

Mitochondrial and Microsomal Ferric b_5 Cytochromes Exhibit Divergent Conformational Plasticity in the Context of a Common Fold[†]

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ABSTRACT: Native-state hydrogen–deuterium exchange (HDX) monitored by NMR spectroscopy has been used to compare conformational plasticity in ferric rat liver outer mitochondrial membrane cytochrome b_5 (rOM b_5) and ferric bovine liver microsomal cytochrome b_5 (bMc b_5). Analysis of the data indicated that rOM b_5 is the less conformationally flexible protein on the time scale probed by the HDX experiments. The data also suggest a likely contributor to the much higher kinetic barrier for the release of heme from OM b_5 s in comparison to Mc b_5 s, a characteristic that may be to a large extent the source of their divergent functional properties. Specifically, the data indicate that conformational mobility within helices α_4 and α_5 , which flank the loop harboring axial ligand His63, is considerably more restricted in rOM b_5 than in bMc b_5 . The lower conformational flexibility of α_4 and α_5 in rOM b_5 can reasonably be attributed to more extensive hydrophobic packing in that region of the protein, arising from two conserved side chain packing motifs in OM cytochrome b_5 s [Altuve, A., Wang, L., Benson, D. R., and Rivera, M. (2004) *Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun.* 314, 602–609].

Mammals possess two genes encoding membrane-associated isoforms of cytochrome b_5 , which likely arose via duplication of a primordial gene and subsequent functional divergence. One gene encodes an isoform of 134 residues (1–3) that is tail-anchored to the membrane of the endoplasmic reticulum (microsomal, or Mc b_5), where it donates electrons to fatty acid desaturases, cytochrome P450s, and other redox partners (4–6). The second b_5 gene encodes a 146-residue protein that is tail-anchored to the outer mitochondrial membrane (OM b_5) (7, 8). Mc b_5 s identified from a variety of mammals exhibit a high degree of amino acid sequence homology (9), and it is therefore not surprising that studies of select proteins have revealed broadly similar biophysical properties. OM b_5 s are comparatively less well-known than Mc b_5 s, having been positively identified in only three organisms to date (rats, mice, and humans) (10). Studies in our laboratories with recombinant proteins representing the soluble heme-binding domains of rat OM (rOM) and human OM b_5 have indicated that biophysical properties of OM b_5 s from different organisms are also broadly similar, but markedly different from those of their Mc counterparts (10). For example, reduction potentials of rat OM b_5 and human OM b_5 are significantly more negative (10–13) than those of Mc b_5 s.

OM b_5 s are also considerably more stable than Mc b_5 s toward thermal and chemical denaturation, a property that has been traced partially to a higher kinetic barrier for dissociation of heme¹ (ferric heme) (9, 10, 14). This is manifested in much slower rates of equilibration of the two heme orientational isomers that are formed in equimolar amounts upon initial binding of the prosthetic group by the polypeptide. Equilibration to the thermodynamically dictated ratio involves rotation of the heme about the α – γ meso axis (15). In the case of the Mc b_5 s, conversion of the less stable isomer to the more stable isomer occurs at measurable rates even at 25 °C (pH 7) (15–19). The corresponding reaction at 37 °C is complete within a few hours. In comparison, equilibration of heme orientational isomers in OM b_5 s proceeds at discernible rates only if the temperature is above ~50 °C. At physiologically relevant temperatures, heme in OM b_5 s is kinetically trapped (9, 20). The differences in biophysical properties of OM and Mc b_5 s noted above, almost certainly related to their specialized subcellular roles, are encoded in their amino acid sequences. Indeed, Mc and OM b_5 s, both within and between species, exhibit a lower degree of amino acid sequence homology than either individual isoform does. The full-length forms of rat OM (rOM) and bovine Mc (bMc) b_5 , the two proteins studied in our laboratories, are 49% identical and 68% similar. The level of homology is somewhat greater (63% identical and 82%

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¹ Abbreviations: heme, iron(III) protoporphyrin IX; rOM b_5 , ferric rat liver outer mitochondrial membrane cytochrome b_5 ; bMc b_5 , ferric bovine liver microsomal cytochrome b_5 ; HDX, hydrogen–deuterium exchange; NMR, nuclear magnetic resonance; MD, molecular dynamics simulations; IPTG, isopropyl thiogalactose; CSI, chemical shift index.

		-1	1		11		21		31	
bMc	b₅				AVKYYTLE	EIQKHNNKS	TWLILHYKVY	DLTKFLEEHP		
rOM	b₅	NGQGS	DPAVTYRLE		EVAKRNTAE		TWMVIHGRVY	DITRFLSEHP		
						*	*	*	*	
		41		51		61		71		81
bMc	b₅	GGEEVLREQA		GGDATENFED		VGHSTDAREL		SKTFIIGELH		PDDR
rOM	b₅	GGEEVLLEQA		GADATESFED		VGHSPDAREM		LKQYYIGDVH		PNDLKPK
			*				*			

FIGURE 1: Amino acid sequences of the recombinant bMc and rOM *b₅* polypeptides used in this study (63% identical and 82% similar based on residues 3–84). The numbering is based on the scheme introduced by Mathews for the lipase fragment of bovine Mc *b₅* (51). The asterisks below the rOM *b₅* sequence denote the positions of residues participating in the conserved rOM *b₅* hydrophobic patches (see the text for details).

similar) when only the soluble heme-binding domains are considered (see Figure 1).

The first proposed role for OM *b₅*, the reduction of ascorbate radical in liver (21), is supported by experimental evidence (11) indicating sufficient driving force to sustain the reaction. This is not the case for Mc *b₅* because of its more positive reduction potential. More recently, two research groups independently reported that OM *b₅* modulates sex hormone synthesis by cytochrome P450₁₇α in testis (22, 23), and in fact, OM *b₅* is the only isoform expressed in that tissue (22). Mc *b₅*s perform this role less efficiently, perhaps again in part because they have a higher reduction potential and therefore a weaker driving force for electron delivery (18, 24, 25). An additional possibility is that electron transfer from *b₅* to P450₁₇α requires conformational changes that are triggered more efficiently by the binding of OM *b₅* than of Mc *b₅*. This strongly suggests potentially different requirements for specificity in protein–protein recognition by the two isoforms. In fact, the importance of protein dynamics in modulating function is now well-established (26–28). In this context, it has been proposed that the ability of Mc *b₅*s to recognize their multiple redox protein partners requires significant adaptability (29). Results of molecular dynamics (MD) simulations (29) were used to suggest that Mc *b₅*s achieve this adaptability via conformational mobility (plasticity) of structural motifs at the protein surface. However, these authors noted that high conformational flexibility can also compromise stability by facilitating release of heme. It is therefore very interesting that (1) rOM *b₅* exhibits much lower surface plasticity than bMc *b₅* does in MD simulations (9, 30) and (2) dissociation of heme from rOM *b₅* is accompanied by a much smaller increase in polypeptide size and dynamic mobility than is release of heme from bMc *b₅* (31). The much higher kinetic barrier for release of heme from OM *b₅*s than from Mc *b₅*s (9, 10, 14), as well as its more favorable interactions with P450₁₇α, may therefore be an indication that OM *b₅*s have fewer protein redox partners and therefore were subjected to less pressure to evolve conformational plasticity.

Despite the fact that Mc and OM *b₅*s exhibit such divergent biophysical (9–11, 14, 20, 31), dynamic, and functional (21–23) properties, the two isoforms adopt almost identical folds as demonstrated by X-ray crystallographic studies of Mc *b₅* (32) and rOM *b₅* (33). Previous studies in our laboratories aimed at probing the structural basis for the divergent OM and Mc *b₅* properties led to identification of two conserved hydrophobic networks in the OM proteins (see Figure 1) (9, 10, 14). The observation in MD simulations of lower polypeptide conformational mobility in rOM *b₅* than in bMc *b₅* provided support to a hypothesis that the conserved

hydrophobic networks make a key contribution to the higher kinetic barrier for release of heme from the OM protein. However, MD simulations provide information about a very short time scale, 1 ns in this case, preventing us from confirming this hypothesis. It is possible that additional differences in conformational flexibility taking place over longer time scales are even more important in differentiating the functional and stability properties of OM and Mc *b₅*s.

We have also replaced the amino acids contributing to the hydrophobic networks in rOM *b₅* with the corresponding residues characteristic of Mc *b₅*s, which form less extensive hydrophobic packing interactions (9, 14). Complete replacement yielded a crystallographically characterized rOM *b₅* quintuple mutant (essentially an rOM–bMc *b₅* “hybrid”) with stability properties similar to those of bMc *b₅*, and with an enhanced propensity to release heme to apomyoglobin (apoMb) (14). While this further supports a key role for the conserved OM *b₅* hydrophobic patches in raising its heme release barrier relative to that of Mc *b₅*, it does not provide detailed information about polypeptide dynamics. In addition, we found that the rOM–bMc *b₅* hybrid releases heme to apoMb much more slowly than does wild-type bMc *b₅* under physiologically relevant conditions (14). This indicates that the relationship between the OM *b₅* hydrophobic patches and stability is much more complex than originally thought.

A complete understanding of the differences in OM and Mc *b₅* polypeptide dynamics is desirable given the strong possibility that they are important for function. Such an understanding requires global information acquired over a time scale that is longer than that which can be achieved in MD simulations, and at a level of structural resolution that is not available via study of hybrid mutants. The work reported herein describes the initial stages of our efforts in obtaining that information. We began with the premise that release of heme from a given *b₅* correlates with the extent of conformational mobility associated with the polypeptide defining its heme-binding pocket. To test this hypothesis, we carried out native-state amide hydrogen–deuterium exchange (HDX) experiments with rOM and bMc *b₅* monitored by NMR spectroscopy. Results and insights obtained from these experiments are reported herein.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Sample Preparation. ¹³C- and ¹⁵N-labeled *b₅* cytochromes were expressed using recombinant pET11a plasmids harboring synthetic genes encoding the water soluble domain of rat OM *b₅* (residues M–6 to K87) (34) and bovine Mc *b₅* (residues M2 to R84) (14, 35). Each of the plasmids was transformed into *Escherichia coli* BL21(DE3), and the cells

were grown in 1 L of M9 minimal medium (36) at 37 °C and shaken at 220 rpm until the optical density of the cell culture at 600 nm (OD_{600}) reached 0.7. Each 1 L culture was pelleted by centrifugation, the supernatant discarded, and the pellet washed with fresh M9 medium not containing glucose and trace metals. The resultant suspension was centrifuged again and the supernatant discarded. In protein expressions aimed at preparing OM b_5 for its use in resonance assignments, each pellet was resuspended in 1 L of M9 medium containing 2 g of [$^{13}C_6$]-D-glucose and 1 g of $^{15}NH_4Cl$ (Cambridge Isotope Laboratories Inc.). In expressions aimed at preparing OM or Mc b_5 for use in HDX experiments, each pellet was resuspended in M9 medium containing 2 g of D-glucose and 1 g of $^{15}NH_4Cl$. The resultant cell cultures were placed back in the shaker incubator and grown until the OD_{600} reached 1.0, at which point protein expression was induced by the addition of IPTG (final concentration of 1 mM). Cells were harvested by centrifugation 3.5 h after induction, and uniformly labeled protein was purified as previously described (37). Samples used for NMR data collection consisted of an ~2 mM cytochrome b_5 solution in phosphate buffer [μ (ionic strength) = 0.10, 95% H_2O /5% D_2O , pH 7.0] with 0.05% (w/v) sodium azide.

NMR Spectroscopy. NMR experiments were performed at 30 °C on a Varian Unity INOVA spectrometer operating at a 1H frequency of 599.73 MHz, equipped with a triple-resonance z-axis gradient probe. Data were processed using NMRpipe (38) and AutoProc (39) and analyzed with the aid of Sparky (T. D. Goddard and D. G. Kneller, SPARKY 3, University of California, San Francisco, CA).

Backbone Resonance Assignments of Rat OM Cytochrome b_5 . At 30 °C, rOM b_5 exists as a 1:1 mixture of heme orientational isomers that differ by a 180° rotation of the heme about the α - γ meso axis. The presence of these two isomers not only causes a virtual doubling of resonances originating from heme (37, 40) but also results in the doubling of backbone and side chain resonances of several residues in the proximity of the heme macrocycle. As a result, there are at least 116 backbone N-H cross-peaks in the 1H - ^{15}N HSQC spectrum of rOM b_5 (Figure S1 of the Supporting Information) instead of the 88 resonances expected if the five prolines are excluded. The N-H, ^{15}N , C^α , C^β , C' , and H^α resonances from each of the heme orientational isomers (except for residues 41 and -6 to -3) were assigned with the aid of two-dimensional (2D) 1H - ^{15}N HSQC, HNCA, CBCACONH, HNCACB, HNCO, HNHA, three-dimensional (3D) 1H - ^{15}N NOESY-HSQC, and three-dimensional 1H - ^{15}N HMQC-NOESY-HSQC experiments implemented from the Varian BioPack package. Chemical shifts were referenced directly or indirectly to the proton frequency of the DSS resonance at 0.00 ppm (41). Chemical shifts are summarized in Table S1 of the Supporting Information.

Backbone Resonance Assignments of Bovine Microsomal Cytochrome b_5 . The solution structure of bMc b_5 has been investigated previously (42–44) using 2D and 3D homonuclear NMR spectroscopy. In addition, the bMc b_5 -horse cytochrome c (45, 46) and bMc b_5 -myoglobin (47) complexes have been investigated by high-resolution multidimensional NMR spectroscopy using ^{15}N relaxation and protein docking simulations. Our analysis of the HSQC spectra obtained from bMc b_5 at pH 7.0 and 30 °C was based

mainly on assignments previously reported in the literature mentioned above. A comparison of the ^{15}N and 1H chemical shifts from Mc b_5 obtained in this work (pH 7 and 30 °C) with those reported previously (42, 45) is shown in Table S2 of the Supporting Information. The data show that 1H and ^{15}N chemical shifts obtained at pH 7 and 30 °C are in good agreement with those reported previously by Hom et al. at pH 6.5 and 25 °C (45), with maximum differences of ca. 0.2 ppm in the ^{15}N dimension and ca. 0.1 ppm in the 1H dimension, which are expected due to the different experimental conditions used in the two studies. There are, however, a few cross-peaks in our HSQC spectra (Asn17, Ser18, Ser20, Leu36, Gly41, and Leu70) whose chemical shifts differ from those reported by Hom et al. (see Table S2). Therefore, cross-peaks from Asn17, Ser18, Ser20, and Leu70 were assigned by comparison to the assignments reported by Musket et al. (42) (Table S2). Chemical shifts for Gly41, not reported previously, were assigned by comparison to OM b_5 (Table S1) on the basis of the unique 1H chemical shift. Leu36 was not assigned. Resonances corresponding to amides in residues Asn16, Phe35, and Asp66 were not used in our HDX analysis due to overlap.

H-D Exchange Studies. Experiments with rOM b_5 were carried out at 30 °C and pD 6.18, 7.07, and 7.92, and experiments with bovine Mc b_5 were performed at 30 °C and pD 6.51, 7.11, and 7.62. For each protein, at least one set of experiments was performed in duplicate. Prior to the start of an HDX experiment, protein samples were exchanged into aqueous sodium phosphate buffer at the appropriate pH and with a μ of 0.10. Samples were then freeze-dried in a Savant (Farmingdale, NY) Speed Vac and subsequently dissolved in 475 μ L of D_2O to yield ~2 mM solutions. The dead time between addition of D_2O to lyophilized protein and the beginning of data acquisition ranged between 10 and 15 min. HDX was monitored by following the time-dependent decrease in amide cross-peak intensity with the aid of 2D 1H - ^{15}N gHSQC (48) spectra. The total acquisition time for each HSQC spectrum (32 increments, eight scans per increment over a 9 kHz spectral width in the 1H dimension and 2.2 kHz in the ^{15}N dimension, 0.12 s acquisition time, 0.8 s relaxation delay, and 1084 real data points) was approximately 8 min. The HDX experiments were monitored for a total of 72 h by acquiring spectra every 10 min for the first 3 h; subsequent delays between spectra were gradually incremented to a maximum of 12 h. Spectra were transformed with 2168 and 64 data points in the F_2 and F_1 dimensions, respectively. The pD of the D_2O solutions was measured immediately after data acquisition (72 h) and corrected for the deuterium isotope effect according to the relationship $pD_{corrected} = pD_{read} + 0.4$ (49), and the corrected value was used in the calculations of k_{ch} (see below). Before the start of a subsequent measurement, the sample was extensively exchanged into aqueous phosphate buffer at the appropriate pH ($\mu = 0.1$). Rate constants for H-D exchange were determined by fitting the time-dependent decay of HSQC cross-peak intensity monitored at each pH to eq 1 (50) (see Figure S2) with the aid of SigmaPlot, version 2001.

$$I_t = I_\infty + A \exp(-k_{ex}t) \quad (1)$$

where I_t represents the cross-peak intensity at time t , I_∞ is the cross-peak intensity at infinite time, A represents the

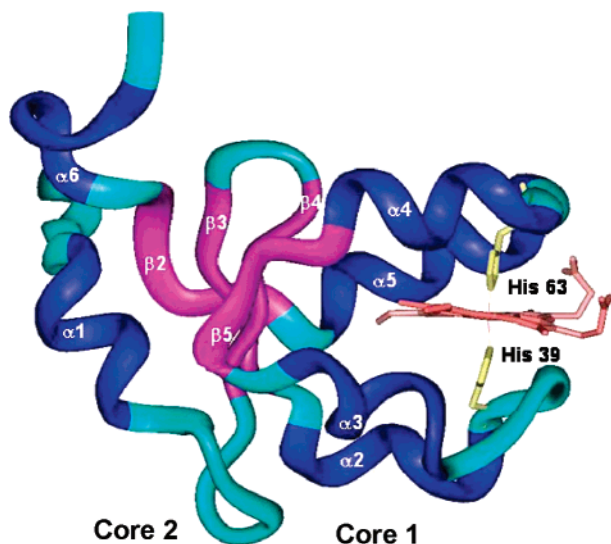


FIGURE 2: Three-dimensional fold of rOM *b*₅ (PDB entry 1B5M) indicating elements of secondary structure in each of the two hydrophobic cores.

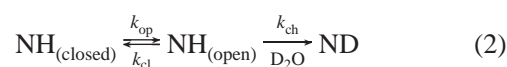
amplitude of the exchange curve, and k_{ex} is the rate constant for N–H exchange characteristic of each residue in the protein. Values for intrinsic rates of exchange (k_{ch}), as well as protection factors and the Gibbs free energy of exchange (ΔG_{HX}) per residue, were calculated utilizing the individual values of k_{ex} and the formulas and spreadsheets available from S. Walter Englander's web page (<http://hx2.med.upenn.edu/download.html>).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Identification of Elements of Secondary Structure in rOM *b*₅. The 3D folds of Mc and OM *b*₅ comprise two crystallographic cores, highlighted in Figure 2 for rOM *b*₅ (32, 33, 51). The heme prosthetic group is contained in core 1 which encompasses sequential secondary structure elements $\alpha 2$, turn, $\alpha 3$, $\beta 5$, $\alpha 4$, turn, and $\alpha 5$, as well as the outer face of $\beta 3$ and $\beta 4$. The heme iron is coordinated axially by the N ϵ atoms of two histidine residues located in the turns between $\alpha 2$ and $\alpha 3$ (His39) and $\alpha 4$ and $\alpha 5$ (His63). Core 2 is composed of two sets of sequential secondary structure elements ($\beta 1$, $\alpha 1$, $\beta 4$, and $\beta 3$ at the N-terminus and $\beta 2$ and $\alpha 6$ at the C-terminus) and appears to serve a predominantly structural role. These shared elements of secondary structure in Mc and OM *b*₅s were originally described in the bMc *b*₅ X-ray crystal structure (51), but have also been observed in solution NMR spectroscopic studies of bMc *b*₅ (42–44). While several NMR spectroscopic studies aimed at probing the heme active site of rOM *b*₅ have been reported (33, 34, 40), this paper reports the first NMR study in which an OM *b*₅ polypeptide has been probed globally. Work that is in progress toward elucidating the solution structure of rOM *b*₅ has already shown that the structure in solution compares favorably with that seen in the X-ray crystal structure (33). For example, the various elements of secondary structure in solution have been identified from analysis of chemical shift index (CSI) data (52, 53) and from experimental homonuclear $^1\text{H}^{\text{N}}\text{--}^1\text{H}^{\alpha}$ J values calculated from an HNHA experiment (54). Results from CSI analysis of $^{13}\text{C}^{\alpha}$, $^{13}\text{C}'$, and $^1\text{H}^{\alpha}$ chemical shifts are summarized in panels A–C of Figure S3 of the Supporting Information, respectively. The

data suggest the following: $\beta 1$ (residues 5–7), $\alpha 1$ (residues 9–14), $\beta 4$ (residues 22–25), $\beta 3$ (residues 28–31), $\alpha 2$ (residues 33–38), $\alpha 3$ (residues 44–49), $\beta 5$ (residues 51–54), $\alpha 4$ (residues 56–61), $\alpha 5$ (residues 65–73), $\beta 2$ (residues 75–78), and an irregular $\alpha 6$ (residues 82–85). Similar conclusions can be obtained from analysis of $^1\text{H}^{\text{N}}\text{--}^1\text{H}^{\alpha}$ J values (Figure S4). “Anomalous” $^1\text{H}^{\alpha}$ chemical shift values are observed for residues Gly41 and His63, as well as $^{13}\text{C}^{\alpha}$ chemical shift values for residues His39 and His63, which is a consequence of their proximity (5–6 Å) to the heme iron.

Interpretive Model for the HDX NMR Studies. Amide hydrogen atoms are thought to exchange with deuterium only when a backbone NH makes contact with solvent; thus, eq 2 shows an equilibrium (K_{op}) between closed (exchange incompetent) and open (exchange competent) conformations (55, 56)



where k_{op} and k_{cl} represent the rate constants for opening and closing of a structure, respectively, and k_{ch} is the intrinsic rate constant for exchange of a particular NH in the open state. It is generally accepted that values of k_{ch} at a given temperature and pH can be estimated accurately with the approach described by Bai et al. (57) utilizing rate constants and equations obtained from unstructured peptides. The experimentally observable rate constant for N–H exchange, k_{ex} , is given by eq 3. When experimental conditions favor the native state of a protein ($k_{\text{cl}} \gg k_{\text{ch}}$), eq 3 simplifies to eq 4 (EX2 limit), where $K_{\text{op}} = k_{\text{op}}/k_{\text{cl}}$ is the equilibrium constant for the opening reaction (58–61).

$$k_{\text{ex}} = \frac{k_{\text{op}}k_{\text{ch}}}{k_{\text{cl}} + k_{\text{ch}}} \quad (3)$$

$$k_{\text{ex}} = K_{\text{op}}k_{\text{ch}} \quad (4)$$

Thus, by comparing the experimentally observable rate constant (k_{ex}) to the expected intrinsic rate constant (k_{ch}) for the corresponding NH in its fully exposed condition, we are able to calculate the free energy (ΔG_{HX}) for the dominant opening reaction exposing the site in question (eq 5).

$$\Delta G_{\text{HX}} = -RT \ln K_{\text{op}} = -RT \ln \left(\frac{k_{\text{ex}}}{k_{\text{ch}}} \right) \quad (5)$$

EX2 behavior is characterized by a 10-fold increase in k_{ex} for every unit increase in pH because the intrinsic rate of exchange is catalyzed by the OH[−] ion (55, 56). On the other hand, when $k_{\text{cl}} \ll k_{\text{ch}}$, the EX1 limit, eq 3 simplifies to eq 6, which shows that k_{ex} would depend on only k_{op} and would therefore be pH-independent.

$$k_{\text{ex}} = k_{\text{op}} \quad (6)$$

Contrasting Behavior of rOM and bMc *b*₅. Per residue plots of ΔG_{HX} created from analysis of HDX data obtained with rOM *b*₅ at 30 °C and pD 6.18, 7.07, and 7.92, as well as with bMc *b*₅ at 30 °C and pD 6.51, 7.11, and 7.62, are shown in Figure 3. At pD ~7, the number of residues exchanging with rates that are too fast to observe experi-

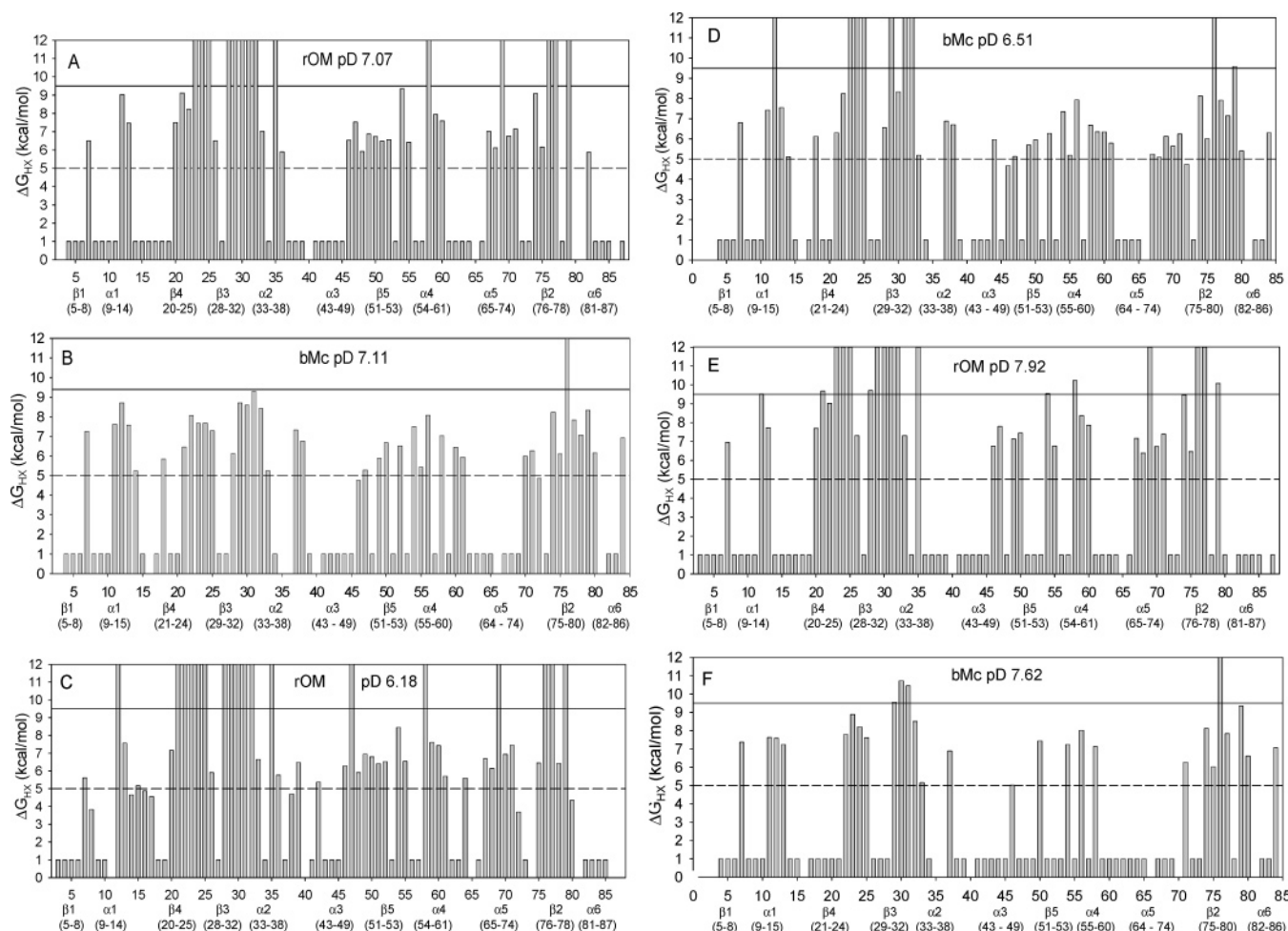


FIGURE 3: Per residue plots of the Gibbs free energy (ΔG_{HX}) obtained for rOM b_5 at 30 °C and (A) pD 7.07, (C) pD 6.18, and (E) pD 7.92. ΔG_{HX} values obtained for bMc b_5 at the same temperature and (B) pD 7.11, (D) pD 6.51, and (F) pD 7.62 are shown for comparison. Vertical bars below the horizontal dashed (5 kcal/mol) line indicate residues exchanging at rates that are too fast to measure, and vertical bars above the horizontal line (9.5 kcal/mol) indicate residues exchanging at rates that are too slow to determine accurately. Those above the 12 kcal/mol line did not undergo observable exchange.

mentally or to measure accurately is approximately 40% in both proteins (Figure 3A,B). The former are represented by the shortest vertical bars in the figures and the latter by all other bars below the horizontal dashed line corresponding to the lower limit value (~ 5.0 kcal/mol) of ΔG_{HX} that is accessible from experimentally measurable values of k_{ex} (absence of a bar in the figure indicates either that the residue is a Pro or that its backbone NH signal could not be assigned). In rOM b_5 (Figure 3A), this is the case for most residues located in the N- and C-termini and for residues in the turns harboring axial ligands His39 and His63. In bMc b_5 (Figure 3B), residues in the loops containing His39 and His63 are similarly prone to immeasurably rapid exchange. However, bMc b_5 differs from rOM b_5 in having a greater number of residues in helices $\alpha 3$ and $\alpha 5$ and in strand $\beta 5$ that fall into this category. On the other hand, residues in $\alpha 1$ and $\beta 2$ of bMc b_5 show a weaker propensity for rapid exchange than rOM b_5 does. The data in panels A and B of Figure 3 show that rOM and bMc b_5 also differ significantly in the number of residues that do not exhibit observable exchange (tallest bars) or that exchange with rates that are too slow to measure accurately (vertical bars above the horizontal line, $\Delta G_{HX} \sim 9.5$ kcal/mol). Approximately 20% of the residues in rOM b_5 exchange with rates that are too slow to measure, mainly those in strands $\beta 3$ and $\beta 4$ and some

in $\beta 2$. In comparison, in bMc b_5 , the only residue exchanging with a rate too slow to measure is Ile76. These observations taken together suggest a significantly different dynamic behavior among the two b_5 isoforms, despite their almost identical fold.

The contrasting dynamic behavior of the two proteins is made more pronounced by investigating their exchange properties at weakly acidic and weakly basic conditions. When the pH of the solution is lowered, the number of residues in rOM b_5 exchanging with rates too slow to measure scarcely increases from $\sim 20\%$ at pD 7.07 to $\sim 22\%$ at pD 6.18 (Figure 3C). In contrast, the number of residues in bMc b_5 exchanging with immeasurably slow rates increases from $\sim 1\%$ (one residue) at pD 7.11 to $\sim 11\%$ at pD 6.51; these encompass mainly those NHs located in strands $\beta 3$ and $\beta 4$ (Figure 3D). Furthermore, the number of residues exchanging at rates too fast to measure in rOM b_5 decreases from $\sim 40\%$ at pD 7.07 to $\sim 30\%$ at pD 6.18, whereas the number of residues exchanging at rates too fast to measure in bMc b_5 remains unchanged ($\sim 40\%$) when the pD is lowered from 7.11 to 6.51. At pD 7.92 (Figure 3E), the number of residues in rOM b_5 exchanging with rates too slow ($\sim 20\%$) or too fast ($\sim 40\%$) to measure remains unchanged relative to that at pH 7.07. In contrast, the number of residues in bMc b_5 exchanging at rates too fast to measure

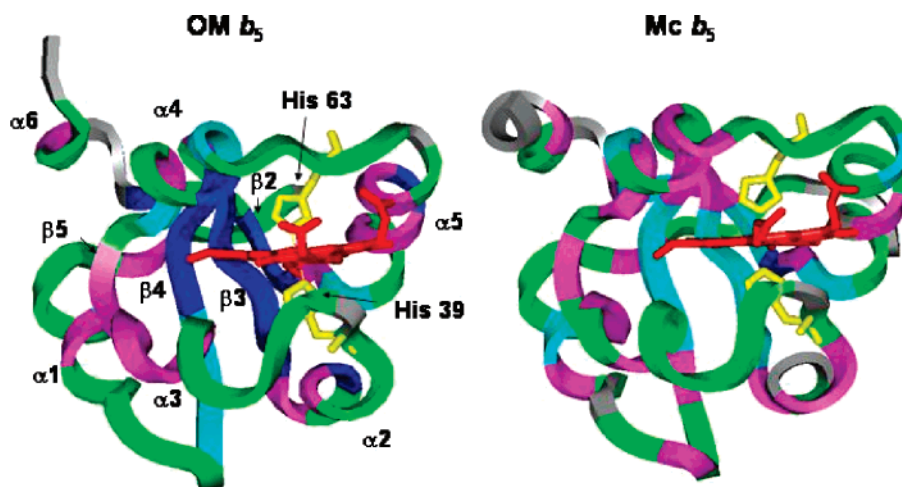


FIGURE 4: Color mapping of ΔG_{HX} values (see panels A and B of Figure 3) on the different elements of secondary structure present in rOM b_5 and Mc b_5 . Secondary structure elements harboring NHs exhibiting immeasurably slow rates of exchange ($\Delta G_{\text{HX}} > 9.5$ kcal/mol) are colored blue, those for which $9.5 \text{ kcal/mol} > \Delta G_{\text{HX}} > 7.5$ kcal/mol cyan, NHs for which $7.5 \text{ kcal/mol} > \Delta G_{\text{HX}} > 5$ kcal/mol pink, and those NHs exhibiting immeasurably fast rates of exchange ($\Delta G_{\text{HX}} < 5$ kcal/mol) green. Heme is colored red, and axial ligands His39 and His63 are colored yellow.

increases from $\sim 40\%$ at pD 7.11 to $\sim 65\%$ at pD 7.62, mainly those in $\alpha 3$, $\beta 5$, and $\alpha 4$ (Figure 3F). These observations clearly indicate that under native conditions rOM b_5 is significantly less prone than bMc b_5 to exploring opening reactions that promote amide hydrogen exchange, despite their almost identical fold. Finally, although in general residues in rOM b_5 exhibit protection factors higher than those exhibited by the corresponding residues in bMc b_5 at all pD values that were studied, there are some noteworthy exceptions: residues 37, 38, and 56 exhibit higher protection factors in bMc b_5 than in rOM b_5 at all pD values that were studied.

The distinctly different dynamic behavior of rOM and bMc b_5 inferred from HDX data at neutral pH is perhaps best illustrated by color coding the results summarized in panels A and B of Figure 3 in the structures of rOM and Mc b_5 , respectively. Thus, in Figure 4, elements of secondary structure containing amide hydrogens exhibiting the highest protection factors ($\Delta G_{\text{HX}} > 9.5$ kcal/mol) are colored blue, those for which $7.5 < \Delta G_{\text{HX}} < 9.5$ cyan, those for which $5 < \Delta G_{\text{HX}} < 7.5$ pink, and those exhibiting negligible protection factors ($\Delta G_{\text{HX}} < 5$ kcal/mol) green. This analysis reveals that most of the residues located at the bottom of the heme pocket in rOM b_5 ($\beta 2$ – $\beta 4$) are refractory to exchange (Figure 4), whereas amide hydrogens in the equivalent structure of bMc b_5 exchange with measurable rates. As pointed out above, this is one of the most striking differences in the propensity of NH exchange exhibited by the two proteins at all pD values that were studied. In this context, it is interesting to consider that heme in rOM b_5 is kinetically trapped at 30 °C (20), whereas heme in bMc b_5 is free to undergo reorientation reactions that occur with a rate constant of 0.4 h^{-1} at 24 °C and pH 7.0 (18). The rate constant is expected to be larger at 30 °C, which indicates that heme in bMc b_5 exits and rebinds several times during the course of the HDX experiments described herein. Consequently, it is likely that the resistance to exchange exhibited by NHs at the bottom of the heme pocket in rOM b_5 ($\beta 2$ – $\beta 4$) is imparted by the inertness of heme toward egress from its binding site. In contrast, for every heme reorientation event in bMc b_5 , if the macrocycle vacates

(completely or partially) the heme binding pocket, solvent has access to the interior and facilitates the exchange of residues in $\beta 2$ – $\beta 4$. Subsequent rebinding of heme expels solvent molecules and therefore protects these groups from exchanging. In the context of this argument, it is interesting to point out that studies by Lecomte and co-workers (62–64) have shown that core 2 persists as a structured β -barrel ($\beta 1$ – $\beta 4$) when heme is removed from rat Mc b_5 , whereas core 1 is significantly more dynamic and unstructured. Therefore, the observation that NHs in $\beta 2$ – $\beta 4$ in bMc b_5 exhibit relatively high protection factors ($7.5 < \Delta G_{\text{HX}} < 9.5$) is consistent with the idea that egress of heme during the reorientation process leaves behind a structured core 2, where NHs in $\beta 2$ – $\beta 4$ are still protected from very rapid exchange.

Identification of Cooperative Amide Proton Exchange. Analysis of HDX data obtained under EX2 conditions with the aim of investigating cooperative motions can in principle be limited by the fact that a protein must experience several opening transitions before a particular proton is exchanged (eq 2). However, it has been demonstrated that HDX data obtained in the EX2 limit can be efficiently used to identify units (groups of amino acids) exchanging in correlated motions (65–67). This can be accomplished by analyzing the data in the context of eq 4, which in logarithmic form becomes eq 7.

$$\log k_{\text{ex}} = \log k_{\text{ch}} + \log \left(\frac{k_{\text{op}}}{k_{\text{cl}}} \right) \quad (7)$$

Thus, in logarithmic plots of k_{ex} versus k_{ch} , data points corresponding to amide protons exchanging in cooperative motions with similar populations of the open state should cluster along a straight line with a slope of 1. The intercept of these lines with the $\log k_{\text{ex}}$ axis when $\log k_{\text{ch}} = 0$ provides an estimate of the equilibrium constant (K_{op}) for the opening reaction (65, 66). In contrast, amide hydrogens exchanging via local, uncorrelated fluctuations are not expected to follow a particular pattern. Measuring k_{ex} at several pH values facilitates the identification of cooperative units because the inherent diversity in k_{ch} (~ 100 fold) (57) exhibited by the different residues in a cooperative unit can be extended by

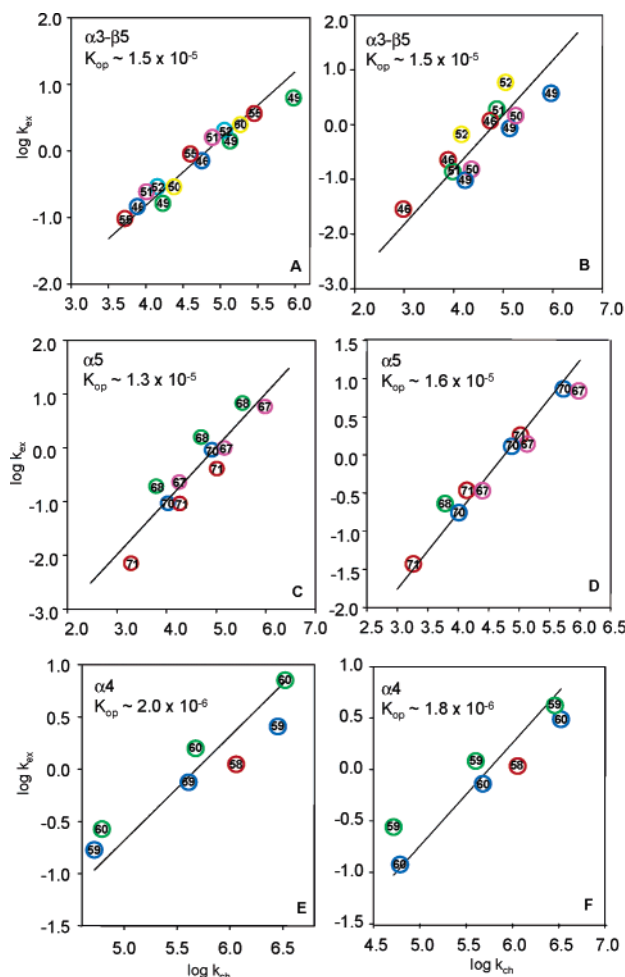


FIGURE 5: Logarithmic plots of k_{ex} (h^{-1}) vs k_{ch} (h^{-1}) constructed with data obtained from rOM b_5 at different pH values. Residues from well-defined elements of secondary structure clustering along a line with a slope of 1 are indicated by numbers inside circles in the different plots. Residues in these clusters share the same intercept of the $\log k_{\text{ex}}$ axis when $\log k_{\text{ch}}$ is zero, indicating a common value of K_{op} (see eq 7) and suggesting that these residues exchange in cooperative motions.

1 order of magnitude for each unit increase in pH (55, 57).

The plots in Figure S5 show that values of $\log k_{\text{ex}}$ increase approximately 1 order of magnitude for every unit increase in pH for most of the amide hydrogens exchanging at measurable rates. This behavior is indicative of EX2 kinetics and therefore makes it possible to analyze the data in the context of eq 7. This analysis shows that several residues constituting the carboxy-terminal end of $\alpha 3$ and those constituting the adjacent $\beta 5$ strand in rOM b_5 cluster along a line with a slope of 1 (Figure 5A). Identical observations are made for residues in the second heme orientational isomer in rOM b_5 (Figure 5B), which is populated to an identical extent. The intercept of the lines in panels A and B of Figure 5 (where $\log k_{\text{ch}} = 0$) suggests that the equilibrium constant for transient unfolding of $\alpha 3$ and $\beta 5$ in rOM b_5 ($K_{\text{op}} = k_{\text{op}}/k_{\text{cl}} \sim 1.5 \times 10^{-5}$) is insensitive to the orientation of heme in its binding pocket. Similarly, several residues constituting $\alpha 5$ in each of the two orientational isomers of rOM b_5 cluster along a line with a slope of 1 (Figure 5C,D), and the intercepts suggest a value for K_{op} of $\sim 1.4 \times 10^{-5}$ for transient unfolding of $\alpha 5$, very similar to that exhibited by $\alpha 3$ and $\beta 5$. These data strongly indicate that the two diastereomeric forms of rOM b_5 exhibit very similar activation barriers for

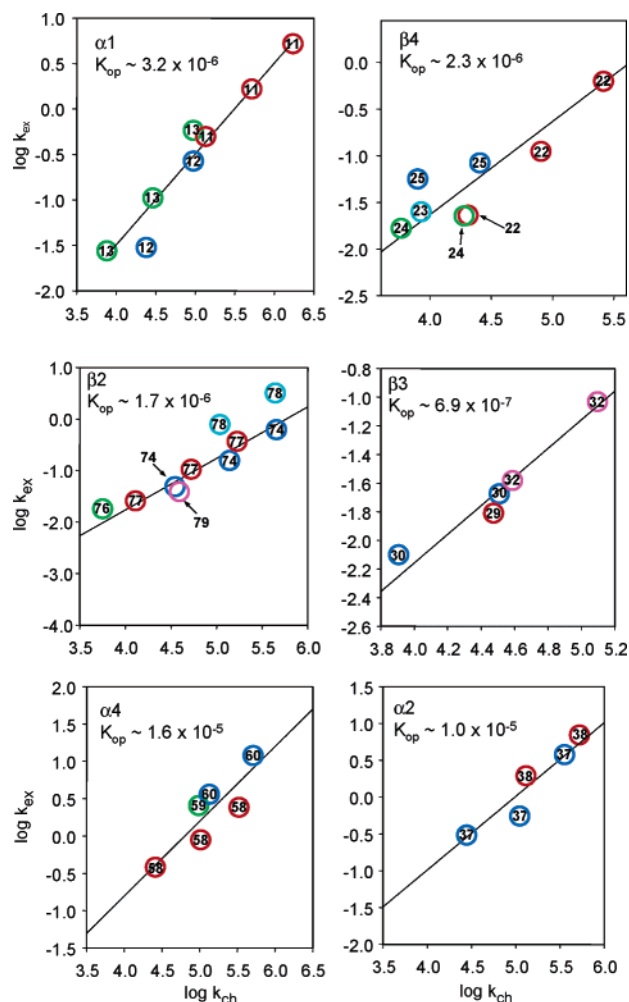


FIGURE 6: Logarithmic plots of k_{ex} (h^{-1}) vs k_{ch} (h^{-1}) constructed with data obtained from bMc b_5 at different pH values. For details, see the legend of Figure 5.

heme dissociation. This is consistent with our observation that the heme orientational isomer ratio in rOM b_5 is only 1.2:1 at equilibrium, which can only be achieved by heating a solution of the protein to temperatures above 50 °C (14, 20, 31). A similar analysis of residues in $\alpha 4$ exchanging at measurable rates in both heme orientational isomers of rOM b_5 (Figure 5E,F) suggests that the C-terminal portion of this helix has a relatively lower propensity to explore the unfolded state ($K_{\text{op}} \sim 1.9 \times 10^{-6}$).

Data obtained for bMc b_5 at pH ~ 7 demonstrate interesting differences relative to rOM b_5 . Before proceeding, however, it is important to point out that the two heme orientational isomers in bMc b_5 exist as a 9:1 equilibrium mixture (15, 18). Consequently, the analysis of resonances and HDX data is concerned only with the most abundant isomer. Most of the residues in $\alpha 3$ and $\beta 5$ of bMc b_5 , and all of the residues in $\alpha 5$, exchange with rates that are too fast to measure (see Figure 3B). Measurable rates of exchange were observed, however, for several residues in $\beta 2$ – $\beta 4$ of bMc b_5 , as well as some residues in $\alpha 1$, $\alpha 2$, and $\alpha 4$. Analysis of these bMc b_5 HDX data in the context of eq 7 shows that exchange rate constants for those residues in helices $\alpha 1$, $\alpha 2$, and $\alpha 4$ and sheet strands $\beta 2$ – $\beta 4$ cluster along distinct lines with a slope of 1 (Figure 6). The estimated values of K_{op} corresponding to the unfolding of $\beta 2$, $\beta 4$, and especially $\beta 3$ are consistent with strong protection of the corresponding amide

hydrogens, as discussed above. The data also show that residues 37 and 38 in α 2, preceding axial ligand His39, exhibit high protection factors, a property not shared by equivalent portions of rOM *b*₅. The data further indicate that the last residues in α 4 (58–60) in Mc *b*₅ appear to exchange via a process involving correlated motions, an observation akin to that made with the corresponding residues in rOM *b*₅ (see panels E and F of Figure 5). It is noteworthy, however, that K_{op} for this segment of α 4 in rOM *b*₅ ($\sim 1.9 \times 10^{-6}$) is approximately 1 order of magnitude smaller than K_{op} in bMc *b*₅ ($\sim 1.6 \times 10^{-5}$). This difference clearly indicates that this section of α 4 in bMc *b*₅ experiences motions that explore the unfolded state with higher probability than the equivalent section of α 4 in rOM *b*₅. We will come back to this observation later in this report.

Interactions Leading to the High Barrier for Hemin Release in OM *b*₅. At first glance, and as discussed above, the HDX data show that amide hydrogens in the last turn of α 3, extending into β 5 in rOM *b*₅, exhibit relatively high protection factors and appear to exchange in correlated opening reactions (Figures 4 and 5). In comparison, amide hydrogens in similar sections of bMc *b*₅ are significantly less protected, which suggests a stronger tendency of equivalent portions of α 3 and β 5 in bMc *b*₅ to explore unfolding reactions. This is extremely interesting in light of previously reported MD simulations showing that bMc *b*₅ is more susceptible than rOM *b*₅ to a large-scale conformational change involving residues in that region. The conformational change was originally reported by Storch and Daggett (29), who showed that it causes a substantial increase in the distance between Ser18 (at the center of a surface-exposed loop in core 1) and Ala50 (bridging the end of α 3 and the beginning of β 5 in core 2). The reversible conformational change created a cleft that exposed several internal residues to the aqueous environment. An analogous study in Kuczera's laboratory (9, 30) showed that the changes in core 2 leading to the cleft involved, in addition to Ala50, the last residue in α 3 (Gln49) and the first two residues in β 5 (Gly51 and Gly52). In contrast, MD studies of rOM *b*₅ showed that an analogous cleft did not form. It is interesting that, despite the very different time scales probed by MD simulations and HDX experiments, the exchange data presented herein also reveal a significantly weaker tendency in α 3 and β 5 of OM *b*₅ to explore unfolded (exchange competent) states than in bMc *b*₅.

Differences in the identity of the residue occupying position 47 in α 3 of rOM *b*₅ (Leu) and bMc *b*₅ (Arg) may contribute substantially to the different susceptibility of the two proteins to undergo a cleft-opening event. Leu47 lies at the surface of rOM *b*₅, and is a key contributor to one of the two conserved OM *b*₅ hydrophobic patches mentioned in the introductory section. The Leu47 side chain forms a hydrophobic packing interaction with the side chain of Ala18, which is located in a core 2 surface loop between α 1 and β 4. The Leu47 side chain also makes van der Waals contact with the buried side chain of Leu36 in α 2, which in turn interacts with the buried side chain of Ile32 in β 3. Interactions among the corresponding residues in bMc *b*₅ (Arg47, Ser18, Leu36, and Leu32) offer much less extensive hydrophobic packing. While the side chains of Arg47 and Ser18 form a polar interaction in the X-ray crystal structure of bMc *b*₅, that conformation is only rarely occupied in MD

simulations of the protein. Furthermore, in the A18S/I32L/L47R triple mutant of rOM *b*₅, the Arg47 side chain favors formation of an intrahelical salt bridge with the side chain of Glu43.

The lower conformational flexibility of the last turn of α 3 extending into β 5 in rOM *b*₅ than in bMc *b*₅ might also be due in part to the only difference in the sequence of amino acids defining β 5 in the two proteins. In rOM *b*₅, residue 52 is an Ala, whereas in bMc *b*₅, it is a Gly. Residue 51 in both proteins is also a Gly. Because Gly is able to explore a greater range of backbone torsional angles than Ala, one might anticipate that β 5 in bMc *b*₅ will have a markedly stronger tendency to sample multiple conformations than will β 5 in rOM *b*₅. The side chain of Ala52 in rOM *b*₅ also packs against the methylene group in the side chain of Gln49 in α 3 (Figure S6A), a potentially stabilizing interaction that is not possible in bMc *b*₅ despite the fact that it also contains Gln at position 49. Additional stabilization for β 5 of rOM *b*₅ in comparison to bMc *b*₅ may arise from a difference in the identity of the amino acid at position 57 in α 4 (Ser in rOM *b*₅ and Asn in bMc *b*₅). The side chain of Gln49 in α 3 of rOM *b*₅ reaches across to the hydroxyl group of Ser57 in α 4 and forms a hydrogen bond. Similar interactions are not observed in the structure of bMc *b*₅ because the side chains of Gln49 and Asn57 are too close to form a hydrogen bond (Figure S6B).

The local differences in packing interactions among residues 49, 52, and 57 in α 3, β 5, and α 4 of bMc and rOM *b*₅, together with differences in hydrophobic packing interactions emanating from nearby residue 47 in α 3, might be expected to be manifested in different dynamic behaviors of the two proteins that extend throughout core 1. Our HDX data suggest that this is indeed the case. For example, a series of strong H-bonds involving residues in α 4 of rOM *b*₅ is observed which can be described as follows. The NHs from Phe58 and Glu59 form strong hydrogen bonds with the carbonyl oxygens of Ala54 and Thr55, respectively (Figure 7). In turn, the NHs of Ala54 and Thr55, which also exhibit high protection factors at all pH values that were studied, form hydrogen bonds to the carbonyl oxygen of Val24 and the side chain carbonyl oxygen of Asp53, respectively. A conformationally restricted β 5 in rOM *b*₅ may therefore potentially limit the mobility of the Asp53 backbone, while hydrophobic interactions between the side chains of Asp53 and Val24 may further restrict the conformation of the Asp53 side chain. Together, these interactions may stabilize the hydrogen bond to the NH of Thr55, representing a possible source of its high protection against exchange at all pH values that were studied. In contrast, HDX data indicate that α 3 and β 5 in bMc *b*₅ are more conformationally dynamic, as manifested by comparatively lower protection factors, i.e., weaker hydrogen bonding interactions in α 4. Hence, although the structure of bMc *b*₅ shows similar hydrogen bonds in helix α 4 relative to those just described in rOM *b*₅, the propensity of these NHs to exchange in Mc *b*₅ is significantly more pronounced. For instance, the NH of Glu59 exchanges very rapidly at neutral pH, the NH of Thr55 exchanges immeasurably fast at pH 7.18 and 7.92 and exhibits a very low protection factor at pH 6.5, and the NH of Ala54 is relatively protected toward exchange.

On this basis, it is reasonable to conclude that an important outcome of reduced conformational disorder in α 3 and β 5

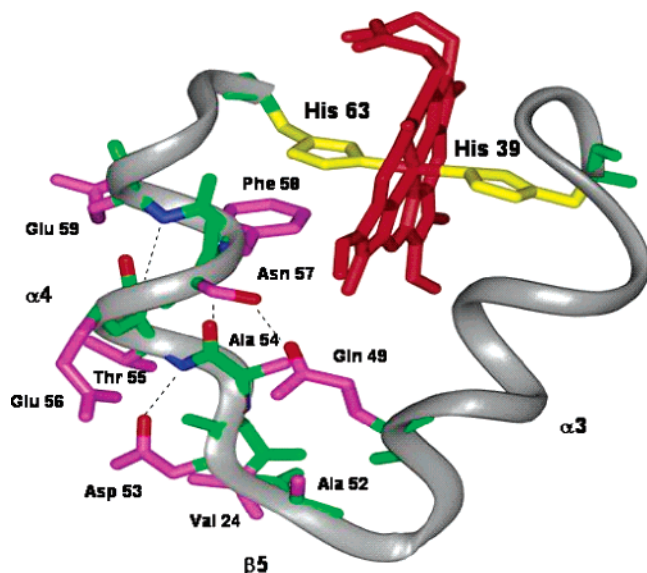


FIGURE 7: View of a portion of the rOM b_5 structure illustrating how stability in $\alpha 3$ and $\beta 5$ is propagated via hydrogen bonds involving amide hydrogens exhibiting high protection factors. This view also illustrates the face-to-face π -stacking interactions between the side chains of Phe58 and axial ligand His63. Heme is colored red, and axial ligands are colored yellow, side chains pink, carbonyl oxygens red, amide nitrogens blue, and backbone atoms green.

of rOM b_5 , propagated along $\alpha 4$ via key interactions, results in the restricted conformational flexibility of Phe58. The latter is evident from its very high protection factor at all pH values that were studied. The significance of this observation is illuminated by inspection of the structure of rOM b_5 , which shows that the side chain of Phe58 engages in edge-to-face aromatic interactions with the heme and in π -stacking interactions with the imidazolyl side chain of heme ligand His63 (Figure 7). In addition, the backbone carbonyl oxygen of Phe58 forms a hydrogen bond with the side chain NH of His63. These interactions may be conceived to act in synergism to minimize the conformational mobility of His63. Therefore, the lower mobility of $\alpha 3$ and $\beta 5$ in rOM b_5 than in bMc b_5 may ultimately be manifested in a stronger His63–Fe coordination bond in the mitochondrial isoform. This, in turn, could lead to a lower propensity for heme to egress from rOM b_5 . The comparatively greater conformational freedom of $\alpha 3$ and $\beta 5$ in bMc b_5 may be ultimately manifested in greater conformational freedom of Phe58, which may lead to relatively lower stability of the His63–Fe coordination bond. It should also be mentioned that the role of a relatively stable $\alpha 4$ in maintaining hemoprotein stability and in lowering the propensity for heme release is in agreement with the approximately 1 order of magnitude smaller K_{op} for $\alpha 4$ in rOM b_5 relative to bMc b_5 (Figures 5 and 6) and with a recent report indicating that destabilization of $\alpha 4$ results in a protein with a significantly lower affinity for heme (68).

Further analysis of HDX data provides additional insights into the characteristically low propensity of rOM b_5 to release heme. These findings stem from the observation that several NHs in $\alpha 5$ of rOM b_5 exhibit relatively high protection factors at all pH values that were studied. Noteworthy among these residues is the NH of Glu69 (center of $\alpha 5$) which exhibits immeasurably slow rates of exchange at all pH values. Inspection of the structure reveals that the Glu69 NH

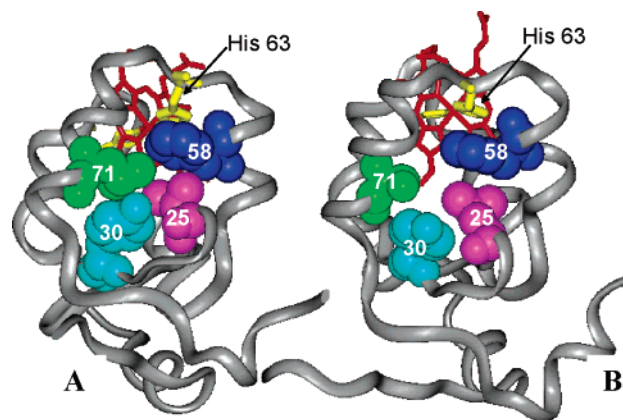


FIGURE 8: (A) View of rOM b_5 highlighting interactions among residues Ile25, Tyr30, Phe58, and Leu71. (B) Similar view of bMc b_5 highlighting interactions among Leu25, Phe30, Phe58, and Ser71 in bMc b_5 . Heme is colored red, and axial ligands His39 and His63 are colored yellow.

forms a hydrogen bond with the carbonyl oxygen of Pro65 and strongly suggests that the very strong protection of the Glu69 NH toward exchange is imparted by the low conformational mobility of Pro65. Furthermore, the side chain of neighboring residue Arg68 in $\alpha 5$ forms an H-bond with that of Glu59 in $\alpha 4$, whose backbone NH also has an immeasurably slow rate of exchange, suggesting an additional possible contributor to the lower mobility near His63 of rOM b_5 than of bMc b_5 . Thr occupies position 65 in bMc b_5 , which cannot provide such an “anchoring” effect.

An additional factor contributing to the higher stability of $\alpha 5$ in rOM b_5 is the presence of a second hydrophobic network present in OM b_5 s but absent in Mc b_5 s (10, 14). One way of describing this hydrophobic network in rOM b_5 (Figure 8A) starts with Leu71, located in the final turn of $\alpha 5$, which makes hydrophobic contact with Phe58, located in the opposing helix $\alpha 4$, and with Ile25, harbored by strand $\beta 4$. Leu71 and Ile25 also make hydrophobic contact with Tyr30, located at the bottom of the heme pocket in strand $\beta 3$. This hydrophobic network is extended by van der Waals contacts between the heme and side chains of residues 25, 58, and 71. A similar view of bMc b_5 (Figure 8B) indicates that the tightly knit hydrophobic network of the rOM protein is absent in the Mc isoform. The absence of an equivalent hydrophobic network in Mc b_5 s originates from the presence of Leu at position 25 and Ser at position 71, which results in a cavity that permits water to access the heme (14). Replacement of Ile25 and Leu71 in rOM b_5 with their equivalent residues in Mc b_5 (Leu and Ser, respectively) opened a similar cavity in the structure of the rOM mutant. The structural changes were accompanied by a concomitant decrease in stability and a modest increase in the tendency to release heme relative to the wild-type protein (14). It is therefore likely that the markedly higher protection factors in $\alpha 5$ of rOM b_5 are in part a consequence of propagation of the lower conformational flexibility in the hydrophobic network shown in Figure 8A via Leu71. This kind of stabilization is clearly not possible in bMc b_5 .

When all the information given above is put together, the picture that emerges indicates that the two hydrophobic networks unique to OM b_5 contribute to lowering the conformational flexibility in the last turn of $\alpha 3$, the entirety of $\beta 5$, and most of $\alpha 5$. The influence of $\alpha 3$ and $\beta 5$ is

propagated via key interactions along $\alpha 4$, whereas $\alpha 5$ is stabilized by the presence of Pro65 on one side of the helix and the participation of Leu71 in key hydrophobic interactions on the opposite side. An important consequence of these interactions in rOM *b*₅ is the stabilization of the two helical segments leading into the loop containing His63 ($\alpha 4$ and $\alpha 5$), which lowers the propensity of these two helical segments to melt (see Figure 4), therefore contributing to a stronger Fe–His63 coordination bond. An additional but related manner in which the Fe–His63 bond is stabilized in rOM *b*₅ is by strong restriction of the conformational mobility of Phe58 in $\alpha 4$. Restricted backbone and side chain conformational mobility in Phe58, in turn, restricts the conformational mobility of the His63 imidazolyl side chain and likely contributes to a stronger coordination bond.

It is also interesting to observe that in contrast to the relatively restricted conformational dynamics in elements of secondary structure leading to the loop harboring His63, elements of secondary structure leading to the loop containing the other axial ligand, His39, are more prone to undergoing unfolding reactions. The latter is manifested in immeasurably fast rates of exchange for the latter part of $\alpha 2$, which leads toward the loop containing His39 and the equally fast exchange of NHs in the first half of $\alpha 3$, which leads away from this loop (Figure 4). This suggests that compared to His63, His39 is more susceptible to undergoing conformational fluctuations which would ultimately reduce the strength of the Fe–His39 coordination bond. Hence, it is tempting to hypothesize that release of heme from cytochrome *b*₅ would start by dissociation of the Fe–His39 coordination bond. For heme to be released, dissociation of the Fe–His63 bond would have to occur before rebinding of His39 occurs. The relatively low conformational flexibility of the helices leading to the loop containing His63 suggests that in rOM *b*₅ rebinding of His39 is a more probable event than dissociation of His63, thus explaining the kinetic trapping of heme in this molecule. In comparison, the relatively large conformational flexibility in the neighborhood of His63 in Mc *b*₅ suggests that dissociation of the Fe–His63 bond would occasionally occur before rebinding of His39. This situation would allow heme egress and therefore heme reorientation. Although this hypothesis awaits further experimentation, it finds support in conclusions obtained from kinetic studies carried out with axial ligand mutants of rat Mc *b*₅ which indicated that the first step in heme binding proceeds via the initial coordination of His63 (69) and from the fact that in Mc *b*₅ replacement of His39 results in a protein with higher affinity for heme than replacement of His63 (69, 70).

Concluding Remarks. Previous investigations in our laboratories aimed at understanding the distinct biochemical and biophysical properties of rOM and bMc *b*₅s were carried out on the basis of amino acid sequence comparisons in the context of their three-dimensional structures. This approach allowed identification of two hydrophobic clusters in OM *b*₅s that are less extensive in the Mc isoforms. Our studies in which key residues contributing to those clusters in rOM *b*₅ were replaced with the corresponding residues characteristic of Mc *b*₅s demonstrated that they play a role in the greater stability and higher heme release barriers of the OM proteins (9, 14). They did not, however, provide direct insight into the way in which interactions within those clusters render OM *b*₅s with less structural plasticity than Mc *b*₅s. Our

interest in delineating the relationship between structure and dynamics is related to our long-term goal of understanding how they govern functional properties. For example, OM *b*₅s may have evolved to interact with a relatively limited set of physiological partners in comparison to Mc *b*₅s, and might therefore have less need for adaptability via surface conformational mobility. In this context, the correspondingly low heme release barriers of Mc *b*₅s may be an interesting but functionally irrelevant consequence of developing surface conformational plasticity that allows interactions with diverse physiological partners. Another possibility that we have entertained is that the more negative reduction potentials exhibited by OM *b*₅s in comparison to their Mc counterparts, which provide a stronger driving force for electron delivery, are a direct consequence of their greater stability and lower dynamic mobility. In this context, it is noteworthy that studies with synthetic bis-histidine-coordinated heme peptides have shown that structural changes which diminish peptide conformational mobility result in greater stabilization of His–Fe(III) coordination than of His–Fe(II) coordination and therefore a negative shift in reduction potential (71, 72). Studies aimed at comparing stability and dynamic properties of bMc and rOM *b*₅ in the ferrous oxidation state are presently underway in our laboratories.

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SUPPORTING INFORMATION AVAILABLE

¹H–¹⁵N HSQC spectrum of ferric rat OM *b*₅ (Figure S1), time-dependent decrease of cross-peak intensity (Figure S2), summary of chemical shift index data (Figure S3), per residue plots of ¹H^N–¹H^α *J* values (Figure S4), plots of log *k*_{ex} versus pD (Figure S5), view of interactions among residues 49, 52, and 57 in rOM *b*₅ and bMc *b*₅ (Figure S6), ¹H, C', C^α, C^β, and H^α chemical shifts for rat ON *b*₅ (Table S1), and comparison of ¹H and ¹⁵N chemical shifts for bovine MC *b*₅ (Table S2). This material is available free of charge via the Internet at <http://pubs.acs.org>.

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