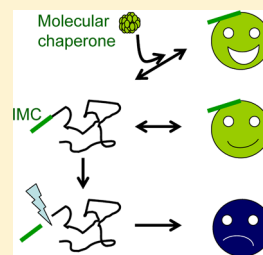


# The N-Terminal Extension of $\beta$ B1-Crystallin Chaperones $\beta$ -Crystallin Folding and Cooperates with $\alpha$ A-Crystallin

Xiao-Yao Leng,<sup>#</sup> Sha Wang,<sup>#</sup> Ni-Qian Cao, Liang-Bo Qi, and Yong-Bin Yan\*

State Key Laboratory of Biomembrane and Membrane Biotechnology, School of Life Sciences, Tsinghua University, Beijing 100084, China

**ABSTRACT:**  $\beta/\gamma$ -Crystallins are the major structural proteins in mammalian lens. The N-terminal truncation of  $\beta$ B1-crystallin has been associated with the regulation of  $\beta$ -crystallin size distributions in human lens. Herein we studied the roles of  $\beta$ B1 N-terminal extension in protein structure and folding by constructing five N-terminal truncated forms. The truncations did not affect the secondary and tertiary structures of the main body as well as stability against denaturation. Truncations with more than 28 residues off the N-terminus promoted the dissociation of the dimeric  $\beta$ B1 into monomers in diluted solutions. Interestingly, the N-terminal extension facilitated  $\beta$ B1 to adopt the correct folding pathway, while truncated proteins were prone to undergo the misfolding/aggregation pathway during kinetic refolding. The N-terminal extension of  $\beta$ B1 acted as an intramolecular chaperone (IMC) to regulate the kinetic partitioning between folding and misfolding. The IMC function of the N-terminal extension was also critical to the correct refolding of  $\beta$ -crystallin heteromer and the action of the lens-specific molecular chaperone  $\alpha$ A-crystallin. The cooperation between IMC and molecular chaperones produced a much stronger chaperoning effect than if they acted separately. To our knowledge, this is the first report showing the cooperation between IMC and molecular chaperones.



In mature mammalian lens fiber cells, the intracellular organelles are degraded in an apoptotic-like manner to minimize light scattering during the transmission of visible light through the lens.<sup>1</sup> As a result, there is little or no protein turnover in mature lens fiber cells, and the lens proteins are required to maintain stability across an individual's lifespan.<sup>2–4</sup> Crystallins, which are the dominant structural proteins in mammalian lens, are believed to be responsible for the maintenance of the transparency and refractive index of the lens.<sup>5,6</sup> Aggregation of crystallins and/or their proteolytic fragments caused by aging or inherited mutations has been linked to the onset of cataract, which is the opacification of the lens leading to loss of vision.<sup>7,8</sup> The importance of crystallins in lens transparency has been evidenced by the discovery of numerous inherited mutations associated with autosomal dominant congenital cataract.<sup>9</sup>

The mammalian crystallins are categorized into three classes ( $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ , and  $\gamma$ ) based on their elution positions on the size-exclusion chromatography (SEC) profile. In diluted solutions, they are distinct in their oligomerization states:  $\alpha$ -crystallin with an average of  $\sim 24$  subunits,  $\beta$ -crystallin with 2–8 subunits, and  $\gamma$ -crystallin existing as a monomer.<sup>2,3</sup> The  $\beta$ - and  $\gamma$ -crystallins, which form the  $\beta/\gamma$ -crystallin family, share a conserved tertiary structure with four Greek-key motifs divided into two domains (Figure 1).<sup>3</sup> There are seven members in human  $\beta$ -crystallins: four acidic ( $\beta$ A1,  $\beta$ A2,  $\beta$ A3,  $\beta$ A4) and three basic forms ( $\beta$ B1,  $\beta$ B2, and  $\beta$ B3).  $\beta$ -Crystallins can exist as homomers or heteromers in the lens, and heteromers are generally formed between acidic and basic  $\beta$ -crystallins.<sup>10,11</sup> The structural basis for the oligomerization-prone property of  $\beta$ -crystallins remains elusive, although many previous papers have addressed this problem in the last  $\sim 30$  years.<sup>10–23</sup> Nonetheless, it is clear that

the extra N- and C-terminal extensions of  $\beta$ -crystallins play an important role in the homo- and hetero-oligomerization of  $\beta$ -crystallins.<sup>11,13,14,17,21,24–28</sup> Among the seven  $\beta$ -crystallins,  $\beta$ B1 is unique for the longest N- and C-terminal extensions (Figure 1A). NMR and biophysical studies have shown that the N-terminal extension of  $\beta$ B1 is dominated by unordered structures,<sup>18,26,29</sup> and residues 29–47 are proposed to form helical structures adjacent to the main body of the molecule.<sup>26</sup> The loop from residues 48 to 56 is thought to be crucial to the homo- and hetero-oligomerization of  $\beta$ B1.<sup>19,26,27</sup>

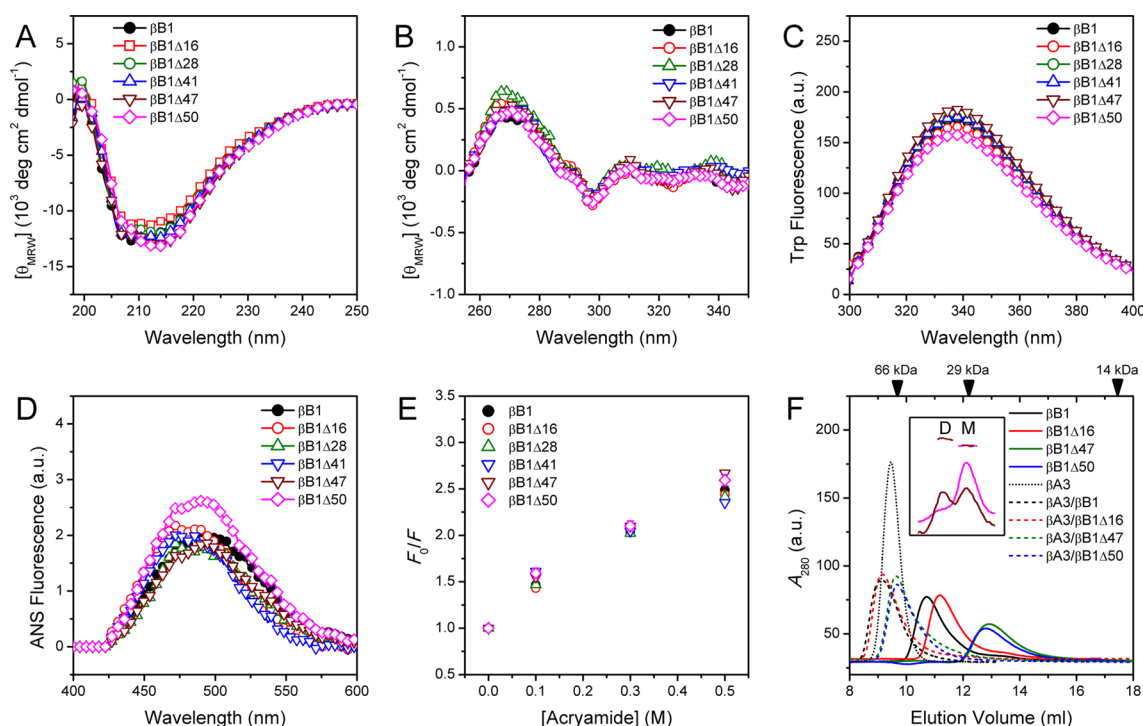
During lens development and aging,  $\beta$ -crystallins are found to have various post-translational modifications including the truncations of the N- and C-terminal extensions.<sup>4,16,30–33</sup> Extensive fragmentation and proteolysis of crystallins are associated with age-related cataract<sup>4,32,33</sup> and congenital cataract.<sup>34</sup> However, the truncations of the N-terminal extensions of  $\beta$ B1 and  $\beta$ A3 may occur early during lens development since the truncated forms are detected even in newborns.<sup>30,31</sup> This suggests that the N-terminal extensions of these two proteins may play a role in lens development, although the underlying mechanism is unclear. The length of  $\beta$ B1 N-terminal extension is found to correlate with the size distribution of  $\beta$ -crystallin oligomers in the lens.<sup>16</sup> However, the N-terminal truncations ranging from 15 to 41 residues have been identified in the soluble fraction of normal human lens.<sup>16,30,31,35</sup> Consistently, the truncations with the removal of 41 or 47 residues at the N-terminus are found to have no impact on  $\beta$ B1 stability against thermal aggregation or urea-

Received: February 3, 2014

Revised: March 25, 2014

Published: March 26, 2014





**Figure 2.** Effects of the N-terminal truncations on  $\beta$ B1 structure and assembly. (A) Far-UV CD. (B) Near-UV CD. (C) Intrinsic Trp fluorescence with an excitation wavelength of 295 nm. (D) Extrinsic ANS fluorescence with an excitation wavelength of 380 nm. (E) Trp fluorescence quenching by acrylamide. (F) SEC analysis. The inset of panel F shows the SLS analysis of  $\beta$ B1 and  $\beta$ B1 $\Delta$ 50. The behavior of  $\beta$ B1 $\Delta$ 16 was the same as that of  $\beta$ B1, while those of  $\beta$ B1 $\Delta$ 28,  $\beta$ B1 $\Delta$ 41, and  $\beta$ B1 $\Delta$ 47 were the same as that of  $\beta$ B1 $\Delta$ 50 (data not shown). The protein samples were prepared in buffer A containing 20 mM sodium phosphate, 150 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, and 1 mM DTT. The presented spectra were obtained by subtracting the original spectra by that of the control. The control spectra of CD and Trp fluorescence were measured using buffer A, while that of ANS fluorescence was measured using buffer A with the addition of 75 mM ANS. The protein concentration was 6.9  $\mu$ M for far-UV CD, Trp and ANS fluorescence measurements and 34.5  $\mu$ M for near-UV CD and SLS analysis.

by exciting at 295 nm and recording at 90° on a Hitachi F-2500 spectrofluorimeter.<sup>42</sup> The circular dichroism (CD) spectra were recorded on a Jasco-715 spectrophotometer. Far-UV CD was measured using a 0.1 cm-path length cell and a protein concentration of 3.45  $\mu$ M, while the near-UV CD was measured using a 1-cm path length cell and a protein concentration of 34.5  $\mu$ M. Static light scattering (SLS) experiments were performed by separating the proteins with a concentration of 34.5  $\mu$ M using a size exclusion chromatography column for multi-angle light scattering purchased from Wyatt Technology (WTC-030S5). Fluorescence quenching by acrylamide was performed using the same procedure as that described elsewhere.<sup>43</sup> In brief, the proteins were incubated for 2 h in buffer A with or without the addition of 0.1, 0.3, or 0.5 M acrylamide at room temperature. The quenching effect of acrylamide ( $F_0/F$ ) was obtained by dividing the Trp fluorescence intensity at 340 nm of the sample in the absence of acrylamide ( $F_0$ ) by that of the sample with the addition of acrylamide ( $F$ ).

**Protein Stability.** The thermal stability of the proteins was evaluated by heating the protein samples continuously with the temperature increased from 30 to 86 °C. The temperature was controlled by a water bath. The far-UV CD, Trp fluorescence, light scattering, or turbidity data were recorded every 2 °C after 2 min equilibration. The stability against chemical denaturants GdnHCl was measured by denaturing the proteins in the buffers containing various concentrations of GdnHCl ranging from 0 to 6 M. After denaturation overnight (12–16 h), the samples were used for far-UV CD, Trp fluorescence, or

turbidity experiments. The protein concentration was 0.2 mg/mL ( $\sim$ 6.9  $\mu$ M).

**Protein Thermal Aggregation.** Protein aggregation was monitored by turbidity (absorbance at 400 nm) recorded on an Ultraspec 4300 pro UV/visible spectrophotometer from Amersham Pharmacia Biotech (Uppsala, Sweden). The temperature dependence of aggregation was measured after the samples were equilibrated at a given temperature for 2 min. The thermal aggregation kinetics was determined by recording the turbidity immediately after the proteins were heated at 75 °C. The final protein concentration was 0.2 mg/mL for protein thermal aggregation experiments.

**Protein Aggregation during Refolding.** The proteins were fully denatured in 4 M GdnHCl at 25 °C for 4 h. The refolding was initiated by a 1:40 manual fast dilution of the GdnHCl-denatured proteins in the refolding buffer (buffer A containing 20 mM sodium phosphate, 150 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, and 1 mM DTT). The final protein concentration for the refolding experiments was 3.45  $\mu$ M. The effects of  $\beta$ - and  $\alpha$ A-crystallins were evaluated by refolding the denatured proteins in buffer A with the addition of equal molar amount of native  $\beta$ - or  $\alpha$ A-crystallins. The co-refolding of  $\beta$ A3/ $\beta$ B1 was performed by kinetic refolding of the denatured  $\beta$ A3/ $\beta$ B1 heteromer as described previously.<sup>23</sup> The effect of the synthetic peptide corresponding to first 50 residues of  $\beta$ B1 was evaluated by refolding of the denatured  $\beta$ -crystallins in buffer A in the presence or absence of the synthetic peptide with a molar ratio of [protein]/[peptide] = 1:60. The time-course aggregation during refolding was monitored by turbidity, and the data were



recorded every 2 s for 10–20 min. After refolding for 60 min, the samples were centrifuged at 12 000 rpm for 8 min to separate the soluble and insoluble fractions. The insoluble precipitations were washed twice using the refolding buffer, and the precipitations were resuspended in 400  $\mu$ L of refolding buffer. Then the soluble and insoluble fractions were analyzed by 12.5% SDS-PAGE.

## RESULTS

**Effects of the N-Terminal Truncation on  $\beta$ B1-Crystallin Structure and Assembly.** Previous studies have shown that the removal of 56 or 59 residues off the N-terminus results in completely insoluble overexpression of  $\beta$ B1 in *E. coli* BL21 cells.<sup>26,27</sup> In this research, the overexpressed recombinant proteins of shorter truncations ( $\beta$ B1 $\Delta$ 16,  $\beta$ B1 $\Delta$ 28,  $\beta$ B1 $\Delta$ 41,  $\beta$ B1 $\Delta$ 47, and  $\beta$ B1 $\Delta$ 50) were found to exist in both the soluble and insoluble fractions. The structural features of the purified proteins were investigated via biophysical methods. As shown in Figure 2A, the CD spectrum of  $\beta$ B1 contained a negative peak centered at  $\sim$ 213 nm and an obvious shoulder at around 207 nm, which is consistent with the previous observations.<sup>26,27,36,38</sup> The N-terminal truncations altered the shape of the CD spectrum of  $\beta$ B1 with a significant decrease of the shoulder peak at  $\sim$ 206 nm. Thus, the truncated mutants contained more ordered  $\beta$ -sheet components, which coincided with the proposal that the N-terminal extension of  $\beta$ B1 is dominated by unordered flexible structures as well as potential helical structures<sup>18,26,29</sup> and the crystal structure of the truncated  $\beta$ B1 (Figure 1B). No significant changes were observed for the tertiary structure of  $\beta$ B1 by the truncations as reflected by the almost superimposed data of near-UV CD (Figure 2B), the emission maximum wavelength ( $E_{\text{max}}$ ) of the Trp fluorescence (Figure 2C), the ANS fluorescence (Figure 2D), and the fluorescence quenching by acrylamide (Figure 2E). A slight increase ( $\sim$ 25%) could be seen for  $\beta$ B1 $\Delta$ 50, which might be caused by the exposure of adjacent hydrophobic sites around Arg50 since neither the core structure (Figure 2C,E) nor the stability (see below) was altered by the truncation.

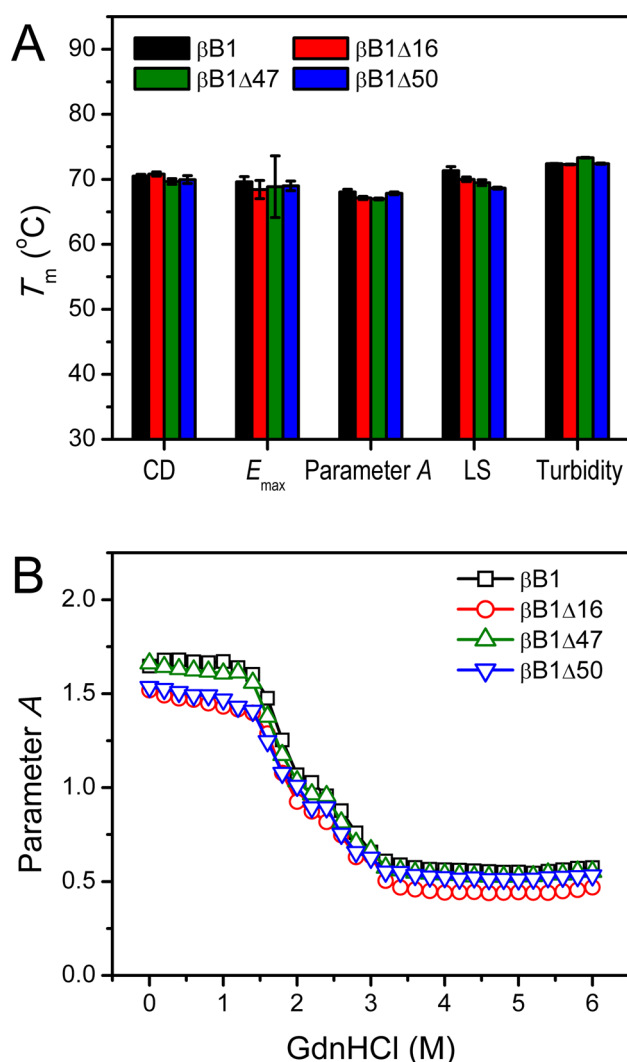
The alteration in  $\beta$ B1 quaternary structure was studied by the SEC method for three truncated mutants,  $\beta$ B1 $\Delta$ 16,  $\beta$ B1 $\Delta$ 47, and  $\beta$ B1 $\Delta$ 50 (Figure 2F). Consistent with the previous observations,<sup>10</sup>  $\beta$ B1 eluted at a position between the monomeric and dimeric molecules. When separated by the column used for SLS at a protein concentration of 34.5  $\mu$ M (1 mg/mL),  $\beta$ B1 contained two almost identical peaks corresponding to the dimeric and monomeric forms (inset of Figure 2F). At a higher concentration of 5 mg/mL, the dimeric peak was the dominant one.<sup>38</sup> These observations were consistent with the previous studies showing that  $\beta$ -crystallins exist in a dimer–monomer equilibrium at low protein concentrations.<sup>10,21,34,44</sup> The behavior of  $\beta$ B1 $\Delta$ 16 in SLS analysis was similar to  $\beta$ B1 (data not shown) and had a 0.4 mL larger elution volume in the SEC profile, which might be caused by the smaller molecular weight and the lack of the flexible N-terminus. However,  $\beta$ B1 $\Delta$ 47 and  $\beta$ B1 $\Delta$ 50 were eluted at a position close to the molecular weight of monomers. SLS analysis indicated that  $\beta$ B1 $\Delta$ 28,  $\beta$ B1 $\Delta$ 41,  $\beta$ B1 $\Delta$ 47, and  $\beta$ B1 $\Delta$ 50 mainly existed in the monomeric state with a small fraction of dimer, which is consistent with the previous observation of the truncated  $\beta$ B1 with the removal of 47 residues off the N-terminus and five residues off the C-terminus.<sup>44</sup> Although the removal of 47 or 50 residues from the

N-terminus significantly shifted the dimer–monomer equilibrium of  $\beta$ B1, it did not affect the association of  $\beta$ B1 with  $\beta$ A3 as evidenced by the single peak in the SEC elution profiles and dynamic light scattering measurements of the heteromers (data not shown).

**The N-Terminal Extension Contributes Little to  $\beta$ B1-Crystallin Stability.** Early studies have shown that the removal of 41 residues from the N-terminus does not affect  $\beta$ B1 stability against urea-induced unfolding,<sup>36</sup> and the truncated form generated by calpain cleavage has thermal aggregation properties similar to the WT protein.<sup>29</sup> We performed a comprehensive comparison of the stabilities against heat and GdnHCl between the WT  $\beta$ B1 and the truncated mutants  $\beta$ B1 $\Delta$ 16,  $\beta$ B1 $\Delta$ 47, and  $\beta$ B1 $\Delta$ 50 via biospectroscopic techniques. A summary of the midpoints of the transitions ( $T_m$ ) probed by various methods is shown in Figure 3A. Our results showed that truncations up to 50 residues off the N-terminus did not affect the thermal denaturation of  $\beta$ B1 when monitored by CD (secondary structure), Trp fluorescence (tertiary structure), light scattering (oligomerization and aggregation), or turbidity (amorphous aggregation). The truncated mutants had almost superimposed transition curves during GdnHCl-induced denaturation (Figure 3B). Similarly, no significant effects of the truncations were observed for the thermal denaturation of the  $\beta$ A3/ $\beta$ B1 heteromers (data not shown).

**The N-Terminal Extension Is Crucial to  $\beta$ B1-Crystallin Refolding.** The aggregation kinetics during refolding was monitored immediately after the fast manual mixing of the GdnHCl-denatured proteins with the refolding buffer (Figure 4). As the controls,  $\beta$ B1 did not aggregate during kinetic refolding, while  $\beta$ A3 aggregated immediately after mixing, consistent with our previous observations although different refolding conditions were applied.<sup>23</sup> The behavior of  $\beta$ B1 $\Delta$ 16 was the same as that of the WT protein, while longer truncations significantly promoted  $\beta$ B1 aggregation during refolding. SDS-PAGE analysis of the samples refolded for 1 h after mixing indicated that unlike the fully reversible refolding of  $\beta$ B1 and  $\beta$ B1 $\Delta$ 16, almost all of the  $\beta$ B1 $\Delta$ 28,  $\beta$ B1 $\Delta$ 41,  $\beta$ B1 $\Delta$ 47, and  $\beta$ B1 $\Delta$ 50 molecules were found in the precipitations. A small fraction of  $\beta$ B1 $\Delta$ 28 could also be detected in the soluble fraction in the SDS-PAGE gel. It is worth noting that the maximum value of the turbidity was not always linearly correlated to the amounts of aggregates characterized by SDS-PAGE, which might be caused by the different incubation times and/or the fact that turbidity reflects both the amount and size of the aggregates.<sup>45,46</sup> Nonetheless, these observations suggested that the existence of the N-terminal extension from residues 17 to 28 could successfully prevent  $\beta$ B1 being trapped in the misfolding and aggregation pathway, while the kinetic partitioning between folding and misfolding could be altered to favor misfolding by the removal of  $\geq$ 28 residues off the N-terminus.

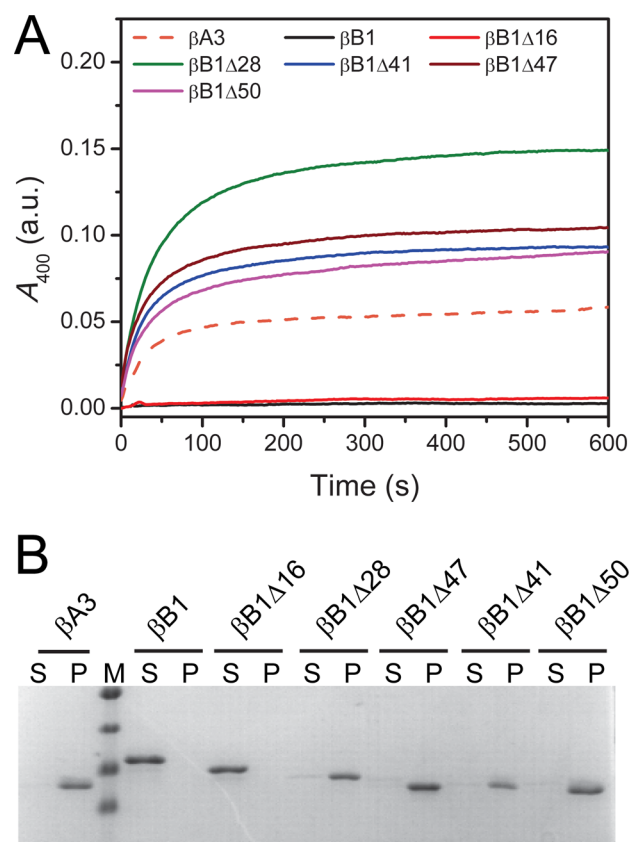
**The N-terminal Extension of  $\beta$ B1-Crystallin Is Necessary for Assisting  $\beta$ A3-Crystallin Refolding.** The folding of  $\beta$ A3 has been shown to be irreversible and is prone to undergo the misfolding/aggregation pathway during refolding, while  $\beta$ B1 can assist  $\beta$ A3 folding by the formation of heteromers during co-refolding.<sup>23</sup> Although the N-terminal truncations affected  $\beta$ B1 quaternary structure, the mutants still possessed the ability to form stable heteromers with  $\beta$ A3 (Figure 2F). The existence of native  $\beta$ B1 and various mutants in the refolding buffer has no impact on the refolding of  $\beta$ A3 (Figure



**Figure 3.** Effect of the N-terminal truncations on  $\beta B1$  stability against heat- and GdnHCl-induced denaturation. (A) The midpoints of  $\beta B1$  thermal transitions ( $T_m$ ) measured by the ellipticity at 215 nm of the CD spectra, the emission maximum wavelength of the Trp fluorescence ( $E_{max}$ ), parameter A obtained by dividing the Trp fluorescence intensity at 320 nm by that at 365 nm, Rayleigh resonance light scattering excited at 295 nm and turbidity determined by the absorbance at 400 nm, from left to right, respectively. (B) The transition curves of the proteins during GdnHCl-induced denaturation reflected by parameter A.

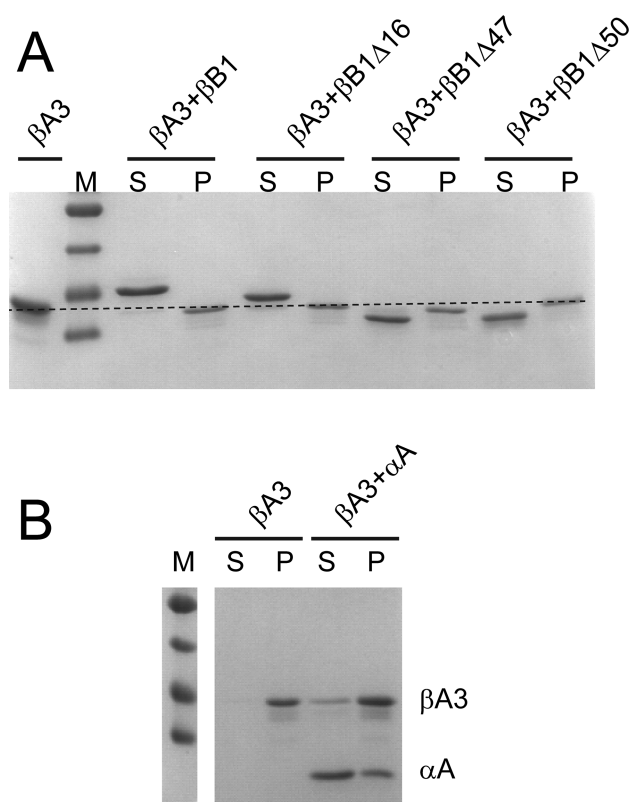
5A), which might be caused by the rate of aggregation during kinetic refolding is much faster than the subunit exchange rate. In the lens,  $\alpha$ -crystallins act as molecular chaperones to assist protein folding and avoid the occurrence of off-pathway aggregates.<sup>47</sup> However, the protecting effect of  $\alpha A$  on  $\beta A3$  is very weak since only a small portion of  $\beta A3$  was found in the soluble fractions of the refolded samples, and some  $\alpha A$  molecules were also codeposited into the insoluble fraction (Figure 5B). On the contrary, the aggregation of  $\beta A3$  could be successfully suppressed by  $\beta B1$  during co-refolding (the line and lane for  $\beta A3/\beta B1$  in Figure 6A). The removal of 16 residues weakened, while the removal of  $\geq 28$  residues almost completely diminished, the ability of  $\beta B1$  to protect  $\beta A3$  during co-refolding (blue dashed lines in Figure 6).

**The N-Terminal Extension Amplifies the Chaperone Function of  $\alpha A$ -Crystallin.** Although the full-length  $\beta B1$



**Figure 4.** Effect of the N-terminal truncations on the kinetic partitioning between folding and misfolding/aggregation pathways of  $\beta B1$  during refolding from the GdnHCl-denatured states. (A) Aggregation kinetics during refolding measured by the time-course changes of the turbidity. The proteins were denatured in 4 M GdnHCl for 4 h at 25 °C. The turbidity data were recorded every 2 s after the denatured proteins were diluted into buffer A with a ratio of 1:40 by fast manual mixing. (B) SDS-PAGE analysis of the samples after 60 min incubation in the refolding buffer. The supernatant (S) and precipitation (P) were separated by centrifugation. The pellets were washed twice by buffer A. The data of  $\beta A3$  were also shown as a control. M is the marker and the molecular weights are 55, 43, 34, 26 kDa, from top to bottom, respectively.

could protect  $\beta A3$  against aggregation during co-refolding, there were considerable amounts of heteromers in the insoluble fractions even at a low concentration of 3.45  $\mu M$   $\beta A3/\beta B1$  (1.725  $\mu M$   $\beta A3$  + 1.725  $\mu M$   $\beta B1$ ). Considering that the protecting effect of  $\alpha A$  on  $\beta A3$  is very weak,  $\beta A3$  was a “bad” substrate for  $\alpha A$ . On the contrary, the  $\beta A3/\beta B1$  heteromer was a “good” substrate for  $\alpha A$  as revealed by the complete suppression of the aggregation pathway during refolding by an equal molar amount of  $\alpha A$  in the refolding buffer (Figure 6A). The truncated mutants behaved dissimilarly in response to the action of  $\alpha A$ . That is,  $\beta A3/\beta B1\Delta16$  was a good substrate for  $\alpha A$  as revealed by the efficient blocking of the aggregation pathway of  $\beta A3/\beta B1\Delta16$  by  $\alpha A$  (Figure 6B). However,  $\beta B1\Delta41$ ,  $\beta A3/\beta B1\Delta41$  (Figure 6D),  $\beta B1\Delta47$ ,  $\beta A3/\beta B1\Delta47$ ,  $\beta B1\Delta50$ , and  $\beta A3/\beta B1\Delta50$  (data not shown) were bad substrates reflected by the low efficiency of  $\alpha A$  in preventing  $\beta$ -crystallin heteromer aggregation and the tethering of some of the  $\alpha A$  molecules codeposited in the precipitation fractions. The behaviors of  $\beta B1\Delta28$  and  $\beta A3/\beta B1\Delta28$  were between proteins containing  $\beta B1\Delta16$  and  $\beta B1\Delta41$  as revealed by the partial aggregation-inhibiting effect of  $\alpha A$  (Figure 6C).



**Figure 5.** Effect of the well-folded  $\beta B1$  and  $\alpha A$  on  $\beta A3$  aggregation during refolding. (A) SDS-PAGE analysis of  $\beta A3$  aggregation during refolding in the presence or absence of the well-folded WT or truncated  $\beta B1$  proteins. The positions of  $\beta A3$  in the gel are indicated by the dotted line. (B) SDS-PAGE analysis of the partitioning between the folding and misfolding pathways of  $\beta A3$  in the presence or absence of  $\alpha A$  in the refolding buffer.  $\beta A3$  refolding was initiated by a fast manual mixing of the 4 M GdnHCl-denatured  $\beta A3$  with buffer A in the presence or absence of an equal molar amount of  $\beta B1$  or  $\alpha A$ . The experimental conditions were the same as those described in Figure 4B.

Moreover, the existence of native  $\beta A3$  in the refolding buffer did not affect the aggregation behavior of the WT and truncated  $\beta B1$  proteins. A close inspection of the results in Figures 4 and 6 could assign the key regions for the self-refolding of  $\beta B1$  and  $\beta A3/\beta B1$  as well as the action of  $\alpha A$  by observing the shortest and longest N-terminal extension in  $\beta B1$  that required for efficient kinetic refolding. Surprisingly, it seems that the key regions were partially overlapping but distinct: residues 17–28 for self-refolding of  $\beta B1$ , residues 1–28 for self-refolding of  $\beta A3/\beta B1$ , and residues 17–41 for the chaperone function of  $\alpha A$ .

The peptide corresponding to the first 50 residues of  $\beta B1$  was synthesized to further characterize the properties of the N-terminal extension of  $\beta B1$ . As can be seen from Figure 7, no significant effect was observed for  $\beta B1\Delta 50$  and  $\beta A3/\beta B1\Delta 50$  aggregation when the peptide was added to the refolding buffer. The peptide could partially retard  $\beta A3$  aggregation. The differential effect of the peptide on  $\beta B1\Delta 50$  and  $\beta A3$  refolding might be caused by the dissimilar roles of  $\beta B1$  N-terminal extension in the oligomerization of  $\beta B1$  homomer and  $\beta A3/\beta B1$  heteromer (Figure 2F). When the proteins were refolded in buffer with both the synthetic peptide and  $\alpha A$ , the aggregation of the proteins was more serious than those in buffer with  $\alpha A$ . At present, it is difficult to distinguish whether

the antichaperone effect of the synthetic peptide on  $\alpha A$  function was caused by the opposing effect of the covalently linked N-terminal extension of  $\beta B1$  or the interference of  $\alpha A$  function by nonspecific binding.

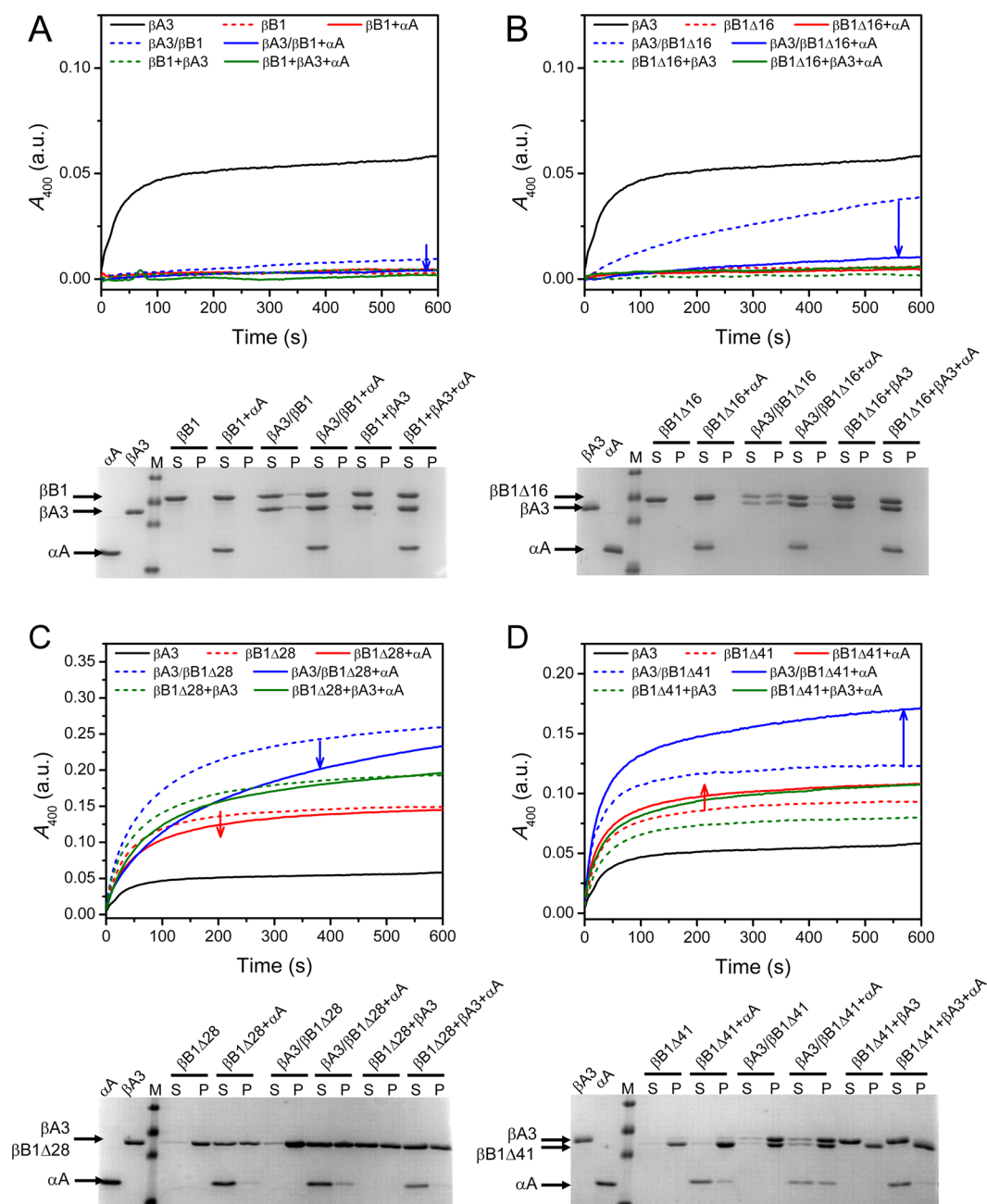
## DISCUSSION

The terminal extensions have been known to be critical for the assembly of  $\beta$ -crystallins for many years (reviewed in refs 3 and 48). Truncations of less than 47 residues have been identified in the soluble fraction of the normal lens<sup>16,30,31,35</sup> and do not affect  $\beta B1$  stability against thermal aggregation and urea denaturation.<sup>29,36</sup> In this research, we investigated the roles of the N-terminal extension of  $\beta B1$  in protein folding. We found that truncations up to 50 residues off the N-terminus did not affect  $\beta B1$  stability but significantly affected the kinetic partitioning between the folding and misfolding pathways during  $\beta B1$  refolding from the denatured state. Our observations strongly suggested that the N-terminal extension of  $\beta B1$  might act as an intramolecular chaperone (IMC) to facilitate the correct folding and avoid the misfolding/aggregation pathway (Figure 8). From the dissimilarities in the behaviors of various truncated mutants, the key IMC regions could be assigned for the self-refolding of  $\beta B1$  (residues 17–28) and  $\beta A3/\beta B1$  (residues 1–28) as well as the cooperation with  $\alpha A$  (residues 17–41). Thus, the segment between residues 17 and 28 was the most important, while the whole N-terminal extension was essential to achieve successful refolding for both homomers and heteromers (Figure 8A).

Distinct from the well-known molecular chaperone, IMC is a specific region within a polypeptide to assist the folding and assembly of the corresponding protein.<sup>49</sup> The bulk of IMCs are identified to be the propeptides usually located at the N- or C-terminus of the preproteins,<sup>49,50</sup> while several uncleaved regions have also been identified to be IMCs recently.<sup>51–57</sup> There are two types of IMCs: type I is located at the N-terminus and catalyzes the folding reaction, while type II is usually located at the C-terminus and assists the assembly of the quaternary structure.<sup>49</sup> On the basis of our results and those in the literature, the long N-terminal extension of  $\beta B1$  seems to possess the properties of both type I and type II IMCs: (i) avoidance of the misfolding/aggregation of the homomers (Figure 4); (ii) facilitation of the corefolding of the heteromers (Figure 6); (iii) cooperation with the action of molecular chaperones (Figure 6); (iv) little or no contributions to the stability of both homomers and heteromers (Figure 3 and<sup>29,36</sup>); (v) regulation of the size distribution of homomers and heteromers both in vitro (Figure 2) and in vivo;<sup>16</sup> (vi) existence of both uncleaved and various truncated forms in vivo.<sup>16,30,31,35</sup> Thus, it seems that the N-terminal extension of  $\beta B1$  is evolved to play diverse functions of IMCs to facilitate the correct folding and assembly of  $\beta$ -crystallins in the highly crowded human lens. At present, it is unclear whether the other members in the  $\beta/\gamma$ -crystallin family also possess a segment with the IMC function. Considering that  $\beta B1$  is the most efficient one to fold correctly during kinetic refolding,<sup>23,58,59</sup> the IMC function of  $\beta B1$  N-terminal extension might be the strongest even if the other members possess an IMC region.

There are two possible mechanisms for the IMC action of  $\beta B1$  N-terminal extension. One is via the weak binding of the N-terminal extension with the main body of  $\beta B1$  to stabilize the native state, while the other is through the binding of the N-terminal extension with the exposed hydrophobic interior of the intermediate to avoid misfolding. The weak binding

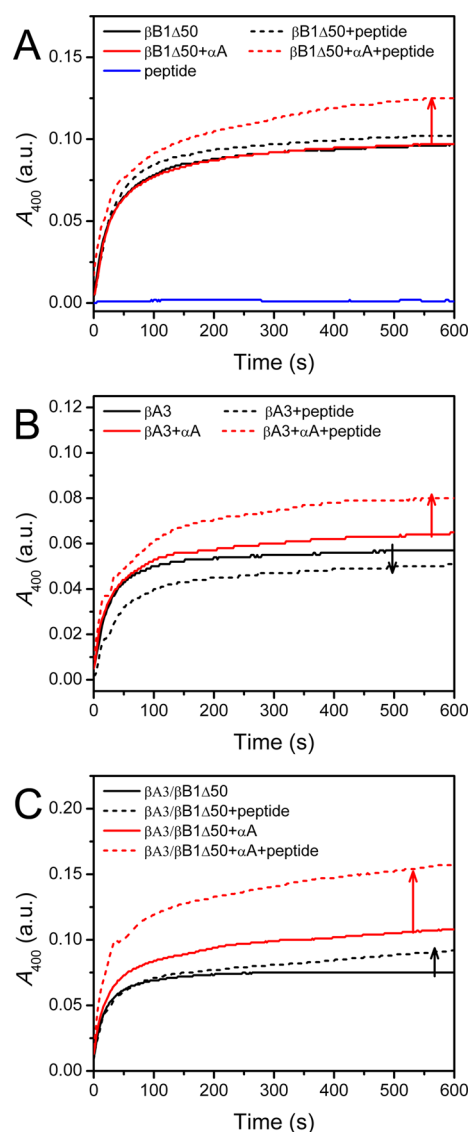




**Figure 6.** Effect of  $\alpha A$  on the partitioning between folding and misfolding/aggregation pathways of  $\beta B1$  and  $\beta A3/\beta B1$  during kinetic refolding. (A)  $\beta B1$ , (B)  $\beta B1\Delta16$ , (C)  $\beta B1\Delta28$ , (D)  $\beta B1\Delta41$ . The experimental conditions were the same as those described in Figure 4 except that the homomers or heteromers were refolded in the presence or absence of an equal molar amount of  $\beta A3$  or  $\alpha A$ .  $\beta B1\Delta28$  has a molecular weight similar to  $\beta A3$ , and thus these two proteins are undistinguishable when analyzed by SDS-PAGE. The behavior of  $\beta B1\Delta47$  and  $\beta B1\Delta50$  was the same as that of  $\beta B1\Delta41$  (data not shown). Top panel: aggregation kinetics measured by turbidity. Bottom panel: SDS analysis of the supernatant (S) and precipitation (P) fractions of samples refolded for 60 min. The label  $\beta B1 + \beta A3$  or  $\beta B1 + \alpha A$  represents the refolding of  $\beta B1$  in buffers in the presence of native  $\beta A3$  or  $\alpha A$ , while  $\beta A3/\beta B1$  is the refolding of the heteromer (co-refolding). The changes of  $\beta B1$  and  $\beta A3/\beta B1$  aggregation induced by the addition of  $\alpha A$  are indicated by red and blue arrows, respectively.

between the N-terminal extension and  $\beta B1$  main body has been proposed from the biophysical results in the literature.<sup>26,27</sup> It seems that the N-terminal extension possesses sites of homomer stabilization since the effect of truncations on quaternary structure was much greater than that on secondary or tertiary structures (Figure 2). The binding of the N-terminal extension with extra sites in the intermediate state could not be proved directly. Indirect evidence could be obtained from the fact that heteromers could be formed after the equilibration of the native  $\beta B1$  truncated forms and  $\beta A3$  (Figure 2D), whereas

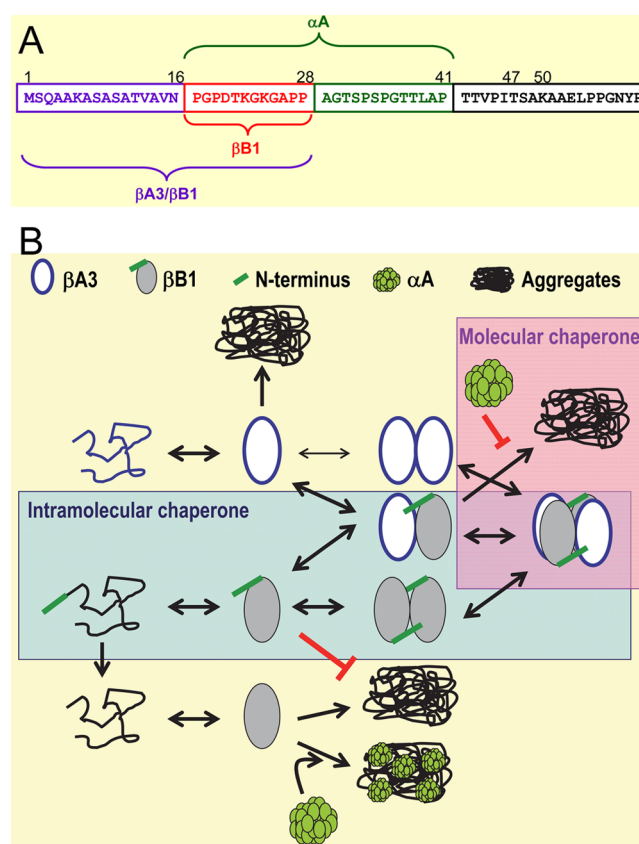
the truncated forms of  $\beta B1$  could not assist  $\beta A3$  during co-refolding (Figure 5A). Moreover, a longer IMC region was required for  $\beta A3/\beta B1$  refolding when compared to  $\beta B1$  homomer, although this IMC region is not essential for the formation of heteromers. These observations suggested that the N-terminal extension of  $\beta B1$  might interact with extra sites, which were exposed in the intermediates but got buried in the native state of  $\beta B1$  and  $\beta A3/\beta B1$ . Actually, the N-terminal extension of  $\beta B1$  is a Pro/Ala-rich region and thus has the potency to bind with the intermediate via hydrophobic



**Figure 7.** Effect of the synthetic peptide corresponding to the first 50 residues of  $\beta B1$  on the aggregation of  $\beta B1\Delta 50$  (A),  $\beta A3$  (B), and  $\beta A3/\beta B1\Delta 50$  (C) during kinetic refolding in the presence or absence of  $\alpha A$ . The molar ratio between the proteins and the synthetic peptide was 1:60. The experimental conditions were the same as those described in Figure 4A.

interactions and thus enclose the hydrophobic exposure of the intermediate. A similar mechanism also has been revealed for IMC in preproteins.<sup>50</sup> Interestingly, a recent report has shown that the Pro-rich domain is important to the chaperone function of AIPL1.<sup>60</sup> The key region for the cooperation with  $\alpha A$  is also Pro-rich, while the flanked region at the N-terminus is not (Figure 8A). Thus, it is also possible that the N-terminal extension share a similar mechanism when cooperated with molecular chaperones. However, at present it is difficult to distinguish which mechanism dominates the IMC action of  $\beta B1$  N-terminal extension since the binding of the N-terminal extension with the main body or intermediate should be weak or transient to facilitate the releasing process, similar to the other identified IMCs.<sup>49,50</sup> Further research is necessary to elucidate the underlying mechanism.

The N-terminal extension is not only critical to the avoidance of the misfolding/aggregation pathway of  $\beta B1$  and  $\beta A3/\beta B1$



**Figure 8.** Working models of the IMC functions of the N-terminal extension of  $\beta B1$ . (A) A summary of the key IMC regions required for the self-refolding of  $\beta$ -crystallins and the cooperation with  $\alpha A$ . (B) A proposed working model of the combined action of the N-terminal extension of  $\beta B1$  (intramolecular chaperone) and  $\alpha A$  (molecular chaperone). The IMC function of the intact N-terminal extension catalyzes the correct folding of  $\beta B1$  during kinetic refolding. N-terminal truncations disrupt the IMC function, and the truncated  $\beta B1$  is more prone to undergo the misfolding/aggregation pathway.  $\beta B1$  can assist the aggregation-prone  $\beta A3$  during corefolding, and the combined actions of IMC and molecular chaperone  $\alpha A$  facilitate the correct folding of  $\beta A3/\beta B1$  heteromer. The disruption of the IMC function of  $\beta B1$  N-terminal extension retards the folding and releasing processes of  $\alpha A$ -trapped  $\beta$ -crystallins and  $\alpha A$  is codeposited with the truncated  $\beta$ -crystallins in the precipitation.

but also to the function of the lens-specific molecular chaperone  $\alpha A$ . The combined action was much more effective than the individual functions of the N-terminal extension and  $\alpha A$ . The N-terminal extension could assist the action of  $\alpha A$  via binding with  $\alpha A$  directly or facilitating  $\beta B1$  folding after captured by  $\alpha A$ . Both mechanisms seem to play a role since all the truncated mutants could be captured by  $\alpha A$ , and the key regions were found to be partially overlapping but distinct for  $\beta$ -crystallin self-refolding and refolding assisted by  $\alpha A$ . The partially overlapping but distinct key IMC regions provided the basis of the amplification of the chaperone functions through cooperation between IMC and  $\alpha A$ . The key to determine a good or bad substrate is whether the  $\alpha A$ -bound molecules could be refolded and released or not. The aggregation of  $\beta A3/\beta B1$  and  $\beta A3/\beta B1\Delta 16$  could be fully suppressed by equal molar amounts of  $\alpha A$  (Figure 6A,B). The existence of part of the N-terminal extension in  $\beta B1\Delta 28$  or  $\beta A3/\beta B1\Delta 28$  also facilitated the action of  $\alpha A$ , although the partial region had very limited IMC functions. For truncations  $\geq 28$  residues,  $\alpha A$  was



codeposited with the truncated homomers or heteromers. These observations suggested that the hydrophobicity of the intermediate determined the recognition by  $\alpha A$ , while the N-terminal extension facilitated the refolding, assembly, and release of  $\beta$ -crystallins. The mutants with intact IMC region could accomplish the correct folding via the help of the N-terminal extension and be released from  $\alpha A$  thereafter, while those without the IMC region could not be released and coaggregate with  $\alpha A$  (Figure 8B).

In summary, our results indicated that the N-terminal extension acted as an IMC to facilitate the correct folding of  $\beta B1$  or  $\beta A3/\beta B1$ . The most interesting finding was that IMC could cooperate with molecular chaperones in protein quality control. In the lens, various crystallins are produced in considerably high concentrations. The combined action of IMCs and molecular chaperones provide an effective mechanism to ensure crystallins to achieve their native structures and to minimize the possibility of the misfolding/aggregation pathway. Thus, our findings provide a novel mechanism to understand the functions of the conserved long N-terminal extension of  $\beta B1$  and the folding mechanism of crystallins in the lens. Our observations also support the idea proposed recently that the flexible termini of proteins are key players in regulating protein folding and functions.<sup>61</sup> To our knowledge, this is the first report to characterize the cooperation between IMCs and molecular chaperones, which might be important to the understanding of the intracellular quality control mechanisms.

## AUTHOR INFORMATION

### Corresponding Author

\*Tel: +86-10-6278-3477; fax: +86-10-6277-2245; e-mail: ybyan@tsinghua.edu.cn.

### Author Contributions

#X.-Y.L. and S.W. made equal contributions.

### Funding

This study was partially supported by the National Key Basic Research and Development Program of China (Nos. 2012CB917304 and 2010CB912402).

### Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors thank Yi-Bo Xi and Qi-Wei Wang for help with the purification of  $\alpha A$ -crystallin.

## ABBREVIATIONS

ANS, 1-anilinonaphthalene-8-sulfonate; CD, circular dichroism; DTT, dithiothreitol;  $E_{\text{max}}$ , emission maximum wavelength of intrinsic fluorescence; GdnHCl, guanidine hydrochloride; IMC, intramolecular chaperone; IPTG, isopropyl-1-thio- $\beta$ -D-galactopyranoside; SDS, sodium dodecyl sulfate; SEC, size-exclusion chromatography; WT, wild type

## REFERENCES

- (1) Bassnett, S. (2009) On the mechanism of organelle degradation in the vertebrate lens. *Exp. Eye Res.* 88, 133–139.
- (2) Andley, U. P. (2007) Crystallins in the eye: function and pathology. *Prog. Retinal Eye Res.* 26, 78–98.
- (3) Bloemendal, H., de Jong, W., Jaenicke, R., Lubsen, N. H., Slingsby, C., and Tardieu, A. (2004) Ageing and vision: structure,

stability and function of lens crystallins. *Prog. Biophys. Mol. Biol.* 86, 407–485.

(4) Sharma, K. K., and Santhoshkumar, P. (2009) Lens aging: Effects of crystallins. *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 1790, 1095–1108.

(5) Delaye, M., and Tardieu, A. (1983) Short-range order of crystallin proteins accounts for eye lens transparency. *Nature* 302, 415–417.

(6) Benedek, G. B. (1971) Theory of transparency of the eye. *Appl. Opt.* 10, 459–473.

(7) Benedek, G. B. (1997) Cataract as a protein condensation disease: the Proctor Lecture. *Invest. Ophthalmol. Vis. Sci.* 38, 1911–1921.

(8) Moreau, K. L., and King, J. A. (2012) Protein misfolding and aggregation in cataract disease and prospects for prevention. *Trends Mol. Med.* 18, 273–282.

(9) Shiels, A., Bennett, T. M., and Hejtmancik, J. F. (2010) Cat-Map: putting cataract on the map. *Mol. Vis.* 16, 2007–2015.

(10) Chan, M. P., Dolinska, M., Sergeev, Y. V., Wingfield, P. T., and Hejtmancik, J. F. (2008) Association properties of  $\beta B1$ - and  $\beta A3$ -crystallins: ability to form heterotetramers. *Biochemistry* 47, 11062–11069.

(11) Slingsby, C., and Bateman, O. A. (1990) Quaternary interactions in eye lens beta-crystallins: basic and acidic subunits of  $\beta$ -crystallins favor heterologous association. *Biochemistry* 29, 6592–6599.

(12) Berbers, G. A., Hoekman, W. A., Bloemendal, H., de Jong, W. W., Kleinschmidt, T., and Braunitzer, G. (1983) Proline- and alanine-rich N-terminal extension of the basic bovine  $\beta$ -crystallin  $B_1$  chains. *FEBS Lett.* 161, 225–229.

(13) Lapatto, R., Nalini, V., Bax, B., Driessen, H., Lindley, P. F., Blundell, T. L., and Slingsby, C. (1991) High resolution structure of an oligomeric eye lens beta-crystallin. Loops, arches, linkers and interfaces in beta B2 dimer compared to a monomeric gamma-crystallin. *J. Mol. Biol.* 222, 1067–1083.

(14) Nalini, V., Bax, B., Driessen, H., Moss, D. S., Lindley, P. F., and Slingsby, C. (1994) Close packing of an oligomeric eye lens  $\beta$ -crystallin induces loss of symmetry and ordering of sequence extensions. *J. Mol. Biol.* 236, 1250–1258.

(15) Bax, B., Lapatto, R., Nalini, V., Driessen, H., Lindley, P. F., Mahadevan, D., Blundell, T. L., and Slingsby, C. (1990) X-ray analysis of  $\beta B2$ -crystallin and evolution of oligomeric lens proteins. *Nature* 347, 776–780.

(16) Ajaz, M. S., Ma, Z., Smith, D. L., and Smith, J. B. (1997) Size of human lens  $\beta$ -crystallin aggregates are distinguished by N-terminal truncation of  $\beta B1$ . *J. Biol. Chem.* 272, 11250–11255.

(17) Sergeev, Y. V., David, L. L., Chen, H. C., Hope, J. N., and Hejtmancik, J. F. (1998) Local microdomain structure in the terminal extensions of betaA3- and betaB2-crystallins. *Mol. Vis.* 4, 9.

(18) Montfort, R. L. M. v., Bateman, O. A., Lubsen, N. H., and Slingsby, C. (2003) Crystal structure of truncated human  $\beta B1$ -crystallin. *Protein Sci.* 12, 2606–2612.

(19) Bateman, O. A., Sarra, R., van Genesen, S. T., Kapp, G., Lubsen, N. H., and Slingsby, C. (2003) The stability of human acidic  $\beta$ -crystallin oligomers and hetero-oligomers. *Exp. Eye Res.* 77, 409–422.

(20) Hejtmancik, J. F., Wingfield, P. T., and Sergeev, Y. V. (2004) Beta-crystallin association. *Exp. Eye Res.* 79, 377–383.

(21) Sergeev, Y. V., Hejtmancik, J. F., and Wingfield, P. T. (2004) Energetics of domain-domain interactions and entropy driven association of  $\beta$ -crystallins. *Biochemistry* 43, 415–424.

(22) Pande, A., Pande, J., Ogun, O., Lubsen, N. H., and Benedek, G. B. (2005) Oligomerization and phase transitions in aqueous solutions of native and truncated human  $\beta B1$ -crystallin. *Biochemistry* 44, 1316–1328.

(23) Wang, S., Leng, X.-Y., and Yan, Y.-B. (2011) The benefits of being  $\beta$ -crystallin heteromers:  $\beta B1$ -crystallin protects  $\beta A3$ -crystallin against aggregation during co-refolding. *Biochemistry* 50, 10451–10461.

- (24) Cooper, P. G., Carver, J. A., and Truscott, R. J. W. (1993) <sup>1</sup>H-NMR spectroscopy of bovine lens  $\beta$ B2-crystallin. *Eur. J. Biochem.* 213, 321–328.
- (25) Kroone, R. C., Elliott, G. S., Ferszt, A., Slingsby, C., Lubsen, N. H., and Schoenmakers, J. G. (1994) The role of the sequence extensions in  $\beta$ -crystallin assembly. *Protein Eng.* 7, 1395–1399.
- (26) Dolinska, M. B., Sergeev, Y. V., Chan, M. P., Palmer, I., and Wingfield, P. T. (2009) N-terminal extension of  $\beta$ B1-crystallin: identification of a critical region that modulates protein interaction with  $\beta$ A3-crystallin. *Biochemistry* 48, 9684–9695.
- (27) Srivastava, K., Gupta, R., Chaves, J. M., and Srivastava, O. P. (2009) Truncated human  $\beta$ B1-crystallin shows altered structural properties and interaction with human  $\beta$ A3-crystallin. *Biochemistry* 48, 7179–7189.
- (28) Bateman, O. A., Lubsen, N. H., and Slingsby, C. (2001) Association behaviour of human  $\beta$ B1-crystallin and its truncated forms. *Exp. Eye Res.* 73, 321–331.
- (29) Lampi, K. J., Kim, Y. H., Bachinger, H. P., Boswell, B. A., Lindner, R. A., Carver, J. A., Shearer, T. R., David, L. L., and Kapfer, D. M. (2002) Decreased heat stability and increased chaperone requirement of modified human  $\beta$ B1-crystallins. *Mol. Vis.* 8, 359–366.
- (30) Lampi, K. J., Ma, Z., Hanson, S. R. A., Azuma, M., Shih, M., Shearer, T. R., Smith, D. L., Smith, J. B., and David, L. L. (1998) Age-related changes in human lens crystallins identified by two-dimensional electrophoresis and mass spectrometry. *Exp. Eye Res.* 67, 31–43.
- (31) Ma, Z., Hanson, S. R. A., Lampi, K. J., David, L. L., Smith, D. L., and Smith, J. B. (1998) Age-related changes in human lens crystallins identified by HPLC and mass spectrometry. *Exp. Eye Res.* 67, 21–30.
- (32) Santhoshkumar, P., Udupa, P., Murugesan, R., and Sharma, K. K. (2008) Significance of interactions of low molecular weight crystallin fragments in lens aging and cataract formation. *J. Biol. Chem.* 283, 8477–8485.
- (33) Su, S. P., McArthur, J. D., and Andrew Aquilina, J. (2010) Localization of low molecular weight crystallin peptides in the aging human lens using a MALDI mass spectrometry imaging approach. *Exp. Eye Res.* 91, 97–103.
- (34) Wang, S., Zhao, W.-J., Liu, H., Gong, H., and Yan, Y.-B. (2013) Increasing  $\beta$ B1-crystallin sensitivity to proteolysis caused by the congenital cataract-microcornea syndrome mutation S129R. *Biochim. Biophys. Acta, Mol. Basis Dis.* 1832, 302–311.
- (35) David, L. L., Lampi, K. J., Lund, A. L., and Smith, J. B. (1996) The sequence of human  $\beta$ B1-crystallin cDNA allows mass spectrometric detection of  $\beta$ B1 protein missing portions of its N-terminal extension. *J. Biol. Chem.* 271, 4273–4279.
- (36) Kim, Y. H., Kapfer, D. M., Boekhorst, J., Lubsen, N. H., Bachinger, H. P., Shearer, T. R., David, L. L., Feix, J. B., and Lampi, K. J. (2002) Deamidation, but not truncation, decreases the urea stability of a lens structural protein,  $\beta$ B1-crystallin. *Biochemistry* 41, 14076–14084.
- (37) Pang, M., Su, J.-T., Feng, S., Tang, Z.-W., Gu, F., Zhang, M., Ma, X., and Yan, Y.-B. (2010) Effects of congenital cataract mutation R116H on  $\alpha$ A-crystallin structure, function and stability. *Biochim. Biophys. Acta, Proteins Proteomics* 1804, 948–956.
- (38) Wang, K. J., Wang, S., Cao, N.-Q., Yan, Y.-B., and Zhu, S. Q. (2011) A novel mutation in CRYBB1 associated with congenital cataract-microcornea syndrome: the p.Ser129Arg mutation destabilizes the  $\beta$ B1/ $\beta$ A3-crystallin heteromer but not the  $\beta$ B1-crystallin homomer. *Hum. Mutat.* 32, E2050–E2060.
- (39) Sun, T.-X., Das, B. K., and Liang, J. J. N. (1997) Conformational and functional differences between recombinant human lens  $\alpha$ A- and  $\alpha$ B-crystallin. *J. Biol. Chem.* 272, 6220–6225.
- (40) Bradford, M. M. (1976) A rapid and sensitive method for the quantitation of microgram quantities of protein utilizing the principle of protein-dye binding. *Anal. Biochem.* 72, 248–254.
- (41) Turoverov, K. K., Haitlina, S. Y., and Pinaev, G. P. (1976) Ultra-violet fluorescence of actin. Determination of native actin content in actin preparations. *FEBS Lett.* 62, 4–6.
- (42) He, G.-J., Zhang, A., Liu, W.-F., Cheng, Y., and Yan, Y.-B. (2009) Conformational stability and multistate unfolding of poly(A)-specific ribonuclease. *FEBS J.* 276, 2849–2860.
- (43) Jiang, Y., Yan, Y.-B., and Zhou, H.-M. (2006) Polyvinylpyrrolidone 40 assists the refolding of bovine carbonic anhydrase B by accelerating the refolding of the first molten globule intermediate. *J. Biol. Chem.* 281, 9058–9065.
- (44) Lampi, K. J., Oxford, J. T., Bachinger, H. P., Shearer, T. R., David, L. L., and Kapfer, D. M. (2001) Deamidation of human  $\beta$ B1 alters the elongated structure of the dimer. *Exp. Eye Res.* 72, 279–288.
- (45) Kurganov, B. I. (2002) Kinetics of protein aggregation. Quantitative estimation of the chaperone-like activity in test-systems based on suppression of protein aggregation. *Biochemistry (Moscow)* 67, 409–422.
- (46) He, G.-J., Liu, W.-F., and Yan, Y.-B. (2011) Dissimilar roles of the four conserved acidic residues in the thermal stability of poly(A)-specific ribonuclease. *Int. J. Mol. Sci.* 12, 2901–2916.
- (47) Horwitz, J. (1992)  $\alpha$ -Crystallin can function as a molecular chaperone. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* 89, 10449–10453.
- (48) Slingsby, C., and Clout, N. J. (1999) Structure of the crystallins. *Eye (London)* 13, 395–402.
- (49) Chen, Y. J., and Inouye, M. (2008) The intramolecular chaperone-mediated protein folding. *Curr. Opin. Struct. Biol.* 18, 765–770.
- (50) Schulz, E. C., Dickmanns, A., Urlaub, H., Schmitt, A., Muhlenhoff, M., Stummeyer, K., Schwarzer, D., Gerardy-Schahn, R., and Ficner, R. (2010) Crystal structure of an intramolecular chaperone mediating triple-beta-helix folding. *Nat. Struct. Mol. Biol.* 17, 210–215.
- (51) Markossian, K. A., Golub, N. V., Khanova, H. A., Levitsky, D. I., Poliansky, N. B., Muranov, K. O., and Kurganov, B. I. (2008) Mechanism of thermal aggregation of yeast alcohol dehydrogenase I: role of intramolecular chaperone. *Biochim. Biophys. Acta, Proteins Proteomics* 1784, 1286–1293.
- (52) Liu, W.-F., Zhang, A., He, G.-J., and Yan, Y.-B. (2007) The R3H domain stabilizes poly(A)-specific ribonuclease by stabilizing the RRM domain. *Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun.* 360, 846–851.
- (53) He, H.-W., Feng, S., Pang, M., Zhou, H.-M., and Yan, Y.-B. (2007) Role of the linker between the N- and C-terminal domains in the stability and folding of rabbit muscle creatine kinase. *Int. J. Biochem. Cell Biol.* 39, 1816–1827.
- (54) Brunger, A. T., Breidenbach, M. A., Jin, R., Fischer, A., Santos, J. S., and Montal, M. (2007) Botulinum neurotoxin heavy chain belt as an intramolecular chaperone for the light chain. *PLoS Pathog.* 3, 1191–1194.
- (55) Bhattacharyya, J., Santhoshkumar, P., and Sharma, K. K. (2003) A peptide sequence-YSGVCHTDLHAWGHDWPLPVK [40–60]-in yeast alcohol dehydrogenase prevents the aggregation of denatured substrate proteins. *Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun.* 307, 1–7.
- (56) Ma, B., Tsai, C. J., and Nussinov, R. (2000) Binding and folding: in search of intramolecular chaperone-like building block fragments. *Protein Eng.* 13, 617–627.
- (57) Chen, Z., Chen, X.-J., Xia, M., He, H.-W., Wang, S., Liu, H., Gong, H., and Yan, Y.-B. (2012) Chaperone-like effect of the linker on the isolated C-terminal domain of rabbit muscle creatine kinase. *Biophys. J.* 103, 558–566.
- (58) Zhang, W., Cai, H.-C., Li, F.-F., Xi, Y.-B., Ma, X., and Yan, Y.-B. (2011) The congenital cataract-linked G61C mutation destabilizes  $\gamma$ D-crystallin and promotes non-native aggregation. *PLoS One* 6, e20564.
- (59) Xu, J., Wang, S., Zhao, W.-J., Xi, Y.-B., Yan, Y.-B., and Yao, K. (2012) The congenital cataract-linked A2V mutation impairs tetramer formation and promotes aggregation of  $\beta$ B2-crystallin. *PLoS One* 7, e51200.
- (60) Li, J., Zoldak, G., Kriehuber, T., Soroka, J., Schmid, F. X., Richter, K., and Buchner, J. (2013) Unique proline-rich domain regulates the chaperone function of AIP1L1. *Biochemistry* 52, 2089–2096.
- (61) Uversky, V. N. (2013) The most important thing is the tail: Multitudinous functionalities of intrinsically disordered protein termini. *FEBS Lett.* 587, 1891–1901.