

# Posttranslational Acetylation of $\alpha$ -Tubulin Constrains Protofilament Number in Native Microtubules

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## Summary

**Background:** Microtubules are built from linear polymers of  $\alpha$ - $\beta$  tubulin dimers (protofilaments) that form a tubular quinary structure. Microtubules assembled from purified tubulin in vitro contain between 10 and 16 protofilaments; however, such structural polymorphisms are not found in cells. This discrepancy implies that factors other than tubulin constrain microtubule protofilament number, but the nature of these constraints is unknown.

**Results:** Here, we show that acetylation of MEC-12  $\alpha$ -tubulin constrains protofilament number in *C. elegans* touch receptor neurons (TRNs). Whereas the sensory dendrite of wild-type TRNs is packed with a cross-linked bundle of long, 15-protofilament microtubules, *mec-17;atat-2* mutants lacking  $\alpha$ -tubulin acetyltransferase activity have short microtubules, rampant lattice defects, and variable protofilament number both between and within microtubules. All-atom molecular dynamics simulations suggest a model in which acetylation of lysine 40 promotes the formation of interprotofilament salt bridges, stabilizing lateral interactions between protofilaments and constraining quinary structure to produce stable, structurally uniform microtubules in vivo.

**Conclusions:** Acetylation of  $\alpha$ -tubulin is an essential constraint on protofilament number in vivo. We propose a structural model in which this posttranslational modification promotes the formation of lateral salt bridges that fine-tune the association between adjacent protofilaments and enable the formation of uniform microtubule populations in vivo.

## Introduction

Microtubules have diverse functions and are needed for cell division, migration, and intracellular transport. They are fundamental elements of the eukaryotic cytoskeleton composed of linear polymers of  $\alpha$ - $\beta$  dimers (protofilaments) assembled into hollow tubes. It has been known for decades that the number of protofilaments that compose a microtubule varies significantly among cells [1, 2], despite a remarkable degree of tubulin sequence conservation both within and across species [3]. Such architectural polymorphisms are a pervasive feature of microtubules and are strikingly recapitulated among microtubules assembled in vitro from tissues that contain uniform microtubules [4]. This classic observation implies that lateral interactions between protofilaments are flexible enough to accommodate a wide range of bending angles and that factors present in cells constrain microtubule architecture and help to define the quinary structure of native microtubules.

Complex, microtubule-based structures are a hallmark of many mechanoreceptor neurons, including the *C. elegans* touch receptor neurons (TRNs), which are low-threshold mechanoreceptor neurons. The TRNs are filled with dense, cross-linked arrays of as many as 50 15-protofilament (pf) microtubules [5]. Some cells in mammals [6, 7] and other invertebrates [8] also contain 15-pf microtubules. In *C. elegans* TRNs, these distinctive microtubules serve multiple functions, including the regulation of gene and protein expression [9], but are not essential for neurite outgrowth [10–12] or for activation of the mechanoelectrical transduction channels that initiate touch sensation [13, 14]. Not all *C. elegans* cells contain 15-pf microtubules [5], however. Thirteen-pf microtubules are found in sensory cilia, and 11-pf microtubules are the norm in most *C. elegans* cells, including other neurons [5]. Thus, different *C. elegans* cells form microtubules composed of 11, 13, or 15 protofilaments in a cell-specific manner.

The factors that regulate microtubule quinary structure and account for the well-known structural polymorphisms observed in vitro and in vivo have yet to be identified. One hypothesis is a tubulin code in which specific tubulin isoforms form specific microtubules [15]. Consistent with this idea, the TRNs coexpress *mec-7*  $\beta$ -tubulin and *mec-12*  $\alpha$ -tubulin and depend on both tubulin genes to form large-diameter, 15-pf microtubules [10–12]. However, although MEC-7 and MEC-12 are expressed at high levels in TRNs, both are also expressed in neurons that lack 15-pf microtubules [12, 16]. Thus, although these tubulins are needed to form 15-pf microtubules, they may not be sufficient. Posttranslational modifications are another potential source of structural variation. Indeed,  $\alpha$ -tubulin acetylation has been hypothesized to confer structural and thus functional heterogeneity to microtubules [17, 18], as it does to histones [19]. *C. elegans* expresses two  $\alpha$ -tubulin acetyltransferases ( $\alpha$ -TATs), *mec-17* and its paralog *atat-2* [20, 21], that catalyze acetylation of lysine 40 on  $\alpha$ -tubulin. Both enzymes are expressed in TRNs [20, 21] where they acetylate MEC-12  $\alpha$ -tubulin, the sole K40-bearing  $\alpha$ -tubulin in *C. elegans* [12]. The function of K40 acetylation, however, remains poorly understood.

Here, we combine genetic dissection, in vivo structure-function analysis, and serial-section, high-pressure freezing electron microscopy (EM) to demonstrate that  $\alpha$ -tubulin K40 acetylation is needed to constrain microtubule pf number and quinary structure in TRNs in vivo. Based on all-atom molecular dynamics simulations, we propose a structural model in which  $\alpha$ -tubulin K40 acetylation favors interprotofilament salt bridges and modulates lateral interactions in the microtubule lattice. This investigation is a vital first step toward a full definition of the factors that control the quinary structure of native microtubules in cells.

## Results

We used serial-section EM of high-pressure-frozen animals to analyze microtubules with nanometer resolution [22] and to investigate how loss of  $\alpha$ -TAT activity affects microtubule architecture. Individual 15-pf microtubules are approximately 20  $\mu$ m long and organized in a staggered array that fills the

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Table 1. Microtubule Architecture in Wild-Type and  $\alpha$ -TAT Mutants

Genotype	Transgene	n	MTs/ section	MT length ( $\mu$ m) <sup>b</sup>	pf number <sup>c</sup>
wild-type <sup>a</sup>	none	3	62 $\pm$ 7	20.1 $\pm$ 0.4	wild-type
<i>mec-12</i>	none	3	0 $\pm$ 0	0 $\pm$ 0	n/a
<i>atat-2</i>	none	3	37 $\pm$ 17	15 $\pm$ 2.4	wild-type
<i>mec-17</i>	none	3	8.8 $\pm$ 1.6	7.5 $\pm$ 2.8	variable
<i>mec-17;atat-2</i>	none	3	7.1 $\pm$ 0.6	2.29 $\pm$ 0.06	variable

n = the number of TRNs serially sectioned and examined for each genotype. Each serial section data set consisted of at least 60 ultrathin sections; individual sections were 50 nm thick.

<sup>a</sup>Data derived from an HPF-FS serial section data set reported in [22].

<sup>b</sup>Average microtubule length was calculated using the formula  $L = 2Na/T$  where  $L$  is average microtubule length,  $N$  is the average number of microtubules per section,  $a$  is the length of the series, and  $T$  is the total number of microtubule terminations [5].

<sup>c</sup>Wild-type = most microtubules have 15 protofilaments, though rare 11-pf microtubules are present; variable = microtubules have 9 to 16 protofilaments.

entire neurite [5, 22], which is 500  $\mu$ m long in wild-type (WT) adults. Microtubules in WT TRNs are heavily acetylated [23], as revealed by intense labeling with an antibody that specifically recognizes acetylated lysine 40 of  $\alpha$ -tubulin ( $\alpha$ K40Ac) [23, 24] and supported by the observation that both  $\alpha$ -TATs are expressed in TRNs [20] and localize to the TRN cytoplasm (see Figure S1 available online). In *mec-12* null mutants, TRNs are devoid of 15-pf microtubules (Table 1; [14, 25]) and  $\alpha$ K40Ac is undetectable [20, 21].

We counted the number of microtubules in our serial section data sets and used these counts to estimate the average microtubule length, as described previously [5]. Loss of  $\alpha$ -TAT activity decreased both microtubule number and length (Table 1), suggesting that  $\alpha$ K40Ac enables the formation and retention of long microtubules. Microtubules in WT TRNs are linked into a bundle by fine filaments [22]. Despite the decrease in microtubule number, intermicrotubule links were retained in  $\alpha$ -TAT mutants: the average length of such links was 7.8  $\pm$  2.0 nm (mean  $\pm$  SD, n = 173) and 7.3  $\pm$  1.9 nm (n = 185) in WT and *mec-17;atat-2* double mutants, respectively (p = 0.02, Student's t test). Taken together, these findings indicate that  $\alpha$ -TAT enzymes and  $\alpha$ K40 acetylation are needed to stabilize microtubule length and number and that the factors regulating individual microtubules are distinct from those organizing the bundle.

Disrupting the *mec-17* gene also diversified the number of protofilaments contained in each microtubule (Figures 1C and 1D). To examine this in detail, we developed a novel post-staining technique (see Experimental Procedures) and applied it to our high-pressure frozen, freeze-substituted (HPF-FS) samples. This technique allowed for direct visualization of microtubule protofilaments and provided resolution comparable to classical, tannic acid-based staining methods applied to thin sections. In agreement with previous studies [5, 22], the vast majority (>95%) of microtubules in WT TRNs have 15 protofilaments and the remainder have 11 protofilaments (Figure 1A). Microtubules in *atat-2* mutants also consisted primarily of 15-pf microtubules (Figure 1B), suggesting that the modest reduction in TRN  $\alpha$ K40Ac levels associated with this mutant [20] does not affect protofilament number. In *mec-17* and *mec-17;atat-2* mutants where  $\alpha$ K40Ac levels in TRNs are essentially undetectable [20], we found polymorphic microtubules consisting of as few as 10 and as many as 16 protofilaments (Figures 1C and 1D). Until now, such

polymorphisms in microtubule quinary structure have only been observed in vitro [4, 26]. Thus,  $\alpha$ -tubulin K40 acetylation is required to regulate protofilament number in vivo.

We observed differences in microtubule cross-section shape and area in all mutants. To quantify this variation, we developed a semiautomatic image processing workflow capable of measuring the area and eccentricity of microtubule profiles (see Experimental Procedures). Microtubule profiles were defined by finding a curve running approximately through the centers of the protofilaments; inner and outer circumferences were calculated from this curve assuming the microtubule formed an annulus of 6.5 nm thick protofilaments. Microtubule profiles in WT TRNs were essentially circular and had dimensions consistent with previous measurements of 15-pf microtubules in both fixed and frozen preparations [22, 27].

Microtubule size, but not shape, was similar in WT and *atat-2* animals (Figures 2A and 2C; Figure S2). We found an increase in the number of elliptical microtubule profiles in *atat-2* mutants (Figure 2C; Figure S2). To eliminate the possibility that such profiles arose from sectioning cylindrical profiles at oblique angles, we restricted our analysis to data sets in which the TRN plasma membrane could be resolved. We note that our analysis algorithm also excluded individual elliptical microtubule profiles that were not in sharp focus. This establishes that our thin sections are perpendicular to the long axis of the TRNs and the microtubule bundle. Both microtubule size and shape were variable in *mec-17* and *mec-17;atat-2* mutants (Figure 2; Figure S2). Narrowing our focus to the subset of large microtubules that retained 15 pfs in mutant TRNs revealed an increase in average eccentricity as well as an increase in the proportion of elliptical profiles (Figure 2E). Thus, partial loss of  $\alpha$ K40 acetylation may weaken interprotofilament interactions and alter microtubule shape, whereas complete loss destabilizes quinary structure and enables the formation of microtubules with a variable number of protofilaments.

Based on the variations in microtubule shape, size, and protofilament number in  $\alpha$ -TAT mutants (Figures 1 and 2), we propose that  $\alpha$ K40Ac stabilizes interprotofilament interactions and the bending angle between protofilaments. To investigate the structural basis of the proposed effect of  $\alpha$ K40 acetylation on lateral interactions between protofilaments, we generated a homology model of two neighboring MEC-12  $\alpha$ -tubulin monomers based on the work of Wells and Aksimentiev [28] (Figure S3A). This static model places  $\alpha$ K40 close to  $\alpha$ E55 in the H1'-S2 loop, suggesting that a salt bridge could form between these residues (Figure 3A). The model also reveals that  $\alpha$ E55 could form a salt bridge with  $\alpha$ H283 in the M-loop of the neighboring  $\alpha$ -tubulin (Figure 3B), as suggested previously [29]. Upon lattice polymerization,  $\alpha$ E55 could thus form a salt bridge either within a single  $\alpha$ -tubulin monomer (with  $\alpha$ K40) or between neighboring  $\alpha$ -tubulins across the interprotofilament interface (with  $\alpha$ H283). We propose a model in which acetylation of  $\alpha$ K40 reduces the probability that  $\alpha$ E55 forms an intramonomer salt bridge and increases the probability that it forms a salt bridge with the neighboring  $\alpha$ H283 (Figure 3C). In this model (Figure 3D),  $\alpha$ K40Ac strengthens lateral interactions between  $\alpha$ -tubulins by promoting formation of interprotofilament salt bridges between adjacent  $\alpha$ -tubulins. This loop-loop interaction is part of a flexible hinge that permits a wide range of interprotofilament angles required to accommodate different protofilament configurations [30–32].

We used all-atom molecular dynamics simulations to investigate the feasibility of this structural model. In these

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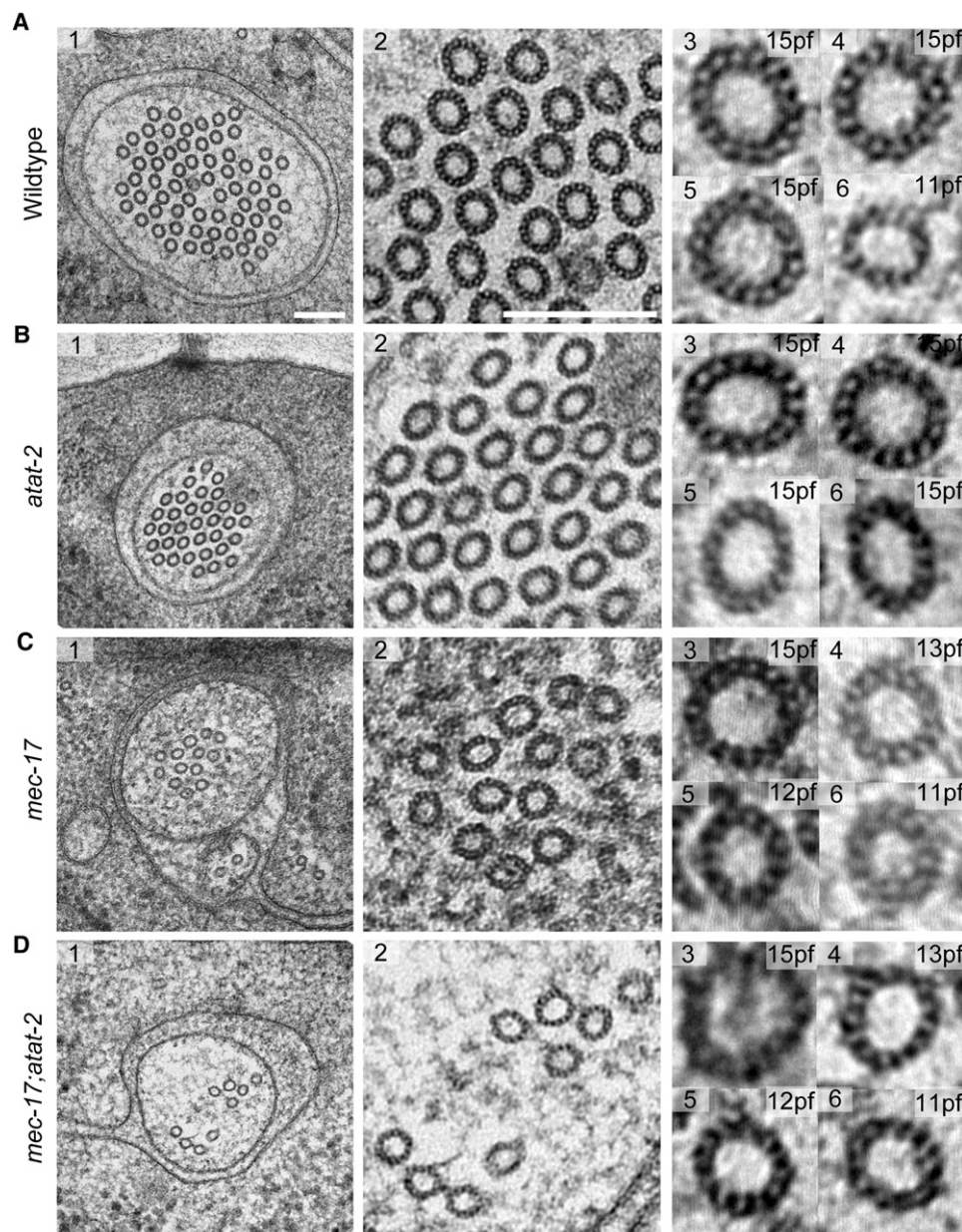
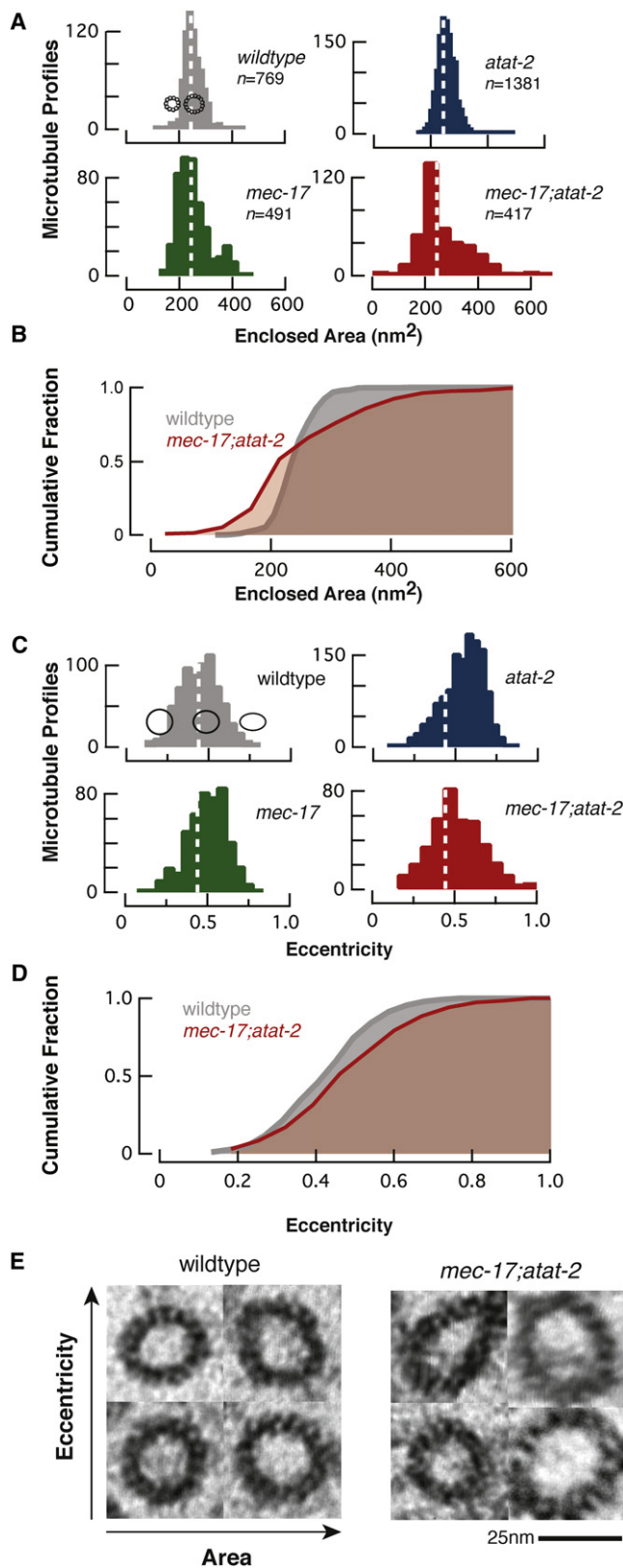


Figure 1. Alpha K40 Acetylation Is Required for the Formation of the Distinctive 15-pf Microtubules Present in TRNs and for Proper Cylindrical Shape High-resolution electron micrographs of 50 nm thin sections of touch receptor neurons in WT (A), *atat-2(ok2415)* (B), *mec-17(ok2109)* (C), and *mec-17;atat-2* (D) animals. Scale bars represent 150 nm. See also [Figure S1](#) for  $\alpha$ -tubulin acetyltransferase expression pattern in TRNs.

simulations, we introduced a salt bridge for each pair of residues by bringing the two residues together with an external force. This force was gradually reduced to zero. A salt bridge was considered to be stable if the two residues remained in sufficient proximity to form a salt bridge after the force was released ([Figure S3B](#)). Using this strategy and this criterion for stability, we found that  $\alpha$ E55 can form a stable intramonomer salt bridge with  $\alpha$ K40 and a stable intermonomer salt bridge with  $\alpha$ H283 ([Movies S1](#) and [S2](#)). Following acetylation of  $\alpha$ K40, only  $\alpha$ E55 and  $\alpha$ H283 maintained their electrostatic interaction ([Movies S3](#) and [S4](#)), providing a structural substrate for interprotofilament stabilization. As a control, we also tested the stability of the intermonomer salt bridge between  $\alpha$ E55 and  $\alpha$ K280, because the latter residue is

hypothesized to interact with  $\alpha$ E90 [[32](#)]. As expected,  $\alpha$ E55 and  $\alpha$ K280 separated within 5 ns of the force being released, confirming that these two residues are unlikely to form a salt bridge ([Figure S3B](#); [Movies S5](#) and [S6](#)). Formation of the  $\alpha$ E55- $\alpha$ H283 intermonomer salt bridge also increased the contact surface area between the MEC-12 subunits ([Figure S3C](#)), suggesting more stabilized interprotofilament interactions in the  $\alpha$ K40-modified conformation.

To test whether acetylation of MEC-12[K40] could account for the observed effects on microtubule quinary structure, we used our HPF-FS technique to analyze microtubules in transgenic mutants expressing WT and mutant MEC-12 isoforms selectively in the touch receptor neurons [[20](#)]. As reported previously [[14](#), [25](#)], *mec-12* null mutants are devoid of



**Figure 2. Loss of  $\alpha$ K40Ac Alters the Size and Shape of TRN Microtubules**  
**(A)** Histograms showing the distribution of the area enclosed by microtubules in TRNs as a function of genotype. Dotted lines are at 244 nm<sup>2</sup>, the mean area in WT TRNs. Schematics show 15-pf and 11-pf microtubules positioned along the x axis according to their predicted internal area.

15-pf microtubules (Table 1). Transgenic expression of MEC-12(+) allowed microtubules containing mostly 15 protofilaments to form in *mec-12* mutants (Figures 4A and 4D), but not in *mec-17;atax-2;mec-12* triple mutants (Figures 4B and 4D). Thus, transgenic expression of MEC-12(+) enables 15-pf microtubules to form only if the  $\alpha$ -TAT genes, *mec-17* and *atax-2*, are intact. Despite the recapitulation of WT quinary structure in transgenic *mec-12*;MEC-12(+) animals, we observed significantly fewer microtubules in transgenic than in WT TRNs (Tables 1 and 2). The exact reason for this difference between intact and transgenic control TRNs is unclear, but a likely possibility is overexpression of UNC-86::MEC-3 binding sites in the *mec-17* promoter used to selectively express MEC-12 in the touch receptor neurons [20].

Reminiscent of the microtubule phenotype observed in  $\alpha$ -TAT-deficient *mec-17;atax-2* double mutants, *mec-12* null mutant TRNs expressing MEC-12(K40R) harbored polymorphic microtubules (Figures 4C and 4D). Because this substitution replaces lysine 40 with a positively charged residue that cannot be acetylated [33], this finding suggests that the post-translational modification per se is crucial for the formation or stability of 15-pf microtubules. The polymorphic microtubules in *mec-12* mutants expressing MEC-12(K40R) and in *mec-17;atax-2;mec-12* triple mutants expressing MEC-12(+) were similar in length and abundance. Both populations of polymorphic microtubules were approximately half as long and three times less abundant than the 15-pf microtubules found in *mec-12*;MEC-12(+) transgenic animals (Table 2). Collectively, these findings imply that  $\alpha$ -tubulin acetylation is required to constrain microtubule quinary structure to 15-pf in TRNs.

Three-dimensional reconstructions of microtubules from serial sections of *mec-17* and *mec-17;atax-2* mutants revealed openings in the microtubule lattice (Figure 5) in half (18 out of 35) of the microtubules present in these mutants. Such openings have not been observed in >4,000 EM sections from over a dozen high-pressure frozen, freeze-substituted WT TRNs (data not shown). Although microtubule lattice openings have been reported in vitro [34, 35], to our knowledge, this is the first reported observation of microtubule lattice openings in vivo. Remarkably, many of these lattice openings extend for >150 nm, a length equivalent to nearly 20 tubulin dimers. Lattice defects were detected distal (~1  $\mu$ m) to microtubule endpoints and were frequently associated with a change in protofilament number (Figure 5A). Thus, in the absence of  $\alpha$ -tubulin acetyltransferase activity, microtubule lattice openings can occur in vivo and the lattice is sufficiently flexible to incorporate multiple quinary structures within a single microtubule. Future studies are needed to discern whether lattice openings and changes in protofilament number arise primarily

**(B)** Cumulative distribution functions comparing the size of WT and  $\alpha$ -TAT-deficient *mec-17;atax-2* double mutants.  $\alpha$ -TAT-deficient TRNs have an increase in smaller microtubules and a concomitant decrease in larger ones. The size distribution of mutant microtubules differs from WT ( $p < 0.001$ , Kolmogorov-Smirnov [KS] test).

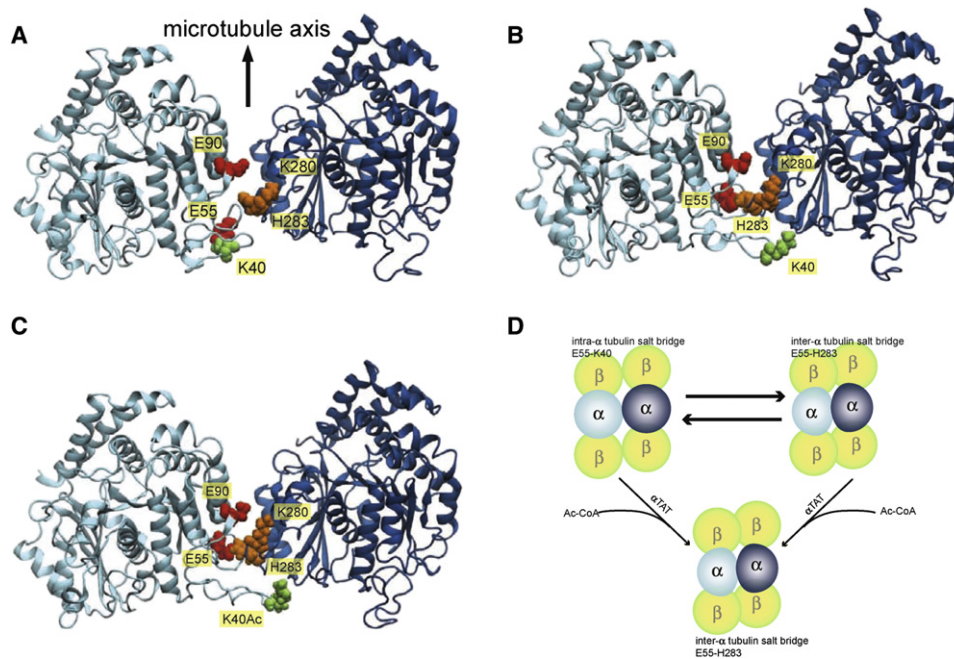
**(C)** Histograms of microtubule eccentricity as a function of genotype. Dotted lines are at 0.44, the mean eccentricity for WT microtubules. Profiles show the shape of ellipses with eccentricity values of 0.25, 0.5, and 0.75.

**(D)** Cumulative distribution functions comparing the shape of WT and  $\alpha$ -TAT-deficient *mec-17;atax-2* double mutants.  $\alpha$ -TAT-deficient microtubules have more elliptical cross-sections.

**(E)** Fifteen-pf microtubules in WT (left) and  $\alpha$ -TAT-deficient double mutants (right). Area increases from left to right; eccentricity increases from bottom to top. The scale bar applies to both panels. See also Figure S2.

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**Figure 3. MEC-12  $\alpha$ -Tubulin Dimer Homology Model Incorporated into a Microtubule Lattice**

Two adjacent MEC-12 monomers are colored in light and dark blue, and all views are from the luminal side of the interprotofilament interface. Key residues are shown in space-filling representation:  $\alpha$ K40 (green),  $\alpha$ E55 and  $\alpha$ E90 (red),  $\alpha$ K280 and  $\alpha$ H283 (orange).

(A and B)  $\alpha$ E55 can form an intramonomer salt bridge with  $\alpha$ K40 (A) or an intermonomer salt bridge with H283 of the neighboring monomer (B).

(C) Following acetylation,  $\alpha$ K40 can no longer form a salt bridge, and the intermonomer salt bridge between  $\alpha$ E55 and  $\alpha$ H283 is favored.

(D) Schematic of the proposed model for  $\alpha$ K40 acetylation-mediated regulation of the protofilament lattice. See also [Figure S3](#) and [Movies S1, S2, S3, S4, S5, and S6](#) for salt bridge stability probed by molecular dynamics simulations.

from defects in polymerization, destabilization of lateral interactions between adjacent protofilaments, or a combination of both factors.

## Discussion

Microtubules can contain fewer than 10 or as many as 16 protofilaments and are the target of numerous posttranslational modifications. We investigated the contribution of one posttranslational modification to microtubule architecture: the transfer of acetyl groups to lysine 40 of  $\alpha$ -tubulin. This study leveraged two unique features of *C. elegans*: (1) MEC-12  $\alpha$ -tubulin is required to form bundles of distinctive, 15-pf microtubules in TRNs, and (2) of the 12  $\alpha$ -tubulins encoded by the *C. elegans* genome, MEC-12 is the only one with lysine at position 40. We report that disrupting the  $\alpha$ -tubulin acetyltransferase genes *mec-17* and *atat-2* results in the formation of short, polymorphic microtubules in TRNs and that eliminating lysine 40 by mutating the residue to arginine likewise promotes the formation of short, polymorphic microtubules.

How might  $\alpha$ K40Ac regulate protofilament number? Motivated by all-atom molecular dynamics simulations, we propose the following model: transfer of an acetyl group to  $\alpha$ K40 disrupts an intramonomer salt bridge ( $\alpha$ E55 to  $\alpha$ K40) and favors a salt bridge between adjacent  $\alpha$ -tubulin monomers ( $\alpha$ E55 to  $\alpha$ H283). The intermonomer salt bridge alters lateral interactions between  $\alpha$ -tubulins, leading to interprotofilament angles consistent with 15-pf microtubules. In the absence of  $\alpha$ K40Ac or if  $\alpha$ K40 is replaced with arginine,  $\alpha$ E55 might engage in either an intramonomer salt bridge (with  $\alpha$ K40 or  $\alpha$ R40) or an intermonomer salt bridge (with  $\alpha$ H283) and, under these conditions, interprotofilament angle can assume a wider

range of values, leading to elliptical microtubule profiles and variation in protofilament number both within and between microtubules. In principle, the lateral salt bridge could be formed at the interface between all  $\alpha$ -tubulins, because most, if not all, isoforms have either a glutamate or aspartate at position 55 and a histidine at position 283.

To conclude, we have established that loss of  $\alpha$ -tubulin K40 acetylation removes an essential *in vivo* constraint on microtubule architecture and used all-atom molecular dynamics simulations to develop a structural model of the mechanism of how enzymatic modification of a protein interface could alter quaternary structure. However, because not all cells that coexpress  $\alpha$ -TAT enzymes and K40-bearing  $\alpha$ -tubulins form 15-protofilament microtubules, additional cell-specific factors that fine-tune interprotofilament angles and allow cells to count protofilaments remain to be discovered.

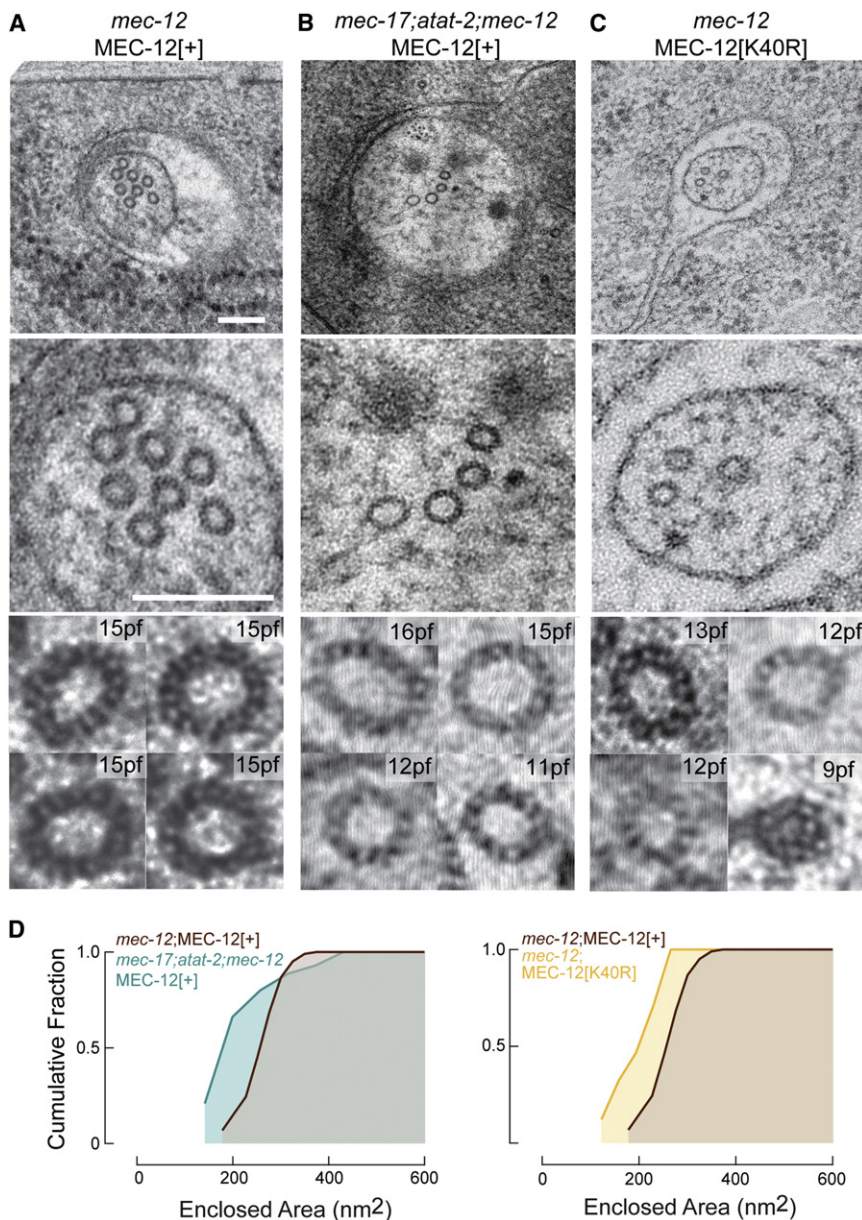
## Experimental Procedures

### Growth Conditions and Strains

Worms were raised on OP50 *E. coli*-seeded NGM plates at 20°C, following standard methods [36]. The following WT and mutant *C. elegans* strains were used: WT (N2), CB1607 *mec-12(e1607)* III, GN232 *mec-17(ok2109)* IV, GN233 *atat-2(ok2415)* X, GN234 *mec-17(ok2109)* IV; *atat-2(ok2415)* X, GN239 *mec-12(e1607)* III; *mec-17(ok2109)* IV; *atat-2(ok2415)* X. The following transgenic strains, derived as described previously [20], were used: GN280 *mec-12(e1607)* III; *pgEx46(Pmec-17::MEC-12[+], Punc-122::RFP)*, GN283 *mec-12(e1607)* III; *pgEx49(Pmec-17::MEC-12[K40R], Punc-122::RFP)*, GN295 *mec-12(e1607)* III; *mec-17(ok2109)* IV; *atat-2(ok2415)* X; *pgEx58(Pmec-17::MEC-12[+], Punc-122::RFP)*.

### Serial-Section Electron Microscopy

Adult nematodes were prepared for EM as previously described [22]. Briefly, animals were frozen using an EMPACT2 high-pressure freezer system



**Figure 4. Loss of  $\alpha$ -TAT Genes or  $\alpha$ K40 Diversifies Microtubule Quinary Structure**

(A) Transgenic expression of MEC-12(+) in *mec-12(e1607)* null mutants restores essentially uniform 15-pf quinary structure. Scale bars represent 150 nm and apply to (A), (B), and (C). (B) Transgenic expression of MEC-12(+) in *mec-17;atat-2;mec-12* triple mutants results in polymorphic TRN microtubules. (C) Transgenic MEC-12(K40R) induces polymorphic TRN microtubules in *mec-12* mutants. (D) Cumulative distribution function of microtubule size in transgenic TRNs. Measurements obtained from 3–5 serial-section data sets. The size distribution of *mec-17;atat-2;mec-12;MEC-12(+)* (n = 115) and *mec-12;MEC-12(K40R)* (n = 90) differ significantly from *mec-12;MEC-12(+)* (n = 205) (p < 0.001, KS test).

variation. All further operations were performed on the negative of the image so that the microtubules appeared as bright regions. The background was subtracted using morphological opening with a disk element of a similar size to the protofilament width, and the image was thresholded to create a binary image. Objects in the binary image were then thinned to lines and spur pixels were removed until no further changes occurred. The remaining closed curves were filtered based on size to identify microtubules. Microtubules that exhibited significant bending within the section appeared blurred and hence were ignored. All image processing was performed in Matlab (The Mathworks, Natick, MA).

The eccentricity of microtubules was calculated to provide a measure of the noncircularity of microtubules. The eccentricity of an ellipse is defined as  $(1 - r_{\text{minor}}^2/r_{\text{major}}^2)^{1/2}$ , where  $r_{\text{minor}}$  and  $r_{\text{major}}$  are the minor and major axes, respectively. The eccentricity is invariant upon uniform scaling of the shape and is bounded by 0 (a circle) and 1 (a line).

#### Homology Model Construction and Molecular Dynamics Simulations

The atomic model of *C. elegans* MEC-12 was constructed based on a previous model of *B. taurus*  $\alpha$ -tubulin dimer [28]. This *B. taurus*  $\alpha$ -tubulin dimer model incorporated available crystallographic structures [30, 38, 39], as well as the structural information in a cryo-EM map of a microtubule at 8 Å resolution [32]. The *B. taurus*  $\alpha$ -tubulin and *C. elegans* MEC-12 share more than 90% sequence identity, therefore homology modeling was straightforward. After the necessary mutations were introduced in the *B. taurus*  $\alpha$ -tubulin dimer model [28] to transform it into a *C. elegans* MEC-12 dimer model, energy minimization was performed for 5,000 steps with the molecular dynamics package NAMD [40] to avoid clashes between side chains. Construction of the homology model was performed with the molecular rendering software VMD [41]. All molecular dynamics simulations were performed using NAMD [40] with protein and ion molecules described by the CHARMM27 force field with CMAP corrections [42–44] and water molecules described with the TIP3P model [45]. Standard simulation parameters were used [40].

In each simulation, an external force was used to bring the two residues into proximity and was gradually reduced to zero at 4.5 ns, followed by nearly 5 ns of simulation in the absence of any force to determine whether the amino acid pair maintained its interaction. To reduce the degrees of freedom of the simulated systems, we constrained most protein C $\alpha$  atoms except the following amino acids: residues 35 to 60 (residing in the flexible H1'-S2 loop and not resolved in crystal structure [30, 38]) and residues 272

(Leica, Vienna, Austria). A Leica AFS freeze substitution apparatus was used to preserve and embed nematodes in 2% glutaraldehyde plus 1% osmium tetroxide and in Eponate 12/Araldite 502. Serial, ultrathin (50 nm) sections were cut with a diamond knife on a Leica Ultracut S microtome and collected on Formvar-coated copper-slot grids. To enhance contrast, we poststained sections in 3.5% uranyl acetate (30 s) and Reynold's lead citrate preparation (3 min). The grids were imaged on a transmission electron microscope (JEOL TEM 1230, Tokyo, Japan), and images were acquired with an 11 megapixel bottom-mounted cooled CCD camera (Orius SC1000, Gatan, Pleasanton, CA). Three-dimensional models were generated from serial sections with Reconstruct [37]. Images of consecutive sections were aligned manually.

#### Computational Determination of Microtubule Geometries

Segmentation proceeded in two steps: first, approximate outlines of the microtubules were identified; second, the outlines were refined based on local intensity distributions to accurately quantify area, perimeter, and eccentricity. EM images were filtered to smooth variations at length scales larger than a typical microtubule and to attenuate structures smaller than the width of a protofilament. Each image was then contrast-adjusted and a Gaussian filter was applied to smooth the image and remove pixel-to-pixel

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Table 2. Microtubule Architecture Depends on the Acetylation State of MEC-12  $\alpha$ K40

Genotype	Transgene	n	MTs/ section	MT length ( $\mu$ m) <sup>a</sup>	pf number <sup>b</sup>
<i>mec-12</i>	MEC-12(+)	3	6.0 $\pm$ 0.7	14.7 $\pm$ 0.7	wild-type
<i>mec-12;mec-17;</i> <i>atat-2</i>	MEC-12(+)	3	3.0 $\pm$ 0.7	7.9 $\pm$ 1.6	variable
<i>mec-12</i>	MEC-12(K40R)	5	2.2 $\pm$ 1.0	6.8 $\pm$ 3.4	variable

n = the number of TRNs serially sectioned and examined for each genotype. Each data set consisted of at least 60 ultrathin (50 nm) serial sections.

<sup>a</sup>Average microtubule length was calculated using the formula  $L = 2Na/T$  where  $L$  is average microtubule length,  $N$  is the average number of microtubules per section,  $a$  is the length of the series, and  $T$  is the total number of microtubule terminations [5].

<sup>b</sup>Wild-type = most microtubules have 15 protofilaments, though rare 11-pf microtubules are present; variable = microtubules have 9 to 16 protofilaments.

to 287 (residing in the M-loop, which required structural modification to match an EM density [46]). Molecular trajectories of the simulations are included as movies in [Supplemental Information](#).

### Supplemental Information

Supplemental Information includes three figures and six movies and can be found with this article online at doi:10.1016/j.cub.2012.05.012.

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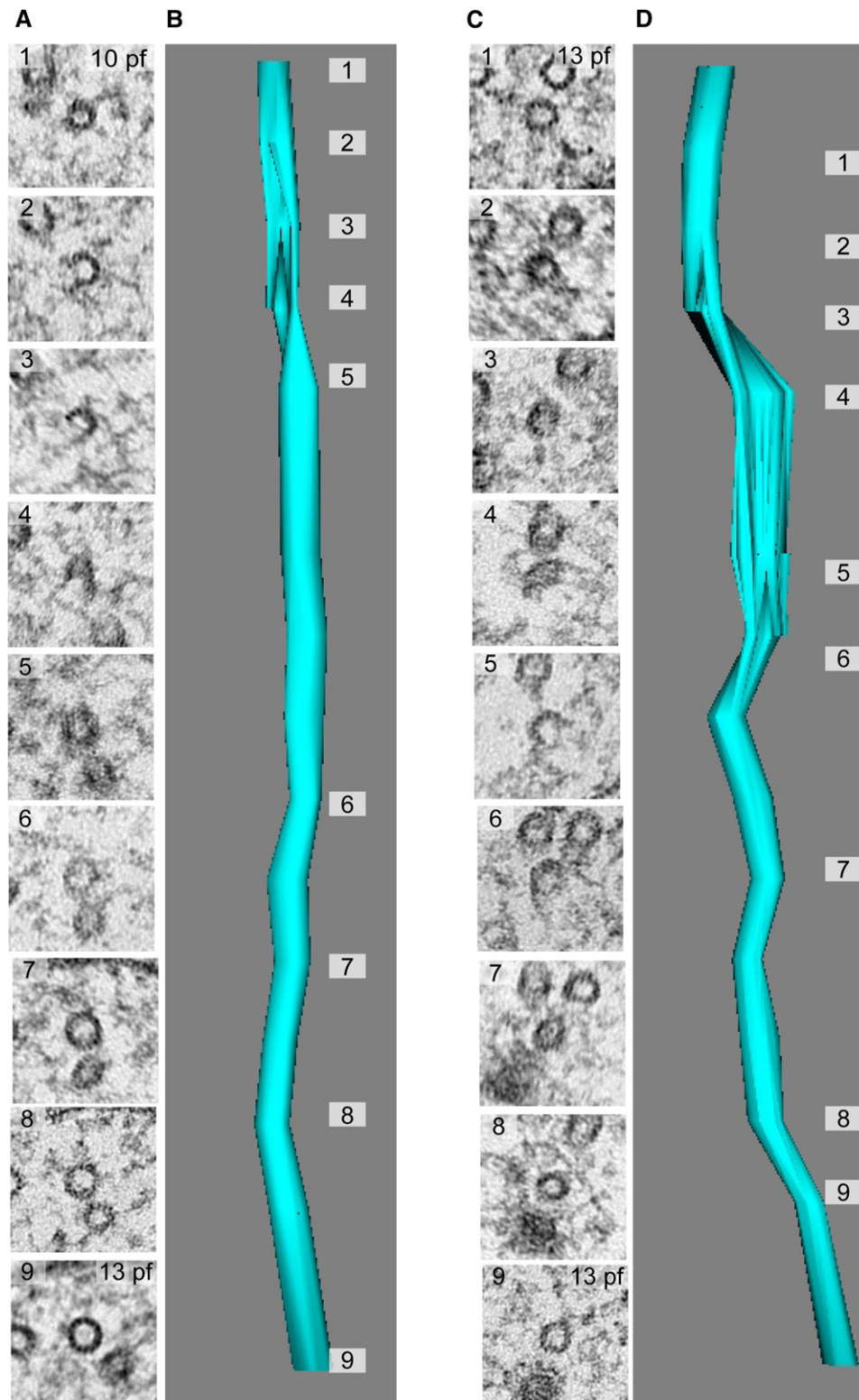


Figure 5. Loss of  $\alpha$ -TAT Activity Reveals Lattice Defects and Variations in Protofilament Number in Individual Microtubules

(A and B) Example of a microtubule lattice defect associated with a change in protofilament number on opposite sides of the defect (10 versus 13).

(C and D) Example of a microtubule lattice defect with no change in protofilament number. Images were selected from two serial-section reconstructions consisting of 17 consecutive thin (50 nm) sections. The data sets were used to reconstruct two TRN microtubules in *mec-17;atat-2* double mutants.

**Acetylation Constrains MT Protofilament Number**

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