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# How the central domain of dystrophin acts to bridge F-actin to sarcolemmal lipids

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(DGC) with the dystrophin protein are located in the central domain of dystrophin. The central domain is also thought to play a key role in the membrane cytoskeleton and the extracellular matrix. The central domain of dystrophin comprises 24 spectrin-like repeats, each approximately 100 residues in length, in which some spectrin-like repeats have been shown to interact with numerous partners including nitric oxide synthase (nNOS) (Lai et al., 2009), F-actin (Lai et al., 1999) and lipids (DeWolf et al., 1997; Legrand et al., 2011). The central domain was previously described as a straight and passive linker between ABD1 and ABD2. However, *in silico* (Legrand et al., 2011) and *in vitro* (Lai et al., 1999) analyses showed that the central domain can form a filamentous structure. Its filamentous structure is believed to have a role in the scaffolding of muscle cells to the extracellular matrix and the cytoskeleton (Amann et al., 1998; Sarkis et al., 2016). It also interacts with lipids (Zhao et al., 2016).

Mutations in dystrophin are the cause of Duchenne muscular dystrophy (DMD), a progressive form of muscular dystrophy. DMD is a rare genetic disorder affecting 1:5000 boys (Stark et al., 2015). It is caused by a mutation in the dystrophin gene (*DMD*) that destabilizes muscle membranes. Internal deletions or duplications of the dystrophin gene (*DMD*) that remove some or all of the spectrin-like repeats of the protein but eliminate both the amino- and carboxyl-termini of the protein cause the milder Becker muscular dystrophy (BMD) (Stark et al., 2015). As observed in BMD, DMD patients therefore can tolerate internal deletions or duplications of the central domain and the amino-terminus of the protein resulting in a more or less severe form of the disease. The severity of the disease is not only determined by the length of the protein but much more to sophisticated patterns of the shortened dystrophin (Stark et al., 2015). Therapeutic strategies are possible by skipping or correcting the mutation and expression of truncated dystrophin (Stark et al., 2015). In parallel, due to the complexity of the dystrophin gene, factors, transport and expression of the protein are called mini- or microdystrophin (Belanto et al., 2014). The precise consequences of the mutations in dystrophin are not fully understood due to a lack of knowledge of the protein's interactions. Given the complexity of the shortened dystrophin, the properties of the protein are however remaining unknown. The type dystrophin is still standing at the actin and the extracellular matrix. To analyze the function of the dystrophin, the protein is

Binding of dystrophin to the actin and the extracellular matrix. The binding of dystrophin to the actin and the extracellular matrix is now well understood (Siragusa et al., 2015). The binding of dystrophin to the actin and the extracellular matrix is a

shown on Fig.

according to the align-

Residues in italics are residual residues from a Human dystrophin (Uniprot P11532).

The R1-3 fragment was produced and described (Dos Santos Morais et al., 2018).

The DYS R11-15 (F<sub>1461</sub>-Q<sub>1973</sub>) fragm

#### 2.4. DYS R8-15 and

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Bicelles were prepared by mixing 15 mM of phospho-L-serine-N-(7-nitro-2-1,5-bisphosphoryl)-L-alanine (DMSO) and a concentration of 15 mM of lipids (~50  $\mu$ M of bicell and the [DMPC]/[DMPS] (mol/mol) ratio into maintained equal to 2 (see [Dos Santos Morais et al., 2015](#) for more information). The bicelles were titrated with a 0.1  $\mu$ M of R11-15 from 184 to 165 to 2.5–2.2  $\mu$ M. The bicelles were loaded into Monolith NT premium capillaries and thermophoresis was measured with a Monolith NT (NanoTemper). Instrument parameters were: 100% MST power, 40–60% MST power, and 5/20/5  $\mu$ M. Measurement temperature was 22 °C or 26 °C. Data were analyzed with the NT MO Affinity software (NanoTemper).

## 2.10. Actin polymerization and sedimentation

Globular actin (G-actin) was prepared as described previously ([Winder et al., 1995](#)). Actin polymerization was performed as described in ([Sarkis et al., 2015](#)). Actin was stored in G buffer (2 mM Tris, 0.5 mM dithiothreitol, 0.2 mM  $\text{CaCl}_2$  and 1 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>). Polymerization buffer (F buffer; final concentration) contained 150 mM NaCl, 2 mM ATP, 50 mM Tris, 0.5 mM dithiothreitol and allowed the polymerization of actin. Actin polymerization was assessed by sedimentation assays, 50–100- $\mu$ l of actin solution was added to ultracentrifuge tubes. The final concentration of actin was 0–150  $\mu$ M for DYS R11-15. The tubes were centrifuged for 30 min at 100,000 g. The pellets were analyzed by SDS-PAGE and stained with Coomassie blue and the amounts of protein were quantified.

## 2.11. Click-chemistry, chemical synthesis coupled with mass spectrometry

### 2.11.1. R11-15 – F-actin

F-actin and R11-15 were prepared as described previously ([Sarkis et al., 2015](#)). F-actin and R11-15 were mixed in polymerisation buffer (2 mM Tris, 0.5 mM dithiothreitol, 0.2 mM  $\text{CaCl}_2$  and 1 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>) and allowed to polymerize for 60 min at 20 °C. The polymerization was stopped by adding 1 mM EDTA and stained by Coomassie blue. The polymerization was assessed by sedimentation assays, 50–100- $\mu$ l of actin solution was added to ultracentrifuge tubes. The final concentration of actin was 0–150  $\mu$ M for DYS R11-15. The tubes were centrifuged for 30 min at 100,000 g. The pellets were analyzed by SDS-PAGE and stained with Coomassie blue and the amounts of protein were quantified.

### 2.11.2. R11-15

R11-15 was prepared as described previously ([Sarkis et al., 2015](#)). R11-15 was mixed in polymerisation buffer (2 mM Tris, 0.5 mM dithiothreitol, 0.2 mM  $\text{CaCl}_2$  and 1 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>) and allowed to polymerize for 60 min at 20 °C. The polymerization was stopped by adding 1 mM EDTA and stained by Coomassie blue. The polymerization was assessed by sedimentation assays, 50–100- $\mu$ l of actin solution was added to ultracentrifuge tubes. The final concentration of actin was 0–150  $\mu$ M for DYS R11-15. The tubes were centrifuged for 30 min at 100,000 g. The pellets were analyzed by SDS-PAGE and stained with Coomassie blue and the amounts of protein were quantified.

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### 2.12.2. SAXS data analysis

Analyses were performed as described in Deane et al. (2017). Briefly, all data processing and analysis were performed using the Scatter software (<http://www.bioisis.net/>), and the ATSAS suite (Franke et al., 2017). The distance ( $r$ ) and the maximum particle diameter (DMA) were calculated using the GNOM program. The overall ab initio models for R11-15 were obtained from the SAXS experiments in Delalande et al. Ab initio models for other fragments (R16-19) were obtained using the GASBOR program (Moras et al., 2019) where the scattering profiles were fitted to a  $q_{\text{max}}$  value of 0.15 Å<sup>-1</sup>. Following a similar protocol to the one used by Delalande et al., hundred independent GASBOR computations were performed for each scattering profile, to factor the decrease in the signal associated with the increased fragment size. The 100 best GASBOR computations, with the smallest  $R$ -factor, were converted to volume grid constraints and used for the subsequent interactive flexible fitting simulations (Molza et al., 2014). Before simulation, the molecular shape were aligned along the  $z$ -axis and then rotated 10 times around the long axis and 10 times 180° head-to-tail rotation to exchange the head and tail, performing 10 more rotations. The 100 best models (50 rotations, 2 directions) were adjusted to the data and refined by standard energy minimization. The 100 best models were selected upon evaluation of the  $R$ -factor and the  $\chi^2$  value. The models were obtained using PROCHECK (Lasker et al., 1993; Molza and Sander, 1983; Touw et al., 2017) and compared to their theoretical SAXS curves (Molza et al., 2017).

### 2.12.3. Small-angle neutron

Preparatory work was done by Garching), and PACE (Lund). Measurements were done on D<sub>2</sub>O samples-to-detector distances ranging from 4.7 to 7 Å ( $\Delta\lambda/\lambda \sim 10^{-4}$ ). The largest one, which had the longest wavelength, and 2D maps were performed in 1 mm. The results obtained are in absolute units. The buffer at 22 °C. In the rehydration was perfect buffer. The by three such MWCO 10 kDa Healthcare) lipid concentration. Valentini

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S... analyzed by ... fragments ... controls respectively. ... expected size of one ... current MW of ~100 kDa ... observed in the absence of ... DC, a 130–140 kDa band ... Fig. 1A and B and Fig.



**S1C).** In the R1-3F-actin EDC m present at 130–140 kDa, a ba multimer and no cross-linked fied. ABD1 used as a positiv actin in a ~70 kDa heterodim in **Tables S1 and Appendix**

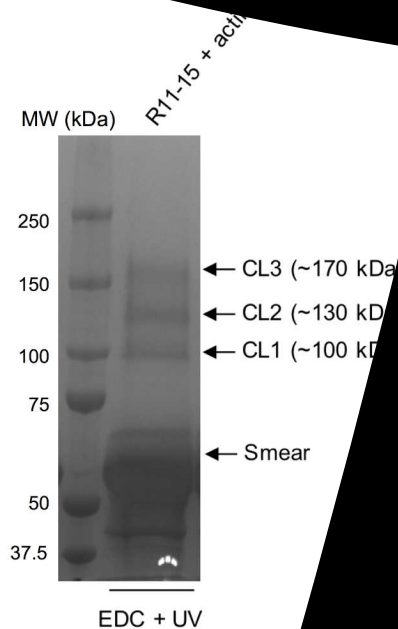
### 3.1.2. Lipid organization

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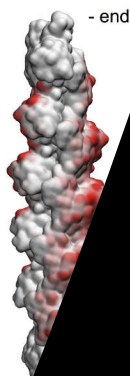




**Fig. 3.** (A) SDS-PAGE analysis of the protein mixture after incubation in the presence of an actin filament (R11-15) corresponding to one monomer of the protein. The protein is not detectable by SDS-PAGE but is detectable by mass spectrometry. (B) Peptide fragment (grey); (C) 3D model of the protein in contact with ABD2 (blue) mapped onto the protein structure.

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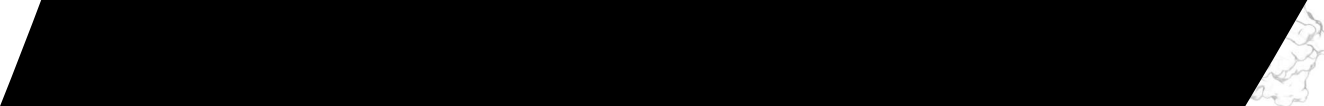
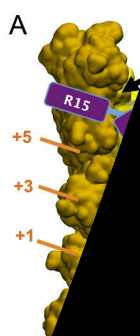
that enables the protein to function as the main linker between the repeat R12 due to its ability to undergo the disengagement of the protein from the actin filament linker. On the contrary,

ized at this stage that none of the repeats appeared at this stage that none of the contact from both repeats R11 and R15 in the same as we can hypothesize from co-sedimentation and measurements found in the literature ([Amanatova et al., 2002](#)). Nevertheless, these domains provided high quality orientations for each isolated repeat towards F-actin. They were then used as structures for final improvements incorporating

### 3.2.3. The ABD2 model could contact two different microfilament

Interactive flexible docking is a technique that allows us to explore different models as we already discussed earlier (Fig. 5A). In our interactive simulations, we explored the effect of the positioning of repeats R11 and R15 relative to the actin filament of distance (number of actin units separated) ranging from +1 to +6) and topology (same or opposite). To achieve this, we fixed either the position of repeat R15 according to the best models of the previous principle shown in Fig. 5A).

All the best models computed same type of simulations, namely restrained and the rest of the dystrophin contacts experimentally mapped, closely characterizing the main forces involved in the interaction between electrostatics should play a key role. However, the edge of the actin filament, dystrophin could also be cross-linked through specific hydrophobic interactions. In addition, comparison of contact analysis of the experimental mapping, we can conclude that the actin is ideally located on opposite sides of the dystrophin bearing the best evaluation of the contact analysis with the actin subunits along the F-actin filament. These assays have a stoichiometric ratio of 1:1 between the

[illegible]



interactions. The results are rationalized by hydrophobic interactions. The experimental mapping results as a long-chain group on the UV-photoactivable lipids is at the hydrophobic part of the lipid bilayer. Indeed, the pacFA is a long-chain fatty acid that should be buried in the bilayer part of the bicelles. The long-chain aliphatic chain carrying the clickable chemical group is not accessible to a protein on the outer toroidal surface of the bilayer due to packing defects. However, the specific binding of the protein towards anionic bicelles but not towards zwitterionic bicelles suggests that electrostatics or hydrogen bonding could be involved in the recruitment or in the stabilization of the protein on the bilayer interactions.

One major conclusion from our work is that the ABD2 domain does not overlap with the actin binding site. This is consistent with our previous work based on a pull-down assay of ABD2 bound to lipid vesicles and a negative structural model that we proposed based on experimental restraints related to the structure of the domain (DYS R4-19) and the ABD2 domain and lipids. The binding of ABD2 to lipid vesicles in sedimentation assays has a  $K_d$  of  $\sim 9 \mu\text{M}$ , which is reported previously (Amann et al., 2014). In addition to thermophoresis, we measured a sedimentation coefficient of the same ABD2 fragment. The consistency of these observations could be of a great help in understanding the context.

#### 4.3. Dystrophin actin-binding domain interacts with the actin-lipid complex

The location of the R11 in the middle of the dystrophin tether, keeping the dystrophin-sarcolemmal cytoskeleton achieved by the widely distributed dystroglycan anchoring is supported by the fact that restore part of the dystrophin models (Ramos et al., 2015). In addition, the central domain. In dystrophin. In addition, lacking large part (Ramos et al., 2015). Dystrophin could help to keep the length of the dystrophin tether believed to be a result of some loss of dystrophin hypothesis. In dystrophin people, a dystrophin between dystrophin seems to be a end of the dystrophin tether. In dystrophin established the dystrophin re-

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