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Deciphering an Undecided Enzyme: Investigations of the Structural Determinants Involved in the Linkage Specificity of Alternansucrase

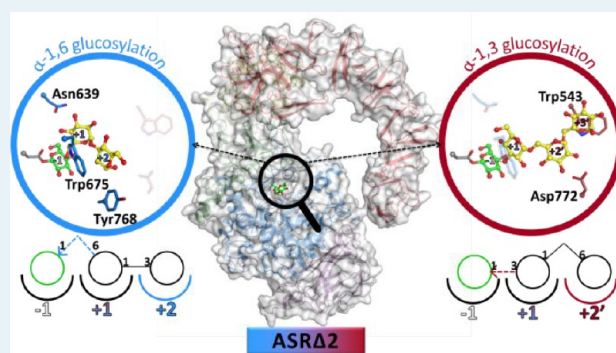
Manon Molina, Claire Moulis, Nelly Monties, Sandra Pizzut-Serin, David Guieysse, Sandrine Morel, Gianluca Cioci,* and Magali Remaud-Siméon*

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Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: Understanding how polymerases catalyze the synthesis of biopolymers is a timely and important issue in generating controlled structures with well-defined properties. With this objective in mind, here we describe the 2.8 Å crystal structure of a truncated version of alternansucrase (ASR) from *L. citreum* NRRL B-1355. Indeed, ASR is a striking example of α -transglucosylase among GH70 glucansucrases, capable of catalyzing high and low molar mass alternan, an α -glucan comprising alternating α -1,3 and α -1,6 linkages in its linear chain. The 3D structure sheds light on the various features involved in enzyme stability. Moreover, docking studies and biochemical characterizations of 17 single mutants and two double mutants enable the key determinants of α -1,6 or α -1,3 linkage specificity to be located and establish the structural basis of alternance. ASR displays two different acceptor subsites in the prolongation of its subsites -1 and $+1$. The first one is defined by Trp675, a residue of subsite $+2$, and orients acceptor binding exclusively toward α -1,6 linkage synthesis. The second binding site comprises Asp772 and Trp543, two residues defining the $+2'$ and $+3'$ subsites, respectively, which are critical for α -1,3 linkage formation. It is proposed that the interplay between these two acceptor sites controls alternance. These results add to the toolbox of enzymes for the production of tailor-made polysaccharides with controlled structures.

KEYWORDS: glucansucrase, alternansucrase, alternan, crystal structure, GH70, α -(1 \rightarrow 3)/ α -(1 \rightarrow 6) linkage specificity and alternance



INTRODUCTION

The α -glucans constitute an important class of polymers, among which those produced using glucansucrases (GSs) from the GH70 family are particularly attractive for applications in medicine, nutrition, cosmetics, and materials science.^{1–4} They are synthesized directly from sucrose, an abundant substrate available in a highly pure form. A broad variety of molecular structures can be easily obtained depending on the enzymes involved in their synthesis. Indeed, the size, type, and arrangement of α -osidic linkages as well as the degree of branching can vary considerably from one polymer to another. All of these factors define the physicochemical, biological, and mechanical properties of each specimen and therefore its range of application. Improving the understanding of the molecular features at the origin of glucansucrase specificity and diversity is therefore essential for further development of α -glucans with tightly controlled structures.

In an impressive study aiming to characterize the polysaccharides produced by almost 100 different lactic acid bacteria, Jeanes et al. were the first to report the presence of an α -glucan containing alternating α -1,3 and α -1,6 osidic linkages

in the culture supernatant of several strains of *Leuconostoc* sp., such as *L. mesenteroides* NRRL B-1355 (recently reclassified as *L. citreum*⁵), NRRL B-1501, and NRRL B-1498.⁶ Different analytical techniques (periodate oxidation, methylation, acetolysis, Smith reaction, NMR, and enzymatic digestion) confirmed the presence of around 40% α -1,3 linkages and 60% α -1,6 linkages in the polymer (as determined by NMR on purified alternan), with the occurrence of alternating α -1,3 and α -1,6 linkages in the polymer chain, as well as some consecutive α -1,6 linkages and around 10% branching linkages.^{6–19} The polymer was named alternan. The enzymatic activity responsible for its synthesis was isolated and referred to as alternansucrase (ASR, EC 2.4.1.140).⁷ With an optimum temperature of 45 °C, ASR is one of the most stable enzymes in the GH70 family, which enabled the enzyme to be purified using a thermal treatment.^{20,21} Further, the *asr* gene from *L. citreum* NRRL B-1355 was expressed in *E. coli*.²² The

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recombinant protein was shown to produce, from sucrose, a bimodal population of glucan, comprising a high molar mass (HMM) fraction of $1\,700\,000\text{ g}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$ as estimated by size exclusion chromatography and a low molar mass (LMM) fraction of $1300\text{ g}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$.¹¹ Sequences sharing more than 97% identity with *L. citreum* NRRL B-1355 ASR sequence are found at present in the genome of other *L. citreum* strains (LBAE C11, KM20, EFEL 2700, ABK-1), suggesting that ASR is widespread in these species (BLASTp analysis, data not shown). To date, only one other alternansucrase from *L. citreum* ABK-1 has been produced recombinantly and characterized.²³

Alternan polymer is more water soluble and less viscous than dextrans, making it a good substitute for Arabic gum.^{12,24} Nanoparticles and films were recently obtained with alternan produced by *L. citreum* ABK-1 alternansucrase, thereby opening up other potential applications in nanotechnology.²³ Moreover, ASR also catalyzes transglucosylation from sucrose to many different types of sugar acceptors—methyl- α -D-glucoside, maltose, maltodextrin, maltitol, isomaltooligosaccharides,²⁰ cellobiose,²⁵ melibiose, raffinose, gentiobiose, and lactose—and produces glucosylated products showing interesting prebiotic properties.^{26–28} Stevioside-glucosides showing promising noncarcinogenic and low-calorie properties were also synthesized.²⁹ Finally, ASR was also recently used to elongate amylose chains of DP 30 and create a linker between amylose and linear dextran, enabling the production of a triblock polymer using enzymatic technologies alone.³⁰

Sequence analysis revealed that ASR belongs to the GH70 family. The enzyme was predicted to adopt the same fold as the other glucansucrases and the same α -retaining mechanism involving the contribution of Asp635, Glu673, and Asp767. It was suggested that these amino acids play the role of, respectively, the nucleophile, acid/base catalyst, and transition state stabilizer (TSS) implicated in the formation of the β -D-glucosyl–enzyme intermediate.²² Unusual repeated sequences named “APY repeats” were identified at the C-terminal end of the protein.³¹ Their deletion in the mutant ASR C-APY-del (covering amino acids Met1 to Gly1425) did not impact the product profile¹¹ but significantly increased (5-fold) the enzyme half-life time at 50 °C compared to the entire ASR.³² A kinetic study conducted with ASR C-APY-del showed that both HMM and LMM alternan populations are formed in the early stage of the reaction, suggesting that ASR follows a semiprocessive mechanism of polymerization.¹⁴ In addition, a mutagenesis study of ASR C-APY-del highlighted the importance of the triplet ⁷⁶⁸YDA⁷⁷⁰ (downstream of the putative TSS stabilizer Asp767 and found solely in ASR) in linkage specificity.¹⁴ Replacement of this motif with the triplet SEV, which is characteristic of glucansucrase and highly specific to α -1,6 linkage synthesis, resulted in a variant synthesizing both oligoalternans and oligodextrans up to a degree of polymerization 4 (DP4) through successive glucosylations of the maltose acceptor. However, contrary to the wild-type ASR, the mutant was unable to further elongate the DP4 oligoalternan, which resulted in its accumulation. Only the oligodextrans were further elongated via α -1,6 linkage synthesis.

Despite the multiple attributes of alternansucrase from *L. citreum* NRRL B-1355—namely, (i) its thermal stability, (ii) its potential for the production of prebiotic compounds, glycoconjugates and new biomaterials, and (iii) the very unique specificity of this glucansucrase for alternating α -1,3

and α -1,6 linkage synthesis—information related to the structural determinants impacting linkage specificity and stability remains scarce. Here, we explore further the structure–function relationships of this enzyme and disclose the first X-ray three-dimensional structure of a GH70 alternansucrase. With 1278 residues, the new free 3D structure of ASR Δ 2 was obtained at 2.8 Å resolution. It is the largest GH70 enzyme structure solved so far. Structural analysis combined with mutagenesis studies and biochemical characterization enabled the identification of different features and amino acids exerting a critical role in stability, specificity, and ratio of LMM to HMM polymers.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Truncated Mutant Design and Construction. SignalP,³³ DisEMBL,³⁴ RONN,³⁵ and PSIPRED³⁶ web servers were used to design N-terminal truncations.

Genes of *asr*- Δ 2, *asr*- Δ 3, *asr*- Δ 4, and *asr*- Δ 5 were amplified by PCR using the *asr*-Cdel gene as a template, Phusion polymerase (NEB), and the following primers: *asr*- Δ 2 forward primer CAC-CGC-GGA-TAC-AAA-TTC-G, *asr*- Δ 3 forward primer CAC-CGG-TTT-TTG-GTA-TGA-TTC-AG, *asr*- Δ 4 forward primer CAC-CAT-CAC-TGG-GGG-TCA-C, *asr*- Δ 2/ Δ 3/ Δ 4 reverse primer CCC-TCG-AGA-CAT-AGT-CCC-ATC, *asr*- Δ 5 forward primer CAC-CCA-AAG-TAA-TGA-AAA-TAC-TCC, and *asr*- Δ 5 reverse primer CGC-ATC-TTT-ATT-CTG-CAA-CTG. A “CACC” sequence was added at the beginning of each forward primer for cloning in pENTR D-TOPO vector before being recombined in pET53-DEST vector (Gateway system, Thermo Fisher Scientific). The recombined product was transformed into competent *E. coli* TOP10 (Invitrogen). Each gene in the pENTR plasmid was verified by sequencing (GATC Biotech).

Production and Purification of Truncated Enzymes.

The *E. coli* BL21 DE3* strain was used for enzyme production. A preculture of transformed *E. coli* BL21 DE3* in LB medium supplemented with ampicillin $100\text{ }\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$ was used to inoculate a culture at an OD_{600 nm} of 0.05 in ZYM-5052 autoinducible medium³⁷ modified by supplementation with $100\text{ }\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$ ampicillin, 1% (w/v) α -lactose, and 1% (w/v) glycerol for pET53 enzyme production. After 26 h of growing at 21 °C, cells were harvested by centrifugation and resuspended in binding buffer containing 20 mM phosphate buffer, 20 mM imidazole (Merck Millipore), and 500 mM NaCl, pH 7.4 supplemented with EDTA-free antiprotease tablets (Roche). Cells were disrupted by sonication, and debris was removed by a centrifugation step at 45 000g for 30 min at 8 °C. Purification was performed with the AKTA Xpress system (GE Healthcare). Two-step purification was performed in a cold chamber at 8 °C using (i) a HisTrap HP 1 mL column (GE Healthcare) for the affinity step and (ii) a Superose12 16/60 (GE Healthcare) for the size exclusion step or a HiPrep desalting 26/10 column (GE Healthcare) for desalting. The size exclusion step was performed upstream of crystallization trials and differential scanning fluorimetry assays, and protein was eluted in MES buffer pH 6.5 at 30 mM with 100 mM NaCl and $0.05\text{ g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ CaCl₂. The desalting step was performed for biochemical characterization, for which protein was eluted in 50 mM sodium acetate buffer pH 5.75. Purified fractions were pooled together and concentrated using AmiconUltra-15 with a cutoff of 50 kDa to $10\text{--}15\text{ mg}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$. Purification was checked by SDS-Page electrophoresis using NuPAGE 3–8% Tris-Acetate protein gels (Invitrogen), and

protein concentration was assessed by spectroscopy at 280 nm using a NanoDrop instrument. The theoretical molecular weight and molar extinction coefficient of the enzyme were calculated using the ExPASy ProtParam tool (<https://web.expasy.org/protparam/>).

Mutagenesis Study. Mutants were constructed by inverse PCR using the pET53-*asr*- Δ 2 gene as a template, Phusion polymerase (NEB), and the primers described in Table S1. Following overnight *DpnI* (NEB) digestion, the PCR product was transformed into competent *E. coli* DH5 α and clones were selected on solid LB medium supplemented with ampicillin 100 $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$. Plasmids were extracted with the QIAGEN spin miniprep kit, and mutated *asr* genes were checked by sequencing (GATC Biotech). Mutants were produced and purified as described above.

Activity Measurement. Activity was determined in triplicate at 30 °C in a Thermomixer (Eppendorf) using the 3,5-dinitrosalicylic acid method.³⁸ Fifty millimolar sodium acetate buffer pH 5.75, 292 mM sucrose, and 0.05 $\text{mg}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$ of pure enzyme were used. One unit of activity is defined as the amount of enzyme that hydrolyzes 1 μmol of sucrose per minute. To evaluate the calcium effect, initial activity was measured with 3.4 mM calcium chloride, 5 mM EDTA, or without additives under the same conditions as above.

Enzymatic Reactions and Product Characterization. Polymer productions were performed using 1 $\text{U}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$ of pure enzyme with 292 mM sucrose in 50 mM NaAc buffer pH 5.75 at 30 °C over a period of 24 h. The products were analyzed using high-pressure size exclusion chromatography (HPSEC) with Shodex OH-Pak 805 and 802.5 columns in series in a 70 °C oven with a flow rate of 0.250 $\text{mL}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ connected to a RI detector. The eluent was 50 mM sodium acetate, 0.45 M sodium nitrate, and 1% (v/v) ethylene glycol. The ratios of HMM polymer to LMM polymer produced were calculated using the area of each peak divided by the sum of the areas. The same sample was analyzed in triplicate in HPSEC.

Acceptor reactions were set up in the presence of maltose (sucrose:maltose mass ratio 2:1) in the same conditions. The products were analyzed by high-pressure anion exchange chromatography with pulsed amperometric detection (HPAEC-PAD) using a CarboPac TM PA100 guard column upstream of a CarboPac TM PA100 analytical column (2 mm \times 250 mm) at a flow rate of 0.250 $\text{mL}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$. The eluents were A = 150 mM NaOH and B = 500 mM sodium acetate with 150 mM NaOH. Sugars were eluted with an increasing 0–60% gradient of eluent B for 30 min. Quantification was performed using standards of glucose and sucrose at 5, 10, 15, and 20 $\text{mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$. The hydrolysis percentage was calculated by dividing the final molar concentration of glucose by the initial molar concentration of sucrose. The degree of polymerization (DP) of the oligosaccharides produced was determined using HPAEC coupled with a simple quadrupole mass spectrometer (ISQ EC, Thermo Scientific), and sugars were eluted under the same conditions as above with a 0–30% gradient of eluent B for 45 min. A mass spectrometer fitted with an ESI ion source was used with the following parameters: collision-induced dissociation (CID) of 10 V, vaporizer temperature of 289 °C, ion transfer tube temperature of 300 °C, and source voltage of 3 kV in positive mode. The mass spectrometry range was m/z 100–1250 (maximum DP 7). To identify the peaks, an acceptor reaction was set up under the same conditions as above with the dextransucrase DSR-S vardel Δ 4N, which elongates maltose only through α -1,6 linkages. These peaks

correspond to oligodextran (OD) and only contain linear α -1,6 linkages joined to maltose. The ASR Δ 2 and DSR-S vardel Δ 4N oligosaccharides were coeluted to ensure peak attribution (Figure S1). The other main oligosaccharides obtained with the ASR Δ 2 reaction from maltose were named oligoaltarnan (OA) of DP3–6. Oligoaltarnans contain both α -1,6 and α -1,3 linkages, and their structure is well defined in the literature.^{20,39,40}

NMR samples were prepared by dissolving 10 mg of the total products from sucrose in 0.5 mL of D₂O. Deuterium oxide was used as the solvent, and sodium 2,2,3,3-tetradeuterio-3-trimethylsilylpropanoate (TSPD₄) was selected as the internal standard ($\delta^1\text{H} = 0$ ppm, $\delta^{13}\text{C} = 0$ ppm). ¹H and ¹³C NMR spectra were recorded on a Bruker Avance 500-MHz spectrometer operating at 500.13 MHz for ¹H NMR and 125.75 MHz for ¹³C using a 5 mm z-gradient TBI probe. The data were processed using TopSpin 3.0 software. 1D ¹H NMR spectra were acquired by using a zgpr pulse sequence (with water suppression). Spectra were performed at 298 K with no purification step for all mutants. The spectrum was performed at 343 K for the ASR Δ 2 altarnan polymer after purification with dialysis using 14 kDa cutoff cellulose dialysis tubing (Sigma-Aldrich) in water.

For the wild-type enzyme and all variants (truncated forms and single and double mutants), differential scanning fluorimetry was performed with 7 μM pure enzyme in 50 mM sodium acetate buffer pH 5.75 supplemented with 0.5 $\text{g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ of calcium chloride and 10 \times of SYPRO orange (Life Technologies). A ramp from 20 to 80 °C was applied with 0.3 °C increments on a C100 Thermal Cycler.

Crystallization and Data Collection. The initial conditions were screened using JCSG+ and PACT screens (QIAGEN). A Mosquito robot was used to make sitting drops by mixing 0.2 μL of enzyme solution with 0.2 μL of reservoir solution. The initial hits were reproduced, and diffraction-quality crystals of ASR Δ 2 appeared after 3 months at 12 °C using 17% (w/v) PEG 3350, NaNO₃ 0.5 M as a precipitant, and an enzyme concentration of 8 $\text{mg}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$ with the presence of 10 mM isomaltotetraose (IM6). The crystal was cryoprotected in the reservoir solution supplemented with 15% (v/v) ethylene glycol and cryocooled directly in liquid nitrogen. Diffraction data were collected on beamline ID30A-3 of the European Synchrotron Radiation Facility (Grenoble, France).

Structure Solution and Refinement. Images were integrated using XDS⁴¹ and converted to structure factors using CCP4 programs.⁴² The structure was solved by molecular replacement using PHASER and the N-terminally truncated DSR-M as a search model (SLFC). To complete the model, cycles of manual rebuilding using COOT were alternated with automatic rebuilding cycles using BUCCANEER and refined using REFMACS.⁴³ The final model was evaluated using the WHATIF⁴⁴ and MOLPROBITY⁴⁵ web servers and deposited in the PDB under the accession code 6HVG. To analyze the network of interactions in the structure, the RING⁴⁶ web server was used. Data collection and refinement statistics are shown in Table S2.

Structure Analysis, Manual, and Automated Docking. The ASR Δ 2 and DSR-M (5NGY) domain V structures were aligned to manually dock the isomaltotetraose into the putative sugar binding pocket V-A of ASR Δ 2. The ASR Δ 2 and GTF180 (3HZ3 or 3KLL) structures were aligned to manually dock the sucrose or the maltose into the active site of ASR Δ 2.

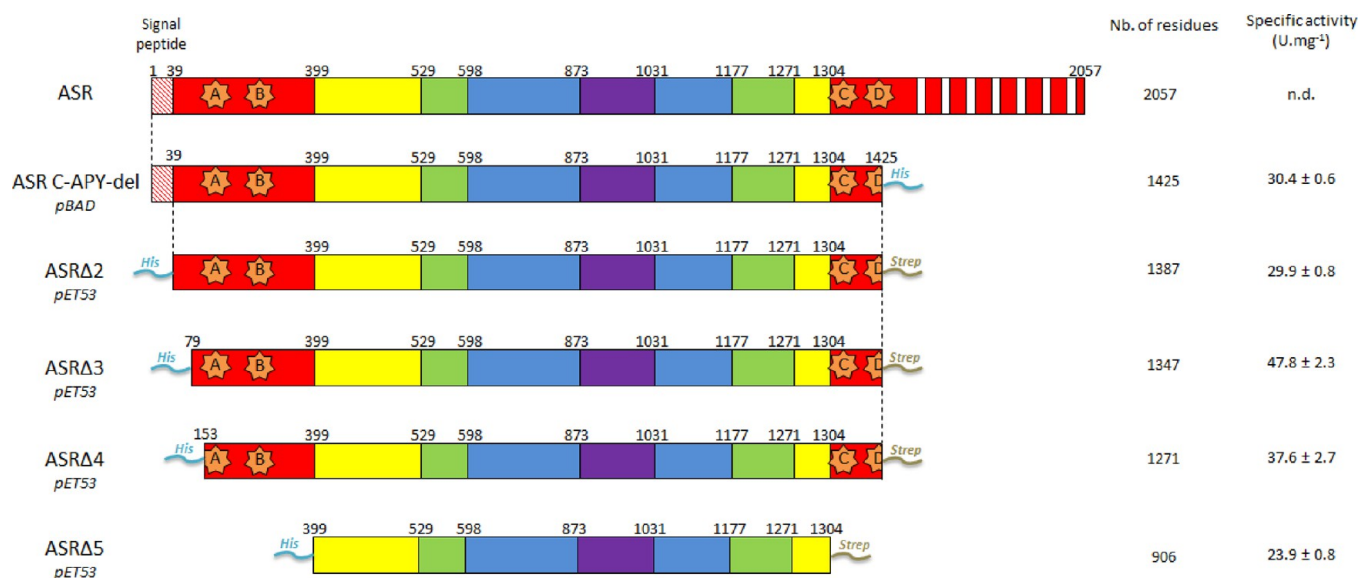


Figure 1. Schematic representation of the domain organization of ASR truncated mutants. Upper numbering corresponds to residues delimiting the different domains (red, domain V; yellow, domain IV; green, domain B; blue, domain A; purple, domain C) predicted by alignment with DSR-M.⁴⁸ White stripes represent APY repeats.¹¹ Stars A (147–221), B (234–304), C (1324–1398), and D (1399–1425) represent the putative glucan binding pockets. His, His-tag; Strep, Strep-tag. Specific activities were determined from 292 mM sucrose in 50 mM sodium acetate buffer pH 5.75 at 30 °C and with 0.05 mg·mL⁻¹ of pure enzyme.

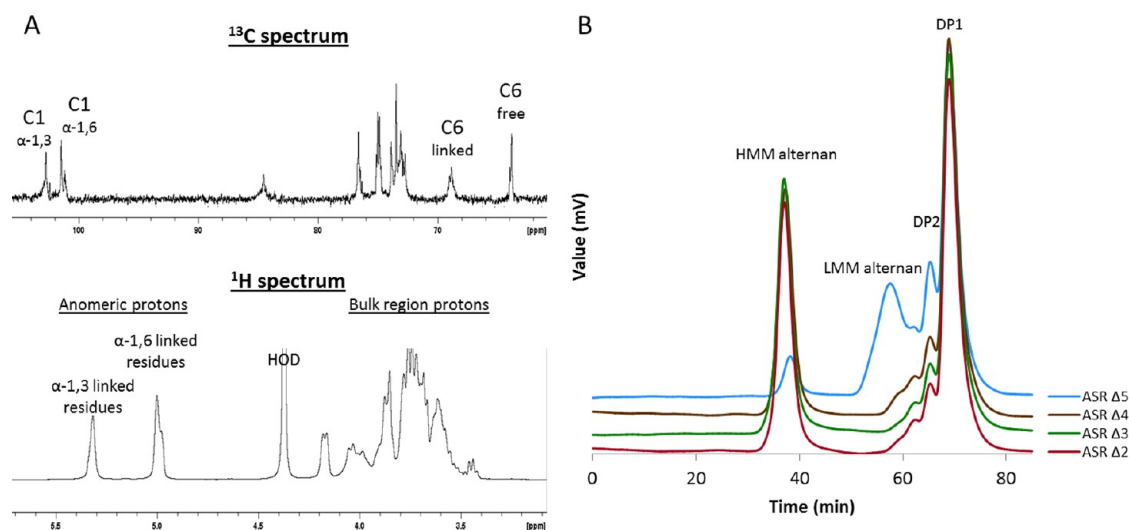


Figure 2. (A) ¹³C and ¹H NMR spectra of alternan produced by ASRΔ2. ¹³C spectrum: resonances at ~102 and ~101 ppm are attributed to the anomeric carbons involved in α-1,3 or α-1,6 linkages, respectively. At ~84.5 ppm, the signal is assigned to C-3 of a C3-substituted glucosyl unit. Resonance of the various C-2, C-3, C-4, and C-5 of the glucosyl units arises between 75 and 70 ppm. At ~68 and ~63 ppm, signals correspond to the C-6 of the C-6-substituted glucosyl and to a free C-6, respectively. ¹H spectrum: signals at 5.32 and 5 ppm are assigned to the anomeric proton of glucosyl residues involved in α-(1→3), 39.5%, or α-(1→6)-linkage, 60.5%, respectively. This result is in accordance with the values reported in the literature for alternan.^{8,11,15} (B) HPSEC chromatograms of truncated mutants. Reaction from sucrose at 30 °C with 1 U·mL⁻¹ of pure enzyme and sodium acetate buffer 50 mM pH 5.75.

For the docking calculations, a model of the ASRΔ2 glucosyl–enzyme intermediate was constructed based on the high-resolution structure of the GH13 covalent intermediate (PDB 1S46). Oligosaccharide structures were built using the Glycam server (Woods Group. (2005–2018) GLYCAM Web. Complex Carbohydrate Research Center, University of Georgia, Athens, GA. (<http://glycam.org>)). Receptor and ligand structures were prepared with Autodock Tools and docked using Vina-Carb.⁴⁷ Representative structures were selected from all of the resulting conformers to meet a distance criterion of ≤3.5 Å from the O3 or O6 hydroxyl groups of the

nonreducing terminal glucose to both the C1 atom of the glucosyl–enzyme intermediate and the side chain of the acid/base catalyst (E673).

RESULTS

Design and Characterization of Truncated Mutants.

As revealed by sequence alignment, ASR from *L. citreum* NRRL B-1355 is predicted to adopt the same fold as the other GSs comprising five domains A, B, C, IV, and V (Figure 1). To overcome the difficulties of recombinant ASR (Met1-Ala2057) and ASR-C-APY-del (Met1-Gly1425) crystallization, we

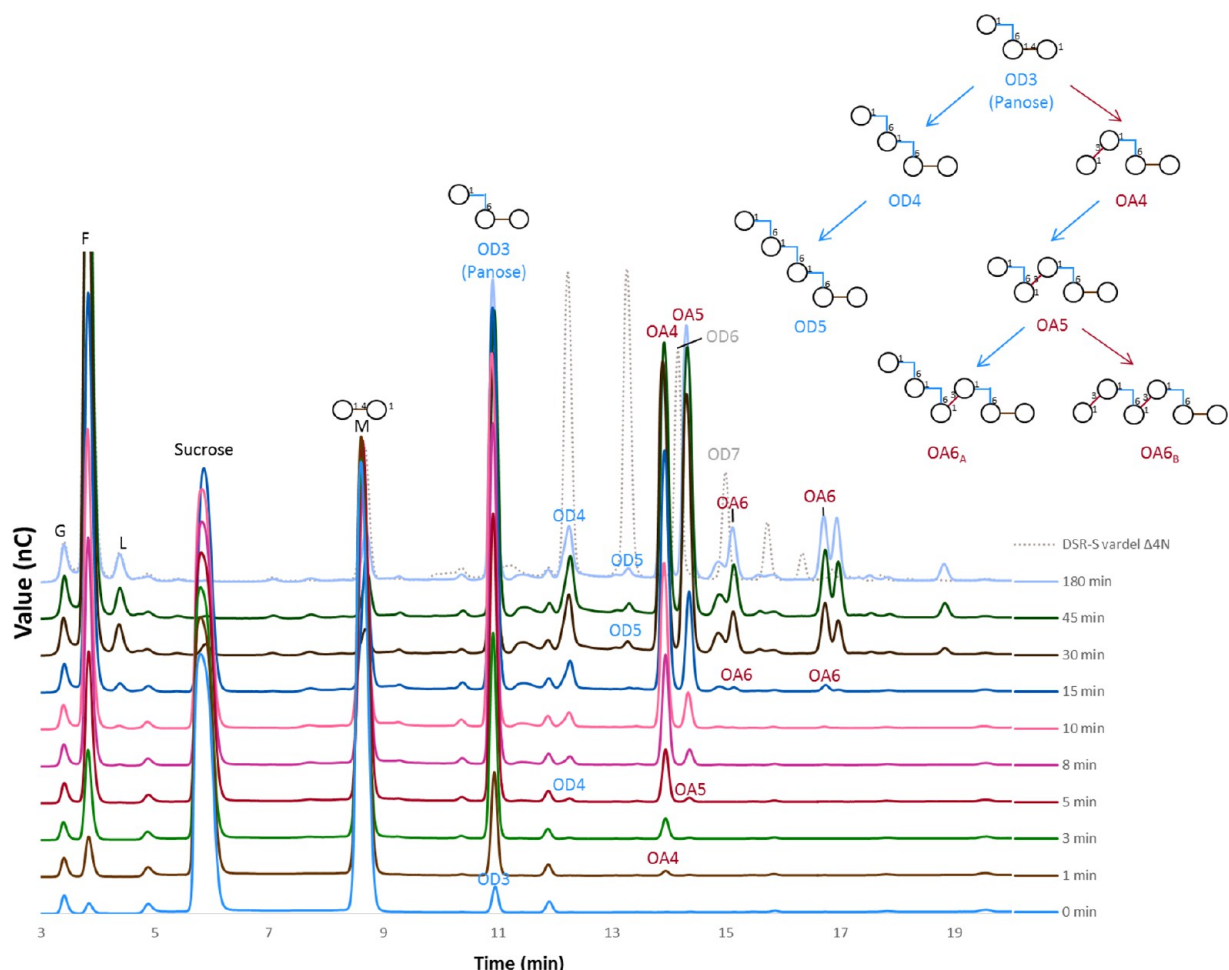


Figure 3. HPAEC monitoring of acceptor reaction of ASR Δ 2 on maltose and model of product formation from maltose for DP 3 to 6. Adapted with permission from ref 40. Copyright 2006 Elsevier. Reaction from 292 mM of sucrose and 146 mM of maltose with 50 mM sodium acetate buffer pH 5.75 and 1 U·mL⁻¹ of pure enzyme. G, glucose; F, fructose; L, leucrose; M, maltose; OD, oligodextran; OA, oligo-alternan.

constructed, produced, and purified several truncated forms: ASR Δ 2, ASR Δ 3, ASR Δ 4, and ASR Δ 5, deleted, respectively, of the signal peptide (Met1-His38), one predicted disordered region (Met1-Asp78), two predicted disordered regions (Met1-Pro152), and the entire domain V (Met1-Ser398 and Gln1305-Gly1425) (Figure 1).

The deletions did not severely compromise the specific activity of the truncated proteins. ¹H NMR and ¹³C NMR analysis of the purified polymer synthesized by ASR Δ 2 revealed the presence of 39.5% α -1,3 and 60.5% α -1,6 linkages (Figure 2A). ¹H NMR of the nonpurified glucans produced by the others variants were all similar (Figure S2). HPSEC analyses further showed that similar amounts of LMM and HMM polymers were produced with all of the truncated mutants except ASR Δ 5 (Figure 2B). Indeed, the deletion of domain V strongly affects the ability to synthesize HMM alternan, as only 4.5 \pm 0.2% of the glucosyl units from sucrose are incorporated into HMM polymer compared with 32.4 \pm 0.8% in the case of ASR Δ 2. The denaturation patterns of the variants, monitored using differential scanning fluorimetry (DSF), revealed two distinct transition temperatures for all of the variants, one around 37 °C and the other one around 55.0 °C. Such profiles are often encountered for multidomain enzymes. The melting temperatures (T_m) of ASR Δ 2, ASR Δ 3, and ASR Δ 4 are in the same range. The two melting

temperatures of ASR Δ 5 are slightly lower, suggesting that domain V of ASR might contribute to overall enzyme stability (Figure S3).

Oligosaccharide Synthesis from Maltose Acceptor Reaction.

An acceptor reaction with maltose, the best known acceptor for ASR, was carried out to ensure that the truncated mutants behaved in the same way as the full-length enzyme. First, acceptor reaction product formation was monitored using ASR Δ 2 (Figure 3). Our results are in alignment with those of Côté et al. obtained using the native ASR.⁴⁹ To summarize, maltose undergoes α -1,6 glucosylation alone to give the oligodextran of DP3 (OD3 panose, α -D-Glcp-(1 \rightarrow 6)- α -D-Glcp-(1 \rightarrow 4)-D-Glc), which can be further elongated at either the O6 or the O3 position of the nonreducing unit to give the structures OD4 (α -D-Glcp-(1 \rightarrow 6)- α -D-Glcp-(1 \rightarrow 6)- α -D-Glcp-(1 \rightarrow 4)-D-Glc) and OA4 (α -D-Glcp-(1 \rightarrow 3)- α -D-Glcp-(1 \rightarrow 6)- α -D-Glcp-(1 \rightarrow 4)-D-Glc), respectively. The oligosaccharide OA4 was quick to appear at the beginning of the reaction (1 min) and accumulated at a much higher level than OD4, indicating that panose is preferentially elongated with an α -1,3 linkage. Note that a very small peak of OD5 originating from OD4 only appeared toward the end of the reaction (~30 min) and was not elongated further (no OD6 was found). As soon as the OA4 starts to accumulate, it is efficiently converted to OA5 (α -D-Glcp-(1 \rightarrow 6)- α -D-Glcp-(1 \rightarrow 3)- α -D-Glcp-(1 \rightarrow 6)-

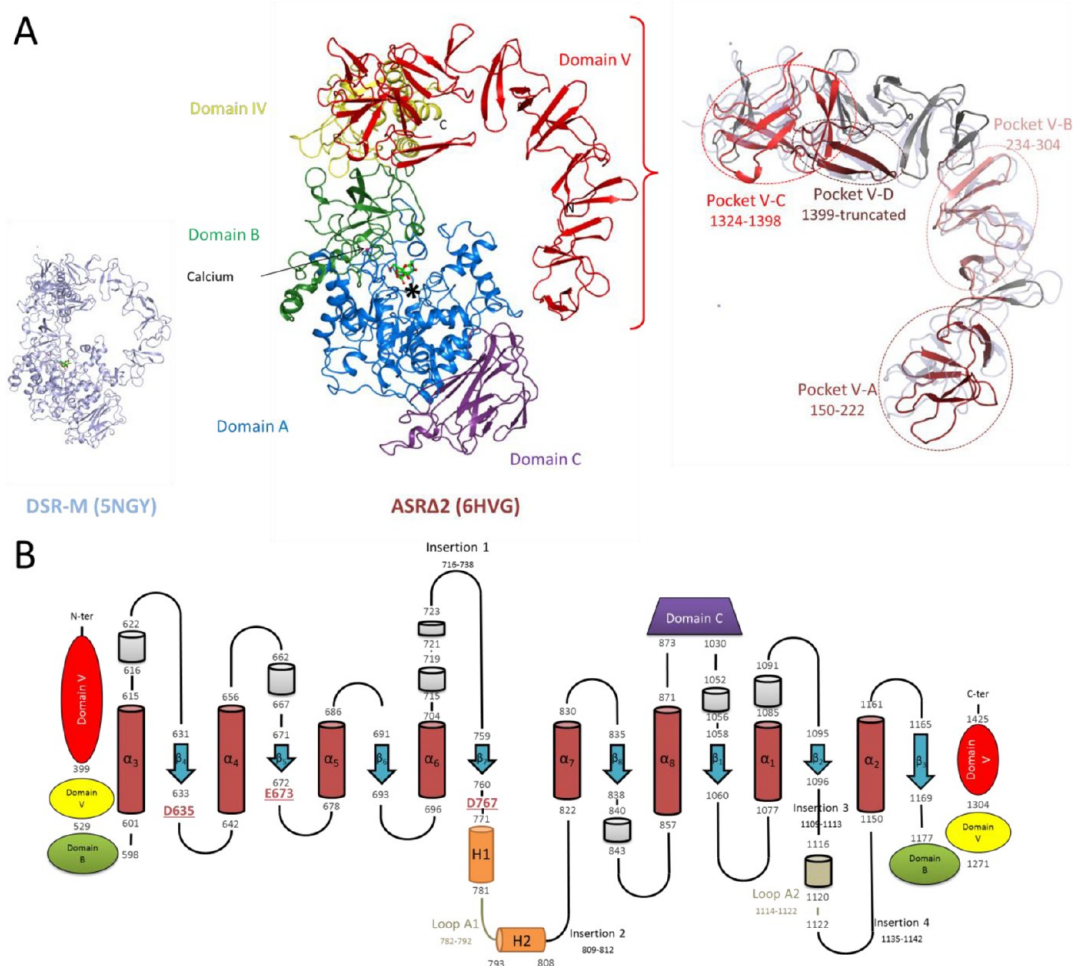


Figure 4. (A) Global view of the domain organization of ASRΔ2 (PDB ID 6HVG, chain A) versus DSR-M (PDB ID SNGY, chain A) and zoom on ASRΔ2 domain V with the putative sugar binding pockets (circled). Star, active site. Red, domain V (147–398 + 1304–1424); yellow, domain IV (399–528 + 1271–1303); green, domain B (529–597 + 1177–1270); blue, domain A (1031–1176 + 598–872); purple, domain C (873–1030). Sucrose (green) was manually docked from 3HZ3 complex. (B) Schematic representation of the structural elements of the catalytic barrel of ASR Cylinder, α -helix; arrow, β -sheet. Pink and cyan elements belong to the catalytic barrel. Orange, helices H1/H2. Residue underlined, catalytic residues.

α -D-Glcp-(1 \rightarrow 4)-D-Glc). The OA5 itself can act as an acceptor for the formation of two OA6s (α -D-Glcp-(1 \rightarrow 6)- α -D-Glcp-(1 \rightarrow 6)- α -D-Glcp-(1 \rightarrow 3)- α -D-Glcp-(1 \rightarrow 6)- α -D-Glcp-(1 \rightarrow 4)-D-Glc and α -D-Glcp-(1 \rightarrow 3)- α -D-Glcp-(1 \rightarrow 6)- α -D-Glcp-(1 \rightarrow 3)- α -D-Glcp-(1 \rightarrow 6)- α -D-Glcp-(1 \rightarrow 4)-D-Glc). Other products eluted at retention times close to those of OA6 were identified. They probably correspond to minor products of DP greater than DP6 and could not be determined using our LC/MS apparatus (Figure S4). All of the truncated mutants behaved exactly like ASRΔ2 (Figure S5).

Overall 3D Structure of ASRΔ2. After extensive crystallization trials, the 3D structure of the unliganded ASRΔ2 was solved by molecular replacement using the structure of DSR-M as a template⁴⁸ and refined at 2.8 Å resolution. We did not manage to reconstruct the entire N-terminal part of the enzyme due to the poor quality of the density map in this region. We subjected the crystals to Edman sequencing, which revealed protein degradation during the crystallization process. The crystallized fragment started at Thr145 instead of Ala38, thus being an intermediate between the ASRΔ3 and the ASRΔ4 constructions. The final model corresponds to the largest structure solved so far in the GH70

family and includes residues Ser147–Ser1423 for chain A and residues Gln248–Ser1423 for chain B, for which the electron density was less well resolved in the N-terminal region.

Like all of the other glucansucrases of solved 3D structure, ASRΔ2 comprises five distinct domains (A, B, C, IV, and V) in which domains A, B, IV, and V are made up by sequence fragments on either side of domain C (Figures 1 and 4A). This domain (Ser873–Gln1030) is composed of 10 β -sheets forming a Greek key motif.⁵⁰ Compared to the other glucansucrase structures, it also contains two insertions (882SSGKDLKDGE⁸⁹⁰ and 913QDNS⁹¹⁶) and one additional β -hairpin (Thr991 to Glu1005) (Figure S6). Overall, the β -strands are longer and ASR domain C displays a higher number of ionic, π - π stacking interactions and hydrophobic residues (Val, Leu, Ile, Phe) than its counterparts in the other GS structures (DSR-M, GTF-SI, GTF180, GTFA, and GBD-CD2).

ASRΔ2 adopts an overall “horseshoe shape” in which domain V (Ser147–Ser398 and Ala1304–Arg1424) is bending toward the catalytic domain as previously observed in DSR-M glucansucrase⁴⁸ (Figure 4A). This is not surprising as the two enzymes share 48% and 87% of their identity between the N-

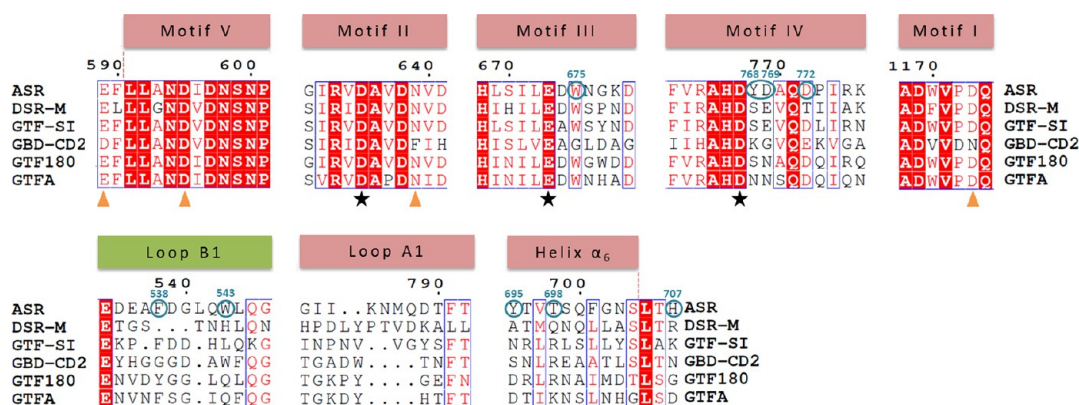


Figure 5. Partial alignment of sequences from available sucrose-active GH70 structures. Black star, catalytic residues. Orange triangle, calcium binding site (Glu589, Asp595, Asn639, and Asp1173). Cyan circled residues, residues targeted in this study. GenBank accession numbers, CAB65910.2 (ASR), CDX66895.1 (DSR-M), AAN58706.1 (GTF-SI), CDX66820.1 (GBD-CD2), AAU08001.1 (GTF180), AAU08015.1 (GTFA). Alignment created with ENDscript 2.⁵⁶ Structure-based sequence alignment is provided in Figure S9.

terminal and the C-terminal ends, respectively, of their domain V. This typical fold is due to the position of domain V relative to domain IV (Gln399-Asn528 and Gly1271-Asp1303) which is thought to act as a hinge between domain V and domains A/B, as previously proposed for the glucansucrases GTF180 and DSR-M.^{48,51} Notably, the ASR Δ 2 domain V shows repeated units composed of three consecutive β -hairpins with a hydrophobic core and many π - π stacking interactions reinforcing their packing (Figure S7).^{52,53} These super-secondary elements allow one to define four putative sugar binding pockets (named V-A, V-B, V-C, and V-D) in the global ASR sequence by sequence alignments and homology to the sugar binding pockets identified in DSR-E and DSR-M^{48,52} (Figure 4A).

ASR Δ 2 Catalytic Domain. The catalytic domain A of ASR Δ 2 is formed by a $(\beta/\alpha)_8$ barrel common to all enzymes of the GH-H clan, which also comprises the GH13 and GH77 families. Compared with the $(\beta/\alpha)_8$ barrel of the GH13 family, the barrel of ASR Δ 2 and of all other glucansucrases underwent a circular permutation occurring between strand β 3 and helix α 3 (Figure 4B). Consequently, the conserved and signature motifs I–IV are not placed in the same order along the sequence in the GH70 glucansucrases compared to those of GH13 family enzymes, motif I being downstream of motif II to IV in the sequences in the GH70 glucansucrases (Figure 5).⁵⁴ A manual docking of sucrose in ASR Δ 2 was performed using the GTF180:sucrose complex (PDB ID 3HZ3). The residues defining subsites -1 and $+1$ of ASR Δ 2 and GTF180 (according to the subsite nomenclature proposed by Davies et al.⁵⁵) and in interactions with the glucosyl and the fructosyl ring of sucrose, respectively, were similar. They were well aligned with a RMSD of 0.33 Å and confirmed that the catalytic residues of ASR Δ 2 are Asp635, Glu673, and Asp767 (Figure S8).⁵³ Compared to DSR-M and GTF180, domain A of ASR Δ 2 (Asn598-Val872 and Asp1031-Tyr1176) displays several insertions in the loops emerging between (i) α -helix 6 and β -strand 7 (insertion 1, Trp716-Arg738), (ii) β -strand 7 and α -helix 7 (insertion 2, ⁸⁰⁹NPSG⁸¹²), and (iii) β -strand 2 and α -helix 2 (insertion 3, ¹¹⁰⁹NYGGM¹¹¹³; insertion 4, ¹¹³⁵NKADGNPN¹¹⁴²) (Figures 4B and 6A).

A calcium ion is present at the interface between domain A and B in interaction with Glu589, Asp595 (motif V), Asp1173 (motif I), and Asn639 (motif II) (Figure 5), similar to the situation already described for GTF180.⁵³ The effect of

calcium on ASR Δ 2 was investigated by comparing the specific activities obtained without calcium ion addition and in the presence of 3.4 mM calcium chloride or with 5 mM EDTA. The values were 29.9 ± 1.0 , 33.6 ± 2.6 , and 29.5 ± 1.0 U·mg⁻¹, respectively, indicating that calcium ions do not significantly activate the enzyme as previously reported for the ASR of *L. citreum* ABK-1, for which a 1.2-fold increase in activity was observed in the presence of 10 mM calcium chloride at 40 °C pH 5.²³ However, the absence of calcium influenced the enzyme denaturation profile during DSF experiments and led to an almost complete elimination of the higher transition at 55 °C (Figure S3).

All of the secondary structural elements of the barrel superpose well with those of the other GH70 structures solved so far, except the α -helix H1 (Gln771-His781) and α -helix H2 (Phe793-Glu808) between β -strand 7 and α -helix 7, for which we observed the largest deviation. This could be due to rearrangements triggered by the presence or absence of ligand in the active site, as shown for DSR-M,⁴⁸ and/or to the flexibility of this region. Indeed, the H1/H2 (Gln771-Glu808) helices present a relatively high B-factor with an average of 66.4 Å² compared to 56.4 Å² for domain A.

Focusing on the Catalytic Core To Investigate Linkage Specificity and HMM Polymer formation. Two different zones surrounding the sucrose molecule in the model of ASR Δ 2:Sucrose complex drew our attention (Figure 6B). The first, zone 1, comprises **Trp675**, **Tyr695**, **Thr698**, **His707**, **Tyr768**, and **Asp769**. Trp675 is a conserved residue (in motif III), located between subsites $+1$ and $+2$ (Figure 6B, Figure S8). The other four residues are in the proximity of Trp675. In particular, Tyr768 and Asp769 form part of the triplet ⁷⁶⁸YDA⁷⁷⁰ (in motif IV following the TSS), which is unique to alternansucrases and is replaced by the triplet SEV in most dextransucrases (DSR-S) and mutansucrases (GTF-I) or by the triplet NNS in reuteransucrases (GTFA). The second region of interest, zone 2, is located on the opposite side of zone 1 (Figure 6B) and comprises residues that could define a path to the sucrose binding site including **Trp543**, **Asp772**, and **Phe538**. The Trp543 residue is unique to ASR Δ 2 and located in a small α -helix (Leu541-Gln545) of loop B1 (Glu534-Gly548). Behind this residue, Phe538 is not strictly conserved in glucansucrases. Finally, Asp772 in α -helix H1 is facing Trp543 and points toward the active site. A total of nine positions were selected and mutated to examine their role in

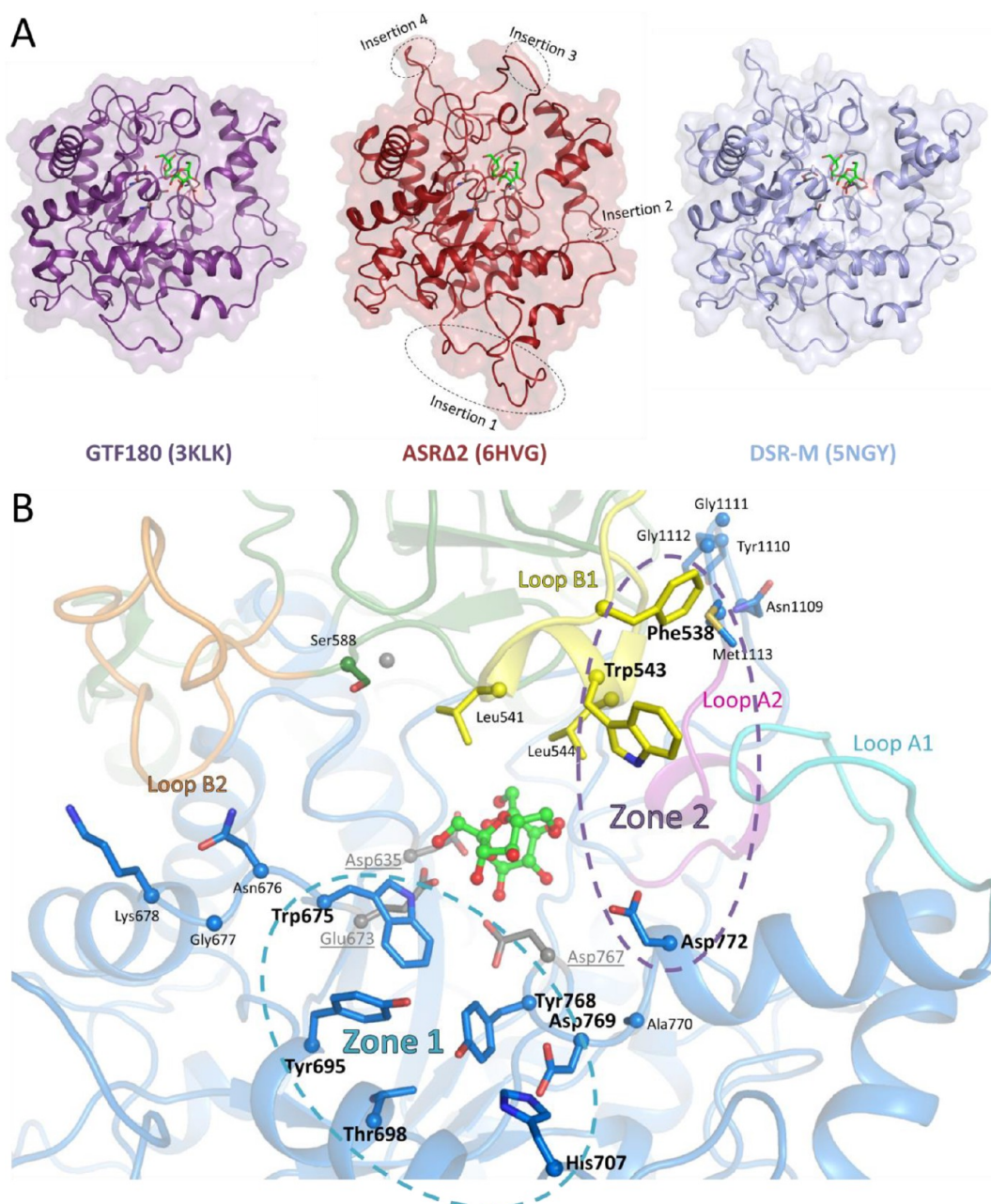


Figure 6. (A) View of the insertions in domain A of ASR Δ 2 compared to GTF180 and DSR-M. Only domain A is shown. Insertion 1: 716–738. Insertion 2: 809–812. Insertion 3: 1109–1113. Insertion 4: 1135–1142. (B) View of the catalytic site and loop positioning in ASR Δ 2. Residues targeted are in bold. Catalytic residues are underlined in gray. Loop A1: 782–792. Loop A2: 1114–1122. Loop B1: 534–546. Loop B2: 570–587. Navy blue: domain A. Forest: domain B. Gray sphere: calcium. Green: sucrose (docked from 3HZ3).

specific activity, linkage specificity, stability, or ability to synthesize HMM polymer (Figure 6B). The results are shown in Table 1.

Mutations in Zone 1: Impact on Specificity and HMM Polymer Synthesis. Trp675 was swapped with Ala, Phe, Tyr, or His residues. All of the mutants were impacted in their specific activity, in particular, the Ala and His mutants (10% and 2.6% residual activity). Except for Trp675Phe, all of them produced much lower amounts of HMM polymer and higher amounts of glucose, showing that the mutation favored the hydrolysis reaction (Figure 7A). Mutation Trp675Phe was highly detrimental to the enzyme's stability, as reflected by a ΔT_m of -17 °C compared to the wild type. Overall, the linkage specificity was not affected by the mutations at this position,

suggesting that this zone does not contribute to α -1,3 glucosylation. Indeed, the Trp675Ala mutation did not disfavor the formation of OA4 (Figure S10).

Mutants Tyr695Ala, Thr698Ala, and His707Ala synthesized equivalent amounts of HMM polymer and α -1,3 linkages to the wild type. Individually, these positions do not seem to be highly critical for polymer elongation and linkage specificity. Considering the tyrosine 768 of YDA motif though, our results indicate that it is different. Replacing Tyr768 with a Phe results in an enzyme that acts similarly to the parental enzyme, with the main function of the Tyr residue probably being maintained. In contrast, the Tyr768Ala mutant as well as the Tyr695Ala-Tyr768Ala double mutant induce a slight increase in α -1,6 linkage synthesis (+6% and 8%, respectively),

Table 1. Biochemical Data on Mutants from the Catalytic Site^a

	localization	residual specific activity (%)	ΔT_m with the wild-type enzyme (°C)	α -1,3 linkages (%; NMR) ^b	α -1,6 linkages (%; NMR) ^b	HMM polymer (%; HPSEC area)	hydrolysis (%)
wild type							
ASR Δ 2 WT		100 \pm 3.3	0	35	65	32.4 \pm 0.8	4.4 \pm 0.5
zone 1							
ASR Δ 2 W675A	motif III second residue downstream of the acid/base	10.0 \pm 0.77	-3.3	31	69	5.7 \pm 0.3	44.9
ASR Δ 2 W675F		32.4 \pm 0.54	-16.8	39	61	31.0 \pm 0.2	4.8
ASR Δ 2 W675Y		35.1 \pm 1.2	-1.8	28	72	8.6 \pm 0.2	6.1
ASR Δ 2 W675H		2.6 \pm 0.06	-2.6	39	61	11.3 \pm 0.2	12.3
ASR Δ 2 H707 ^c A	helix α_6	120.4 \pm 9.0	-0.1	35	65	34.1 \pm 0.3	4.3
ASR Δ 2 T698 ^c A		85.3 \pm 0.67	-2.1	36	64	34.5 \pm 0.2	4.4
ASR Δ 2 Y695 ^c A		61.9 \pm 2.5	0.8	33	67	27.3 \pm 0.1	5.2
ASR Δ 2 Y768 ^c A	motif IV "YDA" sequence downstream of the TSS	54.2 \pm 2.9	-1.9	29	71	21.0 \pm 0.1	6.5
ASR Δ 2 Y768 ^c F		110.4 \pm 2.5	0.4	35	65	33.6 \pm 0.2	6.1
ASR Δ 2 Y768 ^c W		52.8 \pm 1.6	-0.8	29	71	11.9 \pm 0.2	5.2
ASR Δ 2 D769 ^c A		110.4 \pm 2.0	-0.8	29	71	26.0 \pm 0.2	5.8
ASR Δ 2 Y695 ^c A + Y768 ^c A		67.2 \pm 3.0	-0.3	27	73	18.3 \pm 0.04	6.1
zone 2							
ASR Δ 2 F538A	loop B1	95.3 \pm 5.4	-4.7	37	63	31.9 \pm 0.2	4.5
ASR Δ 2 W543 ^c A		78.5 \pm 7.7	1.3	24	76	14.8 \pm 0.1	7.2
ASR Δ 2 D772A	helix H1	36.5 \pm 2.5	0.4	5	95	3.2 \pm 0.1	5.1
ASR Δ 2 D772E		71.9 \pm 5.7	-1.8	7	93	10.9 \pm 0.1	5.4
ASR Δ 2 D772Y		36.1 \pm 1.7	0	6	94	3.9 \pm 0.1	5.1
ASR Δ 2 W543 ^c A + D772A		63.9 \pm 2.6	0	6	94	2.1 \pm 0.04	5.4

^aReaction from sucrose only at 30°C with 1 U·mL⁻¹ of pure enzyme and sodium acetate buffer 50 mM pH 5.75. ^bNMR was performed on crude reaction medium. ^cResidues specific to alternansucrases. Specific activity of ASR Δ 2: 29.9 \pm 1.0 U·mg⁻¹. Four different wildtypes ASR Δ 2 were characterized. Specific activity was determined in triplicate for the same sample. T_m was determined by DSF.

suggesting that this zone might have a subtle but specific role in the formation of the α -1,6 linkages, also observed in the increased formation of OD oligosaccharides (oligodextran series) compared with the wild-type enzyme (Figure 8). HMM polymer formation decreases from 33% for the wild type to 20% and 12% for the Tyr768Ala and Tyr768Trp mutants, respectively.

Mutations in Zone 2: Impact on Specificity and HMM Polymer Synthesis. The most spectacular effect concerns the mutations introduced at position 772 of helix H1 and to a lesser extent at position 543 of loop B1 (Figure 7B). The specific activity values of mutants Asp772 Ala/Glu/Tyr decreased, representing 36.5%, 71.9%, and 36.1% of that of the wild-type enzyme, respectively. They all produced much lower quantities of HMM polymer, although the hydrolysis activity is almost unchanged compared to wild-type ASR Δ 2. The synthesis of α -1,6-linked oligomers is clearly favored, and the ability to synthesize α -1,3 linkages is almost lost (5%). In comparison, mutant Trp543Ala followed the same trend, even if the reduction of α -1,3 linkage synthesis and the impact on HMM polymer formation is less dramatic. The Trp543Ala-Asp772Ala double mutant behaves like the Asp772 single mutant, suggesting that the most important residue for α -1,3 glucosylation is Asp772. Finally, mutant Phe538Ala acts similarly to the wild type. The HPAEC chromatograms of the products of the maltose acceptor reaction also shed similar light. All of the Asp772 mutants produce more OD oligosaccharides than the wild type. To illustrate, in Figure 8 we provide the most striking chromatographic profiles of the

Tyr768Ala mutant and the Asp772Ala-Trp543Ala double mutant. Remarkably, it can be seen that the double mutant is even able to produce a small amount of OD6.

DISCUSSION

Alternansucrase from *L. citreum* B-1355 has always been regarded as an intriguing glucansucrase, first because of its unusual ability to synthesize alternating α -1,3 and α -1,6 in the polymer chain and also because of its thermal stability. By solving the structure of this enzyme, we intended to bring new insights into the structural determinants influencing those highly unusual traits.

Contribution of Different Structural Features Influencing ASR Stability. The X-ray structure of ASR Δ 2 is typical of GH70 glucansucrases. Its closest counterpart, in terms of sequence and 3D structure similarities, is DSR-M, which also exhibits a horseshoe shape with a domain V in close proximity to the catalytic domain A/B. The stability of the entire edifice is clearly enhanced by calcium coordination that likely reinforces the interaction between domains A and B. Domain V is another contributor to stability as ASR Δ 5 is the least stable enzyme of the truncated forms generated in our study. Although it is counterintuitive, the insertions (1–4) increasing the length of several loops on the enzyme surface could also contribute to enzyme stability. Indeed, it is generally thought that long loops in proteins decrease stability by increasing local flexibility and propensity to aggregate.⁵⁷ In ASR Δ 2, the shape of these loops may prevent solvent penetration. Insertion 3 belonging to domain A

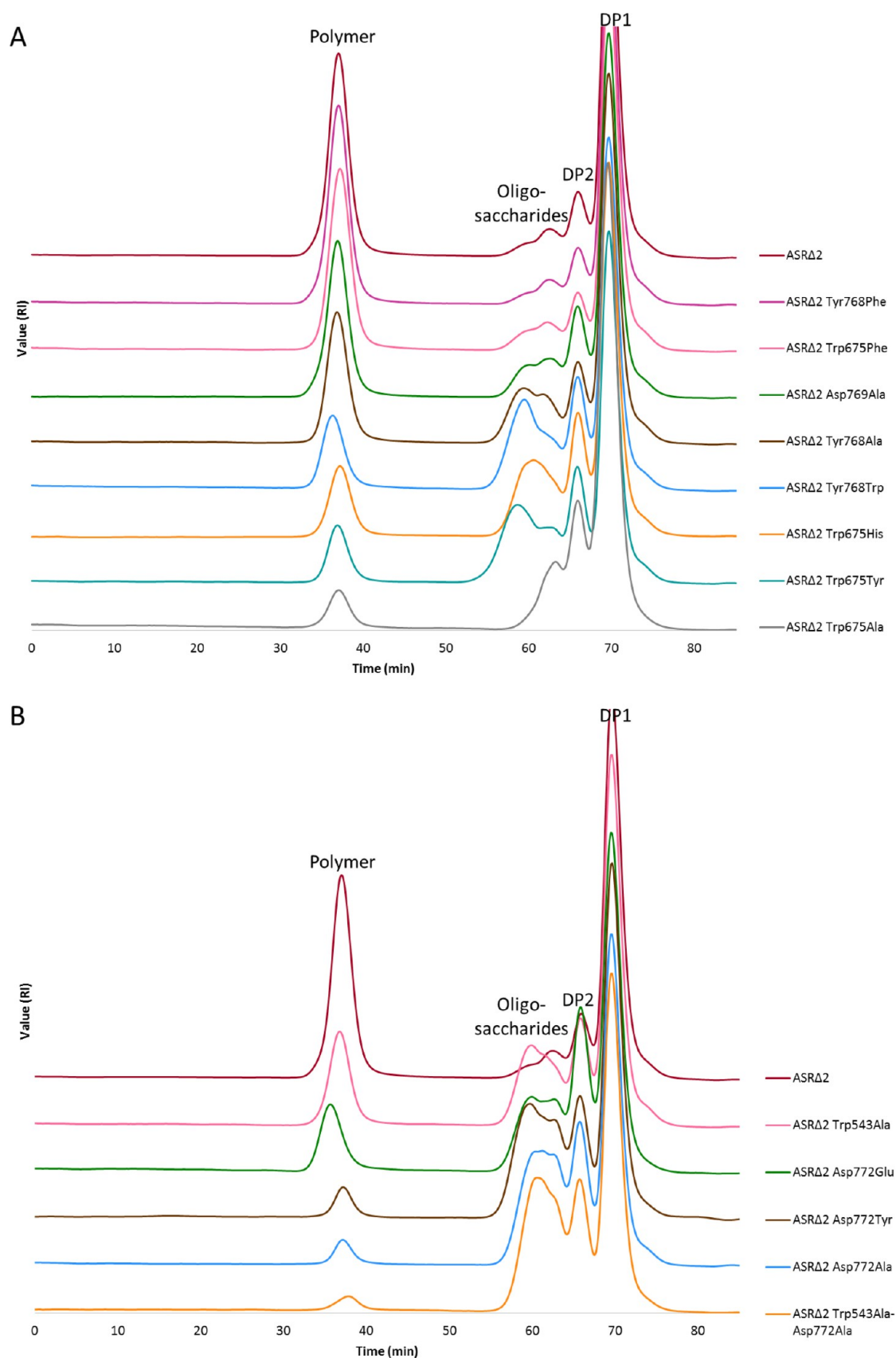


Figure 7. (A) HPSEC chromatogram of zone 1 mutants. Mutants with slight effect are not depicted (Tyr695Ala, Tyr695Ala-Tyr768Ala, His707Ala, Thr698Ala). (B) HPSEC chromatogram of zone 2 mutants.

(¹¹⁰⁹NYGGM¹¹¹³) appears ideally located to protect some of the residues underneath that form the side wall of the catalytic

pocket (Tyr1176, Leu592) (Figure 6B). Finally, the domain C of ASRΔ2 displays structural features (longer β -strands, higher

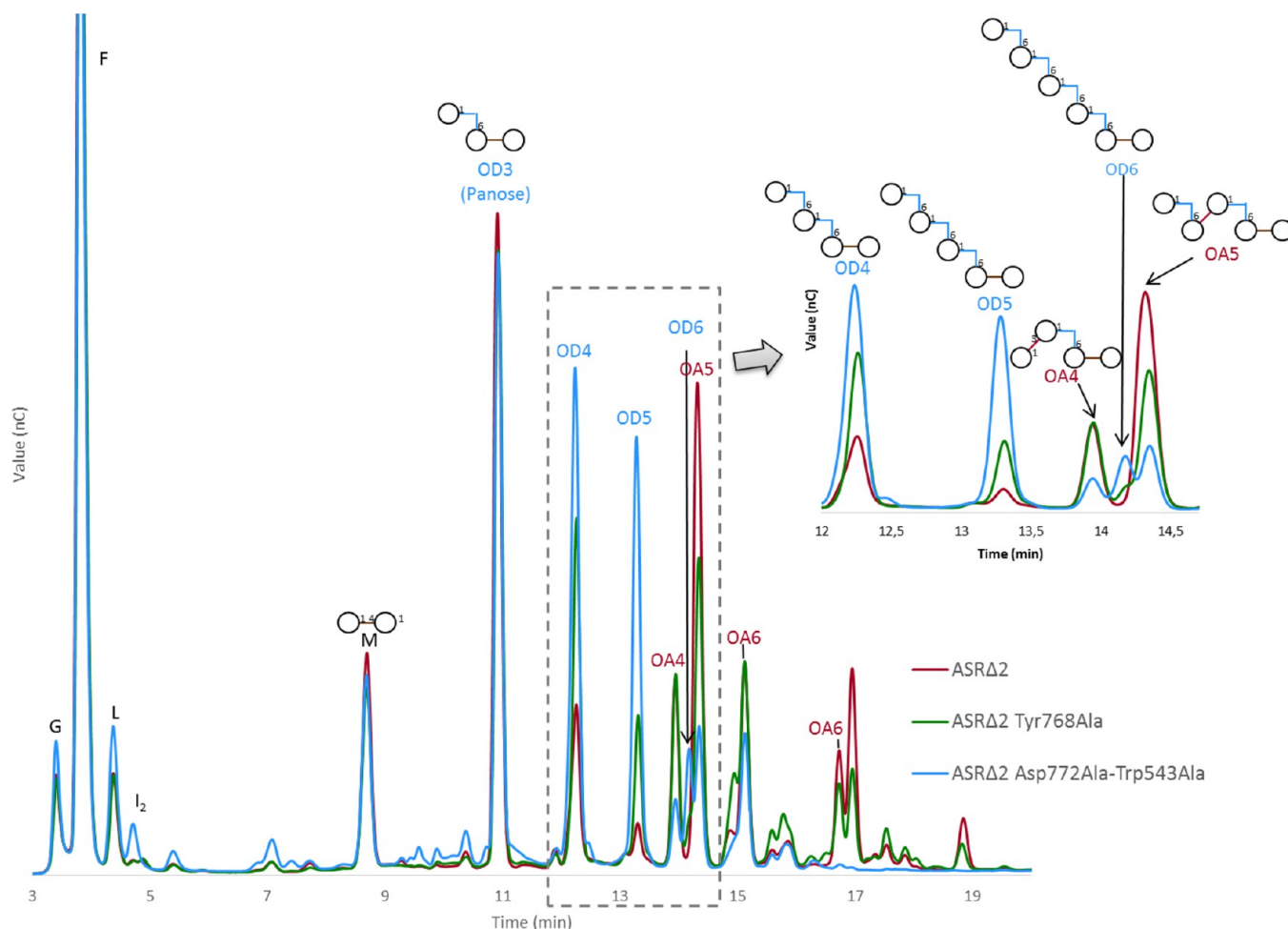


Figure 8. HPAEC chromatogram of ASR Δ 2 compared to mutant Tyr768Ala and double-mutant Asp772Ala-Trp543Ala. Reaction from 292 mM sucrose and 146 mM maltose with 50 mM sodium acetate buffer pH 5.75 and 1 U·mL⁻¹ of pure enzyme. G: Glucose. F: Fructose. L: Leucrose. M: Maltose. OD: Oligodextran. OA: Oligo-alternan of different DP.

number of hydrophobic residues, π - π stacking, and ionic interactions) that could reinforce its role of “pedestal” at the bottom of the U-shaped fold and provide a contribution to enzyme stability. This warrants further investigation.

HMM Alternan Formation Is Controlled by Catalytic Core Residues and by Domain V. The Trp675 residue belonging to zone 1 is important for the formation of HMM alternan synthesis. It provides a critical stacking platform defining subsite +2 and accommodates sugar acceptors as previously suggested for Trp1065, the corresponding residue in GTF180. Indeed, 10 mutants of Trp1065 were shown, in GTF180, to totally lose their ability to synthesize HMM polymer. Only the mutant Trp1065Phe still produced HMM polymer but in very small amounts (just 2.2% compared with 16.5% for wild-type GTF180).⁵⁸ In ASR Δ 2, the Trp675Phe mutation was much less detrimental to HMM polymer formation than in GTF180. Overall, and even though the number of α -1,3 linkages obtained with mutant Trp675Tyr decreases slightly, mutation of Trp675 does not greatly impact enzyme linkage specificity. However, the factor with greatest influence on HMM alternan formation seems to be the presence of domain V as the ASR Δ 5 truncated form produces very small amounts of polymer. We can submit that the putative sugar binding pockets identified contribute to polymer

elongation as proposed for DSR-M.⁴⁸ Future biochemical studies should confirm the functionalities of these pockets.

Understanding α -1,6 Linkage Specificity through the Recognition of Different DP2 Acceptors. To gain a better understanding of the efficiency of maltose, nigerose, and isomaltose as acceptors, here ranked in decreasing order of efficiency,^{20,39} we docked each disaccharide in the ASR active site (Figure 9). The superposition of the GTF180-maltose complex on ASR Δ 2 (Figure 9A) shows that the site formed by Asn639 and Trp675 is perfectly conserved and the maltose O6 hydroxyl (at the nonreducing end) is oriented toward the covalent intermediate, thus indicating that the mechanism already proposed for GTF180⁵³ to explain the α -1,6 specificity is very likely to operate for ASR. This is in alignment with previous observations^{20,39} and with our own observations that, starting from maltose, only panose can be formed (Figure 8). Interestingly, our docking simulation found a binding pose for nigerose (Figure 9B) that closely mimics the GTF180 maltose complex, thus confirming that nigerose is also a good acceptor and can be efficiently elongated with an α -1,6 linkage from this subsite. In contrast, the docking failed to identify a similar binding pose for isomaltose (IM2) in this subsite. If we assume that the stacking interaction with Trp675 is a requisite for acceptor binding, the lack of a binding pose may be explained by the presence of the bulky Tyr768 next to the Trp675, which

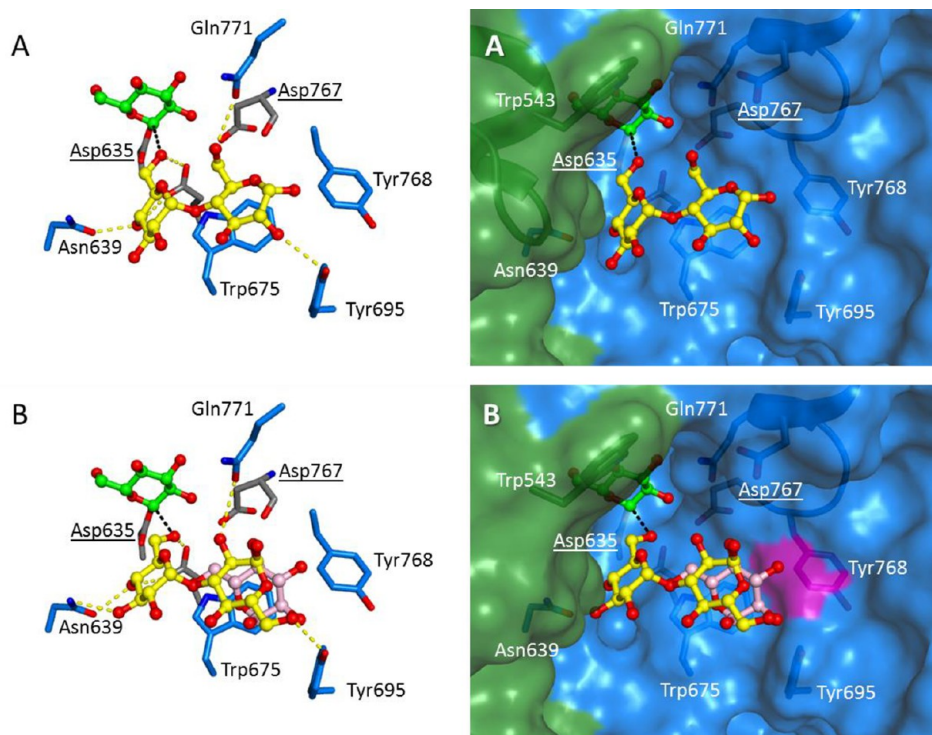


Figure 9. (A) Maltose from GTF180 (3kl1) manually superposed on the catalytic cleft of the ASR. (B) Nigerose is docked automatically (yellow), and isomaltose is manually superposed (light pink) to illustrate the steric clash with Tyr768 (magenta). Two different representations are shown: catalytic triad is colored in gray, and covalent intermediate is colored green. Direction of attack of the acceptor is indicated by a dashed black line, and all possible polar contacts are shown by dashed yellow lines.

could lower the affinity of this site for IM2. This hypothesis is confirmed by the Tyr768Ala mutant, which indeed produces higher amounts of oligodextrans from the maltose acceptor reaction (Figure 8), suggesting that the Tyr768Ala mutation has opened the way for the accommodation and synthesis of α -1,6 isomaltooligosaccharides. Also, in accordance with this suggestion, the content of α -1,6 linkage in HMM glucan also increased by 6% for this mutant and by 8% for the Tyr768Ala-Tyr695Ala double mutant. All of our data are indeed in accordance with the previous finding that isomaltose is not as good an acceptor as nigerose and maltose.^{20,39} Moreover, comparison of ASR with GTF180 and DSR-M (both being more specific for α -1,6 linkage synthesis) shows that Tyr768 is replaced by a serine. Furthermore, in both GTF180 and DSR-M a second Trp residue is present in close proximity to the first stacking tryptophan. Given the importance of carbohydrate–aromatic interactions, we could hypothesize that this additional Trp might form an extended binding platform, not therefore present in the ASR, for oligosaccharide binding in this area (Figure 10).

Control of α -1,3 Linkage Introduction Is Mediated by Another Subsite. If we assume that only α -1,6 glucosylation is possible from the first acceptor site (Asn639, Trp675), another mechanism should occur in a different location in the catalytic cleft that could explain the α -1,3 glucosylation. Indeed, the mutations operated in zone 2 and particularly on Asp772 and Trp543 led to a drastic decrease in α -1,3 linkage formation in both the HMM polymer obtained from sucrose and the oligosaccharides formed by the acceptor reaction with maltose. The phenomenon was more severe for mutation on Asp772. To investigate this possibility, we performed docking of α -D-Glcp-(1 \rightarrow 6)- α -D-Glcp-(1 \rightarrow 3)-D-Glc and isomaltotriose

(IM3) into the catalytic cleft of ASR with the aim of identifying the best poses that oriented the O3 hydroxyl of the nonreducing glucosyl at a distance conducive to nucleophilic attack on the covalent intermediate. For IM3, the most representative acceptor pose is ensured as a result of interaction of the O6 of nonreducing terminal glucosyl with Asn639 and Glu673 (the acid/base), Asp767 (the transition state stabilizer), the middle glucosyl ring with Gln771, and Asp772 (defining +2' subsite), further reinforced by a stacking interaction with Trp543 (defining +3' subsite) (Figure 11A). On the basis of this mode of interaction we can submit that Trp543 has a role in capturing the acceptors, bringing them into the proximity of the active site (elongation mainly affected by mutation on Trp543), while the correct positioning of the acceptor is ensured by Asp772 and a network of interactions (Figure 11). A very similar positioning is obtained for α -D-Glcp-(1 \rightarrow 6)- α -D-Glcp-(1 \rightarrow 3)-D-Glc, showing that acceptors with alternated linkages are accommodated well in subsite +2' (Figure 11B). It is noteworthy that our mutation Asp772Glu has the same global effect on linkage specificity as an Ala substitution (near-complete loss of α -1,3). Only an Asp side chain, which is shorter and less flexible than a Glu side chain, can control this very precise accommodation leading to α -1,3 glucosylation.

Interestingly, Asp772 is conserved in 18 out of 63 sequences of biochemically characterized GH70 enzymes and essentially in enzymes synthesizing polymers mainly composed of α -1,3 linkages in their linear chains of insoluble α -1,3-linked mutant type. In most of the other sequences, a Thr is found at this position. Replacement of this aspartate with a Thr in mutant Asp567Thr GtfB from *S. mutans* GSS or Asp569Thr GTF-I from *S. downei* MFe28 resulted in an increase in soluble glucan

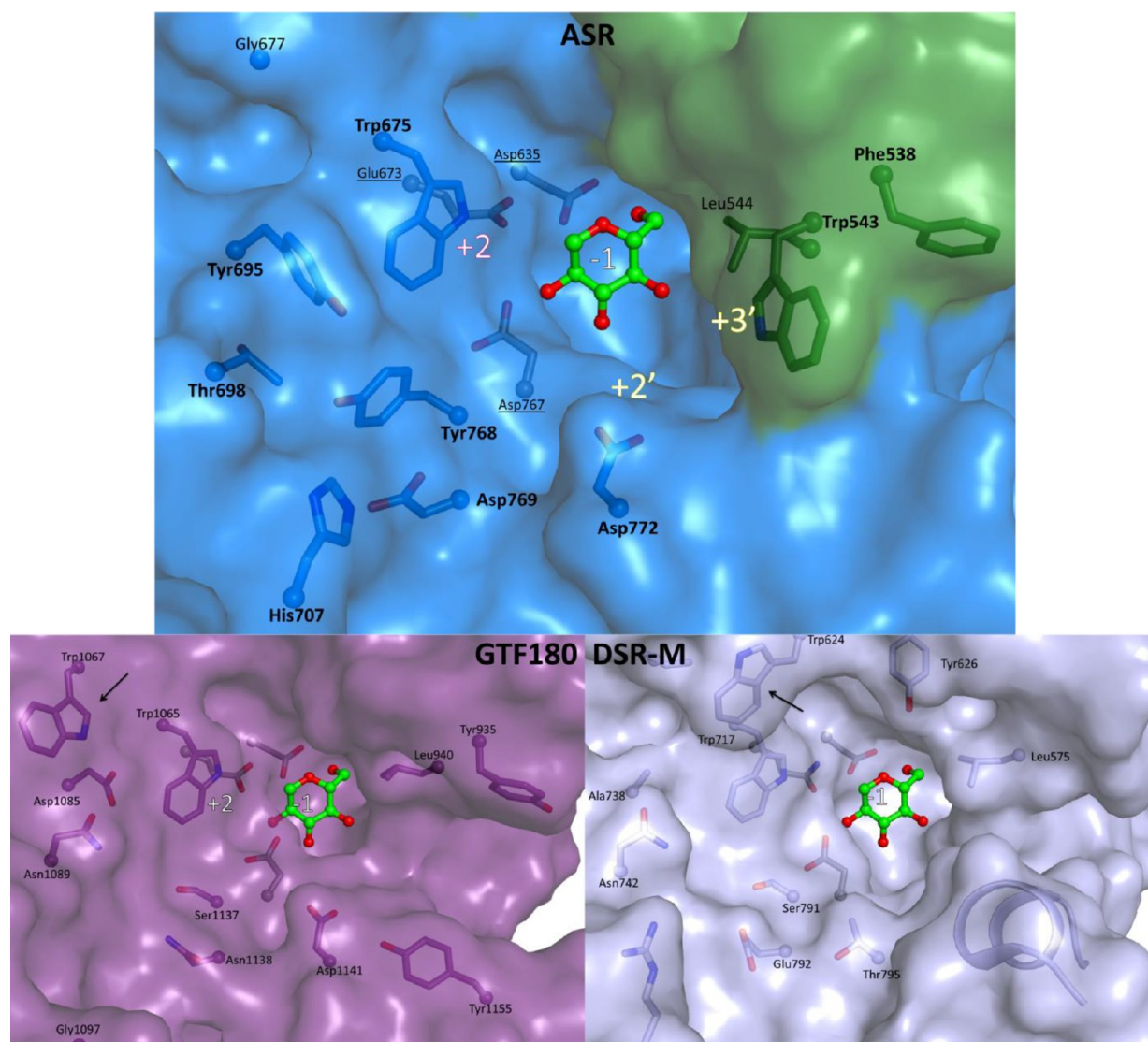


Figure 10. Comparison of the catalytic cleft and subsites of ASR Δ 2, DSR-M, and GTF180. Residues targeted in this study in ASR are shown in bold.

formation presumably containing greater numbers of α -1,6 linkages.⁵⁹ Conversely, mutations Thr589Asp and Thr589Glu in GtfD from *S. mutans* GS5 (which synthesizes a soluble α -1,6-linked glucan) reduced soluble glucan production from 86% to 15% and 2%, respectively.⁶⁰ From our results, we can submit that the Asp residue in these proteins plays a similar role to that suggested in ASR. The role of Trp543 cannot be directly related to other studies as the residue is unique to ASR. However, our mode of acceptor binding in the +2' subsite is close to what was already proposed by the docking calculation to explain the role of Leu940 in GTF180, the equivalent of Leu544 in ASR.⁶¹ The Leu940Trp mutation completely abolishes α -1,3 glucosylation, showing that this region is clearly important for GTF180 linkage specificity. Additionally, dextransucrase DSR-M displays a threonine in place of the Asp772, and moreover, the presence of a short helix in this area prevents the existence of the equivalent of subsites +2'' and +3' for this enzyme (Figure 10). All of these observations suggest that the catalytic cleft of each GH70 enzyme has its own identity, expressed through an extremely

precise interplay between the different residues and the loops surrounding the active site.

ASR Is Designed To Alternate α -1,6 and α -1,3 Linkages. Nigerotriose has never been described in alternan or in oligosaccharides formed from maltose^{9,39} meaning that ASR is unable to α -1,3 elongate a terminal nigerose moiety. Docking of nigerose or α -D-Glcp-(1 \rightarrow 3)- α -D-Glcp-(1 \rightarrow 6)- α -D-Glc failed to identify acceptable binding poses in the +2' subsite that could lead to α -1,3 glucosylation. The formation of two consecutive α -1,3 linkages may be disfavored for the following reasons: (i) the specific interaction with Asp772 will necessarily be disrupted by the presence of an O3 substituent and (ii) the shortness and rigidity of an α -1,3 linkage (compared to an α -1,6) will position the nonreducing glucosyl either too far from the covalent intermediate or in a poor orientation, which will result in a nonproductive complex. We cannot totally exclude the possibility (although to a limited extent) of consecutive α -1,6 linkage formation from the +2' subsite due to the flexibility of the α -1,6 linkage. In addition, we do not explicitly address the question of branch formation. However, the active site is wide, and the presence of both

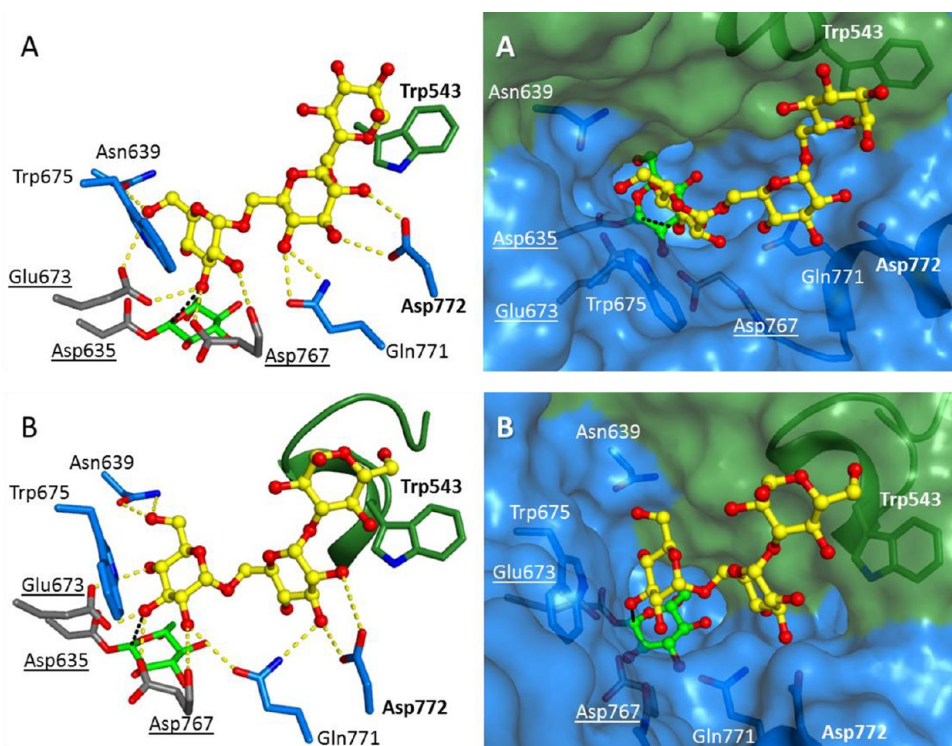


Figure 11. Isomaltotriose (IM3) (A) and α -D-Glcp-(1 \rightarrow 6)- α -D-Glcp-(1 \rightarrow 3)-D-Glc (B) are automatically docked to illustrate α -1,3 glucosylation. Two different representations are shown: catalytic triad is colored in gray, and covalent intermediate is colored in green. Direction of attack of the acceptor is indicated by a dashed black line, and all possible polar contacts are shown as dashed yellow lines.

subsites +2 and +2' bordering subsite +1 should allow for alternative accommodations of isomaltotriosyl units and explain the presence of 3,6-disubstituted glucose in alternan (Figure S11).

Bringing together all our data, we submit that α -1,3 linkage formation is governed by the +2' subsite with the help of Asp772, only if the acceptor is previously α -1,6 linked. The formation of consecutive α -1,3 linkages is prevented, and further elongation of an α -1,3-linked moiety will continue only with an α -1,6 linkage. Comparison of the binding modes leading to either α -1,6 or α -1,3 linkages reveals that the accommodation of the glucosyl unit in subsite +1 (Asn639) is indeed split between two different binding modes: the proper orientation leading to α -1,6 glucosylation is ensured by Trp675 (subsite +2), whereas the orientation leading to α -1,3 glucosylation is controlled by Asp772 (subsite +2'), assisted by Trp543 (subsite +3'). As such, subsite +1 does not control linkage specificity and rather appears to be "undecided" with regard to the linkage promiscuity of ASR. It is the positioning of the glucosyl unit in subsite +2 or +2' that determines linkage specificity and eventually resolve the ASR linkage hesitation, as previously proposed by Moulis et al.¹⁴ It can be assumed that the mechanism will operate during the synthesis of longer oligosaccharides as the enzyme catalytic cleft will only "see" the last 2 or 3 glucosyl units of the growing chain. If we extrapolate this for the synthesis of an HMM alternan, the "round-trip" mechanism between the two sites would result in an accumulation of alternating α -1,6 and α -1,3 linkages in the polymer, with the only variable being the number of consecutive α -1,6 linkages. This not only is in accordance with the α -1,6/ α -1,3 ratio observed in the HMM alternan (roughly 2:1) but also corroborates the fact that linkage alternation is kinetically determined.⁴⁹

CONCLUSION

We disclosed herein the first crystal structure of ASR from *L. citreum* NRRL B-1355, the largest structure of a glucanucrase solved so far. Structural analysis showed that the enzyme is stabilized thanks to its calcium binding site and an entire domain V. In addition, the presence of longer loops in domain A and extended hydrophobic packing in domain C have been identified as traits specific to ASR that could influence the enhanced enzyme's stability. Concerning catalytic activity, we showed that domain V participates in polymer elongation, especially to produce HMM alternan. Focusing on the catalytic core of the enzyme, we selected several mutation targets and discerned their effect on alternan or oligoaltermans formation using a combination of acceptor reaction and HPLC/MS. Combining these data with molecular docking and structural analysis, we identified two different acceptor subsites, +2 and +2', that are specific to the synthesis of α -1,6 and α -1,3 linkages, respectively. Our data set allowed us to propose the mechanism by which the ASR catalytic cleft differentiates the incoming acceptors based on the nature of the terminal glucosidic linkage. This mechanism leads to the formation of alternate α -1,3 or α -1,6 linkages in the alternan polymer. Our results shed new light on a long known but very interesting enzyme that could pave the way for further engineering efforts with the aim of producing tailor-made α -glucan polysaccharides.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the ACS Publications website at DOI: 10.1021/acscatal.8b04510.

Primers used in the study, acceptor reaction chromatograms, data collection on the crystal, NMR of truncated mutant products, DSF profiles, mass spectrum, views and comparison of domain C and domain V, view of the catalytic site with subsites -1 and $+1$, docking with α -1,3 branching glucosylation (PDF)

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Notes

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ABBREVIATIONS

ASR, alternansucrase; HMM, high molar mass; LMM, low molar mass; GH, glycoside-hydrolase; GS, glucansucrase; DP, degree of polymerization; OD, oligodextran; OA, oligoalternan; TSS, transition state stabilizer; IM2, isomaltose; IM3, isomaltotriose

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