Electrostatics, hydration, and proton transfer dynamics in the membrane domain of respiratory complex I

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Complex I serves as the primary electron entry point into the mitochondrial and bacterial respiratory chains. It catalyzes the reduction of quinones by electron transfer from NADH, and couples this exergonic reaction to the translocation of protons against an electrochemical proton gradient. The membrane domain of the enzyme extends ~180 Å from the site of quinone reduction to the most distant proton pathway. To elucidate possible mechanisms of the long-range proton-coupled electron transfer process, we perform large-scale atomistic molecular dynamics simulations of the membrane domain of complex I from Escherichia coli. We observe spontaneous hydration of a putative proton entry channel at the NuoN/K interface, which is sensitive to the protonation state of buried glutamic acid residues. In hybrid quantum mechanics/classical mechanics simulations, we find that the observed water wires support rapid proton transfer from the protein surface to the center of the membrane domain. To explore the functional relevance of the pseudosymmetric inverted-repeat structures of the antiporter-like subunits NuoL/M/N, we constructed a symmetry-related structure of a possible alternate-access state. In molecular dynamics simulations, we find the resulting structural changes to be metastable and reversible at the protein backbone level. However, the increased hydration induced by the conformational change persists, with water molecules establishing enhanced lateral connectivity and pathways for proton transfer between conserved ionizable residues along the center of the membrane domain. Overall, the observed water-gated transitions establish conduits for the unidirectional proton translocation processes, and provide a possible coupling mechanism for the energy transduction in complex I.

The proton-translocating membrane domain of complex I comprises three antiporter-like subunits, NuoN, NuoM, and NuoL (Escherichia coli naming), which are connected to the hydrophilic domain of the NuoA/J/K/H subunits (10, 11). The antiporter-like subunits are homologous to each other as well as to, for example, Mrp (multiresistance and pH adaptation) Na+/H-antiporters and certain hydrogenases (12). The antiporter-like subunits have an intrinsic sequence identity of ~20%, but an even more evident structural homology: the transmembrane (TM) helices 4–8 and 9–13 can be structurally superimposed (Fig. 1B). These subunits also contain several crucial residues for the proton translocation process (1, 2) (Table S1). During the completion of this study, a new X-ray structure of the intact complex I from Thermus thermophilus was released (13). The structure reveals that the NuoH subunit (Nqo8 in T. thermophilus) has structural resemblance to the TM helix segment 4–8 of the antiporter-like NuoN/M/L subunits (13), and may thus also be involved in the proton-pumping machinery. A detailed comparison of key regions of the Escherichia coli and Thermus thermophilus membrane domains is shown in Fig. S1.

Interestingly, mutation of conserved residues in the NuoL subunit, ~180 Å away from the hydrophilic domain, leads to loss of the Q-reductase activity (1, 2) (Table S1). Although expected for a fully reversible proton-coupled electron transfer machine, this tight coupling imposes severe mechanistic demands. Remarkably, after deletion of subunits equivalent to NuoL and NuoM, the apparent pumping stoichiometry was reduced by about one-half (14). The putative proton transfer pathways through the membrane domain are distant from the redox-active

**Significance**

Using large-scale classical and quantum simulations, we elucidate key aspects of the molecular function of complex I, a protein central to biological energy conversion. Complex I serves as the primary electron entry point into the mitochondrial and bacterial respiratory chains and operates as a redox-coupled proton pump. Our simulations suggest that transient water chains establish highly efficient pathways for proton transfer. Our findings form a basis for understanding long-range energy conversion in complex I, and mechanistic similarities to other redox-driven proton-pumps, such as cytochrome c oxidase and bacteriorhodopin.

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groups mediating electron transfer through the hydrophilic domain (10). As a consequence, the proton-coupled electron transfer in complex I is expected to differ mechanistically from that in other systems, such as ribonucleotide reductase, an enzyme involved in synthesis of DNA from RNA, where the proton and the electron are transferred concertedly along a pathway of conserved residues (15, 16). In contrast, in complex I the electron and proton transfers are separated both kinetically and spatially. To explain this long-range coupling, both “direct” (redox-driven) and “indirect” (conformational-driven) mechanisms have been suggested, but the molecular principles of these mechanisms remain elusive (1, 2, 4, 17–22).

Complex I has been suggested to undergo conformational changes, which may drive the proton-translocation process (11, 23). Superimposing the TM helix segments of NuoN, NuoM, and NuoL suggests that TM helices 4–6/9–11 have high structural similarity, whereas TM helices 7–8, and 12–13 are in a different conformation. To gain further insight into the long-range coupling mechanism, we study here the dynamics of the membrane domain of complex I from *E. coli* by large-scale atomistic molecular dynamics (MD) simulations, hybrid quantum mechanics/molecular mechanics (QM/MM) approaches, and continuum electrostatics calculations. Our simulations, both in the state of the crystal structure and in a putative alternate-access state with inverted symmetry established by harmonic restraints, give molecular insight into the structural dynamics and coupling of key residues involved in the proton translocation process. Instead of large-scale conformational changes associated with traditional transporter function, we show here that extensive changes in internal hydration establish the changes in protonic access required for pumping. With these hydration changes found to be strongly coupled to the charge states of conserved titratable residues, and their charge states in turn coupled to each other, internal water thus emerges as the key element in the redox-coupled proton translocation process that connects the extensive network of buried ionizable residues with each other and with the surfaces.

**Results**

**Proton Uptake Channels.** In an unrestrained MD simulation of the membrane domain of complex I, we observed spontaneous hydration of the initially dry NuoN/NuoK interface at 220–240 ns (Fig. 2). The resulting water chain established hydrogen-bond connectivity between the N-side of the membrane and the buried

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**Fig. 1.** Structure and internal symmetry of complex I from *E. coli*. (A) Membrane (PDB ID: 3RKO) and hydrophilic domains (PDB ID: 2FUG) of complex I embedded in a lipid membrane. The antipporter-like subunits NuoN, NuoM, and NuoL are shown in yellow, blue, and red, respectively. (B) TM helix segments 4–8 (blue) and 9–13 (red) in NuoNML, structurally superimposed. TM helices 4–6 and 9–11 have high structural similarity, whereas TM helices 7–8, and 12–13 are in a different conformation. (C) Position of key residues in the membrane domain of complex I. The amphipathic HL helix (red) lies parallel to the membrane plane, and contacts all three antipporter-like subunits.

**Fig. 2.** Hydration of the proton uptake channel in complex I at the NuoN/NuoK interface. (Upper) Water occupancy showing a spontaneous influx at ~220 ns (symbols). Drying is induced by neutralization of both Glu-36K and Glu-72K (blue line), but not of Glu-72K alone (red line), and by a T160I mutation (green line), starting from the hydrated configuration at 250 ns, and simulated for 50 ns. (Lower) MD snapshots of (A) S1 state, (B) after protonation of Glu-72K (E72K), (C) after protonation of Glu-36K and Glu-72K (E36K, E72K), and (D) in T160I mutant, as indicated in the Upper panel.
residues Glu-72\(_K\) and Glu-36\(_K\) (Fig. 2A). The opening of this water conduit at the N-side of the membrane is lined by positively charged residues at the channel opening, followed by a hydrophobic gate before reaching Glu-72\(_K\) and Glu-36\(_K\) (Fig. 2A). Glu-72\(_K\) at the center of the membrane domain serves as a bifurcation point, with chains of ionizable residues and water molecules continuing both toward NuoN and toward NuoK.

The formation of the water chain is tightly coupled to the protonation state of conserved ionizable residues at the center of the membrane domain. After we protonated both Glu-72\(_K\) and Glu-36\(_K\) in the hydrated configuration obtained at the end of the 250-ns simulation, the water chain destabilized and disassembled on a nanosecond timescale (Fig. 2C). In contrast, the water chain persisted for the entire 50-ns simulation when only Glu-72\(_K\) was protonated (Fig. 2B). These findings indicate that the reversibly formed water chain and the buried carboxylates at the center of the membrane domain may function as proton transfer mediators, consistent with electrostatics calculations and site-directed mutagenesis experiments described below, and similar to what has been suggested for Glu-242 in cytochrome c oxidase (CcO) (25–27). To deliver protons, water may provide a reversible molecular gate that opens when the glutamates are deprotonated, and closes in their neutral state.

Indeed, in hybrid QM/MM simulations we observed rapid proton transfer from the N-side of the membrane along the water chain to the conserved glutamates (Fig. 3 and Movie S1). We performed five independent QM/MM simulations of the uptake of a proton from the bulk region. Starting from a hydrophobic gate before reaching Glu-72\(_K\) and Glu-36\(_K\) (Fig. 2A), the formation of the water chain is tightly coupled to the protonation state of these residues. Structurally, these glutamates reside in close proximity (∼5 Å) from each other, and Glu-72\(_K\) is separated by only 4 Å from the Glu/Lys ion pair, suggesting that the protonation states of these residues are strongly coupled (see below). Amarneh and Vlk (31) (Table S1) found the T160\(_N\) point mutation to decrease both Q-reduction activity and to inhibit proton pumping in the E. coli enzyme, although in contrast to the glutamates discussed above, T160 is not conserved in all species. Nevertheless, in the 50-ns classic MD simulation of the in silico-mutated T160\(_N\)-I-model (simulation S\(_9\)) (Fig. 2D), initiated from the fully hydrated channel structure, we observed disassembly of the water chain within 1 ns, triggered by a rotation of the bulky hydrophobic side-chain of Ile-160\(_N\) and blockage of the channel to the N-side of the membrane. This side-chain rotation most likely shields the charge of the buried carboxylates and may thus decrease the influx of water and, in turn, of protons into the protein interior. Although the NuoH subunit is missing from the membrane structure of complex I from E. coli, we find that the structure of the NuoN/K interface remains nearly unchanged relative to the complete structure of complex I (Fig. S1). In particular, the three glutamates at the interface are conserved, suggesting that the hydration effects observed here at the NuoN/K interface also occur in the complete structure of complex I.

Fig. 3. Snapshots of the QM/MM simulation of proton uptake from the N-side of the membrane along the water chain of Fig. 2A to Glu-72\(_K\). Arrows indicate the locations of the protonic defect. The dynamics of the hydrogen-bonded network is shown in Fig. S2 and Movie S1.

Fig. 4. Putative proton transfer pathways in complex I from the N-side (top of the subunit structures) to the P-side (bottom). The figure shows the proton transfer pathways suggested by Efremov and Sazanov (10), and relates them to the water occupancy obtained at the end of the 250-ns unrestrained MD simulation (see main text). Water molecules within a radius of 6 Å from the listed residues are shown in van-der-Waals representation (in red). The likely and less likely proton pathways suggested by Efremov and Sazanov (10) are indicated with blue and green lines, respectively, the latter being marked in addition with "?". The proton pathways indicated by the current simulations are shown as black dashed lines. Crucial charged residues according to Efremov and Sazanov (10) are labeled in red. The observed water density coincides with the alternate proton pathways of Efremov and Sazanov (10) in all subunits.

![Image](https://www.pnas.org/cgi/doi/10.1073/pnas.1319156111)
NuoM (with gaps in hydration). Most importantly, the reversibly hydrated, proton-conducting water wire leading to Glu-72\(_N\) identified and characterized here superimposes nicely with a pathway proposed by Efremov and Suzanov (10). The hydration pattern shown in Fig. 4 also suggests possible pathways from Glu-72\(_N\) to the N-side, either proceeding into the N subunit or directly along a water wire entering from the N-side toward Glu-72\(_N\) at the N/K interface. The observed hydration patterns thus provide further guidance for the experimental and computational delineation of the complete proton transfer network in complex I.

Conformational Changes in Antipporter-Like Subunits. Structural studies (10, 11, 23) suggested that complex I may undergo significant motion, possibly linked to proton-access alternation of the antipporter-like subunits. To study how an alternate-access state may induce activation of the proton pump, we performed a 150-ns MD simulation in a putative alternate access state, motivated by the evolutionary homology to antipoters and created by imposing the antipporter symmetry (24) onto the backbone. We restrained the two repeats TM 4–8 and 9–13 of NuoN related by a pseudotwo-fold symmetry axis (10) to their respective superimposed symmetry-related structures (i.e., the backbone structure of TM 4–8 imposed to the backbone structure of TM 9–13 and vice versa) (Materials and Methods). As a result of the ~2 Å rmsd conformational change imposed on the NuoN backbone (Fig. S3), the extent of the interior hydration increased significantly beyond that of the unrestrained MD simulation, having started from a dry initial structure. As in the unrestrained simulation, the water molecules entered from the N-side of the membrane through the NuoN/K interface, but then additionally formed a hydrogen-bonded wire connecting the central Lys/Glu ion pair with the conserved distal lysine residues at the other end of the NuoN subunit along a lateral pathway at the center of the membrane domain (Fig. 5). Site-directed mutagenesis experiments have implicated these and other nearby residues in proton pumping (Table S1).

Whereas only NuoN was driven to an alternate access state by imposing structural restraints on the two antipporter-like halves of NuoN, the induced increase in hydration extended beyond to the NuoM subunit (Figs. 5 and 6). Water molecules occupied regions near the central Lys/Glu ion pair, and the more distant lysine/glutamate residues at the other antipporter-like half of the NuoM subunit (TM 9–13) (Fig. 5). In the most distal NuoL subunit, the hydration increased to the same level in the unrestrained and restrained simulations, albeit faster in the latter. However, in contrast to the dry crystal structure, the distal Lys-399\(_N\) residue formed a hydrogen-bonded connectivity with the P-side of the membrane. Similarly to the observed NuoN–NuoM coupling, we found the wetting transition to propagate to the NuoL subunits when the internal helix symmetry of the TM helices 4–8 and 9–13 in NuoM was interchanged (simulation S5) (Fig. S4). The cooperativity between the hydration states of neighboring subunits could help activate the proton pump by switching from a “dry” inactive to a “wet” active state primed to proton uptake from the N-side of the membrane.

The antipporter-like subunits thus appear to toggle reversibly between dry and wet hydration states, with only minimal structural changes of their backbones (Fig. S3). Such alternating hydration states, with minimal conformational changes, would indeed be expected to be even more suitable for active proton translocation than the more leakage-prone conformational dynamics associated with traditional antipporter function. Indeed, upon releasing the structural constraints in the alternate configurational state of the S2 simulation, we found that the backbone structure relaxed back close to its unbiased state, as indicated by the drop in rmsd (Fig. S3, Top). This relaxation suggests that the initial bias induced a reversible change in the structure. By contrast, the increased hydration persisted on the 50-ns simulation timescale, even as the subunit backbone structures relaxed. Importantly, we did not observe any significant water escape from the protein back into bulk, as shown in Fig. 6. Our simulation data thus suggest that water molecules form a crucial element in this proton conduction pathway, similar to what has been suggested for CcO (25, 32, 33), as well as for the light-driven proton-pump bacteriorhodopsin (bR) (34). Our findings also directly support the hypothesis by Baradaran et al. (13) that water molecules may play an important role in providing protonic connectivity between key amino acids. Interestingly, the functional significance of transient hydration in the function of structurally related membrane transporters was recently also discussed by Li et al. (35).
The results of continuum electrostatics calculations provide additional support for a possible functional role of the ionizable residues buried deeply in the membrane domain. Table 1 shows computed pKₐ values of the conserved ionizable residues, obtained from an ensemble of structures along 100-ns segments of the MD trajectories. The calculated values suggest that most of these residues are in their charged states in the unrestrained state (S₁), but that the alternate extensively hydrated conformational state (S₂) leads to considerable shifts in computed pKₐ values, and induced protonation changes in the central glutamic and lysine residues in the NuoN/K (Table 1). The calculations take into account the dielectric polarization of the medium, but may underestimate the inhomogeneous dielectric effects that result from the influx of water molecules. Despite these shortcomings, the S₂ state is predicted to lead to considerable changes in the electrostatic interaction energy between these charged residues, as shown in Table S2.

To obtain a better understanding of the intersubunit coupling, we analyzed the computed pKₐ values upon protonation of the glutamates within the Lys-Glu ion pairs, which may be mediated by the water-chain to the N-side of the membrane. We found that protonation of the glutamic acid residues strongly decreased the pKₐ of the respective lysine residue in the ion pairs. Deprotonation of the lysines could induce a proton displacement cascade within the subunit half-channels. However, our calculations further suggest that protonation of the glutamic acid in the Lys-Glu ion pair of NuoN alone may not induce a strong enough polarization to release a proton by the distal Lys-395N in the other half-channel of NuoN to the P-side of the membrane. In contrast, upon protonation of the glutamic acid in the Lys-Glu ion pair of NuoM, which may be driven by the cooperative intersubunit hydration effect, the computed pKₐ of the distal Lys-395N strongly decreases from ~9–4, indicating that a proton is released to the P-side of the membrane. We observe analogous interaction energies between neighboring residues in the NuoM and NuoL subunits, which suggest that protonation of the carboxylates in NuoL may analogously induce a proton release from the NuoM subunit.

### Discussion

The large-scale molecular simulations presented here suggest that the long-range energy propagation in complex I may function by charge-state–induced hydration transitions in the three antiporter-like subunits of the membrane domain. We observed cooperative hydration changes, which resulted in the formation of proton-conducting channels connecting the protein interior and surface, and possibly different membrane subunits. In addition, our electrostatics calculations showed that changes in hydration in turn induced changes in the energetically preferred protonation states. The electrostatic interactions between the buried ionizable residues are strong on a thermal energy scale, and the resulting coupling in the proton transfer network should be important for releasing protons to the P-side of the membrane. These findings directly support proton-pathways inferred from the recent X-ray crystal structures (10, 11) and numerous site-directed mutagenesis experiments, and help elucidate the molecular principles by which complex I catalyzes the long-range proton-pumping process.

The reaction cycle in complex I is initiated by reduction of Q, which results in a large charge imbalance (2, 4, 12, 20) that is expected to induce proton charge redistribution and in turn a cooperative hydration of the antiporter-like subunits. The newly released X-ray structure of complex I reveals that the Q-binding site is located in the hydrophilic NuoC (Nqo4) subunit above the interface with the membrane domains and is coupled to the latter by several charged residues within the NuoH (Nqo8) subunit. This “electrostatic wire,” with interresidue separations between ionizable and polar amino acids of only 10–15 Å, could transmit events in the Q-binding site (13) to the membrane domain. However, a detailed characterization of the coupling between Q-reduction and proton pumping awaits further experimental and computational studies.

Although other proton-pumping enzymes, such as CcO (25, 32, 33) or bR (34), appear to use primarily local electrostatic changes induced by electron transfer or photo-excitation rather than conformational-induced changes, water molecules also seem to function as crucial “catalytic” elements in these systems (25, 32, 34). Despite large differences in the architecture of their

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**Table 1. Computed MD-averaged pKₐ values of key residues in the S₁ and S₂ states**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subunit</th>
<th>Residue</th>
<th>S₁</th>
<th>S₂</th>
<th>S₃</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NuoK</td>
<td>Glu-36</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>15.7</td>
<td>9.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Glu-72</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>8.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NuoN</td>
<td>Glu-133</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>P</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lys-217</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lys-247</td>
<td>16.0</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lys-395</td>
<td>12.6</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NuoM</td>
<td>Glu-144</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>P</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lys-234</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lys-265</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glu-407</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>D*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NuoL</td>
<td>Asp-178</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>P</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lys-229</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lys-342</td>
<td>15.3</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>P</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lys-399</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>16.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

D and P indicate residues that are deprotonated and protonated within the titration range of pH = 0–17, respectively. The S₃ state is obtained by biasing residues E133, E144, and D178, to protonate (boldface letters, P) in the Monte Carlo procedure.

*A pKₐ of 18 is obtained for E407M, when using an MD-averaged structures from a simulation with a protonated E407M.*
proton pumps, with BR related to receptors, CoC to NO reducers and other heme-copper oxidases, and complex I to antiporters, this finding suggests that water-gated transitions may provide a general mechanism for proton-pumping in biological energy conversion enzymes.

Materials and Methods
MD Simulations. The X-ray structure of the membrane domain of complex I from E. coli was obtained from the Brookhaven Protein Database (PDB ID: 3RKO) (10). The protein was solvated in a POPC (1-palmitoyl-2-oleoyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphocholine) membrane, comprising 314 lipid molecules, 46,361 water molecules, and 55 Na+ and 59 Cl- ions, mimicking a 100-mM salt concentration (Fig. 55). The simulation system was comprised of 211,862 atoms, which were equilibrated using the CHARMM27 force field (36). MD simulations of 50–250 ns each (0.85 μs total) were performed at constant temperature (T = 310 K) and pressure (P = 1 atm), using a 2-fs timestep, and treating the long-range electrostatics with the Ewald approach. The simulations were performed using NAMD2 (37), and the results were analyzed in visual molecular dynamics (38). The details of the simulation set-ups are listed in Tables 53 and 54.

QM/MM Simulations. To study the proton conduction properties of the water wire observed at the NuoN/K interface, we performed hybrid QM/MM simulations. The QM region was described by the B3LYP/def2-SVP level (39–41), and comprised residues E72g, E133h, T160h, K247h, and seven water molecules. Starting structures were obtained from the last frame of the 250-ns unconstrained MD simulation. The water molecule closest to the N-side of the membrane was modified to a hydronium ion. The classic (MM) region was trimmed to include subunits NuoN/A/K, including a 3 Å water shell. This MM region was described using the CHARMM27 force field (36). Link atoms were introduced between the Cu and Cl atoms for each residue. Five MD simulations, 5 ps each, were performed at constant temperature (T = 310 K) using a 1-fs timestep in Q-Chem/CHARMM (42–44).

Electrostatics Calculations. Continuum electrostatics calculations were performed using the MEAD software (45). Residues within ±7 Å of the membrane center were modeled as titratable using the following reference pKa values in bulk: Glu: 4.0, Asp: 4.0, His: 6.5, Tyr: 9.6, Lys: 10.4, Arg: 12.0. The protein interior and a membrane slab, extending in the z direction by ±20 Å, were modeled as a low dielectric medium with a dielectric constant of ε = 4, whereas the surrounding solvent was modeled as a high dielectric medium with ε = 80. Monte Carlo sampling of the 2n protonation states was performed with KARLSBERG (46) to obtain pKa values.

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