

# **Computational Investigation of Voltage-gated Sodium Channel**

## **β3 Subunit Dynamics**

William Glass, Anna Duncan and Philip C. Biggin<sup>\*</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Structural Bioinformatics and Computational Biochemistry, Department of Biochemistry, University of Oxford, South Parks Road, Oxford, OX1 3QU, United Kingdom.

<sup>\*</sup>To whom correspondence should be addressed.

Email: philip.biggin@bioch.ox.ac.uk

Tel. +44 1865 613305

Fax. +44 1865 613238

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## Abstract

Voltage-gated sodium ( $\text{Na}_v$ ) channels form the basis for the initiation of the action potential in excitable cells by allowing sodium ions to pass through the cell membrane. The  $\text{Na}_v$  channel  $\alpha$  subunit is known to function both with and without associated  $\beta$  subunits. There is increasing evidence that these  $\beta$  subunits have multiple roles that include not only influencing the voltage-dependent gating but also the ability to alter the spatial distribution of the pore-forming  $\alpha$  subunit. Recent structural data has shown possible ways in which  $\beta 1$  subunits may interact with the  $\alpha$  subunit. However, the position of the  $\beta 1$  subunit would not be compatible with a previous trimer structure of the  $\beta 3$  subunit. Furthermore, little is currently known about the dynamic behaviour of the  $\beta$  subunits both as individual monomers and as higher order oligomers. Here, we use multiscale molecular dynamics simulations to assess the dynamics of the  $\beta 3$ , and the closely related,  $\beta 1$  subunit. These findings reveal the spatio-temporal dynamics of  $\beta$ -subunits and should provide a useful framework for interpreting future low-resolution experiments such as atomic force microscopy.

## Introduction

Voltage-gated sodium ( $\text{Na}_v$ ) channels are the initiators of action potentials in electrically excitable cells and are also implicated in many disease and pathological states including cardiac arrhythmia (1), epilepsy (2, 3) neuropsychiatric disorders (4) and chronic pain (5-8).  $\text{Na}_v$  channels are comprised of an  $\alpha$  subunit that forms the central pore-conducting region and  $\beta$  subunits that perform various roles such as modulating the voltage sensitivity and regulating the trafficking of the channel. In humans, there are 10  $\alpha$  and 4  $\beta$  subunits (the  $\beta 1$  subunit gives rise to two isoforms,  $\beta 1$  and  $\beta 1B$ ) that are expressed in different tissue-specific combinations, thus giving precise regio-selective control of the  $\text{Na}_v$  channel behaviour. Additionally,  $\beta$  subunits also function independently as cell-adhesion molecules (CAMs) (9-11) and may play a role in  $\text{Na}_v$  channel clustering at the nodes of Ranvier (12) to promote the propagation of the action potential.

As perhaps might be expected given its central role in sodium ion conduction, most attention has been paid to the  $\alpha$  subunit. However, *in vivo*, the effects of the  $\beta$  subunits are increasingly recognized and may well offer alternative therapeutic routes in the long run (13). For example, the  $\beta 1$  subunit has been shown to stabilize the  $\text{Na}_v 1.7$  channel against mechanical stress (14) and has been shown to have diverse roles with respect to its interactions with  $\text{Na}_v$  channels (15). People with mutations in the  $\beta 3$  subunit (*SCN3B gene*) show cardiac conduction problems (16) and in mice deletion of *SCN3B* leads to cardiac arrhythmias (17, 18). The *SCN3B* gene has also been linked to Brugada syndrome (19).

Although the  $\beta 1 - 4$  isoforms all share a similar scaffold of an extracellular immunoglobulin (Ig) – like fold with a single transmembrane (TM) helix and unstructured intracellular domain, their binding to the  $\alpha$  subunit differs. Both  $\beta 2$  and  $\beta 4$  bind covalently (11, 20), via a disulfide bond, whilst  $\beta 1$  and  $\beta 3$  bind non-covalently. It has previously been shown that  $\beta 3$  subunits can trimerize via their Ig domains and can also induce higher order oligomerization of  $\text{Na}_v$  channel  $\alpha$  subunits (21). Increasingly, there is evidence to suggest that sodium channels may in fact operate in higher order complexes (22) and can also form complexes with many other proteins involved in a variety of signalling pathways (23).

The  $\alpha$  subunit itself is constructed from four homologous domains (DI – DIV), each containing six TM helices (helices 1 – 4) that make up the voltage sensor domain (VSD) and pore-forming domain (helices 5 & 6). The exact location of where  $\beta$  subunits bind to the  $\alpha$  subunit is uncertain, additionally the exact ratio of  $\alpha$ : $\beta$  subunit is also not very well characterised and may vary depending on tissue type and the cellular environment (24). Evidence from experimental fluorescence studies suggests that both the  $\beta 3$  and  $\beta 1$

subunits can bind to the  $\alpha$  subunit and may alter the rate of fast inactivation through interaction with the VSDs of DIII and DIV respectively (25). Interestingly, recently released structures of  $\text{Na}_v$  channels with  $\beta$  subunits bound all contain  $\beta$  subunit density in this region. The first of the eukaryotic structures with a  $\beta$  subunit bound was that of  $\text{Na}_v$  1.4 from Electric Eel by Yan *et al* (26), solved at a resolution of 4 Å. Here the fully resolved  $\beta$ 1 subunit interacts via its transmembrane domain (TMD) and Ig domain with the VSD of DIII and extracellular loops of the  $\alpha$  subunit respectively. Shortly after, the nearly identical human structure of  $\text{Na}_v$  1.4 was solved by Pan *et al* (27) with  $\beta$ 1 again bound to the VSD of DIII at an improved resolution of 3.2 Å. In another cryo-EM structure this time with the human  $\text{Na}_v$  1.7  $\alpha$  subunit, not only could the position of  $\beta$ 1 be resolved, but also the position of  $\beta$ 2 and various toxin molecules (28). These structures offer an insight into not only the various states the  $\alpha$  subunit occupies in its activation profile but also where  $\beta$  subunits may bind. In these structures the  $\beta$ 1 subunit is bound to VSD DIII, usually on the periphery of the  $\alpha$  subunit. At this stage, it remains unclear as to whether site of binding is consistent between  $\alpha$  subunits or indeed whether the binding interactions for  $\beta$ 1 will be the same for  $\beta$ 3 (25). Interestingly, it was recently reported that human  $\beta$ 1 subunit can also interact with the bacterial NaChBac channel (29) although the mode of interaction was not discussed.

Despite the plethora of recent structural information, several aspects regarding the role of the  $\beta$  subunits remain unclear. What is the dynamic behaviour of  $\beta$ -subunit monomers? Do they oligomerize, and if so, how? How does the trimeric Ig domain structure of  $\beta$ 3 relate to the position and orientation of the  $\beta$  subunits observed when in complex with the  $\alpha$  subunits? To try and address these questions, we have used multiscale molecular dynamics simulations. We show that although  $\beta$ 1 and  $\beta$ 3 exhibit a relatively high sequence identity (51%), the behaviour of the monomers is quite different, with  $\beta$ 3 being more dynamic than  $\beta$ 1. We attribute this to distinct residue – lipid contacts in the Ig domains of both subunits. We also demonstrate that the lipid composition is likely to have a key role in controlling the dynamical behaviour.

## Methods

### 1. Homology Models

#### 1.1 $\beta 3$ Monomer

The recent cryo-EM structure of the  $\beta 1$  subunit in the human  $\text{Na}_v 1.4$ - $\beta 1$  complex (27) (PDB: 6AGF) was used to construct a model of the human  $\beta 3$  subunit. Sequence alignment was performed using the MUSCLE web server (30) with the full length human  $\beta 3$  and the  $\beta 1$  cryo-EM structure sequence with a sequence identity = 51% (see **SI Fig. S1** for sequence alignment and domain annotation). A total of 200 models were created with each model scored using Discrete Optimised Protein Energy (DOPE) in the Modeller software package (31). The 10 best models were ranked using Qualitative Model Energy ANalysis (QMEAN) (32) and the final model chosen with the highest QMEAN score.

#### 1.2 $\beta 1$ Monomer

The model used for  $\beta 1$  simulations was constructed directly from the  $\text{Na}_v 1.4$ - $\beta 1$  structure (27), since all residues had been resolved. All mutations in the Ig domain and linker (see **Table 1**) were performed in PyMol (33).

#### 1.3 $\beta 3$ Trimer

The crystal structure of the trimeric  $\beta 3$  subunit (21) (PDB: 4L1D), containing just the extracellular region, was used as a template to construct a model of the trimeric extracellular region of  $\beta 3$ . A total of 200 models were created with each model scored using DOPE in the Modeller software package (31). The 10 best models were ranked using QMEAN (32) and the final model chosen with the highest QMEAN score.

#### 1.4 Full length $\beta 3$ Trimer

Over the course of the simulations of the  $\beta 3$  monomer model (**Methods 1.1**) a large variety of conformations were visited. To construct the  $\beta 3$  trimer model a frame from the first run was taken at a pitch angle of  $44.7^\circ$  with the long axis of the Ig domain approximately perpendicular to the plane of the membrane. This was overlaid with each chain of the  $\beta 3$  crystal structure containing just the extracellular domain (ECD) (see **Methods 1.3**). After the model was constructed it was checked for no steric clashes, of which there were none. All overlays were performed in PyMol (33).

## 2. Molecular Dynamics (MD) Simulations

All atomistic simulations were performed using GROMACS 2018 (34) with the AMBER ff99SB-ILDN force field (35). Protein models constructed with a membrane were prepared using the InflateGRO (36) methodology and in-house scripts used for final adjustments. Equilibration steps of each system consisted of solvation using the TIP3P water model and neutralisation using 150 mM NaCl, energy minimisation using the steepest decent algorithm and a short (1 ns) and long (5 ns) equilibration whilst position restraining the Ca atoms with a force constant of  $1000 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ . All simulations were carried out in the NPT ensemble. The temperature and pressure were set to 300 K and 1 bar using the Nosé-Hoover thermostat (37, 38) and Parrinello-Rahman barostat (39) with coupling constants of 0.8 and 5.0 ps respectively.

All coarse-grained (CG) simulations were performed using GROMACS (34) 2019 with the MARTINI (v2) force field (40). Each CG protein was embedded in a membrane using the INSANE (41) methodology. For each system, energy minimisation was performed with the steepest decent algorithm. Equilibration steps consisted of solvation using the non-polarisable MARTINI water model and neutralisation using 150 mM NaCl, followed by a short (20 ns) and long (100 ns) equilibration whilst position restraining backbone atoms with a force constant of  $1000 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ . All simulations were carried out in the NPT ensemble at a temperature of 323 K and pressure of 1 bar. The V-rescale (42) temperature and Berendsen pressure coupling (43) were used for short equilibrations with coupling constants of 1.0 and 8.0 ps respectively. The V-rescale temperature coupling and Parrinello-Rahman pressure coupling were used for long equilibrations with coupling constants set to 4.0 ps and 8.0 ps respectively. The  $6 \times 6 \times 3$  grid was constructed by tiling a unit cell of one membrane embedded protein after the previously mentioned equilibration steps in the x and y direction.

All simulations performed are summarised in **Table 1**. All atomistic simulations were performed in a 1-palmitoyl-2-oleoyl-glycero-3-phosphocholine (POPC) bilayer whilst all CG simulations were performed in a generalised mammalian plasma membrane (PM) composition from (44), where the composition of the membrane is as follows:

Upper leaflet: POPC(40):POPE(10):Sph(15):GM3(10):CHOL(25)

Lower leaflet: POPC(10):POPE(40):POPS(15):PIP<sub>2</sub>(10):CHOL(25)

Where POPE = 1-palmitoyl-2-oleoyl-glycero-3-phosphatidylethanolamine, Sph = sphingomyelin, GM3 =

monosialodihexosylganglioside, CHOL = cholesterol, POPS = 1-palmitoyl-2-oleoyl-glycero-3-phosphatidylserine and PIP<sub>2</sub> = 1-palmitoyl-2-oleoyl-glycero-3-phosphatidylinositol-4,5-bisphosphate.

**Table 1. Summary of simulations.**

Simulation	No. proteins	Bilayer composition	No. Lipids	Box size (x & y)	Duration
<i>Atomistic</i>					
$\beta$ 1 monomer	1	POPC	225	9 nm	25 x 400 ns
$\beta$ 1 monomer (Ig mutant)	1	POPC	225	9 nm	3 x 400 ns
$\beta$ 1 monomer (Ig + linker mutant)	1	POPC	225	9 nm	3 x 400 ns
$\beta$ 1 monomer (linker mutant)	1	POPC	225	9 nm	3 x 400 ns
$\beta$ 3 monomer	1	POPC	225	9 nm	25 x 400 ns
$\beta$ 3 trimer	3	POPC	506	13 nm	3 x 400 ns
<i>Coarse-grained</i>					
$\beta$ 3	36	PM	10,080	52 nm	3 x 10 $\mu$ s

### 3. Ig Orientation Analysis

Assessment of the Ig domain's favoured orientation was achieved by calculating the principal axes (PAs) at each frame and measuring the Tait-Bryan angles using the standard basis  $e_x, e_y, e_z$  as a reference (where  $e_x = (1,0,0)$ ,  $e_y = (0,1,0)$ , and  $e_z = (0,0,1)$ ). In order to calculate the PAs the centre of mass was taken as the centre of mass of secondary structures contained within the Ig domain (i.e. the  $\beta$ -sheets and 3-10 helices). This was chosen to minimise any noise associated with flexible loop movement over the course of the simulation. The PAs  $p1, p2$  and  $p3$  were obtained via the diagonalization of the moment of inertia tensor,  $I$ .

$$I = \sum_{i=1}^N m_i \left[ (r_i \cdot r_i) \sum_{\alpha=1}^3 e_{\alpha} \otimes e_{\alpha} - r_i \otimes r_i \right] \quad \text{Eq. 1.}$$

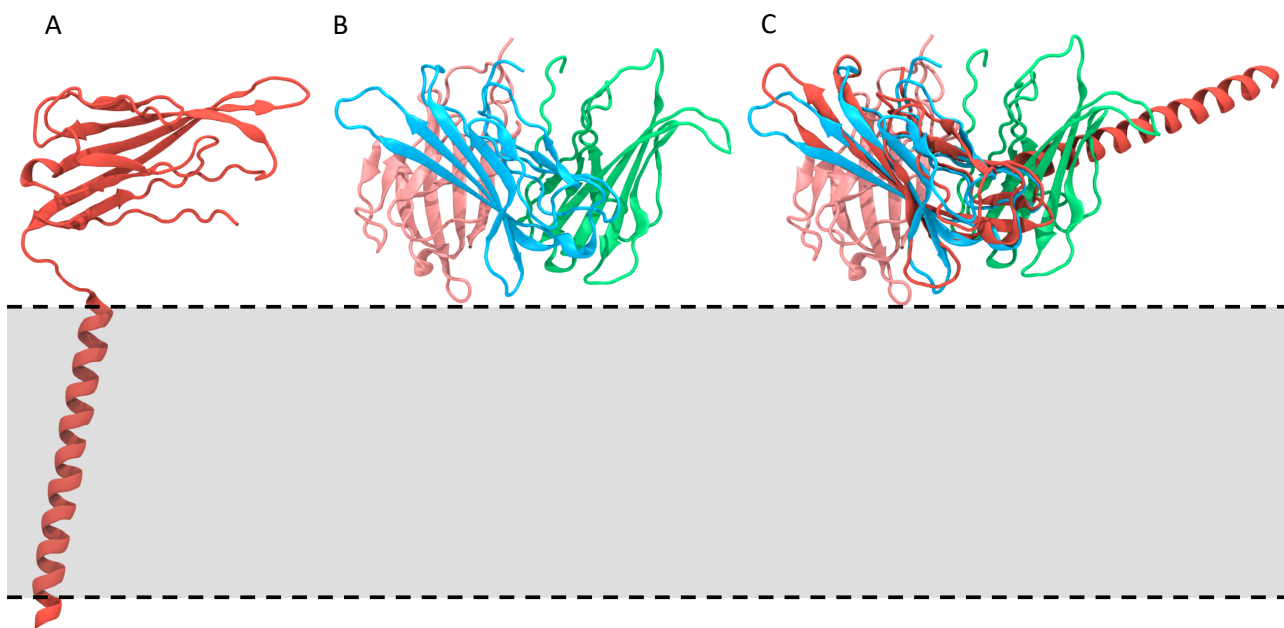
$$\Lambda = U^T I U \quad \text{Eq. 2.}$$

Where  $U = (p1, p2, p3)$  and  $\Lambda$  is a diagonal matrix of eigenvalues that correspond to the principal moments of inertia. At every frame, the first, second, and third principal axes were used to define a rotation matrix (based on the direction cosine matrix between each principal axis and the reference basis) and from this the Tait-Bryan angles computed. Using an intrinsic rotation formalism of ZYX the yaw, pitch, and roll angles were defined. In this study we focus on the pitch angle in relation to the Ig domain. All angle analysis was produced from in-house python scripts utilising the SciPy 1.2.1 module and are available at [https://github.com/bigginlab/protein\\_orientation](https://github.com/bigginlab/protein_orientation).

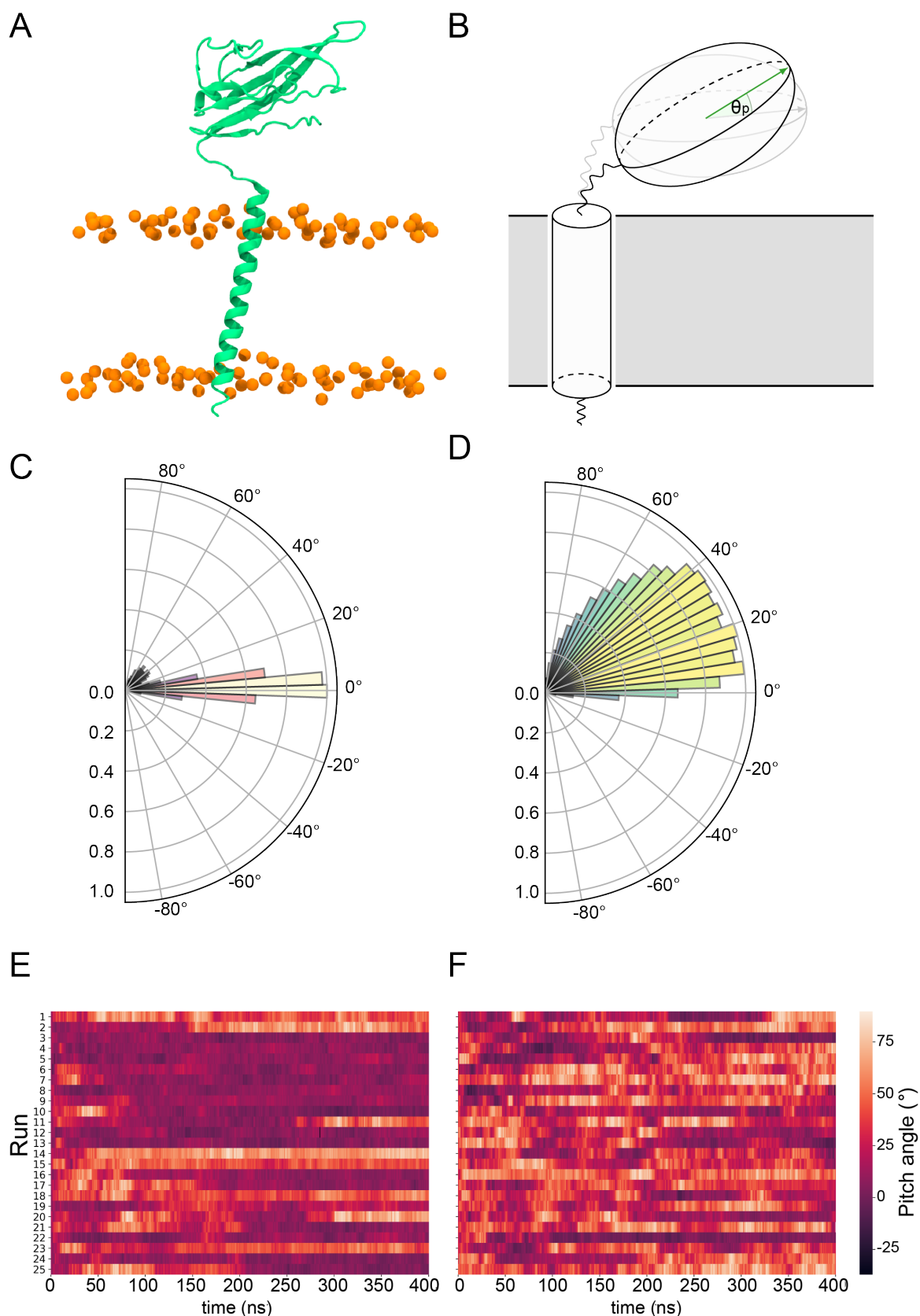
## Results

### Dynamics of $\beta 1$ and $\beta 3$ interactions with the membrane

The recent structures of the  $\text{Na}_v$   $\alpha/\beta$  subunit complexes revealed the  $\beta 1$  Ig domain to adopt a conformation such that the long axis of the strands sits roughly parallel to the membrane surface (see **Fig. 1B**). We noted at this point that if full-length  $\beta 3$  subunits adopted the same trimeric structure as observed for the Ig domain (from  $\beta 3$ ) only (**Fig. 1A**) (21), their interaction with the membrane would most likely require some substantial conformational re-arrangement (**Fig. 1C**). Thus, we investigated the dynamic behaviour of full-length monomeric  $\beta 1$  and  $\beta 3$  in a POPC bilayer system using 20 replicas of 400 ns unbiased MD simulations.



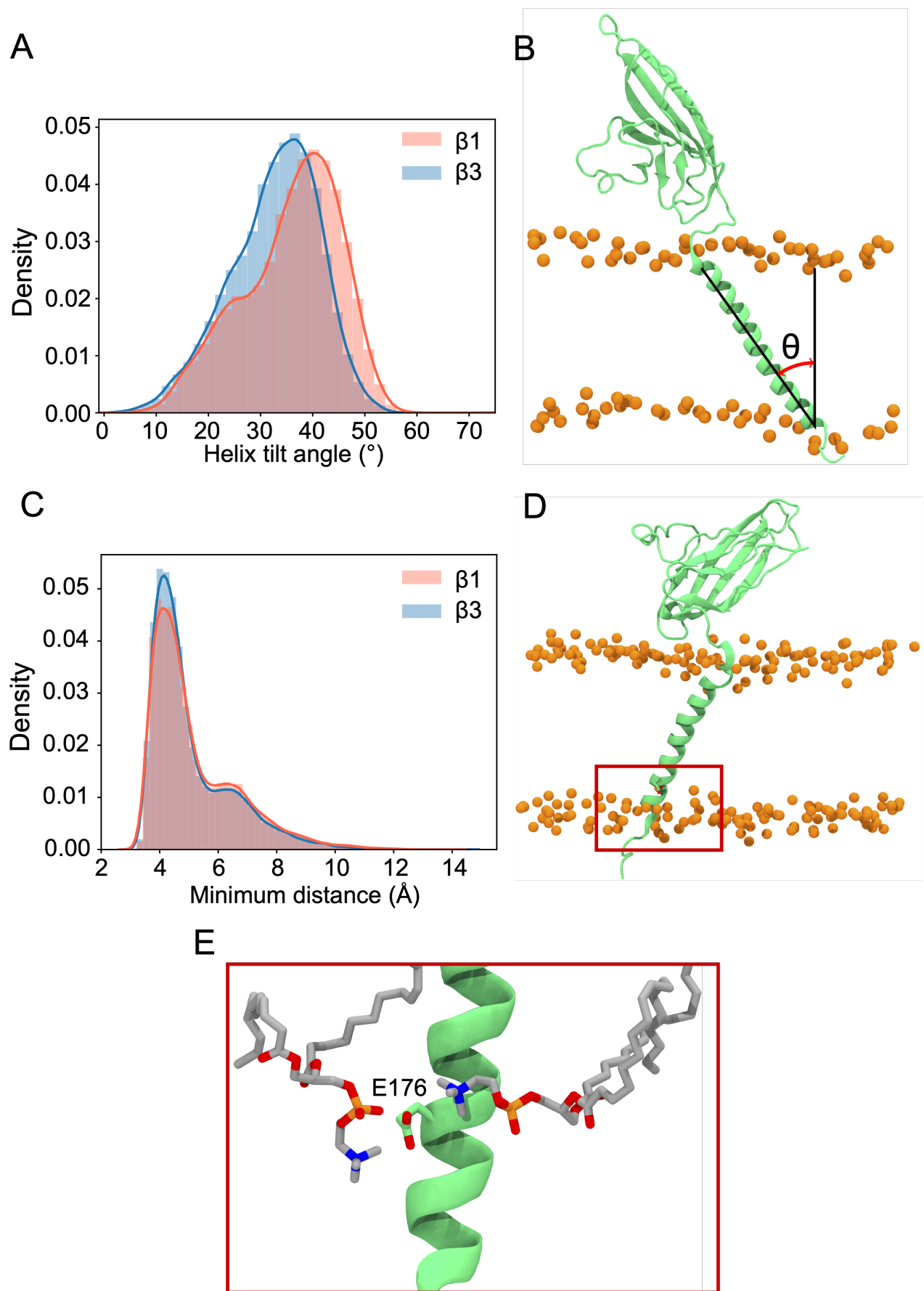
**Figure 1. Orientations of the  $\beta 1/3$  subunit on the membrane.** (A) The  $\text{Na}_v$   $\beta 1$  subunit complex, highlighting the orientation and interaction of the  $\beta 1$  subunit with respect to the membrane (PDB: 6AGF, (27)). (B) Structure of the trimeric Ig domain from  $\beta 3$  (PDB: 4L1D, (21)) (C) Overlay of the trimeric  $\beta 3$  Ig domain on the Ig domain of the  $\beta 1$  subunit, demonstrating the anticipated position of the TM domains and suggesting that these conformations are not compatible. The approximate location of the membrane is indicated by a grey box and dotted lines.



**Figure 2. Pitch angles of the  $\beta 1/3$  Ig domain.** (A) The starting conformation of the  $\beta 1$ . (B) Schematic illustrating the pitch angle,  $\theta$  (see **Methods 3** for precise definition). (C) Histogram of the pitch angles visited of over 400 ns x 25 runs of the  $\beta 1$  – subunit. (D) Histogram of the pitch angles visited of over 400 ns x 25 runs of the  $\beta 3$  – subunit. (E) Heatplot of pitch angles over 400 ns in the  $\beta 1$  subunit. (F) Heatplot of pitch angles over 400 ns in the  $\beta 3$  subunit.

We examined the behaviour of the Ig domain, in terms of the “pitch” with respect to the Ig domain in the first frame of each simulation (see **Methods 3** and **Fig. 2A-F**). Perhaps surprisingly, the behaviour of the Ig domains in terms of the pitch is very different for  $\beta 1$  compared to  $\beta 3$  despite a high sequence identity (see **Methods 1.1**). A pitch angle of  $0^\circ$  corresponds to an orientation parallel to the membrane plane and typically bound to the membrane surface. For  $\beta 1$  simulations, the pitch remains tightly clustered around  $0^\circ$ , with only a few runs exhibiting significant sojourns into higher pitch angles. In contrast, for  $\beta 3$  there is a wide variety of pitch states visited when analysing all the repeats with a favoured pitch angle centred around  $30^\circ$ . Individual runs (**Fig. 2F**) also appear to show more dynamic movement of the Ig domain within runs.

Our  $\beta 3$  model was constructed from the recent  $\beta 1$  cryo-EM structure (see **Methods 1.1**) in which, when bound to the  $\alpha$  subunit, positions the TM helix approximately parallel to the bilayer normal. However, during simulations, both  $\beta 1$  and  $\beta 3$  TM helices adopt a significant tilt angle (**Fig. 3A,B**), leading to a classic bell-shaped curve with a peak around  $40^\circ$  for  $\beta 1$  and  $38^\circ$  for  $\beta 3$ . These are quite large tilt angles compared to many TM proteins (45). Common to both  $\beta 1$  and  $\beta 3$  is a conserved glutamic acid residue (E177 and E176 in  $\beta 1$  and  $\beta 3$  respectively) that is located, somewhat surprisingly, within the lower part of the TM helix. Visual inspection of the trajectories suggested that it may play a role in maintaining the tilt angles. Analysis of the bilayer around this residue (**Fig. 3 C,D and E**) reveals that as the TM helix tilts there is a distortion of the membrane around E177 / E176 in the lower leaflet where the carboxylic acid group of the side chain can interact with the positively charged  $\text{NH}_3^+$  group of POPC.



**Figure 3: Tilting and position of E177 ( $\beta 1$ ) / 176 ( $\beta 3$ ) in the  $\beta$  subunit transmembrane helix domain. (A)**

*Histogram of TMD tilt angles over 25 x 400 ns simulations of the  $\beta 1$  (red) and  $\beta 3$  (blue) subunits. (B) Schematic of the angle used to measure the tilt angle in the TMD, phosphorus atoms of the POPC bilayer are shown as orange spheres. (C) Histogram of minimum distances between E177 ( $\beta 1$ ) / E176 ( $\beta 3$ ) (centre of mass of sidechain oxygens) and the nitrogen atom of the surrounding POPC headgroups over 25 x 400 ns. The shoulder at a distance of 7 Å reflects the initial starting coordinates with the glutamic acid placed within the lower leaflet lipid tails. (D) Position in the membrane of the conserved glutamic acid residue (highlighted inside a red box) in the  $\beta 3$  subunit after 400 ns. (E) Closer look at E176 ( $\beta 3$ ) in (D) with two nearby POPC residues interacting with the terminal oxygen atoms of the residue.*

Further analysis of the contacts made between  $\beta$  subunits and the membrane (**Fig. 4**) suggested that for  $\beta 1$  (**Fig. 4A and SI Fig. S2**), the longest-lived interactions between the extracellular domain (ECD) and the membrane are, as perhaps might be expected, localized to polar residues and in particular, arginine and lysine residues. During analysis, a residue was considered to be in contact with the membrane surface if the centre of mass of its side chain was within 5 Å of a phosphorus atom in the lipid headgroup. Protein – lipid contacts for each residue were calculated across all repeats and used to define the protein – lipid interaction density. The contacts seem to favour one “face” of the Ig domain, partially exposing the hydrophobic V27, V29, and P30 residues that are responsible stabilising the observed Ig domain trimerization away from the Ig body in  $\beta 3$ . For the  $\beta 1$  TM region, the longest-lived interactions are localized towards the end of the helix and again feature lysine residues K183 and K184 as well as Y164 and Y182.

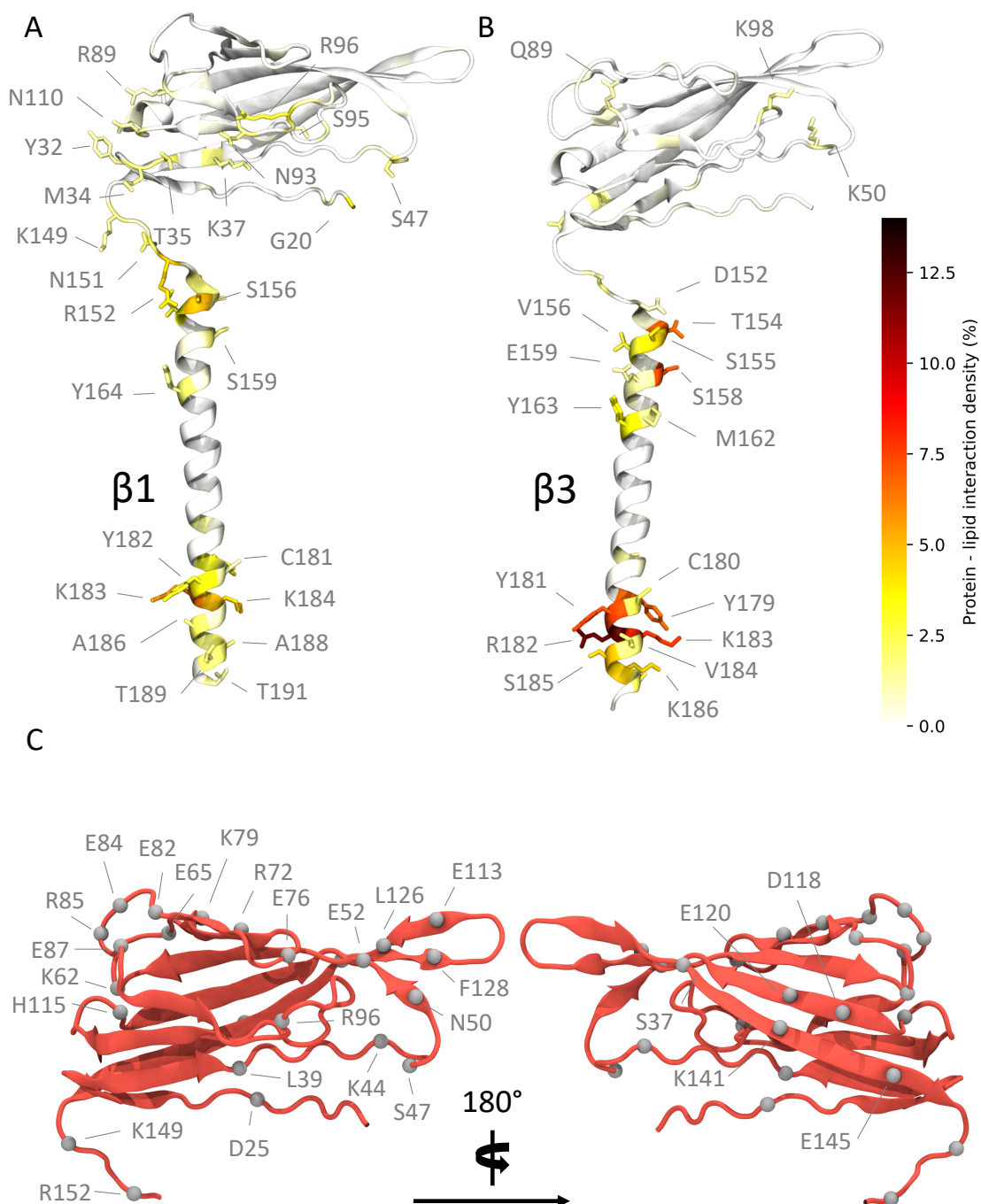
In contrast, the Ig domain of  $\beta 3$  exhibit fewer regions of high contact, as expected from the analysis shown in **Fig. 2** where this domain exhibits orientations that place it away from the membrane surface. The contacts made (**Fig. 4B and SI Fig. S2**), when in close proximity to the membrane, are again dominated by arginine and lysine residues (K50, K98 and R144). The longest-lived interactions from the TMD region are located at the intracellular end where a cluster of positively charged residues (R182, K183 and K186) interact with the phosphate headgroups, interestingly these residues exhibit strong local bending, possibly due to the preference for these residues to interact with the bilayer.

At this point the extent of non-conserved residues was analysed in both the  $\beta 1$  and  $\beta 3$  sequences, with a particular focus on charged residue differences in the Ig and linker domains between both subunits (**Fig. 4C**). There are a total of 25 residue differences that are summarised in **Table 2**. In order to investigate the likely contribution that charged residues make to the observed differences between Ig domain orientation a series of systems were constructed (see **Table 1** for simulation details). Firstly, the residues present in the  $\beta 1$  subunit Ig domain were mutated to the corresponding residue in  $\beta 3$  if they differed in charge, referred to as

$\beta 1$  Ig<sub>mut</sub> hereafter. A second system was also prepared with two mutations in the linker (K149E and K152E), in addition to ones applied in the Ig domain ( $\beta 1$  Ig<sub>mut</sub> + linker<sub>mut</sub>). Finally, a system with only the linker mutated ( $\beta 1$  linker<sub>mut</sub>) was prepared to assess what impact the linker has on  $\beta 1$  Ig domain dynamics.

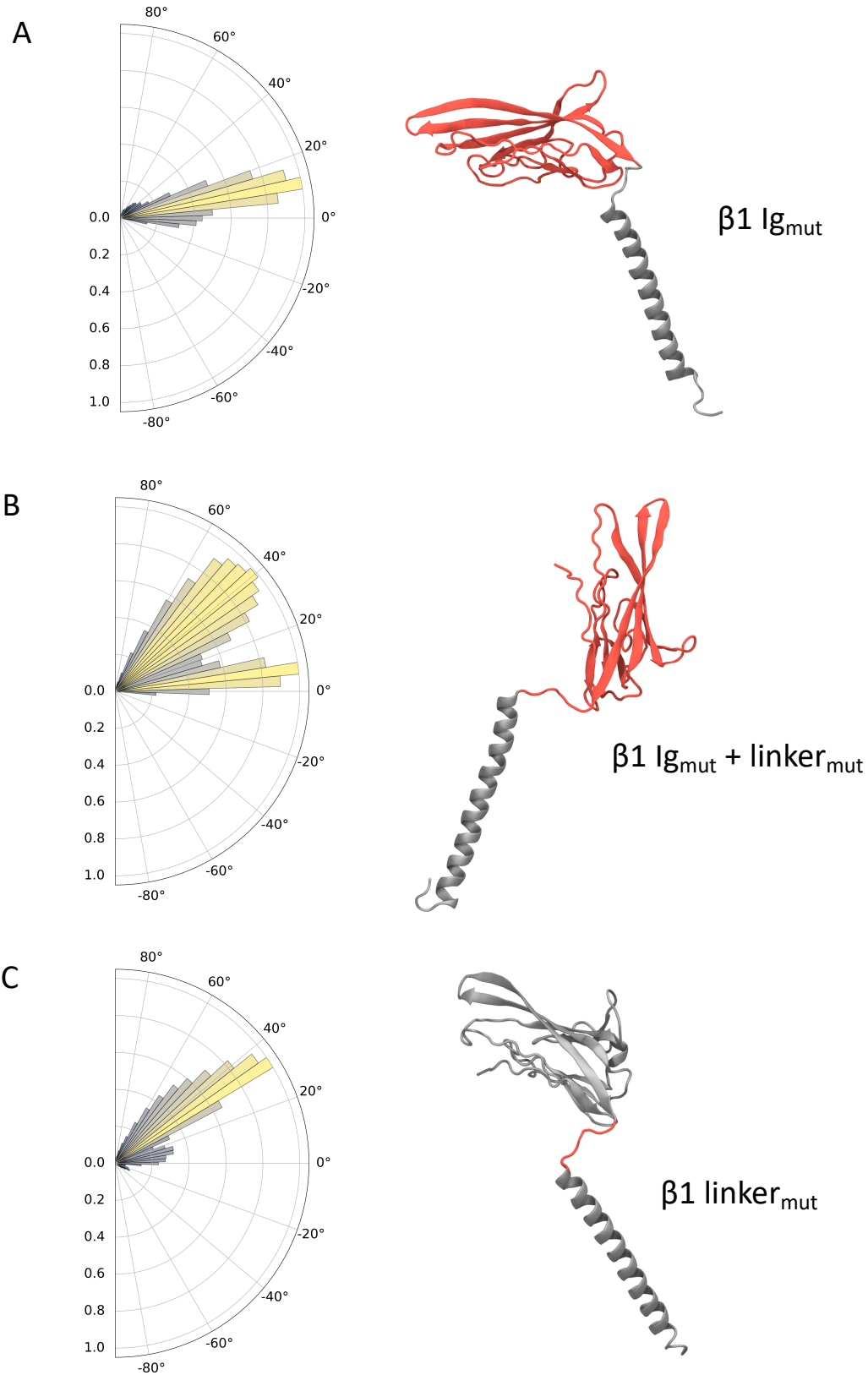
**Table 2. Charged residue differences between the  $\beta 1$  and  $\beta 3$  subunit Ig domains**

Residue in $\beta 1$		Equivalent residue in $\beta 3$	Mutation performed
	<i>Ig domain</i>		
D25		P30	D25P
L39		R44	L39R
K44		M49	K44M
S47		E52	S47E
N50		E55	N50E
E52		T57	E52T
K62		E67	K62E
E65		K70	E65K
K69		I74	K69I
R72		-	R72A
E76		R78	E76R
E82		V84	E82V
E84		S86	E84S
R85		P87	R85P
E87		Q89	E87Q
R96		-	R96A
H115		D114	H115D
D118		L117	D118L
E120		T119	E120T
L126		E125	L126E
F128		E127	F128E
E133		R132	E133R
S137		K136	S137K
K141		L140	K141L
E145		R144	E145R
	<i>Linker</i>		
K149		E148	K149E
R152		E151	K152E



**Figure 4. Regions of high interaction on the  $\beta$  subunit with a POPC membrane and non-conserved residues between subunits.** (A) Regions of frequent interaction on the  $\beta 1$  subunit. (B) Regions of high interaction on the  $\beta 3$  subunit. The ECD of  $\beta 1$  exhibits more frequent regions of contact when compared to  $\beta 3$ . (C) Non-conserved residues (shown as grey spheres) in the  $\beta 1$  subunit Ig and linker domains (some labels omitted in right hand image for clarity).

The effects of mutations in the domains of each  $\beta 1$  system ( $\beta 1$  Ig<sub>mut</sub>,  $\beta 1$  Ig<sub>mut</sub> + linker<sub>mut</sub>, and  $\beta 1$  linker<sub>mut</sub>) reveal distinct dynamics (**Fig. 5**) and hint at the regions responsible for differences observed in pitch angles between WT  $\beta 1$  and  $\beta 3$ . The charge swaps within the Ig domain of  $\beta 1$  Ig<sub>mut</sub> cause a slight increase in pitch angle to approximately 10° with respect to WT  $\beta 1$  (**Fig. 5A**). In  $\beta 1$  Ig<sub>mut</sub> + linker<sub>mut</sub> the addition of K149E and K152E mutants in the linker drastically increase the sampled angles to values around 45°. Also present is another population close to WT  $\beta 1$  and  $\beta 1$  Ig<sub>mut</sub> values, indicative of the Ig domain parallel to the membrane plane (**Fig. 5B**). When applying only K149E and K152E in  $\beta 1$  Ig<sub>mut</sub> + linker<sub>mut</sub>, the pitch angles populate values close to 40° with a smaller population at 10° reflecting an Ig domain pitch angle somewhere between membrane-bound and perpendicular to the membrane plane (**Fig. 5C**). In addition to changes in Ig domain pitch with the K149E and K152E mutants there is also a tendency for the linker to become more linear as well as distinct changes in the Ramachandran plots at D148, located at the “hinge” before the start of the Ig domain (**SI Fig. S3**).



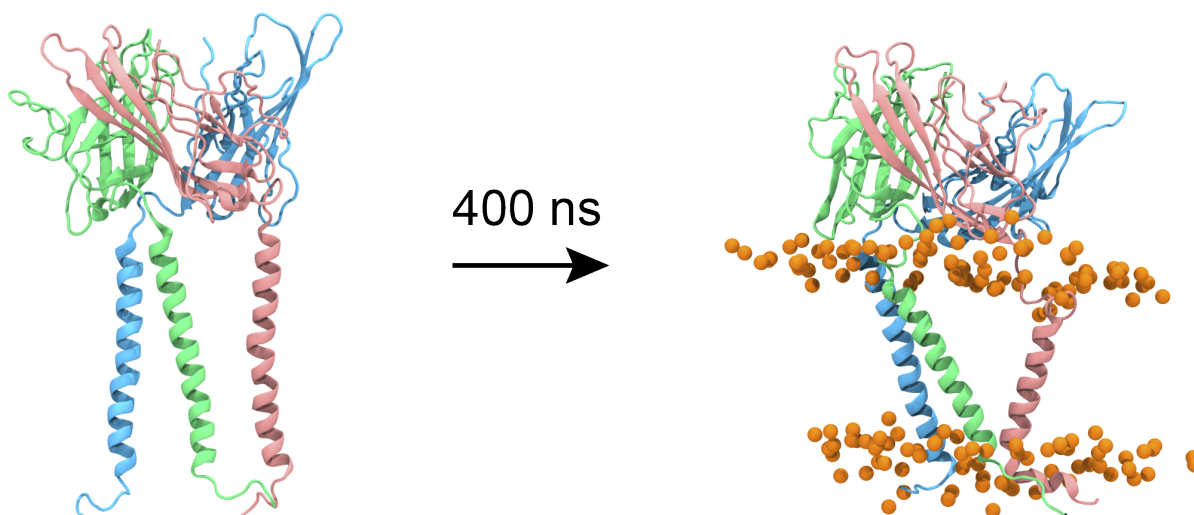
**Figure 5. Ig domain dynamics in the mutated  $\beta 1$  subunit.** Pitch angle analysis of the (A)  $\beta 1$  Ig<sub>mut</sub>, (B)  $\beta 1$  Ig<sub>mut</sub> + linker<sub>mut</sub>, and (C)  $\beta 1$  linker<sub>mut</sub>. Snapshots of  $\beta 1$  conformations for each system are shown with mutated domains indicated in red.

### Full-length $\beta 3$ trimeric model dynamics

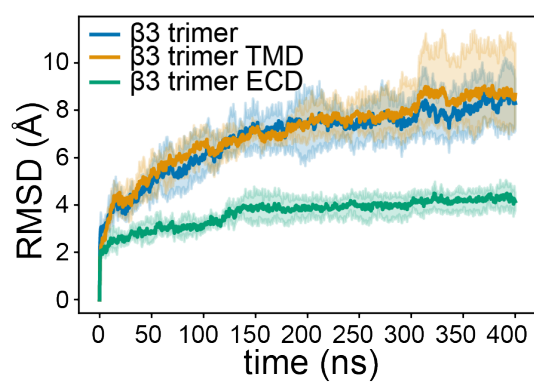
Recently there have been several high-quality cryo-EM structures of full length  $\beta$  subunits bound to the  $\alpha$  subunit of  $\text{Na}_v$  channels (25-28). However, the trimeric crystal structure of  $\beta 3$  (21) lacks the TMD and its role, if any, to observed  $\beta$ -subunit clustering remains elusive. To investigate the role of the transmembrane domain in  $\beta 3 - \beta 3$  interactions and vice-versa, a trimeric model was constructed using the ECD  $\beta 3$  trimer and the transmembrane domain of the  $\beta 3$  monomer (see **Methods 1.4**). A total of three repeats of 400 ns atomistic MD were performed. As expected the extracellular trimeric structure remained intact and conformationally stable throughout the simulations (**Fig. 6A, B**) and remained in an “upright” position on top of the membrane surface. The TM helices on the other hand were much more mobile (and indeed dominate the overall C $\alpha$  RMSD (**Fig. 6B**)). Visual inspection of the trajectories revealed that the TM helices exhibit considerable lateral movement with respect to each other and appear to adopt significant tilt compared to the starting conformations. Analysis of the helical tilt angles (**Fig. 6C**) confirms the adoption of significant tilt but also reveals that the helices can adopt a range of different tilt angles with a significant proportion centred around  $\sim 12^\circ$  and another around  $\sim 26^\circ$ . Even though there are strong preferences for these particular tilt angles, each helix is still able to visit the whole range of tilt angles from 0 to just over  $40^\circ$ . Note that for monomeric  $\beta 3$  (**Fig. 3A**) the distribution was a classic bell-shaped curve centred around  $38^\circ$  suggesting that in the trimer, the tilt angle is, as might be expected, restricted by the tethering to the ECD.

We next analysed the interaction of the protein with the lipid membrane. The interactions in the TM region (**Fig. 6D and SI Fig. S4**) are very similar to those observed for the  $\beta 3$  monomers. There was also a significant amount of interaction between the bottom face of the ECD and the membrane (**Fig. 6E and SI Fig. S4**), mediated in the main by positively charged residues, but not exclusively so by any means.

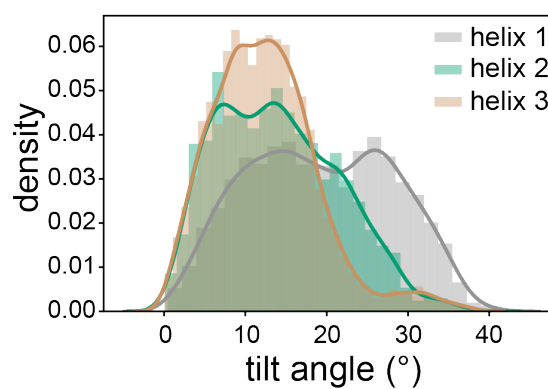
A



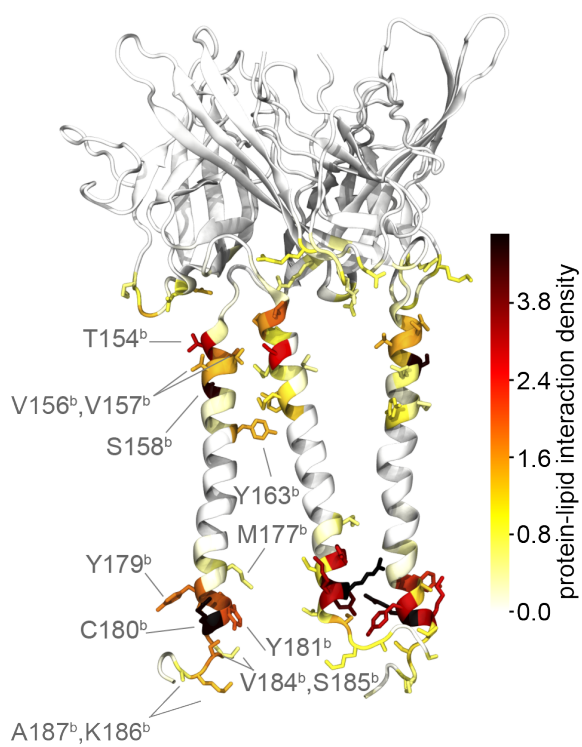
B



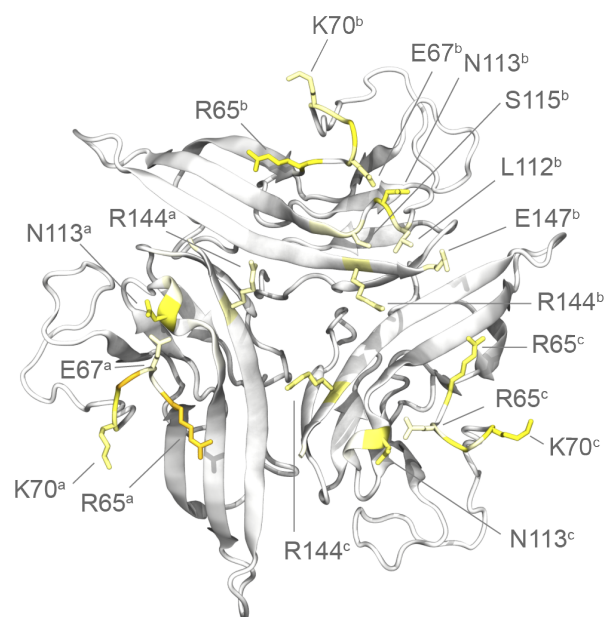
C



D



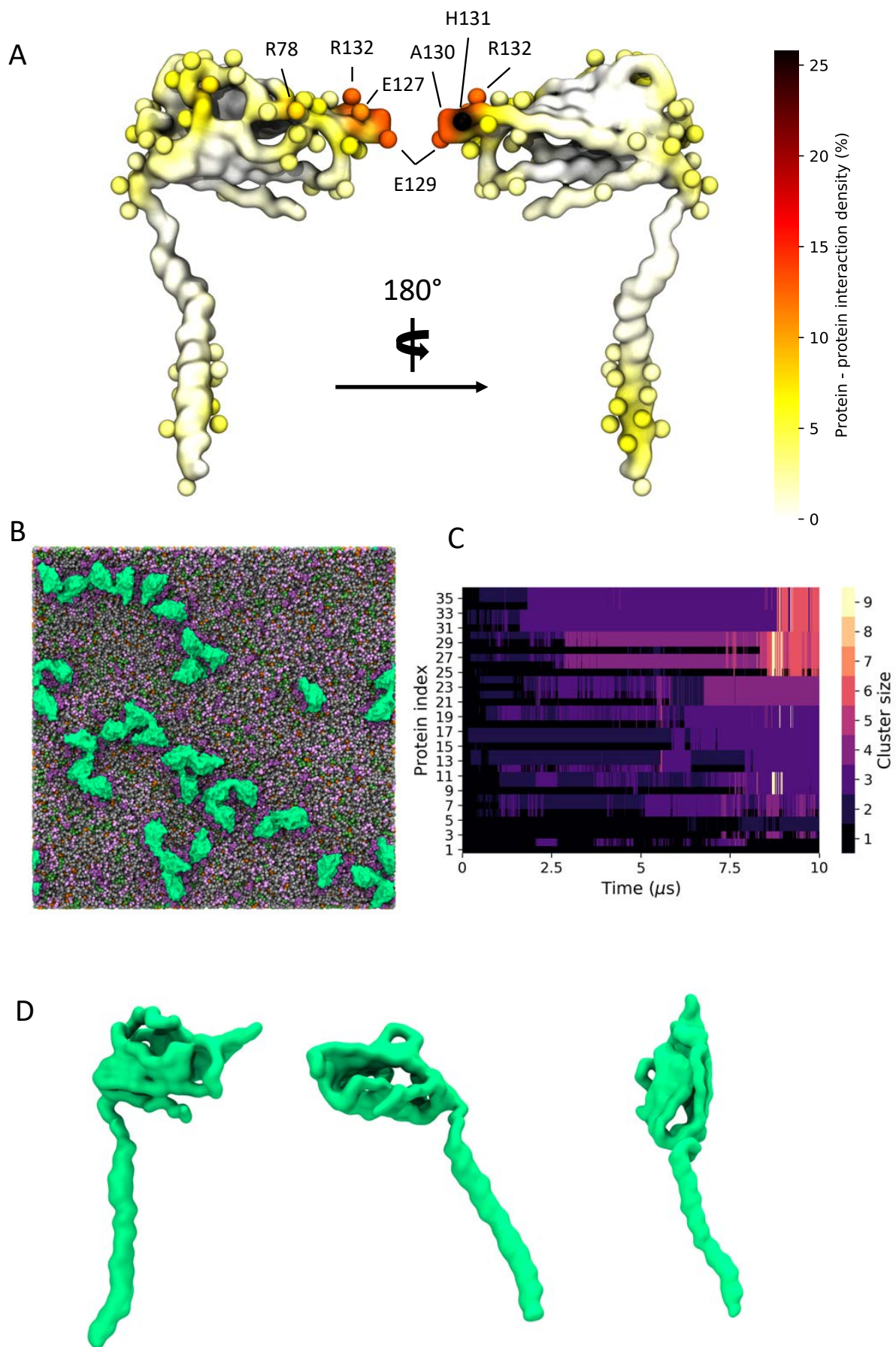
E



**Figure 6. Trimeric model of full-length  $\beta 3$ .** (A) Shows the initial configuration with TM helices that almost parallel to the membrane normal. During the simulation, the TM helices adopt tilted orientations and the ECD domain continues to sit in a similar position to the initial configuration. (B) Average C $\alpha$  RMSDs (from three runs) for the whole trimer (blue), the TM domains (orange, residues F153 to E189 of each subunit), the ECD only (green line). Pale background reflects one standard deviation. (C) Distribution of tilt angles for the three helices in the trimer. (D) Probability density coloured from white to red to black mapped onto the structure to show the lipid-protein interactions. (E) shows the key residues of the ECD that form interactions with the membrane. In both (D) and (E) different protein monomers are indicated in superscript.

### Clustering of $\beta 3$ Subunits in a Realistic Membrane Model

Given the recent observation from atomic force microscopy that  $\beta 3$  monomers could aggregate and form higher-order oligomers including dimers and trimers (21), we set up CG MD simulations to investigate how such oligomers might come together (see **Methods 2**). We set up a large membrane with a composition that replicated an endothelial cell (**Fig. 7A**) and inserted 36 copies of the  $\beta 3$  subunit model and ran three independent simulations for 10  $\mu$ s each.  $\beta 3$  subunits were indeed observed to form high-order oligomers (**Fig. 7B**). The size of the clusters was analysed over the course of each run and it was found that the cluster size tended to be present as a monomer or dimer with a significant population of higher order clusters (**Fig. 7C**).

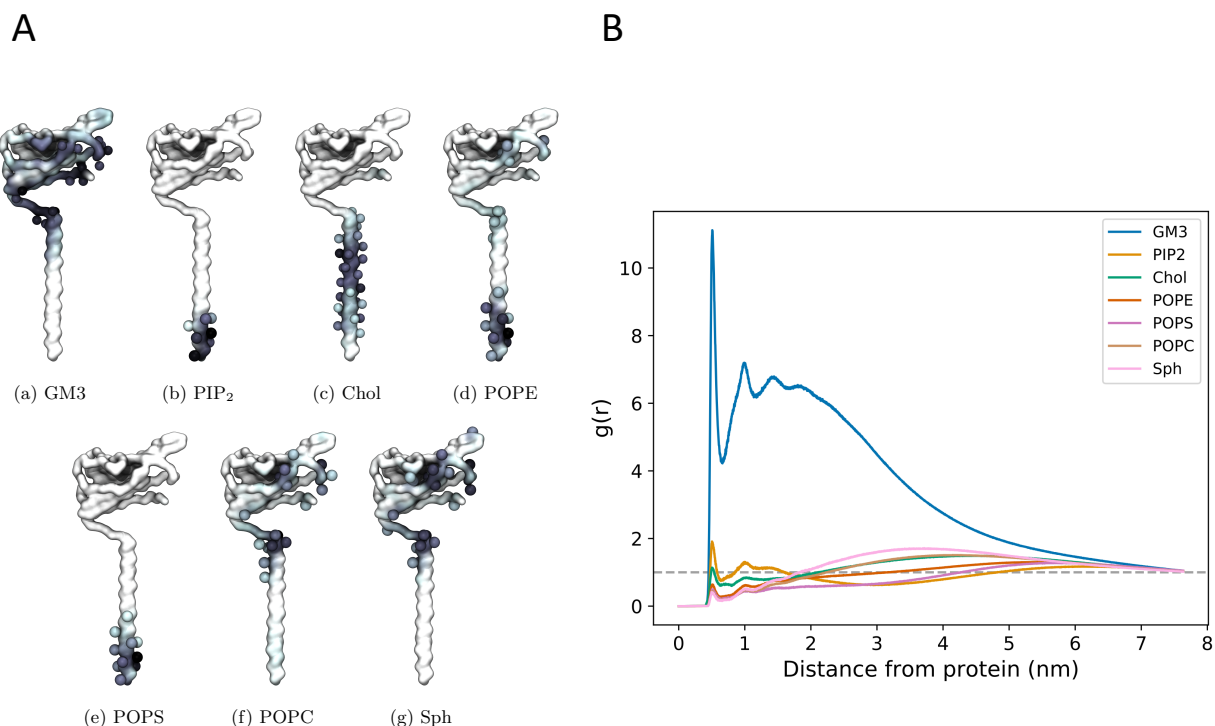


**Figure 7.  $\beta$ 3 clustering in a general mammalian membrane. (A) Regions of high protein - protein contact**

visualised on the  $\beta 3$  subunit surface coloured as a probability undergoing an interaction with another protein. Spheres indicate residues with total interactions above 2.5% of the total time. **(B)** Typical clustering of  $\beta 3$  subunits (green) in a mixed lipid membrane (viewed from the extracellular side). Lipid species are coloured as indicated in (A). **(C)** Evolution of  $\beta 3$  clusters over a 10  $\mu$ s simulation. Lighter colours indicate higher order clusters. **(D)** Distinct conformations of the  $\beta 3$  subunit involved in clusters. From left to right: down, intermediate, and up states.

Long, fibril-like structures were formed in all repeats, with the Ig domains often making tip-tip interactions in a manner reminiscent of the interactions between the DIP and Dpr neuronal recognition proteins (46). Protein – protein contacts were measured over the three repeats. There are typically high regions of interaction on the last ~10 residues in the TMD region of the  $\beta 3$  subunit as well as contacts present in the Ig domain. High regions of contact include residues 128 – 135 that correspond to the FEAHRPFV loop, at the “tip” of the Ig domain, located between the F and G  $\beta$  strands (see **SI Fig. S1** for strand labelling) of the Ig domain (**Fig. 7A and SI Fig. S5**). There are also regions of interaction in the loop region of residues 79 – 82 (NGHQ) and 89 – 92 (QGRL) between  $\beta$  strands C' and D that form one face of the Ig domain (**Fig. 7A**). At the C-terminus of the TMD, residues M177, C180, Y181, K183, and V184 show regions of increased interaction between subunits. Further investigation of the Ig domains orientation on the membrane surface revealed a variety of conformations that reflect the dynamics seen in atomistic simulations. A number of protein copies were present with the long axis of the Ig domain parallel to the membrane whilst another population showed the Ig domain pointing up and away from the membrane, similar to the orientation seen in the trimeric crystal structure (**Fig 7D**).

We also investigated protein – lipid contact sites. Interactions were counted using the headgroup bead of each lipid type and a cut-off value of 6.5 Å. It can be seen (**Fig. 8A, B**) that there is a slight preference for one side (which we label Face 1) of the Ig domain to interact with the lipid membrane, most notably for GM3. The other side (Face 2) of the Ig domain retains interactions with GM3 but to a lesser extent than Face 1 (**SI Fig. S6**). The radial distribution function reflects the high levels of interaction with GM3 as well as with PIP<sub>2</sub> and cholesterol where the latter two interact with the TMD.



**Figure 8. CG  $\beta 3$  interactions in a mixed lipid membrane. (A)** Protein – lipid interactions visualised on the CG  $\beta 3$  model. The first side chain particle of residues that account for over 2.5% of the total interaction time are shown as spheres. **(B)** Radial distribution function of the distribution of lipids surrounding  $\beta 3$  subunits in the generalised mammalian membrane.

## Discussion

### $\beta$ Subunit Monomers Exhibit Distinct Differences

Although similar in sequence and underlying fold, the behaviours of the  $\beta 1$  and  $\beta 3$  subunits in the membrane exhibit some striking differences. Our simulations suggest that the extracellular domain of the  $\beta 3$  subunit is much more dynamic than  $\beta 1$ . In contrast to the  $\beta 1$  subunit structure from Pan *et al* (27), the Ig domain of the  $\beta 3$  subunit samples several pitch states (see **Fig. 2**), with only a few corresponding to the  $\beta 1$ -like cryo-EM structure. Conversely, the  $\beta 1$  subunit simulations provide evidence for a more restricted Ig motion, with the long axis of the Ig domain parallel to the membrane plane in 60 % of the simulations performed. This increased membrane interaction may go some way to explain why  $\beta 1$  has a decreased propensity to form higher order oligomers, since the Ig domain is restricted to lie close to the membrane surface. The interaction in the  $\beta 1$  cryo-EM structure (27) between the ECD and top of VSDIII involves the conserved C21

– C43 disulphide bond. This orientation of the ECD in this cryo-EM structure is quite similar to the orientation we observe for  $\beta 1$  monomers in the membrane and thus we hypothesize that a monomer moving from the membrane to interact with an  $\alpha$  subunit would only require a small change in conformation. Clearly, electrostatic interaction between the Ig domain and membrane surface will contribute to the preferred Ig orientation that both  $\beta 1$  and  $\beta 3$  adopt. Charge swap mutations in the  $\beta 1$  subunit for those present in  $\beta 3$  supports this (see **Table 2** and **Fig. 5**). Mutations performed within the Ig domain have a small effect on Ig domain pitch, however the addition of two mutations (K149E and K152E) in the linker cause  $\beta 3$  Ig domain dynamics to be partially recovered in  $\beta 1$ . The linker's contribution to Ig dynamics is somewhat reduced when only K149E and K152E mutations are present in  $\beta 1$  and suggests that, although important, the difference in dynamics between both  $\beta 1$  and  $\beta 3$  may be a compound effect within both the Ig and linker domains of both subunits.

### ***The Transmembrane Helix Undergoes a Large Tilt***

In both the  $\beta 1$  and  $\beta 3$  models there is a slight shortening of the transmembrane domain as well as the large helical tilt in the membrane. In the cryo-EM structure (27), this region of the  $\beta 1$  subunit has the lowest resolution of around 4.2 Å and we hypothesise that the TMD region of the  $\beta$  subunit may indeed be flexible until any hydrophobic mismatch with the bilayer is optimized either by TM helix tilting or helix bending. The tilting in both  $\beta 1$  and  $\beta 3$  is facilitated in part by the presence of a glutamic acid (see **Fig. 3**). This glutamate is highly conserved and is found in both  $\beta 1$  and  $\beta 3$  sequences. Given its unusual position, it has been argued that it is likely to have functional significance and indeed has been investigated within  $\beta 1$  (47) and  $\beta 3$  (21, 48). It also seems that for a full-length model based upon the trimeric  $\beta 3$  crystal structure of the ECD to be adopted in the context of a lipid bilayer system, the TMD helices of our model must change their tilt with respect to the membrane normal.

### ***Behaviour of the Trimer***

A major difference between monomeric and trimeric  $\beta 3$  lipid interactions is in the Ig domain. As part of a trimer, the Ig domain is no longer able to sample large pitch states due to the favourable hydrophobic interactions in the N-terminus of each chain. As such, the lipid interaction between the Ig trimer is markedly reduced when compared to the monomer with only a few charged residues (R65, E67, and K70) interacting with the membrane surface. Interestingly if the  $\beta 3$  subunit were to interact with the VSDs of the pore-forming  $\alpha$  subunit in a similar fashion to  $\beta 1$  there would need to be substantial rearrangement of the Ig domains. This

leads to the question of what, if any, the role of the TMD helices could play in  $\alpha - \beta$  and / or  $\beta - \beta$  interactions? Lipid contact analysis in the TMD reveals that there is little difference between the trimeric and monomeric models. Close to the Ig domain, the restriction imposed via the stable Ig trimer reduces translational motion, whereas at the intracellular end the translational motion is much more dynamic with no clear preference for residue - residue interaction between chains. These results suggest that the TMD of the  $\beta 3$  subunit does not have an overall stabilising effect on the  $\beta 3$  trimer and in fact may only be required for correct positioning within the membrane. This is in agreement with previous super-resolution microscopy data, where the density function estimated from the C-terminal mEos2-tagged  $\beta 3$  was consistent with a relatively unconstrained transmembrane helix/C terminus. This suggests that any trimerization events are likely to be controlled via the Ig domain. Additionally, when the helices of each  $\beta 3$  chain are in close proximity, the conserved E176 residue appears to be orientated away from the trimer centre and preferentially interacts with the POPC membrane. These observations are also supported by recent experimental work examining the role of E176 in  $\beta 3$  subunits, and that also concluded that oligomerization was dependent on the extracellular domain but not E176 (48).

### ***$\beta 3$ subunit clustering***

It has been previously reported (21) via the use of atomic force microscopy (AFM) and Fluorescence Photoactivated Localization Microscopy (FPALM) that the  $\beta 3$  subunits can form higher order oligomers. In particular, the AFM suggested the presence of dimers and trimers, whilst the FPALM experiments suggested the presence of a trimer in live cells. In our large CG simulations, where we try to capture the complexity of a mammalian cell membrane, we do indeed observe the formation of oligomers. The interactions between individual  $\beta 3$  subunits tends to show an “end on” interaction, whereby the tip of one Ig domain interacts with the base of another to produce long, fibril-like oligomers with a small contribution from the C-terminal end of the TMD. This leads to a slightly different picture of how the  $\beta 3$  subunits may interact compared to that arrived at by (21) who interpreted the formation of the trimers in the context of a crystal structure of the  $\beta 3$  Ig domain (and forms distinct trimers). The formation of similar, but full-length, trimers would mean that the Ig domains must frequently “lift off” the surface of the membrane (see **Fig. 5A**) and the oligomerize predominantly through the exposed flat face of the Ig domain. Although we observe movements of the Ig domain in the atomistic simulations (see **Fig. 2D**) that would be compatible with the formation of such a trimer, we observe such movements in the CG simulations only infrequently. Furthermore, such orientations (**Fig. 6**) are too short-lived relative to the time required for oligomerization via the exposed faces of the  $\beta$ -

sheets. A key difference to note here is that the atomistic simulations were performed in a POPC bilayer, whereas the CG simulations were performed in a bilayer of a more complex composition. Ideally the use of a mixed lipid membrane at an atomistic level would reveal finer protein – lipid interaction details. However, to study large scale clustering would require computational resource beyond our current capability. Visual inspection of the CG simulations suggests that the interaction of the Ig domain with the headgroup of the GM3 headgroup appears to keep the Ig domain close to the surface of the membrane. On the face of it, this may appear at odds with the interpretation by Namadurai *et al* (21). However, there is no direct atomically detailed evidence of how the full-length  $\beta 3$  subunit may come together, and the work here, presents an alternative possibility. Regardless, the results here suggest that spontaneous oligomerization of a full-length trimer, where the Ig domains adopt the crystal structure conformation, would likely be a very slow process if it does occur.

## Conclusion

In this work, we have explored the dynamics of the  $\beta 1$  and  $\beta 3$  subunit monomers with a lipid bilayer. The dynamics exhibited a remarkable and unexpected difference in behaviour of the extracellular domain, which we attribute to distinct binding patterns within the Ig domain. It will be interesting to investigate the influence of the non-conserved charged residues between both subunits in future experiments. A full-length model of a  $\beta 3$  subunit based on a trimeric structure of the Ig domain only, suggests that the TM helices do not interact particularly strongly. Finally, the CG simulations suggest that higher order oligomerization of monomers may be mediated by “end-on-end” interactions. These results should provide a useful framework on which to interpret low-resolution methods such as AFM that are examining the nature of oligomerization in ion channels. The existing agreement between experiment and simulation is encouraging.

## Data Availability Statement

All datasets generated and analysed for this study can be obtained via request to the corresponding author.

## Author Contributions

WG performed and analysed all simulations and co-wrote the manuscript. AD performed analysis and gave advice. PCB conceived the work and co-wrote the manuscript.

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### **Conflict of Interest**

The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

### **Supplementary Material**

The Supplementary Material for this article can be found online.

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## Figures Legends

**Figure 1. Orientations of the  $\beta 1/3$  subunit on the membrane.** (A) The  $\text{Na}_v$   $\beta 1$  subunit complex, highlighting the orientation and interaction of the  $\beta 1$  subunit with respect to the membrane (PDB: 6AGF, (27)). (B) Structure of the trimeric Ig domain from  $\beta 3$  (PDB: 4L1D, (21)) (C) Overlay of the trimeric  $\beta 3$  Ig domain on the Ig domain of the  $\beta 1$  subunit, demonstrating the anticipated position of the TM domains and suggesting that these conformations are not compatible. The approximate location of the membrane is indicated by a grey box and dotted lines.

**Figure 2. Pitch angles of the  $\beta 1/3$  Ig domain.** (A) The starting conformation of the  $\beta 1$ . (B) Schematic illustrating the pitch angle,  $\theta$  (see **Methods 3** for precise definition). (C) Histogram of the pitch angles visited of over 400 ns x 25 runs of the  $\beta 1$  – subunit (D) Histogram of the pitch angles visited of over 400 ns x 25 runs of the  $\beta 3$  – subunit. (E) Heatplot of pitch angles over 400 ns in the  $\beta 1$  subunit. (e) Heatplot of pitch angles over 400 ns in the  $\beta 3$  subunit. (F) Heatplot of pitch angles over 400 ns in the  $\beta 3$  subunit.

**Figure 3. Tilting and position of E177( $\beta 1$ )/176( $\beta 3$ ) in the  $\beta$  subunit transmembrane domain.** (A) Histogram of TMD tilt angles over 25 x 400 ns simulations of the  $\beta 1$  (orange) and  $\beta 3$  (blue) subunits. (B) Schematic of the angle used to measure the tilt angle in the TMD, phosphorus atoms of the POPC bilayer are shown as orange spheres. (C) Histogram of minimum distances between E177( $\beta 1$ )/E176 ( $\beta 3$ ) (centre of mass of sidechain oxygens) and the nitrogen atom of the surrounding POPC headgroups over 25 x 400 ns. The shoulder at a distance of 7 Å reflects the initial starting coordinates. (D) Position in the membrane of the conserved glutamic acid residue (highlighted inside a red box) in the  $\beta 3$  subunit after 400 ns. (E) Closer look at E176 ( $\beta 3$ ) in (D) with two nearby POPC residues interacting with the terminal oxygen atoms of the residue.

**Figure 4. Regions of high interaction on the  $\beta$  subunit with a POPC membrane and non-conserved residues between subunits.** (A) Regions of frequent interaction on the  $\beta 1$  subunit. (B) Regions of high interaction on the  $\beta 3$  subunit. The ECD of  $\beta 1$  exhibits more frequent regions of contact when compared to  $\beta 3$ . Note the colour scale differs in range for  $\beta 1$  compared to  $\beta 3$ . (C) Non-conserved residues (shown as grey spheres) in the  $\beta 1$  subunit Ig and linker domains (some labels omitted in right hand image for clarity).

**Figure 5. Ig domain dynamics in the mutated  $\beta 1$  subunit.** Pitch angle analysis of the (A)  $\beta 1$  Ig<sub>mut</sub>, (B)  $\beta 1$  Ig<sub>mut</sub> + linker<sub>mut</sub>, and (C)  $\beta 1$  linker<sub>mut</sub>. Snapshots of conformations for each system are shown with mutated domains indicated in red.

**Figure 6. Trimeric model of full-length  $\beta 3$ .** (A) Shows the initial configuration with TM helices that almost parallel to the membrane normal. During the simulation, the TM helices adopt tilted orientations and the ECD domain continues to sit in a similar position to the initial configuration. (B) Average C $\alpha$  RMSDs (from three runs) for the whole trimer (blue), the TM domains (orange, residues F153 to E189 of each subunit), the ECD only (green line). Pale background reflects one standard deviation. (C) Distribution of tilt angles for the three helices in the trimer. (D) Probability density coloured from white to red to black mapped onto the structure to show the lipid-protein interactions. (E) shows the key residues of the ECD that form interactions with the membrane. In both (D) and (E) different protein monomers are indicated in superscript.

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