

1 **Molecular basis for inhibition of adhesin-mediated bacterial-host interactions**
2 **through a novel peptide-binding domain**

3
4
5
6
7
8

Shuaiqi Guo^{1-3,5}, Hossein Zahiri¹, Corey Stevens^{1#}, Daniel C. Spaanderman³⁻⁵, Lech-
Gustav Milroy^{3,5}, Christian Ottmann^{3,5}, Luc Brunsveld^{3,5}, Ilja K. Voets^{2,4,5}, Peter L.
Davies¹

9 *Corresponding author: Peter L. Davies, peter.davies@queensu.ca

10

11 ¹Department of Biomedical and Molecular Sciences, Queen's University, Kingston,
12 ON Canada K7L 3N6

13 ²Laboratory of Self-Organizing Soft Matter,

14 ³Laboratory of Chemical Biology,

15 ⁴Laboratory of Macromolecular and Organic Chemistry,

16 ⁵Institute for Complex Molecular Systems,

17 ²⁻⁵Address: Eindhoven University of Technology P.O. Box 513, 5600 MB Eindhoven,
18 Netherlands Tel: +31 (0)40 247 5303

19 #Author present address: Laboratoire des Polymères, Institut des Matériaux and
20 Institut des Sciences et Ingénierie Chimiques, École Polytechnique Fédérale de
21 Lausanne (EPFL), Batiment MXD, Station 12, 1015 Lausanne, Switzerland

22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34

35 **Abstract:**

36

37 Modulation of protein-protein interactions (PPIs) with small-molecules is a promising

38 conceptual approach in drug discovery. In the area of bacterial colonization, PPIs

39 contribute to adhesin-mediated biofilm formation that cause most infections.

40 However, the molecular basis underlying these adhesin-ligand interactions is largely

41 unknown. The 1.5-MDa adhesion protein, *MpIBP*, uses a peptide-binding domain

42 (*MpPBD*) to help its Antarctic bacterium form symbiotic biofilms on sea ice with

43 microalgae such as diatoms. X-ray crystallography revealed *MpPBD* uses Ca^{2+} -

44 dependent interactions to self-associate with a crystal symmetry mate via the C-

45 terminal threonine-proline-aspartate sequence. Structure-guided optimization derived

46 penta-peptide ligands that bound *MpPBD* 1,000-fold more tightly, with affinities in the

47 nano-molar range. These ligands act as potent antagonists to block *MpPBD* from

48 binding to the diatom cells. Since adhesins of some human pathogens contain

49 peptide-binding module homologs of *MpPBD*, this same conceptual approach could

50 help develop ligand-based PPI modulators to disrupt harmful bacteria-host

51 interactions.

52

53

54

55

56

57

58

59

60 **Introduction:**

61 Protein-protein interactions (PPIs) are central to most biochemical processes such
62 as actin and tubulin polymerization, ATP production through the electron transport
63 chain, and signal transduction via G protein-coupled receptors(1-3). Given PPIs' vital
64 role in the well-being of cells, their modulation by drug-like molecules is an attractive
65 approach that holds great promise for the development of new strategies to treat
66 various diseases. Over the past two decades, significant advances in structural
67 biology and medicinal chemistry have enabled some fruitful developments in drug
68 discovery to target PPIs that govern mammalian cellular processes(4-6). For
69 example, the structure of B-cell lymphoma extra-large (Bcl-xL) protein in complex
70 with a peptide derived from the Bcl-2 Antagonist/Killer (Bak) protein inspired the
71 fragment-based identification of the first Bcl-2 family inhibitors(7). This ultimately led
72 to the FDA approval of Venetoclax in 2016 to treat lymphocytic leukemia and
73 lymphoma(8). In addition to such small-molecule inhibitors, peptide antagonists have
74 been developed to target their partner proteins' ligand-binding sites to disrupt PPIs of
75 Bcl-2 proteins(9) and those involved in other diseases(10-13). Although the use of
76 small-molecule and peptide therapeutics to target PPIs is an active and highly
77 promising field(12-14), most of the studies published to date have been focused on
78 cancer-related, human PPIs. Investigations of PPIs that mediate bacterial infections
79 have taken second place to antibiotic development. It is only now when antibiotics
80 are losing some of their potency that other strategies for inhibiting bacteria are being
81 intensively studied(15-18).

82

83 Bacterial adhesins are a key class of virulence factors that bind bacteria to host
84 cells(19-22), and subsequently help develop multi-cellular communities called

85 biofilms responsible for over 80% of chronic infections in humans(23). There is
86 currently a shortage of effective treatments against biofilm-related infections(23-25).
87 With the increasing spread of antibiotic-resistant pathogenic bacteria, there is an
88 urgent need for the development of PPI disruptors to block the adhesins of bacteria,
89 which might prevent the colonization and persistent infections caused by biofilms.
90 Adhesins are typically long, modular proteins with one terminus anchored to the
91 bacterial surface, while the other end is extended out to interact with substrates like
92 the carbohydrates and proteins on host cell surfaces(19, 26-31). With structures of
93 adhesin-ligand complexes starting to emerge(32-34), researchers are beginning to
94 elucidate the molecular basis of the interactions required to build a biofilm. To date,
95 most of these studies have focused on the characterization of lectin-glycan
96 interactions(32, 33, 35), and have resulted in some effective treatments against
97 bacterial infections(17, 36). For example, the FimH adhesin of uropathogenic
98 *Escherichia coli* has been successfully targeted by mannose analogs to help treat
99 urinary tract infections(35, 37-41). These studies validate the efficacy of the anti-
100 adhesion strategy, which can be used as an alternative approach to treat bacterial
101 infections without the excessive use of antibiotics. While PPIs are heavily involved in
102 bacteria-host interactions, examples that detail the molecular basis of these
103 interactions are scarce. Given that PPIs are typically many fold stronger than those
104 of lectin-glycan interactions(42), the development of PPI inhibitors to disrupt
105 bacteria-host interactions will be of great interest and potential utility.

106 *Marinomonas primoryensis* ice-binding protein (*MplBP*) is an exceptionally large (~
107 1.5 MDa) Repeats-In-Toxin (RTX) adhesin found on the surface of its Antarctic
108 bacterium(27, 43). While its N-terminal Region I (RI) is responsible for anchoring the
109 adhesin to the outer-membrane, its C-terminal ligand-binding Regions III and IV (RIII

110 and RIV) help the bacterium form symbiotic biofilms with diatoms on the underside of
111 lake ice(27, 28). *MpIBP_RIII* contains five β -sheet-rich domains, including a
112 carbohydrate-binding lectin module (RIII_5, also referred as *MpPA14*) and a Peptide-
113 Binding Domain (RIII_3, *MpPBD*), both responsible for binding diatoms by interacting
114 with the cell-surface glycans and proteins, respectively. We reported the X-ray
115 crystal structure of *MpIBP_RIII1-4*, which revealed that *MpPBD* folds as an oblong β -
116 sandwich with a shallow, solvent-exposed ligand-binding cavity on the periphery of
117 the structure(27). Importantly, it was observed in the crystal unit cell that the three C-
118 terminal amino-acid residues (threonine-proline-aspartate, TPD) of *MpIBP_RIII1-4*
119 were stably anchored in the ligand-binding cavity of a symmetry-related molecule
120 within the crystal unit cell. The observed crystal contacts led us to postulate that
121 *MpPBD* binds its bacterium to diatoms by interacting with surface proteins via short
122 tripeptide sequences at the C-termini.

123 Here, we show that the TPD peptide sequence binds *MpPBD* in solution with an
124 affinity of 26 μ M. Using a structure-guided approach, we optimized the peptidyl
125 sequence by iteratively screening a library of pentapeptides and obtained ligands
126 that bound *MpPBD* ~ 1000-fold more strongly with affinities of ~ 30 nM. X-ray crystal
127 structures of *MpPBD*-ligand complexes revealed that the strong protein-peptide
128 interactions originate from a combination of Ca^{2+} -dependent polar interactions and
129 hydrophobic contacts. We further demonstrate that these short peptidyl ligands are
130 effective at inhibiting the binding of *MpPBD* to diatoms, which gives insight into how
131 microbial adhesion can be disrupted through ligand-based antagonists.

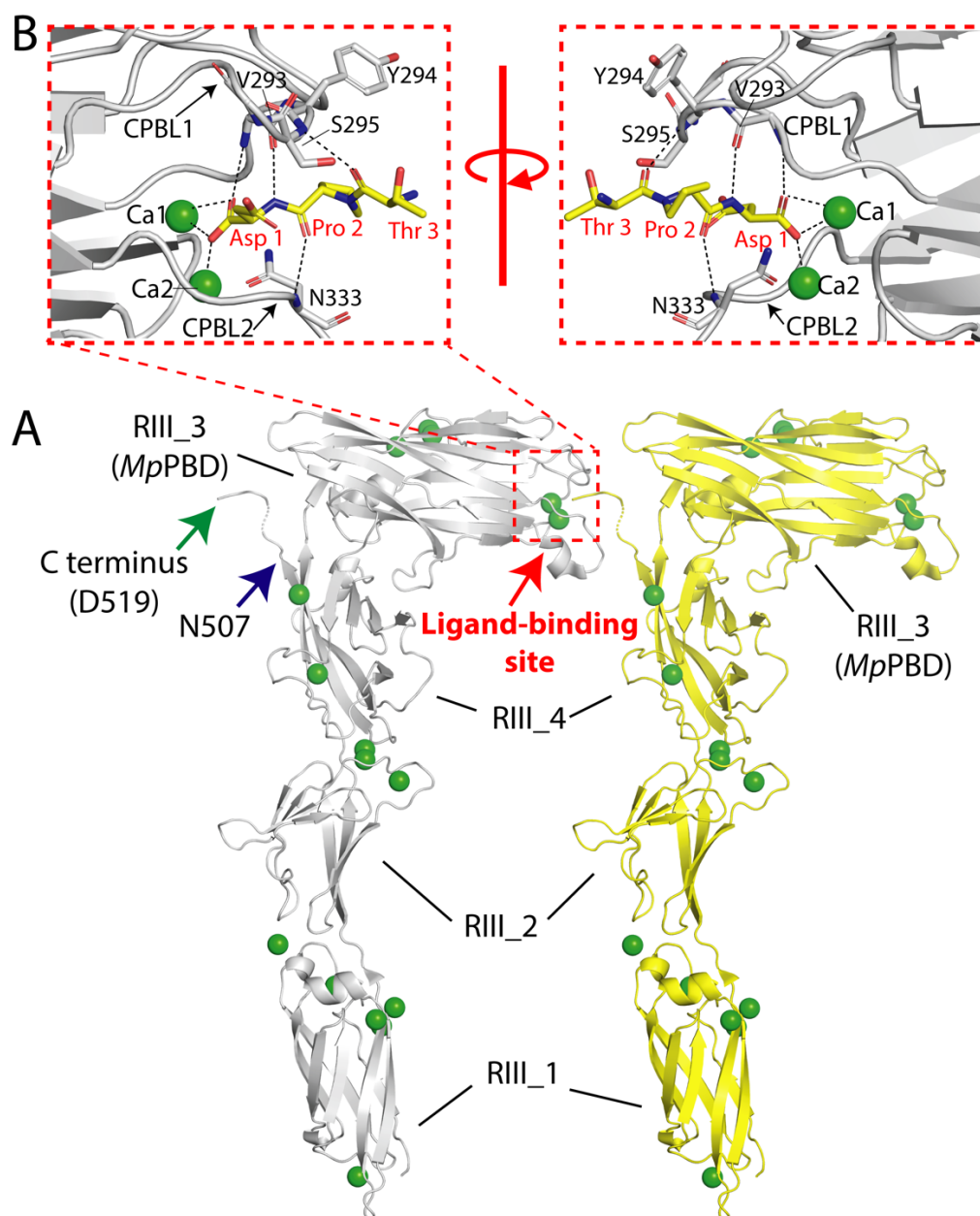
132 **Results and discussion**

133

134 ***Initial ligand identification***

135 Close inspection of the *MpIBP_RIII1-4* structure (PDB code: 5K8G) revealed the
136 detailed PPIs involved in its self-association within the crystal by binding the C-
137 terminal Thr-Pro-Asp (TPD) of a symmetry-related molecule (Figure 1A). The C-
138 terminal aspartate residue is buried inside the ligand-binding pocket of the other
139 molecule, with its terminal α -carboxyl oxygens binding Ca1 and Ca2 via three ionic
140 bonds (Figure 1B). The protein-protein interaction is further enhanced by hydrogen
141 bonding between carbonyl and amide groups of the TPD sequence and V293 and
142 N333 from the Calcium- and Peptide-Binding Loops 1 and 2 (CPBL1 and 2) of
143 *MpPBD*. The threonine residue at the pre-penultimate position (position 3) is the
144 most solvent exposed residue of the peptide, and the ambiguous electron density of
145 its side chain was indicative of a high degree of flexibility. The fortuitous
146 crystallisation of the self-interacting *MpPBD_RIII1-4* indicated that peptidyl
147 sequences are the likely ligands of *MpPBD*. To prevent the self-association through
148 the extended C-terminal “TPD” sequence, and facilitate the binding of free peptide to
149 *MpPBD*, we designed a new *MpIBP_RIII1-4* construct by truncating the carboxyl end
150 of the original protein from D519 to N507 (Figure 1A, Supplementary file 1-Figure
151 S1; green and blue arrows). This new *MpIBP_RIII1-4* construct was used for the
152 subsequent binding and structural studies described below.

153



154
 155 **Figure 1: Self-association of *MplBP_RIII1-4* within the crystal unit cell.** A) *MplBP_RIII1-4*
 156 molecule (grey) interacts with a neighboring symmetry mate (yellow) in the crystal via its C-terminal
 157 “TPD” sequence. The C-terminal D519 residue of the original *MplBP_RIII1-4* construct is marked by a
 158 green arrow, while the C-terminal N507 residue of the truncated construct used in this study is
 159 marked by a blue arrow. The ligand-binding site is indicated by a red box of dashed lines. B) Zoomed-
 160 in view of the ligand-binding site of *MplBP_RIII1-4* within the crystal showing the atomic details at the
 161 protein-protein interaction interface. The right panel shows the interface from a view that is rotated
 162 approximately 180° around a vertical axis from the left. Polar interactions are indicated by black
 163 dashed lines. Carbon atoms of the bound “TPD” sequence are colored in yellow while those for its
 164 symmetry-related protein are colored in grey. Oxygen atoms are red, nitrogen atoms are blue and
 165 Ca²⁺ ions are shown as green spheres. Amino acid residues involved in protein-protein interactions
 166 are labelled and shown in stick representation.

167
 168
 169
 170

171 Given that a C-terminal carboxylic acid group appears to be key for the protein-
172 protein interaction, we used fluorescence polarisation (FP) to screen a small
173 collection of 15 N-terminally FITC-labelled peptides that end in various C-terminal
174 amino acid residues with a free α -carboxyl group (selected on the basis of availability
175 within the laboratory). In the presence of $\sim 80 \mu\text{M}$ of *MpIBP_RIII1-4*, two FITC-
176 labelled and phosphorylated peptides with sequences of IKARAS(_pS)SPVILVGTHLD
177 (pep 14) and RHKKLMFK(_pT)EGPDSD (pep 15) produced significant delta
178 fluorescence polarisation values, indicating binding of these peptides to *MpPBD*
179 (Figure 2A). None of the other 13 peptides appeared to bind *MpPBD* as they
180 produced negligible delta polarisation values. FP with protein titrations further
181 showed that in the presence of 2 mM Ca^{2+} , peptides 14 and 15 bound *MpPBD* with
182 EC_{50} values of 2.7 μM and 0.69 μM , respectively. Moreover, the presence of excess
183 EDTA abolished the interaction between peptide and protein (Figure 2B), which
184 validated the Ca^{2+} -dependency of the protein-peptide interaction as demonstrated by
185 the structural data.

186
187 Interestingly, the three binding sequences “TPD”, pep 14 and pep 15 all ended in a
188 C-terminal aspartate residue with a free α -carboxylic acid group. This was consistent
189 with the structural data, which showed that the terminal carboxylic acid group of
190 “TPD” directly bonded to the two calcium ions in the *MpPBD* ligand-binding site.
191 However, since the C-terminal aspartate side chain of *MpIBP_RIII1-4* had no direct
192 interactions with its neighbouring symmetry mate in the crystal, it was not clear how
193 the aspartate residues in these three peptidyl sequences contributed to their binding
194 to *MpPBD*. To further validate the hypothesis that *MpPBD* binds specifically to
195 certain C-terminal amino-acid sequences, peptides encompassing only the last five

196 amino acids of the original *MpIBP_RIII1-4* construct (FITC-A β DSTPD) and pep 15
197 (FITC-A β GPDS) were synthesized and studied. The affinity of *MpPBD* for these two
198 short peptide ligands, together with two analogs (FITC-A β DSTD and FITC-A β GPDD)
199 was measured by FP (Figure 2C).

200

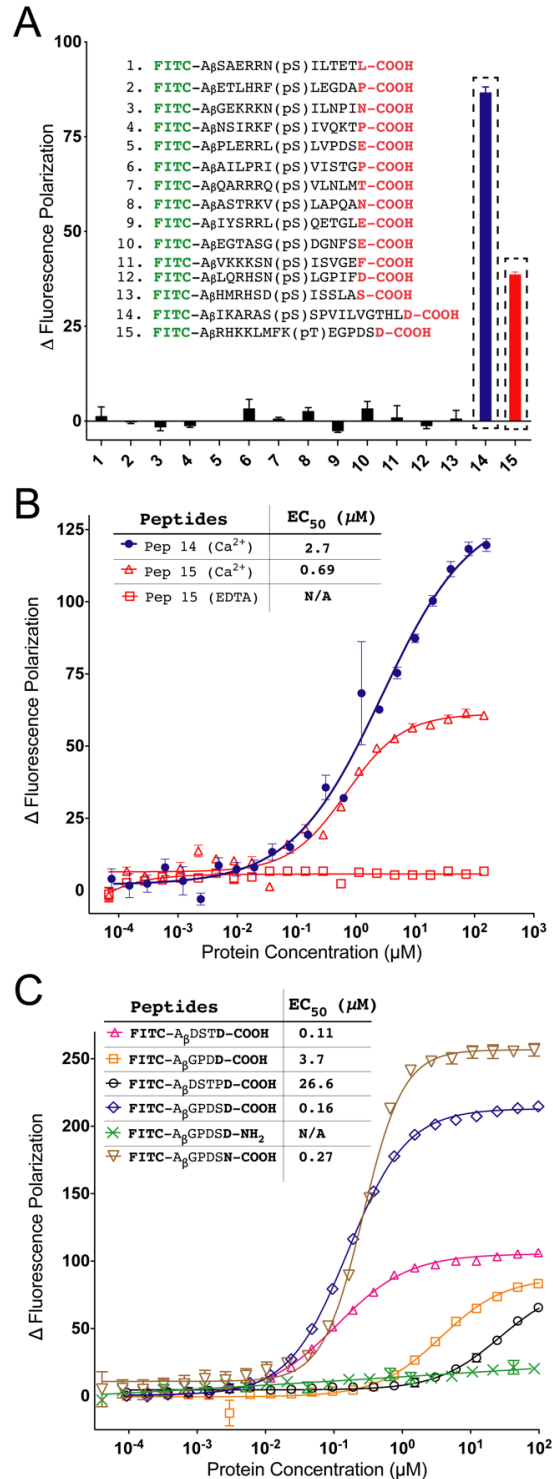
201 Unexpectedly, FITC-A β DSTPD, which contains the C-terminal “TPD” binding
202 sequence originally identified in the crystal structure of *MpIBP_RIII1-4*, showed the
203 weakest interaction to *MpPBD* out of this series, with an EC₅₀ of ~ 27 μ M. In
204 contrast, the peptide, FITC-A β DSTD, bound at least 200-fold stronger with an EC₅₀ of
205 0.11 μ M (Figure 2C). Similarly, FITC-A β GPDS bound with an EC₅₀ of 0.16 μ M,
206 which is roughly 4-fold stronger than its longer, phosphorylated counterpart (FITC-
207 RHKKLMFK_pTEGPDS, EC₅₀ = 0.69 μ M), validating the importance of the C-
208 terminal residues for binding *MpPBD*. Furthermore, FITC-A β GPDS bound the
209 protein 20-fold stronger than its analog FITC-A β GPDD.

210

211 To further ascertain the chemical constituents of the peptide C-terminus responsible
212 for binding *MpPBD*, two additional analogs of the peptide FITC-A β GPDS were
213 synthesized. When the C-terminal aspartate was replaced by an asparagine, a
214 residue with similar length side chain but different chemistry, the affinity of the
215 peptide FITC-A β GPDSN for *MpPBD* fell by 40% to an EC₅₀ of 0.27 μ M (Figure 2C).
216 However, the substitution of the terminal α -carboxylic acid group of FITC-A β GPDS
217 by a C-terminal carboxamide group (FITC-A β GPDS-NH₂) abolished the protein-
218 peptide interaction all together (Figure 2C). These results demonstrated the crucial
219 importance of the ionic interaction between the terminal carboxylic acid group and
220 the two Ca²⁺ ions in the ligand-binding site of *MpPBD*. The side-chain carboxylic acid

221 group of the peptide C-terminal aspartic acid residue gave more favourable binding
222 to *Mp*PBD compared to that of the side-chain amide of the peptide bearing an
223 asparagine at the same position. Moreover, the FP results indicate that the peptide
224 amino acids at the penultimate position (position 2) have a significant impact on the
225 peptide-protein interactions. The strong binders, FITC-A β GPDS and FITC-A β DSTD,
226 contain the small polar residues of either threonine or serine at this position. The
227 intermediate binder FITC-A β GPDS has an aspartate while the weakest binder
228 FITC-A β DSTPD has a proline at the same position. Although the proline is involved
229 in main-chain hydrogen bonding with V293 and N333 of the CPBL1 and CPBL2,
230 respectively, its rigid five-membered imine ring is unable to interact with the protein
231 (Figure 1B). As for FITC-A β GPDD, the negative charge of the aspartate side chain at
232 position 2 may be disruptive for the peptide-protein interaction. We therefore sought
233 to acquire detailed structural information to explain the high affinities of FITC-
234 A β GPDS and FITC-A β DSTD for *Mp*PBD.

235



236
 237
 238
 239
 240
 241
 242
 243
 244
 245
 246
 247

Figure 2: Identification of initial peptidyl ligands of *Mp*PBD. (A) Screening of a collection of 15 FITC-labelled peptides by fluorescence polarisation (FP) with *Mp*IBP_RIII1-4 at a concentration of ~ 80 μ M. Background polarization was subtracted from all values to result in Δ polarisation values on the y-axis. Peptide sequences are displayed. Data bars for peptides 14 (blue) and 15 (red) are indicated within boxes of dashed lines. (B) FP assay of Peptides 14 (blue closed circles) and 15 (red open triangles) from (A) with titration of *Mp*IBP_RIII1-4 in the presence of 2 mM CaCl₂ and in the presence of excess 2 mM EDTA (red open squares). (C) FP assay to assess the binding of six different FITC-labelled peptides to *Mp*PBD. The mean of three experiments were plotted. Some of the SD error bars are smaller than the data point symbols in (B) and (C). The calculated EC₅₀ values for each experiment are shown in (B) and (C).

248 **Structural basis for peptide-MpPBD interactions**

249 To elucidate the atomic details of the peptide-protein interactions, we solved the X-
250 ray crystal structures of *Mp*IBP_RIII1-4 in complex with the peptides FITC-A β DSTD
251 and FITC-A β GPDS to 2-Å resolution (Supplementary file 1-Table S1). Clear
252 electron densities were observed for the peptide amino acids in the last three
253 positions (Figure 3), while those at the position immediately beforehand at the N-
254 terminal end appeared to be ambiguous. No electron density could be observed
255 beyond position 3 suggesting these residues are highly flexible because they are
256 fully exposed to the solvent and are thus unlikely to interact with the protein.

257

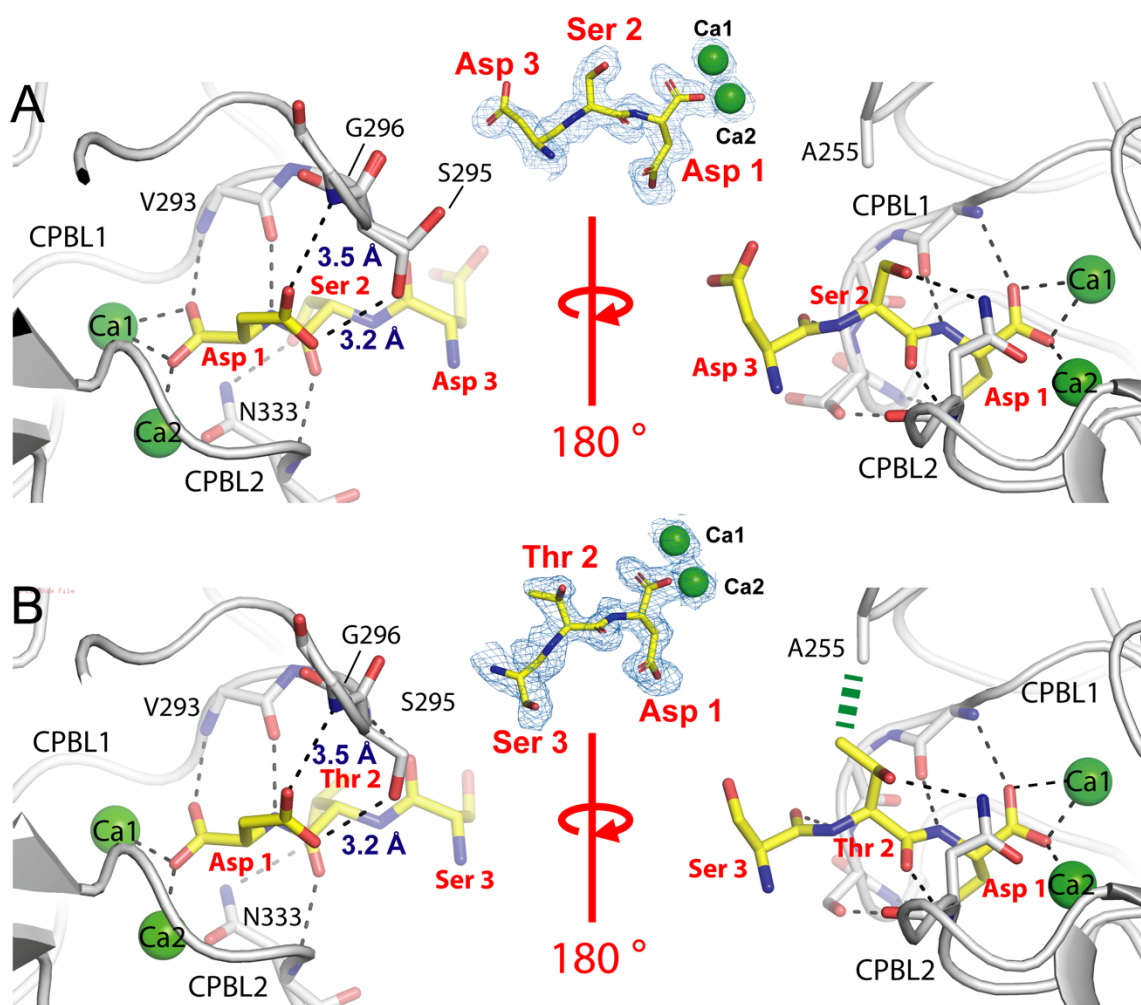
258 At position 2 of FITC-A β GPDS, serine has its side-chain hydroxyl group hydrogen
259 bonded with the side-chain amide of N333 on CPBL2, while the main chains of these
260 two residues hydrogen bond via their carbonyl and amide groups (Figure 3A). The
261 observed hydrogen bonding interactions help to explain why FITC-A β GPDS has a
262 20-fold higher affinity for *Mp*PBD than that of FITC-A β GPDD, with the only difference
263 between the two peptides being the presence or absence of serine at position 2.
264 Indeed, X-ray crystallography indicates that the larger aspartate residue at position 2
265 would clash with N333 and destabilize the protein-peptide interactions. In
266 comparison, FITC-A β DSTD has a similar binding mode to FITC-A β GPDS, with the
267 threonine side-chain hydroxyl hydrogen bonded with the amide of N333 side chain at
268 the edge of the peptide-binding cavity. In addition, the threonine side-chain methyl
269 group is involved in hydrophobic contact with residue A255 of the protein (Figure
270 3B). This helps restrain the free rotation of the threonine side-chain hydroxyl, locking
271 it into a favourable conformation for polar interactions. The observed additional

272 hydrophobic interactions might help explain why FITC-A β DSTD bound *MpPBD* with
273 slightly higher affinity than did FITC-A β GPDS.

274

275 Interestingly, the gain of hydrogen bonding interactions at the peptide 2nd position
276 had an impact on how the C-terminal aspartate of the peptides bound *MpPBD*. The
277 aspartate of the TPD sequence observed in the ligand-binding cavity showed no
278 interaction between its side chain γ carboxylic acid group and the protein. In
279 contrast, when FITC-A β DSTD and FITC-A β GPDS were complexed with *MpPBD*,
280 the side-chain hydroxyl of S295 within CPBL1 pointed downward to hydrogen bond
281 with the γ carbonyl of the peptide aspartate, which helped G296 to interact with the γ
282 hydroxyl of the same peptide aspartate via its main-chain amide (Figure 3A, B, left
283 panels). Taken together with the gained interactions from the peptide position 2, the
284 structural data gave the molecular explanation of why FITC-A β DSTD and FITC-
285 A β GPDS bound *MpPBD* with substantially higher affinity than their analogs, FITC-
286 A β DSTPD and FITCA β GPDD, respectively.

287



288
289
290
291
292
293
294
295
296
297
298
299
300
301
302
303
304
305
306
307
308
309
310
311

Figure 3: Protein-peptide binding interfaces revealed by X-ray crystallography. Zoomed-in views of the *Mp*PBD ligand-binding site interacting with peptides that end with sequences of DSD (A) and DSTD (B), respectively. The $2F_o - F_c$ electron density maps around the peptide residues and Ca1 and 2 are shown as blue mesh (contoured at 1σ). The right panels in A) and B) are views that are rotated around approximately 180° from the left panels. Polar interactions are indicated by black dashed lines. Carbon atoms of the peptides are colored in yellow while those for the protein are colored in grey. Oxygen atoms are red, nitrogen atoms are blue, while Ca^{2+} ions are shown as green spheres. Amino acids involved in protein-peptide interactions are shown in stick representation. Peptide amino-acid residues are indicated in red 3-letter code, while those for the protein are labelled in black one-letter code. CIF files can be found in Figure 3 – source data 1 and has been deposited in the Protein Data Bank (PDB: “Code”)

312

313 ***Structure-guided screening identified ligands with low-nano-molar affinity***

314 Guided by the structural insight that the C-terminal residues are crucial for the
315 peptide-protein interactions, we next sequentially screened libraries of pentapeptides
316 by FP to identify stronger ligands for *MpPBD*.

317 The first round of screening involved 20 pentapeptides with a consensus sequence
318 of FITC-AGAGX where the first four amino acids of the peptides were alternating
319 alanine and glycine residues. The ultimate (C-terminal) residue “X” represented one
320 of the 20 naturally occurring amino acids (Figure 4A). Consistent with the results
321 shown above, the peptide with an aspartate at the C-terminal position (FITC-
322 AGAGD) bound *MpPBD* the tightest, with a moderate EC_{50} of 3.2 μ M. This was
323 followed by those peptides with large hydrophobic side-chains at position 1, such as
324 FITC-AGAGI, FITC-AGAGY and FITC-AGAGF, which produced EC_{50} values of 4.4
325 μ M, 4.6 μ M, and 7.2 μ M, respectively, when bound to *MpPBD* (Supplementary file 1-
326 Table S2, Figure S2). Most of the other peptides bound *MpPBD* with an affinity in the
327 10 μ M range, while those with basic side chains (FITC-AGAGK and FITC-AGAGR)
328 had negligible interaction with *MpPBD*.

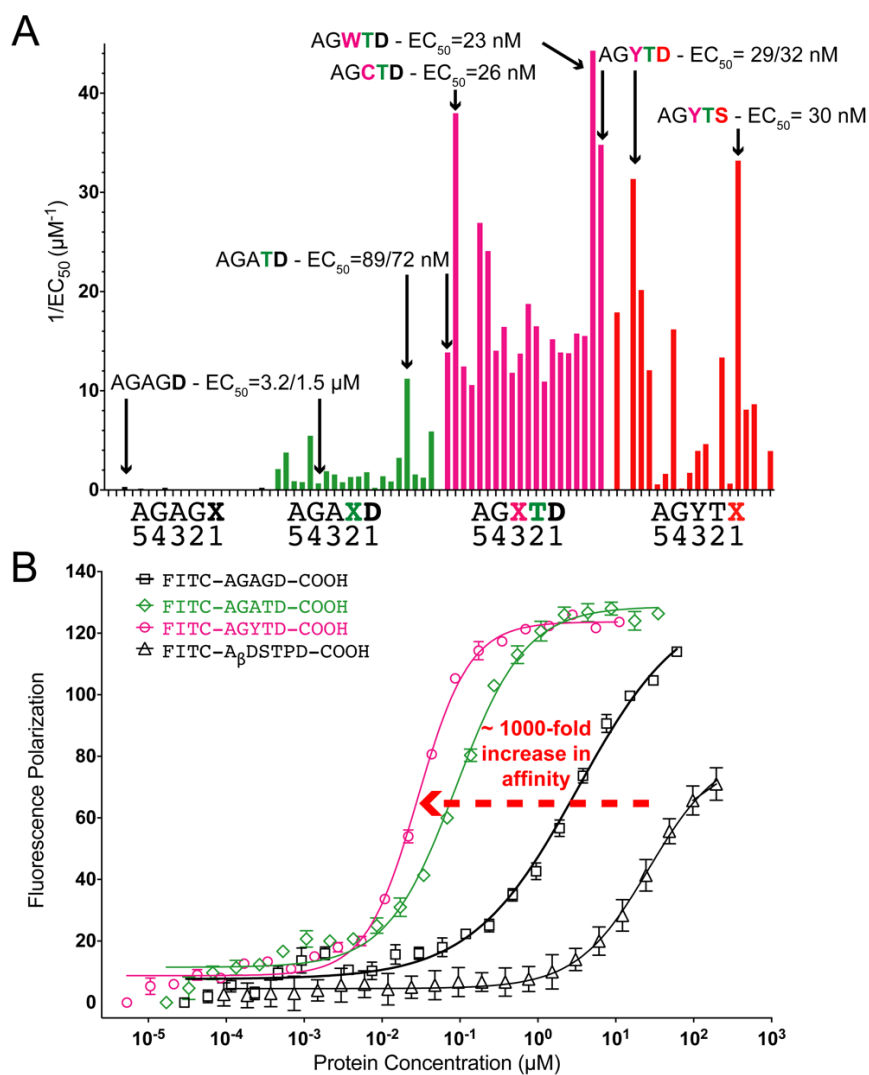
329 Having identified FITC-AGAGD as the strongest ligand for *MpPBD* in the first round
330 of screening, we proceeded with a second set of 20 pentapeptides that had a
331 consensus sequence of FITC-AGAXD. All peptides except for AGAPD (EC_{50} = 4.6
332 μ M) bound more strongly than FITC-AGAGD (EC_{50} = 1.5 μ M). Consistent with the
333 structural studies reported earlier (Figure 1B), neither proline nor glycine at position 2
334 can have side-chain interactions with *MpPBD*, explaining their lower affinity for the
335 protein. Furthermore, the peptide with threonine in the second position (FITC-
336 AGATD) has the highest affinity for *MpPBD* with an EC_{50} of 89 nM (Figure 4A, green;

337 Supplementary file 1-Table S2; Figure S3), which is up to 35-fold tighter than those
338 of FITC-AGAGD. Peptides with aromatic residues at the same position, including
339 FITC-AGAFD and FITC-AGAYD bound slightly weaker than did AGATD, with EC₅₀
340 values of 180 nM and 170 nM, respectively. Consistent with the characterisation of
341 FITC-A β GPDS and FITC-A β DSTD, FITC-AGATD bound *MpPBD* more than 3-fold
342 stronger than did FITC-AGASD (EC₅₀ = 310 nM), validating the importance of the
343 threonine methyl group in restraining the hydroxyl group to a favourable
344 conformation for interacting with N333.

345 With the last two C-terminal residues defined as Thr and Asp, we proceeded to
346 screen for the optimal amino acid in the 3rd position from the C terminus (FITC-
347 AGXTD). While the majority of the 20 peptides of FITC-AGXTD bound *MpPBD* more
348 strongly than did FITC-AGATD (72 nM in this round of screening), with affinity in the
349 nanomolar range, the three with aromatic side chains and cysteine stood out. In
350 particular, FITC-AGYTD, FITC-AGWTD and FITC-AGCTD produced EC₅₀ values of
351 29 nM, 23 nM, and 23 nM (Figure 4A, magenta; Supplementary file 1-Table S3;
352 Figure S4), respectively. We reason that these amino acids with hydrophobic side
353 chains at the 3rd position likely help the solvent-exposed residue interact with the
354 protein via hydrophobic interactions, contributing to their higher affinity for *MpPBD*.

355 Having demonstrated that residues at the 2nd and 3rd positions of the peptides have
356 an impact on how the C-terminal amino-acid interacted with *MpPBD*, we performed a
357 final round of screening, with a consensus sequence of FITC-AGYTX (Figure 4A,
358 red). The reasons for selecting the tyrosine-containing peptide sequence over the
359 tryptophan- or the cysteine-containing peptide include: FITC-AGYTD is more soluble
360 than FITC-AGWTD; FITC-AGYTD is not subject to dimerization the way FITC-

361 AGCTD can be linked by cysteine-dependent disulphide formation, which might
362 confound the results of the binding studies. The results of the screening revealed
363 that all but one of the FITC-AGYTX peptides bound *MpPBD* weaker than did FITC-
364 AGYTD, with their EC₅₀ values ranging from high nano- to micro-molar
365 concentrations. This validated the importance of the C-terminal aspartate residue for
366 the protein-peptide interaction. The only peptide with a comparable affinity to FITC-
367 AGYTD is FITC-AGYTS, which produced a calculated EC₅₀ of 30 nM (Figure 4A,
368 red; Supplementary file 1-Table S3, Figure S5). Given their similar affinities for
369 *MpPBD*, AGYTD and AGYTS were considered two of the optimal peptidyl ligands,
370 which bound *MpPBD* roughly 1,000-fold tighter than the “TPD” binding sequence
371 initially identified (Figure 4B).



372
373

374 **Figure 4: Structure-guided optimization of peptidyl ligands of *MpPBD*.** (A) Overview of the
375 binding of the 80 FITC-labelled pentapeptides to *MpPBD* in four rounds of screening. Data are plotted
376 as average $1/EC_{50}$ values calculated from FP assays of each individual FITC-labelled peptide (in
377 three replicates). All EC_{50} values are listed in Tables S2, S3, and the corresponding FP titration plots
378 are shown in Figures S2-S5. Data bars for peptides in the first round of screening (FITC-AGAGX) are
379 colored black, while those for second (FITC-AGAXD), third (FITC-AGXTD) and fourth (FITC-AGYTX)
380 rounds are colored green, magenta and red, respectively (only some amino-acid sequences are
381 labelled in the graph for short). The strongest *MpPBD* binders from each round of screening are
382 marked by arrows and their calculated EC_{50} values are indicated. (B) FP titration plots of
383 representative peptides showing the progressive enhancement of ligands' affinity for *MpPBD*.

384 ***Isothermal titration calorimetry validated the nano-molar affinity of *MpPBD****
385 ***ligands***

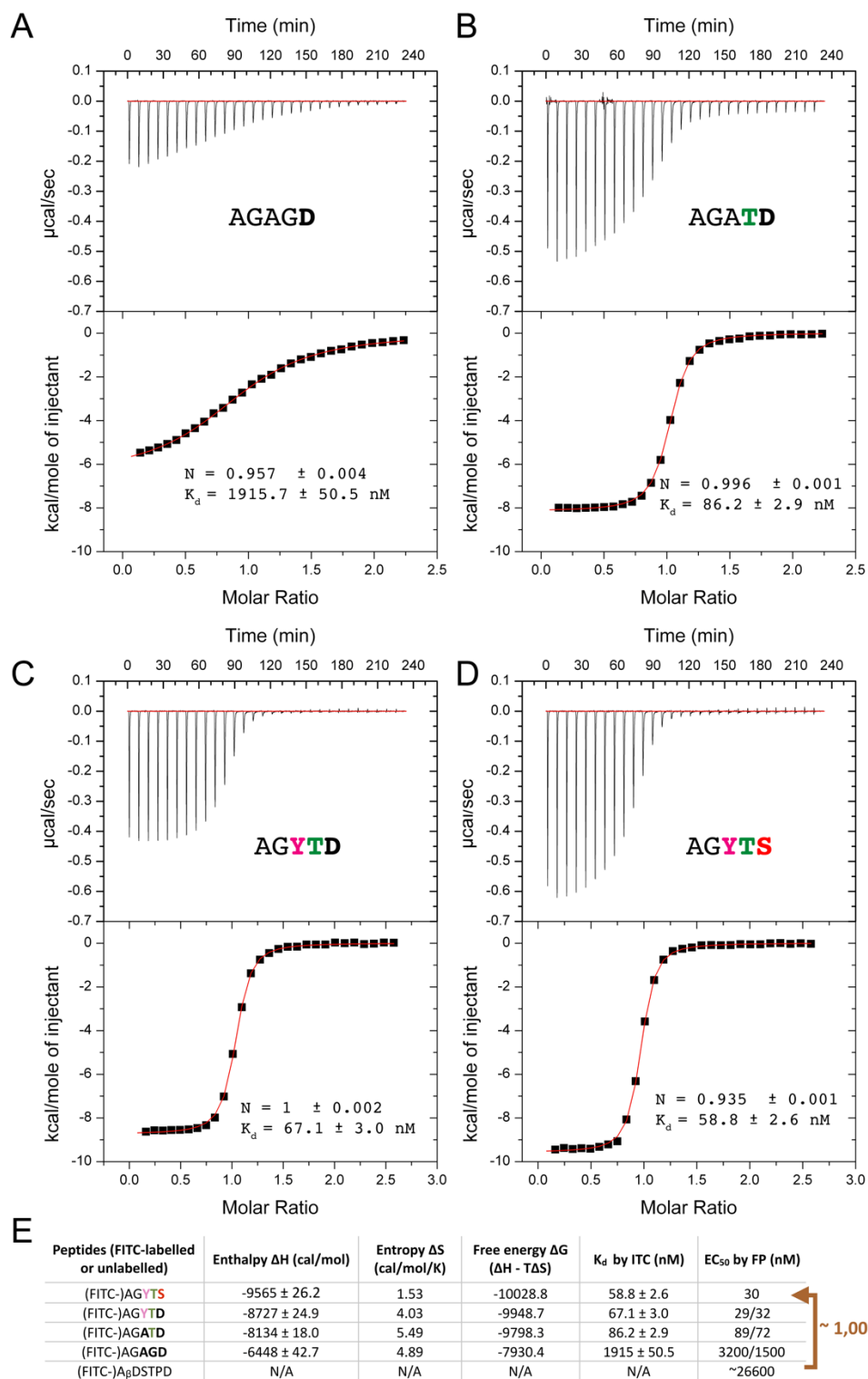
386 To further validate the peptidyl ligands identified by FP, we used isothermal titration
387 calorimetry (ITC) to directly measure the interactions between unlabelled peptides
388 (i.e. lacking FITC labels) and *MpPBD*. ITC measurements of *MpIBP_RIII1-4* (~ 20
389 μ M) titrated with the four different ligands (~ 200 μ M) of AGAGD, AGATD, AGYTD,

390 and AGYTS all yielded sigmoidal-shaped curves with calculated stoichiometry values
391 (N) close to 1 (Figure 5A-D). This was consistent with the X-ray crystallography data
392 that demonstrated *MpPBD* has only one ligand-binding site. The interaction of the
393 moderate binder, AGAGD, with *MpPBD* showed a gradually transitioning sigmoidal
394 curve, indicating a relatively slow saturation rate of the *MpPBD* ligand-binding sites.
395 This resulted in a calculated K_d of 1.9 μM , which is comparable to the EC_{50} values of
396 FITC-AGAGD obtained from the FP experiments (1.5 μM or 3.2 μM). The result
397 suggested that the FITC label did not have a significant impact on the peptide-
398 protein interactions. The three strong binders, AGATD, ATYTD and ATYTS, all
399 resulted in sigmoidal-shaped ITC curves with much steeper transitions. The three
400 peptides had calculated K_d values of 86 nM, 67 nM and 59 nM, respectively. Thus,
401 the ITC results of the representative peptides showed the same trend in binding
402 *MpPBD* as did FP, with comparable K_d and EC_{50} values. Taken together, binding
403 studies by FP and ITC have identified short peptidyl ligands with nano-molar
404 affinities to *MpPBD* (Figure 5E).

405

406 ITC indicated that significantly larger negative enthalpic (ΔH) contributions were
407 involved in the binding of the potent ligands, AGATD, AGYTD, and AGYTS, to
408 *MpPBD* than for the moderate binder AGAGD (Figure 5E). In contrast, the positive
409 entropic contributions (ΔS) were smaller for AGYTD and AGYTS when compared to
410 AGAGD. The calculated thermodynamic profiles suggested that the enhancement of
411 the peptide-protein interaction is primarily a result of a gain in polar interactions
412 compared to a hydrophobic effect. This was supported by the structural comparison
413 between the protein-peptide complex structures, which showed threonine or serine
414 at peptide position 2 gained side-chain hydrogen bonding interactions with the

415 protein compared to that of proline or glycine at the same position (Figure 3 vs
 416 Figure 1). However, additional high-resolution structural information was required to
 417 elucidate the basis for the stronger interactions between *Mp*PBD and its peptidyl
 418 ligands AGYTD and AGYTS.
 419



420

421 **Figure 5: Isothermal titration calorimetry results of the binding of four unlabelled peptidyl**
422 **ligands AGAGD (A), AGATD (B), AGYTD (C), and AGYTS (D) to *MplBP_RIII1-4*. (E) Table**
423 showing the thermodynamic parameters of the binding of the four unlabeled peptidyl ligands to
424 *MpPBD* calculated from ITC. K_d by ITC and EC_{50} by FP for the five representative peptidyl ligands of
425 *MpPBD* are shown. Red arrow compares the binding of the initially identified ligand that ends with
426 “TPD” with the optimal sequences that end with “YTS” and “YTD” obtained from the structure-guided
427 ligand optimization.

428

429

430

431 ***Molecular basis for potent binding by *MpPBD* ligands***

432 To further reveal the molecular basis for the potent *MpPBD* ligands, we solved X-ray

433 crystal structures of *MplBP_RIII1-4* in complex with the peptides AGYTS and

434 AGYTD to a resolution of 1.8 Å (Supplementary file 1-Table S1, Figure 6,

435 Supplementary file 1-Figure S6). Consistent with the other *MpPBD*-peptide

436 complexes, AGYTD and AGYTS had their terminal α -carboxyl group in contact with

437 Ca1 and Ca2 via three ionic bonds with average lengths of approximately 2.5 Å

438 (Figure 6, Figure 7A; Supplementary file 1-Table S4). The threonine residues in

439 position 2 had their hydroxyl group bond with the side-chain amide of N333, as seen

440 with FITC- A_{β} DSTD and FITC- A_{β} GPDS (Figure 6). However, the YTD and YTS-

441 containing peptides bound *MpPBD* with more hydrogen bonds of shorter lengths on

442 average compared to the weaker binders (Figure 7B; Supplementary file 1-Table

443 S4), which is consistent with the large negative enthalpic contributions for the binding

444 indicated by ITC. For example, the side chain of the terminal aspartate of AGYTD

445 interacted with *MplBP_RIII1-4* S295 and G296 with bond lengths of 2.5 Å and 2.8 Å,

446 respectively (Figure 6A; Supplementary file 1-Table S4), while those at the same

447 position for FITC- A_{β} GPDS and FITC- A_{β} DSTD were at 3.2 Å and 3.5 Å, respectively

448 (Figure 3). In contrast, the initially identified binding sequence that ends with TPD

449 lacked these two bonds when bound by *MpPBD* (Figure 1B).

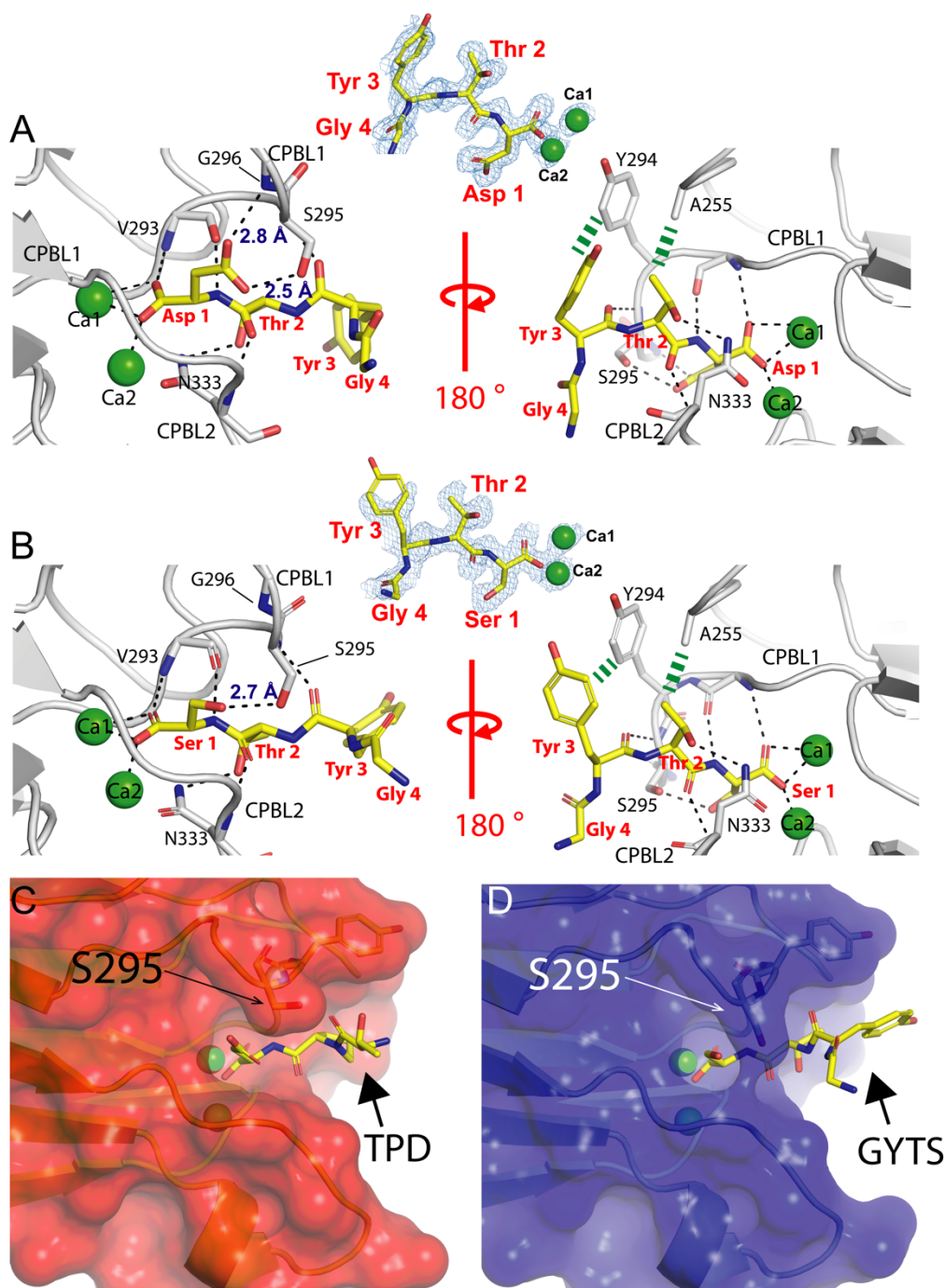
450

451 The tyrosine residues at position 3 of the YTD or YTS-containing peptides played a
452 key role in their tight interactions with *MpPBD*. Given the hydrophobic nature of its
453 aryl side chain, the solvent-exposed peptide tyrosine appears to pack against Y294
454 of *MpPBD*, which helps CPBLs to clench the peptide more tightly in the ligand-
455 binding cavity (Figure 6A, B). Indeed, the hydrogen bond lengths between the
456 peptide tyrosine main-chain oxygen (Tyr3-O) and protein S295 main-chain nitrogen
457 (S295-N) is 2.9 Å for AGYTD and 3 Å for AGYTS, which are shorter than those at
458 the same position for FITC-A β DSTD (3.2 Å) and FITC-A β GPDS (3.3 Å)
459 (Supplementary file 1-Table S4). These subtle structural differences underlined the
460 molecular basis for the potent binding to *MpPBD* by the peptides that end with YTD
461 or YTS compared to the weaker ligands (Figure 6C, D).

462

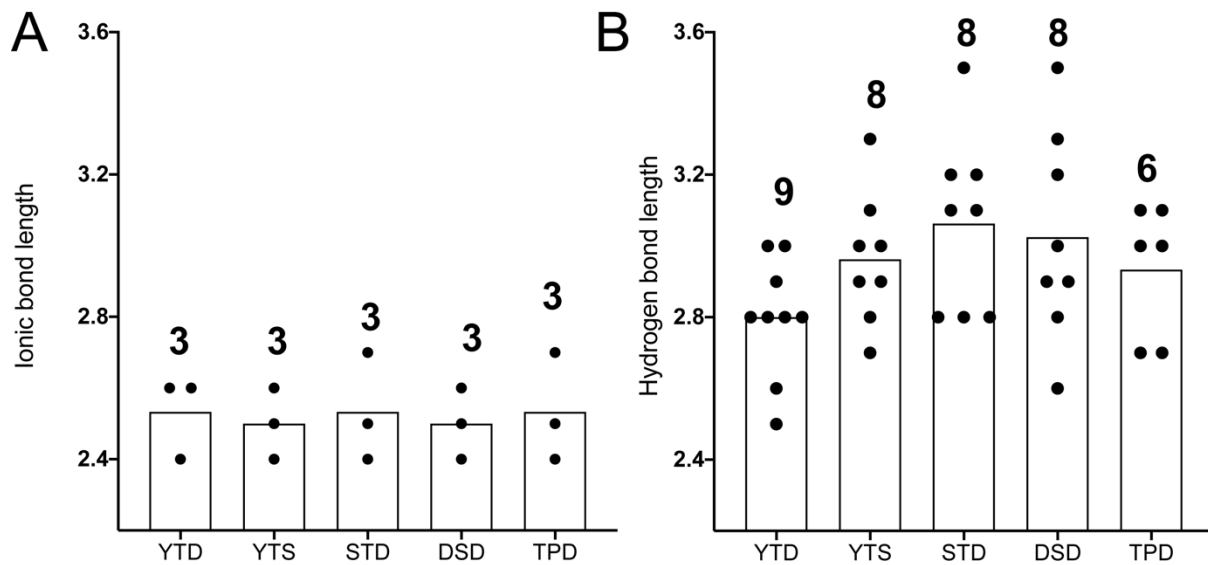
463 Taken together, the presence of a tyrosine residue at position 3 of AGYTS and
464 AGYTD stabilized the peptide-protein complexes via hydrophobic interactions. This
465 corroborated with the results that other FITC-AGXTD peptides with aromatic
466 residues at the 3rd position were also strong ligands for *MpPBD* (Supplementary file
467 1-Table S3; Figure 4A). These atomic details explain why our structure-guided
468 screening approach was extremely effective in obtaining potent ligands with nano-
469 molar affinities for *MpPBD*.

470



471
472
473
474
475
476
477
478
479
480
481

Figure 6: Atomic details of the interactions between *MpPBD* and its nano-molar-affinity peptidyl ligands AGYTD (A) and AGYTS (B) revealed by X-ray crystallography. Color scheme is the same as in Figure 3. Thick green-dashed lines indicate hydrophobic contact between the protein and peptide tyrosine residues. The plasticity of the *MpPBD* ligand-binding site is illustrated by their differences in complexing peptides that end with “TPD” (C) and “YTS” (D). Residue S295 that pointed to the side in C) and downward in D) is indicated by black arrows. The protein is shown in surface representation while the peptide is shown in stick representation. CIF files can be found in Figure 6 – source data 2



482
483
484
485
486
487
488
489

Figure 7: Length of the polar bonds between *MpPBD* and its peptidyl ligands revealed by X-ray crystal structures of protein-peptide complexes. Data bars are the average lengths for ionic (A) and hydrogen (B) bonds. Black data points indicate the length of individual bonds between the protein and peptide. Numbers above the data bars indicate the number of bonds at the protein-peptide interfaces. Details of the bonds are listed in Supplementary file 1-Table S4.

490

***AGYTD* blocks *MpPBD* binding to diatoms**

491

Having identified optimal peptidyl ligands for *MpPBD*, we next tested their potential

492

as antagonists to disrupt the PPI-mediated bacteria-diatom interactions that led to

493

the discovery and characterization of this protein(27). Here we tested if *AGYTD* can

494

block fluorescently labelled *MplBP_RIII1-4* from binding to the Antarctic marine

495

diatom *C. neogracile*(44). The porous silica cell wall (frustule) of *C. neogracile* is

496

rectangular in shape with a length of roughly 10 μm and a width of 3-4 μm , with 1-4

497

projections protruding from the corners (Figure 8A, Supplementary file 1-Figure S7).

498

The binding of TRITC-labelled *MplBP_RIII1-4* to *C. neogracile* resulted in red

499

fluorescence evenly distributed around the cell centrally located inside of the diatom

500

frustule (Figure 8B). At concentrations of 37.5 μM or above, *AGYTD* was extremely

501

effective at blocking accumulation of the protein on the diatom, as the peptide

502

outcompeted the cell surface proteins for binding *MpPBD* and displaced $\sim 95\%$ of

503

the fluorescent signal (Figure 8C, D, black bars). The inhibitory effect of *AGYTD* fell

504

off by $\sim 30\%$ at 3.75 μM but was still more potent compared to the weaker *MpPBD*

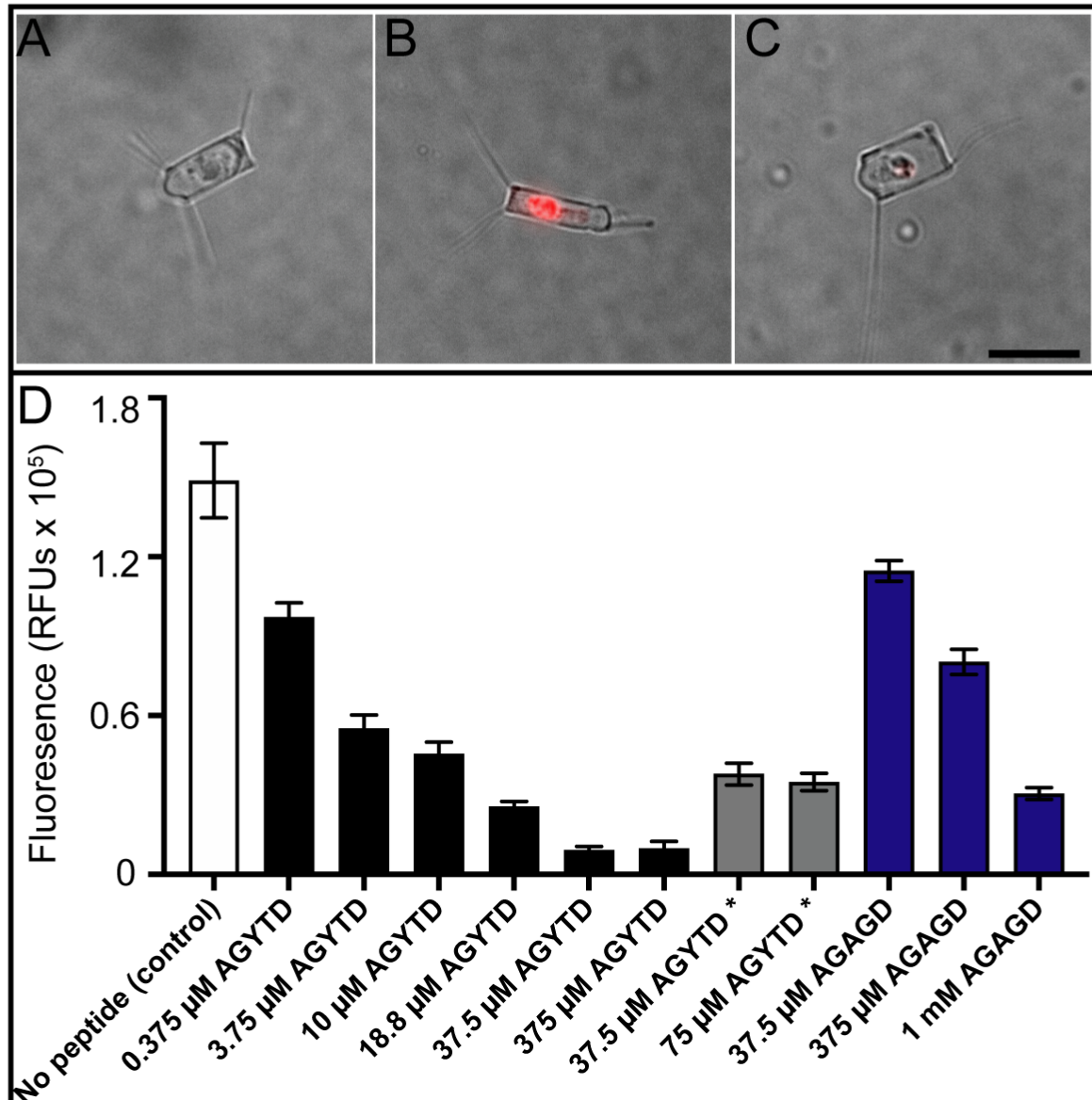
505 ligand, AGAGD, even at a 100-fold higher concentration of 375 μ M (Figure 8D, black
506 and blue bars). While 37.5 μ M AGAGD had a minimal effect on the binding of
507 *MpPBD* to diatoms, the potency of AGYTD diminished in the nano-molar
508 concentrations. These results indicated that the effective inhibitory concentrations of
509 the *MpPBD* peptide ligands are significantly higher than the K_d values calculated for
510 the protein-peptide interactions. This is likely due to the multi-valent effect originating
511 from the presence of many nearby protein binding sites on the diatom cell
512 membrane.

513

514 Remarkably, AGYTD proved to be a potent antagonist that can displace *MpPBD* pre-
515 bound to the diatoms. The addition of 37.5 μ M of AGYTD resulted in the dissociation
516 of roughly 70% of the TRITC-labelled *MpIBP_RIII1-4* from the diatoms (Figure 8D,
517 grey bars). Although the peptide was more effective at the same concentration when
518 used as a prophylactic (Figure 8D, black bar), this important result demonstrated the
519 potential of the peptide antagonists in disrupting pre-existing bacteria-host
520 interactions, like those involved in biofilms.

521

522



523
524 **Figure 8: Inhibition of binding of *Mp*PBD to diatoms by competing peptides.** Representative
525 images showing: (A) an untreated *C. neogracile*; (B) a *C. neogracile* cell treated with 0.2 mg/mL TRITC-
526 labelled *Mp*IBP_RIII1-4; (C) a *C. neogracile* cell treated with 0.2 mg/mL TRITC-labelled *Mp*IBP_RIII1-
527 4 in the presence of 375 μ M AGYTD. All three images (A) – (C) are at the same magnification with the
528 black scale bar in (C) indicating 10 μ m. (D) Fluorescence levels shown by the *C. neogracile* cells alone
529 and those treated with TRITC-labelled *Mp*IBP_RIII1-4 and various concentrations of a strong or weak
530 ligand, AGYTD and AGAGD, respectively. Each bar represents the quantification of average
531 fluorescence from 30 individual diatoms. The white bar represents the control experiment where
532 diatoms were treated with TRITC-labelled *Mp*IBP_RIII1-4 in the absence of peptide. Black bars
533 represent experiments where diatoms were treated with 0.2 mg/mL TRITC-labelled *Mp*IBP_RIII1-4 and
534 indicated concentrations of AGYTD. Grey bars with an asterisk underneath represent experiments
535 where diatoms were incubated with 0.2 mg/mL TRITC-labelled *Mp*IBP_RIII1-4 before AGYTD was
536 added. Blue bars represent experiments where diatoms were treated with 0.2 mg/mL TRITC-labelled
537 *Mp*IBP_RIII1-4 and indicated concentrations of AGAGD. Additional representative images are shown
538 in Fig.S7.

539
540

541 **Conclusion and outlook:**

542 One major challenge in the field of PPI modulator discovery is a lack of starting
543 points for the initial ligand identification. Here, a serendipitously discovered peptidyl
544 ligand TPD has served as a lead for the development of a class of short peptides
545 that bound *MpPBD* with 1,000-fold higher affinity. This was largely achieved by
546 systematically screening small libraries totaling 80 peptides that informed on the
547 optimal residue in each of three terminal positions. Remarkably, these high-affinity
548 ligands can serve as antagonists to disrupt *MpPBD* from binding to the diatom cells
549 that form symbiotic associations with the Antarctic bacterium.

550

551 Inhibition of pathogenic bacterial adhesion to human cells has yielded promising
552 results in combating infections(17, 35, 38, 40, 45-47). The anti-adhesion strategy
553 works by preventing and clearing the accumulation of bacteria at the sites of
554 infections. In contrast to the conventional small-molecule antibiotics, the adhesin
555 antagonists do not kill the bacteria, thus they are less likely to raise resistance.
556 Furthermore, given that adhesins are localized to the cell surfaces, their antagonists
557 are not required to penetrate or be taken into the cells, simplifying their applications.
558 These key attributes justified the pursuit of novel adhesin modulators to disrupt PPI-
559 mediated bacterial adhesion to hosts to treat bacterial infections. Homologs of
560 *MpPBD* with a conserved ligand-binding site are found in human pathogens such as
561 *Vibrio cholerae*(27, 28, 48), the causative agent of cholera and others such as
562 *Aeromonas veronii* that cause infections ranging from diarrhoea to wound infections
563 and sepsis(49, 50), and the flesh-eating bacterium *Vibrio vulnificus*(51) (Figure S8).
564 Therefore, there is an opportunity to use this conceptual approach to devise
565 antagonists to disrupt the PPIs involved in bacterial infections. With the emergence
566 of antibiotic-resistant pathogens, this work gives insight into how microbes might be

567 controlled through the modulation of PPI-related adhesion to their hosts. In future
568 research, it will be of interest to design adhesin modulators consisting of D-peptides,
569 which are non-metabolizable and are thus resistant to proteolytic degradation, as
570 well as cyclic peptides that might achieve higher affinity via favourable entropic
571 contributions.

572 **Materials and Methods:**

573

574 **Peptide synthesis**

575 FITC-labelled peptides FITC-A β GPDS β D, FITC-A β DSTPD, FITC-A β DSTD and FITC-
576 A β GPDD were synthesized by Fmoc solid-phase peptide synthesis, either manually
577 or using an automated Intavis MultiPep RSi peptide synthesizer. The protected
578 amino acids (linked to Wang resins) and FITC were purchased from Novabiochem
579 and Sigma-Aldrich. Crude peptides were then analyzed and purified by high-
580 pressure liquid chromatography (HPLC) using a preparative reversed-phase column
581 with MS detection. The peptides were freeze-dried and stored at – 30 °C. All other
582 FITC-labelled peptides used in the structure-guided ligand optimization procedures
583 by fluorescence polarization (FP) and the four unlabeled peptides (AGAGD, AGYTD,
584 ATYTS and AGATD) used in the ITC measurements and X-ray crystallography were
585 purchased from GenicBio (Shanghai, China). HPLC and MS spectra for
586 representative peptides are shown in Supplementary file 1-Figure S9-S21.

587

588 **Fluorescence polarization**

589 The FITC-labelled peptides were dissolved in FP buffer (10 mM HEPES, pH 7.4, 150
590 mM NaCl, 0.1% Tween 20, 1 mg/mL BSA) to a final concentration of 10 nM. Dilution
591 series of *MpIBP_RIII*1-4 were made on round-bottom 384-well plates (Corning,

592 Black). The protein-peptide mixture in the plate was incubated at room temperature
593 for at least 30 min before the fluorescence polarization was measured using a Tecan
594 Infinite F500 plate reader (excitation 485 nm, emission 535nm). All measurements
595 were performed in triplicate, and the data were plotted with the GraphPad Prism 8
596 software using a non-linear regression analysis method (single-site binding model).
597

598 **Co-crystallization, X-ray diffraction and structure solutions of *MpPA14* with** 599 **peptide ligands**

600 The original *MpIBP_RIII1-4* construct self-associated in the crystal by inserting its C-
601 terminal “TPD” sequence into the ligand-binding site of a symmetry-related molecule.
602 This crystal contact competed with free peptides for binding *MpPBD* and interfered
603 with the crystallization of peptide-protein complexes. Thus, *MpIBP_RIII1-4* protein
604 used for co-crystallography was truncated by 12 amino acids from the original
605 construct, which ended at the residue N507 instead of D519. In all other respects
606 *MpIBP_RIII1-4* was produced, purified, and crystallized as previously described(27,
607 52). Co-crystallization of *MpIBP_RIII1-4* with various peptides was performed using
608 the “microbatch-under-oil” method by mixing equal volumes of ~ 5 mg/mL protein
609 with a precipitant solution composed of approximately 0.1 M calcium chloride, 0.1 M
610 sodium acetate (pH 4.6), 30% (w/v) PEG400 and 1-2 mM of different peptides,
611 including FITC-A β GPDS, FITC-A β DSTD, and the unlabeled peptides AGYTD and
612 AGYTS.

613 X-ray crystallographic data were collected either at the P11 beamline of the PETRA
614 III facility at DESY (Hamburg, Germany) or at the 08ID-1 beamline of the Canadian
615 Light Source synchrotron facility via remote access. Data were indexed and
616 integrated with X-ray Detector Software (XDS)(53) and CCP4-Aimless(54) or the

617 DIALS/xia2(55, 56) in the CCP4i2 software suite. The structure solutions for all
618 complexes were obtained by using molecular replacement using the *MpIBP_RIII1-4*
619 structure (PDB: 5K8G) as the search model(27). The structures were refined using
620 CCP4-Refmac5(57).

621 **Isothermal Titration Calorimetry**

622 Isothermal calorimetric titration (ITC) measurements were performed at 30 °C using a
623 MicroCal VP-ITC instrument (Malvern). *MpIBP_RIII1-4* was dialyzed overnight in a
624 buffer of 50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 9, 150 mM NaCl, 5 mM CaCl₂. Next, the protein was
625 diluted to approximately 20 μM and was mixed with serial 5-μl aliquots of 200 μM of
626 each of the four peptide solutions (AGAGD, AGATD, AGYTD and AGYTS). Peptide
627 solutions were automatically added by a rotating syringe (400 RPM) at 5-min
628 intervals into the *MpIBP_RIII1-4* solution for a total of 50 injections. The data were
629 analyzed by Origin software Version 5.0 (MicroCal).

630

631 **Diatom binding experiments**

632 The Antarctic diatom, *Chaetoceros neogracile*, was cultured as previously
633 described(27, 44). TRITC-labelled *MpIBP_RIII1-4* (TRITC-*MpIBP_RIII1-4*, 0.2
634 mg/mL) in the presence or absence of peptides was incubated with diatoms in buffer
635 (50 mM Tris-HCl pH 9, 300 mM NaCl, 5 mM CaCl₂) with gentle mixing for 2 h. Next,
636 diatoms were pelleted by centrifugation for 3 min at 4,500 x g, and the resulting
637 supernatant was discarded. This procedure was repeated three times to wash out
638 unbound TRITC-*MpIBP_RIII1-4* before the diatom pellet was finally resuspended in
639 20 μL of buffer, which was then examined on slides by fluorescence microscopy. In
640 parallel experiments to test if the strong ligand AGYTD could compete off the TRITC-
641 *MpIBP_RIII1-4* that was already bound to diatoms, TRITC-*MpIBP_RIII1-4* was

642 incubated with diatom for 1.5 h before the peptide AGYTD was added. The
643 remainder of the experiment followed the same procedure as described above.
644
645 Images were obtained using an Olympus IX83 inverted fluorescence microscope
646 equipped with an Andor Zyla 4.2 Plus camera. Quantification of the fluorescence
647 intensity was done using Fiji ImageJ. The corrected total cell fluorescence (CTCF)
648 was calculated using the formula: $CTCF = \text{Integrated Density} - (\text{Area of selected cell}$
649 $\times \text{Mean Fluorescence of the background})$ (58). Quantification of 30 individual diatom
650 cells was done for each treatment. As diatom cell aggregates produce overexposed
651 fluorescence while those cells lacking a silica frustule have damaged plasma
652 membranes necessary for protein binding, they were excluded from the
653 measurements. Graphs were made using Graphpad Prism.

654

655 **Data availability**

656 X-ray crystal structure coordinates solved in this study have been deposited in the
657 Protein Data Bank with accession codes of 6X6Q (*MpIBP_RIII1-4* - FITC-
658 A_{β} GPDS), 6X6M (*MpIBP_RIII1-4* - FITC- A_{β} DSTD), 6X5W (*MpIBP_RIII1-4* -
659 AGYTD), and 6X5V (*MpIBP_RIII1-4* - AGYTS). The data that support the findings of
660 this study are available from the corresponding author P.L.D upon reasonable
661 request.

662

663 **Acknowledgements**

664 We thank Dr. John Allingham for access to his home source X-ray diffractometer at
665 Queen's University, and to staff members at the Canadian Light Source in
666 Saskatoon, Canada and the PETRA III facility at DESY in Hamburg, Germany for

667 access to data collection at these synchrotrons. We are grateful to Dr. EonSeon Jin,
668 Hanyang University, Seoul, for the gift of the diatom, *Chaetoceros neogracile* and Dr.
669 Saeed Rismani Yazdi for assistance with the diatom cultures. We are indebted to Mr.
670 Kim Munro at the Protein Function Discovery unit at Queen's University for his
671 assistance with acquiring and interpreting ITC data. We thank Ms. Irene van Oekel
672 for preliminary tests on the binding of peptidyl ligands to MpPBD and Mr. Joost van
673 Dongen for analytical support. This project was funded by a Natural Science and
674 Engineering Research Council (NSERC, [http://www.nserc-crsng.gc.ca/index_eng.](http://www.nserc-crsng.gc.ca/index_eng.asp)
675 [asp](http://www.nserc-crsng.gc.ca/index_eng.asp)) Discovery Grant (RGPIN-2016-04810) to PLD who holds the Canadian
676 Research Chair in Protein Engineering. IKV acknowledges financial support by the
677 European Union (ERC-2014-StG Contract No.635928) and the Dutch Science
678 Foundation (NWO ECHO Grant No. 712.016.002).

679 **Author contributions:** S.G. and P.L.D. conceived the study, designed the
680 experiments, and wrote the manuscript. S.G. performed co-crystallization, data
681 collection, and structure determination of the X-ray crystal structures. S.G. performed
682 FP binding experiments and analyzed data with assistance of D.C.S.. L.G.M. and
683 D.C.S. performed peptide synthesis and purification. H.Z. and C.S. performed the
684 diatom binding experiments and analyzed data. C.O., L.B., and I.K.V. provided
685 critical feedback to S.G. throughout the project and contributed to the critical editing
686 of drafts of the manuscript.

687 **Competing interests:** The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

688 **References:**

- 689
690 1.Winder SJ, Ayscough KR. Actin-binding proteins. J Cell Sci. 2005;118(Pt 4):651-4.
691 2.Cunha CA, Romao MJ, Sadeghi SJ, Valetti F, Gilardi G, Soares CM. Effects of protein-protein
692 interactions on electron transfer: docking and electron transfer calculations for complexes
693 between flavodoxin and c-type cytochromes. J Biol Inorg Chem. 1999;4(3):360-74.

- 694 3.Pawson T, Nash P. Protein-protein interactions define specificity in signal transduction.
695 *Genes Dev.* 2000;14(9):1027-47.
- 696 4.Arkin MR, Tang Y, Wells JA. Small-molecule inhibitors of protein-protein interactions:
697 progressing toward the reality. *Chem Biol.* 2014;21(9):1102-14.
- 698 5.Andrei SA, Sijbesma E, Hann M, Davis J, O'Mahony G, Perry MWD, et al. Stabilization of
699 protein-protein interactions in drug discovery. *Expert Opin Drug Discov.* 2017;12(9):925-40.
- 700 6.Milroy LG, Grossmann TN, Hennig S, Brunsveld L, Ottmann C. Modulators of protein-
701 protein interactions. *Chem Rev.* 2014;114(9):4695-748.
- 702 7.Oltersdorf T, Elmore SW, Shoemaker AR, Armstrong RC, Augeri DJ, Belli BA, et al. An
703 inhibitor of Bcl-2 family proteins induces regression of solid tumours. *Nature.*
704 2005;435(7042):677-81.
- 705 8.Roberts AW, Davids MS, Pagel JM, Kahl BS, Puvvada SD, Gerecitano JF, et al. Targeting
706 BCL2 with Venetoclax in Relapsed Chronic Lymphocytic Leukemia. *N Engl J Med.*
707 2016;374(4):311-22.
- 708 9.Dutta S, Ryan J, Chen TS, Kougentakis C, Letai A, Keating AE. Potent and specific peptide
709 inhibitors of human pro-survival protein Bcl-xL. *J Mol Biol.* 2015;427(6 Pt B):1241-53.
- 710 10.Chang YS, Graves B, Guerlavais V, Tovar C, Packman K, To KH, et al. Stapled alpha-helical
711 peptide drug development: a potent dual inhibitor of MDM2 and MDMX for p53-dependent
712 cancer therapy. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A.* 2013;110(36):E3445-54.
- 713 11.Brancaccio D, Di Maro S, Cerofolini L, Giuntini S, Fragai M, Luchinat C, et al. HOPPI-NMR:
714 Hot-Peptide-Based Screening Assay for Inhibitors of Protein-Protein Interactions by NMR.
715 *ACS Med Chem Lett.* 2020;11(5):1047-53.
- 716 12.Drucker DJ. Advances in oral peptide therapeutics. *Nat Rev Drug Discov.* 2020;19(4):277-
717 89.
- 718 13.Fosgerau K, Hoffmann T. Peptide therapeutics: current status and future directions. *Drug*
719 *Discov Today.* 2015;20(1):122-8.
- 720 14.Wojcik P, Berlicki L. Peptide-based inhibitors of protein-protein interactions. *Bioorg Med*
721 *Chem Lett.* 2016;26(3):707-13.
- 722 15.Davies J, Davies D. Origins and evolution of antibiotic resistance. *Microbiol Mol Biol Rev.*
723 2010;74(3):417-33.
- 724 16.Frieri M, Kumar K, Boutin A. Antibiotic resistance. *J Infect Public Health.* 2017;10(4):369-
725 78.
- 726 17.Krachler AM, Orth K. Targeting the bacteria-host interface: Strategies in anti-adhesion
727 therapy. *Virulence.* 2013;4(4):284-94.
- 728 18.Ventola CL. The antibiotic resistance crisis: part 1: causes and threats. *P T.*
729 2015;40(4):277-83.
- 730 19.Klemm P, Schembri MA. Bacterial adhesins: function and structure. *Int J Med Microbiol.*
731 2000;290(1):27-35.
- 732 20.Kline KA, Falker S, Dahlberg S, Normark S, Henriques-Normark B. Bacterial adhesins in
733 host-microbe interactions. *Cell Host Microbe.* 2009;5(6):580-92.
- 734 21.Stones DH, Krachler AM. Fatal attraction: how bacterial adhesins affect host signaling
735 and what we can learn from them. *Int J Mol Sci.* 2015;16(2):2626-40.
- 736 22.Newell PD, Boyd CD, Sondermann H, O'Toole GA. A c-di-GMP effector system controls
737 cell adhesion by inside-out signaling and surface protein cleavage. *PLoS Biol.*
738 2011;9(2):e1000587.
- 739 23.Jamal M, Ahmad W, Andleeb S, Jalil F, Imran M, Nawaz MA, et al. Bacterial biofilm and
740 associated infections. *J Chin Med Assoc.* 2018;81(1):7-11.

- 741 24. Lebeaux D, Ghigo JM, Beloin C. Biofilm-related infections: bridging the gap between
742 clinical management and fundamental aspects of recalcitrance toward antibiotics. *Microbiol*
743 *Mol Biol Rev.* 2014;78(3):510-43.
- 744 25. Romling U, Balsalobre C. Biofilm infections, their resilience to therapy and innovative
745 treatment strategies. *J Intern Med.* 2012;272(6):541-61.
- 746 26. Guo S, Langelaan DN, Phippen SW, Smith SP, Voets IK, Davies PL. Conserved structural
747 features anchor biofilm-associated RTX-adhesins to the outer membrane of bacteria. *FEBS J.*
748 2018;285(10):1812-26.
- 749 27. Guo S, Stevens CA, Vance TDR, Olijve LLC, Graham LA, Campbell RL, et al. Structure of a
750 1.5-MDa adhesin that binds its Antarctic bacterium to diatoms and ice. *Sci Adv.*
751 2017;3(8):e1701440.
- 752 28. Guo S, Vance TDR, Stevens CA, Voets IK, Davies PL. RTX Adhesins are Key Bacterial
753 Surface Megaproteins in the Formation of Biofilms. *Trends Microbiol.* 2019;27(5):470.
- 754 29. Smith TJ, Sondermann H, O'Toole GA. Type 1 Does the Two-Step: Type 1 Secretion
755 Substrates with a Functional Periplasmic Intermediate. *J Bacteriol.* 2018;200(18).
- 756 30. Berne C, Ducret A, Hardy GG, Brun YV. Adhesins Involved in Attachment to Abiotic
757 Surfaces by Gram-Negative Bacteria. *Microbiol Spectr.* 2015;3(4).
- 758 31. Kitts G, Giglio KM, Zamorano-Sanchez D, Park JH, Townsley L, Cooley RB, et al. A
759 Conserved Regulatory Circuit Controls Large Adhesins in *Vibrio cholerae*. *mBio.* 2019;10(6).
- 760 32. Vance TDR, Guo SQ, Assaie-Ardakany S, Conroy B, Davies PL. Structure and functional
761 analysis of a bacterial adhesin sugar-binding domain (vol 14, e0220045, 2019). *Plos One.*
762 2019;14(8).
- 763 33. Moonens K, Gideonsson P, Subedi S, Bugaytsova J, Romao E, Mendez M, et al. Structural
764 Insights into Polymorphic ABO Glycan Binding by *Helicobacter pylori*. *Cell Host Microbe.*
765 2016;19(1):55-66.
- 766 34. Moonens K, Hamway Y, Neddermann M, Reschke M, Tegtmeyer N, Kruse T, et al.
767 *Helicobacter pylori* adhesin HopQ disrupts trans dimerization in human CEACAMs. *EMBO J.*
768 2018;37(13).
- 769 35. Wellens A, Garofalo C, Nguyen H, Van Gerven N, Slattegard R, Hernalsteens JP, et al.
770 Intervening with urinary tract infections using anti-adhesives based on the crystal structure
771 of the FimH-oligomannose-3 complex. *Plos One.* 2008;3(4):e2040.
- 772 36. Ofek I, Hasty DL, Sharon N. Anti-adhesion therapy of bacterial diseases: prospects and
773 problems. *FEMS Immunol Med Microbiol.* 2003;38(3):181-91.
- 774 37. Han Z, Pinkner JS, Ford B, Obermann R, Nolan W, Wildman SA, et al. Structure-based
775 drug design and optimization of mannoside bacterial FimH antagonists. *J Med Chem.*
776 2010;53(12):4779-92.
- 777 38. Mydock-McGrane LK, Hannan TJ, Janetka JW. Rational design strategies for FimH
778 antagonists: new drugs on the horizon for urinary tract infection and Crohn's disease. *Expert*
779 *Opin Drug Discov.* 2017;12(7):711-31.
- 780 39. Sauer MM, Jakob RP, Lubert T, Canonica F, Navarra G, Ernst B, et al. Binding of the
781 Bacterial Adhesin FimH to Its Natural, Multivalent High-Mannose Type Glycan Targets. *J Am*
782 *Chem Soc.* 2019;141(2):936-44.
- 783 40. Totsika M, Kostakioti M, Hannan TJ, Upton M, Beatson SA, Janetka JW, et al. A FimH
784 inhibitor prevents acute bladder infection and treats chronic cystitis caused by multidrug-
785 resistant uropathogenic *Escherichia coli* ST131. *J Infect Dis.* 2013;208(6):921-8.

- 786 41.Spaulding CN, Klein RD, Ruer S, Kau AL, Schreiber HL, Cusumano ZT, et al. Selective
787 depletion of uropathogenic *E. coli* from the gut by a FimH antagonist. *Nature*.
788 2017;546(7659):528-32.
- 789 42.Kiessling LL. Chemistry-driven glycoscience. *Bioorg Med Chem*. 2018;26(19):5229-38.
- 790 43.Guo S, Garnham CP, Whitney JC, Graham LA, Davies PL. Re-evaluation of a bacterial
791 antifreeze protein as an adhesin with ice-binding activity. *Plos One*. 2012;7(11):e48805.
- 792 44.Gwak IG, Jung WS, Kim HJ, Kang SH, Jin E. Antifreeze Protein in Antarctic Marine Diatom,
793 *Chaetoceros neogracile*. *Mar Biotechnol*. 2010;12(6):630-9.
- 794 45.Huebinger RM, Do DH, Carlson DL, Yao X, Stones DH, De Souza Santos M, et al. Bacterial
795 adhesion inhibitor prevents infection in a rodent surgical incision model. *Virulence*.
796 2020;11(01):695-706.
- 797 46.Cusumano CK, Pinkner JS, Han Z, Greene SE, Ford BA, Crowley JR, et al. Treatment and
798 prevention of urinary tract infection with orally active FimH inhibitors. *Sci Transl Med*.
799 2011;3(109):109ra15.
- 800 47.Solanki V, Tiwari M, Tiwari V. Host-bacteria interaction and adhesin study for
801 development of therapeutics. *Int J Biol Macromol*. 2018;112:54-64.
- 802 48.Syed KA, Beyhan S, Correa N, Queen J, Liu J, Peng F, et al. The *Vibrio cholerae* flagellar
803 regulatory hierarchy controls expression of virulence factors. *J Bacteriol*.
804 2009;191(21):6555-70.
- 805 49.Hickman-Brenner FW, MacDonald KL, Steigerwalt AG, Fanning GR, Brenner DJ, Farmer JJ,
806 3rd. *Aeromonas veronii*, a new ornithine decarboxylase-positive species that may cause
807 diarrhea. *J Clin Microbiol*. 1987;25(5):900-6.
- 808 50.Whitaker IS, Kamyra C, Azzopardi EA, Graf J, Kon M, Lineaweaver WC. Preventing infective
809 complications following leech therapy: is practice keeping pace with current research?
810 *Microsurgery*. 2009;29(8):619-25.
- 811 51.Hollis DG, Weaver RE, Baker CN, Thornsberry C. Halophilic *Vibrio* species isolated from
812 blood cultures. *J Clin Microbiol*. 1976;3(4):425-31.
- 813 52.Guo S, Campbell R, Davies PL, Allingham JS. Phasing with calcium at home. *Acta*
814 *Crystallogr F Struct Biol Commun*. 2019;75(Pt 5):377-84.
- 815 53.Kabsch W. Integration, scaling, space-group assignment and post-refinement. *Acta*
816 *Crystallogr D Biol Crystallogr*. 2010;66(Pt 2):133-44.
- 817 54.Evans P. Scaling and assessment of data quality. *Acta Crystallogr D*. 2006;62:72-82.
- 818 55.Beilsten-Edmands J, Winter G, Gildea R, Parkhurst J, Waterman D, Evans G. Scaling
819 diffraction data in the DIALS software package: algorithms and new approaches for multi-
820 crystal scaling. *Acta Crystallogr D Struct Biol*. 2020;76(Pt 4):385-99.
- 821 56.Winter G, Lobley CM, Prince SM. Decision making in xia2. *Acta Crystallogr D Biol*
822 *Crystallogr*. 2013;69(Pt 7):1260-73.
- 823 57.Vagin AA, Steiner RA, Lebedev AA, Potterton L, McNicholas S, Long F, et al. REFMAC5
824 dictionary: organization of prior chemical knowledge and guidelines for its use. *Acta*
825 *Crystallogr D*. 2004;60:2184-95.
- 826 58.Burgess A, Vigneron S, Brioudes E, Labbe JC, Lorca T, Castro A. Loss of human Greatwall
827 results in G2 arrest and multiple mitotic defects due to deregulation of the cyclin B-
828 Cdc2/PP2A balance. *P Natl Acad Sci USA*. 2010;107(28):12564-9.
- 829