

- helix B.) The first residue in each helix is numbered 1; thus, A1 refers to the first residue in helix A. Amino acids are represented by their single-letter, uppercase abbreviations, and McLachlan (12) positions are in lowercase bold. When the crystalline dimer is referred to, the helices from one monomer are labeled with plain letters and those from the other are labeled with a prime.
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A Covalent Enzyme-Substrate Intermediate with Saccharide Distortion in a Mutant T4 Lysozyme

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The glycosyl-enzyme intermediate in lysozyme action has long been considered to be an oxocarbenium ion, although precedent from other glycosidases and theoretical considerations suggest it should be a covalent enzyme-substrate adduct. The mutation of threonine 26 to glutamic acid in the active site cleft of phage T4 lysozyme (T4L) produced an enzyme that cleaved the cell wall of *Escherichia coli* but left the product covalently bound to the enzyme. The crystalline complex was nonisomorphous with wild-type T4L, and analysis of its structure showed a covalent linkage between the product and the newly introduced glutamic acid 26. The covalently linked sugar ring was substantially distorted, suggesting that distortion of the substrate toward the transition state is important for catalysis, as originally proposed by Phillips. It is also postulated that the adduct formed by the mutant is an intermediate, consistent with a double displacement mechanism of action in which the glycosidic linkage is cleaved with retention of configuration as originally proposed by Koshland. The peptide part of the cell wall fragment displays extensive hydrogen-bonding interactions with the carboxyl-terminal domain of the enzyme, consistent with previous studies of mutations in T4L.

Among the glycosidases much detailed structural information is available for the lysozymes (1–3), but their mechanism (or mechanisms) of action has remained contentious (4–8). In an attempt to create metal binding sites, as was done successfully for human lysozyme (9), a number of acidic groups were introduced. One such substitution, Thr²⁶ → Glu (T26E), produced an enzyme that was inactive at neutral pH.

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This result was unexpected because Thr²⁶ is located within the active site cleft of T4L but was thought not to be critical for catalysis because some other amino acids are tolerated at this position (10).

Mutant T26E was constructed and purified (11). More than 30 cycles of Edman degradation showed the NH₂-terminal sequence of the major component (11) to be that predicted for the T26E mutant. A mass of 19,548 daltons (T26E + 918) was determined with electron ion spray mass spectrometry. The major component of *E. coli* cell wall, (NAM-NAG)-LAla-DGlu-DAP-DAla, has a molecular weight of 940 (NAM, *N*-acetyl/muramic acid; NAG, *N*-acetylglucosamine; and DAP, diamino-

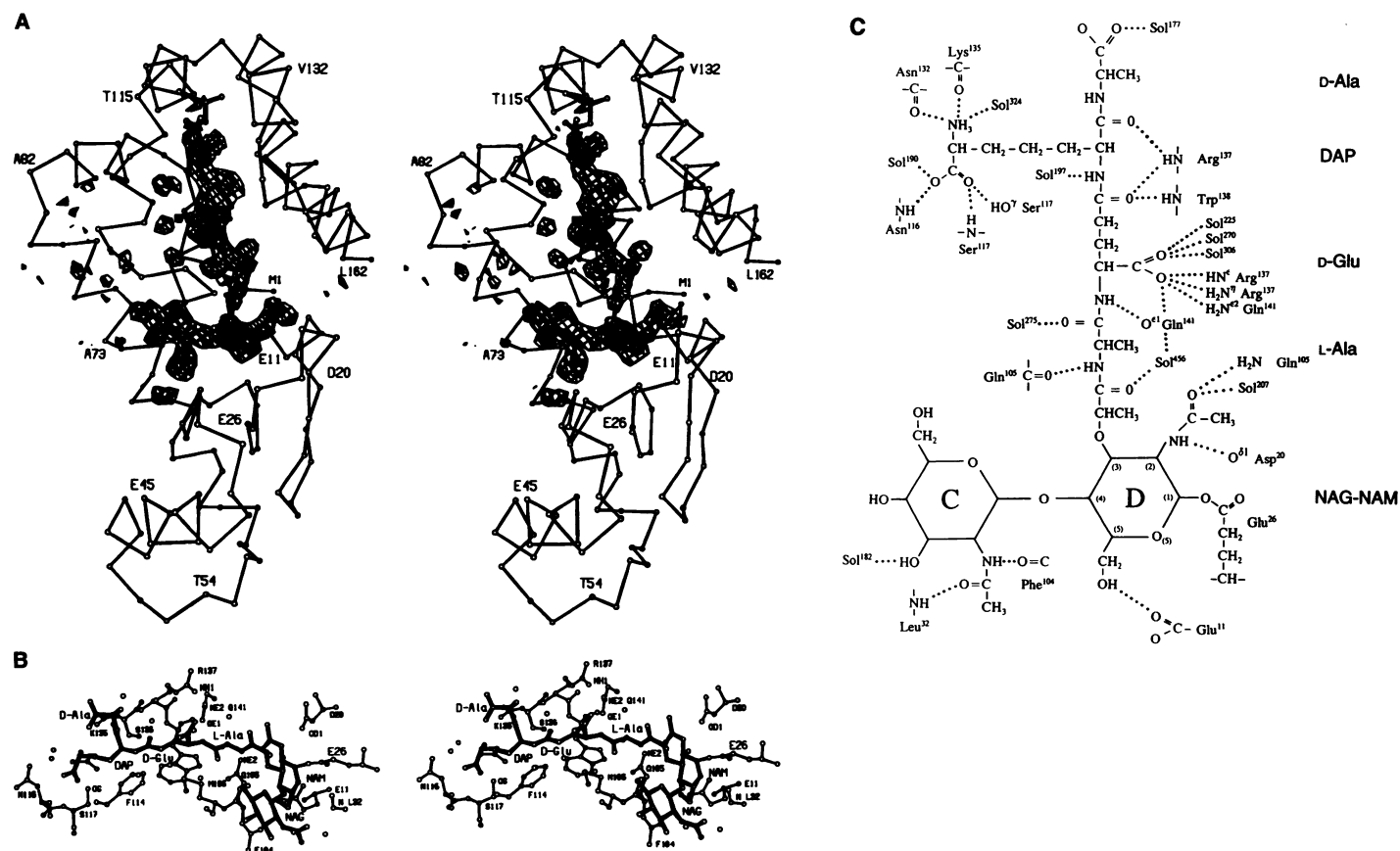


Fig. 1. (A) Map showing difference in electron density between the adduct and wild-type T4L. Amplitudes are $(F_{\text{adduct}} - F_c)$ where F_{adduct} is the amplitude observed for the adduct and F_c is the amplitude calculated for the protein model alone. After a screen of a variety of conditions (24), a single crystal was obtained from 0.1 M tris-HCl, 0.2 M sodium acetate, and 30% PEG 3000 (pH 7.5). The space group is P2₁2₁2 with cell dimensions $a = 50.9 \text{ \AA}$, $b = 67.3 \text{ \AA}$, and $c = 49.6 \text{ \AA}$. We measured 11,889 reflections (25) to 1.9 Å resolution (85% complete) with an average disagreement of 5.5% on intensities. With the wild-type structure (13) as a model, the structure was solved by molecular replacement. Refinement (15) of the protein part alone (that is, without solvent and without saccharide) reduced the R value to 22.1% at 2.0 Å resolution. Phases from this model were then used to calculate the electron density map shown in Fig. 1A. The map (resolution 2.0 Å) contoured at 3.0 σ is shown with the adduct and the α carbon backbone of the protein superimposed. Density corresponding to the disaccharide extends horizontally within the active site cleft. The peptide part extends vertically in a shallow groove between two α helices of the COOH-terminal domain (26). After inclusion of the adduct and 164 solvent molecules, further refinement reduced the R value to 16.3% at 1.9 Å resolution (14). **(B)** Stereo view of the peptidoglycan (thicker bonds) bound to T4L (thinner bonds), rotated about 90° from the view in (A). **(C)** Schematic view indicating probable hydrogen-bonding interactions (dotted) between T4L and the peptidoglycan.

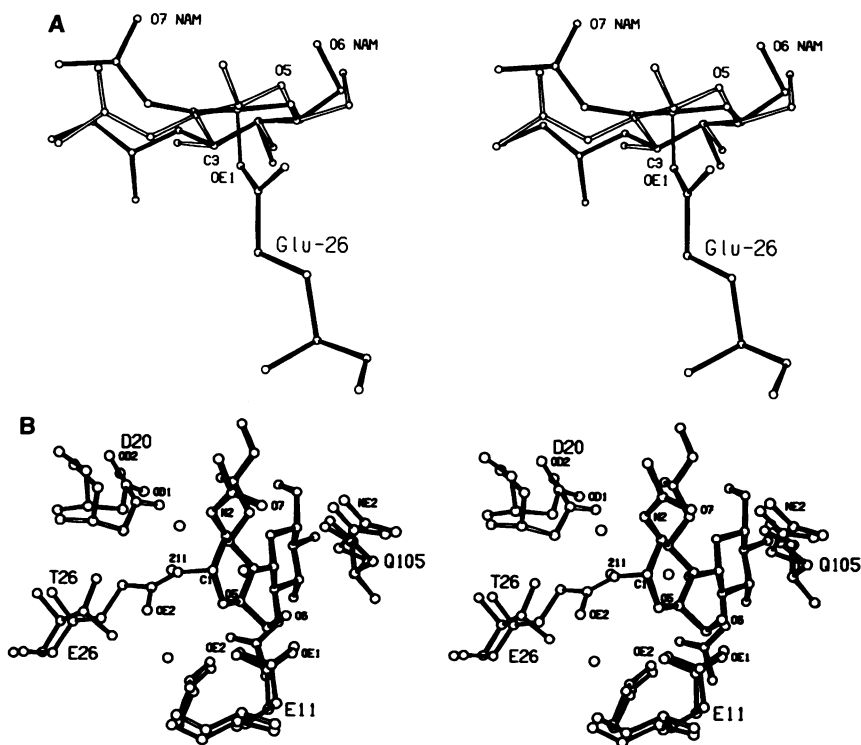


Fig. 2. (A) Superposition of NAM from the D subsite (solid bonds) on NAG from the C subsite (open bonds). The NAM moiety is covalently linked to Glu²⁶ (solid bonds). **(B)** Stereo view showing the superposition of wild-type lysozyme (open bonds) on the complex of T26E (thin solid bonds) with the covalent adduct (thick solid bonds). Water molecule 211 (SOL²¹¹) in the wild-type structure essentially superimposes on O^{ε1} of Glu²⁶ in the adduct. Three solvent molecules that are within 5 Å of carbon C-1 in the structure of the adduct are also shown.

pimelic acid) (12). Allowing 18 daltons for the loss of a water of condensation and 4 daltons for the difference between the formula molecular weight of the protein and its actual state of ionization, the purified material appeared to correspond to a covalent adduct between the mutant T26E and the saccharide.

The adduct was crystallized from 0.2 M sodium acetate, 30% polyethylene glycol (PEG) 3000, and 0.1 M tris-HCl (pH 7.5) in a form nonisomorphous with wild type (Fig. 1) (13). The structure of the protein part was determined by molecular replacement with the wild-type enzyme as a search model. A difference electron density map (Fig. 1A) had clear density in the region expected for a bound peptidoglycan. Refinement (14, 15) showed that the additional density was consistent with a disaccharide of NAG-NAM bound in subsites C and D (1–3). It also showed that a peptide of LAla-DGlu-DAP-DAla extended across an open groove on the surface of the molecule between α helices 108

to 113 and 126 to 134 (Fig. 1, B and C) as expected on the basis of earlier studies of low-activity mutants of T4L (16). Interactions between the peptide moiety and the enzyme are critical for catalysis because T4L, unlike hen egg white lysozyme (HEWL), will not hydrolyze oligosaccharides such as chitin that lack a peptide substituent (17). These interactions also explain why residues in or close to the peptide binding site, such as Gln¹⁰⁵, Met¹⁰⁶, Phe¹¹⁴, Ser¹¹⁷, Ser¹³⁶, and Trp¹³⁸, are relatively intolerant to substitution (10).

Previously, no saccharide had been observed in the D subsite of T4L. Consistent with model-building experiments (18), we find the NAM moiety in this subsite to be distorted (Fig. 2A). The NAM ring is in the α -conformation and adopts a sofa form with atoms C-1, C-2, C-4, C-5, and O-5 nearly coplanar [0.07 Å root-mean-square (rms) discrepancy from coplanar]. In the full chair configuration, as in subsite C, the rms discrepancy from coplanar of the same

five atoms is 0.25 Å. The *N*-acetyl group is shifted so as to make hydrogen bonds with Asp²⁰ and Gln¹⁰⁵, and, as a result, the nitrogen is in the plane of the sofa atoms. Also, the normally equatorial hydroxymethyl group at C-5 is shifted toward the axial position where it makes a favorable hydrogen bond to Glu¹¹. Thus, these multiple interactions with the enzyme seem to favor the distorted form that is observed when the saccharide is bound in subsite D. A similar distortion and interactions favorable to that distortion were seen in the complex of HEWL and NAM-NAG-NAM (5, 8).

On the basis of the structure of the covalent adduct, it is presumed that Glu¹¹ donates a proton to the O-5 of NAM in subsite D and Glu²⁶ is optimally located for nucleophilic attack on the C-1 carbon, leading to the observed covalent linkage (Fig. 3A). At pH 3.0 and 37°C the resultant adduct is cleaved within 1 hour. This is illustrated in Fig. 3A, although the role of Glu¹¹ in promoting the attack of the water molecule is hypothetical. Nucleophilic attack by a carboxylate in glycosyl bond cleavage (Fig. 3A) is well established for β -glucosidase (19) and β -galactosidase (20). Because the observed adduct is distorted toward an oxocarbenium ion-like conformation, it suggests that the same enzyme-substrate interactions stabilize the transition state and prevent relaxation of the covalent glycosyl-enzyme intermediate to a stable ground-state conformation. Therefore, the deglycosylation step should be rapid, assuming free access by an acceptor group to the strained ring. In the case of the present adduct there is a well-ordered water molecule hydrogen bonded to the *N*-acetyl group and to Glu¹¹ (Fig. 2B). These hydrogen-bonding interactions, plus O^{ε2} of Glu²⁶, apparently restrict access of the solvent to C-1. The overall mechanism shown in Fig. 3A is consistent with the double displacement reaction envisaged for "configuration retaining" glycosidases in which a glycosyl-enzyme is formed and subsequently hydrolyzed (21, 22). The mechanism of action of T4L itself is unclear (Fig. 3B).

If the enzyme-adduct complex is superimposed on wild-type T4L (Fig. 2B), O^{ε1} of Glu²⁶ in the adduct superimposes almost exactly on a solvent molecule (SOL²¹¹) that is bound between Thr²⁶ and Asp²⁰ in the native structure. Consideration of hydrogen bonding (Fig. 3B) suggests that the lone pair of the bound solvent is directed toward the site occupied by the C-1 carbon. This suggests that in the wild-type enzyme this solvent molecule might attack in what would be a single displacement reaction (Fig. 3B), inverting the anomeric configuration from equatorial in the substrate to axial in the product of hydrolysis. The hypothesis that solvent attack occurs from

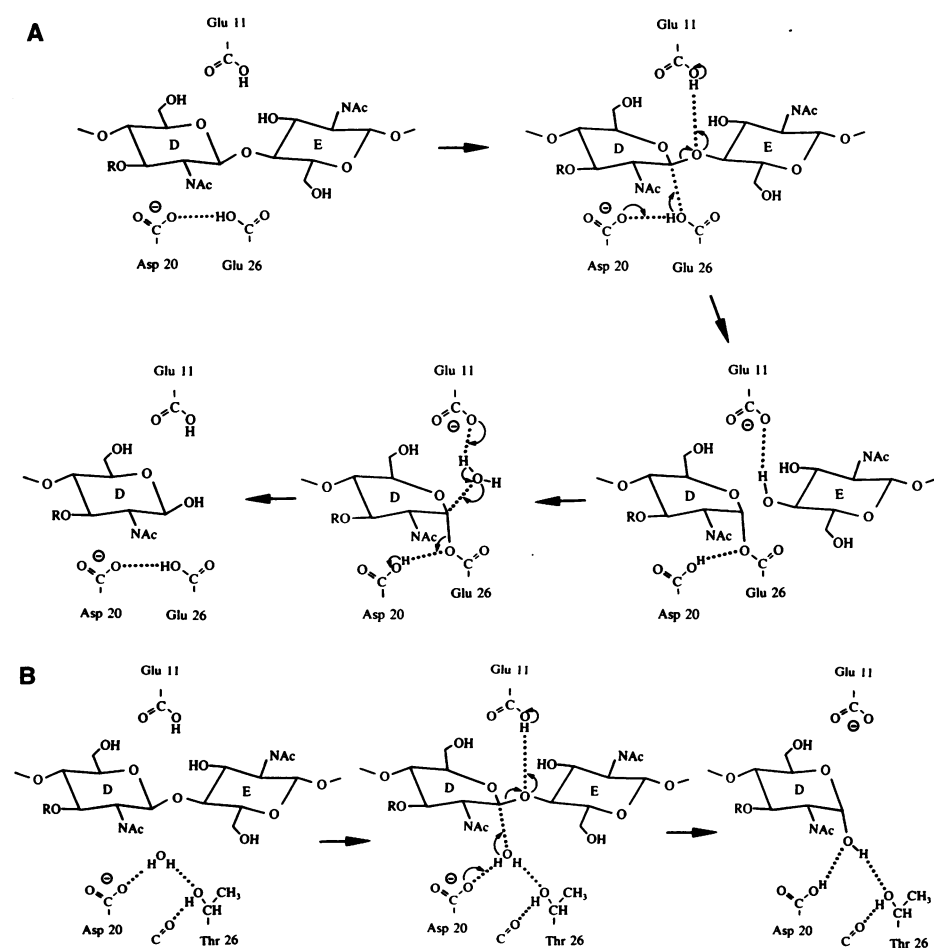


Fig. 3. (A) Proposed steps leading to the adduct formed by T26E lysozyme and its subsequent breakdown. If the active site of phage T4L is superimposed on that of HEWL (27, 28), Glu¹¹ of T4L superimposes on Glu³⁵ of HEWL. In this superposition Asp²⁰ of T4L is in the same vicinity as Asp⁵² of HEWL, but the position of Asp⁵² in HEWL corresponds more closely to Thr²⁶ of T4L than to Asp²⁰ [see figure 2 of (27) and table 3 of (28)]. **(B)** One possible mechanism of action of wild-type T4L, based on analogy with the covalent adduct. Other mechanisms are also consistent with the available data (see text).

the α side of the saccharide in native T4L predicts that the anomeric configuration of the substrate be inverted in the product. This is difficult to prove because the appropriate substrate for T4L is complex and difficult to synthesize. In contrast, HEWL is known to retain anomeric configuration (23). Therefore, the mechanism for T4L shown in Fig. 3B is necessarily different from that commonly accepted for HEWL (1, 4, 5).

Thus, the mutant lysozyme T26E could be an example of glycosidases that cleave with overall retention of configuration by a double displacement mechanism (21, 22). At the same time, the presence of protein-substrate interactions that stabilize a sugar ring conformation similar to an oxocarbenium ion-like transition state can be taken as evidence that the mechanism of action of the mutant and of the wild-type T4L itself include elements similar to those originally postulated by Phillips for HEWL (1, 4, 5).

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Chromosome Condensation in *Xenopus* Mitotic Extracts Without Histone H1

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The contribution of histone H1 to mitotic chromosome condensation was examined with the use of a cell-free extract from *Xenopus* eggs, which transforms condensed sperm nuclei into metaphase chromosomes. When H1 was removed from the extract, the resultant metaphase chromosomes were indistinguishable from those formed in complete extract. Nucleosomal spacing was the same for both. Thus, H1 is not required for the structural reorganization that leads to condensed metaphase chromosomes in this egg extract.

During mitosis, genomic DNA is packaged into condensed chromosomes to facilitate its accurate segregation to daughter cells. Concomitant with mitotic chromosome condensation, histone H1 is highly phosphorylated (1), presumably by cdc2 kinase that triggers the transition from interphase to mitosis (2) and is partially localized on condensed chromosomes (3). Histone H1 helps to compact the 10-nm-diameter chromatin filament into a 30-nm fiber (4). Thus, H1 and its phosphorylation are thought to cause mitotic chromosome condensation (5). To examine the contribution of H1 to mitotic chromosome condensation, we used a cell-free system with amphibian (*Xenopus laevis*) egg extracts, in which sperm chromatin lacking H1 is remodeled to somatic chromatin and then transformed into condensed metaphase chromosomes (6).

Unfertilized eggs of *Xenopus* are arrested at the second meiotic metaphase. Cytoplasmic extracts prepared from these eggs can

induce nuclear membrane breakdown, chromosome condensation, and spindle formation (6–9). When sperm nuclei deprived of the plasma and nuclear membranes are incubated in the mitotic extract, they decondense in a few minutes (9, 10). During this time, sperm-specific basic proteins are selectively removed from sperm DNA and replaced by somatic-type core histones and H1, which are absent from sperm nuclei but stored in the extract (10–12). Both of these processes are mediated by nucleoplasmin (11–13). The decondensed chromatin is then transformed into condensed metaphase chromosomes after incubation for a further 90 min (8, 9). This condensation is thought to be similar to that imposed on somatic interphase nuclei when incubated in the egg extract (6).

Although the type of H1 commonly found in somatic cells is not found in amphibian eggs (14, 15), a subtype termed H1X is found in the nuclei of eggs and early embryos up to the late blastula stage of anuran amphibians (10). This subtype is encoded by the B4 mRNA, whose sequence is similar to those of other subtypes of H1 (16).

We used antibodies to H1X to immunodeplete the egg extracts (17) (Fig. 1A). In both H1X-depleted and normal extracts, sperm nuclei were similarly transformed

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A covalent enzyme-substrate intermediate with saccharide distortion in a mutant T4 lysozyme

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