



OPEN

Aggregation of M3 (E376D) variant of alpha1- antitrypsin

Arif Bashir¹, Younis Hazari^{1,5}, Debnath Pal², Dibyajyoti Maity², Samirul Bashir¹, Laishram Rajendrakumar Singh³, Naveed Nazir Shah⁴ & Khalid Majid Fazili¹

Alpha1-antitrypsin (α 1AT) is an abundant serine-protease inhibitor in circulation. It has an important role in neutralizing the neutrophil elastase activity. Different pathogenic point mutations like Z^(E342K)- α 1AT have been implicated in the development of liver cirrhosis and Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease (COPD), the latter being a cluster of progressive lung diseases including chronic bronchitis and emphysema. M3- α 1AT (376Glu > Asp) is another variant of α 1AT which so far is largely being considered as normal though increased frequency of the variant has been reported in many human diseases including COPD. We also observed increased frequency of M3- α 1AT in COPD cases in Kashmiri population. The frequency of heterozygous (AC) genotype in cases and controls was 58.57% and 27.61% (odds-ratio 6.53 (2.27–15.21); $p < 0.0001$) respectively, while homozygous CC genotype was found to be 21.42% and 6.66% (odds-ratio 10.56 (3.63–18.64); $p < 0.0001$) respectively. Comparative *in vitro* investigations that include trypsin-antitrypsin assay, Circular Dichroism spectroscopy and dynamic light scattering performed on wild-type (M- α 1AT), M3- α 1AT, and Z- α 1AT proteins along with the molecular dynamics simulations revealed that M3- α 1AT has properties similar to Z- α 1AT capable of forming aggregates of varied size. Our maiden observations suggest that M3- α 1AT may contribute to the pathogenesis of COPD and other disorders by mechanisms that warrant further investigations.

Alpha1-antitrypsin (α 1AT) is one of the most abundant circulating antiproteases. The serum levels of α 1AT are raised secondary to activation of inflammatory-immune processes in humans¹. α 1AT is coded by a serine-protease inhibitor (*SERPIN*) A1. It is primarily expressed in hepatocytes and to some extent by lung tissue, macrophages, and monocytes. Among the different variants of α 1AT, Z- α 1AT (Glu342Lys) is the most pathogenic variant of α 1AT and has been extensively studied. This variant has a distinctive capacity to form loop-sheet polymers due to the conformational change. The gain-of-toxic function of Z- α 1AT in the hepatocytes leads to the manifestation of cirrhosis and hepatocellular carcinoma. On the contrary, reduced levels of serum α 1AT lead to unregulated neutrophil elastase activity leading to the pathogenesis of a host of diseases including emphysema¹. Owing to its pathogenicity, Z- α 1AT is considered as a double-edged sword whose aggregation, on one hand leads to a pathological state of liver and loss-of-function on the other side results in emphysema². The X-ray crystallography, *in silico* analysis, and kinetics of α 1AT have provided valuable insights to understand its folding mechanism^{3,4}. The conformational plasticity of serpins is not only important in terms of inhibitory activity but also unfolds a mechanistic understanding of their susceptibility towards misfolding and aggregation. During the folding process, α 1AT is kinetically trapped in a metastable state. In this state, a patch of 15 amino acid residues (345–360) located near the C-terminus of α 1AT, protruding out of its main body, is exposed to the polar solvent as a flexible loop connected between β -s5A and β -s1C that is called as reactive center loop (RCL). Native fold of α 1AT is composed of three β -sheets (A–C) surrounded by 8–9 α -helices (hA–hI). The interaction of protease with the metastable α 1AT gives rise to a marked conformational transition driven upon cleavage at P1'–P1 site in the RCL.

The 342 Glu⁻ \rightarrow Lys⁺ substitution just above the top of s5A strand in Z- α 1AT removes a salt bridge between Glu342 and Lys290, thereby driving an electrostatic repulsion between them. This promotes polymerization by delaying the already slow insertion of s5A that prolong the exposure of the C-terminal domain of Z- α 1AT⁴. Z- α 1AT is the commonest of all the deficient variant observed with serum levels 0.06–0.2 g/L among

¹UPR Signalling Laboratory, Department of Biotechnology, University of Kashmir, Srinagar, 190006, Jammu and Kashmir, India. ²Department of Computational and Data Sciences (CDS), Indian Institute of Sciences, Bengaluru, 560012, India. ³Dr. B. R. Ambedkar Center for Biomedical Research (ACBR), University of Delhi, Delhi, 110007, India. ⁴Department of Chest Medicine, Govt. Medical College, Srinagar, 190001, Jammu and Kashmir, India. ⁵Present address: Laboratory of Proteostasis Control and Biomedicine, Faculty of Medicine, University of Chile, Av. Independencia, 1027, Santiago, Chile. ✉e-mail: bashir.aarif@gmail.com; fazili@kashmiruniversity.ac.in

Genotype	COPD cases (N = 70)*	Controls (N = 105)*	OR (95% CI); p-value ^e	Adjusted OR ^a (95% CI); p-value ^e	χ^2 ; Pearson p-value (overall) ^{a,b}
AA	14 (20.00%)	69 (65.71%)	1.0 (Reference)	1.0 (Reference)	35.85; p < 0.0001
AC	41 (58.57%)	29 (27.61%)	6.96 (3.30–14.68); p < 0.0001	6.53 (2.27–15.21); p < 0.0001	
CC	15 (21.42%)	07 (06.66%)	10.56 (3.63–30.64); p < 0.0001	9.21 (3.81–29.37); p < 0.0001	
A/C + C/C	56 (80.00%)	36 (34.28%)	7.66 (3.76–15.60); p < 0.0001	7.81 (2.45–14.53); p < 0.0001	p < 0.0001
Allele					
A	69 (49.28%)	167 (79.52%)	1.0 (Reference)		
C	71 (50.71%)	43 (20.47%)	3.99 (2.49–6.40); p < 0.0001	—	34.97; p < 0.0001

Table 1. *SERPINA1*-exon5 376A/C single nucleotide polymorphism genotype frequency distributions among COPD cases and healthy controls and risk of COPD. *N denotes the number of subjects or individuals. ^aThe values in bold indicate significant results. COPD, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease; OR, odds ratio. CI, confidence interval; ORs (95% CIs) were obtained from conditional logistic regression models. ^aAdjusted ORs (95% CIs) were obtained in conditional logistic regression models when adjusted for age, gender, place of residence and smoking status. ^bp-values calculated using χ^2 -tests.

homozygotes^{5–7}. In contrast, the normal level of serum α 1AT is 1.0–3.6 g/L (catalogue number *ab108798*- α 1AT human ELISA kit, *Abcam*), and the S (Glu264Val) variant of α 1AT, frequent in the Mediterranean area, has minor reductions in serum α 1AT levels (0.4–0.9 g/L). Many investigators consider M3- α 1AT variant (1200 A > C, 376Glu \rightarrow Asp) as good as wild-type with the normal levels of serum α 1AT⁸. On the contrary, investigations, based purely on epidemiological data, have revealed its increased frequency in patients suffering from Guillain-Barre syndrome, chronic hepatitis, chronic inflammatory demyelinating polyneuropathy, and multiple sclerosis⁹. An investigation has reported three times higher frequency of PIM3 allele in Alzheimer's patients and another investigation has reported an association of M3- α 1AT allele with COPD^{10,11}.

An increased frequency of M3- α 1AT genotype in COPD patients and significantly lower levels of serum α 1AT in both heterozygous (AC) and homozygous (CC) individuals of this variant genotype compared to a normal variant of α 1AT gene has also been reported¹². However, no investigation has been done to understand how this variant could possibly play its role in the development of a host of diseases including COPD. Our study reveals a significant association of M3- α 1AT variant with the COPD in Kashmiri population. A study has reported 80% of frequency of M3 variant in COPD cases compared to control (37%)¹². S (Glu264Val), the deficiency variant of α 1AT, is more frequent in the Mediterranean area and is associated with minor reductions in serum AAT levels (0.4–0.9 g/L). Z variant of α 1AT is the common deficient variant with serum levels 0.06–0.2 g/L among homozygotes. In our previous study, the mean serum α 1AT level in COPD cases carrying M3 variant on a promoter hepatocyte background (composite heterozygote) was found to be 1.20 ± 0.24 and 3.16 ± 0.16 g/L in cases and controls, respectively. The serum α 1AT level in COPD cases was found to be 2.6 times less than the control group¹³. In this investigation, we explored this association further in context of M3- α 1AT being largely considered as a normal variant of α 1AT. We generated M3- α 1AT and Z- α 1AT through site-directed mutagenesis. The wild-type M- α 1AT and its variants (M3- α 1AT, and Z- α 1AT) were expressed in *E. Coli* BL21-DE bacterial expression system. All the purified α 1AT proteins were used for further studies. Our biochemical and biophysical studies coupled with *in silico* analysis led us to conclude that M3- α 1AT cannot be considered as a normal variant of α 1AT and could possibly play a key role in the pathogenesis of a host of diseases including COPD that warrants further insight.

Results

High prevalence of M3 variant in COPD patients. The frequencies of genotypes of *SERPINA1*-exon5 376A/C SNP for both the COPD cases and controls are listed in Table 1. The overall association between the *SERPINA1*-exon5 376A/C SNP and the modulation of COPD risk was found to be statistically significant ($p < 0.0001$). The numbers and the frequencies of the subsets of various characteristics of the COPD cases under study like gender, dwelling, smoking status, hemoptysis, obstructive jaundice, and family history for this SNP are listed in Table S1.

The increased frequency of the variant genotypes (AC and CC) in COPD cases compared to controls in our and other previous studies led us to hypothesize that M3- α 1AT is not a normal variant and somehow contribute to the pathogenesis of COPD and other diseases as well. To understand the underlying mechanism, we cloned the wild-type (M- α 1AT) in the bacterial expression vector (pET30a). We also generated our variants of interest (Z- α 1AT and M3- α 1AT) from M- α 1AT through site-directed mutagenesis. All the α 1AT proteins were purified to homogeneity to perform biochemical, and biophysical analysis. We compared the results of M3- α 1AT against the Z- α 1AT and M- α 1AT. The wet lab results were further substantiated by performing a deep one-microsecond molecular dynamics simulations of all the α 1AT proteins under consideration.

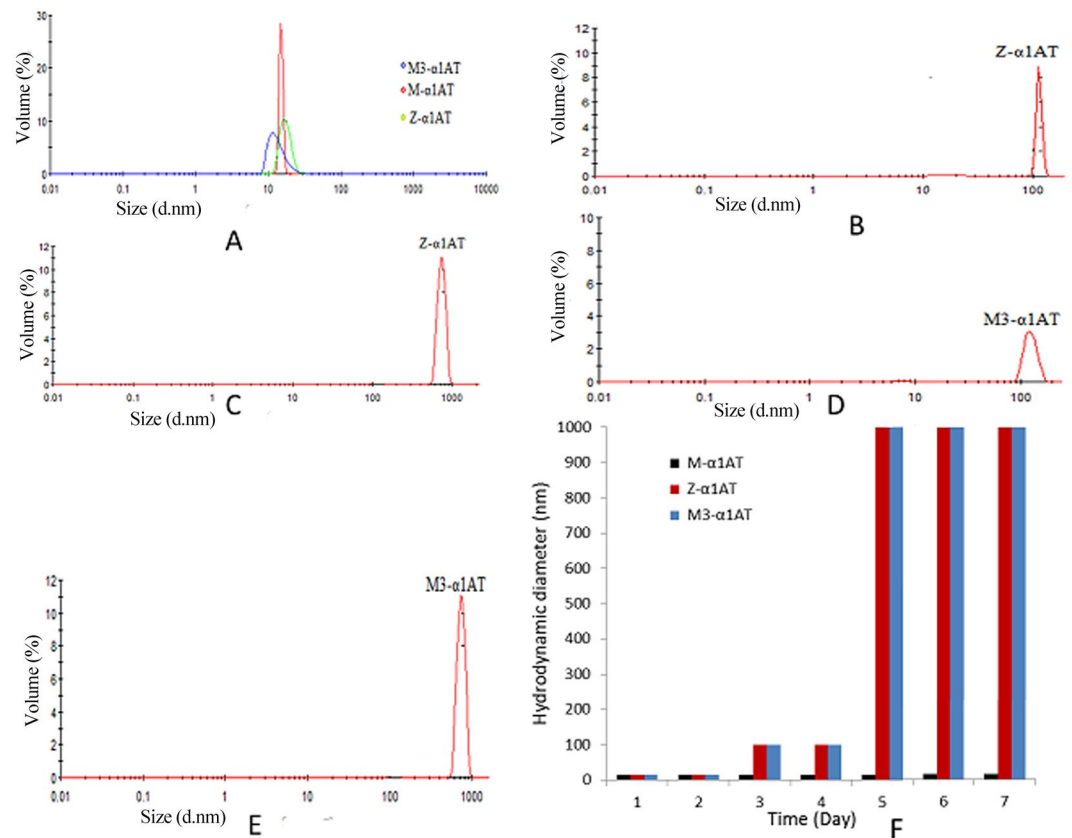


Figure 1. Both the α 1AT variants (Z- α 1AT and M3- α 1AT) are capable of forming aggregates. Hydrodynamic diameter measurements of freshly prepared α 1AT proteins (M- α 1AT, M3- α 1AT and Z- α 1AT) showing a diameter of 15 nm (A). Hydrodynamic diameter measurement of Z- α 1AT proteins in a concentration and time-dependent manner showing the formation of aggregates of varied size from 100–1000 nm in diameter (B,C). Hydrodynamic diameter measurement of M3- α 1AT proteins in a concentration and time-dependent manner showing the formation of aggregates of varied size from 100–1000 nm in diameter (D,E). Graphical representation showing variation of hydrodynamic diameter with respect to time (F).

All the α 1AT proteins were found in a dimeric form. α 1AT is a metastable protein and any pathogenic mutation makes it susceptible to aggregation. Z- α 1AT has been reported to form aggregates of varied size and therefore, different hydrodynamic radii. All the freshly purified α 1AT proteins subjected to dynamic light scattering (DLS) assay were found to exist in a dimeric state (Fig. 1A).

Both the variants are aggregation-prone compared to the wild-type over a period of time. Z- α 1AT has an ability to form aggregates at 37 °C of varied size over a period of time¹⁴. We did a time and concentration dependent DLS assay on α 1AT proteins that were kept strictly at 4 °C. We observed that both the α 1AT variants (Z- α 1AT and M3- α 1AT) are capable of forming aggregates of varied size over a period of time at 4 °C (Fig. 1B–E) excluding M- α 1AT, which retained its dimeric form during this period. Native PAGE also corroborated the evidence of aggregate formation (Fig. S1). The Fig. 1F shows the graphical representation of the change of hydrodynamic diameter of α 1AT proteins with respect to time.

All α 1AT proteins behave differently upon trypsin treatment. α 1AT proteins showed a pronounced difference in the cleavage pattern upon treatment with trypsin (Fig. S2A–C). A prominent cleavage pattern was observed for the α 1AT variants (M3- α 1AT and Z- α 1AT) compared to M- α 1AT. Since the concentration of trypsin used is very less, one cannot observe the trypsin- α 1AT covalent complex. To confirm that the multiple protein fragments of size less than 52 kDa are from α 1AT, we treated a fixed concentration of α 1AT proteins with a known quantity of trypsin and subsequently probed with α 1AT antibody. It turns out that all the cleaved products arise from α 1AT proteins (Fig. S2D).

Z- α 1AT has higher stoichiometry of inhibition. Our data suggests that Z- α 1AT protein has a higher stoichiometry of inhibition (SI) compared to M- α 1AT and M3- α 1AT upon trypsin treatment (Fig. S2E). This result almost correlates with the data furnished previously¹⁵. Interestingly, we found that M- α 1AT and M3- α 1AT have same SI. The higher SI of Z- α 1AT protein could be due to the 342 Glu \rightarrow Lys substitution that breaks a

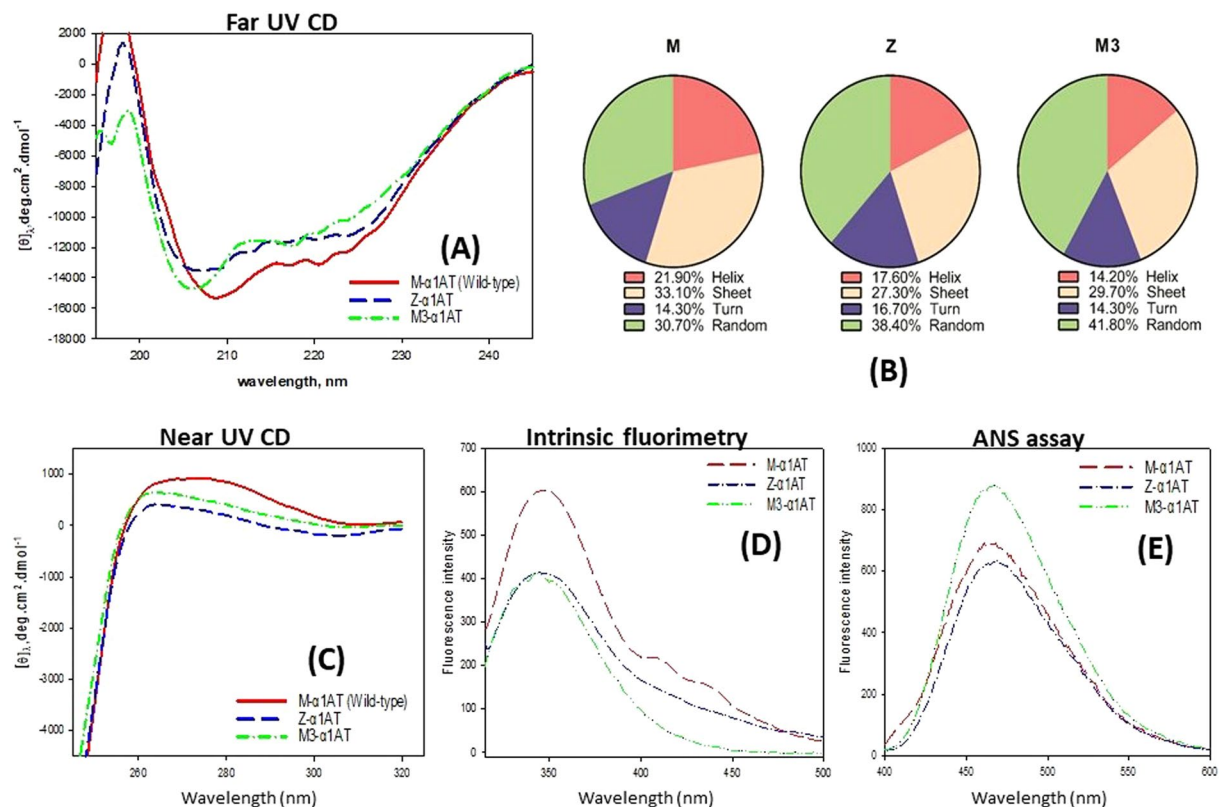


Figure 2. All the α 1AT proteins vary in their secondary structures. **(A)** Far-UV CD spectrum of the α 1AT proteins. The concentration of the α 1AT proteins was 0.5 mg/mL and the readings were taken between 190–250 nm. The path length of the cuvette used for far-UV measurements was 1.0 mm and 10 mm, respectively. All optical measurements were taken in the appropriate degassed buffer. The scan rate was 100 nm/min and each scan were an average of 3 accumulations. The optical spectrum of M- α 1AT, Z- α 1AT and M3- α 1AT is shown by the red, blue, and green curve. **(B)** Fraction of secondary structures estimated *in-situ* by the instrument emitting the far-UV CD spectrum. The RMS-fit corresponding to the spectrum for M- α 1AT, Z- α 1AT and M3- α 1AT are 18, 30, and 16, respectively. A lower value indicates a better fit. **(C)** Circular dichroism spectrum of the α 1AT proteins in near-UV range. The concentration of the α 1AT proteins was 0.5 mg/mL and the readings were taken between 240–320 nm. The path length of the cuvette used for near-UV CD measurements was 1.0 mm and 10 mm, respectively. All optical measurements were taken in the appropriate degassed buffer. The scan rate was 100 nm/min and each scan were an average of 3 accumulations. The optical spectrum of M- α 1AT, Z- α 1AT and M3- α 1AT is shown by the red, blue, and green curve. **(D)** Intrinsic tryptophan fluorescence spectrum of α 1AT proteins. The spectrum of M- α 1AT, Z- α 1AT and M3- α 1AT is shown by the red, blue, and green curve. Fluorescence emission spectra (in triplicates) were measured in Perkin Elmer LS55 spectrofluorimeter in a 3 mm quartz cuvette at an excitation wavelength of 295 nm and emission from 300–500 nm. The concentration of α 1AT was 0.5 mg/mL. **(E)** 8-aniline-1-naphthalene sulfonic acid (ANS) binding fluorescence assay. The optical spectrum of M- α 1AT, Z- α 1AT and M3- α 1AT is shown by the red, blue, and green curve. The experiment was initiated by the addition of α 1AT to the cuvette to give a final concentration of 0.1 mg/mL. The fluorescence changes of the ANS during α 1AT polymerization were then measured by exciting at 360 nm and the fluorescence was recorded at 400–600 nm.

salt-bridge between them. This drives an electrostatic repulsion between these two amino acids that prolong the exposure of the C-terminal domain, thereby leaving Z- α 1AT highly accessible to trypsin-driven cleavage³.

Secondary structure percentage varies among the α 1AT proteins. The far-UV CD spectra of M- α 1AT and its variants (Z- α 1AT and M3- α 1AT) is shown in Fig. 2A. A general decrease in the secondary structure percentage in the variants (Z- α 1AT and M3- α 1AT) and corresponding increase in randomness relative to the M- α 1AT was observed. A decrease in α -helical content was observed near the negative bands at 222 nm and 208 nm in Fig. 2A. The 222 nm minimum of Z- α 1AT (blue) and M3- α 1AT (green) spectrum was found to be shallower than the M- α 1AT (red). The 208 nm minimum of Z- α 1AT (blue) and M3- α 1AT (green) spectrum was observed to be shifted to lower wavelengths relative to the M- α 1AT (red), which reveals an increase in disorder. The spectrum also revealed a decrease in the β -sheet content of Z- α 1AT (blue) and M3- α 1AT (green) compared to M- α 1AT (red). Taken together, the far-UV CD spectra suggest that the α 1AT variants are conformationally more relaxed relative to M- α 1AT with decreased α -helicity and β -sheet content. The percentage change in the secondary structure of the α 1AT proteins calculated from the far-UV CD spectra is shown in Fig. 2B. This

matches reasonably with the computed secondary structure from the molecular dynamic trajectories listed in Table S2.

Both the α 1AT variants have similar tertiary structure compared to the wild-type. The near-UV CD spectrum of M- α 1AT and its variants (Z- α 1AT and M3- α 1AT) is shown in Fig. 2C. The M- α 1AT shows a broad peak (maximum fluorescent intensity) at 275 nm followed by M3- α 1AT and Z- α 1AT. The near-UV CD spectrum of the variants is more or less retained and is comparable to the M- α 1AT. At the same time, the decrease in signal coupled with a blue shift, which is more remarkable for Z- α 1AT protein, reflects a small change in the tertiary structure that is more likely because of 342Glu⁻ → Lys⁺ substitution which increases the solvent exposure, thereby giving a room to the polar environment around tryptophan-194. Z- α 1AT is expected to induce a change that is likely to be more pronounced compared to M3- α 1AT (376 Glu⁻ → Asp⁻). The fluorescence emission spectra of the M- α 1AT and its variants (Z- α 1AT and M3- α 1AT) are shown in Fig. 2D. The M- α 1AT showed maximum fluorescence intensity at 350 nm. The variants were found to be of equal intensity but 34% reduced relative to the M- α 1AT. α 1AT protein has two tryptophan residues located at position 194 (buried inside the α 1AT), and 238 that is exposed. Interestingly, the peak shifts in the 200–240 nm region for both the variants in Fig. 2A are also reflected in Fig. 2C, suggesting that the environment of variants is different from the M- α 1AT. The side chain of tryptophan-194 is packed between β -sA and β -sB, which forms a core of the α 1AT structure. Interestingly, tryptophan-194 is located near the RCL of α 1AT. The difference in intrinsic fluorescence intensity arising from the tryptophans is of the following order M- α 1AT > M3- α 1AT \approx Z- α 1AT (Fig. 2D), suggesting that the tryptophan burial around the β -sA and β -sB is much more in M- α 1AT, than both the variants, which have very similar tertiary structure in that region. This points to the fact that both the variants are more exposed to the polar solvent compared to M- α 1AT, thereby leading to decrease in the fluorescence intensity by a process known as fluorescence quenching. Overall, the near-UV CD coupled with the intrinsic tryptophan spectra of α 1AT proteins reveal that both the variants have almost similar tertiary structure compared to wild-type (M- α 1AT).

M3- α 1AT has exposed hydrophobic regions compared to M- α 1AT. The ANS-binding assay reveals that the M3- α 1AT has more hydrophobic regions exposed compared to Z- α 1AT and M- α 1AT, which have similar exposure Fig. 2E. Overall, this assay suggests that M3- α 1AT is more likely to form aggregates due to exposed hydrophobic patches which are buried in case of M- α 1AT and Z- α 1AT.

Molecular dynamics simulations revealed difference in α 1AT proteins among each other. The first 23 N-terminal residues of α 1AT proteins are highly flexible and undetected in all of the crystal structures available in the Protein Data Bank. Since, this region was modelled using Modeller and therefore all α 1AT proteins showed different initial conformations. They required different time period to reach a stable conformation as can be seen from the backbone root mean square deviation (RMSD) with respect to the last frame (Fig. 3A, top panel). Results revealed that Z- α 1AT has the highest RMSD during the first 200 ns of the trajectory (Fig. 3A). In the next phase (200–650 ns), M- α 1AT showed a significantly greater RMSD compared to both the variants. The same trend was also observed in radius of gyration (R_G), till 650 ns (Fig. 3A lower panel). From 650 ns onward all the α 1AT proteins were seen relatively stabilized with RMSD limited to less than 3 Å. The modelled N-terminal segment is the primary cause of the large deviations in the initial part of the molecular dynamics (MD) trajectories and excluding this segment gave us a same free energy landscapes for all the α 1AT proteins into consideration (Fig. 3D). For each α 1AT, a representative structure from lowest free energy box of RMSD and R_G landscape have been aligned in Fig. 3B. The secondary structure assignment using DSSP showed that M- α 1AT acquired an N-terminal helical structure at the earliest followed by M3- α 1AT and Z- α 1AT. The number of frames in which this N-terminal helix was observed in M- α 1AT, M3- α 1AT, Z- α 1AT was approximately 4:2:1, suggesting that the M- α 1AT has the most stable structure followed by M3- α 1AT and Z- α 1AT. The root mean square fluctuation (RMSF) graph looked similar for all α 1AT proteins in most of the regions with a significant difference limited to the C-terminal segment, especially in the RCL (Fig. 3E). To have a greater clarity on the motion in this segment, we focused on comparative assessment of the trajectories between 700–1000 ns where the tertiary structure of the α 1AT proteins got stabilized due to the formation of helical structures at the N-terminal segment. The differences in RMSF at the C-terminal region were further resolved by looking specifically between 350–394 amino acid residues. The result revealed distinct rigidity of M3- α 1AT for the last four amino acid residues (P, T, Q, and K) followed by Z- α 1AT and M- α 1AT (Fig. 3E).

The methionine-358 microenvironment is modulated by α 1AT variants. A closer look at Fig. 3E reveals that Met 358, which forms a part of the RCL has its fluctuation mostly modulated by mutation at 342 in Z- α 1AT, and 376 in M3- α 1AT. Intriguingly, despite the difference in fluctuation, there is almost no difference in the secondary structure occupancies of the residues in the same time span. To have a better understanding of the conformational landscape of the α 1AT protein for this duration, we looked at the population distribution of various conformational states in the α 1AT proteins. The distribution of conformational states was found most constrained for M- α 1AT followed by M3- α 1AT and Z- α 1AT (Fig. 4A). The M3- α 1AT was observed to be comparatively more stable than Z- α 1AT, although it also has a wide conformational well.

Breach region is open in both the α 1AT variants. It is well accepted that the relation between the RCL and the β -sA is vital for the enhanced lifespan of the metastable state of α 1AT and any perturbation between them leads to the formation of aggregates³. The MD simulation revealed an open breach at the top of β -sA in the M3- α 1AT. This is a unique hallmark of Z- α 1AT that has been already reported¹⁶. The breach region is normally closed in the M- α 1AT and is partially solvent exposed in case of Z- α 1AT. It is the region where RCL coupled with deactivated protease first inserts in the main body of α 1AT. This region comprises several highly conserved

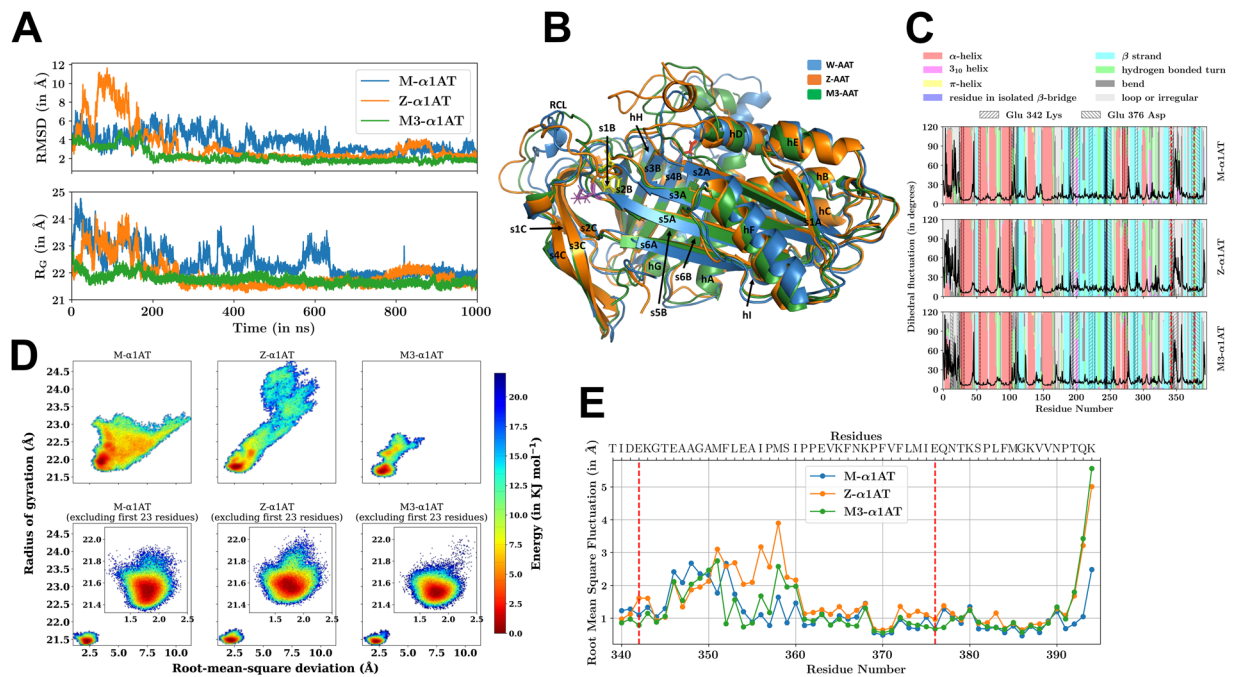


Figure 3. Results from the analysis of MD trajectories. **(A)** Backbone RMSD and R_G for different $\alpha 1AT$ proteins. These trends are almost identical when these are evaluated using only C- α atoms or all atoms of $\alpha 1AT$ proteins. **(B)** Aligned structures of the $\alpha 1AT$ proteins in cartoon representation, each obtained from the deepest well in the respective free energy landscape. The mutation site 342 for Z- $\alpha 1AT$ is shown in magenta and 376 for M3- $\alpha 1AT$ is shown in red. All the secondary structure segments are labeled, and the nomenclature introduced here has been used throughout the text. **(C)** Fluctuation in backbone dihedral of various $\alpha 1AT$ proteins and the distribution of the corresponding secondary structures in the protein. The locations of point mutation are marked with vertical dashed red lines. The proximal residues within 10 Å for each of the mutant sites are hatched as labeled. **(D)** RMSD and R_G free energy landscapes. All the subplots are in the same scale and the inset shows a zoomed view of the respective subplot. It can be seen that excluding the first 23 N-terminal residues removed the spread-out nature of the free energy landscapes (bottom row), and makes the landscapes similar in nature. **(E)** RMSF for various $\alpha 1AT$ proteins restricted to C-terminal region (residues 340–394) from the trajectory between 700–1000 ns. The location of mutation at positions 342 and 376 is marked by vertical dashed red lines.

amino acid residues, in particular, tryptophan-194. The difference in solvent exposure to tryptophan-194 side chain in the wild-type (M- $\alpha 1AT$) and Z- $\alpha 1AT$ simulation was observed by us and another investigator as well¹⁶. Due to the opening of the top of the β -sA masked by RCL, the solvent-exposed surface area of tryptophan-194 in wild-type (M- $\alpha 1AT$) and Z- $\alpha 1AT$, during the last 100 ns of the simulation, has been found to be $0.44 \pm 0.15 \text{ nm}^2$ and $0.78 \pm 0.18 \text{ nm}^2$. As far as the crystal structure of the wild-type $\alpha 1AT$ is concerned, the carbonyl carbon of aspartate-341 forms a hydrogen bond with the side chain of tryptophan-194. Interestingly, the closure of the top of the β -sA in the breach region, early in the simulation of wild-type $\alpha 1AT$, results in the loss of this association. Conversely, in Z- $\alpha 1AT$, this hydrogen bond is maintained which increases the solvent exposure and polarity of the tryptophan-194. Our simulation results revealed the similar behavior in M3- $\alpha 1AT$.

Electrostatic potential of $\alpha 1AT$ proteins vary among each other. Electrostatics appears to play a key role in the perturbation that leads to protein aggregation. The residues with significantly different electrostatic potential among the $\alpha 1AT$ proteins have been tabulated in Table S3. The distribution of the electrostatic potential on all the $\alpha 1AT$ proteins is shown in Fig. 4B. The amino acid residue Thr 113, Ile 188, and Lys 335 transversely straddle sheet A located on strands β -s2A, β -s3A and β -s5A, respectively. These residues are juxtaposed underneath helix F and right at its C-terminal end and the subsequent random coil segment. The opening of β -s5A is important for the insertion of RCL into the main body of $\alpha 1AT$. Electrostatic perturbations appear to provide a similar perturbation through mean electrostatic potential modulation. Electrostatic potential calculations reveal that M3- $\alpha 1AT$ is distinct from both M- $\alpha 1AT$ and Z- $\alpha 1AT$. A similar electrostatic perturbation in Z- $\alpha 1AT$, that is distinct from M- $\alpha 1AT$ and M3- $\alpha 1AT$, arises at Lys 290, Asp 341 and Lys 342, which are all-contiguous in space and located at one tethering end of the RCL. Electrostatic perturbation at tethering end of the RCL will undoubtedly perturb the equilibrium state of Z- $\alpha 1AT$ compared to that found in M- $\alpha 1AT$. The 2D histogram of the C-terminal region (from amino acid residue 340–394) of the $\alpha 1AT$ proteins reveals the stability order as M- $\alpha 1AT$ > M3- $\alpha 1AT$ > Z- $\alpha 1AT$. The next set of spatially contiguous residues electrostatically found perturbed are Arg 223, Phe 227 and Asn 228 which lie in β -sC adjoining the RCL on one end and β -sB on the other. Interestingly, the RCL also becomes a part of sheet β -sC. Therefore, any electrostatic perturbation in this region is likely to affect the RCL equilibrium directly and of β -sB with which it packs.

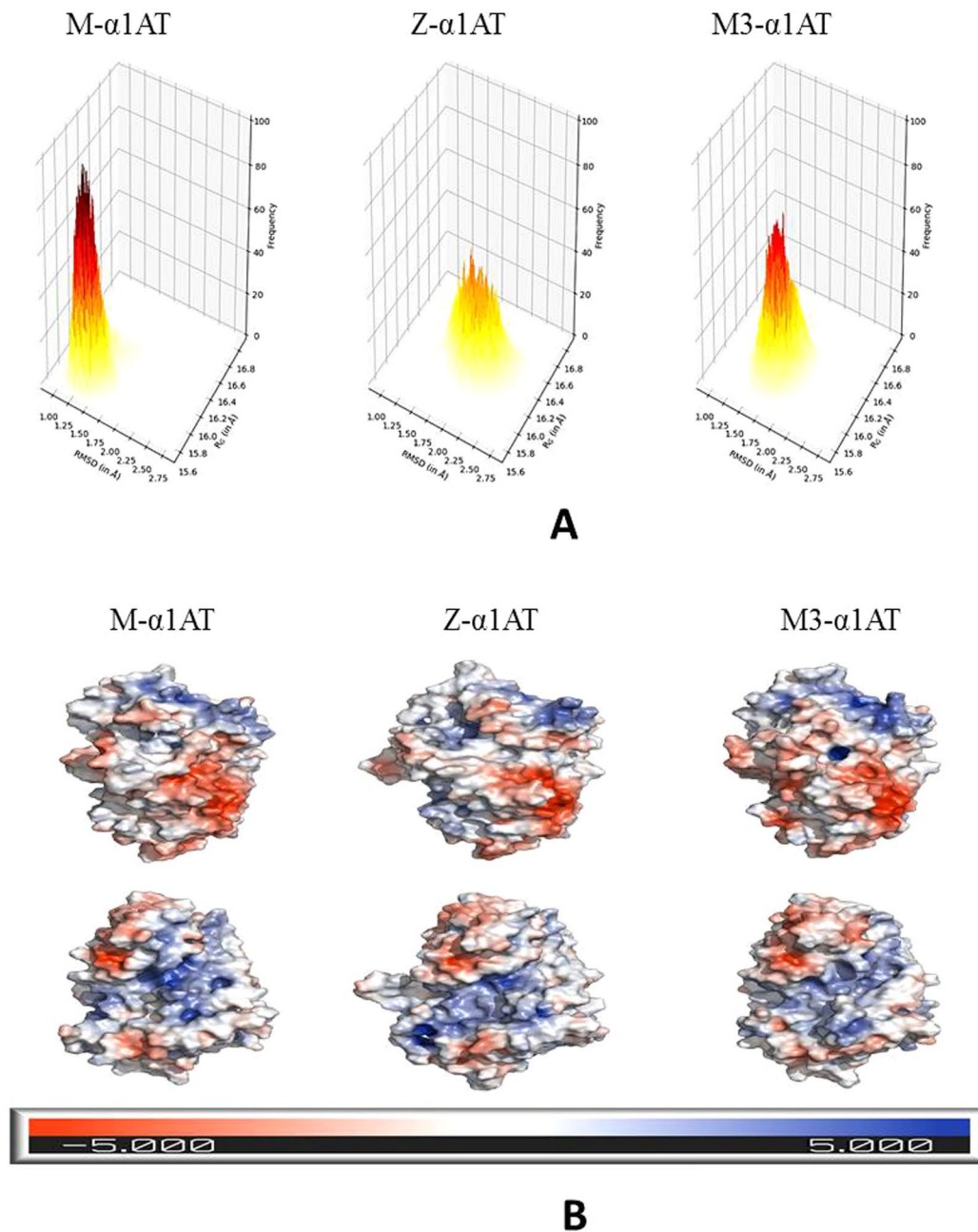


Figure 4. Conformational landscape and electrostatic potential of α 1AT proteins. **(A)** 2D histogram of RMSD and R_G for the C-terminal region (340–394) of α 1AT proteins. The color scale is from yellow to brown according to the frequency value on the Z-axis. **(B)** Surface representation of α 1AT proteins colored according to the electrostatic potential. The surfaces in each column are shown from two opposite orientations. The chosen structures belong to the deepest well in the free energy landscape for each α 1AT protein. The electrostatic potential was calculated using Delphi software and represented by the coloring of the solvent accessible surface of the α 1AT proteins based on the potential, and solvent radius above the surface, using PyMOL. Note: the marked distinction in the electrostatic potential on the surface is due to the mutation of a single residue between the proteins. The unit of the scale is in $k_B T/e$.

Singleton electrostatic perturbations at methionine-351, that has the polarizable nature of the Sulfur in its side chain, may directly affect the reactive center equilibrium and the effects are likely to be magnified. The other noted perturbation at Ala 60 that connects the β -s-A may aid in its perturbation during an aggregation process.

Discussion

α 1AT is an abundant circulating antiprotease in our blood. Its levels are elevated in inflammatory condition and are primarily meant to neutralize the elastase secreted by neutrophils at the site of inflammation. Different types of point mutations in α 1AT gene like Z- α 1AT has been extensively implicated in the reduced serum α 1AT levels that may lead to COPD. The normal serum α 1AT ranges from 0.9–2.0 g/L¹⁷. However, *Abcams* α 1AT ELISA kit reports the normal serum level from 1.0–3.6 g/L (Ab108798). The normal level of serum α 1AT may vary from one region to another. The Kashmiri population mostly resemble ethnically and phenotypically with Iran and Iraq¹⁸; therefore, one would expect a genetic diversity in the normal serum α 1AT levels. M3- α 1AT (376Glu > Asp) is largely being considered as a normal variant of α 1AT. Few investigations based on epidemiological data have reported an increased frequency of M3- α 1AT in COPD, Alzheimer's disease, chronic hepatitis, and demyelinating disease¹¹. Our study also revealed an increased frequency of M3- α 1AT ($p < 0.0001$) in Kashmiri population. The prevalence of M3 heterozygotic and homozygotic forms with the M, S, and Z variant background is not extensively reported. However, a study has reported the occurrence Q₀Madrid mutation in an M3 background, contributing to the pathogenicity. Keeping the above background into consideration, no study has identified how M3- α 1AT could possibly play its pathogenic role in the development of different types of diseases including COPD.

The newly synthesized α 1AT protein is enzymatically active in its metastable form (3). The exposed reactive center loop (RCL) of α 1AT gets cleaved upon its interaction with proteases like neutrophil elastase and trypsin. This triggers a major irreversible structural rearrangement coupled with a decrease in free energy of α 1AT⁴. Two models have been proposed to date to understand the mechanism of the α 1AT polymerization. The first one proposes that RCL of the one α 1AT instead of hopping into its main structure enters into the α 1AT of another and the second models suggest the insertion of both RCL and β -s5A of α 1AT molecule into another α 1AT, also known as β -hairpin domain swap mechanism¹⁹. Both the proposed mechanisms led to the formation of a dimer that supports one of our experiments. It is interesting to note that in either of the events, the secondary and tertiary structure of the α 1AT is maintained¹⁹. This is the main reason why Z- α 1AT polymer accumulation in the ER of hepatocytes evades from unfolded protein response, a response generated by the cell to bring back the normal cellular homeostasis^{20,21}. The widely accepted model of pathological α 1AT polymerization is one in which the RCL of one α 1AT anneals between β -s3A and β -s5A of another. Few investigations support this model. The first one is that RCL mimicking synthetic peptides have been shown to anneal between β -s3A and β -s5A, thereby, blocking α 1AT polymerization and another one came from the fluorescence spectroscopy^{22,23}.

The newly proposed mechanism of α 1AT polymerization suggests that polymerization is preceded by the accumulation of a partially unfolded form (M^*) in which β -s3A and β -s5A are separated that lead to the formation of a dimer to trigger polymerization cascade. The 15 nm diameter of all the freshly purified α 1AT proteins calculated using DLS revealed their dimeric nature and progressively reflected an increase in aggregation ability for both the variants at 4 °C over a period of time except M- α 1AT, which was still found in its dimeric state during the same time period.

Our results are contrary to the results furnished by Zhou *et al.*²⁴ and others^{25,26} who have demonstrated that dimer formation is the minimum requirement to trigger and propagate α 1AT polymerization. In this study, we observed that the dimeric nature of α 1AT was retained by the wild-type at 4 °C over a period time compared to other two variants (M3- α 1AT and Z- α 1AT) that formed aggregates of varied size in the same time-period. Our results strictly point that both the variants can form aggregates of varied size even at 4 °C without any denaturant. It could also be possible that they might have formed a dimer in the bacterial expression cells prior to protein purification. It is important to note that α 1AT synthesized by hepatocytes is secreted out in the circulation in glycosylated form, so the presence of monomeric α 1AT in human blood is quite possible. The same holds true for α 1AT protein synthesized by the yeast as well.

Our biochemical assay performed on α 1AT proteins revealed that they behave differently upon their interaction with trypsin. More importantly, both the variants of α 1AT (Z- α 1AT and M3- α 1AT) gave rise to multiple peptide fragments of less than 50 kDa in size compared to M- α 1AT with the increasing concentration of trypsin. Therefore, one would suggest that both the variants are not in a native three-dimensional structure and have some exposed regions that provide a docking site for trypsin to bind compared to M- α 1AT.

As far as our spectroscopic data is concerned, far-UV CD spectra of α 1AT variants (Z- α 1AT and M3- α 1AT) revealed increase in randomness and conformationally more relaxed relative to M- α 1AT. The percentage change in the secondary structure of the α 1AT proteins calculated matches reasonably well with the computed secondary structure from the molecular dynamic trajectories. Additionally, the near-UV CD and intrinsic tryptophan spectra of α 1AT proteins reveal that Z- α 1AT and M3- α 1AT have almost similar tertiary structure compared to wild-type M- α 1AT. The ANS-binding assay reveals that the M3- α 1AT has more hydrophobic regions exposed compared to Z- α 1AT and M- α 1AT. Overall, one would suggest that M3- α 1AT is more likely to form aggregates due to exposed hydrophobic patches which are buried in case of M- α 1AT and Z- α 1AT. It is interesting to note that Met 351 and Met 358 are extremely critical for the antiprotease activity of α 1AT²⁷. Oxidation of either of the methionine in α 1AT causes loss of its antiprotease activity that leads to α 1AT dysfunction and is believed to be one of the possible mechanisms by which cigarette smoke can lead to emphysema.

The methionine 358 is susceptible to convert into methionine sulfoxide by oxidants like cigarette smoke, thereby rendering it much less potent anti-protease. The criticality of methionine-358 in maintaining the meta-stability of the C-terminal segment of α 1ATs has been aptly revealed and the methionine to arginine mutation (α 1AT_{Pittsburg} mutation) at this position is known to be lethal²⁸. Normally, the 358th methionine residue of the α 1AT acts as bait for elastase. Likewise, the 393rd arginine residue of the antithrombin III acts as bait for thrombin and thereby regulates the blood coagulation cascade. This substitution switches over the anti-elastase activity of the α 1AT to antithrombin activity, leading to fatal blood disorder²⁹. Our results also indicate that methionine-358, which forms a part of the RCL have its fluctuations highly modulated by Z- α 1AT, followed by

M3- α 1AT. All the results from our studies point towards an unusual behavior of M3- α 1AT that resemble to some extent with the Z- α 1AT.

Conclusion

Our study revealed that M3- α 1AT protein remarkably differ from the wild-type (M- α 1AT) and has an ability to form aggregates like Z- α 1AT. Furthermore, molecular dynamics simulation exploited for this study revealed that C-terminal region of M3- α 1AT has high fluctuations compared to M- α 1AT. However, further experiments are warranted to understand the mechanism/s by virtue of which M3- α 1AT can contribute to the pathogenesis of COPD and other disorders as well.

Materials and Methods

Study. A case-control study was conducted with the main aim to find an association exon5 SNP (376Glu⁻ → Asp⁻) of the *SERPINA1* gene and the development of COPD patients in Kashmir valley. The research work was started following approval by the Board of Research Studies of University of Kashmir and the study protocol clearance by the ethical committee of the Government Medical College, Srinagar (34/ETH/GMC/ICMR). The study was conducted in accordance to the Declaration of Helsinki principles and Global Initiative for Chronic Obstructive Lung Disease (GOLD), 2014 revised guidelines³⁰. All subjects gave informed and written consent to participate in the present study.

Standard characteristics of study participants. A total of 230 ethnic-Kashmiris comprising of COPD cases (N = 110) and healthy subjects (N = 120) were studied from April 2014 to July 2015. Blood samples of COPD patients were collected from Government Chest Disease Hospital, Srinagar. Approximately, 2 mL of venous blood was taken from COPD patients (aged ≥ 40 years). Following inclusion criteria was strictly followed for COPD cases: (i) wheezing (high-pitched whistling sound), and/or cough along with the expectoration lasting more than three-months once a year (ii) Ratio of forced expiratory volume in one second to forced vital capacity (FEV1/FVC) < 70% and FEV1 < 80% on spirometry prior to salbutamol (bronchodilator) administration. Those COPD patients were excluded from our study who had a history of bronchial asthma, interstitial lung disease, lung carcinoma, active respiratory tract infection, nephropathy, seasonal influenza, allergy, and tuberculosis as revealed by the high-resolution computed tomography and chest radiography. A total of 40 such cases were disqualified from the present investigation in accordance to the GOLD guidelines. Overall, a total number of 70 COPD cases consisting of 21 females and 49 males were studied further. The controls comprising of 120 individuals with no history of COPD or for that matter any other serious ailments were included in the present study. DNA from the venous blood was collected from all the 120 individuals that served as a control for the present investigation. The controls were matched with the COPD cases separately for age (± 5 years), gender, place of dwelling (rural/urban), smoking practice and ethnicity so as to reduce the confounding consequence of several significant factors. Fifteen healthy individuals were excluded from the study that had raised C-reactive proteins, post-surgical patients, and those who had any sign of inflammation strictly following the GOLD guidelines. Overall, 105 healthy individuals comprised of 65 males and 40 females were studied further.

Patient data collection. The environmental factors, clinicopathological features, and demographic variables were personally collected and evaluated by discussing personally with the COPD patients and/or their caretakers. The information gathered were age, gender, place of residence, ethnicity, smoking practice, liver pathology, and the family history of COPD. The spirometry data of individual COPD cases was collected from the hospital. Additionally, relevant information from the controls was also collected. All the subjects or their custodians were properly informed about the present study. The willingness to participate in the present study was recorded from individual subject through a pre-designed questionnaire.

Genomic DNA extraction. Approximately, 2 mL of the venous blood sample was drawn from each participant in accordance to our established protocol¹³. The blood was collected in ethylene diamine-tetra-acetic acid-coated vials. The samples were kept in -80°C until further processing. The phenol-chloroform DNA extraction method was strictly followed to isolate the genomic DNA from individual sample, respectively³¹. The purity ($\lambda_{260}/\lambda_{280}$ ratio) and the concentration (ng/ μL) of the extracted DNA samples was carried out by using Bio-Rad's *Nandrop*TM. The DNA samples that had $\lambda_{260}/\lambda_{280}$ (purity ratio) falling within 1.80–1.91 range were used subsequently and those with $\lambda_{260}/\lambda_{280}$ ratio < 1.80 were processed further to achieve desired purity ratio. Genomic DNAs were also qualitatively assessed by electrophoresing them in 0.8% agarose gel prepared in 1X TAE (Tris-acetate ethylenediaminetetraacetate).

Polymerase chain reaction (PCR) for the amplification of exon 5 of the *SERPINA1* gene. A 494 bp size amplicon that encompasses 268 bp region of exon5 of the *SERPINA1* gene was amplified with the following set of primers (Pf:- 5'GTGACAGGGAGGGAGAGGAT3' and Pr:-5'CTGTTACCTGGAGCCCACAT3') under initial denaturation at 95 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 3:00 min, cyclic denaturation at 95 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 0:30 min, annealing at 62 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 0:30 min, cyclic extension at 72 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 0:45 min, and final extension at 72 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 7:00 min³².

Genotyping. All possible variations in exon 5 of the *SERPINA1* gene of the COPD patients and controls was assessed through the direct sequencing method of the PCR products at SciGenom Private Limited, Kakkannad, Cochin, Kerala, India-682037 (<http://www.scigenom.com>).

Cloning and site-directed mutagenesis. The wild type α 1AT (M- α 1AT) was cloned into the pET30a bacterial expression vector equipped with His tag at both N and C-terminal end. Next, primer set was designed to introduce Z mutation into the wild M α 1AT-pET30a construct to generate Z α 1AT-pET30a.

PCR reaction condition for site-directed mutagenesis to generate Z α 1AT–pET30a construct.

6652 bp recombinant Z- α 1AT–pET30a was amplified with the following set of primers (Pf:-5'GCTG TGCTGACCATCGACA~~AAA~~AAAGGGACTGAAGCTGCT3' and Pr: 5'AGCAGCTTCAGTCCCTT TTTTGTGTCGATGGTCAGCACAGC3') under initial denaturation at 95 °C for 3:00 min, internal denaturation for 95 °C for 0:30 min, 65 °C for 0:30 min, 72 °C for 5:00 min, and final extension 72 °C for 10:00 min.

PCR reaction condition for site-directed mutagenesis to generate M3 α 1AT–pET30a construct.

6652 bp recombinant M3 α 1AT–pET30a was amplified with the following set of primers (Pf:-5'TTTGTCTTCT TAATGATTGACCAAAATACCAAGTCTCCCTC3' and Pr:-5'GAGGGGAGACTTGGTATTTTGGTCAAT CATTAAAGAAGACAAA 3' under initial denaturation at 95 °C for 3:00 min, internal denaturation for 95 °C for 0:30 min, 67 °C for 0:30 min, 72 °C for 5:00 min, and final extension 72 °C for 10:00 min.

Large scale purification of α 1AT proteins from *E. Coli. BL21-DE.* α 1AT protein purifications were done as mentioned previously by Levina *et al.*³³ with certain modification (5 M Urea added to dissolve the inclusion bodies).

α 1AT protein quantification. α 1AT proteins were quantified by performing Bradford assay. The dilution of the samples was done in Milli-Q[®] water and mixed with equal volume of Bradford reagent. The known concentration of BSA was used as a standard. Samples were incubated at room temperature in dark for about 10 minutes and absorbance was recorded at 595 nm (*Thermo Scientific spectrometer*).

Western-blot. *Verification of α 1AT protein and His tag in the recombinants.* α 1AT protein and His-tag verification was done by probing with anti- α 1AT and anti-His antibody.

Preparation of trypsin. The molecular weight of trypsin is 23.3 kDa. 0.25 mg of trypsin was dissolved in 1 mL of MQ-water. 0.25 mg/mL of trypsin (10.7 μ M of trypsin) was used as a stock solution to prepare different concentrations of trypsin.

Preparation of 0.54 μ M α 1AT proteins. 0.5 mg/mL (9.61 μ M) of α 1AT proteins were used as a stock to prepare 0.54 μ M α 1AT proteins in 100 μ L of cleavage buffer as described previously³⁴.

Trypsin-antitrypsin cleavage buffer. Trypsin-antitrypsin cleavage was performed at 37 °C in 30 mM sodium phosphate buffer, pH 7.4, containing 160 mM NaCl, 0.1% (w/v) polyethylene glycol, and 0.1% (v/v) Triton X-100.

Far-UV and near-UV circular dichroism spectroscopy. The far and near-ultraviolet (UV) circular dichroism (CD) spectrum of purified wild-type α 1AT (M- α 1AT) and other two variants (Z- α 1AT and M3- α 1AT) were measured at least three times in a J-810 (Jasco spectropolarimeter) machine coupled with a Peltier-type temperature controller at ACBR, University of Delhi, India-110007. Each spectrum of the α 1AT protein was corrected for the contribution of its blank. The final concentration of the α 1AT proteins was 0.5 mg/mL. The path length of the cuvette used for far and near-UV CD measurements was 1.0 mm and 10 mm, respectively. The CD machine was regularly calibrated with D-10-camphorsulphonic acid. The secondary structure estimation from the far-UV spectroscopy was calculated by Yang's method³⁵.

Fluorescence spectroscopy. Fluorescence measurements were done using a Perkin Elmer-LS 55 spectrofluorimeter at ACBR, University of Delhi-India. Intrinsic tryptophan fluorescence of all α 1AT proteins was measured in 20 mM sodium phosphate, 100 mM NaCl, 0.1 mM EDTA, and 0.1% (w/v) PEG 8000, pH 7.4, using an excitation wavelength ($\lambda_{\text{excitation}}$ 295 nm) and detecting photons emission at 90° to the excitation beam. The emission spectra were recorded from 300–500 nm. The final concentration of all the α 1AT proteins was 0.5 mg/mL. The path length of the cuvette used for fluorescence measurement was 5.0 mm. All the essential background corrections were done.

ANS-binding assay. A saturated solution of ANS (8-aniline-1-naphthalene sulfonic acid) was prepared in 50 mM Tris, 50 mM KCl with pH 7.4. The ANS solution was filtered through a 0.2- μ m pore size filter. The stock solution (50 mL) was added to 500 mL of 20 mM sodium phosphate, 100 mM NaCl, 0.1 mM EDTA, and 0.1% (w/v) PEG 8000 with pH 7.4 in a fluorescence cuvette. The experiment was initiated by the addition of α 1AT to the cuvette to give a final concentration of 0.1 mg/mL. The change in fluorescence when ANS was incubated with respective α 1AT protein was measured by exciting with the light at 350 nm. The fluorescence was recorded at 400–600 nm.

Dynamic light scattering experiments. The size distribution of α 1AT proteins was obtained using Zetasizer MicroV/ZMV 2000 (Malvern, UK) at ACBR, University of Delhi-India. All the measurements were done using an incident laser beam of 689 nm at a fixed angle of 90°. Fifteen measurements were recorded at 25 °C with an acquisition time of 30 seconds for each α 1AT protein at 10% of sensitivity. The data was analyzed using Zetasizer software provided by the manufacturer to acquire hydrodynamic diameters. The concentration of all the α 1AT proteins was from 0.1–0.5 mg/mL.

Molecular Dynamics (MD) simulation and in silico analyses. The structure of wild-type (M- α 1AT) was obtained from the Protein Data Bank (PDB ID: 3NE4)³⁶. The mutations 342 Glu \rightarrow Lys (Z- α 1AT) and 376 Glu \rightarrow Asp (M3- α 1AT) were introduced *in silico* using PyMOL³⁷ to generate Z- α 1AT and M3- α 1AT variants, respectively. The 23 N-terminal residues of α 1AT missing in the PDB structure 3NE4 were modelled using

MODELLER³⁸. The MD simulations were performed in GROMACS using the CHARMM27 force-field with cmap, available in GROMACS^{39,40}.

The structures were placed in their respective dodecahedral box with dimensions close to 10 nm × 10 nm × 7 nm. There were variations in box sizes for each α 1AT due to the difference in the structures after introducing the N-terminal region of it. Each box was solvated with water and the extended simple point charge model was used in the simulations. Na⁺ and Cl⁻ ions were added to neutralize the charge on the proteins while maintaining a final concentration of 0.1 M NaCl. The systems for M- α 1AT, Z- α 1AT, and M3- α 1AT had 64722, 64728 and 68805 water molecules in the box, respectively. Periodic boundary condition was applied in all three directions. Particle-mesh Ewald (PME) and Verlet list was used in the simulations, as well as the default leap-frog integrator. The short-range electrostatic cut-off and short-range and van der Waals cut-off were both set at 1.2 Å, while the Fourier spacing was 0.12. Energy minimization was performed using the steepest descent algorithm with a step size of 0.01 kJ mol⁻¹. The systems for M- α 1AT, M3- α 1AT and Z- α 1AT converged to a maximum force below 1000.0 kJ mol⁻¹nm⁻¹ in 735, 682, 792 iterations, respectively. This was followed by equilibration for 100 ps in canonical (NVT) ensemble and for 100 ps in isothermal-isobaric (NPT) ensemble. Finally, the production run was for 1 μ s, in which the frames were saved every 10 ps yielding 100,000 frames for analysis. The equilibration as well as final simulations was done at 300 K. The fluctuation in the dihedral angles (ϕ and ψ) for each residue was evaluated from the trajectory with the help of MDTraj python package⁴¹. The hydrogen bonds made by the mutated residues with rest of the molecule were calculated as well. The secondary structure throughout the trajectory was calculated using the GROMACS utility do_dssp, which uses the DSSP software behind the scenes^{42,43}. The total and average propensity of various α 1AT protein segments were calculated based on the amino acid propensities⁴⁴. A conformational ensemble was selected across free energy landscape. The electrostatic potential around the molecule in each conformation was calculated using Delphi^{45–47}. It uses a grid-based algorithm, which gives the electrostatic potential calculated at each grid point^{46,47}. This was visualized by coloring the solvent accessible surface based on the value of the potentials (calculated earlier using Delphi) one solvent radius above the surface in PyMOL. The potential on each atom was calculated by obtaining its location within the grid and taking the average of the potential at corner grid points of the cell in which the atom resided. The potentials of atoms in each residue were averaged to get the value per residue. The difference in potential for Z- α 1AT and M3- α 1AT from the Wild-type (M- α 1AT) was evaluated as well. To find the electrostatically perturbed residues; mean (μ) and standard deviation (σ) of the electrostatic potential was calculated for each residue. A range of the electrostatic potential values was created for each residue by taking the $\mu \pm \sigma$. The overlap between the ranges was calculated and converted into a percentage by taking the overlap range divided by the total range and the whole multiplied by 100. The comparisons were done for each pair of residues in the three proteins.

Received: 27 June 2019; Accepted: 9 April 2020;

Published online: 19 May 2020

References

- Bashir, A. *et al.* Novel variants of *SERPINA1* gene: Interplay between alpha1-antitrypsin deficiency and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. *Respir. Med.* **117**, 139–149, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rmed.2016.06.005> (2016).
- Hazari, Y. M. *et al.* Alpha-1-antitrypsin deficiency: Genetic variations, clinical manifestations and therapeutic interventions. *Mutat. Res.* **773**, 14–25, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mrrev.2017.03.001> (2017).
- Krishnan, B. & Gierasch, L. M. Dynamic local unfolding in the serpin alpha-1 antitrypsin provides a mechanism for loop insertion and polymerization. *Nat. Struct. Mol. Biol.* **18**, 222–226, <https://doi.org/10.1038/nsmb.1976> (2011).
- Tsutsui, Y., Dela Cruz, R. & Wintrode, P. L. Folding mechanism of the metastable serpin alpha1-antitrypsin. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **109**, 4467–4472, <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1109125109> (2012).
- Blanco, I., de Serres, F. J., Fernandez-Bustillo, E., Lara, B. & Miravittles, M. Estimated numbers and prevalence of PI*S and PI*Z alleles of α_1 -antitrypsin deficiency in European countries. *European Respir. J.* **27**, 77–84, <https://doi.org/10.1183/09031936.06.00062305> (2006).
- Kelly, E., Greene, C. M., Carroll, T. P., McElvaney, N. G. & O'Neill, S. J. Alpha-1 antitrypsin deficiency. *Respir. Med. CME* **4**, 1–8 (2011).
- Lomas, D. A. The selective advantage of α 1-antitrypsin deficiency. *Amer. J. Respir. Critical Care Med.* **173**, 1072–1077 (2006).
- Graham, A. *et al.* Characterisation of the alpha-1-antitrypsin M3 gene, a normal variant. *Hum. Genet.* **85**, 381–382 (1990).
- McCombe, P. A. *et al.* Alpha-1 antitrypsin phenotypes in demyelinating disease: an association between demyelinating disease and the allele PiM3. *Ann. Neurol.* **18**, 514–516 (1985).
- Kowalska, A., Danker-Hopfe, H., Wender, M., Florczak, J. & Walter, H. Association between the PI*M3 allele of alpha 1-antitrypsin and Alzheimer's disease? A preliminary report. *Hum. Genet.* **98**, 744–746 (1996).
- Gupta, J. *et al.* Association of the PIM3 allele of the alpha-1-antitrypsin gene with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. *Clin. Biochem.* **38**, 489–491 (2005).
- Kumar, M. *et al.* Combinatorial effect of TIMP-1 and alpha1AT gene polymorphisms on development of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. *Clin. Biochem.* **44**, 1067–1073 (2011).
- Bashir, A. *et al.* *SERPINA1* Hepatocyte-Specific Promoter Polymorphism Associate with Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease in a Study of Kashmiri Ancestry Individuals. *Lung* **196**, 447–454, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00408-018-0124-8> (2018).
- Mahadeva, R., Dafforn, T. R., Carrell, R. W. & Lomas, D. A. 6-mer peptide selectively anneals to a pathogenic serpin conformation and blocks polymerization. Implications for the prevention of Z alpha(1)-antitrypsin-related cirrhosis. *J. Biol. Chem.* **277**, 6771–6774, <https://doi.org/10.1074/jbc.C100722200> (2002).
- Ogushi, F., Fells, G. A., Hubbard, R. C., Straus, S. D. & Crystal, R. G. Z-type alpha 1-antitrypsin is less competent than M1-type alpha 1-antitrypsin as an inhibitor of neutrophil elastase. *J. Clin. Invest.* **80**, 1366–1374, <https://doi.org/10.1172/JCI113214> (1987).
- Kass, I., Knaupp, A. S., Bottomley, S. P. & Buckle, A. M. Conformational properties of the disease-causing Z variant of alpha1-antitrypsin revealed by theory and experiment. *Biophys. J.* **102**, 2856–2865, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bpj.2012.05.023> (2012).
- Ferrarotti, I. *et al.* Serum levels and genotype distribution of alpha1-antitrypsin in the general population. *Thorax* **67**, 669–674, <https://doi.org/10.1136/thoraxjnl-2011-201321> (2012).
- Reich, D., Thangaraj, K., Patterson, N., Price, A. L. & Singh, L. Reconstructing Indian population history. *Nature* **461**, 489–494 (2009).

19. Yamasaki, M., Li, W., Johnson, D. J. & Huntington, J. A. Crystal structure of a stable dimer reveals the molecular basis of serpin polymerization. *Nature* **455**, 1255–1258, <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature07394> (2008).
20. Hidvegi, T., Schmidt, B. Z., Hale, P. & Perlmutter, D. H. Accumulation of mutant alpha 1-antitrypsin Z in the endoplasmic reticulum activates caspases-4 and -12, NFkappaB, and BAP31 but not the unfolded protein response. *J. Biol. Chem.* **280**, 39002–39015 (2005).
21. Davies, M. J. *et al.* Neuroserpin polymers activate NF-kappaB by a calcium signaling pathway that is independent of the unfolded protein response. *J. Biol. Chem.* **284**, 18202–18209, <https://doi.org/10.1074/jbc.M109.010744> (2009).
22. Zhou, A. *et al.* How small peptides block and reverse serpin polymerisation. *J. Mol. Biol.* **342**, 931–941 (2004).
23. Chang, Y. P., Mahadeva, R., Chang, W. S., Lin, S. C. & Chu, Y. H. Small-molecule peptides inhibit Z alpha1-antitrypsin polymerization. *J. Cell. Mol. Med.* **13**, 2304–2316 (2009).
24. Zhou, A. *et al.* The S-to-R transition of corticosteroid-binding globulin and the mechanism of hormone release. *J. Mol. Biol.* **380**, 244–251, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jmb.2008.05.012> (2008).
25. Koloczek, H., Guz, A. & Kaszycki, P. Fluorescence-detected polymerization kinetics of human alpha 1-antitrypsin. *J. Protein Chem.* **15**, 447–454 (1996).
26. Lomas, D. A., Evans, D. L., Stone, S. R., Chang, W. S. & Carrell, R. W. Effect of the Z mutation on the physical and inhibitory properties of alpha 1-antitrypsin. *Biochemistry* **32**, 500–508 (1993).
27. Taggart, C. *et al.* Oxidation of either methionine 351 or methionine 358 in alpha 1-antitrypsin causes loss of anti-neutrophil elastase activity. *J. Biol. Chem.* **275**, 27258–27265 (2000).
28. Kaiserman, D., Whisstock, J. C. & Bird, P. I. Mechanisms of serpin dysfunction in disease. *Expert Rev. Mol. Med.* **8**, 1–19 (2006).
29. Owen, M. C., Brennan, S. O., Lewis, J. H. & Carrell, R. W. Mutation of antitrypsin to antithrombin. alpha 1-antitrypsin Pittsburgh (358 Met leads to Arg), a fatal bleeding disorder. *New England J. Med.* **309**, 694–698 (1983).
30. Barr, R. G. *et al.* A combined pulmonary-radiology workshop for visual evaluation of COPD: study design, chest CT findings and concordance with quantitative evaluation. *COPD* **9**, 151–159, <https://doi.org/10.3109/15412555.2012.654923> (2012).
31. Sambrook, J., Russell, D. W. & Sambrook, J. *The condensed protocols: from molecular cloning: a laboratory manual.* (Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory Press Cold Spring Harbor, NY, 2006).
32. Fregonese, L., Stolk, J., Frants, R. R. & Veldhuisen, B. Alpha-1 antitrypsin Null mutations and severity of emphysema. *Respir Med* **102**, 876–884, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rmed.2008.01.009> (2008).
33. Levina, V. *et al.* Expression, purification and characterization of recombinant Z alpha(1)-antitrypsin—the most common cause of alpha(1)-antitrypsin deficiency. *Protein Expr. Purif.* **68**, 226–232, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pep.2009.06.011> (2009).
34. Hopkins, P. C., Carrell, R. W. & Stone, S. R. Effects of mutations in the hinge region of serpins. *Biochemistry* **32**, 7650–7657 (1993).
35. Yang, J. T., Wu, C. S. & Martinez, H. M. Calculation of protein conformation from circular dichroism. *Methods Enzymol.* **130**, 208–269 (1986).
36. Patschull, A. O. M. *et al.* Therapeutic Target-Site Variability in α 1-Antitrypsin Characterized at High Resolution. *Acta Crystallogr. Section F: Struct. Biol. Cryst. Comm.* **67**, 1492–1497 (2011).
37. The PyMOL Molecular Graphics System v. 1.8 (2015).
38. Šali, A. & Blundell, T. L. Comparative Protein Modelling by Satisfaction of Spatial Restraints. *J. Mol. Biol.* **234**, 779–815 (1993).
39. Berendsen, H. J. C., van der Spoel, D. & van Drunen, R. GROMACS: A Message-Passing Parallel Molecular Dynamics Implementation. *Computer Physics Comm.* **91**, 43–56 (1995).
40. Bjelkmar, P., Larsson, P., Cuendet, M. A., Hess, B. & Lindahl, E. Implementation of the CHARMM Force Field in GROMACS: Analysis of Protein Stability Effects from Correction Maps, Virtual Interaction Sites, and Water Models. *J. Chem. Theory Comput.* **6**, 459–466, <https://doi.org/10.1021/ct900549r> (2010).
41. McGibbon, R. T. *et al.* MDTraj: A Modern Open Library for the Analysis of Molecular Dynamics Trajectories. *Biophys. J.* **109**, 1528–1532 (2015).
42. Touw, W. G. *et al.* A Series of PDB-Related Databanks for Everyday Needs. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **43**, 364–368 (2015).
43. Wolfgang, K. & Sander, C. Dictionary of Protein Secondary Structure: Pattern Recognition of Hydrogen-Bonded and Geometrical Features. *Biopolymers* **22**, 2577–2637 (1983).
44. Costantini, S., Colonna, G. & M., F. A. Amino Acid Propensities for Secondary Structures Are Influenced by the Protein Structural Class. *Biochem. Biophys. Res. Comm.* **342**, 441–451, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bbrc.2006.01.159> (2006).
45. Smith, N. *et al.* DelPhi Web Server v2: Incorporating Atomic-Style Geometrical Figures into the Computational Protocol. *Bioinformatics* **28**, 1655–1657 (2012).
46. Li, L. *et al.* DelPhi: a comprehensive suite for DelPhi software and associated resources. *BMC Biophysics* **5**, 5, 9 (2012).
47. Li, C., Li, L., Zhang, J. & Alexov, E. Highly efficient and exact method for parallelization of grid-based algorithms and its implementation in DelPhi. *J. Comput. Chem.* **33**, 1960–1966 (2012).

Acknowledgements

We would like to acknowledge Department of Biotechnology (DBT), Govt. of India, New Delhi for the financial assistance under project number BT/PR7240/MED/30/915/2012 provided to Arif Bashir and to Khalid Majid Fazili. Financial support provided by grants from the Department of Science and Technology (No. SB/SO/AS-126/2012), FIST No. SR/FST/LSI-384/2008), SAP and UGC (No.F.3–26/2011 (SAP-II) and the facilities extended by University of Kashmir, Srinagar-190006, India are acknowledged. Dibyajyoti Maity thanks Council of Scientific and Industrial Research (CSIR), New Delhi-India for providing fellowship. DP thanks the Department of Biotechnology, New Delhi for supporting the computational facilities. The authors would also like to thank all the COPD patients and control subjects who took part in this study and cooperated during the interview and sample collection. We also acknowledge the support and cooperation of the technical staff of the Government Chest Disease Hospital, Srinagar, Jammu and Kashmir-India.

Author contributions

All authors have made substantial contributions: (1) The concept and design of the study was done by A.B., Y.M.H., K.M.F., S.B. and N.N.S. (2) the article was drafted critically for important intellectual content by K.M.F., D.P., N.N.S. and A.B. (3) D.M. performed and analyzed the MD simulations (4) L.R.S. kindly facilitated us to perform spectroscopic analysis, and (5) final approval of the version by K.M.F., D.P. and A.B.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Additional information

Supplementary information is available for this paper at <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-020-64860-1>.

Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to A.B. or K.M.F.

Reprints and permissions information is available at www.nature.com/reprints.

Publisher's note Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.



Open Access This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License, which permits use, sharing, adaptation, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons license, and indicate if changes were made. The images or other third party material in this article are included in the article's Creative Commons license, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the article's Creative Commons license and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder. To view a copy of this license, visit <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>.

© The Author(s) 2020