

# Conformational Dynamics of Calmodulin in Complex with the Calmodulin-Dependent Kinase Kinase $\alpha$ Calmodulin-Binding Domain<sup>†</sup>

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**ABSTRACT:** As the primary intracellular calcium sensor, calcium-saturated calmodulin (CaM) regulates numerous and diverse proteins. Several mechanisms, including tissue-specific expression, localization, and sequestration, work in concert to limit the total number of available targets of calmodulin within a cell. While the free energies of binding of calmodulin-binding domains of regulated proteins by CaM have been shown to be highly similar, they result from vastly different enthalpic and entropic contributions. Here, we report the backbone and side-chain methyl dynamics of calcium-activated calmodulin in complex with a peptide corresponding to the CaM-binding domain of calmodulin kinase kinase, along with the thermodynamic underpinnings of complex formation. The results show a considerable reduction in side-chain mobility throughout CaM upon binding the CaMKK $\alpha$  peptide, which is consistent with the enthalpically driven nature of the binding. Site-specific comparison to another kinase-derived peptide complex with similar thermodynamic values reveals significant differences in dynamics largely localized to the hydrophobic binding sites.

Calmodulin is a highly conserved protein, capable of binding and regulating numerous proteins in response to increased levels of intracellular calcium (1, 2). Calcium-saturated calmodulin (CaM)<sup>1</sup> is the dominant regulatory species, although there are several cases where apocalmodulin is found to bind target proteins. Current estimates indicate that well over 300 proteins contain a CaM-binding motif (3). Critical among these are kinases that subsequently regulate gene transcription, muscle contraction, transport, and other cellular processes (4). Calcium/calmodulin-dependent protein kinase kinase (CaMKK) acts to enhance the activity of downstream CaM-dependent kinases (types I and IV) by phosphorylation of a single Thr in the so-called activation loop (5–7). CaMKI has recently been shown to function within the ERK-signaling pathway (8), and CaMKI and CaMKIV differentially activate the transcription factors CREB, CREM, and ATF-1 (9–11). Two isoforms of CaMKK are known ( $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ ) each with abundant expression

in neuronal tissues, although CaMKK $\beta$  also has low-level expression in the spleen, testis, and thymus (12, 13). Both CaMKK isoforms can phosphorylate CaMKI and CaMKIV *in vitro*; however, the remarkably similar neuronal expression patterns of CaMKK $\beta$  and CaMKIV suggest that CaMKK isoforms may have, at least partially, nonoverlapping target specificity and function (14, 15). This is exemplified by the requirement of CaMKK $\alpha$  for contextual long-term memory formation in the hippocampus, while CaMKK $\beta$  is required for spatial long-term memory (16, 17).

The canonical CaM-binding motif is approximately 20 amino acids and consists of two hydrophobic “anchors” bridged by an amphiphilic helix (Figure 1A). Typically, the amino-terminal anchor is adjacent to three or four basic residues with either 8 or 12 poorly conserved residues separating the two anchors in the primary sequence (18). Other than maintaining a hydrophobic character, the anchors are not well-conserved. The nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) [Protein Data Bank (PDB) 1CKK] and crystal (PDB 1IQ5) structures of CaM in complex with peptides derived from rat CaMKK $\alpha$  and nematode CaMKK, respectively, revealed a novel variation of the canonical CaM-binding motif (19, 20) (Figure 1B). The CaMKK isoforms are the only known CaM-binding domains with 14 residues between the critical hydrophobic residues. Additionally, the basic residues are found near the carboxy-terminal anchor. In complex with CaM, the CaMKK peptides form a  $\beta$ -turn structure to accommodate the increased number of intervening residues. Finally, the orientation of the peptide relative to CaM is reversed from what is observed in most other CaM complexes, such that the amino-terminal hydrophobic anchor interacts with the amino-terminal domain of CaM (Figure 1B). Despite these differences, the global structure of CaM

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<sup>1</sup> Abbreviations: CaM, calcium-saturated calmodulin; CaMKK, calcium/calmodulin-dependent protein kinase kinase; CaMKK $\alpha$ p, peptide based on the CaMKK $\alpha$  calmodulin-binding domain with sequence CaMKK $\alpha$  sequence, GSVKLIPSWTTVLVKSMRLKRKRSFGNPF; NOE, <sup>1</sup>H-<sup>15</sup>N nuclear Overhauser effect;  $O_{\text{axis}}^2$  and  $O_{\text{NH}}^2$ , Lipari–Szabo squared generalized order parameters for the methyl group symmetry axis and amide N–H bond, respectively; PCR, polymerase chain reaction; rmsd, root-mean-square deviation; smMLCKp, peptide based on the calmodulin-binding domain of the smooth muscle myosin light-chain kinase with sequence, GSARRKWQKTGHAVRAIGRLS;  $T_1$ , longitudinal relaxation time;  $T_2$ , transverse relaxation time.

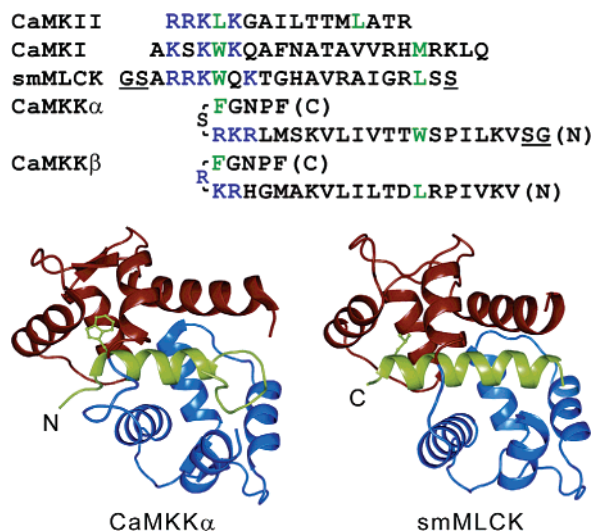


FIGURE 1: CaM-binding domain sequence and structure alignment. (A) Primary sequences of CaM-binding domains are shown with hydrophobic anchors in green, and the cluster of positively charged residues are shown in blue. Note the inverted direction of CaMKK isoforms. The underlined GS pairs are non-native residues present in the peptides used for our analysis; additionally, the C-terminal serine of smMLCK was omitted. (B) NMR-based structure of CaM/CaMKK $\alpha$  is shown on the left, and the crystal structure of CaM/smMLCK is shown on the right. The amino and carboxy CaM EF-hand domains are colored red and blue, respectively, with the peptides in green. Key hydrophobic anchors are displayed in ball-and-stick representation. Ribbon diagrams were created with PyMol (<http://www.pymol.org>).

bound to CaMKK is highly similar to that of CaM bound to the smooth muscle myosin light-chain kinase (smMLCKp) peptide [backbone, 2.13 Å root-mean-square deviation (rmsd)] (21) and to the CaM kinase II peptide (backbone, 1.43 Å rmsd) (22), with the largest discrepancies occurring in the domain linker. The remarkable ability of CaM to accommodate diverse sequences appears to originate in the flexibility of the domain linker to independently position the globular domains and the abundance of long aliphatic side chains, including four methionine residues per domain, which form the binding pockets for the anchor residues.

The adaptability of CaM to bind diverse sequences is juxtaposed by highly similar binding affinities for such targets. Numerous competitive binding and calorimetric studies have shown that the affinity of many CaM-binding peptides approach  $-50$  kJ/mol. Furthermore, calorimetry has clearly established that binding of these high-affinity target peptides can be enthalpically or entropically driven (23). This impressive variability of system thermodynamic parameters presents the possibility that changes induced by binding a target peptide are manifested in both calmodulin structure (enthalpy) and dynamics (entropy). We have previously shown that binding a peptide corresponding to the calmodulin-binding domain of smMLCK causes a striking change in CaM methyl bearing side-chain dynamics with relatively little change in backbone amide N–H dynamics (24). More importantly, a quantitative interpretation of the change in dynamics suggests that the change in the residual entropy of calmodulin comprises a significant fraction of the total change in entropy because of the binding of the domain (24). This raises the important question of whether the conformational entropy of calmodulin influences target selection and/or duration of CaM-mediated signaling.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

**Expression and Purification of CaMKK $\alpha$ p.** De novo synthesis of the CaMKK $\alpha$ p template was carried out by extending two partially overlapping oligonucleotides, corresponding to the CaMKK $\alpha$  amino acid sequence: VKLIPS-WTTVILVKSMLRKRSFGNPF, under standard polymerase chain reaction (PCR) conditions. This template was PCR-amplified with primers containing *Nde*I and *Bam*HI restriction sites, which were subsequently used to insert the CaMKK $\alpha$ p DNA into a modified pET32 vector. Transformed BL21(DE3) *Escherichia coli* grown in rich media were induced to overexpress the thioredoxin fusion protein with 1 mM isopropyl- $\beta$ -D-thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG) when the cultures reached an OD<sub>600</sub> of  $\sim 1$ . The protein was found exclusively in the insoluble fraction of chemically lysed cells, necessitating extraction with 8 M urea. Significant enrichment of the fusion protein was achieved with His·Bind (Novagen) resin under denaturing conditions. In the absence of the denaturant, we found that the fusion protein was highly soluble below pH 4.5 but precipitated at near neutral pH. Therefore, the eluted protein was acidified with glacial acetic acid and dialyzed extensively against acidified water (pH 3.75) at 4 °C. To retain fusion protein solubility for enzymatic digest, it was slowly titrated into excess CaM [6 mM CaCl<sub>2</sub> and 20 mM 3-(*N*-morpholino)propanesulfonic acid (Mops) at pH 7.2] at room temperature. After equilibration, the peptide was cleaved with thrombin (Sigma) over a period of 16–24 h at 22 °C. The digest was quenched by the addition of 20% acetonitrile/0.1% trifluoroacetic acid, and the peptide was isolated on a C18 reverse-phase high-performance liquid chromatography column (Vydac) using a linear 20–60% acetonitrile gradient. The mass and purity were confirmed by matrix-assisted laser desorption ionization time-of-flight mass spectrometry. The freeze-dried peptide was stored at  $-20$  °C until use. Purification of wild-type chick CaM expressed in BL21(DE3) *E. coli* was accomplished using phenyl sepharose as described previously (25).

**Isothermal Titration Calorimetry (ITC).** The thermodynamic parameters governing the association of CaMKK $\alpha$ p with CaM were determined using ITC. Measurements were performed with a VP-ITC (Microcal) thermostatically regulated at 35 °C. Data were analyzed with Origin (version 5) software. Binary complex formation was achieved by titrating 200  $\mu$ M CaM into the sample cell containing 40  $\mu$ M CaMKK $\alpha$ p. To match the conditions of the NMR samples, CaM was dialyzed overnight against 1 L of NMR buffer (100 mM KCl, 6 mM CaCl<sub>2</sub>, 10 mM imidazole at pH 6.5, and 0.02% azide). This buffer was then used to reconstitute CaMKK $\alpha$ p. To reduce aggregation, the buffer was first acidified to pH 4.5 and then adjusted back to 6.5 after the addition of the peptide. All solutions were filtered and degassed prior to use, and the pH of each solution was verified before each run. Protein concentrations were determined spectrophotometrically.

**NMR Sample Preparation.** For resonance assignment experiments, CaM was expressed in M9 media containing 2 g/L <sup>13</sup>C-glucose and 0.1% <sup>15</sup>N ammonium chloride. Backbone amide relaxation experiments were acquired on CaM isolated from M9 media containing 2 g/L <sup>13</sup>C-glucose and 1 g/L <sup>15</sup>N ammonium chloride. Side-chain methyl relaxation

experiments were collected on CaM expressed in M9 media containing 55% D<sub>2</sub>O, 2 g/L <sup>13</sup>C-glucose, and 1 g/L <sup>15</sup>N ammonium chloride. All NMR experiments were conducted on samples titrated with CaMKK $\alpha$ p that were allowed to equilibrate with mixing for at least 16 h upon reaching saturation. At each titration point, as the peptide solution mixed with the buffered CaM, it formed visible aggregates that diminished within seconds as CaM bound CaMKK $\alpha$ p. The time required for the aggregates to disappear increased along the titration, eventually resulting in small amounts of insoluble CaMKK $\alpha$ p as the titration approached 1:1. Complex formation was monitored by changes in the <sup>1</sup>H-<sup>15</sup>N heteronuclear single-quantum coherence (HSQC) spectrum. Excess CaMKK $\alpha$ p was not soluble under these conditions, and after overnight incubation, a minor population (~4%) of unbound CaM persisted. Aggregated peptide was removed by centrifugation prior to the NMR experiments. Samples were stable for several months; however, most data were acquired on samples made within 1 month.

**NMR Spectroscopy.** All NMR experiments were performed at 35 °C on Varian Inova spectrometers. Sequential backbone and methyl-bearing side-chain assignment experiments were performed at 750 MHz. Gradient-enhanced HNCACB and CBCA(CO)NH spectra were sufficient to assign the backbone amides (26–28). The methyl-optimized (H)CCH<sub>3</sub>-total correlation spectroscopy (TOCSY) was used to correlate <sup>1</sup>H and <sup>13</sup>C resonances of methyl groups with the carbon resonances obtained in the backbone experiments (29). Methionine  $\epsilon$  methyl resonances were assigned using a two-dimensional heteronuclear multiple-bond correlation (HMBC) experiment (30) with ambiguous assignments confirmed with information from a <sup>13</sup>C-edited <sup>1</sup>H-<sup>1</sup>H nuclear Overhauser effect spectroscopy (NOESY). Chemical-shift data from the Bio Mag Res Bank (BMRB) (code 4270) was used to guide the assignment process. NMR data were processed with NMRPipe (31); Sparky was used for visualization and assignment bookkeeping (32).

The <sup>15</sup>N relaxation parameters of backbone amide bond vectors were measured with two-dimensional HSQC-based experiments (33). Nine time points spanning 23–984 ms for longitudinal relaxation time (*T*<sub>1</sub>) and 7.8–124 ms for transverse relaxation time (*T*<sub>2</sub>) were acquired with an additional three duplicate time points to assess uncertainty in measured peak intensities. For {<sup>1</sup>H}-<sup>15</sup>N nuclear Overhauser effect (NOE) uncertainties, the root-mean-square (rms) noise of a spectral region without a peak was used. All relaxation rates were measured at 500 and 750 MHz on the same sample. A total of 512 (<sup>1</sup>H) by 160 (<sup>15</sup>N) complex data points were acquired for each relaxation time point.

Side-chain methyl dynamics were obtained from longitudinal (*I*<sub>z</sub>C<sub>z</sub>*I*<sub>z</sub> and *I*<sub>z</sub>C<sub>z</sub>) and transverse (*I*<sub>z</sub>C<sub>z</sub>D<sub>y</sub>) relaxation rates of <sup>13</sup>CH<sub>2</sub>D isotopomers (34). Each rate was determined by nine time points between 2.6 and 70 ms (*I*<sub>z</sub>C<sub>z</sub>*I*<sub>z</sub>), 0.7 and 20 ms (*I*<sub>z</sub>C<sub>z</sub>D<sub>y</sub>), and 2.6 and 80 ms (*I*<sub>z</sub>C<sub>z</sub>). Deuterium relaxation experiments were performed at 500 and 750 MHz on a single sample, which had a CaM concentration matched to the sample used to record <sup>15</sup>N relaxation data. Each two-dimensional <sup>1</sup>H-<sup>13</sup>C HSQC was acquired with 512 by 84 complex points.

**Relaxation Data Calculations.** Relaxation rates were obtained from maximum peak intensities fitted to single-exponential decays using the Levenberg–Marquardt routine.

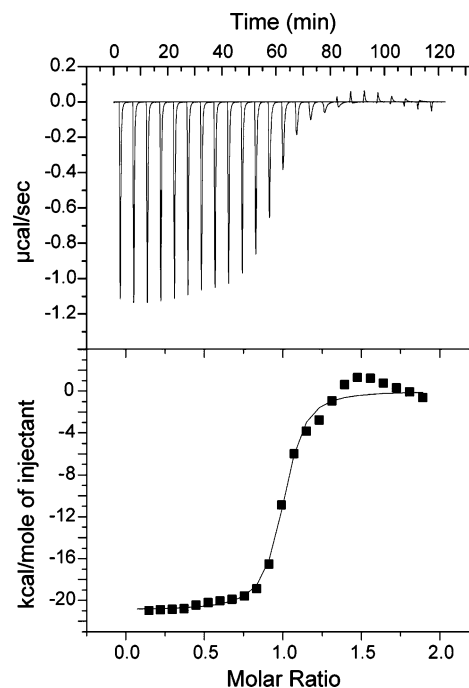


FIGURE 2: Binding isotherm for titrating CaM into CaMKK $\alpha$ p. A shows the raw heats of titration of CaM into a dilute solution of CaMKK $\alpha$ p. B shows the best fit of integrated data to the single binding site model. Best fit values of *K*<sub>D</sub> and  $\Delta H$  (and  $-\Delta S$ ) are given in the text.

The NOE was calculated as the peak intensity ratio from saturated and nonsaturated experiments. Determination of dynamic parameters was accomplished by fitting the relaxation rates to the simple model-free spectral density function (35) with an in-house exhaustive grid-search algorithm (36). The global rotational correlation time,  $\tau_m$ , was first determined using <sup>15</sup>N relaxation data of well-ordered residues assuming an isotropic rotational diffusion. Residues were excluded if the NOE value was less than 0.65 or if the *T*<sub>1</sub>*T*<sub>2</sub> product exceeded 1 standard deviation (37). Subsequently, squared generalized order parameters and internal correlation times,  $\tau_e$ , were fitted for all spectrally resolved residues. Methyl generalized order parameters, *O*<sup>2</sup><sub>axis</sub>, are reported after accounting for motion about the methyl symmetry axis, *O*<sup>2</sup>/0.111. The fitting errors were determined with 150 Monte Carlo simulations.

## RESULTS

NMR relaxation analysis offers a unique experimental approach to obtain site-specific information describing the dynamic behavior of macromolecules in solution. In addition, owing to the implicit “counting of states” inherent in a dynamical description, one has, in principle, access to the residual conformational entropy of proteins (38, 39). Using calmodulin as a model system, we have set out to assess changes in dynamics (entropy) among different CaM complexes and examine the relationship to changes in total system entropy. We have previously reported the subnanosecond backbone and side-chain dynamics of CaM and the CaM/smMLCKp complex (24). We now build upon this information using the CaM-binding domain of CaMKK $\alpha$ .

**ITC.** The thermodynamics of the binding of CaMKK $\alpha$ p by CaM has been examined by ITC (Figure 2). CaMKK $\alpha$ p binds with high affinity to CaM; the *K*<sub>D</sub> was determined to



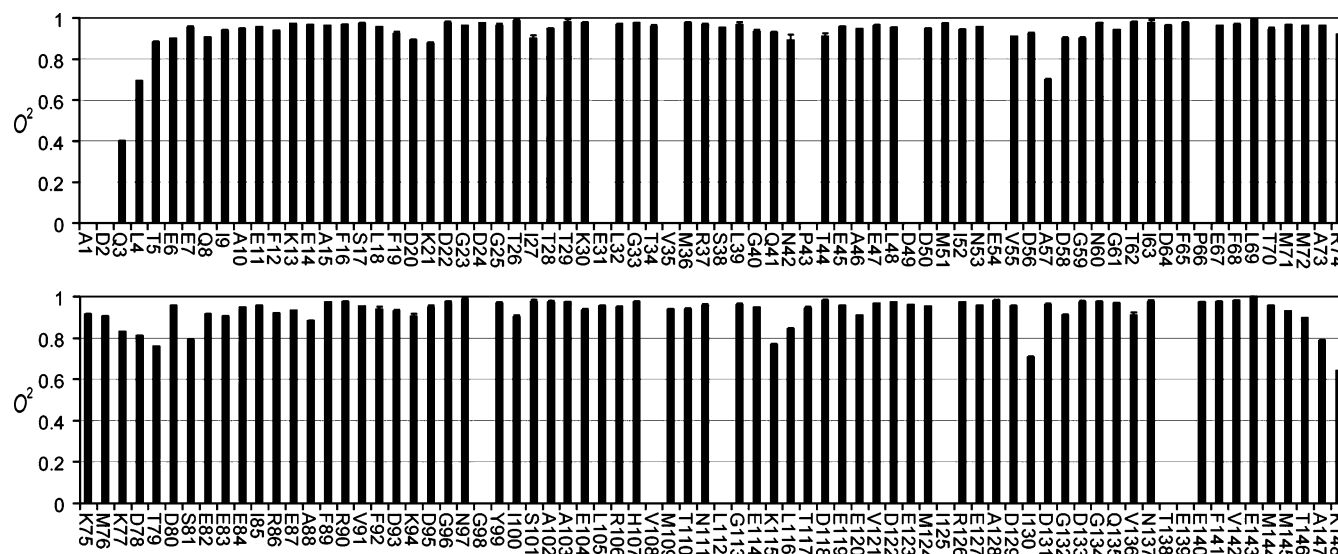


FIGURE 3: NMR-derived backbone N-H bond vector model-free squared generalized order parameters ( $O_{\text{NH}}^2$ ) for CaM in complex with CaMKK $\alpha$ p determined with relaxation data obtained at 500 and 750 MHz ( $^1\text{H}$ ). The error bars, defined by Monte Carlo simulations, are too small to be resolved from the measured value in most cases. Nonproline residues with no entry were not determined because of spectral overlap.

be approximately 4 nM ( $\Delta G = -49.8$  kJ/mol) at 35 °C. The heat of binding was found to be  $-140$  kJ/mol, and the corresponding change in system entropy was  $+90$  kJ/mol at 35 °C. Thus, the binding is enthalpically driven. Slight deviations from perfect sigmoidal curvature are noted just ahead of and after the transition. This feature was reproduced in several experiments, and it is most likely an effect of reversible, microscopic CaMKK $\alpha$ p aggregation. At near neutral pH, even under the dilute conditions for ITC, CaMKK $\alpha$ p is in equilibrium between monomeric and aggregated forms. The conversion of aggregated CaMKK $\alpha$ p to the soluble peptide is apparently an endothermic process.

**Resonance Assignments.** Sequential assignment of backbone amides and side-chain methyls was necessary, in part, because of the slightly different conditions ( $+5$  °C,  $-0.2$  pH) used here compared to the conditions of the previous structure determination (19). Amides are generally more sensitive to changes in temperature and pH and provide a reasonable measure for the magnitude of chemical-shift changes caused by the different sample conditions. The average chemical-shift displacement was calculated as  $\bar{\Delta}_{\text{cs}} = \sqrt{\Delta_{\text{H}}^2 + (\Delta_{\text{N}}\gamma_{\text{N}}/\gamma_{\text{H}})^2}$ , where  $\Delta_{\text{H(N)}}$  is the  $^1\text{H}(^{15}\text{N})$  chemical-shift difference between resonances in the two conditions and  $\gamma_{\text{N(H)}}$  is the gyromagnetic ratio of the indicated nucleus. Approximately 20 residues have a chemical-shift change in excess of 0.05; however, only two residues, Thr44 and Ala73, are greater than 0.1. The average chemical-shift displacement,  $\bar{\Delta}_{\text{cs}}$ , is 0.034 28. Methyl proton and carbon resonances are equally similar. This strongly indicates that the structure of the complex is the same in the two conditions.

**Backbone Dynamics of the CaM/CaMKK $\alpha$ p Complex.** The primary objective of this study was to determine the subnanosecond internal dynamics of CaM in complex with CaMKK $\alpha$ p. The macromolecular correlation time,  $\tau_{\text{m}}$ , was determined with  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  data acquired at 500 and 750 MHz from 42 helical residues, assuming isotropic rotational diffusion. The calculated value of 8.78 ns is in excellent agreement with correlation times calculated with HYDRO-PRO (40) using the crystal structure (20) of CaM/CaMKK $\alpha$ p

(8.79 ns) and the average NMR model (19) of CaM/CaMKK $\alpha$ p (8.87 ns) after removal of highly dynamic residues. Measurement at two field strengths produced an over-determined data set resulting in high precision of the dynamic parameters. The dynamics of amide bond vectors along the CaM backbone are summarized in Figure 3. The average order parameter of 134 spectrally resolved amide groups is 0.93 ( $\sigma = 0.077$ ). In accordance with many other protein relaxation studies, the backbone N-H dynamics are generally unrevealing. Aside from the amino and carboxy termini, five residues appear unusually dynamic. A57 and I130 occupy the second position of the second  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -binding loop in their respective EF-hand domains. Low order parameters for these CaM residues and equivalent residues in other calcium-binding proteins have been reported previously (41, 42). T79 and S81 are in the domain linker region, and K115 is within a generally flexible region identified in all CaM relaxation studies to date. Indeed, the overall pattern of  $O_{\text{NH}}^2$  values is generally consistent between CaM and CaM/CaMKK $\alpha$ p. For 79 amides measured in both states, the average  $\Delta O_{\text{NH}}^2$  (CaM/CaMKK $\alpha$ p – CaM) is only 0.0382 (0.053 absolute) with none exceeding 0.225.

**Side-Chain Dynamics of the CaM/CaMKK $\alpha$ p Complex.** Deuterium relaxation studies of methyl-bearing side chains indicate that free, calcium-saturated calmodulin itself is an unusually dynamic protein and is characterized by a broad, nonuniform multimodal distribution of the amplitudes of motion (24). Two-dimensional sampling of deuterium relaxation afforded excellent resolution of methyl  $^1\text{H}$ - $^{13}\text{C}$  cross-peaks and allowed for the relaxation at 71 sites in CaM complexed to the CaMKK $\alpha$ p domain to be quantitated (Figure 4). Unlike amide N-H bond vectors, the symmetry axes of methyl groups in complexed calmodulin are heterogeneously dynamic, even within a specific residue type, with  $O_{\text{axis}}^2$  values corresponding to essentially fixed ( $\sim 1$ ) nearly isotropic ( $< 0.2$ ) motion (Figure 5). Moreover, methyl-bearing side-chain dynamics are greatly affected by the binding of CaMKK $\alpha$ p. Using CaM as a reference state, the average



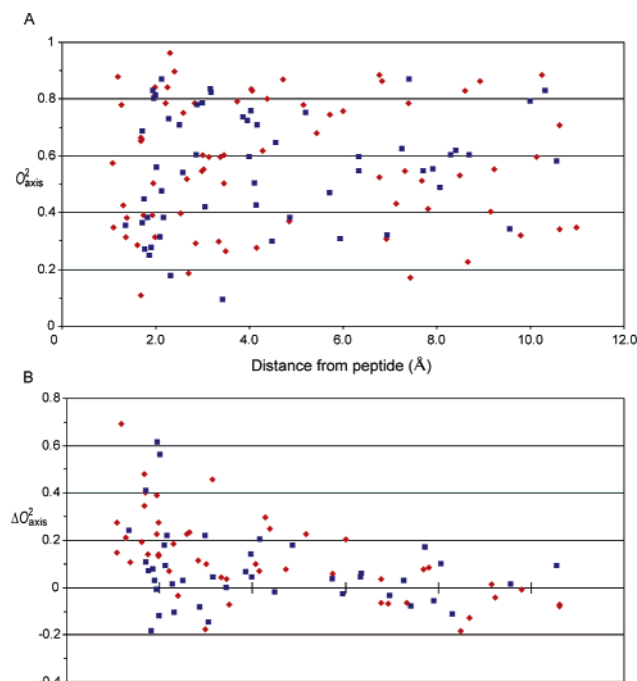


FIGURE 6: Nature of the interfaces between CaM and CaMKK $\alpha$ p or smMLCKp. A shows the absence of a correlation between the distance to the interface between CaM and bound CaMKK $\alpha$ p (red symbols) or smMLCKp (blue symbols) domains and the  $O^2_{axis}$  parameters of methyl groups of CaM. Note the interface is heterogeneously dynamic for both complexes. B shows the correlation between the distance to the interface between CaM and bound CaMKK $\alpha$ p (red symbols) or smMLCKp (blue symbols) domains and the  $\Delta O^2_{axis}$  parameters (complexed CaM minus free CaM) of methyl groups of CaM. The data for the CaM/smMLCKp complex is from ref 24.

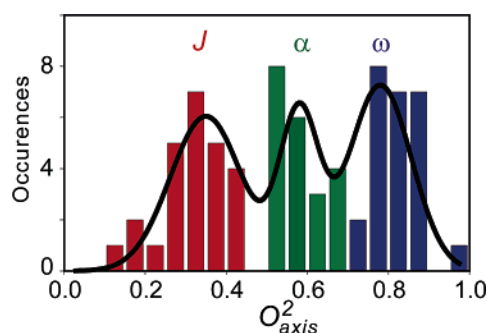


FIGURE 7: Histogram of the distribution of  $O^2_{axis}$  parameters of methyl groups of CaM in complex with CaMKK $\alpha$ p.

In contrast, only 15 of the 36 methyl groups whose order parameters increase upon binding the CaMKK $\alpha$ p domain remain within the same class of motion. A total of 10 methyls that are in the J class in free CaM move to the  $\alpha$  class in the CaM/CaMKK $\alpha$ p complex. One methyl (M124) moves from the J class to the  $\omega$  class (Figure 8A). A total of 10 methyls that are in the  $\alpha$  class in free CaM move to the  $\omega$  class in the CaM/CaMKK $\alpha$ p complex. Interestingly, the CaM/smMLCKp complex shows a more limited response (Figure 8B). In this case, the vast majority of methyl groups remain within the class of motion that they occupy in free CaM. Only 7 of the 42 methyl groups measured move between adjacent classes, and only 1, again M124, moves from the J class to the  $\omega$  class (Figure 8B). Above all, these results show that the dynamic responses of CaM to binding

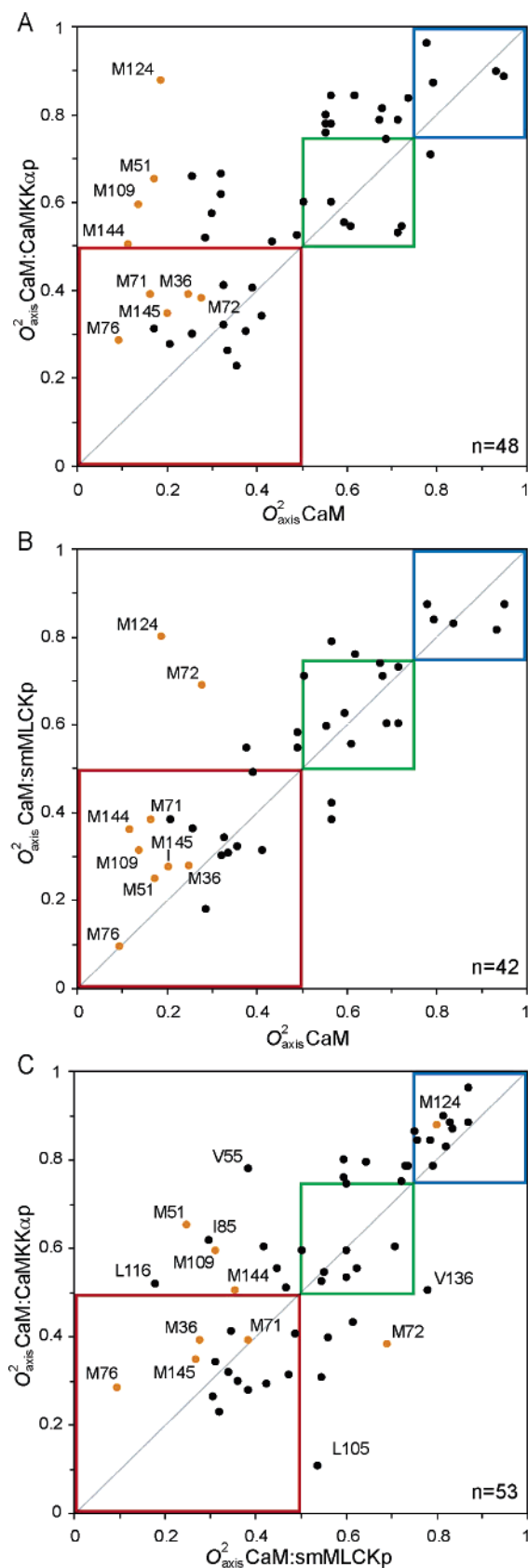


FIGURE 8: Variation of methyl dynamics between free CaM and its complexes with the CaMKK $\alpha$ p and smMLCKp domains. A and B relate the complexes to CaM, and C correlates the two complexes with each other. Data points in orange correspond to methionine residues, and the boxes indicate the three classes of dynamics:  $\omega$  class (blue),  $\alpha$  class (green), and J class (red).

the smMLCKp and CaMKK $\alpha$ p domains are quite different when examined in detail (Figure 8C).

## DISCUSSION

Molecular recognition is a complex process composed of several different, often competing, phenomena. In many cases, the free energy of association can be readily measured and decomposed into enthalpic and entropic components using ITC. Understanding individual contributions at the atomic level has proven more difficult. In principle, NMR relaxation phenomena can provide access to the protein contribution to binding entropy by quantifying changes in the motions that express residual protein entropy (48). Such an interpretation is model-dependent (38, 39, 49). In an effort to begin to understand how changes in the conformational entropy of proteins can influence high-affinity protein–protein interactions, we have undertaken a detailed analysis of the dynamical consequences of the interactions of calmodulin with calmodulin-binding domains of proteins that it regulates. The heterogeneity of the dynamic response of CaM to the binding of a target domain strongly suggests that the protein is responding as a thermodynamic “particle” and lacks a uniform response, with conformational entropy being gathered in an apparently heterogeneous or effectively random fashion. This is most exemplified by the highly varied response of individual side chains, even though the binding of both domains results in a general increase of rigidity (Figure 8C). Overall, CaM is slightly more rigid in complex with the CaMKK $\alpha$ p domain than it is in the complex with the smMLCKp domain (average  $\Delta O_{\text{axis}}^2 = 0.132$ ;  $n = 47$ ). This is consistent with the trend in the change in system entropy upon binding (90 versus 77.5 kJ/mol at 35 °C, respectively) and begins to suggest that the conformational entropy of CaM, inferred from the mobility changes, is acting in concert with the overall change in entropy because of the binding of the target domain. This remains to be firmly established by examination of other complexes with varying thermodynamic character for binding. Such studies are ongoing.

Here, we show that binding of the CaMKK $\alpha$ p domain induces a large-scale change in side-chain dynamics involving residues throughout the CaM sequence, an effect observed previously in the CaM/smMLCKp complex. In what follows, we compare the CaM/CaMKK $\alpha$ p backbone and side-chain motional properties with those of the CaM/smMLCKp complex to assess the variability of dynamics among CaM complexes. A total of 78 of 146 backbone amide and 56 of 78 side-chain methyl order parameters were determined for both complexes, including all nine methionine residues lining the interface between CaM and the target domain. This analysis shows potential for revealing binding hot spots of a dynamic (entropic) nature that would be difficult, at best, to detect by structural analysis alone.

No direct backbone amide interactions between calmodulin and target domains are found in the known canonical structures. For the 98 sites measured in both CaM/smMLCKp and CaM/CaMKK $\alpha$ p complexes, the average change in amide NH order parameter is 0.0106. The average absolute change is 0.0273. This suggests that the backbone dynamics of CaM are similar in CaMKK $\alpha$ p and smMLCKp complexes. One notable exception is a stretch of residues, Lys115–

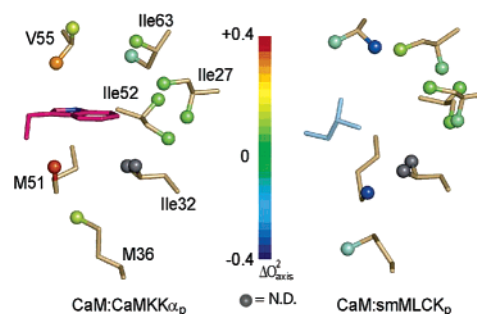


FIGURE 9: Dynamic effect of different hydrophobic anchors in the amino-terminal EF-hand domain. The two structures were globally superimposed using CaM backbone atoms (2.13 Å rmsd). Methyl-bearing residues in close contact with the anchor residues are shown in gold sticks with color-coded balls for methyl groups. The spatially equivalent residues from each peptide are shown in magenta for W7(CaMKK $\alpha$ p) and cyan for L813(smMLCKp). Color-coding reflects changes in  $O_{\text{axis}}^2$  values.

Asp118, located in the carboxy-terminal EF-hand domain with an apparently more rigid backbone (mean  $\Delta O_{\text{NH}}^2 = 0.0838$ ). This area is the site of several charge–charge interactions specific to CaM/CaMKK $\alpha$ p as well as interactions with L17 of the CaMKK $\alpha$ p domain, a residue with no similar counterpart in smMLCKp. As mentioned previously, this is a relatively flexible region of CaM, free and in complex with the smMLCKp domain. Thus, motion is apparently restricted by the local spatial restriction specific to CaMKK $\alpha$ p binding. Methyl groups, on the other hand, are featured prominently at the interface between calmodulin and target domains and offer great potential for insight into the dynamical consequences of these high-affinity interactions. Many of the generalized order parameters for methyl groups in direct contact or participating in the formation of the hydrophobic binding pockets are significantly altered, some of which we describe in detail below. Subsequently, all values are given as  $\Delta O_{\text{axis}}^2$  (CaM/CaMKK $\alpha$ p – CaM/smMLCKp), unless indicated otherwise.

**Amino-Terminal-Binding EF-Hand Domain.** Sequence alignment of CaM-binding domains demonstrates a strong preference for a leucine residue to bind in the amino-terminal EF-hand domain, although methionine and phenylalanine are also sometimes found. CaMKK $\alpha$  is unique in the use of tryptophan in this location; even the CaMKK $\beta$  isoform utilizes a leucine residue. The apparent effect of this substitution on the local dynamics is striking (Figure 9). L18-(MLCK) contacts the methyl groups of L32, V55, and M71 of CaM. The larger W7(CaMKK $\alpha$ p) contacts these residues as well as I27, M51, and I63. Its side-chain is situated between M51 and V55 and forms close contacts with these residues. Accordingly, the methyl  $O_{\text{axis}}^2$  parameters are increased by 0.382 (M51 $\epsilon$ ), 0.192 (V55 $\gamma$ 1), and 0.4 (V55 $\gamma$ 2). The methyl groups for Leu32 are not spectroscopically resolved in the CaM/smMLCKp complex; however, the corresponding  $O_{\text{axis}}^2$  parameters in the CaM/CaMKK $\alpha$ p complex are approximately 0.25 greater than the average Leu order parameter in the CaM/smMLCKp complex ( $n = 7$ ). I27 and I63 form part of the hydrophobic binding pocket, with side chains oriented parallel to the W7(CaMKK $\alpha$ p) ring structure.  $O_{\text{axis}}^2$  parameters for both are similar in the two complexes. Thus, it would appear that the dynamic character of these residues is determined by surrounding CaM residues



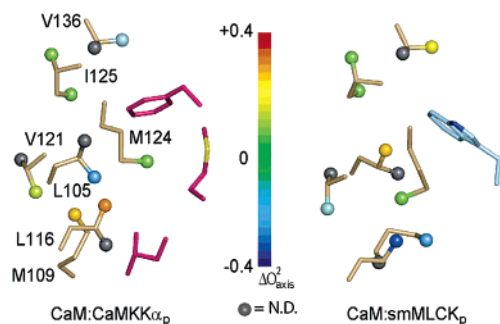


FIGURE 10: Dynamic effect of different hydrophobic anchors in the carboxy-terminal EF-hand domain. Structure superposition and display are the same as in Figure 9. Relevant CaMKK $\alpha$ p-specific residues, M16(CaMKK $\alpha$ p) and M17(CaMKK $\alpha$ p), are also displayed in magenta.

rather than by the target domain. Interestingly, the side chain of I52 is in close proximity but oriented away from the binding pocket and has very similar order parameter values in both complexes ( $\Delta O^2_{\text{axis}} = -0.042$  and  $0.055$ ). Overall, we find that the binding of tryptophan decreases the amplitude of motion in the N-terminal binding domain of CaM as compared to binding a leucine. The indole N–H of W7(CaMKK $\alpha$ p) forms a hydrogen bond with the carbonyl of M51 of CaM, and the increased number of van der Waals interactions may also compensate for the apparent decrease in local conformational entropy.

**Carboxy-Terminal EF-Hand Domain.** The opposite situation exists in the carboxy-terminal binding pocket. Here, the preference is for a tryptophan residue; however, CaMKK $\alpha/\beta$  both utilize phenylalanine. Examination of the structures shows that a methionine side chain from the CaMKK peptide is positioned within the binding pocket, presumably compensating for the smaller side chain (Figure 10). The dominant effect of the Trp  $\rightarrow$  Phe substitution in this binding pocket is felt by L105 $\delta$ 2 ( $\Delta O^2_{\text{axis}} = -0.35$ ). V136 $\gamma$ 1 also experiences a strong decrease ( $-0.276$ ) in order parameter. The adjacent methyl stereoisomers (L105 $\delta$ 1 and V136 $\gamma$ 2) are unfortunately not spectrally resolved. In addition to the residue substitution, there are also structural features that appear to modulate the dynamics of hydrophobic residues in the surrounding area. For example, L116 $\delta$ 1 and V121 $\gamma$ 1 experience 0.34 and 0.16 decreases in side-chain mobility, respectively, although neither makes any strong contact with the CaMKK $\alpha$  peptide. The magnitude of change in L116 is due in large part to the fact that it is highly mobile in the CaM/smMLCKp complex, with an  $O^2_{\text{axis}}$  nearly 0.1 less than the CaM value. Both of these residues, which are 4.5 Å apart, are buried by the  $\beta$  turn (residues 18–22) of CaMKK $\alpha$ p, a feature not found in the smMLCKp domain. Moreover, this substructure forms electrostatic interactions with CaM, presumably increasing the overall rigidity of this region. We note that this conclusion is supported by the backbone  $^{15}\text{N}$  dynamics. The fact that the effects of the Trp  $\rightarrow$  Phe substitution are not as localized as the N-terminal domain (Leu  $\rightarrow$  Trp) is to some degree a consequence of these charge–charge interactions as well as the  $\beta$  turn that CaMKK $\alpha$ p adopts to properly localize the phenylalanine side chain. Therefore, a larger number of CaMKK $\alpha$ p residues interact with calmodulin compared to smMLCKp.

**Methionine Residues.** CaM has an unexpectedly high percentage of methionine residues, most of which are

localized to the hydrophobic surfaces responsible for binding target domains. Systematic mutagenesis of each methionine residue (Met  $\rightarrow$  Gln) identified three general classes of methionines: those whose mutation affected binding and activation of all, none, or only specific targets (50). A similar analysis can be made using comparative side-chain dynamics (orange data points in parts A and B of Figure 8). M124 and M71 are affected to the same extent in both CaMKK $\alpha$ p and smMLCKp complexes, while M36, M76, and M145 are not strongly perturbed in either. Our analysis leads us to conclude M51, M109, and, to a lesser extent, M144 are preferentially influenced by binding CaMKK $\alpha$ p, whereas M72 is affected by binding smMLCKp. M109 was identified by mutagenesis as a residue involved in binding all of the complexes examined; however, our data suggest that this may result from changes in the CaM structure upon mutation. In the CaM/smMLCKp complex, M109 participates in intramolecular hydrophobic interactions between the CaM F and G helices but does not mediate intermolecular contacts between CaM and smMLCKp. Accordingly, the  $O^2_{\text{axis}}$  of M109 is not greatly perturbed by binding smMLCKp. Insertion of a hydrophilic residue in this position may disrupt the proper formation of the C-terminal binding pocket, causing a decrease in affinity. In contrast, L17(CaMKK $\alpha$ p) forms close contacts with M109 ( $\Delta O^2_{\text{axis}} = 0.284$ ). Structurally, this appears to stabilize the interactions between M109 and V121/L116 and, therefore, plays a critical role in determining the dynamics of these residues. Another intriguing distinction between smMLCKp and CaMKK $\alpha$ p complexes is the position and dynamics of M144. In the CaM/CaMKK $\alpha$ p structure, M144 is displaced 6 Å away from the hydrophobic binding pocket by M16(CaMKK $\alpha$ p). This appears to limit M144 interactions with CaMKK $\alpha$ p, yet its  $O^2_{\text{axis}}$  parameter is in fact increased by 0.15.

**Biological Implications.** Site-specific variability in response to binding different ligands is a key indicator of the functional relevance of residual protein entropy in modulating CaM activity (Figure 8C). Local entropy differences between the two complexes are clearly evident by the greater breadth of data points within the 0–0.75 range (red and blue boxes). This contrasts with the tight cluster of 13 residues found to be generally rigid in both complexes. This is not surprising given the similar CaM structure and binding interface in the two complexes. When the highly conserved nature of CaM is taken into account, it appears that the target domain sequences have evolved to exploit the reservoir of CaM internal motional freedom at sites specific to each complex. Furthermore, CaM clearly retains a significant number of dynamic residues in either complex, indicating that additional modulation may be possible, although this may produce unexpected effects on overall protein and/or complex stability. The majority of differentially perturbed CaM/CaMKK $\alpha$ p residues discussed above are readily identified in Figure 8C, with the exception of Ile85. Examination of the NMR and X-ray structures does not immediately provide a rational explanation for the increased  $O^2_{\text{axis}}$  at this site.

We have shown that on a per residue basis the side-chain dynamics of CaM respond differentially to the binding of peptides derived from two kinases but cumulatively in a manner consistent with the overall change in system entropy for each complex. The formation of all CaM/kinase com-



plexes examined to date by ITC are enthalpically driven, high-affinity associations with significant negative entropic components; complexes formed with CaMKK $\alpha$ p, smMLCKp, and CaMKI $\beta$ p are entropically unfavorable by 120–140 kJ/mol. However, the fact that high affinity for CaM is not necessarily accompanied by a strong entropic penalty [e.g., the complex with the CaM-binding domain of neural nitric oxide synthase (23)] suggests that the large entropic penalty consistently present for CaM/kinase formation is significant and fulfills some functional role. It is interesting to speculate that the large unfavorable entropic contribution to binding may be involved with the deactivation of CaM-dependent kinases, whereby phosphorylation of residues within or in proximity to the CaM-binding domain would induce electrostatic repulsion with the highly acidic CaM altering the balance of enthalpic and entropic terms. Phosphorylation of smMLCK and CaMKII has been demonstrated to greatly reduce or abolish CaM binding, respectively (54, 55). In line with this model, autophosphorylation and/or exogenous phosphorylation sites, such as PKA, are consistently found in CaM-dependent kinases of many CaM-binding domains (50–53). Experiments are currently underway with complexes involving the CaM-binding domains of CaMKII or CaMKIV to test this hypothesis. Interestingly, although a number of CaM residues experience similar changes in dynamics (conformational entropy) across a set of complexes studied in our lab (this work; Lee et al. (24); unpublished results), there are many additional residues that do not. Thus, it is possible that the kinase sequences have evolved to bind with high affinity while also utilizing entropy to prime the complexes for rapid deactivation. This clearly exploits the ability of CaM to absorb a variety of discrete, heterogeneously distributed entropic penalties. It will be highly informative to compare the present results with the dynamic behavior of CaM in complex with peptides, whose association is entropically driven. Such studies are ongoing and will be reported elsewhere.

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