

Load-based divergence in the dynamic allostery of two TCRs recognizing the same pMHC

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eLife Assessment

This **useful** study reports detailed molecular dynamics (MD) simulations of T-cell receptors (TCRs) in complex with a peptide/MHC complex, for a better understanding of the mechanism of T-cell activation. The MD simulations provide **solid** evidence supporting that different TCRs can respond mechanically in different ways upon binding to the same pMHC complex. The analyses are systematic and provide testable predictions that can be evaluated by future mutagenesis and force microscopy studies.

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Abstract

Increasing evidence suggests that mechanical load on the $\alpha\beta$ T cell receptor (TCR) is crucial for recognizing the antigenic peptide-loaded major histocompatibility complex (pMHC) molecule. Our recent all-atom molecular dynamics (MD) simulations revealed that the inter-domain motion of the TCR is responsible for the load-induced catch bond behavior of the TCR-pMHC complex and peptide discrimination. To further examine the generality of the mechanism, we perform all-atom MD simulations of the B7 TCR under different conditions for comparison with our previous simulations of the A6 TCR. The two TCRs recognize the same pMHC and have similar interfaces with pMHC in crystal structures. We find that the B7 TCR-pMHC interface stabilizes under ~ 15 -pN load using a conserved dynamic allostery mechanism that involves the asymmetric motion of the TCR chassis. However, despite forming comparable contacts with pMHC as A6 in the crystal structure, B7 has fewer high-occupancy contacts with pMHC and exhibits higher mechanical compliance during the

simulation. These results indicate that the dynamic allostery common to the TCR $\alpha\beta$ chassis can amplify slight differences in interfacial contacts into distinctive mechanical responses and nuanced biological outcomes.

Introduction

The A6 TCR $\alpha\beta$ and B7 TCR $\alpha\beta$ (herein we call TCR $\alpha\beta$ simply as TCR) are both specific for the same Tax peptide (LLFGYPVYV) of the human T lymphotropic virus 1 (HTLV-1) bound to HLA-A2 (Garboczi et al., 1996a,b; Ding et al., 1998). A6 and B7 derive from T cell clones isolated from two patients with HTLV-1-associated myelopathic/tropical spastic paraparesis (Utz et al., 1996; Ding et al., 1998). They share the same V β germline gene (TRBV6-5) and differ only in the V α germline gene (A6: TRAV12-2; B7:TRAV29DV5), with sequence similarity of 45% for V α , 96% for V β , and 100% for C α and C β (Ding et al., 1998). The only structural differences between the two TCRs are from the residues of the V α domain and the highly variable complementarity-determining region 3 (CDR3 β) loop of the V β domain that is crucial for peptide recognition (Ding et al., 1998; Bourcier et al., 2001; Rudolph et al., 2006). In crystal structures, both TCRs bind in a diagonal orientation to the Tax peptide-bound major histocompatibility complex (pMHC), such that both V α and V β contact the MHC α 1 and α 2 helices (Garboczi et al., 1996a). The similar diagonal binding modes are achieved by interactions involving different CDR residues of A6 and B7 contacting largely the same sets of pMHC residues (Ding et al., 1998). Only one out of 17 residues contacting pMHC in B7 is also found in the A6 pMHC interaction (Ding et al., 1998). T cell response assays demonstrated that single-residue mutations to the Tax peptide elicit different responses in the two TCRs (Ding et al., 1998; Hausmann et al., 1999). Interfacial interactions may play a role in this TCR-specific response, as residue charges at the surface of the A6 and B7 variable domains show different electrostatic profiles, where the pocket for the Tax peptide Y5 residue is positively charged in A6 but negatively charged in B7 (Ding et al., 1998). Overall, the B7 V α surface has fewer charged residues exposed than A6 V α . While A6 and B7 recognize Tax-MHC with similar affinities and kinetics, it has been suggested that they achieve binding via different thermodynamic pathways (Davis-Harrison et al., 2005).

However, since $\alpha\beta$ TCR is a mechanosensor (Reinherz et al., 2023), the TCR-pMHC bond lifetime under physiological piconewton (pN) level load should be more functionally relevant than the equilibrium binding pathway. In this regard, we have previously used all-atom MD simulations to show that contacts with pMHC of A6 (Chang-Gonzalez et al., 2024) and JM22 (Hwang et al., 2020) TCRs are stabilized when an adequate 15–20 pN force is applied. The force-induced stabilization occurs as the asymmetric domain motion of the TCR chassis leads to weakening of the interface with pMHC either in the absence of an adequate level of force or if the sequence of the bound peptide is incompatible with maintaining contacts in the loaded state. The goal of this study is to determine whether the load-dependent control of the binding with pMHC is also present in B7 TCR, and identify any differences with A6 that may impact the response of the T-cell while responding to the same pMHC.

We find that the mechanism of dynamic allostery is largely conserved in B7, yet the loaded state does not stabilize contacts with pMHC as robustly as in the A6. Thus, while both A6 and B7 possess comparable equilibrium binding affinity for pMHC, A6 appears to exhibit a stronger catch bond behavior under load. Given the nuanced and dynamic nature of TCRs against the same pMHC, including the effect of ligand abundance (Akitsu et al., 2024), difference in mechanical response between A6 and B7 suggests T-cell clones bearing those TCRs may operate differently *in vivo*. Our study also underscores the importance of dynamics when comparing between TCRs that have similar crystal structures and equilibrium binding affinities.

Results

Our simulation systems include the B7 TCR bound to Tax pMHC (**Figure 1A,B**) with no, low, and high extensions to apply different loads, and an isolated B7 TCR (**Table 1**). We also used systems without the C-module ($V\alpha\beta$ and $V\alpha\beta$ -pMHC) to study the role of the C-module. To apply a load, we held the terminal C_α atoms of the added strands at different extensions (**Figure 1**). This reflects the constant spacing between a T cell and an APC maintained by adhesion molecules such as CD2 and CD58 (Reinherz et al., 2023). In *in vitro* single-molecule experiments, pulling to a fixed separation and holding is also commonly done. On the other hand, simulation for $B7^0$ was performed by lightly holding the MHC $\alpha 3$ domain (**Figure 1**) in a construct without added strands (Methods). It thus does not have any extension nor applied load.

We analyzed TCR-pMHC intermolecular and intra-TCR (intramolecular) interactions and domain motion to test whether the TCR-pMHC interface is stabilized by load, and to find the underlying allosteric mechanism that involves the motion of the TCR chassis. We analyze dynamics during the full trajectory and average behavior during 500-1000 ns.

Stabilization of the $TCR\alpha\beta$ -pMHC interface with load

Compared to the no- ($B7^0$) and low-load ($B7^{low}$) cases, the number of high-occupancy contacts were more numerous for the high-load case ($B7^{high}$), indicative of a catch bond behavior. Absence of the C-module ($V\alpha\beta$ -pMHC) also promoted more contacts with pMHC, suggesting the allosteric role of the C-module for binding with pMHC (**Figure 1**). These results agree well with the behaviors seen in A6 and JM22 TCRs in our previous studies (Chang-Gonzalez et al., 2024; Hwang et al., 2020). However, the number of pMHC contacts with B7 was reduced compared to A6 (**Figure 1**). This is despite their comparable number of contacts with the pMHC in crystal structures and comparable equilibrium binding affinity in solution (Ding et al., 1998; Davis-Harrison et al., 2005). In fact, we had to modify our simulation protocol to avoid premature breakage of contacts between B7 and pMHC when preparing the system for production run under load (see Methods).

Time-dependent behavior of the TCR-pMHC interface further supports the load-mediated enhancement of binding. For this, we calculated instantaneous force and contact occupancy in 40-ns overlapping intervals (**Figure 1**). $B7^{high}$ had overall more inter- and intramolecular contacts (more orange-yellow circles) than $B7^{low}$ (more purple), suggesting that the increased load stiffens the TCR-pMHC complex. $B7^0$ had fewer TCR-pMHC contacts but more intra-TCR contacts (horizontal bars in **Figure 1**), indicating decoupling of the TCR from pMHC in the absence of load. However, after about 1300 ns, $B7^{high}$ started to lose the initial high-occupancy contacts (**Figure 1**). This is likely because the fixed extension (end-to-end distance) imposed in simulation can adversely impact the interfacial stability of the B7 TCR-pMHC complex that has a higher compliance than A6, as discussed further below. For analysis of average properties, we thus used the 500-1000 ns interval, to be consistent with other systems.

Comparing average counts of high-occupancy pMHC contacts for both A6 and B7 TCRs indicates that interfacial contacts were dominated by MHC- $V\alpha$ (**Figure 2**). Also, $V\alpha$ formed more contacts with MHC than $V\beta$, while $V\beta$ formed more contacts with the peptide than it does with MHC (**Figure 2**). Similar to A6 (Chang-Gonzalez et al., 2024), occupancy heat maps for individual contact residue pairs show reduced or fragmented contacts for $B7^0$ and $B7^{low}$ (**Figure 2-figure Supplement 1**, more red compared to blue) while $B7^{high}$ and $V\alpha\beta$ -pMHC exhibit more persistent contact profiles (**Figure 2-figure Supplement 1**, more blue compared to red).

Table 1.

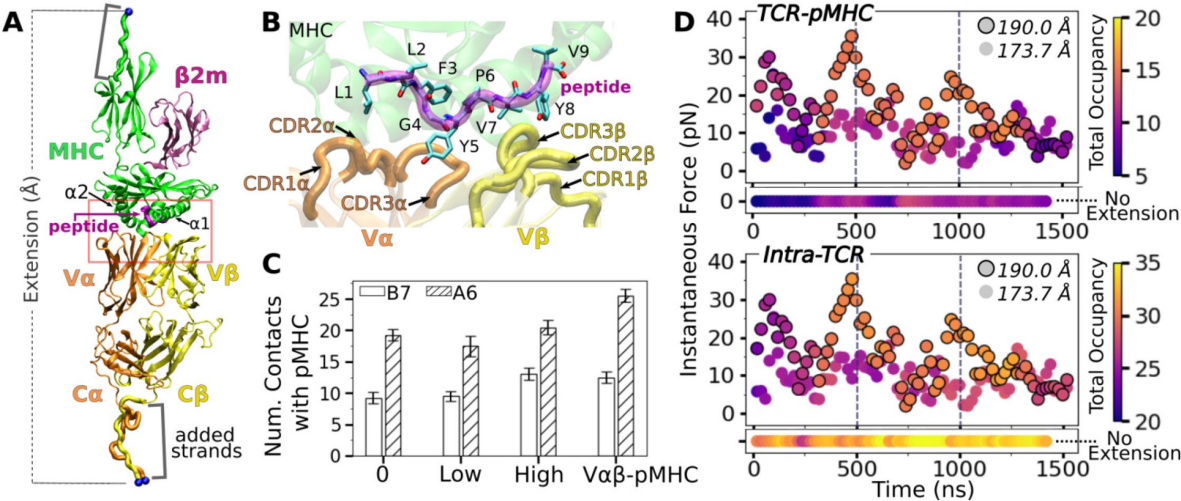
Simulation systems constructed based on PDB 1BD2 (Ding et al., 1998).

Extension is the distance between the harmonic potentials on the terminal restrained atoms (blue spheres in Figure 1A), which was selected for B7^{low} and B7^{high} to yield average low and high loads among simulations scanning different extensions (see Methods). Average load is calculated between 500-1000 ns. The standard deviation (std) in load as measured in 40-ns intervals between 500-1000 ns is shown in parentheses. Their values are consistent with those for A6 (Figure 1—figure Supplement 2). The extension and force (average±std) for A6 corresponding to B7^{low} and B7^{high} are 182.6 Å and 13.2±5.65 pN, and 187.7 Å and 18.2±9.17 pN, respectively (Chang-Gonzalez et al., 2024), which indicates that B7 is more compliant compared to A6. For B7⁰, B7^{low}, and B7^{high}, simulations were further extended for additional time-dependent stability analysis. However, averaging was done for the 500-1000 ns interval for consistency.

Label	Structure	Time (ns)	Extension (Å)	Load (pN)
Vαβ	Vα-Vβ only (no pMHC)	1000	-	-
Tαβ	TCRαβ only (no pMHC)	1000	-	-
Vαβ-pMHC	Vαβ with pMHC (no C-module)	1000	-	-
B7 ⁰	TCRαβ-pMHC	1450	-	-
B7 ^{low}	TCRαβ-pMHC	1550	173.7	9.01 (3.96)
B7 ^{high}	TCRαβ-pMHC	1550	190.0	14.5 (7.20)

Figure 1.

B7 TCR-pMHC interface. (A) Overview of the base complex used in simulations. The 4 subdomains of TCRαβ are Vα, Vβ, Cα, and Cβ. Load was applied by holding the Cα atoms of terminal residues (blue spheres at the ends of “added strands”) at a given distance from each other. β2m; β2 microglobulin. (B) Magnified view of red box in panel A showing labeled CDR loops and side chains of peptide residues in stick representation. (C) Number of contacts with greater than 50% average occupancy and 80% maximum instantaneous occupancy from 500-1000 ns. Bars: std. Criteria for counting contacts and values for A6 are from Chang-Gonzalez et al. (2024). (D) Total contact occupancy measured in 40-ns overlapping intervals. TCR-pMHC (top; intermolecular) and intra-TCR (bottom; intramolecular) contacts are shown separately. Intra-TCR contacts exclude Cα-Cβ contacts (Methods). Circles with outline: B7^{high}; without outline: B7^{low}. Horizontal bar below each panel: B7⁰. Figure 1—figure supplement 1. Model of TCRαβ with leucine zipper domain fused to the C-terminal added strands. Figure 1—figure supplement 2. Standard deviation vs. average of the applied force.



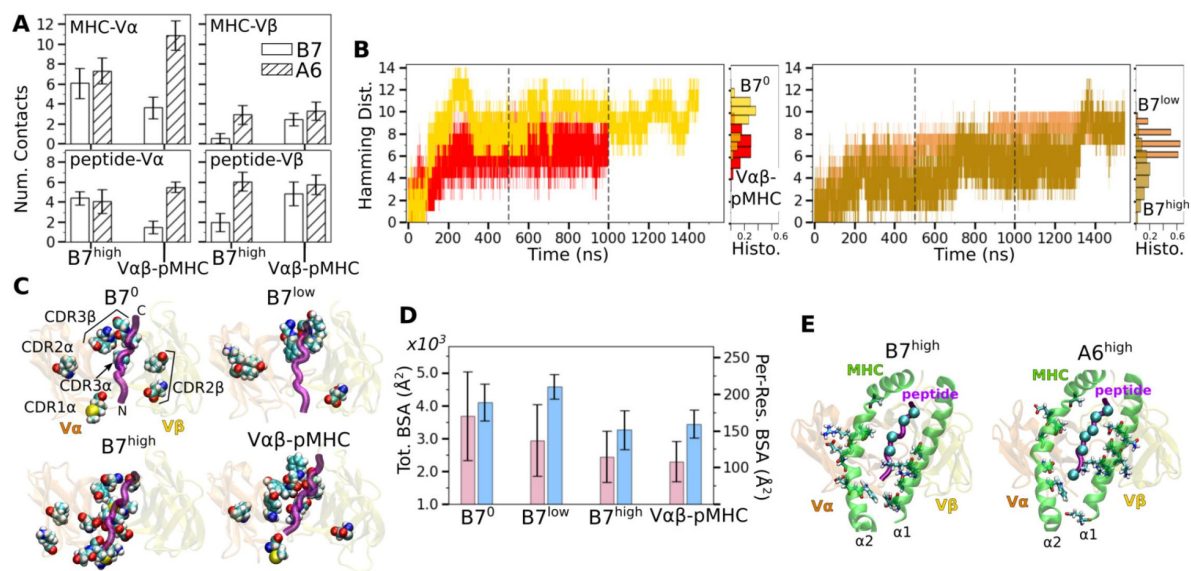


Figure 2.

Load dependent behavior of the B7 TCR-pMHC interface. (A) Number of MHC-Vα, MHC-Vβ, peptide-Vα, and peptide-Vβ contacts in B7 and A6 TCRs between 500-1000 ns. Data for A6 are from [Chang-Gonzalez et al. \(2024\)](#). (B) Hamming distance H . Histograms were calculated using data between 500-1000 ns (marked by vertical dashed lines), the interval between the dashed lines. (C) Location of V-module residues forming contacts with pMHC with greater than 50% average occupancy. The frame at 1000 ns is used for visualization. The backbone of the Tax peptide is shown as a purple tube. CDRs are labeled in the first panel. (D) Total (pink) and per-residue (blue) BSA for interfacial residues between 500-1000 ns. (E) pMHC residues forming contacts with the V-module with average occupancy greater than 50% in the high-load case. Left: B7^{high}, right: A6^{high}. MHC residues are shown as sticks and C_α atoms of the peptide residues are shown as spheres. Viewing direction is the same as in panel C. **Figure 2—figure supplement 1** [DOI:10.7554/eLife.104280.2](#). Additional characterization of the TCR-pMHC interface.

Temporal progression of the number of contacts was measured via the Hamming distance $\mathbb{H}$, the number of the initial high-occupancy contacts lost over time (**Figure 2** [B](#); see Methods). For $B7^0$, $\mathbb{H}$ rapidly increased and by 200 ns, most of the initial high-occupancy contacts were lost. While the increase in $\mathbb{H}$ for $V\alpha\beta$ -pMHC was comparable to that of $B7^{low}$ (**Figure 2** [B](#)), the contact occupancy heat maps reveal that $V\alpha\beta$ -pMHC maintained contacts after a brief initial adjustment (arrow in **Figure 2-figure Supplement 1** [D](#)) while contacts were lost in $B7^{low}$ (red in **Figure 2-figure Supplement 1B** [C](#)). On the other hand, $B7^{high}$ maintained $\mathbb{H}$ comparable to $V\alpha\beta$ -pMHC until about 1300 ns, after which it approached that of $B7^0$. This occurred as some of the high-occupancy contacts broke (**Figure 2-figure Supplement 1** [C](#)). Importantly, the breakage is not due to a high force, but instead it happened when instantaneous force was low. Low-force states are reached at around 750 ns and 1300 ns (**Figure 1** [D](#)), followed by stepwise increase in $\mathbb{H}$ (**Figure 2** [B](#)). The difference in extension between $B7^{low}$ and $B7^{high}$ is 16.3 Å whereas it is 5.1 Å for A6 (**Table 1** [C](#)), for similar ~5-pN difference between low- and high-load cases. Being more compliant, the interface of B7 can reach a low-force state more easily, hence it is more prone to destabilization.

Location of V-module residues forming contacts with pMHC with greater than 50% average occupancy were concentrated along the peptide for $B7^{high}$ and $V\alpha\beta$ -pMHC, but scattered in $B7^0$ and $B7^{low}$ (**Figure 2** [C](#)). This trend was also observed in A6 and JM22. Such concentration of high-occupancy contacts may protect TCR-pMHC interactions from breakage by water. In A6 and JM22 TCRs, the greater number of contacts with pMHC in the high-load cases and $V\alpha\beta$ -pMHC correlated with larger buried surface area (BSA) of the residues forming contacts (Chang-Gonzalez et al., 2024 [C](#); Hwang et al., 2020 [C](#)). B7 did not follow this trend, as $B7^{high}$ and $V\alpha\beta$ -pMHC had reduced total and per-residue BSA than $B7^0$ and $B7^{low}$ (**Figure 2** [D](#)). This is likely because the fewer high-occupancy contacts in B7 (**Figure 1** [C](#)) tend to be more exposed, making the relationship between the BSA and load less direct. Consistent with this, the total BSA of B7 was 67.4 % ($B7^0$) to 44.2% ($B7^{high}$) of the corresponding values of A6.

The residues of pMHC forming greater than 50% average occupancy under high load differed between A6 and B7 (**Figure 2** [E](#)), as did the location of V-module residues forming respective contacts with the pMHC residues (**Figure 2** [C](#)), further highlighting their divergence in the interfacial footprint under load. Despite this, the root-mean square fluctuation (RMSF) of C_α atoms of the Tax peptide measured after 500 ns was reduced in $B7^{high}$ and $V\alpha\beta$ -pMHC compared to $B7^0$ and $B7^{low}$ (**Figure 2-figure Supplement 1E** [C](#)), as observed for A6 (Chang-Gonzalez et al., 2024 [C](#)), which supports load-induced stabilization of the complex.

We calculated the distance between the V-module and pMHC as another measure of the interfacial stability (**Figure 2-figure Supplement 1F** [C](#); Methods). The distance was stably maintained in $V\alpha\beta$ -pMHC and $B7^{high}$ (before 1300 ns) whereas it fluctuated more in $B7^0$ and $B7^{low}$. Of note, the former two systems maintained the distance greater than that in the crystal structure by 0.3–

0.9 Å. Thus, a slight separation engendered by force or in the absence of constraint imposed by the C-module provides room for adjusting residues to form more stable contacts. The more stable maintenance of the distance between V-module and pMHC in $V\alpha\beta$ -pMHC and $B7^{high}$ is consistent with other measures of their stability explained above.

CDR3 positions are controlled by load-dependent $V\alpha$ - $V\beta$ motion

The greater number of $V\alpha$ - $V\beta$ contacts in $B7^0$ (**Figure 3** [A](#)) is consistent with the increase in total intra-TCR contact occupancy (horizontal bar in **Figure 1** [D](#) bottom panel). Without load this does not translate to a stronger TCR-pMHC interface explained above. B7 in general had fewer $V\alpha$ - $V\beta$ contacts (11.0–16.3) than A6 (15.9–23.1) (Chang-Gonzalez et al., 2024 [C](#)). The ~70% reduction in $V\alpha$ - $V\beta$ contacts for B7 is comparable to the ~50% reduction in contacts with pMHC between the two TCRs (**Figure 1** [C](#)).

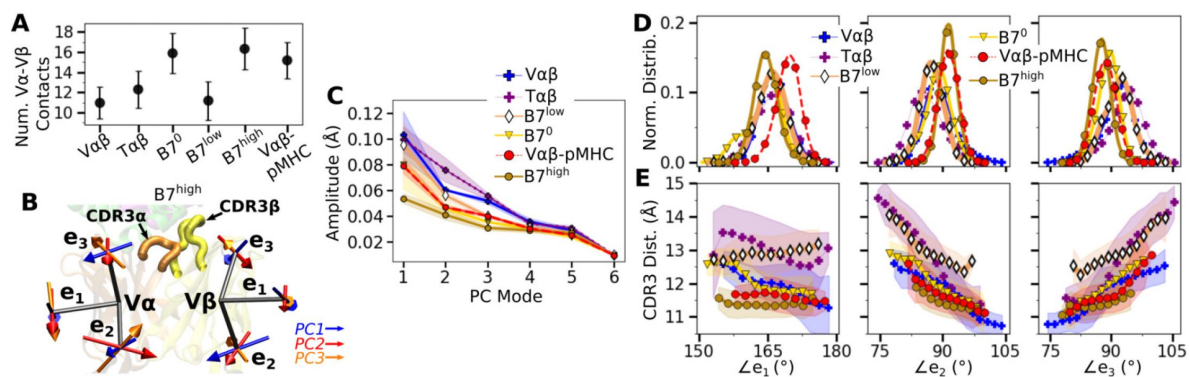


Figure 3.

Vα-Vβ motion of B7. (A) Number of Vα-Vβ contacts with greater than 50% average occupancy and 80% maximum instantaneous occupancy between 500-1000 ns. Bars: std. (B) V-module triads { e_1 , e_2 , e_3 }. Arrows denote directions of the first 3 PC modes for B7^{high} as an example. CDR3s are labeled. (C) Amplitudes for the first 6 PCs. PCA was performed between 500-1000 ns. Transparent bands: std for PCA performed in three overlapping intervals (500–800 ns, 600–900 ns, and 700–1000 ns). (D) Histograms of the V-module triad angles. (E) CDR3 distance vs. triad angles. Transparent bands: std. Both D and E were determined from data between 500-1000 ns.

V α -V β motion was measured via triads (orientational markers) assigned to respective domains and by performing principal component analysis (PCA) (**Figure 3** [B](#); Methods). PC amplitude was the lowest for B7^{high} and V α β -pMHC (**Figure 3** [C](#)), which is consistent with the greater number of V α -V β contacts. Regarding the direction of motion, the mutually orthogonal PC directions can be difficult to interpret (arrows in **Figure 3** [B](#)). We instead measured angles between the matching arms of the two triads named $\angle e_i$ ($i = 1, 2, 3$), to examine the V α -V β motion in structurally interpretable directions (**Figure 3** [D](#)) (Chang-Gonzalez et al., 2024 [B](#)). For example, $\angle e_1$ is the angle between each e_1 arm from V α and V β , which describes a ‘flapping’ or ‘twisting’ motion of the two domains. Since e_2 and e_3 lie approximately parallel to the V α -V β interface, they vary reciprocally, corresponding to a ‘scissoring’ motion (Hwang et al., 2020 [B](#)).

Measuring the distance between CDR3 α and CDR3 β (“CDR3 distance”) revealed that this distance is the shortest for B7^{high} followed by V α β -pMHC. Comparing CDR3 distance versus triad angles (**Figure 3** [E](#)) shows that CDR3 distance varied in opposite directions with $\angle e_2$ and $\angle e_3$, which reflects their reciprocal relation (opposite slopes in **Figure 3** [E](#)). In comparison, the CDR3 distance of the B7 crystal structure is 12.0 Å, which is larger than those of B7^{high} and V α β -pMHC (**Figure 3** [E](#)). The slight separation between the V-module and pMHC (**Figure 2-figure Supplement 1F** [B](#)) in V α β -pMHC and B7^{high} allows CDR3 loops to come closer together compared to the crystal structure, akin to pinching the central protrusion of the peptide.

Asymmetric V-C bending in the B7 TCR is suppressed with applied load

Next we considered the motion between the V- and C-modules (“V-C motion”). The number of high-occupancy contacts for the C α -C β interface (26.2–27.5) was considerably greater than those for V α -V β (11.2–16.3), indicating that the C-module acts as a single base for the V-C motion, as noted for A6 and JM22 TCRs (Hwang et al., 2020 [B](#); Chang-Gonzalez et al., 2024 [B](#)). Continuing this general feature, there were fewer high-occupancy contacts for the V α -C α interface compared to the V β -C β interface (**Figure 4** [A](#)).

The V-C motion was analyzed by using the bead-on-chain (BOC) model that tracks individual domains and the hinge between them (**Figure 4** [B](#)). PC motion directions were compared by calculating the dot products between the corresponding PC vectors (**Figure 4-figure Supplement 1A** [B](#)). PC1 corresponding to the V-C bending in B7^{high} (**Figure 4** [B](#)) was similar in other systems, whereas B7^{low} differed the most (darker color for B7^{low} in **Figure 4-figure Supplement 1A** [B](#), PC1). Amplitudes of PC1 shows a clear distinction where the unliganded T α β and B7^{low} were more mobile than B7⁰ and B7^{high} (**Figure 4** [C](#)). Comparing PC amplitudes of the elements of the BOC between α and β chains revealed that V α moves more relative to the C-module than V β (**Figure 4** [D](#)), similar to A6 (Chang-Gonzalez et al., 2024 [B](#)). Amplitude of the hinge motion in the two chains varied, where H α had greater amplitude in PC1 for B7^{low} compared to B7^{high} (**Figure 4** [D](#), PC1 in bottom row). This suggests a more pronounced asymmetric motion in B7^{low}. The no-load B7⁰ H β amplitude was larger compared to H α (**Figure 4** [D](#), bottom, negative value for PC1 of B7⁰). For B7⁰, the small PC1 amplitude of the overall V-C motion without load (**Figure 4** [C](#)) does not suppress the motional asymmetry between α and β chains, while in B7^{high}, the chassis becomes less mobile under load.

The V-C angles (**Figure 4** [B](#), $\angle \text{TCR}\alpha$ and $\angle \text{TCR}\beta$) reveal the motional asymmetry in addition to PCA. As in the case of low-load A6 (Chang-Gonzalez et al., 2024 [B](#)), $\angle \text{TCR}\alpha$ of B7^{low} shows a wide bimodal distribution (**Figure 4** [E](#)). $\angle \text{TCR}\alpha$ decreased at around 700 ns as B7^{low} bent more (**Figure 4-figure Supplement 1B** [B](#)). This would put the V-module in an unfavorable orientation to bind pMHC (Hwang et al., 2020 [B](#)). The dependence of CDR3 distance on V-C angles was most steady in B7^{high} (**Figure 4** [F](#)). This supports the allosteric mechanism by which the asymmetric V-C motion of the whole TCR controls the V α -V β motion and the V-C orientation that in turn affects the stability of the TCR-pMHC interface.

Concluding Discussion

As a protein-protein complex, TCR-pMHC forms a weak interface. A typical heterodimeric protein-protein interface with BSA comparable to that of TCR-pMHC ($\sim 1700 \text{ \AA}^2$) has sub- μM binding affinity (Chen et al., 2013 [DOI](#)) while the affinity of the TCR-pMHC complex ranges between μM to hundreds of μM (Rudolph and Wilson, 2002 [DOI](#); Rudolph et al., 2006 [DOI](#)). Given the low equilibrium affinity, recent findings highlight the importance of mechanosensing, where force generated during immune surveillance of $\alpha\beta$ T-cells is utilized to discriminate cognate versus non-cognate pMHCs (reviewed in Zhu et al. (2019 [DOI](#)); Liu et al. (2021 [DOI](#)); Reinherz et al. (2023 [DOI](#))). Our earlier simulation studies of the JM22 and A6 TCRs showed that the dynamical motion of the TCR chassis is responsible for the force-driven stabilization of the contacts with pMHC, *i.e.*, catch bond formation (Hwang et al., 2020 [DOI](#); Chang-Gonzalez et al., 2024 [DOI](#)). Examining additional TCRs via all-atom MD simulation can inform how the mechanism is adopted. By finding similarities and differences between A6 and B7 TCRs, which recognize the same Tax pMHC, we can elucidate how mechanical force is utilized by each to impact the differential function of T cells.

Catch bond mechanisms generally differ among proteins (Thomas et al., 2008 [DOI](#)). For example, FimH and vinculin have relatively well-defined weak- and strong-binding states where there are corresponding crystal structures (Bakolitsa et al., 1999 [DOI](#); Le Trong et al., 2010 [DOI](#); Sauer et al., 2016 [DOI](#); Mei et al., 2020 [DOI](#)). Availability of the end-state structures enable using simulation approaches such as enhanced sampling of individual states and studying the transition between the two states (Languin-Cattoën et al., 2023 [DOI](#); Ccoa et al., 2024 [DOI](#)). In contrast, TCRs do not have any structurally well-defined weak- or strong-binding states, which requires a different approach. As demonstrated in our present work as well as in our previous papers (Hwang et al., 2020 [DOI](#); Chang-Gonzalez et al., 2024 [DOI](#)), our microsecond-long simulations of the complex under realistic pN-level loads and a combination of analysis methods are effective for elucidating the catch bond mechanism of TCRs, which shows that the load-dependent stabilization of the TCR-pMHC complex differs from simple relaxation of the structure in the initial crystallographic confinement.

Recently, Choi et al., 2023 [DOI](#) proposed a mathematical model of TCR catch bond formation. Their assumptions are based mainly on the steered MD (SMD) simulation (Wu et al., 2019 [DOI](#)) where partial unfolding of MHC and tilting of the TCR-pMHC interface were considered as required. Our mechanism does not conflict with their assumptions since the complex in the fully folded state should first bear load in a ligand-dependent manner in order to allow any subsequent larger-scale changes.

We found that the dynamic allostery of the TCR chassis observed in A6 (Chang-Gonzalez et al., 2024 [DOI](#)) and JM22 (Hwang et al., 2020 [DOI](#)) is largely conserved in B7. Ca and $\text{C}\beta$ domains form extensive contacts to construct a base, and the $\text{V}\beta\text{-C}\beta$ contacts are more extensive than $\text{Va-C}\alpha$ contacts. This leads to an asymmetric V-C motion where Va is more mobile relative to the C-module than $\text{V}\beta$. In turn, the motional asymmetry affects the relative positioning of CDR loops, as measured by the CDR3 distance as well as the orientation of the TCR-pMHC interface relative to the loading direction. Unless an adequate load is applied to the complex to suppress the motion, destabilization of the interface occurs. As noted in A6 and JM22, the C domain renders a disadvantage to binding except under force. This is indicated by the greater number of interfacial contacts and decreased $\text{Va-V}\beta$ motion of $\text{Va}\beta\text{-pMHC}$ (no C-module) simulations. The increased interfacial stability of $\text{Va}\beta\text{-pMHC}$ is also consistent with our discovery that the C-module likely undergoes a partial unfolding to an extended state, where the bond lifetime increases (Das et al., 2015 [DOI](#); Akitsu et al., 2024 [DOI](#)). Therefore, while the variable domain dictates TCR fit with pMHC, a logical evolutionary pressure would be for the constant domain to maximize discriminatory power by adding instability to the TCR chassis. Furthermore, considering single-chain versions of an antibody lacking the C-module (scFv) are in widespread use (Ahmad et al., 2012 [DOI](#)) including

CAR T cells (Reinherz et al., 2023 [DOI](#)), a better understanding of a TCR lacking the C-module may help with developing a novel TCR-based immunotherapy. Given the conservation of the asymmetric motion, we also predict the C β FG-loop deletion mutant of B7 TCR to possess a diminished catch-bond response, as our previous experiment (Das et al., 2015 [DOI](#)) and simulation (Hwang et al., 2020 [DOI](#); Chang-Gonzalez et al., 2024 [DOI](#)) demonstrated for other TCRs.

While dynamic allostery is overall conserved, A6 and B7 differ in the behavior of the TCR-pMHC interface under load. The crystal structures of the two complexes have a comparable number of TCR-pMHC contacts, with a total of 33 for A6 and 29 for B7 in terms of residue pairs, while the number of distinct atom pairs forming contacts are 46 for A6 (Garboczi et al., 1996a [DOI](#)) and 63 for B7 (Ding et al., 1998 [DOI](#)). During MD simulations, many of these contacts become transient, resulting in fewer high-occupancy contacts. In the thermally fluctuating state, there is a 4-fold increase in the difference in number of contacts between A6 and B7 over the difference for static crystal structures (**Figure 1** [DOI](#)). Previously, contacts found in crystal structures have been used to explain differences in responses to point mutations to the Tax peptide. For example, the sensitivity of B7 to the mutation of Y5 of Tax was explained based on the Y5-D30 α hydrogen bond and stacking of Y5 with Y101 β of B7 (Y101 β in the present study was numbered Y104 β in Ding et al. (1998 [DOI](#)) and Hausmann et al. (1999 [DOI](#))). In comparison, the more amenable pocket for Y5 on A6 was suggested to be responsible for the greater tolerance of A6 under mutations of Y5. In MD simulations of B7, the Y5-D30 α hydrogen bond is formed only in B7^{high}, after about 300 ns (**Figure 2-figure Supplement 1C** [DOI](#)), and the Y5-Y101 β nonpolar contact breaks during simulation of B7⁰ and is not present in B7^{low} (**Figure 2-figure Supplement 1A,B** [DOI](#)) while it persists with 62% occupancy in B7^{high} and 52% occupancy in Va β -pMHC (**Figure 2** [DOI](#) C,D; these occupancies are for the whole simulation period). Changes to T cell specificity by point mutations on Y5 are thus unlikely to arise solely from the size or the polarity of its binding pocket as a static structure. Instead, point mutations affect the organization and dynamics of the surrounding contacts in addition to fit (Chang-Gonzalez et al., 2024 [DOI](#)). In a related vein, intermolecular motional network has been suggested to be a controlling factor for allostery in a peptide-SH3 domain complex (Gomez et al., 2024 [DOI](#)), which aligns with the nonlocal and dynamic role of contacts at the TCR-pMHC interface. The inter-domain motion of TCR enables long-range allosteric discrimination of pMHCs, integrating the motion of the two entities such that they influence each other.

The 14.5-pN force on B7^{high} was applied under 190.0-Å extension (**Table 1** [DOI](#)), whereas the corresponding high-load simulation for A6 was with 18.2 pN at a slightly lower 187.7-Å extension (Chang-Gonzalez et al., 2024 [DOI](#)). The average total intra-TCR contact occupancy for B7^{high} between 500-1000 ns is 30.4 $\pm$ 0.49 contacts (**Figure 1** [DOI](#) C), compared to 38.7 $\pm$ 0.87 for A6 under high load (after 500 ns), which further supports a higher compliance of the former. With its higher compliance, the B7 TCR-pMHC complex needs to be under a greater extension than A6 to apply comparable levels of force, and it would be more difficult to achieve load-induced stabilization of the TCR-pMHC interface. This leads us to predict that B7 will exhibit a weaker catch bond where the peak of the TCR-pMHC bond lifetime is at a lower force. And the destabilization of B7^{high} at 1300 ns (**Figure 1** [DOI](#) D and **Figure 2** [DOI](#) B) may have been a result of our constant-extension approach to apply load, which allows reaching low-force states by the compliant B7. Although this approach was motivated by the constant spacing between a T cell and an APC (Reinherz et al., 2023 [DOI](#)), the actin cytoskeleton also adjusts the load applied to the TCR-pMHC complex (Feng et al., 2017 [DOI](#); Hu et al., 2024 [DOI](#)). How fluctuation in the applied load affects the TCR-pMHC dynamics is a subject of a future study.

As a related example to A6 and B7 TCRs, PA59 and PA25 TCRs share the same *TRBV* and *TRBJ* genes, and they share 11-aa CDR3 β loops that differ only at a single position (Trp vs. Leu) (Akitsu et al., 2024 [DOI](#)). Recognizing the same pMHC (PA₂₂₄₋₂₃₃/D^b), their maximum bond lifetimes and the peak catch bond forces differ considerably, 75 s at 21 pN for PA59, and 13 s at 15 pN for PA25

(Akitsu et al., 2024 [↗](#)). These differences may facilitate actions of the corresponding T-cells in tissues that present diverse mechanical environments provided by cell movement, adhesion molecules, tight junction, and non-compliant inflammation.

Likewise, T cells bearing A6 and B7 may also perform differently *in vivo* depending on tissue localization (Akitsu et al., 2024 [↗](#)) even though they behave similarly *in vitro* in terms of cytotoxicity and secretion of select cytokines (γ -IFN, MIP-1 α , and TNF α) (Ding et al., 1998 [↗](#); Hausmann et al., 1999 [↗](#)). We also predict the different catch bond profiles of A6 and B7 will render the two types of T cells to respond differently when the pMHC copy number on the APC is limited (Akitsu et al., 2024 [↗](#)). Differences in the catch-bond profiles may also affect the energy input for downstream signaling events that involve reversible conformational transitions in TCR $\alpha\beta$ within a certain range of forces and extends the TCR-pMHC bond lifetime by more than an order of magnitude (Akitsu et al., 2024 [↗](#)). Elucidating details of those differences is beyond the scope of the present work.

Disparate biological outcomes between structurally similar TCRs recognizing the same pMHC are mechanically possible since slight changes in interfacial contacts can result in altered distribution of loads across the TCR chassis so that changes in its dynamics affect interaction with CD3 signaling subunits (Reinherz et al., 2023 [↗](#)). Structural details of the dynamic amplification and propagation of the recognition signal warrant further investigation.

Computational Methods

Structure preparation

B7 TCR $\alpha\beta$ -pMHC was built from PDB 1BD2 (Ding et al., 1998 [↗](#)) using CHARMM (Brooks et al., 2009 [↗](#); Hwang et al., 2024 [↗](#)). Non-numeral residue IDs in the PDB were renumbered to follow sequential numbering used in the present study. We used MODELLER (Šali and Blundell, 1993 [↗](#)) to generate coordinates for missing loops in the α domain (S133-K136 and S170-D172 in the PDB numbering scheme) followed by a brief energy minimization. We visually verified MODELLER results, comparing generated loops to those of the related A6 TCR (Garboczi et al., 1996a [↗](#); Ding et al., 1998 [↗](#)). The constant domain of TCR α (α) was also missing coordinates for F204-S210 (F198-S204 after renumbering), which were added with the TCR α linker as detailed below. Disulfide bonds were assigned between cysteine residues as defined in the PDB file. Crystal waters within 2.8 Å from the protein were kept for the truncated structures, and all waters were kept for the full structure.

Histidine protonation state was determined to promote hydrogen bond formation with neighboring residues. The histidine N $^{\delta}$ atom was protonated as follows: MHC residues 3, 93, 114, 145, 151, 188, 260; β 2m residues 13, 51; TCR α all histidine residues; and TCR β residues 29, 47, 154. For the remaining histidine residues, the N $^{\epsilon}$ atom was protonated.

As done in Hwang et al. (2020 [↗](#)) and Chang-Gonzalez et al. (2024 [↗](#)), we extended the MHC and TCR $\alpha\beta$ termini as handles for applying positional restraints. For MHC, we used UniProt P01892 to add ²⁷⁶LSSQPTIP²⁸⁴. For TCR α we used GenBank AAA60627.1 to add ²⁰⁵CDVKLVEKSFETDT²¹⁸. For TCR β we used GenBank AAC08953.1 to add ²⁴⁵CGFTSESYQQGVLSA²⁵⁹. We placed an interchain disulfide bond between α C205- β C245. Added strands in the initially straight conformations were relaxed to a state similar to that in **Figure 1** [↗](#) A by performing a series of brief energy minimization and MD simulation with the FACTS implicit solvent model (Haberthür and Caflisch, 2008 [↗](#)).

Truncated structures were built based on the prepared B7 TCR-pMHC complex as:

- $V\alpha\beta$: The last residues were $\alpha P110$ and $\beta V113$.
- $T\alpha\beta$: The last residues were $\alpha D206$ and $\beta G246$ (no C-terminal strands).
- $V\alpha\beta$ -pMHC: includes $V\alpha\beta$, pMHC, and $\beta 2m$. The last residue of MHC was L276.
- $B7^0$: includes $T\alpha\beta$, pMHC, and $\beta 2m$. The last residue of MHC was L276.

MD simulation protocol

Solvation, energy minimization, heating, and equilibration of the B7 complexes followed the protocol in Chang-Gonzalez et al. (2024 [↗](#)), except for systems which include the pMHC, where we modified the preparation protocol prior to production runs as detailed below.

Laddered extensions

Applying the same protocol as done for A6 to achieve the laddered extensions in B7 resulted in substantial breakage of the TCR-pMHC contacts within the first 50 ns in several production runs. To mitigate this, we introduced distance restraints to selected atom pairs forming contacts between the TCR and pMHC to prevent them from breaking during preparatory simulations. This ensured that the complex could structurally adapt as we modified the extension distance, yet all laddered extensions maintained a core set of initial TCR-pMHC contacts. Atom pair distance restraints were removed in production runs.

Twelve atom pairs between TCR and pMHC were selected that were within 5 Å of each other in the equilibration restart file of the TCR-pMHC complex with added linkers. A 2-kcal/[mol·Å²] flat-bottom harmonic restraint potential was applied to keep the atom pair distance within the value at the end of the equilibration run. Then a 2-ns CPT simulation was carried out while also applying a 1-kcal/[mol·Å²] harmonic potential to the C_α atoms of the C-terminal MHC (I284), TCR α (T218), and TCR β (A259) residues. Production run followed upon removing the atom pair distance restraints. During the production run, the 1-kcal/[mol·Å²] harmonic potential to the TCR and MHC end-residues and a 10 Å flat-bottom harmonic distance restraint between $\alpha T218$ and $\beta A259$ were applied, the latter to prevent the ends of the C-terminal added strands from separating (**Figure 1—figure Supplement 1** [↗](#)). Throughout the production run, we intermittently measured average and rolling force in 40 ns intervals and found these to be around 10 pN, an ideal target for the low-load simulation. This simulation is the 173.7 Å $B7^{\text{low}}$ system reported in **Table 1** [↗](#).

Using the structure at the end of the 2-ns simulation with the TCR-pMHC atom-pair distance restraints, we increased the extension by 8 Å by moving the center of the 1-kcal/[mol·Å²] harmonic potential on the end-residue C_α atoms by 4 Å at each end. While keeping the TCR-pMHC atom-pair distance restraints applied, we launched another 2-ns simulation under the increased extension. Atom pair distance restraints were then removed and the production run was launched. The extension averaged after 500 ns of this simulation was 181.7 Å. Following the same way, we increased the extension by another 8 Å, which led to the 190.0 Å $B7^{\text{high}}$ system reported in **Table 1** [↗](#). We also decreased the extension by 8 Å from the initial 173.7-Å extension, which led to a 165.7-Å extension.

Among the 4 extensions tested, the 181.7-Å extension was not selected primarily because the average force of the simulation from 500 ns to 850 ns (the total length of the simulation), was

9.26 pN, only barely higher than the reported load for $B7^{\text{low}}$. For the 165.7-Å simulation, the average force from 500 ns to 900 ns (total length of the simulation) was 15.7 pN. We had observed this high force at low extension for A6 TCR (Chang-Gonzalez et al., 2024 [↗](#)) and attribute this to folding of the flexible added strands leading to contacts between the strands and the TCR constant domains.

V α β -pMHC and B7⁰

We also applied a 2-kcal/[mol·Å²] flat-bottom harmonic distance restraint during preparatory simulations of V α β -pMHC and B7⁰. We attempted to use the same set of atom pairs as in the ladder extension simulations, but considerable interface breakage occurred, likely due to changes in interfacial contacts after equilibration in these systems. We thus selected different atom pairs for V α β -pMHC and B7⁰. For consistency, we selected 12 atom pairs, the same number as in the ladder extensions, and distributed in the same way between the Tax peptide or MHC residues to V α or V β residues. The distance restraint was applied to the atom pairs for a 2-ns CPT simulation, then released for production runs.

Systems without load

The following additional restraints were used for systems without load.

- V α β , T α β : no positional restraints were applied.
- V α β -pMHC: we applied a weak 0.01-kcal/[mol·Å²] harmonic positional restraint to the backbone C α atoms of MHC α 3 (P185-L276) to prevent large transverse rotation of the whole molecule in the orthorhombic box.
- B7⁰: we applied a 0.2-kcal/[mol·Å²] harmonic positional restraint to the backbone C α atoms of MHC α 3 with RMSF less than 0.5 Å calculated from the simulations of B7^{low}. These residues were: L201-Y209, T240-Q242, T259-H263.

Production runs

Production runs were performed similar to Chang-Gonzalez et al. (2024 [link](#)). We used OpenMM (Eastman et al., 2017 [link](#)) with the CHARMM param36 all-atom force field (MacKerell Jr et al., 2004 [link](#)) and the particle-mesh Ewald method to calculate long-range electrostatic interactions. We used an Ewald error tolerance of 10⁻⁴ which is 1/5 of the default value in OpenMM and a 12 Å cutoff distance for nonbonded interactions. The complexes were simulated at 300 K with a 2-fs time step using the Nose-Hoover integrator in OpenMM. Production run lengths are in **Table 1** [link](#).

Trajectory analyses

Analysis methods are detailed in Chang-Gonzalez et al. (2024 [link](#)). Below we mainly explain B7-specific residue selections. We used the frames for 500-1000 ns of the production runs to calculate the average and standard deviation of the number of contacts, BSA, CDR3 distance, PCA, and triad and V-C angles. With a coordinate saving rate of 20 ps, this leaves at least 25,000 frames for analysis.

V-module to pMHC distance

The distance from TCR V-module to pMHC (**Figure 2-figure Supplement 1F** [link](#)) was measured between the center of mass of the C α atoms of the same residues used to build the V-module triads (described below) to the center of mass of five C α atoms from each of the central 4 strands forming the β -sheet floor located above the α 1 and α 2 helices of MHC (20 MHC atoms in total; **Figure 1** [link](#) A). These were R6-T10, I23-Y27, Q96-G100, and Y113-A117. RMSF of these residues after 500 ns was below 1.4 Å in all B7 systems, so the measured distance is minimally affected by the intra-domain conformational motion.

CDR3 distance

Distance between CDR3 α and CDR3 β (**Figure 3** [E](#), **Figure 4** [F](#)) was measured using the midpoint between backbone C α atoms of two residues at the base of each CDR3, which are E93 and K97 for CDR3 α and S94 and E102 for CDR3 β .

V-module triads

We assigned triads (**Figure 3** [B](#)) based on the backbone C α atoms of the stably folded β -sheet core of each variable domain (Hwang et al., 2020 [E](#); Chang-Gonzalez et al., 2024 [E](#)). Selected residues for triad assignment of the B7 systems were as follows. For V α , I19-Y24, F32-K37, H71-I76, and Y87-M92. For V β , T20-Q25, M32-Q37, D73-L78, and Y89-S94. Prior to triad assignment we aligned all complexes to the first frame of B7^{low} using the selected residues to monitor the relative motion between the two triads without global translation nor rotation.

V-C BOC

We assigned BOCs (**Figure 4** [B](#)) as detailed in Hwang et al. (2020 [E](#)); Chang-Gonzalez et al. (2024 [E](#)). To place beads for the C-module, we used the following residues. For C α , A118-R123, V132-D137, Y153-T158, and S171-S176. For C β , L143-T148, L157-N162, L190-R195, and F208-Q213. For the hinges, we used: α N114 for H α , and β D116 and β L117 for H β . We aligned all complexes to the backbone C α atoms of the selected residues of B7^{low} then built BOCs to monitor the motion of the V-module relative to the C-module.

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Figure 1—figure supplement 1.

Model of TCR $\alpha\beta$ with leucine zipper domain fused to the C-terminal added strands. Model was built based on PDB 1NFD (Wang et al., 1998 [\[1\]](#)). The construct was used in single-molecule optical tweezers experiments (Das et al., 2015 [\[2\]](#)). Blue spheres denote C α atoms of residues corresponding to α T218 and β A259 of B7 TCR (Figure 1 [\[3\]](#) A, bottom). Their distance is 6.7 Å. The 10-Å flat-bottom harmonic distance restraint on those atoms (see Methods) mimic the presence of the leucine zipper that prevents large separation of the added strands.

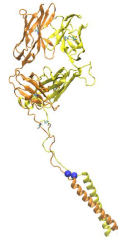
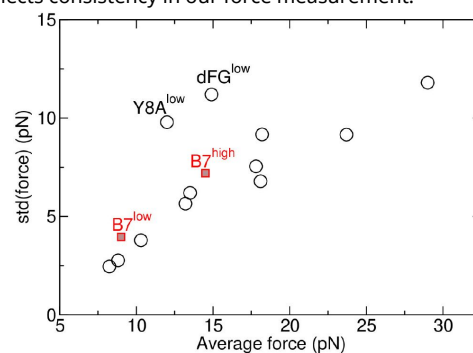


Figure 1—figure supplement 2.

Standard deviation vs. the average of the applied force. All data are measured between 500-1000 ns. Open circles are for A6 (Chang-Gonzalez et al., 2024 [\[4\]](#)). Red squares for B7^{low} and B7^{high} are from Table 1 [\[5\]](#). Except for Y8A^{low} (an antagonist) and dFG^{low} (C β FG-loop deletion mutant) for A6, the near-linear relation between the std and average in force is a consequence of the force being applied to the restraining potential via random conformational fluctuation of the complex (Burgess, 1973 [\[6\]](#)). See Appendix 3 of Chang-Gonzalez et al. (2024 [\[4\]](#)) for further explanation. The fact that data for both B7 and A6 lie on approximately the same line also reflects consistency in our force measurement.



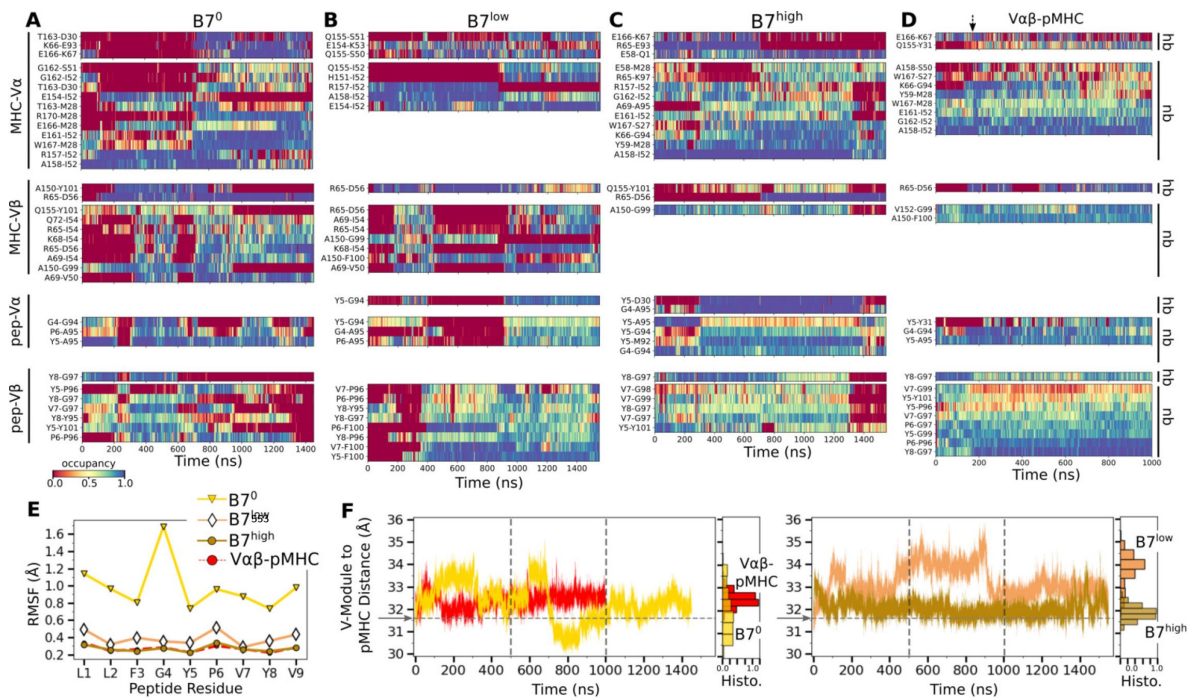


Figure 2—figure supplement 1.

Additional characterization of the TCR-pMHC interface. (A–D) Contact occupancy heat maps. (A) B7⁰, (B) B7^{low}, (C) B7^{high}, and (D) Vaβ-pMHC. Contacts with over-all occupancy greater than 30% and instantaneous occupancy greater than 80% are shown. hb: hydrogen bond, np: nonpolar contact. Arrow in panel D denotes the approximate time when the initial adjustment of contacts in Vaβ-pMHC happens (Figure 2B). (E) RMSF of peptide backbone C_α atoms between 500–1000 ns. C_α atoms were aligned to those at the beginning of the production run for RMSF calculation. (F) Distance between the V-module and pMHC. Histograms were calculated using data between 500–1000 ns, the interval between the vertical dashed lines. For Vaβ-pMHC and B7^{high}, avg±std between 500–1000 ns are 32.5±0.31 Å and 31.9±0.30 Å, respectively. V-module to pMHC distance measured from

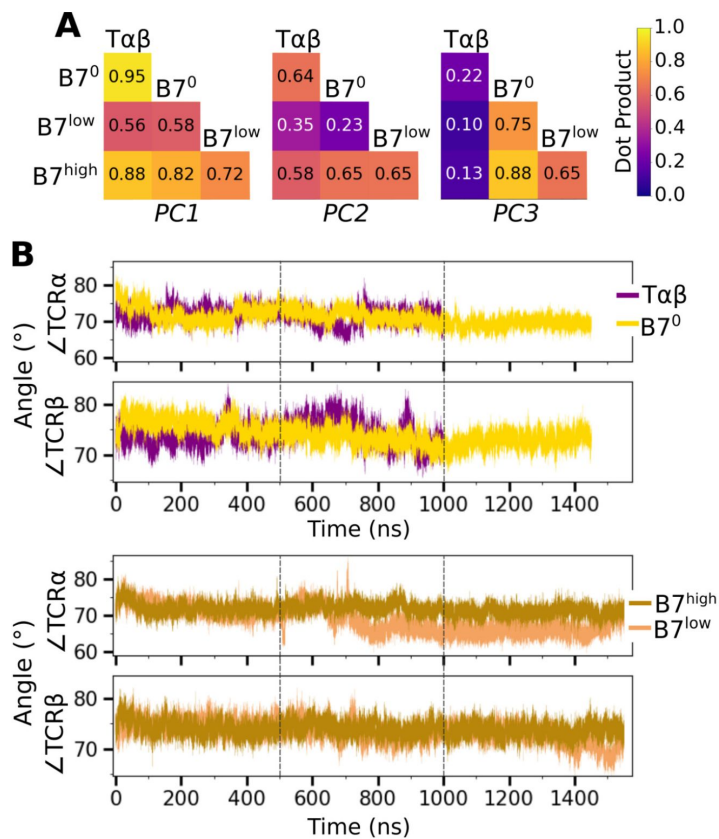


Figure 4—figure supplement 1.

Additional characterization of the V-C motion. (A) Dot products computed between the BOC PC vectors of listed systems. Values closer to 1.0 denote similar V-C BOC direction of motion. (B) V-C hinge angle trajectories over time.

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Reviewer #1 (Public review):

Summary:

This paper describes molecular dynamics simulations (MDS) of the dynamics of two T-cell receptors (TCRs) bound to the same major histocompatibility complex molecule loaded with the same peptide (pMHC). The two TCRs (A6 and B7) bind to the pMHC with similar affinity and kinetics, but employ different residue contacts. The main purpose of the study is to quantify via MDS the differences in the inter- and intra-molecular motions of these complexes, with a specific focus on what the authors describe as catch-bond behavior between the TCRs and pMHC, which could explain how T-cells can discriminate between different peptides in the presence of weak separating force.

Strengths:

The authors present extensive simulation data that indicates that, in both complexes, the number of high-occupancy inter-domain contacts initially increases with applied load, which is generally consistent with the authors' conclusion that both complexes exhibit catch-bond behavior, although to different extents. In this way, the paper expands our understanding of peptide discrimination by T-cells. The conclusions of the study are generally well supported by data. Further, the paper makes predictions about the relative strength of the catch-bond response of the two TCRs, which could be tested experimentally through protein mutagenesis and force application in Atomic Force Microscopy.

<https://doi.org/10.7554/eLife.104280.2.sa3>

Reviewer #2 (Public review):

In this work, Chang-Gonzalez and coworkers follow up on an earlier study on the force-dependence of peptide recognition by a T-cell receptor using all-atom molecular dynamics simulations. In this study, they compare the results of pulling on a TCR-pMHC complex between two different TCRs with the same peptide. A goal of the paper is to determine whether the newly studied B7 TCR has the same load-dependent behavior mechanism shown in the earlier study for A6 TCR. The primary result is that while the unloaded interaction strength is similar, A6 exhibits more force-stabilization.

This is a detailed study, and establishing the difference between these two systems with and without applied force may establish them as a good reference setup for others who want to study mechanobiological processes if the data were made available, and could give additional molecular details for T-Cell-specialists.

<https://doi.org/10.7554/eLife.104280.2.sa2>

Reviewer #3 (Public review):

Summary:

The paper by Chang-Gonzalez et al. is a molecular dynamics (MD) simulation study of the dynamic recognition (load-induced catch bond) by the T cell receptor (TCR) of the complex of peptide antigen (p) and the major histocompatibility complex (pMHC) protein. The methods and simulation protocols are essentially identical as those employed in a previous study by the same group (Chang-Gonzalez et al., eLife 2024). In the current manuscript the authors compare the binding of the same pMHC complex to two different TCRs, B7 and A6 which was investigated in the previous paper. While the binding is more stable for both TCRs under load (of about 10-15 pN) than in the absence of load, the main difference is that B7 shows a smaller amount of stable contacts with the pMHC than A6.

Strengths:

The topic is interesting because of the relevance of mechanosensing in biological processes including cellular immunology. The MD simulations provide strong evidence that different TCRs can respond mechanically in a different way upon binding the same pMHC complex. These findings are useful for interpreting how mechanical force is employed for modulating different function of T cells.

<https://doi.org/10.7554/eLife.104280.2.sa1>

Author response:

The following is the authors' response to the original reviews.

Reviewer 1:

Summary:

This paper describes molecular dynamics simulations (MDS) of the dynamics of two T-cell receptors (TCRs) bound to the same major histocompatibility complex molecule loaded with the same peptide (pMHC). The two TCRs (A6 and B7) bind to the pMHC with similar affinity and kinetics, but employ different residue contacts. The main purpose of the study is to quantify via MDS the differences in the inter- and intra-molecular motions of these complexes, with a specific focus on what the authors describe as catch-bond behavior between the TCRs and pMHC, which could explain how T-cells can discriminate between different peptides in the presence of weak separating force.

Strengths:

The authors present extensive simulation data that indicates that, in both complexes, the number of high-occupancy interdomain contacts initially increases with applied load, which is generally consistent with the authors' conclusion that both complexes exhibit catch-bond behavior, although to different extents. In this way, the paper somewhat expands our understanding of peptide discrimination by T-cells.

a. The reviewer makes thoughtful assessment of our manuscript. While our manuscript is meant to be a “short” contribution, our significant new finding is that even for TCRs targeting the same pMHC, having similar structures, and leading to similar functional outcomes in conventional assays, their response to applied load can be different. This supports our recent experimental work where TCRs targeting the same pMHC differed in their catch bond characteristics, and importantly, in their response to limiting copy numbers of pMHCs on the antigen-presenting cell (Akitsu *et al.*, Sci. Adv., 2024).

Weaknesses:

While generally well supported by data, the conclusions would nevertheless benefit from a more concise presentation of information in the figures, as well as from suggesting experimentally testable predictions.

b. We have updated all figures for clear and streamlined presentation. We have also created four figure supplements to cover more details.

Regarding testable predictions, an important prediction is that B7 TCR would exhibit a weaker catch bond behavior than A6 (line 297–298). This is a nontrivial prediction because the two TCRs targeting the same pMHC have similar structures and are functionally similar in conventional assays. This prediction can be tested by singlemolecule optical tweezers experiments. Based on our recent experiments Akitsu *et al.*, Sci. Adv. (2024), we also predict

that A6 and B7 TCRs will differ in their ability to respond to cases when the number of pMHC molecules presented are limited. Details of how they would differ require further investigation, which is beyond the scope of the present work (line 314-319).

Another testable prediction for the conservation of the basic allosteric mechanism is to test the C β FG-loop deletion mutant located at the hinge region of the β chain, where the deletion severely impairs the catch bond formation (line 261–264).

Reviewer 2:

In this work, Chang-Gonzalez and coworkers follow up on an earlier study on the force-dependence of peptide recognition by a T-cell receptor using all-atom molecular dynamics simulations. In this study, they compare the results of pulling on a TCR-pMHC complex between two different TCRs with the same peptide. A goal of the paper is to determine whether the newly studied B7 TCR has the same load-dependent behavior mechanism shown in the earlier study for A6 TCR. The primary result is that while the unloaded interaction strength is similar, A6 exhibits more force stabilization.

This is a detailed study, and establishing the difference between these two systems with and without applied force may establish them as a good reference setup for others who want to study mechanobiological processes if the data were made available, and could give additional molecular details for T-Cell-specialists. As written, the paper contains an overwhelming amount of details and it is difficult (for me) to ascertain which parts to focus on and which results point to the overall take-away messages they wish to convey.

R2-a. As mentioned above and as the reviewer correctly pointed out, the condensed appearance of this manuscript arose largely because we intended it to be a Research Advances article as a short follow up study of our previous paper on A6 TCR published in eLife. Most of the analysis scripts for the A6 TCR study are already available on Github. For the present manuscript, we have created a separate Github repository containing sample simulation systems and scripts for the B7 TCR.

Regarding the focus issue, it is in part due to the complex nature of the problem, which required simulations under different conditions and multi-faceted analyses. We believe the extensive updates to the figures and texts make clearer and improved presentation. But we note that even in the earlier version, the reviewer pointed out the main take-away message well: “The primary result is that while the unloaded interaction strength is similar, A6 exhibits more force stabilization.

Detailed comments:

(1) In Table 1 - are the values of the extension column the deviation from the average length at zero force (that is what I would term extension) or is it the distance between anchor points (which is what I would assume based on the large values. If the latter, I suggest changing the heading, and then also reporting the average extension with an asterisk indicating no extensional restraints were applied for B7-0, or just listing 0 load in the load column. Standard deviation in this value can also be reported. If it is an extension as I would define it, then I think B7-0 should indicate extension = 0+/- something. The distance between anchor points could also be labeled in Figure 1A.

R2-b. “Extension” is the distance between anchor points that the reviewer is referring to (blue spheres at the ends of the added strands in Figure 1A). While its meaning should be clear in the section “Laddered extensions” in “MD simulation protocol” (line 357–390), in a strict sense, we agree that using it for the end-to-end distance can be confusing. However, since we have already used it in our previous two papers (Hwang *et al.*, PNAS 2020 and Chang-Gonzalez *et al.*, eLife, 2024), we prefer to keep it for consistency. Instead, in the caption of

Table 1, we explained its meaning, and also explicitly labeled it in Figure 1A, as the reviewer suggested.

Please also note that the no-load case B7⁰ was performed by separately building a TCR-pMHC complex without added linkers (line 352), and holding the distal part of pMHC (the $\alpha 3$ domain) with weak harmonic restraints (line 406–408). Thus, no extension can be assigned to B7⁰. We added a brief explanation about holding the MHC $\alpha 3$ domain for B7⁰ in line 83–85.

(2) As in the previous paper, the authors apply “constant force” by scanning to find a particular bond distance at which a desired force is selected, rather than simply applying a constant force. I find this approach less desirable unless there is experimental evidence suggesting the pMHC and TCR were forced to be a particular distance apart when forces are applied. It is relatively trivial to apply constant forces, so in general, I would suggest this would have been a reasonable comparison. Line 243-245 speculates that there is a difference in catch bonding behavior that could be inferred because lower force occurs at larger extensions, but I do not believe this hypothesis can be fully justified and could be due to other differences in the complex.

R2-c. There is indeed experimental evidence that the TCR-pMHC complex operates under constant separation. The spacing between a T-cell and an antigen-presenting cell is maintained by adhesion molecules such as the CD2CD58 pair, as explained in our paper on the A6 TCR Chang-Gonzalez *et al.*, eLife, 2024 and also in our previous review paper Reinherz *et al.*, PNAS, 2023. In *in vitro* single-molecule experiments, pulling to a fixed separation and holding is also commonly done. We added an explanation about this in line 79–83 of the manuscript. On the other hand, force between a T cell and an antigen-presenting cell is also controlled by the actin cytoskeleton, which make the applied load not a simple function of the separation between the two cells. An explanation about this was added in line 300–303. Detailed comparison between constant extension vs. constant force simulations is definitely a subject of our future study.

Regarding line 243–245 of the original submission (line 297–298 of the revised manuscript), we agree with the reviewer that without further tests, lower forces at larger extensions *per se* cannot be an indicator that B7 forms a weaker catch bond. But with additional information, one can see it does have relevance to the catch bond strength. In addition to fewer TCR-pMHC contacts (Figure 1C of our manuscript), the intra-TCR contacts are also reduced compared to those of A6 (bottom panel of Figure 1D vs. Chang-Gonzalez *et al.*, eLife, 2024, Figure 8A,B, first column). Based on these data, we calculated the average total intra-TCR contact occupancies in the 500–1000-ns interval, which was 30.4 ± 0.49 (average $\pm$ std) for B7 and 38.7 ± 0.87 for A6. This result shows that the B7 TCR forms a looser complex with pMHC compared to A6. Also, B7^{low} and B7^{high} differ in extension by 16.3 Å while A6^{low} and A6^{high} differ by 5.1 Å, for similar ~5-pN difference between low- and high-load cases. With the higher compliance of B7, it would be more difficult to achieve load-induced stabilization of the TCR-pMHC interface, hence a weaker catch bond. We explained this in line 129–132 and line 292–297.

(3) On a related note, the authors do not refer to or consider other works using MD to study force-stabilized interactions (e.g. for catch bonding systems), e.g. these cases where constant force is applied and enhanced sampling techniques are used to assess the impact of that applied force: [https://www.cell.com/biophysj/fulltext/S0006-3495\(23\)00341-7](https://www.cell.com/biophysj/fulltext/S0006-3495(23)00341-7), <https://www.biorxiv.org/content/10.1101/2024.10.10.617580v1>. I was also surprised not to see this paper on catch bonding in pMHC-TCR referred to, which also includes some MD simulations: <https://www.nature.com/articles/s41467-023-38267-1>

R2-d. We thank the reviewer for bringing the three papers to our attention, which are:

- (1) Languin-Cattoën, Sterpone, and Stirnemann, *Biophys. J.* 122:2744 (2023): About bacterial adhesion protein FimH.
- (2) Penã Ccoa, *et al.*, *bioRxiv* (2024): About actin binding protein vinculin.
- (3) Choi *et al.*, *Nat. Comm.* 14:2616 (2023): About a mathematical model of the TCR catch bond.

Catch bond mechanisms of FimH and vinculin are different from that of TCR in that FimH and vinculin have relatively well-defined weak- and strong-binding states where there are corresponding crystal structures. Availability of the end-state structures permits simulation approaches such as enhanced sampling of individual states and studying the transition between the two states. In contrast, TCR does not have any structurally well-defined weak- or strong-binding states, which requires a different approach. As demonstrated in our current manuscript as well as in our previous two papers (Hwang *et al.*, *PNAS* 2020 and Chang-Gonzalez *et al.*, *eLife*, 2024), our microsecond-long simulations of the complex under realistic pN-level loads and a combination of analysis methods are effective for elucidating the catch bond mechanism of TCR. These are explained in line 227–238 of the manuscript.

The third paper (Choi, *et al.*, 2023) proposes a mathematical model to analyze extensive sets of data, and also perform new experiments and additional simulations. Of note, their model assumptions are based mainly on the steered MD (SMD) simulation in their previous paper (Wu, *et al.*, *Mol. Cell.* 73:1015, 2019). In their model, formation of a catch bond (called catch-slip bond in Choi's paper) requires partial unfolding of MHC and tilting of the TCR-pMHC interface. Our mechanism does not conflict with their assumptions since the complex in the fully folded state should first bear load in a ligand-dependent manner in order to allow any larger-scale changes. This is explained in line 239–243.

For the revised text mentioned above (line 227–243), in addition to the 3 papers that the reviewer pointed out, we cited the following papers:

- Thomas, *et al.*, *Annu. Rev. Biophys.* 2008: Catch bond mechanisms in general.
- Bakolitsa *et al.*, *Cell* 1999, Le Trong *et al.*, *Cell* 2010, Sauer *et al.*, *Nat. Comm.* 2016, Mei *et al.*, *eLife* 2020:

Crystal structures of FimH and vinculin in different states.

- Wu, *et al.*, *Mol. Cell.* 73:1015, 2019: The SMD simulation paper mentioned above.

(4) The authors should make at least the input files for their system available in a public place (github, zenodo) so that the systems are a more useful reference system as mentioned above. The authors do not have a data availability statement, which I believe is required.

R2-d. As mentioned in R2-a above, we have added a Github repository containing sample simulation systems and scripts for the B7 TCR.

Reviewer 3:

Summary:

The paper by Chang-Gonzalez *et al.* is a molecular dynamics (MD) simulation study of the dynamic recognition (load-induced catch bond) by the T cell receptor (TCR) of the complex of peptide antigen (p) and the major histocompatibility complex (pMHC) protein. The methods and simulation protocols are essentially identical to those employed in a previous study by the same group (Chang-Gonzalez *et al.*, *eLife* 2024). In the current manuscript, the authors compare the binding of the same pMHC to two different TCRs,

B7 and A6 which was investigated in the previous paper. While the binding is more stable for both TCRs under load (of about 10-15 pN) than in the absence of load, the main difference is that, with the current MD sampling, B7 shows a smaller amount of stable contacts with the pMHC than A6.

Strengths:

The topic is interesting because of the (potential) relevance of mechanosensing in biological processes including cellular immunology.

Weaknesses:

The study is incomplete because the claims are based on a single 1000-ns simulation at each value of the load and thus some of the results might be marred by insufficient sampling, i.e., statistical error. After the first 600 ns, the higher load of B7^{high} than B7^{low} is due mainly to the simulation segment from about 900 ns to 1000 ns (Figure 1D). Thus, the difference in the average value of the load is within their standard deviation (9 +/- 4 pN for B7^{low} and 14.5 +/- 7.2 for B7^{high}, Table 1). Even more strikingly, Figure 3E shows a lack of convergence in the time series of the distance between the V-module and pMHC, particularly for B7⁰ (left panel, yellow) and B7^{low} (right panel, orange). More and longer simulations are required to obtain a statistically relevant sampling of the relative position and orientation of the V-module and pMHC.

R3-a. The reviewer uses data points during the last 100 ns to raise an issue with sampling. But since we are using realistic pN range forces, force fluctuates more slowly. In fact, in our simulation of B7^{high}, while the force peaks near 35 pN at 500 ns (Figure 1D of our manuscript), the interfacial contacts show no noticeable changes around 500 ns (Figure 2B and Figure 2-figure supplement 1C of our manuscript). Similarly slow fluctuation of force was also observed for A6 TCR (Figure 8 of Chang-Gonzalez *et al.*, eLife (2024)). Thus, a wider time window must be considered rather than focusing on forces in the last 100-ns interval.

To compare fluctuation in forces, we added Figure 1-figure supplement 2, which is based on Appendix 3-Figure 1 of our A6 paper. It shows the standard deviation in force versus the average force during 500–1000 ns interval for various simulations in both A6 (open black circles) and B7 (red squares) systems. Except for Y8A^{low} and dFG^{low} of A6 (explained below), the data points lie on nearly a straight line.

Thermodynamically, the force and position of the restraint (blue spheres in Figure 1A of our manuscript) form a pair of generalized force and the corresponding spatial variable in equilibrium at temperature 300 K, which is akin to the pressure P and volume V of an ideal gas. If V is fixed, P fluctuates. Denoting the average and std of pressure as $\langle P \rangle$ and ΔP , respectively, Burgess showed that $\Delta P / \langle P \rangle$ is a constant (Eq. 5 of Burgess, Phys. Lett. A, 44:37; 1973). In the case of the TCR $\alpha\beta$ -pMHC system, although individual atoms are not ideal gases, since their motion leads to the fluctuation in force on the restraints, the situation is analogous to the case where pressure arises from individual ideal gas molecules hitting the confining wall as the restraint. Thus, the near-linear behavior in the figure above is a consequence of the system being many-bodied and at constant temperature. The linearity is also an indicator that sampling of force was reasonable in the 500–1000-ns interval. The fact that A6 and B7 data show a common linear profile further demonstrates the consistency in our force measurement. About the two outliers of A6, Y8A^{low} is for an antagonist peptide and dFG^{low} is the C β FG-loop deletion mutant. Both cases had reduced numbers of contacts with pMHC, which likely caused a wider conformational motion, hence greater fluctuation in force.

Upon suggestion by the reviewer, we extended the simulations of B7⁰, B7^{low} and B7^{high} to about 1500 ns (Table 1). While B7⁰ and B7^{low} behaved similarly, B7^{high} started to lose contacts at around 1300 ns (top panel of Figure 1D and Figure 2B). A closer inspection revealed that

destabilization occurred when the complex reached low-force states. Even before 1300 ns, at about 750 ns, the force on B7^{high} drops below 5 pN, and another drop in force occurred at around 1250 ns, though to a lesser extent (Figure 1D). These changes are followed by increase in the Hamming distance (Figure 2B). Thus, in B7^{high}, destabilization is caused not by a high force, but by a lack of force, which is consistent with the overarching theme of our work, the load-induced stabilization of the TCR $\alpha\beta$ -pMHC complex.

The destabilization of B7^{high} during our simulation is a combined effect of its overall weaker interface compared to A6 (despite having comparable number of contacts in crystal structures; line 265–269), and its high compliance (explained in the second paragraph of our response R2-c above). Under a fixed extension, the higher compliance of the complex can reach a low-force state where breakage of contacts can happen. In reality, with an approximately constant spacing between a T cell and an antigen-presenting cell, force is also regulated by the actin cytoskeleton (explained in the first paragraph of R2-c above). While detailed comparison between constant-extension and constant-force simulation is the subject of a future study, for this manuscript, we used the 500–1000-ns interval for calculating time-averaged quantities, for consistency across different simulations. For time-dependent behaviors, we showed the full simulation trajectories, which are Figure 1D, Figure 2B, Figure 2-figure supplement 1 (except for panel E), and Figure 4-figure supplement 1B.

Thus, rather than performing replicate simulations, we perform multiple simulations under different conditions and analyze them from different angles to obtain a consistent picture. If one were interested in quantitative details under a given condition, e.g., dynamics of contacts for a given extension or the time when destabilization occurs at a given force, replicate simulations would be necessary. However, our main conclusions such as load-induced stabilization of the interface through the asymmetric motion, and B7 forming a weaker complex compared to A6, can be drawn from our extensive analysis across multiple simulations. Please also note that reviewer 1 mentioned that our conclusions are “generally well supported by data.”

A similar argument applies to Figure 2-figure supplement 1F (old Figure 3B that the reviewer pointed out). If precise values of the V-module to pMHC distance were needed, replicate simulations would be necessary, however, the figure demonstrates that B7^{high} maintains more stable interface before the disruption at 1300 ns compared to B7^{low}, which is consistent with all other measures of interfacial stability we used. The above points are explained throughout our updated manuscript, including

- Line 106–110, 125–132, 156–158, 298–303.
- Figures showing time-dependent behaviors have been updated and Figure 1-figure supplement 2 has been added, as explained above.

It is not clear why “a 10 Å distance restraint between α T218 and β A259 was applied” (section MD simulation protocol, page 9).

R3-b. α T218 and β A259 are the residues attached to a leucine-zipper handle in *in vitro* optical trap experiments (Das, *et al.*, PNAS 2015). In T cells, those residues also connect to transmembrane helices. Our newly added Figure 1-figure supplement 1 shows a model of N15 TCR used in experiments in Das’ paper, constructed based on PDB 1NFD. Blue spheres represent C α atoms corresponding to α T218 and β A259 of B7 TCR. Their distance is 6.7 Å. The 10-Å distance restraint in simulation was applied to mimic the presence of the leucine zipper that prevents excessive separation of the added strands. The distance restraint is a flatbottom harmonic potential which is activated only when the distance between the two atoms exceeds 10 Å, which we did not clarify in our original manuscript. It is now explained in line 371–373. The same restraint was used in our previous studies on JM22 and A6 TCRs.

Recommendations for the authors:

Reviewer #1 (Recommendations for the authors):

(1) Clarify the reason for including arguably non-physiological simulations, in which the C domain is missing. Is the overall point that it is essential for proper peptide discrimination?

R1-c. This is somewhat a philosophical question. Rather than recapitulating experiment, we believe the goal of simulation is to gain insight. Hence, a model should be justified by its utility rather than its direct physiological relevance. The system lacking the C-module is useful since it informs about the allosteric role of the C-module by comparing its behavior with that of the full TCR $\alpha\beta$ -pMHC complex. The increased interfacial stability of Va β -pMHC is also consistent with our discovery that the C-module likely undergoes a partial unfolding to an extended state, where the bond lifetime increases (Das, *et al.*, PNAS 2015; Akitsu *et al.*, Sci. Adv., 2024). In this sense, Va β -pMHC has a more direct physiological relevance. Furthermore, considering single-chain versions of an antibody lacking the C-module (scFv) are in widespread use (Ahmad *et al.*, J. Immunol. Res., 2012) including CAR T cells, a better understanding of a TCR lacking the C-module may help with developing a novel TCR-based immunotherapy. These explanations have been added in line 253–261.

(2) Suggest changing Va β -pMHC to B7⁰ Δ C to emphasize that the constant domain is deleted.

R1-d. While we appreciate the reviewer's suggestion, the notation Va β -pMHC was used in our previous two papers (Hwang, PNAS 2020, Chang-Gonzalez, eLife 2024). We thus prefer to keep the existing notation.

(3) Suggest adding A6 data to table 1 for comparison, making it clear if it is from a previous paper.

R1-e. Table 1 of the present manuscript and Table 1 of the A6 paper differ in items displayed. Instead of merging, we added the extension and force for A6 corresponding to B7^{low} and B7^{high} in the caption of Table 1.

(4) Suggest discussing the catch-bond behavior in terms of departure from equilibrium, e.g. is it possible to distinguish between different (catch vs slip) bond behaviors on the basis of work of separation histograms? If the difference does not show up in equilibrium work, the exponential work averages would be similar, but work histograms could be very different.

R1-f. Although energetics of the catch versus slip bond will provide additional insight, it is beyond the scope of the present simulations that do not involve dissociation events nor simulations of slip-bond receptors. We instead briefly mention the energetic aspect in terms of T-cell activation in line 316–319.

(5) Have the simulations in Figure 1 reached steady state? The force and occupancy increase almost linearly up until 500ns, then seem to decrease rather dramatically by 750ns. It might be worthwhile to extend one simulation to check.

R1-g. We did extend the simulation to about 1500 ns. The large and slow fluctuation in force is an inherent property of the system, as explained in R3-a above.

(6) Is the loss of contacts for B7⁰ due to thermalization and relaxation away from the X-ray structure?

R1-h. The initial thermalization at 300 K is not responsible for the loss of contacts for B7⁰ since we applied distance restraints to the initial contacts to keep them from breaking during the preparatory runs (line 358–370). While ‘relaxation away from the X-ray structure’ gives an impression that the complex approaches an equilibrium conformation in the absence of the crystallographic confinement, our simulation indicates that the stability of the complex depends on the applied load. We made the distinction between relaxation and the load-dependent stability clearer in line 233–238.

(7) Figure 4 contains a very large amount of data. Could it be simplified and partly moved to SI? For example, panel G is somewhat hard to read at this scale, and seems non-essential to the general reader.

R1-i. Upon the reviewer’s suggestion, we simplified Figure 4 by moving some of the panels to Figure 4–figure supplement 1. Panels have also been made larger for better readability.

(8) If the coupling between C and V domains is necessary for catch-bond behavior, can one propose mutations that would disrupt the interface to test by experiment? This would be interesting in light of the authors’ own comment on p. 8 that ‘a logical evolutionary pressure would be for the C domains to maximize discriminatory power by adding instability to the TCR chassis,’ which might lead to a verifiable hypothesis.

R1-j. This has already been computationally and experimentally tested for other TCRs by the C β FG-loop deletion mutants that diminish the catch bond (Das, *et al.*, PNAS 2015; Hwang *et al.*, PNAS 2020; ChangGonzalez *et al.*, eLife, 2024). Furthermore, the V γ δ -Ca β chimera where the C-module of TCR γ δ is replaced by that of TCR $\alpha\beta$ that strengthens the V-C coupling achieved a gain-of-function catch bond character while the wild-type TCR γ δ is a slip-bond receptor (Mallis, *et al.*, PNAS 2021; Bettencourt *et al.*, Biophys. J. 2024). We added our prediction that the FG-loop deletion mutants of B7 TCR will behave similarly in line 261–264.

(9) Regarding extending TCR and MHC termini using native sequences, as described in the methods, what would be the disadvantage of using the same sequence, which could be made much more rigid, e.g. a poly-Pro sequence? After all, the point seems to be applying a roughly constant force, but flexible/disordered linkers seem likely to increase force fluctuation.

R1-k. The purpose of adding linkers was to allow a certain degree of longitudinal and transverse motion as would occur *in vivo*. While it will be worthwhile to explore the effects of linker flexibility on the conformational dynamics of the complex, for the present study, we used the actual sequence for the linkers for those proteins (line 341–344).

Reviewer #2 (Recommendations for the authors):

(1) Figure 2 is almost illegible, especially Figure 2A-D. I do not think that these contacts vs time would be useful to anyone except for someone interested in this particular pMHC interaction, so I would suggest moving it to a supporting figure and making it much larger.

R2-e. Thanks for the suggestion. We created Figure 2–figure supplement 1 and made panels larger for clearer presentation.

(2) Figure 4 is overwhelming, and does not convey any particular message.

R2-f. This is the same comment as reviewer 1’s comment (7) above. Please see our response R1-i.

Reviewer #3 (Recommendations for the authors):

(1) The label "beta2m" in Figure 1A should be moved closer to the beta2 microglobulin domain. A label TCR should be added to Figure 1A.

R3-c. Thanks for pointing out about $\beta 2m$. We have corrected it. About putting the label 'TCR,' to avoid cluttering, we explained that $V\alpha$, $V\beta$, $C\alpha$, and $C\beta$ are the 4 subdomains of TCR in the caption of Figure 1A.

(2) Hydrogen atoms should be removed from the peptide in Figure 1B.

R3-d. We have removed the hydrogen atoms.

(3) The authors should consider moving Figures 1 A-D to the SI and show a simpler description of the contact occupancy than the heat maps. The legend of Figure 2A-D is too small.

R3-e. By 'Figures 1 A-D' we believe the reviewer meant Figure 2A–D. This is the same comment as reviewer 2's comment (1). Please see our response R2-e above.

(4) Vertical (dashed) lines should be added to Figure 3E at 500 ns to emphasize the segment of the time series used for the histograms.

R3-f. We added vertical lines in figures showing time-dependent behaviors, which are Figure 1D, Figure 2B, Figure 2–figure supplement 1F, and Figure 4–figure supplement 1B.

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