Use of High Pressure NMR Spectroscopy to Rapidly Identify Proteins with Internal Ligand-Binding Voids

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Abstract

Small molecule binding within internal cavities provides a way to control protein function

and structure, as exhibited in numerous natural and artificial settings. Unfortunately,

most ways to identify suitable cavities require high-resolution structures *a priori* and may

miss potential cryptic sites. Here we address this limitation via high-pressure solution

NMR spectroscopy, taking advantage of the distinctive nonlinear pressure-induced

chemical shift changes observed in proteins containing internal cavities and voids. We

developed a method to rapidly characterize such nonlinearity among backbone ^{1}H and

^{15}N amide signals without needing to have sequence-specific chemical shift

assignments, taking advantage of routinely available ^{15}N-labeled samples,

instrumentation, and 2D ^{1}H/^{15}N HSQC experiments. From such data, we find a strong

correlation in the site-to-site variability in such nonlinearity with the total void volume

within proteins, providing insights useful for prioritizing domains for ligand binding and

indicating mode-of-action among such protein/ligand systems. We suggest that this

approach provides a rapid and useful way to rapidly assess otherwise hidden dynamic

architectures of protein that reflect fundamental properties associated with ligand

binding and control.

Significance Statement

Many proteins can be regulated by internally binding small molecule ligands, but

it is often not clear *a priori* which proteins are controllable in such a way. Here we

describe a rapid method to address this challenge, using solution NMR spectroscopy to

monitor the response of proteins to the application of high pressure. While the locations

of NMR signals from most proteins respond to high pressure with linear chemical shift

changes, proteins containing internal cavities that can bind small molecule ligands

respond with easily identified non-linear changes. We demonstrate this approach on

several proteins and protein/ligand complexes, suggesting that it has general utility.

Introduction

Small molecule cofactors and ligands play critical roles in controlling protein

structure and function, the understanding of which often gives insight both into natural

and artificial modes of regulation. Of particular interest are identifying sites where the

irregular structures of proteins give rise to cavities, voids and other features which can

serve as internal sites for such compounds to bind (**Fig. 1**) and allosterically control

protein structure and function (1, 6-9). The traditional method to identify such locations

– high resolution X-ray crystallography, ideally with better than 2 Å resolution to aid the

identification of internally bound waters – can be powerful, particularly when combined

with computational analyses for cavity identification (5, 10-16) or experimentally solving

multiple structures of proteins soaked with different organic solvents or small molecule

fragments (17, 18). Accordingly, this approach relies on having well-diffracting crystals,

which are not always available for all systems and can be time-consuming to produce

even when successful.

As an alternative method to experimentally determine which proteins might

contain internal cavities suitable for ligand binding, we explored the potential for using

high pressure solution NMR to do so. We thought this approach might be useful given

the need for proteins to undergo dynamic changes to allow for ligand binding within pre-

existing internal cavities and voids (**Fig. 1**). While such changes may occur rarely at

ambient pressure, elevated pressure will easily increase the equilibrium populations of

the less populated, low-volume conformers associated with hydration of cavities and

voids (20). Such low-lying excited state conformers (N'), if present, will usually

equilibrate with the ground state folded conformer (N) rapidly on the NMR time scale

Fig. 1: Example of internal ligand binding cavity and computational analysis. A. Example of protein/ligand complex utilizing an internal cavity (HIF-2α PAS-B, PDB: 3f1o (6)) that is sequestered over 6 Å from solvent. In the apo- form of this protein (not shown), a pre-formed 290 Å^3 cavity with 8 crystallographically-ordered water molecules is present at this site. B. Schematic definitions of cavities, voids, and algorithm used by *ProteinVolume* (5) as used for Fig. 3 and onwards in the manuscript. We refer to *cavities* as internal openings larger than a single water molecule (V > 30 Å^3 (19)), while *voids* are more generally non-protein filled spaces that include cavities along with other types of packing defects distributed throughout and around a protein. With a protein structure available (gray), the <u>total void volume</u> can be straightforwardly calculated by the difference of the solvent-excluded volume of a protein (generated by rolling probes over the molecular surface, typically with water-sized radii) and the volume taken by protein atoms = volume under blue surface minus gray volume (5).

(τ<<ms), giving rise to averaged single peaks in multidimensional spectra which exhibit

non-linear chemical shift changes as pressure affects the N ⇌ N' equilibrium (21).

Based on prior work by several groups (21-24), we anticipated that this effect might be

easily detected by solution NMR at pressures in the 1000-2000 bar range, below the

pressures which typically partially or completely unfold proteins (21, 25, 26)**.**

To evaluate this approach, we examined the effects of high hydrostatic pressure

on the NMR chemical shifts of a collection of protein domains and protein/ligand

complexes. Many of these proteins are members of the Per-ARNT-Sim (PAS) family of

ligand-controlled protein/protein interaction domains, which often internally bind different

small molecule cofactors to sensitize them to environmental factors like O_2, light, and

xenobiotics (27, 28). Changes to the occupancies or configurations of these cofactors

trigger conformational changes in the surrounding protein, regulating the activity of

various effector domains in natural and engineered proteins (28, 29). While a number

of high-resolution structures of apo- and ligand-bound PAS domains have been solved,

these models and predictions which can be made from them can provide insights into

only a small fraction of the many thousands of "orphan" PAS domains without known

ligands. Complementing these proteins, we added additional proteins and

protein/ligand complexes from a wide range of domain types – including some which

are known to bind ligands internally, some not – to establish the generality of this

approach for quickly probing protein structure and function.

Here we test the ability of high-pressure NMR to rapidly identify void-containing

proteins, with three key advances. First, by analyzing pressure titration data from over

40 proteins and protein/ligand complexes, we show that an easily accessible metric –

how differently sites within a protein respond to increasing pressure, as assessed by the

diversity of non-linear chemical shift perturbations observed in a simple titration without

requiring site-specific assignments – correlates well with the void volume within a

protein. We find that this metric is robust enough to predict total void volume on its own,

allowing the prioritization of potential ligand-binding capability amongst several targets.

Second, we demonstrate that internal ligand binding within a protein can reduce this

heterogeneity, quickly providing information on ligand binding and, in certain cases,

mode of action. Finally, we illustrate how this method can also be used to rapidly

assess the impact of point mutations/repacking, such as those used to fill or generate

cavities to facilitate artificial control, on the prevention or enabling of water entry. Taken

together, our data show the general utility of these rapidly acquired, easily analyzed

data to provide this important biophysical characterization of new proteins.

Results

Evaluation of non-linear NMR chemical shift responses to high pressure: We began by

examining the pressure dependence of NMR signals from a set of well-characterized

proteins using the workflow in **Fig. 2**. For each U-^{15}N labeled protein sample, we

acquired ^{1}H/^{15}N HSQC spectra at increasingly higher pressures from 20-2500 bar. After

each individual dataset was acquired at high pressure, we lowered the pressure to 20

bar and acquired a spectrum to confirm the reversibility of conformational changes; after

any sign of irreversible changes in peak intensity or location, the pressure series was

stopped. These series were typically composed of 21 spectra each taking 60 min

apiece, for a total of approximately 21 hr. Post-processing, peaks were picked and the

pressure dependence of changes of their ^{1}H and ^{15}N chemical shifts were

independently fit to a second-order polynomial equation:

100                    $$\delta_i = a_i + b_i p + c_i p^2 \textbf{ (Eq. 1)}$$

Fig. 2: Workflow of pressure NMR analyses. For each protein analyzed, ^{1}H/^{15}N HSQC spectra were acquired at increasing pressures from 20-2500 bar, interleaving additional spectra at 20 bar between those at higher pressure to assess protein reversibility. Following processing, peaks were picked and chemical shifts monitored as a function of increasing pressure. Independently treating ^{1}H and ^{15}N movements, the pressure-dependent chemical shift changes of each peak are fit to the second order polynomial indicated to obtain linear (b_i) and nonlinear (c_i) coefficients. Subsequent analyses of the nonlinear (c_i) coefficients include either plotting c_i values as a function of residue number (for proteins with backbone chemical shift assignments) to identify regions with likely pressure-dependent conformational changes or to simply generate histograms of c_i values to give a quick initial characterization of likely ability to adopt multiple folded conformations.

As established by Akasaka and co-workers (21, 25), the linear (b_i) and nonlinear

(c_i) coefficients of these pressure responses reflect different properties of each protein.

To evaluate various analyses of these data, we examined an initial group of nine

proteins ("test set") with high resolution structures with total void volumes ranging from

approximately 1500-8500 $Å^3$ as assessed by ProteinVolume (5). This approach

provides a sum of the volumes of a wide array of packing defects, cavities, etc.

regardless of their size or distribution within a protein structure by simply calculating the

difference between the solvent-accessible volume of a protein and the volume occupied

by protein atoms (**Fig. 1B**). Pressure titration data were additionally recorded from

more than 30 additional proteins and protein ligand complexes, with varying degrees of

structural information to build the "complete set" of data for subsequent analyses.

As an initial analysis, we examined the absolute values of the two chemical shift

coefficients ($|b_i|$, $|c_i|$), separately averaged over all backbone amide protons and

nitrogens (typically 25-125) within each protein. From these analyses, we confirmed

that the averaged ^1H and ^{15}N $|b_i|$ values were fairly uniform across proteins with less

than two-fold variation, while the corresponding $|c_i|$ values varied over 4-10 fold ranges

(**Fig. S1**). These data expand the original data sets of Akasaka and Li (25) from seven

proteins and complexes to over 40 total, add an independent measurement and

analysis of the GB1 protein to assess the impact of different equipment, labs, and

software for data acquisition and analyses (*e.g.* 750 MHz in Kobe University by K.A.;

700-800 MHz in New York by K.H.G.), and support the original interpretations that the

linear $|b_i|$ component is relatively fixed among systems while $|c_i|$ depends on a protein-

specific feature (25).

Further investigating these pressure-dependent chemical shift changes, we

noted a trend towards proteins with larger total void volumes having both higher c_i

values (**Fig. S1**) and a greater range of individual residue-specific c_i parameters than

proteins with smaller voids, both of which we thought might reflect a more heterogenous

structural response. While the larger c_i values are captured by the previously-described

average $|c_i|$ parameter (25), we examined several ways to quantitate the heterogeneity

in c_i values, settling on a combination of histograms and the standard deviation of the c_i

(stdev(c_i)). While the correlation between average $|c_i|$ and stdev(c_i) values for amide ^{1}H

and ^{15}N shifts (**Fig. S2**) suggest similarities between the two metrics, we opted to

proceed using stdev(c_i) to take advantage of the larger range of values provided by

dropping the absolute value operation. We also observed a high correlation between

the stdev(c_i) values of ^{1}H and ^{15}N (**Fig. S3**), suggesting that non-linear shift changes of

either nucleus report on pressure-induced changes despite differences in the structural

factors which influence them (30). Our subsequent analyses utilized stdev(c_i) of ^{15}N

chemical shift changes (= stdev(c_i [^{15}N])), which are thought to be most strongly

influenced by changes in backbone torsion angles (25, 30).

To examine the linkage of stdev(c_i) to total void volume, we measured the

nonlinear components (c_i [^{15}N]) of a test set of nine proteins (with one, GB1, repeated in

duplicate) with known structures and a range of total void volumes (**Fig. 3**). Histograms

of stdev(c_i) parameters exhibited the previously-mentioned variability, with proteins

having larger total void volumes typically having broader distributions than those with

smaller total void volumes (**Fig 3 inset**). We interpreted this trend as stemming from

voids enabling proteins to increasingly shift from the native N conformation to a second

Fig. 3: **Increasing diversity of non-linear pressure dependent chemical shift changes correlates with increased void volume**. Total void volumes calculated by ProteinVolume (5) for each proteins are presented on the x-axis; the y-axis plots the standard deviation of the non-linear c_i parameters for the amide ^{15}N chemical shifts of each protein, typically using data from 25-125 crosspeaks for each protein. The linear regression (red line, y= –1.564+0.0194x, omitting the lysozyme point) shows a correlation coefficient (r^2) of 0.929. The red dashed line indicates an arbitrary value of approximately 50 (x2x10^{-10}) ppm/bar^2 as suggesting the potential for small molecule binding, as noted in the text. Inset: histograms of each of the ten proteins showing the distributions of measured ^{15}N c_i parameters for the same set of proteins (as indicated by the same color scheme).

folded N' conformation under pressure, reflected in the non-linear chemical shift

responses as the N' is progressively populated. Quantitating the breadth of these

distributions by stdev(c_i [^{15}N]) and plotting these versus total void volume showed a

linear correlation coefficient (r^2) of 0.929, supporting the linkage between pressure-

induced chemical shift nonlinearities to identify cavities. Of note, the proteins with a

stdev(c_i [^{15}N]) above 50 (x 2x10^{-10} ppm/bar^2) are all known to bind other proteins or

small molecules, suggesting an arbitrary value which could be useful to prioritize for

ligand-screening.

We note that the primary outlier of the observed linear correlation, hen egg white

lysozyme, is quite thermostable with a T_m of almost 75°C (31), likely hampering its

transition into an excited state under pressure unless its intrinsic stability of its basic

folded state is substantially lowered (*e.g.* by cooling close to the cold denaturation

temperature (32)). In addition, we cannot rule out potential contributions from lysozyme

being an enzyme instead of a signal transduction component, which may contribute a

different ability to adopt alternative conformations reflected in pressure-induced non-

linear chemical shift changes. This remains to be seen in future studies.

Use of pressure NMR to reveal ligand binding mode of action – Well-defined cases:

Our correlation between increased heterogeneity of pressure-induced chemical shift

changes and void size makes a strong prediction that this route should provide a rapid

way to assess ligand binding: ligands which bind within the protein and reduce total void

volume should decrease the stdev(c_i) value of spectra recorded on the receptor. To test

this prediction, we evaluated how ligand binding affects the PAS-B domains of the

human HIF-2α and ARNT proteins, both of which are involved in the human hypoxia

response (33) and contain internal cavities known to bind artificial small molecule

ligands (1, 3, 6).

Prior studies of the HIF-2α PAS-B domain by our group and others (1, 6, 34, 35)

have shown that it contains a single internal water-filled 290 Å^3 cavity with no obvious

access to external solvent. However, a variety of screening efforts – from NMR-based

fragment binding screens to high throughput screens of HIF-2α/ARNT disruption (1, 2,

6, 35) or protein stability (35) – have identified a wide range of small molecules which

bind into this cavity with nano- to micromolar affinities. High-resolution X-ray structures

of these complexes show that the ligands displace water and reduce HIF-2 activity by

impacting HIF-2α/ARNT interactions (36-38). To accommodate these binding events

within a solvent-inaccessible cavity, the HIF-2α PAS-B protein must dynamically

fluctuate to allow for a conformation which allows the entry of small molecules into the

interior (39). Our pressure NMR analysis confirmed this hypothesis, showing a very

broad distribution of c_i (^{15}N) responses with a correspondingly large stdev(c_i [^{15}N]) of 85

x (2x10^{-10} ppm/bar^2) (**Figs. 4A and S4**). We anticipated that repeating these

measurements in the presence of two nanomolar-affinity compounds (**2** (1) and **37** (2))

would show smaller non-linear chemical shift changes than the apo protein given the

smaller total void volume and expected reduced flexibility of the protein/ligand

complexes. Our data supported this, as we observed decreases in stdev(c_i [^{15}N]) from

85 x (2x10^{-10} ppm/bar^2) for the apo protein to 64 (**2**-bound) and 53 (**37**-bound) x (2x10^{-10}

ppm/bar^2), respectively. Notably, these decreases do not solely correlate with loss of

void volume in some cases: measurements conducted on HIF-2α D1, a

computationally-repacked variant with five point mutations which reduce the cavity

volume to 77 Å^3 (40) while retaining function, shows an *increase* in stdev(c_i [^{15}N]) up to

131 x (2×10^{-10} ppm/bar^2) (**Fig. 4A**). We speculate that differences between some

aspect of this engineered protein, perhaps in the dynamics or thermodynamic stability,

and natural proteins contribute to non-linear responses to pressure.

Fig. 4: High pressure NMR can provide mode-of-action information on ligand binding, even in the absence of structural information. (Left panel) A. Three-dimensional ribbon diagrams of HIF-2α PAS-B in its apo (PDB: 3f1p) and holo forms (complexed with **2**, PDB: 4ghi), highlighting the location of an internal cavity for ligand binding. Chemical structures of two high-affinity inhibitors, **2** and **37** (1, 2) are also shown. B. Three-dimensional ribbon diagram of ARNT PAS-B (PDB: 3f1p) highlighting the location of an internal cavities, along with the structures of two moderate affinity binders, **KG-548** and **KG-655** (3). No structural details are available for the bound form. (Central panel) Histograms of the ^{15}N c_i coefficients measured on apo- and holo forms of HIF-2α and ARNT PAS-B domains using the approach diagrammed in **Fig. 2**. (Right panel) Comparisons of the stdev(c_i[^{15}N]) values of HIF-2α and ARNT PAS-B apo and ligand-bound samples, showing substantial effects as cavities are occupied by water (apo forms), small molecule ligands or protein sidechains.

We used the same approach with the ARNT PAS-B domain, which has the same

tertiary structure as HIF-2α PAS-B but contains smaller internal cavities which total 150

Å^3 in volume. We have previously used NMR-based fragment screening, isothermal

titration calorimetry (ITC) and microscale thermophoresis (MST) to identify several

compounds which bind ARNT PAS-B with micromolar affinities; two of these, **KG-548**

and **KG-655**, are further known to disrupt ARNT PAS-B interactions with coactivator

proteins (3). However, the binding modes of these compounds remain unclear without

co-complex structures solved by NMR or X-ray crystallography. By acquiring pressure

NMR data, we confirmed that ARNT PAS-B retains a flexibly-accessible interior cavity

with a stdev(c_i[^{15}N]) of 84 x (2x10^{-10} ppm/bar^2) (**Figs. 4B and S5**). Repeating these in

the presence of the **KG-655** ligand, we observed a drop of stdev(c_i[^{15}N]) to 51 x (2x10^{-10}

ppm/bar^2), consistent with an interior binding location for this small ligand. However,

similar studies with the larger **KG-548** ligand show a stdev(c_i[^{15}N]) comparable to the

apo protein, with an observed value of 96 x (2x10^{-10} ppm/bar^2) that suggest that this

compound binds in a different mode than **KG-655**, potentially outside the cavity.

Use of pressure NMR to reveal ligand binding – Poorly-defined cases: As a next

demonstration of this approach, we examined its utility for PAS domains outside the

hypoxia response and with less well understood regulation. We considered two such

targets, the first of which is the N-terminal PAS domain of human PAS kinase (PASK

PAS-A), a PAS domain-regulated serine/threonine kinase conserved among eukaryotes

(4, 41). This domain has a canonical PAS structure, with a five-stranded β-sheet

flanked to one side by several α helices (27, 42). While only a small surface groove of

73 $Å^3$ could be identified near the F/G loop in the representative member of the solution

structure ensemble, an NMR-based fragment screen of 750 compounds identified

several small molecules that bound with micromolar affinity to PASK PAS-A (4).

Chemical shift perturbations suggest that these compounds bind within the domain

interior, analogous to the subsequently-discovered HIF-2α and ARNT PAS-B binding

compounds, but the lack of a PASK PAS-A/ligand complex structure leaves this as an

open issue. To address this, we used high-pressure NMR to examine the response of

PASK PAS-A in its apo form and when saturated with two compounds with K_D=13-24

μM affinities (**KG-535**, **KG-571 =** compounds **1 and 2** in (4)). For the apo- protein, we

observed a stdev(c_i[^{15}N]) of 45 x (2x10^{-10} ppm/bar^2); from the correlation identified in

our test set (**Fig. 3**), this value predicts that PASK PAS-A contains a total void volume

slightly smaller than the 3345 $Å^3$ calculated from the representative member of the

solution structure ensemble (**Figs. 5A and S6**). Upon addition of the **KG-535** and **KG-**

571 ligands, we observed smaller stdev(c_i[^{15}N]) values for both ligand-bound forms (35

and 28 x (2x10^{-10} ppm/bar^2) for the **KG-535** and **KG-571**-bound forms, respectively; **Fig.**

5A). These data suggest that both compounds bind within the void volume of PASK

PAS-A, with **KG-571** having a greater effect on the domain adopting alternative folded

conformations.

We completed our analyses of natural proteins by examining a prokaryotic PAS

domain from a novel histidine kinase from *Rhizobium etli (43)*, chosen because of a).

homology with the light-regulated PAS-histidine kinase EL346 (44, 45) and b). the

widespread usage of small molecule ligands to control the structure and function of

PAS-containing proteins (including many histidine kinases (28)). While no experimental

Fig. 5: High pressure NMR can provide ligand binding information, even in the absence of structural information. (Left panel) A. Three-dimensional structure of PASK PAS-A (PDB: 1ll8) and structures of two binding compounds, **KG-535** and **KG-571** (4). No high-resolution structures of protein/ligand complexes are available. B. No structural information is available for the RE137 PAS domain, in either apo and bound forms. Structures of two binding compounds identified by ^{19}F ligand-detected NMR screening, **15** and **47**. (Central panel) Histograms of the ^{15}N c_i coefficients measured on apo- and holo forms of PASK and RE137 PAS domains using the approach diagrammed in **Fig. 2**. (Right panel) Comparisons of the stdev(c_i[^{15}N]) values of PASK and RE137 apo- and ligand-bound samples.

structures are available of this domain, which we designate RE137, we hypothesized

that the structure may contain a cavity that can accommodate a small molecule given

precedence from other PAS domains (28). Pressure NMR analyses of the apo protein

support this possibility, returning a stdev(c_i[^{15}N]) value of 53 x (2×10^{-10} ppm/bar^2) (**Figs.**

5B and S7), suggesting the presence of a 2800 Å^3 total void volume from the

correlation seen in **Fig. 3**. To provide an initial assessment of small molecule binding,

we used an R_2-filtered ^{19}F NMR assay to search for binders of RE137 within a 100-

member library of fluorinated compounds (46). For this study, we used two of those

compounds **15** and **47**; pressure analyses of RE137 saturated with each compound

exhibited decreases of 43 and 39% with stdev(c_i[^{15}N]) values of 30 and 32 x (2×10^{-10}

ppm/bar^2) for the **15**- and **47**-bound forms, respectively. We interpret these data to

indicate that RE137 can bind both compounds in such a way as to reduce the total void

volume of the protein.

Use of pressure NMR to probe artificially-designed proteins: As a final demonstration of

the utility of this method, we examined its utility in investigating the flexibility of an

artificially-designed protein, CA01 (47). With advances in protein engineering enabling

the development of artificial ligand-binding biosensor proteins (48), we sought to probe

whether a protein such as CA01 – which contains a completely-enclosed 75 Å^3 cavity

within approximately 3500 Å^3 of total void volume – might show similar pressure-

dependent non-linear chemical shift changes as natively-evolved counterparts. From

our correlation in **Fig. 3** we expected to see a stdev(c_i[^{15}N]) value of approximately 75

(2×10^{-10} ppm/bar^2) from a natural protein with void volume of this size, but we instead

observed a substantially smaller value of 38 x (2×10^{-10} ppm/bar^2) (**Fig. 6**). As CA01 is

extremely stable to thermal and chemical denaturation, requiring 5 M guanidinium

hydrochloride to exhibit a complete thermal melt with a 75°C T_m (47), we view this

observation supports our prior findings with lysozyme suggesting thermostable proteins

being less able to adopt alternative conformations (**Fig. 3**).

Fig. 6: High pressure NMR of a highly thermostable, cavity-containing designed protein gives smaller non-linear pressure dependent chemical shift changes than anticipated from void volume. (Left panel) Three-dimensional structure of CA01 (PDB: 5e6g), highlighting the location of a 75 $Å^3$ internal cavity within a total void volume of 3500 $Å^3$. (Right panel) Histogram of the ^{15}N c_i coefficients measured on CA01 (aqua) and 22 apo proteins listed in **Fig. S1** (grey) using the approach diagrammed in **Fig. 2**. Bar on right indicates stdev(c_i[^{15}N]) measured for CA01 (aqua) and 22 apo proteins (grey), along with the value predicted for CA01 from the correlation in **Fig 3**.

Discussion

In the present work, we successfully used non-linear pressure-induced chemical

shift effects at backbone amide ^{1}H and ^{15}N nuclei to rapidly assess whether proteins

contain substantial total void volumes within them and if these can bind small molecule

ligands. A particular strength of our implementation is its simplicity, as 1). the

necessary U-^{15}N labeled samples are routinely available from *E. coli* or *in vitro*

expression systems, 2). the NMR data needed are easily obtained from conventional

^{1}H/^{15}N HSQC experiments recorded at variable pressures using commercially-available

pressure sources, and 3). straightforward data analyses are done by simply tracking

peak locations without requiring chemical shift assignments, eliminating one of the more

time-consuming steps of NMR analyses.

Mechanistically, we attribute the non-linear chemical shift changes with

increasing pressure to site-specific conformational changes of the protein from the

native folded structural ensemble (N) to the low-lying excited state ensemble (N') with

smaller volume (17). Our specific choice of backbone amide ^{1}H and ^{15}N chemical shifts

give us complementary views of these transitions (**Fig. S3**), as ^{1}H chemical shifts are

dominated by hydrogen bonding to these atoms, while ^{15}N chemical shifts are

influenced by a broader set of factors, including changes in hydrogen bonding (to the

both the adjacent ^{1}H and carbonyl CO groups), local backbone dihedrals and sidechain

conformations (49). Of note, non-linear pressure-dependent chemical shift changes at

these sites are much smaller in peptides or intrinsically disordered proteins (50).

Indeed, non-linear pressure-dependent amide ^{1}H and ^{15}N chemical shift changes have

long been recognized as reflecting idiosyncratic differences among proteins (51). Prior

work by one of our groups (K.A.) suggested that this property depends on the density of

cavities within the protein (25); here we both expand the number of proteins examined

from that work and suggest that contributions likely arise from small and large voids

distributed throughout the protein which collectively give rise to the total void volumes

calculated by the program ProteinVolume (5) given the excellent correlation we present

in **Fig. 3**. We posit that such an approach reveals aspects that will be correlated to the

ability of proteins to be similarly affected by allosteric regulators and other ligands,

linking these non-linear chemical shift effects to the potential for small molecule binding

and regulation.

In addition to getting information on the total void volume within a given protein,

the strengths of this analysis include the ability to identify ligands which bind to a given

target and (de)stabilize one conformation in a way that may provide allosteric switching.

As such, this provides trivially-accessible mode-of-action information that is often

challenging to get otherwise without resources such as compounds of known binding

location for competition studies or cavity-filling point mutants. Our comparison of two

cavity-perturbing effects for HIF-2α PAS-B – small molecule binding and cavity-filling

redesign – produced opposite effects, with the small molecules stabilizing the native fold

and mutations destabilizing in our pressure NMR analyses. We underscore that these

effects occur despite minor changes in ground state structure among structures of the

apo, ligand-bound and redesigned proteins (1, 6, 40). As such, pressure-dependent

chemical shift effects give us insight into details of the packing and dynamics of proteins

more simply than most other methods can provide. Finally, our comparison of the

ARNT PAS-B binding compounds **KG-548** and **KG-655** provide an outstanding example

of two molecules known to bind by NMR chemical shift perturbations, but with limited

binding site information previously available. With high pressure NMR, we predict

different binding modes between the two ligands, with **KG-655** binding primarily to an

internal site while **KG-548** binds externally.

We emphasize that our approach requires very little preliminary information on

the target, needing neither structures nor site-specific chemical shift assignments, as

demonstrated by the hPASK PAS-A and RE137 cases. In both cases, the stdev(c_i [^{15}N])

values of the apo proteins exceed the value of approximately 50 (2×10^{-10} ppm/bar^2)

value we suggest as indicating potential ligand binding, and in both cases, we were able

to quickly identify compounds which bound to these proteins with micromolar affinities

from small libraries using either protein- or ligand-detected NMR methods. Our high

pressure NMR results quickly add important information, showing that these compounds

bind in such a way as to reduce the flexibility of the receptors, probably through binding

internal cavities.

Finally, while our demonstrations have focused on relatively small ~15 kDa ligand

binding domains, we note that several routes can expand the reach of this approach to

larger and more complex systems by reducing spectral complexity. Options include

biochemical approaches to generate proteins with simplified ^{15}N-labeling patterns, as

provided by amino-acid type selective or sortase/intein-based domain-specific

techniques, to ^{1}H/^{15}N TROSY or HNCO-type pulse sequences which can provide

improved resolution. Additional options may be provided by the improved NMR signal

properties of ^{1}H/^{13}C methyl signals for similar pressure-sensitive studies, particularly

given the placement of these residues near internal cavities.

Materials and Methods

Proteins were expressed in *E. coli* with uniform ^{15}N labeling, purified using

combination of Ni(II) affinity and gel filtration chromatography before being exchanged

into a barostatic Tris:phosphate buffer mix which limits pH changes during

pressurization (52) and concentrated to 100-700 µM for NMR spectroscopy. ^{1}H/^{15}N

HSQC spectra were acquired at increasing pressures from 20-2500 bar, interleaving

each high pressure spectrum with a low pressure (20 bar) spectrum to confirm that

changes in peak locations and intensities were reversible. All NMR data were

processed with NMRFx (One Moon Scientific) (53, 54) and analyzed with NMRViewJ

(One Moon Scientific) (53, 55). After individually processing each spectrum, we picked

peaks and tracked their changes in chemical shifts as a function of pressure.

Separately handling movement in the ^{1}H and ^{15}N dimensions, we fit these trends to a

second-order polynomial equation (**Eq. 1, Fig. 2**). Protein volume analyses of single

isolated cavities utilized *cavfinder* (1), while measurements of total void volumes utilized

ProteinVolume (5). Additional detailed procedures are found in **SI Materials and**

Methods.

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