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Crystal structures of γ -glutamylmethylamide synthetase provide insight into bacterial metabolism of oceanic monomethylamine

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Running title: Structure and catalytic mechanism of GMA synthetase GmaS

Keywords: γ -glutamylmethylamide synthetase (GmaS), crystal structure, enzyme mechanism, monomethylamine (MMA) metabolism, enzyme catalysis, protein complex, bacterial metabolism

Abstract

Monomethylamine (MMA) is an important climate-active oceanic trace gas and ubiquitous in the oceans. The γ-glutamylmethylamide synthetase (GmaS) catalyzes the conversion of MMA to γ -glutamylmethylamide (GMA), the first step in MMA metabolism in many marine bacteria. The gmaS gene occurs in ~23% of microbial genomes in the surface ocean and is a validated biomarker to detect MMA-utilizing bacteria. However, the catalytic mechanism of GmaS has not been studied due to the lack of structural information. Here, the GmaS from Rhodovulum sp. 12E13 (RhGmaS) was characterized, and the crystal structures of apo-RhGmaS and RhGmaS with different ligands in five states were solved. Based on structural and biochemical analyses, the catalytic mechanism of RhGmaS was explained. ATP is first bound in RhGmaS, leading to a conformational change of a flexible loop (Lys287-Ile305), which is essential for the subsequent binding of glutamate. During the catalysis of RhGmaS, the residue Arg312 participates in polarizing the γ -phosphate of ATP and in stabilizing the γ glutamyl phosphate intermediate; Asp177 is responsible for the deprotonation of MMA, assisting the attack of MMA on γ-glutamyl phosphate to produce a tetrahedral intermediate; and Glu186 acts as a catalytic base to abstract a proton from the tetrahedral intermediate to finally generate GMA. Sequence analysis suggested that the catalytic mechanism of RhGmaS proposed in this study has universal significance in bacteria containing GmaS. Our results provide novel insights into MMA metabolism, contributing to a better understanding of MMA catabolism in global carbon and nitrogen cycles.

Introduction

Methylated amines (MAs), such as mono-, di-, trimethylamine (MMA, DMA, TMA) and trimethylamine N-oxide (TMAO), are widely distributed in marine environments, and play important roles in marine carbon (C) and nitrogen (N) cycles (1-3). In the ocean, the major source of MAs is likely the breakdown of quaternary amine osmolytes, such as betaine, choline and carnitine (4,5). MMA, an ammonium analog, is an important component of marine one-carbon (C1) compounds (i.e., compounds with no carbon-carbon bond) (6,7), MMA provides carbon and energy sources as well as a nitrogen source for many microorganisms (2,8,9). In addition, the volatile MMA can enter the atmosphere from the oceans, and has impacts on the global climate through participation of the formation of marine aerosols (3,10).

There are two pathways identified from bacteria for aerobic MMA metabolism, a direct MMA-oxidation pathway and an indirect MMA-oxidation pathway (6). The direct MMA-oxidation pathway is only found in methylotrophic bacteria, through which MMA metabolized to formaldehyde ammonium by a single enzyme (4,6). This enzyme is an MMA oxidase in Gram-positive bacteria such as Arthrobacter (11) or an MMA dehydrogenase in Gram-negative bacteria such Methylobacterium extorquens as and Paracoccus denitrificans (12,13). In the indirect MMA-oxidation pathway, MMA is converted by γ-glutamylmethylamide synthetase (GmaS) to γ-glutamylmethylamide (GMA), which is further converted to Nmethylglutamate (NMG) by NMG synthase, and finally to 5,10-methylenetetrahydrofolate $(CH_2 = THF)$ by NMG dehydrogenase (4,8). Because NMG is an essential intermediate of the indirect MMA-oxidation pathway, this pathway is also termed as the NMG pathway.

Unlike the direct MMA-oxidation pathway which is only found in methylotrophic bacteria to date, the NMG pathway is adopted by both methylotrophic and non-methylotrophic bacteria, in particular, by many bacteria of the marine Roseobacter clade (MRC) (14). MRC bacteria are ubiquitous and numerically abundant in marine environments (15,16), and are important participants in MMA metabolism (14,17,18). It is estimated that half of the genomes of MRC strains contain gmaS, and this gene has been chosen as a biomarker to bacteria detect MMA-utilizing environment (6,18). The gmaS gene occurs in ~23% of microbial genomes in the surface ocean (17), suggesting that GmaS plays an important role in marine N and C cycles. However, despite that the biochemical characteristics of GmaS from several strains have been reported (19-22), little is known about the molecular mechanism of GmaS catalyzing the conversion of MMA to GMA.

Sequence analysis indicates that GmaS is closely related to, but distinct from, the glutamine synthetase (GS) family, one of the oldest and most ubiquitously existing family of enzymes in biota (4,23,24). GmaS is more specific to MMA, whereas the natural substrate of GS enzymes is ammonia (19,20,25). This is consistent with the results of sequence analysis, showing that GmaS lacks key ammoniabinding residues that are conserved in GS enzymes (4,21,24,26). GS enzymes can be divided into three distinct types: GSI, GSII and GSIII (27,28), and the crystal structures of GS have been determined (29-31). However, no crystal structure of GmaS is available to date, and the structural basis of GmaS to convert MMA to GMA remains obscure.

In this study, we report the structure of a GmaS enzyme and its molecular mechanism for the conversion of MMA to GMA. The *gmaS* gene from strain *Rhodovulum* sp. 12E13 (Rh*gmaS*) was expressed, and the recombinant *Rh*GmaS was purified and characterized. Six crystal structures of *Rh*GmaS in different states were solved. Based on structural and mutational assays, we proposed the molecular mechanism of *Rh*GmaS for the conversion of MMA to GMA. The results provide novel insights into MMA metabolism, leading to a better understanding of MMA catabolism in global C and N cycles.

Results and discussion

Characterization of RhGmaS

Full length RhgmaS of R. sp. 12E13 contains 1293 nucleotides and encodes a 430-aminoacid polypeptide, which shows 61% identity to the functional GmaS from a type strain of MRC, Ruegeria pomerovi DSS-3 (18,32). We chemically synthesized RhgmaS, expressed it in E. coli BL21 (DE3), and characterized the recombinant RhGmaS. The recombinant *Rh*GmaS was active to catalyze the ligation of MMA and glutamate to produce GMA, with ATP and Mg²⁺ as cofactors. The optimal pH for RhGmaS enzymatic activity was ~8.0 (Fig. 1A), similar to that of Methylovorus mays No.9 GmaS $(7.5 \sim 8.0)$ (21). The optimal temperature of RhGmaS was 60°C (Fig. 1B), which is higher than those of Methylophaga sp. AA-30 GmaS (40°C) (19) and of M. mays No.9 GmaS (50°C) (22). We noticed that the optimal temperatures of these GmaS enzymes are much higher than that of typical marine surface water column. Then we purified two other GmaS homologs from MRC strains R. pomeroyi DSS-3 and Dinoroseobacter shibae DFL12. These

two GmaS homologs also presented a high optimal temperature of 60°C (Fig. 1C and 1D), indicating that the relatively high optimal temperature is a common trait of GmaS proteins. Even so, RhGmaS still maintains a specific activity of ~0.71 µmol min⁻¹ mg⁻¹ at 20°C, suggesting that RhGmaS could work properly under the physiological temperature. The $K_{\rm m}$ of RhGmaS for glutamate was 67.18 mM (Fig. 1E), and that for ATP was 0.42 mM (Fig. 1F). RhGmaS exhibited a K_m value of 26.94 µM for MMA (Table 1), which is 3-fold lower than that of M. sp. AA-30 GmaS (89 μ M) (19) and 6-fold lower than that of M. mays No.9 GmaS (180 μ M) (20). The micromolar level of K_m values of GmaS enzymes for MMA indicates that GmaS enzymes possess high affinities to MMA.

Amine donors, such as hydroxylamine and ethylamine, can replace ammonia as substrate for some GS enzymes (20,24,30). To determine whether RhGmaS can catalyze different ammonia analogs, we analyzed the substrate specificity of RhGmaS (Table 1). In addition to MMA, RhGmaS can accept ethylamine, hydroxylamine, propylamine, ammonium chloride, DMA or TMA as a substrate, indicating that this enzyme has a relatively broad substrate specificity. The $K_{\rm m}$ of RhGmaS for MMA was the lowest among the tested ammonia analogs, while the $K_{\rm m}$ for NH₄Cl is much higher (Table 1), suggesting that MMA is likely the natural substrate of RhGmaS. This result is consistent with the previous reports that GmaS prefers MMA as its substrate rather than ammonia (4,19,20,24). To investigate whether the N-terminal His-tag would affect the kinetic properties of the recombinant RhGmaS, we used thrombin to cut off the Histag, and measured the kinetic parameters of RhGmaS without His-tag (Fig. S1), which

were similar to *Rh*GmaS with His-tag. This result indicates that the presence of the His-tag has little effect on the kinetic properties of the enzyme. The *Rh*GmaS proteins used in this study all contained the His-tag, unless otherwise noted.

Overall structure of RhGmaS

To gain insight into the catalytic mechanism of RhGmaS, the crystal structure of apo-RhGmaS was solved (Table 2). There are three monomers arranged as a trimer in an asymmetric unit (Fig. 2A), with each monomer composed of 15 α -helices and 13 β -strands. However, gel filtration analysis demonstrated that RhGmaS is a dodecamer in solution (Fig. 2B), which is consistent with the result of electron microscopic analysis (Fig. 2C). The negative staining electron micrograph clearly showed that RhGmaS consists of two hexameric rings, with each ring containing six monomers (Fig. 2C). Thus, RhGmaS should function as a dodecamer in solution. During structural refinement, we could not find the electron densities of the N-terminal His-tag, suggesting that this tag is flexible. The electron microscopic analysis showed that RhGmaS without His-tag still maintains a dodecamer containing two hexameric rings in solution (Fig. S2). These data suggest that the presence of the His-tag has little effect on the structural properties of RhGmaS. The overall structure of RhGmaS is similar to the structure of a GS enzyme from Bacillus subtilis (PDB code: 4LNI), with a root mean square deviation (RMSD) of 0.86 Å between these two structures. The B. subtilis GS also functions as a dodecamer (33).

We further co-crystallized *Rh*GmaS with ATP/ADP, glutamate and MMA. However, after we solved the structures, we could not

find glutamate or MMA bound in RhGmaS, and ATP was hydrolyzed to ADP during crystallization. We then tried to co-crystallize RhGmaS with substrate analogs. Phosphoaminophosphonic acid-adenylate ester (AMPPNP) and phosphomethylphosphonic acid-adenylate ester (AMPPCP) are non-ATP hydrolysable analogs. Methionine sulfoximine (MetSox) is an analog of glutamate, with a methylsulfoximine group replacing the carboxyl group of glutamate. MetSox can be phosphorylated to form a transition analog, methionine sulfoximine phosphate (MetSox-P) (33). Finally, the crystal structures of RhGmaS/AMPPCP complex, RhGmaS/AMPPNP/MetSox complex, RhGmaS/ADP/MetSox-P complex and RhGmaS/ADP complexes in two (RhGmaS/ADP-C1 conformations and RhGmaS/ADP-C2) were solved (Table 2), which provide us abundant structural information for further mechanistic analysis. All the solved RhGmaS structures contain three molecules arranged as a trimer in an asymmetric unit, suggesting that dodecameric RhGmaS has a relatively high symmetry.

Residues involved in the binding of ATP, glutamate and Mg²⁺

In the crystal structure of apo-*Rh*GmaS, the electron densities of residues Pro292-Trp300 are rather poor, and we could not place these residues during structural refinement, indicating a relatively high flexibility of this region. However, in the crystal structure of *Rh*GmaS/AMPPCP complex, the electron densities of this region are clear, and the conformation of the loop Lys287-Ile305 is different from that in the apo-*Rh*GmaS structure (Fig. 3A), suggesting that the binding

of the ATP molecule will lead to the conformation change of the loop Lys287-Ile305.

Residues involved in binding ATP are identified based on the crystal structure of RhGmaS/AMPPCP complex. The residue Tyr191 forms pi-pi stacking interaction with the adenine moiety of ATP, and residues His237 and Ser239 interact with the adenine moiety through hydrogen bonds (Fig. 3B). Trp189 forms a hydrogen bond with the ribose moiety, and residues Glu122, Tyr174, Gln175, Arg312 and Arg317 participate in binding the phosphate moieties of ATP (Fig. 3B). We noticed that the AMPPCP molecule exhibits two conformations in RhGmaS/AMPPCP complex (Fig. 3B), suggesting that the binding of ATP without glutamate and Mg²⁺ may not be tight.

Despite many attempts, we did not obtain the crystal structure of RhGmaS/glutamate complex, probably due to the low affinity of RhGmaS for glutamate (Fig. 1E). Instead, we solved the crystal structure RhGmaS/AMPPNP/MetSox complex (Table 2), which can reflect the binding mode of ATP and glutamate. The overall structure of RhGmaS/AMPPNP/MetSox is similar to that of RhGmaS/AMPPCP complex, with an RMSD of 0.19 Å between these two structures. Three Mg²⁺ were also identified in the crystal RhGmaS/AMPPNP/MetSox of complex. The locations of AMPPNP, MetSox and three Mg²⁺ are well defined based on the electron density map. All three Mg2+ participate in binding AMPPNP/ATP, which partially changes the binding mode of ATP. Compared to RhGmaS/AMPPCP complex, the residue Glu122 does not interact with ATP directly but through Mg1 and Mg2, and Asn188 forms a new hydrogen bond with ATP (Fig. 3C).

The binding of MetSox in RhGmaS mainly depends on hydrogen bonds between its hydrophilic atoms and RhGmaS residues Glu124, Glu179, Gly231, His235, Arg288 and Arg327 (Fig. 3D). Interestingly, Arg288 is located in the flexible loop Lys287-Ile305, and of this conformations loop in RhGmaS/AMPPCP complex and RhGmaS/AMPPNP/MetSox complex are identical. This result indicates that the conformational change of loop Lys287-Ile305 due to ATP binding will facilitate the subsequent binding of glutamate.

Three Mg²⁺ are coordinated by MetSox, AMPPNP, two water molecules and *Rh*GmaS residues Glu122, Glu124, Glu179, Glu186, His235 and Glu325 (Fig. 3E). In fact, when we co-crystallized *Rh*GmaS and AMPPCP, we also added Mg²⁺ in the protein solution, but the fact that no Mg²⁺ presenting in *Rh*GmaS/AMPPCP complex suggests that Mg²⁺ is bound after the binding of glutamate.

To confirm the importance of RhGmaS residues involved in binding ATP, glutamate and Mg²⁺, we generated site-directed mutations to these residues and quantified the enzymatic activities of the mutants. All the mutations dramatically decreased the activity of RhGmaS (Fig. 4A), suggesting that these residues play important roles during the catalysis of RhGmaS. Circular-dichroism (CD) analysis showed that spectroscopy the secondary structures of the mutants exhibited little deviation from that of wild type (WT) RhGmaS with the exceptions of Tyr174Ala and Arg317Ala (Fig. 4B), indicating that the decreases in the enzymatic activities of most mutants are caused by residue replacement rather than structural changes. Mutation of Tyr174 or Arg317 to Ala led to a change of the secondary structure of *Rh*GmaS (Fig. 4B), which may be caused by the differences of side-chain properties between Tyr or Arg and Ala.

The catalytic residues of RhGmaS

Based on the catalytic mechanism of GS enzymes (33), it is likely that *Rh*GmaS catalyze a two-step reaction: in the first step, glutamate is phosphorylated, leading to the formation of γ-glutamyl phosphate, which is subsequently attacked by MMA to yield GMA in the second step. To obtain a transition state of *Rh*GmaS catalysis, we co-crystallized *Rh*GmaS with ATP, MgCl₂ and MetSox, and obtained the crystal structure of *Rh*GmaS/ADP/MetSox-P complex (Table 2). In this structure, Arg312 and Mg²⁺ form interactions with the phosphate group of MetSox-P (Fig. 5A), indicating that Arg312 and Mg²⁺ are involved in stabilizing the transition state.

To obtain the crystal structure of RhGmaS in complex with MMA, we tried crystallization and soaking methods, but all attempts were failed. However, structure analysis of RhGmaS/ADP/MetSox-P (the γglutamyl phosphate mimic) complex provided us some clues of the MMA binding site. A negative-charged pocket close to the ADP and MetSox-P molecules is observed in the complex (Fig. 5B), which is mainly formed by hydrophilic residues, including Tyr147, Gln175, Asp177, Glu179, Glu186, Asn188 and Lys30' (where a prime indicates neighboring subunit) (Fig. 5C). Because MMA is alkaline, it is likely that RhGmaS attracts MMA through electrostatic interactions. After MMA enters the active site, it will be deprotonated prior to its attack on the yglutamyl phosphate of ATP. Structure analysis suggests that Asp177 or Glu186 is the potential

residue to deprotonate MMA (Fig. 5C). Previous studies on GS enzymes indicate that the attack of ammonia on γ-glutamyl phosphate will generate tetrahedral intermediate, which is further deprotonated before the final formation of glutamine (33,34). In the case of *Rh*GmaS, the attack of MMA on γ-glutamyl phosphate may generate a similar tetrahedral intermediate. Because Glu186 is closer to the phosphoryl group of MetSox-P than Asp177 in the RhGmaS/ADP/MetSox-P deduced complex, we that Glu186 deprotonates the tetrahedral intermediate while Asp177 deprotonates MMA during RhGmaS catalysis.

Mutations of residues composing the MMA binding site and directly participating in the catalysis decreased the activity of *Rh*GmaS significantly (Fig. 4A), suggesting a crucial role of these residues. CD spectroscopy analysis suggested that the decreases in the enzymatic activities of most mutants resulted from residue replacements, while the mutation Tyr147Ala changed the secondary structure of *Rh*GmaS (Fig. 4B).

Conformational change of RhGmaS after catalysis

After GMA is generated, GMA, ATP and Mg²⁺ will be released from the catalytic pocket of *Rh*GmaS, enabling *Rh*GmaS to be ready for the next catalytic cycle. We determined the crystal structures of two RhGmaS/ADP complexes in different conformations (RhGmaS/ADP-C1 and RhGmaS/ADP-C2), which may reflect the events after catalysis. When structures of RhGmaS/ADP/MetSox-P, RhGmaS/ADP-C1 and RhGmaS/ADP-C2 are aligned (Fig. 6), it can be seen that the conformation of ADP in RhGmaS/ADP/MetSox-P is different from RhGmaS/ADP-C1 those in and

RhGmaS/ADP-C2, and the conformations of the loop region Lys287-Ile305 in these three structures are different. Because Arg288 in the loop region participates in binding glutamate (Fig. 3D), the conformational change of the loop region indicates that GMA and Mg²⁺ are released firstly after the catalysis. Without the binding of GMA and Mg²⁺, the binding of ADP becomes relatively loose, and will be finally released from the active site of RhGmaS.

The catalytic cycle of RhGmaS

Based on structural and biochemical assays, the catalytic cycle of RhGmaS converting MMA to GMA is proposed (Fig. 7). In the first step of RhGmaS catalysis, ATP is first bound in RhGmaS, which leads to a conformational change of the loop Lys287-Ile305, assisting the subsequent binding of glutamate. The residue Arg312 and Mg²⁺ directly interact with ATP γphosphate (Fig. 3C), which helps polarize the γ-phosphate and facilitates the nucleophilic attack of glutamate (33) (Fig. 7A). After glutamate is phosphorylated, Arg312 forms a hydrogen bond with the phosphate group of γglutamyl phosphate to stabilize the transition state (Fig. 7B). In the second step, MMA is attracted by RhGmaS and enters into the pocket. The residue binding Asp177 deprotonates MMA (Fig. 7C), enabling MMA to attack γ-glutamyl phosphate (Fig. 7D). A tetrahedral intermediate is then produced with the attack of MMA (Fig. 7E). Finally, Glu186 abstracts a proton from the tetrahedral intermediate, and GMA is generated (Fig. 7F). Then RhGmaS releases GMA and ADP, and is ready for the next catalytic cycle.

Despite that the overall structure of *Rh*GmaS is similar to that of the GS enzyme from *B. subtilis* (PDB code: 4LNI) (33) (Fig. 8A), the catalytic processes of *Rh*GmaS and GS are

different. Two loops (the Glu flap and the Asp50' loop) play key roles in the catalytic process of GS (25,33). The Glu flap of GS possesses several functions: (i) guarding substrate entry and product release; (ii) shielding the y-glutamyl phosphate from aberrant hydrolysis; and more importantly, (iii) harboring the conserved glutamate residue (Glu304 in B. subtilis GS) which acts as the catalytic base for the final attack on the tetrahedral intermediate (25,33). Structural analysis suggests that the loop Lys287-Ile305 of RhGmaS corresponds to the Glu flap in GS (Fig. 8B). However, there is no glutamate residue in this loop, and the corresponding residue of Glu304 in B. subtilis GS is Trp300 in RhGmaS (Fig. 8B). For RhGmaS, this loop region only acts as gate for substrate entry and product release, and Glu186 is the catalytic residue to attack the tetrahedral intermediate. The aspartate residue in the Asp50' loop is strictly conserved in GS, which has two participating in functions: (i) binding ammonium, and (ii) deprotonating the ammonium in the active site to create ammonia (25,33). The corresponding region of the Asp50' loop in RhGmaS is Phe47'-Ala61', and the corresponding residue of Asp50' in RhGmaS is Ala48' (Fig. 8C). Structural analysis suggests that no residue of *Rh*GmaS in the region Phe47'-Ala61' participates in binding MMA, and Lys30' is the only residue from the neighboring subunit involved in composing the MMA binding site (Fig. 5C). The result of structural analysis confirmed the previous sequence analysis that GmaS lacks the key ammonia-binding residue (4,21,24,26), highlighting the differences between GmaS and GS. Moreover, phylogenetic analysis indicated that GmaS proteins form a separate clade from GSI, GSII and GSIII enzymes (Fig.

9), which is consistent with previous studies (4,32), suggesting the divergent evolution of GmaS from GS.

Universality of the catalytic mechanism of *RhG*maS

GmaS homologs widely occur in marine bacteria, including MRC and SAR11 clade (17), supporting a significant role of MMA metabolism in marine C and N cycles. Moreover, many soil bacteria are also reported to possess GmaS homologs, such Methylocella silvestris BL2 **(4)** and Pseudomonas sp. C5pp (24). To study the ubiquity of the RhGmaS catalytic mechanism, we carried out sequence alignment of GmaS homologs from different strains (Fig. 10). The result showed that most of the residues involved in binding ATP, glutamate, MMA and Mg²⁺ are highly conserved in GmaS homologs (Fig. 10). In particular, the catalytic residues Arg312, Asp177 and Glu186 are strictly conserved in all GmaS homologs (Fig. 10), suggesting that the molecular mechanism of RhGmaS to convert MMA to GMA is likely adopted by most of other bacterial GmaSs.

Conclusion

In this study, we solved the crystal structures of *RhG*maS in different states for the first time. Based on structural and mutational analysis, we explained the catalytic mechanism of *RhG*maS for the conversion of MMA to GMA in detail. Sequence alignment indicated that the proposed molecular mechanism of *RhG*maS has universal significance. Our results provide novel insight into marine MMA metabolism and broaden our understanding of the biogeochemical cycles of C and N.

Experimental procedures

Bacterial strains and growth conditions

The *E. coli* strains DH5 α and BL21 (DE3) were grown in the Lysogeny Broth (LB) medium at 37 $^{\circ}$ C.

Gene synthesis, point mutation and protein expression and purification

The full-length RhgmaS gene from R. sp. 12E13 was synthesized by the Beijing Genomics Institute (China). The gene was then cloned into the pET-28a vector containing an N-terminal His-tag (Novagen, America). All point mutations of RhGmaS were created by PCR-based method and confirmed by DNA sequencing. The RhGmaS protein and all the mutants were expressed in *E. coli* BL21 (DE3). The recombinant strains were grown at 37°C in LB medium containing 30 µg/ml kanamycin and then were induced by 0.5 mM isopropyl β-D-1-thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG) at 18°C for 16 h. All proteins were purified first by Ni²⁺ nitrilotriacetic acid (NTA) resin (Qiagen, Germany) and then by anion exchange chromatography on a Source 15Q column (GE Healthcare, America) with 0-1 M NaCl in 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0). The eluted proteins were further fractionated by gel filtration on a Superose 6 column (GE Healthcare, America) with the buffer containing 10 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0) and 100 mM NaCl. To prepare RhGmaS protein without His-tag, we digested the purified RhGmaS by thrombin (Solarbio, China) at 4°C overnight, and then the mixtures were fractionated by gel filtration on a Superose 6 column.

Gel filtration analysis

The Superose 6 column was calibrated in the buffer containing 10 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0)

and 100 mM NaCl using the following standards from GE Healthcare: thyroglobulin (669 kDa), ferritin (440 kDa), aldolase (158 kDa), conalbumin (75 kDa), carbonic anhydrase (29 kDa), ribonuclease A (13.7 kDa) and Aprotinin (6.5 kDa). The void volume of Superose 6 column was determined with blue dextran 2000 (2000 kDa).

Negative stain electron microscopy (EM)

*Rh*GmaS proteins (~6 μg/ml) were applied to glow-discharged EM grids for 1 min and then stained with 2% (w/v) uranyl acetate twice for 30 s and 1 min, respectively. Negatively stained grids were imaged on a Talos L120C TEM (Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA) operated at 120 kV. Images were recorded at ×73000 magnification with a CetaTM 16M camera (Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA).

Enzymatic activity assays

The enzymatic activity of GmaS was measured by determining the production of inorganic phosphate using a PiColorLock reagent kit (Expedeon, UK). The reaction system contained 200 mM glutamate, 25 mM MgCl₂, 3 mM ATP, 1 mM MMA, 100 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0) and 2.5 nM RhGmaS, 41 nM R. pomerovi DSS-3 GmaS or 2.8 nM D. shibae DFL12 GmaS. The reaction mixture was incubated at 60°C for 10 min, and then 20% (v/v) hydrochloric acid was added into the mixture to stop the reaction. The amount of inorganic phosphate in the mixture was determined by monitoring the absorbance at 635 nm. The optimal temperature for GmaS enzymatic activity was measured in a range from 20 to 80°C at pH 8.0. The optimal pH was examined at 60°C using Bis-Tris buffer for pH 6~7, Tris-HCl buffer for pH 7~9 and glycine-NaOH buffer for pH 9~10.5. The kinetic

parameters of *Rh*GmaS (with and without the His-tag) for glutamate, ATP and ammonia analogs were determined with the reactions system containing 14.3 nM *Rh*GmaS and different concentrations of substrates. All the measurements were carried out in 100 mM Tris-HCl buffer (pH 8.0) at 30°C.

Crystallization and data collection

Purified RhGmaS protein was concentrated to ~11 mg/ml in the buffer containing 10 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0) and 100 mM NaCl. All of the crystals were obtained at 18°C after 1~2 weeks using the sitting drop vapor diffusion method (the ratio of protein to reservoir solution was 1:1). Apo-RhGmaS crystals were obtained in the buffer containing 0.1 M MES (pH 6.5) and 1 M lithium sulfate. To obtain RhGmaS/AMPPCP crystals, AMPPCP and MgCl₂ were added to RhGmaS with a final concentration of 2 mM and the solution was mixed 1:1 with the crystallization buffer containing 0.1 M HEPES (pH 7.5), 0.2 M ammonium acetate and 25% (v/v) isopropanol. To obtain the crystals RhGmaS/AMPPNP/MetSox complex, RhGmaS was co-crystallized with AMPPNP (2) mM), MetSox (2 mM) and MgCl₂ (2 mM), and the crystals were obtained in the crystallization buffer containing 0.1 M bicine (pH 8.5), 10% (v/v) 2-propanol and 30% (v/v) polyethylene glycol 1500. RhGmaS/MetSox-P/ADP crystals were obtained under the same condition to the RhGmaS/AMPPNP/MetSox crystals, AMPPNP replaced by ATP. When RhGmaS was co-crystallized with ATP (2 mM), glutamate (2 mM) and MgCl₂ (2 mM), two structures of RhGmaS in complex with ADP were obtained. The crystals of RhGmaS/ADP-C1 were obtained in the crystallization buffer containing 1.1 M ammonium tartrate dibasic (pH 7.0), and the crystals of *Rh*GmaS/ADP-C2 were obtained in the crystallization buffer containing 0.1 M MES (pH 6.5) and 1 M lithium sulfate.

All X-ray diffraction data were collected on the BL18U1 beamline at the Shanghai Synchrotron Radiation Facility. The initial diffraction data sets were processed by the HKL3000 program with its default settings (35).

Structure determination and refinement

The crystal structures of apo-*Rh*GmaS, *Rh*GmaS/AMPPCP,

RhGmaS/AMPPNP/MetSox,

RhGmaS/ADP/MetSox-P, RhGmaS/ADP-C1 and RhGmaS/ADP-C2 all belong to the I222 space group. The crystal structure of apo-RhGmaS was determined by molecular replacement using the CCP4 program Phaser (36) with the structure of a GS enzyme from Bacillus subtilis (PDB code 4LNI) as the search model. All the other structures were determined by molecular replacement with the structure of apo-RhGmaS as the search model. The refinements of these structures were performed using Coot (37) and Phenix (38). All the structure figures were processed using the program PyMOL (http://www.pymol.org/).

Bioinformatics

Multiple sequence alignment was performed using CLC sequence viewer 6.5.3 (CLC Bio A/S). Phylogenetic tree was conducted using the MEGA version 6.0 (39) with the neighborjoining algorithms.

Circular-dichroism (CD) spectroscopic assays

CD spectroscopic assays for *Rh*GmaS and all its mutants were carried out on a J-1500

Spectrometer (Jasco, Japan) at 25° C. The concentration of the proteins was $8.5 \,\mu\text{M}$ in the buffer of 10 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0) containing 100 mM NaCl. The spectra were collected from 250 to 200 nm at a scan speed of 500 nm min⁻¹ with a band width of 1 nm.

Data availability

The structures of apo-RhGmaS,

RhGmaS/AMPPCP,
RhGmaS/AMPPNP/MetSox,
RhGmaS/ADP/MetSox-P, RhGmaS/ADP-C1
and RhGmaS/ADP-C2 have been deposited in
PDB under accession codes 7CQL, 7CQN,
7CQQ, 7CQU, 7CQW and 7CQX, respectively.
All data are contained within the manuscript
and the supporting information.

Acknowledgments

We thank the staffs from BL17U1, BL18U1 & BL19U1 beamlines of National Facility for Protein Sciences Shanghai (NFPS) and Shanghai Synchrotron Radiation Facility, for assistance during data collection.

Author contributions

C.-Y.L. and Y.-Z.Z. designed the study. N.W. performed the majority of the biochemical experiments. C.-Y.L. solved all the crystal structures and performed data interpretation. X.-L.C. directed the study. C.G., M.P., P.W., N.Z. and Q.-T.S. helped in experiments. N.W., C.-Y.L. and X.-L.C. wrote the manuscript. Y.C. and F.L. did critical revision of the manuscript for important intellectual content.

Funding and additional information

This work was supported by the National Science Foundation of China (grants 91851205, 31630012, U1706207, 42076229, 31800107, and 41706152), the National Key Research and Development Program of China (2018YFC1406700, 2016YFA0601303, 2018YFC1406504), the Major Scientific and Technological Innovation Project (MSTIP) of Shandong Province (2019JZZY010817), the Program of Shandong for Taishan Scholars (tspd20181203), AoShan Talents Cultivation Program Supported by Qingdao National Laboratory for Marine Science and Technology (2017ASTCP-OS14), the grant of Laboratory for Marine Biology and Biotechnology (OF2019NO02), Pilot National Laboratory for Marine Science and Technology (Qingdao), and the Fundamental Research Funds for the Central Universities.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Abbreviations

MAs, methylated amines; MMA, monomethylamine; DMA, dimethylamine; TMA, trimethylamine; TMAO, trimethylamine *N*-oxide; GmaS, γ-glutamylmethylamide synthetase; GMA, γ-glutamylmethylamide; NMG, *N*-methylglutamate; MRC, marine *Roseobacter* clade; GS, glutamine synthetase; RMSD, root mean square deviation; AMPPNP, phosphoaminophosphonic acid-adenylate ester; AMPPCP, phosphomethylphosphonic acid-adenylate ester; MetSox, methionine sulfoximine; MetSox-P, methionine sulfoximine phosphate.

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Table 1. Kinetic parameters for recombinant *Rh*GmaS with different substrates*.

Substrate	$K_{\rm m}$ (μ M)	$V_{ m max}$ ($\mu{ m M~min}^{-1}$)	$k_{\rm cat}$ (s ⁻¹)
MMA	26.94 ± 1.73	3.58 ± 0.11	4.18 ± 0.13
Ethylamine	58.10 ± 4.49	3.51 ± 0.11	4.09 ± 0.13
Hydroxylamine	211.03 ± 9.87	3.56 ± 0.05	4.15 ± 0.06
Propylamine	$1.79{\times}10^3 \pm 0.12{\times}10^3$	3.63 ± 0.08	4.23 ± 0.09
NH ₄ Cl	$8.72{\times}10^3 \pm 0.97{\times}10^3$	3.65 ± 0.17	4.26 ± 0.20
DMA	$16.07 \times 10^3 \pm 1.15 \times 10^3$	2.20 ± 0.09	2.57 ± 0.10
TMA	$22.91 \times 10^3 \pm 1.50 \times 10^3$	2.13 ± 0.06	2.48 ± 0.07

^{*}The experiments were performed at pH 8.0, 30° C. The data shown in the table are from triplicate experiments (means \pm standard deviations).

Table 2. Crystallographic data collection and refinement of *Rh*GmaS.

Parameters	Apo-RhGmaS	RhGmaS/AMPPCP	<i>Rh</i> GmaS /AMPPNP/MetSox	<i>Rh</i> GmaS /ADP/MetSox-P	RhGmaS /ADP-C1	RhGmaS/ADP-C2
Diffraction data						
Space group	I222	I222	I222	I222	1222	I222
Unit cell						
a, b, c (Å)	115.9, 179.0, 192.2	110.9, 176.7, 191.8	115.6, 174.5, 190.1	116.6, 174.7, 190.6	114.7, 176.0, 190.5	113.4, 177.6, 190.5
α,β,γ (°)	90.0, 90.0, 90.0	90.0, 90.0, 90.0	90.0, 90.0, 90.0	90.0, 90.0, 90.0	90.0, 90.0, 90.0	90.0, 90.0, 90.0
Resolution range (Å)	50.0-2.8 (2.90-2.80) *	50.0-1.96 (1.99-1.96)	50.0-2.3 (2.34-2.30)	50.0-2.1 (2.18-2.10)	50.0-2.3 (2.34-2.30)	50.0-2.3 (2.38-2.30)
Redundancy	11.3 (10.7)	4.6 (2.9)	6.4 (6.0)	4.0 (3.0)	11.5 (10.5)	13.4 (12.6)
Completeness (%)	98.6 (99.1)	98.1 (87.7)	100.0 (100.0)	97.5 (94.5)	99.5 (100.0)	100.0 (100.0)
$R_{ m merge}$ **	0.1 (0.6)	0.1 (0.4)	0.1 (0.4)	0.1 (0.5)	0.2 (0.4)	0.1 (0.5)
$I/\sigma I$	54.0 (14.7)	14.2 (1.8)	18.6 (2.9)	21.8 (3.3)	34.9 (6.4)	22.6 (5.4)
Refinement statistics						
$R_{ m work}/R_{ m free}$	0.20/0.25	0.17/0.20	0.16/0.20	0.16/0.20	0.17/0.22	0.18/0.21
RMSD from ideal geometry						
Bond lengths (Å)	0.009	0.007	0.007	0.007	0.007	0.007
Bond angles (°)	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1
Ramachandran plot (%)						
Favored	93.6	97.2	97.1	97.6	95.7	96.3
Allowed	6.2	2.8	2.9	2.3	4.1	3.7
Outliers	0.2	0	0	0.1	0.2	0
Overall B-factors (Å ²)	57.1	18.9	37.2	24.3	35.7	27.1

^{*}Numbers in parentheses refer to data in the highest-resolution shell.

^{**} $R_{\text{merge}} = \sum_{hkl} \sum_{i} |I(hkl)_i| - \langle I(hkl)_i| - \langle I(hkl)_i| \rangle |/\sum_{hkl} \sum_{i} I(hkl)_i|$, where I is the observed intensity, and $I(hkl)_i$ represents the observed intensity of each unique reflection.

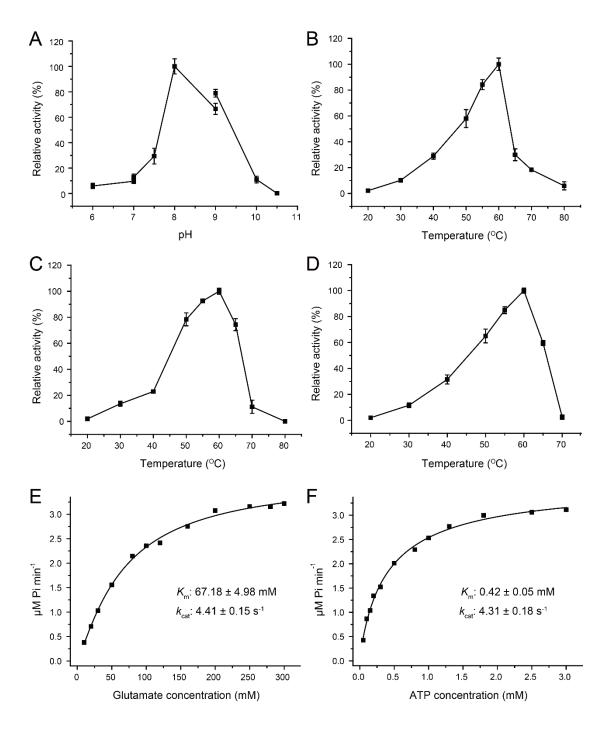


Fig. 1. Characterization of recombinant GmaS. The error bar represents standard deviation of triplicate experiments. A. Effect of pH on the enzymatic activity of *Rh*GmaS. B. Effect of temperature on the enzymatic activity of *Rh*GmaS. C. Effect of temperature on the enzymatic activity of GmaS from *R. pomeroyi* DSS-3. D. Effect of temperature on the enzymatic activity of GmaS from *D. shibae* DFL12. E. Kinetic parameters of *Rh*GmaS for glutamate. F. Kinetic parameters of *Rh*GmaS for ATP.

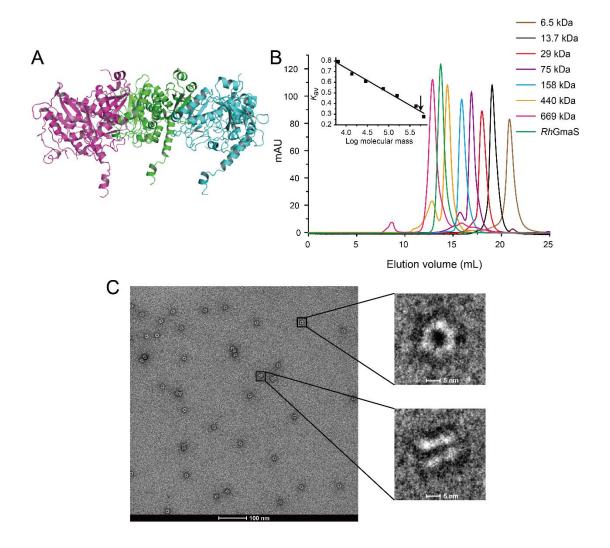


Fig. 2. Overall structural analysis of RhGmaS. A. The overall structural of RhGmaS. There are three RhGmaS monomers arranged as a trimer in an asymmetric unit. The three monomers are colored in purple, green and blue, respectively. B. Gel filtration analysis of RhGmaS. Inset, semilog plot of the molecular mass of all standards used versus their K_{av} values. The black arrow indicates the position of RhGmaS K_{av} value interpolated in the regression line. The predicted molecular mass of RhGmaS monomer is 46.64 kDa. C. The negative staining electron micrograph of RhGmaS. RhGmaS consists of two hexameric rings, with each ring containing six monomers.

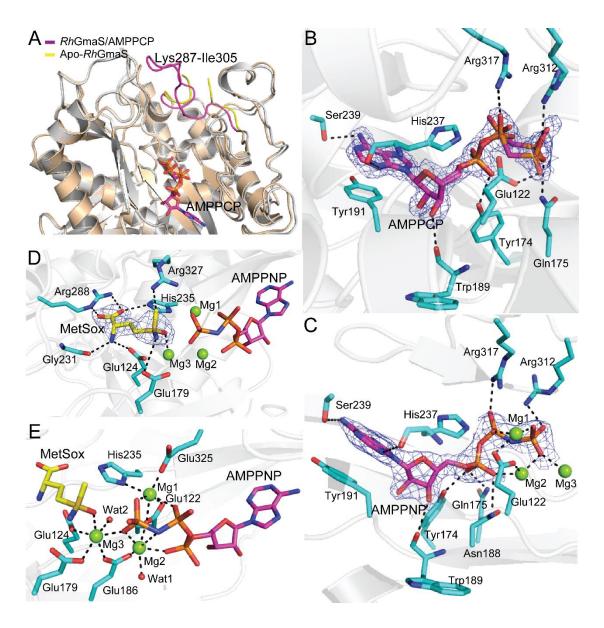


Fig. 3. Structural analysis of RhGmaS/AMPPCP and RhGmaS/AMPPNP/MetSox complexes. A. Structural alignment of RhGmaS/AMPPCP and apo-RhGmaS. The loop region (Lys287-Ile305) of RhGmaS/AMPPCP (magenta) and that of apo-RhGmaS (yellow) are highlighted. B. Residues involved in binding AMPPCP. AMPPCP is colored in magenta, and RhGmaS residues are colored in cyan. The $2F_o$ - F_c densities for AMPPCP are contoured in blue at 1.5 σ . The possible hydrogen bonds are represented by dashed lines. C. Residues and atoms involved in binding AMPPNP. AMPPNP is colored in magenta, and RhGmaS residues are colored in cyan. The $2F_o$ - F_c densities for AMPPNP are contoured in blue at 2.0 σ . D. RhGmaS residues involved in binding MetSox. MetSox is colored in yellow. The $2F_o$ - F_c densities for MetSox are contoured in blue at 2.0 σ . E. Residues and ligands involved in binding Mg²⁺. The possible hydrogen bonds are represented by dashed lines.

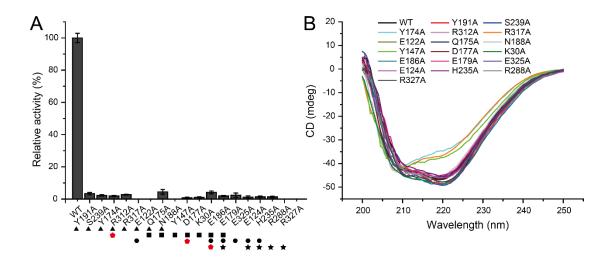


Fig. 4. Mutational analysis of important residues of RhGmaS that may participate in binding substrate and catalysis. A. The enzymatic activities of WT RhGmaS and its mutants. The activity of WT RhGmaS is taken as 100%. Residues involved in binding ATP, MMA, Mg^{2+} and glutamate are marked with black triangles, squares, dots and stars, respectively. Red pentagons indicate the catalytic residues of RhGmaS. The error bar represents standard deviation of triplicate experiments. B. CD spectra of WT RhGmaS and its mutants.

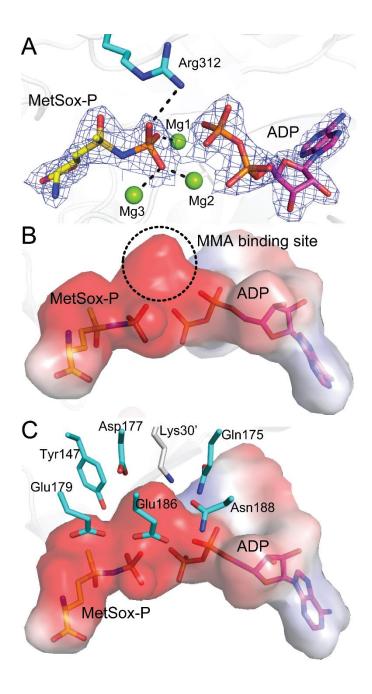


Fig. 5. Structural analysis of RhGmaS/ADP/MetSox-P complex. A. The positions of MetSox-P and ADP. The $2F_o$ - F_c densities for MetSox-P and ADP are contoured in blue at 2.0σ . B. The MMA binding site of RhGmaS. C. RhGmaS residues composing the negative-charged MMA binding site.

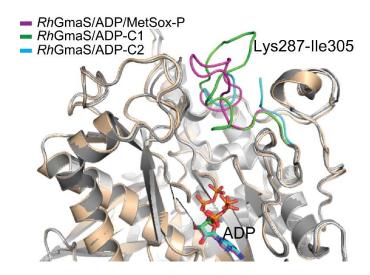


Fig. 6. Analysis of the conformational change of *Rh*GmaS after catalysis. The loop regions (Lys287-Ile305) of *Rh*GmaS/ADP/MetSox-P (magenta), of *Rh*GmaS/ADP-C1 (green) and of *Rh*GmaS/ADP-C2 (blue) are highlighted. ADP molecules are shown in sticks.

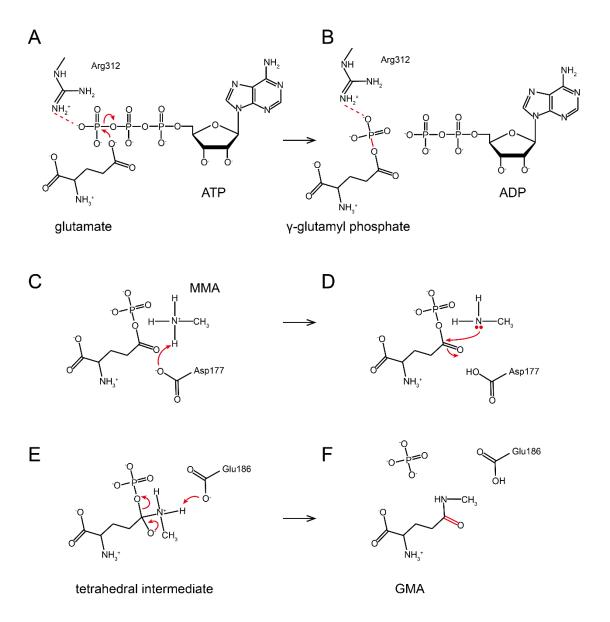


Fig. 7. The catalytic mechanism of RhGmaS converting MMA to GMA. A. The residue Arg312 directly interacts with ATP γ -phosphate, which helps polarize the γ -phosphate and facilitates the nucleophilic attack of glutamate. B. Arg312 interacts with the phosphate group of γ -glutamyl phosphate to stabilize the transition state. C. MMA is deprotonated by the residue Asp177. D. MMA attacks γ -glutamyl phosphate to produce a tetrahedral intermediate. E. Glu186 abstracts a proton from the tetrahedral intermediate. F. GMA is generated.

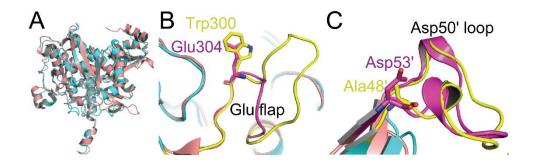


Fig. 8. Structural comparison between *Rh*GmaS and the GS enzyme from *B. subtilis* (PDB code: 4LNI). A. Superimposition of the *Rh*GmaS structure (cyan) onto the GS structure (red). B. The Glu flap of GS (purple) and the corresponding loop in *Rh*GmaS (yellow). The conserved glutamate residue (Glu304 in *B. subtilis* GS) and the corresponding residue in *Rh*GmaS (Trp300) are shown as sticks. C. The Asp50' loop of GS (purple) and the corresponding loop in *Rh*GmaS (yellow). The conserved aspartate residue (Asp53' in *B. subtilis* GS) and the corresponding residue in *Rh*GmaS (Ala48') are shown as sticks.

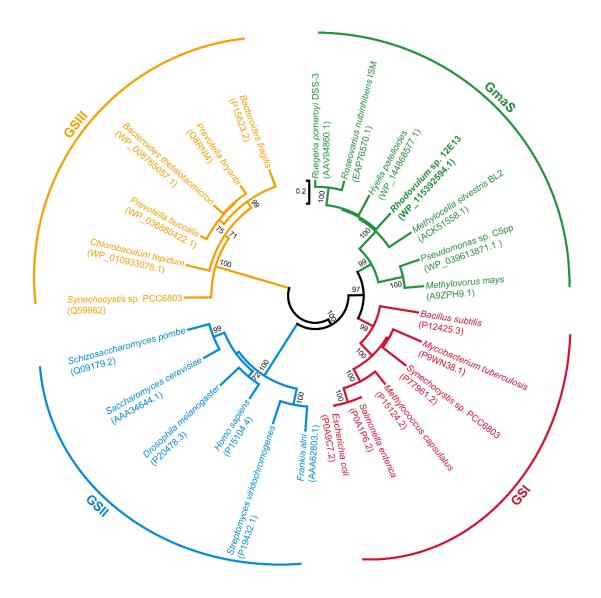


Fig. 9. The neighbor-joining phylogenetic tree of GSI, GSII, GSIII and GmaS. Phylogenetic analyses were carried out using the MEGA version 6.0 (39).



Fig. 10. Sequence alignment of GmaS proteins. Residues involved in binding ATP, MMA, Mg²⁺ and glutamate are marked with black triangles, squares, dots and stars, respectively. Red pentagons indicate the catalytic residues. GmaS proteins from strains of different classes are colored as follows: green for Alphaproteobacteria, red for Betaproteobacteria, blue for Gammaproteobacteria, and yellow for Cyanophyceae.