Paramyosin Polarity in the Thick Filament of Molluscan Smooth Muscles

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Paramyosin is the main structural component of the thick filament of molluscan smooth muscles. These filaments consist of a large paracrystalline core of paramyosin with myosin arranged on its surface. The detailed molecular packing of paramyosin in the core and the array of myosin on the surface of the paramyosin core remain unknown. An unsolved problem is the polarity of the paramyosin molecules within these thick filaments (i.e., it is not known whether the paramyosin molecules assemble with their NH₂-terminal ends pointing toward the center or toward the end of the thick filament). Here a method to distinguish between the NH₂- and the COOH-terminal ends of the paramyosin molecule by electron microscopy is described and used to determine their polarity in synthetic paracrystalline arrays. This method consists of labeling the cysteine residues of paramyosin molecules with the avidin–biotin system developed by Su-toh et al. (1984). Accordingly, the sulfhydryl groups of paramyosin—isolated from the anterior byssus retractor muscle (ABRM) of Mytilus edulis—were modified with maleimide–biotin, and the biotinylated thiols were visualized in the electron microscope after glycerol spraying/rotary metal shadowing by attaching monomeric avidin to them. Avidin–biotin labeling of the native molecule and its carboxypeptidase fragments revealed that ABRM paramyosin contains one pair of cysteine at its NH₂-terminal end and one pair at ~30 nm from its COOH-terminal end. Synthetic paracrystalline arrays of paramyosin with known axial arrangement were also labeled with the avidin–biotin system. The location of the bound avidin in these paracrystals indicated the polarity of paramyosin in these arrays. The polarity was also determined by comparison of the transverse band-like staining pattern of paracrystals of α-paramyosin (intact protein) and β-paramyosin (a proteolytically cleaved α-paramyosin that has lost a small segment at its COOH-terminal end). Both methods revealed that paramyosin assemblies with its NH₂-terminal end pointing toward the center of the paracrystals. The implications of this result for the polarity of paramyosin in the native filament core, and for the arrangement of myosin on the surface of molluscan thick filaments, are discussed.


INTRODUCTION

The thick filaments of invertebrate muscles contain, in addition to myosin, the protein paramyosin, a rod-like coiled-coil molecule similar to the myosin rod (Cohen and Holmes, 1963; Lowey et al., 1963; Kagawa et al., 1989). In contrast to the uniformity observed in vertebrate thick filaments, the thick filaments from invertebrate muscles exhibit considerable variation both in their size and structural organization. This variation seems to be directly related to the content of paramyosin which varies greatly among species and muscle types (reviewed by Bennett and Elliott, 1987). In the smooth adductor muscle of mussels, where the molar ratio of paramyosin to myosin is three or more (Szent-Györgyi et al., 1971; Levine et al., 1976), the thick filaments are extremely large (up to 100 μm in length and 200 nm in diameter), and paramyosin forms a large paracrystalline core with myosin on the surface (Szent-Györgyi et al., 1971; Nonomura, 1974). In contrast, the thick filaments from one of the fastest invertebrate striated muscles are just 1.8 μm long and contain only a small amount of paramyosin (molar ratio of paramyosin to myosin ≤0.1) which is not assembled in a central core but integrated into the myosin subfilaments (Castellani and Vibert, 1992). Between these two extremes, there are intermediate cases where paramyosin forms a relatively small core which does not exhibit the paracrystalline order present in molluscan smooth muscles. Examples include: (i) the telson muscle of Limulus (molar ratio of paramyosin to myosin = 0.5), with ~5-μm-long thick filaments and a small core of paramyosin that does not exhibit any axial repeat (Levine et al., 1982, 1988) and (ii) the thick filaments from the body wall muscle of the
nematode Caenorhabditis elegans (molar ratio of paramyosin to myosin = 1), which contain a small paramyosin core that does not exhibit the nodal paracrystalline structure seen in mollusces (see below) but reveals a pronounced axial periodicity of 72.5 nm (Deitiker and Epstein, 1993). In these latter muscles, the core of the thick filaments also contains several additional proteins (Epstein et al., 1988; Deitiker and Epstein, 1993).

The molecular packing of paramyosin in the core and the myosin–paramyosin assembly in invertebrate thick filaments have not yet been determined. In the thick filaments of striated invertebrate muscles with only a small amount of paramyosin, the efforts have been focused on determining the structural organization of the myosin moiety (see Knesler and Levine, 1982; Vibert and Craig, 1983; Crowther et al., 1985). In molluscan smooth muscles where paramyosin exhibits the highest level of organization, some models for the molecular packing of paramyosin have been proposed (reviewed by Bennett and Elliott, 1987). In these muscles, paramyosin forms a highly paracrystalline core which reveals a distinctive “checkerboard” pattern of dark-stained nodes when negatively stained samples are visualized in the electron microscope (EM) (Hall et al., 1945; Szent-Györgyi et al., 1971; Nonomura, 1974). This pattern was also inferred from X-ray diffraction patterns of whole adductor muscle and was termed the “Bear–Selby net” (Bear and Selby, 1956). The nodal pattern of the native paramyosin core can be described in terms of a rectangular unit cell, 72.5 nm long and ~30 nm wide, with five equivalent nodes (Bear–Selby nodes) that are axially staggered by 29 nm (i.e., ½ × 72.5 nm). How paramyosin assemblies to form such a paracrystalline array has remained elusive.

The finding by Cohen et al. (1971) that purified paramyosin could form in vitro paracrystalline arrays with the same axial periodicity as that observed with the native paramyosin core helped to explain the Bear–Selby net. Provided that the protein has been solubilized in urea and/or KSCN, paramyosin forms a variety of paracrystalline arrays in the presence of divergent cations. These paracrystals exhibit different bright–dark transverse banding patterns when negatively stained samples are examined in the EM (Cohen et al., 1971), but all of them reveal an axial periodicity of 72.5 nm. The simplest banding pattern, called the P1 array, consists of ~52.5-nm-wide bright staining bands separated by ~20-nm-wide dark band. Cohen et al. (1971) interpreted these staining patterns in terms of an axial gap/overlap arrangement of paramyosin molecules. Accordingly, the dark regions represent gap areas where stain can penetrate, and the bright regions represent the overlap areas from where stain is excluded. The same authors further demonstrated that the P1 paracrystal is the basic array which accounts for the other in vitro paracrystalline forms and for the Bear–Selby net of the native thick filaments. The paramyosin core was pictured by Cohen et al. (1971) to be made up of subfilaments corresponding to the P1 array. Axial displacement of subfilaments by 29 nm thus produces the Bear–Selby net. Therefore, the nodes of the Bear–Selby net correspond to the dark regions of the P1 array, and they represent the gap regions between the ends of adjacent paramyosin molecules. Based on these findings, Elliott and Bennett (1984) proposed a model for the packing of paramyosin in the thick filament consisting of stacked layers of molecules each having the two-dimensional structure of the Bear–Selby net. This model is supported by the following observations: (i) 3-D reconstruction of tilted thick filaments revealed that the stain in the Bear–Selby nodes extended like bars throughout the depth of the filament (Dover and Elliott, 1979); and (ii) transverse sections of molluscan muscles revealed a striped pattern on the thick filaments (Elliott, 1964; Bennett and Elliott, 1981). These results indicate that the native paramyosin core has a crystal-like structure. It is difficult, however, to understand how a filament with cylindrical geometry (i.e., revealed by round cross sections and tapered ends) could comprise a single crystal. Thus, it has remained elusive how paramyosin is packed in the core of the thick filament of molluscan smooth muscles.

The arrangement of myosin on the paramyosin core of molluscan thick filaments is another unsolved problem that has been difficult to resolve because the myosin tends to disassemble during EM preparation of the thick filaments (Nonomura, 1974). However, models in which myosin forms a uniform layer one (Cohen, 1982) or two (Squire, 1973) molecules thick have been proposed. In these models, it is assumed that the arrangement of the myosin molecules on the surface of the paracrystalline paramyosin core is governed by the packing of the paramyosin molecules. However, Castellani et al. (1983) found that in the pedal retractor muscle of Mytilus edulis (molar ratio paramyosin to myosin = 1), the myosin molecules are helically arrayed on the surface of the nodal paramyosin core with no evident relationship between the two arrays.

One basic aspect of the molecular packing within the native paramyosin core that remains to be resolved is the polarity of the molecule. Specifically, it is not known whether the paramyosin molecules assemble with their NH₂-terminal ends pointing toward the center or toward the end of the filament. Since myosin in the thick filament assembles in a bipolar fashion with the NH₂-terminal ends (i.e., the myosin heads of the molecules) pointing toward the
end of the filament, it is expected that paramyosin forms a bipolar core. This bipolarity is revealed by the polarity of the Bear–Selby nodes: they have a roughly triangular shape with one vertex pointing toward the center of the filament (Szent-Györgyi et al., 1971). This orientation has been reported to be the same in different species (Bennett and Elliott, 1984).

**In vitro**, paramyosin self-assembles into both polar and bipolar paracrystals (Cohen et al., 1971). Some information about the polarity of paramyosin within these paracrystals has been obtained by Weisel (1975). He compared *in vitro* formed paracrystalline arrays of earthworm paramyosin with those of the carboxypeptidase-treated molecule and found that the central regions of both intact and digested paramyosin paracrystals revealed the same staining pattern. He concluded that the central region of these paracrystals represents an overlap between the NH₂-terminal ends of the molecules and that paramyosin assembles with this end pointing toward the center of the paracrystal. Presumably, paramyosin assumes the same orientation in the thick filament, i.e., the NH₂-terminal end pointing toward the center of the filament. This orientation for the paramyosin molecule would imply that in the native thick filament myosin and paramyosin would assemble in an antiparallel fashion, where the NH₂-terminal end of paramyosin interacts with the COOH-terminal end of myosin. However, Kagawa et al. (1989), using results from electrostatic interactions between the amino acid sequence of paramyosin and that of the myosin rod from *C. elegans*, found that parallel assemblies between these two molecules are favored by interactions between charge clusters spaced periodically in both sequences. Based on these results, these authors proposed a model for the arrangement of myosin and paramyosin in the native thick filament in which the COOH-terminal end of paramyosin points toward the center of the filament, an orientation opposite to that found in synthetic paracrystalline arrays of paramyosin (Weisel, 1975). Thus, the polarity of paramyosin in the native thick filament has remained elusive.

In the present study, the avidin–biotin system developed by Sutoh et al. (1984) was used to distinguish between the NH₂- and the COOH-terminal end of paramyosin by EM. This method was used to determine the polarity of paramyosin in paracrystalline arrays. The polarity was also determined by comparing the transverse band-like staining pattern of paracrystals of α-paramyosin (the native molecule) with those of β-paramyosin (a proteolytically cleaved α-paramyosin that has lost a small segment of the COOH-terminal end). The results of both studies reveal that paramyosin assembles with the NH₂-terminal end pointing toward the center of the filament, thus being consistent with the earlier finding by Weisel (1975).

**Materials and Methods**

Live *M. edulis* mussels were obtained from local fish markets. All chemicals used were of analytical grade. Avidin, carboxypeptidase A (DFF-treated), carboxypeptidase G, trypsin, maleimide-biotin, the Ellman reagent (5,5'-dithio-bis(2-nitrobenzoic acid); DTNB), and the protease inhibitors (leupeptin, pepstatin A, phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride (PMSF), tosyllysine chloromethyl ketone (TPCK), and soybean trypsin inhibitor) were obtained from Sigma (St. Louis, MO). DEAE-Sephadex was from Pharmacia (Uppsala, Sweden). All procedures were performed at 4°C unless otherwise stated.

**Paramyosin Preparation**

α-Paramyosin (the native form) was prepared from the anterior byssus retractor muscle (ABRM) of *M. edulis* by the ethanol precipitation method of Johnson et al. (1959), with the modification introduced by Stafford and Yphantis (1972), followed by ion exchange chromatography on DEAE-Sephadex. Briefly, freshly dissected muscles were homogenized in EDTA–wash buffer (40 mM NaCl, 10 mM EDTA, 3 mM Na₃B₄O₇, 0.1 mM PMSF, 0.1 mM DTT, 1 μg/ml leupeptin, 1 μg/ml pepstatin A, 10 mM sodium phosphate, pH 7.0) with a Sorvall omnimixer and washed three times in the same buffer. Paramyosin was extracted from this homogenate with high-salt buffer (0.6 M NaCl, 10 mM EDTA, 3 mM Na₃B₄O₇, 1 mM DTT, 5 mM sodium phosphate, pH 7.6). Three volumes of 95% ethanol containing 1 mM DTT were added to the soluble extract, and the precipitated paramyosin and denatured acmyosin were collected by centrifugation (10 000g for 20 min). The pellet was resuspended in high-salt buffer and dialyzed overnight at 4°C against the same buffer. Soluble proteins (i.e., the supernatant after centrifugation at 10 000g for 20 min) were dialyzed against low-salt buffer (40 mM NaCl, 10 mM EDTA, 3 mM Na₃B₄O₇, 1 mM DTT, 5 mM sodium phosphate, pH 6.0) and washed three times in the same buffer to remove tropomyosin. The precipitate of crude paramyosin was resuspended in a small volume of high-salt buffer and clarified by centrifugation at 50 000g for 1 hr.

By gel electrophoresis (SDS–PAGE) this preparation was found to contain a contaminant of 110 kDa (i.e., a degradation product of myosin; Castellani et al., 1986). To remove this contaminant, a batch method involving ion exchange chromatography on DEAE-Sephadex was developed. The paramyosin preparation was incubated with DEAE-Sephadex in 40 mM sodium pyrophosphate, 10 mM NaCl, 10 mM EDTA, pH 7.8, for 20 min. Under these conditions, the contaminant bound to the DEAE-Sephadex while the paramyosin remained in solution. The pure paramyosin was then separated by centrifugation (18 000 rpm for 20 min). The paramyosin was concentrated by dialysis in low-salt buffer, centrifuged and resuspended in high-salt buffer. This paramyosin could be stored for a few days on ice. For long-term storage, the protein was dialyzed against 0.6 M ammonium bicarbonate, pH 7.6, 1% sucrose and lyophilized.

All buffers used during the purification procedure contained 10 mM EDTA and leupeptin and pepstatin A at 1 μg/ml in order to minimize degradation of native α-paramyosin. β-Paramyosin (proteolytically cleaved α-paramyosin that has lost a segment of the COOH-terminal end; Yeung and Cowgill, 1976) was prepared by the same method but the extraction of the myofibrils and the ethanol precipitation were done at room temperature and the buffers used did not contain EDTA or proteolytic inhibitors (Stafford and Yphantis, 1972).

**Carboxypeptidase Digestion**

α-Paramyosin at 2 mg/ml in 0.6 M NaCl, 50 mM Tris–Cl, pH 8.0, was treated with 1% carboxypeptidase A (DFF-treated) or
carboxypeptidase G dissolved in the same buffer and containing 0.1 mM PMSF, 0.1 mM TLCK, 0.1 mM TPCK, 10 μg/ml soybean trypsin inhibitor, 1 μg/ml leupeptin, and 1 μg/ml pepstatin A in order to inhibit any contaminant proteases. The reaction was carried out at 0, 25, or 32°C for 2 to 4 hr. Aliquots were removed after 2, 4, 8, 12, 24, and 48 hr of incubation, and the digestion was terminated by adding 10 mM EDTA. The samples were then analyzed on 8% SDS–polyacrylamide gels.

Paracrystal Preparation

Paracrystals of α- and β-paramyosin were produced by the procedure described by Cohen et al. (1971) which required the presence of 50 mM divalent cations as a precipitating agent. Paramyosin at 2 mg/ml in high-salt buffer (see above) was dialyzed first against dispersing buffer (i.e., 1 M urea or 100 mM KSCN, 50 mM Tris–Cl, pH 8.0) and then against precipitating buffer (i.e., 50 mM MgCl₂, 20 mM CaCl₂, or CaCl₃, 50 mM Tris–Cl, pH 8.0). In addition, spermine was also used as a precipitating agent (Phillips et al., 1987). In this case, paramyosin at 2 mg/ml was first dialyzed against 0.2 mM spermine, 50 mM Tris–Cl, pH 8.0, a condition which rendered paramyosin soluble, and then against 50 mM spermine, 50 mM Tris–Cl, pH 8.0.

Determination of SH (Sulphydryl) Groups

The number of sulphydryl groups was determined using DTNB by the Ellman method (Ellman, 1959). α-Paramyosin in 8 M urea, 50 mM Tris–Cl, pH 8.0, was mixed with a 10-fold excess of DTNB. The reaction was set up in matched cuvettes containing equal concentrations of DTNB, and A₄₁₂ was measured. The number of SH groups per paramyosin molecule was calculated using the molar extinction coefficient of DTNB of 13 600 M⁻¹ cm⁻¹ (Ellman, 1959).

Avidin–Biotin Labeling

α-Paramyosin and carboxypeptidase (A and G) fragments of paramyosin were avidin–biotin labeled by the method developed by Sutoh et al. (1984). The protein samples in high-salt buffer (0.6 M NaCl, 10 mM sodium phosphate, pH 7.6) were first incubated with 10 mM DTT for 2 hr in order to reduce the thiol groups and then dialyzed against 6 hr against high-salt buffer containing 0.01 mM DTT in order to eliminate the excess of DTT. The reduced samples were then mixed with maleimide–biotin (dissolved in DMSO) at a molar ratio of 1:21 (i.e., mal–biotin per total SH groups). After overnight incubation at 4°C, the biotinylated protein was dialyzed against high-salt buffer to eliminate excess reagent. Avidin, dissolved in high-salt buffer (see above), was added to the sample at a molar ratio of 1:1 (avidin per total SH groups).

After incubating at 0°C for 4 hr, the avidin–protein complex was examined in the electron microscope (EM) using glycerol spraying/rotary metal shadowing (see below).

Paracrystals of ABRM α-paramyosin were also labeled by this method. In this case, the paracrystals were kept in the precipitating buffer where all the reactions were carried out. The avidin-biotinylated paracrystals were examined in the EM after negative staining (see below).

Isolation of Native Thick Filaments and Preparation of Paramyosin Core

Thick filaments from ABRM were isolated by the method described by Castellani et al. (1983). Briefly, freshly dissected ABRM muscles were chemically skinned in a solution containing 50 mM NaCl, 5 mM MgCl₂, 0.5 mM EGTA, 5 mM ATP, 20 mM Mes, pH 7.0, 0.1% saponin for 3 hr. The muscles were then washed in the same solution without saponin and gently homogenized in the same buffer containing 1 mM ATP. A drop of the filament suspension was placed on a carbon coated copper grid for 5 min and negatively stained (see below). Paramyosin cores were prepared by the procedure described by Szent-Györgyi et al. (1971) as follows: after adsorption of freshly isolated thick filaments on an EM grid, the grid was rinsed with a solution containing 0.4 M NaCl, 5 mM MgCl₂, 1 mM ATP, 20 mM Mes, pH 6.0, before being negatively stained.

SDS–PAGE and Protein Concentration

SDS–polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS–PAGE) was performed as described by Laemmli (1970) on either 8 or 5% polyacrylamide gels. The gels were stained with Coomassie brilliant blue R-250. Protein concentrations were determined either by the Lowry method (Lowry et al., 1951) or by the Bradford colorimetric method (Bradford, 1976).

Electron Microscopy

Negative staining. A drop of the paracrystal suspension was adsorbed for 60 sec to a carbon-coated 400-mesh-per-inch copper EM grid. Next the grid was washed with the sample buffer (i.e., the same buffer in which the paracrystals were formed) before being stained with 1% aqueous uranyl acetate.

Glycerol spraying/rotary metal shadowing. Samples were diluted into 0.45 M ammonium acetate containing 70% glycerol and sprayed at room temperature onto freshly cleaved mica according to the method of Shotton et al. (1979). The mica was then placed in an Edwards evaporator and rotary-shadowed with platinum/carbon at an elevation angle of 6°. Electron micrographs were recorded using either a Philips EM301 or a Philips EM420 electron microscope operated at 80 kV. The magnification was calibrated using negatively stained troponymosin paracrystals having an axial repeat of 39.5 nm (Caspar et al., 1969).

RESULTS

Characterization of ABRM Paramyosin

When isolating paramyosin from the ABRM of M. edulis by standard procedures (Hodge, 1952; Johnson et al., 1959; Szent-Györgyi et al., 1971), a 110-kDa contaminant (which can account for up to 50% of the preparation) was always present (see Fig. 1a, lane 2). This contaminant has previously been identified as a degradation product of myosin which contains the myosin rod domain (Castellani et al., 1988). Hence, the 110-kDa contaminant is also a rod-like molecule with a length very close to that of paramyosin, which could represent a problem in the localization of the SH groups of paramyosin by EM (see below). Therefore, the first step in this investigation was to develop a purification procedure of ABRM paramyosin which eliminates this contaminant. The myosin–rod contaminant was removed by ion exchange chromatography using a batch method with DEAE-Sephadex (see Materials and Methods). ABRM paramyosin obtained by this procedure migrates as a single band with an apparent molecular weight of 100 kDa by SDS–PAGE (Fig. 1a, lane 3). As illustrated in Fig. 1b, when ABRM paramyosin isolated by this method was visualized in the EM after glycerol spraying/rotary metal shadowing, it appears as a rod-like molecule with a contour length of 124.0 ± 1.2 nm (mean ± SD).

Like paramyosin from other species, ABRM
paramyosin also forms a variety of \textit{in vitro} paracrystalline arrays upon dialysis of the urea or KSCN solubilized protein into a buffer containing 50 mM divalent cations (Mg$^{2+}$ or Ca$^{2+}$ or Ba$^{2+}$). As illustrated in Figs. 1c to 1f, when viewed in the EM after negative staining, these paracrystals were extremely long (>2 \mu m) and exhibited different bright–dark transverse banding patterns with an axial periodicity of either 14.5 nm (Figs. 1d and 1e) or 72.5 nm (Figs. 1c and 1f). The most common paracrystal form obtained exhibited the characteristic P1 band pattern (Cohen \textit{et al}., 1971), which, as illustrated in Fig. 1c, consist of ~52.5-nm-wide bright bands separated by an ~20-nm-wide dark band. Some times the paracrystals induced by divalent cations shown some features of the Bear–Selby net of the native thick filament. For example, the paracrystal shown in Fig. 1e exhibited a nodal pattern at its right edges. Similarly, as documented in Fig. 1f, some of the P1 paracrystals shown P1 subfilaments staggered by 29 nm as in the Bear–Selby net.

When 50 mM divalent cations were used to induce paracrystal formation, different paracrystal forms were obtained which coexisted even within the same preparation. This paracrystal polymorphism was reduced when spermine was used as the precipitating agent. In this case, predominantly bipolar P1 paracrystals were obtained. As documented in Fig. 1g, these paracrystals exhibited a central 43-nm-wide bright band (see Fig. 1g, arrowhead) where the staining pattern changes its polarity as indicated by the position of the fine stain lines in the bright/overlap region (see Fig. 1g, arrows). In contrast to
the paracrystals induced by divalent cations which became extremely long (>2 μm), the spermine paracrystals were only up to 1 μm long.

Localization of Cysteines in the ABRM Paromyosin Molecule

To distinguish the NH₂- from the COOH-terminal end of paromyosin by EM, the avidin–biotin system developed by Sutoh et al. (1984) was combined with proteolytic digestion of paromyosin. First, the number of sulphydryl groups was determined by the Ellman method (Ellman, 1959). This method revealed that the ABRM paromyosin molecule contains four cysteine residues, i.e., two per chain. The SH groups of ABRM paromyosin were covalently bound to maleimide–biotin (a thiol-specific reagent containing biotin; Bayer et al., 1985), and the biotinylated protein was subsequently tagged with monomeric avidin (dimensions 5.5 nm × 5.5 nm × 4.1 nm; Green et al., 1971). As illustrated in Fig. 2a, when this preparation was visualized in the EM after glycerol spraying/rotary metal shadowing, the paromyosin molecules were labeled with avidin at two distinct sites: (i) at one end of the molecule (see Fig. 2a, arrowheads; and first and third row in Fig. 2b) and (ii) at about 30 nm from the other end (see Fig. 2a, arrows; and second and third row in Fig. 2b). The first type of label was always more frequent (up to 80% of the labeled molecules) than the second one (5 to 20% of the labeled molecules), indicating different reactivities of the two SH groups.

To identify the two avidin–biotin binding sites of ABRM paromyosin in relation to the NH₂- and the COOH-terminal ends of the molecule, paromyosin fragments were produced by carboxypeptidase digestion and labeled with the avidin–biotin system. To obtain paromyosin fragments that could be clearly distinguished from the intact molecule by EM, several digestion conditions were explored. Under mild conditions, (i.e., at 0°C, neutral pH, and incubation times <12 hr), paromyosin treated with either 1% carboxypeptidase G or carboxypeptidase A revealed no significant decrease in molecular weight by SDS–PAGE. However, as documented in Fig. 3a, when the digestion was done with 1% carboxypeptidase G at 32°C in a high-ionic-strength buffer (i.e., 0.6 M NaCl, 50 mM Tris–Cl, pH 8.0), ABRM paromyosin was progressively cleaved to a 93-kDa fragment (termed CPG93), and after 48 hr of digestion only this fragment was present (see Fig. 3a, lane 5). This condition (i.e., digestion with 1% carboxypeptidase G at 32°C for 48 hr, in 0.6 M NaCl, 50 mM Tris–Cl, pH 8.0) was chosen to produce CPG93 on a preparative scale. When examined at the EM after glycerol spraying/rotary metal shadowing, this fragment had a length of 110.0 ± 1.2 nm (mean ± SD) (see Table I). Similarly, when paromyosin was digested with 1% carboxypeptidase A at 25°C in the high-ionic-strength buffer (see above), two bands with molecular weights of 85 and 79 kDa (CPA85 and CPA79) started to appear on the SDS–PAGE after 8 hr of digestion. As the digestion proceeded, the native paromyosin was progressively cleaved into these two fragments, and after 24 hr of digestion only these two bands were left by SDS–PAGE (see Fig. 3a, lane 6). Hence, bulk preparation of CPA85 and CPA79 was performed by digestion of ABRM paromyosin with 1% carboxypeptidase A at 25°C for 24 hr. Due to the close similarity of their molecular weights these two fragments were difficult to separate; however, they could be distinguished in the EM by their length. When this preparation was observed in the EM after glycerol spraying/rotary metal shadowing, ~40% of the molecules had a length of 100.0 ± 1.0 nm (mean ± SD) and ~60% were 90.0 ± 1.0 nm (mean ± SD) in length (see Fig. 3b and Table I).

As illustrated in Fig. 3c, when CPG93, CPA85, and CPA79 were labeled with the avidin–biotin system and visualized in the EM after glycerol spraying/rotary metal shadowing avidin was found associated with one end of the molecule. In some cases CPG93 and CPA85 also revealed a second avidin label very close to the other end of the molecule (see Fig. 3b, arrow; and second row in Fig. 3c). As with the paromyosin molecule (see above and Fig. 2) the second type of labeling was observed less frequently (<10% of the labeled molecules). Taken together,
these results suggested that the cysteine residues of ABRM paramyosin are located pair wise at the NH₂-terminal end of the molecule and at ~30 nm from the COOH-terminal end (see Fig. 3d).

**Avidin–Biotin Labeling of Paramyosin Paracrystals**

To determine the polarity of paramyosin in *in vitro* assembled paracrystalline arrays, bipolar P1 paracrystals obtained using spermine as the precipitating agent were labeled with the avidin–biotin system and visualized in the EM after negative staining. As illustrated in Fig. 4, avidin–biotin-labeled paracrystals showed marked changes in their staining pattern, which were more pronounced at the ends of the paracrystals probably due to the fact that the paracrystals are tapered at the ends. As the paramyosin paracrystals, depending on the crystallization conditions employed, are highly polymorphic (Cohen *et al.*., 1971), it could be argued that this new staining pattern simply represented a new paracrystal form. However, since spermine-induced paracrystals were used which are less polymorphic, and since all the reactions (i.e., reduction of SH groups, biotinylation, and avidin binding) were performed in the spermine buffer used to form the paracrystals, the changes in the staining pattern of these paracrystals are probably due to the binding of avidin to the paracrystals. In support of this conclusion, the new staining pattern was not observed even after biotinylation of the paracrystals.

As documented in Figs. 5b and 5d, compared with unlabeled controls, the avidin–biotin-labeled paracrystals exhibited: (i) narrowed dark/gap re-
regions at the end of the paracrystal (see Fig. 5d) and (ii) two additional narrow (~5-nm-wide) dark bands in the overlap region surrounding a ~8-nm-wide stain excluding band (see Figs. 4 and 5d, arrowheads) which is centered at ~30 nm from the left edge of the dark/gap region (left side of the dark/gap region in Fig. 5d). These changes in the staining pattern of the paracrystals can be explained by the association of avidin with the two cysteine residues of paramyosin. Since avidin binds to the NH$_2$-terminal end of the paramyosin molecule (see above and Fig. 2), and since the dark bands of the P1 paracrystal are gaps between the ends of the molecules where stain accumulates, the width of the dark bands is expected to decrease when avidin (which
excludes stain) binds to the paracrystal. Similarly, the new 8-nm bright band located at 30 nm from the left edge of the dark/gap region (see Fig. 5d, arrowheads) can be interpreted to represent the bound avidin at 30 nm from the COOH-terminal end of paramyosin. In this case, the bound avidin (which excludes stain) is surrounded by dark regions where stain accumulates on either side of the bound avidin. These interpretations suggest that the left edge of the dark/gap region represents the COOH-terminal end of paramyosin which is therefore pointing toward the end of the paracrystal.

As documented in Figs. 5c and 5e, drawing of the expected appearance of the P1 paracrystal for the two possible orientations of paramyosin when the molecule is labeled with avidin can explain the changes observed in the avidin-labeled paracrystal. Accordingly, if the NH$_2$-terminal end of paramyosin points toward the center of the paracrystal (Fig. 5c), the avidin is expected to bind (i) at the right edge of the dark/gap regions (right side of the black bands in Fig. 5c) and (ii) at 30 nm from the left edge of the dark/gap regions (left side of the black bands in Fig. 5c). On the other hand, if the NH$_2$-terminal end of paramyosin points toward the end of the paracrystal (Fig. 5e), the avidin would bind (i) at the left edge of the dark/gap regions (left side of the black bands in Fig. 5e), and (ii) at 30 nm from the right edge of the dark/gap regions (right side of the black bands in Fig. 5e). The labeling patterns of the avidin-conjugated paracrystals (Figs. 4 and 5d) are consistent with the labeling expected if the NH$_2$-terminal end of paramyosin points toward the center of the paracrystal (Fig. 5c).

**Comparison of α- and β-Paramyosin Paracrystals also Revealed the Polarity of Paramyosin**

An alternative method was used to verify the polarity of paramyosin in the bipolar P1 paracrystals. It consists of comparing the band pattern of paracrystals assembled from proteolytically cleaved paramyosin with those made of the intact molecule. Since attempts to form paracrystals of the carboxypeptidase fragments of ABRM α-paramyosin (i.e., CPG99, CPA85, and CPA79) were unsuccessful, β-paramyosin (a proteolytically cleaved α-paramyosin that has lost a small region at the COOH-terminal end; Yeung and Cowgill, 1976) was isolated from ABRM. As illustrated in Fig. 6a, ABRM β-paramyosin was only by ~4 kDa smaller than the native molecule. In contrast to the carboxypeptidase fragments of α-paramyosin, β-paramyosin readily formed P1 paracrystals (Figs. 6b and 6c). At first glance, the band pattern of the P1 paracrystals made from β-paramyosin looks similar to that of the α-paramyosin paracrystals: compare for example the α-paramyosin paracrystal in Fig. 1c with the β-paramyosin paracrystals in Figs. 6b and 6c. However, more careful inspection of their band patterns revealed some subtle differences at the edges of the dark bands. As illustrated in Fig. 6d, in the P1 paracrystals made from α-paramyosin the two edges of the dark bands look different: the edge facing the end of the paracrystal (i.e., the right edge of the dark bands in Fig. 6d) is sharp, whereas the edge facing the center of the paracrystal (i.e., the left edge of the dark bands in Fig. 6d) appears fuzzy. In contrast, as documented in Fig. 6e, in the β-paramyosin paracrystals both edges of the dark band appear sharp. Thus the fuzzy edge (i.e., the left edge of the dark band in Fig. 6d) of the α-paramyosin paracrystal becomes sharp in the β-paramyosin paracrystal (Fig. 6e). Taken together, these results suggest that the fuzzy edge facing the end of the α-paramyosin paracrystal represents the COOH-terminal end of paramyosin, which is pointing toward the end of the paracrystal. Thus, this result confirms the polarity of paramyosin determined using the avidin–biotin system (see above).

**Native Thick Filaments and Paramyosin Core from ABRM**

As illustrated in Fig. 7a, when examined in the EM after negative staining, thick filaments isolated form the ABRM of *M. edulis* are extremely large, up to 20 μm in length and ~150 nm in diameter, and revealed a transverse band pattern with an axial periodicity of 14.5 nm. Although ATP was always present during the isolation procedure (condition that miminizes myosin disassembly; Nonomura, 1974), the surface of these filaments exhibits a smooth appearance with no obvious indication of myosin heads. As illustrated in Figs. 7b and 7c, upon washing of these filaments with high-ionic-strength buffer (i.e., 0.4 M NaCl, 5 mM MgCl$_2$, 1 mM ATP, 20 mM Mes, pH 6.0) to extract the myosin, they revealed the characteristic Bear–Selby net. Judged from the increased diameter, after this treatment, the paramyosin core appeared to swell (Figs. 7b and 7c; see also Castellani et al., 1983). As in other molluscan thick filaments (Szent-Györgyi et al., 1971; Bennett and Elliott, 1984) the nodes of the Bear–Selby net have a roughly triangular shape (see Figs. 7b and 7c, white arrows). As illustrated in Fig. 7c, one vertex of the triangular nodes points toward the center of the filament where this polarity reverses. This orientation of the Bear–Selby nodes is an indication of the polarity of paramyosin in the native core.

From the knowledge of the polarity of the paramyosin molecules in the P1 paracrystals it is possible to infer the orientation of the molecules in the native core. Since the Bear–Selby net of the native paramyosin core has been explained in terms of axial dis-
FIG. 6. ABRM α- and β-paramyosins. (a) 5% SDS–polyacrylamide gel of α- and β-paramyosins isolated from ABRM. ABRM β-paramyosin (lane 1) is only ~4 kDa less than the native α-paramyosin. Lane 2, molecular weight standards (myosin, 200 kDa; β-galactosidase, 116 kDa; phosphorylase b, 97 kDa; bovine albumin, 66 kDa) (lane 2). (b, c) Negatively stained P1 paracrystals made from β-paramyosin induced using divalent cations as the precipitating agent (see Materials and Methods). ABRM β-paramyosin formed P1 paracrystal similar to those of the intact α-paramyosin (see Fig. 1c). (d, e) Comparison of the staining band pattern of P1 paracrystals made from α- and β-paramyosin (d and e). In the P1 paracrystal from α-paramyosin (d), the two edges of the dark bands look different: the right edge is sharp, whereas the left edge (arrow) appears fuzzy. In contrast, the two edges of the dark band appear sharp in the β-paramyosin paracrystal (e). This difference between the α- and the β-paramyosin P1 paracrystal in the edge of the dark/gap region facing the center of the paracrystal (arrow) indicates that this edge represent the COOH-terminal end of paramyosin, which is therefore pointing toward the end of the paracrystal. Bars, 100 nm (b and c) and 50 nm (d and e).

result placement of subfilaments having the P1 paracrystalline packing (Cohen et al., 1971) (see Fig. 1f), and since paramyosin assembles with the NH₂-terminal end pointing toward the center of the bipolar P1 paracrystals (see above), it follows that paramyosin may assemble with its NH₂-terminal end pointing toward the center of the native paramyosin filament. The following observations support this notion: (i) the base of the triangular Bear-Selby nodes which coincides with the 14.5-nm transverse band of the thick filament yield a sharp appearance (see Fig. 7b, white arrows) similar to the edge of the dark band of the P1 paracrystal that faces the end of the paracrystal (see Fig. 6d, right edge of dark bands) and (ii) the Bear–Selby nodes have also been described to having a sharp and a fuzzy edge (Bennett and Elliott, 1984), with the orientation of these two edges corresponding to that described here for the edges of the dark band of the P1 paracrystals, i.e., the edge facing the end of the paracrystal is sharp (see Fig. 6d, right edge of dark bands), whereas the edge facing the center of the paracrystal is fuzzy (see Fig. 6d, left edge of dark bands).

DISCUSSION

Location of Cysteines by the Avidin–Biotin System

The amount of cysteine residues of ABRM paramyosin determined here by the Ellman method (i.e., two cysteine residues per chain) is consistent with that found in the adductor muscle of the clam Mercenaria mercenaria (Cowgill, 1974). It also agrees with the number of cysteines from the amino acid sequences of the few paramyosins thus far cloned and sequenced (i.e., from the nematode C. elegans, Kagawa et al., 1989; from the dog heartworm parasite D. immitis, Limberger and McReynolds, 1990; and from Drosophila melanogaster, Becker and Bernstein, 1990). One exception is the amino acid sequence of Schistosoma mansoni paramyosin which reveals only one cysteine residue per chain (Laclette et al., 1991). Although there are four cysteines per ABRM paramyosin molecule, only two sites were labeled with the avidin–biotin system. Thus, the cysteine residues in the ABRM paramyosin occur as two pairs, one pair is located in the NH₂-terminal end and the other at ~30 nm from
the COOH-terminal end of the molecule (see Fig. 3d). Similarly, Cowgill, (1974) based on the analysis of digestion products, found that the four SH groups of Mercenaria paramyosin where located pairwise at the NH₂-terminal end and at ~40 nm from the COOH-terminal end of the molecule. As in the ABRM and Mercenaria paramyosin molecules, the amino acid sequences of paramyosin from *C. elegans* (Kagawa *et al.*, 1989) and *D. immitis* (Limberger and McReynolds, 1990) also revealed one of the cysteine residues at ~¼ from the COOH-terminal end of the molecule. The other cysteine is located at residue 127 of the C. elegans paramyosin sequence and at residue 105 of the *D. immitis* paramyosin sequence. In the amino acid sequences of paramyosin from *Drosophila* (Becker and Bernstein, 1990) and *Schistosoma* (Laclette *et al.*, 1991) the location of the cysteine residues is less conserved. They occur at residues 368 and 784 in *Drosophila* paramyosin (total amino acid residues = 879) and at residue 750 in *Schistosoma* paramyosin (total amino acid residues = 866).

The location of the cysteine ABRM groups in the paramyosin molecule suggested that paramyosin is probably a homodimer. However, the avidin-labeling method does not have enough resolution to reveal minor differences between the two chains. Evidence in favor of both identity and difference of the two paramyosin chains have been reported. On the one hand, analysis of digestion products of paramyosin suggested that paramyosin is a homodimer (Cowgill 1974; Weisel and Szent-Györgyi, 1975). On the other hand, based on the amino acid sequence around the four cysteine residues of paramyosin from the smooth adductor muscle of scallop, Walker and Stewart (1975) concluded that there were two different types of chains. This latter result could be explained by tissue heterogeneity which has been reported to occur in this muscle (Morita and Kondo, 1982). Another possibility is the existence of paramyosin isoforms, which at least in the case of *C. elegans* has recently been demonstrated (Deitiker and Epstein, 1993).

**The COOH-Terminal End of Paramyosin Is Important for Assembly**

Similar to myosin, where its solubility and assembly properties are controlled by a small region of its COOH-terminal end (Sinard *et al.*, 1990; Atkinson and Stewart, 1991), the COOH-terminal end of paramyosin appears to play an important role in the assembly of this molecule. Whereas β-paramyosin, i.e., α-paramyosin which has lost a ~4 kDa segment at its COOH-terminal end, formed paracrystals very similar to those of the intact molecule (i.e., α-paramyosin), the three carboxypeptidase fragments of ABRM paramyosin CPG93, CPA85, and CPA79 did not form P1 paracrystals under the ionic conditions explored here (see Materials and Methods). Since the CPG93 fragment is only ~3 kDa smaller than β-paramyosin (i.e., ~27 amino acid residues), and since CPG93 is only ~14 nm shorter than the native molecule, it is conceivable that the region controlling the assembly of ABRM paramyosin is ~27 residues long and may be located at less
than 14 nm from the COOH-terminal end of the molecule. Consistent with these conclusions, at least five missense mutations affecting filament formation were located in a 38-residue-long region of the COOH-terminal end of \textit{C. elegans} paramyosin (Gengyo-Ando and Kagawa, 1991).

\textit{Polarity of Paramyosin}

The structure of the thick filament from molluscan muscles has been the subject of many structural studies (reviewed by Bennett and Elliott, 1987). These studies have shown that paramyosin forms the paracrystalline core of the filament with myosin decorating its surface. However, the molecular packing of paramyosin in the core and its polarity in the native filament have remained elusive. In the present investigation, the polarity of paramyosin in the P1 paracrystals was determined using two different experimental approaches: (i) avidin–biotin labeling of paracrystals and (ii) comparison of the transverse band-like staining pattern of paracrystals made of α-paramyosin (intact protein) and β-paramyosin (a proteolytically cleaved α-paramyosin that has lost a small segment at its COOH-terminal end). Both methods have revealed that paramyosin assembles with its NH$_2$-terminal end pointing toward the center of the bipolar paracrystals. Since the P1 paracrystal has been shown to be the basic paracrystalline array yielding for the Bear–Selby net of the native filament (Cohen \textit{et al.}, 1971), the polarity of paramyosin in the P1 paracrystals was assumed to also represent the orientation of paramyosin in the native filament. Accordingly, paramyosin assembles with its NH$_2$-terminal end pointing toward the center of the bipolar thick filament. This result is in agreement with that reported by Weisel (1975).

\textit{Paramyosin–Paramyosin Interactions}

As documented in Fig. 8, the axial array of the paramyosin molecules in the bipolar P1 paracrystal yields three possible types of lateral interactions between paramyosin molecules: (i) parallel interactions with an N–C type overlap of ~52.5 nm, (ii) antiparallel interactions with ~43-nm N–N-type overlap, and (iii) antiparallel interactions with ~43-nm C–C-type overlap. The first type of interaction was initially described by Cohen \textit{et al.} (1971) when the axial array of paramyosin in synthetic paracrystals was determined. However, due to the uncertainty of the orientation of the molecules in the paracrystal, it was difficult to decide whether the 43-nm-long overlap at the center of bipolar P1 paracrystals was an N–N or a C–C type. Recently, Kagawa \textit{et al.} (1989) have calculated the electrostatic interactions of the amino acid sequence of paramyosin from \textit{C. elegans} and found that all these three type of interactions were favorable. From the knowledge of the polarity of the paramyosin molecules determined in the present work, we can now conclude that the N–N type of antiparallel interaction occurs at the center of bipolar P1 paracrystals.

\textit{Myosin–Paramyosin Interactions}

Kagawa \textit{et al.} (1989) also calculated the electrostatic interactions between the amino acid sequence of paramyosin and that of the myosin rod, and thereby found several possible modes of both parallel and antiparallel arrangements between the two
types of molecules. Based on their calculations, these authors proposed a model for the most stable arrangement of myosin and paramyosin in the thick filament in which the two types of molecules interact in a parallel fashion. As a consequence, paramyosin had to be oriented with its COOH-terminal end pointing toward the center of the filament. While the myosin-paramyosin arrangement proposed in this model could in principle be possible in the center of the filament where both parallel and antiparallel interactions between myosin and paramyosin might occur, the polarity of the paramyosin molecules in this model is the opposite of that reported here—i.e., the NH₂-terminal end of the paramyosin molecules pointing toward the center of the filament. This orientation of paramyosin implies that at the ends of the native filament myosin and paramyosin assemble with different polarities, i.e., the NH₂-terminal end of the paramyosin molecules points toward the center, whereas the NH₂-terminal end of the myosin molecules (i.e., the myosin heads) points toward the end of the filament. Therefore, the assembly of myosin and paramyosin at the end of the thick filament would be in an antiparallel fashion, where the NH₂-terminal end of paramyosin interacts with the COOH-terminal end of myosin.

In the case of antiparallel arrangements of myosin and paramyosin molecules, Kagawa et al. (1989) predicted four possible modes of interactions involving amino acid shifts $s = -196$, $0$, $+283$, and $+388$ residues. As illustrated in Fig. 9a, a value of $s = -196$ residues corresponds to an arrangement where the COOH-terminal end of paramyosin is staggered by $\approx 29$ nm relative to the NH₂-terminal end of the myosin rod. This spacing, which corresponds to the axial stagger of adjacent Bear–Selby nodes (i.e., $\approx 72.5$ nm), is a fundamental repeat in the native thick filament. As was demonstrated by Cohen et al. (1971), the paramyosin core can be described made up of subfilaments corresponding to the P1 array. Accordingly, axial displacements of subfilaments by 29 nm produces the Bear–Selby net. The nodes of the Bear–Selby net represent therefore the dark bands of the P1 array, which correspond to the gap regions between the ends of adjacent paramyosin molecules. If myosin is placed with the antiparallel type of interaction involving $s = -196$ residues (Fig. 9a) in a paramyosin subfilament having the axial P1 arrangement (Fig. 9b), and if the subfilaments are axially shifted by 29 nm to build the Bear–Selby net, the model shown in Fig. 9c is generated (adapted from Cohen, 1982). In this model the myosin heads coincide roughly with the dark band of the subfilaments. This overlap of the myosin heads with the gap regions of the neighboring subfilament could explain why the Bear–Selby net of

**FIG. 9.** Schematic representation of one possible molecular arrangement of myosin and paramyosin molecules in the native thick filament of mollusc smooth muscle. (a) Diagram of the antiparallel lateral arrangement of myosin and paramyosin molecules predicted by Kagawa et al. (1989) for a stagger between the two amino acid sequences of $s = -196$ residues, in which the COOH-terminal end of a paramyosin molecule (arrowhead) is shifted away from the NH₂-terminal end of the myosin rod by $\approx 29$ nm. The vertical bars along the two molecules indicate the positions of "skip" residues, which are amino acid residues that interrupt the heptad peptide repeat and are believed to represent local distortions that modulate the pitch of the two-stranded a-helical coiled coil (McLachlan and Karr, 1982, 1983; Kagawa et al., 1989). In this arrangement (i.e., for $s = -196$ residues), two of the skip residues of the paramyosin sequence coincide with two skip residues of the myosin rod sequence (arrows), an arrangement which might strengthen the interaction between the two molecules. (b) Diagram of two subfilaments of paramyosin in which the paramyosin molecules (drawn as arrows) have the axial arrangement of the P1 paracrystalline packing. The rectangles correspond to the dark/gap region of the P1 paracrystal. To simplify the model only one paramyosin molecule in each subfilament is drawn. The arrowheads represent the COOH-terminal end of the paramyosin molecules which point toward the end of the subfilament. In the subfilament on the bottom, a myosin molecule is drawn interacting with paramyosin with the antiparallel mode of interaction shown in a (i.e., for $s = -196$ residues). (c) A possible model for the molecular arrangement of myosin on the Bear–Selby net of the thick filament. The Bear–Selby net is generated by shifting subfilaments having the arrangement of myosin and paramyosin as shown in b by 29 nm (i.e., $\approx 72.5$ nm). In this model the myosin heads coincide roughly with the Bear–Selby nodes. To simplify the model only one paramyosin molecule per node and four myosin molecules are drawn. There will probably be three or four (2-nm-wide) paramyosin molecules per node on the surface of the paramyosin core (from ABRM the width of the nodes is $\approx 6$ nm). The actual number of myosin molecules per node is unknown, but values up to three myosin molecules per node have been calculated (Elliott, 1974).
the native thick filament is seen only after selective extraction of myosin. For simplicity, only one myosin molecule per node is drawn in this model, but the actual number of myosin molecules in the thick filament remains unknown. This number appears to depend on the diameter of the thick filament, and values up to three myosin molecules per node have been calculated (Elliott, 1974). Also, in this model only the interaction of myosin with paramyosin involving $s = -196$ is emphasized. Other type of myosin-paramyosin interactions can be depicted from this model. For example, the interactions between a myosin molecule and the paramyosin molecule of the neighboring subfilament (see Fig. 9b), in which there is a maximum overlap between the two molecules, would correspond to the arrangement predicted by Kagawa et al. (1989), i.e., $s = 0$ residue.

Structure of Molluscan Thick Filaments and "Catch" Theories

The molecular packing of myosin and paramyosin molecules in the thick filament of molluscan muscles has been related to the unusual contractile activity of some of these muscles, known as the "catch" state, in which tension has to be maintained for a long period of time with little expenditure of energy (see review by Twarog, 1979). In the catch state, although ATP is present, the myosin heads ("cross-bridges") are attached to actin and are cycling very slowly. It has been proposed that changes in the intermolecular interaction between the myosin rods and paramyosin and/or myosin in the thick filament influence the rate of crossbridge cycling in catch muscles (Cohen, 1982; Cohen and Castellani, 1988). Furthermore, the findings that both the ABM myosin rod domain (Castellani and Cohen, 1987) and the paramyosin molecule (Achazi, 1979; Cooley et al., 1979; Castellani and Cohen, personal communication) can be phosphorylated in vitro have led to speculations that some specific changes in the mutual interactions of these molecules may occur upon phosphorylation and that the catch state may be mediated by phosphorylation (Cohen, 1982; Cohen and Castellani, 1988; Castellani and Cohen, 1992). The model shown in Fig. 9c, where the COOH-terminal region of paramyosin—which contains the phosphorylation site(s) (located at less than 30 nm from the COOH-terminal end; Panté, Castellani, and Cohen, unpublished results) and controls the solubility and assembly properties of paramyosin (see above)—is in close contact with the myosin heads, would support this hypothesis.

In summary, determination of the polarity of the paramyosin molecules within the P1 paracrystals reported here allows one to infer that in the native thick filaments of molluscan muscles paramyosin may assemble with the same orientation (i.e., with the NH$_2$-terminal end pointing toward the center of the filament). This assumption, and the knowledge of the most favorable modes of interactions between myosin and paramyosin as calculated by Kagawa et al. (1989), allow us to extend the model of Cohen (1982) for the coassembly of myosin and paramyosin in the thick filament which has functional implications (Fig. 9c). Although there is evidence for the specific interaction between myosin and paramyosin (Szent-Györgyi et al., 1971; Nonomura, 1974; Epstein et al., 1975, 1976), more information is required to derive a more detailed model of the molecular organization of these two proteins within the thick filament.

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