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Molecular Model of Human Heparanase with Proposed Binding Mode of a Heparan Sulfate Oligosaccharide and Catalytic Amino Acids

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ABSTRACT:

Heparan sulfate is abundantly present in the extracellular matrix. As other glycosaminoglycans, it is synthesized in the Golgi apparatus and then exposed on the cell surface. The glucuronidase activity of human heparanase plays a major role in the structural remodeling of the extracellular matrix, which underlies cell migration, hence tumor invasion. Heparanase is therefore a major target for anti-cancer treatment. Several inhibitors of its enzymatic activity have been synthesized. However, their design is limited by the absence of experimental structure of the protein. Homology modeling is proposed based on the structure of the endoxylanase from Penicillium simplicissimum co-crystallized with a series of xylan oligosaccharide. The new heparanase model is consistent with the few experimental data suited for the validation of such work. Furthermore, the presence of natural substrates in the template structure allowed us to propose a binding model for a hydrolyzed heparin sulfate pentasaccharide. Several lysine residues have been identified to play a key role in binding to the anionic polysaccharide substrate. In addition, two phenylalanine residues are also potentially important for the interaction with the substrate. The enzymatic mechanism

Additional Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article. *Correspondence to:* Anne Imberty; e-mail: anne.imberty@cermav.cnrs.fr © 2011 Wiley Periodicals, Inc.

investigated in the light of this new model allows for the proposal of several amino acids that can influence the protonation state of the nucleophile and the proton donor. © 2011 Wiley Periodicals, Inc. Biopolymers 97: 21–34, 2012.

Keywords: glycosyl hydrolase family 79; glycosaminoglycan; homology modeling; molecular docking; cancer

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INTRODUCTION

eparan sulfate (HS) is a linear polysaccharide belonging to the group of glycosaminoglycans. It is ubiquitously present in the extracellular matrix where it is covalently attached to cell surface or matrix proteins, forming the proteoglycans.^{1,2} The repeating unit of glycosaminoglycans is a disaccharide of hexuronic acid and hexosamine. In the case of heparan sulfate, the hexuronic acid is a β -D-glucuronic (GlcA) or an α -L-iduronic (IdoA) acid, with sulfation at position 2, and the hexosamine is a α-D-glucosamine (GlcN), with sulfation at position N, 3 or 6. Heparan sulfate is involved in numerous interactions with proteins from the extracellular matrix and the cell surface. In particular, HS interacts with cellular growth factors like the vascular endothelial growth factors (VEGF)3,4 or the fibroblast growth factors (FGF).^{5,6} It often serves for concentrating the diffusible growth factor at the cell surface, as coligand to the cell surface

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receptor of those proteins, which makes HS a core gear of physiological processes such as wound healing,⁷ angiogenesis,^{8,9} or cancer development.⁹

The synthesis of heparan sulfate is initiated in the Golgi apparatus where it is synthesized as a repeat of GlcA 1–4 linked to an *N*-acetyl-glucosamine (GlcNAc). ^{10,11} In a second step, the GlcNAc is locally deacetylated, then N- and O-sulfated. ¹² Some of the GlcA residues are epimerized at C-5, resulting into IdoA. ^{13–15} Finally, the polysaccharide 2-, 3-, and/or 6-O sulfated, these sulfations being limited to the initial N/O-sulfated regions. ^{10,11,16–18} Hence, the biosynthesis of HS leads to a heterogeneous polymer organized in distinct highly sulfated domains of variable size and composition (S-domains) separated by regions of low sulfation enriched in N-acetylated disaccharide units ^{15,19,20} (NA-domains). Ultimately, the HS chain is exported on the cell surface, covalently linked to cell surface proteins.

In contrast with the synthesis, only few enzymes are involved in the extracellular modification of heparan sulfate: the 6-O-endosulfatases Sulf-1 and Sulf-2²¹ and the heparanase. 22-24 Sulf-1 and Sulf-2 are responsible for the 6-O desulfation of the highly sulfated S-domains. Heparanase is an endo-β-glucuronidase responsible for the hydrolysis of the HS chain into sulfated oligosaccharides of 5-10 kD, i.e., 10-20 sugar units.^{25,26} Those three enzymes are tightly related to cancer development and metastasis; thus considered as priority targets for the anti-cancer drug development.^{27–29} In particular, the glucuronidase activity of heparanase is required for the structural remodeling of the extracellular matrix underlying cell migration, hence tumor invasion.^{26,30} Heparanase is therefore a target for anti-cancer treatment.^{29–31} Several inhibitors of the heparanase activity have been synthesized, from sulfated oligosaccharides, like PI-88 (mixture of phosphomannopentaoses sulfate)³² or PG545 (sulfated tetrasaccharide functionalized with a cholestanyl aglycon),³³ to nonsugar-related molecules, like 2,3-dihydro-1,3dioxo-1*H*-isoindole-5-carboxylic acid³⁴ or furanyl-1,3-thiazol-2yl and benzoxazol-5-yl acetic acid derivatives.³⁵

Heparanase is encoded by the *HPSE1* gene. ^{22–24,36} The protein is initially expressed as a pre-pro-enzyme of 543 amino acids. The 65 kDa pro-enzyme is released after cleavage of the N-terminal signal peptide at the position A^{35} in the endoplasmic reticulum. The pro-enzyme is further processed by the cleavage of a 6 kDa polypeptide constituted by the amino acids S^{110} to Q^{157} resulting in mature heparanase. The maturation is operated by cathepsin L in lysosomes. ^{37,38} The active form of heparanase is a heterodimer comprising a small 8 kDa subunit $(Q^{36}-E^{109})$ noncovalently bound to a large 50 kDa subunit $(K^{158}-I^{543})$. ^{39–42}

Sequence analysis and secondary structure prediction have shown that heparanase is very likely organized into two

structural domains 43,44 : a catalytic domain with a $(\alpha/\beta)_8$ TIM-barrel fold followed by a β -sandwich C-terminal domain. This latter domain has been shown to be responsible for the heparanase secretion and the activation of the Akt signaling pathway. 44 The catalytic domain presents endo-β-Dglucuronidase activity 43,45-48 and belongs to GH family 79 in the carbohydrate-active enzymes database (www.cazy.org).⁴⁹ Similar to other glycosyl hydrolases of GH clan A, which includes GH79, the heparanase catalytic reaction uses a retaining mechanism: an acidic amino acid operates a nucleophilic attack on the carbon C1, helped by a protonated acidic residue. For heparanase, a site-directed mutagenesis study has identified the nucleophile (E343) and the proton donor (E^{225}) . The enzyme hydrolyzes the β 1–4 linkage between a glucuronic acid and a sulfated glucosamine, thus producing oligosaccharides with reducing GlcA residue. Noteworthy, heparanase cleaves the HS chain at only few sites, resulting in HS fragments of large size (\approx 10 kDa). ^{25,26} The exact nature of the HS sequence recognized by heparanase is still debated. Although the structure of the natural substrate of heparanase is still elusive, the enzymatic reaction is well known.

To date, no experimental structure of heparanase is available and no crystal structures have been solved for other enzymes of CAZY family 79. Sequence comparison demonstrated similarities between heparanase and GH families 10 (endo-1,3/4- β -xylanases), 39 (mammalian α -L-iduronidases and bacterial β -xylosidases), and 51 (bacterial α -L-arabinofuranosidases and endoglucanases).43 These similarities were used to build three-dimensional models of the structure of the catalytic domain of heparanase. 50,51 The first models have been based on the endo-β-D-xylanase from Penicillium simplicissimum (GH family 10), for which a crystal structure is available.⁵² However, none of them include the 8 kDa subunit, in spite of its requirement for the enzymatic activity of heparanase. This issue has been addressed by Fux and colleagues, who used protein structure prediction server for building a model of the whole mature form of heparanase,44 based on the crystal structure of the α-L-arabinofuranosidase from Geobacillus stearothermophilus (GH family 51). 53 The α -L-arabinofuranosidase hydrolyzes the α1-3 linkage between a xylopyranose from the xylan main chain and an arabinofuranose substituent. Such activity is very different from the one of heparanase, which hydrolyses the β 1–4 linkage between two hexopyranoses of the HS main chain. Hence, the choice of an arabinofuranosidase as a template may not be an optimal choice for modeling the binding site of heparanase.

The present study proposes a re-assessment of the template choice for the homology modeling of human heparanase. Sequence and structure analyses led us to build the model from the structure of the endoxylanase from *P. simplicissimum*

Table I Sequence Definition

Name	Definition	Sequence
HPSE HPSE _{catalytic} HPSE _{50 kDa} catalytic HPSE _{50 kDa} noncatalytic GS3 GS3 _{catalytic}	Mature form Catalytic domain of HPSE Catalytic part of the 50 kDa domain Noncatalytic part of the 50 kDa domain Monomer analog of mature heparanase ⁴⁰ Catalytic domain of GS3	$\begin{array}{l} Q^{36}\text{-}E^{109} \ (8 \ \text{kDa}) \ + \ K^{158}\text{-}I^{543} \ (50 \ \text{kDa}) \\ L^{51}\text{-}E^{109} \ + \ K^{158}\text{-}T^{416} \\ K^{158}\text{-}T^{416} \\ K^{417}\text{-}I^{543} \\ Q^{36}\text{-}E^{109} \ + \ \text{GSGSGSQ} \ + \ K^{158}\text{-}T^{416} \\ L^{51}\text{-}E^{109} \ + \ \text{GSGSGSQ} \ + \ K^{158}\text{-}T^{416} \end{array}$

co-crystallized with a series of xylan oligosaccharide.⁵⁴ This new model corresponds to the GS3 construct, which is a monomeric analog of the mature heterodimeric heparanase, the 8 kDa subunit being linked to the 50 kDa subunit by the peptide GSGSGSQ. This construct has been demonstrated to be an active enzyme. 40 The heparanase model is consistent with the few experimental data suited for the validation of such work. Furthermore, the presence of natural substrates in the template structure allowed us to propose a binding model for a hydrolyzed HS pentasaccharide. It emphasizes the role of residues K²³¹, K²⁷⁷, and R³⁸³ in the substrate binding. In addition to these three basic residues, aromatic residues F¹⁰¹ and F³⁸⁵ are also potentially important for the interaction with the substrate. For the first time, the enzymatic mechanism was also investigated. Residues R⁹³, K²⁷⁷, H²⁹⁶, and possibly Y²⁹⁸ may be directly involved in the protonation state of the nucleophile and the proton donor.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Heparanase Sequence

The full-length human heparanase sequence was retrieved from the UniProtKB/Swiss-Prot⁵⁵ database (UniProtKB Id Q9Y251; www.uniprot.org). This sequence corresponds to the pre-proform of the enzyme. The different sequences of interest were defined (Table I), including the mature enzyme, the catalytic domain, and its fragments, as well as the chimeric GS3 construct.

Glycosyl Hydrolase Sequences

The glycosyl hydrolase sequences were retrieved from the PDB database (www.pdb.org)⁵⁵ by similarity search with the four heparanase sequences using BLAST and PSI-BLAST,⁵⁶ as available on the NCBI Web site (blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov). BLAST results were filtered by searching for the key words "glycosyl hydrolase" in the retrieved entries. Filtered results were sorted out according to the coverage of the heparanase sequences and the *E*-value.

Sequence Multiple Alignment

The sequences of the mature human heparanase and its GS3 analog were aligned with all the GH10 endoxylanases present in the PDB. The sequence alignment was performed using the Expresso method

available on the T-coffee server (www.tcoffee.org). 57,58 The alignment was manually refined to optimized the overlap between the secondary structures of the $(\alpha/\beta)_8$ barrel between heparanase and the endoxylanases. For the heparanase sequences, the secondary structure was predicted with Jpred3⁵⁹ and the result was refined with DrawHCA, an implementation of the hydrophobic cluster analysis method. $^{60-63}$ Alignment and structure visualization were done with the MultiSeq extension 64 of VMD 1.8.7. 65

To analyze the residue conservation among the heparanase-related enzymes, the Pfam multiple alignment corresponding to the GH79 family was recovered from the Pfam entry PF03662 (pfam. sanger.ac.uk). ⁶⁶ It is important to note that the Pfam profile encompasses only the segment L¹⁵⁰–G³⁷⁰. Noteworthy too, vertebrate heparanase II sequences were removed from the multiple alignment, as human heparanase II does not carry an enzymatic activity and is not processed by protease. ⁶⁷ To complete the residue conservation analysis, all full-length heparanase sequences from vertebrates were retrieved from the UniProtKB database and aligned with T-coffee. Alignment visualization was done MultiSeq.

Homology Modeling

Homology modeling of heparanase was carried out with the Orchestrar extension of SybylX 1.2 (www.tripos.com). Structurally conserved regions were modeled using the CHORAL method⁶⁸ using a minimal score of -2. Structural gaps of three residues or less were fixed in the best model produce by CHORAL using the BRIDGE methods and a maximum anchor root mean square deviation (RMSD) of 0.8 Å. Structurally variable regions were modeled using the CODA methods⁶⁹ as implemented in Orchestrar. Missing segments were searched in the templates, the FREAD database⁶⁹ or the PETRA database,⁷⁰ this latter one being a database of *ab initio* models. PETRA was only employed for segments smaller than eight residues for which no hit was found in the templates or FREAD. Finally, side chains were added using the Adante method.⁷¹ The disaccharide and trisaccharide initially present in the template structure were conserved all along the process.

In parallel, the catalytic domain or the mature heparanase sequences were submitted to the automatic molecular modeling servers Phyre⁷² (www.sbg.bio.ic.ac.uk/~phyre/) and Swiss-Model⁷³ (swissmodel.expasy.org).

Model Refinement

The final model was energy minimized using NAMD 2.7b1.⁷⁴ The system topology was created with LEaP, included in the AMBER 11 package,⁷⁵ using the Amber99SB force field⁷⁶ for the protein part and the GLYCAM06 force field⁷⁷ for the sugar part. Partial charges

Table II The Six Glycosyl Hydrolases Retrieved in the PDB Using the Mature Heparanase Sequence. The Coverage is the Proportion of the Mature Heparanase Sequence Aligned with the Sequence of the Retrieved PDB Entry (the Chain of the PDB Entry is Specified in Parenthesis). The Local and Global Identities are, Respectively, the Percentage of Identity of the Covered Part and of the Whole HPSE Sequence with the PDB Entry. The Percentage of Similarity is Specified in Parenthesis

PDB Entry	Enzymatic Activity	GH Family ^a	Species	Coverage (%)	Local Identity (%)	Global Identity (%)
1B30 (A) ^b	endo-1,4-β-xylanase	GH10	P. simplicissimum	35	28 (43)	14 (40)
1XYZ (A)	<i>endo</i> -1,4-β-xylanase	GH10	C. thermocellum	30	22 (41)	12 (45)
1TA3 (B)	<i>ndo-</i> 1,4- β -xylanase	GH10	E. nidulans	19	31 (50)	14 (40)
1TUX (A)	<i>endo</i> -1,4-β-xylanase	GH10	T. aurantiacus	14	36 (53)	10 (35)
1UMZ (A)	Xyloglucan endotransglycosylase	GH16	P. tremula	13	31 (47)	10 (31)
1ECE (A)	Endocellulase E1	GH5	A. cellulolyticus	7	34 (53)	12 (41)

^a As inferred by CAZy (http://www.cazy.org).⁴⁹

of sulfated sugar residues compatible with GLYCAM06 were previously described.⁷⁸ The energy minimization process was divided into four successive stages:

- 1. Geometry optimization of the hydrogen atoms;
- Geometry optimization of the amino acid side chains (except amino acids E²²⁵ and E²³⁴) and the O/N-sulfate, carboxyl, and hydroxyl moieties of the sugar residues;
- 3. Geometry optimization of amino acids not involved in the $(\alpha/\beta)_8$ TIM barrel;
- 4. Energy minimization of the whole system except the side chain of amino acids E²²⁵ and E²³⁴, and the ring of the monosaccharide units GlcA⁻¹ and GlcNS⁺¹, which are directly upstream and downstream to the cleavage site;

The nonbonded interactions were calculated every step with no cut-off applied and a dielectric constant of 1. At each step, the force constant of the harmonic restraints was initially 100 kcal mol $^{-1}$ Å $^{-2}$ until convergence, i.e., a change of the potential energy inferior to 1 kcal mol $^{-1}$. Thereafter, the force constraint on the atom freed at the next step was reduced to 5 kcal mol $^{-1}$ Å $^{-2}$ over 10,000 minimization steps. Visualization and analysis of the minimization results were done with VMD 1.8.7, R 2.10 79 and the ggplot2 package. 80 The electrostatic potential on the model surface was analyzed with APBS 1.2.1. 81 Coordinates of the refined model are available from the authors upon request.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Choice of the Template

Blast searching based on the sequence of mature human heparanase—or its monomeric analog GS3—retrieved six glycosyl hydrolases from the PDB (Table II). Four of them belong to the GH family 10, the best hit being the *endo-\beta-D-xylanase* from *P. simplicissimum*. For this latter result, the Blast alignment covers roughly the N-terminal third of the heparanase sequence, with a sequence identity of 35% and correct fit of the proton donors between the heparanase and the xylanase sequences.

The use of the full length or the truncated sequence of the catalytic domain (HPSE $_{catalytic}$ and HPSE $_{50~\mathrm{kDa}}$ $_{catalytic})$ leads to similar results: the GH10 xylanase from P. simplicissimum presents higher sequence similarities. More PDB entries are retrieved, corresponding mainly to other GH10 xylanases or to glucosaminidases and exoglucanases. In contrast, the sequence of the noncatalytic domain (HPSE_{50 kDa noncatalytic}) retrieves only the endocellulase E1. It should be noted that the boundaries between the catalytic and noncatalytic domains were settled based on the secondary structures forming the $(\alpha/\beta)_8$ barrel. All the secondary structure predictions performed on the mammalian heparanases (human, bovine, mouse, rat) agree on the presence in the 8 kDa subunit of one conserved α -helix $(P^{79}-L^{87})$ in the human sequence) and four conserved β -strands (D³⁷-F⁴³, S⁵⁸-D⁶², Y⁹¹–F⁹⁴, F¹⁰¹–D¹⁰⁵ in the human sequence). The first strand $(D^{37}-F^{43})$ belongs to the β -sandwich forming the noncatalytic domain. The catalytic domain starts between the first and the second strand (S⁵⁸–D⁶²), which initiates the α/β barrel and is followed by the first α -helix (P^{79} - L^{87}). Residue L^{51} was therefore chosen as the first amino acids of the catalytic domain. A similar reasoning was followed to define the end of the catalytic domain at position T⁴¹⁶.

When using the protein modeling servers Robetta, PHYRE, and SWISS-MODEL, members of other CAZY families are also retrieved (Table III). When the GS3 construct is used, a GH51 member is identified as the best template: the α -L-arabinofuranosidase from *G. stearothermophilus*. When only the catalytic domain of GS3 is used, PHYRE and SWISS-MODEL select a GH39 member as the best template: the β -D-xylosidase from *T. saccharolyticum*. Both templates possess a $(\alpha/\beta)_8$ barrel catalytic domain coupled to a

^b The sequences of the PDB entries 1BG4, 1B30, 1B31, 1B3V, 1B3W, 1B3X, 1B3Y, and 1B3Z are strictly identical.

Server	Query Sequence	Template PDB Id	Enzymatic Activity	GH Family ^a	Sequence Identity (%)	<i>E</i> -value
Robetta ⁴⁴	GS3	1PZ3	α-L-arabinofuranosidase	GH51	_	
PHYRE	GS3	1PZ2	α-L-arabinofuranosidase	GH51	12	$1.4e^{-40}$
PHYRE	GS3 _{catalytic}	1PX8	α-D-xylosidase	GH39	13	$9.8e^{-20}$
Swiss-Model	GS3	1QW9	α-L-arabinofuranosidase	GH51	11	$1.7e^{-42}$
Swiss-Model	GS3 _{catalytic}	1UHV	α-D-xylosidase	GH39	14	$2.3e^{-23}$

Table III Summary of the Results Obtained with the Automatic Molecular Modeling Servers

 β -sandwich domain of unknown function. The difference arises from their natural substrates. The GH51 arabinofuranosidase cleaves the β 1–3 linkage between an arabinofuranose substituent and the xylan main chain. The GH39 xylosidase is an exoglucanase cleaving the β 1–4 linkage at the nonreducing end of the xylan main chain.

The use of either a GH51 arabinofuranosidase or a GH39 xylosidase by the automated modeling servers as a template for the modeling of heparanase is questionable. None of these enzymes is an endoglucanase like heparanase. From this point of view, the GH10 endo-1,4-β-D-xylanase from P. simplicissimum is a better choice, although the substrate is a xylose polysaccharide. This hypothesis is supported by the comparison of the crystal structure of G. stearothermophilus arabinofuranosidase and P. simplicissimum endoxylanase. There is a good superimposition of the secondary structures forming the (α/α) β)₈ barrel (Figure 1A). The pair of catalytic glutamate residues is consequently located almost at the same place in both enzymes. The shape of the binding site is very different, however. In the case of G. stearothermophilus arabinofuranosidase, the catalytic dyad is constituted by the amino acids E¹⁷⁵ and E²⁹⁴. They are both nested in a pocket situated below the end of a large groove on the protein surface (Figure 1B). In the case of P. simplicissimum endoxylanase, the catalytic dyad is constituted by the amino acids E¹³² and E²³⁸. They are located at the bottom and in the middle of a shallow and narrow groove (Figure 1B). This catalytic pair is therefore directly accessible from the protein surface, in contrast with arabinofuranosidase.

As P. simplicissimum endoxylanase and heparanase are both endoglucanases, we hypothesize that the shape of the heparanase-binding site is similar to the endoxylanase one, i.e., a narrow groove located at the top of the $(\alpha/\beta)_8$ barrel with the catalytic site located in the middle. This kind of shape for the binding site is commonly found in endo-acting polysaccharidases, as it allows a random binding of several sugar units in polymeric substrates. Conveniently, P. simplicissimum endoxylanase has been extensively studied and several crystal structures of the protein and its complexes with substrates are available. An or generally, the GH10 endoxylanases are well studied enzymes. Since the P. simplicissimum xylanase is

formed by a single domain, unlike heparanase, we focused the study on the modeling of the heparanase catalytic domain only. Noteworthy, there are GH10 xylanases organized like heparanase, i.e., a catalytic domain with in an $(\alpha/\beta)_8$ barrel folded tightly bound to a noncatalytic domain with a β -sandwich fold. However, the sequence similarity with human heparanase is lower than with the *P. simplicissimum* enzyme.

Structure Completion and Ligand Binding

The structure of the heparanase catalytic domain was therefore built by homology with the endoxylanase from P. simplicissimum. The identity and similarity ratios between the query and the model are 20 and 40%, respectively (see Figure 2). The quality of the alignment is the lowest in the loops connecting the secondary structure elements of the $(\alpha/\beta)_8$ barrel, in particular for the segments A^{63} – G^{76} and G^{95} – E^{109} in the 8 kDa subunit, and for the segments R^{302} – D^{314} and Q^{383} – P^{402} in the 50 kDa subunit. Noteworthy, the xylanase counterparts of two such segments are involved in the substrate binding. It can be hypothesized that in the case of heparanase, those loops may also be involved in the substrate binding.

Eight crystal structures of the endoxylanase from P. simplicissimum are available in the PDB (1BG4, 1B30, 1B31, 1B3V, 1B3W, 1B3X, 1B3Y, and 1B3Z). The 1BG4 entry corresponds to the free enzyme while the others are complexed with xylose, xylooligosaccharides, or xylose disaccharides and trisaccharides substituted by a β 1–2 linked deoxyglucuronic acid—those two latter compounds are xylanase inhibitors. The structures of the free and bound forms of the enzyme are highly similar with an average RMSD below 0.11 Å for the backbone. Their resolution ranges from 1.75 Å (1BG4 and 1B31) to 2.60 Å (1B3W). All those crystal structures were used during the modeling process, especially for building the structurally conserved regions. The ligands present in the 1B3Z structure were retained during the modeling process. They consist of a xylotriose and a xylobiose, respectively, located upstream and downstream to the catalytic pair (Figure 1B) and corresponding to the end product of xylopentose hydrolysis. The loops and the amino acid side chains were modeled to avoid steric

^a As inferred by CAZy (http://www.cazy.org). ⁴⁹

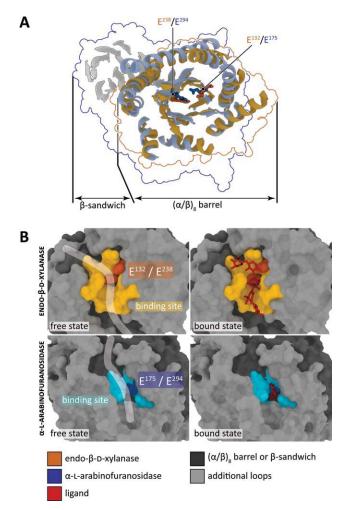


FIGURE 1 Comparison of the crystal structures of the α-L-arabinofuranosidase from G. stearothermophilus and the endo-1,4-β-Dxylanase from P. simplicissimum. A, Superimposition of the arabinofuranosidase (PDB entry 1P3Z) and the endoxylanase (PDB entry 1BG4) structures. The protein surface is outlined for each enzyme. The superimposition was done with DaliLite (www.ebi.ac.uk/Tools/ dalilite) using the heavy atoms of the protein backbone. B, top panel—Catalytic site of the endoxylanase in free or in bound state (PDB entries 1BG4 and 1B3Z, respectively). The ligand is a hydrolyzed xylose pentasaccharide. The groove on the protein surface is outlined by a white transparent line. Both states correspond to the wild-type enzyme. B, bottom panel—Catalytic site of the arabinofuranosidase in free or in bound state (PDB entries 1PZ3 and 1QW8, respectively). The ligand is an arabinose- $\alpha(1-3)$ -xylose disaccharide. The groove in the protein surface is outlined by a white transparent line. For the bound state, the enzyme is the inactive mutant E175A.

clashed with ligands. A quality assessment of the model prior to minimization is available in Supporting Information Table IS. A superimposition of the model with the template is available in Supporting Information Figure 2S.

For the model refinement, the two xylooligosaccharides were replaced by two fragments of heparan sulfate: IdoA- $(\alpha 1-4)$ -GlcNS- $(\beta 1-4)$ -GlcA and GlcNS- $(\alpha 1-4)$ -IdoAS

(see Figure 4). The choice of those fragments is inspired by the enzymatic assays realized by Okada et al. 45 They have shown that 2-N and 6-O sulfations of the GlcN directly upstream and downstream to the cleavage site are of primary importance; the upstream GlcNS residue is preferentially preceded by a nonsulfated IdoA, while the downstream GlcNS is preferentially followed by a 2-O sulfated IdoA. The replacement itself consists in extracting the coordinates of the oligosaccharide backbone, i.e., carbons and oxygens from the glycosidic rings and linkages, adding the appropriate substituents to the backbone structure, minimizing the position of those substituents and finally adding the new compound to the yet non-minimized heparanase structure.

General Organization of the Heparanase Structure and Validation

The geometry optimization protocol results in the creation of a narrow groove leading to the catalytic site with the hydrolyzed heparan sulfate pentasaccharide located in its middle (see Figure 3). The truncated 8 kDa subunit is interlocked in the $(\alpha/\beta)_8$ barrel (Figure 3A). This is in agreement with the biochemical data, which demonstrate that the 8 kDa subunit is necessary to the activity of the enzyme. The C-terminus of the 8 kDa subunit is close to the N-terminus of the 50 kDa subunit. Both are located on the same side than the active site, with the GS3 linker roughly pointing toward the groove entrance (Figure 3A). It can be hypothesized that a longer linker, like the 6 kDa peptide present in pro-heparanase, would block the access to the active site. Similarly, the N-terminus of the truncated 8 kDa subunit is close to the Cterminus of the truncated 50 kDa subunit. Both are located on the opposite face of the groove and points toward the same direction. This indicates that the noncatalytic domain is located far from the active site, as observed for the GH10, GH39, and GH51 members with a similar dual domain organization. Noteworthy, the $(\alpha/\beta)_8$ barrel face that would be in contact with the β -sandwich shows an electrostatic potential close to 0 kT e^{-1} (Figure 3B), which is compatible with the interior of a protein.

In spite of numerous experimental studies, data suited to the model validation are extremely scarce, in particular site-directed mutagenesis experiments. Five N-glycosylation sites, ⁸⁷ one S-cysteinylation and two disulfide bridges ⁸⁸ have been characterized (Supporting Information Figure 1S). The N-glycosylation sites are located on the model surface (Figure 5A), as expected. The two cysteine residues (C¹⁷⁹ and C²¹¹) contained in the catalytic domain are also exposed on the surface (Figure 5A). C¹⁷⁹ has been shown by mass spectrometry to form a disulfide bridge with C¹²⁷, located in the

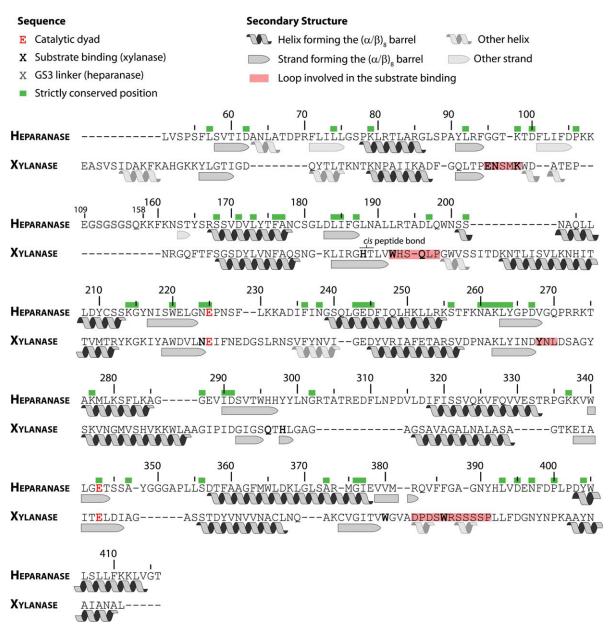


FIGURE 2 Refined T-coffee sequence alignment between human heparanase and *P. simplicissimum* endoxylanase (UniprotKB entries Q9Y251 and P56588, respectively). Only the catalytic domain of the heparanase sequence is considered here. The numbering is the same than for the heparanase UniprotKB entry. Consequently, the GS3 linker is outside of the numbering scheme.

6 kDa linker. 88 The formation of the C^{127} – C^{179} bridge is not necessary to the activation of heparanase or the enzymatic activity, 88 as expected since the 6 kDa linker is removed from the mature form of the enzyme. C^{211} has been shown to be S-cysteinylated. 88 However, its mutation into a serine does affect neither the heparanase activity nor the heparanase secretion. Noteworthy, in our model, both C^{179} and C^{211} are located on the face opposite to the heparanase-binding site and to the potential location of the β-sandwich (Figure 5A).

This suggests that none of these cysteine residues play a major role in the ligand binding or the protein folding.

Structural Organization of the Substrate-Binding Site and Validation

The groove leading to the active site is narrow, due to the presence of several hydrophobic residues forming its walls (Figure 3C). Residues F^{385} and F^{386} on one side, and F^{101} and A^{195} on the other side form a lid over the groove entrance.

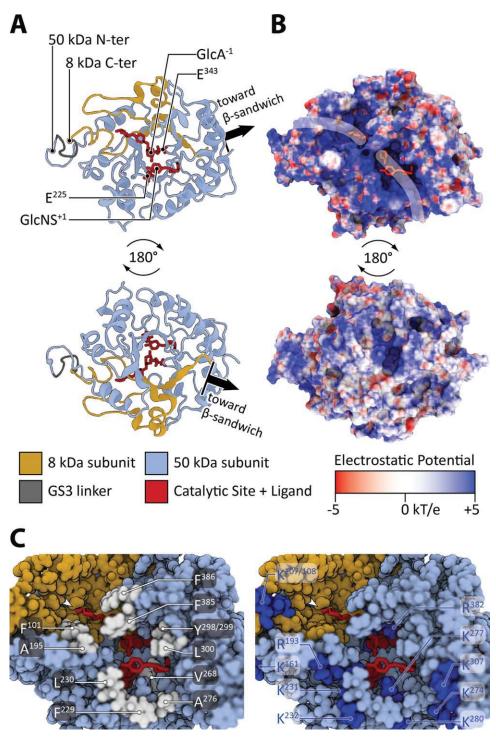


FIGURE 3 General organization of the heparanase molecular model. A, Overview of the heparanase structure bound to the disaccharide and trisaccharide. B, Overview of the electrostatic potential on the surface of heparanase. The groove leading to the catalytic site is highlighted by a white line. C, Overview of the groove forming the binding site. Left panel: hydrophobic amino acids forming the wall of the groove. Right panel: positively charged residues embedded in or at close range from the groove.

Sugar Residue	Polar Interaction with the Backbone Amide	Polar Interaction with a Side Chain	Apolar Interaction with a Side Chain
$IdoA^{-3}$	L^{102}	N^{64}	F^{101}
GlcNS ⁻²	A^{195} , D^{196} , Q^{383} , F^{386}	Q^{383}, R^{382}	F^{385}
$GlcA^{-1}$	F^{385}	N^{224} , E^{343} , and R^{382}	_
GlcNS ⁺¹	F^{229} , L^{230}	E^{225} , K^{231} , and K^{277}	V^{268} , Y^{298} , and L^{300}
IdoAS ⁺²	A^{276}	K^{277} and N^{301}	_

Table IV Details of the Heparanase-Oligosaccharide Interactions

Aromatic residues F^{229} , Y^{298} , and Y^{299} and aliphatic residues L^{230} , V^{268} , A^{276} , and L^{300} are also present at the groove exit, near the reducing end of the disaccharide. This abundance of hydrophobic residues is also observed along the endoxylanase-binding site. 52,54

The groove forming the binding site is highly electropositive because of the numerous positively basic amino acids forming its walls (Figure 3C), such as R⁹³, R¹⁹³, K²³¹, R²⁷², K²⁷⁷, and R³⁸². More positively charged residues are found in the direct vicinity of the groove: K⁹⁸, K²³², R²⁷², R²⁷³, K²⁷⁴, K²⁸⁰, and R³⁰⁷ (Figure 3B). To our knowledge, there is only one study attempting to experimentally identify the heparan sulfate-binding site.⁸⁹ The segments K¹⁵⁸-D¹⁷¹ and Q²⁷⁰-K²⁸⁰ were found to be directly involved in this process. The deletion of the segments or the double mutation K158A/K161A abolished the ability of heparanase to bind heparan sulfate. In our model, K¹⁵⁸ and K¹⁶¹ are located nearby the entrance of the basic groove, where it forms a basic cluster with K159 and with K107 and K108 from the 8 kDa subunit (Figure 3C, 5A, and Supporting Information Figure 1S). However, this basic cluster is not directly involved in the groove shaping or the interaction with the ligand. In contrast, the position of the Q²⁷⁰-K²⁸⁰ segment in the model is in good agreement with the experimental data: K²⁷⁷ interacts directly with the ligand while R²⁷², R²⁷³, K²⁷⁴, and R³⁰⁷ form a large basic cluster at the exit of the groove, by symmetry to the one at the entrance (Figure 3C, 5A, and Supporting Information Figure 1S).

Overall, the structural organization of the binding site is in partial agreement with experiment. The absence of experimental constraints during the geometry optimization of the model is certainly an issue here. It should be noted that three additional sugar units at the nonreducing end of the trisaccharide would have been sufficient to reach the K¹⁵⁸–D¹⁷¹ segment. In addition, this part of the protein may potentially be a sub-site involved in the substrate recognition, while the Q²⁷⁰–K²⁸⁰ segment would be directly involved in the interactions with the sugar units located at the cleavage site. More mutational data would certainly be useful to better assess the role of those two segments.

Protein-Ligand Interaction

The electrostatic interactions between the protein and the ligand seem to be concentrated on three charged residues: K^{231} , K^{277} , and R^{382} (Table IV) that are located within 4 Å range from the catalytic site (Figure 4A):

- K²³¹ is bonded to oxygen O⁴ from GlcNS⁺¹.
- K²⁷⁷ forms an electrostatic bridge between the *O*-sulfate from GlcNS⁺¹ and the carboxylate from IdoAS⁺².
- R³⁸² forms an electrostatic bridge between the N-sulfate from GlcNS⁻² and the carboxylate from GlcA⁻¹.

To better estimate the importance of these residues, their conservation in the vertebrate heparanase sequences was inspected (Figure 5B, the multiple alignment is provided as Supporting Information). The catalytic pair E^{225/343} is strictly conserved, as expected, as well as K²³¹ and R³⁸². Residue K²⁷⁷ is conserved in mammalian and amphibian sequences, but substituted by histidine or aspartate in bird and fish sequences. To fulfill the analysis, the conservation in the GH family 79 was also inspected. The sequence alignment of all the GH79 members is available in the Pfam database (Pfam entry PF03662). The catalytic pair E^{225/343} is still strictly conserved. However, K²³¹ and K²⁷⁷ are not particularly well conserved or substituted by a residue of equivalent property (Figure 5B). It is important to note that GH79 family includes enzyme that act on different substrates and some of them do not hydrolyze heparan sulfate, or even a sulfated polysaccharide. In fact, the residue conservation in GH79 members more probably reflects the conservation of the hydrolysis mechanism rather than the binding of a particular substrate. At last, it should be noted that the Pfam profile only takes into account the segment L¹⁵⁰-G³⁷⁰ from human heparanase. Hence, the conservation of R³⁸² could not be assessed.

In addition to basic residues, several hydrophobic amino acids seem to be important for the interaction with the ligand (Table IV and Figure 4):

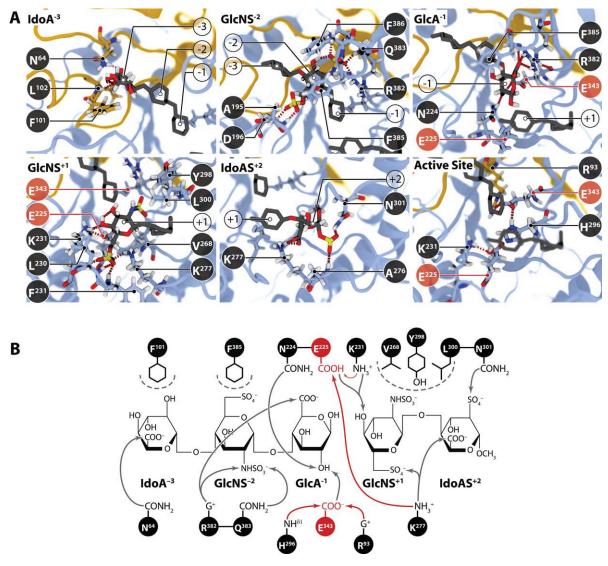


FIGURE 4 Details of the heparanase–oligosaccharides interaction. A, Details of the heparanase-binding site per monosaccharide unit. A detail of the amino acids interaction within the active site is also provided. B, Recapitulative scheme of the main interactions within the binding site. Polar interactions are represented by arrows. Apolar interactions are represented by dashed lines. Interactions with the catalytic site are depicted in red.

- F¹⁰¹ and F³⁸⁵ are stacked to the rings of IdoA⁻³ and GlcNS⁻², respectively
- V²⁶⁸, Y²⁹⁸, and L³⁰⁰ form a hydrophobic pocket where the N-sulfate of GlcNS⁺¹ is located.

F¹⁰¹ is strictly conserved in vertebrate heparanases. F³⁸⁵ is almost strictly conserved in mammal heparanases and substituted by leucine or isoleucine in fish and frog sequences (Supporting Information and Figure 5B). Of particular interest, F³⁸⁵ and F³⁸⁶ seem to be the heparanase equivalent of W²⁷⁶ found in endoxylanase (Figure 3C). This tryptophan forms a lid over

the groove when a substrate is present, but is very probably in an opened configuration in the free state enzyme. 52,54 The amino acids forming the hydrophobic pocket (V^{268} , Y^{298} , and L^{300}) are also conserved or substituted by amino acids of equivalent size and polarity in vertebrate heparanases and GH79 members. In fact, Y^{298} is almost strictly conserved in GH79 sequences. That probably indicates its importance in the enzymatic reaction specific to this family of hydrolases.

Overall, the number of amino acids important for ligand binding seems to be limited, in contrast with the length of the groove and the ligand size. Most of the identified residues

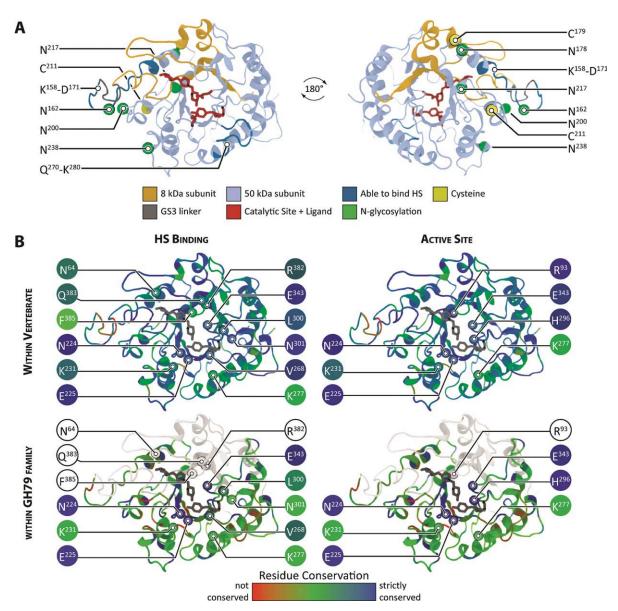


FIGURE 5 A, Depiction of the experimentally characterized parts of heparanase on the model. B, Amino acid conservation within vertebrate heparanase (top) or within the GH family 79 (bottom). Amino acids are colored as a function of the sequence similarity within the multiple sequence alignment, based on the BLOSUM60 matrix. The sequence parts not present in the GH79 alignment are depicted in white. It should be noted that Y^{298} is hidden by L^{300} . Y^{298} is conserved in vertebrate heparanases and GH family 79.

interact with sugar units directly upstream and downstream to the cleavage site. This is in agreement with the attempts to identify the structural feature of the natural heparanase ligand. ^{45,46} In this latter study, the carboxyl group of GlcA⁻¹, the O-sulfation of GlcNS⁻² and the N-sulfation of GlcNS⁺¹ have been shown to be of the uttermost importance for the substrate recognition. In our model, the carboxyl group of GlcA⁻¹ is bonded to the guanidyl group of R³⁸² and the backbone amide of F³⁸⁵. The epimerization of GlcA⁻¹ into IdoA⁻¹

would bring the carboxyl group within range of the nucleophile E³⁴³. This would explain why IdoA is not favored at this particular position. A5,46,90,91 Noteworthy, R³⁸² is also bounded to the N-sulfate of GlcNS⁻², which seems to have a promoting effect on the enzymatic activity. The other important groups for the substrate recognition would be the 6-O-sulfate of GlcNS⁻², the 2-N-sulfate of GlcNS⁺¹, and probably the 2-O-sulfate of IdoAS⁺². None of these groups interacts with the side chain of a charged amino acid. In fact, the 2-N-sulfate

of GlcNS⁺¹ is event located in the hydrophobic pocket constituted by V²⁶⁸, Y²⁹⁸, and L³⁰⁰. This very probably means that our model lacks of accuracy for a part of the binding site, due to the lack of constraint introduce during the minimization stage. Noteworthy, the carboxylate of IdoAS⁺² and the 6-O-sulfate of GlcNS⁺¹ are bridged by K²⁷⁷. This is consistent with the fact that the 6-O-sulfation of GlcNS⁺¹ promotes the substrate recognition.⁴⁵ Finally, it is worth to mention that the 3-O-sulfation of GlcNS⁺¹ inhibits the enzyme. This is well consistent with our model, since a sulfate located at that place would be in front of the proton donor E²²⁵.

Insights into Heparanase Catalytic Mechanism

The catalytic mechanism operating in heparanase is still elusive. So far, only the nucleophile and the proton donor have been identified.⁴³ In the present model, the nucleophile E³⁴³ interacts with the hydroxyl at position 2 of GlcA⁻¹, while the proton donor E²²⁵ interacts with the hydroxyl at position 4 of GlcNS⁺¹. In addition, E²²⁵ interacts with K²³¹ and E³⁴³ interacts with R⁹³ and H²⁹⁶ (see Figure 4).

In the xylanase template, the proton donor E¹³² is in proximity to N^{E1} of W⁸⁸ and the guanidyl group of R¹⁴¹. Both are well conserved in GH10 endoxylanases. Analysis of the pH dependence of mutants suggested that R¹⁴¹ residue increases the pK_a of the protein donor glutamate in Bacillus halodurans and Clostridium stercorarium.⁸⁴ Due to the flexibility of lysine, both K²³¹ and K²³² could play the role of R¹⁴¹ in heparanase and K²³¹ has been selected in the final model (see Figure 4). The effect of K^{231} on the pK_a of E^{225} is probably less important than R^{141} in xylanase, since the p K_a of lysine is lower than the arginine one. This could be compensated by the electrostatic environment of the active site, which is much electropositive in heparanase. Noticeably, N²²⁴, K²⁷⁷, H²⁹⁶ are within 3.5-4.0 Å from E²²⁵ and may influence its p K_a as well. Noteworthy, Both K^{231} and K^{232} are conserved in vertebrate heparanases, but not in GH

In the template, the nucleophile E^{238} is within 3 Å from H^{210} . This histidine is strictly conserved among the GH10 endoxylanases. NMR studies of the xylanase from *Cellulomonas fimi* have shown that this histidine pK_a is higher than 10.4 and that it is very likely protonated in the free enzyme at optimal pH. Upon formation of noncovalent enzyme–inhibitor complexes or a long-lived covalent glycosylenzyme intermediate, the histidine remains positively charged. This charged histidine tightly bridges the nucleophile glutamate and a strictly conserved aspartate residue (D^{240} in *P. simplicissimum* xylanase). The presence of these

two acidic groups very probably participates to the protonation of histidine. In the case of heparanase, the residue equivalent to H²¹⁰ would be H²⁹⁶ (see Figure 2). It is bonded to E³⁴³ in the model and is within 3.5 Å from N²²⁴, but not to another acidic residue (Figure 4A). E³⁴³ also interacts with R⁹³ and is within 4 Å from R³⁸² (Figure 4A). It should be noted that H^{296} is protonated at position $N^{\delta 1}$ in the model, as a function of the favorable hydrogen bonds created in the structure before minimization. Noteworthy too, H²⁹⁶ and R⁹³ are conserved in vertebrate heparanases, and H²⁹⁶ is also strictly conserved in the GH79 members. This supports the hypothesis that this histidine is directly involved in the heparanase enzymatic reaction rather than the substrate binding. In fact, the all segment H²⁹⁵-Y²⁹⁸ seems to be conserved in GH family 79, H²⁹⁶ and Y²⁹⁸ being the most conserved position and H²⁹⁵ and Y²⁹⁷ being substituted respectively by arginine and isoleucine.

CONCLUSION

The molecular model of heparanase presented in this study is consistent with the structural features expected to be carried out by this enzyme: an $(\alpha/\beta)_8$ barrel fold of the catalytic domain, a basic binding site with a groove shape and with the catalytic site located in its middle, N-glycosylation and S-cysteinylation sites exposed to the proteins surface. However, the absence of experimental constraints hinders the accuracy of the model. Therefore, our model is mostly, but not totally in agreement with the experimental attempts to characterize the binding site or the natural substrate of heparanase.

The presence of a ligand in the template crystal structure allowed us to dock a heparan sulfate oligosaccharide to the heparanase active site. The modeled complex emphasized the potential role of three basic (K^{231} , K^{277} , and K^{382}) and two aromatic (K^{101} and K^{385}) amino acids in the substrate binding. We also identified amino acids potentially important for the enzymatic mechanism, like K^{296} and K^{298} , in addition to the already characterized proton donor and nucleophile. The model proposed in this study is expected to be helpful to the molecular design of new heparanase inhibitors and anti-metastasis drugs.

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