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Legends to figures

Figure 1.

Schematic representation of polymorphism in the repeat-containing region of the chitinase gene among EHMfas1 and human isolates. Nucleotide sequences pattern (A) and deduced amino-acid sequences pattern (B) were shown. Each nucleotide sequence of unit was tentatively given a number. Nucleotide and deduced amino-acid sequences of these units are also shown. Enclosed units with bold line were EHMfas1-specific units. EHMfas1-specific mutations in nucleotide and deduced amino-acid sequences are underlined.

^a EHMfas1-specific unit sequences.

Figure 2.

Schematic representation of polymorphism in the repeat-containing region of the SREHP gene among EHMfas1 and human isolates. Nucleotide sequences pattern (A) and deduced amino-acid sequences pattern (B) were shown. Each nucleotide and deduced amino-acid sequence of unit was tentatively given a number. Nucleotide and deduced amino-acid sequences of these units are also shown. Enclosed units with bold line were EHMfas1-specific units. EHMfas1-specific mutations in nucleotide and deduced amino-acid sequences are underlined.

^a Minor unit sequences observed as strain-specific unit in some human isolates.

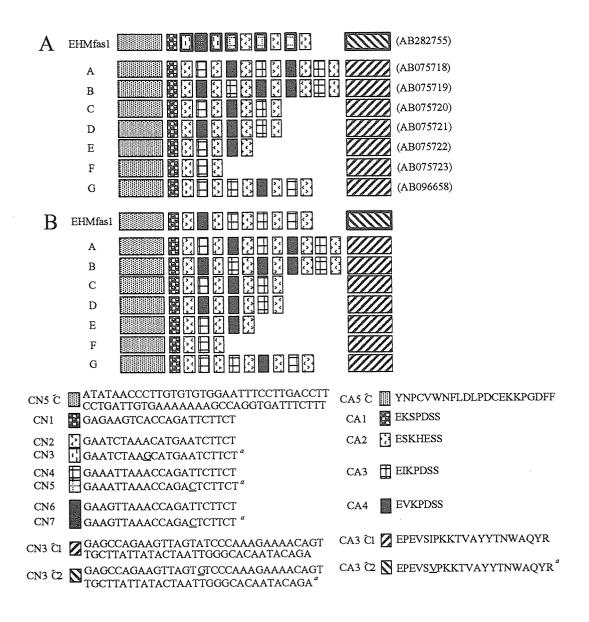
^b EHMfas1-specific unit sequences.

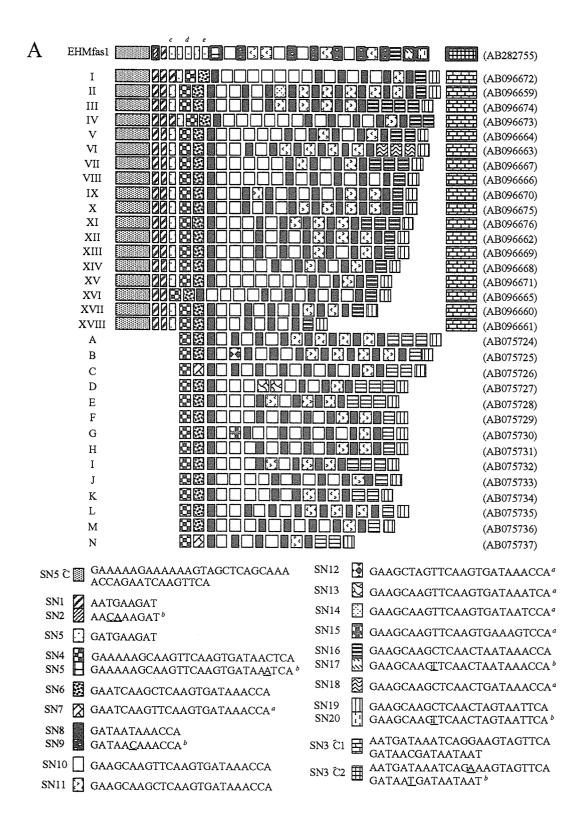
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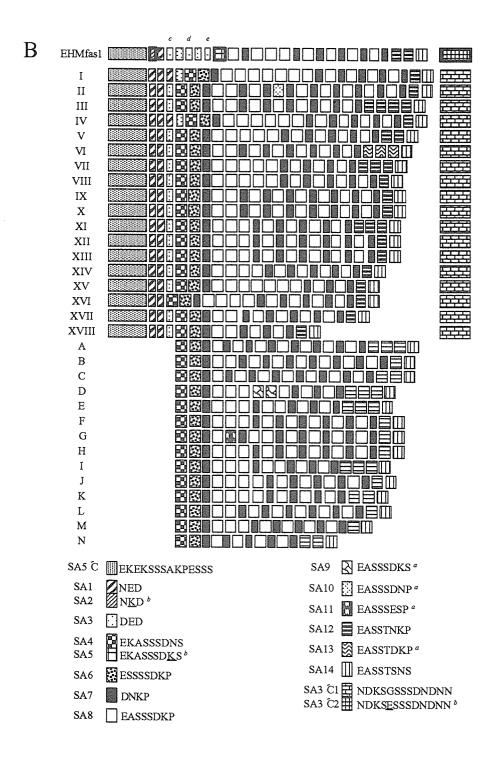
^{c, d, e} EHMfas1-specific block insertions, c: GAGGAA (EE), d: GATGAAGAA (DEE), e: GAGAAT (EN).

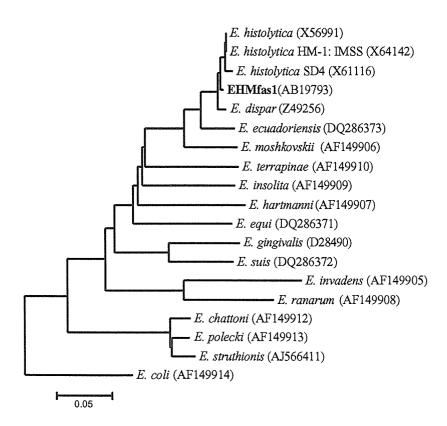
Figure 3.

Phylogenetic analysis of 16S-like SSUrDNA sequences among EHMfas1 and other Entamoeba species. Branch lengths are proportional to estimated number of substitutions per site, which represent the evolutional distance.









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ORIGINAL PAPER

Asao Makioka · Masahiro Kumagai · Seiki Kobayashi · Tsutomu Takeuchi

Effect of artificial gastrointestinal fluids on the excystation and metacystic development of *Entamoeba invadens*

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Abstract The effect of artificial gastric fluid (AGF), containing 0.5% pepsin and 0.6% hydrochloric acid, pH 1.8, in distilled water, on the excystation and metacystic development of Entamoeba invadens was examined. Excystation, which was assessed by counting the number of metacystic amoebae after inducing excystation, was enhanced by pretreatment of cysts with AGF for 30 to 60 min at 37°C but not 26°C. Longer exposure of cysts to AGF significantly reduced their viability. Significant enhancement of excystation was observed by pretreatment of cysts with distilled water only at 37°C. In addition, 0.6% hydrochloric acid had a comparable enhancing effect on excystation to AGF. Metacystic development, when determined by the number of nuclei in amoeba, was slightly enhanced by pretreatment with AGF. An artificial intestinal fluid (AIF), containing 1% pancreatin, 1% sodium bicarbonate, and 5% ox bile, pH 8.0, in distilled water, had a significant toxic effect on cysts, where 1% pancreatin had neither an enhancing effect on excystation nor a toxic effect on cysts, whereas 5% ox bile had a toxic effect on cysts. Pretreatment of cysts with AGF followed by AIF had a similar toxic effect on cysts to that by AIF only. These results suggest that gastric fluid but not intestinal fluid at 37°C contributes to enhancing excystation for Entamoeba infection.

A. Makioka (🖾) · M. Kumagai Department of Tropical Medicine, Jikei University School of Medicine, 3-25-8 Nishi-shinbashi, Minato-ku, Tokyo 105-8461, Japan

e-mail: makioka@jikei.ac.jp Tel.: +81-3-34331111 Fax: +81-3-34314459

S. Kobayashi · T. Takeuchi Department of Tropical Medicine and Parasitology, Keio University School of Medicine, 35 Shinanomachi, Shinjuku-ku, Tokyo 160-8582, Japan

Introduction

Following the ingestion of cysts in contaminated food or water, excystation and metacystic developments are essential for Entamoeba infection, and their processes have been described for Entamoeba histolytica (Dobell 1928; Cleveland and Sanders 1930). Since E. histolytica does not encyst efficiently in axenic cultures, Entamoeba invadens, a reptilian parasite, has been commonly accepted as a model for the study of encystation and excystation (López-Romero and Villagómez-Castro 1993; Eichinger 1997). Excystation is the process through which the whole organism escapes from the cyst through a minute perforation in the cyst wall. Metacystic development is the process in which a hatched metacystic amoeba with four nuclei divides to produce eight amoebulae, which grow to become trophozoites (Dobell 1928; Cleveland and Sanders 1930; Geiman and Ratcliffe 1936). The transfer of E. invadens cysts in an encystation medium to a growth medium induces in vitro excystation (McConnachie 1955; Rengpien and Bailey 1975; Garcia-Zapien et al. 1995; Makioka et al. 2002). Before excystation in the ileum, cysts are exposed to gastric fluid and then intestinal fluid during passage through the stomach and intestine. Although cysts are resistant to gastric fluid, there are no reports of the effect of gastrointestinal fluid on the excystation and metacystic development of Entamoeba. We examined the effect of artificial gastrointestinal fluid on these processes of E. invadens. Here, we report that artificial gastric fluid (AGF) enhances excystation but has little effect on metacystic development, while artificial intestinal fluid (AIF) had a significant toxic effect on cysts, which was due to the bile in the fluid.

Materials and methods

Trophozoites of *E.invadens* strain IP-1 were cultured in an axenic growth medium BI-S-33 (Diamond et al. 1978) at 26°C. To obtain cysts, trophozoites (5×10⁵ cells/ml) were transferred to an encystation medium called 47% LG (LG is BI without glucose; Sanchez et al. 1994). After 3 days of incubation, the percentage of encystation reached 80% on



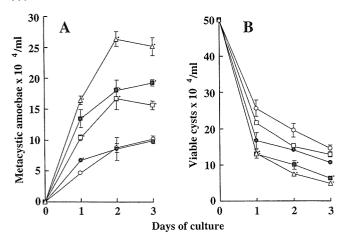


Fig. 1 Effect of AGF on the number of metacystic amoebae (a) and viable cysts (b) of *E. invadens*. The cysts were transferred to a growth medium without (open circles) or after pretreatment at 37°C with distilled water for 30 min (filled circles) or 60 min (filled squares) and with AGF for 30 min (open squares) or 60 min (open triangles). The mean numbers \pm SE of metacystic amoebae or viable cysts for duplicate cultures are plotted (each asterisk indicates $P \le 0.05$)

average. The cells were harvested and treated with 0.05% sarkosyl (Sigma Chemical Co., St. Louis, MO, USA) to destroy the trophozoites (Sanchez et al. 1994). The remaining cysts were washed with phosphate-buffered saline and counted. The viability of the cysts was determined by trypan blue dye exclusion, and the number of nuclei per cyst was determined after staining with modified Kohn's stain (Kumagai et al. 2001). Cyst preparation included 30% dead or denatured cysts and 70% viable cysts, where four-nucleate cysts are 30% and one- to three-nucleate cysts are 70%. For the experiments on excystation, cysts (5×10⁵ cells/ml) in duplicate were suspended in a growth medium and were incubated for 3 days in the controls. For the experiments on the effect of AGF containing 0.5% pepsin (Nacalai Tesque, Kyoto, Japan) and 0.6% hydrochloric acid, pH 1.8, in distilled water on excystation, cysts were exposed to AGF for 30 or 60 min at 37°C, washed twice in the growth medium by centrifugation, and then suspended in a fresh growth medium, unless otherwise specified. Metacystic amoebae were counted in a hemocytometer on days 1 and 3, and their viability was determined by trypan blue dye exclusion. Viable metacystic amoebae and cysts were clearly distinguished as pale yellow and light blue in color, respectively. The former was also identified by positive motility. Metacystic development was determined by the number of nuclei per amoeba. The cells were harvested on days 1 and 3 in cultures and stained with modified Kohn's stain. The number of nuclei per amoeba was determined by the double counting of least 100 amoebae. A solution containing 1% pancreatin (Nacalai), 1% sodium bicarbonate, and 5% ox bile (Sigma), pH 8.0, in distilled water was used as the AIF (Heath and Smith 1970). For the experiments on the effect of AIF on excystation, the cysts were exposed to AIF for 60 min at 37°C, washed twice in a growth medium by centrifugation, and suspended in a fresh growth medium. For the combined effect of AGF and AIF on excystation, the cysts were exposed first to AGF for 60 min at 37°C, sedimented by centrifugation to remove AGF, and then exposed to AIF for 60 min at 37°C before transfer to the growth medium.

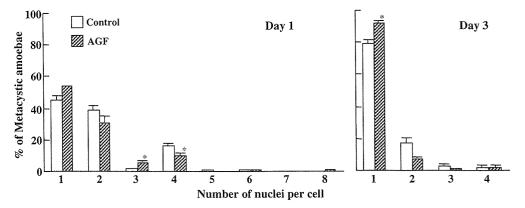
All experiments were performed at least three times, and similar results were obtained in each replicate. Therefore, representative data from duplicate cultures are shown in the results.

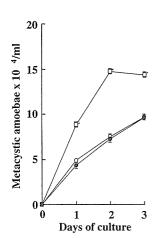
Results and discussion

Effect of AGF on excystation and viability of cysts

The effect of pretreatment of cysts with AGF on the number of metacystic amoebae and viable cysts of *E. invadens* before transfer to the growth medium is shown in Fig. 1a. The number of metacystic amoebae in cultures of cysts pretreated for 30 min with AGF during incubation increased compared to the controls. Pretreatment with distilled water for 30 min also increased the number of amoebae compared to the controls. When the pretreatment was increased from 30 to 60 min, metacystic amoebae further increased in number by pretreatment with AGF and distilled water. The effect of AGF on cyst viability is shown in Fig. 1b. The number of viable cysts in the control cultures decreased during incubation. It is considered that most immature cysts contained in culture degenerate or die

Fig. 2 Effect of AGF on the metacystic development of E. invadens. The cysts were transferred to a growth medium without or after pretreatment at 37° C with AGF for 60 min. The number of nuclei per metacystic amoeba stained with modified Kohn on days 1 and 3 of incubation was counted, and the percentage of amoebae in each class (1- to 8-nucleate) was determined (each asterisk indicates P < 0.05)





during incubation. The number of viable cysts in cultures of cysts pretreated with AGF or distilled water for 30 min during incubation was comparable to that of the controls, whereas pretreatment with AGF for 60 min reduced the number of viable cysts compared to the controls. This suggests that longer exposure to AGF had a detrimental effect on the cysts.

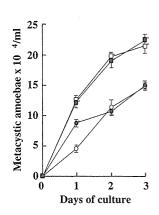
Effect of AGF on metacystic development

The effect of AGF on metacystic development was examined by counting the number of nuclei per cell. As shown in Fig. 2, 16 and 83% of the metacystic amoebae were four-nucleate and one- to three-nucleate, respectively, on day 1 of incubation in the control cultures, whereas 11 and 89% of amoebae, respectively, were in cultures of cysts pretreated with AGF. The percentage of four-nucleate amoebae in the control cultures then decreased to 2%, and that of 1-nucleate amoeba increased to 79% on day 3, while the percentages were 2 and 92%, respectively, in cultures of cysts pretreated with AGF, suggesting a small enhancing effect on metacystic development by pretreatment with AGF.

Effect of temperature of pretreatment with AGF on excystation

The effect of temperature of pretreatment with AGF on excystation is shown in Fig. 3. No increase in the number

Fig. 4 Comparison of effect of pepsin, hydrochloric acid, and AGF on the number of metacystic amoebae of *E. invadens*. The cysts were transferred to a growth medium without (open circles) or after pretreatment for 60 min at 37°C with 0.5% pepsin in distilled water (filled-circles), 0.6% hydrochloric acid (open squares), or AGF (filled squares). The mean numbers± SE of metacystic amoebae for duplicate cultures are plotted (each asterisk indicates P<0.05)



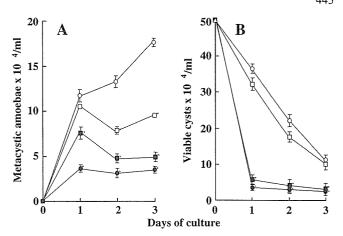


Fig. 5 Effect of AIF on the number of metacystic amoebae (a) and viable cysts (b) of E invadens. The cysts were transferred to a growth medium without (open circles) or after pretreatment with AIF (filled circles), 1% pancreatin (open squares), or 5% bile (filled squares) for 60 min at 37°C. The mean numbers \pm SE of metacystic amoebae and viable cysts for duplicate cultures are plotted (each asterisk indicates P<0.05)

of metacystic amoebae by pretreatment of cysts with AGF at 26° C occurred, unlike at 37° C, indicating that a higher temperature of 37° C is critical for this effect. The results can be applied to excystation of the human parasite, *E. histolytica*, but are unlikely to be applicable to that of *E. invadens* in reptiles. Although encystation and excystation of *E. invadens* are important as models of encystation and excystation of *E. histolytica*, the difference in temperature for the axenic growth of the two species is definitive so that it is unlikely that temperature plays an important role in the in vivo excystation of *E. invadens*.

Comparison of effect of pepsin, hydrochloric acid, and AGF on excystation

The effect of pepsin in distilled water, hydrochloric acid, and AGF on excystation was compared. As shown in Fig. 4, the increase in the number of metacystic amoebae by pretreatment with 0.6% hydrochloric acid was very similar to that

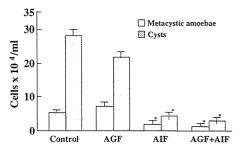


Fig. 6 Combined effect of AGF and AIF on the number of metacystic amoebae and viable cysts. The cysts were transferred to a growth medium without or after pretreatment with AGF or with AGF + AIF. The mean numbers \pm SE of metacystic amoebae and viable cysts on day 1 for duplicate cultures are plotted (each *asterisk* indicates P<0.05)

446

with AGF compared to the controls, whereas the increase occurred to a lesser extent only on day 1 by pretreatment with 0.5% pepsin in distilled water. This suggests that acidic conditions are important for the enhancing effect on excystation. Similar results were reported on Giardia in which excystation of this parasite could be induced by acidic solutions and also that salts and pepsin did not significantly alter the level of excystation in these solutions (Bingham and Meyer 1979). The mechanism for induction of *Giardia* and Entamoeba excystation by acidic conditions is unclear.

Effect of AIF on excystation and viability of cysts

The effect of pretreatment of cysts with AIF on the number of metacystic amoebae and viable cysts is shown in Fig. 5. Pretreatment of cysts with AIF for 60 min at 37°C significantly reduced the number of viable cysts, and few metacystic amoebae appeared. Similar results were obtained with exposure to AIF for 30 min (data not shown). When the effect of 1% pancreatin was compared with that of 5% ox bile, pancreatin showed neither an enhancing effect nor a toxic effect on cysts, whereas ox bile showed a toxic effect on cysts, indicating that the toxic effect on cysts by AIF was due to the bile.

Combined effect of AGF and AIF on excystation and viability of cysts

The effect of AGF and AIF on the number of metacystic amoebae and viable cysts on day 1 of incubation is shown in Fig. 6. Exposure of cysts to AGF and AIF resulted in a significant reduction in the number of viable cysts and little emergence of metacystic amoebae, which was similar to the results of AIF only.

In summary, these results suggest that gastric fluid but not intestinal fluid at 37°C contributes to enhancing excystation for Entamoeba infection.

We thank Dr. N. Watanabe for valuable Acknowledgements discussion, Dr. L.S. Diamond for supplying the E. invadens, and T. Tadano for technical assistance. This work was supported by a Grantin-Aid for Scientific Research from the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports and Technology of Japan and by a Health Science Research Grant for Research on Emerging and Re-emerging Infectious Diseases from the Ministry of Health, Labor and Welfare of Japan.

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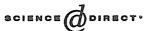
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MOLECULAR & BIOCHEMICAL PARASITOLOGY

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Characterization of protein geranylgeranyltransferase I from the enteric protist *Entamoeba histolytica*☆

Asao Makioka^a, Masahiro Kumagai^a, Tsutomu Takeuchi^b, Tomoyoshi Nozaki^{c,d,*}

^a Department of Tropical Medicine, Jikei University School of Medicine, 3-25-8 Nishi-shinbashi,
Minato-ku, Tokyo 105-8461, Japan

^b Department of Tropical Medicine, and Parasitalogy, Kaio University School of Medicine

^b Department of Tropical Medicine and Parasitology, Keio University School of Medicine, 35 Shinanomachi, Shinjuku-ku, Tokyo 160-8582, Japan

° Department of Parasitology, Gunma University Graduate School of Medicine, 3-39-22 Showa-machi, Maebashi, Gunma 371-8511, Japan ursory Research for Embryonic Science and Technology, Japan Science and Technology Ageny

d Precursory Research for Embryonic Science and Technology, Japan Science and Technology Agency, 2-20-5 Akebonocho, Tachikawa, Tokyo 190-0012, Japan

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Abstract

Entamoeba histolytica is a unique protozoan parasite possessing both protein farnesyltransferase and geranylgeranyltrasferase I (GGT-I) for isoprenylation of small GTPases. In this study, we demonstrated unique enzymological properties of the amebic GGT-I (EhGGT-I), including substrate specificity and insensitivity to known mammalian inhibitors. Some of important residues of the catalytic β subunit implicated in the specificity for GTPase acceptors and prenyl donors are substituted in EhGGT-I. Recombinant α and β subunits of EhGGT-I, co-expressed in Escherichia coli, showed activity to transfer geranylgeranyl to both human wild-type (CVLS) and mutant (CVLL) H-Ras, while the mammalian GGT-I geranylgeranylated, but not farnesylated, only mutant H-Ras. All the representative amebic Ras and Rho/Rac small GTPases with phenylalanine, leucine, methionine, or alanine terminus were preferentially geranylgeranylated by EhGGT-I. This indicates that the acceptor specificity of the amebic GGT-I is remarkably broader than that of its mammalian counterpart. In contrast to EhFT, which farnesylates but not geranylgeranylates solely EhRas4-CVVA, EhGGT-I also showed significant farnesyltransferase activity against Ras GTPase acceptors. EhGGT-I showed remarkable resistance to peptidomimetics known to inhibit mammalian GGT-I. Together with our previous observation that this parasite does not appear to depend on farnesylation for a majority of Ras and Rho/Rac, these data indicate that biological and biochemical advantages leading to the evolutional selection of this isoprenyl modification must exist uniquely in this parasitic protist. Finally, remarkable biochemical differences in binding to substrates and inhibitors between amebic and mammalian GGT-I highlight this enzyme as an attractive target for the development of new chemotherapeutics against amebiasis.

Keywords: Entamoeba histolytica; Protein prenylation; Protein geranylgeranyltransferase I; Protein farnesyltransferase; Ras superfamily small GTPases

1. Introduction

Protein geranylgeranyltransferase type I (GGT-I; E.C. 2.5.1.59) and a closely related protein, farnesyltransferase (FT), are prenyl enzymes responsible for geranylgeranylation and farnesylation, respectively, which are major posttranslational lipid modifications of proteins including small GTPases of the Ras superfamily [1]. The isoprenylation of small GTPases is required for membrane association and their function in signal transduction involved in cell proliferation, differentiation and intracellular membrane trafficking [1–3]. GGT-I and FT, which are also called as CaaX prenyltransferases [4], catalyze

Abbreviations: GGT-I, protein geranylgeranyltrasferase I; EhGGT-I, Entamoeba histolytica GGT-I; FT, protein farnesyltransferase; GGPP, geranylgeranyl pyrophosphate; FPP, farnesyl pyrophosphate; GGT-I α , α subunit of GGT-I; GGT-I β , β subunit of GGT-I; SDS-PAGE, sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis; NTA, Ni-nitrilotriacetic acid

^{*} Note: The nucleotide sequence data of Entamoeba histolytica GGT-Iβ reported in this paper has been submitted to the DDBJ/GenBank*/EBI data bank with Accession number AB161971.

^{*} Corresponding author. Tel.: +81 27 220 8020; fax: +81 27 220 8025. E-mail address: nozaki@med.gunma-u.ac.jp (T. Nozaki).

the transfer of the geranylgeranyl and farnesyl group from geranylgeranyl pyrophosphate (GGPP) and farnesyl pyrophosphate (FPP), respectively, to the cysteine residue of a carboxylterminal CaaX of small GTPases including Ras, Rac, Rho, and Rap, where C, a, or X is cysteine, an aliphatic amino acid, or any amino acid, respectively. Mammalian FT or GGT-I generally prefers substrates including small GTPases possessing a terminal CaaX, where X is one of the following amino acids: Cys, Ser, Gln, Ala, Met, Thr, His, Val, Asn, Phe, Gly, or Ile for FT and Leu, Phe, Ile, Val, or Met for GGT-I in the order of decreasing affinity [5]. However, exceptions have been described in various organisms: e.g. K-RasB-CVIM is isoprenylated by both FT and GGT-I [6]. These data suggest the presence of not-yet-identified mechanistic details determining the substrate preferences of these isoprenyl enzymes. The third enzyme, GGT-II, transfers the geranylgeranyl groups from GGPP to both cysteine residues of CC- or CXC-containing proteins almost exclusively composed of members of the Rab family small GTPases [1].

Mutations in Ras, which correlate with cellular transformation and tumor development, have been found in nearly 30% of all human cancers [7]. Oncogenic Ras proteins have been shown to require farnesylation for their ability to transform cells [1]. Consequently, FT has been attracting attention as a target of cancer chemotherapy [8]. FT inhibitors have also been found to be effective against parasitic infections such as African sleeping sickness caused by *Trypanosoma brucei* and malaria caused by *Plasmodia* species [9]. Although GGT-I has drawn less attention than FT, GGT-I inhibitors are also viewed as potential anticancer agents because K-RasB, the most commonly mutated form of Ras, has often been shown to be geranylgeranylated as well as farnesylated [6]. Furthermore, a number of studies have shown that GGT-I inhibitors are effective against tumor progression [10] and smooth muscle hyperplasia [11].

Entamoeba histolytica is the intestinal protozoan parasite that causes amebic dysentery, colitis, and liver abscess in humans, and is responsible for an estimated 50 million cases of amebiasis and 40-100 thousand deaths annually [12]. A number of small GTPases of this parasite have been studied including Ras/Rap [13,14], Rho/Rac [15-19], and Rab [20-23], and the molecular and cellular functions of some of these small GTPases are beginning to be unveiled [13,18,19,23-25]. To elucidate the prenylation of these small GTPases in E. histolytica, we previously cloned genes encoding the $\alpha\text{-}$ and $\beta\text{-}subunits$ of FT of this parasite and characterized the FT recombinant enzyme, which revealed remarkable biochemical differences in binding to substrates and inhibitors from mammalian FT [26]. We showed that the amebic FT did not utilize a majority of Ras and Rap as a substrate, but specifically farnesylated only a single Ras isotype, Ras4, which possesses an unusual primary structure. However, the molecular and biochemical identity of an enzyme (or enzymes) responsible for the isoprenylation of the remaining Ras and Rap proteins in this organism remains unknown.

To better understand the peculiarity of substrate selection of isoprenylation enzymes in this parasitic protozoon, we characterized GGT-I from *E. histolytica* (*Eh*GGT-I) in this study. We show that *Eh*GGT-I exhibits activity against a wide spectrum of small GTPases of *E. histolytica*, which is in marked contrast to

EhFT. We also show remarkable differences in substrate specificity and sensitivity against known peptidomimetic inhibitors of mammalian GGT-I between EhGGT-I and rat GGT-I, indicating amebic GGT-I to be an ideal target for the development of new chemotherapeutics against amebiasis.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Parasite

Trophozoites of *E. histolytica* strain HM:IMSS cl6 [27] were cultured axenically in BI-S-33 medium at 35.5 °C [28].

2.2. Chemicals

Recombinant rat GGT-I, recombinant human H-Ras-CVLS (wild type), H-Ras-CVLL (mutant), and peptidomimetic inhibitors GGTI-287 (N-4-[2 (R)-amino-3-mercatopropyl] amino-2-phenylbenzoyl-(L)-leucine trifluoroacetate) GGTI-297 (N-4-[2(R)-amino-3-mercatopropyl]amino-2-naphthylbenzoyl-(L)-leucine trifluoroacetate) were purchased from EMD Biosciences (La Jolla, CA). [3H] geranylgeranyl pyrophosphate (23.0 Ci/mmol) and [3H] farnesyl pyrophosphate (16.1 Ci/mmol) were purchased from Perkin-Elmer Life Sciences (Boston, MA). Restriction endonucleases and modifying enzymes were purchased from Takara Biochemical (Tokyo, Japan). The other chemicals and reagents were purchased from either Sigma-Aldrich Fine Chemicals (St. Louis, MO) or Wako Pure Chemical Industries (Osaka, Japan) unless otherwise mentioned and were of the highest purity available.

2.3. cDNA library of E. histolytica

A trophozoite cDNA library of *E. histolytica* was constructed using the poly(A)⁺ RNA and λ ZAP II phage (Stratagene, La Jolla, CA) as described previously [29].

2.4. Identification and cloning of GGT-I\beta of E. histolytica

We designed oligonucleotide primers to amplify the proteincoding region of the GGT-I β subunit from E. histolytica by PCR based on a homology search using yeast and mammalian GGT-I against the E. histolytica genome database available at The Institute for Genomic Research (http://www.tigr.org/tdb/). The sense and antisense primers for EhGGT-Iβ were 5'-ATG-AATGCACCTAATTTAAGAAGTGAAG-3' and 5'-TCAAA-GATATGATGGTTTTTCAATTCC-3', respectively. PCR was performed using a one-hundredth volume of the cDNA phage lysate as a template with the following parameters. The initial step of denaturation at 94 °C for 3 min was followed by 30 cycles of denaturation at 94 °C for 1 min, annealing at 55 °C for 2 min, and extension at 72°C for 2 min. The final step at 72°C for 10 min was added to complete the extension. The amplified DNA fragments were electrophoresed, purified using a Geneclean II kit (BIO101, La Jolla, CA) and used as templates for subsequent PCR (see below). Since FT and GGT-I share their α subunit in all the organisms so far analyzed, we utilized the α subunit of

51)

E. histolytica FT [26] as the GGT-I α subunit. Thus, the term "GGT-I α subunit" is synonymous with "FT α subunit" in this study. The nucleotide sequences reported in this paper have been submitted to the DDBJ/GenBankTM/EBI Data Bank with accession number AB161971 (GGT-I β of E. histolytica).

2.5. Construction of a plasmid to express recombinant EhGGT-I

A plasmid containing the protein-coding regions of GGT-Ia (without the stop codon), GGT-IB (with the stop codon), and the ribosome-binding sequence (GAGGAGTTTTAACTT) between them was constructed by three rounds of PCR [30,31]. Briefly, a set of initial-round PCRs were conducted to amplify the GGT-I α and GGT-I β protein-coding region using a sense primer, 5'-ATGGAAGAAGACGAAGAAATCACATTTG-3', and an antisense primer, 5'-ATGATTAGTAATTTTTGTTAAATACC-AATCCC-3' (for GGT-Ia), and using a sense primer, 5'-ATGAATGCACCTAATTTAAGAAGTGAAG-3', and an antisense primer, 5'-TCAAAGATATGATGGTTTTTCAATTCC-3' (for GGT-Iβ), respectively. The second PCR was conducted using the respective product of the first reaction as a template. To amplify the GGT-Iα protein-coding region (excluding the stop codon) flanked by a BamHI site (italicized) and the ribosome-binding site (underlined), a sense primer, 5'-GGA-GGATCCCATGGAAGAAGAAGAAATCACATTTG-3' (primer 1) and an antisense primer, 5'-AAGTTAAAACTCCTC-ATGATTAGTAATTTTTGTTAAATACCAATCCC-3' were used. To amplify the GGT-IB sequence including the stop codon, flanked by the ribosome-binding site (underlined) and a HindIII site (italicized), a sense primer, 5'-GAGGAGTTTTAACTT-ATGAATGCACCTAATTTAAGAAGTGAAG-3', and an antisense primer, 5'-CCAAAGCTTTCAAAGATATGATGGTTT-TTCAATTCC-3' (primer 2), were used. The third round of PCR was conduced using a mixture of the products of the second round, and primers 1 and 2. The resulting 2-kb PCR product was digested with BamHI and HindIII and ligated into BamHI, and HindIII double-digested pQE31 (QIAGEN, Hilden, Germany) to construct pEhGGT-Iαβ. Nucleotide sequences were confirmed with an ABI Prism BigDye terminator cycle sequencing ready reaction kit (PE Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA) on an ABI Prism 310 Genetic Analyzer. In pEhGGT-Iαβ, the GGT-Iα and GGT-Iβ protein-coding regions placed in tandem were presumably translationally coupled, facilitating the co-expression of these two subunits at similar levels. An amino-terminal histidine tag was also engineered in pEhGGT-Iα to facilitate purification.

2.6. Construction of plasmids to express recombinant small GTPases

Construction of plasmids for *Eh*Rasl-4 and *Eh*RacC were previously described [26]. Similarly, a protein-coding region of *Eh*RacA, *Eh*RacG, and *Eh*Rapl-2 flanked by additional *Bam*HI and *Sal*I sites (italicized) were amplified by PCR using cDNA as a template and the following sense and antisense primers: 5'-GGAGGATCCCATGCAAGCTGTCAAATGTGT-3' and 5'-

CCAGTCGACTTAGAATAATAAACATCCTCT-3' (EhRacA); 5'-GGAGGATCCCATGAGACCAGTGAAACTTGT-3' and 5'-CCAGTCGACTTAGAATAATGAGCATCCTTT-3' (EhRacG); 5'-GGAGGATCCCATGCCAGTAAAAGACTATAAAATTGT-AGTA-3' and 5'-CCAGTCGACTTAGAGAAGAGAACAA-TGATGAGCATGATC-3' (EhRapl); 5'-GGAGGATCCCATG-CCAGTGAAAGACTACAAAATTGTAGTA-3' and 5'-CCAGTCGACTTAGAAGAGAGAACATCCACCACTCTTCTT-3' (EhRap2), where the restriction sites are italicized. PCR products were electrophoresed, purified, and cloned into BamHI, and SalI double-digested pQE31 plasmid to obtain pEhRacA, pEhRacG, pEhRapl and pEhRap2. The resulting plasmids were designed to express proteins containing an amino-terminal histidine tag to facilitate purification.

2.7. Expression and purification of recombinant proteins

Plasmids constructed as described above were introduced into Escherichia coli M15 cells. A 12 ml seed culture was grown overnight at 37 °C in LB medium containing 100 µg/ml ampicillin and 25 µg/ml kanamycin. The overnight culture was then inoculated into 250 ml of fresh medium containing the antibiotics. The bacteria were grown for 1 h, and then for another 4 h after the addition of 1 mM isopropyl β-D-thiogalactopyranoside to induce protein expression. The bacteria were harvested by centrifugation at $4000 \times g$ for 20 min, and the pellet was stored at -20 °C until purification. The recombinant proteins were purified according to the manufacturers' instructions. Briefly, the bacterial cells were resuspended in cold lysis buffer, phosphatebuffered saline (PBS), pH 8.0, containing 10 mM imidazole and 1% lysozyme, sonicated, and centrifuged at $10,000 \times g$ for 20 min. The supernatant was applied to a Ni-NTA agarose column (QIAGEN), washed extensively with the wash buffer containing 20 mM imidazole, and eluted with the lysis buffer containing 250 mM imidazole. The purified recombinant GGT-I and small GTPase proteins were then dialyzed against the enzyme assay buffer described below and 40 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8, containing 90 mM NaCl, 10 mM MgCl₂ and 2 mM dithiothreitol (DTT) and stored with 20 and 50% glycerol, respectively, at -80 °C until use. After purification, recombinant EhGGT-I was estimated to be >95\% pure by densitometric quantitation. Protein concentrations were determined by the method of Bradford [32] using Protein Assay CBB solution (Nacalai Tesque, Kyoto, Japan). Bovine serum albumin was used as the protein standard.

2.8. Sequence analysis

GGT-Iβ and FTβ protein sequences from *E. histolytica* and 16 other organisms were retrieved from the databases available at TIGR and the National Center for Biotechnology Information (http://www.ncbi.nih.gov/) using the BLASTP and TBLASTN algorithms. The protein alignment and phylogenetic analyses were performed with CLUSTAL W version 1.81 [33] using the Neighbor-joining (NJ) method [34] with the Blosum matrix created using the CLUSTAL W program [33]. Unrooted NJ trees

were drawn with TreeView version 1.6.0 [35]. Branch lengths

and bootstrap values (1000 replicates) [36] were derived from the NJ analysis.

2.9. Protein analyses

The expression and purity of recombinant proteins were evaluated by standard sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) as described [37]. To prepare $E.\ histolytica$ extracts, trophozoites were washed three times with ice cold PBS, resuspended at $10^7\ ml^{-1}$ in PBS containing a proteinase inhibitor cocktail [1 mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride, 1 nM trypsin inhibitor, $100\ \mu M$ trans-epoxysuccinyl-L-leucylamino-(4-guanidino) butane, $1\ \mu g/ml$ pepstatin A, $1\ \mu g/ml$ leupeptin, $1\ \mu g/ml\ N-\alpha$ -p-tosyl-L-lysine chloromethyl ketone hydrochloride, and 1 mM benzamidine hydrochloride], and subjected to three cycles of freezing and thawing. After centrifugation at $10,000 \times g$ for $10\ min$, the supernatant was subjected to further analyses.

2.10. Immunoblot analysis

SDS-PAGE was conducted using 4 µg each of recombinant EhGGT-I, EhFT, and recombinant rat GGT-I. Polyclonal antiserum against recombinant EhGGT-I was commercially raised in a rabbit by Takara-Bio (Ohtsu, Japan) by four injections of 0.8 mg of the purified recombinant protein with Freund's complete and incomplete adjuvant at 2-week intervals. Two weeks after the last immunization, the immune serum was collected. Immunoblot analysis was performed as described [37] using primary antibodies at 1:100 and peroxidase-conjugated anti-rabbit IgG antibody (ICN-Cappel, Cappel, OH) at 1:1000. The blots were visualized with 4-chloro-l-naphthol and hydrogen peroxide.

2.11. Enzyme assays

The enzymatic activity of recombinant GGT-I and the whole lysate of E. histolytica trophozoites were assayed by measuring the incorporation of [3H] GGPP or [3H] FPP into the recombinant small GTPases of E. histolytica, human H-Ras-CVLL, or H-Ras-CVLS. The assay was performed essentially as described previously [38] with minor modifications. Briefly, in standard assays, the reaction mixture contained, in a total volume of 50 μl, 50 mM HEPES, pH 7.5, 5 mM MgCl₂, 25 μM ZnCl₂, 5 mM DTT, 0.1% PEG 20,000, 130 nM [³H] GGPP (3 μCi/ml) or $187 \, \text{nM}$ [³H] FPP (3 μ Ci/ml), $1.8 \, \mu$ g ($1.8 \, \mu$ M) of the acceptor, and 2.4 µg (0.6 µM) of the purified recombinant GGT-I or 140 µg of the E. histolytica lysate. The reaction was initiated by the addition of either the recombinant enzyme or cell extracts, was run at 30 °C for 20 min, and terminated by the addition of 200 µl of 10% HC1 in ethanol. The quenched reactions were allowed to stand at room temperature for 15 min. After the addition of 200 µl of 100% ethanol, the reactions were vacuumfiltered through a glass filter GF/C (Whatman, Maidstone, UK) using a Sampling Manifold (Millipore Corporation, Bedford, MA). The filters were washed with 4 ml of absolute ethanol, and then subjected to scintillation counting (LS 6000IC, Beckman Coulter, Fullerton, CA). The $K_{\rm m}$ values were calculated from Lineweaver–Burk plots. GGT-I assays were also conducted in the presence of known peptidomimetic inhibitors of GGT-I (GGTI-287 and GGTI-297) under the conditions described above.

3. Results

3.1. Features of GGT-I\beta from E. histolytica

A nucleotide sequence of EhGGT-IB obtained by PCR was identical to the sequence available from the genome database (40.m00215). The predicted protein-coding region of EhGGT-Iβ, consisting of 1014 bp, encodes a protein of 337 amino acids with a calculated molecular mass of 38.2 kDa and a pl of 6.71. A search for previously identified domains and motifs [39] using the NCBI Conserved Domain Search revealed that EhGGT-IB possessed one CAL1 domain and two "prenyltransferase and squalene oxidase repeats" (Fig. 1). The deduced protein sequence of $\mathit{Eh}\mathsf{GGT} ext{-}\mathrm{I}\beta$ was aligned with those of other organisms using the CLUSTAL W program (Fig. 1). EhGGT-Iβ is the smallest in size, and apparently lacks the secretory signal sequence, organelle targeting signals, and domains implicated in membrane association including the transmembrane domain and myristoylation signal. EhGGT-IB revealed a 22-30% positional identity with the GGT-IB of Saccharomyces cerevisiae, Caenorhabditis elegans, Drosophila melanogaster, Homo sapiens, or Arabidopsis thaliana. Among 12 residues implicated in making contact with peptide substrates in mammalian GGT-Iβ [40], four important residues Ala¹²³, Met¹²⁴, Arg²⁰², and Leu³²⁰ in *Hs*GGT-Iβ, were replaced by Ser¹⁰⁷, Tyr¹⁰⁸, Ser¹⁸⁹, and Met³⁰⁴, respectively, in *Eh*GGT-Iβ, (Fig. 1). Furthermore, among 17 residues implicated in making contact with isoprenoid in mammalian GGT-IB [40], five residues, Phe⁵², Thr¹²⁷, Cys¹⁷⁷, Phe³²⁴, and Asn³⁴⁵ of *Hs*GGT-Iβ, were replaced by Met⁴⁷, Ala¹¹¹, Ser¹⁶⁴, Cys³⁰⁸, and Il³²⁹, respectively, in EhGGT-IB (Fig. 1). All three residues implicated in the interaction with zinc in the catalytic center of mammalian GGT-Iß [40] were conserved in EhGGT-Iß.

3.2. Phylogenetic analysis of EhGGT-I\u03b3 and EhFT\u03b3

A phylogenetic tree of GGT-I β and FT β from *E. histolytica* and other organisms was constructed (Fig. 2). The β subunit of GGT-I and FT formed statistically significant (i.e. supported with 100% bootstrap proportion) well-separated clades, suggesting that the separation of GGT-I and FT occurred prior to the separation of these species. The β subunit of amebic GGT-I is divergent from those from all the other organisms including mammals; the overall shapes of these two trees are, however, significantly different. These results indicate that the catalytic β subunits of EhFT and EhGGT-I evolved independently to gain phylogenetic positions well separate from other eukaryotes, consistent with the presence of the unique biochemical properties of EhGGT-I (see below).

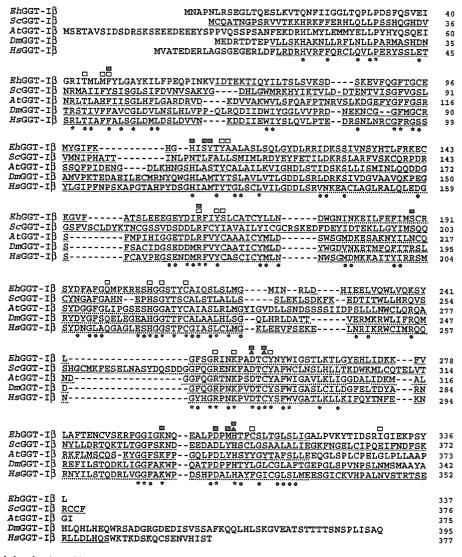


Fig. 1. Alignment of the deduced amino acid sequences of the β subunit of protein geranylgeranyltransferase I from Entamoeba histolytica and other organisms. Eh, E. histolytica; Sc, Saccharomyces cerevisiae; At, Arabidopsis thaliana; Dm, Drosophila melanogaster; Hs, Homo sapiens. The asterisks (*) under the alignments indicate identical amino acid residues and the dots ($\textcircled{\bullet}$) indicate conserved amino acid substitutions. CAL1 domains detected by the NCBI Conserved Domain Search are underlined (partially dotted-underlined). The prenyltransferase/squalene oxidase repeats, also detected by the search, are dotted-underlined. Amino acids implicated in the binding of isoprenoids or peptide substrates [40] are marked with open or filled squares, respectively. Amino acids implicated in the coordination of zinc are marked with filled triangles. DDBJ/EMBL/GeneBankTM accession numbers are given in Fig. 2.

3.3. Demonstration of GGT activity of the recombinant EhGGT-I against human Ras proteins

EhGGT-Iα, identical to the previously characterized EhFTα [26], and EhGGT-Iβ were co-expressed in E. coli, and the complex was co-purified as described in Section 2. The purified complex revealed two major proteins of an equal intensity with an apparent molecular mass of 38 and 36kDa on SDS-PAGE analysis (Fig. 3). Although the apparent molecular mass of the recombinant α subunit agreed well with the theoretical value of 37.6kDa (of the native protein) with the aminoand carboxyl-terminal addition of Met-Arg-Gly-Ser-His-His-His-His-His-Thr-Asp-Pro and Gly-Gly-Phe, respectively,

β subunit of 36 kDa was smaller than the theoretical value of 38.2 kDa for EhGGT-Iβ. The molecular identity of these two subunits was confirmed using immunoblot analysis (see below). Densitometric quantitation of these two bands also supported the premise that they contain an equal number of protein molecules (data not shown). Thus, the recombinant EhGGT-Iα and EhGGT-Iβ were present as a stable complex with a stoichiometric ratio of 1:1 in the process of purification by Ni-nitrilotriacetic acid (NTA) agarose (Fig. 3). A rabbit antiserum raised against the recombinant EhGGT-I reacted with both the α and β subunits of EhGGT-I and the α subunit of EhFT, but neither with the β subunit of EhFT nor rat GGT-I (Fig. 3B and C). These data confirmed the identity of EhGGT-Iα

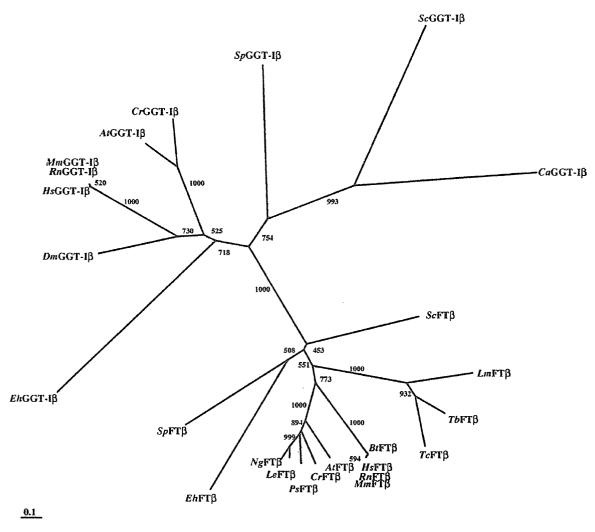


Fig. 2. Phylogenetic tree of the β subunits of GGT-I and FT. The tree was constructed by neighbor-joining distance analysis using the CLUSTAL W and TreeView programs. Line lengths indicate distances between nodes. The bar represents a distance of 0.1 amino acid change per site. Bootstrap values for 1000 replicates are shown at the nodes. Abbreviations are: Eh, E. histolytica (DDBJ/EMBL/GeneBankTM number of FTβ and GGT-Iβ, BAC98942, AB161971); Sc, S. cerevisiae (P22007, P18898); Sp, Schizosaccharomyces pombe (013782, P32434); Tb, Trypanosoma brucei (AAF73920, none); Tc, T. cruzi (AAL69905, none); Lm, Leishmania major (AAL69907, none); At, A. thaliana (AAF74564, NP.81487); Ng, Nicotiana glutinosa (AAB38796, none); Ps, Pisum sativum (Q04903, none); Le, Lycopersicon esculentum (AAC49666, none); Cr, Catharanthus roseus (AAQ02809, AAP50511); Ca, Candida albicans (none, AAD32539); Dm, D. melanogaster (none, AAC46972); Mm, Mus musculus (NP_666039, NP_766215) Rn, Rattus norvegicus (Q02293, P53610); Bt, Bos taurus (P49355, none); Hs, H. sapiens (NP_002019, NP_005014).

and EhGGT-I β to the two corresponding bands on SDS-PAGE. They also suggest that antigenicity differed between the β subunits of EhGGT-I and EhFT and between EhGGT-I and rat GGT-I.

Recombinant EhGGT-I showed comparable GGT activity against both wild-type human recombinant H-Ras-CVLS [1.36 ± 0.028 (mean \pm standard deviation of the mean) nmol GGPP/mg protein] and mutant H-Ras-CVLL (1.65 ± 0.013 nmol GGPP/mg protein), whereas rat GGT-I showed activity of a similar level against H-Ras-CVLL (1.83 ± 0.162), but no detectable activity against H-Ras-CVLS (Fig. 4), suggesting the presence of marked differences in acceptor specificity between E. histolytica and rat GGT-I.

3.4. Specificities of EhGGT-I for acceptors and prenyl donors

We further examined the acceptor (i.e. protein substrate) specificity of EhGGT-I toward amebic small GTPases, EhRas, EhRac, and EhRap. We tested if EhGGT-I utilizes a limited range of substrates among possible small GTPases, as previously demonstrated for EhFT, which showed very strict substrate specificity predominantly against EhRas4-CVVA [26]. The recombinant EhGGT-I showed GGT activity toward all the tested EhRas proteins: EhRas1-CIMF, EhRas2-CELL, EhRas3-CSVM, and EhRas4-CVVA, with EhRas2 being the best substrate (Fig. 4). Notable differences in GGT-I activity exist depending upon the Ras species. For example, GGT-I activity

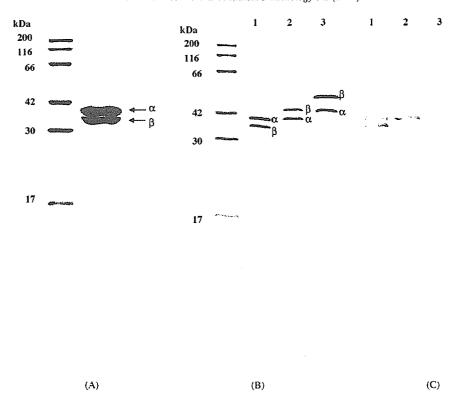


Fig. 3. SDS-PAGE and immunoblot analyses of the purified recombinant GGT-I of E. histotytica. (A) EhGGT-1 α and β subunits were coexpressed in $Escherichia\ coli$ and purified on Ni-NTA agarose. The samples were subjected to SDS-PAGE and stained with Coomassie Brilliant Blue. (B) Approximately 4 μ g each of recombinant EhGGT-I ($Lane\ 1$), EhGT ($Lane\ 2$) and rat GGT-I ($Lane\ 3$) were subjected to SDS-PAGE and stained with Coomassie Brilliant Blue. (C) The same samples in (B) were subjected to SDS-PAGE, transferred, and immunostained with rabbit antiserum against recombinant. EhGGT-I.

toward *Eh*Ras2-CELL was >100 times higher than *Eh*Ras3-CSVM. The recombinant *Eh*GGT-I also transferred geranyl-geranyl to *Eh*RacA-CLLF, *Eh*RacC-CALL, *Eh*RacG-CSLF, *Eh*Rap1-CSLL, and *Eh*Rap2-CSLF (Fig. 4). In contrast, rat GGT-I revealed comparable activity against *Eh*RacA-CLLF, *Eh*RacG-

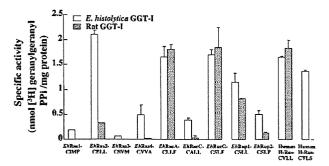


Fig. 4. Protein substrate specificity of recombinant GGT-I of *E. histolytica*. The specific activity of the recombinant *Eh*GGT-I was determined by the incorporation of [³H] geranylgeranyl pyrophosphate into the recombinant *Eh*Ras1-4, *Eh*Rac A, C, G, *Eh*Rapl, 2, wild-type H-Ras-CVLS, and mutant H-Ras-CVLL. The reaction mixture (50 μl) contained 50 mM HEPES, pH 7.5, 5 mM MgCl₂, 25 μM ZnCl₂, 5 mM DTT, 0.1% PEG 20,000, 130 nM [³H] GGPP (3 μCi/ml), 1.8 μg (1.8 μM) of an acceptor, and 2.4 μg (0.6 μM) of the purified recombinant GGT-I. Means ± standard errors of quadruplicates are shown. DDBJ/EMBL/GeneBankTM accession numbers of these proteins are: *Eh*Rasl, AAA21446; *Eh*Ras2, AAA21447; *Eh*Ras3, BAD07406; *Eh*Ras4, BAB07407; *Eh*RacA, Q24814; *Eh*RacC, Q24816; *Eh*RacG, O76321; *Eh*Rapl, AAA214445; *Eh*Rap2, AAA21445; H-Ras-CVLS, P01112.

CSLF; however, rat GGT-I showed almost no detectable activity against the other three *EhRas* proteins and significantly lower activity against *EhRacC-CALL*, *EhRapl-CSLL*, and *EhRap2-CSLF*. We also assayed for GGT activity in the whole lysate of the *E. histolytica* trophozoites. GGT activity (4.9–9.4 pmol GGPP/mg protein) was detected against *EhRas* 1-4 and human H-Ras-CVLL in the whole lysate, verifying the presence of GGT activity against these representative Ras proteins (data not shown).

We examined the specificity of the prenyl donors of *Eh*GGT-I and rat GGT-I. The recombinant *Eh*GGT-I showed farnesyl transferase activity against *Eh*Ras2-CELL and H-Ras-CVLL at about 27% the efficiency of geranylgeranyltransferase. In contrast, rat GGT-I showed significantly lower FT activity against the same acceptors (3.3–6.6% of GGT-I activity) (data not shown).

3.5. Kinetic properties of EhGGT-I

Lineweaver-Burk plots showed the $K_{\rm m}$ of recombinant EhGGT-I for EhRas2 and H-Ras-CVLL to be 0.85 ± 0.11 and $0.2\pm0.01\,\mu{\rm M}$ (plots not shown), respectively. The $K_{\rm m}$ of recombinant rat GGT-I for H-Ras-CVLL was 6 times higher (1.2 $\mu{\rm M}$ [41]), suggesting the higher substrate affinity of the amebic GGT-I toward protein acceptors. EhGGT-I showed a $K_{\rm m}$ of $0.20\pm0.05\,\mu{\rm M}$ for GGPP (using H-Ras-CVLL as a protein substrate), which is four times lower than that of rat GGT-I

(15)

Table 1
Inhibition of recombinant GGT-I from Entamoeba histolytica and rat by peptidomimetics

Inhibitors	IC ₅₀ (µM)			
	E. histolytica GGT-I		Rat GGT-I	
	EhRas2-CELL	H-Ras-CVLL	EhRas2-CELL	H-Ras-CVLL
GGTI-287 GGTI-297	5.5 ± 1.8 3.2 ± 0.4	25.3 ± 7.6 2.1 ± 0.3	0.063 ± 0.004 0.033 ± 0.004	0.049 ± 0.02 0.257 ± 0.03

The reaction mixture contained, in a total volume of 50 μ l, 50 mM HEPES, pH 7.5, 5 mM MgCl₂, 25 μ M ZnCl₂, 5 mM DTT, 0.1% PEG 20,000, 130 nM [³H] GGPP (3 μ Ci/ml), 1.8 μ g (1.8 μ M) of the acceptor, and 2.4 μ g (0.6 μ M) of the recombinant GGT-L IC₅₀ of each peptidomimetics was determined by measuring specific activities with a range of 0.01–100 μ M of the compounds.

 $(0.81\pm0.27\,\mu\text{M})$. EhGGT-I also showed a higher affinity for FPP than rat GGT-I; the K_m of EhGGT-I or rat GGT-I for FPP using H-Ras-CVLL was 29.8 ± 3.7 or $>400\,\text{nM}$, respectively.

3.6. Sensitivity of recombinant EhGGT-I to inhibitors of mammalian GGT-I

We examined the sensitivity of *EhGGT-I* to known peptidomimetic GGT-I inhibitors. As shown in Table 1, *EhGGT-I* was eight and 516 times more resistant to GGTI-287 than rat GGT-I when recombinant *EhRas2-CELL* and H-Ras-CVLL were used as substrates, respectively. *EhGGT-I* was also 97 and eight times less sensitive to GGTI-297 than rat GGT-I, respectively.

4. Discussion

In this study, we demonstrated marked biochemical differences in the major prenyl enzyme responsible for the lipid modification of Ras and Rho/Rac small GTPases between the enteric protozoan parasite and its mammalian host. This study represents the first biochemical characterization of GGT-I from unicellular protozoa. Our genome-wide search of a GGT-I β gene among parasitic protozoa, together with the previous report on the lack of GGT-I activity in kinetoplastids [9], indicates that all protozoan parasites except for E. histolytica where the genome database is available lack GGT-I, reinforcing the peculiarity of E. histolytica, which possesses both FT and GGT-I. This apparent redundancy of the isoprenylation pathways may be associated with unique features of functions and regulations of Ras/Rap and Rho/Rac proteins through unusual lipid modifications in this parasite. It is totally unknown why E. histolytica mainly utilizes GGT-I for lipid modification of a majority of Ras/Rap and Rho/Rac and employs FT for isoprenylation of a very limited subset of Ras isotypes (solely EhRas4), while the other parasitic protists possess only FT and are likely to have lost GGT-I during parasitic or non-parasitic evolution.

Phylogenetic analyses indicate that EhGGT-I β , as well as EhGGT-I α (EhFT α) in our previous study [26], is only distantly associated with homologues from other organisms. This may partially explain why the unique biochemical properties of the amebic GGT-I that are not shared by its mammalian counterpart

exist (see below). Our previous study suggested that α and β subunits of FT co-evolved at a comparable rate among organisms because the phylogenetic trees of the two FT subunits were almost identical [26]. However, the phylogenetic relationship of the β subunit of GGT-I is apparently distinct from that of α and β subunits of FT, refuting a hypothesis of the co-evolution of these two isoprenylation enzymes (Fig. 2).

The results of the GTPase substrate specificity of EhGGT-I indicate that the Ras, Rac, and Rap proteins possessing CaaL, CaaF, CaaM, CaaA, or CaaS at the carboxyl terminus, either from E. histolytica or humans, can serve as acceptors for EhGGT-I. Thus, the amebic GGT-I utilizes a broad range of small GTPases for geranylgeranylation. This is in striking contrast to the farnesylation of small GTPases by EhFT, which showed an extremely limited substrate range; only EhRas4 can serve as a farnesyl acceptor. Our database analysis showed that E. histolytica Ras/Rap, Rho/Rac, and Rab with the CaaX terminus possess terminal Leu (42%), Phe (32%), Val (13%), Cys/Met (4% each), or Ala/Ser/Ile (2% each) (data not shown). In mammals, small GTPases with Leu and Val are exclusively geranylgeranylated by GGT-I, and those with Met, Gln, Ser, Ala, Thr, or Cys (in the order of frequency) are solely farnesylated by FT, while those with Phe are modified by both enzymes [42]. In contrast to the amebic GGT-I, mammalian GGT-I does not geranylgeranylate small GTPases with terminals Ala and Ser. Thus, the unique geranylgeranlylation of these small GTPases possessing terminal Ala or Ser in the ameba may confer a unique role to these GTPases. E. histolytica small GTPases with the CaaX terminus shows deviation toward Phe at the X position as shown above. However, amebic FT cannot utilize small GTPases terminating with Phe [26]. Taken together, this enteric protozoon strongly relies on GGT-I. It is conceivable that there are biological selections toward the current predominant utilization of GGT-I in this organism. For instance, since the farnesylation of CENP-E, a centromere-associated protein playing a critical role in cell cycle progression in mammals [43], is not present in E. histolytica, its modifying enzyme is not required because the isoprenylation of most of small GTPases, except for EhRas4, is accomplished by GGT-I and GGT-II (Rab GGT, Kumagai, M., Makioka, A., Takeuchi, T. and Nozaki, T., unpublished).

A comparison of ternary complexes of mammalian GGT-I and FT revealed that acceptor specificity is partially determined by surface complementarity between the X residue and the "specificity pocket," to which the side chain of the X residue binds [40]. For instance, the hydrophobic "specificity pocket" discriminates against polar side chains. In addition, the shape and volume of the "specificity pocket" further restrict the range of amino acids most preferably to Leu for GGT-I [40]. However, this preference for Leu was not observed for EhGGT-I. It is intriguing that while the amebic GGT-I prefers EhRas2-CELL to the other three isotypes of EhRas possessing Phe, Met, or Ala at the carboxyl terminus (4-33 times in specific activity), it showed an opposite preference for Rac with carboxyl-terminal Phe (EhRacA and EhRacG) over Leu (EhRacC). This observed discrepancy on the acceptor preference of the amebic GGT-I is not artifactual since FT revealed a reverse preference (i.e. approximately eight times higher activity against EhRasl than EhRas2; [26]). These data suggest that the acceptor specificity of the amebic GGT-I is strongly influenced by neighboring residues of GGT-I other than the carboxyl terminus or tertial structure of small GTPases, which is remarkably different from mammalian GGT-I [42]. The data also indicate that the interaction between the surface of GGT-I and the upstream hyper variable region of small GTPases may differ between ameba and mammals. Although the carboxyl terminus of both EhRasl and EhRas2 is highly charged (the 17-a.a. carboxyl-terminal region contain nine or seven positively-charged and three or two negativelycharged amino acids in EhRasl or EhRas2, respectively), the total polarity of the carboxyl terminus of EhRasl is significantly higher than EhRas2. These changes may produce steric differences that lead to changes in substrate specificity. Note that the four substitutions among 12 residues implicated to bind a peptide substrate in mammalian GGT-IB [40] (Ala¹²³ to Ser¹⁰⁷, Met¹²⁴ to Tyr¹⁰⁸, Arg²⁰² to Ser¹⁸⁹, and Leu³²⁰ to Met³⁰⁴) in EhGGT-IB result in the emergence of two hydroxyl-containing residues and the loss of one positive amino acid. The tertial structure of mammalian GGT-I revealed that Ala¹²³ and Met¹²⁴ in mammalian GGT-I do not directly interact with X residue of the protein substrate [42], but position close to the X residue. It is conceivable that substituting these amino acids with hydroxyl-containing Ser and aromatic Tyr, respectively, significantly influences the shape and charge of the end of the protein substrate-binding pocket, which likely results in the wider specificity of the amebic GGT-I for protein substrates.

EhGGT-I also utilizes a wider range of isoprenyl donors. EhGGT-I showed four to nine times higher farnesyltransferase activity than rat GGT-I. Five out of 17 residues implicated in the binding of isoprenoid in mammalian GGT-IB [40] are substituted in $\textit{Eh}\text{GGT-I}\beta$ (Fig. 1). Among these five substitutions (Phe⁵² to Met⁴⁷, Thr¹²⁷ to Ala¹¹¹, Cys¹⁷⁷ to Ser¹⁶⁴, Phe³²⁴ to Cys³⁰⁸, and Asn³⁴⁵ to Ile³²⁹) in *Eh*GGT-I β , Phe³²⁴ to Cys³⁰⁸ is worth noting. Phe³²⁴ of rat GGT-IB is in close proximity to the end of the C20 geranylgeranyl chain and is partially responsible, together with Thr⁴⁹ (also conserved in EhGGT-IB), for allowing rat GGT-I to accommodate GGPP in the catalytic pocket [40]. It is conceivable that Phe³²⁴ to Cys³⁰⁸ substitution creates additional water-mediated or non-mediated hydrogen bonds with neighboring residues, which result in the ability of EhGGT-Iβ to utilize FPP as well as GGPP. This substitution may also influence the stability of the enzyme-product complex and the binding of fresh isoprenoid diphosphate to displace the prenylpeptide product from the active site during the reaction cycle, as shown for rat GGT-I [40].

The amebic GGT-I revealed notable resistance to peptidomimetics known to inhibit mammalian GGT-I (Table 1). This apparent insensitivity of the amebic GGT-I to the inhibitors is not due to the impurity of our preparations since mixing our recombinant GGT-I with rat GGT-I did not influence the inhibition of rat GGT-I by these peptidemimetics. In addition, both amebic and rat GGT-I revealed comparable sensitivity against a GGPP derivative, 3-aza-2,3-dihydro-la-homo-GGPP (kindly donated by Prof. R.M. Coates, University of Illinois) (IC₅₀, approximately 4–10 μ M), confirming the observed insensitivity of *Eh*GGT-I against GGTI-287 and GGTI-297. GGTI-287 and

GGTI-297 are CaaL peptidomimetics, where reduced C is linked to Leu by 2-phenyl-4-aminobenzoic acid or by 2-naphthyl-4-aminobenzoic acid [44–46]. It is puzzling why the amebic GGT-I is insensitive to these CaaL peptidomimetics because *Eh*GGT-I shows wide donor specificity as discussed above.

Together with our previous study [26], this study indicates that most small GTPases with the CaaX motif from *E. histolytica* are geranylgeranylated or farnesylated by GGT-I, but not farnesylated by FT, which significantly differs from mammals where Ras and Rho/Rac proteins with CaaX are either farnesylated by FT or geranylgeranylated by GGT-I at a comparable frequency [42]. Thus, GGT-I is biologically and physiologically very important for *E. histolytica*, making *Eh*GGT-I an attractive, rational target for the development of new chemotherapeutics against amebiasis.

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