See discussions, stats, and author profiles for this publication at: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/231446850

Vanadium-51 NMR as a probe of metal-ion binding in metalloproteins

ARTICLE in JOURNAL	OF THE AMERICAN	CHEMICAL	SOCIETY ·	MARCH 1987

Impact Factor: 12.11 · DOI: 10.1021/ja00240a048

CITATIONS	READS
33	17

3 AUTHORS, INCLUDING:



Alison Butler
University of California, Santa Barbara
106 PUBLICATIONS 6,703 CITATIONS

SEE PROFILE



Hellmut Eckert
University of Münster
536 PUBLICATIONS 9,093 CITATIONS

SEE PROFILE

⁵¹V NMR as a Probe of Metal Ion Binding in Metalloproteins

Alison Butler* and M. J. Danzitz

Department of Chemistry University of California at Santa Barbara Santa Barbara, California 93106

Hellmut Eckert

Contribution No. 7539 Division of Chemistry and Chemical Engineering California Institute of Technology Pasadena, California 91125 Received September 29, 1986

Vanadium is widely recognized as a biologically important element. The recent discovery of the first two naturally occurring vanadium-proteins, a V(V)-bromoperoxidase² and a V-nitrogenase,3 has focused our need to learn more about vanadium-protein interactions, particularly involving pentavalent vanadium. An attractive method to characterize metal binding sites of metalloproteins is NMR spectroscopy of the bound metal ion which can serve as a highly selective probe, giving information about site symmetries, the nature of the coordinated ligands, exchange kinetics, and the motional properties of the protein.4-6 Unlike most other biologically important isotopes, the NMR receptivity of the ⁵¹V nucleus is exceptionally high due to a large magnetic moment, high natural abundance, (99.76%), and rapid quadrupolar relaxation in solution. The ⁵¹V NMR chemical shifts are very sensitive to changes in the nature of the ligands, 7-10 thereby providing an excellent diagnostic tool for detailed investigations of vanadium(V) coordination environments. In the present paper, we report the first ^{51}V NMR study of a V(V)-protein complex: $V(V)_2$ -human transferrin. Human transferrin is a glycoprotein that functions as an iron transport protein, although it may also be involved in the transport of other metal ions, including vanadium.¹¹ The protein is a single polypeptide chain with two homologous regions, each of which binds one metal atom.¹² The degree of similarity between the two metal binding sites is not known and is a topic of much current interest.^{6,13-16} While the sequence homology of both halves of transferrin suggests that the binding ligands could be identical, the pH dependence difference for iron binding16 and the ESR spectra of Fe- and VO2+ derivatives^{17,18} as well as the ²⁰⁵Tl NMR spectrum of Tl₂-transferrin,⁶

(1) Chasteen, N. D. Struct. Bonding (Berlin) 1983, 53, 107. Boyd, D. W.;

(3) Robson, R. L.; Eady, R. R.; Richardson, T. H.; Miller, R. W.; Hawkins, M.; Postgate, J. R. Nature (London) 1986, 322, 388.

(4) For a review, see: Forsen, S.; Lindman, B. Methods Biochem. Anal. 1981, 27, 289 and references therein. For more recent work, see: Drakenberg, T.; Forsen, S.; Lilia, H. J. Magn. Reson. 1983, 53, 412. Drakenberg, T.; Andersson, T.; Forsen, S.; Wieloch, T. Biochemistry 1984, 23, 2387.

(5) Raj, T.; Bennett, C. R.; Bryant, R. G. Anal. Biochem. 1980, 106, 373. (6) Bertini, I.; Luchinat, C.; Messori, L. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1983, 105,

- (7) Gresser, M. J.; Tracey, A. S. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1985, 107, 4215.
 (8) Habayeb, M. A.; Hileman, Jr., O. E. Can. J. Chem. 1980, 58, 2255.
 (9) Heath, E.; Howarth, O. W. J. Chem. Soc., Dalton Trans. 1981, 1105.

- (10) Rehder, D. Bull. Magn. Reson. 1982, 4, 33.
 (11) Harris, W. R.; Friedman, S. B.; Silberman, D. J. Inorg. Biochem.
 1984, 20, 157. Chasteen, N. D.; Lord, E. M.; Thompson, H. J. In Frontiers in Bioinorganic Chemistry; Xavier, A. V., Ed.; VCH Publishers: Weinheim, West Germany, 1985; p 133.
 (12) The metal-binding ligands of both sites consist of at least one histidine.
- two tyrosine residues, a water molecule and an exogeneous anion; see ref 13 and references therein.
 - (13) Chasteen, N. D. Adv. Inorg. Biochem. 1983, 5, 201.
 - (14) Aisen, P.; Listowsky, I. Annu. Rev. Biochem. 1980, 49, 357.
- (15) MacGillivray, R. T. A.; Mendel, E.; Shewale, J. G.; Sinha, S. K.; Linebak-Zins, J.; Brew, K. J. Biol. Chem. 1983, 258, 3543.
- (16) Brock, J. H. In *Metalloproteins*; Harrison, P. M., Ed.; Verlag Chemie Publishers: Weinheim, West Germany, 1985; Part 2, p 183 and references
 - (17) Aisen, P.; Liebman, A.; Zweier, J. J. Biol. Chem. 1978, 253, 1930.

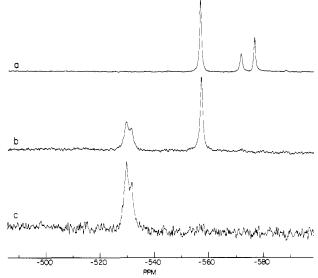


Figure 1. 51V NMR evidence of binding of vanadate to apo-transferrin: (a) 0.826 mM NH₄VO₃ dissolved in 0.1 M HEPES buffer, pH 7.5; 26 342 scans. (b) 2.3:1 M/M mixture of V(V) and apo-transferrin at 0.826 mM in 0.1 M HEPES buffer, pH 7.5; 205 159 scans. (c) Equimolar mixture of (V) and apo-transferrin at 0.340 mM in 0.1 M HEPES buffer, pH 7.5; 200 010 scans.

suggest that the two sites are not equivalent. Figure 1 shows the ^{51}V NMR spectrum of a solution of NH₄VO₃ in HEPES buffer in the presence and absence of transferrin.¹⁹ The spectrum of an aqueous vanadate solution (Figure 1a) agrees with the previously reported spectra. 9,10 Upon addition of 1 equiv of transferrin, two new overlapping peaks at -529.5 and -531.5 ppm are observed, with a total line width of 420 Hz (Figure 1c). The signal areas of these resonances increase linearly with incremental addition of vanadate up to a vanadate/protein molar ratio of 2:1 at which point an additional peak at -557 ppm appears, indicating free vanadate. The areas of the protein-bound vanadate peaks also decrease linearly with incremental addition of iron. Furthermore, the addition of Ga³⁺ leads to rapid displacement of bound vanadium. Line widths and chemical shifts are independent of concentration (range 10⁻⁴ to 10⁻³ M), pH (5-9), nature of the buffer solution, and presence of excess free vanadate (Figure 1b). On this basis we assign these resonances to protein-bound vanadium which is in the limit of slow metal ion exchange on the NMR time scale $(2.5 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}).^{20}$

The absolute intensity of the vanadium-transferrin peak pattern observed in our experiments is about 15% of that observed for an equimolar solution of free vanadate. This indicates that the protein-bound vanadium is in the slow-motion limit ($\omega \tau_c >> 1$). It is well-known that spin-spin relaxation of half-integer quadrupolar nuclei is multiexponential, giving rise to strong deviations from Lorentzian line shapes in the slow-motion regime.²¹ For ⁵¹V (I = 7/2) a sum of four exponentials is predicted, ²² but in the limit of very long correlation times only a single component (corresponding to the $+1/2 \rightarrow -1/2$ transition) may be observable.

Kustin, K. Adv. Inorg. Biochem. 1984, 6, 311.
(2) de Boer, E.; van Kooyk, Y.; Tromp, M. G. M.; Plat, H.; Wever, R. Biochim. Biophys. Acta 1986, 869, 48. Vilter, H. Phytochemistry 1984, 23,

⁽¹⁸⁾ Cannon, J. C.; Chasteen, N. D. Biochemistry 1975, 14, 4573.

⁽¹⁹⁾ Samples were studied within the pH range 5-9, using appropriate buffer solutions (HEPES, BICINE, MES) at concentrations between 0.1 and 1 mM transferrin. Apo-transferrin obtained from Calbiochem or Sigma was purified as reported in ref 23b and references therein (extensive dialysis in 0.1 M NaClO₄ solution). The NMR experiments were done at room temperature by using a BRUKER WM-500 spectrometer equipped with a multinuclear broad-band probe (frequency for ⁵¹V, 131.5 MHz). Spectra were acquired unlocked, in nonspinning samples, under the following conditions: 90° length 20 μs; pulse-repetition rate 10-20 ms; spectral width 100 000 Hz; acquisition time 10-20 ms. Chemical shifts are reported with liquid VOCl₃ as an external reference.

⁽²⁰⁾ Adventitious binding of vanadate was not observed since the 51V NMR spectrum of a solution of vanadate and diferric transferrin is identical with that of an aqueous vanadate solution.

⁽²¹⁾ Hubbard, P. S. J. Chem. Phys. 1970, 53, 985.
(22) Bull, T. E.; Forsen, S.; Turner, D. L. J. Chem. Phys. 1979, 70, 3106.

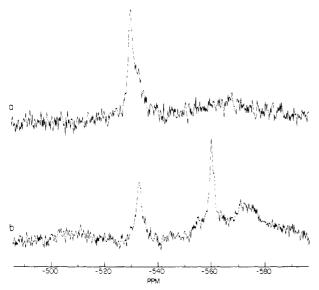


Figure 2. 51V NMR evidence of selective binding of vanadium and iron: (a) Equimolar mixture of V(V) and apo-transferrin at 0.54 mM in 0.1 M HEPES buffer, pH 5.8; 87 285 scans. (b) Equimolar mixture of V(V) and Fec-transferrin at 0.5 mM in 0.1 M HEPES buffer, pH 5.8; 228, 590 scans. Fe_C-transferrin was prepared and identified (urea-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis) according to published procedures.²⁴

Thus we interpret the experimentally observed intensity loss as being due to extremely rapid relaxation of the other components which broadens their signal contribution beyond detectability. The remaining intensity of 15% is close to the theoretically predicted value (19%).

While the observation of two peaks with approximately equal intensity for the bound vanadate agrees well with the qualitative result obtained by UV-vis spectroscopy, 23a the 51V NMR technique is capable of distinguishing these sites according to their different chemical shifts, hence demonstrating their chemical inequivalence. Titrations carried out at pH 7.5 in 0.1 M HEPES buffer for vanadate/protein ratios between 0.1 and 2.3 confirm the large complex formation constants published previously²³ and indicate indiscriminate binding to the C- and N-terminal sites. However, Figure 2a shows that if vanadate solution is added to a HEPES buffer solution at pH 5.8 of transferrin loaded with ferric iron in the C-terminal site, no site scrambling occurs and only a single peak at -532 ppm is observed (in addition to absorptions due to free vanadate). Likewise, we have selectively observed the -529.5 ppm peak when adding vanadate solution to a HEPES buffer solution at pH 7.5 of transferrin loaded with ferric iron in the N-terminal site.²⁵ Thus we assign the peaks at -529.5 and -531.5 ppm to V(V) bound to the C- and N-terminal sites, respectively. In conclusion we have shown that 51V NMR is a highly sensitive tool to monitor binding of vanadate to apo-human transferrin and could be a widely applicable technique to characterize V(V)binding to metalloproteins in general. Such studies as well as investigations of small molecular complexes that model protein binding sites are currently in progress.

Acknowledgment. A.B. acknowledges a grant from the donors of the Petroleum Research Fund, administered by the American Chemical Society. The NMR studies were carried out at the Southern California Regional NMR Facility, funded by NSF Grant CHE 84-40137.

Registry No. Vanadium, 7440-62-2; vanadate, 14333-18-7.

Synthesis of Chiral Molecular Clefts. New Armatures for Biomimetic Systems

Craig S. Wilcox,* Laurie M. Greer, and Vincent Lynch

Department of Chemistry, University of Texas at Austin Austin, Texas 78712

Received December 3, 1986

Natural receptors are often described as clefts, grooves, or depressions on protein, membrane, or polynucleotide surfaces. The essential characteristic of a small molecule receptor is concavity.1 The great majority of synthetic receptors have used macrocyclic rings to enforce the formation of concave surfaces. 2,3 We report here the first syntheses of nonmacrocyclic chiral molecules which contain a deep cleft or groove large enough to bind small organic molecules. The rigid chiral grooves are maintained by conformational constraints intrinsic to the architecture of these synthetic receptors. The concave surfaces in these new molecules are produced without recourse to macrocyclic structural elements.

Analogues of Tröger's base [2,8-dimethyl-6H,12H-5,11methanodibenzo[b,f][1,5]diazocine, I] are useful chiral structural elements for biomimetic systems.4 Such molecules are readily prepared from aniline derivatives and formaldehyde (eq 1) and

have a folded structure wherein the three methylene carbons and two nitrogen atoms form a hingelike bridge between the two aryl units. Tröger's base analogues have been incorporated into a macrocyclic ring to provide chiral, water-soluble cyclophanes which act as receptors for benzenoid substrates.5b All analogues of Tröger's base examined have been found to be sharply folded. The angle formed by the least-squares planes containing the two aryl rings varies depending on the ring substituents and ranges from 92° to 104°.5 We reasoned that two cup-shaped molecules joined in this manner would form a substantial concave surface and define an interesting new binding site.

To test this idea the well-known adduct 1, available in quantitative yield from anthracene and dimethyl acetylenedicarboxylate, was treated with nitric acid in CH₃NO₂ to afford the mononitrate 2 in 76% yield.^{6,7} This nitro compound was quantitatively reduced

(1) (a) Moran, J. R.; Karbach, S.; Cram, D. J. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1982, 104, 5826-5828. (b) Kyba, E. P.; Helgeson, R. C.; Madan, K.; Gokel, G.; Tarnowski, T. L.; Moore, S. S.; Cram, D. J. Ibid. 1977, 99, 2564-2571.

D. L. Ibid. 1984, 100, 4043-4045. (d) Chen, C. H.; Williock, H. W. Ibid.
1978, 100, 4921. (e) McKenna, J.; McKenna, J. M.; Thornwaite, D. W. J. Chem. Soc., Chem. Commun. 1977, 809.
(4) (a) Wilcox, C. S. Tetrahedron Lett. 1985, 5749-5752. (b) Wilcox, C. S.; Cowart, M. D. Ibid. 1986, 5563-5566.
(5) (a) Larson, S. B.; Wilcox, C. S. Acta Crystallogr., Sect. C 1986, C42, 224-227. (b) Larson, S. B.; Wilcox, C. S. Acta Crystallogr., Sect. C 1986, C42, 233-254. (c) Suphpleiki. L. Wilcox, C. S. manuscript in preparation. C42, 253-254. (c) Sucholeiki, I.; Wilcox, C. S., manuscript in preparation.

^{(23) (}a) Harris, W. R.; Carrano, C. J. J. Inorg. Biochem. 1984, 22, 201. (b) Chasteen, N. D.; Grady, J. K.; Holloway, C. E. Inorg. Chem. 1986, 25,

⁽²⁴⁾ Folajtar, D. A.; Chasteen, N. D. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1982, 104, 5775. (25) Fe_N-transferrin was prepared and characterized by the method outlined in ref 24

^{(2) (}a) Odashima, K.; Koga, K. In *Cyclophanes*; Kheehn, P. M., Rosenfeld, S. M., Eds.; Academic: New York, 1983; Vol. 2. b) Murakami, Y.; *Top. Curr. Chem.* 1983, 115, 107–155. (c) Tabushi, I.; Yamamura, K. *Top. Curr. Chem.* 1983, 113, 145–182. (d) Tabushi, I.; Sasaki, H.; Kuroda, Y. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1976, 98, 5727–5728. (e) Whitlock, H. W.; Jarvi, E. T. *Ibid.* 1982, 104, 7196-7204. (f) Diederich, F.; Dick, K. Ibid. 1984, 106, 8024-8036. (g) Cram, D. J.; Katz, H. E. Ibid. 1983, 105, 135-137. (h) Cram, D. J.; Trueblood, K. N. Top. Curr. Chem. 1981, 98, 43-106.

⁽³⁾ Interesting examples of nonmacrocyclic hosts are appearing at an accelerating rate: (a) Rebek, J., Jr.; Askew, B.; Islam, N.; Killoran, M.; Nemeth, D.; Wolak, R. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1985, 107, 6736-6738. (b) Rebek, J., Jr.; Nemeth, D. Ibid. 1985, 107, 6738. (c) Hart, H.; Lin, L.-T. W.; Ward, D. L. Ibid. 1984, 106, 4043-4045. (d) Chen, C. H.; Whitlock, H. W. Ibid.

^{(6) (}a) Diels, O.; Alder, K. Ber. 1931, 64, 191-202. (b) Tanida, H.; Ishitobi, H. Tetrahedron Lett. 1964, 807-811. (c) Ethanoanthracene derivatives were recently reported to be useful components for preparing macrocyclic hosts: Petti, M. A.; Shepodd, T. J.; Dougherty, D. A. Ibid. 1986, 807-810.

⁽⁷⁾ New compounds had elemental compositions and spectral properties in accord with the indicated structures.