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Convergent evolution of similar function in two structurally divergent enzymes

John Kuriyan^{*†}, T. S. R. Krishna^{*†}, Lim Wong^{*},
 Brian Guenther^{*}, Arno Pahler^{‡§},
 Charles H. Williams Jr^{||} & Peter Model^{*}

^{*} The Rockefeller University, 1230 York Avenue, New York 10021, USA

[†] Howard Hughes Medical Institute, The Rockefeller University, 1230 York Avenue, New York 10021, USA

[‡] Department of Molecular Biophysics and Biochemistry, Columbia University, 630 W 168th Street, New York 10032, USA

^{||} Department of Veterans Affairs Medical Center and Department of Biological Chemistry, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan 48105, USA

[§] Present address: First Department, Protein Engineering Research Institute, 6-2-3 Furuedai, Suita, Osaka 565, Japan

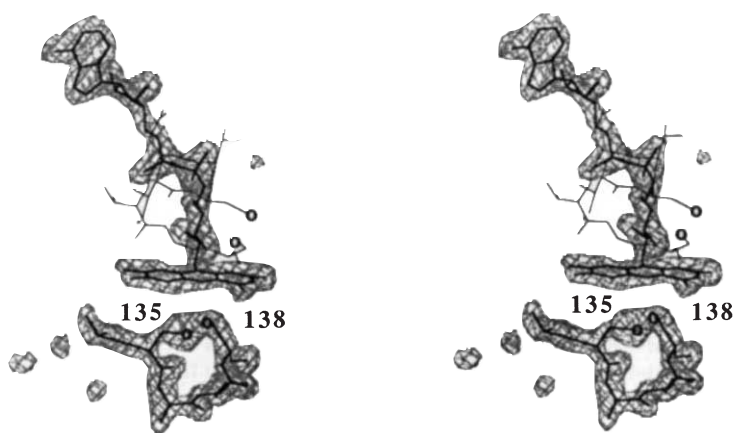
AN example of two related enzymes that catalyse similar reactions but possess different active sites is provided by comparing the structure of *Escherichia coli* thioredoxin reductase with glutathione reductase¹. Both are dimeric enzymes that catalyse the reduction of disulphides by pyridine nucleotides through an enzyme disulphide and a flavin². Human glutathione reductase contains four structural domains within each molecule: the flavin–adenine dinucleotide (FAD)- and nicotinamide–adenine dinucleotide phosphate (NADPH)-binding domains, the ‘central’ domain and the C-terminal domain that provides the dimer interface and part of the active site^{3,4}. Although both enzymes share the same catalytic

FIG. 1 Stereo diagram of electron density at 2.0 Å resolution for the FAD group and redox-active disulphide of mutant TR (Cys 138 to Ser). The model for the FAD group and residues 134–138 in TR are shown in thick lines, with the sulphur and oxygen side-chain atoms of residues 135 and 138 indicated with open circles. The N¹⁰ atom of the flavin ring system is at the bottom. The model for residues 57–63 in GR¹ is also shown in thin lines. The C_α atoms of the GR FAD/central domains were optimally superimposed on TR (Figs 2 and 3). This transformation results in the FAD groups of the two proteins being closely aligned (r.m.s. deviation, 0.8 Å). The resulting orientation of the active-site residues 57–63 in GR are shown in thin lines, with the redox-active sulphurs of residues 58 and 63 indicated by open circles. The electron density was generated using coefficients $(|F_o| - |F_c|) \exp(i\alpha_c)$, where F_o and F_c are the observed and calculated structure factors and α_c is the calculated phase, with the FAD group and residues 134–138 omitted from the phase calculation. The final refined structure (Fig. 2) was used for the calculation.

Contour levels corresponding to 3.5 s.d. above the mean are shown. Crystals of the (Cys 135 to Ser) mutant protein¹⁶, space group $P6_322$, with $a = b = 123.7$ Å and $c = 81.6$ Å (ref. 17), were soaked for 16–20 h in 40% polyethylene glycol ($M_r = 3,500$) with 0.2 M lithium sulphate and either 2 mM ethyl mercury phosphate (EMP) or 0.2 mM 1,4-diacetoxy mercury-2,3-dimethoxybutane (Baker’s dimercurial). An Enraf-Nonius FAST area detector system mounted on an Elliot GX-21 rotating anode X-ray generator was used to collect data sets to 3 Å resolution, using only one each of the native and derivative crystals. The resulting native data set is 95% complete to 3 Å resolution, and has an overall $R_{sym}(I)$ of 5%. Five mercury sites for the EMP derivative and two sets of paired sites for the Baker’s dimercurial were

mechanism and similar tertiary structures, their active sites do not resemble each other^{5,6}. We have determined the crystal structure of *E. coli* thioredoxin reductase at 2 Å resolution, and show that thioredoxin reductase lacks the domain that provides the dimer interface in glutathione reductase, and forms a completely different dimeric structure. The catalytically active disulphides are located in different domains on opposite sides of the flavin ring system. This suggests that these enzymes diverged from an ancestral nucleotide-binding protein and acquired their disulphide reductase activities independently.

Thioredoxins are small redox-active proteins that have diverse functions. In *E. coli*, thioredoxin is reduced by NADPH-dependent thioredoxin reductase (TR; ref. 7). The three-dimensional structure of TR was determined by multiple isomorphous replacement (Fig. 1) and consists of two molecules which interact closely to form a symmetric dimer. Each molecule has three clearly delineated domains, which correspond to the FAD, NADPH and central domains of glutathione reductase (GR) (Fig. 2). The tertiary structure of TR is very similar to that of the first three domains of GR, the chief differences being a change in the orientation of the NADPH domain and the deletion of a helix (Fig. 2). Nineteen of the 21 β strands in TR correspond to elements in GR; the other two are located at the N terminus and near the redox-active disulphide that is a distinct feature of the TR sequence (Fig. 3). Likewise, five of the seven α helices and three of the four 3_{10} helices in TR align with corresponding elements in GR. A notable feature of the structural alignment is the relative displacement of the NADPH domains in the two enzymes. This corresponds to a rotation of one of these domains by 66° about the two β strands that connect it to the FAD and central domains, leaving the backbone structure relatively unperturbed (Fig. 2). On aligning the FAD/central domains and the NADPH domain separately, the root-mean-square (r.m.s.) deviation in C_α positions is 1.8 Å for the FAD/central domains and 2.0 Å for the NADPH domain for core residues comprising about 70% of the TR sequence. Including in the alignment only those C_α atoms that deviate by less than 2.5 Å results in r.m.s. deviations of 1.1 Å both in the FAD/central domains and in the NADPH domain, with 54% and 65% of the TR residues satisfying this criterion in the two parts of the structure, respectively. These results are similar to



located by Patterson map and difference Fourier analysis. Refinement of heavy atom parameters¹⁸ resulted in phasing powers, f_4/E , of 1.37 and 1.27 for EMP and Baker’s dimercurial, respectively, including anomalous scattering. The phases were further improved by solvent flattening¹⁹, increasing the mean figure of merit from 0.59 to 0.85. These phases were used to calculate a map at 3 Å resolution, from which the main chain was readily traced. Refinement at 3 Å resolution was carried out by restrained molecular dynamics using the programs X-PLOR^{20,21} and FRDDO²². The resulting structure was used directly to initiate refinement at 2 Å resolution, using data for the (Cys 138 to Ser) protein (Fig. 2).

suggests that both proteins have evolved from a common ancestor. The FAD and NADPH domains of TR and GR both contain the $\beta\alpha\beta$ nucleotide-binding motif⁹ and an additional anti-parallel β sheet, and may have arisen by gene duplication¹⁰. Previous comparison of GR and an FAD-containing monooxygenase, *p*-hydroxybenzoate hydroxylase, revealed structural similarity in their FAD domains and some common elements in their central domains¹¹. Elements of divergent as well as convergent evolution were indicated, but distinguishing between the two mechanisms was difficult because of the absence of sequence identity, the lack of structural similarity in the NADPH

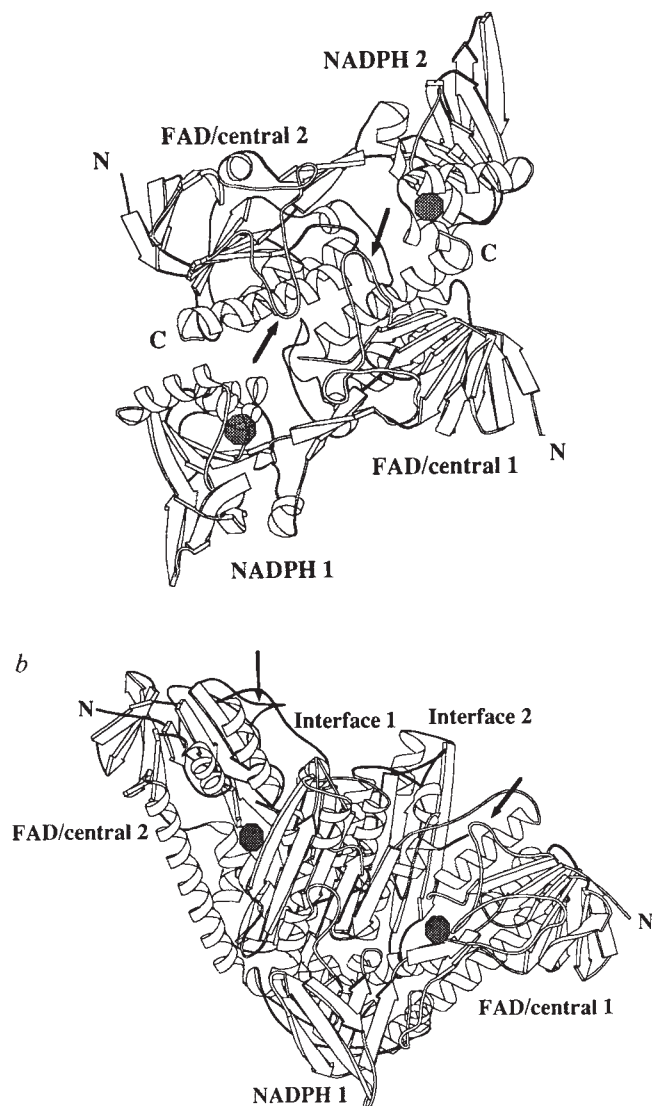


FIG. 4 Schematic diagrams of the dimeric structures of *a*, TR and *b*, GR (ref. 1). Helices are shown by ribbons, strands of β sheet by arrows²⁵. Domains in different monomers within the dimers are labelled 1 and 2 and the FAD domains of monomer 1 are in the same orientation. One of the NADPH domains of GR is hidden. The approximate locations of the redox-active cysteines are shown by shaded circles. The interface domains, shown here for GR, have no counterpart in TR. The arrows indicate two symmetry related loops that in TR interact across the dimer interface and are widely separated in GR. The change in relative orientation of these loops indicates the large change in relative orientation of the monomers. The total surface area buried on dimer formation in TR is 2,950 Å², of which 39%, 44% and 17% are contributed by the FAD, central and NADPH domains, respectively. This is in contrast to GR, where the buried surface area is much larger (3,590 Å²), and where the interface domain provides the largest buried surface area (57%), along with a smaller contribution¹ from the FAD domain (37%). The accessible surface areas were calculated using a probe of radius 1.6 Å (ref. 26).

domains and fundamental differences in the reactions catalysed¹¹. By contrast, TR and GR catalyse very similar reactions that differ only in substrate, and share a sequence similarity showing relationships in all three domains of TR⁶.

In contrast to the similarity in tertiary structure, the dimeric forms of the enzyme are completely different (Fig. 4). Dimer formation in GR involves an interlocking of the interface domains, with each one making contacts with the interface and FAD domains of the other molecule and forming the deep crevices that are the binding sites for glutathione¹. In TR, there are two shallow depressions at the dimer interface, on the same face of the enzyme. These are probably the thioredoxin binding sites, as the side chains of both reactive cysteines are exposed at each depression consistent with mechanistic studies¹². Dimer formation in TR requires no additional structural elements other than those that are also present in GR (Fig. 4). The conformation of the FAD group and its position in the FAD/central domains is conserved between TR and GR (Fig. 2). Relative to the flavin ring system, the other components of the catalytic machinery are considerably rearranged: the redox-active disulphides are on opposite sides of the flavin ring system in the two enzymes, and the NADPH domains are rotated with respect to one another. Note that the redox active cysteines in TR stack against the flavin (Fig. 1) in a location that is coincident with that of the nicotinamide ring of NADPH in GR¹³, indicating that the mode of pyridine nucleotide binding in TR is very different. In GR the redox-active cysteines and the catalytic base (His 467) are contributed by different monomers¹, whereas in TR the probable active site base (His 245)¹⁴ is in the same molecule as the cysteines.

The process of convergent evolution that has led to the alternative dimeric structures and active sites has occurred with the preservation of the structural framework of the FAD/central and NADPH domains, confirming the intrinsically modular construction of these enzymes. Another example of the independent acquisition of similar function by proteins that have diverged from a common ancestor is the dimeric clam haemoglobin, which has subunits that resemble those of tetrameric mammalian haemoglobin¹⁵. The dimer interface is completely different, however, and provides for an allosteric mechanism which is unrelated to that found in mammalian haemoglobins¹⁵. □

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