# The mechanism of full activation of tumor suppressor PTEN at the phosphatidylinositol-enriched membrane

Hyunbum Jang[1,*], Iris Nira Smith[2,*], Charis Eng[2-5,†], Ruth Nussinov[1,6,†]

[1]Computational Structural Biology Section, Frederick National Laboratory for Cancer Research in the Laboratory of Cancer Immunometabolism, National Cancer Institute, Frederick, MD 21702, U.S.A.

[2]Genomic Medicine Institute, Cleveland Clinic Lerner Research Institute, Cleveland, OH 44195, U.S.A.

[3]Center for Personalized Genetic Healthcare, Cleveland Clinic Community Care and Population Health, Cleveland, OH 44195, U.S.A.

[4]Department of Genetics and Genome Sciences, Case Western Reserve University School of Medicine, Cleveland, OH 44106, U.S.A.

[5]Germline High Risk Cancer Focus Group, Comprehensive Cancer Center, Case Western Reserve University School of Medicine, Cleveland, OH 44106, U.S.A.

[6]Department of Human Molecular Genetics and Biochemistry, Sackler School of Medicine, Tel Aviv University, Tel Aviv 69978, Israel

*These authors contributed equally and are considered joint first authors
†Corresponding authors

Correspondence should be addressed to:
Ruth Nussinov
Frederick National Laboratory for Cancer Research
Frederick, MD 21702, U.S.A.
Phone: 301-846-5579
E-mails: NussinoR@mail.nih.gov

## Abstract

Tumor suppressor PTEN dephosphorylates signaling lipid $PIP_3$ produced by PI3Ks. Abundant $PIP_3$ promotes cell growth and proliferation. PTEN is the second most highly mutated protein in cancer and is drugless. The detailed mechanism at the membrane of this pivotal phosphatase is unknown hindering understanding and drug discovery. Here for the first time, exploiting explicit solvent simulations, we tracked full-length PTEN trafficking from the cytosol to the membrane, its interaction with membranes composed of zwitterionic phosphatidylcholine and anionic phosphatidylserine and phosphatidylinositol, including signaling lipids $PIP_2$ and $PIP_3$, and moving away from the zwitterionic and getting absorbed onto the anionic membrane that harbors the $PIP_3$. $PIP_3$ then allosterically unfolds the N-terminal $PIP_2$ binding domain, translocating it to the membrane where its polybasic motif interacts with $PIP_2$, localizing on microdomains enriched in signaling lipids, as PI3K does. Finally, we determined PTEN catalytic action at the membrane, all in line with available experimental observations.

**Keywords:** phosphatase, dephosphorylation, signaling lipid, phosphatidylinositol, $PIP_3$, $PIP_2$, protein-membrane interaction, Ras

## Introduction

Tumor suppressor phosphatase and tensin homolog (PTEN) dephosphorylates phosphatidylinositol 3,4,5-trisphosphate ($PIP_3$) to phosphatidylinositol 4,5-bisphosphate ($PIP_2$) (Chalhoub and Baker, 2009). Signaling lipid $PIP_3$, a major product of phosphatidylinositol 3-kinases (PI3Ks), recruits a subset of proteins, phosphoinositide-dependent protein kinase 1 (PDK1) and AKT to the plasma membrane, leading to cell growth, survival, and migration (Fruman et al., 2017). Both PTEN and PI3K are among the most frequently mutated proteins in malignancies, acting as negative and positive regulators in the PI3K/AKT/mTOR pathway (Chalhoub and Baker, 2009; Song et al., 2012). Countering PI3K lipid kinase activity, PTEN lipid phosphatase suppresses the level of $PIP_3$ in the cell membrane. In many cancers, elevation of $PIP_3$ levels are linked to increased activity of PI3K in the oncogenic state (Fruman et al., 2017). In human malignancies, both sporadic (Yehia et al., 2019) and heritable (Yehia et al., 2018) loss of PTEN function by respectively, somatic and germline mutations, deletions, posttranslational modifications, and phosphorylation leads to $PIP_3$ accumulation in the cell membrane, boosting unrestrained PI3K-stimulated cell proliferation (Alvarez-Garcia et al., 2019; Dillon and Miller, 2014; Kotelevets et al., 2020; Song et al., 2012).

With 403 amino acids, PTEN is composed of the N-terminal $PIP_2$ binding domain (PBD aka PBM, $PIP_2$ binding motif, residues 1-15), the phosphatase domain (residues 16-185), and the C2 domain (190-350), followed by the carboxy-terminal tail (CTT) including the PDZ binding motif (PDZ-BM, 401TKV403) at the C-terminal end (Figure 1). The phosphatase domain is key in PTEN's catalytic activity with the P loop (residues 123-130) containing the catalytic signature motif, HCxxGxxR (where x is any amino acid), commonly found in the active sites of other protein tyrosine phosphatases (Denu et al., 1996; JO Lee et al., 1999). Within the motif, Cys124 is crucial

for transferring a phosphate group from the inositol of PIP$_3$ during the catalytic activity (Xiao et

al., 2007). Reversible oxidation involving disulfide formation between Cys71 and Cys124 at the

active site inhibits the phosphatase activity of PTEN (CU Lee et al., 2015). In the cytoplasm, PTEN

exists as a monomer and can even form a homodimer *in vtro* (Heinrich et al., 2015). The disordered

CTT is key to the regulation of the monomeric PTEN state in the cytosol through the

phosphorylation of the serine-threonine cluster (Ser380, Thr382, Thr383, and Ser385) located in

it (Bolduc et al., 2013; Masson et al., 2016; Masson and Williams, 2020; Mingo et al., 2019;

Vazquez et al., 2000). Cytosolic PTEN monomers exhibit a "closed-closed" conformation with

phosphorylated CTT ("closed" CTT covers the membrane binding interface of the phosphatase

and C2 domains, and "closed" PBD nestles against the phosphatase domain), and an "open-closed"

conformation with dephosphorylated CTT (Malaney et al., 2013; Rahdar et al., 2009; Ross and

Gericke, 2009) ("open" CTT exposes the membrane binding interface of the phosphatase and C2

domains). The dephosphorylated CTT releases the autoinhibition in the active site, facilitating the

translocation of PTEN to the membrane (Nussinov et al., 2020). At the membrane, PTEN yields

an "open-open" conformation, finally releasing its PBD. Experimental data indicated that

electrostatic interactions between the positively charged residues in the PBD and the C2, and the

negatively charged anionic lipids play a crucial role in the recruitment of PTEN to the membrane

(Denning et al., 2007; Nguyen et al., 2014b; Walker et al., 2004). In particular, the short N-terminal

PBD is important for controlling PTEN membrane localization. This established description has

provided a useful phenomenological overview of PTEN. However, the mechanistic details of the

membrane association, membrane-bound conformations and catalytic conformational changes of

PTEN at atomic resolution, critical for gaining functional insight into the workings of this tumor

suppressor and possible new venues for drug discovery, are still unknown.

Here, we aim to provide such mechanistic understanding of PTEN at the membrane. Our

study is extensive. We performed explicit solvent MD simulations on full-length, wild-type PTEN

interacting with lipid bilayers. The bilayer systems mainly consist of zwitterionic, 1,2-dioleoyl-sn-

glycero-3-phosphocholine (DOPC) and anionic, 1,2-dioleoyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphoserine (DOPS)

lipids. In addition, the signaling phosphatidylinositols, $PIP_2$, and $PIP_3$, were added as described in

Table 1. The initial conformation of PTEN at the membrane is the "open-closed" conformation

with dephosphorylated CTT. Dephosphorylation of CTT uncovers the active site in the

phosphatase domain, permitting PTEN to exert its catalytic function targeting $PIP_3$ in the

membrane (Nussinov et al., 2020). In our studies, PTEN stably anchored in the anionic membrane

with both signaling lipids, and with the two positively charged loops, one from the phosphatase

domain and the other from the C2 domain, inserted into the amphipathic interface of the lipid

bilayer. Remarkably, PTEN evolved into the "open-open" conformation spontaneously releasing

the PBD from the phosphatase domain to nearby $PIP_2$ in the membrane. The additional anchor by

PBD added to the stability of PTEN membrane association. Effective membrane localization is

crucial for PTEN to exert its lipid phosphatase activity, which leads to the inhibitory effect on

signaling via the PI3K/AKT/mTOR pathway. Our studies identify the detailed mechanisms

deciphering atomistic interactions of how PTEN anchors to the membrane and elucidate the vital

mechanistic role of PTEN in restraining cancer.

## Results

**PBD targets $PIP_2$ via conformational change and membrane localization**

MD simulations were performed on full-length PTEN interacting with an anionic lipid bilayer

composed of DOPC, DOPS, $PIP_2$, and $PIP_3$ lipids (PI system, Table 1). The anionic bilayer system

was constructed through random distribution of the anionic lipids on the plane of the bilayer,

except $PIP_3$ which was placed nearer the protein. PTEN was initially placed on the lipid bilayer

with its putative membrane-binding interface facing toward the bilayer surface as suggested by the

crystal structure (JO Lee et al., 1999). An asymmetric profile of electron density across the bilayers

indicates that the placement of the protein depletes the electron density due to the volume occupied

by the bulky waters (Figure 2–figure supplement 1A). In the profile, the distance between two

peaks determines the bilayer thickness. The initial configuration of the PTEN-bilayer system

ensures that the phosphatase and C2 domains are placed on the top of the bilayer surface without

inserting the protein backbone into the bilayer. In this initial configuration, both the PBD and the

C-tail do not directly interact with the lipid bilayer (Figure 2–figure supplement 1B). However,

during the simulation, we observed that PTEN gradually diffuses into the bilayer and fully relaxed

in the lipid environment (Figure 2A). The full relaxation process for the PTEN-bilayer system

requires several hundred nanoseconds, which is comparatively longer than that for the protein-

bulky water system. For most of the anionic bilayer systems (PS, P2, P3, and PI systems, defined

in Table 1), we observed that the equilibrations were generally reached at ~400 ns. For PTEN in

the PI system, the phosphatase domain retains its structural integrity with averaged root-mean-

squared-deviation (RMSD) of $1.7 \pm 0.2$ Å with respect to the starting point. While the C2 domain

preserves a β-sandwich structure, its RMSD increases to $4.4 \pm 0.9$ Å due to fluctuations in the

unstructured IDR (intrinsically disordered region; residues 282-312). Large fluctuations are

prominent in the unstructured regions including the C-terminal region as observed in the residual

RMS-fluctuations (Figure 2B). Of interest is the large conformational change of PBD. The initial

α-helical motif in PBD is rapidly disrupted and converted into an unstructured chain (Figure 2–

figure supplement 1C). Interestingly, after ~400 ns, the unstructured PBD spontaneously docks

onto the bilayer surface establishing a secure anchor point for the phosphatase domain in the

membrane (Figure 2C). The membrane anchorage of PBD is sustained by strong salt bridge

interactions between the anionic lipids and the polybasic patch (Arg11, Lys13, Arg14, and Arg15),

resulting in the coordination of two $PIP_2$ lipids (Figure 2D). The N-terminus residue Met1 diffuses

into the hydrophobic core of the lipid bilayer, inducing nearby Lys6 to localize at the amphipathic

interface of the bilayer and to interact with a phosphate group of DOPC. Although our RMS-

fluctuations data show that PBD has large fluctuations due to the conformational change and the

membrane translocation, the dipping of the N-terminus in the bilayer reduces these fluctuations,

thus enhancing the stability of the PTEN membrane interaction following completion of the PBD

anchorage.

**Membrane localizing PTEN is highly sensitive to lipid composition**

PTEN targets the substrate lipid $PIP_3$ and co-localizes with it. The substrate is found in the inner

leaflet of $PIP_3$-rich microdomain within the plasma membrane. Thus, precise PTEN membrane

localization on the substrate is crucial for exerting its lipid phosphatase activity. To decipher how

PTEN is effectively absorbed in the membrane in the presence/absence of the substrate,

simulations were performed for PTEN with various lipid compositions in the bilayers as outlined

in Table 1. To derive results from the lipid effects, the same PTEN as in the PI system (Figure 2–

figure supplement 1B) was applied for all bilayer systems, ensuring that all starting points have

the same initial membrane orientation and location for the protein. To identify membrane binding

sites, the probability distribution functions of membrane contacts were measured as a function of

the protein residues (Figure 3). Remarkably, for PTEN in the zwitterionic DOPC bilayer (PC

system), the phosphatase domain loses contacts with the membrane (Figure 3–figure supplement

2A). The low probability of membrane contacts for both PBD and phosphatase domain indicates the loss of the contacts. The phosphatase domain is highly elevated from the bilayer surface (Figure 3–figure supplement 2B), while the C2 domain is still attached to the bilayer, which prevents entire protein domains from flipping on the bilayer surface. However, in the presence of anionic DOPS lipid (PS system), PTEN regains its ability toward membrane attachment. Six loops located in the phosphatase and C2 domains are responsible for the membrane association. These are PBD-pβ1 ($_{19}$DGFDL$_{23}$), pβ2-pα1 (aka Arginine loop, $_{41}$RLEGVYR$_{47}$), and pα5-pα6 (aka TI loop, $_{161}$RDKKGV$_{166}$) loops in the phosphatase domain, and cβ1-cβ2 ($_{205}$MFSGGTC$_{211}$), CBR3 ($_{260}$KQNKMLKKDK$_{269}$), and Cα2 (aka Motif 4, $_{327}$KANKDKANR$_{335}$) loops in the C2 domain. Among these, the pβ2-pα1, CBR3, and Cα2 loops were identified as membrane-binding regulatory interfaces in PTEN (Nguyen et al., 2014a; Nguyen et al., 2014b). In particular, the Lys-rich CBR3 loop is known as the phosphatidylserine binding motif for the C2 domain (Huang et al., 2012; JO Lee et al., 1999). In the P2 system with the addition of PIP$_2$, PTEN still conserves all six loop regions for the membrane contact. However, in the P3 system with the addition of PIP$_3$, the TI loop completely loses the membrane contact. The same behavior is also observed for the TI loop in the PI system with the addition of both signaling lipids, PIP$_2$ and PIP$_3$ (Figure 3, bottom panel). Moreover, the Cα2 loop weakens the membrane contacts. For the TI loop, the loss of the membrane contacts is closely related to the presence of PIP$_3$, while it is related to the presence of PIP$_2$ for the Cα2 loop. These signaling lipids move into the region underneath the interface between the phosphatase and C2 domains, bolstering PTEN on the membrane. Especially, the interaction of PIP$_3$ with the phosphatase domain yields a distinct membrane orientation for the domain. We observed that PIP$_3$-containing P3 and PI systems generate a similar profile of the distributions of the helix tilt angles for the helices in the phosphatase domain (Figure 3–figure supplement 3).

Unlike the phosphatase domain, the C2 domain retains its membrane binding sites for all anionic

bilayer systems, indicating its intrinsic feature that targets cell membrane.

The presence of PIP$_3$ also affects the conformation of PBD. While the PBD retains the

initial α-helical motif in the PC and PS systems, it is partially unfolded in the P2 system (Figure

3–figure supplement 2A) and completely denatured in the P3 system (Figure 3–figure supplement

4A). The unfolding of PBD is also observed in the PI system (Figure 2–figure supplement 1C),

suggesting that only P3 and PI systems contain PIP$_3$. In the P3 system, the unfolded PBD emerges

at ~350 ns, which is relatively longer than the PI system with ~40 ns. We observed abrupt changes

in the deviation of the center of mass of PBD from the bilayer surface, indicating that the N-

terminus flips the location back and forth with respect to the phosphatase domain (Figure 3–figure

supplement 4B). In the first flip event, the PBD failed to secure the interaction with the membrane

due to unavailability of anionic lipids at the flipping site. However, in the presence of anionic

lipids near the PBD binding site, the polybasic motif 11RNKRR15 is able to interact with DOPS

as in the PS system (Figure 3–figure supplement 4C) and PIP$_2$ as in the P2 system (Figure 3–figure

supplement 4D) even though both systems have the folded α-helical PBD sequestered by the

phosphatase domain. We found that among the polybasic residues in PBD, Lys13 and Lys14

appeared to be key residues interacting with anionic lipids. It was reported that K13E mutation

impairs the ability of PTEN to bind anionic lipid bilayer (Walker et al., 2004).

**Strong salt bridge interactions between key basic residues and**

**phosphatidylinositol lipids conduce PTEN membrane localization**

To corroborate the effects of phosphatidylinositol lipids on the membrane localization of PTEN,

we trace the interactions of basic residues in both phosphatase and C2 domains. PTEN contains a

high population of basic residues (Arg and Lys) at the membrane binding interface, 29 out of the

total 54 basic residues participate in the interaction with lipids. These basic residues are mainly

located at the PBD and the loop regions in the phosphatase and C2 domains, forming salt bridges

with the phosphate group of the lipids and the head groups of the anionic lipids. Both the PBD and

phosphatase domain are Arg-rich, while the C2 domain is Lys-rich (Figure 4A). The high

probability of forming salt bridges indicates that Arg favors $PIP_2$, while Lys favors $PIP_3$ (Figure

4B). Those Arg residues, Arg14 (in PBD), Arg161 (in phosphatase), and Arg335 (in C2) exhibited

high probability in forming salt bridges with $PIP_2$ (Figure 4–figure supplement 5A). In contrast,

those Lys residues, Lys125, Lys128, and Lys164 in the phosphatase domain, and Lys221, Lys223,

Lys267, Lys269, and Lys330 in the C2 domain exhibited high probability of forming salt bridges

with $PIP_3$. While $PIP_2$-favored Arg residues are located proximal to the bilayer, $PIP_3$-favored Lys

residues including a key Arg residue, Arg130, are located distal to the bilayer surface. Basic

residues with high probability in forming salt bridges with $PIP_3$ have large deviations from the

bilayer surface (Figure 4C), suggesting that $PIP_3$ favors distal basic residues in the salt bridge

interactions. Such basic residues, Lys125, Lys128, and Arg130 can be found in P loop, which is

located at ~15 Å, largely elevated from the bilayer surface. In the salt bridge interactions with

DOPC and DOPS, the basic residues exhibit a similar pattern (Figure 4–figure supplement 5B),

indicating that salt bridges occurred with high probability for those basic residues at the loop

regions inserted into to the amphipathic interface of the lipid bilayer. These are the pβ2-pα1 and

CBR3 loops in the phosphatase and C2 domains, respectively. In this case, the basic residues can

be located close to the bilayer surface being able to form salt bridges with the phosphate and acidic

head groups of bulky lipids. Arg41 in the pβ2-pα1 loop strongly interacts with the lipids as

observed in the experiments (Nguyen et al., 2014b). The CBR3 loop in the C2 domain is embedded

in the amphipathic interface of the lipid bilayer, promoting its basic residues to form salt bridges

with DOPS with relatively high probability as compared to other anionic lipids.

**Substrate coordination and conformational change of P loop implicate PTEN**

**catalytic activity**

In the lipid phosphatase activity of PTEN, the P loop at the active site plays a significant role in

transferring a phosphate group from $PIP_3$ substrate. To recruit the substrate lipid, the P loop needs

to extract it from the bilayer, since the loop is located highly distal to the bilayer surface. Our data

illustrate that $PIP_3$ significantly protrudes from the bilayer surface and repositions toward the

active site (Figure 5A). The protruding $PIP_3$ can form salt bridges with key basic residues in P

loop. Deviations of the lipids from the bilayer surface show prominent protrusions of the lipids in

the *holo* membrane side containing the protein as compared to those in the *apo* membrane side

(Figure 5B). Note that $PIP_2$ in *holo* also shows a weak protrusion but less significantly than $PIP_3$,

since $PIP_2$ pursues the basic residues of PBD that reside in the bilayer surface. No significant

protrusions of the phosphatidylinositol lipids can be observed for the monotonic systems

containing only $PIP_2$ (P2 system) or $PIP_3$ (P3 system) (Figure 5–figure supplement 6A). This

indicates that the P2 system is deficient in $PIP_3$, and the P3 system fails to recruit $PIP_3$ to the active

site. In the PTEN phosphatase domain, the P loop contains the catalytic signature motif

$_{123}$HCKAGKGR$_{130}$ that is characteristic of the active site of the phosphatase family (JO Lee et

al., 1999). It is important for Arg130 to coordinate $PIP_3$ in the catalytic activity, since Arg130

facilitates migration of a phosphate group from the inositol head of $PIP_3$ to the sidechain of Cys124.

In addition to the catalytically significant Arg130, we discovered that two Lys residues, Lys125

and Lys128 in the P loop also coordinate $PIP_3$. These Lys residues are PTEN-specific. In the P

loop, two PIP$_3$ are observed in the coordination; one with Lys128 and the other with Lys125 and

Arg130. The PIP$_3$ coordination changes the P loop to an "open" conformation with the

rearrangement of the sidechains of the catalytic residues, Cys124 and Arg130, toward the substrate

(Figure 5C). In the crystal structure of PTEN, the P loop shows a "collapsed" conformation (Figure

5–figure supplement 6B). In our simulations, the P loop retains the collapsed conformation in the

PS, P2, and P3 systems (Figure 5–figure supplement 6C). The PS and P2 systems lack PIP$_3$ in the

bilayers, but the P3 system retains it. We found that the P3 system fails to coordinate PIP$_3$ to

Arg130 in the active site. The failure of the coordination of PIP$_3$ to Arg130 is also observed in the

one of PI systems in which the P loop retains the collapsed conformation. In the PI systems with

the PIP$_3$ coordination, the sidechain of Asp92 in the WPD loop (residues 88-98) is rotated to the

binding site, appearing to participate in the catalytic activity (Figure 5C and Figure 5–figure

supplement 6D). This further implicates the "closed" WPD loop conformation with high catalytic

activity (Brandao et al., 2012; Chia et al., 2010). However, studies of Asp92 mutations *in vivo* and

*in vitro* suggested that Asp92 residue is not a catalytic amino acid commonly involved in the

hydrolysis of PIP$_3$ by PTEN (Rodriguez-Escudero et al., 2011).

In PTEN, the phosphatase and C2 domains are hinged by a short linker, $_{186}$LDYR$_{189}$,

located far from the bilayer surface. Underneath the linker, there is a cave-like, water-filled space

encompassed by these two domains and the bilayer surface, serving as an aqueous canal (Figure

6A). Through this region, aqueous molecules can penetrate the active site. Also, PIP$_3$ with large

inositol head can enter the region from both ends and move to the active site along the path

connecting the PIP$_3$-favored distal basic residues. The HOLE program (Smart et al., 1993)

calculated the structure of aqueous canal, illustrating that the canal with the dimension is large

enough for water transport (Figure 6B). Catalytic activity requires the water molecules for

hydrolysis to release the phosphate group from Cys124 after transferring it from PIP$_3$. Three-

dimensional water density map illustrates high populations of residual waters around the

sidechains of Cys124 and Arg130 at the active site (Figure 6C). The high probability of water

suggests that the lipid substrate transports water molecules that soak the active site. In contrast,

density maps with less waters populating the sidechains of catalytic residues in the P loop can be

observed in the active sites of systems where PIP$_3$ is absent (Figure 6–figure supplement 7). Due

to formation of the water-filled space, no significant interdomain interaction between the

phosphatase and C2 domains is observed (Figure 6D). However, the high residue-residue contact

probability indicates that the phosphatase residues Ser170 and Arg173 tightly hold the

phosphatase–C2 domain interface underneath the short linker. Oncogenic mutations abolishing

this interface (Smith et al., 2019) commonly occur at the interface residues Ser170 and Arg173,

resulting in inactivation of PTEN in cancer (JO Lee et al., 1999). The N-terminal PBD marginally

contacts the phosphatase domain, while the CTT largely contacts the phosphatase and C2 domains.

## 290 Conformations of the IDR in the C2 domain and CTT in the C-terminal region

The IDR was initially unstructured, and most of the region in the domain remained disordered as

it was. However, the segment 306IER308 participates in the β-sheet formation with cβ7 strand

(Figure 6–figure supplement 8A). The β-sheet extension is stable as observed for most PTEN

systems. Occasionally, the segment 299EIDSIC304 folds into an α-helix as calculated by STRIDE

(Frishman and Argos, 1995) (Figure 6–figure supplement 8B), but most PTEN systems display it

as a turn conformation. In contrast, the CTT retains the unstructured characteristics with large

fluctuations in most PTEN systems. Its conformational space spans from a collapsed chain with

radius gyration $R_g = \sim15.0$ Å to an extended chain with $R_g = \sim24.0$ Å (Figure 6–figure supplement

8C). The long unstructured CTT chain can reach the phosphatase domain as shown in the residue-

residue contact map (Figure 6C), while the collapsed CTT mainly rides on the C2 domain. Thus,

the interaction of CTT with the phosphatase and C2 domains are highly dynamic due to the various

conformational ensembles. As observed in previous computational studies (Shenoy et al., 2012),

no membrane interaction of CTT was observed, suggesting that the CTT does not interfere in the

PTEN membrane localization and $PIP_3$ recruitment by the phosphatase domain.

## Discussion

We report here selective membrane interaction of PTEN in the absence and presence of the

signaling lipids phosphatidylinositol $PIP_2$ and $PIP_3$. The canonical role of PTEN is to negatively

regulate the PI3K/AKT/mTOR pathway by dephosphorylating the lipid substrate $PIP_3$ into $PIP_2$.

PTEN targets distinct membrane microdomains that are enriched in phosphatidylinositol lipids.

Our studies demonstrate that effective membrane localization of PTEN depends on the lipid

composition in the membranes. We mimic several types of microdomains within the plasma

membrane (Table 1). In the zwitterionic membrane, PTEN abrogates its catalytic activity

impairing the interaction of the phosphatase domain with the membrane, while the C2-membrane

interaction remains intact. In the presence of phosphatidylserine, PTEN proceeds with membrane

localization through the docking of the pβ2-pα1 loop of the phosphatase domain into the anionic

membrane. The C2 domain conserves its intrinsic feature targeting the cell membrane through the

insertion of the CBR3 loop into both zwitterionic and anionic membranes. A series of basic Lys

residues in the CBR3 loop buttress the interaction of PTEN with the anionic membrane containing

phosphatidylserine. The process of PTEN membrane localization is completed through the stable

anchorage of the unstructured PBD in the anionic membrane containing both phosphatidylinositols,

PIP$_2$ and PIP$_3$ (Figure 7), suggesting that full activation of PTEN requires both lipids interacting

with the specific domains; PIP$_3$ at the active site and PIP$_2$ at the PBD binding site. We suggest that

the coordination of PIP$_3$ to the P loop in the active site of the phosphatase domain can allosterically

induce PBD unfolding. Once the unfolded PBD recognizes PIP$_2$ at the binding site, it is released

from the phosphatase domain and translocated onto the membrane surface. Taken together, PTEN

uses three major anchor points, the N-terminal PBD, the p$\beta$2-p$\alpha$1 loop in the phosphatase domain,

and the CBR3 loop in the C2 domain to maintain the stable membrane-interacting conformation.

Previous computational studies indicate that electrostatic interactions initially drive PTEN

to the membrane, followed by reorientation of the protein to optimize its interactions with the

substrate (Kalli et al., 2014; Lumb and Sansom, 2013; Shenoy et al., 2012). Our data indicate that

the salt bridge interactions between the basic residues and the lipids are a major driving force in

stabilizing the protein-membrane interface. These basic residues are in the three major anchor

points among the domains, located close to the membrane surface with the proximal basic residues

forming salt bridges with the phosphate atom of the head groups of phosphatidylcholine and

phosphatidylserine. In contrast, the basic residues distal to the membrane are positioned at the

water-filled interface between the phosphatase and C2 domains. The cave-like, water-filled space

formed by the inner surfaces of these domains and the membrane surface denotes the aqueous

canal. The distal basic residues including the catalytically significant Lys125, Lys128, and Arg130

in the P loop, are closely associated with PIP$_3$ migration towards the active site. Lys125

occasionally coordinates PIP$_3$ with Arg130, suggesting its auxiliary role in the catalysis, and

Lys128 has high probability of PIP$_3$ binding. Other distal basic residues in the aqueous canal may

pave the road for the substrate lipid to move toward the active site, serving as a reservoir for the

PIP$_3$-binding sites. Furthermore, the open P loop conformation points to PTEN in the active state,

primed for catalysis. Importantly, mutations and acetylation of Lys125 and Lys128 results in a

reduction of PTEN phosphatase activity (JO Lee et al., 1999; Okumura et al., 2006) further

demonstrating their critical role in catalysis. Overall, observations of $PIP_3$ coordination at Cys124

and Arg130, the proximity of Asp92 in the WPD loop to the coordination, and the high population

of the residual waters at the active site suggest that these events participate in cooperative catalysis.

Previous PTEN studies showed that affinity to the membrane is reduced by the following:

cancer-associated mutations (Masson and Williams, 2020) inhibit recruitment to the plasma

membrane, thus abolishing its interactions with phospholipids (Nguyen et al., 2015);

phosphorylation of the CTT serine-threonine cluster impairs PTEN membrane binding ability,

resulting in a closed protein conformation (Bolduc et al., 2013; Malaney et al., 2013; Masson and

Williams, 2020; Rahdar et al., 2009; Ross and Gericke, 2009); CTT deletion decreases protein

stability leading to tumor development (Georgescu et al., 1999; Sun et al., 2014); and a mutation

in the PBD (K13E) leads to PTEN inactivation (Masson and Williams, 2020; Nguyen et al., 2015;

Walker et al., 2004). In the cytosol, monomeric PTEN is in the inactive state with its PBD bound

to the phosphatase domain and the phosphorylated CTT interfering with the membrane binding

interface (Chen et al., 2016) (Figure 7), whereby the inactive, autoinhibited PTEN is in the "closed-

closed" conformation.

Here, we propose that in the autoinhibited PTEN conformation, the long, unstructured

phosphorylated CTT covers the distal basic residues positioned along the aqueous canal,

preventing the recruitment of the substrate. The highly negatively charged IDR at the opposite site

of C2 promotes the phosphorylated CTT to correctly interact with the membrane binding interface,

spawning the autoinhibited state. Dephosphorylation of the CTT shifts the population to the

membrane binding-ready, "open-closed" conformation. With the exposure of its membrane

binding interface, PTEN can localize on the membrane. In the absence of phosphatidylinositols,

the PBD is still in a closed conformation, however, PTEN acquires full activation with the "open-

open" conformation, when interacting with membrane microdomains enriched with

phosphatidylinositols. Notably, PTEN also targets the membrane microdomains that PI3K does,

co-localizing with its substrate, suggesting that both negative and positive regulators in the

PI3K/AKT/mTOR pathway concomitantly exist at the same microdomains within the plasma

membrane.

To date, PTEN has been considered clinically undruggable due to its status as a tumor

suppressor phosphatase and its complex regulation. A major challenge in thwarting its oncogenic

mutations is that PTEN is a tumor suppressor, not an activator. In other words, oncogenic PTEN

is inactive, and not active. Activation is dramatically more difficult to achieve than inactivation,

due to the diverse nature of its mutations. Nevertheless, the mechanistic details elucidated in this

work may suggest exploring at least two potential venues. The first relates to relieving PTEN's

autoinhibition, shifting from an inactive state to an active state. Though this has been previously

explored (Kalli et al., 2014; Lumb and Sansom, 2013), the details provided here may suggest

additional PTEN structural features to target. We suggest that charge reversal mutations on the

IDR release the autoinhibition through the interaction with the phosphorylated CTT, exposing the

membrane binding interface of the phosphatase and C2 domains and thus promoting membrane

localization of PTEN. The second relates to the design of allosteric drugs that restore the

coordination in PTEN mutants in which catalysis is impaired, such as the C124S mutant which is

catalytically dead (Bonneau and Longy, 2000), and the G129E mutation which inhibits the

recognition of phosphatidylinositol (Myers et al., 1998). Here we detail the substrate coordination

and conformational change of the P loop that implicate PTEN catalytic activity. We observed that

PIP$_3$ significantly protrudes from the membrane surface and can form salt bridges with key basic

residues in the P loop. PIP$_2$ in the *holo* state also protrudes but less significantly. Residues Cys124

and R130 are essential for catalysis whereby is vital for PIP$_3$ coordination, facilitating the

phosphate group migration from its inositol to Cys124. Lys125 and Lys128 in the P loop also

coordinate PIP$_3$ and are PTEN-specific. Moreover, we observed two crucial active site

coordination events, namely PIP$_3$ with Lys128, and Lys125 and Arg130, which alters P loop

conformation through sidechain rearrangement of the catalytic residues, Cys124 and Arg130,

toward the substrate. The use of allosteric modulators to restore these coordination events in PTEN

mutants can provide therapeutic advantages. One possible approach would be via the design of an

allostery-based rescue mutant as we have proposed for PI3Kα (Zhang et al., 2020) and earlier for

the von Hippel-Lindau tumor suppressor protein (Liu and Nussinov, 2008).  An alternative

approach to overcome any mutational effects and restore wild-type PTEN function would be the

design of small-molecule allosteric modulators that target the allosteric communication pathway

from the PBD region to the active site that stabilizes PTEN–membrane interactions.

In conclusion, membrane localization and orientation of PTEN strongly depend on the lipid

composition of the membrane. Our studies elucidate the mechanistic details of PTEN activation at

the membrane and the role of phosphatidylinositols in the conformational changes of membrane

bound PTEN. Cancer-associated mutations prevent effective membrane localization, leading to

the dysfunctional inhibition of oncogenic cell signaling and growth. With PTEN being one of the

most frequently mutated proteins in cancers, obtaining its membrane associated structure and

mechanism in atomic resolution may provide insight assisting drug discovery, for the currently

still undruggable major cancer target (McLoughlin et al., 2018).

## Materials and methods

### Preparing the full-length PTEN

The crystal structure of wild-type PTEN (PDB: 1D5R) was used to model the full-length PTEN protein. The missing coordinates for residues 1-13 in PBD, residues 282-312 of IDR in C2, and residues 352-403 in the CTT were obtained by a hierarchal iterative template-based threading approach using the I-TASSER program (Roy et al., 2010; Yang et al., 2015; Yang and Zhang, 2015). The PBD was modelled as a small α-helix, and the IDR and CTT were modelled as unstructured chains (Figure 1). *In silico* modelling of full-length PTEN showed that the α-helix PBD interacts with the phosphatase domain and both unstructured IDR and CTT chains span the phosphatase and C2 domains marginally interacting with them. We ensured that the long disordered CTT chain does not block the catalytic site at the membrane binding interface. In autoinhibition, the catalytic site is blocked by phosphorylated serine-threonine cluster (Ser380, Thr382, Thr383, and Ser385) in the CTT, which is crucial for maintaining PTEN in a stable cytosolic state (Masson and Williams, 2020).

### Construction of the bilayer systems with PTEN

To generate the initial configuration of membrane bound PTEN, the protein was placed on the lipid bilayer without contacting the lipids. In the initial placement, PTEN faced its putative membrane-binding interface toward the bilayer surface as suggested by the crystal structure (JO Lee et al., 1999). In this orientation, the pβ2-pα1 loop (residues 40-47) in the phosphatase domain and the CBR3 loop (residues 260-269) in the C2 domain were closely located at the bilayer surface. The initial construction revealed that all modelled regions including the N-terminal PBD do not interact with the bilayer before starting of the simulations. An equilibrated and hydrated lipid

bilayer was constructed at the room temperature ensuring that the lipid bilayer is in the liquid

phase. In the construction, preequilibrated lipids from the lipid library containing a couple of

thousand lipids with different individual conformations generated from the CHARMM program

(Brooks et al., 2009) were extracted and replaced with the pseudospheres interacting through the

van der Waals (vdW) force field at the putative locations for the phosphate atom of lipid head

group (Woolf and Roux, 1994, 1996). The bilayer contained 4 different lipids including the

zwitterionic DOPC, anionic DOPS, and the phosphatidylinositol $PIP_2$ and $PIP_3$ lipids in 32:6:1:1,

molar ratio (Table 1). Total of 400 lipids constituted the bilayer system with lateral cell dimension

of ~120 $\text{Å}^2$ for the unit cell. TIP3P waters were added at both sides of the bilayer with lipid/water

ratio of ~1/130.

**448    Atomistic molecular dynamics simulations**

We performed MD simulations using the updated CHARMM (Brooks et al., 2009) all-atom force

field (version 36m) (Huang et al., 2017; Klauda et al., 2010) for constructing the set of starting

points and relaxing the systems to a production-ready stage. Our simulations closely followed the

same protocol as in our previous works (Chakrabarti et al., 2016; Chavan et al., 2015; Jang et al.,

2015; Jang et al., 2017; Jang et al., 2016a; Jang et al., 2019; Jang et al., 2016b; Jang et al., 2020;

Liao et al., 2018; Liao et al., 2017; Lu et al., 2015; Lu et al., 2016; Muratcioglu et al., 2017;

Ozdemir et al., 2018a; Ozdemir et al., 2018b; Zhang et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2019a, 2019b). The

bilayer system containing PTEN and solvent has almost 210,000 atoms. For reproducibility, we

constructed four independent systems with different lipid arrangements around protein. Statistics

were taken over these trajectories. To observe the effects of lipid compositions on the PTEN-

membrane interaction, four additional systems were constructed, including a pure DOPC bilayer,

an anionic DOPC:DOPS (4:1, molar ratio) bilayer, and two anionic DOPC:DOPS:PIP$_2$ and

DOPC:DOPS:PIP$_3$ bilayers in 16:3:1, molar ratio (Table 1). The former and latter

phosphatidylinositol lipid bilayers radically contained PIP$_2$ and PIP$_3$, respectively.

In the preequilibrium stage, we performed a series of minimization and dynamics cycles

for the solvents including lipids around the harmonically restrained protein. Each bilayer system

was subjected to the preequilibrium simulation for 5 ns with the restrained backbones of PTEN

until the solvent reached 310 K. The harmonic restraints on the backbones of PTEN were gradually

removed through the solvent dynamics cycles with the particle mesh Ewald (PME) electrostatics

calculation (Darden et al., 1993). The final dynamics cycle without the harmonic restraints

completed the preequilibrium stage, generating the starting point for the production run. A total of

8.0 μs simulations were performed for the 8 systems, each with 1 μs. In the production runs, we

employed the Langevin temperature control (Wu and Brooks, 2003) to maintain the constant

temperature at 310 K and the Nosé-Hoover Langevin piston pressure control to sustain the pressure

at 1 atm. To constrain the motion of bonds involving hydrogen atoms, we applied the SHAKE

algorithm (Ryckaert et al., 1977). The production runs were implemented with the NAMD parallel-

computing code (Phillips et al., 2005) on a Biowulf cluster at the National Institutes of Health

(Bethesda, MD). In the analysis, the first 200 ns trajectories were removed, and thus averages were

taken afterward.

**Table 1** Composition of the lipid bilayer systems in the simulations.
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| System | Charged state | # of DOPC | # of DOPS | # of $PIP_2$ | # of $PIP_3$ | Molar ratio |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| PC | Zwitterionic | 400 | - | - | - | 1 |
| PS | Anionic | 320 | 80 | - | - | 4:1 |
| P2 | Anionic | 320 | 60 | 20 | - | 16:3:1 |
| P3 | Anionic | 320 | 60 | - | 20 | 16:3:1 |
| PI | Anionic | 320 | 60 | 10 | 10 | 32:6:1:1 |

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## Figure legends

**Figure 1.** PTEN sequence and structure.

(A) The sequence and domain structure of PTEN. In the sequence, the underlined residues highlight the PIP$_2$ binding domain (PBD) at the N-terminal and the PDZ binding motif at the C-terminal regions. In the domain structure, the phosphorylated serine-threonine cluster (residues 380-385) in the C-terminal tail is marked.

(B) The crystal structures of PTEN (PDB code: 1D5R). The marked residues denote the missing regions.

(C) *In silico* model of the full-length PTEN structure. The missing regions in PTEN, the PBD (residues 1-15), the interdomain region (IDR, residues 282-312), and the C-terminal tail (residues 351-403) were constructed by the I-TASSER program (Roy et al., 2010; Yang et al., 2015; Yang and Zhang, 2015).

**Figure 2.** Membrane interaction of PTEN.

(A) Snapshot representing the final PTEN conformation in the lipid bilayer composed of DOPC:DOPS:PIP$_2$:PIP$_3$ = 32:6:1:1, in molar ratio.

(B) The root-mean-squared-fluctuations (RMSFs) of PTEN residues.

(C) Time series of the deviations of the center of mass of individual PTEN domains from the bilayer surface.

(D) Highlight shown the interaction of unfolded PBD with the lipids. Key basic residues, Lys6, Arg11, Lys13, Arg14, and Arg15 are marked.

**Figure 3.** Lipid contact probability.

The probability of lipid contacts for PTEN residues for different bilayer systems, including PC

(pure DOPC), PS (DOPC:DOPS = 4:1, molar ratio), P2 (DOPC:DOPS:PIP$_2$ = 16:3:1) , P3

(DOPC:DOPS:PIP$_3$ = 16:3:1) and PI (DOPC:DOPS:PIP$_2$:PIP$_3$ = 32:6:1:1) systems.

**Figure 4.** Salt bridge interactions of PTEN.

(A) Mapping of the basic residues on the membrane-binding surface of the phosphatase and

C2 domains. PIP$_3$-favored residues in the phosphatase domain are colored red, and those

in the C2 domain are colored blue.

(B) Contour map of the probabilities of salt bridge formations between the key basic residues

at the membrane-binding interface and the lipids. Salt bridge is calculated between the

nitrogen atoms in the sidechains of basic residues and the oxygen atoms in the phosphate

group of all lipids and the inositol head group of phosphatidylinositols with the cutoff

distance of 3.2 Å.

(C) Averaged deviations of the amide nitrogen in the sidechains of Arg and Lys residues from

the bilayer surface for the PIP$_3$-favored residues in the phosphatase (left panel) and C2

(right panel) domains.

**Figure 5.** PIP$_3$ coordination induces the P loop conformational change.

(A) A snapshot highlighting P loop and protruded PIP$_3$ from the bilayer surface at the active

site.

(B) Deviations of the phosphate atoms of PIP$_2$ and PIP$_3$ from the averaged position of the

phosphate atoms of DOPC and DOPS for the *apo* and *holo* bilayer leaflets in the absence

and presence of the protein, respectively.

(C) The open conformation of P loop with the coordination of PIP$_3$ at the active site.

**Figure 6.** High density of waters at the active site for catalysis.

(A) Highlight shown the cave-like, water-filled space formed by the inner surfaces of

phosphatase and C2 domains and the bilayer surface denoting as the aqueous canal. Along

the water-filled interface between the phosphatase and C2 domains, PIP$_3$-favored distal

basic residues are marked.

(B) The structure and diameter of aqueous canal calculated with HOLE program (Smart et al.,

1993). For the canal structure, green denotes the diameter in the range, $4 \leq d \leq 10$ Å, and

blue denotes the diameter of $d > 10$ Å.

(C) Three-dimensional water density map with probabilities, $p = 0.5$ (yellow surface) and $p =$

0.4 (blue mesh).

(D) Interdomain residue-residue contacts for PTEN. For two intramolecular residues $i$ and $j$,

the probability of contact for the distance between the $C_\beta^i - C_\beta^j$ ($C_\alpha$ is used for Gly residue)

with cutoff 10 Å was calculated. Residue $j$ with $|j - i| < 4$ was omitted, and $p < 0.1$ was

neglected in the calculation.

**Figure 7.** A schematic diagram illustrating membrane localization of PTEN.

In the cytosol, PTEN is autoinhibited by the phosphorylated CTT, through the "closed-closed"

conformation. Dephosphorylation on the CTT removes the autoinhibition, shifting the

populations toward the "open-closed" conformation. With the exposed membrane-binding

surface, PTEN can localize at the anionic membrane. Full activation of PTEN requires the

membrane anchorage of PBD at the membrane microdomain enriched by both

phosphatidylinositols, $PIP_2$ and $PIP_3$. In the cartoon, PTP denotes the phosphatase domain.

## Figure supplement legends

**Figure 2–figure supplement 1.** Initial configuration of the PTEN-membrane system.

(A) Electron density across the bilayers for the pure DOPC bilayer (gray line) and the PI system (black line) with the lipid composition of DOPC:DOPS:PIP$_2$:PIP$_3$ = 32:6:1:1, in molar ratio.

(B) A snapshot representing the initial conformation of PTEN in the PI system.

(C) Time-evolution structures of PBD in the PI system. In the cartoons, hydrophobic, polar/glycine, positively charged, and negatively charged residues are colored white, green, blue, and red, respectively.

**Figure 3–figure supplement 2.** Relaxed PTEN conformations in different lipid bilayer systems.

(A) Snapshots representing the final conformations of PTEN in the PC, PS, P2, and P3 systems.

(B) Averaged deviations of the center of mass of individual PTEN domains from the bilayer surface for different bilayer systems.

**Figure 3–figure supplement 3.** Helix tilt angle of PTEN.

Probability distribution functions of the helix tilt with respect to the bilayer normal for helices in the phosphatase domain of PTEN in different bilayer systems.

**Figure 3–figure supplement 4.** Conformational dynamics of PBD in different bilayer systems.

(A) Time-evolution structures of PBD in the P3 system. In the cartoons, hydrophobic, polar/glycine, positively charged, and negatively charged residues are colored white, green, blue, and red, respectively.

(B) Time series of the deviations of the center of mass of PBD in the P3 system compared to that in the PI system.

(C) Highlights shown the interactions of folded PBDs with the lipids in the PS system.

(D) The same for the P2 system. Key basic residues, Lys6, Arg11, Lys13, Arg14, and Arg15 are marked.

**Figure 4–figure supplement 5.** Salt bridge interactions of key basic residues.

(A) Two-dimensional bar graphs with error bars of the probabilities of salt bridge formation between the key basic residues at the membrane-binding interface and phosphatidylinositols, PIP$_2$ and PIP$_3$.

(B) The same for bulky lipids, DOPC and DOPS. Salt bridge is calculated between the nitrogen atoms in the sidechains of basic residues and the oxygen atoms in the phosphate group of all lipids and the inositol head group of phosphatidylinositols with the cutoff distance of 3.2 Å.

**Figure 5–figure supplement 6.** Conformational change of P loop in different bilayer systems.

(A) Deviations of the phosphate atoms of PIP$_2$ in the P2 system and PIP$_3$ in the P3 system from the averaged position of the phosphate atoms of DOPC and DOPS for the *apo* and *holo* bilayer leaflets in the absence and presence of the protein, respectively.

(B) A snapshot representing the P loop conformation in the crystal structure.

(C) Snapshots representing the collapsed P loop conformations observed in the PS, P2, P3,

and PI$^4$ systems. One of the PI systems yields the collapsed P loop due to failure of the

coordination of PIP$_3$ to Arg130.

(D) Snapshots representing the open conformation of P loop with the coordination of PIP$_3$ at

the active site for the PI systems.

**Figure 6–figure supplement 7.** Density of waters at the active site in different bilayer systems.

Three-dimensional water density map with probabilities, $p = 0.5$ (yellow surface) and $p = 0.4$

(blue mesh) for the PS, P2, and P3 systems.

**Figure 6–figure supplement 8.** Conformations of IDR and CTT.

(A) Snapshot of the IDR conformation with the β-sheet extension.

(B) Descriptions of the secondary structure by the STRIDE program (Frishman and Argos,

1995) for the IDR depicted each 100 ns interval.

(C) Representative conformations of the CTT with the collapsed and extended chain structures.

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**Figure 1.** PTEN sequence and structure.

**Figure 2.** Membrane interaction of PTEN.

863    **Figure 3.** Lipid contact probability.

**Figure 4.** Salt bridge interactions of PTEN.

870    **Figure 5.** PIP$_3$ coordination induces the P loop conformational change.

874    **Figure 6.** High density of waters at the active site for catalysis.

878    **Figure 7.** A schematic diagram illustrating membrane localization of PTEN.

    **Figure 2–figure supplement 1.** Initial configuration of the PTEN-membrane system.

**Figure 3–figure supplement 2.** Relaxed PTEN conformations in different lipid bilayer systems.

**Figure 3–figure supplement 3.** Helix tilt angle of PTEN.

**Figure 3–figure supplement 4.** Conformational dynamics of PBD in different bilayer systems.

**Figure 4–figure supplement 5.** Salt bridge interactions of key basic residues.

**Figure 5–figure supplement 6.** Conformational change of P loop in different bilayer systems.

**Figure 6–figure supplement 7.** Density of waters at the active site in different bilayer systems.

**Figure 6–figure supplement 8.** Conformations of IDR and CTT.