

# The Active Site Cysteine of Ubiquitin-Conjugating Enzymes Has a Significantly Elevated $pK_a$ : Functional Implications<sup>†</sup>

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*Received July 22, 2005; Revised Manuscript Received October 18, 2005*

**ABSTRACT:** Ubiquitin-conjugating enzymes (E2s or UbcS) are essential components in the ubiquitination apparatus. These enzymes accept ubiquitin from an E1 enzyme and then, usually with the aid of an E3 enzyme, donate the ubiquitin to the target protein. The function of E2 relies critically on the chemistry of its active site cysteine residue since this residue must form a thioester bond with the carboxyl terminus of ubiquitin. Despite the plethora of structural information that is available, there has been a notable dearth of information regarding the chemical basis of E2 function. Toward filling this large void in our understanding of E2 function, we have examined the  $pK_a$  of the active site cysteine using a combination of experimental and theoretical approaches. We find, remarkably, that the  $pK_a$  of the active site cysteine residue is elevated by approximately 2 pH units above that of a free cysteine. We have identified residues that contribute to the increase in this  $pK_a$ . On the basis of experimental values obtained with three different E2 proteins, we believe this to be a general and important characteristic of E2 protein chemistry. Sequence comparison suggests that the electrostatic environment is maintained not through strict residue conservation but through different combinations of residues near the active site. We propose that the elevated  $pK_a$  is a regulatory mechanism that prevents the highly exposed cysteine residue in free E2 from reacting promiscuously with electron deficient chemical moieties in the cell.

The covalent attachment of ubiquitin to proteins is used to regulate a myriad of basic cellular processes, such as the cell division cycle, gene expression, DNA repair, endocytosis, and general protein turnover (1, 2). Despite the many effects of ubiquitin modification, each is initiated by the same set of three enzymatic activities: E1 (ubiquitin-activating enzyme), E2 (ubiquitin-conjugating enzyme), and E3 (ubiquitin ligase). The reaction scheme commences with E1, which activates ubiquitin by forming a thioester bond between its catalytic cysteine and the C-terminal carboxyl group of ubiquitin. E2 then accepts ubiquitin from E1 to form a thioester bond between the E2 catalytic cysteine residue and the ubiquitin C-terminus. E2, usually in concert with a cognate E3, then donates the ubiquitin to a lysine residue of the target protein. Polyubiquitination of the target protein typically leads to recognition and destruction by the proteasome, whereas monoubiquitination has diverse consequences.

As a reflection of the stringent structural requirements for E2 function, every known E2 structure has the same core fold (the “UBC fold”), which consists of an  $\alpha+\beta$  arrangement and a  $3_{10}$ -helix. Structural variations of the UBC fold occur, but are localized primarily to the extremities of the molecule. The current model of E2 function proposes that specificity for different E3s or substrate proteins is conferred at these extremities while the core fold has been conserved to allow recognition of the common factors of the pathway, namely, E1 and ubiquitin.

The active site cysteine is located in the core UBC fold. It is positioned at the N-terminus of a  $3_{10}$ -helix, and surrounded mainly by an adjacent  $\alpha$ -helix and two loop segments. In this context, the cysteine is placed at the base of a shallow groove on the surface of the protein, and is circumscribed by conserved residues of the UBC family. The important question of how the chemistry of the active site is modulated to render catalytic competence arises. Remarkably, very little still is known about the active site chemistry. A recent study has shown that a conserved asparagine residue (part of the strictly conserved HPN motif) is critical for the transfer of ubiquitin to the target protein (3). The asparagine may stabilize the negative charge of the oxyanion formed during lysine attack by the substrate protein. Even less is known about the transfer of ubiquitin to E2 from E1. The transfer step necessitates deprotonation of the catalytic cysteine to form the nucleophilic thiolate intermediate on

<sup>†</sup> This work was funded in part by NIH Research Grants R01-GM-57536 (to R.B.) and R01-GM-62825 (to B.L.M.), a Leukemia and Lymphoma Society Scholar Award (to R.B.), and NIH Training Grant T32AR007472 (for S.G.T.).

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E2. Deprotonation is a function of the  $pK_a$  for the cysteine and can be altered depending on its local environment.

To understand the chemistry of the catalytic cysteine, we have measured its  $pK_a$  experimentally. We demonstrate that the  $pK_a$  of the catalytic cysteine is shifted approximately 2  $pK_a$  units above that of a model cysteine in solution ( $pK_a \sim 8.5$ ). Using structure-based  $pK_a$  calculations (based on the finite difference Poisson–Boltzmann equation), we further show that this is a conserved property of the E2s engendered at the level of their secondary and tertiary structures. This intriguing result indicates that the active site cysteine is much less reactive than a free cysteine. We suggest that this represents a control mechanism that prevents promiscuous reactivity of the E2s with random electron poor molecules (electrophiles) in the cell. As a result, a constant pool of competent E2s will be available in the cell.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

**DNA Constructs and Protein Preparation.** The preparation of wild-type and mutant (C114S) UbcH10<sup>1</sup> constructs (pET 28 expression vector) has been described elsewhere (4). UbcH10 C102S and the double mutant C102S/C114S were prepared by site-directed mutagenesis following the Stratagene Quick Change protocol. All mutations were confirmed by sequencing. The cDNA for both Ubc2 and Ubc13 were purchased from Open Biosystems. The genes were cloned using the LIC protocol (5) into a vector encoding an N-terminal six-His tag (generously provided by E. Physicky and B. Grayhack, Department of Biochemistry and Biophysics, University of Rochester School of Medicine and Dentistry).

All proteins were expressed in BL21(DE3) RIL cells using conventional IPTG-based expression procedures. Cells were lysed by a combination of lysozyme treatment and tip sonication. Each E2 was purified by nickel affinity chromatography on Hi Trap columns (Amersham Biosciences), and protein homogeneity (>95%) was confirmed by SDS–PAGE (Coomassie staining).

**Determination of  $pK_a$  by  $A_{240}$ .** UV measurements were performed on a Spectronic Genesys 2 spectrophotometer at room temperature. All E2 concentrations were 10–15  $\mu$ M. For  $pK_a$  determination, the proteins were prepared in a triple buffer system (containing 30.0 mM AMPPO, 30.0 mM NaP, and 30.0 mM NaPP) covering a pH range of 6–12 (6). All  $A_{240}$  signals were collected in the linear range of the instrument (0.05–1.0) using buffer only solutions to correct for background absorption and/or scattering.

**$pK_a$  As Determined by ITC.** ITC experiments were performed on a Microcal VP isothermal titration calorimeter (Microcal, Northampton, MA) as previously described (7), with the following modifications. The E2s were buffer exchanged into a triple buffer (30.0 mM AMPPO, 30.0 mM NaP, and 30.0 mM NaPP) system at the desired pH using a Bio-Rad Econo-Pac 10DG desalting column. The final E2 concentrations (50–150  $\mu$ M) were determined by the Bradford assay and using the appropriate  $A_{280}$  molar extinction coefficients. For the  $pK_a$  determination, a single 2.0  $\mu$ L injection of degassed iodoacetamide (50–150 mM) was

performed at 30 °C, with stirring at 290 rpm. The reaction was allowed to proceed until the power signal returned to baseline. The reaction was determined to be complete by allowing four additional injections of iodoacetamide into the cell and observing endothermic thermograms, which were identical to buffer only controls. Data were analyzed as previously described (7).

**Preparation of the PDB Files for  $pK_a$  Calculations.** 1JBB (ubiquitin-conjugating enzyme Ubc13, from *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*), 1I7K (ubiquitin-conjugating enzyme UbcH10, from *Homo sapiens*), and 1JAS (ubiquitin-conjugating enzyme Ubc2, from *H. sapiens*) were downloaded from the Protein Data Bank (8). The PDB files were regularized using WHAT IF (9). All crystallographic water molecules were eliminated from the PDB files, and all missing protein atoms were rebuilt using WHAT IF.  $pK_a$  calculations were performed on model 1; the first protein chain in the PDB file and only the dominant rotamer conformations were used.

**$pK_a$  Calculations.**  $pK_a$  calculations were performed using the WHAT IF  $pK_a$  calculation routines as described previously (10), with the exception that a uniform protein dielectric constant was used. Hydrogen atoms were added to the models using the algorithms within WHAT IF. The positions of these hydrogen atoms were refined by optimizing the global hydrogen bond network. We used the Poisson–Boltzmann equation (PBE) solver DelPhi II (11) to obtain electrostatic energies. The following PBE parameters were used: number of focusing runs, 4; final PBE map resolution, 0.25 Å/grid point; protein dielectric constant, 8; solvent dielectric constant, 80; ionic strength, 144 mM; ionic exclusion radius, 2.0 Å; and solvent probe radius, 1.4 Å. Titratable groups included in the  $pK_a$  calculations were the N-terminus, Asp, Cys, Glu, His, Lys, Arg, Tyr, and the C-terminus. Only the transition from neutral to positively charged was included for histidine residues.

**Decomposition of  $pK_a$  Values.**  $pK_a$  values of residues in the folded protein are most commonly compared to so-called “model compound”  $pK_a$  values. These model compounds mimic the chemical properties of amino acid side chains and serve as a reference state for the  $pK_a$  value of an amino acid side chain isolated in solution. We calculated  $pK_a$  values in the folded protein by computing the change in the environment of the amino acid side chain when transferred from solution to its position in the protein (10, 12). We thus calculated  $\Delta pK_a$  values that arise from effects of the protein environment. The  $\Delta pK_a$  values are generally computed as a sum of three terms: the desolvation effect, the interaction with permanent charges and dipoles (the background interaction energy), and the interaction with other titratable groups. Generally, the immediate environment of a titratable group determines the desolvation effect and the background interaction energy, whereas the interaction with other titratable groups often is determined by groups at varying distances. To identify the residues with titratable groups that influence the  $pK_a$  of the active site cysteine residue, we calculated in a pairwise fashion the change in the  $pK_a$  of the cysteine thiol due to interaction with each of the other titratable groups. Briefly, for a protein consisting of a number  $N$  of titratable groups, denoted ( $T_1, T_2, T_3, \dots, T_N$ ) and for which the  $pK_a$  value of group  $T_i$  in the folded protein due to interactions with other titratable groups is denoted  $\Delta pK_{aElec,T_i}^-(all)$ , we calculate the effect of group  $T_j$  on  $T_i$  by calculating

<sup>1</sup> Abbreviations: Ubc, ubiquitin-conjugating enzyme; ITC, isothermal titration calorimetry.

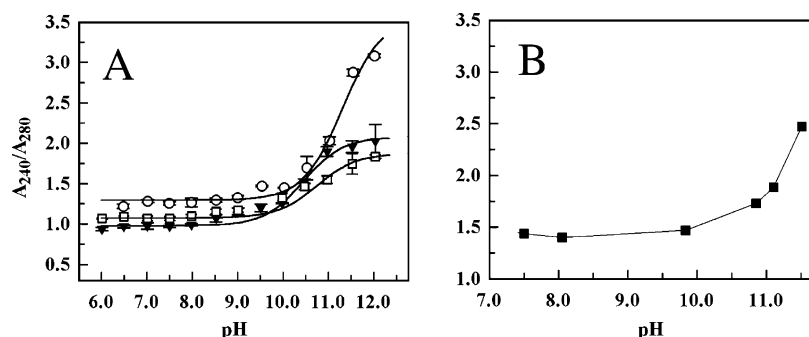


FIGURE 1: Experimental  $A_{240}$  titration results. (A) UbcH10 C102S (○), Ubc2 (▼), and Ubc13 (□). The dark lines represent fits of the experimental data to the Henderson–Hasselbalch equation. (B)  $A_{240}$  control titration on UbcH10 C102S/C114S.

the  $\Delta pK_a$  values for  $T_j$  and  $T_i$  in a system that contains only these two groups. We thus arrive at a new  $\Delta pK_a$  value for  $T_i$  denoted  $\Delta pK_{a\text{Elec},T_i}(T_j)$ , where the  $\Delta pK_a$  value of  $T_i$  is influenced by only  $T_j$ . The  $\Delta pK_a$  values for  $T_i$  and  $T_j$  are calculated by evaluating the Boltzmann sum at every  $1/10$  of a pH value from pH 2.0 to 14.0. We can thus calculate  $\sum_{j=1}^N \Delta pK_{a\text{Elec},T_i}(T_j)$ , and if the system behaves ideally (i.e., all effects are additive), then  $\sum_{j=1}^N \Delta pK_{a\text{Elec},T_i}(T_j) = \Delta pK_{a\text{Elec},T_i^-}$  (all). For many systems, this last relation does not hold due to the inherent nonadditivity of strongly coupled systems of titratable groups. However, in the case of E2 proteins, additivity seems to hold on the basis of the agreement of calculated and experimental  $pK_a$  values.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

**E2 Active Site  $pK_a$  Measurement by UV Absorbance.** The ionization of cysteine thiol to thiolate can be monitored quantitatively by measuring the absorbance signal of the latter species at 240 nm (13–16). This method has been utilized to establish the  $pK_a$  of the catalytic cysteine residues for a number of proteins, including those of the thioredoxin superfamily (13–16). In our study, we used the  $A_{240}$  method to measure the apparent  $pK_a$  of three E2 proteins: UbcH10 (*H. sapiens*), Ubc2 (*S. cerevisiae*), and Ubc13 (*S. cerevisiae*). It should be noted that Ubc2 and Ubc13 contain only the catalytic cysteine residue, whereas UbcH10 has a second, buried cysteine residue (C102). Unless otherwise stated, all experiments with UbcH10 were performed with a mutant of UbcH10 in which cysteine 102 was changed to a serine.

The influence of pH on the absorbance signal at 240 nm was measured for each E2 in triplicate at 25 °C. The results are summarized in Figure 1. It was necessary to normalize the absorbance signal at 240 nm to 280 nm. This correction was made because the protein molar extinction coefficient at 280 nm is pH sensitive. As shown in Figure 1A, all three E2s exhibit the classic Henderson–Hasselbalch titration profile indicative of a weak acid titration. Very surprisingly, the midpoints of all titration curves are shifted well above that for a model cysteine, which has a  $pK_a$  of  $\sim 8.5$ , suggesting a significantly elevated  $pK_a$ .

To unequivocally assign the titration to that of the catalytic cysteine, we cloned a cysteine-less mutant of UbcH10 (UbcH10 C102S/C114S) and repeated the titration. The results are summarized in Figure 1B. UbcH10 C102S/C114S exhibited a titration curve identical to that of UbcH10 C102S. Thus, while these preliminary titrations clearly indicate that the active site cysteine does not behave like free cysteine, our ability to arrive at a precise  $pK_a$  value is compromised

by the presence of other ionizable species. In most other reports using the  $A_{240}$  method, the  $pK_a$  was found to be shifted 2–4 pH units below 8.5. However, Holmgren et al. (13) have shown that tyrosine ionization complicates the ability of the  $A_{240}$  approach to unambiguously monitor an elevated level of cysteine deprotonation. Thus, though the  $A_{240}$  method can be used to determine values of  $pK_a$  shifts when the shift is toward the acidic region, it can only indicate that the  $pK_a$  is elevated but cannot give a reliable value when the shift is toward the more alkaline region.

**E2 Active Site  $pK_a$  Measurement by Isothermal Titration Calorimetry.** To circumvent the limitations of the  $A_{240}$  method, we used isothermal titration calorimetry to specifically follow the ionization state of the cysteine thiol as a function of pH (7). In short, this method relies on monitoring the initial rate of the reaction of the thiolate anion with iodoacetamide (a thiolate specific probe). Due to the laws of mass action, as the concentration of thiolate (which is a function of pH) increases, so will the initial rate of the chemical reaction. Thus, one can quantitate the formation of thiolate at various pH values by monitoring the initial rate of the reaction with iodoacetamide. By plotting the maximum ITC response signal  $(dq/dt)_{\text{max}}$  (which is proportional to the initial rate of reaction in a kinetic application of ITC) versus pH, one obtains a Henderson–Hasselbalch titration profile (7). The results of the E2 experiments are summarized in Figure 2A and Table 1. In agreement with the  $A_{240}$  results, the ITC results indicate elevated  $pK_a$  values for all three E2 proteins. More specifically, each E2 protein shows a shift in the  $pK_a$  value of its active site cysteine of approximately 2 pH units above that for a model cysteine. Importantly, no reactivity of iodoacetamide with the cysteine-less mutant is observed (Figure 2B), and control experiments verified that iodoacetamide does not react with free tyrosine (data not shown). Thus, the ITC method is reporting only the ionization state of the cysteine residue, as desired.

The structures of all three E2 proteins have been determined to high resolution, and each shows that the catalytic cysteine residues are surface-exposed with their side chains solvent accessible (4, 17, 18). The presence of a  $pK_a$  shifted as high as 10.5 for a solvent accessible group is intriguing. One would expect that a surface-exposed cysteine would have properties similar to those of a model cysteine, due to its close contact with the surrounding solvent. Instead, all three E2 proteins have an elevated  $pK_a$  for their active site cysteine. Because the active site cysteine is located toward the N-terminal end with respect to a strictly conserved  $3_{10}$ -helix, one might hypothesize that the altered  $pK_a$  could be



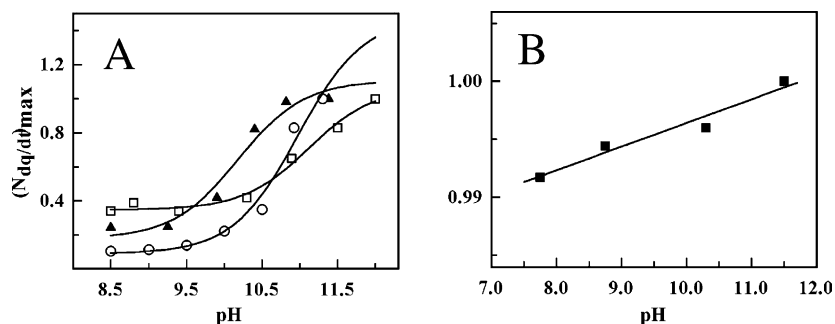


FIGURE 2:  $pK_a$  measurement by ITC. (A) UbcH10 ( $\circ$ ), Ubc2 ( $\blacktriangle$ ), and Ubc13 ( $\square$ ). The dark lines represent fits of the experimental data to the Henderson–Hasselbalch equation (7). The values on the y-axis are normalized to  $(dq/dt)_{\max}$  at the highest pH value for each E2. (B) UbcH10 C102S/C114S ITC control titration.

Table 1: Summary of Measured and Calculated  $pK_a$  Values for UbcH10, Ubc2, and Ubc13

E2 (PDB entry)	exp $pK_a$ (ITC) <sup>a</sup>	calc $pK_a$ <sup>b</sup>	$\Delta pK_a$ (exp – calcd) <sup>c</sup>	$\Delta pK_a$ (exp – model) <sup>d</sup>
UbcH10 (1I7K)	$10.9 \pm 0.2$	$10.49 \pm 0.75$	0.41	2.4
Ubc2 (1JAS)	$10.2 \pm 0.2$	$10.44 \pm 0.75$	–0.24	1.7
Ubc13 (1JBB)	$11.1 \pm 0.1$	$11.27 \pm 0.75$	–0.17	2.6

<sup>a</sup> The experimental value of the active site cysteine  $pK_a$  as measured by ITC for each protein. <sup>b</sup> The calculated value of the active site cysteine  $pK_a$  for each E2 protein. <sup>c</sup> The difference in  $pK_a$  values determined by experiment and by calculation. <sup>d</sup> The difference in  $pK_a$  values for the active site cysteine and free cysteine.

due in part to the effect of the helix dipole moment. However, our observation of an elevated  $pK_a$  for each Ubc is in stark contrast to the work of Creighton and co-workers (15), who demonstrated that the cysteines located toward the N-terminal end with respect to a set of test  $\alpha$ -helical peptides displayed  $pK_a$  values lowered by 1.6 pK units. Thus, the highly shifted  $pK_a$  values for the Ubcs determined herein must originate from the spatial positioning of charged groups in the vicinity of the active site. We attempted to study the basis for the elevated  $pK_a$  by undertaking an analysis of the active cysteine  $pK_a$  in UbcH10 mutants in which putatively influential residues were mutated to Ala. Unfortunately, these mutants were expressed too poorly for analysis by ITC, which suggests that the target residues are important for folding stability and/or function.

**E2 Active Site  $pK_a$  Calculations.** Since we could not decompose the contributions of the nearby residues using appropriate mutant proteins, we instead used a computational approach.  $pK_a$  calculations were carried out as described in Materials and Methods to dissect the effects that elevate the  $pK_a$  value of the active site cysteine. To check the accuracy of the computational method, we calculated the  $pK_a$  values of the catalytic cysteine residues of the wild-type proteins and compared them to our experimental values. The results of the  $pK_a$  calculations on Ubc13 (PDB entry 1JBB), UbcH10 (PDB entry 1I7K), and Ubc2 (PDB entry 1JAS) are summarized in Table 1. These results reveal excellent agreement between the experimental and computational methods and provided us with confidence to proceed with the computational decomposition of the  $pK_a$  values.

**Decomposed  $pK_a$  Values.** To understand the origins of the highly elevated  $pK_a$  values of the active site cysteines in this study, it is instructional to decompose the  $pK_a$  value shifts into effects originating from the nontitratable and titratable part of the protein. The  $pK_a$  of a residue is dependent on the

free energy difference between the neutral and charged forms of the residue in a protein. This free energy difference between the neutral and charged states of the residue is influenced both by its nontitratable environment and by the other titratable groups in the protein. The effect of the nontitratable environment consists of the desolvation energy and the background interaction energy. The desolvation energy describes the costs of moving the neutral and charged forms of a group from water to its position in the protein, whereas the background interaction energy describes the difference in the interaction energy between the charged form and the neutral form of each titratable group, with the permanent dipoles and charges of the protein. Both the desolvation and background interaction energies usually are assumed to be pH-independent quantities, and are influenced primarily by the immediate environment of the titratable group. The effect of the titratable environment on a  $pK_a$  value is strongly pH-dependent and typically originates from a larger set of residues. The effect of the titratable environment can be decomposed further into the effect of individual titratable groups.

Decomposition of  $pK_a$  values for the active site cysteine residues in Ubc13 (PDB entry 1JBB), UbcH10 (PDB entry 1I7K), and Ubc2 (PDB entry 1JAS) were performed as described in Materials and Methods. The total effects due to the titratable groups and the nontitratable groups are shown in Figure 3A. The  $pK_a$  value for the buried residue Cys102 in UbcH10 cannot be decomposed since the calculations predict an extremely high  $pK_a$  value for this residue. The effects of the six most influential titratable groups on the  $pK_a$  of the catalytic cysteine of each E2 also are given in Figure 3A. The spatial dispositions of these important residues are shown in Figure 3B for UbcH10. Four of the six residues are acidic residues, namely, aspartic and glutamic acid residues. The other two residues are lysines. The model shows the placement of the residues around the active site. As is evident from the model, the acidic residues surround the catalytic cysteine. In this context, these residues can act as a charge antagonist by preventing the deprotonation of the catalytic cysteine residue, and hence elevate its  $pK_a$ . Only one of the lysine residues has its side chain pointed toward the cysteine residue. If just the charges of the six residues are taken into account, a net of two negative charges are in the proximity of the active site, and are sufficient to suppress the deprotonation of the cysteine.

**Conservation of the Elevated  $pK_a$ .** The uniformly high  $pK_a$  values for all three E2 proteins that were tested suggest that the elevated  $pK_a$  may be a common feature of all E2 proteins.

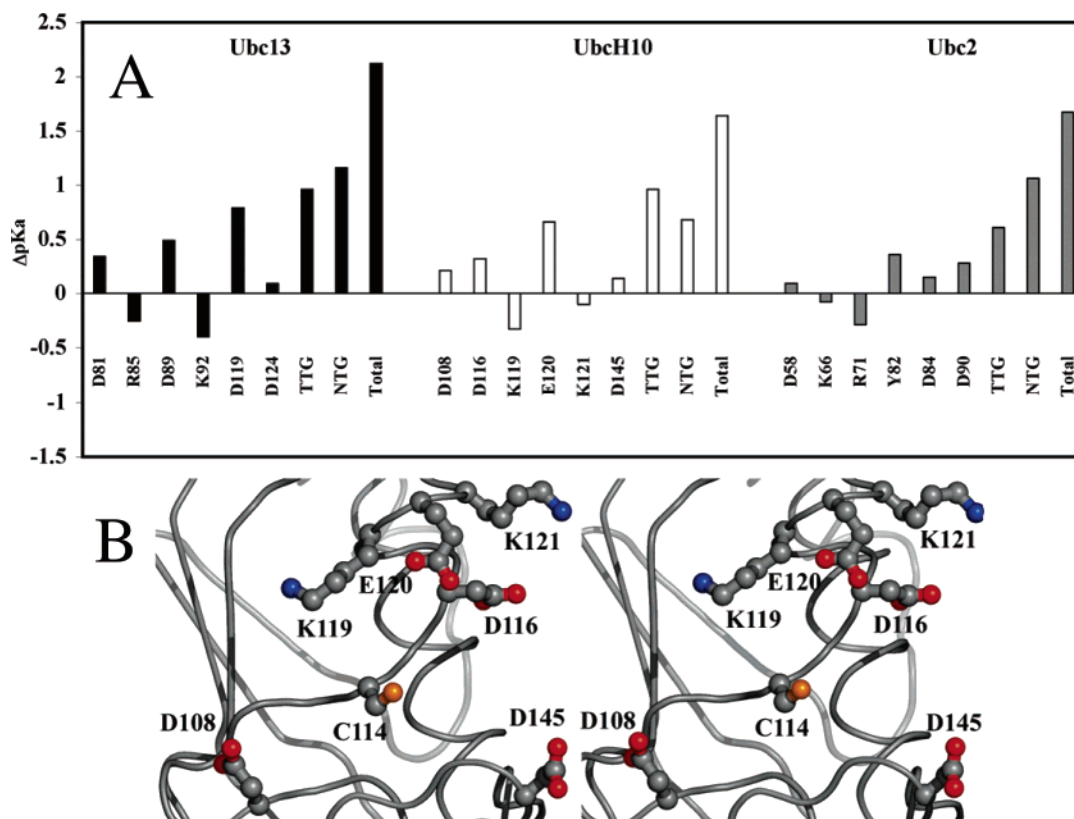


FIGURE 3: Decomposed pK<sub>a</sub> values. (A) Ubc13 (black), UbcH10 (white), and Ubc2 (gray). TTG stands for total titratable groups, and NTG stands for nontitratable groups. (B) Zoomed in divergent stereoview of UbcH10 active site geometry showing the most important effectors. Panel B was prepared with PyMol (20).

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UBC10_HUMAN SLEFPSPGYPNAPT VKFLTPCYHPNVD TQGNICLD ILKEKWSALYDVRT ILLSIQSL LGEPNID SPLNTHAA
UBC2_HUMAN VIEFSEEPN PPTV FLSKMFHPNVY EGSICLD ILQNRWSPTYDVSS ILSIQSL LDENPNPN SPANSAQA
UBC13_YEAST ELVLPDDYPMEAPKVRFLTKIYHPNIDRLGRICLD VLKTNWSPALQIRT VLLSIQALLASPNPN PLANDVA
UBCC_HUMAN SLEFPSPGYPNAPT VKFLTPCYHPNVD TQGNICLD ILKEKWSALYDVRT ILLSIQSL LGEPNID SPLNTHAA
UBCB_XENLA SLEFPSPGYPNAPT VKFVTPCFHPNVDSHGNI CLD ILKDKWSALYDVRT ILLSIQSL LGEPNID SPLNTHAA
UBCB_SPISO TLEFPSPGYPNAPT VKFVTPCFHPNVDSHGNI CLD ILKDKWSALYDVRT ILLSIQSL LGEPNID SPLNTHAA
UBCD_SCHPO SMSFPANYPYSPPTI IFTSPMHPNVDSHGNI CLD ILKDKWSALYDVRT ILLSIQSL LGEPNID SPLNTHAA
UBCA_YEAST SLKFPQNYPFHPNMI KFLSPMHPNVDSHGNI CLD ILKDKWSALYDVRT ILLSIQSL LGEPNID SPLNTHAA
UBCN_HUMAN ELFLPEEYPMAAPKVRFLTKIYHPNIDRLGRICLD VLKDKWSPALQIRT VLLSIQALLASPNPN PLANDVA
UBCC_SCHPO ELFLPEEYPMAAPKVRFLTKIYHPNIDRLGRICLD VLKDKWSPALQIRT VLLSIQALLASPNPN PLANDVA
UBCA_HUMAN TIEFTEEPNKPPT VRFVSRMFHPNIYADGSI CLD ILQNRWSPTYDVSS ILSIQSL LDENPNPN SPANSAQA
UBC6_DROME TIEFTEEPNKPPT VRFVSRMFHPNIYADGSI CLD ILQNRWSPTYDVSS ILSIQSL LDENPNPN SPANSAQA
UBC1_CAEEL SLEFTEEPNKPPT VKFISKMFHPNVYADGSI CLD ILQNRWSPTYDVSS ILSIQSL LDENPNPN SPANSAQA
UBC2_CANAL LLSFDEQYPNKPPT VKFISEMFHPNVYADGSI CLD ILQNRWSPTYDVSS ILSIQSL LDENPNPN SPANSAQA
UBC2_YEAST LLEFDEEYPNKPPT VKFISEMFHPNVYADGSI CLD ILQNRWSPTYDVSS ILSIQSL LDENPNPN SPANSAQA
UBC2_NEUCR VMHFEEQYPNKPPT VKFISEMFHPNVYADGSI CLD ILQNRWSPTYDVSS ILSIQSL LDENPNPN SPANSAQA
UBC2_SCHPO VLSFDEQYPNKPPT VKFISEMFHPNVYADGSI CLD ILQNRWSPTYDVSS ILSIQSL LDENPNPN SPANSAQA
UBC2_MEDSA SLQFSEDPNKPPT VRFVSRMFHPNIYADGSI CLD ILQNRWSPTYDVSS ILSIQSL LDENPNPN SPANSAQA
UBC2_ARATH SLQFSEDPNKPPT VRFVSRMFHPNIYADGSI CLD ILQNRWSPTYDVSS ILSIQSL LDENPNPN SPANSAQA
UBC1_ARATH SLQFSEDPNKPPT VRFVSRMFHPNIYADGSI CLD ILQNRWSPTYDVSS ILSIQSL LDENPNPN SPANSAQA
UBC2_WHEAT TLQFTEDYPNKPPT VRFVSRMFHPNIYADGSI CLD ILQNRWSPTYDVSS ILSIQSL LDENPNPN SPANSAQA
UBC3_ARATH TLHFTEDPNKPPT VRFVSRMFHPNIYADGSI CLD ILQNRWSPTYDVSS ILSIQSL LDENPNPN SPANSAQA
UB5D_RAT TIDFTEYPFKPPKVEFTTRIYHPNVNSNGSI CLD ILRSQWSPALTI SKVLLSI SLLCDPNPD PLVPEIA
UB5B_HUMAN TIHFPTDYPFKPPKVAFTTRIYHPNVNSNGSI CLD ILRSQWSPALTI SKVLLSI SLLCDPNPD PLVPEIA

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FIGURE 4: Sequence alignment of residues modulating the pK<sub>a</sub> of the active site cysteine residue in E2 proteins. The first three rows give the sequences of the relevant region in the three E2 proteins that were studied. The residues increasing and decreasing the pK<sub>a</sub> of the active site cysteine residue are highlighted in green and red, respectively. The active site cysteine residue is highlighted in yellow. Subsequent rows give corresponding sequences in other representative E2 proteins. Inspection of the alignment reveals generally poor conservation of residue position in modulating the cysteine residue pK<sub>a</sub>. Sequence alignment performed using BLAST (14).

Figure 4 is a sequence alignment of several E2 proteins illustrating the relative sequence location of those residues that are responsible for the elevated pK<sub>a</sub> as compared with several other E2 proteins. Considering only the three E2 proteins experimentally tested, we observe that these residues are not strongly conserved. Indeed, relative to the position of the catalytic cysteine residue, only the two residues at

positions -6 and +2 are conserved in all three E2 proteins. The remaining residues appear to be relatively scattered, in both sequence space and spatially (Figures 4 and 5). Comparison with other E2 sequences indicates strong sequence conservation for only residues at positions -6 and +2 but not for the other positions. However, in all sequences, there are acidic and basic residues that conceivably could

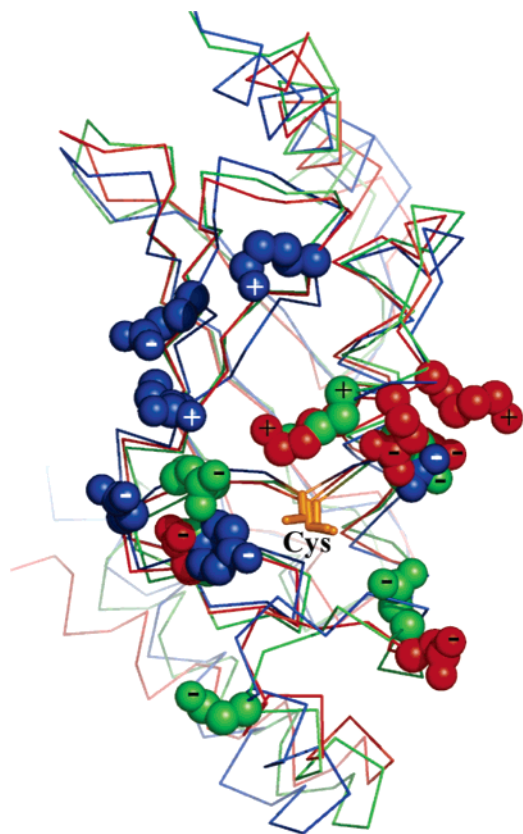


FIGURE 5: Spatial distribution of residues affecting the cysteine  $pK_a$ . The structures of UbcH10 (red), Ubc2 (blue), and Ubc13 (green) are superimposed. The active site cysteine side chain is colored yellow and is in stick representation. The residues affecting the cysteine  $pK_a$  are shown as van der Waals spheres. Basic residues are marked with a plus sign, and acidic residues (or Tyr) are marked with a minus sign. The spatial locations of these residues generally are not well conserved among the E2 proteins.

modulate the active site  $pK_a$ . Thus, the overall electrostatic environment of the active site is likely maintained, but not simply through strict residue conservation. Instead, evolutionary pressure seems to maintain the electrostatic environment through different combinations of residues. The existence of such evolutionary pressure has not been obvious from sequence analysis alone.

**Implications for the Mechanism of the Ubiquitination Cascade.** The elevated  $pK_a$  of the cysteine residue has implications for the transfer of ubiquitin both to and from E2. Since the cysteine residue must be in a thiolate form to accept ubiquitin, the elevated  $pK_a$  suggests that E1 and/or ubiquitin association must lower the  $pK_a$  of the E2 cysteine residue back toward the  $pK_a$  of a model cysteine. The  $\Delta\Delta G^\circ$  associated with a  $\Delta pK_a$  of 2 is on the order of  $5RT$  ( $\Delta\Delta G^\circ = 2.3RT\Delta pK_a$ ) or  $\sim 3$  kcal/mol. Presumably, the interaction energy associated with the binding of the E1–ubiquitin adduct to E2 is sufficient to shift the  $pK_a$  of the active site cysteine to a more reactive value. To this point, this interaction energy has not been characterized. Shaw and co-workers have shown that several arginines of ubiquitin interact with E2 (18). Certainly, these charged groups could provide the appropriate electrostatic shielding to promote deprotonation at the catalytic cysteine. Unfortunately, there is no high-resolution structural data for an E1–E2 complex to identify the composition of the binding interface. Schulman and colleagues have determined a cocrystal structure

of the Nedd 8 activating enzyme in complex with a peptide fragment of Ubc12. Though it provides a wealth of information, no insight can be gleaned from their structure with regard to the nature of the binding interface between E1 and E2 (19). For transfer of ubiquitin, presumably the acidic residues of E2 near the thioester bond would make this bond even more labile, thus facilitating bond cleavage.

Our results have shown that, in isolation, the E2 enzymes are catalytically inactive. This work raises the obvious question of why the  $pK_a$  is elevated to such a nonfunctional value. One hypothesis is that this is an evolutionarily conserved control mechanism, which prevents promiscuous reactivity of the E2 proteins with other reactive moieties in the cell. The active cysteine residues of the E2 proteins are highly exposed due to the mechanism of ubiquitination that has evolved. Thus, according to this hypothesis, the cell is able to prevent unwanted reactions with this highly exposed cysteine residue by maintaining it in an electrostatic environment that renders it inactive. The rather surprising findings presented here indicate that the ubiquitin–proteasome system has layers of regulation only now beginning to be understood. We are hopeful the data presented herein will serve as a springboard for further work with a goal of understanding how the ubiquitin–proteasome system actually functions in the context of the cell.

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BI0514459