

Chemical Proteomics Reveal the Inventory of Pyrroloquinoline Quinone Binding Proteins in Bacteria

Tao Wang, Rahel Mühlhofer, E Lei, Wei Ding, Andreas S. Klein, Cathleen Zeymer,* and Stephan A. Sieber*

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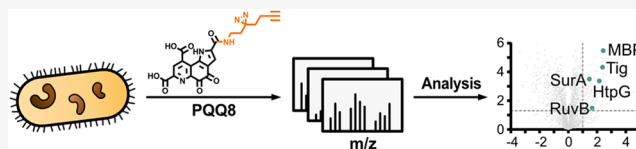
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ABSTRACT: Pyrroloquinoline quinone (PQQ) is a bacterial redox cofactor enabling enzyme catalysis in various sugar and alcohol dehydrogenases. However, its proposed additional role as a “longevity vitamin” lacks a clear molecular basis and is thus highly debated. Here, we applied chemical proteomics to identify previously unknown classes of PQQ-binding proteins. We designed and synthesized a structurally diverse suite of five PQQ probes equipped with a diazirine photo-cross-linker and an alkyne handle for target identification. The fidelity of the probes was first evaluated for two well-characterized bacterial PQQ-dependent enzymes, demonstrating not only probe binding but also the reconstitution of catalytic activity. We then commenced with proteome profiling of *Escherichia coli* and *Pseudomonas putida* cells and unraveled a distinct set of putative PQQ-binding proteins. Recombinant expression of selected hits, including several chaperones, validated PQQ binding. Notably, in some cases, PQQ even formed covalent adducts with selected lysine residues, for instance, in the AAA+ ATPase RuvB involved in DNA remodeling. Overall, our work highlights the utility of PQQ probes to further unravel the complement of cofactor-binding proteins in whole cells. It also provides a basis for future mechanistic studies of PQQ functions beyond redox catalysis.



INTRODUCTION

Cofactors play a crucial role in enzyme catalysis and thereby support essential cellular processes such as metabolism, energy supply, and detoxification.^{1,2} They comprise inorganic metal ions, as well as organic molecules often derived from vitamins or essential nutrients. While the first cofactors, including nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NAD⁺)³ and heme,⁴ were identified more than 100 years ago, one of the latest discoveries was pyrroloquinoline quinone (PQQ, Figure 1A),⁵ structurally characterized in the late 1970s.^{6,7} PQQ-dependent enzymes^{8–13} have been predominantly identified in bacteria, where PQQ complements nicotinamide and flavin-based redox cofactors and is utilized by periplasmic alcohol and sugar dehydrogenases. Most PQQ-producing bacteria are proteobacteria, which biosynthesize the cofactor from a ribosomally derived peptide.^{13–15} Other bacteria, such as *E. coli*,¹⁶ are unable to synthesize PQQ, but express proteins for PQQ uptake from the environment into their periplasm to ensure a sufficient cofactor supply.^{17,18}

Crystal structures of PQQ enzymes^{19–21} reveal a characteristic β -propeller fold, often also comprising a conserved disulfide bond above the cofactor binding site. Another hallmark of these structures is an essential metal ion,^{22–24} either Ca²⁺ or a trivalent lanthanide ion,^{23,25,26} which is coordinated by PQQ together with Asn, Asp, and Glu side chains or backbone carbonyl groups of the enzyme. In addition to its structural role for binding PQQ in the active site, the metal ion acts as a Lewis acid, enhancing the electrophilicity of PQQ's C₅ position. Two possible mechanisms

of catalysis have been postulated,^{27,28} involving either hydride transfer or hemiketal formation at C₅. After substrate oxidation, the fully reduced cofactor PQQH₂ must be reoxidized to close the catalytic cycle (Figure 1B). This happens stepwise via the formation of the semiquinone radical PQQH[•].^{29,30} Recent structural and biochemical insights indicate that the conserved disulfide bond may assist in this process.³¹ Furthermore, the electrophilic C₅ has been shown to engage in direct adduct formation with nucleophiles such as amines.^{32–35} This led us to hypothesize that PQQ may have more, so far unknown and potentially covalent, protein binding partners in the proteome.

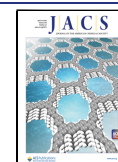
Two PQQ-dependent enzymes are known in *E. coli*, the membrane-bound glucose dehydrogenase Gcd³⁶ and the periplasmic soluble aldose sugar dehydrogenase YliI.³⁷ While Gcd oxidizes glucose to gluconolactone to feed electrons into the respiratory chain, YliI exhibits a broader sugar substrate specificity.^{17,37} Another soluble and well-characterized quinoprotein is the alcohol dehydrogenase PedH from the PQQ-producing organism *P. putida*.³⁸ This periplasmic enzyme is involved in metabolizing volatile alcohols,³⁹ but has also been engineered to accept and oxidize larger substrates.⁴⁰ Interest-

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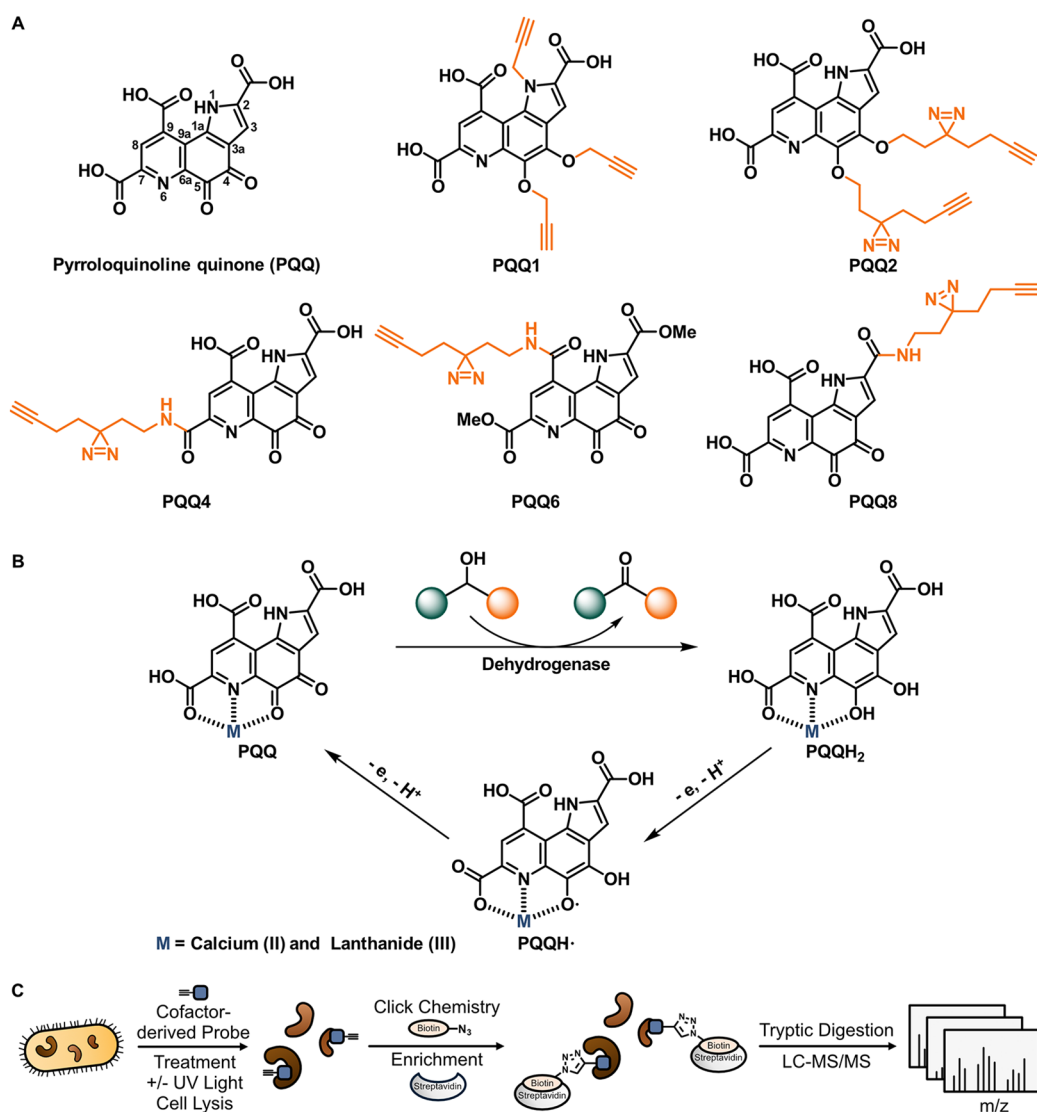


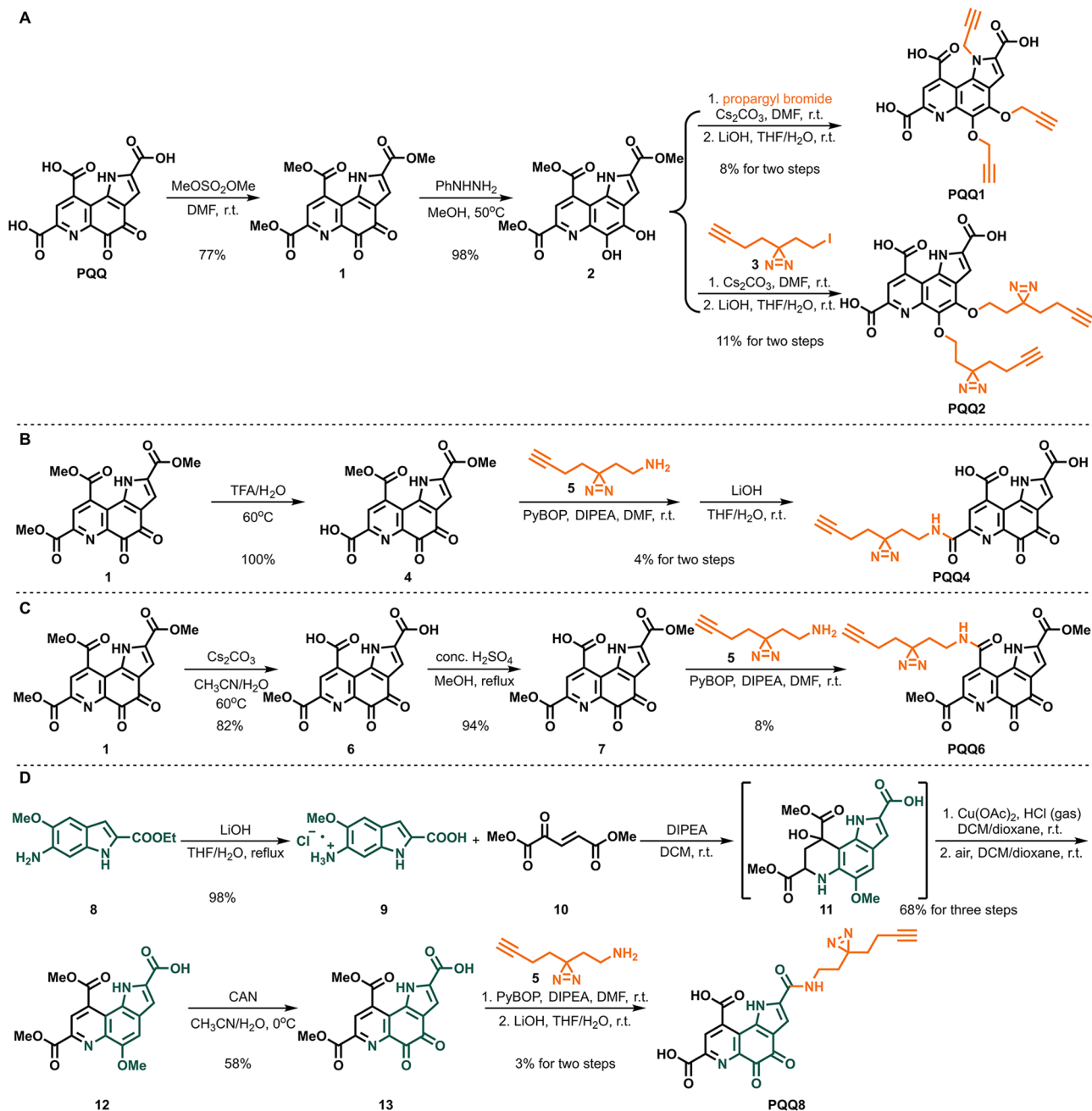
Figure 1. Redox cofactor PQQ: structure, function, and chemoproteomic profiling strategy. (A) Structures of PQQ and representative PQQ-derived probes for chemical proteomics. (B) Redox states of PQQ in the catalytic cycle of alcohol and sugar dehydrogenases. (C) Affinity-based protein profiling (AfBPP)⁵³ workflow. Intact living cells are treated with cofactor-derived probes, followed by UV irradiation, cell lysis, click reaction with biotin azide, enrichment of cofactor-binding proteins on streptavidin beads, digestion by trypsin, and finally analysis by mass spectrometry.

ingly, its active site selectively coordinates a lanthanide instead of a calcium ion for catalytic activity.³⁸ PQQ-dependent dehydrogenases, including YliI and PedH, have recently been repurposed as photoenzymes, promoting enantioselective radical cyclizations upon visible-light irradiation.⁴¹ This supports the hypothesis that PQQ may have further, yet undiscovered, functions in catalysis and beyond.

Despite the knowledge of PQQ biosynthesis, uptake, and redox enzyme function in bacteria, there is only limited understanding of the full inventory of proteins binding to or utilizing the PQQ cofactor.^{42,43} Without such a comprehensive and molecular-level basis, many of PQQ's additionally proposed functions as radical scavenger and antioxidant, cellular stress mediator, or even "longevity vitamin" remain enigmatic and thus highly debated.^{44–46} We recently introduced chemoproteomic cofactor profiling as a method to mine cellular proteomes for cofactor-dependent enzymes (Figure 1C). The cofactors pyridoxal phosphate,^{47–49} heme,^{50,51} and lipoic acid⁵² were modified with an alkyne handle, incubated with living cells, followed by cell lysis. Proteomes were clicked to biotin azide for

the enrichment of labeled proteins on avidin beads, followed by tryptic digestion. Mass spectrometric analysis (MS) revealed known members of the respective cofactor-dependent enzyme classes but also several proteins of uncharacterized function. In-depth studies of these enigmatic enzymes led to new insights into their cellular function. Here, we envision a similar approach for PQQ.

We synthesized a set of PQQ probes and benchmarked them using YliI and PedH. Several probes showed binding to these known PQQ-dependent enzymes, and some even reconstituted their catalysis, highlighting the success of the complementary probe design. Labeling in intact *E. coli* as well as *P. putida* cells followed by MS-based target identification revealed a panel of putative quinoproteins. Overall, our results suggest that the quinoproteome is larger than was previously anticipated.

Scheme 1. Synthesis of PQQ Probes^a

^aFor details on Regents and Conditions, see the [Supporting Information](#).

RESULTS

Design and Synthesis of PQQ Probes

An important starting point for this project was the development of different PQQ probes to address a variety of structurally diverse PQQ-binding pockets. Probe design was guided by synthetic accessibility and the known binding modes of the cofactor based on crystal structures of dehydrogenases,²⁴ which allowed us to identify suitable sites for the incorporation of a chemical tag. Based on the crucial contacts of PQQ with the enzyme pocket via its carboxylic acid groups (at position C₂ and C₉) and the N₆ nitrogen, carbonyl C₅, and carboxylate at C₇ being essential for metal coordination, the selection of anchoring points was not trivial (Figure 1A). Double as well as triple

modifications were realized with the diazirine alkyne (PQQ2) or the pure alkyne (PQQ1), respectively. In addition, to account for binding to yet unknown quinoproteins with potentially different interactions with PQQ, we systematically varied the anchoring points across the molecule. These include the introduction of a minimal diazirine alkyne tag via condensation of carboxylic acid at C₂ (PQQ8), C₇ (PQQ4), as well as C₉ (PQQ6, with additional methyl esters at C₂ and C₉).

Our synthetic strategy toward the desired probes was based on the direct decoration of the PQQ skeleton within a few steps (instead of de novo PQQ probe synthesis starting from feed stocks), making our synthesis more efficient (Scheme 1 and Scheme S1). The synthesis started by direct esterification of commercially available PQQ with dimethyl sulfate to afford the

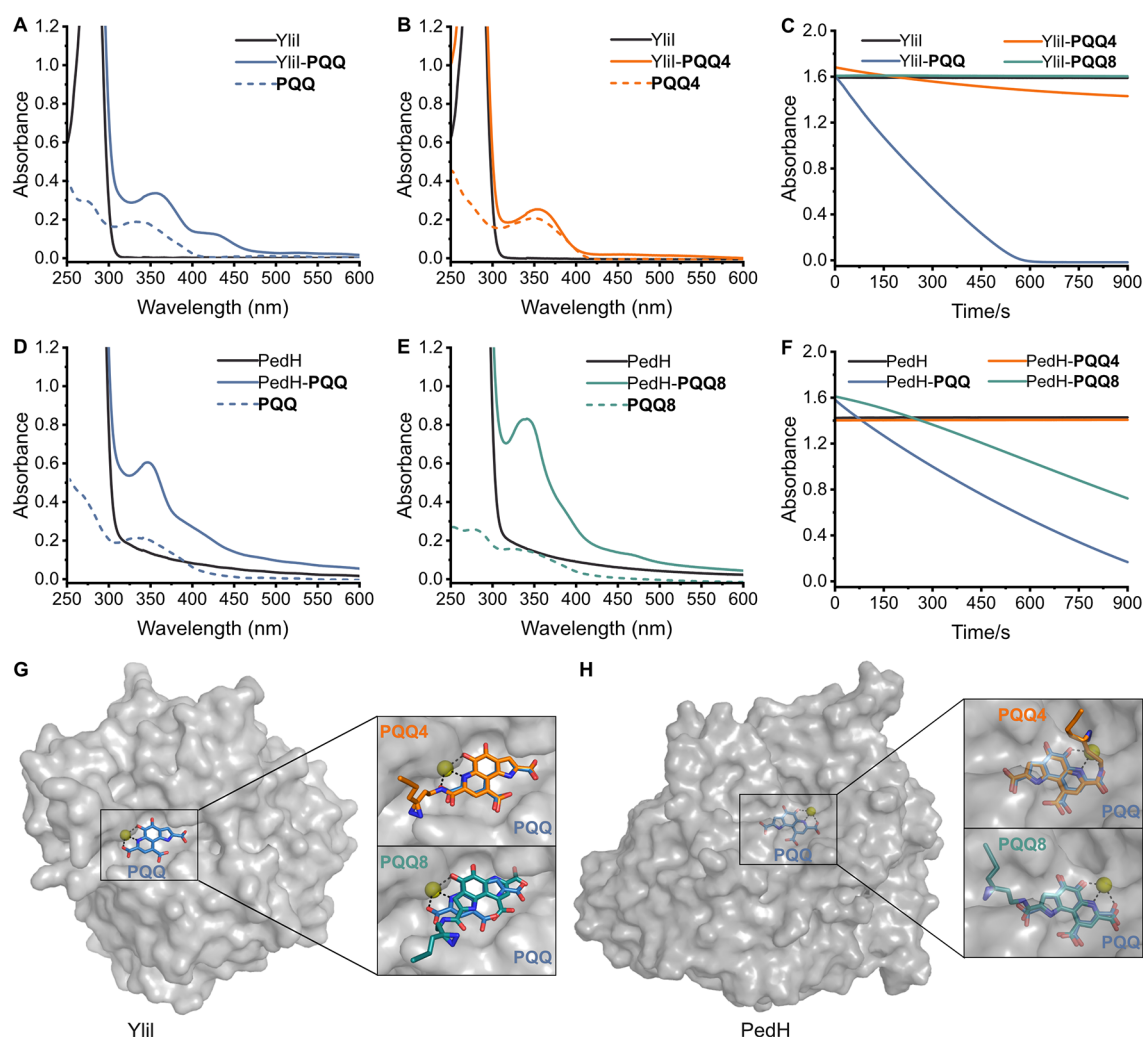


Figure 2. PQQ probe binding and catalytic activity of known PQQ-dependent dehydrogenases. (A) Absorption spectra of cofactor-free YliI, YliI reconstituted with PQQ, and free PQQ. (B) Absorption spectra of cofactor-free YliI, YliI reconstituted with PQQ4, and free PQQ4. (C) Glucose dehydrogenase activity of YliI reconstituted with PQQ or PQQ probes was measured in a coupled colorimetric assay using 100 nM reconstituted enzyme and 1.25 M glucose. (D) Absorption spectra of cofactor-free PedH, PedH reconstituted with PQQ, and free PQQ. (E) Absorption spectra of cofactor-free PedH, PedH reconstituted with PQQ8, and free PQQ8. (F) Ethanol dehydrogenase activity of PedH reconstituted with PQQ or PQQ probes was measured in a coupled colorimetric assay using 100 nM reconstituted enzyme and 50 mM ethanol. (G) Computational model of PQQ4 or PQQ8 binding in the active site of YliI in comparison to the native PQQ cofactor. (H) Computational model of PQQ4 or PQQ8 binding in the active site of PedH in comparison to the native PQQ cofactor.

universal intermediate, PQQ trimethyl ester **1**, up to a 2 g scale in 77% yield. This triester **1** was reduced by phenyl hydrazine to almost quantitatively yield ester PQQH₂ **2**. Then **2** was next alkylated with propargyl bromide or iodo diazine-alkyne **3** and hydrolyzed with LiOH to obtain trialkynylated PQQ1 in 8% yield and C₄, C₅-photo-cross-linker-functionalized PQQ2 in 10% yield, respectively. The C₇-photo-cross-linker PQQ4 was obtained by selective hydrolysis of PQQ trimethyl ester **1** with TFA, quantitatively yielding PQQ-C₇-COOH **4**, which was conjugated with diazine-alkyne amine **5**. Subsequent hydrolysis with LiOH generated C₇-photo-cross-linker PQQ4 in 4% yield. The C₉-photo-cross-linker PQQ6 was designed and synthesized based on the same strategy: the key intermediate PQQ-C₉-COOH **6** was acquired via hydrolysis of PQQ trimethyl ester **1** with Cs₂CO₃ in 98% yield and selectively esterified with concentrated sulfuric acid in MeOH to deliver PQQ-C₉-COOH **7** in 94% yield, followed by conjugation of the intermediate **7** with diazine-alkyne amine **5** delivering PQQ6 in 8% yield. Unfortunately, further hydrolysis of PQQ6 via

different bases to the free acid PQQ6-COOH failed. As the direct decoration of C₂-photo-cross-linker PQQ8 turned out to be challenging, we utilized a build-decorate strategy instead: the indole acid **9**, obtained from the hydrolysis of indole ester **8** (almost quantitatively, up to 4.5 g), was reacted with ketene ester **10** via Doebner–von Miller type annulation^{54,55} to afford the tetrahydroquinoline intermediate **11**. This intermediate **11** was dehydrated with HCl and aromatized with air as the oxidant and Cu(OAc)₂ as the catalyst to construct the skeleton of PQQ to achieve phenyl ether **12** in 68% yield. Then **12** was oxidized by CAN to deliver PQQ-C₂-COOH **13** in 58% yield. Finally, The C₂-photo-cross-linker PQQ8 was acquired by the conjugation of **13** with diazine-alkyne amine **5** following hydrolysis with LiOH in 3% yield.

A Subset of Probes Binds Known PQQ-Dependent Dehydrogenases and Reconstitutes Their Activity

To evaluate the binding of the diverse cofactor probes to known PQQ-dependent dehydrogenases, we recombinantly expressed

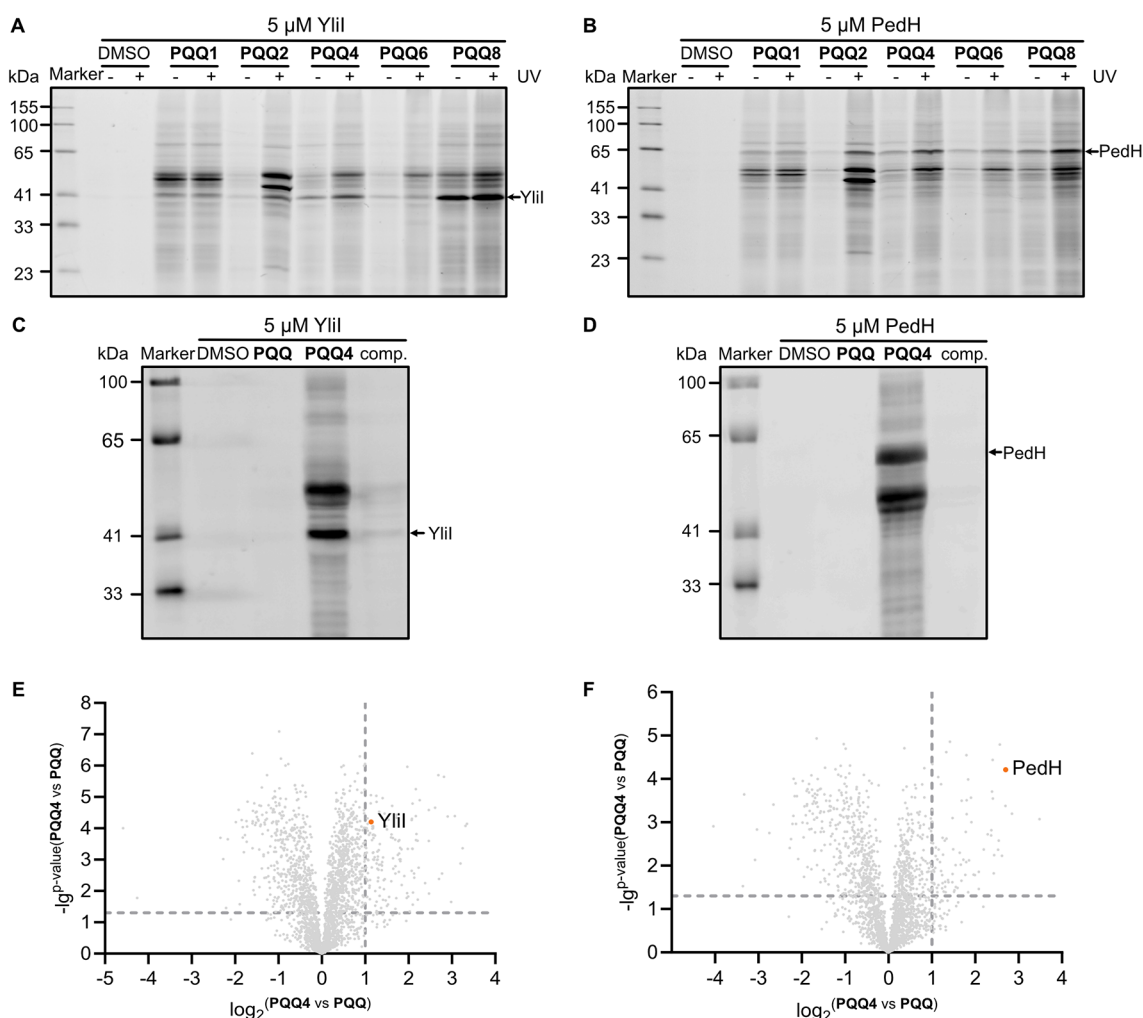


Figure 3. Labeling and enrichment of PQQ-dependent proteins by PQQ probes analyzed with SDS-PAGE and proteomics. (A) SDS-PAGE of *E. coli* K-12 lysate, with 5 μ M spiked YliI, labeled by 50 μ M PQQ probes compared to DMSO. (B) SDS-PAGE of *E. coli* K-12 lysate, with 5 μ M spiked PedH, labeled by 50 μ M PQQ probes compared to DMSO. (C) SDS-PAGE of *E. coli* K-12 lysate, with 5 μ M spiked YliI, labeled by 50 μ M PQQ4 as well as competition with PQQ (50 μ M PQQ4 + 1000 μ M PQQ) compared to DMSO and 50 μ M PQQ. (D) SDS-PAGE, as described in Figure 3C, with 5 μ M spiked PedH. (E) Volcano plot of *E. coli* BL21 (Tuner_YliI) treated with 50 μ M PQQ4 compared to 50 μ M PQQ. The experiment was conducted in 4 biological replicates. The vertical and horizontal dashed lines represent a $\log_2$ -fold change of 1 and a $-\log_{10}$ p-value of 1.3, respectively. (F) Volcano plot of *E. coli* BL21 (Tuner_PedH) treated with 50 μ M PQQ4 compared to 50 μ M PQQ. The experimental details and cutoff criteria for volcano plot are shown in Figure 3E.

and purified PedH and YliI as two representative and well-characterized examples and performed UV/vis absorption spectroscopy. Free PQQ exhibits characteristic absorption bands at 350 and 500 nm⁴¹ (Figure 2A/D), while binding to YliI and PedH is associated with spectral shifts (new maximum at 430 nm) that cause a color change from orange to yellow. As the different probes have chemical modifications in various positions, they exhibit distinct absorption spectra. We incubated both proteins with all probes and then removed unbound molecules by buffer exchange. If the spectroscopic signature of the respective probe was still clearly present in the protein sample, the probe was considered binding-competent. This was the case for all probes in the case of PedH and all probes except for PQQ1 and PQQ2 for YliI (Figures 2B,E and S1).

Importantly, the reconstitution of YliI with PQQ4 and PedH with PQQ8 resulted in catalytically active enzymes, as measured in a coupled colorimetric assay (Figure 2C,F). Glucose oxidation by PQQ4-bound YliI was significantly reduced, while ethanol oxidation by PQQ8-bound PedH was almost at

the native level. Both probes have unmodified quinone systems and are, thus, in principle capable of catalysis. To rationalize the complementary probe preference of YliI and PedH, we performed computational modeling using the Boltz-1⁵⁶ and Boltz-2⁵⁷ structure prediction tools and carefully compared the predicted probe binding to the native PQQ-binding mode. In contrast to classic docking, the AI-based tool allows for some flexibility and slight adaptation of the protein structure to the new ligands. Both PQQ4 and PQQ8 fit into the open and accessible active site of YliI, but only PQQ4 binds in the catalytically productive orientation of the native PQQ cofactor, which enables catalysis (Figure 2G). Also for PedH, both PQQ4 and PQQ8 fit into the active site and even bind in orientations similar to the native PQQ. However, in our model, the click handle side-chain of PQQ4 blocks the relatively narrow substrate entry tunnel leading toward the buried active site of PedH, while PQQ8's click handle can be accommodated in a pocket inside the protein, thus allowing the substrate to enter (Figure 2H).

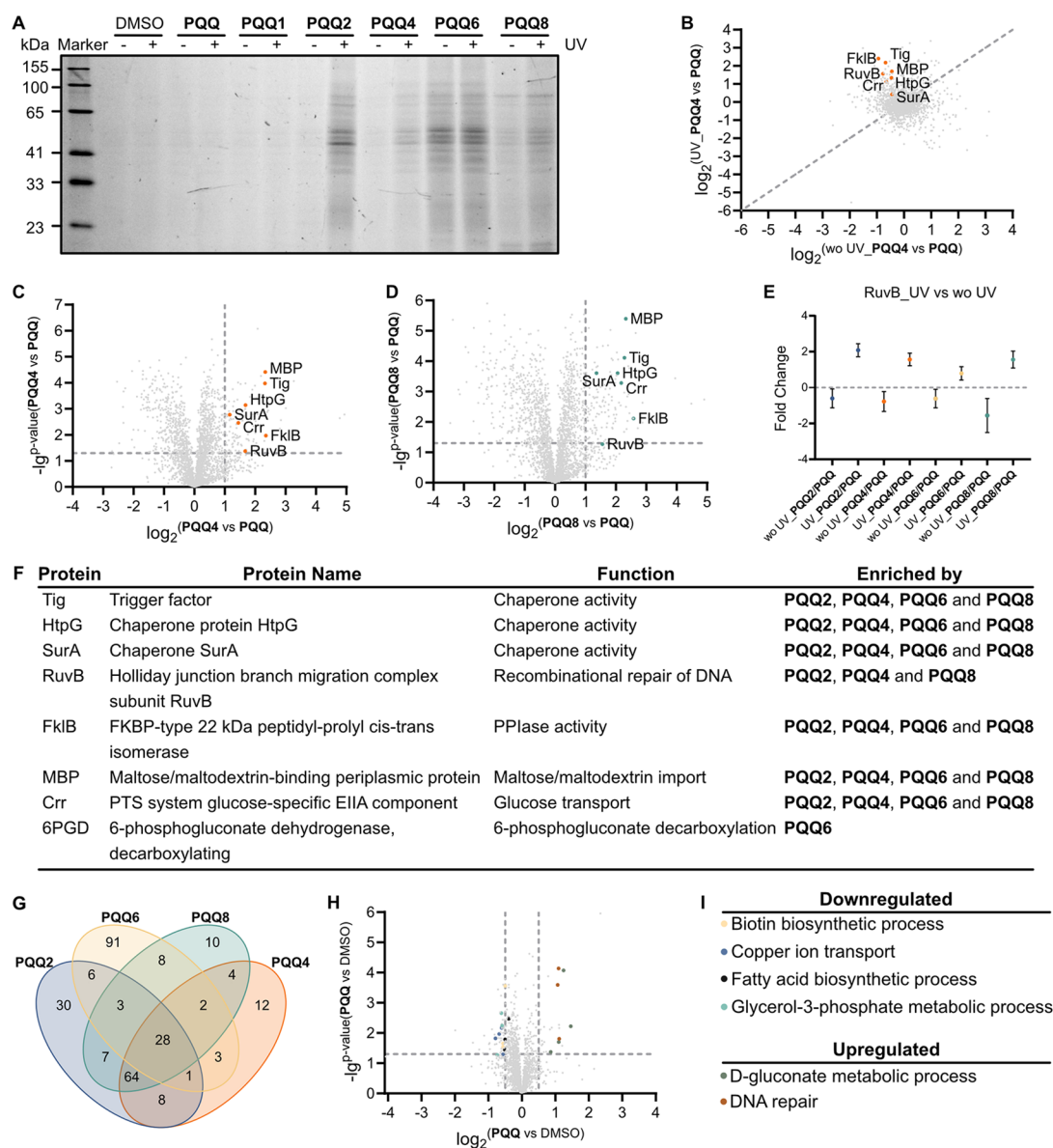


Figure 4. Target identification by chemical proteomics in *E. coli* K-12 cells. (A) SDS-PAGE of *E. coli* K-12 in situ labeled by 50 μ M PQQ probes with $\pm$ UV treatment compared to DMSO. (B) Scatter plot of *E. coli* K-12 treated with 50 μ M PQQ4 with $\pm$ UV treatment compared to 50 μ M PQQ. Both experiments were conducted in 3 biological replicates. Proteins above the dashed line exhibit higher enrichment upon UV-irradiation, which is the case for all significant hits with p -value < 0.05 and q -value < 0.05 . (C) Volcano plot of *E. coli* K-12 treated with 50 μ M PQQ4 compared to 50 μ M PQQ. The experiment was conducted in 3 biological replicates. The vertical and horizontal dashed lines represent a $\log_2$ -fold change of 1 and a $-\log_{10}$ p -value of 1.3, respectively. (D) Volcano plot of *E. coli* K-12 treated with 50 μ M PQQ8 compared to 50 μ M PQQ. The experimental details and cutoff criteria for volcano plot are shown in Figure 4C. (E) Summary data plot of RuvB treated with different PQQ probes under $\pm$ UV conditions. The experiment was conducted in 3 biological replicates. The horizontal dashed line represents a $\log_2$ -fold change of 0 and the data represents standard error of mean (SEM) of averaged triplicates of $n = 3$ biologically independent experiments. (F) Table of representative *E. coli* K-12 proteins found in all AfBPP experiments, including 4 chaperone proteins (Tig, HtpG, SurA, and FklB), DNA repair protein RuvB and 3 sugar-related proteins (Crr, MBP, and 6PGD). (G) Venn diagram of enriched *E. coli* K-12 hits by different PQQ probes. Enriched proteins with $\log_2$ -fold change > 1 , p -value < 0.05 , and q -value < 0.05 are shown. (H) Volcano plot of *E. coli* K-12 full proteome treated with 50 μ M PQQ compared to DMSO. The experiment was conducted in 4 biological replicates. The vertical and horizontal dashed lines represent a $\log_2$ -fold change of ± 0.5 and a $-\log_{10}$ p -value of 1.3, respectively. Colored dots ($\log_2$ -fold change > 0.5 or < -0.5 , p -value < 0.05 , t -value > 2 or < -2) show functional upregulated and downregulated proteins. (I) Table of up/down-regulated proteins from *E. coli* K-12 full proteome. The related gene ontology of biological process was analyzed with String database with "Group Similarity" > 0.8 and high confidence > 0.7 .

Labeling of PQQ-Dependent Enzymes YliI and PedH in Complex Proteomes

In a next step, we tested if recombinant PedH and YliI can be labeled by the PQQ probes in the background of a complex proteome. For this, we spiked the purified cofactor-free proteins in *E. coli* K-12 lysate and added the PQQ probes at various

concentrations for 1 h at room temperature under UV treatment. Labeled proteomes were clicked to rhodamine azide and visualized via SDS-PAGE followed by fluorescent scanning. Varying the concentration of spiked proteins revealed a sensitive detection of proteins down to 1 μ M, which represents a suitable starting point for the detection of endogenous PQQ-

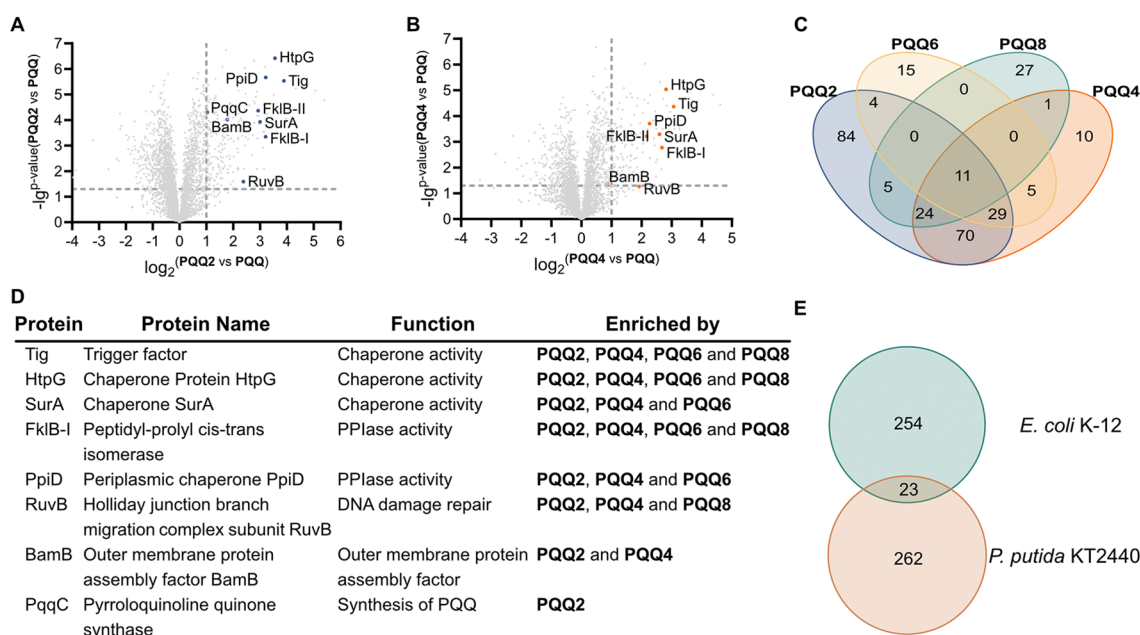


Figure 5. Target identification by chemical proteomics in *P. putida* KT2440 cells. (A) Volcano plot of *P. putida* KT2440 treated with 50 μ M PQQ2 compared to 50 μ M PQQ. The experiment was conducted in 4 biological replicates. The vertical and horizontal dash lines represent a $\log_2$ -fold change of 1 and a $-\log_{10}$ p -value of 1.3, respectively. (B) Volcano plot of *P. putida* KT2440 treated with 50 μ M PQQ4 compared to 50 μ M PQQ. The experimental details and cutoff criteria for volcano plot are shown in Figure S1A. (C) Venn diagram of enriched *P. putida* KT2440 hits by different PQQ probes. The hits represent the enriched proteins in the volcano plot with $\log_2$ -fold change > 1 , p -value < 0.05 , and q -value < 0.05 . (D) Table of representative *P. putida* KT2440 proteins in all AfBPP experiments, including 5 chaperone proteins (Tig, HtpG, SurA, FklB, and PpiD), DNA repair protein RuvB, BamB as outer membrane protein assembly factor, and pyrroloquinoline quinone synthase PqqC. (E) Venn diagram of PQQ probe hits in *E. coli* K-12 and *P. putida* KT2440 ($\log_2$ -fold change > 1 , p -value < 0.05 , and q -value < 0.05).

binding proteins (Figures S2A,B and S3A,B). In addition, a PQQ4 concentration of 50 μ M seemed optimal for the saturated labeling of both proteins (Figures S2C,D and S3C,D). Among the tested probes, PQQ2, PQQ4, and PQQ8 turned out as best binders for YliI and PedH, which is in line with the UV-shift assays (Figure S1). Of note, while some probes (PQQ2 and PQQ6) show a strong labeling dependence on photo-cross-linking via UV-irradiation, PQQ1 (no diazirine), PQQ4, and PQQ8 seem to bear an intrinsic, photo-cross-linking-independent protein reactivity (Figure 3A,B). Probe binding was outcompeted by the addition of a 20-fold molar excess of native PQQ demonstrating that the PQQ probes target the same binding pocket (Figures 3C,D, S2F and S3F). Overall, these results highlight the importance of synthesizing a chemically diverse panel of probes to maximize the enzyme coverage.

With validated PQQ tools at hand, we aimed to decipher the full complement of targets in *E. coli* by quantitative LC–MS/MS. *E. coli* expresses only two known PQQ-dependent dehydrogenases, Gcd and YliI, of which the latter is typically of low abundance.^{37,58,59} Given this limited number of expected endogenous hits, we first performed positive controls with two *E. coli* strains overexpressing YliI and PedH (Tuner_YliI and Tuner_PedH). Due to the leaky vector system, IPTG was not needed to induce protein overexpression in Tuner_YliI/Tuner_PedH cells for in situ labeling, and comparable amounts of both enzymes were expressed (Figure S4). *E. coli* cells were incubated with 50 μ M PQQ2 and PQQ4, UV-irradiated, lysed and clicked to biotin azide (for SDS-PAGE, see Figure S5A–E). Enrichment of labeled proteins on avidin beads followed by tryptic digest yielded peptides that were analyzed by LC–MS/MS (see Figure 1C for the overall workflow). Corresponding volcano plots depict the enrichment of proteins upon probe

binding compared to PQQ (to account for any cellular response leading to a change in protein expression) as well as the significance. Proteins are considered hits if they exhibit a p -value < 0.01 , q -value < 0.02 , t -value > 4 , and $\log_2$ -fold enrichment of > 1 . Satisfyingly, both YliI and PedH were detected as significantly enriched in the corresponding expression strains (Figures 3E,F, S5C,F and Table S13) and their peptide abundance correlated with probe concentration as well as the presence of the expression plasmid (profile plot in Figure S5G,H).

Identification of PQQ-Binding Proteins in Living Cells

We commenced with the identification of PQQ-binding proteins in wild-type *E. coli* K-12. To maximize the coverage of enriched proteins with the probes, 4 h of starvation of *E. coli* K-12 cells in minimal medium was implemented before in situ labeling (Figure S6A). Concentration-dependent labeling of all probes with intact *E. coli* cells, followed by $\pm$ UV-irradiation, lysis, click chemistry to rhodamine azide, and visualization of fluorescent SDS-PAGE, revealed the labeling of several proteins throughout the proteome, indicating a larger number of PQQ-binding proteins as anticipated (Figures 4A and S6B). A concentration of 50 μ M probe was sufficient to achieve saturated labeling and was thus subsequently selected for quantitative enrichment (Figure S6B). Based on this result, we selected probes PQQ2, PQQ4, PQQ6, and PQQ8 (from here on referred to as PQQ probes), showing the most intense and comprehensive labeling, for further quantitative profiling. After treatment of intact *E. coli* cells grown in minimal medium with 50 μ M probes (for 20/100 μ M PQQ4 labeling, see Figure S8E,F), the cells were processed for LC–MS/MS detection as described above. As a control, we treated cells with native PQQ to account for any cellular response leading to a change in protein expression. To determine the extent of direct protein

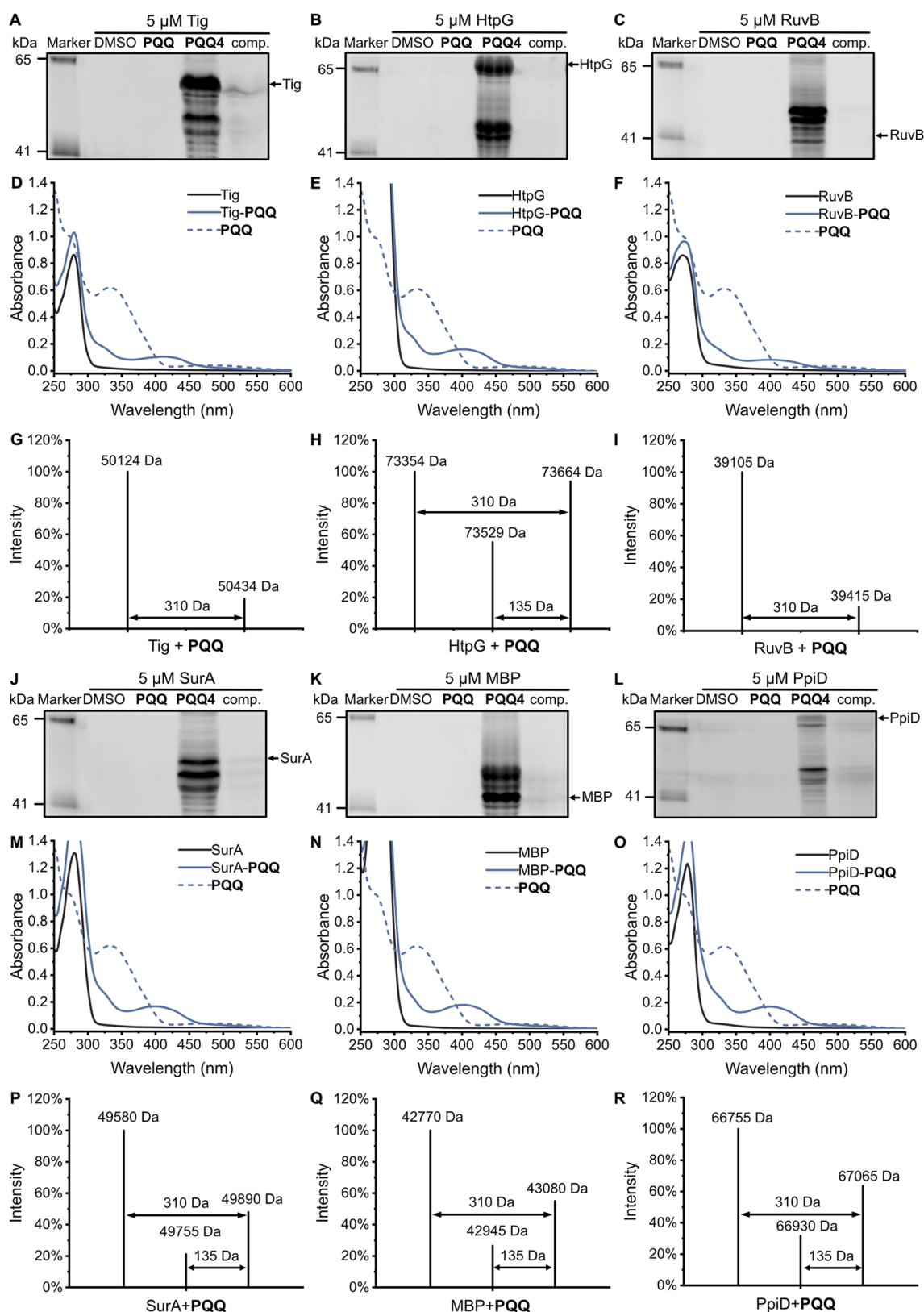


Figure 6. Identification of covalent PQQ-binding proteins. (A) SDS-PAGE of *E. coli* K-12 lysate, with 5 μ M spiked Tig, labeled by 50 μ M PQQ4 as well as competition with PQQ (50 μ M PQQ4 + 1000 μ M PQQ) compared to DMSO and 50 μ M PQQ. (B) SDS-PAGE, as described in Figure 6A, with 5 μ M spiked HtpG. (C) SDS-PAGE, as described in Figure 6A, with 5 μ M spiked RuvB. (D) Absorption spectra of 100 μ M Tig, 100 μ M Tig-PQQ, and 100 μ M PQQ. (E) Absorption spectra of 100 μ M HtpG, 100 μ M HtpG-PQQ, and 100 μ M PQQ. (F) Absorption spectra of 100 μ M RuvB, 100 μ M RuvB-PQQ, and 100 μ M PQQ. (G) IPMS of Tig treated with 3-fold molar excess PQQ. Here, the intensity indicates the deconvoluted mass intensity by UniDec,⁷⁰ same applies for Figure 6H,I,P–R. (H) IPMS of HtpG treated with 3-fold molar excess PQQ. (I) IPMS of RuvB treated with 3-fold molar excess PQQ. (J) SDS-PAGE, as described in Figure 6A, with 5 μ M spiked SurA. (K) SDS-PAGE, as described in Figure 6A, with 5 μ M spiked MBP. (L) SDS-PAGE, as described in Figure 6A, with 5 μ M spiked PpiD. (M) Absorption spectra of 100 μ M SurA, 100 μ M SurA-PQQ, and

Figure 6. continued

100 μM PQQ. (N) Absorption spectra of 100 μM MBP, 100 μM MBP-PQQ, and 100 μM PQQ. (O) Absorption spectra of 100 μM PpiD, 100 μM PpiD-PQQ, and 100 μM PQQ. (P) IPMS of SurA treated with 3-fold molar excess PQQ. (Q) IPMS of MBP treated with 3-fold molar excess PQQ. (R) IPMS of PpiD treated with 3-fold molar excess PQQ.

binding without UV-photo-cross-linking, PQQ probes were investigated $\pm$ UV-treatment. In general, comparison of probe-treated cells in the presence and absence of UV light showed a much higher enrichment upon irradiation, demonstrating the need of photoprobes to induce covalent binding (Figures 4B,E, S7 and S8).

Overall, 277 proteins met the cutoff criteria ($\log_2$ -fold > 1 , p -value < 0.05 , q -value < 0.02 , and t -value > 2) and 28 were consistently found with all four probes upon UV irradiation (Figures 4C,D and S8G,H). The distribution of hit proteins across all probes emphasizes that their diverse structural composition is needed for comprehensive profiling (Figure 4F,G). A closer inspection of the 28 hit proteins consistently enriched by all four probes revealed several molecular chaperones with either peptidyl-prolyl isomerization activity or ATPase activity, such as trigger factor (Tig), SurA, FklB, and the bacterial Hsp90 analogue HtpG, respectively. In addition, RuvB, a AAA+ ATPase and subunit of the Holliday junction branch migration complex involved in DNA remodeling, was also enriched by all PQQ probes except PQQ6. Moreover, several proteins related to sugar metabolism pathways were enriched, e.g., maltose-binding protein (MBP), PTS system glucose-specific EIIA component (Crr), and 6-phosphogluconate dehydrogenase (decarboxylating, 6PGD), see Figure 4F. In situ labeling with PQQ4 and competition with native PQQ in *E. coli* K-12 revealed that a large panel of proteins were competed by native PQQ, such as Tig, SurA, FklB, HtpG, RuvB, and MBP (Figure S9). The membrane-associated PQQ-dependent dehydrogenase Gcd was enriched (fold change > 1.5 , p -value < 0.01 , q -value < 0.01 , and t -value > 5) in wild-type *E. coli* K-12 solely under rich conditions without starvation (grown in LB medium, Figure S10 and Table S16). Full proteome comparison of PQQ-treated and untreated *E. coli* cells revealed upregulation of proteins involved in glucose metabolism as well as DNA repair and downregulation of proteins involved in biotin, glycerolphospholipid, fatty acid metabolism, and copper/iron ion transport (Figures 4H,I, S12 and S13).

The same workflow was performed with *P. putida* KT2440, a strain capable of producing PQQ. *P. putida* KT2440 was labeled with PQQ probes in mineral salts medium for 1 h, which revealed significantly enriched proteins (fold change > 1 , p -value < 0.05 , q -value < 0.05 , and t -value > 2.5) (Figures 5A,B and S14). In general, 285 proteins were significantly enriched, and 11 proteins, especially chaperones (Tig, HtpG, SurA, FklB-I, and PpiD) and AAA+ ATPase involved in DNA remodeling (RuvB), were consistently enriched by all four probes (Figure 5C,D). Moreover, the outer membrane protein assembly factor BamB,⁶⁰ a nonessential subunit of the Bam complex and previously annotated as a PQQ binder due to its β -propeller fold, was identified (Figure 5A,B). Furthermore, the pyrroloquinoline quinone synthase (PqqC)^{13,14,61} responsible for the last step in PQQ biosynthesis was also enriched (Figure 5A). PqqC catalyzes the oxidation and cyclization of a PQQ precursor to generate PQQ, which is subsequently released and transported to the periplasmic, where it fulfills its function as a redox cofactor. Full proteome analysis of PQQ-treated cells revealed a complementary picture compared to *E. coli* with downregulated

proteins in tyrosine, phenylalanine, aromatic compounds (fluorobenzoate), and organic substances (valine, leucine, and isoleucine) catabolic processes (Figures S15 and S16). Overall, 23 proteins were mutually enriched by *E. coli* K-12 and *P. putida* KT2440, including the molecular chaperones trigger factor, HtpG, SurA, FklB, and the AAA+ ATPase RuvB involved in DNA remodeling (Figure S5D,E). This conserved set of targets across species was selected for in-depth validation.

Intrigued by the significant extent of PQQ-binding protein and the previous discovery of lactate dehydrogenase (LDH) as a PQQ-binding protein in mouse pull down studies,⁶² we gained initial insights into proteins bound by PQQ in human cells. HepG2 cells were treated with 50 μM PQQ2 and PQQ4, followed by the standard proteomics workflow. 314 proteins were significantly enriched, including glycosyltransferase family members and chaperones (Figure S17). Of note, the enrichment of L-lactate dehydrogenase A-like 6B (LDH6B) further validates previous studies describing it as PQQ binder. These results give a first indication of a pronounced and diverse proteome binding of PQQ, providing a basis for future studies on human quinone-binding proteins and the enigmatic impact of the cofactor on health and disease.

PQQ Binds Covalently to Selected Proteins

For further in-depth validation on putative PQQ binding, we selected the most common hits, Tig, HtpG, FklB, SurA, PpiD, MBP, and RuvB overlapping between both bacterial strains. The proteins were recombinantly expressed in *E. coli* BL21 and purified in the absence of PQQ (Figures S18 and S19). We spiked the recombinant proteins in *E. coli* K-12 lysate and performed labeling with PQQ4 with and without the addition of a 20-fold molar excess of PQQ for 1 h of incubation at room temperature, followed by UV treatment. The proteomes were clicked to rhodamine azide and visualized via SDS-PAGE. All recombinant proteins were labeled with PQQ4, and this labeling was outcompeted with an excess of free PQQ (Figures 6A–C, J–L and S20). Furthermore, the addition of the cofactor revealed characteristic spectroscopic shifts comparable to those of YliI and PedH, indeed confirming PQQ binding (Figures 6D–F, M–O and S21A). As a negative control, we included BSA and Gsk as non-PQQ-binding proteins (Figure S21B,C) and did not observe a signal change, which validates the selected hits listed above as true positives.

Given the labeling of some proteins, even without UV irradiation (Figure S8 and Table S14), we first tested if some of the hits may covalently bind to PQQ. 100 μM recombinant Tig, HtpG, MBP, FklB, RuvB, SurA, and PpiD were incubated with 300 μM PQQ at 4 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ overnight, followed by intact protein LC–MS analysis (Figures 6G–I, P–R and S21D–J). Notably, deconvoluted spectra indeed confirmed a characteristic 310 Da mass shift indicative of covalent PQQ binding in the case of Tig, HtpG, MBP, RuvB, SurA, and PpiD, but not for FklB as well as PedH (Figure S21J,K). Moreover, the characteristic peak at 73529 Da for HtpG indicates decarboxylation (-3COOH) of the PQQ moiety, resulting in a 135 Da shift (Figure 6H, see also SurA, MBP, and PpiD in Figure 6P–R).⁶³ The extent of modification varied between 10 – 30% and could be increased

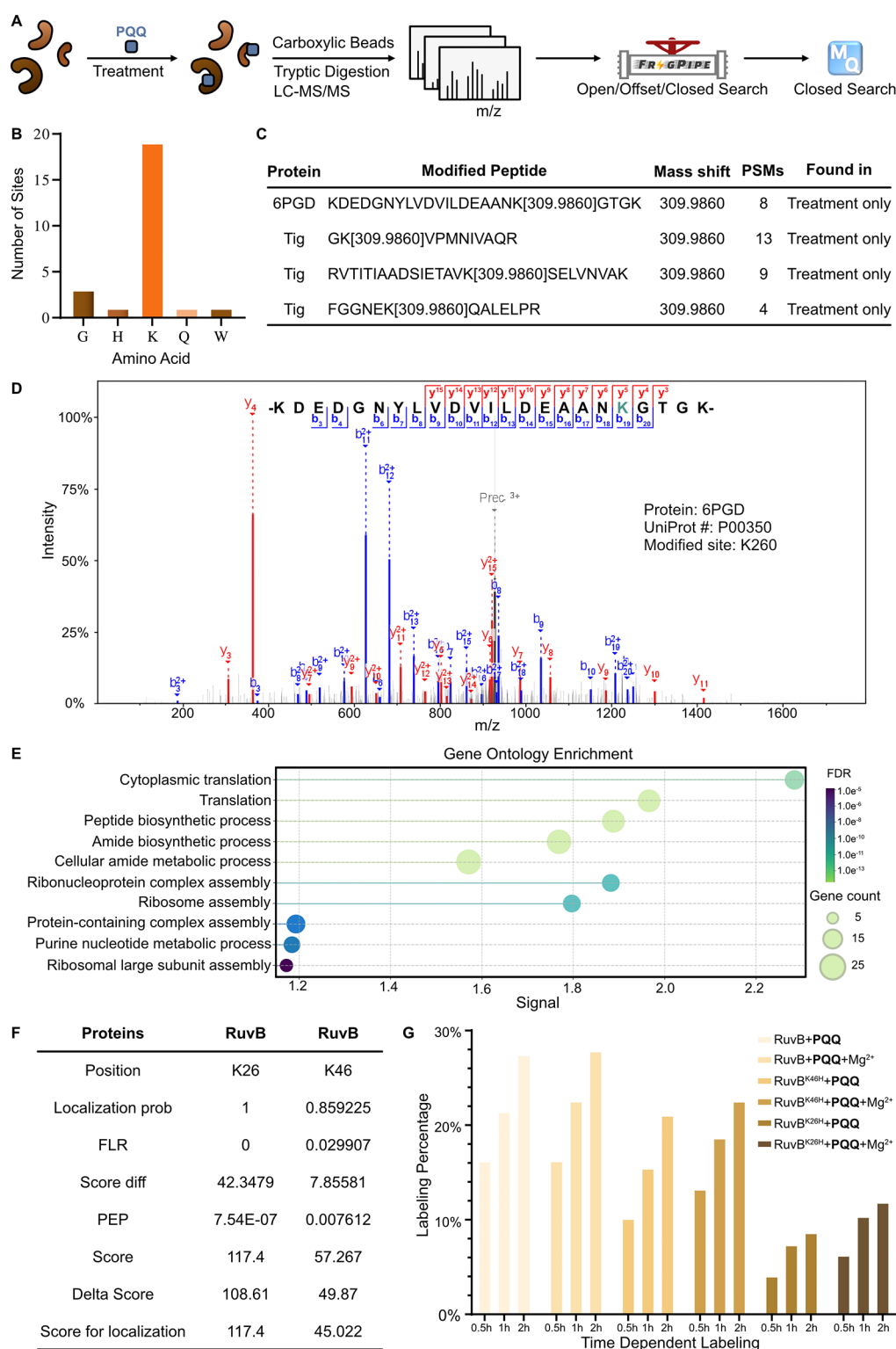


Figure 7. General MS/MS workflow and PQQ covalent binding proteins analysis. (A) General MS/MS workflow. Intact proteins were treated with PQQ, followed by cell lysis, cleanup with carboxylated beads, digestion by trypsin and analysis by mass spectrometry, which was then further analyzed with Fragpipe and Maxquant. (B) Amino acid selectivity of PQQ in *E. coli* K-12 proteome from offset search. *E. coli* K-12 lysate of 3.5 mg/mL was treated with 2000 μ M PQQ and 2000 μ M CaCl_2 at 37 $^\circ\text{C}$ for 4 h. (C) Table of representative PQQ covalent binding proteins from closed search. The experimental details are shown in Figure 7B. (D) MS/MS spectrum of 6PGD peptide (-KDEDGNYLVLDVILDEAANKGTGK-) identified by Fragpipe PDV.⁷¹ (E) Gene ontology analysis of biological process with PQQ covalent binding proteins from closed search in the above MS/MS workflow. This was analyzed via String with “Group Similarity” ≥ 0.8 and highest confidence ≥ 0.9 . (F) Table of RuvB-binding site identification from PQQ treatment analyzed by Maxquant. 100 μ M RuvB was treated with 20-fold molar excess PQQ and incubated at 30 $^\circ\text{C}$ for 1 h. (G) Time-dependent labeling of intact RuvB/RuvB^{K46H}/RuvB^{K26H} treated with PQQ. 100 μ M RuvB/RuvB^{K46H}/RuvB^{K26H} was treated with 20-fold molar excess of PQQ and 20-fold molar excess of MgCl_2 and incubated at 30 $^\circ\text{C}$ for time-dependent labeling.

up to 20 – 60% at higher PQQ concentrations (Figure S21D–I). BSA was included as a negative control and was not modified under the same conditions (Figure S21L). These results suggest that some identified proteins are covalently modified by PQQ.

This notion was supported by MS/MS analysis of PQQ-treated *E. coli* K-12 lysate. The proteome was cleaned up via carboxylated beads, followed by tryptic digestion and mass spectrometric analysis (MS/MS), which was then analyzed with Fragpipe^{64–66} and Maxquant^{67–69} (Figure 7A). As a control, we performed the same workflow with untreated *E. coli* lysate. Data processing with MSFragger revealed a mass shift of 309.9860 Da, which is in line with the intact protein mass spectrometry (IPMS) mass difference of 310 Da. A subsequent offset search with this signature mass revealed that PQQ shows a preference for covalently modifying lysine (Figure 7B). The identified peptides in the following closed search were identified as true modified peptides if the MS/MS and MBR (match between runs) as the match type ≥ 2 , PSMs (total peptide spectrum match) ≥ 2 , Peptide prophet Probability > 0.75 , and standard deviation of $\log_{10}$ -intensity < 0.5 . The closed search of 309.9860 Da with specifying lysine as a PQQ-modified amino acid confirmed Tig and 6GPD as covalent binding protein hits (Figures 7C,D and S22–S24); Gene ontology analysis revealed that the identified proteins are involved in translation, protein/ribosome assembly, and peptide/amide biosynthesis (Figure 7E).

To elucidate a selected covalent binding site in more detail, we performed MS/MS sequencing with purified RuvB, a AAA+ ATPase involved in DNA remodeling. Modified sites of RuvB were regarded as true positives if they exhibit a localization probability > 0.85 , false localization rate (FLR) < 0.05 , and Posterior Error Probability (PEP) < 0.01 from Maxquant analysis. Two lysine residues (K26 and K46, Figures 7F and S25A) exhibited the characteristic 310 Da mass shift and were consistently identified in two independent experiments (RuvB treated with PQQ only; RuvB treated with PQQ and MgCl_2). To experimentally validate these binding sites, we prepared the corresponding RuvB mutant proteins RuvB^{K26H} and RuvB^{K46H}, which were incubated with PQQ and analyzed by intact protein MS (Figures 7G and S25B–G). While a characteristic mass shift as well as protein labeling was observed in the case of RuvB^{K46H}, RuvB^{K26H} showed significantly decreased modification with the cofactor, confirming K26 as the predominant covalent binding site. These changes of intensity were corroborated by PQQ4 labeling, click to rhodamine azide and subsequent fluorescent gel-based analysis with the mutants and wt enzyme (Figure S25H). Additionally, we used several databases to predict PQQ-dependent enzymes or PQQ-binding proteins to further substantiate the validity and comprehensive coverage of our developed method. Collectively, four PQQ-associated proteins (YliI, PedH, Gcd, and BamB) were detected in this study out of six known/predicted PQQ-dependent enzymes (YliI, PedH, Gcd, BamB, PedE, and QuiA) in *E. coli* K-12 and *P. putida* KT2440 (Table S26; for PQQ-binding proteins, refer to Table S27).

CONCLUSION

PQQ is a versatile cofactor involved in enzymatic redox reactions. While PQQ-dependent alcohol and sugar dehydrogenases have been described in bacteria, the full complement of the quinoproteome remains unknown. Our diverse set of functionalized PQQ probes confirmed binding, reconstitution of catalysis, as well as labeling of the known PQQ enzymes YliI

and PedH, which we used for tool validation prior to in-depth studies in living bacterial cells. We identified a confined suite of putative PQQ-binding proteins in *E. coli* and *P. putida*, which we validated for cofactor binding via complementary methods. Satisfyingly, our diverse probe design turned out to match the different binding sites, which would not have been possible with just one molecule. Intriguingly, we observed that PQQ binding to some proteins occurred via a covalent lysine modification. This notion was confirmed via labeling of the RuvB protein, where K26 was identified as the binding site. However, given the overall lower enrichment of quinoproteins in the absence of UV irradiation, we conclude that irreversible binding is a trait of only some proteins. While we can only speculate about the physiological impact of covalency, it is conceivable that the general reactivity of PQQ is most likely conserved in other organisms, including mammalian cells.⁶² Given the use of PQQ as a dietary supplement, irreversible binding to proteins is of particular interest in order to study the associated nutritional and health effects. Thus, our tools provide a basis for these and other studies investigating the inventory of quinoproteins in diverse organisms.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Data Availability Statement

Mass spectrometry proteomics data have been deposited to the ProteomeXchange Consortium⁷² via the PRIDE⁷³ partner repository with the data set identifier PXD069310 and PXD075565.

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/jacs.6c03427>.

Additional experimental details, including methods, procedures, figures, characterization, and spectra are attached in the Supporting Information (PDF)

Identification of PQQ covalent binding proteins in *E. coli* K-12 (XLSX)

Identification of RuvB covalent binding site from PQQ treatment (XLSX)

Target identification by chemical proteomics in *E. coli* BL21 (tuner) cells (XLSX)

Target identification by chemical proteomics in *E. coli* K-12 cells (XLSX)

Target identification by chemical proteomics in HepG2 cells (XLSX)

Target identification by chemical proteomics in *P. putida* KT2440 cells (XLSX)

AUTHOR INFORMATION

Corresponding Authors

Cathleen Zeymer – Center for Functional Protein Assemblies (CPA), Department of Bioscience, TUM School of Natural Sciences, Technical University of Munich (TUM), 85748 Garching, Germany; orcid.org/0000-0001-7138-381X; Email: cathleen.zeymer@tum.de

Stephan A. Sieber – Center for Functional Protein Assemblies (CPA), Department of Bioscience, TUM School of Natural Sciences, Technical University of Munich (TUM), 85748 Garching, Germany; orcid.org/0000-0002-9400-906X; Email: stephan.sieber@tum.de

Authors

Tao Wang – Center for Functional Protein Assemblies (CPA), Department of Bioscience, TUM School of Natural Sciences, Technical University of Munich (TUM), 85748 Garching, Germany

Rahel Mühlhofer – Center for Functional Protein Assemblies (CPA), Department of Bioscience, TUM School of Natural Sciences, Technical University of Munich (TUM), 85748 Garching, Germany; orcid.org/0009-0008-7033-8521

E Lei – Center for Functional Protein Assemblies (CPA), Department of Bioscience, TUM School of Natural Sciences, Technical University of Munich (TUM), 85748 Garching, Germany

Wei Ding – Center for Functional Protein Assemblies (CPA), Department of Bioscience, TUM School of Natural Sciences, Technical University of Munich (TUM), 85748 Garching, Germany

Andreas S. Klein – Center for Functional Protein Assemblies (CPA), Department of Bioscience, TUM School of Natural Sciences, Technical University of Munich (TUM), 85748 Garching, Germany; orcid.org/0000-0001-8075-3480

Complete contact information is available at:

<https://pubs.acs.org/10.1021/jacs.6c03427>

Notes

The authors declare the following competing financial interest(s): Stephan A. Sieber is a cofounder of smartbox limited. Other authors declare no competing financial interests.

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