

# Structural Studies of the $\beta$ -Glycosidase from *Sulfolobus solfataricus* in Complex with Covalently and Noncovalently Bound Inhibitors<sup>†</sup>

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**ABSTRACT:** Transition-state mimicry is increasingly important both to understand enzyme mechanism and to direct the synthesis of putative therapeutic agents. X-ray crystallography is able to provide vital information on the interactions between an enzyme and the potential inhibitor. Here we report the structures, at approximately 2 Å resolution, of a family GH1  $\beta$ -glycosidase from the hyperthermophilic archaeon *Sulfolobus solfataricus*, in complex with both covalently (derived from 2-fluoro-glycosides) and noncovalently (hydroxylolactam) bound inhibitors. The enzyme has broad specificity, accommodating both *gluco*- and *galacto*-configured substrates, and the crystallographic data demonstrate that the only difference in the way these ligands bind lies in the interactions between Gln18, Glu432, and Trp433, and the hydroxyl group at the O3 and O4 positions. Inhibition by the differently configured ligands was also shown to be extremely similar, with  $K_i$  values of 1.04 and 1.08  $\mu$ M for the *gluco* and *galacto* epimers, respectively. The noncovalently bound inhibitors have a trigonal anomeric carbon, adopt a <sup>4</sup>H<sub>3</sub> (half-chair) conformation, and an interaction is formed between O2 and the catalytic nucleophile, all of which contribute to (partial) mimicry of the oxocarbenium-ion-like transition state. The inhibition of the  $\beta$ -glycosidase from *S. solfataricus* by hydroxylolactams is discussed in light of the emerging work on family GH1 glycosidase inhibition by a spectrum of putative transition-state mimics.

Glycoside hydrolases have been shown, through the comparison of uncatalyzed ( $k_{\text{uncat}}$ ) and catalyzed ( $k_{\text{cat}}$ ) reaction rates under similar conditions, to accelerate the rate of glycosidic bond hydrolysis by a factor of approximately 10<sup>17</sup>, making them among the most proficient of enzymes (1). One may thus estimate (as described in ref 2), taking into account  $K_M$  values around 10<sup>−5</sup> M, that the resultant dissociation constant of the enzyme–substrate (ES) complex at the transition state is around 10<sup>−22</sup> M (1). The high affinity for the transition state makes glycosidases particularly rewarding targets for inhibitor design through mimicry of this transition state. Indeed, a number of successful therapeutic agents, including Acarbose, Miglitol, *N*-butyl-deoxynojirimycin, Tamiflu and Relenza, have been targeted at this enzyme class (for example, see ref 3).

Enzymes that catalyze the hydrolysis of glycosides have been classified into over 90 families on the basis of amino acid sequence similarities.<sup>1</sup> Within these families, “classical”

hydrolysis of the glycosidic bond occurs via two mechanisms, which results in either net retention or inversion of configuration at the anomeric carbon. An *exo*- $\beta$ -glycosidase, Ss $\beta$ -Glc1,<sup>2</sup> from *Sulfolobus solfataricus* (an extremely thermophilic archaeon that optimally grows in hot springs at around 80 °C and pH 3), derived from the *lacS* gene, has been classified into glycoside hydrolase family GH1 (4). The three-dimensional structure of the native enzyme was first reported at 2.6 Å resolution (5). A large number of GH1 structures have now been reported; all are nonreducing-end specific *exo*-glycosidases with a wide variety of both glycon and aglycon specificities (for example, see refs 6–12). Most recently, the *Thermotoga maritima* GH1 enzyme was solved in complex with two imino-sugar inhibitors that, in harness with calorimetric measurements, provide provocative insight into enzyme inhibition (13).

Family GH1 members perform catalysis with retention via a double-displacement mechanism through a covalent glycosyl–enzyme intermediate. During the first step of the canonical retention mechanism, the acid/base (invariably Asp or Glu) protonates the glycosidic oxygen to assist departure of the (poor) leaving group, with migration of the electro-

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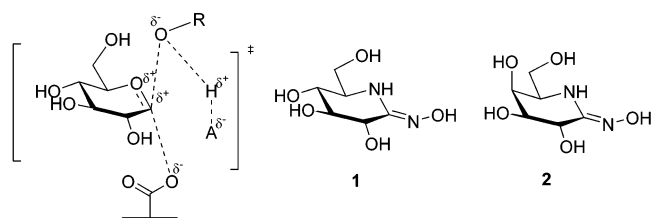
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<sup>1</sup> <http://afmb.cnrs-mrs.fr/~cazy/CAZY/index.html>.

<sup>2</sup> Abbreviations: Ss $\beta$ -Glc1,  $\beta$ -glycosidase from *Sulfolobus solfataricus*; 2F-Glc, 2-deoxy-2-fluoro-glucose; 2F-Gal, 2-deoxy-2-fluoro-galactose; rms, root-mean-square; RMSD, root-mean-square deviation; GH1, glycoside hydrolase from family 1.

Scheme 1: Putative Oxocarbenium-Ion-Like Transition State Formed during Both the Glycosylation and Deglycosylation Steps of Glycoside Hydrolysis with Net Retention of Anomeric Configuration<sup>a</sup>



<sup>a</sup> A-H represents the catalytic acid/base and/or the leaving group. Crystallographic studies were conducted using putative transition-state analogues D-glucohydroximolactam **1** and D-galactohydroximolactam **2**.

philic anomeric center to the nucleophile, resulting in formation of the covalent intermediate. In the second chemical step, the acid/base now acts as a Brønsted base, deprotonating the hydrolytic water which then attacks this glycosyl-enzyme intermediate, resulting in release of product with net retention of anomeric configuration. Both steps go via transition states with substantial oxocarbenium ion character (Scheme 1). At, or near to, this transition state, the anomeric center must display partial  $sp^2$  hybridization and charge delocalization which is manifested primarily at the endocyclic oxygen (O5) and the anomeric carbon (C1).

To study the structural aspects of enzyme inhibition and to elucidate some of the specific features of the *Ssβ*-Glc1 enzyme, we have studied the three-dimensional structures of the enzyme in complex with the transition-state analogues (containing an  $sp^2$  anomeric center and corresponding  $^4H_3$  conformation) D-glucohydroximolactam (**1**) and D-galactohydroximolactam (**2**) as well as with the corresponding trapped covalent-enzyme intermediates, 2-deoxy-2-fluoroglucose (2F-Glc) and 2-deoxy-2-fluorogalactose (2F-Gal). As with many GH1 enzymes, *Ssβ*-Glc1 is known to have broad specificity for a number of saccharides (7), and the data provide insights into the interactions of both the *gluco*- and *galacto*-derived ligands which could help direct and inform strategies for enzyme exploitation.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

**Protein Expression, Purification, and Crystallization.** *Ssβ*-Glc1 was expressed and purified essentially as described previously (7). The enzyme (at 10–13 mg mL<sup>-1</sup> in 25 mM HEPES, pH 7.0) was crystallized by vapor diffusion in sitting drops from 11–14% (w/v) PEG 4000, 0.1 M sodium acetate, pH 4.6, and 0.2 M ammonium acetate. To obtain complexes of the enzyme with *galacto*-configured ligands, 10–20 mM 2,4-dinitrophenyl 2-deoxy-2-fluorogalactoside (generous donation from Professor S. G. Withers, University of British Columbia) or 10 mM **2** (synthesis described in refs 14, 15) were added to *Ssβ*-Glc1 and incubated for 2 h prior to crystallization in the same conditions as native *Ssβ*-Glc1. Smaller quantities of the corresponding *gluco*-configured ligands necessitated an alternative strategy, and minute solid amounts of 2,4-dinitrophenyl 2-deoxy-2-fluoroglucoside (again a generous donation from Professor S. G. Withers, University of British Columbia) or **1** (synthesis described in refs 16, 17) were added to the mother liquor containing native crystals of *Ssβ*-Glc1 and allowed to soak for 20 min with

the crystal under constant observation. All crystals were harvested into a “cryo-protectant” mother liquor (11–14% (w/v) PEG 4000, 0.1 M sodium acetate, pH 4.6, and 0.2 M ammonium acetate, pH 4.6, with the addition of 25% v/v ethylene glycol) and mounted in rayon fiber loops prior to “flash”-freezing in liquid nitrogen.

**Data Collection and Processing.** Native data were collected to 2.0 Å resolution from a single crystal at 100 K at the ESRF Grenoble, beamline ID14-1. Data were processed and reduced with DENZO and SCALEPACK (18). All other calculations used the CCP4 suite of programs (19). Crystals belong to space group  $P3_121$ , with unit cell dimensions  $a = b = 168.0$  Å,  $c = 94.6$  Å, and  $\alpha = \beta = 90^\circ$ ,  $\gamma = 120^\circ$ . The structure was solved using AMoRe (20), with PDB entry 1gow as the search model. Data were used in the resolution range from 10 to 4 Å, with an outer radius of Patterson integration of 25 Å. Molecular replacement gave two solutions, corresponding to two molecules in the asymmetric unit. This gave  $V_M = 3.4$  Å<sup>3</sup> Da<sup>-1</sup> and a solvent content of approximately 65%. All data for *Ssβ*-Glc1 in complex with ligands were also collected at the ESRF Grenoble; data for the 2F-Gal complex were collected on beamline ID-29 (to 2.15 Å resolution), and the complexes with 2F-Glc, **1**, and **2** were collected, all to 1.95 Å resolution, on beamline ID14-4. Small rigid-body motions meant that AMoRe (20) (resolution range from 10 to 4 Å, radius of integration 25 Å) was required to solve the structures with **1** and 2F-Glc, using the native refined structure as the search model.

**Model Refinement.** Five percent of the observations (the same observations for each data set) were set aside for cross validation (21) and were used to monitor refinement strategies such as geometric and temperature factor restraint values. Manual corrections of the model using X-FIT in QUANTA (Accelrys, San Diego, CA) were interspersed with cycles of least-squares refinement using the maximum likelihood program REFMAC (22). Water molecules were added automatically using ARP/wARP (23) and manually using X-SOLVE in QUANTA. All were inspected prior to deposition. Energy-minimized ligand molecules were created using the CHARMm function in QUANTA, and dictionaries were created using the “monomer library sketcher” in the CCP4 suite. The models were validated using PROCHECK (24), and the coordinates were deposited with the Macromolecular Structure Database at the European Bioinformatics Institute (<http://autodep.ebi.ac.uk>); PDB codes are given in Table 1.

**Enzyme Inhibition.** Kinetic studies were conducted by monitoring the change in UV/visible absorbance with a Cintra 10 spectrophotometer, equipped with a Thermocell Peltier power supply. All experiments were performed at 37 °C, with a 10 min equilibration period for each sample prior to addition of *Ssβ*-Glc1. *Ssβ*-Glc1 activity was measured using between 0.05 and 4 mM 4-nitrophenyl β-D-glucopyranoside as substrate; all reactions were carried out in 50 mM sodium phosphate buffer, pH 6.5, in a total volume of 1 mL. The reaction was initiated by addition of 10 μL of *Ssβ*-Glc1 to give a final concentration of 13 nM. 4-Nitrophenol release was monitored continuously at 405 nm ( $\epsilon_{405} = 6570$  M<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-1</sup>, calculated using the assay conditions according to the method described in ref 25) for a 600 s period. Rates were taken as the slope of the line between

Table 1: Data Quality and Structure Refinement Statistics

	native	2F-Gal	2F-Glc	1	2
resolution ( $\text{\AA}$ )	40.0–2.02	30.0–2.15	30–1.95	40.0–1.95	40.0–1.95
(outer shell)	(2.09–2.02)	(2.23–2.15)	(2.02–1.95)	(2.02–1.95)	(2.02–1.95)
ESRF beamline	ID14-1	ID29	ID14-4	ID14-4	ID14-4
$R_{\text{merge}}$	0.069 (0.461)	0.117 (0.455)	0.074 (0.339)	0.102 (0.371)	0.064 (0.415)
completeness (%)	99.0 (98.7)	99.9 (100.0)	99.9 (100.0)	99.0 (99.2)	100.0 (100.0)
multiplicity	4.89 (4.44)	5.89 (5.86)	6.2 (6.2)	5.3 (4.4)	7.13 (7.06)
mean $I/\sigma$	17.3 (3.15)	10.1 (2.82)	17.5 (6.03)	9.15 (2.95)	17.2 (4.48)
no. of unique reflections	99 428	85 809	112 688	110 958	113 580
$R_{\text{cryst}}$	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.20
$R_{\text{free}}$	0.23	0.23	0.23	0.23	0.24
RMSD bond ( $\text{\AA}$ )	0.013	0.015	0.014	0.014	0.015
RMSD angle ( $^\circ$ )	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.5
RMSD chiral ( $\text{\AA}^3$ )	0.097	0.099	0.107	0.109	0.117
no. of protein atoms	7950	7916	7962	7954	7994
no. of ligand atoms	na	22	22	26	26
no. of water atoms	866	625	758	881	914
average protein main-chain $B$ factor ( $\text{\AA}^2$ )	36	41	32	34	36
average protein side-chain $B$ factor ( $\text{\AA}^2$ )	37	42	33	34	36
average ligand $B$ factor ( $\text{\AA}^2$ )	na	40	23	28	29
average water $B$ factor ( $\text{\AA}^2$ )	46	47	43	44	48
PDB code	luwq	luwr	luws	luwu	luwt

200 and 300 s. The data were fit to the Michaelis–Menten equation using GraFit (26).

To determine inhibitor  $K_i$  values, reactions were carried out as described above with the addition of between 0.3 and 4  $\mu\text{M}$  **1** or **2** to a range of substrate concentrations ranging from 0.08 to 4.5 mM. Data for each inhibitor concentration were fitted to the Michaelis–Menten equation using GraFit (26) to obtain  $K_M$  and  $V_{\text{max}}$  values. The apparent  $K_M$  at different inhibitor concentrations was plotted against the inhibitor concentration. The  $-K_i$  was taken as the value where the best-fit line through the points crossed the  $x$  axis.

The presence of 2  $\mu\text{M}$  (or greater) **1** in a reaction mixture containing 65 nM Ss $\beta$ -Glc1 and 0.2 mM (or lower) substrate gave a partially curved profile when absorbance was plotted against time, making it difficult to measure a single rate accurately. This is partially indicative of “slow-onset inhibition”. A 5-fold dilution of Ss $\beta$ -Glc1 reduced the rates, and a single steady-state slope was easier to determine. All reactions were therefore carried out at a lower enzyme concentration, and the rate was taken between an arbitrary time period of 200–300 s, during which time any initially fast rates had equilibrated. Rates between 200 and 300 s were linear for all reactions, and the correlation coefficient for the slopes were monitored.

## RESULTS

Data were collected for native Ss $\beta$ -Glc1 to 2.0  $\text{\AA}$  resolution. The data are 99% complete, with an overall  $R_{\text{merge}}$  of 0.069, a mean  $I/\sigma_i$  of 17.3, and a mean multiplicity of 4.9 observations/reflection. The model was refined to a final  $R_{\text{cryst}}$  of 0.192 and  $R_{\text{free}}$  of 0.226 (Table 1). The asymmetric unit contains two protein molecules, each of 489 residues. A total of 866 solvent molecules have been included in the model. Two loop regions in chain B (96–97 and 301–302) and one loop region in chain A (301–302) could not be built due to disordered density. The native structure is similar to that described previously (5), although a number of sequence conflicts in the original PDB deposition have been rectified (Val82, Ile87, Leu146, and Ile190 had previously erroneously been included as Ser, Gln, Gln, and Thr, respectively). The

native structure reported here and that described previously overlap with a main-chain rms of 0.37  $\text{\AA}$ , calculated using LSQKAB from the CCP4 suite. The mass of Ss $\beta$ -Glc1 measured using quadrupole time-of-flight electrospray mass spectrometry (Applied Biosystems QSTAR) (56689.6 Da) was in good agreement with the calculated mass for the correct sequence (56691.6 Da). Ss $\beta$ -Glc1 adopts the classic ( $\beta/\alpha$ )<sub>8</sub> barrel fold, as expected for a clan GH-A glycoside hydrolase. The acid/base (Glu206) and nucleophile (Glu387) are found on  $\beta$ -strands four and seven, respectively (27) (Figure 1).

*Inhibition by gluco- and galacto-Hydroximolactams.* Hydroximolactams display characteristics of the transition state, as they contain a trigonal anomeric carbon and thus adopt a  $^4H_3$  conformation. Furthermore, hydroximolactams also contain a hydroxyl substituent at C2 (which many other inhibitors do not possess), which should be important for transition-state mimicry, given that interactions at the 2-position of many  $\beta$ -glycosidases are estimated to contribute  $>40$  kJ mol<sup>−1</sup> to transition-state binding (28, 29).

Inhibition constants were determined using 4-nitrophenyl  $\beta$ -D-glucopyranoside as substrate (Figure 2). Kinetic constants for Ss $\beta$ -Glc1, determined at pH 6.5 (the pH optimum for Ss $\beta$ -Glc1 catalysis (27)) and at 37  $^\circ\text{C}$ , gave a  $K_M$  of 0.16 mM and a  $k_{\text{cat}}$  of 4.2 s<sup>−1</sup>. Precedence from other related enzymes suggests that the low apparent  $K_M$  may be a “kinetic” effect from the presence of a reasonably good leaving group, and thus  $k_3$  (deglycosylation) may be (partially) rate-limiting (see, for example, ref 30). Although the  $k_{\text{cat}}$  is some 128 times lower than that recorded at 65  $^\circ\text{C}$  (25), this is consistent with Wolfenden’s estimates of  $Q_{10} = 6$  for glycoside hydrolysis (1).

Both **1** and **2** are shown to be competitive inhibitors of Ss $\beta$ -Glc1, with similar  $K_i$  values of  $1.04 \pm 0.16$  and  $1.08 \pm 0.17$   $\mu\text{M}$ , respectively. They also show some features of “slow-onset inhibition” (see Materials and Methods). The molecular basis for slow-onset inhibition will most likely be case-specific, and there is much, often confusing, speculation in the literature. On the basis of our work on the pH dependence of a related GH1 enzyme, we hypothesized that



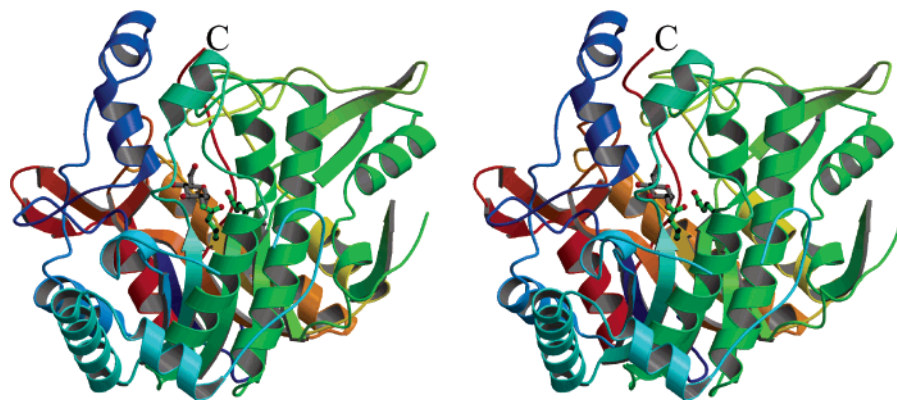


FIGURE 1: Divergent (“wall-eyed”) stereo ribbon representation of a *Ssβ*-Glc1 monomer (the protein is tetrameric in solution) drawn using MOLSCRIPT (51). The nucleophile (Glu387), acid/base (Glu206), and 2-deoxy-2-fluoro-glucosyl-enzyme intermediate covalently bound to the nucleophile are shown in “ball-and-stick” representation.

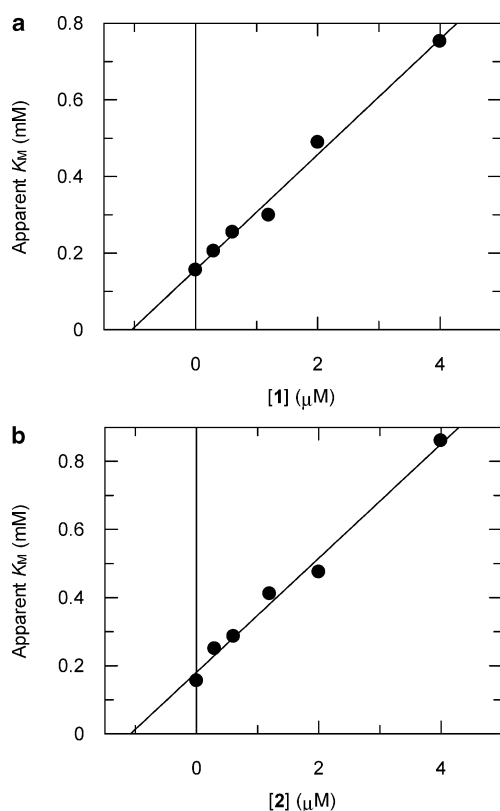


FIGURE 2: Plot of apparent  $K_M$  against inhibitor concentration for (a) **1** and (b) **2**. Experiments were conducted using between 0.05 and 4 mM 4-nitrophenyl  $\beta$ -D-glucopyranoside as substrate and concentrations of **1** or **2** between 0.3 and 4  $\mu$ M.

changes in protonation state (of enzyme or inhibitor) and any subsequent structural rearrangements may play a role in the slow-onset inhibition of glycosidases, especially for those systems that require “non-native” protonation states for optimal inhibition (13). Clearly, much work is required to dissect these unusual “artifacts” of inhibition.

X-ray diffraction data were collected for *Ssβ*-Glc1 in complex with **1** and **2** to 1.95 Å resolution. Data for the complex with **1** are 99% complete, with an overall  $R_{\text{merge}}$  of 0.102, a mean  $I/\sigma_I$  of 9.15, and a multiplicity of 5.3 observations/reflection. The model was refined to a final  $R_{\text{cryst}}$  of 0.191 and  $R_{\text{free}}$  of 0.230. The data for the complex with **2** are 100% complete, with an overall  $R_{\text{merge}}$  of 0.064, a mean  $I/\sigma_I$  of 17.2, and a multiplicity of 7.13 observations/reflection. The model was refined to a final  $R_{\text{cryst}}$  of 0.199 and  $R_{\text{free}}$  of

0.238. Partial disorder is observed in the loop regions of 96–97 and 300–303 in both molecules of each complex.

Both **1** and **2** bind in the –1 subsite, of both molecules in the asymmetric unit, in their respective complexes (Figures 3 and 4). Both display a potential transition state mimicking  $^4H_3$  conformation; the double bond between C1 and the nitrogen atom of the hydroximolactam restrains C5, N1, C1, C2, and N2 to lie a plane. A superposition of the two complexes shows that the active-site residues are in identical positions. Trp433, Trp151, and Trp425 all make hydrophobic interactions with the ligands. The C6–OH group hydrogen-bonds to Glu432 (O $\epsilon$ 2) in both cases. The C2–OH group interacts with both oxygen atoms of the nucleophile and the nitrogen of Asn205. The hydroximo nitrogen atom hydrogen-bonds with both oxygen atoms of the acid/base (Glu206). The oxygen of the hydroximo group must hydrogen-bond to solvent water, but at similar (one sigma) electron density level we observe solvent disorder to differing degrees. In the complex with **1**, two water molecules are observed in one molecule of the asymmetric unit, but only one is seen in the B molecule. For the complex with **2**, we observe a single water molecule coordinating to the oxygen in the B molecule, but in the A molecule this can be seen only at a low contour level. O3 of the sugar ring interacts with the oxygen of Gln18 and N $\epsilon$ 2 of His150. The acid/base Glu206 is close to the mean plane of the ring of the inhibitors, as shown in Figures 3 and 4, consistent with their “anti”-protonating trajectory (with respect to the plane defined by O1, C1, and H1 of the pyranose ring of the substrate) (31, 32).

The only differences in the interactions made in the active site reflect the *gluco* and *galacto* configurations of the hydroxyl group at C4. Compound **2** interacts with O $\epsilon$ 2 of Glu432 and the nitrogen of Trp433, whereas the O4 of **1** hydrogen-bonds with O $\epsilon$ 1 of Glu432 and the nitrogen of Gln18. The nitrogen of Trp433 hydrogen-bonds to the O3 atom of **1** rather than with O4 as observed for the complex with **2**. Superposition of the native structure with the noncovalently bound complexes shows that there is movement of the acid/base, Glu206, to accommodate the hydroximo group. All other residues appear to be in the same position as the native structure.

*Structures in Complex with Trapped 2-Fluoro Glycosyl-Enzyme Intermediates.* One of the most significant achievements in retaining glycosidase research is the trapping of

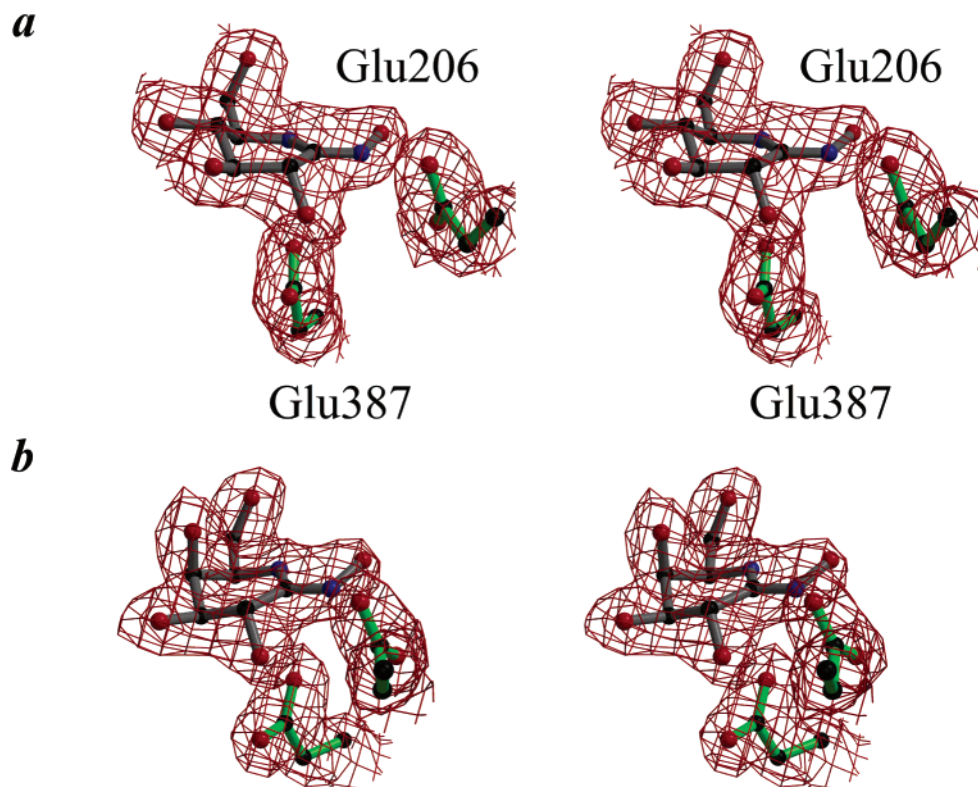


FIGURE 3: Divergent (“wall-eyed”) stereo “ball-and-stick” representation of noncovalently bound inhibitors (a) **1** and (b) **2**. Observed electron density for the maximum likelihood weighted  $2F_{\text{obs}} - F_{\text{calc}}$  map is contoured at  $1\sigma$  ( $\sim 0.25 \text{ e } \text{\AA}^{-3}$ ); figures were drawn using BOBSCRIPT (52).

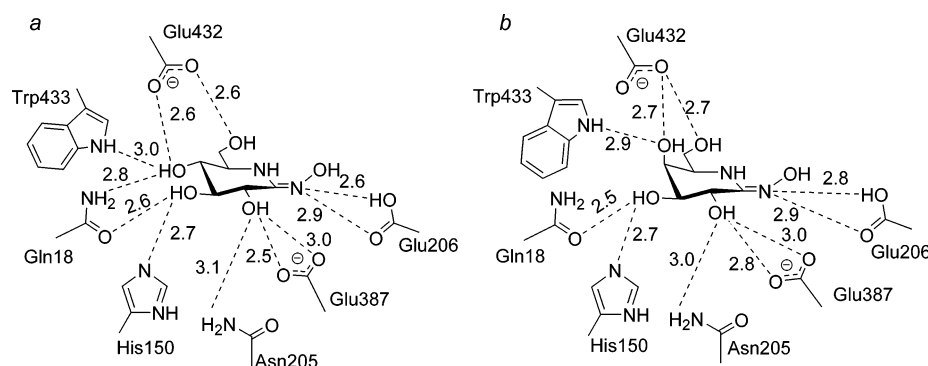


FIGURE 4: Schematic diagram of the interactions between (a) **1** and (b) **2** and Ss $\beta$ -Glc1.

long-lived, but catalytically competent, covalent intermediates through the use of 2-deoxy-2-fluoro glycosides (for example, see ref 33). These reagents facilitate accumulation of a stable intermediate through both inductive destabilization of the oxocarbenium-ion-like transition state and loss of critical O2 interactions. When used in conjunction with a good leaving group (such as dinitrophenol or fluoride), 2-fluoro substrates allow accumulation of the intermediate and its subsequent observation by both mass spectrometry and X-ray crystallography (recent examples from the authors' laboratory include a family 1  $\beta$ -glucosidase from *T. maritima* (13) and a family 26  $\beta$ -mannanase from *Cellvibrio japonicus* (the organism originally known as *Pseudomonas fluorescens* subsp. *cellulosa* and then *Pseudomonas cellulosa*) (34)).

Data were collected for Ss $\beta$ -Glc1 in complex with 2F-Gal and 2F-Glc to resolutions of 2.15 and 1.95  $\text{\AA}$ , respectively. The data for the 2F-Gal complex are 99.9% complete, with an overall  $R_{\text{merge}}$  of 0.117, a mean  $I/\sigma_I$  of 10.1, and a

multiplicity of 5.9 observations/reflection. The model was refined to a final  $R_{\text{cryst}}$  of 0.188 and  $R_{\text{free}}$  of 0.229. The data for Ss $\beta$ -Glc1 in complex with 2F-Glc are 99.9% complete, with an overall  $R_{\text{merge}}$  of 0.074, a mean  $I/\sigma_I$  of 17.5, and a multiplicity of 6.2 observations/reflection. The model was refined to a final  $R_{\text{cryst}}$  of 0.191 and  $R_{\text{free}}$  of 0.231. Both models contain two loop regions (96–97 and 300–303) that could not be built to varying extents in both molecules of the asymmetric unit.

Electron density clearly reveals 2F-Gal and 2F-Glc in their respective structures (Figure 5), each positioned in the  $-1$  subsite of Ss $\beta$ -Glc1, covalently bound to the nucleophile, Glu387. Both are in the relaxed  ${}^4C_1$  conformation, typical of the covalent glycosyl-enzyme intermediates observed for  $\beta$ -glucosidases and  $\beta$ -galactosides. A superposition of the two complexes shows that the active-site residues are in identical positions. Both C6–OH groups interact with Glu432 (O $\epsilon$ 2) and a water molecule. The endocyclic ring

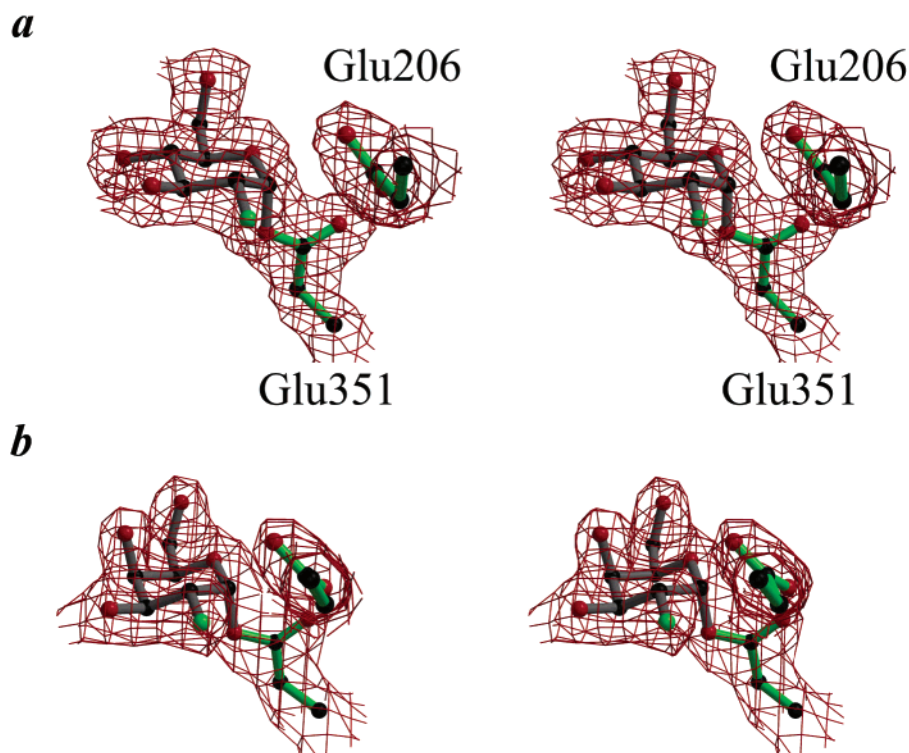


FIGURE 5: Divergent (“wall-eyed”) stereo “ball-and-stick” representation of (a) 2-deoxy-2-fluoro-glucose and (b) 2-deoxy-2-fluoro-galactose covalently bound to the nucleophile, Glu387. Observed electron density for the maximum likelihood weighted  $2F_{\text{obs}} - F_{\text{calc}}$  map is contoured at  $1\sigma$  ( $\sim 0.25 \text{ e } \text{\AA}^{-3}$ ); figures were drawn using BOBSCRIPT (52).

oxygen lies close to the oxygen of Tyr322. F2 interacts with both the side-chain amide of Asn205 and the nucleophile. The hydrogen bonds made by O3 with the oxygen of Gln18 and the nitrogen of His150 are also conserved with each inhibitor.

Exactly as observed for inhibition by **1** and **2**, the only difference in the interactions made by the two inhibitors is at the C4 position, where the hydroxyl group takes equatorial and axial configurations in the *gluco* and *galacto* forms, respectively. In both cases O4 interacts with the nitrogen of Trp433. The difference between the accommodation of these 4-epimers is subtle: whereas 2F-Gal hydrogen bonds to the O $\epsilon$ 2 of Glu432, 2F-Glc interacts with the O $\epsilon$ 1.

The interactions of the covalent complexes are extremely similar to those observed for **1** and **2** (as shown in Figure 4). Superposition of the covalently bound ligand complexes with the native structure shows that the nucleophile Glu387 of Ss $\beta$ -Glc1 has, however, moved to accommodate the covalent linkage to the sugar. The C $\alpha$ –C $\beta$  bond appears to be in a similar position in both the native structure and the complexes; rotation occurs around the C $\beta$ –C $\chi$  bond to place the O $\epsilon$ 2 of the nucleophile in covalent intimacy with C1 of the inhibitor and also to avoid destabilizing interactions between F2 of the glycoside and O $\epsilon$ 1 of Glu387. This latter movement, as observed on many trapped 2-fluoro enzyme intermediates, makes it impossible to draw useful conclusions about the differences in interactions of the hydroxyl group at the 2 position with intermediate and putative transition-state mimics. Tyr322 also rotates upon ligand binding such that it makes a 3.0–3.1 Å interaction with O5 in the trapped intermediate structures. The interaction of an electronegative atom with the O5 of the substrate (in this case intermediate) is a feature of both  $\alpha$ - and  $\beta$ -glycosidases (for example, see refs 35, 36), although it is more frequently commented upon

for  $\alpha$ -glucosidases (for example, see ref 37) and may well contribute significantly to catalysis.

## DISCUSSION

Kinetic experiments have shown that Ss $\beta$ -Glc1, as with many family GH1 glycosidases (for example, see refs 28, 30), is capable of hydrolyzing a number of aryl glycosides, including galactose, fucose, glucose, and xylose, as well as di- and oligosaccharide  $\beta$ -linked glucose derivatives (7). This substrate plasticity is particularly important given the application of Ss $\beta$ -Glc1 in chemoenzymatic synthesis via transglycosylation and “glycosynthesis”, especially since the enzyme is resistant to organic solvent and acidic conditions and shows increased solubility and yield at higher temperatures (38). Indeed, the use of a nucleophile mutant, with formate as an external nucleophile, results in the effective synthesis of both 3-*O*- $\beta$ -linked disaccharides (25) and branched oligosaccharides (39).

The data presented here show Ss $\beta$ -Glc1 in complex with two putative transition-state analogues and with two covalent intermediates, one of each in *gluco* and *galacto* configuration. Kinetics and three-dimensional structure show that Ss $\beta$ -Glc1 recognizes *gluco*- and *galacto*-configured substrates almost equally well: the interactions made by the compounds with the enzyme are extremely similar in each case, and the measured  $K_i$  values show that they have very similar inhibitory power. The only differences between the accommodation of *gluco* and *galacto* derivatives is that the *gluco* epimer hydrogen-bonds with the O $\epsilon$ 1 of Glu432, in contrast to the *galacto* epimer, which interacts with O $\epsilon$ 2. In the case of the noncovalently bound hydroxymethylolactams, an additional difference manifests itself with the N $\epsilon$ 1 of Trp433, which hydrogen-bonds to the O4 of **2** but with the O3 of **1**. Such



plasticity around the 4 position is not unusual for glycosidases. Not only has it been exploited, for example, with the *Agrobacterium* sp.  $\beta$ -glucosidase Abg glycosynthase mutants (40, 41), but it has also been well characterized structurally, notably on family 20 hexosaminidases (42, 43). GH20 enzymes are able to hydrolyze both terminal *N*-acetyl glucosamine- and *N*-acetyl galactosamine-containing compounds. As with the Gln18 interaction with both O3 and O4 of *gluco*-configured substrates (compound **1** and 2FGlc, described above), Arg162 of the *Streptomyces plicatus* hexosaminidase makes a bifurcated hydrogen bond with both O3 and O4 of *N*-acetyl glucosamine-derived ligands. Upon binding of *N*-acetyl glucosamine, GH20 enzymes lose the arginine interaction to O4 (while maintaining that with O3), exactly as observed here with Gln18 (42). Furthermore, as here, it is a glutamate residue (Glu444 in the *S. plicatus* GH20; Glu432 in Ss $\beta$ -Glc1) that modifies its interaction to accommodate the axial O4 of the *galacto*-configured substrates (Figure 4b). It would seem, therefore, that the use of single side chains permitting twin interactions with O3 and O4 generates considerable flexibility around these positions to tolerate differently configured ligands, which has been exploited both by nature and for chemoenzymatic synthesis strategies.

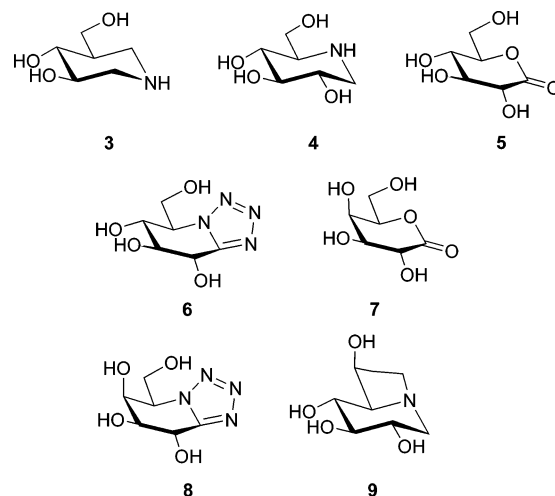
In the case of Ss $\beta$ -Glc1, plasticity of the interactions around the O3 and O4 positions both explains previous mutagenesis data, in which when Trp433 was mutated there was a much greater effect on the recognition of 2-position *gluco*-configured substrates than on the hydrolysis of mannosides (44), and also contributes to the evolving view that recognition of different transition-state conformations for different epimers may be transmitted to distant hydroxyls (34). Kinetics of the W433C mutant of Ss $\beta$ -Glc1 was analyzed against both *manno*- and *galacto*-derived substrates. Although catalysis was reduced in both cases, considerably less effect was observed for mannoside recognition, with a consequent 25-fold improvement in the ratio of  $k_{\text{cat}}/K_M(\text{Man})$ :  $k_{\text{cat}}/K_M(\text{Gal})$  compared to the wild-type (44). Although interpretation is confused by the change of epimer at two centers (O2 and O4), the work may be consistent with previous proposals that mannoside hydrolysis goes through a  $B_{2,5}$  conformation in which the largest conformational difference, to the  $^4H_3$  transition state for glucoside hydrolysis, occurs at O3 (34). Hence, changes in the interactions around O3 and O4 may, indirectly, change the enzyme's epimeric preference at the 2-position. Modification of the interactions of the "wrong" hydroxyls may represent a powerful way to modulate enzyme specificity. Mutation of Gln18 of Ss $\beta$ -Glc1 would shed further light on this area.

**1** has previously been shown to be an inhibitor of both  $\alpha$ - and  $\beta$ -glucosidases, with  $K_i$  values of 16, 0.6, and 3.3  $\mu\text{M}$  for  $\beta$ -glucosidases from almonds, *Agrobacterium faecalis*, and *Caldocellum saccharolyticum*, respectively (45), similar to the  $\sim 1 \mu\text{M}$  value observed here. Both **1** and **2** display characteristics typical of the transition state, as they contain a trigonal anomeric carbon and adopt a corresponding  $^4H_3$  conformation.  $K_i$  values around 1  $\mu\text{M}$  do not appear to reflect great mimicry of the transition state. They are indeed only 100-fold tighter than apparent  $K_M$  values of around 0.1 mM for 4-nitrophenyl  $\beta$ -D-glucopyranoside hydrolysis, although such a  $K_M$  most likely reflects the deglycosylation step which is rate-limiting, and thus the true  $K_d$  for the substrate is likely

to be some 100–1000 times higher (28, 30). We have certainly not observed product inhibition on this system, suggesting that  $K_i$  values for glucose or galactose must be extremely high. Despite this qualifier, hydroximolactams do not bind tightly. This may reflect their need for "in-plane" *anti* protonation of the exocyclic nitrogen by the acid/base. Given that, at the transition state, the glycosidic oxygen is axial (Scheme 1), the requirement for in-plane protonation of an inhibitor, while generating specificity for *anti* as opposed to *syn* protonators, must necessarily come at a cost in terms of optimal interactions elsewhere.

Other well-characterized inhibitors of glycoside hydrolases, such as isofagomine (**3**) and 1-deoxynojirimycin (**4**), are not restrained to transition-state-mimicking ring conformations (in contrast to **1** and **2**) and most likely adopt the  $^4C_1$  conformation in solution. In contrast, however, their conjugate acids are proposed to have positive charge at the site corresponding to that observed in the transition state (13). Their description as "transition-state analogues" remains a contentious issue and certainly requires quantification. **1** and **2** also contain a hydroxyl substituent at C2, which many glycosidase inhibitors do not. Given that the hydroxyl group at C2 is estimated to provide  $>40 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$  to the stabilization of the transition state (28), this interaction is extremely important. Indeed, the nucleophile and the O2 substituent on the hydroximolactam inhibitors interact via a hydrogen bond between 2.5 and 2.8 Å. As mentioned previously, the carbonyl in the covalent intermediate complexes is rotated away from the saccharide to avoid steric clashes between F2 of the glycoside and O $\epsilon$ 1, and thus no useful comparison can be made with the putative transition state, and alternative strategies for trapping need be considered (for example, see ref 46).

The structure of Ss $\beta$ -Glc1 in complex with **1** and **2** contributes to the growing, but still limited, structural picture of glycosidase inhibition. The structure of the family GH1



myrosinase has been deduced in complex with a number of proposed transition-state analogues. **1** was observed to bind in a "slightly distorted half-chair", with the nitrogen of the hydroximo group interacting with the oxygen of Gln187 (the residue equivalent to the acid/base glutamate in other family 1 hydrolases). D-Glucono-1,5-lactone (**5**) also binds as a distorted half-chair, with the O1 of the lactone in van der Waals' contact with the oxygen of Gln187, whereas gluco-

tetrazole (**6**) binds in a true half-chair conformation, with a nitrogen of the tetrazole hydrogen-bonding to the oxygen of the same glutamine residue (47). The *galacto* forms of these inhibitors, D-galactono-1,5-lactone (**7**) and galacto-tetrazole (**8**), were shown to bind to a family 2  $\beta$ -galactosidase from *Escherichia coli*. The oxygen of the lactone group interacted with the acid/base residue in the enzyme. Both inhibitors were bound slightly rotated in comparison to intermediates in the process, to prevent steric clashes between C1 of the inhibitor and the nucleophile of the protein (48). The structure of a family 5 exo- $\beta$ -(1,3)-glucanase from *Candida albicans* in complex with a putative transition-state mimic, castanospermine (**9**), showed that the inhibitor adopted a skewed-boat conformation, the presumed precursor to the transition state (49). The nitrogen atom (which is observed approximately halfway between the position expected for the endocyclic oxygen and anomeric carbon) interacts with the anionic oxygen atom of the nucleophile of the protein. A family 1  $\beta$ -glucosidase from *T. maritima* bound to isofagomine (**3**) in a relaxed  ${}^4C_1$  conformation, with an electrostatic interaction between the nitrogen and the carboxylate of the nucleophile and a Coulombic interaction with the acid/base glutamate. The structure with 1-deoxynojirimycin (**4**) was shown to bind in a near  ${}^4C_1$  conformation, although C1 was upwardly displaced, meaning the nucleophile interacted with O2 and N5 (13).

Given the importance of glycosidase inhibition, both in the quest for therapeutic agents and in the need to understand transition-state recognition of these powerful catalysts, it is perhaps surprising just how few (*exo*)-glycosidase structures have been reported in complex with their respective (mono-saccharide) inhibitors. It is only with an increase in structural information, coupled with thermodynamic and kinetic data, that a better profile of what makes a good transition state can be ascertained. Given the emerging picture of different enzymes harnessing conformationally different transition states (50), a more detailed analysis of what makes a good transition-state mimic should lead to a new generation of powerful and specific enzyme inhibitors.

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