

1 **Title**

2 **MerMAIDs: A novel family of metagenomically discovered, marine, anion-conducting and**
3 **intensely desensitizing channelrhodopsins.**

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22 **Abstract**

23 Channelrhodopsins (ChRs) are algal light-gated ion channels widely used as optogenetic tools for
24 manipulating neuronal activity. ChRs desensitize under continuous bright-light illumination,
25 resulting in a significant decline of photocurrents. We describe a novel, metagenomically identified
26 family of phylogenetically distinct anion-conducting ChRs (designated MerMAIDs). MerMAIDs
27 almost completely desensitize during continuous illumination due to accumulation of a late non-
28 conducting photointermediate that disrupts the ion permeation pathway. MerMAID desensitization
29 can be fully explained by a single photocycle in which a long-lived desensitized state follows the
30 short-lived conducting state. A conserved cysteine is the critical factor in desensitization, as its
31 mutation results in recovery of large stationary photocurrents. The rapid desensitization of
32 MerMAIDs enables their use as optogenetic silencers for transient suppression of individual action
33 potentials without affecting subsequent spiking during continuous illumination. Our results could
34 facilitate the development of further novel optogenetic tools from metagenomic databases and
35 enhance general understanding of ChR function.

36 Channelrhodopsins (ChRs) are members of the microbial rhodopsin family that directly translate
37 absorbed light into ion fluxes along electrochemical gradients across cellular membranes by
38 opening a conductive pore¹⁻³. ChRs are composed of seven transmembrane helices and an
39 embedded retinal cofactor linked to a conserved lysine in helix 7 via a Schiff base (retinal Schiff
40 base, RSB). Upon photon absorption, the RSB isomerizes from all-*trans* to 13-*cis*, which induces
41 structural changes, collectively described as spectroscopically distinguishable intermediates in a
42 photocycle⁴.

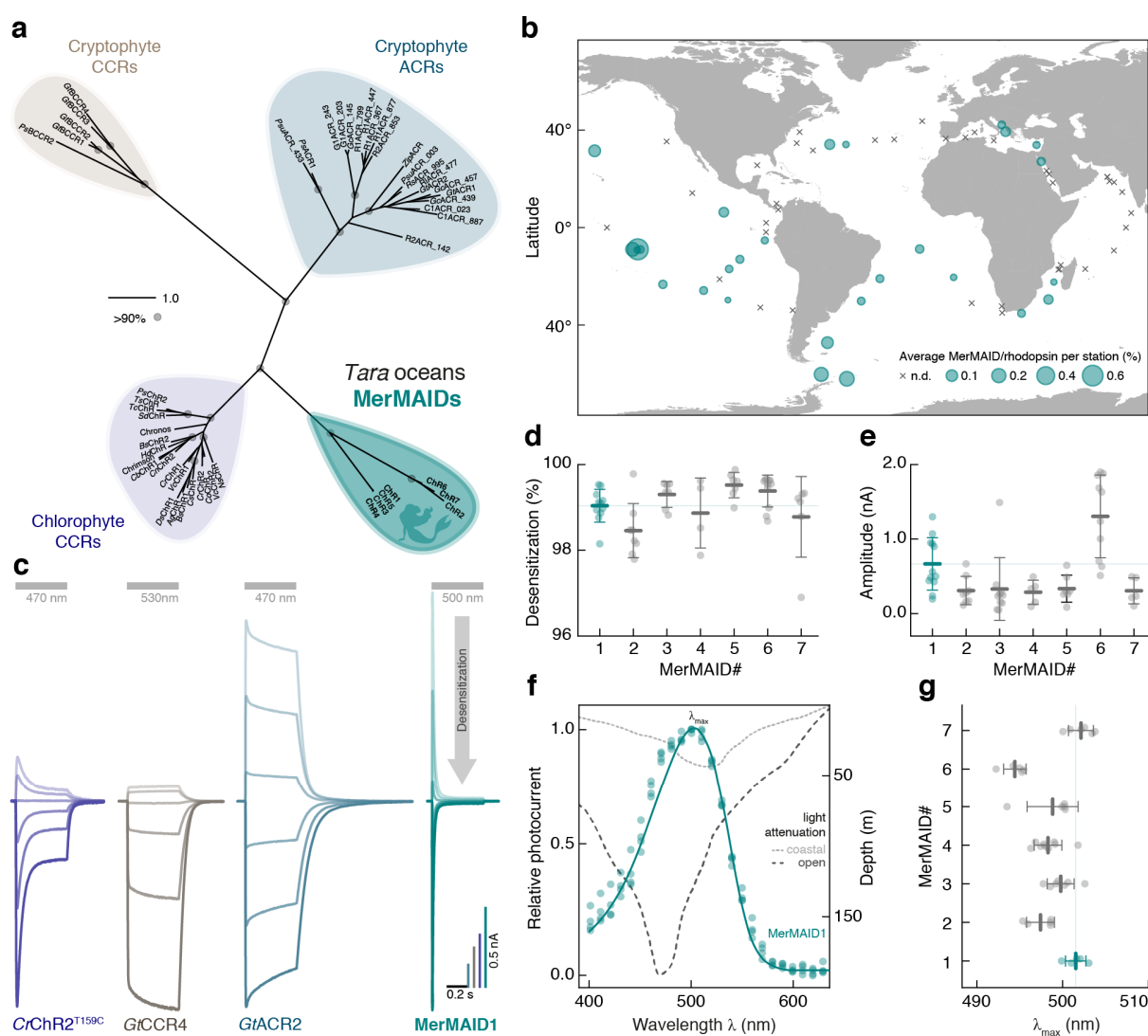
43 In response to extended light pulses, the photocurrents of most known ChRs decline from an initial
44 peak current to a lower, stationary level, a phenomenon known as desensitization (also termed
45 inactivation)^{2,4-6}. The degree and kinetics of desensitization differ among ChRs and depend on
46 pH, membrane voltage as well as light intensity and color, with typically $\leq 70\%$ amplitude
47 reduction^{1,2,7}. Photocurrent decrease via desensitization has been explained by accumulation of
48 late non-conducting photocycle intermediates and by an alternative photocycle exhibiting low
49 cation conductance⁷⁻¹⁰.

50 During the past fourteen years, cation-conducting ChRs (CCRs) were widely employed to
51 depolarize genetically targeted neurons or neuronal networks using light to trigger action-potential
52 firing¹¹⁻¹⁵. Originally, light-driven microbial ion pumps were utilized to suppress neuronal activity
53 by hyperpolarization^{16,17}. Since ion pumps always transport one ion per absorbed photon, efficient
54 neuronal silencing required high ion pump expression levels and continuous, intense illumination.
55 This disadvantage was overcome by converting CCRs into anion-conducting ChRs (ACRs)¹⁸⁻²¹.
56 Such engineered ACRs (eACRs)²² and later-discovered natural ACRs (nACRs)²³⁻²⁶ silence
57 neuronal activity by light-induced shunting-inhibition, similar to endogenous GABA- or glycine-
58 activated chloride channels^{22,27-30}.

59 Here, we report a new family of phylogenetically distinct ChRs metagenomically identified from
60 marine microorganisms. These ChRs conduct anions but exhibit unique desensitization in

61 continuous light and were therefore designated MerMAIDs (Metagenomically discovered, Marine,
 62 Anion-conducting and Intensely Desensitizing ChRs). Seven MerMAIDs were characterized
 63 biophysically via electrophysiological recordings, and we elucidated the molecular mechanism of
 64 the first accessible MerMAIDs using spectroscopic analyses and molecular dynamic (MD)
 65 calculations. We also explore the optogenetic inhibitory potential in neurons.

66 Results



67
 68 **Fig. 1 | Discovery and electrophysiological features of MerMAIDs.** a, Unrooted phylogenetic
 69 tree of the channelrhodopsin superfamily, with grey circles representing bootstrap values >90%.
 70 Scale bar indicates the average number of amino acid substitutions per site. CCR, cation-

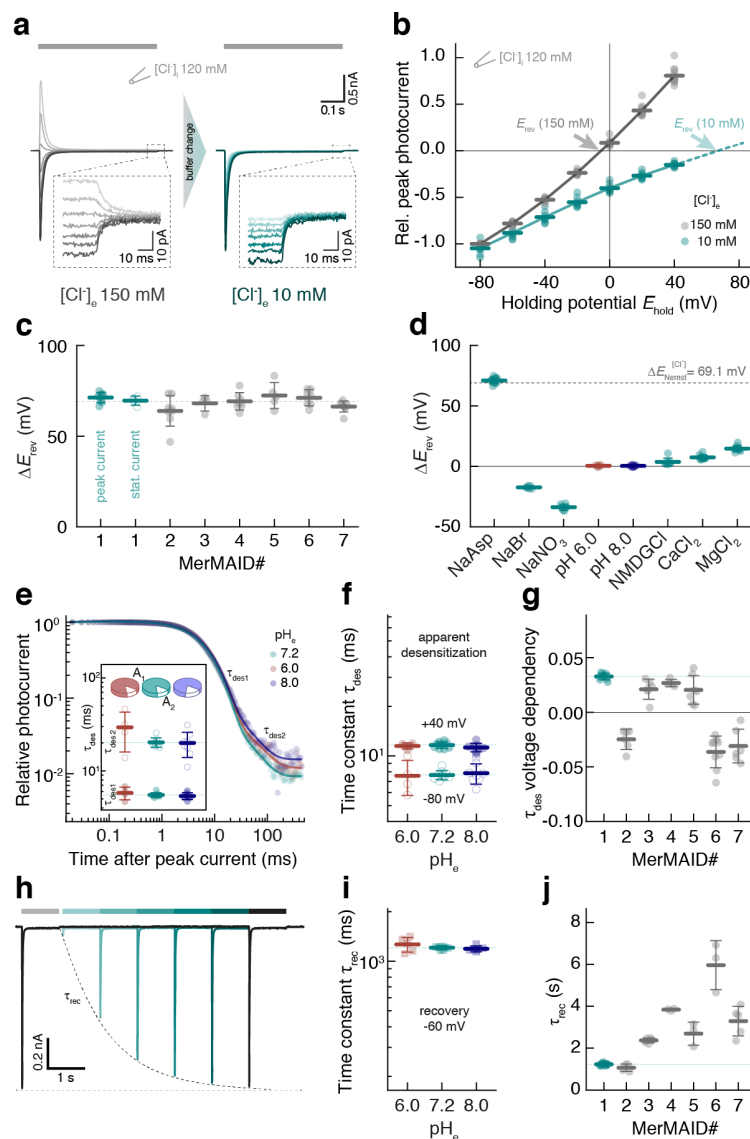
71 conducting channelrhodopsin; ACR, anion-conducting channelrhodopsin. **b**, Distribution and
72 relative abundance of MerMAIDs in samples from the *Tara* Oceans project. Area of each circle
73 indicate the estimated average abundance of MerMAID-like rhodopsins at different *Tara* Oceans
74 stations. Stations where MerMAIDs were not detected (n.d.) are indicated by crosses. **c**,
75 Photocurrent traces of representative members of previously identified ChR families and
76 MerMAIDs, recorded from -60 to +40 mV in steps of 20 or 15 mV (GtCCR4). Grey bars indicate
77 light application at denoted wavelengths. **d**, **e**, Desensitization (**d**) and peak current amplitudes
78 (**e**) of all MerMAIDs at -60 mV during continuous illumination with 500 nm light. **f**, Normalized
79 action spectrum of MerMAID1. Single measurements are shown as dots (n=4), and solid line
80 represents fitted data. Dashed lines indicate light penetration depth in coastal and open seawater
81 (adopted from ref.⁸⁶). λ_{\max} , maximum response wavelength; **g**, λ_{\max} for all MerMAIDs. Mean values
82 (thick lines) \pm standard deviation (whiskers) are shown, and single-measurement data points are
83 represented as dots.

84 Seven putative ChRs constituting a new distinct phylogenetic branch in the ChR superfamily were
85 identified in contigs assembled from the *Tara* Oceans metagenomes (MerMAIDs in Fig. 1a).
86 However, the shortness of the assemblies (<10 kb) precluded taxonomic classification of the
87 contigs. These MerMAIDs appeared to be globally distributed in the oceans, most abundant at
88 stations near the equatorial Pacific and South Atlantic Oceans (Fig. 1b). The MerMAIDs were
89 primarily constrained to the photic zone (depth, 0–200 m), as previously reported for other
90 rhodopsins³¹ (Fig. S1).

91 Phylogenetically, the MerMAIDs appear more closely related to chlorophyte CCRs than
92 cryptophyte ACRs (Fig. 1a). However, sequence comparisons indicated that MerMAIDs might be
93 anion-conducting due to the lack of typical glutamate residues found in chlorophyte CCRs, though
94 also missing in cryptophyte CCRs (Fig. S2). To examine their function, we expressed MerMAIDs
95 in human embryonic kidney (HEK) cells and performed whole-cell voltage-clamp experiments at
96 1-day post transfection.

97 When excited with 500-nm light, MerMAID-expressing cells exhibited large photocurrents but in
98 contrast to all previously analyzed ChRs (Fig. 1c), MerMAIDs reveal almost complete
99 desensitization with continuous, bright light exposure (Figs. 1c,d and S3a,b). Maximum peak
100 photocurrent amplitudes reached up to 2 nA (MerMAID-6, Figs. 1e and S3c), but the current did

101 not saturate even at 10 mW/mm² (Fig. S3d). Transient photocurrent action spectra were recorded
 102 to determine the wavelength sensitivity of the MerMAIDs. All variants tested exhibited typical
 103 rhodopsin spectra, with maximal sensitivity close to 500 nm (Figs. 1f,g and S3e), as expected for
 104 marine organisms, given that blue light penetration is strongest within the photic zone in seawater
 105 (Fig. 1f).



106
 107 **Fig. 2 | Ion selectivity and kinetic properties of MerMAIDs.** a, Representative photocurrent
 108 traces of MerMAID1 elicited with 500 nm light (grey bar) at different holding potentials (−80 to
 109 +40 mV, in 20-mV steps, from bottom to top) before (left, grey) and after extracellular chloride
 110 reduction (right, cyan), as indicated. Insets show enlarged views of the remaining stationary

111 photocurrent. **b**, Current-voltage relationship of the MerMAID1 peak photocurrent at 150 mM
112 (grey) and 10 mM (cyan) extracellular chloride ($[Cl^-]_e$). Arrows indicate reversal potentials (E_{rev}).
113 **c**, Reversal potential shifts (ΔE_{rev}) upon reduction of $[Cl^-]_e$ for peak currents of all MerMAIDs as
114 well as the stationary current of MerMAID1. **d**, ΔE_{rev} values of MerMAID1 upon exchange of
115 external buffer. ΔE_{rev} of the theoretical Nernst potential for Cl^- is indicated as a dashed line (**c**, **d**).
116 **e**, Extracellular pH (pH_e) dependence of biphasic MerMAID1 desensitization kinetic. Inset shows
117 the time constants and their relative amplitudes to total decay. **f**, pH_e dependency of the apparent
118 desensitization time constant (τ_{des}) at -80 and $+40$ mV. **g**, Voltage dependency of τ_{des} for all
119 MerMAIDs in ms/mV. **h**, Double-light pulse experiment at -60 mV and pH_e 7.2 to determine the
120 peak current recovery time constant (τ_{rec}). **i**, pH_e dependency of MerMAID1 at -60 mV. **j**, Recovery
121 time constants of all MerMAID variants. Mean values (thick lines) \pm standard deviation (whiskers)
122 are shown, and single-measurement data points are represented as dots.

123 Next, we tested the ion selectivity of the MerMAIDs. Because we suspected anion selectivity, we
124 depleted the extracellular Cl^- from 150 mM to 10 mM while maintaining the intracellular Cl^- at
125 120 mM (Fig. 2a). This increased the inward current and induced an upshift of the reversal
126 potential (Fig. 2a,b), consistent with a Cl^- efflux. A similar shift close to the calculated Cl^- -Nernst
127 potential was obtained for all MerMAIDs (Figs. 2c and S4a), as well as for the small stationary
128 photocurrents of MerMAID1 (Figs. 2a,c and S4a). These data justified the classification of
129 MerMAIDs as ACRs.

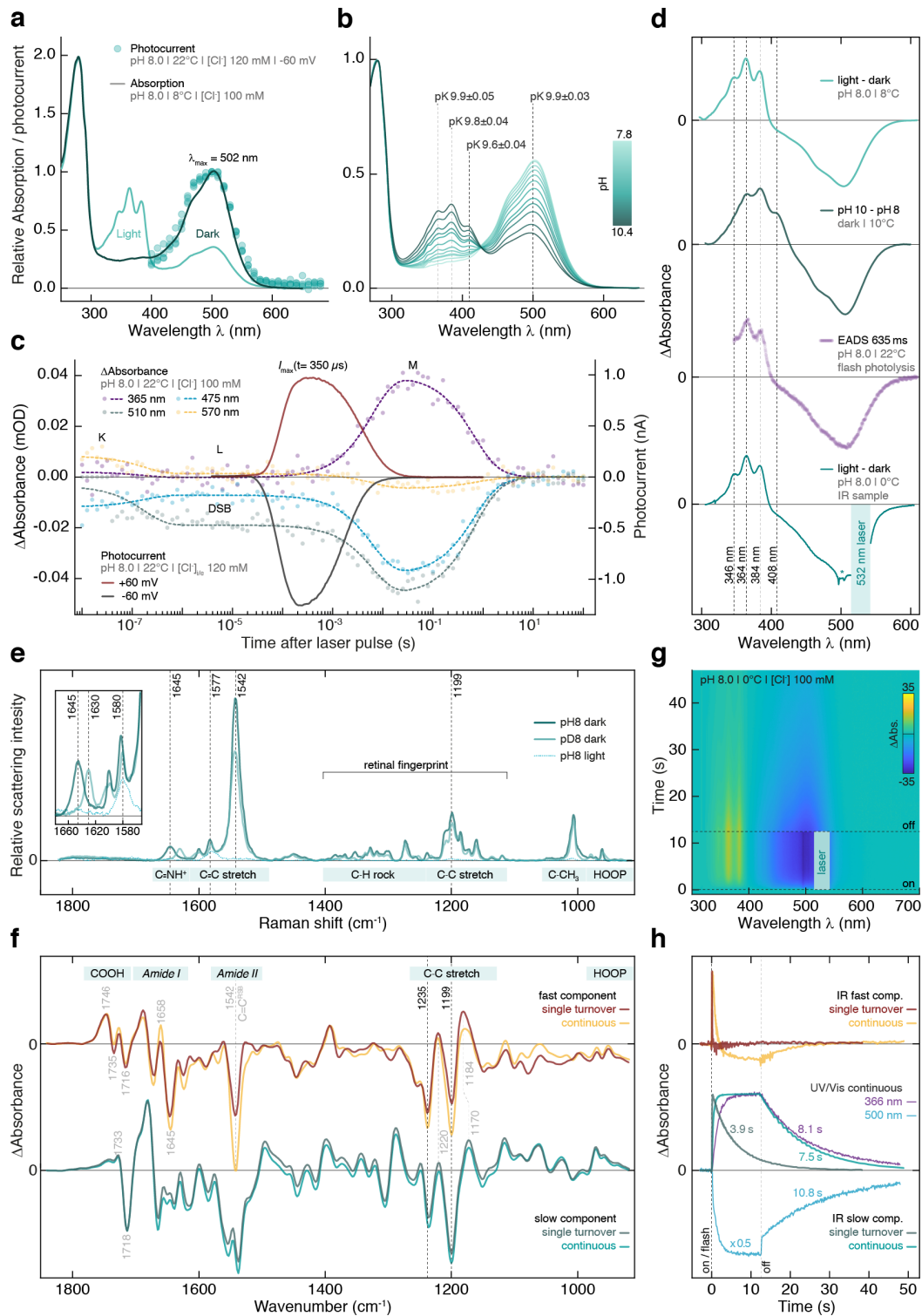
130 To evaluate the conductance of other anions, we performed ion substitution experiments using
131 MerMAID1 as a model. Replacement of Cl^- with Br^- or NO_3^- resulted in negative reversal potential
132 shifts (Figs. 2d and S4b), thus revealing nonselective anion conductivity, as previously reported
133 for other ACRs^{21,23}. In contrast, substitution of Na^+ with NMDG⁺, Ca^{2+} , or Mg^{2+} had only a slight
134 effect on reversal potentials (Fig. 2d and S4b), thereby excluding a substantial contribution by
135 cations as charge carriers.

136 Rhodopsin function often commonly involves de- and reprotonation of internal amino acids, and
137 pH changes can significantly affect photocurrent amplitude and kinetics^{4,9,18,19}. We therefore
138 investigated the effect of extra- and intracellular pH (pH_e and pH_i) changes on MerMAID1.
139 Variation of pH_e between 6.0 and 8.0 slightly altered the photocurrent amplitude (Fig. S4c) but not
140 the reversal potential (Figs. 2d and S4d), thus excluding proton transport. Neither pH_i nor pH_e

141 affected the desensitization time constant, τ_{des} (Figs. 2e,f and S4e-g). However, τ_{des} exhibit a
142 moderate voltage dependence (Figs. 2f,g and S4e,f). For MerMAID1,3-5, desensitization slowed
143 down with increasing holding potential whereas τ_{des} was accelerated for MerMAIDs 2, 6, and 7
144 (Fig. 2g). These groups correlated well with the two phylogenetic branches within the MerMAID
145 family (Fig. 1a), although the underlying molecular determinants of this difference remain
146 unknown.

147 To assess the photocycle turnover time (recovery kinetic time constant, τ_{rec}), we performed
148 double-pulse measurements at -60 mV (Fig. 2h) at different pH_e values. The peak current
149 recovered with $\tau_{rec}=1.21 \pm 0.03$ s for MerMAID1, and was unaffected by pH_e or pH_i changes
150 (Figs. 2i,j and S4h,i). Between the different MerMAIDs, τ_{rec} varied between 1.1 ± 0.2 s
151 (MerMAID2) and 6 ± 1 s (MerMAID6, Figs. 2j, and S4i).

152 To elucidate the desensitization mechanism, recombinant MerMAID1 was purified from *Pichia*
153 *pastoris* and analyzed by UV/vis and vibrational spectroscopy. Steady-state UV/vis absorption
154 spectra of dark-adapted MerMAID1 exhibited a prominent peak at 502 nm, consistent with the
155 photocurrent action spectra (Fig. 3a). Upon continuous illumination with green light, the 502-nm
156 dark-state absorption peak decreased, while a fine-structured, blue-shifted intermediate with sub-
157 maxima at 346, 364, and 384 nm accumulated in parallel (Fig. 3a,d). Similarly, alkalization
158 converted dark-adapted MerMAID1 into a more red-shifted, fine-structured UV-absorbing species,
159 consistent with a deprotonated 13-*cis* isomer in the M-state and deprotonated all-*trans* RSB dark
160 state³² that occurs with a pK value of approximately 9.8 (Figs. 3b,d and S5d).



161

162 **Fig. 3 | Spectroscopic characterization of purified MerMAID1.** **a**, Normalized UV/vis absorption
 163 spectra of dark-adapted and illuminated MerMAID1. Filled circles indicate single-measurement
 164 action spectra recordings, as shown in Figure 1f. **b**, Normalized UV/vis absorption spectra of

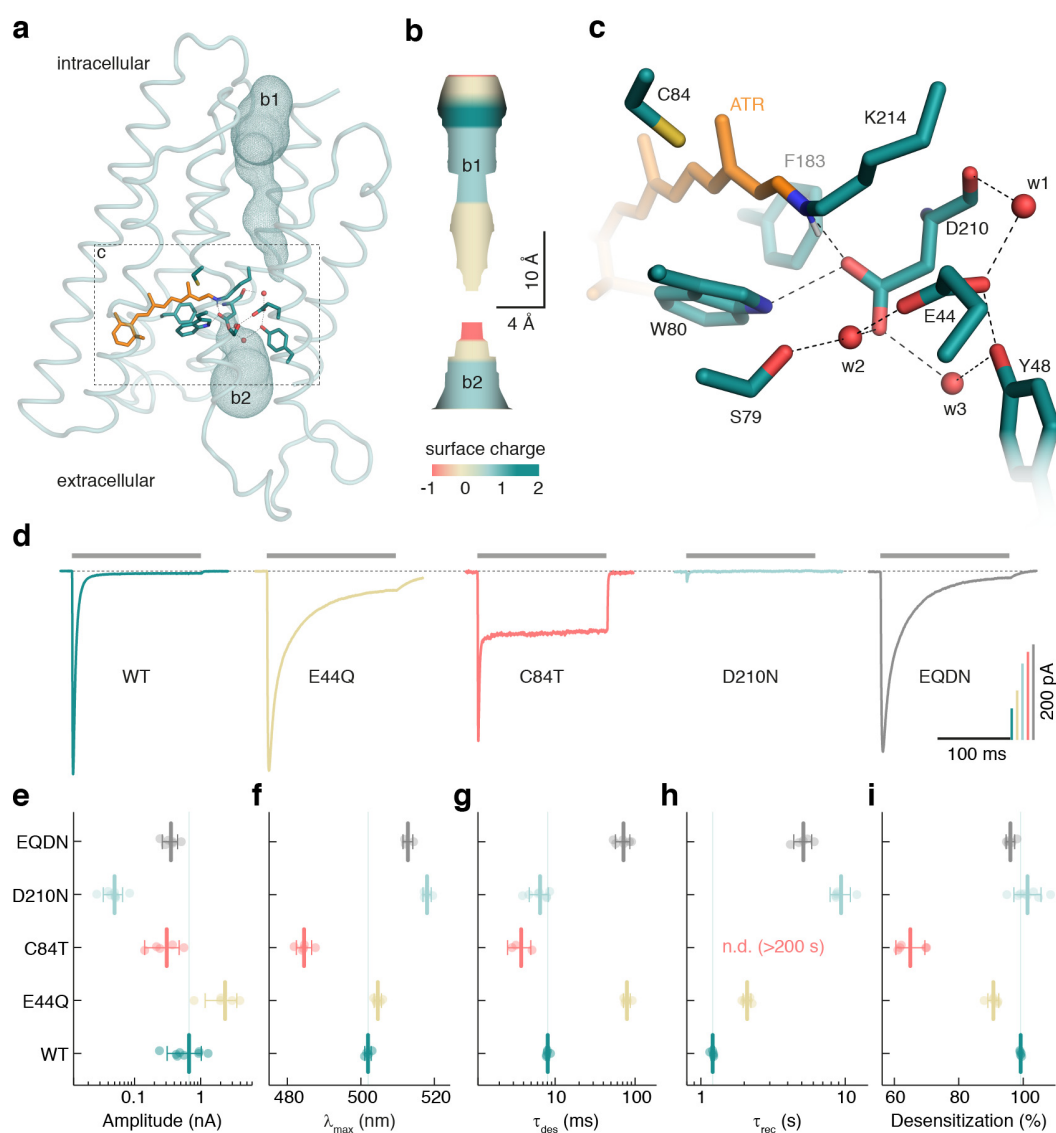
165 MerMAID1 at different pH values, titrated from pH 7.8 to 10.4. The pK values for specific
166 wavelengths are indicated. **c**, Transient absorption changes and electrophysiological recordings
167 obtained with single-turnover laser pulse excitation. **d**, Fine-structured difference absorption
168 spectra obtained from different experiments. (From top to bottom) light minus dark difference
169 spectra obtained from data shown in panel a, pH-difference spectra calculated from panel b data,
170 evolution-associated difference spectra (EADS) resulting from a global fit of the transient
171 absorption spectra and (bottom) light-minus-dark difference spectrum measured using the FTIR
172 sample shown in (**g**). Due to strong laser scattering, a portion of the spectral data is excluded for
173 the FTIR sample, and residual scattering is marked with an asterisk. **e**, Resonance Raman spectra
174 of dark-adapted MerMAID1 at pH/D 8 (recorded at 488 nm) as well as cryo-trapped and
175 illuminated protein sample at pH 8 (recorded at 413 nm). Inset: zoomed C=NH⁺ stretching region.
176 **f**, Kinetically decomposed FTIR light-minus-dark absorption of MerMAID1, recorded with single
177 turnover and continuous illumination at 0°C. Bands marked in grey are discussed in the
178 Supplementary Material **g**, Contour plot of transient absorption changes of the sample used in (**f**)
179 illuminated with a 532 nm continuous laser. **h**, Decay kinetics of the fast and slow FTIR
180 components obtained under single-turnover and continuous illumination conditions, respectively.
181 Kinetics at 366 and 500 nm obtained from the UV/vis spectroscopic measurements shown in (**g**)
182 are shown for comparison.

183 Single-turnover voltage-clamp experiments showed a maximum channel conductance 350 μ s
184 after ns-pulse laser excitation. Channel closing was biphasic, with a dominant fast component and
185 an apparent closing time constant (τ_{off}) of 2.7 ± 0.1 ms (Figs. 3c and S5a). Transient UV/vis
186 absorption spectra (Figs. 3c and S5b,c) revealed an early decaying (173 ns) K-like photoproduct
187 observed only briefly on our time scale. The evolution-associated difference spectrum (EADS) of
188 the subsequent L-intermediate is slightly blue shifted and to some extent broadened compared to
189 the dark-state spectrum (Fig. S5c), indicating closer proximity of the primary counterion to the
190 RSBH⁺ immediately prior to RSB deprotonation³³. Within 6 ms, the L-state converted to the M-
191 state, with concomitant deprotonation of the RSB, as indicated by the large blue shift coinciding
192 with channel closure (Figs. 3c and S5a,b). The transient M-state EADS was similarly fine-
193 structured as observed for continuous photo activation (Fig. 3d), indicating accumulation of the M-
194 state during sustained light exposure.

195 To assess potential retinal chromophore isoforms of MerMAID1, we performed resonance Raman
196 (RR) spectroscopy at 80 K. Excitation of dark-adapted MerMAID1 at 488 or 514 nm produced
197 identical RR spectra (Fig. S5e), indicating structural homogeneity of the chromophore. The

198 vibrational band pattern in the retinal fingerprint region (1100–1400 cm^{-1}) was characteristic of an
199 *all-trans* RSB^{34,35} (Fig. 3e). Upon proton/deuterium exchange, the C=N stretching mode
200 downshifted from 1645 to 1630 cm^{-1} (inset Fig. 3e), indicative of a weakly hydrogen-bonded³⁶
201 protonated RSB^{34,35}. RR spectra of photoactivated MerMAID1 cryo-trapped in the M-state and
202 excited at 413 nm exhibited a prominent band at 1577 cm^{-1} attributable to a 13-*cis* configuration
203 of the chromophore with deprotonated RSB³⁷. RR spectra of dark-adapted MerMAID1 probed with
204 488 or 413 nm at pH 10 were similar to spectra of dark- and light-adapted MerMAID1 at pH 8 (Fig.
205 S5e). Notably, strong bands in the C=C stretching region at ca. 1540 and 1577 cm^{-1} indicated a
206 mixture of two chromophore isomers, corresponding to the protonated and deprotonated *all-trans*
207 RSB of the dark state at high pH. Thus, RR spectra confirmed that MerMAID1 undergoes *all-trans*
208 to 13-*cis* retinal isomerization and deprotonation of the RSB during illumination and may
209 deprotonate at high pH in the dark.

210 Time-resolved Fourier-transform infrared (FTIR) spectra were collected at pH 8.0 and 0 °C to
211 examine the light-driven molecular processes of MerMAID1 under single-turnover conditions and
212 continuous illumination (Fig. 3f,h), with parallel UV/vis observation of M-state formation (Fig. 3g,
213 h). Kinetic decomposition of light-dark FTIR difference spectra revealed highly similar fast and
214 slow spectral components for both single-turnover and continuous illumination, respectively
215 (Fig. 3f). At both conditions, the slow FTIR component relaxed to the dark state mono-
216 exponentially, within seconds (Fig. 3h) and was assigned to the late M-state that accumulated with
217 continuous illumination (Fig. 3g,h) without formation of other photoproducts. This assignment was
218 supported by data for the retinal fingerprint region that—similar to the RR data—indicated *all-trans*
219 to 13-*cis* retinal isomerization as the only photoreaction based on the negative bands at 1235(-)
220 and 1199(-) cm^{-1} . The fast FTIR spectral components resembled the short-lived conducting L-
221 state preceding the late M-intermediate, as inferred from the comparable decay kinetics (see
222 Supplemental Discussion).

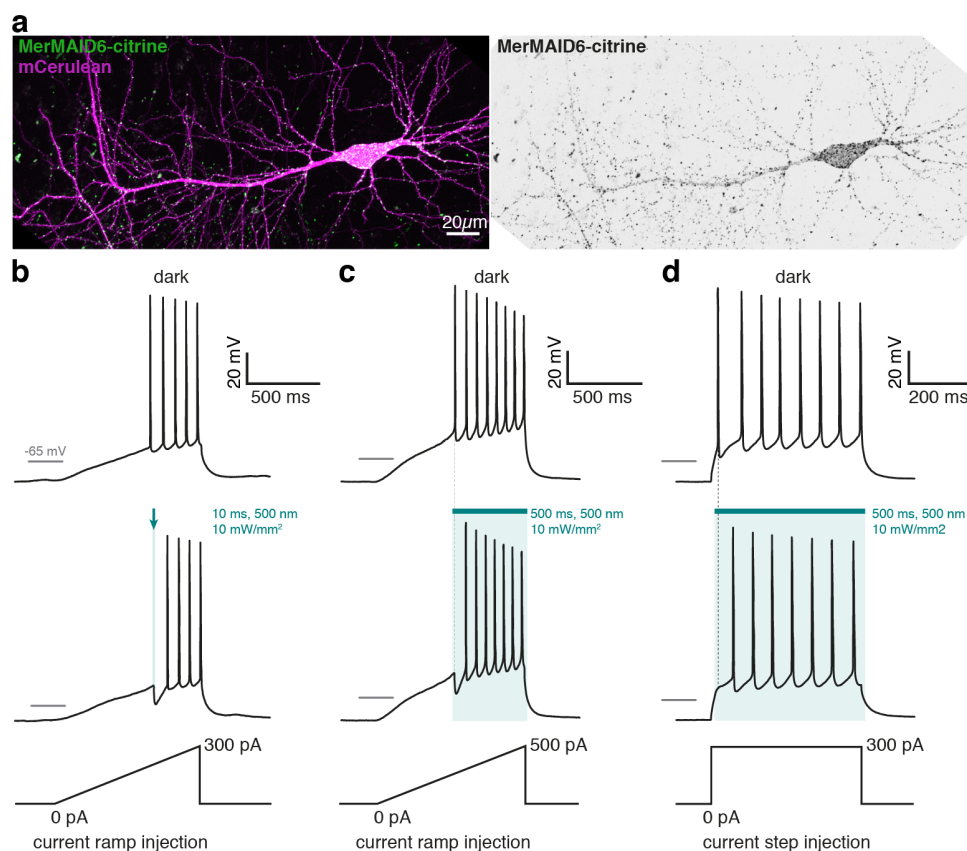


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224 **Fig. 4 | MD simulations and mutational analysis of MerMAID1.** **a**, Overview of the MD
 225 simulation homology model of MerMAID1 in the dark. The predicted ion permeation pathway is
 226 shown as mesh (b1, b2), and ribbons represent the protein backbone. **b**, Electrostatic surface
 227 potential of the predicted chloride permeation pathway. **c**, Detailed view of the active-site residues,
 228 with amino acids shown as cyan sticks and the all-*trans* retinal (ATR) in orange. Red spheres
 229 denote water molecules that remained stable during MD simulation. **d**, Representative
 230 photocurrent traces of wild-type (WT) MerMAID1 and selected MerMAID1 mutants recorded at
 231 -60 mV. Photocurrent amplitudes (**e**), λ_{\max} (**f**), apparent τ_{des} of the peak current (**g**),
 232 recovery time constant, τ_{rec} (**h**), and extent of desensitization (**i**) of WT MerMAID1 and indicated mutants. Mean
 233 values (thick lines) \pm standard deviation (whiskers) are shown, and single-measurement data
 234 points are represented as dots.

235 Site-directed mutagenesis guided by MD simulations and probed by electrophysiological
236 recordings were conducted to further examine the molecular mechanism for the intense
237 desensitization of the MerMAIDs. For MD simulations, a MerMAID1 homology model was
238 constructed based on the iC++ crystal structure³⁸ and embedded in a phospholipid bilayer (Figs.
239 4a and S6a). The D210, E44, W80, and Y48 side chains located near the protonated Schiff base
240 (Fig. 4a,c) maintained their relative positions during a 100-ns MD simulation. The orientation and
241 distances of these residues changed only slightly with inflowing water (Fig. S6d-f). Possible ion
242 translocation pathways were calculated using MOLEonline³⁹. Figure 4a,b shows the most likely
243 ion pathway based on surface charge considerations (Fig. S6b,c). Extracellularly, MerMAID1 is
244 accessible via a narrowing tunnel that is disrupted by W80, D210, and the RSB (Fig. 4a,b).
245 Intracellularly, another ion pathway is formed leading from the protein surface almost to the Schiff
246 base, disconnected only by a short hydrophobic barrier. In our model, the carboxylic residues of
247 the active site complex (E44 and D210) were deprotonated based on pK_a calculations (Fig. 4c,
248 pK_a <5.5). D210, which acts as closest counterion (2.6 Å) to the Schiff base nitrogen, primarily
249 stabilizes the RSB proton (Fig. 4c). The carboxyl group of D210 also interacts with S79, Y48, and
250 E44 via two water molecules, whereas E44 hydrogen bonds directly to Y48 and is linked to the
251 backbone oxygen of D210 via another water molecule (Fig. 4c). When the counterion D210 is
252 neutralized (D210N), photocurrents are drastically reduced (Fig. 4d,e), λ_{\max} was 16 nm red-shifted
253 (Fig. 4f), and the recovery kinetics decelerated markedly (Fig. 4h). Elimination of the more distant
254 E44 via an E44Q mutation caused only a 3 nm bathochromic action-spectrum shift (Fig. 4f),
255 increased the photocurrent amplitudes (Fig. 4f), decelerated desensitization by a factor of 10
256 (Fig. 4d,g) and slightly reduced the extent of desensitization (Fig. 4i). Replacement of both acidic
257 residues (E44Q-D210N) only halved photocurrent amplitudes (Fig. 4e) and shifted λ_{\max} to
258 513 ± 1 nm (Fig. 4f), suggesting rearrangement of the hydrogen bond network around the RSB.
259 Desensitization remained strong (Fig. 4i), but the kinetics slowed, similar to the E44Q mutation
260 alone (Fig. 4g).

261 Neutralization of E44 increased the stationary current only slightly (Fig. 4i), whereas we identified
262 C84 (the *CrChR2* C128 homolog) as a crucial determinant of the inactivation process. The C84T
263 mutant exhibited a decreased peak current amplitude but markedly increased stationary
264 photocurrent (Fig. 4d,e), resulting in only 65 ± 5 % desensitization (Fig. 4d,i) and minimally altered
265 desensitization kinetics (Fig. 4d,g). In contrast, we observed no peak current recovery within a
266 time period of 200 s. As suggested by our model structure and the pronounced 17 nm blue-shifted
267 λ_{\max} (Fig. 4f), C84 is located near the retinal polyene chain and the C13 methyl group (Fig. 4a,c).
268 In MerMAIDs, this cysteine cannot serve as a link between helices 3 and 4 as discussed for
269 bacteriorhodopsin^{40,41} and CCRs^{42,43} due to the absence of a hydrogen-bonding partner in helix 4
270 (Fig. S2). C84 might stabilize the deprotonated RSB within the anion permeation pathway instead,
271 thereby disrupting further ion conduction via charge repulsion of the deprotonated RSB during the
272 photocycle.



273

274 **Fig. 5 | Neuronal application of MerMAID6 as optogenetic silencer.** **a**, CA1 pyramidal neuron
275 expressing MerMAID6-Citrine (green) 5 days after electroporation (stitched maximum intensity
276 projections of two-photon images). mCerulean (magenta) was co-electroporated to visualize
277 neuronal morphology (left). Fluorescence intensity shown as inverted gray values (right). **b** and **c**,
278 Voltage traces in response to depolarizing current ramps injected into MerMAID6-expressing CA1
279 pyramidal cells. Illumination with green light (500 nm, 10mW/mm²) for a brief (10 ms, **b**) or longer
280 (500 ms, **c**) time period blocked single spikes. Light onset preceded action potential onset
281 (measured in the dark condition) by 5 ms. **d**, Same as (**c**) but a depolarizing current step of 300
282 pA was injected into the neuron instead of a current ramp.

283 Finally, we evaluated the utility of MerMAIDs as optogenetic tools for inhibiting neuronal activity.
284 As MerMAID6 exhibited the highest photocurrent in HEK cells (Fig. 1e), we generated a Citrine-
285 labeled MerMAID6 variant and co-expressed it with mCerulean as a volume marker. MerMAID6-
286 Citrine expression was readily detected in CA1 pyramidal neurons of hippocampal slice cultures
287 4 to 5 days after single-cell electroporation. We observed membrane-localized MerMAID6
288 expression, with some fraction of the protein displaying a speckled cellular distribution (Fig. 5a).
289 However, illumination triggered high transmembrane photocurrents with biophysical properties
290 similar to those observed in HEK cells (Fig. S8). The large, transient photocurrents observed in
291 neurons led us to hypothesize that MerMAID6 could be used to block single action potentials (APs)
292 with high temporal precision and without affecting subsequent APs in the presence of light. We
293 first injected a depolarizing current ramp into the soma to precisely determine the rheobase for AP
294 firing in the dark. A 10 ms light pulse synchronized with the first AP that occurred during darkness
295 eliminated generation of this AP (Fig. 5b). We then applied a 500 ms light pulse synchronized to
296 the time of onset of the first AP lasting throughout the remainder of the current ramp (Fig. 5c) or a
297 depolarizing current step (Fig. 5d), MerMAID6 suppressed generation of the first AP, without
298 affecting the following ones due to rapid accumulation of the desensitized and non-conducting
299 state during extended illumination. Similarly, selective inhibition of a single AP was achieved with
300 MerMAID1 (Fig. S7), demonstrating that photoactivated MerMAID1 and 6 provide efficient and
301 temporally precise inhibition of neuronal activity.

302

303 **Discussion**

304 We extensively characterized the biophysical properties of the MerMAIDs, a new family of ChRs
305 identified from metagenomic data. All MerMAIDs share similar activity maxima optimal for sensing
306 light in moderate-depth seawater. Similar to other recently discovered natural ACRs²³, MerMAIDs
307 selectively conduct anions. Distinct from all other ChRs, MerMAIDs exhibit almost complete
308 desensitization during exposure to continuous bright light. However, the environmental advantage
309 of near-complete desensitization compared with non-inactivating ACRs is unclear.

310 After photon absorption, the MerMAID1 chromophore isomerizes from *all-trans* to *13-cis*, as
311 demonstrated by RR and FTIR spectroscopy. We hypothesize that the RSBH⁺ dipole changes
312 orientation and distance with respect to the nearby D210, as evidenced by formation of the L-
313 intermediate, analogous to bacteriorhodopsin³³. The K→L transition and formation of the open
314 state is accompanied by minimal protein backbone changes that induce changes in hydrogen
315 bonding and side-chain pK values, presumably involving the active-site residues D210 and E44.
316 Maximum channel conductivity, reached within 350 μs, is UV/vis spectroscopically almost silent.
317 Channel closing proceeds concurrently with RSB deprotonation, leading to M-intermediate
318 formation, similar to cryptophyte ACRs^{24,44} but in contrast to chlorophyte CCRs, in which M-state
319 formation precedes channel opening^{45,46}. These observations suggest that the positively charged
320 protonated RSB is part of the chloride conducting pathway, consistent with the calculated ion
321 permeation pathway along the counter-ion complex, similar to crystal structures of *Guillardia theta*
322 ACR1 (*GtACR1*)^{38,47}. Chloride flux in MerMAID1 is interrupted by charge repulsion following
323 deprotonation of the Schiff base. In the final photocycle step, MerMAID1 structurally rearranges,
324 the RSB reprotonates, and the initial dark state is fully repopulated within seconds.

325 The observation that photocurrent kinetics were not affected by intra- or extracellular pH changes
326 suggests that the RSB proton remains within the central active-site complex during the photocycle,
327 as recently reported for heliorhodopsins³¹. D210 is the primary counterion of the RSB in

328 MerMAID1, but both carboxylic residues (E44 and D210) participate in de- and reprotonation of
329 the MerMAID1 chromophore, as neutralization of either one or both residues affects formation of
330 the conductive or desensitized state. However, retention of function of the E44Q-D210N double
331 mutant suggests the possibility of alternative proton acceptor and donor sites.

332 The unique desensitization of the MerMAIDs can be explained by the accumulation of the blue-
333 shifted M-intermediate during constant photoactivation. Because the non-conducting M-
334 intermediate is formed within milliseconds and decays only within hundreds of milliseconds, the
335 current declines to 1 % in continuous light. This mechanism is consistent with an M-state that
336 cannot be photochemically converted back to the dark state (Fig. S5g,h). As discussed in previous
337 reports, decline of CrChR2 photocurrents upon continuous illumination is due to both, the
338 accumulation of late non-conducting photocycle intermediates and population of a parallel (*syn*-)
339 photocycle with an only weakly conducting open state⁷⁻⁹. The accumulation of a late photocycle
340 intermediate is the dominant mechanism in MerMAID1, as demonstrated by FTIR spectroscopy;
341 no parallel photocycle is needed to explain the strong inactivation.

342 We found that replacing C84 in MerMAID1 decreases the peak photocurrent but increases
343 stationary photocurrents, thus reducing the extent of desensitization, possibly due to either a
344 prolonged L-state or a shortened recovery from the M- to the initial dark state. C84 could have
345 dual functions in wild-type MerMAID1: i) stabilizing the deprotonated RSB to retain the repulsing
346 charge in the ion pathway and block the channel; ii) suppression of C=N *anti* to *syn* isomerization
347 and population of parallel *syn*-photocycles as discussed for CrChR2¹⁰.

348 Another unusual feature of MerMAID1 are the fine-structured absorption spectra of both the
349 deprotonated all-*trans* RSB in the dark at alkaline pH and the 13-*cis* retinal of the M-state. Such
350 unusual spectra have been reported for other microbial rhodopsins after retro-retinal formation
351 upon reduction with borohydride⁴⁸ or hydrolysis of the RSB⁴⁹. In both cases, the UV fine structure
352 results from immobility of the deprotonated chromophore, which is typically more pronounced at

353 deep temperatures^{50,51}. Alkalization-induced fine-structured spectra were reported for eACRs³⁸
354 and wild-type and mutant nACRs⁴⁴ and suggested to result from RSB hydrolysis³⁸ or protein
355 denaturation⁵². However, in *GtACR1*, the covalent bond between the retinal and the Schiff base-
356 forming lysine is not broken at high pH. Instead, the RSB deprotonates and adopts an M-like
357 configuration⁵³. RR spectra of MerMAID1 at pH 10 (Fig. S5e) suggested that the retinal is similarly
358 deprotonated and adopts a rigid configuration in all-*trans* instead of 13-*cis*, as in the M-state.

359 MerMAID1 and 6 effectively inhibited neuronal activity with high temporal precision. Due to the
360 unique desensitization of the MerMAIDs under continuous illumination, single APs can be blocked
361 at the onset of illumination without affecting subsequent neuronal spiking. Hence, MerMAIDs could
362 serve as transient optogenetic silencers to inhibit individual APs with high precision in combination
363 with subsequent imaging of spectrally overlapping reporters of neuronal activity. MerMAIDs would
364 thus facilitate continuous monitoring of neuronal activity subsequent to short-duration inhibition at
365 the same wavelength.

366 The identification of the entirely new ChR family fortifies the value of metagenomic data for the
367 discovery of novel photoreceptor proteins potentially applicable as optogenetic tools. The initial
368 in-depth characterization of MerMAIDs will foster the generation of ChRs with novel biophysical
369 properties and lead to deeper understanding of the working principles of rhodopsins.

370 **Methods**

371 *Identification of novel channelrhodopsins and metagenomics data analysis*

372 Novel channelrhodopsin variants were identified using full-length *CrChR1* and *CrChR2* amino acid
373 sequences (GenBank: AAL08946.1, and NCBI reference sequence: XP_001701725.1,
374 respectively) as queries for tblastn 2.6.0 analysis⁵⁴ against a database of contigs assembled from
375 the *Tara Oceans* metagenomic datasets of bacterial⁵⁵, viral⁵⁶, and girus⁵⁷ samples. The
376 assemblies were generated as described elsewhere⁵⁸.

377 MerMAID abundance in the marine environment was estimated using the Ocean Gene Atlas⁵⁹
378 after mining the Ocean Microbial Reference Gene Catalog⁵⁵. A collection of representative
379 microbial rhodopsin protein sequences from distinct subfamilies containing the MerMAIDs was
380 aligned using the MAFFT online server (ver. 7)⁶⁰. The alignment was used to generate a Hidden
381 Markov Model (HMM) using hmmbuild from the HMMER 3.1b2 suite⁶¹. The HMM served as the
382 query in the Ocean Gene Atlas⁵⁹ or an HMMER-based search with default parameters against the
383 Ocean Microbial Reference Gene Catalog. The Ocean Gene Atlas results for abundances and
384 homologs were stored locally for further analysis.

385 Protein homologs from the Ocean Gene Atlas and MerMAIDs were pooled and aligned using the
386 MAFFT web server. MAFFT multiple sequence alignment was used to identify those homologs
387 phylogenetically closer to the MerMAIDs and were tagged as MerMAID-like. Ocean Gene Atlas
388 abundance data were parsed using a custom R script to calculate the ratio of ACR-like proteins
389 to total rhodopsins in each *Tara* Oceans sample. The MerMAID-like/total rhodopsin ratio was
390 coupled with environmental metadata from the *Tara* Oceans samples to generate depth profiles
391 and distribution maps using the R packages maps⁶², ggplot2⁶³, and ggalt⁶⁴.

392 The phylogenetic tree was generated using phylogeny.fr⁶⁵ and the sequence alignment using
393 Clustal X⁶⁶. The sequence alignment was visualized using the ENDscript 2 web server⁶⁷, and the
394 alignment was cropped to include the transmembrane regions of selected ChRs.

395 *Molecular biology and protein purification*

396 Human/mouse codon-optimized sequences encoding MerMAIDs were synthesized (GenScript,
397 Piscataway, NJ) and cloned into the p-mCherry-C1 vector using *NheI* and *AgeI* restriction sites
398 (FastDigest, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA) for electrophysiologic recordings in HEK293
399 cells. Due to incomplete metagenomic data, a methionine was added as start codon for MerMAID1
400 and MerMAID4. Site-directed mutagenesis was performed using *Pfu* polymerase (Agilent

401 Technologies, Santa Clara, CA). MerMAID1 and MerMAID6 cDNAs were subcloned into neuron-
402 specific expression vectors (pAAV backbone, human synapsin promoter) in frame with Citrine
403 cDNA using Gibson assembly⁶⁸. For expression in *Pichia pastoris*, the MerMAID1 gene was
404 subcloned with a C-terminal TEV protease restriction site and a 6× His-Tag into the pPicZ vector
405 (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA). ZeocinTM-resistant positive clones were selected from electroporation-
406 transformed yeast cells. Expression of MerMAID1 in precultured cells was induced with
407 2.5% methanol in presence of 5 μM all-*trans* retinal for 24 h. Cells were harvested by
408 centrifugation and resuspended in breaking buffer (50 mM NaPO₄, 1 mM EDTA, 1 mM PMSF,
409 5% glycerol [pH 7.4]) and disrupted by high pressure using a French press (G. Heinemann
410 Ultraschall und Labortechnik, Schwäbisch Gmünd, Germany). The membrane fraction was
411 collected, homogenized, and solubilized overnight at 4°C in 100 mM NaCl, 20 mM Tris-HCl,
412 20 mM imidazole, 1 mM PMSF, 5 μM all-*trans* retinal, and 1% (*w/v*) dodecyl maltoside (DDM).
413 Recombinant rhodopsin was purified by affinity chromatography (HisTrapTM FF Crude column, GE
414 Healthcare Life Science, Chicago, IL) and gel filtration (HiPrepTM 26/10 desalting, GE Healthcare
415 Life Science). Before elution, an additional washing step with buffer containing 50 mM imidazole
416 was performed. Purified protein was concentrated and stored in 100 mM NaCl, 20 mM Tris-HCl
417 (pH 8), and 0.05% DDM.

418 *Electrophysiology in HEK293 cells*

419 HEK293 cell culture and electrophysiologic experiments were performed as described
420 previously^{22,69}. Cells were supplemented with 1 μM all-*trans* retinal, seeded at a density of
421 1×10^5 /ml on poly-D-lysine-coated coverslips, and transiently transfected using Fugene HD
422 (Promega, Madison, WI). At 1 to 2 days post-transfection, whole-cell patch-clamp recordings were
423 performed at 24 °C. The resistance of fire-polished patch pipettes was 1.5–2.5 MΩ, and a
424 140 mM NaCl agar bridge served as the reference electrode. Membrane resistance was generally
425 ≥ 1 GΩ, and the access resistance was < 10 MΩ. Signals were amplified (AxoPatch200B), digitized

426 (DigiData400), and acquired using Clampex 10.4 (all from Molecular Devices, Sunnyvale, CA).
427 Light from a Polychrome V (TILL Photonics, Planegg, Germany) with 7 nm bandwidth was
428 channeled into an Axiovert 100 microscope (Carl Zeiss, Jena, Germany) controlled via a
429 programmable shutter system (VS25 and VCM-D1; Vincent Associates, Rochester, NY). Light
430 intensity was measured in the sample plane using a calibrated optometer (P9710; Gigahertz Optik,
431 Türkenfeld, Germany) and calculated for the illuminated field of the W Plan-Apochromat 40×/1.0
432 DIC objective (0.066 mm², Carl Zeiss). Final buffer osmolarity was set with glucose to 320 mOsm
433 (extracellular) or 290 mOsm (intracellular), and the pH was adjusted using N-methyl-D-glucamine
434 or citric acid. Liquid junction potentials were calculated (Clampex 10.4) and corrected. For ion
435 selectivity measurements, extracellular buffers (supplementary table S1) were exchanged in
436 random order by adding at least 3 ml to the measuring chamber (volume ~0.5 ml). Fluid level was
437 kept constant using an MPCU bath handler (Lorentz Messgerätebau, Katlenburg-Lindau,
438 Germany). MerMAID photocurrents were induced for 500 ms and recorded between -80 and
439 +40 mV in 20-mV steps. Low-intensity light between 390 and 680 nm was applied in 10-nm steps
440 for 10 ms at -60 mV to generate action spectra. Equal photon irradiance at all wavelengths was
441 achieved using a motorized neutral-density filter wheel (Newport, Irvine, CA) in the light path,
442 controlled by custom software written in LabVIEW (National Instruments, Austin, TX). For light
443 titration experiments, photocurrents were induced for 2 s at -60 mV, and light was attenuated
444 using ND filters (SCHOTT, Mainz, Germany) inserted into the light path using a motorized,
445 software-controlled filter wheel (FW212C, Thorlabs, Newton, NJ). Single-turnover experiments
446 were performed with the above mentioned setup described elsewhere^{10,70}. An Opolette HE 355
447 LD Nd:YAG laser/OPO system (OPOTEK, Carlsbad, CA) served as pulsed laser light source.

448 *UV-Vis Spectroscopy*

449 Steady-state absorption spectra were recorded using a Cary 300 UV/vis spectrophotometer
450 (Varian Inc., Palo Alto, USA) or UV-2600 UV/vis spectrophotometer (Shimadzu, Kyōto, Japan) at

451 a spectral resolution of 1 nm in buffer containing 100 mM NaCl, 20 mM Tris, and 0.05% DDM
452 (pH 8). Light-adapted absorption spectra were acquired by illuminating the sample with a 530 nm
453 LED with a 520 ± 15 nm filter. For pH titration experiments, small volumes of 1 M NaOH were
454 added to samples in titration buffer (100 mM NaCl, 10 mM BTP, 10 mM CAPS, 0.05% DDM
455 [pH 7.5]). The pH was measured using pH microelectrodes (SI Analytics, Mainz, Germany). The
456 transient absorption spectroscopic measurements shown in Figure S5b,c were performed as
457 previously reported²⁴ at 22°C using a modified LKS.60 flash-photolysis system (Applied
458 Photophysics Ltd., Leatherhead, UK). For sample excitation, the laser pulse was tuned to 500 nm
459 using a tunable optical parametric oscillator (MagicPrism, OPOTEK), which was pumped with the
460 third harmonic of a Nd:YAG laser (BrilliantB, Quantel, Les Ulis, France). The laser energy was
461 adjusted to 5 mJ/shot and pulse duration of 10 ns. A 150-W xenon lamp (Osram, München,
462 Germany) was used to monitor changes in absorption. Transient spectra were recorded in multi-
463 wavelength data sets at a resolution of 0.4 nm using an Andor iStar ICCD camera (DH734; Andor
464 Technology Ltd, Belfast, Ireland). Spectra were recorded at 101 different time points between
465 10 ns and 100 s (10 points per decade, isologarithmically). To ensure complete recovery of the
466 dark state, samples were kept in the dark for 120 s before the subsequent recording. For the
467 transient absorption spectra shown in Figure 3h, FTIR samples were used. Spectra were recorded
468 using an Ocean FX array detector (Ocean Optics, Largo, FL) with a spectral resolution of 2.4 nm
469 and integration time of 50 ms. Samples were illuminated using a 50 mW continuous-wave LASER
470 emitting 532-nm light (no. 37028, Edmund Optics, York, UK).

471 *FTIR spectroscopy*

472 To prepare samples for FTIR, 10 μ l of initial protein solution (>20 mg/ml, 100 mM NaCl, 20 mM
473 Tris, 0.05% DDM [pH 8]) was dried stepwise on a BaF₂ window under a stream of dry air and
474 subsequently rehydrated. Samples were then sealed with a second BaF₂ window. To ensure
475 constant sample thickness, a 3- μ m PTFE spacer was placed between the windows. For

476 deuteration, the protein solution was washed at least five times with deuterium buffer (100 mM
477 NaCl, 20 mM Tris, 0.05% DDM [pD 8]) using Centricon filters and subsequently illuminated using
478 white light to improve deuteration inside the opened channel. FTIR spectra were acquired at 0°C
479 using a Vertex 80v FTIR spectrometer (Bruker Optics, Karlsruhe, Germany) equipped with a liquid
480 nitrogen-cooled MCT detector (Kolmar Technologies, Newburyport, MA). The spectrometer was
481 operated in rapid scan mode with a data acquisition rate of 300 kHz and spectral resolution of
482 8 cm^{-1} . An optical cutoff filter at 1850 cm^{-1} was used in the beamline. After at least 60 min for
483 equilibration, samples were continuously illuminated using a set of green-light LEDs with an
484 emission maximum of 520 nm. Single-turnover illumination was performed using a 10-Hz pulsed
485 Nd:YAG Powerlite 9010 LASER as the pump source for a Horizon II optical parametric oscillator
486 (Continuum, San Jose, CA) set to 530 nm. The pulse width of the setup was approximately
487 $5 \pm 2\text{ ns}$, with an energy output of approximately 60 mJ. The time resolution was 6 ms (achieved
488 by operation in forward-backward mode and splitting of the interferogram).

489 *RR spectroscopy*

490 RR spectra were acquired with excitation lines of an Ar⁺ (514 nm, 488 nm) and Kr⁺ laser (413 nm)
491 (Coherent, Santa Clara CA). Raman signals were detected in a backscattering configuration
492 (180°) using a confocal LabRamHR spectrometer (Horiba, Villeneuve, France) equipped with a
493 liquid nitrogen-cooled CCD detector. The spectral resolution was approximately 2 cm^{-1} . Typical
494 total accumulation time and laser power at the sample were 30 min and 1 mW, respectively. Low-
495 temperature measurements at 80K were carried out with a Linkam cryostat (Linkam Scientific
496 Instruments, Surrey, UK). Samples were inserted into the cell under dimmed red light in order to
497 avoid photoactivation before freezing.

498 *MD simulations*

499 Classical MD simulations were prepared based on a SWISS homology model⁷¹ of MerMAID1 on
500 iC++ at pH 8.5 (PDB 6CSN). The iC++ structure was chosen as template as it showed the best
501 combined quality features for structural prediction (best coverage and QMQE [0.61 together with
502 PDB 6CSM], 2nd best QSQE [0.27 vs. 0.28 with PDB 4YZI], and 3rd best identity [32.69% vs.
503 35.61% with PDB 6EID]). The model was prepared using CHARMM-GUI⁷² for the resting state of
504 MerMAID1 with standard protonation for all amino acids. The MerMAID1 monomer was embedded
505 inside a 60 × 60 Å, homogeneous, 1,2-dimyristoyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphocholine bilayer
506 membrane and solvated using a TIP3 water box, adding 10 Å to both the top and bottom of the
507 protein. Systems were simulated under *NPT* conditions using a 2 fs time step, a 303.15 K heat
508 bath, the particle-mesh Ewald method for long-range electrostatics, and the CHARMM36 force
509 field⁷³. pK_a calculations for all titratable amino acids of MerMAID1 were performed using APBS⁷⁴
510 in a conformational space of three pH-adapted conformations (PACs) and the Monte Carlo
511 procedure of Karlsberg2+^{75,76} to sample all residues. PACs were created using Karlsberg2+ in a
512 self-consistent cycle including adjustment of protonation patterns of titratable amino acids and salt
513 bridge opening according to pH -10, 7, or 20. To calculate pK_a values for MerMAID1 MD frames,
514 only the holoprotein structure was used. Lipids and water molecules were substituted with
515 continuum solvation. Ion channels were predicted using MOLEonline³⁹.

516 *Neuronal recordings and two-photon microscopy*

517 Organotypic slice cultures of rat hippocampus were prepared as described⁷⁷ and transfected by
518 single-cell electroporation⁷⁸ after 14-16 days in vitro (DIV). Plasmids were each diluted to 1 ng/μl
519 in K-gluconate-based solution consisting of (in mM): 135 K-gluconate, 4 MgCl₂, 4 Na₂-ATP, 0.4
520 Na-GTP, 10 Na₂-phosphocreatine, 3 ascorbate, 0.02 Alexa Fluor 594, and 10 HEPES (pH 7.2).
521 An Axoporation 800A (Molecular Devices) was used to deliver 50 hyperpolarizing pulses (-12 mV,
522 0.5 ms) at 50 Hz. At DIV 19-21, targeted patch-clamp recordings of transfected neurons were
523 performed under visual guidance using a BX 51WI microscope (Olympus, Shinjuku, Japan)

524 equipped with Dodt-gradient contrast and a Double IPA integrated patch amplifier controlled with
525 SutterPatch software (Sutter Instrument, Novato, CA). Patch pipettes with a tip resistance of 3-
526 4 M Ω were filled with intracellular solution consisting of (in mM): 135 K-gluconate, 4 MgCl₂, 4 Na₂-
527 ATP, 0.4 Na-GTP, 10 Na₂-phosphocreatine, 3 ascorbate, 0.2 EGTA, and 10 HEPES (pH 7.2).
528 Artificial cerebrospinal fluid (ACSF) consisted of (in mM): 135 NaCl, 2.5 KCl, 2 CaCl₂, 1 MgCl₂, 10
529 Na-HEPES, 12.5 D-glucose, 1.25 NaH₂PO₄ (pH 7.4). Synaptic currents were blocked with 10 μ M
530 CPPene, 10 μ M NBQX, and 100 μ M picrotoxin (Tocris, Bristol, UK). Measurements were
531 corrected for a liquid junction potential of -14.5 mV. A 16 channel pE-4000 LED light engine
532 (CoolLED, Andover, UK) was used for epifluorescence excitation and delivery of light pulses for
533 optogenetic stimulation (ranging from 385-635 nm). Light intensity was measured in the object
534 plane with a 1918 R power meter equipped with a calibrated 818 ST2 UV/D detector (Newport)
535 and divided by the illuminated field (0.134 mm²) of the LUMPLFLN 60XW objective (Olympus).

536 Neurons in organotypic slice cultures were imaged with two-photon microscopy to characterize
537 their morphology and the subcellular localization of citrine-labeled MerMAID-ChRs. The custom-
538 built two-photon imaging setup was based on an Olympus BX-51WI upright microscope upgraded
539 with a multiphoton imaging package (DF-Scope, Sutter Instrument), and controlled by ScanImage
540 2017b (Vidrio Technologies, Ashburn, VA). Fluorescence was detected through the objective (NIR
541 Apo 40XW, Nikon, Minato, Japan) using GaAsP-PMTs (Hamamatsu Photonics, Hamamatsu,
542 Japan). A tunable Ti:Sapphire laser (Chameleon Vision-S, Coherent) was set to 810 nm to excite
543 mCerulean, and a high power femtosecond fiber laser (Fidelity-2, Coherent, Santa Clara, CA) was
544 used to excite citrine at 1070 nm.

545 *Data analysis and statistical methods*

546 Clampfit 10.4 (Molecular Devices) and Origin 2017 (OriginLab, Northampton, MA) were used for
547 analysis of HEK293 electrophysiological recordings. Peak currents were used for analysis of most
548 biophysical properties. The current of the last 50 ms of the illumination period was averaged to

549 determine stationary current amplitude. Reversal potentials were determined based on linear fit of
550 the two data points crossing 0 pA or linear extrapolation from 0 pA most adjacent two data points
551 of a measurement series. Action spectra were normalized to the maximum response and fitted
552 with a three-parametric Weibull function to determine the maximum response wavelength (λ_{\max}).
553 Kinetic time constants were determined by mono or bi-exponential fits. For displaying reasons
554 electrophysiological recording data points were reduced.

555 Single turnover UV/vis absorption measurements were averaged over 15 cycles. Primary data
556 analysis was performed using MATLAB R2016b (The MathWorks, Natick, MA) to calculate
557 difference spectra and reconstruct three-dimensional spectra. Glotaran 1.5.1^{79,80} was used for
558 global analysis of the spectral datasets. Time constant values and photointermediate spectra were
559 obtained via global analysis of the data sets. The sequential model explored spectral evolution
560 and produced the EADS, representing the species-associated difference spectra⁸¹.

561 Stationary absorption spectra were analyzed using Origin 2017, normalized to maximum
562 absorption at 280 nm or maximum chromophore absorption, smoothed using Savitzki-Golay
563 method using a 10-point window and 5th order polynomial function. Pk_a -values were determined
564 with a Boltzmann function.

565 FTIR difference spectra were preprocessed using OPUS 7.5 software (Bruker Optics). FTIR data
566 were analyzed via single value decomposition and rotation procedure and subsequent global fit
567 algorithm implemented in Octave 4.2.^{82,83}. Assuming a sequential reaction scheme, a sum of
568 exponential functions was used as the fit model.

569 RR data was background subtracted with custom written software using a polynomial function.

570 VMD⁸⁴ and PyMol 2.2.3 were used to analyze and visualize MD simulation results and computed
571 ion permeation pathways.

572 Neurophysiological data were analyzed and plotted in Igor Pro 8.0.

573 If not stated otherwise, data was plotted using either MATLAB, GraphPad Prism 7.0 or Origin
574 2017. Final esthetical adjustments were performed using Adobe Illustrator 2017 (Adobe Systems,
575 San José, CA) or Affinity Designer 1.6 (Serif, Nottingham, UK)

576 No statistical tests were used to predetermine sample size. Sample sizes were similar to those
577 commonly used in this research field. Repeated experiments always refer to biological replicates
578 performed using at least two batches of transfected cell cultures. Data is given as mean \pm standard
579 deviation. Single measurement data and further statistical analysis⁸⁵ are provided in the
580 Supplementary Material. Blinding was not performed to ensure correct assignment of the data to
581 the measured constructs and/or experimental conditions. However, randomization was performed
582 in case of buffer exchange experiments and automated analysis was used whenever possible.

583 **Data availability**

584 HEK-293 Electrophysiological data is included in the Supplementary Material. Code and data of
585 metagenomic analysis can be obtained from <https://github.com/BejaLab/MerMAIDs>. Further data
586 or code is available from the corresponding authors upon request. DNA sequences will be
587 deposited on Addgene.

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798 J.W., J.O., and P.He. designed the project, with contributions from all authors. J.F.-U., E.P., I.S.,
799 O.B., J.W., and J.O. performed computational work. J.O., B.L., S.R-R., P.F., A.S., A.K., and J.V.

800 conducted the experiments, with assistance from M.B. and M.L. Experimental data were analyzed
801 by J.O., J.W., B.L., S.R-R., P.F., A.S., and A.K. and interpreted by all authors. J.W., J.O., and
802 P.He. wrote the manuscript, with contributions from all authors.

803 **Competing Interests**

804 The authors declare no competing interests.