

STRUCTURE AND EVOLUTION OF CALCIUM-MODULATED PROTEINS*

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I. INTRODUCTION**

My view of calcium-modulated proteins and processes is summarized by five postulates:¹²⁶

1. All resting eukaryotic cells maintain the concentration of free Ca^{2+} within the cytosol between 10^{-7} and 10^{-8} M.
2. The sole function of Ca^{2+} within the cytosol is to transmit information.
3. The target of Ca^{2+} , functioning as a second messenger, is a protein in the cytosol.
4. Calcium-modulated proteins contain EF-hands.
5. Cells initially extruded calcium so they could use phosphate as their basic energy currency; $\text{Ca}_3(\text{PO}_4)_2$ is insoluble.

The functional implications of this model are discussed by Kretsinger.¹²⁸ Here I wish to focus on the structure and evolution of calcium-modulated proteins. I define a calcium-modulated protein by two criteria. First, it is present in the cytosol or is associated with a membrane that faces the cytosol. Second, it must bind calcium with a pK_d ($-\log K_d$) between 5.0 and 6.5 in the presence of 10^{-3} M Mg^{2+} normally found in the cytosol. It appears that the pCa ($-\log[\text{Ca}^{2+}]$) in a wide variety of resting eukaryotic cells is between 7 and 8. Following a stimulus to a cell there is a transitory rise in the concentration of free Ca^{2+} in the cytosol to about pCa 4.5 (documented by Kretsinger).¹²⁸ Calcium functions as a second messenger¹⁹⁹ or coupling factor.²⁰⁰ In order for

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** Abbreviations: AC, Adenylate cyclase; AMP, Adenosine monophosphate; ATP, Adenosine triphosphate; ATPase, Adenosine triphosphatase; C or N termini, Carboxyl or amino termini of a protein; cAMP, Cyclic adenosine monophosphate; CAF, Calcium-activated factor; CDR, Calcium-dependent regulator or calmodulin; cGMP, Cyclic guanosine monophosphate; CNPDE, Cyclic nucleotide phosphodiesterase; DTNBLC, RLC form of skeletal myosin extractable with 5,5'-dithiobis (2-nitrobenzoic acid); EDTA, Ethylenediamine tetraacetic acid; EDTA LC, RLC of scallop myosin extractable with EDTA; EGTA, Ethylene glycol bis (β -aminoethyl N,N' -tetraacetic acid); ELC, Enzymic light chain of myosin; HMM, Heavy meromyosin; ICBP, Intestinal calcium-binding protein; L1 or A1, Traditional designation for the longer of the two ELCs; L4 or A2, Traditional designation for the shorter of the two ELCs; MCBP, Muscle calcium-binding parvalbumin; ϕ , ψ , Dihedral angles representing rotations about nitrogen, α -carbon and α -carbon, carbonyl carbon single bonds; PP, Pyrophosphate ($\text{P}_2\text{O}_7^{4-}$); RLC, Regulatory light chain of myosin; SF1, Subfragment, or head, of myosin; SR, Sarcoplasmic reticulum; SDS, Sodium dodecyl sulphate; TNC, Calcium-binding component of troponin; TNI, Inhibitory component of troponin; TNT, Tropomyosin-binding component of troponin; V_{max} , Maximum velocity, Δ substrate/ Δ time, of a reaction; NRT, Nucleotide replacements per 10^{10} codon years.

a protein to be modulated by Ca^{2+} , it must release its Ca^{2+} during rest ($\text{pK}_a < 7.0$) and bind Ca^{2+} during the second messenger pulse ($\text{pK}_a > 4.5$).

Based on amino acid sequence data and the crystal structure of carp parvalbumin, one can identify a homolog family consisting of five groups of proteins — calcium-dependent regulator (CDR), calcium-binding component of troponin (TNC), myosin light chains (ELC and RLC), muscle calcium-binding parvalbumin (MCBP), and intestinal calcium-binding protein (ICBP). The general characteristics and functions of these so-called EF-hand proteins will be discussed in Section II and their proposed structures and evolutionary relationships in Section III. Note that none of these homologous calcium-modulated proteins are themselves enzymes, but that at least three of them (CDR, TNC, and LC) function by modifying the functions of enzymes, the ultimate targets of calcium functioning as a second messenger.

There are several other proteins that appear to be calcium modulated based on physiological evidence and/or their calcium affinities. For none of them are amino acid sequence studies completed. It will be exciting to know which of these belong to the EF-hand homolog family. There are many calcium-modulated functions whose associated proteins remain to be identified. This is a particularly promising area of research.

II. CHARACTERISTICS AND FUNCTIONS OF PROTEINS IN THE EF-HAND HOMOLOG FAMILY

A. Overview

In the following five sections are outlined the important functional characteristics of the known EF-hand proteins. They are related by their common origin and their similar structures. Further, they are all involved with some aspect of the functioning of calcium as a second messenger. Yet the diversity of structure and function within the homolog family makes it one of the most fascinating and rewarding yet studied. Inevitably I must introduce many abbreviations and new notations. I beg the reader's forbearance and suggest reference to the list of abbreviations, list of amino acid sequences (Tables 2 and 3), and parvalbumin structure description (Figure 1 and Tables 4 and 5).

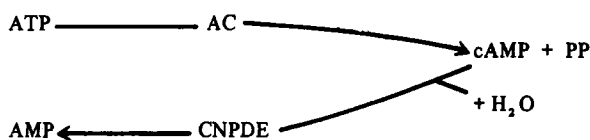
B. Calcium-Dependent Regulator (CDR)

As will be discussed, the various functions and sources of this protein initially gave rise to several designations — phosphodiesterase activator protein, modulator protein, and the most generally used, calcium-dependent regulator (CDR). Calmodulin (modulated by calcium) seems to be gaining general acceptance.

Its multiple functions as well as its broad cellular and species distribution recommend CDR as the prototype of calcium-modulated proteins.^{25,36,247a} Waisman et al.²⁴³ identified CDR by activation of bovine heart cyclic nucleotide phosphodiesterase, in the following phyla: Cnidaria, Mollusca, Annelidia, Nematelminthi, Arthropoda, Echinoderma, Porifera, and Chordata. Within vertebrates, CDR has been identified in many tissues³⁴ as well as cultured fibroblasts, glioma cells, and lymphoma cells and has been isolated from brain, testes, heart, adrenal medulla, and erythrocytes. The richest sources are testes at 100 mg/kg wet wt tissue³² and brain at 60 mg/kg.²⁵⁰ Although CDR is easily EGTA-water extracted from these tissues, apparent lack of, or low yield of, CDR in other tissues may reflect an inadequate extraction procedure.

CDR in the presence of Ca^{2+} activates cyclic nucleotide phosphodiesterase (EC 3.1.4.17) (CNPDE), adenylate cyclase (EC 4.6.1.1) (AC), skeletal muscle myosin ATPase (in vitro), erythrocyte membrane (Ca^{2+}) ATPase, and myosin light chain ki-

nase. Cheung³⁵ (1969) and Kakiuchi and Yamazaki¹¹³ first described and characterized a "phosphodiesterase activator protein". Since most, if not all, eukaryotic cells employ cAMP (and possibly cGMP) as a second messenger, most cells can be expected to have a CNPDE as well as an AC to control cytosol levels of cAMP:



Most eukaryotic cells appear to have at least one particulate and several soluble forms of CNPDE. At least one of the soluble forms is CDR activated. The significance of the particulate and soluble forms of CNPDE is not clear.²⁵⁴ Gnegy et al.⁸³ reported the "release of CDR by cAMP-dependent ATP: protein phosphotransferase from sub-cellular fractions of rat brain". Ho et al.¹⁰² have prepared CDR-dependent CNPDE 80% pure. From 3.0 kg of bovine hearts they prepared 1.1 mg of CNPDE representing 6.7% of the activity in the original extract. The specific activity of CNPDE is 120×10^{-6} mol of cAMP per milligram·minute and can be activated fivefold by CDR and 10^{-5} M Ca^{2+} .

Most if not all AC activity is membrane associated. It is normally studied as a particulate suspension or dissolved in 1% Lubrol®. There have been reports of both stimulation, usually at pCa 6, and of inhibition, at about pCa 4, by calcium. However, since none of these preparations were pure, their characteristics neither support nor refute the involvement of CDR. Cheung et al.³⁴ prepared a detergent-dispersed AC from rat and bovine brain. Brostrom et al.²³ suggested that CDR "controls enzymatic activities responsible for the synthesis of cAMP and for the hydrolysis of cGMP." In 1976, Brostrom et al.²⁴ demonstrated a 40% stimulation of AC activity of a particulate fraction from homogenates of C-6 glioma cells by addition of CDR and calcium. Rodan and Feinstein²⁰⁵ found that in platelets Ca^{2+} decreased the V_{\max} of AC while stimulating the synthesis of cGMP by guanylate cyclase (EC 4.6.1.2); however, they do not mention the effect of added CDR. Brostrom et al.²³ postulated that the CDR-sensitive CNPDE primarily hydrolyzes cGMP; hence, an increase in free Ca^{2+} in the cytosol would increase cAMP levels via activation of AC and decrease cGMP levels via CNPDE. Alternatively, Cheung et al.³⁴ suggested a kinetic or compartmental interpretation. AC on the plasma membrane would be first activated by Ca^{2+} -CDR, then as the Ca^{2+} diffuses through the cytosol, the free CNPDE would be activated. A pulse of cAMP would result. Any model of the control of cAMP and cGMP levels must reconcile the apparent contradiction of CDRs stimulating both the forward and the reverse reactions.

A third activity (and possible biological function) of CDR was first reported by Amphlett et al.⁵ In a reconstituted actomyosin system from white skeletal muscle of rabbit, CDR from bovine brain is nearly as effective as troponin C (TNC) in relieving the ATPase inhibition by troponin I (TNI). Dedman et al.⁵¹ reported similar results using rat testis CDR. TNC can stimulate CNPDE, even though its affinity for CNPDE is 1/600 that of CDR. CDR probably does not regulate the myosin ATPase of skeletal muscle; however, it might regulate other actomyosin systems. Mahendran and Berl¹⁵⁰ reported the "Isolation of Troponin-like Complex from Bovine Brain Cortex", which is distinct from CDR. It is probable that a TNC or CDR is involved in microfilament activation and possibly in subsequent exocytosis.

A factor that activates the calcium pump (Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+}) ATPase of erythrocytes

was first described by Bond and Clough.¹⁶ The calcium affinity, heat stability, and molecular weight of the factor suggested its similarity to CDR.^{86,148} Jarrett and Penniston¹¹⁰ have established that the factor contains trimethyllysine (a unique characteristic of CDR) and comigrates with brain and testis CDR on electrophoresis; further, all three stimulate erythrocyte ATPase equally.

The fifth function reported for CDR is activation of myosin light chain kinase from chicken gizzard⁴⁹ and from rabbit skeletal muscle.²⁶⁴ The active kinase is a heterodimer with the enzymic subunit having mol wt 105,000 and the CDR regulatory subunit having mol wt 17,000. Waisman et al.²⁴⁴ characterized a similar, if not identical, CDR dependent protein kinase from rabbit skeletal muscle. Phosphorylase kinase (Section IVB3), myosin light chains (Section IID), and histones serve as substrates for the protein kinase. They suggested "that this protein kinase mediates the regulatory effects of Ca^{2+} in many physiological processes" and "that the activation of phosphorylase kinase . . . may be . . . a mechanism for the mediation of the Ca^{2+} effect on glycogenolysis during neuronal stimulation of muscle contraction." Schulman and Greengard²¹³ reported that brain extracts contain a kinase whose phosphorylation of membrane protein is stimulated by an endogenous heat-stable protein plus calcium.

A possible sixth protein regulated by CDR is the brain "modulator binding protein", which elutes from G-200 Sephadex® with the Ca^{2+} form of CDR as a complex of mol wt 160,000.²⁴⁸ It is not known whether this modulator binding protein is itself an enzyme or whether it functions as a competitor of AC and CNPDE for CDR.²⁴⁷

Using indirect immunofluorescence, Welsh et al.²⁵⁵ followed the localization of CDR throughout the cell cycle of 3T3, PtK₁, and various other vertebrate cells. They observed the following distributions of CDR antibodies: interphase, similar to stress fibers; prophase, random distribution; prometaphase, associated with half-spindles; through anaphase, in the spindle region; late anaphase, in the interzone region; and late telophase, near the midbody and not in the cleavage furrow. They suggest that CDR "may mediate the calcium effects on the mitotic apparatus".

One can anticipate that more CDR-like proteins and associated functions will be identified.

C. Troponin

The identification and characterization of troponin⁶⁴ as the molecule that imparts calcium sensitivity to skeletal muscle was the key event in joining calcium physiology and biochemistry. As found in skeletal muscle, troponin (review by Collins⁴²) is a trimer consisting of a calcium-binding component (TNC), a tropomyosin-binding component (TNT), and an inhibitory component (TNI).

The TNI-TNC dimer is dissociated from the trimer by treatment with salt. Further, the dimer does not dissociate in 6 M urea. Even though the amino acid sequences do not reveal a homology between TNI and TNT, the TNC-TNI₂ trimer is very stable and imparts calcium sensitivity to a reconstituted tropomyosin-actomyosin system.

Actin enhances the (Mg^{2+}) ATPase activity of myosin, as either thick filaments, individual molecules, heavy meromyosin (HMM), or as subfragments (SF1). Tropomyosin combined with actin does not prevent this enhancement. When calcium-free troponin combines with the actin-tropomyosin complex, the previous enhancement is abolished. However, when calcium binds to troponin the tropomyosin shifts deeper into the groove of the actin helix.^{96,106,180} Supposedly, this shift uncovers the site on actin that interacts with myosin.

Troponin is widely distributed and appears quite conserved evolutionarily. Lehman and Szent-Györgyi¹⁴² recombined the three troponin components, one each from rabbit, chicken, lobster, and *Limulus* and generated functionally active troponin when

assayed in the rabbit actomyosin system. This is particularly interesting since lobster TNC binds only one equivalent of Ca^{2+} in mM Mg^{2+} ,^{140,203} while skeletal TNC binds four and cardiac three.

As discussed in the next section, myosin ATPase can be calcium regulated via thick filament, thin filament, or dual control. Any actomyosin system containing troponin appears to be under thin filament or dual control (see Hitchcock¹⁰⁰ and Korn¹²² for reviews of cell motility); however, scallop contains troponin-like proteins.⁶⁴ It is difficult to prove that a particular tissue lacks troponin, but this does appear to be the case for smooth muscle.²²⁰

TNC-like proteins have been reported in various nonmuscle tissues, e.g., bovine adrenal medulla¹³³ and platelets.¹⁷³ From the initial reports it is difficult to determine whether these proteins more closely resemble CDR or TNC. I suggest that CDR be characterized as containing ϵ -*N*-trimethyllysine (residue 332 domain numbering, Table 3) and stimulating the CDR-dependent form of CNPDE at low molar ratios. Further, TNC appears to function bound to TNT and to TNI.

D. Myosin Light Chains (ELC and RLC)

Myosin is a hexameric ATPase comprised of two (nearly) identical, catalytic heavy chains about 200,000 mol wt and two pairs of light chains 20,000 and 30,000 mol wt locusts²⁶⁰ and ranging from 18,000 to 21,000 mol wt in vertebrates. There are three general classes of vertebrate myosin — skeletal, cardiac, and smooth — each having light chains and possibly heavy chains different from one another. The myosins of nonmuscle cells — platelets² and myoblasts²¹⁵ — most closely resemble smooth muscle myosin.

It now appears that all light chains can be considered to be either regulatory (RLC) or essential for enzymatic activity (ELC). The myosin from scallop striated muscle requires about 10^{-5} M Ca^{2+} for ATPase activity. If only one of its two identical RLCs (called EDTA-LC) is removed by washing with EDTA, its ATPase activity is expressed even in the absence of Ca^{2+} ; the scallop myosin is desensitized. Such desensitized myosin can be resensitized by the addition of certain light chains from a variety of vertebrate and invertebrate sources. This functional test defines the RLC.¹¹⁴ The ELCs are recognized by two characteristics: their removal by alkali results in a loss of myosin ATPase activity, and they do not resensitize scallop myosin.

The RLCs and ELCs are both homologous to CDR, TNC, MCBP, and ICBP (Table 3). They both contain four EF-hand domains. Their amino acid sequences are, in general, consistent with the characteristics expected for the four EF-hand model described for TNC and CDR. However, three reservations are discussed in section III.C: the ELCs do not bind calcium; RLC binds only one Ca^{2+} ion when associated with the heavy chain and probably one^{255a} when isolated from it. Bagshaw and Reed²⁶⁵ found that “the effective rate of Ca^{2+} binding to the DTNB light chain” in the myosin complex “is several orders of magnitude too slow to participate in the activation of muscle contraction, which is complete within 100 ms”. The nonbinding loops, like that in cardiac TNC, differ from those of parvalbumin. Second, the RLCs have six to nine amino acid deletions in domain two. Stafford and Szent-Györgyi²²⁶ have completed extensive hydrodynamic studies, which indicate that the RLC monomer free in solution is roughly $100 \times 6.5 \times 6.5$ Å. Finally, they argue that this shape obtains when the RLC is attached to the heavy chain. I summarize the characteristics of the ELCs, then RLCs and conclude by conceding that no simple model is consistent with all of these characteristics.

ELC L1 (or A1) of rabbit has 41 additional residues at the N terminus relative to L4 (or A2), and five of the first eight common residues differ.⁷² The remainder of the

two molecules, comprising all four EF-hand domains, have identical sequences even though they are coded by different genes. The 41 N terminal residues of L1 have 9 Lys, 10 Pro, and 13 Ala residues. The unusual N terminus is somehow responsible for its reduced mobility in SDS polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis. Because of this, an apparent molecular weight of 25,000 to 27,000 is often cited instead of its true molecular weight of 21,000. In rabbit skeletal muscle, the molar ratios per myosin hexamer are 1.3 (L1) and 0.7 (L4); they cannot occur in a 1:1 ratio in each hexamer.⁷² This ratio is particularly significant because an N terminal analysis of the chymotrypsin digest of rabbit skeletal heavy chain reveals two different peptides in the ratio of about 1.8:1.¹⁵² This ratio is similar to that of the ELCs and supports the idea that isoenzymes of myosin may exist *in vivo*. Recent work by Wagner and Weeds²⁴⁶ and Winstanley et al.²⁶¹ indicates that the ELCs do not have a significant effect on myosin ATPase activity in the absence of actin but do affect actin-activated ATPase activity and may be involved in actin binding.

Regulatory light chains (RLC) are defined by their ability to resensitize scallop myosin, that has been desensitized by the loss of one EDTA-LC. The intact molluscan myosin hexamer binds two Ca^{2+} with high affinity.²³⁰ If one of the two identical molluscan RLCs is extracted with EDTA, there is a complete loss of calcium regulation of actin-activated ATPase activity as well as a loss of one of the two calcium-binding sites. The extracted light chain does not bind calcium, but can be recombined with the desensitized myosin to restore full calcium regulation and calcium binding.¹¹⁴ Kendrick-Jones and Jakes¹¹⁶ found that prolonged incubation of isolated scallop RLC with trypsin produces a fragment that has 14 residues removed from the C terminus. This fragment will not recombine with myosin heavy chains. RLC bound to myosin heavy chain is rapidly degraded by chymotrypsin in the presence of 1.0 mM EDTA but remains intact in 1.0 mM Ca^{2+} .

Kendrick-Jones and Jakes¹¹⁶ suggested that the RLCs lie parallel to each myosin head in an extended form in which the length of the RLC is about the same as that of the myosin head. The C terminus of RLC is bound near the hinge region. The N terminus is near the actin-binding site and blocks myosin interaction with actin in the relaxed state. Ca^{2+} binding by the RLCs is suggested to switch on the myosin by inducing a conformational change in the RLCs that results in a tighter binding of the RLCs to the myosin heads in such a way as to allow the myosin heads to interact with actin. Removal of one of the two RLCs may result in the remaining RLC being bound to both myosin heads in a position that does not block the actin-binding site on the myosin even in the absence of Ca^{2+} . The major feature of this model is that it does not require cooperativity between the RLCs or the myosin heads to account for Ca^{2+} regulation. They also considered a cooperative model in which RLCs bind near the hinge region of the myosin head and regulate either the orientation of the myosin heads or the "actin searching movement of the myosin head".¹¹⁶ Szent-Györgyi et al.²³⁰ observed that, although the actin-heavy meromyosin ATPase activity from molluscan muscle is calcium sensitive, isolated SF1 heads with intact RLCs are not. Calcium binding is also "normal".

Lehman et al.¹⁴¹ showed that certain muscles are heavy chain regulated in the complete thick and thin filament system. That is, the myosin, ATPase is inactive unless calcium is present. The protein that imparts this calcium sensitivity is troponin in the case of thin filament and a light chain in the case of thick filament regulated myosin. However, it soon became apparent that a third class existed — muscles with dual control. Scallop myosin is thick filament controlled; however, many of the RLCs that can resensitize scallop myosin come from muscles that contain troponin and are supposedly under thin filament control. Skeletal and cardiac RLCs do restore calcium sensitivity

to desensitized scallop myosin in the presence of actin, but they do not restore the capacity to bind a second equivalent of Ca^{2+} ions¹¹⁴ as does scallop RLC.

Bremel¹⁹ used the competitive actin-binding assay of Lehman et al.¹⁴¹ to demonstrate that a myosin-linked regulatory system is present in smooth muscle of higher vertebrates. This result is particularly significant in view of the similarities of nonmuscle myosin to that of smooth muscle. The RLCs from chicken gizzard will hybridize with the scallop myosin and restore not only Ca^{2+} sensitivity but also binding of a second Ca^{2+} ion.

The similarities between the RLCs of smooth and skeletal muscle — ability to resensitize scallop myofibrils, similar sequence, and identical phosphorylation site (Section III.F) — suggest that the RLC of vertebrate striated muscle may have a similar regulatory function. However, the low Ca^{2+} -binding affinity of native skeletal myosin (see Section III.D), the requirement of complexed actin for restoring Ca^{2+} sensitivity to desensitized scallop myosin, and the failure to Ca^{2+} binding to desensitized scallop myofibrils indicate that this regulatory role may have been lost during the evolution of the skeletal and cardiac systems.

Calcium regulation of arthropod actomyosin ATPase is associated with the thick and the thin filaments. The fast muscles of crustacea were thought to be an exception in that they appeared to exhibit only thin-filament control.¹⁴² Recently, Lehman¹³⁹ demonstrated that the fast muscles from crustacea exhibit myosin regulation when ATPase activity is assayed at ionic strengths approaching those in vivo (0.1 M KCl). Similarly, studies on rabbit skeletal myofibrils indicate myosin-linked regulation that can be abolished only at low ionic strength. Purified rabbit skeletal myosin shows no Ca^{2+} -dependent ATPase activity regardless of the ionic strength used. Thus, a myosin-linked regulation may exist in vertebrate skeletal muscle that is lost during purification.

Margossian et al.¹⁵³ prepared SF1 fractions of skeletal myosin in the presence of Mg^{2+} or EDTA. Mg^{2+} SF1 fractions contain RLCs whereas EDTA SF1 fractions do not. No differences in content of ELC L1 or of ELC L4 were apparent. They then studied the effect of Ca^{2+} on actin binding by the SF1 fractions; Ca^{2+} had no effect on EDTA SF1 interactions but significantly decreased the binding by Mg SF1. The midpoint for the binding transition was pCa 5. Skeletal RLCs can be added back to the EDTA SF1 fractions, and a partial calcium response is obtained. These results indicate that the RLC of skeletal myosin, in response to an increase in Ca^{2+} , may regulate interaction of the myosin heads with actin. The same results were obtained with HMM preparations. Possible regulatory roles related to phosphorylation of RLCs are discussed in Section III.F.

As indicated in the preceding three paragraphs, there is inferential evidence that the RLCs might impart calcium sensitivity to skeletal muscle. This suggestion was reinforced by Morimoto and Harrington¹⁶⁷ who found that calcium (pCa²⁺ \approx 5.4 with mM Mg^{2+}) induces a reversible conformational change in myosin evidenced by an increased sedimentation coefficient and reduced relative viscosity. Huxley¹⁰⁶ and Haselgrove⁹⁶ obtained X-ray diffraction patterns of toad semitendinosus muscles that had been stretched so far as to preclude any overlap of thick and thin filaments. One interpretation of the altered diffraction pattern following addition of calcium is that the myosin heads move away from the thick filament. However, there has been no direct demonstration of calcium regulation of skeletal myosin other than via its binding to troponin. On the contrary, Sutoh and Harrington²²⁹ chemically cross-linked myosin and concluded from their “results that neither the presence of Ca ions nor the shift from resting to rigor state (at rest length) results in release of myosin heads from the thick filament surface.” Mendelson and Cheung¹⁶¹ studied fluorescence depolarization

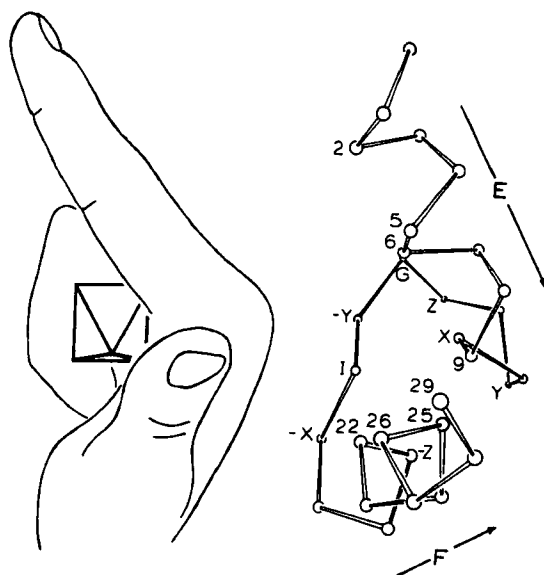


FIGURE 1. The EF hand. The α -carbons that contribute hydrophobic side chains to the core of the protein are numbered as in Tables 2 and 3. The vertices of the octahedron, which represents the oxygen ligands about the Ca^{2+} ion, are indicated by X, Y, and Z. The highly conserved Gly and Ile are labelled.

and inferred that "calcium does not directly move the crossbridges toward thin filaments on activation of (skeletal) muscle."

We do not yet understand the Ca^{2+} binding of RLC, the structures of ELC or RLC, the effects of phosphorylations in skeletal and cardiac muscle, nor the detailed functions of the myosin light chains in various types of muscle.

E. Parvalbumin (MCBP)

The crystal structure of isotype 3 (or B), pI 4.25, from carp has been determined and refined at 1.9 Å resolution by Moews and Kretsinger.¹⁶³ It contains six α -helical regions, A through F. The loops between helices C and D and between E and F each bind a calcium ion. Helix E, loop EF, and helix F resemble the extended forefinger, clenched middle finger, and extended thumb of a right hand (Figure 1). This basic structural and homology domain is called the EF-hand. It is related to the homologous CD-hand by an approximate twofold axis passing through the monomeric protein. The AB-hand, which lies over the tightly packed EF-hand, CD-hand pair, does not bind calcium but apparently functions to cover and contribute to the hydrophobic core. The amino acid sequence and chemical data indicate that all known parvalbumins are isostructural with that of carp 4.25. Details of its crystal structure, evolution, and calcium binding are presented in Section III. In order to consider its function, which remains unknown, I will first discuss its structure in solution and its cellular distributions.

Various spectroscopic and chemical studies show that the solution structure of the two Ca^{2+} form of muscle calcium-binding parvalbumin (MCBP- Ca_2) is very similar to that in the crystal. As is the case for most proteins, the parvalbumin structure is dynamic with all atoms vibrating or oscillating about their average positions, as seen in

the crystal structure. Cave et al.³² extended the early ^{13}C NMR spectroscopic results of Opella et al.¹⁷⁸ and concluded that the ten phenyl rings show no $\pi-\pi$ interaction and that most of them are packed in a herring-bone arrangement as had been seen in the crystal structure. They also deduced that most of the rings flip about their $\text{C}_\beta\text{-C}_\gamma$ bonds over 1000 Hz, even though the rings reside the great majority of the time in their "crystal positions". The packing of the core of MCBP demands compensatory movements of various side chains associated with each flip in order to avoid unacceptable van der Waals contacts. The structure is dynamic.

Various calcium-binding constants have been published for parvalbumin (Section III.D). In the absence of Mg^{2+} , the $\text{pK}_d(\text{Ca}^{2+})$ is ~ 8.4 for both¹⁹⁴ or one¹⁸⁶ of the sites, while in the presence of physiological levels of Mg^{2+} (~ 2.0 mM), the $\text{pK}_d(\text{Ca}^{2+})$ is ~ 6.5 . Potter et al.¹⁹⁴ reported the $\text{pK}_d(\text{Mg}^{2+})$ to be 4.0. Grandjean et al.⁹⁰ inferred from ^{23}Na NMR spectroscopy $\text{pK}_d(\text{Na}^+) \approx 2.0$ with a greater K^+ affinity. These results, which should be regarded as tentative, suggest that in the resting cell ($\text{pCa} > 7.0$) parvalbumin has either Mg^{2+} or K^+ bound at the calcium sites.

Kretsinger¹²⁵ presented a structural model for the cooperative release of Ca^{2+} by MCBP- Ca_2 . This model appears to be wrong since no or only slight¹⁸⁴ cooperativity (Hill coefficient 1.05)¹⁸⁶ is observed by Chelex® or equilibrium dialysis studies. More conclusive, several spectroscopic studies have been interpreted in terms of three states: $\text{MCBP-}\text{Ca}_2 \leftrightarrow \text{MCMP-}\text{Ca}_1 \leftrightarrow \text{MCBP-}\text{Ca}_0$. Opella et al.,¹⁷⁸ using ^{13}C natural abundance NMR spectroscopy, identified the resonances of the guanido carbon atom of Arg_{395} and the carbonyl carbon atoms, whose resonances are shifted up field, of Lys_{316} and Phe_{416} in carp 4.3 MCBP. Removal of only one Ca^{2+} ion by EGTA titration causes a change in the environment of the $\text{Arg}_{395}\text{-Glu}_{401}$ pair and in the Lys_{316} . Removal of the Ca^{2+} ion shifts the Phe_{416} resonance. Consistent with the earlier results of Donato and Martin,⁵⁸ Nelson et al.¹⁷⁴ concluded from their CD spectra that a "twenty fold excess of EGTA removes but one of two $\text{Ca}(\text{II})$ from carp parvalbumins" in the absence of Mg^{2+} . Removal of both Ca^{2+} ions increases the rate of the sulfhydryl reaction with 5,5'-dithiobis (2-nitrobenzoic acid) (DTNB).⁵⁸

The structural changes that accompany the loss of calcium are unclear. Parello et al.¹⁷⁹ deduced from their ^1H NMR spectra that removal of both Ca^{2+} ions leads "to a structure very similar to that obtained by chemical or thermal denaturation." In contrast, Donato and Martin⁵⁸ found that removing one Ca^{2+} ion results in "little or no change in the helical content of 47%." Removal of the second Ca^{2+} reduces the α -helical content to 39% and "corresponds to disruption of one of the six helical regions found in the native protein." Closset and Gerday³⁸ presented a third interpretation based on their CD spectra from pike 5.0 and whiting parvalbumins. They suggested that removal of Ca^{2+} ions "induces changes primarily in the tertiary structure, leading to a still ordered but less compact molecule." Many groups have reported a significant reduction in solubility and a tendency to aggregate associated with calcium removal. We have failed to crystallize the calcium-free form.

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Table 1
PARVALBUMIN CONTENTS OF TISSUES

Species	Muscle	Wet weight (g/kg)	Ref.
Hake	White skeletal	11.5	182
Coelacanth	White skeletal	11.3	93
Turtle	White skeletal	10.0	14
Frog	Skeletal	3.5	190
Mouse	White skeletal	1.6	3
Rabbit	White skeletal	0.8	14
Rabbit	Cruis (red)	0.48	8
Rabbit	Psoas (white)	0.39	8
Rabbit	Psoas (white)	0.3	138
Chicken	White skeletal	0.3	14
Rabbit	Diaphragm	0.047	8
Chicken	Leg	0.04	98
Limulus	White leg	0.04	6
Rabbit	Brain	0.002	8

reduction in solubility and a tendency to aggregate associated with calcium removal. We have failed to crystallize the calcium-free form.

Just as the binding of Ca^{2+} affects the conformation of parvalbumin, so its overall conformation markedly affects its Ca^{2+} affinity. Extending the initial observations of Solano and Coffee²²¹ Derancourt et al.⁵⁷ determined that the isolated EF hand (sequence numbers 76 to 108) and domains 2 and 3 (sequences numbers 1 to 75) have $\text{pK}_a(\text{Ca})$ values of 2.5 and 4.1, respectively, in the absence of Mg^{2+} . That is, separation of the two Ca-binding domains (three and four) reduces their Ca^{2+} affinities by 10^4 to 10^6 . As noted in the discussion of LC and TNC, the interaction of a calcium-modulated protein with another protein can also alter its calcium affinity and specificity.

The invariance of the unique $\text{Arg}_{395}\text{-Glu}_{401}$ internal hydrogen bond remains unexplained and may provide a clue to the function of parvalbumin. Even though it is over 25 Å from either Ca^{2+} ion, a modification to that region of the molecule, e.g., derivatization of the Arg with 1,4 cyclohexanedione, greatly reduces the Ca^{2+} affinity.⁸⁷ Cys_{209} of carp 3.25 parvalbumin is partially buried on the opposite side of the molecule from the Ca^{2+} binding sites; the S atom is 6 Å from the guanido group of Arg_{395} . Donato and Martin⁵⁸ found that removal of both Ca^{2+} ions "frees the single cysteine so that it reacts more rapidly with" DTNB.

The tissue contents of parvalbumin listed in Table 1 indicate that it is not an indispensable component of the contractile mechanism. Further, it is present at levels (probably) less than 0.1 mg/kg wet wt in carp brain;⁸⁹ chicken back muscle, heart, stomach, brain, pancreas, small intestine, and kidney, but not spleen, liver, or blood;⁹⁸ human heart and uterus;¹³⁸ mouse heart;³ and absent in chicken breast.¹⁴ Baron et al.⁸ found less than 0.2 mg/kg in rabbit uterus, bladder, small intestine, spleen, kidney, ovary, adipose tissue, lung, liver, and erythrocytes. The actual values could be in error by a factor of two since some represent yields from parvalbumin preparations; in contrast, Blum et al.¹⁴ quantified the content by densitometry of coomassie blue stained polyacrylamide gels of the initial water extract of muscle. The parvalbumin need not be purified because no other proteins run near it on the gel.

Parvalbumins are highly antigenic and have been implicated in the allergic reaction some people have to fish. Gosselin-Rey and Gerday⁸⁸ showed that the antibody-binding ability of MCBP does not change with removal of calcium. Although parvalbumin is evolving slowly (about 9 NRT, Section III.G), there is only limited cross-reactivity

among the various isotypes.^{89,147} This antigenicity has been used to localize parvalbumin within tissues and cells.

Lowe et al.¹⁴⁷ found by immunochemical staining that in the mouse parvalbumin is found in the white muscle only, and there in smaller (10 to 35 μm) but not in larger (35 to 60 μm diameter) fibers. It is these larger fibers that are primarily involved in glycogenolysis. The low yields of parvalbumin in red muscle may reflect contamination by white fibers. In contrast, Benzonana et al.¹⁰ reported that cryosections of muscle treated with fluorescent antibodies specific for parvalbumin show a uniform distribution of the marker. Piront et al.¹⁹⁰ tested single fibers of frog twitch muscle, dissected under oil to prevent diffusion, by double Outcherlony immunodiffusion and found "two types of the frog parvalbumin in each muscle fiber."

Many functions have been suggested for parvalbumin over the past decade:

1. The initial sources of parvalbumin were frog and carp. Hamoir⁹² suggested that "they seem to be necessary as long as semi-permeable membranes exist." Only subsequently was parvalbumin isolated from mammals.
2. Parvalbumin is not an enzyme. Its structure has no pits or crevasses characteristic of all of the enzyme structures determined to date. Pechere and Focant¹⁸³ tested a variety of possible enzymic functions associated with glycolysis and found none.
3. Following the realization that parvalbumin binds calcium, Pechère et al.¹⁸⁴ suggested that it "might have biochemical effects similar to those of troponin and also that chemical isologies might be detected..." Subsequently, it has been found that the fast, white muscle of fish, where parvalbumin occurs in greatest abundance (up to 10 mg/g wet wt) also contains troponin. It does not replace troponin or myosin light chains in *in vitro* ATPase assay systems.
4. Blum et al.¹³ reported a phosphorylated form of parvalbumin, which might provide a clue to its function. This appears to have been an artifact;⁵⁵ any phosphate acceptor protein in the myogen fraction is not parvalbumin.
5. Potter et al.¹⁹¹ found a Ca^{2+} -dependent activation of brain CNPDE by parvalbumin at 2000 times the molar amount of calmodulin required. Bovine serum albumin, used as a control, does not activate CNPDE. Considering the high levels of MCBP present in fish muscle, they suggested that it "may regulate skeletal muscle phosphodiesterase".
6. Pechère et al.¹⁸² suggested that parvalbumin might interact with a membrane ATPase.
7. Using indirect immunofluorescence, Heizmann et al.⁹⁸ saw "regular cross-situation patterns within the I band of isolated myofibrils" of chicken and suggested that "a parvalbumin-like protein may interact with one or more of the protein components of the thin filament." (The three preceding observations infer a direct interaction of parvalbumin with another protein.)
8. Hitchcock and Kendrick-Jones¹⁰¹ found that neither parvalbumin nor myosin light chains can substitute for TNC in functional assays or in TNI and tropomyosin-binding studies. They suggested that parvalbumin serves as a soluble store of bound calcium in the sarcoplasm. At this same meeting, Pechère et al.¹⁸² elaborated this theme and argued that parvalbumin serves as a Ca^{2+} dependent H^+ buffer following ATP hydrolysis. That is, during muscle activity parvalbumin would be in the MCBP- Ca_0 form and, in this form, would have an increased proton affinity. Pechère et al.¹⁸⁵ subsequently withdrew this interpretation when they found no pH dependence of calcium binding. Briggs²⁰ identified parvalbumin as the soluble relaxing factor of muscle.

Gerday and Gillis⁷⁹ and Blum et al.¹⁴ determined that fragmented sarcoplasmic reticulum (SR) could deplete parvalbumin of calcium, and parvalbumin, in turn, could deplete myofibrils of calcium. These observations are consistent with a "trap or carrier" idea of Demaille et al.⁸⁶ The affinity of parvalbumin for calcium is greater than that of troponin but less than that of SR (Ca^{2+}) ATPase. However, the rate of Ca^{2+} binding by troponin may exceed that of parvalbumin. Hence, upon release from the SR, calcium would first bind to troponin and activate myosin ATPase. It would then be soaked up quickly by parvalbumin and be stored there during muscle relaxation while the SR ATPase is pumping away the calcium.⁸² The implication that the fastest muscles have the greatest need for a "kinetic sink" is only partially supported by the observed tissue distribution of parvalbumin (Table 1).

This kinetic model of parvalbumin function requires knowledge of the following 13 parameters plus the solution of three simultaneous differential equations. The concentrations of three classes of sites — R (sarcoplasmic reticulum), P (parvalbumin), and T (troponin) — can be approximated from published values. A fourth parameter — CF, calcium free — is required to describe the total calcium (ΣC) in the system: $\Sigma\text{C} = \text{CF} + \text{CR} + \text{CP} + \text{CT}$. (An estimate of cytosol volume is required to calculate the concentration of these components, e.g., $[\text{CF}] = \text{CF}/\text{vol}$). The three equilibrium constants describing Ca^{2+} affinities (in the presence of mM Mg^{2+} have been published — K_r , K_p , and K_t).

The eighth through tenth parameters are the Ca^{2+} release rates — k_r , k_p , k_t . These will be difficult to determine experimentally because calcium is spectrally inert; one must find for SR, parvalbumin, and troponin spectral signals associated with protein conformation changes. The 11th and 12th parameters are most critical to the model and are particularly difficult to determine. The SR must have two release rates — one during excitation and a second during calcium uptake and quiescence. If the "on rate" is assumed constant, then the assumption of an excited release rate k_r will also yield an excited equilibrium constant — excited $K_r = k_r/k_{on}$; quiescent $K_r = k_r/k_{on}$. The 12th parameter is the duration of time, t_{ex} , during which k_r obtains. In order to see the cyclic nature of the calcium distribution, one must also designate t_q , the quiescent period when k_r obtains. This formulation assumes very short diffusion distances and noncooperativity in binding and release.

In addition to the calcium conservation equation, one must solve the following simultaneous equations:

$$d\text{CR}/dt = -k_r[\text{CR}] + K_r \cdot k_r \cdot [\text{R}] \cdot [\text{CF}]$$

$$d\text{CP}/dt = -k_p[\text{CP}] + K_p \cdot k_p \cdot [\text{P}] \cdot [\text{CF}]$$

$$d\text{CT}/dt = -k_t[\text{CT}] + K_t \cdot k_t \cdot [\text{T}] \cdot [\text{CF}]$$

F. Intestinal Calcium-Binding Protein (ICBP)

The amino acid sequence (Section III.B) of porcine intestinal calcium-binding protein¹⁰³ indicates that it contains two EF hands. A 9700-mol wt form is found in mammalian intestine and in bovine and guinea pig kidney.²⁴⁹ A second form, mol wt 28,000 is found in chick gut, kidney, shell gland, and brain as well as in bovine and rat brain and rat kidney. Within the latter group, the ICBPs are immunologically cross-

reactive; however, there is no cross-reaction between the two groups. Even so, the two are generally assumed to be functionally and evolutionarily related. Immunological staining indicates that ICBP is localized in the brush border region and goblet cells. It is readily extracted from homogenized tissue and is thought to be in the cytosol. Wasserman and Feher²⁴⁹ suggested that the 5% of chick gut ICBP that is associated with a membrane component might provide a clue to its function.

Calcium transport in various tissues requires 1,25-dihydroxycholecalciferol ($1,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}_3$). Rachitic animals lack ICBP. Following treatment of these animals, or of rachitic tissue cultures, with $1,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}_3$, increased calcium transport is observed as well as an increase in levels of ICBP. It has been assumed that $1,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}_3$ somehow controls the synthesis of ICBP and that ICBP is involved in transcellular transport of calcium. However, Spencer et al.²²⁵ and Toffolon et al.²³³ have argued that increased calcium uptake precedes ICBP synthesis following $1,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}_3$ injection into rachitic animals.

Weissman et al.²⁵³ reported the presence in rat kidney of a 26,000-mol wt calcium-binding protein whose yield is not significantly altered by the depletion or addition of vitamin D. Vitamin D may also stimulate the synthesis of other proteins involved in calcium transport, e.g., the (Ca^{2+}), also referred to as alkaline phosphatase, ATPase of chick intestinal brush borders.¹⁶⁰ The mechanism of transcellular, as opposed to transmembrane, transport may involve the Golgi system. The amount of calcium associated with these membrane vesicles is reduced in the intestine of rachitic rats.⁷⁶

The two forms have the following properties:

	mol wt	pI	$\text{pK}_a(\text{Ca}^{2+})$	$n(\text{Ca}^{2+})$	α -Helix (%)
Chick gut	28,000	4.2	6.3	4	~30
Bovine gut	9,700	4.7	~6.5	2	~30

As discussed in Section III.C, the binding of two Ca^{2+} ions by bovine gut ICBP is particularly interesting since one of the two putative calcium-binding loops has a three-residue insertion and might not be expected to bind Ca^{2+} . Moffat et al.¹⁶⁴ reported the crystal unit cell (P2₁2₁2) ($56.3 \times 43.0 \times 29.4 \text{ \AA}$) of bovine gut ICBP; hopefully the structure will soon be solved.

III. STRUCTURAL AND EVOLUTIONARY RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN EF-HAND PROTEINS

A. Overview

The focus of the discussion in this section is to examine the known sequences of calcium-modulated proteins with the goals of (1) gaining insights into their structures, (2) understanding their calcium affinities and selectivities, (3) understanding other functional properties, (4) suggesting additional experiments, and (5) establishing their evolutionary relationships.

Hopefully the crystal structures of bovine ICBP,¹⁶⁴ of rabbit muscle TNC,¹⁶² and of bovine brain CDR (Schatz & Kretsinger, ms. in preparation) will soon be determined. However, at this time the structure of carp parvalbumin, isotype 4.25,¹⁶³ provides the sole structural precedent for interpreting the sequence data and various chemical experiments. It consists of six regions of α -helix (A through F). There is a nonhelical N terminal region and five loops between the six α -helices. A calcium ion is coordinated by six amino acids in loop CD (between helix C and helix D); a second calcium ion is coordinated in the homologous loop EF. As seen in Figure 1, regions

CD and EF resemble a pair of right hands related by a twofold axis with the forefinger corresponding to helix E (or C), the thumb symbolizing helix F (or D), and the middle finger indicating the loop around the calcium ion. The palmar surfaces of the forefinger and thumb contribute side chains to the hydrocarbon core. Region AB resembles the EF hand; however, loop AB does not bind calcium and has apparently suffered a three-amino acid deletion. Kretsinger¹²⁷ postulated that parvalbumin evolved by gene triplication and splicing.

Collins et al.⁴³ recognized four EF-hand homolog regions in TNC, and Weeds and McLachlan²⁵¹ and Tufty and Kretsinger²³⁷ recognized four EF hands in ELC L1. Kretsinger and Barry¹²⁹ presented a model for TNC consisting of two pairs of EF hands, each pair as found in parvalbumin. The two pairs share a common twofold axis and are related to one another by two twofold axes, thereby generating point group symmetry 222. The sequences are discussed in terms of these four, three, and two EF-hand models.

B. Sequences

Tables 2 and 3 list the available sequences of calcium-modulated proteins. I advocate the following numbering and alignment scheme because it makes optimal use of available structural and evolutionary information. Each homology domain, or EF-hand-containing region, consists of 31 residues numbered 00 through 30; the hands themselves are numbered 1 through 4. For example, the fourth hand residues are numbered 400 through 430. Within a hand, deletions are indicated by “—” and inserted residues by “⁺”; for instance, Leu₁₀₀₊ in cardiac TNC. The one-letter code is A Ala, B Asx, C Cys, D Asp, E Glu, F Phe, G Gly, H His, I Ile, K Lys, L Leu, M Met, N Asn, P Pro, Q Gln, R Arg, S Ser, T Thr, V Val, W Trp, Y Tyr, Z Glx.

The (inferred) hydrophobic or inner aspects of helix E (residues 02, 05, 06, and 09) and of helix F (22, 25, 26, and 29) are under column headings “n”. The (inferred) calcium ligands can be assigned to the vertices of an octahedron — X(10), Y(12), Z(14), —Y(16), —X(18), —Z(21).

For example, domain three of bovine brain CDR (referred to as domain CDR bovine brain 3; see Table 3) is comprised of residues 83 through 113, in absolute numbering. Helix E-3 has I₃₀₂, A₃₀₅, F₃₀₆, and F₃₀₉ on the inside (domain numbering); helix F-3 has L₃₂₂, V₃₂₅, M₃₂₆, and L₃₂₉ designated as “n”. Calcium ligands are provided by side chains of D₃₁₀, D₃₁₂, N₃₁₄, S₃₁₈, and E₃₂₁ at octahedral vertices X, Y, Z, —X, and —Z, respectively.

The interdomain loops vary in length and should be considered with respect to both the preceding and following hand. For instance, in cardiac TNC (bovine heart) the residues Lys·Asp·Asp·Ser·Lys·Gly·Lys·Ser·Glu can be numbered 231 through 239 if they are being considered relative to hand 2 or they can be numbered 291 through 299 relative to hand 3. The C terminal residues count up from 430 and the N terminal down from 99. In order to facilitate reference to other publications, the absolute number of each residue is indicated at both ends of each line.

Ser₀₈₈ of the various RLCs can be phosphorylated. Residue 396 (= 332) of CDR is trimethyllysine. The N termini of these proteins are blocked, where determined, by acetyl groups. The sole exception is coelacanth 4.52 MCBP, whose N terminal Ala is unblocked.⁵⁶ The generation of nodal sequences, those inferred to exist in evolutionary precursors, is discussed in Section III.G.

The N terminal sequences that exceed the table length are 14 RLC Rabb Skel ,PKKAKRRRAAEG₁₂; 13 RLC Chick Skel ,PKKAKRRRAAEG₁₁; and 3 ELC Rabb Skel (A1) ,PKKNVKKPAAAAAPAPKAPAPAPAPAPAPKEEKID₃₅. The sequence of ELC Rabb Skel A4 is identical to that of A1 except that its N terminus is 41 residues

Table 2

[illegible]

AMINO ACID SEQUENCES OF PARVALBUMINS

[illegible]

[illegible]

AMINO ACID SEQUENCES OF OTHER EF-HAND DOMAIN PROTEINS

[illegible]

1 ICBP pig gut
2 ICBP bov gut
3 ELC rabb skel
4 CDR bov brain

Table 3 (continued)

	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4																					
	0																																											
5 CDR rat testis	Q	N	P	T	(Z	A	Z	L	Z	B)	M	I	D	E	V	B	B	B	G	A	G	T	I	D	F	F	P	E	F	L	T	M	M	A	R	K	M	K	D	T	D			
6 TNC bov heart	Q	N	P	T	P	E	E	L	Q	E	M	I	D	E	V	D	E	D	G	S	G	T	V	D	F	D	E	F	F	L	V	M	M	V	R	C	M	K	D	S				
7 TNC frog skel	Q	T	P	T	K	E	E	L	D	A	I	I	E	E	V	D	E	D	G	S	G	T	I	D	F	E	E	F	L	V	M	M	V	R	Q	M	K	Q	D	A				
8 TNC chick skel	Q	N	P	T	K	E	E	L	D	A	I	I	E	E	V	D	E	D	G	S	G	T	I	D	F	E	E	F	L	V	M	M	V	R	Q	M	K	E	D	A				
9 TNC human skel	Q	T	P	T	K	E	E	L	D	A	I	I	E	E	V	D	E	D	G	S	G	T	I	D	F	E	E	F	L	V	M	M	V	R	Q	M	K	E	D	A				
10 TNC rabb skel	Q	T	P	T	K	E	E	L	D	A	I	I	E	E	V	D	E	D	G	S	G	T	I	D	F	E	E	F	L	V	M	M	V	R	Q	M	K	E	D	A				
11 RLC scallop	R	L	N	V	K	N	E	E	L	D	A	M	I	-	-	-	K	E	A	S	G	P	I	N	F	T	V	F	L	-	-	-	S	D	-	-	K	L	S					
13 RLC chick skel	R	L	N	V	K	N	E	E	L	D	A	M	I	-	-	-	K	E	A	S	G	P	I	N	F	T	V	F	L	-	-	-	S	D	-	-	K	L	S					
14 RLC rabb skel	R	L	N	V	K	N	E	E	L	D	A	M	I	-	-	-	K	E	A	S	G	P	I	N	F	T	V	F	L	-	-	-	S	D	-	-	K	L	S					
Node ELC-CDR-TNC	Q	N	T	P	T	4	A	E	V	K	4	V	L	4	P	S	D	E	Q	M	N	A	K	I	E	F	E	Q	F	L	3	M	L	3	A	4	S	N	N	3	D			
Node RLC	N	V	K	N	E	D	T	A	M	3	-	-	-	-	K	E	A	S	G	P	I	N	F	T	V	F	L	-	-	-	S	D	-	-	K	L	S							
	R	T	P	D	D	K	E	L	T	A	M	3	-	-	-	K	E	A	S	G	P	I	N	F	T	V	F	L	-	-	-	S	D	-	-	K	L	S						
	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4		
	0																																											
3 ELC rabb skel	K	D	Q	G	T	Y	E	E	D	-	F	V	E	G	L	R	R	V	F	D	K	E	D	G	T	V	G	M	G	A	E	L	R	H	V	L	A	T	L	G	E	K	M	
4 CDR bov brain	T	D	-	-	-	S	E	E	E	I	R	E	A	F	R	V	F	D	K	D	G	N	G	Y	I	S	A	A	E	L	R	H	V	M	T	N	L	G	E	K	L			
5 TNC rat testis	T	D	-	-	-	S	E	E	E	I	R	E	A	F	R	V	F	D	K	D	G	N	G	Y	I	S	A	A	E	L	R	H	V	M	T	N	L	G	E	K	L			
6 TNC bov heart	D	S	K	G	K	S	E	E	E</																																			

AMINO ACID SEQUENCES OF OTHER EF-HAND DOMAIN PROTEINS

3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1 2 3
 0
 S - G T D S E E T I R N A F A M F D E Q E N K K L N I E Y I K D L L E D M G N N F₁₁₇
 K - G A D P E D V I M G A F K V L D P D G K G S I K K S F L E E L L T T Q C D K F₁₂₇
 K - G A D P E D V I T G A F K V L D P E G K G T I K K Q F L E E L L T T Q C D R F₁₃₉
 15 RLC bow heart ? L T T Q A E R F
 S E E - 3 4 E 4 L R V F D K 3 3 3 T V G 3 G A E L R H V L 4 3 L G E K 3
 K A D V G K V L P G K G I K K F L E E T T Q C D
 S - G T D 3 E E T I 3 N A F A M F D E 3 E N K 3 L N I 3 Y I K D L L E D M G N 3 E
 5 6 7 8 9 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1 2 3 4 5
 0
 E K M K E E E V E A L M - A G Q E D S N G C I N Y E A F V K H I M S I₁₀₈
 E K L T D E E V D E M I R E A N I D G D G E V N Y E E F V Q M M T A K₁₄₈
 E K L T D E E V D E M I R E A N I (B G B G Z) V D Y Z Z F V E M M T A K₁₄₈
 E T I T E D D I E E L M K D G D K N N D G R I D Y D E F L E F M K G V E₁₆₀
 E S I T D E E I E E L M K D S D K N N D G R I D F D E F L K M M E G V Q₁₆₂
 E H V T D E E I E S L M K D S D K N N D G R I D F D E F L K M M E G V Q₁₆₂
 E H V T D E E I E S L M K D S D K N N D G R I D F D E F L K M M E G V Q₁₆₂
 E H V T D E E I E S L M K D S D K N N D G R I D F D E F L K M M E G V Q₁₆₂
 N F N K P D E E I E S L M K D S D K N N D G R I D F D E F L K M M E G V Q₁₆₂
 D R F T P D E E I E S L M K D S D K N N D G R I D F D E F L K M M E G V Q₁₆₂
 D R F S Q E E I E S L M K D S D K N N D G R I D F D E F L K M M E G V Q₁₆₂
 E R F S T E E I D Q M F A A F P P D V T G N L D Y K ?
 T D E
 E K 3 K E E E V E A L M 3 3 G 3 3 D 3 N G 3 I N Y E A F V K H I 4 3 3 -
 D E I K N W A A P D V N V K N I C Y V T H K
 N 3 F 3 3 D E M R - M T F K F A P V P G G K F D Y V K F T A M I K - G 3 3 E D E 3
 Node ELC-CDR-TNC
 Node RLC
 3 ELC rabb skel
 4 CDR bow brain
 5 CDR rat testis
 6 TNC bow heart
 7 TNC frog skel
 8 TNC chick skel
 9 TNC human skel
 10 TNC rabb skel
 11 RLC scallop
 13 RLC chick skel
 14 RLC rabb skel
 15 RLC bow heart
 Node ELC-CDR-TNC
 Node RLC

shorter and its first eight residues — Ser Phe Ser Ala Asp Gln Ilu Ala — have five changes (underlined) relative to A1. In a few instances, private communications have indicated amide assignments or the correct sequence of residues reported only as compositions.

C. Structural Interpretations

1. Parvalbumins

The main chains of the various parvalbumins are assumed to be almost isostructural with that of carp 4.25 (Figure 1). Table 4 summarizes its structural characteristics with emphasis on the anticipated effects of alternate sequences. The conclusions of such an examination are summarized and several experiments suggested.

Of the 109 positions, 24 are invariant (Table 6). The side chains of three of these amino acids are exposed to the solvent. Ten are associated with the hydrophobic core of the molecule or have little access to the solvent. I see no reason for the invariance of the surface residues, nor why nine of the core invariants could not have another hydrophobic side chain. Ala₂₀₅ could not be larger without unacceptable van der Waals contacts. Eight invariants are calcium ligands. As discussed in Section III.D, I do not understand why Asp and Glu cannot be replaced by Asn and Gln. The presence of Gly₄₁₈ at X permits H₂O to coordinate the Ca²⁺ ion; however, Ala is small enough to permit H₂O access. The invariance and unique H-bonding network of the buried Arg₃₉₅-Glu₄₀₁ pair suggest their essential, but not understood, role.

Seventeen positions are designated conservative in that only two different residues have been observed at that particular position. The replacement of Ser₃₁₄ at Z by Glu (cod) will force a conformational change in the main chain and brings a fifth carboxylate into the coordination sphere. This situation is unique among all calcium-modulated proteins. In four of the eight conservative positions of the core, the alternate amino acid occurs in only one sequence. Several pairs differ by three carbon atoms in volume and surely induce a slight rearrangement of core packing. Residue 409 could not be larger than Ala without forcing a significant change in the main chain. At 317 the two Ilu residues (317 and 417) pack together and fix their respective loops to the core. In three of the eight conservative positions on the surface, the second amino acid occurs only once. Gly₃₁₅, as well as Gly₄₁₅, is oriented ($\phi \approx 95^\circ$, $\psi \approx 10^\circ$) so that any alternate amino acid would force some change. The deletion in ray of 210 and 214 will shorten the loop which covers the Arg₃₉₅-Gly₄₀₁ H bond. For the other six conservative surface positions, I see no functional reason for their conservation. It is difficult to estimate whether these 13 invariant and 16 conserved positions (exclusive of Ca²⁺ ligands and 395—401) have special functional significance or whether they represent sampling statistics.

Ten core positions are variable; however, nearly all of the variation is confined to hydrophobic amino acids plus Ala and Gly. There will be some compensatory side chain movements associated with these substitutions. Fifty-eight surface residues are designated variable. Substitutions for Gly₄₁₅, as for Gly₃₁₅, will necessitate some change in ϕ and ψ angles. Four of these surface variable positions (196, 308, 324, and 416) are solely hydrophobic; I see no reason for this.

Five substitutions must cause changes in the main chain conformation relative to that of carp MCBP. Any substitute (e.g., Asp₃₁₅ [hake], Asp₄₁₅ [coel 5.4], and His₄₁₅ [ray]) for Gly₃₁₅ and Gly₄₁₅ will change the Ca²⁺-binding loops. The side chain of Gly₃₁₄ (cod) is too large to fit into the space for the Z ligand. The 210 and 214 deletion (ray) in loop AB must make the Arg₃₉₅-Gly₄₀₁ bond more exposed.

There is space for the extended C terminus of cod in either helical or nonhelical

Table 4
STRUCTURAL INTERPRETATIONS OF PARVALBUMIN SEQUENCES

	Domain 2 (AB)	Domain 3 (CD)	Domain 4 (EF)
31	Surface, variable; Gly-Lys-Ala-Ser parallelism	Surface, variable; $\phi -35^\circ$, Pro OK, nonhelical	Only cod has ⁴³⁰ GAKG ₄₃₃ ; room for extended F helix
30	Surface, variable; Lys-Ala-Ser parallelism	Surface, variable; last residue of α -helix	
29 n	Core; only Met of chub	Core; Phe invariant	Does F helix continue?
28	Surface; Gly, $\phi = 54$, $\psi = 53$, why invariant? The terminus of helix D has an unusual distortion	Surface, variable; Cys (ray) exposed	Surface, variable
27	Core; Cys (whiting) should not react	Surface, variable	Surface, variable
26 n	Surface; Leu and Met (α), Ala(ray), Lys (β), cf. 204	Core, Leu invariant	Core; Ala (ray) -2 volume
25 n	Surface; variable	Core Ile and Val (α); Phe (β)	Core; only Met of hake
24	Core; Phe ₂₀₈ ring must move for -OH of cod	Surface; why hydrophobic except Asn (ray)?	Surface, variable
23	Deletion placed here for optimal alignment	Surface, variable	Surface, variable
22 n	Core; Phe invariant	Core; Leu invariant	Core; Trp (whiting) unique spectroscopic probe
21 -Z	Surface; variable; loop 2 not Ca ²⁺	Glu (invariant) length required to Ca ²⁺	Glu (invariant) length required to Ca ²⁺
20	Surface; variable	Surface; only Asp or Glu? Parallelism	Surface; only Glu or Asp? Not near Ca ²⁺
19	Surface; His = Tyr (unique in frog and whitt); parallelism	Surface; hydrophilic except Val (ray)	Surface; why hydrophobic?
18 -X	Surface; variable	Glu invariant; Asp long enough?	Gly invariant; room for Ala; H ₂ O-Ca ²⁺ critical?
17 I	Core; Phe (invariant)	Core; critical for loop Val (hake) only change	Core; critical for loop stabilization? Never Leu, Met, Val?
16	Deletion	Tyr (ray and coel. 5.4) spectroscopic probe for EF Ca ²⁺ ; surface; parallelism	Surface; Met (pike 4.1) unique, Met ₄₂₈ (pike 4.1) core
15 G	Deletion	Surface; $\phi 96^\circ$, $\psi 10^\circ$; Asp (hake) change main chain?	surface; $\phi 95^\circ$, $\psi 14^\circ$; His (ray) and Asp (coel 5.4) change main chain?
14 Z	Surface, Ser H-bond donor in modified β -bend covering invariant Arg ₃₃₄ -Glu ₄₀₁ internal H bond; see ray 210 deletion	Glu (cod) side chain too long for Ca ²⁺ coordination, change main chain? Fifth CO ₂	Asp invariant
13	Surface, variable; Gly cannot H-bond with Thr ₃₃₇ over Arg ₃₃₄ as does Asp ₂₁₃ in carp MCBP	Surface; $\phi 65^\circ$, $\psi 18^\circ$	Surface; $\phi 47^\circ$, $\psi 59^\circ$ allowed region; cf. 313; why Gly invariant?
12 Y	Surface; variable	Asp invariant	Asp invariant
11	Surface; variable	Surface, variable	Surface, variable
10 X	Surface, variable; ray deletions 210 and 214, shortening the loop over the Arg ₃₃₄ -Glu ₄₀₁ H bond, and exposing it	H bond from Gly ₃₁₈ precludes Asn	H bond from Gly ₄₁₈ precludes Asn

Table 4 (continued)
STRUCTURAL INTERPRETATIONS OF PARVALBUMIN SEQUENCES

	Domain 2 (AB)	Domain 3 (CD)	Domain 4 (EF)
9 n	Cys in carp two sites of Hg binding; Phe (rabbit and coel 5.4) pack near Phe ₂₂₂ and Phe ₂₁₇ of core or swing to surface?	Core; Ala (cod) smaller	Core; Gly except Ala pike 5.0) OK, any larger group contacts Leu ₄₂₅
8	Surface, variable	Surface; hydrophobic cavity for N terminus (193)?	Surface Ala except Asp; Asp (pike 4.1)
7	Surface, variable	Surface, variable	Surface; Lys-Ala parallelism
6 n	Core; Glu (cod) turn out to solvent, Leu ₃₃₄ compensate by replacing Ala ₃₃₄	Partial core; why Phe invariant?	Partial core, variable
5 n	Partial core; invariant Ala; Val too large	Core	Core
4	Surface; Lys (α and ray), Ala (β), cf. 226	Surface, variable; Lys-Glu parallelism	Surface, variable; Ala-Thr parallelism
3	Surface; parallelism, Asp-Lys-Thr	Surface, variable	Surface, variable; Ser-Lys parallelism
2 n	Partial core	Core; Ala (frog) smaller	Partial core; why Thr invariant?
1	Surface; H bond from Lys ₂₂₀ which is variable; why Asp invariant?	Surface; Asp-Glu parallelism	Internal; Glu invariance predicted in all MCBPs, unique H bonds to Arg ₃₃₄
0	Surface, variable	Surface, variable	Surface, variable; Asp-Glu parallelism
199	Surface, variable; ϕ -49°, Pro (ray) OK	Surface, variable; ϕ -43°, Pro (carp 4.4) OK	Surface, variable
98	Surface, variable; Asn-Lys-Ala-Ser parallelism	Surface, variable; ϕ -87°, Pro (coel 5.4) OK	Surface, variable; Ser-Thr parallelism; H bond donor to Asp ₂₀₃ (not Gly ₂₀₃ ?)
97	Core; Leu, Val (frog)	Surface, variable; only Met (of pike 5.0)	Core; invariant Leu
96	Surface, hydrophobic; Ilu-Leu parallelism	Surface, variable; Gly-Lys-Ala-Ser parallelism	Surface, variable
95	Surface, variable; carp Gly, ϕ -137°, ψ 30°, allowed region		Internal; Arg invariance predicted in all MCBPs, unique H bonds to Glu ₄₀₁
94	Partial surface, variable; the four N-terminal residues of carp (AcAsp, Phe, Ala, Gly ₁₉₈) cannot be assigned with certainty in the electron density		Internal; Leu (cod) compensatory change, Glu ₂₀₆ turn Outward, freeing usual Leu ₂₀₆ volume
93	Consistent hydrophobic suggests that it points inward and is part of the core		Surface, variable
92	The variable length and sequence of the N terminus suggest that the main chain turns outward and the side chain of 193 points inward		Surface, variable; ϕ -35°, Pro OK, nonhelical

conformation. The position of the extended N terminus cannot be predicted, but there is no suggestion that the main chain of the remainder of the molecule is altered.

There are 95 side chain carbon atoms in the hydrophobic core of the carp structure. In addition, there are 22 nonhydrogen atoms on side chains contributing to the core. Several differences in sequence involve changes in core volume equivalent to several atoms. Except for two instances noted below, I cannot identify specific pairs of compensatory changes in sequence. However, even with all of these changes, the total core volume remains remarkably constant ranging from 116 (whiting) to 120 (hake) and an average of 117.6 ± 0.5 nonhydrogen atoms.

At internal position 394, Leu of cod replaces Ala or Gly; the Leu, Ilu, or Val of core position 206 would prevent the Leu₃₉₄ from fitting in. However, 206 in cod is unique; its Glu certainly turns outward, thereby making room for Leu₃₉₄. The other apparent compensatory change involves positions 204 Lys, α -group (as defined by the cladogram, Figure 2) and ray, Ala elsewhere and 226 hydrophobic, α -group and ray, and Lys elsewhere. In the carp structure, Lys₂₂₆ is H-bonded to the unexplained invariant Asp₂₀₁. Lys₂₀₄ is in a position to bond to Asp₂₀₁; both Lys residues are never present in the same molecule. This Lys₂₂₆ or Lys₂₀₄ couple suggests that ray may belong in the α -group.

There are 13 examples of "parallel" evolution (P in Table 6); that is, one can infer from the cladogram that the mutation $A \rightarrow B$ occurred twice or that $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow A$ occurred (Section III.G). Although one anticipates from statistics that this will occur occasionally, this frequency implies some selection. In none of these instances do I see a ready explanation.

2. Others

The four-domain model proposed for TNC¹²⁹ should also apply to CDR, and, with modification for insertions and deletions, to the various myosin light chains. Certainly CDR consists of four EF-hand domains. All of the sequence, physical, chemical, and evolutionary data are consistent with our postulate that the four hands occur as two pairs, 1-2 and 3-4, in a conformation similar to that of pair 3-4 in parvalbumin. Less well established is the relationship of pair 1-2 to pair 3-4. We suggested that the twofold axes of both pairs are colinear and that the hydrophobic cores of both pack together with Ca²⁺ ions one and two on the opposite side of the molecule from ions three and four. Table 5 summarizes the amino acid sequences of these proteins in terms of the proposed structure. This discussion focuses on the validity of the model; details of calcium coordination are discussed in Section III.D.

As is often the case with globular proteins, the termini of the α -helices of carp parvalbumin are noncanonical in both ϕ , ψ angles and in hydrogen bonding pattern. The first and last residues are best considered to be:

Helix E3: Ala₃₉₉-Ilu₃₀₉
Helix E4: Asp₃₀₉-Gly₄₀₉

Helix F3: Glu₃₁₉-Phe₃₂₉
Helix F4: Val₄₁₉-Ala₄₂₉

The C termini of helices E and the N termini of helices F are fixed by the geometries of the Ca loops; however, the other two termini are expected to vary in the different molecules.

The non-MCBP sequences are generally consistent with the postulate of a helix F. It is difficult to assign the C termini of helix F4 for the RLC; the amino acid compositions suggest residues 429 to 435, the C terminus of the molecule, to be nonhelical. Position 423 is predicted to be on the surface; yet in ELC, CDR, and TNC, it is Val or Leu, and position 223 is Leu, except Gln in ICBP. Helix F3 appears canonical regardless of whether loop 3 binds calcium. Whereas in MCBP position 329 is invariant

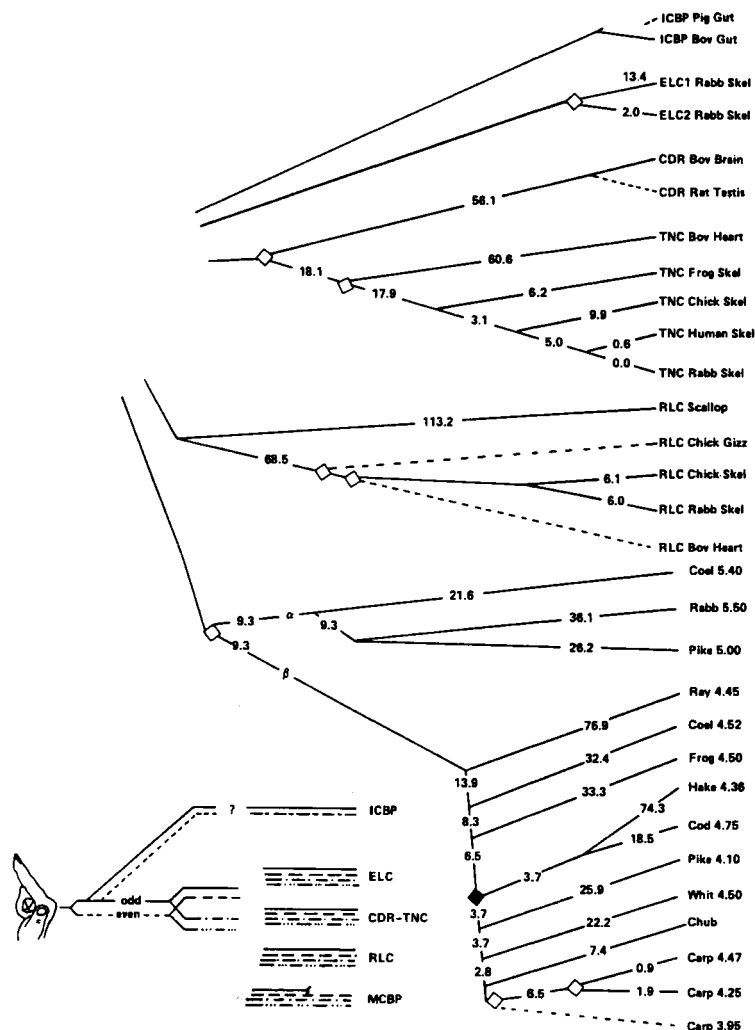


FIGURE 2. Evolution of EF hand domain proteins. The distances, expressed as nucleotide replacements per 10¹⁰ codon years, were calculated by M. Goodman. Dashed lines are my additions. Within the five groups, the calculated cladogram probably represents the phylogeny. I suggest that four families evolved by a pair of gene duplications with MCBP subsequently deleting domain 1. ICBP may have evolved from the original "odd-even" pair or from the four-domain precursor with a subsequent deletion of domains 1 and 2 or of domains 3 and 4.

Phe, in the other proteins 329 has various hydrophilic residues. In contrast, 129 is conserved Leu or Met. Helix F2 is distorted in the non-calcium-binding domains, by Pro₂₂₄ in ELC and by deletions in the RLCs. Helix F1 appears canonical except for the three residue insertion at the terminus, about 128, of ICBP.

The calcium-binding loops having deletions (RLC-loop 2), insertions (TNC card loop 1 and ELC loop 2), or substitution (RLC Tyr Phe₃₂₁, RLC Pro₂₁₆, RLC scal Pro₂₁₄, RLC skel Pro₄₁₀) appear not to bind calcium. Loop 1 of ICBP has a two-residue insertion and has lost a ligand (Ala₁₁₀ at X); yet, Levine et al.¹⁴⁵ reported two Ca²⁺-binding sites on ICBP. The noncalcium-binding loops retain a hydrophobic group at position 17; it supposedly attaches the loop to the core of the molecule. At position 15 Gly occurs in all of the Ca²⁺ loops and in most of the nonbinding loops. Oddly, in

Table 5
STRUCTURAL INTERPRETATIONS OF THE SEQUENCES OF OTHER EF-
HAND PROTEINS

	Domain 1	Domain 2	Domain 3	Domain 4
31		C terminus ICBP hydrophilic; Leu, RLC; hydrophilic other loops 2—3		C termini of RLCs extend beyond "helix F" as does cod MCBP; not α -helix
30		Met in TNC and CDR might point inward		Surface, variable; cf. Met ₁₃₀
29 n	Hydrophobic; inside helix; ICBP inseption change helix and loop?	Surface, variable; only Ilu ICBP inside	Leu ELC and CDR inside of helix? Others nonhelical?	Val TNC inside of helix?
28	Surface, variable; why? Met TNC	Surface, variable	Surface, variable	Surface, variable; deletion RLC scal stop helix?
27	Surface, variable	Surface, variable	Surface, variable	Surface, variable
26 n	Core, hydrophobic; except Ser RLC scal	Core, hydrophobic	Core, hydrophobic	Core, hydrophobic
25 n	Core, hydrophobic; the RLC skel exposed	Core, hydrophobic; helix RLC scal deleted	Core, hydrophobic	Core, hydrophobic; except His ELC, buried?
24	Surface, variable	Surface; Thr Val parallelism; Pro ELC distort helix	His ELC and CDR exposed surface, variable	Tyr RLC skel exposed surface, variable
23	Surface, variable	Leu conserved except Gln ICBP; part of core with N terminus helix E1	Surface, variable	Surface? Val Leu CDR ELC and TNC; test Cys RLC skel
22 n	Core, hydrophobic	Phe invariant; also Phe MCBP	Core, hydrophobic, Leu conserved	Core, hydrophobic; Phe conserved
21 -Z	Glu-Ca ²⁺ , ICBP, CDR, TNC; Asp-Ca ²⁺ RLC	Glu-Ca ²⁺ ; Gln ELC, no Ca ²⁺	Glu-Ca ²⁺ ; others Phe or Tyr RLC scal buried	Glu-Ca ²⁺ ; variable others
20	Surface, variable	Surface variable; Pro CDR OK, $\phi = -47^\circ$	Surface, variable	Surface, Asp or Glu in Ca loop; others vary
19	Surface, variable; as in MCBP, odd hydrophilic, even hydrophobic	Surface, why invariant Phe?	Surface, variable	Surface, why Tyr, Phe? Why hydrophobic?
18 -X	Only use of Thr CDR as ligand	Glu ELC not Ca ligand	Lys RLC, Met ELC not ligands	Asp even in RLC
17 I	Core; Ilu, Val, Leu; crucial loop stabilization	Core; Ilu, Val, Leu; as in MCBP only Ilu Val Ca binding	Core; Ilu, Leu; Gly ELC change loop?	Core; Ilu, Val, Leu, Phe
16	Surface, variable; insertion ICBP	Pro must change RLC loop; $\phi -143^\circ$ $\psi -134^\circ$; Lys insertion ELC	Surface, variable; Phe and Tyr monitor Ca 4	Surface, variable
15 G	Ser ELC non-Ca loop?	Ala ELC non-Ca loop?	Thr ELC, Lys RLCscal non-Ca loop?	Gly invariant $\phi \approx 95^\circ$, $\psi \approx 15^\circ$
14 Z	Gly TNC skel, H ₂ O ligand Ca?	Pro RLC scal change loop; $\phi -113^\circ$; Ala CDR rat?	Lys and Asn RLC non-Ca	Gly and Ala RLC non-Ca
13	Surface, variable; Gly or Arg if Ca loop	Surface, variable; Gly if Ca loop	Surface, variable; Gly or Ala Ca loop	Pro RLC scal change loop; $\phi 65^\circ$; Gly or Asn Ca loop

Table 5 (continued)
STRUCTURAL INTERPRETATIONS OF THE SEQUENCES OF OTHER EF-
HAND PROTEINS

	Domain 1	Domain 2	Domain 3	Domain 4
12 Y	Ala TNC card not Ca ligand	Surface, variable non-Ca loops	Surface, variable non-Ca loops	Asp in non-Ca loops
11	Surface, variable; Leu TNC card insert, change loop	Surface, variable	Pro RLC skel OK; ϕ -45°	Pro RLC OK; ϕ -40°
10 X	Val TNC card and Ala ICBP not Ca ligand	Asp all except RLC deletion (alter loop and helix E-2)	Asp invariant even non-Ca loop; stop helix?	Pro RLC vert stop helix; ϕ -100°
9 n	Core, hydrophobic; Tyr ELC and ICBP spectroscopic probe	Core; Ser ELC buried? Deletion RLC	Core, hydrophobic	Core, cf. MCBP, Gly near Leu ₄₁₃ ; Phe RLC alter packing
8	Surface, why hydrophobic? cf. 308 and 308 MCBP	Pro and Asn (insert) break helix ELC	Surface, why hydrophobic? cf. 108 and 308 MCBP	Surface, variable
7	Surface, variable	Surface, variable	Surface, variable; why Arg conserved?	Surface, variable; deletion ELC distort helix and loop
6 n	Partial core; Phe invariant; cf. 306 and 306 MCBP	Partial core, hydrophobic	Partial core, why Phe conserved?	Partial core, hydrophobics; Thr buried? Trp RLC-skel spect. probe RLC scal
5 n	Core; Ala, except Ilu ICBP; cf. 305	Core, hydrophobic	Core, frequent Ala as in MCBP 305	Core; Leu, Met parallelism
4	Surface, variable	Surface, variable	Surface, variable	Surface, variable; deletion RLC scal make 3 ₁₀ helix?
3	Surface, why Lys invariant? cf. MCBP 303 and 304 Lys frequent	Surface, variable	Surface, variable	Surface, variable
2 n	Core, hydrophobic	Core, Leu except Val ELC	Core, hydrophobics	Core, hydrophobics
1	Surface, Glu invariant; cf. 01 others	Glu invariant, except deletion ICBP	Val, Thr ELC alter helix beginning? Deletion ELC affect loop 2 \rightarrow 3	Surface, Glu or Asp
0	Surface, variable	Surface, variable	Surface; Glu, Asp parallelism	Surface; Glu, Asp parallelism
099	Surface, variable, Ilu still in helix, buried?	Surface, variable, Pro CDR cf. ICBP 099 and RLC chick 399	Surface; invariant? Why Glu	Surface, variable; Pro RLC chick isos-structural?
98	Surface, variable	Surface, variable, Pro ICBP cf. 298 RLC skel	Surface, variable; Tyr spectroscopic probe	Surface, variable
97	Hydrophilic; begin nonhelical N terminus?	Pro buried?	Hydrophilic; deletion of three CDR, shorten loop 2 \rightarrow 3	Hydrophobic, buried?
96	The N termini preceding helices E-1 have primarily hydrophilic residue, are probably not helical and cannot be located on the model	Hydrophilic, variable	Hydrophilic, variable	Hydrophilic; Hls RLC and trimethyllysine CDR spectroscopic probe of loop 3 \rightarrow 4

Table 5 (continued)
STRUCTURAL INTERPRETATIONS OF THE SEQUENCES OF OTHER EF-
HAND PROTEINS

	Domain 1	Domain 2	Domain 3	Domain 4
95		Hydrophilic; Leu RLC skel insert alter loop 1 → 2	Hydrophilic, variable	Hydrophilic, variable
94	Hydrophobics, ex- cept Ser ICBP; buried?	Gly ₁₉₄ critical for loop 1 → 2? cf. 394	Hydrophilic, varia- ble; deletion RLC shorten loop 2 → 3	Gly ₃₉₄ critical for loop 3 → 4? Cys or Ala in RLC
93	Tyr, TNC human and rabb skel, spect. probe		Hydrophilic, variable	
92			Leu ₂₃₂ - 292 RLC cor- relate deletions 230 and 234	
91			Hydrophilic; Lys ex- cept Glu, Asn	
90			Met ₂₃₀ TNC, CDR buried? still in helix F-2	

3 of 28 Ca loops of parvalbumin, Gly₃₁₅ or ₄₁₅ is changed with an obligatory main chain movement. In parvalbumin, position 413 is invariant Gly, yet 313 is usually Lys. Among the nonparvalbumins, Gly₁₃ always occurs in the Ca-binding loops of domains 1 and 2 and in CDR loops 3 and 4. Yet in TNC domains 3 and 4 there is an Ala₃₁₃ and Asn₄₁₃.

Most of the residues 99 through 09 are consistent with the pattern expected from helix E of parvalbumin. Two helices have single deletions, domains RLC scal 4 and ELC 4, and one, ELC 2, a single insertion; it appears that these helices are retained. The RLCs have four residue deletions, 207 through 210, as well as deletions in their helix F2 regions. The entire domain 2 of RLC may contain no α -helix. None of the domains with insertions or deletions appears to bind calcium with the possible exception of ICBP 1. At surface positions 108 and 308 there are hydrophobic residues, as at MCBP 308, but hydrophilic ones at 208 and 408. However, in ICBP, a two-domain molecule, position 108 is Lys. Position 106 is invariant Phe and 306 all Phe, except Leu in ELC. Position 103 is invariant Lys, while 203, 303, and 403 are variable. Position 101 is invariant Glu, as is MCBP 401, and 201; 301 and 401 are frequently Glu. In parvalbumin this invariance is due to the Arg₃₉₅-Glu₄₀₁ salt bridge. These nonparvalbumin Glu's may be involved in defining the N termini of helices E.

The three loops 1 → 2, 2 → 3, and 3 → 4 connecting the four domains are the least understood parts of the model. Loops 1 → 2 and 3 → 4 are postulated to be similar, at least in TNC and CDR. Helices F1 and F3 appear to include residues 29, and helices E2 and E4 include residues 01. Although parvalbumin has ten intervening residues, the seven intervening residues of TNC and CDR provide enough length to connect helices F_{odd} to E_{even}. Hydrophobic 397 of MCBP corresponds to hydrophobic 397 of all non-MCBPs and to Pro₁₉₇ of CDR and TNC. If one assumes that the side chains of residues 397 and 197 occupy the same hydrophobic pocket between helices F_{odd} and E_{even} as does invariant Leu₃₉₇ of parvalbumin, then the three-residue deletion cuts out the β -bend at the C terminus of helices E_{even} (Lys₃₃₀-Ala-Asp₃₃₂) in the carp structure. Leu residues 129 and 339 would retain a parvalbumin-like position as would Pro₁₉₇ and hydrophobic₃₉₇. With only slight change and employing the ϕ , ψ range of Gly residues 130 and 330, the three residues, e.g., in CDR ₃₃₀-Gly, Glu, Lys₃₃₂ - 396, could

Table 6
CLASSES OF PARVALBUMIN SEQUENCE CHANGES

	Surface			Core			Ca ²⁺ and Ara-Glu	
	Variable	Conserved	Invariant	Variable	Conserved	Invariant	Conserved	Invariant
429	399	311	226	207	420	413	426	417
428	398 P	308	225	203 P	408	228	406	402
427	396	307	221	200	407 P	201	394	397
424	393	304 P	220	199	320		325	329
423	331	303	219 P	198 P	316 P		309	326
419	330	301 P	218	196 P	315 M		305	322
416	328	300	213	195	214 M		302	306
415 M	327	299	212	194	204		227	222
411	324	298	211	193			206	217
404 P	323	297	210	192			202	205
403 P	319	231 P	209					
400 P	313	230 P	208					

The lower value of 6.7 reported by Benzonana et al.⁹ is due to its being determined in the presence of 2 mM Mg^{2+} . Potter et al.¹⁹⁴ found that MCBP binds two Mg^{2+} ions with $pK_d(Mg^{2+}) = 4.0$. This implies that in the unstimulated cell MCBP binds two Mg^{2+} ions. Sowadski et al.²²⁴ found that in crystals of MCBP (2.8 M ammonium sulfate) Tb^{3+} first replaces the EF Ca^{2+} ion, which has one H_2O ligand, and then the CD Ca^{2+} ion. Various groups reported that both Ca^{2+} ions are bound with the same affinity; however, Pechère¹⁸⁶ reported that in the absence of Mg^{2+} there are two values of $pK_d(Ca^{2+})$, 8.3 and 6.7. Moews and Kretsinger¹⁶³ observed that the CD and the EF calcium-binding loops are connected by a hydrogen bond in a short stretch of antiparallel β -pleated sheet and that the CD and the EF hands are intimately opposed. This would seem an ideal structure for intramolecular cooperativity of Ca^{2+} binding. Benzonana et al.⁹ and Pechère¹⁸⁶ felt their data might indicate slight cooperativity; however, Potter et al.¹⁹⁴ found none in their equilibrium dialysis studies. ^{13}C NMR studies¹⁷⁸ indicate that a one- Ca^{2+} ion form is present at levels higher than anticipated if Ca^{2+} binding were cooperative.

Intestinal calcium-binding protein (ICBP) from pig,⁵⁹ cow,^{77,145} and rat²⁶ appear to bind two Ca^{2+} ions. This is particularly surprising since the loop of hand 1 has a two-residue insertion and has Ala at the X vertex. Chick ICBP with mol wt 27,000 binds four Ca^{2+} ions¹⁸ and might be anticipated to be a four-hand homolog.

Most recent observations of TNC are consistent with the conclusions of Potter and Gergely¹⁹² that skeletal TNC has two high-affinity sites $pK_d(Ca^{2+})$ 7.3, which also bind Mg^{2+} , pK_d 3.7, and two low-affinity sites $pK_d(Ca^{2+})$ 5.3, which do not bind Mg^{2+} . In whole troponin, these Ca^{2+} affinities increase to 8.7 and 6.7, respectively. Leavis et al.¹³⁶ reported that hands 3 and 4, isolated as a fragment following limited trypsin digestion, bind Ca^{2+} strongly (pK_d 7.8) and with positive cooperativity. Various other experiments support the interpretation that the high-affinity sites are in hands 3 and 4. It is generally agreed that in the resting muscle sites 1 and 2 bind no cation; however, sites 3 and 4 in whole troponin might contain either two Ca^{2+} ions or two Mg^{2+} ions.

Cardiac TNC has two high-affinity Ca^{2+} - Mg^{2+} sites in loops 3 and 4 and one lower affinity Ca^{2+} site, pK_d 4.3, in loop 2.¹⁹⁴ Loop 1 has Val and Ala at the X and Y vertices and does not bind calcium.

CDR binds four Ca^{2+} ions with a reported pK_d 5.6¹⁹⁴ or pK_d 6.0, $n = 1$ and pK_d 6.8, $n = 3$.²⁶³ Further, Wolff et al. found that all four sites bind Mg^{2+} and suggested that, in the unstimulated cell, CDR is in the four- Mg^{2+} form. One site, $pK_d(Mg^{2+})$ 4.7, may retain Mg^{2+} during cell excitation. Proteins that appear to be CDR from bovine adrenal medulla¹³³ and from *Lumbricus*²⁴⁵ have been reported to bind only two equivalents of calcium.

Calcium binding by myosin light chains is even more dependent on its association with myosin than is that of TNC upon association with TNI and TNT. In summary, it appears that the two ELC residues required for enzymic activity (e.g., alkali extractable light chains of skeletal muscle) do not bind Ca^{2+} either as isolated or as part of the myosin hexamer.

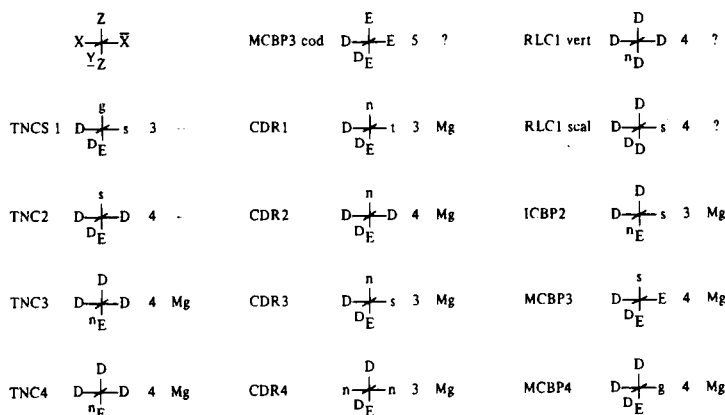
The regulatory light chains (RLC) each bind one Ca^{2+} ion when associated with the heavy chain. The DTNB-LC of chicken gizzard and the EDTA-LC of scallop striated muscle restore calcium binding to desensitized scallop myosin. The two DTNB-LCs of rabbit skeletal muscle are responsible for binding two Ca^{2+} ions in the myosin hexamer.⁶⁹

The following correlations come from an examination of these Ca^{2+} -binding characteristics in terms of the available sequence information:

1. In order to bind Ca^{2+} , a loop needs side chain oxygen atoms at five vertices —

X, Y, Z, -X, -Z. Recall a peptide oxygen coordinates at -Y. One vertex can lack a side chain ligand if Gly is at that position, thereby allowing H₂O to coordinate Ca²⁺ (Gly₄₁₈ at -X of MCBP and, by inference, Gly₁₁₄ at Z of skeletal TNC). This correlation suggests that the Ca²⁺ ion is bound in loop 1 of RLC and that loop 1 of cardiac TNC does not bind Ca²⁺. However, it would also suggest that ELC would bind two Ca²⁺ ions, whereas it binds none. Two other inconsistencies should be emphasized. The reported sequence of testis CDR is identical (save for amide assignments) to that of brain CDR, except that whereas Vanaman et al.²³⁸ reported Ala · Asp · Gly · Asn₂₁₄, Dedman et al.⁵³ found Asx · Asx · Gly · Ala₂₁₄ in testis CDR. This implies that Ala is at the Z vertex and that the loop coordination of the Ca²⁺ ion is significantly different from the MCBP EF-hand pattern. The second inconsistency is loop 1 of ICBP where Ala₁₁₀ is at the X vertex.

- In order to bind Ca²⁺, a loop cannot contain deletions, as in loop 1 of MCBP and loop 2 of RLC, or insertions, as in loop 1 of cardiac TNC and loop 2 of ELC. The sole exception appears to be loop 1 of ICBP which includes a Pro and a two-residue insertion. If loop 1 does indeed bind Ca²⁺, the coordination number and pattern may be entirely different from that observed in MCBP.



- The "established" calcium-binding loops — MCBP 3 and 4; ICBP 2; CDR 1, 2, 3, and 4; TNC skeletal 1, 2, 3, and 4; TNC cardiac 2, 3, and 4; and RLC 1 — have the following distribution of ligands. (I indicate the number of carboxylate ligands and the ability of the loop to bind Mg²⁺.) Ser occurs at only Z and -X and Thr at only -X in CDR loop 1. Thr and Ser are the shortest ligands with oxygen bonded to the β -carbon atom; they never occur twice in the same loop. Asp is always found at X, except for Asn in CDR loop 4. Glu, with oxygen bonded to the δ -carbon atom, is always found at -Z, except for Asp in RLC loop 1. MCBP has Glu at -X in loop 3 (Gly in loop 4), while the others have shorter side chains. Cod MCBP is unique, being the only Ca²⁺-modulated protein with Glu at Z; the other parvalbumins have Ser, two carbons shorter, at this position. Also, it is the only Ca²⁺-modulated protein with five liganding carboxylate groups. ICBP loop 1 contradicts the pattern of ligand distribution noted above by having Glu at Y. ELC loop 1 has Thr at Y and Gln at -Z.
- The sum of carboxylate groups in the "established" loops is usually 4 or 3. In cod MCBP there are five carboxylates. ICBP loop 2 has only three carboxylate ligands at (potential) vertices, although Glu₁₂₀ is adjacent to Glu₁₂₁ at Z. ELC loop 1, which does contain five oxygen (potential) ligands but appears not to

- bind Ca^{2+} , has only two carboxylate groups. I see no correlation between total charge and calcium Ca^{2+} affinity or selectivity.
- The total charge distribution within the loops (residues 10 through 21) for ligands and nonligands ranges from six carboxylate groups and zero Lys or Arg (TNC loop 2) and eight carboxylate groups and one Lys (cod MCBP loop 3) to three carboxylate groups and two Lys (CDR loop 1). I see no correlation between net charge of the loop and calcium affinity or selectivity.
 - All Ca^{2+} -binding loops have Ile or Val at position 17. The hydrophobic side chain appears to attach the loop to the hydrophobic core.
 - All Ca^{2+} -binding loops have Gly at position 15 except for hake MCBP Asp₃₁₅, coelacanth 5.40 MCBP Asp₄₁₅, and ray MCBP His₄₁₅. In the carp MCBP crystal structure, the ϕ , ψ values 96° , 10° of Gly₃₁₅ and 95° , 14° of Gly₄₁₅ indicate some change in loop structure associated with any substitution for Gly. Neither ELC loop 1 nor ICBP loop 1 have Gly at 15.
 - Potter et al.¹⁹⁴ suggested that the occurrence of Gly at 13 correlates with Ca^{2+} specificity, while any other residue indicates Mg^{2+} binding as well. Although their suggestion is valid for cardiac and skeletal TNC, the subsequent report of Mg^{2+} binding by CDR²⁶³ contradicts the suggestion. The available data indicate no correlation between Mg^{2+} binding and glycine at position 13.

Gly ₁₃ :	CDR-1	CDR-2	CDR-3	CDR-4	MCBP-4	ICBP-2	TNC-1	TNC-2
Mg ²⁺ :	+	+	+	+	+	?	—	—
Other ₁₃ :	RLC-1	TNC-3	TNC-4	MCBP-3				
Mg ²⁺ :	?	+	+	+				

Two interesting questions follow from their suggestion. Why are TNC-1 and TNC-2 the only loops that do not bind Mg^{2+} with $\text{pK}_a(\text{Mg}^{2+}) > 3$? What, if any, metal ions are bound to the various calcium-modulated proteins in the resting cell?

E. Functional Properties

Descriptions of crystal structures and amino acid sequences inevitably impart a static image. To the contrary, spectral studies indicate significant vibrations and oscillations within the structure. Further, all five — ICBP, MCBP, RLC, TNC, and CDR — undergo significant conformational changes upon binding calcium. As with the non-EF-hand calcium-binding proteins the calcium bound structure is more resistant to thermal denaturation and to proteolysis.

Levine et al.¹⁴⁴ followed the calcium titration of rabbit skeletal TNC by ^1H NMR spectroscopy. The conformation of apo-TNC is generally similar but not identical to that of TNC- Ca_4 . A significant change in main chain conformation accompanies the TNC- $\text{Ca}_0 \rightarrow \text{TNC-}\text{Ca}_2$ transition. Subsequent calcium binding at the low-affinity sites, domains 1 and 2, causes changes in side chain conformation. In contrast, Potter et al.¹⁹⁴ suggested that their circular dichroism measurements showed that 35% of the change in main chain conformation results from the TNC- $\text{Ca}_2 \rightarrow \text{TNC-}\text{Ca}_4$ transition. Potter et al.¹⁹³ suggested that the large entropic change (14.7 kcal/deg · mol) associated with calcium binding to the high-affinity sites, domains 3 and 4, is due to water displacement associated with α -helix formation.

Levine et al.¹⁴⁵ interpreted their ^1H NMR spectra of bovine ICBP as indicating that, even in the no- Ca^{2+} state, there is enough defined structure to perturb the Tyr resonance. The first bound Ca^{2+} ion has a slow (10/sec) on-off rate and affects the Tyr₁₀₉ signal of domain 1. I would have anticipated that domain 2 would have the stronger

calcium affinity. The second Ca^{2+} is less tightly bound and has an exchange rate $>10^2/\text{sec}$. Three Phe side chains (196, 206, and 222) and probably a fourth (129) are predicted to be buried, but not the fifth (219) and, in fact, four show increasing interactions with addition of two equivalents of Ca^{2+} .

There is yet no firm evidence that either ICBP or MCBP function by binding to other proteins. The myosin light chains probably never occur free of myosin nor TNC free of the troponin trimer — TNC, TNI, TNT. The CDR occurs free in the cytosol in the no- Ca^{2+} form and complexed with one of its targets in the four- Ca^{2+} form. All three proteins — RLC, TNC, and CDR — undergo conformational changes upon interaction with the other proteins of their respective heterooligomeric complexes.

Potter et al.¹⁹⁵ found that the binding of a spin label or a fluorescent probe to Cys₃₀₅ of rabbit skeletal TNC did not change its calcium-binding affinity. Ca^{2+} or, to a lesser extent, Mg^{2+} binding reduces the mobility of the spin label and increases the fluorescence of the probe. Both of these effects, as well as calcium affinity, are enhanced by the interaction of TNC with TNI, which binds to domain 4, and with TNT, which binds to domain 3.¹³⁶

The dynamic aspects of the parvalbumin structure were discussed in Section II.E in the context of its possible function(s). One general and very important question has been asked particularly of the parvalbumins. To what extent does the conformational stability and the calcium affinity depend on the sequence within a single EF-hand domain or a pair of hands, and to what extent on the total protein? The Arg₃₉₅ modification⁸⁷ and Cys₂₀⁸⁸ response to calcium binding support the interpretation that the entire structure is responsive to and necessary for high-affinity Ca^{2+} binding. Maximov et al.¹⁵⁷ synthesized an EF-hand domain (tabulated below)

Synthetic
MCBP 4
TNC 3
TNC 4

012345678901n34nn78nX1Y3ZG6IX90Zn34nn78n012345678901
EQTDDEIKEVLKAFDKDGGGRIDFEFVKLILGVTGEGAR
ALTDGETKTKFLKAGDSGDGDKIGVDEFTALVKA
MKEDAKGKSEEEELAEFCFRIFDRNADGYIDAEEELAEIFRASGEHVTDEEIESL
ASGEHVTDEEIESLMKDGDKNNDGRIDFDEFKMMMEGVQ

and found that it retains $^{45}\text{Ca}^{2+}$ in G-25 chromatography under conditions where domain 4 (residues 396 through 428) of carp 4.25²²¹ does not. Leavis et al.¹³⁶ found that domain 3 of rabbit skeletal TNC retains its calcium affinity (pK_d 5.4, cf. holo TNC pK_d 7.3) and its ability to interact with TNT but loses its Mg^{2+} affinity. Domain 4 also retains its calcium affinity (pK_d 4.4, cf. holo TNC pK_d 7.3) and its ability to interact with TNI. The domains 3 and 4 fragment retains full Mg^{2+} and Ca^{2+} affinity (pK_d 7.7). These results and the four sequences indicate that calcium affinity depends on both the domain sequence and the interdomain interactions.

F. Phosphorylation

There appear to be two, and only two, second messengers in most, if not all, eukaryotic cells. The known interactions between the cyclic nucleotides and the calcium systems involve, in one sense, the regulatory effect of CDR on adenylate cyclase, phosphodiesterase, and myosin light chain kinase (Section II.B). In another sense, it appears that all cAMP effects are realized via activation of cAMP-dependent protein kinase. Of particular relevance to the calcium-modulated processes, the myosin RLCs and both TNT and TNI, but not TNC, are phosphorylated. Earlier reports of phosphorylation of parvalbumin have been refuted,⁵⁵ and those of CDR-like protein phosphorylation^{22,262} have not been confirmed.

RLC from various vertebrate sources (human platelets,¹ guinea pig vas deferens,³³ rabbit white skeletal muscle,^{75,169} and pig stomach²¹⁷) can be phosphorylated at Ser₀₈₈

in the domain numbering system. Even though position 088 is also Ser in scallop RLC, it is not phosphorylated. Kendrick-Jones and Jakes¹¹⁶ suggested that the length of the N terminus is related to the suitability of Ser₀₈₈ as a light chain kinase substrate. They removed the N terminus of chicken gizzard RLC through Arg₀₈₈; "the modified light chain loses its ability to be phosphorylated." In scallop RLC, Ser₀₈₈ is the sixth residue; whereas in chick RLC, it is the 13th and in rabbit RLC the 15th (Table 3). The Ser₀₈₈ (37th residue) of ELC A1 is not phosphorylated. Ser₀₉₃ is the N terminal residue of ELC A2.

Experiments concerning the physiological significance of the vertebrate RLC phosphorylation are complicated by the existence of both CDR-activated myosin light chain kinase and by endogenous phosphatases and kinases of unknown specificity. Morgan et al.¹⁶⁹ treated the myosin of rabbit skeletal muscle with myosin light chain phosphatase (70,000 mol wt); removal of all phosphate produced no change in either basal or actin-activated myosin of HMM ATPase activity due to phosphorylation. In contrast, Chacko et al.³³ found a fivefold increase in actin-activated ATPase activity from vas deferens muscle. Small and Sobieszek²¹⁷ also found phosphorylation of myosin (RLC) necessary for actin activation of myosin. Whereas Chacko et al.³³ reported that Ca²⁺ increased the actin-activated ATPase activity of previously phosphorylated guinea pig vas deferens myosin, Small and Sobieszek²¹⁷ and Hartshorne et al.⁹⁵ found no such effect with gizzard myosin. Hartshorne et al. suggested that in smooth muscle phosphorylation is essential for activity and that calcium exerts its regulatory effect solely via phosphorylation and dephosphorylation each contraction cycle.

As extracted, vertebrate RLC is usually a mixture of the phosphorylated (called ML3) and nonphosphorylated (ML2) forms. It is not clear which form is effective in resensitizing desensitized scallop myosin, nor is it clear as to how phosphorylation of RLC Ser₀₈₈ effects skeletal or smooth muscle activity.

Both TNT and TNI are phosphorylated to varying extents as isolated from muscle. Both serve *in vitro* as substrates for cAMP-dependent protein kinase and phosphorylase kinase as well as for phosphatase. The physiological significance of this phosphorylation remains unknown. England⁶⁷ showed that in rat hearts both the force of contraction and the extent of TNI phosphorylation increase in parallel in response to perfusion with adrenaline over the range 3×10^{-8} to 3×10^{-6} M. Wilkinson and Grand²⁵⁸ recently determined the amino acid sequence of chicken fast skeletal muscle (CF) TNI and discussed the three other known TNI sequences — rabbit fast (RF), rabbit slow skeletal (RS), and rabbit cardiac (RC) — using the numbering of the longest sequence, RC. RC-TNI has 26 additional N terminal residues relative to CF, RF, and RS. Ser₂₀ of RC-TNI is phosphorylated, but position 20 is missing in CF, RF, and RS. Ser₁₄₆ is phosphorylated in RF and in RC-TNI; Ser₁₄₆ in CF and in RS-TNI is assumed to be phosphorylated as well. Ser₁₁₆ of RF-TNI is phosphorylated, but neither Thr₁₁₆ of CF nor Asn₁₁₆ of RS or RC-TNI appears to be modified. Thr₁₁₆ and Ser₄₆ can be phosphorylated in RF-TNI, and the same residues are assumed to be phosphorylated in CF and in RS-TNI. However, Ser₃₇ and Thr₄₆ of RC-TNI are not phosphorylated.

Several phosphorylation-blocking and fragment-binding studies are summarized by Wilkinson and Grand²⁵⁹ as indicating that the TNC-binding region spans residues 26 to 75 and the actin-binding region spans residues 123 to 145, i.e., up to Ser₁₄₆. Solaro et al.²²³ showed that Ser₂₀₁, which is unique to RC-TNI, is phosphorylated by cAMP protein kinase. Moir and Perry¹⁶⁶ suggested that Ser₂₀ and Ser₁₄₀ of RC-TNI are the normal sites for cAMP-dependent protein kinase. As isolated, RC-TNI has 1.9 equivalents of bound phosphate; RF-TNI has 0.5.

The significance of TNT phosphorylation is even less well understood. It has three

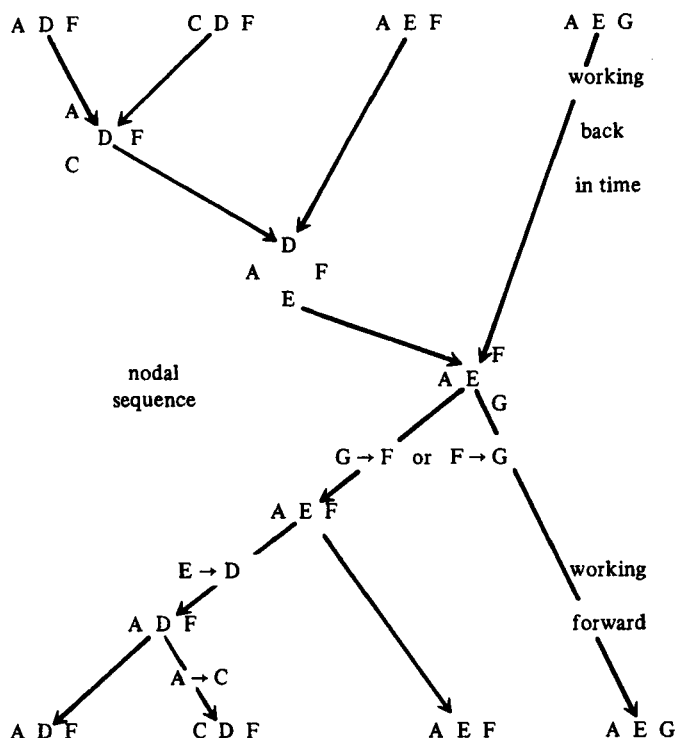
sites of potential phosphorylation — Ser₁, Ser₁₄₉, or Ser₁₅₀, and Ser₁₅₆ or Ser₁₅₇ — by phosphorylase kinase. As isolated, only Ser₁ is phosphorylated, at 60 to 70%. All three sites are protected from *in vivo* phosphorylation by TNC.¹⁶⁵

G. Cladogram and Evolutionary Implications

Figure 2 is a cladogram showing the taxonomic relationships of the sequenced EF-hand domain proteins. It is based on those published by Goodman and Pechère,⁸⁵ Pechère,¹⁸⁶ and Barker et al.⁷ I am particularly grateful to Dr. Goodman for giving me his most recent calculations and for discussing its implications with me. He bears no blame for my more speculative interpretations concerning the origin of the EF hand and its pattern of gene duplication nor for my inclusion of 2 (ICBP bov gut), 12 (RLC chick gizz), and 15 (RLC bov heart) based on their partial sequences.

The actual computational techniques are complicated and are described or cited in the above references. However, several of the underlying principles should be kept in mind when considering such models.

1. The distances on the maximum parsimony cladogram or "tree" represent the minimum number of nucleotide replacements per 100 codons required to go from one external point or node to another.
2. Deletions or insertions are scored as a single mutational event, even though one cannot assess relative frequencies or structural impacts of these events.
3. In order to infer phylogeny from the taxonomy of the proteins, one assumes that the proteins accept point mutations randomly at a constant average rate, characteristic of that protein. This appears to be the case for a family of proteins such as the cytochromes c, which serve similar functions in similar molecular environments in different organisms. This constancy of rate may obtain within the parvalbumins but certainly does not between the various EF-hand proteins. Further, the rates of accepting point mutations and deletions vary for different EF-hand domains within one protein and at different residues within one domain.
4. The distances associated with the branches of the tree, even if there is a constant rate of accepting point mutations, have large but difficult-to-calculate statistical errors associated with them. Frequently the topography of a tree is critically dependent on a short branch length with a large error.
5. The most probable nodal sequence lends additional insight into distantly related homologs, into essential structural features, and into the actual evolutionary pathway. The basic idea of minimizing the required number of mutational events and generating a nodal sequence is illustrated. These conclusions are most reliable when there are many observations and short branch lengths. Note also that the most divergent protein exerts the greatest leverage on the earliest nodal sequence. Although one cites an average rate of evolution for each protein family, in fact each amino acid position has its own characteristic rate. Some are invariant; some are subject to great and rapid variation. The nodal residues deduced at rapidly varying positions are much less reliable. As will be discussed, the degree of invariance is assumed to be related to the functional importance of a particular residue. In the nodal sequences of Tables 2 and 3, an underlined residue is invariant; a single residue is deduced as described above. Twofold ambiguities are indicated by listing both residues, higher-fold ambiguities by the symbols "3" or "4".



6. Since the nodal sequence represents a protein that existed earlier in time, it is more meaningful to compare, for instance, the nodal sequences of the parvalbumin precursor and the TNC precursor than to compare a specific parvalbumin and a specific TNC.

The cladogram is a reasonably accurate representation of the phylogeny of the parvalbumins, of the regulatory light chains (RLC), and of the TNC-CDR group. However, the evolutionary relationships among the different groups of EF-hand proteins are less certain.

Goodman (manuscript in preparation) has calculated that the rate of evolution of parvalbumins from the earliest gnathostomes to the teleost-tetrapod α and β subfamily ancestor (424 to 400×10^6 years ago) was rather high — 90 nucleotide replacements per 10^{10} codon years (NRT). From the teleost-tetrapod divergence to the present the rate is about 9 NRT. Similarly, for the RLC-ELC-TNC group, Goodman has calculated a marked slowing in the evolutionary rate — 18 NRT, vertebrate-invertebrate branch to the amniote ancestor for RLC (680 to 300×10^6 years ago) compared with 3 NRT for the amniote ancestor to the present for TNC. We do not know whether the functions of these EF-hand proteins have changed during these periods, but their rates of evolution have slowed significantly.

The EF-hand family is unique in its diversity. Representatives bind from zero to four calcium ions and contain two, three, or four domains. They interact with a wide variety of other proteins — TNT, TNI, myosin heavy chain, phosphodiesterase, adenylate cyclase, membrane (Ca^{2+}) ATPase, and light chain kinase, none of which appear to be homologous to one another.

A comparison of individual domains, as opposed to entire proteins, shows very clearly that the even hands (2 and 4) are more closely related to one another than they

are to the odd hands (1 and 3). This observation is consistent with a primordial odd-even pair; a subsequent duplication produced a pair of pairs — domains 1 and 2 and domains 3 and 4. There is no compelling evidence that the pair duplication occurred more than once in evolutionary history. The parvalbumin structure shows excellent steric fit between the two hands of the pair. Nonetheless, domain 2 of MCBP, which has lost its ability to bind calcium, has assumed a slightly different conformation and a very different packing relative to hands 3 and 4. I regard the suggestion by Derancourt et al.³⁷ that “after the first duplication, it (parvalbumin) will have reached a state comparable to the 1-75 fragment” (domains 2 and 3) to be very improbable. One might anticipate altered hand conformation and interdomain packing in the non-calcium-binding loops of the light chains. The deletions in domain 2 of ELC, which is postulated to pair with the calcium-binding hand 1, cast doubt on the generality of the four-hand model which appears valid for TNC and CDR. Also, the hydrodynamic studies of Stafford and Szent-Györgyi²²⁶ suggest an elongated molecule very different from that of the TNC, CDR model.

The evolution of ICBP is unclear. As MCBP evolved from a four-domain precursor by deletion of domain 1, so ICBP may have evolved by deletion of a pair of hands. Domain comparisons indicate a slightly, and probably not significant, closer relationship of ICBP to pair 1-2 than to pair 3-4 of the four-hand proteins. Alternatively, ICBP may have diverged prior to the basic pair duplication event and evolved directly from the original odd-even pair.

It is fascinating to contemplate the variety of structures and functions assumed by the EF-hand proteins. Yet all of these proteins, even those such as ELC which has lost the ability to bind calcium, share the common property of being associated with calcium-modulated processes. I have argued that the evolution of these calcium-modulated processes and of the EF-hand proteins are strongly coupled. It will be interesting to test the generality of this theory and to discover whether any calcium-modulated processes (Section IV.D) do not involve EF-hand proteins or whether any calcium-modulated proteins do not contain EF hands.

IV. OTHER POSSIBLE CALCIUM-MODULATED PROTEINS

A. Overview

I have suggested two criteria defining a calcium modulated protein. It is present in the cytosol or on a membrane bounding the cytosol. Its calcium affinity, under physiological conditions — $\text{pH} \sim 7$, $\text{pMg}^{2+} \sim 3$, $\text{pK}^+ \sim 1$ — is in the range $\text{pK}_d(\text{Ca}) \sim 5.0$ to 6.5. That is, in the quiescent cell ($\text{pCa} \approx 7.5$) it does not bind, Ca^{2+} ; in the “excited” cell ($\text{pCa} \approx 4.0$) it does bind Ca^{2+} .

The following proteins may be calcium modulated. For some, the calcium affinity is not well determined; for others, the cellular location is unknown. The amino acid sequences are not known for any of these possibly calcium-modulated proteins. None of the established EF-hand proteins (CDR, TNC, RLC, ELC, MCBP, or ICBP) are enzymes. I have predicted that some of the calcium-modulated enzymes contain EF hands and that they have evolved by splicing the gene for an EF hand with the gene for a nonhomologous protein. This does not imply that the Ca^{2+} ion is near the active site. Indeed, precedents from extracellular calcium-binding enzymes¹³⁰ indicate that the Ca^{2+} ion is seldom, if ever, bound at the active site.

Finally, I emphasize that there are many extracellular and mitochondrial enzymes that bind calcium but are not calcium modulated. None of them appears to contain EF hands (see review by Kretsinger¹²⁴).

B. Enzymes

1. Adenosine Triphosphatase (Ca^{2+}) of the Sarcoplasmic Reticulum

All eukaryotic cells, and probably all prokaryotes as well, have mechanisms for extruding Ca^{2+} from the cytosol. Some depend on exchange with a preformed Na^+ gradient, e.g., squid axon,¹¹ others upon a preformed H^+ gradient, e.g., mitochondria¹⁷¹ or bacteria.²³⁵ Many cells, including prokaryotes,¹²⁰ have a (Ca^{2+}) ATPase associated with either their plasma membrane or with the membrane of an internal membrane system such as the endoplasmic reticulum. The evolutionary or functional relationship among these ATPases is not known; however, it is assumed that most of them are associated with calcium pumping. In Section IV.B.2, I list these various ATPases; here I describe in more detail the structure of the (Ca^{2+}) ATPase from sarcoplasmic reticulum (SR), the best characterized active transport system.

Martonosi and Jilke¹⁵⁴ have summarized evidence that SR ATPase functions as an oligomer. Reconstitution experiments (reviews by MacLennan and Holland¹⁴⁹ and Hasselbach⁹⁷) indicate that no additional proteins are required for Ca^{2+} transport. The ATPase accounts for 50% of the SR mass, and phospholipid accounts for 30%. Although the ATPase binds several equivalents of phospholipid with high affinity, these can be replaced with various phosphatidylserines or phosphatidylethanolamines in synthetic liposome systems with little loss of function capacity. The net equation is as follows (review of suggested steps, Kretsinger¹²⁴):



Makinose¹⁵¹ demonstrated that this reaction can be reversed in vitro, as it is in vivo, to produce ATP from a Ca^{2+} gradient. The energy used in a cycle of Ca^{2+} release and uptake is partially recovered; it is not all dissipated as heat. The intact system appears to pump as long as ATP and Ca^{2+} ($\text{pCa}^{2+} < 7.5$) are present; calcium release requires ADP and phosphate. It is not understood how a nerve impulse initiates the release of Ca^{2+} . The unstimulated calcium efflux is very low, $3 \times 10^{-13} \text{ M/cm}^2 \cdot \text{sec}$.

Limited trypsin digestion cleaves the 115,000 mol wt ATPase into fragments B (mol wt 55,000) and A, which can be further cleaved to yield A_1 , (mol wt 33,000) and A_2 (mol wt 24,000). Fragment A_1 has ATPase activity and is phosphorylated, supposedly in conjunction with Ca^{2+} transport. However, Schwartz et al.²¹⁴ have reported a phosphorylase b kinase-dependent phosphorylation of the SR (see Section IV.B.3. Fragment A_2 , at the N terminus, functions as a Ca^{2+} ionophore. Fragment B, at the C terminus, is the most hydrophobic of the three.

Allen⁴ and Green²⁶⁶ have tentatively determined the amino acid sequence of five segments accounting for 658 of 1000 residues in the molecule (Table 8). I cannot detect an EF hand.

2. Other (Ca^{2+}) ATPases

Calcium ATPase activity has been identified in a variety of tissue extracts; it is usually associated with a particulate fraction. It is generally inferred that such activities are associated with calcium pumps; however, one must exclude the possibilities of membrane-associated, or entrapped, myosin and of active transport systems for other entities.

There are about 4000 erythrocyte (Ca^{2+}) ATPase molecules per cell; it has a monomer mol wt $\sim 150,000$;⁶¹ either one²¹⁰ or two²⁰⁹ Ca^{2+} ions are transported per ATP hydrolyzed. As is the case in SR, the ATPase can be dephosphorylated by ADP gen-

Table 8
AMINO ACID SEQUENCES OF FIVE FRAGMENTS OF SARCOPLASMIC RETICULUM ATPASE

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0
1234567890123456789012345678901234567890123456789012345678901234567890									
MEAAHSKSTZCLAYFGVSETTGLTPDQVKRHK									
LRNAENAIZALKEYEPEMGKYYRADRKSVZRIKARDIVPGDIVEVAVGBKVPABIRILSIKSTTLRVBZSILTGQSVSVIKHTZPVBPBGRVVBZBK									
MAKKNAIVRSLPSVETLGTCTSVICSDKTGTLTTEBZMSVCKMFIIDKVBGBFCSLBZFITGSTYAPZGZVLPKBVBBIIRSGQFDGLVELATICALCBBSSL									
DFBZTKGVYEKVGZATZTALTTLVZKMBVFBTZVRNLSKVZRRANACNSVIRQLMKKZFTLZFSRDRKSMVYCSPAKSSRAAVGBKMFVKGAPZGVIBRC									
NYVRVGTTRVPMTPGVKZKILSVIKEWGTGRDTLRCLALATRNTPPKRZZMVLBBSSRFMEYETDLTFVGVVGMNLNPPRKEVMGSIELCRDAGIRVIM									
IGIFGENEEVANRAYTGRZFBBLPLAZZFRAACRRACCFARVZPSKHSKIVZYLZSYBZITAMTGBGVBBAPALKKAZIGIAMGSGTAVABTASZMVLAB									
BFSTIVAAVEEGRAIYBBMKZF									
IARNYLEG (C terminus)									

erating ATP in the presence of Ca^{2+} .²⁰² An endogenous CDR activates the ATPase and is responsible for its calcium sensitivity (Section II.B).

I list a few more recent examples. The source may be either plasma membrane or internal vesicles. The relationships of these various ATPases to one another or to those of SR or erythrocytes is unknown.

Tissue	Organelle	Ref.
<i>Tetrahymena pyriformis</i>	Granules in cytoplasm	37,176
<i>Amoeba proteus</i>	Granules in cytoplasm	204
Dog brain	Microsomes	234
	Coated vesicles	12
Sea urchin egg	Vesicles with spindle	158
Rat adipocytes	Endoplasmic reticulum	27
Human placenta	Plasma membrane	216
Bovine adrenal medulla	Plasma membrane	143
Rat kidney prox. tubule	Plasma membrane	119
Rat mast cell	Plasma membrane	44

3. ATP: Phosphorylase Phosphotransferase (EC 2.7.1.38)

Glycogen phosphorylase (EC 2.4.1.1) catalyzes the phosphorolysis of glycogen to glucose 1-phosphate. Phosphorylase b is a dimer, mol wt 250,000. The active form, a, is phosphorylated and is a tetramer. Phosphorylase b kinase (PbK) has twelve subunits — α ($4 \times$ mol wt 145,000), β ($4 \times$ 128,000), and γ ($4 \times$ 45,000). Khoo^{117a} reported the requirement for micromolar levels of free Ca^{2+} in crude extracts of chicken adipose tissue for PbK activity and cited similar results in vertebrate skeletal, smooth and cardiac muscle, insect flight muscle, and guinea pig brain. Waisman et al.²⁴⁴ found that PbK is phosphorylated by a CDR-dependent protein kinase and suggested that this is the mechanism for mediating calcium regulation of glycogenolysis (Section II.B). Kiliman and Heilmeyer¹¹⁸ reported that micromolar Ca^{2+} increases the “affinity for glycogen phosphorylase b about 20-fold” and that it “may also phosphorylate troponin and its own subunit α .” Keppens et al.¹¹⁷ observed that, in liver slices, calcium is required in the incubation medium for angiotensin, vasopressin, or phenylephrine to activate glycogen phosphorylase. They argued that Ca^{2+} functions as a second messenger.*

4. Tyrosine-3-monoxygenase (EC 1.14.16.2)

Repeated stimulation of sympathetic nerves results in increased synthesis of norepinephrine. The rate-limiting step is the hydroxylation of tyrosine to 3,4 dihydroxyphenylalanine. Morgenroth et al.¹⁷⁰ observed a reversible fourfold increase in tyrosine hydroxylase activity in extracts from rat brain noradrenergic tissue with an apparent $\text{pK}_a(\text{Ca}^{2+})$ of 5.9. Roth et al.²⁰⁷ summarized their in vitro studies and suggested “that changes in calcium fluxes in the dopaminergic nerve terminals might be responsible for altering tyrosine hydroxylase activity in vivo.”

5. Calcium-Activated Proteases

There are several systems in which the addition of calcium to a crude extract causes an increase in some enzymic activity. Without purifying and characterizing the enzyme(s) involved it is difficult to determine whether the calcium acts directly on the

* Cohen et al.⁴¹ reported that CDR imparts calcium sensitivity to PbK, functioning as the fourth subunit, ($\alpha\beta\gamma\delta$)₄.

enzyme, via a CDR, via a phosphorylase-phosphatase system or, as discussed in this section, via a calcium-activated protease.

Inoue et al.¹⁰⁸ characterized a calcium-dependent protease from rat brain — mol wt 93,000, pI 4.8, $pK_a(\text{Ca}^{2+})$ 3.5 — that converts a cAMP-independent protein kinase proenzyme to its active form. Phillips and Jakábová¹⁰⁹ described the activity of a calcium-dependent protease of human platelets that seems to resemble the myofibrillar protease, called calcium-activated factor (CAF). Dayton et al.⁴⁸ reported that CAF is present in the cytosol at 3.4 mg/kg wet wt and is a heterodimer with subunits of mol wt 80,000 and 30,000. They found that its in vitro myofibril hydrolysing activity is optimal at pCa 3 and concluded that “it seems likely that Ca^{2+} is involved in controlling CAF activity in vivo”. They suggest that this CAF is the same protein as that involved in Z-line removal^{172,201} and in phosphorylase b kinase activation.^{62,123}

6. Aequorin

Hydrozoa such as *Aequorea* contain a luciferase that strongly binds luciferin, a substituted imidazolopyrazinone, and (probably) molecular O_2 . Upon subsequent binding of three equivalents of Ca^{2+} per 20,000 mol wt monomer, the luciferin is oxidized and a photon, $\lambda = 469$ nm, is emitted. (See review by Prendergast et al.¹⁹⁶). The high calcium affinity, $pK_a(\text{Ca}^{2+}) \approx 6.0$, and selectivity of aequorin have allowed scientists to determine cytosol concentrations of free Ca^{2+} by microinjection.

C. Nonenzymes

1. Luciferin-Binding Protein

Anthozoa such as *Renilla* also contain a luciferase as do the hydrozoa. However, in the unstimulated cell the luciferin is bound to luciferin-binding protein (LBP), mol wt 18,500, pI = 4.3. Upon binding two equivalents of calcium, $pK_a(\text{Ca}^{2+}) = 6.8$, the luciferin is transferred to luciferase where it is oxidized with the emission of a photon, $\lambda = 490$. Cormier and Charbonneau⁴⁵ noted the similarity of LBP to CDR.

2. Spasmin

Routledge and Amos,²⁰⁸ in whose laboratory much of the research was done, reviewed the spasmoneme-based contraction of ciliated protozoa. The spasmoneme organelle is responsible for shortening the body of heterotrich ciliates such as *Stentor* and *Spirostomum* and for shortening the stalks of peritrich ciliates such as *Vorticella* and *Zoothamnium* at rates up to 170 stalk lengths per second. The work of contraction is entropic and derives from the energy expended by the vesicles in the cytoplasm removing Ca^{2+} following the previous contraction cycle. Spasmin, which accounts for some 60% of the protein of the *Zoothamnium* spasmoneme, consists of at least two isotypes — both, mol wt 20,000, pI 4.7, and $pK_a(\text{Ca}^{2+}) = 6.7$ with $n = 2$ or 3 Ca^{2+} per molecule.

It is assumed to be globular and somehow arranged into filaments. Addition of calcium causes a large change in conformation, resulting in a coiling of the filaments and a loss of form birefringence. In contrast, Ettiene⁶⁸ has isolated a Ca^{2+} -activated, nonenzyme, contractile protein from *Spirostomum* of mol wt 100,000 and $pK_a(\text{Ca}^{2+}) \approx 3.6$ with $n = 8$ or 9 Ca^{2+} per molecule. Its relationship to the spasmins is not clear. Contraction based on the conformational change of spasmin represents a form of calcium-regulated cell motility fundamentally different from those based on actomyosin or on microtubules.

3. S-100

Moore¹⁶⁸ first described a calcium-binding protein unique to the vertebrate nervous

system. Unfortunately, subsequent work has failed to determine its function, amino acid sequence, or subunit composition (see review by Calissano et al.²⁹) S-100 is present in the aqueous extract of nervous tissue and is soluble in 100% saturated ammonium sulfate at neutral pH. Immunofluorescent studies indicate that it is associated primarily with glial cells; however, a small fraction may be associated with the postsynaptic membrane.¹⁰⁷ S-100 has pI 4.1 and a subunit composition either α_2 (mol wt 14,000/2), β_1 (mol wt 7000)⁵⁰ or α_2 (mol wt 8,000/2), β_2 (mol wt 10,600/2).²²⁷ The 20,000 mol wt oligomer binds four Ca^{2+} ions with $\text{pK}_d(\text{Ca}^{2+})$ 4.2.²⁹ Isobe and Okuyama¹⁰⁹ determined the sequence of an S-100 isomer 91 residues long. It contains an EF-hand domain:

³² V V D K V M E T L D S D G D G E C D F Q E F M A F V A M I T₉₁
 n n n n X Y Z G -X -Z n n n

4. Invertebrate Sarcoplasm Calcium-Binding Protein (ISCP)

Cox et al.⁴⁶ and Kohler et al.¹²¹ have characterized a group of calcium-binding proteins from the sarcoplasm of invertebrate muscle. Their function(s) and evolution remain unknown; however, they do resemble parvalbumins. In contrast to the parvalbumins, some have unblocked N terminal residues and high Tyr contents, as well as higher molecular weights.

Source	Yield (g/kg)	MW/oligomer	pI	$\text{pK}_d(\text{Ca}^{2+})$	$n(\text{Ca}^{2+})/\text{monomer}$	$\text{pK}_d(\text{Mg}^{2+})$	$n(\text{Mg}^{2+})$	Comments
Crayfish <i>As-tacus pen-tastacus</i>	2.7 tail 0.07 heart	44,000/2	5.1	~8.3	3	4.7	2	45% helix dimer α_2 , $\alpha\beta$, or β_2
Sand worm <i>Nereis virens</i>		17,000/1	4.3	8.2	3		3	
<i>Amphioxus</i>		22,000/1	4.9	7.9	2	4.8	1	

5. Tubulin

Tubulin is the main but not sole constituent of the microtubule polymer (review by Snyder and McIntosh²¹⁹). Either in the helical or in the depolymerized condition (in vitro $\text{pCa}^{2+} \approx 4$ or cooling to 4°C) it exists as the $\alpha\beta$ heterodimer. The two subunits have mol wt 55,000 and are very similar, but not identical, in sequence. Weisenberg²⁵² and others^{78,211} suggested that increased cytosolic levels of free Ca^{2+} might cause microtubule depolymerization with resultant motion, for example, separations of metaphase chromosomes. This hypothesis is not yet confirmed or refuted. Strapans et al.²²⁸ deduced from fluorescence studies that chick brain "tubulin has no significant affinity for calcium." Solomon²²² found one high-affinity site per dimer, $\text{pK}_d(\text{Ca}^{2+})$ 5.5 and $\text{pK}_d(\text{Mg}^{2+})$ 4.3. Even if calcium does not bind to tubulin at physiological concentrations, it might bind to one of the microtubule associated proteins; or, as suggested by Welsh et al.,²⁵⁵ the effects of Ca^{2+} on the mitotic apparatus might be mediated by CDR (Section II.B).

6. Synexin

Creutz et al.⁴⁷ characterized synexin from bovine adrenal medulla as having mol wt 47,000 and binding Ca^{2+} specifically and cooperatively with $\text{pK}_d = 3.7$. At high concentrations, synexin activity, assayed as aggregation of chromaffin granules, is first observed at pCa 5.2. At saturating Ca^{2+} concentrations, half-maximal aggregating activity occurs at a ratio of 30 synexin molecules per granule.

D. Functions in Search of a Protein

The third postulate presented in Section I is, "The target of Ca^{2+} , functioning as a second messenger, is a protein in the cytosol." Just as there are several proteins (MCBP, ICBP, and S-100) whose functions remain unknown, so there are many calcium-modulated functions whose associated proteins remain to be identified.

The involvement of calcium in "stimulus-secretion coupling" was postulated by Douglas in the early 1960s.⁶⁰ Although the mechanism(s) of vesicle formation, filling, translocation, fusion, and recycling are not known, the involvement of microfilaments is fairly well established.^{28,241} Calcium may affect other aspects of the process, such as synaptosomal protein phosphorylation^{54,131} and microtubule formation.²³² Fast axonal transport may involve calcium, possibly by activation of a protease in the presynaptic terminal (review by Lasek & Hoffman¹³⁵).

Calcium also functions as a second messenger in secretion of salt solutions, e.g., from fly salivary gland,¹⁹⁷ from vertebrate intestine,^{15,74} from frog bladder,⁹⁴ and from sweat gland.¹⁹⁸ Exocytosis appears not to be the mechanism; ion-specific channels may be modulated by calcium.

Several other important processes might result from calcium modulation of permeability. When a single photon is absorbed in a disc of the rod outer segment, calcium is released from the disc interior to the cytosol^{70,218} where it supposedly blocks a sodium channel, thereby perturbing the dark current (review by Hagins⁹¹).

Calcium also appears to modulate K^+ channels in *helix* neurons¹⁵⁹ and in the postsynaptic region.⁶³ Calcium uptake correlates well with glucose transport in thymocytes.²⁵⁶ The size of molecule passing through junctional membrane channels is critically dependent on cytosol-free Ca^{2+} levels.^{146,187} The ciliary beating of *Paramecia* is somehow regulated by calcium. Near the ciliary base there are calcium dense plaques.⁷¹ The so-called "paw" mutant appears to be deficient in its Ca^{2+} gate.¹³² Intracellular free Ca^{2+} is critical in maintaining flagellar beat symmetry in sea urchin spermatozoa²¹ and in *Chlamydomonas*.¹⁷⁵

Calcium injection will activate most eggs and, in amphibians, leads to the development of viable haploids. Gilkey et al.⁸¹ have recorded by aequorin luminescence the "free calcium wave traversing the activating egg of the medaka". Cell proliferation and, in particular, the mitogenic response seem critically dependent on the extracellular concentration of Ca^{2+} and/or ionophore.^{17,99} Somehow, calcium is involved in mitosis^{105,188} and in cleavage furrow formation.¹⁰⁴

Extracellular Ca^{2+} levels are critical in cell adhesion and fusion, e.g., chick myoblasts²¹² and chick erythrocytes;²⁴² however, it is not known whether Ca^{2+} functions as a second messenger. The mechanism(s) of both transcellular calcium transport and of mineralization may involve the translocation through the cytosol of microcrystals of calcium phosphate.¹³⁴ Transport of calcium inward across the plasma membrane may well involve calcium-binding (not -modulated) proteins such as the vitamin K-dependent protein of the chick chorioallantois membrane.²³⁶

One can confidently predict that new calcium-modulated proteins will be discovered.

V. CONCLUSION

I have argued that "calcium-modulated proteins contain EF hands." This postulate has provided a unifying concept for research in the field of calcium physiology. Calcium-dependent regulator, troponin-C, myosin light chains, parvalbumin, S-100 and intestinal calcium-binding protein are homologous to one another.

One of the fascinating problems of the 1980s will be to understand how the evolution of the EF-hand proteins has been associated with the evolution of the role of calcium

as a second messenger. This goal will require both the further characterization of more calcium-modulated proteins and the molecular definition of calcium-modulated processes.

Although the EF-hand postulate is an attractive generalization, its limitations and exceptions should be reemphasized. During evolution, some EF-hand domains have lost the ability to bind calcium. None of the four domains of the enzymatic light chains bind calcium, nor do domains 2, 3, and 4 of regulatory light chains, domain 1 of cardiac TNC, or domain 2 of parvalbumin.

Further, a few proteins that are calcium modulated may have evolved from other protein domains. Both spasmin and SR ATPase are calcium-modulated, yet the available data do not indicate EF hands.

Regardless of the exceptions to the calcium modulation postulate, the EF-hand domain can already be regarded as one of the fundamental units of protein structure and evolution.

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