Computer-aided Binding Mode Prediction and Affinity Maturation of LRR Protein

Binder without Structural Determination

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Abstract

Binding affinity maturation without structure determination remains a difficult challenge in the computer-aided protein engineering. Precise binding mode identification is a vital prerequisite for the affinity maturation. However, pure computational methods have been unreliable in practice so far and experimental structural biology techniques are generally too costly. Herein, we show that computational epitope localization followed by the full-atom energy minimization with intermediate experimental validation can yield precisely bound complex model structure, which ultimately enables effective affinity maturation and redesign of binding specificity. As a proof-of-concept, we targeted a leucine-rich repeat (LRR) protein binder which specifically binds to the human IgG_1 ($hIgG_1$). Based on the computationally predicted binding mode of the LRR protein binder to $hIgG_1$, the binding affinity of the protein binder was significantly increased and its specificity was redesigned toward multiple IgGs from other species. Experimental determination of the complex structure showed that the predicted model closely matched the X-ray crystal structure. Through the benchmark of therapeutically relevant existing LRR protein complexes, we demonstrate that the present approach can be broadly applicable to other proteins which undergo small conformational changes upon binding.

Significance Statement

Computer-aided design of binding affinity and specificity of two interacting proteins without

structural determination is a challenging problem in protein engineering. Despite recent advances

in the computational biology techniques, however, *in silico* evaluation of binding energies has

proven to be extremely difficult. We show that, in the cases of protein-protein interactions where

only small structural changes upon binding occur, partial experimental validation of binding can

greatly complement the computational energy. Using an LRR (leucine-rich repeat) protein binder

as a model system, the binding orientation of two binding partners was precisely dentified by the

hybrid approach. Based on the predicted model, we could successfully redesign the binding affinity

and specificity of the protein binder by the full-atom energy calculation.

Introduction

Protein-protein interactions are central to all biological processes, including signal transduction, cellular regulation, and immune response (1). Determining the binding mode of such interactions thus provides fundamental insight into the underlying mechanisms for the control and regulation of biological processes. In the development of both therapeutic proteins and vaccines, because the precise identification of the binding mode is particularly important, because the efficacy varies depending on their epitopes (2-4) and the effectiveness of vaccines are affected by their epitopes (5-7). Although the experimental determination of the crystal structures has been used as the gold standard for binding mode identification (8), it is extremely labor-intensive and time-consuming. Therefore, considerable effort has been made to develop computational methods as alternatives over the past decades (9, 10). One of the practical applications of the binding mode prediction is an affinity maturation of a protein binder from scratch without structure determination, which has been regarded as one of the "Holy Grails" in the computationally-aided protein engineering (11). However, computational approaches have been insufficiently reliable in practice so far for predicting the binding mode (12, 13) and the association energies (11). Last rounds of the Critical Assessment of Predicted Interactions (CAPRI) have also shown that current computational methods are not successful in identifying the actual binding mode which is necessary for affinity maturation of a protein binder from scratch (14-16).

Leucine-rich repeat (LRR) proteins have a rigid horseshoe-like structural feature and play key roles in many biological processes (17) including the immune system (18-21) and cellular processes (22-24). Leucine-rich repeat (LRR) proteins constitute one of the most common protein families found in a wide range of species, and more than 2,000 LRR proteins have been identified (25, 26). Typical examples include mammalian toll-like receptors (TLR) and the variable

lymphocyte receptors (VLR) of jawless vertebrates in innate and adaptive immune systems,

respectively (19, 21). Considering the importance and abundance of LRR proteins in nature, a

broadly enabling strategy for the control of LRR binding is of great significance for accelerating

the understanding of their functions as well as advancing the potential applicability to other

therapeutic protein binders.

Herein, we demonstrate computer-driven binding mode prodeiction and affinity maturation

of a leucine-rich repeat (LRR) protein binder without structural determination. As a proof of

concept, we focued on a LRR protein binder which specifically binds to an immunoglobulin G

(IgG). IgG is a challenging model system to show the redesign of binding affinity and specificity,

since it is structurally highly conserved, but diverse in sequence among species. We show that a

computationally-guided approach can effectively narrow down where the binding interface is, and

the full-atom energy minimization can identify a native-like complex model which closely

matched the X-ray crystal structure. Further energy calculations on the predicted model complex

enabled the redesign of the binding affinity and specificity of the LRR protein binder.

Results

Binding mode prediction of an LRR protein binder

In an effort to exploit the structural and functional features of LRR proteins for biotechnological

and medical applications, we previously developed an LRR protein binder, called "repebody (Rb)"

(27). As a proof of concept, in this work, a human IgG_1 ($hIgG_1$)-binding repebody (RbF4) (28)

was targeted for the binding mode prediction and affinity maturation without the structure

determination. There is indirect evidence that RbF4 binds to the constant region of $hIgG_1$ (hFc)

(28, 29), but actual epitopes and the binding mode were completely unknown. RbF4 has a typical

LRR protein sequence motif, whose structural scaffold consists of three major parts: 1) an N

terminal cap (LRRNT), 2) LRR modules (LRRVs), and 3) a C terminal cap (LRRCT) with an

additional loop (**Fig. S1**). Unlike the complementary determining regions of antibodies, the target

binding sites of a repebody comprise parallel beta strands (LRRVs), which are assumed to remain

unchanged upon target-binding. During the development of RbF4, three variable residues on each

module of LRRV2–LRRV5 (LRRV4 excluded) were randomized and subject to a phage display

selection(28).

To predict the binding mode of RbF4-hFc, we first localized the RbF4 epitope on hFc using

EpiScope, a computational method that provides optimal sets of disruptive (triplet) mutations

against possible docking models (12). For antibody-antigen pairs, on average of three mutation

sets are sufficient to cover all of the docking models, and at least one set of mutations is expected

to overlap the true epitopes (epitope localization). It should be noted that epitope localization only

provides a rough idea of where the protein would bind and does not provide the binding mode.

ClusPro webserver (30) was employed to dock the RbF4-hFc pair, as demonstrated in the previous

study (12). We used a crystal structure of the unbound form of hFc (PDB code: 3AVE) and a

homology model of RbF4 for the docking (**Table 1**), assigning attractions at the concave residues

of LRRV modules from 2 to 5, as known during the phage display selection. We assumed that the

major driving force of RbF4 for target binding should be no different from antibodies or high

affinity protein binders (Antibody Mode) (31). The antibody docking mode was enabled to

generate target-bound complex structures, yielding 29 models in total (**Table 1**). Variants with the

triplet mutation sets were then experimentally verified by measuring their binding affinity using

isothermal titration calorimetry (ITC).

Any mutations are symmetrically present due to the symmetric nature of the Fc domain

structure. Considering the symmetry, three mutation sets (thus, six in total) in contact with all of

the generated docking models were identified (Var 1, 2, and 3 in **Fig. 1A**). Among the three designs

(with triple mutations each), Var 3 (H75A, N80K, and H200K) was shown to be approximately 3-

times more disruptive to RbF4 compared to the wild-type hFc, resulting in a decrease in K_d from

128 nM to 427 nM (**Fig. 1B** and **Fig. S2**). This result confirms that RbF4 indeed binds to hFc.

Although the hFc interface region in contact with RbF4 was roughly identified through the triplet,

it is probable that not all of them are involved in the binding. We therefore measured the binding

affinities of the single variants. Among the triplet, two single mutations (H75A and N80A) led to

meaningful reductions (two-fold decreases) in the binding affinities (194 and 187 nM respectively),

whereas the binding affinity of H200K remained similar (or stronger) to that of the wild-type hFc.

From the binding tests, it is likely that RbF4 establishes contacts with H75 and N80, but unlikely

with H200. There were seven RbF4-hFc docking models in contact with the two residues (H75

and N80), but not with H200 or the six other positions in Var 1 and 2 (**Fig. 1C**).

We hypothesized that the all-atom force field energy could largely capture the binding free

energy landscape, and consequently, the model with the lowest force field energy should be near-

native if any such models exist. Based on this hypothesis, the seven docking models were ranked

in terms of the AMBER99sb force field parameter (32) after full-atom minimization using the

Tinker molecular dynamics package (33). The determination of the X-ray crystal structure (PDB

ID: 6KA7) confirms that the binding mode of the docking model with the lowest energy (**Fig. 1C**

and **D**, blue model) and the crystal structure are extremely similar (f_{nat}: 0.43 and I-RMSD: 2.32 Å,

see **Fig. 2**). These results demonstrate that the computational prediction with intermediate

experimental validation enabled the binding mode prediction for LRR proteins. The computational

method suggests an optimal set of mutations to test based on the docking models. The experimental

verification using binding assays then effectively narrows down the plausible computational

docking model candidates, and the full-atom minimization assists in the ranking of the filtered

docking models, leading to the identification of a native-like docking model. It is noteworthy that

the prior epitope localization is an essential step for precise binding mode prediction. A ranking

assessment using the force field energy alone may be insufficient for finding a native-like docking

model (**Fig. 2B** and **C**).

Redesign of binding specificity based on the predicted binding mode

Based on the predicted binding mode, we redesigned RbF4 to mitigate its binding specificity. RbF4

was identified as highly specific for human IgG_1, while showing weak and negligible cross-

reactivities against mouse IgG_1 and rabbit IgG (28, 29). The predicted binding mode reveals that

the loop (**Fig. S1**) may be largely responsible for the binding specificity of RbF4 toward hFc (**Fig.**

1D). To obtain insight into the specificity, we investigated the Fc sequences of IgGs from three

species: human (hFc), mouse (mFc), and rabbit (rFc). Calculation of the inter-molecular atomic

distances between RbF4 and hFc based on the predicted binding mode showed that the RbF4 loop

forms a tight contact with the positions where hFc, mFc, and rFc share different amino acids from

each other (**Fig. 1D**), strongly implying its crucial role in the binding specificity of RbF4. We thus

reasoned that the engineering of the loop would lead RbF4 to a cross-species Fc binder. To prove

our hypothesis, we truncated and replaced the loop sequence of RbF4 with flexible amino acids:

RNSAGSVA starting at 239 was changed into GG. We measured the binding affinities of the

resulting loop-truncated RbF4 variant (RbF4-LT) for the IgGs from the three species through ITC

assays: $hIgG_1$ (Trastuzumab), mouse IgG_1 ($mIgG_1$), and rabbit IgG (rIgG).

As shown in our previous work (29), the original RbF4 strongly binds to $hIgG_1$ with a

binding affinity of 128.7 nM, and weakly to $mIgG_1$ with an 8-fold weaker affinity than $hIgG_1$ (1

µM), whereas it has a negligible binding affinity for rIgG (**Fig. 3** and **Fig. S3**). The loop-truncated

variant (RbF4-LT) gained a binding affinity for rIgG (1.2 µM), indicating that the loop is indeed

involved in the binding specificity of RbF4 for $hIgG_1$. The binding affinity of the variant for $mIgG_1$

was also improved to 775 nM, whereas that for $hIgG_1$ decreased to a similar level to $mIgG_1$ (598

nM). It bears noting that the variant was entirely designed based on the predicted binding mode

prior to the determination of the X-ray co-crystal structure. The results indicate that the predicted

binding mode is sufficiently accurate for further engineering of the binding specificity.

Improvement of binding affinity based on the model binding complex

Our final goal is to improve the binding affinity of the LRR binder through a computer-aided

design. As shown in the binding mode prediction, although the full-atom force field energy alone

does not discriminate the native complex, it can largely capture the binding energy landscape.

Herein, we used the AMBER force-field energy to select mutations that can simultaneously

improve the binding affinities of RbF4 against multiple targets. To reduce the search space, FoldX

(34) was employed to scan possible mutations in the loop (**Fig. S4**). The predicted binding energy

at G243 indicates that the inclusion of the loop may not enhance a binding affinity for rIgG. Thus

we aimed to design an RbF4 variant which can bind to both $hIgG_1$ and $mIgG_1$ with high binding

affinities. The FoldX scan suggests that S241M may substantially enhance the binding affinities

for $hIgG_1$ and $mIgG_1$. The mutation was also observed during the phage display affinity maturation

for the $mIgG_1$-specific repebody (29). We then fixed S241M and introduced all other amino acids

in silico at S244. The AMBER99sb force field energy was used to minimize the variants. The

binding energy prediction indicates that S241M with S244R (RbF4-MR) may significantly

improves the binding affinities for both IgGs (**Fig. S5**). The ITC binding assy results show that

RbF4-MR indeed strongly binds to the two IgGs as predicted, and the binding affinity for $mIgG_1$

was markedly increased (1 μM to 168.1 nM, **Fig. 3**).

General applicability of the binding mode prediction

To assess the general applicability of the binding mode prediction, we tested three known Rb-

targets whose co-crystal structures are available (**Table 1**): Interleukin-6 (IL-6: 4J4L) (27),

epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR: 4UIP) (35) and complement component 5a (C5a: 5B4P)

(36). We firstly investigated the detailed settings of the protein docking. Docking without the

antibody mode option using ClusPro resulted in a larger number of docking models, but the overall

accuracy of such docking models proved to be worse than those generated with the option enabled.

As demonstrated in RbF4-hFc, only a small number of variants were sufficient to localize the

epitopes (two for C5a and EGFR, and four for IL-6). The filtering process resulted in a subset of

"filtered" docking models which include native-like binding modes (5 to 12 models; solid circles

in **Fig. 4**). In order to identify the most native-like docking model, the ClusPro score was initially

considered to rank the filtered docking models. However, the ClusPro score was found to be

unreliable for ranking (**Fig. S6**). **Figure 4** shows that ranking based on the AMBER force field

energy successfully discriminates high-quality docking models for IL-6 and EGFR. It bears noting

that the prior epitope localization is again critical. Ranking by the force field energy alone is not

sufficient to find native-like docking models. For example, in the case of IL-6, there are two

docking models with lower energies than the most native-like model, but both of them are not in

contact with true epitopes.

The C5a case offers another insight into precise binding mode prediction (**Fig. 4**, bottom row).

While the binding interfaces were mostly correct (15 out of 18 correct interface residues: 83 %),

the predicted binding mode was completely inverted (N terminal to C, and vice versa). During the

affinity maturation of the C5a-specific Rb, it was observed that some LRRV modules gave rise to

a negligible increase in the binding affinity (36), which suggests that only LRRV1 and 2 are

responsible for interacting with C5a. We thus hypothesized that the accuracy of structural

modeling and an incorporation of the paratope information may also enhance the docking quality.

The four possible combinations of hypotheses (incorporation of the phage display information

versus no incorporation, and a homology-model target versus a crystal structure target) reveal that

the use of a high-quality structure (here the crystal structure) is not sufficient for accurate binding

mode prediction (**Fig. 5**). The imprecise definition of Rb paratopes with the crystal structure

resulted in worse correlations than the model with precisely annotated paratopes (Spearman ρ for

f_{nat} and I-RMSD of crystal structures: -0.1 and 0.1, and those of models with precise paratope

definition: -0.7 and 0.19, respectively). The ideal case (crystal structures with precise paratopes)

led to extremely accurate results (I-RMSD: 0.62Å and f_{nat}: 0.76) with high correlations (Spearman

ρ for f_{nat} and I-RMSD: -0.79 and 0.71).

This study demonstrated critical criteria to be satisfied for accurate binding mode prediction.

The full-atom force field energy is a good indicator to discriminate the most native-like docking

model, but it alone may not be sufficient if the initial epitope localization process with

experimental verification is omitted. As also shown in the previous study with antibodies (12),

high-quality antigen structures are not particularly required for epitope localization in Rb-target

pairs. However, they become necessary to generate and predict native-like docking modes. Though

an Rb has predefined target-binding sites, not all of them are involved in target-binding. The

inclusion of paratope information (e.g. phage display selection) was shown to improve the quality

of docking models and binding mode prediction.

Discussion

Discussion

Prediction of accurate protein binding mode is an essential prerequisite for protein binding affinity

maturation without structural determination. It can certainly accelerlate our understanding of

protein functions, advancing the potential utility of relevant proteins in basic and translational

research. We chose LRR proteins for the binding mode prediction since, as a promising therapeutic

protein binder, they have an advantageous property in engineering persepctive because they

undergo small structural changes upon binding. To our best knowledge, prediction of protein-

protein binding modes has not been consistently achieved yet. As a proof of concept, we began

with the binding mode prediction of the LRR protein binder which targets the constant domain of

human IgG_1 (hFc). The AMBER force field energy with full-atom minimization after epitope

localization enabled the successful selection of the most native-like docking model. The X-ray

crystal structure of the LRR protein complex with hFc is indeed extremely close to the predicted

binding model with the lowest energy.

Unlike epitope localization or binding site identification, which do not particularly require

extremely native-like binding modes in the sampling step (12), the inclusion of native-like samples

(i.e., docking models) is absolutely necessary for affinity improvement from scratch. In general,

the sampling quality of the antibody-antigen docking often depends on the targets; however, in our

case, native-like models were nearly always included in the initial samples. It is likely that the

rigid nature of LRR domains enables the successful sampling of high-quality docking models.

Therefore, we anticipate that this approach may be in principle applicable not only to LRR domains,

but also to any other proteins with rigid binding sites. As also proven in the success of interface-

guided docking methods (37-39), the exact definition of binding interfaces including paratope

mutational data from phage display selection is also critical. As repeatedly shown in our study,

selection only based on the force-field energy value may be misled to wrong complex binding

modes, perhaps due to the inaccuracy of the energy functions (40). The mutagenesis-based

verification and filtering were shown to be a compulsory process in order to complement imperfect

energy scores. The computational method used in this study, EpiScope (12), provided the optimal

choice of mutations. For the binding mode prediction, six sets of *in vitro* experiments were

performed, which were shown to be sufficient to effectively localize the epitope. With the epitope

localization, the full-atom minimization enabled ranking of filtered docking models, resulting in

identification of a native-like docking model.

The success of the binding mode prediction directly leads to the design of binding

specificities and affinities. From the predicted model, we were able to identify which region

assigns the binding specificity of RbF4 to the IgGs. The simple manipulation of the binding region

entirely changed its binding specificity. The force field energy is indicative of the binding energy.

Mutations selected based on the energy dramatically improves binding affinities as predicted.

However, it bears noting that design only based on the energy may result in wrong predictions.

For example, the force field energy prediction tells that RbF4-MR would bind to $hIgG_1$ with a

strong binding affinity as well (**Fig. S6**) though the actual binding affinity stays the same as before.

From the two studies of the binding mode prediction and affinity improvement, the force field

energy prediction becomes informative only if actual binding is known, i.e. supportive data from

experiments are critical in practice.

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Contributions

Y.C. designed the computational methods, and implemented and applied them to generate all of

the computational results. S.J. conducted all in vitro experiments. J-M.C. determined the X-ray

crystal structure. C.N. generated the Fc variants. Y.C., S.J., J-M.C., C.N., C.B-K., K.E.G., and H-

S.K. designed and analyzed all of the prospective and retrospective tests and contributed toward

the preparation of the manuscript.

Conflict of Interest: Chris Bailey-Kellogg and Karl E. Griswold are Dartmouth faculties and co-

members of Stealth Biologics, LLC, a Delaware biotechnology company. These authors

acknowledge that there may be a potential financial conflict of interest related to their associations

with this company, and they hereby affirm that the data presented in this paper are free of any bias.

This work has been reviewed and approved as specified in the conflict of interest management

plans of Dartmouth.

Methods

Computational Methods

The computational method initially starts with epitope localization. We used EpiScope for

localization of the repebody binding sites with the default settings (12): triple mutations per

binding patch, and one pareto-optimal curve and two suboptimal ones. The docking models were

generated using the ClusPro webserver (30). The webserver provides "Antibody mode" based on

statistics between the Ab epitopes and paratopes (31). The non-CDR masking option was disabled,

but the binding sites and residues in the convex (**Fig. S1A**) were masked for attraction and

repulsion, respectively. All model structures were minimized using the Tinker molecular dynamics

package (33) with the AMBER99sb parameter set (32) and the GB/SA implicit solvent model (41).

There are three Rb-target complex structures in the PDB up to date: IL-6 (PDB code 4J4L),

EGFR (4UIP), and C5a (5B4P) binders. Unbound forms of target structures were used for docking

(**Table 1**). There is a missing loop in the structure of IL-6 (1ALU chain A: 52 SSKEALAEN). The

loop was filled using MODELLER (42) and all the backbone atoms of the loop were minimized

using Tinker as described above. While Rb has a very rigid predefined structure, a single mutation

at the 11th LRRV position (**Fig. S1B**) to proline significantly changes structural conformations.

Two of the Rbs (4J4L and 5B4P) have such proline residues (at LRRV1 and LRRV2 respectively).

The two Rbs were modeled using each other as templates. One LRRV unit of the EGFR Rb (4UIP)

was omitted. The trimmed Rb structure was reconstructed by splitting the free Rb at LRRV3 and

superimposing the LRRV3 on LRRV2 of the complete Rb using PyMol.

Preparation of Fc Model and Variants

The sequence of the human Fc binder repebody (RbF4) was obtained from a previously

published study (28). The Rb structure was modeled using MODELLER with a free form (3RFS:A)

as a template structure. A free form of the hFc domain (3AVE) was used for docking. A total of

29 docking models were generated using ClusPro (**Table 1**).

Trastuzumab (trade name, Herceptin) Fc sequence available from the literature (wild-type)

and all subsequent variants were reverse translated, codon optimized for expression in mammalian

cells, and synthesized by Integrated DNA technologies (IDT), Inc. (Redwood City, CA). CMVR

VRC01 expression vector (NIH AIDS reagent program, Germantown, MD) harboring the wild-

type Fc or the Fc variant sequences was transfected into suspension HEK 293 cells using

polyethylenimine (PEI) (Polysciences, Warrington, PA). Briefly, 500 µg of the wild-type Fc or Fc

variant DNA was combined with 1 ml of PEI and incubated at room temperature for 10 minutes.

The mixture was then added to HEK cells in the suspension and incubated in a humidified chamber

at 37 °C with 8% CO_2 for at least 5 to 6 days. The secreted wild-type Fc or Fc variants were

clarified through centrifugation at 8000 rpm at 4 °C for 15 minutes on a Beckman Avanti-J25

centrifuge (Brea, CA). The resulting supernatant was filtered through a 0.45 μm filter to remove

any residual cell debris and other large particles before loading onto a FPLC column.

Affinity purification was conducted on a pre-packed 5 ml Protein A column (for wild-type

Fc, and Fc variants 1 and 2) or pre-packed 5 ml Protein G column (for Fc variant 3, and single

mutations of the variant) from GE Healthcare (Pittsburgh, PA) as suggested by the manufacturer.

The final sample was eluted with 100 mM Glycine at pH 3 in 2 ml Eppendorf tubes prefilled with

50 μl of 1 M Tris and 5 mM EDTA. The purification process was automated on an AKTA FPLC

system (GE Healthcare, Pittsburgh, PA). The purified protein was subjected to a second buffer

exchange step using a hitrap desalting column (GE Healthcare, Pittsburgh, PA). The final product

was eluted in phosphate buffer saline and stored at -20 °C until further use. The purified proteins

were analyzed under reduced SDS-PAGE conditions and stained with coomassie blue.

Expression and Purification of Repebodies

The gene-encoding repebodies were inserted into NdeI and XhoI restriction sites of a

pET21a vector (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA). Plasmids were cloned into competent *E.coli* DH5α

cells using a heat shock method (at 42 °C for 90 seconds). The recombinant plasmids were

transformed into *E.coli* Origami-B cells (Merck, Kenilworth, NJ). Single colonies were inoculated

into 5 mL of a Luria-Bertani (LB) medium containing 50 μg/mL carbenicillin and grown overnight

at 37 °C in a shaking incubator (200 rpm). A total of 250 mL of LB containing 50 μg/mL

carbenicillin was inoculated with an OD_{600} 0.05 volume of the overnight-saturated culture and

grown at 37 °C with shaking at 200 rpm until the OD_{600} reached 0.5–0.8. The cells were induced

using 0.5 mM IPTG and incubated at 18 °C with shaking at 200 rpm for 16 hours. The cells were

harvested through centrifugation at 8000 rpm for 20 mins and suspended in a lysis buffer (50 mM

NaH_2PO_4, 300 mM NaCl, and 10 mM imidazole, at pH 8.0). After cell lysis by sonication, the cell

debris was removed through centrifugation at 16,000 rpm for 1 hour at 4 °C. Cell lysates were

loaded into a Ni-NTA column (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) and washed using a wash buffer solution

(50 mM NaH_2PO_4, 300 mM NaCl, 20 mM imidazole, at pH 8.0). The repebodies were eluted using

an elution buffer (50 mM NaH_2PO_4, 300 mM NaCl, 250 mM imidazole, at pH 8.0), and further

purified using gel permeation chromatography (Superdex 75, GE Healthcare). The buffer of the

purified repebodies changed into PBS, and the concentrate was developed in an AmiconUltra

centrifugal filter (10 kDa cutoff, Millipore).

Determination of crystal structure

The Fc domain of human IgG (hFc) was purified after digestion of the purchased human

IgG (Sigma, St. Louis, MO) with papain, as described elsewhere (43). The RbF4-hFc complex was

purified through gel-filtration with a buffer containing 5 mM Tris·HCl and 0.1 M NaCl (pH 7.4)

after reconstitution of the complex by incubating RbF4 and hFc at a 2:1 molar ratio on ice. Crystals

of the complex were grown using a hanging drop vapor diffusion method against a crystallization

buffer containing 0.1 M sodium acetate, 12% (w/v) polyethylene glycol 6000, and 0.1 M

magnesium chloride (pH 4.6) at 20°C. The crystals formed in the space group $P2_12_12_1$ with $a =$

59.9 Å, $b = 107.4$ Å, and $c = 171.4$ Å, and contained one complex molecule in an asymmetric unit.

The diffraction data were collected at 100 K, with crystals flash-frozen in a crystallization buffer

containing 30% glycerol. A single-wavelength (1 Å) dataset was collected using a native crystal

on beam line 5C (Pohang Accelerator laboratory, Korea). Integration, scaling, and merging of the

diffraction data were conducted using the HKL2000 program suite (44). The initial phases were

determined through molecular replacement using the Phenix AutoMR program (45) and human Fc

of IgG (PDB accession 1H3X) and repebody (PDB accession 3RFJ) as models. Successive rounds

of model building using Coot (46), refinement using the Phenix program (47), and phase

combination allowed the building of the complete structure (**Table S1**).

Isothermal Titration Calorimetry (ITC)

A binding affinity experiment was conducted using MicroCal-iTC200 (Malvern

Instruments, Malvern, UK). Fc variants, mouse IgG$_1$, and rabbit IgG (Sigma) were diluted in a

PBS buffer to a final concentration of 0.02 mM. RbF4 or RbF4-LT (RbF4 with the loop truncation)

was diluted using the same buffer to a final concentration of 0.2 mM. The ITC experiments were

performed for a total 20 injections and stirred at 1000 rpm. The initial injection of 1 μL was

excluded for data analysis. Titration curves were fitted with a one-site binding model. The value

of K_d was determined using Origin (OriginLab).

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Table 1. Test sets. The numbers in the brackets indicate results from ClusPro without the antibody
mode option. For C5a, the numbers with asterisks (*) are results using the crystal structure for
docking with the precise definition of paratopes.

Target		Human IgG Fc	Crystal Structure Complexes		
			Interleukin 6 (IL-6)	Epidermal Growth Factor Receptor (EGFR)	Complement Component 5a (C5a)
Complex (PDB)		5Z7K	4J4L	4UIP	5B4P
Rb homology template		3RFS	5B4P	3RFS	4J4L
Unbound target		3AVE	1ALU	1NQL	1KJS
Cα RMSD (Å)	Target	1.72	0.92	2.62	1.76
	Repebody	1.39	0.63	1.62	1.17
Number of docking models		29	30 (106)	30 (88)	23 (65) | **28**
Number of EpiScope Designs		3	4	2	2
Number of localized docking models		7	5 (11)	12 (20)	6 (34) | **7**
Best I-RMSD (Å)		2.32	1.45 (1.78)	2.23 (6.61)	3.61 (5.53) | **0.62**
Best f_{nat}		0.43	0.62 (0.49)	0.38 (0.09)	0.27 (0.14) | **0.76**

Figure 1. Epitope localization and binding mode prediction of human IgG$_1$ Fc (hFc)- binding repebody (RbF4). (**A**) EpiScope initially identifies three designs considering the symmetry of the Fc structure. (**B**) A set of the three mutations in Var 3 (H75A, N80K, and H200K) clearly disrupts the binding, and single mutations of Var 3 were further examined. The isothermal titration calorimetry results indicate that H200K may not be involved in the binding. Details are provided in **Fig. S2.** (**C**) There are seven docking models in contact with H75A and N80K. The blue docking complex was found to be at the lowest energy. (**D**) A close look into the model suggests that the repebody loop (**Fig. S1**) may be responsible for the binding specificity of RbF4 repebody to hFc. IgG from the three species are considered (human; mouse, mFc; and rabbit, rFc). The residues that mFc, hFc, and rFc commonly share are colored in cyan, the two common species are in gray, and those not shared in common at all are in black.

Figure 2. Computational binding mode prediction of RbF4-hFc complex. The crystal structure
is in yellow and the predicted model is in blue. Docking models that are in contact with the epitope
overlapping residues (localized docking models) are shown with the solid circle. The blue circle
is the model with the lowest force field energy (AMBER99sb) score. (**A**) The crystal structure
(6KA7), which is in yellow, whereas the docking models with the lowest energies are in blue on
the right-hand side. (**B**) I-RMSD and (**C**) f_{nat}.

Figure 3. Binding specificity control and affinity improvement based on model complex
structure. The predicted binding mode gives insight that the binding specificity of RbF4 comes
from the loop (**Fig. 1D**). The IgGs from the three species are bound to the loop truncated RbF4
(RbF4-LT). Further computational engineering in the loop on the model complex identified
mutations (S241M and S244R, RbF4-MR) that could significantly improve the binding affinity
for mIgG$_1$ (1 μM to 168.1 nM) while maintaining that for hIgG$_1$ (**Table S2** for details).

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Figure 4. Binding mode prediction on various targets. Docking models that are in contact with
epitope overlapping residues (localized docking models) are in solid circle. The blue circle is the
model with the minimum force field energy (AMBER99sb). Wild-type (star) energy levels are
depicted as dotted lines. Crystal structures are in yellow and the docking models with the lowest
energies are in blue on the right hand side. In the cases of IL-6 (**A**, **B** and **C**) and EGFR (**D**, **E**, and
F), the filtered models with the lowest energy values are native-like. Binding mode prediction for
C5a is presented in **G**, **H** and **I**. As shown in IL-6, some models have lower energy values than the
most native-like docking model, indicating that ranking only by the force-field energy is not
sufficient for binding mode prediction.

Figure 5. Impacts of high-quality structure and paratope definition. The incorporation of phage display results and the use of high quality structures (here crystal structures) lead to an extremely accurate prediction of the binding mode. LRRV in blue is assigned for attraction, in red for repulsion and green for neutral (**A** and **H**). Results in the right two columns (**I-N**) are from docking models with precisely assigned paratopes. Docking models that are in contact with epitope overlapping residues (localized docking models) are in solid circle. Models with the minimum force field energy values are in blue circles. Wild-type (star) energy levels are depicted as dotted lines. Crystal structures are in yellow and the docking models with the lowest energies are in blue on the right hand side.