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Crystal Structures of Cobalamin-independent Methionine Synthase Complexed with Zinc, Homocysteine, and Methyltetrahydrofolate*[§] ◆

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Cobalamin-independent methionine synthase (MetE) catalyzes the synthesis of methionine by a direct transfer of the methyl group of *N*⁵-methyltetrahydrofolate (CH₃-H₄PteGlu_{*n*}) to the sulfur atom of homocysteine (Hcy). We report here the first crystal structure of this metalloenzyme under different forms, free or complexed with the Hcy and folate substrates. The *Arabidopsis thaliana* MetE (AtMetE) crystals reveal a monomeric structure built by two (β α)₈ barrels making a deep groove at their interface. The active site is located at the surface of the C-terminal domain, facing the large inter-domain cleft. Inside the active site, His⁶⁴⁷, Cys⁶⁴⁹, and Cys⁷³³ are involved in zinc coordination, whereas Asp⁶⁰⁵, Ile⁴³⁷, and Ser⁴³⁹ interact with Hcy. Opposite the zinc/Hcy binding site, a cationic loop (residues 507–529) belonging to the C-terminal domain anchors the first glutamyl residue of CH₃-H₄PteGlu₅. The pterin moiety of CH₃-H₄PteGlu₅ is stacked with Trp⁵⁶⁷, enabling the *N*⁵-methyl group to protrude in the direction of the zinc atom. These data suggest a structural role of the N-terminal domain of AtMetE in the stabilization of loop 507–529 and in the interaction with the poly-glutamate chain of CH₃-H₄PteGlu_{*n*}. Comparison of AtMetE structures reveals that the addition of Hcy does not lead to a direct coordination of the sulfur atom with zinc but to a reorganization of the zinc binding site with a stronger coordination to Cys⁶⁴⁹, Cys⁷³³, and a water molecule.

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§ The on-line version of this article (available at <http://www.jbc.org>) contains supplemental Figs. 1 and 2 and Table I.

The atomic coordinates and structure factors (codes 1U1J, 1U1H, 1U1U, and 1U22) have been deposited in the Protein Data Bank, Research Collaboratory for Structural Bioinformatics, Rutgers University, New Brunswick, NJ (<http://www.rcsb.org/>).

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In all organisms, the sulfur-containing amino acids homocysteine (Hcy)¹ and methionine (Met) are situated at a point of convergence of two major metabolic networks, *i.e.* sulfur and one-carbon metabolisms. Four enzymes are capable of synthesizing Met by methylation of the thiol group of Hcy using different methyl group donors. First, two types of the enzyme Met synthase catalyze the same overall reaction, the transfer of the methyl group of *N*⁵-methyltetrahydropteroylglutamate (CH₃-H₄PteGlu) to Hcy (1). The cobalamin-dependent Met synthase (EC 2.1.1.13, MetH) is found in organisms that synthesize or obtain vitamin B₁₂ from outside sources (*e.g.* bacteria and animals). MetH is a large modular protein in which the methyl group of CH₃-H₄PteGlu is first transferred to an enzyme-bound cobalamin co-factor and then captured by Hcy (for a review, see Ref. 2). MetH is a monomeric protein composed of four regions with the N-terminal part comprising modules for binding and activation of Hcy and CH₃-H₄PteGlu and the C-terminal half containing the cobalamin and S-adenosylmethionine binding domains (2). The cobalamin-independent Met synthase (EC 2.1.1.14, MetE) shares no sequence similarity with MetH (1) and catalyzes methyl transfer to Hcy directly from CH₃-H₄PteGlu_{*n*} (with *n* > 3). Both MetE and MetH are found in bacteria, whereas fungi and plants possess only the cobalamin-independent Met synthase (3, 4). Second, the enzymes betaine Hcy S-methyltransferase (EC 2.1.1.5; BHMT) and S-methylmethionine Hcy S-methyltransferase (EC 2.1.1.12; HMT) use the methyl groups of betaine and S-methylmethionine, respectively, to methylate Hcy. BHMT occurs in mammals (5) and in halophylic bacteria (6). HMT is found in plants, bacteria, fungi, and mammals, enabling these organisms to utilize S-methylmethionine of plant origin (7, 8).

All the above mentioned enzymes catalyzing methyl transfers to thiols contain a zinc atom that is essential for binding of Hcy and for catalysis of methyl transfer to the Hcy thiolate (9). Recent crystal structure determinations (10–12) established that MetH, BHMT, and HMT share a homologous N-terminal Hcy binding domain (Hcy S-methyltransferase family pfam PF02574) in which a zinc atom is linked to three cysteine residues (in bold) included in two conserved motifs, G(IL/V)NC and (I/V)GGCC(G/R), and to a fourth oxygen or nitrogen ligand (tyrosine or threonine residues in BHMT and MetH, respectively). MetE belongs to a distinct family of zinc metalloenzymes (9). Indeed, although the structure of MetE was still unknown, site-directed mutagenesis and analyses of the zinc environment by extended x-ray absorption fine structure (EXAFS) led to the identification of the zinc and Hcy binding domain in the C-terminal of the *Escherichia coli* enzyme (13, 14).

Although the zinc ligand set of the *E. coli* enzyme has been characterized, further investigations are needed to get a better understanding of the role of zinc in direct methyl transfer from CH₃-H₄PteGlu_{*n*} to Hcy. In the present paper, we report the first three-dimensional structure of a cobalamin-independent Met synthase from the higher plant *Arabidopsis thaliana* (At-

¹ The abbreviations used are: Hcy, homocysteine; CH₃-H₄PteGlu_{*n*}, *N*⁵-methyltetrahydrofolate, *N*⁵-methyltetrahydropteroylpolyglutamate; PteGlu₅, pteroylpenta- γ -L-glutamate; EXAFS, extended X-ray absorption fine structure; MetH, cobalamin-dependent Met synthase; MetE, cobalamin-independent methionine synthase; BHMT, betaine Hcy S-methyltransferase; HMT, S-methylmethionine Hcy S-methyltransferase; AtMetE, *A. thaliana* MetE; DTT, dithiothreitol; PEG, polyethylene glycol; r.m.s.d., root mean square distance.

MetE). Cocrystallization of the enzyme in the presence of zinc and, with or without, Hcy or Met permitted determination of the zinc binding site and its interactions with the substrate and product, respectively. Furthermore, crystal soaking with $\text{CH}_3\text{-H}_4\text{PteGlu}_5$ led to the identification of the binding site of the methyl donor.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Protein Expression and Purification—Protein expression was carried out with plasmid pET-MS1 encoding the full-length AtMS1 cytosolic enzyme (4). *E. coli* BL21-codonPlus (DE3)-RIL-X cells carrying the pET-MS1 plasmid were grown at 28 °C in 1 liter of LB medium containing 0.5 mM ZnSO_4 until A_{600} reached 0.6. Isopropyl β -D-thiogalactoside was added to a final concentration of 0.4 mM, and the cells were further grown for 15 h at 28 °C. Cells were harvested by centrifugation, and the pellet was resuspended in 50 ml of buffer A (10 mM $\text{KH}_2\text{-K}_2\text{HPO}_4$, pH 7.2, 1 mM DTT) and sonicated. The soluble AtMetE protein was purified by ion-exchange chromatography on a Fractogel® EMD DEAE column using a $\text{KH}_2\text{-K}_2\text{HPO}_4$ linear gradient (10–100 mM). Pure enzyme was concentrated to 20 mg of protein/ml in 20 mM $\text{KH}_2\text{-K}_2\text{HPO}_4$, pH 7.2, 1 mM DTT, and stored at –80 °C until used. The seleno-Met enzyme (Se-AtMetE) was expressed and purified similarly except that the growth was conducted in 1 liter of a minimal medium containing 40 mg of seleno-Met. The native molecular mass of AtMetE was determined on a Superdex 200 16/60 equilibrated in 50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0, and 150 mM KCl. AtMetE was eluted as a monomer of 84 kDa, as expected from its theoretical molecular mass.

Crystallization of AtMetE—Crystals (space group P6_5) were grown at 20 °C in 12- μl sitting drops containing 6 μl of protein mix (30 μg of AtMetE or Se-AtMetE, 1 mM DTT, 1 mM ZnCl_2 , 10 mM L-Met or L-Hcy) and 6 μl of reservoir solution. For crystals obtained in the presence of Met or Hcy, 3% (w/v) saccharose or 3% (w/v) glycerol were added to the protein mix, respectively. For these crystals, the reservoir solution consisted of 30% (w/v) polyethylene glycol (PEG) 8000, 0.2 M ammonium sulfate, 1 mM DTT, and 0.1 M sodium cacodylate, pH 6.5. For crystals grown without Met or Hcy, 0.1 M ammonium sulfate was added to the protein mix, and the reservoir solution consisted of 0.1 M Tris-HCl, pH 8.5, 32% (w/v) PEG 4000, 0.2 M lithium sulfate. Soaking experiments were performed by adding 10 mM of pteroylpenta- γ -L-glutamate (PteGlu_5 , Schircks Laboratories) or $\text{CH}_3\text{-H}_4\text{PteGlu}_5$ (synthesized from PteGlu_5 as described by Ravanel *et al.* (4)) in the crystallization drop. Cryo-conditions consisted of 5% (w/v) glycerol, 1 mM ZnCl_2 , 1 mM DTT, 10 mM Met/Hcy/ PteGlu_5 / $\text{CH}_3\text{-H}_4\text{PteGlu}_5$ added to the reservoir solution.

Structure Determination—The structure of Met-complexed Se-AtMetE was determined by single wavelength anomalous diffraction. Data (data set Se-Met, see Supplemental Table I) were collected at the selenium K edge (wavelength: 0.9792 Å) at 100 K on FIP-BM30A (15) beamline at the European Synchrotron Radiation Facility and reduced with XDS (16). Data were input to SOLVE (17), which found 17 sites (mean figure of merit: 0.26) out of the 19 anticipated selenium sites. Density modification was performed in RESOLVE (mean figure of merit: 0.66; Ref. 18), and 121 residues out of 765 were built automatically. The model was extended to a total of 746 residues (residues 1 and 418–460 were not observed in the electronic density) by manual building using the O molecular modeling package (19). This model was refined in CNS (20) using torsional simulated annealing, followed by refinement of atomic B factors and least squares minimization. Water molecules were gradually added to the model at positions where density difference was higher than 2.5 σ , provided they make acceptable interactions with protein atoms or other water molecules. This final model was also refined against the data set (supplemental Table I) collected on crystals obtained, either by co-crystallization or by soaking, in the presence of different substrates or products: Met, Hcy, PteGlu_5 , and $\text{CH}_3\text{-H}_4\text{PteGlu}_5$ (data sets: Met, Hcy, Se-Hcy, Se-Met- PteGlu_5 , Se-Hcy- PteGlu_5 , Se-Met- $\text{CH}_3\text{-H}_4\text{PteGlu}_5$). One data set was also collected on a seleno-Met derivative crystal obtained without Met or Hcy added during crystallization (data set Se-Free). This last crystal was obtained in a rather different crystallization condition with respect to the other ones but happened to grow in the same space group, with similar cell parameters. Some of these crystals presented a hemihedral twinning, ranging from 3.5 to 18%, and refinement steps were performed accordingly (21).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Overall Structure—AtMetE crystals revealed a monomeric structure in agreement with gel filtration chromatography (see “Experimental Procedures”). The monomer is built by two do-

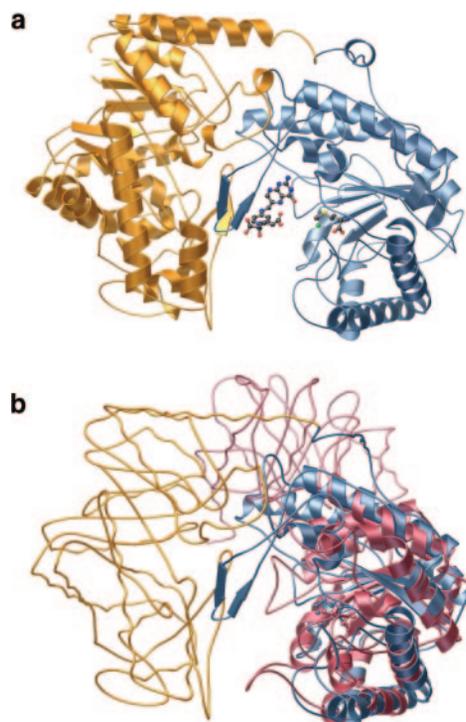


FIG. 1. Structure of the *Arabidopsis* MetE. *a*, ribbon diagram of AtMetE in complex with Met and PteGlu_5 . The Met and PteGlu_5 molecules are depicted as sticks and balls. The N-terminal domain is gold, the C-terminal domain is blue, and the zinc atom is green. *b*, structural alignment with the Hcy domain of Meth (in pink, code 1Q8A in the Protein Data Bank) performed with DALI. Secondary structures are shown only for residues 416–792 for AtMetE. Diagrams were produced with MOLSCRIPT (22) and rendered with POV-RAY (www.povray.org).

main making a deep groove at their interface (Fig. 1*a*). The N-terminal domain extends from residues 2 to 391 and the C-terminal domain from residues 392 to 765. Both are structurally similar to the classical $(\beta\alpha)_8$ barrel as represented by uroporphyrinogen decarboxylase (code 1URO in the Protein Data Bank). Structural alignment performed with DALI (www.ebi.ac.uk/dali/fsspl) gives a root mean square distance (r.m.s.d.) to 1URO of 3.1 and 3.3 Å, for the N- and C-terminal domains, respectively. Both domains are also structurally similar to the Hcy binding domain of Meth (code 1Q8A in the Protein Data Bank), with a r.m.s.d. of 3.3 and 3.5 Å, respectively (Fig. 1*b*). The linker between the two domains consists of a loop (residues 390–395). A large loop of the C-terminal domain including β strands β 12, β 13, β 14, and β 15 (residues 507–529) crosses over the groove and closely interacts with the N-terminal domain. Inside the groove, the C-terminal domain seems to be involved in the interaction with zinc, Hcy/Met, and $\text{CH}_3\text{-H}_4\text{PteGlu}_5$ (Fig. 1). This result contrasts markedly with the Meth enzyme in which Hcy, $\text{CH}_3\text{-H}_4\text{PteGlu}_5$, and cobalamin binding sites belong to three different domains (12).

Zinc Binding Site—Two zinc atoms were observed in the electronic density of all the collected data set. One is located at the interface between two AtMetE molecules, making bonds with His⁶⁵⁸ and Asp⁶⁶² from one molecule and His¹³⁵ and Asp¹⁹⁴ from the other molecule. This metal atom does not appear to have any catalytic role. The other zinc atom is located in the active site, at the surface of the C-terminal domain, in the groove that separates the two domains (Fig. 1*a*). The nature of these ions is assumed based on the absence of any other heavy atom, except selenium and arsenic, as detected by fluorescence spectrum measurements performed on the crystals with a multi-channel detector (see supplementary Fig. 1*a*). This point was also established undoubtedly by collecting a

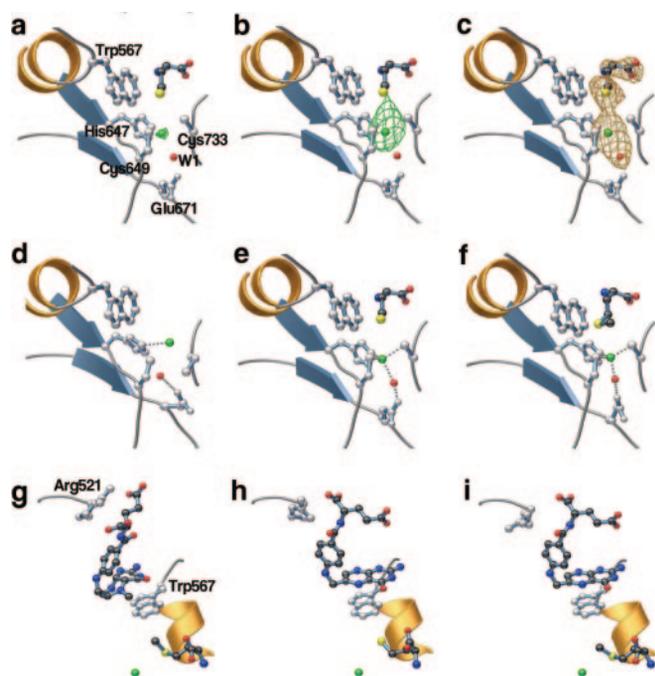


FIG. 2. **Close-up view of the AtMetE active site.** An anomalous difference Fourier density map of AtMetE complexed with Hcy, below (a) and above (b) the zinc K absorption edge, contoured at 6σ is shown. In comparison with the Fourier difference map (c) calculated with phases from the AtMetE model and contoured at 4σ , only one part of the elongated density at the ion position appears to be zinc, suggesting the presence of a water molecule, W1. *d-f*, zinc coordinating residues of free AtMetE (d), complexed with Hcy (e), and complexed with Met (f). *g-i*, methyl donor binding site of AtMetE complexed with Met and $\text{CH}_3\text{-H}_4\text{PteGlu}_5$ (g), Hcy and PteGlu_5 (h), and Met and PteGlu_5 (i). Zinc is shown in green and W1 in red. Diagrams were produced with MOLSCRIPT/BOBSCRIPT (22) and rendered with POV-RAY (www.povray.org).

two-wavelength data set (data set Se-Hcy), one above and one below the zinc K absorption edge (see supplementary Fig. 1b). The anomalous difference map obtained with phases from the refined model shows a strong peak above the edge at the assumed ion location (28σ) that almost disappears below the edge (7σ , so a ratio of 4:1 close to the variation of the f' parameter of zinc between these two wavelengths, see Fig. 2, a and b). The shape of the anomalous density matches only a part, the half part close to the substrate (see Fig. 2c), of the total density observed when calculating a difference density map. It reveals the presence of a water molecule (named W1) in a close position, at about 2–3 Å distance from zinc. W1 makes H-bonds with backbone oxygen of Asp⁷³², a side chain oxygen of Glu⁶⁷¹, and the sulfur of Cys⁷³³, depending on the presence or not of the ligands (Fig. 2, *d-f*). In addition, the zinc atom binds also to the sulfur atom of Cys⁶⁴⁹ and Cys⁷³³ and to the side chain nitrogen of His⁶⁴⁷. This result is in complete agreement with mutagenesis and EXAFS experiments (13, 14) showing that the zinc atom is coordinated in the *E. coli* enzyme to two sulfur ligands (Cys⁶⁴³ and Cys⁷²⁶), to His⁶⁴¹, and to a water molecule. All the residues involved in the binding of the zinc atom and W1 are strictly conserved in the MetE family (see supplemental Fig. 2).

Homocysteine/Methionine Binding Site—Data sets were obtained for the AtMetE protein co-crystallized with either Met or Hcy (supplemental Table I). Met was observed close to the catalytic zinc atom (Fig. 2f). The nitrogen atom of Met makes H-bonds with the carboxylate moiety of Asp⁶⁰⁵ and the backbone oxygen of Ile⁴³⁷, whereas oxygen atom makes a H-bond with backbone nitrogen of Ser⁴³⁹. Density observed in the active site for crystals grown in the presence of Hcy permitted us

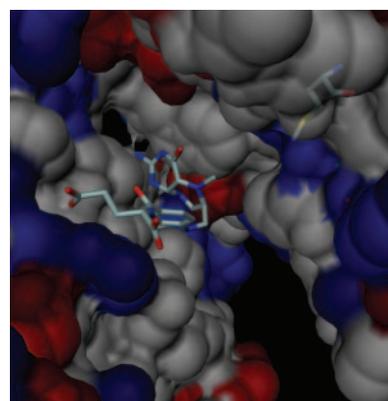


FIG. 3. **Charge colored surface of the methyl donor binding site.** This figure, showing AtMetE complexed with $\text{CH}_3\text{-H}_4\text{PteGlu}_5$ and Met, was produced with DINO (Visualizing Structural Biology, 2002, www.dino3d.org).

to model the Hcy molecule in a rather similar position than the observed Met (Fig. 2e). Refinement revealed a slightly different position of the substrate molecule, with the sulfur of Hcy overlapping carbon C-5 of Met. In both cases, the sulfur atom of Hcy/Met and zinc do not interact strongly (distance S-Zn = 3.6–4.4 Å, see supplemental Table I). The data collected on Se-AtMetE with or without Met added (data sets Se-Met and Se-Free, see supplemental Table I) revealed an electronic density but no anomalous signal at the position of Met (result not shown), suggesting the presence of water molecules in the case of data set Se-Free (Fig. 2d). It proves that no seleno-Met was kept from the cells where AtMetE was produced. Except for Ile⁴³⁷ (replaced by Val in the sequence of *Methanobacterium thermoautotrophicum*), all the residues involved in the binding of Met/Hcy are rigorously conserved in the MetE family (see supplemental Fig. 2).

Folate Binding Site—When crystals of AtMetE complexed with Met or Hcy were soaked with PteGlu_5 or $\text{CH}_3\text{-H}_4\text{PteGlu}_5$, a new density was observed on the opposite side of the groove with respect to the zinc catalytic atom. Only the pterin ring and the first glutamyl residue of PteGlu_5 and $\text{CH}_3\text{-H}_4\text{PteGlu}_5$ were successfully modeled in the corresponding density. A weaker density was also observed for the *p*-aminobenzoate moiety, suggesting the possibility of a free rotation of the ring. In both cases, the glutamyl residue is bound in a positively charged binding pocket (loop 507–529) (Fig. 3), with ionic and H-bond interactions with the side chain of Arg⁵²¹ and the backbone oxygen of Cys⁵²², respectively. The pterin ring of $\text{PteGlu}_5/\text{CH}_3\text{-H}_4\text{PteGlu}_5$ protrudes in the direction of the zinc atom, making only a stacking interaction with Trp⁵⁶⁷ (Fig. 2, *g-i*). These interactions are similar for PteGlu_5 and $\text{CH}_3\text{-H}_4\text{PteGlu}_5$, but due to the nonaromatic nature of the pterin ring of $\text{CH}_3\text{-H}_4\text{PteGlu}_5$, its general shape (Fig. 2g) differs substantially from PteGlu_5 , making atom N⁵ of the pterin ring come closer to the zinc atom with respect to PteGlu_5 (Fig. 2, *h* and *i*). At this position, the distance between the methyl to be transferred from $\text{CH}_3\text{-H}_4\text{PteGlu}_5$ to the sulfur of Hcy is about 7 Å. As observed for AtMetE, most of the crystal structures of folate-requiring enzymes have been determined without the polyglutamate chain or having only a single glutamyl residue (23). This deficiency is not due to a hydrolysis of folate but could be inherent of the nature of the anionic polyglutamate chain. Indeed, the enzymes are often crystallized in high salt concentrations, and the anions of these salts compete for binding with the anionic polyglutamate chain (23). In addition, it is also possible that the polyglutamate chain of folate has several conformations preventing its determination from an electron density map (23).

Although only one glutamyl residue is observed in the structure, the length of the polyglutamate chain is of critical importance for enzyme activity, CH₃-H₄PteGlu₁ being a poor substrate of the plant and bacterial MetE enzymes (4, 24, 25). Also, binding studies with the *E. coli* MetE enzyme demonstrated that the length of the polyglutamate chain markedly increases the binding of the folate substrate (26). In agreement with these data, soaking of the AtMetE crystals with CH₃-H₄PteGlu₁ did not permit us to identify a density at the position determined for CH₃-H₄PteGlu₅ (results not shown). As suggested by cationic surface charge distribution (Lys¹⁴, Arg¹⁵, Asn³³⁹) (Fig. 3), the function of the N-terminal domain would be to interact with the negatively charged polyglutamate chain of CH₃-H₄PteGlu₅. In addition, considering the close interactions of loop 507–529 with the N-terminal domain and the lack of interaction with the C-terminal domain, we can assume also that the role of the N-terminal domain is to stabilize the loop 507–529.

It is worth noting that the MetE protein from the methane-forming archaeon *M. thermoautotrophicum* shares a high sequence similarity with MetE from *E. coli* and higher plants, including loop 507–529 and residues involved in the zinc and Hcy binding sites, but does not contain the N-terminal domain (see supplemental Fig. 2). Surprisingly, neither CH₃-H₄PteGlu nor its analog N⁵-methyltetrahydromethanopterin are active methyl donors for Hcy methylation by the archaeal enzyme (27).

Active Site and Reaction Mechanism—Comparisons between the structures of the enzyme with zinc (Se-Free data set) and the complexes with Hcy or Met (Se-Hcy, Hcy, Se-Met, and Met data sets) show that binding of Hcy or Met leads to similar conformational modifications at the zinc binding site (Fig. 2, *d*, *g*, and *h*). Indeed, binding of the Hcy/Met induces (i) a flip of Cys⁷³³ from His⁷⁰¹ to zinc and (ii) a slight displacement (1.2 Å) of zinc leading to a stronger coordination of zinc to Cys⁶⁴⁹ (distance Zn-S = 2.4 Å instead of 3.3 Å, see supplemental Table I), Cys⁷³³ (Zn-S = 2.4 Å instead of 3.4 Å), and W1 (Zn-W1 = 2.3 Å instead of 3.5 Å). At the same time, H-bonds between W1 and the sulfur of Cys⁷³³ (Cys⁷³³-W1 = 3.8 Å instead of 2.7 Å) and the side chain nitrogen of His⁶⁴⁷ (His⁶⁴⁷-W1 = 3.7 Å instead of 2.8 Å) disappear in favor of new H-bonds with the backbone oxygen of Asp⁷³² (Asp⁷³²-W1 = 2.7 Å instead of 3.5 Å) and with the side chain oxygen of Glu⁶⁷¹ (Glu⁶⁷¹-W1 = 2.8 Å instead of 3.7 Å). In both cases, the sulfur atom of Hcy/Met replaces a water molecule (W305) at a distance between 3.6 and 4.4 Å from zinc.

Previous experiments carried out with the *E. coli* MetE established already that zinc is coordinated to two cysteines, one histidine, and a water molecule that is exchangeable with the thiol group from Hcy upon substrate binding (14). Thus, it was proposed that (i) direct coordination of zinc to Hcy, two sulfurs (Cys⁶⁴⁹, Cys⁷³³) and one nitrogen (His⁶⁴⁷) atoms, confers a net negative charge to the substrate-zinc complex, (ii) zinc acts as a Lewis acid that activates Hcy in a thiolate that is more reactive than the corresponding thiol, and (iii) the thiolate is a strong nucleophile that further attacks the N⁵ of CH₃-H₄PteGlu_{*n*} yielding thiol alkylation. Analysis of the zinc binding site of AtMetE complexed with Hcy is not in complete agreement with this hypothesis. Indeed, our results show clearly that the binding of Hcy does not lead to a direct coordination of the sulfur atom to zinc but rather to a reorganization of the zinc binding site, which exhibits stronger interactions with Cys⁶⁴⁹, Cys⁷³³, and W1, keeping unmodified the interaction with His⁶⁴⁷ (supplemental Table I). Alternatively, another possible mechanism is that coordination of zinc to W1 leads to an hydroxyl, which then activates Hcy in a thiolate.

However, our results are not even in agreement with this mechanism, since the distance between W1 and S(Hcy) is far away (6 Å) to allow thiol activation.

Analyses of the crystal structure of AtMetE soaked with PteGlu₅ or CH₃-H₄PteGlu₅ indicate that the pterin ring of both pteroyl compounds is stacked against Trp⁵⁶⁷. In the case of CH₃-H₄PteGlu₅, the methyl group remains far away from the sulfur atom of Hcy (7 Å). However, the weak interaction of the pterin ring, the orientation of the bonds between this moiety and the *p*-aminobenzoate ring, and the empty volume between this position and the zinc atom suggests that the pterin ring can rotate easily to bring the methyl group in a close location to Hcy. This rotation could occur without moving the polyglutamate chain that plays like an anchor.

In summary, the present work describes the first three-dimensional structures of a cobalamin-independent Met synthase. Co-crystallization with either Hcy or Met and ternary complexes with folate substrates led to the identification of the zinc, Hcy, and CH₃-H₄PteGlu_{*n*} binding sites. Additional work is now needed to determine (i) how the sulfur atom of Hcy is activated and (ii) how the thiolate further reacts with CH₃-H₄PteGlu_{*n*}. In particular, the role of phosphate that is essential for catalysis (24, 25) must be elucidated.

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