phenotypes [28, 29]. Likewise, additional independent insights on chloroplast nucleotide transporter 651 regulation may be revealed, which currently rely on fluorescent ATP sensors [32]. Finally, time-
- resolved characterization of $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ partitioning may become accessible by describing the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ after
- 653 short illumination periods with our method, as well as thylakoid ion channel/antiporter effects during
- 654 the photosynthetic induction phase.



Fig 6: A selection of $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ -dependent structural rearrangements in spinach CF₁F₀ and a tentative model for 657 658 different ATP synthesis rates as a function of $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ are shown. (A) The structure of spinach CF₁F_o (PDB ID: 6FKH) 659 magnifies the redox loop on the right (light green, arrow pointing to disulfide in yellow sticks). The frontal α -660 subunit is magnified half-transparent for the sake of visibility of the γ -subunit (dark green). The ATPase choc 661 structure is formed by the γ -hairpin loop around position 222 which is stabilized by the disulfide [34, 37]. A 662 variety of structural rearrangements are depending on the $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$, including the γ -hairpin. Various residues (blue 663 spheres) become available for chemical labeling or trypsin digestion exclusively in illuminated thylakoids 664 [reviewed in 38]. (B) The exposed position of the choc structure in $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ -activated CF₁F_o allows for efficient 665 rotational catalysis in both γ -redox states (top cartoons of subunits $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma$). Below the WT activation threshold 666 (arrowhead and horizontal line), the disulfide-stabilized choc structure prevents efficient ATP synthesis. The 667 gamera sustains an active conformation at this $\Delta \tilde{\mu}_{H^+}$ since the rotating choc structure is less efficiently 668 stabilized inside the $\alpha_3\beta_3$ cavity, owing to the absence of the γ -disulfide.

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- 671

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