Kinetics and Consequences of Binding of Nona- and Dodecapeptides to the Oligopeptide Binding Protein (OppA) of *Lactococcus lactis*†

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**ABSTRACT:** The oligopeptide transport system (Opp) of *Lactococcus lactis* belongs to the class of binding protein-dependent ABC-transporters. This system has the unique capacity to mediate the uptake of peptides from 4 up to at least 18 residues. Kinetic analysis of peptide binding to the binding protein, OppA*, revealed a relationship between the peptide dissociation constants and the length of the ligand. The dissociation constants varied from submicromolar for dodecapeptides to millimolar for pentapeptides. This implies that the residues 6–12 of the peptide contribute to the binding affinity, and, in contrast to the current views on peptide binding by homologous proteins, these residues must interact with OppA*. Analysis of pre-steady-state kinetics of binding showed that the observed differences in the $K_d$-values result primarily from variations in the dissociation rate constants. These results are discussed in relation to the affinity constant for transport of these substrates. Overall, the data suggest that the slow dissociation rate constants for the larger peptides are rate determining in the translocation of peptides across the membrane.

The superfamily of ABC$^1$ transporters mediates transport of solutes as diverse as lipophilic cytotoxins, inorganic ions, carbohydrates, peptides, and others (1). A distinct class within the ABC superfamily is formed by the binding protein-dependent transport systems (2, 3). Uptake by these systems depends on the presence of a ligand-binding protein at the outer surface of the cytoplasmic membrane, which provides specificity and, usually, a high affinity to the transport process. The binding proteins of peptide transport systems consist of two major domains and one minor domain (4, 5). The binding site of these proteins is formed by a cleft between the two major domains, which are connected by a flexible hinge. Upon ligand binding, the protein undergoes a major conformational change, which results in closure of the cleft and occlusion of the ligand. This binding mechanism is referred to as the “Venus’s-flytrap” mechanism (6, 7). The third domain is unique for the peptide binding proteins, but to date no function has been ascribed to this domain.

The best-studied peptide binding proteins are those of the dipeptide transporter (Dpp) of *Escherichia coli* (4, 8) and the oligopeptide transporter (Opp) of *Salmonella typhimurium* (5, 9–11). From the structural analysis of these binding proteins (DppA and OppA), it is apparent that the prerequisites for ligand binding are an unmodified peptide backbone and a free amino- and carboxyl-terminus of the peptide. The side chains are accommodated in a maximum of five binding pockets that each has the capacity to harbor every type of amino acid side chain. Although some specificity studies have been performed, the pre-steady-state kinetics of ligand binding has not been studied for any peptide-binding protein.

ABC-type (oligo)peptide transport systems are present in most if not all bacteria. The so far unique feature of the oligopeptide transport system (Opp) of *Lactococcus lactis* relates to its capacity to mediate the uptake of oligopeptides from 4 to at least 18 amino acid residues (12). In situ, the substrates for the transport system result from the hydrolysis of exogenous proteins (13). As these peptide fragments range in size from 4 to 30 amino acid residues, the Opp-system of *L. lactis* may have evolved to allow the utilization of these extremely long peptides.

In this paper, we report on the interaction of peptides, ranging in size from 5 to 12 amino acid residues, that were previously shown to be transported by Opp of *L. lactis* (12, 13), with the binding protein of the system. The specificity of peptide binding was assayed by using native cationic gel electrophoresis and intrinsic protein fluorescence, and they
include the first pre-steady-state kinetic analysis of ligand binding to this type of protein. The data obtained are discussed in relation to the observed uptake kinetics as described by Detmers et al. (12).

**EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES**

**Bacterial Strains and Plasmids.** The plasmid pAMP21 was derived from pGKOppACHis by replacing the lac3-promoter of Streptococcus thermophilis by the lactococcal p32-promoter (Picon, A., Lanfermeijer, F. C., Kunji, E. R. S., Konings, W. N., and Poolman, B., unpublished results). The coding sequence of OppA* was placed in frame with a carboxyl-terminal factor Xa cleavage site and a 6-histidine tag. Plasmid pAMP21 was transformed into L. lactis AMP2 using electroporation. Strain AMP2 (Picon, A., Lanfermeijer, F. C., Kunji, E. R. S., Konings, W. N., and Poolman, B., unpublished results) is isogenic to strain IM15 (14), except that the oppA-gene has been deleted from the chromosome.

**Cell Growth.** L. lactis strain AMP2/pAMP21 was grown in 1/2×M17 Broth (Difco), pH 6.0, supplemented with 0.5% glucose plus 5 μg/mL erythromycin in a 10 L ADI 1065 fermentor (Applikon Dependable Instruments, B. V. Schiedam) with pH control. Cells were harvested in the late exponential phase of growth, washed twice with 25 mM potassium phosphate, pH 6.0, and resuspended to an OD₆₆₀ of ∼500 in the same buffer. Cells were frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at −80°C.

**Purification of OppA*.** Frozen cells were thawed at room temperature and incubated at 30°C for 30 min, which facilitated the breakage of the cells, possibly as a result of activation of lytic activity in the cell wall. Next, the cell suspension was diluted 5-fold with 25 mM potassium phosphate, pH 6.0, and KCl was added to a final concentration of 100 mM. The cells were broken by three consecutive French press steps at 20,000 psi at 4°C. After the first and third step, phenylmethanesulfonyl fluoride in 2-propanol was added to a final concentration of 0.1 mM. Subsequently, MgSO₄ was added to 10 mM, and the solution was incubated with 100 μg/mL deoxyribonuclease type I at 37°C for 15 min. Unbroken cells and cell debris were removed by centrifugation for 15 min at 11000g. The cell-free homogenate was centrifuged for 15 min at 290000g, and the supernatant was collected. The supernatant still contained nucleic acids, as was assessed by spectrophotometry. These polymers interfere with the purification procedure, and therefore, the following anion-exchange step was included in the procedure. A 10 mL Source 30Q column (Pharmacia) was equilibrated with 200 mM KCl in buffer A (25 mM potassium phosphate, pH 6.0, with 10% v/v glycerol) and the supernatant was loaded. The column was washed with 200 mM KCl in buffer A until the absorbance at 280 nm returned to the baseline value, where after the column was washed with 400 mM KCl in buffer A. The flow-through and the 200 mM KCl eluate were pooled (low-salt fraction). As judged by Western blot analysis (data not shown), both the low-salt fraction (approximately 70% of the final yield) and the 400 mM KCl eluate (high salt fraction) contained OppA*. Both fractions were diluted with buffer A to a final KCl concentration of 100 mM and loaded separately onto a 1 mL Resource S column (Pharmacia), which was equilibrated with 100 mM KCl in buffer A. In both cases, OppA* eluted from the column at 270 mM KCl when a gradient of KCl in buffer A was applied.

**Removal of Endogenous Ligand.** Co-purified ligand, bound to OppA*, was removed by immobilizing the protein to a nickel-nitrioltriacetic acid (Ni²⁺-NTA) agarose column. The Ni²⁺-NTA agarose was equilibrated with 270 mM KCl in buffer A, and the pooled fractions of the Resource S column were loaded onto the Ni²⁺-NTA resin. Four column volumes of buffer A, pH 7.5, plus 100 mM KCl were passed over the column, and, subsequently, the column was washed with 40 column volumes of buffer A, pH 7.5, supplemented with 2 M guanidinium-HCl (Gdm). Next, the Gdm was removed by decreasing the Gdm in the washing buffer in three steps of 4 column volumes (1.5, 1.0, and 0.5 M, final concentration of Gdm), followed by 8 column volumes of buffer A plus 100 mM KCl, pH 7.5. Finally, OppA* was eluted from the resin using buffer A, pH 6.0, plus 100 mM KCl and 300 mM histidine-HCl. Approximately 70–80% of the loaded protein was recovered. Histidine was removed in a Bio-Rad PD10 desalting step, and when necessary, the protein was concentrated in an Amicon Centricon concentrator with a molecular mass cutoff of 30 kDa. The protein was stable for at least 3 months at 4°C and at least for several days at room temperature in MP-buffer (buffer A, pH 6.0, supplemented with 1 mM K-EDTA and 100 mM KCl).

**SDS–PAGE and Immunodetection.** Electrophoresis was performed according to the method of Laemmli (15) on a Mini-Protein II system (Bio-Rad). The discontinuous gel system consisted of a 6% stacking gel and a 10% resolving gel. Cross-linkage was 2.6% in both gels. After electrophoresis gels were stained with Coomassie Brilliant Blue.

**Native Cationic Gel Electrophoresis.** Native cationic electrophoresis (NCE) was performed according to a modification of the method of Reisfield et al. (16). Briefly, the discontinuous gel system consisted of a 4% stacking gel and a 10% resolving gel. Cross-linkage was 2.6% in both gels. After electrophoresis gels were stained with Coomassie Brilliant Blue.

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\[ \Delta F = \frac{\Delta F_{\text{max}} L}{K_d^L + L} \] (1)

where \( \Delta F \) is the observed fluorescence at the peptide concentration \( L \), \( L \) is the total peptide concentration, \( \Delta F_{\text{max}} \) is the fluorescence change at infinite peptide concentration, and \( K_d^L \) is the equilibrium dissociation constant. Second, when the \( K_d^L \) values appeared to be smaller than the OppA* concentration, the binding curves were analyzed by the general equilibrium binding equation (17) for a binding stoichiometry of 1:

\[ \Delta F = \Delta F_{\text{max}} - \frac{K_d^L P_0}{1 + K_d^L P_0} \] (2)

where \( L, \Delta F, \Delta F_{\text{max}}, \) and \( K_d^L \) have the same meaning as above and where \( P_0 \) is the total protein concentration. Third, when \( K_d^L \) values and the OppA concentration were in the same range, both procedures were applied, with the exception that in the case of analyzing the data by the hyperbolic binding equation, the free peptide concentration was used, and a reiterative fit procedure was applied. Both procedures gave very similar values, also when peptide binding was analyzed with the following equation:

\[ \Delta F = \Delta F_{\text{max}} (1 - e^{-k_{\text{obs1}} t}) - \Delta F_{\text{max}} (1 - e^{-k_{\text{obs2}} t}) \] (5)

where \( \Delta F_i \) is the fluorescence change at a given time, and \( \Delta F_{\text{eq}} \) reflects the fluorescence change associated with the fast and slow process, respectively. The constants \( k_{\text{obs1}} \) and \( k_{\text{obs2}} \) are the observed rate constants of the fast and slow process, respectively.

The dissociation process of the peptides SLSQSKVLP and RDMPIQAF was analyzed according to

\[ \Delta F_i = \Delta F_{\text{eq}} e^{-k_{\text{obs}} t} \] (6)

where \( \Delta F_i \) is the fluorescence change at a given time, \( \Delta F_{\text{eq}} \) is the fluorescence change at equilibrium, and \( k_{\text{obs}} \) is the observed rate constant of the process, which is also a function of \( k_{-1} \) and \( k_{+1} \) (eq 4). Analysis was performed using the supplied Biosequential SX-18 MV, version 4.22 Stopped-Flow reaction Analyzer analysis software from Applied Photophysics.

**Kinetic Analysis.** A relationship between \( K_d^L \) of the binding protein for its ligand and the \( K_m \) for the binding protein dependent transport reaction is derived in this section; the general description is given in the Discussion. The rate of transport, under the conditions that the donation step is rate determining (step III in Figure 1), is given by

\[ v = k_{+1}^* EL:M \] (7)

In this case, the transport intermediates left of the donation step will equilibrate according to their equilibrium constants:

\[ K_d^L = \frac{E \cdot L}{EL} \rightarrow \text{EL} = \frac{E \cdot L}{K_d^L} \] (8)
where $K_d$ represents the equilibrium constant for binding of the ligand to the binding protein (equals $k_{-d}/k_{+d}$ in Figure 1), and $K_d^{EL}$ represents the equilibrium constant for binding of the liganded binding protein to the membrane complex (equals $k_{-d}/k_{+d}$ in Figure 1). Since it is assumed that both the liganded and the unliganded binding protein interact with the membrane complex, $M$ (18–21), binding of $E$ to $M$ can be described by

$$K_d^E = \frac{E\cdot M}{E:M}$$

(10)

where $K_d^E$ represents the binding constant of the unliganded binding protein to the membrane complex (equals $k_{-d}/k_{+d}$ in Figure 1).

When two species are competing for the same binding site, as is the case for $E$ and $EL$ with $M$, the ratio of the bound species is given by

$$EL:M = \frac{K_d^{EL} \cdot EL}{K_d^E \cdot E} = \frac{EL}{E:M}$$

(11)

which rearranges to

$$E:M = \frac{K_d^{EL} \cdot EL \cdot M \cdot E}{K_d^E \cdot EL^2}$$

(12)

To obtain a relationship between $M$ and $L$ and $E:M$ and $L$, $EL$ has been eliminated from eqs 9 and 12, using eq 8, which yields

$$M = \frac{K_d^{EL} \cdot K_d^{+d} \cdot EL \cdot M}{E \cdot L}$$

(13)

$$E:M = \frac{K_d^{EL} \cdot K_d^{+d} \cdot EL \cdot M}{K_d^E \cdot L}$$

(14)

Because $k_{-d}$ is relatively large, $E:ML$ (Figure 1) will be a minor fraction of the total concentration of $M$, the molar fraction of $EL:M$ can be given by

$$EL:M = \frac{EL:M}{M_{tot} = M + E:M + EL:M}$$

(15)

By combining eqs 10, 13, 14, and 15, one obtains a description of the molar fraction of $EL:M$ as a function of $L$:

$$EL:M = \frac{M_{tot} \cdot L}{K_d^{EL} \cdot \left( \frac{K_d^{EL}}{E} + \frac{K_d^{EL}}{K_d^E} \right) + L}$$

(16)

Because the term $K_d^{EL}/E$ is likely to be small compared to the term $K_d^{EL}/K_d^E$, i.e., the concentration of the binding protein is assumed to be in the millimolar range (2), whereas both the $K_d^E$ and $K_d^{EL}$ are estimated to be in the micromolar range and more or less similar (18), the term $K_d^{EL}/E$ can be neglected. Then, by combining eqs 7 and 16, one obtains the relation between $v$, $K_d^{EL}$ and $L$:

$$v = \frac{K_d^{EL} \cdot M_{tot} \cdot L}{K_d^{EL} \cdot \left( \frac{K_d^{EL}}{E} + \frac{K_d^{EL}}{K_d^E} \right) + L}$$

(17)

**Protein Determination.** Protein concentrations of total cell lysates were determined with the Lowry protein assay using bovine serum albumin as standard. The concentration, purity, and stability of the purified OppA* were assessed by measuring the absorption spectrum of the sample between 240 and 340 nm on an Cary 100 spectrophotometer, assuming a calculated extinction coefficient of 1.605 (mg/mL)^{-1} cm^{-1} or 102 700 M^{-1} cm^{-1} for OppA* (22).

**RESULTS**

**Expression and Purification of OppA*.** Plasmid pAMP21 was introduced into *L. lactis* strain AMP2, which resulted in a 5–10-fold overproduction of OppA (Picon, A., Lanfermeijer, F. C., Kunji, E. R. S., Konings, W. N., and Poolman, B., unpublished results). Since OppA* lacks the class II signal peptide, the protein is not exported and does not contain the modification of the N-terminal cysteine that anchors the wild-type protein to the external face of the cell membrane. After breaking the cells and separating the cytoplasmic fraction from the debris and the membrane fraction, the cytoplasmic fraction was passed over an anion-exchange column (Source 30Q). Contrary to what was expected (the calculated pI of OppA* is 8.7), part of OppA* was retarded on the anion-exchange resin. The flow through, combined with the 200 mM KCl eluate (low salt fraction), and the 400 mM KCl eluate (high salt fraction) contained approximately 70 and 30% of OppA*, respectively (Figure 2). We speculate that this complex behavior of OppA* on the anion-exchange resin is due to interaction with other proteins or nucleic acids, present in the homogenate. In this regard, it is worth mentioning that “chaperone-like” activity has been reported for homologues of OppA (23, 24). Although the anion-exchange step did not remove many contaminating proteins, it added tremendously in the further purification by removing nucleic acids.

The second step in the purification consisted of passage of the Source 30Q-fractions over a cation-exchange column (Source S). Under the used conditions, this step was very efficient; only OppA* bound to the column, and more than 98% of the loaded protein eluted in the flow-through. Both the low- and high-salt fractions of the source 30 Q yielded OppA* that eluted from the resource S column at a salt concentration of about 270 mM. The elution profile around 270 mM KCl (Figure 3A) displayed heterogeneity, which manifested itself as a shoulder left or right of the main peak or in extreme cases as two peaks. Analysis of the individual fractions by SDS–PAGE (Figure 3B) and immunoblotting (data not shown) demonstrated that the two peaks correspond to OppA*. NCE, on the other hand, revealed the presence of at least two protein species in each of the peak fractions (Figure 3C). A slowly migrating species was dominant in the first fractions, whereas a faster migrating species was dominant in the later fractions. Incubation of the fractions with the peptide SLSQSKVLVLPVPQ transformed the slow-
migrating species into the fast-migrating one (Figure 3D). This strongly suggests that the two species observed by NCE are two conformations of OppA*: a liganded form (the fast-migrating species) and an unliganded form (the slow-migrating one). Finally, the overall procedure yielded approximately 2.5 mg of protein with a purity of >95% per liter of cell culture (OD660 = 3).

Removal of Endogenous Ligand. The presence of liganded OppA* was a major obstacle for further studies. Therefore, the ligand was removed by partially unfolding OppA* in guanidinium-HCl (Gdm). The unfolding and refolding resulted in OppA* protein completely devoid of endogenous ligand and fully active as judged by NCE (Figure 4). The Gdm-treated protein showed a red shift in the emission spectrum when compared with untreated purified OppA*.

The increases in fluorescence at 315 nm, induced by the addition of saturating concentrations of the peptide SLSQSKVLP to both the untreated and Gdm-treated OppA*, were 3 and 12%, respectively (data not shown).

Assessment of Peptide Specificity by Native Cationic Electrophoresis. Incubation of OppA* with various ligands revealed that certain peptides were able to induce a mobility shift of the protein, whereas others were not (Figure 4A). Moreover, the capacity of peptides to induce the shift appeared to be concentration dependent. The peptides with an apparent high affinity were SLSQSKVLP, SLSQSKVLPVPQ, RDMPIQAF, and RDMPIQAFLLY; these peptides already induced a mobility shift at a concentration of 0.1 mM. Other peptides such as AA, AAA, AAAAA, KGGK, KYGK, GLGL, and YGGFL were unable to induce a shift even at 1 mM. The peptides, AA and AAA, were not expected to cause a mobility shift as these peptides are not transported by Opp (12). The other peptides are most likely low-affinity ligands of OppA, because they are transported by Opp (12), and, as is shown for SLSQS, a partial mobility shift was observed at concentrations of 10 and 25 mM (Figure 4B). Incubation of OppA* with bradykinin and pentaalanine (Figure 4A) resulted in a reproducible, but less pronounced, increase in mobility compared to the high-affinity peptides. This implies that binding of these peptides either provokes a different conformational state of the protein or that the extent of the mobility shift is affected by the type of peptide bound.

Peptide Binding Observed by Intrinsic Protein Fluorescence. OppA* has a fluorescence spectrum with an emission peak at 332 nm. Upon binding of high affinity peptides, a blue shift of approximately 2 nm combined with an increase in total fluorescence was observed (Figure 5). Binding of SLSQSKVLP (Figure 5A), RDMPIQA, and RDMPIQAF (data not shown) resulted in an increase in fluorescence between 290 and 350 nm, whereas the spectra were nearly superimposable above 350 nm. Binding of SLSQSKVLPVPQ (Figure 5B) and bradykinin (RPPGFSPFR; data not shown),
on the other hand, resulted in an increase in fluorescence below 340 nm and a reproducible decrease above 340 nm. The amplitude of the fluorescence change at 315 nm was concentration dependent for all peptides and could, consequently, be used to determine the kinetic parameters for peptide binding to OppA*. The \( \beta \)-casein-related peptides SLSQSKVLP, SLSQSKVLPVPQ, RDMPIQA, RDMPIQAF, and the noncasein-related peptide bradykinin bound to OppA* with simple saturable binding kinetics (Figure 6). The binding constants (\( K_d \)), however, varied widely, i.e., from 121 \( \mu \)M for RDMPIQA to 0.1 \( \mu \)M for bradykinin (Table 1). The binding of SLSQSKVLPVPQ was analyzed both by the fluorescence decrease at 340 nm and fluorescence increase at 315 nm. Both experiments yielded comparable \( K_d \)-values. The high-affinity binding of bradykinin allowed us to determine the binding stoichiometry, which was 1.08 ± 0.08 peptide/protein molecule. This value justifies the usage of eq 2 for the analysis of the concentration dependence of bradykinin binding (Experimental Procedures).

The low-affinity peptide SLSQS also induced changes in the emission spectrum, but as expected, high concentrations of the peptide were needed. For instance, addition of 500 \( \mu \)M SLSQS induced a small, but reproducible, ~2% increase of the fluorescence at 315 nm. Moreover, 500 \( \mu \)M SLSQS increased the apparent \( K_d \) of OppA* for SLSQSKVLP from 2.0 to 2.9 \( \mu \)M and reduced the \( \Delta F_{\text{max}} \) from 13.8 to 11.2%. These observations allowed us to approximate a \( K_d \) for SLSQS binding of 1–3 mM, assuming that SLSQS and SLSQSKVLP compete with each other for binding to OppA*.

Pre-Steady-State Kinetics of Peptide Binding to OppA. To determine whether the differences in the \( K_d \)-values for SLSQSKVLP, SLSQSKVLP, RDMPIQA, and RDMPIQAF

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**Figure 4:** Peptide binding to OppA* as analyzed by native cationic electrophoresis. (A) Peptide specificity of OppA*. (B) SLSQS concentration dependence of the mobility shift of OppA* on native cationic electrophoresis gels. In both panels A and B, 1 \( \mu \)g of protein was loaded. Samples of purified and Gdm-treated OppA were incubated for 5 min. at room temperature with the indicated peptides at the indicated concentrations.
are due to variations in the association \((k_{+1})\) or dissociation \((k_{-1})\) rate constants or both, we analyzed the time dependence of both the association and dissociation process. The change in fluorescence due to the association of both SLSQSKVLP and RDMPIQAF could be described by a single-exponential function. Data typical for the association of SLSQSKVLP to OppA\(^*\) are shown in Figure 7A. The concentration dependence of the rate constants for these association processes (Figure 8) allowed us to assess the \(k_{+1}\)- and \(k_{-1}\)-values (Table 1). Association of the peptide RDMPIQA to OppA\(^*\) was too rapid to be analyzed quantitatively. Even at low peptide concentrations \((20 \mu M: 0.5 \times K_d)\) the process was completed for at least 95% within 3 ms, which was just beyond the deadtime of 1.7 ms. This implies that the rate constant \((k_{obs})\) was \(> 920 s^{-1}\). Consequently, we were only able to estimate the lower limits of the \(k_{+1}\)- and \(k_{-1}\)-rate constants, using the \(K_d\)-value obtained from the steady-state experiments (Table 1). Importantly, the \(\Delta F_{eq}\)-values of the association process of RDMPIQA to OppA\(^*\) displayed a concentration dependence similar to the data obtained in the steady-state experiments, which was also observed for the peptides SLSQSKVPQ and RDMPIQAF.

The peptide SLSQSKVLPVPQ displayed different pre-steady-state binding kinetics. Its time dependence was biphasic; a rapid increase in fluorescence was followed by a slower decrease in the fluorescence signal (Figure 7B). These time curves were analyzed according a double exponential function. Both the observed rate constants of the first fast and second slow phase displayed concentration dependence and allowed us, assuming a two step association process involving isomerization of the liganded binding protein, to calculate the rate constants of the four partial reactions for SLSQSKVLPVPQ binding (25) (see legend to Table 1).

The dissociation process of SLSQSKVLP and RDMPIQAF could be described by a single-exponential decay curve with observed rate constants of 15 (final concentration \(= 0.83 \mu M\)) and 162 \(s^{-1}\) (final concentration \(= 16.7 \mu M\)), respectively (Figure 9; Table 2). These values agree well with predicted rate constants estimated from the \(k_{+1}\)- and \(k_{-1}\)-values obtained from the association reactions. The dissociation process of RDMPIQA could not be analyzed, because the process was too rapid. Dissociation of SLSQSKVLPVPQ from OppA\(^*\) did not result in changes in fluorescence, which is consistent with the two step process and the values of the relevant rate constants.

Comparison of the \(k_{+1}\)- and \(k_{-1}\)-rate constants for the different peptides showed that the \(k_{+1}\)-values varied at the most 2–3-fold, whereas the \(k_{-1}\)-values varied up to 2 orders of magnitude. Thus, the observed variations in the \(K_d\)-values are primarily the result of variation in the dissociation rate constants.
Table 1: Kinetic Parameters of Peptide Binding to OppA* and Inhibition Constants for Transport

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>peptide</th>
<th>number of residues</th>
<th>ΔF_{max} (%)</th>
<th>K_d (μM)</th>
<th>k_{r1} (μM⁻¹ s⁻¹)</th>
<th>k_{r1} (s⁻¹)</th>
<th>k_{r1}/k_{r2} (μM⁻¹ s⁻¹)</th>
<th>K_i (μM)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SLSQS</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>nd</td>
<td>&gt;1000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>82</td>
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<tr>
<td>SLSQSKVLP</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>13.4 ± 0.1</td>
<td>2.17 ± 0.07</td>
<td>7.3 ± 0.3</td>
<td>13.1 ± 4.2</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SLSQSKVLPVPQ</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13.7 ± 0.2</td>
<td>0.77 ± 0.03</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RDMPIQQA</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>18.0 ± 0.3</td>
<td>121.1 ± 0.5</td>
<td>~5.4</td>
<td>~60</td>
<td>30</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RDMPIQQAF</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>20.0 ± 0.5</td>
<td>37.7 ± 2.4</td>
<td>2.8 ± 0.2</td>
<td>105.4 ± 11.5</td>
<td>37.7</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RPPGFSPFR</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>12.6 ± 1.5</td>
<td>0.10 ± 0.02</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>nd</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* From Detmers et al. (12); K_i, inhibition constant for peptide uptake. † Apparent rate constants k_{r1} and k_{r2} estimated according eqs A and B. Association curves obtained with the peptide SLSQSKVLPVPQ were analyzed assuming a two-step association process involving isomerization of the liganded binding protein (25):

\[
E + L = \frac{k_{r1}}{k_{r2}} EL_1 \equiv \frac{k_{r2}}{k_{r1}} EL_2
\]

E, EL_1, and EL_2 are the unloaded and two isomers of the liganded binding protein, respectively. The following values for the rate constants were obtained: k_{r1}, 6.6 μM⁻¹ s⁻¹; k_{r2}, 74.6 s⁻¹; k_{r2}, 46.6 s⁻¹ and k_{r2}, 4.8 s⁻¹. The apparent k_{a1} and k_{a2} rate constants could be derived from k_{r1}, k_{r1}, k_{r2}, and k_{r2}, when one assumes the total amount of liganded binding protein (EL_2) to be the sum of EL_1 and EL_2:

\[
E + L \equiv \frac{k_{r1}}{k_{r2}} EL_1
\]

Using this assumption, the following relations are obtained and these were used to calculate the apparent rate-constants:

\[
k_{a1} = k_{r1}
\]

(A)

\[
k_{a2} = \frac{k_{r1} k_{r2}}{k_{r1} k_{r2}} = \frac{k_{r1} k_{r2}}{k_{r1} + k_{r2}}
\]

(B)

* Estimated from the observation that the association process is completed within 3 ms, which results in a rate constant, k, of >920 s⁻¹. The k_{r1} and k_{r2} are calculated using K_d and eq 4.

**DISCUSSION**

In this paper, we present solid kinetic data on the binding of peptides, varying in length from 5 to 12 amino acid residues, to the oligopeptide-binding protein (OppA*) of *L. lactis*. OppA* corresponds to the oligopeptide binding protein of *L. lactis* without the N-terminal lipid modification; OppA* was produced intracellularly because of the deletion of its export signal. Binding of peptides to OppA* results in conformational changes in the protein that are observed by both native cationic electrophoresis and intrinsic protein fluorescence. Analysis of the pre-steady-state and steady-state peptide binding kinetics by intrinsic protein fluorescence showed that (1) the affinity of OppA* for peptides increases with increasing length of the ligand, (2) the affinity varies from 0.1 μM (RPPGFSPFR) to >1 mM (SLSQS), and (3) the variations in affinities result primarily from differences in dissociation rate constants. The binding of such long peptides to OppA* is discussed in relation to the known binding mechanism that was postulated on the basis of different structures of the homologous oligopeptide binding protein of *S. typhimurium* (OppA). OppA is thought to bind peptides with at most five amino acid residues as the size of its binding site does not give indications about the accommodation of longer peptides. The implications of the binding kinetics for the transport of peptides via the Opp-system are also discussed.

**Structural Implications of the Binding of Long Peptides by OppA**. The three-dimensional structures of the peptide binding proteins of the Dpp-system of *E. coli* (DppA_{Ec}) and Opp-system of *S. typhimurium* (OppA_{St}) have been determined with and without their respective ligands (4, 5, 8–11). In both proteins, salt bridges are formed between the amino-
and carboxyl-terminus of the peptide and oppositely charged residues in the binding protein. A large number of hydrogen bonds is formed between the peptide backbone and the protein; these interactions can be described as parallel and antiparallel $\beta$-sheet (5). The side chains of the peptide residues are accommodated in hydrated pockets (10). A variable number of water molecules allow the pockets to accommodate side chains of variable size. Also, the water molecules participate in hydrogen bonding between the side chains and protein residues, and they are able to dissipate charges of the ligand. Apolar side chains can be accommodated because the hydrophilic moieties in the pocket can form hydrogen bonds with each other with and without the participation of the water molecules (5). Since OppA of L. lactis (OppA<sub>Ll</sub>) is homologous to DppA<sub>Ec</sub> and OppA<sub>St</sub>, the OppA<sub>Ll</sub> protein is likely to have a comparable mode of binding. It should be stressed, however, that OppA<sub>Ll</sub> is most distantly related to these proteins within the family, and that critical residues, involved in peptide binding in OppA<sub>St</sub>, are not easily recognized in the primary sequence of OppA<sub>Ll</sub> (Picon, A., Lanfermeijer, F. C., Kunji, E. R. S., Konings, W. N., and Poolman, B., unpublished results).

The crystal-structure of OppA<sub>St</sub> has revealed how di-, tri-, and tetrapeptides are accommodated in the binding site. Also, it provides a clue toward the binding of pentapeptides. It appears that a pentapeptide is totally occluded from the
medium when the protein is in the closed liganded state. It is unlikely, however, that peptides with more than five residues, if bound, will be totally occluded. One would predict that these peptides will partially stick out of the protein.

The Opp-system of *L. lactis* mediates the transport of peptides ranging in size from 4 to 18 amino acid residues (12) and the binding of typical peptides of 5–12 residues is characterized in this paper. Although the number of peptides used is limited, our data clearly indicate that residues in excess of five highly contribute to the affinity of OppA* for the peptide. When we assume that the binding domains of OppALl and OppA4L are similar, one must conclude that the additional amino acids of the peptides longer than five residues interact with the surface of the protein. Indeed, preliminary experiments, using nonameric peptides with a cysteine for labeling with fluorophores at either position 1, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, or 9, indicate that the first five residues are occluded in the binding protein, whereas the remaining four are surface exposed. The interaction of the exposed peptide residues with the surface of OppA must be rather strong as the *Kd* of SLSQSKVLP is nearly 3 orders of a magnitude smaller than that of SLSQS. Although the transport or binding of “long” oligopeptides by Opp systems other than OppALl has not been studied thoroughly, it is possible that these systems have a similar capacity.

Two Different Responses Can Be Observed upon Peptide Binding. In general, it is assumed that binding of ligands to binding proteins involves a two-step process: binding of the ligand to the open form of the binding protein, which is followed by closure of the binding protein (6, 7). Since the nona-, deca-, and dodecapeptides all provoked a conformational change in OppA*, as shown by the native cationic electrophoresis experiment, it is most plausible that closure of the binding protein is occurring. Therefore, the single exponential rise curve, observed with the peptides RDMPIQAF and SLSQSKVLP, reflects both binding to and closure of the binding protein. This implies that the steps of binding and closure of the binding protein are kinetically inseparable and suggests that closure of the binding protein is much faster than the initial binding step. This type of kinetics has also been observed for ligand binding to other binding proteins (17). Although the pre-steady-state analysis of binding of SLSQSKVLPVPQ reveals two kinetic components, it is unlikely that the principle binding mechanism is different from that of SLSQSKVLP and RDMPIQAF. We suggest that the complex pre-steady-state kinetics of SLSQSKVLPVPQ shows the interaction of the N-terminal residues of the peptide with the binding pocket (increase in fluorescence) as well as additional interaction of the C-terminal residues with the surface residues of the binding protein (subsequent decrease in fluorescence). The additional interaction between OppA* and the ligands also occurs with the nona- and undecameric peptides, but they are not reported by the fluorescence assay (different local environments).

Relation between Binding and Transport Affinities. The various peptides used in this study were previously found to be taken up by Opp of *L. lactis* with non-Michaelis-Menten kinetics, which contrasts with the saturable kinetics of peptide binding reported here. Moreover, the variations in affinity constants for transport (*Km* or *Kd*) are much smaller than the variations in *Kd* values (Table 1). Thus, the same peptides that display more than a 1000-fold difference in *Kd* display only 10-fold difference in *Km* or *Kd* for transport. Depending on the type of peptide, the *Kd* can be larger or smaller than the *Km*. This is quite unusual as the *Km* and *Kd* values agree rather well for most binding protein dependent transport systems. In other words, the *Km*-values for the transport systems usually reflect the *Kd*-values for substrate binding (2).

Three possible explanations for the observed differences in uptake and binding affinities can be formulated. First, the differences could partly be methodological as we cannot exclude that in the in vivo transport assays the peptide concentration, experienced by the binding protein, differs from the concentration in the solution due to interference of peptides with the cell wall. Second, the oligomerization state of the protein could differ in vivo and in vitro as the effective concentration of OppA, anchored to the cell membrane will be much higher than the concentrations used in our binding experiments. If oligomerization occurs, it will be most prominent at high protein concentrations and cooperatively in ligand binding may be observed. (26). Third, depending on which step(s) is rate determining in the translocation process, the *Km* for transport may or may not reflect the *Kd* of binding.

The kinetic data are analyzed in the light of the kinetic model (Scheme 1). Where E and EL represent the unloaded and liganded binding protein, respectively, Lo and Li are the external and internalized substrate, respectively, and M refers to the membrane complex. The species EL:M and E:M represent loaded and unloaded binding proteins docked to the membrane complex, respectively. E:ML refers to the situation in which the ligand is transferred to the membrane complex and the binding protein is still docked. The following steps are discriminated in the model: I, binding of ligand to the binding protein; II, docking of the liganded binding protein to the membrane complex; III, donation of the ligand to the membrane complex; IV, translocation of substrate across the membrane (Figure 1). The branch with the constants *Kd* and *Kc* provides an explanation for the sigmoidal uptake kinetics (see ref 12). If step III, governed by the constant *Kc*, is rate determining, then the rate of transport can be described by

\[ v = \frac{K'_c \cdot M_{tot} \cdot L}{K'_c + K'_d \cdot \frac{K_d^{EL}}{K_d^{L}} + L} \]

This equation (see under Experimental Procedures) has the form of a simple Michaelis–Menten relationship, in which the *Km* for transport equals *Kd* (Km/Keq). Thus, when

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>peptide</th>
<th>number of residues</th>
<th>final concentration (µM)</th>
<th>(k_{d1}^{a}) (s(^{-1}))</th>
<th>(k_{d1}^{b}) (s(^{-1}))</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SLSQS</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>15.4 ± 2.9</td>
<td>19.2 ± 4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RDMPIQAF</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>162.5 ± 14.7</td>
<td>152.1 ± 14.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The observed dissociation rate constant, \(k_{d1}^{a}\), was obtained by analyzing the dissociation processes according eq 6. The estimated rate constant, \(k_{d1}^{b}\), was obtained from the data in Table 1 and using eq 4.*
one assumes that the ratio $k_{d1}/k_{d2}$ is independent of the type of peptide bound, then $K_m$-values are expected to vary along with the $K_A$-values for binding of the peptides to the binding protein. Miller et al. (17) tested the assumption that $k_{d1}$ is rate determining for several binding protein-dependent systems and reached the conclusion that it was not. However, they considered the total concentration of liganded binding protein instead of the concentration of liganded binding protein that is associated with the membrane components. Because the concentration of membrane components can be 1–2 magnitudes lower than the concentration of binding protein (2, 27) the concentration of docked liganded binding protein, and therefore, the potential donation rates will be overestimated.

In case $k_{d2}$ does not significantly determine the rate of transport, then the preceding steps will not reach equilibrium and the $K_m$ for transport will become smaller than the $K_A$. Thus, the difference in the variation in $K_m$- and $K_A$-values for different peptides can to a large extent be explained when one assumes that the dissociation rate constant ($k_{d2}$) varies largely for the different peptides.

Our pre-steady-state kinetic experiments showed that the $k_{d1}$-values for all peptides studied varied at most 2–3-fold, whereas the $k_{d1}$-values could vary at least 100-fold (Table 1). Thus, the variations observed for the $K_A$-values were mainly due to variations in $k_{d1}$-values. When we assume that $k_{d2}$ and $k_{d1}$ (Figure 1) are related, or in other words, the rate of dissociation of the peptide from the binding protein is the same for “free” and “membrane-docked” binding protein, then “low-affinity” peptides are donated more rapidly to the membrane complex than high-affinity peptides. This implies that, for the peptides that bind with a high affinity, the donation rate constant ($k_{d2}$) could be rate determining, and therefore, the $K_m$ will reflect the $K_A$, whereas in case of the peptides that bind with a low affinity, a high transport affinity may be obtained because step III is no longer rate determining.

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REFERENCES


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