

生物化学与分子生物学前沿 研讨班

Workshop on New Trends in Biochemistry and Molecular Biology

中国生物化学与分子生物学会
北京生物化学与分子生物学会

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前 言

“生物化学与分子生物学进展研讨班”是由我会与北京生物化学与分子生物学会联合主办的一次涉及本领域发展前沿的研讨班。在“八五”计划即将结束，“九五”计划行将开始之际主办这个研讨班，其目的是想使现在从事科学研究和教学的高、中级人员能了解生物化学与分子生物学各主要领域的最新进展和新技术、方法，开阔思路，提高知识水平，改进科研和教学质量，为“九五”期间更好创新做出贡献。

这此研讨班得到了国际生物化学与分子生物学联合会和亚太地区生物化学家与分子生物学家联合会的支持和赞助。两个联合会组织了五名国外著名专家在研讨班上介绍他们工作的最新结果和国际最新进展。

这此研讨班也得到国内专家们支持，许多国内院士、教授等知名学者都在班上讲授和介绍他们的工作和有关领域的发展。

这此研讨班是由我会农业专业委员会和教育委员会承办的，在研讨班的筹备和主办期间他们和北京大学生命学院等都做了大量工作，使研讨班的以顺利进行。

在此，我们向所有支持、赞助和为研讨班工作的人员表示由衷的感谢。

中国生物化学与分子生物学会

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目 录

THE CONCEPT OF ENERGY-RICH PHOSPHATE COMPOUNDS: WATER TRANSPORT ATPases AND ENTROPIC ENERGY	Lcopoldo de Meis.....1
THE CHALLENGE OF THE EDUCATION OF BIOCHEMISTRY IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES.	L. de Meis.....4
THE USE OF MOLECULAR BIOLOGY AND PROTEIN CHEMISTRY IN THE CHARACTERIZATION OF THE P-TYPE CATION TRANSPORT ATPases.	Giuseppe Inesi.....5
PLANT AND FUNGAL VACUOLES: BIOCHEMICAL AND PHYSIOLOGICAL ASPECTS IN CELL GROWTH AND IN CELLULAR ION HOMEOSTASIS	Yasuhiro Anraku.....7
MEMBRANCES AND DISEASE	C. A. Pasternak.....10
THE MODULATION OF NATURAL KILLER AND LYMPHOKINE ACTIVATED KILLER CELLS.	Vivian M. Rumjanek.....13
生物学走向二十一世纪	邹承鲁.....15
结构分子生物学发展趋势	梁栋材.....25
结构生物学的研究进展	阎隆飞.....28
真核细胞内蛋白质的运输	杨福愉.....34
人基因组研究进展	强伯勤.....39
跨膜信息传递	林其谁.....42
转录因子的结构与功能	敖世洲.....46
核酸的催化功能(提纲)	祁国荣.....55

多肽生长因子受体及其信号转导机理	王会信.....61
遗传性神经疾患的分子生物学	吴冠芸 沈岩.....69
哺乳动物细胞DNA损伤修复研究的一些新进展	夏寿宣.....77
分子标记和基因组分析(提纲)	朱立煌.....80
蛋白质结构与蛋白质工程(提要)	王大成.....83
新生肽链的折叠——分子生物学研究的一个前沿领域	王志珍.....86
人类基因治疗研究进展	刘德培 梁植权.....98
RNA的信息加工及其生物学意义	朱圣庚.....102
金属硫蛋白	茹炳根.....115
线粒体呼吸链电子漏与质子漏的相互作用与生物能力学	刘树森.....127
固氮酶的生物化学	尤崇杓.....137
叶绿体类囊体膜脂及叶绿素蛋白的结构与功能	匡廷云.....145
动物凝集素及细胞表面糖链与细胞之间的相互作用	周柔丽.....155
植物基因工程在农业上的应用	莽克强.....

CONTENTS

THE CONCEPT OF ENERGY-RICH PHOSPHATE COMPOUNDS: WATER TRANSPORT ATPases
AND ENTROPIC ENERGY

LEOPOLDO DE MEIS.....1

THE CHALLENGE OF THE EDUCATION OF BIOCHEMISTRY IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES.

LEOPOLDO DE MEIS.....4

THE USE OF MOLECULAR BIOLOGY AND PROTEIN CHEMISTRY IN THE
CHARACTERIZATION OF THE P-TYPE CATION TRANSPORT ATPases.

GIUSEPPE INESI.....5

PLANT AND FUNGAL VACUOLES: BIOCHEMICAL AND PHYSIOLOGICAL ASPECTS IN CELL
GROWTH AND IN CELLULAR ION HOMEOSTASIS

YASUHIRO ANRAKU.....7

MEMBRANCES AND DISEASE

C. A. PASTERNAK.....10

THE MODULATION OF NATURAL KILLER AND LYMPHOKINE ACTIVATED KILLER CELLS.

VIVIAN M. RUMJANEK.....13

PERSPECTIVES OF BIOLOGY IN THE 21TH CENTURY

ZOU CHENGLU.....15

TRENDS IN THE ADVANCES OF STRUCTURAL MOLECULAR BIOLOGY

LIANG DONGCAI.....25

ADVANCES OF STRUCTURAL BIOLOGY

YAN LONGFEI.....28

PROTEIN TROFFICKING WILHIN EUKARYOTIC CELL

YANG FUYU34

RESEARCH PROGRESS ON HUMAN GENOME PROJECT

QIANG BOQIN.....39

TRANSMEMBRANE SIGNAL TRANSDUCTION

LIN QISHUI.....42

STRUCTURE AND FUNCTION OF TRANSCRIPTIONAL FACTOR

AO SHIZHOU.....46

CATALITICAL FUNCTION OF NUCLEIC ACID

QI GUORONG.....55

POST-TRANSCRIPTIONAL PROCESSING

QI GUORONG.....57

POLYPEPTIDE GROWTH FACTOR RECEPTORS AND THEIR SIGNAL TRANSDUCTION MECHANISM	WANG HUIXIN.....	61
MOLECULAR GENETICS OF NEUROLOGICAL DISEASES	WU GUANYUN SHEN YAN.....	69
THE RECENT ADVANCES IN THE DNA DAMAGE AND REPAIR IN MAMMALIAN CELLS	XIA SHOUXUAN.....	77
MOLECULAR MARKERS AND GENOME STUDY	ZHU LIHUANG.....	80
PROTEIN STRUCTURE AND PROTEIN ENGINEERING	WANG DACHENG.....	83
NASCENT PEPTIDE FOLDING — A FRONTIER IN MOLECULAR BIOLOGY	WANG ZHIZHENG.....	86
RESEARCH PROGRESS ON HUMAN GENE THERAPY	LIU DEPEI LIANG CHICHUAN.....	98
INFORMATIONAL PROCESSING OF RNA	ZHU SHENGGENG.....	102
METALLOTHIONEIN	RU BINGGEN.....	115
ELECTRON LEAK AND PROTON LEAK IN MITOCHONDRION AND BIOENERGETICS	LIU SHUSEN.....	127
BIOCHEMISTRY OF NITROGENASE	YOU CHONGBIAO.....	137
STRUCTURE AND FUNCTION OF LIPIDS AND CHLOROPHYLL PROTEINS OF CHLOROPLAST THYLAKOID MEMBRANES	KUANG TINGYUN.....	145
ROLE OF ANIMAL LECTINS AND CELL SURFACE CARBOHYDRATE CHAINS IN CELLULAR INTERACTIONS	ZHOU ROULI	155
APPLICATION OF PLANT GENE ENGINEERING IN AGRICULTURE	MANG KEQIANG.....	

THE CONCEPT OF ENERGY-RICH PHOSPHATE COMPOUNDS: WATER TRANSPORT ATPases AND ENTROPIC ENERGY

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The concept of "energy- rich" phosphate compounds was formalized by Lipmann (1) in a review published in 1941 which determined the way bioenergetics was viewed during the following three decades. The notion prevailing at that time were:

1) The energy derived from the hydrolysis of a phosphate compound would be determined solely by the chemical nature of the bond which links the phosphate moiety to the rest of the molecule.

2) The energy of hydrolysis of "energy-rich phosphate" compounds such as ATP, PP, aspartyl phosphate, phosphoenolpyruvate and creatine phosphate would be the same regardless of whether they were bound to the enzyme or free in solution. In water the G° for the hydrolysis of these compounds is in the range of -8 to -12 kcal/mol. phosphoesters such as glucose 6-phosphate and glycerol phosphate were not considered "energy-rich" phosphate compounds. The G° for the hydrolysis of phosphoester varies between -1.5 and -2.5 kcal/mol.

3) The transfer of phosphate from one molecule to another was thought to be determined exclusively by the energy of hydrolysis of the bonds involved. The -phosphate of ATP could be transferred to a molecule of glucose forming glucose 6-phosphate, but the reverse reaction could not occur without an extra input of energy. Thus, the ATP hydrolyzed in the cell could only be regenerated starting from phosphate compounds having the same, or a higher energy of hydrolysis than ATP itself such as creatine phosphate. On the basis of the formulations described above, the sequence of events during the process of energy transduction in enzymes was thought to be :

(A) The enzyme binds ATP; (B) ATP is hydrolyzed and energy is released at the catalytic site at the precise moment of hydrolysis of the phosphate bond; (C) The energy is immediately absorbed by the enzyme and used to perform work. For the synthesis of ATP from ADP and Pi, the sequence of events would be similar, but in the reverse order:

(A) The enzyme now would bind ADP and Pi; (B) An energy input at the catalytic site would drive the synthesis of ATP; (C) Once formed, the ATP molecule would dissociate from the enzyme and diffuse into the cytosol without any further need of energy. From these sequences, it was inferred that the work would be performed in a part of the enzyme molecule where energy is released, i. e. in the immediate vicinity of the catalytic site. During the past two decades it has been found that the energy of hydrolysis of different phosphate compounds varies greatly depending on whether they are in solution or bound to the enzyme. Reactions that were thought to be practically irreversible in aqueous solution occur spontaneously when the reactants are bound to the enzyme (for reviews, see 2 to 8). The energy for work does not become available to the enzyme at the moment of the phosphate compound cleavage and the sequence of events for the transduction of energy in transport ATPases seems to be:

(A) The enzyme binds ATP or other phosphate compounds; (B) the enzyme performs work without the phosphate compound being hydrolyzed. This is accompanied by a decrease in the energy level of the phosphate compound (C) then the phosphate compound is cleaved and the products of hydrolysis dissociate from the enzyme in a process which involves relatively small energy change. In the reverse process, phosphate compounds such as ATP, PPi and acyl phosphate residue are synthesized on the catalytic site of the enzyme without the need of energy. Energy is then needed for the conversion of the phosphate compound from "low energy" into "high energy". This occurs at the catalytic site of the enzyme before the phosphate compound synthesized is released into the cytosol. The information now available on the structure of transport ATPases indicate that work is performed in a region of the tertiary structure of the protein distant from the region where the catalytic site is located and that conformational changes of the protein synchronize the sequence of events occurring in these two regions.

The events responsible for the change in the energy level of phosphate compound at the catalytic site of the different enzymes are not clearly understood at present. For transport ATPases, there is experimental evidence suggesting that one important factor is a change of water activity in the environment of the catalytic site (7,8).

The notion that work is performed by the enzyme before or after cleavage of the phosphate compound is related to the contribution of enthalpy (ΔH_0) and entropy (ΔS_0) to the free energy of hydrolysis according to the equation:

$$\Delta G_0 = \Delta H_0 - T \Delta S_0$$

At the time of Lipmann review (1), the contribution of entropy in processes of energy transduction was thought to be minimal, thus free energy and enthalpy would be practically the same. Possible interactions of the phosphate compound with solvent, proteins and physiological ions were not taken into account. We know now that these interactions play an important role in determining the entropy of some, but not all hydrolytic reactions. For instance, the ΔG for the hydrolysis of PPI varies greatly depending on the water activity, pH and divalent cation concentration of the medium (9-11). These changes are related mainly to changes of the entropy of the reaction. On the other hand, water activity, pH and divalent cation have only a small effect on the ΔG° of phosphoesters such as glucose 6-phosphate and phosphoserine (12). As a result, in different enzymatic systems glucose 6-phosphate and hexokinase can be used as an ATP regenerating system (13-15), a condition that in earlier works (1) was thought to be impossible.

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THE CHALLENGE OF THE EDUCATION OF BIOCHEMISTRY IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES.

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Science in an institutionalized form began in the midnineteen century. This led to a massive increase of new knowledge creating a complete change of the "way of life" of men in the planet. The production of knowledge that lay behind these changes originated in few countries: the USA, Britain, Germany, Japan, France, Canada and Russia. At present the scientists of these countries are responsible for 75% of the scientific papers published in indexed journals each year. These countries have been referred to as "producers of knowledge". The rest of the planet, representing 83% of the world population, consume this knowledge and their social and economic development are closely dependent on those countries that generate knowledge. There is a large difference in the young population aged 0 to 24 years between the populations of developed and developing countries, a difference that has increased over the last decade. The challenge faced by education is that countries which did not participate of the scientific revolution of the past 150 years are responsible for the education of the largest young population of the world. Furthermore, if there is an attempt to keep education atualized, this situation is aggravated by the overwhelming amount of new information produced each year in the different fields of knowledge.

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THE USE OF MOLECULAR BIOLOGY AND PROTEIN CHEMISTRY IN THE CHARACTERIZATION OF THE P-TYPE CATION TRANSPORT ATPases.

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Cation transport ATPases are a widely represented class of enzymes which are responsible for maintaining cation and osmotic gradients across plasma and intracellular membranes. The p-type cation transport ATPases share the common feature of forming a covalent phosphorylated intermediate (E-P) upon utilization of ATP. A main polypeptide chain of approximately 110,000 MW is the sole or principal operator of both catalytic and transport functions, although additional subunits or dimerization of the main chain occur in some cases. Early sequencing efforts on accessible peptide segments were followed by cloning and sequencing of full length cDNAs encoding various cation ATPases. For the same type of cation transport ATPase (e. g. , intracellular Ca^{2+} ATPase, plasma membrane Ca^{2+} ATPase, Na^+ , K^+ ATPase) various isoforms resulting from alternate splicing of the primary RNA transcript, have been described. The main chain of each enzyme includes a relatively large extramembranous domain and a number (eight or ten) of transmembrane helical segments which penetrate the membrane bilayer and return to the extramembranous domain in the form of (four or five) hairpins. Another common structural feature is the presence of an aspartyl residue which is the specific acceptor of ATP terminal phosphate for formation of E-P during the catalytic cycle. Alignment of amino acid sequences reveals extensive homology in the isoforms of the same cation ATPases, but relatively little homology in different cation ATPases. On the other hand, all cation ATPases retain a consensus sequence of high homology, spanning the distance between the phosphorylation site and the preceding transmembrane helix. Chemical and mutational analysis reveal that the catalytic (ATP binding and phosphorylation) domain resides within the globular head formed by the folded extramembranous segment of the ATPase chain. Information regarding the location of the cation binding domain is available only for the intracellular Ca^{2+} ATPases. Mutational and recombinant analysis of these enzymes indicate that Ca^{2+} complexation occurs within the membrane bound ATPase region, with the cooperative intervention of four transmembrane helices which are clustered to form a tight channel. This region appears to be the target of thapsigargin, a highly specific inhibitor of intracellular Ca^{2+} ATPases. As the catalytic and cation binding domains are separated by a distance of approximately 50 Å, a long range functional linkage is required to couple ATP utilization (i. e., enzyme phosphorylation) to

vectorial displacement of bound Ca^{2+} . Mutational analysis suggests that the homologous sequence intervening between catalytic and cation binding domains plays an important role in the long range functional linkage. Additional sequences at the carboxyl terminal provide regulatory domains in certain ATPases.

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PLANT AND FUNGAL VACUOLES: BIOCHEMICAL AND PHYSIOLOGICAL ASPECTS IN CELL GROWTH AND IN CELLULAR ION HOMEOSTASIS

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The fungal vacuole, like the plant vacuoles, is an acidic compartment and plays indispensable roles in metabolic storage and in cytosolic ion and pH homeostasis. In addition, it functions in endolytic macromolecular degradation in a manner similar to that occurring in phagocytotic animal lysosomes (Figure 1). The acidification of these organelles is accomplished by proton-translocating ATPase belonging to the V-type H^+ -ATPase superfamily by a mechanism of chemiosmotic coupling of H^+ and Cl^- transports (Anraku et al., 1992).

In 1981, we discovered the yeast vacuolar proton-translocating ATPase (V-ATPase) as the first member of the V-ATPases, which are now known to be ubiquitously distributed in eukaryotic vacuolar-lysosomal organelles and archaeobacteria. The V-ATPases are also present in plasma membranes of vertebrate renal tissues, osteoclasts and insect gastrointestinal and sensory epithelia. The enzyme is bafilomycin A1- and nitrate-sensitive, and is inhibited by DCCD under steady-state conditions. V-ATPases in most fungal, plant and animal cells are large multimeric enzymes with a functional molecular mass of about 500 kDa and composed of at least nine subunits. The peripheral and catalytic complex of the enzyme contains subunits with Mr of 69, 60, 54, 42, 36, 32, 27 kDa (see Figure 2) whereas the integral and proton-translocating sector is composed of at least 2 or 3 hydrophobic subunits (100 and two 17 kDa polypeptides). The yeast V-ATPase catalyses ATP hydrolysis by a mechanism similar to that mitochondrial and bacterial F_0F_1 -ATPases do, thus it be called a big sister of F_0F_1 .

Up to now, nine VMA genes (for Vacuolar Membrane ATPase) that are indispensable for the expression of V-ATPase activity have been identified and cloned in the yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. We found that null *vma* mutants show Pet-cls phenotypes: The *vma1* and other *vma* disruption mutants can grow well in YPD medium (2% Bacto-yeast extract -2% polypeptone and 2% glucose), indicating that each VMA gene is not essential for growth. However, they all are unable to grow on YPD plate containing 100 mM $CaCl_2$ and on Yp plate (2% Bactoyeast extract and 2% polypeptone) containing nonfermentable carbon source such as glycerol. Most VMA genes have been

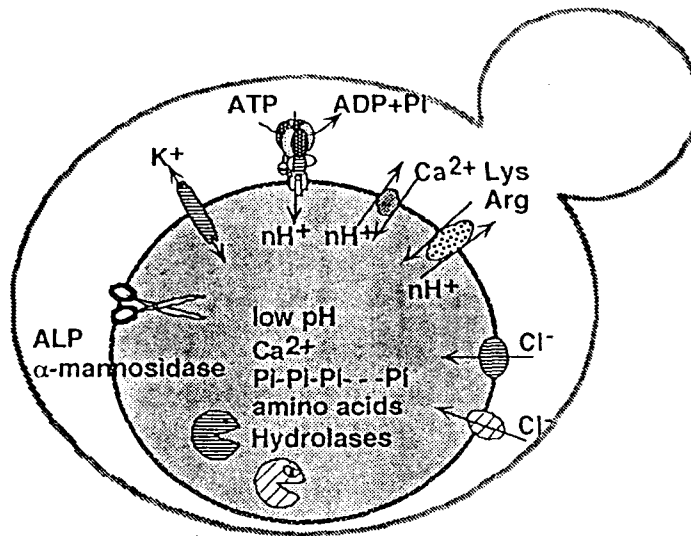
identified by screening for the Pet- c1s phenotype. Current list of the VMA genes and the functions of their products will be given in details.

We have also demonstrated that the yeast vacuole is the center for regulation of ionic homeostasis in the cytosol (Anraku et al. 1992) . Even if the family of the VMA genes is all present and normal, the large volume of a central vacuole is needed physiologically to confer on the organelle a high capacity for maintenance of homeostatic levels of cytosolic free calcium and other ions. We have developed several genetic methods for isolating yeast mutants defective in vacuolar morphogenesis and identified VAM genes (for vacuolar morphology) involved in acquisition of large vacuoles. The function of the VAM genes in vacuolar morphogenesis will be summarized and discussed (Wada et al. 1992).

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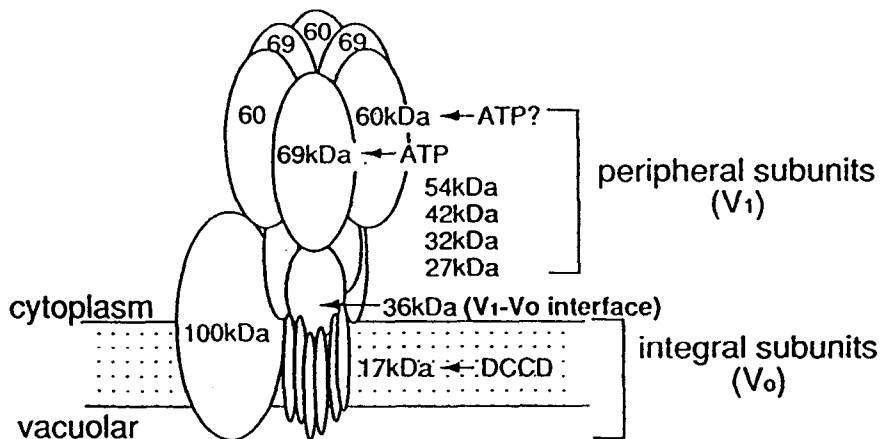
Figure 1



Chemiosmotic and Metabolic Functions in Yeast Vacuole

Figure 2

Structural model for the yeast vacuolar H⁺-ATPase



Anraku/Stevens groups (1993)

MEMBRANCES AND DISEASE

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Many diseases are associated with altered membrane function: some can be ascribed to changes in membrane lipids, others to changes in membrane proteins.

We have examined changes in two basic functions of the surface membrane. The first concerns the uptake of glucose, which is increased by stress-like situations such as a virus infection or hyperthermia: in each case glucose uptake is increased by a mechanism similar to that by which insulin promotes glucose uptake.

The second situation concerns the induction of an increased permeability to ions and metabolites by clinically important pore-forming compounds as varied as bacterial toxins and immune molecules. In each case the effect can be ameliorated by simple ions like zinc. This study has led to the recognition of novel properties of flow through any narrow pore.

Control of membrane permeability by divalent cations: from biophysics to medicine

C. A. Pasternak

The action of pore-forming agents as diverse as clinically-important bacterial or animal toxins and immune molecules on susceptible cells is inhibited by divalent cations and protons(1, 2). Elucidation of the mechanism by which this protective effect is exerted has led to the realisation that flow through any narrow pore, including endogenous ion channels, is affected by divalent cations in the same manner (3).

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