



Visualizing the elusive open shape of G-actin in solution by SAXS data analysis

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ABSTRACT

Though biochemical data upholds that ATP hydrolysis induces an opening of the nucleotide binding cleft, crystal structures of the G-actin in the absence of profilin represent the closed structure, regardless of the bound ATP/ADP. Analysis of small angle X-ray scattering (SAXS) intensities confirmed that ATP hydrolysis increases the radius of gyration (R_G) and maximum linear dimension (D_{max}) of G-actin molecules from 22.3 to 23.7 Å and 70 to 78 Å, respectively. Kratky analysis confirmed that G-actin molecules behave like globular scattering particles regardless of the bound nucleotide state. Shape reconstruction using dummy residues and inertial axes overlay with known crystal structures confirmed that the ATP or AMP-PNP bound G-actin adopts a compact shape, and the nucleotide binding site opens up with ATP hydrolysis. Importantly, our ADP-state model resembled the open shape seen for β -actin and hexokinase.

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1. Introduction

Actin is a highly conserved, multifunctional protein and is essential for a vast number of processes in a cell including cell division, cell motility, cell signaling, intracellular organelle trafficking, etc. [17]. Actin can exist in monomeric or globular (G-actin) and in associated or filamentous form (F-actin). The dynamic equilibrium between G- and F-actin forms the basis of the remodeling/maintenance of the cytoskeleton by the eukaryotic cells [13]. The conformation of the nucleotide binding cleft of G-actin remains debatable. The reason is that the nucleotide binding pocket has been refined in closed conformation in all the crystal structures of G-actin irrespective of the phosphorylation state of the nucleotide, except the crystal structure of β -G-actin bound to profilin [4]. These observations contradict the biochemical data that supports nucleotide hydrolysis accompanied conformational changes in G-actin, similar to the changes seen in the structures of hexokinase, glyceraldehydes-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) and alcohol dehydrogenase (ADH) which have ATP-binding folds similar to actin. [4]. Based on crystallographic and biochemical studies, each of these proteins has two major domains which have been speculated to undergo large-scale shift in their position relative to each other upon ligand binding [7]. Despite these expectations, the open state of G-actin has been seen only in the case of β -actin bound to profilin, where the subdomains 2 and 4 are away from each other, thus making the nucleotide binding cleft between them

distinctly accessible to bulk solvent [4,23]. Earlier studies based on partial enzymatic digestion [19,14] support that the molecule is significantly more susceptible to cleavage in the ADP state compared to the ATP state, implying a more open conformation [4]. Yet, this structure never established that the actin can adapt an open shape on its own.

The closed conformation of actin in all but one of the crystals may be because of two reasons. Firstly, the small difference in the free-energy of the open and closed conformations may render the nucleotide binding cleft susceptible to the forces of crystal packing, thereby favoring the closed conformation [15]. Secondly, the presence of the different crosslinking agents and/or bound proteins may disrupt the γ -phosphate sensing mechanism so that the conformation of the nucleotide binding cleft becomes insensitive to the phosphorylation state of the nucleotide [8]. Earlier, it has been suggested that the subdomain movements affect signal transduction across different parts of the actin molecule [5]. Overall, we feel that a holistic understanding of the effect of phosphorylation state of the bound nucleotide on the shape of actin is crucial to understand the biophysical properties of G-actin (as well as F-actin). For G-actin, an unequivocal evidence for the opening of the nucleotide cleft will provide a plausible explanation for the differential binding affinities of a number of proteins including profilin, thymosin β 4 and actin-depolymerization factor for the G- and F-forms of actin [2,11,3]. For F-actin, open vs. close shapes may provide a template structure of an F-actin protomer which reliably fits in the electron microscopy models of ADP-F-actin [1]. Here, we report SAXS data analysis and structures restored for muscle G-actin bound to non-hydrolyzable ATP analog, AMP-PNP and at multiple time points during the course

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of hydrolysis of ATP to ADP. Overcoming the need for a diffractable single crystal or a monophasic system essential for NMR based studies, our SAXS data analysis and modelling show that G-actin undergoes a distinct conformational change upon the hydrolysis of ATP to ADP. Our results clearly show that ADP-bound G-actin adopts a solution shape which is much more open and resembles the proposed hexokinase-like shape.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Actin extraction from chicken muscle

Actin was extracted from chicken breast muscle by employing the protocol detailed by Spudich and coworkers with minor modifications [18]. Briefly, actin was solubilized by suspending the acetone muscle powder in pre-chilled G-buffer (0.2 mM Tris, 0.2 mM CaCl_2 , 0.2 mM ATP, 0.5 mM 2-mercaptoethanol, pH 8) at 4 °C. Polymerization of the actin was induced by the addition of 50 mM KCl and 2 mM MgCl_2 at room temperature for 2 h followed by addition of solid KCl with continuous stirring at 4 °C to the final concentration of 0.8 M. Polymerized actin was collected by the ultra centrifugation at 40,000g for 2.5 h at 4 °C and the pellet was thoroughly washed and softened by overnight incubation in G-buffer. The softened pellet was homogenized thoroughly and kept for extensive dialysis against G-buffer for 3 days with buffer exchange containing fresh aliquot of ATP at every 24 h. Finally, G-actin was obtained by centrifugation at 40,000g for 2 h and concentration was determined by measuring the optical density at 290 nm ($\text{OD}_{290 \text{ nm}} \sim 0.62$, 1 mg/ml). Purity of the G-actin samples was affirmed by presence of a single band close to 40 KDa in SDS-PAGE (8% cross-linking). Protein concentration during data collection was re-estimated using observed intensities for standard samples. Particle size determination of monomeric actin was done by measuring diffusion coefficient values using a Dynamic Light Scattering (DLS) instrument (DelsaNano C, Beckman Coulter).

2.2. Synchrotron SAXS data acquisition and analysis

The dialysis buffer for G-actin was changed every 24 h with fresh ATP. 12 h prior to SAXS experiments, G-actin was distributed in three parts. One part was dialyzed against G-buffer containing AMP-NP (with two changes), second part was dialyzed with buffer containing fresh ATP (with two changes) and third part was left as such. These experiments were carried out using AMICON dialysis cassettes and at 4 °C. SAXS data were collected at different time points from G-actin dialyzed against AMP-NP and ATP buffers (and the dialysis buffer). All SAXS data were acquired at X9 beam line in National Synchrotron Light Source (Brookhaven National Laboratory, NY) and analyzed as described previously [6]. For each individual experiment, 200 μl of protein solution and matched buffer were exposed to X-rays for 60 s at a flow rate of $\sim 50 \mu\text{l}/\text{min}$ (three runs). The scattering images were collected on Pilatus detectors. The beam centre and the distance between the sample and the detector was determined using scattering data from silver behenate powder. The transmission counts at the beam stopper were used to scale the images. Circular averaging was done for both protein solutions and buffers, and then buffer contributions were subtracted to obtain one dimensional scattering intensity profile [$I(Q)$] of the protein molecules as a function of Q , where Q is defined as $4\pi\sin\theta/\lambda$. The $I(Q)$ profiles were analyzed by PRIMUS [9] and GNOM [20] programs to calculate shape parameters by Guinier approximations and Indirect Fourier transformations, respectively. During Guinier approximations, only low Q data points satisfying the relationship that $Q \cdot R_G^2 \leq 1.3$ were considered. Additionally, probability of finding intraparticle vectors equal to 0 Å and D_{max}

of scattering particle were considered to be zero during indirect Fourier transformation.

2.3. Structure reconstruction within SAXS $I(Q)$ profiles

To visualize the ATP hydrolysis accompanied changes in the shape of G-actin, uniform density modeling approach was employed using DAMMINQ software [21]. Using acquired SAXS data as reference, ten models were generated for G-actin bound to ATP, ATP/ADP and ADP considering no shape and symmetry bias. Individual solutions were averaged using DAMAVER suite of programs to obtain predominant scattering shape of the nucleotide bound G-actin in solution [22]. Using SUPCOMB program, the inertial axes of the resultant low resolution shapes for G-actin at different time points and known structures from X-ray diffraction were superimposed [10]. Open-source programs SPDB viewer and PyMOL were used for graphical analysis, and figure generation. Data plotting and curve-fitting was done using OriginLab software.

3. Results

3.1. SAXS based tracking of shape changes accompanying ATP hydrolysis

The critical concentration of G-actin for polymerization has been shown to be dependent on ionic strength and phosphorylation state of the nucleotide. Moreover, ATP-G-actin has ~ 24 times lower critical concentration than ADP-G-actin. Also, ionic strength of the buffer has been shown to significantly alter the polymerization dynamics with higher concentrations of MgCl_2 favoring the polymerization [12]. To study actin in its non-associated or G-form, we deliberately kept the protein at low concentration ($\sim 0.5 \text{ mg/ml}$), in low ionic strength buffer, and replenished fresh ATP containing buffer at every 24 h. DLS experiments estimated the hydrodynamic radii of ~ 3.8 – 4.0 nm for actin molecules in solution suggesting that the protein molecules remained monomeric under these conditions. Further, profiles of the acquired SAXS $I(Q)$ support monodisperse nature of scattering particles in solution during data collection (Fig. 1A). To track the shape changes in the actin molecule accompanying ATP hydrolysis, SAXS data were collected from G-actin samples dialyzed against G-buffer containing fresh ATP and AMP-PNP at different time-points (*scattering $I(Q)$ profiles of only three samples are presented here; Fig. 1*).

Peak-like profiles of the Kratky plots confirmed that the G-actin protein molecules possess globular scattering nature irrespective of the phosphorylation state of the nucleotide (Fig. 1A and inset). Decreasing Q -range and slopes of the allowed linear fit zone in the Guinier analysis of these datasets brought forth that R_G of the protein increases with ATP hydrolysis (Fig. 1B). Indirect Fourier transformation of the $I(Q)$ data provided the pairwise distance distribution function [$P(r)$] for the scattering shapes of G-actin. In agreement with the Guinier analyses, $P(r)$ curves indicated that the D_{max} and R_G of the G-actin molecules increase from 70 to 78 Å, and from 22.4 to 23.7 Å, respectively as the bound ATP was hydrolyzed (Fig. 1C and Table 1). Data analysis showed that R_G of the G-actin gradually increased from 22.4 Å ($\sim 5 \text{ min}$) to reach maximum observed value of $\sim 23.7 \text{ Å}$ by 6 h. Based on this curve, the half-time of ATP hydrolysis under these conditions is about 2.5 h. Importantly, this observation is in correlation with hydrolysis time-spans reported earlier based on fluorescence based experiments [16]. Alongside, SAXS data was acquired from G-actin dialyzed against AMP-PNP buffer at different time points and never dialyzed with ATP (Fig. 1D). The estimated R_G values from indirect Fourier transformation of these datasets showed that the shape parameters of G-actin bound to non-hydrolyzable nucleotide (AMP-PNP) do not vary. Throughout the time-span studied, the

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