Evidence for crucial electrostatic interactions between Bcl-2 homology domains BH3 and BH4 in the anti-apoptotic Nr-13 protein

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INTRODUCTION

Cellular self-destruction by apoptosis is a biological phenomenon of major importance. In multicellular organisms, the balance between apoptosis and cell proliferation controls tissue homeostasis. Deregulation of apoptosis may lead to degenerative disorders, tumour formation or auto-immune diseases (reviewed in [1]).

One of the main features of apoptosis is the irreversible activation of a cascade of proteases (caspases), which leads to the hydrolysis of numerous intracellular proteins and eventually cell death. Members of the Bcl-2 family of proteins are key regulators of the apoptotic pathway. Some are activators of apoptosis, whereas others are anti-apoptotic (reviewed in [2]). Pro-apoptotic proteins Bax or Bak are required to initiate most forms of apoptosis [3]. Multiple interactions between pro- and anti-apoptotic proteins have been described, e.g. between Bax and apoptosis inhibitors Bcl-2 [4], Bcl-xL [5] or A1/BFL-1 [6], and recently between Bax and Bak [7]. This network of interactions controls cellular response to apoptotic stimuli [8]. Currently three (non-exclusive) models are used to explain Bcl-2 function. These models describe Bcl-2 proteins as (i) ion channels, (ii) modulators of caspase activation, or (iii) inhibitors of cytochrome c export from mitochondria (reviewed in [9]). These proteins show four homology domains (BH1–BH4) forming α-helices. Among at least 16 Bcl-2 homologues found in humans to date, only four structures have been experimentally resolved (Bcl-xL, Bcl-2, Bid and Bax). Although these proteins play very different roles in apoptosis, their overall folding is similar. The three-dimensional (3D) structure of Bcl-xL shows that the BH1–BH3 domains belong to a region of the protein which is thought to interact with the lipid bilayer, forming pores in the outer mitochondrial membrane as the colicins do in bacterial membranes [10,11]. The BH4 domain, located in the N-terminal moiety, contains an amphipathic helix that probably faces the cytosol. This domain is linked up to the rest of the protein by a flexible loop of undefined structure, which is involved in regulation of anti-apoptotic activity [2,12], although it has also been shown to be dispensable for Bcl-xL antiapoptotic activity [10]. Differences in mobility of this loop have been observed between Bid, Bax and Bcl-xL, which share high structure similarity [10,13,14]. Deletion of the BH4 domain results in a total inactivation of Bcl-2 or Bcl-xL [15]. Mutagenesis experiments suggest that hydrophobic interactions between BH4 and surrounding domains participate in the appropriate folding of these proteins [15–17].

In contrast to the C-terminal moiety, the N-terminal moiety (BH4 plus loop) is poorly conserved among Bcl-2 family members [2]. This suggests that their C-terminal halves share the same colicin-like structure, while the BH4 region could confer specificity on each individual member of the family, possibly through interaction with specific partners. A number of ligands have been reported to interact with BH4, among them Ced-4 [15], VDAC [18] and calcineurin [19]. Although the precise biological significance of these different interactions remains to be elucidated, these data have clearly identified BH4 as an important functional domain of the Bcl-2 family of apoptosis inhibitors.

Nr-13 belongs to this family, and was first characterized in avian retina cells transformed by the Rous sarcoma virus [20]. Activation of Nr-13 expression may be an important step in neoplastic transformation induced by the tyrosine kinase p60v-src [21,22]. Nr-13 has been reported to associate with Bax, suggesting that it might counteract its cytotoxic effect [23]. Very recently we have shown that Nr-13 is able to interact with cytochrome c, but its mechanism of action remains underecxamined [24]. A precise characterisation of Nr-13 functional domains may shed light on some important features of cell transformation by p60v-src and related kinases. In this paper, we present the results of a similarity with other Bcl-2 family proteins and energy minimization, suggests the possibility of electrostatic interactions between the two N-terminal-conserved domains BH4 and BH3. Disruption of these interactions severely affects Nr-13 anti-apoptotic activity. Together our results suggest that electrostatic interactions between BH4 and BH3 domains play a role in the control of activity of Nr-13 and a subset of Bcl-2 family members.

Key words: apoptosis, Bcl-2, Nr-13.

Abbreviations used: CMV, cytomegalovirus; 3D, three-dimensional; DMEM, Dulbecco’s modified Eagle’s medium; EGFP, enhanced green fluorescent protein; GFP, green fluorescent protein; HA, haemagglutinin; ORF, open reading frame; RMSD, root-mean-square deviation; wt, wild-type.

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structure–function analysis of Nr-13 based on site-directed mutagenesis of its N-terminal region and computer-assisted modelling. Our results elucidated a new regulatory mechanism controlling the activity of Nr-13 and related inhibitors of apoptosis.

**MATERIALS AND METHODS**

**Molecular modelling**

The chicken Nr-13 (GenBank accession number: AF375661) and human Bcl-xL (SWISSPROT code: BCLX, HUMAN) sequences were automatically aligned using CLUSTALW 1.8 [25], the predicted and observed secondary structures of Nr-13 and Bcl-xL were compared, and the alignment of the N-terminal region of both sequences was manually optimised accordingly. The resulting alignment was used to define the template regions of Bcl-xL usable for the modelling. Molecular modelling was performed using Geno3D software [26]. Briefly, the known 3D structure of Bcl-xL (protein data bank code: 1MAZ) was used to perform using Geno3D software [26].

**Plasmid constructions for transient transfections in Rat-1 cells**

Chicken nr-13 cDNA, cloned into the polylinker region of pBSK (pBSK-Nr-13), was PCR-amplified with appropriate primers (Table 1). PCR products were NotI digested and subcloned into pcDNA3.1/His (Invitrogen). The correct orientation was checked by HindIII/AfII digestion. Both truncations and point mutations were checked by complete sequencing of the insert. The full-length mutant PCR products were then NotI digested and subcloned into pcDNA3.1/His (Invitrogen). The correct orientation was checked by HindIII/AfII digestion. Both truncations and point mutations were checked by complete sequencing of the insert. The full-length mutant PCR products were then NotI digested and subcloned into pcDNA3.1/His (Invitrogen).

**Coupled transcription/translation**

Production of wild-type (wt) Nr-13 and its mutants, from the pcDNA3.1/His C constructs, was checked using a commercially available coupled transcription/translation system (TNT® T7 Coupled Reticulocyte Lysate System; Promega, Charbonnières, France). Empty pcDNA3.1/His C vector was incorporated into the same series as a control. Experiments were performed according to manufacturer’s recommendations in the presence of 1 μg of each vector. Samples were separated by SDS/PAGE (15% gel) and exposed overnight with a BIOMAX™ MR autoradiography film (Eastman Kodak Company, Rochester, NY, U.S.A.).

**Plasmid constructions for two-hybrid experiments and growth assays in yeast**

Interaction mating assays were performed mostly as described previously [29] using EGY48 and EGY42 strains [30]. EGY42 was co-transformed with pSH18-34 bearing eight LexA operators upstream a LacZ reporter gene, and pEG202 or pGILDA directing the expression of various LexA fusion proteins. pEG202 contained a 2 μm replication origin and a constitutive ADH1 promoter, while pGILDA harbours a CEN/ARS replication origin and a GAL1 promoter. EGY48 was transformed with pJG4-5 directing the expression of various fusion proteins (B42–activation domain fused with Bcl-2 family member cDNAs) under the GAL1 promoter. All vectors have been described previously [31].

We generated Nr-13 truncations by PCR using primers shown in Table 1 and pBSK-Nr-13 wt or mutant as a template. Fragments were digested by EcoRI and Xhol and inserted into pGILDA or pJG4-5, pJG4-5-Bcl-xL (human), pJG4-5-Bcl-xS (human), pJG4-5-Bcl(72-218) (human) and pJG4-5-Bax ΔTM (murine) have been described previously [32,33]. A LexA-Bax ΔTM vector (obtained from Dr J. C. Reed, The Burnham Institute, La Jolla, CA, U.S.A.) was digested with EcoRI and Xhol and ligated into EcoRI/Xhol-cut pGILDA to generate pGILDA-Bax ΔTM. pGILDA-Bax was obtained after ReCMV-Bax PCR amplification. The amplified product was digested with EcoRI and Xhol and ligated into EcoRI/Xhol cut pGILDA. All Bax truncation constructions were generated by PCR amplification using pJG4-5-Bax ΔTM as a template (primer sequences available upon request) and subcloned into EcoRI/Xhol-cut pJG4-5. Mouse bad ORF cDNA in pSFFV-neo expression vector (a gift from Dr S. J. Korsmeyer) was PCR amplified. After EcoRI/Xhol

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**Table 1** Primers used to generate Nr-13 mutations

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<tr>
<th>Deletion mutants in yeast</th>
<th>Sequence of forward and reverse primer pairs</th>
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<tr>
<td>1–52</td>
<td>5′-ATATGATTCATGCGCGGCTCTGAGGAGG-3′</td>
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<td></td>
<td>5′-ATATGATTCATGCGCGGCTCTGAGGAGG-3′</td>
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<tr>
<td>1–63</td>
<td>5′-ATATGATTCATGCGCGGCTCTGAGGAGG-3′</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5′-ATATGATTCATGCGCGGCTCTGAGGAGG-3′</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>58–157</td>
<td>5′-ATATGATTCATGCGCGGCTCTGAGGAGG-3′</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5′-ATATGATTCATGCGCGGCTCTGAGGAGG-3′</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1–157 (ΔTM)</td>
<td>5′-ATATGATTCATGCGCGGCTCTGAGGAGG-3′</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5′-ATATGATTCATGCGCGGCTCTGAGGAGG-3′</td>
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**Point mutants generated in pcDNA3.1 vector**

- **D15A**: 5′-TGCGCGGAGCGGCTCTGAGGAGG-3′
- **R36A**: 5′-GGGCAGCGGCTCTGAGGAGG-3′
- **R20A**: 5′-GGCGCGGATCGCGGAGG-3′
- **E43A**: 5′-GGCGCGGATCGCGGAGG-3′
- **D15A-R20A**: 5′-TGCGCGGAGCGGCTCTGAGGAGG-3′
- **External primers**: 5′-ATGCGCGGCTCTGAGGAGG-3′
Digestion the amplified product was ligated into EcoRI/XhoI-cut pEG202. Sequences corresponding to the putative transmembrane domains of Nr-13, Bcl-2, Bcl-xS, Bcl-xL and Bax were systematically omitted and a stop codon was inserted to avoid problems with targeting of proteins to the nucleus.

**Yeast-growth assays**

Yeast transformations were performed using the lithium acetate method and transformants were selected and maintained on standard synthetic media [34]. The EGY48 strain was cotransformed with pGILDA-Bax and pJG4-5 encoding wt or point-mutated Nr-13 or Nr-13-ATM. Selective media containing 2% glucose was inoculated with a single colony from positive transformants and incubated overnight at 30 °C. Subsequently, cells were washed three times with water. Typically, 10 ml of selective medium with 2% galactose was inoculated at D600 = 0.1. Growth was monitored for 48 h. Samples were taken at different time points, and cell density was measured by determining the D600. Appropriate dilutions were performed regularly to maintain cells in the exponential growth phase.

**Luciferase assays**

Rat-1 cells were grown in Dulbecco’s modified Eagle’s medium (DMEM) with 10% fetal calf serum. The day before transfection, cells were seeded at a density of 8 × 104 in each well of the 12-well dishes. Transfections were performed 18 h after seeding. For each well 75 ng of RcCMV-luciferase expression vector were used and variable amounts of Bax, Bcl-2 or Nr-13 expression vector. In each experiment the total amount of CMV promoter was adjusted in all wells using pUC18 vector. The vector. In each experiment the total amount of CMV promoter was added in all wells using RcCMV vector; total amount of DNA was then adjusted in all wells using pUC18 vector. The cells were incubated for 4 h in serum-free medium (OPTI-MEM) containing DNA and 3 µl of the cationic lipid LipofectAMINE according to the manufacturer’s protocol (Life Technologies). Then an equal volume of DMEM containing 10% serum was added, without removing the transfection mixture, and cells were further incubated for 18 h. Cell viability was estimated by luciferase-assay system according to manufacturer’s protocol (Promega). Briefly, cells were washed twice with 1 ml of PBS, incubated for 15 min in 200 µl of reporter-lysis buffer then re-

**CD spectra**

CD spectra were recorded on a Jobin–Yvon CD6 spectrometer calibrated with ammonium D-10-camphorsulphonate. Calculations were performed with the CD6 software. Assuming the peptide molar ellipticity at 222 nm is exclusively due to α-helix, the helical content was estimated according to the method of Chen et al. [35].

**Immunohistochemistry**

pcDNA3.1/His C containing either wt Nr-13 or point mutant Nr-13 was PCR amplified with primers 5'-ATATCTCGAGGA-ATGCCGGGCTCTGAAGGA-3' and 5'-TATAGATTCTACCCGCAACAGAA-3'. PCR products were XhoI/ EcoRI digested and subcloned into pEGFP-C1, which contained the enhanced green fluorescent protein (EGFP) marker gene (Clontech Laboratories, Erembodegem, Belgium). Transfections were performed on COS-7 (African-green-monkey fibroblasts) or QM7 (Japanese-quail-muscle clone 7) cells. Briefly, 2.5 × 104 cells were seeded on 8-well culture chambers (BD Falcon, Becton Dickinson, Franklin Lakes, NJ, U.S.A.) and grown for 24 h at 37 °C before transfection with the appropriate pEGFP-C1 recombinant vector using Fugene 6 reagent (Roche Diagnostics, Meylan, France) following the manufacturer’s instructions and as described previously [36]. To visualize mitochondria after 24 h, cells were loaded with MitoTracker™ (MitoTracker™ Red CMXRos, Molecular Probes Europe BV, Leiden, The Netherlands) by incubating in the same medium containing 250 nM MitoTracker™ (freshly prepared in DMSO) for 15 min at 37 °C. Care was taken to ensure minimum exposure of cultures to light in all subsequent manipulations. After three washes with PBS, cells were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde in PBS for 20 min at 4 °C and incubated for 30 min with 1 µg/ml Hoechst 33258 in PBS to visualize nuclei. Representative fields of cells were photographed under fluorescence microscopy (Zeiss microscope) to visualize green fluorescent protein (GFP), bisbenzimide and MitoTracker™ staining (Kodak film, ASA 200).

**RESULTS**

**Nr-13 inhibits Bax-induced apoptosis**

Analysis of Nr-13 secondary structure and multiple sequence alignments showed that Nr-13 possessed the typical organization

**Western-blot analysis**

Expression of Bax, Bcl-2 and Nr-13 in Rat-1 cells was checked simultaneously with the luciferase experiments using the highest ratio of each RcCMV vector used for these experiments (200 ng/8 × 104 cells seeded). After separation by SDS/PAGE, Western blots were performed using standard protocols. Bax and Bcl-2 were detected using HA (Y-11) and Bcl-2 (C-2) antibodies, respectively (Santa Cruz Biotechnologies Inc., Heidelberg, Germany) and Nr-13 with the previously described anti-Nr-13 polyclonal antibody [21]. For yeasts, overnight cultures were adjusted to the same D600 and the same volume of each culture was used to extract the yeast proteins with lyticase (1 mg/ml) for 1 h at 30 °C. Recombinant B42-Nr-13 proteins and the fusion LexA proteins were detected using antibodies against the B42 activating domain or the LexA protein [polyclonal B42 (FL) sc-8335 and monoclonal LexA (2-12) sc-7544; Santa Cruz Biotechnology].

![Figure 1](image-url)
Figure 2 Nr-13 interacts with Bax through BH1 and BH2

(A) Interaction-trap assay using fusion protein LexA-Nr-13 as a bait. Nr-13 deletion mutants 1–52 and 1–63 (both containing BH4 and BH3 domains, see Figure 1A), were unable to interact with activation domain fusion proteins Bax and Bcl-xS in contrast with deletion mutant 58–157 (BH1 and BH2 only). (B) Map of Bax deletion mutants. (C) Two-hybrid analysis of Nr-13 and Bax using deletion mutants of each protein.

Lee et al. [23] have shown previously, by immunoprecipitation, that Nr-13 can associate with Bax in vertebrate cells, suggesting that it might inhibit Bax activity. In this study we took advantage of the interaction trap, a yeast two-hybrid system, to explore the interactions between Nr-13 and other members of the Bcl-2 family. In a first attempt we detected a strong intrinsic transcriptional activity of the LexA–Nr-13 fusion protein, before co-expression of any activation-domain fusion protein (results not shown). To overcome this difficulty we chose to use truncations of Nr-13. We generated three different truncations: fragment 1–52 (containing α-helices 1 and 2), fragment 1–63 (containing α-helices 1–3), and fragment 58–157 (containing α-helices 5 and 6). None of these truncations showed residual transcriptional activity when fused to LexA. Several Bcl-2 family members were fused to the B42 transcription activation domain as prey. In all cases, the putative transmembrane domains were omitted to ensure proper nuclear localization of the fusion proteins. We were not able to detect interactions between any of the Nr-13 truncations and Bcl-2 or Bcl-xL. In contrast, truncation 58–157, which contains BH1 and BH2 but lacked the hydrophobic tail (TM domain), could efficiently form a complex with Bax and Bcl-xS while fragments 1–52 and 1–63 were unable to do so (Figure 2A). This strongly suggests that the region encompassing BH1 and BH2 contains the Bax and Bcl-xS interacting domain(s) of Nr-13. It also suggests that regions located outside this particular domain are unable to bind Bax and Bcl-xS, at least directly. It should be noted that the interaction of Nr-13 with Bax was seen only when Nr-13 was fused to LexA and Bax to B42, in the other permutation no interaction was observed. This is probably due to conformation of the fusion protein, which could hide domains which are indispensable for interaction. The same phenomenon has been reported previously with Bax plus Bcl-xL or A1/BFL-1 [6,37].

We then mapped the region of Bax responsible for the interaction with Nr-13 using the same two-hybrid system. Interac-
Figure 4 3D structure of Nr-13 as modelled from Bcl-xL structure

(A) Alignment between Bcl-xL and Nr-13. The human Bcl-xL and chicken Nr-13 sequences were aligned with the CLUSTALW 1.8 program (default parameters of the NPS@ server http://npsa-pbil.ibcp.fr). The consensus of secondary structure prediction obtained by DSC [51], PHD [52] and SOPMA [53] is given in the 'Sec. Cons.' lane. The observed secondary structure of Bcl-xL was deduced from 1MAZ structure by using the DSSP program [54]. h, helix; c, coil and ?, unresolved structure. Boxes indicate the boundaries of BH4 [8–23], BH3 [35–43], BH2 [126–141], and BH1 [73–94] onto the Nr-13 protein. (B) Structure obtained using the XPLOR software. The typical organization of Bcl-2-like proteins with 7 α-helices is shown. BH domains are shown in different colours (orange, BH4; green, BH3; blue, BH1 and red, BH2). The short loop [24–30] is shown in yellow. A 3D representation of this structure is shown at http://www.BiochemJ.org/bj/368/bj3680213add.htm. (C) Residues involved in ionic bonds between BH4 and BH3 regions of Nr-13 are Asp15–Arg36 and Arg20–Glu43. Aspartate and glutamate are in blue and arginines are in red.

BL1 and BH2 form an hydrophobic binding site for BH3 domains of apoptosis inductors, it is likely that Bax also interacts with Nr-13 through its BH3 domain. These observations confirm that Nr-13 can dimerize with Bax, and potentially behaves as an anti-Bax protein. To directly assess this point we investigated the functional significance of this interaction in yeast. As previously reported [32,33], Bax induces death in the yeast Saccharomyces cerevisiae (Figure 3A) and this effect is dependent on the TM region. By studying growth of transfected EGY48 yeast for 2 days, we showed that co-expression of Nr-13 can very efficiently
counteract Bax cytotoxicity in yeast (Figure 3A). A similar effect has been described for Bcl-xL, Bcl-2, Mcl-1, A1/BFL-1 and Nrh [6,33,36,38] while the necessity of the TM segment in this mechanism is still controversial [38,39]. In our study, absence of the Nr-13 putative TM segment completely abolished its ability to counteract Bax-induced lethality, as for Bcl-2 ΔTM (Figure 3A).

In order to confirm these results in mammalian cells we used a transient-transfection system in Rat-1 fibroblasts as described previously [40,41]. Apoptotic regulatory genes under the control of a CMV promoter were cotransfected with the luciferase reporter gene into Rat-1 cells. Luciferase activity assays were performed 18 h after lipofection and expression of Bax, Bcl-2 and Nr-13 proteins was simultaneously checked by Western blot. Co-transfection of Bax with the luciferase reporter gene resulted in a 6-fold decrease in luciferase activity. Co-expression of Bcl-2 partially restored luciferase activity before reaching a plateau, while co-expression of Nr-13 restored luciferase activity in a dose-dependent manner (Figure 3B). Decrease of luciferase activity in this system has been shown previously to parallel the dose-dependent manner (Figure 3B). Decrease of luciferase while co-expression of Nr-13 restored luciferase activity in a partially restored luciferase activity before reaching a plateau, in a 6-fold decrease in luciferase activity.

Molecular modelling of Nr-13

The results presented so far suggest that the mode of action of Nr-13 is, at least in part, similar to other Bcl-2 family members (e.g. Bcl-xL, Bcl-2, A1/BFL-1). However, the poor homology between Nr-13 and other Bcl-2-related proteins, particularly in the N-terminal moiety, indicated that Nr-13 may exhibit distinct features. Nr-13 is one of the smallest anti-apoptotic members identified so far in the Bcl-2 family, especially because of the small size of the loop between BH4 and BH3 (Figure 1). We focused on the BH4 domain of Nr-13 and used computer-assisted molecular modelling to identify specific amino-acid residues potentially involved in the control of Nr-13 activity. A 3D structure of Nr-13 has been calculated using the structure of Bcl-xL, determined by crystallography and NMR, as a template [10]. Nr-13 showed the same organization as Bcl-xL with seven α-helices (Figure 4), two of them (α5 and α6) being critical for membrane insertion and pore formation [12].

The structure shown in Figure 4(B) is one of ten possible models for Nr-13. When superimposed at the level of α-carbons of all helices found in the protein, the ten 3D structures exhibited a root-mean-square deviation (RMSD) of 0.42 Å (1 Å = 0.1 nm), indicating good convergence of the models (results not shown). The model shown in Figure 4(B) showed good geometry (93 % of residues located in the favourable region of the Ramachandran plot, low energy (−416 kcal/mol) and chemical features (RMSD of 0.94 × 10−2 Å and 2.6 ° for bonds and angles, respectively). These values were consistent with all ten models.

An interesting feature of Nr-13 is the position of three potential phosphorylation sites (S4, Y31, S103), two of them belonging to BH4/BH3 domains. These residues are located at the surface of the protein and are potentially accessible for kinases or phosphatases (Figure 4B). Recent evidence indicates that anti-apoptotic functions of Bcl-2 can be regulated by its phosphorylation and that multi-site phosphorylation of the Bcl-2 loop domain regulates cell death (review in [42]). It was reported recently that the induction of S70 phosphorylation could result in a loss of the binding ability of Bcl-2 with Bax which induces subsequent cell death [43]. By analogy, the three residues exposed at the surface of Nr-13 could be involved in the regulation of Nr-13 activity. In addition, the 3D structure points out two remarkable features of Nr-13: the very short loop in the vicinity of BH3 and BH4, suggesting an interaction between these two domains, which could be of functional significance.

Interaction between BH4 and BH3 is essential for Nr-13 activity

The model of the Nr-13 protein reveals that even if the connecting loop is very short (11 amino acids in Nr-13 instead of 69 in Bcl-xL) it is possible to locate BH4 and BH3 in the same orientation as in other Bcl-2 family members. It also suggests that electrostatic interactions are important to determine the position of BH4 with respect to BH3. Careful analysis of the Nr-13 model suggested the presence of two potential ionic bonds between BH4 and BH3 (D15-R36 and R20-E43, see Figure 4C) which may contribute to the stabilization of Nr-13 3D structure. To evaluate their functional significance, we decided to disrupt independently each of these ionic bonds by point mutations and to check for the anti-Bax activity of the corresponding Nr-13 mutants, both in yeasts and in Rat-1 cells.

First, the assay described previously in yeast was used to analyse the importance of these bonds. Compared to wt Nr-13 (Figure 5A), Figure 5(B) shows that disruption of the most external ionic bond by independent mutation of each of the residues (D15A and R20A) results in nearly complete loss of activity of the protein in yeast, strongly suggesting that this ionic bond is
essential for Nr-13 activity. Mutation of E43, involved in the most internal bond, gives a similar result while the R20A mutation results in a less drastic phenotype. Altogether, these data are in accordance with the lower structural constraints exerted on the most internal bond as compared with the external bond. Disruption of both ionic bonds (D15A – R20A) results in completely inactive protein (Figure 5C). Production of wt and all the mutant Nr-13 fusion proteins in yeast was checked by SDS/PAGE using an anti-B42 polyclonal antibody (results not shown).

To confirm these results, we expressed the different mutated Nr-13 proteins in Rat-1 cells under the CMV promoter. Figure 6(A) shows that mutations D15A, D15R or R36A (all supposed to suppress the external ionic bond) again resulted in complete inhibition of the anti-apoptotic function of the protein. The two other mutations, R20A and E43A (targeting the internal ionic bond), resulted in partial or total inactivation respectively, as shown in yeast cells. In addition, the double mutant D15A – R20A, in which the two ionic bonds are disrupted, was again totally inactive. Figure 6(B) shows that all mutant proteins expressed in Rat-1 cells had a comparable expression level by coupled in vitro transcription-translation. However, a trivial explanation of the results could be that these mutations merely destabilize α-helices (BH4 or BH3), leading to incorrect folding of the protein.

To address this point, we synthesized two oligopeptides corresponding to amino acids 1–21 of Nr-13 and the D15A mutant. Both exhibited high helical content as checked by CD, even in the absence of 2,2,2-trifluoroethanol or SDS (results not shown). These data demonstrated the α-helical conformation of the BH4 mutant D15A. Thus, the effect of this mutation is not due to the destabilization of the helical structure of BH4.

Therefore, the effect of the point mutations described above is likely due to ionic-bond disruption between BH4 and BH3.

**DISCUSSION**

In the present study we have tested the possibility that Nr-13 may contain a BH4 domain and studied its mechanism of action. On the basis of its homology with some Bcl-2 family members (Bcl-2, Bcl-xL, Bcl-w, A1/BFL-1, for example) in the region corresponding to the binding site for BH3-containing apoptosis inducers (α-helices 5–7), we forward the hypothesis that Nr-13 could dimerize with Bax. Lee et al. [23] had shown previously, by immunoprecipitation in the avian cell line DT40, that Nr-13 could co-precipitate with Bax. Here we have confirmed these results in yeast, using a yeast two-hybrid system. Our results show that the BH1 and BH2 regions are sufficient for this interaction. In contrast, BH4 and BH3 do not seem to interact
with Bax. These results, in agreement with previous studies on Bcl-xL and Bcl-2 [15,33], suggest by analogy that, in Nr-13 the hydrophobic cleft formed by BH1 and BH2 binds to the BH3 region of Bax. They also correlate with the recent demonstration of the high-affinity binding of a Bax BH3 peptide to Nr-13 as monitored by the intrinsic tryptophan fluorescence [24].

It was important, therefore, to evaluate the functional significance the Nr-13–Bax interaction. We have shown that Nr-13 was able to inhibit efficiently Bax-dependent cell death both in yeast and in vertebrate cells (Figure 3).

Several groups have reported previously that Bax induces growth arrest in the yeast S. cerevisiae [32,33]. This no-growth phenomenon was demonstrated to be caused by cell death [39]. In turn, whether or not this type of cell death was true apoptosis remained a key question. The ensuing studies gave equivocal results but favor an apoptotic-like mechanism [44], including cytochrome c release [45]. Here we show that Bax-induced growth-arrest in yeast can be very efficiently counteracted by Nr-13 (Figure 3A). Similar anti-Bax effects have been described for Bcl-xL, Bcl-2, Mcl-1 and A1/BFL-1 [6,33,38]. In the same way, a functional analysis has been carried out in Rat-1 cells. It clearly demonstrated that Nr-13 had a dose-dependent ability to counteract Bax effect in mammalian Rat-1 cells (Figure 3B). This is in agreement with similar studies on Bcl-2 using this experimental model [40,46] and clearly classifies Nr-13 among Bax antagonists.

To identify more precisely the amino acids residues critical for Nr-13 activity, we have generated a 3D model of Nr-13 by molecular modelling from Bcl-xL structure, as determined by crystallography and NMR studies. Ten structures of Nr-13 were generated, all exhibiting very similar features. Indeed, all the structures shared homogeneous and satisfactory properties (good geometry, low energy and low RMSD). This modelling approach has demonstrated the geometric possibility of connecting BH3 and the N-terminal part of Nr-13 even with the shortest peptide (11 residues instead of 69 in Bcl-xL) known in this family (Figure 4B). The CD spectrum demonstrated the helical organization of this isolated N-terminal region. A careful analysis of the Nr-13 models has revealed the presence of two potential ionic bonds between BH4 and BH3. Indeed, selected disruption by point mutation of each of these bonds leads to a complete (D15A, D15-R36) has been conserved in a number of Bcl-2 family members such as Bcl-xL, Bcl-w and Mcl-1, but not in all of them, since it was not found in Bcl-2, Boo or Ced-9 (Figure 8). This latter observation indicates that different regulatory mechanisms might exist, depending on the subfamily of Bcl-2 proteins. Indeed this diversity between BH4 regions could allow a fine regulation by these proteins, for example, through the binding of specific regulatory partners.

The results reported here are the first experimental demonstration of the existence of BH4 in Nr-13 and the functional role of electrostatic interactions between charged residues in the BH4 and BH3 domains of Nr-13. Interestingly, one of them (D15-R36) has been conserved in a number of Bcl-2 family members such as Bcl-xL, Bcl-w and Mcl-1, but not in all of them, since it was not found in Bcl-2, Boo or Ced-9 (Figure 8). This latter observation indicates that different regulatory mechanisms might exist, depending on the subfamily of Bcl-2 proteins. Indeed this diversity between BH4 regions could allow a fine regulation by these proteins, for example, through the binding of specific regulatory partners.

The results presented herein allow us to speculate that two conformations might exist for Nr-13, differing by the position of BH4 relative to the rest of the protein. Indeed, the interactions between BH4 and BH3 may stabilize the active conformation; a disruption of these interactions (e.g. change in ionic strength) would therefore lead to a displacement of BH4 and to the inactivation of Nr-13. At the same time, the inactive form may lose its capacity to bind to specific partners (VDAC, Raf-1, Araf-1, calcineurin, etc.). Finally, on the basis of the structural homology with bacterial colicins, these two putative conformations may correspond to the open or closed states of an ionic channel [10,47]. The targeted disruption of interactions between BH4 and BH3 by molecules such as synthetic peptides could be a valuable therapeutic strategy for diseases caused by apoptosis deregulation.

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