Title: Full-length structure and heme binding in the transcriptional regulator HcpR

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Abstract

HcpR is a CRP-family transcriptional regulator found in many Gram-negative anaerobic
bacteria. In the perio-pathogen *Porphyromonas gingivalis*, HcpR is crucial for the response to
reactive nitrogen species such as nitric oxide (NO). Binding of NO to the heme group of HcpR leads
to transcription of the redox enzyme Hcp. However, the molecular mechanisms of heme binding to
HcpR remain unknown. In this study we present the 2.3Å structure of the *P. gingivalis* HcpR.
Interdomain interactions present in the structure help to form a hydrophobic pocket in the N-
terminal sensing domain. A comparison analysis with other CRP-family members reveals that the
molecular mechanisms of HcpR-mediated regulation may be distinct from other family members.
Using docking studies, we identify a putative heme binding site in the sensing domain. *In vitro*
complementation and mutagenesis studies verify Met68 as an important residue in activation of
HcpR. Finally, heme binding studies with purified forms of recombinant HcpR support Met68 and
His149 residues as important for proper heme coordination in HcpR.

Introduction

HcpR is a sensor-transcriptional regulator of the nitrosative stress response. Found in many
Gram-negative anaerobic bacteria, it regulates the expression of *hcp*, an enzyme crucial for survival
in response to nitric oxide (NO) and other forms of nitrosative stress (Rodionov *et al.,* 2005; Cole,
2021). HcpR belongs to the cAMP receptor (CRP) family of proteins of which the catabolite gene
activator protein (CAP) and the CO sensing protein CooA are also members (Lanzilotta *et al.,* 2000;
Lawson *et al.,* 2004). This large family of proteins sense changes in the intra-cellular environment by

binding effector molecules that allosterically activate the protein for DNA binding (Körner *et al.,*
2003). The CRP family contains a significant number of sub-families that have evolved to sense a
wide variety of effector molecules and utilize different cofactors (Körner *et al.,* 2003). One of these
sub-families, the DNR-HcpR group has evolved to sense NO using metal cofactors such as heme
and is phylogenetically distinct from other heme containing CAP family members such as CooA
(Zhou *et al.,* 2012). Although not all HcpRs have been demonstrated to bind heme, a growing subset
have been characterized as heme binding proteins (Cadby *et al.,* 2017).

HcpR is crucial for the survival of the periodontal pathogen *Porphyromonas gingivalis* (Lewis
et al., 2012). In the periodontal pocket, *P. gingivalis* is exposed to numerous nitrosative stresses,
including immune cell derived NO as well as elevated levels of nitrite from saliva (Hezel & Weitzberg,
2015; Gyurko *et al.,* 2003). Loss of *hcpR* or *hcp* sensitizes the bacteria to physiological
concentrations of nitrite and NO and causes decreased survival with host cells and *in vivo* using
mouse models (Lewis *et al.,* 2012; Miller *et al.,* 2017; Boutrin *et al.,* 2012; Belvin, Gui *et al.,* 2019).
Previously we have demonstrated that HcpR from *P. gingivalis* can sense nanomolar concentrations
of NO and upregulates the expression of *hcp* in response to these stresses (Belvin, Gui *et al.,* 2019).
Furthermore, we have shown that binding of HcpR to the *hcp* promoter is dependent on heme
(Lewis *et al.,* 2012).

In heme-based sensor proteins, the heme iron complex serves as the binding site for
gaseous molecules such as NO, CO, or O_2. Displacement of an axial side chain that coordinates
the heme iron is often utilized for allosteric activation of heme proteins (Liebl *et al.,* 2013; Shimizu *et*
al., 2015). In HcpR, the heme exists in a 6-coordinate system in the unbound when no gas is bound;
upon addition of NO, this switches to a 5-coordinate system (Belvin, Gui *et al.,* 2019). The capability
of NO to displace the proximal side chain is a distinctive facet of the NO-heme interaction that is
not typically seen in CO or O_2 heme sensor proteins (Shimizu *et al.,* 2015). The 5-coordinate NO
bound heme in NO sensor proteins such as HcpR and DNR distinguishes it from the CO sensor
CooA, which is a 6-coordinate system in the CO bound state (Coyle *et al.,* 2003; Roberts *et al.,* 2024).
The different nature of the gas binding properties has implications for the mechanism of NO
dependent activation in HcpR.

So far, the identity of the axial side chains in HcpR is not known. Furthermore, the nature of
heme binding to HcpR (the location of the exact heme binding pocket) is not understood. Previously
we have solved the structure of the sensing domain of HcpR (ΔCHcpR), that lacks the (highly
flexible) C-terminal DNA binding domain (Lewis *et al.,* 2012). While the truncated structure confirms
the inclusion of HcpR as CRP-family regulator, information on inter-domain interactions and how
this may influence the heme binding nature of the protein was lost. In this study, we present the
structure of the full-length HcpR (FL HcpR). Using a docking approach supported by site-directed
mutagenesis and heme binding studies, we identify a putative heme-binding site and important
residues in heme coordination. A comparison of HcpR with the structures of CooA and CAP reveals
a novel mechanism that may control the NO-mediated activation of HcpR.

Materials and Methods

Generation of recombinant proteins

The full length of the HcpR-encoding gene (PG1053) was cloned into the pET21d vector at
the *Bam*HI and *Xho*I sites using gene specific primers with complimentary restriction site
overhangs. Vector and PCR fragments were cleaved, purified, ligated and then transformed into
DH5α *E. coli* for screening. Positive clones were identified and whole plasmid sequencing was
subsequently performed to confirm the proper genetic content. The recombinant *hcpR*-pET21
vector was transformed into BL21(DE3) or Lemo21(DE3) cells (New England Biolabs) to enable
inducible protein expression.

For recombinant HcpR expression, overnight culture was used to inoculate 1 L of LB broth.
Cultures were grown at 37°C with antibiotics (50 ug/mL carbenicillin) and shaking until cultures
reached mid-log phase (0.5-0.7 OD600) and expression of HcpR was induced using 1mM IPTG
overnight at 37°C.　HcpR was affinity purified using Ni-NTA agarose (Qiagen) or TALON Cobalt resin
(ThermoFisher). Briefly, cells were lysed using CellLytic B reagent (Millipore-Sigma) and cell
supernatant was added to column containing metal affinity resin. Columns were washed with a
50mM $Na_2H_1PO_4$, 300mM NaCl, 20mM imidazole, pH 8.0 buffer. For elution, imidazole
concentration was increased to 250mM. For crystallization, HcpR was further purified via gel
exclusion chromatography on a Superdex 75 column. Purification of recombinant mutant HcpRs
was performed identically to the wildtype HcpR.

For heme reconstitution, purified HcpR was concentrated and desalted into a 25mM
Phosphate, 150mM NaCl, 1mM TCEP pH 7.4 buffer using a PD-10 desalting column. A 1.1 molar
excess of heme was added to purified HcpR and allowed to incubate overnight. To remove unbound
heme, HcpR was dialyzed overnight and/or desalted using a spin column.

Crystallization and structure determination

Freshly prepared HcpR (15.1mg/ml) in 25mM Tris-HCl, 150mM NaCl, 1mM TCEP, pH 7.0 was
used to screen for initial crystallization condition using a wide range of commercially available
screening kits with the Gryphon crystallization robot (Art Robbins) employing the sitting-drop vapor-
diffusion method at 20°C.　0.3µl of protein solution and 0.3 µl of reservoir were mixed to equilibrate
against 60µl reservoir solution.　Crystals appeared in one week under several conditions (K/Na
tartrate, Na formate, Na citrate tribasic and PEG-3350) at pH range 4.6-6.5. We have crystallized
high diffraction grade single crystal of wild type HcpR at low pH (4.6). Crystallization condition was
0.1M sodium acetate, pH 4.6 and 1.8M sodium formate. The crystals diffracted up to 2.3Å
resolution and belonged to space group P212121 with the unit cell dimensions of a = 106.260, b =
106.303, and c = 116.773Å. Crystals were fished from the drops and cryo-protected by mother
liquor varied concentration of glycerol (10-20%). Subsequently, fished crystals were flash-cooled in
a cryogenic nitrogen stream. X-ray diffraction data were collected at 100K using Rigaku MicroMax-
007 HF X-ray generator and an EIGER R 4M detector. The data was processed with *CrysAlis^Pro*
40.64.69a (Rigaku) and the CCP4 suite of programs.

Model building and refinement

The crystal structure was solved with *Phaser* in the *Phenix* software package using the
sensing domain of HcpR (PDB entry: 6NP6) as the search model. Auto model building resulted in an
initial model of 572 amino-acid residues built with R_{work} 28.21% and R_{free} 31.71%. The structure was
refined with the Phenix software along with manual model building using the graphics program

Coot. After several cycles of refinement and manual model building positive electron density
belonging to the C-terminal domain became visible. It was possible to fit helix-turn-helix motif of
DNA binding domain. The structure was refined to 2.3Å resolution with a final R_{work} of 21.57% and
R_{free} of 26.47%.

Docking studies

Structural models of the heme group and the FL-HcpR dimer were prepared for docking
calculations using the Graphical User Interface AutoDock Tools (ADT). The grid size was set to 40 x
40 x 40 xyz points with grid spacings of 0.375 Å and grid center was placed at x= 111.826, y= 42.032,
z= 151.488. Other parameters were maintained at the default configuration. The two pqt files were
imported into AutoDock Vina tool based on a fixed geometry of HcpR and Heme. The result with the
lowest energy of binding (-8.3 kcal/mol) was selected for further analysis in ChimeraX.

129
UV-Vis spectrum studies

131   The spectrum of heme-reconstituted HcpR was recorded using a Genesys 150 UV-Vis
132   spectrophotometer (ThermoFisher) in a gas tight 1 cm quartz cuvette in 25mM sodium phosphate,
133   150mM NaCl, 1mM TCEP, pH 7.4 buffer. The ferrous form of heme was obtained by adding an
134   excess of sodium dithionite. To obtain anaerobic samples, purified HcpR was incubated in an
135   anaerobic chamber overnight.

Bacterial strains and growth conditions

P. gingivalis W83 (strain V2802) was grown and maintained in an atmosphere consisting of
80% N2, 10% CO2, and 10% H2 in an anaerobic chamber (Coy Laboratories). The *hcpR* deficient *P.*
gingivalis (V2807) was derived previously (Lewis *et al.,* 2012). *P. gingivalis* strains were grown on TSA-
blood agar plates (Tryptic Soy Agar, 5% Sheep blood) or in tryptic soy broth (TSB) supplemented
with hemin (5 ug/mL) and Vitamin K (1 ug/mL). Plasmid containing strains were maintained on
plates or grown in TSB broth containing tetracycline (0.5 ug/mL).

Cloning and site directed mutagenesis of *P. gingivalis hcpR* complement plasmids

The *P. gingivalis hcpR* deficient strain (V2807) was complemented using the pG108 plasmid
(Jones *et al.,* 2020). A copy of the *hcpR* gene was synthesized downstream of the *ermF* promoter to
create a construct that will constitutively express HcpR. The construct was cloned into the pG108
vector at the *Sph*I and *Bam*HI restriction sites to create the pG108-*hcpR* plasmid. Single amino acid
mutants were created using the QuikChange II XL site directed mutagenesis kit (Agilent). Primers
were designed to introduce mutations at Met68, His149 and L156 to convert them to Ala or a stop-
codon. Primers used for this study are listed in supplemental table. Clones generated from
mutagenesis were submitted for full plasmid sequencing and positive clones were used to
complement the *hcpR* deficient V2807 strain.

Electroporation and complementation of HcpR-deficient *P. gingivalis*

Fresh bacterial cultures on blood plates were used to inoculate 5 ml of BHI broth culture
overnight at 37°C. The next day, this culture was diluted 1:10 with fresh media and grown to mid-log
phase (0.5-0.6 OD_{600}). Cells were harvested by centrifugation at 8000x g for 15 minutes at 4°C,

washed in 25mL cold electroporation buffer (10% glycerol, 1mM MgCl2) and suspended in ~250 μL
EP buffer. To a pre-chilled 0.2 cm electroporation cuvette, 50 μL of washed cells and 1-2 ug of
pG108-*hcpR* plasmid DNA was added. The cuvette was placed in an electroporation chamber and
pulsed using settings at 2.5kV, 5msec, 400 Ω on a BioRad Gene Pulser II. Immediately after
electroporation, 500 μL of pre-warmed media was added and cells were grown overnight in the
anaerobic chamber. The next day, the bacteria were plated on TSA-blood agar plates supplemented
with 0.5ug/mL tetracycline. Colonies that appeared after 5-6 days of incubation were replated and
screened for proper genetic content.

Nitrite growth studies

Overnight cultures of plasmid complemented Δ*hcpR P. gingivalis* started from TSA-blood
plates were diluted to on OD_{600} of 0.05. These cultures were supplemented with 0 mM, 1mM, or
2mM sodium nitrite and grown overnight anaerobically at 37°C. The next day the $OD6_{600}$ was
measured to assess growth of the *P. gingivalis*strains.

qRT-PCR

To test HcpR activity *in vitro, P. gingivalis* V2807 complemented with plasmids containing
recombinant *hcpR* were grown to mid-log phase in TSB broth and then exposed to 0.2mM nitrite for
15 minutes. The bacterial cells were harvested, RNA was purified using Zymo Quick-RNA mini-prep
kit, treated with DNA-free DNAse kit (ThermoFisher) and cDNA was generated using High-Capacity
cDNA reverse transcriptase kit (ThermoFisher). Real time qPCR analysis was performed with a
SYBR green based detection system on a Quant Studio 3 thermal cycler. Primers used for qPCR:
hcp-F: AAAGCTGTCATCGTCCTGCT ; hcp-R: CGATCAGCGTCCGAATATCT ; Pg16s-F:
AGGCGGAATTCGTGGTGTAG ; Pg16s-R: TTTGATACCCACGCCTTCGT

Bioinformatics

Molecular graphics and analyses were performed with UCSF ChimeraX, developed by the
Resource for Biocomputing, Visualization, and Informatics at the University of California, San
Francisco, with support from National Institutes of Health R01-GM129325 and the Office of Cyber
Infrastructure and Computational Biology, National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases
(Meng *et al.,* 2023; Pettersen *et al.,* 2021). ChimeraX was used to superimpose structures, determine
distances, and any potential clashes/contracts. AlphaFold 3 was used to model the DNA binding
domains in the active form bound to DNA (Abramson *et al.,* 2024). Sequence alignments were
constructed using Clustal Omega (Sievers *et al.,* 2011). Alignments were portrayed using Jalview
(Waterhouse *et al.,* 2009).

Results

Overview of the structure of full length HcpR

Crystals of the FL-HcpR belong to the space group $P2_12_12_1$ and diffracted to 2.3 Å. The
structure was solved by molecular replacement using the truncated HcpR structure (PDB ID 6NP6).
The asymmetric unit contains 4 monomer chains A, B, C, and D. There was no significant loss of
electron density along the backbone of the structure, and all 228 amino acids of the gene CDS are
accounted for. In subunits A and C, the uncleaved cloning tail containing polyhistidine and TEV

sites can also be observed in the map. The data collection and refinement statistics are
summarized in Table 1.

Structurally, each monomer of HcpR comprises an N-terminal ligand sensing domain (SD)
and a C-terminal DNA binding domain (DBD). In agreement with our previous work, HcpR forms a
~48 kDa homodimer (Fig 1A). In HcpR, the SD encompasses residues M1-L151 (Figure 1A). The DBD
extends from residues L156-E228 and forms a winged helix turn helix motif. The dimerization
helices (helix E) of each monomer form a leucine zipper motif along residues P127-L151 with
interface interactions between symmetry-related Leu, Ile, and Met residues stabilizing the
formation of the homodimer (Fig 1B). The leucine zipper and DBD are connected by residues
spanning S152-L156, known as the 'hinge'. This is a metamorphic region that is unfolded in chain A,
but forms part of an extended helix E in chain B, spanning residues 127 to 171 (Figure 1C). This
hinge property is key to the mechanisms that govern the activation and DNA binding of many CRP
family regulators (Schultz *et al.,* 1991).

The ligand sensing domain of HcpR is composed of 7 β-sheets and 4 α-helices. The β-
sheets form a β-barrel or "jelly roll" like fold typically found in the FNR-CRP family of regulators.
According to the standard topology of CRP-family regulators, this region consists of 8 β-sheets
organized in an anti-parallel fashion. Consistent with what was observed in the crystal structure of
the truncated HcpR, the location of the 6th β-sheet is completely distorted, owing to a proline
residue (Pro89) creating an extended loop in the β6- β7 turn with a 1 turn helix. The presence of this
extended loop region thereby influences the potential size and location of the ligand binding
pocket. Pro89 and the region surrounding it is highly conserved in the HcpRs from *Porphyromonas*
and *Prevotella* species (Fig. S1), indicating it may play a pivotal role in the formation of the ligand
binding pocket.

Superimposing the two HcpR chains identified three structurally dissimilar regions (rmsd
2.14 Å). The DNA binding domain of chain B is rotated by almost 166º with respect to that of chain
A (Fig. 1D). One subunit is in an 'OFF' state, while the other is in an apparent 'ON' state. The second
region is in the position of the flap region, with a rotation of 39.6° between them (Fig. 1E).   The
difference in conformation is generated by the interaction between the β-hairpin of chain A and the
DBD of chain B, particularly an interaction between R226 and main chain carbonyl oxygens from
V69 and G70 (Fig. S2). The final region is in the second half of the leucine zipper, where they
superimpose, forming a 13.5° angle (Fig. 1E).

Comparison to other CRP-family regulators

A structural comparison with CooA, the only structurally shown heme-binding protein
belonging to the CRP family, was carried out to identify the potential heme binding pocket in HcpR
(Figure 4). Overall, the secondary structure features and domain architectures are well conserved
between the two proteins and they superimpose with a rmsd of 5.45 Å (Fig 2A). In CooA the heme
binding pocket is located at the first half of the α-helices forming the leucine zipper. The heme
group is coordinated by the N-terminal Pro2 of one subunit and His77 of the second subunit
located on the loop connecting β6 and β7 (Fig. 2B). From the superposition, the position of the
heme group in HcpR is occupied by the extended loop connecting β6 and β7 which is significantly
longer and has a short 1 turn α-helix (Fig. 2B). This extension is also evident in the sequence

alignment of HcpR and CooA (Fig. S3). Moreover, in HcpR, no residues are nearby to coordinate
with the heme group. Comparison with CAP reveals that the heme and cyclic-AMP binding sites are
situated in close but not identical positions (Fig. S4A). In HcpR, the extended loop region once
again occupies a similar location, partially occupying the cyclic-AMP binding site in CAP (Fig. S4B).
Furthermore, the overall volume of the pocket in CAP is smaller to accommodate the smaller ligand
cAMP. Taken together, we conclude that the presence of the long β6-β7 loop suggests that the heme
binding pocket in HcpR must be in a different location.

HcpR heme binding pocket

We previously determined the structure of the ΔCHcpR sensing domain and tried to identify
heme binding sites. Although our research found two hydrophobic pockets, they were not large
enough to accommodate a heme molecule (Lewis *et al.,* 2012). Using resonance Raman
spectroscopy, we also determined that heme-bound HcpR is primarily in a 6-coordinate state, with
one of the axial bonds being weaker and easily broken. Thus, it is likely that the two side chains
involved in coordination are essential for activating HcpR. To search for potential heme-binding
sites, we used AutoDock Vina using the structure of the dimer as the target (Trott & Olson, 2010).
The highest-scoring prediction positioned the heme group at a crevice located at the interface of
the two subunits (Fig. 3A). Particularly the DBD of chain A and the flap of the SD of chain B.
Crucially, two residues, Met68 and His149, appear primed in the pocket to coordinate the heme
iron (Fig. 3B). Apart from the heme iron coordination, many residues from both chains in and
around the pocket are in possible positions to form contacts with heme. These include hydrophobic
interactions from Val69, Ile78, Pro71, Pro100, Met145, and Ile148, and hydrogen bonding and
ionic/salt bridge interactions between the acid groups of heme and Lys146, Ser225, and Arg226
(Fig. 3C).

To determine the importance of Met68 or His149 for HcpR activation, we mutated these
residues to alanine and plasmid complemented an HcpR deficient strain of *P. gingivalis* (V2807)
(Lewis *et al.,* 2012). Crucially, *P. gingivalis* lacking HcpR does not grow in physiologically relevant
concentrations of NO_2^-, thus a strain with an inactive or deficient HcpR cannot tolerate elevated
NO_2^- levels. With treatment with NO_2^- we saw a significant decrease in the growth of the M68A strain
at 1mM NO_2^- and no growth at the higher concentration of 2mM (Fig 4A). The double mutant of
M68A/H149A could not grow at either concentration of NO_2^- and was comparable to the ΔCHcpR
negative control that completely lacks the DNA binding domain. Unexpectedly, with the H149A
mutant we saw no significant decrease in growth at either concentration of NO_2^-.

To measure activity of the HcpR mutants, we assessed transcription of the *hcp* gene *in vivo*.
In agreement with the growth studies, we saw a significant decrease of *hcp* transcript in the M68A
complemented strain (Fig. 4B). However, there was still modest expression of *hcp*, which explains
why the M68A strain exhibited some growth when compared to the L156* negative control at the
lower concentration of nitrite. With the M68A/H149A double mutant we saw *hcp* transcript levels
comparable to that of the negative control. With the H149A mutant we saw no significant decrease
in *hcp* transcript levels.

To confirm expression and growth data we expressed and purified the M68A and
M68A/H149A mutant HcpRs and compared them to wildtype HcpR spectroscopically. Both strains
were purified at similar concentrations and purities to the wild type protein using cobalt affinity

resin. The M68A/H149A double mutant did not bind heme effectively, which can be easily seen in
the loss of color of the protein after reconstitution with heme and desalting (Fig. 5A). The UV-Vis
spectrum revealed very little of the heme remained bound to the protein as evidence by lack of a
Soret band (Fig 5B). The M68A mutant was still capable of binding heme and retains its coloring.
However, there were subtle changes in the UV-Vis spectrum under anaerobic reduced conditions:
there was a shift in the main Soret peak from 428nm in the wildtype HcpR to 426nm in M68A HcpR
(Fig. 5C). There is also significant flattening of the α-β peaks at 533nm and 550nm. As the Soret
spectrum arises from the heme-protein interactions, this indicates that there are changes in the
heme binding pocket of M68A HcpR.

Interdomain interactions are critical for generating a heme binding pocket

As we have shown, the formation of the heme binding site depends on the chain A DBD
being in a conformation that allows it to form contacts with the flap region of Chain B. Arg226 of
chain A is of particular interest, as it forms polydentate interactions with two backbone residues in
the flap loop of chain B. The effect of this interaction is evident when comparing the FL-HcpR with
the ΔCHcpR. The two structures superimpose with an RMSD of 0.564 Å (Fig. 6A). There is an ~13.7 Å
difference in the location of the flap region along residues 69-75 (Fig. 6B). These contacts are
reflected in the B-factors of these regions in the two structures: the flap region of chain B in the FL-
HcpR has lower B-factors than their corresponding regions in chain A (Fig. S5). The interdomain
interactions create a divergence in the putative heme binding pocket size between the HcpR
molecules in the dimer (Fig 6C). The pocket of FL-HcpR chain A aligns near perfectly with both
chains of ΔCHcpR and is significantly smaller because there are no interactions between domains
(Fig 6A). In both chains of ΔCHcpR and chain A of FL-HcpR, the pocket size is approximately 520 Å^3.
In chain B of FL-HcpR, the pocket size increases to approximately 1100 Å^3. This increased pocket
size is much easier to accommodate heme, which has a volume of ~510 Å^3. This interaction
demonstrates that the orientation of the DNA-binding domain can influence folding of the sensing
domain.

The difference in conformation between the two DBDs' reflects the hinge region's flexibility
along residues 152-156 around which the DBDs move. In the crystal structure of FL-HcpR, the
orientation of the DNA binding domain is also influenced by crystal packing forces (Fig. S6). These
forces can stabilize the E helix in an extended form or allow the SD to form contacts with the DBD.
When the DBD is allowed to contact the SD, as seen in the case of chain A DBD and chain B SD, the
pocket is stabilized. In the crystal structure, the pocket that forms is further occupied by a portion
of the N-terminus of an adjacent homo-dimer in the crystal lattice. Crucially, the pocket appears
smaller in the SD of chain A and the ΔCHcpR structure due to the absence of the DBD interactions.

Discussion

In this study, we present the structure of the full-length HcpR. The protein crystallizes in a
peculiar form, with significant asymmetry in the C-terminal DNA binding domain that is not
uncommon in CRP family regulators (Lanzilotta *et al.,* 2000). The off-state may be represented by the
extended E helix in chain B. This structure is present in both chains of the NO sensor DNR (Giardina
et al., 2009). However, it is unlikely that HcpR will adopt this structure in the off-state. The residues

forming the leucine zipper motif that stabilize the homodimer do not extend past the hinge region at
Leu153. After this point, most residues forming the motif have polar, hydrophilic side chains.
Previously, we have demonstrated, using SAXS ensemble optimization modeling, that the DNA
binding domain of Apo-HcpR can adopt several different conformations in solution (Belvin, Musayev
et al., 2019). Thus, it is possible that the off form is an ensemble of different combinations, and
activation of HcpR stabilizes the DNA binding domain into an orientation with accessible
recognition helices.

The two conformations of the DBD can also be seen in some crystal structures of CooA and
CAP. In HcpR, as in CooA, the DNA binding domain of chain B is in the fully "off" conformation with
the recognition helix facing in towards the protein (Lanzilotta *et al.,* 2000). The recognition helix of
chain A is partially accessible; however, it is not in the fully outward facing orientation as seen in the
structure of CAP bound to DNA. The heterogeneity of the two chains reflects the flexibility of the
hinge region around which the DNA binding domains move and is important for creating the
putative heme binding pocket. Moreover, the presence of the two conformations suggests that they
are in a dynamic equilibrium in solution.

Guided by docking and mutagenesis studies, we interrogated the enlarged pocket in chain B
as a putative heme-binding location. We identified two important residues in heme binding and
activation, Met68 and His149. Both side chains are extended into the pocket and are in prime
position to coordinate heme. Loss of Met68 severely inhibits the activity of HcpR. The single amino
acid mutation decreases the activity by <10%. However, there is still a modicum of activity as
measured using qRT-PCR. This may explain how the M68A complemented strain can persist at the
lower nitrite concentration. Nitrite is bacteriostatic at these levels. It is possible a small amount of
HcpR activity overtime can produce enough *hcp* transcript to allow for diminished growth. Loss of
His149 does not affect the activity of HcpR. However, the M68/H149 double mutant HcpR has no
activity, like ΔCHcpR. The purified M68A/H149A HcpR does not bind heme, explaining the activity
observed *in vivo*. The His149 may play a role in heme coordination and stability of co-factor binding
but appears to not play an indispensable role in the allosteric network that governs HcpR
activation.

In the CRP family, distinct regulators have evolved to sense a wide variety of biologically
relevant molecules involved in respiration, stress response, and metabolism. These regulators are
based on a common modular design: (1) ligand binding β-barrels attached to a (2) central α-helix
leucine zipper pair connected to a (3) C-terminal HTH DNA binding domain by a (4) flexible hinge
region (Levy *et al.,* 2008; Schultz *et al.,* 1991; Passner *et al.,* 2000; Roberts *et al.,* 2005; Kuchinskas *et al.,*
2006; Fic *et al.,* 2009). Ligand binding appears to work on each of the modular parts, influencing
their interactions and stabilizing the DNA binding domain in an "On" conformation (one in which the
recognition helices are oriented such that the major groove of DNA is accessible). Despite their
similar structural orientation and folds, activation depends on the exact nature of the ligand-
induced reorganization of the β-barrel sensing domain and its effect on the allosteric networks
communicating between the ligand binding domain and the DNA binding domain. Thus, among the
CRP family members, key residues have little conservation (such as those involved in ligand
interaction or co-factor binding).

This is reflected in the crystal structures and mechanisms of other well studied CRP
members. In CAP, cyclic-AMP forms contacts with residues near the hinge region, extending the
dimerization helix by 3 turns and forming a coiled-coil motif that stabilizes the orientation of the
DNA binding domain (Popovych *et al.,* 2009). In CooA, binding of CO to heme displaces an N-
terminal proline residue that frees up this region to form bridging contacts between the sensing
domain and the DNA binding domain (Tripathi & Poulos, 2018). In the halogen sensor CprK, ligand
binding leads to a re-orientation of the binding pocket, decreasing its volume, that ultimately
affects the position of key residues on the "flap" region that stabilize the DNA binding domain
through formation of new contacts (Levy *et al.,* 2008).

Despite CooA being the most well characterized heme binding CRP protein, several
differences between CooA and HcpR are evident in the crystal structures. Although HcpR does
have a proline residue near the N-terminus, the two helices adjacent to the N-terminus are well
ordered and are not in a position that is located near the putative heme binding site. As previously
mentioned, the extended loop region of HcpR corresponds to the heme binding location in CooA. In
CooA, this region is shortened to accommodate the heme and is evident in the sequence of
overlays of HcpR and CooA (FigS2). Thus, the heme binding location of HcpR is different from CooA
and is likely "below" it (closer towards the C-terminal domain). The CooA mechanism of activation
(the "Velcro" model) involves CO dependent displacement of the N-terminal proline residue bound
to heme allowing the N-terminus to form contacts with the DNA binding domain (Tripathi & Poulos,
2018). Based on the structure and heme binding studies here, it is likely that mechanism of HcpR is
distinct from CooA.

DNR is a CRP family protein found in *Pseudomonas* that utilizes heme to sense NO, much
like HcpR (Giardina *et al.,* 2008; Castiglione *et al.,* 2009). DNR shares the highest sequence identity of
the characterized CRP members with HcpR at 20%. The mechanism of DNR activation, although
not well understood, differs from that of CooA. A significant conformational change in the crystal
structure of DNR would be required for it to bind DNA, but the changes differ from those of CooA.
Note that the position of the sensing domain in DNR structure is rotated by 60 degrees compared to
the inactive form of CooA (Giardina *et al.,* 2009). Mutagenesis and heme binding studies reveal
significant ligand switching occurs to accommodate mutations to heme coordinating residues
(Cutruzzola *et al.,* 2014). As there is little overlap in the conservation of key residues between DNR
and HcpR it is difficult to speculate how their mechanisms may be analogous.

One possible mechanism for HcpR mirrors the pocket rearrangement CprK undergoes upon
ligand binding. NO binding to heme displaces Met68. This displacement rearranges the pocket,
shifting the flap region out along residues 72-75 into a position to make contacts with the DNA
binding domain. These contacts stabilize the DNA binding domain into a position with the
recognition helices accessible to DNA. This putative mechanism is attractive for several reasons.
The location of the flap is very close to Met68 and displacement of the side chain can easily
influence the flap location. This is bolstered by the highly conserved flap sequence in 72-75, with
side chains that are accessible (Fig. 3). Among the CRP structures solved in the active formation,
all adopt a similar DNA binding domain conformation in the active form. This would allow for the
Ser72, Lys74, and Gln75 to form hydrogen bonds or salt bridges with the DNA binding domain.
Furthermore, we have shown that this region capable of shifting when comparing the ΔCHcpR and

FL-HcpR structures. This region is extended out by ~14Å in the FL-HcpR structure, indicating the
flexibility of this region to allow wide movements (Fig. 8B).

This can be illustrated using AlphaFold 3 to model the DNA binding domains in the active
DNA bound form onto the crystal structure of FL-HcpR with heme docked (Fig. S6A) (Abramson *et*
al., 2024). The conserved flap residues form an interface with conserved residues adjacent to the
recognition helix (Fig. S6B). This includes potential hydrogen bonding between Asn192 and Ser72
and the backbone at Gly73 and a potential network of ionic or hydrogen bonding interactions
between Lys 74 and Gln75 and Lys183, Glu184, and Asp187. Additionally, Phe189 appears
positioned at the entrance to the heme pocket, lending potential for hydrophobic interactions to
occur here. As can be seen in a sequence overlay, the residues on the flap and the "turn" of the
helix-turn-helix motif are highly conserved between different species of *Porphyromonas* and
Prevotella, indicating their potential importance in stabilizing the active form.

Further experimental support is needed to confirm this hypothesis. Despite our attempts,
we were unable to obtain viable crystals of the heme-protein complex for this report. Further
studies involving the dynamics of NO binding and its effects on the nature of the heme pocket and
DNA binding will help clarify the molecular mechanism of HcpR and the allosteric interactions that
govern its activation.

Figure Legends

Figure 1 - Overview of the crystal structure of full length HcpR. (A) Ribbon diagram of the HcpR
shown in forward and 90º side view showing orientation of the N-terminal sensing domain and C-
terminal DNA binding domain. Chain A is colored in blue and Chain B is colored in green. The two
chains form a homodimer. (B) Dimerization helices of HcpR. The homodimer is stabilized by
hydrophobic interactions between symmetry related Met, Leu, and Ile residues. (C) Highlight of the
asymmetry of the DNA binding domains of chains A and B. Helix E of chain A is broken at the hinge
region at residue 152 where Helix E of chain B is extended through residue 170. (D) Superimposing
chains A and B highlights the asymmetry of the DNA binding domains. The DBD of chain A is rotated
166º with respect to chain B. (E) Inset of boxed region in panel (A). The flap region of chain B is
angled backwards 39.6 º create a pocket in the SD of chain B.

**Figure 2 - Comparison of the overall fold and conformational differences between HcpR and
CooA.** (A) Stereo view of HcpR (green) and CooA (purple) dimers depicting the overall organization
of each protein. The N-terminal domain of HcpR (extending from residue 1-127) is slightly larger
than that of CooA (extending from residues 2-107). (B) Superposition of the HcpR-CooA overlay at
the location of CooA binding site. The extended loop region of HcpR (89-93) occupies this region.

Figure 3 - Heme docks into the hydrophobic pocket of HcpR. (A) Overview of heme docking in the
HcpR pocket. Heme docks at the interface between chain B SD and middle portion of helix E of
chain A. (B) Side chains present in the putative heme pocket. Both Met68 and His149, residues
commonly implicated in heme coordination, are optimally located in the pocket to coordinate the
heme iron. (C) Side chains present in the heme pocket that form potential contacts with docked
heme.

Figure 4 - Met68 is important for proper function of HcpR. (A) Growth of ΔHcpR *P. gingivalis* complemented with WT and mutant HcpRs (L156* mutant lacks the DNA binding domain and serves as a negative control). Complemented strains were grown in 1mM NO_2 or 2mM NO_2 for 24 hours in Tryptic Soy Broth. After incubation the optical density at 600nm was used to assess growth. (B) Complemented ΔHcpR *P. gingivalis* strains growing in mid-log phase were exposed to 0.2mM NO_2 for 15 minutes and collected. The level of *hcp* transcript was assessed via qRT-PCR to assess activity of HcpR mutants. Expression levels of *hcp* mRNA are normalized to the 16s subunit mRNA.

Figure 5 - Met68 and His149 are necessary for proper binding of heme to HcpR. (A) Heme binding of WT, M68A, and M68A/H149A HcpR – the amber color of WT and M68A purified protein indicates the presence of heme in the sample. (B) Spectra of the reduced, heme bound WT-HcpR and the M68A/H149A double mutant HcpR. The loss of the Soret peak in the M68A/H149A HcpR indicates loss of heme binding. (C) Spectra of the reconstituted WT HcpR and M68A HcpR under reduced, anaerobic conditions. Changes in the location and form of the Soret peak indicates changes in the heme binding nature of the M68A HcpR.

Figure 6 - Structural alignment of full length HcpR and ΔCHcpR highlights the interdomain interactions that stabilize the heme pocket. (A) Structural overlay of the full length HcpR (green) and the C-terminal truncated ΔCHcpR (red). The structures overlay with an RMSD of 0.564Å. (B) Zoomed in view of boxed region in (A) of the flap region in chain B of HcpR compared to that of chain B in ΔCHcpR. The flap region of HcpR has shifted out by 13.7Å, enlarging the hydrophobic pocket. (C) Highly of the pocket present in the full length HcpR

Figure S1 - Sequence alignments of HcpR found in *Porphyromonas* and *Prevotella* species. Conservations of residues is graded on a scale of 1 to 11, where 1 indicates no conservation at that site and 10 (+) near identical conservation and 11 (*) indicates a residue is completely conserved across all sequences.

Figure S2 - Arg226 and the flap region hydrogen bond. Arg226 forms to hydrogen bonds with the flap region along the backbone of Val69 and Gly70.

Figure S3 - Sequence alignment of CooA and HcpR. The sequence alignment highlights the extended loop region of HcpR that occupies the heme binding site in CooA. Green highlight represents β-sheet structures and teal highlights represents α-helices.

Figure S4 - Comparison of overall fold and conformational differences between HcpR and CAP. (A) Stereo view of HcpR (green) and CAP (cyan) dimers depicting the overall organization of each protein. The N-terminal domain of HcpR (extending from residue 1-127) is larger than that of CAP (extending from residues 1-110). (B) Superposition of the HcpR-CAP overlay at the location of cyclic-AMP binding site. The extended loop region of HcpR (89-93) partially occludes this region.

Figure S5 - B-factors in structure of HcpR. Structural representations of B-factors on a scale of 2 (blue)-50 (red).

Figure S6 - Crystal packing in the full-length structure of HcpR. The individual homo-dimer represented in blue and green chains with crystal contacts with adjacent homodimers in the crystal lattice.

Figure S7 - Model of the full length HcpR structure in the active confirmation. (A) Overview of
the HcpR homo-dimer in the active confirmation bound to DNA. (B) Conserved residues that form
the interface between the flap along residues 72-75 and the DBD along residues 183-192 with the
sequence alignments of each region.

Data Availability. The crystal structure data have been deposited to Protein Data Bank (PDB)

with a title "Crystal Structure of the Transcriptional Regulator HcpR from *Porphyromonas*

gingivalis" and assigned the following accession code(s): PDB ID 9DAY

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Table 1: Data Collection and refinement statistics

Data Collection Statistics	
Space group	$P\,2_1\,2_1\,2_1$
Unit-cell *a, b, c* (Å)	106.260, 106.303, 116.773
Resolution (Å)	29.13–2.30 (2.36 – 2.30)
Total reflections	711884 (55391)
Unique reflections	59441 (4590)
Redundancy	12.0 (12.1)
Completeness (%)	99.9 (100.0)
Average $I/\sigma(I)$	33.7 (4.6)
R_{merge} (%)[a]	5.9 (60.1)
Refinement Statistics	
Resolution (Å)	29.13-2.30 (2.38-2.30)
No. of reflections	59146 (2542)
R_{work} (%)	21.57 (26.87)

R_{free} (%)[b]	26.47 (32.05)
R.m.s.d. bonds (Å)	0.002
R.m.s.d. angles (°)	0.5800
Dihedral angles	
Most favored (%)	94.4
Allowed (%)	4.6
Average B (Å^2) / atoms	
All atoms	69.00
Protein	71.01
Ligand	56.86
Solvent	51.31
Number of non-hydrogen atoms	7632
Macromolecules	7221
Ligands	48
Water	363
Protein residues	926

497 [a]R_{merge} = $\Sigma_{hkl}\Sigma_i|I_i(hkl) - <I(hkl)>|/\Sigma_{hkl}\Sigma_i I_i(hkl)$. [b]$R_{free}$ was calculated from 5% randomly selected reflection
498 for cross-validation. All other measured reflections were used during refinement.

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Figure 2

A.   HcpR   CooA   B.

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

A.

WT   M68A   M68A/
                H149A

B.

C.

Figure 6