Design of novel CV-N variants: Modulation of binding dynamics through distal mutations

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Abstract

We develop a computational approach to identify distal residues that allosterically

modulate dynamics of binding sites by combining dynamic coupling with statistical analysis of

co-evolution. Putative mutants of the predicted allosteric sites are subjected to Adaptive BP-Dock

for binding analysis. Here, we apply this method to a small lectin, Cyanovirin-N (CV-N), that

selectively binds to dimannose. Our method points out mutations on I34, that is 16Å away from

binding pocket, can modulate binding. Experimental characterization confirms that I34K abolishes

binding, while I34Y increases affinity. Increased affinity is not due to changes in the binding

region, which are conserved in the crystal structure. However, ITC analysis reveals an opposite

entropic contribution, suggesting that modulation of dynamics is responsible for the change in

binding affinity. Our results point to a novel approach to identify and substitute distal sites by

integrating evolutionary inference with protein dynamics in glycan-binding proteins to improve

binding affinity.

Introduction

Naturally occurring proteins exhibit a fine balance between protein stability and biological

function. Protein sequence underpins any possible protein function, yet deciphering this encoded

information is still a challenge (Salinas and Ranganathan, 2018). Evolutionarily related proteins

display co-variation at specific sites, pointing to the importance of interactions among these

residues in governing 3-D structure and function. Sequence-based prediction methods involving

multiple sequence alignment (MSA) to map co-evolved positions through information theory

based approaches usually identify the residue pairs that have direct interactions (i.e. in contact in

3-D structure), yet mask allosteric coupling between residues far from each other (long range

interactions) or phylogenetic effects (Anishchenko et al., 2017; Jones et al., 2012; Kamisetty et al.,

2013). As a result, it is hard to identify important sites distal from functional sites (binding or

active sites that modulate function). However, directed evolution studies have shown that these

long range interactions between distal residues and binding/active site play a role in function, and

substitutions on these distal sites are crucial to optimize leads in computational protein design

(Acar et al., 2020; Barrientos et al., 2006; Campbell et al., 2016, 2018; Campitelli et al., 2020a;

Keeffe et al., 2011; Otten et al., 2018; Risso et al., 2018; Romero and Arnold, 2009; Tokuriki et

al., 2012; Yuan et al., 2005; Zhang et al., 2006).

To overcome this challenge in protein design, here we combine co-evolution analyses

through MSA with protein dynamics using Dynamic Coupling Index (DCI) analysis to identify

distal positions potentially involved in modulating binding interactions (Campitelli et al., 2018,

2020a; Larrimore et al., 2017). We hypothesize that mutations at these distal sites can modulate

binding affinity by altering the conformational dynamics of the binding pocket. Thus, after

identifying an allosteric site, we first computationally screened how mutations modulate binding

affinity using our in-house flexible docking method Adaptive BP-dock and then validated our

predictions experimentally (Bolia and Ozkan, 2016).

The model protein chosen for characterizing allosteric modulation of binding mediated by

long range interactions with co-evolved sites is Cyanovirin-N (CV-N). CV-N is a small (11 kDa)

natural lectin isolated from cyanobacterium *Nostoc ellipsosporum* and has been studied

extensively as a model to investigate protein interactions with glycans (Barrientos et al., 2003;

Botos and Wlodawer, 2005, 2003; Mori and Boyd, 2001; O'Keefe et al., 2003). Most members of

the CV-N homology family contain two sequential repeats of about 50 residues. While residues in

the core region are highly conserved, residues involved in dimannose binding are not highly

conserved resulting in differences in specificity and selectivity of the binding pockets (Koharudin

et al., 2008; Koharudin and Gronenborn, 2013; Patsalo et al., 2011; Percudani et al., 2005; Qi et

al., 2009). Most homologs characterized so far show high conservation of the structural binding

units, but they lose the specificity for dimannose that is a hallmark of CV-N recognition, and bind

to oligomannose and other glycans at much higher micromolar concentrations (Koharudin et al.,

2009, 2008; Matei et al., 2016; Woodrum et al., 2013).

CV-N comprises two quasi-symmetric domains, A and B, spanning residues 1-38/90-101

and residues 39-89 respectively. The two domains are connected to each other by a short helical

linker. Despite almost having identical structures, the domains show relatively low sequence

homology (28% sequence identity, and 52% similarity). Functionally, they both bind dimannose,

yet the affinity is quite different, with domain B having tighter binding affinity (K_d= 15.3 µM),

and domain A showing weak affinity (K_d = 400 µM) (Balzarini, 2007; Bolmstedt et al., 2001; Li

et al., 2015). To simplify our analysis we used a designed CV-N variant, P51G-m4, that contains

a single high-affinity dimannose-binding site (domain B), folds exclusively as a monomer in

physiological conditions, and is more stable to thermal denaturation than wild type (Fromme et

al., 2008, 2007).

Application of our approach on P51G-m4 identified position I34, which is 16 Å away from

the binding pocket, as highly coupled and co-evolved with the binding residues of domain B. Based

on the co-variation with binding pocket residues, three variants of I34 (K, L, Y) were selected for

further analyses. The mutants were modeled by GROMACS Molecular Dynamics (MD)

simulations and subjected to docking using Adaptive BP dock. The docking results uncovered that

each variant acts differently to binding of dimannose. Experimental biophysical characterization

of the mutants confirmed that (i) I34Y increases the binding affinity, (ii) I34L is neutral and

consistent with the template, and (iii) I34K abolishes binding affinity towards dimannose. The

crystal structure of I34Y with and without dimannose shows high conservation of the overall fold

and particularly its binding motif compared to P51G-m4, despite the enhancement in binding

affinity. Conformational dynamics analysis by MD revealed that substitution on I34 modulates

equilibrium distribution of the conformations of the binding pocket towards open pocket. In

addition, dynamic flexibility index (DFI) analysis shows that I34Y mutant results in rigidification

of binding residues T57, E41 and N42, in turns decreasing the entropy cost of binding and leading

to the favorable binding affinity. A favorable entropy term in binding by I34Y variant is supported

by ITC studies. Our findings indicate that it is possible to modulate ligand binding through

mutation at a distal location, based on long distance dynamic coupling with binding sites, and

present a novel computational approach to identify those sites.

Results and Discussion

Combining long-range dynamic coupling analysis with co-evolution allows to identify distal

sites that contribute to binding affinity.

The binding pocket of domain B of CV-N has been subjected to intense scrutiny to glean

the origin of its binding specificity for dimannose (Bewley, 2001; Bolia et al., 2014b; Botos and

Wlodawer, 2003; Li et al., 2015; Vorontsov and Miyashita, 2009). Previous mutational studies on

the binding pocket residues have shown their importance in modulating interaction with

dimannose along with a role in modulating water-mediated interactions (Barrientos et al., 2006;

Bolia et al., 2014b; Chang and Bewley, 2002; Matei et al., 2008). So far all substitutions of the

binding residues led to decreased binding affinity for dimannose on domain B (Bolia et al., 2014b;

Fujimoto and Green, 2012; Kelley et al., 2002; Matei et al., 2011; Ramadugu et al., 2014).

Furthermore, evolutionary analyses reassures the majority of the binding site residues are

conserved in CV-N glycan interactions, suggesting that it is harder to enhance affinity through

mutations of these conserved binding sites. (Koharudin et al., 2008; Percudani et al., 2005). Here,

we take a completely different approach and aim to identify positions that are not directly

interacting with glycans but can potentially impact glycan binding through modulating the protein

ensemble in equilibrium. These positions could be far away yet can modulate the binding by

altering the conformational dynamics of the binding pocket due to long-distance communication

through fluctuations arising anisotropic interaction within the 3-D network of interactions (i.e.,

dynamic allosteric communications) (Acar et al., 2020; Campbell et al., 2016; Gunasekaran et al.,

2004; Lu and Liang, 2009; Wodak et al., 2019). We call positions that exhibit dynamic coupling

with the binding sites and mediate long-distance communication dynamic allosteric residue

coupling (DARC) spots. Our protein dynamics analyses on different protein families, particularly

on ancestral resurrected proteins have revealed that many proteins harbor DARC spots and that

substitutions on the DARC spots play a critical role in modulating the function for adaptation to

new environments (Kumar et al., 2015b; Modi and Ozkan, 2018; Ose et al., 2020).

To seek DARC spots in the CV-N scaffold we first applied our Dynamic Flexibility Index

(DFI) and Dynamic coupling Index (DCI) analyses. DFI score measures the resilience of a position

by computing the total fluctuation response of a position when each position in the protein is

perturbed with a random unit force and is related to the flexibility/rigidity of a given position (see

methods). Our earlier work has shown that rigid positions, which we call *hinge sites*, contribute

the most to the equilibrium dynamics that sample conformations in native state and distal hinge

positions that are coupled to the active site could modulate dynamics to alter function (Gerek and

Ozkan, 2011; Kumar et al., 2015b; Larrimore et al., 2017; Modi and Ozkan, 2018).

As Natural selection strongly shapes the mutational landscape through protein dynamics

(Campitelli et al., 2020a; Modi et al., 2021), we combine evolutionary inference obtained from

multiple sequence alignment with position specific, dynamics-based DCI and DFI profiles of CVN

to modify the binding affinity of a lectin towards a specific glycan. Particularly, we searched for

distal rigid positions (exhibiting %DFI values 0.2 or lower and at least 15Å away from binding

residues) that are dynamically coupled and co-evolved with the binding pocket (showing 0.7 or

higher dynamic coupling with the binding site) (Supplementary file 1 table 1).

DFI profile for CV-N (Fig 1A) shows that the region around residue I34 is rigid (low score)

implicating this distal location in transferring allosteric communication and controlling the

dynamics of the binding site, over a 16Å distance (Table S1).

Fig 1 A) The DFI profile mapped onto CV-N structure within a color spectrum of red white blue where red presents positions with high DFI, (very flexibile sites) , and blue presents positions with low DFI values (rigid sites). Residue I34 shows low DFI score, suggesting its critical role in mediating the collective motion and its importance in function. B) DCI profile projected on CV-N structure in a color-coded spectrum sites exhibiting high DCI are green. Residue I34 is found as highly dynamically coupled to binding site residues. The color-code maps from dynamics metrics suggest I34 can potentially be an allosteric modulator for binding where substitutions can alter glycan interactions.

To further analyze potential impact of position I34 on binding, we applied the DCI metric

to capture its long-distance dynamic coupling with the binding residues. DCI metric shows the

fluctuation response of a position of interest when a functional group (i.e., binding sites) is

perturbed by unit forces relative to its fluctuation response to a perturbation to any other positions

in the protein. In other words, it measures how much a residue of interest is dynamically coupled

to another position, particularly functionally important positions (Campitelli et al., 2018;

Larrimore et al., 2017). We found that residue I34 is highly coupled to binding site residues of

domain B of CV-N (Fig 1B) (Table S1) (Supplementary file 1 table 1), suggesting that

substitutions at this position could modulate binding dynamics as observed in other systems

(Campitelli et al., 2020a; Risso et al., 2018). Additionally, we applied co-evolutionary analyses to

estimate evolutionary coupling between residue I34 and binding site residues (Supplementary file

1 table 1) (Hopf et al., 2019; Ma et al., 2015; Simonetti et al., 2013) (See methods). We found that

I34 is co-evolved with five binding site positions (Table S1). When both conformational dynamics

analyses, and co-evolution analyses are used to select residue positions that fit our criteria, I34

emerges as the one and only hinge position that is more than 15Å away and the only co-evolved

position exhibiting dynamic coupling with the binding site. We note that it is remarkable

considering hundred locations in CV-N. only one residue that is distal and both exhibiting high

dynamic coupling and co-evolved with the binding sites. emerged from our analyses. Therefore,

we selected I34 for further investigation.

Substitutions at a distal site yield to change in binding affinity from enhancing to abolishing

glycan binding

Next, we selected type of amino acid substitutions on position I34 (i.e., I34 variants) based

on the amino-acid frequencies observed using MSA of CV-N homolog sequences. To this aim, we

first generated a multiple sequence alignment using CVN family members whose binding site

residues have identical or similar amino-acid composition to P51G-m4 CV-N. We then obtained

the frequency of amino acid types at position 34 for these proteins. This analysis indicates that the

most frequently observed amino acids at this position are L and Y. As the earlier studies displays

(Jana et al., 2014; Modi et al., 2021; Morcos, 2020; Morcos et al., 2014, 2013), negative selection

(i.e. elimination of amino-acid types that are detrimental to the folding) is a major force in shaping

the mutational landscape. We can confidently assume that these frequently observed residue types

on positions 34 do not disrupt folding due to their presence in the MSA. We also selected K as a

mutant, because it is the only positively charged amino acid observed at position

34. (Supplementary file 1 table 2)

These new mutants were then modeled on the coordinates of P51G-m4 CV-N and subjected

to Molecular Dynamics simulations (Abraham et al., 2015; Spoel et al., 2005). At the end of the

simulations, the conformations are clustered by their root-mean-square deviation (RMSD), and the

most frequently sampled conformation is selected for docking analysis using our in house

algorithm Adaptive BP-Dock (Bolia and Ozkan, 2016), which incorporates both ligand and

receptor flexibility into computational methods to accurately sample binding induced

conformations during docking. These features are particularly important when docking highly

flexible ligands such as glycans, and we previously used Adaptive BP-Dock to analyze and predict

binding to dimannose in a series of CV-N binding site mutants (Bolia et al., 2014b; Li et al., 2015;

Woodrum et al., 2013). Here, we apply Adaptive BP-Dock to experimentally characterized wild-

type CV-N, and its variants: P51G-m4, mutDB (a mutant in which binding by domain B has been

obliterated) for benchmarking, and then compare their binding score energies to those of I34

variants. Adaptive BP-Dock has previously used to analyze different single point mutants of P51G-

m4 CV-N and good correlations were obtained between X-scores binding energy scores and

experimentally measured binding affinities (K_d) (Bolia et al., 2014b; Li et al., 2015). These

previous studies also showed that -6 kcal/mol X-score binding energy is a good threshold to

differentiate dimannose binding CV-Ns from mutants that cannot bind.

Based on the previous analysis binding energy X-scores, Adaptive BP-Dock correctly

assessed binding of benchmark proteins and predicted that substitutions on I34 modulate binding

affinity in a wide range: I34Y variant leads to an increase in binding affinity (beneficial), I34K

decreases the binding affinity (deleterious), and I34L yields no change (neutral). It is interesting

to observe that a distal site can modulate the binding with a wide range of outcome based on amino-

acid substitutions. This finding has also been observed for allosterically regulated enzymes such

as LacI where different amino-acid substitutions on non-conserved sites lead to gradual changes

in function, acting like a rheostatic switch to modulate function through conformational dynamics

(Campitelli et al., 2020b).

Table 1. The predicted binding affinities of domain B and comparison with experimental ITC data for P51G-m4 and its I34 variants. Docking results shows I34Y mutant has higher binding towards dimannose improving on its P51G-m4 template binding affinity.

Protein	Predicted Binding Score (kcal/mol)	ITC dimannose K_d (µM)	ITC dimannose ΔH (kcal/mol)	ITC dimannose $T\Delta S$ (kcal/mol) (T=298K)	ITC dimannose ΔG (kcal/mol)
Wild Type	-7.08	16 ± 1	-12.5 ± 0.3	-6.0 ± 0.1	
mutDB	-5.97	No-binding			
P51G-m4	-6.62	117 ± 3	-12.3 ± 0.3	-7.0 ± 0.3	-5.3 ± 0.3
P51G-m4-I34K	-5.85	No-binding	No-binding	No-binding	No-binding
P51G-m4-I34L	-6.19	148 ± 2	-9.6 ± 0.1	-4.4 ± 0.1	-5.2 ± 0.1
P51G-m4-I34Y	-6.75	64 ± 5	-4.35 ± 0.1	1.32 ± 0.2	-5.67 ± 0.2

The computational predictions were validated by experimental characterization of the

mutant proteins, prepared as described in Methods.

We assessed the folding and thermal stability of the mutants by circular dichroism (CD)

spectroscopy. The Far-UV CD spectra of the mutants showed that all the mutants are well folded

and adopt a fold similar to the parent protein, characterized by a single negative band centered at

216 nm. Thermal denaturation was used to measure apparent melting temperature (T_m) values. We

found that P51G-m4 and I34L are equally stable, with apparent T_m of 58 and 57.8 respectively. In

contrast, the I34Y and I34K mutants were less thermostable than P51G-m4 as shown by apparent

T_m values of 54.7 and 47 °C respectively. Substituting a hydrophobic residue with a basic aliphatic

amino acid (lysine) has a large destabilizing effect, while aromatic and polar tyrosine is better

tolerated. The trend for thermostability is P51G-m4 ~ I34L > I34Y > I34K (Fig S1).

Chemical denaturation experiments were used to extract thermodynamic values, after

ensuring complete equilibration at each concentration of guanidinium hydrochloride by incubating

the samples for 72-hour (Patsalo et al., 2011). The results align with the thermal denaturation

results: P51G-m4 is the most stable to denaturant, followed by I34L, I34Y and I34K (Fig S2). The

data were analyzed as described in methods to extract ΔG_{H20} values and C_m values of for P51G-

m4, I34L, I34Y and I34K of 3.0, 2.94, 2.91 and 2.38 kcal/mol and of 1.45, 1.39, 1.13 and 0.68 M

respectively (Table 2).

Table 2. The ΔG_{H2O} and C_m values for CV-N mutants obtained from chemical denaturation
experiments

Variants	ΔG_{H2O} (Kcal/mol)	C_m (M)
P51G-m4	3.01 ± 0.047	1.46 ± 0.019
P51G-m4-I34L	2.95 ± 0.077	1.39 ± 0.009
P51G-m4-I34Y	2.91 ± 0.157	1.13 ± 0.017
P51G-m4-I34K	2.40 ± 0.124	0.68 ± 0.015

Next, we evaluated the impact of the mutations on the function. The binding affinities of

the mutants for dimannose were assessed by isothermal titration calorimetry (ITC) (Fig S3),

obtaining K_d values listed in Table 1. We found that I34Y binds dimannose with tightest affinity

of all the mutants tested and showed a two-fold improvement over P51G-m4, with K_d of 64 µM

as compared to 117 µM. I34L showed a slight decrease in binding with a K_d of 148 µM. No binding

was observed for I34K. Thermodynamic values extracted from ITC experiments (Table 1) also

show that the change in binding is related to changes in entropy, particularly for I34Y. These data

support the hypothesis that I34 modulates the conformational dynamics of the pocket.

To glean more information on the effect of the mutations, we determined the X-ray

structure of the I34Y mutant with and without dimannose and compared it to the template protein

P51G-m4 by superimposing the structures. The fold is highly conserved (Fig 2) as shown by root

mean squared distance (RMSD) of 0.16 and 0.20 Å with bound and unbound I34Y, respectively,

and tyrosine is well tolerated at position I34. The binding pocket region is also structurally

conserved compared to P51G-m4. Analysis of the polar contacts with dimannose compared

between P51G-m4 and I34Y (Fig 2B) shows that both proteins make an identical number of

hydrogen bonds (11) with the ligand, indicating a conserved binding pose for dimannose. These

observations suggest that the increase in binding affinity of I34Y towards dimannose might be

mediated by equilibrium dynamics, which are not captured by the crystal structure. This hypothesis

is supported by the changes in entropy compensation measured experimentally (ITC) in dimannose

binding by P51G-m4 (negative TDS) and I34Y (positive TDS).

Fig 2 A) The crystal structures of I34Y (bound in magenta and unbound in cyan) and its template protein P51G-m4 (green) are superimposed. B) Overlay of bound structures of I34Y (magenta) and P51G-m4 (grey) (RMSD 0.15 Å); dashed lines depict polar interactions with dimannose.

To gather atomic level detail on how the substitutions on I34 dynamically modulate the

binding affinity, we performed two microsecond molecular dynamics simulations for each variant

and P51G-m4 to obtain equilibrium dynamics (See Methods for details of the simulations). Our

earlier work showed that residues N53 and N42 play a key role in regulating the binding pocket

accessibility to the glycans: A hydrogen bond between the amide hydrogen of N42 and carbonyl

oxygen of N53 forms a closed pocket, hindering glycan accessibility, whereas the loss of this

hydrogen bond leads to an open pocket (Li et al., 2015). Comparison of open and closed

conformations based on this hydrogen bond shows that I34Y variant samples the open binding

pocket more often than P51G-m4 (Fig S4).

Another compelling evidence differentiating I34 variants from P51G-m4 is the change in

their binding pocket volumes. The MD simulations were analyzed by POVME pocket volume

calculation tool (Wagner et al., 2017). The calculated pocket volumes for I34Y, I34K and P51G-

m4 were converted into frequencies to obtain probability distribution of the pocket volumes (Fig

3A), revealing that I34Y variant samples a more compact pocket volume compared to P51G-m4.

If the pocket is too small or too large dimannose cannot maximize its interaction with the protein,

and a compact conformation enables dimannose to easily make the necessary hydrogen bond

interactions with the protein. This optimum pocket volume sampled by I34Y may also explain the

different binding energetics observed by ITC, in which a positive entropy change upon binding

compensates for the loss in enthalpy compared to P51G-m4. Pocket volume analysis reveals a

larger value for I34K compared to P51G-m4, suggesting that this mutant cannot accommodate the

necessary interactions with the dimannose resulting in loss of binding. We applied the same pocket

volume calculation to the X-ray structures of P51G-m4 and I34Y variant, and we found volumes

of 141Å^3 and 114Å^3 for P51G-m4 and I34Y, respectively in the unbound forms (Fig 3B). These

volumes from structures correlates well with the mean volumes from MD simulation trajectories,

hinting that the variants modulate the conformational dynamics of binding pocket. Overall, in

agreement with ITC analysis, the results show a shift in native state ensemble upon allosteric

mutations, modifying the glycan-CV-N interactions. While our conformational dynamics analysis

suggest that the shift of the native ensemble towards a smaller pocket volume upon I34Y mutation

can explain the decrease in the entropic cost of binding, observed as positive entropy change in

ITC, the drastic decrease in enthalpic component in ITC fit is further investigated by analyzing

binding energetics of the docked poses obtained through performing dimannose docking on 2000

different conformations sampled accordingly from the binding pocket volume distributions. This

analysis shows that the small volume restrict accessibility to the side-chain conformations of

binding residue R76 in I34Y variant yielding different hydrogen bond patterns with the dimannose

(Fig S5), suggesting a loss in enthalpic contribution.

Fig 3 A) Probability distribution of the pocket volume analyses obtained from MD simulation trajectories. Comparison between different variants presents that I34Y stays in an optimum volume more than others favoring a suitable pocket for binding. P51G-m4 and I34L variant sample similar pocket volumes. but I34K variant has a larger pocket volume compared to others. B) Pocket volume comparison of the domain B of solved structures for P51G-m4 (purple colored structure on right) and I34Y variant (green colored structure on left).

Substitutions of I34 modulates conformational ensemble leading to change in glycan binding affinity

We and others have shown that nature adapts to a new environment or changes the function of a protein by modulating the native state ensemble through mutations of different positions while keeping the 3-D structure conserved (Campitelli et al., 2020a; Kuriyan and Eisenberg, 2007; Li et al., 2015; Liu and Nussinov, 2017; Modi and Ozkan, 2018; Risso et al., 2018; Tripathi et al., 2015; Woodrum et al., 2013). Furthermore, the shift in native state ensemble is reflected in equilibrium dynamics and the flexibility profiles obtained by DFI capture this shift. DFI profiles that show the flexibility/rigidity of each position withing the 3-D structure correlate well with the changes in function throughout evolution. We observed a similar pattern of conservation of structure yet change in function in our designed CV-N I34 variants, thus we further analyzed the DFI profiles of I34 variants. We clustered the DFI profiles of I34 mutants and P51G-m4 using principal component analyses (PCA) and compared with a 2-D map of these mutants in which melting temperature and K_d are used as reaction coordinates (Fig 4). The 2-D map reveals I34L, P51G-m4, and I34Y clustered together, particularly I34L, P51G-m4, is the closest in this 2-D map while I34K is on the other corner of the map based on stability and binding affinity (Fig 4A). Interestingly, the dendrogram constructed based on the DFI similarities of these proteins using PCA analysis captures biophysical properties (Fig 4B). The clustered DFI profiles put P51G-m4 and I34L variant under the same branch, suggesting their dynamics are very similar; thus, function associated with these dynamics should also be similar. I34Y is also under the same main cluster with the other two proteins that also exhibit dimannose affinity, yet it is in a different branch. This presents that I34Y exhibits slightly different DFI profile suggesting that slight modification in its DFI profile may be

associated with enhanced binding affinity. On the other hand, I34K is under a separate branch,

showing that its dynamics is completely different than others. Therefore, the DFI clustering mirrors

the clusters observed in the functional 2-D map, implying a correlation between changes in

dynamics and changes in fitness. This is in agreement with our previous studies, where

substitutions on DARC spots modulates flexibility profiles to adapt to a new environment

(Campitelli et al., 2020b; Kumar et al., 2015b).

Fig 4 A) K_d and Melting temperature of P51G-m4 and its variants plotted together B) PCA clustering on the first two principal components of the DFI profiles of P51G-m4 and its variants as a dendrogram.

As clustering of mutants using their DFI profiles aligns with their biophysical

characterization, we further investigated the change in DFI profiles of the binding sites with respect

to the P51G-m4 for each mutant (Fig 5A). This analysis reveals that change in DFI values of the

binding site position T57 exhibits distinct variation among I34 mutants. Position T57 in the case

of deleterious mutant (abolishing binding) I34K, exhibits higher flexibility, suggesting a higher

entropic penalty for binding interactions. The flexibility profile of I34L variant in position T57 is

similar to that of P51G-m4. Accordingly, they show similar binding affinities. In contrast, T57

becomes much more rigid for I34Y mutant, suggesting that a decrease in the entropic cost can

contribute to the binding affinity enhancement of this mutant. In short, the change in flexibility of

the position T57 correlates well with the change in binding affinities of these different mutants.

This is indeed not a surprising observation, since our previous study of single point mutations of

the binding pocket residues have shown that T57 provides one of the key side chain interactions

with dimannose.

The rigidification of T57, a position far from the mutation location I34, is a compelling

evidence that the distal mutation is allosterically controlling the binding site dynamics. We further

computed the network of interactions that connects the residue position 34 to 57 and investigated

whether distinct pathways emerge after mutation of I34Y. We analyzed the hydrogen bond

networks, particularly computed the possible network of hydrogen bonds creating pathways from

34 to 57 using the sampled snapshots in our MD trajectories (Fig S6). This analysis presents a

unique pathway from 34 to 57 by first forming a new hydrogen bond between the side chain

oxygen of the Tyrosine of residue 34 and the nitrogen of the Tyrosine of residue 100 in I34Y

variant. Furthermore, a second pathway is also found which is sampled much more frequently in

I34Y variant strengthening the communication between position 34 and 57. Thus, both pathways

may contribute to the rigidification of T57. We also analyzed the structures from MD clustered

with highest percentage based on alpha carbon RMSD for I34Y and P51G-m4 and compared the

hydrogen bond interactions of T57 and its neighboring residues. The closest neighbors of T57;

positions I55, E56, and C58 conserved their hydrogen bond interactions with their surrounding

residues between P51G-m4 and I34Y. On the other hand, T57 is observed to make an extra

hydrogen bond interaction in I34Y compared to P51G-m4 (Fig 5B), suggesting that enhancement

in hydrogen bond networking of T57 in I34Y leads to rigidification of this position in equilibrium

dynamics.

Fig 5 A) Change in DFI of I34K, I34L, and I34Y relative to P51G-m4 are projected on structure.
Residues E41, N42, and T57 rigidifies on I34Y compared to P51G-m4. B) Hydrogen bonding
interactions of residues I55, E56, T57, and C58 are shown for P51G-m4 and I34Y variant. The
rigidification on location T57 can be understood by its neighboring interactions. Compared to
P51G-m4, the I34Y variant makes an extra hydrogen bond making it a more rigid residue. This
rigidity is reflected on the binding as T57 makes direct interaction with dimannose.

Taken together, these analyses are in agreement with experimental observation of

modulation of entropy of binding to alter affinity where mutation on I34 distally regulates the

binding pocket dynamics particularly the position T57, leading to a change in binding energies.

Conclusion

Multiple evidence point to the importance of mutations on sites distal from functional sites

in modulating function during evolution, (Acar et al., 2020; Campbell et al., 2016, 2016;

Campitelli et al., 2020a; Gunasekaran et al., 2004; Lu and Liang, 2009; Otten et al., 2018; Wodak

et al., 2019) yet predicting which sites are involved through computational analysis is challenging.

Indeed, many of these sites are identified only after rounds of directed evolution in protein design

(Barrientos et al., 2006; Keeffe et al., 2011; Romero and Arnold, 2009; Yuan et al., 2005). Here,

we showed that it is possible to identify these distal sites and fine-tune the binding interactions by

integrating long range dynamic coupling with coevolution principles. Coupling DCI approach

which selectively identify distal positions that are much more sensitive to the fluctuations of

functional sites with evolutionary inference of mutational landscape allowed us to identify mutants

that may modify function. We first computationally screened impact of these mutants via Adaptive

-BP dock and distinguished beneficial variants from those deleterious. Specifically, we observed

that substitutions on these distal sites altered equilibrium dynamics, while conserving the 3-D fold

and the binding motif, as also highlighted as change in change in entropic contribution in ITC

binding analysis.

Our new approach that couples evolutionary inferences with long-range dynamic

communications within the 3-D network of interactions paves the way to incorporating distal

mutants into protein design.

Methods

Adaptive BP-Dock

Adaptive backbone perturbation docking, Adaptive BP-Dock in short, allows us to model

the interaction between CV-N and glycans *in silico* (Bolia and Ozkan, 2016). Adaptive BP-dock

combines the complex simulation of backbone flexibility of a protein into Rosetta's ligand docking

application (Davis and Baker, 2009). The common restriction in docking is the implementation of

flexibility of receptor and ligand (Davis et al., 2009; Davis and Baker, 2009; DeLuca et al., 2015;

Meiler and Baker, 2006). Rosetta included the flexibility of ligand in their monte-carlo sampling

approach but lacking full receptor flexibility. This high order challenge is overcome by utilizing

Perturbation Response Scanning (PRS) to compute backbone changes during docking (Atilgan and

Atilgan, 2009; Bolia et al., 2014b, 2014a; Ikeguchi et al., 2005). This procedure also allows the

modeling of transition from an unbound state to a bound state (Bolia and Ozkan, 2016). The

computational cost of sampling is reduced by using a coarse-grained approach employing Elastic

Network Model (ENM) leading to an efficient way of computing backbone perturbations,

mimicking the ligand interacting with receptor (Atilgan et al., 2001, 2010; Atilgan and Atilgan,

2009).

We employed Adaptive BP-Dock in modeling glycan CV-N interactions starting from an

unbound conformation of CV-N. The perturbed pose of the protein is calculated using PRS. The

structure is then minimized, and the side chains are added at this step. The glycan is docked to the

minimized structure using RosettaLigand algorithm. Rosetta samples bound conformations using

a knowledge based potential function and calculates bound pose energies. The lowest energy

docked pose is selected and feed back to perturbation step, and the same procedure is followed

iteratively until a convergence is reached. At the end of each iteration the lowest energy docked

pose is taken and binding score is calculated using an empirical scoring function X-score. X-score

has shown to provide higher correlations with experimental results (Wang et al., 2002). The flow

of the algorithm is shown in Fig 6.

Fig 6 The flow of Adaptive BP-Dock. Starting from an unbound structure the backbone atoms

are perturbed using PRS and perturbed pose is fed into minimization. The minimized

conformation is docked with the glycan using RosettaLigand docking approach. The lowest

scored docked pose is selected and used for next iteration step until convergence is established.

For every lowest energy docked pose from an iteration a new binding score is reevaluated using

X-score empirical scoring function (Wang et al., 2002).

Adaptive BP-Docks iterative algorithm ensures the sampling does not stuck in a local

minimum and reaches a global minimum. The challenge of unbound/bound modeling is solved

using the iterative approach as the conformations are led towards a bound pose with the help of

PRS.

Molecular Dynamics (MD)

Gromacs simulation is conducted for the mutants (I34K, I34L, I34Y) and P51G-m4 CV-N

(Abraham et al., 2015; Spoel et al., 2005). For each simulation the all-atom system is parametrized

with CHARMM36 force field and explicit water model TIP3P. The solvation box is set to be

minimum 16Å from protein edge. The system is then neutralized by potassium ions to sustain

electroneutrality and minimized with steepest descent for 10000 steps. A short-restrained

equilibrium is conducted in the constant number of particles, pressure, and temperature ensemble

(NPT) for 5 ns using the Berendsen method at 300K temperature and 1 bar pressure. NPT

production trajectories were performed with Nose-Hoover and Parrinello-Rahman temperature

and pressure coupling methods for 2μs at 300K and 1 bar. For all cases periodic boundary

conditions and particle-mesh Ewald (PME) with interaction cutoff of 12Å is employed with

Gromacs version 2018.1.

Dynamic Flexibility Index (DFI)

450   DFI is residue position specific metric that can measures the resilience of a given positions to the

451   force perturbations. It is the fluctuation response of a residue relative to the gross fluctuation

452   response of the protein (Kumar et al., 2015b; Larrimore et al., 2017). DFI calculates residue

453   response due to a perturbation by utilizing covariance matrices.

455
$$[\Delta \mathbf{R}]_{3Nx1} = [\mathbf{H}]^{-1}_{3Nx3N} [\mathbf{F}]_{3Nx1}$$

457
$$DFI_i = \frac{\sum_{j=N}^{N} |\Delta R^j|_i}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} |\Delta R^j|_i}$$

Residue response, $\Delta \mathbf{R}$, is calculated using Linear Response Theory (LRT) by applying

force, $\mathbf{F}$, in multiple directions to mimic isotropic fluctuations. Hessian matrix, $\mathbf{H}$, contains second

derivatives of potentials. The inverse of Hessian matrix, $\mathbf{H^{-1}}$, contains residue covariances, and

interpreted as a covariance matrix. The covariance matrices can be gathered from MD simulations,

and also by using Elastic Network Model (ENM) of a protein. In this study, MD covariance

matrices have been utilized to incorporate residue interactions accurately.

Residues with low DFI score (below 0.2) are considered as hinge points. These points are

communication hubs in this 3-D interaction network. Due to high coordination number, the

residues exhibiting low DFI values are crucial as information gateways. While they do not exhibit

high residue fluctuation to the perturbations, they quickly transfer the perturbation information to

other parts, thus they are in control of collective motion of the protein. A change in low DFI

positions (i.e., a mutation) will lead to a transformation in the communication grid and majority of

disease-associated (i.e. function altering mutations) are often observed in hinge, low DFI sites

(Butler et al., 2015; Gerek et al., 2013; Kumar et al., 2015a). The substitution on these site usually

alters catalytic activity or binding interaction (i.e., glycans) by modulating equilibrium dynamics

(Campitelli et al., 2020a).

Dynamic Coupling Index (DCI)

Dynamic Coupling Index (DCI) exploits the same framework of DFI (Campitelli et al.,

2020a; Larrimore et al., 2017). DCI utilizes the residue response fluctuation upon random force

perturbation at a specific residue positions to investigate residues that exhibit long-range coupling

to each other. In DCI approach, a unit force is applied on functional residues (i.e., binding site

residues) one by one and responses of all other residues are calculated.

$$DCI_i = \frac{\sum_{j=N_{Functional}}^{N_{Functional}} |\Delta R^j|_i / N_{Functional}}{\sum_{j=1}^{N} |\Delta R^j|_i / N}$$

With DCI scheme the residues with high response (high DCI score) indicates high long

range dynamic coupling. Residues with high DCI values with binding sites play a critical role in

intercommunication of a protein with the binding residues. These coupled residues are of utmost

importance in how forces propagate through amino acid chain network on a binding event. Some

of the coupled residues are far from the binding site but still encompass modulation capabilities

over binding pocket.

Informing dynamics from coevolution

Coevolutionary data paves the way to assessing 3-D structural contacts by utilizing

available sequence information (Hopf et al., 2018; Marks et al., 2012; Morcos et al., 2014).

Sequence information is more abundant compared to resolved protein structures. Exploiting the

sequence information, primary contacts comparable to realistic structural contacts can be

calculated and a contact matrix is formed. The accuracy of these contact maps is proved to be

valuable in protein folding studies (Kryshtafovych et al., 2019; Morcos et al., 2011; Wang et al.,

2016). Evolutionary coupling (EC) analysis is used to collect information on how much two

residues in a protein sequence is in close proximity in 3-D structure. EC scores could be calculated

by many different statistical approaches. In this study EC information is gathered by using

RaptorX, EVcouplings, and MISTIC webservers (Hopf et al., 2019; Simonetti et al., 2013; Wang

et al., 2017). While the limitation of these methods emerges from sequence homolog availability

of a protein in multiple sequence alignment (MSA), RaptorX uses a deep neural network

leveraging joint family approach, combining multiple ortholog protein families sharing similar

function and phylogeny, to infer possible contacts. This method is proven to produce high accuracy

in contact prediction compared to others (Wang et al., 2017). However, for a given MSA

containing enough homolog sequences other methods are also strong in predicting spatial contacts.

EVcouplings approach uses Direct Information (DI) to calculate coevolutionary couplings. DI

metric is a modified mutual information (MI) score considering consistency between pairwise

probabilities and single amino acid frequencies (de Juan et al., 2013; Morcos et al., 2011).

Nonetheless, MI, a global approach compared to local DI metric, is accurate in capturing true

contacts, while entangling indirect contacts from direct contacts. MISTIC web server has taken

advantage of MI to calculate coevolutionary couplings (Dunn et al., 2008; Gouveia-Oliveira and

Pedersen, 2007; Simonetti et al., 2013). In their MI method they introduced a correction term to

MI to surpass the low statistics gathered with an MSA containing limited number of sequences.

This approach is very useful in cases where certain homologs are rare and MSA of these homologs

have multiple gaps in their alignments. All of these methods are employed in this study to achieve

high accuracy predictions in finding residue couplings.

Mutant proteins cloning, expression and purification

The genes for mutants (I34Y, I34K, and I34L) were generated by applying mutagenic

primers to P51G-m4-gene sequence and amplifying by PCR. The constructs were subsequently

cloned in pET26B vector between NdeI and XhoI sites and transformed in BL21(DE3) for

expression and purification. The proteins were expressed from a 10 ml starter culture in LB broth

overnight at 37 °C, inoculated into 1 L LB medium. The culture was induced with 1 mM isopropyl

thiogalactoside (IPTG) when OD reached 0.6 and grown for another 6-8 hours. The cells were

harvested by centrifugation, lysed in 6M Guanidine hydrochloride at pH 8.0, and sonicated for 10

minutes. The supernatant recovered after centrifugation was used to purify proteins with GE

HisTrap HP column (GE Healthcare Bio-Sciences, Piscataway, NJ) and a Bio-Rad EconoPump

(Bio-Rad, Richmond, CA) under denaturing conditions. In brief, the proteins were loaded on the

column in Gu-HCl buffer, which was buffer exchanged by 8M Urea buffer. The nonspecific

proteins were washed out by 4M urea and 20mM imidazole buffer, pH 8.0 and eluted with 2M

Urea and 200mM imidazole, pH 8.0 buffer before putting it for overnight dialysis against 10 mM

Tris pH 8.0 and 100 mM NaCl buffer. The buffer was changed once during the night. The refolded

protein was concentrated and re-purified to isolate the monomeric species by size exclusion

chromatography using Sephadex 75 10/300 column on Agilent's Infinity 1260 system. The gel

filtered protein was finally used for all the experiments.

CD spectroscopy and T-melts

In CV-N family proteins, thermodynamic parameters like free energy of unfolding,

enthalpy and entropy cannot be extracted by thermal denaturation because the transition from

folded to unfolded state is non-reversible (Patsalo et al., 2011), therefore melting temperatures are

used. Far-UV CD spectra were recorded on a Jasco J-815 spectropolarimeter equipped with a

thermostatic cell holder, PTC 424S. Spectra were measured from 250 to 200 nm, using a scanning

speed of 50 nm/min and a data pitch of 1.0 nm at 25 °C. Samples concentration was approximately

15 µM in 10 mM Tris, pH 8.0 and 100 mM NaCl. For thermal denaturation experiments, the

melting profile was monitored at 202 nm from 25 °C to 90 °C. The data points were plotted and

fitted in Origin8.5 software to get apparent Tm.

Isothermal titration calorimetry (ITC)

ITC was performed at the Sanford-Burnham Medical Research Institute Protein Analysis Facility using ITC200 calorimeter from Microcal (Northampton, MA) at 23 °C. 2.0 μl aliquots of solution containing between 3mM and 10 mM Man2 were injected into the cell containing between 0.057, and 0.11 mM protein. 19 of 2.0 μl injections were made. The experiments were performed in 10mM Tris, 100mM NaCl, pH 8.0 buffer. ITC data were analyzed using Origin software provided by Microcal.

Chemical denaturation experiments

Chemical denaturation experiments were done by monitoring the shift in the intrinsic tryptophan fluorescence on Cary Eclipse instrument (Varian). 10 μM of protein samples were incubated with increasing concentrations of Guanidine hydrochloride in the range of 0-6 M in 50 mM Tris pH8.0 buffer for 72 hours at 25 °C. The emission spectra for the same were recorded by keeping the excitation wavelength at 295nm and bandwidth of 1 nm. A ratio of fluorescence at 330 and 360 nm ($I_{330/360}$) was plotted at respective Gu-HCl concentrations and the data points were fit to following sigmoidal equation to obtain C_m.

$$y = A2 + \frac{A1 - A2}{1 + e^{(x-x0)/dx}}$$

Where, A1and A2 are the initial and final 330/360 ratios and x0 is the concentration of Gu-HCl, where y= (A1 +A2) /2, or the point where 50 % of the population is unfolded. It is also denoted as C_m.

581   The denaturation curve was used to calculate the free energy of the protein in the absence of

582   denaturant (ΔG_{H2O}). Fraction unfolded (f_U) was calculated using the following formula:

583                            $f_U = (y_F - y_{obs})/(y_F - y_U)$

584   where f_U, is the fraction unfolded, y_F is the value when there is no denaturant, y_{obs} is the value at

585   each position and y_U is the value for unfolded protein. Since $f_{U+}f_F =1$, The equilibrium constant,

586   K, the free energy change can be calculated using

587                            $K = f_U/f_F$

588                            $K = f_U/1 - f_F$

589                            $\Delta G = -RTlnK$

Where R is the gas constant whose value is 1.987 cal/mol.K and T is the temperature of incubation,

which was 25 °C. The value of ΔG is linear over a limited range of Gu-HCl. The linear fit over

that range was extrapolated to obtain ΔG_{H2O}.

Crystallization and structure determination

I34Y was purified as discussed above and the monomeric gel filtered protein was

concentrated to 8mg/ml. We got the crystals in 2M ammonium sulphate and 5 % (v/v) 2-propanol

after screening it in Index HT screen from Hampton Research. The protein crystals were

reproduced using same condition in hanging drop method. For protein crystals with dimannose,

the crystals were incubated in 1.2 fold molar excess of dimannose. Single needle-like crystals were

picked up and cryo-preserved in 25 % glycerol before freezing them for data collection at

Synchrotron ALS, beamline 8.2.1. Single crystal diffraction was measured at wavelength of 0.999

A with ADSC quantum 315 r detector. The data were evaluated to resolution of 1.25 A. The data

acquired was indexed using XDS and scaled by the aimless package from CCP4i program suite.

The structural coordinates and phase were determined by molecular replacement using 2RDK PDB

code. The structure of I34Y of CV-N is deposited under PDB accession code 6X7H. The structure

was further refined in Coot.

609   Acknowledgements

610   S.B.O. acknowledges support from the Gordon and Betty Moore Foundations and National

611   Science Foundation (Award: 1715591 and 1901709). G.G. and S.B.O. is grateful for the grant

612   1R21CA207832-01.

614   Competing interests

615   No competing interests declared.

617   Supplementary Data

Table S1. DFI, DCI, RaptorX, Evcoupling, and MISTIC metrics are used to identify critical residues both rigid, distal from binding site, allosterically coupled and coevolved with binding sites (Supplementary file 1 table 1). The analyses pointed out four residues matching the rigidity (DFI score less than 0.2), allosteric coupling (DCI score higher than 0.7), coevolution (RAPTORX, MISTIC, and EVCOUPLING all higher than 0.6) and distance (Minimum distance to binding site higher than 10Å) criteria. Only residue I34 out of four residues satisfy a far

distance measure (Both minimum and average distance to binding site higher than 15Å). We

selected residue I34 for further analyses.

Residue	DFI Score	DCI Score	Distance from Binding Sites (Å)		RAPTORX Score	MISTIC Score	EVCOUPLING Score
			Minimum	Average			
34	0.17	0.71	16	22	0.65	0.93	0.71
61	0.15	0.83	11	15	0.81	0.76	0.86
71	0.01	0.93	11	13	0.94	0.92	0.98
84	0.12	0.89	11	14	0.87	0.86	0.83

Fig S1 Fits for thermal melts of the CV-N mutants

Fig S2 A) Chemical denaturation curve showing I_{330}/I_{360} ratio as a function of Gu-HCl concentration, b) ΔG_{H2O} versus Gu-HCl concentration plot for CV-N mutants.

Fig S3 Binding isotherms of CV-N mutants upon titration with dimannose: A) I34Y and B) P51G-m4

Fig S4 A) Structural difference of open vs closed conformation based on the hydrogen bond distance between residue N42 and N53 B) Hydrogen bond distance between residue N42 and N53 from crystal structures of P51G-m4, and P51G-m4-I34Y C) Frequencies of hydrogen bond distance between residue N42 and N53 from GROMACS production runs showing I34Y variant sampling more open conformation compared to P51G-m4.

Fig S5 We sampled 2000 different conformations from MD simulations for P51G-m4 CV-N and I34Y mutant and performed dimannose docking to obtained docked poses and then analyzed hydrogen bond patterns A) Hydrogen bonds (representing the peak of the distribution on panel B) and their distances are shown between dimannose and residue R76 for P51G-m4 (blue) and I34Y (orange) B) H-bond distance distribution between dimannose and residue R76.

Fig S6 Network of hydrogen bond interactions connecting residue location 34 to T57 is
investigated in I34Y variant and P51G-m4 CV-N. Two Hydrogen bond pathways are found
connecting residue 34 to 57. Pathway 1 is unique to I34Y. Pathway 2 is also observed in
P51G-m4 CV-N but sampled much more frequently in I34Y variant.

Additional files

Supplementary file 1

This file contains Supplementary Tables 1 and 2 (referenced in the main text).

Supplementary Table 1 contains the complete DFI, DCI, RaptorX, Evcoupling, and MISTIC

metric data used in this study. Supplementary Table 2 contains the sequence variations with

binding residues from MSA used in this study to identify possible amino acid variants on

location I34. Previous mutational study (Bolia et al., 2014b) on binding residues shown that, N42

is highly sequentially conserved as N. Position E41 has two high frequency variants E and G that

do not abolish binding. Residue T57 has high frequency variants S and T, and a rare case V.

From the amino acid variation data with binding sites, I34 variants L and Y are selected based on

their high frequency and K as a rare case.

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