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The Catalytic Acid–Base in GH109 Resides in a Conserved GGHGG Loop and Allows for Comparable α-Retaining and β-Inverting Activity in an N-Acetylgalactosaminidase from Akkermansia muciniphila

David Teze,¶ Bashar Shuoker,¶ Evan Kirk Chaberski, Sonja Kunstmann, Folmer Fredslund, Tine Sofie Nielsen, Emil G. P. Stender, Günther H. J. Peters, Eva Nordberg Karlsson, Ditte Hededam Welner,* and Maher Abou Hachen*

ABSTRACT: Enzymes active on glycosidic bonds are defined according to the stereochemistry of both substrates and products of the reactions they catalyze. The CAZy classification further assigns these enzymes into sequence-based families sharing a common stereochemistry for substrates (either α- or β-) and products (i.e., inverting or retaining mechanism). Here we describe the N-acetylgalactosaminidases AmGH109A and AmGH109B (i.e., GH109: glycoside hydrolase family 109) from the human gut symbiont Akkermansia muciniphila. Notably, AmGH109A displays α-retaining and β-inverting N-acetylgalactosaminidase activities with comparable efficiencies on natural disaccharides. This dual specificity could provide an advantage in targeting a broader range of host-derived glycans. We rationalize this discovery through bioinformatics, structural, mutational, and computational studies, unveiling a histidine residing in a conserved GGHGG motif as the elusive catalytic acid–base of the GH109 family.

KEYWORDS: glycoside hydrolase, GH, human gut microbiota, inverting, mechanism, MD simulations, mucin, retaining

INTRODUCTION

The human gut microbiota (HGM) exerts a profound impact on human health and plays a key role in the metabolic and immune homeostasis of the host. Specific signatures of this complex microbial community are associated with a variety of disorders including colorectal cancer and inflammatory bowel diseases. Importantly, the HGM is also associated with insulin resistance and obesity, both of which are growing lifestyle diseases.

The implication of the abundant (1–4%) human gut symbiont Akkermansia muciniphila in protection from obesity and impact on other aspects of human health has attracted increasing attention. Indeed, a strong inverse correlation between obesity and A. muciniphila abundance is observed in humans, and it has been shown that a single A. muciniphila outer membrane protein mediates a positive effect on the metabolism of obese mice. A. muciniphila, which is the sole representative of the phylum Verrucomicrobiota in the HGM, is a specialist degrader of mucin. Mucin is a collective name for a family of high-molecular-mass heavily glycosylated (about 80% w/w) O-glycoproteins that coat the surfaces of enterocytes. Mucin is an important physical barrier and a site of adhesion for distinct bacteria including A. muciniphila, which adheses strongly to human epithelial colonic cell lines, strengthens enterocyte monolayer integrity in vitro, and restores the thickness of the mucin layer in obese mice. A. muciniphila also induces the adaptive immune response, consistent with the intimate association and cross-talk between this symbiont and the human host. A marked decrease in the abundance of A. muciniphila has been shown in inflammatory bowel disease and ulcerative colitis patients, correlating with an overall increase in the total mucosa associated bacteria, especially Ruminococcus torques and Ruminococcus gnarus. Accordingly, the perturbation of the intricate balance of the mucolytic community (and thereby mucin homeostasis) is correlated to inflammation. For example, the presence of A. muciniphila has been shown to exacerbate gut inflammation induced by Salmonella enterica subsp. enterica serovar Typhimurium in gnotobiotic mice harboring an eight-
membered gut microbiota mock community. To date, insight into the enzymatic apparatus that confers the growth of A. muciniphila on host glycans at the mucin barrier remains limited. The genome of A. muciniphila encodes a substantial battery of Carbohydrate Active enZymes (CAZymes, http://www.cazy.org) that mostly targets host-derived glycoconjugates, thereby supporting the ecological specialization of this bacterium.19 Both α-glycosidic linkages (e.g., fucosyl or sialyl and nonreducing ends of the A and B blood group antigens) and β-linkages are commonly present in host-derived glycans.19,20

Enzymes within a glycoside hydrolase (GH) family share a common structural fold, substrate stereoselectivity, and catalytic mechanism.18 Thus, a GH family is either inverting or retaining and usually either α- or β-active. Pseudoexceptions are enzymes acting on structurally similar substrates that differ in both their D/L and α/β configurations (e.g., substrates with nonreducing α-L-arabinopyranosyl and β-D-galactopyranosyl are hydrolyzed by GH42 enzymes,21 likewise β-L-arabinopyranosidase and α-D-galactopyranosidase activities are found in some GH27 members).

Table 1. Catalytic Parameters of GH109 N-Acetylgalactosaminidases toward pNPGalNAc

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>enzyme</th>
<th>substrate stereochemistry</th>
<th>$k_{cat}$ (s$^{-1}$)</th>
<th>$K_m$ (mM)</th>
<th>$k_{cat}/K_m$ (s$^{-1}$mM$^{-1}$)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AmGH109A</td>
<td>α</td>
<td>2.6 ± 0.2</td>
<td>1.1 ± 0.1</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>β</td>
<td>1.1 ± 0.03</td>
<td>0.15 ± 0.01</td>
<td>7.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AmGH109B</td>
<td>α</td>
<td>16.5 ± 0.3</td>
<td>0.39 ± 0.02</td>
<td>42.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>β</td>
<td>0.9 ± 0.01</td>
<td>0.38 ± 0.02</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NagA$^a$</td>
<td>α</td>
<td>9.84 ± 0.16</td>
<td>0.077 ± 0.006</td>
<td>127.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>β</td>
<td>0.015 ± 0.000</td>
<td>0.23 ± 0.01</td>
<td>0.087</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$^a$Values from Liu et al.27

Figure 1. Dual activity of AmGH109A on substrates with a terminal nonreducing α- or β-GalNAc. (a) Michaelis–Menten plot of pNPGalNAc hydrolysis. The data markers are the mean of three replicates with standard deviations and the solid lines are the fits of the Michaelis–Menten expression to the initial rate data. (b) NMR monitoring of GalNAc(α/β1,3)Gal hydrolysis by 3.2 μM AmGH109A. Reactions were performed at 298 K, in 20 mM HEPES pH 6.6. The data could not be modeled with a Michaelis–Menten model, and the solid lines are not fits to that model. (c) and (d) NMR monitoring of the hydrolysis by 15 μg·mL$^{-1}$ AmGH109A of 2 mM α-pNPGalNAc and β-pNPGalNAc, respectively. Reactions were performed at 298 K, in 20 mM phosphate pH 6.6.
particular, no catalytic acid/base has been proposed to activate a nucleophilic water molecule and protonate the glycosidic bond oxygen, which otherwise would lead to the energetically unfavorable departure of an alkoxide group.26 Currently, GH109 enzymes are described as α-N-acetylglactosaminidases, discovered in the quest for enzymatic conversion of the blood group A antigen to the universal O-type by releasing terminal N-acetylglactosamine (GalNAc) units.27,28 A single enzyme from this family is both kinetically and structurally characterized, namely the enzyme from Elizabethkingia meningosepticum (NagA).26,27,29 The GH109 classification was based on NagA that is mainly active on 4-nitrophenyl 2-acetamido-2-deoxy-α-D-galactopyranoside (α-pNPGalNAc), with about 1500-fold lower activity on the β-linked anomer (4-nitrophenyl 2-acetamido-2-deoxy-β-D-galactopyranoside, β-pNPGalNAc).30 The dominance of a single stereoselectivity is the hallmark of the present GH paradigm, as no single GH has been reported to catalyze the hydrolysis of both α- and β- at comparable and relevant activity levels.

Here, we describe two members of the GH109 family from A. muciniphila (i.e., AmGH109A, GH109 from Akkermansia muciniphila encoded by the locus Amuc_0920; AmGH109B, GH109 from A. muciniphila encoded by the locus Amuc_0017) that potentially target GalNAc units present in a variety of host-derived glycans and notably have β-inverting activity alongside the expected α-retaining mechanism ascribed to the family. The kinetic signatures of both enzymes were markedly different from the previously described NagA. Strikingly, the first enzyme, AmGH109A, showed higher specificity ($K_{cat}$/$K_m$) toward β-pNPGalNAc (7.3 s⁻¹·mM⁻¹) than for α-pNPGalNAc (2.4 s⁻¹·mM⁻¹). AmGH109A displayed similar, relevant activities toward nonactivated α- and β-GalNAc (1 → 3)Gal disaccharides, which has not been reported to date. The second enzyme AmGH109B displayed about 18.4-fold lower efficiency on β-pNPGalNAc as compared with its α-counterpart but similar $K_m$ values for both substrates. Kinetic, bioinformatics, structural, mutational, and computational investigations allowed us to establish that a histidine (AmGH109A H404) in a conserved and flexible GGHGG motif acts as the catalytic acid-base in GH109 for both α-retaining and β-inverting activities.

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

The N-Acetyl Galactosaminidase AmGH109A Displays β-Inverting and α-Retaining Activities at Similar Levels. The kinetic parameters of GH109 have first been reported for NagA against the activated substrate analogues α-pNPGalNAc and β-pNPGalNAc, assigning GH109 as an α-specific family based on the about 1500-fold lower β-activity.27 The recombinant A. muciniphila GH109 enzymes AmGH109A and AmGH109B were expressed in soluble form and possessed relatively high thermal stabilities with unfolding temperatures ($T_m$) of 51.6 and 63.4 °C, respectively (Figure S1). The addition of 1 mM NAD⁺ had only a minor effect on the $T_m$ of both enzymes suggesting that the enzymes were already saturated by the cofactor that is likely to be bound with high affinity (Figure S2). This was consistent with the modest effect of added NAD⁺ on activity of both enzymes (Figure S3). The pH profiles for both enzymes were examined toward β-pNPGalNAc, and the highest activity was observed at pH 6.6 and 6.9 for AmGH109A and AmGH109B, respectively (Figure S4). The pH profiles of both these enzymes appeared broader than the counterpart for NagA that is mainly active between pH 7–8.29

Figure 2. Structural analysis of AmGH109A. (a) The overall structure of AmGH109A (PDB: 6T2B, green) superimposed on NagA in complex with GalNAc (PDB: 2IXB, gray). The positions of the GalNAc in both structures are identical, but only the one from AmGH109A is shown for clarity. The main differences in the active site region are the two elongated loop regions (light purple) F188–S208, and D322–G331 in NagA and a loop that presents a histidine residue in GH109 (AmGH109A H404 and NagA H372) within a GGHGG conserved motif. This loop adopts a conformation away from the active site in NagA (magenta), whereas it is located in the active site of AmGH109A, positioning the conserved H404 at a hydrogen-bonding distance from the anomeric C1-OH group of the subsite –1 bound GalNAc. (b) A close-up showing the loop described in (a) adopting two different conformations in NagA (magenta) and in AmGH109A (green). The conserved histidine within this loop is shown in sticks. The polar contact of this histidine with the C1- OH of GalNAc unveiled this residue as a candidate for the acid/base catalyst, which has not been identified in GH109. (c) The structure of AmGH109A scaled to the value of the B-factor (Pymol B-factor putty representation), which indicated the flexibility of the loop encompassing the conserved GGHGG motif.
Kinetic analyses were carried out on AmGH109A and AmGH109B toward aryl glycoside analogues, which demonstrated that both enzymes display unusually high β-activities (Table 1, Figure 1). The catalytic efficiency of AmGH109B was only about 18-fold lower on the β-aryl glycoside compared with the α-counterpart, mainly due to lower $k_{cat}$. Strikingly, the efficiency of AmGH109A was about 3-fold higher on the β-analogue, owing to ≈7-fold lower $K_m$ and only 40% lower $k_{cat}$. The observed α/β-activities were reproducible, excluding contamination.

This dual activity is more conceivable in GH109 than in classical (non NAD⁺-dependent) GHs, as the leaving group departure precedes the nucleophilic attack on the anomeric C1 (concomitant in classical GHs). The pKₐ of para-nitrophenol (7.24) makes departure as a nitrophenolate plausible without acid catalysis. Accordingly, the reaction toward β-aryl glycoside analogues could proceed without a catalytic proton donor on the GalNAc β-face, while the presence of the base catalyst on the GalNAc α-face would still be needed to activate the nucleophilic water molecule. This reaction would lead to an inversion of stereochemistry and the release of α-GalNAc from β-pNPGalNAc. Indeed, only signals with chemical shifts corresponding to α-GalNAc (δ = 5.14 ppm) were observed immediately upon enzyme addition, while signals corresponding to the β-anomer (δ = 4.58 ppm) appeared later because of mutarotation. Moreover, the anomeric signals appear as pseudosinglets stemming from the D/H exchange on C-2 (Figure 1c,d).

Nonactivated substrates are, however, likely to require a catalytic acid on the GalNAc β-face to assist the departure of the carbohydrate unit from the +1 subsite (pKₐ > 12 for a glycosyl leaving group). Thus, we investigated the activity of AmGH109A toward the α- and β-GalNAc(1 → 3)Gal motifs found in the blood group A antigen and in the globo antigen series, respectively. Surprisingly, AmGH109A exhibited similar activities against these nonactivated disaccharides with a lower $K_m$ for the β-GalNAc(1 → 3)Gal as compared with the substrate α-form, as evident from the time-course NMR monitoring of the hydrolysis reactions of the disaccharides (Figure 1d). Conservative estimates from the initial rates against 2.5 mM substrate yield $k_{cat}$ of 10 min⁻¹ and 20 min⁻¹ at 25 °C for β-GalNAc(1 → 3)Gal and α-GalNAc(1 → 3)Gal, respectively. Catalytic efficiencies, but not $k_{cat}$ values, of NagA and three other additional GH109 enzymes have been recently reported on methylumbelliferyl derivatives of A-antigens.

The only other GH family adopting a related mechanism is GH4, which has maximal reported turnover rates in the order of 10 min⁻¹ for nonactivated disaccharides, indicating that the nature of the oxidative mechanism in GH4/109 may dictate slower rates than in classical (i.e., nonoxidative) GHs. Importantly, these experiments were consistent with the presence of an acid/base catalyst, which has not been previously identified in either family.

**Structural Analysis.** To elucidate the missing acid/base catalyst in the mechanism of GH109 and to discern the structural elements behind the β-inverting activity, we determined the structure of AmGH109A (PDB: 6T2B). The crystal structure of AmGH109A was solved by molecular replacement using the highest resolution NagA model (PDB: 2IXA, 36.5% sequence identity) and refined to 2.13 Å resolution (Table S1). Four AmGH109A molecules are observed in the asymmetric unit, each with a GalNAc and an NAD⁺ molecule bound in the active site. Analysis of the structure using the PISA server indicates that AmGH109A forms a homodimer, which is organized in the same fashion as the NagA dimer (Figure S5a).

![Figure 3. A conserved histidine corresponding to AmGH109A H404 is the acid/base catalyst in the mechanism of GH109 enzymes. (a) The catalytic residues Y226, H228, H259, and H404, as well as the GalNAc and the NAD⁺ cofactor are shown in sticks. The distances between atoms that will exchange protons or hydride along the catalytic cycle are shown as yellow dotted lines. (b) Chemical rescue by imidazole of the H404A mutant activity on pNPGalNAc at 400 μM, compared to the wild-type enzyme.](https://dx.doi.org/10.1021/acscatal.9b04474)

The overall structure (Figure 2a) of AmGH109A closely resembles that of NagA (RMSD of 0.393 Å for 874 Cα atoms) and comprises an N-terminal Rossmann domain and a C-terminal α/β domain. One notable difference relative to NagA is the more open and shallow active site in AmGH109A, in particular the solvent accessible NAD⁺ binding groove (Figure S5b,c). The difference in active site architecture is partly due to shortening of the two loops comprising residues F188–S208 and D322-G331 in NagA (Figure 2a, Figure S5b,c). The GalNAc binding site in AmGH109A is similar to that of NagA with hydrogen bonds to Y226, R244, Y256,
H259, Y339, equivalent to Y179, R213, Y225, H228, Y307 in NagA (Figure 3a, Figure S5d,e).

One striking difference between NagA and AmGH109A, is that the GalNAc α-anomeric oxygen is at a hydrogen bonding distance to H404 in AmGH109A, while the corresponding residue (H372) is over 12 Å away in NagA (Figure 2a,b, Figure S5b–d). These histidines are located within highly flexible, glycine-rich loops (GGHGG in AmGH109A and GAGHGG in NagA). The computed pKₐ (6.2) of the hydrogen bond to the anomeric proton in AmGH109A (Figure 3a) highlight H404 as a plausible catalytic acid–base candidate in the mechanism. Additional support for a functionally important role of this histidine stems from the conservation of the GHGG motif in 95% of 3049 protein sequences sharing 20–65% pairwise identities (Supporting Information Files 2 and 3). An additional glycine preceding this motif is also present in more than 80% of the sequences, as observed for AmGH109A and AmGH109B but not in NagA. Given that GH109 and GH4 members share a NAD⁺-dependent mechanism and harbor both α- and β-active enzymes, we also performed a
comparative structural analysis of these two GH families. The active site region in GH4 displays a variable architecture, with a distinct clade resembling GH109 (Figure S6 and related discussion).

H404 Is the Catalytic Acid/Base in GH109. To assess the role of H404 in the catalytic mechanism of GH109 enzymes, we produced and characterized the AmGH109A single mutants H404A and H404F. The activity of the H404F variant was detectable but not measurable ($k_{cat} < 10^{-3} \text{ min}^{-1}$), while H404A could be chemically rescued toward hydrolysis of both $\alpha$- and $\beta$-PNPGalNAc up to 3% of the wild-type activity upon imidazole addition (Figure 3b, Figure S7).

Neither the stability nor the NAD$^+$-binding affinity of this mutant was markedly affected compared with AmGH109A (Figures S1,S2). The AmGH109A-H404A activity in the presence of 250 mM imidazole was unaffected by the addition of up to 2.5 mM NAD$^+$ (Figure S3). Moreover, our NMR analyses confirmed that imidazole acts as an exogenous acid/base catalyst and that the product of the rescue reaction is $\alpha$-GalNAc (Figure S7).

Taken together, the conservation of the GGHGG motif, the relevant hydrogen bonding distance from the anomeric carbon in the AmGH109A structure and the mutational data establish that H404 is the acid/base catalyst in GH109, allowing us to complete the $\alpha$-retaining mechanism previously proposed$^{26}$ for this enzyme family (Scheme 1).

Molecular Dynamics Simulations Support the Flexibility of the Loop Bearing the Histidine Catalytic Acid/Base in AmGH109A and NagA. The molecular determinants of the dual $\alpha/\beta$ specificity were further explored by molecular dynamics (MD) simulations. The AmGH109A structure was simulated in free form, and in complex with either $\alpha$- or $\beta$-GalNAc(1 → 3)$\text{Gal}$ disaccharide substrates, it was added to the active site by superimposition to the GalNAc present in AmGH109A (PDB: 6T2B). In the course of 400 ns simulations, the ligand-free form and the complex simulations resulted in comparable protein flexibilities and conformations with the protonation state suggested for the first step of the mechanisms (protonated H404, deprotonated H259 and H228, see Schemes 1 and 2, Step 1; Figure S8a). The four distances represented in Figure 4a,b between H3$'$ and the NAD$^+$-C5N, H2$'$ and the phenolic oxygen of Y226-OH, HO3$'$ and H259-$N_\varepsilon$ as well as between the O1$'$ and H404-H$\varepsilon_2$ along the simulations for the $\alpha$- and $\beta$-disaccharide, respectively.

Figure 4. Molecular dynamics simulations of AmGH109A bound to the $\alpha$- and $\beta$-GalNAc(1 → 3)$\text{Gal}$ disaccharides, respectively, catalytic residues Y226, H259, H404 and NAD$^+$ cofactor are shown in blue sticks for the closest conformation to the ligand (yellow sticks) (frames 346.4 and 99.6 ns, respectively). Distances between atoms that will exchange protons or hydride along the catalytic cycle are shown as dotted lines, and the crystallographic GalNAc is shown as green sticks. (c) and (d) Evolution of the distances between H3$'$ and the NAD$^+$-CSN, H2$'$ and the phenolic oxygen of Y226-OH, HO3$'$ and H259-$N_\varepsilon$ as well as between the O1$'$ and H404-H$\varepsilon_2$ along the simulations for the $\alpha$- and $\beta$-disaccharide, respectively.
propose H40 as the acid catalyst for the β-inverting mechanism through an E1C elimination (Scheme 2).

The $k_{cat}$ values of AmGH109A are in the same range for the four assayed substrates (0.5–2.5 s$^{-1}$), despite large differences in both leaving groups and stereochemistries. Thus, it is tempting to propose that the rate-limiting step takes place after the formation of the glycal-ketone intermediate and is either the hydration (Scheme 2, step 4) or the reduction reaction (Scheme 2, step 5). However, this cannot be generalized to the GH109 family, as both AmGH109B and NagA display strongly different $k_{cat}$ depending on the stereochemistry, which likely indicates that the E1C mechanism is the rate-limiting step for the β-pNPGalNAc in these enzymes. By analyzing rates of various α-aryl-GalNAc, Chakladar et al. proposed that the hydration step (Scheme 1, step 3) might be rate-limiting for the hydrolysis of these compounds by NagA. Simulations with histidine protonation states corresponding to the reaction step 3 were also performed, resulting in a lower loop flexibility and an increase in the α-disaccharide flexibility (Figures S8–S9 and related discussion).

The MD simulations of NagA showed that the corresponding loop that harbors the identified catalytic residue is also flexible, moving by over 12 Å to reach catalytically competent conformations of the conserved histidine (H372) toward the β-disaccharide (Figure S10 and related discussion). These findings strongly support the mechanistic importance of the flexibility of this loop and its role as harboring the His catalytic acid/base in GH109, rather than being a peculiarity of AmGH109A.

## CONCLUSIONS

This work unambiguously shows that distinct enzymes from GH109 display dual α-retaining and β-inverting activities. Moreover, these activities were observed on natural disaccharides and at similar levels. Bioinformatics and structural analyses provided a rationale for this dual activity by identifying a flexible loop harboring the GGHGG conserved motif within GH109. This loop provides the catalytic acid/base, which is identified in the present study and corroborated using mutational analysis and MD simulations. A practical implication of this is that GH109 enzymes should be systematically assayed against β-substrates as well as their α-counterparts. Formerly, only a single GH4, MalH from F. mortiferum, has shown similar levels of activity toward both stereochemistries but at very low levels ($k_{cat} \approx 10^{-3}$ min$^{-1}$) and against activated substrate analogues (pNP-α-D-Glc-6-phosphate and pNP-β-D-Glc-6-phosphate). We speculate that this dual functionality could be an evolutionary adaptation of the specialized host-glycan degrading genus Akkermansia that inhabits a mucin- and host glycoconjugate-rich ecological niche. This adaptation would reduce the number of enzymes needed to confer access to a broader diversity of α- and β-linked substrates from mucin and/or glycans that decorate epithelial enterocytes. It may also be a more generic feature shared by other GH109 enzymes.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

### Chemicals and Carbohydrate Substrates

N-Acetylgalactosamine (GalNAc), α-pNPGalNAc, and β-pNPGalNAc were from Sigma. The disaccharides α-GalNAc(1→3)Gal and β-GalNAc(1→3)Gal were from Carbosynth (Berkshire, U.K.). All other chemicals were of analytical grade, unless stated otherwise.

### Cloning, Expression, and Purification of the Glycoside Hydrolase Family 109 (GH109) Enzymes from Akkermansia muciniphila ATCC BAA-835

The gene fragment of locus tags Amuc_0017 (GenBank: ACD03864.1, here AmGH109B) and Amuc_0920 (GenBank: ACD04752.1, here AmGH109A), which encode the GH109 mature peptides lacking the signal peptides (amino acid residues 1–26 and 1–29, respectively as predicted by SignalP 4.0) were amplified from Akkermansia muciniphila ATCC BAA-835 (DSM 22598) genomic DNA using the primers (sense 5′-AGGAGATATACCACTGAGGAAGTACGCCCCCTTG-3′, antisense 5′-GGTGTTGTGTCGTGACGACTGATGGCCACGGC-3′) and (sense 5′-AGGAGATATACCATGCTCCCTGGGAAGGCTGTG-3′, antisense 5′-GGTGTTGTGTCGATGAAACCACGGCCACCG-3′), respectively, to generate ampiclones flanked by sequences for homologous recombination (in bold) with the pET28a (+) vector (Novagen, Madison, WI). Infusion cloning (Clonetech/ takara, CA, U.S.A.) was used to clone these ampiclones into the NcoI and XhoI sites of the above vector. The resulting recombinant plasmids, pET28a-AmGH109A pET28a-AmGH109B, were transformed into Escherichia coli DH5α and transformants were selected on LB plates supplemented with kanamycin (50 μg·mL$^{-1}$). The synthetic genes encoding the single mutant variants AmGH109A H404A and AmGH109A H404F, both cloned in the same vector, were purchased from Biomatik (Ontario, Canada) and transformed in E. coli DH5α.

The wild type and mutant enzyme variants were produced in E. coli Rosetta(D3) (Novagen, Madison, WI) grown in 2 L LB medium at 30 °C to OD$_{600}$ ≈ 0.5, followed by cooling the medium on ice for 30 min, then the expression was induced by the addition of 200 μM isopropyl β-D-1-thiogalactopyranoside and growth was continued overnight at 18 °C. The cells were harvested by centrifugation (10 000g, 30 min), resuspended in 10 mL of the purification buffer A (20 mM HEPES, 500 mM NaCl, 10 mM imidazole, 10% (v/v) glycerol, pH 7.5) and lysed by a STANSTED high-pressure homogenizer (SPCH-1, Homogenizing Systems, Essex, U.K.), followed by incubation for 30 min on ice with 5 μL benzonase nuclease (Sigma). The lysate was centrifuged for 20 min (45 000 g, 4 °C), and the supernatant was filtered (0.45 μm) and loaded onto a HisTrap HP column (GE Healthcare, Uppsala, Sweden). The bound protein was washed (13 column volumes, CV) and eluted with the same buffer using an imidazole gradient from 10 to 400 mM in 15 CV. Pure protein fractions based on SDS-PAGE analysis were collected and concentrated to 5 mg·mL$^{-1}$, applied onto a HiLoad 16/600 Superdex 75 prep grade column (GE healthcare), and eluted by 1.2 CV of 20 mM HEPES, 150 mM NaCl, pH 6.8, and concentrated with 10 kDa Amicon ultracentrifugal filters (Millipore, Darmstadt, Germany). The fractions were analyzed by SDS-PAGE, and pure fractions were pooled and concentrated. Subsequently, the protein concentration was determined using a Nanodrop (Thermo, Waltham, MA) using the theoretically predicted extinction coefficients $e_{280}$ nm 70860 M$^{-1}$·cm$^{-1}$ and 91330 M$^{-1}$·cm$^{-1}$ for AmGH109A and AmGH109B, respectively, as determined using the ProtParam tool (http://web.expasy.org/protparam). Finally, NaN$_3$ (0.005% w/v) was added to the enzyme stocks that were stored at 4 °C for further use.
Enzyme Stability. AmGH109A, AmGH109A H404A, and AmGH109B were dialyzed against 3 x 100 volumes of 50 mM Na2HPO4/NaH2PO4, pH 6.6. The unfolding temperature (Tm) was determined using a Prometheus NT.48 NanoDSF (NanoTemper, Germany). The fluorescent emission intensity (λ = 330 nm and λ = 350 nm) and scattering were recorded with an excitation at λ = 280 nm at 10% intensity. The samples were scanned at 1 °C/min. The Tm was determined from the peak maximum of the first derivative of the fraction fluorescent intensity at 350nm using PR.stabilityAnalysis (Nano Temper, Germany). NAD+ dissolved in the same buffer as above was added to a final concentration of 1 mM 20 min prior to analysis. The experiments were performed in triplicates, and the data were reported as means with standard deviations.

Enzymatic Analyses. The pH-activity profiles of the AmGH109A and AmGH109B (both at 100 nM) were determined in Britton-Robinson universal buffer adjusted to 0.1 M ionic strength in the pH range 5.0–9.1 (12 pH values) in a 150 μL reaction toward 2 mM β-pNPGalNAc, which was added to initiate the reactions. The experiments were performed in triplicates using a PowerWave XS microtiter plate reader monitored by the GenS software (Bio-Tek Instruments, Inc.) by monitoring absorbance at 405 nm (A405) every 40 s for 10 min at 25 °C. The absorbance values were corrected at the different pH values by calculating the phenolate concentration using the phenol pKa = 7.24. Spectrophotometry-based kinetics experiments were performed similarly, but the absorbance at 405 nm (A405) was monitored every 20 s to 20 min at 25 °C. The reactions (200 μL), which were carried out in 96-wells, contained (α/β)-pNPGalNAc 0.0025–10 mM (12 concentrations), HEPES buffer 50 mM pH 6.6, and 100 nM of AmGH109A/B, whereas the AmGH109A H404A and H404F were evaluated at 1.5 μM. Chemical rescue experiments were performed on AmGH109A H404A in the same buffer systems as above in the presence of 10–250 mM imidazole as an exogenous acid/base. Initial rates, calculated from slopes of pNP formation vs time, were fitted to the Michaelis–Menten equation v = kcat[S] [E] / km + [S] using OriginPro 2015 (OriginLab, U.S.A.) to obtain kcat and km values. To assess the effect of NAD+ additions, the activity of AmGH109A (100 nM) toward 1.2 mM β-pNPGalNAc was measured in the presence or absence of either 0.5 mM NAD+ in a similar assay as above but with a reaction volume of 150 μL. The activity of AmGH109A H404A (5 μM) was measured similarly in the presence of 250 mM imidazole similar to the concentration used in the chemical rescue experiments in the presence and absence of 0.5 mM or 2.5 mM NAD+. The initial rates were determined from the slopes of the linear part of the progress curves. The experiments were performed in triplicates, and the data are reported as means with standard deviations.

NMR Analyses. NMR spectra were recorded on an 800 MHz Bruker Avance III (799.85 MHz for 1H) equipped with a 5 mm TCI cryoprobe using 1H with presaturation at 298 K. Reaction mixtures of 600 μL containing 3.2 μM AmGH109A and 2.5 mM disaccharides in a 50 mM deuterated HEPES buffer pD = 6.6 (corresponding to a measured “pH” of 6.2) were analyzed. Time course experiments were obtained using pseudo-2D kinetics experiments, with spectra recorded every 3 min. Integration was performed on peaks at 4.16, 4.11, and 3.96 ppm (α-disaccharide) or 4.15, 4.04, and 3.93 ppm (β-disaccharide). Stereochemical outcomes were measured in a 50 mM deuterated HEPES buffer pD = 6.6 in the presence of 2 mM pNPGalNAc and 15 μg·mL−1 (AmGH109A) or 2 mg·mL−1 (AmGH109A-H404A) enzyme.

Bioinformatics. Sequences were retrieved from the nonredundant protein database, using AmGH109A as a query. Protein BLAST searches were performed on the NCBI server (www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov), using default options but for the “Max target sequences” parameter, set at 20 000. On July third, 2018, 18 464 sequences were obtained and clustered to limit pairwise sequence identity at 65% by iterative cd-hit runs. Iterative multiple sequence alignments using Clustal Ω were performed to increase the minimum pairwise sequence identity by 5% increments until convergence is reached, and all sequences share ≥20% pairwise sequence identity using a previously described script.

Crystallography. A stock solution of AmGH109A (6 mg·mL−1) in 20 mM HEPES, 150 mM NaCl, pH 7.1 was supplemented with N-Acetylglactosamine to a final concentration of 10 mM 1 h prior to setting up sitting drops using the crystal Gryphon liquid handling robot (Art Robbins Instruments, Sunnyvale, U.S.A.). Drops containing equal volumes (150 nL) of protein and reservoir solution (15% w/v PEG 2000 MME and 0.1 mM sodium citrate) were equilibrated against 60 μL of reservoir solution. Crystals with a maximum dimension of approximately 100 μm formed after 1 day. MicroMount loops (MiTeGen) were used to harvest crystals that were cryoprotected in the reservoir solution with the addition of 15% (w/v) PEG 400 before being flash frozen in liquid nitrogen. A data set of 3800 frames (0.1 degree per frame) was collected at the BioMAX beamline (MaxIV, Lund, Sweden) with a detector distance of 220.399 mm and X-ray wavelength of 1.3799 Å. The data were processed automatically at the beamline using autoPROC to a resolution of 2.13 Å using autoPROC’s default cutoff criteria. Data were phased with molecular replacement using Phaser in the Phenix software package, with the N-acetylglactosaminidase from Elizabethkingia meningoseptica (PDB: 2IXA) as search model. An initial model was built using Phenix.autobuild and completed with alternating manual rebuilding in Coot and automatic Phenix.refine refinement. Ligands were placed with Phenix.LigandFit.

Molecular Dynamics Simulations. The structure of AmGH109A (PDB: 6T2B) and NagA (PDB: 2IXB) was protonated in the H++ Server with pH 7.0 and 0.15 M NaCl ionic strength, catalytic residue protonation was adjusted according to the mechanism of step 1. Simulations were run with the TIP3P water model and charges were equalized with the gmx genion routine. MD simulations were carried out using the GROMACS2018 program package. After energy minimization to a maximum force smaller than 100 kJ·mol−1·nm−1 (steep descent), the system was equilibrated in two simulations with 1 ns each. All simulations were performed under isothermal–isobaric (NPT) ensemble conditions with Parri...
systems were simulated for at least 400 ns. Simulations were thermostatted (reference temperature 300 K and coupling time constant 0.2 ps). Simulation time step was 2 fs. Hydrogen bonds were constrained using the LINCS algorithm. All systems were simulated for at least 400 ns. The details of the simulations and the protonation states are enlisted in Tables S2–S3.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acscatal.9b04474.

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