Supporting Information for Lawrence, Phillips, and Liu

Materials and Methods

Construction of supercharged GFPs. Initial designs of supercharged proteins were created partially by manual inspection of the structure of GFP. Following the encouraging results with supercharged GFPs, the design algorithm was reformulated as a completely automated method and used to create the supercharged versions of GST and streptavidin.

We designed a GFP with net charge of $+36$ by mutating residues of the starting GFP that were likely to tolerate substitution to a positively charged amino acid (Lys or Arg). We chose residues seen to be highly solvent-exposed, based on manual inspection of the crystal structure.¹ Preference was given to negatively charged amino acids (Asp and Glu), not only because a basic side-chain is likely to have the same extreme hydrophilicity as an acidic one (thus decreasing the likelihood of a structural disruption), but also because these mutations achieved a double increment in charge. Additional salient surface-exposed positions to mutate were chosen on the basis of sequence variability observed at these positions among GFP homologues. In total, 29 residues were mutated to positively charged amino acids.

The gene encoding the $GFP(+36)$ was constructed using overlapping synthetic oligonucleotides. ² Genes encoding stGFP and GFP(+36), optimized for *E. coli* codon usage, were constructed using a series of 38 overlapping DNA oligonucleotides, each ~40 nt in length and annealing to each other over \sim 20-bp stretches. The oligonucleotides were mixed together in equimolar ratio, then 5'-phosphorylated using T4 polynucleotide kinase and ligated using T4 DNA ligase. Full-length genes were amplified by PCR using the outermost oligonucleotides as primers. The initial design for GFP(+36) was successful, yielding green fluorescent bacteria.

We also designed a supernegative GFP by identifying 20 highly solvent-exposed positions and mutating these to negatively charged amino acids (Asp and Glu), yielding an initial design with theoretical net charge of –39. However, expression of a gene for GFP(–39) yielded non-fluorescent bacteria, indicating that one or more of the mutations disrupted GFP expression or function. To avoid mutations responsible for the disruption of expression or fluorescence, we repeated the GFP(– 39) gene construction process in the presence of 5 mol% stGFP oligonucleotides. Two of the resulting fluorescent colonies were characterized further: GFP(–30), which had 15 of the 20 planned mutations, and GFP(-25), which had 12.

As a test of how much further the net charge of $GFP(+36)$ could be increased, we designed oligos for a potential GFP(+73) and mixed these together with the GFP(+36) oligos in various ratios, repeated the gene construction procedure and picked green colonies, thereby isolating GFP(+48), with a total of 36 mutations.

Table S2 is a list of the amino acid residues of stGFP, listed in order of solvent exposure, computed as Average # of Neighboring Atoms (within 10 Å) Per Sidechain Atom ("AvNAPSA"). Also shown are the sequences of GFP(–25), GFP(–30), GFP(+36), and GFP(+48). The table also indicates all the positions that were allowed to vary in the designs for $GFP(-39)$ and $GFP(+73)$.

Construction of supercharged GSTs and streptavidins. The sequences of the other proteins studied in this work are shown below. Solvent-exposed residues (shown in grey) are those having $AvNAPSA < 150$, computed from crystallographic data.^{3,4} Charged or highly polar solvent-exposed residues (DERKNQ) were mutated either to Asp or Glu, for negative-supercharging (red); or to Lys or Arg, for positive-supercharging (blue). The supercharging design process for streptavidin (SAV) and glutathione-*S*-transferase (GST) was fully automated: residues were first sorted by solvent exposure (see Tables S3 and S4), and then the most solvent-exposed charged or highly polar residues were mutated either to Lys for positive supercharging, or to Glu (unless the starting residue was Asn, in which case to Asp) for negative supercharging. Synthetic genes for GST and streptavidin variants were purchased from DNA 2.0.

wtGST VV**GSQ**ISFADYNLLDLLRIH**QV**L**NPS**CL**DA**F**PL**L**SA**YV**AR**L**SARPK**I**KA**FL**ASPE**H**VN**R**P**IN**GNGKQ** GST(+50) VV**GSK**ISFADYNLLDLLRIH**QV**L**NPS**CL**KA**F**PL**L**SA**YV**AR**L**SARPK**I**KA**FL**ASPE**H**VK**R**P**IN**GNGKQ**

Protein expression and purification. Genes were cloned into a pET expression vector (Novagen), and overexpressed in *E. coli* BL21(DE3)pLysS for 5–10 hours at 15 °C. Cells were harvested by centrifugation and resuspended in lysis buffer containing 10 mM Tris pH 7.5 and 1 M NaCl, then lysed by sonication. Proteins were purified by Ni-NTA agarose chromotography (Qiagen), bufferexchanged into 100 mM NaCl, 50 mM potassium phosphate pH 7.5, and concentrated by ultrafiltration (Millipore). All GFP variants were purified under native conditions. Wild-type streptavidin was purchased from Promega. Supercharged streptavidin variants were purified under denaturing conditions and refolded as reported previously for wild-type streptavidin,⁵ as was supercharged GST (Fig. S5). Wild-type GST was purified under either native or denaturing conditions, yielding protein of comparable activity.

Protein staining and UV-induced fluorescence (Fig. 2a). 0.2 µg of each GFP variant was analyzed by electrophoresis in a 10% denaturing polyacrylamide gel and stained with Coomassie brilliant blue dye. 0.2 µg of the same protein samples in 25 mM Tris pH 8.0 with 100 mM NaCl was placed in a 0.2 mL Eppendorf tube and photographed under UV light (360 nm).

Isoelectric focusing (Fig. S6). IEF gels with a focusing range of $pI = 3-10$ (Novex, Invitrogen) were run according to the manufacturer's instructions.

Electrostatic surface potential calculations (Fig. 1b). Models of GFP variants were based on the crystal structure of superfolder GFP.¹ Electrostatic potentials were calculated using APBS⁶ and rendered with PyMol⁷ using a scale of -25 kT/e (red) to $+25$ kT/e (blue).

Thermal denaturation and aggregation (Fig. 3a). Purified GFP variants were diluted to 2 mg/mL in 25 mM Tris pH 8.0, 100 mM NaCl, and 10 mM beta-mercaptoethanol (BME), then photographed under UV illumination ("native"). The samples were heated to 100 °C for 1 minute, then photographed again under UV illumination ("boiled"). Finally, the samples were cooled 2 h at room temperature and photographed again under UV illumination ("cooled").

In order to verify that the thermally induced aggregation of stGFP was not due to the particular buffer conditions, we repeated the experiment with stGFP, using a buffer that included 5 mM dithiothreitol (DTT), and 10% glycerol. Figure S2 shows that stGFP still aggregated and failed to recover fluorescence under these conditions, despite the inclusion of these bufferadditives, over a range of protein concentrations tested.

Chemically induced aggregation (Fig. 3b). 2,2,2-trifluoroethanol (TFE) was added to produce solutions with 1.5 mg/mL protein, 25 mM Tris pH 7.0, 10 mM BME, and 40% TFE. Aggregation at 25 °C was monitored by right-angle light scattering.

Size-exclusion chromatography (Figs. S8, S10, and Table S1). The multimeric state of SAV and GST variants was determined by analyzing 20–50 µg of protein on a Superdex 75 gel-filtration column. Buffer was 100 mM NaCl, 50 mM potassium phosphate pH 7.5. Molecular weights were determined by comparison with a set of monomeric protein standards of known molecular weights analyzed separately under identical conditions.

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Figure S1. (a) Excitation and **(b)** emission spectra of GFP variants. Each sample contained an equal amount of protein as quantitated by chromophore absorbance at 490 nm.

Figure S2. Thermally induced aggregation of stGFP under alternative conditions. The starting GFP (stGFP) was mixed to final concentrations of 2.0 (a), 0.5 (b), or 0.1 (c) mg/mL in a buffer containing 10 mM Tris pH 7.5, 5 mM NaCl, 5 mM dithiothreitol (DTT), and 10% glycerol. The left panel shows the samples before heating, under UV illumination. Samples were heated for 1 minute at 100°C, then cooled to room temperature for 2 hours and photographed again under UV illumination.

Figure S3. stGFP and GFP(+36) lose fluorescence when exposed to 40% 2,2,2-trifluoroethanol (TFE). Furthermore, the stGFP solution forms a white precipitate, while the $GFP(+36)$ solution remains clear.

Figure S4. "Molecular velcro" effect demonstrated by titration of macromolecular polycounterions into solutions of supercharged GFPs.

Figure S5. Purified streptavidin and GST variants examined by PAGE and Coomassie staining.

Figure S6. Isoelectric focusing (IEF) gels measuring the apparent isoelectric point (pI) of GFP and GST variants. Predicted pIs are shown at bottom.

Figure S7. Resistance of supercharged proteins to thermally induced aggregation. Proteins were subjected to the boil-and-cool procedure demonstrated in Fig. 3a, by heating for 1 minute to 100°C and cooling for 2 hours at room temperature. Amount of protein remaining soluble was quantitated by brief centrifugation (1 min at 14,000 *G*) and remeasurement of the absorbance at 280 nm.

Figure S8. Analytical size-exclusion chromatography of GST variants. 50 µg of protein was injected onto a Superdex 75 gel-filtration column. Buffer was 100 mM NaCl, 50 mM potassium phosphate pH 7.5. Molecular weights were determined by comparison with a set of monomeric protein standards of known molecular weights analyzed separately under identical conditions.

Figure S9. Determination of kinetic parameters for glutathione S-transferase (GST) variants.⁸ Reactions contained 0.1 mM to 8 mM glutathione (GSH), as shown, plus 1 mM chlorodinitrobenzene (CDNB), 100 mM potassium phosphate buffer pH 6.5, and 0.01 mg/mL GST variant. Timepoints were removed and quenched by the addition of 0.2 M acetic acid, and reaction progress was measured by following product absorbance at 340 nm. Initial rates (v_{init}) were determined by measuring the maximum slope of the reaction curve.

Figure S10. Analytical size-exclusion chromatography of streptavidin variants. 20 µg of protein was injected onto a Superdex 75 gel-filtration column. Conditions were as in Fig. S8.

Figure S11. Biotin-binding activity of streptavidin variants, measured as described previously⁹ by monitoring binding-dependent of biotin-4-fluorescein (Invitrogen). Protein samples were titrated into 0.3 µM biotin-4-fluorescein (B4F), 100 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 0.1 mg/mL bovine serum albumin (BSA), 50 mM potassium phosphate pH 7.5. Quenching of fluorescence at 526 nm was measured on a Perkin-Elmer LS50B luminescence spectrometer with excitation at 470 nm. Measurements were normalized to control titrations that contained a 600-fold excess of nonfluorescent biotin. The three proteins in the bottom of the legend are included as negative controls.

Table S1. Calculated and experimentally determined protein properties.

npos, number of positively charged amino acids (per monomer)

 n_{neg} , number of negatively charged amino acids

ncharged, total number of charged amino acids

Qnet, theroretical net charge at neutral pH

pI, calculated isoelectric point

n.d., not determined

^a measured by guanidinium denaturation (Fig. 2c).

 $\frac{b_{\text{measured}}}{c}$ by size-exclusion chromatography.

 $^{\circ}$ percent protein remaining in supernatant after 5 min at 100 $^{\circ}$ C, cooling to 25 $^{\circ}$ C, and brief centrifugation.

d protein failed to express in *E. coli*.

Table S2. Sequences of GFP variants. Residues are ordered by solvent exposure (AvNAPSA), from most exposed to least exposed. C-terminal residues disordered in the crystal structure are indicated as "(unstr"). Residues mutated in characterized variants are colored in red (negatively supercharged) and blue (positively supercharged). Residues varied in attempted target constructs are colored in light red and light blue.

Table S3. Sequences of GST variants. Residues are ordered as in Table S2. Residues mutated in $GST(-40)$ are colored red. Residues chosen for mutation in the $GST(+50)$ variant, which did not express in *E. coli*, are shown in light blue.

Table S4. Sequences of streptavidin variants. Residues are ordered as in Table S2. C-terminal residues disordered in crystal structure are indicated as "unstr". Residues mutated in SAV(–40) are shown in red; those mutated in $SAV(+52)$ are shown in blue.

