Strategies for Structural Proteomics of Prokaryotes: Quantifying the Advantages of Studying Orthologous Proteins and of Using Both NMR and X-Ray Crystallography Approaches

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ABSTRACT Only about half of non-membranebound proteins encoded by either bacterial or archaeal genomes are soluble when expressed in Escherichia coli (Yee et al., Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 2002;99:1825-1830; Christendat et al., Prog Biophys Mol Biol 200;73:339-345). This property limits genome-scale functional and structural proteomics studies, which depend on having a recombinant, soluble version of each protein. An emerging strategy to increase the probability of deriving a soluble derivative of a protein is to study different sequence homologues of the same protein, including representatives from thermophilic organisms, based on the assumption that the stability of these proteins will facilitate structural analysis. To estimate the relative merits of this strategy, we compared the recombinant expression, solubility, and suitability for structural analysis by NMR and/or X-ray crystallography for 68 pairs of homologous proteins from E. coli and Thermotoga maritima. A sample suitable for structural studies was obtained for 62 of the 68 pairs of homologs under standardized growth and purification procedures. Fourteen (eight E. coli and six T. maritima proteins) samples generated NMR spectra of a quality suitable for structure determination and 30 (14 E. coli and 16 T. maritima proteins) samples formed crystals. Only three (one E. coli and two T. maritima proteins) samples both crystallized and had excellent NMR properties. The conclusions from this work are: (1) The inclusion of even a single ortholog of a target protein increases the number of samples for structural studies almost twofold; (2) there was no clear advantage to the use of thermophilic proteins to generate samples for structural studies; and (3) for the small proteins analyzed here, the use of both NMR and crystallography approaches almost doubled the number of samples for structural studies. Proteins 2003;50:392-399. © 2003 Wiley-Liss, Inc.

Key words: protein expression; structural proteomics; nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy; X-ray crystallography

INTRODUCTION

The field of proteomics seeks to determine the biochemical and cellular functions and structure of proteins on a genome-wide scale. Proteomics includes, among other things, studies of protein-protein interactions, ^{3–6} protein structure, ^{7–9} protein abundance, ^{10,11} post-translational modification, ^{12–14} and protein fossils. ¹⁵ The biochemical analysis of purified proteins is referred to as functional proteomics. Structural proteomics aims to derive the three-dimensional structures for all proteins. The consensus strategy for structural proteomics is to determine the experimental structures for enough proteins such that remaining structures can be predicted accurately using computational approaches. ¹⁶

One of the most significant challenges facing experimentally based functional or structural proteomics is the reality that a large proportion of proteins are insoluble when expressed in heterologous systems or when purified and concentrated to the levels required for structural techniques. Although there continue to be improvements in the techniques for generating soluble versions of an individual protein, such as variation of fusion tags, senetic screens, or using computational methods to engineer soluble variants, these strategies are time-consuming and the success rate remains poor.

An alternative approach, and one that is afforded by the wealth of genome sequence information, is to express and purify a series of orthologs from various species for a given protein of interest. The underlying hypothesis is that subtle differences in the surface properties and/or stability

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of a protein, which might arise from the sequence variation among orthologs, may contribute to altered solubility and perhaps more suitable properties for NMR or X-ray structure determination. There is anecdotal evidence that this strategy may improve the probability of crystallization or NMR structure determination for individual proteins, but the extent to which this strategy improves the structure determination process remains unclear.

There is also a prevailing belief that orthologous proteins from thermophilic organisms are more amenable to structural biology methods, presumably because they are predicted to have fewer disordered regions and a higher proportion of salt bridges on the surface. ^{20,21} As such, thermophilic proteins may be more stable, may crystallize more readily, and may also be more amenable to NMR analysis.

In this study, 68 different pairs of homologous bacterial proteins from *Escherichia coli* and *Thermotoga maritima*, respectively, were cloned into bacterial expression vectors for studies of expression, purification and crystallization, and NMR. The results of this study support the notion that the use of a series of sequence homologues will increase the probability of obtaining a structural sample for at least one member of a given protein family. However, the data do not demonstrate a clear advantage for the use of proteins from a thermophilic organism. The results also highlight the complementarity of NMR and X-ray crystallography approaches.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Target Selection

An all-versus-all implementation of BLAST was used to identify pairs of orthologous proteins in *E. coli (EC)* and *T.* maritima (TM). Candidate protein sequences were scanned for homologues in the Protein Database using liberal thresholds of E < 0.01 and ID \sim 30% or higher. ORFs that had significant BLAST hits to any other protein in either organism within these thresholds were excluded from the candidate list. Proteins with transmembrane regions were identified using a hidden Markov model algorithm and excluded as targets. Proteins harboring secretory signal sequences were identified using a neural network approach and also excluded. 22 The remaining sequences from the E. coli and T. maritima genomes were then compared for homology against each other. In this case, BLAST hits $(E < 0.0001 \text{ and ID} \sim 20\% \text{ and higher})$ were included in the candidate list, resulting in a list of pairs of proteins, one from each genome. We further selected protein pairs that had similar lengths and functional annotations and, therefore, are likely to have similar structures and functions. This selection produced 68 pairs of *E. coli* and *T.* maritima orthologous proteins (Table I) that were used for further studies. All but two of the 136 proteins were smaller than 320 residues.

Cloning

Target genes were amplified from genomic DNA using primers designed to create *NdeI* and *BamHI* sites upstream from the initiation and stop codons, respectively. In cases where genes contained either of these restriction

sites, they were replaced by AceI for NdeI and BglII for BamHI. The PCR of the target samples was performed in a 96-well format using Pfx Polymerase (Invitrogen, La Jolla, CA). The amplification products were cloned as previously described. 23

PCR reactions were optimized for each set of ortholog genes based on the results for an initial set of 10 genes. The open reading frames were cloned into a modified pET15b T7 RNA polymerase-based expression vector (Invitrogen) that provided an N-terminal hexahistidine fusion (Fig. 1). The sequence encoding the thrombin cleavage site (LVPR \(\Jrightarrow GS \)) in the pET15b cloning vector was replaced by sequence encoding the cleavage site (ENLYFQ \downarrow G) for the TEV protease for two reasons. First, the TEV protease is available in recombinant form (Invitrogen), and second, it is available in a histidine-tagged version (Science Reagents), which facilitates the removal of the enzyme (see Zhang et al.²³). The 3' end of the coding region was also modified. Two consecutive ochre stop codons (TAATAA) were introduced immediately downstream from the 3' BamHI restriction site, and the stop codon was omitted from the PCR-amplified coding region. This strategy provides an advantage in that the same PCR fragment can be cloned, if necessary, in a different expression vector that appends a C-terminal hexahistidine fusion. The disadvantage of using the single PCR fragment is that two additional amino acids are added onto the C-terminus of the N-terminally-tagged recombinant proteins because of the addition of a BamHI site in the coding region of the 3' primer (Fig. 1).

Protein Expression, Solubility, and Purification

Clones were transformed into E. coli BL21-Gold (DE3) (Stratagene, La Jolla, CA), which harbor an extra plasmid (pMgk) encoding three rare tRNAs (AGG and AGA for Arg, ATA for Ile).24 Two to three colonies of each clone were grown in a 24-well format at 37°C in 3 ml Luria Broth supplemented with kanamycin and ampicillin (0.1 mg/ml each). The cultures were grown (37°C, 220 rpm) until an $\mathrm{OD}_{600} \sim 0.6$ was reached. Protein expression was induced by the addition of 0.4 mM IPTG followed by overnight growth at 15°C or 30°C. Two 300-µl aliquots of the culture were transferred to separate 96-well plates and centrifuged to obtain cell pellets (20 min at 3,000 rpm; Beckman Coulter Allegra 6R centrifuge). The cell pellets of one plate were resuspended in denaturing buffer and kept as the whole cell fraction. The fractions of the other plate were flash-frozen in liquid N2 and the soluble protein was extracted by the addition of 100 µl of BugBuster (Novagen, Madison, WI) followed by centrifugation (20 min at 3,000 rpm). The resulting supernatant, representing the soluble protein fraction, was compared against the whole cell fraction by denaturing gel electrophoresis in order to determine the size and the relative expression level of each

Large-scale expression and purification was performed as described in Zhang et al.²³ for the proteins destined for crystallization samples and as described in Yee et al.¹ for the proteins destined for NMR spectroscopy.

TABLE I. Screening of 68 Orthologous Protein Pairs for Structural Studies †

	Annotation	Short description	Length (aa)	ID (%)	Expression	Solubility	Crystal trials	HSQC
_	gi 1789047	A - 2	61		5	5	tr	gd
1	gi 4980762	Carbon storage regulator	83	49	5	5	tr	gd
	gi 1788239		77		3	2	tr	pr
2	gi 4981522	Conserved hypothetical protein	79	45	5	5	tr	gd
	gi 1789741		95		5	1	no	\mathbf{pr}
3	gi 4981518	Conserved hypothetical protein	87	36	5	5	tr	gd
	gi 1790614		102	40	5	5	tr	\mathbf{pr}
4	gi 4981039	Growth-related protein	92	48	2	1	tr	\mathbf{pr}
5	gi 1788247 gi 4981926	Flagellar complex protein	104 94	31	$\frac{4}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	no tr	pr
9	gi 1790579	r lagenar complex protein	112	91	5	5	tr tr	pr gd
6	gi 4981598	Divalent cation tolerance protein	101	35	5	5	cl	gd
O	gi 1787471	Divalent cation tolerance protein	117	90	5	5	cl	pr
7	gi 4981520	Conserved hypothetical protein	118	32	$\overset{\circ}{2}$	1	no	pr
	gi 1787810	VI I	125		0(4)	0(0)	no	pr
8	gi 4981234	Transcriptional regulator, MarR family	143	33	5	1	no	pr
	gi 1789755		134		5	3	no	\mathbf{pr}
9	gi 4981456	Conserved hypothetical protein	138	40	3	2	cl	\mathbf{pr}
	gi 1788234	D 1	136		2	1	no	\mathbf{pr}
10	gi 4981728	Regulator of flagellar protein expression	137	32	3	3	tr	\mathbf{pr}
11	gi 1790491	Community of the street of the	138	90	4	1	no	pr
11	gi 4982458	Conserved hypothetical protein	132	38	2(3)	0 (0)	no	pr
12	gi 1790320 gi 4981256	Conserved hypothetical protein	145 149	52	$\frac{2}{2}$	1 1	no no	pr
14	gi 1786899	Conserved hypothetical protein	148	92	5	5	tr	pr gd
13	gi 4980614	Ferric uptake regulation protein	121	23	4	$\frac{3}{2}$	tr	pr
10	gi 1790528	1 of the appearso regulation protein	149	20	3	$\frac{2}{2}$	cl	pr
14	gi 4981625	Sugar-phosphate isomerase	143	46	4	$\frac{2}{2}$	cl	pr
	gi 1786615	S. II	149		4	4	cl	pr
15	gi 4982284	Conserved hypothetical protein	156	50	3	1	tr	pr
	gi 1789561		152		5	5	no	gd
16	gi 4982356	Conserved hypothetical protein	150	33	0 (0)	0 (0)	no	pr
	gi 1786880		155		5	5	tr	gd
17	gi 4982075	Conserved hypothetical protein	150	39	5 (4)	0(2)	cl	gd
	gi 1789103		159		5	5	cl	pr
18	gi 4981169	Conserved hypothetical protein	165	41	5	4	tr	\mathbf{pr}
10	gi 1789849	C	162	25	5	1	tr	pr
19	gi 4981094	Conserved hypothetical protein	179 163	35	4(3)	0 (0)	no tra	pr
20	gi 1786266 gi 4981064	Acetolactate synthase subunit	163 171	37	5 5 (3)	1 0 (2)	tr	pr
20	gi 1788621	Acetolactate synthase subtilit	166	91	5	3	no tr	pr gd
21	gi 4981988	Hydrogenase subunit	164	31	3	$\overset{\circ}{2}$	tr	pr
	gi 1788196	11) di ogonico susumo	167	01	4	3	tr	gd
22	gi 4981243	Purine-binding chemotaxis protein	152	36	1	1	tr	gd
	gi 1786341		179		5	1	cl	gd
23	gi 4982445	Conserved hypothetical protein	187	32	4	1	cl	pr
	gi 1788638	•	184		3	1	cl	-
24	gi 4981646	Conserved hypothetical protein	189	38	3	2	tr	
	gi 1787557		185		5	2	tr	
25	gi 4981179	Conserved hypothetical protein	176	32	5(0)	0 (0)	no	
0.0	gi 1790590	manufactural and the first	188	40	5	5	tr	
26	gi 4982342	Translation elongation factor	185	40	5	5	cl	
97	gi 1788926	DNA polymorogo gigma fostor	191	97	5	5 1	tr	
27	gi 4981047 gi 1789127	RNA polymerase sigma factor	193 191	27	4 5	1 1	tr tr	
28	gi 1789127 gi 4981996	Anti-terminator regulatory protein	191	37	5 5	$\frac{1}{2}$	tr tr	
40	gi 1788926	rma-writimawi regulawi y protein	193	91	5 5	5	tr	
29	gi 4982169	RNA polymerase sigma factor	189	37	0(0)	0 (0)	no	
	gi 1788334	22 22 porjanorabo organa 100001	196	51	4	3	tr	
30	gi 4981579	Amidotransferase	201	40	3	2	cl	
	gi 1789875		198		2	1	cl	
31	gi 4981949	Conserved hypothetical protein	175	35	1(4)	0(2)	tr	
	gi 1790296	•	199		0 (0)	0 (0)	no	
32	gi 4982031	Conserved hypothetical protein	195	41	4	2	cl	
	gi 1786258		201		5	5	tr	
33	gi 4980791	Isopropylmalate isomerase subunit	166	35	1(2)	0(2)	tr	
٠,	gi 2367128	D 1 11 1 1	203	46	5	5	tr	
34	gi 4981576	Pyrophosphohydrolase	197	43	0 (0)	0 (0)	no	
25	gi 1787735	Autimorthodiu matatatida 31	205	95	5	1	tr	
35	gi 4980651	Actinorhodin polyketide dimerase-related protein	149	35	5	2	no	
	gi 1789452		207		2	1	tr	

TABLE I. (Continued)

Annotation	Short description	Length (aa)	ID (%)	Expression	Solubility	Crystal trials	HSQ
36 gi 4980784 gi 1788066	Conserved hypothetical protein	150 219	38	3 3	3	tr tr	
gi 1788000 gi 4980985 gi 1788624	Pyrazinamidase/nicotinamidase-related protein	$ \begin{array}{r} 219 \\ 214 \\ 220 \end{array} $	32	4 5 (0)	3 0 (0)	tr	
8 gi 4981767	NADH dehydrogenase	$\frac{220}{178}$ $\frac{224}{224}$	43	5 5 5	2	no tr	
gi 1790069 9 gi 4982124	DNA repair protein	222	40	2(3)	5 0 (0)	no no	
gi 1790431 0 gi 4982450	Endonuclease	225 225	44	3 2	2 1	tr tr	
gi 1788920 1 gi 4981647	Ribonuclease	226 240	32	5 2	2	tr tr	
gi 1788510 2 gi 4980760	16S pseudouridylate synthase	231 239	39	5 0 (0)	4 0 (0)	tr no	
gi 1786393 3 gi 4980684	Conserved hypothetical protein	235 143	40	5 0 (5)	2 0 (5)	tr cl	
gi 1788820 4 gi 4981798	SAICAR synthetase	237 230	40	5 5	4 5	tr cl	
gi 1786409 5 gi 4981007	DNA polymerase subunit	243 189	34	5 2 (5)	2 0 (0)	tr no	
gi 1790623 6 gi 4982318	Conserved hypothetical protein	243 242	36	5 2 (0)	1 0 (0)	no no	
gi 2367289 7 gi 4981349	Lipopolysaccharide biosynthesis protein	246 274	32	3 2 (3)	1 0 (0)	tr no	
gi 1786407 8 gi 4981851	Conserved hypothetical protein	246 207	32	5 5	2 1	tr cl	
gi 1789858 9 gi 4982193	Conserved hypothetical protein	247 222	23	5 5	2 4	cl tr	
gi 1786890 0 gi 4982319	nagD protein	250 259	32	5 5	3 2	tr cl	
gi 2367307 61 gi 4981280	Methyltransferase	251 229	33	5 4 (5)	1 0 (0)	no no	
gi 1786468 2 gi 4980552	Transcriptional regulator, IclR family	252 246	31	0 5	0 3	no cl	
gi 1789829 3 gi 4981613	Transcriptional regulator, DeoR family	252 252	24	3 (5)	0 (5)	tr tr	
gi 1789101 4 gi 4982237	Stationary phase survival protein	253 247	40	3	1	tr cl	
gi 1788959 5 gi 4982138	tRNA methyltransferase	255 245	45	5 2	5 1	cl tr	
gi 1790397 66 gi 4982363	Acetylglutamate kinase	258 282	34	5 4	4	cl no	
gi 1786326 57 gi 4982305	Hydroxymethyltransferase	264 270	48	5 5	1	no no	
gi 1787342 68 gi 4981188	Conserved hypothetical protein	265 256	35	4 5 (5)	1 0 (0)	no no	
gi 1790035 69 gi 4981193	Acetyltransferase	273 220	38	5 0 (0)	4 0 (0)	tr no	
gi 1786236 60 gi 4982002 gi 1789535	Dimethyladenosine transferase	273 279 286	32	5 4	2 2	cl tr	
61 gi 4981233	Conserved hypothetical protein	222	43	5 0 (2)	1 0 (0)	tr no	
gi 1786312 32 gi 4981177	Putrescine aminopropyltransferase	288 296	40	5 2	4 1	cl cl	
gi 1789983 gi 4980714	${\it glycyl-tRNA synthetase subunit}$	303 286	62	4 5	2 3	cl tr	
gi 1789442 34 gi 4981054	Fumarate hydratase subunit	303 272	34	5 5	2 4	tr cl	
gi 1788490 55 gi 4982029	Conserved hypothetical protein	312 285	38	3 0 (0)	2 0 (0)	tr no	
gi 1786270 66 gi 4981407	Conserved hypothetical protein	313 299	41	4 2	3	cl tr	
gi 1786616 67 gi 4980909	Deoxycytidylate deaminase	367 201	32	5 2	2 2	tr no	
gi 1789385 88 gi 4981549	Transcriptional regulator	375 299	23	3 4 (3)	1 0 (1)	no tr	

[†]Paired orthologs are presented with *E. coli* results above *T. maritima* results, sorted by number of amino acids of *E. coli* orthologs. Annotation and short descriptions of the ortholog pairs are based on annotations available in NCBI database. Expression and solubility levels, as well as similarity between orthologs, were determined as described in Materials and Methods. Parentheses indicate results obtained at 30°C. The first 23 ortholog pairs were tested for structural studies using both crystal and NMR screening techniques. The final 45 pairs, with greater than 180 amino acids, were tested using crystal screens only. The results of the crystal screening: no, protein was not screened for crystallization due to precipitation or degradation during the purification procedure (see Results and Discussion); tr, protein was screened for crystallization, but no crystallization was detected; cl, initial crystallization conditions were determined. The HSQC results are annotated as pr for "poor" and gd for "good" HSQC profiles.

Nde T BamHI

ATG GGC AGC CAT CAT CAT CAT CAT CAC AGC AGC GGC AGA GAA AAC TTG TAT TTC CAG GGC \underline{CAT} \underline{ATG} ... \underline{GGA} \underline{TCC} TAA TAA M G S S H H H H H H S S G R **E N L Y F Q ^G** H M G S * *

Fig. 1. Cloning site of the modified pET15b vector starting from the translation start point for the N-terminal tag fusion protein. DNA sequence coding for the Ndel and BamHI restriction sites are underlined. Amino acid sequence recognized by TEV protease is in bold and underlined. A, the point of cleavage.

Crystallization

The primary crystallization conditions were determined using a sparse crystallization matrix (Hampton Research kits) at room temperature using the sitting drop vapor diffusion technique in 96-well plates (Hampton Research). The protein samples were set up at a concentration of up to 10 mg/ml by mixing 2 μl of sample with 2 μl of the reservoir solution and equilibrated with 100 μl of the reservoir solution. Crystals selected for native and MAD data collection were flash-frozen in the crystallization buffer plus an empirically determined cryoprotectant. The diffraction data were collected at the Advanced Photon Source at Argonne National Laboratories (Argonne, II).

NMR

Suitability of proteins for NMR analysis was evaluated as described by Yee et al.¹ Briefly, we employed a rapid batch purification of polyhistidine-tagged ¹⁵N-labeled protein followed by a rapid "screening" of labeled proteins by ¹H-¹⁵N heteronuclear correlation (HSQC) spectroscopy. The HSQC spectra were classified as "good" or "poor." The "good" spectra showed dispersion of peaks with roughly equal intensity and in the number expected from the sequence of the protein. These spectra indicated that the protein was readily amenable to structure determination by NMR methods.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION Expression and Solubility

All recombinant clones were tested for expression and solubility in *E. coli*. The levels of expression and solubility of the recombinant products were analyzed by comparing the total cell and soluble protein fractions obtained after small-scale (3 ml) growths using a standard expression protocol. Protein expression was induced overnight at 15°C in cells harboring a plasmid encoding three rare tRNAs. These generic expression conditions yielded the maximum expression of the greatest number of samples for structural studies in a 400-protein expression study of proteins from *Methanobacterium thermoautotrophicum*. ¹⁷ The levels of over-expression were graded from 0 (no detectable expression) to 5 (dominant protein in extract). The levels of solubility were also graded from 0 (completely insoluble) to 5 (completely soluble) (Table I).

Three EC genes and eight TM genes were not expressed under the standard expression conditions. Two more EC genes and fourteen TM genes were expressed, but in insoluble form. For TM, 12 of the 38 (32%) proteins under 200 residues and 10 of the 30 (33%) of the TM proteins over 200 residues were not expressed or expressed in insoluble form. For EC, two of the 32 (6%) proteins under 200 residues and three of 36 (8%) of the EC proteins over 200

residues were insoluble. From these analyses, EC proteins appear to be more likely to be expressed in soluble form compared with the orthologous proteins from TM.

We were concerned that the larger percentage of insoluble *TM* proteins might have been due to the relatively low temperature of induction (15°C), given that the optimal temperature for this organism is 80°C. The insoluble TM and EC proteins were, therefore, tested for induction at a higher (30°C) temperature (Table I). Four of 22 TM proteins and 1 of 5 EC proteins showed significantly higher expression and solubility levels when expressed at higher temperatures, and increasing the temperature of induction to 37°C did not further improve the expression and solubility of the proteins (data not shown). Although some improvement of solubility was seen after induction at 30°C, we conclude that the inability to express these specific TM proteins in soluble form is not due to the temperature of growth or induction. The recombinant proteins derived from EC genes were more highly expressed and more soluble than the corresponding proteins from TM, perhaps because the EC proteins were expressed in a homologous expression system.

In no instances were both orthologs insoluble (Table I, Fig. 2) showing that the addition of an ortholog does increase the probability of generating a soluble protein.

Protein Purification

The 64 soluble EC and 50 soluble TM proteins were grown on a larger scale for purification for structural studies. Of the 64 EC proteins, 53 (83%) could be purified in a form suitable for structural analysis, namely in sufficient yield (>2 mg/L of culture) and with no obvious precipitation at higher concentration (>2 mg/ml). Eleven EC proteins were either degraded or precipitated during

Fig. 2. Distribution of the ortholog clones according to the results of the test for expression and solubility in small scale. The recombinant proteins are classified as not expressed (I), expressed and soluble (II), and expressed, but insoluble (III). Each protein is represented as a number corresponding to the number of its ortholog pair in Table I. The clones that demonstrated increased solubility after over-expression at higher temperature (30°C) are shown in italic. The protein samples that were soluble during small-scale experiments but nevertheless did not generate samples suitable for structural studies due to precipitation or degradation are underlined. The orthologs from two genomes, for which similar results have been obtained, are marked in red.

Fig. 3. **A:** Distribution of the subset of soluble orthologous proteins according to results of screening for NMR samples by HSQC. **B:** Distribution of soluble orthologous proteins according to results of screening for crystallization conditions. The proteins are clustered by providing good HSQC and obtained initial crystallization conditions (I), or by providing poor HSQC and no crystallization in initial screens (II). Each protein is represented as a number corresponding to the number of its ortholog pair in Table I. The orthologs representing the same pair, for which similar results have been obtained, are marked in red.

I								32	8 8	16	34	42	59	65					
10	9	1	7	6	<u>5</u>	4	3	2	1	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
20	19	18	17	16	15	14	13	12	11		12	13	14	15		17	18		20
30	29	28	27	26	25	24	23	22	21	21	22	23	24		26	27	28		30
40	39		37	36	35	34	33		31	31	32	33		<u>35</u>	36	37	38		40
50	49	48	47	46	45	44	43	42	41	41		43	44				48	49	50
60	59	58	<u>57</u>	56	55	54	53		51		52	53	54	55	56	<u>57</u>			60
		68	67	66	65	64	63	62	61		62	63	64		66	<u>67</u>	68		
II																			
								52	38	11	19	25	29	39	45	46	47	51	
II:	I									58	61								

Figure 2.

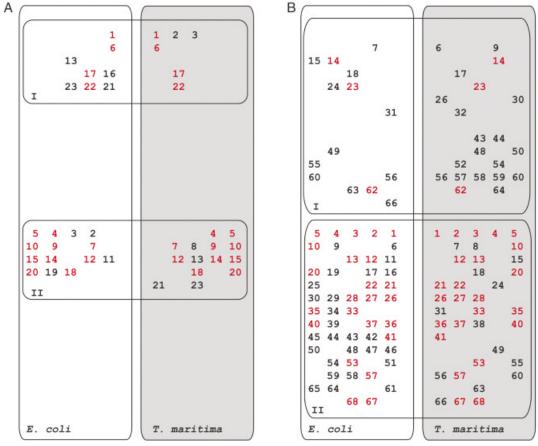


Figure 3.

the purification procedure. Of the 50 TM proteins, 46 (92%) could be purified and concentrated for structural studies. Thus, there did not appear to be a significant difference between the genomes in the proportion of soluble proteins that could be purified and concentrated for structural studies.

A total of 38 of the 68 pairs of orthologs could be purified from both TM and EC sources in a form suitable for structural studies, and six could not be purified from either source (Table I, Fig. 2). A total of 17 proteins could be purified and concentrated only from EC clones and 8 could be purified and concentrated only from TM clones. Thus, we observed a 25–50% increase in the number of soluble, concentratable samples by the addition of one ortholog of the protein of interest.

We did not observe a correlation between whether a protein could be purified from the EC gene and whether it could be purified and concentrated from the TM gene. In EC, 53 of 68 proteins (78%) could be purified and concentrated for structural studies. In TM, the corresponding number is 46 of 68 (68%). If the ability of a protein from one organism to be purified and concentrated is not related to that of its ortholog from another organism, then we would expect that the number of proteins soluble and able to be concentrated from both sources would be the product of the two probabilities (0.78 \times 0.68 \times 68 proteins), or 34 proteins, which is very close to 36, the number we observed. If this fact can be extended to orthologs from multiple organisms, then the probability P of deriving a purified, concentrated sample for at least one out of N protein samples would be:

$$P = 1 - \prod_{i} (1 - P_i) \tag{1}$$

where P_i is the probability of obtaining a good sample from organism i, which is 78% for EC and 68% for TM. Assuming in each organism we use the success rate of approximately 70%, the overall probability of obtaining at least one good sample would be 96% when we use orthologs from three organisms.

Interestingly, we did not observe a significant size-dependence on the ability to purify and concentrate a sample. Both smaller (<200 residues) and larger (>200 residues) proteins had similar ratios of proteins that were unable to be purified and concentrated.

Suitability for NMR

One of our aims was to explore the advantages of using different orthologs for deriving samples for structural biology. For soluble ortholog pairs under 180 amino acids (Table I), we assessed the suitability for NMR structure determination by employing a rapid batch purification of polyhistidine-tagged ¹⁵N-labeled protein followed by a rapid "screening" of labeled proteins by ¹H-¹⁵N heteronuclear correlation (HSQC) spectroscopy. The HSQC spectrum provides a diagnostic fingerprint of a protein, and the quality of the spectra can be used to assess the suitability for NMR structure determination. ¹. Twenty-three pairs of proteins were labeled with ¹⁵N and targeted for NMR analysis. In 10 instances, both the *EC* and the *TM* protein

yielded a poor NMR sample, and in four instances both the *EC* and *TM* orthologs had good HSQC spectra [Fig. 3(A)]. In four cases, a suitable NMR sample could be derived only from the *EC* ortholog and in another two instances one could only be obtained for the *TM* ortholog.

In this study, the analysis of proteins from either single genome generated eight (EC) or six (TM) NMR samples and the combination of genomes added only two or four samples to the total. This marginal increase in samples for structural studies for this small dataset may suggest that small homologous proteins may be more likely to share similar biophysical properties. This analysis also showed that, at least for this sample set, there was no clear advantage to using proteins from thermophiles for NMR spectroscopy in terms of obtaining a sample with favorable NMR properties at 25°C. However, the thermophilic orthologs may in certain cases provide an advantage for NMR data collection at higher temperatures, which may result in better sensitivity due to improved NMR relaxation properties.

Crystallization

All purified proteins, including those for which NMR spectra were collected, were screened for crystallization under a standard set of conditions. This corresponded to 53 EC proteins and 44 TM proteins [Fig. 3(B)]. Of the 53 EC proteins, 14 (26%) formed crystals. For TM proteins, 16/50, or 32%, crystallized. Thus, although the success rate of achieving crystals from the starting gene set was similar (14/68 for EC and 16/68 for TM), the proportion of purified and concentrated *TM* proteins that crystallized was higher. These data suggests that purified TM proteins might be easier to crystallize, although more difficult to obtain in soluble form, than their EC orthologs. In total, the combination of the two effects resulted in an equivalent number of samples for structural studies attained per gene cloned. However, one must be careful not to conclude that the effects we observe are solely a result of the thermal stability properties of the TM proteins. The differences observed between EC and TM proteins may simply arise because they represent the differences that might be observed between any two sources of orthologous proteins.

Overlap of NMR and Crystallization

We compared the effectiveness of NMR and crystallization to generate samples for structural studies of 46 of the smaller proteins (23 pairs of orthologs). We were able to generate either initial crystallization conditions or a good NMR spectrum for 24 of 46 proteins, corresponding to at least one member of 15 of 23 pairs. Of 34 proteins for which both crystallization and NMR data could be collected, only 3 proteins both crystallized and had good NMR properties. Crystals were obtained for seven proteins with poor NMR spectra and good NMR spectra could be obtained for ten proteins that failed to crystallize in our particular crystallization trials. It is evident that NMR methods and protein crystallization are complementary rather than redundant if the aim is to determine the structures of small proteins. In this sample set, the use of NMR alone would have generated 13 samples for structural studies. The use of crystallization alone would have generated ten samples with defined initial crystallization conditions. However, the use of both methods increased the number of unique samples for structural studies to 20.

CONCLUSION

Strategy for Structural Proteomics of Small Proteins

The most efficient strategy for the structural proteomics of small proteins may favor the use of NMR. NMR has four clear advantages over crystallization approaches. First, after one has an expression clone that produces a soluble protein, it only takes a few days to characterize its suitability for NMR spectroscopy, whereas it could take days to months to grow a protein crystal. Second, the results of the NMR spectroscopy are usually decisive. Excellent samples can be identified immediately; poor samples can immediately be eliminated from the process. With crystal trials, it is very difficult to make an informed decision based on lack of a crystal. Third, the efficient determination of a crystal structure depends on the presence of methionine in the protein sequence. The smaller the protein, the lower the probability that the protein contains a methionine. Finally, in this study, although we found that an equal number of proteins generated excellent NMR spectra as did crystallize, it is not really accurate to equate these two metrics. An excellent NMR spectrum is highly correlated with the ability to determine its solution structure. However, the growth of a crystal, while an important step towards determining a crystal structure and the most convenient and rapid parameter to measure, does not guarantee that a structure can be solved. A large percentage of protein crystals, in our hands over 50% are difficult to optimize, can be difficult to crystallize as a selenomethionine-labeled protein or are not well-enough ordered to diffract X-rays to high resolution. Therefore, we conclude that a coordinated combination of crystallography with NMR spectroscopy should provide the most efficient path to the structure determination of small proteins.

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