Solid-state NMR studies of the prion protein H1 fragment

JONATHAN HELLER, ANDREW C. KOLBERT, 3,6 RUSSELL LARSEN, 2,4,7 MATTHIAS ERNST, TATIANA BEKKER, MICHAEL BALDWIN, STANLEY B. PRUSINER, ALEXANDER PINES, 2,4 AND DAVID E. WEMMER^{2,5}

- ¹ Graduate Group in Biophysics, University of California, Berkeley, California 94720
- ² Department of Chemistry, University of California, Berkeley, California 94720
- ³ Department of Neurology, University of California, San Francisco, California 94143
- ⁴ Materials Sciences Division, Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory, Berkeley, California 94720
- ⁵ Structural Biology Division, Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory, Berkeley, California 94720

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Abstract

Conformational changes in the prion protein (PrP) seem to be responsible for prion diseases. We have used conformation-dependent chemical-shift measurements and rotational-resonance distance measurements to analyze the conformation of solid-state peptides lacking long-range order, corresponding to a region of PrP designated H1. This region is predicted to undergo a transformation of secondary structure in generating the infectious form of the protein. Solid-state NMR spectra of specifically 13C-enriched samples of H1, residues 109-122 (MKHMAGAAAAGAVV) of Syrian hamster PrP, have been acquired under cross-polarization and magic-angle spinning conditions. Samples lyophilized from 50% acetonitrile/50% water show chemical shifts characteristic of a β -sheet conformation in the region corresponding to residues 112–121, whereas samples lyophilized from hexafluoroisopropanol display shifts indicative of α -helical secondary structure in the region corresponding to residues 113-117. Complete conversion to the helical conformation was not observed and conversion from α -helix back to β -sheet, as inferred from the solid-state NMR spectra, occurred when samples were exposed to water. Rotational-resonance experiments were performed on seven doubly ¹³C-labeled H1 samples dried from water. Measured distances suggest that the peptide is in an extended, possibly β -strand, conformation. These results are consistent with the experimental observation that PrP can exist in different conformational states and with structural predictions based on biological data and theoretical modeling that suggest that H1 may play a key role in the conformational transition involved in the development of prion diseases.

Keywords: chemical shift; prion peptides; rotational resonance; secondary structure; solid-state NMR

Prion diseases arise through a posttranslational change to the prion protein, PrP (Borchelt et al., 1990; Prusiner, 1992). These neurodegenerative illnesses are novel in that they can be transmitted by prions, proteinaceous agents apparently devoid of nucleic acids (Meyer et al., 1991; Kellings et al., 1992), and because they are manifest in sporadic, inherited, and infectious illnesses. The function of the normal cellular protein (PrP^C), which is expressed ubiquitously on the surface of neurons, is unknown. Gene-targeted mice in which the PrP gene has been disrupted appear to develop and live normally (Büeler et al., 1992),

except that, unlike normal mice, they are resistant to infection by prions (Büeler et al., 1993; Prusiner et al., 1993). In contrast, transgenic mice expressing a mutant PrP transgene encoding a proline to leucine substitution known to cause Gerstmann-Sträussler-Scheinker disease in humans spontaneously develop a transmissible prion disease (Hsiao et al., 1990, 1994).

PrP^C is a glycosylphosphatidylinositol anchored protein found mostly at the cell surface, from which it can be released by phosphatidylinositol-phospholipase C (Stahl et al., 1987), unlike the pathogenic isoform (PrP^{Sc}), which accumulates within the cell (Taraboulos et al., 1990). Many lines of evidence have converged to suggest that the conversion of PrP^C into PrP^{Sc} does not involve a covalent change (Stahl et al., 1993), but is conformational in nature (Pan et al., 1993; Cohen et al., 1994). This posttranslational event gives rise to different physical properties (Borchelt et al., 1990). PrP^C is soluble in nonionic detergents and is protease sensitive. PrP^{Sc} is insoluble and proteolysis

Reprint requests to: David E. Wemmer, Department of Chemistry, University of California, Berkeley, California 94720-1460; e-mail: dewemmer@lbl.gov.

⁶ Present address: DSM Copolymer, P.O. Box 2591, Baton Rouge, Louisiana 70821.

⁷ Present address: Department of Chemistry, University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa 52242.

1656 J. Heller et al.

cleaves only the N-terminal third of the sequence, leaving a protease-resistant core termed PrP 27-30, which retains infectivity; in the presence of Sarkosyl, this rearranges into amyloid rods that stain with Congo red and show green-gold birefringence (Prusiner et al., 1983; McKinley et al., 1991). Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) and CD have demonstrated that PrP^{C} is rich in α -helices and virtually devoid of β -sheet (Pan et al., 1993), unlike PrP^{Sc} and PrP 27-30, which have a high β -sheet content (Caughey et al., 1991; Pan et al., 1993; Safar et al., 1994).

Secondary structure analysis based on sequence homology and molecular modeling predicted that PrPC contains four α -helices, designated H1-H4. Biological data suggest that it is the first two of these helices that convert to β -sheet in PrPSc (Huang et al., 1994, 1996). When peptides corresponding to these four regions were synthesized, three of them were found to have very low solubility in H2O, and FTIR, CD, and electron microscopy showed that they formed β -sheets and polymerized into fibrils (Gasset et al., 1992; Nguyen et al., 1995a). However, CD and solution NMR studies in organic solvents, such as hexafluoroisopropanol (HFIP), or detergents, such as SDS, have shown that H1 and H2, as well as peptides corresponding to longer segments of PrP containing these regions, can form α -helices (Zhang et al., 1995). Thus, these synthetic peptides seem to be able to model some aspects of the conformational pluralism that are exhibited by PrP.

To date, both the cellular and scrapie isoforms of PrP have proven intractable to high-resolution spectroscopic or crystallographic study. PrPSc is particularly problematic because it is insoluble and forms aggregates lacking long-range order (Nguyen et al., 1995b). Solid-state NMR is one of the few techniques able to answer specific structural questions about peptides or proteins in immobile states, such as aggregated peptides and membrane proteins, through the use of chemical-shift information and specific distance measurements. We have used solid-state NMR to gain structural information about an aggregated form of the first of the predicted structural regions, H1 (residues 109–122 of the Syrian hamster PrP sequence).

It has been shown that ¹³C chemical shifts are highly correlated with peptide secondary structure in the solid state (Kricheldorf & Muller, 1983; Saito, 1986). We have employed crosspolarization/magic-angle spinning (CPMAS) techniques (Pines et al., 1973; Schaefer & Stejskal, 1976) to determine chemical shifts of specifically ¹³C-labeled H1 peptides, and used this information to gain insight into the overall secondary structure of these peptides. 13C CPMAS spectra can yield isotropic chemical shifts with relatively high accuracy. These chemical shifts predominately reflect the local conformations of the peptides and are largely independent of the identity of neighboring residues. Conformations of α_R -helix, α_L -helix, ω -helix, β_{10} helix, and β -sheet can be distinguished on the basis of chemical shift. Chemical shifts of amino acid carbons in the solid state in a β -sheet conformation differ by as much as 8 ppm from those in an α -helix (Saito, 1986). Similarly strong correlations have been seen in solution (Spera & Bax, 1991; Wishart & Sykes, 1994), and reproduced in recent theoretical work (de Dios et al., 1993). By using CPMAS to determine isotropic shifts, meaningful information about secondary structure of aggregated proteins can be gained.

We have also used internuclear distance-measurement techniques with doubly ¹³C-labeled peptides to determine specific

distances. Types of secondary structure can be distinguished and structural details discovered best through the measurement of a large number of distances. Strong homonuclear dipolar couplings in solids prevent the use of solution-state proton NMR experiments, such as NOESY (Jeener et al., 1979) and TOCSY (Braunschweiler & Ernst, 1983; Davis & Bax, 1985). Thus, alternative techniques must be employed to determine distances in solids, and recently many such techniques have been designed (Raleigh et al., 1988; Gullion & Schaefer, 1989; Tycko & Dabbagh, 1990; Ishii & Terao, 1995). Rotational-resonance (R²) magnetization exchange (Raleigh et al., 1988; Levitt et al., 1990) is a homonuclear distance-measurement technique that has been applied to several biological systems (Creuzet et al., 1991; Smith et al., 1994b), including one amyloid system (Lansbury et al., 1995). For carbon labels, the technique can be used to measure distances of about 7 Å, with no R² effects indicating that the distance between a pair of ¹³C labels is greater than about 7 Å.

Results and discussion

Chemical shifts

The isotropic shifts of carbonyl 13 C labels throughout the H1 fragment were measured after lyophilization both from acetonitrile (AcN)/ H_2O and from HFIP. Chemical-shift changes on the order of 3 ppm were observed for 13 C resonances when the solvent was changed, although samples lyophilized from HFIP showed an additional minor component retaining the chemical shift of the form lyophilized from AcN/ H_2O . Figure 1 shows the CPMAS spectra for a sample of a mixture of alanine 115 13 C=O, 13 C $_{\alpha}$, and 13 CH $_3$ -labeled H1 peptides lyophilized from AcN/ H_2O (Fig. 1A) and from HFIP (Fig. 1B). Because con-

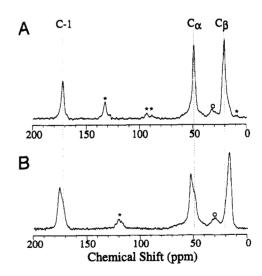


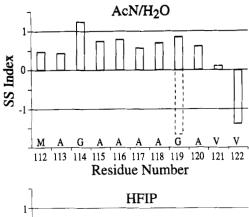
Fig. 1. A: CPMAS spectrum of a mixture of alanine $115^{-13}C=O$, $1^{13}C_{\alpha}$, and $1^{13}CH_{3}$ labeled H1 peptides lyophilized from 50% AcN/50% H₂O. Sixty-four scans were acquired with a CP contact time of 2.0 ms, and a recycle delay of 1.5 s. Spinning speed was approximately 3.0 kHz. Peaks marked with "*" are spinning sidebands; those marked with "o" are due to natural-abundance background ¹³C. All chemical shifts are referenced to ¹³C=O glycine at 176.04 ppm. B: CPMAS spectrum of the same peptides lyophilized from HFIP. The same experimental parameters as in A were used. Dotted lines indicate the positions of the lines when lyophilized from 50% AcN/50% H₂O.

version of the sample to the HFIP form was only approximately 70%, and the two peaks were not completely resolved, we fit each HFIP spectral line with two Lorentzians to obtain accurate chemical shifts. Our data indicate that H1 can exist in at least two different conformations in the solid state, depending on the solvent from which the sample is lyophilized. We define the secondary structure index, χ_{SS} , in a similar way to Wishart and Sykes (1994), as a measure of the degree to which a ¹³C's chemical shift agrees with literature values for either α -helix or β -sheet:

$$\chi_{\rm SS} = 2 * \frac{\delta_{\rm expt} - \bar{\delta}_{\rm lit}}{\Delta \delta_{\rm lit}},$$

where $\delta_{\rm expt}$ is the experimentally determined chemical shift, $\bar{\delta}_{\rm lit}$ is the average of the literature values of the chemical shifts for a particular residue in an α -helix and in a β -sheet (Saito, 1986) (when more than one literature value for a residue in a particular conformation exists, an average of these values is taken before the $\bar{\delta}_{lit}$ is calculated), and $\Delta \delta_{lit} = \bar{\delta}_{\beta} - \bar{\delta}_{\alpha}$ is the difference of shifts for a particular residue in an α -helix and in β -sheet. χ_{SS} is +1 when the chemical shift is in perfect agreement with literature values for a sheet conformation, whereas it is -1 when it is in perfect agreement with published values for the α -helix conformation. Trends in the secondary structure index are indicative of types of secondary structure, even in the presence of some outliers. When lyophilized from AcN/H₂O, carbonyl (Fig. 2), C_{α} and C_{β} chemical shifts throughout the peptide agree reasonably well with literature values for β -sheet. Glycine 119 carbonyl shows two resolved resonances, indicating that more than one conformation is present in our polycrystalline sample. The chemical shift of one of these resonances is consistent with the β -sheet conformation, whereas the other is likely to be some sort of turn, because its chemical shift is similar to the chemical shifts for helical forms. Carbonyl secondary structure indices for the AcN/H₂O form, from residue 112 to 122 are: 0.5, 0.4, 1.2, 0.7, 0.8, 0.6, 0.5, 0.9 (-1.8), 0.6, 0.1, -1.4. The chemical shifts of the major component of samples prepared from HFIP show secondary structure indices indicative of α -helical conformation. Indices of the minor components remain indicative of β -sheet, although low signal-to-noise and errors in fitting make the precision of these calculations lower. The indices for the HFIP form's major (minor) peak for the carbonyl carbons of residues 112 to 120 are: -0.4(0.7), -0.9(0.1), -1.3, -0.7(0.7), -0.9(0.4), -1.0(0.1), -0.3(0.4), -2.2(0.3), -0.1(0.4). No minor peak was observed for glycine 114.

Samples lyophilized from HFIP were found to be water sensitive. Chemical shifts for these samples were observed to change after exposure to water vapor. Figure 3A is the spectrum of the mixture of alanine 115-labeled peptides lyophilized from HFIP. The shifts of the three lines are in good agreement with the helical conformation, with $\chi_{\rm SS}=-0.7, -1.0$, and -0.7 for the $^{13}{\rm C}{=}{\rm O}, \,^{13}{\rm C}_{\alpha}$, and $^{13}{\rm CH}_3$ lines, respectively. When the samples were exposed to an environment of 30% humidity (H₂O vapor over a saturated solution of CaSO₄ at 25 °C), for 30 min, partial conversion back to the other conformation was observed, as illustrated in Figure 3B. Figure 3C illustrates the spectrum after exposing the sample to 100% humidity for 2 h. The lines then occur at a chemical shift indicative of a pure β -sheet conformation, with $\chi_{\rm SS}=0.7, 0.6$, and 1.36 for the $^{13}{\rm C}{=}{\rm O}, \,^{13}{\rm C}_{\alpha}$, and $^{13}{\rm CH}_3$ lines, respectively. We interpret this to mean that the he-



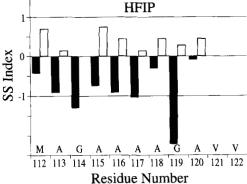


Fig. 2. Carbonyl secondary structure index values for the central residues of the H1 peptide obtained from CPMAS spectra of singly-labeled peptides. A value of +1 (-1) indicates perfect agreement with published chemical shifts of that residue type in a β -sheet (α -helix) conformation. Chemical shifts for the HFIP form were obtained by line-fitting spectra; filled bars indicate the secondary structure index value for the main peak (>70%); white bars indicate the secondary structure index value for the minor peak. Published carbonyl chemical-shift data in ppm are as follows (Saito, 1986): alanine (β -sheet): 171.8, 171.6, and 172.2; alanine (α -helix): 176.4, 176.2, and 176.8; glycine (β -sheet): 168.5, 168.4, and 168.5; glycine (α -helix): 171.7, 171.4, 172.0, and 172.1; methionine (β -sheet): 170.6; methionine (α -helix): 175.1; valine (β -sheet): 171.5 and 171.8; valine (α -helix): 174.9. Larger errors are expected in the HFIP data due to the need to fit two unresolved peaks to acquire chemical shifts.

lical form obtained from HFIP is only meta-stable in the solid state, and when water is present, a sheet form is preferred.

Rotational resonance

A total of seven $C=O-C_{\alpha}$ distances were measured in H1 (Table 1) and compared with distances expected from idealized α -helix and β -sheet conformations. From these idealized models and the experimental and fitting precision, it appears that, although rotational resonance can be used to measure i to i+1 and i to i+2 distances, the precision is insufficient to distinguish between types of secondary structure. Thus, i to i+3 distances are better indicators of types of secondary structure.

An issue that becomes important in our measurements is sample inhomogeneity (Heller et al., 1996). Because the samples showed significant inhomogenous broadening (as determined by spin-echo experiments) and the rotational-resonance condition is fairly narrow, the rotational-resonance condition may not be satisfied simultaneously by all isochromats of the lines. Thus,

1658 J. Heller et al.

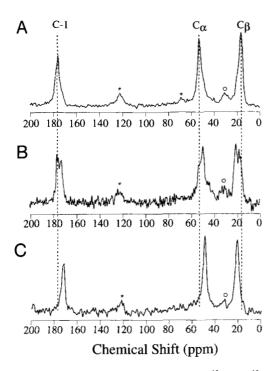


Fig. 3. CPMAS spectra of a mixture of alanine $115^{13}C=0$, $^{13}C_{\alpha}$, and $^{13}CH_3$ H1 peptides (A) lyophilized from HFIP; (B) after exposure to air at 30% humidity (H₂O vapor over a saturated solution of CaSO₄ at 25 °C) for 30 min; (C) after 2-h exposure to air at 100% humidity. Experimental parameters are as in Figure 1, except the number of scans was 1,024 for A, 2,384 for B, and 512 for C, and less sample was used. Peaks marked with "*" are spinning sidebands and those marked with "o" are due to natural-abundance background ^{13}C . Dotted lines indicate the positions of the shifts when lyophilized from HFIP.

they cannot undergo efficient magnetization exchange, and the measured distances appear systematically longer than the "true" distance. We account for such off rotational-resonance effects due to incomplete correlation between inhomogenous lines in our simulations (Heller et al., 1996), and thus obtain accurate distances.

For short distances, we fit the distance, the $T_{\rm 2ZQ}$, and the inhomogeneous line width simultaneously. Because, in the case of short distances, the three parameters are not highly correlated

Table 1. Measured and theoretical distances for the seven doubly-labeled HI peptides

| C=O label | C_{α} label | Best fit distance (Å) | Minimum distance (Å) | Maximum distance (Å) | α-Helical distance ^a (Å) | β-Sheet distance (Å) |
|--------------|--------------------|-----------------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|---|----------------------------|
| 115 | 116 | 2.4 | 2.3 | 2.5 | 2.4 | 2.4 |
| 115 | 117 | 5.8 | 5.4 | 7.8 | 4.5 | 5.4 |
| 115 | 118 | 5.8 | 5.6 | 7.8 | 4.5 | 8.8 |
| 114 | 115 | 2.4 | 2.3 | 2.5 | 2.4 | 2.4 |
| 113 | 115 | 5.4 | 4.9 | 7.2 | 4.5 | 5.4 |
| 114 | 117 | 6.6 | 6.3 | 8.5 | 4.5 | 8.8 |
| 113 | 116 | 6.0 | 5.6 | 7.7 | 4.5 | 8.8 |

^a Distances derived from idealized α -helical and β -strand conformations.

(cross-correlation coefficients of ρ < 0.6), the distance, T_{2ZO} , and inhomogeneous line width can simultaneously be obtained for these samples. We assume these parameters are transferable between samples. Figure 4A shows the data and fit for a measurement of the distance from glycine 114 C=O to alanine 115 C_{α} . The best fit gave a distance of 2.37 Å, which is within experimental error of the correct distance of approximately 2.42 Å. The value of the zero-quantum relaxation time, 9.5 ms, was longer than expected from the T_2 values (Kubo & McDowell, 1988) of the individual lines (5.0 \pm 0.4 ms for the carbonyl and 6.7 \pm 0.7 ms for the C_{α}). The inhomogeneous line width obtained, 76.3 Hz (full width at half height), indicates some correlation between the C=O and C_{α} peak, but not complete correlation. This agrees well with the results of experiments designed to measure this correlation (Heller et al., 1996). In the case of longer distances, the three parameters are highly correlated (cross-

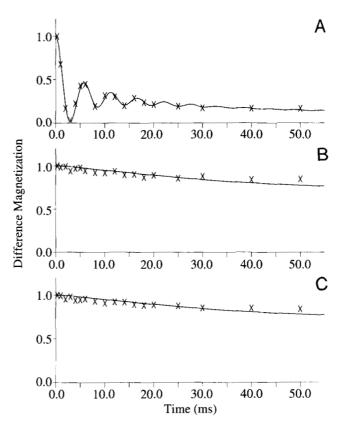


Fig. 4. Experimental rotational-resonance magnetization-exchange curves and best fits for doubly 13C-labeled H1 peptides. A: For a peptide labeled at the C=O of glycine 114 and the C_{α} of alanine 115, values of the three-parameters fit were: distance = 2.37 Å; T_{2ZQ} = 9.5 ms; inhomogenous line width $\Delta \nu_{1/2} = 152.6$ Hz (full width at half height). Correlation coefficients were all less than 0.6. Thirty-two scans for each of the 18 experimental time points were collected 16 times. B: For a peptide labeled at C=O of alanine 115 and the C_{α} of alanine 117, values of the T_{2ZQ} and the inhomogeneous line width were fixed at values obtained in A, and the distance was fit to 5.78 Å. Sixty-four scans for each of the 18 experimental time points were collected 11 times. C: For a peptide labeled at C=O of alanine 115 and the C_{α} of alanine 118, values of the T2ZO and the inhomogeneous line width were fixed at values obtained in A, and the distance was fit to 5.81 A. Sixty-four scans for each of the 18 experimental time points were collected seven times. Error bars indicating experimental precision (not shown) are smaller than the symbols.

correlation coefficients of $\rho \sim 0.9$). Thus, the results of a simultaneous fit to all three parameters are not meaningful. The values of the $T_{\rm 2ZQ}$ and the inhomogeneity obtained in the fits of i to i+1 peptides were therefore used as fixed constants for fits of the distance for the other peptides. Figures 4B and C show the data and simulations for peptides labeled at the C=O of alanine 115 and the C_{α} of alanine 117, and the same carbonyl and the C_{α} of alanine 118. Distances measured and estimated errors are listed in Table 1.

The rotational-resonance data are consistent with an extended conformation for H1. Distances expected for a β -sheet conformation are slightly longer than the three i to i+3 distance measured, but could be consistent with a bent β -sheet model. More distance measurements and greater accuracy would allow the solution of the structure of the H1 peptide to higher resolution.

Conclusions

From our distance measurements and chemical-shift data, it appears that H1 forms an extended, primarily β -sheet-like conformation when lyophilized from AcN/H₂O or dried from pure H₂O. When lyophilized from HFIP, incomplete conversion to the second conformation and overlapping residues make distance measurement more difficult. However, the chemical-shift data from the HFIP form are consistent with the presence of an α -helix. This α -helical conformation appears to be only metastable, and reverts to an extended conformation when exposed to water vapor. The observed conversion is consistent with earlier FTIR data for the peptides (Gasset et al., 1992). Additionally, the present study defines the specific residues involved in secondary structure, and, interestingly, shows that the same sequence of residues is involved in the α -helical or β -sheet conformation. Structural predictions for the protein from molecular modeling (Huang et al., 1994, 1996), and the hypothesis that the infectivity of PrP is the result of a conformational change in H1 and surrounding regions of the protein (Cohen et al., 1994), are also consistent with the present study. Clearly, caution is required when comparing results from this isolated peptide to the corresponding region of the entire PrP molecule.

It may also be of interest to note that our results are similar to those of a solid-state NMR study of a portion of the $A\beta$ peptide found in amyloid deposits in the brains of patients of Alzheimer's disease. Data on the $A\beta$ peptide residues 34-42 suggested a β -sheet or bent β -sheet conformation around a Gly-Gly bond (Lansbury et al., 1995).

The physical properties of the β -sheet-rich PrPSc make it unlikely that high-resolution structural data will be obtained by conventional crystallographic or solution NMR approaches. Thus, there is considerable promise for a method such as solid-state NMR, capable of defining the local environment of individual atoms in a solid lacking long-range order and measuring interatomic distances. At present, the major disadvantage of this approach to defining the structure of a complex entity such as large peptide or protein is the substantial number of specifically labeled peptides required. Despite this limitation, further studies of longer PrP peptides incorporating multiple putative sites of secondary structure, such as peptide 90–145, containing both H1 and H2 (Zhang et al., 1995), are in progress. Eventually, it should be possible to extend these investigations to the entire PrPSc molecule.

Materials and methods

Sample preparation

The labeled PrP peptides, with amidated C-termini, were synthesized using N-Fmoc protected amino acids on a Millipore (Bedford, Massachusetts) model 9050 Plus PepSynthesizer.

¹³C-labeled Fmoc-amino acids were purchased either from Cambridge Isotope Laboratories (Woburn, Massachusetts), or Isotec (Miamisburg, Ohio). Peptides were purified by reversephase HPLC and then lyophilized, dissolved in dilute HCl, and re-lyophilized to remove residual TFA. The purity and incorporation of ¹³C labels was confirmed by mass spectrometry. For CPMAS chemical-shift measurements, singly ¹³C-labeled samples were then redissolved in 50% AcN/50% H₂O or 100% HFIP and lyophilized into a powder.

In order to obtain narrower NMR spectral lines for rotational-resonance experiments, doubly 13 C-labeled samples were dissolved in excess H_2O , partially dried by blowing air over them, and then allowed to equilibrate in an atmosphere of 78% humidity over a saturated solution of ammonium chloride at 25 °C. Line widths obtained from this method were narrower than those from lyophilized samples, reflecting a structurally more homogenous sample. Intermolecular effects in distance measurements were minimized by diluting labeled samples approximately 1:9 in unlabeled H_1 , except for the two samples with short (i.e., $r_{cc} \leq 2.5$ Å) distances in which intermolecular contributions were negligible.

Data acquisition

All experiments were performed on a home-built spectrometer operating at a 1 H Larmor frequency of 301.2 MHz. For the CPMAS experiments used to measure chemical shifts, a home-built double-resonance probe was used. The 1 H decoupling field strength was 62 kHz, the CP contact time was 2 ms, and the recycle delay was set to 2 s. A Chemagnetics (Fort Collins, Colorado) 4-mm double-resonance high-speed spinning probe was used for rotational-resonance experiments. Spinning speeds were controlled using a home-built spinning-speed controller using a phase-locked loop as the central element in the control circuit. Spinning speeds could be controlled to within ± 10 Hz with long-term stability. CP contact time was 2.5 ms and the 1 H decoupling field strength was 100 kHz.

For rotational-resonance magnetization-exchange experiments, total experiment times were kept constant by introducing a variable delay while ¹³C magnetization was stored along the z-axis before inversion (Tomita et al., 1994). This lead to the same average power dissipation due to proton decoupling in all experiments, thus eliminating radio-frequency heating effects as a possible source of error in the measurements. By observing natural-abundance peaks throughout the experiment, it was confirmed that all changes in signal intensity were due to magnetization exchange. Two hundred fifty-six scans were acquired and discarded at the start of each series of experiments to allow for spectrometer and probe stabilization. The n = 1 rotationalresonance condition was used for all experiments (Levitt et al., 1990). Recycle delays were 5.0 s. Weak pulses or DANTE sequences (Morris & Freeman, 1978) were used to invert the carbonyl resonance. To account for spectrometer drift and to determine experimental precision, the following protocol was 1660 J, Heller et al.

utilized. For each slice, 32 or 64 scans were collected and 18 magnetization exchange time points were sampled in random order (Peerson et al., 1995). This 18-time point experiment was cycled through repeatedly, and experiments for each time point were averaged and analyzed statistically to determine mean values and standard deviations of the experimental data. Natural-abundance contributions to the two lines were calculated by comparing natural-abundance peaks in the methyl region of the spectra with the same peaks in the spectrum of unlabeled H1, and using this scaling factor to calculate the amount of natural-abundance ¹³C under the labeled peaks (Peerson et al., 1995). Because these contributions do not undergo magnetization exchange, they were subtracted out before the difference magnetization was calculated. This difference magnetization as a function of rotational-resonance time was used in the R^2 fitting procedure described below.

Line fitting

In CPMAS experiments to determine chemical shifts, samples lyophilized from HFIP gave spectra with two partially resolved resonances. One of these lines appeared at the chemical shift of the AcN/H₂O form, and was interpreted to be due to incomplete conversion to the HFIP form. For these spectra, chemical shifts and line widths were obtained by fitting lines using two Lorentzians with FELIX (Biosym, La Jolla, California). The fit values of chemical shifts were then used in data analysis.

Rotational-resonance simulations

Rotational-resonance magnetization-exchange simulations, including corrections for inhomogeneous broadening, and χ^2 minimizations using model data generated using Floquet theory (Shirley, 1965; Vega, 1992; Levante et al., 1995), were written using the simulation environment GAMMA (Smith et al., 1994a) and are discussed elsewhere (Heller et al., 1996). Three-parameter fits were performed on samples of known, short distances ($i_{C=O}$ to $i + 1_{C\alpha}$) to obtain values for the zero-quantum relaxation times (T_{2ZO}) and for the correlation between inhomogenous line widths. Using these values, one-parameter minimizations were performed to obtain distances for all other samples. The values for the chemical-shift anisotropies and orientations were held fixed for all simulations. The assumed assignment of the relative orientation of the chemical-shift principal axes should introduce only a small additional error in the distance measurements because the n = 1 rotational-resonance condition is not very sensitive to these parameters (Raleigh et al., 1989; Thompson et al., 1992).

The errors of the optimized distances were calculated as follows. For shorter distances, errors were taken to be two standard deviations as determined by the three-parameter fit. For longer distances, in order to obtain a lower bound for the distance consistent with an experimental data set, a one-parameter fit of the distance was run, setting $T_{\rm 2ZQ}$ equal to the shortest estimated value and using the largest possible degree of inhomogeneous broadening. The upper bound for the distance came from a one-parameter fit of the distance, using the longest possible $T_{\rm 2ZQ}$ value and the smallest possible amount of inhomogeneous broadening. The maximum $T_{\rm 2ZQ}$ was taken to be 1.5 times the fit $T_{\rm 2ZQ}$, whereas its minimum was calculated using the method of Kubo and McDowell (1988), i.e.,

$$\frac{1}{T_{2ZQ}} = \frac{1}{T_2^{(a)}} + \frac{1}{T_2^{(b)}},$$

where a and b are the two spins involved, and the T_2 values were obtained from rotor-synchronized CPMG experiments taken with the MAS frequency away from the rotational-resonance condition. The maximum inhomogeneity was taken to be the line width of the broader of the two peaks, and its minimum was taken to be 0 Hz.

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