

Quantification of protein backbone hydrogen-deuterium exchange rates by solid state NMR spectroscopy

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Abstract We present the quantification of backbone amide hydrogen-deuterium exchange rates (HDX) for immobilized proteins. The experiments make use of the deuterium isotope effect on the amide nitrogen chemical shift, as well as on proton dilution by deuteration. We find that backbone amides in the microcrystalline α -spectrin SH3 domain exchange rather slowly with the solvent (with exchange rates negligible within the individual $^{15}\text{N}-T_1$ timescales). We observed chemical exchange for 6 residues with HDX exchange rates in the range from 0.2 to 5 s^{-1} . Backbone amide ^{15}N longitudinal relaxation times that we determined previously are not significantly affected for most residues, yielding no systematic artifacts upon quantification of backbone dynamics (Chevelkov et al. 2008b). Significant exchange was observed for the backbone amides of R21, S36 and K60, as well as for the sidechain amides of N38, N35 and for W41e. These residues could not be fit in our previous motional analysis, demonstrating that amide proton chemical exchange needs to be considered in the analysis of protein dynamics in the

solid-state, in case D_2O is employed as a solvent for sample preparation. Due to the intrinsically long ^{15}N relaxation times in the solid-state, the approach proposed here can expand the range of accessible HDX rates in the intermediate regime that is not accessible so far with exchange quench and MEXICO type experiments.

Keywords MAS solid-state NMR · Hydrogen-deuterium exchange · Relaxation · Perdeuterated proteins · Alpha-spectrin SH3

Introduction

The analysis of the backbone HDX rates in a protein has become an important method to obtain direct information on protein structure (Kato et al. 2009; Raschke and Marqusee 1998; Wagner and Wuthrich 1982), stability (Bai et al. 1995; Wong and Heremans 1988; Kuroda et al. 1995), protein-protein interactions (Dyson et al. 2008; Polshakov et al. 2006) and dynamics (Dempsey 2001; Parker and Marqusee 2000). The interrelation between HDX and structure is determined by the participation of the amide group in secondary structure elements, as well as by its surface accessibility. The largest exchange rates are expected for those backbone amides which are unstructured and close to water. On the other hand, the slowest rates are usually observed for strongly hydrogen bonded amides in secondary structure elements in the hydrophobic core of a protein (Truhlar et al. 2006), or for amides which are located in a lipid environment (Halskau et al. 2002; Pinheiro et al. 2000). It is commonly believed, that HDX rates are additionally correlated to backbone dynamics, since opening of the amide hydrogen bond is required in order to expose the hydrogen to the catalytic solvent (Maity

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et al. 2003). The relation between dynamics and hydrogen exchange can be represented by (Hvidt and Nielsen 1966)



in which the NH populations in the open (solvent exposed) and closed (structurally hydrogen bonded) states are related by the corresponding opening (k_o) and closing (k_c) rate constants. The detailed chemistry underlying hydrogen exchange is still subject of discussion (Dempsey 2001). Nevertheless, the importance of acid and base catalysis is clear (Gregory et al. 1983). Their contribution to the observed exchange rates are represented by the equation

$$k_{ex} = k_a[\text{H}^+] + k_b[\text{OH}^-] + k_w, \quad (2)$$

where the measured exchange rate constant k_{ex} is expressed as a function of the acid and base catalytic rates k_a and k_b , respectively, modulated by the pH of the solvent. k_w refers to the catalytic rate of the non-dissociated water which is pH independent by definition.

The rates at which amide protons are exchanged with water vary over many orders of magnitude (Dempsey 2001). A variety of NMR methods for the determination of amide hydrogen exchange rates for proteins in solution has been developed in the past (Chevelkov et al. 2010; Jensen et al. 2007; Mori et al. 1997; Gemmecker et al. 1993; Bracken and Baum 1993). So called “non-equilibrium measurements” are performed by consecutive recording of 2D $^1\text{H}, ^{15}\text{N}$ correlation experiments after addition of D_2O to the protein solution. The time decay of the signals is then fitted considering a monoexponential behavior from which the exchange rates are obtained (Wagner and Wuthrich 1982). It is obvious that the kinetic range accessible by this technique is limited by the time required for recording the spectra and sample handling. Under ideal conditions, the two-dimensional $^1\text{H}, ^{15}\text{N}$ correlation spectra can be measured on the timescale of a few minutes (Andrec et al. 1995; Kay et al. 1992).

In order to access larger exchange rates, editing methods are used (Zhou and van Zijl 2006; Wojcik et al. 1999; Hwang et al. 1998; Dalvit and Hommel 1995). For example, in the MEXICO sequence (Gemmecker et al. 1993), isotope filters are employed to remove observable magnetization from all protons attached to ^{15}N and ^{13}C while water magnetization is preserved. The amide protons recover magnetization by exchange with solvent water during a mixing period. The timescale accessible by this method ranges from ca 0.2 and 20 s $^{-1}$, limited on one side by the longitudinal relaxation rates of the nitrogens and on the other hand by the loss of cross peak intensities in $^1\text{H}, ^{15}\text{N}$ INEPT correlation spectra when the amide exchange rate approaches $^1J_{\text{HN}}$ (Forsen and Hoffman 1964). This last effect is exploited in lineshape analyses to expand the accessible window of exchange rates

to ~ 200 s $^{-1}$ (Henry and Sykes 1993). It is interesting to note the gap between the upper limit of exchange rates accessible by the equilibrium method (~ 0.002 s $^{-1}$), and the lower limit accessible by editing methods or lineshape analysis (~ 0.2 s $^{-1}$). In the present work, we show that this gap can be filled at least partially by solid-state NMR measurements given the long ^{15}N relaxation time there, as discussed below.

It is generally accepted that proteins are undergoing motion even in the solid-state (McDermott 2009; Chevelkov et al. 2009; Hologne et al. 2006b; Giraud et al. 2004; Palmer et al. 1996; Cole and Torchia 1991). Dynamics results in disruption of hydrogen bonds, and in turn in hydrogen exchange, even for buried amides far from the polar surface of the protein. This was originally demonstrated by neutron diffraction studies, in which H/D exchange is induced by soaking the crystals in D_2O for large periods of time (weeks to years), in order to reduce the background noise from incoherent neutron scattering generated by hydrogen atoms (Wlodawer and Sjolin 1982).

H/D exchange rates in solid protein samples have been determined in the past by NMR using exchange trapping methods (Hoshino et al. 2007; Whittemore et al. 2005; Gallagher et al. 1992). In these experiments, amide exchange is allowed to occur for a specific time. Thereafter, exchange is quenched by transferring the sample into a buffer which prevents further exchange. At the same time, the solid protein is solubilized and high resolution NMR spectra can be recorded. This technique is based on non-equilibrium conditions, and the measured characteristic exchange times can not be shorter than seconds due to the time required for sample handling. Hydroxyl side chain exchange rates are much faster and can be quantified in the solid-state using EXSY type experiments (Agarwal et al. 2010). In principle, one might expect different exchange rates in solution and in the solid-state. This difference would be due to the presence of crystal contacts in the solid-state which might directly affect the internal fluctuations of the protein, and which would allow water and ions to come into contact with amides buried in the interior of the protein. This was in fact experimentally observed for BPTI (Gallagher et al. 1992) and lysozyme (Pedersen et al. 1991). In general, lower HDX rates and a considerable variation for different amide groups was observed in the solid-state. These differences, however, did not correlate in a simple manner to the presence or absence of a crystal contact for a given amide hydrogen.

The in-situ quantification of exchange rates in the solid-state, i.e. without solubilising the sample prior to the measurement, is complicated due to the presence of homogeneous interactions which are not averaged out by fast molecular tumbling. Resolution of ^1H resonances is poor and the detection of chemical shift isotope effects (Ottiger and Bax 1997) is impractical even at very high MAS rotation

frequencies. In this work, we show that this problem can be efficiently overcome by extensive deuteration of the protein (Akbey et al. 2010; Agarwal and Reif 2008; Chevelkov et al. 2006; Hologne et al. 2006a). We describe a new experiment for the quantification of exchange rates in the solid-state based on proton detection under equilibrium conditions. An important motivation for the present study is the quantification of the systematic errors induced by H/D exchange in the quantification of ^{15}N longitudinal relaxation rates measured previously for the α -spectrin SH3 domain (Chevelkov et al. 2008a). We observed large variations of the $^{15}\text{N}-T_1$ relaxation times ranging from 1 s to more than 50 s. Given the fact that $^{15}\text{N} T_1$ relaxation times were field dependent, we did not expect HDX to be dominating the relaxation times as chemical exchange is field independent. Nevertheless, its presence could not be completely ruled out, and knowledge of the exchange contribution to $^{15}\text{N} T_1$ is fundamental for a correct quantification of backbone dynamics (Chevelkov et al. 2009).

Materials and methods

We used a perdeuterated sample of the SH3 domain of chicken α -spectrin, which was obtained by recombinant protein expression and purified as described previously (Chevelkov et al. 2007). Crystallization was induced in a buffer by a pH-shift from 3.5 to 7.5. To achieve 50% (90%) deuteration at exchangeable sites, the protein was crystallized from a buffer containing H_2O and D_2O in a ratio of 1:1 (1:9) (Akbey et al. 2010). After precipitation overnight, crystals were spun into a 3.2 mm rotor using approximately 15 mg protein. All NMR experiments were carried out on a Bruker Biospin AVANCE spectrometer operating at a ^1H Larmor frequency of 400 MHz, using a 3.2 mm triple-resonance probe. The MAS frequency was adjusted to 23 kHz. The acquisition time in the proton detected experiment amounted to $t_1^{\max} = 44$ ms and $t_2^{\max} = 70$ ms in the indirect ^{15}N and direct ^1H evolution period, respectively. Total experimental times varied between 4 h and 4 days depending on the mixing times used. The effective temperature was set to $\sim 22^\circ\text{C}$. Data processing was performed using Bruker Topspin. The 2D spectra were processed using a cosine-squared apodization function.

Results

In order to quantify HDX rates, we used a series of pulse schemes that are represented in Fig. 1. Figure 1a shows a ^{15}N detected HETCOR experiment in which a mixing period (Δ) is introduced after the $^1\text{H}, ^{15}\text{N}$ CP step. During the mixing time, the initial amide protons are eventually

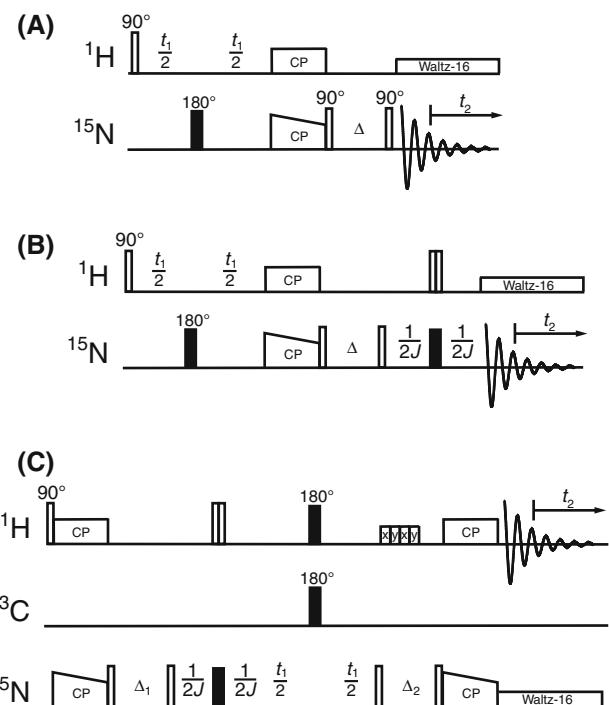


Fig. 1 Pulse schemes for the quantification of amide $^{15}\text{N}-\text{H}/\text{D}$ exchange rates in the solid-state. **a** ^{15}N detected $^1\text{H}, ^{15}\text{N}$ correlation with a variable longitudinal mixing time Δ preceding acquisition. HDX rates are determined by making use of $^{15}\text{N}-\text{H}/\text{D}$ chemical shift isotope effects which allows to separate $^{15}\text{N}-\text{H}$ and $^{15}\text{N}-\text{D}$ moieties. The pulse scheme **(b)** includes an isotope filtering element which allows to discriminate between $^{15}\text{N}-\text{D}$ and $^{15}\text{N}-\text{H}$ moieties prior to acquisition. **c** ^1H detected version of the exchange experiment. In this sequence two mixing times are employed. In the first step, chemical exchange results in a conversion from $^{15}\text{N}-\text{H}$ into $^{15}\text{N}-\text{D}$ which is selected for prior to t_1 . After Δ_2 and a second chemical exchange process, magnetization is transferred back to the amide proton for detection. During the second mixing time a train of pulses is applied on the ^1H channel for water suppression

exchanged with deuterons of the solvent. If the time required for exchange is shorter than the individual ^{15}N longitudinal relaxation times, then a splitting between different ^{15}N chemical shifts will be observed for the amide nitrogens, which is due to chemical shift isotope effects (Benedict et al. 1996; Altman et al. 1978). Differences in ^{15}N chemical shifts between $^{15}\text{N}-\text{H}$ and $^{15}\text{N}-\text{D}$ moieties are originating from a shortening of the donor covalent bonds and a lengthening of the distance between the nitrogen atom to the acceptor upon substitution of the hydrogen by a deuteron atom. The so-called Ubbelohde effect (Ubbelohde and Gallagher 1955) is known from X-ray and neutron diffractometry and was theoretically explained by Jameson (Jameson 1991). Our experiments were inspired by an approach introduced by Chevelkov et al. 2010 for the detection of H/D exchange in solution which is based on a (HCACO)NH-type experiment and which makes use of the deuterium isotopic effect on the nitrogen chemical shift.

Four ^{15}N detected 2D spectra were recorded using mixing times of 0.0, 0.5, 3.0 and 9.0 s. The full ^{15}N detected reference spectrum ($\Delta = 0$), as well as a ^1H detected $^1\text{H}, ^{15}\text{N}$ HSQC spectrum is shown as part of the supporting information (Figure S1). Most of the amide resonance frequencies remained unaffected, indicating that HDX is not significant for the majority of the amides. Exceptions are K60, S36, N35sc and W ϵ 41, for which we observe high field shifted ^{15}N signals at increased mixing times (Fig. 2). The intensity of these signals increases from 0 at $\Delta = 0$ to a maximum value which is determined by both, the HDX rate, and the ^{15}N longitudinal relaxation time of a particular residue. At longer mixing times, the signal intensities are exponentially reduced by relaxation. The ^{15}N isotope induced chemical shift changes are 0.65 ppm for S36, 0.6 ppm for K60 and 0.4 ppm for N35sc. The isotope effect is related to the shape of the potential in which the protons are located and thus to the geometry of the hydrogen bond in which they participate (Benedict et al. 1996). This relationship has been used in the past to characterize hydrogen bond strength in peptides (Jaravine et al. 2004). For proteins in solution, a linear relation between the isotropic ^{15}N chemical shifts and the ^{15}N (H/D) chemical shift isotope effects is found experimentally. An interpretation of the values obtained here in terms of hydrogen bond strengths is out of the scope of this paper and will therefore not be discussed further. Exchange rates which exceed the frequency difference between $^{15}\text{N}-\text{H}$ and $^{15}\text{N}-\text{D}$ chemical shifts (on the order of 25 s^{-1}) would induce exchange broadening and are therefore not accessible with the presented approach.

Obviously, spectra obtained using the pulse scheme of Fig. 1a display an intrinsically low resolution, due to the doubling of the resonances in the ^{15}N dimension. Superposition of $^{15}\text{N}-\text{H}$ and $^{15}\text{N}-\text{D}$ shifts complicates a proper quantification. In order to discriminate between $^{15}\text{N}-\text{H}$ and $^{15}\text{N}-\text{D}$ moieties, we introduced the filtering element $1/(2 J_{\text{NH}}) - 90^\circ \times 90^\circ \pm x(^1\text{H}), 180^\circ \times (^{15}\text{N}) - 1/(2 J_{\text{NH}})$ (Fig. 1b) to select either $^{15}\text{N}-\text{H}$ or $^{15}\text{N}-\text{D}$ magnetization prior to t_2 .

$$\frac{d}{dt} \begin{pmatrix} ^{15}\text{N} - \text{H}(\Delta_1) \\ ^{15}\text{N} - \text{D}(\Delta_1) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{1}{T_1^{\text{NH}}} - k_{\text{ex}} & k_{\text{ex}} \\ k_{\text{ex}} & -\frac{1}{T_1^{\text{ND}}} - k_{\text{ex}} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} ^{15}\text{N} - \text{H}(\Delta_1) \\ ^{15}\text{N} - \text{D}(\Delta_1) \end{pmatrix} \quad (3)$$

Figure 3 shows a superposition of the ^{15}N detected correlation experiments recorded using the pulse scheme of

Fig. 1b with selection of $^{15}\text{N}-\text{H}$ moieties (black) and $^{15}\text{N}-\text{D}$ moieties (red) prior to detection. HDX occurs only for those resonances in which exchange was previously observed using the non-edited version of the experiment.

A quantitative analysis of the exchange rates using the experiments described above is demanding due to the intrinsically long measurement times. Ideally, a series of experiments is required with mixing times ranging from 0 up to the average expected ^{15}N longitudinal relaxation time (20–40 s) to allow a quantitative analysis of the exchange rates and to extract a correction term for $^{15}\text{N} T_1$ for those residues which are undergoing HDX. In general, a significant gain in sensitivity can be obtained by designing the experiment such that protons are detected in the direct dimension. In the experiment represented in Fig. 1c, ^1H magnetization is transferred via CP to ^{15}N using $\tau_{\text{CP}} = 160 \mu\text{s}$. The short CP contact time ensures selective magnetization transfer between directly bonded $^{15}\text{N}-\text{H}$ spin pairs. During the mixing time Δ_1 , $^{15}\text{N}-\text{H}$ are eventually exchanged with $^{15}\text{N}-\text{D}$. An isotope filter is included at this point so that only $^{15}\text{N}-\text{D}$ moieties evolve chemical shift in the indirect dimension. After the filter, a second mixing period Δ_2 is implemented in which the $^{15}\text{N}-\text{D}$ can exchange again so that protonated amides can be detected in t_2 . Examples of the resulting 2D spectra are shown in Fig. 4 (red) superimposed with the reference spectrum (black). In all cases, the two mixing times were set equal in each experiment ($\Delta = \Delta_1 = \Delta_2$). Correlation peaks appearing at larger mixing times are originating from R21, S36, and K60. Additionally, cross peak buildup was observed for W41 ϵ and for the side chain amides of N35 and N38. Figure 5 represents the integral intensities of the correlation signals as a function of the mixing time. The experimental values were fit considering single exponentials for both, the H/D exchange process and the $^{15}\text{N} T_1$ decays. $^{15}\text{N}-\text{D} T_1$ and $^{15}\text{N}-\text{H} T_1$ relaxation was considered individually. The evolution of the ^{15}N magnetization during the first variable delay Δ_1 can be described by the differential equation (Jeener et al. 1979):

Solving Eq. 3 for $^{15}\text{N} - \text{D}(\Delta_1)$ we obtain

$$^{15}\text{N} - \text{D}(\Delta_1) = - \frac{\left(e^{\left(\frac{\Delta_1(-T_1^{\text{ND}} - T_1^{\text{NH}} - 2T_1^{\text{ND}}T_1^{\text{NH}}k_{\text{ex}} - B)}{2T_1^{\text{ND}}T_1^{\text{NH}}} \right)} - e^{\left(\frac{\Delta_1(-T_1^{\text{ND}} - T_1^{\text{NH}} - 2T_1^{\text{ND}}T_1^{\text{NH}}k_{\text{ex}} + B)}{2T_1^{\text{ND}}T_1^{\text{NH}}} \right)} \right)}{B} T_1^{\text{ND}} T_1^{\text{NH}} k_{\text{ex}} \quad (4)$$

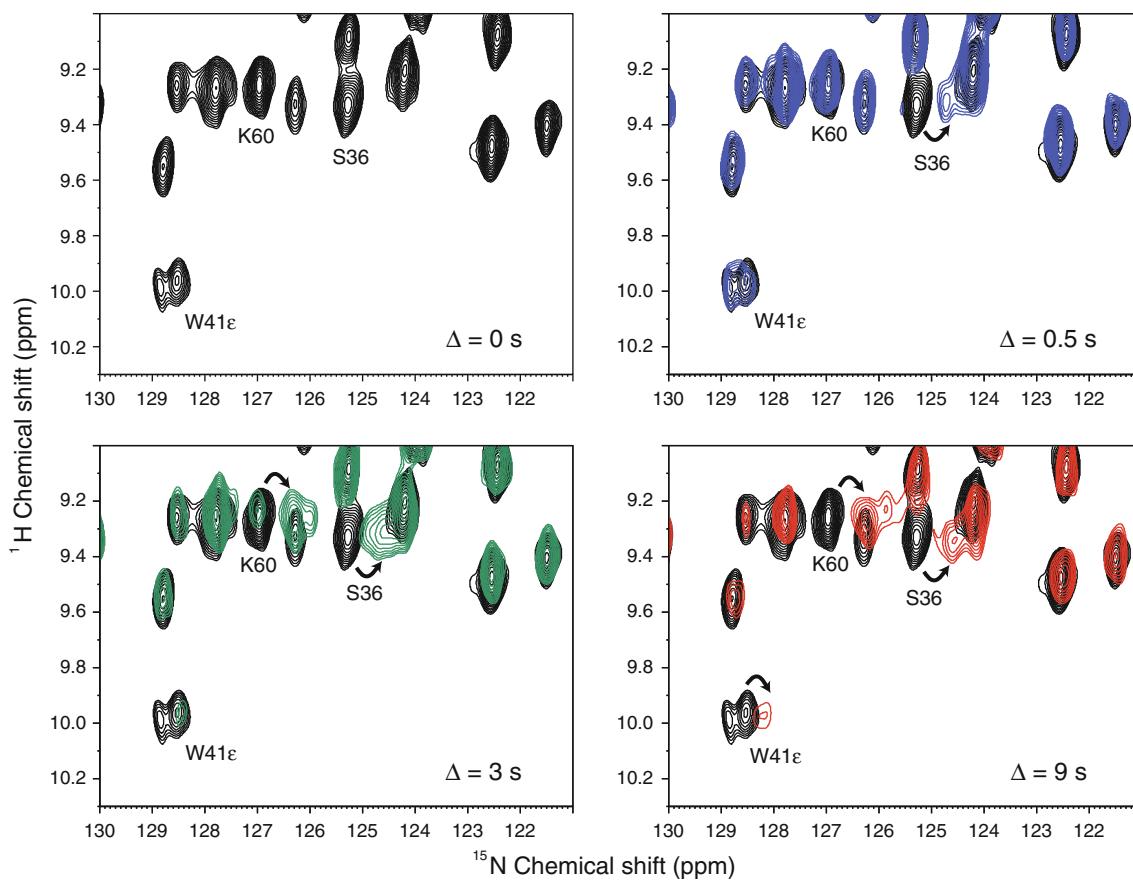


Fig. 2 ^{15}N detected ^1H , ^{15}N correlation spectra recorded using the pulse scheme shown in Fig. 1a, using mixing times $\Delta = 0.0$ s (black) and 0.5 s (blue), 3.0 (green) and 9.0 s (red). Residues in which HDX occurs during the mixing time appear upfield shifted in the ^{15}N

dimension due to the deuterium isotope effect. Residues showing exchange are indicated by arrows. The experiments were recorded using a perdeuterated SH3 sample which contained 10% protons at exchangeable sites

where

$$B = \sqrt{(T_1^{\text{ND}})^2 - 2T_1^{\text{ND}}T_1^{\text{NH}} + (T_1^{\text{NH}})^2 + 4(k_{\text{ex}})^2(T_1^{\text{ND}})^2(T_1^{\text{NH}})^2} \quad (5)$$

Equation 4 describes the amount of $^{15}\text{N}-\text{D}(\Delta_1)$ magnetization created during the first mixing period. During the second mixing time, the magnetization $^{15}\text{N}-\text{D}(\Delta_1)$ is eventually reconverted into $^{15}\text{N}-\text{H}$ due to a second exchange process. At the end of this second mixing period, protons are detected and consequently all residual $^{15}\text{N}-\text{D}(\Delta_2)$ magnetization is discarded. Re-iterating the differential equation (Eq. 3) by using Eq. 4, yields the following expression for the amount of $^{15}\text{N}-\text{H}(\Delta_2)$ magnetization as a function of T_1^{NH} , T_1^{ND} , k_{ex} and the mixing times Δ_1 and Δ_2 , prior to the CP back-transfer step

where A is a constant introduced for scaling of the curve ($A = 1$ represents the case where the fitted data are normalized to a maximum intensity of 1 etc.).

The best fit of the experimental data is represented by the solid lines in Fig. 5. The fit parameters are listed in Table 1. The upper and lower dashed lines correspond to the predicted values for the signal intensities, assuming $T_1^{\text{ND}} = \infty$ and $T_1^{\text{ND}} = T_1^{\text{NH}}$, respectively. Apparently, the uncertainty in the fit of T_1^{ND} matches approximately the error bars of the experimental data (noise RMSD). Accurate values for longitudinal relaxation times could not be determined. On the other hand, all the information concerning the H/D exchange rates is included in the initial buildup rates, which are not influenced by the longitudinal relaxation in case those are sufficiently long in comparison to the exchange rates. The experimental

$$^{15}\text{N} - D(\Delta_2) = -A \frac{\left(e^{\left(\frac{\Delta_2(-T_1^{\text{ND}} - T_1^{\text{NH}} - 2T_1^{\text{ND}}T_1^{\text{NH}}k_{\text{ex}} - B)}{2T_1^{\text{ND}}T_1^{\text{NH}}} \right)} - e^{\left(\frac{\Delta_2(-T_1^{\text{ND}} - T_1^{\text{NH}} - 2T_1^{\text{ND}}T_1^{\text{NH}}k_{\text{ex}} + B)}{2T_1^{\text{ND}}T_1^{\text{NH}}} \right)} \right)}{B} T_1^{\text{ND}}T_1^{\text{NH}}k_{\text{ex}}^{15}\text{N} - D(\Delta_1) \quad (6)$$

Fig. 3 ^{15}N detected $^1\text{H}, ^{15}\text{N}$ correlation spectrum recorded using the pulse scheme shown in Fig. 1b. In the black spectrum, $^{15}\text{N}-\text{H}$ magnetization was selected prior to detection ($\Delta = 3.0 \text{ s}$), while for the red spectrum $^{15}\text{N}-\text{D}$ were allowed to pass through the filter ($\Delta = 3.0 \text{ s}$). HDX is observed for residues S38, K60 and the sidechain amides of N35. The $^{15}\text{N}-\text{D}$ correlations are up-field shifted due to the H/D isotope effect on the ^{15}N chemical shift. The experiments were recorded using a perdeuterated SH3 sample which contained 10% protons at exchangeable sites

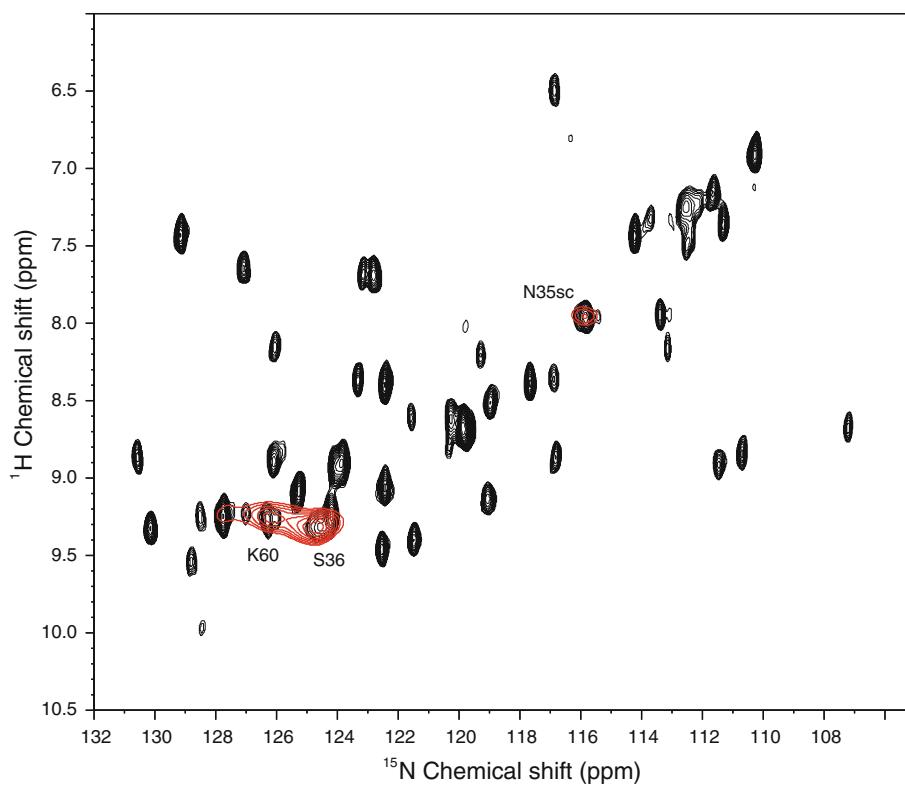
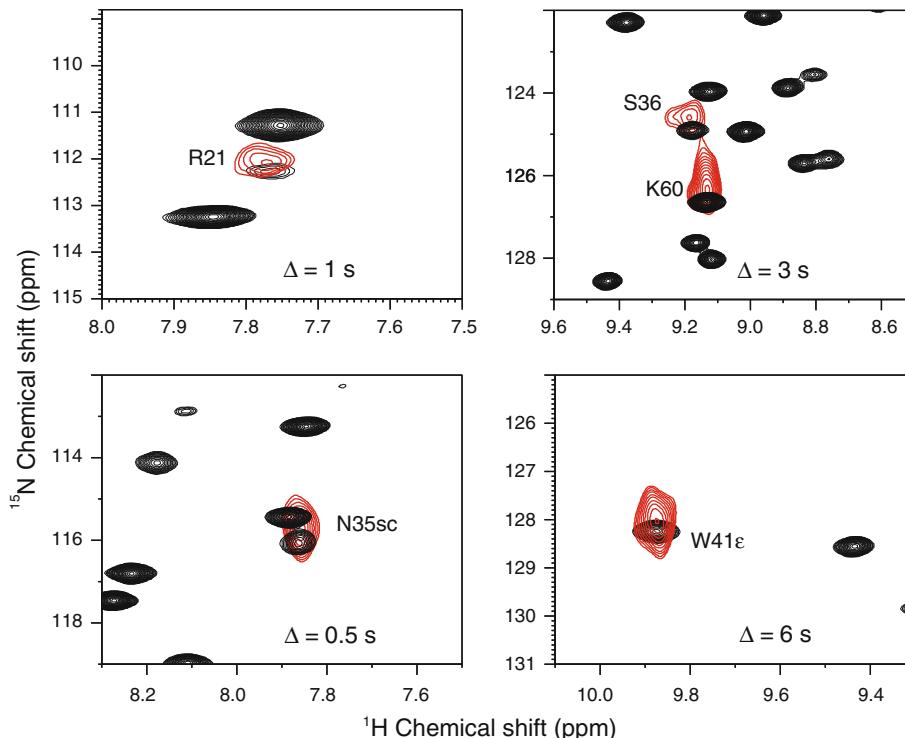


Fig. 4 Representative $^1\text{H}, ^{15}\text{N}$ correlation spectra employing the ^1H detected, isotope edited, double exchange pulse scheme shown in Fig. 1c (red contour lines). In the ^{15}N dimension, resonances are up-field shifted due to the H/D isotope effect. The INEPT based HSQC reference spectrum is represented in black. In the exchange experiment, the two mixing times were set equal in each experiment ($\Delta = \Delta_1 = \Delta_2$). HDX was observed for residues R21, S36 and K60, as well as for the sidechains of N35, N38 and W41. The experiments were recorded using a perdeuterated SH3 sample which contained 50% protons at exchangeable sites



values in Fig. 6 were normalized to the intensities calculated at infinite mixing times in absence of ^{15}N relaxation as shown in Fig. 5 for K60 as an example.

The cross peaks intensities obtained by integration of the spectra, were initially plotted as a function of the

mixing time (Δ) in arbitrary units using Eq. 6 (Fig. 5). The value of A obtained from this fitting is used for normalization of the experimental values. Thus, a value of 1 in Fig. 6, refers to the case in which the H/D populations are completely equilibrated by chemical

Fig. 5 The method used for data normalization is exemplified with the values obtained for K60. For more information see text

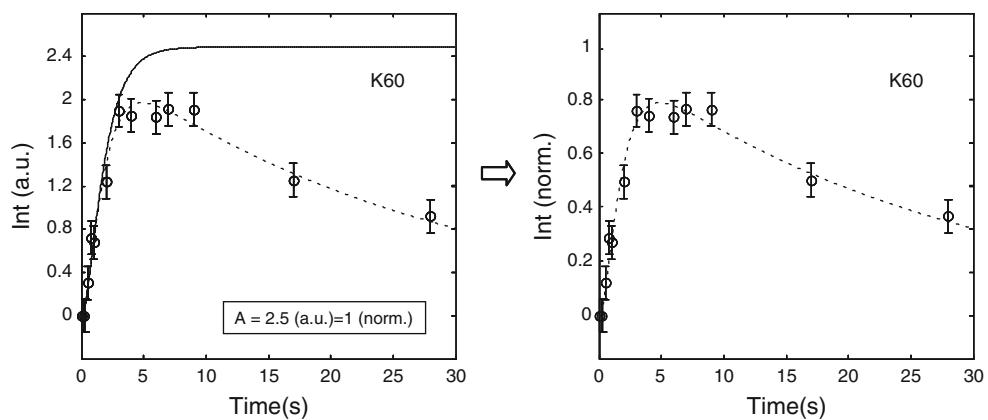


Table 1 Best fit H/D exchange rates k_{ex} , $T_1(\text{ND})$ and $T_1(\text{NH})$ relaxation times for residues undergoing H/D chemical exchange in the α -spectrin SH3 domain

	K60	S36	R21	W41 ϵ	N35sc	N38sc
$T_1^{\text{NH}}(\text{s})$	40 ± 8	25 ± 10	5 ± 3	12 ± 8	20 ± 9	20 ± 10
$T_1^{\text{ND}}(\text{s})$	80 ± 8	50 ± 10	10 ± 3	24 ± 8	40 ± 9	40 ± 10
$k_{\text{ex}} (\text{s}^{-1})$	0.38 ± 0.06	3 ± 1	2 ± 1	0.2 ± 0.1	5 ± 1	0.3 ± 0.1

The fit was obtained using Eq. 6

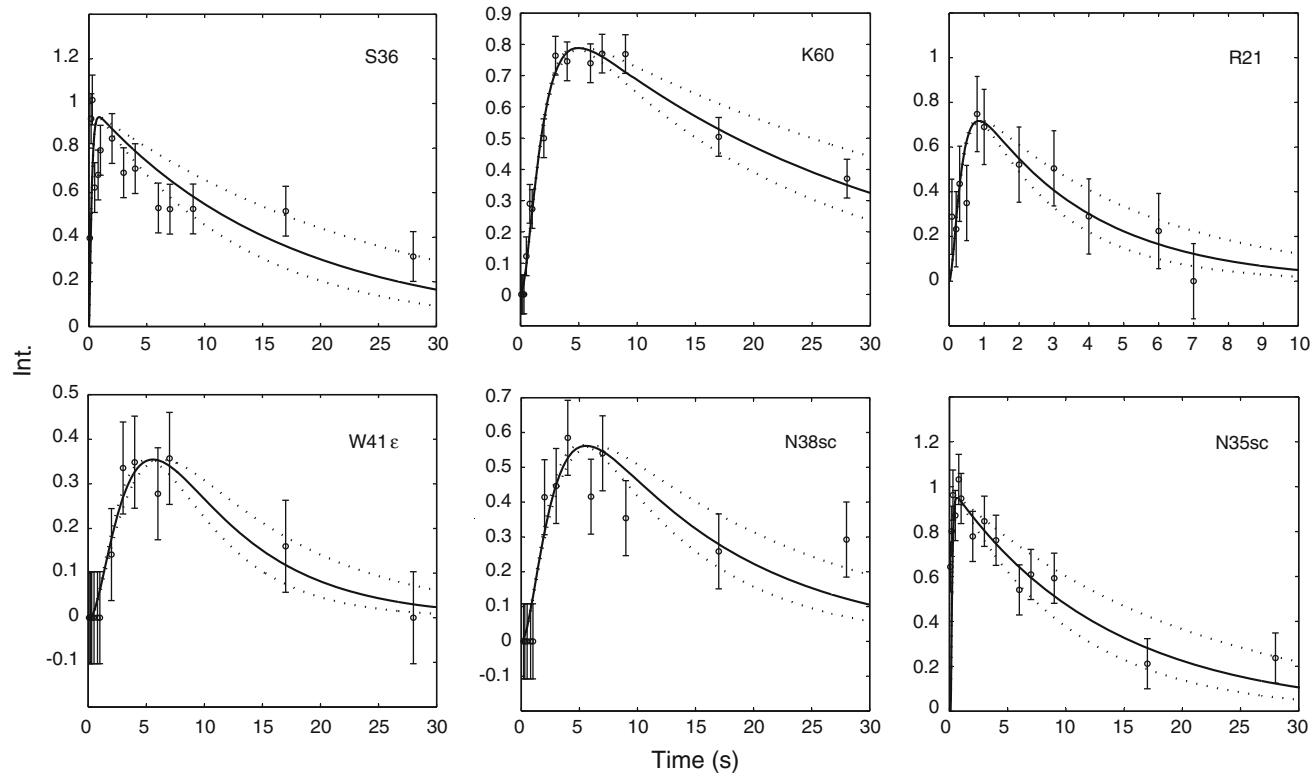


Fig. 6 Experimental and theoretical intensities for residues undergoing H/D exchange as a function of the exchange mixing times Δ . The buildup and decay curves were fitted using Eq. 6 (solid lines). Fit

exchange, while at the same time ^{15}N longitudinal relaxation did not affect the magnetization yet. For longer mixing times, the intensities decay exponentially

parameters are listed in Table 1. The lower dashed lines assume $T_1(\text{ND}) = T_1(\text{NH})$, whereas $T_1(\text{ND}) = \infty$ for the upper dashed ones

due to longitudinal relaxation. In this situation, the initial rates are independent of the ^{15}N T_1 relaxation within experimental error.

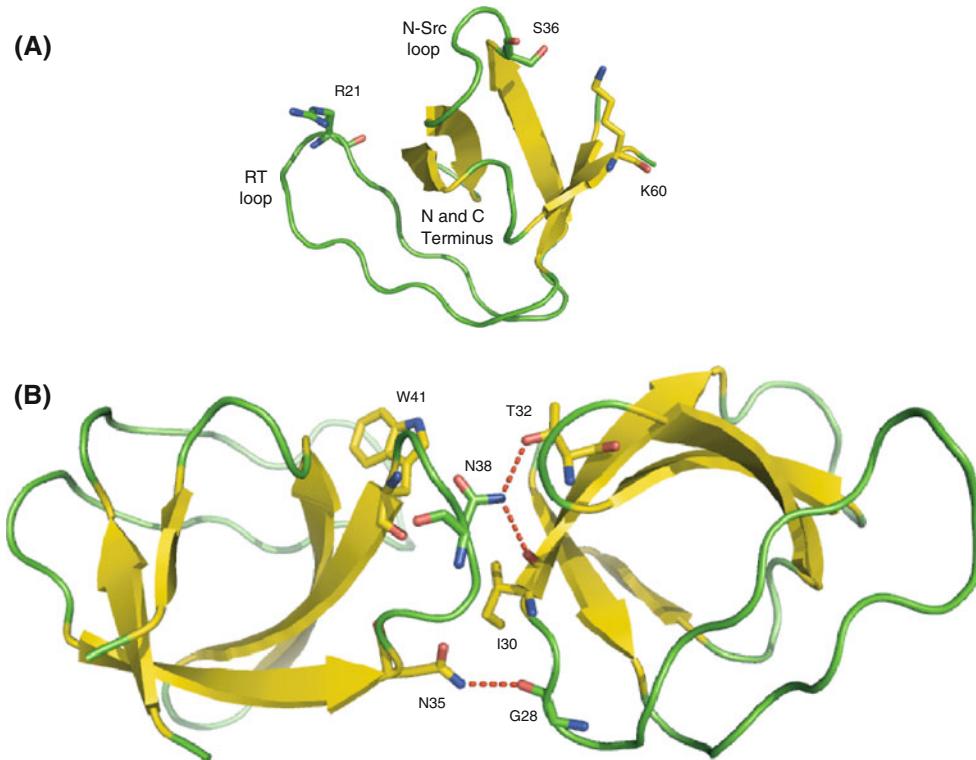


Fig. 7 Crystal structure of the α -spectrin SH3 domain (PDB code: 1U06, Chevelkov et al. 2005). **a** Residues which are subject to backbone H/D chemical exchange are represented by sticks. **b** Crystal contacts between symmetry related SH3 molecules involving the n-Src loop

Discussion

We demonstrated that H/D exchange rates of backbone amide protons in proteins are accessible by MAS solid-state NMR. The experiments were carried out using a microcrystalline sample of the α -spectrin SH3 domain. We observed chemical exchange for 6 residues with H/D exchange rates in the range from 0.2 to 5 s^{-1} . For all other amides, no H/D exchange could be observed. This implies that H/D exchange does not play a significant role for most residues in the α -spectrin SH3 domain within their characteristic ^{15}N longitudinal relaxation times. The analysis of dynamics in the solid-state that we have reported earlier (Chevelkov et al. 2009) seems thus not systematically affected by H/D exchange, and large fluctuations of the ^{15}N T_1 relaxation times reported previously (Chevelkov et al. 2008a) are in fact originating from local dynamics. The residues for which we could quantify H/D exchange rates (Table 1) have typically long ^{15}N relaxation times. We could not characterize chemical exchange rates for residues located in highly flexible regions of the protein, like the C-terminal D62. This is due to the fact that ^{15}N longitudinal relaxation times are very short for those residues, which is a consequence of large amplitude motions. In fact, we observe dramatically reduced CP efficiencies in certain

loop regions, as well as at the N-terminus and the C-terminus of the protein (Linser et al. 2010). TROSY type experiments turned out to be essential to assign these regions of the protein. In order to quantitatively access the H/D exchange properties in these parts of the protein, the experiments need to be adapted and should make use of spin-state selective coherence transfer pulse sequence elements. At this point, there is no evidence that H/D exchange plays an important role for those residues undergoing intermediate motion on a ns– μs timescale motion.

Figure 7a highlights residues for which we observe backbone chemical exchange using the structure of the α -spectrin SH3 domain (PDB: 1U06). We find chemical exchange in particular for residues S36, N35 and N38 which are part of the n-Src loop. This region seems in fact to be flexible. The amide resonances of S36, N35, N38 are only visible at lower temperature and disappear at an effective temperature of 22°C (Linser et al. 2010). In INEPT type experiments, S36, N35, N38 display decreased intensities in comparison to CP experiments, which indicates that the n-Src loop undergoes chemical exchange and can adopt multiple conformations. This is confirmed in CODEX experiments which probe motion on a millisecond timescale (Krushelnitsky et al. 2009). K60 is located at the

edge of the last β -sheet, and R21 at the tip of the extended RT-loop. For these two residues an increased mobility might be expected.

In Fig. 7b, the sidechains of residues N35, N38 and W41 are shown in a stick representation together with the interacting residues in the symmetry related molecule. The sidechain of N38, located in the N-Src-loop, is within hydrogen bonding distance to both T32-OH and the carbonyl group of I30 in a symmetry related molecule. This might explain a restricted mobility of this group, and thus an increased $^{15}\text{N}-T_1$ relaxation time. For a similar reason, the sidechain of N35 might show detectable H/D chemical exchange rates, as N35 is involved in an intermolecular hydrogen bond to the carbonyl group of G28.

To conclude, we could demonstrate that backbone H/D exchange rates are accessible in the solid-state in a direct correlation experiment. We find that H/D exchange rates are not significant for rigid residues located in regular secondary structure elements. Thus, $^{15}\text{N}-T_1$ relaxation times are not compromised in a motional analysis. We observe the largest H/D exchange rates ($2\text{--}5\text{ s}^{-1}$) for the n-Src loop in α -spectrin SH3 which was shown before to undergo conformational exchange.

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