

The structure of pathogenic huntingtin exon-1 defines the bases of its aggregation propensity

Carlos A Elena-Real, Amin Sagar, Annika Urbanek, Matija Popovic, Anna Morató, Alejandro Estaña, Aurélie Fournet, Xamuel L Lund, Zhen-Dan Shi, Luca Costa, et al.

▶ To cite this version:

Carlos A Elena-Real, Amin Sagar, Annika Urbanek, Matija Popovic, Anna Morató, et al.. The structure of pathogenic huntingtin exon-1 defines the bases of its aggregation propensity. 2022. hal-03846359

HAL Id: hal-03846359 https://hal.science/hal-03846359

Preprint submitted on 10 Nov 2022

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

The structure of pathogenic huntingtin exon-1 defines the bases of its aggregation propensity

- 6 Carlos A. Elena-Real¹, Amin Sagar¹, Annika Urbanek¹, Matija Popovic¹, Anna Morató¹, Alejandro
- 7 Estaña^{1,2}, Aurélie Fournet¹, Xamuel L. Lund^{1,3}, Zhen-Dan Shi⁴, Luca Costa¹, Aurélien Thureau⁵,
- 8 Frédéric Allemand¹, Rolf E. Swenson⁴, Pierre-Emmanuel Milhiet¹, Alessandro Barducci¹, Juan
- 9 Cortés², Davy Sinnaeve^{6,7}, Nathalie Sibille¹, Pau Bernadó^{1,*}
- 11 1- Centre de Biologie Structurale (CBS), INSERM, CNRS, Université de Montpellier. 29, rue de Navacelles,
- 12 34090 Montpellier, France.

1

2

3

4

5

10

21

23

- 13 2- LAAS-CNRS, Université de Toulouse, CNRS, 31400 Toulouse, France.
- 14 3- Institut Laue Langevin, 38000 Grenoble, France.
- 4- The Chemistry and Synthesis Center, National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute, National Institutes of
- Health. Rockville, Maryland, USA.
- 17 5- Swing Beamline, Synchrotron SOLEIL, 91192 Gif sur Yvette, France
- 18 6- Univ. Lille, INSERM, Institut Pasteur de Lille, CHU Lille, U1167 RID-AGE Risk Factors and
- 19 Molecular Determinants of Aging-Related Diseases, 59000 Lille, France.
- 7- CNRS, ERL9002 Integrative Structural Biology, 59000 Lille, France.
- 22 Corresponding author: Pau Bernadó (pau.bernado@cbs.cnrs.fr)

Abstract

24

25

26

27

28

29

30

31

32

33

34

35

36

37

38

39

40

41

42

Huntington's Disease is a neurodegenerative disorder caused by a CAG expansion of the first exon of the HTT gene, resulting in an extended poly-glutamine (poly-Q) tract in the N-terminus of the protein huntingtin (httex1). The structural changes occurring to the poly-Q when increasing its length remain poorly understood mainly due to its intrinsic flexibility and the strong compositional bias of the protein. The systematic application of site-specific isotopic labeling has enabled residuespecific NMR investigations of the poly-Q tract of pathogenic httex1 variants with 46 and 66 consecutive glutamines. The integrative analysis of the data reveals that the poly-Q tract adopts long α-helical conformations stabilized by glutamine side-chain to backbone hydrogen bonds. ¹⁹F-NMR of site-specifically incorporated fluoro-glutamines and molecular dynamics simulations demonstrate that the mechanism propagating α-helical conformations towards the poly-Q from the upstream N17 domain is independent of the poly-Q track length. Aggregation and atomic force microscopy experiments show that the presence of long and persistent α -helices in the poly-Q tract is a stronger signature in defining the aggregation kinetics and the structure of the resulting fibrils than the number of glutamines. The ensemble of our observations provides a structural perspective of the pathogenicity of expanded httex1 and paves the way to a deeper understanding of poly-Q related diseases.

Introduction

43

44

45

46

47

48

49

50

51

52

53

54

55

56

57

58

59

60

61

62

63

64

65

66

67

68

69

70

71

72

73

74

75

Among the nine neurodegenerative disorders caused by expansions of polyglutamine (poly-Q) tracts, Huntington's Disease (HD) stands out due to its prevalence and devastating effects¹. HD is triggered by an abnormal expansion of the poly-Q tract located in exon1 (httex1) of the 348-kDa huntingtin, a ubiquitous protein involved in multiple pathways^{2,3}. In its non-pathogenic form, the httex1 poly-Q tract is comprised of 17-20 glutamines4; however, when the number of consecutive glutamines exceeds the pathogenic threshold of 35, it results in aggregation-prone mutants. Indeed, fragments of mutant httex1 can be found forming large cytoplasmic and nuclear aggregates within neurons of the striatum, a well-known hallmark of HD^{5,6}. The presence of such aggregates, the neuronal degeneration, the age of onset and disease severity, all correlate with the length of the expanded poly-Q tract⁷. Notably, the mutant httex1 fragment alone suffices to reproduce HD symptoms in mice⁸. Unfortunately, no effective treatment is currently available, mainly because of the lack of knowledge regarding the molecular mechanisms underlying the disease⁹. Amyloidogenic aggregates were initially proposed to be the toxic species in HD, acting by sequestering essential cellular proteins and components¹⁰. However, they have also been related to neuronal survival in certain cell types, suggesting that aggregates may be protective 11-14. It has also been proposed that toxicity is caused by soluble species of httex1, which are characterized by a high polymorphism comprising monomers, dimers, tetramers and small oligomers 15,16. It has been shown that N17, the 17 residue-long fragment preceding poly-Q (Fig. 1a), is the pivotal element triggering httex1 self-recognition and enhancing aggregation 17-19. However, the structural mechanism by which N17 propagates aggregation and cytotoxicity of expanded httex1 remains to be defined. Two models have been suggested to connect the pathological threshold and toxicity, the 'toxic structure' and the 'linear lattice' models²⁰. While the 'toxic structure' model proposes the appearance of a distinct toxic conformation when the poly-Q tract is expanded beyond the pathological threshold^{21,22}; the 'linear lattice' model suggests that poly-O tracts are inherently toxic and that their toxicity systematically increases with the homorepeat length^{23,24}. Intriguingly, both models have been supported by antibody recognition experiments in different studies. Furthermore, the absence of sharp changes in single-molecule Förster resonance energy transfer (smFRET), circular dichroism and electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR) experiments around the pathological threshold has been argued to substantiate the 'linear lattice' model^{25–27}. High-resolution structures of non-pathogenic and pathogenic httex1 variants are required to evaluate the changes occurring upon poly-Q expansion, discriminate between both models and finally define the bases of httex1cytotoxicity.

77

78

79

80

81

82

83

84

85

86

87

88

89

90

91

92

93

94

95

96

97

98

99

100

101

102

103

104

105

106107108

109

Until recently, the detailed high-resolution structural characterization of soluble httex1, especially of those with pathogenic poly-Q length, has been hampered by the intrinsic properties of the protein, namely the highly flexible nature, its aggregation propensity and the strong compositional bias. X-ray diffraction or electron microscopy, normally used to study folded proteins, cannot be applied to probe disordered proteins such as httex1. Furthermore, the presence of low complexity regions, such as the long glutamine and proline homorepeats, results in important signal overlap when nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) is used, hampering the collection of high-resolution information²⁸. Despite these difficulties, several high-resolution NMR studies of non-pathogenic httex1 and N-terminal fragments have been reported 19,26,27,29,30. However, due to the severe overlap, only assignments of the first and last glutamines of the poly-Q tract could be achieved. To circumvent the NMR signal overlap, our lab recently developed a site-specific isotopic labeling (SSIL) strategy that combines cell-free protein expression and non-sense suppression, enabling the investigation of homorepeats in a residue-specific manner^{31,32}. When applying this methodology to a non-pathogenic version of httex1 containing a 16-residue-long poly-Q tract (H16), it was shown that the protein was enriched in helical conformations whose length and stability were defined by flanking regions³³. While the helical propensity was propagated from N17 to the poly-O through a hydrogen-bond network, it was blocked by the helix-breaking effect caused by the proline-rich region (PRR) that follows the poly-Q tract (Fig. 1a). The structural effects imposed by N17 and PRR may explain the positive and negative regulation of httex1 aggregation by both poly-O flanking regions, respectively^{34,35}. Whether these structural mechanisms also govern the conformational landscape of pathogenic httex1 remains to be discerned. In the present study, we applied SSIL to a pathogenic form of httex1 containing a 46 residue-long poly-Q tract (H46) to unambiguously assign sixteen of these glutamines spread along the tract and probed the structure and dynamics of the homorepeat. The integration of the NMR information and small-angle X-ray scattering (SAXS) data provided the structural description of H46 as an ensemble of elongated, partially helical conformations, whose propagation and stability mechanisms were deciphered by ¹⁹F-NMR and molecular dynamics (MD) simulations. All together, our observations provides a detailed structural perspective of the 'linear lattice' toxicity model, demonstrating that the presence of long, persistent, aggregation-prone α -helices is concomitant to the expansion of the poly-Q tract beyond the pathological threshold.

Results

110

Pathogenic and non-pathogenic httex1 forms present similar structural features 111 In order to study a pathogenic form of httex1, a construct comprising the N17 domain, a 46-residue-112 long poly-Q tract and the PRR was fused to superfolder GFP (sfGFP) (Fig. 1a). A fully ¹⁵N-labeled 113 114 H46 sample was prepared and a ¹⁵N-HSOC NMR spectrum was recorded in order to evaluate its general spectroscopic features. Similarly to H16³³, the spectrum revealed that while peaks from N17 115 and the PRR were well dispersed, the peaks corresponding to glutamine residues remained in a 116 large poorly resolved density (Fig. 1b). As expected, the increased molecular weight led to a 117 118 general peak broadening, which was particularly striking in the region of the expanded poly-Q tract. 119 The reduced stability of H46 at high concentration precluded the use of traditional 3D-NMR 120 experiments for the frequency assignment. Thus, to confirm the similarities found between the pathogenic and non-pathogenic httex1 constructs, selectively labeled samples of H46 were prepared 121 (¹⁵N-Ala and ¹⁵N-Lys; ¹⁵N-Gly, ¹⁵N-Ser and ¹⁵N-Arg; ¹⁵N-Leu and ¹⁵N-Glu; and ¹⁵N-Phe), therefore 122 reducing the overlap of some N17 and PRR signals (Fig. S1a). The selective labeling showed that 123 124 the vast majority of peaks corresponding to N17 and PRR residues nicely overlap for both H46 and 125 H16. Interestingly, F17 peaks in H16 and H46 displayed different chemical shifts. Altogether, our 126 observations suggest that both httex1 forms share similar structural features outside of the poly-Q tract, although some perturbations in the N17/poly-O boundary are induced upon the extension of 127 the homorepeat. 128 129 In order to obtain high-resolution information on the poly-Q tract of H46, the SSIL approach using previously optimized protocols³⁶ was used to specifically study 16 of the 46 glutamines of the H46 130 poly-Q tract, as well as two glutamines within the PRR (Fig. 1a). ¹⁵N-HSQC spectra of these 131 samples revealed that the glutamines adjacent to N17 (Q18, Q20 and Q21) adopted the lowest 132 chemical shift values of the poly-O region without any specific trend, while the following 133 glutamines (Q24-Q56) exhibited steadily increasing ¹H and ¹⁵N chemical shifts. This last 134 observation points towards a gradual structural change along the homorepeat (Fig. 1c, upper 135 136 panels). Finally, the last glutamines of the tract (Q61-Q63) were found at the highest chemical 137 shifts, with Q63, affected by the adjacent poly-P tract, displaying an isolated peak outside of the 138 poly-Q density. The signals corresponding to Q75 and Q91 in the PRR did not show any specific 139 trend. The same features were observed when monitoring the $C\alpha$ -H α correlations of the same SSIL 140 samples (Fig. 1c, lower panels). Notably, the Q21 SSIL sample presented two Cα peaks with 141 similar intensity, suggesting the presence of two slowly interconverting conformations. While one 142 of the peaks appeared close to these of Q18 and Q20, the second one was shifted to the same 143 spectral region of the central glutamines of the homorepeat.

The secondary chemical shift (SCS) analysis of the glutamines using a neighbor-corrected random coil database³⁷ showed that the poly-Q tract was highly enriched in α -helical conformations, in line with previous observations for non-pathological constructs^{26,29,33} (Fig. 1d). However, this propensity was not homogeneous; the helicity reached its maximum at Q18 and presented a steady plateau over 30 residues, until around Q48, in which the helical propensity was maintained. Only for the C-terminal part of the H46 poly-Q a smooth decrease of helicity was observed, reaching negative SCS values for the last glutamines of the tract. When comparing this SCS analysis with that previously reported for H16³³, an increase in helicity for the N-terminal part of the H46 poly-Q tract was observed. This phenomenon also explains the shift of the NH, N ϵ H₂ and C α H α NMR signals of Q18 and Q21 towards more helical positions in H46 when compared with H16 (Fig. S1b). Interestingly, the two C α peak observed for Q21 presented SCS values of 1.27 and 1.63 ppm, corresponding to two conformations with different helical content.

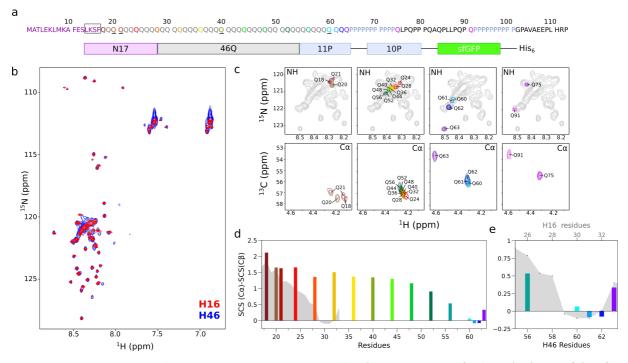


Figure 1. NMR analyses of H46 and comparison with H16. (a) Primary sequence of H46 and scheme of the sfGFP-fused construct used in this study. The color code identifies the site-specifically labeled glutamines throughout the study. Underlined glutamines indicate the positions in which 2S,4R-fluoroglutamine (4F-Gln) was introduced for ¹⁹F-NMR experiments. The box indicates the section mutated in the LKGG-H46 and LLLF-H46 mutants. (b) Overlay of the ¹⁵N-HSQC spectra of fully labeled H46 (blue) with the previously reported for H16 (red)³³. (c) Zoom of the ¹⁵N-HSQC (upper panels) and ¹³C-HSQC (lower panels) with individually colored SSIL spectra showing the poly-Q NH and Cα regions for different glutamine clusters (Q18-Q21; Q24-Q56; Q60-Q63; and PRR glutamines). In the upper panels, the ¹⁵N-HSQC of the fully labeled ¹⁵N-H46 sample is shown in gray. (d) Secondary chemical shift (SCS) analysis of H46 poly-Q using experimental Cα and Cβ chemical shifts and a neighbor-corrected random-coil library³⁷. The SCS analysis of H16 is shown in gray³³. (e) Comparison of the SCS values of glutamines flanking the PRR in H16 (gray area) and H46 (colored bars) when aligning both sequences from the C-terminus of the poly-Q tract.

The extent of the structural effects induced by the PRR was analyzed by aligning the SCS values of H16 and H46 from the C-terminus of the poly-Q tract (Fig. 1e). Interestingly, while the last four

glutamines of the tract (Q30-Q33 in H16 and Q60-Q63 in H46) showed the same conformational trends, this similarity was reduced for more distant glutamines, such as Q56. Notice that this residue is closer to the helix-promoting N17 in H16 (Q26) than in H46.

H66 substantiates the persistence of long α-helical conformations in long poly-Q tracts

171

172

173

174

175

176

177

178

179

180

181

182

183

184

185

186

187

188

189

190

191

192

193

194

195

196

197

198

The above results suggest that the distance to the PRR is the only parameter defining the length of α-helical conformations in httex1 and that helical conformations encompass larger sections of the homorepeat when the length of the poly-O tract is increased. In order to validate this hypothesis, we studied an httex1 construct with 66 consecutive glutamines (H66). The ¹⁵N-HSQC of H66 produced by cell-free expression nicely overlapped with that of H46, indicating that no structural changes occur in httex1 upon incorporating twenty additional glutamines (Fig. S2a). The glutamine region of H66 and H46 spectra displayed the same elongated shape and their maximum intensities were centered at the same proton and nitrogen frequencies. Then, using our standard protocols, we applied the SSIL strategy to two glutamines (Q56 and Q76) of H66 to probe their helical content. Note that these two residues are located at equivalent positions to residue Q56 in H46 when aligning both sequences from the N- and C-termini, respectively (Fig. 2a). The NH peak of H66-Q76 appeared in a position equivalent to H46-Q56, whereas H66-Q56 had a lower chemical shift, suggesting that this glutamine adopted a more helical structure than the other two residues (Fig. 2b). This observation was further confirmed by monitoring the $C\alpha$ -H α correlations for the three residues (Fig. 2c). Indeed, while the $C\alpha$ -H α peaks for H46-Q56 and H66-Q76 overlapped, H66-Q56 was shifted towards more helical conformations. The helical propensity of these residues was quantified with the SCS analysis, indicating an enhanced helicity for H66-Q56 (1.18 ppm) when compared with H66-Q76 (0.50 ppm) and H46-Q56 (0.53 ppm) (Fig. 3c). Interestingly, the SCS value for H66-O56 was very similar to those observed for the plateau in H46, indicating that the additional twenty glutamines in H66 adopt helical conformations (Fig. S2b). These results evidenced that the extent of the α -helix-breaking capacity of the PRR is the same in all httex1 forms, allowing the α -helical propensity to be propagated through a larger number of glutamines when the length of the homorepeat is increased.

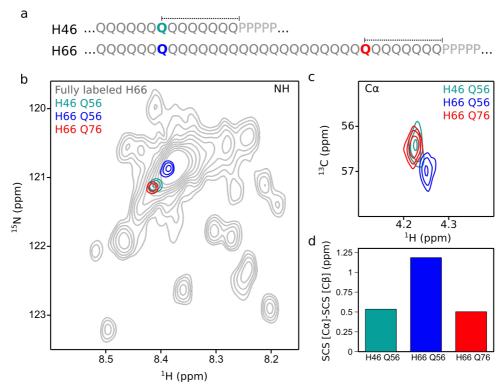


Figure 2. NMR analyses of H66 and comparison with H46. (a) Partial sequences of H46 and H66 indicating the positions of Q56 in H66 (green) and H46 (blue), and Q76 in H66 (red). This color code identifies the individual glutamines throughout the figure. Dashed lines highlight the equal distance of Q56 in H46 and Q76 in H66 to the PRR. Zoom of the 15 N-HSQC (**b**) and 13 C-HSQC (**c**) with individually superimposed colored SSIL spectra showing the poly-Q NH and Cα regions, respectively. (**d**) Secondary chemical shift (SCS) analysis of H66-Q56, H66-Q76 and H46-Q56, using experimental Cα and Cβ chemical shifts and a neighbor-corrected random-coil library.

SAXS indicates that H46 is an elongated particle in solution with a large degree of flexibility

Small angle X-ray scattering (SAXS) was applied to derive the overall size of H46 in solution. To this end, we applied size-exclusion chromatography (SEC) coupled with SAXS, which allowed us to isolate the H46 peak from potential aggregates and partially digested sfGFP (Fig. S3). The analysis of the resulting profile (Fig. 3a and Table S2) indicates that H46 is a monomeric particle with a radius of gyration, R_g , of 41.5 \pm 0.5 Å according to Guinier analysis and a maximum dimension, D_{max} , of 148 Å, calculated using pair-wise distance distribution, p(r), analysis (Fig. S3c). Although the Kratky representation displayed a peak indicating the presence of a folded protein, which was attributed to the sfGFP, the intensity did not completely return to base line, suggesting that the httex1 part of H46 exhibited a high level of flexibility (Fig. 3b). The smooth decrease of the p(r) when approaching the D_{max} value and the departure in the maximum of the Kratky plot from the standard values of a globular protein substantiate the flexibility and the overall extendedness of the protein.

To further confirm that the overall extendedness is inherent to httex1, we performed an equivalent SAXS analysis for H16 (FigS. 3a, S3 and Table S2). Not surprisingly, the resulting SAXS profile of H16 indicated that the protein is a smaller particle (R_g =32.9 \pm 0.2 Å and D_{max} = 126 Å) in solution

than H46 (Table S2). Importantly, H16 retained SAXS features corresponding to an extended and flexible particle observed for H46.

H46 consists of a mixture of α-helical conformations of different lengths

223

224

225

226

227

228

229

230

231

232

233

234

235

236

237

238

239

240

241

242

243

244

245

246

247

248

249

250

251

252

253

255

256

257

The Cα chemical shifts and the SAXS data measured for H46 were integrated to derive a structural model of the protein. Similar to our previous study of the non-pathogenic H16, two families of ensembles were generated to capture the conformational influence of both flanking regions using a conformational sampling method for intrinsically disordered proteins (see Methods section for details)³⁸. For the first family (N→C ensembles), starting with the ¹⁰AFESLKS¹⁶ region of N17 as partially structured, multiple ensembles of 5,000 conformations were built by successively including F17 and an increasing number of glutamines in the poly-Q tract (from Q18 to Q63) as partially structured, while the rest of the chain was considered to be fully disordered. An equivalent strategy was followed for the second family of ensembles (N←C ensembles) for which glutamines (from Q63 to Q18) were successively considered as partially structured starting from the poly-P tract. Note that using this building strategy, secondary structural propensities are naturally propagated due to the neighboring effects. For the resulting ensembles of each family and after building the side chains with the program SCWRL4³⁹, averaged Cα chemical shifts were computed with SPARTA+40. For each family, the relative populations of these ensembles were optimized using the experimental Ca chemical shifts with Q55 as the boundary position (Fig. S4). Then, an NMR-compatible ensemble was built by randomly taking conformation from the selected ensembles with the appropriate populations (see Methods for details). This ensemble was further refined by integrating the SAXS data with the ensemble optimization method (EOM)^{41,42}. For this, we included the crystallographic structure of sfGFP (PDBID: 3LVA) and the C-terminal His-tag to the individual conformations of the NMR-optimized ensemble to generate the pool of conformations used by EOM (see Methods). It must be noted that the H46 ensemble had an overall size $(R_g = 42.7 \text{ Å})$ very similar to the experimentally determined one $(R_g = 41.5 \pm 0.5 \text{ Å})$, highlighting the quality of our starting model despite using local NMR information for the refinement. Sub-ensembles selected with EOM yielded an excellent fit to the experimental profile $(\chi^2 = 0.2)$ (Fig. 3a). The resulting R_g distribution was quite broad and very similar to that of the initial ensemble, indicating that H46 is a highly flexible particle in solution and slightly more extended than the ensemble derived only using chemical shifts (Fig. S4).

The structural analysis of the NMR and SAXS compatible ensemble was performed with SS-map⁴³,

which displays the length, the residues involved and the population of the α -helices present in the

ensemble in a comprehensible manner. This analysis substantiated the presence of a mixture of

multiple helical conformations encompassing different sections of the H46 poly-Q tract (Fig. 3c).

These α -helices were initiated in the last residues of the N17 domain ($^{14}LKSF^{17}$) and propagated along the tract. Interestingly, an enrichment of long α -helices encompassing around 40 residues and reaching up to Q52 was observed. The presence of these long stable helical conformations explains the steady plateau observed in the SCS analysis (Fig. 1d).

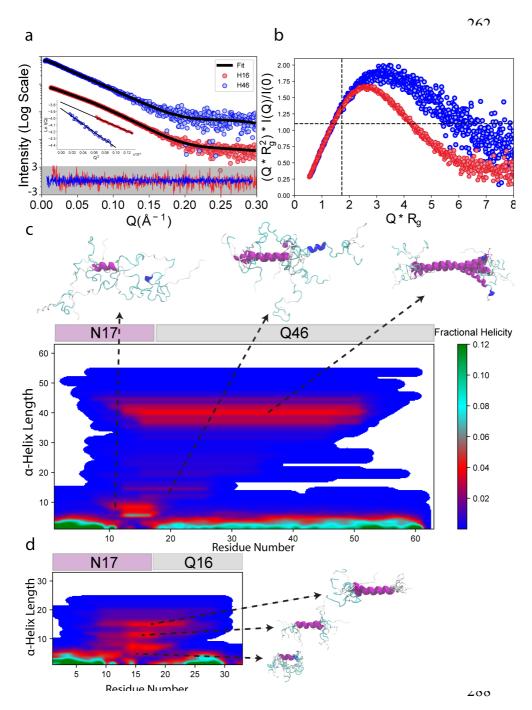


Figure 3. A structural model of pathogenic and non-pathogenic httex1 from the synergistic integration of NMR and SAXS data. (a) The SAXS intensity profiles for H16 (red) and H46 (blue) along with the theoretical profiles of EOM selected sub-ensembles (black lines). The residuals from EOM fitting are shown at the bottom. The inset shows the Guinier plots with linear fits as black lines. (b) The normalized Kratky plots for H16 (red) and H46 (blue) displaying a shift from the values expected for globular proteins (shown as black dashed lines) on both X and Y axes. (c) SS-maps calculated from the conformations selected during 100 cycles of EOM for H46 (top) and H16 (bottom). The population of the different α -helix lengths is shown according to the color code on the right. Some representative conformations with different lengths of helices are also shown.

299

300

301

302

303

304

305

306

307

308

309

310

311

312

313

314

315

316

317

318

319

320

321

322

323

324

325

326

327

328

329

330

A similar structural refinement was performed for H16, using the previously reported NMR-refined ensemble³³ and the SAXS data (Fig. 3a). The EOM fit yielded an excellent agreement with the experimental curve ($\chi^2 = 1.12$) and, as in the case of H46, the resulting sub-ensemble was slightly more elongated than that obtained using only the NMR information. We observed that H16 also consisted of a mixture of α -helical structures of different lengths, with prevalence for these encompassing a large fraction of the homorepeat (Fig. 3d).

Side chain to backbone hydrogen bonds trigger and stabilize helical conformations in H46

It has been shown in non-pathogenic H16 and the androgen receptor that a network of hydrogen bonds involving backbone and side chains is at the origin of the helical propagation from the Nflanking region to the poly-Q tract^{33,44}. Here, we investigated whether this effect is conserved in pathogenic httex1. To this end, we monitored the CB, HB, Cy, Hy and NHE chemical shifts, which could be unambiguously assigned through SSIL samples (Fig. 4a and S5). The two diastereotopic Hβ glutamine protons displayed resolved responses, with the difference in their chemical shifts increasing along the sequence. The maximum difference was observed for the last glutamines of the tract (Q62 and Q63) and those within the PRR (Q75 and Q91), while Q18 displayed the smallest one, featuring virtually degenerate Hβ chemical shifts (Fig. 4a, Fig. S5a). These observations indicate a correlation between the chemical shift difference and the level of disorder. Interestingly, Q21 exhibited three peaks that we attributed to the equilibrium between two conformations in slow exchange at the NMR timescale. One of the two conformations of Q21 displayed the spectroscopic features observed for Q18 (degenerate Hβ chemical shifts) and the other one those observed for the rest of the glutamines (distinct Hβ chemical shifts). This observation is in agreement with the two Cα peaks observed for Q21 (Fig. 1c), which were attributed to two conformations with different helical content. The H_γ signals followed an inverse trend than that observed for Hβ. The last glutamines of the tract and those located in the PRR presented a single correlation, corresponding to degenerate diastereotopic Hy chemical shifts, as expected for a flexible glutamine side chain (Fig. 4a and S5b). Conversely, the majority of glutamines of the homorepeat (up to Q48) displayed a small but measurable difference between the Hy chemical shifts, suggesting a transient rigidification of the side chain. Again, in line with the Hβ signals, Q18, Q20 and Q21 were exceptions to this behavior. While Q18 exhibited a single Cy-Hy peak in the ¹³C-HSQC, Q21 displayed three peaks, substantiating the equilibrium between the two previously eluded conformational states. Although O20 only exhibited two Cy-Hy peaks, their difference in intensity suggested a similar situation as

- 331 for Q21, but with the Cγ-Hγ peak of the conformational state with degenerate Hγ chemical shifts
- overlapping with one of the Cy-Hy peaks of the other state.
- 333 These results confirm previous observations for a non-pathological version of httex1 and the
- androgen receptor^{33,44}, demonstrating the presence of $i \rightarrow i+4$ bifurcated hydrogen bonds structurally
- connecting the first residues of the poly-Q tract with the upstream flanking region (Fig. 4b).
- Furthermore, our data indicate that these hydrogen bonds are present, although to a lower extent,
- along the homorepeat, incorporating an additional mechanism for structural stabilization.

2S,4R-Fluoroglutamine (4F-Gln) as a new probe to study the structure and dynamics of

httex1

338

339

340

- In order to confirm the different conformational behavior of glutamine side chains along the poly-Q
- 342 tract and benefiting from the SSIL methodology, a fluorinated glutamine was site-specifically
- incorporated at different positions of H46 (Fig. 1a). Consequently, we synthesized with high yield
- and stereospecificity 2S,4R-fluoroglutamine (4F-Gln), in which a fluorine atom replaced a
- hydrogen atom on C γ (Fig. S6)⁴⁵. This 4F-Gln was successfully loaded onto the tRNA_{CUA} using the
- yeast glutaminyl-tRNA synthetase with similar yields as for canonical glutamine (Fig. S7),
- 347 suggesting that the fluorine atom is not changing the structural and electronic properties of
- glutamine, enabling the recognition by the enzyme³¹.
- 349 4F-Gln was used in two sets of experiments. First, we used 4F-Gln to substantiate the participation
- of Q20 and Q21 in the hydrogen bond network that propagates helicity in the homorepeat. To this
- end, we incorporated 4F-Gln in positions Q20 or Q21 in two H46 samples that were also
- isotopically labeled with ¹⁵N-Ser or ¹⁵N-Phe, respectively (Fig. 4c left panels and Fig. S8). When
- comparing their ¹⁵N-HSQC spectra with those of non-fluorinated H46 (Fig. 4c, left panels),
- substantial changes could be observed in S16 and F17 upon Q20 or Q21 fluorination, respectively.
- 355 The presence of a fluorinated glutamine in position 20 produced a slight chemical shift change of
- 356 S16, while fluorination of Q21 induced a stronger effect on F17, leading to the appearance of a
- 357 second peak. Furthermore, no chemical shift changes were observed for the other serines and
- 358 phenylalanines of H46, highlighting the specificity of the interaction. Importantly, similar
- observations were made when 4F-Gln was incorporated in the same positions in H16, in samples
- 360 simultaneously labeled with ¹⁵N-Ser and ¹⁵N-Phe (Fig. 4c right panels and Fig. S8). Indeed, when
- 361 Q20 was fluorinated in the non-pathogenic form, not only S16 was affected, but F17 was also
- perturbed (Fig. S8). Fluorination of Q21 again resulted in the appearance of a second F17 signal
- and slightly affected S16. These data underline the structural coupling between Q20 and S16 as
- well as Q21 and F17, in both pathogenic and non-pathogenic forms of httex1.

In a second set of experiments, we incorporated 4F-Gln in four H46 positions strategically located at the beginning (Q20 and Q21), the middle (Q40) and the end (Q60) of the poly-Q tract to be monitored by 1D ¹⁹F-NMR (Fig. 1a). Note that the ¹⁹F chemical shift is exquisitely sensitive to small differences in the electronic surroundings of the fluorine nucleus, and thus an excellent reporter on biomolecular structure and dynamics^{46,47}. Strong differences in ¹⁹F chemical shifts were observed for the four positions despite the homogeneity of the amino acid sequence (Fig. 4b). This demonstrates important structural changes along the poly-Q tract, most likely linked to the amount of helical content. The chemical shift of Q21 was particularly high, most probably due to its proximity to the ring currents exerted by F17 in the hydrogen-bonded form (Fig 4b and 4d).

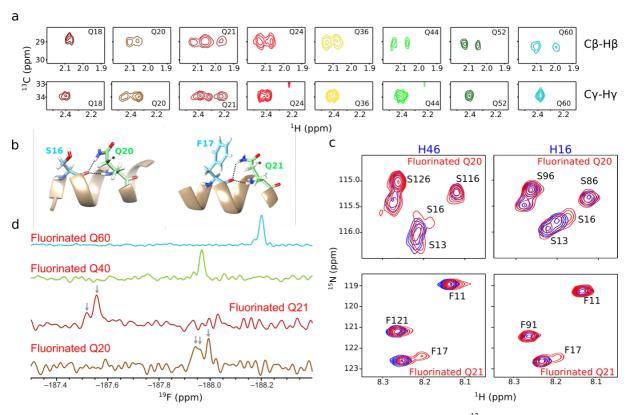


Figure 4. NMR analysis of H46 side chains. (a) Cβ-Hβ and Cγ-Hγ regions of the ¹³C-HSQC spectra of selected glutamines within the poly-Q. The spectra of Q60 display the standard behavior of disordered glutamines with non-degenerate and degenerate diastereotopic protons for Cβ-Hβ and Cγ-Hγ, respectively. (b) Structural model of the N17-poly-Q coupling showing bifurcated H-bonds between S16 and Q20 (left) and F17 and Q21 (right). The asterisk indicates the proton substituted with a fluorine atom when 4F-Gln was incorporated. (c) Zoom of ¹H-¹⁵N HSQC spectra of H46 (left panels) and H16 (right panels) samples labeled with either ¹⁵N-Ser or ¹⁵N-Phe. In red, spectra of samples with fluorinated glutamine at position Q20 (upper panels) or Q21 (lower panels). Non-fluorinated samples are colored in blue. (d) 1D ¹⁹F spectra of H46 samples with fluorinated glutamines at positions Q20, Q21, Q40 or Q60.

Interestingly, multiple ¹⁹F-NMR resonances were observed for Q20 and Q21. For Q20, three distinct responses were measured, including two signals with very close chemical shifts that could only just be resolved. In line with the $C\gamma$ -H γ peaks, it can be concluded that the Q20 side chain adopts at least two different conformations in a slow exchange regime. Given the sensitivity of the

¹⁹F chemical shift, the two closely resonating signals can be explained by the fluorine sensing the different conformational states of neighboring glutamines. For Q21, a weak second ¹⁹F signal could be detected, in agreement with the two populations previously identified in the $C\alpha$ -H α , $C\beta$ -H β and $C\gamma$ -H γ correlations. Altogether, the site-specific incorporation of 4F-Gln substantiates the structural link of N17 with the poly-Q tract, the distinct glutamine side-chain conformational preference along the poly-Q tract, and the presence of multiple conformations in the homorepeat.

Molecular dynamics simulations provides insights into the helix propagation and stabilization mechanisms in httex1

We performed Gaussian accelerated molecular dynamics (GaMD)⁴⁸ simulations to understand the secondary structure propensities of httex1 and get further insights into the role of N17 in inducing helicity. Previous MD studies of httex1 have yielded vastly different results ranging from completely α-helical to highly β-strand rich structures, most likely due to the use of non-adapted force-fields⁴⁹. To simulate a httex1 fragment encompassing N17, the polyQ tract and five prolines, we used the recently developed ff99SBws-STQ force-field, which has been refined to describe the secondary structure propensities of low-complexity proteins⁵⁰. In all the 8 independent MD simulations, with an aggregated time of \approx 20 µs, we observed that the poly-Q tract sampled a wide conformational landscape and mainly adopted α-helical and disordered conformations, while N17 presented a higher helical propensity (Fig. 5a and S9a). Interestingly, several helical folding and melting events could be observed along these trajectories. For some of the simulations, we observed the formation of long α-helices that spanned almost the whole length of N17 and poly-Q tract and were only absent in the residues close to the poly-P region (Fig. 5a). In line with the directionality observed experimentally, the process of α-helix melting systematically occurred from C to N, as observed in the 1600-1800 ns period in Fig. 5a, while α-helices in httex1 preferentially grew from N to C (Fig. S10). The spontaneous formation of short α-helical conformations unconnected with N17 was also observed along the trajectories (e.g., frames 2000-2300 in Fig. 5a), although they dissolved relatively fast. This suggests a small inherent α -helical propensity of poly-Q tracts.

The weighted average per-residue fractional helicity of all the simulations indicated that the poly-Q tract adopted higher α -helical propensity when closer to N17 (Fig. S9b). Moving further from N17, the helicity decreased until Q30 from where it remained flat until Q55 to finally decrease when approaching the poly-P. Importantly, this behavior was qualitatively very similar to the experimentally determined α -helix propensity of httex1 (Fig. 1d and 1e). This suggests that our simulations captured the structural mechanisms present in httex1, although the relative population of α -helix in the poly-Q tract was underestimated. When analyzing the frames with α -helices with

increasing length (from 4 to 40), we observed a gradual increase in fractional helicity from N- to C-terminus, substantiating the structural propagation from N17 towards the poly-Q (Fig. 5b).

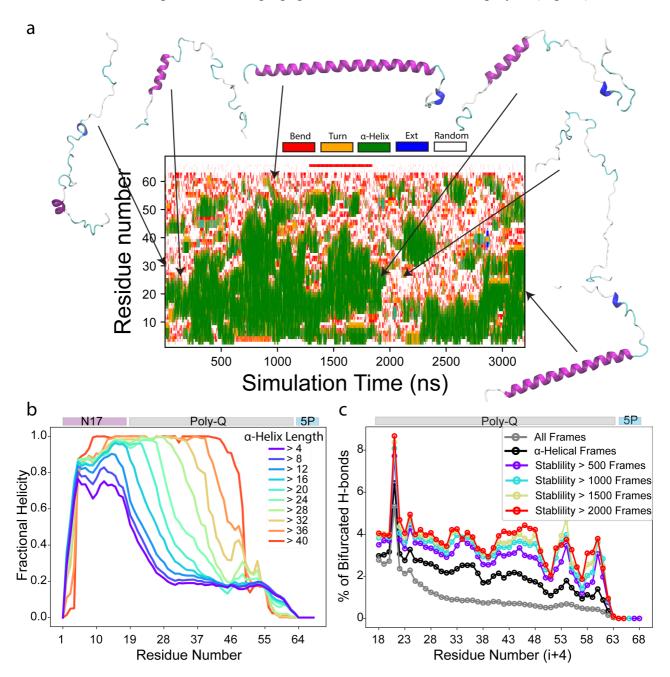


Figure 5. Insights into the conformational landscape of httex1 with MD simulations. (a) The per-residue secondary structure plot for one of the GaMD trajectories showing a transition from an almost completely random-coil conformation to a long α -helix and back to random coil. (b) The reweighted fractional helicity calculated using frames with increasing minimum α -helix length ranging from 4 to 40. (c) The percentage of frames with bifurcated hydrogen bonds for each residue of the poly-Q tract using all frames (gray), only the frames where the fragment $(i \rightarrow i+4)$ was in helical conformation (black) and the segments of the trajectory where the fragment $(i \rightarrow i+4)$ formed a stable α -helix for an increasing number of frames ranging from 500 to 2000.

We analyzed the trajectories for the existence of $i\rightarrow i+4$ bifurcated hydrogen bonds. Interestingly, they were found throughout the poly-Q, although they were more abundant in the beginning of the

436

437

438

439

440

441

442

443

444

445

446

447

448

449

450

451

452

453

454

455

456

457

458

459

460

461

462

463

464

465

466

467

tract where the hydrogen bonds were formed with the residues of N17 region and their number slowly decreased along the tract (Fig. 5c). Residue Q21 presented the highest propensity to form bifurcated hydrogen bonds with F17. Taken together, the trend of bifurcated hydrogen bonds agrees with the results of the appearance of doublets in $C\gamma$ -H γ correlations and the results from specifically fluorinated glutamines probing the initial residues of the poly-Q (Fig. 4). Then, we analyzed the correlation between bifurcate hydrogen bonds and α -helix stability. Not surprisingly, the percentage of these hydrogen bonds was higher in frames where the segment ($i \rightarrow i+4$) adopted a helical conformation. Importantly, the population consistently increased with the stability of the helix, suggesting that bifurcated hydrogen bonds stabilize α -helical conformations in httex1 (Fig. 5c).

The structure of the poly-Q governs aggregation kinetics and fibril structure of httex1

The hydrogen bond network connecting N17 and the poly-Q tract enabled the design of point mutants in H16 altering the level of structure in the homorepeat while preserving its length³³. Its application to H46 allowed the interrogation of the relative relevance of the helical content and the poly-Q tract length for the aggregation propensity in a pathogenic variant of httex1. With this aim, two N17 mutants of H46 were produced (Fig. 1a). First, by substituting ¹⁶SF¹⁷ by ¹⁶GG¹⁷ (LKGG-H46), we hamper the H-bond network connecting both domains. Second, when ¹⁵KS¹⁶ were replaced by ¹⁵LL¹⁶ (LLLF-H46), the hydrogen bond network was strengthened by incorporating two additional large hydrophobic residues. Uniformly labeled and SSIL samples of these mutants were produced and analyzed by NMR. On one hand, LKGG-H46 glutamine ¹⁵N-HSQC signals collapsed in a broad, high-intensity, downfield-shifted peak, proving a substantial loss of helicity in comparison with the wild-type H46 (Fig. 6a). Interestingly, this broad peak did not overlap with the positions corresponding to fully unstructured glutamines, which were shifted further downfield. This indicates that poly-O, even when disconnected from the flanking region, contains a small intrinsic propensity for helical conformations, in agreement with our MD simulations and previous studies³⁵. On the other hand, the ¹⁵N-HSQC spectrum of fully labeled LLLF-H46 displayed a more dispersed density of glutamine peaks and an additional upfield density, pointing to a helicity increase of the poly-Q tract (Fig. 6b). The detailed analysis of NH, NεH₂ and Cα signals of Q18, O20 and O21 SSIL samples from both mutants confirmed the decrease in structuration of LKGG-H46 and the increase in helicity in LLLF-H46, in comparison with the wild-type form (H46) (Fig. 6a,b and Fig. S11). Importantly, Q21 in LLLF-H46 displayed signatures of two conformations as also observed for the wild-type. Interestingly, this residue exhibited two NHE correlation peaks, suggesting the formation of a stronger bifurcated hydrogen bond than in the wild-type.

481

491

468 Unfortunately, a single Ca peak, corresponding to the less helical conformation, was observed for 469 Q21 in this mutant, suggesting an unfavorable exchange regime for the NMR detection. 470 Once the structural features of the H46 mutants were confirmed, their propensities to aggregate were measured. For this, 15 µM samples of H46, LKGG-H46 and LLLF-H46 were incubated at 37°C and the soluble fractions of the proteins were analyzed by SDS-PAGE over a period of 48 h 472 473 (Fig. 6c and Fig. S12). Several essays were performed to better sample the monitored period. H46 474 presented a moderate aggregation propensity, with a systematic decrease of the soluble fraction from the first hours of incubation that almost disappeared after 48 h. When the soluble fraction was 475 fitted to a reverse sigmoid function an aggregation half-time, $t_{1/2}$, of 19 h was obtained. A much 476 477 stronger aggregation propensity was observed for the LLLF-H46 mutant, for which a t_{1/2} of only 1.4 478 h was derived. These observations indicate that increasing the α -helical stability strongly enhances 479 the aggregation propensity of httex1. When the same experiment was performed with the LKGG-H46 mutant, which has a more disordered poly-Q tract similar to pure poly-Q peptides⁵¹, the first 480 signs of aggregation occur after 20 h of incubation and a $t_{1/2}$ of 29 h was obtained. The presence of sfGFP fused to the C-terminus of the httex1 variants, which certainly slows down aggregation, 482 makes the quantitative comparison with previous studies difficult⁵². However, the relative 483 aggregation propensity of the three httex1 forms can be unambiguously obtained. 484 485 The morphology of the aggregates for H46 and the two mutants after 48 and 120 h were investigated by correlative atomic force microscopy (AFM) - total internal reflection fluorescence 486 487 (TIRF) (Fig. 6d,e and S13a,b). The intrinsic fluorescence of the proteins allowed the easier localization of the aggregates on the silica surface and indicated that no proteolytic activity 488 489 preceded the aggregation process of the samples. The inspection of H46 micrographs measured 490 after 48 h of incubation revealed the presence of typical amyloid structures with interconnected fibrils, often presenting a length larger than 1 µm (Fig. 6d, upper panels, left row). Those fibrils 492 exhibited a heterogeneous morphology, with notable variations in width and height, similarly to those recently described^{53,54}. Interestingly, LLLF-H46 aggregates displayed similar features, 493 494 although the presence of fibrils was substantially more abundant (Fig. 6d, middle panels). Indeed, 495 large aggregates containing long fibrils were easily found in the sample (Fig S13a). Again, width 496 variations were often observed along the fibrils. The analysis of LKGG-H46 preparation revealed a 497 different behavior. Considerably larger and more heterogeneous aggregates, presenting often well-498 defined limits, were observed for this mutant. Images indicated the presence of very short fibrils, 499 although relatively long isolated fibrils with a similar morphology than the wild-type and the LLLF-500 H46 were found in the boundaries of the heterogeneous aggregates.

To verify whether the morphology was maintained after longer maturation times, 5-day-old fibrils were also imaged (Fig. 6e and Fig. S13b). Long fibrils were found in wild-type and LLLF-H46 preparations and, interestingly, elongated bundle structures involving several paired filaments were observed. However, these coiled structures were seldom found in LKGG-H46 aggregates and, when observed, they were less ordered (Fig. 6e). Indeed, fibrils around LKGG-H46 bundles were fragmented and small aggregates could be detected along the whole sample, suggesting reduced fibril stability. Altogether, aggregation and AFM experiments demonstrate that the structural properties of httex1 exert a stronger influence on the aggregation propensity and the final form of the fibrils than the poly-Q tract length.

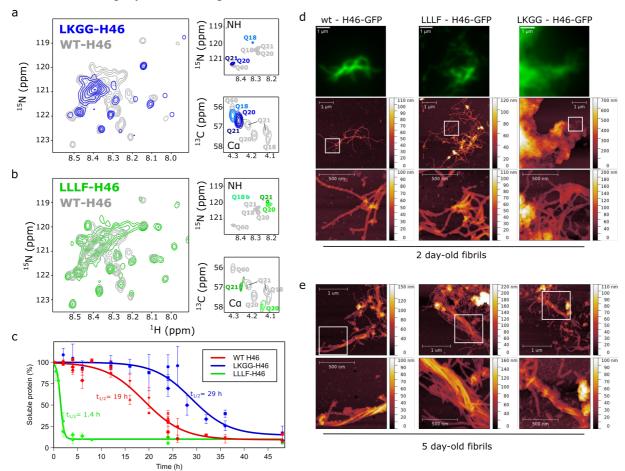


Figure 6. Structural and fibrillation analyses of H46 N17 mutants. (a, b) Overlay of the glutamine region of the 15 N-HSQC of fully labeled H46 (gray) with the N17 mutants LKGG-H46 (blue) and LLLF-H46 (green), as well as zooms of the NH and Cα regions of the corresponding Q18, Q20 and Q21 SSIL samples. (c) Time course of aggregation for wild-type, LKGG- and LLLF-H46 (15 μ M) at 37 °C. Each data point corresponds to the mean and associated standard deviation calculated from three replicates. Symbols represent different independent experiments. Half-time ($t_{1/2}$) values calculated for each H46 species are indicated according to the color code shown in the legend. (d) Fluorescence microscopy (upper panels) and AFM (middle and lower panels) images of 2-day-old fibrils of wild-type, LLLF- and LKGG-H46. Each fluorescence image corresponds to the average of 150 pictures. (e) AFM images of 5-day-old fibrils of three H46 species. White squares indicate the zoom region displayed in the panels below.

523 Discussion Huntington's disease is the most notorious example of the poly-Q-related diseases and findings 524 525 connecting structure and disease unveiled for huntingtin are most probably applicable to the whole 526 family of pathologies¹. In this study, we have characterized at high resolution a pathogenic form of httex1 containing 46 consecutive glutamines, a system that is out of the reach for traditional 527 528 structural biology approaches. We demonstrate that SSIL can be systematically applied to highly 529 repetitive sequences, such as H66, and the only limitations arise from the capacity to purify the 530 protein and preserve its stability in solution. 531 The systematic application of SSIL to H46 demonstrates that this protein retains the α -helical conformation previously observed for non-pathogenic versions of httex1^{26,29,33}. Using circular 532 dichroism, α-helical propensity in pathogenic httex1 had been previously identified for httex1 with 533 up to 55 glutamines²⁷. Moreover, it was shown that the helical content increased concomitantly with 534 535 the length of the tract. However, the low-resolution of circular dichroism hampered the analysis of 536 the extent and stability of helical conformations. One of the most striking observations of our study 537 is the fairly flat plateau of measured secondary chemical shifts along a large fraction of the poly-Q 538 tract (Fig. 1d). These chemical shifts are consistent with the coexistence of multiple partially formed α-helices of different lengths, spanning almost the complete poly-Q tract. However, these 539 540 helices are not equally populated and long α-helices are prevalent according to our synergistic 541 analysis of NMR and SAXS data (Fig. 3). This behavior evidences that the helices, which are 542 formed through a nucleation process triggered by the interaction between the N17 and the first 543 glutamines of the tract, are cooperatively propagated along the homorepeat. A faster decrease in the 544 SCS values would be expected if all helical lengths would display a similar thermodynamic 545 stability. The comparison of the NMR observables for H16 with those of H46 also substantiates the 546 helical stabilization with the poly-Q length. For instance, despite both proteins having the same 547 sequence context. NH. $C\alpha$ and $N_{\varepsilon}H_2$ chemical shifts for initial glutamines of the tract are 548 systematically shifted towards more helical conformations in H46 than in H16 (Fig. S1). Moreover, experiments performed on H66 demonstrate that α-helical conformations are maintained for long 549 550 poly-Q tracts and the distance of individual glutamines to the PRR defines their helical propensity 551 (Fig. 2). From a structural perspective, the α -helical stability found in httex1 could arise from the formation 552 553 of bifurcate hydrogen bonds all along the homorepeat. Indeed, up to Q48, the diastereotopic Hy protons have non-degenerate chemical shifts, although the chemical shift difference decreases along 554 555 the repeat (Fig. S5). An opposite trend is observed for the diastereotopic Hβ protons, which present 556 increasing chemical shift differences when reaching the less structured glutamines of H46. These

558

559

560

561

562

563

564

565

566

567

568

569

570

571

572

573

574

575

576

577

578

579

580

581

582

583

584

585

586

587

588

589

590

spectroscopic features have been associated with the formation of bifurcated hydrogen bonds and the concomitant rigidification of glutamine side chains^{33,44}. Our MD simulations indicated that the percentage of bifurcated hydrogen bonds is correlated with the stability of α -helical conformations. The ensemble of these observations suggests that glutamine side chains are actively involved in the stabilization of the helical conformation of the poly-Q tract and that the strength of this mechanism declines when approaching the PRR. Partial structuration in the poly-Q implies that individual glutamines co-exist in (at least) two different conformational states. A similar conclusion was reached by EPR experiments after incorporating stable radicals in several positions of a pathogenic httex1²⁷. In that study, two dynamic regimes were identified in N17 and poly-Q tract residues, but not in glutamines in the PRR. However, structural details of this conformational fluctuation could not be unveiled. Several NMR signatures collected for H46 using SSIL samples, which can be rationalized through the MD simulations, define the structural bases of this conformational equilibrium. These include, among others, the two Cα-Hα peaks for Q21 (Fig. 1c), the two sets of Cβ-Hβ and Cγ-Hγ peaks for Q20 and Q21 (Fig. 4a), and the multiple ¹⁹F-NMR frequencies also detected for these two residues. Remarkably, the co-existence of a conformational equilibrium is also manifested in most of the other glutamines of the tract, which exhibit the previously eluded non-degenerate Cy-Hy peaks. Our observations demonstrate that httex1 fluctuates between a rigid α-helical conformation, which is stabilized with bifurcate hydrogen bonds, and a more disordered state. Furthermore, our data suggest that the dynamic regime also changes in conjunction with the stability of the helical conformation. While the first glutamines of the tract, which have the highest helical propensity, exhibit a slow exchange on the NMR frequency timescale, a fast exchange regime is observed for the other helical glutamines. This asymmetric behavior suggests that helix unwinding is initiated in the proximity of the PRR and progresses towards the N-terminus, substantiating the previously proposed protective role exerted by the PRR^{34,35,55,56}. The synergistic combination of NMR and SAXS data has enabled the elucidation of an ensemble model of H46⁵⁷, showing that the presence of long α -helices determines the overall shape of httex1. The refined ensemble indicates that H46 is a flexible elongated particle in solution and that the overall size is correlated with the length of the poly-Q tract (Fig. 3c). Importantly, our structural model is in contradiction to previously reported compact models of httex 1^{25,26,49,58}. In these models, compactness is driven by extensive fuzzy contacts between N17 and the poly-Q, a situation that is not compatible with our data. Despite the overall extendedness of the httex1 structure derived here, our ensemble description requires that a large fraction of the protein ensemble remains disordered. This disorder explains the fluorescence transfer efficiency observed in smFRET measurements²⁵ and the lack of permanent hydrogen bonds observed in NMR hydrogen deuterium exchange (HDX) experiments²⁶.

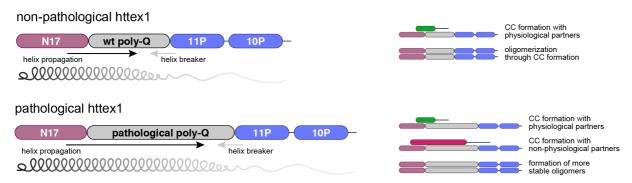


Figure 7. Scheme illustrating the structural influences within non-pathogenic and pathogenic httex1 and their respective modes of interaction. (Top, non-pathogenic httex1) The poly-Q tract of non-pathogenic httex1 experiences opposing structural effects from the N17 (α-helix propagation; black arrow) and the PRR (helix breaking; gray arrow). The gradually shaded helix represents the decrease in helical propensity. Due to its helical conformation, non-pathogenic httex1 can form coiled coil (CCs) with physiological partners or with other httex1 molecules, resulting in oligomers. (Bottom, pathogenic httex1) Pathogenic httex1 experiences the same structural effects, however, helix propagation outweighs the helix-breaking effect coming from the PRR and enhances the formation of CCs. Pathogenic httex1 can still interact with its physiological partners *via* CC formation, but it can also interact with non-physiological partners and form more stable oligomers, which eventually drive to fibrils.

The similarity of the mechanisms defining the structure of non-pathogenic and pathogenic forms of httex1 validates 'linear lattice' as the model accounting for the existence of the pathological threshold^{20,22–24}. According to this model, the expansion of the poly-Q induces a systematic increase of the toxicity of httex1 and, beyond the pathological threshold, triggers cytotoxicity and neuronal aggregation. Importantly, our study provides a structural perspective for this model. Our results demonstrate that the poly-O extension is associated with an increase in the length and stability of the coexisting helical conformations. This is relevant as our aggregation experiments unambiguously show that the α -helical content and not the homorepeat length is the key factor promoting aggregation. Although N17 has been demonstrated to be the aggregation-triggering domain 18,30,34, httex1 becomes aggregation-prone when N17 is structurally coupled to the poly-Q tract. This suggests that when structurally uncoupled, such as in the LKGG-H46 mutant, partially helical N17 is still able to oligomerize, but the resulting oligomers are less stable and aggregation propensity is notably reduced. Conversely, strengthening the structural coupling between both domains stabilizes the helical content of the protein and accelerates aggregation, as observed for LLLF-H46. In line with these observations, previous aggregation experiments with httex1 analogues modifying the poly-Q tract structure highlighted the relevance of the homorepeat conformational preferences in defining the aggregation propensity^{15,59}. In addition to modified aggregation kinetics, we have observed that mutations in the flanking regions also result in fibers

624

625

626

627

628

629

630

631

632

633

634

635

636

637

638

639

640

641

642

643

644

645

646

647

648

649

650

651

652

653

with distinct morphologies, with the LKGG-H46 mutant forming shorter amyloids and exhibiting less capacity to associate to form bundles. Polymorphism in httex1 aggregates has been previously observed in vivo and in vitro when modifying the experimental conditions or when deleting flanking regions^{15,52,60-62}. This polymorphism has been associated to the contribution of N17 and the PRR to the fibril packaging^{62,63}. Conversely, the amyloid core is consistently formed by antiparallel poly-Q stretches forming β-sheet monolayers connected through interdigitated glutamine side chains^{63,64}. In light of our observations, we can speculate about the structural bases of the mechanisms leading to the pathology (Fig. 7). The helical propensity in the poly-Q tract may facilitate intermolecular assemblies through coiled coil (CC) interactions. Indeed, more than 60% of the described httex1 partners have, or are predicted to have, CCs⁶⁵. Furthermore, CC formation has also been suggested to be an important step for the oligomerization and subsequent aggregation of httex1^{17,19}. In the non-pathological scenario, the short length and relatively low stability of the poly-Q helical conformations precisely define the selectivity of partners recognized by httex1. Moreover, resulting httex1 oligomers exhibit reduced stability. When the number of glutamines exceeds the pathological threshold, there is a concomitant population increase of long α -helical conformations. These long poly-Q helices could still interact with their physiological partners, although most probably with different thermodynamic properties compared to the non-pathological scenario. However, they could also associate with other non-physiological partners, sequester them and perturb crucial signaling and metabolic pathways, inducing the symptoms associated to HD². In terms of the fibrillation capacity, longer helices can form more stable oligomers though CC interactions. These oligomers can eventually nucleate the formation of the amyloidogenic fibrils^{17,66} or being the source of cytotoxicity by sequestering crucial cellular components⁶⁷. Altogether, this study shows that the expansion of the poly-O tract in pathogenic httex1 is associated with an increase in the length and stability of α -helical conformations, which are the main driving force for the enhanced aggregation propensity. Our results provide a high-resolution structural perspective of the pathological threshold in HD that goes beyond the length of the poly-O tract by underlining the associated conformational preferences. The generalization of these observations to the other poly-Q related diseases remains to be unveiled. However, the possibility to explore their associated proteins at the residue level and independently of the length of the homorepeat paves the way to a detailed structural understanding of the origin of these pathologies.

Materials and Methods

654

655

664

665

669

670

683

684

Huntingtin exon1 constructs

- All plasmids were prepared as previously described³³. Synthetic genes of wild-type huntingtin
- exon1 with 16, 46 and 66 consecutive glutamines (H16, H46 and H66 respectively) or H46 and H66
- carrying the amber codon (TAG) instead of the glutamine codon, e.g. Q18 (H46Q18), were ordered
- from GeneArt. Following this strategy, 16 amber mutants for H46 and two for H66 were purchased:
- Q18, Q20, Q21, etc. Synthetic genes of the structural H46 mutants (LKGG-H46 and LLLF-H46)
- and their corresponding amber codon mutants (Q18, Q20, Q21) were also ordered from GeneArt.
- All genes were cloned into pIVEX 2.3d, giving rise to pIVEX-httex1-3C-sfGFP-His₆ and mutants.
- The sequence of all plasmids was confirmed by sequencing by GENEWIZ.

Synthesis of 2S,4R-fluoroglutamine

- The synthesis of the 2S,4R-fluoroglutamine ((2S, 4R)-2,5-Diamino-4-fluoro-5-oxopentanoic acid),
- 4F-Gln, was performed as detailed by Qu *et al.*⁴⁵. The purity and the enantiomeric excess (98%)
- were evaluated by ¹H- and ¹⁹F-NMR (see Fig. S6 in Supplementary information).

Preparation and aminoacylation of suppressor tRNA_{CUA}

- A tRNA_{CUA}/tRNA synthetase pair based on the Gln2 tRNA and glutamine ligase GLN4 from
- 672 Saccharomyces cerevisiae was prepared in house as previously described³². Briefly, the artificial
- suppressor tRNA_{CUA} was transcribed *in vitro* and purified by phenol-chloroform extraction. Prior to
- use, the suppressor tRNA_{CUA} was refolded in 100 mM HEPES-KOH pH 7.5, 10 mM KCl at 70°C
- 675 for 5 min and a final concentration of 5 mM MgCl₂ was added just before the reaction was placed
- on ice. The refolded tRNA_{CUA} was then aminoacylated with [¹⁵N, ¹³C]-glutamine (CortecNet) in a
- standard aminoacylation reaction: 20 µM tRNA_{CUA}, 0.5 µM GLN4, 0.1 mM [¹⁵N, ¹³C]-Gln (or 0.5
- 678 mM of 4F-Gln) in 100 mM HEPES-KOH pH 7.5, 10 mM KCl, 20 mM MgCl₂, 1 mM DTT and
- 679 10 mM ATP³⁷. After incubation at 37°C for 1 hour GLN4 was removed by addition of glutathione
- beads and loaded suppressor tRNA_{CUA} was precipitated with 300 mM sodium acetate pH 5.2 and
- 2.5 volumes of 96% EtOH at -80°C and stored as dry pellets at -20°C. Successful loading was
- confirmed by urea-PAGE (6.5% acrylamide 19:1, 8 M urea, 100 mM sodium acetate pH 5.2).

Standard cell-free expression conditions

- Lysate was prepared as previously described³³ and based on the *Escherichia coli* strain BL21 Star
- 686 (DE3)::RF1-CBD₃, a gift from Gottfried Otting (Australian National University, Canberra,
- Australia)⁶⁸. Cell-free protein expression was performed in batch mode as described by Apponyi et
- 688 al.⁶⁹. The standard reaction mixture consisted of the following components: 55 mM HEPES-KOH

(pH 7.5), 1.2 mM ATP, 0.8 mM each of CTP, GTP and UTP, 1.7 mM DTT, 0.175 mg/mL *E. coli* total tRNA mixture (from strain MRE600), 0.64 mM cAMP, 27.5 mM ammonium acetate, 68 μM 1-5-formyl-5,6,7,8-tetrahydrofolic acid (folinic acid), 1 mM of each of the 20 amino acids, 80 mM creatine phosphate (CP), 250 μg/mL creatine kinase (CK), plasmid (16 μg/mL) and 22.5% (v/v) S30 extract. The concentrations of magnesium acetate (5-20 mM) and potassium glutamate (60-200 mM) were adjusted for each new batch of S30 extract. A titration of both compounds was performed to obtain the maximum yield.

Preparation of NMR samples

Samples for NMR studies were produced in cell-free at 5-15 mL scale and incubated at 23°C and 450 rpm in a thermomixer for 4 h. Uniformly labeled NMR samples were obtained by substituting the standard amino acid mix with 3 mg/mL [¹⁵N, ¹³C]-labeled ISOGRO⁴⁰ (an algal extract lacking four amino acids: Asn, Cys, Gln and Trp) and additionally supplying [¹⁵N, ¹³C]-labeled Asn, Cys and Trp (1 mM each) and 4 mM Gln. H46 samples in which only certain amino acids were selectively labeled (Ala and Lys; Gly, Ser and Arg; Leu and Glu; and Phe) were prepared by substituting the respective amino acids for the [¹⁵N, ¹³C]-labeled ones. To enable the labeling of glutamates, potassium glutamate was substituted with potassium acetate, which was optimized by testing a range of concentrations³⁶. To produce site-specifically labeled samples, the standard reaction mixture was slightly modified. Instead of adding 1 mM of each amino acid, proline and glutamine were substituted by deuterated versions (Eurisotop) and used at 2 or 4 mM, respectively. 10 μM of [¹⁵N, ¹³C]-Gln or 4F-Gln suppressor tRNA_{CUA} were added for suppressed samples. The same procedures were used for the preparation of H66 samples.

Expression of H16 in E. coli

Escherichia coli BL21 (DE3) transformed with H16 construct was grown in LB medium supplemented with 50 µg/mL kanamycin at 37°C under stirring. When an OD_{600nm} 0.7 was reached, the culture was induced using 1 mM IPTG and grown for 24 hours at 23°C. The cell pellet was collected by centrifugation at 5,000 x g for 15 minutes at 4°C and resuspended in 10 mL buffer A (50 mM Tris, 1000 mM NaCl, pH 8.5), supplemented with cOmplete EDTA free protease inhibitor tablet (Roche), per 1 L of expression volume. Cells were lysed by sonication at 35% for 2 minutes with on-off cycles and cell debris was pelleted by centrifugation at 20,000 xg for 30 minutes at 4°C. E. coli H16 was used for SAXS experiments.

Protein purification

723 The cell-free reactions were diluted 5-10 fold with buffer A (50 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 500 mM 724 NaCl, 5 mM imidazole) before incubating it 1 h with 1.5 mL of Ni-resin (cOmplete™ His-Tag 725 Purification Resin). The matrix was packed by gravity-flow and washed with buffer B (50 mM) 726 Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 1000 mM NaCl, 5 mM imidazole) and the target protein was eluted with buffer C 727 (50 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl, 250 mM imidazole). For SAXS measurements, this affinity chromatography step was carried out in an AKTA pure System (GE Healthcare) with a 5 728 729 mL Histrap® Excel column. Elution fractions were checked under UV light and fluorescent fractions were pooled, protease inhibitors were added (cOmplete EDTA-free protease inhibitor 730 731 cocktail, Sigma Aldrich) and the sample was dialyzed against NMR buffer (20 mM BisTris-HCl pH 6.5, 150 mM NaCl) at 4°C using SpectraPor 4 MWCO 12-14 kDa dialysis tubing (Spectrum 732 733 Labs). Dialyzed protein was then concentrated with 10 kDa MWCO Vivaspin centrifugal concentrators (3,500 xg, 4°C) (Sartorius). Protein concentrations were determined by means of 734 fluorescence using an sfGFP calibration curve. Final NMR sample concentrations ranged from 4 to 735 736 15 μM. Protein integrity was analyzed by SDS-PAGE.

- 737 For both aggregation and SAXS experiments, an additional size-exclusion chromatography step,
- using a Superdex S200 10/300 column, was carried out. For aggregation measurements, this step
- was performed in aggregation buffer (50 mM sodium phosphate, pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl) and for
- 740 SAXS measurements in NMR buffer.

741

742

757

NMR experiments and data analysis

- 743 All NMR samples contained final concentrations of 10% D₂O and 0.5 mM 4,4-dimethyl-4-
- silapentane-1-sulfonic acid (DSS). ¹⁵N and ¹³C-HSQC experiments, in order to determine amide
- 745 (¹H_N and ¹⁵N) and aliphatic (¹H_{aliphatic} and ¹³C_{aliphatic}) chemical shifts, were performed at 293 K on a
- Rruker Avance III spectrometer equipped with a cryogenic triple resonance probe and Z gradient
- coil, operating at a ¹H frequency of 700 MHz or 800 MHz. Spectra acquisition parameters were set
- up depending on the sample concentration and the magnet strength. All spectra were processed with
- 749 TopSpin v3.5 (Bruker Biospin) and analyzed using CCPN-Analysis software⁷⁰. Chemical shifts
- were referenced with respect to the H₂O signal relative to DSS using the ¹H/X frequency ratio of the
- 751 zero point according to Markley *et al.*⁷¹.
- Random coil chemical shifts were predicted using POTENCI, a pH, temperature and neighbor
- corrected IDP library (http://nmr.chem.rug.nl/potenci/)³⁷. Secondary chemical shifts (SCS) were
- obtained by subtracting the predicted value from the experimental one (SCS= δ_{exp} - δ_{pred}). For better
- reliability of the results regarding possible referencing errors, we used the combined C_{α} and C_{β}
- 756 secondary chemical shifts (SCS(C_{α})-SCS(C_{β})).

¹⁹F-NMR experiments

All NMR samples were first concentrated up to a ca. 200 μl volume using Vivaspin centrifugal concentrators (Sartorius) with a 5 kDa cutoff at 4°C. 0.1 μl of a trimethylsilylpropanoic acid (TMSP) solution for chemical shift referencing and 10 μl of D₂O were added before NMR measurement. All ¹⁹F NMR experiments were performed on a Bruker Avance III HD spectrometer operating at a ¹H and ¹⁹F frequencies of 600.13 MHz and 564.69 MHz, respectively, equipped with a CP-QCI-F cryoprobe with ¹⁹F cryo-detection. All ¹⁹F 1D experiments were performed at 293.0 K with ¹H decoupling during acquisition using waltz16 composite pulse decoupling. An acquisition time of 0.58 s, spectral width of 100.6 s and relaxation delay of 1.0 s was used for all samples, except for the sample fluorinated at Q20, where an acquisition time of 0.29 s and a relaxation delay of 0.5 s was used. Concatenated 1D ¹⁹F spectra of 128 transients each were acquired in order to monitor any spectral changes over time. Signal averaging was then performed up to a time point before significant spectral changes over time could be detected. Final number of transients varied were 77824, 49152, 39680 and 53760 for samples fluorinated at Q20, Q21, Q40 and Q60, respectively. ¹⁹F spectra were referenced to the ¹H signal of TMSP using the unified chemical shift scale.

Model building and chemical shift ensemble optimization

Ensemble models for the two families capturing the conformational influences of the flanking regions, N \rightarrow C and N \leftarrow C, were constructed with the algorithm described in reference³⁸, which uses a curated database of three-residue fragments extracted from high-resolution protein structures. The model building strategy consecutively appends residues, which are considered to be either fully disordered or partially structured. For fully disordered residues, amino acid specific ϕ/ψ angles defining the residue conformation are randomly selected from the database, disregarding their sequence context. For partially structured residues, the nature and the conformation of the flanking residues are taken into account when selecting the conformation of the incorporated residue. Steric clashes are tested at each step, and a backtracking strategy is applied to solve possible conflicts (see detailed explanation of the algorithm in reference³⁸).

Two families of ensembles were built. For the first family (N \rightarrow C ensembles), starting with the ¹⁰AFESLKS¹⁶ region of N17 as partially structured, multiple ensembles of 5,000 conformations

F17 to Q63) as partially structured, while the rest of the chain was considered to be fully disordered. An equivalent strategy was followed for the second family of ensembles (N←C ensembles) for which glutamines were considered successively as partially structured from the poly-P tract (from Q63 to Q18). Note that in the partially structured building strategy secondary structural elements

were built by successively including an increasing number of glutamines in the poly-O tract (from

are propagated due to the conformational influence of neighboring residues. Two tripeptide databases were used to generate the conformational ensemble models. Both were constructed from the protein domains in the SCOP (Structural Classification of Proteins)^{72,73} repository filtered to 95% sequence identity. An "unfiltered" tripeptide database was built disregarding secondary structure content, and "coil" database included tripeptides not participating in α -helices or β -strands. For the N→C ensembles, the best results were obtained when using the "unfiltered" and "coil" databases to sample the partially-structured and the fully disordered sections, respectively. For the NC ensembles, the "coil" database yielded the best results. For the resulting 47 ensembles of each family, and after building the side chains with the program SCWRL4³⁹, averaged Cα chemical shifts were computed with SPARTA+40, and used for the optimization. The optimized ensemble model of H46 was built by reweighting the populations of the pre-computed ensembles, minimizing the error with respect to the experimental $C\alpha$ CSs. In order to capture the influence of the flanking regions, glutamines within the tract were divided into two groups: those influenced by N17 and those influenced by the poly-P tract, whose chemical shifts were fitted with the N→C and N←C ensembles, respectively. The limit between both families was systematically explored by computing the agreement between the experimental and optimized CSs through a χ^2 value. An optimal description of the complete CS profile was obtained when Q55 was chosen as the last residue structurally connected with N17. Finally, an ensemble of 11,000 conformations was built using the optimized weights and it was used to derive secondary structure population using SS-map⁴³ and to analyze the SAXS data.

SAXS data measurement and analysis

The SAXS data for H16 were collected at the SWING beamline at the SOLEIL synchrotron, France, equipped with an Eiger 4M detector with a sample-to-detector distance of 1.5 m⁷⁴. The data for H46 were collected at EMBL-bioSAXS-P12 beamline at PETRAIII, Hamburg, Germany equipped with a Pilatus 6M detector with a sample-to-detector distance of 3 m⁷⁵. The parameters used for SAXS data collection are given in Table S2. All the data were collected in SEC-SAXS mode with an in-line Superdex 200 Increase 10/300 GL column (GE Healthcare). Both proteins were concentrated to 8 mg/mL and centrifuged at 20,000 x g immediately before injecting the protein onto the column. 80 μL of the sample were injected into the column and the flow rate was maintained at 0.5 mL/min. The initial data processing steps including masking and azimuthal averaging were performed using the program FOXTROT⁷⁶ for H16 and SASFLOW pipeline⁷⁵ for H46. The resulting 1D profiles were analyzed using CHROMIXS⁷⁷ from ATSAS suite to select the frames corresponding to sample and buffer and perform buffer subtraction. The final buffer subtracted and averaged SAXS profiles were analyzed using ATSAS 2.8 software package⁷⁸,

including AUTORG for calculating the radius of gyration and calculation of extrapolated value of radius of gyration (R_g), GNOM⁷⁹ for calculation of pairwise distance distribution profiles and DATBAYES⁸⁰ for calculation of molecular weight by Bayesian estimate from four approaches. The ensemble optimization approach (EOM) was used to select sub-ensembles that collectively describe the SAXS data. The program RanCH was first used to join each of the conformations of H16 and H46 (generated as described above) to the modelled structure of sfGFP and the hexahistidine tag used for purification. GAJOE was then used to find a sub-ensemble from this pool which collectively describes the SAXS data^{41,42}. The graphical representations were generated using the program VMD⁸¹.

Molecular dynamics simulations

828

829

830

831

832

833

834

835

836

837

838

839

840

841

842

843

844

845

846

847

848

849

850

851

852

853

854

855

856

857

858

859

860

861

862

We performed Gaussian Accelerated Molecular Dynamics (GaMD)⁴⁸ simulations to explore the conformational landscape and the secondary structure propensities of a fragment of httex1 consisting of N17, 46 glutamines and 5 prolines. We used ff03ws-STQ⁵⁰ force field, which is adapted to proteins with low-complexity sequences (obtained from https://bitbucket.org/jeetain/allatom ff refinements/src/master/). We chose an extended conformation built using the protocol described earlier in the model building section as the starting structure and prepared the simulation system using tools available with GROMACS 2020.5. This included addition of hydrogens, solvation and addition of ions (Na⁺ and Cl⁻) to neutralize the system and set the final salt concentration to 0.15 M. Thereafter, the system was converted to AMBER format using ParmEd tool in AMBER20. At this stage, hydrogen mass repartitioning was also done to allow a time step of 4 fs. We used periodic boundary conditions and restrained the bonds containing hydrogen atoms using SHAKE algorithm. Particle Mesh Ewald summation (PME) was used to calculate electrostatic interaction with a cut-off of 9 Å on the long-range interactions. The system was energy minimized for 5000 steps. This was followed by an NVT (constant number, volume and temperature) equilibration for 5 ns and further equilibration in NPT (constant number, pressure and temperature) for 10ns. For all the simulations, the temperature was maintained at 293 K and for NPT simulations the pressure was maintained at 1 atm. This was followed by a GaMD equilibration stage which consisted of a classical MD simulation of 40 ns during which the potential statistics to calculate GaMD parameters were collected followed by a 120 ns long equilibration during which the boost was added and updated. Finally, 8 independent simulations with an aggregate simulation time of ~ 20 µs were launched using the boost parameters obtained in the equilibration stage. The simulations were run in "dual-boost" mode and the reference energy was set to the lower bound (E=V_{max}). The average and standard deviation of the potential energy were calculated every 2ns (number of steps $\approx 4*$ system size).

Aggregation experiments

Time-dependent aggregation of H46 variants was followed with SDS-PAGE analysis as previously described, with minor modifications⁵². 15 μM wild-type-, LKGG- and LLLF-H46 samples, prepared in aggregation buffer (50 mM sodium phosphate, pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl), were incubated at 37°C for 48 h, without shaking. 10 μL-aliquots were extracted at different time intervals, immediately mixed with denaturing buffer (125 mM Tris-HCl, pH 6.8, 20% glycerol, 4% SDS, 200 mM dithiothreitol, 0.05% bromophenol blue), incubated for 10 min at 95°C, and frozen at -20 °C until analysis on BoltTM 4–12% Bis-Tris Plus gels (Invitrogen). The gels were washed in water, stained with Instant Blue Coomassie Protein Stain (Abcam), and visualized using a Gel DocTM Ez Imager (Bio-Rad). The amount of SDS-soluble species trapped in the stacking gel was quantified using the Image Lab 5.1 software. The percentages of soluble protein were referenced to time 0 values, and plotted against time. The plots were fitted using GraphPad Prism Software. For each protein variant, at least two independent experiments, with three replicates at each time point, were recorded.

Atomic force microscopy (AFM) and total internal reflection fluorescence (TIRF)

Correlative AFM-TIRF microscopy was developed in-house⁸². AFM images were acquired using a Nanowizard 4 (JPK Instruments, Bruker) mounted on a Zeiss inverted optical microscope and equipped with a Vortis-SPM control unit. A custom-made TIRF microscope was coupled to the AFM using a LX 488-50 OBIS laser source (Coherent). We used an oil immersion objective with a 1.4 numerical aperture (Plan-Apochromat 100x, Zeiss). Fluorescence was collected with an EmCCD iXon Ultra897 (Andor) camera. The setup includes a 1.5x telescope to obtain a final imaging magnification of 150-fold, corresponding to a camera pixel size of 81.3 nm. An ET800sp short pass filter (Chroma) was used in the emission optical path to filter out the light source of the AFM optical beam deflection system. The excitation laser wavelength was centered at 488 nm and the power was measured before the objective with a PM100 energy meter (purchased from Thorlabs) and was optimized in all the experiments in the range of 1-5 μ W. Fluorescence images were acquired using an ET525/50 nm (Chroma) emission filter and an acousto-optic tuneable filter (AOTFnc-400.650-TN, AA opto-electronics) to modulate the laser intensity. Fluorescence images were obtained by averaging 150 individual images, each acquired over 50 ms as exposure time.

AFM images were collected in liquid environment (Dulbecco's PBS named D-PBS) using the quantitative-imaging (QI) mode. Each image was acquired with 256x256 lines/pixels and the following scan size: $5 \mu m \times 5 \mu m$, $2.5 \mu m \times 2.5 \mu m$ and $1 \mu m \times 1 \mu m$. Typical force *versus* distance curves were recorded with a tip approach speed ranging from $10 \mu m/s$ to $30 \mu m/s$ and an oscillation

amplitude (Z length) of 100 nm or 150 nm, adjusted depending on the height of the aggregates. The maximal force exerted in each pixel was set to 100-150 pN and optimized during the image acquisition. We used MSNL-D and MSNL-E (Bruker) AFM probes with resonances in liquid of ≈ 2 kHz and 10 kHz, respectively, and nominal spring constants of 0.03 N/m and 0.1 N/m. MSNL cantilevers have a sharp tip radius (≈ 2 nm), which is ideal for high-resolution imaging. The inverse optical lever sensitivity was calibrated with the acquisition of a force *versus* distance curve on the glass coverslip whereas the cantilever stiffness was calibrated using thermal method⁸³.

Samples for correlative AFM and TIRF were prepared on circular glass coverslips (2.5 cm, 165 µm thick, purchased from Marienfeld). Coverslips were cleaned with a 15 min cycle of sonication with ultrasounds in 1M KOH, rinsed 20 times with deionized water and finally with a second cycle of sonication in deionized water. Fibrils were then deposited on the clean glass coverslips and let dry before being immersed in D-PBS for AFM imaging.

Acknowledgements

898

899

900

901

902

903

904

905

906

907

908

909

910

911

912 The authors thank Gottfried Otting for providing the BL21 (DE3) Star::RF1-CBD3 strain. This 913 work was supported by the European Research Council under the European Union's H2020 914 Framework Programme (2014-2020) / ERC Grant agreement n° [648030] awarded to PB, ANR-17-915 CE11-0022-01 awarded to NS, and Labex EpiGenMed, an « Investissements d'avenir » program 916 (ANR-10-LABX-12-01). The CBS is a member of France-BioImaging (FBI) and the French 917 Infrastructure for Integrated Structural Biology (FRISBI), 2 national infrastructures supported by 918 the French National Research Agency (ANR-10-INBS-04-01 and ANR-10-INBS-05, respectively). 919 AU is supported by a grant from the Fondation pour la Recherche Médicale (SPF20150934061). DS 920 acknowledge a grant from the Métropole Européenne de Lille (PUSHUP). Géraldine Levy, Université de Lille, is thanked for help with sample preparation and the ¹⁹F-NMR experiments. This 921 922 work benefited from the HPC resources of the CALMIP supercomputing center under the 923 allocations 2016-P16032 and 2021-P21043. The 600 MHz spectrometer for ¹⁹F NMR measurements is funded by the Nord Region Council, CNRS, Institut Pasteur de Lille, the European 924 925 Community (ERDF), the French Ministry of Research and the Université de Lille and by the CTRL 926 CPER cofunded by the European Union with the European Regional Development Fund (ERDF), 927 by the Hauts-de-France Regional Council (contract n°17003781), Métropole Européenne de Lille 928 (contract n°2016 ESR 05), and French State (contract n°2017-R3-CTRL-Phase1). The authors 929 thank the SWING beamline at SOLEIL synchrotron, Saint-Aubin, France (proposal 20181386) and P12 beamline at PETRAIII, Hamburg, Germany for beamtime allocation to the project and 930 931 assistance during data collection.

932 933 **Author Contributions** 934 P.B. conceived the project. C.A.E.R, A.U., A.S., A.B., D.S., N.S. and P.B. designed experiments. 935 C.A.E.R, A.U., A.S., M.P., A.M., A.E., A.F., X.L.L., Z.D.S., L.C., A.T., F.A. and D.S. performed experiments. R.E.S., P.E.M., A.B., J.C., N.S. and P.B. supervised experiments. C.A.E.R., A.U., 936 937 A.S. and P.B. wrote the manuscript with the help of all the co-authors. 938 939 **Competing Interest** 940 The authors declare no competing interests 941 942 **Data Availability Statement** The datasets generated during and/or analysed during the current study are available from the 943 corresponding author on reasonable request. 944 945 946

References

947

948

- 949 (1) Orr, H. T. Beyond the Qs in the Polyglutamine Diseases. *Genes Dev.* **2001**, *15* (8), 925–932. 950 https://doi.org/10.1101/gad.888401.
- 951 (2) Walker, F. O. Huntington's Disease. *Lancet* **2007**, *369* (9557), 218–228.
- 952 https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(07)60111-1.
- 953 (3) Saudou, F.; Humbert, S. The Biology of Huntingtin. *Neuron* **2016**, *89* (5), 910–926.
- 954 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuron.2016.02.003.
- 955 (4) Kremer, B.; Goldberg, P.; Andrew, S. E.; Theilmann, J.; Telenius, H.; Zeisler, J.; Squitieri,
- F.; Lin, B.; Bassett, A.; Almqvist, E.; Bird, T. D.; Hayden, M. R. A Worldwide Study of the
- Huntington's Disease Mutation: The Sensitivity and Specificity of Measuring CAG Repeats.
- 958 N. Engl. J. Med. 1994, 330 (20), 1401–1406.
- 959 https://doi.org/10.1056/NEJM199405193302001.
- 960 (5) Benn, C. L.; Landles, C.; Li, H.; Strand, A. D.; Woodman, B.; Sathasivam, K.; Li, S.-H.;
- Ghazi-Noori, S.; Hockly, E.; Faruque, S. M. N. N.; Cha, J.-H. J.; Sharpe, P. T.; Olson, J. M.;
- Li, X.-J.; Bates, G. P. Contribution of Nuclear and Extranuclear PolyQ to Neurological
- Phenotypes in Mouse Models of Huntington's Disease. *Hum. Mol. Genet.* **2005**, *14* (20),
- 964 3065–3078. https://doi.org/10.1093/hmg/ddi340.
- 965 (6) Graham, R. K.; Deng, Y.; Slow, E. J.; Haigh, B.; Bissada, N.; Lu, G.; Pearson, J.; Shehadeh,
- J.; Bertram, L.; Murphy, Z.; Warby, S. C.; Doty, C. N.; Roy, S.; Wellington, C. L.; Leavitt,
- B. R.; Raymond, L. A.; Nicholson, D. W.; Hayden, M. R. Cleavage at the Caspase-6 Site Is
- Required for Neuronal Dysfunction and Degeneration Due to Mutant Huntingtin. *Cell* **2006**,
- 969 125 (6), 1179–1191. https://doi.org/10.1016/J.CELL.2006.04.026.
- 970 (7) Zuccato, C.; Valenza, M.; Cattaneo, E. Molecular Mechanisms and Potential Therapeutical
- 971 Targets in Huntington's Disease. *Physiol. Rev.* **2010**, *90* (3), 905–981.
- 972 https://doi.org/10.1152/physrev.00041.2009.
- 973 (8) Mangiarini, L.; Sathasivam, K.; Seller, M.; Cozens, B.; Harper, A.; Hetherington, C.;
- Lawton, M.; Trottier, Y.; Lehrach, H.; Davies, S. W.; Bates, G. P. Exon 1 of the HD Gene
- with an Expanded CAG Repeat Is Sufficient to Cause a Progressive Neurological Phenotype
- 976 in Transgenic Mice. *Cell* **1996**, 87 (3), 493–506. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0092-
- 977 8674(00)81369-0.
- 978 (9) Pan, L.; Feigin, A. Huntington's Disease: New Frontiers in Therapeutics. *Curr. Neurol.*
- 979 Neurosci. Rep. **2021**, 21 (3), 10. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11910-021-01093-3.
- 980 (10) Davies, S. W.; Turmaine, M.; Cozens, B. A.; DiFiglia, M.; Sharp, A. H.; Ross, C. A.;
- 981 Scherzinger, E.; Wanker, E. E.; Mangiarini, L.; Bates, G. P. Formation of Neuronal
- Intranuclear Inclusions Underlies the Neurological Dysfunction in Mice Transgenic for the
- 983 HD Mutation. Cell **1997**, 90 (3), 537–548. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/S0092-
- 984 8674(00)80513-9.

- 985 (11) Miller, J.; Arrasate, M.; Shaby, B. A.; Mitra, S.; Masliah, E.; Finkbeiner, S. Quantitative
- Relationships between Huntingtin Levels, Polyglutamine Length, Inclusion Body Formation,
- and Neuronal Death Provide Novel Insight into Huntington's Disease Molecular
- 988 Pathogenesis. *J. Neurosci.* **2010**, *30* (31), 10541 LP 10550.
- 989 https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.0146-10.2010.
- 990 (12) Ramdzan, Y. M.; Trubetskov, M. M.; Ormsby, A. R.; Newcombe, E. A.; Sui, X.; Tobin, M.
- J.; Bongiovanni, M. N.; Gras, S. L.; Dewson, G.; Miller, J. M. L.; Finkbeiner, S.; Moily, N.
- 992 S.; Niclis, J.; Parish, C. L.; Purcell, A. W.; Baker, M. J.; Wilce, J. A.; Waris, S.; Stojanovski,
- D.; Böcking, T.; Ang, C.-S.; Ascher, D. B.; Reid, G. E.; Hatters, D. M. Huntingtin Inclusions
- Trigger Cellular Quiescence, Deactivate Apoptosis, and Lead to Delayed Necrosis. *Cell Rep.*
- 995 **2017**, 19 (5), 919–927. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.celrep.2017.04.029.
- 996 (13) Kim, Y. E.; Hosp, F.; Frottin, F.; Ge, H.; Mann, M.; Hayer-Hartl, M.; Hartl, F. U. Soluble
- Oligomers of PolyQ-Expanded Huntingtin Target a Multiplicity of Key Cellular Factors.
- 998 *Mol. Cell* **2016**, *63* (6), 951–964.
- 999 https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.molcel.2016.07.022.
- 1000 (14) Arrasate, M.; Mitra, S.; Schweitzer, E. S.; Segal, M. R.; Finkbeiner, S. Inclusion Body
- Formation Reduces Levels of Mutant Huntingtin and the Risk of Neuronal Death. *Nature*
- 2004, 431 (7010), 805–810. https://doi.org/10.1038/nature02998.
- 1003 (15) Wetzel, R. Exploding the Repeat Length Paradigm While Exploring Amyloid Toxicity in
- Huntington's Disease. Acc. Chem. Res. **2020**, 53 (10), 2347–2357.
- 1005 https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.accounts.0c00450.
- 1006 (16) Sahoo, B.; Arduini, I.; Drombosky, K. W.; Kodali, R.; Sanders, L. H.; Greenamyre, J. T.;
- 1007 Wetzel, R. Folding Landscape of Mutant Huntingtin Exon1: Diffusible Multimers,
- Oligomers and Fibrils, and No Detectable Monomer. *PLoS One* **2016**, *11* (6), e0155747.
- 1009 https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0155747.
- 1010 (17) Ceccon, A.; Tugarinov, V.; Ghirlando, R.; Clore, G. M. Abrogation of Prenucleation,
- Transient Oligomerization of the Huntingtin Exon 1 Protein by Human Profilin I. *Proc. Natl.*
- 1012 Acad. Sci. 2020, 117 (11), 5844–5852. https://doi.org/10.1073/PNAS.1922264117.
- 1013 (18) Kotler, S. A.; Tugarinov, V.; Schmidt, T.; Ceccon, A.; Libich, D. S.; Ghirlando, R.;
- Schwieters, C. D.; Clore, G. M. Probing Initial Transient Oligomerization Events Facilitating
- Huntingtin Fibril Nucleation at Atomic Resolution by Relaxation-Based NMR. *Proc. Natl.*
- 1016 Acad. Sci. U. S. A. **2019**, 116 (9), 3562–3571. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1821216116.
- 1017 (19) Thakur, A. K.; Jayaraman, M.; Mishra, R.; Thakur, M.; Chellgren, V. M.; L Byeon, I.-J.;
- Anjum, D. H.; Kodali, R.; Creamer, T. P.; Conway, J. F.; M Gronenborn, A.; Wetzel, R.
- Polyglutamine Disruption of the Huntingtin Exon 1 N Terminus Triggers a Complex
- Aggregation Mechanism. Nat. Struct. & Amp; Mol. Biol. 2009, 16, 380.
- 1021 (20) Feng, X.; Luo, S.; Lu, B. Conformation Polymorphism of Polyglutamine Proteins. *Trends*
- Biochem. Sci. **2018**, 43 (6), 424–435. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tibs.2018.03.002.

- 1023 (21) Caron, N. S.; Desmond, C. R.; Xia, J.; Truant, R. Polyglutamine Domain Flexibility
- Mediates the Proximity between Flanking Sequences in Huntingtin. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.*
- 1025 **2013**, 110 (36), 14610 LP 14615.
- 1026 (22) Nucifora, L. G.; Burke, K. A.; Feng, X.; Arbez, N.; Zhu, S.; Miller, J.; Yang, G.; Ratovitski,
- T.; Delannoy, M.; Muchowski, P. J.; Finkbeiner, S.; Legleiter, J.; Ross, C. A.; Poirier, M. A.
- 1028 Identification of Novel Potentially Toxic Oligomers Formed in Vitro from Mammalian-
- Derived Expanded Huntingtin Exon-1 Protein. J. Biol. Chem. 2012, 287 (19), 16017–16028.
- 1030 https://doi.org/10.1074/jbc.M111.252577.
- 1031 (23) Li, P.; Huey-Tubman, K. E.; Gao, T.; Li, X.; West, A. P.; Bennett, M. J.; Bjorkman, P. J. The
- Structure of a PolyQ–Anti-PolyQ Complex Reveals Binding According to a Linear Lattice
- 1033 Model. Nat. Struct. Mol. Biol. 2007, 14 (5), 381–387. https://doi.org/10.1038/nsmb1234.
- 1034 (24) Owens, G. E.; New, D. M.; West, A. P.; Bjorkman, P. J. Anti-PolyQ Antibodies Recognize a
- Short PolyQ Stretch in Both Normal and Mutant Huntingtin Exon 1. J. Mol. Biol. 2015, 427
- 1036 (15), 2507–2519. https://doi.org/10.1016/J.JMB.2015.05.023.
- 1037 (25) Warner, J. B.; Ruff, K. M.; Tan, P. S.; Lemke, E. A.; Pappu, R. V; Lashuel, H. A.
- Monomeric Huntingtin Exon 1 Has Similar Overall Structural Features for Wild-Type and
- 1039 Pathological Polyglutamine Lengths. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 2017, 139 (41), 14456–14469.
- 1040 https://doi.org/10.1021/jacs.7b06659.
- 1041 (26) Newcombe, E. A.; Ruff, K. M.; Sethi, A.; Ormsby, A. R.; Ramdzan, Y. M.; Fox, A.; Purcell,
- 1042 A. W.; Gooley, P. R.; Pappu, R. V.; Hatters, D. M. Tadpole-like Conformations of
- Huntingtin Exon 1 Are Characterized by Conformational Heterogeneity That Persists
- Regardless of Polyglutamine Length. *J. Mol. Biol.* **2018**, *430* (10), 1442–1458.
- 1045 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jmb.2018.03.031.
- 1046 (27) Bravo-Arredondo, J. M.; Kegulian, N. C.; Schmidt, T.; Pandey, N. K.; Situ, A. J.; Ulmer, T.
- 1047 S.; Langen, R. The Folding Equilibrium of Huntingtin Exon-1 Monomer Depends on Its
- 1048 Polyglutamine Tract. *J. Biol. Chem.* **2018**, jbc.RA118.004808.
- 1049 https://doi.org/10.1074/jbc.RA118.004808.
- 1050 (28) Mier, P.; Paladin, L.; Tamana, S.; Petrosian, S.; Hajdu-Soltész, B.; Urbanek, A.; Gruca, A.;
- Plewczynski, D.; Grynberg, M.; Bernadó, P.; Gáspári, Z.; Ouzounis, C. A.; Promponas, V. J.;
- Kajava, A. V; Hancock, J. M.; Tosatto, S. C. E.; Dosztanyi, Z.; Andrade-Navarro, M. A.
- Disentangling the Complexity of Low Complexity Proteins. *Brief. Bioinform.* **2020**, *21* (2),
- 1054 458–472. https://doi.org/10.1093/bib/bbz007.
- 1055 (29) Baias, M.; Smith, P. E. S.; Shen, K.; Joachimiak, L. A.; Zerko, S.; Koźmiński, W.; Frydman,
- J.; Frydman, L. Structure and Dynamics of the Huntingtin Exon-1 N-Terminus: A Solution
- NMR Perspective. J. Am. Chem. Soc. **2017**, 139 (3), 1168–1176.
- 1058 https://doi.org/10.1021/jacs.6b10893.
- 1059 (30) Ceccon, A.; Schmidt, T.; Tugarinov, V.; Kotler, S. A.; Schwieters, C. D.; Clore, G. M.
- Interaction of Huntingtin Exon-1 Peptides with Lipid-Based Micellar Nanoparticles Probed
- by Solution NMR and Q-Band Pulsed EPR. J. Am. Chem. Soc. **2018**, 140 (20), 6199–6202.
- 1062 https://doi.org/10.1021/jacs.8b02619.

- 1063 (31) Urbanek, A.; Elena-Real, C. A.; Popovic, M.; Morató, A.; Fournet, A.; Allemand, F.;
- Delbecq, S.; Sibille, N.; Bernadó, P. Site-Specific Isotopic Labeling (SSIL): Access to High-
- 1065 Resolution Structural and Dynamic Information in Low-Complexity Proteins. *ChemBioChem*
- 2020, 21 (6), 769–775. https://doi.org/10.1002/cbic.201900583.
- 1067 (32) Urbanek, A.; Morató, A.; Allemand, F.; Delaforge, E.; Fournet, A.; Popovic, M.; Delbecq,
- S.; Sibille, N.; Bernadó, P. A General Strategy to Access Structural Information at Atomic
- 1069 Resolution in Polyglutamine Homorepeats. Angew. Chem. Int. Ed. Engl. 2018, 57 (14),
- 1070 3598–3601. https://doi.org/10.1002/anie.201711530.
- 1071 (33) Urbanek, A.; Popovic, M.; Morató, A.; Estaña, A.; Elena-Real, C. A.; Mier, P.; Fournet, A.;
- Allemand, F.; Delbecg, S.; Andrade-Navarro, M. A.; Cortés, J.; Sibille, N.; Bernadó, P.
- Flanking Regions Determine the Structure of the Poly-Glutamine in Huntingtin through
- Mechanisms Common among Glutamine-Rich Human Proteins. Structure **2020**, 28 (7), 733-
- 746.e5. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.str.2020.04.008.
- 1076 (34) Shen, K.; Calamini, B.; Fauerbach, J. A.; Ma, B.; Shahmoradian, S. H.; Serrano Lachapel, I.
- L.; Chiu, W.; Lo, D. C.; Frydman, J. Control of the Structural Landscape and Neuronal
- 1078 Proteotoxicity of Mutant Huntingtin by Domains Flanking the PolyQ Tract. *Elife* **2016**, *5*,
- e18065. https://doi.org/10.7554/eLife.18065.
- 1080 (35) Bhattacharyya, A.; Thakur, A. K.; Chellgren, V. M.; Thiagarajan, G.; Williams, A. D.;
- 1081 Chellgren, B. W.; Creamer, T. P.; Wetzel, R. Oligoproline Effects on Polyglutamine
- 1082 Conformation and Aggregation. *J. Mol. Biol.* **2006**, *355* (3), 524–535.
- 1083 https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jmb.2005.10.053.
- 1084 (36) Morató, A.; Elena-Real, C. A.; Popovic, M.; Fournet, A.; Zhang, K.; Allemand, F.; Sibille,
- N.; Urbanek, A.; Bernadó, P. Robust Cell-Free Expression of Sub-Pathological and
- Pathological Huntingtin Exon-1 for Nmr Studies. General Approaches for the Isotopic
- Labeling of Low-Complexity Proteins. *Biomolecules* **2020**, *10* (10).
- 1088 https://doi.org/10.3390/biom10101458.
- 1089 (37) Nielsen, J. T.; Mulder, F. A. A. POTENCI: Prediction of Temperature, Neighbor and PH-
- 1090 Corrected Chemical Shifts for Intrinsically Disordered Proteins. J. Biomol. NMR **2018**, 70
- 1091 (3), 141–165. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10858-018-0166-5.
- 1092 (38) Estaña, A.; Sibille, N.; Delaforge, E.; Vaisset, M.; Cortés, J.; Bernadó, P. Realistic Ensemble
- Models of Intrinsically Disordered Proteins Using a Structure-Encoding Coil Database.
- 1094 Structure **2019**, 27 (2), 381–391. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.str.2018.10.016.
- 1095 (39) Krivov, G. G.; Shapovalov, M. V; Dunbrack Jr., R. L. Improved Prediction of Protein Side-
- 1096 Chain Conformations with SCWRL4. Proteins Struct. Funct. Bioinforma. 2009, 77 (4), 778–
- 795. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1002/prot.22488.
- 1098 (40) Shen, Y.; Bax, A. SPARTA+: A Modest Improvement in Empirical NMR Chemical Shift
- 1099 Prediction by Means of an Artificial Neural Network. *J. Biomol. NMR* **2010**, *48* (1), 13–22.
- 1100 https://doi.org/10.1007/s10858-010-9433-9.

- 1101 (41) Tria, G.; Mertens, H. D. T.; Kachala, M.; Svergun, D. I. Advanced Ensemble Modelling of Flexible Macromolecules Using X-Ray Solution Scattering. *IUCrJ* **2015**, *2* (Pt 2), 207–217.
- https://doi.org/10.1107/S205225251500202X.
- 1104 (42) Bernadó, P.; Mylonas, E.; Petoukhov, M. V; Blackledge, M.; Svergun, D. I. Structural
- 1105 Characterization of Flexible Proteins Using Small-Angle X-Ray Scattering. *J. Am. Chem.*
- Soc. **2007**, 129 (17), 5656–5664. https://doi.org/10.1021/ja069124n.
- 1107 (43) Iglesias, J.; Sanchez-Martínez, M.; Crehuet, R. SS-Map: Visualizing Cooperative Secondary
- Structure Elements in Protein Ensembles. *Intrinsically Disord. Proteins* **2013**, *1* (1), e25323.
- 1109 https://doi.org/10.4161/idp.25323.
- 1110 (44) Escobedo, A.; Topal, B.; Kunze, M. B. A.; Aranda, J.; Chiesa, G.; Mungianu, D.; Bernardo-
- Seisdedos, G.; Eftekharzadeh, B.; Gairí, M.; Pierattelli, R.; Felli, I. C.; Diercks, T.; Millet,
- O.; García, J.; Orozco, M.; Crehuet, R.; Lindorff-Larsen, K.; Salvatella, X. Side Chain to
- 1113 Main Chain Hydrogen Bonds Stabilize a Polyglutamine Helix in a Transcription Factor. *Nat.*
- 1114 *Commun.* **2019**, *10* (1), 2034. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-019-09923-2.
- 1115 (45) Qu, W.; Zha, Z.; Ploessl, K.; Lieberman, B. P.; Zhu, L.; Wise, D. R.; B. Thompson, C.;
- Kung, H. F. Synthesis of Optically Pure 4-Fluoro-Glutamines as Potential Metabolic Imaging
- 1117 Agents for Tumors. J. Am. Chem. Soc. **2011**, 133 (4), 1122–1133.
- 1118 https://doi.org/10.1021/ja109203d.
- 1119 (46) Gimenez, D.; Phelan, A.; Murphy, C. D.; Cobb, S. L. 19F NMR as a Tool in Chemical
- 1120 Biology. Beilstein J. Org. Chem. 2021, 17, 293–318.
- 1121 (47) Kitevski-LeBlanc, J. L.; Prosser, R. S. Current Applications of 19F NMR to Studies of
- Protein Structure and Dynamics. *Prog. Nucl. Magn. Reson. Spectrosc.* **2012**, *62*, 1–33.
- https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pnmrs.2011.06.003.
- 1124 (48) Miao, Y.; Feher, V. A.; McCammon, J. A. Gaussian Accelerated Molecular Dynamics:
- Unconstrained Enhanced Sampling and Free Energy Calculation. *J. Chem. Theory Comput.*
- 2015, 11 (8), 3584–3595. https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.jctc.5b00436.
- 1127 (49) Moldovean, S. N.; Chis, V. Molecular Dynamics Simulations Applied to Structural and
- Dynamical Transitions of the Huntingtin Protein: A Review. ACS Chem. Neurosci. 2020, 11
- 1129 (2), 105–120. https://doi.org/10.1021/acschemneuro.9b00561.
- 1130 (50) Tang, W. S.; Fawzi, N. L.; Mittal, J. Refining All-Atom Protein Force Fields for Polar-Rich,
- Prion-like, Low-Complexity Intrinsically Disordered Proteins. J. Phys. Chem. B 2020, 124
- 1132 (43), 9505–9512. https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.jpcb.0c07545.
- 1133 (51) Wetzel, R. Physical Chemistry of Polyglutamine: Intriguing Tales of a Monotonous
- 1134 Sequence. J. Mol. Biol. **2012**, 421 (4–5), 466–490.
- https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jmb.2012.01.030.
- 1136 (52) Monsellier, E.; Redeker, V.; Ruiz-Arlandis, G.; Bousset, L.; Melki, R. Molecular Interaction
- between the Chaperone Hsc70 and the N-Terminal Flank of Huntingtin Exon 1 Modulates
- 1138 Aggregation. J. Biol. Chem. **2015**, 290 (5), 2560–2576.
- https://doi.org/10.1074/jbc.M114.603332.

- 1140 (53) Galaz-Montoya, J. G.; Shahmoradian, S. H.; Shen, K.; Frydman, J.; Chiu, W. Cryo-Electron
- Tomography Provides Topological Insights into Mutant Huntingtin Exon 1 and PolyQ
- Aggregates. Commun. Biol. **2021**, 4 (1), 849. https://doi.org/10.1038/s42003-021-02360-2.
- 1143 (54) Ruggeri, F. S.; Vieweg, S.; Cendrowska, U.; Longo, G.; Chiki, A.; Lashuel, H. A.; Dietler,
- G. Nanoscale Studies Link Amyloid Maturity with Polyglutamine Diseases Onset. *Sci. Rep.*
- **2016**, *6*, 31155. https://doi.org/10.1038/srep31155.
- 1146 (55) Mier, P.; Elena-Real, C.; Urbanek, A.; Bernadó, P.; Andrade-Navarro, M. A. The Importance
- of Definitions in the Study of PolyQ Regions: A Tale of Thresholds, Impurities and
- 1148 Sequence Context. Comput. Struct. Biotechnol. J. 2020, 18.
- https://doi.org/10.1016/j.csbj.2020.01.012.
- 1150 (56) Dehay, B.; Bertolotti, A. Critical Role of the Proline-Rich Region in Huntingtin for
- Aggregation and Cytotoxicity in Yeast*. J. Biol. Chem. **2006**, 281 (47), 35608–35615.
- https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1074/jbc.M605558200.
- 1153 (57) Cordeiro, T. N.; Herranz-Trillo, F.; Urbanek, A.; Estaña, A.; Cortés, J.; Sibille, N.; Bernadó,
- P. Small-Angle Scattering Studies of Intrinsically Disordered Proteins and Their Complexes.
- 1155 Curr. Opin. Struct. Biol. **2017**, 42, 15–23.
- https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbi.2016.10.011.
- 1157 (58) Kang, H.; Vázquez, F. X.; Zhang, L.; Das, P.; Toledo-Sherman, L.; Luan, B.; Levitt, M.;
- Zhou, R. Emerging β-Sheet Rich Conformations in Supercompact Huntingtin Exon-1 Mutant
- 1159 Structures. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 2017, 139 (26), 8820–8827.
- 1160 https://doi.org/10.1021/jacs.7b00838.
- 1161 (59) Drombosky, K. W.; Rode, S.; Kodali, R.; Jacob, T. C.; Palladino, M. J.; Wetzel, R.
- Mutational Analysis Implicates the Amyloid Fibril as the Toxic Entity in Huntington's
- 1163 Disease. *Neurobiol. Dis.* **2018**, *120*, 126–138.
- https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.nbd.2018.08.019.
- 1165 (60) Sathasivam, K.; Lane, A.; Legleiter, J.; Warley, A.; Woodman, B.; Finkbeiner, S.; Paganetti,
- P.; Muchowski, P. J.; Wilson, S.; Bates, G. P. Identical Oligomeric and Fibrillar Structures
- 1167 Captured from the Brains of R6/2 and Knock-in Mouse Models of Huntington's Disease.
- Hum. Mol. Genet. **2010**, 19 (1), 65–78. https://doi.org/10.1093/hmg/ddp467.
- 1169 (61) Gruber, A.; Hornburg, D.; Antonin, M.; Krahmer, N.; Collado, J.; Schaffer, M.; Zubaite, G.;
- Lüchtenborg, C.; Sachsenheimer, T.; Brügger, B.; Mann, M.; Baumeister, W.; Hartl, F. U.;
- Hipp, M. S.; Fernández-Busnadiego, R. Molecular and Structural Architecture of PolyQ
- Aggregates in Yeast. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.* **2018**, *115* (15), E3446 LP-E3453.
- 1173 https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1717978115.
- 1174 (62) Mario Isas, J.; Pandey, N. K.; Xu, H.; Teranishi, K.; Okada, A. K.; Fultz, E. K.; Rawat, A.;
- Applebaum, A.; Meier, F.; Chen, J.; Langen, R.; Siemer, A. B. Huntingtin Fibrils with
- Different Toxicity, Structure, and Seeding Potential Can Be Interconverted. *Nat. Commun.*
- 2021, 12 (1), 4272. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-021-24411-2.

- 1178 (63) Lin, H.-K.; Boatz, J. C.; Krabbendam, I. E.; Kodali, R.; Hou, Z.; Wetzel, R.; Dolga, A. M.;
- Poirier, M. A.; van der Wel, P. C. A. Fibril Polymorphism Affects Immobilized Non-
- Amyloid Flanking Domains of Huntingtin Exon1 Rather than Its Polyglutamine Core. *Nat.*
- 1181 *Commun.* **2017**, 8 (1), 15462. https://doi.org/10.1038/ncomms15462.
- 1182 (64) Hoop, C. L.; Lin, H.-K.; Kar, K.; Magyarfalvi, G.; Lamley, J. M.; Boatz, J. C.; Mandal, A.;
- Lewandowski, J. R.; Wetzel, R.; Wel, P. C. A. van der. Huntingtin Exon 1 Fibrils Feature an
- Interdigitated β-Hairpin–Based Polyglutamine Core. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.* **2016**, *113* (6),
- 1185 1546–1551. https://doi.org/10.1073/PNAS.1521933113.
- 1186 (65) Fiumara, F.; Fioriti, L.; Kandel, E. R.; Hendrickson, W. A. Essential Role of Coiled Coils for
- Aggregation and Activity of Q/N-Rich Prions and PolyQ Proteins. Cell 2010, 143 (7), 1121–
- 1188 1135. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2010.11.042.
- 1189 (66) Jayaraman, M.; Mishra, R.; Kodali, R.; Thakur, A. K.; Koharudin, L. M. I.; Gronenborn, A.
- 1190 M.; Wetzel, R. Kinetically Competing Huntingtin Aggregation Pathways Control Amyloid
- Polymorphism and Properties. *Biochemistry* **2012**, *51* (13), 2706–2716.
- https://doi.org/10.1021/bi3000929.
- 1193 (67) Nekooki-Machida, Y.; Kurosawa, M.; Nukina, N.; Ito, K.; Oda, T.; Tanaka, M. Distinct
- 1194 Conformations of in Vitro and in Vivo Amyloids of Huntingtin-Exon1 Show Different
- 1195 Cytotoxicity. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.* **2009**, *106* (24), 9679 LP 9684.
- https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0812083106.
- 1197 (68) Loscha, K. V; Herlt, A. J.; Qi, R.; Huber, T.; Ozawa, K.; Otting, G. Multiple-Site Labeling of
- Proteins with Unnatural Amino Acids. Angew. Chem. Int. Ed. Engl. 2012, 51 (9), 2243–
- 1199 2246. https://doi.org/10.1002/anie.201108275.
- 1200 (69) Apponyi, M. A.; Ozawa, K.; Dixon, N. E.; Otting, G. Cell-Free Protein Synthesis for
- 1201 Analysis by NMR Spectroscopy. In Structural Proteomics: High-Throughput Methods:
- 1202 Kobe, B., Guss, M., Huber, T., Eds.; Humana Press: Totowa, NJ, 2008; pp 257–268.
- 1203 https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-60327-058-8 16.
- 1204 (70) Vranken, W. F.; Boucher, W.; Stevens, T. J.; Fogh, R. H.; Pajon, A.; Llinas, M.; Ulrich, E.
- L.; Markley, J. L.; Ionides, J.; Laue, E. D. The CCPN Data Model for NMR Spectroscopy:
- Development of a Software Pipeline. *Proteins* **2005**, *59* (4), 687–696.
- 1207 https://doi.org/10.1002/prot.20449.
- 1208 (71) Markley, J. L.; Bax, A.; Arata, Y.; Hilbers, C. W.; Kaptein, R.; Sykes, B. D.; Wright, P. E.;
- Wüthrich, K. Recommendations for the Presentation of NMR Structures of Proteins and
- Nucleic Acids. J. Mol. Biol. 1998, 280 (5), 933–952. https://doi.org/10.1006/jmbi.1998.1852.
- 1211 (72) Andreeva, A.; Kulesha, E.; Gough, J.; Murzin, A. G. The SCOP Database in 2020: Expanded
- 1212 Classification of Representative Family and Superfamily Domains of Known Protein
- 1213 Structures. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **2020**, 48 (D1), D376–D382.
- 1214 https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gkz1064.

- 1215 (73) Andreeva, A.; Howorth, D.; Chothia, C.; Kulesha, E.; Murzin, A. G. SCOP2 Prototype: A
- New Approach to Protein Structure Mining. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **2014**, *42* (D1), D310–D314.
- 1217 https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gkt2124.
- 1218 (74) Thureau, A.; Roblin, P.; Pérez, J. BioSAXS on the SWING beamline at Synchrotron
- 1219 SOLEIL. J. Appl. Cryst. **2021**, 54. https://doi.org/10.1107/S1600576721008736.
- 1220 (75) Blanchet, C. E.; Spilotros, A.; Schwemmer, F.; Graewert, M. A.; Kikhney, A.; Jeffries, C.
- M.; Franke, D.; Mark, D.; Zengerle, R.; Cipriani, F.; Fiedler, S.; Roessle, M.; Svergun, D. I.
- 1222 Versatile Sample Environments and Automation for Biological Solution X-Ray Scattering
- Experiments at the P12 Beamline (PETRA III, DESY). J. Appl. Crystallogr. 2015, 48 (Pt 2),
- 1224 431–443. https://doi.org/10.1107/S160057671500254X.
- 1225 (76) Girardot, R.; Viguier, G.; Pérez, J.; Ounsy, M. FOXTROT: A Java-Based Application to
- Reduce and Analyse SAXS and WAXS Piles of 2D Data at Synchrotron SOLEIL. In
- 1227 *canSAS-VIII*; 2015.
- 1228 (77) Panjkovich, A.; Svergun, D. I. CHROMIXS: Automatic and Interactive Analysis of
- 1229 Chromatography-Coupled Small-Angle X-Ray Scattering Data. *Bioinformatics* **2018**, *34*
- 1230 (11), 1944–1946. https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btx846.
- 1231 (78) Franke, D.; Petoukhov, M. V.; Konarev, P. V.; Panjkovich, A.; Tuukkanen, A.; Mertens, H.
- D. T.; Kikhney, A. G.; Hajizadeh, N. R.; Franklin, J. M.; Jeffries, C. M.; Svergun, D. I.
- 1233 ATSAS 2.8: A Comprehensive Data Analysis Suite for Small-Angle Scattering from
- Macromolecular Solutions. J. Appl. Crystallogr. 2017, 50, 1212–1225.
- 1235 https://doi.org/10.1107/S1600576717007786.
- 1236 (79) Svergun, D. I. Determination of the Regularization Parameter in Indirect-Transform Methods
- 1237 Using Perceptual Criteria. *J. Appl. Crystallogr.* **1992**, *25* (pt 4), 495–503.
- 1238 https://doi.org/10.1107/S0021889892001663.
- 1239 (80) Hajizadeh, N. R.; Franke, D.; Jeffries, C. M.; Svergun, D. I. Consensus Bayesian Assessment
- of Protein Molecular Mass from Solution X-Ray Scattering Data. Sci. Rep. 2018, 8 (1).
- 1241 https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-018-25355-2.
- 1242 (81) Humphrey, W.; Dalke, A.; Schulten, K. {VMD} -- {V}isual {M}olecular {D}ynamics. J.
- 1243 *Mol. Graph.* **1996**, *14*, 33–38.

1252

- 1244 (82) Dahmane, S.; Doucet, C.; Le Gall, A.; Chamontin, C.; Dosset, P.; Murcy, F.; Fernandez, L.;
- Salas, D.; Rubinstein, E.; Mougel, M.; Nollmann, M.; Milhiet, P.-E. Nanoscale Organization
- of Tetraspanins during HIV-1 Budding by Correlative DSTORM/AFM. *Nanoscale* **2019**, *11*
- 1247 (13), 6036–6044. https://doi.org/10.1039/C8NR07269H.
- 1248 (83) Proksch, R.; Schäffer, T. E.; Cleveland, J. P.; Callahan, R. C.; Viani, M. B. Finite Optical
- Spot Size and Position Corrections in Thermal Spring Constant Calibration. *Nanotechnology*
- 2004, 15 (9), 1344–1350. https://doi.org/10.1088/0957-4484/15/9/039.