The structure of the human LACTB filament reveals the mechanisms of assembly and membrane binding

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Abstract

Mitochondria are complex organelles that play a central role in metabolism. Dynamic membrane-associated processes regulate mitochondrial morphology and bioenergetics in response to cellular demand. In tumor cells, metabolic reprogramming requires active mitochondrial metabolism for providing key metabolites and building blocks for tumor growth and rapid proliferation. To counter this, the mitochondrial serine beta-lactamase-like protein (LACTB) alters mitochondrial lipid metabolism and potently inhibits the proliferation of a variety of tumor cells. Mammalian LACTB is localized in the mitochondrial intermembrane space, where it assembles into filaments to regulate the efficiency of essential metabolic processes. However, the structural basis of LACTB polymerization and regulation remains incompletely understood. Here, we describe how human LACTB self-assembles into micron-scale filaments that increase their catalytic activity. The electron cryo-microscopy (cryoEM) structure defines the mechanism of assembly and reveals how highly ordered filament bundles stabilize the active state of the enzyme. We identify and characterize residues that are located at the filament-forming interface, and further show that mutations that disrupt filamentation reduce enzyme activity. Furthermore, our results provide evidence that LACTB filaments can bind lipid membranes. These data reveal the detailed molecular organization and polymerization-based regulation of human LACTB and provide new insights into the mechanism of mitochondrial membrane organization that modulates lipid metabolism.

Introduction

Mitochondria are essential components of eukaryotic cells that communicate cellular needs to ensure optimal cellular function [1]. Although mitochondria play a critical role in energy production, mitochondrial metabolism is multifaceted and supports a variety of cellular functions, including free radical production, ion homeostasis, and biosynthesis of precursors for macromolecules [2]. Unlike most organelles, mitochondria are composed of two membranes: an outer membrane (OM) that interfaces directly with the cytosol, and a morphologically complex inner membrane (IM). The inner membrane separates the intermembrane space (IMS) from the matrix and folds inwards to form cristae [3,4]. This complex double-membrane architecture provides discrete compartments for mitochondria to perform diverse metabolic functions [3]. In addition to their central role in various biochemical pathways, mitochondria are remarkably dynamic organelles that constantly adopt a range of morphologies and are actively transported to specific subcellular locations in response to cellular stressors [5,6].

Mitochondria are a major site for lipid metabolism, where biosynthesis of the phospholipids such as phosphatidylethanolamine (PE), phosphatidylglycerol (PG), and cardiolipin (CL) as well as redox-active lipid coenzyme Q (CoQ, ubiquinone) is facilitated by mitochondrial proteins and protein complexes [7–9]. Mitochondrial lipids are involved in maintaining mitochondrial morphology, cristae development, organelle dynamics, regulation of membrane-associated proteins, mitophagy, and regulated cell death [10,11]. The key phospholipid PE is synthesized *de novo* by phosphatidylserine decarboxylase (PISD), a mitochondrial IM enzyme that converts phosphatidylserine (PS) to PE [11]. The newly synthesized PE is then exported to the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) for further conversion to phosphatidylcholine (PC), the most abundant membrane lipid in eukaryotic cells [11]. Disruption of the orthologous gene *Pisd* in mouse models results in embryonic lethality associated with mitochondrial dysfunction and

aberrant mitochondrial morphology [12–14]. Hence, *de novo* synthesis of PE is essential for the

efficiency of many subcellular processes and compartmentalization [11].

In many cancer cells, altered lipid metabolism is among the most prominent metabolic alterations

that promote rapid cancer cell growth and tumor formation [15]. Processes that regulate lipid

levels are important targets for the differentiation and proliferation of cancer cells [15]. Being at

the junction of various metabolic pathways, mitochondrial processes are also associated with

tumorigenesis and tumor progression [16]. Although mitochondrial dysfunction and aerobic

glycolysis have been widely accepted as hallmarks of cancer, functional mitochondria are also

important for tumor growth as active mitochondrial lipid metabolism supports the metabolic needs

of highly proliferative cancer cells throughout tumorigenesis [16,17]. Conversely, tumor

suppressor proteins can influence the production of lipids by acting through their biosynthesis

pathway [18–20]. In mitochondria, the serine beta-lactamase-like protein (LACTB), which is

localized in mitochondrial IMS, functions as a tumor suppressor by regulating the PE biosynthetic

pathway [20–22]. LACTB is widely expressed in different mammalian tissues, most notably in the

skeletal muscle, heart, and liver, and was found to negatively affect the proliferation of a variety

of tumor cells *in vivo*, while it exerts little or no effect on the growth of non-tumorigenic cells

[20,23]. It has been reported that LACTB expression has been significantly downregulated by

promoter methylation, histone deacetylation, and several microRNAs (miRNAs) in various

cancers, including breast cancers, uterine cancer, colorectal cancers, gliomas, melanomas,

hepatocellular carcinomas, and oxaliplatin-resistant gastric cancer [24–29]. The downregulation

of LACTB expression is often correlated with a poor prognosis in these anomalies [28]. While the

direct mechanism for tumor suppression by LACTB is unknown, studies have shown that LACTB

expression results in reduced PISD protein levels in human breast cancer cells [20].

Downregulation of PISD by LACTB is associated with markedly reduced production of PE from

PS in carcinoma cells and a decrease in cell proliferation [20]. A possible mechanism for the

regulation of PISD by LACTB may involve the formation of micron-scale filaments that control the

distance between the inner and outer mitochondrial membranes such that the reaction to form PE

by PISD1 is unable to occur due to spatial rearrangement [30]. The downregulation of LACTB

mRNA and protein levels by cellular factors would result in reduced protein quantities in

mitochondria, hinder filament formation, limit the length of self-assembled filaments, and decrease

the catalytic activity of the enzyme *in vivo*; therefore, debilitating its regulatory role in lipid

metabolism. Since PE plays an important role in promoting mitochondrial dynamics [14,31,32],

the dysregulation of PE homeostasis due to a disruption to the LACTB self-assembly mechanism

would be detrimental to mitochondrial function and spatial organization. However, the exact

mechanism underlying LACTB on tumor suppression, the association between the

downregulation of LACTB gene expression by miRNAs, and the effect on filament formation have

yet to be determined. Moreover, mammalian LACTB regulates mitochondrial respiratory complex

I activity [33] and participates in cellular metabolic processes [34–36]. Dysregulation of LACTB is

associated with obesity and atherosclerosis potentially due to its involvement in metabolic

pathways, in particular the phospholipid metabolism in mitochondria [20,34,35]. Given its strong

relation to metabolic pathways, *LACTB* is also validated as an obesity gene capable of modifying

adiposity [34].

LACTB is a conserved mammalian active-site serine protease present in all vertebrates [37]. The

conserved catalytic serine residue within the ^{164}SXXK^{167} motif plays an important role in the

enzymatic activity of LACTB and is reversibly acylated through substrate binding [21,37]. Amino

acid sequence analyses show that serine protease LACTB shares sequence similarity to the

penicillin-binding protein and β-lactamases (PBP-βLs) family involved in peptidoglycan synthesis

[37]. Given that the sequences of β-lactamases are conserved from bacteria to humans, it has

been predicted that the molecular mechanisms underlying the cellular function are conserved for

β-lactamases across species [37]. However, very little is known about the structural properties

and function of LACTB in eukaryotic organisms. In contrast to its prokaryotic homologs, the

human LACTB is expressed as a single polypeptide with an N-terminal mitochondrial targeting

sequence [22,23]. Furthermore, mammalian LACTB dynamically assembles into filamentous

polymers extending more than a hundred nanometers [21]. Filamentation has been observed for

a variety of metabolic enzymes and is recognized as a general mechanism for regulating activity

[38–45]. For LACTB, the mechanisms by which filament formation modulates enzyme activity

remain unclear. Filaments of mammalian LACTB are reported to have a possible structural

function in the spatial organization of mitochondrial IMS [21]. Recently, endurance exercise

training has been shown to affect the polymerization of LACTB molecules in mice mitochondria

suggesting that polymer assembly may have been directly influenced by metabolic activity in cells

[36]. The formation of filaments may serve a regulatory function that results in more rapid

activation or inhibition of the enzyme in response to changing cellular conditions.

A structure of a LACTB filament can help elucidate the biochemical characteristics of LACTB and

permit a comprehensive mapping of polymerization activity. Here, we describe the atomic-

resolution structure of the LACTB filament determined by using cryoEM. The structure reveals the

inter-subunit interactions and overall assembly mechanism of LACTB. Furthermore, we provide

supporting biochemical analysis of the assembly, where structure-guided mutations at different

filament-forming interfaces unveil that polymerization is essential for the catalytic activity of

LACTB. Importantly, our work reveals that LACTB exerts its regulatory role by directly interacting

with lipid membranes, building a basis for understanding the mechanism of mitochondrial

membrane organization. These insights expand our understanding of human LACTB function and

lay the foundation for further studies of its dynamic regulation and role in tumor suppression and

metabolism.

Results

Functional characterization of human LACTB filaments. To examine the molecular architecture of human LACTB, we purified near full-length LACTB (residues 97-547) lacking the N-terminal targeting sequence (Fig 1A-C). The protein was fractionated further with Superose 6 Increase size-exclusion chromatography (SEC), wherein a single peak corresponding to a large molecule was observed on the elution profile indicating the formation of high-molecular-weight species (Fig 1D). These oligomers seemed to be dynamic, as illustrated by the asymmetric and tailing peak on the gel filtration column (Fig 1D). Analysis of the chromatogram peak using negative-stain transmission electron microscopy (TEM) revealed that LACTB assembled into filaments of several hundred nanometers in size (Fig 1E). Our initial observations suggested that the polymers consisted of repeating LACTB subunits, resulting in flexible filaments with an outer radius of 150 Å and a wide range of length distribution (Fig 1E). To test the proteolytic activity of LACTB filaments, we performed an *in vitro* substrate assay with the fluorogenic Ac-YVAD-AMC peptide and readily detected the enzymatic activity of purified wild-type (WT) LACTB in the polymerized state (Fig 1F). These results confirm that, like the other metabolic enzymes that self-assemble into filaments to organize and regulate metabolism [38,42,43], LACTB subunits can also form catalytically active filaments in solution.

Fig 1. Human LACTB assembles into a filament. (**A**) Domain organization of full-length human LACTB and the construct used in the study. The color scheme is used throughout the manuscript. (**B**) Schematic diagram for recombinant expression and self-assembly of LACTB. (**C**) Coomassie-stained SDS-PAGE of purified LACTB filament. (**D**) Size-exclusion profile of WT LACTB using a Superose 6 column. SEC elution profile begins with the void volume (V_0) of the column. (**E**) Representative negative-stain TEM image of purified samples containing high molecular weight species. Negative-stain TEM analysis is shown for the samples taken from the primary peak

observed in the size-exclusion chromatogram and is highlighted with a red box in **C**. Scale bar,

100 nm. (**F**) Activity of the purified LACTB filaments was determined by using a fluorescence-

based assay with the error bars representing the standard error of the mean (s.e.m.). Source data

for (**F**) is provided in sheet Fig 1F in **S1** Data.

LACTB assembles into a helical filament. To establish the structural basis for the LACTB

filament assembly, we used cryoEM analysis. Initial cryoEM micrographs presented substantial

challenges with respect to filament flexibility and clustering under cryogenic conditions. Sample

preparation was subsequently optimized by adding detergent for cryoEM grid preparation. The

two-dimensional (2D) classifications of overlapping filament segments and initial three-

dimensional (3D) reconstructions encompassing multiple protomers revealed the helical

architecture of the filament (S1 Fig). After excluding low-quality segments, focus classification

and refinement of the central region was carried out with 58% of segments, which reduced

heterogeneity and improved map quality (S2 Fig). A final cryoEM reconstruction of the LACTB

filament was obtained at an overall resolution of 3.1 Å with an imposed helical symmetry (S2 Fig

and Table 1). A map with no noticeable differences (3.1 Å) was obtained when the final subset of

segments was refined without imposing helical symmetry indicating that the helical assembly is

highly symmetric (S3 Fig). The resulting map quality was sufficient for unambiguous assignment

of individual subunits, and to build an atomic model of the complete structure of the LACTB

filament (Fig 2 and Table 1). Except for the flexible loop region of the LACTB (residues 243 to

290), which extends to the solvent, all secondary structural elements and most side chain

densities were clearly resolved in the cryoEM map (Fig 2). The flexible loop (L6) may be weakly

resolved due to conformational changes between protomers or because it is mostly disordered

and thus cannot be modeled. Further analysis of the structural data revealed that the basic

building blocks of LACTB are dimers, which are stacked on each other and assembled into

filaments with a helical twist of 48.25° and a rise of 21.63 Å (Fig 2A).

Fig 2. CryoEM structure of human LACTB filament. (**A**) CryoEM images of helical LACTB

filaments were processed to obtain the 3D reconstruction of the polymer. LACTB protomers are

colored differently, and filament rise and twist are indicated. (**B**) Top view of the LACTB assembly

with the indicated filament width and inner lumen diameter. (**C**) Ribbon diagram of LACTB

monomer. The chain is colored in a rainbow gradient from N-terminus (blue) to C-terminus (red).

Secondary structure elements of one protomer are labeled. (**D**) LACTB (residues 97-547) α-

helices (cylinders), β-sheets (arrows), and loops (lines) are depicted in a topology diagram.

Table 1 | CryoEM data collection, refinement, and validation statistics
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	Human LACTB (EMD-26595) (PDB 7ULW)
Data collection and processing	
Microscope	FEI Titan Krios
Camera	Gatan K3 Summit
Magnification	29,000x
Voltage (kV)	300
Electron exposure (e⁻/Å²)	65
Defocus (μm)	-0.5 to -1.5
Pixel size (Å)	0.8211
Symmetry imposed	Helical
Micrographs (no.)	7643
Initial segment images (no.)	430,592
Final segment images (no.)	248,548
Map resolution (Å)	3.09
FSC threshold	0.143
Map resolution range (Å)	3.1 to 5.8
Refinement	
Initial model used	*de novo*
Model resolution (Å)	2.84
FSC threshold	0.143
Map sharpening B factor (Å²)	-87.6

Model composition	
Nonhydrogen atoms	18766
Protein residues	2400
B factors ($Å^2$) - min	
Protein	78.60
R.m.s. deviations	
Bond lengths (Å)	0.002
Bond angles (Å)	0.406
Validation	
MolProbity score	1.07
Clashscore	2.84
Poor rotamers (%)	0.00
Ramachandran plot	
Favored (%)	98.74
Allowed (%)	1.26
Disallowed (%)	0.00

Molecular architecture of human LACTB. LACTB has a globular structure with approximate

dimensions of 60 Å X 55 Å X 45 Å and consists of a five-stranded β-sheet core (β1, β2, β7, β8,

and β9) surrounded by two short two-stranded antiparallel β-sheets (β3 - β4 and β5 - β6) and ten

α-helices (α1 - α10) (Fig 2C and 2D). The β-sheet core is flanked by two helices (α1 - α10 and α2

- α8) on either side, creating a compact structure that forms the catalytic core (Fig 2D). These α-

helices and the β-sheet core are primarily stabilized by a network of hydrophobic interactions.

While the α1 and α10 helices are connected to the β-sheet core with short loops, a 21-residue

loop (L3) spans across the β-sheet core to link β2 to α2, and another long loop (L11) resides

between the β4 strand and the α8 helix (Fig 2C and 2D). The α-helices, α3-α7 and α9, do not

directly interact with the β-sheet core and form the outer surface of the filamentous assembly (Fig

2C). Many charge-charge interactions stabilize the α-helices and the long loops of LACTB.

Consistent with these observations, a Dali server search identified several prokaryotic and

archaeal PBP-βL family of enzymes, such as ClbP (yellow, PDB ID: 4GDN), Pab87 peptidase

(orange, PDB ID: 2QMI), Penicillin-binding protein (pink, PDB ID: 3TG9), and D-amino-acid

amidase (purple, PDB ID: 2EFU), as close structural homologs of LACTB (S4 Fig). While the

resemblance in the overall fold of LACTB to prokaryotic homologs suggests the conservation of

the enzymatic core, significant differences are observed in the loops and α-helices that surround

the core structure (S4 Fig). Most importantly, the LACTB monomer includes a long L15 loop

(residues 467 to 482) formed between β6 and β7 strands, a helix α4 (residues 227 to 242) that

extends in parallel with the β-sheet core, and the predicted flexible loop (residues 243 to 290), all

of which are not observed in other PBP-βLs proteins (S4 Fig). Our 3.1 Å map also enabled the

identification of the amino acid motifs (^{164}SISK^{167}, ^{323}YST^{325}, and ^{485}HTG^{487}) that contribute to the

formation of the catalytic site, including the catalytic S164 residue, all of which are conserved

across metazoan species (S5 Fig). The structure highlights a clearly defined cavity, which has a

predominantly positively charged character (S5B Fig). The LACTB binding pocket is a ~20 Å deep

cavity with a wider outer diameter (~20 Å) and a narrower inner diameter (~10 Å) near the catalytic

site (S5A and S5B Fig). In addition to the conserved active site residues, several positively

charged (H216, H222, and K394) and aromatic residues (Y223, W454, and Y460) are in close

proximity to the catalytic site (S5 Fig). This suggests that LACTB substrates largely dock through

charge-charge interactions, with a few polar residues responsible for the catalytic activity.

LACTB dimer interface governs filament assembly. We next sought to establish the

mechanism of filament assembly. The LACTB filaments assemble as stacked antiparallel dimers,

where the buried surface area between the two protomers (A and B) is ~945 Å^2 (Fig 3A). The

structure shows that the antiparallel arrangement between two LACTB monomers results in

symmetric interactions between two main dimer interfaces located on the L3 and L9 loops (Fig

3A). Assembly of the LACTB dimer is mediated by the combined effects of sixteen hydrogen bond

interactions between E149, N150, N364, E365, P366, I368, N370, R371, N385, and T386

residues, and two inter-molecular salt bridges between E149 and R371 (Fig 3B). Conservation of

these residues across mammalian species suggests that they may play an important role in

subunit interactions (S5C Fig). Consistently, mutations targeting the dimer interface, including

E149R-N150A double mutant and I368A-N370A-R371E triple mutant completely abolished the

dimerization propensity as well as the filament formation of LACTB and produced a peak

appearing at a lower molecular weight corresponding to a monomer in SEC analysis (Fig 3C).

Additionally, SDS-PAGE analysis and negative-stain electron micrographs of the peak fractions

further confirmed our observations on the sizing column and showed that these substitutions

remarkably destabilize the local complementary interactions and thus hamper the filament

formation (Fig 3C). On the other hand, mutation of N364A-E365A only modestly affected the

overall filament stability and showed a gel filtration profile similar to the WT (Fig 3C). Because the

N364A-E365A double mutant did not completely hinder filament formation, we predicted that the

dimer interface is likely stabilized by multiple polar and electrostatic interactions. To understand

how filament assembly and disassembly influence the catalytic activity of LACTB, we

characterized the activity of dimerization mutants in substrate assays. Compared to the WT

LACTB, the dimer interface mutants, E149R-N150A and I368A-N370A-R371E, were completely

inactive, while the N364A-E365A mutation only led to a 20% reduction in LACTB activity (Fig 3D).

The negative effect of every dimer interface mutation disrupting the filament assembly suggests

that dimerization and subsequent polymerization are necessary to achieve maximal catalytic

efficiency. These data provide a mechanism by which the strong interactions between the

opposing dimer interface loops promote filament growth and result in increased enzyme activity

by stabilizing the active architecture of the catalytic site. Taken together, we can confirm that the

LACTB homodimers are the basic building blocks of the filaments, and polymerization is strongly

correlated with optimal enzyme activity.

Fig 3. Structural characterization of LACTB dimerization interface. (**A**) LACTB protomers (colored in green and lilac) form an antiparallel dimer as shown in ribbon representation. Residues that are critical for oligomerization are represented in sticks. Black boxes indicate the position of dimer interface residues. (**B**) Zoomed in view of the black box in **A**, showing the interactions that stabilize the dimer formation. The polar and charge-charge interactions are indicated by black and red dotted lines, respectively. (**C**) Size-exclusion chromatography (SEC) elution profiles of WT and mutant LACTB. SEC elution profiles begin with the void volume (V_0) of the column. Fractions were analyzed by SDS-PAGE and peak fractions used in negative-stain TEM analyses are highlighted with red boxes. Negative-stain TEM images demonstrate the polymerization activity of WT and mutant proteins. Scale bars, 100 nm. (**D**) Mutation of key residues involved in dimerization disrupts catalytic activity. Enzyme activity was determined *in vitro* by using a fluorescently labeled substrate and three independent experiments were performed for each sample. Bars represent the mean of at least three independent experiments and error bars represent the standard deviation. The underlying data in (**D**) is provided in sheet Fig 3D in S1 Data.

LACTB filament elongation is mediated by multiple polymerization interfaces between subunits. When we evaluated multiple LACTB homologs, we decided to focus our structural analysis on the unique polymerization mechanism that brings the LACTB homodimers together to form the full filament. Polymerization is mediated by the association between two LACTB homodimers (protomers A-B and C-D), where 48.25° helical rotation between stacked homodimers is necessary for growing a filament at either end (Fig 4A). The inspection of the inter-dimer interface shows that three assembly contacts between neighboring subunits (A and C, A and D, and B and D) bridge antiparallel LACTB homodimers and drive filament assembly (Fig

4A). The first polymer interface, which spans a buried solvent-accessible surface area of ~780

$Å^2$, is formed between the α1 helix and L3 along with the protruding L10 loop between β3 and β4

strands of protomers A and D (Fig 4A and 4B). The two-fold symmetric interactions between

protomers A and D from neighboring homodimers result in identical electrostatic surface

potentials on both sides of the inter-dimer interface (Fig 4A and 4B). Major contacts of this

interface include several non-covalent interactions between residues D113, R117, E121, V122,

R151, Y377, R382, L383, and S527, and a pair of symmetrical salt bridges between D113, D120,

and R151 (Fig 4A and 4B). To verify the functional relevance of these interactions for

polymerization and catalytic activity, we performed mutagenesis studies on residues R117, R151,

and Y377. Both R117E and R151E charge-reversal mutations hindered the ability of LACTB to

assemble into stable elongated filaments and yielded shorter assemblies containing a few LACTB

protomers (Fig 4D). Notably, the R151 salt bridge mutation reduced the proteolytic activity of

LACTB by ~60% in substrate assays, whereas the R117E mutation only mildly affected the

enzyme activity (Fig 4E). Moreover, mutation of the conserved contact site residue Y377 to a

lysine did not show major changes in filament length and formation compared to the WT but

resulted in a greater effect (~70% reduction) regulating protease activity (Fig 4D and 4E). These

characteristics, together with the disruptive effect of charge-reversal mutations, indicate that

complementary electrostatic forces stabilize the interactions between stacked LACTB dimers

during filament formation.

Fig 4. Structural basis of LACTB filament assembly. (**A**) Ribbon diagram of LACTB tetramer.

LACTB protomers are colored in green (A), lilac (B), orange (C), and pink (D). Residues that are

critical for oligomerization are represented in sticks. Black boxes indicate the position of the

residues located at both polymerization interfaces 1 and 2, respectively. (**B** and **C**) Zoomed in

view of polymer interfaces 1 and 2, respectively, showing the interactions that facilitate the

polymerization of human LACTB. The polar and charge-charge interactions are indicated by black

and red dotted lines, respectively. (**D**) Size-exclusion chromatography (SEC) elution profiles of

WT and mutant LACTB. SEC elution profiles begin with the void volume (V_0) of the column.

Mutations to residues that are located at the polymerization interfaces 1 and 2 impair

filamentation. Fractions were analyzed by SDS-PAGE and peak fractions used in negative-stain

TEM analyses are highlighted with red boxes. Negative-stain TEM images demonstrate the

polymerization activity of WT and mutant proteins. Scale bars, 100 nm. (**E**) Mutation of key

residues involved in filament formation disrupts catalytic activity. Enzyme activity was determined

in vitro by using a fluorescently labeled substrate and three independent experiments were

performed for each sample. Bars represent the mean of at least three independent experiments

and error bars represent the standard deviation. The source data from (**E**) is provided in sheet

Fig 4E in S1 Data.

The filament structure also shows a second polymer interface that has symmetric contact sites

between protomers A and C and B and D, which bury ~540 Å^2 of solvent-accessible surface area

(Fig 4A). These two interfaces are formed by the same residues and the interactions are mainly

mediated by the charge complementarity and salt bridges (Fig 4A-C). In our filament structure,

the unique L15 loop that extends between β6 and β7 strands is embedded within the large pocket

formed by α7 and α8 helices and the L12 loop of the adjacent LACTB protomer (Fig 4A-C). The

most intimate contacts occur between L15 loop residues Y473, G474, S475, C476, and R477,

and the conserved residues H352, D353, D355, Y369, A413, Y416, P432, and Y434 that line the

surface of the pocket (Fig 4C). Additional inter-molecular salt bridges are formed between H352

and E457, and D355 and R477, which stabilize the filament formation (Fig 4C). To assess the

importance of these interfaces, we produced a LACTB construct in which the L15 loop (V467 to

Y482) is replaced by a glycine-glycine-serine (GGS) linker to disrupt the helical assembly

interface. This mutant impaired the ability of LACTB to form long filaments, as judged using size-

exclusion chromatography and negative-stain TEM (Fig 4D). We then tested this construct in

substrate assays to measure catalytic activity. Not surprisingly, the removal of the L15 loop

completely abolished the enzymatic activity of the purified LACTB oligomers (Fig 4E). Mutations

of individual L15 loop residues also hindered the enzymatic activity of LACTB. Substitution of

residue G474 with tyrosine markedly reduced the catalytic activity of LACTB by ~85%, whereas

charge-reversal mutation of R477 residue resulted in abrogation of catalytic function *in vitro* (Fig

4E). We also characterized the role of the inter-molecular charge-charge interactions at the

interface. Mutations targeting interface salt bridges, including H352A and D355K, did not affect

the filament formation but decreased the enzymatic activity of LACTB by ~60% to 80%,

respectively (Fig 4D and 4E). Although these interface residues do not appear to participate in

catalytic site formation as they are distant from the active site, they facilitate inter-subunit

interactions that increase the stability and catalytic activity of the filament. Interestingly, a

structural comparison of the human and prokaryotic PBP-βL family of enzymes unveiled that the

LACTB structure is distinguished from its prokaryotic homologs by the addition of the 14-residue

L15 loop, which is involved in filament assembly (S4 Fig). Moreover, multiple sequence alignment

of the human LACTB and PBP-βL family of enzymes demonstrated very little sequence similarity

for amino acids forming the L15 loop (S4E Fig). Consistent with our functional analysis, the L15

loop emerges as a regulatory element that controls not only the polymerization but also the

catalytic activity of LACTB. Altogether, these results demonstrate that assembly of the filament

and the L15 loop are required for catalytic activation of LACTB.

We next tested the possibility that changes in reactive oxygen species (ROS) in the mitochondrial

IMS may influence the assembly of LACTB filaments. Mitochondrial ROS regulate a wide variety

of cellular processes and are linked to multiple pathologies [46,47]. It was previously shown that

hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) can disarrange actin polymers to provoke cell death during

inflammation [48]. H_2O_2 has also been linked to the regulation of mitochondrial membrane

morphology and processes of fusion/fission by changing the oligomeric state or monomeric

structure of redox-sensitive proteins [49–51]. In our cryoEM structure, we identified a methionine-

rich region, where more than half of the methionine residues in LACTB are clustered in this region

(S6A Fig). We thus postulated that these methionine residues may be sensitive to H_2O_2-mediated

oxidation, which could disrupt filament assembly. To investigate the impact of mitochondrial ROS

on LACTB, we exposed protein samples to varying concentrations of H_2O_2 (0.01% to 1%) and

showed that LACTB samples oxidized with H_2O_2 migrate more slowly than the native protein as

deduced by SDS-PAGE analysis (S6B Fig). Subsequently, we confirmed the oxidation of these

methionine residues upon exposure to H_2O_2 by liquid chromatography with tandem mass

spectrometry (LC-MS/MS) (S6C Fig). Finally, negative-stain TEM imaging of protein samples

revealed that oxidation at higher H_2O_2 concentrations hinders the filament formation of LACTB

(S6D Fig). These data suggest that the H_2O_2-mediated oxidation of the protein could alter LACTB

self-assembly dynamics and inhibit polymerization *in vitro*.

Mechanism of LACTB membrane organization. LACTB has been shown to localize to the

mitochondrial IMS, where it assembles into polymers to regulate lipid metabolism [20–22]. The

structure of the LACTB filament can inform its mechanism of action and interactions with lipid

membranes. To investigate whether there is a link between mitochondrial membrane organization

and LACTB filament formation, we reconstituted freshly purified LACTB with liposomes that

closely mimic the lipid composition of mitochondrial inner membranes in a buffer of physiological

ionic strength and visualized binding *in vitro*. When analyzed by negative-stain TEM, we directly

observed the interplay between LACTB and lipid membranes (Fig 5). LACTB filaments exhibited

well-ordered, tightly packed conformation, and appeared to interact with liposomes via the tip of

the polymer (Fig 5A). These filaments were often attached to two different liposomes on opposite

ends forming a bridge between the two lipid membranes (Figs 5B-E and S7D). Intriguingly, we

also identified filaments that interact with liposomes from the side, where multiple protomers form

intimate interactions with lipid membranes on either side (Figs 5C-D and S7D). This second

binding mode allows LACTB filaments to accommodate different membrane topologies and tightly

associate with surrounding membranes, which enables membrane organization. These

observations complement data that were previously obtained *in situ* [21], indicating that

recombinant LACTB generates biologically relevant assemblies and binds membranes *in vitro*

(Fig 5). To further characterize the molecular details of protein-lipid interactions, we first measured

the enzymatic activity of LACTB in the presence of CL-containing liposomes and uncovered that

membrane binding does not affect the catalytic activity of LACTB filaments (Fig 5G).

Subsequently, we prepared liposomes with four different lipid compositions to test the effect of

mitochondrial IM lipids on LACTB activity (S7A Fig). We observed an average two-fold decrease

in liposome binding when we omitted CL from lipid vesicles (S7B-C Fig). Moreover, human LACTB

filaments facilitate mitochondrial membrane organization, which requires these filaments to form

stable interactions with two distinct membrane regions and coordinate their spatial organization

[21]. To assess this activity *in vitro*, we also calculated the percentage of filaments that appeared

to be tethered to two or more liposomes and observed a four-fold decrease in the tethering activity

of LACTB filaments in the absence of CL (Fig 5H). We also determined whether LACTB filaments

can sense regions of high membrane curvature that may be important for membrane remodeling

processes. Specifically, we prepared CL-containing cylindrical liposomes that form membrane

tubules and provide curved membrane surfaces. The reconstitution assays with cylindrical

nanotubes revealed that LACTB filaments have a stronger affinity to cylindrical nanotubes than

spherical vesicles (S7E). Together, these results indicate that CL and positively curved

membranes enhance the membrane binding activity of human LACTB.

Furthermore, we postulated that the flexible loop region between residues 243-290 could facilitate

membrane binding. Specifically, the human LACTB sequence contains a charged and

hydrophobic motif (^{259}KNxFxKFK^{266}) as well as a cluster of six basic side chains

(^{274}KxRxxKxxKKK^{284}) with a remarkably electropositive character within this region that may form

interactions with CL-containing liposomes *in vitro* (S5C Fig). To define the molecular determinants

of membrane binding, we replaced the flexible loop region (residues K255 to K284) with a glycine-

glycine-serine (GGS) linker and introduced alanine and charge-reversal mutations to the

^{259}KNxFxKFK^{266} and ^{274}KxRxxKxxKKK^{284} motifs. These mutants were catalytically active and did

not affect the ability of LACTB to form filaments, as assessed using negative-stain TEM (S8 Fig).

Of note, the flexible loop deletion (ΔL6) and ^{274}ExExxExxEEE^{284} mutant lowered the enzymatic

activity of LACTB filaments while the ^{259}EAxAxEAE^{266} mutant displayed increased catalytic activity

(S8B Fig). More importantly, the ΔL6 and the ^{259}EAxAxEAE^{266} mutants reduced the membrane

tethering ability of LACTB filaments by more than 70% while the ^{274}ExExxExxEEE^{284} mutation led

to a ~50% decrease in membrane tethering activity (Fig 5I). We also corroborated these results

with computational modeling (S9 Fig). In our cryoEM map, we did not observe clearly resolved

densities for the flexible L6 loop region of LACTB. Therefore, we obtained the AlphaFold predicted

structure of the human LACTB monomer and calculated the rotational and translation position of

the protein in the presence of membranes using the PPM (Positioning of Proteins in Membranes)

server (S9 Fig). These theoretical models also nominated the ^{259}KNxFxKFK^{266} motif as key

residues involved in membrane tethering, supporting our biochemical findings (S9 Fig). While

previous studies claim that this loop may promote self-assembly of the LACTB polymer through

a coiled-coil segment [21], we propose that the flexible loop on the fully solvent-exposed exterior

of the filament may adopt multiple conformations to accommodate different topologies and

curvatures of opposing lipid membranes, thereby mediating protein-lipid interactions that would

facilitate membrane organization. Consistent with this, the flexible loop is not conserved amongst

the prokaryotic and archaeal PBP-βL family of enzymes, which are not associated with lipid

membranes [37], providing additional support for the relevance of this region for membrane

binding (S4E Fig). In conclusion, LACTB filaments form stable interactions with cardiolipin-

enriched liposomes, display different modes of membrane binding, and the key L6 loop is required

for membrane targeting of LACTB filaments.

Fig 5. LACTB filaments bind to cardiolipin-enriched liposomes. (**A-D**) Representative

negative-stain TEM images of LACTB filaments in the presence of liposomes. Scale bar, 100 nm.

Purified LACTB filaments were incubated with cardiolipin-containing liposomes at room

temperature for 4 hours. Red boxes indicate protein-membrane contact sites. (**E**) Zoomed in

views of the red boxes in **A**, **B**, **C**, and **D**, showing the details of protein-liposome interactions. (**F**)

A schematic diagram of filament-liposome interactions illustrating different membrane binding

modes of LACTB filaments. (**G**) Catalytic activity of WT LACTB in the presence of liposomes.

Enzyme activity was determined *in vitro* by using a fluorescently labeled substrate and three

independent experiments were performed for each sample. Bars represent the mean of at least

three independent WT and reconstitution assays. Error bars indicate standard deviation (**H**)

Liposome tethering activity of WT LACTB under the presence of liposomes of various

compositions. Liposome tethering activity was quantified by counting 1000 filaments from at least

three independent reconstitution assays and calculating the total percentage of filament tethering.

Bars represent the mean liposome tethering activity and error bars indicate s.e.m. (**I**) Liposome

tethering activity of key residues involved in liposome binding. Liposome tethering activity was

quantified by counting 1000 filaments from at least three independent reconstitution assays and

calculating the total percentage of filament tethering. Bars represent the mean liposome tethering

activity of reconstitution assays and error bars indicate s.e.m. Statistical analysis was performed

with an unpaired two-tailed Student's t-test (**G**) and unpaired two-tail Welch's t-tests (**H**, **I**). *p

<0.05, **p <0.005, ns (no significance). The underlying data in (**G**), (**H**), and (**I**) are provided in

sheets Fig 5G, Fig 5H, and Fig 5I in S1 Data.

Molecular interpretation of disease-associated mutations. Given that human LACTB exerts

tumor suppression activity in multiple carcinogenic cell lines, we next investigated cancer-specific

missense mutations localized within LACTB. We classified LACTB disease mutations in terms of

their localization to subunit-subunit interfaces and characterized their effect on the catalytic

activity (Fig 6). Currently, over 200 *LACTB* gene variants have been identified, of which ~30% are

considered pathogenic [52,53]. About 30% of the pathogenic variants cause frameshifts and

premature truncation of the open reading frame, whereas the remaining ~70% are missense

mutations that are linked to various cancers [52,53]. Mapping of disease-causing mutations onto

our structure of human LACTB demonstrated that some of the pathogenic variants are clustered

at the oligomerization interfaces, possibly culminating in a negative effect on filament assembly

(Fig 6 and S1 Table). Several mutations related to various types of cancers cluster at the LACTB

dimer interface, including V148F, E149Q, E363K, A372T, R371K, K380N, and R382C variants

(Fig 6B). Our biochemical characterizations showed that the E149R and R371E charge-reversal

mutations resulted in a profound multimerization defect and hindered the catalytic activity of

human LACTB (Fig 3C and 3D). Of note, V148, E149, and R371 belong to the L3 loop at the

dimerization interface, where E149 and R371 form hydrogen bonds and an inter-molecular salt

bridge to stabilize the dimer (Figs 3B and 6B). Moreover, other variants such as R151S, D457K

R469K, T472K, R480L, and Y482H, which are located at the polymer filament-forming interfaces,

have also been associated with clinical anomalies (Fig 6). As described earlier, we analyzed the

assembly properties of the LACTB R151E mutant *in vitro* and found that this mutant depressed

the multimerization of human LACTB (Fig 4D-F). Notably, we showed that the disruption of R151-

D113 or H352-D457 electrostatic interactions results in a ~60% reduction in the catalytic activity

of human LACTB (Fig 4D and 4E). We observed similar results when we assessed the functional

role of protruding L15 loop (residues 467 to 482), which contains several disease-associated

residues that are critical for filament formation and membrane organization activity of LACTB (Fig

4D and 4E). Overall, mutations in these newly evident interfaces would likely have an impact on

LACTB polymerization and catalytic activity and this provides important structural context as

pathogenic variants in these interfaces are linked to several cancers.

Fig 6. The model of LACTB enables mapping the disease-associated mutations. (**A**) A

schematic representation of full-length LACTB architecture. Residues 1-68 contain the predicted

mitochondrial targeting sequence (MTS), and residues 243-290 form the flexible loop region.

Residues that are associated with various human cancers are highlighted with a red dashed line.

(**B**) Ribbon diagram of human LACTB tetramer. Protomers that form the tetramer are labeled A

to D and colored as in **Fig 4A**. Mutations localizing to oligomerization interfaces are illustrated as

sticks. Inset windows show the close-up views of oligomerization interfaces containing disease-

associated mutations. Black boxes indicate the dimer, and polymerization interfaces 1 and 2,

respectively.

Discussion

Here, we investigated the molecular mechanism of the LACTB serine protease, whose key functions in mitochondria include the regulation of metabolic pathways and morphology and tumor suppression by modulating mitochondrial lipid metabolism. Our high-resolution structure of the human LACTB filament shows that the enzyme forms a high-order helical filament, which is critical for its cellular function. These results offer new mechanistic insights into how LACTB assembles into filaments to control mitochondrial morphology as well as the efficiency of metabolic processes.

The basic building block of the helical structure consists of an antiparallel LACTB dimer. This unit then interacts with neighboring homodimers via charge-charge and polar interactions, which results in the helical stacking of LACTB dimers and elongation of filaments (S10 Fig). We show that human LACTB contains novel structural features that are critical for polymerization. Although the active site motifs are conserved between LACTB and the prokaryotic PBP-βL family of enzymes, phylogenetic and structural analyses demonstrate that the residues involved in polymerization are only conserved in higher eukaryotes, suggesting that LACTB has evolved from its prokaryotic counterparts to fulfill different physiological functions in mammals (S5 Fig). Intriguingly, LACTB requires unique contacts to robustly polymerize into filaments which enables catalytic activity. While the benefits of polymeric enzymes are not fully understood, there are several theories of filamentous enzymes exhibiting kinetic advantages. One such kinetic model involves the rapid activation of enzymes through filament formation [54–57]. For instance, the bacterial SgrIR protein, which is a restriction endonuclease, polymerizes rapidly at either end of the filament to stimulate enzyme activity and increase DNA-binding specificity [58,59]. Similarly, many metabolic enzymes such as cytidine triphosphate synthase (CTPS) and inosine monophosphate dehydrogenase (IMPDH) form filaments in bacteria and eukaryotes to modulate

enzyme activity [38–41]. Interestingly, CTP-induced polymerization of bacterial CTPS results in

decreased catalytic activity, whereas substrate-bound human CTPS filaments display increased

enzymatic activity, suggesting that filament formation can tune the activity of metabolic enzymes

differently in response to distinct metabolic cues in different species [38]. Additionally, an isoform

of human acetyl-CoA carboxylase in the mitochondria forms active and inactive helical filaments

through allosteric regulation by citrate and the binding of BRCA1, respectively, revealing a unique

form of enzyme regulation via large scale conformational changes in filament architecture [42].

The structure of the LACTB filament, together with extensive mutagenesis studies, show that

polymerization is essential for the catalytic activity of the enzyme (Fig 3). However, the

polymerization interfaces do not participate in active site formation (Fig 4). A possible explanation

for this increased enzymatic activity upon filament assembly is that the binding of LACTB

protomers indirectly stabilizes the regions involved in substrate binding and thus enhances the

catalytic activity of LACTB. The stabilization of the LACTB filament through multiple intra- and

inter-dimeric interfaces that are largely mediated by charged and polar interactions strongly

suggest that the filament assembly is responsible for the observed amplification of LACTB activity

in our biochemical data. Our results suggest that the catalytic activity of human LACTB is

allosterically regulated by stabilizing an intrinsically inactive state upon filament formation,

independent of substrate binding, thus holding the enzyme in an active conformation.

Filamentation appears to be an evolutionarily conserved mechanism in a diverse array of

biochemical and biological pathways in cells and provides an added layer of regulation in the form

of rapid activation or inhibition [56,60]. By characterizing distinct interactions in LACTB filaments

our data provides a structural basis for manipulating LACTB polymerization *in vivo*.

Many different enzymes dynamically form filaments in response to changing physiological

conditions in cells [38,41,42,44,61]. The process of polymerization requires a critical

concentration of monomeric protein for filament formation, where larger self-assemblies can be

formed as a result of protein crowding [56]. In addition to modulating enzyme activity through

polymerization, an unexpected feature of the LACTB filaments is their ability to interact with lipid

membranes. Our results indicate that both LACTB-mediated mitochondrial membrane

organization and regulation of lipid metabolism may be directly linked to its ability to form higher-

order assemblies. However, it is not clear whether the catalytic activity of LACTB plays a role in

membrane organization in mitochondria as its direct substrate remains unknown. Unlike many

membrane-associated proteins such as conserved septin proteins in mammals [62], membrane

binding does not influence LACTB polymerization through the end-to-end association of the

homodimers. It is striking that while many regulatory enzymes polymerize to allosterically tune

enzyme kinetics [56], LACTB exerts a dual function and forms exclusively cooperative filaments

to interact with mitochondrial membranes from the inside. We showed that the LACTB filaments

are unique as they contain specific sequences to interact directly with membranes (Fig 5). The

membrane topologies observed in electron tomograms of mitochondria suggest that LACTB

filaments, which have the ability to access length scales larger than the size of mitochondrial

membrane compartments, can form structural and functional bridges between mitochondrial IM

and OM and regulate the distance between the opposing faces of the cristae membrane [63].

Hence, LACTB assemblies may have further roles in mitochondrial morphogenesis and in

processes, where strong membrane association is needed. Mitochondrial membranes have a

unique lipid composition that is important for the organelle's morphology and proper function of

membrane-associated processes [7]. In addition to the major phospholipids PE and PC, which

account for a large portion of mitochondrial membrane lipids, mitochondria-exclusive phospholipid

cardiolipin (CL) is a distinguishing component of the mitochondrial IM that is known to participate

in a wide range of mitochondrial processes [10]. CL directly interacts with positively charged

surfaces of numerous mitochondrial proteins with its negatively charged headgroup and

contributes to the dynamic membrane organization in mitochondria [64,65]. Negative-stain TEM

imaging revealed that LACTB filaments have a high affinity for cardiolipin-containing lipid bilayers

and manifest two different membrane binding modes (Fig 5). We postulate that LACTB filaments

are recruited to the inner/outer membrane by electrostatic interactions between negatively

charged phospholipids and the flexible polybasic surface loop of LACTB. When the tip of the

LACTB filaments binds lipid membranes, subunits of adjacent homodimers form additional

protein-lipid interactions through lateral associations, increasing the filament contacts with the

membrane surface. Furthermore, subunits on the opposite end of the filament bind membranes

in a similar fashion and engage in lateral associations via interactions of several subunits, thus

bringing the two membranes into close apposition. We, therefore, propose that upon forming

filaments between the two membranes, human LACTB can act as a molecular zipper and regulate

mitochondrial membrane organization by controlling the distance between the two membranes.

LACTB filaments display a strong driving force for the spatial arrangement of membranes, thus

providing a structural foundation for a wide variety of normal and pathological processes.

Finally, our ability to map mutations that are identified in various cancers to the LACTB structure

expands the breadth of deficiency mechanisms (beyond the downregulation of LACTB by several

miRNAs) to additionally include the impaired ability of LACTB to correctly assemble into a

filament. Our structural model encompasses nearly all human cancer-associated missense

mutations in LACTB and lays the foundation for characterizing additional mechanisms leading to

LACTB perturbation in the regulation of lipid metabolism and mitochondrial membrane

organization. This study uncovers an important aspect of how LACTB functions as a tumor

suppressor and provides a foundation for future cancer research and drug therapy with LACTB

as a target.

While this manuscript was under preparation, Zhang *et al.* determined the single-particle cryoEM

structure of the LACTB and studied the catalytic activity of the enzyme [66]. Using topology-

independent structure comparison, we determined 98.74% alignment and a root mean square

deviation (r.m.s.d.) of 0.48 Å over 389 Cα atoms between the two monomeric structures. Although

the overall structure of the monomeric enzyme is similar, Zhang *et al.* studied smaller LACTB

oligomers that do not form elongated filaments. Our cryoEM structure of LACTB filament mirrors

data that were previously obtained *in situ* [21], emphasizing that structure determination of self-

assembled micron-scale filaments generates biologically relevant atomic models. Overall, our

structural models and biochemical characterizations of assembly interfaces largely agree with the

recently published study [66]. Moreover, our results on the assembly mechanism of LACTB and

several other structural and functional analyses, including the details of protein-lipid interactions,

which are critical for characterizing the regulatory role of a filamentous enzyme, provide an

important basis for the elucidation of the mechanisms of LACTB protease on a molecular level.

Materials and Methods

Protein expression and purification

The gene encoding human LACTB (residues 1-547) was obtained from DNASU (HsCD00629745). The DNA sequence for human LACTB (residues 97-547) was subcloned into the multiple cloning site of the pCA528 bacterial expression vector. LACTB was tagged with an N-terminal 6x-His tag followed by a SUMO tag. All mutant constructs were generated by a two-step site-directed mutagenesis PCR protocol. The plasmid was transformed into *Escherichia coli* BL21(DE3)-RIPL cells and expressed in ZYP-5052 auto-induction media at 18°C for 16 h when OD_{600} reached 0.6-0.8. Cells were harvested with centrifugation (Sorvall RC-5B Superspeed Centrifuge) at 10,800 rpm (39,531x *g*) for 20 min at 4 °C. The supernatant was then discarded, and the cell pellets were resuspended in lysis buffer (50 mM HEPES-NaOH, pH 7.5, 500 mM NaCl, 5 mM $MgCl_2$, 20 mM imidazole, 1mM CHAPS (Anatrace), 5mM 2-mercaptoethanol, 10% (v/v) glycerol) supplemented with 0.5% (v/v) Triton X-100, 0.5 mg DNase I, and 1X EDTA-free complete protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche). The cells were lysed with an Emusliflex C3 Homogenizer and the cell lysate was clarified by centrifugation (Sorvall RC-5B Superspeed Centrifuge) at 15,000 rpm (68,040x *g*) at 4 °C for 45 min. The supernatant was incubated with Ni-NTA agarose beads (Qiagen) for 1 h. The Ni-NTA beads were washed with 20 column volumes (CV) of lysis buffer, 10 CV of wash buffer (50 mM HEPES-NaOH, pH 7.5, 1M NaCl, 5 mM $MgCl_2$, 20 mM imidazole, 1mM CHAPS, 5mM 2-mercaptoethanol, 10% (v/v) glycerol), and 10 CV of lysis buffer again before the protein was eluted with 5 CV elution buffer (50 mM HEPES-NaOH, pH 7.5, 500 mM NaCl, 5 mM $MgCl_2$, 500 mM imidazole, 1mM CHAPS, 5mM 2-mercaptoethanol, and 10% (v/v) glycerol). The sample was then dialyzed into lysis buffer containing Ulp1 protease to remove the N-terminal 6x-His-SUMO tag overnight at 4 °C. The dialyzed protein was concentrated using a 30 kDa MWCO concentrator (Millipore) and was further purified by size-exclusion chromatography on a Superose 6 Increase 10/300 GL column (Cytiva) equilibrated with

purification buffer (20 mM HEPES-NaOH, pH 7.5, 140 mM NaCl, 10 mM KCl, 1mM MgCl$_2$, and 1

mM DTT). A typical size-exclusion profile for WT LACTB consisted of a large peak containing

LACTB filaments eluting within the void volume (V_0) of the column. Fractions of LACTB were

analyzed by SDS-PAGE. Freshly purified samples were used for cryoEM grid preparation and *in*

vitro substrate binding assays.

Negative-stain electron microscopy

The LACTB assembly was purified as described above. Size-exclusion peak fractions

corresponding to LACTB were diluted to ~2.0 µM for negative-stain transmission electron

microscope (TEM). Samples were prepared by applying 4 µl of purified LACTB applied onto glow-

discharged carbon-coated copper grids (400 mesh) and negatively stained with 0.75% (w/v)

uranyl formate (UF) following an established protocol [67]. Briefly, the samples were incubated

on the grid for 1 min and then blotted off with filter paper. Subsequently, samples on grids were

stained with UF for 45 s and air dried for 2 min at room temperature. The grids were imaged using

a Tecnai T12 Spirit LaB6 filament TEM (FEI) equipped with an AMT 2k x 2k side-mounted CCD

camera and operated at a voltage of 100 kV. The micrographs were collected at a nominal

magnification of 120,000x at the specimen level with a calibrated pixel size of 5.28 Å per pixel.

CryoEM sample preparation and data acquisition

Prior to cryoEM grid preparation, an aliquot of purified LACTB was buffer exchanged to a freezing

buffer (20 mM HEPES-NaOH, pH 7.5, 140 mM NaCl, 10 mM KCl, 1 mM MgCl$_2$, 1mM DTT, 1%

glycerol, and 1 mM CHAPS) by centrifugation at 1000x *g* for 2 minutes with a micro-spin desalting

column (Thermo Scientific Zeba) at 4 °C. Aliquots of 4 µl of protein samples (0.3 mg ml^{-1} or ~6

µM) were applied to glow-discharged R1.2/1.3 200 Cu mesh grids (Quantifoil). After 30 s, the

grids were blotted for 3 seconds and plunged into liquid ethane using a Leica EM GP2 Automatic

Plunge Freezer operated at 10 °C and 90% humidity. Micrographs were acquired using a Titan

Krios TEM (FEI) operated at 300 kV and equipped with a K3 Summit direct electron detector

(Gatan). Images of frozen-hydrated filaments of LACTB were collected in counting mode at a

nominal magnification of 29,000x corresponding to an image pixel size of 0.8211 Å on the

specimen level, applying a defocus range of -0.5 to -1.5 µm. A total of 7643 dose-fractionated

movies were recorded with the SerialEM software [68] multishot method over nine neighboring

holes (3 x 3). The dose rate was 1.05 electrons/$Å^2$/frame, with a frame rate of 0.07 s, resulting in

a total exposure time of 3.985 s and a total accumulated dose of 59.58 electrons per $Å^2$ (57

frames). CryoEM data collection parameters are summarized in Table 1.

Image analysis and 3D reconstruction

The alignment and dose-weighted summation of raw movie stacks were carried out using

MotionCor2 [69]. Contrast transfer function (CTF) estimations were performed on aligned, non-

dose-weighted micrographs using CTFFIND4 [70]. All subsequent processing steps were

performed using Relion 3.1 [71,72]. A total of 34,636 filament coordinates were manually picked

and filament segments with 90% overlap were extracted by using a box size of 320 pixels. All

segments (430,592) were then subjected to multiple rounds of reference-free two-dimensional

(2D) classification with 100 classes to identify structurally homogeneous subsets. After 2D

classification, a featureless cylinder-shaped electron density map with a 160 nm diameter was

generated in Relion and used as an initial reference for 3D auto-refinement with C1 symmetry.

The resulting refined map showed clear secondary structure features and was used to estimate

the helical parameters. Using this 4.3 Å reconstruction, an initial 3D classification was performed

with C1 symmetry, and the segments from the best 3D classes (248,548 segments) were selected

for high-resolution 3D auto-refinement. Subsequently, these segments were 3D auto-refined with

a soft mask, central Z length of 45% of the box size (helical_z_percentage=0.45), and imposing

starting helical parameters of 21.59 Å rise and 48.91° twist, yielding a 3D reconstruction with an

overall resolution of 3.7 Å. To improve this density map, the final particle segments were subjected

to iterative rounds of focused 3D auto-refinement, CTF refinement, and Bayesian polishing to

obtain a final 3D reconstruction of a right-handed helical assembly at 3.1 Å resolution. The helical

parameters converged to a rise of 21.63 Å and a twist of 48.25° per subunit. A reconstruction

without imposing symmetry was also generated at 3.1 Å resolution after focus refinement using a

similar mask on the filament. The final reported resolutions are based on the gold-standard

Fourier shell correlation (FSC) = 0.143 criterion. Maps were sharpened by applying a negative B

factor as determined by the Relion post-processing program. The local resolution estimation was

calculated by ResMap using half-map reconstructions [73].

Model building and refinement

Model building was carried out using the 3.1 Å cryoEM map of the human LACTB filament. The

Alphafold [74] predicted structure of monomeric LACTB was used as an initial model for atomic

model building. The model was manually fitted into the cryoEM density map using UCSF Chimera

[75] and then rigid body refined using the real-space refinement procedure implemented in the

program PHENIX [76]. Atomic coordinates of the human LACTB (residues 97-547) filament were

manually rebuilt using the program Coot [77] and the final models were iteratively refined against

the cryoEM density map. The real space-refinement of models with global minimization, local grid

search, secondary structure, and geometric restraints applied was performed using the software

PHENIX [76]. Secondary structure elements and side chains for the majority of the residues were

unambiguously resolved. Each residue was manually inspected, and correction of the refined

coordinates was performed by applying torsion, planar peptide, and Ramachandran restraints

during manual rebuilding in Coot [77].

Validation and structural analysis

The stereochemistry and geometry of the final model was evaluated by MolProbity [78]. CryoEM maps and atomic models were analyzed, and figures were generated using UCSF ChimeraX [79], UCSF Chimera [75], and PyMOL (The PyMOL Molecular Graphics System, Version 2.0 Schrödinger, LLC). Negative-stain TEM images were analyzed using FIJI [80]. Surface potential renderings were generated using the APBS plugin in PyMOL [81]. Structural and chemical properties of macromolecular interfaces and surfaces were analyzed by the PISA server [82]. The fold conservation analysis was performed with the Dali server [83] and structural comparisons to the PBP-βL family of enzymes and RMSD calculations were carried out using the CLICK server [84]. Sequence alignment of the LACTB homologs as well as the PBP-βL family of enzymes was generated using Clustal Omega [85] and sequence conservation figures were prepared by using the Clustal Omega alignment file and LACTB model in ESPript server 3.0 [86]. Schematic diagrams were generated by using BioRender.com. The statistics of the cryoEM helical reconstruction and model refinement were summarized in Table 1.

LACTB *in vitro* substrate assay

To determine the catalytic activity of the WT and mutant LACTB, the cleavage of the fluorogenic Ac-YVAD-AMC peptide (Enzo Life Sciences) was measured at an excitation wavelength of 380 nm and an emission wavelength of 460 nm using a CLARIOstar microplate reader. All assays were performed at room temperature and the total reaction volumes were 20 µl. Briefly, 10 µl of purified LACTB protein was mixed with a reaction buffer containing 20 mM HEPES-NaOH, pH 7.5, 140 mM NaCl, 10 mM KCl, 1 mM $MgCl_2$, 1 mM DTT, and 0.01% NP-40 detergent (AmericanBio) to generate a final protein concentration of 12-15 nM. Reactions were initiated by adding 100 µM concentrations of the substrate Ac-YVAD-AMC (dissolved in DMSO and prediluted to 200 µM in reaction buffer) to the enzyme in a 384 well black polystyrene assay plate (Costar

3916). The reactions were run in at least three independent replicates for 1,200 s and

fluorescence was measured every 10 s. The raw data were averaged to determine reaction rates

from the linear part of the curve and include standard deviation. To determine the catalytic activity

of the WT LACTB in the presence of lipid vesicles, freshly purified protein (1.5-2 µM) was

incubated with 0.5 mg ml^{-1} unilamellar liposomes in three independent experiments for 4 h at room

temperature. Then, the catalytic activity of LACTB was measured as described above to quantify

the reaction rate of WT LACTB in the presence of liposomes.

H$_2$O$_2$ treatment of LACTB filaments

An aliquot of purified LACTB was diluted to 0.15 mg ml^{-1}. Aliquots of 10 µl of the protein sample

were incubated with 5 µl of varying concentrations of H$_2$O$_2$ for 30 minutes. The final concentrations

were 0.01% H$_2$O$_2$ (v/v), 0.025%, 0.05%, 0.1%, 0.25%, 0.5%, 0.75%, and 1.0%. The final

concentration of protein was 0.1 mg ml^{-1}. The samples were analyzed by SDS PAGE using a 4-

15% precast gel (BioRad) at 100 V. The 0.1%, 0.5%, and 1.0% H$_2$O$_2$ (v/v) samples were stained

on glow-discharged carbon-coated copper grids with UF as described above and visualized with

a Tecnai T12 Spirit TEM (FEI) operated at a voltage of 100 kV. The micrographs were collected

at a nominal magnification of 120,000x at the specimen level with a calibrated pixel size of 5.28

Å per pixel.

Preparation of lipid vesicles and LACTB membrane binding reactions

To determine the membrane binding activity of human LACTB, the lipid composition of the

mitochondrial inner membrane was used to prepare vesicles as described previously [87]. The

lipid stock solutions were resuspended in chloroform, methanol, and water mixture (20:9:1, (v/v/v))

and stored at -20°C. 1-palmitoyl-2-oleoyl-glycero-3-phosphocholine (POPC), 1-palmitoyl-2-

oleoyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphoethanolamine (POPE), L-α-lysophosphatidylinositol (Soy Lyso PI),

1',3'-bis[1,2-dioleoyl-sn-glycero-3-phospho]-glycerol (cardiolipin $(18:1)_4$), D-galactosyl-ß-1,1' N-

nervonoyl-D-erythro-sphingosine (C24:1 Galactosyl(ß) Ceramide, GalCer) (Avanti Polar Lipids)

were mixed in a molar ratio of POPC:POPE:PI:CL; 45:22:8:25, POPC:POPE:PI; 70:22:8,

POPC:POPE; 78:22, POPC; 100, and GalCer:CL; 80:20. The lipid mixture was then dried as a

thin film in a glass tube under a gentle stream of nitrogen and incubated in a vacuum desiccator

for 4 h to remove excess solvent. Following dehydration, the lipid film was resuspended for 30

min at room temperature in a liposome buffer containing 20mM HEPES-NaOH, pH 7.5, and

150mM NaCl. The suspension was extruded through polycarbonate membranes with a 50 nm

pore diameter using Avanti Mini Extruder (Avanti Polar Lipids) to obtain unilamellar liposomes. 20

µl aliquots of rehydrated lipids were flash-frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C. The

nanotube mixtures were rehydrated in liposome buffer and incubated at room temperature for 15

min with intermittent mixing. The suspended mixture of lipid nanotubes was briefly vortexed and

sonicated for three rounds (5 min per round) in a bath sonicator at 50°C. The lipids were

immediately used in the binding assays after cooling at room temperature.

For liposome binding assays, a range of 1.5-2 µM of freshly purified WT LACTB was incubated

with 0.5 mg ml^{-1} unilamellar liposomes or the liposome reaction buffer (20 mM HEPES-NaOH, pH

7.5, 140 mM NaCl, 10 mM KCl, 1 mM $MgCl_2$, 1 mM DTT) for 4 h at room temperature.

Subsequently, the reaction mixture was applied onto glow-discharged carbon-coated copper grids

and negatively stained with UF. The membrane binding activity of LACTB filaments was assessed

by negative-stain TEM. Images were collected using a Tecnai T12 Spirit TEM (FEI) equipped with

an AMT 2k x 2k side-mounted CCD camera as described above. Negative stain images were

recorded at a nominal magnification of 120,000x at the specimen level with a calibrated pixel size

of 5.28 Å per pixel. A total of 1000 filaments were counted from randomized blinded images to

eliminate bias. The total percentage of filaments interacting with one or more liposomes (binding

and tethering, respectively) was determined and the s.e.m. for each sample was calculated.

Statistical analysis

Statistical significance was determined using GraphPad Prism 9 software. Liposome tethering

experiments and related enzymatic activity measurements were analyzed by unpaired two-tailed

Welch's t-test and unpaired two-tailed Student's t-test, respectively. The values $P < 0.05$ were

considered statistically significant.

Data Accessibility

All of the 3D cryoEM data that support the findings of this study have been deposited in Electron

Microscopy Data Bank with the accession code: EMDB-26595. The model coordinates have been

deposited in the Protein Data Bank under accession code PDB ID: 7ULW.

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Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

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Supporting Information

S1 Fig. CryoEM raw data and validation of the human LACTB filament. (**A**) A representative cryoEM micrograph and (**B**) 2D class averages of the human LACTB filament. (**C**) Slices through the unsharpened density map of the LACTB filament are shown in the top view. (**D**) CryoEM map of the human LACTB filament is colored according to the local resolution estimation calculated by ResMap. (**E**) Fourier Shell Correlation (FSC) curve shows 3.1 Å global resolution (masked in purple and unmasked in orange) with the gold standard criteria (FSC=0.143). (**F**) Euler angle distribution of the segments used in the final 3D reconstruction.

S2 Fig. LACTB filament data processing strategy. Flow chart summarizing cryoEM image-processing workflow, including 3D classification and 3D auto-refinement, CTF refinement, and Bayesian polishing.

S3 Fig. CryoEM map quality of the LACTB filament. (**A**) Fourier Shell Correlation (FSC) curves for the final helical symmetry imposed (purple line) and C1 symmetry (blue line) 3D reconstructions. (**B**) 3D Fourier Shell Correlation of the final cryoEM map.

S4 Fig. Comparison of the LACTB monomer with different structures of homologous proteins and sequence alignment with bacterial PBP-βL family of enzymes. (**A-D**), Comparison of human LACTB monomer (green) with *S. aureus* ClbP protein (yellow, PDB ID: 4GDN), *P. abyssi* Pab87 peptidase (orange, PDB ID: 2QMI), *A. halodurans* penicillin-binding protein (pink, PDB ID: 3TG9), and *B. anthropi* D-amino-acid amidase (purple, PDB ID: 2EFU). The root-mean-square deviation of each structure relative to the LACTB monomer is shown at the bottom. While most β-strands align well between human and bacterial proteins, the surrounding helices and interface-forming loops show significant differences between these

structures. (**E**) Sequence alignment of LACTB homologs and orthologs. Residues that form the

dimerization interface and polymerization interfaces 1 and 2 are highlighted with orange, purple

and blue boxes, respectively. Catalytic site residues are highlighted with an asterisk. Secondary

structure elements shown above the alignment are generated from the human LACTB structure.

Sequences were aligned using Homo Sapiens LACTB (Uniprot ID: P83111), *S. aureus* ClbP

(Uniprot ID: Q7A3Q5), *P. abyssi* Pab87 peptidase (Uniprot ID: Q9V2D6), *A. halodurans* penicillin-

binding protein (Uniprot ID: Q9KAM0), and *B. anthropi* D-amino-acid amidase (Uniprot ID:

Q9LCC8).

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S5 Fig. Structure of LACTB catalytic site and multiple sequence alignment of mammalian

LACTB homologs. (**A**) Active site and ligand recognition of human LACTB. Ribbon diagram of a

monomer is displayed in green and residues forming the catalytic site are shown as sticks. Boxed

zoom images highlight the positions of the conserved residues that contribute to catalytic site

formation. (**B**) Surface electrostatic potential representation of the LACTB monomer. Positive and

negative electrostatic potentials are shown in blue and red, respectively. The substrate binding

cavity is highlighted with a red circle. (**C**) Sequence alignment of LACTB homologs. Residues that

form the dimerization interface and polymerization interfaces 1 and 2 are highlighted with orange,

purple and blue boxes, respectively. Catalytic site residues are highlighted with an asterisk.

Secondary structure elements shown above the alignment are generated from the human LACTB

structure. LACTB sequences from Homo sapiens (human; Uniprot ID: P83111), Pan troglodytes

(chimpanzee; Uniprot ID: K7CYM3), Macaca mulatta (rhesus macaque; Uniprot ID: F7EXQ6),

Mus musculus (mouse; Uniprot ID: Q9EP89), Bos taurus (cow; Uniprot ID: P83095), Equus asinus

(donkey; Uniprot ID: UPI001D03C0DD), Puma concolor (mountain lion; Uniprot ID:

A0A6P6HFT1), and Lontra canadensis (river otter; Uniprot ID: UPI0013F34634) are aligned.

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S6 Fig. SDS-PAGE and negative-stain TEM analyses of LACTB filaments in the presence of H₂O₂. (**A**) Ribbon diagram of the LACTB monomer is displayed in green, and residues forming a methionine cluster are shown as sticks. Boxed zoomed in image highlights the positions of methionine residues which are colored orange and yellow. (**B**) Coomassie blue-stained SDS-PAGE gel of WT LACTB protein treated with increasing concentrations (0.1%, 0.5%, and 1.0%) of H_2O_2. Indicated concentrations of H_2O_2 were incubated with purified LACTB for 30 min before SDS-PAGE analysis. The left lane is the molecular weight standards, and their positions are indicated. (**C**) Sequence of WT LACTB construct (residues 97-547) with confirmation of methionine residues oxidized upon exposure to H_2O_2 (shown in red) by liquid chromatography with tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS). The underlying data for (**C**) is provided in S2 Data. (**D**) Representative negative-stain TEM micrographs of WT LACTB treated with varying concentrations of H_2O_2 for 30 min before grid preparation. Scale bars, 100 nm.

S7 Fig. Structural characterization of LACTB filaments with liposomes of different compositions and nanotubes. (**A**) Negative stain images of liposomes with different compositions. From left to right: PC:PE:PI:CL, PC:PE:PI, PC:PE, PC. (**B**) Negative stain images of WT LACTB in the presence of liposomes with different compositions in the same order as (**A**). (**C**) Total liposome binding activity of WT LACTB with liposomes of different compositions. Total liposome binding was quantified by counting 1000 filaments from at least three independent reconstitution assays and calculating the total percentage of filament binding. Bars represent the mean of at least three independent reconstitution assays and error bars indicate the s.e.m. (**D**) Percentage of LACTB filaments bound to liposomes by interaction type. Bars represent the mean of at least three independent reconstitution assays and error bars indicate the s.e.m. (**E**) Negative stain images of empty nanotubes (left) and WT LACTB filaments in the presence of nanotubes (right). The source data for (**C**) and (**D**) are provided in sheets S7C and S7D Fig in S1 Data.

1146

S8 Fig. Structural characterization of the lipid binding region of LACTB. (**A**) Size exclusion

chromatography (SEC) elution profiles of WT and mutant LACTB. SEC elution profiles begin with

the void volume (V_o) of the column. Fractions were analyzed by SDS-PAGE and peak fractions

used in negative-stain analyses are highlighted in red boxes. Negative-stain TEM images

demonstrate the polymerization activity of WT and mutant proteins. Scale bars, 100 nm. (**B**)

Catalytic activity of key residues involved in lipid binding. Enzyme activity was determined *in vitro*

by using a fluorescently labeled substrate and three independent experiments were performed

for each sample. Bars represent the mean of at least three independent experiments and error

bars represent the standard deviation. (**C**) Total liposome binding activity of WT LACTB and key

residues involved in lipid binding. Total liposome binding was quantified by counting 1000

filaments from at least three independent reconstitution assays and calculating the total

percentage of filament binding. Bars represent the mean of at least three independent

reconstitution assays and error bars indicate the s.e.m. The underlying data in (**B**) and (**C**) are

provided in sheets S8B and S8C Fig in S1 data.

1161

S9 Fig. Computational modeling of LACTB lipid binding motifs to membranes. The

monomeric structure of WT human LACTB was obtained from AlphaFold and the rotational and

translation position of the protein was calculated in the presence of membranes, mimicking the

lipid composition of the mitochondrial IM using the PPM Web Server. Boxed zoomed in images

highlight the predicted structures of ^{259}KNxFxKFK^{266} and ^{274}KxRxxKxxKKK^{284} motifs within the

flexible loop region (L6) of human LACTB.

1168

S10 Fig. Mechanistic model describing LACTB assembly mechanism within mitochondria.

After being imported to mitochondrial IMS, LACTB protomers assemble into antiparallel dimers.

Subsequently, LACTB dimers interact through two polymerization interfaces, which allow the

stacking of antiparallel dimers in a helical fashion and lead to the polymerization into micron-scale

helical assemblies. Upon filament formation, LACTB gains catalytic activity and filament

elongation increases the catalytic efficiency of the enzyme.

1175

1176 **S1 Table. Disease-associated missense mutations in human LACTB.** Mutations associated

1177 with various cancers were compiled from the Catalogue of Somatic Mutations in Cancer

1178 (COSMIC), the Genome Aggregation Database (gnomAD), and The Cancer Genome Atlas

1179 Program (TCGA).

1180

S1 Data. The numerical values underlying Figs 1F and 3D and 4E and 5G-I and S7C-D and

S8B-C. (XLSX). Sheets show the values underlying the data displayed in all figures and includes

an explanation of all data. Sheet Fig 1F shows the raw data from *in vitro* substrate fluorescence

assays for WT LACTB underlying Fig 1F. Sheet Fig 3D details the raw data from *in vitro* substrate

fluorescence assays for LACTB mutants underlying Fig 3D. Sheet Fig 4E describes the raw data

from *in vitro* substrate fluorescence assays for LACTB mutants underlying Fig 4E. Sheet Fig 5G

shows the raw data from *in vitro* substrate fluorescence assays in the presence of liposomes

underlying Fig 5G. Sheet Fig 5H describes the raw data from LACTB membrane binding assays

based on membrane composition underlying Fig 5H. Sheet Fig 5I reports the raw data from

LACTB membrane binding assays for LACTB mutants underlying Fig 5I. Sheet S7C Fig

represents the raw data from LACTB membrane binding assays based on membrane composition

underlying S7C Fig. Sheet S7D Fig shows the raw data from LACTB membrane binding assays

for WT LACTB based on binding classification underlying S7D Fig. Sheet S8B Fig details the raw

data from *in vitro* substrate fluorescence assays for LACTB mutants underlying S8B Fig. Sheet

S8C Fig describes the raw data from LACTB membrane binding assays for LACTB mutants

underlying S8C Fig.

1197

S2 Data. Source data of liquid chromatography with tandem mass spectrometry (LC-

MS/MS) in S6C Fig. (XLSX). Parameters sheet shows the experimental parameters for LC-

MS/MS experiments of WT LACTB in the presence of H_2O_2. Summary sheet describes the

summary of experimental data for LC-MS/MS experiments. Evidence sheet shows protein

sequence information for LC-MS/MS experiments. Protein Groups sheet details protein identity

information for LC-MS/MS experiments.

1204

1205 **S1 Raw Images. Uncropped images of SDS-PAGE gels of Figs 1C and 3C and 4D and S6B**

1206 **and S8A.** (PDF). Contains raw images for Fig 1C, Fig 3C, Fig 4D, S6B Fig, and S8A Fig.

1207

Fig 1

Fig 2

Fig 3

Fig. 4

Fig 5

A
Liposome
Binding
LACTB
100 nm

B
Tethering
100 nm

C
Binding
Flanking
100 nm

D
Zippering
100 nm

E
Lipo
1
2 3
4
5
6

6 5
4 3
2 1
Lipo

2 4
1 3 5
Lipo
6

Lipo
1 3 5
2 4 6
Lipo

F
LACTB Filament
Liposome

Anchoring → Bridging → Flanking → Zippering

G
Enzyme Activity (Fluorescence units/s)
**
WT   WT + Liposome

H
Liposome Tethering Activity (%)
* * *
PC:PE:PI:CL   PC:PE:PI   PC:PE   PC

I
Liposome Tethering Activity (%)
ns * *
WT   K274-K284 Mut   K259-K266 Mut   ΔL6

A

B

S1 Fig

S2 Fig

7,643 Micrographs → MotionCor2 CTFFIND4 → Manual particle picking (34,636 start-end coordinates) → Particle extraction → 1.6422 Å/pixel 2D Classification (430,592 segments) → Subset selection → 0.8211 Å/pixel 3D Refinement (382,052 segments)

C1 symmetry

3D Classification (382,052 segments)

C1 symmetry
K=4
tau=12

4.3 Å

35.6%   20.5%   22.7%   21.2%

Regroup/Re-extract

3D Refinement (248,548 segments) → Helical symmetry → 3.7 Å → 3D Refinement (248,548 segments)

Bayesian polishing
Ctf refinement

Postprocessing (248,548 segments) ← 3.2 Å

3.1 Å

S3 Fig

A

B

S4 Fig

S5 Fig

A

B

C

```
 97  APPCSRCFARAIESSRDLLHRIKDEVGAPGIVVGVSVDGKEVWSEGLGYADVENRVPCKPETVMRIASISKSLTMVALA   175
176  KLWEAGKLDLDIPVQHYVPEFPEKEYEGEKVSVTTRLLISHLSGIRHYEKDIKKVKEEKAYKALKMMKENVAFEQEKEGK   255
256  SNEKNDFTKFKTEQENEAKCRNSKPGKKKNDFEQGELYLREKFENSIESLRLFKNDPLFFKPGSQFLYSTFGYTLLAAIV   335
336  ERASGCKYLDYMQKIFHDLDMLTTVQEENEPVIYNRARFYVYNKKKRLVNTPYVDNSYKWAGGGFLSTVGDLLKFGNA    413
414  MLYGYQVGLFKNSNENLLPGYLKPETMVMMWTPVPNTEMSWDKEGKYAMAWGVVERKQTYGSCRKQRHYASHTGG      488
489  AVGASSVLLVLPEELDTETINNKVPPRGIIVSIICNMQSVGLNSTALKIALEFDKDRSD                      547
```

D

S7 Fig

S8 Fig

S9 Fig

Inner Leaftet

Outer Leaftet

F265A
F262A
K264E
N260A
K266E
T263
D261
K259E

C275
K274E
N277
R276E
S278
K279E
P280
G281
K282E
K283E
K284E

C

N

S10 Fig

Dimerization

Stacking of dimers

Polymerization

90°

LACTB helical assembly

S1 Table | Human LACTB mutations associated with cancer

Protein change	Clinical classification	Cancer type
H116Q	Neutral	Thyroid carcinoma
E121K	Pathogenic	Breast
V148F	Pathogenic	Kidney
E149Q	Pathogenic	Esophagus
R151S, R151H	Likely pathogenic	Uterus
E363K	Pathogenic	Pancreatic
R371K	Pathogenic	Lung
A372T	Pathogenic	Uterus
K380N	Pathogenic	Cervical
R382L, R382C	Pathogenic	Oral, uterus
E457K	Pathogenic	Bladder
E468G	Pathogenic	Glioma
R469K	Pathogenic	Colon, breast
T472K, T472M	Neutral	Melanoma, colon
R480W, R480Q, R480L	Pathogenic	Lung, colon, liver
Y482H	Pathogenic	Melanoma

Mutations associated with cancer were compiled from the Catalogue of Somatic Mutations In Cancer (COSMIC), the Genome Aggregation Database (gnomAD), and The Cancer Genome Atlas Program (TCGA).