The interaction of $CK2\alpha$ and $CK2\beta$, the subunits of protein kinase CK2, requires $CK2\beta$ in a pre-formed conformation and is enthalpically driven

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Abstract

(former name: "casein kinase 2") The protein kinase CK2 predominantly occurs as a heterotetrameric holoenzyme composed of two catalytic chains $(CK2\alpha)$ and two non-catalytic subunits (CK2 β). The CK2 β subunits form a stable dimer to which the CK2 α monomers are attached independently. In contrast to the cyclins in the case of the cyclin-dependent kinases $CK2\beta$ is no on-switch $CK2\alpha$: rather the formation of the CK2 holoenzyme accompanied with an overall change of the enzyme's profile including a modulation of the substrate specifity, an increase of the thermostability and an allocation of docking sites for membranes and other proteins. In this study we used C-terminal deletion variants of human CK2α and CK2 β that enzymologically fully competent and in particular able to form a heterotetrameric holoenzyme. With differential calorimetry (DSC) we confirmed the strong thermostabilization effect of $\text{CK2}\alpha$ on $\text{CK2}\beta$ with an upshift of the $\text{CK2}\alpha$ melting temperature of than nine degrees. Using isothermal more titration calorimetry (ITC) we measured a dissociation constant of 12.6 nM. This high affinity between $CK2\alpha$ and $CK2\beta$ is mainly caused by enthalpic rather than entropic contributions. Finally, we determined a crystal structure of the CK2 β construct to 2.8 Å resolution and revealed by structural comparisons with the CK2 holoenzyme structure that the CK2\$ conformation is largely upon association with $CK2\alpha$ whereas the undergoes significant structural adaptions of its backbone.

Keywords

protein kinase CK2; casein kinase 2; catalytic subunit CK2 α ; regulatory subunit CK2 β ; x-ray crystallography; isothermal titration and differential scanning calorimetry; thermostabilization of CK2 α by CK2 β ; binding affinity between CK2 α and CK2 β

Protein-protein interactions are fundamental for protein function. They increasingly attract attention as potential targets for small molecules in chemical biology and pharmaceutical chemistry (Wells and McClendon 2007), as subjects for bioinformatic and statistical analyses (Jones and Thornton 1996) or as a challenge for theoretical prediction (Lensink et al. 2007).

The Ser/Thr protein kinase CK2 (former name: "casein kinase 2") provides a prime example of a physiologically relevant protein/protein interaction. In vertebrates predominantly occurs as a heterotetrameric holoenzyme, i.e. as a complex of two catalytic subunits ($CK2\alpha$) attached to a stable central dimer of two non-catalytic subunits $(CK2\beta)$ (Niefind et al. 2001). $CK2\alpha$ is a close relative of the cyclindependent kinases and the MAP kinases. It is catalytically active already as a monomer, but the association with $CK2\beta$ significantly changes its enzymological properties, e.g. its substrate specificity (Pinna 2003), its ability to dock to membranes (Sarrouilhe et al. 1998) or even to penetrate them (Rodriquez et al. 2008). Moreover, $CK2\alpha$ independent roles for CK2β have been suggested (Bibby and Litchfield 2005; Bolanos-Garcia et al. 2006). However, the recruitment of $CK2\alpha$ for the CK2 holoenzyme complex is so far the only validated function. Therefore, the lack of the modulatory impact of $CK2\beta$ on $CK2\alpha$ may be the reason for the non-viability of $CK2\beta$ knockout mice (Buchou et al. 2003). To test this hypothesis and to reveal more details of the physiological role of the $CK2\alpha/CK2\beta$

interaction small molecule antagonists of $\text{CK2}\beta$ are desirable.

First attempts to develop such substances have been published recently (Raaf et al. 2008; Laudet et al. 2007). These efforts can be supported by structural and biophysical insights about the $CK2\alpha/CK2\beta$ interaction. Therefore, we present here the first unbound 3D-structure of a $CK2\beta$ construct that is fully capable of $CK2\alpha$ recruitment and we quantify its affinity to $CK2\alpha$ thermodynamically. This structure supplements existing structures of unbound human $CK2\alpha$ (Ermakova et al. 2003; Raaf et al. 2008; Niefind et al. 2007) and of the "bound case", i.e. the human $CK2\alpha$ holoenzyme (Niefind et al. 2001); thus, it allows a comprehensive view on the conformational changes that occur at the $CK2\alpha/CK2\beta$ interface upon association.

Results and Discussion

Thermodynamic background

For our analysis we used $hs\text{CK2}\beta^{1-193}$, a C-terminally truncated mutant of human CK2 β , in order to avoid aggregation problems as reported for the 215 amino acids long wildtype protein (Chantalat et al. 1999b). $Hs\text{CK2}\beta^{1-193}$ was among a set of 21 CK2 β mutants characterized by Boldyreff et al. (1993). This study demonstrated that the ability of CK2 β to bind CK2 α critically depends on the C-terminal segment: while $hs\text{CK2}\beta^{1-180}$ retained this competence only to a significantly reduced amount, $hs\text{CK2}\beta^{1-193}$ was the shortest construct to be similarly

functional as the wildtype. In other words: the $CK2\,\beta$ segment from Asn181 to His193 is a key region for the formation of the CK2 holoenzyme.

We confirmed these results as far as they refer to $hs\text{CK2}\beta^{1-193}$ with micro-calorimetric methods. First we used differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) to determine the melting temperatures of $hs\text{CK2}\beta^{1-193}$, of $hs\text{CK2}\alpha^{1-335}$ — a fully active C-terminal deletion mutant of human CK2 α (Ermakova et al., 2003) — and of a tetrameric complex of both. The resulting temperature scans (Fig. 1A) demonstrate that the melting point of $hs\text{CK2}\beta^{1-193}$ changes only marginally by complex formation while that of $hs\text{CK2}\alpha^{1-335}$ increases from 45.6 °C to 54.7 °C. This strong thermostabilizing impact of $hs\text{CK2}\beta^{1-193}$ on $hs\text{CK2}\alpha^{1-335}$ is fully consistent with former results obtained with the wildtype proteins using circular dicroism spectroscopy (Issinger et al. 1991) and it demonstrates a high affinity between both proteins.

To quantify this affinity we used isothermal titration calorimetry (ITC) (Fig. 1B). Assuming that a $hs\text{CK2}\beta^{1\text{-}193}$ dimer possesses two equivalent binding sites for $hs\text{CK2}\alpha^{1\text{-}335}$ we determined a dissociation constant of 12.6 nM at 35 °C. This value falls in a range typically reported for transient heterocomplexes (Nooren and Thornton 2003). It is in the same order of magnitude as the K_D value of 5.4 nM measured for the interaction of full-length CK2 β with a CK2 α /gluthation-Stransferase fusion protein using surface plasmon resonance

(Martel et al. 2002). This equivalence demonstrates that the final 22 amino acids of human CK2 β contribute only marginally to the affinity to CK2 α .

Remarkably the association of hsCK2 α^{1-335} and hsCK2 β^{1-193} is strongly exothermic. The standard free enthalpy ΔG° for the complex formation amounts to -46.6 kJ/mole and stems exclusively from the enthalpic term ($\Delta H^{\circ} = -49.0 \text{ kJ/mole}$) while the entropic contribution $(-T*\Delta S^{\circ} = +2.4 \text{ kJ/mole})$ slightly disfavours the binding (Fig. 1B). This result is surprising since according to the CK2 holoenzyme structure (Niefind et al. 2001) the critical patch on the $\text{CK2}\alpha$ surface - which is located at the outer surface of the β -sheet typical for the N-terminal domain of eukaryotic protein kinases (indicated in Fig. 2A) - is characterized by a cluster of hydrophobic side chains (Fig. 1C). Therefore, one would expect the formation of hydrophobic interactions between the subunits, a release of ordered water molecules and correspondingly a significantly positive entropic term.

A structural comparison of bound and unbound human CK2 α suggests a possible explanation of this paradox. In all unbound structures (Ermakova et al. 2003; Raaf et al. 2008; Niefind et al. 2007) the just mentioned surface patch is not directly accessible for CK2 β ; rather the neighbouring $\beta 4\beta 5$ -loop occurs in a closed and CK2 β incompatible conformation (see two representative examples in Fig. 1C). In this state the hydrophobic patch is reduced to a cavity that at best can harbour flat-shaped small molecules (Raaf et al. 2008). As a

consequence unbound human $CK2\alpha$ cannot release a major amount of ordered water molecules during $CK2\beta$ association.

Only when CK2 β binds, the $\beta 4\beta 5$ -loop adopts an open conformation as it is found in the case of human $CK2\alpha$ so far exclusively in both $CK2\alpha$ chains of the CK2 holoenzyme (Niefind et al. 2001) (Fig. 1C). Possibly this open state of human $\text{CK2}\alpha$ is energetically more relaxed than the unbound one with the closed $\beta 4\beta 5$ -loop, meaning that the conformational change of $CK2\alpha$ is a potential source of the heat released upon complex formation (Fig. 1B). This notion is currently speculative but it fits conspicuously to the observation that $\text{CK2}\alpha$ from Zeamays has an open $\beta 4\beta 5$ -loop in nearly all of its crystal structures (Niefind et al. 1998) and simultaneously a significantly higher tendency to exist in vivo in a monomeric (unbound) state than its orthologs from higher animals (Dobrowolska et al. 1992). Further structures together with site-directed mutagenesis and ITC data are required to decide whether the $\beta 4\beta 5$ -loop really plays a key role in the context of the CK2 holoenzyme formation.

Crystal structure of $hsCK2\beta^{1-193}$

Does $CK2\beta$ - similar to $CK2\alpha$ - change its conformation at the interface region upon CK2 holoenzyme formation? So far this question could not be answered since for $CK2\beta$ no true unbound case structure existed. Rather the only available structures of free $CK2\beta$ dimers (Chantalat et al. 1999a; Bertrand et al. 2004) were obtained with C-terminal deletion mutants without

the aforementioned key region from Asn181 to His193 so that they miss the ability to form a CK2 holoenzyme. To close this gap we crystallized hsCK2 β^{1-193} and determined its structure to 2.8 A resolution (Tab. 1).

The asymmetric unit of the crystals contains two $hs\text{CK2}\,\beta^{1-193}$ chains that are arranged as a dimer via a zinc-stabilized interface as described for the first time for human $\text{CK2}\,\beta^{1-182}$ (Chantalat et al. 1999a) (Fig. 2A). Similar to previously published CK2 β structures (Chantalat et al. 1999a; Bertrand et al. 2004) the N-terminal segment (residues Met1 to Glu5) and parts of the so-called "acidic loop" (Fig. 2A; residues Glu60 to Asp64) are flexible and undefined by electron density.

Like $CK2\alpha$ -bound $CK2\beta$ within the CK2 holoenzyme (Niefind et al. 2001), each $CK2\beta$ monomer consists of a " $CK2\beta$ body" (Glu6-Ala180) composed of two folding domains and a " $CK2\beta$ tail" (remaining C-terminal segment) (Fig. 2A). This tail is well defined by electron density up to the C-terminus of the construct (His193; Fig. 2B). The $CK2\beta$ tail of each monomer makes no contact to its own $CK2\beta$ body; rather it crosses the dimer interface and is closely attached to the body of the second chain (Fig. 2A). Together with helix αF (and some smaller parts) of that body it forms the surface patch that can recruit a $CK2\alpha$ chain (Fig. 2A).

A remarkable detail of the $hs\text{CK2}\beta^{1-193}$ structure are two sulfate ions bound at the so-called juxta-dimer interface region (Fig. 2A) whose function as a preferred anchor for several other proteins has been predicted bioinformatically (Bolanos-Garcia et

al. 2006). Conspicuously the CK2 β dimer within the CK2 holoenzyme structure (Niefind et al. 2001) contains phosphate ions at very similar locations (Fig. 2C). Finally in the CK2 β^{2-182} structure published by Bertrand et al. (2004) one of a total of four CK2 β^{2-182} dimers per asymmetric unit uses the equivalent positively charged surface patch to coordinate acidic side chains from a crystallographic neighbour (Fig. 2C). This coincidence reveals an anion binding capability of the juxta-dimer interface region that may in fact be utilized by some of the many interaction partners of CK2 β (Bibby and Litchfield 2005).

The CK2 β conformation is pre-formed for CK2 holoenzyme formation To check the adaptability of CK2 β at the interface region to CK2 α we fitted the hsCK2 β^{1-193} dimer structure on the CK2 β dimer of the CK2 holoenzyme. For this purpose we used the LSQ_improve subroutine of the program O (Jones et al. 1993) which optimizes an initial least-squares fit of equivalent C_{α} -atoms by iterative inclusion of more residues. The result of this fit was an RMS deviation of 1.1 Å for 361 C_{α} atoms which are 98.6 % of the ordered residues. The only deviations occur in the flexible acidic loop regions while the tail zones from Asn181 to His193 match well to each other as well as the helices αF which also contribute to CK2 α binding.

These results together with the structural overlay in Fig. 2B demonstrate the pre-formed character of the CK2 β dimers which contrasts strongly with the aforementioned adaptability of CK2 α in the contact region (Fig. 1C). At least up to Ile192 (Fig. 2B)

no significant backbone adaptations occur in $CK2\beta$ as a consequence of or as a condition for $CK2\alpha$ binding. Like in the $CK2\beta$ dimer of the holoenzyme the final section of $hsCK2\beta^{1-193}$ forms a small two-stranded antiparallel β -sheet (β -strands 4 and 5) with Tyr188 at the tip of the connecting loop (Fig. 2A/B); however, due to the higher resolution the β -strand geometry is better defined here than in the CK2 holoenzyme structure.

The only distinct conformational changes in that region refer to the C-terminal His193 and to the side chain of Phe190 (Fig. 2B). In the case of His193 this is probably a crystal packing artefact since this residue additionally has different (but well defined) conformations in the two $hsCK2\beta^{1-193}$ monomers. Phe190, however, is known as one of the "hot spots" of the $CK2\alpha/CK2\beta$ interaction from the CK2 holoenzyme structure (Niefind et al. 2001) and from a recent kinetic and site-directed mutagenesis study (Laudet et al. 2007). This crucial role of Phe190 fits nicely to the change of its side chain rotamere after $CK2\alpha$ attachment illustrated in Fig. 2B.

Taken together, while CK2 α undergoes large conformational changes in the contact region upon docking, the critical part of CK2 β is pre-formed. The reduced adaptability of CK2 β ensures specificity of its interactions with CK2 α and possibly a few other protein kinases (Bibby and Litchfield 2005); moreover it increases the prospects of theoretical docking calculations with the hsCK2 β ¹⁻¹⁹³ structure and the chance to develop CK2 β antagonists of high selectivity.

Materials and Methods

Protein expression and purification

 $\mathit{Hs}\mathtt{CK2}\alpha^{1\text{--}335}$ and $\mathit{hs}\mathtt{CK2}\beta^{1\text{--}193}$ were expressed recombinantly in Escherichia coli BL21(DE3) cells. To generate the CK2 holoenzyme, mixed lysates of the bacterial cells containing the expressed hsCK2 α^{1-335} and hsCK2 β^{1-193} proteins were incubated overnight at 4°C. The three proteins - hsCK2 α^{1-335} , hsCK2 β^{1-193} and the holoenyzme $(hsCK2\alpha^{1-335})_2(hsCK2\beta^{1-193})_2$ - were purified with a two-step chromatographic procedure. The first purification step in all three cases was a phosphocellulose chromatography. The column was equilibrated with 300 mM NaCl, 25 mM Tris/HCl, pH 8.5. After protein application and washing a gradient elution was performed using 1 M NaCl, 25 mM Tris/HCl, pH 8.5, as high-salt component. The second step for hsCK2 β^{1-193} was an anion exchange chromatography with a HiTrap Sepharose Q HealthCare). The equilibration and low-salt (GE solution of the gradient was 150 mM NaCl, 25 mM Tris/HCl, pH 8.5, and the high-salt component was again 1 M NaCl, 25 mM Tris/HCl, pH 8.5. For hsCK2 α^{1-335} and the holoenzyme the second purification step was affinity chromatography with a HiTrap Heparin HP column (GE HealthCare). The equilibration and lowsalt solution of the gradient was 400 mM NaCl, 25 mM Tris/HCl, pH 8.5, and the high-salt component was 1 M NaCl, 25 mM Tris/HCl, pH 8.5. Finally the proteins were concentrated and rebuffered in 500 mM NaCl, 25 mM Tris/HCl, pH 8.5, by ultrafiltration using AMICON Ultra-15 tubes.

DSC measurements

For DSC data collection we used a VP-DSC differential scanning calorimeter. For each of the three proteins three temperature scans were performed from 20 to 80°C at a scan rate of 25°C/h. The protein concentrations varied between 64 to 96 μ M for $hsCK2\alpha^{1-335}$, between 30 and 69 μ M for $hsCK2\alpha^{1-193}$ and between 30 and 68 μ M for the holoenzyme $(hsCK2\alpha^{1-335})_2(hsCK2\beta^{1-193})_2$. In all cases the protein buffer was 500 mM NaCl, 25 mM Tris/HCl, pH 8.5. Processing of the raw data were performed with the ORIGIN software (version 7), Origin Lab, Northampton, MA, USA.

ITC measurements

All experiments were performed with a Microcal VP-ITC at 35°C. $HsCK2\beta^{1-193}$ was provided in the sample cell at concentrations between 9 and 23 μ M. $HsCK2\alpha^{1-335}$ was regarded as the "ligand"; it was present in the injection syringe at concentrations between 98 and 230 μ M. Both proteins were diluted with 500 mM NaCl, 25 mM Tris/HCl, pH 8.5, to the required concentrations and subsequently degassed. Each ITC experiment consisted of 25 injections of 10 μ l. The injections were made over a period of 20 s with a 300 s interval between subsequent injections.

The raw ITC data (Fig. 1B, upper panel) were processed with the ORIGIN software (version 7), Origin Lab, Northampton, MA, USA, assuming a binding model of a single set of two equivalent sites (meaning two $hs\text{CK2}\alpha^{1-335}$ ligands bind to one

hsCK2 β^{1-193} dimer). The final values (insert of Fig. 1B) are averages of three repetitions.

Crystallization

All crystallization experiments with $hs\text{CK2}\beta^{1\text{-}193}$ were performed at 20 °C with the vapour diffusion technique. The optimized crystallization condition was 0.17 M ammonium sulfate, 0.085 M sodium cacodylate, pH 6.3, 25.5% w/v PEG 8000 and 15% v/v glycerol for the reservoir. The crystallization drop contained 2 μl of a $hs\text{CK2}\beta^{1\text{-}193}$ solution (6.6 mg/ml) and 3 μl reservoir. The crystals were directly transferred from the mother liquor to liquid nitrogen for cryo-protection.

Diffraction data collection and structure determination

X-ray diffraction data (Tab. 2) were collected at a temperature of 100 K at the beamline X12 of the EMBL outstation in Hamburg. The wavelength was 0.9 Å. All diffraction data were processed with the HKL package (Otwinowski and Minor 1997). The structure of $hs\text{CK2}\beta^{1-193}$ was determined by molecular replacement using MOLREP (CCP4 1994) and refined with REFMAC (CCP4 1994). Manual corrections were performed with O (Jones et al. 1993). The structure was validated with PROCHECK (CCP4 1994).

Availability

The final atomic coordinates and structure factor amplitudes of $hs\text{CK2}\beta^{1-193}$ are available from the PDB (accession code 3EED).

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Figure legends

- Fig. 1: Calorimetric and structural analysis of the $\text{CK}2\alpha/\text{CK}2\beta$ interaction
- A) DSC curves of $hs\text{CK2}\alpha^{1-335}$ (red), $hs\text{CK2}\beta^{1-193}$ (blue) and the corresponding holoenzyme $[(hs\text{CK2}\alpha^{1-335})_2(hs\text{CK2}\beta^{1-193})_2]$ (black). One representative example out of three repetitions, respectively, is drawn; the indicated melting points are the corresponding average values.
- B) ITC profile of the $hs\text{CK2}\alpha^{1\text{--}335}/hs\text{CK2}\beta^{1\text{--}193}$ interaction. A representative example out of three ITC runs is documentated. The upper half shows the original heat production upon injection and the lower one the integrated and dilution corrected peaks. The final thermodynamic parameters in the insert are average values over three repetitions.
- C) The CK2 β binding region of human CK2 α . The figure is based on the structure of hsCK2 α^{1-335} in complex with 5,6-dichloro-1- β -D-ribofuranosylbenzimidazole (DRB) (2RKP; Raaf et al. 2008). After structural superimposition the $\beta4\beta5$ -loops of hsCK2 α^{1-335} in complex with sulfate ions (1PVR; Niefind et al. 2007; black colour) and of a hsCK2 α chain within the CK2 holoenzyme (1JWH; Niefind et al. 2001; blue colour) are drawn. Some hydrophobic side chains of the interface (yellow) and of the tip of the $\beta4\beta5$ -loop (grey: closed conformation; blue: open conformation) are added. The figure was prepared with BRAGI (Schomburg and Reichelt 1988).

Fig. 2: Structure of hsCK2 β^{1-193}

A) Overall ribbon presentation of the hsCK2 β^{1-193} dimer.

Each $hs\text{CK2}\beta^{1-193}$ monomer consists of a body comprising two domains (subunit A: blue/red; subunit B: green/yellow) and a C-terminal tail. The β -sheets of the N-terminal CK2 α domains of the CK2 holoenzyme structure (Niefind et al. 2001) were drawn as black C_{α} -traces after structural superimposition to indicate the location of the CK2 α /CK2 β interface. Two sulfate ions found at the juxta-dimer interface region are covered with FoFc-omit density (cutoff level 3 σ above the mean). The figure was drawn with BOBSCRIPT (Esnouf 1997) and Raster3D (Merrit and Bacon 1997).

B) Stereo picture of the C-terminal two-stranded $\beta\text{-sheet}$ $(\beta 4\beta 5)$ of a $\mathit{hs}\text{CK2}\,\beta^{1\text{-}193}$ monomer.

For reasons of clarity some side chains were left out. The $hs\text{CK2}\beta^{1-193}$ structure segment is covered by electron density drawn with a contour level of 1 σ . The purple dotted lines indicate hydrogen bonds; distances are given in Å. For comparison the backbone of the equivalent region of the CK2 holoenzyme together with some side chains are drawn in black colour. The figure was prepared with BOBSCRIPT (Esnouf 1997) and Raster3D (Merrit and Bacon 1997).

C) Stereo picture of the anion binding sites at the juxtadimer interface region.

The sites are occupied by sulfate ions in the $hs{\rm CK2}\,{\beta}^{1\text{-}193}$

structure, by phosphate ions (black) in the CK2 holoenzyme structure (Niefind et al. 2001) and by negatively charged side chains from a crystallographic neighbour (ball-and-sticks representation of reduced size) in one of four dimers per asymmetric unit of the $CK2\beta^{2-182}$ structure (Bertrand et al. 2004). The sulfate ions are covered with blue, the protein parts of $hsCK2\beta^{1-193}$ with green pieces of electron density (all taken from the final 2Fo-Fc density map and contoured with a cutoff level of 1 σ). Some hydrogen bonds to the sulfate ions are indicated by dotted lines in magenta colour. The figure was prepared with BOBSCRIPT (Esnouf 1997) and Raster3D (Merrit and Bacon 1997).

Tables

Table 1: Data collection and refinement statistics of the hsCK2 β^{1-193} crystals

Data collection	
Space group	P4 ₁ 2 ₁ 2
Cell dimensions	
a, b, c [Å]	116.46, 116.46, 76.09
α, β, γ[°]	90.0, 90.0, 90.0
Resolution [Å] (highest shell)	29.7 - 2.8 (2.9 - 2.8)
R _{sym} [%] (highest shell)	9.9 (61.8)
I / σI (highest shell)	29.9 (4.6)
Completeness [%] (highest shell)	100.0 (100.0)
Redundancy (highest shell)	13.1 (13.2)
Wilson-plot B-factor [Å ²]	71.0
Refinement	
Resolution [Å]	29.7 - 2.8
No. of reflections	13382
R _{work} / R _{free} [%]	17.2 / 21.5
No. of protomers per AU	2
Missing (disordered) residues	Met1 - Glu5, Glu60 - Asp64
No. of atoms per AU	
Protein	3000
zinc and sulfate ions	17
Water	82
Average B-Factors [Ų]	
Protein	62.0
zinc and sulfate ions	103.2
Water	45.4
R.m.s. deviations	
bond lengths [Å]	0.011
bond angles [°]	1.123







