MANUSCRIPT TITLE

Molecular Dynamics Reveal Base Flipping as a Key Mechanism in Tc3a Transposase DNA

Recognition

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Abstract

Transposons, or "jumping genes," are mobile genetic elements that reshape genomes. The Tc1/Mariner family, including Tc3a transposase, has been studied for decades, but key aspects of its DNA recognition and cleavage remain unresolved. Existing models propose a homo-dimeric process for DNA excision and integration, yet conflicting hypotheses exist about the initial steps of DNA cleavage and target site recognition. Here, we reveal a previously unrecognized base-flipping mechanism in Tc3a transposase that challenges long-standing models of transposon activity. Using molecular dynamics simulations, we demonstrate that N-terminal acetylation induces a structural shift in the transposase-DNA complex, forcing a nucleotide in the inverted repeat to flip outward. This base-flipping event alters the local DNA conformation, creating torsional strain that may facilitate transposon cleavage or integration. Unlike prior models, which assumed static DNA interactions, our findings indicate that transposase binding itself actively reshapes DNA structure. We further show that this mechanism is dependent on the bipartite helix-turn-helix domains, which differentially contribute to DNA stabilization and recognition. Our simulations reveal that the processed N-terminus plays an unexpected role in modulating DNA binding affinity, contradicting previous assumptions that it was structurally inconsequential. Together, the two helix-turn-helix motifs act to propagate the force caused by base flipping along one direction of the cognate DNA double helix axis. The fact that previous structural studies lacked this amino acid modification may explain why this mechanism was overlooked. These results provide a new framework for understanding transposase-DNA interactions, highlighting how a single molecular modification can trigger major DNA rearrangements. This discovery not only redefines the Tc3a transposition process but also calls for a reassessment of long-standing mariner family transposon models.

Keywords

Transposase, HTH-helix-turn-helix, Molecular dynamics, Bipartite

Introduction

Transposons are small stretches of DNA capable of "jumping" to different regions of an organism's

genome, profoundly influencing genetic diversity and evolution [1, 2]. These mobile elements are now

classified into various families, each characterized by inverted terminal repeats (ITRs) flanking a central

region (1200–4000 bp) that encodes a transposase, the enzyme responsible for their mobility [3, 4].

Transposons have been identified in every organism studied, ranging from inactive pseudo-transposons

to fully functional elements [5]. Their ability to facilitate horizontal gene transfer across kingdoms—

such as between Protozoa and Animalia, or even between Oomycetes and Bryophytes—underscores their

evolutionary significance [6]. Moreover, their simplicity has made them invaluable tools in genetics,

with applications in model organisms like Caenorhabditis elegans, Drosophila melanogaster, and Danio

rerio, as well as potential candidates for gene therapy [7–11].

This study focuses on the Tc1/Mariner superfamily of transposons, first identified in C. elegans in

1989 [6, 12]. The Mariner superfamily encompasses over 1000 members, predominantly found in worms

and insects, although some have been integrated into the genomes of humans and other vertebrates [13,

14]. A hallmark of this superfamily is its simplicity, a single transposase mediates the entire transposition

process, guided by the ITRs that flank each transposon. Structurally, these proteins share a conserved N-

terminal helix-turn-helix (HTH) DNA recognition domain, a short linker chain followed by a second

HTH and a catalytic C-terminal core. This catalytic core is conserved throughout Tc1/mariners,

consisting of a DDE/D Mg^{2+} binding site responsible for the entire excision and insertion processes

defining the transposon jumping [15, 16]. Transposition is thought to occur via a homo-dimeric

mechanism in which the transposase excises the transposon at the ITR ends and inserts it at TATA-like

sequences elsewhere in the genome. However, key questions about the initial DNA cleavage and target

recognition remain unresolved [17, 18]. These include several differing models of how the initial DNA

cleavage occurs, ranging from complex multimerization of 4 transposase into a large synaptic complex

to single tranposase cleavage at ends, then dimerization after cleavage. Intriguingly, the structural

homology of Tc1/Mariner transposases to transcription factors in higher organisms and restriction

enzymes in prokaryotes suggests a shared evolutionary history, likely influenced by horizontal gene

transfer [7, 19, 20].

Here, we investigated the ITR recognition of the Tc3a transposase to provide new insights into DNA

binding and specificity in this protein family. Despite high structural similarity, Tc1/Mariner proteins

showed divergent sequence homology, making them an excellent model for studying the balance between

specificity and general DNA recognition [20–22]. Our aim was to uncover the kinetics and mechanisms

underlying these interactions, shedding light on DNA recognition processes relevant to transcription

factors and DNA-binding proteins in diverse organisms, including Homo sapiens. Furthermore, we

explored a novel DNA-binding modality that appears to be a foundational mechanism in these

transposons, with implications for understanding DNA and RNA interactions across vertebrates, plants,

and mammals. This research also addresses a critical gap in engineering synthetic DNA-recognition

proteins for biotechnological and therapeutic applications.

Materials and Methods

Starting Structural Model.

Our initial structure was retrieved from the Protein Data Bank PDB id=1U78, and modified accordingly

[23]. Based on normal C. elegans and H. sapiens protein processing, the N terminal methionine was

removed [24], and terminal Proline was modified to include a terminal acetylation. From the PDB DNA,

the bound DNA was modified to include the Tc3 ITR sequence, 5'-

TGTGGGAAAGTTCTATAGGACCCCCCCG-3' and complement, 3'-

CACACCCTTTCAAGATATCCTGGGGGGG-5', which encompasses the entire N-terminal protein

recognition portion, using Pymol. Gromacs-GPU 5.1.15 was initially used, with an all-atom Amber

ff99SB-ILDN force field. Our Resulting model was centered in a rectangular box with dimensions

100x56x180 Å, solvated with 31726 TIP3P water molecules, 1 Mg2+ ion (0.002 M), 91 Na+ ions (0.140

M), and 30 K+ ions (0.040 M), with counter Cl- ions for each positive ion to mimic a minimal cellular

salt concentration. The resultant box gave a 13 Å solvent layer to the Z axis, 40 Å to the X and 60 Å in

the Y dimension [25].

Molecular Dynamics Model Equilibration

The resulting model was energy minimized using steepest descent, and equilibrated to 310 Celsius, 1

atmosphere by first generating velocities at 290 Celsius for 2 ns, then continuing runs for 5 ns at 310

Celsius, with Nose-Hoover temperature coupling, and Parrinello-Rahman Pressure coupling. A resulting

structural model was then further equilibrated using unrestrained MD with three temperature, pressure

coupling groups DNA, Protein and water plus ions, for 20 nanoseconds. For further experiments, this

resulting simulation was allowed to run for an additional 50 nanoseconds to generate adequate sampling

space for starting pulled simulations. All pulled simulations were done using Gromacs GPU version

2023.2 on 4 H100 GPUs and 48 core Intel 2.3 GHz servers on the Brazilian National Computing

Laboratory (LNCC), or 16 cores, 1 H100 GPU on CENAPAD Brazilian super computers, using all-atom

Amber ff99SB-ILDN force field, long-range cutoffs set to 1.4 nanometers, neighbor list update set to 2.4

picoseconds, and Particle Mesh Ewald long range electrostatics, v-rescale temperature coupling, and c-

rescale Pressure coupling for GPU use [26]. All models were then run an additional 50 ns to determine

if any further fluctuations or changes occur, and for bound DNA interaction analysis. This process was

repeated for models having an N-terminal modification with cleaved methionine and no acetyl group,

the terminal three residues remove, and the methionine followed by alanine and glycine, and no

processing. Hydrogen bonding or structural comparisons were analyzed using Gromacs, APBS software

and in the software VMD [27, 28]. Model comparisons were done using Gromacs, VMD and Pymol

[29, 30].

Free Energy Calculations

Gibbs free energy was conducted according to published PMF protocols using the above models [31,

32]. Briefly, a 50 nanosecond segment was used to generate starting models with time points between 5

and 50 nanoseconds chosen using a random time point generator. This was done 4 times, for the 4

separate N-terminal models systems. First 16 time points were used to create a starting point with the

first HTH comprising the first 46 amino acids, HTH1, as the applied pulled force, with the DNA

restrained at the 3'-G53 and 3'-C28 terminal Oxygen atoms with 2000 kJ/mol. Using Umbrella, and

distance, a pull force was applied of 2000 kJ/mol nm^2, pull rate of 1 nm per nanosecond to the HTH1

center of mass (COM), with a pull tolerance of 10^{-06} kJ/mol/ps, and the simulation was run with with V-

rescale temperature coupling, C-rescale Pressure coupling, long-range cutoffs set to 1.4 nanometers,

neighbor list update set to 2.4 picoseconds, Particle Mesh Ewald long range electrostatics, using an all-

atom Amber ff99SB-ILDN force field with the HTH1 over 7.5-8 nanoseconds. Bound hydrogen bonds

were restrained using the SHAKE algorithm to constrain bond vibrations so we could use a time step of

2 fs [33]. This was repeated using amino acids 47-57 for the connecting loop domain as COM applied

force, and again for the second HTH comprised of amino acids 58-104 , HTH2. This resulted in 16

pulled simulations for each domain. A final set of 26 pulled simulations was then conducted, again using

randomized time point selection, with HTH1, the loop domain, and HTH2 all pulled from their COM

simultaneously. This was repeated for each of the described models, using the same three pull groups,

and in all frames saved at 1 ps intervals. Data was analyzed in Gromacs using the Wham method with

only the the three simultaneously pulled runs used for energy plots, and all simulations used for structural

comparisons [34, 35].

Further Analysis

Further analysis was done using Gromacs analysis tools. For Root mean square fluctuations with the

bipartite, 300 ps in the terminal portion of the pulled simulations was compared to 300 ps in the bound

state and used for figures. For the RMSF of the ITR DNA, the entire pull simulations were used. In

both, the presented data is the mean average of all simulations. For dynamic hydrogen bonding and

density plots the mean average was calculated from all data across the entire equilibration runs, truncating

the first 5 ns, excluding the equilibration temperature and pressure normalization [36]. For transition

hydrogen bonding and distance, averages were produced from the entire pulled simulation sets. A

representative distance plot was used in Fig 8 as averaged plots vary significantly in starting time points

or duration, causing the data to be lost in noise from averaged plotting of means. Model snapshots, and

trajectories were further analyzed, and graphic representations or figures made using VMD, Pymol,

Qtiplot, Gimp and Weblogo [37, 38].

Protein Database Analysis

Protein Database Analysis was conducted as follows. The entire Uniprot protein database was

downloaded as fasta files, and separated into Swiss-protein, and Tremble data sets. These were parsed

with python scripts to tabulate and bin the fasta files containing N-terminal Pro-Arg. Further analysis

was done using the resulting fasta files to assign percentages, classified according to organisms as listed

in the Uniprot database, and generate tabulated data using Pfam, Interpro and GO based protein

functional identifiers to assign protein function [39–41]. Statistics were done based on direct DNA or

RNA binding protein identifiers. Parsed H.sapiens data using the N-terminal Pro-Arg, Pro-His, Pro-Gln,

Ala-Leu, Ser-Arg, and Arg-Gln to extract all fastas, was reduced based on annotation and to remove

redundant transcript variants, and enrichment analysis preformed with DAVID and MOET [42, 43].

Results

Initial Differences from X-ray structures

Initial equilibrated model structure hydrogen bonding varies from the X-ray structure, mostly through

expected thermal expansion from the cryogenic determined atomic positions. With x-ray or EM models

data is usually collected at -180 Celsius, (Fig 1). Main differences were Tyr46 made no hydrogen bonds

with the DNA in any simulations, along with the Ser6 and Ala6 backbone in the x-ray structure. Our

initial model also showed slightly different hydrogen bonding between the two helix-turn-helix (HTH)

domains, referred to as HTH1 for the N-terminal and HTH2 for the C-terminus, as well as the connecting

loop analyzed over 50 ns, from a 100 ns simulation. This loop sits more deeply in the widened minor

groove, and makes different hydrogen bonds due to dynamics not completely included in the static

structure [23, 44]. Residues are number starting with the cleaved N-terminus methionine or acetyl group

as 1. Beginning with the acetylated-Pro, the residue is almost stationary in position with respect to the

ITR DNA. The Acetyl oxygen forms a optimized repulsive interaction at 3.4 Å with the ring N3 of A12,

forming a perfect 109° angle with the sugar O4' of T13, and O4' to N1 of A43 angle at 121.6º and 4.0

Å. A slight 3.3 Å hydrogen bonding to the almost neutral H2 of A43 may help stabilize this reaction,

although the bonding only occurs transiently 6% of occupied time, or with a lifetime of only 2.4 ps, along

with 3% and 3% respectively for H4' and H5'1 of T13 sugar ring, each with a 1-1.2 ps lifetime or less.

This position is more reinforced by the proline's almost complete hydrophobicity due to the neutralizing

nitrogen modification, pushing the residue into the center of the DNA, and being completely solvent

exposed on one side. Residue Arg3 forms an antiparallel base pair through NH2 hydrogen and the sugar

of T11 O4', trapping the base O2 which is also bound by the hydrogen of the NE. This places the Arg

main-chain N within 2.5 Å of the complementary base, A45, while base N3, formed a bond occupied

68.3% of the time, and a salt bridge with O1 of T13 phosphate, mediated by a fixed H2O, 50% occupied

through simulations.

Fig 1. Initial Steered Simulation Model. A] A representation of the unit cell, with the bipartite centered
in the middle, ions K, purple, Na, blue, water is not shown. The force was applied along the long axis,
and simulations run until half the protein entered the periodic wall. **B]** Cartoon representation of the
equilibrated starting model, N-terminus and HTH1 is to the right. **C]** The sequence of the dsDNA, aligned
to the model in B], larger letters indicate a contact with the bipartite protein.

Together this forces a contraction of the minor groove on one side towards HTH1, and a widening,

aided by Arg54 immediately below the modified Pro2 in the adjacent direction.   These bonds, Arg54

NH2 hydrogen with A43 base N3, Arg54 NE hydrogen with A43 ribose O4', and Arg54 NE hydrogen

with T42 base O2 occupied extensively in simulations. This interaction pulls slightly and stabilizes A43,

opposite T13. Together, the acetylated N-terminal Pro-Arg3 and Arg54 cause the T13 to adopt a flipped

out conformation rotating 120-140 degrees into the solvent. This conformation, not observed in x-ray

data, is maintained through the duration of simulations. A net effect is to cause extensive torsion on one

strand of the DNA in the duplex, that would translate to coiling in longer extensions of DNA fragments

[16, 45, 46]. The charge distributions, and structure of the region are shown in Fig 2, highlighting the

effective use of hydrophobic force and stabilizing hydrogen bonding that can allow base flipping in small

HTH containing DNA binding proteins. All hydrogen bonds lasting longer than 10 ps, and having an

occupancy higher than 40% for longer bound simulations are presented in Table 1.

Fig 2. N-terminus Binding Site. A] Cartoon of the binding site for the N-terminus, including Arg54.

Bases are labeled with 1 letter DNA code and position number (Fig.1). Hydrogen bonds are colored as

yellow dotted lines. **B]** Same orientation as A], DNA shown as space filling model with APBS calculated

partial charges shown according to scale as red, negative and blue, positive. Protein is shown as stick

model, colored by atom type, red, oxygen, blue nitrogen, carbon light blue, hydrogen white. A hole

formed through the DNA from flipped T13 is occupied by the Acetyl group.

Table 1 Long Lived High Occupancy Protein-DNA Hydrogen Bonds
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Functional Group

H-Donor	H-Acceptor	Percent Occupancy
ARG3-NE	T11-O2	99.00%
ARG3-NH2	T11-O2	78.34%
ARG3-NH2	T11-O4'	7.85%
ARG3-NH1	A12-O4'	21.06%
SER24-OG	G5-O1P	94.95%
SER24-OG	G6-O1P	11.65%
HIS26-NE2	G6-N7	80.85%
HIS26-NE2	G5-N7	6.07%
ARG30-NH1	G5-O1P	99.03%
ARG30-NH2	G5-O2P	98.53%
ARG34-NH1	G46-O1P	96.85%
SER35-OG	G46-O2P	99.10%
ARG36-NH1	G7-N7	99.70%
ARG36-NH2	G7-O6	93.87%
C9-N4	HIS37-ND1	52.39%
HIS37-NE2	G46-N7	22.52
HIS37-NE2	A45-N7	6.92%
CYS38-HG	A45-O5'	10.62%
CYS38-HG	G46-O2P	7.87%
ARG40-NH2	G7-O2P	81.53%
ARG40-NH1	T8-O2P	17.39%
SER52-OG	A44-O2P	44.89%
SER52-OG	A43-O3'	12.85%
LYS53-NZ	A16-O1P	5.45%
LYS53-NZ	A17-O1P	35.32%
ARG54-NH2	A43-N3	99.10%
ARG54-NH1	A43-O4'	11.29%
ARG54-NH1	A14-N3	7.6%

ARG54-NE	T42-O2	48.91%
ARG57-NE	T39-O2	32.69%
ARG57-NH1	C18-O2	26.77%
ARG57-NH2	T40-O1P	8.57%%
ARG58-NH2	T42-O2P	45.24%
ARG58-NH1	T41-O2P	35.44%
ARG58-NH2	C41-O3'	47.31%
LYS59-NZ	C18-O1P	21.67%
THR79-OG1	T31-O2P	76.06%
ARG81-NH1	G30-O2P	52.01%
ARG81-NH2	T31-O2P	48.69%
SER92-OG	T20-02P	47.24%
SER92-OG	T20-O5'	47.22%
LYS93-NZ	G32-O6	60.98%
LYS93-NZ	G33-O6	39.11%
ARG94-NH2	T21-O4	9.42%
ARG94-NH2	G34-N7	54.29%
THR95-OG1	T20-O2P	97.15%
LYS101-NZ	G33-O2P	36.19%
ARG102-NH1	G33-O2P	98.31%
ARG102-NH2	G33-O2P	98.27%
Backbone		
ARG3-N	A45-N3	68.01%
ARG3-N	T44-04'	9.80%
GLY4-N	A45-O4'	14.15%
LEU25-N	G6-O1P	76.63%
LEU25-N	G6-O2P	4.47%
HIS26-N	G6-02P	59.66%
SER35-N	G46-O2P	89.20%
GLY50-N	A45-O2P	27.22%
GLY50-N	A44-O1P	6.15%
THR51-N	A44-O1P	33.82%
SER52-N	A44-O1P	43.96%
ALA55-N	A43-O1P	11.94%
C41-H1'	PRO56-O	7,47%
ARG57-N	C41-O4'	21.04%
ARG58-N	C41-O2P	47.31%
LYS59-N	C18-O1P	7.97%
ALA60-N	T19-O1P	92.98%
ALA80-N	G32-O2P	72.31%
ALA91-N	T20-O1P	16.05%
SER92-N	T20-O1P	48.42%
SER92-N	T20-O2P	48.41%

List of all hydrogen bonds between Protein and DNA with higher than 10 ps, 10% occupancy across extended simulation. Amino acids that meet the criteria once also have shorter bond occupancies listed. Functional Group, atomic interactions from amino sidechain atoms, Backbone, atomic interactions from amino mainchain. In both column 1, donor, column 2 acceptor, column 3 percent occupancy across 100 ns pre-equilibrated simulation.

Distortions in the DNA only slightly mirror x-ray structures of Tc3a, Mos1 or related Mariners. The flipped T13 causes the phosphate of A14 to bend inwards towards the minor groove, however this torsion causes the minor groove between G15 to C17 and C41 to A45 to adopt a wider opening. Respective averages by base from G15 are 15.54 Å, with a maximum 19.34 Å, minimum 11.89 Å , to A17 with an average of 13.26 Å , and maximum 15.71 Å, minimum 11.32 Å. The highest distortion occurs from G15 and A16 paired with T44 and A45 on the opposite strand. Conversely, the opposite direction of the flipped T13 causes the minor groove between DNA residues from C9 to A12 and C51 to G48 to contract. Here the highest variation is on C10 and T11, with average, minimum and maximum of 10.26 Å , 6 Å, 15.20 Å and 12.33 Å, 6.56 Å, 15.51 Å respectively. Residues C9 and A12 have only minimums of 8.9 Å, with averages in normal B-DNA ranges. With both distortions, the widening in one direction and contraction the opposite stretch, the occurrences are sinusoidal over the simulations. Each holds positions outside of standard B-DNA conformations with the widening direction towards HTH2 having a lifetime of 250-300 ps, maximum 400 ps, and the contraction towards HTH1 a maximum life of 80 ps, and average of 40 ps. The widened groove is occupied by the Loop domain, and in contrast is contracted in the x-ray structure, whereas the TATA region in published X-ray structures is not comparable due to the base T13 flipping, the minor groove from T11-A14 has a 8.9 Å width in separate published x-ray structures. These highlight the further differences between static x-ray DNA-protein interactions and simulations at physiological conditions necessary for the study and development of DNA binding proteins.

Effects of N-terminal Protein Processing

Tc3a processed N-terminal amino acids have a strong effect on DNA affinity. We conducted steered

molecular dynamics to determine the binding affinity of the Tc3a bipartite domain, and the respective

HTH1 and HTH2 individually, along with the connecting loop region. Total affinity was higher than

expected from published work, where the average HTH has been shown to be around 80-120 k

Joules/mol, although the total affinity was almost exactly the same for dozens of complete DNA binding

transcription factors, around -400-440 kJoules/mol [47–49]. Our simulations showed the entire Bipartite

of Tc3a Gibbs free energy change to be -416.17 k Joules, with the change in free energy presented in

reverse of the binding process in Fig 3A. However analysis of the domains showed a normal, expected

range for HTH2, -114.5 kJoules. Most of the energy could be attributed to the HTH1 domain and loop

region, with a -155.7 and -148.2 kJoule/mol affinity respectively. This was higher for the HTH1 than

expected, but was extremely high for a small 12 amino acid loop that in studied transposase only resides

in minor grooves making primarily phosphate based interactions, Fig 3.

Fig 3. Free Energy Change. A] Binding affinity of the entire bipartite domain averaged from all pulled

simulations, **B]** calculated mean affinity for HTH2, these did not vary between different N-terminal

modifications, **C]** Binding affinity means for all modified N-terminus, blue, acetyl-Pro-Arg, green, NH2-

Pro-Arg, red, removed Pro-Arg, NH2 terminal, black, NH2-Met-Ala-Gly, **D]** Binding affinity means for

Loop region, residues Gly50-Ala60, standard deviation are given as +/- either side of mean for A-D].

To further dissect the interactions responsible for the higher affinity, we repeated the steered

molecular dynamics simulations with changes to the N-terminal region. This resulted in 3 separate

experiments, removal of the acetyl group replaced with NH2-Pro, removal of the terminal residues Pro-

Arg with a truncated NH3, and replacement of the N-terminus with methionine, alanine and glycine as

the terminal residues.　Higher DNA affinity can be attributed to the acetyl group and primary 2 N-

terminal amino acids.　In all simulations, no significant difference was found for HTH2, as presented in

Fig 3B.　Our most profound change was in removal of the N-terminal Pro-Arg, which resulted in a

binding affinity of -90.9 k Joules/mol for HTH1, while both the NH2-terminal-Pro and alternate Met-

Ala terminus had roughly equal affinities at the higher range of expected HTH motif affinities.　Alone

this showed the acetyl group itself contributes 25-30　kJoules to the HTH1 binding process, higher than

can be attributed to any hydrogen bonding effects from a single oxygen, (Fig 3C).

Unexpectedly, we also found extreme effects on the calculated loop affinities, (Fig 3D).　In contrast

to the HTH1 the NH2-Pro structure had a much lower affinity, -96 kJoules, even lower than removal of

the terminal residues.　This was due to the NH2 and the proline preventing, or hindering some of the

interaction of Arg54.　However, the altered N-terminus showed a higher than expected affinity of -129

kJoules.　In simulations, the methionine and alanine are able to partially occupy the same spaces as the

natively processed N-terminus due to hydrophobic effects, without altering DNA structure, (Fig 4).　This

allows Arg54 to make hydrogen bonds with DNA bases A43 and G15, however the methionine methyl

group prevents the Arg54 from entering deeper into the minor groove, also hindered by the lacking slight

widening found in the natural interaction.　These hydrogen bonds are rigid, and differ from the Acetyl

processed conformation by having a constant hydrogen bond with the opposite strand, rather than one

side in the native protein.　This further prevents the loop from occupying deeper into the groove,

especially Ala55 and Pro56 which are driven by hydrophobic forces from the solvent.　None of the other

simulations flipped T13 out into the solvent, or any other bases in the ITR.

Fig 4. Methionine-Alanine-Glycine N-terminus Bound to ITR DNA. The modified N-terminus does not move deep into the minor-groove, and Arg54 has different hydrogen bonding than the unmodified terminus structure. DNA is shown as cartoon, select bases and amino acids shown as stick models. In both, hydrogen, white, nitrogen, blue, oxygen, red. In amino acids, carbons, light blue, in DNA, carbons, light purple. Hydrogen bonding from Arg54 is shown as dotted yellow lines.

Inverted Repeat dynamic DNA structure

We further analyzed the changes in the ITR DNA from steered simulations, and unrestrained long simulations to analyze the effects on the overall base pairing and architecture. In the binding process, the majority of changes correlate to distances already determined from the longer simulations, (Fig 5A), with the ITR stretch adopting perfect DNA architecture without protein. Base flipping generates a force on the DNA equal to a right handed vector, moving in the 3' to 5' direction of the strand involved. This causes a contraction of the minor groove, or the DNA as a whole if unrestricted. The bipartite in general seems to cause the force to propagate in one direction, stabilized by the HTH2 end holding the DNA in a classical conformation, and utilized by the HTH1 end to allow stronger affinity. A net effect is the force moves in the direction towards the opposite ITR as found on the transposon, which alone or together in the opposite direction with the second Tc3a would move the propagation of force into the DNA encoding the transposase between the two end [50, 51].

Fig 5. RMSF and Base Pair Densities for Extended Simulations. A] ITR DNA shown as jelly role, colored by motion normalized as B-factors from 0.1%-100%, white, 0% motion, thickness also indicates greater motion scaled to the same B-factor. Red arrow, HTH1 binding site, green arrow, loop binding site, blue arrow, HTH2 binding site, black arrow, flipped T13. **B]** Base pair C24-G32, shows an almost normal non-moving base pair density as reference, **C]** the flipped T13-A43 base-pair, arrows indicate the positions of phosphates, black, A43, red, T13, **D]** G15-C41, showing a transition to less movement as in

B], with slightly wider spacing, **E]** T11-A45, showing an extended spacing but still present centered base

pairing of the terminal bases. In all, density a percentage of total space occupied for all trajectory frames

in the x-y plane using the DNA central axis between base pair shown, including +/- 3.5 Å in the Z plane

to include the ribose and phosphate.

To further analyze the effects on individual base pairs, we conducted a density profile for each base

pair along the ITR over 50ns from 100ns simulations. Both bp 4-52 and 24-32 show profiles close to

what is expected geometrically in fluid simulations, with each base showing 80-90% of the space

occupied by the ribose ring in a fixed position, (Fig 5B and S1 Fig) [52, 53]. Base T13 remains in a

flipped solvent exposed conformation the entire simulation, (Fig 5C), with much less movement in the

position of the normally paired A43 base. Contraction of the minor groove in one direction causes a

lengthening of the base interactions from bases A12 to C10, which is normalized around base T8. The

majority of this lengthening is observed in bases T11 and A12, (Fig 5E and S1 Fig). In the opposite

direction, the effect seems to mainly be with base pair interactions themselves moving slightly off at an

angle, making the phosphate and ribose move more than the bases themselves. This dissipates by base

T19 to T20, with base C24 falling into normal expected DNA occupancy. An exception was base A16,

which showed low movement, however transitioned between an extended base pair, similar to bases T11

or C10, and a bent conformation like adjacent residues. This is mainly due to the only transient

interaction with Lys53 and Arg57, around 10% of simulation time, where the remaining bases have

strong consistent interactions. Results of these later interactions prevent any force from the flipped T13

from moving in the HTH2 direct along the ITR, as the bases are stabilized by amino acid interactions in

the deformed state.

Bipartite Dynamics

Applying RMSF to the bipartite in a bound and unbound state revealed the minor dynamics of the protein domain. This showed results expected from simple HTH domain binding proteins, with HTH1 slightly more rigid in the bound conformation than HTH2, which contrasted the ITR fluctuations, (Fig 6). The Acetyl-Pro to residue Asp9 went from low to almost 90 percent fluctuation, meaning they are moving freely in the solvent. This also translates into more springlike motion for the associated Helix one of HTH1, with the end Ser8 to Glu11 forming a helix that constantly extends then recoils. This is mirrored for the loop region from Tyr49 to Arg58, which is stabilized against the minor groove of the ITR through hydrogen bonding, with Lys53 showing the most movement. In simulations Lys53 locks over Arg54 to a phosphate oxygen only 40% of the time, further aiding the Arg maintain a one stranded hydrogen bonding conformation.

Fig 6. RMSF of Bipartite Domain. A] Jelly role representation of the unbound and **B]** DNA bound form of bipartite showing mean RMSF of all amino acids. B] shown as bound to ITR DNA, color, thickness represented as 0.1%-100%, 0% white, motion as normalized B-factor according to color scale shown. **C]** Normalized individual amino acids as bar graph scaled as in A,B], bars in numbering at midpoint between bound, black and unbound, red. The last bar, residue 104. is the same for both conformations (red not shown).

A remainder of motion changes are one of two, first the helices in both HTH become more compact, slightly rolling hydrophobic residues inward when unbound, allowing residues such as HTH1 Lys19 to Tyr42 and Lys31 to Thr10 or Asp9, to interact and hydrogen bond helix ends. This occurs with similarly placed residues on HTH2, with Arg54 and Arg67, which are solvent exposed only in the bound form. Secondly, residues such as Arg30, Arg54, Arg40 or Arg 94 move from a strong DNA base interaction to being solvent exposed.

Dynamics of the Bipartite-ITR binding process

To determine the DNA base pair interactions giving rise to or affecting the higher affinity, we looked

at hydrogen bonding across all steered molecular dynamics simulations, averaged across all runs.

Initially we looked for only the Acetyl-Pro-Arg N-terminal interactions, and extended this to include

Gly4 for hydrogen bonding, (Fig 7). Between 3800-4800 ps, the hydrogen bonding becomes solely Arg3,

Gly4 peptide chain N and Ser5, and ends with a 2-400 ps stretch where only the Arg3 and Gly4 peptide

chain N make bonds longer than 1 ps. A number of transient bonds are made from the Arg3 functional

NH1, NH2 and NE hydrogens with T45, T13, T44 including the base oxygens or nitrogens, ribose O4',

and O1P or O2P lasting 1 ps or less, (Fig 7C). These interactions however are unable to account for the

energy involved based on hydrogen bonding alone [54].

Fig 7. Total and Acetylated N-terminal Hydrogen Bonding. A] Image of the N-terminal Acetyl-Pro-

Arg-Gly during the dissociation process, DNA cartoon, amino acids and T13, A45 as stick models,

oxygens, red, nitrogens, blue, carbon light blue, hydrogens white. Dotted yellow line shows the 3.5 Å

Acetyl-O to A45-O4' repulsive interaction. **B]** same as A], dots represent space filling model occupied

by outer atom electron shell, yellow dotted lines indicate hydrogen bonding between Gly4 and Arg3

mainchain nitrogen-hydrogen with the phosphate oxygen and O3' of A45. Both A and B are 180 degree

rotations of the orientation shown in Fig 2, A and B for comparison. **C]** Hydrogen bonding from pulled

simulations as a function of time, green, all hydrogen bonds from Acetylated-Pro-Arg bipartite, red, all

hydrogen bonds from NH2-Pro-Arg simulations, orange, only the hydrogen bonds from residues Acetyl-

Pro-Arg-Gly N-terminus. Black lines mark the means of each curve. Atom names are those used in the

Amber-ILDN force field from simulations.

We then looked at distances between base pairs, along with distances for the Acetyl group and

terminal amino acids. Our general finding was that the DNA stretch from A7 to A12 oscillates between

an A form and B form of DNA. When the HTH1 becomes disengaged, the Acetyl-Pro-Arg are the last

residues to leave. During these processes, the T13 begins to flip back into a normal conformation,

however the force causes A12 and T44 to lose their base pairing. During this process, the NH1, NH2

and NE of Arg3 form transient bonds pulling on A12 and T13 base ends. Mainchain nitrogens of Arg3

and Gly4 then interact with A45 ribose O3' and O1P, while the H3 of base T13 and N7 of the base ring

T45 form a long lasting stable hydrogen bond. This traps the acetyl group through hydrophobic forces,

and a strong repulsive effect between the oxygens of the group and T45 ribose O4', as the Acetyl-Pro

has no rotational movement between the Pro-Arg mainchain, (Fig 7A,B, and 8). This structure is stable

for 600-1200 ps in simulations. Interestingly the timing for this processes varied in pulled simulations,

and under bulk analysis conditions would be missed with averaged hydrogen bonding, RMSF or spatial

analysis techniques. We attribute this to the expected differences in starting points or positions of atoms,

as described for development of umbrella sampling methodologies requiring multiple starting points for

kinetic mean determination. The resulting free energy change for dislodging these interactions is 25-30

k Joules/mol and accounts for the increased affinity, which is determined from the bulk analytical

methods employed. None of the other simulations with modified N-terminus formed similar orientations

or structures, as the T13 was not unpaired or flipped out in any of these simulations.

Fig 8. Distance Across Pulled Simulation Between Selected Atoms. A] Base distance between atoms

N1 A12 and H3 T44, **B]** Base distance between atoms H3 T13 and N1 A43, **C]** Distance between atoms

O4' ribose ring A14 and O1P of T45, **D]** Composite distances between mainchain NH Arg3 and atoms

O4' ribose ring A14, black, O1P A45, red, and O4' ribose ring A45, green **E]** Composite distances

between atom NH mainchain Gly4 and atoms O4' ribose ring A14, black, O1P A45, red, and O4' ribose

ring A45, green **F]** distances between atom Acetyl O and O4' ribose ring A45, black, and atom N7 base
ring A45 and ring H3 T13, red.

Proteomic analysis of selected N-terminal protein groups

Utilizing computational proteomics, we attempted to determine if there were any obvious correlations

between the processed Acetyl-Pro-Arg N-terminus and DNA binding proteins. We also included dsRNA

or RNA/DNA in the analysis, as a structural feature. Using a search algorithm, we extracted all proteins

with the respective N-terminus from the Uniprot database, grouping this according to the datasets as

presented from source. Using Pfam, Interpro and GO biochemical process identifiers, we then grouped

all these into dsDNA and dsRNA binding proteins, (Table 2). Discrepancies exist between Tremble,

which includes all sequenced data, and Swiss-protein which has heavily curated and accepted entries. At

the organismal level, Plants and Achaea only showed major differences using both dataset types in

combination. Bacteria were not included, as they lack acetylation of N-terminal residues, and Achaea

only have similar processing of N-terminus in half of sequenced species [55].

Table 2. Tabulated Uniprot Parsed N-terminal Acetyl-Pro-Arg Proteins
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Uniprot Dataset	Number Entries	DNA Associated	RNA-Associated
H.sapíens			
Tremble	358	37.70%	40.20%
Swiss-prot	129	69.80%	67.40%
Rodent			
Tremble	4546	50.70%	47.60%
Swiss-prot	229	60.30%	60.70%
Mammals			
Tremble	25416	41.80%	42.00%
Swiss-prot	74	40.50%	52.70%
Vertebrates			
Tremble	11858	39.30%	40.00%

Swiss-prot	198	60.10%	59.10%
Invertebrates			
Tremble	52472	27.70%	28.60%
Swiss-prot	89	61.80%	77.50%
Plants			
Tremble	48196	19.90%	23.80%
Swiss-prot	156	22.40%	28.20%
Fungi			
Tremble	109083	27.80%	32.70%
Swiss-prot	154	63.60%	74.00%
Archaea			
Tremble	23518	20.80%	29.30%
Swiss-prot	104	43.30%	76.90%
Virus			
Tremble	9827	36.40%	36.90%
Swiss-prot	325	63.70%	62.70%

Number of proteins, grouped according to Uniprot datasets found with N-terminal Acetyl-Pro-Arg.

Percentages are all proteins found with GO function, Pfam, and Interpro composited for DNA or RNA

interacting. Overlap exists between DNA and RNA interacting as a number of proteins are also

dsDNA/RNA interacting or ribonuclear proteins that interact with dsDNA. A number of Tremble and a

small portion of Swiss protein (~10-15% and 1-2% respectively) have unknown functions. Column 1,

organism division, and Tremble or Swiss protein dataset, column 2, number of entries found, column 3,

percent with dsDNA interaction identifiers, column 4, percent with dsRNA or ribonuclear protein

identifiers.

To further refine and compare this data, we extracted data sets for H. sapiens only using additionally

Met-Pro-His(MPH), Met-Pro-Glu(MPQ), Met-Ser-Arg(MSR), Met-Ala-Leu(MAL) and Met-Arg-

Glu(MRQ) for all protein sequences, (Table 3). These last three were randomly chosen by using a simple

random number generator for each sequence at positions 2 or 3 assigned a number from 1-20, while the

Pro-His and Pro-Glu were chose as a similar, and opposite charge control. Then, data was refined to

remove alternate spliced isoforms, and only curated proteins which have interactions already known. In

some cases only a single isoform with an alternate methionine starting point contains the sequences listed,

differing from another transcript with alternate starting 3 residues. Based on this, we determined all

100% known dsDNA, dsRNA and dsDNA/RNA proteins from the datasets. Statistically, the Acetyl-

Pro-Arg was slightly higher than the others, 54.55%, with MPH, MPQ, MSR, MAL at around 30.00%

each, and the MRQ which is not processed with methionine removal and acetylation at 7.92%.

Enrichment analysis against the human genome showed Acetyl-Pro-Arg had 63 proteins out of 126 with

a p-value <0.01 that were associated with dsDNA or dsRNA binding, 32 of which were transcription

factors. However MRQ showed zero enrichment for any molecular function, and MAL showed only

enrichment for cytokine and interferon receptor associations. Only the MSR, processed to acetyl-Ser-

Arg in H. sapiens, showed 30.0% of proteins as enriched for direct transcription factors and DNA

binding.

Table 3. Comparison of different H.sapiens N-terminal extracted proteins from Uniprot datasets.
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N-terminus	Number-Annotated	Number dsDNA/ RNA binding	Percent	MOET *a
Ace-PR	112	61	54.55%	50% DNA transcription/ 8% DNA editing/ 23% RNA binding
Ace-PH	105	36	34.29%	50% Oxoreductase, 35% single nucleotide binding, 20% lipid oxidizing, 5% transcription factor
Ace-PQ	108	32	29.63%	23% α-actin associated
Ace-SR	150	45	30.00%	35.10% transcription factor
Ace-AL	344	73	21.22%	48.5% Cytokine receptor associated, 20% interferon receptor associated

MRQ 101 8 7.92% 0% enrichment

The N-terminus used is listed to the left. Only MRQ is not processed by human processing machinery into acetylated, methionine cleaved N-terminus. Column 2 is the number of proteins completely annotated with the respective N-terminus. Column 3 is the number of proteins that have direct dsDNA, dsRNA or dsDNA/RNA interactions listed in their functional identifier entries. Column 4 is the percentage shown to be ds nucleotide interacting, columns 2-4 processed through DAVID. Column 5 is the entire Uniprot H.sapiens Tremble and Swiss Protein datasets with all alternate spliced isoforms, redundant entries were remove, parsed through MOET to identify functional enrichment, having functional annotation including "probable", shown as percent of total included proteins, (342 ace-Pro-Arg min to 1117 ace-Ala-Leu max]), with p-values <0.001.

*a, a large number of alternate isoform entries, and "unknown function" in Tremble lack annotation. These were removed in the MOET analysis, however may effect statistics if and when they are accepted and annotated in future genome releases.

Discussion

Our data clearly shows the acetylated processed N-terminus plays an important role in the Tc3a transposition process. Here the effect is approximately 77 k Joules higher affinity compared with the NH2-Pro-Arg alone showing the difference cannot be attributed to hydrogen bonding, with only a single additional oxygen. The processes involved rather result from drastic differences in DNA structure induced by the different N-terminal structures highlighting the sharp effects of small molecular changes. Acetyl groups only have 6 atoms, with only 1 charged oxygen and in the Tc3a N-terminus only remove 2 hydrogens from the Pro. This resulting change causes a flipping of T13 in the TATA region of the Tc3a ITR, which is not mirrored in other N-terminus tested here, including the addition of an unprocessed methionine. Higher affinity is the result of this induced DNA conformation, and the effects it has on the DNA during the binding and dissociation processes of the Tc3a bipartite, as presented in Fig 7 and 8. A

novel stable DNA-protein intermediate is responsible for 25-30 k Joule differences observed from all

tested N-terminus in the study, which occurs for an extended period in molecular time frames between

600-1200 ps. This is enough time for the HTH1 domain of Tc3a to dissociate and re-associate in natural

conditions, without an applied force. Additional higher affinity is achieved by the changes in the minor

groove, particularly with the loop region binding, also induced by the acetyl group.

Base flipping has been observed in other transposon families, outside of mariners, and has been

proposed to be a common mechanism in many DNA binding protein's function [56]. In Tc3a or similar

related transposase, the process most likely plays a role in the initial ITR cleavage process, which has

several competing proposed mechanisms [17, 18, 57]. Currently these include supercoiling to bring

single transposase together, dimerization at one or both ends, and a multimerization of 4 single mariners.

Torsion provided by the single base flipping at either ITR would produce a supercoiling of dsDNA,

where the 1200 base pairs between would wind around itself bringing the two ends together. Of the

debated mechanisms with supercoiling, one hypothesis includes a single nick at either end and bending

of the ITR cause a similar process, however base flipping has never been observed in Tc3a or mariners.

Much of these differences in theoretical processes may be an artifact of the expression systems used,

with all x-ray and NMR structures published utilizing E. coli which lacks the acetylation processing. It

has also been mentioned in literature that the HTH1, or bipartite domains of mariners have lower than

expected affinities in DNA binding wet laboratory experiments, which utilize the same expression

systems and are routinely used in most wet laboratory experiments to develop all process models.

Our deduced process however may be Tc3a specific, with only 4% of known mariner transposons

having an N-terminal acetylated Pro-Arg, although this number increases slightly if Mos1, piggybac, or

related mariner splice variants are included to 10%. Also a number of transgenic mariner evolved fusion

proteins such as SETMAR in humans and Papio anubis retain the N-terminus [58, 59]. Interestingly

Phytophthora and Planariidae have a larger portion of identified mariner transposase with this Acetyl-

Pro-Arg N-terminus, grouped into Tc3 like or Tc1 like. Still, without further sub-grouping transposase,

mariner transposase must have alternate mechanisms for the same process if this base flipping is intrinsic

to the family as a whole. It has been shown in Tn5 and Tn10 transposase, which utilize different

mechanisms including hairpin formations, base flipping 3-4 bases from the ITR cleavage site is mediated

by forcing a Methionine between the bases, aided by the bound transposase. Similar processes to the one

described in our work may be possible with alternative sequences, which would include 8000 novel

variants if all 3 primary amino acids are included. Ultimately, our work indicates that N-terminal

processing needs to be taken into account in the study of DNA binding proteins in general.

More theoretical, we attempted attempted to find a significant correlation with the Acetyl-Pro-Arg N-

terminus and dsDNA, dsRNA or dsDNA/RNA binding proteins. Our data indicates a slightly higher

correlation for the N-terminal residues analyzed, however the increase of only 20-25% more from others

indicates this may be in a more specific protein domain or family aspect. In simple enrichment analysis,

the Acetyl-Pro-Arg did show high enrichment over other tested N-terminal sets, however when looking

at the protein sets individually all contained DNA binding proteins. Additionally enrichment analysis

routinely left out proteins listed as direct dsDNA or dsRNA binding in their descriptions. In a number

of mammalian mariner evolved fusion proteins, the HTH1 and HTH2 are on the C-terminus, while the

Acetyl-Pro-Arg still make up the N-terminal domain, and are in direct contact with the DNA, suggesting

this still may have some role. We were however hindered from direct structural analysis as only 8

structures from the 487 human proteins, including splice variants identified, (Table 3), had structures

complete enough to analyzed. From these 3 showed the processed end formed a perfect β-sheet that was

twisted in the x-ray structures lacking processed N-terminus, 3 were ribosomal structural proteins

embedding the N-terminus in dsRNA, 1 was a ribonuclear protein with dsDNA/RNA, and 1 a

transcription factor superposable with Tc3a. This sample size is to small to make direct conclusions or

provide statistic on function, making our proteomics analysis only suggestive for common functional

categorizations.

Our work here shows the mechanism is an intrinsic part of the Tc3a transposase transposition process,

conferring higher affinity and altering the DNA structure. For Tc3a specifically, the flipped base at either

end of the transposon would provide enough force to cause the DNA between the sites to supercoil. This

supports a model outlined by other groups (S2 Fig), where single transposase bind at either end and are

brought together to form a dimer from DNA torsion alone. A model similar to this has been proposed as

a general mechanism used to bring together distant transcription factors or DNA binding proteins in

larger complexes [45,46,51]. Still, this does not address the order of DNA strand cleavage, which still

contains models of single strand or double strand nicking also playing a role of bringing two transposase

together. However, it does indicate that multimerization is not necessary for the initial inverted terminal

repeat torsions necessary for the overall process. Thus more complex 4 transposase multimeric systems

are most likely not involved in mariner ITR cleavage. We propose a more simplistic system based on the

DNA binding from processed terminal residues and induced torsions in the ITR as a major factor driving

dimerization.

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Supplementary Material

S1 Fig. Occupied Density Maps of Base Pairs During Extended Simulations. Base pairs are listed above density plots, density is scaled as 0.1%-100% occupancy according to color scales on the right of each representation, white, 0% occupancy. Base pair 4-52 represents a low moving classical base pair as reference. Base pair 16-40 is an outlier. All represent the total occupancy from all frames, minus equilibration, taken from the DNA central axis between specific base pair as reference in the x-y direction, and +/- 3.5 Å in the Z direction.

S2 Fig. Example published proposed models of Tc3a Transposition Process. 1) A) A single transposase binds the ITR of the transposon at either end. **B)** Distortion on the DNA at either end causes the region between ITR to super-coil, bringing the two transposase together, allowing for the cleavage of both strands at the ITR end. **C)** The dimerized complex leaves the excision site, which is repaired by DNA ligase leaving a TA[xx]TA duplication*****, **D)** remaining dimerized the complex then scans DNA until a TA site is recognized, inserts the transposon complete with the ITR at either end, and the two proteins dissociate. C and D remain the same for all models, except the coiling or looped DNA are both proposed in different models to make up the complex until insertion. **2) A)** Dimerized transposase binds either end of the transposon at the ITR, **B)** These cause torsion that bring the 4 transposase together, which then are able to cleave both strands of DNA, one of each original dimer leaves with the excision site, while the other two leave carrying the transposon. **3) A)** Two transposase bind one ITR of the

transposon **B)** these dimerize with unbound transposase forming a 4 protein complex excising one end

of the transposon, and coil the DNA until the second ITR is found, and the entire transposon is cleaved

at either ITR. This leaves the two excised ends distant from each other. Green ovals, transposase, red

lines, ITR, blue lines, dsDNA, in **3B**, half red line a TA overhang.

* The excision site at a lower frequency has a TAX$_N$TA marker, which can be 0-4 bases randomly

inserted found adjacent to the proposed ITR cleavage site. Duplication refers to the doubled TA, the

original insertion site between a T/A, known as the excision footprint. Variations exist on these 3 main

proposed mechanisms, with more than a dozen proposed similar models having slight variations. [refs.

4,12,18,60,61 and other published works]

Complete   equilibrated   models   used   are   deposited   on   the   ModelArchive   at

https://www.modelarchive.org/10.5452/ma-5m69p

Figure 1

Figure 2

A — Whole Bipartite Binding Affinity

Mean 416.168 kJ/mol +/- 7.95

B — HTH 2 Binding Affinity

Mean 114.534 +/- 10.58 kJ/mol

C — HTH 1 Binding Affinity

Means (kJ/Mol)

Acetyl-PR 155.708 +/- 9.12
NH2-PR 129.89 +/- 11.0
No-PR 90.85 +/- 13.1
MAG 126.250 +/- 7.88

D — Loop Binding Affinity

Means (kJ/mol)

Acetyl-PR 148.22 +/- 9.1
NH2-PR 96.01 +/- 17.18
No PR 115.26 +/- 11.17
MAG 128.75 +/- 10.7

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

Hydrogen Bonds

Ace-Pro-Arg
Ace-Tc3a
No-Ace

Figure 7

Figure 8