

# Yellow fluorescent protein phiYFPv (*Phialidium*): structure and structure-based mutagenesis

Nadya V. Pletneva,<sup>a</sup> Vladimir Z. Pletnev,<sup>a\*</sup> Ekaterina Souslova,<sup>a</sup> Dmitry M. Chudakov,<sup>a</sup> Sergey Lukyanov,<sup>a,b</sup> Vladimir I. Martynov,<sup>a</sup> Svetlana Arhipova,<sup>a</sup> Igor Artemyev,<sup>a</sup> Alexander Wlodawer,<sup>c</sup> Zbigniew Dauter<sup>d</sup> and Sergei Pletnev<sup>d,e</sup>

<sup>a</sup>Shemyakin–Ovchinnikov Institute of Bioorganic Chemistry, Russian Academy of Sciences, Moscow, Russian Federation,

<sup>b</sup>Nizhny Novgorod State Medical Academy, Nizhny Novgorod, Russian Federation,

<sup>c</sup>Protein Structure Section, Macromolecular Crystallography Laboratory, National Cancer Institute, Frederick, MD 21702, USA,

<sup>d</sup>Synchrotron Radiation Research Section, Macromolecular Crystallography Laboratory, National Cancer Institute, Argonne, IL 60439, USA, and

<sup>e</sup>Basic Research Program, SAIC-Frederick, 9700 South Cass Avenue, Argonne, IL 60439, USA

Correspondence e-mail: vzpletnev@gmail.com

The yellow fluorescent protein phiYFPv ( $\lambda_{\text{em}}^{\text{max}} \approx 537$  nm) with improved folding has been developed from the spectrally identical wild-type phiYFP found in the marine jellyfish *Phialidium*. The latter fluorescent protein is one of only two known cases of naturally occurring proteins that exhibit emission spectra in the yellow–orange range (535–555 nm). Here, the crystal structure of phiYFPv has been determined at 2.05 Å resolution. The ‘yellow’ chromophore formed from the sequence triad Thr65–Tyr66–Gly67 adopts the bicyclic structure typical of fluorophores emitting in the green spectral range. It was demonstrated that perfect antiparallel  $\pi$ -stacking of chromophore Tyr66 and the proximal Tyr203, as well as Val205, facing the chromophore phenolic ring are chiefly responsible for the observed yellow emission of phiYFPv at 537 nm. Structure-based site-directed mutagenesis has been used to identify the key functional residues in the chromophore environment. The obtained results have been utilized to improve the properties of phiYFPv and its homologous monomeric biomarker tagYFP.

Received 5 October 2012

Accepted 9 February 2013

PDB Reference: phiYFPv,  
4he4

## 1. Introduction

In the last decade, green fluorescent proteins (GFPs) and GFP-like proteins (FPs) have become important noninvasive tools for visualization and monitoring of internal biological processes in cell biology, biotechnology and biomedicine (Chudakov *et al.*, 2010; Lam *et al.*, 2012; Passamaneck *et al.*, 2006; Remington, 2006; Shcherbo *et al.*, 2007; Stepanenko *et al.*, 2011; Stewart, 2006; Wacker *et al.*, 2007; Wang *et al.*, 2008; Wiedenmann *et al.*, 2009; Wu *et al.*, 2011; Zubova & Savitsky, 2005). The extensive spectral diversity of GFP-like proteins enabled multicolour labelling and the development of specific biosensors based on fluorescent donor–acceptor FRET (Förster resonance energy transfer) pairs (Carlson & Campbell, 2009; Chudakov *et al.*, 2010; Davidson & Campbell, 2009; Miyawaki, 2011; Piston & Kremers, 2007; Shaner *et al.*, 2007). Several efficient blue–green and cyan–yellow FRET pairs (Chudakov *et al.*, 2010; Shaner *et al.*, 2007) are currently available, whereas efficient yellow/orange–red/far-red FRET pairs, with a greater emission transparency in living tissues, are still in great demand.

The optical emission window of the known FPs covers a spectral range of 425–670 nm (Chudakov *et al.*, 2010; Shcherbo *et al.*, 2010). Each colour range is populated by a relatively large number of FPs, with the exception of the yellow–orange range (535–555 nm), which is of significant importance for the design of yellow–red FRET pairs. At present, this spectral range is represented by only two wild-type yellow fluorescent proteins: zYFP538 from the marine button polyp *Zoanthus* sp.

**Table 1**

Data-collection and refinement statistics for phiYFPv (PDB entry 4he4).

Values in parentheses are for the highest resolution shell.

Data collection	
Space group	<i>H</i> 32
Unit-cell parameters (Å)	<i>a</i> = <i>b</i> = 102.9, <i>c</i> = 242.5
<i>Z</i> / <i>Z'</i>	36/2
Estimated solvent content (%)	46
Temperature (K)	100
Wavelength (Å)	1.00
Resolution range (Å)	28.7–2.05 (2.12–2.05)
Total reflections measured	226374
Unique reflections observed	29786
Multiplicity	7.6 (7.1)
$\langle I/\sigma(I) \rangle$	22.1 (3.3)
$R_{\text{merge}}$	0.078 (0.562)
Completeness (%)	99.7 (98.2)
Refinement statistics	
Non-H atoms in model	
Protein	3663 [2 × residues 1–234]
Water	190
$R_{\text{work}}$	0.196 [95.0% of data]
$R_{\text{free}}$	0.256 [5.0% of data]
Mean <i>B</i> factor/r.m.s.d. (Å <sup>2</sup> )	
Protein atoms	
Main chain	40.5/0.8
Side chain	42.1/2.2
Chromophore	35.2/5.9
Water	45.2
Geometry r.m.s.d.	
Bond lengths (Å)	0.026
Bond angles (°)	1.872
General planes (Å)	0.009
$C^{\alpha}$ r.m.s.d. ( <i>A</i> and <i>B</i> subunits) (Å)	0.335
Ramachandran statistics (for non-Gly/Pro residues) (%)	
Most favourable/additional allowed	89.5
Generously allowed	10.5

(with a Lys66-Tyr67-Gly68 chromophore-forming sequence; Matz *et al.*, 1999) and phiYFP from the jellyfish *Phialidium* (Thr65-Tyr66-Gly67; Shagin *et al.*, 2004). In spite of their significantly different chromophore structures, zYFP538 and phiYFP have almost identical spectral characteristics ( $\lambda_{\text{ex}}^{\text{max}} \simeq 525$  nm and  $\lambda_{\text{em}}^{\text{max}} \simeq 537$  nm).

The crystal structure of zYFP538 has previously been reported at resolutions of 2.7 Å (Remington *et al.*, 2005) and 1.8 Å (Pletneva *et al.*, 2007). Here, we present the results of a crystallographic study of the yellow fluorescent protein phiYFPv, which differs from its progenitor wild-type phiYFP by ten amino-acid residues introduced by random mutagenesis: Met1Gly, Glu88Asp, Val103Asn, Met166Cys, Glu174Gly, Ile201Met, Thr202Ser, Thr206Lys, Val221Lys and Leu234Asp. The variant phiYFPv is spectrally identical to its progenitor but exhibits faster and more complete maturation in bacteria. All replacements are outside the chromophore area and are positioned mostly on the protein surface exposed to solvent, enhancing its hydrophilicity and thus presumably leading to favourable crystallization properties. Particular attention has been paid to stereochemical features in the chromophore area. Extensive structure-based mutagenesis has been applied in order to identify the most important sites affecting the spectral characteristics, and the obtained results have been utilized to improve the properties of phiYFPv and its homologous monomeric biomarker tagYFP. We have carefully analyzed

the surface amino-acid residues of phiYFPv responsible for protein oligomerization in phiYFPv and its wild-type progenitor, as they provide important information that is required for the development of the monomeric variants that are needed for FRET-based biosensors.

## 2. Materials and methods

### 2.1. Expression, purification and crystallization

For protein expression, the fragment encoding phiYFPv with an N-terminal His tag was cloned into a pQE30 vector (Qiagen, USA) and transformed into *Escherichia coli* XL1 Blue strain (Invitrogen, USA). Bacterial cultures were grown overnight at 310 K. No IPTG induction was necessary since promoter leakage was sufficient for effective expression. The cells were pelleted by centrifugation, resuspended in phosphate-buffered saline and lysed by sonication. phiYFPv was purified by immobilized metal-affinity chromatography using TALON resin (Clontech Laboratories, USA) followed by size-exclusion chromatography using a Superdex 200 (16/60) column (GE Healthcare, USA). For crystallization, phiYFPv was transferred into a buffer consisting of 20 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 200 mM NaCl, 5 mM EDTA and concentrated to 9 mg ml<sup>-1</sup>. Crystallization trials were set up by the hanging-drop method at room temperature. phiYFPv crystals suitable for data acquisition were obtained in two weeks from 0.16 M NaH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>, 16% PEG 3350.

### 2.2. Data collection, structure solution and crystallographic refinement

X-ray diffraction data were collected from a single crystal flash-cooled in a 100 K nitrogen stream. Prior to cooling, the crystal of phiYFPv was transferred into a cryoprotectant solution consisting of 20% glycerol and 80% reservoir solution. Data were collected using a MAR 300 CCD detector on SER-CAT beamline 22-ID at the Advanced Photon Source, Argonne National Laboratory, Argonne, Illinois, USA and were processed with *HKL-2000* (Otwinowski & Minor, 1997).

The crystal structure of phiYFPv was solved using the molecular-replacement method with *MOLREP* (Vagin & Teplyakov, 2010) from the *CCP4* package (Winn *et al.*, 2011), using the coordinates of the crystal structure of mutant GFP-R96A (*Aequorea victoria*; PDB entry 1qy3; Barondeau *et al.*, 2003) as a search model. Structure refinement was performed with *REFMAC5* (Murshudov *et al.*, 2011) and was alternated with manual correction of the model using *Coot* (Emsley & Cowtan, 2004). Noncrystallographic symmetry restraints were not applied during refinement. Water molecules were located with *Coot*. Crystallographic data and refinement statistics are presented in Table 1.

Structure validation was performed with *Coot* and *PROCHECK* (Laskowski *et al.*, 1993). The figures were prepared with *LIGPLOT/HBPLUS* (McDonald & Thornton, 1994; Wallace *et al.*, 1995), *PyMOL* (DeLano, 2002), *SETOR* (Evans, 1993) and *ChemDraw* (CambridgeSoft). The

**Table 2**

The unique stabilizing intersubunit interactions in the phiYFPv dimer.

The number of stabilizing contacts is doubled by the twofold noncrystallographic symmetry axis.

Bond type	Interacting residues and atoms
Hydrogen bonds	Pro145 CO...His200 NE2
	Pro145 CO...Tyr198 OH
	Tyr149 OH...Cys147 NH
	Tyr149 OH...Lys164 CO
	Arg225 NH2...Asp234 CO
	Arg225 NH2...Thr232 CO
Salt bridges	Lys160 NZ-Asp175 OD1
	Lys164 NZ-Asp180 OD1
	Lys164 NZ-Asp180 OD2
	Lys164 NZ-Asp180 OD2

coordinates and structure factors were deposited in the Protein Data Bank under accession code 4he4.

### 2.3. Mutagenesis and photophysical characterization

Preparation of mutant variants by site-directed mutagenesis was carried out by PCR using the overlap extension method with primers containing appropriate target substitutions (Ho *et al.*, 1989). N-terminally His<sub>6</sub>-tagged variants were expressed in *E. coli* XL1 Blue strain (Invitrogen, USA) and purified using TALON metal-affinity resin (Clontech Laboratories, USA). Absorbance and fluorescence spectra of the purified proteins were recorded using a Varian Cary 100 UV-Vis

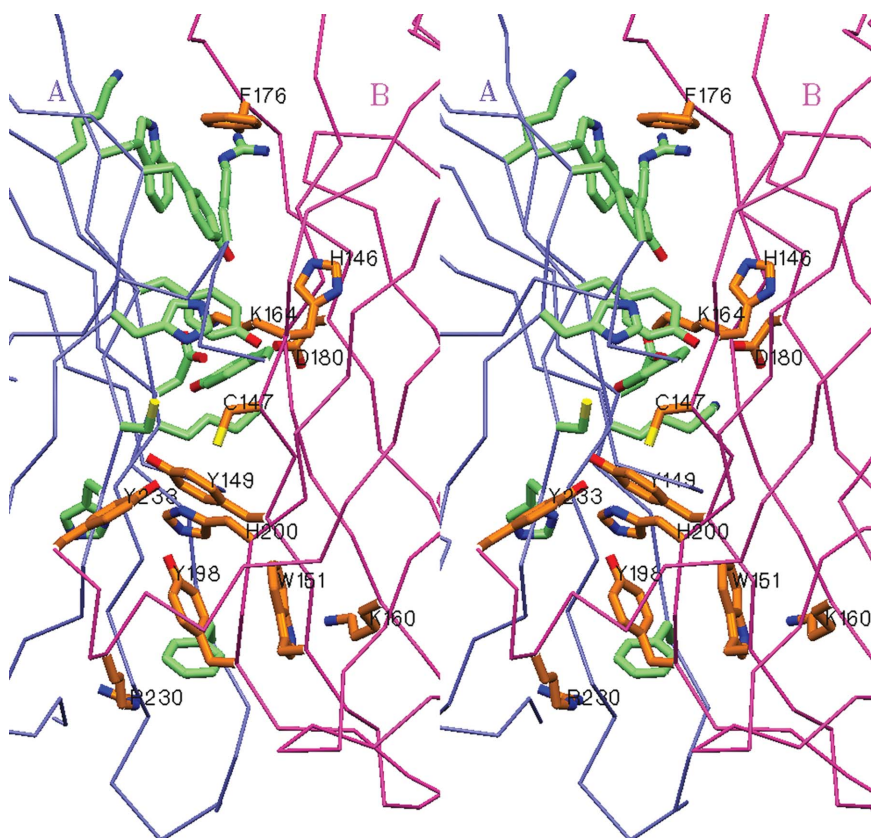
spectrophotometer and a Varian Cary Eclipse fluorescence spectrophotometer, respectively.

## 3. Results

### 3.1. Protomer structure

The principal structural fold of the phiYFPv subunit, which is shared with all members of the GFP family, is an 11-stranded  $\beta$ -barrel with loop caps on both sides and a chromophore (matured from the sequence Thr65-Tyr66-Gly67) embedded in the middle of an internal helix which consists of a combination of distorted  $\alpha$ -helical and  $3_{10}$ -helical turns. The peptide group preceding Pro87 adopts a *cis* conformation. Interestingly, the structure of the spectrally identical zYFP538 shows the existence of a pore on the cylindrical  $\beta$ -barrel surface with a chain of hydrogen-bonded water molecules passing from the outside to the hydroxyphenyl moiety of the chromophore (Pletneva *et al.*, 2007). In TurboGFP this water-filled pore was suggested to be essential for the enhanced chromophore maturation rate as it enables additional access for molecular oxygen (Evdokimov *et al.*, 2006). In phiYFPv, a similar pore formed by the backbone atoms of Phe143, Thr144, Pro145, His204 and Val205 contains only one water molecule bound to the hydroxyl of Tyr66. It appears that the origin of the phenomenon observed in phiYFPv is the insufficient resolution of the diffraction data

(2.05 Å). The pore size in the phiYFPv structure was found to be almost identical to its counterparts in TurboGFP (1.6 Å; Evdokimov *et al.*, 2006), zYFP538 (1.8 Å; Pletneva *et al.*, 2007) and mKate (1.8, 1.75 and 2.6 Å at different pH values; Pletnev *et al.*, 2008). The continuous chain of water molecules passing through the pore was identified in structures at a resolution of  $\sim 1.8$  Å or better. Only a few water molecules (0–2) were found in the pores of the eight crystallographically independent subunits of mKate at a resolution of 2.6 Å.

**Figure 1**

Stereoview of the interface between the *A* and *B* subunits in the dimeric structure of phiYFPv. This figure was produced using *SETOR* (Evans, 1993).

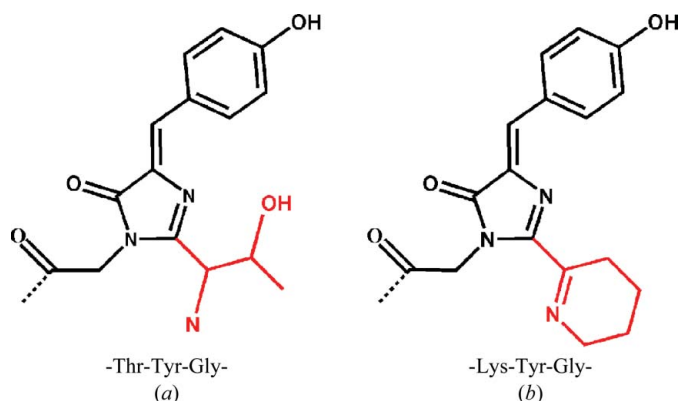
### 3.2. Oligomeric structure

The biological unit of phiYFPv is a dimer both in solution and in the crystalline state. The two identical subunits, *A* and *B* ( $C^\alpha$  r.m.s.d. of 0.335 Å), are related by a noncrystallographic twofold symmetry axis with side-to-side packing at  $\sim 60^\circ$ . The buried contact area between the monomers ( $\sim 1350$  Å<sup>2</sup> per monomer) is formed by the side chains of 13 residues, His146, Cys147, Tyr149, Trp151, Lys160, Lys164, Asp175, Phe176, Asp180, Tyr198, Arg225, Arg230 and Asp233, which contribute 12 hydrogen bonds and six salt bridges to stabilize the dimeric assembly (Fig. 1 and Table 2). The irregular C-terminal tail 227–234 extends

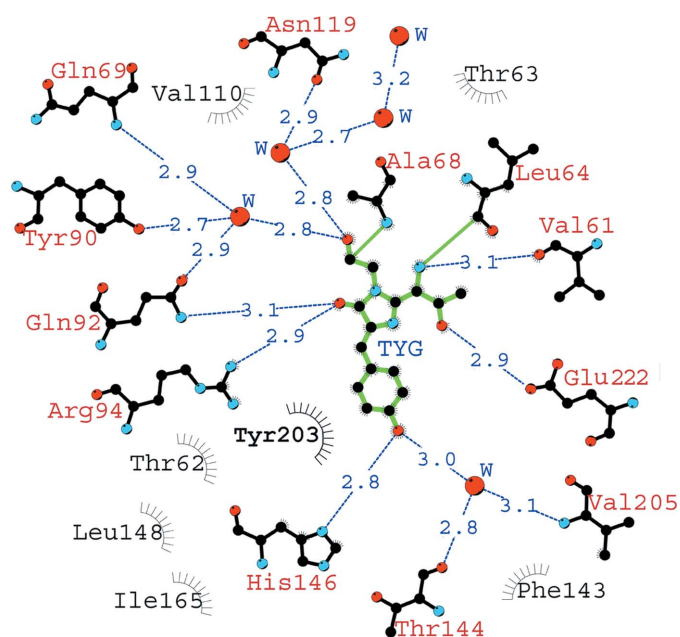
away from the  $\beta$ -barrel towards to the cylindrical surface of the interacting counterpart, contributing to interface stabilization. Removal of the dimer-stabilizing contacts, accompanied by deletion of the C-terminal segment, typically favours the monomeric state of a biomarker, which is highly desirable for protein labelling and FRET techniques.

### 3.3. Structural features of the chromophore area

The structure of the chromophore and the stereochemistry of its environment are the key factors that determine the photophysical properties of GFP-like proteins. PhiYFPv exhibits fluorescence in a yellow spectral range with excitation



**Figure 2** Chemical structures of the chromophores of the spectrally identical phiYFPv (a) and zYFP538 (b) matured from the chromophore-forming sequences Thr-Tyr-Gly and Lys-Tyr-Gly, respectively. This figure was produced using ChemDraw (CambridgeSoft).



**Figure 3** A schematic diagram illustrating the nearest amino-acid environment of the chromophore in the phiYFPv structure. Hydrogen bonds ( $\leq 3.3 \text{ \AA}$ ) are shown as blue dashed lines, water molecules (W) as red spheres and van der Waals contacts ( $\leq 3.9 \text{ \AA}$ ) as black 'eyelashes'. This figure was prepared using LIGPLOT/HBPLUS (McDonald & Thornton, 1994; Wallace *et al.*, 1995).

**Table 3** Spectral characteristics.

(a) PhiYFP mutants.

	$\lambda_{\text{ex}}^{\text{max}}/\lambda_{\text{em}}^{\text{max}\dagger}$ (nm)	$\text{EC}_{\text{mol}}^{\ddagger}$ ( $M^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$ )	QY§	$B^{\parallel}$	$B_{\text{rel}}^{\text{phiYFP}\dagger\dagger}$ (%)
PhiYFPv	524/537	101305	0.59	59.8	100
Tyr203Ser	495/515	62854	0.31	19.5	33
Tyr203Thr‡‡	500/515	72919	0.28	20.4	34
Tyr203Val‡‡	510/520	75944	0.39	29.6	49
Tyr14Ile	520/532	n/d§§	n/d	n/d	n/d
Val205Ser	516/529	37340	0.32	11.9	20
Ser161Ala	524/537	103023	0.76	78.3	130

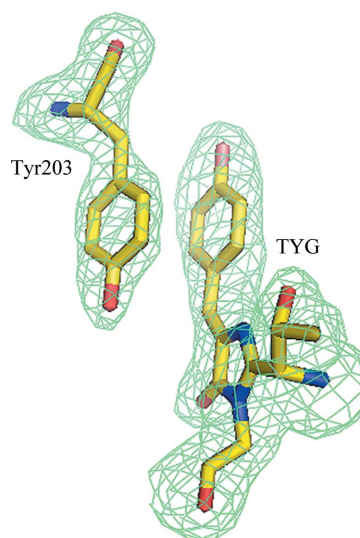
(b) TagYFP mutants.

	$\lambda_{\text{ex}}^{\text{max}}/\lambda_{\text{em}}^{\text{max}\dagger}$ (nm)	$\text{EC}_{\text{mol}}^{\ddagger}$ ( $M^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$ )	QY§	$B^{\parallel}$	$B_{\text{rel}}^{\text{tagYFP}\dagger\dagger}$ (%)
TagYFP	508/524	20056	0.74	14.8	100
Val14Tyr/Leu68Ala	505/520	32461	0.49	15.9	107
Thr205Val	515/530	45905	0.38	17.4	118

$\dagger$   $\lambda_{\text{ex}}^{\text{max}}$  and  $\lambda_{\text{em}}^{\text{max}}$  are the excitation and emission maxima, respectively.  $\ddagger$   $\text{EC}_{\text{mol}}$  is the extinction coefficient.  $\S$  QY is the fluorescence quantum yield.  $\parallel$   $B$  is the brightness calculated as  $(\text{EC}_{\text{mol}} \times \text{QY})/1000$ .  $\dagger\dagger$   $B_{\text{rel}}^{\text{phiYFP}} = [B(\text{mutant})/B(\text{phiYFP})] \times 100$ ;  $B_{\text{rel}}^{\text{tagYFP}} = [B(\text{mutant})/B(\text{tagYFP})] \times 100$ .  $\ddagger\ddagger$  Pakhomov & Martynov (2011).  $\S\S$  Not detectable.

and emission maxima at 524 and 537 nm, respectively. No indication of any disorder in the relatively tightly packed chromophore environment was observed. The atomic displacement factors of the chromophore are below the average for the protein (Table 1).

The post-translational modification of the chromophore-forming sequence Thr65-Tyr66-Gly67 results in a coplanar two-ring chromophore structure consisting of a five-membered imidazolinone heterocycle with a *p*-hydroxybenzylidene substituent (Fig. 2a) typical of the green-emitting FPs. Tyr66 is found in a *cis* conformation described by torsion angles of  $\sim 0.15^\circ$  and  $\sim 2.0^\circ$  around the  $C^\alpha - C^\beta$  and  $C^\beta - C^\gamma$



**Figure 4**  $\pi$ -Stacking interaction of the chromophore Tyr66 with the proximal Tyr203 viewed in an  $F_o - F_c$  OMIT electron-density map (cutoff  $\rho = 3.0\sigma$ ). This figure was produced using PyMOL (DeLano, 2002).

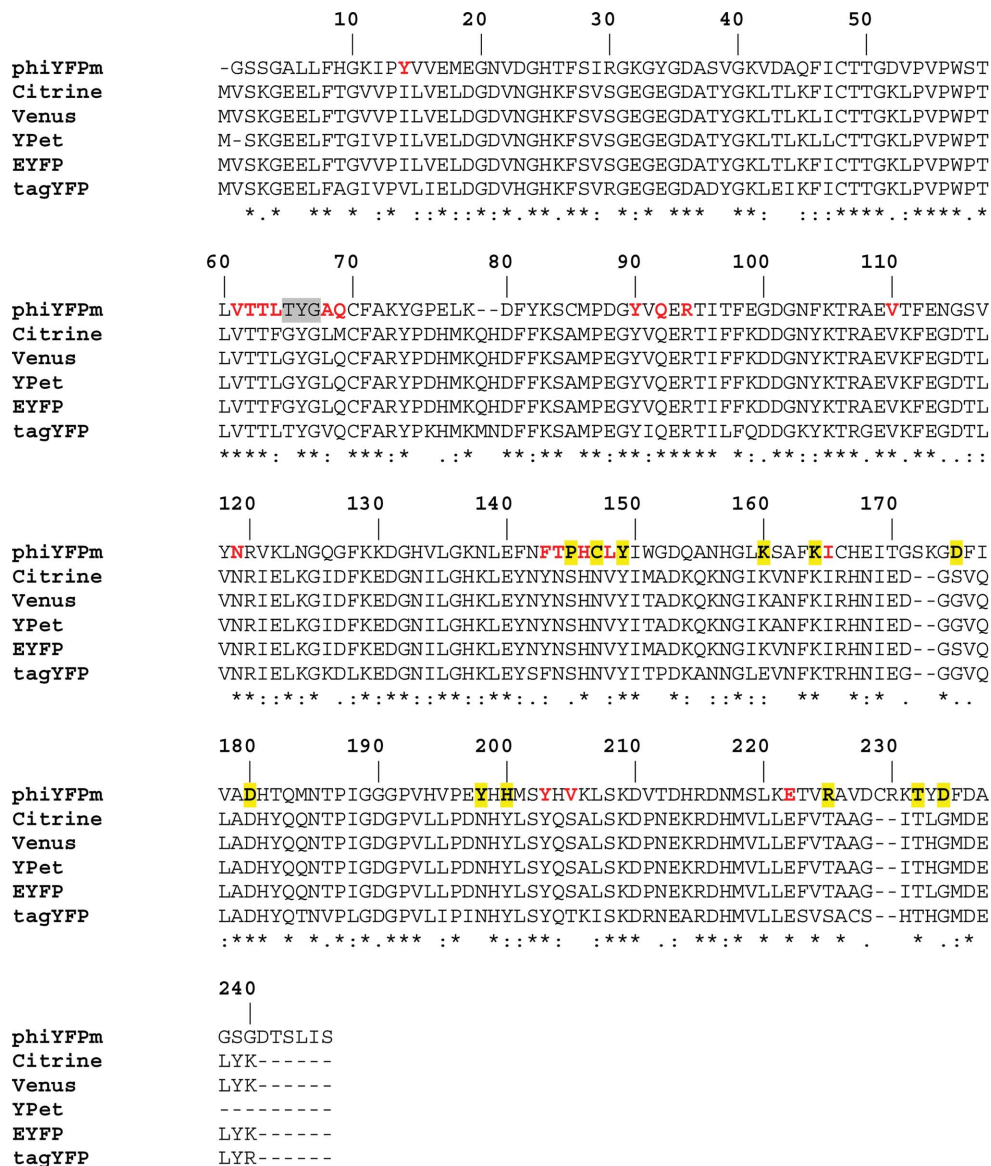
bonds, respectively. The geometry of the first chromophore residue, Thr65, is consistent with that of a 'green' chromophore and is characterized by an  $sp^3$ -hybridized  $C^\alpha$  centre with the standard *trans* configuration of the preceding peptide linkage.

The nearest shell of the chromophore (within 3.9 Å) is composed of 19 residues, most of which are involved in an extensive network of hydrogen bonds with active participation of mediating water molecules. This network is functionally important in the maturation and fluorescence as a potential proton wire. It forms five direct and six water-mediated hydrogen bonds to the chromophore (Fig. 3). Direct and water-mediated hydrogen bonds of His146, Thr144 and Val205 to the hydroxyl of Tyr66 stabilize the fluorescent *cis* form of the chromophore. These interactions, together with the other three specific hydrogen bonds between the chromophore Thr65 and the catalytic Glu222, as well as between the imidazolinone carbonyl and Gln92 and the catalytic Arg94, greatly affect the distribution of the electron density of the chromophore.

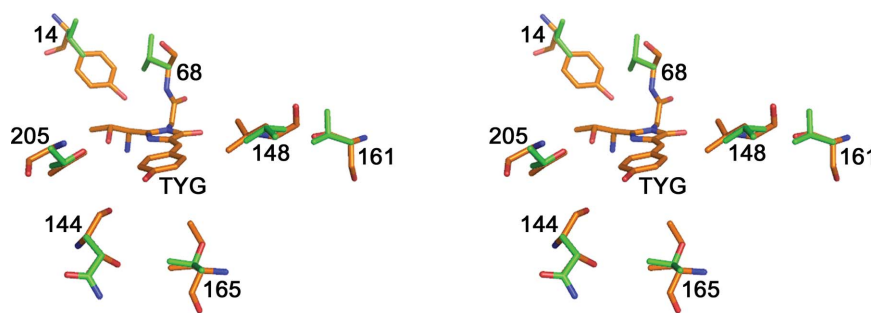
A remarkable structural feature of phiYFPv responsible for its yellow fluorescence is a nearly perfect  $\pi$ -stacking ( $d \simeq 3.6$  Å) between the antiparallel phenolic rings of the chromophore Tyr66 and Tyr203 (Fig. 4). This particular interaction has been observed previously in the crystal structures of several engineered YFPs (Griesbeck *et al.*, 2001; Rekas *et al.*, 2002; Wachter *et al.*, 1998).

### 3.4. Structure-based site-directed mutagenesis

The availability of the crystal structure allowed us to perform site mapping in the neighbourhood of the chromophore aimed at identifying the key residues



**Figure 5** Sequence alignment of phiYFPv and the yellow variants of the YFP group (total identity 44.2%) showing the chromophore-forming sequence (highlighted in grey), residues from the environment nearest to the chromophore (in red; see also Fig. 3) and dimer-stabilizing residues from the intersubunit contact surface (highlighted in yellow; see also Table 1).



**Figure 6** Stereoview showing the residue differences around the TYG chromophore in phiYFPv (orange) and tagYFP (green). Sites in phiYFPv/tagYFP: 14, Tyr/Val; 68, Ala/Val; 144, Thr/Asn; 148, Leu/Val; 161, Ser/Val; 165, Ile/Thr; 205, Val/Thr. This figure was produced using PyMOL (DeLano, 2002).

that affect the fluorescence characteristics of phiYFPv. The mapping results were subsequently tested by site-directed mutagenesis (Table 3). The functional roles of the sites which mostly account for the advanced spectral properties of dimeric phiYFPv have also been tested by point mutations in the monomeric yellow fluorescent biomarker tagYFP ( $\lambda_{\text{ex}}^{\text{max}} \simeq 508$  nm,  $\lambda_{\text{em}}^{\text{max}} \simeq 524$  nm), which appears to share some important similarities with phiYFPv. Although the nearest chromophore environments of phiYFPv and tagYFP are not identical, both proteins possess the same chromophore-forming triad and have the  $\pi$ -stacking interaction of a tyrosine in position 203 with the chromophore phenolic ring in common. TagYFP belongs to a homologous group of genetically engineered monomeric/weak dimeric yellow biomarkers (here named groupYFP) consisting of mCitrine, Venus, YPet, EYFP and tagYFP (Evrogen\_Moscow; <http://www.evrogen.com>; Griesbeck *et al.*, 2001; Nagai *et al.*, 2002; Nguyen & Daugherty, 2005; Tsien, 1998; Fig. 5). The biomarkers of this group exhibit similar fluorescence spectra and are used for protein labelling and FRET techniques (Chudakov *et al.*, 2010; Rekas *et al.*, 2002; Shaner *et al.*, 2005, 2007).

Site-directed mutagenesis confirmed that  $\pi$ -stacking interactions between the aromatic rings of the chromophore Tyr66 and the proximal Tyr203 is a crucial structural feature defining the spectral characteristics of phiYFPv and, obviously, its wild-type analogue phiYFP. A single replacement of Tyr203 by Ser/Thr/Val shifts the emission maximum from the yellow ( $\sim 537$  nm) to the green spectral range ( $\sim 515$ – $520$  nm), with considerable dimming of the fluorescence (Pakhomov & Martynov, 2011; see also Table 3).

Our mutagenesis study has revealed the important functional role of sites 14 and 205 proximal to the chromophore. In phiYFPv these sites are occupied by Tyr14 and Val205 and in groupYFPs by residues of a substantially different nature: Val/Ile14 and Thr/Ser205 (Figs. 5 and 6; the numbering used here and subsequently corresponds to phiYFPv). The replacement of Tyr14 or Val205 in phiYFPv by Ile or Ser, respectively, strongly decreased the protein-maturation rate, resulting in very dim variants (Table 3). In contrast, the introduction of Tyr or Val at the respective positions 14 or 205 in the homologous monomeric biomarker tagYFP had a positive influence on the spectral properties. The most significant effect was achieved by the Thr205Val mutation, which increased the brightness of tagYFP by  $\sim 18\%$ , accompanied by a desirable  $\sim 6$  nm red shift of the emission band.

It has been suggested that Ser at position 161 in phiYFPv (represented by Ala/Val in groupYFP) plays the same role as Ser158 in mKate (Pletnev *et al.*, 2008). The Ser158Ala mutation in mKate increased the brightness of fluorescence by almost a factor of two (Pletnev *et al.*, 2008); similarly, the replacement of Ser161 by Ala in phiYFPv increased its brightness by 30%.

#### 4. Discussion

The subfamily of yellow fluorescent proteins can be divided into two groups. The first group consists of two wild-type

proteins, dimeric phiYFP (*Phialidium*) and tetrameric zYFP538 (*Zoanthus* sp.), both of which exhibit almost identical spectral characteristics ( $\lambda_{\text{ex}}^{\text{max}} \simeq 525$  nm and  $\lambda_{\text{em}}^{\text{max}} \simeq 537$  nm; Matz *et al.*, 1999; Shagin *et al.*, 2004). The second group is represented by homologous monomeric/weak dimeric genetically engineered biomarkers (here named groupYFP): mCitrine, mVenus, YPet, EYFP and tagYFP ( $\lambda_{\text{ex}}^{\text{max}} \simeq 515$  nm and  $\lambda_{\text{em}}^{\text{max}} \simeq 528$  nm; Griesbeck *et al.*, 2001; Nagai *et al.*, 2002; Nguyen & Daugherty, 2005; Tsien, 1998; see also Rekas *et al.*, 2002; Shaner *et al.*, 2005, 2007). All of these 'yellow' FPs, except for zYFP538, are characterized by a coplanar bicyclic structure of the chromophore which is typical of 'green' FPs (Fig. 2a). In zYFP538, on the other hand, post-translational modification results in a tricyclic chromophore structure with an additional tetrahydropyridine ring (Fig. 2b; Pletneva *et al.*, 2007; Remington *et al.*, 2005).

In an attempt to explain the spectral properties of phiYFPv, we performed structure-based site-directed mutagenesis. The most promising mutations were further transferred to the monomeric biomarker tagYFP, a homologous member of groupYFP. The observed  $\sim 20$ – $30$  nm bathochromic shift of phiYFPv and groupYFP fluorescence relative to that of green FPs is apparently a consequence of the combined influence of several structural features. The  $\pi$ -stacking interactions between the highly polarizable aromatic rings of the chromophore Tyr66 and the proximal Tyr203 have been identified as a major structural feature responsible for this shift. The importance of such interactions has been demonstrated previously for a number of other designed variants of GFPs (Dickson *et al.*, 1997; Ormo *et al.*, 1996; Wachter *et al.*, 1998). The introduction of similar interactions in the green mutant avGFP\_S65T (by a Thr203Tyr mutation) with emission at  $\sim 512$  nm yielded a yellow variant with emission at  $\sim 527$  nm. It was suggested that the enhanced polarizability of groups adjacent to the chromophore, such as the phenyl of Tyr or Phe and the imidazole of His, is likely to be a major factor in the observed red shift (Wachter *et al.*, 1998). These adjacent groups were proposed to increase the chromophore polarity with a greater dipole moment, resulting in longer wavelength fluorescence.

The functional importance of the observed interactions between the  $\pi$ -stacked aromatic rings of tyrosines in phiYFPv (similar to those present in wild-type phiYFP) has been tested by introducing a number of single-point mutations: Tyr203Thr, Tyr203Val (Pakhomov & Martynov, 2011) and Tyr203Ser (Table 3). The mutants are characterized by weak fluorescence, demonstrating a hypsochromic shift of the emission maximum from  $\sim 537$  to  $\sim 515$ – $520$  nm. In phiYFPv the side chain of Tyr203 is located in a tightly packed environment created by the chromophore phenolic ring and the side chains of Gln69, Leu148, Met201, Val205, Glu222 and Val224. The replacement of Tyr203 by smaller residues (Val, Thr and Ser) creates an empty cavity of  $\sim 4.4$  Å within this environment, which presumably favours vibrational relaxation of the chromophore, causing the observed dimming of fluorescence. An additional contribution to the decrease in the emission intensity could also arise from partial protonation of the

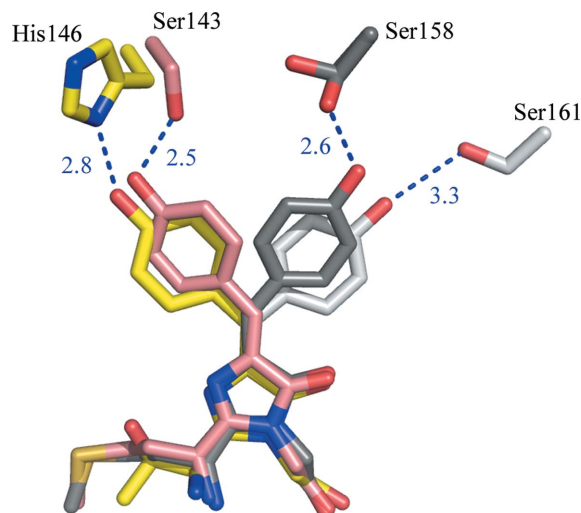
chromophore phenolate O atom. The latter arises from direct hydrogen bonding to the proton-donating hydroxyl groups of Ser203 or Thr203 in the corresponding mutants. The possibility of the formation of these hydrogen bonds has been proposed based on computer modelling. Ser and Thr at position 205 in the yellow FPs from the groupYFPs (Griesbeck *et al.*, 2001; Rekas *et al.*, 2002; Wachter *et al.*, 1998) presumably demonstrate a similar protonation effect owing to participation in water-mediated hydrogen bonding with the chromophore tyrosine. In tagYFP, the replacement of Thr205 by Val resulted in a brightness increase of 18% (Table 3).

The observed  $\pi$ -stacking interaction is absent in zYFP538, which shows yellow fluorescence at  $\sim 538$  nm caused by an extra double  $C^{\alpha}=N^{\zeta}$  bond of the additional tetrahydropyridine ring of the chromophore that extends its  $\pi$ -conjugated system (Fig. 2*b*; Pletneva *et al.*, 2007; Remington *et al.*, 2005).

Our structure-based mutagenesis study of the nearest environment of the chromophore in phiYFPv has revealed the important functional roles of Tyr and Val at positions 14 and 205, respectively (Fig. 5). Tyr14 is positioned  $\sim 4.2$  Å from the chromophore. It forms two direct hydrogen bonds to the carbonyl of Leu64 preceding the chromophore and to the side chain of Asn119, which is involved in the hydrogen-bonded network around the chromophore. Disrupting these hydrogen bonds by the replacement of Tyr14 with a hydrophobic Ile resulted in a poorly matured dim variant (Table 3). The hydrophobic Val205 in phiYFPv mostly resides in a hydrophobic environment and presumably stabilizes the conformational state of Tyr203, which is involved in the key  $\pi$ -stacking interactions mentioned above. The replacement of Val205 in phiYFPv by the hydrophilic Ser results in 80% fluorescence quenching and in an  $\sim 8$  nm blue shift of the excitation/emission bands.

These results led to testing of the effect of Tyr and Val at the corresponding positions 14 and 205 on the spectral properties in the monomeric biomarker tagYFP. In this protein positions 14 and 205 are occupied by residues of a substantially different nature: Val and Thr, respectively. The mutation Val14Tyr in tagYFP (combined with Leu68Ala in order to remove steric hindrance) had only a minor effect, showing an unwanted  $\sim 4$  nm blue shift and an  $\sim 7\%$  increase in fluorescence brightness (Table 3). The replacement Thr205Val demonstrated a quite significant positive effect, exhibiting an  $\sim 18\%$  brightness increase of tagYFP and a desirable  $\sim 6$  nm red shift of the emission band maximum.

The Ser158Ala mutation in the far-red mKate breaks a hydrogen bond between Ser158 and the hydroxyl of the chromophore Tyr66 in a nonfluorescent *trans* state (Pletnev *et al.*, 2008). Destabilization of the *trans* state in the corresponding mKate variant shifted the equilibrium to a fluorescent *cis* state, increasing the fluorescence brightness by 95%. In phiYFPv Ser161 occupies a position similar to that of Ser158 in mKate; thus, it could be assumed that it stabilizes a hypothetically possible nonfluorescent *trans* state in a similar manner (Fig. 7). A certain fraction of the *trans* isomer presumably appears owing to *cis*-to-*trans* isomerization of the



**Figure 7**

Structures of the superimposed chromophores of mKate (Pletnev *et al.*, 2008) and phiYFPv with the isomer-stabilizing residues shown. mKate: fluorescent *cis* form at pH 7.0, pink; nonfluorescent *trans* form at pH 2.0, dark grey. phiYFPv: fluorescent *cis* form at pH 8.0, yellow; hypothetical modelled nonfluorescent *trans* form, light grey. This figure was produced using PyMOL (DeLano, 2002).

chromophore (the kindling effect) upon irradiation at the excitation wavelength (Chudakov *et al.*, 2003). Indeed, the replacement Ser161Ala in phiYFPv resulted in an increase in brightness of  $\sim 30\%$  (Table 3). It is worth noting that in all members of groupYFP position 161 is occupied by the hydrophobic residues Ala or Val that are incapable of forming hydrogen bonds.

Interestingly, despite having identical chromophores and the same  $\pi$ -stacking between the two key tyrosines, the dimeric phiYFPv ( $\lambda_{em}^{max} \simeq 537$  nm) and the monomeric tagYFP ( $\lambda_{em}^{max} \simeq 524$  nm) exhibit an  $\sim 13$  nm difference in fluorescence-band position. We mostly attribute this difference to the combined effect of individual stereochemical features in the chromophore areas of both proteins. The largest contribution is from the hydrophobicity/hydrophilicity of the residue at position 205, which is a hydrophobic Val in phiYFPv and a similar-sized hydrophilic Thr in tagYFP. The replacement of Val205 by a hydrophilic Ser in phiYFPv resulted in an  $\sim 8$  nm blue shift of the emission band (Table 3). On the other hand, the replacement of the hydrophilic Thr205 by a hydrophobic Val in monomeric tagYFP resulted in an  $\sim 6$  nm red shift. An additional contribution to the observed spectral difference between the dimeric phiYFPv and the monomeric tagYFP could arise from differences in their oligomeric state. Extensive intersubunit interactions, represented by 12 hydrogen bonds and six salt bridges in the phiYFPv dimer (Table 2) could affect the electrostatic field of the protein matrix and, as a consequence, the spectral properties of the internal chromophore.

We acknowledge the use of beamline 22-ID of the Southeast Regional Collaborative Access Team (SER-CAT) located at the Advanced Photon Source, Argonne National Laboratory. Use of the APS was supported by the US Department of

Energy, Office of Science, Office of Basic Energy Sciences under Contract No. W-31-109-Eng-38. This project has been supported in part by Federal funds from the National Cancer Institute, National Institutes of Health (NIH) contract No. HHSN261200800001E, the Intramural Research Program of the NIH, National Cancer Institute, Center for Cancer Research and by grants from the President of the Russian Federation MK-2382.2012.4, the Russian Foundation for Basic Research 11-04-00241, 11-04-92122 and 12-04-33023, MCB RAS and Measures to Attract Leading Scientists to Russian Educational Institutions (11.G34.31.0017). The content of this publication does not necessarily reflect the views or policies of the Department of Health and Human Services, nor does the mention of trade names, commercial products or organizations imply endorsement by the US Government.

## References

- Barondeau, D. P., Putnam, C. D., Kassmann, C. J., Tainer, J. A. & Getzoff, E. D. (2003). *Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. USA*, **100**, 12111–12116.
- Carlson, H. J. & Campbell, R. E. (2009). *Curr. Opin. Biotechnol.* **20**, 19–27.
- Chudakov, D. M., Feofanov, A. V., Mudrik, N. N., Lukyanov, S. & Lukyanov, K. A. (2003). *J. Biol. Chem.* **278**, 7215–7219.
- Chudakov, D. M., Matz, M. V., Lukyanov, S. & Lukyanov, K. A. (2010). *Physiol. Rev.* **90**, 1103–1163.
- Davidson, M. W. & Campbell, R. E. (2009). *Nature Methods*, **6**, 713–717.
- DeLano, W. L. (2002). *PyMOL*. <http://www.pymol.org>.
- Dickson, R. M., Cubitt, A. B., Tsien, R. Y. & Moerner, W. E. (1997). *Nature (London)*, **388**, 355–358.
- Emsley, P. & Cowtan, K. (2004). *Acta Cryst. D* **60**, 2126–2132.
- Evans, S. V. (1993). *J. Mol. Graph.* **11**, 134–138.
- Evdokimov, A. G., Pokross, M. E., Egorov, N. S., Zarausky, A. G., Yampolsky, I. V., Merzlyak, E. M., Shkoporov, A. N., Sander, I., Lukyanov, K. A. & Chudakov, D. M. (2006). *EMBO Rep.* **7**, 1006–1012.
- Griesbeck, O., Baird, G. S., Campbell, R. E., Zacharias, D. A. & Tsien, R. Y. (2001). *J. Biol. Chem.* **276**, 29188–29194.
- Ho, S. N., Hunt, H. D., Horton, R. M., Pullen, J. K. & Pease, L. R. (1989). *Gene*, **77**, 51–59.
- Lam, A. J., St-Pierre, F., Gong, Y., Marshall, J. D., Cranfill, P. J., Baird, M. A., McKeown, M. R., Wiedenmann, J., Davidson, M. W., Schnitzer, M. J., Tsien, R. Y. & Lin, M. Z. (2012). *Nature Methods*, **9**, 1005–1012.
- Laskowski, R. A., MacArthur, M. W., Moss, D. S. & Thornton, J. M. (1993). *J. Appl. Cryst.* **26**, 283–291.
- Matz, M. V., Fradkov, A. F., Labas, Y. A., Savitsky, A. P., Zarausky, A. G., Markelov, M. L. & Lukyanov, S. A. (1999). *Nature Biotechnol.* **17**, 969–973.
- McDonald, I. K. & Thornton, J. M. (1994). *J. Mol. Biol.* **238**, 777–793.
- Miyawaki, A. (2011). *Annu. Rev. Biochem.* **80**, 357–373.
- Murshudov, G. N., Skubák, P., Lebedev, A. A., Pannu, N. S., Steiner, R. A., Nicholls, R. A., Winn, M. D., Long, F. & Vagin, A. A. (2011). *Acta Cryst. D* **67**, 355–367.
- Nagai, T., Ibata, K., Park, E. S., Kubota, M., Mikoshiba, K. & Miyawaki, A. (2002). *Nature Biotechnol.* **20**, 87–90.
- Nguyen, A. W. & Daugherty, P. S. (2005). *Nature Biotechnol.* **23**, 355–360.
- Ormo, M., Cubitt, A. B., Kallio, K., Gross, L. A., Tsien, R. Y. & Remington, S. J. (1996). *Science*, **273**, 1392–1395.
- Otwinowski, Z. & Minor, W. (1997). *Methods Enzymol.* **276**, 307–326.
- Pakhomov, A. A. & Martynov, V. I. (2011). *Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun.* **407**, 230–235.
- Passamaneck, Y. J., Di Gregorio, A., Papaioannou, V. E. & Hadjantonakis, A. K. (2006). *Microsc. Res. Tech.* **69**, 160–167.
- Piston, D. W. & Kremers, G. J. (2007). *Trends Biochem. Sci.* **32**, 407–414.
- Pletneva, N. V., Pletnev, S. V., Chudakov, D. M., Tikhonova, T. V., Popov, V. O., Martynov, V. I., Wlodawer, A., Dauter, Z. & Pletnev, V. Z. (2007). *Bioorg. Khim.* **33**, 421–430.
- Pletnev, S., Shcherbo, D., Chudakov, D. M., Pletneva, N., Merzlyak, E. M., Wlodawer, A., Dauter, Z. & Pletnev, V. (2008). *J. Biol. Chem.* **283**, 28980–28987.
- Rekas, A., Alattia, J. R., Nagai, T., Miyawaki, A. & Ikura, M. (2002). *J. Biol. Chem.* **277**, 50573–50578.
- Remington, S. J. (2006). *Curr. Opin. Struct. Biol.* **16**, 714–721.
- Remington, S. J., Wachter, R. M., Yarbrough, D. K., Branchaud, B., Anderson, D. C., Kallio, K. & Lukyanov, K. A. (2005). *Biochemistry*, **44**, 202–212.
- Shagin, D. A., Barsova, E. V., Yanushevich, Y. G., Fradkov, A. F., Lukyanov, K. A., Labas, Y. A., Semenova, T. N., Ugalde, J. A., Meyers, A., Nunez, J. M., Widder, E. A., Lukyanov, S. A. & Matz, M. V. (2004). *Mol. Biol. Evol.* **21**, 841–850.
- Shaner, N. C., Patterson, G. H. & Davidson, M. W. (2007). *J. Cell Sci.* **120**, 4247–4260.
- Shaner, N. C., Steinbach, P. A. & Tsien, R. Y. (2005). *Nature Methods*, **2**, 905–909.
- Shcherbo, D., Merzlyak, E. M., Chepurnykh, T. V., Fradkov, A. F., Ermakova, G. V., Solovieva, E. A., Lukyanov, K. A., Bogdanova, E. A., Zarausky, A. G., Lukyanov, S. & Chudakov, D. M. (2007). *Nature Methods*, **4**, 741–746.
- Shcherbo, D., Shemiakina, I. I., Ryabova, A. V., Luker, K. E., Schmidt, B. T., Souslova, E. A., Gorodnicheva, T. V., Strukova, L., Shidlovskiy, K. M., Britanova, O. V., Zarausky, A. G., Lukyanov, K. A., Loschenov, V. B., Luker, G. D. & Chudakov, D. M. (2010). *Nature Methods*, **7**, 827–829.
- Stepanenko, O. V., Stepanenko, O. V., Shcherbakova, D. M., Kuznetsova, I. M., Turoverov, K. K. & Verkhusha, V. V. (2011). *Biotechniques*, **51**, 313–327.
- Stewart, C. N. Jr (2006). *Trends Biotechnol.* **24**, 155–162.
- Tsien, R. Y. (1998). *Annu. Rev. Biochem.* **67**, 509–544.
- Vagin, A. & Teplyakov, A. (2010). *Acta Cryst. D* **66**, 22–25.
- Wachter, R. M., Elsliger, M. A., Kallio, K., Hanson, G. T. & Remington, S. J. (1998). *Structure*, **6**, 1267–1277.
- Wacker, S. A., Oswald, F., Wiedenmann, J. & Knöchel, W. (2007). *Dev. Dyn.* **236**, 473–480.
- Wallace, A. C., Laskowski, R. A. & Thornton, J. M. (1995). *Protein Eng.* **8**, 127–134.
- Wang, Y. S., Yoo, C. M. & Blancaflor, E. B. (2008). *New Phytol.* **177**, 525–536.
- Wiedenmann, J., Oswald, F. & Nienhaus, G. U. (2009). *IUBMB Life*, **61**, 1029–1042.
- Winn, M. D. *et al.* (2011). *Acta Cryst. D* **67**, 235–242.
- Wu, S., Koizumi, K., Macrae-Crerar, A. & Gallagher, K. L. (2011). *PLoS One*, **6**, e27536.
- Zubova, N. N. & Savitsky, A. P. (2005). *Usp. Biol. Khim.* **45**, 1–66.