A divergent archaeal member of the alkaline phosphatase binuclear metalloenzyme superfamily has phosphoglycerate mutase activity

David E. Graham, Huimin Xu, Robert H. White*

Department of Biochemistry, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, Blacksburg, VA 24061-0308, USA

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Abstract The hyperthermophilic archaeon Methanococcus jannaschii uses several non-canonical enzymes to catalyze conserved reactions in glycolysis and gluconeogenesis. A highly diverged gene from that organism has been proposed to function as a phosphoglycerate mutase. Like the canonical cofactor-independent phosphoglycerate mutase and other members of the binuclear metalloenzyme superfamily, this M. jannaschii protein has conserved nucleophilic serine and metal-binding residues. Yet the substrate-binding residues are not conserved. We show that the genes at M. jannaschii loci MJ0010 and MJ1612 encode thermostable enzymes with phosphoglycerate mutase activity. Phylogenetic analyses suggest that this gene family arose before the divergence of the archaeal lineage. © 2002 Published by Elsevier Science B.V. on behalf of the Federation of European Biochemical Societies.

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1. Introduction

The Embden–Meyerhof–Parnas pathway of glycolysis and gluconeogenesis is one of the most evolutionarily conserved series of reactions [1–3]. Therefore, it was surprising that the first complete genome sequence of an archaeon, Methanococcus jannaschii, encoded no recognizable homologs of several enzymes in this pathway [4,5]. It was clear that this autotrophic methanogen had to synthesize carbohydrates by gluconeogenesis, and the relevant enzymatic activities had been demonstrated in Methanococcus maripaludis [6,7]. Yet, four crucial enzymes that were highly conserved in the Bacteria and the Eucarya could not be identified in M. jannaschii.

The glycolytic and gluconeogenic enzymes missing’ from M. jannaschii were 6-phosphofructokinase, fructose-bisphosphatase, fructose-bisphosphate aldolase and phosphoglycerate mutase (PGAM) [5]. Subsequently, the three enzymes that produce or consume fructose-1,6-biphosphate have been identified. A number of euryarchaea, including M. jannaschii, have an unusual ADP-dependent glucokinase and phosphofructokinase [8,9]. The fructose-bisphosphatase enzyme from M. jannaschii has both fructose-1,6-bisphosphatase and inositol monophosphatase activity [10]. And, euryarchaea have a diverged class I fructose-1,6-bisphosphatase aldolase [11]. However, no PGAM has been characterized in M. jannaschii.

Two non-homologous classes of enzymes catalyze the interconversion of α-2-phosphoglycerate and α-3-phosphoglycerate: 2,3-diphosphoglycerate cofactor-dependent PGAMs (PGAM-d) and 2,3-diphosphoglycerate independent PGAMs (PGAM-i). Members of the superfamily containing PGAM-d share a common phosphohistidine reaction intermediate [12], whereas PGAM-i proteins belong to a binuclear metalloenzyme superfamily whose members form a phosphoserine reaction intermediate [13]. These two versions of PGAM are structurally and mechanistically unrelated, but appear to be functionally interchangeable. Most organisms have homologs of only one class.

Computational analyses by Koonin et al. identified a candidate for the PGAM gene in M. jannaschii [14]. This predicted protein sequence, encoded by the M. jannaschii locus MJ1612, belongs to the same metalloenzyme superfamily that includes PGAM-i enzymes, alkaline phosphatases, phosphomutases, and sulfatases [15]. However, comparison of the MJ1612 protein with the crystal structure model of PGAM-i from Geobacillus stearothermophilus shows that only the metal-binding domain of PGAM-i is conserved in MJ1612. Members of the family including MJ1612 are missing numerous active site amino acids that interact with phosphoglycerate in the PGAM-i substrate-binding domain [16]. In protein sequence databases, the MJ1612 protein is currently identified as a phosphonopyruvate decarboxylase, an enzyme required for bialaphos biosynthesis in Streptomyces hygroscopicus. However, the true phosphonopyruvate decarboxylase from that organism is unrelated to MJ1612 [17].

To test the hypothesis that MJ1612 and its paralog (MJ0010) encode PGAMs, we have cloned and recombinantly expressed these proteins in Escherichia coli. Using 1H-NMR to directly assay the isomerization reaction between α-2-phosphoglycerate and α-3-phosphoglycerate, we show that both proteins have thermophilic PGAM activity. The MJ1612 and MJ0010 enzymes exemplify a new archaeal class of enzymes with PGAM activity (aPGAM), which includes homologs in most archaea and diverse bacteria.
2. Materials and methods

2.1. Cloning and recombinant expression of MJ1612 and MJ0010

The MJ1612 gene was amplified by PCR from genomic DNA, cloned and recombinantly expressed by standard procedures [18] using a forward oligonucleotide primer 5'-GGTCTATGAAATAGGG-GAAAG-3' and a reverse primer 5'-GATGGATCCTTAAGGACCC-CAATAATTC-3' (Invitrogen). The MJ0010 gene was similarly amplified using primers 5'-GATCCATAGGACCTTTAATTC-3' and reverse primer 5'-GATGGATCTCTTCTCCCTCTAA-TAAATC-3'. PCR products were digested at the primer-introduced NdeI and BamHI sites. The MJ1612 gene was cloned into compatible sites in plasmid vector pET-19b (Novagen) and the MJ0010 gene was cloned into plasmid pT7-7 [19]. DNA sequences were verified by dye-terminator sequencing at the University of Iowa DNA facility. The resulting plasmids were transformed into E. coli BL21-Codon-Plus(DE3)-RIL (Stratagene) cells and recombinant protein expression was induced as described previously [18].

2.2. Preparation of heat-purified recombinant proteins

Cells expressing the recombinant MJ1612 protein (300 mg wet weight) were suspended in 3 ml of extraction buffer (50 mM TES/NaOH, 10 mM MgCl₂, 20 mM mercaptoethanol, pH 7.0) and sonicated, followed by centrifugation (10 min, 16000×g, at room temperature). SDS-PAGE analysis of proteins in the resulting pellets and supernatants showed that most of the recombinant protein was present in the pellet of insoluble material. Heating the soluble proteins in the supernatant to 70°C for 10 min denatured most native E. coli proteins and these were removed by centrifugation (10 min, 16000×g, at room temperature). The resulting supernatants contained the desired recombinant protein. Similarly prepared extracts from E. coli host cells without the recombinant plasmid were used for control experiments. MJ0010 protein was prepared as described for the MJ1612 protein and was also poorly soluble.

2.3. 1H-NMR analysis of PGAM activity

2H-phosphoglycerate trisodium salt (Sigma, 5.6 μmol, 2 mg) was dissolved in 1 ml of 2H₂O (99.8 atom% 2H) and 1.8 mol of [2,2,3,3-2H₄]-3-trimethylsilylpropionate was added and the pH adjusted to 7.0. The sample was then divided into two equal portions. To one portion was added 20 μl of the heated E. coli extract containing MJ1612 enzyme and to the other portion was added 20 μl of heated E. coli extract without the recombinant protein. The samples were incubated for 10 min at 60°C and then placed in a 100°C water bath and reduced to a volume of ca. 30 μl by evaporation with a stream of nitrogen gas. The resulting liquid was dissolved in 0.5 ml of 3H₂O. 1H-NMR spectroscopy was performed on these samples using a 500 MHz JEOL Eclipse 500 NMR spectrometer. Activity of the MJ0010 enzyme was analyzed by the same method.

Known phosphoglycerate samples were purchased from Sigma and analyzed by 1H-NMR under the same conditions. 1H-NMR resonances for the trisodium salt of 2-phosphoglyceric acid were (δ) 4.48 (1H, septet, J₁₋₂-H₂ = 2.9 Hz, J₁₋₃-H₁ = 5.6 Hz, J₁₋₃-H₃ = 8.4 Hz, H₂ = 11.7 Hz, H₃ = 5.0 Hz), 3.91 (1H, dd, H₂ = 2.9 Hz, H₃ = 11.7 Hz, H-3); and 3.80 (1H, dd, J₁₋₂-H₂ = 5.6 Hz, J₁₋₃-H₁ = 11.7 Hz, H-3). For the disodium salt of 3-phosphoglyceric acid, resonances were (δ) 4.19 (1H, octet, J₁₋₂-H₂ = 1.1 Hz, J₁₋₃-H₁ = 2.8 Hz, J₁₋₃-H₃ = 6.0 Hz, H-2); 4.07 (1H, octet, J₁₋₂-H₂ = 2.8 Hz, J₁₋₃-H₁ = 11.7 Hz, J₁₋₃-H₃ = 11.0 Hz, H-3); and 3.95 (1H, octet, J₁₋₂-H₂ = 5.0 Hz, H₂ = 11.0 Hz, H₃ = 3.3 Hz).

2.4. Alignment of aPGAM protein sequences with homologs from the alkaline phosphatase superfamily

The translated sequence of MJ1612 protein (300 mg wet weight) was sequenced and aligned to the alkaline phosphatase superfamily (pdb 1EQQ and E. coli alkaline phosphatase pdb 1B8J) were aligned using the ESPript program (v.2.0 beta) (http://prodes.toulouse.inra.fr/ESPript/). Alignments for phylogenetic analyses were created using the CLUSTALW program.

2.5. Inference of the aPGAM phylogeny

From the alignment of 27 aPGAM protein sequences, ambiguously aligned positions near insertions or deletions were removed and the remaining 390 positions were deemed to be confidently aligned. The phylogeny of these genes was inferred using maximum likelihood criteria to evaluate 500 trees identified by maximum parsimony methods, as described previously [23]. Bootstrap probabilities were estimated using the resampling estimated log-likelihood method [24] with the 500 candidate trees. For comparison, the phylogeny was inferred from the same alignment using the neighbor-joining algorithm with
3. Results and discussion

3.1. Recombinant MJ0010 and MJ1612 have PGAM activity

Both the MJ0010 and MJ1612 proteins are expressed at high levels in an *E. coli* host; however, most of the recombinant protein is insoluble in cell-free extracts. Portions of the recombinant proteins that remain soluble resist denaturation by heating. Although *E. coli* has at least two PGAM genes [25], the native enzymes are not heat stable. The ¹H-NMR analysis in Fig. 1A shows that a sample of 2-phosphoglycerate incubated with heated *E. coli* extract contains no detectable resonances for 3-phosphoglycerate. This spectrum is identical to that observed before the addition of the extract except for the buffer resonances (not shown). In contrast, 2-phosphoglycerate incubated for 10 min at 60°C in the presence of heated *E. coli* extract expressing recombinant MJ1612 enzyme forms 3-phosphoglycerate, shown in Fig. 1B. The decrease in the intensity of the 2-phosphoglycerate resonances corresponded to the observed increase in the intensity of the 3-phosphoglycerate resonances. This is most clearly observed from the changes in intensity of the H-2 resonances at (δ) 4.46 and 4.17 for the 2-phosphoglycerate and 3-phosphoglycerate, respectively. Addition of 3-phosphoglycerate to the sample increased only the intensity the 3-phosphoglycerate resonances. The conversion of 75% of the initial 2-phosphoglycerate to 3-phosphoglycerate is consistent with the thermodynamic equilibrium favoring 3-phosphoglycerate, as observed for canonical PGAMs [26]. Because the sum of the resonance intensities of the two isomers remained constant, we conclude

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**Fig. 2. Alignment of members of the alkaline phosphatase superfamily.** PGAM-i from *G. stearothermophilus* is aligned with aPGAM paralogs from *M. jannaschii* MJ1612 (aPGAM-Mj1) and MJ0010 (aPGAM-Mj2) and alkaline phosphatase from *E. coli*. Positions of identically conserved residues are in inverted text and similarly conserved residues are outlined. The secondary structure of the *G. stearothermophilus* enzyme, derived from the crystal structure model [16], is indicated above the alignment as K-helices (K), 3 10-helices (R), L-strands (L) and L-turns (TT). Arrowheads below the alignment indicate active site residues identified in the *G. stearothermophilus* protein structure: closed arrowheads mark residues in the phosphatase domain and open arrowheads mark residues in the phosphotransferase domain [16].
that no additional products were generated. Under similar conditions, the MJ0010 protein converted 29% of the initial 2-phosphoglycerate to 3-phosphoglycerate.

3.2. Sequence alignment with the alkaline phosphatase superfamily

The crystal structure model of G. stearothermophilus PGAM-i revealed two domains: a catalytic phosphatase domain coordinates two Mn$^{2+}$ ions (amino acids 1–76 and 311–511) and a substrate-binding domain forms hydrogen bonds with substrate and product (amino acids 77–310) [16]. The alignment in Fig. 2 shows that the metal-binding ligands and nucleophilic serine residue are conserved throughout the alkaline phosphatase superfamily. Although both PGAM-i and aPGAM sequences share a unique substrate-binding domain, aPGAM sequences lack the basic residues that interact with phosphoglycerate isomers. Therefore, the mechanism of substrate binding must be different in aPGAM proteins.

3.3. Phylogeny of the aPGAM family

Phylogenetic analyses of aPGAM and PGAM-i sequences confirm our expectation that these modular genes have been frequently exchanged across organismal lineages [27]. Nevertheless, there is consistency in the class of PGAM found within lineages. Bacterial members of the low %G+C Gram-positive group, Mycoplasmataceae, γ-proteobacteria, ε-proteobacteria and cyanobacteria all appear to have vertically inherited PGAM-i genes (data not shown). Plants and several deeply branching eukaryotes also have PGAM-i homologs. Two euryarchaeae, M. Barkeri and Halobacterium sp. may have acquired PGAM-i homologs from bacteria. Most yeast, animals, high %G+C Gram-positive bacteria and some pathogenic microbes have PGAM-d homologs [28].

Members of the aPGAM family are found in every complete archaeal genome sequence, except for Halobacterium sp. (Fig. 3). Crenarchaeae have one homolog each, whereas several euryarchaeae (Methanococcus spp., A. fulgidus and M. thermotrophicum) have two paralogs. Microorganisms from some of the earliest diverged bacterial lineages, A. aeolicus, T. maritima and D. radiodurans, also have specifically related aPGAM homologs, suggesting that this gene arose early in microbial evolution.

The function of the two aPGAM paralogs in M. jannaschii is unknown, although vertebrates and E. coli differentially express PGAM isozymes [25,29]. α-3-Phosphoglycerate occupies a key role in M. jannaschii central metabolism not only in glycolysis and gluconeogenesis, but also as the precursor for serine biosynthesis [6] and the product of an unusual ribulose bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase (RubisCO) [30]. M. thermotrophicum cells produce a polyanionic solute, cyclic-2,3-diphosphoglycerate (cDPG), that is derived from 2-phosphoglycerate [31]. Although M. jannaschii lacks the cDPG synthase enzyme required to make CDPG, it has a functional homolog of the 2-phosphoglycerate kinase required to make the 2,3-diphosphoglycerate precursor (White, unpublished data).

The experiments described in this paper characterize the ‘missing’ PGAM activity in M. jannaschii, but reiterate several outstanding questions about M. jannaschii central metabolism: what are the functions of RubisCO, 2-phosphoglycerate kinase and two PGAM paralogs in this organism?

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References
