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A preliminary solubility screen used to improve crystallization trials: crystallization and preliminary X-ray structure determination of *Aeropyrum pernix* flap endonuclease-1

Crystallization of protein and protein complexes is a multiparametric problem that involves the investigation of a vast number of physical and chemical conditions. The buffers, salts and additives used to prepare the protein will be present in every crystallization condition. It is imperative that these conditions be defined prior to crystal screening since they will have a ubiquitous involvement in the crystal-growth experiments. This study involves the crystallization and preliminary analysis of the flap endonuclease-1 (FEN-1) DNArepair enzyme from the crenarchaeal organism Aeropyrum pernix (Ape). Ape FEN-1 protein in a standard chromatography buffer had only a modest solubility and minimal success in crystallization trials. Using an ion/pH solubility screen, it was possible to dramatically increase the maximum solubility of the protein. The solubilityoptimized protein produced large diffraction-quality crystals under multiple conditions in which the non-optimized protein produced only precipitate. Only minor adjustments of the conditions were required to produce single diffraction-quality crystals. The native Ape FEN-1 crystals diffract to 1.4 Å resolution and belong to space group $P6_1$, with unit-cell parameters a = b = 92.8, c = 80.9 Å, $\alpha = \beta = 90$, $\nu = 120^{\circ}$.

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1. Introduction

Crystallization experiments require control of the rates at which macromolecules are subjected to supersaturating conditions. A phase diagram is typically used to describe saturation limits and an experimental trajectory defines the conditions witnessed by the macromolecular solute during equilibration (reviewed in McPherson, 1999). Supersaturating conditions are obtained by increasing the concentrations of precipitating agents. By definition, a precipitating agent is any component that affects the solubility of the macromolecule. The profile of the boundary between unsaturated and supersaturated states, the saturation level, is defined by the macromolecule's preference between solution and solid states. It is clear that this boundary is in part defined by the chemical components used to initially solubilize the macromolecule. The majority of purification protocols utilize standard salts and buffers, typically Tris-HCl and NaCl, chosen on the basis of expense. It is then generally assumed that crystallization screening can then be used to discover the conditions for stable supersaturation, ordered assembly and subsequent crystal growth. The initial solvent, ubiquitous in all crystallization trials, may impose a ceiling on the supersaturation level, perhaps even collapsing the metastable region of the phase diagram. In

certain cases, where the macromolecules are soluble at low ionic strength, as is the case for hemoglobin and lysozyme, the effect of the initial solvent is minimal. However, when a more typical protein is studied, substantial salting-in may be required. These conditions, unless optimized, may mask crystallization results.

We utilize a preliminary solubility screen for the purpose of optimizing the salt cations and anions and the buffer and pH in order to prepare customized solvents that raise the ceiling of the saturation levels at an overall lower ionic strength. The presumption is that we are selecting between amorphous precipitate and ordered assembly. Maximizing solubility is in effect masking amorphous precipitation and the resultant exclusion of water. An ordered assembly, i.e. a crystal lattice, of a macromolecule incorporates a large fraction of solvent. A protein crystal with 50% solvent content is in fact at a concentration of $\sim 500 \text{ mg ml}^{-1}$. With this in mind, perhaps it is best to consider a macromolecular crystal as the ultimate in solubility. Another consideration is the rate of formation of amorphous precipitation versus the rate of ordered assembly. One can envision that the rate of precipitation is rapid in comparison to nucleation and crystal growth. If conditions are found under which interactions of amorphous precipitation are eliminated, then the super-

saturation state can exist over a longer period of time, promoting the probability of nucleation events. With these assumptions made, an optimal solvent is defined as one which maximizes solubility at the lowest ionic strength. One anticipates that these conditions will enhance the positive results found in sparse-matrix, systematic and incomplete factorial crystallization trials.

In our studies, we incorporate a solubility screen to improve crystallization results. Here, we report the crystallization of a crenarchaeal flap endonuclease-1 (FEN-1) in which the solubility screen had a profound effect on our success. FEN-1s are members of the rad2/rad27 family of DNArepair enzymes (Harrington & Lieber, 1994b) which includes the prokaryotic polymerase-associated 5' to 3' exonucleases, the eukaryotic flap endonucleases (DNase IV), yeast rad2 and rad27 and the human XPG protein (Harrington & Lieber, 1994a). To date, the X-ray crystal structures of six enzymes in this family have been determined: one prokaryotic source, the 5' to 3' exonuclease domain of Thermus aquaticus polymerase (PDB code 1taq; 2.40 Å resolution; Kim et al., 1995), two from bacteriophages, the T4 RNase H (PDB code 1tfr; 2.1 Å resolution; Mueser et al., 1996) and the T5 5' to 3' exonuclease (PDB code 1exn; 2.50 Å resolution; Ceska et al., 1996, Garforth et al., 1999), and three from euryarchaeal organisms, Pyrococcus furiosus FEN-1 (PDB code 1b43; 2.00 Å resolution; Hosfield et al., 1998), Methanococcus jannaschii FEN-1 (PDB codes 1a76 and 1a77; 2.00 Å resolution; Hwang et al., 1998) and P. horikoshii (Pho) FEN-1 (PDB code 1mc8; 3.10 Å resolution; Matsui et al., 2002). The preferred substrate of the FEN-1 enzymes is branched DNA that has both a short 5' ssDNA flap and downstream duplex DNA (Harrington & Lieber, 1994a). Here, we report the crystallization of the first crenarchaeal flap endonuclease-1, with diffraction to the highest resolution reported for this family of enzymes.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Expression and purification of Aeropyrum pernix FEN-1

A. pernix (Ape) FEN1 protein was expressed and purified at Third Wave Technologies Inc. Substantial expression of soluble protein was obtained from IPTG induction in a bacterial host (Escherichia coli BL21). Bacterial cell pellets were resuspended in lysis buffer (10 ml Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 100 mM NaCl, 2 mM EDTA) with

10 mg hen egg-white lysozyme and incutest combinations of the best cation, anion bated for 15 min at 277 K. Deoxycholic acid and pH. $[200 \,\mu\text{l}, 10\%(w/v) \text{ solution}]$ was added and the solution was sonicated (2 min, 80%

power) and centrifuged (14 000g, 15 min,

277 K). The supernatant was decanted and

then heated (340 K, 1 h) in order to dena-

Polyethyleneimine [0.25 ml, 10%(v/v) solu-

tion] was added and the solution was incu-

bated (30 min, 277 K) and centrifuged

(14 000g, 15 min, 277 K), with the protein

remaining in the clarified supernatant. The

protein was precipitated by the addition of

ammonium sulfate $(0.476 \text{ g ml}^{-1})$ and the

solution was incubated (30 min, 277 K) then

centrifuged (14 000g, 15 min, 277 K) and the

supernatant discarded. The pellet was

resuspended in buffer A (5 ml, 50 mM Tris-

HCl pH 8.0, 1 mM EDTA) and dialyzed

(buffer A, overnight, 277 K). The protein

was run on a heparin HPLC column and the

peak that eluted at 0.5-0.8 M NaCl was

collected. The pooled fractions were

dialyzed (buffer A, 277 K, overnight),

followed by a second dialysis in a storage

buffer [buffer A with 50%(v/v) glycerol,

A sample of purified protein (5 mg) was

dialyzed in deionized water (277 K, over-

night) to produce a flocculent precipitate.

The precipitate was resuspended, immedi-

ately aliquoted (20 samples in 1.5 ml

centrifuge tubes) and then centrifuged

(20 000g, 5 min). The supernatant was

collected from the samples and tested for

protein remaining in solution. Using four

protein pellets, a series of Good buffers

(Good et al., 1966; 10 µl per sample, 50 mM

each, Na MES pH 5.6, Na PIPES pH 6.5, Na

HEPES pH 7.5, Na TAPS pH 8.5) were

tested to determine the pH profile of solu-

bility. Using six protein pellets, a series of

chloride salts were tested to determine the

best cation (10 μ l per sample, 100 mM each,

NH₄Cl, NaCl, KCl, LiCl, MgCl₂, CaCl₂).

Using six protein pellets, a series of sodium salts were tested to determine the best anion

(10 µl per sample, 100 mM each, sodium

formate, sodium acetate, sodium cacodylate,

Na₂SO₄, Na₂HPO₄, disodium hydrogen

citrate). The pellets were resuspended in the

added test solutions, incubated (10 min,

ambient temperature) and centrifuged

(5 min, 20 000g). The individual samples

were tested for protein in the supernatant

(2 µl each, Bio-Rad Protein Assay, 5 min

remaining four protein pellets were used to

The

incubation, 595 nm absorbance).

277 K, overnight] and stored at 193 K.

2.2. Solubility screen

bacterial proteins.

endogenous

ture

2.3. Crystallization and data collection

Crystallization trials were conducted twice, first using the protein dialyzed into a standard solvent (7 mg ml⁻¹, 50 mM Tris-HCl, 150 mM NaCl) and a second time using the results from the solubility screen $(10 \text{ mg ml}^{-1}, 25 \text{ m}M \text{ Na PIPES pH 6.5},$ 50 mM disodium hydrogen citrate, 50 mM KCl, 50 mM NH₄Cl). Both solutions were subjected to sparse-matrix crystal screens $[1 + 1 \mu l hanging drop, Crystal Screens 1 and$ 2 and Natrix from Hampton Research, Laguna Niguel, CA, USA, Wizard1, Wizard2, Cryo1 and Cryo2 from DeCode Genetics and the Ion Screen (Mueser et al., 2000)] at 277 and 294 K. The 'Ion Screen' is the precursor to the PEG/Ion Screen (Bob Cudney, Hampton Research, personal communication). Crystals from the solventoptimized screen were obtained in 2 days [20%(w/v) PEG 4000, 200 mM sodium formate, 100 mM Na MES pH 5.6, 294 K]. Diffraction-quality crystals were produced from a hanging-drop gradient expansion $[4 + 4 \mu l, 10-14\%(w/v)]$ PEG 4000, 200 mM sodium formate and 100 mM Na MES pH 5.6, 294 K].

For data collection, the crystals were placed momentarily in a substitute mother liquor containing a cryoprotectant [25%(v/v) 2-methyl-2,4-pentanediol, 12%(w/v)PEG 4000, 25 mM Na PIPES pH 6.5, 100 mM Na MES pH 5.6, 200 mM sodium formate, 50 mM disodium hydrogen citrate, 50 mM KCl, 50 mM NH₄Cl] and flash-frozen in liquid nitrogen. Several native data sets were collected at BioCARS 14-BMC (Argonne National Laboratories, Advanced Photon Source, Chicago, IL, USA) using an ADSC Quantum 4 CCD detector. The best data set, reported here, diffracted to 1.4 Å resolution. The high-resolution data were collected first (0.9 Å wavelength, crystal-todetector distance 120 mm, 0.5° oscillations, 15 s exposures, 150 frames, 100 K) followed by a low-resolution data collection (0.9 Å wavelength, crystal-to-detector distance 170 mm, 1.0° oscillations, 10 s exposures, 100 frames, 100 K). This low-resolution pass proved to have substantial rejections owing to oversaturation and a third pass was collected (0.9 Å wavelength, crystal-todetector distance 170 mm, 1.0° oscillations, 2 s exposures, 100 frames, 100 K). The data were integrated using DENZO and merged using SCALEPACK (Otwinowski & Minor, 1997).

short communications

3. Results and discussion

Recombinant flap endonuclease-1 from the crenarchaeal A. pernix (Ape FEN-1) was expressed in E. coli and purified to homogeneity. A. pernix is an aerobic hyperthermophilic ocean-vent organism with an optimal growth temperature approaching 373 K (Sako et al., 1996). Purified Ape FEN-1 was stable in differential scanning calorimetry to above 403 K, the limits of the instrument (Collins, unpublished data). The purification involved heating the crude extract to 340 K for 1 h in order to denature endogenous proteins and centrifugation to remove denatured material, followed by purification in one step on a heparin Sepharose column. The protein had limited solubility ($\sim 3 \text{ mg ml}^{-1}$ at 277 K, $\sim 9 \text{ mg ml}^{-1}$ at 294 K) in the storage buffer. A solubility screen was employed to maximize the solubility of the protein (Table 1). The use of common counterions allowed a direct comparison of anions and cations in the screen. The results clearly indicate that the optimal buffer is Na PIPES pH 6.5, the best anion is citrate and the best cation is magnesium. In a solution of dipotassium hydrogen citrate (50 m*M*, pH 6.5) with MgCl₂ (10 m*M*), the maximum solubility of *Ape* FEN-1 was a remarkable 106 mg ml⁻¹ at 294 K.

Divalent cations are essential for nuclease activity, in which two magnesium ions are found in the active site (Mueser *et al.*, 1996). Our interest is to solve the structure with and without active-site metals. Under the assumption that a metal-free crystal form could be soaked with metals to obtain both structures, we decided to attempt crystal-



Figure 1

Large crystals obtained in sparse-matrix crystallization trials using optimized protein solvent (a, c and e) are shown paired with the results obtained using a standard solvent (b, d and f) under the same conditions. The best result obtained from the crystal trials in the standard solvent is shown in (f).

Table 1

Solubility-screen results for Ape FEN-1.

Samples of precipitated protein were solubilized by the individual components using a set of common cations (Na⁺), common anions (Cl⁻) and buffers to allow direct comparison of effectiveness. Concentrations of proteins are given (mg ml⁻¹); the best anion is citrate and the best cations are Mg^{2+} and Ca^{2+} . A composite solution of Na PIPES pH 65, disodium hydrogen citrate and KCl improved the solubility to 21 mg ml⁻¹. A combination of the best anion and best cation (dipotassium hydrogen citrate/MgCl₂) improved the solubility to 106 mg ml⁻¹.

Supernatant	Concentration (mg ml ⁻¹)
Na MES pH 5.6	0.39
Na PIPES pH 6.5	1.64
Na HEPES pH 7.5	0
Na TAPS pH 8.5	0
NH ₄ Cl	0.60
NaCl	0.92
KCl	1.63
LiCl	1.51
MgCl ₂	8.50
CaCl ₂	8.90
Sodium formate	1.36
Sodium acetate	0.64
Sodium cacodylate	0
Na ₂ SO ₄	5.93
Na ₂ HPO ₄	1.06
Disodium hydrogen citrate	8.73
Na PIPES/disodium hydrogen citrate	21.0
Dipotassium hydrogen citrate/MgCl ₂	106.0

lization trials using a metal-free composite buffer containing the addition of disodium hydrogen citrate and KCl. The protein in this buffer had a maximum solubility of $\sim 21 \text{ mg ml}^{-1}$ and crystal trials were conducted at 10 mg ml^{-1} (48% of the maximum). For comparison, we also conducted crystallization trials of the nonoptimized protein in the standard buffer $(7 \text{ mg ml}^{-1}, 78\% \text{ of the maximum})$. In the standard solvent, the protein solubility was similar to that of the storage buffer (~9 mg ml⁻¹ at 294 K). We obtained large crystals from the optimized buffer directly from crystal screens with only marginal results for protein in standard buffer (Fig. 1). A summary of the comparison of the two crystal trials is presented in Fig. 2. Very small crystals and crystalline material were noted in a few screen conditions of protein in standard buffer. The results using optimized buffer were substantially better. There were no results where crystals grew in standard buffer but not in optimized buffer. The optimized buffer has far fewer clear and precipitate results, with a dramatic increase in the number of crystalline results, including the large crystals shown (Fig. 1).

Linear-gradient expansions of the best crystallization condition obtained for the optimized protein produced diffractionquality single crystals (Fig. 3) which diffracted to 1.4 Å resolution. The data were processed using *DENZO/SCALEPACK* and a summary of the statistics is presented in Table 2. The crystals belong to the hexagonal space group $P6_1$, with systematic absences along the 00l axis consistent with a sixfold screw. Calculation of the Matthews coefficient ($V_{\rm M} = 2.51 \text{ Å}^3 \text{ Da}^{-1}$; MW = 40.1 kDa) indicates the presence of one molecule per asymmetric unit (Matthews, 1968). The initial phasing was solved by molecular replacement using AMoRe (Navaza & Saludjian, 1997) with the FEN-1 structure from P. furiosus FEN-1 (PDB code 1b43) as the search model. The space group was confirmed by comparison of the molecular-replacement results using space groups P6 (CC = 14.0%, R factor = 54.2%), $P6_1$ (CC = 41.8%, R factor = 48.6%) and $P6_5$ (CC = 23.3%, R factor = 54.4%).

Our interest is in the analysis of the active site of the enzyme. However, metal-soaking experiments on this crystal form have been completely unsuccessful. Attempts to soak crystals in MgCl₂ (10, 25 and 200 m*M*) and crystals grown in the presence of MgCl₂ (200 m*M*) have not produced evidence of

binding. The formation of magnesium citrate could interfere with chelation of the divalent cations by the protein (Pearce, 1980). However, crystals grown with excess magnesium (200 mM MgCl₂) still do not display metal bound in the active sites. At this point, we must assume that a conformational change associated with metal binding inhibits incorporation into the crystal lattice. A stabilization of the metalfree conformation by the crystal lattice and a relatively weak binding constant in the absence of the DNA substrate could account for the exclusion of metals. We are planning to perform crystallization trials of a citratefree magnesium-optimized solvent (50 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 50 mM NH₄Cl, 10 mM MgCl₂) in an effort to find a metal-bound crystal form.

We have observed a significant correlation between maximizing the solubility of a protein with positive results in crystal screens. By enhancing the solubility of a protein, we have observed an increase in the likelihood that a protein will crystallize.



Figure 2

Crystallization results of sparse-matrix crystallization trials were documented for one protein in two different solutions: one in an enhanced buffer formulated based on the solubility screen (white bars) and a second in a standard chromatography buffer (grey bars). Columns report the percentage of the results of the 768 conditions tested for each protein as: c, clear; p, precipitate; ps, phase separation; fp, flocculent precipitate; sph, spherulites; xp, crystalline precipitates; x, microcrystals; N, needle crystals; Pl, plate crystals; Sm, small three-dimensional crystals (0.01–0.05 mm); Med, medium three-dimensional crystals (0.05–0.2 mm); Lg, large three-dimensional crystals (>0.2 mm).

Table 2

Data-collection summary.

Values in parentheses are for the highest resolution shell (1.45–1.40 Å).

Resolution (Å)	45.0-1.4
Wavelength (Å)	0.9 (APS BioCARS-14BMC)
Observed reflections	925349
Unique reflections	74361
Completeness (%)	93.9 (79.7)
Average $I/\sigma(I)$	43.68 (4.46)
R_{merge} † (%)	5.3 (22.3)
Redundancy	12.4 (3.4)
Space group	$P6_1$
Unit-cell parameters	a = b = 92.8, c = 80.9,
(Å, °)	$\alpha = \beta = 90, \gamma = 120$

† $R_{\text{merge}} = \sum |I - \langle I \rangle| / \sum I.$



Figure 3

A diffraction-quality crystal of *Ape* FEN-1 grown using hanging-drop vapour diffusion at 296 K against a well solution of 8%(w/v) PEG 4000, 100 m*M* MES pH 5.6 and 200 m*M* sodium formate has crystal dimensions of $0.6 \times 0.2 \times 0.2$ mm.

Each protein has unique requirements for solubility and crystallization. In the proper salt and buffer, non-specific aggregation can be limited, enhancing the probability of ordered nucleation and subsequent crystal growth. For our protein, we were able to determine based on results from our solubility screen that the presence of citrate is essential for the growth of large diffractionquality crystals. The general applicability of this approach is not yet proven. Obviously, many proteins would not recover from deionizing precipitation. We have tested the applicability of the solubility screen to standard proteins with positive results along with alternative methods for solubility determination (manuscript in preparation). We anticipate this method will have general applicability.

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