Opposing Intermolecular Tuning of Ca\textsuperscript{2+} Affinity for Calmodulin by Neurogranin and CaMKII Peptides

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ABSTRACT We investigated the impact of bound calmodulin (CaM)-target compound structure on the affinity of calcium (Ca\textsuperscript{2+}) by integrating coarse-grained models and all-atomistic simulations with nonequilibrium physics. We focused on binding between CaM and two specific targets, Ca\textsuperscript{2+}/CaM-dependent protein kinase II (CaMKII) and neurogranin (Ng), as they both regulate CaM-dependent Ca\textsuperscript{2+} signaling pathways in neurons. It was shown experimentally that Ca\textsuperscript{2+}/CaM (holoCaM) binds to the CaMKII peptide with overwhelmingly higher affinity than Ca\textsuperscript{2+}-free CaM (apoCaM); the binding of CaMKII peptide to CaM in return increases the Ca\textsuperscript{2+} affinity for CaM. However, this reciprocal relation was not observed in the Ng peptide (Ng\textsubscript{13–49}), which binds to apoCaM or holoCaM with binding affinities of the same order of magnitude. Unlike the holoCaM-CaMKII peptide, whose structure can be determined by crystallography, the structural description of the apoCaM-Ng\textsubscript{13–49} structures by matching the changes in the chemical shifts of CaM upon Ng\textsubscript{13–49} binding from nuclear magnetic resonance experiments. Next, we computed the changes in Ca\textsuperscript{2+} affinity for CaM with and without binding targets in atomistic models using Jarzynski’s equality. We discovered the molecular underpinnings of lowered affinity of Ca\textsuperscript{2+} for CaM in the presence of Ng\textsubscript{13–49} by showing that the N-terminal acidic region of Ng peptide pries open the \beta-sheet structure between the Ca\textsuperscript{2+} binding loops particularly at C-domain of CaM, enabling Ca\textsuperscript{2+} release. In contrast, CaMKII peptide increases Ca\textsuperscript{2+} affinity for the C-domain of CaM by stabilizing the two Ca\textsuperscript{2+} binding loops. We speculate that the distinctive structural difference in the bound complexes of apoCaM-Ng\textsubscript{13–49} and holoCaM-CaMKII delineates the importance of CaM’s progressive mechanism of target binding on its Ca\textsuperscript{2+} binding affinities.

INTRODUCTION

Calcium (Ca\textsuperscript{2+}) is exquisitely used by a cell for transducing external stimuli through its gradient of extracellular (~1000 \textmu M) and intracellular (~0.1 \textmu M) concentration (1). A broad spectrum of Ca\textsuperscript{2+} signals are encoded by protein calmodulin (CaM) (2) (the structure is shown in Fig. 1\textit{a}) through specific binding with various targets regulating CaM-dependent Ca\textsuperscript{2+} signaling pathways in neurons (3). The targets enhance CaM’s affinity for Ca\textsuperscript{2+} by up to 30 times or accelerate dissociation of Ca\textsuperscript{2+} from CaM (4). Therefore, this mechanism tunes CaM’s capacity of encoding global Ca\textsuperscript{2+} signals by its differential binding affinity for Ca\textsuperscript{2+}. Among those targets, Ca\textsuperscript{2+}/CaM-dependent protein kinase II (CaMKII) (5–7) (the structure and sequence of the CaM-binding domain are shown in Fig. 1\textit{b}) and neurogranin (Ng) (8) (the sequence of the Ng\textsubscript{13–49} peptide is shown in Fig. 1\textit{c}) play an essential role in synaptic plasticity (9), which is critical to learning and memory formation shown by early behavior experiments on Ng-mutated or Ng-knocked-out mice (10,11). We summarized several experimental observations (3,7) in Fig. S1 on how CaM sensitizes downstream CaM-binding enzymes to Ca\textsuperscript{2+} regulating synaptic plasticity in memory formation: CaM activates CaMKII at high Ca\textsuperscript{2+} levels (6) while the availability of CaM is controlled by a group of postsynaptic proteins including Ng at a lower Ca\textsuperscript{2+} level (8,12).

Waxham et al. (13,14) used fluorescence experiments to show that the CaMKII kinase increases the affinity of Ca\textsuperscript{2+} for CaM while Ng significantly decreases the affinity of Ca\textsuperscript{2+} for Ca\textsuperscript{2+}-binding loop III and IV (Fig. 1\textit{a}) in C-domain of CaM (cCaM) by up to 60-fold. These experiments raised questions about the dependence of CaM’s affinity for Ca\textsuperscript{2+} ions on structural models of CaM (13,15). Recent studies by Le Novère et al. (16,17) demonstrated the alteration of Ca\textsuperscript{2+} affinity for CaM by plotting the binding affinity curves with elaborated allosteric models and fitted rates. They investigated the effect of competing targets on CaM by showing the enhancement of binding affinity in...
the presence of some targets (such as CaMKII), as well as the diminishment in the presence of other targets (such as Ng). Dieckmann et al. (18) used steady-state fluorescence and nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) experiments and found that the binding of endothelial nitric oxide synthase (eNOS) to CaM enhances CaM’s affinity for Ca$^{2+}$ while phosphorylated eNOS does not due to electrostatic repulsion. They speculated that the phosphorylation on eNOS diminished its helical propensity, possibly affecting CaM’s affinity for Ca$^{2+}$. On the other hand, the structural basis of the regulation of Ca$^{2+}$ affinity for CaM by Ng and CaMKII remains elusive.

CaM has two domains separated by a flexible central linker. Each domain consists of two helix-linker-helix motifs (marked as I–IV in Fig. 1a), which can bind a Ca$^{2+}$ ion. The flexible central linker allows adjustable CaM conformations, thus accommodates the binding of distinct CaM binding targets (CaMBTs) (19–23). In a canonical complex of Ca$^{2+}$/CaM (holoCaM) and CaMKII peptide, the two domains of holoCaM wrap around the CaMKII peptide, which forms a helical structure (24). In our previous work, by using a combined approach of coarse-grained molecular simulations and experiments, we have established the binding mechanism of holoCaM and CaMKII peptide (25,26) that follows “conformational and mutually induced fit” (27). Both holoCaM and CaMKII undergoes large conformational changes in the two-step binding mechanism.

Unlike the CaMKII peptide in complex with holoCaM, which was solved by X-ray crystallography decades ago (24), the weak binding between Ng and Ca$^{2+}$-free CaM (apoCaM) makes the determination of its three-dimensional complex structure challenging (28). Ng belongs to the IQ motif family. In this family, the CaMBTs share a common motif (IQXXXXRGXXXR), where X stands for any amino acid. Recently, Kumar et al. (29) determined the crystal structure of apoCaM and IQ motif of Ng (NgIQ), however, NgIQ was artificially covalently linked with cCaM in the bound structure. Furthermore, a previous experimental study (30) revealed that the IQ motif alone cannot represent the biophysical characteristics of the intact Ng protein. Inclusion of the acidic region in the N-terminal before the IQ motif (or NgIQ), which are largely composed of Asp or Glu residues, reproduced the Ng-mediated affinity of Ca$^{2+}$ to apoCaM, as well as the intermolecular interactions between the intact Ng and apoCaM. However, the main obstacle to investigate Ng-CaM-NgIQ binding is a lack of experimentally solved structures because of their weak binding affinity (approximately micromolar) (30). To determine the apoCaM-NgIQ complex structures, we modeled the interaction between intrinsically disordered NgIQ and apoCaM by introducing statistical dihedral angle potentials of NgIQ (31). After obtaining the appropriate coarse-grained models of apoCaM-NgIQ, we reconstructed them into all-atomistic structures (32). We noted that in comparison to the canonical complex of CaM and CaMBT that includes the two domains of CaM wrapping around a helical CaMBT, the conformation of CaM in the complexes of apoCaM-NgIQ remains extended instead. The conformations of Ng in the bound complexes are not entirely helical.

The reconstructed atomistic models of the holoCaM-NgIQ complex and the crystal structure of holoCaM-CaMKII complex (Protein Data Bank (PDB): 1CDM) allow us to develop a hypothesis that the conformation of the Ca$^{2+}$ binding loops from cCaM in a holoCaM-CaMBT complex dictates cCaM’s affinity for Ca$^{2+}$. To validate this hypothesis, we computationally applied all-atomistic steered molecular dynamics (MD) simulations of holoCaM-CaMBT (33) and used Jarzynski’s equality (JE) (34) to calculate the change in Ca$^{2+}$ binding free energy. As a reference, the same simulations were performed on a conformation of holoCaM without a CaMBT (PDB: 1CLL).

One of the challenges is the modeling of the bivalent Ca$^{2+}$ ions. It has been shown that the charge on Ca$^{2+}$ is...
< +2e due to charge transfer and polarization effects in the solution and especially in the Ca^{2+}-bound state (35–37). Moreover, Jungwirth et al. (36,38) suggested that both the size and the charge require adjustment to account for the polarization effects. Following our previous work (39), we computed the charges of calcium ions according to the protonation states of CaM by employing a semiempirical quantum chemistry program MOPAC (40). Thereby we revealed a mechanism that the presence of Ng peptide destabilizes the Ca^{2+} binding to cCaM, whereas the CaMKII peptide stabilizes the Ca^{2+} binding to cCaM. We speculate that CaM’s progressive mechanism of target binding, which yields distinctive complexes of apoCaM-Ng13–49 and holoCaM-CaMKII, modulates Ca^{2+} affinities for CaM.

**MATERIALS AND METHODS**

**Coarse-grained protein or peptide models**

We performed coarse-grained molecular simulations of the intact Ng protein as well as the binding between apoCaM and Ng13–49 peptide. Sample preparation of the intact Ng or the Ng13–49 peptide is provided in Section I of the Supporting Material. The Hamiltonian of the coarse-grained protein models including Ng protein and the apoCaM-Ng13–49 complex is described in Section II of the Supporting Material. Ca^{2+} ions are absent from the coarse-grained models. The details about the coarse-grained molecular simulations are included in Section III of the Supporting Material.

**Free energy calculation using JE**

**Preparation of the structures**

The preparation of the coordinates as initial conditions for the JE calculation is highly nontrivial for the computation of Ca^{2+} binding free energy \( \Delta G \). For both systems, we determined the accurate protonation states by using H++ server (41) according to the protein conformation, pH, and the ionic strength of the solution. We then assigned the partial charges based on the geometry of the proteins by using a semiempirical quantum chemistry program MOPAC (40). We applied those protonated protein structures and partial charges for minimization and further procedures to carry out all-atomistic calculations of the Ca^{2+} binding free energy (find the details in Section IV of the Supporting Material). For holoCaM and holoCaM-CaMKII, which have experimentally determined structures, we fixed the heavy atoms during the preparation; for holoCaM-Ng, we constrained the atoms with harmonic potentials for the preparation of the structures (holoCaM: calcium-bound calmodulin).

\( \text{holoCaM-CaMKII} \) and \( \text{holoCaM} \). We fixed the positions of Ca^{2+} atoms and backbone heavy atoms from holoCaM (PDB: 1CLL) or holoCaM-CaMKII (PDB: 1CDM) during the minimization, solvation, ionization, and the equilibration procedures (see Section IV of the Supporting Material for details).

\( \text{holoCaM-Ng13–49} \). Since there is no experimentally determined structure, we reconstructed the all-atomistic structures from the selected coarse-grained side-chain-Ca models of apoCaM-Ng13–49 using SCAAL method (32) (see Section IV.1 of the Supporting Material for the criteria of selecting apoCaM-Ng13–49 models). We estimated the position of each Ca^{2+} ion as the center of mass of the side chains of the corresponding Ca^{2+}-coordinating residues from the four Ca^{2+} binding loops. We inserted the Ca^{2+} ions into these positions as an initial condition for the next minimization process with the all-atomic AMBER99SB-ILDN force field to define their final positions. During the minimization, only the backbone heavy atoms (excluding Ca^{2+}) of the holoCaM-Ng13–49 were constrained.

It was then followed by solvation of TIP3P water molecules and ionization of Na^+/Cl^- ions, which required another round of energy minimization and equilibration. The backbone heavy atoms and the Ca^{2+} ions were constrained (but not fixed) for the holoCaM-Ng13–49 complexes. After preparation, the positions of the Ca^{2+} ions were robust and did not drift away because 1) there were ~5–7 oxygen atoms from the side chains in the loop within 4 Å of each Ca^{2+} ion; 2) our calculation showed that the average stability of the Ca^{2+} ions at binding site III and IV is \( \Delta G = -16.0 \) and \(-12.8 \text{ kcal/mol} \), respectively.

**Pulling simulations and computation of the free energy differences**

We performed all-atomistic steered molecular dynamics (MD) simulations (see Sections IV.3 and IV.4 in the Supporting Material for the procedures and details of the steered MD simulations) to calculate the Ca^{2+} binding free energy (\( \Delta G \)) using JE (34). JE relates \( \Delta G \) and the irreversible work along an ensemble of non-equilibrium trajectories pulling the Ca^{2+} from the bound state to the unbound state (Equation S10). The nonequilibrium trajectories (number \( M = 100–150 \)) were generated by steered MD simulations with all-atomistic models. The difference in the Ca^{2+} binding free energy \( \Delta G \) between holoCaM-CaMBT (CaMBT: calmodulin binding targets) and CaM is defined as \( \Delta G = \Delta G_{\text{holoCaM-CaMBT}} - \Delta G_{\text{holoCaM}} \). \( \Delta G \) allows us to evaluate the influence of different CaMBTs on Ca^{2+} binding to CaM, where \( \Delta G_{\text{holoCaM-CaMBT}} \) and \( \Delta G_{\text{holoCaM}} \) were estimated from independent simulations of pulling Ca^{2+} from the holoCaM-CaMBT and the holoCaM, respectively.

**Analyses: calculation of “apparent chemical shifts”**

In the NMR experimental work by Hoffman et al. (30), a semiquantitative comparison of amide chemical shifts were presented for residues in apoCaM (calmodulin without calcium ions) that are affected by binding of Ng13–49. In the NMR spectroscopy, the chemical shift is the relative resonant frequency in the local induced magnetic field and is diagnostic of the molecular structure. A threshold was applied to generate a set of Boolean numbers, with “1” representing a significant change in the chemical shifts and “0” indicating no change. We refer to the Boolean series as “apparent chemical shifts” throughout this study. Berjanskii and Wishart (42) showed that the inverse absolute chemical shifts roughly correlates with root mean square fluctuations (RMSF), which reflects the flexibility of the structure. Therefore, to compare with the change of chemical shifts from unbound to bound apoCaM in the experiment, we approximated the amide chemical shifts by the inverse of RMSF of Ca heavy beads and defined “apparent chemical shifts” as \( \Delta = \Theta (\text{RMSF}_{\text{bound}}/\text{RMSF}_{\text{bound}} - \tau) \). \( \tau = 50\% \) was used. \( \Delta \) measures the change of local flexibility of the apoCaM; larger values of \( \Delta \) indicate stabilization of the corresponding residue upon binding with Ng13–49.

**RESULTS**

**Building weakly bound apoCaM-Ng13–49 complexes in coarse-grained models**

Because of the lack of experimentally determined apoCaM-Ng13–49 complex structures, we used low-resolution information on the bound complex of apoCaM-Ng13–49 from NMR measurements (30) for building plausible models from coarse-grained molecular simulations. The NMR experiments showed the change in the backbone chemical shifts of apoCaM upon Ng13–49 binding (Fig. 2 a). It revealed the residual information on the structural changes...
of apoCaM upon binding with N\textsubscript{g13-49} (30), but did not guarantee a direct contact between apoCaM and N\textsubscript{g13-49}. The experiment showed that the major structural changes occur in cCaM as well as Helices B and C in nCaM, as in Fig. 2a. One of the prominent reasons that we used coarse-grained simulations is to achieve efficient sampling of the conformational space (see Sections I–III in the Supporting Material for details about the coarse-grained simulations). We implemented the statistical potentials into the structural Hamiltonian of the N\textsubscript{g13-49}, as well as the intermolecular interaction between apoCaM and N\textsubscript{g13-49}. For the modeling of apoCaM, we kept limited structural information that favors an extended conformation and matches the structural description of the experimental measurements (25,43). We found that apoCaM-N\textsubscript{g13-49} complex samples an ensemble of varying conformations through nonspecific intermolecular interactions, indicated by the broad distribution of the bound complex in the potential of mean force (PMF) (see Fig. 2c).

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Once we generated the ensemble of bound complexes, we strategically selected the most probable complex structures of apoCaM-N\textsubscript{g13-49} with the previously mentioned NMR measurement as a guide (Fig. 2a) by following the procedures: 1) we reweighed the ensemble of apoCaM-N\textsubscript{g13-49} structures from the umbrella sampling simulations (44) using Weighted Histogram Analysis Method (45,46), and employed an importance sampling method (32) (see Section V.4 in the Supporting Material) to select a subset of 23,722 structures from five million independently sampled conformations. The surprisal value between the sample distribution \( P_{\text{sample}}(d_{\text{COM}}) \) and the original unbiased distribution \( P_{\text{ori}}(d_{\text{COM}}) = 0.14 \) to show that the sample distribution represents the original distribution well. 2) We performed a clustering analysis on the sampled structures (see Section V.5 in the Supporting Material for the clustering method); 3) we computed the “apparent chemical shifts” (see Analyses: calculation of “apparent chemical shifts” for the definition, Fig. 2b) from the major clusters. The population of the major four clusters (comprising 86%, Table S2) and the correlation coefficients between computationally obtained “apparent chemical shifts” from the four clusters and the experimental NMR data are shown in Table S2. We identified the cluster (the dominant cluster) of complex structures, which best matched the experiment (30), with a correlation coefficient of 0.36. From the dominant cluster (i.e., cluster 1 in Table S2), cCaM is mostly stabilized by binding with N\textsubscript{g13-49} and helices B and C are partially stabilized (Fig. 2c).
We next analyzed the structures of the weakly bound apoCaM-Ng\textsubscript{13-49} by comparing the probability of contact formation from the unbound state (defined by d\textsubscript{COM} = 20 \(\sigma\) in Fig. 2 c) in Fig. S3. In the selected cluster (cluster 1) of the apoCaM-Ng\textsubscript{13-49} complexes, contacts within apoCaM (triangles in solid lines in Fig. S3 c) became less probable upon Ng\textsubscript{13-49} binding. In addition, the probability of interdomain contacts between Helix A from nCaM and inter-domain linker, helices G and H from cCaM (the solid rectangles in Fig. S3 c) decreased to allow interaction with Ng\textsubscript{13-49} (the solid rectangles in Fig. S3 a). In contrast, after binding with apoCaM, Ng\textsubscript{13-49} diminished interactions between IQ motif and the acidic region (Fig. S3 b, the rectangle in dotted lines); subsequently, probability of forming \(\alpha\)-helix structure in the IQ motif increases (Fig. S3 b, the rectangle in solid line). Provided that there was no bias to the formation of \(\alpha\)-helix structure in Ng\textsubscript{13-49}, our model predicted formation of secondary structures in the IQ motif after binding with apoCaM.

For the intermolecular interaction of the weakly bound complex from the main cluster, IQ motif of Ng\textsubscript{13-49} interacted with Helix A, B/C Helix linker, and Helix D from nCaM, and interdomain linker, Helix E and Helix H, and the F/G Helix linker from cCaM (Fig. S3 a, ellipse in dotted lines). These regions from CaM (either apoCaM or holoCaM) also participate in canonical binding of holoCaM with CaMKI or CaMKII (25). Although the IQ motif of Ng\textsubscript{13-49} formed a helical structure and interacts with CaM of high probability, the acidic region of Ng\textsubscript{13-49} remains unstructured (Fig. S3 b, no change in contact formation along diagonal for the acidic region). It is highly probable for the acidic region to interact with both nCaM and cCaM, especially with F/G helix linker and the central linker (Fig. S3 a, ellipse in solid lines). We further calculated the correlation among these pairwise contacts in Section V.6 of the Supporting Material, and found that the interaction between acidic region of Ng\textsubscript{13-49} and Ca\textsuperscript{2+} binding loops from apoCaM anticorrelated with those within cCaM (shown in magenta ellipse in Fig. S4).

**Molecular mechanism of apoCaM-Ng\textsubscript{13-49} binding**

We next investigated the conformational changes of apoCaM-Ng\textsubscript{13-49} during the association process along their center-of-mass separation (d\textsubscript{COM}) for better understanding of the molecular mechanism of binding. The unbound structure was taken from d\textsubscript{COM} = 20.0 \(\sigma\), where the interaction between the two proteins is negligible; the encounter state structure (25) was taken from d\textsubscript{COM} = 10.0 \(\sigma\), where the two proteins began to make contact; the bound state structure was taken from d\textsubscript{COM} = 2.8 \(\sigma\), where the PMF(d\textsubscript{COM}) reached the minimum (see the magenta curve Fig. S2 for the PMF). Superoosed structures of apoCaM-Ng\textsubscript{13-49} complex at d\textsubscript{COM} = 20.0, 10.0, and 2.8 \(\sigma\) are shown, representing unbound, encounter, and bound states, respectively (Fig. 3).

There was no apparent structural change in apoCaM from the unbound state (Fig. 3 a) to the encounter complex (Fig. 3 b) that the conformation of apoCaM remains extended. The onset of binding in Fig. 3 b shows that the IQ motif of the Ng\textsubscript{13-49} mainly interacted with cCaM, which was not involved in a global conformational change of apoCaM. From the encounter complex (Fig. 3 b) to the bound state (Fig. 3 c), Ng\textsubscript{13-49} remained partially structured and mainly gained interactions with nCaM and local conformational change of apoCaM was observed. In particular, the EF-hand \(\beta\)-scaffold (47), which stabilizes the two helix-loop-helix motifs (EF-hand) in cCaM (see Fig. S5 for illustration of the EF-hand \(\beta\)-scaffold), is broken by insertion of the acidic region of Ng\textsubscript{13-49}.

To understand their binding at the residual level, we plotted the probability of contact formation at d\textsubscript{COM} = 20.0, 10.0, and 2.8 \(\sigma\) in Fig. S6. At d\textsubscript{COM} = 20.0 \(\sigma\), or the unbound state, there was no contact formed between apoCaM and Ng\textsubscript{13-49} (in Fig. S6 a). The contacts within Ng\textsubscript{13-49} were ubiquitous and of low probability, corresponding to the transient nature of conformations of an intrinsically disordered protein/peptide (IDP). Upon initial
binding with apoCaM at \( d_{\text{COM}} = 10.0 \) \( \sigma \), only IQ motif from the \( Ng_{13-49} \) gained contacts with Helix F and \( Ca^{2+} \) binding loop IV from cCaM. This indicates a crucial role of the IQ motif in the recognition by apoCaM. Those contacts were kept when \( d_{\text{COM}} \) became 2.8 \( \sigma \), which suggests that the IQ motif also facilitated the stabilization of the apoCaM-Ng\(_{13-49}\) complex. At this stage, the contacts between the acidic region of Ng\(_{13-49}\) and both of nCaM and cCaM formed broadly but with low probability. For apoCaM, from unbound to bound states, most of the contact formation within apoCaM remained the same (of high probability), except when \( d_{\text{COM}} = 2.8 \) \( \sigma \), the side chain-side chain contacts between Helix E and Helix H, between Helix F and \( Ca^{2+} \) binding site IV, and the \( \beta \)-sheet contacts between \( Ca^{2+} \) binding sites III and IV (encircled in Fig. S6). In particular, the probability of the contacts that form the EF-hand \( \beta \)-scaffold (encircled) became less when the acidic region of Ng\(_{13-49}\) formed contacts with cCaM. Ng became partially helical in the bound form. We will relate this finding to its importance of specific functions under Discussion.

### Binding of the CaMBTs to CaM modulates the \( Ca^{2+} \) binding affinity validated by atomistic pulling simulations

We found that interactions between the acidic region of Ng\(_{13-49}\) and the \( Ca^{2+} \) binding loops from cCaM-apoCaM competed with those within apoCaM. We hypothesized that, due to this competition, the EF-hand \( \beta \)-scaffold, which is shown to control the opening and closing of the EF-hands (47,48), became less stable, thus facilitating the release of \( Ca^{2+} \) from CaM. To test this hypothesis, we strategically selectedapoCaM-Ng\(_{13-49}\) complex structures from the most dominant cluster (i.e., cluster 1 in Table S2) in the coarse-grained molecular simulations for the calculation of \( Ca^{2+} \) binding free energy. The selection was based on the characteristics of apoCaM binding with either Ng protein or Ng peptides according to the results from several experimental studies: 1) EF-hands in cCaM are open and EF-hands in nCaM are closed from X-ray crystallography and NMR experiments (29,49); 2) Ng\(_{13-49}\) has more interactions with cCaM as suggested from NMR studies, \( \Delta Z = Z_a - Z_c < 0 \) (30). \( Z_a \) (\( Z_c \)) is the number of intermolecular contacts between Ng and nCaM (cCaM). (See Section V in the Supporting Material for the definition of \( Z \)). This was further shown by the EF-hand angles in CaM in forms of \( Ca^{2+} \)-absent, \( Ca^{2+} \)-loaded, apoCaM-NgIQ, and holoCaM-CaMKII in Table S3. As a result, four coarse-grained structures were selected from the major cluster (cluster 1) for further reconstruction of all-atomistic protein models with four \( Ca^{2+} \) ions included (see (50) for the protocol of reconstructing the all-atomistic model from a side-chain-CaM model).

We evaluated the free energy difference between \( Ca^{2+} \)-unbound and \( Ca^{2+} \)-bound state (\( \Delta G = G_B - G_U \), see Fig. 4 for illustration) using JE (34,51) by pulling the two \( Ca^{2+} \) ions independently from the \( Ca^{2+} \) binding sites III and IV of the cCaM (see simulations details in IV.5 from the Supporting Material). We further computed the free energy changes in the absence or the presence of a target (\( \Delta \Delta G = \Delta G_{\text{holoCaM-CaMBT}} - \Delta G_{\text{holoCaM}} \), see Fig. 4 for illustration). \( \Delta \Delta G \) allows us to evaluate the influence of CaMBT on \( Ca^{2+} \) binding to CaM. If \( \Delta \Delta G > 0 \), it means that the CaMBT destabilizes the bound state and thus decreases the \( Ca^{2+} \) affinity, as illustrated in Fig. 4. If \( \Delta \Delta G < 0 \), CaMBT enhances \( Ca^{2+} \) affinity for CaM.

We found that the distribution of work values does not follow Gaussian distribution (Fig. S14). The estimation of free energy difference \( \Delta G \) could be very inaccurate by directly applying JE or its second-order cumulants approximation (51) (we reported the direct estimation from JE in Table S6). As shown in Fig. S13, the binding free energy \( \Delta G \) was estimated for \( Ca^{2+} \) at binding site III or site IV of holoCaM and holoCaM-CaMKII using a running JE estimate or a block-average method (BA, i.e., using subsets of all available work data using Jarzynski’s equality). \( \Delta G \) converged to values, which deviate from experimental values (~ -5 to -4 kcal/mol). To improve the efficiency of the free energy estimation, we implemented the cumulative integral (CI) extrapolation method developed by Ytreberg and Zuckerman (51). CI uses an integral for more accurate estimations than the linear extrapolation method by extrapolating to \( 1/n \to 0 \), where \( n \) is total number of work values. It was shown that CI extrapolation could reduce the required data by 5- to 40-fold (51,52). Therefore, we adopted the CI extrapolation method to estimate the free energy difference.

We summarized the binding free energies of \( Ca^{2+} \) estimated by the CI extrapolation in Table 1 for a total of six

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**FIGURE 4** Illustration of the definitions of the binding free energy \( \Delta G \) and \( \Delta \Delta G \). \( \Delta G = G_B - G_U \). \( \Delta \Delta G = \Delta G_{\text{holoCaM-CaMBT}} - \Delta G_{\text{holoCaM}} \). \( B \) and \( U \) stand for bound and unbound states of the \( Ca^{2+} \), respectively. \( \Delta \Delta G > 0 \) means that the CaMBT destabilizes the bound state and thus decreases the \( Ca^{2+} \) affinity.
TABLE 1 Difference in Binding Free Energy of Ca\(^{2+}\) Calculated from Nonequilibrium Molecular Simulations and from the Experiments at pH = 7.4.

|                  | holoCaM-Ng\(_{13–49}\) | holoCaM-CaMKII |
|------------------|-------------------------|----------------|
| \(\Delta G^{CI}\) (kcal/mol) Site III | 9.2 ± 2.2 | -2.5 |
| Site IV          | 22.4 ± 0.9             | -1.7 |
| \(\Delta G^\text{exp}\) (kcal/mol) Site III/IV | 2.5 | -3.3 |

The CI extrapolation was used in the calculation of binding free energy of Ca\(^{2+}\) \(\Delta G^{CI}\) from the simulations. The averaged value of \(\Delta G\) statistical errors from the four conformations of the holoCaM-Ng\(_{13–49}\) complex are provided. The experimental binding free energy \(\Delta G^\text{exp}\) for holoCaM-Ng\(_{13–49}\) was from literature (30) and the experimental values of the holoCaM-CaMKII were from (14).

Conformations: four holoCaM-Ng\(_{13–49}\) (showing averaged values), one holoCaM and one holoCaM-CaMKII. For all of the four conformations of holoCaM-Ng\(_{13–49}\), the binding of Ng\(_{13–49}\) to CaM destabilized the Ca\(^{2+}\) in site III and site IV, respectively, by showing an averaged positive \(\Delta G\) (Table 1). In comparison, we examined the importance of the canonical bound structure for the release of Ca\(^{2+}\) from the complex structure of holoCaM-CaMKII (PDB: 1CDM) where the CaM wraps around and binds with a well-formed helical structure of CaMKII peptide at an antiparallel position. From CI extrapolation, each site presented a negative \(\Delta G\), implying that the presence of CaMKII stabilizes the Ca\(^{2+}\) in both site III and site IV from CaM.

Conformation of bound CaM-CaMBT complex dictates Ca\(^{2+}\) release

HoloCaM-CaMKII forms a canonical bound complex, while apoCaM-Ng\(_{13–49}\) does not. In the following, we unveiled the molecular mechanism that governs varying Ca\(^{2+}\) binding affinity for cCaM in complexes of CaM and distinct CaMBTs. We examined one holoCaM-Ng\(_{13–49}\) model reconstructed from the coarse-grained structure that led to a maximal increase of Ca\(^{2+}\) binding free energy, as well as the crystal structure of holoCaM-CaMKII (PDB: 1CLL).

In Fig. 5a, Ng\(_{13–49}\) is bent from the middle between residues P24 and G25 from the acidic regions (in green and in gray on the amino acid sequence). On the one hand, the IQ motif interacts with Helix F, Helix G, and F/G helix linker from cCaM to stabilize the holoCaM-Ng\(_{13–49}\) complex. On the other hand, the acidic N-term interacts with both nCaM and cCaM. Surprisingly, the four residues D22-D23-P24-G25 (DDPG) (in ball-and-stick representation) before the IQ motif on Ng\(_{13–49}\) stick out and insert into the middle of the EF-hand \(\beta\)-scaffold (colored in blue segments) between Ca\(^{2+}\) binding loops III and IV from cCaM, disrupting the stability of EF-hand \(\beta\)-scaffold. As a result, the distance between the two \(\beta\)-strands becomes 7.9 ± 1.2 Å (average over the four conformations) comparing to ~5.0 Å in the intact holoCaM (PDB: 1CLL). In contrast, the distance decreases slightly to 4.8 Å in holoCaM-CaMKII (PDB: 1CDM).

Moreover, the average distance between the Ca\(^{2+}\) and the Ca\(^{2+}\) coordinating oxygen atoms from the 12th residue (Glu-12), or \(\bar{d}_{\text{Glu-Ca}}\), in site III and IV from cCaM is 4.5 ± 0.7 and 3.7 ± 0.5 Å, respectively (Fig. 5a). As a reference, for Ca\(^{2+}\) in site III and site IV of the crystal structure of holoCaM without a target (PDB: 1CLL), \(\bar{d}_{\text{Glu-Ca}} = 2.3\) and

FIGURE 5 Differential intermolecular interactions in holoCaM-Ng\(_{13–49}\) and holoCaM-CaMKII complex structure tune Ca\(^{2+}\) binding affinity for cCaM. (a) The atomistic structure of holoCaM-Ng\(_{13–49}\) complex was reconstructed from the coarse-grained simulations that led to the largest decrease in Ca\(^{2+}\) affinity for site III and site IV. (b) The structure of holoCaM-CaMKII complex, showing a wrap-around binding pattern, is from the X-ray crystallography (PDB: 1CDM). The complete structures of the complexes are on the left, CaM is in black, Ca\(^{2+}\) ions are represented by yellow beads, and the CaMBTs are in white. The sequences of the CaMBTs are provided above the figures. For visual guidance, the cCaM and the CaMBTs are enlarged and recolored on the right. The cCaM is in ribbon representation and colored in orange. The residues forming EF-hand \(\beta\)-scaffold in the crystal structure, i.e., residues Y99, 1100 from site III, and residues Q135, V136 from site IV, are colored in blue. The invariant Glu residue in the 12th position of each Ca\(^{2+}\)-binding loop contributes two oxygen atoms to the coordination of the Ca\(^{2+}\) ion and is shown in ball-and-stick representation. The dotted lines show the distance between Ca\(^{2+}\) and the two oxygen atoms from Glu12 and the distance between the two \(\beta\)-strands in cCaM. The four residues that stick out from Ng\(_{13–49}\) are D22 (red), D23 (red), P24 (green), and G25 (magenta) in (a). The residues from CaM, which form contacts with CaMKII peptides, are colored in light green in (b). To see this figure in color, go online.
2.5 Å, respectively. The 12th residue in the Ca\(^{2+}\) binding loop, or Glu-12, plays a crucial role in stabilizing Ca\(^{2+}\) in the binding loop (1.47). However, the presence of the acidic region from Ng\(_{13-49}\) increases \(\Delta G\) in the holoCaM-Ng\(_{13-49}\) complex (Fig. 5 a), especially for site IV, which is slightly closer to the center of mass of the DDPG motif than site III. The motif DDPG from the acidic region of Ng\(_{13-49}\) pries open the EF-hand \(\beta\)-scaffold and facilitates the release of the Ca\(^{2+}\) from cCaM. In comparison, we examined the importance of the canonical bound structure for the release of Ca\(^{2+}\) from the crystal structure of holoCaM-CaMKII (PDB: 1CDM) in Fig. 5 b. In contrast, \(\Delta G\) for sites III and IV (Fig. 5 b) are similar to those in the crystal structure of holoCaM without a target (PDB: 1CLL).

To understand the evolutionary role of the acidic region of Ng\(_{13-49}\) and its biological significance in modulating Ca\(^{2+}\) binding affinity of CaM, we performed sequence alignment of Ng from different species available in the protein knowledgebase (UniProtKB, http://www.uniprot.org/uniprot/) (Table S14). Sequence alignment results of Ng revealed that the amino acids in the acidic region are either conserved across the species or found as amino acids with similar physicochemical properties (see Fig. S15). In particular, we noted that the cluster of residues “DIPLDDP” from the acidic region of Ng that show anti-correlation with the binding loops III and IV of CaM based on the pairwise contacts (see Fig. S4; Table S8) are conserved across all the species (see Fig. S15). Moreover, the “DDPG” motif from the acidic region of Ng is conserved (see Fig. S15) across the higher vertebrate species (from reptod to human; see Table S14). Interestingly, in the lower vertebrate species the Gly (G) residue of this motif is found as Asp (D) (in reptiles and birds) or Glu (E) (in fish) or Ala (A) (in zebrafish), whereas the rest of the residues (DDP) are conserved across all the vertebrates (see Fig. S15). We also found that the DDPG motif, which maintains close proximity to the middle part of both the Ca\(^{2+}\) binding loops III and IV in the holoCaM-Ng\(_{13-49}\) complex (see Fig. S16) plays an important role in disrupting the EF-hand \(\beta\)-scaffold in CaM as we mentioned before. We speculate that the acidic region of Ng and especially the DDPG motif is evolutionarily important for their biological role in suppressing and/or fine-tuning the Ca\(^{2+}\) binding affinity of CaM.

**DISCUSSION**

**The energy landscape of apoCaM-Ng\(_{13-49}\) binding is rugged**

The weakly bound complexes are commonly observed in protein-protein associations involving intrinsic disordered proteins (IDPs) in both experiments (53,54) and computer simulations (55–60). Long-range electrostatic interactions enhance the rate of association of several weakly bound complexes (61). Generally, the nonspecific interactions, including hydrophobic and electrostatic interactions, are known to be a major contributor to the weakly bound complexes involving IDPs. Sugase et al. (54) showed from NMR experiments that the weakly bound transient complexes of the phosphorylated kinase inducible domain (pKID) of transcription factor CREB and the kinase-induced domain of the CREB-binding protein were predominantly stabilized by nonspecific hydrophobic contacts instead of electrostatic interactions. The importance of nonspecific intermolecular interactions was further addressed by computer simulations on phosphorylated kinase inducible domain and kinase-induced domain by Turjanski et al. (55), as well as on nuclear-receptor coactivator binding domain of CREB-binding protein and the p160 steroid receptor coactivator ACTR by Chen et al. (57). In both cases structure- or topology-based models (62) were used for the intermolecular interactions that define a specific bound structure.

Determination of the structure of the apoCaM-Ng\(_{13-49}\) complex experimentally is challenging due to its low stability (28). To overcome this problem, we incorporated statistical nonbonded interactions and electrostatic interactions, which do not rely on a specific complex structure, in our protein model. In addition, to model the disordered Ng\(_{13-49}\), we implemented a sequence-based statistical dihedral angle potential (31) in the Hamiltonian. Our study reveals a rugged free energy landscape of apoCaM-Ng\(_{13-49}\) binding (Fig. 2 c). The conformations of apoCaM-Ng\(_{13-49}\) thermally fluctuate between shallow basins separated by 1–2 k_BT (T = 1.1 ε/k_B, where ε is reduced unit of energy and k_B is Boltzmann constant.).

The weakly bound complexes comprises “fuzzy” structures, in which either one of the binding partners or both stay dynamic (63). According to our simulations of the apoCaM-Ng\(_{13-49}\) complex, Ng\(_{13-49}\) remains partially structured as shown in the low probability of contact formation within Ng\(_{13-49}\) (Fig. S3 b and S6 c). Our model of the CaM model (25) samples a wide range of states by incorporating non-native interactions between residues. This idea of modeling beyond a simple structure-based model meets the experimental exploration of CaM with single-molecule experiments that its energy landscape is rather rugged and complex with plenty of intermediates (19). Our approach differs from the approaches adopted by those studies that the conformational changes of the target were ignored. For example, in the investigation of the interactions between the transcriptional activation domain of an oncoprotein and its target by Chan et al. (64), the target protein was modeled as a sphere of distributed charges on the surface.

To generalize, the structural flexibility and nonspecific interactions, corresponding to entropic and enthalpic effects, respectively, result in the rugged energy landscape of apoCaM-Ng\(_{13-49}\) that presents multiple weakly bound complexes without a global minimum.
**IQ motif of Ng_{13–49} is crucial for the initial binding of apoCaM**

It was postulated that the residual structure of an IDP is necessary for molecular recognition in CaM-CaMBT complex formation (65). We found that the residual structure in Ng is crucial for recognition and binding with CaM. We found that the IQ motif started to interact with cCaM at a distance of $d_{\text{COM}} = 10 \sigma$ and remained during the binding process, indicating its key role in binding with apoCaM. Creamer et al. (66) using CaM-CaMBT systems as well as Clarke et al. (67) using the BH3 motif of the largely disordered protein p53 upregulated modulator of apoptosis (PUMA) and a folded protein induced myeloid leukemia cell differentiation protein (MCL-1), however, postulated that the residual structure of the IDP did not affect binding kinetics, but weakened the binding affinity upon helix-breaking mutation. It is important to note that in Creamer’s study, most of the CaMBTs bind CaM in a canonical form where CaM undergoes large global conformational changes. In such scenarios, the “conformational and mutually induced fit” mechanism (25) is needed for the recognition and binding (see The binding mechanism of CaM-CaMBT might be key to regulating Ca^{2+} binding affinity on the binding mechanism of CaM-CaMBT). However, Ng predominantly interacts with cCaM and does not form a full helical structure, therefore the binding does not require global conformational changes of CaM.

**The acidic region is key to Ng_{13–49} for tuning CaM’s affinity for Ca^{2+} comparing to other IQ-motif peptides**

Our computation of the change in free energy of Ca^{2+} binding to cCaM from nonequilibrium atomistic pulling simulations reveals that the target peptides Ng_{13–49} and CaMKII have opposing effects on Ca^{2+} binding affinity to cCaM. It is important to note that the CaMKII peptide binds to CaM in a canonical form in which the two domains of CaM wrap around a helical CaMKII peptide (24), whereas Ng_{13–49} forms weakly bound complexes with a rather extended CaM. Such a difference results in distinct conformations of the EF-hand motifs and the Ca^{2+} binding loops in CaM.

The binding and dissociation of Ca^{2+} to/from cCaM essentially depend on the two EF-hand motifs, which are connected by the F/G helix linker and are rigid in holoCaM (Fig. S5). This construct of EF-hand motif pair is often referred as the “EF-hand $\beta$-scaffold” (47) proposed by Grabarek (47). The EF-hand $\beta$-scaffold immobilizes the Ca^{2+} ion during its initial binding to the Ca^{2+} binding site. Our findings with regard to target binding that modulate CaM’s calcium affinity is supported by experimental observations (1). An enhanced structural stability of an EF-hand $\beta$-scaffold through target binding in a canonical CaM-CaMBT form increases CaM’s calcium affinity, which is discussed in the detailed review by Gifford et al. (1). In those experiments, a severe disruption in the Ca^{2+} binding loops due to the repacking of cCaM causes the Ca^{2+} coordinating oxygen atoms from the Glu-12 of the Ca^{2+} binding loop to move away from their Ca^{2+} binding positions and the release of the Ca^{2+} (68). In addition, several experiments showed that when CaMBT peptides bind to CaM canonically, the Ca^{2+} affinity for cCaM increases (69): $\Delta \Delta G$ varies from $-1.5 \text{kcal/mol}$ for phosphorylase kinase, $-3.3 \text{kcal/mol}$ for CaMKII (70) to $-4.8 \text{kcal/mol}$ for $\beta$-calcineurin (71).

We found from this work that during the binding process, on one hand, IQ motif of Ng_{13–49} carries the function of recognition and stabilization. On the other hand, the role of the acidic region of Ng_{13–49} might relate to the biological functions of the protein because of its influence on the stability of EF-hand $\beta$-scaffold (Fig. S6 c) regulating Ca^{2+} binding to CaM. Ng belongs to the IQ motif CaMBTs family. IQ-motif CaMBTs such as the sodium channel (NaV1.2), the calcium channel (Cav1.1 and Cav1.2), PEP-19, and Ng present distinct effects on CaM’s affinity for Ca^{2+}.

The presence of the acidic region rather than the IQ motif determines whether the interactions between CaM and the IQ-motif CaMBT are disruptive or constructive. For Nav1.2 and PEP-19 (Purkinje cell protein 4; PCP 4) that contain an IQ motif and a previous acid region, both of them bind to cCaM. Binding of them lowers the Ca^{2+} binding affinity for cCaM: binding of the Nav1.2 causes an increase in $\Delta \Delta G$ of about $+2 \text{kcal/mol}$ (72) and PEP-19 an increase of about $+0.2 \text{kcal/mol}$ (49). However, for Cav1.1 and Cav1.2, which contain an IQ motif but no such previous acidic region, they behave like a canonical binding motif, where the CaMBT forms a helical structure wrapped by the compact CaM, and stabilize the Ca^{2+} binding by $\Delta \Delta G = -1$ and $-2.6 \text{kcal/mol}$, respectively (73). The results support the active role of the acidic region, but do not imply the molecular mechanism of how it regulates Ca^{2+} binding to CaM. By carrying out multiscale molecular simulations, we identified the key residues DDPG in the acidic region of Ng_{13–49} that “pry” open the $\beta$-sheet structure between the two Ca^{2+} binding loops.

**The binding mechanism of CaM-CaMBT might be key to regulating Ca^{2+} binding affinity**

A number of recent advancements have been made in experimental and computational approaches to examine protein-protein interactions involving IDPs (74–78). A key emerging concept is the idea of “specificity on demand” where protein interactions are dictated by concerted interactions between both binding partners. From this view, the process of binding cannot be inferred even if the structures of the initial reactants and final complex are known. The importance of structural flexibility motivated the development of theories for binding mechanisms (79–83), such as...
fly casting (61, 84), folding upon binding (58, 85), “dock-and-coalesce” (74, 86), and conformational selection (87, 88). These multiple steps mechanisms underlie possible kinetic bottlenecks due to subsequent conformational changes in a post-collision event (74, 86). Despite differences in these theories, past efforts that focus on IDPs binding to known structures have not dealt with the complexities of the conformational variability inherent in the binding process that can ultimately lead to different final products involving potentially large changes in both partners. This view is highlighted by our efforts that revealed that CaM binding to its targets is mediated by a conformational and mutually induced fit model (25).

In our previous study (25), we discovered that the binding between CaM and CaMBTs that forms a canonical bound complex, such as the CaMKII peptide, require a “conformational and mutually induced fit” mechanism. In this mechanism, the binding of the CaMKII peptide and CaM presents a two-stage process: at the onset of binding (as in an early stage), the binding is driven by diffusion and electrostatic steering effect that both CaM and CaMKII do not undergo large conformational changes. At the late stage, both experience large conformational changes that the two domains of CaM wrap around the emerging rod-like CaMKII peptide. The latter event of binding dictates a small, but significant, difference in the association rates of CaM with various CaMBTs. However, this is not the case for apoCaM-N_{13–49} binding. After the onset of binding where, the IQ motif of N_{13–49} binds to cCaM, there is no subsequent large conformational change of CaM.

The difference in the bound complexes of CaMBT-CaM along its progressive binding mechanism delineates their effects on Ca^{2+} binding affinity. The Ca^{2+} affinity is increased by binding of CaMKII peptide. The EF-hand motifs of CaM wrap around the rod-like CaMKII peptide; hence, they enhances the stability of the “EF-hand β-scaffold” that retains Ca^{2+} in Ca^{2+} binding loops. In contrast, the Ca^{2+} affinity is decreased by binding of Ng peptide because of lack of such wrap-and-enhance pattern of CaM. In addition, insertion of the DDPG motif into the “EF-hand β-scaffold” further destabilizes the Ca^{2+} binding loops. Therefore, we speculate that the benefit of a progressive binding mechanism of CaM that can be modulated by CaMBTs underlies their distinct effects on CaM’s Ca^{2+} binding affinities.

Force fields affect the magnitude of free energy estimation

From Table 1, the signs of ΔΔG from our computed values agreed with the experimental measurements. For holoCaM-CaMKII, they were in the same order of magnitude, while for the holoCaM-N_{13–49} complexes, the computed values were about one order of magnitude larger than the experimental measured ones. Majorly the force field contributed to the accuracy in the calculation of ΔΔG. We break the reasoning down into three categories relating to force fields:

Initial structures might matter

We found that the current all-atomistic force fields, including AMBER99SB-ILDN and CHARMM27, alter the initial structures after minimization and equilibration if the positions of the heavy atoms were not strictly fixed in space. This is true for coordinates from the crystal structures of holoCaM and holoCaM-CaMKII, as well as the all-atomistic structures of holoCaM-N_{13–49} reconstructed from coarse-grained models. The shifts in the positions are especially prominent for the Ca^{2+} ions. According to the study by Shukla et al. (89) on the same structure of holoCaM (PDB: 1CLL) using the AMBER99SB-ILDN force field, the root mean-square deviation of the equilibrated structure from the crystal structure was around 1 Å. This is in agreement with our simulations using the same force field that after minimization and equilibration without fixing the heavy atoms, the displacement between the Ca^{2+} atom and the center of mass of the corresponding Ca^{2+} binding loop (d{\text{Ca}}^{2+}) changed by δ_{d{\text{Ca}}^{2+}} ~0.5 Å for holoCaM, δ_{d{\text{Ca}}^{2+}} ~1.0 Å for holoCaM-CaMKII, and δ_{d{\text{Ca}}^{2+}} ~1.0–2.1 Å for holoCaM-N_{13–49}. This shift in d{\text{Ca}}^{2+} affected the free energy of any Ca^{2+} bound state. For a crude estimation of the free energy differences due to a shift in d{\text{Ca}}^{2+}, suppose the average force is 500 kJ/mol/Å, an underestimation of ΔΔG{\text{holoCaM}} would be by 6 kcal/mol if δ_{d{\text{Ca}}} = 0.5 Å. Likewise, an underestimate of ΔΔG{\text{holoCaM-CaMKII}} would be by 12 kcal/mol if δ_{d{\text{Ca}}} = 1 Å. Such deficiency would cause a net underestimation of ΔΔG{\text{holoCaM-CaMKII}} by 6 kcal/mol.

Therefore, we adopted the following strategy in our estimation of ΔΔG: for a system that has experimentally determined structure, such as holoCaM or holoCaM-CaMKII, we fixed the positions of the Ca^{2+} atoms and the backbone heavy atoms during the energy minimization and equilibration simulations; otherwise, for holoCaM-N_{13–49} which has no experimentally determined structure, we reconstructed the all-atomistic coordinates from coarse-grained models of apoCaM-N_{13–49} and constrained the positions of the Ca^{2+} ions and the backbone heavy atoms.

We determined the initial positions of the Ca^{2+} ions carefully. We estimated the position of each Ca^{2+} ion as the center of mass of the side chains of the corresponding Ca^{2+} coordinating residues and minimized the potential energy with the all-atomistic AMBER99SB-ILDN force field for optimization. During the energy minimization, only the backbone heavy atoms (excluding Ca^{2+}) of holoCaM-N_{13–49} were constrained. Afterward, 1) there were ~5–7 oxygen atoms in the loop within 4 Å of each Ca^{2+} ion; 2) later calculation showed that the Ca^{2+} ions at binding site III and IV had average ΔG = −16.0 and −12.8 kcal/mol, respectively. In summary, the final positions of the Ca^{2+} ions of holoCaM-N_{13–49} in the initial structures were
robustly determined. Our results with respect to the sign of the differences in the free energy calculation whether targets are present or not were not affected.

*The protonation states of the proteins might matter*

ApoCaM is a highly charged protein with a net charge of $-24e$, where $e$ is the elementary charge. The IDP target peptide Ng$_{13-49}$ contains 12 charged residues. Therefore, accurate determination of the partial charges according to the protonation states particularly at the Ca$^{2+}$-binding loops impacts the estimation of the binding free energy of Ca$^{2+}$ for CaM. The standard procedure of assigning protonation states according to a neural pH and its pKa eludes the correct prediction of the actual protonation states for Glu and Asp amino-acids in the Ca$^{2+}$-binding loops of CaM. Therefore, it requires a careful treatment on the protonation states. We employed the H++ program (41) to predict the protonation states based on pH and electrostatic energies that vary with the protein conformation and ionic strength of the solution.

After determining the protonation states of the proteins (complexes) at pH 7.4 and ionic strength of = 0.15 M using H++ server (41), we found that there was a significant change in the net charges in comparison with the outcome from the standard protonation protocol of the MD package GROMACS (90). In the standard protocol, the Asp and the Glu amino acids in the Ca$^{2+}$-binding are deprotonated at neutral pH and they carry negative charges. However, from the predictions by H++, they are protonated instead. For holoCaM, the newly protonated residues by H++ included D20, D56, E67, D93, and D129 from the Ca$^{2+}$ binding loops I–IV. For holoCaM-CaMKII, the newly protonated residues by H++ included D20, D56, E67, D93, D133, and E140. For holoCaM-Ng$_{13-49}$, the results depended on the conformations: most of the protonated residues by H++ included D22, D67, and D93. Because the acetyl groups (-COO$^-$) from the Ca$^{2+}$ binding loops stabilize the Ca$^{2+}$-bound state, the numerical estimate of free energies was way off from the experimental values. Once the side chains of these residues in the Ca$^{2+}$ binding loop were adequately protonated, the order of magnitude in Ca$^{2+}$ binding free energy from computer simulations became comparable to the experimentally measured ones (shown in Table 1).

As a comparative study, we explored the robustness of our results by changing the pH from 7.4 to 6.8. According to H++, the protonation states of holoCaM remained the same at the range of pH $\in [6.9–7.8]$. However, at pH $\in [6.5–6.8]$, E104 at Ca$^{2+}$ binding loop III was additionally protonated. This changed the net charge of the loop III as well as the charge of the corresponding Ca$^{2+}$ ion. We found that the Ca$^{2+}$ binding free energy of loop III ($\Delta G$) at pH = 6.8 increased by 3.15 kcal/mol comparing to that at pH = 7.4. $\Delta G$ for holoCaM-CaMKII remains the same at pH = 6.8 as the protonation states did not change. Therefore, $\Delta \Delta G$ for holoCaM-CaMKII still kept the same negative sign at pH = 6.8 as at pH = 7.4. For holoCaM-Ng$_{13-49}$, depending on different structures, the gain of additional protonated residues at pH = 6.8 varied: residues D58, D11 (from Ng) for the first structure, H107 for the second structure, E84 for the third structure, and D95, H107 for the fourth structure. We found that $\Delta G$ for holoCaM-Ng$_{13-49}$ remained the same positive sign at pH = 6.8 as at pH = 7.4. Our results remain robust and can be further tested by experiments.

We provided the calculated $\Delta \Delta G$ values of Ca$^{2+}$ binding site III for both holoCaM-CaMKII and holoCaM-Ng$_{13-49}$ in Table S7. When the pH was lowered to 6.8, the $\Delta G$ values decreased for holoCaM-CaMKII (favoring retaining of the Ca$^{2+}$) and increased for holoCaM-Ng$_{13-49}$ (favoring release of Ca$^{2+}$) as illustrated in Fig. S17. The range of pH we explored here is typical for CaM to carry its specific function in a cell. We concluded that our finding is consistently robust with regard to how CaM encodes calcium incidents by binding to distinctive targets.

*The charges of the Ca$^{2+}$ ions depend on the environment*

It has been shown that the charge on Ca$^{2+}$ can be $<-2e$ due to charge transfer and polarization in the solution and especially in the Ca$^{2+}$-bound state (35–37). We computed the charges of calcium ions according to the protonation states of CaM by employing a semiempirical quantum chemistry program MOPAC (40). Similar to our previous work (39), we found that the charges on Ca$^{2+}$ ions in holoCaM were approximately in the range of $+1.2e$ to $+1.6e$. However, we did not rescale the size of the calcium ions in this study, which can be critical to the development of proper effective polarizable force fields for Ca$^{2+}$ according to Jungwirth et al. (36,38).

Despite those issues, our calculated free energy successfully matched the signs of the experimental values, whereas they differed by an order of magnitude for the holoCaM-Ng$_{13-49}$ complexes. By using classical MD simulations, we were able to capture that Ng$_{13-49}$ greatly reduces affinity of Ca$^{2+}$ for cCaM whereas CaMKII peptide increases the affinity. More importantly, we provided a molecular mechanism of how the CaMBTs tune CaM’s capacity of sensing Ca$^{2+}$.

*The systematic error from the parameters used in steered MD simulations was minimized for the estimation of free energy changes*

Computationally, free energy difference can be estimated from equilibrium ensemble using methods including umbrella sampling (44), free energy perturbation (91), and thermodynamic integration (92), as well as from nonequilibrium ensemble by using JE based on nonequilibrium work (51). We employed the nonequilibrium work method by carrying out many steered MD simulations for its simplicity and a particular reaction coordinate is not required. The drawback of this method is that the accuracy is highly dependent on
sufficient sampling of the small work (34). Although theoretically JE does not depend on the pathways of pulling when removing Ca$^{2+}$ from its binding site, in practice, pulling along some relevant pathways leads to small work and small variance of the work distribution; while pulling along irrelevant pathways usually yields larger work and larger variance (51). In the latter case, significantly more trajectories are required for ample sampling. Therefore, in several studies, the pulling was only along one or more predetermined pathways repeatedly (52,93–95). However, for complex systems, it becomes even more difficult to find the relevant pathways. To solve this problem, we first searched the pathways leading to small work by pulling the Ca$^{2+}$ from each binding site for ~100 times along randomly generated directions. Second, we increased the number of simulations by pulling along those specific pathways that generate smallest work until the differences in the free energy converges between the direct JE estimation and the CI extrapolation estimation. We minimized the systematic error from sampling by running the simulations until the extrapolation from CI as well as JE converges. The signs of $\Delta G$ for both systems we studied agreed with the experimental measured ones.

There are other computational studies on the mechanisms of Ca$^{2+}$ releasing/binding in CaM (96,97) arguing that the deformation of protein structures attributes the discrepancies in the free energy calculation by allowing backbones to sample wide conformations in the pulling simulations (97). Even though the protein conformation can deform during pulling, we argue that this part of the work associated with protein deformation from the course of pulling Ca$^{2+}$ should be part of the free energy calculation according to the concept of the JE: only the initial state and the final state determine the free energy difference.

CONCLUSIONS

CaM coordinates the activation of a family of Ca$^{2+}$-regulated proteins that are crucial for synaptic plasticity at the molecular and cellular level associated with learning and memory in neurons (3). Ng is a neural-specific postsynaptic IDP, for which Ca$^{2+}$ decreases binding to CaM (12). Due to the low binding affinity of apoCaM-Ng$^{13–49}$ interactions, experimentally it is challenging to determine the bound structures. Our coarse-grained molecular simulations of apoCaM-Ng$^{13–49}$ binding guided by experimental measurements demonstrated the importance of conformational flexibility of both the binding partners in various states of the bound complex. Our study revealed that the acidic region of Ng$^{13–49}$ (the DDPG residues right before the IQ motif; refer to Fig. 1 for the sequence of Ng$^{13–49}$) sticks out into the middle and “pries open” the EF-hand $\beta$-scaffold of cCaM. We speculate that this feature of destabilizing Ca$^{2+}$/CaM at low Ca$^{2+}$ concentration could possibly explain CaM in apo-form in the resting cell. CaMKII on the other hand plays a pivotal role in learning and memory formation for both long-term potentiation and mechanisms for the modulation of synaptic efficacy (98). Our study demonstrated that in an apoCaM-Ng$^{13–49}$ complex, CaM dominantly remains in an extended conformation. This is in contrast to a canonical bound complex where the two domains of CaM wrap around a rod-like CaMKII peptide that essentially stabilizes the Ca$^{2+}$ binding loops of CaM. The embedded CaMKII peptide by two domains increases the binding affinity of Ca$^{2+}$ to CaM. This proposed mechanism leads to a broader understanding of the reciprocal relation between Ca$^{2+}$/CaM binding and CaM/CaMBT binding (30) that involves major conformational changes in both partners. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first computational study providing a detailed description at atomic level about how binding of CaM with two distinct targets (Ng and CaMKII) influences the release of Ca$^{2+}$ from cCaM as a molecular underpinning of CaM-dependent Ca$^{2+}$ signaling in neurons, which has been investigated for decades (27,30,99,100). Molecular basis for learning and memory formation has aroused attention of the neuroscience community dating back to 1980s (101). We believe this study allows opportunities to connecting the molecular regulations in atomistic detail to the understanding of cellular process cascade of learning and memory formation.

SUPPORTING MATERIAL

Supporting Material, seventeen figures, and fourteen tables are available at http://www.biophysj.org/biophysj/supplemental/S0006-3495(17)30116-9.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

M.S.C. and P.Z. designed the research; P.Z., S.T., and H.T. performed the research; P.Z., S.T., and H.T. analyzed data; M.S.C., P.Z., and S.T. wrote the article.

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SUPPORTING CITATIONS

References (102–124) appear in the Supporting Material.
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