The Anaerobic (Class III) Ribonucleotide Reductase from Lactococcus lactis

CATALYTIC PROPERTIES AND ALLOSTERIC REGULATION OF THE PURE ENZYME SYSTEM

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Lactococcus lactis contains an operon with the genes (nrdD and nrdG) for a class III ribonucleotide reductase. Strict anaerobic growth depends on the activity of these genes. Both were sequenced, cloned, and overproduced in Escherichia coli. The corresponding proteins, NrdD and NrdG, were purified close to homogeneity. The amino acid sequences of NrdD (747 residues, 84.1 kDa) and NrdG (199 residues, 23.3 kDa) are 53 and 42% identical with the respective E. coli proteins. Together, they catalyze the reduction of ribonucleoside triphosphates to the corresponding deoxyribonucleosides in the presence of S-adenosylmethionine, reduced flavodoxin or reduced deazaflavin, potassium ions, dithiothreitol, and formate. EPR experiments demonstrated a [4Fe-4S]+ cluster in reduced NrdG and a glycy radical in activated NrdD, similar to the E. coli NrdD and NrdG proteins. Different from E. coli, the two polypeptides of NrdD and the proteins in the NrdD-NrdG complex were only loosely associated. Also the FeS cluster was easily lost from NrdG. The substrate specificity and overall activity of the L. lactis enzyme was regulated according to the general rules for ribonucleotide reductases. Allosteric effectors bound to two separate sites on NrdD, one binding dATP, dGTP, and dTTP and the other binding dATP and ATP. The two sites showed an unusually high degree of cooperativity with complex interactions between effectors and a fine-tuning of their physiological effects. The results with the L. lactis class III reductase further support the concept of a common origin for all present day ribonucleotide reductases.

Lactococcus lactis is a member of the family of lactic acid Gram-positive bacteria that grow anaerobically but tolerate low concentrations of oxygen (1). Similar to all other bacteria it produces the deoxyribonucleoside triphosphates required for DNA synthesis by reduction of ribonucleotides (2). In earlier work (3) we isolated from L. lactis subsp. cremoris a class Ib (nrdEF) ribonucleoside diphosphate reductase (2). This class contains a catalytically active tyrosyl radical whose generation requires molecular oxygen. Its members are not expected to function during anaerobiosis. L. lactis does, however, also contain nrdDG genes that code for a ribonucleotide reductase not depending on oxygen. The homologous proteins in Escherichia coli function during anaerobiosis (4). However, surprisingly, mutants in the L. lactis nrdD gene were still able to grow well under standard anaerobic growth conditions and then overproduced the NrdEF proteins (3).

There are three classes of ribonucleotide reductases that differ in their protein structure (see recent reviews in Refs. 2 and 5–8). All operate via a free radical mechanism involving protein radicals but differ in the way in which the protein radical is generated. Class I enzymes, coded either by the nrdAB genes (class Ia) or nrdEF genes (class Ib), occur in many microorganisms and all higher eukaryotes. They have an $\alpha_2\beta_2$ structure with the larger $\alpha_2$ protein forming the catalytic part, responsible also for the allosteric properties of the enzyme, and the smaller $\beta_2$ protein harboring the radical-generating system, with an oxygen-linked diiron center and a neighboring free radical on a tyrosyl residue. Class II enzymes consist of only one large polypeptide, usually a dimer. Adenosylcobalamin substitutes for the $\beta_2$ protein as radical generator. This class occurs only in microorganisms. Class III enzymes consist of two proteins, NrdD and NrdG, with the larger NrdD responsible for catalysis and allosteric effects and the smaller NrdG for radical generation. nrdD and nrdG genes have been found in many different anaerobic and facultative anaerobic bacteria (2). Up to now only the class III proteins from E. coli (4, 9, 10) and phage T4 (11, 12) have been characterized. Class I enzymes require oxygen, and class II enzymes are independent of oxygen, and class III enzymes are poisoned by oxygen.

A special aspect of all ribonucleotide reductases concerns the regulation of their substrate specificity (2, 5, 6). Each enzyme, irrespective of class, provides all four dNTPs required for DNA synthesis. The specificity toward the reduction of one or the other substrate is directed by allosteric effectors binding to a “specificity site” on the large protein, distinct from the catalytic site. There, effectors (ATP, dATP, dGTP, or dTTP), one per polypeptide chain, bind and modify by long range interaction the conformation of the catalytic site to adapt it to a given substrate. Some class I enzymes (class Ia) contain an additional “activity site” on the large protein that regulates the overall
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catalytic activity. There, ATP acts as stimulator and dATP as inhibitor.

The *E. coli* anaerobic reductase has been the prototype of class III reductases (4). During anaerobic growth, the bacteria switch on their *nrdDG* operon and rely on the corresponding NrdD and NrdG proteins for the production of deoxyribonucleotides. The NrdD protein harbors in its active form an oxygen-sensitive glycylic radical located close to the carboxyl terminus of the protein (13). Ribonucleotide reduction occurs at the triphosphate level and requires formate as hydrogen donor. The protein was found to contain two classes of anther sites, with one class binding dATP, dGTP, or dTTP and the other binding ATP and dATP (14).

The NrdG protein contains a [4Fe-4S] cluster that, together with S-adenosylmethionine, and reduced flavodoxin generates the glycylic radical on NrdD (9, 10). Early experiments pointed to a stoichiometry of one cluster per NrdG dimer, but more recent evidence suggests that each NrdG polypeptide contains one [4Fe-4S] cluster (15). In many respects the anaerobic reductase resembles the pyruvate formate lyase system (16), and a recent x-ray crystallographic study (17) has added structural evidence to the hypothesis that the two enzyme systems may have a common evolutionary origin.

Several years ago one of us (1) discovered by chance that *L. lactis* subsp. *cremonis* very likely contains an Nrd*DG* operon coding for an active class III ribonucleotide reductase. *L. lactis* is a Gram-positive bacterium, far removed in evolution from *E. coli*; however, its properties of their anaerobic reductases. Of particular interest was a comparison of their allosteric regulation. Results obtained now with the pure *L. lactis* enzyme show that the enzyme in many respects resembles the *E. coli* enzyme but also contains some distinct features. Its allosteric regulation is similar but not identical to that of the *E. coli* reductase.

**MATERIALS AND METHODS**

**Bacterial Strains, Plasmids, and Growth Conditions—*L. lactis* subsp. *cremonis* MG1363 (18) was grown at 30 °C in M17 medium (Difco, West Molesey, UK) as standing cultures or on M17 agar solidified with 1.5% Bactoagar (Difco). The *E. coli* MG1363 by the method described earlier (27). 

**Expression and Purification of NrdD—*E. coli* IG016 was grown microaerophilically in 1.6-liter batch cultures at 37 °C in LB medium containing 2% glucose, 150 μg/ml kanamycin, and 34 μg/ml chloramphenicol with continuous flow-through of 4% CO2 and 96% N2. When the culture had reached mid-log phase (A660 = 0.6) IPTG was added. After 2–3 h the cells were collected by centrifugation (1.6 g of packed cells) and stored frozen in liquid nitrogen. All the operations were made anaerobically and close to 4 °C. The cells were extracted (29), and clear crude extracts were obtained by high speed centrifugation and dialyzed overnight against buffer A (50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 20 mM DTT, 1 mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride) + 0.5 mM KCl. The dialyzed solution was adjusted to 5 mg of protein/ml with the same buffer and added to a 2-ml column of ATP-Sepharose. The column was washed, first with 7 ml buffer A, then with 0.5 mM KCl, followed by 7 ml buffer B (50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 10 mM DTT, 50 mM KCl, 10 μg phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride), and finally with buffer A containing 0.5 mM ATP. Active fractions were combined and concentrated in Centricon 30 tubes, and ATP was removed by filtration through a Sephadex-G25 column equilibrated with 50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 2 mM DTT.

**Expression and Purification of the NrdG—*E. coli* IG016 was grown microaerophilically at 30 °C in 7 liters of LB medium until an A660 of 0.5. IPTG was added, and after 4 h the cells were collected by centrifugation. Purification was made in a 1-1 stirred fermentor and dialyzed overnight against buffer A (50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 20 mM DTT, 1 mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride) + 0.5 mM KCl. The dialyzed solution was adjusted to 5 mg of protein/ml with the same buffer and added to a 2-ml column of ATP-Sepharose. The column was washed, first with 7 ml buffer A, then with 0.5 mM KCl, followed by 7 ml buffer B (50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 10 mM DTT, 50 mM KCl, 10 μg phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride), and finally with buffer A containing 0.5 mM ATP. Active fractions were combined and concentrated in Centricon 30 tubes, and ATP was removed by filtration through a Sephadex-G25 column equilibrated with 50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 2 mM DTT.

**Expression and Purification of the NrdG**—*E. coli* IG016 was grown aerobically at 30 °C in 7 liters of LB medium until an A660 of 0.5. IPTG was added, and after 4 h the cells were collected by centrifugation. Purification was made in a 1-1 stirred fermentor and dialyzed overnight against buffer A (50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 20 mM DTT, 1 mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride) + 0.5 mM KCl. The dialyzed solution was adjusted to 5 mg of protein/ml with the same buffer and added to a 2-ml column of ATP-Sepharose. The column was washed, first with 7 ml buffer A, then with 0.5 mM KCl, followed by 7 ml buffer B (50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 10 mM DTT, 50 mM KCl, 10 μg phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride), and finally with buffer A containing 0.5 mM ATP. Active fractions were combined and concentrated in Centricon 30 tubes, and ATP was removed by filtration through a Sephadex-G25 column equilibrated with 50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 2 mM DTT.

1. G. Buist, unpublished experiments.
2. The abbreviations used are: IPTG, isopropyl-β-D-thiogalactopyranoside; AdoMet, S-adenosylmethionine; DTT, dithiothreitol; DAF, deazaflavin; mW, milliwatts; PCR, polymerase chain reaction; bp, base pair.
30 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 10 mM DTT. The final yield from 535 mg of protein in the crude extract was 25 mg of NrdG.

Reconstitution of NrdG with Iron and Sulfide—All solutions were kept strictly anaerobic on a manifold continuously purged with argon. A solution of 5.4 mg (~0.23 μmol polypeptide) of NrdG (0.150 ml in two tubes) was treated for 6 h in an ice bath with 0.1 μmol of DTT, 1 μmol of Na₂S₂, and 1 μmol of Fe(NH₄)₂(SO₄)₂, added in that order. In some instances ⁰⁰Fe (20 μCi) was used in this step. After addition of 3 μmol of EDTA, the capped anaerobic tubes were transferred to an anaerobic hood, and the solution was passed through a 7-ml column of Sephadex G-25 equilibrated with 50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 10% glycerol to remove excess reagents. After overnight dialysis in the anaerobic hood against 30 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 2 mM DTT, 0.1 mM KCl, 10% glycerol, the dark brown solution containing reconstituted NrdG was either used directly for EPR experiments or stored in a closed tube under liquid nitrogen for experiments involving catalytic function.

EPR Analyses—For analyses of the FeS cluster, 0.1 ml of the anaerobic reconstituted NrdG solution (0.3 mg of protein) was mixed with an equal volume of the dialysis buffer containing 0.1 mM deaerolavined (DAF), giving a 0.06 mM solution of the NrdG polypeptide, and transferred inside the anaerobic box to an EPR tube. The tube was irradiated from a halogen lamp in a commercial projector for 60 min to reduce the FeS cluster, frozen, and analyzed by EPR. A control sample was treated identically in the absence of DAF. The oxidized form of the iron-sulfur cluster was obtained after exposure of the thawed sample to air at room temperature.

For EPR analysis of the glycid radical, 0.10 mg of NrdG was added on the manifold to a solution of 0.24 mg of NrdD in 1.5 mM S-adenosylmethionine (AdoMet), 5 mM DTT, 10 mM sodium formate, 30 mM KCl, 0.1 mM DAF, and 30 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, final volume 0.2 ml. After irradiation at room temperature with visible light for 60 min, the solution was transferred in the anaerobic hood to an EPR tube and frozen for analysis.

EPR first derivative spectra were recorded on a Bruker ESP 300 spectrometer with X-band microwave frequency and 100-kHz field modulation frequency. Temperatures below 77 K were achieved with an Oxford Instruments continuous flow liquid helium cryostat. The 100 K modulation frequency. Temperatures below 77 K were achieved with an Oxford Instruments continuous flow liquid helium cryostat. The 100 K modulation frequency. Temperatures below 77 K were achieved with an Oxford Instruments continuous flow liquid helium cryostat. The 100 K modulation frequency. Temperatures below 77 K were achieved with an Oxford Instruments continuous flow liquid helium cryostat. The 100 K modulation frequency. Temperatures below 77 K were achieved with an Oxford Instruments continuous flow liquid helium cryostat. The 100 K modulation frequency. Temperatures below 77 K were achieved with an Oxford Instruments continuous flow liquid helium cryostat. The 100 K modulation frequency. Temperatures below 77 K were achieved with an Oxford Instruments continuous flow liquid helium cryostat. The 100 K modulation frequency. Temperatures below 77 K were achieved with an Oxford Instruments continuous flow liquid helium cryostat. The 100 K modulation frequency. Temperatures below 77 K were achieved with an Oxford Instruments continuous flow liquid helium cryostat. The 100 K modulation frequency. Temperatures below 77 K were achieved with an Oxford Instruments continuous flow liquid helium cryostat. The 100 K modulation frequency. Temperatures below 77 K were achieved with an Oxford Instruments continuous flow liquid helium cryostat. The 100 K modulation frequency. Temperatures below 77 K were achieved with an Oxford Instruments continuous flow liquid helium cryostat. The 100 K modulation frequency. Temperatures below 77 K were achieved with an Oxford Instruments continuous flow liquid helium cryostat. The 100 K modulation frequency. Temperatures below 77 K were achieved with an Oxford Instruments continuous flow liquid helium cryostat. The 100 K modulation frequency. Temperatures below 77 K were achieved with an Oxford Instruments continuous flow liquid helium cryostat. The 100 K modulation frequency. Temperatures below 77 K were achieved with an Oxford Instruments continuous flow liquid helium cryostat. The 100 K modulation frequency. Temperatures below 77 K were achieved with an Oxford Instruments continuous flow liquid helium cryostat. The 100 K modulation frequency. Temperatures below 77 K were achieved with an Oxford Instruments continuous flow liquid helium cryostat. The 100 K modulation frequency. Temperatures below 77 K were achieved with an Oxford Instruments continuous flow liquid helium cryostat. The 100 K modulation frequency. Temperatures below 77 K were achieved with an Oxford Instruments continuous flow liquid helium cryostat. The 100 K modulation frequency. Temperatures below 77 K were achieved with an Oxford Instruments continuous flow liquid helium cryostat. The 100 K modulation frequency. Temperatures below 77 K were achieved with an Oxford Instruments continuous flow liquid helium cryostat. The 100 K modulation frequency. Temperatures below 77 K were achieved with an Oxford Instruments continuous flow liquid helium cryostat. The 100 K modulation frequency. Temperatures below 77 K were achieved with an Oxford Instruments continuous flow liquid helium cryostat. The 100 K modulation frequency. Temperatures below 77 K were achieved with an Oxford Instruments continuous flow liquid helium cryostat. The 100 K modulation frequency. Temperatures below 77 K were achieved with an Oxford Instruments continuous flow liquid helium cryostat. The 100 K modulation frequency. Temperatures below 77 K were achieved with an Oxford Instruments continuous flow liquid helium cryostat. The 100 K modulation frequency. Temperatures below 77 K were achieved with an Oxford Instruments continuous flow liquid helium cryostat. The 100 K modulation frequency. Temperatures below 77 K were achieved with an Oxford Instruments continuous flow liquid helium cryostat. The 100 K modulation frequency. Temperatures below 77 K were achieved with an Oxford Instruments continuous flow liquid helium cryostat. The 100 K modulation frequency. Temperatures below 77 K were achieved with an Oxford Instruments continuous flow liquid helium cryostat. The 100 K modulation frequency. Temperatures below 77 K were achieved with an Oxford Instruments continuous flow liquid helium cryostat. The 100 K modulation frequency. Temperatures below 77 K were achieved...
2, lanes 1–6, and greatly affected enzyme activity but not effector binding. All kinetic experiments were done with the protein shown in lanes 1 and 2, estimated to contain not more than 50% of the truncated form. Strain IG017, used for purification of NrdG, overproduces only lactococcal NrdG. The final NrdG preparation gave a single band at \(~25\) kDa (Fig. 2, lane 8).

During aerobic purification, NrdG lost most of its ability to complement NrdD in the reductase assay. The final product contained only 0.3 atoms of Fe and 0.05 atoms of sulfide per polypeptide. After anaerobic treatment with Fe\(^{2+}\) and S\(^-\), under conditions used earlier for reactivation of E. coli NrdG, the protein regained activity, and different preparations contained 4 to 5 Fe and 1.4 to 2 sulfide per polypeptide.

**NrdD Can Form a Glycyl Radical**—As isolated, NrdD showed no EPR signal. After anaerobic incubation with NrdG and irradiation in the presence of DAF and AdoMet a signal centered at \(g = 2.0033\) with a principal hyperfine doublet splitting of 1.44 millitesla appeared (Fig. 3A). Under optimal recording conditions the EPR signal had an additional partially resolved hyperfine coupling (Fig. 3B). Its EPR line shape is almost identical to that of the glycyl radicals in pyruvate formate lyase (39) and ribonucleotide reductases (9, 12). Based also on the sequence similarities it seems certain that the EPR signal in Fig. 3 arises from a glycyl radical. At 100 K, the \(P_{\frac{1}{2}}\) value of this signal was below 0.1 mW indicating that the radical is easily saturated by microwave power and hence not influenced in its relaxation by a metallo cofactor, consistent with NrdD being a metal-free protein. Spin quantitation showed \(~0.2\) radicals per NrdD dimer, without correction for protein truncation. The free radical was relatively stable at low temperature storage and retained 70% of the unpaired spins after storage at room temperature for 5 h. It was rapidly destroyed by air, similar to other glycyl radicals.

**EPR Characterization of the Iron-Sulfur Cluster of NrdG**—After reconstitution, NrdG was diamagnetic under strictly oxygen-free conditions (Fig. 4A). Direct exposure to air led to a weak signal centered at \(g = 2.015\), typical of a cuboidal [3Fe-4S]\(^+\) cluster spectrum in a ground state with \(S = \frac{1}{2}\) (Fig. 4B) (40). A weak \(g = 4.3\) signal of high spin ferric iron in rhombic symmetry was also observed, typical for nonspecifically bound iron (not shown). The intensity of the EPR [3Fe-4S] signal decreased dramatically above \(25\) K. It was easily saturated by applied microwave power. Spin quantitation indicated that the species in Fig. 4B only corresponds to some percent of the NrdG dimer concentration.

Photochemical anaerobic reduction of reconstituted NrdG generated a nearly axially symmetric EPR signal in the \(g = 2\) region (Fig. 4C). The signal originates from an \(S = \frac{1}{2}\) ground state species with \(g_z = 2.040\) and \(g_\perp = 1.940\). The optimum temperature for EPR observation was \(~12\) K, and the signal could not be detected above \(40\) K. It showed a fast relaxing behavior with an estimated value of \(P_{\frac{1}{2}}\) of 14 mW at 10 K. All these properties are characteristic of a protein-bound cubane-type [4Fe-4S]\(^+\) cluster (40). The maximum yield of the reduced species was close to one cluster per homodimer of NrdG. The \(g = 4.3\) signal was not seen after reduction of NrdG.

When the reduced sample was exposed to air the cluster was quickly oxidized to a typical \(S = \frac{1}{2}\) [3Fe-4S]\(^+\) species (Fig. 4D). The features of the EPR signal in Fig. 4D are similar to those in Fig. 4B, but now the spin quantitation showed 0.8 clusters...
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per dimer. A more detailed physicochemical characterization of the iron-sulfur cluster of NrdG will be reported elsewhere.3

A Stable NrdD-NrdG Complex Was Not Found.—Fig. 5 illustrates the results from an experiment in which we tested by sucrose gradient centrifugation the ability of NrdD and NrdG to form a complex. In Fig. 5A roughly equimolar amounts of the two proteins were centrifuged together in a buffered salt solution; in Fig. 5B 0.1 mm dATP was included during centrifugation, and in Fig. 5C NrdG alone was centrifuged. In all cases NrdG had been reconstituted with 59Fe. At the end of the run, fractions of the gradient were analyzed by determination of protein (□) and 59Fe (△).

expected from a NrdD dimer (9). Interestingly, inclusion of ATP in the gradient did not increase the sedimentation coefficient. Inclusion of AdoMet produced no change (data not shown). After centrifugation, most of the radioactivity was present at the top of the gradients demonstrating that the FeS cluster was lost from NrdG.

Requirements for the Reduction of CTP by dCTP—Earlier results with the E. coli anaerobic reductase served as a guiding line for the following experiments. They show that the L. lactis enzyme has the same requirements for CTP reduction as the E. coli reductase.

The reaction required both NrdD and NrdG and occurred in two strictly anaerobic steps. During the first step NrdD was activated by AdoMet and DAF + light in a time-dependent reaction. Activation was complete after 30 min (data not shown). Reduced E. coli flavodoxin (produced from flavodoxin with flavodoxin reductase + NADPH) could substitute for DAF + light, but the reaction appeared to be less complete, as the final reduction of CTP to dCTP occurred only at half-rate (data not shown). In the second step the actual reduction of CTP by activated NrdD required DTT, formate, KCl, and ATP (Table I). CDP did not serve as a substrate.

Under our assay conditions the rate of dCTP formation depended on the concentrations of NrdD and NrdG. The addition of increasing amounts of NrdG to two fixed amounts of NrdD generated the results shown in Fig. 6. In both cases the system became saturated with respect to the small protein. It is not possible, however, to draw any firm conclusions about the NrdD/NrdG stoichiometry of the active enzyme from these experiments.

Allosteric Regulation of Substrate Specificity.—The reduction of CTP showed an absolute requirement for ATP (Table I), suggesting that the L. lactis reductase is an allosteric enzyme whose substrate specificity is regulated by effectors, similar to other ribonucleotide reductases. Table II shows an overview of the effector requirements for the reduction of CTP, ATP, or GTP by the lactococcal reductase. The results are strikingly similar to those found with other reductases. Thus CTP reduction only occurred in the presence of ATP (but not dATP), and ATP reduction specifically required dGTP, and GTP reduction depended on dTTP. GTP reduction was also slightly stimulated by ATP. With CTP or ATP as substrates the effector requirement was absolute, with GTP there was a small “background” reduction also in the absence of the effector, and the dTTP-stimulated reaction was considerably slower than the corresponding reductions of CTP or ATP.

More detailed experiments revealed several interesting features of the allosteric behavior of the L. lactis enzyme that sets it apart from the E. coli class III enzyme. In repeated experiments the stimulation of CTP reduction by ATP was sigmoidal, and the sigmoidicity disappeared in the presence of 0.1 mm dGTP or dATP (Fig. 7A). ATP became then more effective, and its concentration at which the reaction occurred at ½ Vmax

FIG. 5. Sucrose gradient centrifugations of NrdD and NrdG. A. 0.1 mg of NrdD + 0.04 mg of reconstituted 59Fe-labeled NrdG + 0.017 mg of catalase were centrifuged as described under “Materials and Methods”; B, as in A, but + 0.2 mm dATP; C, as in A, but without NrdD. After centrifugation, fractions of 2 drops were collected from the bottom of the tubes and analyzed for protein (×) and 59Fe (△).

TABLE I

Requirements for the reduction of CTP by lactococcal reductase

Experiments were done under standard conditions in the presence of 4 µg of NrdD and 1.3 µg of NrdG.

| Reaction conditions | Units a |
|--------------------|---------|
| Complete           | 0.116   |
| DTT                | 0.038   |
| Formate            | 0.035   |
| DTT, − Formate     | 0.010   |
| KCl                | 0.010   |
| SAM                | 0.002   |
| ATP                | 0.003   |
| CTP + CDP          | 0.004   |

a Nanomoles of dCTP formed per min.

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decreased from 0.7 to 0.2 mM. This effect disappeared at higher concentrations of dATP and dGTP, when the two effectors became inhibitory (data not shown).

The stimulation of ATP reduction by dGTP followed Michaelis-Menten kinetics with a $K_m$ for dGTP of 3 mM (data not shown). dATP inhibited the dGTP-stimulated reaction with 50% inhibition occurring at 50 mM dATP, irrespective of the concentration of dGTP (data not shown).

The stimulation of GTP reduction by dTTP also followed Michaelis-Menten kinetics with a $K_m$ for dTTP of 0.13 mM. ATP further stimulated the reaction more than 3-fold, and now GTP reduction reached the same level as CTP and ATP reduction (Fig. 7B). Of interest for an understanding of these complicated interactions was the finding that dATP counteracted the stimulation by ATP (Fig. 7B) and that this effect was overcome by increasing concentrations of ATP. The effects of both ATP and dATP were independent of dTTP concentration. The physical basis of these results will become clearer from the binding experiments described below.

**Table II**

Allosteric regulation of substrate specificity of lactococcal reductase

The experiments were done with 3 μg of NrdD and 1.2 μg of NrdG under standard conditions, except for the allosteric effector. ATP was used at 1.5 mM concentration and dNTPs at 0.2 mM.

| Substrate | None | ATP | dATP | dCTP | dGTP | dTTP |
|-----------|------|-----|------|------|------|------|
| CTP       | 0.004| 0.260| 0.014| 0.007| 0.002|
| ATP       | 0.010| 0.011| 0.015| 0.211| 0.011|
| GTP       | 0.012| 0.030| 0.010| 0.011| 0.042|

* Nanomoles of dNTP formed per min.

The Scatchard plots of Fig. 8A show a complex binding curve for dATP, whereas the curve for dGTP gave a straight line with a $K_m$ of 15 μM. Extrapolation of the curves suggests that one NrdD dimer had the capacity to bind 4 dATP or 2 dGTP. The curve for dATP indicates a high degree of cooperativity between sites. Such a curve does not define a $K_m$, but one can calculate that half the sites were occupied (i.e. 50% binding) at 10 μM dATP.

FIG. 6. Dependence of dCTP formation on the concentrations of NrdD and NrdG. Increasing amounts of reconstituted NrdG were incubated in the presence of 4 (○) or 8 (Δ) μg of NrdD under standard conditions, and the amount of dCTP formed was determined.

FIG. 7. Stimulation of CTP and GTP reduction by ATP. A, NrdD (3.6 μg) and NrdG (3.0 μg) were incubated under standard conditions for CTP reduction at increasing concentrations of ATP (+) or increasing concentrations of ATP + 0.1 mM dATP (●) or increasing concentrations of ATP + 0.1 mM dGTP (×). B, NrdD (3.6 μg) and NrdG (3 μg) were incubated under standard conditions for GTP reduction except for the effector. +, increasing concentrations of ATP alone; ×, increasing concentrations of ATP with 0.5 mM dTTP; ●, increasing concentrations of ATP with 0.5 mM dTTP + 0.2 mM dATP.

The stimulation of ATP reduction by dGTP followed Michaelis-Menten kinetics with a $K_m$ for dGTP of 3 μM (data not shown). dATP inhibited the dGTP-stimulated reaction with 50% inhibition occurring at 50 μM dATP, irrespective of the concentration of dGTP (data not shown).

The stimulation of GTP reduction by dTTP also followed Michaelis-Menten kinetics with a $K_m$ for dTTP of 0.13 mM. ATP further stimulated the reaction more than 3-fold, and now GTP reduction reached the same level as CTP and ATP reduction (Fig. 7B). Of interest for an understanding of these complicated interactions was the finding that dATP counteracted the stimulation by ATP (Fig. 7B) and that this effect was overcome by increasing concentrations of ATP. The effects of both ATP and dATP were independent of dTTP concentration. The physical basis of these results will become clearer from the binding experiments described below.

**Binding of Effector Nucleotides**—Binding experiments required large amounts of protein as all effectors bound weakly to NrdD. Complete binding curves could not be obtained for ATP and dTTP. Experiments with dATP and dGTP were done during a period of more than 1 year with different preparations of NrdD, which is molecules of nucleotide bound per NrdD dimer. dGTP binding (Δ, *) was measured with two of the four NrdD preparations. B, dATP binding in the presence of 1 mM dGTP (+) or 2 mM ATP (●, ○). Note the differences in scales on the two ordinates (left = ATP, right = dGTP).
in two organisms that are believed to have diverged from a common ancestor more than 2 billion years ago (41). A comparison of the properties of the two enzymes defines basic features common to class III reductases, and the availability of a second class III enzyme may also in general be useful for biophysical or structural studies.

The *L. lactis* enzyme shares most of its general properties with the *E. coli* reductase. Thus both enzymes consist of a large NrdD and a small NrdG protein, and the corresponding genes form part of an operon. NrdD from each bacterium can harbor a catalytically active glycyl radical close to its carboxyl terminus. NrdG contains an [4Fe-4S] cluster which, together with AdoMet and reduced flavodoxin or reduced DAF, generates the glycyl radical on NrdD. The substrate specificity of both enzymes is allosterically regulated, and a given effector induces the same specificity in both enzymes.

The cluster/polypeptide stoichiometry of the *L. lactis* enzyme is not settled by our experiments. After reactivation, we always found an excess of iron over sulfide. We believe that this was caused by our inability to remove all unspecifically bound iron. The EPR experiments indicated the presence of ~1 cluster dimer together with some nonspecifically bound iron. These data are similar to early results obtained with the *E. coli* NrdG protein (9, 10) and then were interpreted to indicate the presence of one [4Fe-4S] cluster per NrdG dimer. However, more recently, experiments carried out under stricter anaerobic conditions indicated the presence of two clusters per *E. coli* NrdG dimer (15). In view of the lability of the *L. lactis* cluster suggested from the sucrose gradient centrifugation experiments (Fig. 5), it seems reasonable that also lactococcal NrdG is able to bind two clusters per dimer but that one cluster was lost during manipulations.

There are also differences between the two enzymes. In *E. coli*, NrdD and NrdG formed a tight αββ complex during sucrose gradient centrifugation (9). This was not the case in corresponding experiments with the *L. lactis* enzyme. Also the FeS cluster was bound loosely and was lost during centrifugation. Finally, the association of the two polypeptide chains of the *L. lactis* NrdD dimer required the presence of effectors (dATP or dGTP) during centrifugation for its stability. This was not necessary for the *E. coli* NrdD protein. Together these data suggest a less tight association between polyproteins and between cluster and polyproteins in the *L. lactis* enzyme.

The juxtaposition of the nrdD and nrdG genes in one operon, both in *E. coli* and *L. lactis*, suggests a coordinated synthesis of the NrdD and NrdG proteins. During the generation of the glycyl radical, NrdD and NrdG must be in close contact. As the two *E. coli* proteins can form an αββ complex (9), we propose that glycyl radical generation occurs in such a complex. The question then remains to what extent the complex dissociates during catalysis. Recent data from the *E. coli* system (15) indicate that dissociation can take place and the fact that NrdD and NrdG apparently are less tightly associated in the *L. lactis* system (9) may play a role in this process.
enzyme would suggest this to occur also in the lactococcal reductase. At the present time it is not clear if the activated NrdD protein alone can catalyze ribonucleotide reduction.

The effector binding experiments require a special discussion. Ribonucleotide reductases contain specificity sites that regulate their substrate specificity by binding ATP and dNTPs as allosteric effectors (2). Class Ia and some class II (37) enzymes contain, in addition, a second class of activity sites that only bind ATP or dATP. The enzyme dimers then have the capacity to bind 4 molecules of ATP and dATP and 2 molecules of dTTP and dGTP.

The NrdD protein of the E. coli class III reductase also contains two separate classes of allosteric sites (14), but in contrast to class I and II reductases, the dimer can only bind 2 ATP. The reason for this is that the sites corresponding to the specificity sites of class I do not bind ATP but only dATP, dGTP, and dTTP.

The present experiments suggest that the two allosteric sites of L. lactis NrdD bind the same effectors as E. coli NrdD. We were not able to quantitate ATP binding but had to rely on competition experiments that strongly suggested that ATP binds to sites that are different from those that bind dGTP and dTTP. (i) Only dTTP and dATP, but not ATP, blocked binding of labeled dGTP (Table III); ATP and dGTP blocked different sites in competition with labeled dATP (Fig. 8A and Table III). (ii) dGTP removed the sigmoidicity from the stimulatory effect of ATP and CTP reduction (Fig. 7A) and increased ATP binding (Table IV); ATP increased the stimulatory effect of dTTP on GTP reduction (Fig. 7B). These results are best explained by ATP binding to sites that are separate from the sites that bind dGTP and dTTP. (iii) During sucrose gradient centrifugation of NrdD, dGTP and dATP, but not ATP, promoted dimer formation. X-ray crystallography (42) has localized the specificity site to the dimer interface. The results suggest that ATP does not have access to this site.

A special feature of the allosteric regulation of the L. lactis enzyme, not present in other reductases, concerns the considerable “cross-talk” between binding sites. Some examples are the high cooperativity of dATP binding (Fig. 8A), the sigmoidicity of the ATP curve when this nucleotide stimulates CTP reduction, and the effects of dGTP and dATP on this stimulation (Fig. 7A) and on ATP binding (Table III). In this way the enzyme becomes sensitive to small changes in the concentrations of ATP and dATP. It should be pointed out that despite the differences in binding and cooperativity the general effect of a given nucleotide on substrate specificity and catalytic activity is the same for class III and class Ia reductases (cf. Table II).

We have shown that the anaerobic reductases from a Gram-negative and a Gram-positive bacterium operate according to the same general principles, both with respect to catalytic function and allosteric regulation, despite their far evolutionary divergence. So far these two are the only class III enzymes studied at the protein level. However, we can widen the horizon to a comparison at the genomic level as by now 21 complete nrdD and nrdG sequences are known. Fig. 9 shows a tree for NrdD proteins, and a similar tree can be constructed for NrdG. It appears that class III enzymes are widely spread among anaerobic and facultative anaerobic organisms. With one exception (Methanococcus jannaschii), all bacteria contain in addition to a class III enzyme also one class I or class II reductase, in some cases even both. In the tree the enzymes fall in five separate groups: two of them are Gram-positive bacteria, two others are Gram-negative bacteria, and the fifth contains archaeabacteria. Surprisingly, one Gram-positive and one Gram-negative group each are closer to the archaeabacteria than to the corresponding eubacterial group.

The existence of three separate classes of ribonucleotide reductases differing greatly in their primary sequences originally raised questions concerning their origin during evolution. We have earlier argued for a common ancestor giving rise to the different classes through divergent evolution that was driven by the appearance of oxygen on the earth (2, 5). Our main argument was the highly conserved allosteric regulation of the substrate specificity of the enzymes that strongly suggested a common tertiary structure. The present results add further strength to this argument, as does the recently determined three-dimensional structure of the NrdD protein of the phage T4 class III reductase (17). As to the nature of the common ancestor, we believe it to have been most closely related to present day class III enzymes. For this speaks the anaerobic nature of the enzyme and the involvement of an iron-sulfur cluster and S-adenosylmethionine in the radical generating mechanism, as well as the close relation to pyruvate formate lyase (16, 17), an enzyme involved in anaerobic energy metabolism early during evolution.

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