Sequence and structure of yeast phosphoglycerate kinase

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Communicated by D.C. Phillips Received on 3 November 1982

The structure of yeast phosphoglycerate kinase has been determined with data obtained from amino acid sequence, nucleotide sequence, and X-ray crystallographic studies. The substrate binding sites, as deduced from electron density maps, are compatible with known substrate specificity and the stereochemical requirements for the enzymic reaction. A carboxyl-imidazole interaction appears to be involved in controlling the transition between the open and closed forms of the enzyme.

Key words: crystal/kinase/sequence/structure/substrates

Introduction

Phosphoglycerate kinase (EC 2.7.2.3) is one of two enzymes required for ATP generation in glycolysis. All phosphoglycerate kinases, whether glycolytic gluconeogenic, or 'photosynthetic' (carbon fixation) are monomers with mol. wts. close to 45 000 (Scopes, 1973). The glycolytic, reaction catalysed by phosphoglycerate kinase (PGK) is that of the transfer of a phosphoryl group from the acyl phosphate of 1,3-diphosphoglycerate (1,3-DPG) to ADP thus forming ATP and 3-phosphoglycerate (3-PGA).

X-ray studies of the yeast (Bryant *et al.*, 1974) and horsemuscle (Blake and Evans, 1974) enzymes, have shown that they are structurally homologous; the principal structural feature being the occurrence of two widely separated domains of almost equal size. This bilobal feature of the enzyme together with the inferred binding position for 3-PGA has led to the suggestion (Banks *et al.*, 1979) that the domains move towards each other in order to complete the fully developed active site. Evidence obtained from n.m.r. (Tanswell *et al.*, 1976), low angle X-ray scattering (Pickover *et al.*, 1979), and sedimentation experiments (Roustan *et al.*, 1980) is consistent with the molecule undergoing a relatively large conformational change during catalysis.

High resolution X-ray studies of the yeast (Bryant *et al.*, 1978) and horse-muscle (Blake and Rice, 1981) enzymes have been reported but a detailed description of the structure of the yeast enzyme has had to await the determination of its amino acid sequence. The complete amino acid sequence reported in this publication is 65% identical with that of the horse enzyme (Banks *et al.*, 1979). The crystallographic results also reported here confirm that the enzyme's conformation has

¹Dr Wendell worked on this project from its beginnings in 1969 until his untimely death in 1978. His Bristol colleagues would like to dedicate this paper to his memory.

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been highly conserved during its evolution. Indeed, the only significant difference in the results obtained from structural studies of the yeast and horse enzymes concerns the binding of substrates. In this paper we present evidence for the location of the 3-PGA and ATP binding sites and show how this information correlates with the reported biochemical, physical, and mechanistic properties of the enzyme.

Experimental Methods

PGK was prepared from dried baker's yeast (Saccharomyces cerevisiae) by methods described by Scopes (1971). Cyanogen bromide cleavage of the pure enzyme yields four unique non-overlapping peptides. The longest peptide (173 residues) has an acylated serine residue and forms the major part of the amino-terminal domain. The amino acid sequence of this portion of the molecule has been deduced from the nucleotide sequence of the isolated gene (Dobson et al., 1982). The carboxy-terminal portion of the molecule (residues 174 - 415) has been sequenced by manual and automated Edman degradation of the three smaller cyanogen bromide peptides and fragments derived from them by digestion with proteolytic enzymes (Perkins, 1980). All but residues 228-281 of the earlier primary structure results have been confirmed by an extension of the nucleotide sequence work. The complete sequence is shown in Table I. The mol. wt. (44 513) and amino acid composition derived from the sequence are close to previously published values (Larsson-Raznikiewicz, 1970). Details of the primary structure determination and its correlation with amino acid sequence data from other species will be published elsewhere.

Yeast PGK crystallizes from solutions (pH 7) containing \sim 2.5 M ammonium sulphate, in the space group C2 with one molecule in the asymmetric unit (Watson et al., 1971). The low (6 Å) (Wendell et al., 1972) and medium (3.5 Å) (Bryant et al., 1974) resolution electron density maps were derived using conventional isomorphous replacement techniques employing two single site heavy atom derivatives. The phasing power of the gold (KAuCl₄) derivative does not continue much beyond 4 Å and it has been necessary to extend the resolution of the structure determination using the mercury derivative [Hg(CH₃COO)₂] alone. Six crystals were used to re-collect the medium resolution diffractometer data for the parent and for each derivative (Bryant, 1974). Only two crystals each of the parent and mercury derivative were needed to extend the data to 2.5 Å resolution using rotation camera techniques (Arndt et al., 1973). The mean error in phase angle, expressed in terms of its cosine (figure of merit), is 0.87 for the reflections (strongest 60%) out to 3.5 Å resolution and 0.59 for those (80% of total set) between 3.5 and 2.5 Å resolution. The details of the X-ray work, including a description of the special steps that were taken to include the most accurate anomalous dispersion information in the phase calculations, will be reported elsewhere.

The electron density map calculated using the merged phase data is of high quality allowing a clear and unambiguous tracing of the polypeptide chain. Correlation of the

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Table I. Primary structure of yeast phosphoglycerate kinase determined by a combination of amino acid and nucleotide sequencing techniques
//////////////////////////////////////
41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 53 54 55 56 57 58 59 60 61 62 63 64 65 66 67 68 69 70 71 72 73 74 75 76 77 78 79 80 Ala Ala Leu Pro Thr Ile Lys Tyr Val Leu Glu His His Pro Arg Tyr Val Val Leu Ala Ser His Leu Gly Arg Pro Asn Gly Glu Arg Asn Glu Lys Tyr Ser Leu Ala Pro Val Ala
**** II ******************************
121 122 123 124 125 126 127 128 129 130 131 132 133 134 135 136 137 138 139 140 141 142 143 144 145 146 147 148 149 150 151 152 153 154 155 156 157 158 159 160 Arg Tyr <u>His</u> The <u>Glu Glu Glu Gly</u> Ser Arg Lys Val Asp <u>Gly</u> Gln Lys Val Lys Ala Ser Lys Glu Asp Val Gln Lys <u>Phe Arg</u> His Glu Leu Ser Ser Leu Ala <u>Asp Val Tyr</u> The <u>Asn</u>
//////////////////////////////////////
++++++++ G /////////****************************
241 242 243 244 245 246 247 248 249 250 251 252 253 254 255 256 257 258 259 260 261 262 263 264 265 266 267 268 269 270 271 272 273 274 275 276 277 278 279 280 Phe Lys Lys Val Leu Glu Ala Lys Lys Ala Lys L
++++++ J ++++++ ///////////////////////
++++ L ++++ 321 322 323 324 325 326 327 328 329 330 331 332 333 334 335 336 337 338 339 340 341 342 343 344 345 346 347 348 349 350 351 352 353 354 355 356 357 358 359 360 Phe Ala Ala Thr Val Ala Lys Ala Lys Thr Ile Val Trp Asn Gly Pro Gly Val Phe Glu Phe Glu Lys Phe Ala Ala Gly Thr Lys Ala Leu Leu Asp Glu Val Val Lys Ser Ser
////// ++++ M ++++ *********************
401 402 403 404 405 406 407 408 409 410 411 412 413 414 415 31u Gly Lys Glu Leu Pro Gly Val Ala Phe Leu Ser Glu Lys Lys

The residues forming helices (***), parallel (+ + +) and anti-parallel (+ - +) beta sheets and beta turns (///) are overscored with distinguishing markers and labeled in accordance with Figure 1. Residues underlined are the same in the horse (Bank s *et al.*, 1979) and human (Huang *et al.*, 1980) PGK sequences.

side chain information, implicit in the map, with the amino acid sequence data shows excellent agreement over the entire molecule. Tertiary structure information has been recorded from a skeletal model (scale 2 cm/Å) built using a Richard's box (Richards, 1968) and the complete, regularised, coordinate data set deposited with the Brookhaven Protein Data Bank.

Molecular Structure

The protein folds into a bilobal structure in which two domains of similar size are connected by a narrow waist region through which the chain passes twice as is shown in Figure 1. Each domain consists of a core of six parallel strands of β pleated sheet surrounded by helices which are connected with the β -sheet strands by β turns and sections of irregular structure. The connections between sheet strands in each domain are different (CDBAEF and IHGLMN). The polypeptide chain forms most of one domain before traversing the waist region to form the whole of the second domain. The 12 carboxyl-terminal residues cross the waist region to complete the amino-terminal domain.

Readers wishing to compare the primary and secondary structures of the yeast and horse enzymes will find that the paper published by Banks *et al.* (1979) describing the horse enzyme contains information similar to that presented in Table I and Figure 1 of this paper. Apart from a problem of hydrogen bond formation for a third strand of anti-parallel sheet (residues 310-312), the absence of two short helical units (between residues 165 and 178) and a very pronounced turn (145°) between helices VII and VIII (one long helix in the horse enzyme) there appear to be few significant differences at the secondary structure level.

Several parts of the general tertiary structure are worthy of special note. The residues from 210 to 212 (212 is alanine), 234 to 236, 369 to 371, 392 to 394 are consecutive glycine residues. These rather unusual, side chain-free regions of the polypeptide chain are conserved in known PGK sequences and presumably have special mechanistic significance (see below). Banks et al. (1979) have suggested that an Ala-Gly-Gly sequence might be important for domain movement in the horse enzyme. The equivalent residues (182 - 184) in the yeast enzyme are Ala-Ala-Gly. The same authors have also discussed the probable mechanistic significance of the numerous basic residues facing the adenosine phosphate binding position in the horse structure. Because of its special interest, we show the equivalent portion of the yeast structure in Figure 2. The grouping of the side chains of histidines 62 and 170 and of arginine 21 is very similar to that found at the active site of yeast phosphoglycerate mutase (Winn et al., 1981). Although both enzymes bind 3-PGA the reactions catalysed are very different. The mutase forms a phosphoryl intermediate (Rose, 1980) whereas the kinase does not (Johnson et al., 1976).

Crystal Soaking Experiments

Difference Fourier maps calculated using data collected from crystals soaked in Mg-ADP and Mg-ATP (10 mM) revealed the positions for the adenine and phosphate binding sites but showed little density between these two locations suggesting that the ribose ring was not correctly located (Bryant *et al.*, 1978). The Mg-ATP showed little extra density



Fig. 1. A schematic drawing of the structure of the open form of the yeast PGK molecule. The helices are denoted by cylinders and the sheet strands by arrows. The view point of the drawing is from the solvent looking towards the substrate binding region through the protein matrix. The binding position for Mg-ATP is shown behind helices VI and IX. The 3-PGA binding site is behind helix XIII.

in the phosphate peak when compared with the equivalent Mg-ADP result suggesting that, under the conditions used, the terminal phosphoryl group had not taken up a definite position. Difference maps, calculated to locate the metal ion, showed more density in the phosphate peak when manganese was used in experiments with ATP and ADP (Bryant, 1974).

Direct comparison of peaks in difference electron density maps with those found in the native Fourier map suggested that, in all the soaking experiments, no more than 20% occupancy had been achieved. Increasing the nucleoside phosphate concentration in the soaking experiments did not appear to improve the overall site occupancy or the density associated with the ribose and terminal phosphoryl groups. Concentrations of the nucleoside phosphates much above 20 mM resulted in either a loss of crystallinity or disintegration of the soaking crystal. Crystals could not be grown when either Mg-ATP or Mg-ADP (up to 10 mM) was present.

Solution studies designed to examine the effects of anions on enzyme activity (Scopes, 1978) have suggested that a sulphate ion binds in the active site of yeast PGK. Difference Fourier maps calculated using data collected from crystals grown in ammonium sulphate and then transferred to vials containing ammonium selenate showed one large peak almost coincident with the phosphate peak observed in the ATP difference maps (Bryant *et al.*, 1978). Adenosine phosphate binding experiments were therefore carried out at different hydrogen ion concentrations in an effort to find the conditions where the inhibitory sulphate ion would have least effect on the binding of the phosphate moiety. A difference Fourier map, calculated using data collected from crystals soaked in mother liquor at pH 9 containing Mn-adenylyl β_{γ} -imidodiphosphate (Mn-AMP-P-N-P) at 10 mM and 3-PGA at 200 mM concentrations, showed continuous density for the whole of the nucleotide substrate including the ribose ring and γ -phosphate (see Figure 3). Presumably, the stronger phosphoryl binding at the higher pH allows the γ -phosphate to take up its correct position at the amino end of helix XII thus enabling the ribose group to assume the location where it makes hydrogen bonds through its hydroxyls. Although 3-PGA had been added to the soaking solution, and the precaution taken of using the imido-phosphate analogue of ATP to prohibit the formation of 1,3-DPG, no electron density attributable to 3-PGA was observed in the difference Fourier map.

The ATP Binding Site

The model of yeast PGK shows that the adenine group binds in a marked depression in the enzyme surface. The adenine nitrogen (N6) forms a hydrogen bond with the main chain carbonyl group of residue 311 and sits on top of an



Fig. 2. A computer drawing of the basic residues which form much of the surface of the amino-terminal domain as seen from the adenosine phosphate binding site. Distances from the triose substrate (3-PGA) relate to the open form of the enzyme.

obligatory glycine residue (338). Glycine 211 and the aliphatic side chains of leucine 311 and valine 339 define the boundaries of the adenine binding hollow. The ribose ring lies in a shallow depression between a main chain peptide unit (338) and a proline side chain (336) with the 2' hydroxyl forming a hydrogen bond with the glutamate side chain 341 and the 3' hydroxyl making a similar bond with the side chain of aspartate 372. The α and β phosphates lie along the main chain and above an obligatory glycine (335). The γ -phosphate crosses from the main chain to the amino end of helix XII where it makes hydrogen bonds with the main chain nitrogen atoms of residue 372 (see Figure 4b) and probably 371. With the phosphoryl groups positioned in this way there remains considerable density in the difference map for the metal ion. The interpretation of the 'phosphate peak' that gives the best overall fit places the manganese atom 3 Å from the γ phosphate and 5 Å from both the α - and β -phosphates. In this position the metal ion is linked with the hydroxyl of the ribose by hydrogen bonds through the carboxyl group of aspartate 372. Neighbouring residues appear to restrict the movement of this carboxyl group suggesting that it must also interact with the metal ion when Mg-ADP binds to the enzvme (see Tanswell et al., 1976).

When the phosphoryl transfer occurs following domain movement it seems probable that one of the arginine side chains found protruding towards the adenosine phosphate binding site from the amino domain (see Figure 2) is better placed than the metal ion to stabilize the charge on the developing transition state. Presumably the metal ion moves towards the α - and β -phosphates in parallel with the formation of 1,3-DPG thus reducing the probable charge stabilization roles of the lysines 213 and 217 (see Figure 3).



Fig. 3. The electron density associated with the Mg-ATP and 3-PGA binding sites with appropriate models superimposed. Only the lowest contour levels are shown. Density peaks associated with the β -phosphoryl group and parts of the ribose are masked by contour levels nearer the point of view which is from the solvent. Contours for the Mg-ATP site are taken from a 4 Å resolution difference Fourier map calculated using Mn-AMP-P-N-P and those for 3-PGA from the equivalent sections of the original Fourier map (for explanation see text). The electron density bulge marked A is associated with the indole ring of tryptophan 308 which moves into a position adjacent to the adenine ring when ATP is bound to the enzyme. The bulge in the 3-PGA density, marked B, is associated with a helical portion of the peptide chain which helps align the substrate and makes a hydrogen bond with the 2-hydroxyl. As built into the density, the ribose is in the 2' endo conformation and the glycocidic and exocyclic linkages are anti ($\chi \sim 100^\circ$) and trans, gauche ($\psi \sim 180^\circ$) respectively. Possible interactions between substrates and protein are indicated by broken lines. The residue numbers and atom names follow the usual conventions and correspond to those deposited with the Data Bank.

3-PGA Binding

Experiments with yeast PGK crystals soaked in mother liquor at pH 5, 7, and 9 containing 3-PGA at varying concentrations up to 200 mM failed to reveal any evidence of triose binding (Bryant et al., 1978). Crystals which grew in the presence of 200 mM 3-PGA were identical to crystals grown under the same conditions but without 3-PGA. From these experiments, it was concluded that the triose substrate could not bind either because its site was not fully developed in the open form of the structure, or that its binding site was already occupied by 3-PGA or a molecule which could not be displaced by high concentrations of 3-PGA. The fact that crystals could be grown in the presence of high concentrations of 3-PGA but not Mg-ATP appeared to suggest that the nucleoside phosphate alone caused the conformational change between the open and closed forms of the enzyme. This seemed improbable since it appeared more logical to assume that the enzyme would be able to form a solvent-inaccessible site if the molecule closed after binding both substrates. The second possibility, that the 3-PGA site was already occupied in native crystals of PGK, seemed more plausible. In this situation only those molecules with no bound triose (see section dealing with adenosine phosphate soaking experiments) would take up Mg-ATP without inducing strain in the crystal lattice. The only problem with this argument appeared to be the source of a 3-PGA-like molecule in our enzyme preparations.

The crystals used in this study were grown from enzymes prepared using large amounts of lactic acid buffer (Scopes, 1971). Noting that some of this buffer would be metabolised by the gluconeogenic enzymes released into solution by cell lysis, crystals were tested for the presence of 3-PGA on the assumption that, if present originally, 1,3-DPG would be hydrolysed before or during exposure to X-rays. Assay experiments designed to detect 3-PGA at concentrations equivalent to that of the enzyme proved inconclusive but n.m.r. experiments showed that similar enzyme preparations contained significant amounts of organic phosphate (single phosphoryl peak) before, but not after, exhaustive dialysis. This correlates with the finding of Johnson et al. (1976) that preparations of yeast PGK can contain contaminating amounts of a triose substrate. Conrov et al. (1981) have since shown that active site arginine residues react only slowly with phenylglyoxal unless PGK is first incubated with the enzyme and cofactors which are required to convert 3-PGA to glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate. All these results are most easily interpreted if PGK binds 3-PGA, or a molecule which hydrolyses to 3-PGA (the dissociation constant for 1,3-DPG is $<0.1 \mu M$, see Scopes, 1978), at one of the preparative stages and that it remains bound during subsequent procedures.



Fig. 4. Computer drawings of structural features associated with the waist region of the molecule. The sterically significant glycine residues are shown with distinguishing atom markers. Hydrogen bonds are represented by bold broken lines. Less prominent broken lines indicate hydrogen bonds which could be formed following minor positional change. The shaded arrows indicate β sheet strands. (a) View looking down helix V (shaded) showing the interaction between the carboxyl group of glutamate 190 and the imidazole group of histidine 388. The cross striped region (van der Waals radius) adjacent to tyrosine 193 indicates that there is insufficient room between threonine 367 and serine 387 for a nitrate group bonded to the ϵ carbon of the aromatic side chain. (b) The positions of the adenosine phosphates, the metal ion, and 3-PGA are shown relative to strands M and N of the carboxyl domains central β sheet. The histidine/glutamate interaction is included to serve as a reference point for comparing the two parts of this figure. The exposed amino ends of helices XII and XIII are shown shaded to emphasise their role in substrate binding.

With the availability of the yeast PGK sequence we have now been able to look at the high resolution Fourier map for unexplained electron density peaks. The peak shown in Figure 3 is of the correct size and shape for it to represent a 3-PGA molecule. When skeletal models are positioned into the density the 2-hydroxyl forms a hydrogen bond with a main chain nitrogen (393) at the amino end of helix XIII and one of the carboxyl oxygens is 4 Å from, and in a suitable position to react with, the γ -phosphoryl of the ATP molecule (see Figure 4b). The electron density peak, and its interpretation as shown in Figure 3, explains in a very simple way both the absolute requirement for the D-triose and the in-line mode of phosphoryl transfer (Webb and Trentham, 1980). If the orientation of the triose substrate is altered slightly by the movement of the amino-terminal domain then the nonattacking carboxyl oxygen could make a hydrogen bond with a main chain nitrogen (394) located at the amino end of helix XIII. In this position the triose substrate is maximally bonded to the protein and in van der Waals contact with the three glycine residues from residues 392 to 394.

The Trigger Mechanism

The simplest interpretation of the crystallographic results would suggest that the presence of both Mg-ATP and 3-PGA is required for domain movement. This is in agreement with the conclusions of Pickover *et al.* (1979) and of Roustan *et al.* (1980) who have used low angle X-ray scattering and sedimentation equilibrium measurements, repectively, to show that a large change in the hydrodynamic properties occurs on adding Mg-ATP and 3-PGA to substrate-free enzyme. Moreover, the use of these quite diverse techniques has shown that, for the yeast enzyme, neither 3-PGA or Mg-ATP alone produce a significant change in structure.

Examination of the waist region reveals an interesting histidine/glutamate interaction (see Figure 4a). The imidazole group of histidine 388, extends from strand N of the central β sheet of the carboxyl domain towards the carboxyl group of glutamate 190 from helix V which forms part of the aminoterminal domain. This histidine is only four residues removed from the triple glycine sequence (392–394) close to the 3-PGA binding site and only two residues removed from a threonine (391) whose side chain hydroxyl could form a hydrogen bond with the non-transferable phosphoryl group of the triose substrate.

The carboxyl end of β sheet strand M, which interacts with strand N carrying histidine 388, approaches the γ -phosphate site of Mg-ATP (see Figure 4b). It has already been suggested that the nitrogen of residue 371 probably moves on binding Mg-ATP to form a hydrogen bond with the incoming γ -phosphoryl group. This conformational change, facilitated by the triple glycine sequence from residues 369 to 371, would then transmit its effect to the adjacent sheet strand N. It is proposed, therefore, that the cumulative effect on the β sheet strands M and N, when the second substrate binds, weakens the histidine/glutamate interaction thus initiating domain movement. What evidence is there for this proposal?

Bachrach *et al.* (1977) have shown that the nitration of a single tyrosine residue causes almost complete loss of activity. This result is at first sight somewhat surprising since all seven tyrosine residues are remote from the active site region. The published peptide sequence data indicates that the nitrateable tyrosine is located three residues away from glutamate 190 and is in such a position that the additional atoms would interfere with the location of helix V relative to the carboxyl-

terminal domain as is shown in Figure 4a. It seems probable, therefore, that the nitration of tyrosine 193 has the effect of precluding the histidine/glutamate interaction thus hindering the movement between the open and closed forms of the enzyme.

A tyrosine residue has also been implicated (Meyer and Westhead, 1976) as being involved in the enzyme activation which occurs at low salt concentrations. It now seems probable that the change in the environment of tyrosine 193 reflects the movement which occurs when ions bind to the exposed δ -nitrogen of histidine 388. Such an ionic interaction would lead to a polarisation of the imidazole ring followed by the domain movement necessary to expose the otherwise buried carboxyl group of glutamate 190. Activation is thus simply explained by a weakening of the switch mechanism and the concomitant formation of a more substrate-responsive enzyme. Experiments are currently underway to test these ideas and to determine the conditions for crystallising the closed form of yeast PGK for further crystallographic studies.

Acknowledgements

The Bristol (X-ray structure), Aberdeen (amino acid sequence), and Oxford (nucleotide sequence) laboratories would like to acknowledge financial support during the course of this work from the Science and Engineering Research Council (H.C.W. and L.A.F.), the Royal Society (H.C.W.) and Celltech Ltd. (A.J.K.).

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