The transition state and regulation of γ-TuRC-mediated microtubule

nucleation revealed by single molecule microscopy

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Abstract

Determining how microtubules (MTs) are nucleated is essential for understanding how the cytoskeleton assembles. While the MT nucleator, γ-tubulin ring complex (γ-TuRC) has been identified, precisely how γ-TuRC nucleates a MT remains poorly understood. Here we developed a single molecule assay to directly visualize nucleation of a MT from purified *Xenopus laevis* γ-TuRC. We reveal a high γ-/αβ-tubulin affinity, which facilitates assembly of a MT from γ-TuRC. Whereas spontaneous nucleation requires assembly of 8 αβ-tubulins, nucleation from γ-TuRC occurs efficiently with a cooperativity of 4 αβ-tubulin dimers. This is distinct from pre-assembled MT seeds, where a single dimer is sufficient to initiate growth. A computational model predicts our kinetic measurements and reveals the rate-limiting transition where laterally-associated αβ-tubulins drive γ-TuRC into a closed conformation. Putative activation domain of CDK5RAP2, NME7 and TPX2 do not enhance γ-TuRC-mediated nucleation, while XMAP215 drastically increases the nucleation efficiency by strengthening the longitudinal γ-/αβ-tubulin interaction.

Introduction

Microtubules (MTs) enable cell division, motility, intracellular organization and transport. Half a century ago, MTs were found to be composed of αβ-tubulin dimers, yet how MTs are nucleated in the cell to assemble the cellular structures remains poorly understood[1,2]. The universal nucleator, γ-tubulin efficiently nucleates MTs *in vivo*[3–5] by forming a 2.2 megadalton, ring-shaped complex with γ-tubulin complex proteins (GCPs), known as the γ-<u>T</u>ubulin <u>R</u>ing <u>C</u>omplex (γ-TuRC)[6–11]. Structural studies[9,12–15] have revealed that γ-TuRC positions a lateral array of 13 γ-tubulin molecules that are thought to template MT assembly by binding αβ-tubulin dimers and promoting their lateral interaction to result in nucleation of a MT[9,12,16–18]. Despite this model being widely accepted, MT nucleation from γ-TuRC molecules has not been directly visualized in real time and the dynamics of nucleation of a MT from αβ-tubulin dimers remains to be characterized. In particular, determining the critical nucleus, i.e., the rate-limiting transition state, for γ-TuRC nucleation is of tremendous interest, as it has important implications for how MT nucleation is spatiotemporally regulated in the cell (Fig. 1A).

In the absence of γ-TuRC, MTs can also nucleate spontaneously from high concentrations of αβ-tubulin *in vitro*. In this process, which displays a nucleation barrier, the assembly of many αβ-tubulin dimers is thought to occur to form lateral and longitudinal contacts[19–22]. It has long been speculated whether γ-TuRC-mediated nucleation occurs similarly, or follows a distinct reaction pathway[18,22–25]. Moreover, the structure of native γ-TuRC shows an *open* conformation where adjacent γ-tubulin do not form a lateral interaction[13–15], raising further questions on how the conformational mismatch impacts γ-TuRC's nucleation activity (Fig. 1A). It has been widely proposed that γ-TuRC may transition to a *closed* conformation during MT assembly to match the geometry of αβ-tubulin dimers arranged laterally in the MT lattice[10,13]. This transition could further

provide a mode of regulation through several putative MT-associated proteins (MAPs) that have been proposed to promote a closed conformation of γ-TuRC's[10,13,18] and regulate γ-TuRC's nucleation activity[9,10,13,26–28]. Finally, the interaction affinity between γ-tubulin and αβ-tubulin and its role on MT nucleation remain unknown[18,23] (Fig. 1A).

Investigating the molecular biophysics of MT nucleation by γ-TuRC at the single-molecule level and with computational modeling have the potential to address these questions. By identifying transition states and reaction intermediates during the γ-TuRC-mediated nucleation reaction, important insights into the dynamics of MT nucleation can be revealed. Yet, technical challenges in both purifying γ-TuRC at high yield, as well as the inability to visualize MT nucleation events from individual γ-TuRC molecules in real time and at high resolution, have posed limitations. In this work, we overcome these longstanding challenges to reconstitute MT nucleation from γ-TuRC and visualize the reaction live at the resolution of single molecules. We use computational models to gain further mechanistic insights into MT nucleation and to identify the molecular composition and arrangement of the rate-limiting transition state in γ-TuRC. Finally, we examine the roles of various MAPs, particularly the co-nucleation factor XMAP215, in γ-TuRC-mediated MT nucleation and comprehensively examine how specific biomolecular features govern how MT nucleation from γ-TuRC occurs.

Results

Visualizing microtubule nucleation from γ-TuRC with single molecule microscopy

To study how γ-TuRC nucleates a MT, we purified endogenous γ-TuRC from *Xenopus* egg

extracts and biotinylated the complexes to immobilize them on functionalized glass (Fig. 1-figure

supplement 1A-B). Upon perfusing fluorescent αβ-tubulin, we visualized MT nucleation live with

total internal reflection fluorescence microscopy (TIRFM) (Fig. 1B). Strikingly, MT nucleation

events occurred specifically from γ-TuRC molecules that were either unlabeled (Fig. 1B and Video

1) or fluorescently labelled during the purification (Fig. 1-figure supplement 1C and Video 2).

Kymographs revealed that single, attached γ-TuRC molecules assembled αβ-tubulin into a MT *de*

novo starting from zero length within the diffraction limit of light microscopy (Fig. 1C), ruling out

an alternative model where MTs first spontaneously nucleate and then become stabilized via γ-

TuRC. By observing fiduciary marks on the MT lattice (Fig. 1C) and generating polarity-marked

MTs from attached γ-TuRC (Fig. 1- figure supplement 1D), we show that γ-TuRC caps the MT

minus-end while only the plus-end polymerizes, as supported by previous works[16,17]. Notably, the

detachment of γ-TuRC molecules and re-growth of the MT minus-ends were not observed, and γ-

TuRC persists on the MT minus-end for the duration of our experiments. Altogether, our results

demonstrate that γ-TuRC directly nucleates a MT.

Molecular composition of the transition state during γ-TuRC-mediated nucleation

To determine how γ-TuRC nucleates a MT, we measured the kinetics of MT nucleation for a

constant density of γ-TuRC molecules and increasing αβ-tubulin concentrations (Fig. 2A and

Video 3). γ-TuRCs nucleated MTs starting from 7 μM tubulin (Fig. 2A-B), which is higher than

the minimum tubulin concentration (C^*) needed for growth from a pre-formed MT plus-end (C^*

= 1.4 µM, Fig. 2B). Furthermore, the number of MTs nucleated from γ-TuRC increased non-

linearly with αβ-tubulin concentration as opposed to the linear increase in MT's growth speed with

tubulin concentration (Fig. 2B). By measuring the number of MTs nucleated over time with

varying αβ-tubulin concentration (Fig. 2C), we calculated the rate of MT nucleation. The power-

law dependence on αβ-tubulin concentration (Fig. 2D) yields the number of tubulin dimers, 3.9 ±

0.5, that compose the rate-limiting, transition state during MT assembly from γ-TuRC (Fig. 2D).

Thus, the cooperative assembly of nearly 4 αβ-tubulin subunits on γ-TuRC represents the most

critical, rate-limiting step in MT nucleation.

γ-TuRC-mediated nucleation is more efficient than spontaneous nucleation

Based on the traditional assay where MTs are nucleated, fixed and visualized, a large variability

in γ-TuRC's MT nucleation activity has been observed. With this setup, γ-TuRC has often been

reported to be a poor nucleator with a similar activity as spontaneous MT nucleation[6,8–11,13,14,26,29].

With our live TIRFM assay, we aimed to quantitatively compare the efficiency of γ-TuRC-

mediated MT nucleation with spontaneous MT nucleation (Fig. 3A). In contrast to γ-TuRC-

mediated nucleation, a higher concentration of 14 µM tubulin was required for any spontaneous

assembly of MTs, after which both the plus- and minus-ends polymerize (Fig. 3B, Fig. 3-figure

supplement 1A and Video 4). The number of MTs assembled as a function of the αβ-tubulin

concentration displayed a power-law dependence with an even larger exponent of 8.1 ± 0.9 (Fig.

3C), indicating a highly cooperative process that requires 8 αβ-tubulin dimers in a rate-limiting

intermediate, in agreement with previous reports[19,20]. Further, direct comparison and measurement

of spontaneous MT assembly with γ-TuRC-mediated nucleation (Fig. 3- figure supplement 1B-C)

clearly demonstrates that γ-TuRC nucleates MTs significantly more efficiently. Notably, specific

attachment of γ-TuRC to coverslips is also required to observe the nucleation activity (Fig. 3-

figure supplement 1C). In sum, γ-TuRC-mediated nucleation occurs efficiently and its critical

nucleus requires less than half the number of αβ-tubulin dimers compared to spontaneous

assembly.

Contribution of end architecture of γ-TuRC to microtubule nucleation

The MT plus-end architecture, which ranges from blunt to tapered, is critical for MT

polymerization dynamics[30–32], and was recently proposed to be critical for MT nucleation[25]. To

investigate how the blunt-end geometry of γ-TuRC contributes to its nucleation kinetics and

transition state, we generated Alexa-568 labelled, stable MT seeds with blunt ends as described

previously[25] and compared MT assembly from seeds upon addition of Cy5-labelled αβ-tubulin

dimers (Fig. 3C) side-by-side with γ-TuRC-mediated nucleation. At a minimum concentration of

2.45μM, approaching the critical concentration needed for polymerization of a MT plus-end, a

large proportion of pre-formed MT seeds assemble MTs (Fig. 3C-D, Fig. 3-figure supplement 1D

and Video 5). At 7 μM tubulin, the rate of assembly of MTs from the blunt seeds increased to reach

the maximum rate that could be temporally resolved, i.e. all of the MT seeds immediately

assembled a MT (Fig. 4D). This is in contrast to the kinetics of γ-TuRC-mediated nucleation at

7μM tubulin concentration, where minimal nucleation activity was observed (Fig. 2C-D). The

measured reaction kinetics as a function of the αβ-tubulin concentration (Fig. 3D) was used to

obtain the power-law of the nucleation rate, 1 ± 0.3 (Fig. 3E). This suggests that in our assay

condition, blunt MT ends assemble tubulin dimers into the MT lattice non-cooperatively. In other

words, the addition of a single αβ-tubulin dimer suffices to overcome the rate-limiting barrier,

which also occurs during the polymerization phase of MT dynamics. Notably, when this

experiment was replicated with the coverslip preparation and assay conditions reported

previously[25], a high concentration of tubulin was necessary for seeds to assemble MTs in

agreement with the previous work[25]. However, our assay conditions, that were used to compare

seed-templated MT assembly with γ-TuRC-mediated nucleation side-by-side, result in a low,

minimal tubulin concentration that is needed for seed-mediated MT assembly. To conclude, while

the γ-TuRC positions a blunt plus-end of γ-tubulins, the contribution of this specific end

architecture in defining the kinetics of nucleation from γ-TuRC and its transition state is minimal.

In summary, because γ-TuRC positions an array of γ-tubulins at its nucleation interface

that are thought to stabilize intrinsically weak, lateral αβ/αβ-tubulin interaction[9,10,13,14,18,22,23], MT

nucleation by γ-TuRC has been proposed to function similar to polymerization of a MT end. Here

we show several lines of evidence that γ-TuRC-mediated nucleation has distinct characteristics

from MT polymerization and assembly from blunt MT seeds. While growth speed of MTs

nucleated from γ-TuRC or templated from MT seeds is similar (Fig. 3-figure supplement 1D), γ-

TuRC molecules do not nucleate MTs at low tubulin concentration where MT polymerization can

occur. Further increasing tubulin concentration results in a non-linear increase in the number of γ-

TuRCs molecules that nucleate MT, as opposed to a linear increase in rate of assembly from seeds.

At the highest tubulin concentrations, approximately 10-15% of γ-TuRCs nucleate MTs in the

TIRF assays. While these results were obtained with endogenous γ-TuRCs purified from cytosol,

it remains possible that specific factors at MTOCs can modulate γ-TuRC's conformation and

kinetics. In summary, the rate-limiting transition state on γ-TuRC is composed of four αβ-tubulin

dimers in contrast with MT polymerization where one tubulin dimer suffices to overcome the

slowest step.

γ-tubulin has a high affinity for αβ-tubulin

Consequently, specific biochemical features of γ-TuRC must govern its nucleation activity and the composition of the transition state during nucleation. To address this, we first measured the interaction affinity between γ-tubulin and αβ-tubulin, which could provide insight into γ-TuRC's nucleation interface and its role in MT nucleation. To begin, we performed size-exclusion chromatography where γ-tubulin alone elutes as a broad peak in fractions I-N (Fig. 4A (i), pseudo-colored profile in green) at low concentration. Interestingly, in the presence of either 10 μM (low) or 35 μM (high) concentrations of αβ-tubulin, the γ-tubulin binds to αβ-tubulin (pseudo-colored profile in cyan) and elutes earlier, specifically in fraction H (Fig. 4A (ii-iii), yellow arrow). Further, the overall elution profile of γ-tubulin is altered to follow αβ-tubulin, showing that γ-tubulin binds to αβ-tubulin at both the low and high concentrations we tested. To compare this with αβ-/αβ-tubulin's longitudinal interaction, we performed chromatography of αβ-tubulin alone (Fig. 4-figure supplement 1A). At a lower concentration (10μM), αβ-tubulin elutes only as a single subunit in fractions H-K (Fig. 4-figure supplement 1A (i)). Only at high αβ-tubulin concentration (35μM) did we detect a small population of αβ-tubulin bound to another αβ-tubulin (Fig. 4-figure supplement 1A (i), fractions B-C denoted with red arrows). This suggests that the heterogeneous γ-/αβ-tubulin affinity is higher than the αβ-/αβ-tubulin.

To further investigate how γ-tubulin and αβ-tubulin interact, we turned to single molecule microscopy. We attached biotinylated αβ-tubulin dimers to a coverslip, added either fluorescently-labelled αβ-tubulin (Fig. 4B(i)) or γ-tubulin (Fig. 4B(ii)) to the solution, and visualized the binding of single fluorescent molecules to αβ-tubulin molecules on the coverslip. While both fluorescent αβ-tubulin and γ-tubulin specifically bind to surface-attached αβ-tubulin, 15-fold more γ-tubulin

molecules were bound than αβ-tubulin molecules (Fig. 4C), further supporting a stronger γ-/αβ-

tubulin interaction. Finally, these results were confirmed with a biolayer interferometry assay,

where lower concentrations of γ-tubulin were detected to interact with probe-bound αβ-tubulin,

while a much higher concentration of αβ-tubulin was necessary to measure an interaction between

αβ-/αβ-tubulin dimers (Fig. 4-figure supplement 1B). These results are congruent with *in vivo* γ-

/αβ-tubulin affinity measurements made in yeast cells[33].

In performing the above experiments, we unexpectedly found that purified γ-tubulin on its

own, at high concentrations and at 33 °C, efficiently nucleated MTs from αβ-tubulin subunits (Fig.

4-figure supplement 2A) and capped MT minus-ends while allowing plus-ends to polymerize (Fig.

4-figure supplement 2B). Besides its ability to form higher order oligomers in a physiological

buffer[29], γ-tubulin at high concentrations also forms filaments *in vitro* of variable widths (Fig. 4-

figure supplement 2C; Moritz and Agard, unpublished results) as assayed by negative stain

electron microscopy (EM). The formation of filaments *in vitro* is consistent with the previous *in*

vivo observations where γ-tubulin was over-expression and immunoprecipited[34–36]. To understand

the nature of these filaments, we generated 3D reconstructions, which revealed that γ-tubulins self-

assemble into lateral arrays with a repeating unit of approximately 54Å (Fig. 4-figure supplement

2D-E). This closely matches the lateral tubulin repeats in the MT lattice (PDB:6DPU[37,38]) and in

γ-tubulin crystal contacts (52Å, PDB:1Z5W[39,40]), but not the longitudinal αβ-tubulin repeat (40Å).

This suggests that laterally associated γ-tubulin are sufficient to efficiently nucleate MTs.

In sum, at the nucleation interface of γ-TuRC, γ-tubulin has a higher longitudinal affinity

for αβ-tubulin compared to αβ-tubulin's affinity for itself, which promotes MT nucleation from γ-

TuRC.

Monte Carlo simulations recapitulate the dynamics microtubule nucleation from γ-TuRC

To further probe the dynamics of MT nucleation, we developed Monte Carlo simulations to model MT nucleation from γ-TuRC. Our model was based on one previously developed for the plus-end dynamics of a MT[31,41,42]. A 13-protofilament geometry for the MT lattice and γ-TuRC were used with a pitch of 3 tubulins (Fig. 5A). αβ-tubulin dimers arrive with a constant on rate, k_{on} (μM^{-1}s^{-1}) on each protofilament. The interactions between αβ-tubulins was assumed to occur with longitudinal and lateral bond energies, $\Delta G_{Long,\alpha\beta-\alpha\beta}$ and $\Delta G_{Lat,\alpha\beta-\alpha\beta}$, respectively, similar to previous literature[31,41,42]. The longitudinal bond energy between γ-/αβ-tubulin, $\Delta G_{Long,\gamma-\alpha\beta}$ determines the dwell time of αβ-tubulin dimers on γ-TuRC. An open conformation of native γ-TuRC was assumed, as observed in recent structural work[13,14], where lateral interactions between tubulins on neighboring sites were not allowed. A thermodynamic barrier, $\Delta G_{\gamma TuRC-conf}$ and a pre-factor rate constant $k_{\gamma TuRC-conf}$ (s^{-1}) determine the transition from this open to *closed* γ-TuRC conformation where lateral tubulin interactions can occur (Fig. 5A). As αβ-tubulin dimers assemble on γ-TuRC, the free energy of this transition decreases by the total energy of all n lateral bonds that can be formed, $\Delta G_{\gamma TuRC-conf} - n\Delta G_{Lat,\alpha\beta-\alpha\beta}$.

MT growth parameters were determined by fitting to experimental growth speed curves (Fig. 5-figure supplement 1A), and were found to be similar to previous estimates[31,41]. Based on our biochemical measurement (Fig. 4), $\Delta G_{Long,\gamma-\alpha\beta}$ was estimated to be higher than $\Delta G_{Long,\alpha\beta-\alpha\beta}$, while a wide range was explored for the other parameters. The resulting model produces a sharp transition from zero-MT length to a continuously growing MT upon γ-TuRC closure (Fig. 5B) that occurs at variable time points for each realization of the model (Fig. 5B and Fig. 5-figure supplement 1B-C(i)). This qualitatively recapitulates the dynamics of γ-TuRC-mediated nucleation events observed experimentally.

Nucleation kinetics and the power-law dependence on αβ-tubulin concentration was

obtained by simulating hundreds of model realizations. While $k_{\gamma TuRC-conf}$ and $\Delta G_{Long,\gamma-\alpha\beta}$ do

not alter the power-law exponent significantly, they set the rate of nucleation at a specific αβ-

tubulin concentration (Fig. 5-figure supplement 1B-C). The thermodynamic barrier, $\Delta G_{\gamma TuRC-conf}$

instead determines the power-law exponent and the number of αβ-tubulins in the rate-limiting,

transition state (Fig. 5C). At $\Delta G_{\gamma TuRC-conf} < 2.5 k_B T$, cooperative assembly of 1-2 αβ-tubulins

suffice to nucleate MTs, while at high $\Delta G_{\gamma TuRC-conf} > 20 k_B T$, more than 5 αβ-tubulins assemble

cooperatively for successful MT nucleation. At an intermediate $\Delta G_{\gamma TuRC-conf} = 10 k_B T$, MT

nucleation kinetics and its power-law dependence recapitulates our experimental measurements

(compare Fig. 5-figure supplement 2A with Fig. 2C-D). Here γ-TuRCs minimally nucleate MTs

at 7μM tubulin, MT nucleation increases non-linearly with tubulin concentration, and 4 ± 0.4 αβ-

tubulins compose the transition state (Fig. 5-figure supplement 2A and Fig. 5C, green curve

highlighted with an asterisk).

As a further validation of our model, we simulated the dynamics of MT nucleation from

blunt MT seeds. Here we assumed that MT assembly begins from a closed γ-TuRC geometry

where all longitudinal bond energies were set equal to $\Delta G_{Long,\alpha\beta-\alpha\beta}$ (Fig. 5-figure supplement

2B). The simulations predict near complete MT assembly at minimal αβ-tubulin concentration of

2μM and transition state of 1.1 ± 0.1 αβ-tubulins (Fig. 5-figure supplement 2B), in agreement with

MT assembly from blunt seeds that we measured experimentally (Fig. 3D-E). Thus, our Monte

Carlo simulations accurately capture the detailed dynamics of MT nucleation from γ-TuRC.

Arrangement of αβ-tubulin dimers in transition state for γ-TuRC-mediated microtubule

nucleation

We next characterized the dynamics of αβ-tubulins during MT nucleation from γ-TuRC by

examining the time traces from individual model simulations. First, prior to MT nucleation, we

observe longitudinal association of individual αβ-tubulins either to the γ-tubulin sites on the open

γ-TuRC or, less frequently, with existing αβ-tubulin in a protofilament (Fig. 5B, left insets). These

αβ-tubulins dissociate rapidly in the absence of additional lateral bond energy. Once a MT lattice

is assembled, persistence of αβ-tubulin dimers with both longitudinal and lateral contacts drive the

growth of plus-end. Analogous observations during growth of a MT plus-end also show rapid

dissociation of αβ-tubulin that form only a longitudinal contact, while ones with additional lateral

contacts persist[31]. At the sharp transition prior to MT assembly (Fig. 5B, right insets), we find that

many αβ-tubulin dimers stochastically assemble on neighboring sites on γ-TuRC. Favorable Gibbs

free energy from the lateral interaction between these αβ-tubulin dimers overcomes the energy

penalty of the conformational change and transitions γ-TuRC into a closed state.

Finally, we characterize the arrangement of αβ-tubulin dimers in the rate-limiting, transition

state that results in a closed γ-TuRC conformation prior to MT polymerization. A variable total

number of αβ-tubulin dimers with an average of 5.2 ± 1 (n=2119 simulations) were present on γ-

TuRC at the transition state (Fig. 5D, left). To our surprise, αβ-tubulin subunits in the transition

state assemble on neighboring sites into laterally-arranged groupings (Fig. 5D, right). The most

probable transition state is composed of four αβ-tubulin arranged on neighboring sites that form 3

lateral bonds when the γ-TuRC conformation changes to a closed one. The other probable states

have 5 αβ-tubulins arranged laterally in two groups of 2 and 3 dimers each, or in two groups of 1

and 4 dimers each, and 6 αβ-tubulins arranged in two groups of 2 and 4 dimers, or in two groups

of 3 dimers each. Most importantly, in these transition states, the free energy gained from the

lateral bonds between αβ-tubulins compensates for the thermodynamic barrier posed by γ-TuRC's

open conformation to allow for MT nucleation. Notably, the laterally-arranged group of 4 αβ-

tubulin dimers physically represents the power-law exponent measured from the average

nucleation kinetics (Fig. 2D).

Role of putative activation factors in γ-TuRC mediated nucleation

Next, we investigated how accessory factors regulate γ-TuRC-dependent MT nucleation. While

several activation factors[26,27,43] have been proposed to enhance the MT nucleation activity of γ-

TuRC, the function of these putative activation factors remains to be tested with a sensitive and

direct assay. We incubated the purified γ-TuRC activation domain (γ-TuNA)[26] from *Xenopus*

laevis protein CDK5RAP2 with γ-TuRC at high concentrations to maximally saturate the binding

sites on γ-TuRC (Fig. 6A), and further supplemented additional γ-TuNA with αβ-tubulin used

during the nucleation assay. Measurement of nucleation activity revealed that CDK5RAP2's γ-

TuNA domain increases γ-TuRC-mediated nucleation only by 1.4 (± 0.02) -fold (mean ± std, $n =$

2) at $t = 180$ seconds, falling within the 95% confidence intervals of the control reactions (Fig. 6A-

B and Video 6). Another putative activator, NME7[27], when added to γ-TuRC at saturating

concentrations[44] (Fig. 6-figure supplement 1 and Video 6), did not increase γ-TuRC's nucleation

activity (Fig. 6B). Finally, we assessed the protein TPX2 that not only contains a split γ-TuNA and

overlapping SPM[43], but also functions as an anti-catastrophe factor *in vitro*[25,45] and was proposed

to stimulate γ-TuRC-mediated nucleation[43,46,47]. TPX2 also had a small increase on the nucleation

activity of γ-TuRC by 1.2 (± 0.3) -fold (mean ± std, $n = 3$) at $t = 180$ seconds, but bound strongly

along the MT lattice (Fig. 6C-D and Video 6). While high concentration of TPX2 forms

condensates with αβ-tubulin and promotes spontaneous MT nucleation[45,48], near its endogenous

concentration of TPX2[49] used here, TPX2 is able to saturates the MT lattice, yet it does not

significantly increase γ-TuRC-mediated nucleation, in agreement with the physiological

observations[43]. Thus, the putative activation motif of CDK5RAP2, full-length NME7 or TPX2 all

have minor effects on γ-TuRC's MT nucleation activity.

XMAP215 promotes microtubule nucleation by strengthening the longitudinal bond energy

between γ-TuRC and αβ-tubulin

Recently, XMAP215 was discovered to be a nucleation factor that synergizes with γ-TuRC in *X.*

laevis and *S. cerevisiae*[29,50], or works in an additive manner with γ-tubulin[51]. To investigate how

XMAP215 participates in MT nucleation, we performed single molecule experiments with

XMAP215 and γ-TuRC. At low tubulin concentrations of 3.5μM and 7μM, where none or little

MT nucleation occurs from γ-TuRCs alone (Fig. 7A and Fig. 7-figure supplement 1A), as shown

earlier. Strikingly, the addition of XMAP215 induced many surface-attached γ-TuRCs to nucleate

MTs, resulting in a drastic increase in number of nucleated MTs by 25 (±9) -fold (mean ± std, $n =$

3) within $t = 120$ seconds (Fig. 7A-B, Fig. Fig. 7-figure supplement 1B and Video 7). By directly

visualizing γ-TuRC and XMAP215 molecules during the nucleation reaction (Fig. 7C), we found

that XMAP215 and γ-TuRC molecules first form a complex from which a MT was then nucleated

(Fig. 7C and Video 8). For 76% of the events (n=56), XMAP215 visibly persisted between 3 to

≥300 seconds on γ-TuRC before MT nucleation. After MT nucleation, XMAP215 molecules

polymerize and track with the MT plus-end. For 50% of nucleation events (n=58), some

XMAP215 molecules remained on the minus-end together with γ-TuRC, while for the other 50%

of events, XMAP215 was not observed on the minus-end after nucleation. This suggests that

XMAP215 molecules nucleate with γ-TuRC and then continue polymerization of the plus-end.

How does XMAP215 enable MT nucleation from γ-TuRC? We titrated αβ-tubulin at

constant γ-TuRC and XMAP215 concentrations and measured the kinetics of nucleation (Fig. 7-

figure supplement 1C and Fig. 7D). XMAP215 effectively decreases the minimal tubulin

concentration necessary for MT nucleation from γ-TuRC to 1.6μM (Fig. 7-figure supplement 1C),

very close to the minimal concentration for plus-end polymerization. As before, we calculated the

composition of the transition state by measuring the power-law dependence between the MT

nucleation rate and tubulin concentration with a resulting cooperative assembly of 3.3 ± 0.8 αβ-

tubulin dimers occurs (Fig. 7E). This suggests that XMAP215 does not lower the thermodynamic

barrier to nucleation by altering the geometry of γ-TuRC. Further, neither the N-terminus,

containing TOG1-4 domains, nor the C-terminus of XMAP215, containing the TOG5 and C-

terminal domain that directly interact with γ-tubulin[29], stimulate additional nucleation from γ-

TuRC (Fig. 7-figure supplement 1D-E).

Finally, we used our simulations to understand the thermodynamics underlying the MT

nucleation activity of XMAP215. Based on its role in accelerating both MT polymerization and

nucleation[29,50], we implicitly modeled the thermodynamic effect of XMAP215's activity by

strengthening the longitudinal tubulin bonds, as described previously[41]. The simulation where only

the longitudinal αβ-/αβ-tubulin bond is strengthened does not capture the enhancement of MT

nucleation by XMAP215 (Fig. 7D, left). Instead, simulations where both the longitudinal γ-/αβ-

tubulin and αβ-/αβ-tubulin bond energies are increased by 1.2-fold captures the accelerated

kinetics of MT nucleation at low αβ-tubulin concentrations. These simulations also predict a

similar transition state composition as measured experimentally (Fig. 7D-E, left), supporting

XMAP215's role in strengthening γ-/αβ-tubulin interactions at the nucleation interface.

Altogether, our results confirm that XMAP215 indeed functions synergistically with γ-TuRC, in

agreement with recent works[15,29,50]. Most importantly, our results show that, while the transition

state is defined by γ-TuRC's conformation, XMAP215 strengthens the longitudinal γ-/αβ-tubulin

bond to function as a bona-fide nucleation factor.

Inhibition of γ-TuRC mediated nucleation by specific microtubule associated proteins

Finally, we asked whether specific MAPs could have an inhibitory effect on MT nucleation from

γ-TuRC. The two most abundant inhibitory MAPs in the cytosol, MCAK and Stathmin function

by removing αβ-tubulin dimers from the MT lattice[52,53] or sequestering αβ-tubulin dimers[54,55],

respectively. We find that addition of either sub-endogenous concentration of MCAK, or near-

endogenous Stathmin concentration (Fig. 7F, Fig. 7-figure supplement 2 and Video 9) was

sufficient to nearly abolish MT nucleation from all γ-TuRC molecules. Thus, γ-TuRC-mediated

nucleation is inhibited by MAPs that inhibit MT polymerization.

Discussion

Decades after the discovery of MTs, their αβ-tubulin subunits and the identification of γ-TuRC as the universal MT nucleator[3,6–8,16,17], it has remained poorly understood how MTs are nucleated and how this process is regulated in the cell[18,22,46]. Here we establish a single-molecule assay to study MT nucleation and combine it with computational modelling to identify the rate-limiting, transition state of γ-TuRC-mediated nucleation . We examine how biochemical features of γ-TuRC contribute to its the nucleation activity and regulation.

New methods and direct measurements developed in this study reconcile several prior observations for γ-TuRC-mediated MT nucleation. First, the nucleation activity of γ-TuRC has been found as variable and often low and similar to spontaneous MT assembly[6,8,10,13–15,18,22], and γ-TuRC's requirement in the cell has been debated[4,45,56–58]. Low concentration of γ-TuRC molecules obtained from endogenous purifications and lack of live observation of a growing or capped MT minus-end, which is needed to distinguish between γ-TuRC-mediated and spontaneous nucleation, could affect the assessment of γ-TuRC's nucleation activity. Second, because of technical challenges in the traditional setup where MTs are nucleated, fixed and spun down onto a coverslip[6,8–10,13,26,27,29], variable assessment of the role of accessory factors[13,26,27] has been reported. Here, by developing a high resolution assay that provides specific live information to visualize MT nucleation events from γ-TuRC and distinguish between non-γ-TuRC nucleated MTs, analyses system to measure its nucleation activity independent of concentration, as well as direct visualization of MAPs bound to γ-TuRC or the MT lattice allows us to unambiguously study γ-TuRC mediated nucleation and its regulation by MAPs.

While the molecular architecture of γ-TuRC was revealed by recent cryo-EM structures[9,13–15], the dynamics of MT nucleation from γ-TuRC and how it relates to γ-TuRC's specific

biochemical features has remained unknown. By combining biochemical investigation with

computational modeling, we show that 4 αβ-tubulin heterodimers on neighboring sites form the

critical nucleus, i.e. the rate-limiting transition state on γ-TuRC. A model, in which γ-TuRC

stochastically changes its conformation from an *open* to *closed* state, where the latter is stabilized

by lateral αβ-tubulin interactions, comprehensively explains our experimental measurements.

While native γ-TuRC purified from cytosol was used here, further activated γ-TuRC isolated from

MTOCs may result in cooperativity between fewer αβ-tubulin dimers for successful nucleation.

Likewise, MT assembly from pre-assembled, blunt seeds, could resemble nucleation from already

closed γ-TuRCs. We find that the subsequent transition of the growing MT end from blunt- to

tapered one, is not the major, rate-limiting step during nucleation from γ-TuRC. Notably, a parallel

work also reported MT nucleation from single, human γ-TuRC molecules recently[15]. While the

majority of findings agree with our work, 6.7 dimers were required in the critical nucleus and an

overall lower activity of γ-TuRC (0.5%) was found[15]. Low structural integrity of purified γ-TuRC

from incorporation of BFP-tagged GCP2 and a higher ratio of γ-tubulin sub-complexes, or species-

specific variation in γ-TuRC properties could explain these differences.

Our simulations further predict that a hypothetical low affinity between γ-/αβ-tubulin[23] is

insufficient to induce any MT nucleation because αβ-tubulins that bind to γ-TuRC dissociate

rapidly. Instead, our biochemical investigation show that the high affinity of γ-/αβ-tubulin

interaction increases the dwell time of αβ-tubulin dimers on γ-TuRC and promotes γ-TuRC's MT

nucleation activity, as predicted by our modeling. Finally, this net mechanism is

thermodynamically favorable compared to spontaneous MT nucleation as the free energy of

longitudinal γ-/αβ-tubulin interactions, $13(\Delta G_{Long,\gamma-\alpha\beta})$, exceeds the energy penalty from

conformational rearrangement of γ-TuRC, $\Delta G_{\gamma TuRC-conf}$. In sum, building on the recent structural

work[13–15], our results show that the open γ-TuRC conformation and its transition to a closed one

defines γ-TuRC's nucleation activity and transition state. In the future, it will be important to study

how γ-TuRC transitions to a closed conformation with high resolution structural studies, as well

as how other biochemical properties, in addition to those modeled here, govern its nucleation

activity. Our single molecule assay, kinetic analyses and computational modeling will be essential

to complement and place atomic structures into a mechanism that explains how MT nucleation γ-

TuRC occurs and how it is regulated.

Whereas spatial regulation of MT nucleation is achieved by localizing γ-TuRC to specific

MTOC as shown previously[18,24,46,59], temporal regulation of MT nucleation had been proposed to

occur through activation factors that modify γ-TuRC's conformation and upregulate its

activity[18,26,27,46,59]. While several putative activation factors do not significantly enhance of γ-

TuRC's nucleation activity as shown here, new factors, that are yet to be identified, may serve this

role to alter γ-TuRC's conformation at MTOCs. Alternatively, we postulate another mechanism

for temporal control governing the availability and localization of αβ-tubulin. In this model, locally

concentrating soluble αβ-tubulin could upregulate the levels of γ-TuRC-mediated MT nucleation,

e.g. as recently shown through accumulation of high concentration of tubulin dimers at the

centrosome by MAPs[58,60] and by co-condensation of tubulin on MTs by TPX2 during branching

MT nucleation[48], and finally via specific recruitment of tubulin on γ-TuRC through the binding of

XMAP215 as shown here[29,50].

Supplementary Materials

Supplementary Materials includes nine figures, nine videos, MATLAB code for simulations and source data.

Acknowledgements

We thank Brian Mahon and Sophie Travis for advice on processing of electron microscopy data, David Agard, Michelle Moritz and Petry lab members for discussions. This work was supported by an American Heart Association predoctoral fellowship 17PRE33660328 and a Princeton University Honorific Fellowship (both to AT), a Howard Hughes Medical Institute Gilliam fellowship and a National Science Foundation graduate research fellowship (both to MJR), NIGMS R00GM112982 (to GB), NIH New Innovator Award 1DP2GM123493, Pew Scholars Program in the Biomedical Sciences 00027340, David and Lucile Packard Foundation 2014-40376 (all to SP), and the Center for the Physics of Biological Function sponsored by the National Science Foundation grant PHY-1734030.

Competing financial interests

The authors declare no competing financial interests.

Abbreviations List

Microtubule (MT)

Microtubule associated protein (MAP)

Gamma-tubulin (γ-tubulin) and Gamma-tubulin ring complex (γ-TuRC)

Gamma-tubulin complex protein (GCP)

444   Microtubule organizing center (MTOC)

445   Protofilament (pf)

446   Electron microscopy (EM)

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Methods

Purification of recombinant proteins

Full-length TPX2 with N-terminal Strep II-6xHis-GFP-TEV site tags was cloned into pST50Tr-STRHISNDHFR (pST50) vector[61] using Gibson Assembly (New England Biolabs). N-terminal 6xHis-tagged, *Xenopus laevis* Stathmin 1A was a gift from Christiane Wiese (University of Madison). N-terminal tagged 6xHis-TEV MCAK plasmid was a gift from Ryoma Ohi[62]. Wild-type XMAP215 with C-terminal GFP-7xHis plasmid was a gift from Simone Reber[63] and was used to clone XMAP215 with C-terminal SNAP-TEV-7xHis-StrepII tags as well as with C-terminal TEV-GFP-7xHis-StrepII tags, first into pST50 vector and further into pFastBac1 vector. TOG5-CT truncation of XMAP215 was produced by cloning amino acids 1091-2065 into pST50 vector with C-terminal GFP-7xHis-Strep tags. Human γ-tubulin TEV-Strep II-6xHis tags was codon-optimized for Sf9 expression, synthesized (Genscript), and further cloned into pFastBac1 vector. 6xHis tagged γ-TuNA (N-terminal aa 56-89 of *Xenopus laevis* CDK5RAP2) was also cloned into pST50 and expressed in *E. coli* Rosetta2 cells. Dual StrepII-6xHis-tagged *Xenopus laevis* NME7 was cloned into pFastBac1 vector, expressed, and purified from Sf9 cells.

TPX2, Stathmin and truncations of XMAP215 (TOG5-CT and TOG1-4) used in this study were expressed in *E. coli* Rosetta2 cells (EMD Millipore) by inducing with 0.5-1 mM IPTG for 12-18 hours at 16°C or 7 hours at 25°C. Wild-type XMAP215, MCAK and γ-tubulin were expressed and purified from Sf9 cells using Bac-to-Bac system (Invitrogen). The cells were lysed (EmulsiFlex, Avestin) and *E. coli* lysate was clarified by centrifugation at 13,000 rpm in Fiberlite F21-8 rotor (ThermoFisher) and Sf9 cell lysate at 50,000 rpm in Ti70 rotor (Beckman Coulter) for 30-45 minutes.

TPX2 was first affinity purified using Ni-NTA beads in binding buffer (50mM Tris-HCl

pH 8.0, 750mM NaCl, 15mM Imidazole, 2.5mM PMSF, 6mM BME) and eluted with 200mM

Imidazole. All protein was pooled and diluted 4-fold to 200mM final NaCl. Nucleotides were

removed with a Heparin column (HiTrap Heparin HP, GE Healthcare) by binding protein in

250mM NaCl and isocratic elution in 750mM NaCl, all solutions prepared in Heparin buffer

(50mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0, 2.5mM PMSF, 6mM BME). Peak fractions were pooled and loaded on

to Superdex 200 pg 16/600, and gel filtration was performed in CSF-XB buffer.

XMAP215-GFP-7xHis was purified using His-affinity (His-Trap, GE Healthcare) by

binding in buffer (50mM $NaPO_4$, 500mM NaCl, 20mM Imidazole, pH 8.0) and eluting in 500mM

Imidazole. Peak fractions were pooled and diluted 5-fold with 50mM Na-MES pH 6.6, bound to a

cation-exchange column (Mono S 10/100 GL, GE Healthcare) with 50mM MES, 50mM NaCl, pH

6.6 and eluted with a salt-gradient up to 1M NaCl. Peak fractions were pooled and dialyzed into

CSF-XB buffer. XMAP215-SNAP-TEV-7xHis-StrepII or XMAP215-TEV-GFP-7xHis-StrepII

was first affinity purified with StrepTrap HP (GE Healthcare) with binding buffer (50mM $NaPO_4$,

270mM NaCl, 2mM $MgCl_2$, 2.5mM PMSF, 6mM BME, pH 7.2), eluted with 2.5mM D-

desthiobiotin. Peak fractions were pooled, concentrated and further purification via gel filtration

(Superdex 200 10/300 GL) in CSF-XB buffer containing 150mM KCl. For fluorescent labelling

of SNAP-tag in XMAP215-SNAP-TEV-7xHis-StrepII, StrepTrap elution was cation-exchanged

(Mono S 10/100 GL), peak fractions pooled and reacted with 2-molar excess SNAP-substrate

Alexa-488 dye (S9129, NEB) overnight at 4°C, followed by purification via gel filtration

(Superdex 200 10/300 GL) in CSF-XB buffer. Approximately 70% labeling efficiency of the

SNAP-tag was achieved.

γ-tubulin was purified by binding to HisTrap HP (GE Healthcare) in binding buffer (50

mM KPO_4 pH 8.0, 500 mM KCl, 1 mM $MgCl_2$, 10% glycerol, 5mM Imidazole, 0.25 μM GTP, 5

mM BME, 2.5mM PMSF), washing first with 50 mM KPO_4 pH 8.0, 300 mM KCl, 1 mM $MgCl_2$,

10% glycerol, 25 mM imidazole, 0.25 μM GTP, 5 mM BME), and then with 50 mM K-MES pH

6.6, 500 mM KCl, 5mM $MgCl_2$, 10% glycerol, 25 mM imidazole, 0.25 μM GTP, 5 mM BME) and

eluted in 50 mM K-MES pH 6.6, 500 mM KCl, 5mM $MgCl_2$, 10% glycerol, 250 mM imidazole,

0.25 μM GTP, 5 mM BME. Peak fractions were further purified with gel filtration (Superdex 200

10/300 GL) in gel filtration buffer (50 mM K-MES pH 6.6, 500 mM KCl, 5 mM $MgCl_2$, 1 mM K-

EGTA, 1 μM GTP, 1 mM DTT). For covalent labelling of γ-tubulin with Alexa-568 or Alexa-488

dye, peak gel filtration fractions were pooled and dialyzed into labelling buffer (50mM KPO_4 pH

8.0, 500mM KCl, 1mM MgCl2, 2% glycerol, 25μM GDP, 5mM BME), reacted with 5 to 20-fold

excess of Alexa-568 or Alexa-488 NHS ester (catalog # A20003, A20000, GE Healthcare) for 1

hour at 4°C, and unreacted dye was separated with size exclusion Superdex 200 10/300 GL in gel

filtration buffer as above. 7% labelling of γ-tubulin was achieved.

γ-TuNA motif from CDK5RAP2 was purified by binding to Ni-NTA resin in binding

buffer buffer (50mM Tris-HCl pH 8, 500mM NaCl, 20mM Imidazole), eluted with 250 mM

Imidazole and further purified by gel filtration into storage buffer (50mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5,

200mM NaCl). NME7 was purified similar to γ-TuNA by first Ni-NTA affinity followed by size

exclusion, as described for γ-TuNA, except with salt concentration of 150mM NaCl and additional

0.05% Tween-20, and further dialyzed into BRB80 for storage.

MCAK was first affinity purified by binding to His-Trap HP (GE Healthcare) in binding

buffer (50mM NaPO4, 500mM NaCl, 6mM BME, 0.1mM MgATP, 10mM Imidazole, 1mM

MgCl2, 2.5mM PMSF, 6mM BME, pH to 7.5), eluting with 300mM Imidazole, followed by gel-

filtration (Superdex 200 10/300 GL, GE Healthcare) in storage buffer (10 mM K-HEPES pH 7.7,

300 mM KCl, 6mM BME, 0.1 mM MgATP, 1mM $MgCl_2$, 10% w/v sucrose).

Stathmin was purified using His-affinity (His-Trap HP, GE Healthcare) by first binding in

binding buffer (20mM $NaPO_4$ pH 8.0, 500mM NaCl, 30mM Imidazole, 2.5mM PMSF, 6mM

BME) and eluting with 300mM Imidazole, followed by gel filtration (HiLoad 16/600 Superdex,

GE Healthcare) into CSF-XB buffer (100mM KCl, 10mM K-HEPES, 5mM K-EGTA, 1mM

$MgCl_2$, 0.1mM $CaCl_2$, pH 7.7 with 10% w/v sucrose).

All recombinant proteins were flash-frozen and stored at -80°C, and their concentration

was determined by analyzing a Coomassie-stained SDS-PAGE against known concentration of

BSA (A7906, Sigma).

Bovine brain tubulin was labelled with biotin-, Cy5-, Alexa-488 or Alexa-568 NHS esters

(GE Healthcare) as described previously[49].

Purification, biotinylated and fluorescent labeling of γ-TuRC

Endogenous γ-TuRC was purified from *Xenopus* egg extracts and labeled with the following steps

at 4°C. 7-8 ml of meiotic extract from *Xenopus* laevis eggs, prepared as described previously[64,65],

was first diluted 5-fold with CSF-XBg buffer (10mM K-HEPES, 100mM KCl, 1mM $MgCl_2$, 5mM

K-EGTA, 10% w/v sucrose, 1mM DTT, 1mM GTP, 10 μg/ml LPC protease inhibitors, pH 7.7),

centrifuged to remove large aggregates at 3500 rpm (Thermo Sorvall Legend XTR) for 10 minutes,

and the supernatant filtered sequentially with 1.2 μm and 0.8 μm Cellulose Acetate filters

(Whatman) followed by 0.22 μm PES filter (ThermoFisher). γ-TuRC was precipitated by

incubating with 6.5% w/v PEG-8000k (Sigma) for 30 minutes and centrifuged at 17,000 rpm (SS-

34 rotor, ThermoScientific) for 20 minutes. γ-TuRC-rich pellet was resuspended in CSF-XB buffer

with 0.05% v/v NP-40 using a mortar & pestle homogenizer, PEG was removed via centrifugation

at 136,000 xg for 7 minutes in TLA100.3 (Beckman Ultracentrifuge), and supernatant was pre-

cleared by incubating with Protein A Sepharose beads (GE LifeSciences #17127901) for 20

minutes. Beads were removed, γ-TuRC was incubated with 4-5 mg of a polyclonal antibody

custom-made against C-terminal residues 413-451 of *X. laevis* γ-tubulin (Genscript) for 2 hours

on gentle rotisserie, and further incubated with 1ml washed Protein A Sepharose bead slurry for 2

hours. γ-TuRC-bound beads were washed sequentially with 30 ml of CSF-XBg buffer, 30 ml of

CSF-XBg buffer with 250 mM KCl (high salt wash), 10 ml CSF-XBg buffer with 5mM ATP

(removes heat-shock proteins), and finally 10 ml CSF-XBg buffer before labeling. For

biotinylation of γ-TuRC, beads were incubated with 25 μM NHS-PEG4-biotin (A39259,

ThermoFisher) in CSF-XBg buffer for 1 hour at 4°C, and unbound biotin was removed by washing

with 30 ml CSF-XBg buffer prior to elution step. For combined fluorescent and biotin labeling of

γ-TuRC, the wash step after ATP-wash consisted of 10 ml of labelling buffer (10mM K-HEPES,

100mM KCl, 1mM $MgCl_2$, 5mM K-EGTA, 10% w/v sucrose, 0.5mM TCEP, 1mM GTP, 10 μg/ml

LPC, pH 7.1) and fluorescent labelling was performed by incubating the beads with 1 μM Alexa-

568 C_5 Maleimide (A20341, ThermoFisher). Unreacted dye was removed with 10 ml CSF-XBg

buffer, beads were incubated with 25 μM NHS-PEG4-biotin (A39259, ThermoFisher) in CSF-

XBg buffer for 1 hour at 4°C, and unreacted biotin removed with 30 ml CSF-XBg buffer. Labeled

γ-TuRC was eluted by incubating 2-3ml of γ-tubulin peptide (residues 413-451) at 0.4-0.5mg/ml

in CSF-XBg buffer with beads overnight. After 10-12 hours, γ-TuRC was collected by adding 1-

2ml CSF-XBg buffer to the column, concentrated to 200 μl in 30k NMWL Amicon concentrator

(EMD Millipore) and layered onto a continuous 10-50 w/w % sucrose gradient prepared in a 2.2

ml ultra-clear tube (11x34 mm, Beckman Coulter) using a two-step program in Gradient Master

108 machine. Sucrose gradient fractionation of γ-TuRC was performed by centrifugation at

200,000xg in TLS55 rotor (Beckman Coulter) for 3 hours. The gradient was fractionated from the

top in 11-12 fractions using wide-bore pipette tips and peak 2-3 fractions were identified by

immunoblotting against γ-tubulin with GTU-88 antibody (Sigma). γ-TuRC was concentrated to 80

μl in 30k NMWL Amicon concentrator (EMD Millipore) and fresh purification was used

immediately for single molecule assays. Cryo-preservation of γ-TuRC molecules resulted in loss

of ring assembly and activity.

Assessment of γ-TuRC with protein gel, immunoblot and negative stain electron microscopy

To assess the purity of γ-TuRC, 3-5 μl of purified γ-TuRC was visualized on an SDS-PAGE with

SYPRO Ruby stain (ThermoFisher) following the manufacturer's protocol. Biotinylated subunits

of γ-TuRC were assessed by immunoblotting with Streptavidin-conjugated alkaline phosphatase

(S921, ThermoFisher). For further conjugation of Alexa-568 dye to γ-TuRC, fluorescently labelled

subunits were assessed by visualizing an SDS-PAGE gel with Typhoon FLA 9500 (GE

Healthcare) with LPG filter and 100 μm pixel size. γ-TuRC purification was also assessed by

visualizing using electron microscopy. 4 μl of peak sucrose gradient fraction of γ-TuRC was

pipetted onto CF400-Cu grids (Electron Microscopy Sciences), incubated at room temperature for

60 seconds and then wicked away. 2% uranyl acetate was applied to the grids for 30 seconds,

wicked away, and the grids were air-dried for 10 minutes. The grids were imaged using Phillips

CM100 TEM microscope at 64000x magnification.

Preparation of functionalized coverslips

22x22 mm, high precision coverslips (170±5 μm, Carl Zeiss, catalog #474030-9020-000) were

functionalized for single molecule assays based on a recent protocol[45,66] with specific

modifications. Briefly, coverslips were labelled on the surface to be functionalized by scratching

"C" on right, bottom corner, placed in Teflon racks, sonicated with 3N NaOH for 30 minutes,

rinsed with water and sonicated in piranha solution (2 parts of 30 w/w % hydrogen peroxide and

3 parts sulfuric acid) for 45 minutes. Coverslips were rinsed thrice in water, and all water was

removed by spin drying completely in a custom-made spin coater. Pairs of coverslips were made

to sandwich 3-glycidyloxypropyl trimethoxysilane (440167, Sigma) on the marked sides, placed

in glass petri dishes, and covalent reaction was performed in a lab oven at 75°C for 30 minutes.

Coverslips were incubated for 15 minutes at room temperature, the sandwiches were separated,

incubated in acetone for 15 minutes, then transferred to fresh acetone and quickly dried under

nitrogen stream. Coverslip sandwiches were prepared with a small pile of well mixed HO-PEG-

NH_2 and 10% biotin-CONH-PEG-NH_2 (Rapp Polymere) in glass petri dishes, warmed to 75°C in

the lab oven until PEG melts, air bubbles were pressed out and PEG coupling was performed at

75°C overnight. The following day, individual coverslips were separated from sandwiches,

sonicated in MilliQ water for 30 minutes, washed further with water until no foaming is visible,

dried with a spin dryer, and stored at 4°C. Functionalized coverslips were used within 1 month of

preparation.

Imaging chambers were prepared by first assembling a channel on glass slide with double

sided tape strips (Tesa) 5 mm apart, coating the channel with 2mg/ml PLL(20)-g[3.5]- PEG(2)

(SuSOS) in dH_2O, incubating for 20 minutes, rinsing out the unbound PEG molecules with dH_2O

and drying the glass slide under the nitrogen stream. A piece of functionalized coverslip was cut

with the diamond pen and assembled functionalized face down on imaging chamber. The prepared

chambers were stored at 4°C and used within a day of assembly.

Microtubule nucleation assay with purified γ-TuRC

The imaging channel was prepared as follows. First, 5% w/v Pluronic F-127 in dH_2O was

introduced in the chamber (1 vol = 50 μl) and incubated for 10 minutes at room temperature. The

chamber was washed with 2 vols of assay buffer (80mM K-PIPES, 1mM $MgCl_2$, 1mM EGTA,

30mM KCl, 0.075% w/v methylcellulose 4000 cp, 1% w/v D-(+)-glucose, 0.02% w/v Brij-35,

5mM BME, 1mM GTP) with 0.05 mg/ml κ-casien (casein buffer), followed by 1 vol of 0.5 mg/ml

NeutrAvidin (A2666, ThermoFisher) in casein buffer, incubated on a cold block for 3 minutes,

and washed with 2 vols of BRB80 (80mM K-PIPES, 1mM $MgCl_2$, 1mM EGTA pH 6.8). 5-fold

dilution of γ-TuRC in BRB80 was introduced in the flow chamber and incubated for 10 minutes.

Unattached γ-TuRC molecules were washed with 1 vol of BRB80.

During the incubations, nucleation mix was prepared containing desired concentration of

αβ-tubulin (3.5-21 μM) purified from bovine brain with 5% Cy5-labeled tubulin along with

1mg/ml BSA (A7906, Sigma) in assay buffer, centrifuged for 12 minutes in TLA100 (Beckman

Coulter) to remove aggregates, a final 0.68 mg/ml glucose oxidase (SERVA, catalog # SE22778),

0.16 mg/ml catalase (Sigma, catalog # SRE0041) was added, and reaction mixture was introduced

into the flow chamber containing γ-TuRC.

Total internal reflection fluorescence (TIRF) microscopy and analysis of microtubule

nucleation from γ-TuRC

Nucleation of MTs was visualized with inverted Nikon TiE TIRF microscope using a 100X, 1.49

NA TIRF objective. An objective heater collar was attached (Bioptechs, model 150819-13) and

the temperature set-point of 33.5°C was used for experiments. Time-lapse videos were recorded

for 10 minutes at 0.5-1 frame per second using Andor iXon DU-897 camera with EM gain of 300

and exposure time of 50-200 ms each frame. Reference time-point zero (0 seconds) refers to when

the reaction was incubated at 33.5°C on the microscope, and for most reactions, imaging was

started within 30 seconds.

Growth speed of the plus-ends of MTs nucleated by γ-TuRC was measured by generating

kymographs in ImageJ. For few specific datasets with notable in-plane drift, an ImageJ plugin,

StackReg[67], was to correct a minor translational drift before proceeding with the analysis. Region

of interest (ROI) for individual MTs were selected and resliced to generate a length-time plot and

a line was fit to the growing MT plus-end. The slope of this line represents growth speed. The

kinetics of MT nucleation from γ-TuRC was measured as follows. A kymograph was generated

for every MT nucleated in the field of view. For most nucleation events, the time of nucleation of

the MT was obtained from observing the kymograph and manually recording the initiation time

point (see Fig. 1C for examples). For MTs where nucleation occurred before the timelapse movie

began or where the initiation was not clearly observed in the kymograph, the shortest length of the

MT that was clearly visible in the timelapse was measured and measured average growth speed of

MTs was used to estimate the time of nucleation. We verified that this procedure accurately

estimates the nucleation time for test case MTs where the nucleation event was visible. The

measurement of number of MTs ($N(t)$) nucleated versus time was generated from a manual log

containing the nucleation time for all MTs observed in the field of view. To represent the

theoretical field-to-field heterogeneity in the number of MTs nucleated, we assumed that binding

of γ-TuRC and subsequent nucleation follows a Poisson distribution with mean n MTs and

standard deviation $\sqrt{n}$ MTs. 95% confidence interval in the nucleation measurements, $n \pm 2\sqrt{n}$ is

displayed on each nucleation time course.

To calculate the percentage of γ-TuRCs that nucleate a MT, we visualized MT nucleation

from Alexa-568 labelled γ-TuRC in the presence of 21μM tubulin and 100nM XMAP215, or with

10.5μM tubulin. We counted the number of labelled γ-TuRC molecules attached in the field of

view and counted the number of MTs nucleated specifically from these molecules but excluded

spontaneous MT nucleation. For the reaction with 21μM tubulin and 100nM XMAP215, we

directly measured that 15% of γ-TuRC molecules nucleated a MT. For the reaction with 10.5μM

tubulin, a similar calculation was performed and using measured curves (Fig. 2C), we estimated

the percentage of γ-TuRC that will nucleate with 21μM tubulin as 11%.

Power-law analysis of critical nucleus size on γ-TuRC

We consider the following simplified model to determine the number of αβ-tubulin dimers in the

rate-limiting, transition state on γ-TuRC i.e. the critical nucleus. We consider a total number of γ-

TuRC molecules N_0 available to nucleate MTs at a specific αβ-tubulin concentration C. The total

number of MTs nucleated $N(t)$ from a total N_0 γ-TuRCs is a function of time t. If n tubulin

dimers assemble cooperatively on γ-TuRC for a successful MT nucleation, the rate of MT

nucleation from γ-TuRC molecules available to nucleated at time t, $N_0 - N(t)$ reads,

$$\frac{dN(t)}{dt} = k_{nucleate}(N_0 - N(t))C^n \tag{1}$$

Here we assume that tubulin does not get significantly depleted over time in the course of our

reactions as shown by previous calculations[68]. At the start of the reaction $t = 0$, no MTs have

nucleated $N(t = 0) = 0$, therefore at early times we assume $N_0 - N(t) \approx N_0$ to simplify the

calculation of the critical MT nucleus,

838
$$\left.\frac{dN}{dt}\right|_{t\to 0} = k_{nucleate} N_0 C^n \tag{2}$$

839   Converting into log scale,

840
$$ln\left(\left.\frac{dN}{dt}\right|_{t\to 0}\right) = n\, ln(C) + a \tag{3}$$

To obtain the number of αβ-tubulin dimers in the critical nucleus on γ-TuRC, a straight line was

fit to the initial, linear region of each nucleation curve $N(t)$ versus t curve for every tubulin

concentration C and the rate of nucleation $\left.\frac{dN}{dt}\right|_{t\to 0}$ was obtained from slope of this fit. A straight

line was then fit to $ln\left(\left.\frac{dN}{dt}\right|_{t\to 0}\right)$ versus $ln(C)$ for all concentrations, the slope of which provides

the size of critical nucleus n. Finally, the measured rate of nucleation depends on the total number

of γ-TuRC molecules available. As the total number of γ-TuRC molecules obtained from different

days purifications changes, the rate of nucleation from γ-TuRCs at 10.5μM tubulin was set to 1

(normalization factor) to allow pooling of all datasets for γ-TuRC-mediated nucleation.

Spontaneous microtubule nucleation and data analysis

Spontaneous MT assembly was visualized similar to γ-TuRC-mediated nucleation with the

following changes. The Pluronic, casein and NeutrAvidin incubations were performed identical to

γ-TuRC nucleation assay but instead of attaching γ-TuRCs, sucrose-based buffer (of the same

composition as used for γ-TuRC elution) was diluted 5-fold with BRB80, introduced in the flow

chamber and incubated for 10 minutes. Washes were performed with 1 vol of BRB80, nucleation

mix was added, and imaging was performed as described above. MTs nucleate spontaneously in

solution fall down on the coverslip due to depletion forces during the 10 minutes of visualizing the

reaction. The number of MTs nucleated in the field of view were counted manually and plotted in

Fig. 3B. 95% confidence interval is displayed assuming a Poisson distribution for theoretical field-

to-field heterogeneity as described above.

In the absence of any attached nucleation site, the spontaneously nucleated MTs are usually

not visualized from the time of their nucleation and the analysis used for γ-TuRC mediated

nucleation was adapted. Integrating the equation (2) above

864
$$N(t) = k_{nucleate}N_0 C^n t \tag{4}$$

865   Converting into log scale at time $t = \tau$,

866
$$ln(N(t = \tau)) = n\, ln(C) + b \tag{5}$$

To obtain the number of αβ-tubulin dimers in the critical nucleus in spontaneous assembly, the

number of MTs at a specified time t =7.5 min was measured, a straight line was then fit to

$ln(N(t = \tau))$ versus $ln(C)$ for all concentrations, the slope of which provides the size of critical

nucleus n. All datasets were pooled and reported.

Preparation, microtubule assembly from blunt microtubule seeds and data analysis

Blunt MTs were prepared with GMPCPP nucleotide in two polymerization cycles as described

recently[25]. Briefly, a 50 μl reaction mixture was prepared with 20 μM bovine brain tubulin with

5% Alexa-568 labeled tubulin and 5% biotin-labeled tubulin, 1mM GMPCPP (Jena Bioscience)

in BRB80 buffer, incubated on ice for 5 minutes, then incubated on 37°C for 30 minutes to

polymerize MTs, and MTs were pelleted by centrifugation at 126,000 xg for 8 minutes at 30°C in

TLA100 (Beckman Coulter). Supernatant was discarded, MTs were resuspended in 80% original

volume of BRB80, incubated on ice for 20 minutes to depolymerize MTs, fresh GMPCPP was

added to final 1mM, incubated on ice for 5 minutes, a second cycle of polymerization was

performed by incubating the mixture at 37°C for 30 minutes, and MTs were pelleted again by

centrifugation. Supernatant was discarded and MTs were resuspended in 200μl warm BRB80,

flash frozen in liquid nitrogen in 5μl aliquots, stored at -80°C and found to be stable for months.

To verify that these MT seeds have blunt ends, frozen aliquots were quickly thawed at 37°C,

diluted 20-fold with warm BRB80, and incubated at room temperature for 30 minutes to ensure

blunt ends as described previously[25]. MTs were pipetted onto CF400-Cu grids (Electron

Microscopy Sciences), incubated at room temperature for 60 seconds and then wicked away. 2%

uranyl acetate was applied to the grids for 30 seconds, wicked away, and the grids were air-dried

for 10 minutes. The grids were imaged using Phillips CM100 TEM microscope at 130000 x

magnification and most MT ends were found to be blunt.

To assay MT assembly from blunt MT seeds, MT assembly experiments similar to γ-TuRC

nucleation assays were performed with the following variation. A lower concentration 0.05 mg/ml

NeutrAvidin (A2666, ThermoFisher) was attached, and washes were performed with warm

BRB80 prior to attaching MTs. One aliquot of MT seeds was thawed quickly, diluted to 100-fold

with warm BRB80, incubated in the chamber for 5 minutes, unattached seeds were washed with 1

vol of warm BRB80, and the slide was incubated at room temperature for 30 minutes to ensure

blunt MT ends. Wide bore pipette tips were used for handling MT seeds to minimize the shear

forces that may result in breakage of MTs. Nucleation mix was prepared as described above and a

low αβ-tubulin concentration (1.4-8.7 μM) was used. MT assembly from blunt seeds was observed

immediately after incubating the slide on the objective heater. Imaging and analysis were

performed as described above for to γ-TuRC nucleation assays. The probability curves $p(t)$ for

MT assembly were obtained by normalizing for the total number of seeds observed in the field of

view $N(t)/N_0$, which allow for direct comparison across datasets. 95% confidence interval

represents the theoretical variation in the number of MTs assembled from seeds across fields of

view as described above. Rate of nucleation $\frac{dp}{dt}\big|_{t\to 0}$ was obtained as the slope of a straight line fit

to the initial region of $p(t)$ versus t curve for every tubulin concentration C. Power-law analysis

was performed similar to γ-TuRC nucleation assays described above. However, as assembly from

seeds occur near minimal tubulin concentration needed for polymerization of the plus end C_*, the

governing equation reads,

$$\frac{dp(t)}{dt} = k_{nucleate}(1 - p(t))C^{n-1}(C - C_*) \tag{6}$$

At the start of the reaction $t = 0$, no MTs have nucleated $p(t = 0) = 0$, therefore at early times

we assume $1 - p(t) \approx 1$ to simplify the calculation of the critical MT nucleus. Converting

equation (6) in log scale with these simplifications,

$$ln\left(\frac{dp}{dt}\big|_{t\to 0}\right) = (n - 1)ln(C) + ln(C - C_*) + a \tag{7}$$

Critical tubulin concentration for polymerization C_* was obtained from the x-intercept of the

growth speed curve ($C_* = 1.4\mu M$) as described previously. Finally, observing the total number of

MT seeds for assembly allows for direct pooling of all datasets for MT assembly from seeds. From

fitting a straight line between $ln\left(\frac{dp}{dt}\big|_{t\to 0}\right)$ versus $ln(C - C_*)$ for all concentrations, we found the

slope $n \approx 1$, which satisfies the above equation and provides the size of critical nucleus for MT

assembly from seeds $n \approx 1$.

Size exclusion chromatography of γ-tubulin and αβ-tubulin

Size exclusion chromatography of γ-tubulin and αβ-tubulin was performed as follows at 4°C.

Purified, human γ-tubulin was diluted to 300nM in γ-TB buffer (defined 50mM K-MES pH6.6,

5mM MgCl2, 1mM EGTA, 10mM thioglycerol, 10μM GDP) with additional 250mM KCl, and

αβ-tubulin individually diluted to 20μM or 70μM with BRB80 buffer. Protein aggregates were

pelleted by ultracentrifugation of the proteins individually at 80,000 rpm in TLA 100 (Beckman

Coulter) for 15 minutes. γ-tubulin and αβ-tubulin were mixed in 1:1 volume ratio to achieve final

concentrations 150nM γ-tubulin to 10μM or 35μM αβ-tubulin and incubated on ice for 10 minutes.

500μl of the mixture was loaded onto Superdex 200 Increase 10/300 column (GE Healthcare). The

column was equilibrated with γ-TB buffer containing 90 mM KCl and chromatography was

performed in this buffer. For control chromatography runs, equal volume of corresponding buffer

was used. Absorbance at 214 nm was recorded. 0.3ml fractions were collected and alternate

fractions eluted between 8.5ml and 16.6ml were analyzed via immunoblot against γ-tubulin, αβ-

tubulin and StrepII tag on γ-tubulin. Secondary antibody conjugated to 800nm IRDye (LI-COR)

was used and imaged with Odyssey CLx imaging station (LI-COR). High molecular weight gel

filtration standards (Thyroglobulin, Aldolase and Ovalbumin) were purchased from GE Healthcare

(Catalog #28403842) and used to estimate the Stokes' radii of eluted proteins in the same buffer

as used for corresponding SEC run[69].

Measurement of affinity between γ-tubulin and αβ-tubulin with single molecule microscopy

γ-TuRC nucleation assay was adapted as follows to measure the interaction affinity between γ-

tubulin and αβ-tubulin. The imaging channel was prepared by sequentially with 5% w/v Pluronic

F-127 incubation, casein buffer washes, 0.05 mg/ml NeutrAvidin incubation in casein buffer,

BRB80 washes as described above. 100-200nM of biotinylated αβ-tubulin or BRB80 buffer was

introduced in the flow chamber and incubated for 5 minutes on a cold block, and unbound αβ-

tubulin was washed with 50μl of BRB80. During the incubations, binding mix was prepared with

100nM of Alexa-568 or Alexa-488 labelled αβ-tubulin (24-50% labelling percentage) or with

100nM of labelled γ-tubulin with identical fluorophore (7% labelling percentage) in 1x assay

buffer, ultracentrifuged for 12 minutes in TLA100, oxygen scavengers were added, and reaction

mixture was introduced into the flow chamber.

Single molecule binding of fluorescent γ-tubulin or αβ-tubulin with biotinylated αβ-tubulin

was visualized with TIRF microscopy using the setup described above at 33.5°C. Images were

collected at 2-5 fps with EMCCD gain of 300 and exposure time of 200 ms each frame, and data

acquisition was started within 60-90 seconds after flowing fluorescent γ-tubulin or αβ-tubulin.

Minimal photobleaching was observed for the first 15 seconds of time series acquired, which was

used to extract the number by molecules bound by analyzing with the single molecule analysis

software ThunderSTORM[70]. Specifically, images were filtered with wavelet B-spline filter (scale

2-3 and order 3), molecules localized with 8-connected local maximum approach, threshold

selected as the standard deviation of the first wavelet level, and suggested settings for sub-pixel

localization by fitting an integrated Gaussian PSF model with maximum likelihood estimation was

performed. The number of single molecules identified for each frame were recorded. The results

from ThunderSTORM analysis were verified against manually identified molecules with a sample

dataset. To obtain how many molecules bind to biotin-αβ-tubulin for every frame, the number of

molecules of γ-tubulin or αβ-tubulin bound inspecifically to the coverslip were independently

subtracted from the number of molecules bound to biotin-αβ-tubulin, and this value was divided

by the known fluorescent labelling percentage. The calculated number of γ-tubulin or αβ-tubulin

bound were averaged for the first 14 seconds (28 frames) for each dataset, and their mean and

standard deviation was reported.

Interaction assays between αβ-tubulin and γ-tubulin were confirmed with biolayer

interferometry using Octet RED96e (ForteBio) instrument in an 8-channel plate format. The plate

temperature was held at 33°C and the protein samples were shaken at 400 rpm during the

experiment. First, Streptavidin coated biosensors (ForteBio) were rinsed in interaction buffer

(50mM K-MES pH 6.6, 100mM KCl, 5mM $MgCl_2$, 1mM EGTA, 0.05% Tween20, 1mM GTP).

100-400 nM biotin-labeled αβ-tubulin, or blank buffer, was bound to Streptavidin sensor until

loaded protein results in a wavelength shift ($\Delta\lambda$) of 3 nm. Unbound protein was removed by rinsing

the sensor in interaction buffer, and interaction with αβ-tubulin was measured by incubating the

sensor containing biotinylated αβ-tubulin with 0-35 μM unlabeled αβ-tubulin or 0-1 μM unlabeled

γ-tubulin in interaction buffer for 5 minutes. $\Delta\lambda$ (nm) was recorded as a measure of the amount of

unlabeled αβ-tubulin that binds to the sensor.

Nucleation of microtubules from purified γ-tubulin

MT assembly experiments from purified γ-tubulin was performed similar to γ-TuRC nucleation

assays described above with following variation. No avidin was attached to the coverslips, and

varying concentration of γ-tubulin was prepared by diluting purified γ-tubulin in a high salt buffer

(50mM K-MES pH 6.6, 500mM KCl, 5mM $MgCl_2$, 1mM EGTA), centrifuging to remove

aggregates separately for 12 minutes in TLA100 before adding to the nucleation mix containing

15 μM αβ-tubulin (5% Cy5-labeled) with BSA, glucose oxidase and catalase as described above

to a final salt concentration of 44mM KCl. The reaction mixture was introduced into the flow

chamber and imaged via TIRF microscopy. A large number of MTs get nucleated immediately in

the presence of 250 nM-1000 nM γ-tubulin.

Negative stain electron microscopy of γ-tubulin filaments

Purified γ-tubulin was observed to form higher order oligomers previously using analytical gel

filtration[29]. γ-tubulin filaments were prepared by diluting pure γ-tubulin to 1μM to the buffer

50mM K-MES pH 6.6, 5mM MgCl$_2$, 1mM EGTA, 100mM KCl. 5 μl of γ-tubulin mixture was

pipetted onto EM grids (Electron Microscopy Sciences, Catalog number: CF400-Cu), which were

glow discharged for 25 seconds. 5 μl sample was incubated on the grid at room temperature for 60

seconds and wicked away with filter paper (cat #). Grids were washed with 5 μl of dH$_2$O 3 times,

stained three times with 0.75% Uranyl formate, where the first two incubations were wicked away

immediately while the last was incubated for 30 seconds. The grids were air-dried for 10 minutes.

Data were collected on a Talos L120C TEM (FEI) equipped with a BM Ceta CCD camera, at a

nominal magnification of 74,000x corresponding to a pixel size of 2.03 Å/pixel on the specimen

with 1 second integration time, and a defocus range of 1-2 μm underfocus. Micrographs were

acquired both in-plane with +0 degree tilt.

Micrographs were converted to mrc file format with IMOD package and imported into

RELION-3.0.6[71] where the data analysis was performed. Contrast transfer function (CTF)

estimation of 370 micrographs performed using Gctf[72]. Segments along the length of thin filaments

were picked manually. Filaments were boxed into helical segments with 50Å rise, and subjected

to two rounds of 2D classification and particle selection. 1001 particles were selected and were

used to generate an ab-initio 3D model. One round of refinement using 3D auto-refine was

performed with all particles, followed by one round of 3D classification. 659 particles from the

most populated 3D class were selected and another round of refinement was performed to generate

a final map with the solvent mask. Analysis was performed in UCSF Chimera[73]. Longitudinal

arrangement of αβ-tubulins (pink filament, Fig. 4-supplement 2E) was generated by isolating one

protofilament from PDB: 6DPU[38] and elongating the protofilament with the super-position

function in Coot. Lateral arrangement of γ-tubulin array (blue filament, Fig. 4-supplement 2E) was

generated from the crystal contacts observed in the published P21 crystal array (PDB: 1Z5W[40]),

as described previously[39]. An alternate γ-tubulin arrangement was also generated by isolating the

other possible filament from this P21 symmetry group, where neighboring γ-tubulins neither

arrange linearly nor show lateral contacts (green filament, Fig. 4-supplement 2E). Simultaneous

docking of 4 copies each of longitudinal αβ-tubulin array, lateral γ-tubulin array, or alternate

arrangement of γ-tubulin array, was performed by fitting each copy at 15Å resolution in UCSF

Chimera using the fitmap function. Lateral γ-tubulin arrays, but not other filament arrangements,

display good fit where the γ-tubulin spacing closely matches that of the reconstructed filaments.

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Monte Carlo simulations of microtubule nucleation by γ-TuRC

<u>Simulation procedure</u>

Kinetic Monte Carlo simulations for MT nucleation and assembly by γ-TuRC were coded and run

in MATLAB and were based on a previous stochastic model for the plus-end dynamics of a MT[41].

A type-B MT lattice geometry with 13-protofilaments and a pitch of 3 tubulins at the seam was

assumed, and a similar γ-TuRC geometry was encoded. On the blunt plus-end geometry, αβ-

tubulin dimers in the MT lattice may have no neighbors, one or half a neighbor at the seam. Once

the MT growth occurs into a tapered one, αβ-tubulin dimers can also have one or two neighbors.

New αβ-tubulin dimers arrive with a constant on rate, k_{on} (M⁻¹s⁻¹) on each protofilament.

This on rate is equal for each protofilament on the plus-end or on γ-TuRC and remains constant

during the simulation. An input concentration of αβ-tubulin dimers was assumed to be constant

and not be depleted as shown by previous calculations[68]. Therefore, the net on-rate at each time

step is, $k_{on}C$ (s^{-1}), where C is the concentration of αβ-tubulin dimers. The interactions between

αβ-tubulins was assumed to occur with longitudinal and lateral bond energies, $\Delta G_{Long,\alpha\beta-\alpha\beta}$ and

$\Delta G_{Lat,\alpha\beta-\alpha\beta}$, respectively. All αβ-tubulin dimers recruited to the MT lattice or γ-TuRC have a

longitudinal bond, and the lateral bond energy depends on the arrangement of neighboring αβ-

tubulin dimers. The longitudinal bond energy between γ-/αβ-tubulin on γ-TuRC is $\Delta G_{Long,\gamma-\alpha\beta}$.

As a result, the dissociation rate (off-rate) of individual tubulin dimers from the lattice differs and

is a function of total bond energy ΔG_{tot}. ΔG_{tot} is a sum of the longitudinal bond energy,

$\Delta G_{Long,\alpha\beta-\alpha\beta}$ or $\Delta G_{Long,\gamma-\alpha\beta}$, plus the total lateral bond energy from all the neighbors,

$m \times \Delta G_{Lat,\alpha\beta-\alpha\beta}$. Based on previous works, we also posit that when a tubulin dimer dissociates,

all dimers above it in the protofilament dissociate as well. The off-rate of each dimer was then

calculated from the following equation as derived previously[41],

$$lnK = ln\left(\frac{k_{on}}{k_{off}\,(s^{-1})}\right) = -\frac{\Delta G_{tot}}{k_B T} \qquad (8)$$

An open conformation of native γ-TuRC was assumed as observed in recent cryo-EM

structures[13–15]. The αβ-tubulins assembled on neighboring sites do not form lateral interactions in

the open conformation. A possible transition to a closed γ-TuRC state was allowed with a

thermodynamic penalty of $\Delta G_{\gamma TuRC-conf}$. However, if n lateral bonds form upon this transition

from αβ-tubulins assembled on neighboring sites, that net energy for an open-to-closed transition

is $\Delta G_{close} = \Delta G_{\gamma TuRC-conf} - n\Delta G_{Lat,\alpha\beta-\alpha\beta}$. At each time step in the simulation, the rate of this

transition is calculated as, $k_{\gamma TuRC-conf} \times exp\left(\frac{-\Delta G_{close}}{k_B T}\right)$, where $k_{\gamma TuRC-conf}\,(s^{-1})$ is the pre-

factor of the Arrhenius equation. Hydrolysis of incorporated tubulin dimers was ignored because

few catastrophe events were observed in our experiments.

To execute the stochastic simulations, we formulate a list of possible events at every time

step, including association of a αβ-tubulin dimer, dissociation of a αβ-tubulin dimer, or transition

of γ-TuRC to closed state. The forward rate of each event is calculated as described above. A

uniform random number (R_i) from 0 to 1 is generated for each possible event in the list and a

single realization of the exponentially distributed time is obtained for each event,

1065
$$t_i = \frac{-\ln{(R_i)}}{k_i\,(s^{-1})} \tag{9}$$

1066   The event with the shortest execution time is implemented and time elapsed during the simulation

1067   is advanced by t_i seconds. Each simulation was run with a maximum defined time, usually

1068   between 100-500 seconds, or were stopped once the MT grew a total of 2-5μm in length. The

1069   MATLAB code for simulations is provided in the Supplementary Materials.

1070

<u>Parameter estimation</u>

MT growth parameters were determined by fitting to experimental growth speed curves. Briefly,

20 simulations were performed for each concentration from 2-20μM tubulin for 100 seconds each.

MT length versus time was plotted. Growth speed was obtained from the slope of a linear curve

fit of the polymerizing stretch of the length versus time plot. Parameter values of $k_{on} =$

$1.3 \times 10^6\ (\mu M^{-1}s^{-1}), \Delta G_{Long,\alpha\beta-\alpha\beta} = -7.2 k_B T, \Delta G_{Lat,\alpha\beta-\alpha\beta} = -6.5 k_B T$ resulted in the best

fit for all tubulin concentrations. These parameter values are similar to those obtained in previous

reports[31,41]. With these polymerization parameters fixed, we varied the remaining parameters.

$\Delta G_{Long,\gamma-\alpha\beta}$ was varied from $(0.7 - 1.3) \times \Delta G_{Long,\alpha\beta-\alpha\beta}$. $\Delta G_{\gamma TuRC-conf}$ was varied from $+(0 -$

$30) k_B T$ and $k_{\gamma TuRC-conf}$ from $(1 - 0.001)\ s^{-1}$. For each parameter set, we performed 200-500

simulations each at specific tubulin concentrations between 2-50μM. For each simulation, the time

of γ-TuRC ring closure was recorded as the nucleation time as it represents the transition from

zero MT length to a continuously growing MT. For the simulation where no MT nucleation

occurred, a nucleation time of infinity was recorded. Cumulative probability distribution of

nucleation ($p(t)$) versus time was generated from the log of nucleation times for each tubulin

concentration. Rate of nucleation $\frac{dp}{dt}\big|_{t\to0}$ was obtained by a linear fit from the initial part of each

nucleation fit, as described above. The slope of a straight line was fit to $ln\left(\frac{dp}{dt}\big|_{t\to0}\right)$ versus $ln(C)$,

as outlined in equations (2-3) above, provide the size of critical nucleus n. The nucleation curves

and power-law analysis was compared with experimental data for γ-TuRC-mediated nucleation.

The best agreement was found with $\Delta G_{Long,\gamma-\alpha\beta} = 1.1 \times \Delta G_{Long,\alpha\beta-\alpha\beta}$, as supported by our

biochemical measurements, $\Delta G_{\gamma TuRC-conf} = 10k_BT$ and $k_{\gamma TuRC-conf}=0.01\ s^{-1}$.

To analyze the arrangement of αβ-tubulins in the transition state, the state of γ-TuRC with

αβ-tubulin dimers was recorded at the time of γ-TuRC ring closure for 2119 simulations. 3D-

dimensional probability distribution of total number of αβ-tubulin dimers and number of lateral

αβ-tubulin bonds was generated. The arrangement of αβ-tubulin dimers in the most frequently

occurring transition states were displayed with schematics.

To capture the dynamics of MT assembly from blunt seeds, we simulated nucleation

assuming a closed γ-TuRC geometry as follows. Lateral bonds between αβ-tubulins assembled on

the neighboring sites on γ-TuRC were allowed and $\Delta G_{Long,\gamma-\alpha\beta}$ was set equal to $\Delta G_{Long,\alpha\beta-\alpha\beta}$.

Simulations were performed as described above with the following change. The time when the

MT in each simulation grew to 50nm length was recorded to generate the probability distribution.

Nucleation curves and power-law analysis was compared with experimental data for seed-

mediated MT assembly.

1104

Measuring the effect of microtubule associated proteins on γ-TuRC-mediated nucleation

Effect of microtubule associated proteins (MAPs) was measured on γ-TuRC's nucleation activity.

γ-TuRC was attached on the coverslips using the setup described above and a control experiment

was performed with identical reaction conditions for each protein tested. Because CDK5RAP2's

γ-TuNA motif and NME7 bind γ-TuRC, to test their activity γ-TuRC was additionally incubated

6μM γ-TuNA motif or 6μM NME7 to γ-TuRC for 5 minutes prior to attachment to coverslips to

maximize their likelihood of binding and the control γ-TuRC reaction was treated identically with

the storage buffer for each protein. Nucleation mix was then prepared containing 10.5 μM αβ-

tubulin concentration (5% Cy5-labeled tubulin) as specified along with 1mg/ml BSA and oxygen

scavengers, and either buffer (control), 10nM GFP-TPX2, 3μM γ-TuNA motif from CDK5RAP2,

6μM NME7, 5μM Stathmin or 10nM MCAK was added. To test NME7 or MCAK's effect, the

assay buffer additionally contained 1mM ATP. The reaction mixture containing tubulin and MAP

at specified concentration was introduced into the flow chamber containing γ-TuRC, and MT

nucleation was visualized by imaging the Cy5-fluorescent channel at 0.5-1 frames per second. For

TPX2, fluorescence intensity of the protein was simultaneously acquired.

The number of MTs nucleated over time was measured as described above and the effect

of protein on γ-TuRC's nucleation activity was assessed by comparing nucleation curves with and

without the MAP. In order to normalize for the total number of γ-TuRC molecules obtained from

different purifications and enable pooling results from all datasets, the number of MTs nucleated

at a specified time point, mentioned in each figure legend, was set to 1 for γ-TuRC only (no MAP)

control reactions. As before the shaded region represents 95% confidence interval ($n \pm 2\sqrt{n}$) in

the number of MTs, n assuming a Poisson distribution that determines binding and subsequent

nucleation from γ-TuRCs and was calculated and displayed on each nucleation time-course.

1128

Cooperative microtubule nucleation assay with purified XMAP215 and γ-TuRC

A similar set of experiments as above to characterize the effect of MAPs was performed to study

the effect of XMAP215 on γ-TuRC-mediated nucleation with the single molecule assays with the

following differences. 20nM of XMAP215-GFP-7xHis was added to nucleation mix prepared with

3.5-7 μM αβ-tubulin concentration (5% Cy5-label) in XMAP assay buffer (80mM K-PIPES, 1mM

MgCl$_2$, 1mM EGTA, 30mM KCl, 0.075% w/v methylcellulose 4000 cp, 1% w/v D-(+)-glucose,

0.007% w/v Brij-35, 5mM BME, 1mM GTP). MTs nucleated from attached γ-TuRC with and

without XMAP215 were measured to assess the efficiency of nucleation induced by XMAP215.

To assess if N- or C-terminal domains of XMAP215 increases nucleation efficiency, wild-type

XMAP215 was replaced with a C-terminal construct of XMAP215 (TOG5-Cterminus-GFP) or an

N-terminal construct (TOGs1-4-GFP) in the described experiment.

To measure the kinetics of cooperative nucleation XMAP215 and γ-TuRC, a constant

density of γ-TuRC was attached as described above and nucleation mix nucleation mix was

prepared with a range of αβ-tubulin concentration between 1.6-7 μM (5% Cy5-label) with 20-

25nM of XMAP215-GFP-7xHis or XMAP215-TEV-GFP-7xHis-StrepII in XMAP assay buffer,

introduced into reaction chamber and MT nucleation was imaged immediately by capturing dual

color images of XMAP215 and tubulin intensity at 0.5 frames per second.

Data analysis was performed as above for γ-TuRC mediated nucleation, theoretical field-

to-field heterogeneity in the number of MTs nucleated was represented with a Poisson distribution

as before and 95% confidence interval. Critical tubulin nucleus for cooperative nucleation from

XMAP215 and γ-TuRC was obtained as described for γ-TuRC alone (equations (1-3)). A straight

line was fit to log rate of nucleation $ln\left(\frac{dN}{dt}\Big|_{t\to0}\right)$ versus log tubulin concentration $ln(C)$ and its

slope provides the size of critical nucleus n. Finally, to normalize for the total number of γ-TuRC

molecules obtained from different purifications, the rate of cooperative nucleation from XMAP215

and γ-TuRC at 3.5μM tubulin was set to 1. All datasets were pooled and reported.

1154

Triple-color imaging of XMAP215, γ-TuRC and microtubules

For triple-color fluorescence assays, Alexa-568 and biotin-conjugated γ-TuRC was first attached

to coverslips as described above with the following variation: 0.05 mg/ml of NeutrAvidin was

used for attaching γ-TuRC. Nucleation mix was prepared with 7μM αβ-tubulin (5% Cy5-label),

10nM Alexa-488 XMAP215-SNAP or XMAP215-GFP with BSA and oxygen scavengers in

XMAP assay buffer (80mM K-PIPES, 1mM $MgCl_2$, 1mM EGTA, 30mM KCl, 0.075% w/v

methylcellulose 4000 cp, 1% w/v D-(+)-glucose, 0.007% w/v Brij-35, 5mM BME, 1mM GTP)

and introduced into the reaction chamber containing attached γ-TuRC. Three-color imaging per

frame was performed with sequential 488, 568 and 647 nm excitation and images were acquired

with EMCCD camera at 0.3 frames per second.

 Figure legends

 Figure 1. Single molecule microscopy of microtubule nucleation from γ-TuRC.

 (A) Schematic for microtubule nucleation from γ-TuRC. Biochemical features of γ-TuRC

 including the γ-/αβ-tubulin interaction affinity and conformation of γ-TuRC determine to MT

 nucleation activity and transition state. (B) Purified, biotinylated γ-TuRC molecules were attached,

 incubated with αβ-tubulin and time-lapse of MT nucleation after is shown. MTs already nucleated

 in the first frame are marked with yellow arrow, while new MT nucleation events between the first

 and last frame with blue arrows. (C) Three representative kymographs of (left) unlabeled γ-TuRC

 nucleating MTs colored in grayscale, or (right) fluorescent γ-TuRC, pseudo-colored in green,

 nucleating MTs, pseudo-colored in red. Arrows point to nucleation sites. The experiments with

 unlabeled γ-TuRC were repeated more than ten times with independent γ-TuRC preparations,

 while those fluorescent γ-TuRC repeated were repeated six times with three independent γ-TuRC

 preparations. See Figure 1-figure supplement 1 and Videos 1-2.

 Figure 2. Molecular composition of transition state in γ-TuRC-mediated nucleation.

 (A) Titrating tubulin concentration with constant the density of γ-TuRC. MT nucleation from γ-

 TuRC begins at 7μM tubulin. (B) MT plus-end growth speed increases linearly with tubulin

 concentration. Individual data points are plotted, and linear fit (red line) with shaded mean±2std

 (95% confidence interval) is displayed. Critical concentration for polymerization as $C^* = 1.4$ μM.

 Inset: Number of MTs nucleated by γ-TuRCs within 120 seconds varies non-linearly with tubulin

 concentration. (C) Number of MTs nucleated ($N(t)$) over time (t) is plotted for varying tubulin

 concentration to obtain rate of nucleation as the slope of the initial part of the curves. Shaded

regions represent 95% confidence interval $(n \pm 2\sqrt{n})$ in the number of nucleated MTs (n)

assuming a Poisson distribution as described in Methods. (D) Number of tubulin dimers (n) in the

critical nucleus on γ-TuRC was obtained as 3.9±0.5 from the equation $\frac{dN}{dt}\big|_{t\to0} = kC_{tub}{}^n$ displayed

on a log-log axis as detailed in Methods. The rate of nucleation at 10.5µM was set to 1 to normalize

differences in γ-TuRC concentration from individual experiments. The experiments and analyses

in (A-D) were repeated identically three times with independent γ-TuRC preparations. MT

nucleation data, prior to normalization, from one representative dataset is displayed in (B-C).

Analyses from all repeats was pooled and normalized as described above, and data points from 15

nucleation-time curves are plotted in (D). See Video 3.

1197

Figure 3. Comparison of γ-TuRC-mediated, spontaneous and seed-templated nucleation.

(A) Spontaneous MT nucleation (schematized) was measured with increasing tubulin

concentration and high concentrations. 14µM tubulin is required. (B) Number of MTs $(N(t=\tau))$

nucleated spontaneously were plotted against tubulin concentration. Power-law curve was fit as

$N(t = \tau) = kC^n$ on a log-log axis, and linear scale in the inset. Tubulin cooperativity (exponent)

of n = 8.1±0.9 was obtained as detailed in Methods. Experiments and analyses in (A-B) were

repeated thrice independently, all data were pooled and data points from 11 nucleation curves are

plotted in (B). In the inset, data is represented in linear plot, where shaded regions represent 95%

confidence interval $(n \pm 2\sqrt{n})$ in the number of nucleated MTs (n) assuming a Poisson

distribution as described in Methods. Scale bars, 10µm. (C) Schematic and an example micrograph

of blunt, stabilized MT seeds is shown and MT assembly from them was observed (bottom) with

varying tubulin concentration. (D) Cumulative probability of MT assembly from seeds $(p(t))$ over

time (t) is plotted and rate of nucleation was obtained as the slope from initial part of the curves.

Shaded regions represent 95% confidence interval ($n \pm 2\sqrt{n}$) in the number of MTs assembled

(n) from seeds as described in Methods. (E) As described in Methods, the measurements fit well

to equation $\left.\frac{dp}{dt}\right|_{t\to0} = k(C - C^*)^n$ displayed on a log-log plot. $n = 1\pm0.3$ was obtained showing

nearly non-cooperative assembly of tubulin dimers. The experiments and analyses in (C-E) were

repeated three times independently. MT nucleation data, prior to normalization, from one

representative dataset is displayed in (C-D). Analyses from all experiments was pooled, and data

points from a total of 11 nucleation-time curves are reported in (E). See Figure 3-figure supplement

1 and Videos 4-5.

1219

Figure 4. γ-tubulin binds to αβ-tubulin with a high affinity.

(A) Size-exclusion chromatography was performed with 150nM of γ-tubulin alone (i) and with

35μM and 10μM αβ-tubulin in (ii) and (iii) respectively. Gel filtration fractions were analyzed via

SDS–PAGE followed by immunoblot with γ-tubulin and αβ-tubulin antibodies. A shift in the γ-

tubulin elution to fraction H was observed with both 35μM and 10μM αβ-tubulin, denoting

complex formation with αβ-tubulin. See Fig. 4-figure supplement 1A. Stokes' radii of reference

proteins: thyroglobulin (8.6 nm), aldolase (4.6 nm) and ovalbumin (2.8 nm), are marked at their

elution peak. Size exclusion runs were repeated three times, with the exception of 10μM αβ-tubulin

run that was performed twice. (B) Single molecule microscopy was performed with γ-tubulin and

αβ-tubulin. Control buffer (left panels, (i) and (ii)) or biotinylated αβ-tubulin (right panels, (i) and

(ii)) was attached to coverslips, incubated with fluorescent αβ-tubulin (i) or γ-tubulin (ii)

molecules, set as 0 seconds, and their binding at 60-90 seconds. (C) Number of bound molecules

were analyzed for the first 15 seconds of observation described in Methods. Experiments and

analyses in (B-C) were repeated identically two times, pooled and reported. n =56 data points each

were displayed as mean ± std in the bar graph in (C). Further confirmed with a third supporting

experimental set where the observation began later at 180 seconds and was therefore, not pooled.

See also Figure 4-figure supplements 1-2.

1237

Figure 5. Monte Carlo simulations of microtubule nucleation from γ-TuRC.

(A) Kinetic Monte Carlo simulations of MT nucleation were performed. Helical MT lattice was

simulated with 13 protofilaments and a pitch of 3 tubulin monomers across the seam. Native γ-

TuRC was simulated in an open conformation and was allowed transition into a closed

conformation with a thermodynamic penalty of $\Delta G_{\gamma TuRC-conf}$. αβ-tubulin dimers form

longitudinal bonds with energies, $\Delta G_{Long,\gamma-\alpha\beta}$ and $\Delta G_{Long,\alpha\beta-\alpha\beta}$ to γ-tubulin and other αβ-

tubulins, respectively, and lateral bond with energy, $\Delta G_{Lat,\alpha\beta-\alpha\beta}$ with neighboring αβ-tubulin

dimers. (B) MT length (μm) versus time (seconds) traces of two independent simulations are

presented (bottom). MT nucleation occurs are variable time points for each model realization.

Zoomed-in insets of the first simulation show the length of the tallest protofilament (nm) and total

number of αβ-tubulin dimers assembled in the first 200 msec and 5 sec near the transition state of

the simulation. (C) Simulations were performed with $k_{on} = 1.3 \times 10^6 \ (M^{-1}s^{-1}pf^{-1})$,

$\Delta G_{Long,\alpha\beta-\alpha\beta} = -7.2k_BT$, $\Delta G_{Lat,\alpha\beta-\alpha\beta} = -6.5k_BT$, $\Delta G_{Long,\gamma-\alpha\beta} = 1.1\Delta G_{Long,\alpha\beta-\alpha\beta}$,

$k_{\gamma TuRC-conf} = 0.01s^{-1}$. $\Delta G_{\gamma TuRC-conf}$ was varied from $+(0-30)k_BT$. Tubulin concentration

was varied from 2.5-50μM. 200 simulations were performed for a given tubulin concentration at

every parameter set, except for $\Delta G_{\gamma TuRC-conf} = 10k_BT$ where 500 simulations were performed.

From probability of MT nucleation ($p(t)$) versus time (t) curves, the initial rate of nucleation $\frac{dp}{dt}\big|_{t\to 0}$

was measured and plotted against concentration on a log-log axis as detailed in Methods. (D) With

the parameters defined above and $\Delta G_{\gamma TuRC-conf} = 10k_BT$, the transition state at the time of γ-

TuRC's conformational change was recorded for *n*=2119 simulations. Normalized histogram of

total number of αβ-tubulin dimers is plotted (left). 3-dimensional probability distribution of total

number of αβ-tubulin dimers (x) and number of lateral αβ-tubulin interactions (y) is plotted (right).

The most populated transition states are denoted with coordinates (x,y) and schematized. See also

Figure 5-figure supplements 1-2.

1262

Figure 6. Regulation of γ-TuRC-mediated nucleation by putative activation factors.

(A) A constant density of γ-TuRC molecules were attached without (left) and with (right) 6μM

CDK5RAP2's γ-TuNA motif and 10.5μM tubulin ± 3μM additional γ-TuNA was added. Scale

bar, 10μm. (B) MTs nucleated from γ-TuRC molecules were analyzed and 3-6μM CDK5RAP2's

γ-TuNA motif (left) or 1-6μM NME7 (right). Experiments and analyses in (A-B) were individually

repeated twice on different days of experimentation with independent or same γ-TuRC

preparations. Number of MTs nucleated in control reactions at 200 seconds for γ-TuNA, and at

150 seconds for NME7 was set to 1 to account for variable γ-TuRC concentration across

purifications, all data was pooled and reported. Individual datasets with ±γ-TuNA and ±NME7 is

represented with solid or dashed curves. Shaded regions represent 95% confidence interval ($n \pm$

$2\sqrt{n}$) from each dataset in the number of nucleated MTs (n) assuming a Poisson distribution as

described in Methods. (C-D) A constant density of γ-TuRC molecules were attached and 10.5μM

tubulin ± 10-20nM GFP-TPX2 was added. Experiments and analyses were repeated thrice with

independent γ-TuRC preparations. To account for the variable γ-TuRC concentration across

purifications, the number of MTs nucleated in control reactions at 150 seconds was set to 1. All

data was pooled and reported. Individual dataset with ±TPX2 is represented with solid, dashed or

dotted curves. Shaded regions represent 95% confidence interval ($n \pm 2\sqrt{n}$) from each dataset in

the number of nucleated MTs (n) assuming a Poisson distribution as described in Methods. See

Figure 6-figure supplement 1 and Video 6.

1282

Figure 7. Role of XMAP215 and microtubule-associated proteins in microtubule nucleation

with γ-TuRC.

(A) γ-TuRCs were attached and 7μM tubulin (pseudo-colored in red) ± 20nM XMAP215-GFP

(pseudo-colored in green) was added. Scale bar, 10μm. Experiments and analyses in (A-B) were

repeated thrice with independent γ-TuRC preparations. (B) Number of MTs nucleated ($N(t)$) over

time (t) was measured and control reactions at 120 seconds was set to 1 to account for variable γ-

TuRC concentration across purifications, all data was pooled and reported. Individual datasets with

±XMAP215 is represented with solid or dashed curves. Shaded regions represent 95% confidence

interval ($n \pm 2\sqrt{n}$) from each dataset in the number of nucleated MTs (n) assuming a Poisson

distribution as described in Methods. See also See Figure 7-figure supplement 1A-B. (C) Sequence

of events during cooperative MT nucleation by γ-TuRC and XMAP215 was visualized using

labeled γ-TuRC (blue), XMAP215 (red) and tubulin (green) represented in a time sequence and

kymograph. γ-TuRC and XMAP215 form a complex prior to MT nucleation. XMAP215

molecules reside on γ-TuRC for before MT nucleation. The experiment was repeated a total of 8

times with two independent γ-TuRC preparations and independent XMAP215 purifications. Scale

bar, 5μm. (D-E) Number of MTs nucleated ($N(t)$) over time (t) was measured after titrating tubulin

with constant γ-TuRC and XMAP215 concentration. XMAP215/γ-TuRC molecules nucleate MTs

from 1.6 μM tubulin. Shaded regions represent 95% confidence interval ($n \pm 2\sqrt{n}$) in the number

of nucleated MTs (n) assuming a Poisson distribution as described in Methods. (E) Number of

tubulin dimers (n) in the critical nucleus on cooperative nucleation by γ-TuRC/XMAP215 was

obtained as 3.3±0.8 from the equation $\frac{dN}{dt}\big|_{t\to0} = kC_{tub}{}^n$ displayed on a log-log axis as detailed in

Methods. The rate of nucleation at 3.5μM was set to 1 to normalize differences in γ-TuRC

concentration from individual experiments. Experiment and analyses in (D-E) was repeated thrice

over the entire concentration range with independent γ-TuRC preparations, and fewer

concentration points were repeated another two times. All five datasets were pooled and data points

from a total of 18 nucleation-time curves are reported in (E). Simulations were adapted to

understand how XMAP215 changes the thermodynamics of γ-TuRC-mediated nucleation.

Parameter values used: $k_{on} = 1.3 \times 10^6 \ (M^{-1}s^{-1}pf^{-1})$, $\Delta G_{Long,\alpha\beta-\alpha\beta} = -8.64 k_B T$,

$\Delta G_{Lat,\alpha\beta-\alpha\beta} = -6.2 k_B T$, $\Delta G_{Long,\gamma-\alpha\beta} = -9.5 k_B T$, $k_{\gamma TuRC-conf} =$

$0.01 s^{-1}$ and $\Delta G_{\gamma TuRC-conf} = 10 k_B T$. Compared to simulations for γ-TuRC alone (Figure S6A),

either $\Delta G_{Long,\alpha\beta-\alpha\beta}$ was increased 1.2-fold, as proposed previously[41], or both $\Delta G_{Long,\alpha\beta-\alpha\beta}$ and

$\Delta G_{Long,\alpha\beta-\alpha\beta}$ were increased 1.2-fold. 200 simulations each were performed for a range of tubulin

concentration 1.6-7μM. Probability of MT nucleation ($p(t)$) versus time (t) is displayed in (D). The

initial rate of nucleation $\frac{dp}{dt}\big|_{t\to0}$ was measured at each tubulin concentration and plotted against

concentration on a log-log axis in (E). Linear curve was fit for n=5 simulated data points, and

critical nucleus of 3.8 ± 0.3 αβ-tubulins. Increasing all longitudinal bond energies reproduces the

effect of XMAP215 on γ-TuRC-mediated nucleation. (F) Number of MTs nucleated was measured

to assess the effect of inhibitory MAPs MCAK or Stathmin on γ-TuRC-mediated nucleation.

10.5μM tubulin ± 10nM MCAK, or 7-10.5μM tubulin ± 2-5μM Stathmin was added to attached

γ-TuRC- molecules, and MCAK and Stathmin were both found to inhibit γ-TuRC-mediated

nucleation. Experiments and analyses for both MAPs were repeated thrice individually with

independent γ-TuRC preparations. Number of MTs nucleated in control reactions at 200 seconds

was set to 1 to account for variable γ-TuRC concentration across purifications, all data was pooled

and reported. Individual dataset with ± MCAK are reported with solid, dashed or dotted curves.

For Stathmin, two datasets for 10.5μM tubulin ± 5μM Stathmin are reported with solid and dashed

lines, and one dataset for 7μM tubulin ± 2μM Stathmin in dotted line. Shaded regions represent

95% confidence interval $(n \pm 2\sqrt{n})$ from each dataset in the number of nucleated MTs (n)

assuming a Poisson distribution as described in Methods. See Figure 7-figure supplements 1-2 and

Videos 7-9.

 Supplementary Figure legends

 Figure 1-figure supplement 1. Controls for γ-TuRC-mediated microtubule nucleation.

 (A) Protein gel of purified γ-TuRC was stained with SYPRO Ruby stain (left). Biotinylated sites

 on γ-TuRC was visualized with alkaline phosphatase conjugated to avidin (middle), and Alexa-

 568 labelled subunits of γ-TuRC after additional fluorescent conjugation were visualized on an

 SDS-PAGE with Typhoon 9500 fluorescence imager (right). Major, known γ-TuRC components

 were detected in the purified protein and GCP2/3 are heavily biotinylated or Alexa-568 labelled

 during purification. The experiments were repeated thrice with independent γ-TuRC preparations,

 with the exception of Alexa-568 scan that was repeated twice. (B) Purified and biotinylated γ-

 TuRC was stained with uranyl acetate and visualized with transmission electron microscopy. Scale

 bar, 100nm. The experiments were repeated over ten times with independent γ-TuRC preparations.

 (C) Fluorescently-labelled and biotinylated γ-TuRC molecules (pseudo-colored as green) were

 attached, incubated with 10.5μM αβ-tubulin (pseudo-colored as red) and time-lapse of MT

 nucleation after is shown. γ-TuRCs denoted with yellow arrows have nucleated a MTs before 180

 seconds, while those labelled with gray arrows nucleated MTs between 180 and 330 seconds

 visualized in the time-lapse. Scale bar, 10μm. See Video 2. The experiment was repeated six times

 with three independent γ-TuRC preparations. (D) MTs were first nucleated from γ-TuRC with

 Alexa 568-labeled tubulin (pseudo-colored in cyan), followed by introduction of Cy5-labeled

 tubulin (pseudo-colored in magenta). New tubulin incorporates only on the freely growing, plus-

 end but not at the nucleated minus-end. Scale bar, 10μm. The experiment was performed three

 times with two independent γ-TuRC preparations. See also Figures 1-2 and Videos 1-2.

Figure 3-figure supplement 1. Controls for spontaneous and blunt seed-mediated

microtubule nucleation.

(A) Representative kymographs of spontaneously nucleated MT is displayed, demonstrating that

MTs grow from both the minus-end (dotted line) and the plus-end (solid line) and can be

distinguished from γ-TuRC-mediated nucleation. Scale bar, 10μm. Tens of kymographs were

generated from at least three independent experiments. (B) Comparison of γ-TuRC-mediated with

spontaneous MT nucleation and reactions where γ-TuRC was not attached. MTs were nucleated

by attaching purified γ-TuRC (left), adding control buffer to allow for spontaneous MT nucleation

(middle) or leaving avidin out to test the level of nucleation by non-specifically attached γ-TuRCs

(right). Robust MT nucleation only occurs with γ-TuRC attached to coverslips and not in control

reactions. Scale bar, 10μm. (C) MTs nucleation from γ-TuRCs or spontaneously were compared

directly at 10.5μM tubulin concentrations. Shaded regions represent 95% confidence interval($n \pm$

$2\sqrt{n}$) in the number of nucleated MTs (n) assuming a Poisson distribution as described in

Methods. γ-TuRC nucleates significantly higher number of MTs than spontaneous assembly. The

experimental set and analyses in (B-C) were repeated identically two times with independent γ-

TuRC preparations. (D) MTs were assembled from blunt seeds. Tubulin concentration was titrated,

and growth speed of MT plus-ends was measured from kymographs (blue circles). Critical

concentration ($C^* = 1.4$ μM) was determined from the linear fit (blue line) with shaded 95%

confidence intervals. The experiment and analyses in were repeated thrice with independent seed

preparations. The growth speed of MTs assembled from seeds was overlaid with those nucleated

from γ-TuRC (Fig. 2B, red circles and line) for comparison. See also Videos 3-5 and Figures 2-3.

1376

Figure 4-figure supplement 1. Purified γ-tubulin binds αβ-tubulin with high affinity *in vitro*.

(A) Size-exclusion chromatography was performed with 35μM and 10μM αβ-tubulin alone in (i)

and (ii) respectively. Gel filtration fractions were analyzed via SDS–PAGE followed by

immunoblot with αβ-tubulin antibodies. At high concentration (35μM), αβ/αβ-tubulin self-

interaction occurs, and oligomeric species elutes in fractions B-C, as seen via the immunoblot and

absorbance reading. Oligomeric species is not observed at 10μM αβ-tubulin. Stokes' radii of

reference proteins: thyroglobulin (8.6 nm), aldolase (4.6 nm) and ovalbumin (2.8 nm), are marked

at their elution peak. Size exclusion runs was repeated three times for 35μM αβ-tubulin and twice

for 10μM αβ-tubulin. (B) Molecular interaction between γ/αβ-tubulin was verified with bio-layer

interferometry. Buffer ((i) and (ii), left curves) or biotin-tagged αβ-tubulin ((i) and (ii), right

curves) was loaded on the probe as bait. Untagged αβ-tubulin (i) at 0-35μM or γ-tubulin (ii) at 0-

1μM were used as prey. Wavelength shift, $\Delta\lambda$ (nm) was recorded to estimate the mass of bound

protein on the probe. More than 2μM of αβ-tubulin was needed to observe significant binding to

biotin-αβ-tubulin. While γ-tubulin non-specifically associates with the probe to a low extent,

significant association with biotin-αβ-tubulin over this non-specific binding was observed at

significantly lower concentrations. (300nM). The experiments in (i) and (ii) were repeated two

times independently. See also Figure 4.

1394

Figure 4-figure supplement 2. Purified γ-tubulin nucleates microtubules and assembles

laterally into filaments.

(A) MTs nucleate from high concentration of purified γ-tubulin efficiently and (B) minus-ends of

γ-tubulin-nucleated MTs remain capped while the plus-ends polymerize. The experiments were

repeated twice for all concentration points, with one additional supporting experimental set with

fewer γ-tubulin concentrations. (C) γ-tubulin self-assembles into filaments of variable widths at

high concentration (1-2μM) and physiological salt (100mM KCl) as observed with negative-stain,

transmission electron microscopy. Scale bar, 100nm. (D) 3D reconstructions of negatively stained

γ-tubulin filaments with thin width shows 4 linearly arrays of interacting γ-tubulins. Repeat

distance of approximately 54Å was observed between each γ-tubulin within a linear array. (E)

Longitudinal arrangement of αβ-tubulins (pink filament), generated by isolating one protofilament

from PDB: 6DPU[37,38], docked into map (see Methods). Repeat distance between longitudinally-

interacting αβ-tubulins (40Å) does not match the map spacing (54Å). Lateral arrangement of γ-

tubulin array (blue filament) was generated from the crystal contacts observed in the crystal lattice

of PDB: 1Z5W[39,40]. An alternate γ-tubulin arrangement was also generated (green filament) was

isolated from the other possible filament in this P21 crystal lattice of PDB: 1Z5W. In this

arrangement, neither do neighboring γ-tubulins arrange into straight filaments nor do they show

lateral contacts (green filament). Both filaments were docked into the one position in the map.

Laterally-associated γ-tubulin array (blue filament) display a good fit where the γ-tubulin spacing

closely matches that of the reconstructed filament. In the arrangement displayed in the green

filament, not only are the alternate γ-tubulins farther apart (61Å) and do not make a direct contact,

the alternate γ-tubulins also place off-axis and do not form a linear array. This arrangement does

not recapitulate the linear γ-tubulin arrangement where all γ-tubulins are 54Å apart, as observed

in the map. Thus, our filaments are composed of laterally-associated, linear γ-tubulin arrays.

1419

Figure 5-figure supplement 1. Parameter variation in Monte Carlo simulations of γ-TuRC-

mediated nucleation.

(A) MT plus-end assembly was simulated. Parameter values used: $k_{on} = 1.3 \times$

10^6 $(M^{-1}s^{-1}pf^{-1})$, $\Delta G_{Long,\alpha\beta-\alpha\beta} = -7.2k_BT$, $\Delta G_{Lat,\alpha\beta-\alpha\beta} = -6.5k_BT$. 20 simulations each

were performed at tubulin concentration 2-20μM. MT growth speed was obtained from each MT

length versus time trace and overlaid on experimental data. (B) MT nucleation from γ-TuRC was

simulated with input polymerization parameters defined above, $\Delta G_{\gamma TuRC-conf} = 10 k_B T$ and

$\Delta G_{Long,\gamma-\alpha\beta} = 1.1 \Delta G_{Long,\alpha\beta-\alpha\beta}$. $k_{\gamma TuRC-conf}$ was varied from $(1 - 0.001) s^{-1}$. Tubulin

concentration was varied from 5-30μM. 200 simulations were performed for a given tubulin

concentration at every $k_{\gamma TuRC-conf}$ value, except for $k_{\gamma TuRC-conf} = 0.01 s^{-1}$ where 500

simulations were performed. Probability of MT nucleation ($p(t)$) versus time (t) curves at 15μM

tubulin are displayed in (i). The initial rate of nucleation $\frac{dp}{dt}\Big|_{t\to 0}$ was measured and plotted against

concentration on a log-log axis in (ii). The critical nucleus size does not change significantly while

the absolute rate of nucleation decreases with decreasing $k_{\gamma TuRC-conf}$. (C) MT nucleation from γ-

TuRC was simulated with input polymerization parameters defined above, $\Delta G_{\gamma TuRC-conf} =$

$10 k_B T$ and $k_{\gamma TuRC-conf} = 0.01 s^{-1}$. $\Delta G_{Long,\gamma-\alpha\beta}$ was varied from $(0.7 - 1.3) \times \Delta G_{Long,\alpha\beta-\alpha\beta}$.

200 simulations were performed for every $\Delta G_{Long,\gamma-\alpha\beta}$ value at tubulin concentrations between

2.5-30μM, except for $\Delta G_{Long,\gamma-\alpha\beta} = 1.1 \Delta G_{Long,\alpha\beta-\alpha\beta}$ where 500 simulations were performed.

Probability of MT nucleation ($p(t)$) versus time (t) curves at 20μM tubulin are displayed in (i). The

initial rate of nucleation $\frac{dp}{dt}\Big|_{t\to 0}$ was measured and plotted against concentration on a log-log axis

in (ii). For $0.7, 0.9, 1.3 \Delta G_{Long,\alpha\beta-\alpha\beta}$, either few MTs nucleate or nucleation occurs immediately,

and critical nucleus size could not be accurately measured. See also Figure 5.

1442

1443 **Figure 5-figure supplement 2. Simulations of microtubule nucleation from γ-TuRC and from**

1444 **blunt seeds.**

(A) Simulations recapitulated experimental data for γ-TuRC-mediated MT nucleation. Parameter values used: $k_{on} = 1.3 \times 10^6 \ (M^{-1}s^{-1}pf^{-1})$, $\Delta G_{Long,\alpha\beta-\alpha\beta} = -7.2k_BT$, $\Delta G_{Lat,\alpha\beta-\alpha\beta} = -6.5k_BT$, $\Delta G_{Long,\gamma-\alpha\beta} = 1.1\Delta G_{Long,\alpha\beta-\alpha\beta}$, $k_{\gamma TuRC-conf} = 0.01s^{-1}$ and $\Delta G_{\gamma TuRC-conf} = 10k_BT$. 500 simulations each were performed for a range of tubulin concentration 5-25μM. Probability of MT nucleation ($p(t)$) versus time (t) is displayed in (i). The initial rate of nucleation $\frac{dp}{dt}\Big|_{t\to 0}$ was measured at each tubulin concentration and plotted against concentration on a log-log axis in (ii). Linear curve was fit for n=5 simulated data points, and critical nucleus of 4 ± 0.4 αβ-tubulins. See Figure 2C-D for comparison with experimental results. (B) MT nucleation dynamics from a closed γ-TuRC were simulated to compare with experimental data for blunt-seed mediated MT assembly. Parameter values used: $k_{on} = 1.3 \times 10^6 \ (M^{-1}s^{-1}pf^{-1})$, $\Delta G_{Long,\alpha\beta-\alpha\beta} = -7.2k_BT$, $\Delta G_{Lat,\alpha\beta-\alpha\beta} = -6.5k_BT$, $\Delta G_{Long,\gamma-\alpha\beta} = 1.0\Delta G_{Long,\alpha\beta-\alpha\beta}$. An input for $k_{\gamma TuRC-conf}$ or $\Delta G_{\gamma TuRC-conf}$ were not required because γ-TuRC does not undergo an open-to-closed transition. 200 simulations each were performed for a range of tubulin concentration 2-8μM. For each simulation, time point where over 50nm length of MT has assembled was recorded. Probability of MT nucleation ($p(t)$) versus time (t) is displayed in (i). The initial rate of nucleation $\frac{dp}{dt}\Big|_{t\to 0}$ was measured at each tubulin concentration and plotted against concentration, C-C^* on a log-log axis in (ii). Critical concentration of polymerization, C^*=1.4μM. Linear curve was fit for n=7 simulated data points, and critical nucleus of 1.1 ± 1 αβ-tubulins. See Figure 3D-E for comparison with experimental results. See also Figure 5.

Figure 6-figure supplement 1. Effect of putative activation factor NME7 on γ-TuRC-mediated nucleation.

1467   (A) A constant density of γ-TuRC molecules were attached without (left) and with (right) 6μM

1468   NME7 and 10.5μM tubulin ± 1μM additional NME7 was added. Experiments were repeated twice

1469   on different experimental days with the same γ-TuRC preparation. See also Figure 6 and Video 6.

1470

Figure 7-figure supplement 1. Role of XMAP215 on γ-TuRC-mediated microtubule

nucleation.

(A) γ-TuRCs were attached and 3.5-7μM tubulin ± 20nM XMAP215-GFP was added. Experiment

was repeated identically two times with independent γ-TuRC purifications. One additional

replicated was performed with 7μM tubulin. (B) Number of MTs nucleated ($N(t)$) over time (t) is

plotted and shaded regions represent 95% confidence interval $(n \pm 2\sqrt{n})$ in the number of

nucleated MTs (n) assuming a Poisson distribution as described in Methods. Analyses were

repeated twice with independent γ-TuRC purifications, and representative dataset is reported to

highlight the absolute increase in the number of MTs nucleated by XMAP215. One additional

supporting replicate was obtained only at 7μM tubulin. (C) Titrating tubulin with constant γ-TuRC

and XMAP215 concentration. XMAP215/γ-TuRC molecules were observed to nucleate MTs at

low tubulin concentrations of 1.6-3.5μM. Experiments were repeated at three times with

independent γ-TuRC preparations, and fewer concentration points were repeated another two

times. (D) The role of C-terminal region of XMAP215 or N-terminal region was tested in the

cooperative nucleation with purified γ-TuRC. MTs nucleated by γ-TuRC alone (top-left panel), γ-

TuRC with 20nM full-length XMAP215 (top-right panel), γ-TuRC with 20nM C-terminal domain

containing TOG5 and C-terminus of XMAP215 (bottom-left panel), or γ-TuRC with 20nM N-

terminal domain containing TOG1-4 domains (bottom-right). While the N-terminus is not

sufficient for MT nucleation, C-terminal domain of XMAP215, which binds γ-TuRC directly, also

does not stimulate MT nucleation from γ-TuRC. (E) MT nucleation was measured, and number of

MTs nucleated with wild-type XMAP215 reactions at 150 seconds was set to 1 to account for

variable γ-TuRC concentration across purifications. Individual dataset with ±wt XMAP215,

TOG5-CT or TOG1-4 are reported with solid, dashed or dotted curves. The number of times the

experiment in (D-E) was repeated independent γ-TuRC preparations is as follows: buffer (3), wild-

type XMAP215 (3), TOG1-4 (2), TOG5-CT (2). All data was pooled and reported in (E). Shaded

regions represent 95% confidence interval $(n \pm 2\sqrt{n})$ in the number of nucleated MTs (n)

assuming a Poisson distribution as described in Methods. Scale bars, 10μm. See also Figure 7 and

Videos 7-8.

1499

Figure 7-figure supplement 2. MCAK and Stathmin inhibit γ-TuRC-mediated nucleation.

(A) γ-TuRC molecules were attached to coverslips and either 10.5μM tubulin alone (left panels),

10μM tubulin + 10nM MCAK (top-right) or 10μM tubulin + 5μM Stathmin (bottom-right) was

added to the reaction. Both MCAK and Stathmin were observed to decrease the number of MTs

nucleated. For MCAK, the experiment and control were repeated three times with independent γ-

TuRC preparations. For Stathmin, the experiment and control were repeated identically two times

with independent γ-TuRC preparations and an additional, supporting experiment was performed

at a slightly different concentration (7μM tubulin ± 2μM Stathmin). See also Figure 7 and Video

9.

Video Legends

Video 1. Microtubule nucleation from γ-TuRC complexes

γ-TuRC was attached to functionalized coverslips and MT nucleation was observed upon introducing fluorescent αβ-tubulin (gray). MTs nucleated from individual γ-TuRC molecules from zero length at 14μM αβ-tubulin and the plus-end of nucleated MTs polymerized, but not its minus-end. Elapsed time is shown in seconds, where time-point zero represents the start of reaction. Scale bar, 10 μm.

Video 2. Microtubule nucleation from fluorescent, single γ-TuRC molecules

Alexa-568 labelled γ-TuRC (green) was attached to functionalized coverslips and MT nucleation was observed upon introducing fluorescent αβ-tubulin (red). MTs nucleated from single γ-TuRC molecules at 10.5μM αβ-tubulin. Elapsed time is shown in seconds, where time-point zero represents the start of reaction. Scale bar, 10 μm.

Video 3. γ-TuRC molecules nucleate microtubules efficiently

Constant density of γ-TuRC was attached while concentration of fluorescent αβ-tubulin was titrated (3.5-21μM) and MT nucleation was observed. γ-TuRC molecules nucleated MTs starting from 7μM tubulin and MT nucleation increased non-linearly with increasing tubulin concentration. Elapsed time is shown in seconds, where time-point zero represents the start of reaction. Scale bar, 10 μm.

Video 4. Spontaneous microtubule nucleation occurs at high tubulin concentration

1532   Concentration of fluorescent αβ-tubulin was titrated (7-21μM) and spontaneous MT nucleation

1533   was assayed. MTs nucleated spontaneously starting from high concentration of 14μM tubulin and

1534   MT nucleation increased non-linearly with tubulin concentration. Both plus- and minus-ends of

1535   the assembled MTs polymerize. Elapsed time is shown in seconds, where time-point zero

1536   represents the start of reaction. Scale bar, 10 μm.

1537

Video 5. Microtubule assembly from blunt plus-ends resembles polymerization

MTs with blunt ends (seeds, cyan) were generated and attached to functionalized coverslips.

Varying concentration of fluorescent αβ-tubulin was added (1.4-8.7μM, pseudo-colored as

magenta) and MT assembly from seeds was assayed. MTs assembled at concentration above

1.4μM tubulin, which is the minimum concentration needed for polymerization of MT plus-ends

(C^*). Elapsed time is shown in seconds, where time-point zero represents the start of reaction.

Scale bar, 10 μm.

1545

Video 6. γ-TuNA motif from CDK5RAP2, NME7 and TPX2 do not significantly increase γ-

TuRC-mediated microtubule nucleation

Top panels: γ-TuRC was immobilized on coverslips with control buffer (left) or with 6μM γ-TuNA

motif from CDK5RAP2 (right) and MT nucleation was observed upon introducing fluorescent

10.5μM αβ-tubulin (gray) without or with 3μM γ-TuNA, respectively.

Middle panels: γ-TuRC was immobilized on coverslips with control buffer (left) or with 6μM

NME7 (right) and MT nucleation was observed upon introducing fluorescent 10.5μM αβ-tubulin

(gray) without or with 1μM NME7, respectively.

Bottom panels: γ-TuRC was immobilized on coverslips and MT nucleation was observed upon

introducing fluorescent 10.5μM αβ-tubulin (pseudo-colored as red) without or with 10nM GFP-

TPX2 (right, labelled as green). TPX2 bound along the nucleated MTs but did not significantly

increase the MT nucleation activity of γ-TuRC molecules.

Elapsed time is shown in seconds, where time-point zero represents the start of reaction. Scale bar,

10 μm.

1560

1561 **Video 7. XMAP215 increases microtubule nucleation activity of γ-TuRC**

1562 γ-TuRC was immobilized on coverslips and MT nucleation was assayed with low concentration

1563 of fluorescent αβ-tubulin (3.5μM and 7μM) without (top panels) or with 20nM XMAP215-GFP

1564 (bottom panels). XMAP215 induces MT nucleation from γ-TuRC. Elapsed time is shown in

1565 seconds, where time-point zero represents the start of reaction. Scale bar, 10 μm.

1566

Video 8. Synergistic microtubule nucleation by γ-TuRC and XMAP215

Triple-color fluorescence microscopy was performed to observe the molecular sequence of events

during MT nucleation from γ-TuRC and XMAP215. γ-TuRC (blue) and XMAP215 (red) formed

a complex before MT nucleation occurred (pseudo-colored as green). For 50% of these events,

XMAP215 remains on the nucleated minus-end. Elapsed time is shown in seconds, where time-

point zero represents the start of reaction. Scale bar, 10 μm.

1573

Video 9. MCAK and Stathmin inhibit γ-TuRC-mediated microtubule nucleation

Top panels: γ-TuRC was immobilized on coverslips and MT nucleation was observed upon

introducing fluorescent 10.5μM αβ-tubulin without (left) or with 10nM MCAK (right).

Bottom panels: γ-TuRC was immobilized on coverslips and MT nucleation was observed upon

introducing fluorescent 10.5μM αβ-tubulin without (left) or with 5μM Stathmin (right).

Elapsed time is shown in seconds, where time-point zero represents the start of reaction. Scale bar,

10 μm.

1581

Source Data files.

Figure 2-Source Data 1. Source data for Figure 2B-D. Each excel sheet is labelled with individual figure panel. For Figure 2C, all three experimental replicates are supplied, and dataset 1 is plotted.

Figure 3-Source Data 1. Source data for Figure 3 panels B, D, E and Figure 3-supplement 1C-D. Each excel sheet is labelled with individual figure panel. For Figure 3D, all three experimental replicates are supplied, and dataset 1 is plotted.

Figure 4-Source Data 1. Source data for Figure 4C.

Figure 6-Source Data 1. Source data for Figure 6 panels B, D.

Figure 7-Source Data 1. Source data for Figure 7 panels B, D, E, F and Figure 7-supplement 1 panels B, E. Each excel sheet is labelled with individual figure panel. For Figure 7D, all five experimental replicates are supplied, and dataset 1 is plotted.

1599 **Source Code.**

1600 MATLAB code for Monte Carlo simulations used to model the dynamics of γ-TuRC-mediated

1601 nucleation. Methods section details how the simulation was set up and performed. Figure 6-

1602 supplements 2 provide the parameters used to model our experimental data.

1603

Figure 1

A

αβ-tubulin

γ:αβ-tubulin affinity   conformation

γ-tubulin

γ-TuRC

transition state

B   Microtubule nucleation from γ-TuRC *in vitro*

Cy5-labeled αβ-tubulin

biotinylated γ-TuRC
Avidin
PEG
Glass

40 s   120 s   240 s

C   Kymographs of γ-TuRC nucleated microtubules

60 s

(-) end   (+) end

Fluorescent γ-TuRC

Figure 1-figure supplement 1

γ-TuRC purification and quality control reactions

A γ-TuRC purification and labelling

Protein gel   Biotin blot   A568 scan

B Negative stained γ-TuRC under electron microscope

100 nm

C Nucleation from fluorescent γ-TuRC molecules

D Tubulin swap on γ-TuRC nucleated MTs

Figure 2

A Titrating tubulin concentration in γ-TuRC-mediated nucleation

270 s

3.5μM tubulin   7μM   10.5μM

14μM   17.5μM   21μM

B Growth speed of plus-end and number of microtubules

Number of microtubules nucleated (t = 120 s)

7μM

0   10   20
Tubulin (μM)

Plus-end growth speed (μm/min)

C* = 1.4μM

0   10   20
Tubulin concentration (μM)

C Kinetics of microtubule nucleation from γ-TuRC

Number of microtubules nucleated, N(t)

21μM tubulin

17.5μM

14μM

10.5μM

7μM
3.5μM

0   200   400
Time, t (seconds)

D Transition state for γ-TuRC mediated nucleation

$log\left(\text{rate of nucleation, } \frac{dN}{dt}\Big|_{t=0}\right)$

-2

$n = 3.9 \pm 0.5$
αβ-tubulin subunits

2   3
log(tubulin concentration)

Figure 3

A Spontaneous microtubule nucleation

Cy5-labeled αβ-tubulin

PEG
Glass

445 s

7µM tubulin
10.5µM
14µM
17.5µM
21µM

B Transition state for spontaneous nucleation

log(MTs nucleated N(t=7.5min))

n = 8.1 ± 0.9
αβ-tubulin subunits

log(tubulin concentration)

14µM

Tubulin (µM)

C Microtubule assembly from blunt seeds *in vitro*

100nm

MT seeds

PEG

Negative-stain EM

220s

1.4µM tubulin
2.45µM
3.5µM
5.25µM
7µM
8.75µM

D

Probability of microtubule assembly from seeds, p(t)

8.75µM tubulin
7µM
5.25µM
3.5µM
2.45µM
C^* = 1.4µM
1.4µM

Time, t (seconds)

E Transition state for nucleation from blunt seeds

log (nucleation rate, $\frac{dp}{dt}\big|_{t=0}$)

n = 1 ± 0.3
αβ-tubulin subunits

log(tubulin concentration-C^*)

Figure 4

A Size exclusion chromatography of γ-tubulin and αβ-tubulin

i) γ-tubulin (150nM)

ii) αβ-tubulin (10µM) + γ-tubulin

iii) αβ-tubulin (35µM) + γ-tubulin

B Single molecule light microscopy (SMLM) of γ-tubulin and αβ-tubulin interaction

C SMLM analysis

Figure 3-figure supplement 1

Comparison of γ-TuRC-mediated and spontaneous nucleation

A Kymographs of spontaneously nucleated MTs

100 s

(-) (+) ends

B γ-TuRC-mediated versus spontaneous nucleation and control reactions

Cy5-labeled tubulin

γ-TuRC

350 s

γ-TuRC
10.5μM tubulin

Cy5-labeled tubulin

Spontaneous
10.5μM tubulin

Cy5-labeled tubulin

(-) avidin reaction
γ-TuRC washed out

C Nucleation kinetics from γ-TuRCs versus spontaneous assembly

γ-TuRC
10.5μM tubulin

Spontaneous
10.5μM tubulin

Number of microtubules nucleated, $N(t)$

Time, t (seconds)

Growth speed of microtubule plus-ends assembled from blunt seeds and γ-TuRCs

D

Plus-end growth speed (μm/min)

γ-TuRC

Blunt seeds

$C^* = 1.4μM$

Tubulin concentration (μM)

Figure 4

A   Size exclusion chromatography of γ-tubulin and αβ-tubulin

B   Single molecule light microscopy (SMLM) of γ-tubulin and αβ-tubulin interaction

C   SMLM analysis

Figure 4-figure supplement 1

A Controls for size exclusion chromatography of γ-tubulin and αβ-tubulin

B Probing interaction between γ-tubulin and αβ-tubulin with interferometry

Figure 4-figure supplement 2

A Nucleation of microtubules by purified γ-tubulin

Cy5-labeled tubulin

γ-tubulin

450 s

10.5µM tubulin, buffer

125nM γ-tubulin

250nM γ-tubulin

500nM γ-tubulin

1000nM γ-tubulin

B Kymographs of γ-tubulin nucleated microtubules

100 s

(-) end   (+)

C γ-tubulin filaments form under low salt (100mM KCl) at high concentration *in vitro*

100nm

D Reconstruction of γ-tubulin filament containing 4 linear arrays

54Å

90°   90°

E Docking reveals laterally-associated γ-tubulin arrays in reconstructed filaments

αβ-tubulin protofilament

+   +   +

40Å

90°

Crystal contacts of γ-tubulin

52Å   61Å

52Å

+

61Å

61Å

90°

52Å

61Å

90°

Laterally-associated γ-tubulin array

Figure 5

A

open conformation

1 ... 13

$\downarrow$ $\Delta G_{\gamma\text{-TuRC-conf}}$

closed conformation

$\Delta G_{\text{Long},\gamma\text{-}\alpha\beta}$

$\Delta G_{\text{Lat},\alpha\beta\text{-}\alpha\beta}$

$\Delta G_{\text{Long},\alpha\beta\text{-}\alpha\beta}$ $\Delta G_{\text{Lat},\alpha\beta\text{-}\alpha\beta}$

$\Delta G_{\text{Long},\gamma\text{-}\alpha\beta}$

B

Length of tallest protofilament (nm)

closed γ-TuRC

Total number of αβ-tubulin subunits

100 ms

1 s

Microtubule length (μm)

0   100

Microtubule length (μm)

0   100

Time (seconds)

C

Increasing $\Delta G_{\gamma\text{-TuRC-conf}}$

$log\left(\text{rate of nucleation, } \dfrac{dp}{dt}\bigg|_{t=0}\right)$

$0 k_B T, 1.7\pm0.6$
$2.5 k_B T, 2.3\pm0.3$
$5 k_B T, 2.9\pm0.3$
$7.5 k_B T, 3.5\pm0.4$
$10 k_B T, 4.0\pm0.4\,(^{**})$
$12.5 k_B T, 4.4\pm0.3$
$15 k_B T, 4.6\pm0.2$
$20 k_B T, 5.6\pm0.5$
$25 k_B T, 6.1\pm1.1$
$30 k_B T, 6.8\pm1.9$

$log(\text{tubulin concentration})$

D Arrangement of αβ-tubulins in the transition state

Probability

5.2 ± 1

Total number of αβ-tubulin subunits in the transition state (x)

Probability

$(x,y) = (4,3)$

$(5,3)$ $(5,4)$

$(6,4)$

Number of lateral αβ-tubulin interactions *(y)*

Total number of αβ-tubulin subunits (x)

Figure 5-figure supplement 1

A Microtubule polymerization parameters

k_{on} = 1.3x10^6 M^{-1}s^{-1}pf^{-1}
$\Delta G_{Long,\alpha\beta-\alpha\beta}$ = -7.2k_BT
$\Delta G_{Lat,\alpha\beta-\alpha\beta}$ = -6.5k_BT

Experiments
Simulations

B Varying $k_{\gamma\text{-TuRC-conf}}$

i)

Decreasing $k_{\gamma\text{-TuRC-conf}}$

1s^{-1}
0.1s^{-1}
0.01s^{-1}
0.001s^{-1}

ii)

Decreasing $k_{\gamma\text{-TuRC-conf}}$

1s^{-1}, 3.4±0.4
0.1s^{-1}, 3.5±0.3
0.01s^{-1}, 4.0±0.4
0.001s^{-1}, 4.2±0.2

C Varying $\Delta G_{Long,\gamma\text{-}\alpha\beta}$

i)

Decreasing $\Delta G_{Long,\gamma\text{-}\alpha\beta}$

1.3$\Delta G_{Long,\alpha\beta-\alpha\beta}$
1.2$\Delta G_{Long,\alpha\beta-\alpha\beta}$
1.1$\Delta G_{Long,\alpha\beta-\alpha\beta}$
1.0$\Delta G_{Long,\alpha\beta-\alpha\beta}$
0.9$\Delta G_{Long,\alpha\beta-\alpha\beta}$ 0.7$\Delta G_{Long,\alpha\beta-\alpha\beta}$

ii)

Decreasing $\Delta G_{Long,\gamma\text{-}\alpha\beta}$

1.2$\Delta G_{Long,\alpha\beta-\alpha\beta}$, 3.8±0.1
1.1$\Delta G_{Long,\alpha\beta-\alpha\beta}$, 4.0±0.4
1.0$\Delta G_{Long,\alpha\beta-\alpha\beta}$, 4.0±0.6

Figure 5-figure supplement 2

A Simulated kinetics of microtubule nucleation from γ-TuRC

i)

ii)

B Simulated kinetics of nucleation from *closed* γ-TuRC conformation

i)

ii)

Figure 6

A Addition of activation factors to γ-TuRC

200 s

Tubulin

γ-TuRC

γ-TuRC + 6μM γ-TuNA

Tubulin + 3μM γ-TuNA

B γ-TuNA and NME7 have a minor effect on γ-TuRC-mediated nucleation

+ γ-TuNA

− γ-TuNA

− NME7

+ NME7

Normalized microtubule nucleation activity

Time (seconds)

C Addition of TPX2 to γ-TuRC-mediated nucleation

240 s

Tubulin

Tubulin   GFP-TPX2

γ-TuRC +
10.5μM tubulin

γ-TuRC +
10.5μM tubulin + 10-20nM GFP-TPX2

D TPX2 has a small effect on γ-TuRC's nucleation activity

+ TPX2

− TPX2

Normalized microtubule nucleation activity

Time (seconds)

Figure 6-figure supplement 1

Addition of NME7 to γ-TuRC

Figure 7

A XMAP215 promotes microtubule nucleation from γ-TuRCs

7μM tubulin

7μM tubulin + 20nM XMAP215-GFP

γ-TuRC

γ-TuRC

280 s

Tubulin

Tubulin

XMAP215

B

Normalized microtubule nucleation activity

+ XMAP215

- XMAP215

Time (seconds)

C XMAP215 binds γ-TuRC prior to nucleation

66 s   111 s   183 s   231 s   315 s

Merge   γ-TuRC   XMAP215   Tubulin

60 s

D Kinetics of nucleation by γ-TuRC and XMAP215

Simulation: 1.2x ΔG$_{Long,γ-αβ}$, 1.2x ΔG$_{Long,αβ-αβ}$

Probability of nucleation

7μM tubulin

5μM

3.5μM

2.5μM

1.6μM

1.2xΔG$_{Long,αβ-αβ}$, 7μM

Time, t (seconds)

Experiment

Number of microtubules nucleated

7μM tubulin

5.2μM

3.5μM

1.6μM   2.4μM

Time, t (seconds)

F MCAK and Stathmin inhibit γ-TuRC mediated nucleation

Normalized microtubule nucleation activity

- Stathmin

- MCAK

+ MCAK   + Stathmin

Time (seconds)

E Transition state for XMAP215/γ-TuRC co-nucleation

Simulation: 1.2x ΔG$_{Long,γ-αβ}$, 1.2x ΔG$_{Long,αβ-αβ}$

log (rate of nucleation, $\frac{dp}{dt}\Big|_{t=0}$)

$n = 3.8 \pm 0.3$

log(tubulin concentration)

Experiment

log (rate of nucleation, $\frac{dN}{dt}\Big|_{t=0}$)

$n = 3.3 \pm 0.8$
αβ-tubulin subunits

log(tubulin concentration)

Figure 7-figure supplement 1

A XMAP215 decreases the nucleation barrier from γ-TuRCs

γ-TuRC   γ-TuRC + XMAP215   XMAP215

3.5-7µM tubulin ±
20nM XMAP215

B

γ-TuRC + XMAP215, 7µM tubulin
γ-TuRC + XMAP215, 3.5µM tubulin
γ-TuRC, 7µM tubulin
γ-TuRC, 3.5µM tubulin
XMAP215, 7µM tubulin

Number of microtubules nucleated
Time (seconds)

C Titrating tubulin concentration in γ-TuRC/XMAP215-mediated co-nucleation

+ XMAP215 + [tubulin]
γ-TuRC

270 s
1.6µM tubulin   2.4µM   3.5µM
5.2µM   7µM   8.7µM

D Addition of XMAP215 truncations to γ-TuRC nucleation assay

10.5µM tubulin + XMAP215 truncations
γ-TuRC

270 s
Buffer   wt XMAP215
C-terminal truncation (TOG5-CT)   N-terminal truncation (TOG1-4)

E C-terminal region of XMAP215 does not stimulate nucleation from γ-TuRC

wt XMAP215
TOG5-CT   TOG1-4
Buffer

Normalized microtubule nucleation activity
Time (seconds)

Figure 7-figure supplement 2

Addition of MCAK and Stathmin to γ-TuRC nucleation