Article

Structural Insights into Thermotoga maritima FtsH Periplasmic Domain on Substrate Recognition

Jun Yop An1,2, Humayun Sharif1,2,a,b, Gil Bu Kang1,6, Kyung Jin Park1,2, Jung-Gyu Lee1,2, Sukyeong Lee1, Mi Sun Jin1, Ji-Joon Song1, Jimin Wang2,5,*, Soo Hyun Eom1,2,*

1 School of Life Sciences, Gwangju Institute of Science and Technology, Gwangju 61005, Republic of Korea
2 Steitz Center for Structural Biology, Gwangju Institute of Science and Technology, Gwangju 61005, Republic of Korea
3 Verna and Marrs McLean Department of Biochemistry and Molecular Biology, Baylor College of Medicine, Houston, Texas 77030, USA
4 Department of Biological Sciences, KI for the BioCentury, Cancer Metastasis Control Center, KAIST, Daejeon, 34141, Republic of Korea
5 Department of Molecular Biophysics & Biochemistry, Yale University, New Haven, CT 06520, USA

Abstract: Prompt removal of misfolded membrane proteins and misassembled membrane protein complexes is essential for membrane homeostasis. However, the elimination of these toxic proteins from the hydrophobic membrane environment has high energetic barriers. Transmembrane FtsH is the only known ATP-dependent protease responsible for this task, unlike other well-studied soluble ATP-dependent proteases. The mechanisms by which FtsH recognizes, unfolds, translocates, and proteolyses its substrates remain unclear. Here, we report the crystal structures of the Thermotoga maritima FtsH periplasmic domain (PD) in an associative trimeric state at a 1.5-1.95 Å resolution. We also describe the pH-dependent oligomerization states of the isolated PD using dynamic light scattering. These observations help us understand how FtsH recognizes membrane-anchored misfolded proteins.

Keywords: ATP-dependent proteolysis; Non-native membrane proteins; Periplasmic domain; Crystal structure; Photosystem II.

1. Introduction

If denatured proteins were allowed to accumulate in membranes, they would rapidly compromise cellular functions because the available membrane space is limited. Denatured proteins may result from oxidative damage, misfolding, missing prosthetic groups, or imbalanced synthesis of oligomeric components [1]. They may also exist as intermediates in degradation pathways. Since the denatured states of membrane proteins are constrained by the lipid environment, the enzymes that identify and help degrade them confront a difficult task compared to proteases responsible for the turnover of soluble proteins. Here, we uncover a potential mechanism by which membrane enzymes identify and degrade denatured membrane proteins.

FtsH and its homologs are the only ATP-dependent proteases essential for membrane protein quality control in bacteria and in the organelles of bacterial origin, such as the mitochondria in yeast.
and mammals and chloroplasts in plants [1]. The FtsH proteases display ATPase and peptidase activities within a single-polypeptide. They are highly conserved, sharing at least 40% sequence identity among all species homologs examined thus far [1-2]. The ATPase domain contains Walker A and B motifs, and belongs to the ATPase-associated diverse cellular activities (AAA+) superfamily [3]. The peptidase domain belongs to the M41 Zn-metallopeptidase family [4]. Most bacteria have a single FtsH gene, while yeast and humans have three. However, plants have as many as 12 orthologs, and this expansion is likely related to the maintenance of photosystems. FtsH is a component of the FtsH/DegP (or HtrA) protease network, which is responsible for the repair of proteins that compose photosystem II in plants and cyanobacteria, where D1 and D2 domains are often subjected to oxygenic damage under continuous light or UVB radiation conditions [5]. Soluble DegP makes specific cuts in the soluble loops of the damaged D1 and D2 domains, releasing individual transmembrane (TM) helices so that FtsH can recognize and degrade them. However, FtsH alone is necessary and sufficient for this repair process based on gene inactivation studies in cyanobacteria [6], whereas DegP is not.

In addition, mitochondria also have two types of FtsH proteases in their inner (cytoplasmic) membrane, which are classified according to the location of the catalytic domain either in the intermembrane or matrix space (i-AAA or m-AAA, respectively). Bacterial FtsHs and nearly all eukaryotic FtsHs have two conserved TM helices, TM1 and TM2. These helices flank a soluble periplasmic domain (PD) shown schematically in Figure 1A [7].

FtsH forms a homohexamer and interacts with both membrane protein substrates and non-membrane substrates [2,7-10]. In Escherichia coli, FtsH substrates in the inner membrane have been identified [11-13]. E. coli FtsH is responsible for the rapid degradation of the unassembled components of SecY inside the membrane [2,14], ensuring that the SecY translocase is always stoichiometrically assembled with the correct subunits for co-translational insertion and folding of membrane proteins. If unassembled membrane proteins are not promptly removed, they may become toxic to the cell by directly interfering with other membrane proteins and by otherwise taking up valuable space in the highly concentrated environment of the plasma membrane. Thus, rapid removal of unassembled or misfolded proteins is essential for membrane homeostasis. This is a surprisingly complex task because 20-30% of all genomic open reading frames encode proteins possessing at least one TM helix [15]. Additionally, FtsH has many other diverse functions unrelated to its quality control of the membrane proteins. As evidence of this, FtsH was discovered repeatedly in a variety of biological contexts and assigned different names, such as mrsC, tolZ, and hlfB [2]. This explains why past studies specifically focused on understanding its proteolytic activities upon soluble protein substrates. However, it is now recognized that pertinent substrates actually reside within the plasma membrane, and current research is focusing on the mechanisms of substrate recognition and processing. Unlike soluble ATP-dependent proteases that thread substrates into an ATPase-peptidase chamber through either the free N- or C-terminus [16], FtsH degrades protein substrates that lack free ends by initiating proteolysis from internal motifs of nonnative substrates [17]. Here, we report high-resolution crystal structures of the FtsH-PD from Thermotoga maritima (tmPD) at pH 6.0 and pH 5.5 to a resolution of 1.95 and 1.50-Å, respectively. We also examined pH-dependent oligomerization states of isolated PD using dynamic light scattering. This study provides evidence for multiple oligomeric states of tmPD, which has important implications for substrate recognition.
2. Results and discussion

2.1. Crystal structure of tmPD

The PD and cytoplasmic domains of FtsH encounter different pH environments separated by the cell membrane. The rapid growth of many bacteria produces cytoplasmic lactic acid as a byproduct of glycolysis. To maintain cytoplasmic pH (pH 7.2 to 7.8), protons are pumped out of the cell, acidifying the periplasm and extracellular environments [18]. Membrane proteins, such as FtsH, find their PD and cytoplasmic domains localized in different pH environments separated by the membrane with the PD in a more acidic space. We found that tmPD underwent a pH-dependent oligomerization and explored this behavior under slightly acidic conditions, which favors tmPD hexamerization. Indeed, under conditions in which hexamer formation is favored, tmPD readily crystallized. We therefore determined the crystal structure of SeMet-incorporated tmPD at pH 6.0 to a resolution of 1.95 Å (PDB code 4Q0F) using the SeMet-MAD phasing method. Subsequently, we obtained a second structure of tmPD at pH 5.5. In this case, the protein crystallized in a nearly identical form, but this condition yielded even better diffraction to a 1.50-Å resolution (Table 1, PDB code 4M8A).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Data Collection</th>
<th>FtsH-PD Native</th>
<th>FtsH-PD SeMet Derivative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Inflection</td>
<td>Peak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X-ray source</td>
<td>PAL-4A</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wavelength (Å)</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td>0.97924</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Space group</td>
<td>P2₁2₁2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cell dimensions (Å)</td>
<td>a = 41.8</td>
<td>a = 42.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b = 65.8</td>
<td>b = 66.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>c = 71.8</td>
<td>c = 71.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resolution (Å)</td>
<td>50 – 1.50</td>
<td>50 – 1.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total reflections</td>
<td>369559</td>
<td>202114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unique reflections</td>
<td>31852</td>
<td>14862</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Completeness (%)</td>
<td>99.6 (99.9)</td>
<td>99.8 (100)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rmerge&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>0.040 (0.253)</td>
<td>0.069 (0.264)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean &lt;I/σ (I)&gt;</td>
<td>27.9(13.0)</td>
<td>19.9(16.3)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Refinement Statistics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Resolution (Å)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R&lt;sub&gt;work&lt;/sub&gt;&lt;sup&gt;c&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Data collection and refinement statistics
\[ R_{\text{free}}^d = 0.202 \quad 0.254 \]

Rms deviations

- Bond lengths (Å) 0.007 0.003
- Bond angles (°) 1.027 0.639

Ramachandran plot

- Favored (%) 98.6 96.9
- Allowed (%) 1.4 3.1

Number of water molecules 233 87

PDB accession code 4M8A 4Q0F

\(^a\) Values in parentheses are for the highest resolution shell.

\(^b\) \[ R_{\text{merge}} = \frac{\sum_{i} |I_i(hkl) - \langle I(hkl) \rangle|}{\sum_{i} I_i(hkl)} \]

\(^c\) \[ R_{\text{work}} = \frac{\sum |F_o|-|F_c|}{\sum|F_o|} \]

\(^d\) \[ R_{\text{free}} \] was calculated using 5% of the randomly selected unique reflections that were omitted from structure refinement.

\[ \sum \text{values} \]

**Figure 1. Domain organization and structure of tmPD.** (A) Domain organization of tmPD, comprising TM1, PD, TM2, ATPase, and the protease domain. The isoelectric point of PD was calculated with Protein Calculator v3.4 (http://protcalc.sourceforge.net). (B) Stereoview of ribbon diagrams of monomeric structure of tmPD. (C) Trimeric structure of tmPD in an asymmetric unit. (D) Computationally assembled hexamer by two-fold symmetry operation applied to the trimeric structure.
The overall structure of tmPD has an $\alpha\beta\beta\alpha\beta$ fold with four $\beta$-strands on its concave face ($\beta$-face) and two $\alpha$-helices on its convex face ($\alpha$-face) (Figure 1B). In addition, a short 310 helix is located in between $\beta3$ and $\alpha2$. In the crystals, tmPD exists as a trimeric half hexamer in which three subunits are in contact with each other and are related by an approximate 6-fold symmetry (Figure 1C). Upon application of a 2-fold symmetry operation, the trimer generates a full hexamer with a solvent-accessible axial pore of about 10 Å in diameter (Figure 1D). A structural similarity search shows that tmPD has a fold similar to other domains involved in protein-protein or protein-ligand interactions (Table S1).

2.2 Asymmetric charge distribution in the tmPD hexamer

The tmPD (residues 35-101) has a calculated isoelectric point of 5.1 (Figure 1A). It possesses 12 acidic residues evenly distributed throughout the subunit surface and 10 unevenly distributed basic residues in addition to its amino terminus. Basic residues are absent at the central pore where only acidic residues are present (Figure 2A). To investigate whether this uneven charge distribution across the PD hexamer is important for pH-dependent oligomerization, we replaced both D59 and D83 with asparagine residues near the pore (Figure 2B). This caused a substantial shift in the oligomerization pH profile in the mutant compared to that in the wild type PD (Figure 2C). The slopes of the pH-dependent transitions are likely a function of the cooperativity among subunits. This provides a structural basis for the asymmetric actions of the PD and TM domains during the extraction of denatured membrane proteins. A calculation of the isoelectric points of individual domains of other FtsH proteases shows that the PDs are generally more acidic than the corresponding cytoplasmic domains among all species examined (Table S2). This observation is consistent with the positive-inside rule [19], and suggests a common pH-dependent regulation of this enzyme.
Figure 2. Surface charge distribution and pH-dependent multimerization of wild-type and mutant tmPD. (A) Surface charge distribution for hexameric tmPD. Highly negative charges developed at the pore region of wild-type tmPD. Solvent-accessible electrostatic surface potential was calculated with the PDB2PQR server (http://nbcr-222.ucsd.edu/pdb2pqr_2.1.1/) and contoured at ± 6 kT/e. (B) Surface charge distribution of mutant tmPD (D59N/D83N). Negative charges diminished at the pore region upon mutation of D59N and D83N. (C) pH-dependent multimer formation of tmPD. A pH-dependent hydrodynamic radius of the tmPD oligomers was determined using the dynamic light scattering method for the wild-type and D59N/D83N mutant tmPD (Avidnano W130i and the i-Size™ software). Theoretical $R_h$ values for the monomeric, dimeric, trimeric, and hexameric tmPD were calculated using the program Hydropro [20]. Protein Calculator v3.4 (http://protcalc.sourceforge.net) was used to calculate pl values.
2.3 Structural comparison of tmPD and ecPD

The crystal structure of tmPD was determined as a trimer using purified monomeric tmPD (at 1.5-1.95 Å resolution). We verified various oligomeric states over a wide range of pH values. In contrast, E. coli FtsH PD (ecPD) was purified as a monomer and its structure was determined as a monomer and hexamer by NMR and X-ray crystallography (at 2.55 Å resolution), respectively [21]. The structures of tmPD and ecPD superimpose well, yielding the root-mean-square deviation (RMSD) of 1.37 Å and 1.68 Å for the monomer (60 Cα atoms) and the hexamer (329 Cα atoms), respectively. Hydrophobic residues at the subunit interface of the two structures are also highly conserved (Figure 3A). However, the charge distribution at the pore region between the two structures is quite different. Non-polar residues are observed at the pore region for ecPD, while tmPD has negatively charged residues near the pore region (ecPD; G53, P75, D79; tmPD; D59, D83, D88). This is consistent with the labile hexamer formation in the tmPD (Figure 3B). Collectively, these data suggest that tmPD likely associates and dissociates in hexameric full-length FtsH, while the other domains help maintain a stable hexameric form.
Figure 3. Comparison of residues at the interface of tmPD versus ecPD. (A) Hydrophobic residues at the interface. tmPD is shown in orange and ecPD in blue. (B) Residues at the pore region. Gly53 of ecPD is colored green (C) Multiple sequence alignment of PDs. Sequence alignment was performed...
with the program ClustalX1.8 [22] and visually represented using ESPript3.0 (http://espript.ibcp.fr/ESPript/cgi-bin/ESPript.cgi) [23]. Hydrophobic residues at the subunit interface of tmPD are marked with blue dots (Tyr38, Val42, Ile57, Ile87, W79, Val91, and Val97).

2.4 Significance of dynamics of tmPD multimerization

At the subunit interface of the hexamer, backbone hydrogen bonds and charged residues define the specificity of hexamerization. This is because the two complementary hydrophobic surfaces are relatively flat, permitting alternative subunit-subunit interactions. These hydrophobic surfaces are composed of I57, I87, V91, and V97 in one subunit and Y38, V42, and W79 in the other. The presence of these types of hydrophobic surfaces is generally conserved among AAA proteases (Figure 3C). They might be exposed in the monomeric form, possibly providing a binding site for unfolded proteins (Figure 4). This would be consistent with the previous observation that deletion of the intermembrane space domain corresponding to PD, along with two TMs, disables the enzyme’s ability to proteolyze membrane proteins [24, 25].

The observed pH-dependent oligomerization of tmPDs implies that the periplasmic pH can modulate the equilibrium between the two functional states, and, therefore, influence FtsH activity. When the pH at the periplasm matches the pl of the PD of FtsH, the transition between the two states has a reduced energetic barrier. It consumes less free energy so that the full amount of energy stored in ATP can be used for the extraction of denatured membrane proteins. Considering that the monomer-hexamer transition of the isolated PD occurs within 2.5 pH units or about 320-fold change in proton concentration (Figure 3), the pH can shift the monomer-hexamer equilibrium by about 3.4 kcal/mol [\(\Delta\Delta G = -RT\ln(\text{proton concentration ratio})\)]. However, the actual energy difference between the two states might be much smaller because the exposed hydrophobic surfaces of the non-associative PD domain may induce structural changes in the membrane, allowing PD to interact with it before binding non-native membrane proteins. These surfaces are buried in the associative hexameric PD state and exposed in the monomeric state. If the hexameric PD indeed represents a form after substrate capture, FtsH would be more active when periplasm is acidic near 5.5 to 6.0 than when it is near 7.2 to 7.8. This pH-dependent behavior of tmFtsH may also highlight a species-specific functional difference between tmFtsH and ecFtsH and perhaps among other. Cumulatively, this study describes the dynamic nature of tmPD oligomerization, which might be relevant for the recognition of some substrates (Figure 4).

One class of TM proteins may contain folded periplasmic domains, which could be partially unfolded and thus become substrates for FtsH after partial degradation by soluble proteases such as DegP. The partially unfolded domains of the TM proteins could exhibit high affinity for partially dissociative trimeric or monomeric PD of FtsH, which resembles the tentacles of an octopus, waiting for prey (Figure 4). Once a substrate is bound, the equilibrium would be shifted in favor of PD hexamerization (Figure 4). PD hexamer could then segregate a single TM helix of the substrate and enclose it inside the central channels of the hexameric PD, the TM domain, and the peptidase compartment of FtsH for ATP-dependent proteolysis. The nature of the TM domain of hexameric FtsH remains under active investigations using both experimental and computational approaches. A preliminary EM analysis suggests that the TM domain of hexameric of m-AAA protease may indeed be capable of enclosing single TM helix [26]. Although it requires additional investigation, this mechanism would be an attractive model for repairing and recycling photo-damaged photosystem II in plant leave cells when photosynthesis is highly active during daytime. Photosystem II splits 2H₂O molecules into O₂ plus 4 protons and 4 electrons upon absorption of four photons, and protons are pumped to the periplasmic side [27]. When photosystem II is shut off at nighttime, no proton is generated such that perioplasmic space is much less acidic and FtsH needs not be very active.
Figure 4. Model of FtsH dynamic structures. (A) Fitting of the tmFtsH structure onto the cryo-EM map of yeast mitochondrial AAA-protease (EMDB code EMD-1712). To build a tmFtsH structure, the PD (PDB code 4M8A), the TM obtained using Rosetta-Membrane, and the ATPase/protease domain (4EIW, 3KDS) were used. Hydrophobic patches are depicted in orange. (B) Model of the open-state structure in a lipid bilayer using monomeric tmPD. (C) Model of the closed-state structure in a lipid bilayer using hexameric tmPD.

3. Materials and methods

3.1. Cloning and site-directed mutagenesis

Coding DNA of *T. maritima* FtsH-PD (tmPD, residues 35-101) was amplified from cDNA by polymerase chain reaction (PCR) using a GeneAmp PCR system 2400 Thermocycler (Perkin Elmer, Waltham, USA). The forward (5'-GTCTACGGATCCAAGCTTAGCTACACGAG-3') and reverse (5'-CGTATTCTCGAGTTATCTCTCTCCCGAGAC-3') primers were designed using the MSB8 *tmFtsH* gene sequence in GenBank (Accession no. NC_000853; GeneID: 897649). The PCR product and a modified pET28a expression vector containing a tobacco etch virus (TEV) protease-cleavable (ENLYFQ/G) N-terminal His6-tag were digested using *Bam*HI and *Xho*I. The tmPD region of *FtsH* was ligated into the vector (pET28a/tmPD) and confirmed by sequencing. The tmPD mutant (D59N/D83N) was produced with PCR-based site-directed mutagenesis from the pET28a/tmPD plasmid using a GeneAmp PCR system 2400 Thermocycler (Perkin Elmer, Waltham, USA). The forward (5'-TGGGCCGTGAACAACTCGCAGCTCATA-3') and reverse (5'-CAGTACTCCGTCGTTCCTGATCACAAC-3') primers were designed to produce the desired amino acid substitutions.

3.2. Protein expression and purification

*E. coli* BL21 (DE3) cells were transformed with the pET28a/tmPD plasmid and grown overnight at 37°C in 50 mL of Luria Broth (LB) containing 50 μg/mL kanamycin. Cells were diluted in 3 L of LB, and grown at 37°C to an OD600 of 0.7. Protein expression was induced with 0.5 mM isopropyl-β-D-thiogalactoside (IPTG). After inducing the cells for 8 h at 37°C, cells were harvested by low-speed centrifugation at 4°C. To label tmPD with seleno-L-methionine (SeMet), pET28a/tmPD was transformed into methionine-auxotrophic *E. coli* B834 (DE3) cells, which were inoculated into 1 L of LB containing 50 μg/mL kanamycin and grown at 37°C to an OD600 of 0.7. The cell pellet was washed three times in M9 minimal media without amino acids, and transferred into 2 L of M9 minimal media supplemented with 50 μg/mL SeMet, 0.4% (w/v) glucose, 2 mM magnesium sulfate, 0.1 mM calcium chloride, and 0.004% (w/v) thiamine and amino acids. Cells were grown at 37°C to an OD600 of 0.7, induced with 0.5 mM IPTG, and grown for an additional 24 h at 37°C. To purify native and SeMet-substituted tmPD, the cell pellet was resuspended in lysis buffer containing 50 mM sodium phosphate (pH 8.0), 5 mM imidazole, and 300 mM NaCl. Cells were lysed by sonication, and centrifuged at 14,000 g for 1 h. The supernatant was loaded onto a Bio-Rad gravity-flow column (Bio-Rad, Hercules, USA) packed with Ni-NTA agarose resin (Peptron, Daejeon, South Korea), which was pre-equilibrated in lysis buffer. The column was washed in buffer containing 50 mM sodium phosphate (pH 8.0), 30 mM imidazole, and 300 mM NaCl. The His-tagged protein was eluted in wash buffer containing 300 mM imidazole. The His-tag was cleaved overnight at 4°C using TEV protease. Size exclusion chromatography was used to further purify tmPD using a HiLoad 16/60 Superdex-75 column (GE Healthcare Life Sciences, Marlborough, USA) pre-equilibrated in a buffer consisting of 20 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0) and 100 mM NaCl. The elution profile showed a peak corresponding to an 8 kDa protein, indicating that purified tmPD is a monomer. tmPD was pooled and concentrated to 19 mg/ml for the native protein, and 13.7 mg/ml for the SeMet-substituted protein using Centriprep 3 KD cutoff (Merck Millipore, Billerica, USA). Samples were stored at -80°C.
3.3. Crystallization, structure determination, and modeling

The hanging-drop vapor diffusion method was used to crystallize \textit{tm}PD. For the native protein, 1\,\mu l of protein was mixed with 1\,\mu l of reservoir solution containing 25\% (w/v) PEG 3350, 0.1 M sodium citrate (pH 5.5), and 0.2 M lithium sulfate. For the SeMet-incorporated protein, 1\,\mu l of reservoir solution containing 15\% (w/v) PEG 2000 and 0.1 M MES-NaOH (pH 6.0) was used. Native data were collected at a 1.50 Å resolution and SeMet multiwavelength anomalous dispersion (MAD) data were collected at a 1.95 Å resolution at the Pohang Accelerator Laboratory (Pohang, Korea). Data were processed using HKL2000 [28] and summarized in Table 1. The SeMet MAD structure was determined using SOLVE/RESOLVE [29,30], and the isomorphous native structure was solved using difference Fourier methods with the SeMet model. Initial models were built and rebuilt using Coot and refined using PHENIX [31,32], as summarized in Table 1.

For the generation of the PD hexamer model, we applied a 2-fold operation along a pseudo 6-fold axis using a trimer in an asymmetric unit that was related by a pseudo 6-fold symmetry.

3.4. Hydrodynamic radius measurement of pH-dependent PD oligomerization

The hydrodynamic radius (R\textsubscript{H}) of \textit{tm}PD was measured using the dynamic light scattering method (Avidnano W130i and the i-Size\textsuperscript{TM} software, High Wycombe, UK). Briefly, 18 mg/mL of \textit{tm}PD was added to a solution containing 100 mM NaCl and 100 mM buffer (sodium citrate for pH 4.5-5.5, MES-NaOH for pH 5.6-6.5, HEPES-NaOH for pH 7.0-7.5, and Tris-HCl for pH 8.0-8.5). Three measurements were used to calculate the average R\textsubscript{H} and standard deviation at each pH at 20°C. The curve R\textsubscript{H} as a function of pH was fitted using the formulas (Wild type, R\textsubscript{H} = 9.7279\times10^{-0.234pH}; D59N/D83N Mutant, R\textsubscript{H} = 8.3626\times10^{-0.182pH}). Theoretical R\textsubscript{H} values for monomeric, dimeric, trimeric, and hexameric \textit{tm}PD were calculated using Hydropro [20].

Acknowledgments: We thank the staff at beamline BL-5C (PAL-4A) of the Pohang Accelerator Laboratory (Pohang, South Korea), beamline 5A at the Photon Factory (Tsukuba, Japan), and beamline BL26B1 at Spring-8 (Harima, Japan) for their kind help with data collection and thank Professor E. M. Engelman for discussion and suggestions during the course of this study. This work was supported by grants from the National Research Foundation (NRF) of the Republic of Korea (Grant numbers: 2013M3A9A7046297, 2013R1A2A2A01068440, and 2015M2A2A4A03044653). Founding agencies had no role in the study design, data analysis, or publication of results.

Author contributions: Jimin Wang and Soo Hyun Eom designed the research; Jun Yop An, Kyung Jin Park, Humayun Sharif, Gil Bu Kang conducted purification and crystallization; Jun Yop An, Jung-Gyu Lee collected the X-ray data; Jun Yop An, Humayun Sharif, Gil Bu Kang solved the structure; Sukyeong Lee, Mi Sun Jin, and Ji-Joon Song analyzed the data. Jun Yop An, Jimin Wang, and Soo Hyun Eom wrote the manuscript. All authors read and agreed with the final manuscript.

Conflicts of interest: The authors declare no conflict of interest.
References


32. Adams, P.D.; Afonine, P.V.; Bunkóczi, G.; Chen, V.B.; Davis, I.W.; Echols, N.; Headd, J.J.; Hung, L.; Kapral, G.J.; Grosse-Kunstleve, R.W.; McCoy, A.J.; Moriarty, N.W.; Oeffner, R.; Read, R.J.; Richardson,

© 2016 by the authors; licensee Preprints, Basel, Switzerland. This article is an open access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons by Attribution (CC-BY) license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/).