Purification and Characterization of the Myxococcus xanthus FrzE Protein Shows that It Has Autophosphorylation Activity

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Myxococcus xanthus exhibits multicellular interactions during vegetative growth and fruiting body formation. Gliding motility is needed for these interactions. The frizzy (frz) genes are required to control directed motility. FrzE is homologous to both CheA and CheY from Salmonella typhimurium. We used polyclonal antiserum raised against a fusion protein to detect FrzE in M. xanthus extracts by Western immunoblot analysis. FrzE was clearly present during vegetative growth and at much lower levels during development. A recombinant FrzE protein was overproduced in Escherichia coli, purified from inclusion bodies, and renatured. FrzE was autophosphorylated when it was incubated in the presence of $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$ and MnCl₂. Chemical analyses of the phosphorylated FrzE protein indicated that it contained an acylphosphate; probably phosphoaspartate. FrzE was phosphorylated in an intramolecular reaction. Based on these observations, we propose a model of the mechanism of FrzE phosphorylation in which autophosphorylation initially occurs at a conserved histidine residue within the "CheA" domain and then, via an intramolecular transphosphorylation, is transferred to a conserved aspartate residue within the "CheY" domain.

Myxococcus xanthus is a gram-negative soil bacterium that moves by gliding motility (30). The mechanism of gliding motility is not known. Cells move very slowly, about 2 to 4 μ m/min, and prefer to glide in preexisting slime trails but can also move in their absence. M. xanthus cells are extremely flexible (individual cells can bend to make a right or even a U turn) and are frequently reoriented as they encounter irregularities in the substratum. To control their direction of movement, in spite of such reorientations, individual cells adjust the frequency with which they reverse direction.

M. xanthus has a primitive multicellular life cycle (30, 43). When nutrients are abundant, large numbers of rod-shaped vegetative cells cooperatively feed by secreting antibiotics and hydrolytic enzymes that attack nearby microorganisms or macromolecules. Nutrient depletion triggers the developmental phase of the life cycle, which begins with cellular aggregation and culminates in the formation of spore-filled fruiting bodies. During fruiting body morphogenesis, cell motility is temporally coordinated and spatially directed as about 100,000 cells glide toward aggregation centers, where the cells accumulate in mounds. Within mounds, rod-shaped developmental cells differentiate into spherical, environmentally resistant myxospores. About 10 to 20% of the starved cells follow a different developmental fate. These cells, called peripheral rods, remain as rod-shaped cells around and between fruiting bodies (K. A. O'Connor and D. R. Zusman, unpublished data).

The frizzy (frz) mutants show aberrant patterns of cellular aggregation during fruiting body morphogenesis (42; D. R. Zusman, M. J. McBride, W. R. McCleary, and K. A. O'Connor, Symp. Soc. Gen. Microbiol., in press). Upon starvation, frz cells aggregate into filaments that at high cell density appear tangled or frizzy and at low cell density appear as donut-shaped swirls. The Frz aggregation phenotype results from an inability to control the frequency with

which cells reverse their gliding direction (2). Among the six frz genes that have been identified, mutations in frzA, $-B$, $-C$, $-E$, and $-F$ result in a dramatically reduced frequency at which cells reverse direction. Mutations in the C terminus of the $frzCD$ gene (formally called $frzD$ [2]) and, to a lesser extent, mutations in $frzG(22)$ cause cells to reverse direction more frequently than wild-type cells.

We recently determined the nucleotide sequence of the entire frz region (21-23). DNA sequence analysis revealed that most of the frz gene products are homologous to proteins involved in enteric chemotaxis (for several excellent reviews of enteric chemotaxis, see references 16, 20, and 34). FrzA is homologous to CheW, FrzCD is homologous to the methyl-accepting chemotaxis proteins, FrzE is homologous to both CheA and CheY, FrzG is homologous to CheB, and FrzF is homologous to CheR. The enteric chemotaxis proteins constitute a signal transduction pathway that transmits information concerning the environment of the bacteria to their flagella, thereby controlling swimming behavior (36). In the absence of a gradient to a chemoeffector, enteric bacteria swim randomly by alternating between periods of smooth swimming and episodes of tumbling. Smooth swimming occurs when flagella rotate counterclockwise; tumbles result from clockwise flagellar rotation. Chemotaxis is achieved by adjusting the time interval between counterclockwise and clockwise flagellar rotation.

FrzE is particularly interesting because it is homologous to two chemotaxis proteins. CheA and CheY are members of the conserved two-component regulatory systems (29, 35, 36). CheA is a histidine kinase that autophosphorylates and then transfers its phosphate group to an aspartate residue of CheY (11-13, 25, 36, 41). It is currently thought that phospho-CheY interacts with the flagellar switch, causing the flagella to reverse their rotation from counterclockwise to clockwise (25, 26, 28). Phosphorylation reactions similar to those observed for CheA and CheY have also been demonstrated for other two-component regulatory pairs: NtrC is phosphorylated by NtrB (15), and EnvZ is phosphorylated by OmpR (9). Recently, it was shown that VirA from

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Agrobacterium tumefaciens is capable of autophosphorylation on a histidine residue (14).

We have previously proposed that the Frz proteins constitute a signal transduction pathway that controls the frequency with which M . xanthus cells reverse their gliding direction (22). Based on protein homology, we predicted that FrzE is autophosphorylated on a histidine residue and, through an intramolecular phosphotransfer reaction, shuttles a phosphate to an aspartate residue on its CheY domain (23). Phosphorylated FrzE would then be proposed to interact with the gliding apparatus to generate a reversal. In this study, we found additional support for this hypothesis by purifying the FrzE protein and demonstrating that it is autophosphorylated in the presence of ATP. FrzE is present vegetatively and at times during development when control of directional motility is required.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Materials. Restriction enzymes were purchased from New England BioLabs, Inc. (Beverly, Mass.). The Klenow fragment of DNA polymerase ^I and T4 ligase were purchased from Boehringer Mannheim Biochemicals (Indianapolis, Ind.). $[\gamma^{-32}P]\text{ATP}$ (>5,000 Ci/mmol) was obtained from Amersham Corp. (Arlington Heights, Ill.). Sartorius nitrocellulose was purchased from E & K Scientific Products, Inc. (Saratoga, Calif.), and Immobilon-P membranes were purchased from Millipore Corp. (Bedford, Mass.). Medium components were obtained from Difco (Detroit, Mich.).

Bacterial strains and growth media. M. xanthus DZF1(FB) (8) was used in this study. Escherichia coli N4830-1 (Pharmacia) was used for overproduction of the protein A-FrzE fusion construct. This strain encodes the temperature-sensitive cI857 lambda repressor for use in thermoinduction from the lambda p_R promoter. E. coli BL21(DE3) containing the plasmid pLysS (kindly provided by F. W. Studier) was used for overproduction of the recombinant FrzE product from the T7 promoter. BL21(DE3) contains ^a single chromosomal copy of the T7 RNA polymerase gene under control of the lacUV5 promoter. The plasmid pLysS is a pACYC184 derivative that encodes the T7 RNA polymerase inhibitor T7 lysozyme.

M. xanthus was grown in CYE broth (7) or on clone fruiting plates (CF) containing 1.5% agar as previously described (22). E. coli strains were grown in LB (24) supplemented with ampicillin $(100 \mu g/ml)$ when needed.

Plasmid constructions. pBM16 (Fig. 1B) is ^a derivative of the protein A fusion vector pRIT2T (Pharmacia LKB Biotechnology, Piscataway, N.J.). It encodes a protein A-FrzE fusion protein under control of the lambda p_R promoter. pBM16 was constructed by ligating a 5.4-kbp $PvuII$ fragment from pBB20 (1) that contained frzE into the SmaI site of the multiple cloning region of pUC118 (38). A 5.0-kbp EcoRI-PstI fragment was excised from this plasmid and ligated into pRIT2T that had previously been digested with EcoRI and PstI. The resulting construct, pBM16, contained most of the $frzE$ gene inserted in frame into the protein A coding region.

 $pBM33$ (Fig. 1C) contains the entire frzE gene fused to 9 codons from the multiple cloning region of pJES307, which is positioned downstream of the phage $T7 \phi - 10$ promoter and ribosome-binding site. pJES307 (A kind gift from the S. Kustu laboratory) contains the early T7 terminator inserted at the BstBI site of pT7-7 (10, 37). pBM33 was constructed by filling in the ends of a 3.7-kbp NcoI fragment containing the frzE gene from pBB12 (3) with the Klenow fragment.

This fragment was inserted into pJES307 that had been digested with BamHI and filled in with the Klenow fragment.

Antisera. Antiserum against a protein A-FrzE fusion protein was raised in rabbits. Expression of the fusion protein was induced by bringing the N4830-1(pBM16) culture to 42° C for 1.5 h. Cells were harvested by centrifugation and disrupted by sonic oscillation. The overexpressed insoluble protein was enriched by centrifugation at $10,000 \times g$. Fusion protein (2 mg) was electroeluted with an Elutrap (Schleicher & Schuell, Inc., Keene, N.H.) from ^a preparative sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS)-polyacrylamide gel. A rabbit was injected subcutaneously at multiple sites with $100 \mu g$ of fusion protein in Freund complete adjuvant, followed by two 100-ug boosts in incomplete adjuvant.

Western immunoblot analysis. M. xanthus DZF1 cells were grown in CYE to 3×10^8 to 4×10^8 cells per ml and then harvested by centrifugation at 12,000 \times g for 10 min at 4°C. The cell pellets were suspended in ¹⁰ mM HEPES (N-2 hydroxyethylpiperazine-N'-2-ethanesulfonic acid) (pH 7.2)- 8 mM MgSO₄ to a density of 1.3×10^{10} cells per ml. A 0.5-ml vegetative sample of these cells was spun for ¹ min in a microfuge, the supernatant was removed, and the cells were rapidly frozen at -70° C. Development was initiated by plating 0.5 ml of the concentrated cells onto 150-mm-diameter CF agar plates. Cells from two plates were scraped with a razor blade, transferred to an Eppendorf tube, spun for 3 ^s in a microfuge, and frozen at -70° C until needed. Sonication buffer (600 μ l; 10 mM HEPES [pH 7.2], 10 mM EDTA, 0.7 μ g of pepstatin per ml, 0.5 μ g of leupeptin per ml, 1 mM O-phenanthroline, ¹ mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride) was added to the frozen cell pellets, and the cells were immediately disrupted by sonication for 3 min on ice. Then 400μ l of extract was added to 100 μ l of 5 x protein loading buffer (0.4) M Tris hydrochloride [pH 6.8], 1% [wt/vol] SDS, 50% [vol/vol] glycerol], and each sample was boiled for 3 to 5 min. Protein assays were promptly performed by the BCA (bicinchonic acid) method (Pierce Chemical Co., Rockford, Ill.) on samples from the remaining 200 μ l of extract. Samples (30 to 40 μ g of protein) were loaded onto 15% SDS-polyacrylamide gels and separated at ³⁰ mA (constant current). Proteins were transferred onto nitrocellulose membranes with a semidry electroblotter (Integrated Separation Systems, Hyde Park, Mass.) for 2 h at ca. 1.2 to 1.5 mA/cm2 as indicated by the manufacturer. FrzE was detected as described previously (22) with 125 I-labeled protein A (Amersham).

FrzE overproduction and purification. A recombinant FrzE protein was expressed by inducing exponentially growing BL21(DE3) cells harboring both pLysS and pBM33 with 0.6 mM isopropyl- β -D-thiogalactopyranoside. Cells were harvested after 3 h by centrifugation and then disrupted by sonication. The cell extracts were centrifuged at $8,000 \times g$ for ¹⁰ min. Pellets were washed three times in ¹⁰ mM HEPES (pH 7.2)-5 mM EDTA-0.1% (vol/vol) Triton X-100. The protein pellet was dissolved in 50 mM NaPO₄ (pH 6.8)–6 M guanidine hydrochloride. The denatured protein (20 ml at $100 \mu g/ml$) was slowly renatured by dialyzing against 500 ml of 50 mM NaPO₄ (pH 6.8)-10 mM MgCl₂-1 mM dithiothreitol-50% (vol/vol) glycerol. The dialysis buffer was changed four times. Protein was stored in working samples at -20° C.

Phosphorylation assays. Protein samples $(0.2 \mu g)$ were added to ^a reaction buffer (50 mM HEPES [pH 7.2], ¹⁰ mM $MnCl₂$, 10 mM $MgCl₂$, 0.1 mM dithiothreitol, 10 μ M $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP $[2.2 \times 10^8$ to 4.4 $\times 10^8$ cpm/nmol]) for 5 to 10 min at 22°C or as otherwise specified below. Reactions were stopped by the addition of 0.33 volume of $4 \times$ stop buffer

FIG. 1. (A) Physical map of the frzEGF region of the M. xanthus chromosome. (B) Structure of the plasmid pBM16. This plasmid encodes a protein A-FrzE fusion protein whose expression is under control of the lambda p_R promoter. (C) Structure of the FrzE expression vector pBM33. This plasmid encodes a recombinant FrzE protein containing nine amino acid residues encoded by the multiple cloning site of pJES307 and the entire predicted *frzE* gene product. This protein-coding region is downstream of the bacteriophage T7 gene 10
ribosome-binding site and is under control of the strong ϕ -10 T7 RNA polymerase promoter.

 $(0.32 \text{ M}$ Tris hydrochloride [pH 6.8], 0.1 M EDTA, 8% [wt/vol] SDS, 40% [vol/vol] glycerol). Reaction mixtures were separated by electrophoresis on 10% SDS-polyacrylamide gels. Proteins were blotted onto Immobilon-P membranes with a semidry blotting apparatus. After blotting, the filters were washed for 5 min in 50 mM NaPO₄ (pH 6.8)–6 M guanidine hydrochloride to remove nonspecifically bound label and stained briefly (1 min) with Ponceau S (31). Filters were briefly rinsed in 50 mM NaPO₄ (pH 6.8), air dried, and subjected to autoradiography for 18 h with two intensifying screens on preflashed film. For quantitation of phosphorylation, the bands from the Immobilon-P filters were excised with a razor blade and placed in scintillation vials containing Ecolume (ICN Radiochemicals, Irvine, Calif.) and counted in a Beckman LS 60001C scintillation counter (Beckman Instruments, Fullerton, Calif.).

RESULTS

Identification of FrzE and expression during development. The product of the $frzE$ gene is necessary for proper cellular aggregation during fruiting body morphogenesis. From DNA sequence analysis (23), we predicted that $frzE$ encodes a large protein that contains two functional domains that are homologous to the enteric CheA and CheY proteins. At the boundary between the "CheA" and "CheY" domains there is an ATG codon preceded by ^a possible ribosome binding site (nucleotides ¹⁹⁸⁶ to ²⁰⁰¹ [23]). We were intrigued by the possibility of a potential alternate or secondary translational start site for this gene just upstream of the "CheY" domain. Initiation of protein synthesis from this site would produce a 14.5-kDa polypeptide.

To identify FrzE in *M. xanthus* by Western blot analysis

FIG. 2. Western immunoblot demonstrating the presence of FrzE and its expression during development. Cells were harvested at the following times after the initiation of development: 0, 0.5, 1.0, 1.5, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, 10, 12, 15, and 18 h. Cell extracts were prepared in the presence of five protease inhibitors. Proteins were separated on a 15% SDS-polyacrylamide gel and transferred onto a nitrocellulose membrane. FrzE was detected by using polyclonal antiserum to a protein A-FrzE fusion protein and 125I-labeled protein A. Molecular mass standards (kilodaltons) are labeled.

and to determine whether it was present in multiple forms, we raised polyclonal antisera to a Staphylococcus aureus protein A-FrzE fusion protein (see Fig. 1B for a diagram of the plasmid used to prepare the protein A-FrzE fusion protein). Early attempts to examine FrzE by Western blot analysis sometimes showed several hybridizing bands. However, our results became very reproducible as we took extraordinary precautions to reduce proteolysis. The antisera recognized a major band with an apparent molecular mass of 93 kDa (Fig. 2, lane 1). This band was missing in strains containing a TnS insertion within frzE (data not shown). The apparent molecular mass of this protein was larger than the 83.1-kDa product predicted from DNA sequence analysis but is in close agreement to the size previously determined from SDS-polyacrylamide gels of E. coli maxicells expressing frzE. We were only able to detect the full-length protein product; no smaller proteins corresponding to secondary translational products were observed.

A developmental time course of FrzE expression is shown in Fig. 2. In this experiment, cells were plated onto CF agar and harvested at different times during development. Equal amounts of protein were separated by polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis, transferred onto nitrocellulose membranes, and probed with FrzE antiserum. FrzE is most abundant in vegetative cells; its level decreases at early times in development and subsequently increases. A peak level of expression is observed at 3 to 5 h after the initiation of development. After this period of increased production, FrzE appears to be present in very low amounts. The pattern of FrzE accumulation in cells was very different from that predicted by previous experiments with a reporter gene (see Discussion).

Overexpression and purification of FrzE. The Western blot data presented above indicated that FrzE was present at very low levels and was also extremely labile. This suggested that its purification from M . xanthus would not be easy. Previous work in our laboratory (3) demonstrated that the frz proteins were also produced at very low levels in E. coli when expressed from the strong trp promoter. We therefore constructed an expression vector that encoded a recombinant FrzE protein. Its protein-coding region was

FIG. 3. Coomassie blue-stained SDS polyacrylamide gel showing expression and purification of FrzE. Lanes: 1, uninduced cell extract from strain harboring pBM33; 2, isopropyl- β -D-thiogalactopyranoside-induced cell extracts from strain harboring pBM33; 3, low-speed pellet from isopropyl-β-D-thiogalactopyranoside-induced cells.

positioned downstream of the translational start site for the highly expressed T7 gene 10 protein and was under control of the strong ϕ -10 T7 RNA polymerase promoter. Figure 3 shows a Coomassie blue-stained SDS-polyacrylamide gel of extracts prepared from this strain. After induction, FrzE was the most abundant cellular protein (lane 2). This protein was highly expressed and was found in an insoluble fraction (inclusion bodies). The protein could be greatly enriched by simply collecting and then washing the low-speed pellet of sonicated cell extracts in ^a buffer containing 0.1% Triton X-100. The protein pellet (which was almost pure FrzE) was solubilize^d in ⁶ M guanidine hydrochloride and slowly renatured by dialysis at a low protein concentration.

Autophosphorylation activity of purified FrzE. To determine whether this renatured, recombinant form of FrzE was capable of autophosphorylation, we incubated it in the presence of $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$. Reaction mixtures were separated on 10% SDS-polyacrylamide gels and transferred onto Immobilon-P membranes. This procedure separated FrzE from other radioactive components. Figure 4 shows a typical phosphorylation blot, FrzE was not phosphorylated when only Mg^{2+} and $[\gamma^{-32}P]ATP$ were present. However, autokinase activity was detected when Mn^{2+} was included in the reaction buffer (lanes 2, 3, and 4). No phosphorylation was observed when Ca^{2+} , Zn^{2+} , Cu^{2+} , or Fe^{2+} was added in the absence of Mn^{2+} (data not shown). There was a slight increase in activity when both manganese and magnesium were present in the reaction buffers (compare lanes 2 and 3).

FIG. 4. Autophosphorylation of FrzE. Purified FrzE was incubated in 50 mM HEPES (pH 7.2) with $[\gamma^{-32}P]ATP$ (2.2 × 10⁸) cpm/nmol) at 22° C for 10 min with the following additions (lanes): 1, 10 mM MgCl_2 ; 2, 10 mM MnCl₂; 3 and 4, 10 mM MgCl₂ plus 10 mM $MnCl₂$; 5, same conditions as lanes 3 and 4 except that FrzE was boiled in 1% SDS for 3 min before incubation with $[\gamma^{-32}P]ATP$. Reaction products were separated on 10% SDS-polyacrylamide gels, electroblotted onto Immobilon-P membranes, and exposed to preflashed X-ray film with two intensifying screens.

FIG. 5. Effect of Mn²⁺ concentration on FrzE autophosphorylation. Standard reactions were performed with the indicated amounts of MnCl₂. Reactants were separated by SDS-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis, blotted, and visualized by autoradiography. Bands from the filter were excised and counted. A value of 100% was given to the activity measured with 20 mM $MnCl₂$.

Phosphorylation was dependent on the renatured FrzE structure. When FrzE was boiled in 1% SDS before incubation with $[\gamma^{-32}P]ATP$, no phosphorylation above the background was observed (lane 5). We also detected phosphorylation of a truncated form of FrzE missing its 50 C-terminal amino acid residues (data not shown). We were unable to detect phosphorylation of FrzE in crude extracts of M. xanthus because of the extremely high background, presumably from other more abundant or more active kinases. The background level of phosphorylation observed in reactions with heat-inactivated FrzE (lane 5) or in reactions without manganese (lane 1) was very similar to that observed when bovine serum albumin was incubated in the presence of manganese and $[\gamma^{-32}P]ATP$ (data not shown) and must therefore be considered nonspecific.

To investigate the stimulatory effects of manganese on FrzE phosphorylation, we incubated FrzE in the presence of $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP with various concentrations of manganese. Maximum activity was observed when 20 mM $MnCl₂$ was present in the reaction buffer (Fig. 5). The phosphorylation activity increased dramatically between 0 and 20 mM MnCl₂ and declined between 20 and 320 mM $MnCl₂$. The nonphysiological level of manganese dependence suggests that it is substituting for other factors present in vivo which normally regulate its activity (see Discussion).

Chemical stability of phosphorylated FrzE. The chemical stability of the phosphate bond in phosphorylated FrzE was assayed to determine the class of amino acid residue that was phosphorylated (6). For example, phosphoserine, phosphothreonine, and phosphotyrosine are stable in acid. Phosphohistidine and phospholysine are not stable in acid but are stable in base. Phosphoaspartate and phosphoglutamate are not stable in acid, base, or hydroxylamine.

Equal amounts of FrzE were phosphorylated with $[\gamma^{32}P]$ ATP and blotted onto Immobilon-P membranes as described in Materials and Methods. Individual bands were excised from the membranes, placed in test tubes, containing 10 ml of the solutions indicated below, and incubated at 42°C for 2 h. Each band was rinsed in 50 mM NaPO₄ (pH 6.9), briefly air dried, and counted. The percentages of radioactivity remaining in the FrzE bands after 2 h of incubation as compared with a control that was not subjected to any treatment were as follows: with 50 mM NaPO₄ (pH 6.9), 39.1%; with 0.8 M hydroxylamine (pH 6.9), 11.9%; with 2N NaOH, 6.7% ; with 1 M HCl, 9.2%. These data show that the

FIG. 6. Initial rate of FrzE autophosphorylation as a function of ATP concentration. FrzE $(0.2 \mu g)$ was incubated with the indicated amounts of $[\gamma^{-32}P]ATP$ at 22°C as described in Materials and Methods. Kinase activities were calculated from the amount of 32P incorporated into FrzE in a 5-mim reaction. These results indicate that FrzE autokinase shows half-maximal velocity with ATP concentrations between 25 and 35 μ M.

phosphate group was labile under neutral conditions with an approximate half-life of 1.5 h. However, it was even more labile under both acidic and alkaline conditions as well as in 0.8 M hydroxylamine at pH 6.8. These characteristics are consistent with the phosphorylated amino acid residue being an acyl phosphate, such as phosphoaspartate or phosphoglutamate.

Kinetics of FrzE phosphorylation. We investigated the initial FrzE phosphorylation rates at various ATP concentrations. Reactions were performed at 22°C, stopped after 5 min by the addition of $4 \times$ stop buffer, and placed at -70° C until being loaded on SDS-polyacrylamide gels. Preliminary experiments (data not shown) indicated that reaction rates were linear for at least ⁸ min. A plot of initial reaction rates versus ATP concentration is presented in Fig. 6. Under these reaction conditions, we estimate that FrzE has a half-maximum velocity with ATP at concentrations between 25 and 35 μ M.

The initial phosphorylation rates of an intramolecular reaction should remain constant when the enzyme is diluted under constant substrate concentrations as long as the substrate is in vast molar excess over enzyme concentration; in contrast, intermolecular reactions are very sensitive to dilution. To test whether FrzE phosphorlyation was an intramolecular reaction, we incubated 2 pmol of FrzE for ⁵ min in 20-, 50-, and 120- μ l reactions containing 10 μ M ATP. Reactions were again stopped and placed at -70° C until SDS-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis. FrzE was phosphorylated to approximately equivalent levels in each lane of Fig. 7, indicating that each of the initial reaction rates was similar. Two trials of this experiment showed exactly the same pattern of phosphorylation. The initial rates for the 50 and 120- μ I reactions were equivalent and were about 30% higher than the rates for the $20-\mu l$ reactions. In no case was the initial reaction rate reduced because of enzyme dilution. The lower initial phosphorylation rates observed in the $20-\mu$ reactions might be due to higher levels of glycerol.

DISCUSSION

Model of FrzE autophosphorylation. The most interesting result reported in this paper is that the frzE gene encodes a

FIG. 7. Effects of FrzE dilution on initial autophosphorylation rates. Equal amounts of FrzE $(0.2 \mu g)$ were incubated under standard conditions (see Materials and Methods) for 5 min at 22°C in the following reaction volumes (lanes): 1, 20 μ l; 2, 50 μ l; 3, 120 μ l. Reactants were separated on a 3-mm-thick 10% SDS-polyacrylamide gel, blotted, and exposed to preflashed X-ray film for 24 h at -70° C with one intensifying screen.

protein that is autophosphorylated. In this respect FrzE is similar to the enteric CheA protein (13). However, unlike CheA, FrzE appears to have a phosphate on an aspartate residue, rather than on a histidine. In this respect it is like CheY (32). The simplest explanation is that FrzE is a hybrid molecule that autophosphorylates at a histidine and then transfers the phosphate, in an intramolecular reaction, to an aspartate residue. Figure 8 presents our current working model of FrzE phosphorylation. We hypothesize that FrzE autophosphorylates on the conserved histidine residue of its "CheA" domain and, through an intramolecular reaction facilitated by an alanine- and proline-rich hinge (23), transfers this phosphate group to the conserved aspartate residue of its "CheY" effector domain.

The following lines of evidence support this model. (i) The predicted FrzE amino acid sequence shows significant homology to both CheA and CheY (23). There are no stop codons between the two functional domains of FrzE. The conserved protein sequence motifs between FrzE and CheA and CheY suggest conserved protein functions. It has been shown that CheA is a histidine kinase that autophosphorylates on a histidine residue (His-48) (11, 13, 36) that is

FIG. 8. Model of FrzE autophosphorylation. FrzE has two domains that are homologous to CheA (shaded regions): a histidine phosphorylation site and a sensor-modulator domain. It also contains one domain that is homologous to CheY (striped region). The center circle consists of an alanine- and proline-rich segment that is hypothesized to act as a flexible hinge. In this model FrzE is autophosphorylated on the conserved histidine residue of its 'CheA' domain. Through a rapid, intramolecular, reaction (facilitated by the alanine- and proline-rich hinge) the phosphate group is transferred from the 'CheA' domain to the conserved aspartate residue of the 'CheY' domain. Presumably, as a result of phosphorylation, FrzE becomes activated and generates a cell reversal.

conserved between CheA and FrzE. It has also been demonstrated that CheA transfers a phosphate group to the Asp-57 residue of CheY (12, 32, 41). This aspartate residue not only is conserved between CheY and FrzE but also is invariant throughout the entire effector class of the twocomponent regulatory proteins (36). In addition, the predicted FrzE amino acid sequence contains an unusual 68 amino-acid segment that is 72% alanine plus proline. This region is similar in amino acid composition to several flexible segments found in E. coli pyruvate dehydrogenase (27) and would be expected to confer a high degree of flexibility to the FrzE protein. (ii) The Western immunoblot data presented in this paper showed that $frzE$ encodes a single protein that corresponds in size to the predicted frzE gene product. In fact, the size estimated from SDS-polyacrylamide gels (93 kDa) is somewhat larger than that predicted from the DNA sequence (83.1 kDa). This discrepancy in size might, in part, be accounted for by the predicted alanine- and proline-rich region, which may cause FrzE to migrate slower than other globular proteins of that size in SDS-polyacrylamide gels. (iii) The chemical stability of phosphorylated FrzE suggests that it, like CheY, contains an acyl phosphate. CheA contains a phosphohistidine that is very stable under alkaline conditions (6). Phosphorylated FrzE was unstable in alkali. We cannot distinguish between phosphoaspartate and phosphoglutamate. However, in light of the chemical characteristics of phospho-FrzE and the sequence homology between FrzE and CheA and CheY, we feel that it is most likely that the phosphorylated residue is an aspartate. (iv) The kinetics of FrzE phosphorylation at the aspartate residue indicates that the rate limiting aspect of this reaction is intramolecular. The autophosphorylation of CheA has been shown to be followed by a second transphosphorylation reaction between CheA and CheY or between CheA and CheB (12, 36, 41). Since FrzE contains the conserved histidine phosphorylation site of CheA and the conserved aspartate phosphorylation site of CheY and CheB, we wanted to investigate whether the presumed transphosphorylation between the histidine and aspartate residues within FrzE represents an intramolecular reaction. If FrzE is autophosphorylated by an intermolecular reaction, then one would expect to see a dramatic decrease in initial reaction rates as FrzE was diluted. This was not observed and indicates an intramolecular transfer. The reaction conditions for this experiment were chosen so that substrate levels were in vast molar excess over enzyme concentrations. Under these conditions we feel that it is likely that an intermolecular reaction would be rate limiting. A rapid intramolecular transfer might preclude phosphorylation of other proteins by FrzE. CheA activates the methylesterase activity of CheB by phosphorylation (19). The regulatory domain of CheB shares the same sequence motif that is found in CheY and is presumably phosphorylated by a similar mechanism. It is interesting that among the sequence differences between FrzG (the predicted methylesterase) and CheB there is a substitution of an aspartate residue at position 10 of CheB with a lysine in FrzG. When the analogous position in CheY is changed from an aspartate to a lysine, a dominant, constitutively active form of CheY is produced (5). We predict that FrzE does not phosphorylate FrzG but that FrzG is normally present in an active form. Further experiments are necessary to address this question.

FrzE autokinase activity requires manganese in vitro. Significant stimulation of FrzE autokinase activity was observed in reactions containing very high manganese levels, between 5 and 20 mM Mn^{2+} . It seems very unlikely that the high Mn^{2+} levels required to stimulate phosphorylation are physiologically relevant. Recent experiments with the human insulin receptor, which contains a Mn^{2+} -stimulated tyrosine kinase domain, might provide some insights into the mechanism by which FrzE autokinase is activated by Mn²⁺. Wente et al. (40) showed by electron paramagnetic resonance spectroscopy that the cytoplasmic domain of the human insulin receptor does not bind Mn^{2+} tightly. However, they showed by circular dichroism that the presence of Mn^{2+} causes a conformational change in the protein. They speculated that Mn^{2+} might mimic the action of a physiological activator (40). In a similar manner, Mn^{2+} might stimulate FrzE autokinase activity by inducing a conformational change that mimics a physiological activator. By analogy to the chemotaxis signal transduction pathway, in which CheA is stimulated by both CheW and the methyl-accepting chemotaxis proteins (4, 18, 33), FrzE might also be stimulated by FrzA and/or FrzCD. It should be noted that genetic data indicate that FrzE and FrzCD interact (2).

Developmental expression of FrzE. Myxobacteria show directional movement vegetatively as they "hunt" for food and developmentally when they aggregate to form fruiting bodies. If the frz genes control directional movement in M. xanthus, then one would predict their presence vegetatively and during development. Studies with the transcriptional reporter Tn5-lac showed that the frz genes are developmentally regulated (39). Low levels of expression were detected vegetatively, followed by a period of high expression that corresponded to times in which mounds were being formed. We have shown in this study that FrzE is present at high relative levels vegetatively and that its amount rapidly decreases in the early stages of development. We detected peak levels of FrzE after ³ h of development. Significant levels of FrzE were not observed after 15 h of development. How can we rationalize the difference between these two experimental approaches, Western blot analysis versus reporter gene expression? Development is a starvation response in M. xanthus. Starvation in bacteria is often coupled with high levels of protein turnover. We predict that although transcription of $frzE$ might be low vegetatively, its protein product is relatively stable. To compensate for high protein turnover during the early stages of development, there is an increase in transcription. In support of this proposal, long exposures of the autoradiograms from the FrzE time course Western blot (Fig. 2) showed the presence of many smaller cross-reacting bands (presumably protein degradation intermediates) during development (data not shown). These bands were not present in vegetative samples.

There is a significant difference between the kinetics of transcription as previously determined with the transcriptional reporter TnS-lac (39) and the kinetics of protein accumulation as observed in Western blots. We do not know whether this difference is due to changes in protease levels during development or to other factors. Although the halflife of β -galactosidase decreases during development (39), it is still very stable (ca. 2.5 h). If FrzE has a much shorter half-life during development than does β -galactosidase, results from the reporter might indicate higher levels of FrzE than are actually present. In addition, the timing of expression of $frzE$ might be different in the Tn5-lac mutants and the wild-type cells.

There are many similarities in the protein components and associated biochemical reactions (phosphorylation and methylation) (17) between the enteric chemotaxis and frz sensory transduction systems. However, many specific questions remain about the frizzy system. For example, we do not yet know to what signals the frizzy system is responding during feeding and/or aggregation, nor have we identified the presumed target (gliding motor) of phosphorylated FrzE. We hope that continued study of the frz genes and their products will provide insights into these unanswered questions.

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