Design principles for reagentless biosensors: specific fluorophore/analyte binding and minimization of fluorophore/scaffold interactions.

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Abstract

Quantifying protein location and concentration is critical for understanding function *in situ*. SuCESsFul biosensors, in which a reporting fluorophore is conjugated to a binding scaffold, can in principle detect analytes of interest with high temporal and spatial resolution. However, their adoption has been limited due to the extensive empirical screening required for their development. We sought to establish design principles for this class of biosensor by characterizing over 400 biosensors based on various protein analytes, binding proteins and fluorophores. We found that the brightest readouts are attained when a specific binding pocket for the fluorophore is present on the analyte. Also, interaction of the fluorophore with the binding protein it is conjugated to can raise background fluorescence, considerably limiting sensor dynamic range. Exploiting these two concepts, we designed biosensors that attain a 100-fold increase in fluorescence upon binding to analyte, an order of magnitude improvement over the previously best reported SuCESsFul biosensor. These design principles should facilitate the development of improved SuCESsFul biosensors.

Keywords

- Solvatochromism
- Sso7d scaffold
- Sensors
- Protein engineering
- Directed evolution

Abbreviations

Fn3, 10th type 3 domain of human fibronectin; DARPin, designed ankyrin repeat protein; NBD, nitrobenz-2-Oxa-1,3-Diazole; MBP, maltose binding protein; Sso7d, small DNA binding domain derived from *Sulfolobus solfataricus*; MSA, mouse serum albumin; TICT, twisted internal charge transfer.

Introduction

Spatial and temporal fluctuations in the level of proteins in living systems contain valuable functional information that is difficult to obtain at high resolution in a non-destructive fashion. An ideal sensor would report the concentration and localization of a target analyte in real-time without interfering with its function. Sensors such as those based on Förster Resonance Energy Transfer (FRET) couple the analyte recognition and signal transduction event into a single step and provide temporal and spatial resolution¹. However, such sensors require the introduction of two unique fluorophores into either two binders or into proteins, which undergo large conformational changes upon binding. In 1964, Burr and Koshland introduced a novel concept in which an environment-sensitive fluorophore is coupled to a single analyte-specific binder². Changes in the environment of the fluorophore (such as solvent shielding) upon analyte binding transduce the binding signal into a fluorescence read-out. Several groups have reported the development and application of this class of biosensors, with the historical label of “reagentless biosensors”^{3–8}. Due to the illogic of this previous nomenclature (since the sensor is itself a reagent), in this work we have termed this class of engineered molecules as SuCESSful (Scaffold Conjugated to Environment Sensitive Fluorophore) biosensors.

Currently, SuCESSful biosensors are designed in three steps. First, a binder is engineered against the intended target using established display technologies^{9–12} and multiple scaffolds^{13–15}, ideally with tailored binding kinetics and affinity¹⁶. The second step is careful choice of the labeling site. Three rules have been established for this process: the residue must be: 1) exposed to solvent, 2) non-perturbing to the analyte/scaffold interaction, and 3) close to the binding epitope. This last step remains challenging as it is somewhat at odds with the second rule. Finally, a fluorophore is conjugated to a specific site on the binding protein using established chemical¹⁷ or enzymatic¹⁸ techniques. Typically, cysteines are introduced at the desired labeling position via site-directed mutagenesis and conjugated to thiol-reactive fluorophores. Unfortunately, the growth in reports of

1 SuCESSful biosensors has not been commensurate with their promise, perhaps due to as-yet poorly
2 defined limitations of the design process.
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5 In this work we have designed over 400 SuCESSful biosensors against various analytes using
6 multiple scaffolds and fluorophores, but found that successful designs with significant dynamic signal
7 range (above two-fold) were quite rare, which is quantitatively consistent with the literature. In this
8 study, we investigated both the analyte-bound and unbound states and assessed the mechanisms
9 accounting for bright fluorescence in the bound state and dim fluorescence in the unbound state.
10 First, from an in-depth characterization of the strongest sensor previously reported (dynamic range
11 10-15-fold from bound to unbound⁴), we discovered that a specific binding pocket for the
12 fluorophore on the analyte greatly enhanced the fluorescence in the bound state. Second, we found
13 that fluorophores conjugated to locally stable scaffold structures generate lower background signal
14 in the unbound state. Combining these observations, we devised sensors with up to 100-fold
15 dynamic range, the most responsive sensors reported to date for protein analytes. In future studies,
16 application of these two design principles for minimizing unbound fluorescence and maximizing
17 bound fluorescence via specific interactions should facilitate the development of useful sensors to
18 enable the study of dynamic fluctuations of proteins in living cells and tissues.
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Results

Successfully designed SuCESsFul biosensors are rare.

We evaluated the dynamic signaling range of 426 different binder/fluorophore/analyte combinations to establish the underlying distribution of performance for this class of SuCESsFul biosensors. We generated numerous novel binders based on the 10th type 3 domain of human fibronectin (Fn3)¹⁹, and also reproduced published results for several previously described SuCESsFul biosensors, including the Designed Ankyrin Repeat Protein (DARPin) clone Off7 against maltose binding protein (MBP)⁴ from *E. Coli*. To obtain Fn3-based binders, the G4 yeast library was selected against biotinylated Betacellulin (BTC) and Epidermal Growth Factor (EGF) following standard procedures²⁰. The lead binders showed single-digit nM dissociation constants (supplementary Fig. S1A-C), and the EGF binder was specific (Supplementary Fig. S1D) and competitive with EGFR binding (Supplementary Fig. S2). In addition, based on literature precedent, we investigated four additional Fn3s, each recognizing MBP²¹, the Src SH3 domain⁵, the Abl SH2 domain²², and Hen Egg Lysozyme²³ (Fig 1A). Next, we selected conjugation sites for various solvatochromic fluorophores, which had been applied previously in SuCESsFul biosensors: Nitrobenz-2-Oxa-1,3-Diazole (NBD), 6-Bromoacetyl-2-Dimethylaminonaphthalene (Badan), 1,5-IAEDANS, 5-(((2-Iodoacetyl)amino)ethyl)amino)Naphthalene-1-Sulfonic Acid (IAEDANS), 2-(4-maleimidylanilino)naphthalene-6-sulfonic acid (MIANS), 4-N,N-dimethylamino-1,8-naphthalimide (4-DMN-1,2,3,4 and 5), and 4-dimethylaminophthalimide (4-DMAP) (Supplementary Table S4 and Fig. S3) on each of these scaffolds. The choice of fluorophore conjugation site was intended to position the solvatochromatic fluorophore at the periphery of the interface without interfering with binding. Finally, the purified constructs were tested for their fluorescence properties with and without the target analyte (Fig. 1B). SuCESsFul biosensors are evaluated based on the fold-change in fluorescence between the background (F_0) and bound state (F), where F/F_0 ratios much greater than one are desired. Overall, the frequency of sensors showing a change in signal (F/F_0) greater than two-fold was

only 4.0% (17 out of 426, Fig. 1C). Our results are quantitatively consistent with the success rate found in literature (Fig. 1C). Overall, these results clearly demonstrate that the current state-of-the-art approach only rarely generates SuCESsFul biosensors with a dynamic signaling range over two-fold.

A specific binding pocket for NBD is responsible for strong fluorescence activation in an exemplary strong sensor

Given the disappointing results summarized in Fig. 1C, we undertook detailed structure/function analysis of a previously reported successful biosensor in an attempt to elucidate the underlying molecular mechanism that differentiates a successful example from the great majority of marginally useful constructs. We turned our attention to the NBD-labeled DARPin Off7 recognizing MBP, which has been demonstrated to exhibit a 15-fold difference in fluorescence upon MBP-binding⁴. To our knowledge, this represents the biosensor with the largest F/F_0 ratio published for a protein/protein interaction to date. We found that the Off7/MBP SuCESsFul biosensor showed fluorescence changes only when conjugated with the fluorophore NBD (Fig. 2A), and not with nine other solvatochromic fluorophores, which belonged to diverse structural classes, suggestive of a specific interaction between NBD and MBP, as opposed to a general nonspecific solvent-shielding mechanism. When labeled at positions N45 or T46, Off7 shows the greatest increase in fluorescence (Fig. 2A), in accordance with previously reported data⁴. Because these two labeling sites are adjacent, we hypothesized the fluorescence activation of NBD might involve a specific interaction with a binding pocket on MBP. To elucidate the nature of this interaction, we examined the crystal structure of the Off7/MBP complex (PDB code: 1SVX) and based on the dimensions of NBD (Supplementary Fig. S4A) we identified 14 amino acids within likely contact distance of NBD when labeled at positions N45 or T46. We noted that there is a small cavity at this site in the wild-type MBP (wtMBP) structure that could potentially serve as a binding site for NBD (Supplementary Fig. S4B). We constructed individual alanine mutants of MBP at each of these positions. All mutants showed similar expression

1 levels and size exclusion chromatography profiles as the wtMBP (Fig. S4C, S4D), indicating structural
2 integrity was maintained. We then measured the fluorescence signal of 300 nM NBD-labeled Off7 in
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4 the presence of 10 μ M of each of these MBP mutants. We used the M114C sensor (Fig. 2A,
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6 M114C*NBD $F/F_0 = 5$) as a control because the fluorophore is on the distal side of MBP; none of the
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8 mutations showed any effect on this sensor (Fig. 2D). For the other two labeling sites (N45, T46), we
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10 observed changes in the fluorescence intensity (Fig. 2D) and emission wavelength (λ_{maxEm})
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12 (Supplementary Fig. S4E) compared to wtMBP; the mutations with the greatest reduction of
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14 fluorescence activation are found around the cavity in MBP (Fig. 2E). In order to investigate the role
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16 of this cavity in more detail, we performed a more detailed analysis of the seven residues (Fig. 2F)
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18 forming this pocket by mutating them to smaller and larger side chains. We observed that most
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20 mutations in those cavity-forming residues resulted in strongly reduced biosensor activity (Fig. 2G).
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22 Fluorescence reductions were most pronounced for mutations to tryptophan. Importantly, the
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24 structural integrity (Supplementary Fig. S5A and B) and binding were retained (supplementary Fig.
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26 S5C). We hypothesize that when a bulky tryptophan side chain is present at residues 347, 348, or
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28 351, it fills the cavity and sterically interferes with NBD insertion into the cavity. We also identified
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30 two mutations, V347F and V347A, which enhanced the activity of the sensor, with the latter yielding
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32 a sensor with a remarkable 75-fold increase in fluorescence over background, possibly resulting from
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34 improved binding of the fluorophore to the MBP cavity. Together, these data strongly suggest that
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36 the Off7-conjugated NBD binds specifically within a hydrophobic cavity in the target analyte MBP,
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38 resulting in strong activation of fluorescence.
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47 We next sought to validate the presence of an NBD binding pocket by a library screening
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49 strategy. In an inversion of the usual binder maturation process, we matured mutants of the analyte
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51 (MBP) for increased fluorescence of the fixed Off7*NBD biosensor (Fig. 3A). We assembled four
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53 libraries for yeast surface display, three with mutations focused on the cavity, and one with
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55 mutations introduced over the entire gene (supplementary Fig. S6A, S6B). These libraries showed
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57 strong protein display on yeast surface and binding to Off7 (supplementary Fig. S6C). The yeast
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1 displayed libraries were incubated with 1 μ M Off7(T46C)*NBD and sorted by flow cytometry for NBD
2 fluorescence (Fig. 3B). After two rounds of selections, we analyzed the libraries by deep sequencing.
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4 The majority of mutations were within the hypothesized NBD binding pocket (Fig. 3C, D, S6D, E).
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6 However, multiple mutations were also enriched in the maltose-binding pocket (Fig. 3D, S6D, E).
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8 From this we selected the six most frequently observed mutations (three around the NBD cavity,
9 three around the maltose pocket) and expressed the single point mutants as soluble proteins
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11 (Supplementary Fig. S6F). All mutations enhanced fluorescence activation on their own (Fig. 3E).
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13 Having observed several mutations near the maltose-binding pocket, we investigated whether the
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15 sensor activity was affected by MBP conformational changes upon maltose binding, in the presence
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17 of a saturating concentration of maltose (20 mM). The fluorescence of wtMBP complexed with either
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19 N45C or T46C sensors is sensitive to maltose, which causes the sensor to lose 5-fold activity (Fig. 3E),
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21 suggesting that the NBD pocket adopts a different configuration in the maltose bound form of MBP.
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23 Finally, we investigated how these mutations affect the interaction of MBP with the fluorophore.
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25 Using an iodide-quenching assay to determine the solvent exposure of NBD, we found that the
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27 change in solvent exposure upon complex formation with wtMBP is reduced in the presence of
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29 maltose (Fig. 3F). However for the mutation V347A, the fluorophore is further shielded from the
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31 solvent and addition of maltose has no effect. In contrast, the activity abrogating mutation V347W
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33 results in solvent exposure levels comparable to those in the absence of the MBP analyte. These
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35 results suggest that the NBD fluorophore binds to a conformationally sensitive hydrophobic pocket
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37 which is responsible for high SuCESsFul biosensor fluorescence.
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48 We next sought to further validate the MBP structural rearrangements for NBD binding. We
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50 acquired 15 N-resolved Transverse Relaxation Optimized Spectroscopy (TROSY) Heteronuclear Single
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52 Quantum Coherence (HSQC) spectra for wtMBP, with and without Off7wt and Off7(T46C)*NBD, in
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54 the absence of maltose. The chemical shifts of the unbound state matched exactly with previously
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56 published chemical shift assignments collected under identical conditions²⁴. Large chemical shift
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58 changes are observed upon binding of Off7wt (Supplementary Fig. S7A) in agreement with the
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1 contact regions shown in the Off7/MBP complex crystal structure (PDB: 1SVX). The observed
2 chemical shift perturbations for the Off7(T46C)*NBD/MBP versus the Off7wt/MBP complex are of
3 smaller magnitude, as expected from a small molecule (Supplementary Fig. S7B). From the ^1H and ^{15}N
4 chemical shift differences (Supplementary Fig. S7C, D), we calculated the combined weighted
5 chemical shift perturbation and displayed the results on the Off7/MBP crystal structure (see Methods
6 and Fig. 3G). The most strongly affected residues are found within the hypothesized NBD binding
7 pocket, yet several distant side chains are also affected to a lesser extent. These structural results
8 support a model including conformational rearrangements to accommodate for NBD binding in the
9 hydrophobic pocket.
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22 To determine whether other DARPin-based biosensors exhibited evidence for a specific
23 fluorophore-binding pocket on MBP, we next sought to understand the mechanism of activated
24 fluorescence of NBD upon MBP binding when Off7 is labeled at position M114C, which is distant
25 from the cavity identified above. Structural analysis of the complex identified 12 amino acids within
26 interaction distance of NBD- labeled M114C (supplementary Fig. S8A, B). Alanine-scanning
27 mutagenesis identified two residues (T193, D197) facing toward the labeling site on an α -helix as
28 sensitive to mutation (Supplementary Fig. S8C). Next, we generated mutants of these two positions,
29 as well as one position one turn N-terminal to the α -helix, into amino acids with a range of
30 hydrophobic side chain sizes. We observed that mutation A190F improved the sensor by a factor of
31 three (supplementary Fig. S8D). Furthermore, all mutations to tryptophan dramatically reduced the
32 fluorescence activation of the sensor (Fig. S8D, E). These mutants were shown to retain binding to
33 the DARPin by size exclusion chromatography and biolayer interferometry (supplementary Fig. S8F,
34 S8G). We attempted to mature MBP for increased sensor activity with the YSD screen, however
35 interestingly we did not achieve any additional enhancement in sensor fluorescence, in strong
36 contrast to the Off7(T46C)*NBD biosensor. Furthermore, this sensor was not sensitive to maltose
37 (Fig. 3E). These results suggest that the Off7(M114C)*NBD biosensor, with a lower F/F_0 than N45C
38 and T46C, does not depend on a specific binding interaction between the fluorophore and a binding
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pocket on MBP, perhaps relying on a more nonspecific solvent shielding mechanism for fluorescence enhancement.

Rigid scaffolds lower background fluorescence

Two different types of SuCESsFul biosensors are apparent among those described so far: the first, exemplified by Off7(N45C)*NBD and Off7(T46C)*NBD, is defined by the apparent presence of a specific fluorophore binding pocket in the analyte, yielding strong fluorescence enhancements. The second, and far more common class, exemplified by Off7(M114C)*NBD, shows increase in fluorescence due to more nonspecific shielding, achieving a F/F_0 ratio greater than one, primarily because the background fluorescence intensity of the unbound biosensor is low (Fig. 4A). We hypothesized that high background fluorescence may arise from an intramolecular interaction between the conjugated fluorophore and the binding protein. In order to investigate this interaction, we measured the background fluorescence (i.e. in the absence of the analyte) of NBD labeled Off7 and Fn3 with and without a fusion partner. We found that fusing Off7 to a Sumo coexpression tag resulted in a shift of the background fluorescence toward shorter wavelengths (i.e. to a more activated state) (Fig. 4B), suggesting that interactions with the fusion partner can raise the background fluorescence. When labeled with NBD, we found that Fn3s show a significantly lower emission wavelength than the Off7-based mutants (Fig. 4B), possibly resulting from the flexibility of the Fn3 loops, which may increase the potential for intramolecular interaction. In light of these observations, we hypothesized that undesirable fluorophore pre-activation might be attenuated by employing a small and rigid protein scaffold. We considered the scaffold Sso7d as a candidate; Sso7d is a small (~7 kDa) protein consisting of an incomplete β -barrel with five β -strands and a C-terminal α -helix. Recently, our group developed a yeast library based on this scaffold, using three β -strands as the binding interface. We hypothesized that the rigid conformation of the β -strands would reduce the likelihood of fluorophore interactions with the scaffold, thereby reducing unwanted background fluorescence. The Sso7d scaffold homolog Sac7d has recently been demonstrated to be applicable to

1 SuCESsFul biosensors⁶. We used a murine serum albumin binder, clone M11.1.3, and labeled it at
2 seven sites of the engineered planar binding surface, as well as three sites in the loops connecting
3 the strands, the C-terminus, and one near the N-terminus (supplementary Fig. S9A). When labeled
4 with NBD, we observed that the maximum emission wavelength for unbound biosensors was
5 significantly longer than for Off7 or Fn3, directly demonstrating reduced background activation with
6 this scaffold. Furthermore, the fluorescence intensity was also lower (supplementary Fig. S9B). These
7 promising results were further validated using another Sso7d mutant M18.2.5 (supplementary Fig.
8 S9A-B).

19 **Combination of rigid scaffold with a specific fluorophore binding pocket yields largest dynamic** 20 **range.**

25 Having established Sso7d as a promising scaffold for SuCESsFul biosensors given the lower
26 fluorescence intensity of unbound conjugates, we sought to validate the hypothesis that specific
27 fluorophore binding pockets enhance fluorescence signals. To do so, we screened several analytes
28 for the presence of an NBD binding pocket. The fluorescence of NBD is unchanged upon addition of
29 10 μ M lysozyme or MBP. However, in the presence of 10 μ M mouse serum albumin, the maximum
30 emission is shifted to shorter wavelengths and the intensity increases 8-fold (supplementary Fig.
31 S9C), strongly suggesting that NBD binds MSA. Based on these results, we chose the MSA-binding
32 clone M11.1.3; when labeled with NBD, we found that positions I23C, W25C and G26C, showed
33 greater than 50-fold increases in fluorescence upon addition of 10 μ M MSA (Fig. 4C). To validate this
34 cluster, we used another MSA binding clone: in agreement with the results with M11.1.3, labeling
35 M18.2.5 at positions 23, 25 and 26 resulted in the largest F/F_0 ratio (supplementary Fig. S9D). We
36 measured the K_D for NBD/MSA interaction to be 19.7 μ M, and found that M18.2.5(L25C)*NBD had a
37 30-fold tighter equilibrium binding constant, $K_D = 0.38 \mu$ M (Fig. 4D). Importantly, titration
38 experiments demonstrated that the affinities of M11.1.3(W25C)*NBD, M11.1.3(G26C)*NBD and
39 M18.2.5(L25C)*NBD were at least 10-fold higher, respectively, when compared to free NBD.
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Furthermore, addition of non-labeled M11.1.3 or M18.2.5 binders blocked biosensor activity of the labeled binders, but not of free NBD, confirming that binding of the Sso7d-based proteins to MSA is necessary for the biosensor activity and that the binding mode of those Sso7d-NBD fusions is different from free NBD. (Supplementary Fig. S9E).

Discussion

Altogether, we investigated three types of scaffolds, eight analytes, and ten fluorophores in 448 combinations as components of a SuCESSful biosensor system, which is to our knowledge, the largest such dataset available to date. Previous studies have been mostly limited to one class of fluorophore or one scaffold and have not elucidated *general* design principles. Excluding the Sso7d results, we obtained an overall, unbiased success rate similar to what has been reported previously in the literature (Fig. 1C). Surprised by the rarity of useful sensors produced by the consensus design approach, we explored the physical basis for a successful example. The complexes Off7(N45C)*NBD/MBP and Off7(T46C)*NBD/MBP showed the brightest signal intensity, and the greatest F/F_0 ratio previously reported. Also, the emission wavelength of NBD was strongly blue-shifted upon complex formation, indicating a reduced polarity in the binding pocket of the fluorophore²⁵.

Several factors can be responsible for the fluorescence blue shift and increased intensity upon complex formation of NBD. The important feature characterizing the fluorescence properties of NBD is the charge transfer occurring between the amino group (electron donor) and the nitro group (electron acceptor). Excitation by a photon of the appropriate energy accentuates the dipole between the acceptor and donor groups. Stabilization of the dipole will reduce the energy of the excited state and thus, the energy of the released photon²⁶. Stabilization can arise from multiple factors. 1) Polar solvents stabilize the charged configuration by dipole-dipole interactions, which lowers the energy of the excited state and increases the non radiative decay (k_{nr})²⁵. 2) H-bonding between the solvent and an oxygen of the nitro group, which would reinforce the electronic attraction of the acceptor²⁵. 3) Dynamic relaxation with internal twisting of the dimethylamino group, coupled with an electron transfer. Twisted intramolecular charge transfer (TICT) is the result of an intramolecular rotation where the acceptor and donor are orbitally decoupled. TICT states are non luminescent²⁷. Both static approaches, by rigidifying the amino group via covalent bonds, and

dynamic approaches, by increasing the volume of the groups attached to the nitrogen, have supported this theory²⁸. Decrease in the k_{nr} with increased solvent viscosity and lower temperatures also support the involvement of a TICT dependent fluorescence²⁵. Hence, our data supports the hypothesis of a specific interaction of NBD with a hydrophobic cavity – blue-shifted emission shift – which restricts the motion of the fluorophore and prevents it from accessing a TICT state, and thus exhibits a greater quantum yield.

We have further confirmed the existence of this binding pocket using a solution NMR chemical shift perturbation and by identifying sensor enhancing mutations using a yeast surface display screen (Fig. 3), evolving MBP to become a better analyte for the Off7(T46C)*NBD sensor. We found that the majority of mutations accumulated within the putative NBD binding pocket. We also observed that mutations along the α -helix mutated between amino acids 150-158, constituting part of the putative NBD binding pocket, were intolerant to mutations, suggesting that these residues are critical for the interaction with NBD. Furthermore, Glu 153, Tyr 155 and Tyr 156 make direct van der Waals contact with maltose²⁹ and may be important for the structural integrity of the cavity. Szent-Gyorgyi *et al* have used yeast surface display to isolate single chain variable fragments (scFv) binding to and activating the fluorescence of malachite green³⁰ in a mechanism also involving TICT^{27,31}. Thus, the fluorescence of both NBD and Malachite Green can be strongly activated upon the presence of a specific binding pocket in a protein.

We also found that maltose acts as an allosteric regulator of sensor activity (Fig. 3E). The binding site for maltose is located at the cleft between the two domains²⁹. Upon maltose binding by wtMBP, the activity of the Off7(T46C)*NBD sensor is affected by a 5-fold factor. Through our yeast surface display analyte maturation screen, we identified a multitude of mutations located in domain I or at the hinge between domains I and II. These mutations are not involved in direct contacts with maltose²⁹, yet they may affect MBP conformation or dynamics. It is known that in the analyte-free form, MBP exists 95% in an open-state, and 5% in a partially closed state³². The transition between

major (open) and minor forms of apo MBP involves a hinge rotation of $33 \pm 7^\circ$ in comparison with 35° between open and closed holo MBP. However, the apo minor and closed holo states of MBP are distinct and related by a domain reorientation of 18° that is accompanied by a 6 Å translation³². The mutations we observed may affect this equilibrium away from the partially closed state, or a distinct conformation that favors interaction of NBD with its pocket. This is supported by the observation of activity enhancing mutations and that the NBD interaction with the cavity is impeded in the maltose-bound form of MBP. Finally, NBD has been employed as a maltose sensor when conjugated to MBP, and TICT has been hypothesized as the mechanism for the slight 1.8-fold increase in fluorescence³³.

In this study, we did not observe dramatic fluorescence increases with any other of the environment sensitive fluorophores tested. Yet, these have also been shown to exhibit strong solvent-dependent changes in fluorescence emission properties. In particular, the naphthalimide derivative 4-DMN has demonstrated greater fluorescence increase than NBD or Badan in the context of the M13 peptide and Calmodulin interaction³⁴. Furthermore, while we have not investigated merocyanine derivatives in this study, they represent also an interesting category of solvatochromic fluorophores and have been implemented for biosensors design with success^{35,36}. As we have demonstrated in this manuscript, the nature of the fluorophore, analyte and scaffold interaction is critical and difficult to predict. Therefore, we encourage researchers designing this class of sensors and seeking very high levels of fluorescence activation to try fluorophores with distinct chemical structures.

While we identified the specific binding pocket as a mechanism for very large activation of NBD, fortunately, the presence of a binding pocket is not an absolute requirement for useful sensor activity. M114C undergoes a five-fold increase in fluorescence with a minor blue-shift (2 nm) without a hydrophobic pocket; the polarity of the environment of NBD is unaffected. The epitope analysis did not identify the presence of an NBD-binding pocket on MBP for this biosensor and thus we speculate

that its fluorescence intensity increase is mostly due to motional restriction, leading to an increase in fluorescence intensity by increasing the energy of the TICT state.

Our data highlight the importance of the fluorophore interactions with the analyte for fluorescence activation. The nature of these interactions are also important, as exemplified in the literature where NBD-dependent binders were previously selected and yet showed little optical response to analyte³⁷. The involvement of binding pockets has been exploited previously with NBD derivatives binding to trypsinogen and the 50S ribosomal subunit as well as Nile Red binding to several other large proteins^{38,39}. Binding sites for small molecules are not uncommon and there are strategies to identify them⁴⁰⁻⁴³. However, screening for binders whose epitopes lie sufficiently near the fluorophore binding pocket further complicate the process, and thus we sought to establish a more generalizable approach to designing SuCESsFul biosensors.

Next, we analyzed the fluorescence intensity and emission wavelength of three Off7 sensors in the presence of all MBP mutants designed in this study (Fig. 4A). At the far right, we can navigate through increases in fluorescence without changes in the emission wavelength, resulting from shielding of the fluorophore by MBP: the sensor Off7(M114C)*NBD relies on this mechanism. In the middle range, there is a stronger relationship between emission wavelength and intensity, resulting from an interaction with a fluorophore binding pocket: sensors Off7(N45C)*NBD and Off7(T46C)*NBD rely on this mechanism.

A general solution to developing SuCESsFul biosensors is to start with very low fluorescence activation in the unbound state. Prevention of intramolecular interactions in the unbound biosensor plays a major, yet previously unappreciated, role in sensor performance. The interactions between fluorophores and scaffold are difficult to predict and we did not identify trends relating emission wavelengths and properties of surrounding amino acid side chains amongst the various constructs investigated. The presence of a fusion partner, such as SUMO, to simplify expression led to higher background fluorescence. It is noteworthy that peptide-based SuCESsFul biosensors have been

found to exhibit both very low background fluorescence and high dynamic range, most likely due to the absence of strong intramolecular fluorophore interactions in the unbound state^{44–46}.

We further hypothesized that structural rigidity of DARPin over Fn3 scaffolds may be a contributing factor to the success of this Off7/MBP system. In order to test this hypothesis, we used the hyperthermostable Sso7d scaffold whose binding paratope is comprised of three beta-strands. For two Sso7d derived mutants (M11.1.3 and M18.2.5) labeled at various positions on and around the engineered binding epitope, we observed that the fluorescence emission maxima was significantly longer than that of Fn3 or Off7, resembling more the emission of the non-conjugated fluorophore (Fig. 4B). The fluorescence intensity for these constructs was also lower (Fig. S5C). Our results support the hypothesis that local conformational rigidity can reduce fluorophore pre-activation due to intramolecular interactions. Based on the low background fluorescence of NBD labeled Sso7d, we developed sensors for MSA as a proof-of-concept, and obtained up to a 100-fold increase in fluorescence on analyte binding. This represents the greatest fold increase in fluorescence yet reported for a protein-protein SuCESsFul biosensor. When evaluating the best sensor from a DARPin, Fn3 and Sso7d scaffold (Fig 4E), it stands out that the success of Sso7d as a scaffold for SuCESsFul biosensor can be attributed to its reduced background fluorescence.

We have demonstrated that combining low background intensity with an enhanced activated state, a SuCESsFul biosensor can be built with greater than 100-fold increase in fluorescence upon analyte binding. SuCESsFul biosensor design falls within three broad categories (Fig. 4F), two of which can lead to larger F/F_0 ratios. In one scenario, the successful design is driven by achieving very strong fluorescence intensity mediated by a fluorophore-specific binding pocket, as we have demonstrated for Off7(T46C)*NBD. A panel of fluorophores could be screened against an analyte of interest to identify the presence of a binding pocket through methods such as fluorescence, NMR or computational docking. Once a fluorophore is selected, the development of several binders is necessary to target the correct epitope. This medicinal-chemistry like fragment-based discovery

1 approach would be intensive in terms of time and resources. On the other hand, one can build
2 sensors with more modest F/F_0 ratios (~10-fold for NBD), drawing on the second scenario of lower
3 unbound fluorescence rather than dramatically higher bound fluorescence. The use of rigid scaffolds
4 like Sso7d with lower background can significantly increase the odds of design success. Combination
5 of both scenarios yields, as we have demonstrated, sensors with up to 100-fold increase in
6 fluorescence. Beyond protein-protein interactions, these guidelines could help in the design of any
7 improved sensor using solvatochromic fluorophores.
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Competing financial interests

The authors declare no competing financial interests.

Acknowledgments

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Authors contribution

S. P. designed and performed experiments, analyzed data, and wrote the manuscript. P. M. D., S. Z., and J. K. performed experiments. M. W. T., E. S., S. C. designed and performed experiments. B.S.M. conducted NMR experiment. A. J. W and B. S. M. analyzed NMR data. L. G. G., B. I. and K. D. W. designed experiments, analyzed data and edited the manuscript.

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Material & Methods (1243 words)

Fibronectin engineering by yeast surface display

We choose the human 10th Fibronectin 3 domain as a scaffold to engineer binders as it has been a well validated protein engineering scaffold and it is free of cysteines^{21,23}. Our group has published a detailed protocol for fibronectin engineering by yeast surface display²⁰. Briefly, binders were isolated by magnetic bead sorts from the G4 library¹⁹. Initial clones were then affinity matured by error-prone polymerase chain reaction (PCR) and selected by fluorescence activated cell sorting (FACS). Biotinylated analyte was detected with either Streptavidin Alexa Fluor 647 (Invitrogen) or Anti-Biotin antibody (eBiosciences) in alternation. For determination of K_d values lead clones were titrated on the surface of yeasts, and data were fitted to a monovalent binding isotherm.

Protein expression and purification.

We found that cysteine containing fibronectins were poorly soluble as opposed to their cysteine-free counterparts. In order to increase yield and solubility, crucial for subsequent fluorophore conjugation, we chose to express fibronectins fused to a N-terminal hexahistidine tag and small ubiquitylation modified (SUMO) tag. Thus, all protein encoding genes were cloned in a pE-sumo expression vector (LifeSensors) by restriction digest using the XbaI and BsaI sites. The sequence confirmed plasmid were transformed into Rosetta 2 (DE3) cells (Millipore) or XL1-Blue (Agilent) and grown overnight in 5mL LB media + Kanamycin (50ug/ml) at 37°C. Subsequently, the cultures were diluted 200-fold in Terrific Broth + kanamycin. When cells had reached an $OD_{600} = 1.0-2.0$, expression was induced by addition of 500 μ M Isopropyl β -D-1-thiogalactopyranoside IPTG (AMRESCO). After overnight expression at 20°C, cultures were centrifuged and the pellets were resuspended in 50mM Sodium Phosphate (AMRESCO), 300mM Sodium Chloride (AMRESCO), 1% Glycerol (AMRESCO), 3% Triton-X-100 (AMRESCO) at pH 8.0. Cells were sonicated and centrifuged, followed by filter sterilization of the supernatant and purification on a Ni-NTA resin (QIAGEN). Purification fractions

1 were ran on a 4-12% bis-tris acrylamide gel to confirm expression and purity (Life Technologies). The
2 elution fractions were dialyzed into PBS using Snakeskin dialysis tubing (Thermo Scientific), samples
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4 were concentrated to >100 μ M with an amicon 3K concentrator, flash frozen in liquid nitrogen, and
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6 stored at 80°C.
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10 DARPins were either expressed as N-terminal His6-Sumo fusions or as N-terminal His6 only fusions
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12 on a pQE vector (gift from the Plückthun laboratory). Expression and purification methods were the
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14 same as described above.
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18 Sso7d proteins were expressed with an N-terminal histidine tag in Rosetta 2 (DE3) cells on a custom
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20 pE based vector (GH₆GG-Sso7d). Proteins were purified under denaturing conditions in the presence
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22 of 2mM β -mercaptoethanol. Following labeling, the proteins were purified by cation exchange in
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24 20mM Tris pH 8.0 with a gradient from 0 to 1 M NaCl on a SP FF column (GE Healthcare).
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28 All Maltose Binding Protein mutants were expressed with an N-terminal His6 tag (pQE vector, gift
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30 from Plückthun laboratory). Abl-SH2 and Src-SH3 were also cloned into the pE-sumo expression
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32 vector, expressed and purified like other sumo fusion proteins in this study. Chicken egg lysozyme
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34 was purchased from Sigma and dissolved in PBS. For yeast surface display screenings, we purchased
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36 Amphiregulin, Betacellulin, Epidermal Growth Factor and Epreparin from Peprotech. For further
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38 characterization and fluorescence assays, BTC and EGF were expressed as His6-Sumo N-terminal
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40 fusion as described previously⁴⁷. Fatty acid free mouse serum albumin was purchased from Alpha
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42 Diagnostic International.
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47 **Protein Labeling**

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51 For labeling, the protein sample was diluted to a final concentration of 100 μ M in PBS and the
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53 reducing agent (tris(2-carboxyethyl)phosphine (TCEP) was added to a final concentration of 1 mM.
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55 After 60 minute incubation at room temperature for thiol reduction, the thiol reactive fluorophore
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57 was added to a final concentration of 1mM and the sample was reacted overnight on a rotating
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1 wheel at room temperature. Free fluorophore was removed on a G-25 desalting resin (GE
2 Healthcare). Labeling efficiencies were in the range of 0.4–0.8 fluorophore/protein molar ratio, as
3 derived from the A280 and fluorophore absorbance⁴. NBD, IAEDANS, MIANS, Badan were purchased
4 (Life Technologies), 4-DMN and 4-DMAP were synthesized (see below).
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10 **Fluorophore synthesis**

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12 The 4-DMAP-cysteine labeling agent was synthesized with a short linker (3Å) following published
13 procedures for 4-DMN⁴⁵ starting with the 4-DMAP anhydride precursor⁴⁸. The purification was
14 improved by using a chloroform/methanol (0-5%) solvent system and adding 0.2% acetic acid. The
15 product was a bright yellow solid.
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23 **Protein biotinylation**

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25 Samples were biotinylated with Sulfo-NHS-LC-Biotin (Thermo) in PBS for 1h at room temperature and
26 quenched with Tris buffer at pH 8.0. Excess biotin was removed on a zeba spin 7k desalting column.
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36 **Size exclusion chromatography**

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38 All size exclusion chromatography was performed on an AKTA system (GE Healthcare). Analytical
39 runs were performed in PBS at pH 7.4 on a Superdex 75 10/300 GL column at 0.75mL/min.
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46 **Fluorescence Measurements**

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49 Spectroscopy studies were performed using a FluoroMax-2 Fluorometer with an integration time of
50 0.100 s, excitation and emission slits set at 5 and 10 nm respectively. All excitation wavelengths and
51 emission scans are listed in Supplementary Table 1. Stern Volmer constants from the iodide quenching
52 experiment were extract from titration with 0-200 mM potassium iodide as described previously⁴⁹.
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59 **Biolayer Interferometry**

Experiments were performed on a Blitz or an Octet RED instrument (ForteBio) in PBS, 1mg/ml bovine serum albumin, 0.002% v/v Tween-20.

YSD for enhanced MBP mutant isolation

The gene for Maltose Binding Protein was cloned between the NheI and BamHI restriction sites in the pCTcon2 vector for display as an N-terminal fusion to Aga2p. To generate the MBP 1.0 library, mutations were introduced in the MBP gene as described for fibronectin domains²⁰. For the cavity targeted libraries, regions covering amino acids 150-158 and 344-352 were amplified with primers allowing yeast homologous recombination. The error prone PCR condition were similar to those of fibronectin loops²⁰. The other fragments were amplified without error-prone PCR. The gene fragments were combined and transformed into EBY100 yeasts, allowing the yeasts to perform homologous recombination. Two NBD conjugated Off7 mutants (T46C and M114C) were added at 1uM to each library independently and sorted by flow cytometry. The fluorescence of NBD was detected under the FITC channel. Two rounds of sorting were performed to obtain a clean polyclonal population.

Sequence analysis

177 sequences were obtained by sanger sequencing. MiSeq yielded 8.4 million past filter reads (see Supplementary table 2). All sequences from the MBP display screen were analyzed by a user-developed MatLab script, allowing the extraction of several parameters such as amino acid frequency. This code is available upon request.

NMR Spectroscopy

Protein Expression/Purification and Sample Preparations. Maltose binding protein (MBP) from *E. Coli* was expressed in BL21(DE3) *E. coli* during growth on M9 minimal media in 99% D₂O containing ¹⁵NH₄Cl and ¹³C₆-d-glucose as the only sources of nitrogen and carbon, respectively⁵⁰. The MBP was purified as previously described^{50,51} with no β-cyclodextrin in any buffers. All isotopically labeled

chemicals were obtained from Cambridge Isotopes Laboratories (Andover, MA). Off7 and Off7(T46C)*NBD were purified as described above, and were additionally purified by size exclusion chromatography on a HiLoad 16/60 Superdex 75 column (GE Healthcare). Complexes of MBP and Off7 variants were prepared in 20 mM sodium phosphate, pH 7.5, with 5 mM EDTA by titration of a concentrated solution of Off7 into a ~0.8 mM solution of MBP to a molar ratio of MBP:Off7 = 1:1.2.

NMR Spectroscopy. All NMR experiments were collected at 37°C on a 750 MHz (¹H) Bruker AVANCE III spectrometer equipped with a TXI cryoprobe. The binding of Off7 variants to MBP was followed using conventionally sampled ¹⁵N-TROSY spectra obtained at 750 MHz (¹H) with 16 scans per free induction decay, 128 complex increments in nitrogen and a 1.8 s recycle delay. Backbone resonance assignments of complexed MBP were obtained from non-uniformly sampled^{52,53} versions of TROSY-enhanced HNCA^{54,55} and HN(CO)CA⁵⁵ spectra collected with 10% Poisson-gap sampling, 16 scans per free induction decay, 60 complex increments in nitrogen, 80 complex increments in carbon, and a 1.8 s recycle delay. Data were processed with Felix (Accelrys) and NMRPipe⁵⁶. **Data Analysis.** Backbone resonance assignments of MBP in the various complexes were manually obtained using Sparky⁵⁷. The weighted chemical shift perturbation (CSP) is expressed as:

$$CSP = \sqrt{\left(D\delta_H\right)^2 + \left|\frac{\gamma_N}{\gamma_H}\right| \left(D\delta_N\right)^2}$$

Where $\Delta\delta_H$ and $\Delta\delta_N$ are the changes in amide hydrogen and nitrogen chemical shifts upon complexation and γ_N and γ_H are the gyromagnetic ratios of ¹⁵N and ¹H, respectively. The CSP for each residue was then mapped to the molecular surface of MBP using PyMOL⁵⁸.

Flow cytometry

Samples were analyzed on an Accuri C6 cytometer (Becton Dickinson, BD), 96- well plates were run on a FACSCalibur HTS with a high throughput plate sampler (BD), and sorting was performed on a MoFlo instrument (Beckman Coulter) or a FACSARIA instrument (BD). Protein display was detected

1 using anti epitope tag antibodies, either mouse anti HA (clone 16B12, Covance), chicken anti c-myc
2 (Gallus Immunotech) or mouse anti c-myc (clone 9E10, Covance). Secondary labeling was performed
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4 using goat anti mouse or chicken antibody conjugated to AlexaFluor488 or 647 (Life Technologies).
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6 Biotinylated analytes were detected with Streptavidin Alexa Fluor 647 or 488 (Life technologies) or
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8 anti-biotin-PE antibody (eBiosciences).
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10 **EGF epitope mapping**

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12 To identify the binding epitope of Fibronectin clone EGF-A, we chose an epitope mapping approach.
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14 Human EGF was fused to Aga2p with a (G₄S)₃ linker. Of the 53 amino acids in the protein, we
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16 mutated all 36 solvent exposed, non cysteine, proline or glycine residues to an amino acid with
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18 opposite side chain properties⁵⁹. Binding of biotinylated fibronectin EGF-A to yeast displayed EGF-
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20 mutants was tested at 10 nM and detected with Streptavidin Alexa 647.
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Design principles for reagentless biosensors: specific fluorophore/analyte binding and minimization of fluorophore/scaffold interactions.

Figures

Figure 1: Reagentless biosensor workflow and overview. A) Overview of reported reagentless biosensors built from a protein scaffold recognizing another protein. On the left side the various protein scaffolds that have been used and coupled with an environment-sensitive dye are listed. On the right side the target proteins are shown. Dark arrows represent pairs evaluated in this study. The connecting lines indicate the information about the nature of the interaction as well as the reference citation. B) Reagentless biosensor engineering is a five-step process. First, a binder must be engineered with desired specificity and affinity. Second, a chemical moiety for site-specific labeling must be incorporated. This is typically achieved by directed mutagenesis for a cysteine at the desired location. Next, the protein construct is expressed, purified and labeled with a thiol reactive derivative of the fluorescent dye. Finally the construct is evaluated for its fluorescence characteristic in the absence and presence of its target. C) Histogram of the dynamic range of sensors to their target reported as F/F_0 , the fluorescence intensity ratio between the conditions in presence versus in absence of the target protein. The histogram showed in the inlet is from previously published results¹⁻⁴.

Figure 2: Mapping the interaction between NBD and MBP in the Off7(N45C)*NBD and Off7(T46C)*NBD sensors. A) Increase in fluorescence signal when adding MBP to Off7 mutants labeled with 10 different fluorophores at 7 positions. B) Top view of the Off7 protein (PDB: 1SVX). C) Side view of the Off7/MBP complex (PDB: 1SVX). D) F/F_0 ratios of 3 Off7*NBD sensors with wtMBP and mutants with a single alanine mutation. E) Effects from alanine scanning are plotted against the Off7/MBP structure, red indicates reduced activity, blue increased activity. Deleterious mutations are surrounding a cavity in MBP. F) Residues mutated in the cavity analysis. G) F/F_0 ratios for three Off7*NBD sensors with MBP cavity mutants.

Figure 3: Off7(T46C)*NBD Sensor is regulated by MBP conformation. A) Graphical representation of experimental set-up. B) FACS plots showing the improvement of NBD signal produced by MBP mutant displaying yeasts over two selection rounds. C) Enrichment versus frequency plot for the whole gene error prone PCR library. D) Graphical representation of enrichment onto Off7/MBP structure combined from all four libraries. Red and blue indicate positive and negative enrichment respectively. E) F/F_0 ratios for the YSD isolated mutants in the absence or presence of maltose. Mutations H64R, V196F and V347A greatly stabilized the activity of the sensor in the presence of maltose. F) Iodide quenching assay, reporting the Stern-Vollmer constant for wild-type MBP, the most strongly activating mutation V347A, and the most deteriorating mutation V347W. G) Weighted combined nitrogen and proton chemical shift perturbations (CSP) are highlighted on the Off7/MBP complex. CSP between 0.025 and 0.05 are shown in beige, between 0.05 and 0.1 in salmon, and CSP > 0.1 in red.

Figure 4: The balance between scaffold rigidity and specific binding pockets. A) Maximum emission wavelength versus signal intensity plotted for the three Off7 sensors in complex with all MBP mutants evaluated in this study. In addition, free NBD in PBS and benzene is depicted. B) Maximum emission wavelength of NBD labeled scaffolds in the absence of antigen. C) F/F_0 ratio for M11.1.3*NBD conjugates. D) Titrations of NBD and NBD labeled constructs with MSA. E) Maximum emission wavelength vs intensity for the best Fn3, DARPin, and Sso7d sensors. F) Mechanistic drawing of the three types of reagentless biosensors. The top one describes a sensors that suffers

from pre-activation and the fluorophore undergoes shielding upon binding, yielding a small F/F_0 ratio. The middle one describes a sensor that may have some pre-activation but that alleviates this drawback by having a strong fluorescence enhancement due to a fluorophore binding pocket. The bottom scenario describes a sensor that possesses both ideal properties: little self-interaction and specific binding pocket interaction on the analyte.

Shielding Sensor
(1-5x Fluorescence Increase)

Specific Binding Sensor
(5-15x Large Fluorescence Increase)

Specific Binding Sensor
w/o self interaction
20-100x Fluorescence Increase