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Structural characterization of the interaction between α_MIdomain of the integrin Mac-1 ($\alpha_M\beta_2$ **) and the cytokine pleiotrophin**

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Abstract

Integrin Mac-1 ($\alpha_M\beta_2$) is an adhesion receptor vital to many functions of myeloid leukocytes. It is also the most promiscuous member of the integrin family capable of recognizing a broad range of ligands. In particular, its ligand-binding α_M I-domain is known to bind cationic proteins/ peptides depleted in acidic residues. This contradicts the canonical ligand-binding mechanism of αI-domains, which requires an acidic amino acid in the ligand to coordinate the divalent cation within the metal ion-dependent adhesion site (MIDAS) of αI-domains. The lack of acidic amino acids in the α_M I-domain-binding sequences suggests the existence of an as-yet uncharacterized interaction mechanism. In the present study, we analyzed interactions of $\alpha_M I$ -domain with a representative Mac-1 ligand, the cationic cytokine pleiotrophin (PTN). Through NMR chemical shift perturbation analysis, cross saturation, NOESY, and mutagenesis studies, we found the interaction between α_M I-domain and PTN is divalent cation-independent and mediated mostly by hydrophobic contacts between the N-terminal domain of PTN and residues in the α5-β5 loop of α_M I-domain. The observation that increased ionic strength weakens the interaction between the proteins indicates electrostatic forces may also play a significant role in the binding. Based on results from these experiments, we formulated a model of the interaction between $\alpha_M I$ -domain and PTN.

Keywords

Integrin; Mac-1; pleiotrophin; NMR

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ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Author Contributions

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Supporting Information

Additional Supporting figures can be found online. Figure S1. Sequences of αMI-domain and PTN used in this study. Figure S2. Biophysical characterization of active $\alpha_M I$ -domain (E131 to K315). Figure S3. PTN-induced changes in the ¹⁵N-HSQC spectrum of ^αMI-domain. Figure S4. Buffer-induced differences in the 15N-HSQC spectra of αMI-domain and PTN. Figure S5. Effects of NaCl on PTN-induced NMR spectral changes of α_MI-domain. Figure S6. Full ¹⁵N-HSQC of α_MI-domain in the presence of PTN, NTD, or CTD.

INTRODUCTION

Integrins are noncovalently-associated αβ heterodimers that mediate adhesive interactions of cells with the extracellular matrix and other cells. By connecting the actin cytoskeleton with the extracellular environment, integrins regulate numerous processes including cell migration, division, immune response, angiogenesis, and others. Integrins usually adopt an inactive conformation, which has a low affinity for their extracellular ligands and is converted into the active form by intracellular and extracellular signals $¹$. A salient property</sup> of integrins is their broad ligand binding specificity, allowing them to engage various proteins that share no obvious sequence similarity. Even integrins that bind the well-known RGD adhesion motif also bind ligands that lack this sequence.

Integrin $\alpha_M\beta_2$ (Mac-1, CD11b/CD18), which belongs to the β_2 subfamily of leukocyte integrins, is the most promiscuous member of the entire integrin family with more than 40 reported protein ligands. Mac-1 is expressed on myeloid cells, such as neutrophils and macrophages, and mediates important adhesive reactions of these leukocytes during the inflammatory response, including migration, phagocytosis, degranulation, and others $2-5$. The variety and complexity of Mac-1 functions are believed to arise from its ability to recognize a multitude of structurally and functionally dissimilar ligands. The reported ligands include proteins that constitute the extracellular matrix (ECM) and many ECMassociated proteins released during the inflammatory response (a partial list is provided in ref. $6-8$). It also binds cellular receptors such as ICAM-1⁹, GPIb α ¹⁰, JAM-3¹¹, and the recently identified SIRPα ¹². Furthermore, Mac-1 can bind proteases including elastase, myeloperoxidase, and plasminogen 13–15 and even non-mammalian proteins ovalbumin and keyhole limpet hemocyanin ^{6, 16}.

Within Mac-1, a region of ~200 amino acid residues inserted into the α-subunit and referred to as the α_M I-domain is a principal ligand-binding site $^{17, 18}$ and as such, is responsible for the receptor's broad substrate specificity. $a_M I$ -domain is a classical Rossmann fold composed of seven α-helices surrounding a mostly parallel β sheet ¹⁹. A divalent cationbinding site known as MIDAS (metal ion-dependent adhesion site) is located at the apex of α_M I-domain where metals are coordinated by a conserved cluster of oxygenated residues (D140, S142, and S144) as well as two additional conserved residues, T209 and D242¹⁹. Moreover, α_M I-domain has been crystallized in two conformations, known as "open" and "closed", corresponding to active and inactive functional states, respectively $19-22$. These conformations differ by a changed position of the C-terminal α 7 helix ²¹. In the open conformation, S142, S144, and T209 directly coordinate the divalent metal ion via their side chain hydroxyl oxygen atoms while D140 and D242 make indirect contacts via water molecules. The nature of the cation does not seem to be important as $\alpha_M I$ -domain has been crystallized in the open conformation in the presence of either Mg^{2+} or $Mn^{2+ 19, 21, 22}$. Furthermore, in the crystal, the side chain of a glutamate residue from a neighboring α_M I-domain molecule completes the coordination $^{19, 21, 22}$. In the "closed" conformation, two serines coordinate a metal but a bond to threonine is broken and replaced by a bond to D242. Water molecules complete the coordination sphere and there is no equivalent of the exogenous glutamate. This conformer has been crystallized in the presence of Mn^{2+21}

but also in the absence of divalent metal ions ²⁰. Interestingly, although wild type $\alpha_M I$ domain naturally adopts the "closed" conformation, it can be induced to adopt the "open" conformation if the protein is truncated at K315 23 .

Based on the finding that glutamate from another $\alpha_M I$ -domain is involved in cation coordination and the fact that MIDAS together with its surrounding surface-exposed side chains form the binding site for several ligands $22, 24-27$, it has been proposed that the interaction with an acidic residue is required for integrin-ligand interactions 19. Indeed, this ligand-binding mechanism has been shown for the interaction of human $\alpha_M I$ -domain with an aspartate residue in iC3b ²⁸ and can also explain the role of metal-coordinating acidic residues in ligands of several other αI domain-containing and αI -less integrins $29-31$. However, there are notable exceptions. For instance, a_2I -domain of the collagen receptor integrin $\alpha_2\beta_1$ is known to bind a cyclic peptide composed entirely of basic amino acids $32-34$, defying the common belief that at least one acidic amino acid must be present in the ligand.

The ligand binding promiscuity exhibited by Mac-1 also falls outside of the scope described by the canonical mechanism. Earlier studies have identified several cationic $\alpha_M I$ -domainbinding peptides derived from ligands that do not contain acidic residues ^{35–37}. In particular, the fibrinogen-derived peptide, TMKIIPFFNRLTIG (P2-C), served as a prototype peptide ligand for studies of promiscuous recognition of $\alpha_M I$ -domain ²⁶ and studies using genetargeted mice in which the C-terminal sequence of P2-C in fibrinogen was mutated have confirmed it as the binding site for Mac- 1^{38} . Screening peptide libraries spanning the sequences of many reported Mac-1 ligands for $\alpha_M I$ -domain has shown that, within its ligands, α_M I-domain has a preference for sequences enriched in positively charged residues flanked by hydrophobic residues $⁷$. Acidic residues are largely omitted in those patterns.</sup> These studies led to the identification of a large group of cationic proteins as Mac-1 ligands. Many of these proteins, which include among others elastase 13 , myeloperoxidase 14 , the cathelicidin peptide LL-37³⁹, and opioid peptide dynorphin-A⁴⁰, are normally sequestered within leukocytes and released during the inflammatory response to serve as alarm signals for the immune system $41, 42$. Other cationic Mac-1 ligands, such as pleiotrophin (PTN) 43 and platelet factor 4 (PF4/CXCL4)⁴⁴, are expressed at sites of tissue injury and seem to fulfill similar functions.

Despite the wealth of evidence identifying cationic ligands as Mac-1 targets, the mechanism of their binding is not clear. In this study, we analyzed the interaction of $\alpha_M I$ -domain with a typical cationic Mac-1 ligand, the cytokine PTN, using solution NMR spectroscopy. PTN is a cationic protein that modulates numerous physiological phenomena, including inflammation 45, 46. PTN is unique among Mac-1-binding cationic proteins in that it binds both the active, "open" form of $\alpha_M I$ -domain (residues E131 to K315) and the inactive, "closed" form of α_M I-domain (residues E131 to T324). However, the inactive α_M I-domain's affinity for PTN is significantly lower than that of the active $\alpha_M I$ -domain ⁴³. Our data show that the interaction between PTN and inactive $\alpha_M I$ -domain does not require divalent cations, but is sensitive to high ionic strength, pointing to electrostatic forces as a factor in binding. Chemical shift perturbation analysis, cross saturation, and NOESY experiments identified residues around the N/C-termini, especially the α 5-β5 loop of α_M I-domain,

as being involved in PTN binding. Probing $\alpha_M I$ -domain with individual PTN domains showed the N-terminal domain of PTN (NTD) alone is sufficient to reproduce almost all the spectral perturbations induced by wild type PTN while the C-terminal domain of PTN (CTD) generated little perturbation on the NMR spectrum of α_M I-domain. This indicates the NTD is the major $\alpha_M I$ -domain binding site in PTN. In addition, intermolecular contacts between a leucine in PTN and backbone amide hydrogens in the α 5-β5 loop of α_M I-domain were detected in NOESY. Mutagenesis of both acidic and hydrophobic amino acids in the α 5-β5 loop of α_M I-domain also significantly affected PTN binding, indicating that both hydrophobic and electrostatic forces are involved in binding. These results defined precisely the interface between PTN and α_M I-domain and helped us formulate a model of αMI-domain-PTN interactions.

Experimental Methods

Expression and purification of proteins

The open reading frames (ORF) of inactive human $\alpha_M I$ -domain (residues E131-T324, sequence shown in Figure S1), active $\alpha_M I$ -domain (E131-K315), or the mutants I265S or E268/262S were cloned into the pHUE vector 47 as a fusion protein with His-tagged ubiquitin at its N-terminus using SacII and HindIII as restriction sites. BL21(DE3) cells transformed with the expression plasmids were grown in M9 medium at 37 °C to an OD₆₀₀ of \sim 0.8, at which point the culture was induced with 0.5 mM IPTG and harvested after overnight incubation at 23 °C. To prepare isotopically labeled proteins, ¹⁵NH₄Cl and/or ¹³C glucose was used in M9 media. ²H/¹⁵N labeled α_M I-domain was prepared by seeding 50 mL of D₂O M9 media containing ~ 8 g/L of ²H-glucose with cells pelleted from 1 mL LB culture of the bacteria at OD_{600} of 1.0. After the 50-mL culture has reached an OD_{600} of 1.0, the culture was diluted with 250 mL of ²H M9 media containing \sim 4 g/L of ²H glucose. The total culture was induced and harvested as described above. ${}^{2}H/{}^{13}C/{}^{15}N$ -labeled $\alpha_{M}I$ domain was prepared similarly except ${}^{1}H/{}^{13}C$ -labeled glucose was used. Post-induction cell cultures were pelleted and resuspended in lysis buffer (20 mM sodium phosphate, 0.5 M NaCl, 10 mM imidazole, 5% glycerol, 0.01% NaN3) containing 1 mg/mL lysozyme and incubated for 20 minutes at room temperature. After sonication and centrifugation, the supernatant was collected and subjected to Ni-affinity chromatography using a 5-mL HisTrap column (GE Life Sciences). To elute the protein, an imidazole gradient of 35 to 500 mM was applied at a flow-rate of 3 mL/min. Eluent fractions containing the fusion proteins were exchanged into a buffer of 25 mM Tris and 100 mM NaCl, pH 8.0 and treated with 1/20 molar equivalent of His-tagged ubiquitinase USP2 catalytic core domain overnight at room temperature to cleave ubiquitin from the fusion protein ⁴⁷. To separate cleaved α_M I-domain from other proteins, the digestion mixture was passed through a second Ni-affinity column. Flow-through fractions were collected and applied to a Superdex 75 size exclusion chromatography column (GE Life Sciences) for further purification. The purity of the protein in each fraction was verified using SDS-PAGE.

PTN (sequence shown in Figure S1) expression and purification were performed according to a previously reported protocol ⁴⁸. Briefly, pET-15b vector harboring the human PTN ORF was transformed into OrigamiB(DE3) cells (Novagen, Madison, WI, USA). Cells were

grown in M9 medium at 37 °C to an OD_{600} of 0.8. 0.25 mM IPTG was added to the culture and the culture was incubated overnight at 23°C. Cells were harvested, resuspended in 20 mM Tris, pH 8.0, 200 mM NaCl buffer, treated with 1 mg/mL lysozyme and sonicated. After centrifugation, the supernatant was applied onto a 5-mL HiTrap SP HP column (GE Life Sciences) and eluted with 0.1 to 1.5 M NaCl gradient. Additional purification using a 5-mL HiTrap heparin column (GE Life Sciences) was carried out with the same salt gradient when necessary.

Individual domains of PTN were recombinantly expressed by first inserting the ORF of either the NTD (residues G1 to C57) or the CTD (residues N58 to K114) into the pHUE vector as a fusion partner for the His-ubiquitin. The constructs were expressed in OrigamiB(DE3) using a procedure similar to that of wild type PTN. Purifications of the domains were similar to that of α_M I-domain except no size exclusion chromatography was used.

NMR data acquisition

Data were collected on either Agilent 800 MHz or Bruker AVANCE 600 MHz and 850 MHz spectrometers equipped with cryo-probes. All NMR samples contained 0.1–1 mM inactive α_M I-domain in 20 mM HEPES, pH 7.4. All data were collected at 25 °C. For backbone assignment, HNCACB, HNCOCACB, HNCO, and HNCACO spectra were collected on ²H/¹³C/¹⁵N α_M I-domain samples. In addition, ¹³C/¹⁵N α_M I-domain was used to collect HNCA, HNCOCA, HNCO, and HNCACO spectra. All triple resonance experiments were acquired with 1024 complex points in the ${}^{1}H$ dimension, 30 complex points in the ${}^{15}N$ dimension, and 60 complex points in the 13 C dimension. All 15 N-HSQC experiments were acquired with 1024 complex points in the 1 H dimension and 50 complex points in the ${}^{15}N$ dimension. Spectral widths are usually set to 15 ppm for ${}^{1}H$ and 34 ppm for ${}^{15}N$ with the carrier at 119 ppm. All NMR data were processed with NMRPipe ⁴⁹ and analyzed with NMRView ⁵⁰.

To probe PTN-induced chemical shift change, ¹⁵N-HSQC spectra were acquired on samples containing 0.1 mM ¹⁵N α_M I-domain with 0, 0.1, 0.2, 0.3, 0.4, 0.5, 0.8, 1.0, and 1.2 mM of PTN. The titration was carried out both in the presence and absence of $MgCl₂$ in 20 mM HEPES, pH 7.4. The MgCl₂-free titration was also repeated in 20 mM HEPES, pH 7.0, 150 mM NaCl buffer to gauge the effect of salt on the binding. To measure the affinity of the E258/262S α_M I-domain mutant for PTN, ¹⁵N-HSQC spectra were acquired on samples containing 0.1 mM of the E258/262S mutant with 0, 0.1, 0.3, 0.5, 0.7, 1.0, and 1.2 mM of PTN in 20 mM HEPES, pH 7.4 buffer with no MgCl₂. The overall chemical shift change of each signal was quantified using the equation $\delta = [\delta_H^2 + (0.17 \delta_N)^2]^{1/2}$, where δ_H is the chemical shift change in the amide hydrogen and δ_N is the chemical shift change in amide nitrogen ⁵¹.

To examine the effect of individual PTN domains on $a_M I$ -domain, ¹⁵N-HSQC spectra of 0.1 mM ^{15}N α _MI-domain with 0 or 0.7 mM of either wild type PTN, NTD or CTD were collected in 20 mM HEPES, pH 7.4 buffer without $MgCl₂$.

Cross saturation experiments were carried out on a sample containing 0.17 mM of ^2H , ¹⁵Nlabeled α_M I-domain and 0.7 mM of unlabeled PTN in 50 % D₂O, 20 mM HEPES, pH

7.4 buffer. During the experiment, a saturation pulse was applied to the 1 H channel at 0.9 ppm for 1.5 s. ¹⁵N-edited NOESYHSQC experiments were carried out on 0.17 mM ²H,¹⁵Nlabeled α_M I-domain and 0.7 mM of unlabeled PTN in 10 % D₂O, 20 mM HEPES, pH 7.4 buffer. The NOE mixing time was 0.15 s. ¹³C-HMQC-NOESY-¹⁵N-HSQC experiments were carried out on a sample containing 0.5 mM of ¹⁵N-labeled α_M I-domain and 2.5 mM of 13C labeled PTN in 20 mM HEPES, pH 7.4 buffer. A mixing time of 0.15 s was used. Because there are only two signals in the spectrum, the chemical shift information was obtained by running separate $2D¹H⁻¹H$, $¹³C⁻¹H$, and $¹⁵N⁻¹H$ projections of the original 4D</sup></sup> experiment.

Quantification and statistical analysis

^Kds were estimated by fitting chemical shift changes to ligand concentration using the one-to-one binding model implemented in the software xcrvfit [\(http://](http://www.bionmr.ualberta.ca/bds/software/xcrvfit) [www.bionmr.ualberta.ca/bds/software/xcrvfit\)](http://www.bionmr.ualberta.ca/bds/software/xcrvfit).

RESULTS

NMR analysis of the α_MI-domain structure

Similar to other NMR studies of protein-protein interactions, our strategy was to determine the PTN binding site by examining perturbations to the backbone amides of $\alpha_M I$ -domain. However, backbone atom chemical shifts of human $\alpha_M I$ -domain, both active and inactive forms, were not known. We determined chemical shifts of backbone amide nitrogens and hydrogens of inactive $\alpha_M I$ -domain using the traditional suite of multinuclear NMR spectroscopy experiments, including HNCA, HNCACB, CBCACONH, HNCOCA, and HNCOCACB 52. These data allowed backbone atom chemical shifts of close to 90% of observable residues in the protein to be determined. Figure 1A shows the assigned $15N$ heteronuclear single quantum coherence (HSQC) spectrum of inactive human $\alpha_M I$ -domain in the absence of Mg^{2+} . Unassigned residues are indicated in blue in Figure 1B. Many of these unassigned residues are located in the α3-α4 loop and α4 helix. Since most signals in the 15N-HSQC are assigned, the unassigned residues most likely do not produce detectable signals in the ¹⁵N-HSQC. Recently, an NMR study on mouse $\alpha_M I$ -domain was published ⁵³. Although the chemical shift assignments of mouse $\alpha_M I$ -domain are not yet available, a visual inspection of the mouse $\alpha_M I$ -domain ¹⁵N-HSQC shows significant differences with the ¹⁵N-HSQC of human α_M I-domain despite the high sequence homology between them.

To ensure our construct of $\alpha_M I$ -domain adopts the same conformation as that found in the crystal structure $2¹$, we analyzed the secondary structure of the protein using chemical shift indexing (CSI), which is a reliable method for determining secondary structures using backbone chemical shift data ^{54, 55}. Our CSI results revealed a secondary structure arrangement that agrees well with the crystal structure of $\alpha_M I$ -domain ²¹ (Figure 1C), indicating our α_M I-domain in solution should adopt the same conformation as the crystal structure. It should also be noted that, because of a_M I-domain's low affinity for divalent cations 56, the protein was purified naturally in the metal-free state. This was reflected in

the fact that the ${}^{15}N$ -HSQC of α_M I-domain was unchanged after EDTA treatment while the addition of Mg^{2+} brought about drastic changes to the spectrum (Figures 2A and 6A).

We also attempted to study the active form of $\alpha_M I$ -domain, which can be prepared by truncating the domain at residue K315. This disrupts the hydrophobic packing that holds the α 7 helix in place, allowing it to move away from the MIDAS ²³. However, the active α_M I-domain has a lower solubility than the inactive α_M I-domain and produced poor quality NMR spectra (data not shown). Analysis using size exclusion chromatography and circular dichroism spectroscopy showed that, although active $\alpha_M I$ -domain remains a monomer, its stability is significantly lower than that of inactive $\alpha_M I$ -domain (Figure S2). As a result, the current study focuses on the interaction between inactive $\alpha_M I$ -domain and PTN.

Chemical shift perturbation analysis of PTN's interactions with α_M **I-domain**

We first examined PTN's perturbation on the ¹⁵N-HSQC spectrum of $\alpha_M I$ -domain at pH 7.4 (20 mM HEPES as the buffer) and without NaCl. Figure 2A shows the superimposed ¹⁵N-HSQC spectra of α_M I-domain in the presence of different concentrations of unlabeled PTN under the salt-free condition. PTN produced significant chemical shift changes in many residues. In particular, residues D132, S144, K168, D242, E244, R261, E262, V264, I265, R266, H295, and E320 showed changes that are more than 1.5 standard deviations higher than the average. Most of these residues are located near the N/C termini side of αMI-domain (Figures 2B and 2D, Table 1). Residues in the α5–β5 loop (residues R261 to I265) are especially well represented. However, three residues close to MIDAS, S144, D242, and E244, also showed significant chemical shift changes. Fitting of the chemical shift migration magnitudes to a one-to-one binding model showed the interaction Kd ranges from 1 mM to greater than 3 mM. Figures 2C and S3 show the binding curves of several residues with large chemical shift changes. It should be noted that PTN also produced considerable decreases in signal intensities. The magnitudes of PTN-induced increases in the transverse relaxation rates of α_M I-domain backbone amide nitrogens are relatively uniform (Figure S3). This means the intensity change is most likely caused by changes in global motion, which is usually indicative of the formation of a larger complex.

Because PTN binds most of its receptors through electrostatic interactions, we also examined the interactions in buffer containing 20 mM HEPES, pH 7.0 and 150 mM NaCl to gauge whether electrostatic interactions play a role in the binding. The change in buffer condition did induce considerable changes in signal intensity as a result of changes in solvent exchange rates of amide hydrogens. Some chemical shift changes can also be seen. However, the changes are generally small enough to allow assignments of the signals and do not indicate large scale conformation changes in the proteins (Figure S4). Perturbations of PTN on the ¹⁵N-HSQC of α_M I-domain in the presence of 150 mM NaCl at pH 7.0 are shown in Figure S5. In particular, PTN produced considerably smaller intensity and chemical shift changes in the presence of NaCl. This indicates the binding may be weakened by high ionic strength, implying that electrostatic interactions may play a role in the interaction.

PTN is composed of two thrombospondin type-1 repeat domains ⁴⁸. Our previous study showed either NTD or CTD alone is sufficient to induce Mac-1-dependent cell adhesion.

However, CTD induced higher adhesion rates than NTD ⁴³. To better define the α_M I-domain binding site on PTN, we probed α_M I-domain with individual domains. Figures 3 and S6 show ¹⁵N-HSQC spectra of 0.1 mM α_M I-domain alone or in the presence of 0.7 mM of either wild type PTN, NTD, or CTD. Surprisingly, the data show that NTD alone is sufficient to produce almost all $\alpha_M I$ -domain spectral changes generated by wild type PTN, including perturbations to residues near MIDAS, the $a5-\beta5$ loop, and the N/C-termini. CTD produced little change in the α_M I-domain spectra (Figure 3). These data show NTD is the main α_M I-domain binding site.

NOE contacts between α_MI-domain and PTN

To identify the PTN binding site on α_M I-domain further, we also carried out cross saturation experiments ⁵⁷ on perdeuterated ¹⁵N- α_M I-domain and unlabeled PTN in 50 % D₂O. Cross saturation experiments take advantage of the intermolecular dipole-dipole interactions between hydrogens at the binding interface to transfer spin saturation on the ligand to nearby receptor hydrogens, allowing receptor atoms at the interface to be identified through the observation of intensity decrease. Our data showed that saturation at 0.9 ppm, which only affects PTN aliphatic hydrogens, significantly reduced the signal intensities of residues in the α 5–β5 loop of α _MI-domain (Figure 4A, Table 1). This result is in agreement with the chemical shift perturbation experiment and offers additional proof that residues in the α5–β5 loop, are involved in binding PTN. In an attempt to determine unambiguous contacts between the two proteins, we carried out ¹³C-HMQC-NOESY- ¹⁵N-HSQC experiments on a sample containing ¹³C-labeled PTN and ¹⁵N-labeled α_M I-domain. The results showed there is an intermolecular NOE between HN of G263 in a_M I-domain and two PTN aliphatic hydrogens with chemical shifts of 0.95 ppm and 1.80 ppm. These PTN hydrogens are in turn bonded to ¹³C atoms with chemical shifts of 25.5 ppm and 41.5 ppm, respectively (Figure 4B). These values closely match the side chain atoms of several leucines in PTN, raising the possibility that the interaction may also involve hydrophobic contacts.

Because of the insensitivity of the 13 C-HMQC-NOESY- 15 N-HSQC experiment, we also collected a ¹⁵N-edited NOESYHSQC spectrum on ²H,¹⁵N-labeled α_M I-domain in the presence of unlabeled PTN. An identical experiment was also collected in the absence of PTN to identify residual intramolecular NOE cross peaks that arise from incomplete deuteration. After eliminating artifactual signals, the confirmed intermolecular NOEs all came from residues in the α 5–β5 loop (Figure 4C), with HNs of G263 and V264 making the strongest NOE contacts with PTN methyl groups. These data provide additional support for the critical role the α5–β5 loop plays in binding PTN.

Effects of α**MI-domain mutations on** α**MI-domain-PTN interactions**

To validate the NMR results above, we created two mutants of $\alpha_M I$ -domain. One contains the mutation I265S while the other contains mutations E258S and E262S. These mutations were chosen because their side chains are available for either hydrophobic or electrostatic interactions with PTN. Both sets of mutations produced significant changes in the spectrum of α_M I-domain, but the mutants appear to be well-folded (Figure 5). Titration of the E258S/ E262S mutant with wild type PTN showed PTN continued to induce chemical shift changes in residues I265 and R266. However, the magnitudes of the changes are smaller and fitting

of the binding curves for I265 and R266 showed the Kd of binding has increased modestly (Figure 5A). Because sufficient quantities of the I265S mutant were not available for a full multipoint titration, a two-point titration was completed to gauge the PTN-induced chemical shift changes in the mutant. It was found that the I265S mutation significantly reduced the number of perturbed residues in the spectrum. In particular, R261 and R266, two residues in the α5-β5 loop that experienced large PTN-induced chemical shift changes previously (Figure 2A), did not show any PTN-induced change in chemical shifts (Figure 5B). However, some residues in the N/C termini did show small PTN-induced chemical shift changes.

Effects of divalent cations on α_MI-domain-PTN interactions

Divalent cations such as Mg^{2+} play crucial roles in the canonical ligand binding mechanism by bridging acidic amino acids from the ligand and α_M I-domain's MIDAS. To evaluate the role Mg^{2+} plays in binding cationic ligands, we examined the effect of Mg^{2+} on the interaction of α_M I-domain with PTN. Because Mg²⁺ affinity of α_M I-domain is relatively low (Kd ~ 1 mM) ⁵⁶, MIDAS in $\alpha_M I$ -domain is not fully saturated at physiological Mg²⁺ concentrations. Therefore, we chose to investigate the interactions at 10 mM Mg^{2+} , which is high enough to ensure full saturation of the MIDAS.

Figure 6A shows the ¹⁵N-HSQC spectra of Mg²⁺-saturated α_M I-domain in the presence of different concentrations of PTN. The data showed Mg^{2+} had little effect on a_MI domain's affinity for PTN. In fact, binding curves of some residues, such as I265 and R266, indicated $\alpha_M I$ -domain's PTN affinity was slightly lower in the presence of Mg^{2+} (Figure 6C). In addition, the magnitudes of PTN-induced chemical shift perturbations in the presence of Mg^{2+} were also smaller compared to the perturbations produced in the absence of Mg^{2+} (Figure 6B and Table 1). These results show that not only is the PTN- $\alpha_M I$ domain interaction divalent cation-independent, the presence of Mg^{2+} may even weaken the interaction.

Discussion

In this study, we probed the interaction between inactive $\alpha_M I$ -domain and PTN using a variety of solution NMR techniques, including chemical shift perturbation, cross saturation, and NOESY. Table 1 lists the residues that were identified as being significantly perturbed by PTN. Residues on the N/C-termini side of $\alpha_M I$ -domain, especially residues in the α 5–β5 loop, feature prominently in the table. Most of the residues in this region were perturbed in at least two of the techniques and an intermolecular NOE has been identified between residue G263 of α_M I-domain and a leucine in PTN. Surprisingly, the NTD of PTN appears to be the major site of interaction with inactive $\alpha_M I$ -domain because NTD alone was sufficient to produce most of the α_M I-domain spectral perturbations seen with wild type PTN. Since L32 is the only leucine in NTD, the leucine that contacts residues in the α5-β5 loop is most likely L32 of NTD. These results indicate that hydrophobic contacts may be important in the interaction between $\alpha_M I$ -domain and NTD of PTN. Two hydrophobic amino acids in a_M I-domain, I265 and F234, are near G263 and in a position to interact with L32 of NTD. Consistent with this hypothesis is the fact that the I265S mutation in

αMI-domain significantly reduced PTN-induced chemical shift perturbation to the α5-β5 loop. The identification of NTD as the major binding site seems to contradict the previous observation that CTD induced more cell adhesion than NTD 43. More investigations will be needed to reconcile the two results.

Hydrophobic interaction may not be the only factor in the interaction. Besides the α 5- β 5 loop and N/C-termini, residues around MIDAS also exhibited PTN-induced chemical shift changes. Both the MIDAS and the N/C termini of α_M I-domain have significant negative electrostatic potential, making them ideal sites for electrostatic interactions with cationic proteins. The fact that the $\alpha_M I$ -domain-PTN interactions are sensitive to the ionic strength may be a manifestation of the influence of electrostatic forces on the interaction. Similarly, the observation that the addition of 10 mM $MgCl₂$ actually decreased the affinity may also be the result of the increase in ionic strength brought about by $MgCl₂$.

These results have allowed us to formulate a model for the interaction between PTN and α_M I-domain. In particular, hydrophobic contacts between L32 of PTN and amino acids near the α5-β5 loop, including I265 and F234, likely form the core of a specific binding interface. This interaction is complemented by transient and dynamic interactions between acidic amino acids in α_M I-domain and basic clusters in PTN. Figure 7A shows a schematic illustration of this proposed model. It should be noted that this model is consistent with the conclusions of a study that identified peptides containing basic amino acids flanked by hydrophobic amino acids as the preferred ligands for α_M I-domain ⁷. In addition, although the identification of the α5–β5 loop as a ligand binding site is novel to this study, a part of the α5 helix was identified previously as critical for the binding of the cationic fibrinogen peptide P2-C 8 .

Experiments from this study demonstrate the interactions between $\alpha_M I$ -domain and PTN are divalent cation-independent. This mechanism differs significantly from the canonical ligand binding mechanism of αI-domains. The latter mechanism requires ligands to bind I-domains by coordinating a divalent cation in the MIDAS. Because of the requirement for the ligand to coordinate the metal, the presence of an acidic amino acid in the ligand is central to the canonical mechanism. However, it has long been known that peptides devoid of acidic amino acids can still bind α_2 I-domain, although divalent metal was still required for unexplained reasons ³³. In contrast to these previous studies, the binding model established here requires no divalent cations and the major binding site seemed to be away from the MIDAS. It should also be noted that intermolecular electrostatic interactions that do not involve the divalent cation are also found in systems that utilize the canonical ligand binding mechanism. For example, basic residues in ICAM-1 have been shown to participate in its binding to α_L I-domain ³⁰. Similar observations have also been made in the interaction of iC3b with $\alpha_M I$ -domain ²⁸.

The prominent role played by the residues around the N/C-termini of $\alpha_M I$ -domain in binding PTN and the proximity of the α5–β5 loop to the α7 helix are worth noting. The N/C-termini region is an important functional modulator. Mutations in both the N- and C-termini are known to activate Mac-1 $^{23, 58}$ and the shift of the C-terminal α 7 helix away from the MIDAS is a crucial step in the activation of α I-domains. The C-terminus also

contains the important intrinsic ligand E320, which is responsible for initiating α I-domain conformation changes when chelated by the β I-domain. Other ligands are also known to bind to the N/C termini side of $\alpha_M I$ -domain. In particular, CD40L, a protein known to regulate the inflammatory activities of macrophages, was shown to bind to the sequence 162-EQLKKSKTL-170 in α_M I-domain, which is in the α 1- β 2 loop on the N/C-termini side of α_M I-domain ⁵⁹. The binding of PTN to this side of α_M I-domain may significantly affect these crucial allosteric interactions. The proximity of the PTN binding site to the α 7 helix also suggests a possible explanation for why active $\alpha_M I$ -domain often has a higher affinity for PTN than inactive $\alpha_M I$ -domain. Specifically, activation of $\alpha_M I$ -domain involves the disruption of the hydrophobic core that holds the α 7 helix in place ²³. The displacement of the α7 helix inevitably leads to the exposure of a larger hydrophobic patch close to the α5–β5 loop. This includes increased exposure of I265, which is both a part of the α5–β5 loop and of the hydrophobic core that holds the α7 helix in place. Ligands that bind the α5–β5 loop through hydrophobic interactions can potentially have stronger hydrophobic contacts as a result (Figure 7B). This may explain why active $\alpha_M I$ -domain can bind PTN with higher affinity.

The fact that inactive α_M I-domain binds PTN with lower affinity does not mean only active α_M I-domain can bind the ligand *in vivo*. Indeed, some ligands are known to bind the inactive form of integrin ⁶⁰. In addition, several features of PTN may enhance its interactions with inactive Mac-1 *in vivo*. In particular, PTN, especially the CTD of PTN, is an avid binder of glycosaminoglycans, a polysaccharide commonly found in the extracellular space. These interactions are known to lead to oligomerization or aggregation of PTN ⁶¹. The resulting large multivalent aggregates would have a much higher affinity for inactive $\alpha_M I$ domain as a result of increases in the avidity of interaction. Such an avidity-enhanced interaction mechanism is well characterized in several ligand-receptor systems 62, 63 and may allow Mac-1 with inactive α_M I-domains to serve as viable receptors for the ligands. The fact that PTN is immobilized on cell surfaces or in the extracellular matrix is also consistent with observations that immobilization of ligands may be necessary to provide responsive activation of integrins 64, 65. In addition, it is widely accepted that outsidein signaling requires ligand-induced integrin clustering to activate intracellular signaling proteins such as Src and trigger the assembly of focal adhesion complexes 66, 67. The oligomeric nature of PTN means binding of Mac-1 to PTN may facilitate clustering of Mac-1 and consequently activation of intracellular signaling.

Finally, cationic ligands that bind α_M I-domain differ significantly in their distribution of basic and hydrophobic amino acids. It remains to be seen whether other cationic ligands have the same mix of electrostatic and hydrophobic interactions with $\alpha_M I$ -domain as PTN.

Supplementary Material

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

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ABBREVIATIONS

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Figure 1.

NMR analysis of wild type $\alpha_M I$ -domain structure. A) Assigned ¹⁵N-HSQC spectrum of inactive α_M I-domain (E131-T324). B) Ribbon representation of α_M I-domain crystal structure (PDB accession code: 1JLM) with unassigned residues colored in blue. C) Comparison of secondary structures of α_M I-domain derived from NMR chemical shift index (CSI) analysis and the crystal structure 1JLM.

Figure 2.

PTN-induced changes in the ¹⁵N-HSQC spectrum of α_M I-domain. A) Superimposition of ¹⁵N-HSQC spectra of α_M I-domain at different PTN concentrations (see color legend for PTN concentrations). B) Residue specific chemical shift changes induced by 1.2 mM PTN. Data are derived from spectra shown in (A). The value of 1.5 standard deviations higher than the average chemical shift change is indicated by the red line. C) Binding curves deduced from PTN-induced changes in the chemical shifts of I265 and R266 backbone amide signals. Kd was calculated by fitting the curves using a one-to-one binding model. D) Ribbon representation of a_M I-domain with PTN-induced chemical shift change of each residue indicated by a white-to-red color gradient covering the range 0.05 (white) to 0.15 (red) ppm.

Figure 3.

Interactions of α_M I-domain with PTN domains. A) Sections from ¹⁵N-HSQCs of 0.1 mM α_M I-domain alone (green) or in the presence of 0.7 mM of either NTD (purple), CTD (cyan), or wild type PTN (blue). Note that the signal for I265 was aliased in the 15N dimension. B) Comparisons of the magnitudes of backbone amide chemical shift changes induced by wild type PTN, NTD, and CTD.

Figure 4.

Contacts between α_M I-domain and PTN. A) Signal intensity ratios of ²H,¹⁵N- α_M I-domain with (Isat) and without (Iref) PTN saturation. Residues in the α 5–β5 loop of α_M I-domain are highlighted in red. Secondary structures of α_M I-domain as well as segments forming the MIDAS (in green) are indicated on top of the chart. B) Strips from the 13C-HMQC-NOESY-¹⁵N-HSQC experiment showing contacts between G263.HN of $\alpha_M I$ -domain (7.70) ppm) and Leu Hδ and Hβ of PTN (0.95 and 180 ppm). C) Strips from 15N-edited NOESYHSQC spectrum of ²H,¹⁵N-labeled α_M I-domain in the presence of PTN. Contacts are observed only between HN of residues in the α5–β5 loop and PTN.

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Figure 5.

Effects of $\alpha_M I$ -domain mutations on its interactions with PTN. A) ¹⁵N-HSQC spectra of 0.1 mM E258S/E262S α_M I-domain mutant in the presence of different concentrations of PTN (see color legend for PTN concentrations). Note the signal for I265 was aliased in the 15N dimension. Binding curves for residues I265 and R266 are shown on the right. B) ¹⁵N-HSQC spectra of 0.1 mM I265S α_M I-domain mutant in the presence of 0.7 mM PTN. Details of spectral perturbations of some identifiable N/C termini residues are shown on the right.

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Figure 6.

Effects of Mg²⁺ on PTN-induced chemical shifts in $\alpha_M I$ -domain. A) ¹⁵N-HSQC spectra of αMI-domain at different concentrations of PTN (see color legend for PTN concentrations). B) Residue specific chemical shift changes induced by 1.2 mM PTN. Data are derived from spectra shown in (A). The value of 1.5 standard deviations higher than the average change is indicated by the red line. C) Binding curves derived from chemical shift changes and intensity changes of residues I265 and R266 of $\alpha_M I$ -domain. D) Ribbon representation of αMI-domain with PTN-induced chemical shift change of each residue indicated by a white-to-red color gradient covering the range 0.05 (white) to 0.15 (red) ppm.

Inactive α_{M} I-domain and PTN

Active α_M I-domain with PTN

Figure 7.

Schematic model of α_M I-domain-PTN interactions. A) Inactive α_M I-domain (green) interacts with PTN's NTD (blue) through hydrophobic interactions mediated by its α5-β5 loop. Transient electrostatic interactions (yellow lines) between other domains of PTN and MIDAS of α_M I-domain are also possible. B) Active α_M I-domain (brown) has an extra hydrophobic patch (yellow) due to the truncation of the α7 helix, allowing it to have stronger hydrophobic interactions with PTN.

Table 1.

Summary of major PTN-induced perturbations in the backbone amide signals of α_M I-domain. Values are only shown if chemical shift perturbations are more than 1.5 standard deviations above average, or cross saturation intensity ratios are less than 90 %.

The Chemical shift perturbation is calculated using the formula $\sqrt{\Delta H^2 + (0.17 * \Delta N)^2}$.