Conformational dynamics of a nicotinic receptor neurotransmitter site

Mrityunjay Singh[1], Dinesh C. Indurthi[2⧠], Lovika Mittal[1], Anthony Auerbach[2⧠], and Shailendra Asthana[1⧠].

[1]Computational Biophysics and CADD Group, Computational and Mathematical Biology Center, Translational Health Science and Technology Institute, NCR Biotech Science Cluster, Faridabad 121001, India.

[2]Department of Physiology and Biophysics, University at Buffalo, State University of New York, Buffalo, United States.

⧠ Corresponding Authors

Shailendra Asthana: sasthana@thsti.res.in

Anthony Auerbach: Anthony.auerbach@gmail.com

Dinesh C. Indurthi: dinesh.indurthi@gmail.com

Abstract

Agonists increase receptor activity by providing net-favorable binding energy to active versus resting

conformations of their target sites. We used molecular dynamics (MD) simulations to explore

dynamics of the low-to-high affinity conformational change (L→H) at the *Torpedo* α–δ nicotinic

acetylcholine receptor neurotransmitter site, using 4 agonists. Alternative conformations were

identified in trajectories generated from a single starting structure by matching approximate binding

energies calculated *in silico* with exact values measured experimentally *in vitro*. In all simulations, the

L→H transition started with a rotation of the agonist about its cationic center ('flip'), followed by a

staged downward displacement of loop C ('flop') and the formation of a compact, hydrophobic and

stable high-affinity pocket ('fix'). Agonist rotation and a transient intermediate state are only in

simulations but can be confirmed or refuted, for example by time-resolved structures.

Introduction

Adult vertebrate nicotinic acetylcholine receptors (AChRs) are allosteric proteins that mediate synaptic transmission between motor neurons and skeletal muscle fibers. These pentameric ligand-gated ion channels are composed of four different subunits (2 $\alpha 1$, $\beta 1$, δ, ϵ) arranged symmetrically around a central ion-conducting pore (Rahman et al., 2020; Unwin, 1993). Interactions between the neurotransmitter acetylcholine (ACh) and orthosteric sites in the extracellular domain (ECD) increase the probability of a global change in protein conformation that opens a distant (~60 Å) allosteric site (a 'gate') in the transmembrane domain (TMD), allowing cations to cross the membrane. In AChRs the ligand-protein interactions occur sequentially in reactions called 'touch' (initial contact), 'catch' (agonist recognition) and 'hold' (receptor animation) (Auerbach, 2024; Jadey & Auerbach, 2012). Here, we use MD simulations to investigate restructuring of a neurotransmitter site in hold.

The. neurotransmitter sites switch from low- to high-affinity at the start of the global gating isomerization, and the gate switches from closed to open at the end the isomerization ($C{\rightarrow}O$) (Grosman et al., 2000; Purohit et al., 2013). We represent the overall gating conformational change of the receptor as $C_L{\rightleftarrows}O_H$, with capital letters indicating the functional status of the gate and subscripts indicating the functional status of the neurotransmitter sites.

Receptors change conformation (turn on and off) spontaneously, influenced only by temperature. In AChRs without agonists, a large energy barrier separates C_L from O_H so the probability of having the open-gate shape (P_O) small (~10^{-6}) and the baseline current is negligible (Jackson, 1986; Nayak et al., 2012; Purohit & Auerbach, 2009). The higher affinity of O_H compared to C_L indicates that agonists stabilize this state preferentially, to increase P_O and membrane current. Importantly, agonists also stabilize the gating transition state (reduce the separating barrier) to nearly the same extent as the

end states, so the agonist-induced increase in P_O is caused almost exclusively by an increase in the

channel-opening rate constant. Consequently, neurotransmitters turn on AChRs rapidly to generate a

fast-rising synaptic impulse.

Agonists are characterized by affinity, efficacy and efficiency. Each orthosteric site has two

affinities (agonist binding free energies), weak to L and strong to H. Their difference, H minus L (ΔG_H-

ΔG_L), is the energy source that drives the otherwise unfavorable protein isomerization. This difference,

plus the agonist-independent free energy of unliganded gating, determines the maximum of the dose-

response curve (efficacy). The binding energy difference is the *amount* of free energy delivered to the

gating apparatus at each orthosteric site.

A related, but distinct, agonist property is efficiency that, in contrast to efficacy, depends on the

H/L binding free energy ratio, ($1-\Delta G_L/\Delta G_H$) (Nayak et al., 2019). This ratio determines the *fraction* of

binding free energy converted into local movements that stabilize the gating transition state and,

hence, animate the protein. In a dose-response curve, efficiency is manifest as the correlation

between the maximum response and EC_{50} (Indurthi & Auerbach, 2023). Like affinity and efficacy,

efficiency is a universal agonist attribute (Auerbach, 2024).

The salient energy changes at the orthosteric sites of adult-type muscle AChRs have been

estimated experimentally by using electrophysiology (Figure 1A). These receptors have 2

approximately equal and independent neurotransmitter sites (Nayak & Auerbach, 2017). The total free

energy change in the L→H transition for two neurotransmitters (-10.2 kcal/mol), added to the

unfavorable unliganded isomerization free energy change (+8.3 kcal/mol at -100 mV), generates a

favorable free energy change of gating (-1.9 kcal/mol) (Nayak et al., 2012). ΔG is proportional to the

logarithm of the corresponding equilibrium constant by -RT, where R is the gas constant and T the

absolute temperature (RT equals 0.59 at 23 $^{\circ}$C). Accordingly, the two independent L→H

rearrangements add to increase the gating equilibrium constant by a factor of 5680^2, to increase P_O

from 7.4x~10^{-7} to 0.96 (Nayak et al., 2012). Likewise, the L→H rearrangements increase the opening

rate constant by almost the same factor, from ~0.001 s^{-1} to ~50,000 s^{-1}. The result is a nearly perfect

synaptic current that rises rapidly from almost zero to almost maximum (Jackson, 1989).

Agonist free energy changes in catch and hold determine affinity and efficacy. Our goal was to

associate the ΔG_L→ΔG_H change in binding free energy associated with hold with local structural

rearrangements at an AChR neurotransmitter site.   MD simulations were used to explore

conformational changes in the L→H transition at the α−δ neurotransmitter site of the *Torpedo* AChR

(6UVW; (Rahman et al., 2020)). In brief, for 4 agonists L and H conformations were identified in the

simulations, and binding free energies calculated approximately *in silico* matched those measured

accurately (by using electrophysiology) *in vitro*. In L→H, 3 rearrangements were prominent for all

agonists: 1) a rotation of the ligand abouts its cationic center ('flip'), 2) a downward displacement of

loop C ('flop'), and 3) compaction, dehydration and stabilization of the pocket ('fix'). Also, for all

agonists a brief intermediate state connected the initial L and final H conformations. These results

suggest that movement of the agonist may start the conformational change that turns on the receptor.

Results

Hold. Traditionally, receptor activation is divided into distinct steps called 'binding' (formation of a

ligand-protein complex) and 'gating' (receptor isomerization) (Figure 1). Here, we are concerned with

their connection in the form of structural changes at a neurotransmitter site.

In AChRs, both binding and gating are aggregate processes (Figure 1). First, the agonist (A)

diffuses to and contacts the resting target (touch), forming an encounter complex, A-C. This step is

approximately the same for small agonists. Then, a local protein rearrangement (catch) establishes the

low affinity complex, AC_L. The expanded binding reaction scheme is $A+C \rightleftarrows A-C \rightleftarrows AC_L$ (Jadey & Auerbach,

2012). Gating involves sequential structural changes in receptor domains (Gupta et al., 2017; Purohit et

al., 2013).   First, each neurotransmitter site undergoes another local rearrangement (hold) that

establishes the high-affinity complex (AC_H), after which other domains restructure without a further

change in agonist affinity, eventually opening the gate (isomerize). The expanded gating reaction

scheme is $AC_L \rightleftarrows AC_H \rightleftarrows ... \rightleftarrows AO_H$ (Figure 1B). AC_L is both the end state of 'binding' and the start state of

'gating'. Our interest here is the structural changes in the hold transition that links binding with gating,

$AC_L \rightleftarrows AC_H$.

In AChRs, rearrangements that change agonist energy in catch (ΔG_L) and in hold ($\Delta G_H - \Delta G_L$) are

localized to the two orthosteric sites.   Energy changes associated with the other events in the

activation sequence, namely the chemical potential associated with touch (Phillips, 2020) and

downstream domain restructurings in the rest of the isomerization (Gupta et al., 2017) are

approximately agonist-independent and not relevant to setting relative affinity, efficacy or efficiency.

Although there are proposals and reports suggesting that protein-protein interactions at the ECD-TMD

interface influence agonist binding energy, these are either unsupported (Cymes & Grosman, 2021;

Gupta et al., 2017; Nayak et al., 2012) or in error (Purohit et al., 2015). So far, only mutations at

neurotransmitter sites have been shown to influence agonist binding energy.

The agonist's local energy changes at each orthosteric site in catch and in hold determine

relative affinities (ΔG_L and ΔG_H), efficacy ($\Delta G_H - \Delta G_L$) and efficiency ($1 - \Delta G_L / \Delta G_H$). In AChRs, ΔG_L and

ΔG_H have been measured experimentally by using electrophysiology for 23 agonists and 53

neurotransmitter site mutations (Indurthi & Auerbach, 2023), and these values serve as a basis for

identifying L and H structures in the MD simulations.

Apo, resting-C (with a bound toxin), and high-affinity desensitized AChR structures have been

solved by using cryo-EM (Rahman et al., 2022; Rahman et al., 2020; Zarkadas et al., 2022). Desensitized

(D) AChRs have a similar, perhaps identical, high affinity as O_H (Auerbach, 2020; Nayak & Auerbach,

2017). Below, we report the results of MD simulations regarding the conformational dynamics that

connect the end states of the hold rearrangement, $AC_L \rightarrow AC_H$ (Figure 1B, bottom), the event that

triggers the isomerization that eventually opens the gate. Although neither is these states have been

captured as a stable structure, the results suggest that they can be identified in MD simulations.

Figure 1: AChR activation. *A. Traditional scheme.* Vertical is 'gating' and horizontal is 'binding'; red, main physiological pathway. The isomerization between closed-channel/low-affinity (C_L) and open-channel/high-affinity (O_H) conformations occurs with or without agonists (equilibrium constant L_n; n, number of bound ligands), and is spontaneous (depends only on temperature) and global (on a ~µs time scale). Agonists (A) bind weakly to C_L (equilibrium association constant K_L, free energy change ΔG_L) and strongly to O_H (K_H, ΔG_H). The 2 orthosteric sites of adult AChRs are approximately equivalent and independent and there is no significant external energy, so $L_2/L_0 = (K_H/K_L)^2$ (Nayak & Auerbach, 2017). B. Expansions of binding (top, ends with catch) and gating (bottom, starts with hold). The agonist diffuses to and contact the target ('touch') to form an encounter complex (A-C); a local 'catch' rearrangement establishes the low affinity complex (AC_L); a local 'hold' rearrangement establishes the high affinity complex (AC_H); the remaining protein domain 'isomerize' without a further change in affinity to generate a conducting channel (AO_H). Gray arrows, steps that incur the same energy change for all agonists used in this study; black arrows, agonist-dependent free energy changes occur in catch (ΔG_L) and in hold (ΔG_H-ΔG_L). C. α-δ subunit extracellular domains; red, after toxin removal (6UWZ.pdb) and blue, apo (7QKO.pdb). There are no major deviations (C_α RMSD = 0.3 Å). D. Closeup of the desensitized *Torpedo* α-δ subunit neurotransmitter site occupied by carbamylcholine (CCh, blue) (7QL6.pdb; (Zarkadas et al., 2022)). In this is H conformation, 3 aromatic groups in the α subunit (149-190-198) surround the agonist's cationic center (+) together provide most of the ACh binding energy (Purohit et al., 2014); the agonist's tail points away from the α subunit (*trans* orientation).

Docking. We began by removing α-bungarotoxin from the 2.69 Å resolution structure of resting-C

(6UWZ; (Rahman et al., 2020) (Figure 1C) and docking agonists into the now-empty pocket. The

docking simulations had strong binding scores ranging from -5.82 to -9.18 kcal/mol (Figure 2A),

suggesting that the interactions were stable. However, unlike the agonist orientation apparent in cryo-

EM structures of D_H (Noviello et al., 2021; Rahman et al., 2022; Rahman et al., 2020; Walsh et al., 2018;

Zarkadas et al., 2022) (Figure 1D), the docked agonist's tail pointed towards (*cis*) rather than away

(t*rans*) from the α subunit (Figure 2B, top). This was a consistent result that pertained to the 3 top

docking poses for all 4 ligands.

Because the *cis* orientation was not observed in any cryo-EM structure, we examined the top

200 docking scores for CCh. All poses were *cis*, with the tail pointing towards the α subunit and away

from the main cluster of aromatic side chains. Apparently, in the unliganded 6UWZ and 7QKO

structures (Figure 1C), the *trans* orientation observed in 7QL6 is unfavored. These results suggested

that the agonist orientations in the end states are *cis* in AC_L versus *trans* in AC_H.

Figure 2. Agonist docking and loop dynamics. A. Top, agonists (blue, cationic center): carbamylcholine (CCh), acetylcholine (ACh), epibatidine (Ebt) and epiboxidine (Ebx). Bottom, $\alpha-\delta$ site with docked agonists (top 3 poses). Resting-C, 6UVW.pdb minus toxin (red): loop C is up and agonist is *cis;* 200 ns, after simulation and removal of CCh (blue): loop C is down and agonist is *trans.* B. Bottom, *for all 4 agonists the* docking scores (mean±SD, n=3) were more favorable after simulation. C. C_α RMSD (mean±SD, triplicates) are stable after ~120 ns (ACh, cyan; CCh, green; Ebt, orange; Ebx, purple). D. close-up of the CCh-occupied pocket. Red, resting-C; orange, equilibrated (0 ns MD); blue, after 200 ns MD. IN the simulations, loop C flops down (arrow), loop F moves in, the agonist flips *cis→trans* (circled inset).

The L→H transition. We performed 200 ns MD simulations for each of the resting-C docked complexes,

in triplicate (with different seed values). Videos 1 and 2 show simulations with CCh on 2 time scales,

expanded for the initial 200 ns and condensed for the full 1.0 μs. Video 3 shows a 200 ns simulation

with epiboxidine. The 200 ns simulations for all three replicates for all 4 agonists showed similar root-

mean-square-deviation (RMSD) patterns with differences consistently below 1Å (Figure 2C, Figure 2-

Source Data 1) suggesting that the trajectories were sufficiently robust and reproducible. Although

there were initial deviations, all systems became stable by ~120 ns. The root-mean-square-fluctuation

(RMSF) of the C_α atoms showed flexibility around the pocket mainly in loops C and F (but not E) (Figure

2-figure supplement 1). The fluctuations at the base of the ECD were anticipated because the TMD that

offers stability here was absent. However, there is no experimental evidence that the ECD-TMD

interfacial region influencing agonist binding energy, and (as described below) the match between

experimental binding energies (whole receptors) and those calculated in the simulations (ECD dimers)

further discounts this proposal. In addition, RMSD measurements show that, while agonists stabilize

binding pocket residues (compared to apo; Figure 2-figure supplement 2), interfacial residues continue

to fluctuate in the presence of agonists. The interfacial region plays an important role in setting the

unliganded gating equilibrium constant (L_0) but not agonist affinity (K_L or K_H).

In addition to the position changes of loops C and F during the simulations, in hold the ligand

orientation inverted, _cis→trans_ (Figure 2D). For all ligands and in all trajectories, at the start of the

simulations the agonist's tail points towards the α subunit and at the end it points towards δ. This re-

orientation represents a nearly complete somersault (a 'flip') about the agonist's main cationic center

(N^+) that remains surrounded by the αW149-αY190-αY198 aromatic side chain cluster throughout (see

Figure 5; Figure 6-table supplement 1). The final MD configuration (with CCh) aligns well with the CCh-

bound cryo-EM desensitized structure (7QL6; RMSD <0.5 Å) (Figure 2-figure supplement 3). Video 2

shows that the final, *trans* orientation with CCh remains constant for at least 1 μs, indicating that

structure had settled by 200 ns with no further major rearrangements. This result is consistent with

functional measurements showing that D and O AChRs have indistinguishable affinities (citations in

(Auerbach, 2020)).

Additional results from MD simulations support the ECD dimer system as sufficient to model

the dynamics of the orthosteric site. First, the local rearrangements were similar in a ECD pentamer

docked with ACh to those in the dimer, including the *cis→trans* flip of agonist (Figure 2-figure

supplement 4). Second, 200 ns simulations of the apo ECD dimer show similar RMSF and RMSD

patterns to those with ligand present (CCh) (Figure 2-figure supplement 5A, 5B). Third, in these

simulations the downward displacement of loop C apparent with agonists (see below) was present, but

less pronounced (Figure 2-figure supplement 5C).

To test whether rearrangements in the simulations served to enforce the *trans* pose, we

removed the bound CCh from the final 200 ns MD structure and re-docked all 4 agonists. The preferred

poses for all were *trans* (Figure 2A, bottom). In the simulation, the preferred agonist orientation

switched from *cis* to *trans*. In addition, binding energies from docking scores were higher for the final

200 ns structures, consistent with an L-to-H transition (Figure 2B). Together, these results lead us to

propose that MD simulations may indeed reflect actual rearrangements of a neurotransmitter site in

the L-to-H, hold transition that turns on the AChR.

Principal component analysis (PCA). To identify the most prominent conformational states of the

orthosteric site during the simulations, PCA was carried out based on the most significant fluctuations

(principal components). Considering the first two principal components (PC-1 and PC-2) that captured

the most pronounced C_α displacements (Figure 3-Source Data 1), backbone fluctuations revealed three

energy minima we call m1, m2, and m3 (Figure 3). The two most principal components accounted for

the majority of the variance, as indicated by the rapid decrease in the fraction of variance with

increasing eigenvalue rank (Figure 3-figure supplement 1). The consistency across different replicates

for all 4 agonists supports the convergence of the PCA analysis. To further assess this consistency, we

calculated the inner products of the top 10 principal components from each run. The resulting

heatmaps reveal the degree of similarity between runs, with the inner product values of PC-1 and PC-2

reflecting considerable overlap (50-90%) in the principal dynamic modes captured in each simulation

(Figure 3-figure supplement 2).

For all 4 agonists, all trajectories started in m1 and ended in m3, with m2 occurring as an

intermediate (Figure 3-figure supplement 3). The free energy landscapes as a function of PC1 and PC2

(Figure 3 and Figure 3-figure supplement 4) reveal variations in both the depths and variances of the

wells across different agonists. The well depths, derived from -kTlnp values, reflect the frequency at

which each state is occupied during the simulation relative to other states. This, and the variance that

measures binding pose fluctuations around the mean positions for each minimum, provide insight into

structural stability. In general, pronounced wells were present for all three minima for all four agonists

(Figure 3-figure supplement 4). The only exception was m2 for ACh which was shallow, indicating a less

stable intermediate state between m1 and m3. For all agonists, the m3 pose was more localized and

stable compared to m1, with m2 being the least stable pose.

         Pronounced fluctuations in loop C were evident in residue-wise RMSF plots and align well with

247   the contributions of the first two principal components (PC-1 and PC-2) (Figure 2-figure

Figure 3. Principal Component Analysis (PCA). *Left,* for each agonist a plot of PC-1 versus PC-2, the first two principal components that capture the maximum variance in the trajectory (Figure 3-Source Data 1). Colors represent free energy value in kcal/mol (scale, upper left, bottom). For all agonists there are 3 energy minima (darkest red) - m1, m2, and m3 - that correspond to different conformations of the neurotransmitter site. *Right,* 'porcupine' plots indicating that the direction and magnitude of changes PC-1 versus PC-2 is in loops C and F. From energy comparisons (Figure 4, Figure 4-Source Data 1) and temporal sequences (Figure 3-figure supplement 2, Figure 4-Source Data 1) we hypothesize that m1 represent state AC_L, m3 represents state AC_H, and m2 is an intermediate state in the *L→H,* hold transition (Figure 1B).

supplement 5D). The apo and CCh occupied proteins adopt similar conformational spaces during the

200 ns simulation (Figure 2-figure supplement 5E). However, presence of the agonist appears to

increase conformational diversity, generating a broader distribution in the PCA plot. The bottom of the

m1, m2 and m3 energy wells in Figure 3 represent the most stable configurations of each population

and serve as reference points. In general (see next section), the ligand is *cis* m1 and *trans* in m3.

To further evaluate the stability of the binding poses in m1 and m3, we performed Binding Pose

Meta Dynamics (BPMD), an enhanced sampling method for assessing ligand stability in solution. The

BPMD calculations, which use CompositeScores derived from PoseScore (measuring ligand stability

based on RMSD) and PersScore (evaluating the persistence of key ligand-protein interactions). The

BPMD scores consistently showed lower scores for m3 compared to m1, indicating higher ligand

stability (Figure 3-figure supplement 5). Further, the *trans* orientation in m3 was more stable than *cis* in

m1, for all four ligands. Cross-docking of the *trans* orientation into the m1 conformation and the cis

orientation into the m3 conformation confirmed that these are the preferred orientations. BPMD

revealed that unstable ligand poses during the simulation are rarely occupied in the energy landscape

and therefore make minimal contributions to binding free energy.

Computed versus experimental binding energies. Although the well bottoms in Figure 3 represent the

most stable overall protein conformations, they do not directly convey information regarding agonist

stability or orientation. To incorporate this information, we performed a cluster analysis of the ligand

configuration using frames selected from the bottom of each PCA well as inputs. The top three

clusters, each having RMSD of ≤ 1.0 Å, shared a similar ligand orientation (Figure 3-figure supplement

3) and were selected to compute binding free energies (Figure 4, Figure 4-Source Data 1, Figure 4-

Source Data 2). The remaining frames were disregarded. The fraction of frames from each minimum

accepted for free energy calculations ranged from 20% (ACh, m1) to 71% (Ebt, m3). On average, the

fraction of frames selected was ~50%, showing the dynamic nature of the ligand in the pocket even in

the regions of overall stability (Videos 1 and 3).

The above procedure defined populations of structures that might represent the end states of

hold, AC_L (m1) and AC_H (m3), plus a previously unidentified intermediate state in the L→H transition

(m2). We used PBSA (Poisson-Boltzmann Surface Area) computations of the selected structures for

each agonist in each cluster population and compared the binding free energies calculated *in silico* with

real-world values measured previously *in vitro* by using electrophysiology (Indurthi & Auerbach, 2023).

PBSA is a computationally inexpensive method that provides a crude estimate of binding free energy

(Genheden & Ryde, 2015; Hou et al., 2011).   Importantly, the PBSA method was used only as

fingerprint for identifying states rather than for free energy estimation. We already knew actual

binding free energies from the wet-bench experiments, so we used the PBSA values only to test the

hypothesis that m1 corresponds to L (ΔG_L) and m3 corresponds to H (ΔG_L).

The PBSA and experimental ΔG values are compared in Figure 4A left (Figure 4-Source Data 1).

For ACh and CCh, there was excellent agreement between ΔG_{m1} and ΔG_L and between ΔG_{m3} and ΔG_H.

The match was worse for the other 2 agonists, with the calculated values overestimating experimental

ones by ~45% (Ebt) and ~130% (Ebt). However, in all cases ΔG_{m3} was more favorable than ΔG_{m1}, and

the % overestimation compared to experimental values was approximately the same for m1 versus m3.

Overall, the PBSA-electrophysiology comparison supported the hypothesis that m1 represents AC_L and

m3 represents AC_H.

Further support for these assignments comes from comparing calculated vs experimental

efficiencies. Efficiency depends on the binding free energy *ratio*, $\Delta G_L/\Delta G_H$, rather than absolute ΔGs.

As described elsewhere, efficiency is the agonist's free energy change in hold relative to its total free

energy change in catch+hold (Nayak et al., 2019). It is the efficacy/high-affinity energy ratio, $(\Delta G_H -$

$\Delta G_L)/\Delta G_H$ or $1-(\Delta G_L/\Delta G_H)$. Efficacy is the *amount*, and efficiency the *fraction*, of agonist binding energy

used to reduce the energy barrier separating L and H structures, to jumpstart gating.

Figure 4A right (Figure 4-Source Data 1) shows that efficiency values calculated *in silico* agreed

almost perfectly with those measured experimentally. This result is strong support for the hypothesis

that m1 represents AC_L and m3 represents AC_H. Further, it indicates that efficiency can be computed

accurately from structure alone. A possible reason for mismatches in ΔG but a match in efficiency is

given in the Discussion.

Together, the docking scores, matches in free energies and efficiencies, and alignment of

simulated m3 with cryo-EM desensitized structures support the hypothesis that MD simulations of a

single pdb file faithfully reproduce the end states of the hold rearrangement. Hence, the MD

trajectories likely reproduce the conformational dynamics of the orthosteric site in the initial stage of

gating, $AC_L \rightarrow AC_H$ (Figure 1B). This is the critical step that lowers the main barrier to activation of the

allosteric site, to promote the otherwise unfavorable gating isomerization.

Figure 4B shows some structural parameters of the orthosteric pocket, L (m1) versus H (m3). All

agonists showed an increase in Van der Waals (VdW) interaction energy in the hold rearrangement.

This confirms the previous suggestion that L→H restructuring generates a smaller, more-tightly packed

pocket (Tripathy et al., 2019). The calculated (PBSA) increase was most pronounced with Ebt and least

for Ebx, with CCh and ACh falling in between (Figure 4-Source Data 2). A compaction of the pocket is

also apparent in Figure 4C that shows a reduction in binding pocket volume, and in Figure 4D that

shows a decrease in the number of water molecules. As described below, the VdW contacts that form

concomitant to the agonist flip and loop C flop establish a more compact, hydrophobic and stable local

environment.

Figure 4. Binding free energies and pocket properties. A. Calculated (yellow) versus experimental (blue) binding free energies for 4 agonists (structures in Figure 2A, top) (Figure 4-Source Data 1). PBSA calculations were done on clusters selected from m1 and m3 minima of PCA plots (Figure 3; Figure 3-figure supplement 2). Left, absolute ΔG and right, efficiency (1- $\Delta G_L/\Delta G_H$). The agreement in efficiencies supports the hypothesis that m1 represents AC_L and m3 represents AC_H B. In L→H (red→blue), VdW interactions (left) increase, pocket volume (center) decreases, and the number of water molecules in the pocket (right) decreases. Overall, the pocket stabilizes, compacts and de-wets.

Flip-Flop-Fix. In L→H, the *cis→trans* rotation of the agonist was prominent in all simulations (Figure 5).

On average, the ligands underwent a $>130°$ rotation about the N^+-αW149 fulcrum (Figure 1D). Also, in

all instances the flip began at the start of the simulation (m1).

A second consistent and prominent L→H restructuring event was the downward displacement

(flop) of loop C toward the pocket center, defined as the C_α of αW149. This well-known 'clamshell

closure' motion is conserved in related binding proteins (and in other receptors) and thought to play a

role in AChR activation by agonists (Basak et al., 2020; Hansen et al., 2005; Hibbs et al., 2009). In the

simulations, loop C flop was measured as the displacement of its tip (C_α of αC192) in m3 relative to its

apo position. The distance traveled varied with the agonist (Figure 6-table supplement 1) but we do

not discern a pattern in the extent of loop C flop with regard to agonist affinity, efficacy or efficiency.

In hold, residues that form the pocket cavity move, presumably to accommodate the reoriented

ligand. In L, αY190, αY93, and δW57 are spaced apart, providing an open slot that accommodates the

agonist's tail in the *cis* orientation (Figure 5- figure supplement 1). However, in H loop C flop

repositions αY190 closer to αY93, effectively filling the gap to create a unified surface.

Figure 5. Agonist and loop movements in hold (flip and flop). A. *Left*, superimposed cartoons of AC_L (m1; orange) and AC_H
(m3; blue). Loop C is upper left and loop F is lower right. In L→H (orange→blue) there is a *cis→trans* reorientation of the
agonist (flip) and a downward movement of loop C (flop, arrow). R*ight*, agonist structure m1 (red) versus m2 (yellow) versus
m3 (blue). Degree pertains to the m1→m3 rotation angle.

In the desensitized H structure, αW149, αY190, αY198 and (to a lesser extent) αY93 and δW57A

rings surround the agonist N^+ (Figure 1D). In adult-type mouse AChRs, substitutions of the 3 closest

aromatic residues have somewhat different consequences. With ACh, deleting the ring (A versus W at

149, A versus to F for 190 and 198) results in a loss (kcal/mol) of 3.0, 0.9, 2.1 for ΔG_L and 5.3, 2.8, 4.0

for ΔG_H, respectively (Purohit et al., 2014). αW149 (in loop B) is the main player in both L and H, but

the biggest binding energy increase in hold comes from αY190 (in loop C). αW149 makes a cation-π

bond with N^+ that is important for ligand stabilization (Xiu et al., 2009; Zhong et al., 1998). In the

simulations, the distance between these main aromatic groups and N^+ decreases only slightly, L→H

(Figure 6, Figure 6-table supplement 1). This aromatic cluster appears to act as a slippery anchor (a ball

joint) that maintains stability of the N^+ position even as the tail rotates within it, approximately

doubling agonist binding energy. The special role of αY190 is considered, below.

In AChBP (perhaps L), the hydroxyl group of αY93 forms a hydrogen bond with the ligand's head

group (Celie et al., 2004; Hansen et al., 2005). In the AChR L structure, the agonist's *cis* orientation

appears to be stabilized by this hydroxyl that is close to a functional group on the agonist's tail.

Likewise, the tail nitrogen in CCh, Ebt, and Ebx (amide or amine) forms a hydrogen bond with the

hydroxyl group of αY198, but only in the intermediate m2 state. This interaction may guide the

rotation and provide transient stability. The absence of a secondary nitrogen in ACh possibly explains

its alternate re-orientation route, as only this ligand was observed to flip counterclockwise (Figure 5). It

may also explain why the m2 basin in the PCA plots for ACh is especially broad and shallow (Figure 3).

The L→H transition compacts, de-wets and stabilizes the binding cavity (Figure 4; Videos 1-3). In

H, the tail functional moiety (carbonyl or secondary ring amine) in the *trans* orientation is sandwiched

between αC192, αC193 and αY198 (loop C), αT150 (loop B) and δC108, δN109, δL111 and δL121 (loop

E) (Figure 6- figure supplement 1). As reported elsewhere (Blum et al., 2010; Rahman et al., 2020;

Zarkadas et al., 2022), in our simulated H structure the functional group found in the tail of each

agonist -- the carbonyl group in CCh and ACh and the secondary ring amine in Ebt and Ebx - forms a

hydrogen bond with the carbonyl of δN109 and amine of δL121 in the complementary δ subunit

backbone *via* a structural water (Figure 6). The agonist's flip starts the m1→m2 transition, and the

establishment of this water-mediated H-bond completes in m2→m3 (Figure 6) (Video 2). This water-

mediated bonding and the increase in VdW interactions appear to both be crucial for stabilizing the

loops and agonist in the HA conformation of the neurotransmitter site.

Salt-bridge. Near the pocket, a αK145-αD200 salt bridge (Figure 1D) has been suggested to play an

important role in receptor activation (Beene et al., 2002; Gay & Yakel, 2007; Mukhtasimova et al.,

2005; Padgett et al., 2007; Pless et al., 2011). In the simulations, the rearrangement at αK145 are

complex and agonist dependent. In AC_H, this residue i) makes an apparent contact with αY93, ii) is

approached by the αY190 hydroxyl group (Figure 6-table supplement 1) and iii) loop F of the

complementary subunit.

Interestingly, the mutation αK145A lowers the efficiencies of ACh and CCh (from 0.51 to 0.41)

but has no effect on those of Ebt and Ebx (that remain at 0.41 and 0.46) (Indurthi & Auerbach, 2023).

This agonist dependence in function has a parallel in structure. In the hold simulations, the αK145-

αD200 distance (Å) increases from only 4.4 in apo to 6.1 or 5.1 in AC_L (CCh or ACh). This spreading may

relate to the agonist's tail being inserted into the αY93 slot in the *cis* orientation. In AC_L→AC_H, with ACh

and CCh the αK145-αD200 separation (Å) shortens substantially to 2.8 or 2.6, making it more rigid.

However, with Ebt and Ebx the αK145-αD200 distance remains unstable, fluctuating between 3-6 Å

throughout the course of the simulation. Likewise, αK145-αY190 distance stabilizes at 5.3 Å or 6.1 Å in

AC**H** with ACh and CCh but continues to fluctuate with Ebt and Ebx. In contrast, the αY190-αD200

distance remains stable in AC**H** for all ligands. This suggests that the instability in the αK145-αD200 and

αK145-αY190 distances can primarily be attributed to αK145 (Figure 6- figure supplement 2).

Figure 6: Representative snapshots in L→H (hold). *Left*, rearrangements of loop C, loop F and the ligand (red, m1; yellow,
m2; blue, m3); *right*, residue and ligand orientations. m1 is AC_L, m2 is an intermediate state, m3 is AC_H. (Figure 1B). In m1, a
functional group in the agonist tail interacts with αY93 (all agonists) and αD200 (only CCh and Ebt). The position and
orientation of αW149 relative to N$^+$ of the agonist remains nearly unchanged m1→m2→m3 and serves as a fulcrum for the
cis→trans flip (see Figure 5). In m2, the functional nitrogen at the agonist tail (CCh, Ebt and Ebx) interacts with the hydroxyl
group of αY198. For all ligands, αY190 repositioning and loop C flop (m1→m3) are correlated. In m3, the agonist fully flips to
trans, facilitating VdW interactions, de-wetting, and the formation of water-mediated hydrogen bonds with the reactive
group at its tail with δN109/δL121 backbone (loop E) *via* a structural water.

Discussion

AChRs are typical allosteric proteins (Changeux, 2013). Electrophysiology experiments indicate that agonists promote AChR activity by interacting with orthosteric sites in stages called touch-catch-hold (Auerbach, 2024). We used MD simulations to probe structural changes in the hold rearrangement that animates the protein. By comparing binding energies calculated *in silico* with those measured *in vitro* we could identify provisionally in MD trajectories the end states AC_L and AC_H, plus an intermediate configuration not detected in experiments. The conspicuous hold rearrangements discussed below are a *cis→trans* rotation of the agonist (flip), an up→down displacement of loop C (flop), and decreases in pocket volume, water content and loop fluctuations (fix).

Simulations require simplifications and are useful only insofar as they suggest experiments. Hence, we emphasize the rearrangements discussed below are hypotheses that need to be tested. Nonetheless, the agreements between cryo-EM (apo and desensitized) versus simulated (apo and C_H) structures, and between ΔG_L and ΔG_H estimated from electrophysiology versus simulations, support the hypothesis that the m1 and m3 conformations in the simulations reflect AC_L and AC_H structures. At present there are no structures that correspond unambiguously to either of the hold end states, or to the intermediate m2 state. Absent these, we can only offer flip, flop and fix as possibilities that can be tested.

There was reasonably good agreement between calculated and experimental absolute binding free energies for ACh and CCh (but not Ebt and Ebx), but the match was almost perfect for all ligands when free energy ratios (efficiencies) were compared (Figure 4A). *In silico*, the absolute values overestimated the experimental ones by approximately the same factor (different for each ligand) that, however, cancelled in the ratio. We do not know the origin of this factor but speculate it could be

caused by errors in ligand parameterization. For example, using the same value for the Born radius of

nitrogen could overestimate ΔG more for ligands with azabicyclo versus quaternary ammonium

groups. Regardless, the results show that agonist efficiency can be estimated *in silico* and, therefore, in

the future could be a useful metric for analyzing dose-response curves and associating structure with

function. Further, excellent matches in energy measurements derived from pentamers

(electrophysiology) versus from ECD dimers (simulations) support the view that the ECD-TMD

interface, absent *in silico*, is not an important determinant of agonist affinity. Rather, these matches

are consistent with experiments that show that affinity is determined only by structural elements

within ~12 Å of the ligand (Gupta et al., 2017), and that the AChR orthosteric sites operate

independently (Nayak & Auerbach, 2017).

Summary.   MD simulations of the α–δ AChR neurotransmitter site indicate the following back-and-

forth, generic sequence of rearrangements in $AC_L{\rightarrow}AC_H$ (Videos 1, 2 and 3).

1. AC_L (m1): Agonist is *cis*, loop C is up, pocket is wide/wet/wobbly;

agonist exits *cis*, starting a rotation about the N^+-αW149 fulcrum (flip);

loop C starts to move down towards this fulcrum (flop).

2. Intermediate (m2): Agonist is ~half-rotated with tail stabilized by αY198;

agonist completes rotation to *trans* but with the tail not secured in the pocket;

loop C moves down fully, to de-wet the pocket and deploy αY190 towards the salt bridge.

3. AC_H (m3): Agonist is *trans*, tail is secured by VdW contacts, an H-bond with structural water

(fix);.   the pocket is narrow/dry/rigid.

Below, we consider the main structural elements associated with flip-flop-fix, namely the agonist, loop

C and the overall pocket, respectively.

Agonist. With all agonists and in all simulations, the rotation of N^+ in a slippery, aromatic ball joint

(αW149-αY190-αY198) starts the L→H transition.　Similar movements of bound ligands have been

identified in other proteins. In AMPA-type glutamate receptors, the neurotransmitter glutamate binds

in either of 2 poses, crystallographic or inverted (Yu et al., 2018). In one MD simulation these

interconverted, suggesting the bound ligand is not rigidly fixed (that is, T480-E705 might act as a

slippery anchor).　Although the alternative poses were not associated with experimental binding

energies, the binding cleft is more closed in the crystallographic (presumably H) versus inverted

(possibly L) orientation.　Thus, it is possible that the inverse orientations of glutamate apparent in

AMPA receptors is related to the flip of the agonist apparent in the AChR simulations.

Multiple ligand positions in binding pockets have also been reported in glycine receptors (Yu et

al., 2014), 5-HT3 receptors (Basak et al., 2020), δ-opioid receptors (Shang et al., 2016), HIV-1 protease

(Klei et al., 2007) and transthyretin (Klabunde et al., 2000). In enzymes, small bound substrate

movements are apparent in hexokinase (Bennett & Steitz, 1978) and alcohol dehydrogenase (Plapp,

2010). Hence, it may not be unusual for movement of a bound ligand to trigger an otherwise

unfavorable local rearrangement to drive a change in protein function, either catalysis or an

isomerization　(an 'induced fit'; (Richard, 2022)).　Not only do untethered ligands have the ability to

come and go,　they can also reorient to change binding energy and, hence, the local environment that

couples to protein function.

In AChRs, the flip cannot pertain to all agonists. Some with high potency are perfectly

symmetrical and completely lack a tail (tetramethylammonium). Although we have not yet identified

in detail the specific dynamics that underpin ΔG_H, factors other than flip must contribute.

The PCA plots (Figure 3) show 3 populations, one of which (m2) occurs in time between m1

(AC_L) and m3 (AC_H) (Figure 3-figure supplement 2). In m2, the agonist's tail (CCh, Ebt and Ebx) interacts

with αY198, possibly to guide the clockwise rotation of the ligand and reduce the probability of a

return to the *cis* orientation. The PBSA calculations indicate that ΔG_{m2} (that does not have an

experimental correlate) is intermediate between ΔG_L and ΔG_H for ACh and CCh, but least stable for Ebt

and Ebx (Figure 4-Source Data 1). We do not know the structural basis for this difference nor do we

understand its significance.

Loop C. A number of previous observations place focus on the role of the downward displacement of

loop C in receptor activation. In ACh binding proteins, the extent correlates with agonist potency

(Basak et al., 2020; Du et al., 2015; Polovinkin et al., 2018) even if voltage-clamp fluorometry of other

receptors shows it to be similar with agonists and antagonists (Chang & Weiss, 2002; Munro et al.,

2019; Pless & Lynch, 2009).

In our simulations of the apo AChR (without an agonist), loop C flops partially to narrow the

aqueous connection between the bath and the pocket (Figure 2-figure supplement 2C). It is therefore

interesting that electrophysiology measurements show the agonist association rate constant (k_{on}) is

substantially *faster* (approaching the diffusion limit) and less correlated with potency to H versus L

conformations (Grosman & Auerbach, 2001; Nayak & Auerbach, 2017). That is, it appears that loop C

flop generates a *higher* affinity, but not by restricting the rate of agonist entry. All 4 agonists dock in

the *cis* orientation to L (wide entrance) versus the *trans* orientation to H (narrow entrance) (Figure 2B).

Agonists indeed bind weakly to *cis* versus *trans*, so it appears that a structural element(s) disfavors

adopting the *trans* pose when loop C is up. We speculate that in addition to narrowing the entrance,

the loop C flop and accompanying rearrangements serve to reduce this inhibition and allow the *trans*

orientation. To test this hypothesis, both the encounter complex (the starting state of catch) and

possible inhibiting structural elements need to be identified.

The movement of loop C toward the pocket center resembles the 'clamshell closure' apparent

at other receptor binding sites (Chen et al., 2017; Hansen et al., 2005; Hibbs & Gouaux, 2011).

However, in light of the k_{on} experimental results mentioned above, using 'closure' and 'capping' to

describe this motion is misleading because these words imply placing a lid (a steric barrier) over the

pocket that would be expected to reduce, not increase, the agonist association rate constant. Despite

the facts that loop C flop narrows the entrance and is correlated with higher affinity, electrophysiology

experiments indicate clearly that it does not restrict agonist entry. For this reason, we prefer the

functionally neutral words 'flop' and 'up/down' to describe loop C displacement and position.

Truncation of loop C eliminates activation by ACh but has almost no effect on unliganded

activation (Purohit & Auerbach, 2013). Interestingly, leaving only loop C residues αY190 and αY198 in

place retains activation by ACh. Apparently, repositioning of one (or both) of these aromatic side

chains that anchor N+ in the up→down displacement of loop C is sufficient to maintain activation by

the neurotransmitter, but not necessary for constitutive activity. Loop C flop may be essential for

activation by agonists but not for constitutive activation.

An Ala substitution of αY190 results in a large loss of ACh binding energy with about half

coming from the removal of the hydroxyl group (Purohit et al., 2014). In contrast, the mutations

αY198F and αY93F have essentially no effect on ACh binding energy. These results suggest that

repositioning αY190 consequent to loop C flop is important for activation by ACh (Figure 6). The αY190

ring fills the slot that opens next to αY93 when the agonist exits *cis*, preventing a return (Figure 5-

figure supplement 1).

Loop C flop positions the αY190 hydroxyl close to the αD200-αK145 salt bridge. It has been

proposed that this rearrangement triggers the AChR allosteric transition (Beene et al., 2002; Gay &

Yakel, 2007; Mukhtasimova et al., 2005; Padgett et al., 2007; Pless et al., 2011).　In support of this

interaction, the mutation αK145A reduces ACh (and choline) binding energy substantially but has no

effect when the αY190 hydroxyl is absent (Bruhova & Auerbach, 2017).　Also, in the simulations with

ACh the downward displacement of loop C positions this hydroxyl far (~5.0 Å) from αD200 and αK145

(Figure 6-table supplement 1).　Although with different agonists there was no correlation between

these separations and the degree of loop C displacement, the gap was smaller with high- (ACh and

CCh) versus low-efficiency agonists (Ebt and Ebx). We sought, but did not find, structural water in this

gap.　The αY190 hydroxyl is an important determinant of L and particularly H binding energy, but the

simulations have not revealed the mechanism.

In summary, the simulations confirm a αY190 hydroxyl-bridge interaction but do not reveal its

nature or consequence.　Rather than triggering the gating transition, the αY190-bridge interaction may

serve mainly to stabilize the down position of loop C and, hence, the H pocket.　Substrate-induced loop

displacements are known to deploy residues to enhance catalysis, for example in chymotrypsin (Ma et

al., 2005) and triosephosphate isomerase (Brown & Kollman, 1987; Nickbarg et al., 1988).

Repositioning αY190 by loop C flop could be analogous.

<u>Pocket.</u> Distances of the aromatic-N$^+$ anchor remain relatively constant in the hold transition (Figure 6,

Figure 6-table supplement 1). We hypothesize that either very small distance changes associated with

cation-π bonds are important, or that some of the extra favorable agonist binding energy in H is

generated somewhere else. For the agonists we examined, the rotation places the tail into the main

binding cavity (Figure 6-figure supplement 1) (Video 1) with *trans* orientation secured by VdW

interactions (dehydration), a hydrogen bond with a structural water bonded to the loop E backbone of

the complementary subunit, and, possibly, the αY190-salt bridge interaction. The net result to the

overall pocket is a reduction in volume (Figure 4C) and increase in stability of loops C and F (Figure 3).

In the simulations, the first two structural changes, distributed over the large surface area of

the cavity, were robust and consistent for all 4 agonists. Compact, hydrophobic binding pockets are

associated with functional activation in other ion channels (Furukawa et al., 2005; Sigel & Steinmann,

2012) and observed in other proteins including β2-adrenergic receptors, opioid receptors, and HIV-1

protease (Huang et al., 2015; Rasmussen et al., 2011; Wlodawer & Erickson, 1993). A future objective

is to quantify each source of increased binding energy with regards to the aromatic cluster, αY190 salt-

bridge interaction, general pocket restructuring and H-bond with structural water.

<u>After hold</u>. The next step In AChR gating is a rearrangement in the extracellular domain. In related

receptors, upon activation this domain becomes more compact and stable, a rearrangement called

'unblooming' (Sauguet et al., 2014; Taly et al., 2009). This restructuring echoes that of hold at the AChR

neurotransmitter site. It is possible that the L→H rearrangement of the pocket nucleates subsequent

restructuring of the extracellular domain, by connections that are now unknown.

In the complementary δ subunit (Figure 1D), loop E ($\beta 5$-$\beta 6$ strands) has been implicated in

ligand discrimination (Basak et al., 2020; Muroi et al., 2009; Pless & Lynch, 2009). The double mutation

F106L+S108C in the $\beta 2$ subunit of the $\alpha 4\beta 2$ nicotinic AChR subtype significantly decreases the action of

Ebt without altering that of ACh (Tarvin et al., 2017). In addition, loop E residues are responsible for the

binding energy differences $\alpha - \gamma$ versus $\alpha - \delta$ (Nayak et al., 2016) and reduce site instability caused by

loop C mutations (Vij et al., 2015). Although our simulations do not shed light on these matters, the

temporal sequence flip-flop-fix suggests that perturbation of the loop E backbone could also play a role

in downstream activation of the receptor.

Agonists belong to efficiency classes in which $\Delta G_L / \Delta G_H$ is the same for all members. So far 5

such classes have been identified experimentally in adult-type AChRs, indicating that also are 5 pairs of

AC_L / AC_H structural classes (Indurthi & Auerbach, 2023). Although in the simulations loops C and F

movements and salt bridge distances were agonist dependent, with only 4 ligands we cannot associate

any these rearrangements with efficiency classes. Additional simulations using more agonists and with

binding site mutations may lead to better understanding of the dynamics that underpin molecular

recognition in catch and protein animation in hold, and perhaps reveal the structural basis of their

linkage (Auerbach, 2024).

Implications. Several aspects of this work may have general implications. The L and H end states of

hold emerged from simulations of a single protein structure and were identified by comparing

experimental with binding energies calculated using an inexpensive, approximate method. If general,

this approach could be useful because at present cryo-EM structures of the short-lived AC_L states are

difficult to obtain. Agonist efficiency was calculated accurately from structure alone. This, too, could

be useful because efficiency allows affinity and efficacy to be calculated from each other (Indurthi &

Auerbach, 2021). Using MD to estimate efficiency could facilitate dose-response analysis and speed

drug discovery. Finally, the simulations suggest that a rotation the agonist turns on the receptor. It

makes sense that the protein's global conformational change starts with the movement of a newly

added structural element. This possibility can be tested by experiments.

Materials and Methods

Hardware and Software. All computational studies were carried out on a Linux Ubuntu 20.04 based

workstation with 126 GB RAM, 64 CPU cores, and two RTX A5000 24 GB GPU cards, as well as an

Ubuntu 20.04 based server equipped with 132 GB RAM, 96 CPU cores, and two RTX A5000 24 GB GPU

cards. The software utilized includes the Maestro release 2022-2 graphical user interface (GUI) of the

Schrödinger software suite (BioLuminate, Schrödinger, LLC, NY, USA), Amber22 (Case et al., 2005),

VMD 1.9.3 (Humphrey et al., 1996), ChemDraw Professional 15.1 (Purushotham et al., 2022), ChimeraX

(Pettersen et al., 2021), and PyMOL (PyMOL Molecular Graphics System, Version 2.0, Schrödinger, LLC).

Protein preparation. Agonist energy changes are approximately independent of energy changes in the

protein beyond the orthosteric pocket. In the simulations, we removed the transmembrane domain

and simulated only $\alpha-\delta$ subunit extracellular domain dimers. The AC_L starting structure of the hold

transition was resting C (PDB: 6UWZ) after toxin removal that is essentially the same as the apo

structure (Zarkadas et al., 2022) (Figure 1C). The 4 agonists we examined were acetylcholine (ACh),

carbamylcholine (CCh), epibatidine (Ebt) and epiboxidine (Ebx) (Figure 2A).   These are of similar size

(MW 187, 183, 209 and 178, respectively) but have different affinities, efficacies and efficiencies (0.50,

0.52, 0.42, and 0.46, respectively) (Indurthi & Auerbach, 2023).

610   Protein preparation was conducted using the Protein Preparation Wizard (PPW) (Purushotham

611   et al., 2022) and OPLS4 force field. Bond orders were assigned to atoms based on the CCD database,

612   with zero bond orders given to bonded metals. Missing hydrogen atoms were inserted, and disulfide

613   bonds were placed appropriately. During preprocessing, structural refinement was performed with

614   Maestro's Prime utility, optimizing and adding any missing side chains and residues. Missing residues

615   were formulated by combining SEQRS information from the PDB files and optimized using Prime's

ePLOP module. The ionization state of all heterogeneous groups, including ligands, bound metals, and charged amino acids, were determined using the EpiK tool at a pH range of 7.0 ± 2.0. Subsequent force field minimization allowed for water sampling and basic restraint minimization, during which only hydrogen atoms could be freely reduced.

The hydrogen bonding (H-bond) network underwent significant modification. The terminal chi angle for residues Asn, Gln, and His was sampled through 180-degree flips, altering their spatial H-bonding capabilities without affecting the fit to electron density. The neutral and protonated states of His, Asp, and Glu, as well as two His tautomers, were sampled. Hydrogens on hydroxyls and thiols were also analyzed to enhance the H-bond network. Finally, the ProtAssign method was employed in two modes: a "regular" mode, which completed in seconds, and an "exhaustive" mode that considered many more states and could take minutes or hours, depending on the H-bond network complexity.

Ligand Preparation. The two-dimensional SDF structures of CCh, ACh, Ebt and Ebx were retrieved from the PUBCHEM database. These agonists were chosen because they have a similar size and represent different efficiency classes (Indurthi & Auerbach, 2023). LigPrep (LigPrep, Maestro 11.2.014, Schrödinger LLC) was utilized to construct ligands, produce stereoisomers, and generate tautomers using the OPLS46 force field. Additionally, the Epik module was employed to desalt and protonate the ligands at pH 7.0. Default values were applied to the remaining parameters, and LigPrep was also used to prepare the ligands with the option "retain specified chiralities" engaged.

In terms of ligand state assessment, Epik can calculate a penalty to quantify the energy cost of forming each state in solution based on the Hammett and Taft methods. This EpiK state penalty is entirely compatible with the GlideScore used for docking, as it is computed in kcal/mol units. This compatibility facilitates the examination of how the EpiK state penalty affects the GlideScore. The

DockingScore in Glide represents the total of the GlideScore and the Epik state penalty and served as

the basis for final ranking and enrichment evaluation. Furthermore, Epik offers a technique for

handling metal binding states, involving a change in the pH range within which the state is generated.

This approach underscores the comprehensive considerations made in preparing the ligands for

docking and subsequent analyses.

Grid Generation and Molecular Docking. The receptor grid complex of 6UWZ.pdb was generated after

removing alpha-bungarotoxin from the binding pocket using Glide (Glide, Maestro 11.2.014,

Schrödinger LLC). A virtual grid box with dimensions 20Å × 20Å × 20 Å was formed, centered within the

C and F loops in the α–δ binding site of the energy-minimized resting state. This grid box was used to

generate a receptor grid, and the default values were assigned for other parameters. Docking was

performed using the ligand docking wizard built into the Glide module of Schrödinger, with the default

scaling factor and partial charge cutoff set to 0.80 and 0.15, respectively. The docking procedure

consisted of two stages, extra precision (XP) followed by post-processing with prime MM-GBSA. The

best dock poses were selected based on dock score and MM-GBSA energy for further investigation.

Molecular Dynamics Simulations. MD simulations were conducted using the Amber22 software suite

within the Amber module as detailed elsewhere (Singh et al., 2021; Srivastava et al., 2022). Ligand

topology was prepared via the Leap module in AmberTools22, employing force field ff19SB (Tian et al.,

2020) and the Generalized Amber Force Field (GAFF) (Vassetti et al., 2019). The AM1BCC strategy and

GAFF2 were used to assign atomic charges and additional parameters. Before simulation, the systems

were minimized and equilibrated following a five-step minimization process, with each step involving

10,000 energy minimization steps. Systems were heated under NVT ensembles in two consecutive runs

from 0–300 K for 1 ns each, followed by a 1 ns simulation at 300 K and 1 bar pressure under the NPT

ensemble for equilibration. An additional 5 ns equilibration was performed before the 200 ns

production MD for each system, conducted under periodic boundary conditions (PBCs) and utilizing an

NPT ensemble with 300 K and 1 bar pressure. Long-range electrostatic interactions were treated using

the particle mesh Ewald method (PME), including a direct space cutoff of 12.0 Å and van der Waals

interactions. In production MD, a time step of 2.0 fs was employed, and the SHAKE algorithm was used

to keep bond lengths at equilibrium. Isobaric (NPT) conditions were maintained using the Berendsen

barostat, with temperature monitored by a Langevin thermostat. Coordinates from the production MD

were recorded in the trajectory file every 20 ps, resulting in a minimum of 10,000 frames. Trajectories

were analyzed using amber-tools CPPTRAJ (Roe & Cheatham, 2013), and further analysis and figure

generation were completed with VMD, Pymol, Xmgrace and ChimeraX. To ensure reproducibility, MD

trajectories were generated in triplicate.

Cluster Analysis. Cluster analysis of the ligand was performed using TCL scripts within the Visual

Molecular Dynamics (VMD) software, as described elsewhere (Mittal, Tonk, et al., 2021). In brief, this

script automates the identification of frames from the most stable conformations based on PCA

minima. Using these frames as input, the algorithm employed RMSD values of ligand positions to

cluster similar orientations. Specifically, clusters with an RMSD of ≤ 1Å were considered to share a

similar ligand orientation. Frames that did not fit into these top clusters were automatically excluded

by the script.

Principal Component Analysis (PCA) and Free Energy Landscape (FEL). PCA identifies collective

motions in atomic-level simulations of macromolecules (Mittal, Srivastava, et al., 2021; Srivastava et

al., 2022). It emphasizes significant patterns by reducing noise in MD simulations, revealing essential

dynamics underlying conformational changes. All equilibrated MD simulation trajectories were

analyzed by PCA computations using the CPPTRAJ algorithm using Amber tools. Prior to PCA, least-

square fitting of the protein's Cα atoms was carried out with respect to a reference structure (average

protein coordinates) to eliminate rotational and translational degrees of freedom in the simulation

box. A positional covariance matrix C (of dimensions $3N \times 3N$) was constructed using the Cα atom

coordinates, and this matrix was diagonalized to produce eigenvectors (directions of motion) and

eigenvalues (magnitudes). The elements of the covariance matrix C were obtained using:

$$C_i = \langle (X_i - \langle X_i \rangle)(X_j - \langle X_j \rangle) \rangle \quad\quad\quad (i, j = 1,2,3......,3N)$$

where X_i and X_j are the Cartesian coordinates of the Cα atoms, and N is the number of Cα atoms. The $\langle \rangle$

notation represents the ensemble average of atomic positions in Cartesian space. The resulting

principal components (eigenvectors) were sorted by the total motion they captured, generating 3N

eigenvectors. The free energy landscapes (FELs; Figure3) were created using the "g_sham" module in

GROMACS, based on the probability distribution of the top two principal components (PCs). The FEL

plot aids in visualizing possible conformations and corresponding energy levels. The free energy values

(G) were calculated as

$$G_i = -kT \ln(N_i/N_{max})$$

where k is the Boltzmann constant, T is the absolute temperature of the simulated system (300 K), N_i is

the population of bin i, and N_{max} is the population of the most-populated bin.

Binding Pose Meta Dynamics (BPMD): BPMD was performed using the Desmond module in

Schrodinger, involving 10 independent meta dynamics simulations of 10 ns each to improve statistical

reliability, with results averaged over the simulations. The collective variable (CV) was the RMSD of the

ligand heavy atoms relative to their starting positions, evaluated after superimposing the binding sites

to account for drift. The hill height and width were set at 0.05 kcal/mol and 0.02 Å, respectively. The

system was solvated in a 12.0 Å box and underwent several minimizations to slowly reach a

temperature of 300K, releasing any bad contacts or strain in the initial structure. Stability was assessed

in terms of ligand RMSD fluctuations (PoseScore) and the average persistence of important contacts,

such as hydrogen bonds and pi-pi interactions, between the ligand and protein residues (PersScore).

Higher PersScore values indicate more stable complexes, while lower PoseScore values indicate more

stable ligand positions. The CompositeScore (CompScore) combines these metrics, accounting for both

ligand drift and the persistence of protein/ligand hydrogen bonds. Lower CompScore values

correspond to more stable protein/ligand complexes.

Binding Free Energy Calculation. Experimental binding free energies were estimated by using

electrophysiology, as described elsewhere (Indurthi & Auerbach, 2023). Briefly, the constants K_L and L_2

(Figure 1B) were estimated from single-channels kinetics or dose-response curves, and K_H was

calculated using the thermodynamic cycle with L_0 known *a priori*. The logs of K_L and K_H are

proportional to ΔG_L and ΔG_H. The binding free energy of the protein-ligand docked complex (ΔG_{bind})

was calculated in two stages, after docking (using MM-GBSA in the Prime module of Schrödinger)

(Mittal, Tonk, et al., 2021; Purushotham et al., 2022) and after MD simulation on equilibrated MD

trajectories (using MM-PBSA/-GBSA in AMBER22). MM-PBSA is an approximation that can be useful to

compare binding affinities between different states and among agonists (Kollman et al., 2000; Rastelli

et al., 2010; Sun et al., 2014). In our use, MM-PBSA computations included both enthalpic (ΔH)

contributions from molecular interactions (van der Waals, electrostatics, solvation) and entropic (TΔS)

contributions calculated using normal mode analysis. By capturing the dynamic interplay between the

ligand and receptor as well as the influence of the surrounding solvent environment this approach

enables computation of a Gibbs free energy (ΔG).

After docking, for the static docked pose of the protein-ligand complex the MM-GBSA binding

energy calculation was performed using the OPLS4 force field and the variable-dielectric generalized

Born (VSGB) model in the Prime MM-GBSA module in Schrödinger 2022. We used ΔG_{bind_dock} to rank

protein-ligand docked complexes, selecting those with the highest negative values and dock scores as

the best ligands for further studies. After MD Simulation, in the MD equilibrated system binding

energies were calculated through the MM-PBSA/-GBSA protocol, implemented in AMBER22. This was

performed over the most stable clustered poses extracted from the equilibrated trajectory at minima

m1, m2, and m3 on the free energy landscape (FEL) over a 200 ns time frame. AMBER utilizes the

conventional g_mmpbsa module for MM-PBSA calculations using MM-PBSA.py script. These methods

calculate the energies of electrostatic interactions, van der Waals interactions, polar solvation, and

non-polar solvation in the equilibrated trajectory using a single trajectory protocol (STP). The binding

energy of each protein-ligand complex was calculated as $\Delta G_{bind} = \Delta G_{complex} - \Delta G_{protein} - \Delta G_{ligand}$,

where $\Delta G_{complex}$, $\Delta G_{protein}$, and ΔG_{ligand} represent the absolute free energies of the complex, protein, and

ligand systems, respectively. Additional terms, such as ΔH (enthalpy), T and ΔS (temperature and total

solute entropy), ΔG_{gas} (total gas phase energy), and ΔG_{solv} (solvation energy), contribute to the

calculation.

The Poisson-Boltzmann calculations were performed using an internal PBSA solver in Sander,

while Generalized Born ESURF was calculated using 'LCPO' surface areas. The vibrational mode entropy

contributions (TΔS) for protein-ligand interactions were calculated and averaged using normal-mode

analysis in Amber. The entropy term provides insights into the disorder within the system, as well as

how this disorder changes during the binding process. This value was added to the enthalpy term

computed by the MM-PBSA method to determine the absolute binding free energy (ΔG_{bind}). These

comprehensive calculations were used only as fingerprints for associating structures in simulations

with states defined by experimental (electrophysiology) free energy measurement (Figure 4A).

Pocket Volume Calculation. To investigate the variations in binding site volume across all four agonist-

bound cases, pocket volume analysis was carried out using POVME3.0 (Wagner et al., 2017). From each

of the four systems, frames were extracted at consistent intervals with a stride of 2.0, culminating in

representative sets of 5000 protein structures for every system. Before commencing the volume

calculation, the trajectory was aligned, and frames were selected from VMD, serving as the initial input

for this method. Subsequently, an inclusion region was defined, encapsulating all binding pocket

conformations within the trajectory. This region's definition involved building a sphere upon which the

inclusion grid-points were computed, using different atoms of the ligand for this calculation.

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