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Molecular dynamics reveal a novel kinase-substrate interface that regulates protein translation

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A key control point in gene expression is the initiation of protein translation, with a universal stress response being constituted by inhibitory phosphorylation of the eukaryotic initiation factor 2α (elF2 α). In humans, four kinases sense diverse physiological stresses to regulate elF2 α to control cell differentiation, adaptation, and survival. Here we develop a computational molecular model of elF2 α and one of its kinases, the protein kinase R, to simulate the dynamics of their interaction. Predictions generated by coarse-grained dynamics simulations suggest a novel mode of action. Experimentation substantiates these predictions, identifying a previously unrecognized interface in the protein complex, which is constituted by dynamic residues in both elF2 α and its kinases that are crucial to regulate protein translation. These findings call for a reinterpretation of the current mechanism of action of the elF2 α kinases and demonstrate the value of conducting computational analysis to evaluate protein function.

Keywords: molecular dynamics, eukaryotic initiation factor 2α (eIF 2α), eIF 2α kinases, protein kinase R (PKR), protein translation, kinase activity

Introduction

Adaptive responses to changing environmental conditions require switching between various genetic programs. Gene expression is regulated at multiple steps including transcription, posttranscriptional processing, nuclear export, stability and translation of mature mRNA. A key control point in gene expression is the initiation of protein translation. Translation of eukaryotic transcripts generally commences through an association between the 5' cap structure of mRNA and the 43S pre-initiation complex, consisting of eukaryotic initiation factors (eIF) 1, 3 and 4 and the ternary complex, formed between $elF2\alpha$, guanine-5'-triphosphate (GTP), and the initiator Met-tRNA. This pre-initiation complex then scans the mRNA toward the 3' end until the Met-tRNA anticodon matches a functional AUG codon, GTP is hydrolysed, and the elF2 α -GDP is released from the complex, whereupon the 60S ribosomal subunit is recruited to assemble the functional ribosome. This initiation step constitutes a pivotal point for regulation of gene expression in eukaryotes, with a key means of control enacted by phosphorylation of $elF2\alpha$. Phosphorylation of $elF2\alpha$, at the serine residue number 51, increases the affinity of the guanine nucleotide exchange factor eIF2B. This association prevents exchange of GDP as is required for reformation of the ternary complex to allow translation re-initiation.

In mammals, four serine, threonine kinases respond to different physiological stresses to phosphorylate elF2 α (Sadler and Williams, 2007). These are the heme-regulated inhibitor (HRI), RNA-activated protein kinase R (PKR), PKR-like endoplasmic reticulum (PERK), and general control nonderepressing 2-like (GCN2) kinases (encoded by the genes *ElF2AK1* to 4, respectively). Crystallographic structures of the modified kinase domain associated with elF2 α have been resolved (Dar et al., 2005; Padyana et al., 2005; Cui et al., 2011). The structure of PKR bound to elF2 α is highly informative to our understanding of the molecular mechanism of activity of the elF2 α kinases.

PKR consists of an N-terminal RNA-binding domain (RBD), encoding tandem RNA-binding motifs and a C-terminal kinase domain (KD), which forms an archetypal kinase fold consisting of an N-lobe that coordinates dimerization of protein monomers and a C-lobe that mediates substrate associations. Unstructured linkers separate each of these structured domains. Ligand binding triggers dimerization and concurrent autophosphorylation to form the

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active enzyme. Structure studies identified how PKR phosphorylated the critical serine 51 residue of elF2 α . This serine residue is within a linker between β 3- β 4 in elF2 α that is buried in a hydrophobic pocket. The crystal structure identified that residues within the helix G (α G) in the C-lobe of the KD bound elF2 α to correctly orient elF2 α toward the catalytic cleft of the KD. Binding at the α G of PKR unfolded the β 3- β 4 loop of elF2 α in a manner that was speculated, as the serine 51 linker was unresolved in crystallographic structures, to expose the phosphor-residue.

As the peptides used to deduce all crystallographic structures of the elF2 α kinases contain large internal deletions of key interfacing segments and because current structures do not capture a critical component of enzymatic activity, the dynamic movement of the proteins, we developed a molecular model of the complete kinase domain of PKR and elF2 α to tackle the dynamics of their interaction by coarse-grained dynamics simulation. This predicts that residues within the kinase N-lobe, which were removed from peptides used to generate crystallographic structures, and the unresolved serine 51 linker in elF2 α are engaged in the contact between the molecules. Experimentation corroborates this by demonstrating that these dynamic residues in PKR are crucial for effective control of elF2 α activity and protein translation. These findings identify a novel mode of action of the elF2 α kinases.

Results

Molecular dynamic modeling of $eIF2\alpha$

A complete N-terminal peptide structure of the human $eIF2\alpha$ molecule was generated using the partial PKR-eIF2 α complex and a structure of the Saccharomyces cerevisiae $elF2\alpha$ (SUI2) (using PDB:2A1A and PDB:1Q46, respectively). The original unresolved loop of eIF2 α (between residues 49 and 60) was modeled in two states, coded 'open' and 'closed', which represented the preferred, energy-minimized states predicted by molecular dynamics from an ensemble of all possible orientations (Figure 1A). The 'closed' state of the residues within the B3-B4 loop, was constructed by superposition, firstly, on the crystal structure of $elF2\alpha$, then on the elF2 α -PKR complex (where the residues 49–60 are missing). Dynamics modeling to randomly sample the B3-B4 loop identified an energetically favored conformational state in which the constrained state of this region, seen in the crystal structure, had moved to an opposite more open position. This 'open' state was then constructed by superposition onto the $elF2\alpha$ -PKR complex. Both orientations, coded 'open' and 'closed', were modeled in the subsequent analysis.

Comparison of the theoretical and experimentally derived states of eIF2 α shows general agreement, except for a conspicuous variance in the flexibility of the restored residues (49–60), when this loop was modeled in the open state (Figure 1B). This is likely significant as these residues encompass the phosphorylated residue (Ser51) that is critical for enzymatic activity. Ile55-Ile58 at the tip of the loop is constrained in the closed state, but unconfined in the open state. Intriguingly, residues between Arg74-Asp83 are highly dynamic in both theoretical states, but are constrained in the crystal structure (Figure 1B). These residues have previously been identified to contact PKR within the kinase helix α G (Dar

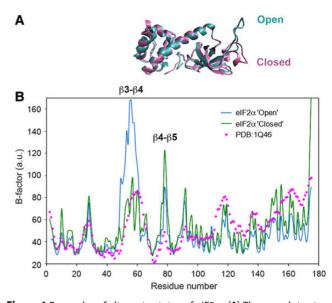


Figure 1 Dynamics of alternate states of $eIF2\alpha$. (**A**) The complete structures shown as a ribbon diagram of the N-terminus of human $eIF2\alpha$ in two predicted conformations, designated as open (colored cyan), or closed (purple), as defined by the orientation of the β 3- β 4 loop (residues 49–60) absent from PDB:2A1A. (**B**) Fluctuation and flexibility differences (as indicated by B-factor) between the open (blue line) and closed (green line) theoretical conformational states compared with the values calculated from the experimentally derived (pink diamonds) structure of eIF2 α .

et al., 2005). This modeling predicts that the previously unresolved region encompassing the phosphor-residue adopts quite distinct states.

Modeling of the association of $eIF2\alpha$ with PKR

In order to probe $elF2\alpha$ -PKR interactions, we first generated a full-length theoretical structure of PKR by correcting mutated and missing residues from the high-resolution structures of the RBD of PKR and the KD in complex with $elF2\alpha$ (using RCSB files PDB:1QU6 and PDB:2A1A, respectively). Homology modeling and dynamics simulation of the linker between the RBD and KD (residues 175–254) corroborated previous studies that have shown this linker to be unstructured and to have high dynamic flexibility (VanOudenhove et al., 2009). For this reason and to be able to directly compare our theoretical structures to existing experimental data, we excluded the RBD and linker from the simulations of the interaction with $elF2\alpha$. This was used to model the structure of the dimerized kinase in association with $elF2\alpha$ in either of the predicted open and closed states (Figure 2A and B), and compared with the experimentally derived structure of the dimerized KD-eIF2 α complex.

This analysis predicts that residues within the β 1- β 2 (Gly276-Gly277), β 4- β 5 (Glu349-Ser351), α E (Lys388-Leu390), p+1 loop (centered upon Thr451), and helix α G (Val484-Glu490) structural elements of PKR were most affected by substrate binding, with differing consequence for either theoretical state of elF2 α (Figure 2C and D). Four of these elements have previously been established

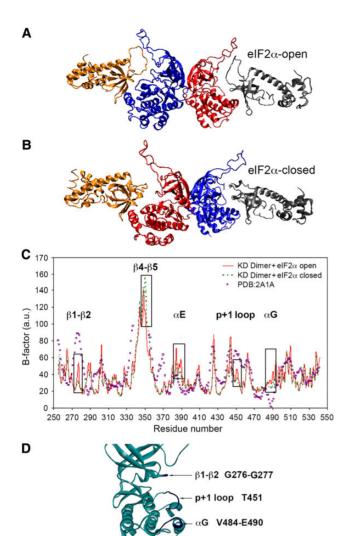


Figure 2 Dynamic impacts due to the interaction of PKR with $eIF2\alpha$. (A and B) Theoretical structures shown as ribbon diagrams of the dimeric KD (with each protomer colored blue and red) in complex with eIF2 α (colored gray and yellow) in either an open (A), or closed (B) conformation. The structures demonstrate the proximity between the restored β 4- β 5 loop in the N-lobe of PKR and the β 3- β 4 loop in elF2 α when in the open conformation. The β 4- β 5 loop of PKR is flexible and molecular dynamics did not give any clearly defined conformation after extended dynamics equilibration. Moreover, a conformation could not be assigned by reference to the crystal structure of the $eIF2\alpha-PKR$ complex (as the residues 338-350 are missing), so the state of the β4-β5 loop shown in this figure is the average conformation ensemble from coarse-grained simulations. (C) Fluctuation and flexibility differences (as indicated by B-factor) for the theoretical KD dimer associated with $elF2\alpha$ in either the open (solid red line), or closed (broken green line) conformation, compared with the experimentally derived KD-eIF2 α complex (purple squares). The boxed areas indicate PKR residues predicted to be differentially affected by the alternate conformations of elF2 α (open or closed). (**D**) A ribbon diagram of the structure of the catalytic pocket of PKR indicating (in dark blue) the residues encompassing the B1-B2 loop (Gly276 and Gly277), autophosphorylated Thr451 in the activation segment and part of α G (Val484-Glu490) predicted to be highly dynamic during substrate binding.

to interact with eIF2 α , or ATP to facilitate phosphoryl transfer (Dar and Sicheri, 2002). These residues encode the kinase glycine-rich loop (Gly276-Gly277), an essential autophosphorylation site (Thr451), part of the kinase activation segment (Lys388-Leu390) and the eIF2 α -binding consensus motif (Val484-Glu490), which are required for PKR activity. However, the β 4- β 5 loop in the N-lobe has no reported contact with eIF2 α and no recognized catalytic activity.

Residues coincident with and separate from these five regions differed between the theoretical and experimentally derived data. Residues within the $\beta 1$ - $\beta 2$ and p+1 loop showed greater, while those in the helical αE and αG elements showed less constraint in the experimental compared with the theoretical data. There were also discrepancies outside of these five regions, with B-factors predicting altered constraint for residues within the αO , $\beta 2$, αC and αF , $\beta 3$, $\beta 4$, $\beta 5$ - αD , $\beta 9$, and αH elements for the experimental compared with the theoretical data. As the $\beta 4$ - $\beta 5$ loop was removed from the peptide used to generate the experimental data, this comparison cannot be made.

Together, these findings indicate that dynamic residues on the N-lobe of the kinase domain, between $\beta4$ and $\beta5$, appear to be engaged in the association with eIF2 α , and suggest that full engagement of PKR requires eIF2 α to adopt an open conformation.

Molecular movements induced by transition between different states of PKR

To model the collective motions by which PKR transitions between different states, we conducted normal mode analysis of the dominant motion of the KD dimer and the KD dimer-elF2 α complex (Figure 3 and Supplementary Figure S1). These calculations predict that the N-terminal B4-B5 segment of the KD is the most dynamic region before binding with $elF2\alpha$. Upon binding of the substrate, $elF2\alpha$ becomes the most dynamic part of the protein complex and the previously dynamic regions of the KDs are constrained (Figure 3A and B). Although the B4-B5 segment is still the most dynamic part of the KD, its fluctuation drops from 1.5 to less than 0.1 Å. Hence, substrate binding appears to stabilize the PKR dimer. Figure 3B shows the stability changes of the KD dimer alone or in complex with $elF2\alpha$ in either state ('open' or 'closed'). Contrary to the greater flexibility predicted for isolated $elF2\alpha$ when in the open state (Figure 1A), the molecule is more dynamic in the closed state when bound to the PKR KD (Figure 3B). Hence, these predictions suggest that the β 3- β 4 loop on elF2 α must adopt an open conformation in order to form a more stable interaction form with PKR. Additionally, the constraint of the β 4- β 5 loop of PKR upon binding of elF2 α suggests some association between this element on PKR and the B3-B4 loop on elF2 α . No previous mechanism of kinase activity has invoked an association between the B4-B5 loop of PKR and elF2 α , so we experimentally tested these predictions below.

Requirement of the β 4- β 5 loop of PKR for the control of elF2 α

To measure the consequence for the β 4- β 5 loop of PKR to its function we assessed phosphorylation of eIF2 α and the resulting control of protein translation by reporter assays and by conducting polysome analysis.

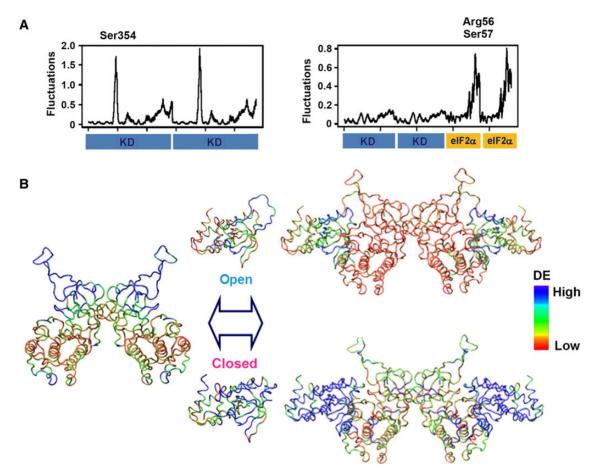


Figure 3 Molecular movements induced by the association between PKR and elF2 α . (**A**) The theoretical dominant modes of motion of the dimeric KD of PKR alone (left) and upon docking with elF2 α (right). (**B**) Stability changes in the complex between the dimeric KD and elF2 α in either the open or closed conformation. Deformation energy (DE), as analyzed by NMA, throughout the protein complex is depicted with color on an assembled average conformation of the protein backbone. Blue indicates regions above the deformation threshold (more flexible regions), green represents regions that are greater than the deformation threshold, and red corresponds to small deformation energies (more rigid regions). These images show the overall stability of the complex as the averaged deformation changes of the collective dominant modes. The separate dominant modes that account for the majority of the molecule's dynamic movement are shown in Supplementary Figure S1.

Direct phosphorylation of elF2 α was measured using phosphospecific antibodies, after transfecting PKR constructs into modified HEK293 cells (HEK293:shPKR) that express a short hairpin RNA to diminish the expression of endogenous PKR by RNA interference (Figure 4A and B). Appropriately, mutations of the invariant ATP-binding and transfer lysine residue number 296 within the catalytic pocket, or residues demonstrated to perturb formation of the fully active dimer, Arg262, and to affect substrate binding of Thr487 to alanine all diminished elF2 α phosphorylation (Figure 4A) (Katze et al., 1991; Dar et al., 2005). Importantly, residues between the β 4- β 5 loop of PKR were shown to control elF2 α phosphorylation, with deletion of this loop (construct Δ 338–350) as detrimental in this assay as mutation of the residues previously established to be essential for kinase activity (K296R, R262D, and T487A) (Figure 4A).

Phosphorylation of eIF2 α increases its affinity for the guanine nucleotide exchange factor eIF2B, thereby preventing exchange of GDP and reformation of the ternary complex that permits

succeeding ribosomes to transition along the mRNA. Wild-type (WT) or mutant PKR and PERK constructs were transfected into HEK293:shPKR cells and the effect upon the pattern of ribosomal binding to the mRNA measured. Growth of cells expressing WT PKR greatly increased the accumulation of ribosomes on the mRNA (Figure 5A and E). This is consistent with loading of stalled ribosomes onto the 5' mRNA. Notably, knocking down the eIF2B2 regulatory subunit of eIF2B, thereby duplicating the effect of $elF2\alpha$ phosphorylation by alternately limiting the nucleotide exchange factor, replicated the PKR-induced accumulation of ribosomes on the mRNA (Figure 5B and F). This effect of PKR was dependent on kinase activity, demonstrated by expression of the catalytically inactive PKR (K296R) (Figure 5A). Critically, deletion of the β 4- β 5 segment (Δ 338–350) of PKR reduced the high molecular weight fraction of the polysome profile to be equivalent to that of the kinase-dead mutant (Figure 5A). To test the possibility that the β 4- β 5 loop was affecting kinase activity via modulating an intra-molecular association with the N-terminal RBD of PKR,

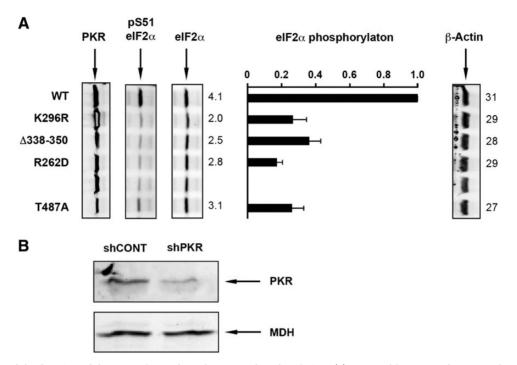


Figure 4 Measure of the function of the β 4- β 5 loop of PKR by elF2 α phosphorylation. (**A**) Immunoblot assays for elF2 α phosphorylation from HEK293:shPKR cells transfected with PKR constructs (as labeled). A representative blot for each antigen is shown. The graph shows a quantitation of phosphorylated elF2 α relative to the total levels of elF2 α normalized to the WT PKR treatment for comparison (n = 4 for WT, K296R, and Δ 338–350 PKR, n = 3 for R262D and T487A constructs, error bars show SD). The unlabeled lane involved a protein construct of extraneous activity. The numerals on the right of the blots are a quantification of the protein bands. Expression of the K296R protein is relatively high, which has resulted in overexposure and bleaching of the detected band. Dots evident in the β -actin immunoblot represent a nonspecific signal. (**B**) Immunoblot detection of PKR in HEK293:shPKR cells used in cell-based assays. Endogenous PKR was decreased through stable expression of a short-hairpin RNA that targeted the 3'UTR of *ElF2AK2* (shPKR). Specific targeting of PKR is demonstrated by comparison to a scrambled nontargeting control shRNA (shCONT). The relative expression of PKR is compared with the levels of the metabolic enzyme malate dehydrogenase (MDH).

we assessed the activity of the isolated KD. This demonstrated that the β 4- β 5 loop regulates the activity of the KD, independent from auto-regulatory mechanisms (Figure 5C and G). Finally, we demonstrated that the equivalent region of the PERK KD also regulated ribosomal activity (Figure 5D and H).

We further assessed $elF2\alpha$ phosphorylation by measuring protein translation using a fluorescent reporter assay. Expression constructs of the PKR, PERK, and GCN2 KDs were generated as the WT peptide with a point mutation to promote kinase activity (K429R, F927H, and Y838H in PKR, PERK, and GCN2, respectively (Dev et al., 2005a)) and with the β 4- β 5 insert segment removed (Δ 338–350, Δ 706–868, and Δ 659–782 for PKR, PERK, and GCN2, respectively) (Figure 6A). Firstly, titration of the PKR KD constructs in this reporter assay demonstrated that the β 4- β 5 loop is not indispensable but that the activity of the truncated kinase (Δ 338–350) is severely diminished (Figure 6B). Repetition of the reporter assay with PKR, PERK, and GCN2 demonstrated that the B4-B5 segment is important for translational control of all three kinases (Figure 6C). Hence, the flexible β 4- β 5 loop within the N-lobe of eIF2 α kinases is important for eIF2 α phosphorylation, the ensuing regulation of ribosome activity and protein production.

Residues within the β 4- β 5 loop of PKR modulate the interaction with eIF2 α

To test if the B4-B5 loop modulates the interaction between PKR and $elF2\alpha$ under physiological conditions, we employed a bimolecular fluorescence complementation assay (Hu et al., 2002; MacDonald et al., 2006). WT and mutant human PKR constructs were assessed for their capacity to associate with $elF2\alpha$ by fusing either protein partner to split Venus tags. The impact of specific residues within PKR to the association with $elF2\alpha$ was quantified as the fluorescent Venus signal, generated by formation of the complete Venus fluorophore upon heterodimerization of the protein partners, normalized to the levels of protein expression, measured by immunofluorescence in HEK293:shPKR cells (Figure 7A-C). Somewhat unexpectedly, this assay showed that kinase-dead protomers (K296R) efficiently associated with $eIF2\alpha$. Moreover, a mutation in the helix α G, T487A, which ablated phosphorylation of eIF2 α (Figure 4A), nevertheless, did not inhibit an association between the proteins (Figure 7A). Hence, it appears that the Thr487 residue is critical only for phosphorylation but not interaction with $elF2\alpha$, as had been assumed from yeast growth assays (Dev et al., 2005a). Mutation of a residue previously identified to be essential to formation of the active dimeric kinase.

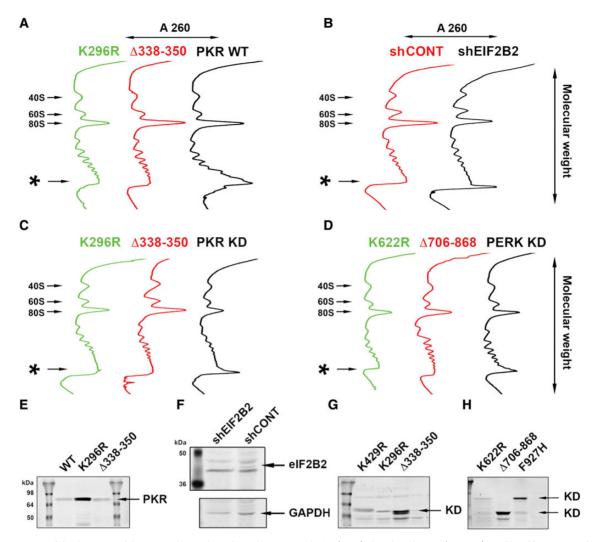


Figure 5 Measure of the function of the $\beta4$ - $\beta5$ loop of PKR by polysome analysis. (**A**–**D**) The absorbance (260 nm) profile of fractionated whole-cell lysate from: (**A**) HEK293:shPKR cells expressing full-length PKR (WT), this protein with the $\beta4$ - $\beta5$ loop removed ($\Delta338$ –350), or an inactivating mutation (K296R); (**B**) HEK293 cells expressing a nontargeting shRNA (shCONT), or targeting elF2B2 (shElF2B2); (**C**) HEK293:shPKR cells expressing the PKR KD only with an activating mutation (K429A) alone, and the $\beta4$ - $\beta5$ segment removed ($\Delta338$ –350), or with an inactivating mutation (K296R); (**D**) HEK293:shPKR cells expressing the PERK KD with an activating mutation (F927H) alone, and the $\beta4$ - $\beta5$ segment removed ($\Delta706$ –868), or with an inactivating mutation (K622R). Absorbance peaks within the profile corresponding to the position of the ribosomal subunits (40S and 60S), assembled monosome (80S) and sequentially increasing polysomes culminating in a high molecular weight fraction (*) are indicated with arrows on the left of the profiles. Polysome assays were repeated a minimum of three times for each kinase construct and a representative profile presented. (**E**–**H**) Western blots detecting the expression of the indicated kinase constructs, or endogenous elF2B2 in HEK293:shPKR cells. (**E**) Full-length WT, kinase-dead (K296R), and PKR with the $\beta4$ - $\beta5$ loop removed ($\Delta338$ –350); (**F**) Endogenous elF2B2 in HEK293 cells stably expressing shRNAs against the gene (shElF2B2) or a nontargeting control (shCONT). The concentration of protein in each sample is assessed using an antibody against GAPDH; (**G**) The active (K429R), kinase-dead (K429R+K296R), and truncated (K429R+ $\Delta338$ –350) KD of PKR; or (**H**) The active (F927H), kinase-dead (F927H+K622R), and truncated (F927H+ $\Delta706$ –868) KD of PERK, in whole-cell lysates of transiently transfected HEK293:shPKR cells as used in the polysome profiling (**A**–**D**). The kinase constructs were detected using anti-GFP antibodies that recognize the split Venus tags

Arg262 (R262D), severely reduced the association with elF2 α (Figure 7A). Putative dynamic residues (Figure 2C) within the ATP-binding loop (Gly276-Gly277) and the β 4- β 5 loop (Asp338-Asn350) of PKR impaired, without entirely disrupting, the association with elF2 α (Figure 7A).

The fluorescent translational reporter assay was used to probe the functional significance of specific residues within the β 4- β 5 loop. PKR from species within the primate lineage appear to have undergone a divergent expansion within the β 4- β 5 insert, so that a broadly conserved motif (DYDPE-S) has been triplicated (Figure 7D). As preliminary mutagenesis suggested there was functional redundancy between these separate motifs, we chose to mutagenize the murine PKR to more simply assess the function of specific residues within the kinase insert region. As for the

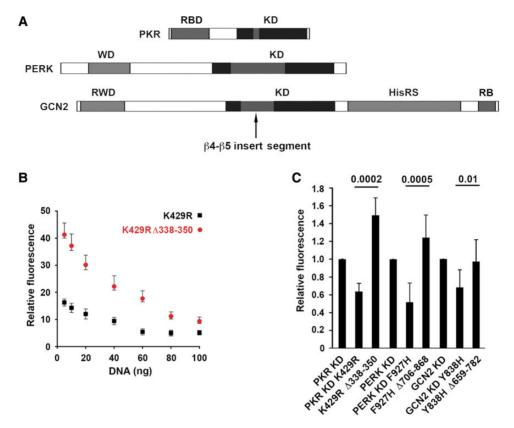


Figure 6 Measure of the function of the β 4- β 5 loop of PKR by translational reporter assay. (**A**) A schematic showing the domain structures of three elF2 α kinases: PKR, PERK, and GCN2. The proteins' kinase domains (KD) are shown in black with the β 4- β 5 insert segment colored gray. The remaining features indicated are the RNA-binding domain (RBD) in PKR, tryptophan-aspartic repeats (WD) in PERK and in GCN2 the histidyl-tRNA synthase-like (HisRS), ribosomal-binding and dimerization (RB) and an analogous protein feature shared between RING finger-containing, WD-repeat-containing and DEAD-like helicase proteins (RWD). (**B**) Protein translation measured as the level of fluorescence produced in HEK293:shPKR cells cotransfected with an RFP reporter and increasing amounts of the active (K429R), or truncated (K429R+ Δ 338–350) KD of PKR. Data points show the sample means and variance of six replicates of a representative experiment from repeated independent experiments. Statistical significance was measured by linear regression of the intensity of RFP with the PKR constructs and their concentration as covariates (*P* < 0.0001). (**C**) Protein translation measured as RFP in HEK293:shPKR cells cotransfected with various KD constructs of PKR (as labeled), PERK, or GCN2. Fluorescence was normalized to that of the WT KD for each peptide. Statistical significance was measured by *t*-test with four, six, and ten independent experimental replicates for PKR, PERK, and GCN2, respectively.

human kinase, deletion of the murine PKR β 4- β 5 loop (residues Glu310-Ser317) reduced translational control (Figure 7E). Mutation of residues that were broadly conserved between different species, including Asp306, Tyr307, Asp308, Glu310, Ser312, Ser314, Ser317, or Arg318 to alanine, all affected kinase function (Figure 7E). The relative activity of the different mutant proteins shows that Glu306 had the most significant effect. This residue is at the C-terminus of the β 4 element, so it cannot be ruled out that this mutation has altered the structure of the KD. More modest effect on kinase activity is apportioned between the remaining residues. As separate mutations within the β 4- β 5 loop of murine PKR had an effect on protein function it suggests the effect of this insert segment is not regulated by nonspecific backbone interactions of the amino acids.

Discussion

Many of the growing number of experimentally determined protein structures capture proteins in low energy, inactive states.

This, combined with the requirement to remove dynamic residues to enable protein crystallization and limited measures of protein dynamics, restricts our precise understanding of enzyme activity. Here we have taken advantage of a highly informative static structure deduced for the active, dimeric PKR in association with its substrate $elF2\alpha$ to generate coarse-grained molecular models of the protein complex. Consistent with an emerging scenario for dynamics carrying allosteric free energy, our analyses predict a transferral of dynamic strength between PKR protomers to the bound substrate that leads to rigidification of PKR as it complexes with $elF2\alpha$. Predicted dynamism from these simulations shows that many of the regions that are absent from the current highresolution structures of $eIF2\alpha$ kinases are dynamic hot spots. Experimental testing of one of these putative dynamic regions demonstrates that residues within the B4-B5 loop control protein function.

Our analysis predicts that the β 3- β 4 loop of eIF2 α adopts two orientations with significant bearing on its competence as a

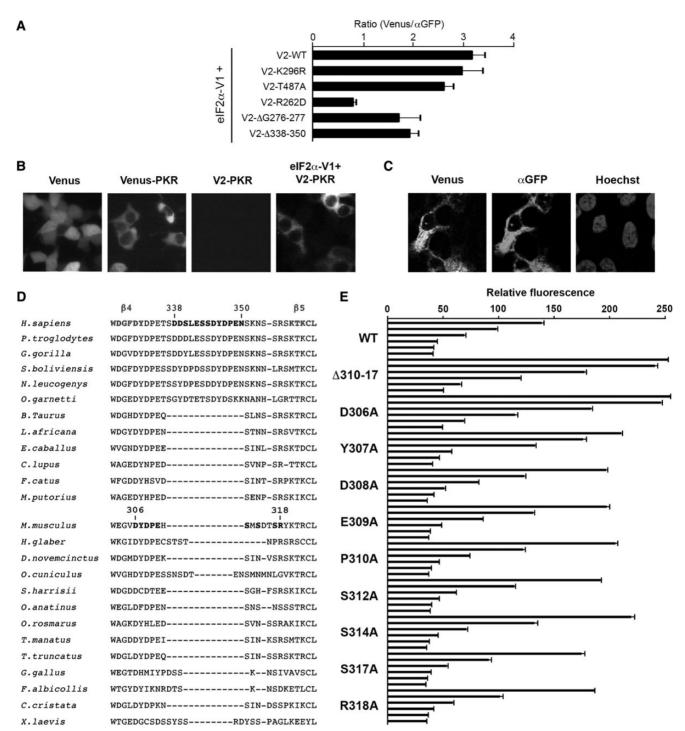


Figure 7 Functional interrogation of residues within the $\beta4$ - $\beta5$ loop. (**A**–**C**) Quantitation of protein–protein interactions measured as the levels of fluorescence in HEK293:shPKR cells transfected with split Venus fused to elF2 α and PKR constructs. (**A**) The effect of residues in PKR (as labeled) on the protein's interaction with elF2 α . (**B**) Micrographs showing fluorescence in HEK293:shPKR cells transfected with plasmids expressing; Venus alone, Venus tagged to PKR localized in the cell cytoplasm, PKR tagged with the C-terminal half (V2) of a split Venus, and this construct co-expressed with elF2 α tagged with the reciprocal N-terminal (V1) part of a split Venus. (**C**) Micrographs of HEK293:shPKR cells co-expressing V2-PKR and elF2 α -V1 showing the protein association as Venus fluorescence (left), detection of the V2 split protein by immunofluorescence with primary anti-GFP and secondary Alexa647 secondary antibodies (in center) and cell nuclei detected with Hoechst dye (right). (**D**) An alignment of residues mutated in the human, or mouse PKR. Residues colored blue indicate residues constituting part of the $\beta4$ and $\beta5$ elements within the kinase N-lobe. (**E**) Assay of the functional effect of truncating (Δ 310–17), or mutating residues (as indicated) within the $\beta4$ - $\beta5$ segment of murine PKR, measured as inhibition of an RFP translational reporter with increasing concentrations of each construct (0.625, 1.25, 2.5, 5, 10, and 20 ng/well). Data points show the sample means and variance of three replicates of a representative experiment from repeated independent experiments.

substrate. The predicted flexibility of this loop is consistent with the observed disorder of this segment in the PKR-elF2 α crystal structure, as well as by chemical shift measures calculated by NMR (Dar et al., 2005; Dey et al., 2011). Dar et al. (2005), describing the flexibility of this segment, demonstrated that mutation of residues preceding the loop region (most particularly residue Leu47) rescued activity of a mutant PKR, T487A, which had previously been demonstrated to impair phosphorylation of $elF2\alpha$. This led to speculation that this mutation either disrupted a hydrophobic network that restricts the position of Ser51 or altered linkage between $elF2\alpha$ and the kinase-docking region, which has been delineated as the helix α G in the C-lobe of the KD. Our analysis supports the former explanation. Moreover, we propose that residues between \$4-\$5 within the N-lobe of PKR modify the attitude of this flexible loop on eIF2 α . This contrasts with the current dogma that substrate interactions are limited to the C-lobe of the kinase domain. Persuasively, we observed that despite protomers being autophosphorylated and catalytically active (Dar et al., 2005; Dey et al., 2005b), a truncated PKR mutant lacking the B4-B5 loop has reduced capacity to phosphorylate $elF2\alpha$, and thus does not effectively control protein translation.

Although ignored in the literature, support for an interaction between segments of $elF2\alpha$ and the N-lobe of PKR comes from a study that identified substrate contact residues through analysis of amino acid replacement, driven by selective pressure from the poxvirus K3L inhibitor of PKR (Elde et al., 2009). K3L is considered a molecular mimic of eIF2 α (Dar and Sicheri, 2002). Elde et al. (2009) demonstrated that residues under positive selection to resist this viral mimicry occurred not only on the C-lobe of PKR (at residues Gln376, Lys380, Phe489, Ser492, and Thr496), but also on the N-lobe, within the B4-B5 loop (at residues Thr336, Asp338, Ser344, and Ser351) (Elde et al., 2009). Concordant with this, it was demonstrated that mutation of a residue (Val52) located within the helical insert of K3L, which does not contact the established substrate-binding structures (the α G helix) of PKR within the C-lobe of the KD, but that would be predicted to contact the β4-β5 loop of PKR, diminished inhibition of PKR (Dar and Sicheri, 2002). The structural similarity and inherent mode of action of K3L, to compete with $elF2\alpha$ for binding to PKR, suggest that the segment between $\beta4$ and $\beta5$ would also contact elF2 α .

A previous study reported that deletion of a larger region of PKR (residues Phe330 to Ser355) ablated kinase activity (Craig et al., 1996). To try to confirm that the loss of activity was not due to disruption of the protein structure by this truncation, a shorter region was removed (Phe330-Thr336) and several point mutations (Y323F, S337A, and S355A) were generated. The residues in this shorter truncation are outside of that demonstrated here and still encompass part of the β 4 element. Therefore, destabilization of the kinase structure cannot be excluded. Our mutagenesis of residues at the carboxyl terminus of the β 4 element of the murine PKR also perturbed enzyme activity. Of the point mutations tested, the residue Ser355 was identified as being crucial to kinase activity as measured by repression of yeast growth (Tzamarias and Thireos, 1988). Again, this residue is outside of the region identified in this study. Moreover, we were unable to corroborate a function

for this residue by fluorescent reporter assay in human cells (Supplementary Figure S2). The location of the Ser355 residue is distant from eIF2 α in the protein complex, so does not accord with the speculated interaction with the β 3- β 4 loop of eIF2 α .

We demonstrate here that the β 4- β 5 segment fulfills the same role in other eIF2 α kinases. Interestingly, this segment is enlarged in the eIF2 α kinases relative to many other protein kinases. We posit that this relates to a transferral of substrate recognition, solely from the C-lobe, to include both lobes of the eIF2 α kinases. The apparent increased importance of the β 4- β 5 segment in the eIF2 α kinases is consistent with the suggestion of a requirement for more stringent control of substrate phosphorylation, to enable translation in the face of multiple eIF2 α kinases that respond to diverse stimuli (Dey et al., 2011). However, rather than the speculation that this specificity was solely dictated by the position of the helix α G in the C-lobe, which is atypical for the eIF2 α kinases (Dar et al., 2005; Padyana et al., 2005; Cui et al., 2011), we propose that increased specificity in this kinase family is also afforded through additional contacts with residues in the N-lobe of the KD.

Analogous to our finding for the $elF2\alpha$ kinases, residues within the β 4- β 5 segment of the transforming growth factor- β (TGF- β) type-I receptors have also been shown to control substrate phosphorylation. Residues within this segment (termed the L45 loop) of the kinase domain contact residues within the L3 loop of the different SMAD substrate proteins to regulate specific transcriptional responses (Feng and Derynck, 1997; Chen et al., 1998). Still other instances of this mechanism appear to have been identified (Kazlauskas and Cooper, 1989; Carlberg et al., 1991). The β4-β5 segment of the TGF-B receptor family, also, encodes additional residues from the majority of protein kinases. Approximately 60 kinases have an extended \u03b34-\u03b35 segment (Hanks and Quinn, 1991) (http://kinase.com/human/kinome/phylogeny.html). If merely the length of this segment is predictive of contacts to the protein substrates, then the mode of action identified for the elF2 α and TGF- β receptor kinases may comprise a recurrent mechanism of kinase action. In most, if not all, crystallographic protein kinase structures this segment has been removed. Hence, the significance of this region for the function of protein kinases has been largely overlooked.

In summary, we generate a theoretical full-length structure of $eIF2\alpha$ and the KD of PKR that is tested for its ability to replicate previously observed protein states derived from modified peptides. Functional interrogation using mutagenesis coupled with analysis of the state and activity of the proteins, demonstrated that dynamic residues predicted within both molecules, which are removed or unresolved in current experimentally derived structures, are critical for enzyme activity. Importantly, we demonstrated that the β 4- β 5 loop within the N-lobe of the KD is important for substrate phosphorylation and posit that this is required to correctly position the serine phosphor-residue within the flexible B3-B4 loop of elF2 α . Figure 8 shows a model that reinterprets the current mechanism of action of PKR to account for the critical role of flexible loops in the N-lobe outside of the canonical substrate-binding region in the C-lobe of the kinase domain and encompassing the serine phosphor-residue in the substrate.

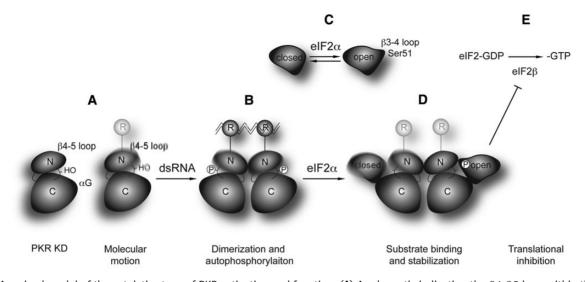


Figure 8 A revised model of the catalytic steps of PKR activation and function. (**A**) A schematic indicating the $\beta4$ - $\beta5$ loop within the N-lobe (N) and the substrate-binding α G helix within the C-lobe (C) of the PKR KD. The inactive PKR monomer has dynamic motion (depicted by blurring of elements in the right graphic), particularly within the N-lobe at the $\beta4$ - $\beta5$ loop. (**B**) The inactive monomer is activated by binding of RNA (zigzag line) at the protein's RBD (R), which initiates dimerization and stimulates autophosphorylation within the kinase activation loop (P). (**C** and **D**) Active, dimeric PKR associates with elF2 α in one of two conformations (with regard to the orientation of the $\beta3$ - $\beta4$ loop as depicted in **C**) that have different fitness as substrates. Stabilization of the $\beta3$ - $\beta4$ loop of elF2 α in the open conformation diminishes the dynamic motion of the entire protein complex (contrasted on the left and right of the complex in **D**), thereby enabling phosphorylation of the serine residue number 51 of elF2 α that is embodied within the $\beta3$ - $\beta4$ loop. (**E**) Phosphorylated elF2 α inhibits protein translation by sequestering the guanine nucleotide exchange factor elF2B.

Materials and methods

Structures and molecular modeling of PKR-eIF2 α

The theoretical structures of PKR and KD-elF2 α were obtained by using the atomic coordinates of PDB:2A1A and PDB:1QU6, for the KD-elF2 α and RBD as the initial input structures. The missing segments and residues from the KD (residues 338–354 and 542–551), elF2 α (residues 49–60), and RBD (residues 1–9 and 169–254) were restored by bioinformatics and structural modeling methods. A coarse-grained dynamics and normal mode analysis algorithm based on an elastic network model of protein was then applied. The theoretical temperature factors (B-factors) agree well with the backbone dynamics derived from NMR measurements and X-ray diffractions.

Modeling, simulation, and visualizations

The modeled structures for different conformational states of PKR were first relaxed by molecular mechanics (MM) minimization before the NMA/GNM and COREX computations. The MM minimization was performed using ~2000 steps by NAMD (Kalé et al., 1999) with threshold energy less than 10^{-4} kcal mol⁻¹ Å⁻¹. The dynamics minimization and normal modes analysis were carried out on a Linux cluster of 195 × 4 Quad-core Intel CPUs. Typically it takes only a few CPU minutes (<5 min) to accomplish an NMA/GNM calculation of PKR (~1100 residues for dimer) or MM computing (in parallel mode). Structural modeling, analysis and graphics visualization were processed by the Virtual Molecular Dynamics (VMD) package (Humphrey et al., 1996).

Dynamic fluctuations and correlations in PKR

Dynamic correlations in proteins can be interpreted by the dynamics of cross-correlations among residue fluctuations when the protein undergoes conformational changes (Liu et al., 2006, 2008). As the covariance matrix calculates the correlated fluctuations of atoms throughout the protein, to determine coupling between intra- and inter-domain changes, we define a difference correlation matrix of motions between two discrete conformations of protein, e.g. upon ligand binding, as (Liu et al., 2008),

$$C_{AB} = \frac{C_{ij}^{A} - C_{ij}^{B}}{2} = \frac{\langle \Delta \mathbf{r}_{i} \cdot \Delta \mathbf{r}_{j} \rangle^{A} - \langle \Delta \mathbf{r}_{i} \cdot \Delta \mathbf{r}_{j} \rangle^{B}}{2}$$
(1)

where *A* and *B* refer to two dynamically distinguished conformations. For example, they may refer to the 'open' and 'closed' states, and transient conformers between them. The diagonalized and normalized C_{AB} should have values varying from -1, 0 to +1, showing the strongly correlated, noncorrelated, and strongly anticorrelated motions between conformations of *A* and *B*. The term $\langle \Delta r_i \cdot \Delta r_j \rangle$ refers to the variance-covariance matrix of the atomic fluctuations between atom *i* and atom *j*. This matrix can be derived from dynamics data from either experimental measurements or molecular simulations. However, both experimental methods and molecular dynamics simulations currently have great difficulty in handling large biomolecules over long timescales. Here, an alternative approach is used for an accurate, and computationally fast, determination of $\langle \Delta r_i \cdot \Delta r_j \rangle$. Using the dynamics algorithm of an improved Gaussian network model (GNM) (Bahar et al., 1997), the atomic details of a protein can be coarse-grained by a Gaussian elastic network of its backbone C^{α} atoms. Mean-square fluctuations of residues, or the cross-correlations, can then be determined via (Tobi and Bahar, 2005),

$$\langle \Delta \mathbf{r}_i \cdot \Delta \mathbf{r}_j \rangle = \frac{3k_{\rm B}T}{\gamma} [\Gamma^{-1}]_{ij} \tag{2}$$

where γ is a theoretical parameter mimicking the strength of the harmonic potential of the elastic network of C^{α} atoms. $[\Gamma^{-1}]_{ij}$ is the *ij*th element of the inverse Kirchhoff matrix Γ , a symmetric matrix also known as the valency adjacency matrix in graph topology theory. In the GNM approximation, the elements of Γ are given by (Bahar et al., 1997),

$$\Gamma_{ij} = \begin{cases} -1 & \text{if } i \neq j \text{ and } r_{ij} \leq r_{\text{C}} \\ \text{o, if } i \neq j \text{ and } r_{ij} \leq r_{\text{C}} \\ -\sum_{i \neq i} \Gamma_{ij} & \text{if } i = j \text{ and} \end{cases}$$
(3)

The summation for evaluating Γ_{ij} is performed over all off-diagonal elements on the *i*th residue at a cutoff distance of r_c , which defines the range of interactions between residues. The mean-square fluctuations of C^{α} atoms from Equation (2) also lead to theoretical temperature B-factor values, i.e. $B_i = 8\pi^2 \cdot \langle \Delta r_i \cdot \Delta r_i \rangle / 3$, which compare well with X-ray crystallography measurements and other methods (Bahar et al., 1997).

Normal mode analysis using elastic network model

Normal mode analysis (NMA) provides an approximation of protein motions by expanding the motion into a superposition of different normal modes of vibrations, where each normal mode is characterized by a frequency of vibration of overdamped dynamics. Low frequency NMA modes using elastic network models have been applied widely to globular proteins (Delarue and Dumas, 2004; Ma, 2005) to describe their collective dynamics, dynamic domains, hinge-bending motion, and other functionally important motions. As proteins perform most biological functions dynamically starting near the native states, NMA using elastic network model of proteins is based on a harmonic perturbation approximation of the potential energy function around a global minimum conformational state. Therefore, NMA captures the intrinsic modes of motions encoded in the protein structures. Conformational transitions in proteins, such as open/closed conformers upon ligand binding or oligomerization due to protein-protein interaction, can be well captured via normal mode analysis.

NMA can discriminate conformation changes between large-scale, long-range amplitude motions (via low-frequency modes) and confined, local motions (via high-frequency modes). The relative importance of normal modes in a particular conformational change is evaluated in terms of collectivity and overlap coefficients (Delarue and Dumas, 2004). Collectivity measures the collective degree of protein motion in a certain mode, i.e. the number of residues significantly involved in that mode. In this work, NMA was performed mainly with the GNM algorithm (Bahar et al., 1997), where the protein structure details were coarse-grained by a Gaussian elastic network of the backbone C^{α} atoms. Fluctuation and flexibility (interpreted as the residue temperature B-factor) were derived by Equation (2). Dynamic correlations in conformational transitions were determined by Equation (1). More detailed NMA results of PKR dimerization and interaction with elF2 α are provided in Supplementary material.

Dynamic stability analysis

To determine dynamic stabilities of the PKR–eIF2 α complex, a COREX/BEST algorithm (Vertrees et al., 2005) can also be employed where the fluctuations for different conformational states, e.g. the inactive and active states, are sampled by statistical thermodynamics rather than structural states. COREX/BEST produces a stability constant at each residue as thermodynamic metric, wherein each of the static structural properties is weighted according to its energetic impact (e.g. surface area, polarity, and packing are implicitly considered). The dynamic nature of stability means that residues with high stability constants will be less flexible and will fold in the majority of highly probable states. On the other hand, residues with low stability constants will be more flexible and less likely to be folded in many of the highly probable states.

Bimolecular complementation assays

Bimolecular complementation assays were performed as previously described (Hu et al., 2002; MacDonald et al., 2006) in HEK293:shPKR cultured in DMEM supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum under puromycin (10 μ g/ml) selection, at 37°C in a 5% CO₂ humidified incubator. Levels of Venus fluorescence were normalized to protein expression, measured by immune analysis (Figure 7C). Cells (0.5 × 10⁵/well) plated onto confocal glass coverslips, in a 24-well plate (BD Falcon), were fixed in 10% formalin for 5 min, before rinsing and permeabilizing in 0.1% Triton-X 100 in PBS for 5 min prior to treatment with CAS-block (Invitrogen) for 30 min. Either half of the split Venus protein was detected with the primary monoclonal anti-GFP antibodies, 7.1 and 13.1 (Roche), or B34 (Covance), followed by Alexa647 or 594 labeled secondary antibodies, and imaged on the Leica SP5 multichannel under eYFP conditions or on a Nikon C1 confocal (GFP settings).

Immunoanalysis

Western blot analysis was conducted by transferring whole-cell lysates to Immobilon-FL, probing with primary antibodies followed by Alexa 680 nm or IRdye800 nm secondary antibodies, then visualizing by Licor-Odyssey (Biosciences). Primary antibodies consisted of the rabbit polyclonal eIF2 α [pS52]PAb, eIF2 α PAb (Invitrogen), rabbit monoclonal antibody YE350 (Abcam), rabbit polyclonal EIF2B2 (Abcam), and mouse monoclonal GAPDH (Abcam). Western blots were quantified with NIH Image J using sum intensity of the OD profile plots, with background correction calculated per lane.

Assays of protein translation

A fluorescent reporter was generated that expressed monomeric red fluorescent protein (RFP) under control of an RNA polymerase III U6 promoter enhanced with the RNA polymerase II cytomegalovirus promoter in a pBluescript (Stratagene) backbone plasmid. The level of RFP was measured using a Typhoon Trio (GE Healthcare). The isolated kinase domains of PKR, PERK, and GCN2 were constructed (in the pcDNA3.1) as described previously (Dey et al., 2005a; Padyana et al., 2005; Cui et al., 2011). The various point mutations and truncations were introduced by PCR.

Ribosomal analysis was conducted with HEK293 expressing shRNAs (SIGMA) against PKR, eIF2B2, or a nontargeting shRNA. One μ g of each kinase construct was transfected into 2 \times 10⁶ cells in a 6 cm dish, then passaged after 24 h into three 10 cm dishes and grown for a further 24 h until reaching 50% confluence. The cells were treated with 100 μ M of cycloheximide (SIGMA) for 10 min at 37°C, rinsed and suspended in ice-cold PBS with $100 \,\mu\text{M}$ of cycloheximide by scraping the cells from the plate. The cell suspension was pelleted at 4°C, resuspended in ice-cold cell lysis buffer (10 mM HEPES-KOH, pH 7.9, 2.5 mM MgCl₂, 100 mM KCl, 1 mM DTT, 0.1% Nonidet P-40, 100 units/ml RNase inhibitor and 100 μ g/ml cycloheximide), homogenized by passing through a 25-gauge syringe needle, and centrifuged at 6000 rpm for 15 min to remove cell debris. The cleared cell extract (5-10 A_{260} units) was fractionated by centrifugation in a Beckman optimal L-90K ultra-centrifuge at 16500 rpm for 20.5 h using a SW41 rotor through a discontinuous 10%-50% sucrose gradient (prepared in 10 mM HEPES-KOH pH 7.9, 2.5 mM MgCl₂, 100 mM KCl, and 1 mM DTT) that had been frozen then thawed. The fractionated sample was displaced from the centrifugation tube by pumping a 60% sucrose solution into the bottom of the tube and the ribosomal loading on mRNA assessed by measuring absorbance at 260 nm using a Brandel BR-18b-5 fractionator system.

Statistical analysis

The statistical applications within Microsoft Excel, or the program R-2.14.0 (http://R-project.org) was used to analyze the data.

Supplementary material

Supplementary material is available at *Journal of Molecular Cell Biology* online.

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