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Spectroscopic characterization of conformational differences between PrP^C and PrP^{Sc}: an α -helix to β -sheet transition

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SUMMARY

Although no chemical modifications have been found to distinguish the cellular prion protein PrP^C from its infectious analogue PrP^{Sc}, spectroscopic methods such as Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy reveal a major conformational difference. PrP^C is rich in α -helix but is devoid of β -sheet, whereas PrP^{Sc} is high in β -sheet. N-terminal truncation of PrP^{Sc} by limited proteolysis does not destroy infectivity but it increases the β -sheet content and shifts the FTIR absorption to lower frequencies, typical of the cross β -pleated sheets of amyloids. Thus the formation of PrP^{Sc} from PrP^C involves a conformational transition in which one or more α -helical regions of the protein is converted to β -sheet. This transition is mimicked by synthetic peptides, allowing predictions of domains of PrP involved in prion diseases.

1. INTRODUCTION

Scrapie is a neurodegenerative disease of sheep and goats (Dickinson *et al.* 1965; Parry 1983). Similar diseases include transmissible mink encephalopathy and bovine spongiform encephalopathy of animals (Marsh *et al.* 1991; Wilesmith *et al.* 1992) as well as kuru, Creutzfeldt–Jakob disease, Gerstmann–Sträussler–Scheinker disease and fatal familial insomnia of humans (Gajdusek 1977; Kirschbaum 1968; Masters *et al.* 1981; Medori *et al.* 1992). For many years the nature of the infectious agent causing these diseases remained enigmatic.

By progressively enriching infectious fractions from the brains of mice and later Syrian hamsters experimentally infected with the scrapie agent, the scrapie prion protein (PrP^{Sc}) was discovered (Bolton *et al.* 1982; Prusiner *et al.* 1982). This protein is the major, and possibly the only, component of the infectious agent or prion which causes scrapie and the related fatal neurodegenerative diseases of humans and animals (Prusiner 1991). With the discovery of PrP^{Sc}, the mysterious nature of the infectious pathogen causing scrapie began to unravel; in addition, prion diseases were found to be unique in that they can occur in infectious, sporadic and inherited disorders (Prusiner 1991).

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The normal cellular form of the prion protein (PrP^C) which is expressed in neuronal cells is not normally pathogenic. There is no direct evidence that PrP^C can spontaneously convert to PrP^{Sc} to cause sporadic disease. However, the development of disease is highly likely if PrP^C interacts with PrP^{Sc} in a cellular process prior to its normal turnover. In a laboratory animal such interaction may be induced deliberately by the inoculation of infectious prions; in humans it may occur through cannibalism as in the case of kuru (Gajdusek 1977) or through the administration of infected growth hormone, dura mater grafts, corneal grafts or the use of inadequately sterilized surgical instruments (Brown *et al.* 1992). Numerous mutations in the prion protein (PrP) gene have been identified that also bring about this conversion, thereby causing inherited prion diseases.

Studies of the cell biology of PrP^{Sc} have established that it is formed from PrP^C in a post-translational event (Borchelt *et al.* 1990, 1992; Taraboulos *et al.* 1990, 1992; Caughey & Raymond 1991; Caughey *et al.* 1991a). Although we have investigated the primary structure and the post-translational covalent modifications of PrP^{Sc} in great detail, we have been unable to identify any chemical differences that would distinguish it from PrP^C (Stahl *et al.* 1993). This is despite the very marked physical differences, particularly the highly aggregated and insoluble nature of PrP^{Sc}, its protease resistance and the tendency for an infectious truncated form (PrP 27–30) to assemble into amyloid

rods (McKinley *et al.* 1991; Prusiner *et al.* 1983). These observations lead to the conclusion that the difference between the two forms might be conformational in nature. Thus we sought to compare the secondary, tertiary and quaternary structure of PrP^C and PrP^{Sc}.

Theoretical algorithms that model protein structure based on the amino acid sequence suggested that PrP might be a four-helix bundle protein and predicted the regions that would give α -helices (Gasset *et al.* 1992). Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy demonstrated that the four peptides synthesized corresponding to these regions were α -helical when dispersed in α -helix-promoting solvents such as hexafluoroisopropanol (HFIP); in contrast, three of the four synthetic peptides displayed high β -sheet content when suspended in aqueous solvents. The β -sheet was observed at a particularly low frequency (LF- β) and the peptides formed fibrils observable by electron microscopy. The fibrils also stained with Congo red and exhibited green-gold birefringence when viewed in polarized light; this is the hallmark of amyloids (Gasset *et al.* 1992). Other workers also demonstrated fibril formation in PrP peptides (Come *et al.* 1993; Forloni *et al.* 1993; Goldfarb *et al.* 1993). Studies of the secondary structure by FTIR established that PrP 27–30 has a higher β -sheet content than predicted (Caughey *et al.* 1991b; Gasset *et al.* 1993) but denaturation, which destroys infectivity, also destroys a substantial fraction of the β -sheet, particularly the LF- β (Gasset *et al.* 1993).

These observations led to the hypothesis that PrP^C might be a protein with a high α -helical content, some of which is converted into β -sheet during the formation of PrP^{Sc}. Recently, PrP^C purified by non-denaturing procedures has become available making a comparison of the two isoforms possible. FTIR measurements showed PrP^C to be rich in α -helix and low in β -sheet; whereas PrP^{Sc} has a relatively low α -helix and high β -sheet content (Pan *et al.* 1993). The α -helical nature of PrP^C was substantiated by measurements of ultraviolet circular dichroism (CD) (Pan *et al.* 1993).

2. METHODS FOR ANALYSIS OF SECONDARY STRUCTURE

Studies on proteins of structure known from X-ray diffraction have established that the FTIR amide I vibrational absorption band at 1680–1620 cm⁻¹ is influenced by the hydrogen bonding associated with the various secondary structural elements. Absorption at particular frequencies within this range can be used to characterize the secondary structure (Arrondo *et al.* 1993). Coils and α -helices may absorb at the same frequency but deuterium exchange of labile hydrogens shifts the absorption due to random coils and eliminates this overlap (Timasheff & Susi 1966). Computer programs are available for mathematical analysis of the amide I band involving background subtraction, smoothing, deconvolution and iterative least-squares curve fitting. This allows the calculation of the relative contributions of the secondary structural features, which in D₂O are at the following frequencies: 1662–

1645, α -helix; 1689–1682 and 1637–1613, β -sheet; 1682–1662.5, turn; 1644.5–1637, coil (Byler & Susi 1986; Goormaghtigh *et al.* 1990). It is assumed that the mean absorption per residue is the same for each of these components. Alternatively the secondary structure can be analysed by factor analysis (Lee *et al.* 1990).

The FTIR spectra of soluble proteins are usually obtained by transmission of radiation through a film of solution, often in D₂O (Arrondo *et al.* 1993). Cells can be made of CaF₂ or BaF₂ with spacers of up to 50 μ m. Insoluble peptides or proteins can be analyzed using attenuated total reflectance (ATR) of thin films deposited on the surface of a crystal (Goormaghtigh *et al.* 1990). It may be difficult to achieve complete hydrogen-deuterium exchange for an insoluble protein such as PrP 27–30 having a strong tendency to aggregate. Incomplete deuteration can cause considerable overlap between α -helix and random coil, thus the characterization of α -helix may be less reliable than that of β -sheet.

CD is an alternative method that compares the wavelength dependence of absorption of right and left hand polarized radiation by a chromophore such as the amide bonds of a protein. Of the various secondary structural elements in proteins, only α -helices display negative CD curves with strong minima at 222 and 208 nm, thus CD is more definitive than FTIR for α -helices (Yang *et al.* 1986). CD is relatively unaffected by detergents and lipids, a valuable feature for aggregated hydrophobic membrane proteins such as PrP (Park *et al.* 1992). In this study only PrP^C was evaluated by CD although spectra have been reported for thin dried films of PrP 27–30 and PrP^{Sc} (Safar *et al.* 1993).

Both FTIR and CD measure bulk phenomena and do not reveal the locations of the secondary structural elements within the molecule. By contrast nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) determines secondary and higher order structure at the atomic level (Wüthrich 1986). However, for NMR the protein must be soluble in an appropriate solvent and available pure in substantial amounts. As yet neither of these requirements has been met for PrP. Furthermore, to determine the structure of a protein the size of PrP (209 amino acids) it would be necessary to obtain isotopically labelled analogues and to apply three- and four-dimensional NMR techniques.

3. RESULTS

(a) Peptides

The Syrian hamster (SHa) PrP regions predicted to be α -helical are shown in figure 1. These were synthesized as peptides, designated H1–H4 (Gasset *et al.* 1992). Peptides H1, H3 and H4 proved to have very limited solubility in aqueous media but were readily soluble in HFIP. They were deposited as thin films on germanium crystals and their FTIR spectra were measured by ATR. From HFIP these exhibited the characteristic spectra of α -helices but addition of aqueous media immediately transformed them to β -

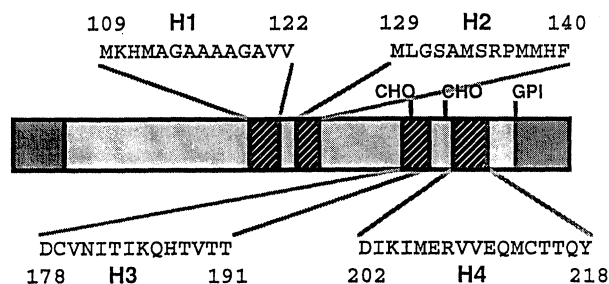


Figure 1. Schematic diagram of PrP showing the putative α -helices H1–H4. Reproduced with permission from Gasset *et al.* (1992).

sheet giving strong LF- β signals. This is illustrated in figure 2 for H1, showing a maximum at 1652 cm^{-1} from HFIP which shifts to 1626 cm^{-1} when treated with D_2O on the crystal. Deposition from D_2O /potassium phosphate gave an even lower frequency of 1622 cm^{-1} . By contrast, the FTIR spectrum of H2 was typical of an α -helix. Electron microscopy revealed that H1, H3 and H4 formed fibrils. When these were stained with Congo red and viewed by polarization microscopy they showed green–gold birefringence. H2 displayed none of these typical amyloid properties (Gasset *et al.* 1992).

(b) Denaturation of PrP 27–30

ATR-FTIR spectra were measured for PrP 27–30. Infectious prion rods deposited on the germanium crystal from aqueous buffer at pH 7 revealed more than 50% β -sheet, two thirds of which was LF- β . Rods were denatured by SDS-PAGE purification, a procedure that also destroys infectivity (Prusiner *et al.* 1993b). FTIR spectra of these preparations showed a reduction in β -sheet, particularly the LF- β component (table 1) (Gasset *et al.* 1993).

(c) Comparison of PrP^C with PrP^{Sc} and PrP 27–30

The purification of prions was aided by their resistance to proteolysis and their bioactivity, moni-

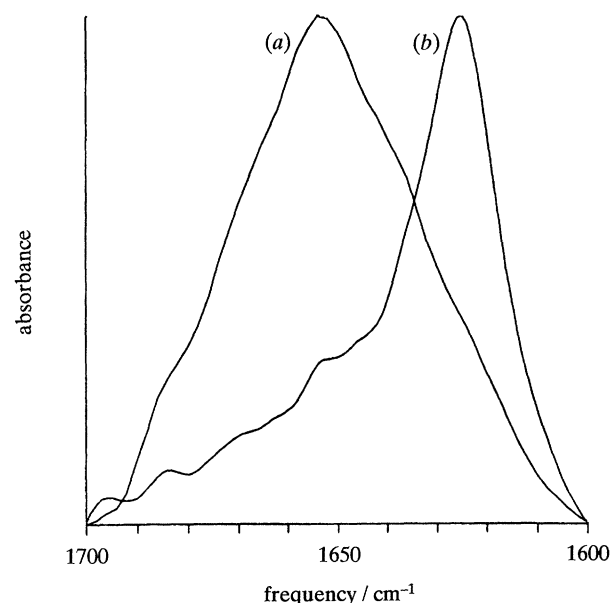


Figure 2. ATR-FTIR amide I spectra of H1 (a) deposited from HFIP, and (b) treated with D_2O .

Table 1. Percent α -helix and β -sheet content of PrP 27–30, PrP^C and PrP^{Sc} measured by FTIR (Gasset *et al.* 1993; Pan *et al.* 1993) compared with predictions from a neural network program (Kneller *et al.* 1990; Presnell *et al.* 1993)

FTIR			
technique	sample	α -helix	β -sheet
ATR ^a	PrP 27–30 ^c	25	54
	SDS-PAGE ^d	19	38
transmission ^b	PrP 27–30 ^c	21	54
	PrP ^C	42	3
	PrP ^{Sc}	30	43
predicted			
species	ref. ^c	α -helix	β -sheet
PrP _{90–231} (PrP 27–30)	naive	20	8
	α/α	45	0
	α/β	39	1
	β/β	0	30
PrP _{23–231} (PrP ^C & PrP ^{Sc})	naive	14	6
	α/α	31	0
	α/β	27	1
	β/β	0	24

^a Samples dried on a Ge crystal from D_2O /phosphate and equilibrated with D_2O (Gasset *et al.* 1993).

^b Transmission FTIR in $\text{D}_2\text{O}/0.15\text{ M NaCl}/0.01\text{ M sodium phosphate, pD } 7.5$ (uncorrected)/0.12% Zwittergent 3–12 (Pan *et al.* 1993).

^c Infectious native prion rods.

^d Prion rods repurification by elution from an SDS-PAGE gel.

^e Predominant structure of the reference sets of proteins used as the basis for the predictions.

tored as scrapie infectivity in hamsters. Neither of these is applicable to PrP^C and its purification has been more elusive. In earlier studies, sufficient PrP^C was isolated by denaturing methods to undertake Edman N-terminal sequencing (Turk *et al.* 1988), a preliminary analysis of its GPI anchor (Stahl *et al.* 1992) and to confirm by matrix-assisted laser desorption–ionization mass spectrometry that the molecular mass of the protein was very close to that predicted (Pan *et al.* 1992; M. A. Baldwin *et al.*, unpublished results). A newly developed non-denaturing purification has allowed the study of the secondary structure of PrP^C by FTIR and CD (Pan *et al.* 1993). Figure 3 compares the FTIR amide I spectra of PrP^C (solid line), PrP^{Sc} (dashed line) and PrP 27–30 (dotted line) obtained in $\text{D}_2\text{O}/0.15\text{ M NaCl}/0.01\text{ M sodium phosphate, pD } 7.5$ (uncorrected)/0.12% Zwittergent 3–12 in a $50\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ pathlength transmission cell with CaF_2 windows. The proteins were H/D equilibrated for at least 18 h before analysis.

Deconvolution and curve fitting of the data in figure 3 give the relative proportions of secondary structure listed against ‘transmission’ in table 1 (Pan *et al.* 1993). These data show a substantial difference in the structure of PrP^C, which has low or zero β -sheet content. In contrast, the β -sheet content of both PrP^{Sc} and PrP 27–30 is much higher, i.e. 43 and 54%, respectively. PrP^C is higher in α -helix content (42%)

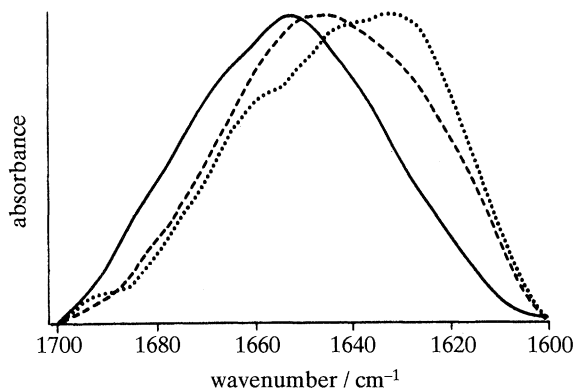


Figure 3. Transmission FTIR amide I spectra of PrP^C (solid line), PrP^{Sc} (dashed line) and PrP 27–30 (dotted line) in D₂O/0.15 M NaCl/0.01 M sodium phosphate, pD 7.5 (uncorrected)/0.12% Zwittergent 3–12. Reproduced with permission from Pan *et al.* (1993).

than either PrP^{Sc} or PrP 27–30. Denaturation of PrP 27–30 under conditions which diminish infectivity such as SDS-PAGE (Prusiner *et al.* 1993*b*) reduce both the β -sheet (54% \rightarrow 38%) and α -helix (25% \rightarrow 19%) content as measured by ATR-FTIR (Gasset *et al.* 1993). These findings demonstrate profound differences between the secondary structures of PrP^C and PrP^{Sc}.

Table 1 also gives predicted proportions of secondary structure using a neural network algorithm (Kneller *et al.* 1990; Presnell *et al.* 1993) based on homology with reference sets of naive, α/α , α/β and β/β proteins (Pan *et al.* 1993). Most interestingly, these show substantial differences because predictions for the regions H1, H3 and H4 switch between α -helix and β -sheet, depending on the nature of the reference set, reflecting their observed behaviour.

Figure 4 shows the CD spectrum of PrP^C obtained in the same buffer as was used for FTIR except that it contained H₂O rather than D₂O. The protein concentration measured by amino acid analysis was used in calculating the ellipticity values on the ordinate axis. Samples from several different preparations of PrP^C gave very similar results. The minimum at 208 nm and the shoulder at 222 nm are strongly indicative of an α -helix-containing protein. The proportion of

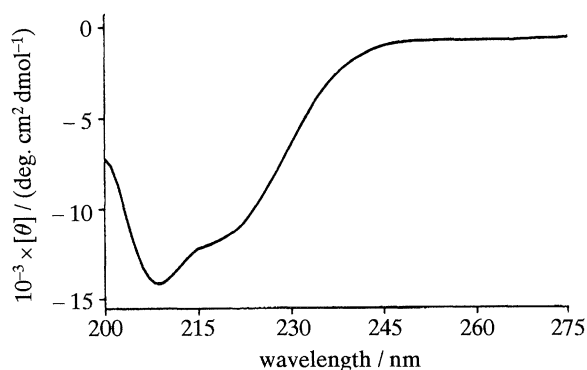


Figure 4. CD spectrum of PrP^C in 0.15 M NaCl/0.01 M sodium phosphate, pH 7.5/0.12% Zwittergent 3–12. Reproduced with permission from Pan *et al.* (1993).

α -helix estimated from the ellipticity at 222 nm (Yang *et al.* 1986) is approximately 36% (Pan *et al.* 1993).

4. DISCUSSION

The data presented here establish clear differences between the secondary structures of PrP^C and PrP^{Sc} which do not seem to arise from covalent modifications as we have been unable to identify any chemical difference between the two PrP isoforms. Thus, scrapie seems to be a disease of protein conformation.

Mature PrP has 209 amino acids corresponding to codons 23–231 (Oesch *et al.* 1985; Basler *et al.* 1986; Stahl *et al.* 1990). It is normally GPI-anchored (Stahl *et al.* 1987) but expression of a non-anchored form still gave low-level conversion to a protease-resistant form in scrapie-infected cells (Rogers *et al.* 1993). A number of findings suggest one domain of PrP may be crucial in the formation of PrP^{Sc}: (i) limited proteolysis gives prion rods composed of PrP 27–30 N-terminally truncated at codon 90, which retain the infectivity; (ii) plaques isolated from the brains of patients who died from a familial prion disease contain a truncated protein 58–150 (Tagliavini *et al.* 1991); and (iii) a pathogenic mutation has been identified that stops PrP translation at codon 145 (Kitamoto *et al.* 1993). The PrP domain containing residues 90–145 contains a 21-residue hydrophobic sequence (codons 111–131) that is very highly conserved across all species sequenced to date, including chickens (Gabriel *et al.* 1992). Structure prediction programs contend that this sequence will be α -helical (Garnier *et al.* 1978; Bazan *et al.* 1987) and cell-free translation studies suggest that this region of PrP forms a transmembrane α -helix (Hay *et al.* 1987). However, we observed that H1 (108–121) containing the N-terminal half of this hydrophobic region prefers to form fibrils with LF- β structure (Gasset *et al.* 1992). In common with the β A4 peptide of β APP which is associated with Alzheimer's disease, the C-terminal portion of the PrP hydrophobic region was identified to contain a repeating motif (GXXX)_n associated with amyloid formation (Jarrett & Lansbury 1992). The corresponding peptide 118–133 AGAVVGGGLGGYMLGSA was shown to form LF- β fibrils (Come *et al.* 1993).

Although the region 90–145 is apparently sufficient for the development of a prion disease, other portions of the protein must play some role as many of the pathogenic mutations are located outside this region. It is interesting to note that most of the point mutations are clustered close to H1, H3 or H4, sequences that as peptides have been shown to undergo a conformational switch (Gasset *et al.* 1992).

It remains unproven that amyloid formation is required for the development of prion diseases. The pathology of prion diseases is quite variable and the development of amyloid plaques is not universal. For example, a familial prion disease caused by a 144-base-pair insertion in the prion protein gene gave no characteristic pathology (Collinge *et al.* 1990). That amyloid is not necessary is consistent with irradiation studies which gave the target size of the infectious particle as 55 kDa (Bellinger-Kawahara *et al.* 1988),

suggesting that a prion could be a PrP^{Sc} dimer. The initial event that converts a native PrP^C molecule into PrP^{Sc} may be as simple as a geometrical isomerization, such as the conversion of a *trans* amide bond to the energetically less favored *cis* form. There would be a dynamic equilibrium in which the 'normal' conformation would be strongly favoured. Only if two molecules came together in the disease conformation, statistically a rare event, would they dimerize and switch from α -helix to β -sheet, stabilizing the abnormal conformation and preventing destruction and turnover by proteolysis. In addition to the sporadic diseases this could also be the familial mechanism if the mutations stabilize the disease conformation. The presence of β -sheet dimers might accelerate the formation of small polymers of three or four PrP^{Sc} molecules which seem to be responsible for the infectivity. In some cases amyloid might subsequently form as a by-product of the disease through further aggregation, especially if the PrP^{Sc} is proteolytically truncated. We have observed that full-length PrP^{Sc} forms amorphous aggregates whereas PrP 27–30 is highly ordered, displaying a higher proportion of the LF- β structure that is typical of amyloids (Pan *et al.* 1993).

As presented above, the mechanism for PrP^{Sc} production is based on equilibria and mass action. Alternatively, PrP^{Sc} might actually catalyse the conversion of a PrP^C molecule, lowering the energy barrier for the conformational transition to give an induced fit. Attempts to form PrP^{Sc} by addition of PrP^{Sc} to a test tube containing PrP^C have been unsuccessful (Raeber *et al.* 1992) indicating that the process is complex. Pulse-chase experiments with scrapie-infected cultured cells indicate that continued protein synthesis during the chase period is required for PrP^{Sc} formation (Taraboulos *et al.* 1992). These findings indicate that the synthesis of proteins other than PrP are required for the formation of PrP^{Sc} to occur. Presumably such proteins in concert with a complex containing PrP^C and PrP^{Sc} feature in the propagation of prion infectivity.

A *cis* amide bond has been identified between glycine residues 37 and 38 in β A (Spencer *et al.* 1991) but there are a number of possible alternatives to a simple *cis/trans* isomerization. These include: (i) the special case of a proline *cis/trans* isomerization, which is slow but much more common, $\sim 7\%$ of all proline amide bonds being *cis* (Stewart *et al.* 1990); (ii) stereoisomeric conversion of an L-amino acid to the D form (Mor *et al.* 1992); (iii) a covalent modification that involves no mass change such as conversion of aspartate to isoaspartate, known to occur in β A4 (Roher *et al.* 1993); (iv) a labile modification that is lost in the work-up of the peptides prior to analysis, such as phosphoarginine (Fujitaki & Smith 1984); or (v) a covalent modification to a small fraction of PrP^C that initiates the formation of a PrP^{Sc} molecule, which can then recruit unmodified molecules into prions.

Transgenic mice that do not express PrP^C cannot be infected with prions (Büeler *et al.* 1993; Prusiner *et al.* 1993a). Different 'strains' of prions give characteristically different incubation times and pathology (Hecker *et al.* 1992). Proteins may exhibit different

stable conformations (Milner & Medcalf 1991), but experience suggests that only a very limited set of alternative conformations is likely. However, a minor structural change such as is described above could occur at several different sites in the protein. Thus prions from different 'strains' could be subtly different. Only the modification that characterised a particular 'strain' would be perpetuated by inoculation with prions from that 'strain'. Similarly prions would not interact efficiently with PrP^C having a foreign sequence, thereby giving rise to the species barrier.

Attempts to create scrapie infectivity *in vivo* based on various treatments of PrP^C and denatured PrP^{Sc} have proved unsuccessful (Prusiner *et al.* 1993b; Raeber *et al.* 1992). Denatured PrP^{Sc} has now been shown to differ from PrP^C in its secondary structure and it is possible that denaturation brings about irreversible changes. Whether PrP^C can be converted to PrP^{Sc} *in vitro* remains to be established. Many biological processes can be imitated in a test-tube but at the present time it is not known whether chaperones, enzymes or other intracellular agents play a role in PrP^{Sc} formation.

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