Three types of hotspots- weak, moderate and strong in protein-protein and protein-peptide interactions

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Abstract

Protein-protein and protein-peptide interactions (PPIs and PPepI) belong to a similar category of interactions yet seemingly subtle differences exist among them. To characterize differences between protein-protein (PPI) and protein-peptide interactions (PPepI), we have focussed on two important class of residues- hotspot and anchor residues. Using implicit solvation-based free-energy calculations, a very large-scale alanine scanning has been performed on benchmarking dataset, consisting of over 5500 interface residues. The differences in the two categories are more pronounced, if the hotspot data is divided into three distinct types, namely - weak hotspots (having binding free energy loss upon Ala mutation, $\Delta\Delta G$, 2-10 kcal/mol), moderate hotspots ($\Delta\Delta G$, 10-20 kcal/mol) and strong hotspots ($\Delta\Delta G$ [?] 20 kcal/mol). The analysis suggests that for PPI, weak hotspots are predominantly populated by polar and hydrophobic residues. The distribution shifts towards charged and polar residues for moderate hotspot and charged residues (principally Arg) are overwhelmingly present in the strong hotspot. In contrast, in the PPepI dataset, the distribution shifts from predominantly hydrophobic and polar (in the weak type) to almost similar preference for polar, hydrophobic and charged residues (in moderate type) and finally the charged residue (Arg) and Trp are mostly occupied in the strong type. In anchor residue class of both categories, the preferred residues are Arg, Tyr and Leu, possesing bulky side chaing and which also strike a delicate balance between side chain flexibility and rigidity. The present knowledge should aid in effective design of biologics, when augmentation or disruption of PPI are substituted with the peptide-based mimics.

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Abstract

Protein-protein and protein-peptide interactions (PPIs and PPepI) belong to a similar category of interactions yet seemingly subtle differences exist among them. To characterize differences between protein-protein (PPI) and protein-peptide interactions (PPepI), we have focussed on two important class of residues- hotspot and anchor residues. Using implicit solvation-based free-energy calculations, a very large-scale alanine scanning has been performed on benchmarking dataset, consisting of over 5500 interface residues. The differences in the two categories are more pronounced, if the hotspot data is divided into three distinct types, namely - weak hotspots (having binding free energy loss upon Ala mutation, $\Delta\Delta G$, 2-10 kcal/mol), moderate hotspots ($\Delta\Delta G$, 10-20 kcal/mol) and strong hotspots ($\Delta\Delta G$ [?] 20 kcal/mol). The analysis suggests that for PPI, weak hotspots are predominantly populated by polar and hydrophobic residues. The distribution shifts towards

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Keywords: - hotspot, anchor residue, protein-protein interaction, protein-peptide interaction, alanine scanning, free energy calculations

Introduction

Protein-protein interactions (PPI) and protein-peptide interactions (hereafter referred to as -PPepI) play a crucial role in many cell-signaling and metabolic processes. In recent years, they have become attractive targets for drug and biologics discovery [1-8]. To interfere or modulate PPI, protein-protein complex may be disrupted or interactions may be augmented by peptides or mimetics. Peptides have the advantage of larger shelf life, less prone to proteolysis, feasibility of their oral delivery and flexibility in optimization, screening and synthesis, similar to small molecule based drug. Thus, to augment or disrupt PPI by peptide-based therapeutic, it is worthwhile to understand the differences between PPI and PPepI.

To characterize differences between PPI and PPepI, in the present work we have focused on two important class of residues, namely, hotspot and anchor residues. At the interface of molecular complex, certain residues play a crucial role in governing such interactions. These residues contributing most to the binding of molecular complexes are termed as hotspot residues. As a rule of thumb, a hotspot residue is defined, if its energy contribution to the binding of complex is more than 2 kcal/mol [9-10]. The binding affinity and specificity of the PPI and PPepI are in essence governed by such energetically important hotspot residues. Mutations at hotspots have been shown to cause dissociation of complexes or disruption in the signaling processes [11]. Additionally, anchoring residue also play specific role in the initial stage of molecular recognition. They avoid kinetically costly structural rearrangements in the binding pathway allowing for a relatively smooth recognition process [12]. Anchor residues are hotspot residues that bury the highest amounts of solvent accessible surface area ([?] 100 Å²) upon binding [12-13].

To quantitatively probe the energetic contributions of residue to the overall binding of molecular complexes, earlier experimental alanine scanning mutagenesis were attempted [9]. This involves experimentally mutating each residue at the interface to alanine and then measuring the effect of the mutation on binding to the partner protein or peptide. Extending the previous definition of hotspot more specifically with the Alascanning method, a residue is considered a hotspot residue, if its mutation to alanine gives rise to loss in binding affinity [?] 2 kcal/mol. Early on, limited data were generated using experiment mutagenesis for many diverse complexes [14-22], and few databases on experimentally determined hotspot residues in proteinprotein complexes such as AB-bind [14], ASEdb [15], ATLAS [16], BID [17], DACUM [18], dbAMEPNI [19], dbMPIKT [20], PROXiMATE [21] and SKEMPI 2.0 [22] have also been developed. The identification of hotspot residues by experimental techniques is a costly and time consuming job, which has led to the development of a series of computational algorithms to predict hotspots at the protein-protein interfaces [1, 23-39]. Serrano's group have developed FoldX based on an empirical potential for rapid evaluation of effect of mutations in proteins and nucleic acids [23,24]. Flex_ddG method in Rosetta uses a combination of sophisticated Monte Carlo sampling, minimization, and specialized force fields [25-27]. BeAtMuSiC is a tool, which employ statistical potentials adapted to a coarse-grained representation of protein structures [28] and mCSM (mutation Cutoff Scanning Matrix) is based on graph-based structural signatures, which encodes distance patterns between atoms to represent protein residue environments [29]. Various other methods and their applications have also been discussed in the literature [30-36, 44-45].

In the present work, we have used Bioluminate Residue scanning approach implemented in Schrödinger [37-

38]. The method uses implicit solvation based MM-GBSA (Molecular Mechanics with Generalized Born and Surface Area) with the OPLS2005 force field, VSGB2.0 solvent model and rotamer search algorithms from Prime [37-38]. To understand the differences in the nature of hotspots in protein-protein and protein-peptide complexes using benchmarking data sets, a comprehensive Ala scanning, comprising of over 5500 mutation analyses were performed.

Materials and Methods

2.1 Benchmarking dataset

Benchmarking dataset of protein-protein and protein-peptide complexes were taken from Vrevenet al. [39] and Hauser et al. [40], respectively. These datasets were earlier used for benchmarking studies of docking programs. Protein-protein benchmarking dataset is composed of non-redundant high-quality structures (resolution < 3.25 A). Protein-peptide complexes were composed of peptides with 3 to 12 residues (resolution < 2.0 A, R-free < 0.3). The dataset consists of 134 protein-protein and 50 protein-peptide complexes. The PDB IDs are provided in Table 1.

2.2 Protein preparation

PPI and PPepI dataset entries were imported in Schrodinger Maestro [38] and prepared as discussed here. Each of the entries in both the benchmarking dataset were prepared using a Protein Preparation Wizard utility available in Maestro [38]. For each PDB, protein hydrogens were stereochemically added and appropriate ionization states (at pH 7.0) for the acidic and basic amino acid residues were maintained. Missing side-chain atoms were added using a rotamer library of Xiang and Honig [41] and missing backbone atoms were fixed using a loop modeling procedure implemented in Prime [38]. Subsequently, the structure optimization, which utilizes maximization of hydrogen bonding, was carried out to i) identify the most probable positions for freely rotating –OH and –SH hydrogens, ii) to assign the correct protonation states of charged residues, iii) tautomers of His, and iv) Chi 'flip' of Asn, Gln and His residues. Finally, to relieve any steric clashes within atoms, the structures were energy minimized using OPLS2005 force field until the heavy-atom displacement converged to root mean square deviation (RMSD) of 0.30 A. Many entries were manually examined and processed, where it was not possible to prepare using the default option.

2.3 Hotspot identification using residue scanning

The Ala scan was performed on the prepared library of protein-protein and protein-peptide complexes using the Residue Scanning module in Bioluminate [38]. Ala mutation was carried out, one residue at a time, for all the interface residues. The method calculates relative binding affinity values (G_{bind} or simply G; also referred as Affinity in the reference [38]) and stability ([?][?] $G_{stability}$) between the mutant and the wild type protein using implicit solvation based MM-GBSA and using the thermodynamic cycle approach. The details of thermodynamic cycle, which allows one to calculate the net G_{bind} and [?][?] $G_{stability}$, taking the advantage of state function nature of the free energy is described in literature [37,42]. For interface residues, default 4A distance between residues in either of the protein chains was used [38].

The Δ [?]G_{bind} is the change in binding affinity between binding partners upon point mutation. One of the difference (Δ) is between the bound and unbound state of binding partners using MM-GBSA and the another difference (Δ) is between wild type and the mutant. The positive value indicates loss in binding affinity upon mutation to Ala and negative value indicates gain in affinity. The calculations were carried out using the Schrödinger Prime MM-GBSA, which uses an implicit (continuum) solvation model [43]. Δ G_{stability} or Δ Stability (solvated) is the change in the stability of the protein upon mutation, also calculated using the Prime energy function. The stability was defined as the difference in free energy between the folded state of molecule and the corresponding unfolded state were estimated from Gly-X-Gly tripeptide, where X is the residue under consideration [38]. A negative value refers that the mutant is more stable. Residue involving covalent linkage (having Δ [?]G_{bind} > 80 kcal/mol) were discarded. Finally, all the hotspot residues with Δ [?]G_{bind} in 2-80 kcal/mol range were considered for analysis. All the results were analysed using Maestro visualizer, Bioluminate utilities and Microsoft Excel.

2.4 Data clustering & Multiple linear regression analysis

Data clustering was carried out using k-means clustering in Weka platform using Elbow method. Multiple Linear Regression (MLR) analysis was carried out using lm library in R to decipher correlation between outcome variable, $\Delta\Delta G$ and all its components that contribute to total free energy calculations as predictor variable assuming that they follow approximately linear relationship.

2.5 Anchor residues

Anchor residues and their Δ SASA (solvent accessible surface area) were calculated for the both PPI and PepPI benchmark datasets from ANCHOR webserver [13]. Δ SASA is the change in the solvent accessible surface area for the side-chain upon binding. The program also estimates the contribution of side-chain to the binding free energy. Δ SASA and binding free energy were calculated for all interface residues. Anchor residues were identified that burry the solvent accessible surface area, Δ SASA [?] 100 Å² upon binding.

Results and Discussion

Protein-protein and protein-peptide benchmark dataset having 134 and 50 dimer complexes, respectively, were used for calculations and analysis. To identify the hotspots, all interface residues of both partner chains in the complex were mutated to alanine and relative binding affinity ([?][?]G) values were calculated upon mutation of all these 184 complexes. Ala scan was carried out using Bioluminate residue scanning module [37-38]. The positive value of [?][?]G indicates loss in binding affinity upon mutation and suggest quantitatively the importance of the particular residue. A negative value refers to the gain in binding affinity indicating that the mutant binds better.

3.1 Frequency distribution of hotspot and anchor residues

In all, calculations were made for a total of 5774 interface residues. To our knowledge, this is one of the comprehensive study on hotspot residues in PPI and PPepI. Out of 5774 residues, 3732 residues amounting to 64.6% of the total dataset belong to hotspot categories having [?][?]G [?] 2 kcal/mol. This is suggestive of the fact that nature has remarkably optimized a great majority (~65%) of the interface residues in proteinprotein complexes during evolution. This finding is also in contrast to earlier notion that complex interface comprises only few hot spot residues either isolated or in clusters [51]. The frequency distribution is given in Table 2. Fig. 1 illustrates the histogram of hotspots in PPI and PPepI categories. Altogether both charged and polar residues contribute about 60% of hotspots. In the histogram, the frequency curves drawn for both categories are in perfect sync with a very minor difference at Gln, indicating the similar overall tendency observed in PPI and PPepI. Arg, Tyr, Leu, Lys and Gln, are the preferred hotspot residues at the PPI interfaces with Arg alone accounting for over 10% in the frequency distribution. Met, His, Trp, Gly and Cys are the least preferred hotspot residues with Cys presence is mere 0.1 %. In contrast, Tyr, Leu, Arg and Ile are the most favoured hotspot residues in PPepI category and Cys, Gly, Gln, Met and Trp are the least preferred ones. Examining the trend, the PPI dataset is characterized by the dominance of charged and polar residues followed by hydrophobic residues, whereas PPepI dataset, the polar and hydrophobic followed by charged residues predominantly occupy the frequency distribution. The fact that negatively charged residues are not the ones among preferred hotspot residues suggest that the electrostatic complementarity is not a predominant factor in PPI and PPepI as well.

In PPI dataset, 249 anchor residues were recognized (37 weak, 118 moderate and 87 strong hotspots types; Supplementary. Table 1). In PPepI category, 92 anchor residues were identified (12 weak, 46 moderate and 34 strong types; Supplementary. Table 2). Anchor residues mostly occur for PPI dataset in moderate and strong types. The anchor residues comprise of 8.3% of hot spot residues and about 5.3% of total residues investigated in PPI and PPepI category. Anchor residues demonstrate similar trend with Arg, Leu, Tyr Gln, Phe as the most preferred anchor residue for PPI. For PPepI hydrophobic residue predominantly occupy at the interface - Leu, Ile, Val, Phe, Tyr & Arg (Fig.1).

3.2 Three types of hotspots: weak, moderate and strong hotspots

The difference in preference of hotspot residues between PPI and PPepI dataset are not very much evident with the overall frequency distribution (Fig. 1). Therefore, we tried to cluster the dataset obtained from residue scanning. The data clustering suggested the possible clusters may be 3 to 5. Upon manual examination and observing the trends, it was considered reasonable to divide the hotspot residues into approximately three different types. The difference of hotspot residues was found to be most pronounced in the following three approximately different [?][?]G ranges, we refer them as weak hotspots (loss in [?][?]G in 2-10 kcal/mol range), moderate hotspots ([?][?]G in 10-20 kcal/mol range) and strong hotspot ([?][?]G >20 kcal/mol).

Out of 3732 hotspots, a great majority of 68.7% (2565) belong to weak hotspot type. For PPI dataset, Gln, Leu Tyr are the most preferred. This is followed by Asn, Val, Lys, Glu, Ser and Pro, which also have substantial presence at the PPI interface. In contrast, in PPepI, Leu and Tyr are the most preferred hotspot residues with Leu having an overwhelming contribution in the distribution. Val, Thr, Pro and Ile also possess large frequencies in the distribution (Fig. 2). Thus, among weak hotspot type, in PPI, the high occurrence is observed for polar residues followed by hydrophobic residues and minor fraction of charged residues are also present. On the other hand, in PPepI data, hydrophobic residues are more preferred as compared to polar residues. Somewhat similar trend was observed for anchor residue in PPI category was observed, even though there are very few data observed in weak type. Frequency distribution for Gln is the highest followed by Asn and Lys. In PPepI, the paucity of data precluded us for any reliable predictions.

The data for moderate type ([?][?]G in 10-20 kcal/mol) is shown in Fig 3. About 25.4% of data (949) belong to moderate hotspot type. In contrast to the weak type, Arg is overwhelmingly present (~18%) followed by Tyr (~12%) even though Lys and Leu also possess sizable frequencies (about 10%) in the distribution. Thus, the distribution in PPI category is dominated by charged and polar residues and minor fraction of hydrophobic residues are also present. In contrast, the distribution of PPepI data is dominated by substantial presence of polar (Tyr), hydrophobic (Leu, Ile) and charged (Arg) residues. Among the anchor residues in PPI, Leu is dominant followed by Arg, Tyr and Gln. However, in PPepI, highest frequencies were observed for only hydrophobic residues Leu, Ile, Val and Phe.

Out of 3732 hotspots, only 5.8% (218) belong to the strong hotspot type. The strong hotspot type is completely dominated by Arg residue being the single most dominant residue in PPI occupying frequency of $^{2}42\%$. For PPepI category, Arg followed by Trp are the dominant residues, occupying frequencies of $^{2}6\%$ and $^{2}0\%$, respectively (Fig. 4). Again for anchor residues, similar trend was observed in PPI with Arg predominantly present. For PPepI, Arg and Trp are preferred residues. Other than Arg, the bulky hydrophobic side chain of Trp also serves as suitable candidate for anchor residue in PPepI category.

Thus, going from the weak to the strong hotspot types, the PPI and PPepI categories tend to close the gap. In the weak type, differences are prominent with polar residues followed by hydrophobic and minor fraction of charged residues in PPI; hydrophobic followed by polar residues in PPepI category. Moving towards the moderate category, the nature of interactions shift towards the polar side in PPI with dominance of charged and polar residues. Hotspot nature in PPepI categories is represented by all three types of residues – polar, hydrophobic and charged. Finally, in the strong type, only Arg dominate the distribution in PPI, and in PPepI Arg as well as Trp are overwhelmingly present (Table 3).

3.3 Uniqueness of Arg, Tyr and Leu makes them favourite residues for interaction

Dividing the hotspots into a three different types has revealed the subtle characteristic patterns of hotspots. Arg is the clear choice among the strong types of hotspots and anchor residues in either of the proteinprotein and protein-peptide interfaces. Why Arg is the highly preferred hotspot and anchor residue for interactions? The overwhelming presence of Arg residue as hotspot at the interacting interface stems from a multitude of facts [10]. The guanidinium group of Arg is one of the weakliest hydrated cations due to charge delocalization. This makes the Arg side chain easier to bury [46] as compared to other hydrophobic residues [47]. The anchor residue calculations suggest the predominant occurrence of Arg with Δ SASA (unbound – bound) area ranging from 101-205 Å², quantitatively indicating that it has the ability to substantially bury its surface. Buried Arg side chain has several advantages as compared to other residues. It is charged, extensively hydrogen-bonded (can donate up to 5 hydrogen bonds), having high pK, high flexibility to interact, and also possess the ability to interact by stacking with other planar side chain groups in proteins [46, 48, 49]. Thus among 5-charges residues, Arg was selected in nature to mediate protein-protein and protein-peptide interactions.

Similarly, examining the overall trend (Fig. 1 and Table 2), Tyr and Leu are highly preferred ones among polar and hydrophobic residues. These amino acids possess a striking balance of flexibility, rigidity and steric bulk. The amino acids having sufficient steric bulk and flexibility is required to generate a structurally plastic regions enabling the binding interface to mold itself to optimize complementarity. Additionally, the physicochemical properties of tyrosine i.e. amphipathic and bulky side chain, which is capable of forming nonpolar, hydrogen-bonding, cation- π and π - π stacking interactions, making it one of the most effective polar residues for mediating molecular recognition [50].

3.4 Multiple factors govern the interaction of hotspot residues

To examine the predominant forces governing the interaction for the hotspot residues, it would be worthwhile to correlate [?][?]G values of hotspot residues with respect to changes in various types of interactions upon mutation. Multiple linear regression analysis was carried out to examine the correlation between [?][?]G values with energy contributions from Coulomb, lipophilic, hydrogen bonding, van der Waal's interactions, packing desolvation, entropy and surface complementarity. Strong correlation exists (in the range of 0.9 -1, with p-value close to 0) between the binding affinity [?][?]G and its components ([?][?]G of Coulomb, lipophilic, hydrogen bonding, van der Waal's interactions and desolvation). Notably, these interactions contribute in equal proportion in the making of hotspot residues and no single factor predominantly governs over other in the hotspot characteristics across all three weak, moderate and strong types. As peptide has binding characteristic similar to protein-ligand interactions, some degree of correlation (~0.1) was also observed between [?][?]G and its component [?][?]G (surface complementarity) in PPepI.

CONCLUSION

Peptides and peptidomimetics are straightforward alternatives to protein-based biologics due to multiple advantages of larger shelf life, feasibility of oral delivery, flexibility of optimization, screening and synthesis. The knowledge of subtle differences between protein-protein and protein-peptide interactions should aid in the effective design of peptide-based biologics. In the present study, we have focussed on two important class of residues, namely, hotspot and anchor residues, to characterize differences between protein-protein and protein-peptide interactions.

Using implicit solvation-based free energy calculations, alanine scanning has been extensively performed on benchmarking datasets and hotspot and anchor residues were identified, which has revealed many interesting findings. The presence of sizable population (about 65%) of hotspot residues at the interface of the complex suggest that nature has remarkably optimized a great majority of the interface residues responsible for protein-protein interactions during evolution. It turned out that the differences in the two categories - PPI and PPepI are readily apparent, once we group the hotspot data into three distinct types, namely - weak hotspots (having binding free energy loss upon Ala mutation, $\Delta\Delta G$ in 2-10 kcal/mol range), moderate hotspots ($\Delta\Delta G$, 10-20 kcal/mol) and strong hotspots ($\Delta\Delta G$, 20 kcal/mol and higher). Correlation studies using MLR suggest that calculated free energy of binding of hotspot directly correlate with coulomb, lipophilic, hydrogen bonding, van der Waal interactions and desolvation penalty and no specific preference of any of the factor(s) over other was observed across all three types of hotspots. The analysis suggests that for PPI the preference is charged and polar followed by hydrophobic residues while for PPepI it is polar and hydrophobic followed by charged residues. In PPI, weak hotspots are predominantly populated by polar and hydrophobic residues. The distribution shifts towards charged and polar residues for moderate type, and charged residue (Arg) is overwhelmingly present in the strong type. In contrast, in the protein-peptide dataset, the distribution shifts from predominantly hydrophobic & polar (in the weak type) to more or less similar preference for polar, hydrophobic and charged residues and finally the charged residue (Arg) and Trp are mostly occupied in the strong type. Similar trend has been observed for anchor residues in both categories. The present work is an attempt to characterize and distinguish PPI and PPepI, focussing on two important class of residues. Further work is required to facilitate the discovery of new generations of peptide and peptidomimetic modulators. which can be utilized in the effective design of biologics.

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