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Acyl-CoA Dehydrogenase Drives Heat Adaptation by Sequestering Fatty Acids

Highlights

- ACDH-11 upregulation sequesters C11/12 fatty acids to drive heat adaptation
- Decreased C11/12 fatty acids downregulate FAT-7 fatty acid desaturase
- Reduced levels of membrane desaturated fatty acids reduce membrane fluidity
- The acdh-11 phenotype models a thermo-sensitive syndrome caused by ACDH deficiency

In Brief

Cells must adjust lipid saturation levels to maintain membrane fluidity upon temperature change. A highly conserved lipid metabolism protein links these processes in C. elegans by sequestering fatty acids from the transcriptional activator of a lipid desaturase when temperatures rise.
Acyl-CoA Dehydrogenase Drives Heat Adaptation by Sequestering Fatty Acids

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SUMMARY

Cells adapt to temperature shifts by adjusting levels of lipid desaturation and membrane fluidity. This fundamental process occurs in nearly all forms of life, but its mechanism in eukaryotes is unknown. We discovered that the evolutionarily conserved Caenorhabditis elegans gene acdh-11 (acyl-CoA dehydrogenase [ACDH]) facilitates heat adaptation by regulating the lipid desaturase FAT-7. Human ACDH deficiency causes the most common inherited disorders of fatty acid oxidation, with syndromes that are exacerbated by hyperthermia. Heat upregulates acdh-11 expression to decrease fat-7 expression. We solved the high-resolution crystal structure of ACDH-11 and established the molecular basis of its selective and high-affinity binding to C11/C12-chain fatty acids. ACDH-11 sequesters C11/C12-chain fatty acids and prevents these fatty acids from activating nuclear hormone receptors and driving fat-7 expression. Thus, the ACDH-11 pathway drives heat adaptation by linking temperature shifts to regulation of lipid desaturase levels and membrane fluidity via an unprecedented mode of fatty acid signaling.

INTRODUCTION

How cells respond to changes in temperature is a fundamental issue in biology (de Mendoza, 2014; Jordt et al., 2003; Sengupta and Garrity, 2013). Changes in ambient temperature affect nearly all cellular and biochemical processes and drive adaptive responses to maintain cellular homeostasis. For example, up- or down-shifts in temperature increase or decrease the fluidity of the cytoplasmic membrane, respectively. To maintain membrane fluidity within an optimal range for normal biological activity, lipid desaturases in the cell convert saturated fatty acids into unsaturated fatty acids to increase lipid desaturation and thus membrane fluidity in response to temperature downshifts (de Mendoza, 2014; Flowers and Ntambi, 2008; Holthuis and Menon, 2014; Nakamura and Nara, 2004; Zhang and Rock, 2008). Unsaturated bonds in lipids generate kinks into the otherwise straightened acyl hydrocarbon chain and thereby increase membrane fluidity. This fundamental process of maintaining membrane fluidity is called homeoviscous adaptation (HVA) and occurs in bacteria, archaea, and eukaryotes (Anderson et al., 1981; Cossins and Prosser, 1978; Shmeeda et al., 2002; Sinensky, 1974).

A two-component regulatory system mediates HVA in bacteria (Aguilar et al., 2001; de Mendoza, 2014; Holthuis and Menon, 2014; Zhang and Rock, 2008). In Bacillus subtilis, temperature down-shifts induce the expression of the des gene, which encodes a lipid desaturase, Des. This induction is controlled by the DesK-DesR two-component system: upon temperature down-shift, the transmembrane histidine kinase DesK phosphorylates and activates the response regulator DesR, which stimulates transcription of des. Activation of the DesK-DesR pathway enhances the survival of Bacillus subtilis at low temperatures. Whether regulation of lipid desaturation by this pathway is involved in heat adaptation remains unclear. Furthermore, neither DesK nor DesR has apparent homologs in eukaryotes, and specific biological pathways leading to lipid desaturase regulation and HVA in eukaryotes remain unknown.

The nematode Caenorhabditis elegans is an ectotherm, i.e., its body temperature depends on external sources. C. elegans survives and reproduces optimally over an environmental temperature range of 15°C and 25°C. Temperatures beyond this range cause physiological stress, reduction of fecundity, tissue damage, and necrosis (Kourtis et al., 2012; van Oosten-Hawle and Morimoto, 2014). Previous studies of C. elegans thermoregulation have focused on understanding how the heat-shock transcription factor HSF-1 functions to maintain proteostasis and cytoskeletal integrity (Baird et al., 2014; van Oosten-Hawle and Morimoto, 2014; van Oosten-Hawle et al., 2013) and on sensory neural circuits and thermotaxis behavioral strategies that allow the animal to navigate a temperature gradient (Garrity et al., 2010; Hedgcock and Russell, 1975; Mori and Ohshima, 1995;...
Sengupta and Garrity, 2013). Although the C. elegans genome encodes seven lipid desaturases that are evolutionarily conserved and involved in fatty acid regulation (Brock et al., 2006; Watts, 2009), the functions and mechanisms of HVA in C. elegans have not been explored.

We identified the C. elegans gene acdh-11 (acyl-CoA dehydrogenase) from a genetic screen exploring how this animal responds to conditions of changing oxygen and subsequently discovered that acdh-11 functions in HVA and does so by regulating levels of the stearic Co-A desaturase (SCD) FAT-7. acdh-11 encodes a member of the evolutionarily conserved ACDH family, which is widely involved in lipid β-oxidation. To understand the mechanism of action of ACDH-11, we solved its high-resolution crystal structure. This structure helped us establish that ACDH-11 inhibits fat-7 expression by sequestering C11/C12-chain fatty acids and preventing them from activating fat-7 expression mediated by the nuclear hormone receptor (NHR) NHR-49, a C. elegans homolog of the mammalian fatty acid-binding transcription factors HNF4α and PPARα (Antebi, 2006; Ashrafi, 2007; Atherton et al., 2008; Evans and Manglesdorf, 2014; Van Gilst et al., 2005). Our findings demonstrate that specific intracellular fatty acids link ACDH-11 in a metabolic pathway to NHRs for transcriptional control of homeoviscous heat adaptation in C. elegans. We propose that these molecular principles and mechanisms are evolutionarily conserved and modulate membrane lipid homeostasis and heat adaptation in other organisms.

RESULTS

acdh-11 Is Required for Heat Adaptation

We previously reported that the C. elegans gene egl-9 controls a behavioral response to reoxygenation (the O2-ON response) by regulating fatty acid-ecosanoid signaling (Ma et al., 2012, 2013). We examined other egl mutants originally isolated based on egg-laying behavioral defects (Trent et al., 1983) and discovered that the previously uncloned gene egl-25 is also required for both normal egg laying and the O2-ON response (Figures S1A–S1E). We molecularly identified egl-25 (Figures 1A and S1A–S1E) as the gene paqr-2 (progesterin and adipoQ receptor-2), the sequence of which has similarity to those of mammalian adiponectin receptors and which promotes the adaptation of C. elegans to cold temperature (Svensk et al., 2013; Svensson et al., 2011). Since the molecular function of this gene is unclear, we continue to refer to it by its original name, egl-25. We confirmed that egl-25 promotes cold adaptation and the intestinal expression of the SCD gene fat-7 (Svensk et al., 2013; Svensson et al., 2011) (Figures S1C and S1F).

We expressed a Pfat-7::fat-7::GFP fluorescent reporter (nls590) in the egl-25 mutant background to seek egl-25 suppressor mutations that can restore fat-7 levels (see Experimental Procedures). We isolated over 40 mutations that suppress egl-25, eight of which (n5655, n5657, n5661, n5876, n5877, n5878, n5879, n5880) belong to one complementation group and are alleles of a functionally uncharacterized gene named acdh-11 (Figure 1A). The amino acid sequence of AC Dh-11 suggests that it is a long-chain ACDH involved in fatty acid β-oxidation (Ashrafi, 2007; Srinivasan, 2015). acdh-11 genetically interacts with acs-3, which encodes an acyl-CoA synthetase (Ashrafi, 2007; Mullaney et al., 2010). The eight mutations we isolated include one deletion allele and three missense mutations, each of which disrupts an amino acid residue completely conserved among ACDH protein family members (Figures 1B and S2).

Such loss-of-function mutations of acdh-11 restored only slightly the behavioral defects (in egg laying and the O2-ON response) of egl-25 mutants but caused dramatic upregulation of Pfat-7::fat-7::GFP in both egl-25 mutant and wild-type backgrounds (Figures 1C and 1D).

Because fat-7 encodes an SCD that catalyzes the limiting step of lipid desaturation and promotes membrane fluidity (deendoza, 2014; Flowers and Ntambi, 2008), we monitored the extent of membrane fluidity in acdh-11 mutants using the fluorescent dye di-4-ANEPPDHQ (Owen et al., 2012). We found that the fluorescence spectrum of di-4-ANEPPDHQ was red-shifted (Figure S3A), suggesting increased membrane fluidity. Using liquid chromatography-mass spectroscopy (LC-MS) to quantify endogenous levels of various fatty acids, we found that acdh-11 mutants were abnormal in their compositions of specific fatty acid species (Figure 2A). In particular, we observed a markedly reduced level of stearic acid (C18:0, 18 carbon atoms and 0 double bonds), which is the most abundant saturated fatty acid in C. elegans (Figure 2A). The reduced level of C18:0, the metabolic substrate of FAT-7, is consistent with overexpression of Pfat-7::fat-7::GFP in acdh-11 mutants. These data indicate that ACDH-11 functions to decrease fat-7 expression, the desaturation of the FAT-7 substrate stearic acid and membrane lipid fluidity.

Because changes in membrane fluidity are essential for adaptation to temperature shifts, we next examined the temperature sensitivity of acdh-11 mutants. We found that acdh-11 mutant embryos successfully developed to adulthood at 15°C or 20°C but failed to do so at 25°C (Figures 2B and 2C). Transgenic expression of wild-type acdh-11(+4) or decreasing membrane fluidity by supplementing acdh-11 mutants with the membrane-rigidifying agent DMSO (Lyman et al., 1976; Sangwan et al., 2001) or reducing the fat-7 expression level by mutation rescued the 25°C growth defect (Figure 2C). Since temperature higher than 25°C causes heat stress, tissue necrosis and damage in C. elegans (Kourtis et al., 2012; van Oosten-Hawle and Morimoto, 2014), we also examined survival of C. elegans adults at 37°C and found that acdh-11 mutants but not acdh-11; fat-7 double mutants exhibited increased death rates compared with wild-type animals (Figure 2D). By contrast, both acdh-11 mutants and the wild-type exhibited similar sensitivity to other types of stress, including high osmolality and oxidative stress (Figures S3B and S3C). These results indicate that ACDH-11 promotes C. elegans heat adaptation (also see below) by regulating fat-7 expression and membrane fluidity.

High Temperature Upregulates acdh-11 Expression to Decrease fat-7 Expression

We generated a transcriptional reporter strain (Pacdh-11::GFP) with GFP driven by the 0.6 kb promoter of acdh-11. We observed that growth at 25°C as opposed to 20°C or 15°C caused marked upregulation of Pacdh-11::GFP predominantly in the intestine (Figure 3A), the site of fat-7 expression, suggesting that ACDH-11...
regulates fat-7 cell-autonomously. Quantitative PCR (qPCR) revealed a ~2-fold induction of endogenous acdh-11 transcripts at 25°C compared with 15°C (Figure 3B). By contrast, fat-7 expression in the wild-type was strongly decreased at 25°C but increased in acdh-11 mutants, based upon both RNA sequencing (RNA-seq) and qPCR experiments (Figures 3C and 3D). This regulation of fat-7 by acdh-11 is highly specific to acdh-11, since knockdown of acdh-11 but not of the other 12

Figure 1. acdh-11 Regulates fat-7 Expression

(A) Schematic of egl-25 and acdh-11 gene structures. Shown are egl-25(n573), acdh-11(gk753061), and another eight acdh-11 mutations isolated from egl-25(n573) suppressor screens. Both n573 and n5880 are ochre (CAA-to-TAA) mutations and gk753061 is an amber (TTG-to-TAG) mutation.

(B) Sequence alignments of ACDH-11 homologs from Escherichia coli (AidB), Drosophila melanogaster (CG7461), Danio rerio (Acadvl), Mus musculus (Acadvl), and Homo sapiens (ACADVL). For clarity, only the regions corresponding to that surrounding amino acid residue R455, which is disrupted by the acdh-11 mutation n5876, are shown. The three shades of blue indicate the degree of amino acid identity (deep blue >80%; blue >60%; light blue >40%). Arrow indicates the completely conserved R455 residue, which is disrupted by the acdh-11(n5876) mutation.

(C) Fractions of animals expressing FAT-7::GFP at 20°C as scored visually. p < 0.01 (n = 100 for each of five independent experiments).

(D) EGL-25 and ACDH-11 antagonistically regulate the abundance of the nIs590[Pfat-7::fat-7::GFP] reporter (FAT-7::GFP). Representative Nomarski and GFP fluorescence micrographs are shown of C. elegans adults of the genotypes indicated and grown at 20°C. Alleles used were: egl-25(n573), egl-25(n573); acdh-11(n5655), and acdh-11(n5878).

See also Figures S1 and S2.
members of the acdh gene family in C. elegans by RNAi caused fat-7 upregulation (Figures 3E and 3F). Temperature and acdh-11 affected fat-7 expression far more than expression of other C. elegans fat genes encoding lipid desaturases, including fat-5 and fat-6, two close fat-7 homologs in C. elegans (Murray et al., 2007; Watts, 2009). These results demonstrate upregulation of acdh-11 by heat and a highly gene-specific function for acdh-11 and elevated temperature in regulating the expression of fat-7, a member of the lipid desaturase gene family. These findings are consistent with the hypothesis that acdh-11 and fat-7 act in a pathway to facilitate C. elegans heat adaptation.

**ACDH-11 Crystal Structure Reveals the Basis of ACDH-11 Interaction with C11/C12-Chain Fatty Acids**

To understand the mechanism of action of ACDH-11, we solved its 3D crystal structure as well as its structure in a complex with acyl-CoA (Figure 4; Table S1). Recombinant C. elegans ACDH-11 was expressed from Escherichia coli, purified and crystallized (Li et al., 2010). The structure of ACDH-11 was determined by molecular replacement, and the final atomic model of ACDH-11 was refined to 2.27 Å and 1.8 Å resolutions for the apo and the complex structures, respectively (Table S1). The overall structure is tetrameric (Figure 4A), consistent with our previous observation that the purified recombinant ACDH-11 (70 kDa monomer) is a 264 kDa protein in solution (Li et al., 2010). The monomer has an overall fold similar to that of its two described homologs, the E. coli alkylation response protein AidB (Bowles et al., 2008) and the human very long chain acyl-CoA dehydrogenase (VLCAD) (McAndrew et al., 2008). Each ACDH-11 monomer consists of an N-terminal α-helical domain (residues 1–200, α-domain 1), a seven-stranded β sheet domain (residues 201–320, α-domain 2), a central z-helical domain (residues 321–480, z-domain 3), and a C-terminal z-helical domain (Figure 4B). The tetramer comprises a dimer of dimers, with each subunit providing two loops important for stabilizing the dimer-dimer interaction (Figures 4A and S4A–S4E).

Long-chain ACDHs catalyze the initial step of fatty acid β-oxidation, the dehydrogenation of acyl-CoAs, with substrate-binding pockets that accommodate long-chain fatty acids of...
Figure 3. Temperature Upregulates acdh-11, Causing Downregulation of fat-7 Expression

(A) Representative Nomarski and GFP fluorescence micrographs of wild-type transgenic animals with nls677[P_acdh-11::GFP] (left), the expression of which is upregulated by high temperature at 25°C. A high-magnification view of another animal (right) shows GFP predominantly in intestinal cells (arrows). Scale bars, 100 μm.

(B) qPCR results showing that endogenous acdh-11 is transcriptionally upregulated at 25°C. p < 0.01 (n = 4 for each genotype).

(C) RNA-Seq quantification of the expression levels at 15°C, 20°C, and 25°C (normalized to levels at 20°C) of genes encoding all seven C. elegans lipid desaturases (fat-1 to fat-7). Arrow indicates downregulation of fat-7 expression by temperature. FPKM, fragments per kilobase of exon per million fragments mapped.

(D) qPCR quantification showing fat-7 expression levels in wild-type animals and acdh-11 mutants. p < 0.01 (n = 4 for each genotype).

(E) Representative Nomarski and GFP fluorescence micrographs of wild-type nls590 transgenic animals showing that RNAi against acdh-11 induces FAT-7::GFP expression at 25°C. Scale bars, 100 μm.

(F) RNAi against all acdh gene family members showing that acdh-11 was specifically required for downregulating FAT-7::GFP expression at 25°C. p < 0.01 (n = 100 for each of four independent experiments).
varying alkyl chain lengths (Grevengoed et al., 2014). To determine how the interaction of ACDH-11 with its substrates likely impacts HVA, we analyzed the classes of fatty acids that bind to the lipid binding pocket of ACDH-11. We found that ACDH-11 harbored the acyl chain of the fatty acid C11-CoA as a ligand in the crystal (Figures 4C and 5A–5E). C11-CoA was deeply buried inside a 14 Å-depth binding cavity of ACDH-11, the depth of which was restricted by two residues, Tyr344 and Leu159, limiting the maximum carbon length to C12 (Figures 4C and 5A). The temperature B-factors (Woldeyes et al., 2014), which indicate the motilities of these two amino acids (Tyr 344 and Leu 159), are relatively low across the entire ACDH-11 sequence (Figure 5B). The ligand-free apo-structure of ACDH-11 displays the same conformation of Tyr 344 and Leu 159 (Figures S5C and S5D), further supporting the conclusion that the size of the binding cavity would not accommodate fatty acid carbon lengths longer than C12.

The structure reveals that strong binding of ACDH-11 to C11-CoA is mediated by at least ten hydrogen bond interactions (Figure 5A), including one between Ser267 and the 3’-phosphate on the CoA moiety; two between the side chain of Asn 331 and the N2 and N3 nitrogens of the adenine ring; two between the side chain of Arg 321 and the O4 and O5 oxygens in the adenosine 3’,5’-diphosphate group; two between the side chain of Arg 476 and the O9 and O10 oxygens of the pyrophosphate portion; two between the side chain of Arg334 and the O1 and O2 oxygens of the peptidyl portion; and one between the main chain of Ser215 and the N2 nitrogen of the peptidyl portion. We compared the structure of ACDH11 bound with C11-CoA with other structurally characterized ACDHs (SCAD, MCAD, and VLCAD) (Battaile et al., 2002; Kim et al., 1993; McAndrew et al., 2008) and found that ACDH-11 provides more hydrogen bonds (Figure S6) than other ACDHs and binds to the acyl chain via hydrophobic interactions that are defined by a deep binding pocket (Figure 5A).

Using isothermal titration calorimetry (ITC), we quantified the binding affinities of C12-CoA and C8, C10, C12 fatty acids (we tested these even number chain-fatty acids, since their synthetic forms are readily available) to purified ACDH-11. The ITC results (Figures 5C–5E) showed that the disassociation

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**Figure 4. Structure of ACDH-11 Showing Its Binding to the Fatty Acid C11-CoA**

(A) Surface representation of ACDH-11 tetramers showing a dimer of dimers: green-cyan and magenta-orange. For each subunit, the N-terminal loop and the L1’2 loop are shown to form the dimer-dimer interface.

(B) Ribbon representation of an ACDH-11 monomer showing four domains (α-domain 1, 2, 3, and β-domain).

(C) Surface representation of an ACDH-11 dimer with an enlarged view of the ligand-binding cavity bound to C11-CoA. FAD, the enzymatic co-factor present in the crystal, is also shown and labeled.

See also Figure S4 and Table S1.
constants for C10, C12, and C12-CoA binding to purified ACDH-11 are 21.3 ± 2.6 μM, 10.3 ± 2.4 μM, and 5.2 ± 1.3 μM, respectively, and no significant binding was detected for C8 (Figures S5G and S5H). These biochemical results demonstrate the selectivity of ACDH-11 for fatty acids with chain lengths from C10 to C12, fully consistent with our conclusions based on structural observations. We obtained the structure of the complex without having added any ligand supplement during crystal growth, as C11-CoA presumably was tightly sequestered by ACDH-11 during the step of protein expression in E. coli.

ACDH-11, C11/C12-Fatty Acids, and NHR-49 Act in a Pathway to Drive Heat Adaptation

The strong and selective binding of C11/C12-chain fatty acids to ACDH-11 indicated by the crystal structure of ACDH-11 could explain the functional specificity of ACDH-11 in regulating fat-7 expression and heat adaptation. Specifically, we hypothesize that heat-induced ACDH-11 sequesters intracellular C11/C12-chain fatty acids, which are required for activating nuclear fat-7 expression through fatty acid-regulated transcription factors.

To test this hypothesis, we examined whether supplementing C. elegans with exogenous fatty acids of various lengths could
stimulate fat-7 expression. We tested effects of a fatty acid series from C3 to C20 on the expression of Pfat-7::fat-7::GFP. At 25 °C, this reporter was turned off (Figure 6A). Most of the fatty acids had no significant effects on FAT-7::GFP expression. By contrast, C10, C11, and C12 activated reporter expression in markedly higher fractions of the animals (Figure 6A). The activity of C10 was lower than that of C11 and C12. fat-7 is a known transcriptional target of NHR-49 (Pathare et al., 2012; Van Gilst et al., 2003), a C. elegans homolog of the mammalian transcription factors PPARα and HNF4α, which are known to bind fatty acids, including C12 (Dhe-Paganon et al., 2002). We found that nhr-49 RNAi eliminated the effect of C11 or C12 in activating FAT-7::GFP (Figure 6B). nhr-49 RNAi or mutations also completely blocked overexpression of FAT-7::GFP in acdh-11 mutants (Figures 6B and S7A). NHR-49 shares high sequence identity (37% amino acid residues; Figures S7B and S7C) with HNF4α (Dhe-Paganon et al., 2002), suggesting that NHR-49 likely exhibits a fatty acid-binding pocket that can accommodate C11/C12 fatty acids. These results indicate that C11/C12 requires NHR-49 to activate fat-7 expression and that ACDH-11 sequesters C11/C12 fatty acids and thereby prevents them from activating nuclear fat-7 expression.

**DISCUSSION**

Based on our observations, we propose a model for how ACDH-11 regulates C. elegans heat adaptation (Figure 7). Under cold conditions (e.g., 15 °C), intracellular C11/C12 fatty acids promote fat-7 expression via fatty acid-regulated nuclear receptors (e.g., NHR-49). Upregulation of fat-7 promotes lipid desaturation and thus membrane fluidity, which is an adaptation to cold. As a PAQR-related transmembrane protein with a ceramidase or phospholipase-like domain (Pei et al., 2011), EGL-25 likely acts to increase levels of C11/C12 and hence promote signaling in cooperation with NHR-49 (Svensk et al., 2013) and other NHRs (Brock et al., 2006; Pathare et al., 2012) for cold adaptation. Our data suggest that intracellular C11/C12 fatty acids activate fat-7 expression via NHRs, which likely require lipid-transporting proteins to transduce C11/C12 fatty acid signals into the nucleus; however, we do not exclude the possibility that C11/C12 fatty acids might be further metabolized or processed to indirectly modulate NHR activation. In the cold, acdh-11 is expressed at low levels and has little or no function.

Under heat conditions (e.g., 25 °C), acdh-11 is transcriptionally upregulated, and elevated levels of the ACDH-11 protein sequester intracellular C11/C12, preventing downstream NHR activation and consequent fat-7 expression, thereby promoting lipid saturation and membrane rigidity in response to heat. Upstream sensors and mediators of this heat-induced acdh-11 upregulation remain to be identified. At high temperature, in both wild-type animals and egl-25 mutants C11/C12 is sequestered by ACDH-11, resulting in normal adaptation to heat. By contrast, in egl-25; acdh-11 double mutants as well as in acdh-11 single mutants, C11/C12 is not sequestered by ACDH-11, and its consequent higher levels drive fat-7 expression (although fat-7 expression requires NHR-49, our data do not preclude the possibility that ACDH-11 sequestration of C11/C12 also prevents the activation of other NHRs). The resulting membrane lipid desaturation causes excessive membrane fluidity and thus a failure to adapt to heat. The genetic epistatic interactions among egl-25, acdh-11, and nhr-49, the high penetration of their corresponding mutant phenotypes (Figures 1 and S7A) as well as mechanistic insights from the ACDH-11 structure together strongly support this model.

In both prokaryotic and eukaryotic cells, SCD fatty acid desaturases catalyze the limiting step of fatty acid desaturation and mediate HVA by maintaining optimal ranges of membrane fluidity in response to temperature shifts (Cossins and Prosser, 1978; de Mendoza, 2014; Flowers and Ntambi, 2008; Sinensky, 1974; Zhang and Rock, 2008). Bacterial two-component...
systems, which are not present in eukaryotes, link membrane sensing of temperature shifts to nuclear transcription of desaturase genes for HVA (Aguilar et al., 2001; de Mendoza, 2014). Eukaryotic organisms, including warm-blooded animals, also exhibit HVA (Anderson et al., 1981; Cossins and Prosser, 1978; Shmeeda et al., 2002), a phenomenon far less studied and understood than bacterial HVA. Unlike systemic thermoregulation, eukaryotic HVA likely evolved as a mechanism to locally and cell-autonomously respond to temperature shifts. Cold temperature upregulates the plasma levels of adiponectin in humans (Imbeault et al., 2009), although roles of adiponectin and its receptors in HVA have not been explored. C. elegans SCDs and adiponectin receptor homologs have been proposed to regulate cold adaptation (Svensk et al., 2013; Svensson et al., 2011). Our findings support this hypothesis and further identify functional roles of ACDH-11 and C11/C12 fatty acids in the egl-25 and fat-7 pathway to control HVA in C. elegans. Unlike long-chain fatty acids that are well-known to mediate various cell signaling processes, sequestration of medium-chain C11/C12 fatty acids by ACDH-11 represents an unprecedented mode of fatty acid signaling. The novel pathway and mechanisms we have discovered provide a molecular basis for homeoviscous heat adaptation in C. elegans, shedding light on a long-standing mystery concerning a fundamental cell biological problem.

Mutations in human ACDH genes cause disorders of fatty acid oxidation that become life-threatening under fever or hyperthermia (Jank et al., 2014; O’Reilly et al., 2004; Zolkipli et al., 2011), with responses that are analogous to the vulnerability of C. elegans acdh-11 mutants to heat. Although maintaining a sufficient diet is currently the standard-of-care management option to prevent symptoms of ACDH-deficiency in human patients, hyperthermia is a more significant independent risk factor than hypoglycemia (Rinaldo et al., 2002; Wolfe et al., 1993; Zolkipli et al., 2011). Our findings suggest that imbalance of lipid desaturation contributes to heat sensitivity of human ACDH-deficient patients and that therapeutic targeting of lipid desaturases might alleviate the thermo-sensitive syndrome of human ACDH-deficient patients. In addition, we found that ACDH-11 acts in a metabolic pathway to modulate activation of nuclear receptors by sequestering C11/C12 fatty acids, a plausibly widespread mechanism of controlling intracellular fatty acid signaling. Given that lipid metabolism and signaling are fundamentally similar between nematodes and other organisms (Ashrafi, 2007; Grevengoed et al., 2014; Holthuis and Menon, 2014; McKay et al., 2003; Nakamura and Nara, 2004; Srinivasan, 2015; Watts, 2009), we propose that the pathway and mechanisms we have
identified for *C. elegans* are evolutionarily conserved and modulate lipid metabolic homeostasis as well as thermal adaptation-associated physiological and pathological processes in other organisms, including humans.

**EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES**

**EMS Mutagenesis, Genetic Screens, and Whole-Genome Sequencing**

To screen for *egf-25* suppressors, we mutagenized *egf-25(n573) mutants carrying the *Pnes-3p:*fat-7::GFP transgene with ethyl methanesulfonate (EMS) and observed the F2 progeny using a dissecting microscope and GFP fluorescence at 20°C. We isolated suppressor mutants with restored expression of *Pnes-3p:*fat-7::GFP in *egf-25* mutants. We mapped the suppressor mutations using standard genetic techniques based on polymorphic SNPs between the Bristol strain N2 and the Hawaiian strain CB4856 (Davis et al., 2003). We used whole-genome sequencing to identify the mutations; data analyses were performed as described (Sarin et al., 2009).

**Mutations and Strains**

*C. elegans* strains were cultured as described (Brenner, 1974). The N2 Bristol strain (Brenner, 1974) was the reference wild-type strain, and the polymorphic Hawaiian strain CB4856 (Wicks et al., 2001) was used for genetic mapping and SNP analysis. Mutations used were as follows: LG I, nhr-49(n2041) (Van Gilist et al., 2005); LG III, *egf-25(n573), gk395168, ok3136* (Thompson et al., 2013; Trent et al., 1983); acdh-11(*n8655, n8567, n8561, n8576, n8577, n8578, n8579, n8580, gk73066); LG V, and act-3(*catgaagtgccagcagg; fat-7(n573, gk395168) and gk73066 (molecular null, causing an L119-to-amber stop codon) were obtained from the Million Mutation Project and outcrossed six times (Thompson et al., 2013).

Transgenic strains were generated by germline transformation (Mello et al., 1991). Transgenic constructs were co-injected (at 10–50 ng/μl) with mCherry reporters, and lines of mCherry-positive animals were established. Gamma irradiation was used to generate integrated transgenes. Transgenic strains used were as follows: nls590[Pnes-3p:*fat-7::GFP] (integrated from the extrachromosomal array wae15[Pnes-3p:*GFP + lin15(+)] (Brock et al., 2008); nls656[egf-25(+); Punc-54::mCherry]; nIs590[Pfat-7::GFP]; nIs616[egl-25(+); P unc-54::mCherry]; nIs590[Pfat-7::GFP + lin15(+)]; nIs656[egf-25(+); Punc-54::mCherry]; nIs677[Pact-3::GFP; P unc-54::mCherry]; nIs616[P fat-7::GFP]; nIs616[Pact-3::GFP + lin15(+); P unc-54::mCherry].

**Protein Purification, Structure Determination, Model Building, and Refinement**

Protein was expressed and purified as described (Li et al., 2010). Briefly, the acdh-11 gene was amplified and cloned into the expression vector pEXS-DH (derived from pET-22b, Novagen). 8xHis-tagged ACDH-11 was expressed in the *E. coli* strain BL21 (DE3) and isolated from the cell lysate by Ni2+-NTA affinity chromatography. ACDH-11 was further purified using ion exchange chromatography (Superdex 200 100/300 GL Column, GE Healthcare). For crystallization, ACDH-11 was concentrated to 12 mg/ml in 20 mM Tris pH 8.0, 150 mM NaCl. Large yellow crystals grew in 100 mM Tris pH 8.0, 200 mM magnesium formate, and 13% PEG 3350 through sitting-drop vapor diffusion at 16°C.

Immediately prior to data collection, the ACDH-11 crystal was quickly soaked in cryoprotectant solution (13% PEG 3350 and 20% glycerol) and flash-cooled at 100 K in a stream of nitrogen gas. The high-resolution diffraction data set for the complex structure was collected on beamline BL5A of the Photon Factory (KEK). The diffraction data set for the apo structure was collected on beamline BL17U of Shanghai Synchrotron Radiation Facility (SSRF). The structure of ACDH-11 was resolved by molecular replacement using the program Phaser (McCoy et al., 2007). ACDH-11 shares 30% sequence identity with *E. coli* AcdB (Bowles et al., 2008), and the refined coordinates of AcdB were used to construct the search model. The programs Coot (Emsley and Cowtan, 2004) and Refmac5 (Murshudov et al., 1997) were used for manual model building and refinement. The difference-Fourier map exhibited long and continuous electron densities corresponding to the FAD co-factor acyl-CoA. The length of acyl-chain was determined according to the electron density. C11-CoA was assigned because of its best RSCC (real space correlation coefficient, see Figures 5E and 5F). The statistics of data collection and structural refinement are summarized in Table S1.

The coordinates for the final refined model were deposited in the Protein Data Bank (PDB) with the accession number 4Y9J for the C11-CoA bound structure and 4Y9L for the C11-CoA free structure of ACDH-11.

**Isothermal Titration Calorimetry**

Isothermal titration calorimetry (ITC) measurements were performed with a MicroCal ITC-200 titration micro-calorimeter (GE Healthcare) at 25°C. The sample cell was filled with ACDH-11 (25 μM in 20 mM MES, pH 6.5, and 10% glycerol). ACDH-11 concentration was determined by the bicinchoninic acid (BCA) method. The free fatty acids C8, C10, C12 and C14, and C12-CoA (800 μM) prepared in the same buffer were injected into the sample cell in 2-min time intervals. Twenty injections in total were conducted within 40 min. The reaction solution contained 1% DMSO to increase the solubility of fatty acids. As negative control, the ligands were titrated into the buffer without ACDH-11 proteins. All experiments were repeated five times. The data were processed using the Origin software (Version 7.0).

**Gene Expression Analyses**

For qPCR and RNA-Seq experiments, total RNA from age-synchronized young adult (24 hr post-L4) hermaphrodites (200 in total, picked manually) was prepared using TissueRuptor and the RNeasy Mini kit (QIAGEN). Reverse transcription was performed by SuperScript III, and quantitative PCR was performed using Applied Biosystems Real-Time PCR Instruments. The specific intron-spanning primer sequences used were: act-3 forward: TCTCATCAGATGGCAGAT; act-3 reverse: TAGATCTCCTGAGTACAGC; fat-7 forward: ACGAGCTTGTTGCCATGCT; fat-7 reverse: AGCCCATCTAAGTAGTGTGTG; act-3 forward: TTGATCCATTGGTCCAGA; acdh-11 reverse: GGTGCTAGCTTGCTGTTCTC. RNA-seq was performed by the Illumina TruSeq chemistry, and data were analyzed using standard protocols (Trapnell et al., 2010).

Nomarski and GFP fluorescence images of anesthetized *C. elegans* were obtained using an Axioskop II (Zeiss) compound microscope and OpenLab software (Agilent). The fraction of FAT-7::GFP-positive animals observed was quantified by counting animals using a dissecting microscope equipped for the detection of GFP fluorescence.

**SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION**

Supplemental Information includes Supplemental Experimental Procedures, seven figures, and one table and can be found with this article online at http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2015.04.026.

**AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

H.R.H. supervised the project. D.K.M. initiated the project and with Z.L., A.L., H.R.H., F.S., S.C., M.R., and R.M. F.S. designed and performed the experiments. Z.L. solved the ACDH-11 structures. F.S. and Z.L. performed the structural analysis. All authors contributed to data analysis, interpretation, and manuscript preparation.

**ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

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adiponectin levels in men. Metabolism


Figure S1. Molecular Identification of egl-25, Related to Figure 1
(A) Speed graph of wild-type animals, showing the normal O2-ON response (Ma et al., 2012).
(B) Speed graph of egl-25(n573) mutants, showing a defective O2-ON response.
(C) Fractions of embryos of wild-type or egl-25(n573) mutants that developed to adulthood at 15°C, 20°C and 25°C. p < 0.01 (n = 20 for each of five independent experiments).
(D) Speed graph of egl-25(n573) mutants, showing the rescue of the defective O2-ON response by an egl-25(+) transgene.
(E) Egg-laying defect of egl-25(n573) animals and rescue by an integrated egl-25(+) transgene. Fractions of the developmental stages of eggs (Ringstad and Horvitz, 2008) laid by young adults carrying the mutations indicated are shown. Late-stage embryos indicate an egg-laying defect.
(F) Fluorescence and Nomarski micrographs of otherwise wild-type nls590 transgenic adults showing expression of Pfat-7::fat-7::GFP in the wild-type but not in egl-25(n573) mutants. Scale bar, 100 μm.
Figure S2. Conservation of Residues Disrupted by Three acdh-11 Mutations, Related to Figure 1

Shown are sequence alignments of ACDH-11 homologs from Escherichia coli (AidB), Drosophila melanogaster (CG7461), Danio rerio (Acadvl), Mus musculus (Acadvl) and Homo sapiens (ACADVL). For clarity, two regions of these homologs containing the disrupted amino acid residues (A) and (B) and the full alignment (C) are shown separately. The three shades of blue indicate the degree of amino acid identity (deep blue > 80%; blue > 60%; light blue > 40%). Arrows, two completely conserved residues disrupted in \( C. \) elegans by the \( \text{acdh-11} \) mutations indicated.
Figure S3. Altered Membrane Fluidity, but Not Sensitivity to Stresses Other Than Heat, in acdh-11 Mutants, Related to Figure 2

(A) Di-4-ANEPPDHQ fluorescence spectra of age-synchronized (24 hr post-L4) young adult C. elegans populations in M9 buffer indicating relative extents of membrane fluidity of the wild-type type (blue) and acdh-11 null mutants (red). p < 0.01 (n = 4 independent samples).

(B) Fractions of young adults (age-synchronized by bleaching, 24 hr post-L4) that survived high osmolality stress. Error bars, standard deviations (n = 20 for each of four independent experiments). Animals grown at 15°C were incubated in M9 buffer with 750 mM NaCl for indicated periods of time at 15°C. After 24 hr recovery, animals without pumping and that failed to respond to repeated touch were considered dead and counted for quantification.

(C) Fractions of young adults (age-synchronized by bleaching, 24 hr post-L4) that survived high oxidative stress. Error bars, standard deviations (n = 20 for each of four independent experiments). Animals grown at 15°C were incubated in M9 buffer with 300 mM Paraquat for indicated periods of time at 15°C. After 24 hr recovery, animals without pumping and that failed to respond to repeated touch were considered dead and counted for quantification.
Figure S4. ACDH-11 Tetramer Formation via N-Terminal Loop Interactions, Related to Figure 4

(A) Ribbon representations of ACDH-11 tetramer showing that the dimer of dimers assembles at the subunit interfaces through the N-terminal loop (LoopN) and the L1’2’ loop from each subunit. The loopN and L1’2’ loop are shown for subunit A (green). The other three subunits are indicated in cyan (B), magenta (C), and orange (D).

(B) Interactions of the loopN regions between subunit A (green) and subunit C (magenta) illustrate the six hydrogen bonds formed via the four residues Gln 26, Ser 28, Lys 31 and Thr 32.

(C) Ribbon-stick representation showing a hydrophobic core on the AB/CD interface, consisting of Trp 103 of the subunit A L1’2’ loop, eight residues of subunit D (orange) and two residues of subunit C (magenta), and the FAD cofactor in subunit C (yellow stick).

(D) Ball-stick representation showing hydrogen bonds along loopN regions that facilitate ACDH-11 tetramer assembly.

(E) Ribbon-ball-stick representation showing hydrophobic interaction along loopN regions that facilitate ACDH-11 tetramer assembly.
Figure S5. Further Structural Analysis of Fatty Acyl-CoA Binding to ACDH-11, Related to Figure 5

(A and B) The ligand (FAD and C11-CoA) binding sites of ACDH-11 with mFo-DFc maximum-likelihood omit map for the ligands bound to chain A (pink) and for the ligands bound to chain B (cyan). The mFo-DFc maximum-likelihood omit map was calculated by REFMAC5 (Murshudov et al., 1997).

(C and D) Surface renderings (inside, light gray; outside, dark gray) of the binding cavities in ACDH-11 in the absence (C, apo-structure) and presence of C11-CoA (D, holo-structure). Leu 159 and Tyr 344 in the apo-structure exhibit the same confirmation as that in the holo-structure, indicating the low mobility of these two residues.

(E and F) The real-space correlation coefficient (RSCC) of the ligand C11-CoA against the electron density map is plotted versus the atom number (E). The detailed atom information for every atom number is shown in (F). The RSCC was computed using Phenix (Adams et al., 2010). (E) Isothermal titration calorimetry (ITC) results show no ACDH-11 binding to C8 fatty acids. The profiles of the ITC binding data with the baseline subtracted are shown at the top. The peak-integrated and concentration-normalized enthalpy changes versus the molar ratios of ligands over ACDH-11 are plotted at the bottom. (F) ITC results for ACDH-11 binding to C12 fatty acids are shown for comparison.
Figure S6. Hydrogen Bond Interactions with Fatty Acid Substrates: ACDH-11 Compared with Other Structurally Characterized ACDHs, Related to Figure 5

Structures of SCAD (yellow) (Battaile et al., 2002), MCAD (cyan) (Kim et al., 1993) and VLCAD (orange) (McAndrew et al., 2008) show that the CoA moiety of the substrate is less hydrogen-bonded as the substrate carbon length increases. SCAD, MCAD, and VLCAD have 5, 4 and 1 hydrogen bond(s), respectively, whereas ACDH-11 forms 11 hydrogen bonds, much more strongly stabilizing its interaction with the C11-CoA ligand. The hydrogen bonds formed via Ser 215 and Arg 334 in ACDH-11 were also observed in SCAD and MCAD. The hydrogen bond formed via Ser 267 was observed only in MCAD. The six hydrogen bonds formed by Arg 321, Asn 331 and Arg 476 were not observed in other ACDHs.
Figure S7. Additional Evidence for a Role of NHR-49 in the EGL-25/ACDH-11 Pathway that Mediates C11/C12 Fatty Acid Signaling, Related to Figure 7

(A) Table showing fractions of animals (n = 500 for each genotype) expressing FAT-7::GFP at 20°C in strains of the genotypes indicated.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Genotype</th>
<th>Fraction of FAT-7::GFP animals</th>
<th>Number of total animal examined</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Wild type</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>egl-25</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>acdh-11</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nhr-49</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>egl-25; acdh-11</td>
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<tr>
<td>nhr-49; acdh-11</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(B) Local Similarity Plot showing the predicted similarity of NHR-49 to HNF4a at each of the aligned amino acid residues, generated by analysis using the SWISS-MODEL website [http://swissmodel.expasy.org/](http://swissmodel.expasy.org/).

(C) Alignment of NHR-49 and HNF4a showing 37% amino acid identity.
Supplemental Information

Acyl-CoA Dehydrogenase Drives Heat Adaptation by Sequestering Fatty Acids

Dengke K. Ma, Zhijie Li, Alice Y. Lu, Fang Sun, Sidi Chen, Michael Rothe, Ralph Menzel, Fei Sun, H. Robert Horvitz
Supplemental Experimental Procedures

Di-4-ANEPPDHQ Assay, Fatty Acid Supplementation, and Abundance Measurements by LC-MS

Approximately 500 (per experiment) age-synchronized young adult (24 hrs post-L4) hermaphrodites grown at 20°C were collected and washed three times with M9 buffer. Di-4-ANEPPDHQ (Life Technologies) was dissolved in water and added to C. elegans samples in 50 µl M9 buffer at a final concentration 10 µg/ml. After 3 hrs of staining with gentle shaking at 20°C, samples were washed with M9 buffer three times and the fluorescence of samples in liquid was immediately measured using a SpectraMax Microplate Reader (Molecular Devices) with excitation at 475 nm and an emission sweep from 520 nm to 720 nm.

Fatty acid salts (Nu-Chek Prep, Inc.) were thoroughly dissolved in M9 buffer at 10 mg/ml, and 250 µl of each was added to an OP50-seeded NGM plate with uniform spreading of the fatty acid solution. Once the plates briefly dried, age-synchronized L4 hermaphrodites (cultured at 25°C to minimize baseline GFP expression) carrying the otherwise wild-type nIs590 reporter were transferred to fatty acid-supplemented Petri plates. (We observed that several fatty acid salts were very toxic to C. elegans grown in liquid cultures and used Petri plates for this reason.) Animals were cultured at 25°C for 48 hrs before being examined with fluorescence microscopy. Endogenous levels of fatty acids were measured by LC-MS/MS, essentially as described (Ma et al., 2013).

Stress-Sensitivity Assays of C. elegans Adults

Age-synchronized young adult (24 hrs post-L4) hermaphrodites grown at 15°C were transferred to specified conditions of stress (37°C on NGM Petri plates, 300 mM Paraquat in M9 buffer, or 750 mM NaCl in M9 buffer) (Rodriguez et al., 2013) for times ranging from 1 hr to 7 hrs (stress conditions were used that caused death of most animals over this period). Animals
were then allowed to recover at 15°C on NGM Petri plates for 24 hrs. Animals without pumping and responses to repeated touch were considered dead and counted for quantification.

**Statistical Analyses**

Data were analyzed using GraphPad Prism Software and are presented as means ± standard deviations with p values calculated by the unpaired Student's t-test (comparisons between subjects) or one-way ANOVA (comparisons across more than two groups) and adjusted with the Bonferroni’s correction. At least four biological replicates were used. For the O2-ON response, one-sided unpaired t-tests were used to compare the mean speeds of all animals within 120 seconds before or after oxygen restoration (Ma et al., 2012). Fisher’s exact tests were used to analyze egg-laying behavioral data to compare the distributions of the six categories of embryos from the wild type and various mutants.
### Table S1. Crystallography Data Collection and Refinement Statistics, Related to Figure 4 and Experimental Procedures

#### Data collection

<table>
<thead>
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<th>ACDH-11 w/ C11-CoA</th>
<th>ACDH-11 w/o C11-CoA</th>
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<td><strong>Space group</strong></td>
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<td>C2</td>
</tr>
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<td><strong>Unit cell parameters (Å, °)</strong></td>
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<td><strong>Resolution range (Å)</strong></td>
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<td>50-2.27 (2.31-2.27)†</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Completeness (%)</strong></td>
<td>99.8 (100)†</td>
<td>98.9 (83.6)†</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Redundancy</strong></td>
<td>7.5 (7.3)†</td>
<td>7.2 (4.5)†</td>
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<td><strong>R_{merge}† (%)</strong></td>
<td>6.1 (78.0)†</td>
<td>11.0 (39.4)†</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Average I/σ (I)</strong></td>
<td>11.4 (2.2)†</td>
<td>11.6 (4.1)†</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total reflections</strong></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td><strong>Molecules per asymmetric unit</strong></td>
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#### Data Refinement

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<th>ACDH-11 w/o C11-CoA</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Resolution range</strong></td>
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<td>50-2.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>R_{work}/ R_{free} (%)††</strong></td>
<td>14.6 / 18.6</td>
<td>16.7 / 22.3</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>r.m.s.d. Bond lengths (Å)</strong></td>
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<td>0.017</td>
</tr>
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<td><strong>r.m.s.d. Bond angle ()</strong></td>
<td>1.972</td>
<td>1.817</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Average B-factors (Å²)</strong></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Protein</strong></td>
<td>53.1 / 51.9</td>
<td>42.8 / 48.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>FAD</strong></td>
<td>65.53 / 53.6</td>
<td>46.6 / 36.6</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Values in parentheses are for the highest resolution shell.

$\hat{R}_{\text{merge}} = \left| \sum_{hkl} \sum_j |I_j| - \langle I \rangle \right| / \sum_{hkl} \sum_j |I_j|$ where $\langle I \rangle$ is the mean intensity of $j$ observations of reflection $hkl$ and its symmetry equivalents.

$\hat{R}_{\text{work}} = \sum_{hkl} |F_{\text{obs}} - kF_{\text{calc}}| / \sum_{hkl} |F_{\text{obs}}|$ where $k$ is a scale factor, for 95% of reflections that were used in refinement. $R_{\text{free}} = R_{\text{work}}$ for 5% of reflections excluded from crystallographic refinement.

**Supplemental References**


