Acta Crystallographica Section F Structural Biology and Crystallization Communications

ISSN 1744-3091

D. V. Mamaeva,<sup>a</sup> E. A. Morozova,<sup>a</sup> A. D. Nikulin,<sup>b</sup> S. V. Revtovich,<sup>a</sup> S. V. Nikonov,<sup>b</sup> M. B. Garber<sup>b</sup> and T. V. Demidkina<sup>a\*</sup>

<sup>a</sup> Engelhardt Institute of Molecular Biology, Russian Academy of Sciences, Vavilov str. 32, 119991 Moscow, Russia, and <sup>b</sup>Institute of Protein Research, Russian Academy of Sciences, 142290 Pushchino, Moscow Region, Russia

Correspondence e-mail: tvd@eimb.ru

Received 22 March 2005 Accepted 14 May 2005 Online 1 June 2005

PDB Reference: L-methionine  $\gamma$ -lyase, 1y4i, r1y4isf.



 $\odot$  2005 International Union of Crystallography All rights reserved

# Structure of Citrobacter freundii L-methionine  $\gamma$ -lyase

 $L$ -Methionine  $\gamma$ -lyase (MGL) is a pyridoxal 5'-phosphate (PLP) dependent enzyme that catalyzes  $\gamma$ -elimination of L-methionine. The crystal structure of MGL from Citrobacter freundii has been determined at 1.9 Å resolution. The spatial fold of the protein is similar to those of MGLs from Pseudomonas putida and Trichomonas vaginalis. The comparison of these structures revealed that there are differences in PLP-binding residues and positioning of the surrounding flexible loops.

### 1. Introduction

 $L$ -Methionine  $\gamma$ -lyase (MGL; EC 4.4.1.11) catalyzes PLP-dependent  $\gamma$ -elimination and  $\gamma$ -replacement reactions of L-methionine and its derivatives as well as  $\beta$ -elimination and  $\beta$ -replacement reactions of l-cysteine and S-substituted l-cysteines (Tanaka et al., 1977, 1985). MGL has been isolated from a number of bacteria, including Pseudomonas putida, Aeromonas sp., Clostridium sporogenes, P. taetrolens and Brevibacterium linens, and from the primitive protozoa Entamoeba hystolytica and Trichomonas vaginalis. There has been increasing interest in this enzyme as methionine-dependency has been reported in cancer cell lines and primary tumours. The enzyme has been found to be an effective anti-tumour agent in vitro and in vivo and to be of potential value in the treatment of Parkinson's disease, arteriosclerosis, aging and obesity (Hoffman, 1997). Sulfur amino-acid metabolism in bacteria is not yet fully understood and it is likely that many bacteria possess MGL. Thus, inhibitors of this enzyme could ultimately prove to be effective against pathogens. Moreover, since mammals apparently do not possess MGL, the enzyme is a promising target for anti-trichomonad and antientamoeba chemotherapy.

Despite the potential importance of MGL in medicine, the mechanism of the enzyme has not been well studied. Recently, crystal structures of MGL from P. putida (Motoshima et al., 2000; PDB codes 1gc0, 1ukj and 1pg8) and from T. vaginalis (PDB codes 1e5f and 1e5e) have been determined. This opens a route for study of the structure–functional basis of the catalysis of the  $\gamma$ - and  $\beta$ -elimination reactions that are catalyzed by MGL.

It has been shown that Citrobacter intermedius cells produce MGL when grown on a medium containing lactate and L-methionine (Faleev et al., 1994). We have cloned and sequenced the gene of C. freundii MGL and overexpressed the protein in Escherichia coli BL21 (DE3) cells containing the plasmid pET-15b (Manukhov et al., 2005). A comparison of the kinetic parameters of MGLs from C. freundii, P. putida and T. vaginalis showed that the  $K<sub>m</sub>$  values of these enzymes were relatively similar, while significant variations in reaction rates were observed (Demidkina et al., unpublished work). To explain the observed differences in the kinetic behaviour of enzymes from different species, further mechanistic and structural studies must be undertaken. In this paper, we report details of the crystallization of C. freundii MGL and the three-dimensional structure of the holoenzyme at  $1.9 \text{ Å}$  resolution.

## 2. Materials and methods

## 2.1. Crystallization

Crystals of MGL were obtained using the hanging-drop vapourdiffusion technique at 303 K. All drops were generated by mixing 2.0 µl of the enzyme dialyzed into 50 mM Tris–HCl pH 8.5, 0.5 mM PLP,  $0.2 \text{ mM}$  DTT with  $2.0 \text{ µl}$  of a precipitant solution on siliconized cover slides and were equilibrated against 1.0 ml of the same precipitant solution. MGL formed crystals with two precipitant solutions: (i) 35–37% polyethylene glycol monomethyl ether (PEG MME) 2000, 200 mM ammonium sulfate, 50 mM Tris–HCl pH 8.5, 0.2 mM PLP,  $25 \text{ mM}$  DTT and (ii) the same solution without ammonium sulfate. Rhombic shaped crystals appeared after a week and attained dimensions of 0.3 mm within two weeks. Crystals obtained using solution (i) were used to collect a data set. These crystals belong to space group  $I222$ , with unit-cell parameters  $a = 56.35$ ,  $b = 121.83$ ,  $c = 127.16$  Å, and contain one subunit in the asymmetric unit. Prior to freezing in liquid nitrogen, the crystals were transferred to 37% PEG MME 2000, 200 mM ammonium sulfate, 50 mM Tris–HCl pH 8.5, 0.2 mM PLP, 25 mM DTT. Data from a single crystal were collected on the EMBL PX beamline BW7A at the DORIS storage ring, DESY (Hamburg, Germany) using a MAR CCD detector and were processed using the XDS program (Kabsch, 1993). Detailed datacollection statistics are shown in Table 1.

#### 2.2. Structure determination and refinement

The AMoRe program package (Navaza, 1994) was used to solve the structures by the molecular-replacement method. A monomer of MGL from *P. putida* (PDB code 1gc0) with appropriate changes in the sequence was used as a model. For diffraction data between 15 and 3.0  $\AA$ , the model gave clear solutions with a correlation coefficient of 44.8 and an R factor of 59.8%. The structure was further subjected to several rounds of computational refinement and map calculation with  $CNS$  (Brünger et al., 1998) and manual model inspection and modification with  $O$  (Jones et al., 1991). A free  $R$ factor calculated from 5% of reflections set aside at the outset was used to monitor the progress of refinement. The initial anisotropic overall  $B$  factor was replaced successively with per-residue  $B$  factors, separate per-residue B factors for main- and side-chain atoms and, finally, restrained individual atomic  $B$  factors. The model bias present in the initial molecular-replacement solutions was tackled using



#### Figure 1

A fragment of the final  $2F_0 - F_c$  map contoured at the 2.0 $\sigma$  level in the region of the short antiparallel  $\beta$ -sheet connecting two MGL monomers.

#### Table 1

Data-collection and refinement statistics.

Values in parentheses are for the highest resolution shell.



composite omit cross-validated  $\sigma_A$ -weighted maps implemented in CNS. The electron-density map was of sufficient quality (Fig. 1) to trace whole polypeptide chains, including residues 2–398.

When the  $R$ -factor value reached 30%, water molecules were placed into  $3\sigma$  peaks in  $F_o - F_c$  maps when they were within suitable hydrogen-bonding distance of the existing model. After refinement, water molecules whose positions were not supported by the electron density at 1 $\sigma$  contouring in a  $\sigma_A$ -weighted  $2F_{\rm o} - F_{\rm c}$  map were deleted. The final model refined to  $1.9 \text{ Å}$  incorporates 3024 non-H atoms (Table 1) and was deposited in the PDB (code 1y4i).

## 3. Results and discussion

MGL belongs to the evolutionary  $\gamma$ -family of PLP-dependent enzymes (Alexander et al., 1994) involved in the metabolism of sulfurcontaining amino acids. The three-dimensional structures of PLPdependent enzymes belong to five distinct folds: types I–V (John, 1995; Jansonius, 1998; Alexander et al., 1994; Grishin et al., 1995; Qu et al., 1998). Aspartate aminotransferase (AAT; EC 2.6.1.1) is the prototype of the  $\alpha$ -family enzymes (Alexander *et al.*, 1994), which are also named the 'AAT family' and have a type I fold. Type I fold enzymes were divided into subclasses based on the different structures of their N-terminal parts (Käck et al., 1999). The crystal structure of E. coli cystathionine  $\beta$ -lyase (EC 4.4.1.8), the first representative of the  $\gamma$ -family, revealed that it belongs to the type I fold (Clausen et al., 1996) and a structural subclass of enzymes belonging to the  $\gamma$ -family was named the cystathionine  $\beta$ -lyase subclass. The crystal structures of the MGLs from P. putida (PDB codes 1gco, 1ukj and 1pg8) and T. vaginalis (PDB codes 1e5f and 1e5e) demonstrate features characteristic of enzymes of the cystathionine  $\beta$ -lyase subclass.

The MGLs from P. putida, T. vaginalis and C. freundii, like other enzymes from the cystathionine  $\beta$ -lyase subclass, exist as homotetramers with a molecular weight of about 200 kDa that posses 222 symmetry. As in the case of many PLP-dependent enzymes of the AAT family, the tetrameric molecule of MGL can be subdivided into two so-called catalytic dimers in which the active sites contain residues from the other subunit (Fig. 2a, red/green and blue/yellow

subunits). Two catalytic dimers make up the tetrameric molecule of the enzyme.

Each subunit consists of three different domains: the N-terminal domain, the PLP-binding domain and the C-terminal domain (Figs. 2b and  $2c$ ).

The extended N-terminal domain (residues 1–63; Fig. 3) is composed of helices  $\alpha$ 1 and  $\alpha$ 2 which connect a long loop structure containing 25 residues. C. freundii MGL has a short  $3_{10}$ -helix at the N-terminus in contrast to the unstructured N-termini of the MGLs from P. putida and T. vaginalis. The N-terminal domain protrudes from the PLP-binding domain of the subunit and provides most of the





contacts to neighbouring subunits. In the catalytic dimer, residues of the  $\alpha$ 1 helix from one subunit (Fig. 2*a*, red) contact with the  $\beta$ 12/ $\alpha$ 15 and  $\beta 10/\beta 11$  loops of the C-terminal domain of the second subunit (Fig. 2a, green). Residues 28–34 make a  $\beta$ -strand structure paired with the same region of the subunit from the other catalytic dimer (Fig. 2a, blue), thus stabilizing the whole MGL tetramer by making a short antiparallel  $\beta$ -sheet (Fig. 1). Additional stabilization of the tetramer packing is provided by the contacts of the  $\alpha$ 2 helix and the preceding five residues with  $\beta$ 11 and the adjacent short 3<sub>10</sub>-helix of the C-terminal domain of another subunit of the neighbouring catalytic dimer (Fig. 2a, yellow).

The large PLP-binding domain (residues 64–259; Fig. 3) includes a seven-stranded mainly parallel  $\beta$ -sheet ( $\beta$ 1– $\beta$ 7). Characteristically for PLP-dependent enzymes, it has directions  $+-++++$ , with eight  $\alpha$ -helices (3–10) and one 3<sub>10</sub>-helix arranged on both sides of the  $\beta$ -sheet. Helices  $\alpha$ 3,  $\alpha$ 6,  $\alpha$ 7,  $\alpha$ 8,  $\alpha$ 10 and a short 3<sub>10</sub>-helix adjacent to  $\alpha$ 8 are located on one side of the  $\beta$ -sheet and shield it from solvent. Helices  $\alpha$ 4,  $\alpha$ 5 and  $\alpha$ 9 are located on the other side of the  $\beta$ -sheet and are included in the intermolecular interface. PLP is covalently attached to Lys210 and is located near the N-terminus of helix  $\alpha$ 4 and the C-termini of strands  $\beta$ 5,  $\beta$ 6 and  $\beta$ 7. There are no contacts between PLP and the C-terminal domain. The arrangement of the PLPbinding residues is almost identical in all known MGL structures (Fig. 4) and can be superimposed with root-mean-square deviations of 0.27 Å (P. putida versus C. freundii) and 0.19 Å (T. vaginalis versus C. freundii). The main discrepancies are in the region of the contacts between PLP and the N-terminal domain of the other subunit of a catalytic dimer. In T. vaginalis MGL two highly conservative residues (Tyr56 and Arg58) make contacts with the phosphate group of PLP, but in C. freundii MGL only the corresponding Arg60 makes a contact (Table 2), whereas Tyr58 is directed in the opposite direction.

The C-terminal domain (residues 260–398; Fig. 3) consists of a fivestranded  $\beta$ -sheet with five  $\alpha$ -helixes ( $\alpha$ 11,  $\alpha$ 12,  $\alpha$ 13,  $\alpha$ 14,  $\alpha$ 15) located on the both sides of the  $\beta$ -sheet. Helices  $\alpha$ 11,  $\alpha$ 12,  $\alpha$ 13 and  $\alpha$ 15 continue the solvent shield of the  $\alpha$ -helices layer of the PLP-binding domain. Helix  $\alpha$ 14 is in the PLP-binding/C-terminal interdomain interface, but no atoms of  $\alpha$ 14 make contacts with PLP-domain



#### Figure 2

(a) Schematic model of MGL tetramer. Subunits are shown in different colours. PLP-binding sites are shown by pink circles. (b) Schematic representation of a monomer. The N-terminal domain is shown in magenta, the PLP-binding domain is in orange and the C-terminal domain is in blue. PLP is shown in ball-and-stick representation. (c) Topology diagram of a monomer.

## Table 2

The distances between PLP and protein atoms in known MGL structures.







Figure 3

Stereoview of the  $C^{\alpha}$  trace of a monomer. Every tenth  $C^{\alpha}$  atom is represented by a sphere.



#### Figure 4

The superposition of the PLP-binding sites of C. freundii (yellow), T. vaginalis (red) and P. putida (grey) MGLs.

atoms. The position of this helix is different from that in T. vaginalis MGL, where  $\alpha$ 14 is located closer to the PLP-binding domain; it is located very close to the position of the corresponding helix in P. putida MGL.

We thank N. P. Fomenkova for excellent technical assistance. This work was supported by the Russian Academy of Sciences, the

Russian Foundation for Basic Research (grant No. 05-04-48010), the Program of the RAS on Molecular and Cellular Biology and the Council of the RF President (grants for outstanding scientific schools Nos. 1969.2003.4 and 1800.2003.4). The research of AN was supported in part by the Russian Science Support Foundation. The research of MG was supported in part by an International Research Scholar's award from the Howard Hughes Medical Institute. Partial support for TVD was provided by the International Fogarty Foundation (grant No. 1 R03 TW006045-01A2)

## References

- Alexander, W., Sandmeir, E., Mehta, P. K. & Christen, P. (1994). Eur. J. Biochem. 219, 953–960.
- Brünger, A. T., Adams, P. D., Clore, G. M., DeLano, W. L., Gros, P., Grosse-Kunstleve, R. W., Jiang, J.- S., Kuszewski, J., Nilges, M., Pannu, N. S., Read, R. J., Rice, L. M., Simonson, T. & Warren, G. L.
- (1998). Acta Cryst. D54, 905–921. Clausen, T., Huber, R., Laber, B., Pohlenz, H. D. & Messershmidt, A. (1996). J. Mol. Biol. 262, 202–
- 204. Faleev, N. G., Troitskaya, M. V., Ivoilov, V. S., Karpova, V. V. & Belikov, V. M. (1994). Prikl. Biokhim. Microbiol. 30, 458–463.
- Grishin, N., Phillips, M. A. & Goldsmith, E. J. (1995). Protein Sci. 4, 1291–1304.
- Hoffman, R. M. (1997). Hum. Cell, 10, 69–80.
- Jansonius, J. N. (1998). Curr. Opin. Struct. Biol. 8, 759–769.
- John, R. A. (1995). Biochim. Biophys. Acta, 1248, 81–96.
- Jones, T. A., Zou, J. Y., Cavan, S. W. & Kjeldgaard, M. (1991). Acta Cryst. A47, 110–119.

Kabsch, W. (1993). J. Appl. Cryst. 26, 795–800.

- Käck, H., Sandmark, J., Gibson, K., Schneider, H. & Lindqvist, Y. (1999). J. Mol. Biol. 291, 857–876.
- Manukhov, I. V., Mamaeva, D. V., Rastorguev, S. M., Faleev, N. G., Morozova, E. A., Demidkina, T. V. & Zavilgelsky, G. B. (2005). In the press.

Motoshima, H., Imagaki, K., Kumasaka, T., Furuichi, T., Inoe, H., Tamura, T., Esaki, N., Soda, K., Tanaka, N., Yamamoto, M. & Tanaka, H. (2000). J. Biochem. 128, 349–354.

Navaza, J. (1994). Acta Cryst. A50, 157–163.

Qu, K., Martin, D. L. & Lawrence, C. E. (1998). Protein Sci. 7, 1092–1105.

Tanaka, H., Esaki, N. & Soda, K. (1977). Biochemistry, 16, 100–106.

Tanaka, H., Esaki, N. & Soda, K. (1985). Enzyme Microb. Technol. 7, 530– 537.