

PROTON-DEUTERON AMIDE EXCHANGE STUDIES BY MS AND NMR:

NEW METHODS FOR PROTEIN NMR RESONANCE ASSIGNMENT

By

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(Under the Direction of Dr. James H. Prestegard and Dr. Ronald Orlando)

ABSTRACT

Many proteins of biological interest are large, or difficult to express with uniform magnetically active isotopic labels, making them inaccessible to structural study by conventional Nuclear Magnetic Resonance (NMR) methods. A less conventional approach relies on sparse labeling with isotopes in specific amino acid types, but this approach requires new resonance assignment strategies that don't rely on the presence of isotopic labels in sequential backbone sites. The goal of this thesis is to develop a new protein assignment strategy applicable to a sparsely labeled sample. The approach combines NMR and Mass Spectrometry (MS) and relies on the ability of both methods to monitor the rates of exchange of an amide proton for a water deuteron. MS can identify the peptide sequence which contains the exchanged amides while NMR can provide resolved amide proton signals which reflect the amount of exchange. By correlating amide exchange rates, from data on the native protein and from data on derived peptides, we achieve assignment of NMR peaks to specific positions in the protein sequence. We selected the glycosyltransferase, ST6Gal1 as a long-term objective. This is a 38 kDa glycosylated protein that is not readily expressed in *E. Coli*. We have also used a more easily expressed 15 kDa lectin, Galectin-3, as an intermediate target on which to demonstrate our methodology. We have successfully demonstrated the utility of our assignment strategy on a ¹⁵N phenylalanine labeled sample of Galectin-3, and have demonstrated an ability to acquire data on ST6Gal1 labeled in specific amino acids. We expect the new methodology to open NMR-based structural investigations for a class of proteins that has been largely inaccessible to structural biology investigation in the past.

INDEX WORDS: H/D exchange, NMR, MS, Assignment, Gelectin-3, ST6Gal1, Angiotensin I, Specific isotopic labeling, Hadamard transform, Pepsin digestion, MALDI, ESI FT MS

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my wonderful family. My father, Dingliang Feng, taught me to be strong, aim high, live positively and contribute to the community. My mother, Meifang Lian, taught me kindness, patience, and appreciation. My husband, Yebin Zhao, gives me love, and is always there for me and supporting me no matter what happens.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND LITERATURE REVIEW

1.1 Structural investigation of proteins by NMR and the need for a new resonance assignment strategy.

While X-ray crystallography remains the major source of protein structures, NMR is playing an increasingly important role in characterizing the structure and dynamics of these biomolecules.¹⁻³ The additional information NMR provides is expected to have a broad impact on fundamental biology, medicine, and biotechnology. Structures will be used to understand the molecular basis for disease, to develop diagnostics or therapies, and to assist in drug development. In contrast to X-ray crystallography, NMR studies yield time-averaged representations of molecules in aqueous solution at physiological temperatures. Therefore the experimental conditions are arguably closer to that of the native functional state. Furthermore, in addition to protein structure determination, NMR applications provide information on dynamic features of the molecular structures, as well as structural, thermodynamic and kinetic aspects of interactions between proteins, large biomolecules (RNA, DNA, *etc.*) and ligands (polysaccharides, *etc.*).⁴⁻⁶ Besides, not all proteins are readily crystallized. The latter point is especially significant because a substantial fraction of all proteins are thought to contain long, disordered regions (>40 residues), or heterogeneous glycosylation, factors that are thought to inhibit crystallization.⁷

NMR also has limitations, but these are steadily receding. Structural studies have been largely limited to proteins less than 30 kDa, although there have recently been studies of proteins as large as 800 kDa.⁸ Proteins have to be soluble to levels of several hundred micro-molar to provide adequate sensitivity, and proteins have had to be amenable to uniform isotope labeling. Higher fields, high temperature super-conducting probes, low temperature RF coils and preamplifiers are all leading to major improvements in sensitivity.^{9, 10} New sources of structural information, such as residual dipolar interactions and calculated dependencies of chemical shifts on structure have provided the structural constraints that aid

work on larger proteins.¹¹⁻¹³ And, new resolution enhancing methodologies, such as TROSY (Transverse relaxation optimized spectroscopy) have made the accurate measurement of these parameters in large molecules possible.^{8, 14, 15} Such improvements will lead not only to increased application, but to increased precision and accuracy in the structure determined by solution NMR.

One area where the potential of NMR has not been fully realized is in the structural study of glycosylated proteins. Glycosylation is the most common post-translational modification of eukaryotic proteins with an estimated 50% of all eukaryotic proteins having potential glycosylation sites.¹⁶ Protein glycosylation is functionally important playing roles in signaling, modifying stability or modifying activity. In addition, glycans represent key structures for the interaction of cells with toxins, viruses, bacteria, antibodies and microorganisms.^{17, 18} Glycoproteins are not easy targets for crystallography, often refusing to crystallize.^{19, 20} Conformational flexibility of the glycan antennae at the surface of the protein obviously hamper crystal growth. In cases where glycoproteins crystallize, the electron density is affected by high thermal motion of the glycan moiety: the detectable electron density is so low that no defined spatial arrangement can be assigned. In the Protein Data Bank²¹ updated on June 13th, 2006, 3702 hits are reported if the key word 'glycoprotein' is applied in a general search. However, less than 10% of these have even the first sugar of a potential glycosylation site present. Also, in most cases where crystal structures of actual glycosylated proteins have been obtained, only the co-ordinates of the rigid core region of N-glycan are available.^{22, 23} Because of the lack of experimentally solved structures, the question if complex carbohydrates can show defined secondary or tertiary structural motifs can still not be answered.

The major difficulty for NMR as an alternative approach to crystallography results primarily from an inability to express properly glycosylated proteins in *E. coli*. So the

isotopic labeling, which is a necessary step in multi dimensional NMR experiments, is not easy to achieve. Glycosylated proteins can be produced in various eukaryotic hosts, but something approaching proper glycosylation of mammalian proteins can only be accomplished in mammalian cell culture. These cultures must be supplemented directly with a full complement of isotopically labeled amino acids, many of which are very expensive. As a result, there are very few cases reported where ^{13}C , ^{15}N labeling and triple resonance NMR experiments have been achieved with mammalian cell expressed protein.²⁴ Therefore, new approaches are required to allow NMR exploration of glycoprotein structure and dynamics.

It is an interesting fact that not all isotopically labeled amino acids are expensive. Phenylalanine labeled with ^{15}N , for example is just \$24/100mg (<http://www.isotope.com/cil/products/>) and a typical liter of culture requires just 200 mg. In principle, it would be possible to label with a selected set of amino acids and acquire structural information. This can be referred to as sparse labeling. Without uniform isotopic labeling it will not be possible to exploit nuclear overhauser effects (NOEs) as a primary source of data, since they depend on short range ^1H - ^1H contacts that are primarily side-chain to side-chain contacts. ^{15}N labels are generally not near these sites. Fortunately, a variety of back-bone centered data have become available recently. These include residual dipolar couplings (RDCs) which based on alignment of molecules with the magnetic field, provide unique long-range orientational information¹¹⁻¹³, and Paramagnetic relaxation enhancement (PRE) which provides distance information between a paramagnetic center and NMR detectable nuclei.²⁵⁻²⁷ When combined with computational modeling, these provide a possible route to glycoprotein structure.²⁸⁻³¹

As a routine experiment for NMR protein exploration, the ^{15}N - ^1H heteronuclear single quantum correlation (HSQC) experiment provides a basis for detection of sparsely

labeled sites and the return of the type of structural information discussed above. These experiments correlate an ^1H frequency with a ^{15}N frequency for the N-H pair in the amide group of each amino acid residue (except proline). Folded proteins or protein domains display a broad distribution of NMR frequencies resulting in a good dispersion of signals in the ^{15}N -HSQC. However, when NMR targets become larger and larger, even HSQC experiments are complicated by increased line-broadening and signal overlap due to the higher number of resonances. In order to extend NMR's capability for exploring large proteins, transverse relaxation-optimized spectroscopy (TROSY) was developed by Pervushin, Wüthrich and their colleagues.^{1, 15} TROSY exploits destructive interference between two different relaxation mechanisms, and actually uses chemical shift anisotropy (CSA)-relaxation at high fields to cancel the dipolar relaxation. In this way one member of a quartet of cross peaks seen in a fully coupled HSQC becomes very sharp. Selection of this line provides a close analog of an HSQC spectrum with greatly enhanced resolution. TROSY has allowed acquisition of solution NMR spectra on macromolecular structures, up to 800 kDa protein.⁸ Both HSQC and TROSY are sensitive 2D heteronuclear experiments that can be the basis for acquiring data on sparsely ^{15}N labeled proteins.

Unfortunately, sparse labeling has an associated problem. To make use of RDCs and PREs, cross-peaks must be assigned. NMR assignments have come to rely heavily on one-bond scalar couplings between ^{13}C and ^{15}N along the backbone as well as ^{13}C - ^{13}C coupling in side chains that are only available in uniformly labeled samples. The conventional strategy collects a series of 3D heteronuclear triple-resonance experiments to correlate backbone ^1HN , ^{15}N , $^{13}\text{C}_\alpha$ and $^{13}\text{C}_\beta$ spins, such as 3D HNCA, HN(CO)CA, HNCACB and HN(CO)CACB. These experiments provide inter-residue correlations where one-bond scalar couplings are the origin of observed cross peaks. Properly combining several triple resonance NMR experiments, it is possible to establish a sequential walk from one

residue to the next, and classify amino acid types based on $C\alpha$ and $C\beta$ chemical shifts. In addition to the need for uniform ^{15}N , ^{13}C labeling, for larger proteins, high levels of deuteration, which maximize the lifetimes of NMR signals and optimize the H—N TROSY effect, are also required. This further complicates work with large glycosylated proteins. Mammalian cell expression in deuterated media has to our knowledge never been accomplished.

In this thesis I outline and demonstrate the applicability of an alternate assignment strategy that will work with sparse labeling. This strategy relies on combining NMR and MS data to correlate HSQC/TROSY cross peaks with specific peptide sequences. The correlation is accomplished by monitoring amide H/D exchange rates with both methods. MS can provide information on the sequential position of the exchange, while NMR can provide resolved cross peaks that yield structure and drug binding information. Amide H/D exchange rates, which have the same unit as ^{15}N or ^{13}C frequencies add a powerful third dimension to HSQC/TROSY spectra useful in assignment. At the same time, specific amino acid ^{15}N isotopic labeling simplifies the 2D HSQC/TROSY spectra and minimizes ambiguities in the assignment. Ultimately we hope to aid the assignment of the catalytic domain of the sialyltransferase, ST6Gal1. This is a glycosylated protein of about 38 kDa molecular weight. As an intermediate step we illustrate successful assignment on a smaller carbohydrate binding protein, Galectin 3.

1.2 Theory of H/D exchange

H/D exchange is a chemical reaction in which a covalently bonded hydrogen atom is replaced by a deuterium atom, or vice versa. There are three kinds of hydrogens in proteins (Figure 1.1). First, hydrogens from side chains containing $-\text{OH}$, $-\text{SH}$, $-\text{NH}_2$, $-\text{COOH}$, and $-\text{CONH}_2$ groups as well as hydrogens from the amino and carboxy termini (blue) exchange very quickly; exchange rates typically cannot be measured with the methods described here.

Second, carbon-bound aliphatic and aromatic hydrogens do not participate in standard exchange reactions (green). Third, the hydrogens arising from the amide linkages between amino acids of the protein polypeptide chain (except proline) exchange at the rates that can be measured (red). Rates of backbone H/D amide exchange reflect the local environment of each amino acid in the 3D structure. In particular they reflect intrinsic rates dependent on local sequence and stability variations between exposed loops, alpha helices, and beta sheets.

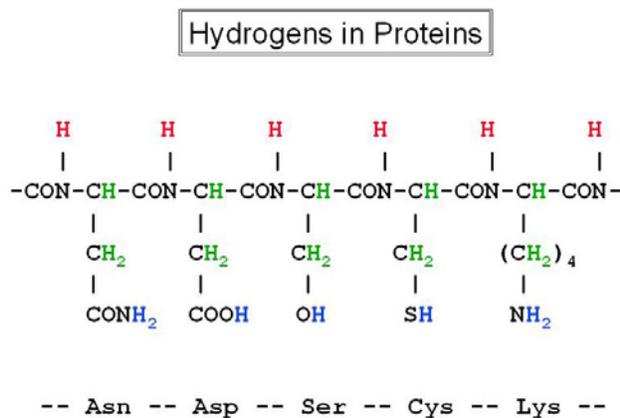


Figure 1.1. Three kinds of hydrogen in a polypeptide. (<http://www.hxms.com/>)

The “intrinsic” exchange rates (k_{int}) described by Englander and co-workers reflect protein sequence and experimental conditions such as pH, temperature, and hydrogen isotope.³² More specifically, k_{int} depends on local inductive effects of adjacent side chains that alter the pKa of the amide H-N group. In general, polar side chains withdraw electrons, rendering nearest-neighbor peptides more acidic. This acts to increase the OH^- catalyzed rate, which involves proton abstraction, and to decrease H^+ -catalysis which is limited by the protonation rate. Also, the local concentration of available catalyst can be altered by the presence of adjacent reactive side chain groups, and steric effects of adjacent residues will affect accessibility.³³⁻³⁵

The intrinsic exchange rate depends on the concentration of available catalyst, including OH^- , H_3O^+ , H_2O , and acidic or basic solutes (Equation 1.1). The rate is minimal

near $\text{pH}_{\text{read}} 2.5$. Below this pH, exchange occurs via proton addition, catalyzed by D_3O^+ . Above this pH, exchange occurs by proton abstraction predominantly catalyzed by OH^- . The rate of hydrogen exchange is very sensitive to pH – a change in one pH unit can equal a ten-fold change in the exchange rate. Because of their extreme pKs, peptide group NHs are catalyzed only by H^+ and OH^- ions (in water) so that a log (rate) versus pH curve is V-shaped with a minimum rate occurring between pH 2 and 3, where halftimes average >1 hr at 0°C (Figure 1.2). Amide exchange at neutral pH involves base catalyzed proton abstraction and acid catalyzed transfer of deuterium from solvent. Measurable isotope effects from the isotopic nature of the amide hydrogen and a lack of a solvent isotope effect indicate that proton abstraction is rate limiting.

$$k_{\text{int}} = k_{\text{H}}[\text{H}^+] + k_{\text{OH}}[\text{OH}^-] + k_{\text{H}_2\text{O}} \quad \text{Eq. 1.1.}$$

Peptide Amide HX Rate Constant vs. pH

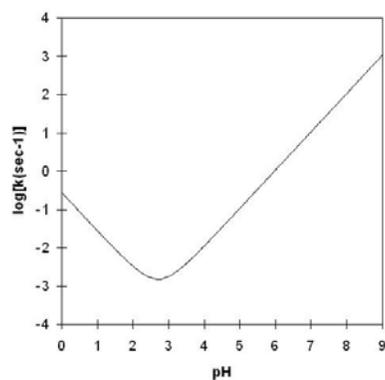


Figure 1.2. pH depended hydrogen exchange rates (k_{int}).
(<http://www.hxms.com/images/hx2.jpg>)

Although intrinsic chemical exchange occurs rapidly for amide hydrogens in peptides at neutral pH ($k_{\text{ch}} \sim 10^1 - 10^3 \text{ sec}^{-1}$), observed exchange of backbone amide hydrogens in proteins can occur much more slowly, with half lives ranging from milliseconds to years, a range of 10^8 .³⁶ The degree of solvent protection, hydrogen bonding within the protein and flexibility of the peptide chain are main factors that affect H/D exchange rates. Amide

hydrogens of proteins in the native, folded state are proposed to exchange according to Equation 1.2:



where k_{op} is the rate of “opening”, k_{cl} is the rate of “closing”, and k_{ch} is the “intrinsic” chemical exchange rate as discussed above. If refolding of the structural unit is fast compared with the intrinsic chemical exchange rate, which is the common situation for a protein under native conditions, exchange will be a second-order reaction with a rate proportional to the concentration of catalyst (OH^- , H_3O^+ , H_2O). This situation is known as the EX2 limit. The ratio of the chemical exchange rate to the observed exchange rate provides a measure of the equilibrium constant describing the distribution of open versus closed states in solution ($k_{ch}/k_{obs} \approx k_{cl}/k_{op} = 1/K_{op}$). This ratio is termed the “protection factor” (P) and the log of P is proportional to ΔG_{op} , a measure of the local thermodynamic stability of the folded form. On opening, amide sites are exposed to solvent and subsequent hydrogen exchange occurs. The EX1 limit is reached when reclosing is slower than chemical exchange, which means all of the amide hydrogens within a small segment of protein undergo exchange while the segment is open. The exchange rate is then equal to the opening rate. Equation 1.4 summarizes the k_{obs} calculation for EX1 and EX2 mechanisms.³⁷

$$\Delta G_{op} = -RT \ln(k_{obs} / k_{ch}) = -RT \ln(K_{op}) \quad \text{Eq. 1.3.}$$

$$k_{obs} = \frac{k_{op} \cdot k_{ch}}{k_{cl} + k_{ch} + k_{op}} \approx \frac{k_{op} \cdot k_{ch}}{k_{cl} + k_{ch}}$$

(EX1) $k_{cl} \ll k_{ch}$; $k_{obs} = k_{op}$

(EX2) $k_{cl} \gg k_{ch}$; $k_{obs} = \frac{k_{op}}{k_{cl}} \cdot k_{ch}$

Eq 1.4.

To date, H/D exchange has been used as a sensitive method to measure folding or unfolding rates, measure stability constants, determine interacting surfaces, and determine disordered regions of native, folded proteins.³⁸⁻⁴² Both NMR and MS have the capability of

monitoring the H/D exchange reaction. In certain cases, the two technologies are complementary to each other. NMR has the advantage of site-by-site spatial resolution. MS has a much lower requirement for sample amounts and is more tolerant of protein size. Furthermore, facile identification of peptide sequences from total mass is beneficial information directly coming from MS. Some qualitative comparisons of rates measured by NMR and MS have been presented.^{43,44} However, combining the methodology to correlate sequence with NMR resonances has not been reported. Here we exploit this combination to make NMR protein resonance assignments. In doing this we need not interpret rates; we only require that the dispersion of rates is adequate to avoid ambiguities in assignment. With a dispersion over 6 orders of magnitude and measurements good within a factor of two, we can expect unambiguous assignments for most resonances from a protein with 20 discrete labels. This is appropriate for a protein of approximately 400 residues if a single amino acid type is labeled.

1.3 Sparse labeling strategy for glycoprotein studies

Selective labeling makes it possible to obtain structural information about particular amino acids in proteins larger than 40 kDa.⁴⁵⁻⁴⁷ The number of resonances is significantly reduced from that seen in uniformly labeled samples. Resolution is improved and the assignment problem is, in principle, simplified by restricting assignments to specific amino acid types.

The protocols for amino acid specific labeling have been developed for the protein expression systems of *E. coli*, Baculovirus-infected insect cells, mammalian cells, *P. pastoris* and cell-free protein synthesis.^{46, 48-53} Many reports have shown that *P. pastoris* was developed into a highly successful system for the production of a variety of heterologous proteins. It is the only system that offers the benefits of *E. coli* (high-level expression, easy scale-up, and an inexpensive growth medium). It retains most of the advantages of expression

in a eukaryotic system (protein processing, folding, and post-translational modifications). The *P. pastoris* expression system has demonstrated a capacity for performing many post-translational modifications such as glycosylation, proteolytic processing, and disulfide bond formation.⁵⁴⁻⁵⁷ However, glycosylation is quite distinct from that occurring in mammalian cells. It also produces very large high mannose glycans that can add to the apparent molecular weight of the system under study.

Cell-free protein expression involves the addition of template DNA containing the appropriate promoter elements and the code for the target protein to a bacterial extract that contains the relevant RNA polymerases the ribosomal machinery, and the necessary substrates (tRNAs, amino acids, ATP, etc.). The system then transcribes and translates the DNA sequence to protein *in vitro*.⁵⁸ Cell-free protein synthesis has several advantages over cell-based systems, particularly in the expression of toxic proteins, and use of specific labeled amino acids. However, glycosylation machinery has not yet been incorporated in this expression system, and orderly formation of disulfide bonds remains a challenge.^{59, 60}

Selective ¹⁵N labeling of proteins by residue type in *E. coli* is easily implemented. It typically involves the use of synthetic rich broth containing one or several ¹⁵N-labeled amino acids, and high levels of all other amino acids in unlabeled form.^{48, 52} This approach suppresses the incorporation of the ¹⁵N-label at undesired sites (cross-labeling) through metabolic pathways. For some amino acids, however, amino acid metabolism drastically reduces the efficiency and selectivity of labeling in vivo expression systems. Reducing cross-labeling is important when studying large structures with solution NMR. For example, even minor cross labeling to other residues can lead to very strong signals in the NMR spectra when the receiving residues are located in flexible regions of the proteins. In an assignment procedure, it may then not be trivial to distinguish resonances arising from the intended labeled residue type from those derived through cross-labeling. Transaminase

activities using valine, leucine, isoleucine, aspartate, phenylalanine, tyrosine and tryptophan as substrates can give rise to various degrees of scrambling depending on host and medium conditions.⁶¹ Otting and co-workers reported that no significant transamination activity was observed in cell-free system based on *E. coli*. except for ¹⁵N specific labeling on aspartic acid, where an enzyme in the cell extract efficiently converted aspartic acid to asparagine. This activity was suppressed by replacing the normally high levels of potassium glutamate in the reaction mixture with ammonium or potassium acetate.⁶²

While scrambling is usually problematic, there are cases where it can be beneficial. For example, if there is very limited biosynthetic conversion of one particular amino acid to another, and this amino acid has distinct spectra features two useful sets of cross peaks can be produced from one labeling source. Glycine, serine and threonine have a close metabolic relationship, where limited scrambling may occur. Since glycine has an easily distinguishable ¹⁵N chemical shift, 100-110 ppm, cross peaks out of this region have to belong to either serines or threonines. I will make use of both suppressed scrambling and limited scrambling methods in this thesis.

1.4 A long-range target: ST6Gal1 (EC 2.4.99.1)

ST6Gal1 is a type II membrane protein that catalyzes the α 2-6 linkage of sialic acid from CMP-sialic acid to the non-reducing terminal Gal β 1-4Glc(NAc) residues of oligosaccharides on glycoproteins and glycolipids (see Equation 1.5).⁶³⁻⁶⁶ CMP stands for cytidine monophosphate and Sia for sialic acid. The encoded protein, which is normally found in Golgi, but which can be proteolytically processed to a soluble form, is involved in the generation of the cell-surface carbohydrate determinants and differentiation antigens HB-6, CDw75, and CD76.

The reaction catalyzed can be described as follows:



In this reaction equation, the X moiety may be Glc or GlcNAc in a variety of oligosaccharides or glycoproteins. The reaction mechanism is inversion (converts β to α sialic acid) and is believed to require the ordered addition of Sialyl-CMP and acceptor to the binding site. From a Michaelis-Menton analysis of reaction kinetics, the values of K_m for CMP-NeuNAc (N-acetylneuraminic acid) are approximately 50 μM .⁶⁷ This sets an upper limit to that value of a dissociation constant for the donor ligand.

Structurally ST6Gal1 is a member of glycosyltransferase family 29 (<http://afmb.cnrs-mrs.fr/CAZY/>). The protein data bank (<http://www.rcsb.org/pdb/>) currently has no structural representatives for this family. However, there is a significant amount of structurally relevant information. The sequence of the catalytic domain of ST6Gal1 is given in Figure 1.3. Totally the domain has 321 amino acids giving it a molecular weight of about 38 kDa. There are two N-glycosylation sites. These are underlined in the Figure 1.3. The sites typically carry biantenary oligosaccharides of 8-10 sugars, themselves frequently terminated in sialic acid. The protein has six cysteines. However, only Cys181 and Cys332 in the L (large)- and S (small)- sialyl motifs are known to participate in the formation of an intradisulfide linkage. This linkage appears essential for proper conformation and activity of ST6Gal1.⁶⁸ Site-directed mutagenesis of rat ST6Gal1 showed that the residues in the L-motif are involved in donor substrate binding and those in the S-motif are involved in donor as well as acceptor substrate binding.^{69, 70} These motifs are highlighted by yellow and grey bars respectively in the sequence presented in Figure 1.3.

ST6Gal1 has many significant biological functions, such as cell growth and development, humoral immune response, oligosaccharide metabolism, as well as protein glycosylation. There is considerable evidence for its involvement in disease processes. For example, it is up-regulated in tumor and transitional tissues from colorectal cancer patients.⁷¹

Also it has a role in regulating galectin-1-induced CD45 clustering, phosphatase modulation, and T cell death.⁷² Determination of a structure for this protein would obviously aid in the understanding and regulation of its function. Assignment of resonances is an important first step in this process.

**KSMHHHHHHHKKDPSTYSKLNPRLLKIWRNYLNMNKYKVSYKGP¹⁶GPV¹⁶KFSVE
ALRCHLRD¹⁶HVN¹⁶SMIEATD¹⁶FP¹⁶NTTEWEGYLPKEN¹⁶FRTKV¹⁶GP¹⁶WQRC¹⁶AVVSSA¹⁶GSL
KNSQL¹⁶GREIDNHD¹⁶AVL¹⁶R¹⁶FN¹⁶CAPT¹⁶DN¹⁶FQ¹⁶QDV¹⁶GSK¹⁶TTIRLMNSQLVTTEK¹⁶R¹⁶FLK¹⁶D¹⁶SLY
TE¹⁶G¹⁶ILIVWDPSVYHADIPK¹⁶WYQK¹⁶PDYN¹⁶FF¹⁶E¹⁶TYK¹⁶SYRRLNPSQ¹⁶P¹⁶F¹⁶YILK¹⁶PQMPWEL
WDIIQEISADLIQPNPPSS¹⁶G¹⁶ML¹⁶G¹⁶IIMMTL¹⁶CDQV¹⁶DIYE¹⁶FL¹⁶PSKR¹⁶RKTDV¹⁶CYYHQK¹⁶FF¹⁶D
SACTM¹⁶G¹⁶AYDPLL¹⁶FE¹⁶KNMV¹⁶KHLNE¹⁶GTDE¹⁶DIYL¹⁶FG¹⁶KATLS¹⁶G¹⁶FRNIRC
16 F; 16 G; 2 possible N-glycosylation sites; L-motif; S-motif**

Figure 1.3. Color coded ST6Gal1 sequence.

ST6Gal1 is actually a very challenging project for a first application of an entirely new resonance assignment strategy. It therefore proved advisable to test methods on a protein that is smaller, is more easily expressed, and has previously undergone assignment by conventional strategies. Our choice is Galectin-3. Galectins are a family of animal β -galactoside-specific lectins. They have been strongly implicated in inflammation and cancer and may be useful as targets for the development of new anti-inflammatory and anti-cancer therapies. Galectin-3 (Gal3) has two functional domains, including an N-terminal domain and a C-terminal carbohydrate recognition domain (CRD, residues 117–250). The CRD of Gal3 is evolutionarily conserved within the Galectin family and carries a galactose-specific binding site.⁷³ X-ray Crystal Structure of the Human Gal3 CRD at 2.1-Å resolution with LacNAc in the binding site was deposited to the PDB as the ID number 1A3K.⁷⁴ Meanwhile the NMR chemical shift assignment of Gal3 was accomplished and stored in Biological Magnetic Resonance Data Bank (<http://www.bmrb.wisc.edu/>) with the accession number 4909.⁷⁵ In total, the CRD of Gal3 has 138 amino acids in our study with a molecular weight of about 15.6 kDa (Figure 1.4).⁷⁶ There are totally two cysteines (purple) in our construct, one is buried inside the protein (C173), and is quite inaccessible to the solvent.

The other cysteine was added at the C-terminus after genetical engineering.

Gal3 has been shown to exhibit proinflammatory activities *in vitro* and *in vivo*; it induces pro-inflammatory responses and inhibits Th2 type cytokine production.⁷⁷ High levels of circulating Gal3 have been shown to correlate with the malignancy for several types of cancer. Gal3 is known to play a role in tumor growth, metastasis, and cell-to-cell adhesion.⁷⁸ In addition, Many groups are currently studying the roles and uses of galectin-3 in hostpathogen interaction, and nerve injury, among others.⁷⁹

**LIVPYNLPLPGGVVPRMLITLGTVKPNANRIALDFQRGNDVAFHFNPRFNENNR
RVIVCNTKLDNNWGREERQSVFPFESGKPFKIQVLVEPDHFKVAVNDAHLLQY
NHRVKKLNEISKLGISGDIDLTSASYTMIC**

Figure 1.4 Color coded Gal3 CRD sequence.

1.4 References

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CHAPTER 2

MASS SPECTROMETRY ASSISTED ASSIGNMENT OF NMR RESONANCES IN ¹⁵N LABELED PROTEINS¹

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Abstract

Application of NMR methods for the structural characterization to larger and more complex protein systems can be facilitated through the development of new methods for resonance assignment. Here a novel approach that relies on integration of nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) and Mass Spectrometry (MS) methods is explored. The approach relies on the fact that both NMR and MS are able to monitor rates of exchange of amide protons for water deuterons. Correlating the rates can connect cross-peak positions from NMR data with fragment masses from MS data to support sequential assignment. The example provided is to a small model protein, ubiquitin, but the potential for application to large, more difficult to express proteins, is clear.

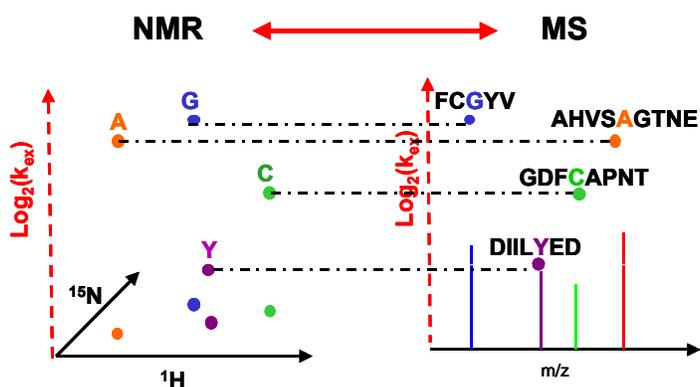


Figure 2.1. H/D exchange rates (k_{ex}) add a dimension to 2D NMR and MS spectra, which allow correlations to achieve protein assignment.

2.1 Introduction

Amide H/D exchange monitored by either NMR or MS has become a useful method to study the conformational properties of proteins and their complexes in solution. Here a novel application, combining these monitoring methods, to assign resonances in 2D NMR spectra is presented. It is based on the ability of both methods to monitor rates of hydrogen for deuterium exchange at amide sites and make assignments by correlating these rates. This approach bypasses the limitation of conventional 3D NMR spectral collection and interpretation to assign cross peaks of a ^{15}N - ^1H HSQC spectrum to specific sites in an amino acid sequence. The new approach should save time and avoid the need for enrichment of proteins with multiple isotopes while pursuing conventional 3D NMR experiments. It will ultimately be important for protein structure determination in cases where molecules fail to form crystals suitable for X-ray structure determination. This work has now been published in the Journal of the American Chemical Society and will be repeated here.¹ However, we first present some background material.

2.1.1 Protein amide H/D exchange studied by MS

Mass spectrometry (MS) based peptide amide deuterium exchange techniques have proven to be increasingly powerful tools to study protein structure, dynamics, and function. The advantage of MS for monitoring hydrogen exchange of protein backbone amides is high sensitivity, wide coverage of sequence, and the ability to analyze large proteins.

H/D exchange occurs during incubation of the lyophilized or concentrated protein sample in deuterated buffer at physiological pH and temperature. After certain time intervals, the deuteration is quenched by lowering the pH and temperature at pH 2.5, 0 °C in order to minimize undesirable back exchange and allow enough time for MS analysis. To localize the deuterium position after the H/D exchange reaction, pepsin, an acid-stable protease, is used to

digest the protein into a peptide mixture. Pepsin is used to fragment the protein because it has maximum activity at pH 2-3 where the amide hydrogen exchange rate is slowest. Given the power of mass spectrometry for identifying peptides in complex mixtures, the non-specificity of pepsin is advantageous because it usually leads to formation of many overlapping peptides. Pepsin preferentially cleaves on the C-terminal side of F, L, E, W, Y, and I; other residues may also be cleaved at various rates.² Immobilized pepsin is used in our study in order to provide an effective means for separating the pepsin from the isotopically labeled fragments. In addition, the self-proteolysis can be largely minimized once pepsin is immobilized on beads. Accurate mass measurements in combination with sequence analysis by MS/MS are used to identify the individual peptides from the protein samples generated by pepsin cleavage. The peptides are defined by matching their masses to those generated by a computer program, MS-digest (<http://prospector.ucsf.edu/ucsfhtml4.0/msdigest.htm>) or other powerful MS search engines, such as MASCOT (<http://www.matrixscience.com/>) or SEQUEST (Thermo Electron, Waltham, MA). Only those yielding unambiguous matches are used for analysis.

For large proteins, pepsin might generate hundreds of peptides. Prior to mass analysis, HPLC is frequently used to separate peptides in order to minimize mass overlap and suppression of peptide ionization in the mass spectrometer. Normally a C18 column is used to separate peptide mixtures based on the differences in hydrophobicity. Special attention needs to be paid to pre-cool the HPLC system and use a moderately fast separation gradient in order to minimize loss of deuterium through back exchange with solvent. Then the HPLC eluent is directly introduced into a mass spectrometer.

Most studies in the field of proteomics depend on the high performance liquid chromatography-electrospray ionization mass spectrometry (HPLC-ESI MS) method, but matrix-assisted laser desorption / ionization – time of flight (MALDI-TOF) is also a feasible

approach for following amide H/D exchange.³ With recent developments in MALDI-TOF instrumentation, two features make it better suited for the present measurements: high resolution to easily resolve the multiple isotopic peaks resulting from amide H/D exchange and high mass accuracy to aid in identifying the many peptides resulting from the relatively nonspecific cleavage.⁴ MALDI-TOF eliminates the HPLC separation step while still being able to determine the deuterium content of the unseparated digest mixture from a single mass spectrum. In addition to the advantage of simple operation, it will remove the possibility of back exchange during the HPLC run. However, when protein size becomes larger, the number of peptic peptides will increase tremendously. In that case, moderate separation will very likely become necessary to avoid peak overlap and suppression of peptide ionization.

During the H/D exchange experiment, each deuterium incorporated will cause one unit shift in the mass profile of the peptide. In order to track deuterium exchange in individual peptides during the whole time course, data on aliquots from several sequential time intervals were collected. The raw number of deuterons incorporated at each time point was determined by taking the difference between the centroid of the isotopic peak cluster for the deuterated sample and the centroid of the undeuterated control. These raw numbers must be corrected for back-exchange that occurs during the quench, digestion, and MS analysis of the peptide fragments in the procedure.

A main concern in data analysis of H/D exchange by MS is that spatial resolution at a level of a single amide site cannot be reached. The spectrum can only reflect the deuterium incorporation of the whole peptide fragment. The deconvolution step for assigning a deuteration percentage to each amino acid site is a difficult mathematical problem. In reality, tremendous efforts are focused on how to experimentally improve spatial resolution of deuterium localization. Dr. Forest's group, for example, has tried two other proteases, protease type XIII from *Aspergillus saitoi* and protease type XVIII from *Rhizopus*.⁵ Combining the

results with pepsin fragments increased the coverage for the peptide mapping. Differences in the deuterium contents of two overlapping peptides can then be more effectively used to increase the spatial resolution of deuterium incorporation data. Many groups are also trying to apply tandem MS to sequentially degrade deuterated peptides to get information on specific amino acids by subtracting masses of two sequential ions. However, the H/D scrambling issue associated with the high backbone dissociation energies applied is still under exploration. Here we will explore the possibility of using current MS technology to locally monitor amide exchange rates for the purpose of making NMR peak assignments.

2.1.2 Protein amide H/D exchange studied by NMR

As a function of time after dissolution of a fully protonated sample in D₂O, peaks in a 2D HSQC or TROSY spectra disappear as protons are exchanged with deuterium. Because the proton signal is detectable in these experiments, but the deuterium signal is not, the volume of cross peaks is proportional to the number of ¹⁵N-¹H sites left in the sample at a particular time. Conversion of time course data into rate data provides a more quantitative interpretation of these results. When the deuterium concentration in the solution is large and the pH and temperature are constant, isotopic exchange of each amide hydrogen follows first-order kinetics.⁶ Thus, the exchange rates (k_{ex}) can be calculated from the time variation of peak intensity based on the equation $I = I_0 \exp(-k_{ex} t)$.⁷ The rate at which an amino acid incorporates deuterium is related to its position within the protein structure, which means exterior amino acids will exchange protons with the solvent very quickly (a few seconds at pH 7), whereas some interior amino acids can have exchange rates as long as a month or more. This gives more than six orders of magnitude variation in the exchange rate. If we can distinguish rate difference by a factor of two, peaks can be classified into 20 different groups providing substantial resolution for assignment purposes.

The Hadamard method provides an alternate approach to conventional HSQC or

TROSY acquisitions that offers an improvement in efficiency. It can extend the short time scale range accessible on less concentrated samples. Techniques based on Hadamard transform (HT) have been used in various types of spectroscopy.^{8,9} They are based on selective excitation and simple multiplexing principles to efficiently focus observation on known positions of spectral lines. Hadamard matrices provide a clean separation of the signals that are selectively excited. For one-dimensional spectra, the Hadamard scheme allows a great deal of flexibility in choosing which regions of the spectrum are excited and which are not, suggesting, for example, a new method for water suppression. By eliminating the need for the evolution dimension in multi-dimensional spectroscopy, the Hadamard technique can significantly speed up data acquisition.

In the case of an HSQC spectrum in which one intends to monitor cross-peak intensity as a function of time after dissolution in D₂O, often the cross-peaks of interest, or those exhibiting most rapid exchange rates, fall within a range of nitrogen frequencies. In this case, it is more efficient to excite and observe these signals directly rather than executing a periodic excitation scheme as is done in a typical 2D HSQC. It is also well known that simultaneous observation of all signals in various combinations of sums and differences is more efficient than observation of one signal at a time. Modern spectrometers are capable of generating selective excitation schemes in these sum and difference patterns and the HT provides a means of decoding the complex signals that result. Recently, there have been several descriptions of pulse sequences following principles of Hadamard encoding.¹⁰⁻¹² We simply implement an HSQC sequence and specifically optimize it for amide exchange applications.

2.2 A publication presenting NMR and MS combined methodology for monitoring H/D exchange¹

Nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) has proven a useful tool for the structural characterization of biomolecules, particularly when those molecules fail to form crystals suitable for diffraction studies.¹³ The conventional NMR method for protein characterization is limited to the size up to 40 kDa because of the near linear increase of NMR line widths with molecular weight. Transverse Relaxation Optimized Spectroscopy (TROSY) methods that capitalize on interference between dipolar interactions between ¹H-¹⁵N spin pairs in amide bonds of proteins and the inherent chemical shift anisotropy of the ¹H and ¹⁵N sites have changed this. Dramatic improvements in line widths for ¹H-¹⁵N cross peaks in TROSY versions of heteronuclear single quantum coherence (HSQC) spectra have now been demonstrated for a large number of proteins.¹⁴ It is also true that one requires only ¹⁵N isotopic labeling in this basic experiment, something that can be advantageous in studying proteins that are difficult to express in isotopically-labeled forms. There is, therefore, good reason to think about structure determination strategies that rely more heavily on the basic ¹H-¹⁵N HSQC experiment. One problem that must be overcome in implementing new strategies is assignment of cross peaks without the aid of the triple resonance experiments normally used for resonance assignment. Here we develop a novel approach for protein resonance assignment that relies on integration of NMR and Mass Spectrometry (MS) methods. The approach relies on the fact that both NMR^{7,15-17} and MS^{4,18,19} are able to monitor rates of exchange of amide protons for water deuterons.²⁰ Correlating the rates can connect cross-peak positions from NMR data with fragment masses from MS data to support sequential assignment. The schematic illustration is shown in Figure 2.1. The example provided here is to a small model protein, ubiquitin, but the potential for application to large, more difficult to express proteins, is clearly demonstrated.

Two-dimensional HSQC spectra show a cross-peak at the intersection of ^{15}N and ^1H chemical shifts for each amino acid backbone site (except proline). These cross-peaks can be used to extract amide exchange rates by monitoring loss of individual cross-peak intensities as a function of time after dissolving a protein in a deuterated buffer. Rates of exchange in typical proteins, at normal pHs, follow an EX2 mechanism in which base catalyzed exchange of amide protons occurs occasionally from the open, solvent exposed, forms that exist in equilibrium with normally well-folded forms of backbone segments.²¹ The fraction of open form varies widely with local stability causing rates of amide proton exchange to vary by over six orders of magnitude. This range provides a broad frequency range for additional resolution of HSQC peaks.

Measurement of rates of amide proton exchange at the rapid end of the range is normally limited by the length of time required to collect an HSQC spectrum. Recently, we introduced some methodology based on Hadamard transform (HT) encoded NMR spectroscopy^{12, 22} that reduces the total acquisition time to approximately 40 s for 0.5 mM samples of small proteins. Here we have extended our original application to human ubiquitin (1D3Z, 8547 Da) in order to provide a nearly complete assessment of amide proton exchange rates for this well studied protein. These rates provide a basis for comparison to selective rates measured by MS methodology.

^{14}N unlabeled bovine ubiquitin was purchased from Sigma (St. Louis, MO) for the MS studies, and the ^{15}N labeled human ubiquitin was purchased from Cambridge Isotope Laboratories (Andover, MA) for the NMR studies. While the species for these two ubiquitins is different, the sequence is actually identical.

For the NMR studies a 0.5 mM human ubiquitin sample with 90% ^{15}N labeling was prepared in phosphate buffer at pH 6.0 and observed at 25 °C using an 800 MHz spectrometer. Initially the sample was prepared in H_2O , an ^1H - ^{15}N HSQC reference spectrum

was run, and the sample was lyophilized. At time zero, the sample was dissolved in D₂O and transferred to the spectrometer for acquisition. Dissolution and transfer was done manually, limiting the first observation point to approximately 1 minute. The spectra were acquired at geometrically increasing time points from 1min to 48 hr. As in our previous work²³, 7 ¹⁵N frequencies were selectively excited. However, these frequencies were chosen to complement the original set, providing redundant data on at least two cross peaks for the purpose of assessing reproducibility and providing many new pieces of information.

Figure 2.2a shows the HT NMR spectrum of ubiquitin in H₂O collected with 64 scans for each of the 8 increments in the Hadamard encoding matrix. Figure 2.2b shows an equivalent spectrum taken 1.37 min after the addition of D₂O to the lyophilized protonated sample using 4 scans at each frequency. The latter spectrum required 42 sec. Data processing, including the Hadamard transform, was achieved using nmrPipe.²⁴ 12 out of the 35 peaks seen in Figure 2.2a have disappeared even at the first time point. However, reductions in intensities of the other peaks are easily quantified. Executing a third set and combining all data, the exchange rates of 68 out of 76 potential amide cross-peaks are obtained. Among the eight amino acids missing, G47 and G75 are not covered by ¹⁵N frequency selection; M1, E24 and G53 are not present in the HSQC spectra, probably due to broadening from intermediate chemical exchange effects; and P19, P37 and P38 are prolines, which don't have amide protons. A complete table of exchange rates is supplied at the end of this chapter.

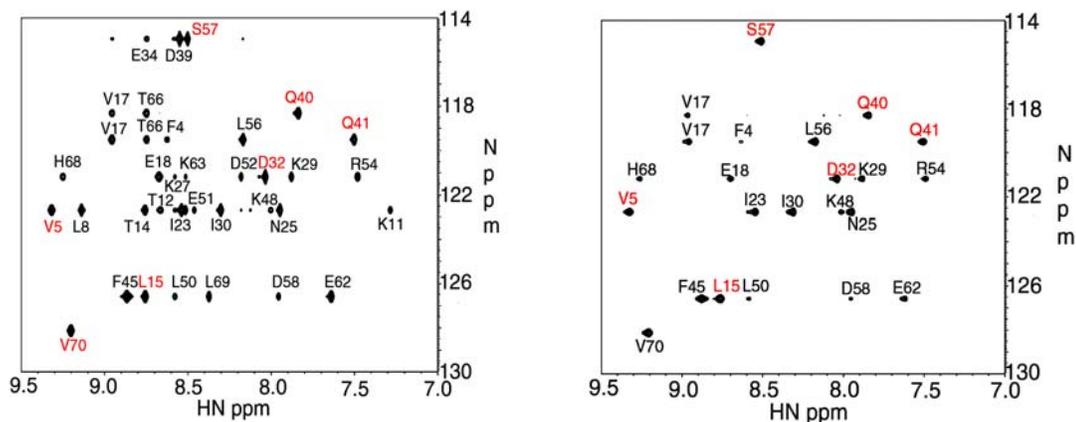


Figure 2.2. Reconstructed Hadamard [^1H , ^{15}N]-HSQC spectra for ubiquitin. a. Data in H_2O collected with 64 t_1 increments in 10 minutes. The sample was then lyophilized overnight and brought back to its initial volume with 99.9% D_2O at pH 6.0 and immediately returned to the spectrometer for rapid collection of a series of Hadamard spectra. The positions of excited ^{15}N frequencies are shown in red. (Residue I36 at 6.1 ppm, 123.4 ppm is not included in the spectra.) b. First point after 1 min 22 sec in D_2O collected with 4 scans in 42 sec.

MS measurements of H/D exchange proceeded in a similar fashion in that ubiquitin (non-labeled bovine in this instance) was dissolved in deuterated buffer at time zero and analysis conducted at roughly geometric intervals from 1 min to 44 hr. However, in this case small aliquots were extracted and subjected to a more complex analysis that included quenching of exchange by lowering pH and lowering temperature, digesting the protein with pepsin and analyzing fragment masses by Matrix-Assisted Laser Desorption/Ionization – Time of Flight (MALDI-TOF) MS. To begin the experiment, 10 μL of 20 mg/mL ubiquitin in 50 mM phosphate buffer at pH 6.1 was dried in an Eppendorf tube and then at time zero 100 μL of D_2O solution was added; the final pH was determined to be approximately 5.9. At each time point, 5 μL was taken out and put in the upper part of a 20 μL aerosol tip, which held 25 μL of a pepsin resin slurry from Pierce Chemicals (Rockford, IL) in 0.1% TFA (ubiquitin: pepsin = 1:3). The sample was immediately quenched by the addition of 45 μL of

0°C 0.1% TFA, pH 2.0. After mixing for 40 seconds at the room temperature, the sample was ejected through the filter of the tip into an Eppendorf tube. Each sample was quickly spotted on a chilled MALDI target, mixed with the matrix prepared as 5 mg/mL α -cyano-4-hydroxycinnamic acid in a solution containing 1:1:1 acetonitrile, ethanol, and 0.1% TFA (pH 2.0). The plate was immediately placed in a desiccator under a moderate vacuum such that the spots would dry in 1-2 min. Masses were then analyzed by MALDI TOF/TOF MS (Applied Biosystems 4700 Proteomics Analyzer). The H/D exchange experiments were repeated three times; in addition, samples at each time point were spotted and measured in triplicate. All results are averaged and reported along with the range of measurements as an estimate of error.

A reference mass spectrum of ubiquitin in H₂O was also analyzed using the same procedure in order to allow a more automated peptide fragment identification. Accurate mass measurements in combination with sequence analysis were used to identify the individual peptides from ubiquitin generated by pepsin cleavage. The online databases used for peptic peptide identification were MS-Digest (<http://prospector.ucsf.edu/ucsfhtml4.0/msdigest.htm>) and PeptideMass (<http://au.expasy.org/tools/peptide-mass.html>). In addition, MS/MS ions produced by MALDI-TOF/TOF and the results of a Mascot search (<http://www.matrix-science.com/>) were used to verify fragment identification. The 20 identified peptic peptides (500-2000 Da) marginally cover 100 % of the entire ubiquitin sequence. The sequences covered represent buried and surface segments, as well as every type of secondary structure. However, it is clear that coverage could be improved by more complete digestion and an ability to monitor shorter peptides masked by matrix peaks. The latter is not a problem with electrospray ionization.

We focus here on five representative isotopic peptide peak clusters which have calculated centroid masses of 1021.2 Da, 1096.0 Da, 1175.5 Da, 1346.7 Da and 1390.4 Da in

H₂O. The centroid masses of the peptide fragments incubated in D₂O begin near these reference values and shift with time as indicated in Figure 2.3 for the fragment of 1390.4 Da. The raw number of deuterons incorporated at each time point was determined by taking the difference between the centroid of the isotopic peak cluster for the deuterated sample and the centroid of the undeuterated control. These raw numbers must however, be corrected for back-exchange that occurs during the quench, digestion, and MALDI steps in the procedure. Levels can be estimated from the proton content observed at late time points, but more accurate levels can be obtained by using a single scale factor as an adjustable parameter in fitting time-courses predicted from NMR data. The percentage of back-exchange determined in this way ranged from 25 to 50%, after excluding that part from rapidly exchanging side chain protons and correcting for the 10% deuterium in the final quench/matrix mixture. These levels of back-exchange compare favorably with levels reported in the literature.^{4,25}

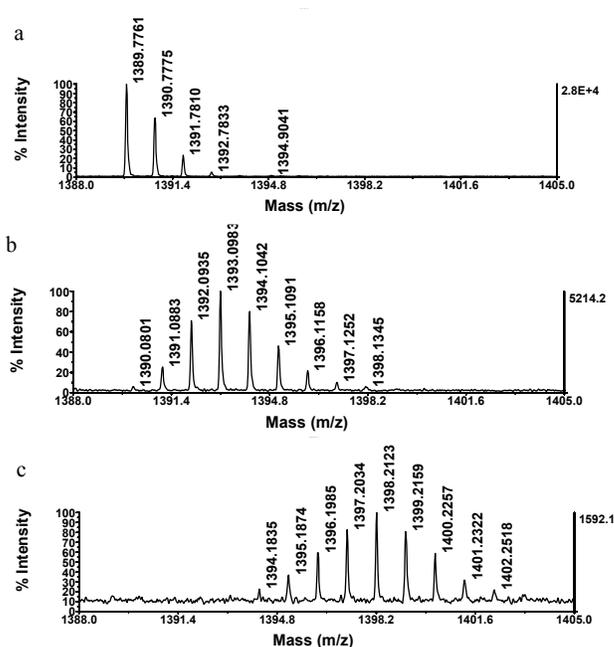


Figure 2.3. Time course of mass increase on deuterium incorporation. Lyophilized ubiquitin was dissolved in D₂O buffered with Na₂HPO₄ at pH 6.1 and incubated for varying lengths of time at room temperature before quenching and digesting the sample. The mass

spectrum shows the region around the peptide of average mass 1390.4 Da (Res.#46-58: AGKQLEDGRTLSD). The undeuterated spectrum is shown in panel (a) as a reference. Panels (b and c) are for exchange times of 1 min and 4 hr.

The time courses of exchange predicted from NMR data were calculated by summing the contributions expected for each amino acid given the NMR determined rate constants corrected for differences in pH. In practice, the deuterium contribution was set to 1 if the half-life of the amide H/D exchange was shorter than 1 min and to 0 if the half-life of the amide H/D exchange was longer than 1 week (> 104 min). Otherwise the exchange rate of each amino acid was used to calculate the contribution as $1 - e^{-kt}$, where k is the amide proton exchange rate and t is the time interval for exchange. Exchange rates where data are missing (4 of 72 possible measurements) are estimated from literature values or are taken to be averages of rates for preceding and succeeding residues.

Figure 2.4 shows predicted time courses for deuterium incorporation from NMR data (solid lines) and superimposed experimental points from the MS data. The peptides have been paired in two panels based on similarity of fragment masses. In Figure 2.4a data are shown for peptides of mass, 1021.2 Da (Res.#68-76: HLVLRRLRGG) and mass 1096.0 Da (Res.#59-67: YNIQKESTL); both have 9 residues. The deuterium incorporation determined by MS in both cases agrees reasonably well with the NMR model. In both fragments, the number of deuterons plateaus at 8, the number of amide sites expected if the terminal NH_3^+ and side-chain amides are excluded. However, the different rates of mass increase correlate with the different environments these peptides see in natively folded ubiquitin. About half of the peptide of mass 1021.2 Da, is predicted to be a β strand, while the peptide of mass 1096.6 Da is predicted to have little regular secondary structure, hence its faster exchange.

In Figure 2.4b data are shown for peptides of mass, 1346.7 Da (Res.#59-69: YNIQKESTLHL) and mass 1175.5 Da (Res.#5-15: VKTLTGKTITL); both have 11 residues.

Again, the agreement between MS experimental data and the NMR calculated model is good. Since the peptide of mass 1175.5 Da has a very slowly exchanging amino acid, L15 ($T_{1/2} > 1.91 \times 10^4$ min), the apparent plateau point for these two peptides is 10 and 9 respectively. The plot also shows different exchange rates for these two peptic fragments again reflecting their different chemical environment and secondary structure in the native protein.

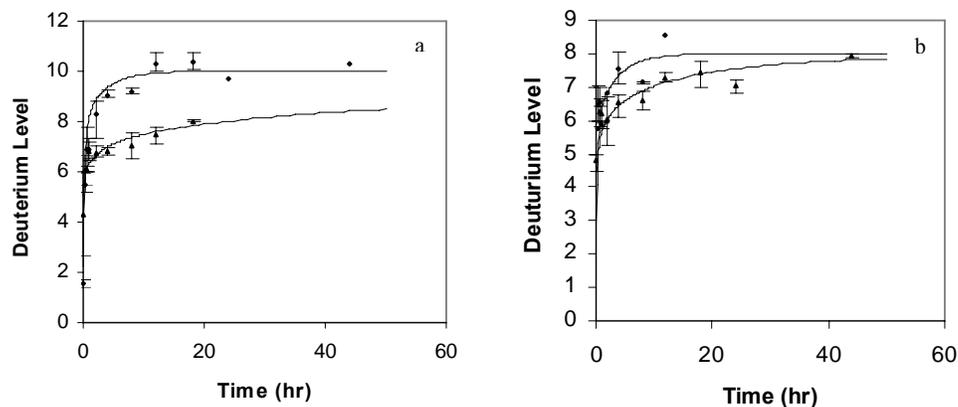


Figure 2.4. Correlation of deuterium incorporation from MS data (corrected for back exchange) with levels predicted from NMR rate constants for two pairs of peptides from ubiquitin: a) compares data for the 1021 Da peptide (Δ) and the 1096 Da peptide (\diamond); b) compares the 1347 Da peptide (\diamond) and the 1176 Da peptide (Δ). The NMR model is calculated using the equation $D(t) = N - \sum \exp(-k_i t)$ at pH 5.85.

Using exchange information such as that presented in Figure 2.4 in an assignment strategy would require comparing MS exchange data with exchange predictions calculated from NMR data on all strings of connected HSQC cross-peaks of appropriate length. In Figure 2.5 we illustrate how a comparison can be done by using prior NMR assignments to predict exchange data for all 11 residue segments in the protein sequence and comparing those data to MS data for the 1175.5 Da peptide (Res.# 5-15). The comparison is done using the equation, $\exp(-\sum (D_{\text{exp.}} - D_{\text{calc.}})^2 / (N \cdot \sigma^2))$, where N stands for the number of data points, σ is the average estimated error in measurement, and $D_{\text{exp.}}$ and $D_{\text{calc.}}$ are deuterium levels

from experiment and calculation. The equation yields a score for each position. Sections that appear to lack scores either have very low scores or correspond to sequences that would be interrupted by prolines. The scores at positions 4-6 are highest producing an assignment in agreement with expectation.

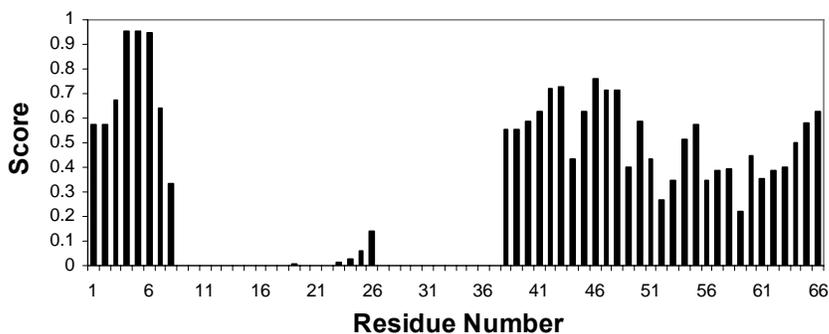


Figure 2.5. Sequential assignment scores for peptide 1175.5 of ubiquitin (Res.# 5-15). The highest scores are seen near the proper placement position (4-6).

While in practice short segments of peptide can be connected in HSQC based experiments through Nuclear Overhauser Effects (NOEs), these connections are not always unambiguous and seldom run for more than a few residues. Clearly it would be better to have MS data on very short peptides, or at least overlapping pairs of peptides so that differences in exchange rates could be associated with single sites or segments of two to three residues. We do have a pair of overlapping fragments in peptides of mass 1346.7 Da and 1096.0 Da. These differ in that the peptide of mass 1346.7 Da has two more residues, H and L, at the end. Differences in levels of deuterium as a function of time for these two peptides give the rates of deuterium incorporation for this terminal pair. The results show the presence of two rapidly exchanging amides with half-lives of approximately 30 min. Examining all of the NMR data on ubiquitin we find that approximately 14 out of a possible 72 pairs of connected HSQC cross peaks can fit this pattern, including the correct pair, H₆₈L₆₉.

In summary, we have been able to demonstrate that correlation of amide exchange rate data from NMR and MS experiments can provide novel additional data to aid in assignment of cross-peaks in HSQC style spectra. The examples given here are limited in number and pertain only to a small protein. However, experiments can clearly be improved. Use of additional proteases can improve fragment coverage and provide smaller fragments.¹⁸ In addition, new instrument fragmentation techniques such as electron capture dissociation (ECD), and electron transfer dissociation (ETD) might help to isolate deuterium incorporation sites. Also, NMR/MS data can be combined with procedures such as amino acid specific labeling²⁶ to reduce the number of HSQC peaks in spectra of larger proteins to the point where exchange rates can make useful distinctions. The most important point is that a strategy based on these ideas can be applied using high-resolution TROSY versions of HSQC spectra and can be applied to proteins labeled only with ¹⁵N.

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Table 2.1: Ubiquitin amide H/D exchange rate constants measured with Hadamard spectroscopy over a 48 hours period at 25 °C and pH=6.2 in 50mM phosphate buffer^a

Residue	¹ H (ppm)	¹⁵ N (ppm)	k (min ⁻¹)	k (min ⁻¹) ^c	T _{1/2} (min) ^b
Q2	9.01	123.04	>2.03E+00	1.82E+02	< 0.34E+00
I3	8.37	115.29	<3.83E-05	4.36E-04	> 1.81E+04
F4 ^d	8.62	8.62	<3.63E-05	5.30E-04	>1.91E+04
V5 ^d	9.32	121.43	<3.63E-05	7.11E-04	>1.91E+04
K6	9.01	128.14	6.93E-04	1.05E-02	1.00E+03
T7	8.792	117.563	1.66E-01	2.50E-03	4.19E+00
L8 ^d	9.14	121.47	>1.68E+00		<0.41E+00
T9	7.646	105.861	> 1.22E+01		< 5.70E-01
G10	7.89	109.48	>2.03E+00		< 0.34E+00
K11 ^d	7.28	122.09	1.32E-02		5.27E+01
T12	8.71	120.82	>2.03E+00	4.91E-01	< 0.34E+00
I13	9.62	127.87	1.63E-03	2.95E-03	4.24E+02
T14 ^d	8.76	121.83	>1.68E+00		<0.41E+00
L15 ^d	8.75	125.33	<3.63E-05	3.85E-01	>1.91E+04
E16	8.152	124.036	< 3.38E-05	4.10E-02	> 2.05E+04
V17 ^d	8.95	117.72	<3.63E-05	7.97E-04	>1.91E+04
E18	8.72	119.51	3.54E-03		1.96E+02
E18 ^d	8.68	119.50	4.94E-03		1.40E+02
S20	7.09	103.62	>2.03E+00		< 0.34E+00
D21	8.095	125.491	7.93E-02		8.74E+00
T22	7.95	109.25	3.08E-03	9.78E-01	2.25E+02
I23 ^d	8.54	121.42	3.45E-04	1.13E-03	2.01E+03
N25 ^d	7.95	121.59	1.19E-02	1.06E-01	5.84E+01
V26 ^d	8.12	122.33	<3.63E-05	6.13E-05	>1.91E+04
K27	8.62	119.16	<3.83E-05		> 1.81E+04
K27 ^d	8.58	119.14	1.16E-05		5.94E+04
A28	8.017	125.49	1.43E-04	7.80E-03	4.84E+03
K29	7.92	120.46	<3.83E-05	2.82E-03	> 1.81E+04
K29 ^d	7.88	120.40	<3.63E-05	2.82E-03	>1.91E+04
I30 ^d	8.30	121.52	<3.63E-05	8.87E-05	>1.91E+04
Q31	8.628	125.493	2.41E-02	1.60E-02	2.87E+01
D32 ^d	8.03	119.92	1.40E-01	1.82E+00	4.96E+00
K33	7.48	115.64	5.46E-01		1.27E+00
E34 ^d	8.74	114.51	4.80E-02		1.44E+01
G35	8.52	109.06	2.61E-01		2.66E+00
I36	6.21	120.52	1.46E-02	1.49E-01	4.74E+01
I36 ^d	6.17	120.47	1.35E-02	1.49E-01	5.14E+01
D39 ^d	8.55	113.80	>1.68E+00		<0.41E+00
Q40 ^d	7.84	117.05	1.31E-01	5.54E-01	5.30E+00
Q41 ^d	7.50	118.24	5.37E-02	1.18E-01	1.29E+01
R42	8.56	123.33	1.67E-02	6.15E-02	4.14E+01
L43	8.869	125.524	2.40E-01		2.88E+00

I44	9.133	124.036	3.40E-05	1.80E-04	2.04E+04
F45 ^d	8.87	125.30	6.69E-03	1.48E-02	1.04E+02
A46	8.966	132.768	> 1.22E+01		< 5.70E-01
K48 ^d	8.00	122.21	5.16E-02	3.81E-02	1.34E+01
Q49	8.71	123.39	>2.03E+00	1.49E+00	< 0.34E+00
L50 ^d	8.58	125.89	5.75E-03	4.08E-02	1.21E+02
E51	8.45	123.33	1.39E-01		4.97E+00
D52	8.22	120.56	>2.03E+00		< 0.34E+00
R54	7.52	119.54	1.06E-02		6.57E+01
R54 ^d	7.48	119.51	9.31E-03		7.44E+01
T55	8.90	109.08	9.99E-04	2.73E-02	6.94E+02
L56 ^d	8.17	118.21	<3.63E-05	1.01E-03	>1.91E+04
S57 ^d	8.50	113.70	1.59E-01	2.85E-01	4.36E+00
D58 ^d	7.95	124.71	5.55E-02	4.58E-01	1.25E+01
Y59	7.304	117.563	7.52E-04	1.80E-03	9.22E+02
N60	8.203	117.565	2.01E-01	3.80E+00	3.45E+00
I61	7.30	119.12	9.16E-03	1.05E-02	7.56E+01
I61 ^d	7.26	119.08	1.28E-02	1.05E-02	5.42E+01
E62 ^d	7.64	125.13	7.43E-02		9.33E+00
K63	8.57	120.84	>2.03E+00		< 0.34E+00
K63 ^d	8.51	120.78	>1.68E+00		<0.41E+00
E64	9.345	116.344	2.29E-01		3.03E+00
S65	7.72	115.18	2.04E-01	9.40E-02	3.40E+00
T66 ^d	8.75	117.60	1.74E-01		3.98E+00
L67	9.48	128.02	1.23E-02	3.60E-02	5.62E+01
H68 ^d	9.25	119.46	7.88E-02	1.13E-01	8.80E+00
L69 ^d	8.37	124.74	>1.68E+00	1.11E-02	<0.41E+00
V70 ^d	9.20	126.87	1.44E-03	2.75E-03	4.81E+02
L71	8.155	125.492	1.42E-01		4.88E+00
R72	8.593	125.492	2.57E-02		2.69E+01
L73	8.323	125.495	4.52E-03		1.54E+02
R74	8.462	122.030	> 1.22E+01		< 5.70E-01
G76	7.96	115.26	>2.03E+00		< 0.34E+00

a An error of 5% at rates near 1×10^{-3} is estimated from analysis of fits to decay curves for V70 and an error of 10% at rates near 1×10^{-2} is estimated from analysis of fits to decay curves for R42.

b $T_{1/2}$ is the half time for amide proton exchange, $T_{1/2} = \ln(2)/k$.

c k is back calculated from the protection factors in the paper, Pan, Y.Q, Briggs, M. (1992) *Biochemistry* 31, 11405-11412.

d Exchange rate constants measured at 800 MHz; all others at 600 MHz. 800 MHz data are adjusted to pH=6.2 from 6.0.

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CHAPTER 3

AMIDE PROTON BACK-EXCHANGE IN DEUTERATED PEPTIDES: APPLICATION TO MS AND NMR ANALYSIS¹

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Abstract

Deuterium for hydrogen (H/D) exchange at amide sites in proteins is a well established means of probing the stability of certain proteins and the effects of interactions with ligands and other proteins. When deuterium content is analyzed by mass spectrometry (MS) of digested peptides, corrections frequently need to be made for back-exchange that occurs during digestion, separation, and analysis. The back-exchange process is actually complex and deserving of analysis in a sequence specific manner. Here an analysis of back-exchange in the decapeptide, angiotensin I, and a hexapeptide derived by digestion of a ^{15}N labeled carbohydrate-binding protein, galectin-3, is presented. Nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) data are used to study back-exchange at specific sites in typical solvents used for separation and analysis, and the derived rates are found to be predictable using methods established for aqueous solvents. The predictability provides potentially new means of localizing deuterium content in MS analysis of deuterium content of peptides and new means of assigning resonances used for NMR analysis of deuterium content in peptides.

3.1 Introduction

Rates of amide proton for amide deuterium exchange, as measured by either NMR or MS methods, have been used to infer site-specific properties of proteins including, structural stability, exposure to solvent, interaction with other proteins, and interaction with ligands.¹⁻³ NMR methods provided the first detailed analyses of these rates, and still excel in ability to measure rates at specific sites.⁴⁻⁷ More recently, however, the superior sensitivity of MS methods has brought this approach to the forefront⁸⁻¹⁰ Despite wide application, there are some limitations. First, deuterium incorporation is measured on peptide fragments resulting in sensitivity to the sum of deuterium incorporation at all sites in a peptide, as opposed to incorporation at discrete amino acid sites which results in a decrease in specificity; and second, incorporation levels must be corrected for back-exchange that occurs during digestion to produce the peptide fragments, or in preparation of fragments for analysis. Since back-exchange rates differ dramatically from site to site and peptide to peptide, these corrections cannot be made on a global basis, further complicating interpretation of deuterium incorporation; at sites where back-exchange is very fast, sensitivity to deuterium incorporation can be completely lost. These limitations have kept interpretation of deuterium incorporation from MS studies at a very qualitative level. Here, we discuss methods that can ameliorate the back-exchange problem and even turn it to an advantage in some cases: first, we present NMR data documenting site specific variations in exchange rates under conditions typically used for separation of digested peptides and suggest that rates may be predictable from sequence; second, for NMR applications, we show how these rates may be used to facilitate assignments of peptide resonances; and third, we suggest how predictability of rates may allow more accurate back-exchange corrections of MS data and even more site specific analysis of deuterium incorporation.

The origin of the back-exchange problem in MS analysis can be seen by examining a typical protocol for analysis for deuterium incorporation in a protein. The protein of interest is dissolved or diluted in a deuterated aqueous buffer in which protons at amide and other exchangeable sites begin to exchange for deuterons from water. Aliquots are removed periodically and amide exchange is quenched by reducing the pH to 2.5 with a fully protonated acidic solution (usually 1% TFA) and lowering the temperature to 0 °C. Deuterons at more labile sites are quickly replaced with protons under these conditions, reducing the deuterium background for subsequent analyses. The protein is then digested with pepsin under low pH, low temperature, conditions, and peptides are analyzed for mass shifts due to deuterium incorporation. Both matrix-assisted laser desorption ionization (MALDI) and electrospray ionization (ESI) methods have been used in these analyses. MALDI methods offer the possibility of simultaneous analysis of many peptides.¹¹ Electrospray of HPLC eluent simplifies analysis by focusing on a few peptides at a time.⁸ The problem is that considerable back-exchange of amide deuterons occurs in either case (10-50%).¹² Some occurs during digestion even in the low pH, low temperature, buffer, but a considerable amount can also occur during matrix preparation (for MALDI) and during separation on HPLC using solvents such as acetonitrile/water/0.1% TFA.

Because back-exchange is considered to occur after the quench step during low pH digestion and during subsequent preparation or separation, one might assume that peptides are disordered with all the backbone amides completely exposed to the solvent. It would be tempting to assume all amide protons exchange at similar rates under these conditions, and that one back-exchange scaling factor could be used to convert measured values to true measures of deuterium incorporation. It has, of course, been known for some time that at least in aqueous media, amide proton exchange rates for different sites in short peptides vary considerably. 13 years ago, Englander and Bai collected sufficient data

on a series of peptides in aqueous buffers to allow prediction of “intrinsic rates” for disordered peptides in this medium.¹³ These data have become the basis of a convenient web tool for prediction of intrinsic rates of amide exchange for any peptide at any temperature and pH (<http://hx2.med.upenn.edu/download.html>). Rates, even at pH 2.5 and 0 °C, are predicted to vary by more than two orders of magnitude from site to site in various peptides.

There have been attempts to systematically correct for back exchange.¹⁴ One common adjustment suggested by Zhang and Smith rests on collecting data on a pair of control peptides, one fully protonated and one fully deuterated.⁸ When analyzed using identical conditions for digestion and HPLC fractionation, the measured mass shifts can be used to correct measurements on digested aliquots using a simple scaling factor. However, the equation used for the scaling factor does assume equal exchange rates for different sites in the peptide and, in principle, the scaling factor would have to be determined for each peptide. Statistical analysis of 3000 peptides with random sequences and 5-25 peptide linkages indicated that the average error in deuterium content would be only 5.5%,⁹ however, errors for smaller peptides would clearly have to be large and would become a severe limitation in attempts to localize exchange by producing smaller and smaller fragments.

The limitations arising from back-exchange can clearly be minimized through a better understanding of the back-exchange process. At a minimum, rapidly exchanging sites might be predicted and excluded from analysis. At a maximum, monitoring back-exchange patterns can help assign deuterium content to specific sites. An understanding of the back-exchange that occurs in MS analysis requires additional detailed monitoring of site-specific exchange in model peptides in solvents used in MS analysis. NMR allows site specific monitoring of amide proton exchange through the resolution of resonances from individual amide proton resonances and the quantitative relationship of their intensity to

proton content. The nonapeptide, angiotensin I, and a fragment from the protein, galectin-3 are used to illustrate data that can be obtained. The data suggest that, with study of a sufficient variety of peptides, a set of parameters analogous to those developed by Englander and Bai for aqueous solution might be derived for typical HPLC separation solvents, and that these parameters can be used to predict back-exchange rates.

Additionally, we show that predictable back-exchange rates can be used to make assignments of amide proton resonances in peptides subjected to NMR analysis. Recently, we suggested that a correlation of amide proton exchange rates measured in an intact protein by NMR, and in peptides by MS, can be used to assign protein NMR resonances.¹⁵ The method, however, requires fragmentation of peptides for MS analysis to the point that data on overlapping peptides can be used to localize single sites of exchange. This is a challenging problem on the MS side because of back-exchange variations in short peptides and because of the technology needed to produce extensive fragmentation. However, there is the option of returning peptides to the NMR spectrometer for analysis. This was dismissed early on because of sensitivity concerns, but modern high-field spectrometers equipped with cold probes and small-volume cells currently put analysis within reach. A condition of application is that the amide proton resonances be assigned. While standard two-dimensional correlation spectra allow such assignments, these procedures are not practical for the quantities of peptides available. A simple assignment method based on predicted back-exchange rates would make analysis by NMR practical. Below we give a preliminary illustration of such an assignment for the Galectin-3 fragment; the fragment also provides an additional test of back-exchange predictions.

3.2 Experimental

3.2.1 Preparation of angiotensin I Samples

Angiotensin I (DRVYIHPFHL) (AT1) was chosen as a model peptide for the investigation of back-exchange rates. It was purchased from Sigma (St. Louis, MO) and used without further purification. To establish the level of back-exchange experienced in typical MS analyses, 65 μg of AT1 was dissolved in 50 μL of deuterium oxide (99.9%) (Cambridge Isotope Laboratories, Andover, MA) at a concentration of approximately 1 mM and allowed to equilibrate for 48 hr at room temperature to prepare a completely deuterated peptide. Approximately 5 μL was added to 300 μL of 75% ACN, 25% H_2O , 1 M acetic acid (tests show this to be as effective as 1% TFA) at 8 $^\circ\text{C}$ to begin a back-exchange simulation. NMR samples were prepared by dissolving approximately 0.7 mg lyophilized AT1 in 200 μL deuterated acetonitrile (CD_3CN) and 300 μL 0.1% TFA in D_2O at 5 $^\circ\text{C}$ or 600 μL DMSO with 20 μL 1%TFA in D_2O at 25 $^\circ\text{C}$ to carry out back-exchange measurements. Deuteron for proton, as opposed to proton for deuteron, exchange was conducted in this case to provide high sensitivity for short time points. Deuterium oxide (99.9%) and Dimethyl sulfoxide-D6 (99.9%) were purchased from Cambridge Isotope Laboratories (Andover, MA).

3.2.2 Preparation of Galectin-3 peptides

To simplify NMR analysis, galectin-3 (Gal3) was prepared with ^{15}N isotopic labels only in phenylalanine sites. *E. Coli* cells (BL21, DE3) transformed with a PET9a vector coding the C-terminal domain of Gal3 were grown in 1 L M9 media with a supply of 100 mg each of unlabeled amino acids (^{14}N) until optical density (OD) reached 0.8. 100 mg of the ^{15}N labeled form of phenylalanine was then added to the media, just before inducing the cells with 1 mM IPTG. Cells were allowed to grow for an additional for 3 hr. The cells were then harvested and lysed, and ^{15}N specific labeled Gal3 was purified on a

lactosyl-agarose affinity column. The protein sample was concentrated and stored in 75 mM phosphate buffer (pH 7.4). The yield of purified Gal3 protein was approximately 80 mg/L.

2 mg ¹⁵N phenylalanine labeled Gal3 (42 mg/mL, 50 μL) was digested using 1.7 mL immobilized pepsin at a pH of 2.65 (protein to enzyme ratio is 1:1) at room temperature for 1 hr. Pepsin on cross-linked 6% agarose, 2-3 mg of pepsin/mL of gel, was obtained from Pierce Chemicals (Rockford, IL). The peptic peptide solution was desalted on MacroSpin columns from the Nest Group, Inc. (Southborough, MA). The desalted peptides were re-dissolved in 2 μL 80% ACN+20% H₂O with 0.1% formic acid (FA) followed by 78 μL 0.1 % FA in H₂O. The sample was loaded onto a C18 reserve phase analytical column (Jupiter 5 μ, 300 Å, size 250×4.60 mm from Phenomenex, Inc. (Torrance, CA)), and separated on an 1100 binary pump HPLC system from Agilent Technologies, Inc. (Palo Alto, CA) at a flow rate of 1 mL/min, and then loaded in 95% buffer A (0.1% TFA in H₂O) for 5 min, then eluted with a gradient of increasing buffer B (0.1% TFA in ACN) content (5% to 60% over 30 min). Most peptides eluted at 10-25 min; these were collected as discrete fractions in 2 mL glass vials. The fractions were analyzed using an applied biosystems 4700 MALDI TOF/TOF mass spectrometer and the matrix compound, α-cyano-4-hydroxycinnamic acid (Aldrich Chemicals, Milwaukee, WI). Identification of peptides was accomplished using the search programs MASCOT (www.matrixscience.com) or MS DIGEST (<http://prospector.ucsf.edu/ucsfhtml4.0/msdigest.htm>). A single peptide containing two ¹⁵N labeled phenylalanines was eventually targeted. This peptide was dissolved in DMSO or ACN/H₂O as described for AT1.

3.2.3 Mass spectrometry analysis

MS analysis of deuterium exchange was conducted using an LTQ FT hybrid mass spectrometer from Thermo Electron Corporation (Waltham, MA). Sample injection was by direct infusion of AT1 in 75% ACN, 25% H₂O, 1 M acetic acid to the electrospray source.

The fully deuterated AT1 sample, the quench solvent and the syringe pump system are pre-cooled in a small portable refrigerator. To start the experiment, 5 μL 1 mg/mL AT1 is mixed with 300 μL quench solvent at about 8 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ and quickly loaded into the syringe pump. The mixture is steadily sprayed into the electrospray source for about 2 min and then data collection initiates. Continuous spectral recording with subsequent pooling and analysis of time points mimics back-exchange at various lengths of times spent on the HPLC under similar solvent conditions. The mass range acquired was 150-2000 Da. The triply charged molecular ion corresponding to AT1, with monoisotopic mass of 432.90 Da, was monitored for changes in the isotopic pattern for 1 hr.

3.2.4 NMR analysis

1D proton spectra were acquired on a 600 MHz Inova spectrometer from Varian Inc. using a triple resonance probe. TOCSY and NOESY 2D homonuclear correlation experiments were used to assign amide proton resonances to specific amino acids in the AT1 sequence. To mimic back-exchange reactions, protonated AT1 peptide was added to 20 μL of 1 % TFA in D_2O plus 600 μL deuterated DMSO or 300 μL of 0.1% TFA in D_2O plus 200 μL CD_3CN . After locking, tuning and shimming the magnet (13 min for the ACN/ H_2O sample, 20 min for the DMSO sample), collection of 1D data started. Typically 64 scans were acquired with a 0.67 sec repetition rate. For the ACN/ H_2O sample the acquisition intervals are 13 min, 25 min, 55 min, 1.9 hr, 4.4 hr and 10.4 hr at 5 $^{\circ}\text{C}$. For the DMSO sample, data are collected at 20 min, 40 min, 1.3 hr, 2.3 hr, 4.3 hr and 12.3 hr at 25 $^{\circ}\text{C}$. Then a final point was collected after 18 hr.

For work on the HFNPRF peptide from Gal3, the HPLC fraction containing the peptide was dried down, and re-dissolved in 500 μL deuterated DMSO and 15 μL 1% TFA in H_2O to prepare a sample that was approximately 40 μM in peptide. Reference spectra were collected on this protonated sample using a Varian Inova 800 MHz spectrometer equipped

with a triple resonance, pulsed field gradient, cold probe. For observation of amide proton resonances, 1D proton and ^{15}N filtered NMR spectra were collected at 15 °C. The sequence used to collect the ^{15}N filtered spectra was derived from a pulsed field gradient fast HSQC sequence by eliminating the indirect evolution time.¹⁶ To initiate the amide H/D exchange experiment the protonated peptide sample was lyophilized in the NMR tube. The deuteration solvent was prepared using 500 μL dry deuterated DMSO and 15 μL 1% TFA in high quality D_2O . After the 800MHz NMR spectrometer was locked, tuned and shimmed at 15 °C, the sample was quickly mixed with the pre-cooled solvent and put into the magnet. After quickly checking the lock and shimming, data collection started at sequential time intervals, of 7 min, 16 min, 30 min, 1 hr, 2 hr, 4 hr, and 20 hr using the ^{15}N filtered gradient fast HSQC sequence. While we will illustrate assignment of the ^{15}N filtered peaks using back-exchange rates, assignments using conventional 2D NMR experiments were also made to provide validation. 2D watergate NOESY sequences from the Varian pulse sequence library (wgnoesy) were used on the reference sample described above to establish sequential connectivities. 2D watergate TOCSY (wgtocsy) sequences from the same library were used to establish the amino acid type of sequentially connected residues. For assignment 30 μg of the peptide HFNPRF from ^{15}N F Gal3 was dissolved in 500 μL deuterated DMSO with 15 μL 1% TFA in H_2O . The TOCSY experiment took 3.5 hr, and the NOESY experiment took 15 hr.

Similar procedures were used to collect exchange data in ACN/ H_2O . The peptide was recycled from DMSO by lyophilization; it was protonated and redissolved in 200 μL CD_3CN and 300 μL 0.1% TFA in H_2O . Then, 1D proton and ^{15}N filtered spectra were collected at 5 °C for reference. To mimic back-exchange, the sample was again lyophilized in the NMR tube and deuteration initiated by addition of pre-cooled 200 μL CD_3CN and 300 μL 0.1% TFA in D_2O . After quickly checking lock and shimming, data collection started at

sequential times of 6.5 min, 10 min, 20 min, 40 min, 1 hr, and 8 hr using the same ^{15}N filtered gradient fast HSQC sequence.

3.3 Results

3.3.1 Back-exchange in MS of deuterated AT1

Fully deuterated AT1 is used to illustrate the problems associated with back exchange during a typical quench and MS analysis procedure. We focus on the portion of the procedure that would be encountered during HPLC separation prior to electrospray MS analysis. The enzyme digestion step could, in principle, be modeled using the data from Englander and Bai if pepsin cleavage itself had little effect on exchange. AT1, sequence of which is DRVYIHPFHL, has a monoisotopic mass (MH^+) of 1296.7 Da, and has eight exchangeable amide protons plus one on the arginine side chain; the rapidly exchanging N-terminal NH_3^+ group is discounted and the proline amide does not carry a proton. AT1 also has 9 additional rapidly exchanging sites in the side chains.¹⁷

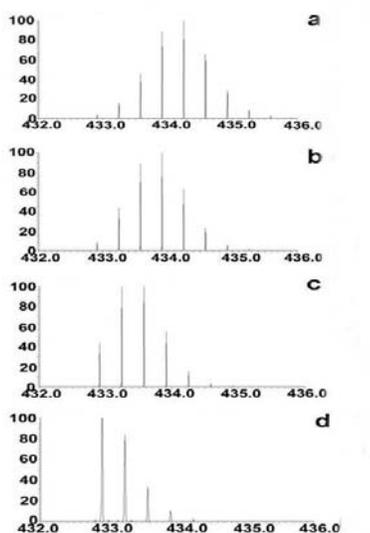


Figure 3.1. Time course of mass decrease of fully deuterated AT1 in H_2O . Fully deuterated AT1 (5 μL) is dissolved in quench solvent, 300 μL 75% ACN and 25% H_2O with 1 M acetic acid for pH 2.65 at 8 $^\circ\text{C}$. The mass spectrum shows the region around the triple charged

parent ion of AT1 (monoisotopic mass 432.90 Da). The undeuterated spectrum is shown in panel d as a reference. Panels a-c are for exchange times of 2.5 min, 10 min, and 62 min.

Figure 3.1 a-c shows typical isotopic profiles for the $[M+H]^+$ ion of AT1 as a function of the time AT1 has been exposed to quench buffer (75% ACN / 25% H₂O / 1 M acetic acid). The data for the first time point represents an average over the 0-1 min time of MS analysis, and data for subsequent time points represent similar averages. In panel d, the centroid mass (433.18 Da) of the protonated AT1 spectral profile is shown as a reference. In Figure 3.2, the data have been reduced to numbers of retained deuterons at amide sites using the center of mass of each profile as a measure of average mass and correcting for residual deuterium from the solvent at rapidly exchanging sites (6% based on dilution). The time points are displaced by 2 min to allow for the 2 min preparation period. Only a total of 3 deuterons are retained at 2.5 min suggesting quite rapid exchange. If all sites exchanged with the same rate, the time course in Figure 3.2 could be fit with a single exponential. The best fit (dotted line) is given by $D = 6.44 \times \exp(-3.05 \times t) + 1.02$, but it clearly does not fit the data. The best two exponential fit is given by $D = 0.38 + 5.09 \times \exp(-27371.42 \times t) + 1.99 \times \exp(-0.06 \times t)$, which clearly has a better fit. The weights assigned to the two rates in the latter expression would suggest 5 rapidly exchanging sites and 3 slowly exchanging sites. Since there are so few points on the rapid portion of the curve, the origin of the rapid exchange could originate with a greatly enhanced exchange of all sites during the actual injection and electrospray process, or it could be the result of several discrete sites in AT1 that have large inherent exchange rate constants. In either case, back exchange is a severe problem that deserves more attention.

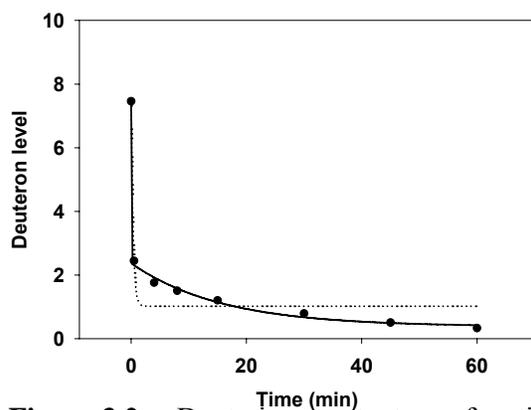


Figure 3.2. Deuterium content as a function of time for deuterated AT1 in H₂O. The dotted exponential curve shows the best fit single exponential and the solid curve shows the best fit bi-exponential rate curve.

3.3.2 H/D exchange rates of AT1 from NMR

NMR offers an ability to monitor H/D exchange without many of the uncertainties in the conditions of exchange for electrospray MS. For convenience, replacement of protons with deuterons is monitored, rather than the reverse. This leads to a progressive decrease in intensity of amide proton resonances as protons are replaced with deuterons. Corrections for differences in pH vs. pD and isotope effects on rates would have to be made, but these will be insignificant at the level of trying to understand differences in constants in the bi-exponential fit described above.

1D proton NMR spectra as a function of time after dissolution of 0.7 mg AT1 in 200 μ L CD₃CN / 300 μ L 0.1% TFA in D₂O is shown in Figure 3.3. Peak assignment of all eight amide protons has been accomplished by a combination of 2D TOCSY and NOESY experiments. It is clear that the backbone amide for arginine is exchanged well before the first time point could be acquired. Based on intensity loss in overlapping peaks either L or H6, as well as either phenylalanine or H9, could be exchanged before the first time point.

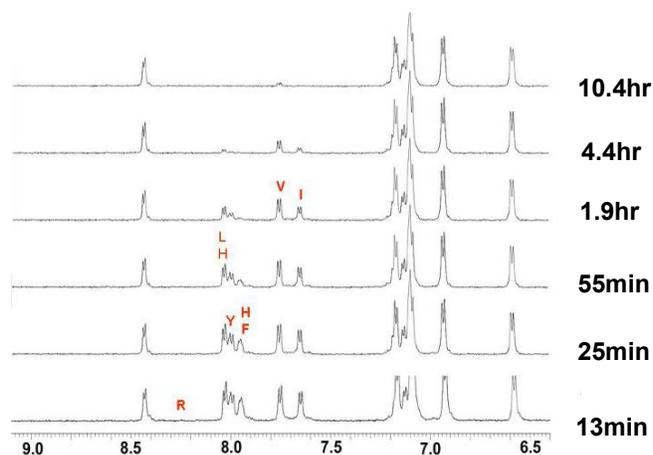


Figure 3.3. H/D exchange of AT1 in ACN/H₂O monitored by 1D proton NMR. Observation starts by redissolving 0.7 mg lyophilized AT1 in 200 μ L CD₃CN and 300 μ L 0.1% TFA in D₂O at 5 °C. Peaks are labeled by one letter codes for amino acids with vertical positions of labels roughly indicating the half life of each amide resonance.

Surprisingly, the exchange rates at individual amino acid sites are very different. The peak volumes can be integrated and fit into an exponential decay curve ($I=I_0 \times \exp(-kt) + C$) where I and I₀ are the signal intensity of protonated and partially deuterated amide peaks at each time point (t), and the k values are experimental exchange rate constants. Derived exchange rates for all amides except N-terminal aspartic acid and proline are shown in Table 3.1. The second amino acid, arginine, is exchanging very fast, whereas other amide protons are exchanging at observable rates with half-lives less than or equal to 4 hr.

A similar exchange process can be monitored in DMSO by dissolving a protonated peptide in DMSO containing 3.3% D₂O / 1% TFA. The absence of proton donors in DMSO and ability to work with lower percentages of water greatly slows exchange, and the spectral dispersion is better. Figure 3.4 presents a series of 1D spectra obtained after adding 20 μ L D₂O / 1% TFA to 0.7 mg of AT1 in 600 μ L DMSO. Relative rates of disappearance are similar, but improved resolution allows identification of arginine,

leucine, and histidine-6 as the more rapidly exchanging sites. The experimental exchange rates are listed in Table 3.1. These do vary by more than an order of magnitude from site to site. These variations could partially account for the bi-exponential character of the back-exchange in MS data.

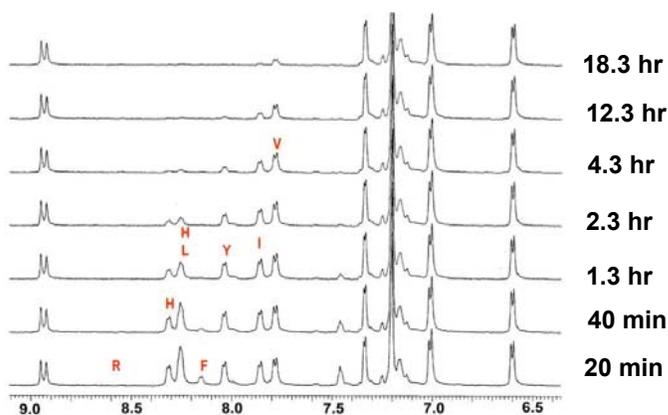


Figure 3.4. H/D exchange of AT1 in DMSO monitored by 1D proton NMR. Observation starts by redissolving 0.7 mg lyophilized AT1 in 600 μ L DMSO with 20 μ L 1%TFA in D₂O at 25 °C. Peaks are labeled by one letter codes for amino acids with vertical positions of labels roughly indicating the half life of each amide resonance.

3.3.3 H/D exchange rates of a Gal3 peptic peptide from NMR

Assignment of amide resonances in proteins, and in peptides derived from those proteins, can be facilitated by labeling with specific amino acids enriched in ¹⁵N. For peptides, sequences can be identified by MS analysis, and only the resonances belonging to the labeled amino acid need be identified. In peptides containing only a single instance of the labeled amino acid, filtering of 1D proton spectra by passing magnetization through a scalar coupled ¹⁵N clearly identifies the corresponding amide proton resonance. The first point of a 2D HSQC experiment corresponds to such a filtered spectrum. One persistent problem remains arises in a case where a peptide contains multiple instances of the labeled

amino acid. Here we explore whether differences in exchange rates for identical amino acids could be sufficient to assign them based on predicted variations in rates. A peptic peptide from the galactose-binding lectin, Gal3, is used to explore this possibility.

The labeling of specific amino acids can be verified by collection of 2D ^{15}N - ^1H HSQC spectra providing cross peaks are assigned. Assignments for peaks in the HSQC spectrum of Gal3 exist,¹⁸ and spectra from the protein expressed in cells grown on ^{15}N phenylalanine are shown in Figure 3.5. Growth in the presence of a particular isotopically labeled amino acid does not assure that the label remains only in the original amino acid. However, metabolic scrambling can be reduced by adding unlabeled forms of the other amino acids; this was done in the case of Gal3 expression. Phenylalanines in Gal3 proved to be about 40% ^{15}N labeled and scrambling to other amino acids proved to be minimal. Nevertheless, a few additional labeled sites, assigned primarily to aspartic acid, were observable.

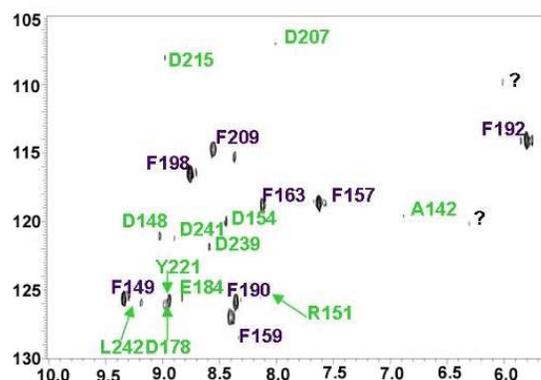


Figure 3.5. HSQC spectrum of ^{15}N phenylalanine labeled Gal3.

Digestion of ^{15}N phenylalanine labeled Gal3 was accomplished using immobilized pepsin at a 1:1 protein to enzyme ratio. Digestion was allowed to proceed for an extended period (1 hr) at room temperature to maximize the amount of peptide recovered. The supernatant containing peptides was then loaded onto a C18 HPLC column and peptides

eluted with a H₂O / ACN gradient. Figure 3.6 presents the HPLC elution profile and MS data characterizing a particularly interesting peptide. It corresponds to residues 158 to 163 of the protein and has the sequence, HFNPRF. This particular peptide has two phenylalanines, both of which are labeled to 40% based on the MS isotopic profile. A total of 30 µg was isolated from a digestion of 2 mg protein, by collecting the same fraction from two successive HPLC injections.

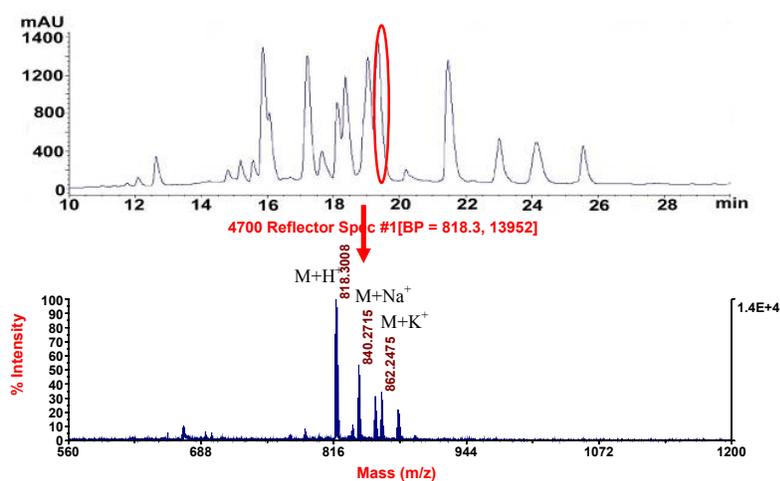


Figure 3.6. Isolation of the HFNPRF peptide from Gal3. The upper panel is the HPLC chromatograph showing peptic peptide separation of ¹⁵N F labeled Gal3. The identification of fraction 17, circled, is verified by MS as shown in the lower panel.

Figure 3.7 shows a 1D proton spectrum along with a ¹⁵N filtered spectrum of the isolated HFNPRF peptide. The two ¹⁵N labeled phenylalanines give two signals in the 1D ¹⁵N fast HSQC spectrum as expected. To provide for validation of a possible assignment based on amide exchange rates, 2D TOCSY and NOESY experiments were collected (data not shown). Using the inter-residue NOESY cross peaks to α protons, the resonance at 8.68 ppm (residue i) shows connection with an α proton of asparagine (residue i-1) and the resonance at 7.90 ppm (residue i) shows connection with an α proton of arginine (residue

i+1). Hence the resonance at 8.68 ppm is assigned to F159 and the resonance at 7.90 ppm is assigned to F163.

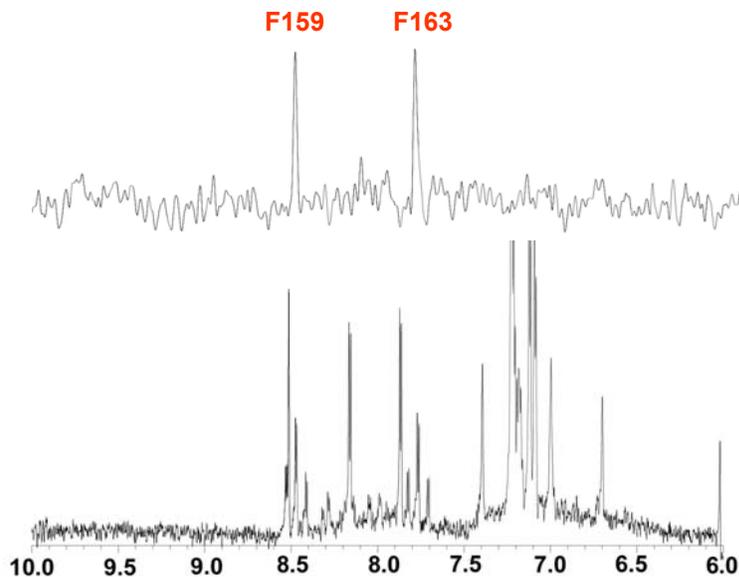


Figure 3.7. 1D proton and ^{15}N filtered HSQC NMR spectra of the HFNPRF peptide from ^{15}N F Gal3.

Figure 3.8 presents the time course of amide proton to amide deuteron exchange on dissolving 30 μg of lyophilized peptide in 200 μL deuterated CD_3CN and 300 μL 0.1% TFA in D_2O at 5 $^\circ\text{C}$ and monitoring exchange with ^{15}N -filtered 1D spectra. F159 exchanges too fast to be observed at the first time point (6.5 min), and F163 exchanges slower with the peak disappearing after 3-4 hr. The data were processed using heavy Gaussian weighting functions to keep peak widths roughly the same, and peak heights were used to represent intensities at different time points. Exponential curve fitting of intensity versus time plots gave an exchange rate of 0.66 hr^{-1} for F163. The exchange rate for F159 was estimated to be greater than 20 hr^{-1} .

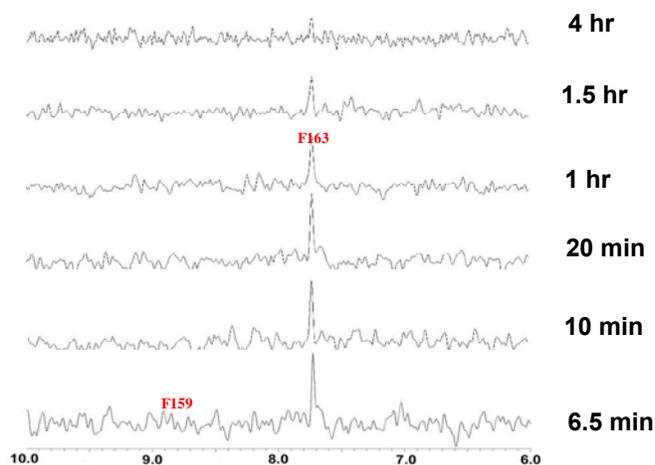


Figure 3.8. H/D exchange of peptide HFNPRF using ^{15}N filtered NMR data in ACN/D₂O. The experiment starts by dissolving lyophilized fraction 17 in 200 μL deuterated CD₃CN and 300 μL 0.1% TFA in D₂O at 5 °C. The vertical positions of labels roughly indicate the half lives of the two phenylalanine resonances.

Similar data for H/D exchange in DMSO / H₂O is presented in Figure 3.9. The overall rates are slower, but F159 at 8.80 ppm exchanges faster than F163 at 8.10 ppm. F159 loses total signal at about 2 hr, while F163 retains some signal at 20 hr. The exchange rates obtained from exponential fits of the data are 1.64 and 0.10 hr⁻¹ corresponding to half-lives of 0.42 and 7.0 hr. In both solvent systems rates for the two phenylalanines differ by more than an order of magnitude, in spite of the fact that they belong to the same amino acid type. This raises the prospect of making assignments by correlating rates with those predicted from sequence.

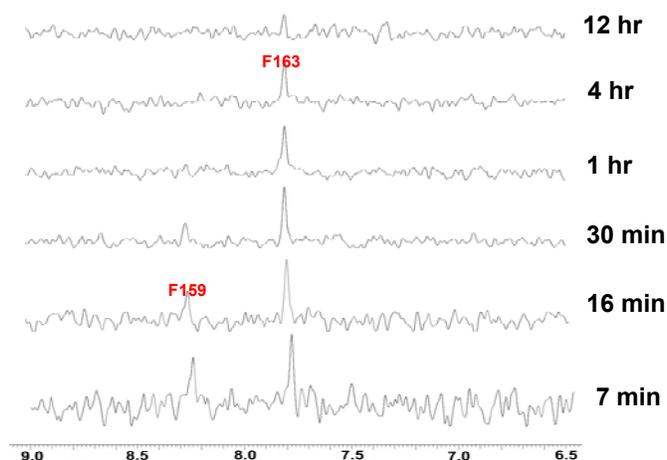


Figure 3.9. H/D exchange of peptide HFNPRF using ^{15}N filtered NMR data in ACN/D₂O. Exchange starts by redissolving lyophilized fraction 17 in 500 μL DMSO and 15 μL 0.1% TFA in D₂O at 15 °C. The vertical positions of labels roughly indicate the half-lives of the two phenylalanine resonances.

3.4 Discussion

It is not surprising that amide proton exchange rates vary substantially from site to site even in short peptides. This was established long ago in the work by Englander and Bai.¹³ Rates of exchange for each amide proton in an unstructured peptide are described by “intrinsic” rate constants (k_{int}) that depend on the concentrations of available catalysts (OH^- , H_3O^+ , water, and acidic or basic solutes) as well as catalyst specific constants that depend on the inductive, catalytic, and steric effects of both the amino acid of interest and its adjacent residues. For aqueous solvents, specific rate constants have been collected for various peptide sequences and dependencies on pH and temperature incorporated into a convenient web-based tool for prediction of intrinsic rates (<http://hx2.med.upenn.edu/download.html>).

Clearly, prediction of rates under solvent conditions used for the MS analysis and the NMR analysis presented above would be of considerable value. In the MS case, it

would at least allow identification of sites back-exchanging so fast that they could not be used to report on processes such as protein-protein interaction or ligand binding. It might also allow assignment of deuterium content to specific sets of sites by deconvolution of multi-exponential back exchange processes. For NMR we might be able to assign resonances based on back-exchange rates. Currently we can easily tabulate predicted rates for AT1 and our Gal3 peptide using the web-based tool of Englander and Bai.¹³ However, the extent to which predictions designed for aqueous solution might hold for the very different solvent systems used in MS analysis and the NMR studies presented above is less certain. To explore possible applicability we have taken the simple step of assuming that predicted rates will scale with percentage of water in the mixed solvent systems.

For the DMSO system the scaling factor is 31, calculated by dividing 620 μL DMSO/ H_2O solution by the 20 μL aqueous proportion. The scaling factor for the ACN/ H_2O system is 1.67, which is calculated by dividing the 500 μL ACN/ H_2O solvent by the 300 μL aqueous proportion. The results are presented in columns three and five of Table 3.1. The relative rates are in good agreement for most of the amino acids in both solvent systems. The only cases where disagreement with measured values exceeds a factor of three are the C-terminal residues in the ACN/ H_2O solvent (we also cannot make quantitative comparisons for the very rapidly exchanging cases). The level of agreement suggests use of existing prediction tools may be suitable when differences approach an order of magnitude. The possibility of developing parameters sets more appropriate for prediction in the solvents used in peptide studies also exists.

As an illustration of possible application in analysis of back-exchange correction to MS data, we consider our deuterium content data on AT1. We estimated that a total of 5 amide protons back-exchange rapidly in solvents used in typical HPLC separation prior to electrospray ionization of peptides. According to NMR data in Table 3.1, three of the sites

(R2, H6 and H9) exchange fast enough to contribute to the decay associated with the first exponential. These are also predicted to exchange fast using the scaled Englander and Bai formulas. The remaining two deuterons lost may be associated with enhanced exchange across all sites during injection or the electrospray process. As a result, it would be safe to say the retained deuterons should not be associated with the three rapidly back-exchanging sites. It also appears that back exchange rates studied by NMR can be used to make assignments of amide proton resonances in peptides. The case presented for the HFNPRF peptide of Gal3 shows a difference of more than an order of magnitude in back-exchange rate for the two phenylalanine residues with the resonance at 8.68 ppm in ACN/H₂O exchanging faster than the resonance at 7.90 ppm. Based on predictions, F159 should exchange more than an order of magnitude faster than F163 in either DMSO/H₂O or ACN/H₂O solvent systems. Hence we would assign the resonance at 8.68 ppm to F159 and the resonance at 7.90 ppm to F163. This is in agreement with assignments determined using conventional 2D NOESY and TOCSY experiments. Assignment based on back-exchange is important when small amounts of material are available. The quantities used in Figures 3.8 and 3.9 were approximately 30 µg of peptide and acquisition times for a single time point were as little as 23 min (or a little over two hours for a six point time course). The TOCSY and NOESY experiments required 3.5 hr and 15 hr on 30 µg of material — almost ten times as long. Moreover, the time course of back-exchange might be collected in any event to allow extrapolation back to the actual time of protein digestion where the measure of deuterium content is actually needed.

Currently there are relatively few cases where assignments for amide proton resonances of small quantities of peptides are needed. However, we have made a case for assignment of HSQC resonances of intact proteins by correlating amide proton exchange rates measured for the intact protein with deuterium content of isolated peptides. The vision

was to analyze deuterium content by MS, but this can also be done by NMR, providing amide resonances for small quantities of digested peptides can be assigned. Here we have used Gal3, a modest sized protein as a test system and demonstrated that adequate amounts of peptide can be obtained. The real targets would be larger proteins and proteins not easily labeled in ways that allow uniform isotopic enrichment and adoption of a conventional assignment strategy. Proteins that must be expressed in mammalian cell culture fall in this class. These are amenable to specific amino acid labeling at reasonable cost, and the facile assignment of labeled peptides described here could become a part of HSQC assignment strategies for the intact protein. While specific amino acid labeling may return a limited amount of structural data, it may be enough to facilitate computational prediction of protein structure, or allow exploration of protein-protein and protein-ligand interaction in cases where protein structures are known.

3.5 Conclusion

Hence, we have found that back exchange rates of amide protons in unstructured peptides vary considerably with sequence. However, these rates appear to be predictable, and predictions can be extremely valuable in improving the specificity of analysis by mass spectrometry and in assigning resonances for NMR applications.

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Table 3.1. Comparison of experimental exchange rate constants and predicted intrinsic rate constants for AT1 and the peptic peptide of ^{15}N F Gal3.

No.	Res.	$k_{\text{ex}}(\text{exp.})^{\text{a}}$ (hr^{-1})	$k_{\text{int}}(\text{cal.})^{\text{a}'}$ (hr^{-1})	$k_{\text{ex}}(\text{exp.})^{\text{b}}$ (hr^{-1})	$k_{\text{int}}(\text{cal.})^{\text{b}'}$ (hr^{-1})
1	D	--	--	--	--
2	R	>2.439	67.02	>3.000	36.73
3	V	0.225	0.38	0.087	0.14
4	Y	0.719	0.72	0.313	0.25
5	I	0.373	0.23	0.155	0.09
6	H	0.554	1.39	0.784	0.73
7	P	--	--	--	--
8	F	0.636	0.70	0.090	0.24
9	H	1.197	2.67	0.693	1.42
10	L	0.554	0.30	0.784	0.09
1	H	--	--	--	--
2	F	>21.320	55.89	1.640	10.16
3	N		1.52		0.26
4	P	--	--	--	--
5	R		0.73		0.11
6	F	0.660	0.51	0.100	0.07

a) $k_{\text{ex}}(\text{exp.})$ is the experimental exchange rate constant calculated from peak decay of amide proton signals in the ACN/ H_2O system. The upper part includes the rates for AT1, the lower part includes the rates for the peptic peptide of ^{15}N F Gal3.

a') $k_{\text{int}}(\text{cal.})$ is the rate constant calculated at pH 2.5 and 5°C using the spreadsheet available at <http://hx2.med.upenn.edu/download.html>. Constants are scaled down by a factor of 1.67 due to the volume fraction of H_2O in the ACN/ H_2O solvent.

b) $k_{\text{ex}}(\text{exp.})$ is the experimental exchange rate constant calculated from peak decay of amide proton signals in the DMSO system. The upper part includes the rates for AT1, the lower part includes the rates for the peptic peptide of ^{15}N F Gal3.

b') $k_{\text{int}}(\text{cal.})$ is the rate constant calculated at pH 2.5, 25°C for AT1 and at pH 2.5 15°C for peptide HFNPRF using the spreadsheet available at <http://hx2.med.upenn.edu/download.html>.

Constants are scaled down by a factor of 31 due to the volume fraction of H₂O in the DMSO solvent.

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CHAPTER 4

RESONANCE ASSIGNMENTS FOR PROTEINS LABELED

WITH ^{15}N AMINO ACIDS¹

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Abstract

Here we present a novel method for nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) resonance assignments, especially for large proteins with post-translation modification. This approach only requires sparse ^{15}N labeling on one or a small set of amino acids, which is applicable for proteins not accessible uniformly labeling or multiple labeling in mammalian cells. It is based on correlation of amide proton for deuterium exchange measured from ^{15}N - ^1H cross peak intensity in 2D NMR spectrum of an intact protein with deuterium content in digested peptides measured by 1D NMR experiments. Galectin-3 (Gal3), a 15.6 kDa protein, is used to test the feasibility of this strategy. F163 in one particular peptide of Gal3, HFNPRF, is definitively assigned to the corresponding cross peak in the heteronuclear single quantum coherence (HSQC) spectrum. The result indicates the promising application on larger proteins with more biological significance.

4.1 Introduction

Labeling with single or small subsets of amino acids enriched in ^{15}N has a number of advantages when dealing with large proteins or proteins that are not easily expressed in bacterial hosts. For large proteins, the number of resonances is significantly reduced and the assignment problem is, in principle, simplified by restricting assignments to specific amino acid types. For proteins that are difficult to express in bacterial hosts, because of toxicity, the need for glycosylation, or the need for folding chaperones, labeling with isotopically enriched amino acids allows use of alternative expression methods, including cell-free expression^{1, 2}, expression in insect cells³, and expression in mammalian cells^{4, 5}. While there have been some examples of using a complement of amino acids sufficient to achieve uniform labeling⁶⁻⁹, costs for most systems are prohibitive, and use of selected amino acids is more common. Use of selected amino acids, however, deprives us of the usual triple resonance approach to resonance assignment. While some assignment strategies based on the use of sets of structural data, such as RDCs, pseudo-contact shifts, and paramagnetic perturbations of spin relaxation, have been proposed, these are usually dependent on the prior existence of three dimensional structures¹⁰. This leaves a real need for new assignment strategies compatible with sparse isotopic labeling of structurally uncharacterized proteins. Here we present a method that can accomplish this. It is based on correlation of amide proton for deuteron exchange measured from cross peak intensity in HSQC spectra of an intact protein, with deuterium content in digested peptides measured by NMR, but sequentially assigned by mass spectrometry.

We had proposed a similar method earlier that relied on correlating exchange data coming from NMR on an intact protein with exchange data and sequence data coming from mass spectrometry on digested peptides¹¹. Amide proton for deuteron exchange in the intact protein was measured from the time course of disappearance of HSQC cross peaks after

dissolution or dilution of a fully protonated protein in a deuterated buffer. Rates of exchange vary enormously from site to site in folded proteins (seconds to months), making it possible to distinguish 20 or more cross peaks even if rates can be determined only to within a factor of two. We demonstrated an ability to span the necessary exchange rate spectrum for NMR observation using a combination of conventional HSQC methodology and fast acquisition methodology such as Hadamard spectroscopy¹². For mass spectrometry observation of peptides, aliquots of protein were removed during the process of exchange, exchange was quenched by lowering the pH and dropping the temperature to 0 °C, and the protein was digested with pepsin. The deuterium content was then analyzed using mass shifts of the various peptides. While successful correlations could be made at the whole peptide level, assignment of individual HSQC peaks would require identification of a sufficient number of overlapping peptides to allow assignment of differences in mass shifts to a single site. Producing this number of peptides proved very difficult.

Here we bring the digested peptides back to NMR for analysis. This approach was initially dismissed due to sensitivity limitations. The quantity of digested peptide that can be conveniently produced and isolated on an HPLC column is in the 10 µg range. This is a small quantity for NMR observation. Moreover, observation must be completed before back-exchange of deuterons for protons in the HPLC solvent occurs to a significant extent. However, advances in NMR instrumentation, including cold probes, micro coils, and high fields, have caused us to reconsider the approach. Given that data acquisition proves possible, NMR has the advantage of providing, even in simple 1D proton spectra, discrete resonances for most amide sites. Intensities in spectra of aliquots pulled at various times are quantitatively related to the residual proton content, and hence, to rates of exchange. Providing resonances can be assigned to a particular amino acid, a one to one correlation with HSQC cross peaks of the intact protein can, in principle, be achieved.

Assignment of resonances in 1D spectrum of peptides would be possible using combinations of TOCSY spectra to identify amino acid types and NOESY spectra to identify sequential connectivity. However, in the applications we envision single (or small sets of) amino acid types will be ^{15}N labeled in the isolated peptides. ^{15}N filtering, as occurs in the initial elements of an HSQC experiment, can identify amide proton resonances belonging to the ^{15}N labeled amino acids in far less time. Difficulties only arise in cases where more than one amino acid of a particular type occurs in an isolated peptide. Here, we have used a novel assignment strategy that relies on correlation of back-exchange rates with sequence dependent intrinsic rate predictions. Back exchange rates can easily be measured by acquiring a few ^{15}N -filtered spectra sequentially in time while a peptide from a particular aliquot is under observation. This would be done in any event to allow projection of deuterium content measurements back to the time at which an exchanging aliquot of the protein was removed for pepsin digestion and HPLC separation.

The entire procedure outlined above was applied to a test case involving the carbohydrate-binding protein, Galectin-3 (Gal3). Gal3 is a protein that we have worked on in the past. It has a high quality crystal structure, and a near-complete set of backbone resonance assignments¹³. The existence of the assignments allows us to validate assignments made by the new procedure. We will ^{15}N label Gal3 by expression in an *E. coli* host in the presence of ^{15}N labeled phenylalanine. Proton for deuterium exchange rates are measured in the intact protein using Hadamard NMR methods. The protein is then digested and peptides isolated so that deuterium content of amide sites in these peptides can be analyzed by ^{15}N -filtered 1D analysis. One particular peptide that contains a pair of phenylalanines is selected as an example in the application presented. This is the HFNPRF peptide comprising residues 158 to 163 of the protein. The pair of phenylalanines allows illustration of assignment based on back-exchange. We are able to get an accurate

correlation of exchange measured from intact protein and from peptides for one of these assigned phenylalanines and make a definitive assignment of the corresponding peak in the HSQC spectrum of the protein. This illustration, while restricted to a single site, sets an important precedent for more extensive application to proteins that are large or difficult to label by conventional means.

4.2 Experimental

4.2.1 Protein expression and preparation

Single amino acid labeling in *E. coli* is not routine because of the ability of the organism to make and interconvert amino acids. However, several authors have developed procedures to minimize these complications^{14,15}. Here we minimize the scrambling of label to other amino acids by adding unlabeled forms of the other amino acids before adding ¹⁵N labeled phenylalanine during IPTG induction. The protein sample was concentrated and stored in 75 mM phosphate buffer (pH 7.4). The yield of purified Gal3 protein was approximately 40 mg/L. The labeling efficiency of protein expression was verified by analyzing the 2D HSQC spectrum and isotopic pattern in MS peaks. Phenylalanines were labeled in ¹⁵N to approximately 98% and the primary scrambling was to aspartic acid at about 25% or less.

4.2.2 Exchange rates of ¹⁵N F labeled Gal3 by 2D Hadamard encoded HSQC

All spectra were collected on a Varian 800 MHz spectrometer equipped with a triple resonance cold probe. Initially a ~ 0.2 mM protonated protein sample in 500 μL 300 mM lactose and 75 mM phosphate buffer (pH 7.4) was used to collect a survey spectrum for locating ¹⁵N excitation frequencies for Hadamard ¹⁵N-¹H 2D spectroscopy. Hadamard spectroscopy provided an efficient means of collection of 2D data when the number of resonances to be observed was small and the peak positions are known¹⁶⁻¹⁸. Eight ¹⁵N excitation frequencies (list in ppm) with a bandwidth as 50 Hz were chosen and found to

cover most ^{15}N peaks of interest. A reference Hadamard spectrum on the fully protonated sample was collected with 64 scans and 8 t_1 increments using a t_2 spectra width of 10000 Hz centered at 4.76 ppm on H_2O . The total acquisition time was 10 min 40 sec.

To observe H/D exchange of the protein, the same sample was lyophilized overnight the NMR tube and at time zero 500 μL 99.9% D_2O at pH 7.8 was added to redissolve the protein. The tube was quickly returned to the spectrometer with parameters set identically to those of the reference spectrum. After checking the lock, shimming and tuning a series of Hadamard spectra was collected. The data, at the first time point (5 min after dissolution) was collected with 8 scans, requiring 1 min 24 sec for acquisition of the first time point. Subsequent spectra were acquired at geometrically increasing time points from 5 min to 24 hr. Spectra were processed and reconstructed using nmrPipe and scripts (<http://spin.niddk.nih.gov/NMRPipe/>). The peaks were integrated in each Hadamard spectrum to determine the volume for each time point. The volume vs. time was plotted and the data was fitted to exponential decay based on Monte-Carlo trials within nmrPipe. Then the exchange rate constant, k_{ex} was calculated for each individual amino acid based on the slope of the curve.

4.2.3 Exchange rates from the deuterium content of HFNPRF peptides

12 mg Gal3 labeled with ^{15}N F was dissolved in 360 μL phosphate buffer, dried down and redissolved in 360 μL 99.9% pure D_2O . At time intervals of 2 min, 4 hr, 18 hr and 4 days, triplicate 30 μL aliquots, each containing about 1mg partially deuterated ^{15}N F Gal3, were withdrawn and frozen in liquid nitrogen. Aliquots were then individually thawed and quickly combined with immobilized pepsin beads from 0.86 mL slurry after being washed by 0.1% TFA in H_2O (Gal3 to pepsin mol ratio approximately is 1:1). Meanwhile 120 μL 0.1% TFA in H_2O was added to lower the pH to 2.5 at 0 $^\circ\text{C}$. The pepsin on cross-linked 6% agarose, 2-3 mg of pepsin/mL of gel, was obtained from Pierce Chemicals (Rockford, IL).

The sample was shaken for 10 min gently on an orbital shaker to improve the surface interaction between protein and pepsin beads. The peptic peptides were then quickly filtered using a 0.2 μ M membrane disk and again frozen in liquid nitrogen. The degree of digestion and peptic peptide identification was checked by MALDI-TOF and determined to have less than 10% fragments of mass greater than 2000 Da.

Peptides were separated on a C18 reverse phase column (DELTA PAK 3.9 \times 300 mm) using an Agilent 1100 HPLC binary pump system and G1314 variable wavelength UV detector from Agilent Technologies, Inc. (Palo Alto, CA). The column, elution buffers, and manual sample injector (model 7725i from Rheodyne LLC, Rohnert Park, CA) were pre-cooled in an ice bath or with the use of cooling packs. After obtaining a stable baseline running the loading buffer (90% buffer A (0.1% TFA in H₂O) and 10% buffer B (0.1% TFA in acetonitrile (ACN))) at 1 mL/min, a frozen peptide mixture was thawed and quickly injected through the six-valve injector at the flow rate of 1 mL/min. The sample was then eluted with a gradient of increasing buffer B content from 10% to 60% over 25 min. Peptides, most of which eluted in the 10-25 min range, were collected as discrete fractions in 2 mL glass vials. 2 μ L aliquot was removed from the first sample and saved for MS analysis to identify peptides. The fractions were then quickly frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored in a -80 °C freezer.

Mass spectrometry analysis was on the initial sample was done using MALDI method on each collected fraction. The fractions were analyzed using an Applied Biosystems 4700 MALDI TOF/TOF mass spectrometer (Foster City, CA) and the MALDI matrix solution, which was α -cyano-4-hydroxycinnamic acid (Aldrich Chemicals, Milwaukee, WI) saturated in 50% H₂O and 50% ACN with 1% TFA. 1 μ L sample and 1 μ L matrix solvent was dried on the 100-well MALDI target and sent to the spectrometer. The laser power setting was about 4000 and the m/z range was about 560-4000 Da. Identification of

peptides was accomplished using a database search (MASCOT (www.matrixscience.com) or MS DIGEST (<http://prospector.ucsf.edu/ucsfhtml4.0/msdigest.htm>)). This allowed correlation of elution times with specific peptides. The HFNPRF peptide eluting at 12 min was selected for the in depth analysis presented in this pilot study.

The Varian Inova 800 MHz NMR spectrometer (Palo Alto, CA), equipped with a triple resonance cold probe and pulsed field gradient unit, was used for NMR analysis of deuterium content in peptides. It was locked, shimmed and tuned on a protonated sample of the HFNPRF peptide in HPLC elution solvent at 0 °C. The sequence used to collect the ^{15}N filtered ^1H spectra was derived from a pulsed field gradient HSQC sequence (Varian Protein Biopack library, Nhsqct2h). This sequence used a selective pulse to only observe the amide region, largely suppressing H_2O and ACN peaks. We collected only the data corresponding to the first t_1 time point (zero t_1 evolution time). The fraction containing mainly the peptide, HFNPRF, was thawed quickly and loaded into a 5 mm NMR tube along with 100 μL deuterated acetonitrile (CD_3CN) for lock and shimming. Parameters used for data acquisition on the HFNPRF peptide obtained from the aliquot corresponding to ^{15}N F Gal3 H/D exchanged for 4 days were typical of those used on other samples. The first time point on this sample started at 16 min, and took 11 min 40 sec more to finish, collecting 512 transients with a spectra width of 8000 Hz. Additional spectra were collected at 1 hr, 2 hr, 4 hr, 8 hr, and 12 hr to allow determination of a back-exchange rate and correction of deuterium content to zero time. These additional back-exchange time points were collected with 2048 transients to provide better signal to noise.

Since limited by incomplete pepsin digestion and HPLC column capacity, the signal to noise ratio of the 1D ^{15}N filtered NMR spectra are not ideal. The solution is to repeat three times for each time interval and add three independent free inductive decays (FID) together. Therefore, the signal will add up and noise will be cancelled. In detail, each individual

spectrum was processed using only line broadening ($lb=10$) to keep peak width roughly the same. H_2O and ACN solvent were better suppressed to improve the baseline by set digital filter parameters ($ssfilter=50$, $ssntaps=71$). Then the FIDs of three repeats were added up by the VNMR program (VNMR 6.1 B, User Guide: Liquids NMR). In order to exclude the noise interference for the quantitative analysis, deconvolution of observed spectra into individual Lorentzian lines by VNMR software was pursued. Peaks corresponding to the amide proton resonances for the two phenylalanines were integrated at each back-exchange time point and back-exchange rates were obtained by fitting integrals as a function of time to exponential rising curve using the program SigmaPlot 8.0.

4.2.4 Control for back exchange during HPLC separation

In principle, the back-exchange rates determined above can be used to not only extrapolate deuterium to the beginning of NMR data acquisition, but to the time of HPLC injection. The solvent conditions in the HPLC are nearly identical for much of the separation time, and attempts were made to keep the temperature near $0\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$. However, it is impossible to anticipate effects of the column packing and our inability to precisely control temperature. Hence, examination of a control sample is appropriate. $20\text{ }\mu\text{g}$ of the peptide HFNPRF used above was recycled and allowed to deuterate at exchangeable sites in $100\text{ }\mu\text{L}$ D_2O at $30\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 12 hr (this produces a fully deuterated sample). The sample was re-injected in the pre-cooled HPLC as described above, captured in a 2 mL volume at 12 min, and frozen in liquid nitrogen. The proton signal rise due to back exchange in ACN/ H_2O at $0\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ was monitored following the NMR procedure described above at 30 min, 1 hr, 2 hr, 4 hr, 6 hr, 8 hr, 10 hr. A back-exchange rate was determined as described above and extrapolation to the time of HPLC injection was attempted. The content did not extrapolate to the expected 0% proton, but to a level of 30% proton. This suggested that back-exchange rates were enhanced during HPLC separation tremendously. This factor was used in correcting other

data for time spent in HPLC separation.

4.3 Results

4.3.1 ^{15}N phenylalanine specific labeling on Gal3

Figure 4.1 shows the 2D HSQC NMR spectrum of the Galectin-3 carbohydrate binding domain (CRD) produced by expression in *E. coli* using an excess of ^{15}N phenylalanine along with unlabeled supplements of 19 other amino acids. The cross-peaks in this spectrum have been previously assigned¹¹⁹ and the assignments of the most intense peaks are labeled in purple on the figure. There are eight phenylalanines in the CRD and there are eight intense cross peaks. All of these correspond to peaks that had previously been assigned to phenylalanines. There are, however, a number of weak peaks in green with intensities 25% or less of those for the phenylalanines based on the peak volume comparison. The majority of these are assigned to aspartic acids.

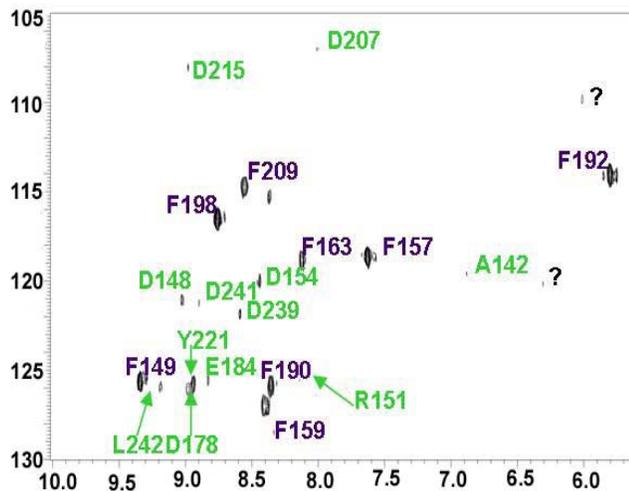


Figure 4.1. 2D HSQC spectrum of ^{15}N F labeled Gal3. The labels in purple are 8 phenylalanines in Gal3. The labels in green are the amino acids labeled as a result of ^{15}N F label scrambling.

The level of isotopic labeling for the phenylalanines can be ascertained from isotope profiles in MS data on derived peptides. Figure 4.2 shows a profile for the HFNPRF

peptide. Matching the isotopic profile to those predicted by ISOTOPICA (<http://coco.protein.osaka-u.ac.jp/Isotopica/>) suggests the labeling level to be approximately 40%. Higher levels of specific labeling can be achieved using a number of methods¹⁻⁵. However, the level produced here is adequate for our purposes. It illustrates the spectral simplification afforded by specific amino acid labeling, sensitivity in ¹⁵N filtered spectra will be adequate with 40% enrichment, and the number of major cross peaks is within limits set for assignment based on exchange rate differences.

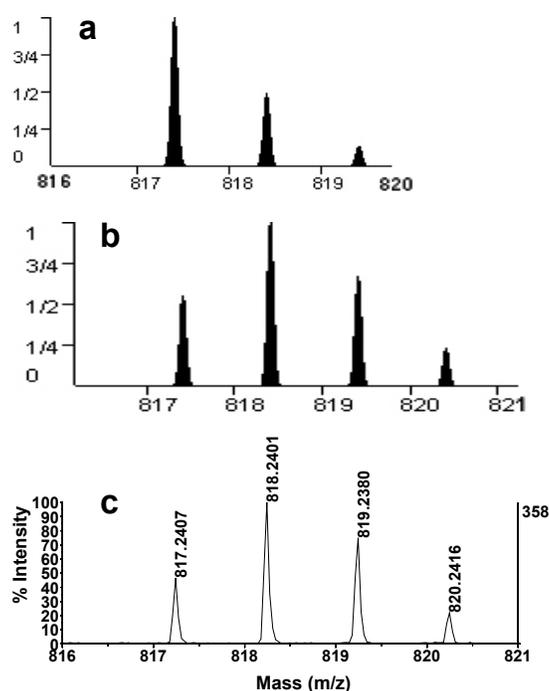


Figure 4.2. Isotopic pattern analysis of peptide HFNPRF of ¹⁵N F labeled Gal3 by MS. a) the predicted isotopic distribution of the peptide at natural abundance by the program ISOTOPICA, <http://coco.protein.osaka-u.ac.jp/Isotopica/>. b) The predicted isotopic distribution of the peptide with two phenylalanines 40% ¹⁵N labeled. c) Enlarged MS spectrum of the peptide.

4.3.2 Amide H/D exchange on ¹⁵N F Gal3 monitored by 2D Hadamard Transform (HT) encoded HSQC spectra

Figure 4.3 shows examples of HSQC spectra collected at various times after

dissolution of Gal3 in deuterated buffer. Figure 4.3a is on a fully protonated sample and serves to depict the state at time zero. The seven ^{15}N excitation frequencies chosen for this spectrum cover 7 out of the 8 phenylalanines. F192, whose chemical shift on ^1H dimension is 5.810 ppm, is not included in the enlarged version of the 2D Hadamard spectrum. Data acquisition with a second set of frequencies on another sample with ^{15}N uniformly labeling provide duplicate information on several sites as well as exchange data for the one missing phenylalanine site, F159. After 22 min (Figure 4.3b) it is clear that the cross-peak F190 has totally disappeared making this among the most rapidly exchanging sites. After 24 hr (Figure 4.3c) it is clear that additional sites begin to exchange, showing a wide range of exchange rates.

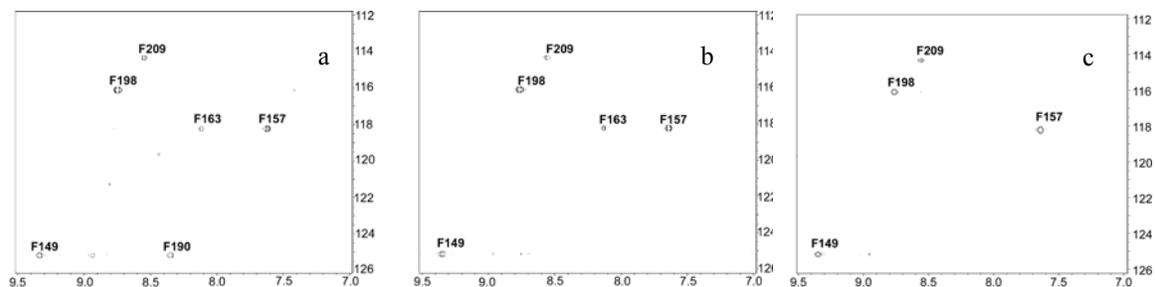


Figure 4.3. Reconstructed HT ^{15}N - ^1H HSQC spectra for ^{15}N F Gal3. a) Data in H_2O collected with 64 t1 increments in 10 min 40 sec. b) Data after 22 min in D_2O collected with 64 scans. c) Data after 24 hr in D_2O collected with 2048 scans. F192 is not shown in this enlarged spectrum region.

Cross-peaks in spectra such as those in Figure 4.3 can be integrated. $I(t)$ was normalized to the scaled peak intensities in the first spectrum, and plotted as a function of time. Decay rate constants were extracted from these time courses. The decay rates were clearly exponential and fit well to Equation 4.1. The constant is approximately 0.05 in all cases and corresponds to 5% residual H_2O in the solution.

$$I(t) = I_0(\exp(-k_{\text{ext}}t) + \text{const.}) \quad \text{Eq. 4.1.}$$

Table 4.1. reports measured exchange rates, k_{ex} , ranging from approximately larger than $7.7 \times 10^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$ to less than $3.66 \times 10^{-5} \text{ min}^{-1}$ for ^{15}N F Gal3 at pH 7.8 ($\text{pD} = \text{pH}_{\text{read}} + 0.4$). The corresponding half times ranged from less than 0.9 min to more than 13 days. For cases where redundant data were collected, both measurements have been listed in Table 4.1. The rates are assigned to specific sites in the protein based on previous assignments using triple resonance experiments on this protein¹⁹. Of course, if this were a new structural target, these assignments would not exist. Below we illustrate an assignment procedures based on rate correlations that could be applied in these cases.

4.3.3 Amide H/D exchange from deuterium incorporation in the HFNPRF peptide monitored by 1D ^{15}N filtered spectra

Rates of amide exchange for specific sites in the folded protein can be correlated with sequence information if the deuterium content of peptides derived from the protein can be measured. In order to capture the deuterium content of protein sites at various time points during exchange, digestion with pepsin, and separation of peptides by HPLC for various aliquots, were carried out quickly at low temperature (0°C) and low pH (2.5). Digestion required approximately 10 min and HPLC separation required approximately 13 min. An example of HPLC separation using an ACN/ H_2O /TFA gradient is shown in Figure 4.4. A digest of approximately 0.5 mg of Gal3 peptides was injected since half of the protein was not digested at low temperature fast enough. The peak corresponding to the HFNPRF peptide is the most intense one eluting at 12 min. This peak contains about 16 μg of the peptide HFNPRF. This peptide was identified using the mass spectrum shown in the lower panel and correlation of exact masses with data from the MASCOT database. The HFNPRF fraction is relatively pure as shown by the low abundance of other peptides. However, contamination by other peptides is not problematic as long as they do not generate overlapping ^{15}N -filtered amide peaks. The collected fractions were frozen in liquid nitrogen

and stored for subsequent NMR analysis. The actual separation was performed with three different aliquots at each time point to allow triplicate data acquisitions to be combined for final analysis of deuterium content.

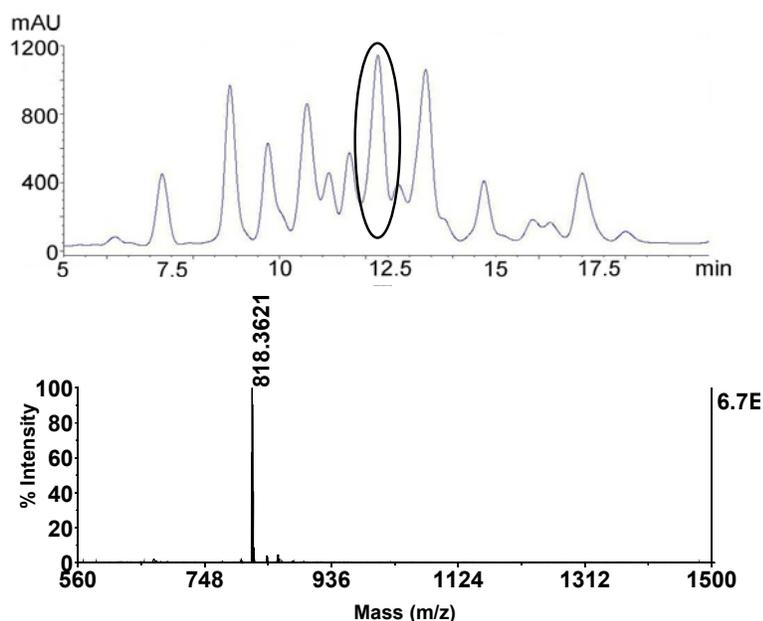


Figure 4.4. Isolation of the HFNPRF peptide from ^{15}N F Gal3. The upper panel is the HPLC chromatogram of peptic peptides from ^{15}N F Gal3. The fraction containing HFNPRF is circled. Identification is established by MS as shown in the lower panel.

Ideally, peptides could be produced, separated, and data acquired with sufficient speed to provide a true measure of deuterium content at the time of sampling. However, this proves to be impossible. The next best thing is to monitor the time course of back-exchange under conditions approximating those used for digestion and separation, and use these data to extrapolate back to the time of sampling. Figure 4.5 shows a typical time course for back exchange using the 4 day aliquot from folded Gal3 deuterium exchange. The peak at 7.98 ppm is an artifact which appears to arise as a mirror image due to strong solvent peak of H_2O and ACN. However, the peaks at 8.51 ppm and 7.73 ppm corresponding to amide proton resonances from the two phenylalanines in the HFNPRF peptide are applied to indicate the

deuteron incorporation tendency. Their back-exchange rates are very different. The peak at 7.73 ppm appears to have full proton intensity at the first back-exchange time point with little variation in intensity occurring over 12 hr. Its back-exchange rate is clearly very fast. The peak at 8.51 ppm back-exchanges more slowly, starting with reduced intensity and more than doubling its intensity over 12 hr.

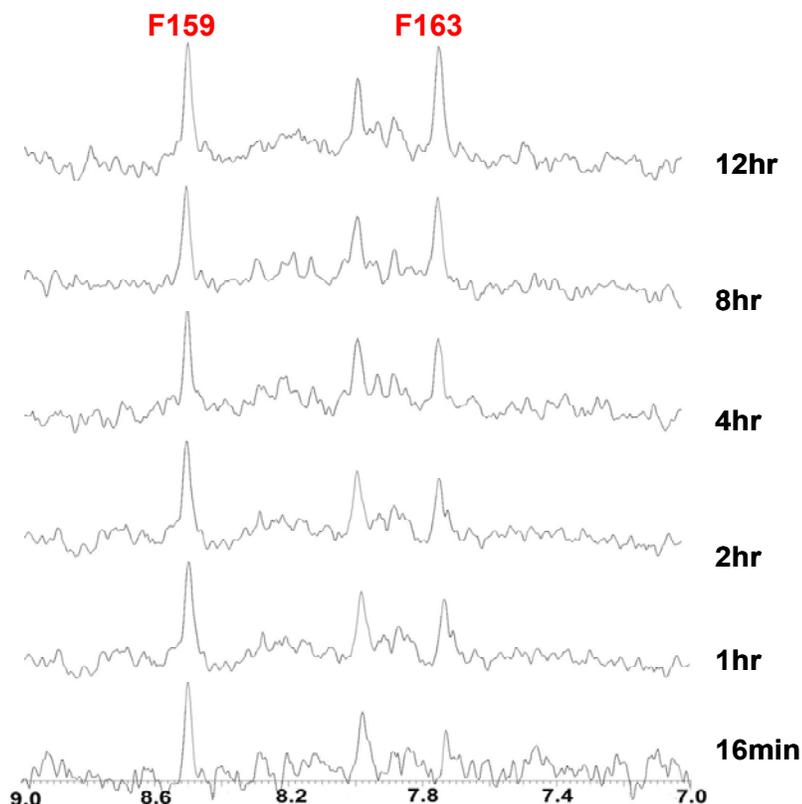


Figure 4.5. H/D exchange of peptide HFNPRF using ^{15}N filtered NMR data. The experiment starts by thawing 500 μL of the frozen aliquot in a 5 mm NMR tube with 100 μL deuterated CD_3CN at 0 $^\circ\text{C}$.

The rates of back-exchange turn out to be useful for purposes other than extrapolation back to the point of initial sampling. They can be used to make assignments of the two phenylalanines in the HFNPRF peptide²⁰. The strategy is based on the fact that

rates of amide exchange are predictable given a peptide sequence, even if the solvents are mixed aqueous-organic solvents. The rate for F159 is predicted to be nearly two orders of magnitude faster than F163. Hence, we assign the 7.73 ppm resonance to the F159 amide and the resonance at 8.51 ppm to the F163 amide. For this first application of this assignment strategy, the assignment was confirmed using a combination of proton NOESY and TOCSY data. The F163 amide resonance shows a distinct connectivity to an alpha proton that has been assigned to an arginine residue from the TOCSY pattern. The sequential occurrence of these residues in the peptide independently supports the assignment.

In principle, rates derived from data such as that presented in Figure 4.5 can be used to more accurately extrapolate deuterium content to the time of aliquot removal. Figure 4.6 shows plots of back-exchange for aliquots at 2min, 4hr, 18hr and 4 days. The resonance at 7.73 ppm is at full magnitude from the very beginning for all four aliquots. This prevents any quantitative analysis of back-exchange and any attempt to deduce deuterium content at the time of sampling. However, the back-exchange rate for the resonance at 8.51 ppm is slower and extrapolations can be made. The back exchange of this residue at four different time points and levels of deuteration has been fit to the exponential function given in Equation 4.2.

$$H(t) = H_0 + A \times (1 - \exp(-k_{\text{ex}}t)) \quad \text{Eq. 4.2.}$$

$H(t)$ gives the proton level retained at time t ; H_0 is the value at the time zero that we desire, and k_{ex} is the exchange rate. When Gal3 exchanges in D_2O for 4 hr, 18 hr and 4 days, the number of deuterium incorporated into the protein increases. Due to some variation in solvent composition, back exchange rates vary slightly and were therefore fit individually. The rates for the 4 hr, 18 hr and 4 day aliquots are 0.0040 min^{-1} , 0.0016 min^{-1} , and 0.0029 min^{-1} respectively. The intercept of each figure gives the proton level at the time the sample was put into the magnet. Here we use the data of the HFNPRF peptide of 4 day aliquot as an

example again shown in Figure 4.6 d). After normalization to the recorded full intensity in each case, the intercepts for the 2 min, 4 hr, 18 hr, and 4 day aliquots were 1.0, 0.66, 0.50 and 0.45 respectively. The 4 day point for the slower exchanging site in this particular peptide should be completely deuterated. About 45% proton level was the result of additional exchange that occurred during the digestion and HPLC separation.

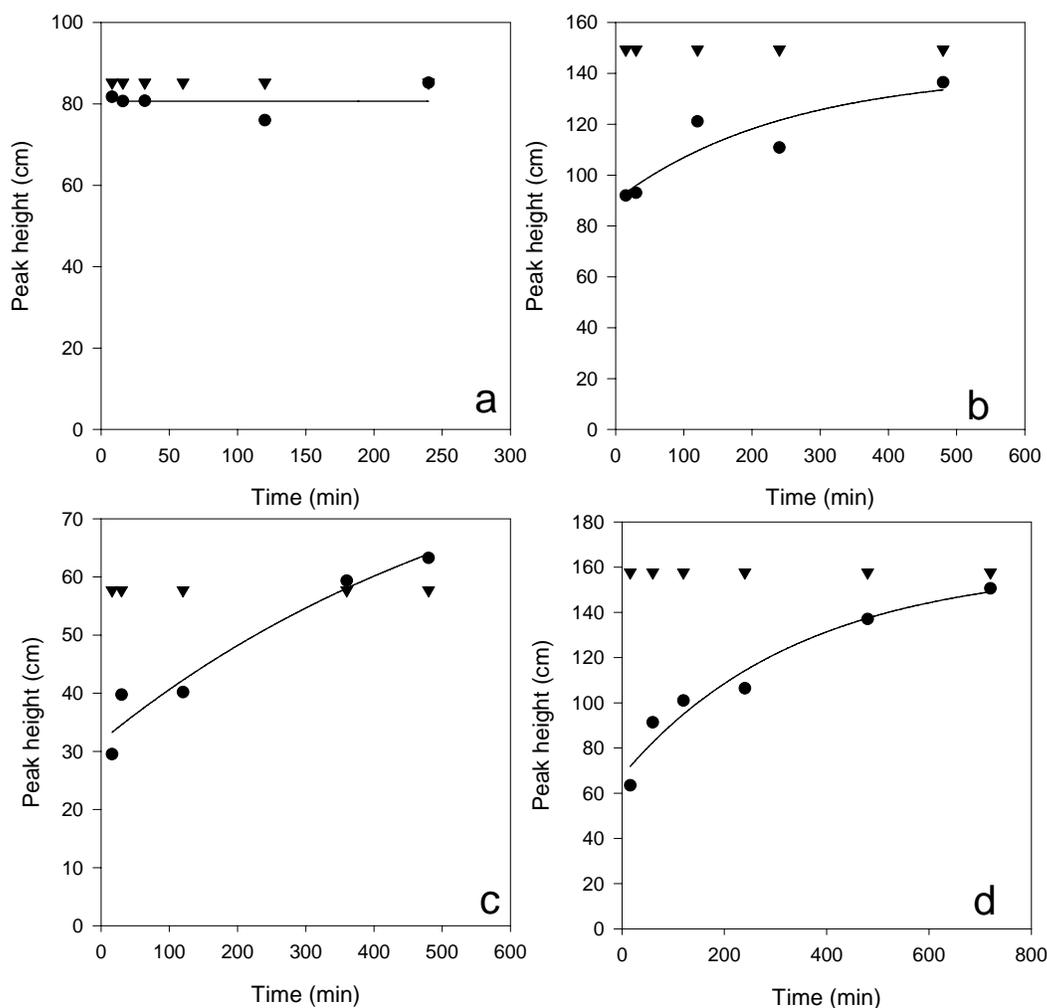


Figure 4.6. Peak heights of F159 (▼) and F163 (●) amide resonances as a function of back exchange times. a) 2 min aliquot. b) 4 hr aliquot; c) 18 hr aliquot; d) 4 day aliquot.

To quantify back exchange during the HPLC step, a fully deuterated peptide HFNPRF was prepared and subjected to HPLC separation for 12 min and the back exchange

rate as above. The intercept for the 8.51 ppm response shows the back exchange as high as 30% during the HPLC step. This is considerably higher than expected for the 12 min run and suggests that better cooling of the HPLC or possibly use of different column material might improve data collection in the future. The remaining 15% loss during digestion is more acceptable, but might also be improved. For the current analysis, the apparent deviation of deuterium content from 100% in the long time point (4 days) can be used to correct for inadvertent exchange in the earlier steps. The deuterium level for the 2 min, 4 hr, 18 hr, and 4 day aliquots after back exchange correction were 1.0, 0.41, 0.13 and 0.05, respectively. The corrected data as a function of time is plotted in Figure 4.7. The data is best fit to the exponential decay curve of Equation 4.3.

$$H(t) = 0.8153 \times \exp(-0.0018 \times t) \quad \text{Eq. 4.3.}$$

$H(t)$ stands for the proton level retained at the sequential time interval t . The exchange rate is 0.0018 min^{-1} , and the half life is 385 min. This rate is listed in the last column of Table 1 also for comparison to data obtained on the folded protein by Hadamard HSQC spectroscopy.

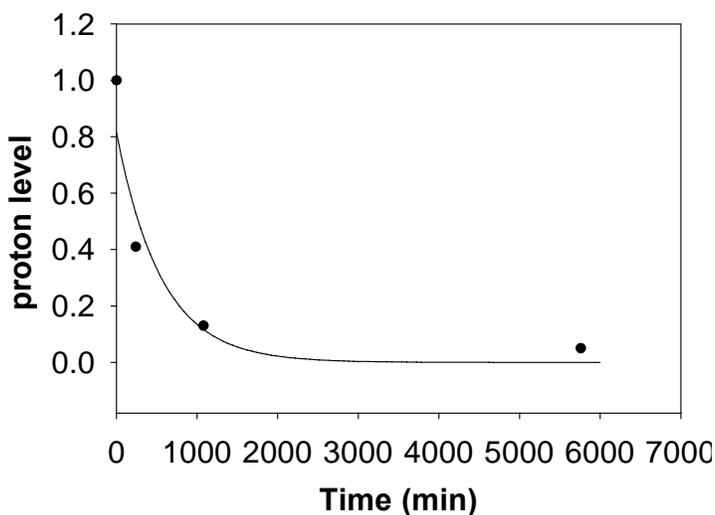


Figure 4.7. Corrected proton level vs. time for F163 of the peptide HFNPRF.

4.4 Discussion

4.4.1 Correlate exchange rates of ^{15}N F Gal3 from 2D Hadamard HSQC with 3D protein structure

The data in Table 4.1 clearly illustrate an ability to assign resonances based on correlation of amide proton exchange rates measured from Hadamard-HSQC spectra on the intact protein and from 1D spectra on derived peptides that can be sequentially placed based on mass spectrometry data. There is actually quite a wide distribution of rates for different cross-peaks in the HSQC spectrum. These rates range from greater than $7.7 \times 10^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$ to less than $3.65 \times 10^{-5} \text{ min}^{-1}$. The exchange rate determined for the more slowly exchanging phenylalanine of the HFNPRF peptide matches that for peak assigned to F163 within 10%. No other rate matches within a factor of 7. Had the cross-peak of F163 not been previously assigned, we could have assigned it on the basis of amide proton exchange rate correlations.

In reality, we are often facing larger protein systems with post-translation modification, which are difficult to study by routine NMR methods and crystallography. The particular example presented here is ST6Gal1, which has suitable size for NMR study but no structure information. 2D TROSY experiment largely extends NMR's ability by dramatically improving line widths for ^{15}N - ^1H cross peaks in 2D spectrum. Assigning resonance peaks in these sensitive 2D HSQC version of spectra requiring only ^{15}N isotopic labeling grant them an important experiment for protein structural study by residual dipolar coupling (RDC), paramagnetic perturbation of spin relaxation, and pseudocontact chemical shift. The conventional assignment strategy is time and effort consuming due to multiple isotopic labeling and 3D data collection and interpretation. This proposed strategy of resonance assignments for proteins labeled with selected ^{15}N amino acids has no size limitation as long

as TROSY of specific labeled proteins can be achieved. In addition, it requires less peptides to assign the amide protons by back exchange monitored by 1D NMR than by 2D NOESY and TOCSY. Furthermore, once the experimental conditions are verified, the whole procedure might be able to be automated. Therefore the reproducibility of the results will be more accurate for data correlation to accomplish the goal of protein resonance assignment.

We have presented just a single assignment on Gal3 for the purpose of illustration. However, application to assignment in cases where other strategies are not an option is ongoing. The sialyltransferase, ST6Gal1, is of interest to us as a structural target and a target for ligand-protein interactions (ref Meng, Lu). This protein is typical of a number of important eukaryotic proteins in that it is glycosylated and has not yet been expressed in significant amounts with significant activity in the bacterial hosts typically used for uniform isotopic labeling. It has been expressed in mammalian cell cultures using single amino acids enriched in ^{15}N . The resulting HSQC (TROSY) spectra are well resolved (16 peaks for phenylalanine labeling), and allow extraction of structural data from spectral parameters, RDCs and paramagnetic perturbations. A new assignment strategy is clearly valuable in cases like this.

There are several issues that arise in anticipating application to larger proteins that include issues such as whether the dispersion of exchange rates will be adequate to allow unique assignments and whether efficiency can be improved to allow large numbers of assignments in an acceptable time period. We can gain insight into some of these issues by a closer examination of the Gal3 data. The amide exchange rates for Gal3 are widely dispersed as indicated above, but we have only set limits of some of the lower ones and one might question their possible degeneracy if actually measured. The rates do correlate to some extent with placement of the sites in the structure of Gal3 (PDB: 1A3K) shown in Figure 4.8. For example, F149, F157, F159, F198 and F209 are located in the rigid secondary

structure of β -sheet. The exchange rates for these sites are the extremely low ones on which we just set limits. However, we do expect considerable variations among these sites. Even though they are in a common secondary structure element, the rates we measure are the product of a stability factor (that could be similar for sites within the same secondary structure element), and an intrinsic exchange rate. The intrinsic rates are dependent on sequence and are expected to vary over a factor of 4 for the five β -sheet sites. F163, F190 and F192 have intermediate or fast exchange rates since they are in regions of less well defined structure such as loops or turns at the ends of β strands. These vary significantly (at least a factor of 7) despite a similar lack of structure in their environments. This may reflect sequence dependent intrinsic rates as described above or more subtle variations in environment.

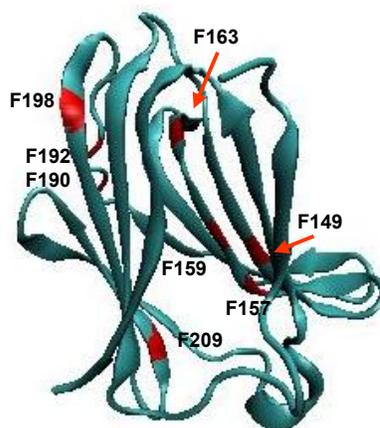


Figure 4.8. The crystal structure of Gal3 in cyan with all 8 phenylalanines labeled in red.

4.4.2 Back exchange correction for 1D ^{15}N filtered NMR observation of Gal3 peptic peptides

While it was not necessary to measure exchange rates precisely in the example given, accuracy can also become an issue for larger proteins with larger numbers of labeled sites, as can efficiency in determination of multiple rates. The Hadamard-HSQC methods for measurements on the folded protein are quite robust and efficient. Measurements need to be

spread over prolonged periods of time, but the actual data acquisition times is short (a total of about 12 hr for 6 points).

There are, however, areas where the accuracy of measurements on derived peptides can be improved. Our back exchange levels are quite high (45% for F163) with higher levels completely prohibiting exchange rate determination (for example F159). The estimated back exchange level as high as 45% in our experimental condition is reasonable comparing to the values in literature²¹. This back exchange occurs not only during the time required for NMR observation, but during HPLC separation and digestion as well. The HPLC separation causes 30% of back exchange based on a control experiment. About 15% back exchange has to belong to pepsin digestion step. Control of temperature during HPLC separation and perhaps selection of alternate packing material are areas to be explored that could reduce the size of back-exchange corrections. In this work we attempted to make back exchange corrections by collecting data on peptides over a series of time points while a peptide sample was in the spectrometer. However, because of the apparent unpredictable contributions to exchange during digestion and separation, we found it necessary to make corrections by collecting data on a very long time aliquot for which we could assume deuterium incorporation to be complete. Collecting this additional long time aliquot in place of collecting back exchange time courses on each peptide from aliquot may ultimately prove more efficient. However, there are other reasons to accurately monitor back exchange under well defined conditions for some peptides. In particular, it appears possible to assign resonances in peptides containing multiple labeled sites by correlation of back exchange measurements with sequence based predictions²⁰. Efficiency can also be improved by proper automation and improved sensitivity. Robotic melting of samples and injection using flow probe technology would significantly reduce manual effort and probably improve reproducibility of measurements on peptides. Sensitivity improvements could also reduce

data acquisition time and make measurements with less back exchange possible. For peptide samples, which can be handled in a variety of solvents at high concentrations, new technology using micro coil probes²², HTSC (high temperature super conductor) probes²³, or DNP methods^{24, 25} may well be applicable.

Hence, we are optimistic about the potential of making assignments for proteins labeled only with ¹⁵N in specific amino acids. We were successful in making an assignment on a relatively small protein (Gal3-CRD, MW 15.6 kDa) digesting about 1 mg of sample for each aliquot. Since a typical NMR sample uses about 7 mg of protein, the amount required for observation of up to 7 data points is no more than that needed for a second NMR sample. The time required will be dominated by the peptide analysis, which scales with the number of peaks to be assigned. If we were to collect back exchange data for just 30 min on each peptide, 7 aliquots with 10 peaks to be assigned would require 35 hr, about the same time required for the collection of a standard HNCACB, HN(CO)CACB pair used in triple resonance backbone assignments. The most important thing, however, is the method may make NMR structural characterization applicable to proteins that do not readily express in the usual bacterial hosts, in particular, proteins requiring glycosylation or chaperone mediated folding.

Table 4.1. Amide exchange rates of phenylalanines for ^{15}N F Gal3 measured from with Hadamard spectroscopy the folded protein and from 1D ^{15}N filtered spectroscopy on the derived peptide HFNPRF.

Res.	$^1\text{H}_{\text{ppm}}$	$^{15}\text{N}_{\text{ppm}}$	$k_{\text{ex}} (\text{min}^{-1})_{(\text{protein})}$	$k_{\text{ex}} (\text{min}^{-1})_{(\text{peptide})}$
F149	9.352	127.571	1.25E-04	
F157	7.648	120.801	3.63E-05	
F157^a	7.648	120.801	<3.66E-05	
F159^a	8.417	129.012	<3.66E-05	
F163	8.125	120.801	1.72E-03	1.80E-03
F163^a	8.125	120.801	2.32E-03	
F190^a	8.364	127.571	>7.7E-01	
F192	5.81	113.658	1.20E-02	
F198^a	8.772	118.419	8.70E-05	
F209^a	8.558	114.342	<3.66E-05	

a. Additional data is repeatedly collected on ^{15}N uniformly labeled Gal3 and adjusted to pH 7.8 at 25 °C.

4.5 References

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CHAPTER 5

H/D EXCHANGE BY ECD– ASSESSMENT OF SCRAMBLING DURING ANALYSIS¹

¹Feng, L. M.; Orlando, R.; Prestegard, J. H. To be submitted to *Journal of the American Society for Mass Spectrometry*.

Abstract

As an additional approach to measurement of hydrogen-deuterium amide exchange in proteins and derived peptides, electron capture dissociation-Fourier transform ion cyclotron resonance mass spectrometry (ECD-FTICR-MS) is explored as a means of improving site specificity. This technique provides ultra high mass resolution and the option of in-spectrometer fragmentation. Most in-spectrometer methods of fragmentation result in extensive scrambling of deuterons at amide sites. However, the free radical cleavage on which ECD fragmentation is based is thought to minimize this. Here the proton/deuteron scrambling issue for ECD is explored by comparing H/D exchange MS data to NMR data. Based on a preliminary study of angiotensin I (AT1), the levels of deuteration at different amino acids as determined by ECD FTMS qualitatively correlate with levels predicted from NMR data. However, the deuteron content is lower at most sites by 2.5 times in the ECD analysis while excessive deuterium is retained at the N-terminus. These observations offer some promise for ECD as a means of following sites specific amide exchange, but also suggest that means of further minimizing scrambling might be elucidated through a more extensive investigation of different peptide fragments by both NMR and ECD MS.

5.1 Introduction

MS analysis of the deuterium content of peptides derived from proteins is now widely used to study protein conformation, interaction and dynamics.¹⁻⁵ It offers tremendous advantage in requiring little sample and being applicable to relatively large systems. However, structural resolution is generally limited by the size of digested peptides and an inability to localize deuterium content to particular amino acids within a peptide. These methods could be of importance to our MS assisted assignment strategy for NMR resonances if the localization of deuterium to a single amino acid could be improved. Hence, I devote some attention to this prospect in this chapter.

One approach to improving localization is focused on obtaining small and overlapping peptic peptides from the protein. The difference in deuterium uptake between two overlapping peptides can then narrow the spatial resolution down to a few (or even one) amide backbone protons. This can be aided by proteolytic digestion with multiple acidic enzymes.⁶ LC/MS/MS has also been suggested as a method to further fragment peptides in the spectrometer using different dissociation methods.^{2,7} However, in reality, it is difficult to get sufficient coverage with digested peptides, and since most MS/MS approaches involve high energy, there is significant loss of site-specific information due to scrambling of amide deuterons during fragmentation.⁸⁻¹⁰

Fourier-transform ion cyclotron resonance mass spectrometry (FTICR MS) seems especially well-suited for the mass spectrometry part of hydrogen exchange analysis because of its ultrahigh mass resolution and mass accuracy.¹¹⁻¹³ For instance, the mass accuracy of the FT stage of LTQ FT MS (Thermo Electron Corporation, Waltham MA) can reach 2 ppm, while that of the front end, LTQ ESI MS, is 0.1 Da at the measurement range of 150-2000 Da. Isotopic peaks of an intact protein and protein fragments can be well resolved, and most of the proteolytic fragments of a protein can be identified by their accurate masses, thereby reducing

the need for MS/MS or other partial sequencing of each fragment. One more attractive aspect of FTMS is that it allows use of a variety of fragmentation methods, including electron capture dissociation (ECD).¹⁴⁻¹⁷ ECD involves irradiation of gas-phase multiply charged cations with low energy electrons, resulting in unique fragmentation pathways via radical ion intermediates. This process is depicted in Figure 5.1 Capture of an electron at a positive center localized near the carbonyl results in a fragmentation primarily at the N-C α bonds along the peptide backbone.

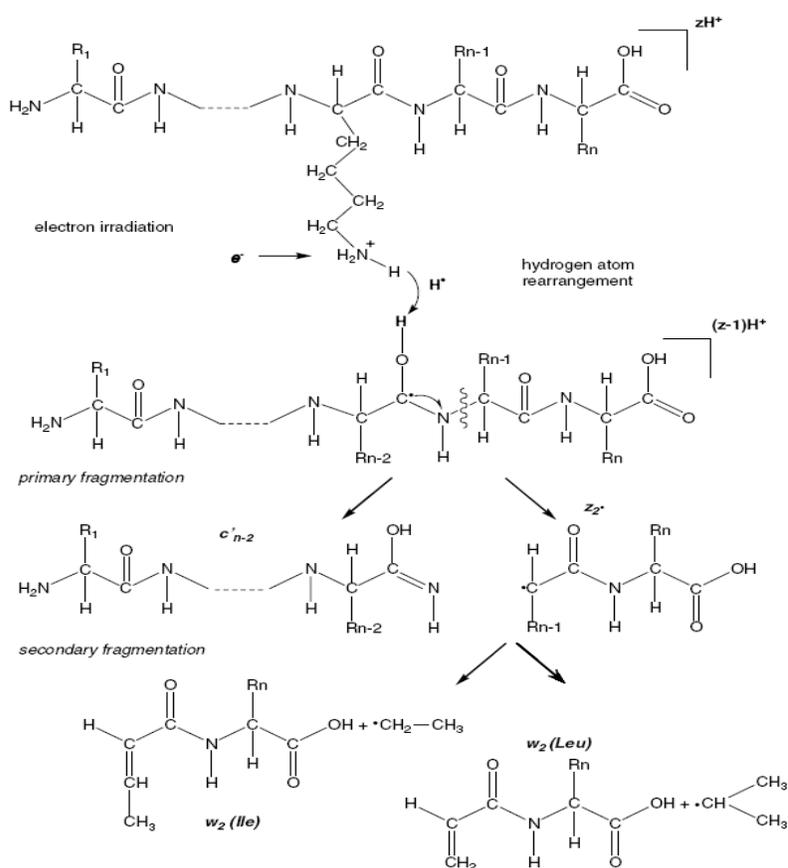


Figure 5.1. Schematic illustration of the ECD mechanism following the hot hydrogen atom model.¹⁸ Main primary and secondary fragmentation pathways in ECD of peptide cations are shown.

Compared to b and y ions produced by collision induced dissociation (CID), ECD generates c and z^{*} type ions without appreciably affecting even far weaker noncovalent

bonds. The process is nonspecific and effective cleavage results in greater peptide sequence coverage than other ion dissociation techniques.¹⁹⁻²¹ The presence and position of the basic amino acid residues (Arg, Lys, His) in a peptide sequence can, however, play an important role in the ECD efficiency, relative fragment abundances and types of ions formed.¹⁶ Therefore, ECD can be applied to proteolytic fragments or even a “top down” whole protein characterization.^{16, 17, 22} Major challenges in optimizing ECD conditions, especially for larger protein ions, have been the following: (1) ion-electron trapping conditions for high capture efficiency; (2) denaturation of interfering tertiary noncovalent structure; and (3) minimizing product degradation caused by secondary electron capture.¹⁸ Consequently, new techniques, such as the introduction of a second pair of electron-trapping electrodes, the “activated ion (AI)” method, and the plasma ECD method are actively being developed to meet the needs of more demanding applications.¹⁴

Besides the advantages for proteomics applications, ECD is a non-ergodic process, which means the dissociation takes place prior to randomization of vibrational energy over all degrees of freedom in the peptide or protein ion.²³ The time-scale of an ECD reaction is estimated to be around 10^{-12} s, which is much shorter than the typical time in ergodic, or slow-heating, fragmentation processes.²⁴ In addition, the excess energy only slightly exceeds the amount required for the desired bond rupture and deposition of energy occur near the bond to be broken. As a result, ECD is an ion dissociation method that can cleave a strong bond in presence of a weak bond. Therefore, ECD can improve sequencing efficiency of peptides with multiple disulfide bridges and facilitate mapping of post-translational modification sites.²⁵⁻²⁷ Moreover, there are some secondary fragmentation processes (*w*-ion formation) in ECD which help distinguish amino acids such as leucine and isoleucine. The structures and characteristic side-chain losses in *w*-ion formation for Ile and

Leu residues are schematically shown in Figure 5.1, assuming the corresponding amino acid side chain is attached to an α -carbon radical.

One unknown in ECD applications is the extent to which H/D rearrangement may occur. Specificity of exchange information can be degraded by intramolecular migration of hydrogens or deuterium, which involves the redistribution of hydrogen isotopes over the peptide ion as a consequence of high hydrogen mobility.²⁸ The extent of scrambling using CID MS/MS was found to be highly dependent on the nature of the charge carrier and the exact amino acid sequence.⁹ ECD may have a possibility as a lower energy method of eliminating amide-H/D scrambling during MS/MS and to probe the microenvironments of individual amide sites directly from species >5 kDa.²⁹ Since the mechanism of ECD is an ongoing investigation and debate, the qualification and quantification of the scrambling issue is worth studying. Some initial ECD reports indicate that some limited scrambling takes place.²³ Two main hypotheses for ECD fragmentation involve hydrogen rearrangement: in the ‘hot hydrogen atom’ mechanism²⁷, a hydrogen atom is relocated from a protonated site (*e.g.* arginine or lysine side chain) to a back bone carbonyl oxygen; and in the ‘amide superbase’ mechanism³⁰, a proton is transferred to a backbone amide radical site. But neither of the proposed mechanisms can rationalize the proton scrambling issue on the original backbone amide sites. O’Conner suggested a radical cascade mechanism in which the initially formed α -carbon radical can propagate along a peptide backbone by free radical rearrangement or by hydrogen abstraction²⁸. They tested the mechanism by using small cyclic peptides as shown in Figure 5.2.

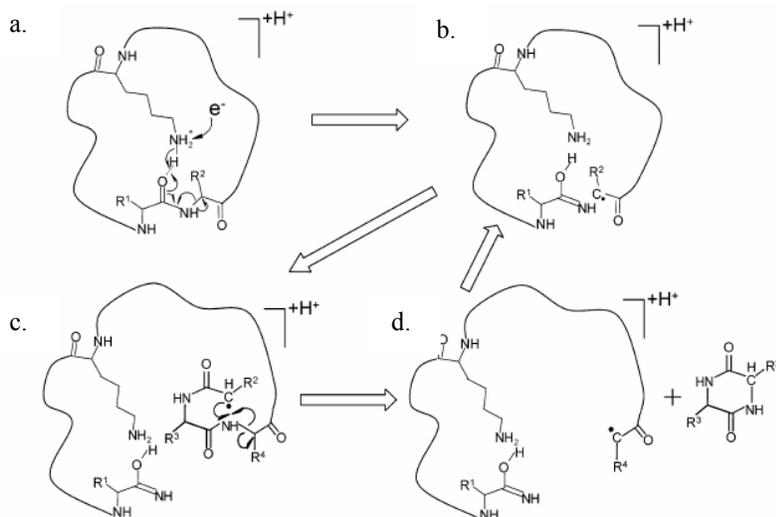


Figure 5.2. Nonergodic cleavage from electron capture dissociation (a→b) initiates an α -carbon radical which can propagate along a peptide backbone by free radical rearrangements (b→c→d), cleaving the N-C α bond and forming another α -carbon radical²⁸.

It would clearly be useful to provide some reliable data on the original placement of deuterons to help distinguish such mechanisms. A method to qualify and quantify the scrambling issue by comparing H/D deuterium exchange using ECD FT MS with rates measured by 1D proton NMR observation is proposed here. Angiotensin I (AT1) is used as a model peptide. The sequence of AT1 is DRVYIHPFHL, which has the molecular weight of 1296.5 Da. The basic amino acid, arginine, is the second amino acid from the N-terminus. Proline in the middle of the sequence has no amide protons. This peptide is inexpensive to purchase, and is used to mimic the peptic fragments of targeted protein sample after digestion. One can mimic peptic peptides from a partially deuterated protein sample by allowing the inherent differences in back-exchange rates of AT1 to produce partially and specifically deuterated peptides. The experiment will be strictly controlled at 0°C, pH 2.5 for both experiments. Extracted rates will be localized to as specific a sequential position as possible and correlated with NMR based rates demonstrated in Figure 5.3. The study will be of significance in studying the inter- and intra- proton migration mechanism.

Sample: deuterated peptic peptide in H₂O, ²H → ¹H

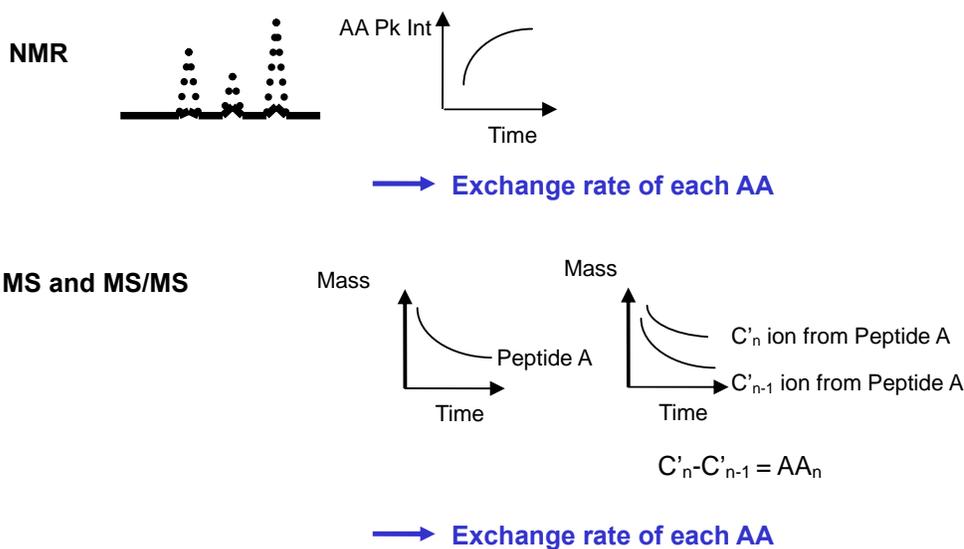


Figure 5.3. Schematic illustration of H/D exchange rates comparison by NMR and MS for ECD scrambling exploration.

The data on AT1 are useful in establishing the potential of ECD analysis and identifying some of the problems that must be solved. But the data are on just one peptide and we must consider how our observations might apply to other peptides. AT1 is special in one way that it has an arginine near the N-terminus. For peptides generated by pepsin digestion the positions of positively charged amino acids, such as arginines and lysines, will be randomly distributed in the sequence. They are not preferentially located at the c-terminus, as in peptides from trypsin digestion. As a result, two concerns arise. First of all, multiple charged parent ions have better chances for ECD ion dissociation. So short fragments with possibly only a single charge after pepsin digestion are not good for initiating ECD fragmentation. Secondly, if basic amino acids are randomly located in the parent ions, it is likely that no complete c or z⁺ series will be observed. Therefore, the design of a different experimental protocol may be required to achieve better ECD fragmentation. A shorter digestion time and lower pepsin to protein ratio may help to get longer peptides, which might

have several basic residues in the fragments to produce multiply charged parent ions for ECD. In addition, other acidic enzymes, like protease XIII and XVIII, can be applied instead of pepsin to initiate different sets of fragmentation and get large peptides.⁶

5.2 Experimental

5.2.1 D/H exchange of AT1 by NMR

A 5 mg/mL deuterated AT1 sample was prepared by dissolving 0.5 mg lyophilized AT1 in 100 μ L 99.9% D₂O and storing it at room temperature for 24 hr. The sample was lyophilized again and redissolved in the 300 μ L quench solvent (75% CD₃CN, 25% H₂O and 1 M deuterated acetic acid) at pH 2.8. Acetic acid was used here to lower the pH because it does not have a peak in the amide region of a 1D NMR spectrum that can interfere with amide resonance observation and it is a good ion pairing agent that does not suppress electron spray efficiency. The high amount of organic solvent, CD₃CN, helps to slow the H/D back exchange process for observation. It also has no exchangeable protons and all other proton positions are deuterated. Once the AT1 protonation reaction starts, the sample was quickly injected into the flow cell of a Varian 800 MHz NMR spectrometer equipped with a cryoprobe maintained at 8 °C. After locking, shimming, and tuning on 300 μ L quench solvent in advance, data were acquired at 4 min, 8 min, 30 min and 1 hr time points. Acquisitions required 3 min for 128 scans of the first time point, longer for later time points, using repetitions of 1.4 s. The assignment of amide proton resonances was accomplished using 2D watergate TOCSY and ROESY experiments at the end of AT1 D/H exchange experiment. These experiments used standard pulse sequences from the Varian Biopack library. The NOESY mixing period was 0.2 s with a repetition time of 1.4 s. The TOCSY mixing period was 80ms with a repetition time of 1.4 s. These experiments required 50 min and 3 hr 40 min respectively.

5.2.2 D/H exchange of AT1 by FT MS

5 μL of 5 mg/mL fully deuterated AT1 and 300 μL quench solvent (75% CD_3CN , 25% H_2O and 1 M deuterated acetic acid) was pre-cooled in a portable refrigerator at 8 $^\circ\text{C}$. Then the sample was quickly loaded into a pre-cooled 500 μL syringe, and electrosprayed in positive ion mode at 1 $\mu\text{L}/\text{min}$ (flow rate maintained by a Harvard Apparatus PHD 2000 syringe pump (Holliston, MA)). The electrospray emitter consisting of a 50 μm id fused silica capillary. Standard electrospray parameters for the 7 T LTQ FTICR MS (Thermo Electron Corporation, Waltham, MA) were used. The spray voltage was 1.8 kV, the capillary temperature was 220 $^\circ\text{C}$, the capillary voltage was 50 V, and tube lens voltage was 90 V. D/H exchange was monitored on-line for up to 2 hr by acquiring ECD spectra continuously.

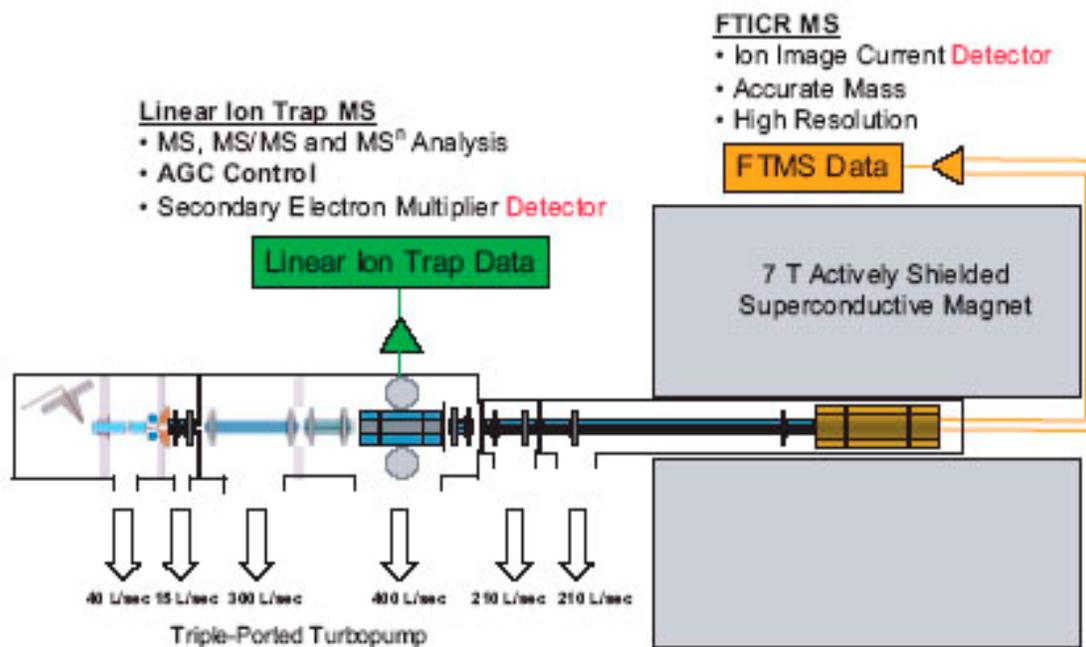


Figure 5.4. Working principle of the Thermo LTQ FT MS detector (from Manual, **Finnigan™ LTQ FT™ Getting Started**, Thermo Electron Corporation)

The acquisition method of each scan was mainly defined in the window shown in Figure 5.5. The mass range was 115 Da to 2000 Da. The mass resolution was chosen as

100000 anticipating a maximum m/z of 400 Da. The Inject Time was 3000 msec and Source Fragmentation was off. The Parent Mass for AT1 is 433.00 Da, which corresponds to the triply charged molecular ion of AT1. The Isolation Width was set to a m/z of 5 to filter out complicating sample background. ECD MS/MS mode was turned on by the check box beside the ECD parameters. For our particular experiment on AT1, the Energy was 3.5%, the Delay was 0 msec and the Duration was 100 msec.

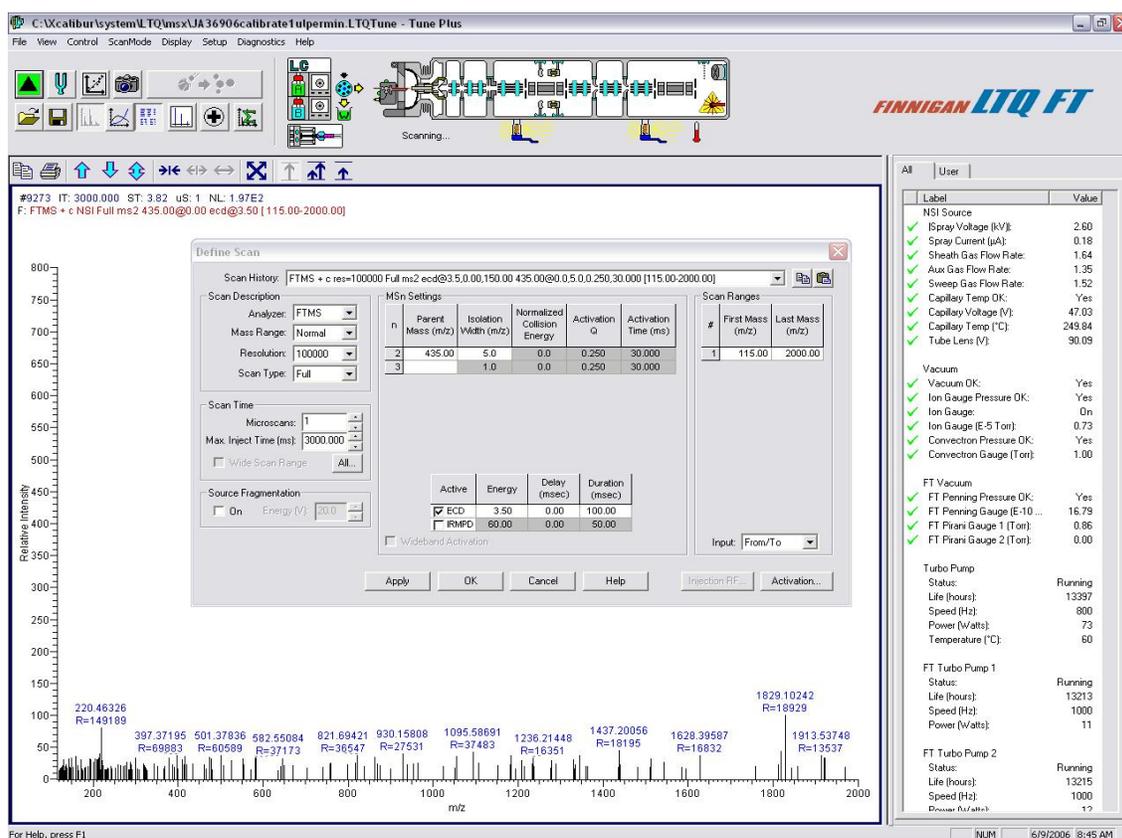


Figure 5.5. Interface of Xcalibur for defining FT MS acquisition scans. (Data acquisition software of LTQ FT MS, Thermo Electron Corporation)

5.2.3 Data analysis

On the NMR side, 2D ROESY and TOCSY spectra were used to accomplish amide proton resonance assignment in the 1D proton spectra. The results show that the amide proton region is not well resolved under the particular buffer conditions used (at 8 °C and

pH 2.8). The peaks of Y4/H9 and V3/F8 happen to overlap each other, and part of R2 amide multiplet is overlapped by aromatic protons of histidine. The amide peaks of four time points, 4 min, 8 min, 30 min, 1 hr were integrated and special attention was given to the estimation of deconvoluted peak area contributions of overlapped peaks. In the case of Y4/H9, the estimated portion of proton incorporation at each time point was simply divided in half, while in the case of V3/F8, the peak of V3 was slightly resolved on the left and could be seen to be growing slower than F8. So the estimated peak ratio based on the proton contribution of these two amide protons of four time points are 0.26/0.74, 0.33/0.67, 0.43/0.57, 0.46/0.54. For R2, since one half of the doublet on the left was not overlapped, this peak was used to calculate integration. Then the calculated integrals of all eight peaks were plotted vs. the four time points. An curve was fit to the data using the program SigmaPlot 8.0 and Equation 5.1. The integral of the amide proton peak, H, shows an exponential relationship with the product of exchange rate, K_{ex} , and time, t . H_0 is a constant to take care of any proton incorporation due to back exchange taking place before NMR observation. Hence the exchange rates of all eight amide protons as well as their exchange half-lives were obtained.

$$H=H_0+A \times (1-\exp(-K_{ex} \times t)). \quad \text{Eq. 5.1.}$$

On the MS side, the chromatograph of direct diffusion and H/D exchange spectra were analyzed using Qual Browser 1.4 version from the Thermo Electron Corporation. The most abundant molecular ion $[M+3H]^{3+}$ of AT1 was selected for MS/MS fragmentation by ECD. Monoisotopic m/z values for ECD product ions of protonated AT1 were assigned by comparing them to the predicted values from the program MS-Product (<http://prospector.ucsf.edu/ucsfhtml4.0/msprod.htm>, Peter Baker and Karl Clauser, UCSF Mass Spectrometry Facility).

The same FT MS parameters were used to monitor D/H exchange on fully deuterated AT1 samples dissolved in protonated solvent. The mass spectra accumulated over

6-10 min of chromatograph was analyzed to get deuterium incorporation data at 8 min, while that at 116-120 min was analyzed to get the endpoint data of the deuteration reaction. The deuterium content of each c or z⁺ ion while D/H exchanging at 8 min, is obtained by taking the difference between the centroid mass of a particular c or z⁺ ion at 8 min and that at the end point. The centroid mass of each peak profile was calculated by dividing the product of m/z and the intensity of each peak in the isotopic cluster and summing over the intensities. Then amino acid residue-specific deuterium content was assessed by first subtracting the average m/z of c_n or (z_m⁺) ions from that of c_{n+1} (or z_{m+1}⁺) ions for the same charge state (z) and multiplying by z to deduce the average mass of the deleted amino acid residue. Due to the structure of the c and z⁺ ions, the mass difference between c_{n+1} and c_n defines the amide deuterium content of the amino acid (n+2) together with any side chain deuteriums on amino acid (n+1), counting from the N-terminus. For z⁺ ions, the mass difference between z_{m+1}⁺ and z_m⁺ corresponds to the amide deuterium content of amino acid (m) along with any side chain deuteriums on amino acid (m+1), counting from the C-terminus.

5.3 Results and discussion

The 1D proton spectrum of AT1 is shown in Figure 5.6 for the chemical shift region 6.2-8.6 ppm. The peaks below 7.4 ppm belong primarily to aromatic protons. Amide protons overlap to some degree, but most can be assigned by 2D watergate TOCSY and ROESY as shown in Figure 5.7 and 5.8. TOCSY correlates all the protons in the same spin system (scalar coupled network). As an example the HN resonance at 7.73 ppm shows vertical connectivities to an H α at 4.03 ppm, and H β at 1.95 ppm, and two H γ resonance at 0.70 ppm. This is very characteristic of valine. ROESY is an NOE-based experiment that correlates the protons in space even if they are not bonded. It is a less sensitive experiment than TOCSY and also highly depended on molecular size. However, for peptides the size of

AT1 in organic solvents it is preferred over NOESY and it does show critical HN to H α connectivities that allow sequential assignment. For example, the HN resonance at 7.92 ppm shows connectivities to its own H α , but also to the H α assigned to valine. It must therefore belong to tyrosine. Note that tyrosine and phenylalanine cannot be distinguished based on their TOCSY spectra since both amino acids have similar H α -H β coupling patterns. Assignments for all resolved HN resonances are listed in Table 5.1.

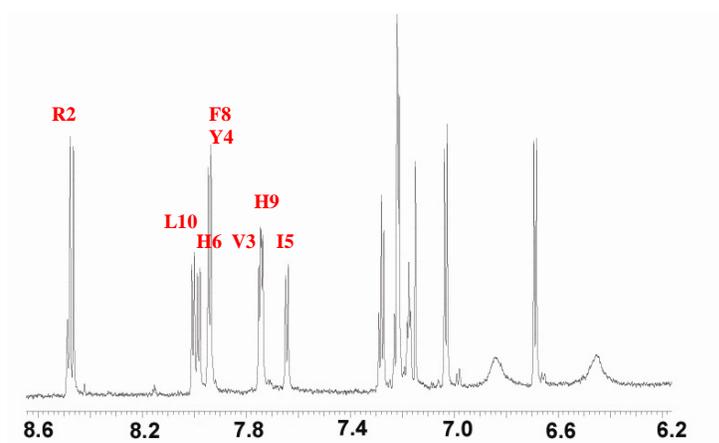


Figure 5.6. 1D proton PRESAT spectrum of protonated AT1 in 300 μ L 75% CD₃CN, 25% H₂O and 1 M deuterated acetic acid.

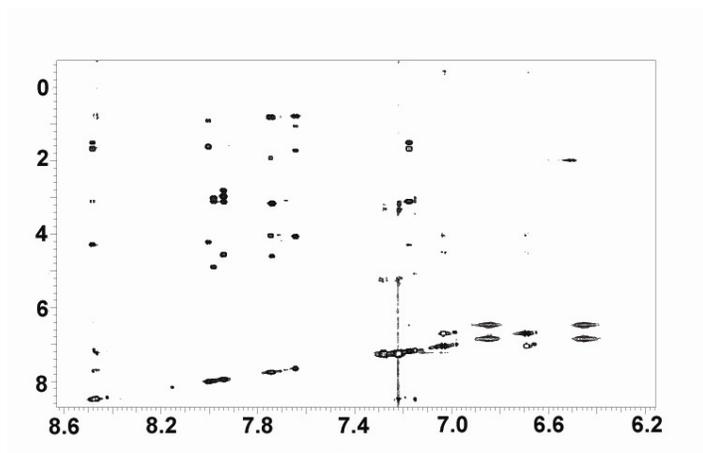


Figure 5.7. 2D watergate TOCSY spectrum of protonated AT1 in 300 μL 75% CD_3CN , 25% H_2O and 1 M deuterated acetic acid.

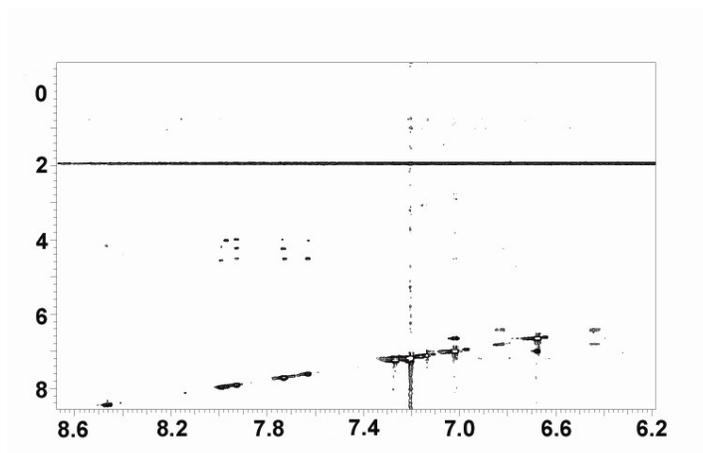


Figure 5.8. 2D watergate ROESY spectrum of protonated AT1 in 300 μL 75% CD_3CN , 25% H_2O and 1 M deuterated acetic acid.

When the fully deuterated AT1 is redissolved in protonated solvent, back exchange takes place. Since we are observing proton, not deuteron signals, the peak intensity increases as a function of time (Figure 5.9). The integral of each amide proton peak was calculated and plotted vs. time as described in the experimental section. Exponential curve fitting allows extraction of exchange rate constants for each amide site. The curve for I5,

whose exchange rate is 0.064 min^{-1} , is shown in Figure 5.10. Exchange rates for all the others are listed in the Table 5.2.

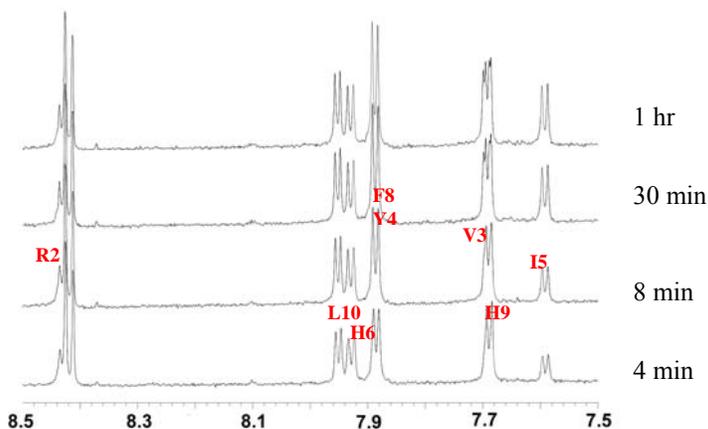


Figure 5.9. H/D exchange of AT1 monitored by 1D proton NMR. The experiment starts by mixing 300 μL quench solvent (75% CD_3CN , 25% H_2O and 1M deuterated acetic acid) with 0.5 mg fully deuterated AT1 at 8 $^\circ\text{C}$. Peaks are labeled by one letter codes for amino acids with vertical positions of labels roughly indicating the half life of each amide resonance.

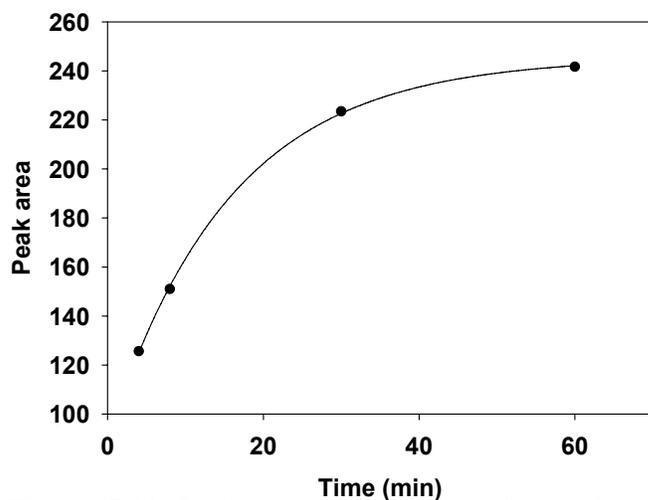


Figure 5.10. Peak area of I5 monitored as a function of time using 1D PRESAT proton NMR. The data are best fit with the exponential curve, $H = 89.71 + 155.74 \times (1 - \exp(0.0064 \times t))$.

The N-terminal amino acid, D1, is positively charged and undergoes very fast exchange with the solvent, so the exchange rate cannot be quantified. The other amide protons except proline exchange at slower and quite different rates. The range of exchange rates extends from 0.027 to 0.58 min⁻¹. Half lives are between 1.20 and 25.7 min. R2 and H9 are fast exchanging residues, while V3, I5 and L10 are slow ones. Table 5.2 indicates that all the amide protons finished exchanging half of the deuterons within 30 min.

The ECD FTMS spectrum of the protonated AT1 sample at the triply charged state was accumulated over 10 min for reference as shown in Figure 5.11. The singly charged c serial ions are the dominate product, while the singly charged z⁺ serial ions are sparse with very low intensity, making the calculation of site-specific D/H exchange from the latter series difficult. This particular fragmentation pattern is due to arginine, which is a basic amino acid, located near the N-terminus. The c ion series is complete except for c₆. Here cleavage of the proline N-C α bond does not result in loss of the proline atoms due to the additional N-C α bond.

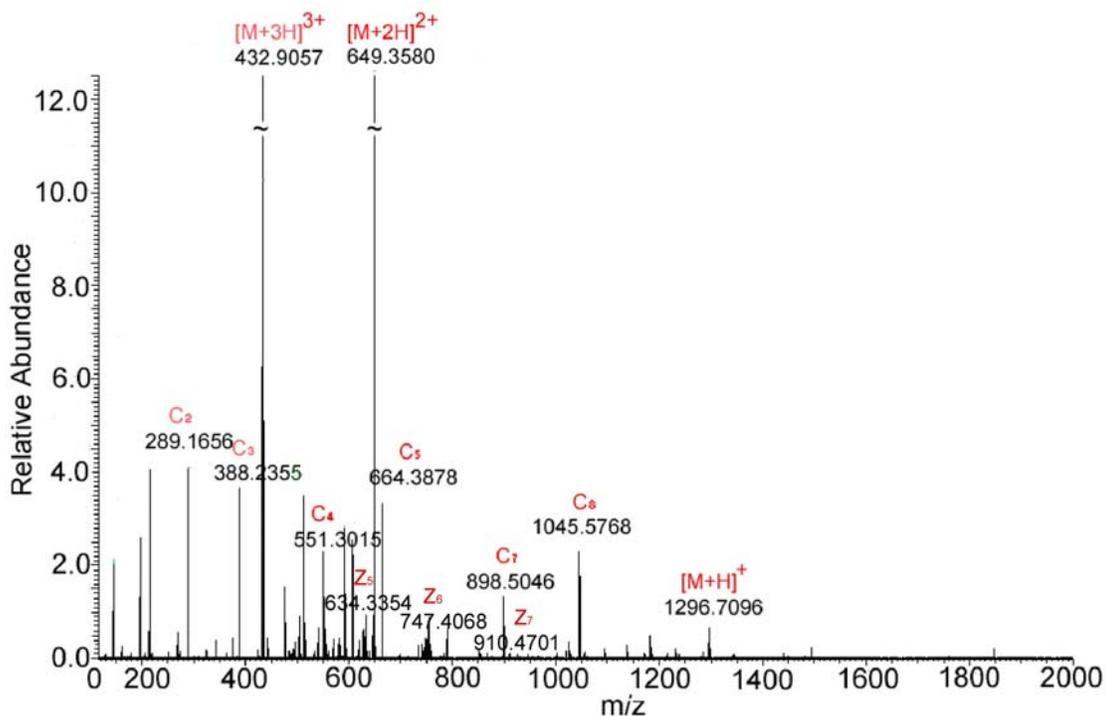


Figure 5.11. The ECD spectrum of protonated AT1. 5 mL of 5 mg/mL fully deuterated AT1 in 300 mL quench solvent (75% CD₃CN, 25% H₂O and 1 M deuterated acetic acid). Data were collected by ESI ICR FTMS.

D/H exchange of AT1 was monitored continuously for 2 hr by ECD FTMS under the same conditions as the NMR experiment. Since the exchange of one deuteron back to a proton will cause a decrease in mass of one, we expect a shift of mass profiles of the c ions with time. An example is shown in Figure 5.12 for the time evolution of the resolved isotopic distributions of the c₃⁺ and c₄⁺ ions. Due to the structure of c ions, the mass difference between these two ions is representative of the amide deuterium content of I5, along with one additional deuterium on the side chain of Y4. Since exchange at the side chain position is very fast, the effect is immediate and results in a constant offset of the profile.

Since the data analysis is complicated, I will focus here on the time point of 8 min for comparison of 1D NMR and ECD MS data. The centroid mass of c₃⁺ is shifted down 0.8883 Da from 389.5361 Da at 8 min to 388.6478 Da at 118 min, the ending time point, while that of c₄⁺ is shifted down 1.1491 Da from 553.0339 Da to 551.8847 Da. Therefore, after subtracting the deuterium level of c₃⁺ from c₄⁺ the approximate deuterium content at the I5 amide is 0.2608 Da, which stands for 26% deuteration taking place at this specific site. The whole analysis is summarized in the Table 5.3. The deuterium content on the c ion series is listed in the second column while the deuterium content at each particular amino acid is in the fourth column.

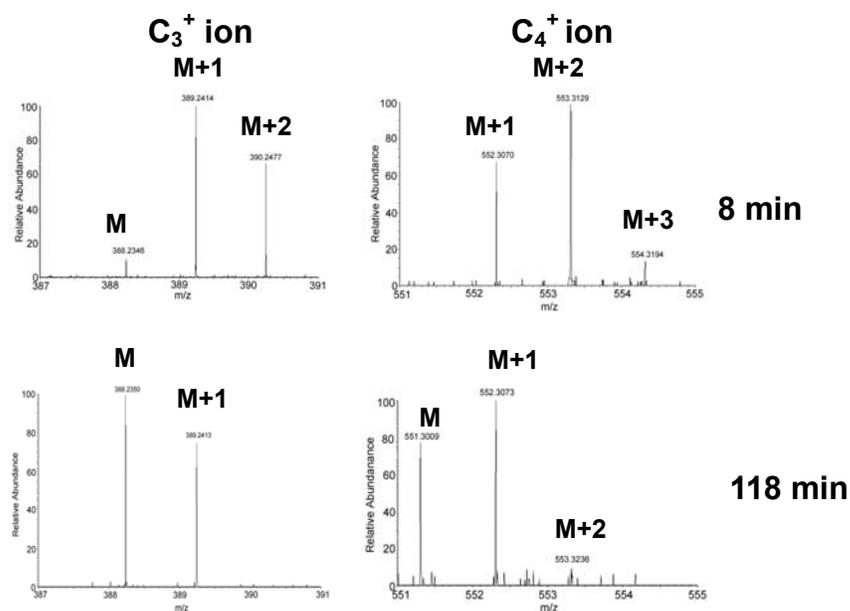


Figure 5.12. Expanded ECD product ion spectra showing the isotopic distribution of two consecutive c-type AT1 product ions as a function of D/H exchange time.

5.4 Discussion

Since the exchange rates of each amino acid determined from NMR data under identical experimental conditions is listed in Table 5.2, the expected deuterium content of AT1 at 8 min can be calculated using the equation $D = \sum_{i=1}^8 \exp(-k_i t)$. The number of deuterons present in AT1, D , is calculated by the sum of the eight peptide amides in AT1 when k_i is the exchange rate constant for each amide HN and t is D/H exchange time, 8 min.³¹ The deuterium content calculated from the NMR values is listed in the fifth column of Table 5.3 for comparison. The levels of deuterium at different amino acids as determined by ECD FTMS follow the levels predicted from NMR data reasonably well. The results indicate that H/D scrambling in ECD is not sufficient to prevent a qualitative analysis of the deuterium distribution over most sites in this peptide. The deuterium level is, however, lower by a factor of 2.5 in the ECD analysis, which could be due to enhanced exchange while in non-cooled portions of the MS electron spray source or during the ionization process. In addition, the

deuterium content of H9, yields a negative value by ECD MS. The exchange rate constant for H9 is 0.5756 min^{-1} , which is the fastest among all eight amide protons and agrees with the NMR data. The negative value could be due to the experimental error. Multiple measurements may help eliminate this anomaly. Electrospray efficiency also needs improvement in order to gain better mass intensity for ion identification and isotopic pattern calculation. One more interesting result from the data is excessive deuterium retained at the N-terminus. This indicates that one or more amino acid in the N terminal tri-peptide segment, DRV, exchanges very slowly. If this phenomenon is sequence dependent, V3 should exchange extremely slowly because D1 and R2 are fast D/H exchanging sites according to the NMR data. Another possibility is that the slow exchange phenomenon is normal for any N-terminal end involving some undiscovered mechanism. Is it possible that there is some scrambling under the conditions of the experiment that results in the excessive loss of deuterium from most sites and movement to the N-terminus? Sorting out these possible explanations will require exploring more peptides with/without arginine and lysine at both termini and getting more complete ionization of c and z' ions.

Hence, the general applicability of ECD to the determination of site-specific amide hydrogen exchange rates remains an area of debate. I would conclude from my data that there is some evidence for scrambling that moves deuterons to the N-terminus. There have been some other reports of amide exchange probed by ECD in the literature. Exchange rates for amides of melittin in methanol from c ions show some correlation with NMR data, however, evidence for deuterium scrambling in ECD was observed for z' ions.⁷ I expect further data correlation between ECD MS and NMR will be a powerful approach to explore possible mechanisms for scrambling and a powerful approach to adjusting parameters to minimize scrambling. The extent of scrambling is dependent on pressure, the collision activation energy and the gas-phase structure of the ion. These parameters can be

systematically adjusted to optimize a match to NMR data. In addition, scrambling could be a function of precursor ion size as well as local sequence effects. This will require an extensive investigation of different peptide fragments by both NMR and ECD MS.

Table 5.1. 1D proton NMR assignment of protonated AT1 in ACN/H₂O at 8 °C, pH 2.8 by TOCSY and ROESY.

No.	Res.	NH	H α	H β	H γ or H δ
1	D				
2	R	8.46	4.28	3.08/3.08	1.60/1.50
3	V	7.73	4.03	1.95	0.70/0.70
4	Y	7.92	4.56	3.08/3.08	
5	I	7.63	4.03	1.70	1.04/0.08
6	H	7.97	4.85	3.08/2.92	
7	P				
8	F	7.82	4.56	2.92/2.76	
9	H	7.73	4.60	3.13/3.13	
10	L	7.99	4.25	1.65/1.65	0.95

Table 5.2. Exchange rates for fully deuterated AT1 in protonated buffer at 8 °C, pH 2.8 by 1D NMR.

No.	Res.	K _{ex} (min ⁻¹)	T _{1/2} (min)
1	D		
2	R	0.5277	1.3135
3	V	0.0641	10.8135
4	Y	0.1025	6.7624
5	I	0.0640	10.8304
6	H	0.0918	7.5506
7	P		
8	F	0.1025	6.7624
9	H	0.5756	1.2041
10	L	0.0270	25.6721

Table 5.3. ECD and 1D NMR data comparison at 8 min.

c_n ion	D content (c_n ion, MS exp.)	differential AA	D content (AA=c_n-c_{n-1} ion, MS exp.)	D content (AA, NMR calc.)
c₂	0.7119	DRV	0.7119	0.61
c₃	0.8883	Y	0.1764	0.44
c₄	1.1491	I	0.2608	0.60
c₅	1.2650	H	0.1158	0.48
c₇	1.3857	(P)F	0.1208	0.44
c₈	1.2203	H	-0.1655	0.01

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CHAPTER 6

PRELIMINARY STUDIES ON ISOTOPICALLY LABELED ST6GAL1 BY COMBINED NMR AND MS METHODS¹

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Abstract

The feasibility of application of the new amide exchange based assignment strategy for NMR resonances has been explored on a large glycosylated protein that could not be expressed in a bacterial host. The protein is a 38 kDa sialyltransferase, ST6Gal1. Preliminary experimental data show that, for this protein, specific ^{15}N isotopic labels at one, or a small set of amino acids can be incorporated. Furthermore, pepsin digestion, HPLC separation and ^{15}N filtered 1D NMR observation of labeled amide sites on a particular peptide can be accomplished. This paves the way for application of amide H/D exchange experiments on ST6Gal1 using 2D Hadamard HSQC on the folded protein and 1D ^{15}N filtered NMR observation on derived peptides. By correlating these data, sufficient assignment of backbone amide resonances may be achieved to allow structure determination of this glycoprotein by NMR.

6.1 Introduction

As demonstrated in Chapter 4, we are able to get an accurate correlation of H/D exchange measured from NMR spectra of intact Gal3 and from NMR spectra of peptides derived from the intact protein. We illustrated this by making a definitive assignment of a peak in the HSQC spectrum to a specific phenylalanine in the sequence. This illustration, while restricted to a single site sets an important precedent for more extensive application to proteins that are large or difficult to label by conventional means.

Mammalian sialyltransferases play an important role in glycoprotein/glycolipid maturation, immune function and development. However, they are often glycosylated or require the presence of certain folding chaperones found only in eukaryotic cells. Structural data are not available for members of relevant enzyme families, greatly impeding further structural and functional characterization. As a first step in the structural characterization of these biomolecules by NMR, several issues need to be resolved. Can the spectra of large glycosylated proteins be simplified by isotopic labeling with specific amino acids? Can the protein be digested into peptides suitable for the application of labeling strategies described in previous chapters? And can sufficient quantities of peptide be obtained to allow NMR, as opposed to MS, observation of deuterium incorporation in peptides? Here, preliminary data on ST6Gal1, a 38 kDa glycosylated protein, is presented in an effort to resolve some of these issues. A complete H/D exchange study of this biological meaningful protein is progressing based on the results of studies presented here.

6.2 Experimental

6.2.1 Expression and preparation of ^{15}N phenylalanine (F) and glycine (G) labeled ST6Gal1

^{15}N specific labeled ST6Gal1 with His-tag was expressed in HEK 293 mammalian cells in the Moremen lab by Dr. Meng Lu. Expression used a Custom-Formulation

DMEM-4.5 medium (Atlanta Biologicals, Lawrenceville, GA). Amino acid stock solutions without ^{15}N or ^{13}C labeled amino acids were added to the medium following the DMED (Sigma D 1152) recipe, in which 15 amino acids are supplied in the media except glutamic acid, aspartic acid, alanine, histidine, and proline. Glycine or phenylalanine was added in their ^{15}N labeled forms again following the DMED recipe. This called for 60 and 132 mg/L respectively. The cells were grown for one week in T-175 flasks at 37 °C in the incubator. There were three rounds of scaling up and changing to the fresh medium containing puromycin. Then the cells are harvested, lysed and purified on a phenyl sepharose column, a Ni^{2+} -NTA IMAC column and a gel filtration column. The final protein was stored in 200 mM NaCl, 10 mM phosphate buffer, pH 7.4.

For the multiple labeled samples of ST6Gal1, the protein expression procedure exactly followed the steps above. The only difference was that ^{15}N glycine, phenylalanine, and leucine and ^{13}C valine were supplied simultaneously in the growth media.

6.2.2 Isotopic labeling efficiency as determined by NMR and MS Analysis

After decreasing the salt concentration of ST6Gal1, 200 μL of 0.3 mM protein was put into a 5 mm shigemi tube. After the Varian 800 MHz NMR spectrometer is locked, shimmed and tuned, 2D ^{15}N gradient HSQC spectra were collected. Each HSQC spectrum showed peaks corresponding to the expected numbers of the targeted ^{15}N labeled amino acids plus peaks corresponding to amino acids labeled by metabolic scrambling. Peaks were integrated to assess relative labeling efficiencies.

MS provides a sensitive method for assessing the isotopic distribution in specific amino acid types based on accurate mass determination of particular peptides and isotope profiles about those masses. This was used to determine the percentage of labeling of amino acids in our case. MALDI-TOF was used because of its high mass accuracy and mass resolution. By comparing the experimental and predicted isotope pattern, ^{15}N specific

labeling of ST6Gal1 sample is quantified and the scrambling of ^{15}N to other position(s) is located. The results of isotope pattern analysis were rationalized by biosynthesis and metabolism paths for the various amino acids.

^{15}N specific labeled ST6Gal1 was digested using immobilized pepsin (1:1) (Pierce Biotechnology, Inc., Rockford, IL) at room temperature for 1 hr. 1 μL peptide mixture was then loaded onto the MALDI (MALDI-TOF/TOF from Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA) or FT MS (LTQ FT MS from Thermo Electron Corporation, Waltham, MA) for MS analysis. The peptic peptides were identified by comparison to a) the MS-Digest database (<http://prospector.ucsf.edu/ucshtml4.0/msdigest.htm>); b) the MALDI TOF/TOF — MASCOT identification database (www.matrixscience.com); c) the ESI MS/MS — SEQUEST identification database. Once peptide identification was determined, the isotopic composition was calculated. Different percentages of labeling on ^{15}N were defined using the prediction program ISOTOPICA (<http://coco.protein.osaka-u.ac.jp/Isotopica/>). The closest agreement between experimental and calculated patterns were used to decide how much ^{15}N labeling was in each peptide.

6.2.3 Pepsin digestion, HPLC separation and 1D NMR observation of ^{15}N G ST6Gal1

2.34 mg ^{15}N G ST6Gal1 (93.6 mg/mL, 25 μL) in buffer was digested using beads washed out of 0.86 mL of an immobilized pepsin slurry (protein to enzyme mole ratio is 1:1) by 0.1% TFA in H_2O . 175 μL 0.1% TFA in H_2O was added and the mixture was incubated for 1 hr at pH 2.5 and room temperature. Then the immobilized pepsin beads are removed from the digested protein mixture by 1 min centrifuge at $\text{RMP } 10000 \text{ min}^{-1}$. The peptic peptide solution was divided into four equal portions and desalted on MacroSpin columns from the Nest Group, Inc. (Southborough, MA) The desalted peptides were re-dissolved in 2 μL 80% ACN+20% H_2O with 0.1% formic acid (FA) for hydrophobic peptides, and 78 μL 0.1 % FA in H_2O for hydrophilic peptides. The four samples were loaded onto a C18 reverse-

phase analytical column (Jupiter 5 μ , 300 Å, size 250 × 4.60 mm from Phenomenex, Inc. (Torrance, CA)), and separated on an 1100 binary pump HPLC system (Agilent Technologies, Inc., Palo Alto, CA) in four repeated runs. Initially the samples were in 95% buffer A (0.1% TFA in H₂O) for 5 min, then eluted with a gradient of increased buffer B (0.1% TFA in ACN) from 5% to 60% over 30 min. Most peptides, eluted at 10-25 min; these were collected as discrete fractions in 2 mL glass vials. 1 μ L of each fraction and 1 μ L matrix was mixed on the sample target and inserted into an MALDI TOF/TOF MS. The matrix solvent was saturated α -cyano-4-hydroxycinnamic acid powder (Aldrich Chemicals, Milwaukee, WI) in ACN/H₂O (1:1) with 0.1% TFA. Once the peptides were identified in all fractions, a peptide containing three ¹⁵N labeled glycines was targeted for NMR observation. The sequence is KGPGPGVKF with m/z 886.4 Da.

Four HPLC runs of the KGPGPGVKF peptide were combined. Totally, 20 μ g of sample was dried down and redissolved in 300 μ L deuterated DMSO with 20 μ L 10% TFA in H₂O. 1D proton spectra were collected on this protonated sample in a 5mm shigemitsu tube using a Varian Inova 800 MHz spectrometer equipped with a triple resonance cold probe equipped with pulsed field gradients. For observation, of amide proton resonances 1D proton and ¹⁵N filtered NMR spectra were collected at 25° C. The sequence used to collect the ¹⁵N filtered spectra was derived from a pulsed field gradient fast HSQC sequence by eliminating the indirect evolution time.¹ The same pepsin digestion and HPLC separation steps were also applied to multiple isotopic labeled ST6Gal1 for further NMR observation.

6.3 Results and discussion

6.3.1 2D HSQC spectrum of single ¹⁵N amino acid labeled ST6Gal1

2D HSQC NMR spectra were collected on ¹⁵N F ST6Gal1 and ¹⁵N G ST6Gal1 in order to evaluate ¹⁵N labeling efficiency. The results are shown in Figure 6.1 a) and b). In the case of ¹⁵N G ST6Gal1, we expect 16 glycines to be labeled; these should have

characteristic ^{15}N chemical shifts around 100 - 110 ppm. Since glycine and serine are closely coupled by a biosynthesis pathway, ^{15}N label could scramble to 22 possible serines. On examining Figure 6a, 12 peaks in the 100-110 ppm region are seen. This is a few more than expected for 16 glycines. The additional peaks in the 110-122 ppm region are on average weaker (about 45% the intensity of those in the 100-110 ppm region). They are expected to be some of the 22 serines. In the 2D HSQC spectrum of ^{15}N F ST6Gal1 (Figure 6b), all 16 expected phenylalanine cross peaks are seen with no scrambling taking place to other amino acids. In both cases the HSQC spectra are much simplified compared to the spectrum expected for a ^{15}N uniformly labeled sample where 300 or more cross peaks would be expected. The simplified spectrum will certainly facilitate the assignment procedure. In addition, for the glycine labeled sample, the cross peaks of serines give bonus information with a reasonable probability of distinguishing serine from glycine peaks based on chemical shift and intensity.

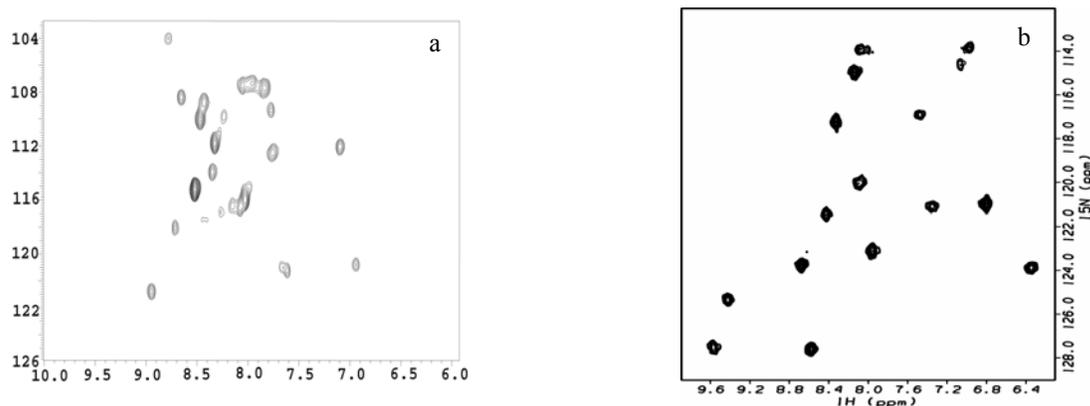


Figure 6.2. 2D HSQC spectra of a) ^{15}N G ST6Gal1 and b) ^{15}N F ST6Gal1.

For the ST6Gal1 sample labeled simultaneously with ^{15}N F, G, and L, the 2D HSQC is much more complicated. Besides peaks from 16 phenylalanines, 16 glycines, and 22 serines, there are numerous peaks of widely varying intensity. The number of additional peaks, especially when plotted with a lower threshold, is far more than that expected from the

25 ^{15}N labeled leucines. Valines were labeled with ^{13}C as well, but these will not affect the quality of the spectrum and will benefit some 3D data collection later on. I conclude that scrambling from labeled leucine must be much more extensive than from phenylalanine or glycine.

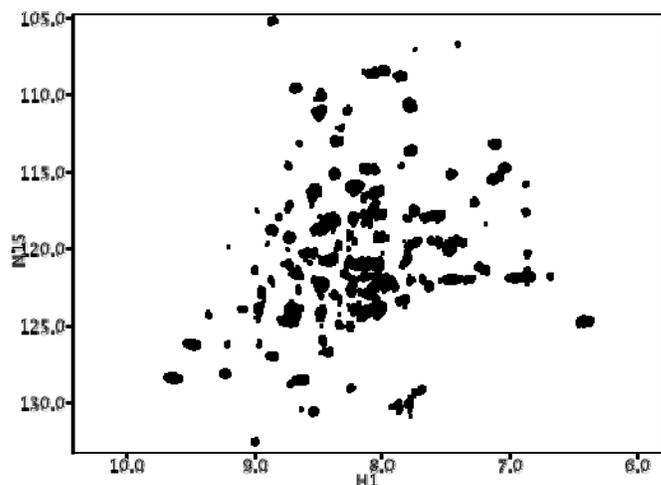


Figure 6.3. 2D HSQC spectra of multiple labeled ST6Gal (^{15}N labeling on G, F, L and ^{13}C labeling on V)

6.3.2 Isotopic pattern analysis by MS of ^{15}N specific labeled ST6Gal1

The resulting distribution of ^{15}N labels on expression of ST6Gal1 can also be analyzed using MS data on derived peptides. The simplest case is that of phenylalanine, where based on NMR data we do not expect scrambling. From a sample labeled in media supplemented with ^{15}N labeled phenylalanine we were able to isolate several peptides not containing phenylalanine. Among them are the peptides, NYLNM (655.95 Da), KPQMPWEL (1028.37 Da), IQNPPSSGML(1140.37 Da). An isotope profile for the peptide KPQMPWEL is shown in Figure 6.4a along with a calculated profile using natural isotope abundances. The fit is very good indicating that the amino acids present contain no more than an average of 5 % ^{15}N . In Figure 6.4b we show the isotope profile of the phenylalanine containing peptide, YQKPDYNF (1075.34 Da), along with the best fit calculated profile obtained by adjusting the 98% labeling of the phenylalanine. We

conclude that in this particular sample, phenylalanines are 98% labeled and no other amino acids have significant labeling levels.

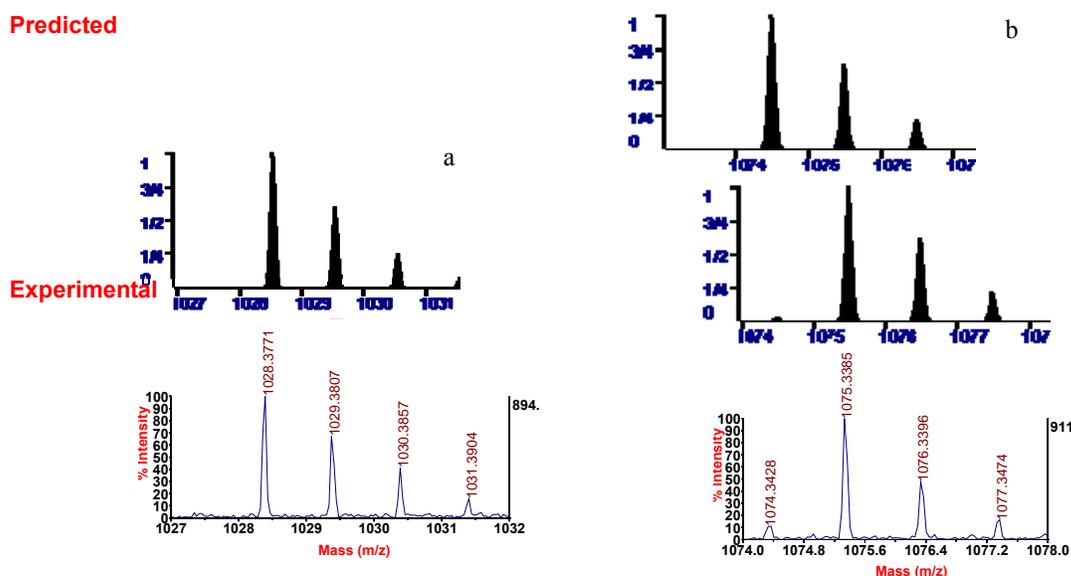


Figure 6.4. Comparison of mass isotopic pattern between predicted profile by ISOTOPICA and experimental data of two peptic peptides of ^{15}N F ST6Gal1. The upper two rows are the predicted isotopic distribution of peptide with/without ^{15}N specific labeling a) peptide KPQMPWEL has no labeling on all amino acids. b) peptide YQKPDYNF shows phenylalanine to be about 98% labeled.

A similar analysis can be carried out with a sample prepared by expression in ^{15}N -glycine supplemented media. At first, peptides which do not have glycines or serines were explored (808.4Da: FRNIC; 1350.7Da: LKIWRNYLNM; 1028.5Da: KPQMPWEL; 1074.5Da: YQKPDYNF). This was done in order to check for the possibility of scrambling to other amino acids. If we observe no isotope enrichment in these peptides, we can conclude that no significant amount of ^{15}N transferred into F, R, N, I, C, L, K, W, Y, M, P, Q, or E. Figure 6.5a shows the isotope profile observed for the peptide FRNIRC along with that calculated based expected natural abundance. Within 5% we can say that no scrambling to amino acids in this peptide occurred.

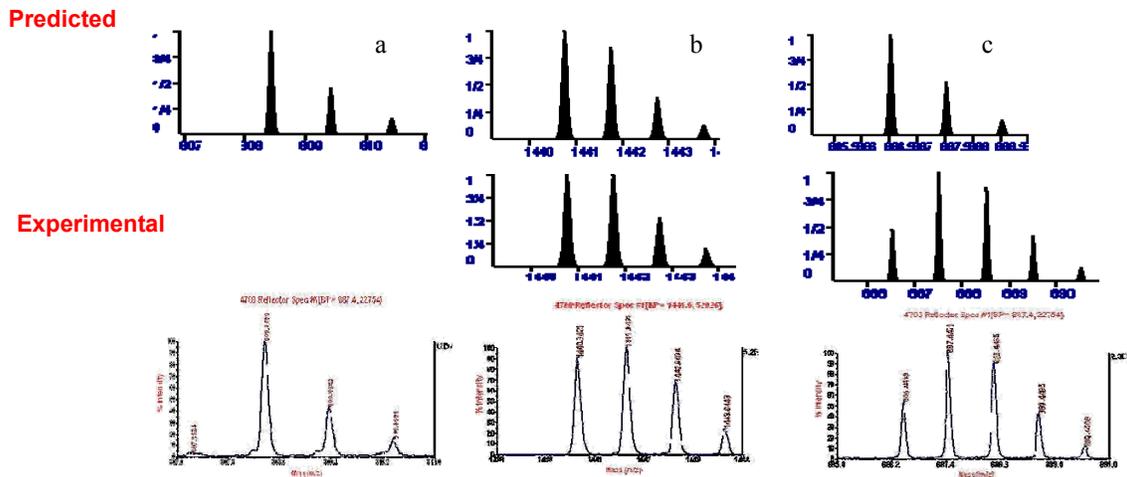


Figure 6.5. Comparison of mass isotopic pattern between predicted profile by ISOTOPICA and experimental data of three peptic peptides of ^{15}N G ST6Gal1. The upper two rows are the predicted isotopic distribution of peptide with/without ^{15}N specific labeling a) peptide FRNIRC from fraction 22 represents all amino acids that have no labeling. b) peptide RRLNPSQPFY from fraction 28 shows serine to be about 15% labeled c) peptide KGPGGVKF from fraction 22 shows the three glycines are 35% labeled.

By observing the peptide, YRRLNPSQPFY (1440.8Da), scrambling into serine could be evaluated. Figure 6.5b shows the observed isotope profile for this peptide along with a best match profile calculated assuming 15% ^{15}N enrichment. Since there is a single serine, and labeling of other amino acids in this peptide have been eliminated we conclude that serine is labeled to about 15% ^{15}N . Using the figure of 15% labeling in serine and MS data on the peptide IVWDPSVYHADIPKW (1825.9 Da) we deduce that V, A, H are also not labeled.

The ^{15}N labeling level for glycines can be deduced from MS data on the peptide, NKYKVSYKGPGGVKF (1768.9 Da). Experimental and calculated isotope profiles are shown in Figure 6.5c. The best fit profile indicates a total ^{15}N enrichment of 120%. After taking into account the 15% labeling on serine, the presence of three glycines, and no labeling on the other amino acids, we conclude the average labeling of glycines to be about 35%.

Finally, data on the peptide, RFNGAPTDNF (1138.5Da), indicates that no ^{15}N is scrambled to T. Hence, the above data provide an isotope analysis of all 20 amino acids. The results were verified by examination of two more peptides: ILKPQMPWEL (1254.6 Da) and FGKATLSGFRNIRC (1569.8 Da).

The results show that ^{15}N labeling using labeled glycine as a source in HEK cells under conditions described, only scrambles label to serine, and not the other 18 types of amino acids. Referring to the literature^{2, 3}, glycine and serine can interconvert under the action of serine hydroxymethyltransferase or other enzymes as shown in Figure 6.6. Therefore the experimental results suggest that scrambling from glycine may be limited to the action of this restricted set of enzymes under the conditions studied.

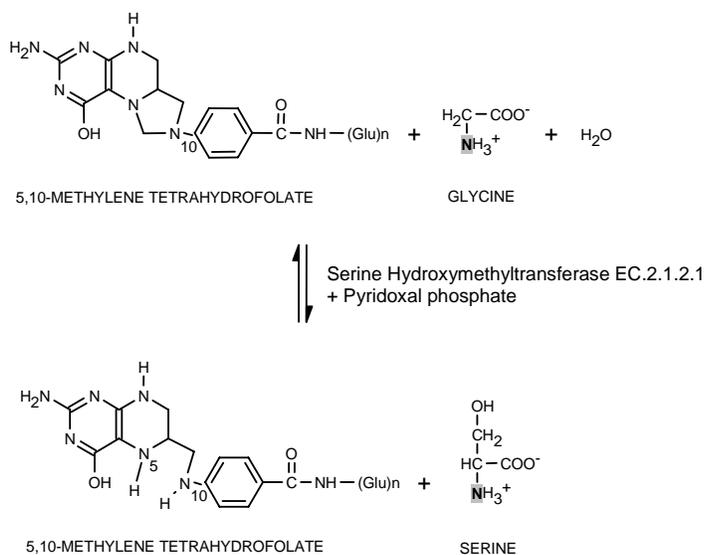


Figure 6.6. Biosynthetic pathway between glycine and serine (http://www.ccpn.ac.uk/meetings/past_conferences/22mar02/program_22mar02/lian_22mar02/lian_22mar02.ppt#2)

The isotopic pattern analysis of multiple labeled ST6Gal1 is complicated since three ^{15}N source and one ^{13}C isotope are present. Even though we know the probable distribution of isotopes from phenylalanine and glycine, substantial corrections to masses would have to be made to deduce distributions coming from valine (^{13}C) and leucine (^{15}N). However, we

can confirm that amino acids are partially labeled, such as aspartic acid, cysteine, glutamic acid, leucine, serine, and valine. While phenylalanines and glycines retain levels of labeling near 98% and 35% respectively.

6.3.3 Pepsin digestion and HPLC separation of ^{15}N G ST6Gal1

For NMR analysis of peptides larger quantities of at least partially purified samples are required. This was accomplished by scaling up the HPLC separation used in the FT MS analyses and using the MS data for association of particular peptides with chromatographic peaks. A chromatograph from the third of four HPLC runs is shown in Figure 6.7. In total, 36 fractions were collected, with 3-10 μg of peptide per fraction. Since ultimately we intend to minimize back exchange during amide H/D exchange of the protein, relative fast separate conditions were selected that gave moderate resolution.

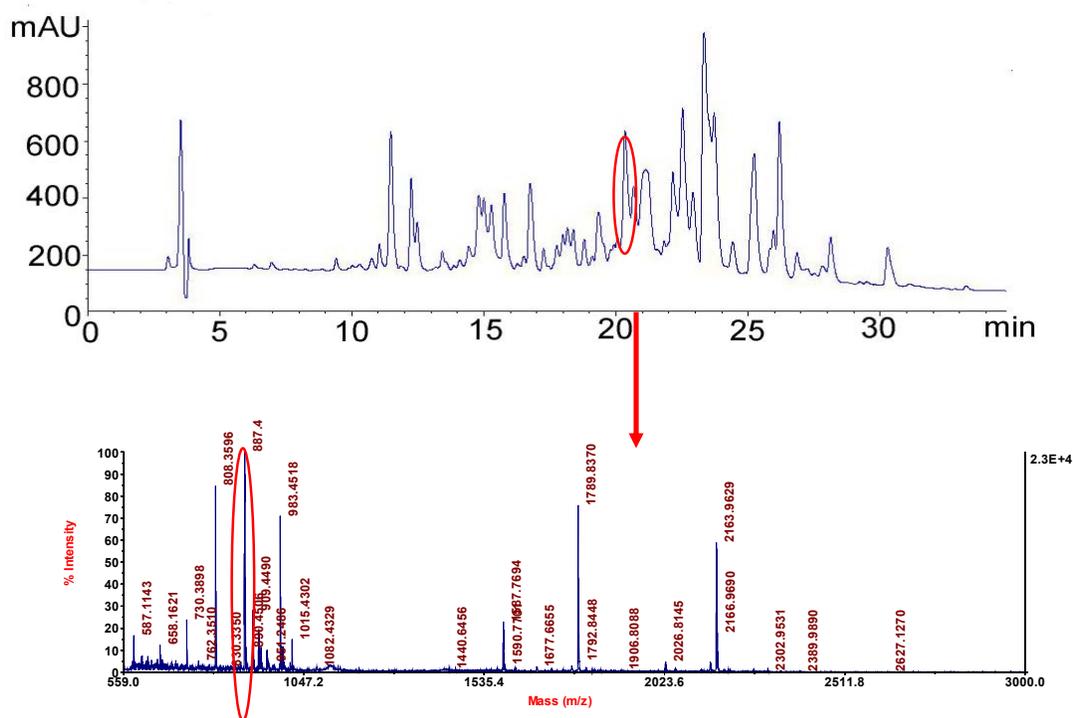


Figure 6.7. HPLC chromatograph of ^{15}N G ST6Gal1 peptic digest and MALDI spectrum of fraction #22.

Fraction #22, containing the peptide, KGPGPGVKF, which has three ^{15}N 35% labeled glycines, was chosen for analysis. MALDI-TOF analysis confirmed the presence of this peptide as the major component. The mass spectrum also indicated that this fraction was not well resolved. However, the other peptides will not interfere with the NMR analysis since none of the major contaminants contained glycines or serines, the amino acids expected to contain ^{15}N . 1D HSQC will filter out all amide proton signals without ^{15}N labeling.

6.3.4 1D ^{15}N filtered observation of the peptic peptide KGPGPGVKF and monitoring of amide H/D back-exchange at glycine sites

In Figure 6.8, NMR observation of the ^{15}N glycine labeled peptic peptide, KGPGPGVKF, is demonstrated using a 1D ^{15}N filtered HSQC. The peptide KGPGPGVKF should have a total of 3 labeled glycines. We can observe three peaks, but contrary to expectation, they are of unequal intensity. This could be simply the result of the low signal to noise ratio in the spectrum, or it could be due to differential spin relaxation and losses during the INEPT transfer steps in the pulse sequence used. Nevertheless, the spectrum establishes our ability to selectively detect amide signals from ^{15}N labeled sites in partially purified mixtures of peptides.

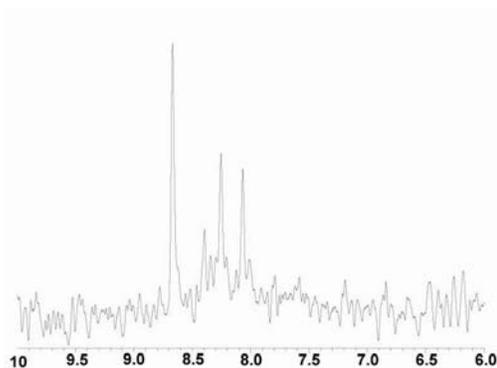


Figure 6.8. 1D ^{15}N filtered HSQC NMR spectra of peptide KGPGPGVKF from ^{15}N G ST6Gal1.

The isolated peptide can be used to illustrate the utility of 1D ^{15}N filtered HSQC

methods in monitoring H/D exchange. The H/D exchange experiment illustrated starts by redissolving lyophilized peptide in 300 μL DMSO with 10%TFA in D_2O (10 $^\circ\text{C}$, pH 2.5); this mimics back exchange conditions which could occur in trying to detect deuterium incorporation in peptides from a partially deuterated protein. The amide proton signals decrease with time while observed by successive 1D ^{15}N filtered ^{15}N gradient HSQC experiments, each requiring approximately 16 min. The quality of the spectra width is limited by the small amount of peptide sample used (about 10 μg) shown in Figure 6.9. However, the exchange rates of three glycines can be roughly estimated based on the integrals of the peak intensities shown in Table 6.1.

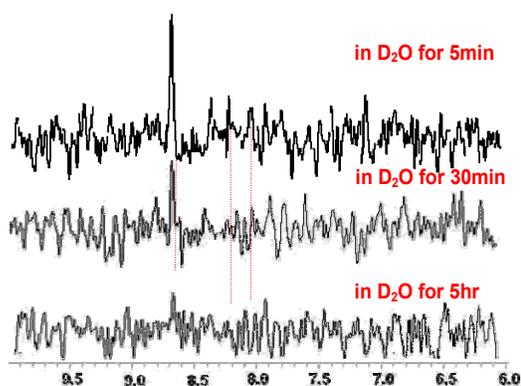


Figure 6.9. H/D exchange of peptide KGPGPGVKF monitored by 1D ^{15}N filtered HSQC observation.

The data shows three labeled amide peaks as expected. One of these clearly exchanges more slowly. It can be assigned to G4 or G6 of the peptide. This assignment strategy can be reversed in isolated peptides partially deuterated while in the native protein. Monitoring back-exchange in protonated media may allow both extrapolation to zero-time deuterium content and resonance assignment.

6.3.5 1D ^{15}N filtered observation of peptic peptide RFNGAPTDN in multiple isotopic labeled ST6Gal1

In Figure 6.10, a preliminary study of a ^{15}N multiple labeled peptic peptide by 1D NMR observation is presented. The peptide RFNGAPTDN should have two ^{15}N labeled amide proton signals with that from F2 of high intensity (98% labeled) and G4 about 1/3 the F2 intensity (about 35% labeled). Assuming we can trust intensities, this would lead to assignment of the resonance at 8.44 ppm to F2 and that at 7.03 ppm to G4. Back-exchange rates could be used to confirm assignment.

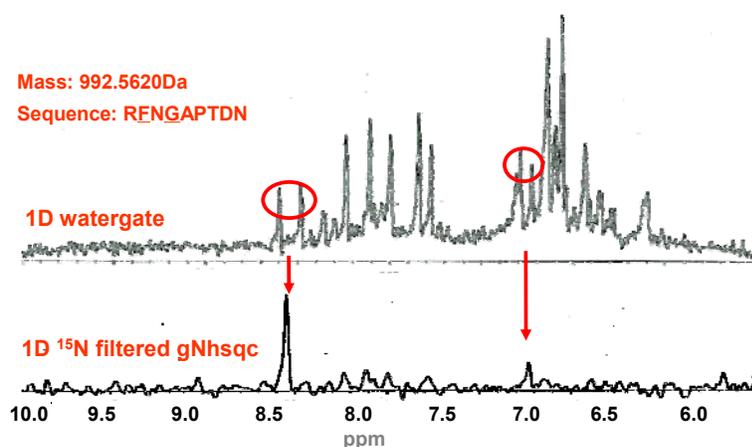


Figure 6.10. Selectively observed ^{15}N amide proton signals of peptic peptide, RFNGAPTDN, from a ^{15}N multiple labeled sample of ST6Gal1.

A further study of ST6Gal1 with sparse labeling is in progress. So far, the ability to observe well-resolved peaks in the HSQC spectra of protein selectively labeled with phenylalanine or glycine is established and the experimental protocol for pepsin digestion and HPLC separation is set up. Also ^{15}N isotopic filtering in 1D HSQC spectra is established. The major obstacle is getting enough peptide for NMR observation. Besides efforts toward

optimizing pepsin digestion efficiency and minimizing sample loss during HPLC runs and NMR sample preparation, the expression and specific labeling efficiency of ST6Gal1 needs to be further improved. It may be possible to improve inherent NMR sensitivity in these experiments by employing micro-coil technology in combination with cold probe technology^{4,5}, or employ emerging methods such as dynamic nuclear polarization (DNP) to enhance sensitivity^{6,7}.

With appropriate improvement in sensitivity, the application of the backbone assignment strategy described in previous chapters should become possible. The significance for ST6Gal1 structure determination and further studies of protein-protein and protein-ligand interaction is substantial. Ongoing research in the Prestegard lab is currently exploring the interaction of ST6Gal1 with CMP-carboxy-tempo to obtain long range distance constraints on ¹⁵N labeled sites. Also, the use of residual dipolar coupling (RDC) measurements for the determination of angular constraints on ¹⁵N-¹H vectors is well established. When combined with modern structure prediction methods, data from sparse labels using two or more amino acid specific labels should be adequate for determination of a backbone structure. Neither type of measurement requires complete backbone assignment or total side-chain assignment. However, they do need assignment of observed HSQC peaks. Hence the methods for assignment become very important. Hadamard transform encoded data collection on intact proteins and simple 1D filtered NMR observation on digested peptides with ¹⁵N specific labeling provide the basis for the H/D exchange correlated assignment strategy described in previous chapters. We expect the methods to open structural studies to proteins that have been traditionally difficult because of their need for expression in non-bacterial hosts, such as the glycosyltransferase illustrated in this chapter.

Table 6.1. Comparison of half-lives of the peptide KGPGPGVKF between calculated and experimental data.

No.	Res.	$K_{int}(\text{min}^{-1})^a$	$T_{1/2} \text{ (min)}$	$T_{1/2} \text{ (min)}^b$
1	K	—	—	—
2	G	1.130	0.613	12.264
3	P	—	—	—
4	G	0.034	20.682	413.644
5	P	—	—	—
6	G	0.034	20.682	413.644
7	V	0.020	34.228	684.558
8	K	0.015	45.847	916.935
9	F	0.078	8.849	176.975

a) K_{int} is calculated by the spreadsheet from Dr. Englander ' s lab, <http://hx2.med.upenn.edu/download.html>.

b) The half lives of amino acids in the peptide based on the experimental data. The data are scaled by a factor of 16 to correct to correct for the reduced amount of H_2O in the DMSO/ H_2O solvent.

6.4 References

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CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSIONS

The objective of this thesis was to accomplish resonance assignment of 2D HSQC or TROSY NMR spectra for proteins that have traditionally been difficult to characterize using structural biology methods. These include 1) proteins which cannot easily be crystallized and studied by X-ray diffraction; 2) proteins which are large and beyond the capability of conventional NMR methods; 3) proteins which are difficult to uniformly isotopic label; and 4) proteins which must be expressed in mammalian cells to achieve proper post translational modification, especially glycosylation. NMR resonance assignment is an important prerequisite to structural investigation and one we believe to have made possible with the methods developed and described in this thesis.

The method we described is a novel method that uses amide H/D exchange rates, which have the same units as other NMR frequencies, to add a third dimension to 2D NMR spectra and allow distinction of each amide site based on its particular chemical/structural environment. By correlating exchange rates of individual amide sites collected in intact proteins by 2D Hadamard encoded experiments with those collected in peptic digested peptides by either MS or 1D proton NMR experiments, assignment is reduced to identifying the sequence of peptides. MS then efficiently supplies the sequential information needed for assignment.

There were several steps used in achieving our goal. We were able to demonstrate in chapter 2 an ability to correlate amide exchange rates measured by MS and NMR methods at a whole peptide level, but it proved difficult to get sufficient fragmentation to allow correlation at a single amino acid level. We were able to demonstrate in chapter 3 an ability to monitor exchange at the single amino acid level using 1D proton NMR of derived peptides, and were able to turn back-exchange to advantage in making resonance assignments in derived peptides. We were able to demonstrate in chapter 4 that correlation of amide exchange rates measured by NMR methods in intact Galectin-3, and peptides

derived from Galectin-3, could lead to assignment of specific cross-peaks in HSQC spectra. However, these methods require substantial amounts of sample. We were able to demonstrate in chapter 5 that new ionization methods in MS, ECD in particular, may in the future allow, with far smaller samples, sufficient fragmentation to localize exchange to single amino acids. However, deuterium scrambling issues will have to be resolved. And, in this chapter we were able to demonstrate an ability to produce sufficient peptide fragments of the glycosylated peptide, ST6Gal1, to allow application of either the NMR-NMR correlation method or the MS-NMR correlation method. The future application to ST6Gal1 will demonstrate the ability to study a class of protein that has been largely inaccessible to structural biology techniques in the past, and will substantially improve prospects for an impact of structural biology on biomedical research.