A Biophysical and Biochemical Approach to Understanding the Interplay between Quaternary Structure and Function of Human Calprotectin

by

Jules Rabie Stephan

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ABSTRACT

In response to an invading pathogen, the host organism initiates an immune response to fight infection. One component of the response involves metal-sequestering proteins that starve pathogens of essential metal nutrients. Humans release calprotectin **(CP),** a heterooligomer of **S100A8** and **S100A9,** from neutrophils and epithelial cells to prevent microbes from accessing manganese, iron, nickel, and zinc. **CP** also binds Ca(II) ions, which increases the transition-metal affinity and antimicrobial activity of **CP.** In addition, Ca(II) causes the **S100A8/S100A9 CP** heterodimer to form a **S100A82/S100A92** tetramer. When this dissertation research began, it was known that **CP** inhibited bacterial growth **by** sequestering transition metals, and that **CP** could transmit a proinflammatory signal; however, little was known about the fate of **CP** after release. The focus of this work was to better understand how the extracellular space may affect **CP** on biophysical and biochemical levels. Our approach was to study the molecular-level consequences of Ca(II) binding and tetramerization. We found that the heterotetramer exhibited significant resistance to enzymatic proteolysis compared to the heterodimer. Using NMR spectroscopy, we observed that the dynamics of **CP** change significantly upon Ca(II) binding small, yet notable, alterations in secondary structure. Finally, we discovered that methionine oxidation of **CP** inhibited Ca(li)-induced tetramerization, resulting in accelerated proteolysis. Taken together, our studies provided new insights into how **CP** survives the harsh conditions of the extracellular space, and a mechanism for clearing **CP** from the extracellular space.

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Chapter Abstracts

Chapter 1: Innate Immunity and the Fate of Calprotectin

Mammals have two branches of immunity that work in concert to protect the host. Innate immunity rapidly recognizes foreign organisms using germline-encoded receptors, and mounts an inflammatory response. The innate immune system also presents antigens to the adaptive immune system, which develops antibodies specifically tailored to pathogen-derived antigens. We discuss innate and adaptive immunity as well as their intersections, and review the current knowledge of processes that involve extracellular calprotectin. This Chapter concludes **by** discussing the contributions of this research to understanding the fate of extracellular human calprotectin.

Chapter 2: Calcium-induced Tetramerization and Zinc Chelation Shield Human Calprotectin from Degradation by Host and Bacterial Extracellular Proteases

This Chapter describes our investigations into the relationship between the quaternary structure of **CP** and its protease stability. We describe two new variants of **CP-**Ser termed 160K and **160E** that have the **(A8)160E** or **(A8)160K** mutations, respectively. These variants remain dimeric in the presence of $Ca(II)$; however, a metal at this His₆ site causes **160E** and 160K to tetramerize. We compare the protease stability of **CP, 160E,** and 160K against a panel of host proteases. In the presence of excess Ca(II) ions, CP-Ser is a poor substrate for all of the tested proteases, in contrast **160E** and 160K are degraded over the course of the experiments. In the presence of excess Ca(l1) ions and **1** equivalent of Mn(II), all of the proteins are resistant to degradation. We attribute the resistance of **160E** and 160K to degradation in the presence of Mn(II) to tetramerization. We conclude that an unappreciated function of Ca(ll)-induced tetramerization is to protect against proteolysis. In addition, the staphylococcal extracellular protease GluC cleaves the final four residues from the **S100A8** subunit, regardless of oligomeric state. This cleavage site is close to the His3Asp site, and coordination of Zn(II) prevented cleavage **by** GluC.

Chapter 3: NMR Spectroscopy Reveals the Effect of Ca(ll) on the Dynamics of the Calprotectin Dimer

In this Chapter, we report NMR spectroscopic studies of 160K in the absence and presence of Ca(ll). In the absence of Ca(II), we were unable to assign the **S100A8** backbone, and we assigned =94% of the **S10OA9** backbone. In the presence of Ca(II), we assigned ≈66% of the S100A8 backbone and ≈94% of the S100A9 backbone. We observe that Ca(II) causes nearly every peak to shift in the **S100A8** and **S100A9 [1H- 15N]- HSQC** spectra; however, the amide resonances of the **S100A9** C-terminal extension does not undergo changes in chemical shift with the addition of Ca(II). Using the secondary structure prediction program **TALOS-N,** we find that the secondary structure of the 160K heterodimer agrees well with reported crystal structures of the **CP** heterotetramer except for small key regions in the linker region and C-terminal section of helix IV. To investigate dynamics, we measure the T1, T2, hetNOE of the **S100A8** subunit in the presence of Ca(II) and the S100A9 subunit in the presence and absence of Ca(II). We use T₁, T₂, and hetNOE data to perform model free analysis, which provides insight into the picosecond to nanosecond timescale dynamics of the polypeptide backbones. We find that the linker region and C-terminal section of helix IV display Ca(Il)-induced changes in dynamics. We hypothesize that changing the dynamics of these regions promotes tetramerization **by** revealing residues involved in tetramerization and increases transition-metal affinity **by** preorganizing the binding sites.

Chapter 4: Oxidative Post-Translational Modifications Accelerate Proteolysis of Calprotectin

In this Chapter, we study the biochemical consequences of post-translational oxidation of **CP,** specifically methionine oxidation and disulfide bond formation. **By** performing mass spectrometry of human nasal mucus and pimple pus, we observe that **CP** can be oxidized in vivo, and we use 15N-labeled protein as an internal standard to demonstrate that the observed oxidation did not occur after harvesting the samples. We find that oxidation of **(A9)M81** inhibits Ca(Il)-induced tetramerization. In contrast, metal coordination at the **His6** site causes **CP** to form a tetramer after methionine oxidation. We find that the loss of tetramerization caused **by** methionine oxidation results in accelerated proteolysis of **CP** that is prevented when the methionine-oxidized **CP** is bound to Ca(II) and Mn(II). Despite inhibition of Ca(I)-induced tetramerization, methionine-oxidized **CP** displays antimicrobial activity at physiological concentrations. In addition, both full-length **CP** subunits contain a single cysteine residue, and we find that **CP** is capable of forming disulfide bonds within a heterodimer and between heterodimers. We find that both of these disulfide-linked species, particularly the "intradimer" disulfide species, are degraded more rapidly than unmodified **CP by** trypsin in the presence of Ca(II). We propose an extension to the working model of **CP** where reactive oxygen species generated during the immune response oxidize **CP** resulting in accelerated proteolysis. We reason that clearance of **CP** in this manner is important for avoiding excessive CP-mediated proinflammatory signaling that has been observed **by** other research groups.

Appendix 1: Protease Activity Controls

When studying the protease resistance of **CP** variants, we employed conditions that contained different transition-metal ions. It was necessary to assess the activity of the employed proteases under the various conditions to determine whether or not the metal ions were responsible for the observed differences in protease resistance. This

Appendix contains activity assays with small-molecule-protease substrates. We find that our experimental conditions did not have a significant effect on activity of the employed proteases, which confirms our conclusion that changing the oligomeric state of **CP** with transition-metal ions is responsible for the observed differences in protease stability.

Appendix 2: Additional Characterization of CP Variants and Oxidized Species

This Appendix contains characterization of new **CP** variants that were prepared for this dissertation. The characterization includes **SDS-PAGE,** circular dichroism spectra, Mn(lI) competition titrations, size-exclusion chromatograms, sedimentation profiles, full HPLC chromatograms from protease digestion experiments, and antimicrobial activity assays.

Appendix 3: Additional Spectra and Parameters for NMR Spectroscopy

This Appendix contains the details for the settings and field strengths that were used for all NMR spectroscopy experiments for each protein. Additionally, the parameters for processing all of the raw FIDs is included. Supporting spectra are also included.

Appendix 4: Several Dimer-Dimer Interface Variants of CP Exhibit Ca(ll)-Induced Tetramerization

When we were screening **CP** variants in search of mutations that prevent tetramerization, we found variants that showed some degree of tetramer deficiency as well as no perturbation to tetramerization. This Appendix contains size-exclusion chromatograms of these variants and sedimentation profiles of a select of variants. These results suggest that there are residues at the tetramer interface in addition to **(A8)160** that contribute to tetramerization as well as others that appear to be nonessential for tetramerization.

For Mom and Dad

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Graduate school has been an important time for me. Over five years much has changed. **I** cannot help but cringe when **I** look at my first notebook or the first figures that **^I**prepared. **I** think it is a similar feeling to looking back at old pictures, and laughing at the clothes you once wore. Outside of the laboratory, **I** sometimes realize that the way **I** make plans or organize priorities is far more efficient and thoughtful than **I** would have done five years ago. **All** of this is to say that **I** have grown immensely as a scientist and the benefits have extended into the rest of my life.

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Abbreviations

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Chapter **1:** Innate Immunity and the Fate of Calprotectin

1.1 Innate immunity

1.1.1. Innate vs. Adaptive Immunity

In order to survive and flourish, an organism must have the ability to protect itself from environmental dangers and rival organisms. Unicellular and multicellular organisms have developed sophisticated systems to recognize and exterminate threats to their survival. The innate immune system represents an ancient host-defense strategy that is conserved between animals and plants.1 More recently, vertebrates developed a second arm of defense termed adaptive immunity. Adaptive immunity is exclusive to vertebrates, and there is a major distinction between the adaptive immune systems of jawless and jawed vertebrates.^{2,3} Innate and adaptive immunity work together in vertebrates to form a bastion that is stronger than either working in isolation. Innate immunity serves as the first line of defense, and provides the adaptive immune system with antigens used to program a response specific to the invader at hand.

The hallmarks of innate immunity are recognition of specific pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs) and subsequent deployment of broad-spectrum antimicrobial agents in response.^{1,4} PAMPs are molecules produced by foreign organisms that the host recognizes using pattern-recognition receptors (PRRs). For example, the host is alerted to the presence of Gram-negative or Gram-positive bacteria through PRRs that bind bacterial membrane/cell-wall components such as lipopolysaccharide **(LPS)** or lipoteichoic acid, respectively.¹ The PRRs are germline encoded; therefore, they are passed from one generation to the next. The utility of the innate immune system lies in its ability to easily identify foreign organisms.

The earliest identified PRRs were the Toll-like receptors. The indication that Toll proteins were mediators of innate immunity came from studies with Drosophila melanogaster. It was found that mutation of the Toll gene in **D.** melanogaster grievously

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weakened the fly's immune response to fungal infection; however, the antibacterial response remained robust.⁵ The authors found that Toll was a membrane protein that bound a product from a proteolytic cascade that was initiated **by** microbial invasion. They also discovered that the signal transduction pathway activated **by** Toll led to release of antifungal proteins. **By** searching for human homologs to **D.** melanogaster Toll, it was demonstrated that a protein, later named Toll-like receptor 4 (TLR4), was responsible for transducing a proinflammatory signal. 6 The discovery that Toll-like receptors serve as receptors for PAMPs in mammals came from studies of mice that did not mount an inflammatory response upon LPS stimulation.^{7,8} It was found that these mice were homozygous for a point mutation in the TIr4 gene or lacked the gene entirely. The mice lacking functional TLR4 were specifically more susceptible to infection **by** Gram-negative organisms. Humans encode **10** TLR proteins, enabling rapid detection of a diverse set of foreign organisms and activation of cells that contribute to innate immunity, which will be discussed in greater detail in subsection 1.1.2.

In contrast to the innate immune system, which identifies invaders **by** molecules common to many pathogens, adaptive immunity is celebrated for its **highly** specific nature. The adaptive immune system generates antibodies that specifically bind to a pathogen, marking them for destruction. Antibodies also neutralize toxins **by** binding to them. Similar to the innate immune system, cellular receptors initiate the adaptive immune response. The receptors are expressed on the cell surface of specialized lymphocytes termed T cells and B cells, and the receptors are named T cell receptors (TCR) and B cell receptors (BCR), respectively (Figure **1.1).** The TCRs and BCRs are not germline encoded; rather, they continuously change through controlled randomization, a process termed somatic hypermutation.⁹ Each T cell and B cell expresses a single TCR or BCR isoform. T cells and B cells are activated after an antigen binds the TCRs or BCRs.

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Figure 1.1. A summary of the immune cells discussed in this chapter. The T cell and B cell receptors are simplified to only show representations of the extracellular domains involved in epitope and antigen recognition, respectively.

T cells can be grouped into two broad classes: CD4⁺ T cells and CD8⁺ T cells.^{10,11} **CD8'** positive cells are also called cytotoxic T cells. Their TCRs engage the major histocompatibility complex (MHC) **I** of host cells. MCH **I** displays antigens derived from intracellular molecules. **If** a cell is cancerous or is infected with a virus, it will display nonself antigens that activate **CD8+** T cells. Onnon4' T cells **by** the MHC II of antigenpresenting cells (Figure 1.2). After activation, a CD4⁺ T cell will proliferate into many different subtypes, each of which fulfills an important role in guiding the immune response, which is the basis for naming them helper T cells. Activated CD4⁺ cells were historically classified as either Th1 or Th2 cells, and it had been shown that Th2 cells are necessary for B cells to produce antibodies.^{12,13} Later studies demonstrated that there are many subtypes of activated CD4⁺ cells, and that follicular helper T cells (T_{FH}) provide cytokines necessary for B cells to generate antibodies. $^{\rm 10,14}$

The production of antibodies begins with stimulation of a BCR, causing the B cell to internalize the bound molecule, degrade it, and present the fragments on the MHC II (Figure 1.2). **A** TFH cell that recognizes a peptide presented on a B cell will interact with the activated B cell (Figure 1.2). The interaction stimulates the B cell in a number of ways that promotes proliferation, affinity maturation of the antibody, switching from production of IgM to other another isotype, and survival.¹⁴ Eventually, B cell clones that efficiently recognize the parent antigen are selected, and become plasma cells or memory B cells. The plasma cells secrete antibodies that are used to fight the infection, whereas memory B cells remain dormant until stimulated **by** their antigen, causing rapid proliferation of plasma cells and release of antibodies. Likewise, this process creates memory T cells that will recognize future encounters with the pathogen. The time between infection and production of high-affinity immunoglobulins requires several days. **By** retaining memory cells, the organism can dramatically reduce the time required for a strong response **by** the adaptive immune system.

1.1.2. Connections between Innate and Adaptive Immunity

Though the innate and adaptive immune systems were presented as operating independently, there are intersections that are critical for robust host defense; however, they were not always appreciated. Beginning with the discovery of the adaptive immune system, the prevailing notion had been that strong activation of TCRs and BCRs were the only signals needed to mount an adaptive immune response. At a symposium in **1989,** Dr. Charles Janeway presented a new hypothesis to counter what he termed "the immunologist's dirty little secret," which was that antibody generation at the time relied on administration of the antigen with complete Freund's adjuvant (a mixture of dead Mycobacterium tuberculosis or Bordetella pertussis).¹⁵ The adjuvant was necessary because it had been observed that stimulation of T cells with an antigen was insufficient to induce a response, and that an adjuvant of heat-killed pathogens was essential for raising antibodies.^{15,16} These observations led to Janeway's hypothesis that a second signal alongside the match between a TCR/BCR and an epitiope/antigen was necessary for stimulating an immune response. Janeway proposed that dendritic cells (DCs) provide the second signal. 15 Dendritic cells are part of the innate immune system and are considered to be antigen-presenting cells (Figures **1.1** and 1.2).17,18 DCs express many PRRs, and continually present fragments of endocytosed molecules on their MCH **11.** The importance of DCs was illustrated in a series of studies using DCs and mice in which **MyD88,** a protein essential for transducing the signal from a TLR-ligand interaction, was knocked out.^{6,19-21} It was found that MyD88 and PAMPs were essential for enabling DCs to productively present antigens to T cells. It is thought that the need for PRR activation and TCR activation serves to avoid generating an autoimmune response because PRR activation confirms that a pathogen is present. $^{\rm 15,22}$

Figure 1.2. A simplified depiction of the process **by** which the adaptive immune system develops antibodies against an antigen. **(A) A** dendritic cell endocytoses an antigen and is stimulated **by** a PAMP (not shown). (B) The dendritic cell proteolyzes the antigen and displays the fragments on its MHC **11. (C) A** CD4+ T cell binds a presented epitope through its TCR. **(D)** The T cell becomes activated **by** the TCR-epitope interaction and factors secreted **by** the dendritic cells that are not shown. **(E) A** B cell binds an antigen through its BCR causing the cell to endocytose the antigen and become activated. The antigen is proteolyzed, and the fragments are displayed on its MHC **II.** (F) An activated T cell binds the epitope, now displayed on a B cell, that was recognized earlier. T cell further activates the B cell **by** secreting effector molecules (not shown) and forming protein-protein interactions between T cell and B cell surface proteins. **(G)** The B cell proliferates, differentiates, and mutates its BCR; this process is not illustrated. Eventually high affinity BCRs are selected, and those clones become plasma cells that secrete Igs based on their BCRs (IgGs shown). Memory T cells and B cells form to provide a rapid response to future infection (not shown).

The complement system represents another connection between innate and adaptive immunity. There are three branches of the complement system: the classical pathway, the lectin pathway, and the alternative pathway. Activation of the classical pathway begins with the soluble **C1** protein complex, which is an oligomer of **C1q,** C1r, and Cis. The **Clq** component of the complex is a hexamer of collagen-like triple helices comprising **18** polypeptide chains (Figure 1.3).23,24 The hexamerization occurs at the **N**terminal ends of the proteins. The complex splits to form six trimeric coiled-coils, and each polypeptide terminates with a globular domain that binds **IgG** and **IgM** (Figure **1.3).2526** The **Ig** domains from a single coil trimerize. **A** tetramer of **C1r2C1s2,** the monomers of which are proteases secreted as zymogens, forms on the triple helices (Figure 1.3).^{24,27} Once the complex engages with multiple IgGs and/or IgMs, the Clr subunits of the **C1** complex activate themselves **by** self-cleavage, enabling them to activate Cis **by** proteolytic cleavage.28 The **C1s** subunits go on to initiate the complement cascade (Figure **1.3).27**

Lectin pathway initiation is a combination of PRR activation and the classical complement pathway. Collectins and ficolins form soluble collagen-like triple helices that can associate into oligomers ranging from dimers to hexamers. The preferred oligomer may differ among collectins and ficolins (Figure **1.4).29,30** The C-terminal domain of each polypeptide is globular, and is used for binding sugars displayed on microbial, viral, or **Ig surfaces. ²⁹, 3 1, 3 2** Collectins use lectin domains, and ficolins use fibrinogen-like domains for binding carbohydrates. 30 Similar to the **C1** complex, multivalent interactions between a collectin or ficolin and target carbohydrates cause activation of mannose-binding proteinassociated serine proteases (MASPs) that are complexed to the collectin or ficolin (Figure **1.4).31** The MASPs prefer to form homodimers. It has been shown that **MASP-1** cleaves MASP-2, which initiates the complement cascade (Figure 1.4).³⁰

Figure 1.3. Diagram of the **C1** complex. Each **C1q** subunit is a trimer, and six **C1q** subunits (shown in shades of brown) form **a** hexamer bundle. Triple helices branch out from the C-terminal region of the hexamer and terminate with globular Ig-binding domains. The trimeric Ig-binding domains are represented as a single sphere. Each bundle of globular Ig-binding domains can bind up to three Igs (IgGs shown). The Cis and **C1r** zymogens form a tetramer on the triple helices. Once a sufficient number of Igs have been bound, Cis is activated, which cleaves C1r. Once active, C1r cleaves **C2** and C4 into C2a, **C2b,** C4a, and C4b. The C4a fragment is an anaphlytoxin and the other fragments form multi-protein complexes that participate in propagation of the complement cascade.

Lastly, the alternative pathway requires no specific receptor-ligand interaction for pathway initiation (Figure **1.5).33,34** The **C3** protein is a central element of the complement cascade common to the propagation of all three pathways, and it is capable of slow spontaneous activation **by** hydrolysis of an internal thioester.35 After hydrolysis, **C3** associates with factor B, a zymogen protease. The complex, **C3B,** is a substrate for factor **D,** which activates factor B **by** cleaving it. Activated factor B cleaves new molecules of **C3** to form C3a and **C3b. C3b** can associate with a new molecule of factor B, which can be activated **by** proteolytic cleavage, further increasing the amount of active factor B. The

complex of **C3b** and cleaved factor B **(C3bBb)** can then cleave new molecules of **C3** to create a positive feedback loop as well as propagate the complement cascade (Figure **1.5).** Cleavage of **C3** to form **C3b** also greatly increases the reactivity of the internal thioester, allowing **C3b** to acylate amines and alcohols on cell surfaces. Accumulated **C3b** is a strong opsonin, as are downstream proteolytic fragments of the complement cascade, which marks an entity for destruction. To prevent opsonization of host cells, **C3b** can be intercepted **by** factor H or homologs that are displayed on the surface of host cells to prevent amplification.36 Further dampening of the alternative pathway is caused **by** the protease factor **I,** which inactivates **C3b** after sequestration, **by** cleaving it. **By** taking stock of the three complement pathways, one can appreciate the spectrum of immunity that ranges from the **highly** non-specific alternative pathway to the antibody-targeted classical pathway, and the PRR-like system of the lectin pathway lying in the middle.

Figure 1.4. **A** diagram of mannose-binding lectin (MBL) complexed with **MASP-1** and **MASP-2.** MBL trimerizes **by** forming a triple helix. Trimeric units of MBL tetramerize through their N-terminal domains. The C-terminal domains are lectins. Each bundle of three lectins is shown as a single sphere. After a sufficient number of sugars have been bound, **MASP-1** becomes active allowing it to cleave **MASP-2,** which cleaves C4 and **C2** to produce C2a, **C2b,** C4a, C4b. The C4a fragment is an anaphlytoxin and the other fragments form multi-protein complexes that participate in propagation of the complement cascade.

Figure 1.5. Initiation of the alternative pathway. Regulatory proteins (e.g. factor H and factor **1)** are not depicted. **(A)** Initiation begins with the slow spontaneous hydrolysis the internal thioester of **C3.** (B) After hydrolysis, **C3** can associate with the zymogen protease factor B. **(C)** After complexation, factor B is cleaved **by** factor **D** (not depicted). The proteolytically active fragment **Bb** remains bound to **C3. (D)** The **C3Bb** complex cleaves new molecules of **C3** to form **C3b (E)** The thioester of **C3b** is reactive, and can acylate solvent exposed amines and alcohols. After acylation, **C3b** can bind a new molecule of factor B, which is activated **by** factor **D** in a manner analogous to steps B and **C.** (F) The complex **C3bBb** can cleave more **C3** to create a positive feedback loop and/or propagate the complex cascade. **(G)** The complex **C3bBb** can propagate the complement cascade.

1.1.3. The Neutrophil

The neutrophil is the most common white blood cell in humans, and is a central player in innate immunity. Under basal conditions, humans produce approximately **1011** neutrophils per day through the process of granulopoiesis.³⁷ The high production of neutrophils is matched **by** their rapid turnover. Neutrophils have been estimated to have a half-life of approximately **7** h; however, there is variability in reported half-lives, and neutrophils that are not in circulation can live considerably **longer.3 ⁷,3⁸**In order to support such high production of neutrophils, it is has been estimated that two thirds of bone marrow is dedicated to generating neutrophils and closely-related monocytes.39 The genesis of a neutrophil begins with a hemapoetic stem cell that differentiates into a lymphoid-primed multipotent progenitor cell.^{39,40} Subsequently, the cell differentiates into a granulocyte-monocyte progenitor cell in a process controlled **by** many transcription factors. 41 Once the granulocyte-monocyte progenitor cell differentiates into a myeloblast, it is no longer considered a stem cell because it is destined to become a granulocyte, and instead is classified in the mitotic pool. $42,43$ The mitotic pool also includes further differentiated cells: myeloblasts, promyelocytes, and myelocytes (Figure **1.6).** 43 The postmitotic pool encompasses metamyelocytes, and band neutrophils (Figure 1.6).⁴³ Maturation terminates with the band cell becoming a segmented neutrophil that is ready for release into circulation (Figure **1.6).**

As a cell matures into a neutrophil, the nucleus of the cell undergoes major changes, and its resulting shape varies between organisms. 44 The details of nuclear morphology that follow are specific to human neutrophils (Figure **1.6).** While in the stem cell pool, the nucleus is round, similar to other cells. The nucleus takes on a "horseshoe" shape in the mitotic pool. The horseshoe becomes more exaggerated, and the ends bulge as the cell becomes a banded neutrophil. **A** fully mature neutrophil has a signature segmented nucleus where narrow sections separate bulging sections. Neutrophil nuclei commonly have three segments; however, cells with more segments have been
observed, and they are termed hyper-segmented neutrophils. Despite the fact that segmentation correlates with neutrophil development, it has been reported that hypersegmented and segmented cells have comparable age.⁴⁵

Figure 1.6. The maturation process of a neutrophil beginning with the myeloblast.^{43,44} The blue circles represent azurophilic granules. The red circles represent secondary granules. The green circles represent tertiary granules. The granules carry antimicrobial proteins and peptides. The transition from segmented neutrophil to hyper-segmented neutrophil has a question mark because it is unclear whether hyper-segmented neutrophils are more mature than segmented neutrophils.

Granules also follow a defined formation pathway as a neutrophil matures (Figure **1.6).** During the process of becoming a promyelocyte, the primary granules begin to form. Primary granules are also known as azurophilic granules because of their high myeloperoxidase content that gives these granules a distinct blue color when stained with the Romanowski stain.^{46,47} Primary granules also contain other antibacterial molecules including proteinase **3,** cathepsin **G,** neutrophil elastase, azurocidin, a-defensins (human neutrophil peptides 1-4), and bactericidal permeability-increasing protein.^{46,47} The secondary granules form as the cell differentiates from a myelocyte to a metamyelocyte. During the transition from a band cell to a segmented neutrophil, the tertiary granules form.46 47 The secondary and tertiary granules contain similar batteries of antimicrobials including lactoferrin, lipocalin-2, lysozyme, and LL37.46,47 Many of these proteins/peptides (e.g. α-defensins, azurocidin, and LL37) kill by damaging microbial cell membranes.^{48-5ι} Alternative mechanisms of action of α -defensins and related peptides are areas of current interest. 51 Other proteins (e.g. lysozyme, neutrophil elastase, and cathepsin **G)** enzymatically degrade bacterial proteins or cell **walls.5 2, ⁵³**In addition to the antimicrobials, the secondary and tertiary granules contain matrix metalloproteinases **8, 9,** and **25.** These enzymes degrade nearby tissue to promote immune cell entry and swelling.⁴⁶ Other antimicrobial proteins are stored in the cytosol of neutrophils. Calprotectin **(CP,** S100A8/S100A9 oligomer, calgranulin A/B oligomer, MRP8/MRP14 oligomer, L1 protein, cystic fibrosis antigen) accounts for approximately 40% of cytosolic protein in neutrophils. 54 Other antimicrobial proteins stored in the cytosol include **S100A12** (Calgranulin C) and phospholipases that attack bacterial membranes.^{55,56}

In addition to the soluble antimicrobial proteins, neutrophils store **NOX-2** (a **NADPH** oxidase) in the plasma membrane. **NOX-2** is composed of many different proteins that associate after the neutrophil has engulfed a microbe.^{46,57} The microbe is quarantined to the phagosome, and the **NOX-2** complexes are delivered to the phagosomal membrane. **NOX-2** is oriented such that it receives electrons from the cytosol, which are used to reduce O_2 to superoxide (O_2^{\bullet}) in the phagosome. The superoxide anion can dismutate to form oxygen and hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) . The activity of **NOX-2** is prodigious; it has been found that **NOX-2** activation caused neutrophils to consume oxygen at approximately a 10-fold faster rate than resting cells,⁵⁸ giving rise to a phenomenon known as the "oxidative burst." When measuring the oxidative burst using an ensemble of cells, the burst was sustained between 20 and **30** min. In contrast, a study using single cells found that the burst duration was between 2 and **3** min before subsiding to a rate of oxygen consumption slightly higher than basal levels.^{59,60} In addition, merging of the phagosome and granules causes the granule

proteins to enter the phagosome. Fusion of the primary granules with the phagosome releases myeloperoxidase, which catalyzes the reaction of **H202** with **Cl-** to generate the extremely potent oxidant **HOCI.⁵ ⁷**The combination of oxidants **(02*, H202,** and **HOCI)** and antimicrobial agents is thought to effectively kill microbes. Granules may also fuse with the plasma membrane to deliver their contents to the extracellular space. Once a neutrophil has phagocytosed and bombarded a pathogen, neutrophils can undergo apoptosis, and be cleared **by** a macrophage or form a neutrophil extracellular trap **(NET). ⁶ 1,⁶ ²**When forming a **NET,** the nucleus grows and eventually disintegrates as the chromatin unwinds. Simultaneously, leftover granules also dissolve. The cell forms a **NET by** releasing its entire intracellular contents including cytosolic proteins, granule proteins, DNA and histones.⁶² NETs have been found to exert antimicrobial activity against several microbes. Mice unable to form nets due to a peptidylarginine deaminase 4 knockout were more susceptible to staphylococcal necrotizing fasciitis than wild-type mice.⁶³ It has been shown that generation of ROS is critical for NET formation.⁶² The factors that lead to NETosis remain poorly understood; however, it is apparent that NETs are an important facet of neutrophil function.

1.2 Calprotectin in Innate Immunity

1 .2.1. Nutritional Immunity

In addition to the active destruction of pathogens described in the previous section, the host has mechanisms to starve invading pathogens of essential nutrients. Transition metals are essential nutrients for all life, and serve as catalytic, structural cofactors, and signaling agents. When fighting infection, the host lowers the availability of nutrient transition metals through a process termed "nutritional immunity."⁶⁴⁻⁶⁷ Sequestration of metal ions constitutes an important strategy to defend against microbial invasion. Limitation of iron was the first example of nutritional immunity; however, in recent years

the importance of limiting manganese and zinc has emerged.^{64,65,68} The neutrophi contributes to nutritional immunity **by** releasing lactoferrin, lipocalin-2, **CP,** and **S100A12.** Lactoferrin chelates Fe(III) to inhibit iron uptake by bacteria.⁶⁹ In response to iron restriction, bacteria secrete siderophores, which are capable of extracting Fe(lll) from lactoferrin and related proteins. The prototypical example of a siderophore acquiring Fe(Ill) from host proteins is enterobactin, a siderophore used **by** many Gram-negative **organisms. ⁷⁰**To combat the siderophores, the host releases lipocalin-2 to sequester ferric siderophores, especially enterobactin.⁷¹ In addition to metal-chelating proteins, neutrophils express metal-transport proteins that remove transition metals from the phagosome. Namely, neutrophils localize natural resistance-associated macrophage protein (NRAMP1) to the membrane of tertiary granules.⁷² NRAMP1 is a divalent metalion transporter that pumps nutrient metals out of the phagosome.⁷³ Though this discussion focused on acquisition of uncomplexed metal ions, a similar tug-of-war over occurs for heme. ⁷⁴

1.2.2. **CP** is a Metal-Sequestering Protein

The importance of manganese and zinc limitation became widely appreciated when it was observed that Staphylococcus aureus abscesses were depleted of Mn and Zn.⁷⁵ In particular, Mn was depleted in a CP-dependent manner, and mice lacking the **S10OA9** gene (knocking out **S100A9** prevents **S100A8** production) 76 suffered from a more serious infection. This discovery motivated efforts to understand the metal-binding properties of **CP** and the effects of CP-mediated metal sequestration on microbial metalion homeostasis.

Early studies using protein obtained from neutrophils had established that **CP** displayed Zn(II)-reversible antimicrobial activity.⁷⁷⁻⁷⁹ Later studies that employed recombinant protein demonstrated that **CP** could inhibit the growth of bacteria, which was attributed to depriving the microbes of Mn(II) or Zn(II).^{75,80-83} Observations that bacteria

upregulated Mn(II) and Zn(II) transport machinery in response to **CP** treatment provided further credibility to metal-sequestration model of CP activity.^{84,85} It was hypothesized that sequestration of Mn(II) **by CP** prevented activation of superoxide dismutase in **S.** aureus, which weakened the cells to the ROS generated by neutrophils.⁸⁶ Subsequent studies with mouse models of infection and bacteria in culture found that knocking out genes for Mn(II) transport reduced infectivity and superoxide dismutase activity in **S.** aureus, and that the presence of **CP** gave rise to similar phenotypes, leading to the conclusion that **CP** deprived the bacteria of Mn(ll). 8486 Recently, **it** was found that **S.** aureus relies on a cambialistic superoxide dismutase named SodM under manganese-limiting conditions.87 This enzyme can use iron in place manganese when the bacteria are treated with **CP;** however, it has a much lower catalytic activity than SodA, which requires a Mn(Il) cofactor for activity.

In addition to the protective effects of **CP,** perturbing metal homeostasis can increase infectivity. One study addressed the interplay between Salmonella enterica serovar Typhimurium virulence and **CP.88** In a mouse model of **S.** Typhimurium colitis, robust infiltration of neutrophils into the cecum and an increase in fecal calprotectin occur. When ZnuABC, a Zn(li)-uptake system of **S.** Typhimurium, was disrupted **by** knocking out znuA, the bacteria displayed markedly lower colonization, which indicated that virulence was linked to the ability to acquire Zn(II). The colonization could be rescued **by** feeding the mice extra Zn(II), which presumably counteracted Zn(II) sequestration **by CP.** The surprising result was that wild-type **S.** Typhimurium colonization was decreased when the mice were unable to produce **CP.** It had been shown that **S.** Typhimurium thrives in inflammatory environments where many other microbes struggle to survive.⁸⁹ At least part of the success of **S.** Typhimurium under inflammatory conditions can be ascribed to ZnuABC enabling the pathogen to acquire Zn(II) when challenged with **CP.**

Other work has addressed how **CP** impacted metal-ion homeostasis of Streptococcus pneumoniae. This pathogen has a relatively high requirement for Mn,⁹⁰

and it had been shown that Mn was necessary for **S.** pneumoniae to survive oxidative stress.⁹¹ , 92 Transport of Mn(II) in **S.** pneumoniae is mediated **by** the **ABC** transporter PsaABC; however, the transporter can be poisoned **by** high concentrations of Zn(ll), and bombardment of S. *pneumoniae* with Zn(II) during infection protected the host.⁹³ It was found that that preventing expression of **CP** in mice led to delayed death and less dissemination of **S.** pneumoniae in a model of pneumococcal pneumonia. 94 Preventing **CP** expression did not alter neutrophil infiltration or cytokine production, indicating that loss of **CP** did not alter the innate immune response. Using recombinant **CP,** it was demonstrated that **CP** could rescue the growth of **S.** pneumoniae in the presence of high Zn(ll) concentrations, presumably **by** sequestering Zn(II) and allowing PsaABC to transport Mn(ll). The authors concluded that **CP** alters the ratio of Mn(Il):Zn(ll) during infection such that **S.** pneumoniae can acquire Mn(ll) and spread the infection.

Many studies have investigated the consequences of Mn(ll) and Zn(II) sequestration **by CP;** however, recently it has been established that **CP** also binds Fe(ll) and **Ni(l1). ⁹⁵ , ⁹⁶**Bacteria grown in medium treated with **CP** exhibited marked growth defects unless Fe was replenished into the medium, and recombinant **CP** inhibited Fe uptake into Escherichia coli and Pseudomonas aeruginosa. Recently, **CP** was reported to bind Ni(II).⁹⁶ Though nickel is used as a protein cofactor less frequently than manganese, iron, and zinc, Ni(II) is employed in urease by Helicobacter pylori, Klebsiella pneumoniae, and Staphylococcus spp. to detoxify their environments **by** increasing the **pH.97 99 CP** was found to bind Ni(ll) and decrease Ni acquisition **by S.** aureus.96 Additionally, **CP** inhibited the ability of **S.** aureus to increase the **pH** of growth media and urease activity was decreased in **S.** aureus lysates. Lastly, recombinant **CP** has been shown to inhibit Cu uptake **by** Candida albicans, and induce a Cu starvation response that was also observed in a murine model kidney invasion **by C.** albicans.¹⁰⁰

1.2.3. Structure of **CP**

CP is a heterooligomer of two **S100** proteins, **S100A8** (a subunit, **10.8** kDa) and S100A9 (β subunit, 13.2 kDa).^{101,102} The apo protein is an $\alpha\beta$ heterodimer (Figure 1.7A). The identifying characteristics of the S100 family are their small size $(\approx 12 \text{ kDa})$, α -helical fold, and two EF-hand domains connected by a linker.^{103,104} The C-terminal EF-hand of **S100** proteins resembles that of calmodulin, and is termed a canonical EF-hand (Figure **1.7C).** These EF-hands have been shown to have **highly** tunable dissociation constants. For instance, the EF-hands of calbindin proteins have been shown to have dissociation constants on the order of **10** nM for Ca(ll), whereas other proteins have dissociation constants on the order of 10 μM.¹⁰⁵⁻¹⁰⁸ The N-terminal EF-hand has been termed a noncanonical or pseudo EF-hand, and is exclusive to **S100** proteins (Figure **1.7D). ¹⁰⁹, ¹¹⁰**The pseudo EF-hand forms a larger loop than the canonical EF-hand, it exhibits a lower coordination number, and contains fewer negatively charged residues. Due to their unique features, pseudo EF-hands have weaker Ca(II) affinities than canonical **EF**hands. 109 The EF-hands of **CP** are important sensors that provide a signal for significant biochemical changes. In the presence of excess Ca(II), CP tetramerizes to form an $\alpha_2\beta_2$ heterotetramer (Figure **1.7B). ⁸¹ , ¹¹¹**In the presence of Ca(ll), the protein exhibits orders of magnitude higher transition-metal affinity, enhanced antimicrobial activity, and increased thermal **stability.81, ⁹⁵,9⁶ , 11 1, ¹ ¹²**These observations provided the basis for the working model of **CP** function (Figure **1.8).** Due to the low resting intracellular Ca(II) concentration (≈100 nM),¹¹³ CP is presumed to be Ca(II)-free in the cytosol, which keeps the protein in the low affinity state. As **CP** is released, it will be exposed to the high concentration of Ca(II) in the extracellular space (\approx 2 mM),¹¹³ causing the protein to Ca(II) and tetramerize, which activates the high transition-metal affinity for competing with bacteria.

A8 -GADVWFKELDINTDGAVNFQEFLILVIKMGVAAHKKSHEESHKE -------------- 93 A9 KVIEHIMEDLDTNADKQLSFEEFIMLMARLTWASHEKMHEGDEGPGHHHKPGLGEGTP 114

Figure 1.7. Crystal structure of CP with Ni(II), Ca(II), and Na(I) bound, PDB: 5W1F.⁹⁶ (A) **A** dimer shown with Na(l), Ca(II), and Ni(II) bound. (B) Structure of the **CP** tetramer without the transition metals. One dimer is in light colors, and the other is in dark colors. **(C)** C-terminal canonical EF-hand of **S100A9** with Ca(ll) bound. **(D)** N-terminal pseudo EF-hand of **S100A9** with Ca(ll) bound. **(E)** Site **1** with Ni(II) bound. (F) Site 2 with Ni(II) bound. **S100A8** is green. **S100A9** is blue. The purple spheres are Na(l) ions. The yellow spheres are Ca(ll) ions. The red spheres are water molecules. The teal spheres are Ni(II) ions. **(G)** Sequence alignment of **S10OA8** and **S10OA9** with transition-metal-binding residues in red.

In addition to the Ca(li)-binding sites, there are two sites at the dimer interface that coordinate transition metals. "Site *1"* is a His3Asp motif composed of (A8)His83, (A8)His87, (A9)His2O, and (A9)Asp3O (Figure **1.7E),** and "site 2" is a His6 motif composed of (A8)His17, (A8)His27, (A9)His91, (A9)His95, (A9)His103, and (A9)His105 (Figure 1.7F).^{82,83,114,115} Site 1 binds Zn(II) with high affinity, and the biologically unprecedented His₆ motif of site 2 binds Mn(II), Fe(II), Zn(II), and Ni(II) with high affinity. No solution structures of **CP** have been published, and the available crystal structures are of **CP** in the tetramer state; thus, a description of the molecular-level events that occur upon Ca(ll) binding are lacking. Structures of the **S100A8** and **S100A9** homodimers are available; however, these structures provide limited insight into the process of tetramerization aside from the observation that the **CP** tetramer buries more hydrophobic surface area than the **S100A8** and **S100A9** homodimers. ¹¹⁴, 116-119 With structural information on the **CP** heterodimer, it should be possible to understand the tetramerization process and rigorously to attribute the relative contributions of Ca(II) binding and tetramerization to the increase in transition-metal affinity.

1.3 The Fate of CP is an Emerging Topic

1.3.1. Limitations of the Working Model

The scientific community's understanding of **CP** has greatly advanced since the protein was discovered approximately **30** years ago. Despite considerable advances, the working model for **CP** lacks important details. On a molecular level, we do not understand how Ca(lI) causes the **CP** tetramer to form. Although it is widely accepted that the Ca(Il) bound tetramer has increased transition metal affinities, the structural/dynamic factors responsible for this feature are unknown. Another gap in our knowledge is fate of **CP** after release because the working model ends with coordination of transition metals **by CP.** It is important to recognize that we generally expect that the concentration of **CP** during

infection far exceeds the concentration of bioavailable metals. As a result, the working model only applies to a fraction of extracellular **CP.** Studies that address the fate of **CP** are necessary to understand how the fight for transition metals evolves over time and to understand progression of processes that **CP** mediates. Research groups are beginning to explore the fate of **CP,** and the following subsections describe several important discoveries.

Figure 1.8. Possible fates of **CP** based on literature precedence. **(A) CP** is stored as a dimer in the cytosol of a neutrophil. As **CP is** released into the extracellular space it binds Ca(lI) and tetramerizes. It may bind a transition metal. (B) **A** receptor on a pathogen binds **CP,** and removes the transition metal, which is imported into the cytosol. **(C) A** receptor on a host cell, perhaps TLR4, binds **CP** causing secretion of proinflammatory factors. **(D) CP** is modified in some way, marking it for an as of yet undetermined fate.

1.3.2. Metal Piracy

Events that follow **CP** coordinating transition metals are beginning to be unraveled. One possible avenue for investigation is how microbes defeat **CP** (Figure **1.8).** One group reported that Finegoldia magna, a common opportunistic anaerobic pathogen, uses protein L to bind and inactivate **CP. ¹²⁰**Human neutrophil lysate and placental extract were subjected to affinity chromatography with immobilized fragments of protein L, and the eluent was analyzed **SDS-PAGE** and western blot. Two bands were identified as **S1 00A8** and **S100A9,** indicating that the **A** domain of protein L bound **CP.** The protein L-CP interaction was inhibited **by EDTA,** suggesting that protein L was specific for the Ca(Il) bound **CP** tetramer. Interaction between protein L and **CP** was further supported **by** surface plasmon resonance. Cells expressing protein L were found to bind **CP by** immunofluorescence microscopy. F. magna with protein L knocked out displayed a growth inhibition phenotype when treated with **CP** compared to wild-type cells, which grew at a rate comparable to untreated cells. The molecular nature of the protein L resistance was not described, and may be a fruitful avenue for future study.

Another group reported that Neisseria meningitidis expresses a TonB-dependent transporter that pirates Zn(II) from **CP. ¹²¹**The authors named the protein **CbpA** (calprotectin binding protein **A). CbpA** is in the same class as **TbpA,** which is known to pirate Fe(III) from transferrin.¹²²⁻¹²⁵ CbpA was upregulated in the presence of CP, and the upregulation could be reversed by Zn(II) and not Mn(II), MoO₄²⁻, Co(II), Cu(II), or Fe(III). **N.** meningitidis was grown on plates supplemented with the metal chelator N,N,N',N'tetrakis(2-pyridylmethyl)ethylenediamine **(TPEN)** to induce Zn(II) limitation, and grown with Zn(Il)-loaded **CP** supplied on a filter disc. Only cells expressing **CbpA** were able to proliferate in both experiments. In a complementary experiment, cells were grown on a plate that contained a filter disc loaded with apo **CP.** When **CbpA** or TonB was knocked out, a zone of clearance was observed around the disc. When a variant of **CP** lacking site 2 was used, the wild-type, $\Delta cbpA$, $\Delta tonB$ cells grew without a defect, which indicated the

CbpA was necessary to extract metal from site 2 of **CP. A** more recent report described similar findings with the TonB-dependent transporter **TdfH** in Neisseria gonorrhoeae. ¹²⁶ These studies are thought-provoking; however, more detailed analyses of these piracy systems are warranted. In particular, the scope of metal that can be pirated has not been explored and specificity of the **CbpA** and **TdfH** for site 2 versus site **1** is unknown. Both studies used **TPEN,** which chelates many metals with high affinity, and they did not perform **ICP-MS** to quantify the metals in the growth media, which would shed light on the metal speciation. Using the site 2 variant prevents **CP** from coordinating Zn(II) as well as other metals at the His $_6$ site; therefore, there is uncertainty in the metal(s) responsible for growth recovery. **Of** note, the more recent study used **ICP-OES** to show that **TdfH** caused the cells to accumulate Zn(ll), which support the notion of Zn(II) piracy.

1.3.3. Proinflammatory Signaling

It has been reported that **CP** is a ligand for **TLR4. ¹² ⁷, ¹²⁸**The evidence for a CP-TLR4 interaction was largely indirect, and some of the data are summarized below. Experiments with bone marrow cells isolated from wild-type or S100A9^{-/-} knockout mice demonstrated that expression of **CP** potentiated **TNF-a** secretion, which is a product of TLR4 activation. Likewise, injection of recombinant **CP** to *S100A9-* knockout mice increased $TNF-\alpha$ secretion. The authors observed that LPS stimulation resulted in secretion of **CP,** and that **S100A8** alone was sufficient for stimulation. The stimulation of mouse bone marrow cells and human monocytes **by LPS** and **S100A8** could be disrupted with inhibitors of three different kinases. These observations led the authors to suggest that **CP** acts in an autocrine fashion to create a positive feedback proinflammatory signal. The direct evidence for an interaction between **CP** and TLR4 was a plot of two sensorgrams from a surface plasmon resonance experiment using immobilized TLR4- MD2 (MD2 is a necessary protein co-factor for signal transduction)^{129,130} that demonstrated association and dissociation of **S1 00A8.** The most interesting findings were

that **S10OA9-'-** knockout mice exhibited increased survival in models of LPS-induced shock and **E.** co/i-induced abdominal sepsis compared to wild-type mice. The increased survival of the *S100A9-'-* knockout mice could be reversed **by** co-administration of **CP.** The authors concluded that **CP** caused excessive activation of TLR4, leading to increased mortality. This report was followed **by** findings that **CP** was necessary for development of autoreactive cytotoxic T cells, and that **CP** induced a refractory period during which **LPS** could not elicit an inflammatory response through TLR4.^{131,132} It should be noted that TNF- α secretion can be induced by pathways of other than TLR4 activation and that the kinase inhibitors were not specific to the TLR4 signaling pathway.

A common theme in biology is homeostasis: there is generally a mechanism to dampen an upregulation signal. **A** body of work suggests that **CP** is a signaling molecule that can cause damage to the **host. 12813 1 1 ³²**The deleterious outcomes caused **by CP** signaling may arise from dysregulation of **CP.** We posit that further understanding the fate of **CP** after release will elucidate the forces that attempt to keep **CP** signaling within a healthy regime. Additionally, there are examples of bacteria that have developed mechanisms to defeat **CP,** and it is likely that there are other as-yet unidentified strategies to overcome this host-defense protein.

1.4 Summary of Thesis

The aim of this research was to understand tetramerization of **CP** on a molecularlevel in order to formulate new hypotheses for the fate of **CP** after release in vivo. Chapter 2 describes our discovery that tetramerization of **CP** confers protease resistance. In this work, we report characterization of new **CP** variants, termed tetramer-deficient variants, that are unable to tetramerize in the presence of Ca(ll). These variants allowed us to compare the proteolytic stability of the **CP** dimer and tetramer in the presence of Ca(II). We observed that the tetramer-deficient variants were rapidly degraded **by** trypsin,

chymotrypsin and human neutrophil elastase, whereas the **CP** tetramer was a poor substrate for all of these proteases. Endoproteinase GluC, which is a staphylococcal extracellular protease, was an exception because it only cleaved the final four residues of **S100A8** regardless of the **CP** oligomeric state. When the protease digestion assays were performed in the presence of Ca(II) and Mn(II), the tetramer-deficient variants recovered protease stability, which we attributed to the Mn(II) converting them to the tetrameric form. We demonstrated the importance of protease resistance with an experiment where **CP** and the tetramer-deficient variants were treated with trypsin in the presence of Ca(II) prior to an antimicrobial activity assay. In this experiment, the tetramerdeficient variants failed to inhibit the growth of **E.** coli after trypsin treatment, however, **CP** retained full activity.

In Chapter **3,** we further study one tetramer-deficient variant using NMR spectroscopy in order to gain insight into how Ca(ll) binding affects the structure and dynamics of the **CP** heterodimer. Our hypothesis was that studying a tetramer-deficient variant in the presence of Ca(ll) would enable us to observe and understand the Ca(Il) bound dimer. Results from such studies would enable us to describe how Ca(ll) prepares **CP** to tetramerize and potentially how Ca(II) causes **CP** to bind transition metals with higher affinity. Using secondary structure prediction software, we found that the secondary structure of the dimer, for assignable residues, strongly agreed with the experimental data from crystal structures of the tetramer; however, there were small notable areas that became more helical with the addition of Ca(II). Due to the difficulty of assigning the protein, we investigated the dynamics of the protein using NMR spectroscopy because the problematic relaxation properties that we observed likely arose from the protein experiencing exchange on the NMR timescale. We measured the amide T1, T2, and hetNOE of both 160K subunits in the presence and absence of Ca(ll), and used these parameters to fit models of dynamics for each assigned residue. We found that both subunits experienced significant exchange. We were able to compare the effect of Ca(II) on the **S100A9** subunit. **By** analyzing the regions of altered exchange and chemical shift perturbation due to Ca(II), we found evidence for helices **Ill** and IV of the **S10OA9** subunit alternating between open and closed conformations, which was suggested **by** previous work on other **S100** proteins. Our data are consistent with a hypothesis where Ca(II) biases the helices to open, which exposes residues involved in tetramerization. We reason that tetramerization further stabilizes the open conformation. In addition, we obtained evidence that Ca(II) causes the transition metal binding residues in helix IV to become more ordered, which may contribute to increasing the transitionmetal affinity.

In Chapter 4, we provide evidence for ROS marking **CP** for destruction. We performed mass spectrometry of human nasal mucus and pimple pus, and observed species of **CP** bearing additional oxygen atoms, which is consistent with conversion of methionine to Met sulfoxide (MetO). In a subset of those samples, we added ¹⁵N-labeled **CP** to serve as an internal control for adventitious Met oxidation, which confirmed that the oxidation occurred before sample extraction. We generated MetO-containing **CP** in situ using H202, and found that the **CP** tetramer was converted to a dimer over time in the presence of Ca(II). When we performed the same reaction in the presence of Mn(II), we observed a comparable oxidation **by** mass spectrometry; however, the tetramer remained intact. Studies of single Met \rightarrow Ala variants revealed that mutation of (A9)Met81 to Ala prevented H202-induced dissociation, leading us to conclude that oxidation of this residue triggered dissociation. Examining the crystal structure revealed that (A9)Met8l was the only Met residue at the dimer-dimer interface. We reasoned that conversion of hydrophobic Met to hydrophilic MetO decreased the driving force for tetramerization. Using analytical ultracentrifugation, we found that Met oxidation of **CP** did not wholly prevent tetramerization, but rather the MetO-CP proteins were rapidly interconverting between the dimer and tetramer oligomeric states in the presence of Ca(II). We used these proteins in antimicrobial activity assays, in which we found that MetO modifications

resulted in minor attenuation of the proteins' antimicrobial activity. When we compared the proteolytic stability of the MetO-CP to **CP** in the presence of Ca(II), we found that the oxidized protein was degraded more quickly **by** several proteases. We attributed the increased protease stability to the incomplete tetramerization, and protease digestions in the presence of Ca(II) and Mn(II) were consistent with this hypothesis.

The experiments described above were performed with a **CP** variant where the two native Cys residues were mutated to Ser. In order to address how the wild-type protein is affected **by** ROS, we treated wild-type **CP** with H202, and we observed species with disulfide bonds within and between **CP** heterodimers. We assayed the protease stability of the disulfide-linked **CP** in the presence of Ca(lI), and found that the disulfide bonds resulted in faster degradation. Taken together, we demonstrated that the MetO is a physiologically relevant post-translational modification of **CP,** and that it can cause the protein to lose its protease resistance **by** causing the protein to convert from the tetramer to the dimer, resulting in accelerated proteolysis. The protease stability and tetramerization could be rescued **by** Mn(II) coordination. We hypothesize that Met oxidation of **CP by** ROS generated during the immune response serves as a mechanism to regulate the concentration of **CP** in the extracellular space. Furthermore, we propose that the protection afforded **by** transition-metal coordination enables the host to prevent releasing metals that **CP** has sequestered. Our preliminary experiments with wild-type **CP** suggest another mode to regulate **CP** using ROS that deserves further investigation in the future. More broadly, our results inform the effect of MetO on protein-protein interactions, the signaling functions of ROS, and the role of Met during the oxidative burst.

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Chapter 2: Calcium-Induced Tetramerization and Zinc Chelation Shield Human Calprotectin from Host and Bacterial Extracellular Proteases

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2.1. Introduction

Calprotectin **(CP, S100A8/S1OOA9** oligomer, MRP-8/14 oligomer, calgranulins **A** and B) is an antimicrobial protein and important player in the human innate immune response and inflammation.1- 7 Neutrophils and epithelial cells express **CP** and release the protein into the extracellular space where it functions as an antimicrobial factor and a mediator of inflammation. $8-13$ Because of its remarkable biophysical properties and coordination chemistry, **CP** sequesters transition metal ions at sites of infection and thereby participates in the host metal-ion withholding response. ¹³ -24 In addition, **CP** is reported to be an endogenous ligand of toll-like receptor 4 (TLR4) and thereby contributes to the host inflammatory response. **¹¹ , ² ⁵**Despite these established roles, little is known about the fate of **CP** following its release into the extracellular space. In considering the extracellular functions and fate of **CP,** we questioned how **CP** copes with the harsh environments that it encounters at sites of infection, inflammation, and in the intestinal lumen. These locales harbor a number of factors that pose challenges for the hostdefense machinery, which include proteases as well as reactive oxygen and nitrogen species. Protease resistance is a hallmark of host-defense peptides, such as the defensins,^{26,27} that are abundant in these environments, and we reasoned that CP must resist attack **by** extracellular proteases. Indeed, full-length murine **S100A8** and **S100A9** subunits have been detected in murine tissue abscesses infected with Staphylococcus aureus.16 We hypothesized that changes in the quaternary structure of **CP** resulting from metal chelation contribute to protease resistance as described below. This notion is inspired by the defensins, which utilize disulfide bonds to achieve a three-stranded β sheet fold that stabilizes the peptide backbone against proteolytic degradation,^{28,29} and metal-chelating proteins such as lactoferrin, which exhibits enhanced resistance to degradation **by** trypsin and chymotrypsin in its Fe(lll)-bound **form. ³⁰, 31**

Human CP exhibits complex oligomerization³²⁻³⁷ and metal-binding properties.¹⁹⁻²⁴ It is a heterooligomer of the Ca(Il)-binding **S100** proteins **S100A8 (93** amino acids, **10.8**

kDa, α-subunit) and S100A9 (114 amino acids, 13.2 kDa, β-subunit).^{32,34,35} Apo humar CP exists as a heterodimer $(\alpha\beta)$.³² Each CP subunit exhibits two EF-hand domains, and Ca(II) ion binding results in formation of the CP heterotetramer $(\alpha_2\beta_2)$. ³⁴⁻³⁷ Each heterodimer also harbors two sites that form at the **S1 00A8/S1 00A9** interface for chelating transition metal ions.^{17,19-24,36} In addition to affecting quaternary structure, Ca(II) ions also modulate the transition metal binding properties and antimicrobial activity of CP.^{19-22,24} Because extracellular Ca(II) levels are high, the **CP** heterotetramer is expected to be a relevant and abundant extracellular form.^{19,38} We therefore questioned whether Ca(II) binding to **CP** and consequent formation of the heterotetramer protects the scaffold against degradation **by** host and bacterial proteases. The proteolytic stability of **CP** is largely unexplored, and some of the results from published studies appear to be conflicting. Two independent studies demonstrated that the **CP** heterooligomer is more protease resistant than the **S100A8** and **S100A9** homodimers. ³⁹, 40 One of these reports also found that **CP** in human leukocyte cell lysate was a poor substrate for trypsin and proteinase K in both the absence and presence of a Ca(II) and Zn(II) supplement.³⁹ A recent investigation evaluated the susceptibility of **CP** collected from human fecal matter to trypsin hydrolysis, and concluded that **CP** in fecal samples is susceptible to trypsin degradation. ⁴¹**A** complicating factor in evaluating and comparing the outcomes of these studies is that the speciation of the **CP** substrate is unknown and likely multifaceted (i.e. oligomeric state, metal-free versus metal-bound). To clarify whether **CP** resists protease attack and test our hypothesis that speciation plays a role, we sought to systematically evaluate how metal ions and quaternary structure influence proteolytic stability.

In this work, we report that Ca(ll)-induced tetramerization protects **CP** from host serine proteases. Moreover, we establish that Zn(ll) complexation protects the **S100A8** C-terminus from the staphylococcal serine protease GluC. These data support a new dimension to how Ca(II) ions and transition metals modulate the function and fate of extracellular **CP,** indicating that Ca(ll) binding allows **CP** to sequester transition metals and resist attack **by** host proteases.

2.2. Experimental

2.2.1. General Materials and Methods

All solvents, reagents, and chemicals were obtained from commercial suppliers and used as received. **All** buffers and metal solutions were prepared using Milli-Q water **(18.2** MQ-cm, 0.22-ptm filter, Millipore). For metal-binding experiments, **HEPES** buffer was prepared with Ultrol grade **HEPES** (free acid, Calbiochem) and TraceSELECT NaCl (Fluka), and aqueous TraceSELECT NaOH (Sigma) was used for **pH** adjustments. Disposable polypropylene spatulas were used to transfer buffer components. Buffers were treated with Chelex **100** resin (Biorad, **10 g/L) by** stirring each buffer/Chelex mixture in a polypropylene beaker for at least **1** h, and the Chelex was removed **by** filtration through a 0.22-um filter. All buffers were stored in polypropylene bottles. A Tris buffer (1 mM Tris, **0.5** mM **EDTA, pH 8.5)** was prepared from Tris base **(J.** T. Baker) and **EDTA** disodium dihydrate (Mallinckrodt) and used for circular dichroism spectroscopy. The highest available purity of calcium chloride **(99.99%)** and manganese chloride **(99.99%)** were purchased from Alfa Aesar, and anhydrous zinc chloride **(99.999%)** and (NH4)2Fe(SO4)2-6H20 (99.997%) were purchased from Sigma. Stock solutions of Ca(ll) **(370** mM), Mn(ll) **(1** M), Zn(ll) **(1** M) were prepared **by** using Milli-Q water and acid-washed volumetric glassware, and were stored in polypropylene tubes. The Fe(ll) salt was weighed on the bench top, and then transferred to a polypropylene tube, and then brought into a Vacuum Atmospheres Company nitrogen glove box. The iron salt was dissolved to give a 100-mM stock solution using water that had been degassed with Ar. **All** ironcontaining samples were prepared in the glove box using buffers that had been degassed with Ar. Working solutions of metals were prepared fresh for each experiment **by** diluting
the stock solution into buffer **(75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, **pH 7.5)** or Milli-Q water. Protein concentration was determined **by** optical absorbance at **280** nm using a BioTek Synergy HT plate reader outfitted with a calibrated Take3 Micro-Volume plate, and the appropriate extinction coefficient (Table 2.1).

Protein	Molecular Weight (Da) ^a	ϵ_{280} (M ⁻¹ cm ⁻¹) ^b
A8(C42S)	10 818.5	11 460
A8(C42S)(I60K)	10 833.5	11 460
A8(C42S)(I60E)	10 834.5	11 460
A8(C42S)(S90Stop)	10 336.9	11 460
A9(C3S)	13 094.7c	6990
Trypsin	23 300	30 00046
Chymotrypsin	25 000	50 00047
Glutamyl endopepidase (GluC)	30 000	
Human neutrophil elastase (HNE)	28 500	

Table 2.1. Molecular weights and extinction coefficients for proteins used in this study.

a Molecular weights were calculated **by** using the ProtParam tool available on the ExPASy server (http://web.expasy.org/protparam). **b** Extinction coefficients **(280** nm) were calculated **by** using the ProtParam tool. **c** In all preparations, **LCMS** revealed that the dominant purified species lacked the N-terminal methionine. The peptide molecular weight is the theoretical value for **S100A9(C3S)** lacking the N-terminal Met residue.

2.2.2. Instrumentation

An Agilent 1200 series instrument equipped with a thermostatted column compartment set to 20 **OC,** and a multi-wavelength detector set at 220 and **280** nm **(500** nm reference wavelength with **100** nm bandwidth), was used to perform analytical highperformance liquid chromatography (HPLC). A Proto C4 column (5-um pore, 4.6 x 250 mm, Higgins Analytical Inc.) set at a flow rate of **1** mL/min was employed for all analytical

HPLC experiments. HPLC-grade acetonitrile (MeCN) and trifluoroacetic acid **(TFA)** were routinely purchased from EMD and Alfa Aesar, respectively. For all HPLC runs, solvent **A** was **0.1%** TFA/H20 and solvent B was **0.1%** TFA/MeCN.

An Agilent **1260** series **LC** system equipped with an Agilent **6230** TOF system housing an Agilent Jetstream **ESI** source was employed to perform high-resolution mass spectrometry. An Agilent Poroshell 300SB-C18 (5-um pore) and denaturing protocol were utilized for all **LC-MS** analyses. Solvent **A** was **0.1 %** formic acid/H20. Solvent B was **0.1** formic acid/MeCN. Protein samples $(5 \mu M)$ were prepared in water and 1 μ L was injected for each analysis. The **S10OA8** and **S10OA9** subunits were eluted **by** using a gradient of **0-65%** over **30** min. The resulting mass spectra were deconvoluted using the maximum entropy algorithm in MassHunter BioConfirm (Agilent).

Measurements of optical density **(OD600)** of bacterial cultures and optical absorption spectroscopy were carried out with a Beckman Coulter **DU 800** spectrophotometer thermostatted at 25 °C with a Peltier temperature controller. Fluorescence spectra were collected on a Photon Technologies International QuantaMaster 40 fluorimeter outfitted with a continuous xenon source for excitation, autocalibrated QuadraScopic monochrometers, a multimode PMT detector, and a circulating water bath maintained at **25 OC.** This instrument was controlled **by** the FelixGX software package. FelixGX was used to integrate the emission spectra.

2.2.3. Protein Purification

Variants of human CP were overexpressed and purified as described previously.⁴² **All** variants are based on CP-Ser, which is composed of **S100A8(C42S)** and **S100A9(C3S),** and the protocol affords the **S10OA8/S100A9** heterodimer form of each variant. Protein yields for the variants **160E,** 160K and **ASHKE** ranged from 12 to **35** mg/L of culture. The purified proteins were stored at **-80 OC,** and only thawed once immediately before use. Mass spectrometry analysis is presented in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2. Mass spectrometric analysis of CP-Ser and variants.

a In all preparations, the dominant purified species of the **S10OA9** subunit lacked the **N**terminal methionine. The masses reported here are the observed values for **S100A9(C3S)** lacking the N-terminal Met residue.

2.2.4. Site-Direction Mutagenesis

A modified Quick-Change site-directed mutagenesis protocol was employed to generate plasmids encoding **S100A8(C42S)(160K), S100A8(C42S)(160E),** and **S100A8(C42S)(S90STOP).** The **S100A8(C42S)** gene had been ligated into a vector pET41a vector using the Ndel and Xhol restriction sites. The mutagenesis primers are listed in Table **2.3.** PCR amplification was carried out using PfuTurbo **DNA** polymerase. For the 160K and **160E** variants, the PCR protocol was: **95 OC** for **30** sec, **95 OC** for **30** sec, **55 OC** for **1** min, **68 OC** for **15** min, **(25** cycles), and 4 **OC** hold. For the **ASHKE** variant, the protocol was the same, but the annealing temperature was 51 °C. After PCR amplification, the template **DNA** was digested **by** DpnI (New England Biolabs) **by** adding **1** piL of the restriction enzyme to a 25-uL PCR reaction at t=0 and 1.5 h with incubation at 37 °C. The digestion products were transformed into chemically competent **E.** coli TOP10 cells. Overnight cultures (5 mL, 50 μ g/mL kanamycin) were grown from single colonies. The plasmids were isolated using a miniprep kit (Qiagen). The presence of the mutations and fidelity of the protein coding sequences were verified **by DNA** sequencing (Quintara Biosciences).

Primer	Sequence ^a			
I60K-1	5'-GTTTAAGGAGTTGGACAAGAACACGGATGGCGCTG-3'			
160K-2	5'-CAGCGCCATCCGTGTTCTTGTCCAACTCCTTAAAC-3'			
I60E-1	5'-GTTTAAGGAGTTGGACGAAAACACGGATGGCGCTG-3'			
I60E-2	5'-CAGCGCCATCCGTGTTTTCGTCCAACTCCTTAAAC-3'			
\triangle SHKE-1	5'-GAAGAGCCACGAAGAGTAACATAAAGAGTAACTC-3'			
	ASHKE-2 5'-GAGTTACTCTTTATGTTACTCTTCGTGGCTCTTC-3'			
^a The codons containing mutations are underlined and colored red.				

Table 2.3. Primers employed for site-directed mutagenesis.

2.2.4. Analytical Size-Exclusion Chromatography

An AKTA purifier (GE Lifesciences) housed in a 4 °C cold room and outfitted with a 100- μ L sample loop was used to perform all analytical size exclusion chromatography **(SEC)** experiments.19 **A** Superdex **75 10/300 GL** column **(GE** Lifesciences) equilibrated in running buffer was calibrated with a low-molecular-weight calibration mixture **(GE** Lifesciences) as described previously.¹⁹ The protein of interest was thawed at room temperature and buffer exchanged from the storage buffer into the running buffer using a spin filter (0.5-mL, 10-kDa MWCO, Amicon), and the protein concentration was adjusted to 30 μ M by diluting with the running buffer. For the experiments with Ca(II), 600 μ M Ca(II) was included in the running buffer and protein sample. For experiments with Mn(ll) or Fe(II) only, **300** tM Mn(II) or Fe(II) was added to the sample only. For experiments with both Ca(ll) and Mn(II) or both Ca(Il) and Fe(II), the running buffer and sample contained **600 pM** Ca(lI) and **33 pM** Mn(lI) or **33 pM** Fe(lI) was included in the sample only. Samples were incubated for 15 min at 4 °C after adding metals and then centrifuged at 13 000 rpm for **10** min. The entire volume of each sample **(30** ptM protein, **300 pL)** was loaded onto the 100-µL sample loop. The loop was emptied with 0.5 mL of running buffer, and the protein was eluted over one column volume at a flow rate of 0.5 mL/min at 4 °C. Ironcontaining samples were allowed to incubate for **50** min in the glove box before being centrifuged at **13 000** rpm for **10** min.

2.2.5. Sedimentation Velocity Experiments

A Beckman XL-I Analytical ultracentrifuge outfitted with an An-60 Ti rotor was employed for all sedimentation velocity **(SV)** experiments. The rotor housed conventional double-sector charcoal filled Epon centerpieces within the sample cells and contained quartz (absorption optics) or sapphire (interference optics) windows. The absorption wavelength for optical detection was **280** nm. The samples were centrifuged at 42 **000** rpm and 20 °C until sedimentation was complete. SEDNTERP⁴³ was employed to calculate the buffer viscosity (η) , buffer density (ρ) , and protein partial specific volume (\vec{v}) at 20 °C. The sedimentation velocity data was analyzed using previously described methods,44 and full details in Tables 2.4 and **2.5.** Hydrodynamic modeling computations were performed with HYDROPRO⁴⁵ using the crystal structures of Ca(II)-bound CP-Ser (PDB 1XK4³⁶) and Ca(II)-, Na(I)- and Mn(II)-bound CP-Ser (PDB 4XJK²²) to obtain theoretical sedimentation coefficients for the CP-Ser heterodimer and heterotetramer. **All** modeling was carried out with buffer viscosity (η) and buffer density (ρ) of water at 20 ^oC and a protein partial specific volume (\vec{v}) Of 0.7388 mL/g.

One day prior to an experiment, each protein sample was thawed and diluted to **27** pM in **75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl at **pH 7.5.** The resulting samples were dialyzed against 1 L of the same buffer containing 10 g of Chelex resin at 4 °C overnight. The dialyzed samples were transferred to 1.7-mL polypropylene tubes and centrifuged **(13 000** rpm, **5** min, 4 **OC)** to sediment any Chelex resin. Aliquots of the dialysis buffer were centrifuged (3 000 rpm, 5 min, 4 °C) in 50-mL polypropylene tubes and the supernatant was used for the reference samples in the **SV** experiment. In select experiments, **EDTA** (1.35 mM) , Ca(II) $(540 \mu\text{M})$, and/or Mn(II) $(30 \mu\text{M})$ were added to the reference and protein samples. The references and protein samples were allowed to incubate while the **SV**

window assemblies were constructed **(=1.5** h). The **SV** window assemblies were loaded with 410 μ L of reference buffer and 400 μ L of protein containing sample.

2.2.6. Protease Digestion Assays

Trypsin (Affymetrix) and chymotrypsin (Amresco) were obtained as lyophilized powders, stored at 4 °C, and dissolved water to afford solutions of ≈50-100 μ M immediately before use. Reported extinction coefficients for trypsin and chymotrypsin were used to determine the protein concentrations (Table 2.1).^{46,47} Frozen stock solutions of glutamyl endopeptidase (GluC) (New England Biolabs), and human neutrophil elastase **(HNE)** (Enzo Life Sciences) were obtained as lyophilized powders. The entire portion of each protease was dissolved in assay buffer to afford solutions with concentrations of **=0.1** mg/mL and **-1** mg/mL for GluC and **HNE,** respectively. The solutions were stored at ⁻²⁰ °C (GluC) or -80 °C (HNE). Protease digestion assays were performed on a 350-μL scale at **pH 7.5 (75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCI). Aliquots of CP-Ser, **160E,** and 160K were thawed at room temperature and diluted to 30 μ M using the assay buffer in 1.7-mL microcentrifuge tubes. To select samples, Ca(II) (1.5 mM), Mn(II) (30 μ M), and Zn(II) (60 μ M) were added, and the resulting solutions were incubated at room temperature for at least **15** min prior to the assay. To initiate each digestion assay, an aliquot (between **5** and 10 μ L as appropriate) of protease was added to the 350 - μ L protein solution to bring the protease concentration to $0.45 \mu M$ (trypsin) or $0.3 \mu M$ (others). The resulting solution was immediately mixed with a pipet and incubated at $37 \degree C$. Aliquots (45 μ L) of the reaction were quenched with **155** piL of aqueous **0.77%** (v/v) **TFA** at t **= 0, 0.5** min, **1,** 2, **3, and 4 h. The quenched solutions were centrifuged (13 000 rpm, 10 min, 4 °C), and the** resulting samples were analyzed **by** analytical HPLC using a solvent gradient of **10-60%** B over **50** min. **S100A8** eluted at **~38** min (depending on the variant) and **S100A9** eluted at **39.8** min. Select peaks were collected manually and further analyzed **by LC-MS.** Controls without protease were prepared, quenched, and analyzed in an identical manner except that ubiquitin (Sigma) was added to 0.3μ M because it was found to improve consistency in peak intensity between runs. Frozen stocks of ubiquitin (117 μ M, 1 mg/mL) were prepared in water, stored at -20 **oC,** and thawed before use.

2.2.7. Protease Activity Assays

To determine if the metals used in the digestion assays altered protease activity, enzymatic activity assays using small molecule substrates were performed in the absence and presence of metals. Protease stock solutions were prepared as described above. **All** experiments were carried out in triplicate and averaged. For trypsin, N_{α} -benzoyl-Larginine ethyl ester **HCI (BAEE,** Santa Cruz Biotech) was dissolved to **10** mM in **75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, **pH 7.5,** and then diluted to **80** tM in the same buffer with **1.5** mM Ca(II) with or without **30** pM Mn(II). These solutions were dispensed into quartz cuvettes (Starna), **1** mL of solution per cuvette. The reaction was initiated **by** adding trypsin to 8.4 nM in a cuvette and briefly shaking. The reaction was monitored continuously at **253** nm. An analogous experiment was carried out to assay the activities of chymotrypsin and human neutrophil elastase **(HNE).** For chymotrypsin, the substrate N-succinyl-Ala-Ala-Pro-Phe p-nitroanilide (Enzo Life Sciences) was dissolved to 40 mM in dimethylformamide. In the experiment, the chymotrypsin was diluted to 2 nM and the substrate concentration was 0.4 mM. The chymotrypsin reactions were continuously monitored at 410 nm in quartz cuvettes. For **HNE,** the substrate N-succinyl-Ala-Ala-Val-Ala p-nitroanilide (Santa Cruz Biotech) was dissolved to **100** mM dimethylsulfoxide. In the assay, **HNE** was diluted to **10** nM, and the substrate was **0.5** mM. The **HNE** reactions were continuously monitored at **410** nm in polystyrene cuvettes.

The activity of glutamyl endopeptidase (GluC) was assayed with carboxybenzyl-Leu-Leu-Glu-p-napthylamide. **A** 1-mM stock solution of the substrate was made in dimethylsulfoxide. The reactions were carried out on a 1-mL scale in quartz cuvettes (Starna), and monitored **by** fluorescence. In the assays with Ca(Il) or Mn(II), the substrate

was diluted to **100** tM. For the assays with Zn(II) **(60** iM), CP-Ser **(30** pM) and Zn(II) were combined in the assay buffer and the GluC substrate was added last. This modification was made because precipitation occurred when Zn(II) was introduced into solutions containing the substrate. The reactions were initiated **by** adding GluC to **67** nM. The reaction was monitored **by** fluoresence spectroscopy with all slits set to **0.8** mm, excitation at 340 nm. The progress of the reaction was determined **by** monitoring the fluorescence emission at 410 nm. The results from these assays are presented in Appendix **1.**

2.2.8. Antimicrobial Activity Assays

The growth inhibitory activities of CP-Ser, 160K, **160E,** and **ASHKE** against Escherichia coli **ATCC 25922,** Staphylococcus aureus **ATCC 25923** and Lactobacillus plantarum WCFS1 (CP-Ser and **ASHKE** only) were assayed at **30 OC** as described previously.^{19,24} The antimicrobial activity assay medium, hereafter AMA medium, was a **62:38** ratio of 20 mM Tris-HCI, **pH 7.5, 100** mM NaCl, **5** mM BME, **3** mM Ca(lI) and tryptic soy broth (TSB) with **0.25%** (w/v) dextrose. For L. plantarum, MRS broth (CRITERION) without additional dextrose was used in place of TSB. To prevent evaporation of the medium, the plates were sealed with parafilm and a beaker of water was housed in the incubator shaker.

2.2.9. Antimicrobial Activity Assay with Trypsin

The growth inhibitory activities of CP-Ser, **160E** and 160K pre-incubated with trypsin (Affymetrix) were assayed **by** modifying a literature protocol for standard antimicrobial activity assays.19 Protein aliquots were thawed at room temperature and buffer exchanged into **AMA** buffer (20 mM Tris-HCI, **100** mM NaCl, **3** mM Ca(II)) three times using spin filters **(0.5** mL, **1** 0-kDa MWCO, Amicon) that were sterilized **by** exposure to **UV** light for 15 min. For each protein, two aliquots (233 μ M, 45 μ L) were prepared. Trypsin \approx 2 mg) was dissolved in AMA buffer, the trypsin concentration was determined using the reported extinction coefficient $(\epsilon_{280} = 30\,000 \, \text{M}^{-1} \text{cm}^{-1})$, Table 2.1)⁴⁶ and the sample was diluted to 4.5 μ M using AMA buffer. For each set of 45- μ L protein aliquots, a 5- μ L aliquot of trypsin was added to one and a 5-µL aliquot of AMA buffer to the other. A trypsin-only solution was prepared that contained $0.45 \mu M$ trypsin and no protein substrate. The solutions were incubated at 37 °C for \approx 20 h and subsequently used in the antibacterial activity assay.

E. coli **ATCC 25922** was inoculated into **5** mL of TSB containing **0.25%** (w/v) dextrose and grown overnight at **37 OC** in a rotating wheel **(=16** h). The culture was diluted **1:100** into **5** mL of fresh TSB with **(0.25%** w/v) dextrose and grown with shaking **(37 OC,** =2 h) until the OD6oo reached **0.6.** The culture was diluted **1:500** into fresh **AMA** medium. The antibacterial activity assay was carried out in sterile polystyrene 96-well plates (Corning). Each well contained 10 μ L of the digested protein, undigested protein (no protease control), trypsin only, or buffer only and 90 μ L of the diluted bacterial culture. Control wells containing 10 μ L of trypsin and 90 μ L of sterile AMA medium were also included, and no bacterial growth was observed in these wells. The final concentration of each CP-Ser sample was **500** pg/mL (21 pM), and previous work has shown that CP-Ser inhibits growth of *E. coli* and *S. aureus* at this concentration.^{19,21} Each condition was set up in triplicate. Each plate was sealed with parafilm and incubated at **30 OC** with shaking at **150** rpm in a tabletop incubator-shaker containing a beaker filled with water. Bacterial growth was monitored **by** OD600 values, which were measured at two time points **(0** to 20 h) **by** using a plate reader (BioTek). Three independent replicates were conducted on different days. Different **E.** coli freezer stocks were used for each replicate, and at least two independent medium preparations were employed, and two different preparations of each protein were used over the triplicate. The resulting averages and standard errors of the mean are reported $(n=9)$.

2.2.10 Mn(II) Competition Experiments with ZP1

Competition between **CP** variants and Zinpyr-1 (ZP1) for Mn(II) using an established assay where Mn(II) was titrated into a solution of 1 μ M ZP1 and 4 μ M CP-Ser or variant.²⁰ Averages and the standard deviations are reported ($n=3$). Experiments to measure the number of equivalents of Ca(II) required for **CP** variants to outcompete ZP1 for Mn(ll) were carried out as previously described, but the ZP1 and Mn(ll) concentrations were **1** ptM and **3.5 pM,** respectively.²⁰

2.2.11. Circular Dichroism Spectroscopy

An Aviv Model 202 circular dichroism (CD) spectrometer thermostatted at 25 °C was employed for **CD** spectroscopy. **A** 1-mm path-length **CD** cell (Hellma) was employed for all **CD** measurements. **All** protein samples **(10 pM** protein, **300 pL, 1** mM Tris, **0.5** mM **EDTA, pH 8.5,** 2 mM Ca(ll)) were made at the same time before beginning data acquisition. Wavelength scans were carried out from **190-260** nm with 1-nm steps **(5** s averaging time, three averaged scans).

2.3. Results and Discussion

2.3.1 Design and Preparation of Tetramer-Deficient Variants of **CP**

In order to investigate whether Ca(ll)-induced tetramerization of human **CP** affords protease resistance, we sought to compare the stabilities of Ca(ll)-bound heterodimers and Ca(Il)-bound heterotetramers in protease degradation assays. These experiments require **CP** variants that remain heterodimeric following Ca(ll) complexation. The crystal structure of Mn(II), Ca(II)-, and Na(I)-bound CP-Ser (PDB $4XJK^{22}$) reveals that the tetramer interface between **CP** heterodimers is **=3700 A2** and largely comprised of contacts between the **S100A8** subunits. Moreover, a cluster of hydrophobic residues occurs at the heterotetramer interface (Figure 2.1). The **S10OA8** subunit of each

heterodimer contributes (A8)Ile60 and (A8)Ile73, and (A8)Ile76 (not shown), and the **S100A9** subunits contribute (A9)Trp88. We hypothesized that this hydrophobic region is a "hot spot" for tetramerization,⁴⁸ and reasoned that point mutations of the hydrophobic residues may provide the requisite CP-Ser variants that retain the ability to coordinate Ca(ll) but cannot undergo Ca(Il)-induced tetramerization. We mutated (A8)lle60 to Glu and Lys as a case study, and focus on these variants herein. We reasoned that introduction of charged residues at position **60** of **S1 00A8** should disfavor tetramerization **by** decreasing the hydrophobic driving force and introducing electrostatic repulsion.

Moreover, the parity of charges introduced **by** the Glu and Lys mutations provides a control to minimize the likelihood that any biophysical or functional differences between **CP** and the variants are artifacts of a given amino acid substitution. Lastly, it was important to preserve the metal-binding properties of **CP.** Because (A8)lle60 does not contribute to metal-ion coordination and is distant from both the EF-hand domains and the transition metal binding sites (His3Asp, His4/6), we reasoned that mutating this residue would not perturb the metal-ion coordination spheres. We abbreviate the CP-Ser variants bearing the (A8)lle6OGlu and (A8)lle6OLys mutations **160E** and 160K, respectively.

Figure 2.1. Crystal structure of the Ca(ll)-, Na(l)-, and Mn(Il)-bound human CP-Ser heterotetramer (PDB: 4XJK).²² (A) The heterotetramer with select hydrophobic residues at the tetramer interface shown as sticks. The outlined box corresponds to the region displayed in panel B. (B) An expanded view of the heterotetramer interface that illustrates the clustering of hydrophobic side chains. The green chains are the **S1 00A8** subunits and the blue chains are the **S100A9** subunits. One heterodimer is depicted in dark shading and the second heterodimer is depicted in light shading. The Ca(ll) ions are shown as yellow spheres, the Na(l) ions are shown as purple spheres, and the Mn(II) ions are shown as magenta spheres.

We prepared pET41a-S100A8(C42S)(160E) and pET41a-S100A8(C42S)(160K) plasmids **by** site-directed mutagenesis, and we overexpressed and purified **160E** and 160K as described previously for CP-Ser.¹⁹ The variants were obtained in yields of approximately **28** and **15** mg/L of culture, respectively. The proteins were isolated as the **up** heterodimers in high purity, and the **S100A8** and **S10OA9** subunits were present in equal amounts as judged **by** gel electrophoresis (Figure **A2.1).** The identities of the subunits were confirmed **by** mass spectrometry (Table 2.2), and circular dichroism spectroscopy verified that the mutations did not affect the overall α -helical secondary

structure of the **CP** scaffold (Figure **A2.2).** We employed two established competition assays to probe the metal-binding properties of **160E** and 160K. 20 First, a competition titration employing the fluorescent metal-ion sensor Zinpyr-1 (ZP1, apparent $K_{d1, Mn}$ = 550 nM)⁴⁹ confirmed that I60E and I60K coordinate Mn(II) with high affinity when excess Ca(II) is included in the buffer. Like CP-Ser, both variants outcompeted ZP1 for Mn(II) in the presence of excess Ca(II), which indicated that the apparent $K_{d, Mn}$ value of each variant is less than **550** nM (Figure **A2.3).** Moreover, titration of Ca(II) into a solution containing ZP1, Mn(II), and protein demonstrated that CP-Ser, **160E** and 160K show comparable Ca(II)-dependent Mn(II)-binding properties. Each protein required \approx 20 equivalents of Ca(ll) to fully sequester Mn(lI) from ZP1 (Figure A2.4). Taken together, the results from these titrations demonstrate that the Mn(Il)-binding properties of **160E** and 160K are calcium dependent, and that these variants behave like CP-Ser, at least in the context of ZP1 competition assays.

2.3.2. (SIOOA8)160E and **(SIOOA8)160K** Mutations Disrupt Ca(II)-Induced **Tetramerization**

To probe whether the **160E** and 160K variants display perturbed oligomerization properties in the presence of Ca(ll), we employed analytical size-exclusion chromatography **(SEC),** and determined the elution volumes and corresponding molecular weights of the proteins of in the absence and presence of excess Ca(ll) (Figure 2.2). In this set of experiments, apo CP-Ser $(30 \mu M)$ exhibited a peak elution volume at **11.5** mL **(~35** kDa), and the peak shifted to **10.7** mL (=48 kDa) when excess Ca(II) **(600 pM)** was included in the running buffer **(75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, **pH 7.5).** This behavior was in agreement with our prior analytical **SEC** studies of CP-Ser, 19 and demonstrates the expected Ca(II)-dependent formation of the $\alpha_2\beta_2$ tetramer (Figure 2.2). Apo **160E** and 160K exhibited the same peak elution volume as apo CP-Ser, indicating that the mutants are heterodimers in the absence of Ca(II) (Figure 2.2). In contrast to **CP-**

Ser, both **160E** and 160K exhibited a slight peak shift to a later elution volume **(11.8** mL, \approx 31 kDa) when Ca(II) (600 μM) was included in the running buffer (Figure 2.2). This behavior suggests that (i) **160E** and 160K bind Ca(ll), which is in agreement with the competition titrations described above; (ii) Ca(Il) complexation causes the hydrodynamic radii of **160E** and 160K to decrease relative to the apo proteins; and (iii) Ca(Il)-bound **160E** and 160K do not form $\alpha_2\beta_2$ heterotetramers under these experimental conditions.

Figure 2.2. Analytical SEC traces of CP-Ser, **160E** and 160K **(30** pM) in absence and presence of various metals **(75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, **pH 7.5,** 4 **OC). (A)** Black traces, no metal added. Red traces, 600 μ M Ca(II) in running buffer and protein sample. Blue traces, $600 \mu M$ Ca(II) in running buffer and sample, $33 \mu M$ Mn(II) in the protein sample only. (B) Black traces, no metal added. Red traces, 600 μ M Ca(II) in running buffer and protein sample. Blue traces, 600 μM Ca(II) in running buffer and sample, 33 μM Fe(II) in the protein sample only. Each chromatogram was normalized to a maximum peak value of 1. The vertical dashed lines indicate the peak elution volumes of the $\alpha\beta$ (-Ca) and the U2P2 (+Ca) forms of CP-Ser. Chromatograms for CP-Ser, **160E** and 160K pre-incubated with Mn(ll) only and Fe(ll) only are provided in Figures **A2.5** and **A2.6.**

To confirm that the **160E** and 160K mutations disrupted Ca(ll)-induced tetramerization, we employed analytical ultracentrifugation **(AUC)** and determined sedimentation coefficients for CP-Ser, **160E,** and 160K in the absence and presence of 20 equivalents of Ca(ll) **(75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, **pH 7.5).** We obtained theoretical sedimentation coefficients ($s_{20,w}$) using HYDROPRO⁴⁵ and the available CP-Ser crystal structures as models (PDB $1XK4$, 36 $4GGF$, 23 and $4XJK$ 22). HYDROPRO afforded predicted sedimentation coefficients of 2.1 **S** and **3.7 S** for the heterodimer and heterotetramer, respectively. We also determined the maximum theoretical sedimentation coefficient for the heterodimer and heterotetramer to be **2.8 S** and 4.5 **S,** respectively. ⁵⁰

The sedimentation distributions of apo CP-Ser, **160E,** and 160K determined using **SEDFIT** each displayed a single major species with an **S** value between **2.3 S** and 2.4 **S** (Figure **2.3** and Table 2.4), which are in agreement with the predicted **S** value for the heterodimer. When 20 equivalents of Ca(II) were added to the sample, the sedimentation distribution for CP-Ser was dominated **by** a single species at **3.7 S,** which corresponds to the predicted S value for the $\alpha_2\beta_2$ heterotetramer (Figure 2.3 and Table 2.4). In contrast, the major species for both **160E** and 160K remained at **=2.3 S** when the samples contained excess Ca(II). In agreement with the **SEC** experiments, the **AUC** data demonstrate that **160E** and 160K remain heterodimeric with Ca(II). Analysis of the **AUC** data using **DCDT+** afforded the same conclusions (Figure 2.4 and Table **2.5).**

2.3.3. 160E and 160K Variants Form Heterotetramers in the Presence of Mn(l) or Fe(I)

CP coordinates Mn(II) with high affinity at a hexahistidine site comprised of (A8)His17, (A8)His27, (A9)His91, (A9)His95, (A9)His103, and (A9)His105.²¹⁻²³ Prior analytical SEC studies revealed that preincubation of CP-Ser $(\alpha\beta, -Ca)$ with 10 equivalents of Mn(II) results in a new peak (11.0 mL, ≈43 kDa) that elutes between the apo heterodimer and Ca(II)-bound heterotetramer (Figure A2.5).^{20,21} In contrast, preincubation of **160E** and 160K with **10** equivalents of Mn(II) and no Ca(ll) afforded peaks with the same peak elution volumes as the apo heterodimer **(11.5** mL, **~35** kDa). Nevertheless, the peaks broadened under these conditions, which indicates that the samples contain heterotetramers as well as heterodimers (Figure **A2.5).** To determine the effect of Mn(ll) and Ca(II) on the elution properties of 160K and **160E,** the proteins (30pM) were pre-incubated with 20 equivalents of Ca(II) and **1.1** equivalents of Mn(II),

Figure **2.3.** Sedimentation distributions of CP-Ser, **160E,** and 160K **(27.5 pM)** obtained with the c(s) model in SEDFIT. (75 mM HEPES, 100 mM NaCl, pH 7.5, 20 °C). Black traces, no metal added. The CP-Ser sample included **550 pM EDTA.** Red traces, **550 pM** of Ca(II) in the sample. Blue traces, 550 μ M Ca(II) and 27.5 μ M Mn(II) in the sample. Each sedimentation distribution is normalized to the maximum $c(s)$.

Figure 2.4. Sedimentation coefficient distributions of CP-Ser **(A),** 160K (B), and **160E (C) (27.5 μM) obtained using DCDT+. Buffer: 75 mM HEPES, 100 mM NaCl, ±540 μM Ca(II), 27.5** μM Mn(II), pH 7.5 at 20 °C. For apo CP-Ser, 1.35 mM EDTA was included and no metals were added. The data are normalized to a maximum peak height of **1.**

Protein	Concentration (μM)	$S_{20,w}$ (S)	MW (kDa)	Partial Specific Volume (mL/g)
$CP-Serb$	27.5	2.4	22.7	0.7388
$CP-Serd$	27.5	3.9	43.5	0.7388
$CP-Sere$	27.5	2.4 (35%), 4.1 (65%)	20.6, 46.1	0.7388
$CP-Set'$	27.5	4.5 (85%) , 6.5 (15%)	40.8, 70.8	0.7388
160K ^c	27.5	2.4	23.0	0.7388
160K ^d	27.5	2.4	24.1	0.7388
160K ^e	27.5	$2.4(73\%)$, 4.1 (27%)	22.9, 51.3	0.7388
160K ^f	27.5	4.1 S	43.7	0.7388
160E _c	27.5	2.3	22.8	0.7388
160E ^d	27.5	2.3	24.9	0.7388
160E ^e	27.5	$2.2 (84\%)$, 3.9 (16%)	23.8, 56.0	0.7388
160E ^f	27.5	4.0	44.9	0.7388

Table 2.4. Calculated sedimentation coefficients using Sedfita

^a All experiments were conducted at 20 °C. The units of viscosity are in centipoise (cP) (1 Poise g cm⁻¹ s⁻¹). Sedimentation coefficients are in Svedbergs (1 Svedberg = 100 fs = 1 x **10-13** s). The c(s) method was used for fitting the data. **All** scans that began at the baseline were used in fitting. **b** The sample buffer was **75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, 1.35 mM **EDTA**, pH 7.5. $s_{20,w}$ values were adjusted with solvent density (ρ) of 1.00825 g/mL, solvent viscosity **(f)** of **1.0563** cP. **c** The sample buffer was **75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, **pH 7.5** s20,w values were adjusted with solvent density **(p)** of **1.0082** g/mL, solvent viscosity **(f)** of **1.0565** cP **pH 7.5** at 20 0C. **d** The sample buffer was **75** mM HEPES, 100 mM NaCl, 540 µM Ca(II) (20 equivalents), pH 7.5. The parameters for converting to s20,w from **c** were used. e The sample buffer was **75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, 27.5 μ M Mn(II), pH 7.5. The parameters from ^c for converting to s_{20,w} were used. ^f The sample buffer was 75 mM HEPES, 100 mM NaCl, 540 µM Ca(II), (20 equivalents), 27.5 μ M Mn(II), pH 7.5. The parameters from \circ for converting to s_{20,w} were used.

Protein	Concentration (μM)	$S_{20,w}$ (S)	D (F)	MW (kDa)	Partial Specific Volume (mL/g)
$CP-Serb$	27.5	2.4	12.0	18.8	0.7388
$CP-Serc$	27.5	3.8	7.80	45.3	0.7388
$CP-Serd$	27.5	3.6	10.7	31.2	0.7388
$CP-Sere$	27.5	4.8	12.5	35.6	0.7388
160K _b	27.5	2.3	11.8	18.7	0.7388
160K c	27.5	2.6	13.3	17.9	0.7388
160K ^d	27.5	2.8	12.3	13.5	0.7388
160K ^e	27.5	4.1	8.9	42.8	0.7388
160Eb	27.5	2.4	10.8	20.9	0.7388
160E ^c	27.5	2.5	10.8	22.3	0.7388
160E ^d	27.5	2.7	13.4	18.8	0.7388
160E ^e	27.5	4.0	8.4	44.4	0.7388

Table 2.5. Calculated sedimentation coefficients using DCDT+a

^aAll experiments were conducted at 20 **oC.** The units of viscosity are in centipoise **(cP) (1** Poise **g** cm 1 s 1). Sedimentation coefficients are in Svedbergs **(1** Svedberg **= 100** fs **= 1** x 10-13 s). Diffusion coefficients correspond to the best-fit molecular mass in Fick units **(1** Fick $= 1 \times 10^{-7}$ cm²/s. The dc/dt method was used for all data except the following: CPSer+Ca(II) where g(s*) was used. The typical scan range was 14-21 and the peak broadening limit was always greater than **60** kDa. For the manganese samples, only six scans were used. b The sample buffer was **75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCI, **1.35** mM **EDTA, pH 7.5.** S20,w values were adjusted with solvent density **(p)** of **1.00825** g/mL, solvent viscosity (rj) of **1.0563** cP. **c** The sample buffer was **75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCI, **pH 7.5** s20,w values were adjusted with solvent density **(p)** of **1.0082** g/mL, solvent viscosity (TI) of **1.0565** cP **pH 7.5** at **20 0C.** d The sample buffer was **75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, 540 μM Ca(II) (20 equivalents), pH 7.5. The parameters for converting to s_{20,w} from **c** were used. e The sample buffer was **75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, **27.5** IM Mn(ll), pH 7.5. The parameters from ^c for converting to s_{20,w} were used. ^f The sample buffer was **75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, 540 **pM** Ca(II) (20 equivalents), **27.5 pM** Mn(ll), **pH 7.5.** The parameters from c for converting to $s_{20,w}$ were used.

and excess Ca(II) $(600 \mu M)$ was included in the running buffer. Under these conditions, **160E** and 160K afforded peaks with elution volumes of **=1 1** mL (Figures **2.2A** and **A2.5).** Taken together, these data suggest **160E** and 160K are a mixed population of the dimeric and tetrameric forms in the presence of Mn(II) alone, whereas the combination of Mn(II) and excess Ca(lI) results in complete conversion to the heterotetramer.

We employed **AUC** to further investigate how Mn(II) coordination influences the quaternary structure of CP-Ser, **160E,** and 160K in the absence of presence of Ca(lI). The sedimentation distributions for samples containing CP-Ser and one equivalent of Mn(II) revealed two main species at 2.4 and 4.1 **S** (Figure **A2.7).** The species at 4.1 **S** comprises **=65%** of the distribution area. In the absence of Ca(II), CP-Ser coordinates Mn(ll) with relatively low affinity and the reported dissociation constant at the His 6 site is in the micromolar range $(K_{d1} \approx 5 \mu M)$ by room-temperature electron paramagnetic resonance spectroscopy).^{20,22} Using this K_d value and the CP-Ser and Mn(II) concentrations employed for the **AUC** sample, we calculate that the sample contained ~34% apo and **=66%** Mn(ll)-bound CP-Ser. On the basis of this analysis, we assign the 2.4 **S** species to the apo CP-Ser heterodimer and the 4.1 **S** species to a Mn(Il)-bound heterotetramer. This analysis informs our prior **SEC** results that revealed addition of Mn(II) to CP-Ser causes a shift in peak elution volume (vide supra), and we conclude that apo heterodimers and Mn(Il)-bound heterotetramers are present in the sample. Moreover, When **160E** and 160K were pre-incubated with one equivalent of Mn(II), the sedimentation distributions exhibited the same dimer **(=2.3 S)** and tetramer species (=4.0 **S)** (Figure **A2.7);** however, the dimer comprised **=80%** of the total area, indicating that Mn(Il)-induced tetramerization is disrupted in the **160E** and 160K variants. This analysis is consistent with the **SEC** results, which showed a peak elution volume consistent with heterodimers and marked peak broadening indicative of heterotetramers.

When 20 equivalents of Ca(II) and one equivalent of Mn(II) were added to the buffer, CP-Ser, **160E,** and 160K exhibited similar sedimentation distributions (Figure **2.3).**

The major species appeared at ≈ 4.0 S for all three proteins, which we assign to the Ca(II)and Mn(Il)-bound heterotetramer. The CP-Ser distribution also contained a less abundant species at **6.5 S.** The theoretical maximum sedimentation coefficient for the **CP** tetramer is \approx 4.5 S, suggesting that a higher order oligomer forms under these conditions. This species warrants further investigation, and is reminiscent of prior **SEC** studies that revealed low-abundant peaks with lower elution volumes (higher molecular weight) than the $\alpha_2\beta_2$ heterotetramer.¹⁹ In total, the AUC results are in agreement with those obtained from **SEC** and indicate that (i) the quaternary structure of **CP** is modulated **by** both Ca(ll) and Mn(II), (ii) heterotetramerization is not restricted to Ca(II) because the CP-Ser samples containing only Mn(ll) also form heterotetramers, and (iii) the **160E** and 160K mutations do not preclude formation of tetramers when Ca(II) and Mn(II) are present. Moreover, crystal structures of Ca(Il)- and Mn(Il)-bound CP-Ser reveal heterotetramers,^{22,23} and the current work confirms that heterotetramers also form in solution.

We also employed **SEC** to examine the effect of Fe(ll) on the oligomerization properties of CP-Ser, **160E** and 160K in the absence and presence of excess Ca(ll). In agreement with our previous work, we observed a shift in peak elution volume following addition of Fe(II) to CP-Ser.24 After preincubation with **10** equivalents of Fe(II), CP-Ser, **160E,** and 160K **(30** tM) shifted to an earlier peak elution volume **(11.1** mL, =43 kDa) (Figure **A2.6).** In contrast to the Mn(Il)-only **160E** and 160K samples (Figure **A2.5),** the chromatograms for the Fe(ll)-only samples exhibited a complete shift to earlier elution volumes and no broadening, which indicated that addition of Fe(II) favored tetramerization more than Mn(ll) alone. Moreover, preincubation of the proteins with **1.1** equivalents of Fe(II) and 20 equivalents of Ca(ll) afforded the same peak elution volume of **11.1** mL (Figures 2.2B and **A2.6).** The higher affinity of **CP** for Fe(II) than Mn(II) at the His6 site may explain why Fe(II) causes more tetramerization of **160E** and 160K than Mn(ll) in the absence of Ca(II).²⁴ We note that one prior study reported $Zn(II)$ -induced formation of

heterotetramers **by** mass spectrometry, albeit the Zn(ll)/CP stoichiometries obtained from this analysis are unlikely to be relevant because the number of bound Zn(lI) ions reported exceeds the number of Zn(II)-binding sites per CP heterotetramer.³⁷ Taken together, these studies illuminate the multifaceted and metal-dependent oligomerization properties of **CP.** At present, the molecular basis for the metal-dependent oligomerization properties of CP-Ser and the **160** variants is unclear from standpoints of Ca(II) coordination at the EF-hand domains as well as transition metal binding at the **His6** site. It is possbile that the **¹⁶⁰**mutations abrogate Ca(Il)-induced tetramerization, but allow tetramerization to occur via transition-metal binding. This notion is consistent with the observations the Fe(ll), which binds to **CP** with higher affinity than Mn(II), causes complete tetramerization and that increasing the affinity of the proteins for Mn(ll) **by** adding Ca(II) allows Mn(II) to cause quantitative tetramerization. Further characterization of these metal-dependent selfassembly pathways is an avenue for future work.

2.3.4. Tetramerization Protects Calprotectin against Host Proteases

To ascertain whether Ca(ll)-induced tetramerization of CP-Ser confers resistance to proteolysis, we evaluated trypsin, chymotrypsin, and human neutrophil elastase **(HNE)** as host proteases in degradation assays. We selected trypsin, chymotrypsin, and **HNE** because we reasoned that co-localization of these proteases with **CP** is likely to occur in vivo. **CP** is expressed **by** the intestinal epithelium and serves as a biomarker for inflammation in the gut, where trypsin and chymotrypsin are abundant.⁵¹ Neutrophils are a major source of extracellular **CP** and also release **HNE,** the latter of which is stored in azurophilic granules.9 ⁵²⁵ 3 We employed Ca(Il)-bound CP-Ser, **160E** and 160K in these studies to compare the proteolytic stabilities of the Ca(Il)-bound heterotetramer (CP-Ser) and heterodimers **(160E** and 160K). Because proteases such as trypsin and chymotrypsin are activated/stabilized **by** Ca(II) ions, a degradation study of the apo CP-Ser heterodimer degradation would necessitate utilizing incompletely active proteases and direct comparison with the Ca(ll)-bound heterotetramer would not be possible. With the tetramer-deficient variants, it is possible to compare the stability of the Ca(ll)-bound dimer and the Ca(Il)-bound tetramer under the same experimental conditions that provide equally active proteases.

We established an analytical HPLC protocol that affords separation of the **S100A8 (=38** min) and **S100A9 (39.8** min) subunits on a C4 column. We confirmed the identity of each peak **by LCMS,** and used HPLC to monitor the proteolytic stability of each subunit over time. The chromatograms from the trypsin digestions revealed that **S100A8** and **S100A9** subunits of Ca(Il)-bound CP-Ser display resistance to trypsin, whereas both subunits were rapidly degraded for Ca(ll)-bound **160E** and 160K (Figures **2.5** and **A2.8).** Quantification of the **S1 00A8** and **S1 00A9** peak area revealed that **~80%** of each CP-Ser subunit persisted after 4 h whereas both subunits were undetectable for 160K and **160E** at this time point (Figure **2.5).** Similar results were obtained with chymotrypsin (Figure **A2.9)** and **HNE** (Figures **2.6** and **A2.10);** both proteases degraded Ca(Il)-bound 160K and **160E** more readily than Ca(Il)-bound CP-Ser. We also observed that **HNE** digested **160E** more rapidly than 160K. The reason for the difference is unclear because **HNE** preferably cleaves after small hydrophobic residues, so the 160K and **160E** mutations are not expected to affect the HNE cleavage pattern.^{54,55} Addition of both Mn(II) and Ca(II) to I60K and **160E,** which causes heterotetramer formation (vide supra), resulted in enhanced stability to digestion **by** trypsin, chymotrypsin, and **HNE.** The corresponding chromatograms indicate negligible loss of full-length **S100A8** and **S100A9,** and new species were not observed (Figures **2.5, 2.6,** and **A2.8-A2.10).** Taken together, these assays demonstrate that tetramerization of the CP-Ser scaffold affords enhanced resistance to degradation **by** three host proteases.

Figure **2.5.** Susceptibility of Ca(ll)-bound CP-Ser, **160E,** and 160K **(30** pLM) to degradation **by** trypsin (0.45 **pM). (A)** Representative HPLC traces illustrating the full-length **S100A8** and **S1 00A9** subunits following incubation with trypsin for 0-4 h at **37 0C (75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, **pH 7.5, 1.5** mM Ca(II), **30 pM** Mn(lI), **pH 7.5).** (B) Reduction in the **S100A8 and S100A9 integrated peak area as a function of time (mean ± SDM,** $n=3$ **). Full** chromatograms are given in Figure **A2.8.**

Figure **2.6.** Susceptibility of Ca(ll)-bound CP-Ser, **160E,** and 160K **(30** pM) to degradation **by HNE (0.3 pM). (A)** Representative HPLC traces illustrating the full-length **S10OA8** and **S10OA9** subunits following incubation with **HNE** for 0-4 h at **37 0C (75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCI, **pH 7.5, 1.5** mM Ca(Il), **30 pM** Mn(ll), **pH 7.5).** (B) Reduction in the **S100A8** and S100A9 integrated peak area as a function of time (mean \pm SDM, $n=3$). Full chromatograms are given in Figure **A2.10.**

2.3.5. Proteolysis **by** Trypsin Abolishes Antibacterial Activity

The current model states that **CP** inhibits microbial growth in a Ca(li)-dependent manner **by** sequestering essential transition metal ions in the extracellular space. ¹³, 56 This antibacterial mechanism requires that the Ca(II) and transition metal binding sites at the **S1 00A8/S1 00A9** interface remain intact and that the coordinated transition metals remain bound and inaccessible to an invading microbe. In accord with this model, it is reasonable to expect that proteolytic destruction of the metal-binding sites and heterooligomeric assembly results in attenuated antimicrobial activity.

We performed standard in vitro antimicrobial activity assays with **160E** and 160K, and observed that these variants inhibited the growth of **E.** coli **ATCC 29522** in a concentration-dependent manner that is comparable to CP-Ser (Figure **A2. 11).** This result indicates that the defective self-assembly properties of **160E** and 160K do not compromise in vitro antibacterial activity, at least against this **E.** coli strain. Prior studies established that the **His6** site of **CP** contributes more to the in vitro antibacterial activity against **E.** coli than the His3Asp **site. ¹⁹, 2 1, ²³**Thus, the result from this antimicrobial activity assay **is** expected because 160K and **160E** retain a functional His6 site (Figure **A2.3).**

The **S100A8** and **S10OA9** subunits have multiple cleavage sites for the host proteases evaluated in this work, and our proteolysis studies revealed that Ca(ll)-bound **160E** and 160K were degraded into many proteolytic fragments **by** these enzymes (Figures **A2.8-A2.10).** We therefore ascertained how pre-incubation with trypsin impacts the antibacterial activity of CP-Ser, **160E,** and 160K against **E.** coli **ATCC 25922.** Samples of CP-Ser, **160E,** and 160K with and without trypsin were prepared in an antimicrobial activity assay buffer supplemented with Ca(II), incubated at 37 °C for ≈20 h, and subsequently employed in antimicrobial activity assays. Under standard conditions using the assay medium employed in this work, CP-Ser exhibits full growth inhibition of **E.** coli **25922** at 250 μg/mL.¹⁹ For the antibacterial activity assays including protease, we employed a final protein concentration of 500 µg/mL. The untreated samples exhibited antimicrobial

activity, demonstrating that the CP-Ser, **160E,** and 160K were stable and active after the overnight incubation (Figure **2.7).** Trypsin-treated CP-Ser retained the same antimicrobial activity as untreated CP-Ser, whereas trypsin-treated **160E** and 160K provided slight growth enhancement relative to the untreated and trypsin-only controls (Figure **2.7).** HPLC analysis of the protein samples following the overnight incubation with trypsin revealed that **=50%** of CP-Ser remained, whereas **160E** and 160K were completely digested (Figure A2.12). The latter result indicates ≈250 μg/mL of CP-Ser is present when the antimicrobial activity assay was initiated.

Figure **2.7.** Antimicrobial activity assays performed with untreated and trypsin-treated CP-Ser, 160K and **160E** against **E.** coli **ATCC 25922.** The OD600 values were recorded at t=20 h (mean ± SEM, $n=3$).

2.3.6. The Staphylococcal Protease GluC Cleaves the **SIOOA8** Subunit in the Absence of Zn(II)

Many bacterial pathogens produce extracellular proteases that are capable of degrading proteins central to the immune response.57- 59 To evaluate whether **CP** is a substrate for an extracellular serine protease produced **by** a human pathogen, we selected staphylococcal glutamyl endoproteinase (GluC) as an initial case study. This protease is readily available from commercial sources because of its specificity for cleaving after Asp. Moreover, GluC may be a virulence factor, 60-62 and CP is abundant at

sites of S. a*ureus* infection,^{16,63} which suggests that it will encounter extracellular proteases released **by** this pathogen. In contrast to the host proteases that more readily degraded Ca(ll)-bound heterodimers, GluC exhibited no preference for either Ca(Il) bound CP-Ser or the **160E** and 160K variants; each substrate was cleaved in a similar manner (Figure **2.8).** Moreover, the HPLC traces revealed that the presence of GluC results in negligible change to the **S100A9** peak **(39.8** min) and loss of the **S100A8** peak (38.4 min) with concomitant formation of one new peak at 38.7min (Figure **2.8). LCMS** analysis of this new species revealed that GluC cleaves **S100A8** between Glu89-Ser9O, resulting in a truncated **S100A8** where the last four C-terminal residues (Ser90-His9l-Lys92-Glu93) are removed (m/z calc. **10336.9** Da, **obs.10337.3** Da).

The C-terminal region of **S100A8** includes His83 and His87, residues that comprise the His3Asp metal-binding site, and the GluC cleavage site is in close proximity to His87. Moreover, crystallographic studies of CP-Ser revealed that the **S100A8 C**terminus is disordered in the absence of a bound metal at the His3Asp site.²² The His3Asp site coordinates Zn(ll) with high affinity, and we questioned whether Zn(II) coordination at this site would afford GluC resistance (Figure **2.8).** Because each **CP** heterodimer has two high-affinity Zn(II) sites,^{19,21} we performed GluC degradation assays with CP-Ser preincubated with two equivalents of Zn(Il). Under these conditions, both **S100A8** and **S100A9** HPLC peaks exhibited negligible change and the **A8** cleavage product was not observed (Figure **2.8).** To confirm that Zn(II) coordination to the His3Asp site provided protection against GluC, we took advantage of the different properties of the two transition-metal binding sites and performed an experiment where the protein substrate was pre-incubated with one equivalent of Mn(II). Because the Mn(II) affinities of the His₃Asp and His₆ sites vary substantially and $Mn(II)$ preferentially populates the His₆ site, the His3Asp site remains vacant when CP-Ser (+Ca) is incubated with one equivalent of Mn(II).^{20,22} In these +Mn(II) experiments, GluC cleaved S100A8 between Glu89 and Ser90 (Figure **2.8).** Likewise, the addition of Mn(II) to the **160E** and 160K variants afforded

Figure 2.8. Susceptibility of Ca(II)-bound CP-Ser, **160E,** and 160K **(30 pM)** to degradation **by** staphylococcal GluC **(0.3 pM). (A)** Representative HPLC traces illustrating the fulllength S100A8 and S100A9 subunits following incubation with GluC for 0-4 h at 37 °C **(75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, **pH 7.5, 1.5** mM Ca(II), **30 pM** Mn(ll), **60 pM** Zn(ll), **pH 7.5).** The asterisk denotes the **ASHKE** truncation product. (B) Reduction in the **S100A8 and S100A9 integrated peak area as a function of time (mean ±SDM,** $n=3$ **). Full** chromatograms are given in Figure **A2.13.**

afforded no protection of the GluC cut site (Figure **2.8).**

2.3.7. The GluC Degradation Product Exhibits in vitro Antibacterial Activity

To evaluate the consequences of GluC truncation of the **S100A8** subunit, we overexpressed the **S100A8** truncation product identified from the GluC digests and the purified S100A8(C42S)(S9OStop)/S100A9 heterodimer, abbreviated **ASHKE** herein. This CP-Ser variant exhibits the expected α -helical fold and forms heterotetramers in the presence of Ca(II) (Figures **A2.2** and A2.14). Antibacterial activity assays employing **E.** coli **ATCC 25922, S.** aureus **ATCC 25923,** and L. plantarum WCFS1 revealed that **ASHKE** exhibits the same in vitro growth inhibitory activity as CP-Ser against each strain (Figure **2.9).** Thus, the last four residues of the **S1 00A8** C-terminus are not essential for in vitro antibacterial activity of human **CP** against these three strains. We selected these strains on the basis of metabolic metal requirements and how the metal-binding sites of CP-Ser contribute to in vitro growth inhibition. ¹⁹, ² ¹, 24 Prior studies showed that the **His6** site, which sequesters Mn(II), Fe(II) and Zn(ll), contributes more to growth inhibition of **E.** coli and S. aureus than the His₃Asp site under these assay conditions.^{19,21,23,24} The His₃Asp site sequesters Zn(II) but not Fe(II) or Mn(II), and this site is essential for antibacterial activity against L. plantarum.²⁴ This microbe has no metabolic iron requirement and is sensitive to Zn(II) restriction under the assay conditions; thus, growth studies with L. plantarum allow for interrogation of the His3Asp site. The fact that the **ASHKE** variant showed full growth inhibitory activity against L. plantarum, indicated that loss of the four C-terminal residues of **S1 00A8** does not impair the ability of the His3Asp site to sequester Zn(II) from this organism. Moreover, these in vitro data suggest that GluC cleavage of **S100A8** is not an effective staphylococcal resistance mechanism against human **CP,** although it is possible that synergism with other factors occurs in the complex milieu of an infection site. In light of these observations, we note that the **C**terminus of human **S1 00A8** differs from the C-termini of other mammalian orthologues.

Figure **2.9.** Antibacterial activity of CP-Ser and **ASHKE** against **E.** coli **ATCC 25922 (A), S.** aureus **ATCC 25923** (B), L. plantarum WCFS1 **(C)** with 2 mM Ca(lI) in the **AMA** medium. The OD_{600} values were recorded at $t = 20$ h. Averages \pm SEM for three independent replicates (n=9).

Human **S100A8** is four residues longer than other sequenced mammalian **S100A8** polypeptides, and these additional four residues occur in the C-terminal region. The **C**terminal residues **87-93** of human **S100A8** are **HEESHKE,** and the C-terminal residues **87-89** of other mammalian **S100A8** are HKE. Whether this difference has functional significance for human **CP** is unclear.

2.3.8. Biological Implications and Outlook

This work provides the first comprehensive evaluation of how metal binding and changes in quaternary structure influence the proteolytic stability of human **CP.** Our results indicate that Ca(II)-induced heterotetramerization and Zn(ll) chelation enable **CP** to resist degradation **by** select host and bacterial serine proteases. We reason that the metal-induced structural changes enable **CP** to persist in the protease-rich extracellular space and thereby function in metal withholding and the inflammatory response. It will be important to determine whether these observations pertain to the fate of **CP** in the presence of other proteases, particularly those employed **by** bacterial pathogens to thwart the innate immune response. Although the current data indicate that **CP** exhibits remarkable metal-dependent resistance to the proteases evaluated in this work, pathogens overcome the host response to infection. We therefore expect that certain pathogenic microbes deploy degradation machinery that can disarm **CP.** Another important avenue for future inquiry is to consider the current observations in the context of biological concentrations, regulation, and other factors that come into play in the variable and dynamic extracellular environments of infection and inflammatory sites. In broad terms, this work provides an additional and previously unappreciated facet to how Ca(II) ions influence **CP** function, and further exemplifies the fact that **CP** is a complex and multifaceted protein and that its functional properties will be governed **by** its speciation.

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Chapter **3:** NMR Spectroscopy Reveals the Effect of Ca(II) on the Dynamics of the Calprotectin Dimer

3.1 Contributions

Dr. R. Silvers performed the NMR experiments and processed the NMR data. Design of the NMR experiments, analysis of the NMR data, preparation of the figures, and writing were accomplished with close collaboration between Mr. **J.** Stephan and Dr. R. Silvers. Dr. R. Griffin provided NMR expertise.

3.2. Introduction

Human calprotectin **(CP)** is a host-defense protein that is a heterooligomer of S100A8 (α subunit, 10.8 kDa) and S100A9 (β subunit, 13.2 kDa).¹ The subunits are members of the **S100** family, which are characterized by their two Ca(Il)-binding EF-hand domains and small size.² CP forms a heterodimer ($\alpha\beta$ oligomer), which has interface two transition-metal-binding sites at the dimer interface. ³CP exerts antimicrobial activity **by** binding Mn(II),⁴⁻⁶ Fe(II),⁷ Ni(II),⁸ and Zn(II)^{1,9} with high affinity thereby starving microbes of these essential nutrients. In the presence of Ca(Il) ions, **CP** forms a dimer of dimers termed the tetramer $(\alpha_2\beta_2)$.^{3,10} As a tetramer, CP displays increased transition-meta affinities, higher thermal stability, enhanced antimicrobial activity, and increased protease stability.^{9,11} Due to the low Ca(II) concentration (hundreds of nanomolar) in the cytosol of resting cells, 12 where **CP** is stored in neutrophils and epithelial cells, the working model is that **CP** is stored in the relatively low-affinity heterodimer form. During release into the extracellular space, CP is exposed to high Ca(II) concentrations (2 mM),¹² which is thought to result in Ca(II) binding and formation of the **CP** heterotetramer, which affords antimicrobial activity as well as longevity in the extracellular space. It has also been found that Ca(II) causes cytosolic **CP** to polymerize tubulin more effectively, 13 to protect epithelial cells from bacterial invasion,¹⁴ and to bind unsaturated fatty acids with higher affinity. ¹⁵

Though the functional consequences of Ca(II) chelation **by CP** have been the subject of many studies, the biophysical underpinnings for the remarkable Ca(ll)-induced changes remain elusive. Currently, crystallographic structural information is available for only the tetramer, $3,8,16,17$ and no solution structure of the dimer or tetramer has been reported. As a consequence, molecular-level details describing the transformation from the apo dimer to the Ca(Il)-bound tetramer are lacking. In lieu of such information, the molecular basis of tetramerization as well as the observed increased metal affinities are not known. One possibility is that Ca(ll) binding and tetramerization cause significant changes in the protein fold, which result in the assembly of the transition-metal-binding and tetramerization sites; however, this scenario is unlikely considering the lack of change in the circular dichroism spectrum after addition of $Ca(II)^9$ and the homology between structures of CP, the S100A8 homodimer, and the S100A9 homodimer.^{3,18-20} Studies of other **S100** proteins have shown that Ca(II) causes helices **III** and IV to move apart to create a site for binding target proteins; 21 however, neither transition metal binding nor tetramerization occur between helices **Ill** and IV. As an alternative possibility, we hypothesized that modulating the dynamics of **CP** via Ca(ll) coordination governs transition metal binding and tetramerization. This hypothesis is supported **by** recent work on the allosteric Zn(II)-responsive transcription factor CzrA.²² It had been shown that the apo and Zn(Il)-bound forms of CzrA displayed nearly identical structures in solid and solution states; therefore, the mechanism **by** which Zn(II) decreased the affinity of CzrA for DNA was unknown.^{23,24} Through NMR spectroscopy experiments where the methyl groups of amino acid side chains (Ala **P,** lie **61,** Leu **61/62,** Met **g,** Val **yl/y2)** of CzrA were selectively ¹H, ¹³C labeled in a ²H, ¹²C background, it was experimentally demonstrated that Zn(II) decreased the affinity of CzrA for **DNA by** redistributing conformational entropy among methyl side chains in CzrA, which prevented the gain entropy that the methyl side chains experienced upon **DNA** binding.22 Along similar lines, a computational study of lapine **S100A11,** a homolog of human **S10OA8** and **S10OA9,** suggested that Ca(Il)-

mediated affinity for annexin arose from stiffening hydrophobic residues. Reducing the entropy of those residues halted a cascade of structural rearrangements that began with breakage of a labile salt bridge, and terminated with closure of the annexin binding site.²⁵ These studies and others provide compelling evidence that allosteric properties can arise from behavior that can only be observed in solution.²⁶⁻²⁹

In order to gain insight into the transformation from the apo **CP** dimer to the Ca(ll) bound **CP** tetramer, we chose to employ NMR spectroscopy to study the dynamic properties of a tetramer-deficient variant of **CP** termed 160K. The variant has **(A8)C42S** and **(A9)C3S** mutations to prevent disulfide formation and the **(A8)160K** mutation to prevent Ca(II)-induced tetramerization.¹¹ Using the I60K variant, we were able to compare the structural and dynamical properties of the apo heterodimer and the Ca(ll)-bound heterodimer, allowing us to obtain detailed information on **CP** species that have not been studied from a structural perspective. We assigned the 160K subunits most successfully using conditions with excess Ca(II). We found that 160K had dihedral angles consistent with crystal structures of the heterotetramer, except in certain small regions. The regions with disagreement displayed changes in dynamics upon Ca(II) binding, and provide evidence that Ca(II) stabilizes folding in regions that bind transition metals as well as promotes the movement of helices **III** and IV that had been observed for other **S100** proteins. The insights gained from these studies demonstrate that Ca(II) causes changes in dynamics throughout both subunits, suggesting that rigidity imparted **by** Ca(ll) chelation drives the emergent properties of the **CP** tetramer as opposed to a more traditional allosteric mechanism of conformational selection.

3.2. Experimental

3.2.1 General Materials and Methods

All solvents, reagents, and chemicals were obtained from commercial suppliers and used as received. **All** buffers and metal solutions were prepared using Milli-Q water **(18.2** MQ-cm, 0.22-tm filter, Millipore). **All** buffers for NMR experiments were prepared with Ultrol grade **HEPES** (free acid, Calbiochem), TraceSELECT NaCl (Fluka), and aqueous TraceSELECT NaOH (Sigma) was used for **pH** adjustments. The highest available purity of calcium chloride **(99.99%)** was purchased from Alfa Aesar. Stock solutions of CaC2 **(1** M, **50** mL) were prepared **by** using Milli-Q water and acid-washed volumetric glassware. **All** buffers and metal solutions were stored in polypropylene bottles and tubes. Protein concentration was determined **by** optical absorbance at **280** nm using a BioTek Synergy HT plate reader outfitted with a Take3 Micro-Volume plate. The extinction coefficient calculated **by** ExPASy server ProtParam tool (http://web.expasy.org/protparam) for the CP-Ser heterodimer $(\epsilon_{280} = 18450 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{cm}^{-1})$ was employed for determining protein concentration. **All** CP-Ser variants used in this work have the same extinction coefficient. **All** reported concentrations refer to the concentration of the heterodimer.

3.2.2. Site-Directed Mutagenesis

A modified Quick-Change site-directed mutagenesis protocol was employed to generate plasmids encoding **S100A9(C3S)(P107A)** and **S100A9(C3S)(P114A).** The template was pET41a-S100A9(C3S). This plasmid has the **S100A9(C3S)** gene inserted into the Ndel and Xhol sites of pET41a. 9 The primers are listed in Table **3.1.** PCR amplification was carried out using PfuTurbo **DNA** polymerase. The PCR protocol was **95 OC** for **30** sec, **95 OC** for **30** sec, **63.0 OC (P107A** mutation) or **57.7 0C** (P1 14A mutation), **68 OC** for **17** min, **(25** cycles), and 4 **OC** hold. After PCR amplification, the template **DNA** was digested at **37 OC** for **3** h using Dpnl (New England Biolabs) **by** adding **1.5 pL** of the enzyme to **50 pL** of a PCR reaction, and adding an additional **1.5 pL** of the enzyme after **1.5** h of incubation. The digestion products were transformed into chemically competent **E.** coli TOP10 cells that were subsequently plated on Luria Broth (LB) agar plates containing **50** pg/mL kanamycin (Kan) and incubated at **37 0C** overnight. The following day, overnight cultures **(5** mL LB, **50** tg/mL Kan) were grown from single colonies. The plasmids were isolated using a miniprep kit (Qiagen). The presence of the mutations and integrity of the coding sequences were verified **by DNA** sequencing (Quintara Biosciences). Plasmids encoding other **S100A8** and **S10OA9** variants (Table **3.2)** have been reported previously, and all expression plasmids are based on pET41a, unless otherwise specified.6,9,11

3.2.3 Protein Expression and Purification **-** General Protocol

The **S10OA8** and **S100A9** subunits were expressed, and the **CP** heterodimers were reconstituted and purified, based on reported protocols with several modifications as detailed below.917 **All** isotopically-enriched compounds and **99.8%** deuterium oxide **(D20)** used for protein expression were purchased from Cambridge Isotope Labs. For uniformly labeled [¹⁵N]- and [¹³C,¹⁵N]-labeled proteins, sterile 2-L or 4-L baffled flasks were charged with the following minimal medium prepared in Milli-Q water and sterile-

filtered: **6 g/L** Na2HPO4, **3 g/L** KH2PO4, **0.5 g/L** NaCl, **2g/L** D-glucose, **1 g/L NH4Cl,** 2 mM **MgSO4,** and **100** yM CaC2. For **15N** labeling, the natural abundance NH4CI was replaced with 99% ¹⁵NH₄Cl. For ¹³C labeling, the natural abundance D-glucose was replaced with **99%** 13C-D-glucose and the resulting pellets were combined prior to lysis.9 For all isotopically-labeled protein purifications, both subunits were overexpressed in the minimal medium to ensure that comparable quantities were produced. For the preparation of perdeuterated proteins, the same minimal medium was prepared in **99.8% D20** and perdeuterated $13C$ -D-glucose was used. Protein with randomly distributed deuteration **(_55%** deuteration based on **MS** analysis) was prepared **by** growing cells in a medium containing a **3:1** ratio of D20:H20.

Protein Name	Subunits	Ref.
CP-Ser	S100A8(C42S) / S100A9(C3S)	5
160K	S100A8(C42S)(I60K) / S100A9(C3S)	11
160K(H103A)	S100A8(C42S)(I60K) / S100A9(C3S)(H103A)	This work
160K(H105A)	S100A8(C42S)(I60K) / S100A9(C3S)(H105A)	This work
160K(P107A)	S100A8(C42S)(I60K) / S100A9(C3S)(P107A)	This work
160K(P114A)	S100A8(C42S)(I60K) / S100A9(C3S)(P114A)	This work
$[15N]$ -A8-160K	160K with the A8 subunit uniformly ¹⁵ N labeled	This work
$[15N(Phe)]-A8-160K$	160K with uniform ¹⁵ N labeling of Phe in A8	This work
$[1H/2H, 13C, 15N]$ -A8-160K	I60K with uniform ${}^{13}C, {}^{15}N$ and random fractional deuteration labeling of the A8 subunit	This work

Table 3.2. Protein nomenclature and examples of isotopic labeling nomenclature.^a

*^a***All** protein variants are based on CP-Ser.

Overnight cultures of **E.** coli **BL21(DE3)** transformed with the appropriate expression plasmid were grown in **50** mL of LB medium containing **50** pg/mL Kan as

previously described (16 h, 37 °C, 150 rpm).⁹ Then, the overnight cultures were transferred to separate 50-mL conical tubes, and pelleted **by** centrifugation **(3 600** rpm x 20 min, 4 °C). The supernatants were decanted, and to wash the cells, the pellets were resuspended in **25** mL of the minimal medium before repeating the centrifugation, decanting, and resuspension. After the second round of washing, the bacteria were resuspened in **25** mL of minimal medium, and then **12.5** mL of the resuspended cells were diluted into 2 L of minimal medium or **25** mL of the resuspended cells were diluted into 4 L of minimal medium. To each culture, Kan (final concentration 50 μ g/mL), and a 400- L aliquot of a vitamin mix (400 mg choline chloride, **500** mg folic acid, **1.1 g** sodium pantothenoate, **500** mg nicotinamide, **500** mg of myo-inositol, **500** mg pyridoxal-HCI, **500** mg thiamine-HCI, and **50** mg riboflavin suspended in **15** mL of Milli-Q water) were added as well as a spatula tip's worth of iron(lll) chloride hexahydrate, biotin, and thiamine-HCl. The cultures were then incubated at **37 oC** with shaking at **150** rpm. When the cultures reached $OD_{600} \approx 0.6$, protein overexpression was induced by the addition of IPTG (final concentration **0.5** mM). When the cultures were grown in medium prepared in H20, the cultures reached $OD_{600} \approx 0.6$ after 3.5-4 h, whereas 8.5-9.5 h was required to reach OD_{600} \approx 0.6 for cultures grown in minimal medium prepared in D₂O. The cultures were grown for an additional 4 h and then harvested by centrifugation (3 000 rpm x 20 min, 5 °C). The cell pellets were transferred to 50-mL conical flasks, frozen with liquid nitrogen, and stored at **-80 OC.** The wet cell pellet yield ranged from **1-3 g** cells/L of culture.

Proteins were purified as previously described. 9 The protein yields ranged from **5-** 14 mg **/** L of culture. Purity and isotope incorporation of the proteins were evaluated **by SDS-PAGE** (Figures **A2.15-A2.18)** and mass spectrometry (Tables **3.3** and 3.4).

Protein	Mass (Da)
A8(C42S)(I60K)	Obs: 10 834.5
	Theo: 10 834.5
$[15N]$ -A8(C42S)	Obs: 10 944.3
	Theo: 10 945.4
$[15N]$ -A8(C42S)(160K)	Obs. 10 961.1
	Theo: 10 961.5
$[13C, 15N]$ -A8(C42S)(160K)	Obs: 11 442.1
	Theo: 11 449.9
$[{}^{2}H, {}^{13}C, {}^{15}N]$ -A8(C42S)(I60K)	Obs: 12 042.4
	Theo: 12 212.6
[$1H/2H$, $13C$, $15N$]-A8(C42S)(160K)	Obs: 11 785.7
	\approx 56% ² H incorporation)
A9 $(C3S)^a$	Obs: 13 094.7
	Theo: 13 094.7
$[15N]$ -A9(C3S) ^a	Obs: 13 254.7
	Theo: 13 255.7
$[15N]$ -A9(C3S)(H103A) ^a	13 186.6 Obs :
	Theo: 13 187.5
$[15N]$ -A9(C3S)(H105A) ^a	13 186.5 Obs:
	Theo: 13 187.5
$[15N]$ -A9(C3S)(P107A) ^a	13 229.2 Obs:
	Theo: 13 229.5
$[$ ¹³ C, ¹⁵ N]-A9(C3S) ^a	13815.9 Obs:
	Theo: 13 825.3
$[{}^{2}H, {}^{13}C, {}^{15}N]$ -A9(C3S) ^a	14 503.8 Obs
	Theo: 14 728.8
[¹ H/ ² H, ¹³ C, ¹⁵ N]-A9(C3S) ^a	14 205.7 Obs l
	(≈55% ² H incorporation)

Table 3.3. Mass spectrometry of proteins with nonspecific labeling.

^a In all preparations, the dominant purified species of the **S100A9** subunit lacked the **N**terminal methionine. The masses reported here are the observed and theoretical values for **S100A9(C3S)** lacking Met1.

Table 3.4. Mass spectrometry of proteins with selective **15N** labeling.

a In all preparations, the dominant purified species of the **S100A9** subunit lacked the **N**terminal methionine. The masses reported here are the observed and theoretical values for **S100A9(C3S)** lacking Met1.

3.2.4. Protein Overexpression and Purification **-** Selective **15N** Labeling of Phe, Leu, lie or Val

To prepare proteins with selective 15N labeling of Phe, Leu, lie, or Val, the **pET1 5b,** pET41a-S100A8(C42S)(160K), and pET41a-S100A9(C3S) plasmids were digested with Xbal and Xhol, and the **S10OA8(C42S)(160K)** and **S10OA9(C3S)** genes were subcloned into the Xbal and Xhol sites of **pET1 5b.** The resulting plasmids were confirmed **by DNA** sequencing and transformed into chemically competent E. coli CT19,^{30,31} which are derived from **E.** coli BL21(DE3) and are auxotrophic for Phe, Leu, lie, and Val. It was necessary to use ampicillin (Amp) as a selection marker because **CT19** cells have a biosynthetic gene knocked out with a Kan resistance cassette. For antibiotic selection, a working concentration of **100** tg/mL Amp was used. Overnight cultures were prepared as described above except that the medium was supplemented with Amp. The overnight cultures were washed and diluted into the minimal media as described above. **A** different

minimal medium, which contained all of the proteinogenic amino acids, was used for selective labeling. The recipe for this medium is provided in Table **3.5.** Two batches of 5x-concentrated media were prepared. In one preparation, Phe, Leu, lie, and Val were omitted. Trp was omitted from both media preparations. After autoclaving the 5x media, it was diluted to **1x** using sterile-filtered Milli-Q water, and then **1 %** (w/v) glucose, **100** piM CaC12, and 2 mM **MgSO4** were added. To the medium lacking the Phe, Leu, lie, and Val, three of the four amino acids were added that contained natural abundance isotopes. For the fourth amino acid, a 15N-labeled isotopologue was added in place of the natural abundance amino acid. Immediately after inoculating the washed bacteria into the minimal media, a spatula tip's worth of iron(Ill) chloride hexahydrate, biotin, and thiamine-HCI were added as well as **100** mg/L **NAD** and **100** mg/L Trp. Overexpression was induced as described above, and the proteins were purified as described previously.⁹ The medium used for selective labeling did not have a systematic effect on the growth rate or protein yield compared to the medium used for uniform labeling.

3.3.5. Mass Spectrometry

An Agilent **1260** series **LC** system equipped with an Agilent **6230** TOF system housing an Agilent Jetstream **ESI** source or an Agilent **1290 LC** system equipped with an Agilent **6510 Q-TOF ESI** source was employed to perform high-resolution mass spectrometry. An Agilent Poroshell 300SB-C18 (5-um pore) and denaturing protocol were used for all **LC-MS** analyses. Solvent **A** was **0.1 %** formic acid/H20. Solvent B was **0.1** formic acid/MeCN. The **S10OA8** and **S100A9** subunits were eluted using either a **5-85%** B over **10** min or **10-90%** B over **15** min gradient. The resulting mass spectra were deconvoluted using the maximum entropy algorithm in MassHunter BioConfirm (Agilent).

Component	Mass (g/L)	Component	Mass (g/L)
Alanine	2.5	Proline	0.5
Arginine	2.0	Serine	10.5
Asparagine	2.3	Threonine	1.15
Aspartate	2.0	Tyrosine	0.85
Cysteine	0.36	Valine	1.15
Glutamate	3.73	Adenosine	2.5
Glutamine	2.0	Guanosine	3.25
Glycine	2.75	Thymine	1.0
Histidine	0.5	Uracil	2.5
Isoleucine	1.15	NH ₄ Cl	2.5
Leucine	1.15	NaCl	2.5
Lysine	2.6	KH ₂ PO ₄	15
Methionine	1.25	$Na2HPO4·7H2O$	64
Phenylalanine	0.65		

Table 3.5. Components for selective labeling medium

For the media used for selective **15N** labeling, Phe, lie, Leu, and Val were omitted. The **pH** was adjusted to 7.4 using NaOH before autoclaving, and then diluted to 1x using sterile-filtered Milli-Q water. Sterile-filtered glucose, CaC2, and **MgSO4,** were added to **1%** (w/v), **100** pM, and 2 mM, respectively, to the 1x medium. For the media to be used for selective **15N** labeling, three of the four omitted amino acids were added at natural abundance from sterile-filtered 100-mM solutions. The ¹⁵N-labeled amino acid was added following inoculation of the resulting medium as described below.

Immediately after inoculating the medium with bacteria from an overnight culture (LB with 100 μ g/mL Amp) that were pre-washed in this minimal medium, the following components were added: **100** mg/L tryptophan, **100** mg/L nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide, **15N** amino acid of interest (one-fifth of the amount listed in Table **3.5),** and a spatula tip's worth of FeCl₃ hexahydrate, thiamine.HCI and biotin. Lastly, Amp was added to 100 µg/mL in the overexpression cultures.

3.3.6. Analytical Size-Exclusion Chromatography

An Akta purifier **(GE** Lifesciences) housed in a 4 **oC** cold room outfitted with a **100** uL sample loop was used to perform all analytical size exclusion chromatography experiments. **A** Superdex **75 10/300 GL** column **(GE** Lifesciences equilibrated in running buffer was calibrated with a low-molecular-weight calibration mixture **(GE** Lifesciences) as described previously. 9 The proteins were thawed at room temperature, and then concentrated and buffer exchanged into the running buffer **(75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCI, **pH 7.5)** with three rounds of buffer exchanging using 0.5-mL 10K MWCO Amicon spin filters. For experiments performed in the presence of Ca(Il), we added Ca(lI) to **10** mM in the samples and running buffer.

3.3.7. NMR Sample Preparation

Using **10** K MWCO 0.5-mL Amicon spin filters, the proteins were buffer exchanged from the final dialysis buffer used during purification (20 mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, **pH 8.0)** to **11** mM **HEPES, 11** mM NaCl, **pH 7.0** through three rounds of centrifugal concentration **(13 000** rpm, **5** min, 4 **OC)** before or after flash freezing and storage at **-80** ^oC. Next, the proteins were diluted to 555 μM using the NMR buffer, and then D₂O was added to **10%** (v/v). Higher protein concentrations were used for select experiments. When recording the **15N** relaxation experiments with **[15N]-A8-160K** on the **900** MHz spectrometer, a protein concentration of 880 μ M was employed. For the experiments with [1H/ 2H, **13C, 15N]-A9-160K** and **[13C, 15N]-A9-160K** using the **800** MHz spectrometer, protein concentrations of **1** mM and **820** tM were used, respectively. Lastly, for spectra with [1H/ 2H, **13C, 15N]-A8-160K** recorded on the **800** MHz spectrometer, the protein concentration was **1.3** mM.

Before preparing the samples, the NMR tubes were washed three times with water, three times with 20% **HNO3,** three times with water, and then dried. The +Ca(II) conditions contained 20 mM Ca(II) that had been added from a **1** M stock solution. Typically, spectra

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of the apo protein were acquired before adding Ca(II). After leaving an apo sample overnight in a NMR tube, a white precipitate formed. Comparing **1D** 1H-spectra before and after formation of the precipitate indicated that the protein concentration did not significantly change after the precipitation. Buffer exchanging the protein before or after storage had a negligible effect on the amount of precipitate that formed (as evaluated **by** eye). Additionally, the rate of precipitation could be dramatically slowed **by** performing the experiments with the protein solution contained in a PTFE tube liner (Norell) that was housed in standard NMR tube. The solubility of the protein was improved when excess Ca(II) was present in the sample. Under such conditions, negligible precipitation was observed following overnight incubation in a NMR tube.

3.3.8. General NMR Spectroscopy Methods

NMR data recorded at **600** MHz or **900** MHz was acquired and processed using Topspin **3.2** (Bruker BioSpin). NMR data recorded at **591** MHz was acquired using RNMR (courtesy of Dr. David Ruben at the MIT Francis Bitter Magnet Laboratory) and processed using NMRPipe.³² All NMR data was analyzed using SPARKY.³³ Detailed acquisition and processing parameters can be found in Tables **A3.1-A3.8.** Chemical shifts were used to determine the dihedral angles in 160K variants in the absence or presence of Ca(II). For such analysis, ¹H, ¹⁵N, ¹³C^{α}, ¹³C^{β} and, where available, ¹³C' were analyzed using TALOS-**N** ³⁴

3.3.9. Backbone Resonance Assignment

Amide backbone resonance of 160K variants were assigned through **3D HNCACB** experiments on ≈500 μM uniformly ²H, ¹³C, ¹⁵N labelled sample. Amino acid specific labelling was used to guide assignment using **15N** isotopically labelled isoleucine, leucine, phenylalanine, and valine samples. To confirm the assignment of the H103-H104-H105 portion of the C-terminal extension, we used two 160K variants carrying either a **H103A**

or **H105A** mutation.6 **[1H, 15N]-TROSY 3 5- ³⁶**spectra **of [2H,13C,1 5N]-A8-160K** and **[² H, ¹³ C,1 5N]-A9-160K,** both in the absence and presence of Ca(II), were acquired at **298** K on a **900** MHz spectrometer (Bruker Avance **II). 3D [1H, ¹³ C, 15N]-HNCO ³⁷**spectra of **[² H, ¹³ C,15N]-A9-160K** in the absence and presence of Ca(II) were acquired at **298** K on a **900** MHz spectrometer (Bruker Avance **11). 3D [¹ H, ¹³ C, 15N]-HNCACB 38- ³⁹**spectra of **[² H, ¹³C, 15N]-A8-160K** in the presence of Ca(ll), as well as **[² H,1 ³ C,1 5N]-A9-160K** in the absence and presence of Ca(II) were acquired at **298** K on a **900** MHz spectrometer (Bruker Avance II). **[1H, 15N]-HSQC ⁴⁰**spectra of [15N-ile]-A9-160K, [15N-Val]-A9-160K, **[15N-**Phe]-A9-I60K, and [¹⁵N-Leu]-A9-I60K, all in absence and presence of Ca(II), as well as **[15N]-A9-160K(H103A)** and **[1 5N]-A9-160K(H105A)** in absence and presence of Ca(lI) were acquired at **298** K on a **591** MHz spectrometer operating under RNMR (courtesy of Dr. David Ruben) equipped with a Nalorac **5** mm indirect triple resonance **[1H, 13C, 15N]** probe with z-gradient. [¹H,¹⁵N]-HSQC⁴⁰ spectra of [¹⁵N-Ile]-A8-I60K, [¹⁵N-Leu]-A8-I60K, [¹⁵N-Val]-A8-160K, and [¹⁵N-Phe]-A8-160K, all in the absence or presence of Ca(II) (except [15N-Leu]-A8-160K), were acquired at **298** K on a **600** MHz spectrometer (Bruker Avance **I).** The chemical shifts of the assigned resonances are listed in Tables **A3.9-A3.12.**

3.3.10. NMR Spectroscopy of 160K Variants

[1H, 15N]-HSQC40 spectra **of [15N]-A9-160K,** as well as **[15N]-A9-160K(P1O7A)** and **[15N]-A9-160K(P1** 14A) in the absence or presence of Ca(II) were acquired at **298** K on a **600** MHz spectrometer (Bruker Avance **I).**

3.2.11. Estimation of Molecular Weight from Magnetic Relaxation Rates

The molecular weight of the 160K variant in the presence and absence of Ca(II) was determined **by T2/Ti** ratio as previously described: http://www.nmr2.buffalo.edu/nesg.wiki/NMR determined Rotational correlation_time.

3.2.12. Chemical Shift Perturbations

Chemical shifts of the backbone amide resonances were compared **by** calculating the chemical shift perturbations with the following equation:

$$
CSP = \sqrt{(0.1\delta_{15_N}^A - 0.1\delta_{15_N}^B)^2 + (\delta_{1_H}^A - \delta_{1_H}^B)^2}
$$

where $\delta^1H^{15}N$ describes the chemical shift in ppm (either ¹H or ¹⁵N, respectively). A and B designates the two states that are compared.

3.3.13. Relaxation and Model-Free Analysis

T1, T2 and hetNOE data on **A8-160K** in absence of Ca(II) as well as **A9-160K** in absence and presence of Ca(II) was recorded on 500 μ M uniformly ¹⁵N labelled samples on a **900** MHz spectrometer (Bruker Avance **11).** The relaxation delays chosen for **A8-160K** in the presence of Ca(ll) and **A9-160K** in the absence and presence of Ca(II) were 0.02, **0.1, 0.1, 0.3 0.5, 0.8, 1.0, 1.0,** 2.0, **2.5** s for T1, and **17.0, 17.0, 33.9, 50.9, 67.8, 67.8,** 102.0, **136.0, 136.0, 170.** ms for T2. Duplication of relaxation delays is used for error estimation. T_1 and T_2 rates were analysed using SPARKY.³³ Model-free analysis was conducted using **TENSOR2.4 ¹**

3.4. Results and Discussion

3.4.1. Prior Structures of **CP**

Several crystal structures of the metal-bound CP-Ser heterotetramer have been reported (Figure **3.1).3,8,16,17** These structures have confirmed that **CP** adopts a fold common to the **S100** family. Each subunit is composed of two helix-loop-helix motifs termed EF-hand domains.⁴² The helices of the EF-hands are numbered I-IV ordered from the **N-** to C-termini (Figure **3.1C).** The loop in each EF-hand forms a Ca(li)-binding site.

The C-terminal EF-hands of **S100** proteins resemble those of calmodulin, and are often referred to as "canonical" EF-hands. The N-terminal EF-hands of **S100** proteins are structurally similar to canonical EF-hands; however, they have unique qualities, and are often termed pseudo EF-hands or "non-canonical" EF-hands. Pseudo EF-hand loops are usually two amino acids longer than canonical EF-hand loops, contain fewer negatively charged residues, and have lower coordination numbers. Thus, it is accepted that these EF-hands bind Ca(II) with relatively low affinity.⁴² There is a small region referred to as a linker between the N-terminal and C-terminal EF-hands that contains a short helix, and this region will be referred to as the linker-helix (Figure **3.1C).21**

CP also displays several features that are uncommon among members of the **S1 00** family. First, at the interface of the heterodimer there are two transition metal binding sites composed of residues from both subunits of the heterodimer. **CP** is unique in that it has two non-identical transition-metal binding sites. Site **1** is a His3Asp motif that binds Zn(II) with high affinity,⁹ and site 2 is a His₆ site that binds Mn(II),^{6,16,43} Fe(II),⁷ Ni(II),⁸ and Zn(l) ⁹, 44 with high affinity. Furthermore, **S100A9** is the longest human **S100** protein due to a C-terminal extension defined **by** residues G102-P114, colloquially termed "the **S100A9** tail." This region is important for the metal-sequestering function because H103 and H105 contribute to transition metal coordination at the His₆ site.^{6,16} Another feature of **CP** that is uncommon among **S100** proteins is that it forms higher-order oligomers. In the presence of excess Ca(ll) and/or a transition metal bound at site 2, two **CP** heterodimers self-associate to form a dimer of dimers termed the heterotetramer (Figure **3.1 B). ³, 1 0**

In this study, we used a variant of **CP** that has the **(A8)160K** mutation, which has been shown to prevent Ca(II)-induced tetramerization.¹¹ In order to distinguish the I60K system CP-Ser system, we will henceforth use the following naming convention. When discussing any subunits that are part of the heterodimer or heterotetramer in the 160K system, we will use **A8-160K** and **A9-160K,** even though only **S1 00A8** is the carrier of the

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160K mutation. Analogously, we will use A8-CP-Ser and A9-CP-Ser for the parent **S100A8** and **S10OA9** subunits, respectively. Lastly, **(A9)M1** is cleaved during overexpression; therefore, the N-terminal residue of the recombinant protein is **(A9)T2.**

Figure 3.1. Structure of CP-Ser and amino acid sequences of **S100A8** and **S100A9. S100A8 is** shown in green and **S100A9** is shown in blue. **(A)** Structure of the **CP** heterodimer (PDB 5W1F) with Ni(ll), Ca(II), and Na(l) bound. (B) Structure of the **CP** heterotetramer with Ca(II) bound (PDB 1XK4). One dimer is shown in light colors and the other is shown in dark colors. Residue **160** in **A8** is shown in sticks. **(C)** Alignment of the **S100A8** and **S100A9** sequences with secondary structural elements mapped onto the sequences. Transition-metal-binding residues are shown in red. **(A8)160** is shown in purple. The **S100A9** C-terminal extension is underlined.

3.4.2. Assignment of the *160K* Subunits in the Presence and Absence of Ca(Il)

Before beginning comprehensive NMR studies, it was necessary to characterize the oligomeric properties of 160K at high concentrations because 160K had been incompletely studied at 500 μ M previously.¹¹ We performed SEC with 500 μ M 160K in the absence of Ca(II) and 500 μ M CP-Ser in the presence and absence of 10 mM Ca(II), and compared these data to our previously reported chromatogram of 500 μ M 160K+Ca(II) (Figure **A2.19).** The **SEC** chromatograms of **500** pM 160K were consistent with previously reported SEC experiments that were performed with 30 μ M 160K.¹¹ In both sets of experiments, we observed that the protein eluted at the characteristic dimer volume in the absence of Ca(ll), and shifted to a later elution volume, indicating that the protein had become more compact. **CP,** in contrast, shifted to a later elution volume characteristic of the heterotetramer. Additionally, we calculated the molecular weight of 160K using the ratio of T1/T2 obtained from relaxation experiments (Figure **A3.1),** and found that it was approximately 24 kDa in the presence and absence of Ca(lI), further supporting the notion that he protein remained a dimer under the NMR sample conditions.

Studying 160K **by** NMR spectroscopy requires isotopically labeled proteins. Accordingly, we prepared protein samples with a single subunit isotopically enriched, which simplified spectral analysis because only one subunit was visible in multidimensional experiments. A variety of ²H-, ¹³C-, and ¹⁵N-labeled samples were employed for this study. Furthermore, to resolve ambiguities in the resonance assignments of **A8-160K** and **A9-160K,** amino-acid-specific labeling was utilized. **By** employing the auxotrophic *E.* coli **CT19** strain,30 we were able to selectively introduce [15N]-Phe, [15N]-lle, [15N]-Leu, and [15N]-Val into **A8-160K** and **A9-160K.** The selectively labeled proteins were used in $[1H-15N]$ -HSQC experiments (Figures A3.2-A3.5). Because we encountered difficulties in assigning **H103,** H104, and **H105** of **A9-160K,** we prepared **[15N]-A9-160K(H1O3A)** and **[15N]-A9-60K(H1O5A),** and used these variants in **[1H- 15N]- HSQC** experiments (Figures **A3.6** and **A3.7).** For each variant, we found that a single

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peak disappeared and another peak displayed a minor perturbation. **By** combining this information with the data from an **HNCACB** experiment using [2 H, **¹³ C, 1 5N]-A9-160K,** we were able to assign **H103,** H104, and **H105.**

When working to assign the resonances, we used proteins with a single subunit of 160K with [2H-, **13C-, 15N]** labeling and recorded **3D HNCACB** spectra. We encountered difficulties observing cross peaks in **3D** assignment experiments that depended strongly on the subunit and the presence of Ca(II). This problem was more pronounced in the samples without Ca(II) for both **A8-160K** and **A9-160K,** and the most dramatic example of this behavior was **S100A8** in the absence of Ca(ll). Hence, **A9-160K** was more amenable to assignment than **A8-160K.** In the absence of Ca(II), we were able to assign **99** of the **108** expected backbone amides as well as the **W88N6'** resonance (Figures **3.2A** and **3.3A).** The N-terminal amine as well as prolines are not observed in ['H- 15N]-TROSY spectra. The unassigned residues were **S3-M5,** K54, **H95-D98,** and **K106** are most likely absent due to exchange broadening. It is interesting to note that that residue **H95** is one of the transition-metal binding residues that is part of site 2, and the succeeding residues form the initial part of the C-terminal extension of **A9-160K.** Our inability to assign this important region of the protein in the absence of Ca(ll) suggests that it is undergoing intermediate conformational exchange.

In the presence of Ca(II), we assigned 102 of the **108** expected backbone amides, and the single W88N^{e1} resonance in A9-160K (Figures 3.2B and 3.3B). Most of the missing assignments in the +Ca(II) spectra of **A9-160K** were different than those in the -Ca(II) spectra. The only unassigned residues in the [1H- 15N]-TROSY spectra of **A9-160K** in the presence of Ca(II) were **S3, S6, G27, H28, T87,** and K106. The residues in the **A9-160K** C-terminal extension did not exhibit a Ca(Il)-induced shift. In the first crystal structure of CP-Ser, the C-terminal extension of the **A9** subunit was not visible due to disorder; ³ however, in later structures that were solved with the protein bound to a transition metal, much of the C-terminal extension could be modeled because it contributes two

Figure 3.2. TROSY spectra of (A) $[15N]$ -A8-I60K-Ca(II) and (B) $[15N]$ -A8-I60K+Ca(II). Conditions: **10** mM **HEPES, 10** mM NaCI, **pH 7.0, 500** pM 160K, and +20 mM Ca(II).

A

Figure **3.3.** Depiction of assigned residues in the **(A)** absence of Ca(II) and (B) presence of Ca(II). Black residues were unassigned. Green residues indicate that that an **A8-160K** residue was assigned. Blue residues indicate than an **A9-160K** residue was assigned. Italicized residues are transition-metal binding residues.

residues **(H103** and **H105)** to site 2, which caused the C-terminal extension to become more ordered. ⁸,1⁶ , 17 The lack of chemical shift dispersion of the glycine residues in the **C**terminal extension suggests that this region of the protein is disordered in the absence and presence of Ca(II), and can be considered an intrinsically unstructured peptide in the absence of transition metals. No Ca(ll)-induced chemical shift changes were observed upon addition of Ca(ll), which signified that the behavior of the **A9-160K** tail does not change with Ca(ll).

Also of note, we observed two sets of resonances that were consistent with **(A9)P107 (CA** and CB only), **(A9)G108, (A9)L109, (A9)G112,** and **(A9)T113** in both **S100A9** spectra (Figure 3.1A,B). We considered that the high Pro content of the **S100A9** tail could result in the presence of slowly converting cis and trans Pro amide bonds, giving rise to two sets of resonances. To evaluate this possibility, we prepared **[15N]-A9-160K** variants where either **(A9)P107** or **(A9)P1** 14 was mutated to Ala to lock an amide bond in a trans conformation, which would cause one of the sets of resonances to disappear. The mutations resulted in perturbations in the chemical shifts of the neighboring residues; however, the twin sets of resonances were present in the **[1H- 15N]-HSQC** spectra of both variant proteins (Figures **A3.8** and **A3.9),** which led us to conclude that isomerization of a single Pro amide bond was not responsible for the observed peak doubling. We are currently unable to ascribe a cause for this phenomenon.

Though the [1H- 15N]-TROSY spectra of **A8-160K** in the absence of Ca(II) were initially promising (Figure 3.4A), we were not able to obtain a significant number of cross peaks in standard **3D** triple resonance experiments using [2 H, **¹³ C, 15N]-A8-160K. By** reducing the dimensionality of the **3D** triple resonance experiments to **2D,** we were able to obtain spectra of sufficient signal-to-noise to yield the assignment of **6** N-terminal **(T3- A8)** and last 4 C-terminal **(S90-E93)** residues of **A8-160K** (Figures **3.3A** and 3.4A). These difficulties are associated with unfavorable transverse **(T2)** relaxation properties **of 13C** nuclei that can arise from conformational exchange in the intermediate time regime and/or

Figure 3.4. TROSY spectra of (A) [¹⁵N]-A9-I60K-Ca(II) and (B) [¹⁵N]-A9-I60K+Ca(II) Conditions: **10** mM **HEPES, 10** mM NaCI, **pH 7.0, 500** pM 160K, and +20 mM Ca(II).

large molecules. Although the molecular weight of the complex (24 kDa) is approaching the limit for problematic T_2 rates,⁴⁵ we reason that the major factor for fast transverse relaxation is conformational exchange in **A8-160K.** This notion is supported **by** the observation that the **A8-160K** subunit contains a single Trp residue (W54), and we found that **HSQC** spectra at **600** MHz displayed two peaks in the spectral region of the W54N"' nucleus (Figure A3.2). In contrast, only a single peak in the W54N^{e1} region was observed in the **900** MHz spectrum (Figure 3.4A). This behavior is a hallmark conformational exchange, and further supports the notion that a large portion of the **A8-160K** subunit exhibits a significant exchange contribution in the absence of Ca(II).

Our ability to assign the backbone amides of **A8-160K** improved dramatically in the presence of Ca(II). We assigned **66** backbone amides of the **91** possible (excluding M1 and P43) and a single W54 $N⁸¹$ resonance (Figures 3.3B and 3.4B). There were two peaks that we could not unambiguously assign to either **L37** or **L38.** In the presence of Ca(ll), only one W54NF 1 resonance was observed at both **600** MHz and **900** MHz. Considering that a single resonance from the W54 side chain was observed and our success in assigning a significant portion of the protein, we reasoned that Ca(ll) dramatically alters the dynamics of the **A8-160K** subunit. It is noteworthy that of the **25** unassigned residues, **15** were in a contiguous region from **E41-F55** (Figure 3.3B), and within that region **V53** was only assignable **by** process of elimination that was facilitated **by** selective **15N** labeling. This region extends from the end of helix II through the linker region and ends halfway through helix **III** (Figure 3.3B), and it appears that this region continues to undergo intermediate exchange even in the presence of Ca(II).

3.4.3. Chemical Shift Perturbation Analysis Reveals Regions that Respond to the **(A8)160K** Mutation and Ca(l)

We recorded **[1H-15N]-HSQC** spectra **of** [15N]-A8-CP-Ser and [15N]-A9-CP-Ser in absence and presence of Ca(II), and overlaid them onto the corresponding spectra of **A8-** 160K and **A9-160K,** respectively, to determine which regions of the protein were most affected **by** introduction of the **(A8)160K** mutation (Figures **3.5** and **3.6).** Many of the resonances in the **[¹ H- 15N]-HSQC** spectra of **A8-160K** were shifted and 14 resonances in the **['H- 15N]-HSQC** of spectra of **A9-160K** shifted due to the **(A8)l60K** mutation, which is consistent with the notion that the **(A8)160K** mutation results in changes in dynamics that are felt in several regions of both subunits. Nevertheless, there were notable exceptions. The A8-CP-Ser and A9-CP-Ser N-termini were able to be assigned due to their similarity to the apo **[IH-1 5N]-HSQC** spectra of **A8-160K** and **A9-160K,** respectively. Along similar lines, the N-termini of 160K and CP-Ser both displayed small chemical shift perturbations (CSPs) due to Ca(ll) (Figure **3.7).** These results suggest that N-termini of the **CP** subunits are largely unaffected **by** Ca(II) and tetramerization. On the basis of these observations, the large distance between the N-termini from the tetramer interface (Figure **3.7),** and the proximity of the **S100A8** and **S100A9** N-termini in previous crystal structures (Figure **3.7),** we postulate that the N-termini of the protein contribute to heterodimerization.

With the assignments of 160K in hand, it was possible to assess which regions of the protein were most dramatically affected **by** Ca(II). Because of the limited number assignments of **A8-160K** in the absence of Ca(ll), this analysis could only be applied to a few **N-** and C-terminal residues. We calculated chemical shift perturbations (CSPs) between -Ca(II) and +Ca(II) TROSY spectra for the assigned backbone resonances (Figure **3.7).** We found that the **N-** and C-termini of **A8-160K** exhibited minimal Ca(Il) induced changes in chemical shifts (Figure **3.3A).** We note that the N-terminus of **S1 00A8** is positioned far away from the tetramer interface and is in close proximity to the **S10A9** N-terminus (Figure **3.7).**

Figure **3.5.** Overlay of **A9-160K** (black) and A9-CP-Ser (orange) **[1H-1 5N]-HSQC** spectra in the absence of Ca(II). The peaks marked in red are those where an assigned peak in the **A9-160K** spectrum did not have an obvious cognate peak in the A9-CP-Ser spectrum.

Figure **3.6.** Overlay of **A8-160K** (black) and A8-CP-Ser (red) **['H-1 5N]-HSQC** spectra in the absence of Ca(ll). The peaks marked in green are those where an assigned peak in the **A8-160K** had a matching peak in the A8-CP-Ser spectrum. **All** of the assigned **A80-** 160K peaks had a match.

A comprehensive analysis of the Ca(ll)-induced CSPs on amides of **A9-160K** was possible because of nearly complete assignments of the subunit in the presence and absence of Ca(Il). Ca(Il)-induced changes in **A9-160K** can be classified as (a) changes due to effects directly related to the binding of the Ca(II) ion and **(b)** changes due to effects off-site of the Ca(II) binding site, so-called long-range effects. We found that the greatest Ca(ll)-induced changes of chemical shift were in the EF-hand loops, specifically residues **S23-N33** and **D71-D74** (Figures **3.1C** and **3.7).** We reasoned that these changes were due to two factors: (i) structural rearrangement of the loop and (ii) presence of the positively charged Ca(ll) ion. Residues distant from the Ca(Il)-binding sites also experienced large CSPs; thus, Ca(II) binding leads to various long-range effects in **A9-** 160K. Residues **F48-N53,** which constitute the linker region, displayed exceptionally high CSPs as well as S90-M94, which is at the C-terminus of helix IV and in close proximity to residues taking part in transition-metal binding site 2 **(H91** and **H95)** (Figures **3.1C** and **3.7).** We note that **H95** could not be assigned in the absence of Ca(II) due to conformational exchange. The region around **M81-M83,** which forms the N-terminal region of helix IV, exhibits greater changes than much of the protein, though less than the linker and the C-terminal region of helix IV (Figures **3.1C** and **3.7).** Interestingly, **M81** is involved in tetramerization (see Chapter 4). These results demonstrate that Ca(II) binding causes changes to the chemical environment in the EF-hand loops, the linker region, the C-terminal portion of helix IV, and the N-terminal portion of helix IV.

Figure **3.7.** Plots of Ca(li)-induced CSPs for 160K. **(A)** CSPs for **A8-160K.** (B) CSPs for **A9-160K. (C) A8-160K** CSPs plotted onto the **S10OA8** subunit of the 4XJK structure. **(D) A9-160K** CSPs plotted onto the **S10OA9** subunit of the 4XJK structure. The color coding for the structures are as follows: black is an unassigned residue, blue is a small **CSP,** white is a moderate **CSP,** and red is a large **CSP.**

3.4.4. **TALOS-N** Highlights Regions that Rearrange with Ca(ll)

Chemical shifts can be used to predict protein backbone torsion angles using **TALOS-N, ⁴⁶**an artificial neural network program used to empirically predict protein backbone Φ/Ψ torsion angles as well as secondary structure elements using a combination of six chemical shift assignments $(HN, H^{\alpha}, C^{\alpha}, C^{\beta}, C^{\gamma}, N)$. We subjected the chemical shifts of **A8-160K** and **A9-160K** in the absence and presence of Ca(II) to **TALOS-N** analysis (Figures 3.8-3.11). We compared the predicted Φ and Ψ to those of the

heterotetramer in the 4XJK crystal structure (Figures **3.8-3.11).17** In general, there was strong agreement between the **TALOS-N** predictions and the crystallographic data for **A8-** 160K and **A9-160K** in the presence of Ca(II). These results signify that in the presence of Ca(ll), the subunits of 160K resemble the X-ray structures of the heterotetramer. In the absence of **Ca(l1),** the **TALOS-N** predictions for **A9-160K** agree well with the experimental structures, and we posit that the secondary structure of **A8-160K** remains largely the same after addition of Ca(Il) as well. These data favor a model where Ca(II) coordination to the protein causes changes in dynamics and helix orientations as opposed to largescale reconfiguration of secondary structure, and confirms that much of the secondary structure is conserved between the heterodimer and heterotetramer.

There are several regions that show telling similarities and differences with the Mn(Il)-Ca(Il)-CP-Ser structure (PDB 4XJK). One major area of discrepancy is in the **C**terminal extension of **A9-160K** in the presence and absence of Ca(II) (Figures **3.10** and **3.11). TALOS-N** predicts that the C-terminal extension of **A9-160K** does not have a welldefined secondary structure, which agrees with the experimental data; however, the values of the dihedral angles do not agree. These differences most likely arise from differences in the crystallization and NMR spectroscopy conditions. In the crystal structure, the C-terminal extension of A9-CP-Ser adopted a fold that allows **H103** and **H105** to participate in Mn(I1) coordination at site 2, whereas there are no such restrictions under the transition-metal free conditions of our NMR experiments. **TALOS-N** does predict dihedral angles consistent with a P-sheet for **(A9)H103-H105.** These residues are flanked **by** unstructured polypeptide, which suggests that **(A9)H103-H105** has intrinsic structure. We posit that the intrinsic structure arises from the presence of three consecutive His residues, which would favor an extended β -strand conformation to prevent steric clashing between the bulky side chains and repulsion due to charge repulsion. Having **H103-H105** intrinsically adopt an extended P-strand may also help preorganize **H103** and **H105** to coordinate transition metals. We note that we did not

Figure 3.8. TALOS-N analysis of A8-I60K in the absence of Ca(II). A cartoon of the secondary structure is included. The predicted S^2 (order parameter) for assigned residues, predicted and observed (4XJK) Φ angles, d predicted and observed Ψ are shown. The error bars represent the standard deviation from the average calculated from all of the molecules in the unit cell.
A8-160K+Ca(I)

Figure **3.9. TALOS-N** analysis of **A8-160K** in the presence of Ca(lI). **A** cartoon of the secondary structure is included. The predicted **S2** (order parameter) for assigned residues, predicted and observed $(4XJK)$ Φ angles, differences between the predicted and observed Φ , predicted and observed (4XJK) Y angles, and differences between the predicted and observed Ψ are shown. The error bars represent the standard deviation from the average calculated from all of the molecules in the unit cell.

Figure 3.10. TALOS-N analysis of **A9-160K** in the absence of Ca(Il). **A** cartoon of the secondary structure is included. The predicted **S²**(order parameter) for assigned residues, predicted and observed $(4XJK)$ Φ angles, differences between the predicted and observed Φ , predicted and observed (4XJK) Ψ angles, and differences between the predicted and observed Ψ are shown. The error bars represent the standard deviation from the average calculated from all of the molecules in the unit cell.

A9-160K+Ca(II)

Figure 3.11. TALOS-N analysis of A9-160K in the presence of Ca(II). A cartoon of the secondary structure is included. The predicted S² (order parameter) for assigned residues, predicted and observed (4XJK) Φ angles, differences between the predicted and observed Φ , predicted and observed (4XJK) Ψ angles, and differences between the predicted and observed Ψ are shown. The error bars represent the standard deviation from the average calculated from all of the molecules in the unit cell.

detect any differences in Mn(II) coordination after introducing an H104A mutation,⁶ which would relieve some of the pressure to adopt a β -strand structure.

The regions that exhibited the largest Ca(ll)-induced CSPs also exhibited differences between the experimental and predicted secondary structures. Sections of the Ca(II) binding loops of both subunits were predicted to have dihedral angles that differed from the 4XJK structure in the presence and absence of Ca(II) (Figures **3.8-3.11).** In the absence of Ca(II), the differences may have occurred because the loops adopt a different orientation when they are Ca(ll)-free. This notion is supported **by** a recent crystal structure of Ni(Il)-CP-Ser where the pseudo EF-hand was found in a significantly different conformation that was significantly different than the Ca(II)-containing structures.⁴⁷ In the presence of Ca(II), the differences could reflect properties of the loops that are not captured in the crystal structure and/or the positive charge of the Ca(II) ion altering the chemical shifts of the backbone atoms in a way that cannot be tracked **by** the neuralnetwork-trained **TALOS-N.** The linker region also displayed Ca(Il)-induced CSPs; however, only the **TALOS-N** predictions for **A9-160K** in the absence of Ca(II) show significant deviations. In the absence of Ca(II), **TALOS-N** predicts that the linker helix is smaller and helices II and III are longer compared to the $+Ca(1)$ conditions (Figure 3.10). The predicted Ca(ll)-induced changes in the linker region suggest that Ca(II) causes the linker region to undergo significant changes going from primarily unstructured to forming a short helix. Another region with significant deviations is the C-terminus of helix IV in **A9-** 160K in the absence of Ca(ll) (Figure **3.10).** Without Ca(II), helix IV is predicted to be shorter and more dynamic. The unassigned region is likely experiencing intermediate exchange. In the presence of Ca(II), the C-terminus of **A9-160K** helix IV is fully assigned and formed, and the dihedral angles are predicted to closely agree with the 4XJK structure (Figure **3.11).** The predicted Ca(Il)-induced changes in the C-terminus of helix IV indicate that this region, which comprises one-third of the site 2 undergoes a significant transition in in dynamics and structure due to Ca(Il) coordination. In contrast to the other regions that exhibited Ca(ll)-induced CSPs, the predicted secondary structure for the N-terminal section of **(A9)-160K** helix IV agrees well with the 4XJK in the presence and absence of Ca(II) (Figures **3.10** and **3.11).** Given that the N-terminal section of **(A9)-160K** displayed Ca(ll)-induced CSPs without predicted changes in secondary structure, we concluded that this region of the protein experiences changes in the chemical environment after Ca(II) binding without changing its secondary structure. In sum, our results point towards a model where the linker and the C-terminus of helix IV acquire more helical character while the N-terminus of helix IV experiences changes in its surroundings.

3.4.5. Relaxation Analysis Uncovers Ca(l)-Induced Dynamics Changes

We measured T₁, T₂, and hetNOE for the amides of A8-I60K in the presence of Ca(II) and **A9-160K** in the presence and absence of Ca(II) at **900** MHz and performed a model-free analyses. We encountered difficulties with the model-free analyses because we struggled to find a rigid a reference frame. An additional limitation is that we performed the model-free fitting with data collected at a single field strength. For these reasons, the exchange rate measurements should be considered in a qualitative manner to be used for identifying regions of chemical exchange. We found that the N-termini of the 160K subunits were suitable for a reference frame, which suggests that they are the least dynamic regions of the proteins. The dynamical properties of the C-terminal extension of **A9-160K** were also invariant with Ca(II). In the presence and absence of Ca(Il), both sets of resonance corresponding to the **A9-160K** C-terminal extension were **highly** flexible (Figures **3.12** and **3.13).**

In contrast, the **A9-160K** linker, the N-terminal region of helix IV of **A9-160K,** and the C-terminal section of **A9-160K** all exhibited changes in dynamics due to Ca(Il) coordination. In the absence of Ca(II), the **A9-160K** linker was found to be in exchange; however, in the presence of Ca(ll), the exchange in this region was decreased (Figure **3.12).** Ca(II) dampening exchange in the linker is consistent with our observation that

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Ca(ll) caused the linker to stably form a helix. Along similar lines, the exchange in the **C**terminal region helix IV in **A9-160K** was dampened with Ca(II). Again, **TALOS-N** predicts that this region gains α -helical structure in the presence of Ca(II). The effect of Ca(II) inhibiting exchange in at the C-terminus of helix IV of **A9-160K** is further supported **by** the observation that **H95** is only exchange broadened in the absence of Ca(II). The existence of exchange in these two regions that is prevented with Ca(lI) suggests that these regions convert between unfolded and α -helical structures in the absence of Ca(II); however, Ca(II) causes these regions to preferentially adopt an α -helical structure. Introducing rigidity into the C-terminus of helix IV in **S100A9** is particularly important because two histidines in this region constitute part of the transition-metal-binding site 2, and we reason that the previously observed increase in transition-metal affinity in the presence of Ca(ll) is due, at least in part, to Ca(ll) allosterically introducing order into this region. The N-terminal section of helix IV in **A9-160K** differed from the other regions that experienced dynamical changes due to Ca(II) coordination. Addition of Ca(II) caused these residues to undergo chemical exchange (Figure **3.13).** This region also exhibited Ca(ll)-induced CSPs; however, **TALOS-N** did not predict any Ca(ll)-induced changes in secondary structure. Taken together, these observations suggest that Ca(II) causes the position and/or environment around this region of the protein to change. We hypothesize that this region of the protein is alternating between orientations that are tetramerization incompetent and tetramerization competent. This hypothesis is reasonable because **M81** participates in the tetramer interface (see Chapter 4), and Ca(II) may favor surface exposure of **M81** as part of the allosteric changes that precede tetramer formation, and preventing tetramerization with the **(A8)160K** mutation inhibits the N-terminal section of **A9-160K** from stably adopting the tetramerization competent orientation.

Though a significant portion of the **A8-160K** subunit remains unassigned in the presence of Ca(II), the knowledge that these regions are experiencing intermediate exchange reports on the behavior of the protein. The dynamical properties of **A9-160K**

Figure 3.12. Relaxation and model-free analysis of A9-I60K in the absence of Ca(II).

Figure **3.13.** Relaxation and model-free analysis of **A9-160K** in the presence of Ca(ll).

appear to be exaggerated in **A8-160K.** Problems due to exchange broadening with the **A8-160K** subunit improved in the presence of Ca(II). For the **A8-160K** subunit, the protein was essentially unassignable without Ca(II). In the presence of Ca(II), the linker region remained unassignable due to exchange broadening (Figure 3.2B). Additionally, almost the entirety of helix **III** in **A8-160K** was unassignable due to exchange broadening (Figure 3.2B), suggesting that the linker and helix **Ill** are allosterically linked. Without more information, we are unable to unambiguously define how Ca(II) influences **A8-16OK,** however, the current evidence indicates that the changes are similar to the **A9-160K** subunit though protein is inherently more dynamic.

3.4.6. Conclusions and Outlook

Our results extend and build upon prior work on **S100** proteins that gave rise to a model where Ca(II) causes helix **III** to separate from helix IV to open a site for binding a partner protein. 21 Recent computational studies on **S10A11** elaborated upon this model. 25 The simulations indicated that helix **Ill** would stochastically alternate between the closed and open orientations (Figure 3.14). It was hypothesized that a labile salt bridge between helices II and III weakly stabilized the open orientation. The models suggested that Ca(lI) binding to the C-terminal EF-hand stabilizes a "hydrophobic shoulder" that forms between helix **III** and residues near the EF-hand, which prevents helices **Ill** from pivoting and packing against helix IV when the labile salt bridge spontaneously breaks.

By combining the findings from prior work and our data, it is possible to gain new insights into the effects of Ca(II) on **CP.** We hypothesize that the **(A8)160K** mutation disrupts tetramerization **by** inhibiting formation of the hydrophobic shoulder. Although the homologous residue in lapine **S1 00A1 1, L66,** was not identified as one of the contributors to the hydrophobic shoulder, it is in close proximity, and introducing a positive charge in place of an aliphatic residue may weaken the putative hydrophobic shoulder. This notion

is supported **by** the observation that the linker and helix **III** of **A8-160K** are exchange broadened in the presence of Ca(ll), likely because the putative hydrophobic shoulder cannot properly form. Additionally, the **CP** subunits have H-bond donors and acceptors at positions homologous to those in lapine **S100A11,** although **S100A9** has a Gin at position 34 rather than Arg or Lys. In addition to these factors, we posit that increasing the helical content of the linker region acts as a spring to disfavor helix **Ill** from returning to the closed conformation, which stands in contrast to previous hypotheses that the linker contributed to dimerization and/or recognition of a target protein. We note that **S10OA8** has a Pro at position 43 in the linker region (Figure **3.1C),** and future work can address how structural constrains due to Pro dictate propensity for helix formation in the **S100A8** linker and **by** extension impact the dynamic properties of the protein as a whole.

Figure 3.14. Comparisons of **(A)** apo **S10OA11** (PDB: **1NSH)** and (B) Ca(ll)-S100A11 (PDB: **2LUC).** The linker region is shown in gray, helix **Ill** is shown in orange, and the residues in the C-terminus of helix IV is shown in red. Only the residues that aligned with those in the C-terminal region of helix IV in **S10OA9** that exhibited major Ca(II) changes are highlighted in red.

While informative, these prior models of the Ca(II) effects on **S100** proteins have limited utility in explaining how Ca(II) results in tetramerization and increased transition metal affinity. It is possible that the pivot of helix **Ill** to the open orientation causes **(A8)160** to be positioned in such a way that enables contacts between heterodimers based on the rearrangements that occur in **S1 00A1 1;** however, tetetramerization does not occur at the same interface as the annexin–S100A11 interaction⁴⁸ (Figure 3.15). Based on our NMR data, we propose that the open conformation allows **M81** to stably adopt an orientation/become solvent accessible such that the residue may make contacts betweenheterodimers. Our data also inform how Ca(II) modulates transition metal affinity. Our data are consistent with a model where the **His6** is site in exchange and partially unfolded in the absence of Ca(II), and that Ca(II) allosterically favors the state with helix IV fully formed, which is competent for metal binding. This model is consistent with

Figure 3.15. Comparison of **S10OA11** with Ca(ll) and an annexin (Ax) peptide bound (PDB: **1QLS)** versus Mn(II)-Ca(II)-CP-Ser (PDB: 4XJK) with both heterodimers shown. **(A) S100A11** bound to Ca(l1) and annexin. (B) CP-Ser with Ca(l1) and Mn(I1) bound, which adopts a similar open conformation to **S1 00A11. S1 00A8** is shown is green and **S1 00A9** is shown in blue. One heterodimer is shown in light colors and the other in dark colors. The metal ions and **A9** C-terminal extension were omitted for clarity. Annexin binding and tetramerization occur on opposite sides of helix IV.

observations from apo and holo S100A11 where the C-terminus of helix IV is unfolded and sequestered (Figure 3.14). Perhaps because **S10OA11** and several other **S100** proteins do not coordinate transition metals, these Ca(ll)-induced changes were overlooked.2 It appears that **CP,** and perhaps other transition-metal-binding **S100** proteins as well, co-opted the Ca(lI)-induced changes common to **S100** proteins, and placed residues for transition-metal chelation in a region where the dynamic and structural properties are **highly** affected **by** Ca(II). Furthermore, a transition metal bound at site 2 may communicate a similar allosteric message to Ca(II) **by** reducing the dynamic behavior in the C-terminal region of helix IV, which cascades through the rest of the protein. This notion can be evaluated **by** more comparisons of **S100** structures in the absence and presence of their ligand(s). The similarity of the Ca(Il)-CP-Ser and Ni(Il)-CP-Ser crystal structures supports agrees with our proposal that Ca(II) and Ni(II) cause similar allosteric changes (Figure **3.16).** The hypothesis of control **by** Ca(Il) through changing the dynamical properties in **S100** proteins now has substantial experimental evidence, and future work can leverage sophisticated NMR spectroscopy methods to assign **S100A8** and obtain quantitative exchange rate information to create more complete biophysical model of **CP** function.

Figure 3.16. Comparison of **CP** heterodimers **(A)** Ca(Il)-CP-Ser (PDB: 1XK4, Electron density was not observed for the A9-CP-Ser C-terminal extension in this structure.) and (B) Ni(Il)-CP-Ser (structure not yet submitted). **S10A8** is shown is green and **S10A9** is shown in blue. In one of the **S100A9** subunits the linker is shown in gray, helix **Ill** is shown in orange, and the residues that displayed large changes due to Ca(II) in the helix IV **C**terminus are shown in red. The presence of a transition metal at site 2 is sufficient for helix **III** to separate from helix IV. Comparison to Figure 3.14 demonstrates that these the linker regions and orientation of helices **Ill** and IV in these CP-Ser structures more strongly resemble Ca(ll)-S100A1 **1** (Figure 3.14B) than apo **S10A11** (Figure 3.14A).

3.5. Acknowledgements

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Chapter 4: Oxidative Post-Translational Modification Accelerates Proteolysis of Calprotectin

4.1. Contributions

Dr. F. Yu performed exploratory experiments with CP-Ser and hydrogen peroxide. Ms. R. Costello carried out many replicates of protease digestion experiments and provided technical assistance. Dr. B. Bleier at Massachusetts Eye and Ear Infirmary extracted nasal mucus from human patients.

4.2. Introduction

Reactive oxygen species (ROS) are important players in the host/pathogen interaction. Neutrophils, white blood cells that are first responders during the innate immune response, generate and release ROS at infection sites in an attempt to kill invading microbial pathogens. These reactive small molecules also have the capacity to post-translationally oxidize host biomolecules.' Motivated **by** the need to further understand the molecular complexity of infection sites, this work examines the biophysical and functional consequences of post-translational oxidation of an abundant neutrophil protein named calprotectin **(CP, S100A8/S100A9** oligomer). These studies provide a new conceptual framework for considering the speciation and lifetime of **CP** at sites of infection and inflammation, and the role of methionine sulfoxide and disulfide bonds in directing the fate of **CP** during the innate immune response.

CP is an abundant metal-sequestering protein that contributes to the innate immune response.24 The protein is produced **by** several types of epithelial cells and white blood cells.⁵ It is particularly abundant in neutrophils where it constitutes \approx 40% of cytosolic protein.6 In the current working model, **CP** is released **by** neutrophils into the extracellular space at concentrations that can exceed 40 μ M (1 mg/mL).⁷ In this milieu, CP limits microbial growth **by** competing with invading microbes for bioavailable transition metal ions that are essential nutrients.^{2,4,8-11} Over the past decade, biophysical and functional

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studies have illuminated the molecular basis for this metal-sequestration model as described below.^{8-10,12,13} Recent investigations have also probed how microbial pathogens such as Staphylococcus aureus,14 Salmonella enterica serovar ${\sf Typhimurium,^{15}}$ Acinetobacter baumannii,¹⁶ and Neisseria ${\sf spp. ^{17,18}}$ adapt to metal limitation caused **by CP.** In contrast, to the best of our knowledge, no reports have addressed what happens next for **CP,** either metal-free or metal-bound, in the context of this model.

In addition to its antimicrobial properties, **CP** contributes to the inflammatory response. Data suggesting that **CP** is an activator of toll-like receptor 4 (TLR4) have been reported.¹⁹⁻²¹ Moreover, murine model studies indicated that CP-mediated proinflammatory signaling can lead to negative outcomes for the host, including promotion of lethal endotoxin-induced shock and generation of autoreactive T **cells. ¹⁹, ² ⁰**Taken together, these studies highlight that **CP** is multi-functional and can be either beneficial or harmful to the host. In considering this duality, we reasoned that negative outcomes associated with CP-mediated signaling may result from dysregulated proinflammatory signaling related to a failure to clear **CP,** and this line of reasoning highlighted the shortcomings of the working model in describing what happens to **CP** after release.

Previously, we approached this question **by** examining the molecular basis for metal sequestration **by CP.** In the apo form, **CP** exists as a 24-kDa heterodimer of **S1 00A8 (93** amino acids, **10.8** kDa, a subunit) and **S100A9** (114 amino acids, **13.2** kDa, **P subunit). ² , ²² , 2 3** The **CP** heterodimer contains six different sites for coordinating cations. Each subunit contains two Ca(Il)-binding EF-hand domains, and two sites for transition metal ions form at the S100A8/S100A9 interface.^{9,22,24} Site 1 is a His₃Asp site that binds Zn(II) with high affinity,9 and site 2 is a **His6** site that binds **Mn(I1), ² ⁵**Fe(II),11 **Ni(I1), ²⁶**and **Zn(l1) ⁹, ¹²**with high affinity. Ca(II) binding to **CP** has important structural and functional consequences. In the presence of excess Ca(ll) ions, two **CP** heterodimers self-associate to form an $\alpha_2\beta_2$ heterotetramer.^{22,24,27} Conditions of high Ca(II) that promote

heterotetramer formation also result in enhanced transition metal affinities, protease stability, and antimicrobial activity.^{9,11,13,25} Because Ca(II) ion concentrations are*≈*100 nM in the cytoplasm of resting cells and extracellular Ca(II) ion concentrations are \approx 2 mM.²⁸ these observations have led to a working model where the heterodimer is the major cytosolic species and the Ca(II)-bound heterotetramer is the major extracellular species.⁹ This Ca(II) effect allows **CP** to sequester metals and persist in the harsh extracellular space that contains host and bacterial proteases.

Over the course of our studies that addressed the biological coordination chemistry **of CP,** several reports identified the methionine sulfoxide (MetO) post-translational modification on **CP** during ex vivo analyses of human or mouse specimens **by** mass spectrometry.²⁹⁻³¹ A variety of oxidants, including hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂), superoxide (O₂⁻⁻), hypochlorous acid (HOCI) are generated by the neutrophil oxidative burst.³²⁻³⁴ These oxidants can oxidize the methionine sidechain to MetO.¹ To us, these observations were intriguing and suggested an as-yet unappreciated complexity to the speciation of **CP** at biological sites. The Met/MetO redox couple is often considered to serve as an antioxidant because the MetO post-translational modification can be reversed **by** the action of methionine sulfoxide reductases MsrA and MsrB, which are found in many cell types, including neutrophils.³⁵⁻³⁸ On the other hand, accumulation of MetO posttranslational modifications is associated with protein dysfunction.³⁹ There are only limited studies on the consequences arising from MetO modification **of CP, ²⁹ ⁴ ⁰**and we reasoned that understanding these consequences would shed light on the biological fate of **CP.**

In this work, we identify oxidized **CP** species in human specimens, and we test our new hypothesis that oxidative post-translational modifications affect the function and fate of **CP** in the biological milieu. Our biochemical and functional results support a model where methionine oxidation and disulfide bond formation attenuate the proteolytic stability of Ca(ll)-bound **CP.** In the absence of a divalent transition metal ion bound at the His6 site, oxidation of **(A9)M81** disfavors Ca(il)-induced tetramerization, which leads to accelerated proteolysis **by** a variety of proteases. Remarkably, disulfide bonds within and between **CP** heterodimers also caused accelerated proteolysis, an effect is particularly apparent when the disulfide bond includes **(A8)C42.** In total, these results support a new extension to the working model where extracellular **CP** can be oxidized **by** neutrophilderived ROS and subsequently degraded **by** proteases. We further hypothesize that accelerated degradation caused oxidative modification serves to dampen the proinflammatory signal of **CP.** Because transition-metal binding rescues tetramerization and protease resistance, it appears that the host strategically avoids degrading transitionmetal-bound **CP** to prevent release of nutrients to microbes.

4.3. Experimental

4.3.1. General Materials and Methods

All solvents, reagents, and chemicals were obtained from commercial suppliers and used as received. **All** buffers and metal solutions were prepared using Mili-Q water **(18.2** MQ-cm, 0.22-jim filter, Millipore). **All** mobile phases for chromatography experiments were prepared with Ultrol grade **HEPES** (free acid, Calbiochem) and TraceSELECT NaCl (Fluka), and aqueous TraceSELECT NaOH (Sigma) was used for **pH** adjustments. Buffers for all other experiments, except where specified otherwise, were prepared using microbiology grade **HEPES,** NaCl, and NaOH (Sigma) that was treated with Chelex **100** resin (Biorad **10 g/L)** for **1** h in a polypropylene beaker. The Chelex resin was removed by filtration with a 0.22-um bottle-top filter. All buffers were stored in polypropylene bottles. The highest available purity of calcium chloride **(99.99%)** and manganese chloride **(99.99%)** were purchased from Alfa Aesar, and anhydrous zinc chloride **(99.999%)** and (NH4)2Fe(SO4)2-6H20 **(99.997%)** were purchased from Sigma. Stock solutions of Ca(ll) **(1** M, **100** mL), Mn(II) **(1** M, **50** mL), Fe(ll) **(100** mM, **10** mL), and Zn(ll) **(100** mM, **100** mL) were prepared **by** using Mili-Q water and acid-washed volumetric

glassware, and the solutions were stored in polypropylene tubes. The Fe(II) solution was prepared under a nitrogen atmosphere in an anaerobic glove box (Vacuum Atmospheres Co.). **All** iron-containing samples were prepared and manipulated in the glove box. Protein concentrations were determined **by** optical absorbance at **280** nm using a BioTek Synergy HT plate reader outfitted with a Take3 Micro-Volume plate. The extinction coefficients for the employed proteins are listed in Tables 4.1 and 4.2.

Protein	Molecular Weight (Da)	$ε280$ (M ⁻¹ cm ⁻¹) ^a
A8(C42S)	10 818.5 b	11 460
A8(C42S)+O	10 834.5 b	11 460
A8	10 834.5 ^b	11 460
$A8+O$	10 850.5 b	11 460
$A8+2O$	10 866.5 b	11 460
$15N-AB(C42S)$	10 944.1 \degree	11 460
$15N-A9(C3S)$	13 253.8 c, d	6990
A9(C3S)	13 094.7 b.d	6990
A9(C3S)+3O	13 142.7 b, d	6990
A9(C3S)+4O	13 158.7 b, d	6990
A9(C3S)(M63A)	13 034.6 b, d	6990
A9(C3S)(M81A)	13 034.6 b, d	6990
A9(C3S)(M83A)	13 034.6 b, d	6990
A9	13 110.8 b, d	6990
$A9+2O$	13 142.8 b, d	6990
$A9+3O$	13 158.8 b, d	6990
$A9+4O$	13 174.8 b, d	6990

Table 4.1. Molecular weights and extinction coefficients for the **S1OOA8** and **S1OOA9** subunits of proteins examined in this study.

^a Extinction coefficients (280 nm) were calculated by using the ProtParam tool. **b** Molecular weights were calculated **by** using the ProtParam tool available on the ExPASy server (http://web.expasy.org/protparam). **c** The theoretical mass was calculated using **99% 1 5N** and **1%** 1 4N. **^d**In all preparations, **LCMS** revealed that the dominant purified species lacked the N-terminal methionine. The molecular weight shown is the theoretical value for **S10OA9(C3S)** lacking the N-terminal Met residue.

Protein	Molecular Weight (Da) ^a	ϵ_{280} (M ⁻¹ cm ⁻¹)	ϵ_{405} (M ⁻¹ cm ⁻¹)
Trypsin	23 300	30 00041	$\overline{}$
Chymotrypsin	25 000	50 00042	\sim
Proteinase K	28 900	36 580 b	$\overline{}$
HNE	28 500		$\overline{}$
Catalase	250 000	-	324 00043

Table 4.2. Molecular weights and extinction coefficients for commercial proteins.

a Molecular weights were calculated **by** using the ProtParam tool available on the ExPASy server (http://web.expasy.org/protparam). **b** Extinction coefficients **(280** nm) were calculated **by** using the ProtParam tool.

4.3.2. General Instrumentation

For analytical high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC), an Agilent 1200 series instrument equipped with a thermostatted column compartment set to 20 °C, and a multi-wavelength detector set at 220 and **280** nm **(500** nm reference wavelength with **100** nm bandwidth), was used. **A** Proto C4 column (5- tm pore, 4.6 x **250** mm, Higgins Analytical Inc.) set at a flow rate of **1** mL/min was employed for all analytical HPLC experiments. HPLC-grade acetonitrile (MeCN) and trifluoroacetic acid **(TFA)** were routinely purchased from EMD and Alfa Aesar, respectively. For all HPLC runs, mobile phase **A** was **0.1%** TFA/H20 and mobile phase B was **0.1%** TFA/MeCN.

For routine high-resolution mass spectrometric characterization of purified protein and the products of oxidation **by** H202, an Agilent **1260** series **LC** system equipped with an Agilent **6230** TOF system housing an Agilent Jetstream **ESI** source was employed. **A** Poroshell 300SB-C18 column (5-um pore, 2.1 x 75 mm, Agilent) and denaturing protocol were utilized for all **LC-MS** analyses. Mobile phase **A** was **0.1%** formic acid/H20. Mobile phase B was **0.1%** formic acid/MeCN. The **S100A8** and **S1OOA9** subunits were eluted **by** using a gradient **5-85%** over **10** min. The resulting mass spectra were deconvoluted using the maximum entropy algorithm in MassHunter BioConfirm (Agilent).

For mass spectrometry analyses of human mucus and pus samples, an Agilent **1290** Infinity HPLC system equipped with an Agilent **6520** Accurate-Mass **ESI-Q-TOF** system was employed. **A** Zorbax **300SB-C3** column **(5** jpm-pore, 2.1 x **150** mm, Agilent) was utilized for the separation. Mobile phase **A** was **0.1%** formic acid/H20. Mobile phase B was **0.1%** formic acid/MeCN. Details for the gradients employed are provided in subsection 4.3.9.

For fluorescence spectroscopy, emission spectra were collected on a Photon Technologies International QuantaMaster 40 fluorimeter outfitted with a continuous xenon source for excitation autocalibrated QuadraScopic monochrometers, a multimode PMT detector, and a circulating water bath maintained at **25 OC.** This instrument was controlled **by** the FelixGX software package. FelixGX was used to integrate the emission spectra.

For circular dichroism **(CD)** spectroscopy, **A JASCO** Model **J-1500 CD** spectrometer thermostatted at 25 °C was used. A 1-mm path-length CD cell (Hellma) was employed for all **CD** measurements. **All** protein samples **(10** jiM protein, **300** ptL, **1** mM Tris, 2 mM CaC12, **pH 8.5)** were made at the same time prior to data acquisition. Wavelength scans were recorded from **190** nm to **260** nm in **0.5** nm steps at a rate of **50** nm/min. The averages from three scans for each condition are presented.

4.3.3. Site-Directed Mutagenesis

A modified Quick-Change site-directed mutagenesis protocol was employed to generate plasmids encoding **S100A9(C3S)(M63A), S100A9(C3S)(M81A),** and **S100A9(C3S)(M83A).** The template gene, **S100A9(C3S),** was housed in a pET41a vector, and had been ligated into the plasmid using Ndel and Xhol restriction sites, which resulted in the proteins being expressed without an affinity tag.⁹ The mutagenesis primers are listed in Table 4.3. PCR amplification was carried out using PfuTurbo **DNA** polymerase (Agilent). The annealing temperature for **M63A** was **57 oC,** and the annealing temperature for **M81A** and **M83A** was **62 OC.** The PCR protocol was **95 OC** for **30** sec, **95 OC** for **30** sec, **57 oC (M63A** mutation) or **62 oC (M81A** or **M83A** mutations), **68 OC** for **17** min, (25 cycles), and 4 °C hold. After PCR amplification, the template DNA was digested at **37 OC** for **3** h **by** Dpnl (New England Biolabs) **by** adding **0.75 pL** of the enzyme to **25**

 μ L of a PCR reaction, and adding an additional 0.75- μ L aliquot of the enzyme after 1.5 h. The digestion products were transformed into chemically competent **E.** coli TOP10, which were plated on LB plates with 50 μ g/mL kanamycin and incubated at 37 °C overnight. The following day, overnight cultures (5 mL LB+50 µg/mL kanamycin) were grown from single colonies, and the plasmids were isolated using a miniprep kit (Qiagen). The presence of each mutation and fidelity of the coding sequences were verified **by DNA** sequencing (Quintara Biosciences).

Table 4.3. Primers employed for site-directed mutagenesis.

Primer	Sequence ^a
M63A-1	5'-GTGATTGAACACATTGCGGAGGATCTGGACACC-3'
M63A-2	5'-GGTGTCCAGATCCTCCGCAATGTGTTCAATCAC-3'
M81A-1	5'-CTTTGAAGAGTTCATCGCGCTGATGGCCCGTCTG-3'
M81A-2	5'-CAGACGGGCCATCAGCGCGATGAACTCTTCAAAG-3'
M83A-1	5'-GAGTTCATCATGCTGGCGGCCCGTCTGACGTGG-3'
M83A-2	5'-CCACGTCAGACGGGCCGCCAGCATGATGAACTC-3'

^a The codons containing mutations are underlined and colored red. The template *S10OA9(C3S)* gene had been ligated into the pET41a vector using Ndel and Xhol restriction sites.⁹

4.3.4. Preparation and Purification of **CP** and Variants

CP and CP-Ser were prepared and handled as previously described. 9 This purification protocol affords the apo CP/CP-Ser heterodimer. The same purification protocol was employed to prepare the new CP-Ser variants reported in this study, **CP-**Ser(A9-M63A), CP-Ser(A9-M81A), and CP-Ser(A9-M83A). These variants were obtained in yields of 40-50 mg/L culture, and each protein was evaluated **by ESI-MS, SDS-PAGE,** and CD spectroscopy (Table 4.4, Figures A2.20, and A2.21). ¹⁵N-CP-Ser was prepared according to a published protocol.44

4.3.5. Preparation and Purification of Oxidized CP-Ser Variants

The reactions to generate **CP** with oxidized Met residues produced mixtures of species. The mixture where the dominant species were **S100A8** with one additional oxygen atom and **S100A9** with three additional oxygen atoms is referred to as CP-Ser 04. The more heavily oxidized mixture where the dominant species were **S100A8** with one additional oxygen atom and **S100A9** with four additional oxygen atoms is referred to as CP-Ser 05. CP-Ser 04 and CP-Ser 05 were prepared **by** modifying the standard **CP-**Ser purification protocol.9 The **S100A8(C42S)** and **S100A(C3S)** subunits were overexpressed and a denaturating protocol was employed to obtain a mixture $(\approx 120 \text{ mL})$ of the soluble and unfolded subunits as reported previously. This mixture was dialyzed once against **75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, **pH 8.0** (4 L, 4 **OC,** 12 h). Then, the protein solution was transferred to 50-mL Falcon tubes covered with aluminum foil. To prepare CP-Ser 04, H202 (Sigma, **50%** w/w in H20, **17.6** M) was added to the protein solution to give a final concentration of **50** mM, and the reaction was incubated for **2.5** h or **5** h at **37 OC** on a nutating platform. To prepare CP-Ser **05,** the protein was incubated with either **50** mM H202 for **6** h or **75** mM H202 for **6.5** h at **37 OC** on a nutating platform. At the reaction end point, the solution was centrifuged at 3 600 rpm, 4 °C for 30 min. The supernatant was transferred to dialysis tubing, and three additional 12-h rounds of dialysis against 4 L of refolding buffer (20 mM HEPES, pH 8.0) were performed at 4 °C. The resulting protein sample was purified **by** anion exchange chromatography and size exclusion chromatography as described for CP-Ser. 9 The yields for the CP-Ser $O₄$ and CP-Ser Os ranged from 30-40 mg per liter of culture. Protein purity was assessed **by SDS-PAGE** (Figure **A2.20).** The extent of oxidation of CP-Ser was ascertained using mass spectrometry (Table 4.4 and Figure **A2.22).**

a In all preparations, the dominant purified species of the **S100A9** subunit lacked the **N**terminal methionine. The masses reported here are the observed values for **S100A9(C3S)** lacking the N-terminal Met residue.

4.3.6. Oxidation of **CP**

CP, which contains two Cys residues, was buffer exchanged from the storage buffer (that contained **10** mM P-mercaptoethanol (BME)) into the assay buffer **(75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, **pH 7.5)** with three rounds of centrifugal concentration using a **0.5** mL 10-kDa MWCO Amicon filter. The protein was then diluted to 30 μ M in the assay buffer, and Ca(II) was added to give a final concentration of **1.5** mM. After **15** min of incubation at room temperature, H_2O_2 was added to give a final concentration of 100 μ M, and the reaction was then incubated at **37 oC.** Because we sought to study disulfidelinked protein, it was essential to remove the H_2O_2 without reducing the disulfide bonds. To quench the reaction, we employed catalase to rapidly consume the H202 **by** diluting catalase (Sigma) to a final concentration of **10** nM from a freshly prepared **100** nM stock solution.

We also sought to study the properties of disulfide linked **CP** that contained methionine sulfoxide modifications. First the disulfide-bonds were formed **by** treating **30** tM **CP** with **100** pM H202 for **23** h at **37 OC** in **75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, **pH 7.5,** as described in the preceding paragraph. To oxidize methionine side chains, the protein was then treated with **100** mM H202 for **7** h before quenching **by** diluting catalase 10-fold into the reaction to a final concentration of **10** nM.

4.3.7. Collection of Human Nasal Mucus

Mucus sampling was approved **by** the Massachusetts Eye and Ear Infirmary Institutional Review Board as previously described.45 **All** samples were taken from patients undergoing sinonasal surgery. These patients had not been exposed to antibiotics or steroids for at least four weeks prior to surgery and sample collection. Mucus samples were taken from the internal valve or middle meatus **by** placing a compressed polyvinyl alcohol sponge (PVA, Medtronic, Minneapolis, **MN)** within the nasal cavity, taking care not to abrade the mucosa or contaminate the sponge with blood. The mucus was removed from the sponges **by** placing them into 0.65-mL polypropylene tubes that had the bottom removed with a razor. This tube was placed in a 1.7-mL polypropylene tube, and was centrifuged at 13 000 rpm for 30 min, 4 °C. The mucus from each patient was pooled, and then flash frozen with liquid nitrogen before storage at **-80 OC.**

4.3.8. Collection of Human Pus

Pus sampling was approved **by** the Massachusetts Institute of Technology Institutional Review Board. Both samples were taken from pimples of one graduate student. One pimple was located on the left shoulder and the other on the face. After washing his hands, the student used sterile isopropyl alcohol wipes to clean the area before breaking the pimple with his hands. The contents were transferred to a 1.7-mL polypropylene tube. A 2 - μ L aliquot of 10.4 μ M ¹⁵N-CP-Ser was immediately added to the pus sample, followed by 50 µL of Milli-Q water, and the resulting mixture was and mixed **by** pipetting. The samples were immediately processed for mass spectrometry.

4.3.9. Preparation of Human Mucus and Pus for **LC-MS**

Mucus samples **1** and 2 were thawed on ice, and **5** ptL of thawed mucus was combined with 10 μ L of an aqueous solution containing 100 mM (NH₄)HCO₃ and 20 mM **TCEP.** The resulting samples were incubated for 45 min at room temperature. Each sample was then centrifuged for 10 min at 13 000 rpm, 4 °C. The supernatant was removed and transferred to a vial for **LC-MS** analysis. Total protein in the sample was determined **by** a standard Bradford (Bio-Rad) assay using bovine serum albumin as a standard. An Agilent **6520** mass spectrometer connected to an Agilent 1200 **LC** system was employed as described above. The injection volume was chosen such that approximately $9 \mu g$ of total protein was injected. The sample components were eluted using a gradient that linearly increased from **1%-61%** B over **9** min at a flow rate of **0.8** mL/min.

All other mucus samples and the pus samples were prepared and analyzed differently. The mucus samples were thawed on ice and the two pus samples were prepared immediately after collection. We found that an acetone precipitation protocol improved our ability to observe protein signals in proteomics experiments presumably because small molecules that suppressed ionization were removed. The mucus and pus samples were precipitated by combining 10 μ L of mucus or pus with 40 μ L of acetone that had been chilled to -20 °C. After mixing, the precipitation samples were stored at -20 **oC** overnight. The next day, the samples were centrifuged for **10** min, **13 000** rpm, at 4 **oC.** The supernatant was aspirated, and the pellet was resuspended in a 4:1 mixture acetone:water at -20 °C. The centrifugation step was repeated, and the supernatant was aspirated. The pelleted protein was dried on a lyophilizer for **1** h, and then redissolved in **75** piL of 4:1 **6** M guanidine **HCI** and 20 mM **TCEP: 75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl with the **pH** adjusted to **7.2.** After 2 h, equal volumes of the dissolved protein and **1:1** H20:MeCN+0.1% **TFA** were combined. The protein sample was centrifuged for **10** min, **13 000** rpm, at 4 **OC.** For **LC-MS** analysis, **10** tL of the sample was injected, and separated

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with the same instrumentation described above. **A** different gradient was used for these samples. The gradient began at 20% B and linearly increased to 45% B over **25** min at a flow rate of **0.8** mL/min.

4.3.10. Antimicrobial Activity Assays

The growth inhibitory activities of CP-Ser, CP-Ser 04, and CP-Ser **05** against Escherichia coli **ATCC 25922** and Staphylococcus aureus **ATCC 25923** were assayed at **30 'C** as described previously.9 The antimicrobial activity assay medium, hereafter **AMA** medium, was a **62:38** ratio of 20 mM Tris-HCI, **pH 7.5, 100** mM NaCl, **5** mM BME, **3** mM CaC₁₂ and tryptic soy broth (TSB) with 0.25% (w/v) dextrose. To prevent evaporation of the medium, the plates were sealed with parafilm and a beaker of water was housed in the incubator shaker.

4.3.11. Metal Competition Experiments with ZP1

The ability of CP-Ser O₄ and CP-Ser O₅ to outcompete Zinpyr-1 (ZP1)⁴⁶ for Mn(II), Fe(II), Ni(II), and Zn(II) was assayed **by** using a modified competition protocol. 25 Quartz cuvettes (Starna) were charged with 2 mL of **75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, **pH 7.5.** ZP1 was stored at -20 °C in DMSO, and a fresh aliquot was thawed daily. ZP1 was added to **¹**ptM in each cuvette, mixed **by** pipetting, and stored in the dark for **1** h. The proteins were thawed at room temperature, and diluted to 4 μ M, and then Ca(II) was added to 200 μ M. After 15 min, emission spectra were collected. Using a 500 μ M solution of metal, the metal of interest was added to **3** pM, and after **1** h emission spectra were collected. Next, using a 120 μ M solution of metal, the metal concentration was increased to 3.6 μ M, and after **10** min emission spectra were collected. For the Zn(ll) titrations, additional data points were collected. Using a 500 μ M solution, the Zn(II) concentration was adjusted to 6 μ M, and after 1 h emission spectra were collected. Using a 500 μ M solution, the Zn(II) concentration was adjusted to 7.2 μ M, and emission spectra were recorded after 10 min. For the experiments with Fe(II), the cuvettes were sealed with screw caps before removing them from the glove box, and all additions of Fe(II) were performed in the glove box. Excitation was provided at 490 nm, and the spectra were recorded over **500-650** nm. The ratio between the total integrated emission after metal addition to the total integrated emission before metal addition was plotted. Averages and the standard deviations are reported $(n=3)$.

4.3.12. Analytical Size-Exclusion Chromatography

An Äkta purifier (GE Lifesciences) housed in a 4 °C cold room outfitted with a 100 $μ$ L or 500-μL sample loop was used for analytical size-exclusion chromatography (SEC). **A** Superdex **75 10/300 GL** column **(GE** Lifesciences) equilibrated in mobile phase was calibrated with a low-molecular-weight calibration mixture **(GE** Lifesciences) as described previously.9 The largest protein in the calibration solution had an elution volume of **10.0** mL (77.5 kDa, 500-uL loop), and an analyte eluting in the void volume (8.3 mL, 500-uL loop) would have an apparent molecular weight of **150** kDa. **A** typical sample volume was **300** pL.

For experiments that monitored the dissociation of the CP-Ser heterotetramer following **H202** treatment, CP-Ser was thawed at room temperature, and diluted to **30** pM into 75 mM HEPES, 100 mM NaCl, 1.5 mM CaCl₂, pH 7.5. For experiments that monitored the dissociation of the Mn(II)-bound CP-Ser heterotetramer following H₂O₂ treatment, Mn(II), the samples also contained 30 μ M Mn(II). A typical reaction volume was \approx 2 mL. After 15 min of incubation at room temperature, 300 μ L of the sample was combined with **33** pL of **5** M aqueous BME to afford the **0** h sample. Another 300-pL aliquot of the protein solution was transferred to a microfuge tube to yield the untreated sample. To initiate the reaction, a final concentration of 100 mM H_2O_2 was added to \approx 2 mL of CP-Ser solution, at which point the reaction and untreated sample were moved to **37 OC.** At varying time points, a 300-pL aliquot was removed from the reaction and quenched **by** addition of **33**

pL of freshly prepared **5** M BME. The untreated sample was prepared for analysis in the same manner as the reaction aliquots after **23** h of incubation. The quenched samples were centrifuged at 13 000 rpm, 4 °C for 10 min. The supernatant was loaded onto the **100-pL** loop. The loop was emptied with **0.5** mL of mobile phase **(75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, 1.5 mM CaCl₂, pH 7.5), and the protein was eluted over one column volume at a flow rate of **0.5** mL/min. For **SEC** experiments with the Met->Ala CP-Ser variants, the above procedure was employed except that the final **H202** concentration was **500** mM and the reactions were quenched by combining a 300- μ L aliquot of the reaction with 45 tL of **5** M BME.

For experiments that monitored the oligomeric state of disulfide-linked **CP,** the **SEC** analysis was performed using similar methods to those above. To reduce the disulfides before elution, a 77-pt aliquot of **75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, 20 mM **TCEP,** pH 7.5 was added to a 700-^µL aliquot of protein solution and the mixture was incubated at ambient temperature for 1 h. To remove Ca(II) from the protein, a 77-uL aliquot of 75 mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, 20 mM **EDTA** was added to a **700-pL** aliquot of protein solution, and the mixture was incubated for **1** h at 4 **OC.** Before injection onto the **SEC** column, the solutions were centrifuged at 13 000 rpm, 4 °C, 10 min. The 500-µL loop was loaded with **600 pL** of sample, and emptied with **500 pL** of elution buffer. For the untreated and TCEP-treated protein, the mobile phase was **75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, **1.5** mM Ca(ll), **pH 7.5.** For the EDTA-treated protein, the same mobile phase was used except the Ca(ll) was omitted. The eluent was collected into 1-mL fractions using an automated fraction collector.

4.3.13. Anion-Exchange Chromatography

An Akta purifier **(GE** Lifesciences) housed in a 4 **OC** cold room outfitted with a **500 pL** sample loop was used for anion exchange chromatography. **A** MonoQ **10/100** column was employed. Mobile phase **A** was 20 mM **HEPES, pH 8.0.** Mobile phase B was 20 mM
HEPES, 1 M NaCl, **pH 8.0.** The gradient was **0-60%** B over **15** column volumes **(120** mL) at a flow rate of **1** mL/min. Samples of CP-Ser and **S100A9(C3S)** homodimer were thawed at room temperature, diluted to **100** tM into mobile phase **A,** and centrifuged for **10** min at **13 000** rpm at 4 **OC.** The final volume of each sample was **300** tL. The samples were injected onto the loop using a 1-mL syringe, and the loop was emptied with **0.5** mL of mobile phase **A.**

4.3.14. Analytical Ultracentrifugation (Sedimentation Velocity)

A Beckman XL-I Analytical Ultracentrifuge outfitted with an An-60 Ti rotor was employed for all sedimentation velocity experiments. The rotor housed conventional double-sector charcoal filled Epon centerpieces within the sample cells and contained quartz windows. The absorbance wavelength for optical detection was **280** nm. The samples were centrifuged at 42 000 rpm and 20 °C until sedimentation was complete. SEDNTERP⁴⁷ was employed to calculate the buffer viscosity (η) , buffer density (ρ) , and protein specific volume (\bar{v}) . Additional details are provided with Tables 4.6 and 4.7.

For sample preparation, **1** L of **75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, **pH 7.5** dialysis buffer containing 10 g of Chelex resin (Biorad) was prepared and chilled at 4 °C. Each protein was thawed at room temperature and then diluted to 30 μ M using 75 mM HEPES, 100 mM NaCl, **pH 7.5.** Each protein sample was transferred to **3.5 k** MWCO dialysis tubing (Spectrum Labs) and dialyzed overnight at 4 **0C** in the dialysis buffer with gentle stirring. The following day, the protein and dialysis buffer aliquots were transferred to 1.7-mL polypropylene tubes and centrifuged at 13 000 rpm, 10 min, 4 °C to sediment any contaminating Chelex resin. Solutions of **1** mM **EDTA** (diluted from **100** mM in H20) and **100** mM Ca(ll) were prepared using the centrifuged dialysis buffer. Matched protein and reference samples were prepared by adding 30 μ M EDTA or 600 μ M Ca(II) to the protein and buffer-only samples. The protein samples and reference samples were incubated at ambient temperature while the window assemblies were constructed $(\approx 1.5 \text{ h})$. The window assemblies were each loaded with 410 μ L of the reference buffer or 400 μ L of a protein sample. The oxidized proteins were analyzed under both conditions using samples of protein from independent preparations in separate experiments.

4.3.15. Protease Digestion of Oxidized CP-Ser

Trypsin (Affymetrix), proteinase K (Affymetrix), and chymotrypsin (Amresco) were obtained as lyophilized powders, stored at 4 **0C,** and dissolved in water to afford solutions of ≈50-100 µM immediately before use. Extinction coefficients for trypsin, proteinase K, and chymotrypsin are reported in Table 4.2. Human neutrophil elastase (Enzo Life Sciences) was obtained as a lyophilized powder, and the entire portion of protease was dissolved in **75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCI, **pH 7.5** to afford a solution with a concentration of **=1** mg/mL. **HNE** was divided into single-use aliquots, frozen with liquid nitrogen, and stored at **-80 C.** Protease digestion assays with CP-Ser 04 and CP-Ser **05** were performed on a **500-pL** scale at **pH 7.5 (75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl). Aliquots of **CP-**Ser, CP-Ser 04, and CP-Ser Os were thawed at room temperature and diluted **(30 pM, 750** [tL) using the assay buffer. Ca(ll) **(1.5** mM) was added to all samples and Mn(II) **(30** μ M) was added to select samples. To initiate each digestion assay, an aliquot (between **5-** and 10-9L as appropriate) of protease was added to the 500-pL protein solution to afford protease concentrations of 0.45 **pM** (trypsin), **0.5** [M **(HNE),** or **1** pM (chymotrypsin, proteinase K). The resulting solution was immediately mixed with a pipette and incubated at 37 °C. Aliquots (45 μ L) of the reaction were quenched with 5 μ L of aqueous 6% (v/v) **TFA and 150** μ **L of 6 M guanidinum chloride at** $t = 0$ **, 0.5, 1, 2, and 3 h (trypsin and** proteinase **k),** t **= 0,** 4, **8,** and 24 h **(HNE),** or t **= 0, 1, 3, 5,** and **8** h (chymotrypsin). The quenched solutions were centrifuged **(13 000** rpm, **10** min, 4 **0C),** and the resulting samples were analyzed **by** analytical HPLC using a gradient of **10-60%** B over **50** min.

4.3.16. Protease Digestion of Oxidized **CP**

dsl-CP and MetO-dsl-CP were prepared as described in subsection 4.3.6, and stored overnight at 4 °C. The next day, these samples were used in trypsin digestion assays. To monitor the degradation of dsl-CP and MetO-dsl-CP, the reactions were quenched at different time points, and the reaction progress was evaluated using reversed-phase HPLC. At each time point, one 45 - μ L aliquot of the digest was quenched in the absence of a reducing agent (150μ) of 6 M guanidine hydrochloride and 5 μ L of 6% TFA), and a second 45-uL aliquot was quenched in the presence of a reducing agent (40 mM **HEPES, 6** M guanidine hydrochloride, 20 mM **TCEP, pH 7.5).** After rapid mixing with the micropipette, each sample quenched under reducing conditions was heated at **95 OC** for **10** min to allow reduction of the disulfide bonds without trypsin activity. After heating, **5** pL of **6% TFA** was added, the quenched samples were centrifuged at **13 000** rpm, 4 °C for 10 min, and 100 μ L aliquots were analyzed by analytical HPLC, and using a gradient of **10-60%** B over **50** min.

4.3.17. **SDS-PAGE** and Westem Blots

Samples were prepared for **SDS-PAGE by** combining 5x Laemmli buffer **(312** mM Tris-HCI, **10% SDS, 0.05%** bromophenol blue (w/v), BME (v/v), **pH 6.8)** and protein samples in a 1:4 (v/v) ratio. For analysis of **CP** disulfide speciation after oxidation, the BME was omitted from the Laemmli buffer. The samples were heated at 95 °C for 5 min, and then 10 μ L was loaded onto the gel. For all experiments, gels of 1-mm width were used. The stacking gel was made from **125** mM Tris-HCI, **0.1% SDS, 5%** acrylamide **(19:1** acrylamide:bis acrylamide), **0.05%** ammonium persulfate, **0.1%** tetrmethylethylenediamine, **pH 6.8.** The resolving gel was made from **250** mM Tris-HCI, **1% SDS, 15%** acrylamide **(19:1** acrylamide:bis acrylamide), **0.05%** ammonium persulfate, **0.05%** tetramethylethylenediamine, **pH 8.8.** The products of the disulfidebond-formation reactions of **CP** and the fractions from **SEC** of disulfide-linked **CP** were

run at 200 V for **90** min. The gels were stained with using Coomassie Brilliant Blue **G-250.**

For western blots, the protein was transferred to a nitrocellulose membrane using a Trans-Blot Turbo (Bio-Rad). The transfers were performed at **25** V for **10** min. The membrane was blocked for **30** min using **5%** milk in Tris-buffered saline (TBS, 2 mM Tris, **138 mM NaCl, pH 7.5). The blot was probed at 4 °C overnight with goat-anti S100A9** (Santa Cruz Biotech, sc-8114, 250-fold diluted) in **TBS+5%** bovine serum albumin. The next day, the blot was washed three times for **5** min using TBS+0. **1 %** Tween 20, and then rinsed with water. The blot was then stained for **1** h at ambient temperature with **1:10 000** fold diluted donkey anti-goat 800CW (Li-COR) in **TBS+5%** milk. After rinsing the blot with water, the blot was imaged using an Odyssey scanner (Li-COR). The same probing, washing, and imaging protocol was repeated to detect **S10OA8. A** murine monoclonal antibody (Santa Cruz Biotech, sc-48352) was used to probe for **S100A8** and a goat antimouse **680CW** (Li-COR) antibody was used to visualize **S100A8.**

4.4. Results

4.4.1. Oxidized **CP** Subunits are Observed in Human Mucus and Pus

Subunits of **CP** containing MetO have been observed in murine kidney abscesses, human cystic fibrosis bronchoalveolar fluid, and human kidney **stones. ²⁹- ³ ¹**Because methionine side chains can be easily oxidized, it is often unclear whether the oxidation occurred in vivo, following sample collection, or during analysis. Nevertheless, we were intrigued **by** these findings, and therefore sought to ascertain whether methionine oxidation of **CP** occurs in vivo and whether this post-translational modification has physiological relevance. We focused on the collection and ex vivo analyses of two types of readily available human samples, nasal mucus and pimple pus, where we expected to find **CP.** We selected **LC-MS** as an analytical method to identify unmodified and modified

CP subunits. Moreover, in prior biophysical studies of **CP,** we overexpressed and purified 15N-labeled CP-Ser, a **S100A8(C42S)/S100A9(C3S)** variant where each subunit is globally labeled with the ¹⁵N isotope.⁴⁴ We reasoned that we could use ¹⁵N-labeled CP-Ser as an internal standard **by** spiking samples with this protein immediately after collection from the human subject and thereby monitor for whether methionine oxidation of **CP** occurs before or after sample collection.

We collected and analyzed **26** nasal mucus samples from patients prior to surgery, and detected both **CP** subunits in **15** of these samples **by LC-MS** (Table 4.5). These analyses revealed full-length **S10OA8** and two truncated forms of **S10OA9** bearing **N**terminal acetylation. Full-length **S100A9** was not observed. One truncated **S100A9** species lacked the initiator methionine residue and the other lacked the first five amino acids of **S1 00A9,** indicating that translation was initiated at Met5 rather than Met1 (Figure **4.1C).** These truncated, N-acetylated forms of **S1 00A9** have been previously observed in human kidney stones.³¹ LC-MS also revealed that four of the CP-containing mucus samples exhibited deconvoluted masses consistent with oxidized **CP** subunits. Although the extent of **CP** oxidation varied depending on the sample, some common species were observed (Figures 4.1A,B 4.2A,B, and Table 4.5). In two of the four of the samples, a population of **S100A8** that bore a single additional oxygen atom **(+16** Da) was found. **All** three samples contained **S100A9** with at least one additional oxygen atom **(+16** Da). In three of the four samples, **S10OA9** with five additional oxygen atoms **(+80** Da) was observed. One sample exhibited a series of **+16** Da species ending with a molecule that appeared to have eight additional oxygen atoms **(+128** Da) (Figure 4.1B). In order to monitor for oxidation that might occur after sample collection, we added ¹⁵N-CP-Ser to a mucus sample immediately after collection (Figure 4.1D,E). This sample contained oxidized **CP** subunits, and we observed neither oxidized **15N-S100A8(C42S)** nor oxidized **15N-S100A9(C3S)** in the sample.

During the course of the mucus studies, we found that many samples were viscous and that oxidized **CP** subunits were only detected in ca. **60%** of the samples. Thus, we extended the analyses to human pus samples isolated from pimples, which we found to be easier to handle than mucus. **LC-MS** revealed the presence of the **CP** subunits in two pus samples (Figure 4.3). Similar to the mucus samples, we observed full-length **S1 00A8** and truncated, N-acetylated forms of **S100A9.** Both pus samples also contained oxidized **S100A8** and **S100A9** species. The oxidized **S100A8** species contained one additional oxygen atom **(+16** Da) and up to five additional oxygen atoms were observed for the oxidized **S100A9** species. We spiked both of these pus samples with 15N-CP-Ser, and

Sample	A ₈	$A8+O$	A ₉	$A9+O$	A9+2O	A9+3O	A9+4O	A9+5O
Mucus 1	$\overline{\mathsf{X}}$	\sim	$\overline{\mathsf{X}}$	$\sf X$	X			
Mucus ₂	X	X	X	$\boldsymbol{\mathsf{X}}$	X	$\boldsymbol{\mathsf{X}}$	X	X
Mucus 3								
Mucus 4								
Mucus ₅								
Mucus ₆	X			Χ				
Mucus ₇	X			X				
Mucus 8								
Mucus 9								
Mucus 10	Χ		X	X				Χ
Mucus 11	Χ		X					
Mucus 12								
Mucus 13	X		X					
Mucus 14	X		X					
Mucus 15			X					
Mucus 16								
Mucus 17	X		X					
Mucus 18								
Mucus 19								
Mucus 20								
Mucus 21	X		Χ	X				
Mucus ₂₂	X	χ	X	X				χ
Mucus 23	X	X	X					
Mucus 24	X	X	X	X				
Mucus 25	X		X					
Mucus 26	X		X					

Table 4.5 Summary **of mucus** samples analyzed.a

a Species that were observed are marked with an "X."

Figure 4.1. Deconvoluted mass spectra of human nasal mucus. The **S10OA8** panels are normalized to the wild-type **S1OOA8** peak and **S1OOA9** panels are normalized to the most abundant **S10OA9** peak. Data from **(A)** mucus sample 2 expanded around **S10OA8,** (B) mucus sample 2 expanded around **S10OA9, (C)** mucus sample 2 expanded around **S10OA9(AM1-5), (D)** mucus sample 22 expanded around **S10OA8** that shows **15N-A8(C42S), (E)** mucus sample 22 expanded around **S10OA9** that shows **15N-A9(AM1, C3S).**

Figure 4.2 Mass spectrometry of additional human nasal mucus samples. Deconvoluted mass spectra expanded around **S10OA8** and **S10OA9. (A)** Mucus sample **1,** (B) mucus sample **10.**

Figure 4.3. Deconvoluted mass spectra of human pus with ¹⁵N-CP-Ser added immediately after collection. **S1 00A8** and **S1 00A9. (A)** Data from pus sample 2 expanded around **S10OA8,** (B) data from pus sample 2 expanded around **S10OA9, (C)** data from pus sample **1** expanded around **S10OA8** and **S10OA9.**

observed no oxidized **1 5N-S100A8(C42S)** species in either sample, and a small fraction **of 15N-S100A9** bearing a single additional oxygen atom **(+16** Da) was detected in in one of the two samples (Figure 4.3).

These ex vivo studies of nasal mucus and pimple pus provide further support for the existence of oxidized **CP** subunits in different human fluids. Importantly, the lack of oxidation of the 15N-CP-Ser internal standard indicates that the oxidative posttranslational modifications of the **CP** subunits occurred in vivo and not during sample collection, storage, or analysis. Full-length **S100A8** has two Met residues, and full-length **S100A9** has six Met residues. We interpret these data to indicate that one Met of **S100A9** and up to five Met of **S10OA9** can be oxidized to methionine sulfoxide. These results are in agreement with prior work that observed oxidized **CP** subunits in ex vivo and in vivo tissues.²⁹⁻³¹ Taken together, these observations strengthen the notion that methionine sulfoxide is a physiologically relevant post-translational modification of **CP.**

4.4.2. Methionine Oxidation of CP-Ser Causes Heterotetramer Dissociation

To investigate the consequences of methionine oxidation on the biophysical properties of **CP,** we first treated the Ca(Il)-bound CP-Ser heterotetramer with H202, an oxidant that oxidizes Cys and Met residues with high specificity,⁴⁸ and monitored the reaction **by** analytical size-exclusion chromatography **(SEC)** and **LC-MS** (Figure 4.4A,B). **SEC** revealed that the CP-Ser heterotetramer peak **(10.9** mL, 45.9 kDa) decreased in intensity and a new peak corresponding to the CP-Ser heterodimer **(11.5** mL, 34.9 kDa) appeared (Figure 4.4A). In these chromatograms, tetramer dissociation was readily apparent at the **7-h** time point, and the dimer became the major species at the **23-h** time point. **LC-MS** of the corresponding samples demonstrated that, as heterotetramers dissociated into heterodimers, the number of oxygen atoms on the **CP** subunits increased (Figure 4.4B). **S100A8** had gained a single additional oxygen atom **(+16** Da) within **1** h of incubation, and no further oxidative modification was observed until the **23-h** time point where **S100A8** with two additional oxygen atoms **(+32** Da) became the major species. In contrast, the extent of oxidation of **S100A9** increased at each time point. Because the dissociation of the Ca(Il)-bound heterotetramer appeared to coincide with the extent of methionine oxidation on **S100A9,** we reasoned that the trigger for heterotetramer dissociation was oxidation of one or more Met residues on **S100A9.**

In prior work, we demonstrated that coordination of Mn(II) or Fe(ll) at the **His6** site of CP-Ser in the absence of Ca(ll) causes two heterodimers to self-associate into a heterotetramer, and caused tetramerization of CP-Ser variants harboring **(A8)160K** or **(A8)160E** point mutations that could not tetramerize with Ca(II) alone.13 Thus, we questioned whether a Ca(ll)- and transitional-metal-bound heterotetramer dissociates into heterodimers upon methionine oxidation. We oxidized CP-Ser with H₂O₂ in the presence of excess Ca(ll) and one equivalent of Mn(II), which selectively binds to the **His6** site, and monitored the reaction **by SEC** and **LC-MS** (Figure 4.4C,D). In contrast to the oxidation in the presence of only Ca(II), a peak with a maximum elution volume consistent with the heterotetramer **(11.0** mL, 43.8 kDa) was only observed, indicating that the Ca(Il) and Mn(ll)-bound protein remained a heterotetramer over the **23-h** time course. Analysis of samples **by LC-MS** revealed that both subunits were oxidized in the presence of Ca(ll) and Mn(I1) at a rate that appeared comparable to that observed for the Ca(lI)-only sample. These data indicate that coordination of both Ca(II) and Mn(ll) stabilizes the heterotetramer, and that that Mn(II) chelation at the His₆ site does not protect Met residues from oxidation **by H202.**

4.4.3. (A9)MetO81 Serves as the Determinant for Heterotetramer Dissociation

In order to better understand the molecular basis of H_2O_2 -induced dissociation of the Ca(Il)-bound CP-Ser heterotetramer, we investigated the contributions of individual **S100A9** Met residues to this process. We overexpressed and purified three new CP-Ser variants that each contain a single Met-4Ala mutation at position **63, 81,** or **83** of

Figure 4.4. **SEC** chromatograms and corresponding deconvoluted mass spectra of **CP-**Ser treated with 100 mM H₂O₂ +Ca(II) and Ca(II)+Mn(II) after various reaction times. Note that the Mn(II)-Ca(II)-CP-Ser tetramer elutes slightly later than the +Ca(II)-CP-Ser tetramer. **(A)** +Ca **SEC.** (B) +Ca **MS. (C)** +Ca(ll)+Mn(II) **SEC. (D)** +Ca(lI)+Mn(Il) **MS.** In the chromatograms, the dashed lines represent the elution volumes of the tetramer and dimer. In the mass spectra, the dashed lines represent the expected masses of the **CP-**Ser subunits with additional oxygen atoms. The chromatograms and mass spectra were normalized to a maximum value of **1.**

S100A9(C3S) (Table 4.4). **(A9)M63** is close to the C-terminal EF-hand, **(A9)M81** appears to participate in the dimer-dimer interface, and **(A9)M83** is close to the dimer-dimer interface (Figure **A2.23).** These variants were obtained as pure heterodimers (Figure **A2.20).** Circular dichroism **(CD)** spectroscopy in the absence and presence of Ca(ll) demonstrated that the α -helicity of the proteins was not perturbed by the mutations (Figure **A2.21). SEC** performed in the presence of Ca(ll) indicated that all three Ca(II) bound CP-Ser variants eluted as tetramers (Figure 4.5), indicating that the Met \rightarrow Ala mutations in **S100A(C3S)** did not perturb Ca(Il)-induced tetramerization, at least as ascertained by this technique. Moreover, SEC revealed that treatment of the Met→Ala variants with **H202** in the presence of Ca(II) caused the CP-Ser(A9-M63A) and **CP-**Ser(A9-M83A) variants to dissociate into dimers, whereas the CP-Ser(A9-M81A) variant remained a tetramer (Figure 4.5). LC-MS of the Met→Ala variants after H₂O₂ treatment displayed oxidation comparable to CP-Ser (Table 4.1). These results show that **H202** induced dissociation of the Ca(Il)-bound heterotetramer is dependent on oxidation of **(A9)M81.**

4.4.4. Preparation of Oxidized CP-Ser

In order to further study CP-Ser bearing MetO modifications, we developed and optimized a protocol to obtain milligram quantities of oxidized CP-Ser. We followed our reported procedures⁹ for overexpressing the S100A8(C42S) and S100A9(C3) polypeptides and reconstituting the CP-Ser heterodimer except that, following the first round of dialysis in refolding buffer **(75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, **pH 7.5),** we treated the protein with **H202** at **37 OC.** We found that treating the dialyzed protein with **50** mM **H202** for **2.5** or **5** h afforded a mixture of species where the dominant species was oxidized CP-Ser comprised of **S10OA8** with one additional oxygen atom and **S100A9** with three additional oxygen atoms. We named this protein mixture CP-Ser 04 to denote most prevalent number of additional oxygen atoms per heterodimer (Table 4.4 and

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Figure 4.5. **SEC** chromatograms of CP-Ser and Met to Ala, variants in the presence of Ca(Il) before (black traces) and after (red traces) treatment with **500** mM H202 for **7** h. Each chromatogram was normalized to a maximum absorbance of **1.** Conditions: **75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, **1.5** mM Ca(II), **pH 7.5, 30** pM protein, **500** mM H202.

Figure **A2.8).** When we treated the protein with **50** mM H202 for **6** h or with **75** mM H202 for **6.5** h, we obtained mixtures where the dominant species was oxidized CP-Ser was comprised of **S10OA8+0** with one additional oxygen atom and **S100A9** with four additional oxygen atoms (Table 4.4 and Figure **A2.8).** We named this protein mixture **CP-**Ser **05.** Following treatment with H202, the protein was centrifuged to remove a precipitate that formed during oxidation, dialyzed against refolding buffer, and then the heterodimers were purified **by** anion exchange and gel filtration chromatography as previously reported for CP-Ser (Figure **A2.20). ⁹**The yields for CP-Ser 04 and CP-Ser Os ranged from 30-40 mg **/** L of overexpression culture. Analysis of the oxidized CP-Ser proteins **by CD** spectroscopy in the absence and presence of excess Ca(II) ions revealed that the α -helicity of the CP scaffold was unaffected by methionine oxidation (Figure **A2.21).**

4.4.5. CP-Ser 04 and CP-Ser 05 Exhibit Defective Ca(I)-Induced Tetramerization

To further examine the consequences of methionine oxidation on the biophysical properties of **CP,** we investigated the oligomeric states of CP-Ser 04 and CP-Ser 05 **by SEC** and anion exchange chromatography **(AXC).** We first examined CP-Ser 04 and **CP-**Ser 05 by using analytical **SEC** to determine if the purified oxidized proteins recapitulated the tetramerization-deficient behavior that occurred after treating CP-Ser with H₂O₂ (Figure 4.5). In the absence of added metal ions, CP -Ser O_4 and CP -Ser O_5 each had an elution volume of **=1 1.6** mL (33.4 kDa), consistent with the apo heterodimer (Figure 4.6). In the presence of excess Ca(II) ions, the CP-Ser O_4 and CP-Ser O_5 peaks maintained a maximum peak height consistent with the heterodimer elution volume. However, the peaks broadened, suggesting that both between dimeric and tetrameric species exist under these high-Ca(II) conditions (Figure 4.6). When Mn(II) or both Ca(II) and Mn(II) were present, CP-Ser 04 and CP-Ser Os tetramerized (Figure 4.6). Thus, the **SEC** experiments with CP-Ser 04 and CP-Ser Os demonstrated that the proteins displayed oligomeric properties consistent with H_2O_2 -treated CP-Ser, and would be useful for further studying the effects of Met oxidation on CP-Ser.

AXC allows separation of CP-Ser heterodimers from **S100A9(C3S)** homodimers, and we employed this technique to ascertain whether Met oxidation caused conversion of the **S100A8/S100A9** heterodimer to the **S100A8** and **S100A9** homodimers (Figure A2.24). We attempted to include the **S100A8(C42S)** homodimer in this analysis; however, its peak profile and retention time was **highly** variable between runs. The chromatograms for CP-Ser, CP-Ser 04, and CP-Ser Os each revealed a single peak with an elution volume of **29.3** mL consistent with the **S10OA8(C42S)/S1OOA9(C3S)** heterodimer. No peak corresponding to the **S10OA9(C3S)** homodimer **(37.2** mL) was observed in the CP-Ser, CP-Ser 04, and CP-Ser Os samples. Thus, we concluded that methionine oxidation does not cause **CP** heterooligomers to convert into **S100A8** and **S10OA9** homodimers.

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Figure **4.6. SEC** of CP-Ser, CP-Ser 04, and CP-Ser **05** under -Ca(II), +Ca(II), and +Ca(ll)+Mn(II) conditions. Each chromatogram was normalized to a maximum absorbance of **1.** The dashed lines represent the elution volumes of the tetramer and dimer. Conditions: **75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, **30** pM **CP, 1.5** mM Ca(II), **30** pM $Mn(II)$.

4.4.6. CP-Ser 04 and CP-Ser 05 Interconvert between Heterodimers and

Heterotetramers

To further elucidate the oligomerization behavior of CP-Ser 04 and CP-Ser 05 in the presence of excess Ca(ll) ions, we employed velocity analytical ultracentrifugation **(AUC),** which is a powerful technique for studying protein oligomerization capable of differentiating between interacting and non-interacting systems.^{49,50} Along these lines, two scenarios that would give rise to the observed **SEC** peak shapes for CP-Ser 04 and CP-Ser **05** can be considered: (i) the oxidized proteins containing a population of tetramers and a population of dimers that do not interconvert or (ii) the oxidized proteins are in a dynamic equilibrium between heterodimer and heterotetramer. For a system of two species that interconvert on a slow timescale or do not interconvert, analysis of **AUC** data **by** Sedfit will afford a sedimentation profile where the two species have **S** values

identical to those of the species in isolation and the **S** values will be invariant with protein concentration, but the relative amount of each species will change with protein concentration. ⁴⁹, 50 In contrast, systems that interconvert on the timescale of sedimentation will have peak profiles that change as a function of protein concentration, and the **S** value(s) observed will be in between those of the two species in isolation when analyzed by Sedfit.^{49,50}

We repeated an earlier **AUC** analysis of CP-Ser in the absence and presence of excess Ca(ll) ions (Figure 4.7 and Table 4.6), and obtained peak profiles and **S** values in good agreement with our prior data for the apo heterodimer (S20,w = 2.2 **S)** and the Ca(Il) bound heterotetramer $(s_{20,w}= 3.7 S)^{13}$ We also examined two independent preparations of CP-Ser 04 and CP-Ser Os. In the absence of Ca(II) ions, the sedimentation profiles of CP-Ser 04 and CP-Ser Os were indistinguishable from that of CP-Ser (Figure 4.7), which was consistent with the **AXC** and **SEC** studies and indicated that Met oxidation of CP-Ser did not perturb the oligomerization of the apo protein. In the presence of Ca(II) ions, the sedimentation profiles of CP-Ser 04 and CP-Ser Os were more complex than the CP-Ser profile, and displayed the hallmarks of dynamically interconverting systems (Figure 4.7). In particular, the peaks in the sedimentation profiles broadened, in some cases to the point where the heterodimer and heterotetramer peaks could not be resolved. Accordingly, the calculated **S** values for the observed peaks were in between those of the heterodimer and heterotetramer. In the profiles shown here (Figure 4.7), CP-Ser 04 (+Ca(ll)) displayed two broad peaks with **S** values between the dimer and tetramer (S20.w $= 2.5$ **S** and 3.5 **S**), and CP-Ser O₅ exhibited a single broad peak ($s_{20,w} = 3.3$ **S**). When we repeated the experiment with independent preparations of the oxidized proteins, the profiles differed from those obtained in the first experiment (Figure 4.7B and Table 4.6); however, the results were consistent with the oxidized proteins undergoing dynamic interconversion between heterodimers and heterotetramers. The observed differences may have arisen from multiple factors that include variable patterns of oxidation between

preparations and protein concentrations. We also analyzed the **AUC** data using **DCDT+, 51 5 ²**which yielded results consistent with the Sedfit analyses (Figure 4.8 and Table 4.7). For the data of oxidized CP-Ser in the presence of Ca(II), **DCDT+** models with a single species provided the best fits. The single peaks had **S** values between the heterodimer and heterotetramer, in agreement with the fits from Sedfit. Taken together, we concluded that Met oxidation of CP-Ser does not fully prevent tetramerization. Rather, the heterodimer-heterodimer equilibrium is strongly shifted to the heterodimer in the presence of excess Ca(II) ions.

Figure 4.7. Sedimentation velocity distributions of CP-Ser, CP-Ser 04, and CP-Ser 05 Ca(II) analyzed **by SEDFIT** using the c(s) model. The peaks were normalized to a maximum value of **1.** The dashed lines represent the **S** value of the dimer and tetramer. Conditions: **75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, **pH 7.5, 30** [,M **CP, 30** ptM **EDTA, 600** [tM CaC12, 20 **OC.** In the apo experiments (black traces) **EDTA** was added, and in the +Ca(II) experiments CaCl₂ was added. Sedimentation coefficients and fitting details can be found in Table 4.6.

Protein	Concentration (μM)	\$20,w\$ (S)	MW (kDa)	Partial Specific Volume (mL/g)
CP-Ser	30	2.2, 3.9	22.8, 52.0	0.7388
CP-Ser+Ca(II)	30	4.0	41.4	0.7388
CP-Ser O_4 ^b	30	2.2	23.8	0.7388
CP-Ser O ₄ c	30	2.4	22.6	0.7388
CP-Ser O ₄ +Ca(II) b	30	2.5, 3.5	22.4, 37.5	0.7388
CP-Ser O ₄ +Ca(II) ^c	30	2.7, 4.5	23.2, 49.8	0.7388
CP-Ser O_5 ^d	30	2.2	23.3	0.7388
CP-Ser $O_5 e$	30	2.4	23.1	0.7388
CP-Ser O ₅ +Ca(II) d	30	3.3	40.7	0.7388
CP-Ser $O_5 + Ca(II)$ e	30	2.4, 3.5	22.9, 35.9	0.7388

Table 4.6. Calculated sedimentation coefficients and molecular weights using Sedfit.^a

^a All experiments were conducted at 20 °C. The units of viscosity are in centipoise (cP) (1 Poise **= g** cm-1 s-1). For experiments without Ca(II), the buffer was **75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, **30** pM **EDTA, pH 7.5.** For experiments in the presence of **Ca(l1),** the buffer was **75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, **600** pM CaC2, **pH 7.5.** For both conditions, **S20,w** values were adjusted with solvent density (p) of 1.0082 q/mL, solvent viscosity (n) of 1.0565 cP and pH 7.5 at 20 °C. The c(s) method was used for fitting the data. All scans that began at the baseline were used in fitting. The units of viscosity are in centipoise (cP) **(1** Poise **g** cm⁻¹ s⁻¹). Sedimentation coefficients are in Svedbergs (1 Svedberg = 100 fs = 1 \times 10⁻¹³ s). ^c Data obtained using the second preparation of protein. **b** Data obtained using protein oxidized with **50** mM H202 for **2.5** h. **c** Data obtained using protein oxidized with **50** mM H202 for **5** h. d Data obtained using protein oxidized with **50** mM H202 for **6** h. e Data obtained with protein oxidized for **75** mM H202 for **6.5** h.

Figure 4.8. **DCDT+** analysis of sedimentation velocity experiments with CP-Ser, CP-Ser 04, CP-Ser 05. **(A)** Sedimentation profiles with data from the first preparations of CP-Ser 04 and CP-Ser **Os.** (B) Sedimentation profiles with data from the second preparations of CP-Ser 04 and CP-Ser 05. Conditions: **75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, **30** pM protein, ^{±30} μM EDTA, ±1.5 mM Ca(II), 20 °C. Sedimentation coefficients and fitting details can be found in Table 4.7.

Protein	Concentration (μM)	$S_{20,w}$ (S)	D (F)	MW (kDa)	Partial Specific Volume (mL/g)
CP-Ser	30	2.6	12.5	18.9	0.7388
CP-Ser+Ca(II)	30	4.0	9.1	41.2	0.7388
CP-Ser O_4 ^b	30	2.3	10.6	20.4	0.7388
CP-Ser O ₄ c	30	2.5	10.9	21.0	0.7388
CP-Ser O ₄ +Ca(II) b	30	3.3	11.0	28	0.7388
CP-Ser O ₄ +Ca(II) c	30	2.9	13.8	19.6	0.7388
CP-Ser O ₅ d	30	2.3	10.0	21.3	0.7388
CP-Ser O_5e	30	2.4	10.3	22.1	0.7388
CP-Ser O ₅ +Ca(II) ^d	30	3.4	9.0	35.0	0.7388
CP-Ser $O_5 + Ca(II)$ ^e	30	3.1	12.1	23.9	0.7388

Table 4.7. Calculated sedimentation coefficients and molecular weights using DCDT+.^a

^a All experiments were conducted at 20 °C. The units of viscosity are in centipoise (cP) (1 Poise **= g** cm-1 s-1). Sedimentation coefficients are in Svedbergs **(1** Svedberg **= 100** fs **⁼ ¹**x **10-13** s). Diffusion coefficients correspond to the best-fit molecular mass in Fick units (1 Fick **= 1** x **10-7 cm2** */s.* The dc/dt method was used to fit all data. Between **10** and 12 scans were used for fitting. The first and last scans used ranged from the 19th to the 47th. The peak broadening limit was always greater than **80** kDa. For experiments without Ca(II), the buffer was **75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, **30** pM **EDTA, pH 7.5.** For experiments in the presence of **Ca(l1),** the buffer was **75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, **600** μ M CaCl₂, pH 7.5. For both conditions $s_{20,w}$ values were adjusted with solvent density (ρ) of **1.0082** g/mL, solvent viscosity **(r)** of **1.0565** cP and **pH 7.5** at 20 oC. **b** Data obtained using protein oxidized with **50** mM H202 for **2.5** h. **c** Data obtained using protein oxidized with **50** mM H202 for **5** h. **d** Data obtained using protein oxidized with **50** mM H202 for **6** h. **e** Data obtained with protein oxidized for **75** mM H202 for **6.5** h.

4.4.7. CP-Ser Retains Antimicrobial Activity after Methionine Oxidation

To evaluate the effect of methionine oxidation on the antimicrobial activity **(AMA) of CP,** we performed **AMA** assays against Escherichia coli **25922** and Staphylococcus aureus **25923** using CP-Ser, CP-Ser 04 and CP-Ser 05 (Figure 4.9). The assays were performed in Tris:TSB medium supplemented with 2 mM Ca(II) to mimic the extracellular Ca(II) concentration. Under these growth conditions, CP-Ser and the oxidized species displayed concentration-dependent growth inhibition of both bacterial species. **A** comparison of CP-Ser to CP-Ser 04 and CP-Ser 05 indicates that methionine oxidation caused some attenuation of antibacterial activity. For **E.** coli, this trend is most evident at 250 μ g/mL of protein where CP-Ser completely inhibited growth and CP-Ser O₄ and CP-Ser O₅ inhibited growth to a lesser degree. For S. aureus, CP-Ser O₄ and O₅ were less active than CP-Ser at **250** and **500** tg/mL. Nevertheless, ex vivo analyses of human fluids has indicated that **CP** concentrations can reach **>1** mg/mL at infection sites,7 and both CP-Ser 04 and Os fully inhibit bacterial growth at these concentrations. We note that our finding that methionine oxidation does not abolish the activity of **CP** refutes conclusions from prior work where oxidation of **(A8)M1** was reported to abolish the antimicrobial activity **of CP.29** This study used hypochlorous acid as the oxidant, which likely oxidized other sites of the protein as well.

4.4.8. Oxidized CP-Ser Binds Transition Metals with High Affinity

To provide an initial evaluation of the metal-withholding capabilities of oxidized **CP-**Ser, we compared the abilities of CP-Ser, CP-Ser 04, and CP-Ser 05 to compete with the Ca(II)-insensitive fluorescent metal-ion sensor Zinpyr-1 (ZP1)⁴⁶ for Mn(II), Fe(II), Ni(II), and Zn(II) (Figure 4.10). Under conditions of excess Ca(ll) ions, CP-Ser, CP-Ser 04 and CP-Ser O₅ outcompeted ZP1 for these four transition metal ions. Although these results do not rule out the possibility that methionine oxidation perturbs the binding affinities of **CP** for transition metal ions, these results demonstrate that, in the presence of Ca(ll), **CP-**

Ser 04 and CP-Ser **05** coordinate transition metals with sufficiently **high** affinity to outcompete ZP1. The ability of CP-Ser 04 and CP-Ser 05 to chelate transition metals with high affinity is consistent with the observed growth inhibitory activity (Figure 4.9).

Figure 4.9. **AMA** assays with CP-Ser, CP-Ser 04 and CP-Ser Os against **(A) E.** coli and (B) **S.** aureus. **OD600** was recorded after 20 h (mean **SEM,** n=3).

4.4.9 Oxidized CP-Ser is Protease Sensitive

In prior work, we observed that a Ca(ll)-bound tetramer-deficient variant of **CP** was more easily degraded **by** host proteases than Ca(Il)-bound CP-Ser.13 We therefore questioned whether methionine oxidation enhances the protease susceptibility of CP-Ser and performed protease digestion assays with CP-Ser, CP-Ser O₄, and CP-Ser O₅ using trypsin, human neutrophil elastase **(HNE),** chymotrypsin, and proteinase K. These assays were performed in the presence of excess Ca(II) or in the presence of both excess Ca(II) and one equivalent of Mn(ll) (Figures 4.11, 4.12, and **A2.25-A2.27).** The reactions were analyzed **by** HPLC using a gradient that separated **S100A8 (37.9** min), **S100A9** (39.4 min, **S100A8+0 (37.3** min), **S100A9+30 (37.8** min), and S100A9+40 **(36.1** min). With

Figure 4.10. Competition between ZP1 and CP-Ser, CP-Ser 04, and CP-Ser 05 for **(A)** Mn(II), (B) Fe(II), **(C)** Ni(ll), **(D)** and Zn(II) in the presence of Ca(ll). Excitation was provided at 490 nm, and the emission spectra were integrated from **500** to **650** nm and normalized with respect to apo ZP1 emission for the Mn(II), Fe(II), and Ni(II) experiments (mean \pm SDM, $n=3$). For the Zn(II) experiment, peak area was integrated with respect to emission after adding 12 μM Zn(II) (mean ± SDM, n=3). Conditions: 75 mM HEPES, 100 mM NaCl, **pH** 7.5, 4 pM **CP,** 200 pM Ca(II), **1** pM ZP1, **25 oC.**

this gradient, doubling of the oxidized **S100A9** peaks occurred. Although the precise origin of the peak doubling is unknown, the phenomenon may arise from a mixture of MetO diastereomers and/or MetO regioisomers.

In agreement with prior work,¹³ inhibiting Ca(II)-induced tetramerization resulted in accelerated proteolysis of CP-Ser (Figures 4.1 *1A,* 4.12, and **A2.25-A2.27).** In the presence of trypsin and excess Ca(II), we did not observe cleavage of CP-Ser, whereas CP-Ser 04 and CP-Ser 05 were nearly quantitatively degraded after **3** h (Figure 4.1 **1A).** In the presence of chymotrypsin and Ca(II) ions, CP-Ser exhibited slow cleavage of the **S100A9** tail while CP-Ser 04 and CP-Ser 05 were cleaved to peptides (Figure **A2.25).** In prior work, we did not compare the protease stability of the **CP** heterodimer and -tetramer against proteinase K; however, we demonstrated that proteinase K cleaves after **(A8)E89** and (A9)H104 in the presence of excess Ca(l1).12 In this work, **S100A8+O** displayed a peak shift consistent with cleavage after **E89** within **30** min of proteinase K (Figure **A2.27).** At later times in the reaction, the CP-Ser O₄ and CP-Ser O₅ subunits were proteolyzed to peptides, whereas the truncated CP-Ser subunits persisted (Figure **A2.27).** Although the all of the proteases displayed greater activity against CP-Ser 04 and CP-Ser Os than **CP-**Ser in the presence of Ca(II), **HNE** degraded the oxidized proteins much more slowly than the other proteases (Figure 4.12). Additionally, **HNE** was the only protease for which we observed a marked difference in the degradation rate between **S100A9+30** and **S100A9+40** (Figures 4.12, **A2.27,** and **A2.28).** We reasoned that a greater proportion of **S100A9+40** will have the (A9)MetO8l modification, leading to more of the protein in the dimer state and a concomitant increase in degradation. When we performed the same experiments with **1** equivalent of Mn(ll), we observed no degradation of CP-Ser, CP-Ser 04, or CP-Ser Os (Figures 4.11B and **A2.25-A2.27).** Under conditions with Mn(II), unmodified and oxidized CP-Ser tetramerize; therefore, we attribute the recovery of protease stability to Mn(II)-induced tetramerization.

Figure **4.11.** Representative HPLC traces from trypsin digestions of CP-Ser, CP-Ser 04, and CP-Ser **05** under **(A)** +Ca(ll) and (B) +Ca(II)+Mn(II). Conditions: **75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, 1.5 mM CaCl₂, ±30 μM MnCl₂, pH 7.5, 30 μM CP, 0.45 μM trypsin at 37 °C.

Figure 4.12. Representative HPLC chromatograms from **HNE** digestions of CP-Ser, **CP-**Ser 04, and CP-Ser 05 in the presence of Ca(II). Conditions: **75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, **1.5** mM CaC12, **pH 7.5, 30** piM **CP, 1** [M **HNE** at **37 OC.**

4.4.10 Oxidation of **CP** Yields Disulfide-Linked Oligomers

CP contains two Cys residues, which are located at position 42 of **S100A8** and position **3** of **S1 00A9.** Similar to methionine, Cys residues are susceptible to oxidation **by** $H₂O₂$.⁴⁸ Thus, our studies with CP-Ser did not take the possibility of $H₂O₂$ -mediated oxidation of **(A8)C42** or **(A9)C3** into account. With understanding of the consequences of methionine oxidation in CP-Ser in hand, we shifted our focus to studying the more complex native protein.

We began **by** examining whether treating **CP** with a relatively low concentration of H202 **(100** pM) resulted in disulfide-bond formation in the absence or presence of excess Ca(II) ions **by** non-reducing **SDS-PAGE** and western blot (Figure 4.13). Under our conditions, we observed minimal formation of disulfide bonds when **CP** was incubated without H_2O_2 (Figure 4.13). In the absence of Ca(II), we observed bands consistent with disulfide-linked **S100A8-S100A9** and **S100A9-S100A9** species at the 1-h time point (Figure 4.13). Over time, the band attributed to the **S100A9-S100A9** species became

Figure 4.13. A non-reducing western blot of 30 μ M CP treated with 100 μ M H₂O₂ or untreated (u.t.) in the presence and absence of **1.5** mM Ca(II). **S10OA8** was stained red (mouse anti-S100A8, **680** CW dye), **S10OA9** was stained green (goat anti-S100A9, 800CW dye), and the overlap appeared stained yellow. The ladder proteins were visualized **by** a covalently linked dye that fluoresced during scanning. Reaction buffer: **75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, **pH 7.5.**

less prominent and the band assigned to a disulfide-linked **S100A8-S100A9** species became the major product. We also note that a weak band assigned to a disulfide-linked **S100A8-S100A8** species appeared at **7** h and **23** h (Figure 4.13). In the presence of excess Ca(II), the disulfide reactivity changed (Figure 4.13). At the 1-h time point, the **S100A9-S100A9** species was dominant and negligible **S100A8-S100A9** species was detected. Over time, the **S100A9-S100A9** species became less abundant, while the amount of the **S1 00A8-S1 00A9** species increased over the **23-h** time course. Moreover, in the presence of Ca(II), no band attributed to a disulfide-linked **S1 00A8-S1 00A8** species was detected. We reason that the different disulfide reactivity likely results from Ca(Il) induced structural changes that impact the accessibility of **(A8)C42,** which is located in the linker region between the **N-** and C-terminal EF-hands. In contrast, **(A9)C3** is fully solvent exposed. Moreover, the conversion of **S10OA9-S10OA9** species to the **S10OA8- S10OA9** species at later time points indicates that disulfide bonds involving **(A8)C42** are more stable. We also performed reactions with a **CP** variant containing a **(A9)C3S** mutation to mimic the truncated **CP** species observed in the human samples lacking **(A9)C3.** Non-reducing **SDS-PAGE** revealed no evidence for disulfide bond formation following treatment of the CP(C3S) variant with $100 \mu M H_2O_2$ (Figure 4.14). Because oxidation of **CP** in vivo is presumed to occur in the extracellular space, we further characterized CP after treatment with 100 μM H₂O₂ for 23 h in the presence of Ca(II), and we name this protein dsl-CP.

Figure 4.14. **SDS-PAGE** gel (Tris-HCI glycine, **15%** acrylamide) of **CP(C3S)** after before and after treatment with **100** ptM H202. Reaction conditions: **75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, **30** pM **CP, 1.5** mM Ca(ll), **100** pM H202, **pH 7.5, 37 OC.** The ladder was **P7712S** from New England Biolabs.

To further decipher the speciation of CP after exposure to 100 μ M H₂O₂ for 23 h in the presence of excess Ca(II), we treated dsl-CP with **TCEP** to reduce the disulfide bonds prior to mass spectrometry. The reaction product displayed the expected masses for unmodified **S100A8** and **S100A9,** and no peaks that corresponded to species containing additional oxygen atoms were found (Figure **A2.29).** This analysis indicated that **100** piM H202 is insufficient to oxidize the methionine residues of **CP** under our reaction conditions. For the **SEC** analyses, we treated aliquots of the sample from the **23-h** time point in three different ways such that the effects of Ca(ll) ions and disulfide bond formation on protein oligomerization could be assessed (Figure 4.15A). The first protein aliquot was untreated and eluted with a mobile phase that contained **1.5** mM Ca(II). The second protein aliquot

Figure 4.15. **(A) SEC** chromatograms of **30** pM **CP** after a disulfide-bond forming reaction with **100** pM H202 in the presence of **1.5** mM Ca(ll) for **23** h at **37 OC.** Prior to elution, the protein was treated with 2 mM **EDTA,** 2 mM **TCEP,** or left untreated. **A 500** tL injection loop was employed; therefore, the elution volume for a given molecular weight is different than prior **SEC** experiments. (B) Nonreducing **SDS-PAGE** of the fractions collected from the **SEC** runs. We note that the protein reduced with **TCEP** contained a detectable disulfide-linked protein, indicating that the reduction was not quantitative. The **S10A8-S1OOA9,** and **S100A9-S100A9** disulfide linked species had apparent molecular weights of **25** kDa and **30** kDa, respectively.

was treated with 2 mM **EDTA** to remove bound Ca(II) ions from the protein and eluted with a mobile phase that did not contain added Ca(II). The third protein aliquot was treated with 2 mM **TCEP** to reduce the disulfide bonds, and this sample eluted with a mobile phase that contained excess Ca(II) ions. When dsl-CP was eluted in the presence of excess Ca(l1) ions, two peaks with elution volumes of 10.2 mL **(77.5** kDa) and **11.1** mL (42.6 kDa) were observed. In the presence of **EDTA** and no Ca(II) ions added to the mobile phase, dsl-CP eluted as two major species with elution volumes of **9.8** mL (64.8 kDa) and **11.7** mL **(33.0** kDa). Reduction of dsl-CP with **TCEP** in the presence of Ca(II) caused the protein to elute as a single peak indicative of a heterotetramer **(11.1** mL, 43.8 kDa), demonstrating that the effects of disulfide bond formation could be reversed via reduction. We note that the larger oligomers observed in this experiment are within the linear range of the column; therefore, the calculated molecular weights should be reasonable estimates, indicating that the disulfide-forming reaction conditions did not produce aggregates.

SDS-PAGE analysis of the fractions obtained from **SEC** revealed that, regardless of the sample treatment, all fractions contained **S100A8** and **S100A9** subunits (Figure 4.15B), suggesting that **CP** retained native-like noncovalent heterooligomers after the formation of disulfide bonds. Moreover, all of the fractions contained the disulfide-linked **S100A8-S100A9** species, and the fractions corresponding to the relatively lowmolecular-weight peaks **(11.1** mL, 42.6 kDa, +Ca(II); **11.7** mL, **33.0** kDa, **+EDTA)** exclusively contained the disulfide-linked **S10OA8-S100A9** species. The **11.7** mL **(33.0** kDa) peak in the **+EDTA** sample was close to the apparent molecular weight of the **CP** heterodimer (34.9 kDa), and in the presence of Ca(II) in the mobile phase this species appeared to shift to an apparent molecular weight comparable to the **CP** heterotetramer (45.9 kDa). We reason that, in the absence of Ca(ll), this protein was dimeric **CP** and contained an intramolecular disulfide bond, which would explain why the **S100A8- S100A9** disulfide linkage is more prevalent in the lower molecular weight fractions. Examination of CP-Ser crystal structures revealed that the N-terminus of **S100A9** is in close proximity to **(A8)C42,** indicating that formation of an **(A9)C3-(A8)C42** "intradimer" disulfide bond is reasonable. The molecular identity of the 64.8-kDa peak in the sample that was treated with EDTA is unclear; however, a trimer of $\alpha\beta$ heterodimers or a larger oligomer are possible species. The 64.8 kDa species shifted to **77.5** kDa when Ca(lI) ions were present in the mobile phase, indicating that this species binds Ca(II) ions, causing formation of a higher-order oligomer. In conclusion, we established that (i) all species in the dsl-CP displayed Ca(ll)-induced oligomerization (ii) the major species in the dsl-CP mixture was the **CP** heterotetramer that contained at least one **(A9)C3-(A8)C42** intradimer disulfide bond, and (iii) the minor product was a molecules of **CP** that were disulfide linked.

Next, we sought to prepare and study dsl-CP species that contained oxidized methionine residues. We developed a two-step procedure to obtain these proteins. First, dsl-CP was prepared in the presence of excess Ca(ll) ions using the disulfide-bond formation reaction described above 100 μ M H₂O₂, 23 h, 37 °C). In the second step, dsl-**CP** was treated with **100** mM H202 at **37 OC** for up to **23** h. Mass spectrometry of the reaction mixture at the **7-h** time point demonstrated that **S10OA8+0, S100A9+30** and **S100A9+40** were the predominant species (Figure **A2.28). SDS-PAGE** of reaction aliquots taken at varying time points during the **23-h** reaction period revealed a gradual loss of the disulfide-linked **S100A9-S100A9** species and increase in the disulfide-linked **S100A8-S100A8** species (Figure **A2.30).** We also observed a small increase in the apparent molecular weight of all the bands after Met oxidation, which is a known phenomenon. 53 This analysis indicated the disulfide bonds were not cleaved to cysteic acid under the reaction conditions. We concluded that treating dsl-CP for **7** h with **100** mM $H₂O₂$ afforded the sufficient Met oxidation to resemble CP-Ser O₄ and CP-Ser O₅ while minimally perturbing the disulfide bonds, and we named this reaction product MetOdsl-CP.

4.4.11. dsl-CP is Protease Sensitive

We assayed the susceptibility of dsI-CP, obtained from H_2O_2 oxidation in the presence of Ca(ll) ions, to degradation **by** trypsin. We quenched reaction aliquots in the absence and presence of **TCEP** at varying time points and analyzed the mixtures **by** HPLC (Figure 4.16). At the **0** h time point, the chromatogram of the TCEP-treated sample exhibited two major peaks corresponding to **S100A8** and **S100A9,** and the peak intensities decreased over time, indicating trypsin-catalyzed degradation of each subunit (Figure 4.16B). The chromatogram of the sample that was not treated with a reductant was more complex and exhibited three major peaks along with a minor peak (Figure

Figure 4.16. Representative HPLC chromatograms of dsl-CP digested **by** trypsin. Time points were quenched in the **(A)** absence and **(B)** presence of **TCEP.** Conditions: **75** mM **HEPES, 100 mM NaCl, 1.5 mM CaCl₂, 30 μM CP, 0.45 μM trypsin, 37 °C.**

4.16A). One of the major peaks **(38.5** min) was assigned to the **S100A8** monomer, and the identities of the other two major peaks were determined **by** mass spectrometry (Figure **4.16A,** Table 4.4). The 40.0 min peak was identified as the disulfide-linked **S10OA8- S100A9** dimer and the 41.1 min peak was identified as the disulfide-linked **S100A9- S100A9** dimer. The minor peak **(39.9** min) was assigned to the **S100A9** monomer. Analysis of the samples obtained at later time points revealed several points about the trypsin susceptibility of these species: (i) that **CP** containing an intradimer disulfide bond was almost completely degraded **by** trypsin after only **1** h, (ii) the **S1 00A9-S1 00A9** dimer was almost completely degraded after **23** h, and (iii) the **CP** subunits that had not formed disulfide bonds were digested to a lesser extent than the disulfide-linked protein (Figure 4.16A). From these results, we concluded that disulfide bond formation between **CP** subunits sensitizes **CP** to proteolysis **by** trypsin, and that disulfides that involve **(A8)C42** are particularly destabilizing. We find this observation to be particularly intriguing given that disulfide bond formation typically stabilizes proteins and provides additional protection against proteolysis.

4.4.12. dsl-CP and MetO-dsl-CP are Degraded **by** Trypsin at Comparable Rates

With the knowledge methionine oxidation sensitized **CP** to proteolysis **by** weakening noncovalent oligomerization, we sought to compare the stability of dsl-CP and MetO-dsl-CP. We performed trypsin degradation assays, and at each time point, quenched samples in the absence and presence of **TCEP.** Without **TCEP** reduction, the HPLC trace of MetO-dsl-CP exhibited a broad peak, and we were unable to resolve individual species (Figure 4.17A). In contrast, treatment of the protein with **TCEP** during the quench gave rise to a chromatogram reminiscent of CP-Ser 04 and CP-Ser 05 (Figure 4.17B). We assigned the peaks at **36.5** min, **37.2** min, and **37.7** min to **S100A9+40, S100A9+30,** and **S10OA8+0 by LC-MS,** respectively. The fraction containing **S100A9+30** also contained a detectable amount of **S100A8+20.**

We anticipated that MetO-dsl-CP would be degraded more quickly than dsl-CP given our observations with CP-Ser 04 and CP-Ser 05. Trypsin hydrolyzed MetO-dsl-CP, as expected (Figure 4.17). However, comparison of the degradation of dsl-CP and MetOdsl-CP revealed that methionine oxidation did not result in a significant increase in digestion (Figure 4.17C). We also noted that rapid degradation of dsl-CP and MetO-dsl-**CP** occurred during the first hour of digestion, and then markedly slowed.

4.5. Discussion

This work demonstrates that post-translational oxidation of **CP** has structural and functional consequences. In particular, methionine oxidation and disulfide-bond formation alters the stability of **CP** to proteases. This work also highlights the complex speciation of **CP** in the biological milieu. Prior studies have considered speciation of **CP** primarily from

Figure 4.17. Representative HPLC chromatograms of MetO-dsl-CP digested **by** trypsin Time points were quenched in the **(A)** absence and (B) presence of **TCEP. (C) A** plot **of** the total area in the **-TCEP** dsl-CP and MetO-dsl-CP chromatograms for the retention windows shown as a function of digestion time. The areas were normalized to the area of the 0 h chromatograms (mean **SDM,** n=3). Conditions: **75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, **1.5 mM CaCl₂, 30 μM CP, 0.45 μM trypsin, 37 °C.**

the standpoint of the metalation,^{9,11,25,26,54} where each heterodimer unit contains six different sites for coordinating Ca(II) ions (four EF-hand domains) and two sites for transition metals (His3Asp and Hi6 sites). When one considers the potential diversity of **CP** arising from combinations of metalation and post-translational modifications, it becomes clear that the **CP** present at an infection site is likely **highly** heterogeneous.

In agreement with prior studies that reported methionine-oxidized **CP** subunits in samples from mice and humans,²⁹⁻³¹ we detected oxidized CP subunits in samples of human nasal mucus and human pus. Moreover, by using ¹⁵N-labeled CP-Ser as an internal standard to report on adventitious methionine oxidation, we obtained compelling support for the formation and relevance of methionine-oxidized **CP** in vivo. **CP** is an abundant neutrophil protein that is released into the extracellular space, and methionine oxidation of **CP** likely results from the neutrophil oxidative burst. This process occurs after neutrophil activation, and leads to production of ROS including O_2 ⁺, H₂O₂ and HOCl.³² Indeed, neutrophil activation increases methionine oxidation of neutrophil proteins and surrounding tissues, 34,55 and α ₂-proteinase is inactivated by methionine oxidation caused by neutrophil-derived ROS *in vivo.*^{33,56} Under certain circumstances, microbes may also cause oxidation of **CP** as an immune-evasion strategy. Helicobacter pylori can induce ROS generation in epithelial cells and macrophages,^{57,58} which could modify CP and result in its premature degradation.

In this study, we employed H202 to oxidize **CP** and CP-Ser because it is more selective for Met and Cys oxidation than other oxidants.⁴⁸ We recognize that the time and H202 concentrations required to oxidize **CP** in our experiments raise questions of kinetic competence in vivo. Indeed, an estimate of H_2O_2 in a neutrophil phagosome is between 1 to 4 μ M, far below the concentrations we employed to obtained oxidized CP(-Ser) species.⁵⁹ It is important to note that the primary oxidant during the neutrophil oxidative burst is **HOCI** produced **by** myeloperoxidase. Although H202 is thermodynamically a strong oxidant, it is kinetically slow with a rate constant of $6x10^{-3}$ M⁻¹s⁻¹ for oxidizing Met
to MetO.¹ In contrast, the rate constant for HOCI reacting with Met to form MetO is 3.8x10⁷ M-¹ s-1. 1 Due to the extremely fast reactivity of **HOCI** with Met, we reason that this oxidant is responsible for producing the majority of the oxidized methionine residues observed in **CP.** With the results reported here as a foundation for future work, investigations of the consequences of **HOCI** and chloramines for the structure and function of CP-Ser and **CP** are warranted.

Large-scale purification of the CP-Ser 04 and CP-Ser **05** species facilitated studies to further understand the effects of Met oxidation on **CP.** Protease susceptibility assays performed in the presence of excess Ca(II) ions revealed that both CP-Ser 04 and **CP-**Ser **05** were more rapidly degraded **by** trypsin, chymotrypsin, and proteinase K, which we attribute to the consequences of **(A9)M81** oxidation on the dimer-tetramer equilibrium. Crystal structures of the **CP** heterotetramer show that the side chain of **(A9)M81** points directly into the dimer-dimer interface (Figure **A2.23).** Thus, we expect that conversion of Met to MetO decreases the driving force for tetramerization due to the hydrophilic nature of MetO, which is considerably more hydrophilic than Met. Indeed, MetO was calculated to be approximately as hydrophilic as lysine.60 Protease resistance was rescued **by** addition of one equivalent of Mn(II) to CP-Ser 04 and CP-Ser **Os,** which coordinated to the His6 site and caused the proteins to tetramerize. Thus, the increased protease resistance conferred **by** Mn(II) binding results from the metal ion converting CP-Ser 04 and CP-Ser **05** to the tetrameric state. This assessment is based on our previously reported observations with tetramer-deficient variants of CP-Ser, which showed that binding of a metal ion to the His₆ site results in tetramerization and overcomes the consequences of single mutations at the tetramer interface that prevent Ca(Il)-induced oligomerization. 13 The protease susceptibility assays also revealed that, in the presence of excess Ca(II) ions, CP-Ser 04 and CP-Ser **05** were poor substrates for **HNE.** It is possible that the low activity of **HNE** against CP-Ser 04 and CP-Ser **Os,** as well as **CP-**Ser, reflects a selected trait of **CP. HNE** and **CP** are both released **by** neutrophils, and we

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can imagine that that resisting degradation **by HNE** allows **CP** to perform its function without being immediately degraded.

Native **CP** presents a more complex scenario because each full-length subunit contains a single cysteine residue that is susceptible to oxidation. **By** investigating the consequences of oxidative post-translational modifications to the native protein, we demonstrated that disulfide-bond formation between **CP** molecules also increased the rate of protease degradation. This effect was especially pronounced for the species containing the **S100A8-S1OOA9** disulfide linkage, but the **S100A9-S100A9** disulfidelinked protein was also degraded faster than the unmodified protein. We propose that disulfide bonds involving **S10OA8** are destabilizing because **(A8)C42** is located in the "hinge" region between the **N-** and **C-** terminal EF-hands. Considering the reduction potential of the extracellular space and the ROS generated during the neutrophil response, it is reasonable to imagine that **CP** can form disulfide bonds with other **CP** molecules as well as other cysteine-containing biomolecules. Along these lines, human S100A7 was found to form high-molecular weight disulfide-linked oligomers in wounds.⁶¹ Amino acid sequence alignment of **S10OA8** polypeptides from **36** available genomes shows that **(A8)C42** is **highly** conserved (Figure 4.18). This residue is surface exposed in human CP, which is unusual for Cys residues,⁶² it is likely surface exposed in orthologues from other mammals. Thus, it is possible that disulfide bond formation with **S100A8** enhances the protease susceptibility of **CP** in many organisms.

Although we were initially surprised that Met oxidation of dsl-CP did not impart an appreciable increase in the degradation rate, we expect that this modification can influence the lifetime of **CP** at biological sites. Ex vivo analyses of various biological samples,²⁹⁻³¹ including results of the current work, indicate that there is a significant population of **S100A9** that lacks the first **5** amino acids and thus the Cys residue at position **3.** This truncated **S100A9** species cannot form disulfides that afford enhanced protease susceptibility, and we expect that methionine oxidation may accelerate clearance of **CP** containing this truncated **S100A9** subunit.

Taken together, the investigations of **CP** and CP-Ser presented in this work afford an extension to the working model of **CP.** Previously, **CP** was thought to reside in the extracellular space as the Ca(Il)-bound tetramer, with some fraction also coordinated to one or more transition metals ions. We propose a more dynamic picture where methionine oxidation and disulfide bonds modulate the lifetime of **CP** in this milieu **by** enhancing the susceptibility of Ca(ll)-bound **CP** to proteolytic degradation. **CP** is multi-functional, and after its release, the host must attempt to balance its nutrient withholding role against its contributions to proinflammatory signaling. We hypothesize that Met oxidation helps the host achieve balance. Because the concentration of **CP** at an infection site is expected to exceed the concentration of bioavailable transition metal ions, we expect that the majority of **CP** exists in the Ca(ll)-bound state and is thus susceptible to proteolytic degradation after post-translational oxidation. We reason that recovery of protease stability after binding a metal at the His $_6$ site is advantageous for the host because it allows it prevents premature release of transition metals. This scenario would allow the host to preferentially degrade excess or "unnecessary" **CP** while preserving **CP** that is actively withholding transition metal ions. Removing **CP** is likely important for preventing it from participating in inflammatory shock and the development of autoreactive **CD8'** T **cells. ¹⁹, ² 0**

Beyond the context **CP** in the host/microbe interaction and inflammation, this work agrees with previous work on the MetO post-translational modification. Various structural consequences of methionine oxidation have been described. For instance, the presence of MetO can disrupt interactions between protein domains,^{63,64} hinder formation of noncovalent heterocomplexes, $56,65$ and destabilize protein folds. 66 In addition, the connection between MetO and accelerated proteolysis has precedence. Met oxidation of calmodulin targeted it to the proteasome in an ubiquitin-independent fashion, 67 and our work demonstrated that Met oxidation of **CP** accelerated non-targeted proteolysis. Lastly,

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the Met/MetO redox couple in the context of ROS have been considered to serve an antioxidant role.^{36,37} The hypothesis is that surface Met residues are oxidized to MetO, which can be reduced to methionine **by** Msr proteins, thereby protecting critical residues from ROS. Although we agree that Met can play an important sacrificial antioxidant function, our data and those of others also support a regulatory role for Met oxidation.^{63,68} Considering the observation that ROS enable neutrophil proteases to be active in the extracellular space by oxidizing Met to MetO,^{55,56} the necessity for ROS to form neutrophil extracellular traps,69 and our finding that MetO modification sensitizes **CP** to proteolysis argues in favor of ROS and MetO also serving as signals during the immune response.

In closing, the results presented in this work support a model where methionine oxidation and disulfide bond formation promote proteolytic degradation of **CP,** providing new molecular-level insights into the fate of **CP** after release into the extracellular space. We propose that the host uses oxidative modification of **CP** to accelerate its proteolysis. We envision that, **by** sensitizing **CP** to proteolysis, the host can dispose of **CP** in a timely manner to prevent negative outcomes from CP-mediated proinflammatory signaling.

Figure 4.18. Alignment of all protein sequences corresponding to genes annotated as **S10OA8** from the Uniprot database. Only one organism from a given genus is shown. **If** there were two sequences for a single organism, then the shorter sequence was used. The excluded and included **S10OA8** genes from the same organism had the same amino acid at position 42. This alignment demonstrates that Cys42 (shown in red) is **highly** conserved. Ord's kangaroo rat, the African elephant, and the Tasmanian devil encode Val, **Gly,** and Ile at position 42, respectively.

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Appendix **1:** Protease Activity Assays

This Appendix is adapted from Chem. Sci. **2016, 7 (3), 1962-1975.**

Figure A1.1. Effect of Mn(II) on trypsin activity. Trypsin (8.4 nM) activity was monitored **by** Na-benzoyl-L-arginine ethyl ester **(80** pM) cleavage in **75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, pH 7.5, 1.5 mM Ca(II), ±30 μM MnCl₂ at 25 °C. Averages of three trials are shown.

Figure. **A3.2.** Effect of Mn(II) on chymotrypsin activity. Activity of chymotrypsin (2 nM) was monitored **by** cleavage of N-succinyl-Ala-Ala-Pro-Phe p-nitroanilide (0.4 mM) in **75** mM HEPES, 100 mM NaCl, pH 7.5, 1% DMF, 1.5 mM CaCl₂, ±30 μM MnCl₂, at 25 °C. Averages of three experiments are shown.

Figure A1.3. Effect of Mn(II) on human neutrophil elastase **(10** nM) activity. Activity of human neutrophil elastase was monitored **by** cleavage of N-succinyl-Ala-Ala-Val-Ala **p**nitroanilide **(0.5** mM) in **75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, **pH 7.5, 5% DMSO, 1.5** mM CaC2, **30** pM MnCl2 at **25 OC.** Averages of three experiments are shown.

Figure A1.4. Effect of Mn(II) and Zn(II) on GluC **(67** nM) activity. Activity of GluC as monitored by cleavage of carboxybenzyl-Leu-Leu-Glu β-napthylamide (100 μM +Ca(II) and +Mn(II) or **60** pM +Zn(I1)) in **75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCI, **10% DMSO,** pH **7.5** with 1.5 mM CaCl₂, 30 μM MnCl₂, 60 μM ZnCl₂ (average ±SDM, n=3). The zinc conditions also contained **30** mM CP-Ser because precipitation occurred when Zn(II) was added to solutions of substrate.

Appendix 2: Additional Characterization of **CP** Variants and Oxidized Species

A portion of this material is adapted from Chem. Sci. **2016, 7 (3), 1962-1975.**

A2.1. Additional Characterization for Chapter 2

Figure A2.1. SDS-PAGE (15% acrylamide Tris-HCI, glycine gels) visualized with Coomassie Blue of purified CP-Ser, 160K, **160E,** and **ASHKE** variants. The ladder is **P7702S** from New England Biolabs.

Figure **A2.2.** Circular dichroism spectra of CP-Ser and variants **(10** piM) in **1** mM Tris-**HCI, 0.5 EDTA,** ± 2 **mM CaCl₂, pH 8.5 at 25 °C.**

Figure A2.3. Competition between ZP1 (1 μ M) and CP (4 μ M) for Mn(II) in the presence of 200 pM Ca(II) at **pH 7.5** (mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCI) and **25 OC** (mean **SDM,** n=3). Excitation was provided at 490 nm, and the emission spectra were integrated from **500** to **650** nm and normalized with respect to apo ZP1 emission.

Figure A2.4. Competition between ZP1 (1 μ M) and CP (4 μ M) for 3.5 μ M Mn(II) in the presence of increasing concentrations of Ca(II) at **pH 7.5** (mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl) and 25 \degree C (mean \pm SDM, $n=3$). Excitation was provided at 490 nm, and the emission spectra were integrated from **500** to **650** nm and normalized with respect to apo ZP1 emission.

Figure **A2.5.** Size-exclusion chromatography of CP-Ser, 160K, and **160E (30** pM). Black traces, no metal added. Red traces, 600 μ M Ca(II) included in the sample and running buffer. Green traces, 300 μM Mn(II) included in the sample only. Blue traces, 600 μM Ca(II) included in the sample and running buffer, and $33 \mu M$ Mn(II) included in the sample only. The black, red and blue traces correspond to the data in Figure **2.2A. All** chromatograms were normalized to a maximum absorption of **1.** Experiments were performed in **75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, **pH 7.5** at 4 **OC.** The dashed trace represents data from an experiment performed with **500** pM 160K in **75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, **pH 7.5, 10 mM CaCl₂.**

Figure **A2.6.** Size-exclusion chromatography of CP-Ser, 160K, and **160E (30** pM). Black traces, no metal added. Red traces, $600 \mu M$ Ca(II) included in the sample and running buffer. Green traces, 300 μM Fe(II) included in the sample only. Blue traces, 600 μM Ca(II) included in the sample and running buffer, and $30 \mu M$ Fe(II) included in the sample only. The black and red traces correspond to the data in Figure 2.2B. **All** chromatograms were normalized to a maximum absorption of **1.** Experiments were performed in **75** mM **HEPES, 100 mM NaCl, pH 7.5 at 4 °C.**

Figure A2.7. Normalized sedimentation coefficient distributions of CP-Ser, 160K, and **160E (27.5** pM) obtained with the c(s) model in **SEDFIT.** Buffer: **75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, ±540 μM CaCl₂, ±27.5 μM MnCl₂, pH 7.5 at 20 °C. For apo CP-Ser, 1.35 mM EDTA was included and no metals were added.

Figure **A2.8.** Full HPLC chromatograms of trypsin (0.45 [M) digestions of CP-Ser, **160E,** and 160K **(30** pM) in **75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, **1.5** mM CaCI2, **30** pM MnCI2, **pH 7.5** performed at **37 OC.** These chromatograms correspond to the data presented in Figure **2.5.**

Figure A2.9. Susceptibility of Ca(ll)-bound CP-Ser, **160E** and 160K to degradation **by** chymotrypsin **(0.3** pM). **(A)** Representative full HPLC traces illustrating the **S100A8** and **S100A9** subunits following incubation with chymotrypsin for 0-4 h at **37 OC.** Digestions were carried out in 75 mM HEPES, 100 mM NaCl, pH 7.5, 1.5 mM CaCl₂, ±30 μM MnCl₂. (B) **S100A8** and **S10OA9** integrated peak areas as a function of time in the presence of Ca(ll) (mean **SDM,** n=3). **(C) S10OA8** and **S10OA9** integrated peak areas as a function of time in the presence of Ca(II) and Mn(II) (mean \pm SDM, $n=3$). The area for each t=0 peak was normalized to **1.**

Figure. **A2.10.** Full HPLC chromatograms of human neutrophil elastase **(0.3 pM)** digestions of CP-Ser, 160K, **160E (30 pM)** in **75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, **1.5** mM CaC2, **±30 μM MnCl₂, pH 7.5 performed at 37 °C. These chromatograms correspond to the data** presented in Figure **2.6.**

Figure A2.11. Antibacterial activity of CP-Ser, 160K, and 160E against *E. coli* ATCC 25922 in the presence of ≈2 mM CaCl₂ in the AMA medium. The OD₆₀₀ values were recorded at $t = 20$ h (mean $t = n=9$).

Figure **A2.12.** HPLC chromatograms **(10-60%** B over **50** min, **1** mL/min) of proteins employed in the antibacterial activity assays evaluating the effect of pre-incubation with trypsin. The proteins (210 µM) were incubated at 37 °C in 20 mM Tris, 100 mM NaCl, 3 mM CaCl₂, pH 7.5, ±0.45 µM trypsin for ≈20 h prior to the antimicrobial activity assays. The HPLC traces were acquired following the \approx 20 h incubation. The data for the antimicrobial activity assays are presented in Figure **2.6.**

Figure A2.13. Full HPLC chromatograms of GluC **(0.3** pM) digestions of CP-Ser, 160K, **160E (30** pM) in **75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, **1.5** mM CaC2, **30** ptM MnC2, **pH 7.5.** A digestion of CP-Ser with 60 μ M ZnCl₂ is also shown. All experiments were performed at **37 OC.** These chromatograms correspond to the data presented in Figure **2.7.**

Figure A2.14. Size-exclusion chromatography of CP-Ser and **ASHKE (30** pM) performed with no metal added (black trace) and 600 μ M Ca(II) included in the sample and running buffer (red trace). The chromatograms were normalized to a maximum absorption of **1.** Experiments were performed in **75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, **pH 7.5** at 4 **0C.**

A2.2. Additional Characterization for Chapter 3

Figure A2.15. SDS-PAGE (15% acrylamide Tris-HCI, glycine) of representative protein purifications of 160K with a single subunit uniformly **15N-** or **13C, 15N-,** or 2H, **13C 15N**labeled. **1, [15N]-A8-160K;** 2, **[1 5N]-A9-160K; 3, [13C,1 5N]-A8-160K;** 4, **[¹³C,' 5N]-A9-160K; 5, [15N]-A9-l60K(H103A); 6, [15N]-A9-160K(H105A); 7, [2H, 13C,1 5N]-A8-160K; 8, [2H, ¹³C, 15N]- A9-160K; 9, [1 5N]-A9-160K(PI07A); 10, [1 5N]-A9-160K(P114A).** The ladder was **P7702S** or **P7712S** from New England Biolabs.

Figure. A2.16. SDS-PAGE (15% acrylamide Tris-HCI, glycine) of representative protein purifications of 160K with a single subunit uniformly **13C-, 15N-,** and random fractional deuteration. **1**, $[1H/2H, 13C, 15N]$ -A8-I60K; **2**, $[1H/2H, 13C, 15N]$ -A9-I60K. The ladder was **P7712S** from New England Biolabs.

Figure. A2.17. SDS-PAGE (15% acrylamide Tris-HCI, glycine) of 160K with either the S100A8 or S100A9 subunit selectively ¹⁵N labeled. **1**, [¹⁵N(Phe)]-A8-I60K; **2**, [¹⁵N(Leu)]-A8-160K; 3, [¹⁵N(Ile)]-A8-160K; 4, [¹⁵N(Val)]-A8-160K; 5, [¹⁵N(Val)]-A9-160K; 6, [¹⁵N(Ile)]-A9-160K; **7**, $[^{15}N(Phe)]$ -A9-160K; **8**, $[^{15}N(Leu)]$ -A9-160K. The ladder was P7712S from New England Biolabs.

Figure. A2.18. SDS-PAGE (15% acrylamide Tris-HCI, glycine) of CP-Ser with a single subunit uniformly ¹⁵N labeled. **1**, [¹⁵N]-A8-CP-Ser and **2**, [¹⁵N]-A9-CP-Ser. The ladder was **P7712S** from New England Biolabs.

Figure A2.19. Analytical size exclusion chromatography of 500 μ M CP-Ser or I60K in the absence (black traces) or presence (red traces) of **10** mM Ca(II) in the running buffer. Conditions: **75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, **10** mM Ca(ll), **pH 7.5,** 4 **0C.** Each chromatogram was normalized to a maximum value of **1.**

A2.3. Additional Characterization for Chapter 4

Figure. **A2.20. SDS-PAGE (15%** acrylamide Tris-HCI, glycine gels) visualized with Coomassie Blue of **CP** variants used in this study. The ladder is **P7712S** from New England Biolabs.

Figure **A2.21.** Circular dichroism spectra of Met to Ala variants and oxidized CP-Ser. **(A)** CP-Ser(A9-M63A). (B) CP-Ser(A9-M81A). **(C)** CP-Ser(A9-M83A). **(D)** CP-Ser 04. **(E) CP-**Ser O₅. Conditions: 10 μM protein, 300 μL, 1 mM Tris, ±2 mM CaCl₂, pH 8.5, 25 °C.

Figure A2.22. Representative deconvoluted mass spectra of **(A)** CP-Ser 04 and (B) **CP-** Ser **05** after purification.

Figure A2.23. Crystal structure of the Ca(Il)-, Na(l)- and Mn(Il)-bound CP-Ser heterotetramer with all Met residues shown as sticks (PDB: 4XJK). The surface of one dimer unit is shown with **S1OOA8** in green and **S1OOA9** in blue. Both subunits of the other dimer are shown in silver with secondary structure depicted. The yellow spheres are Ca(ll) ions, the purple spheres are Na(I) ions, and the pink sphere is a Mn(ll) ion. The only Met residue at the dimer-dimer interface is **(A9)M81.** The N-terminus of **A9** is disordered in this structure, and **(A9)M1** is cleaved during overexpression, and thus not observed in this structure.

Figure A2.24. Anion exchange chromatography of the S100A9(C3S) homodimer, CP-Ser, CP-Ser O₄, and CP-Ser O₅. Conditions: 20 mM HEPES, 100 μ M protein, pH 8.0. Mobile phase A: 20 mM HEPES, pH 8.0. Mobile phase B: 20 m

Figure **A2.25.** Digestions of CP-Ser, CP-Ser 04 and CP-Ser 05 **by** chymotrypsin. **(A)** Digestions in the presence of Ca(Il). (B) Digestions in the presence of Ca(II) and Mn(II). Conditions: **75** M **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, **30** pM **CP, 1.5** mM Ca(II), **30** pM Mn(II), **1 pLM** chymotrypsin, **pH 7.5, 37 0C.**

Figure **A2.26.** Digestions of CP-Ser, CP-Ser 04 and CP-Ser 05 **by** proteinase K. **(A)** Digestions in the presence of Ca(II). (B) Digestions in the presence of Ca(II) and Mn(II). Conditions: **75** M **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, **30** pM **CP, 1.5** mM Ca(II), **30** pM Mn(II), **1 ptM** proteinase K, **pH 7.5, 37 OC.**

Figure **A2.27.** Digestions of CP-Ser, CP-Ser 04 and CP-Ser **05 by HNE. (A)** Digestions in the presence of Ca(II) (reproduced Figure **4.11).** (B) Digestions in the presence of Ca(II) and Mn(II). Conditions: **75** M **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, **30** pM **CP, 1.5** mM Ca(II), **30** piM Mn(II), **1** pM **HNE, pH 7.5, 37 C.**

Figure **A2.28.** Plots of peak area from HPLC chromatograms of **HNE** digestions in the presence of Ca(ll). The areas were normalized to the values obtained from the **0** h chromatograms (mean **SDM,** n=3). Conditions: **75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, **1.5** mM CaCl2, **pH 7.5, 30** pM **CP, 1** iM **HNE** at **37 C.**

Figure A2.29. Mass spectra data from oxidation of wild-type **CP. (A)** Deconvoluted mass spectrum of dsl-CP. (B) Deconvoluted mass spectrum of MetO-dsl-CP **(C)** Table of theoretical and representative observed masses of oxidized **CP.** dsl-CP conditions: **75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, **30** tM **CP, 1.5** mM Ca(II), **100** piM H202, **pH 7.5, 37 oC, 23** h. MetO-dsl-CP conditions: **75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, **30** pM **CP, 1.5** mM Ca(II), **100** mM H202, **pH 7.5, 37 oC, 7** h. Prior to mass spectrometry analysis, the protein was combined with an equal volume of **75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, 20 mM **TCEP, pH 7.5** and incubated for **10** min at ambient temperature.

Figure A2.30. SDS-PAGE gel (Tris-HCI glycine, **15%** acrylamide) of **30** pM dsl-CP Conditions: **75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, **30** pM dsl-CP, **1.5** mM Ca(II), **pH 7.5, 37 OC,** 100 mM H_2O_2 . Prior to this experiment, CP was treated with 100 μ M H_2O_2 in the same buffer for **23** h at **37 oC.** The u.t. (untreated) lane contained **CP** that was on the benchtop for 46 h at **37 oC** in the assay buffer without H202. The gel was visualized with Coomassie Blue. The ladder is **P7712S** from New England Biolabs.

Appendix **3:** Additional Spectra and Parameters for NMR Spectroscopy

Experiment	Labeling	T [K]	B_0 [T]	B_0 [MHz]	ns	d1 [s]	t,	sw ₁ [Hz]	O_1 [Hz]	t ₂	$sw2$ [Hz]	$O2$ [Hz]	t_{3}	$sw3$ [Hz]	O_3 [Hz]
$[1H, 15N]$ -HSQC	$U-[15N]$	298	14.1	600.5	48	1.5	2048	9615.385	2823.70	512	1694.915	7179.72			
$[^1$ H, 15 N]-HSQC	$[15N]$ -lle	298	14.1	600.5	16	1.0	2048	9615.385	2852.09	135	1936.535	6997.47	\blacksquare		
$[^1H, ^15N]$ -HSQC	$[15N]-Val$	298	14.1	600.5	16	\cdot	2048	9615.385	2818.00	164	1694.915	7179.72			
$[^1$ H, 15 N]-HSQC	$115Nl-Phe$	298	14.1	600.5	128	2.0	2048	9615.385	2825.00	248	1694.915	7179.72			$\overline{}$
$[1H, 15N]$ -TROSY	$U-[2H, 13C, 15N]$	298	21.1	900.1	64	.0	1512	12626.263	4233.15	256	3283.725	10762.05	$\overline{}$		

Table A3.1. NMR acquisition parameters for **A8-160K**

Table A3.2. NMR processing parameters for **A8-160K**

Experiment	Labeling	SI.	WDW ₁	$LB1$ [Hz]	GB ₁	SSB ₁	SI ₂	WDW ₂	LB ₂ [Hz]	GB ₂	SSB ₁	SI ₃	WDW ₃	$LB3$ [Hz]	GB ₃	SSB ₃
$[^1H, ^15N]$ -HSQC	$U-I^{15}N1$	8192	GM	-5.0	0.05	$\overline{}$	1024	GM	-5.0	0.03						$\overline{}$
$[^1$ H, 15 N]-HSQC	$[15N]$ -lle	4096	GM	-20.0	0.03	$\overline{}$	512	QSINE	$\overline{}$	$\overline{}$	3.5				$\overline{}$	\sim
$[^1$ H, 15 N]-HSQC	[¹⁵ N]-Val	4096	GM	-10.0	0.03	$\overline{}$	1024	QSINE	\blacksquare		3.5				$\overline{}$	\bullet
[¹ H, ¹⁵ N]-HSQC	$115N$ l-Phe	4096	GM	-10.0	0.03	\blacksquare	1024	QSINE	\blacksquare	\sim	3.5				$\,$	$\overline{}$
$[^1H, ^15N]$ -TROSY	$U-[{}^{2}H, {}^{13}C, {}^{15}N]$	4096	QSINE	\bullet	$\overline{}$	3.5	512	QSINE	$\overline{}$	\sim	3.5				$\overline{}$	\bullet

Experiment	Labeling	T [K]	B_0 [T]	B_0 [MHz]	ns	d1 [s]	t.	$sw1$ [Hz]	O_1 [Hz]	t_{2}	$sw2$ [Hz]	$o2$ [Hz]	t_{3}	$sw3$ [Hz]	O_3 [Hz]
$[1H, 15N]$ -HSQC	$U-[15N]$	298	14.1	600.5	80	.5	2048	9615.385	2822.70	512	1694.915	7179.72			
$[^1$ H, 15 N]-HSQC	$[^{15}N]$ -lle	298	14.1	600.5	32	1.0	2048	9615.385	2852.09	142	1936.535	6997.47			
$[^1$ H, 15 N]-HSQC	$[15N]$ -Leu	298	14.1	600.5	64	1.0	2048	9615.385	2818.00	86	1694.915	7179.72			
$[^1$ H, 15 N]-HSQC	$[^{15}N]$ -Val	298	14.1	600.5	32	1.0	2048	9615.385	2818.00	102	1694.915	7179.72			
$[^1$ H, 15 N]-HSQC	$[15N]$ -Phe	298	14.1	600.5	256	1.0	2048	9615.385	2825.00	128	1694.915	7179.72			
$[^1$ H, 15 N]-TROSY	$U-[{}^{2}H, {}^{13}C, {}^{15}N]$	298	21.1	900.1	64	1.0	1512	12626.263	4233.15	208	2375.297	10762.05	$\overline{}$		
$[1H, 15N, 13C]$ -HNCACB	$U-[2H, 13C, 15N]$	298	21.1	900.1	64	1.5	2048	15243.902	4233.20	64	2375.297	10762.05	66	13513.514	9279.30
$[^1$ H, 15 N]-T ₂ -HSQC	$U-[15N]$	298	21.1	900.1	32	1.5	2048	12626.263	4231.12	128	2827.650	10716.45	10		
$[^1H, ^15N]$ -T ₁ -HSQC	$U-[15N]$	298	21.1	900.1	32	$1.5 -$	2048	12626.263	4231.12	128	2827.650	10716.45	10		
$[1H, 15N]$ -hetNOE	$U-[15N]$	298	21.1	900.1	16	5.0	2048	14423.077	4231.12	512	2832.868	10716.45	\bullet		

Table A3.3. NMR acquisition parameters A8-160K+Ca(II)

Experiment	Labeling	SI ₁	WDW ₁	$LB1$ [Hz]	GB ₁	SS B_1	SI ₂	WDW ₂	$LB2$ [Hz]	GB ₂	SSB ₁	SI ₃	WDW ₃	$LB3$ [Hz]	GB ₃	SSB ₃
$[1H, 15N]$ -HSQC	$U-[15N]$	8192	GM	-5.0	0.05	\blacksquare	1024	GM	-5.0	0.03						
$[1H, 15N]$ -HSQC	$[15N]$ -lle	4096	GM	-20.0	0.03	\blacksquare	512	QSINE	٠		3.5					
$[^1H, ^15N]$ -HSQC	$[^{15}N]$ -Leu	4096	GM	-2.0	0.03	\blacksquare	1024	QSINE			3					
$[^1H, ^15N]$ -HSQC	$[^{15}N]-Val$	4096	GM	-10.0	0.03	\sim	1024	QSINE			3.5					
$[1H, 15N]$ -HSQC	$[15N]$ -Phe	4096	GM	-10.0	0.03	\blacksquare	1024	QSINE	\overline{a}	\sim	3.5					
[¹ H, ¹⁵ N]-TROSY	$U-[{}^{2}H, {}^{13}C, {}^{15}N]$	4096	QSINE	$\hat{}$	\sim	3.5	512	QSINE			3.5					
$[1H, 15N, 13C]$ -HNCACB	$U-[{}^{2}H, {}^{13}C, {}^{15}N]$	4096	QSINE		\sim	3.0	256	QSINE			3.0	256	QSINE			3.0
$[^1H, ^15N]$ -T ₂ -HSQC	$U-[15N]$	4096	QSINE		\sim	3.0	1024	QSINE			3.0					
$[^1H, ^15N]$ -T ₁ -HSQC	$U-[15N]$	4096	QSINE	\bullet	$\overline{}$	3.0	1024	QSINE			3.0					
$[1H, 15N]$ -hetNOE	$U-[15N]$	4096	QSINE	$\overline{}$	$\overline{}$	3.0	1024	QSINE			3.0					

Table A3.4. NMR processing parameters for A8-160K+Ca(II)

Variant	Ca(II)	Experiment	Labeling	T [K]	B_{o} [T]	B_0 [MHz]	ns	d1 [s]	t.	$sw1$ [Hz]	O_1 [Hz]	t2	$sw2$ [Hz]	$o2$ [Hz]
A9(H103A)	$\overline{}$	$\overline{[1H, 15N]}.$ HSQC	$U-[15N]$	298	13.9	590.9	32	1.0	8192	10000.000	2836.17	1024	2394.6	7184.64
A9(H103A)	$\ddot{}$	$[^1$ H, 15 N]-HSQC	$U-[15N]$	298	13.9	590.9	32	1.0	8192	10000.000	2836.17	1024	2394.6	7184.64
A9(H105A)	$\tilde{}$	$[^1$ H, 15 N]-HSQC	$U-[15N]$	298	13.9	590.9	32	1.0	8192	10000.000	2836.17	512	2155.2	7184.64
A9(H105A)	$\ddot{}$	$[^1H, ^15N]$ -HSQC	$U-[15N]$	298	13.9	590.9	32	1.0	8192	10000.000	2836.17	512	2155.2	7184.64
A9(P107A)	$\tilde{}$	[¹ H, ¹⁵ N]-HSQC	$U-[15N]$	298	14.1	600.5	16	.5	2048	9615.385	2824.00	184	1936.674	7179.72
A9(P107A)	$\ddot{}$	$[^1$ H, 15 N]-HSQC	$U-[15N]$	298	14.1	600.5	32	1.5	2048	9615.385	2824.00	195	1936.674	7179.72
A9(P114A)	\bullet	$[1H, 15N]$ -HSQC	$U-[15N]$	298	14.1	600.5	8	. . 5	2048	9615.385	2823.70	180	2129.830	7179.72
A9(P114A)	$\ddot{}$	$[^1$ H, 15 N]-HSQC	$U-[15N]$	298	14.1	600.5	16	.5	2048	9615.385	2823.70	512	2129.830	7179.72

Table A3.5. NMR acquisition parameters for variant proteins

Table A3.6. NMR processing parameters for variant proteins

Table A3.7. NMR acquisition parameters for CP-Ser
Variant Ca(II) Experiment Labeling T[K] B₀[T] **Variant Ca(II) Experiment Labeling T [K] Bo** [T] **Bo [MHz] ns dl [s] t1 Sw1 [Hz] O1 [Hz] t2 sw 2 [Hz] 02 [Hz]** CP-Ser **A8** - **[¹ H**,¹⁵N]-HSQC **N]-HSQC U-[15N] 298 13.9 600.5 32 1.5** 2048 **9615.385 2825.20 512 1694.915 7179.72** $CP-$ Ser A8 $+$ $[{}^{1}H, {}^{15}N]$ -HSQC **1H, 15N]-HSQC U-[15N] 298 13.9 600.5 80 1.5** 2048 **9615.385 2825.20 80 1694.915 7179.72** CP-Ser **A9** - **[¹ H, 15N]-HSQC U-[15 N] 298 13.9 600.5 32 1.5** 2048 **9615.385 2825.20** 444 **1886.792 7179.72** CP-Ser **A9 + [¹ H, 15N]-HSQC U-['6 N] 298 13.9 600.5 32 1.5** 2048 **9615.385 2825.00 512 1886.792 7179.72**

Table A3.8. NMR processing parameters for CP-Ser

Variant	Ca(II)	\sim Experiment	Labeling	SI ₁	WDW ₁	$LB1$ [Hz]	GB ₁	SSB.	SI ₂	WDW ₂	$LB2$ [Hz]	GB,	SSB ₁
CP-Ser A8	\sim	[1H,15N]-HSQC	U-[¹⁵ N]	8192	GM	-5.0	0.05	\bullet	1024	GM	-5.0	0.03	$\overline{}$
CP-Ser A8	$\ddot{}$	['H,' ⁵ N]-HSQC_	$U-[$ ¹⁵ N]	8192	GM	-5.0	0.05	$\overline{}$	1024	GM	-5.0	0.03	
CP-Ser A9	$\overline{}$	$[^1$ H, 15 N]-HSQC	$U-[^{15}N]$	8192	GM	-5.0	0.05	$\overline{}$	1024	GM	-5.0	0.03	
CP-Ser A9	$\ddot{}$	$[1H, 15N]$ -HSQC	U-[¹⁵ N]	8192	GM	-10.0	0.05	\sim	1024	GM	-10.0	0.03	

Res	Res	N	H	CA	CВ
Num	<u>Type</u>				
$\mathbf 1$	M				
$\mathbf{2}$	L			51.597	39.969
\mathfrak{S}	\top	114.646	9.924	58.156	67.522
$\overline{\mathbf{4}}$	$\mathsf E$	119.132	8.837	56.56	25.377
$\sqrt{5}$	L	120.885	8.482	54.819	38.083
6	E	119.073	7.698	56.037	27.576
$\overline{7}$	$\sf K$	117.76	8.768	57.108	29.163
8	$\boldsymbol{\mathsf{A}}$	122.083	7.752	52.152	14.848
9	L				
10	$\overline{\mathsf{N}}$				
11	$\mathbf S$				
12					
13					
14	D				
15	\vee				
$16\,$	Y				
17	$\boldsymbol{\mathsf{H}}$				
18	$\sf K$				
19	Y				
20	$\mathbf S$				
21	L				
22					
23	$\sf K$				
24	G				
25	${\sf N}$				
26	$\mathsf F$				
27	$\boldsymbol{\mathsf{H}}$				
28	A				
29	V				
$30\,$	Y				
31	$\mathsf R$				
32	D				
33	D				
34	L				
35	K				
36	K				
37	L				
38	L				
39	E				
40	T				

A3.9. Chemical shifts (ppm) of assigned A8-160K-Ca(II) resonances Table

Res	Res	N	H	CA	CB
Num	Type				
1	M				26.997
$\overline{2}$	L	123.777	8.072	51.885	39.307
3	Τ	114.177	9.35	57.695	67.094
4	E	119.749	8.848	56.883	25.253
5	L	121.76	8.816	55.073	37.785
6	E	119.464	7.542	56.128	26.708
7	Κ	116.352	8.674	56.988	29.159
8	A	124.405	7.962	52.249	14.441
9	L	117.057	7.768	54.891	35.055
10	N	116.929	8.014	52.01	34.134
11	$\mathsf S$	117.407	8.29	56.733	58.638
12		122.856	7.751	63.528	33.949
13		118.509	7.091	62.607	34.283
14	D	119.87	7.443	54.791	37.748
15	V	120.206	8.591	63.873	27.57
16	Y	118.497	7.477	59.371	34.934
17	Н	114.913	8.136	54.987	26.097
18	Κ				
19	Y				
20	$\mathbb S$	113.845	7.187	55.072	61.335
21	L	122.562	8.917	51.307	41.24
22		122.83	8.233	58.014	34.901
23	Κ				
24	G				
25	N			50.3	35.512
26	F	119.189	7.877	53.677	37.807
27	H			53.041	28.927
28	A	123.987	8.6	48.737	19.307
29	٧	117.983	7.672	58.2	29.889
30	Υ	127.803	9.356	55.029	34.67
31	R	122.301	8.59	58.623	26.064
32	D	117.561	8.997	54.287	36.651
33	D	120.232	7.29	53.826	38.408
34	L	121.26	8.541	53.916	36.961
35	Κ	118.841	7.707	57.523	28.415
36	Κ				
37	L				
38	L				
39	Ε			56.094	26.113
40	Τ	112.17	7.678	62.144	67.151

Table **A3.10.** Chemical shifts (ppm) of assigned A8-160K+Ca(II) resonances

Res Number	Res Type	N	H	CO	CA	CB
$\mathbf 1$	M					
\overline{c}	T					
3	$\mathbb S$					
4	Κ					
5	M			173.601	52.629	31.598
6	$\mathbb S$	121.302	9.428	171.482	54.16	62.212
$\overline{7}$	Q	120.784	8.982	175.178	56.5	25.144
8	L	118.974	8.933	175.829	55.752	37.784
9	E	116.008	7.469	176.941	56.002	25.956
10	${\sf R}$	119.384	8.435	176.261	56.221	26.389
11	N	118.708	8.546	174.534	53.49	35.88
12		120.688	8.518	175.236	61.484	33.184
13	E	119.855	8.13	175.526	57.019	25.738
14	Τ	115.827	8.391	174.706	63.59	65.023
15		122.946	7.747	174.694	63.307	33.992
16		118.646	8.348	176.102	63.41	35.218
17	N	115.195	8.906	174.613	52.385	34.91
18	Τ	117.003	8.112	172.207	64.279	65.441
19	$\mathsf F$	119.109	7.134	173.995	58.757	35.52
20	Н	116.221	7.877	175.008	56.596	26.323
21	Q	117.124	8.935	176.357	56.098	24.822
22	Y	119.283	8.48	174.273	56.198	34.423
23	$\mathbb S$	112.284	7.39	172.921	58.795	
24	V	122.337	7.666	177.585	63.23	28.108
25	Κ	123.29	8.205	175.625	55.974	28.063
26	Г	115.424	7.144	174.11	51.569	38.638
27	G	104.996	7.671	171.263	42.111	
28	H	111.607	7.593		48.728	24.336
29	P			173.536	60.95	28.44
30	D	115.027	9.077	171.824	53.469	36.534
31	Τ	109.468	7.936	169.822	57.938	68.613
32	L	120.178	8.362	171.76	52.245	42.946
33	N	120.409	9.242	173.739	47.612	36.635
34	Q	117.566	8.297	175.324	59.133	24.055
35	G	109.873	9.743	174.847	43.861	
36	E	122.67	8.72	177.615	55.462	26.253
37	F	119.976	8.857	173.022	58.364	36.215
38	Κ	119.22	8.716	174.697	56.966	28.371
39	E	114.755	7.345	176.278	55.6	25.837
40	L	119.533	7.524	176.625	54.878	37.221

Table A3.11. Chemical shifts (ppm) of assigned A9-160K-Ca(Il) resonances

Res Num	R ₂ (Hz)	R ₂ err	R1 (Hz)	R1err	hetNOE	err	S ₂	errS2	Te (ns)	errTe	Kex (Hz)	errKex	S _{2f}	errS2f
$\mathbf 1$														
$\overline{2}$	4.88	0.16	0.93	0.04	0.26	0.03	0.22	0.01	0.73	0.02			0.62	0.03
$\mathbf{3}$	27.26	0.83	0.50	0.02	0.78	0.08	0.95	0.02						
4	28.69	0.21	0.53	0.01	0.88	0.09	0.98	0.01						
5	28.61	0.19	0.48	0.01	0.86	0.09	0.93	0.02			1.89	0.48		
6	28.11	0.62	0.47	0.01	0.96	0.10	095	0.02						
7	30.18	0.44	0.48	0.01	0.96	0.10	0.94	0.03			2.36	0.91		
8	28.89	0.26	0.50	0.01	0.88	0.09	0.99	0.01						
9	29.79	0.58	0.48	0.01	0.89	0.09	0.93	0.02			2.94	0.73		
10	30.30	0.72	0.47	0.02	0.95	0.09	0.93	0.04			3.30	1.32		
11	32.27	0.29	0.47	0.02	0.84	0.08	0.92	0.03			5.30	0.94		
12	29.27	0.45	0.49	0.02	0.87	0.09	1.00	0.01						
13	32.23	0.42	0.49	0.01	0.94	0.09	0.96	0.02			4.61	0.78		
14														
15	29.17	0.83	0.48	0.02	0.93	0.09	0.97	0.02						
16	30.73	0.78	0.49	0.02	0.95	0.09	0.95	0.04			3.72	1.48		
17			0.55	0.06										
18														
19														
20														
21														
22			0.64	0.04	0.69	0.07								
23														
24														
25														
26	45.77	2.20	0.70	0.04	0.70	0.07	0.88	0.03	0.87	1.92	20.23	2.20		
27														
28			0.46	0.06	0.91	0.09								

analysis parameters for A8-160K+Ca(l1) **P9 R) R4** Table **A3.13.** Model-free

Table A3.14. Model-free analysis parameters for A9-I60K-Ca(II)

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Res Num	R ₂ (Hz)	R _{2err}	R ₁ (Hz)	R _{1err}	hetNOE	err	S ₂	errS2	Te (ns)	errTe	Kex (Hz)	errKex S2f		errS2f
$\mathbf 1$														
\overline{c}														
$\ensuremath{\mathsf{3}}$														
4														
$\sqrt{5}$														
6			0.71	0.27										
$\overline{7}$	25.18	2.13	0.57	0.04	0.71	0.07	0.94	0.04	1.36	4.39			0.80	0.06
8	27.83	2.33	0.50	0.03	0.85	0.08	0.84	0.04						
9	21.72	2.87	0.54	0.05	0.85	0.09	0.78	0.06						
10	24.89	1.51	0.55	0.02	0.93	0.09	0.84	0.07	23.57	10.50			0.81	0.04
11	25.97	1.05	0.50	0.03	0.78	0.08	0.80	0.03						
12														
13	28.76	0.43	0.63	0.02	0.77	0.08	0.95	0.03	1.75	6.73			0.91	0.02
14	28.78	0.95	0.49	0.02	0.79	0.08	0.85	0.02						
15	29.43	0.67	0.52	0.01	0.83	0.08	0.88	0.01						
16	30.33	1.75	0.55	0.02	1.03	0.10	0.92	0.02						
17	32.52	1.17	0.54	0.03	0.84	0.08	0.96	0.03						
18			0.59	0.01	0.70	0.07							0.88	0.05
19	27.69	1.99	0.57	0.04	0.98	0.10	0.89	0.07	23.57	10.68				
20	35.40	3.66	0.50	0.03	0.86	0.09	0.87	0.04						
21	34.57	1.47	0.54	0.02	0.83	0.08	0.96	0.02						
22	33.11	1.47	0.50	0.02	0.88	0.09	0.85	0.03			4.75	1.66	0.77	0.02
23	24.92	0.83	0.51	0.02	0.78	0.08	0.97	0.03	1.78	9.49				
24	35.56	1.75	0.54	0.02	0.83	0.08	0.89	0.03			6.77	1.85		
25	29.46	1.03	0.55	0.02	0.78	0.08	0.66	0.12	7.04	8.19	37.26	5.30		
26	32.79	1.70	0.52	0.03	0.91	0.09	0.93	0.04						
27	29.83	0.78	0.57	0.03	0.89	0.09	0.91	0.02						
28			0.57	0.02	0.90	0.09								

Table A3.15. Model-free analysis parameters for A9-160K+Ca(li)

Figure A3.1. Calculated molecular weight based on the T₁/T₂ ratio for ¹⁵N-A8-I60K in the presence of Ca(II) and **15N-A9-160K** in the absence and presence of Ca(ll).

Figure **A3.2.** ["H-15N]-HSQCs of **A8-160K** with selective **15N** labeling (colored) overlaid onto a **['H-15N]-HSQC** from a uniformly labeled sample (black) in the absence of Ca(II). Note the twin $W54N⁶¹$ peaks.

Figure **A3.3.** [1H- 15N]-HSQCs of **A8-160K** with selective **15N** labeling (colored) overlaid onto a **[1H-15N]-HSQC** from a uniformly labeled sample (black) in the presence of Ca(II).

Figure A3.4. [1H- 15N]-HSQCs of **A9-160K** with selective **15N** labeling (colored) overlaid onto a [¹H-¹⁵N]-HSQC from a uniformly labeled sample (black) in the absence of Ca(II).

Figure **A3.5.** [1H- 15N]-HSQCs of **A9-160K** with selective **15N** labeling (colored) overlaid onto a [¹H-¹⁵N]-HSQC from a uniformly labeled sample (black) in the presence of Ca(II).

Figure **A3.6.** [1H- 15N]-HSQCs of **[1 5N]-A9-160K** (black), **[1 5N]-A9-160K(H 1 03A)** (blue), and **[15N]-A9-160K(H105A)** (orange) absence of Ca(II).

Figure **A3.7.** ["H- 15N]-HSQCs of **[1 5N]-A9-160K** (black), **[15N]-A9-160K(H103A)** (blue), and **[1 5N]-A9-160K(H105A)** (orange) presence of Ca(l I).

Figure A3.8. [¹H-¹⁵N]-HSQCs of [¹⁵N]-A9-I60K (black), [¹⁵N]-A9-I60K(P107A) (orange), and **[1 5N]-A9-160K(P1** 14A) (red) in the absence of Ca(II).

Figure A3.9. [¹H-¹⁵N]-HSQCs of [¹⁵N]-A9-I60K (black), [¹⁵N]-A9-I60K(P107A) (orange), and [¹⁵N]-A9-I60K(P114A) (red) in the presence of Ca(II).

Figure **A3.10.** Relaxation and model-free analysis of **A8-160K** in the presence of Ca(Il).

Appendix 4: Several Dimer-Dimer Interface Variants of **CP** Exhibit Ca(II)-Induced Tetramerization

A4.1. Introduction

In the course of our work to discover tetramer-deficient variants of human **CP,** we tested several variant proteins that did not display the desired oligomeric properties. These variants have charged or polar residues in place of native hydrophobic residues at or near the tetramer interface. In this Appendix, we report the methods used to generate the plasmids encoding these variants, **SDS-PAGE** (Figure A4.1), and **SEC** chromatograms (Figures A4.2-A4.5). For a small subset of proteins, we also report velocity **AUC** (Figure A4.6). The **160S,** 173R, **173S** variants are all single mutants of the **S10OA8** subunit in CP-Ser. The CP-Ser(E57A)(173R) and CP-Ser(E57K)(173R) variants are double mutants of the **S100A8** subunit of CP-Ser because unpublished diffraction data obtained **by** Dr. T. Nakashige in collaboration with the Drennan laboratory indicated that there was a hydrogen bond between **(A8)E57** and **(A8)R73,** which may have assisted in tetramerization in the presence of Ca(II) and Mn(II). The W88R variant is a single mutant of the **S100A9** subunit of CP-Ser. The CP-Ser(AHb) and CP-Ser(AHb)(Q69A) variants have many hydrophobic to hydrophilic mutations in the **S100A8** subunit of **CP-**Ser along the tetramer interface. The specific mutations are detailed below. We chose **(A8)Q69** for mutation because it appears to make a hydrogen bond between the dimers of the tetramer. Most of these variants did not display any perturbations to Ca(li)- or Mn(Il)-induced tetramerization. The 173R variant was found to dynamically interconvert between the heterodimer and heterotetramer states **by** ultracentrifugation, and the **160S** variant displayed incomplete tetramerization as determined **by SEC.**

A4.2. Generation of DNA for Variant Proteins

A modified Quick-Change site-directed mutagenesis protocol was employed to generate plasmids encoding **S100A8(C42S)(160S), S10OA8(C42S)(E57A)(173R),**

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S100A8(C42S)(E57K)(173R), and **S100A9(C3S)(W88R).** The template plasmids and primers are listed in Table **2.3.** PCR amplification was carried out using PfuTurbo **DNA** polymerase. For the 160K and **160E** variants, the PCR protocol was: **95 OC** for **30** sec, **55 OC** for **1** min, **68 OC** for **15** min, **(25** cycles), and 4 **OC** hold. After PCR amplification, the template **DNA** was digested **by** Dpnl (New England Biolabs) **by** adding **1** tL of the restriction enzyme to a **25-pL** PCR reaction at **0** h and **1.5** h with incubation at **37 OC.** The digestion products were transformed into chemically competent **E.** coli TOP10 cells. Overnight cultures **(5** mL, **50** pg/mL kanamycin) were grown from single colonies. The plasmids were isolated using a miniprep kit (Qiagen). The presence of the mutations and fidelity of the protein coding sequences were verified **by DNA** sequencing (Quintara Biosciences).

For the **AHb** and **AHb(Q69A)** variants, genes encoding **S1 00A8(160S)(173S)(V80T)(176S)** and **S1 00A8(160S)(173S)(V80T)(176S)(Q69A),** respectively, were employed. The **DNA** for these variants was ordered from **DNA** 2.0 with Ndel and Xhol restriction sites flanking the gene sequence. The gene was excised from the amplification plasmid using Ndel and Xhol enzymes, and then ligated into the Ndel and Xhol sites of pET41a vectors using T4 ligase. After expression, these **S100A8** variants were paired with **S100A9(C3S).**

E.coli optimized nucleotide sequence for SI00A8(AHb):

CATATGCTGACCGAACTGGAGAAAGCTCTGAATAGCATCATTGACGTGTATCACAA GTACAGCTTGATTAAGGGTAACTTCCACGCGGTCTACCGTGATGACCTGAAAAAGT TGCTGGAAACGGAGAGCCCGCAGTATATCCGCAAGAAAGGCGCGGATGTGTGGTT TAAAGAACTGGACAGCAATACCGATGGCGCCGTTAACTTTCAAGAGTTCCTGAGCC TGGTTAGCAAGATGGGTACCGCAGCGCATAAGAAATCCCACGAAGAGTCTCATAA AGAGTAACTCGAG

Translated sequence for S100A8(AHb):

MLTELEKALNSIIDVYHKYSLIKGNFHAVYRDDLKKLLETESPQYIRKKGADVWFKELD **SNTDGAVNFQEFLSLVSKMGTAAHKKSHEESHKE**

E.coli optimized nucleotide sequence for **S10A8(AHb)(Q69A):**

CATATGCTGACCGAGCTGGAGAAAGCGCTGAACAGCATCATTGACGTCTACCACA AGTACAGCTTGATTAAGGGCAATTTCCACGCCGTGTATCGTGACGATTTGAAAAAG CTGCTGGAAACCGAGAGCCCGCAGTATATCCGCAAGAAAGGTGCGGACGTTTGGT TCAAAGAACTGGATTCCAATACGGATGGCGCGGTTAACTTTGCCGAGTTTCTGAGC CTGGTGTCTAAGATGGGTACCGCAGCTCATAAGAAAAGCCATGAAGAGAGCCACA AAGAGTAACTCGAG

Translated sequence for **S10OA8(AHb)(Q69A):**

MLTELEKALNSIIDVYHKYSLIKGNFHAVYRDDLKKLLETESPQYIRKKGADVWFKELDS **NTDGAVNFAEFLSLVSKMGTAAHKKSHEESHKE**

Table A4.1. Primers employed for site-directed mutagenesis.

ons containing mutations are underlined and colored red. The genes had been ligated into the Ndel and Xhol restriction sites of pET41a plasmids for over expression.

A4.3. Analytical Size-Exclusion Chromatography

An AKTA purifier (GE Lifesciences) housed in a 4 ^oC cold room and outfitted with a 100-µL sample loop was used to perform all analytical size exclusion chromatography **(SEC)** experiments.1 **A** Superdex **75 10/300 GL** column **(GE** Lifesciences) equilibrated in running buffer was calibrated with a low-molecular-weight calibration mixture **(GE** Lifesciences) as described previously.' The protein of interest was thawed at room temperature and buffer exchanged from the storage buffer into the running buffer using a filter (0.5-mL, 10-kDa MWCO, Amicon), and the protein concentration was adjusted to **30** uM, unless noted otherwise, by diluting with the running buffer. For the experiments with Ca(II), 600 μ M CaCl₂ was included in the running buffer and protein sample. For experiments with Mn(II), 300 μ M MnCl₂ was added to the sample only. For experiments with both Ca(II) and Mn(II), the running buffer and sample contained 600 μ M CaCl₂ and 33 μ M MnCl₂ was included in the sample only. Samples were incubated for 15 min at 4 **OC** after adding metals and then centrifuged at **13 000** rpm for **10** min. The entire volume of each sample (30 μ M protein, 300 μ L) was loaded onto the 100- μ L sample loop. The loop was emptied with **0.5** mL of running buffer, and the protein was eluted over one column volume at a flow rate of 0.5 mL/min at 4 °C.

Figure A4.1. SDS-PAGE analysis of proteins in this Appendix. (1) I73R, (2) I73S, (3) CP- $\text{Ser}(\Delta \text{Hb})$, (4) CP-Ser($\Delta \text{Hb})$ (Q69A), (5) I60S, (6) CP-Ser(E57A)(I73R), (7) CP-Ser(E57K)(173R), **(8) CP-**Ser(W88R).

Figure A4.2. Analytical **SEC** of CP-Ser(160S) and CP-Ser(173R). The mutations are in the **S1 00A8** subunit. The dashed vertical lines represent the elution volumes of the dimer $(\alpha\beta)$ and Ca(II)-tetramer $(\alpha_2\beta_2)$. (A) Comparison of CP-Ser and CP-Ser(160S) chromatograms. (B) Comparison of CP-Ser and CP-Ser(173R) chromatograms. Conditions: **75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, **pH** 7.5, 4 **OC, 30** pM **CP, 600** ptM CaC2, **300** μM MnCl₂.

Figure A4.3. Analytical **SEC** of CP-Ser(E57A)(173R) and CP-Ser(E57K)(173R). The mutations are in the **S10OA8** subunit. The dashed vertical lines represent the elution volumes of the dimer $(\alpha\beta)$ and Ca(II)-tetramer $(\alpha_2\beta_2)$. (A) Comparison of CP-Ser and CP-Ser(E57A)(173R) chromatograms. (B) Comparison of CP-Ser and 173R chromatograms. Conditions for CP-Ser: 75 mM HEPES , 100 mM NaCl , $pH 7.5$, $30 \mu M CP$, $\pm 600 \mu M CaCl₂$, **33** pM MnC2. Conditions for CP-Ser(E57A)(173R) and CP-Ser(E57K)(173R): **75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, **pH** 7.5, 4 **OC, 100** pM **CP,** 2 mM CaC2, **110** pM MnC2. Note: The variants with mutation of **(A8)E57** did not give a reliable signal when the experiment was performed with 30 μ M protein.

Figure A4.4. Analytical **SEC** of CP-Ser(AHb) and CP-Ser(AHb)(Q69A). The **AHb** notation represents the following mutations of **S100A8: (160S)(173S)(V80T)(176S).** The **Q69A** mutation is also on **S10OA8.** The dashed vertical lines represent the elution volumes of the dimer $(\alpha\beta)$ and Ca(II)-tetramer $(\alpha_2\beta_2)$. (A) Comparison of CP-Ser and CP-Ser(ΔHb) chromatograms. (B) Comparison of CP-Ser and CP-Ser($\triangle Hb$)(Q69A) chromatograms. Conditions: **75** mM **HEPES, 100** mM NaCl, **pH 7.5,** 4 **OC, 30** pM **CP, 600** pM CaC2, **33** μM MnCl₂.

Figure A4.5. Analytical **SEC** of CP-Ser(W88R) compared to CP-Ser. The mutation is in the **S100A9** subunit. The dashed vertical lines represent the elution volumes of the dimer $(\alpha\beta)$ and Ca(II)-tetramer $(\alpha_2\beta_2)$. Conditions: 75 mM HEPES, 100 mM NaCl, pH 7.5, 4 °C, **30 pM CP, +600** pM CaC2, **33** pM MnC2.

Figure A4.6. Sedimentation velocity **AUC** analysis of CP-Ser, 173R, and **173S.** The mutations were in the S100A8 subunit. The data were fit with SEDFIT. The dashed vertical lines represent the sedimentation coefficients of the dimer $(\alpha\beta)$ and Ca(II)tetramer (α ₂ β ₂). Conditions: 75 mM HEPES, 100 mM NaCl, pH 7.5, 27 μ M CP, ±30 μ M EDTA, ±540 μ M CaCl₂, 20 °C, 42000 rpm. More complete experimental details can be found in section **2.2.6.** The theoretical S-values **(S20,w)** are 2.1 **S** and **3.7 S** for the dimer and tetramer, respectively.

A4.5. References

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Biographical Note

Jules Stephan was born to Drs. Rabie and Eugena Stephan in Buffalo, New York. He attended high school at The Nichols School where he graduated as a member of the National Cum Laude Society. He attended The University of Chicago for his undergraduate education where he earned B. **S.** degrees in Biological Chemistry with honors and Chemistry. He trained under Professor Stephen B. H. Kent where he participated in research on anti-freeze proteins, ice-nucleation peptides, and methods to use triflic acid for deprotection after Boc-solid-phase-peptide synthesis. Jules was named an Institute of Biophysical Dynamics fellow for his research in the Kent laboratory. After graduation, he pursued a Ph.D. at Massachusetts Institute of Technology where he worked in the laboratory of Professor Elizabeth M. Nolan. During graduate school, he studied the interplay between oligomerization, Ca(II) binding, and the biological fate of a human innate immune protein named calprotectin.

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