

IA₃, an Aspartic Proteinase Inhibitor from *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, Is Intrinsically Unstructured in Solution[†]

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Received May 19, 2003; Revised Manuscript Received January 9, 2004

ABSTRACT: IA₃ is a highly specific and potent 68-amino acid endogenous inhibitor of yeast proteinase A (YprA), and X-ray crystallographic studies have shown that IA₃ binds to YprA as an α -helix [Li, M., Phylip, L. H., Lees, W. E., Winther, J. R., Dunn, B. M., Wlodawer, A., Kay, J., and Gustchina, A. (2000) *Nat. Struct. Biol.* 7, 113–117]. Surprisingly, only residues 2–32 of IA₃ are seen in the X-ray structure, and the remaining residues are believed to be disordered in the complex. We have used circular dichroism (CD) and nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy to show that IA₃ is unstructured in the absence of YprA. Specifically, IA₃ produced a CD spectrum characteristic of an unstructured peptide, and the ¹⁵N HSQC NMR spectra of IA₃ were characteristic of a polypeptide lacking intrinsic structure. We characterized the unstructured state of IA₃ by using singular-value decomposition (SVD) to analyze the CD data in the presence of TFE, by fully assigning the unbound IA₃ protein by NMR and comparing the chemical shifts to published random-coil values, and by measuring ¹H–¹⁵N heteronuclear NOEs, which are all consistent with an unfolded protein. The IA₃ samples used for NMR analyses were active and inhibited YprA with an inhibition constant (*K*_i) of 1.7 nM, and the addition of YprA led to a large spectral transition in IA₃. Calorimetric (ITC) data also show that the overall enthalpy of the interaction between IA₃ and YprA is exothermic.

IA₃, a 68-amino acid protein, is an endogenous, potent, and highly specific inhibitor of yeast proteinase A (YprA),¹ an aspartic proteinase from *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* (1). At least 15 related and structurally similar aspartic proteinases, including yeast yapsin 1, human pepsin, human

gastricsin, human cathepsins D and E, and plasmepsin II from *Plasmodium falciparum*, are not inhibited by IA₃ and, in fact, cleave IA₃ as a substrate (2). The inhibition constant (*K*_i) for IA₃ inhibition of YprA catalysis is pH-dependent and ~1–2 nM at pH 3.1, and IA₃ is not cleaved in the process (2, 3). At higher pH values, the *K*_i is too small to accurately measure (2). The 34 N-terminal amino acids of IA₃ have the same potency as either the native IA₃ or recombinant IA₃ with a C-terminal Leu-Glu-(His)₆ tag (2).

The X-ray crystal structure of the YprA–IA₃ complex (3) is shown in Figure 1A. IA₃ forms a near-perfect α -helix in the active site cleft of YprA, an unprecedented mechanism of aspartic proteinase inhibition. Consistent with the functional data (2), only residues 2–32 from IA₃ form the α -helix (Figure 1B), and the 36 remaining C-terminal amino acids are not observed in the electron density (3). Despite numerous attempts, unbound IA₃ has not been crystallized (A. Wlodawer, personal communication), and the authors of the paper describing the YprA–IA₃ crystal structure (3) suggest that IA₃ is unstructured in the absence of YprA.

Relatively few protein inhibitors of aspartic proteinases have been identified (2). These include the renin-binding

[†] Supported by the University of Florida College of Medicine, the National High Magnetic Field Laboratory, BBSRC (72/C13544 to LHP), NIH (5P41RR016105-02 to ASE and IRO1AI4903-01 to BMD).

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¹ Abbreviations: YprA, yeast proteinase A; *K*_i, inhibition constant; NOE, nuclear Overhauser effect; PI-3, pepsin inhibitor-3; HSQC, heteronuclear single-quantum correlation; ITC, isothermal titration calorimetry; ΔH , calorimetric enthalpy; NMR, nuclear magnetic resonance; Nph, *p*-nitro-L-phenylalanine; NOESY, nuclear Overhauser effect (NOE) spectroscopy; TOCSY, total correlation spectroscopy; CD, circular dichroism; TFE, 2,2,2-trifluoroethanol; DSS, 2,2-dimethyl-2-silapentane-5-sulfonic acid; SDS–PAGE, sodium dodecyl sulfate–polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis; KH₂PO₄, potassium phosphate; WASP, Wiskott–Aldrich syndrome protein; UV, ultraviolet; SVD, singular-value decomposition.

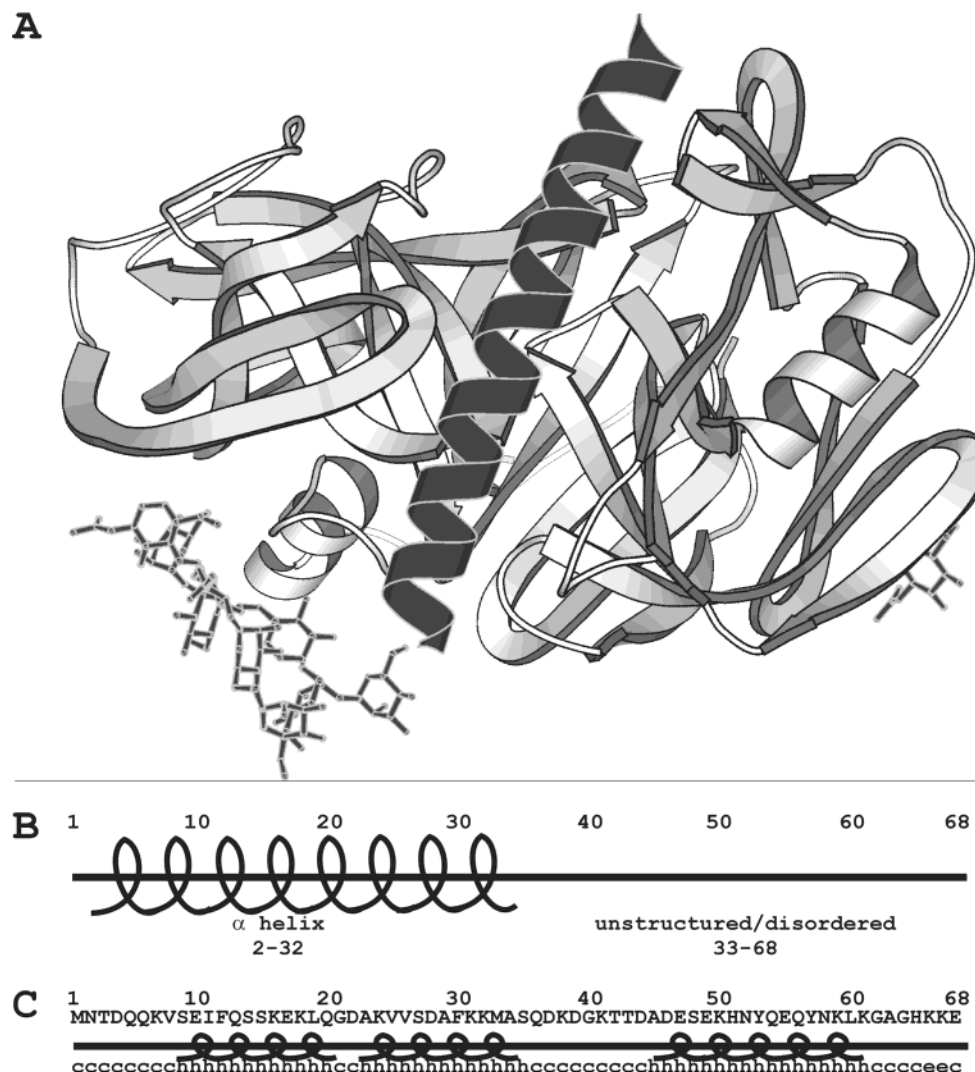


FIGURE 1: Representations of IA₃. (A) X-ray crystal structure of the YprA-IA₃ complex (3). Residues 2–32 of IA₃ are the dark α -helix running down the center of YprA, which is shown in lighter gray. YprA is glycosylated, as shown by the ball-and-stick structures. The drawing was prepared with Molscript (49). (B) Schematic representation of the secondary structure of IA₃ bound to YprA. Only residues 2–32, which form an α -helix (illustrated with a barrel), are seen in the crystal structure (3). (C) The GOR4 secondary structure program predicts that 62% of IA₃ will be in a helix.

protein (4), the *Ascaris lumbricoides* PI-3 pepsin and cathepsin E inhibitor (5), some plant proteins (6, 7), and an inhibitor from sea anemone (8). Of these aspartic proteinase inhibitors, only the structures for YprA-bound IA₃ (3) and PI-3 (9) have been determined. Unlike IA₃, PI-3 was crystallized both free and in a complex with pepsin, and the mechanism of inhibition of PI-3 is completely different from those of both IA₃ and small molecule inhibitors (9). Thus, naturally occurring proteins have the potential to provide many new starting points for the design of novel inhibitors of aspartic proteinases.

Below, we present definitive proof that IA₃ is predominantly unstructured in the absence of YprA and demonstrate that the unstructured sample is fully active, inhibits YprA at nanomolar concentrations, and undergoes a large conformational transition upon binding to YprA. Thus, IA₃ is an example of the ever-growing list of intrinsically unstructured proteins that become structured only in the presence of a target binding partner (10). The fact that IA₃ inhibits YprA with such potency and specificity makes this unstructured-to-structured transition especially intriguing and provides an

example of a ligand whose structures and dynamics play a key role in the regulation of its function.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Sample Preparation. The IA₃ sample was prepared as previously described (3) with the substitution of M9 minimal medium [200 mL of 5X M9 salts (12.8 g of Na₂HPO₄, 3 g of KH₂PO₄, 0.5 g of NaCl, and 1.0 g of NH₄Cl), 2 mL of 1 M MgSO₄, 20 mL of 20% glucose, 100 μ L of 1 M CaCl₂, and 777.9 mL of ddH₂O] with [¹³C]glucose and [¹⁵N]NH₄Cl (Cambridge Isotopes) as the sole nitrogen and carbon sources, respectively. The bacterial host strain for expression was BL21-CodonPlus (DE3) RIL competent cells (Stratagene). Cells were grown at 37 °C in M9 medium to an OD₆₀₀ of ~0.6 before induction with 1 mM IPTG. After expression had been carried out for 3 h, the cells were harvested by centrifugation and lysed by sonication. The soluble recombinant protein was purified using affinity chromatography followed by 10 min of boiling and centrifugation to remove nonsoluble material, as described by Li *et al.* (3). The protein was dialyzed in water before lyophilization.

Experimental Determination of K_i . Inhibition constants were determined with a kinetic assay using a chromogenic substrate with a Lys-Pro-Ile-Ala-Phe*Nph-Arg-Leu sequence. The asterisk indicates the cleavage site of the substrate. Changes in the maximum absorbance from 284 to 324 nm were recorded on a Hewlett-Packard 8452A diode array spectrometer. The temperature was controlled using a circulating water bath with insulation along the tubing leading into the cuvette holder; the temperature that was reported was recorded at the cuvette with a thermocouple probe. YprA (from 20 to 50 nM, depending on V_{\max}), varying amounts of IA₃, and buffer [0.1 M sodium acetate (pH 4.5)] were incubated at the desired temperature for 5 min before mixing with various concentrations of the chromogenic substrate. For each temperature, initial rates of six different substrate concentrations (5, 10, 20, 40, 60, and 80 μ M) were measured without IA₃ and with two different concentrations of IA₃ (e.g., 6.8 and 22.8 nM at 37 °C). The inhibition data were fitted to the Michaelis–Menten equation using Marquardt analysis. The inhibition constant (K_i) was fit using the equation

$$v = V_{\max}/(1 + (K_m/[S]) \times (1 + [I]/K_i))$$

where v is the rate of the reaction, V_{\max} is the maximum velocity, and $[S]$ is the specific concentration of the substrate (molar). K_m is the substrate concentration at half the maximum velocity, and $[I]$ is the inhibitor concentration (II).

Gel Filtration and Ion Exchange of YprA. Fifteen milligrams of YprA (Sigma) was dissolved into 600 μ L of 20 mM KH₂PO₄ and 50 mM NaCl (pH 6.5) and loaded onto a Sephacryl (S-100) high-resolution column. Two peaks eluted from the column, and they both tested positive for YprA proteolytic activity. Stability tests were performed and analyzed in the presence of IA₃ at 4 and 22 °C. The results indicated that the first peak degraded IA₃ and the second peak did not at 4 °C. Therefore, the second peak from gel filtration was used in our studies. The fractions of the second peak were combined and loaded onto an Amersham Pharmacia Hi-trap Q ion exchange column at 4 °C. A gradient from 50 to 500 mM NaCl was used to elute the YprA off the ion exchange column. The fractions were tested for activity and combined to obtain a concentration of \sim 200 μ M.

YprA–IA₃ Complex. A \sim 4-fold excess of IA₃ was added to the purified YprA before the mixture was concentrated to approximately 1 mL by ultrafiltration using an Amicon ultrafiltration cell [molecular weight cutoff (MWCO) of 3000]. The concentrated IA₃–YprA complex was then passed over a Sephacryl S-100 column. Two peaks (YprA–IA₃ complex and free IA₃) eluted from the column and were confirmed by SDS–PAGE analysis. Then, the fractions from the first peak were combined and concentrated by ultrafiltration (MWCO of 3000) to a final volume of \sim 570 μ L in 20 mM KH₂PO₄ (pH 5.5) for NMR data collection. SDS–PAGE analysis was performed on the NMR sample after data were collected on the IA₃–YprA complex.

Circular Dichroism. Far-UV CD data were collected on an Aviv-202 circular dichroism spectrometer. IA₃ (\sim 6 μ M) was dissolved in deionized H₂O, and the cell path length, scan speed, and resolution were 1 mm, 0.5 nm/s, and 0.1 nm, respectively. To monitor temperature-dependent struc-

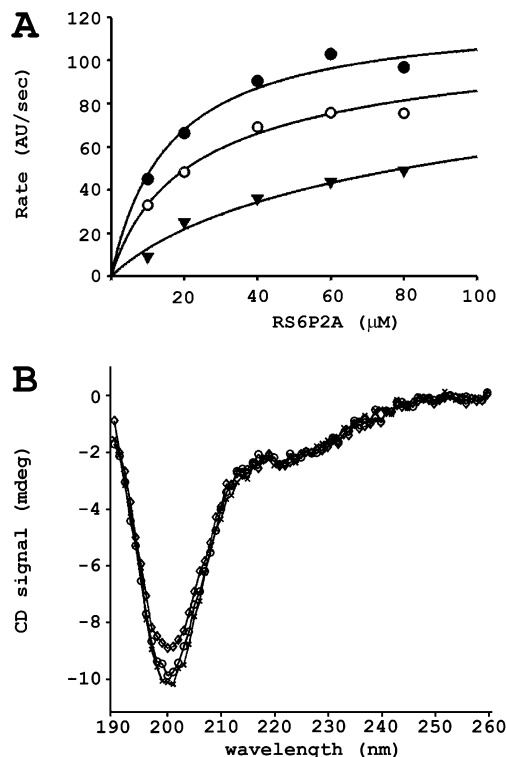


FIGURE 2: Biophysical studies of IA₃. (A) Recombinant IA₃ inhibits YprA. Recombinant IA₃ has a K_i of 1.7 nM ($R^2 = 98\%$). The symbols represent the velocity of substrate cleavage in the presence of 0 (●), 6.8 (○), and 22.8 nM IA₃ (▼). (B) Far-UV CD spectra of recombinant IA₃ at 5 (×), 25 (○), and 55 °C (◇). The negative ellipticity at \sim 200 nm is characteristic of a disordered/unfolded protein.

tural changes, CD data were collected at 5, 15, 25, 45, and 55 °C. Furthermore, a temperature scan from 5 to 65 °C using 3 °C increments was performed on IA₃ at 202 and 222 nm to observe temperature-dependent transitions. Trifluoroethanol (TFE) was added in 5% increments to \sim 30 μ M IA₃ in water. To keep the concentration of IA₃ constant, a new sample was used for each TFE point using the same parameters described above.

Analysis of CD Spectra. We used singular-value decomposition (SVD) to analyze the CD spectra collected from the TFE titration (12). Briefly, the method generates a set of component spectra, $U_i(\lambda)$ (functions of wavelength), and associated amplitudes, $SV_i(\text{TFE})$ (functions of TFE concentration), that describe the evolution of the spectra as TFE is added. For the data in Figure 3A, the total matrix $A(\lambda, \text{TFE})$ of ellipticity values for different wavelengths (λ) and TFE concentrations at 25 °C can be decomposed as the sum of two contributions

$$A(\lambda, \text{TFE}) = SV_1(\text{TFE}) \cdot U_1(\lambda) + SV_2(\text{TFE}) \cdot U_2(\lambda)$$

Figure 3B shows the SV_1 and SV_2 amplitudes obtained from the decomposition, as a function of TFE. If the addition of TFE drives a two-state folding transition, then those amplitudes depend on the fraction of molecules folded, $[1 + \exp(-\Delta G/RT)]^{-1}$, and we can fit them as follows:

$$SV_1(\text{TFE}) = a_1 + b_1[1 + \exp(-\Delta G/RT)]^{-1}$$

$$SV_2(\text{TFE}) = a_2 + b_2[1 + \exp(-\Delta G/RT)]^{-1}$$

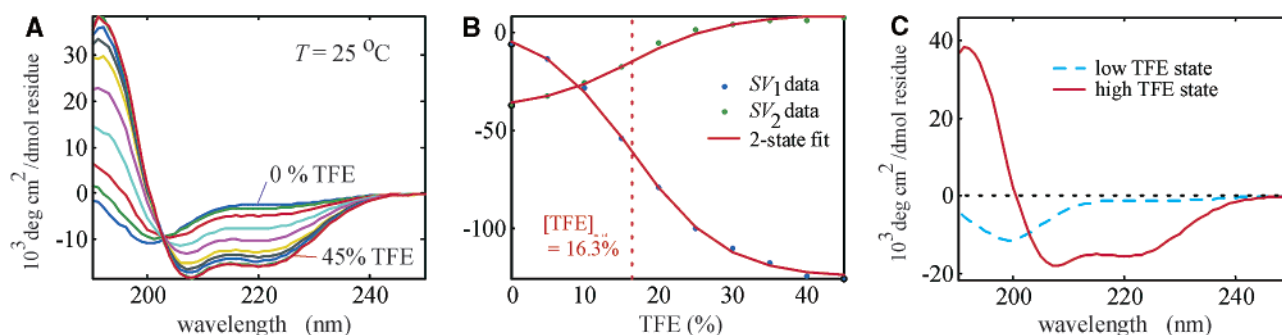


FIGURE 3: TFE titration of IA₃. (A) CD spectra for 0–45% TFE at 25 °C. (B) SVD analysis of CD spectral changes induced by TFE, including a fit to a two-state model. The transition midpoint is at 16.3% TFE (see Materials and Methods). (C) Basis states (derived from the SVD fit) corresponding to the low-TFE (blue) and high-TFE (red) states of IA₃.

where ΔG is the free energy of unfolding and a_1 , a_2 , b_1 , and b_2 are constants. With the assumption that $\Delta G = \Delta G_0 + m[\text{TFE}]$, the fit yields the values of ΔG_0 and m , along with the above constants. This fit gives the solid curves in Figure 3B. The CD spectra of the folded and unfolded basis states are then found by using the fit to extrapolate $A(\lambda, \text{TFE})$ toward large positive ΔG (folded state) or large negative ΔG (unfolded state):

$$\text{folded spectrum} = (a_1 + b_1)U_1 + (a_2 + b_2)U_2$$

$$\text{unfolded spectrum} = a_1U_1 + a_2U_2$$

These spectra are shown in Figure 3C.

NMR. Approximately 1 mM IA₃ was dissolved in a 90% H₂O/10% D₂O mixture with 50 mM phosphate buffer and 100 mM NaCl, and the pH was adjusted to 5.6. NMR data were collected at 600 and 750 MHz on Bruker Avance spectrometers in the Advanced Magnetic Resonance Imaging and Spectroscopy (AMRIS) facility at the University of Florida McKnight Brain Institute and at 720 MHz on a Varian Unity Plus spectrometer at the National High Magnetic Field Laboratory. Unless otherwise noted, NMR data were collected at 20 °C. All ¹H data were referenced to DSS (0.0 ppm), and ¹⁵N and ¹³C chemical shifts were indirectly referenced to DSS by multiplying the ¹H 0.0 Hz frequency by the ratios 0.101 329 118 and 0.251 449 530 to obtain the ¹⁵N and ¹³C 0.0 Hz frequencies, respectively (13). The chemical shift differences in Figure 5 were obtained using random-coil shifts determined in 8 M urea using Ac-G-G-X-G-G-NH₂ (14) and were corrected for sequence-dependent effects (15) using a Fortran program written by the authors.

All NMR data were obtained with the ¹H carrier frequency centered on water, which was eliminated using 3-9-19 watergate sequences (16). Two-dimensional ¹⁵N HSQC (16, 17) spectra were typically recorded with 10.0 ppm (2048 complex points) and 40.0 ppm (256 complex points) points in the ¹H and ¹⁵N dimensions, respectively. The ¹H–¹⁵N NOE (18) data were obtained with relaxation delay times of 5 s, in addition to the general parameters described above. Heteronuclear NOEs are reported as the ratios of the peak intensity with ¹H saturation to that without. Quadrature detection in all indirect dimensions was achieved using the States–TPPI method (19). All data were processed using NMRPipe (20) and analyzed with NMRView (21).

Sequential assignments were obtained manually according to standard methods utilizing current gradient-optimized

versions of the following three-dimensional data sets: HNCO (22, 23), HNCA (22, 23), CBCA(CO)NH (24), CBCANH (25), ¹⁵N TOCSY-HSQC (26, 27), and HCC(CO)NH-TOCSY (28, 29). The ¹⁵N dimensions were typically recorded with the carrier at 116.6 ppm, a spectral width of 21 ppm, and 32 complex points. The ¹³Cα/β dimensions were recorded with the carrier frequency at 42.5 ppm, a spectral width of 51 ppm, and 50 complex points. The ¹³Cα dimensions were recorded with the carrier frequency at 56.8 ppm, a spectral width of 26.5 ppm, and 50 complex points. The ¹³C′ dimensions were recorded with the carrier at 176 ppm, a spectral width of 10 ppm, and 30 complex points.

The IA₃–YprA complex was prepared as described above at a concentration of ~200 μM. The complex sample is unstable at room temperature but can be kept for extended periods of time at 4 °C. Because of the low concentration, we used a Bruker 5 mm triple-resonance cryoprobe, which has a lower temperature limit of 10 °C. Therefore, ¹⁵N HSQC experiments were carried out on the cryoprobe at 10 °C. As shown in Results, these data yielded two distinct types of peaks, large and broad peaks in the unfolded region of the spectrum and a second set of smaller and more dispersed peaks. We therefore recorded ¹⁵N TROSY (30) spectra at 720 MHz on a Varian Unity Plus spectrometer at the National High Magnetic Field Laboratory. TROSY experiments were carried out at a range of temperatures, from 4 to 20 °C. However, there were no significant differences between the HSQC and 720 MHz TROSY data, and below we present only the HSQC data because they had a higher signal-to-noise ratio.

Isothermal Calorimetry (ITC). Calorimetric data were collected using a VP-ITC microcalorimeter from Microcal (Northampton, MA). IA₃ and YprA were exchanged into 0.1 M sodium acetate (pH 4.5). IA₃ was injected into a sample cell containing ~0.5 μM YprA at 25 °C. The experiment consisted of 59 injections of a 15 μM stock solution of IA₃. The first injection, 1 μL, was deleted from the analysis (31). The subsequent injections were 5 μL each and were made over the course of 10 s with 4 min intervals between ensuing injections. The contents of the sample cell were stirred at 460 rpm to ensure proper mixing of both solutions. Control experiments to determine the heat of dilution were carried out by titrating IA₃ into the sample cell containing only buffer and by averaging the heat obtained per injection after saturation of YprA by IA₃. The heats of dilution for control injections were averaged and subtracted from each injection of the binding experiment.

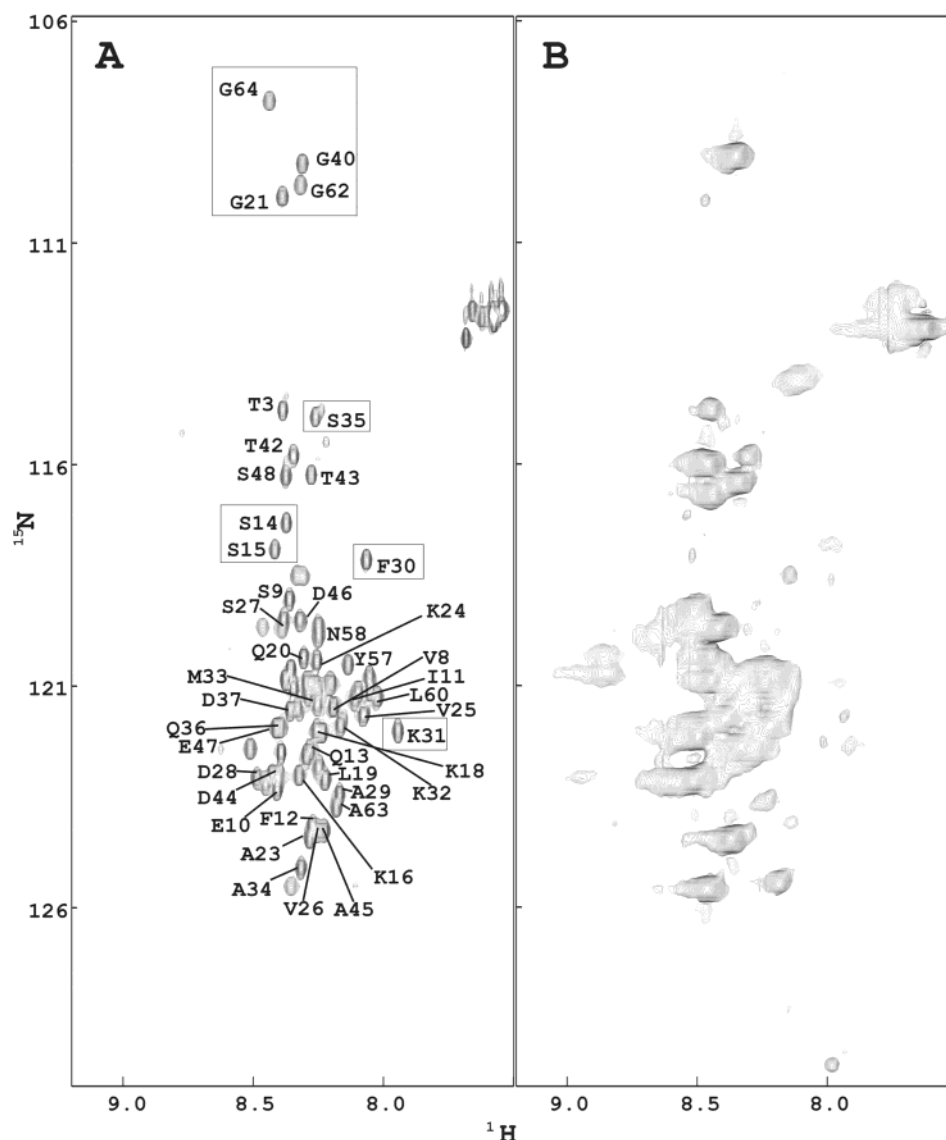


FIGURE 4: IA₃ undergoes large conformational changes upon binding of YprA. Both panels are ¹⁵N HSQC spectra of ¹⁵N-labeled IA₃ recorded under various conditions: (A) free IA₃ at 20 °C and (B) gel-filtered IA₃–YprA complex with unlabeled YprA at 10 °C. Resolved residues (S14, S15, G21, K30, K31, S35, G40, G62, and G64) in the free IA₃ that obviously shift in the YprA complex are boxed. The many small peaks that appear in the IA₃–YprA complex are believed to be the result of the N-terminal residues undergoing a transition to an α -helix as seen in the crystal structure.

The data were analyzed using Origin (OriginLab, Northampton, MA). Each injection generates a peak in the power supplied to the sample. The area under the peak is equivalent to the heat released from the sample, and integration of the series of peaks generates the binding isotherm. The binding isotherm was deconvoluted by well-established methods (32), and a Levenberg–Marquardt nonlinear least-squares fitting method was then used to generate a best fit of the data and determine ΔH° (enthalpy), K_a (association constant), and n (number of binding sites). The binding affinity of IA₃ for YprA is very strong, so the K_a determined from ITC is not accurate and was not used in our analysis (31, 33).

RESULTS

IA₃ Lacks Stable Structure in Solution. IA₃ inhibits YprA with a K_i value of 1.7 nM (Figure 2A). Circular dichroism (Figure 2B) was used to analyze the secondary structure of IA₃ at 5, 15, 25, 45, and 55 °C. Unstructured proteins give

rise to CD spectra with a negative band near 200 nm and some weak bands (positive or negative) between 220 and 230 nm (34). α -Helical proteins typically show double minima at 222 and 208–210 nm and a maximum at 191–193 nm (34). Although Figure 2B shows a slight inflection around 222 nm that may represent a very small amount of α -helix, the CD spectrum of IA₃ is characteristic of an unfolded protein with a strong minimum peak at \sim 200 nm for all of the above temperatures. These data indicate that recombinant IA₃ is a predominantly unstructured active inhibitor whose structure is temperature-independent over the range of 5–55 °C.

Although the CD data illustrate that free IA₃ is unstructured, the addition of 2,2,2-trifluoroethanol (TFE) to the solvent induces a helical state in the protein. Figure 3A shows the mean residue ellipticity for IA₃ at 25 °C as the TFE concentration increases from 0 to 45% in steps of 5%. The appearance of an isodichroic point near 203 nm clearly shows

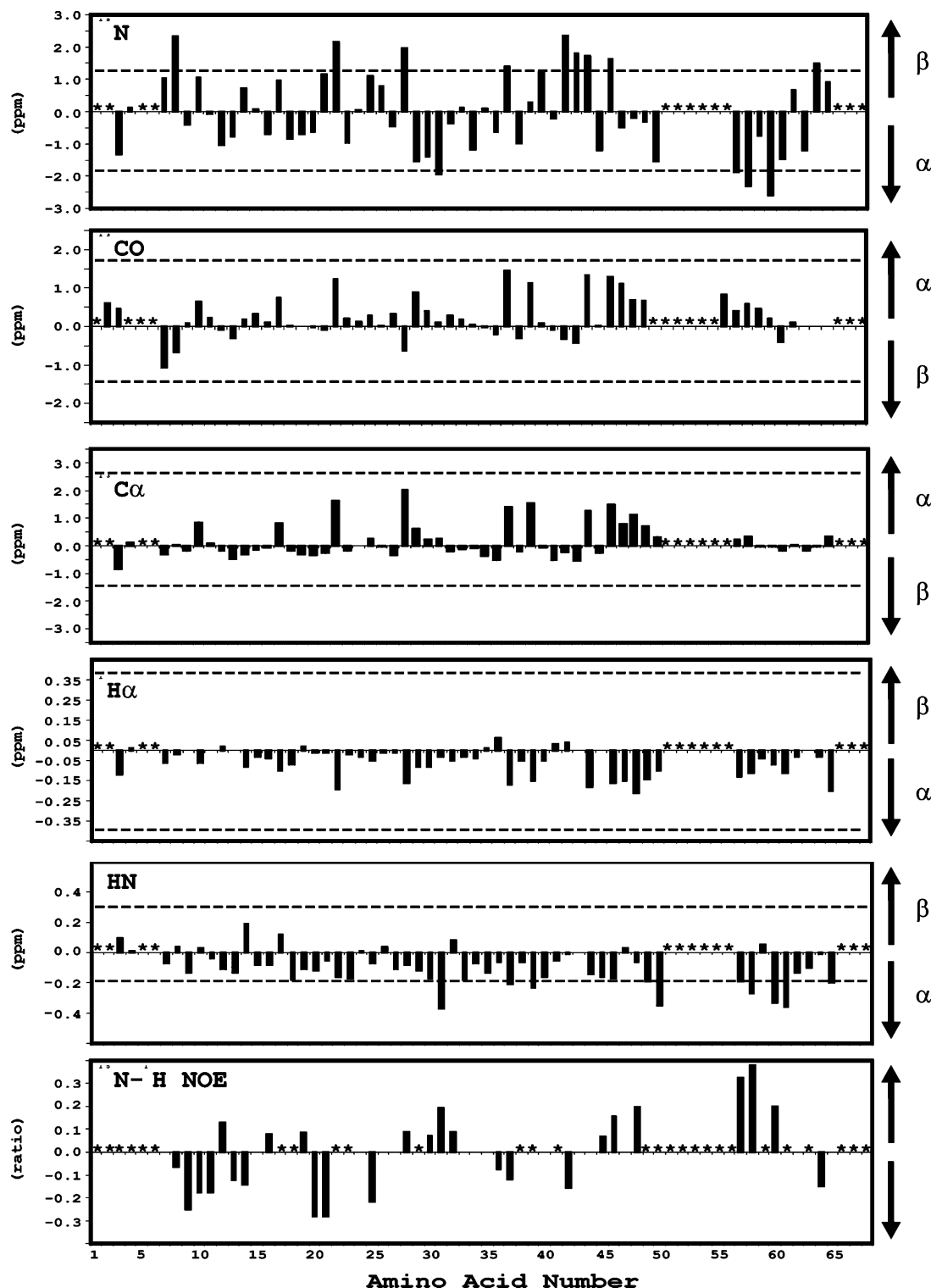


FIGURE 5: Deviations from random-coil chemical shifts and ^1H - ^{15}N NOEs for uncomplexed IA_3 . Regions marked with asterisks were not assigned due to extensive overlap and ambiguities. The top five panels are $\delta(\text{exp}) - \delta(\text{random coil})$ in parts per million for different nuclei. The random-coil shifts were those determined in 8 M urea using Ac-G-G-X-G-G-NH₂ (14) and were corrected for sequence-dependent effects (15). The average secondary shifts for an α -helix and β -strand relative to random-coil values (37) are indicated by dashed lines on each panel. The ^1H - ^{15}N NOEs (18) on the bottom panel are the ratios of the peak intensity with ^1H saturation to that without.

a two-state transition. A minimum develops near 222 nm, indicating that the rising TFE concentration stabilizes α -helical structure in the peptide. Although the stabilization of helical structure by TFE is a well-known phenomenon (35), the data in Figure 3A qualitatively verify that IA_3 is unfolded in the absence of TFE and allow us to determine the energetics of helix formation in IA_3 . We performed

singular-value decomposition (SVD) of these spectra (12) and fit that decomposition to a two-state folding-unfolding model (see Materials and Methods), under the assumption that the free energy of unfolding, ΔG , increases linearly with TFE concentration ($\Delta G = \Delta G_0 + m[\text{TFE}]$). This fit gives a ΔG_0 of -6.50 kJ/mol and an m of 0.40 kJ mol⁻¹ (% TFE)⁻¹ at 25 °C.

Thus, the fit indicates a free energy of unfolding equal to -6.50 kJ/mol in the absence of TFE at room temperature, or that 93% of the molecules are unfolded under these conditions. The folding midpoint occurs at $\Delta G = 0$, or 16.3% TFE. The SVD analysis also gives the CD spectra of the folded (high TFE) and unfolded (low TFE) states (Figure 3C). The unfolded state spectrum shows the minimum near 200 nm, typical of a disordered protein [~ 6 –8% helical by CDPro analysis (36)], while the folded state shows the distinct minimum near 222 nm, characteristic of an α -helix [$\sim 50\%$ helix by CDPro (36)]. Therefore, the far-UV CD strongly indicates that the addition of TFE to the solvent drives IA₃ from an initially disordered state to a largely helical conformation, through a two-state transition.

The ^{15}N HSQC NMR spectrum of free IA₃ in solution is characteristic of an unfolded protein (Figure 4A). When another ^{15}N -labeled IA₃ sample was lyophilized and resuspended in 100% D₂O, all of the amide peaks exchanged before we could collect a ^1H one-dimensional spectrum (<3 min, data not shown). An equal volume of 100% H₂O was then added to the deuterium-exchanged sample, and the resulting sample produced an HSQC spectrum similar to that shown in Figure 4A (data not shown). These results suggest that free IA₃ is unstructured and show that all of the amide protons are highly accessible to solvent.

NMR chemical shifts are sensitive indicators of protein secondary structure (reviewed, for example, in ref 37). Although proteins with 60–70 amino acids can often be assigned from ^1H NMR data alone, the ^1H NMR spectra of IA₃ were hopelessly overlapped. We next tried to assign the protein using just three-dimensional (3D) ^{15}N -based methods, but even these spectra were too overlapped to yield more than $\sim 20\%$ of the assignments. Therefore, we produced a doubly labeled (^{13}C and ^{15}N) IA₃ sample and used 3D ^{15}N TOCSY-HSQC and HC(CO)NH-TOCSY experiments that were originally developed for assigning unfolded proteins (29). These experiments were supplemented by other standard triple-resonance data sets to obtain nearly complete backbone and partial side chain assignments for IA₃ free in solution. The backbone chemical shifts are analyzed below, and the side chain shifts are almost all average values. The NMR assignments were deposited in the BioMagResBank (accession number 6078).

Figure 5 shows deviations from random-coil values for ^{15}N , $^1\text{H}^\text{N}$, $^1\text{H}^\alpha$, $^{13}\text{C}^\alpha$, and $^{13}\text{C}'$ chemical shifts. The experimental data were referenced to DSS. The reference values were obtained from a study of random-coil shifts in 8 M urea (14) and corrected for sequence-dependent effects (15) as described in Materials and Methods. Although we were unable to assign a region from residue 51 to 56 due to extensive overlap, the chemical shifts suggest a region of a moderately populated α -helix near the C-terminus from approximately D44 through L60. GOR IV (38) and AGADIR (39, 40) both predict several regions of α -helix in IA₃ as indicated in Figure 1C. NMR data are consistent with that prediction in the C-terminus, but the helix is not substantially populated experimentally. Although the N-terminal half of IA₃ has been shown to bind to YprA as an α -helix, experimental results in the absence of YprA indicate that the IA₃ N-terminus is predominantly unstructured.

An unstructured protein should also have significant flexibility in solution (41). Therefore, we measured hetero-

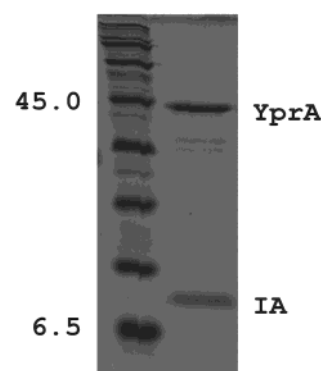


FIGURE 6: SDS-PAGE analysis of the IA₃-YprA complex. Bio-Rad SDS Broad Range Standards in kilodaltons (lane 1) and the IA₃-YprA complex (lane 2) were run on a 15% SDS-polyacrylamide gel and stained with Coomassie Blue. One microliter of the IA₃-YprA complex was taken directly from the NMR tube following the NMR titration to check for degradation of IA₃. The complex sample was maintained at 10 °C throughout the course of the NMR experiments and frozen when not in use.

nuclear ^1H - ^{15}N NOEs (18) on [^{15}N]IA₃ (Figure 5). As expected for an unfolded protein, all of the NOEs in IA₃ are very small (<0.3) or negative, clearly indicating that the protein is disordered in solution. Thus, chemical shifts and NOEs provide quantitative verification of the CD data shown above and demonstrate that IA₃ is primarily unstructured and flexible in its unbound state.

IA₃ Undergoes a Structural Transition in the Presence of YprA. Upon binding to YprA, IA₃ undergoes a significant conformational change. The ^{15}N - ^1H HSQC spectrum of the IA₃-YprA complex (Figure 4B) is largely different from the spectrum of free IA₃ (Figure 4A). The glycine resonances (G21, G40, G62, and G64), which are well-resolved in free IA₃, shift to a different frequency or disappear in the IA₃-YprA complex. Several resolved resonances in the YprA binding region (e.g., S14, 15, F30, and K31) disappear or shift to another frequency in the IA₃-YprA complex. In addition, 36 new resolved, but small, resonances appear in the IA₃-YprA complex spectrum that are not seen in the free IA₃ spectrum. We interpret these shifts as evidence of IA₃ undergoing a conformational change to an α -helix as seen in the X-ray structure.

An SDS-PAGE gel of the NMR sample (Figure 6) was run after the NMR data in Figure 4B were collected to check for proteolysis of the IA₃-YprA complex. The gel showed two bands the size of YprA and IA₃. We cannot rule out the possibility of a small amount of partial proteolysis, but our data suggest that most, if not all, of the IA₃ in the complex was intact.

Stability studies (data not shown) on the IA₃-YprA complex indicate that it degrades within less than 3 days at room temperature, perhaps due to slow exchange of the bound and free IA₃ or to contaminating proteases in the sample. Therefore, the NMR data shown in Figure 4B were collected at 10 °C. The molecular mass of the complex is more than 50 kDa, and as a result of the low temperature, the correlation time of this sample is expected to be very long. As a result, the ^{15}N HSQC spectrum of the complex has two very different types of peaks, approximately half that are strong and broadened with little chemical shift dispersion and half that are small and more dispersed. They are present in approximately equal numbers, consistent with

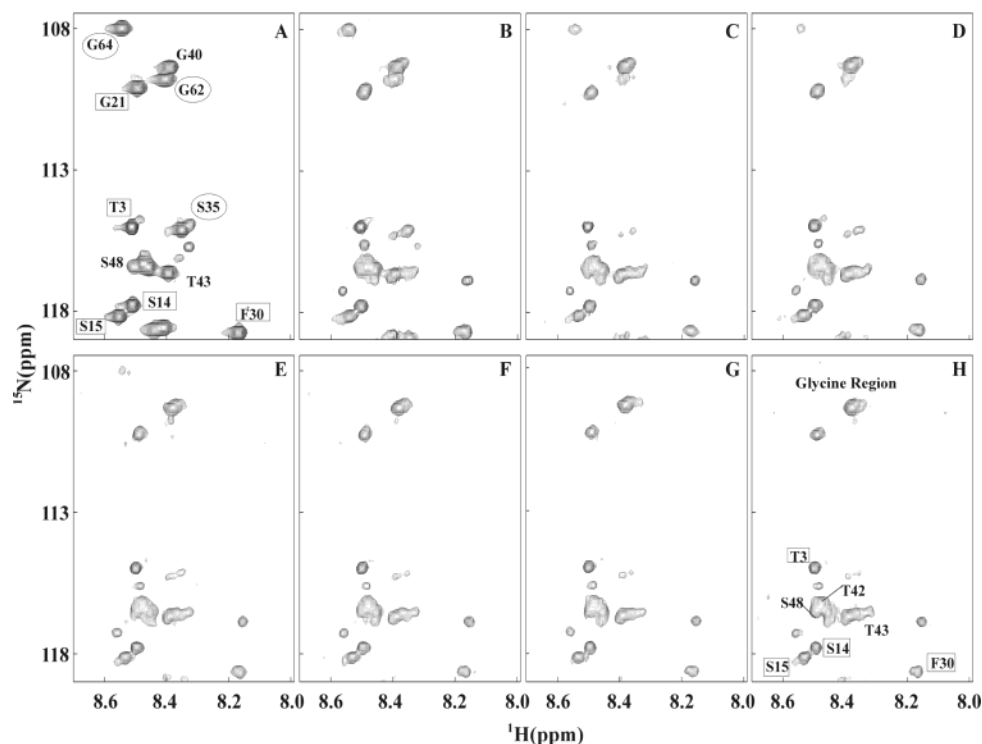


FIGURE 7: IA_3 –YprA titration. Unlabeled YprA (~ 0.15 mM) was added in 5–40 μL increments to 550 μL of 0.4 mM ^{15}N -labeled IA_3 . As the sample volume exceeded 800 μL , it was concentrated back to 550 μL . Roughly 50 ^{15}N HSQC spectra were collected in this titration, and eight which span the concentration ranges are shown here. The expansions show the glycine and serine/threonine regions of the HSQC spectra. Circled residues disappear, and boxed residues lose intensity but are not completely gone by the end of the titration. The residues remaining in this region are relatively unaffected. Approximate concentrations of IA_3 and YprA (in micromolar) are as follows: (A) 400 and 0.0, (B) 400 and 122, (C) 400 and 129, (D) 370 and 134, (E) 340 and 139, (F) 320 and 143, (G) 310 and 145, and (H) 300 and 147, respectively.

the fact that only the N-terminal half of the IA_3 polypeptide chain binds directly to YprA. We collected ^{15}N TROSY data at 720 MHz on the same complex and obtained data remarkably similar to those of the HSQC spectrum shown in Figure 4B. The similarity between the two experiments could result from a number of factors, including dynamics, proton dipolar interactions (YprA is fully protonated), or low magnetic field strength.

We were surprised to see that three of the IA_3 glycine residues (G40, G62, and G64) that are outside of the YprA binding domain were significantly changed between panels A and B of Figure 4. This observation, along with the broadness of the large peaks in Figure 4B, made us suspect intermediate chemical exchange. Therefore, we also conducted a partial titration of YprA into a sample of ^{15}N -labeled IA_3 (Figure 7). The titration was continued up to an IA_3 :YprA ratio of ~ 2 :1, and we collected ^{15}N HSQC spectra at several points. The peaks from the N-terminal half of IA_3 that are known to be involved in YprA binding decreased in intensity, as expected. However, the unexpected result was that the three glycine residues and at least one additional resolved resonance, S35, in the noninteracting portion of IA_3 disappeared at substoichiometric amounts of YprA. This behavior was consistent with data in Figure 4B on the stoichiometric complex and suggests that residues in the C-terminus of IA_3 are in intermediate exchange in the presence of YprA.

The Binding of IA_3 to YprA Is Exothermic. Taken together, the data presented above and the X-ray crystal structure (3) demonstrate that IA_3 folds upon binding to YprA. Therefore, the thermodynamics of inhibition should reflect both the

protein folding and ligand binding events. We measured the enthalpy of IA_3 binding and folding to YprA by ITC analysis.

Figure 8 shows results from ITC studies in which IA_3 was titrated into YprA. The reaction is clearly exothermic with a ΔH of -86.0 ± 3.0 kJ/mol (-20.6 ± 0.7 kcal/mol). ITC is unable to accurately determine association constants for tight-binding ligands such as binding of IA_3 to YprA (31, 33). Therefore, we were unable to obtain values of ΔG or ΔS using only ITC.

DISCUSSION

In this study, we have shown that active IA_3 is predominantly unstructured in solution by CD and NMR analysis but undergoes a large structural transition upon binding to YprA. Previous work has shown that (1) IA_3 is exquisitely specific for YprA and is degraded as a substrate by other closely related aspartic proteinases (2), (2) the first 32 amino acids of IA_3 bind to YprA as an α -helix (3), (3) the 34 N-terminal residues account for all of the inhibitory activity of IA_3 (2), and (4) many mutations in these 34 residues produce little or no decrease in the level of binding (2). The α -helix formed by IA_3 when bound to YprA is amphipathic, with primarily hydrophobic residues plus a single serine on the YprA side of the helix and polar or charged groups facing the solvent (3). Thus, it is not surprising that IA_3 could not form a stable helix as a monomer in aqueous solution, even over a broad range of temperatures. In addition, we have also shown that IA_3 will form a stable helix in the presence of TFE.

Although we have not yet assigned NMR resonances of the IA_3 –YprA complex, our data provide new insights into

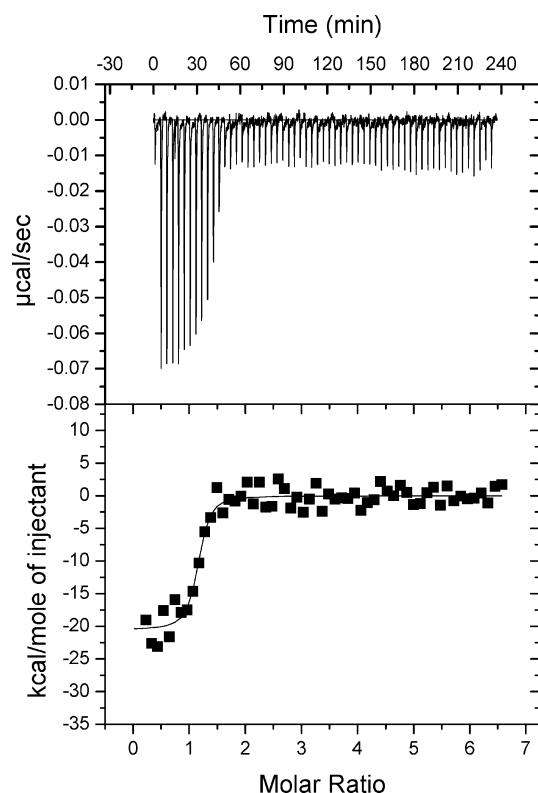


FIGURE 8: Isothermal calorimetry data for binding of IA₃ to YprA. The experiment consisted of 59 injections of a 15 μ M IA₃ stock solution into YprA. The first injection was 1 μ L, and subsequent injections were 5 μ L. The top panel shows the power supplied to the sample cell (relative to a water reference cell) during the injection series, to maintain a constant temperature of 25 $^{\circ}$ C. The integrated area under the curve gives the heat released per mole of IA₃ added (bottom panel). A fit to the data indicates a binding enthalpy ΔH of -86.0 ± 3.0 kJ/mol (-20.6 ± 0.7 kcal/mol). The heat of dilution was determined from the data after saturation (i.e., after ~ 50 min in the top panel) and has been subtracted from the isotherm.

the interactions of IA₃ with YprA. We have conclusively shown that IA₃ alone has very little structure in solution. The resonances of IA₃ shift significantly upon addition of YprA, showing that IA₃ undergoes a structural transition. The regions with the glycines, serines, and threonines are very informative. For example, the glycine region contains four resolved resonances (G21, G40, G62, and G64) without any YprA added. On the basis of the crystal structure and inhibition data, we would expect G21 to change but the others to be unaffected by YprA. However, in the IA₃–YprA complex, all of the glycine resonances change. The YprA titration data provide some evidence that the glycine residues outside the YprA binding region are in intermediate chemical exchange, because the peaks vanish at YprA concentrations well below stoichiometric YprA concentrations. It is unlikely that this could arise from YprA degradation of IA₃ given that SDS–PAGE results show pure bands for both IA₃ and YprA following collection of NMR data. The IA₃ residues involved in binding to YprA appear to be in slow exchange by virtue of the fact that they decrease in intensity monotonically with the titration as new peaks corresponding to the bound structure increase in intensity. Finally, by examining both the bound complex (Figure 4B) and the YprA titration (Figure 7), we can identify several residues whose chemical

shifts appear to be relatively unaffected by YprA: T42, T43, and S48.

Many of the resolved IA₃ resonances (e.g., S14, S15, F30, K31, and S35) disappear in the IA₃–YprA complex. These results are not unexpected, because most of these are located in IA₃'s electron density of the IA₃–YprA complex. The first 34 residues are known to be involved in the inhibition (2). Serine 35 is just outside of the electron density observed in the crystal structure of the IA₃–YprA complex. However, it is not surprising that this residue is affected by YprA binding, because it might either represent a frayed end of the α -helix or simply be extremely constricted by YprA binding.

The interpretation most consistent with the data for the IA₃–YprA complex is that the N-terminus of IA₃ is binding tightly to YprA and undergoing slow exchange. This produces the 36 small peaks that are in the complex spectrum but absent in the free spectrum. In contrast, the C-terminus of IA₃ is interacting with YprA and undergoing a rather complicated exchange between free and bound states. Some of the residues must be in rather fast exchange or have little contact with YprA, because there are approximately 34 large but broadened peaks in the HSQC spectrum of the complex. However, some peaks, like the three C-terminal glycine residues, appear to vanish upon addition of a small amount of YprA, and this is most consistent with intermediate exchange behavior.

We measured the K_i of binding of IA₃ to YprA to be 3.0 nM at 25 $^{\circ}$ C, from which we can estimate a binding free energy of -49 kJ/mol (-11.7 kcal/mol) using the equation $\Delta G = -RT \ln K_i$. However, because the interaction between IA₃ and YprA involves folding as well as binding and inhibition, a two-state description clearly oversimplifies the process. An accurate thermodynamic analysis of the interaction will require measurement of the separate entropic and enthalpic contributions to each stage of the interaction, through calorimetric and other studies of IA₃ and its variants, together with quantitative modeling. Such studies are in progress, and we anticipate they will lead to a clearer picture of the energetics of this complex interaction.

At least one other yeast aspartic proteinase, yapsin, cleaves but is not inhibited by IA₃, and it is known from truncation studies with IA₃ that the proteolytically cleaved products are inactive as inhibitors of YprA (2). How does IA₃ escape being cleaved by YprA? The NMR and CD data of IA₃ show only a very small percentage of α -helix in solution, and NMR chemical shifts show that the helix is localized to the C-terminal half of the protein. Our biophysical data support the model in which YprA forms a unique template upon which IA₃ folding is catalyzed. We have not yet determined the kinetics of IA₃ binding to YprA or the complete thermodynamic details of the binding of each half of IA₃.

Numerous examples of intrinsically unfolded proteins folding into structural proteins exist in the recent literature (10, 42–45), although to our knowledge IA₃ is the first identified intrinsically unfolded proteinase inhibitor. Unfolded proteins play major roles in transcriptional (46, 47) and translational activation (48), cytoskeleton formation and restructuring (49), signal transduction (50), membrane transport/signaling (51), and cell-cycle control (52–54). For example, the activation domain of transcription factor CREB and the acid activation domains of p53 and VP16 fold into

amphipathic helical structures upon binding to CBP, MDM2, and TAFII31, respectively (10). Studies on the intrinsically unstructured GTPase-binding domain of WASP have demonstrated that it can form different structures, depending on the context of the interactions (49). The p27 protein, which is intrinsically disordered in solution and a member of the p21 family of Cdk inhibitors, folds into an ordered structure that comprises an α -helix, a 3_{10} -helix, and β -structure when bound to the cyclin A-Cdk2 (54). IA₃ is yet another example in the field of unstructured/disordered proteins that folds when it recognizes its target. IA₃ is produced in yeast and inhibits yeast proteinase A, so there is an obvious need to regulate the activity of IA₃. We can speculate that perhaps the unfolded state of IA₃ allows for post-translational regulation of its activity.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The valuable contributions of John Kay (School of Biosciences, Cardiff University) and Alexander Wlodawer and Alla Gustchina (National Cancer Institute, Frederick, MD) to this work are greatly appreciated. Geoffrey Gordon kindly assisted with CD studies.

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BI034823N