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Spectral Tuning, Fluorescence, and Photoactivity in Hybrids of Photoactive Yellow Protein, Reconstituted with Native or Modified Chromophores

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Photoactive yellow proteins (PYPs) constitute a new class of eubacterial photoreceptors, containing a deprotonated thiol ester-linked 4-hydroxycinnamic acid chromophore. Interactions with the protein dramatically change the (photo)chemical properties of this cofactor. Here we describe the reconstitution of apoPYP with anhydrides of various chromophore analogues. The resulting hybrid PYPs, their acid-denatured states, and corresponding model compounds were characterized with respect to their absorption spectrum, pH for chromophore deprotonation, fluorescence quantum yield, and Stokes shift. Three factors contributing to the tuning of the absorption of the hybrid PYPs were quantified: (i) thiol ester bond formation, (ii) chromophore deprotonation, and (iii) specific chromophore-protein interactions. Analogues lacking the 4-hydroxy substituent lack both contributions (chromophore deprotonation and specific chromophore-protein interactions), confirming the importance of this substituent in optical tuning of PYP. Hydroxy and methoxy substituents in the 3- and/or 5-position do not disrupt strong interactions with the protein but increase their pH for protonation and the fluorescence quantum yield. Both deprotonation and binding to apoPYP strongly decrease the Stokes shift of chromophore fluorescence. Therefore, coupling of the chromophore to the apoprotein not only reduces the energy gap between its ground and excited state but also the extent of reorganization between these two states. Two of the PYP hybrids showed photoactivity comparable with native PYP, although with retarded recovery of the initial state.

Many proteins bind cofactors to extend the physicochemical range of photoactivity, offered by their amino acid side chains. In photobiology these cofactors play a central role since they are responsible for both light absorption and its conversion into a biologically relevant response. In many cases, the altered physicochemical characteristics of the chromophores enable the protein-chromophore complex to optimally perform its biological function. This phenomenon, called spectral tuning, has been studied extensively in rhodopsins, all members of the family of 7-transmembrane α-helical proteins. Here we have used the photoactive yellow protein (PYP) as a model system to study such protein-cofactor interactions.

PYP is a water-soluble protein, which was first isolated from the halophilic purple phototrophic eubacterium *Ectothiorhodospira halophila* (1). Upon excitation, the protein enters a cyclic chain of dark reactions, i.e. a photocycle, resembling the one observed in the sensory rhodopsins from archaeabacteria (2). The first intermediate in this photocycle (red-shifted intermediate of PYP) is red-shifted to 465 nm. Subsequently, a blue-shifted intermediate (Pβ,dep) develops on a sub-millisecond time scale. The photocycle is completed by the reformation of the initial state of the protein (Pβ), in about 1 s (3).

*E. halophila* displays negative phototaxis to blue light. PYP has been implicated to function as the photosensor in this response, since its absorption spectrum matches its wavelength dependence (4). Although PYP resembles the sensory rhodopsins both functionally and photochemically, its chromophore is not retinal but a novel type of chromophore, 4-hydroxycinnamic acid (5, 6), linked to Cys-69 via a thiol ester bond (7). Therefore, PYP represents a unique type of photoreceptor. PYP homologues have been detected in several eubacteria (8–11). Thus, it has been proposed to refer to this novel family of blue-light photoreceptors as Xanthopsins (11, 12).

The photochemical basis of the photocycle of PYP has recently been shown to reside in the photosomerization of the vinyl double bond in the chromophore, from *trans* to *cis* (13). The quantum yield of this process was initially reported to be 0.64 (14); however, when measurements were extended to a large range of laser pulse energies, a value of 0.35 was obtained (15). Besides photoactivity, PYP shows weak fluorescence too. The quantum yield of pG is ∼2 × 10⁻³, with an emission maximum at 495 nm (16, 17).

During progression through its photocycle PYP undergoes a large conformational change, which exposes hydrophobic sites to the solvent (14), due to a partial unfolding of the protein upon the formation of Pβ (18). The altered protein conformation of Pβ is thought to initiate signal transduction, ultimately affecting the flagellar rotation and thus leading to phototaxis.
(19). A decrease in pH spontaneously transforms PYP to a blue-shifted state, resembling pB (1).

Free pCA in aqueous solvents and at neutral pH absorbs maximally at 284 nm (20); however, within the chromophore-binding pocket in the apoprotein, the absorption of the chromophore is strongly red-shifted (to 446 nm). Three contributions to this shift have been identified (6, 7, 19): (i) formation of the thiol ester bond between pCA and Cys-69, (ii) deprotonation of the chromophore (21), and (iii) specific protein-chromophore interactions.

The structure of PYP has recently been re-determined by x-ray crystallography at 1.4-Å resolution (22). The protein has interactions.

The limited availability of PYP has been a bottleneck in further biophysical and biochemical characterizations. However, recently we have overproduced a histidine-tagged version of apoPYP (HAP) in Escherichia coli (11). In addition, the in vitro reconstitution of apoPYP (obtained after removal of the chromophore from PYP isolated from E. halophila) with the anhydride of pCA has been reported (24).

Here we report the in vitro reconstitution of heterologously produced HAP with its natural chromophore and a number of chromophore analogues. We refer to these proteins as hybrid PYPs in view of the fact that we combined the wild type apoprotein in vitro, with its natural chromophore and with several modified chromophores. Two classes of chromophore analogues have been investigated. Class A chromophores possess an additional ring substituent(s) (3-hydroxy, 3-methoxy, and 3,5-dimethoxy groups) that allows the analysis of the effect of a disturbance of the fit of the chromophore into its binding pocket. In class B chromophores the phenolic hydroxy group has been replaced by a 4-amino, a 4-methoxy, or a 4-dimethylamino substituent. Hybrids based on this class can thus be used to examine the role of the phenolic deprotonation. Here we present an analysis of these PYP hybrids with respect to their absorption and fluorescence characteristics in the pG and pBdark state.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Synthesis of Cinnamic Acid Anhydrides—To reconstitute HAP, anhydrides of I–VII (Fig. 2) were prepared from the free acids. To accomplish this, 1 mmol of each carboxylic acid was stirred overnight with 1.2 equivalent of dicyclohexylcarbodiimide in dry N,N-dimethylformamide. Dicyclohexyl urea precipitated from the solution as the reaction proceeded. After completion of the reaction, the suspension was centrifuged in an Eppendorf centrifuge (2 min at 14,000 rpm), and the clear supernatant was used for reconstitution experiments. Anhydrides were stored at 77 K to prevent decomposition.

Sinapinic acid (3,5-dimethoxy-4-hydroxycinnamic acid) was obtained from Acros Organics (Pittsburgh, PA). 4-Coumaric acid (4-hydroxycinnamic acid), ferulic acid (3-methoxy-4-hydroxycinnamic acid), and caffeic acid (3, 4-dihydroxycinnamic acid) were obtained from Sigma. 4-Aminocinnamic acid, 4-dimethylaminocinnamic acid, and 4-methoxycinnamic acid were obtained from Aldrich. All were obtained as the trans-isomer.

4-Methoxycinnamic acid anhydride was obtained as a by-product of the coupling reaction between 4-methoxycinnamic acid and 4-nitrophenol. This latter anhydride has been obtained exclusively in crystalline form.

Synthesis of Butyl Thiol Ester Model Compounds—We used the butyl thiol esters of I–IV as model compounds for the characterization of the absorption and fluorescence of hybrids I–IV. These model compounds were synthesized according to Ref. 25. Each carboxylic acid (1 mmol) was dissolved in dry N,N-dimethylformamide and −20 mg of dimethylformamide, and 4 equivalents of isobutyl thiol was added, except for the synthesis of the 4-hydroxycinnamic acid thiol ester, for which tertiary butyl thiol was used. Subsequently, 1.2 equivalents of dicyclohexylcarbodiimide was added. The reaction was carried out overnight, while slowly stirring at room temperature. The precipitated dicyclohexyl urea was filtered off repeatedly, and following concentration in vacuo, the filtrate was taken up in CH2Cl2. It was subsequently extracted two times with 0.5 M HCl, two times with a saturated NaHCO3 solution, and concentrated in vacuo. The product was purified by flash chromatography on silica gel (0.035–0.07 mm), using a petroleum ether (60–80 °C), ethyl acetate mixture (2:1, v/v). The purity of each product was checked by IR, NMR, and mass spectrometry.

Production of HAP—The polystyrene-tagged apoPYP (HAP) was expressed in E. coli M15, containing pHispc. The cells were harvested in the mid-exponential growth phase (pG). HAP hybrid production was induced during exponential growth in Luria Bertani medium in the presence of ampicillin (100 mg/liter), via addition of 0.2 mM isopropylthiogalactoside.

Purification and Reconstitution of HAP into PYP Hybrids—Two protocols were developed to obtain reconstituted PYP and its hybrids from HAP. Both protocols were carried out at room temperature.

To investigate the kinetics of the reaction between HAP and the anhydride of pCA, HAP was purified before its use as a substrate for the reconstitution reaction. E. coli M15/pHispc cells were harvested through centrifugation after 5 h of induction. The cells pellets were resuspended in 50 mM phosphate buffer (pH = 7.5), and cells were disrupted by sonication. The membrane and cytosolic fraction were separated by centrifugation 1 h at 250,000 g in a Centricon T-1015 ultrafilter. The cytoplasmic fraction, containing HAP, was dialyzed 16 h against 50 mM phosphate buffer (pH = 7.5) with two changes. Next, the extract was mixed with Ni2+-nitrilotriacetic acid resin, incubated for 1 h under gentle agitation at room temperature, loaded in a column, and washed with 0.2 M phosphate, 0.1 M citrate buffer (pH = 7.2) until the absorption at 280 nm (A280) was constant. The absorbed proteins were eluted from the same buffer, using a linear pH gradient from pH = 7.2 to pH = 5. Fractions with the highest A280 values were brought to neutral pH with 0.5 M sodium hydroxide, washed in an Amicon pressure filter concentrator, and stored at −20 °C or used immediately for reconstitution experiments. We observed that HAP has a tendency to precipitate more readily than holoPYP, especially at lower pH values.

Hybrids used for spectral characterization were isolated after reconstitution with the chromophore analogues listed in Fig. 2, because this considerably improved the yield in the purification procedure. Cell-free extract was prepared according to the following procedure. E. coli cells (20 liters of culture broth) were harvested by centrifugation and resuspended in 1.5 liters of 50 mM sodium phosphate buffer (pH = 7.2). The cells were prepared for lysis by 60 min incubation in 0.5 g of lysozyme. Subsequently, the pH was increased to pH = 10 with 8 N NaOH, and cells were incubated for 5 min at this pH to reduce the viscosity of the lysate, after which the pH was re-adjusted to 7 with 37% (w/w) HCl. After removal of the debris by low speed centrifugation (50 min, 10,000 × g), the supernatant was brought to 50% ammonium sulfate saturation and subjected to high speed centrifugation (30 min, 40,000 × g) to clarify the extract. The clear supernatant was centrifuged over 7 fractions (~200 ml per fraction, each containing approximately 140 mg of HAP). These fractions were incubated for 60 min, each with an excess of one of the anhydrides of the chromophore analogues, under gentle mixing (2 mmol in total, i.e. a 200-fold molar excess), followed by a second addition of proteins other than HAP, and of ammonium sulfate, in these samples did not significantly interfere with the rate of the final level of reconstitution with the anhydrides tested (data not shown). After reconstitution, the mixture was dialyzed overnight against 50 mM phosphate buffer (pH = 7.2) to remove excess anhydride and free acid and concentrated to a volume of 25 ml.

To purify the seven hybrid PYPs in parallel, we modified a rapid isolation procedure using Ni2+-nitrilotriacetic acid resin (27). Resin (0.3 ml bed volume) was incubated for 1 h with 1 ml of reconstituted extract, containing approximately 3 mg of hybrid PYP, under gentle agitation at room temperature. After binding, the resin was washed with 50 bed volumes 50 mM phosphate buffer (pH = 7.2). This was carried out by centrifuging each sample for 10 s in an Eppendorf centrifuge, followed by resuspension of the resin. The adsorbed proteins were eluted using 10 bed volumes 100 mM Na2-EDTA in 50 mM phosphate buffer (pH = 7.2). The eluates were washed with 25 mM phosphate buffer (pH = 7), concentrated to a volume of 1 ml (Centricron 10), and stored at −20 °C until further analysis. The purity of the samples was estimated by their purity index (pI) which has been defined as the ratio

of its absorption at 280 and at 446 nm (1). The pI of the sample reconstituted with the native chromophore was 0.9 (see Fig. 3). Thus this sample is approximately 60% pure.

Absorption and Fluorescence Spectroscopy—To monitor the reconstitution reaction between HAP and the anhydride of pCA, quartz cuvettes with two compartments, separated by a transparent barrier, were used to measure sum spectra of the apoprotein and the anhydrides in solution, before and after mixing (Hellma Benelux B.V., Rijswijk, The Netherlands). Electronic absorption spectra were recorded in an SLM-Instruments Aminco DW2000 spectrophotometer with a resolution of approximately 1 nm. Fluorescence spectra were recorded in a SPEX-Fluorolog 2 spectrometer. Quantum yields were measured relative to quinine sulfate (dissolved in 1 M H2SO4; f = 0.55 (27)).

Photoactivity was analyzed by measuring the electronic absorption spectrum of the PYP hybrids in 50 mM sodium phosphate buffer, pH 5 (or 50 mM glycine buffer, pH 10, for hybrid IV), on a Hewlett-Packard 8453A diode array spectrometer, modified to allow illumination of the sample with a 200-watt high pressure mercury arc lamp, at right angles to the measuring beam, with a time resolution of approximately 0.1 s. All spectroscopy was carried out at room temperature.

Miscellaneous—HAP in complex samples was quantified with rocket immunoelectrophoresis (11). pK values of model compounds and hybrids were determined through manual fits of the data of spectrophotometric titrations, recorded with a Cary-3 UV/Vis spectrophotometer (Varian).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Purification of Polyhistidine-tagged apoPYP and Its Reconstitution with Various Chromophores—HAP was isolated from the cytoplasmic fraction of recombinant E. coli by Ni2+-affinity chromatography and reconstituted into holoPYP with the anhydride of pCA. This process was monitored by UV/Vis absorption spectroscopy after mixing 4 mM pCA anhydride with 10 μM HAP (Fig. 1). At neutral pH values the rate of the trans-esterification reaction is beyond the time resolution of a conventional spectrophotometer, as was found for the reconstitution of apoPYP from E. halophila with this anhydride (24). However, lowering the pH to 4.8 slows down the rate of the reconstitution reaction (see Fig. 1), allowing its kinetic analysis. The increase in absorption at 446 nm indicates the formation of holoPYP, while the decrease in absorption at 365 nm is caused by the decomposition of pCA anhydride. The reconstitution reaction is complicated by the fact that pCA anhydride not only reacts with HAP, to form holoPYP, but also with water, yielding pCA. This can account for the absence of an isosbestic point in the difference spectra, recorded during the reconstitution reaction (see Fig. 1). The rate of both reactions increases with increasing pH. For the reaction between the anhydride and HAP this can be explained by assuming that Cys-69, binding the chromophore, reacts with the anhydride in its ionized form, which is expected to be formed with a pK of approximately 10. The spontaneous hydrolysis of the anhydride in water presumably is base-catalyzed.

The progress of the reaction as monitored by the absorption changes at 446 nm can best be described as a second-order reaction, with a specific rate constant of the reaction between HAP and 4-hydroxycinnamic anhydride of 0.16 M⁻¹ s⁻¹ at pH = 4.8 (see Fig. 1, inset). More detailed investigations of this reaction requires stopped-flow analysis.

From the pI of the reconstituted protein, it can be concluded that the extent of reconstitution is more than 95% of the amount of HAP available (data not shown). The absorption spectra of native PYP, isolated from E. halophila, and of reconstituted HAP are indistinguishable, including the absorption maximum at 446 nm and a characteristic fine-structure at 318 nm. From this, it can be concluded that HAP is an excellent substrate for reconstitution. HAP is overproduced at a level of approximately 50 mg per liter of culture per OD unit at 660 nm (see Ref. 11) and therefore now available for biophysical and structural studies in large amounts. This also renders PYP accessible to studies by site-directed mutagenesis, which are in progress in our group, and it opens the way to reconstitute apoPYP with pCA analogues.

To assess the feasibility of this latter option, we synthesized the anhydrides of six pCA analogues (Fig. 2). In the first three analogues the aromatic ring of cinnamic acid carries one (II, III) or two (IV) additional substituents at the 3- and/or 5-position. In the remaining three analogues (V–VII) the phenolic hydroxy group is lacking, being substituted by an amino, a methoxy, and a dimethyl amino group, respectively. These chromophore analogues were chosen (i) to test the effect of perturbation of the chromophore binding pocket, by the added
substituents, on the absorption and fluorescence characteristics of PYP, and (ii) to investigate the proposed importance of the 4-OH group for spectral tuning of the chromophore. Like the reconstitution with the anhydride of pCA, the reaction of the other chromophore analogues with HAP at neutral pH also proceeds beyond the time resolution of the spectrophotometer used (data not shown). This indicates that even in IV, which carries two bulky methoxy substituents flanking the 4-hydroxy group, no compelling steric impediments exist to fitting the (trans)-cinnamochromophore unit into its binding site in the apoprotein. This result shows that the reaction between apoPYP and anhydrides can be used as a general method to obtain hybrid PYPs.

In the study of photoactive proteins, the use of modified chromophores has proven to be a very powerful strategy. Besides the ones used in this study, several additional chromophore analogues may further help elucidating the mechanism of functioning of PYP. Some examples are as follows: (i) replacement of the vinyl bond by either a single or a triple bond, (ii) isotopically labeled derivatives, and (iii) chromophore analogues in which the vinyl bond is locked through a covalent bridge (compare Ref. 28).

UV/Vis Absorption Characteristics of Hybrid PYPs—To investigate the mechanism of spectral tuning in PYP, we aimed at the separation of the three factors involved in this process (see Introduction) in the seven hybrids and their quantification (in cm$^{-1}$). In this report we will refer to the spectral shift induced by the formation of the thiol ester bond for the uncharged chromophore as $\Delta_l^{\text{thiol est}}$, to the shift caused by the deprotonation of the thiol ester-bound chromophore as $\Delta_l^{\text{deprot}}$, and to the shift caused by specific interactions between the chromophore and the apoprotein as $\Delta_l^{\text{protein}}$. The sum of these three factors is referred to as $\Delta_l^{\text{tot}}$.

The $\Delta_l^{\text{tot}}$ of the hybrids was determined by measuring the absorption spectra of these proteins, after their purification, and of the corresponding chromophore-derived model compounds (Fig. 3 and Table I). The values for $\Delta_l^{\text{tot}}$ were calculated, using the absorption maxima observed for the hybrid PYPs and the free acids at pH = 7, with the exception of the PYP hybrid containing IV, which displayed maximal spectral tuning at pH values above 9 (see below).

The two classes of chromophores clearly lead to very different magnitudes of spectral tuning. For hybrids II to IV, $\Delta_l^{\text{tot}}$ was approximately 13,000 cm$^{-1}$, essentially identical to the value observed in PYP, containing its native chromophore (Table II). However, for V to VII, $\Delta_l^{\text{tot}}$ is reduced to approximately 7,100 cm$^{-1}$, confirming the importance of the 4-OH group in the process of the tuning of the chromophore absorption. In line with this, hybrids reconstituted from analogues lacking the 4-hydroxy group show pH-independent spectral characteristics in the pH range investigated (Table I). Nevertheless, also these latter hybrids (i.e. containing a class B chromophore), all display an absorption band of the aromatic amino acids of the apoprotein and a clearly discernible absorption band caused by the chromophore. The absorption maxima of this latter band range from 355 (V) to 436 nm (VI) in class B hybrids.

To quantify the contribution of $\Delta_l^{\text{deprot}}$, the absorption spectra of the hybrids, denatured by 4 M guanidinium HCl (GdnHCl) at pH = 7, where the chromophore is present in its neutral form, were compared with those recorded at pH = 11. At the latter pH, the chromophores containing an OH group are present in their anionic form (see below; note that denaturation of PYP at pH = 13 yielded almost identical absorption maxima) (Fig. 3). Comparison of the absorption maxima of the free acids and the GdnHCl-denatured hybrid PYPs at pH = 7 and 3 allowed the calculation of $\Delta_l^{\text{thiol est}}$. For PYP and all hybrids, the $\Delta_l^{\text{thiol est}}$ was approximately 6,000 cm$^{-1}$, whereas $\Delta_l^{\text{deprot}}$ was around 4700 cm$^{-1}$ for I–IV and absent for V–VII (see Table I).

This analysis indicates (see Table II) that approximately 80% of $\Delta_l^{\text{tot}}$ can be explained on the basis of two chemical modifications of the chromophore upon binding to the apoprotein, i.e. formation of the thiol ester bond and the deprotonation. This leaves approximately 20% of the shift to be caused by $\Delta_l^{\text{protein}}$. This effect is largest for the native chromophore (i.e. 3,000 cm$^{-1}$; see Table I) but still significantly present in II–IV (approximately 2,000 cm$^{-1}$). Apparently, the modifications in these latter three class A chromophores leave the specific protein-chromophore interactions, which give rise to $\Delta_l^{\text{protein}}$, largely intact. However, in the chromophores that lack the 4-OH group (V–VII), the effect of $\Delta_l^{\text{protein}}$ is absent. Apparently, this phenolic hydroxy group does not only contribute to the spectral tuning by its deprotonation but is also essential for the interactions with the protein, leading to $\Delta_l^{\text{protein}}$.

Below pH = 3, PYP is converted to a blue-shifted state (1), which can be regarded as the acid-denatured state of PYP. This state, called pB$_{\text{dark}}$, has an absorption spectrum, similar to the blue-shifted intermediate pB from the photocycle of PYP, but is slightly red-shifted with respect to the absorption expected (and observed) for thiol ester-linked pCA (19). We have also examined the presence of a red-shift in this latter intermediate (ΔpB$_{\text{dark}}$) in the hybrids studied here (Tables I and II) and found that for II–IV this parameter is approximately 720 cm$^{-1}$, slightly lower but similar to the value observed for native PYP.
Summary of spectroscopic data of cinnamic acid derivatives, their respective anhydrides, and the hybrid PYPs

The $\lambda_{\text{max}}$ of the free acid, the anhydride, and the PYP-linked chromophore, at various pH values and in the presence and absence of guanidinium hydrochloride, has been indicated. The asterisk indicates that this sample was measured at pH 11 rather than at pH 7. ND, not determined; GdnHCl, guanidinium hydrochloride.

<table>
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<th>Analogue</th>
<th>Hybrid PYP in buffer</th>
<th>Hybrid PYP in 4 M GdnHCl</th>
<th>Free acid</th>
<th>Anhydride*</th>
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* Determined from absorbance difference spectra.

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$p\Delta\lambda$ values for the phenolic hydroxy group of the chromophore of hybrid PYPs and model thiol esters

<table>
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<th>$p\Delta\lambda$ PYPs</th>
<th>Model thiol esters</th>
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Photoactive Yellow Protein Containing Modified Chromophores

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Table I

Photoactive Yellow Protein—To complement the data obtained by absorption spectroscopy described above, we further probed the transition between pG and its excited state pG* by studying the fluorescence characteristics of hybrids I–IV. We focused on two parameters, the fluorescence quantum yield (Φ$_{\text{fl}}$) and the Stokes shift, as calculated from the difference in wavelength of maximal absorbance of PYP in the pBdark form, with and without guanidinium hydrochloride.
between the maxima of chromophore fluorescence emission and excitation (Table IV). Comparison with Table I shows that a strict correlation exists between the position of the absorption maxima and the maxima of fluorescence excitation. The only exception is hybrid IV at low pH. This is related to the difficulty of accurate determination of the absorption maximum at this pH, which may be affected by light scattering. Also, increased absorption of the apoprotein, due to tyrosine deprotonation, may complicate this measurement. The quantum yield determined for I, \( \Phi \), is intrinsic to the chromophore analogues used, or to protein-chromophore interactions, we also determined the fluorescence spectra and \( \Phi \) for the thiol ester model compounds I–IV. At pH 11, the Stokes shift of these compounds (in their deprotonated form) is approximately \( 5900 \text{ cm}^{-1} \), significantly larger than in the PYP hybrids. This may be caused by a significantly impaired flexibility of the chromophore in the apoprotein environment. However, the \( \Phi \) of model compounds II–IV was approximately \( 2 \times 10^{-3} \), comparable with the low value observed in native pG.

Examination of fluorescence emission and excitation spectra (as an example, the spectra of IV are displayed in Fig. 4, for both the pG and pB\(_{\text{dark}}\) state) shows that the Stokes shift in hybrids II–IV is approximately \( 2600 \text{ cm}^{-1} \), similar to the value of \( 2179 \text{ cm}^{-1} \) observed in I (Table IV). However, their \( \Phi \) is significantly increased, up to \( 5 \times 10^{-2} \) for II. To examine whether the origin of this increased \( \Phi \) is intrinsic to the chromophore analogues used, or to protein-chromophore interactions, we also determined the fluorescence spectra and \( \Phi \) for the thiol ester model compounds I–IV. At pH 11, the Stokes shift of these compounds (in their deprotonated form) is approximately \( 5900 \text{ cm}^{-1} \), significantly larger than in the PYP hybrids. This may be caused by a significantly impaired flexibility of the chromophore in the apoprotein environment. However, the \( \Phi \) of model compounds II–IV was approximately \( 2 \times 10^{-3} \), comparable with the low value observed in native pG.

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Spectral Tuning of PYP in Its pG State—To find possible mechanisms involved in \( \Delta \lambda_{\text{protein}} \) it is useful to compare spectral tuning in PYP and in the rhodopsins, since its physical basis has been studied extensively in the latter proteins. Two chemical modifications occur upon binding of retinal to opsinns, both of which are analogous to those occurring in PYP: (i) the formation of a Schiff base between a Lys residue and retinal, and (ii) the protonation of this Schiff base, aided by a strong protein-induced increase in its \( pK_a \). These two processes shift \( \lambda_{\text{max}} \) from 370 to 440 nm but are usually not considered to be part of the opsin shift. Specific protein-chromophore interactions lead to a further bathochromic shift from 440 to 568 nm (called opsin shift (29)) for the light-adapted state of bacterio-rhodopsin. This shift of 5,100 cm\(^{-1}\) corresponds to the \( \Delta \lambda_{\text{protein}} \).
of approximately 3,000 cm$^{-1}$ in hybrid I. Although the opsin shift in bacteriorhodopsin is still only partially understood, two contributing factors involved are generally accepted (30–32). First, the protonated Schiff base is weakly stabilized (the so-called external point charge model (29)) by a complex counterion, involving the charges of Asp-85, Asp-212, and Arg-82. Second, the protein forces the retinal ring into the 6-$s$-trans conformation, thus leading to a co-planarization of the $\beta$-ionone ring and the polyene chain of retinal, thereby extending the conjugated system (30). Recently, a third factor has been identified, the stabilization of the excited state of retinal by polar or polarizable side chains in the retinal binding pocket (31).

Since the negative charge on the deprotonated PYP chromophore(s) is buried within the protein (22), the presence of a counterion for this charge at a relatively large distance can be proposed to explain the $\Delta\lambda_{\text{protein}}$. Arg-52 is a likely candidate to contribute to this function. Our analysis indicates that the 4-OH group is essential for $\Delta\lambda_{\text{protein}}$. Second, the counterpart of the 6-$s$-trans conformation in retinal bound to native bacteriorhodopsin is formed by the conformation around the C–C single bond of the $-C=C-(C-S)=O$ fragment. Both the 1.4-$A$ x-ray data (22) and resonance Raman data (21) indicate that this single bond is in the $s$-cis conformation. Since it seems reasonable to expect that for model compounds in solution this bond is in the $s$-trans conformation, this factor may affect the absorption spectrum of the chromophore. However, at this point it is difficult to quantitate this effect.

A third possibility that we have considered is protein-induced torsional strain on the trans C–C bond in the chromophore. Such strain would destabilize the ground state and would stabilize the excited state, since this latter state is expected to have an energy minimum at a double bond angle of 135°. Initial results of essential dynamics calculations suggest that such strain indeed is present in the pG state. This proposal implies that the degree of torsional strain imposed on the chromophore is decreased by the additional ring substituents in II–IV. Four residues in the pCA binding site of PYP are of primary importance: (i) Arg-52, which has already been discussed, and (ii) the hydrogen bonding network between the phenolate anion and Glu-46, Tyr-42, and Thr-50. These interactions can be expected to reduce the mobility of the chromophore, which may be a prerequisite for the application of torsional stress on the C–C bond. In this way, this proposal can explain the absence of a $\Delta\lambda_{\text{protein}}$ in V–VII.

Binding of a chromophore to apoPYP leads to a decrease in the magnitude of its Stokes shift by more than a factor of 2. It is interesting to note that PYP displays both the strongest decrease in Stokes shift and the largest $\Delta\lambda_{\text{protein}}$. This decrease in Stokes shift is not easily compatible with the notion of torsional stress; however, torsional stress would tend to decrease the difference between the ground state and the first excited state.

**Photactivity of the Hybrid PYPs**—The typical photobleaching and dark recovery of native PYP (and of I) is readily observable in hybrids II and III but not in IV. The rate of the dark recovery reaction, however, was slightly (in III) and even strongly (in II) decreased. For the other hybrids (in particular IV) transient kinetic analyses will have to be applied, to determine whether or not a short-lived intermediate exists.

**Comparison of PYP Hybrids with Green Fluorescent Protein (GFP)**—An interesting comparison can be made between the highly fluorescent hybrids (III and IV; see Table IV) and GFP, based on their mutual similarity and differences. At neutral pH, for instance, IV and GFP display two absorption bands (for the latter at approximately 395 and 475 nm). However, whereas in IV these two forms are due to the titration of the phenolate anion, in GFP they appear to be due to isomerization (33), although some interconversion of the absorption bands at 395 and 475 nm occurs, in the pH range in which GFP can be titrated, without interference by rapid denaturation (34). Surprisingly, fluorescence emission of GFP from both its absorption bands (data not shown) gives rise only to a single emission band (at 508 nm), with a only minor red shoulder. This is in striking contrast to PYP, in which both protonation states of the apoprotein-bound chromophore give rise to a fluorescent protein, with slightly higher fluorescence quantum yield at neutral pH but with clearly separated emission bands for the two states. This can be concluded from comparisons of the fluorescence of pG and pB$_{\text{dark}}$. It is not known what the effect is of isomerization of the chromophore of PYP on the fluorescence emission. The transient character of pB complicates its fluorescence characterization. In view of the intriguing fluorescence characteristics of GFP, it will be of great interest to characterize the isomerization state of the chromophore of GFP with IR spectroscopy, for example, as a function of irradiation dose and pH. The fluorescence characteristics of GFP may be due to emission from a deprotonated chromophore.

The increase in $\Phi_0$ of hybrids II and III and their photochemical activity provides new approaches for future work. First, time-resolved fluorescence spectroscopy can be employed as a new and powerful tool to investigate the primary photochemistry of PYP. Second, the photochemical properties of PYP can be manipulated by developing different chromophore analogues, strongly enhancing the scope for application of PYP hybrids in practical applications, for example, like in optical data storage. In addition, the biophysical basis for the distribution of the quantum yield of each of the three parallel reaction pathways, available to the excited state of pG (i.e., photochemistry, fluorescence, and radiationless decay (see Ref. 15), becomes accessible to experiments. This may lead to better insight in the way nature tunes chromophores, to function optimally as photosensory light absorber (PYP) or bioluminescent light emitter (GFP).

**Concluding Remarks**—In this study we present a general method for the reconstitution of PYP with various chromophores, based on the ability to reconstitute apoPYP with 4-hydroxyaminocinnamic acid anhydride (24) and the heterologous overexpression of HAP (11). The N-terminal histidine tag of the overproduced protein allows for its efficient purification and if necessary can be specifically removed via enterokinase digestion of the isolated protein. This makes PYP available in large amounts and amenable to site-directed mutagenesis and labeling with NMR-visible isotopes (e.g. with $^{15}$N and $^{13}$C).

Here we have characterized seven PYP hybrids and have found that the protein dramatically changes chemical and physical properties of the various chromophores. Hybrids II–IV, which have additional ring substituents, still show a strong chromophore-protein interaction, as is apparent from the change in (i) wavelength of maximal absorption of the chromophore, (ii) $pK_a$ for deprotonation, (iii) fluorescence quantum yield, and (iv) Stokes shift. For all hybrids studied here, a quantitative description of the absorption changes between the free acid and the chromophore bound to the native protein was obtained, in which the formation of the thiol ester accounts for a red-shift of $-6000$ cm$^{-1}$ ($\Delta\lambda_{\text{thiol ester}}$), chromophore deprotonation accounts for $-4700$ cm$^{-1}$ ($\Delta\lambda_{\text{deprot}}$), and further protein-chromophore interactions for $-2300$ cm$^{-1}$ ($\Delta\lambda_{\text{protein}}$). Our data are consistent with the presence of torsional stress on the vinyl double bond of the chromophore, but also the conformation of

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the single bond in the –C≡C–(–S–)=O fragment may be of importance for ΔG\text{protein}.

REFERENCES