



# *Myo*-inositol 1-phosphate synthase – the chosen path of evolution

ANJAN HAZRA\*, PARAMITA NANDY (DATTA)

Barasat Government College, Kolkata-700124, India

## Abstract

*Myo*-inositol is a cyclohexanehexol containing cyclic polyol that has an important role in both abiotic and biotic stress responses, and it is specifically found to be accumulated in halophytes under salt stress where it acts as an osmolyte. Biosynthesis of *myo*-inositol is catalyzed by *myo*-inositol 1-phosphate synthase (EC 5.5.1.4, MIPS). The enzyme has been reported from a wide range of organisms belonging to prokaryotes and eukaryotes. In the current investigation, the naturally most fit isoform (in terms of selection pressure) or sequence variety of MIPS, known so far, was identified from the highest evolved plant group angiosperm. Subsequently, homologues of this MIPS variety were analysed from each of the taxonomic groups of the plant kingdom. Two common domains in MIPS nucleotide sequences and six conserved domains in the amino acid sequences were isolated, of which two amino acid domains were found to be unique for plants. According to the phylogenetic tree analysis based on MIPS amino acid sequences, MIPS proteins under current study are found to be clustered in branches in a way that confirms a common plant taxonomical lineage. Molecular clock analysis confirmed a much higher relative time of divergence from the prokaryotic cyanobacteria to eukaryotes, than the divergence within the eukaryotic community. As revealed by our study, MIPS started evolving from the lowermost plant group and with some modification through time it attained its highest adapted state in angiosperm via all intermediate plant groups. Interestingly, *Porteresia* MIPS is reflected as an isolated entity from other angiospermic members.

**Key words:** *myo*-inositol 1-phosphate synthase, evolution, natural selection, conserveness, phylogenetic tree, time of divergence

## Introduction

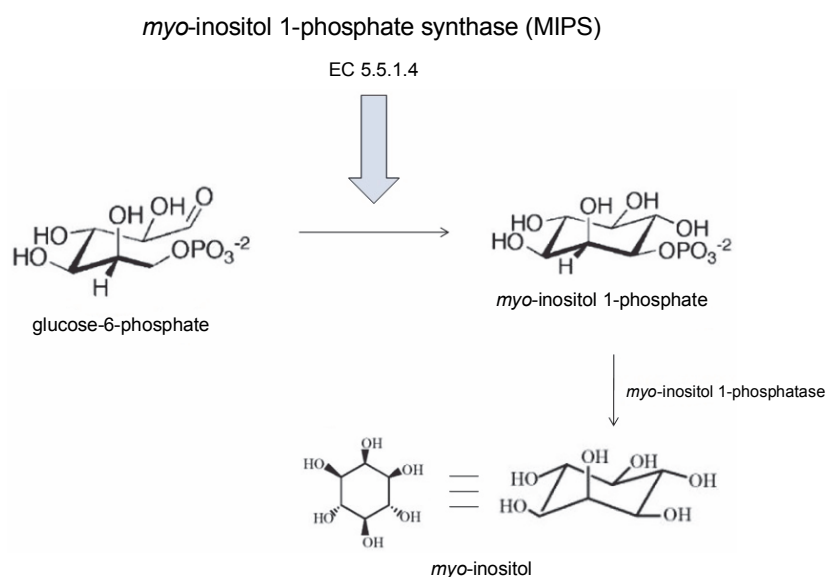
The prosperity of genomics and its allied tools along with computational biology in recent times paves the way to an understanding of the evolution of proteins or genes. Phylogenetic perspectives can be focused on proteins across divergent prokaryotic and eukaryotic taxa marked via both nucleotide/amino acid sequences and functional or catalytic domains in their structural organization.

The free inositol molecule and its derivatives are recognised as being important in the biological kingdom, and have acquired diverse functions over the course of evolution. So far, inositol and its derivatives have been shown to be involved in growth regulation, membrane biogenesis, hormone regulation, signal transduction, pathogen resistance and stress adaptation in higher plants (Loewus and Murthy, 2000; Stevenson et al., 2000;

Michell, 2008). The *myo*-inositol is a cyclohexanehexol that has an important role in both abiotic and biotic stress responses (Shinozaki et al., 2006) specifically found to be accumulated in halophytes under salt stress (Sengupta et al., 2008) and acting as an osmolyte. It has been observed that *myo*-inositol derivatives regulate salt stress response by serving as compatible solutes and signalling molecules (Kido et al., 2013). According to the biosynthetic pathway of *myo*-inositol, the first key step is formation of *myo*-inositol 1-phosphate from glucose 6-phosphate (Loewus and Kelly, 1962; Majumder et al., 1997) catalysed by *myo*-inositol 1-phosphate synthase (EC 5.5.1.4, MIPS) – Fig. 1, which is our current focus of interest.

The enzyme has been reported from a wide range of organisms belonging to prokaryotes and eukaryotes (Majumder et al., 1997), it accumulates mostly under diffe-

\* Corresponding author: Barasat Government College, Kolkata-700124, India; e-mail: hazranjan93@gmail.com



**Fig. 1.** A diagram of *myo*-inositol synthesis from glucose 6-phosphate

rent abiotic stress conditions such as drought, salinity etc. and acts as an osmoregulator in mammals too (Agrano-goff and Fischer, 2001). Expression studies of multiple genes encoding MIPS have revealed the possibility of specialised roles for individual enzyme isoforms. In higher organisms, the enzyme has two forms: cytosolic and organellar. MIPS activity has been localised in cytosolic and plastidic compartments in peas (*Pisum sativum*) (Imhoff and Bourdu, 1973), *Vigna radiata* and *Euglena gracilis* (Adhikari et al., 1987), *Citrus paradisi* (Abu-abied and Holland, 1994), *Arabidopsis thaliana* (Johnson and Sussex, 1995), *Mesembryanthemum crystallinum* (Ishitani et al., 1996), *Oryza sativa* (Ray Chaudhuri and Majumder, 1996; Hait et al., 2002), *Zea mays* and *Hordeum vulgare* (Keller et al., 1998), *Brassica napus* (Larson and Raboy, 1999), *Glycine max* (Iqbal et al., 2002), *Sesamum indicum* (Chun et al., 2003) and *Phaseolus vulgaris* (Johnson and Wang, 1996). Cytosolic MIPS has also been isolated and characterised from *Perilla frutescens* and *A. thaliana*, indicating its presence during normal seed growth (Chung et al., 1999; Jin et al., 2000; Baud et al., 2004). There are also a number of reports on MIPS from bryophyte (Chhetri et al., 2006) and pteridophyte members (Chhetri et al., 2005, 2006a, 2006b; Basak et al., 2013). Recent advances in structural and functional genomics and proteomics have made it easy to track the evolution of this essential enzyme.

The distribution and evolution of *MIPS* genes from a probable ancestor to cyanobacteria, eubacteria and archaea, and ultimately to higher eukaryotes such as

plants and humans, indicate that MIPS started evolving from different sources (Majumder et al., 2003) and that MIPS enzyme activity is distributed in evolutionarily diverse phyla, from eubacteria, archaeobacteria, cyanobacteria, algae, fungi to higher plants and animals.

The first MIPS protein reported from an archaeobacterial source was from *Archaeoglobus fulgidus* (Chen et al., 2000), followed by other phylogenetically diverse organisms, such as red algae, bryophytes, gymnosperm and fungi. Phylogenetic analysis of fungal MIPS has shown a high degree of homology with the *Saccharomyces MIPS* gene. In addition, all the fungal MIPS proteins have an extended N-terminal end of about 28 amino acid residues, which is absent in other MIPS proteins. Analyses of the total protein sequences (Bachhawat and Mande, 2000; Majumder et al., 2003) indicate that the eukaryotic MIPS family is homogenous, but not similar to the prokaryotic *MIPS* genes. This could be explained by a monophyletic origin of the eukaryotic MIPS genes.

The enzyme *myo*-inositol 1-phosphate synthase probably exists in native state in a homotetrameric form as evidenced by crystallography (Norman et al., 2002; Stieglitz et al., 2004). It is involved in internal oxidoreduction and cyclisation and needs  $\text{NAD}^+$  as a cofactor (mostly in reconverted form). MIPS converts glucose 6-phosphate to *myo*-inositol 1-phosphate in an  $\text{NAD}^+$  dependent manner. The  $\text{NAD}^+$  binding site in MIPS involves a Rossmann fold characterised by a GXGGXXG motif typical for oxidoreductases (Kleizer and Eisenberg, 2002).

Two distinct types of MIPS structures are reported through crystallography, one for prokaryotic and the other for eukaryotic enzymes. Crystal structure analysis of MIPS from the eukaryotic member *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* has revealed that each monomer of the homotetrameric MIPS has three functionally important structural domains; namely, the NAD binding Rossmann fold, the catalytic binding site and the core domain. This study also exemplifies a case of induced fit model for binding of the substrate with the catalytic domain of the enzyme (Stein and Geiger, 2002).

In this investigation a collection of MIPS sequences (both amino acid and nucleotide) deposited in the NCBI (National Centre for Biotechnology Information), EBI (European Bioinformatics Institute) and Phytozome v10 database (up to March 2015) were used for a set of evolutionary analyses. Although having a significantly varying level of sequence availability the selected sequences were picked only after systematic consideration. The sequences, which contain the common domain that is shared by the higher vascular characteristic plants and members of each other group up to the lowermost unicellular organism of the plant kingdom, were selected for further analysis.

The genomic structure and organization of MIPS has been determined in several organisms, including yeast, *Arabidopsis thaliana*, *Citrus paradisi*, *Nicotiana tabacum*, and *Zea mays*. All these sequences have shown regions of high conservation at the nucleotide level (Hegeman et al., 2001). The amino acid sequences of selected MIPS genes from eubacteria, archaea, parasites, fungi, plant and animal sources reveal four stretches of eukaryotic MIPS sequences as “highly conserved domains” (Majumder et al., 2003). These four domains are involved in MIPS protein binding and are essential for MIPS functions, such as cofactor NAD<sup>+</sup> binding and reaction catalysis (Majumder et al., 1997).

In our current investigation, sequence homology is considered for species selection to find the varieties of MIPS with stretches or portions conserved throughout the plant kingdom from the lowermost algae to the most highly evolved angiosperm. The other possible varieties of MIPS in different algal and fungal groups were discarded, since they did not continue to evolve to the most advanced type. The nucleotide sequences of MIPS from some well described salt tolerant angiosperms like *Porteresia*, *Avicennia* etc. targeted in the present study as the most effective and evolved sequences of MIPS, to-

gether with the evolutionary line in each lower group, have been searched and those that share the maximum sequence similarity were selected as representative species of these particular groups.

In addition to changes due to random, non-adaptive evolutionary forces, for any protein evolving through divergent lineages, diversity might arise due to adaptive changes in its gene sequences to suit the environment of the organism; however, a core functional structure must remain conserved through all such changes, to preserve the original function of the protein (Monizngo, 1996; Clothia, 1997). As an ancient MIPS, proteins/genes constitute an ideal model for studying evolution throughout the biological kingdom for its blanket distribution and prolonged presence. So, the reflection of the sequence divergence in respective protein structures was subsequently studied along with generation of a phylogenetic relationship among selected taxa.

## Materials and methods

### Species selection

A stress (salt) tolerant enzyme is supposed to show its highest level of activity when it is expressed in a salt tolerant species. *Porteresia coarctata*, *Avicennia marina* etc. are some of the halophilic angiosperms where MIPS proteins play a significant role in withstanding salinity. In the present study, *P. coarctata* has been considered as the reference where the expressed variety of myo-inositol 1-phosphate synthase is sufficient for the species to thrive in the highly saline environment of the Sundarban delta (Nandy Datta et al., 2009). Moreover, the representative sequence of pino1 (MIPS coding gene present in *P. Coarctata*) has been found to be similar to many other angiosperm members as well. Thereafter, its homologue sequences with maximum identity and respective source organisms from each group of plant kingdom were picked for further analysis, e.g. rate and pattern estimation of sequence divergence through the evolutionary line. The *Physcomitrella patens* & *Selaginella moellendorffii* proteome report in the database (Phytozome v10) was used to identify the respective MIPS protein sequences, since no sequence was available in the database representing the bryophyte and pteridophyte groups (Hazra, 2015). In the case of gymnosperm, a single partial amino acid sequence of the protein was available and this could be used in sequence alignment only.

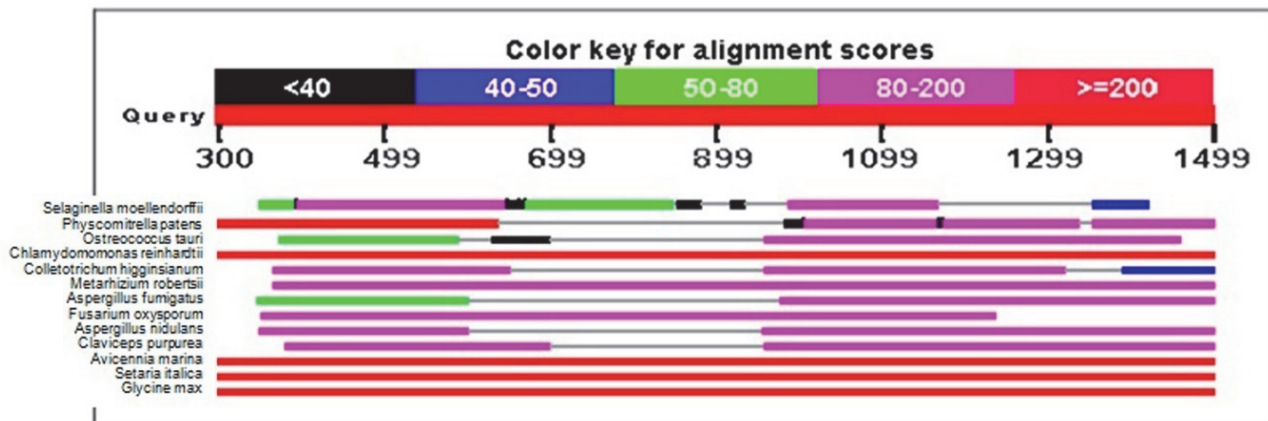


Fig. 2. Graphical summary of BLAST MIPS sequence alignment for selected species (*Porteresia* as query)

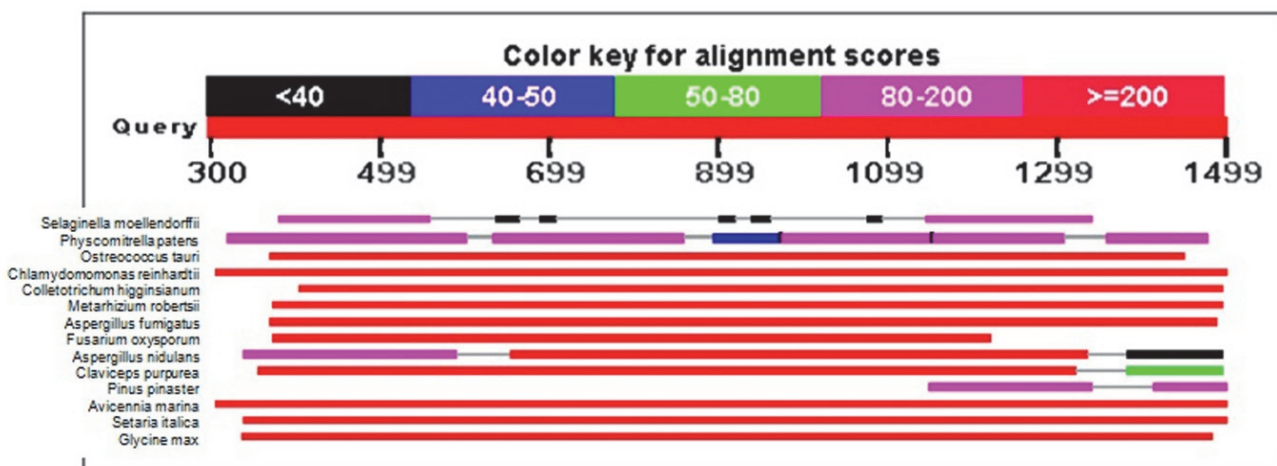


Fig. 3. Graphical summary of BLAST MIPS sequence alignment for selected species (*Chlamydomonas* as query)

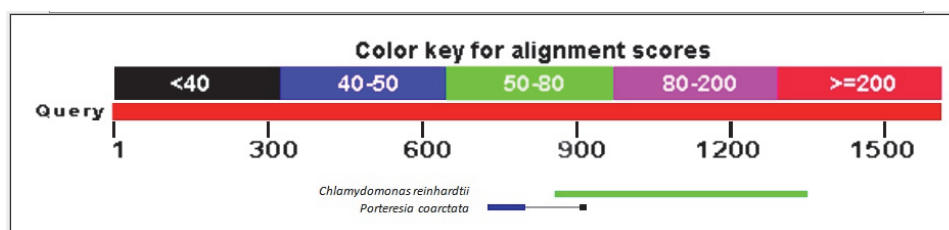


Fig. 4. BLAST result showing yeast MIPS sharing two different common domains with *Porteresia* and *Chlamydomonas*

### Database

All available reported complete cDNA or mRNA sequences of MIPS coding gene *ino1*, which is the key responsible for MIPS expression, as well as the reported amino acid sequences of *myo*-inositol 1-phosphate synthase were retrieved and then curated after screening from the databases of the National Centre for Biotechnology Information, USA ([www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov)) and the Euro-

pean Bioinformatics Institute, Cambridgeshire, UK ([www.ebi.ac.uk](http://www.ebi.ac.uk)), updated March 2015 (Supplementary Table 1).

### Nucleotide sequence homology

The subject species were selected on the basis of the percentage of sequence homology by BLAST® (Altschul et al., 1990) result (blastn, [www.blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi](http://www.blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi)).

### Multiple sequence alignment

Amino acid and nucleotide sequences from selected organisms were further analysed by a number of multiple sequence alignments (MULTALIN/ Corpet, 1988) using an online server ([www.multalin.toulouse.inra.fr/multalin](http://www.multalin.toulouse.inra.fr/multalin)).

### Quaternary structure prediction

Three-dimensional structure predictions of the respective MIPS proteins from different individuals were performed using comparative modelling in Modeller 9.12 (Sali et al., 2006). In brief, this method aligns a query sequence to one or more templates with known structures as determined by crystallization/X-ray diffraction, or NMR spectrometry. Suitable templates (PDB id 1U1I and 1LA2) were selected through pdbBLAST at NCBI. As the protein exists in homotetrameric form in its native state (Stein and Geiger, 2002), the top hit on the homotetrameric structure report was selected as a working template. The ligand modelling command was used to integrate an appropriate ligand with the protein. Molecular visualisation was conducted with Chimera 1.10 (Pettersen et al. 2004).

### Evaluation of a theoretical model

To check the stereochemical stability of psi ( $\psi$ ) and phi ( $\phi$ ) dihedral angles of each amino acid residues in the protein structures, Ramachandran plot (Ramachandran et al., 1963) analysis from the Molprobit server ([www.molprobit.biochem.duke.edu](http://www.molprobit.biochem.duke.edu)), (Chen et al., 2010) was used.

### Molecular clock

The relative rate and time of divergence were determined by the molecular clock analysis method using a Molecular Evolution Genetic Analysis (MEGA6, Tamura et al., 2013).

## Results and discussion

The isoform of MIPS naturally chosen by selection pressure might be represented by one belonging to *Porteresia coarctata*, because in this organism the MIPS protein/enzyme function supports to the highest degree plant's ability to survive in stress (high saline) conditions (Majee et al., 2004). So, utilizing this MIPS mRNA sequence as a query in the NCBI-BLAST programme

against the non-redundant database enabled us to identify its near relative, i.e. the most adapted varieties from each plant group. The nucleotide BLAST report revealed a significant high similarity and identity in the MIPS nucleotide coding sequences among all angiosperm with only a few sequence variations and that are taxa specific. Moreover, significant similarity was observed in some members of algae, fungi, bryophyte, pteridophyte etc. A number of the closest homologue sequences from angiosperm to algae were selected on the basis that they were members of the chosen MIPS evolution path towards *P. Coarctata* MIPS isoform that evolved under extreme environmental conditions.

On the basis of the next BLAST report focusing on those 16 selected MIPS sequences belonging to different species, as the subjects (Supplementary Table 1), two domains (Fig. 2 and Fig. 3) were identified to be very common or similar upstream and downstream of the MIPS nucleotide coding sequences, respectively. These two domains were further analysed by multiple sequence alignment (described later in this section) for a precise observation at each site.

The fungi were characterised by a slightly lower level of MIPS sequence similarity when compared with angiosperm than other members; however, they showed a high sequence matches among themselves (Fig. 2 and Fig. 3), which is in congruence with a previous report (Majumder et al., 2003). This was probably due to the fact that fungal MIPS has high conserveness within the group and are less evolved in respect to the adaptability against salt stress. Interestingly, one member of the fungal group, the unicellular eukaryotic model organism yeast (*Saccharomyces cerevisiae*) had a unique sequence composition for MIPS that shared two separate common domains with *Chlamydomonas* and *Porteresia* (Fig. 4). It is not among organisms chosen for our analyses, but still it is being considered here because of its routine use in evolutionary analyses. Moreover, the only high resolution eukaryotic MIPS crystal structure reported till date is for *Saccharomyces*. Hence, it was distinctly separated from other members of its family and this was also reflected in the subsequent phylogenetic tree based on the MIPS protein sequence.

Meanwhile, the BLAST result unveiled one more important point. Although *Chlamydomonas* belong in plant kingdom to a primitive lower algae group, MIPS DNA sequence showed almost complete identity with

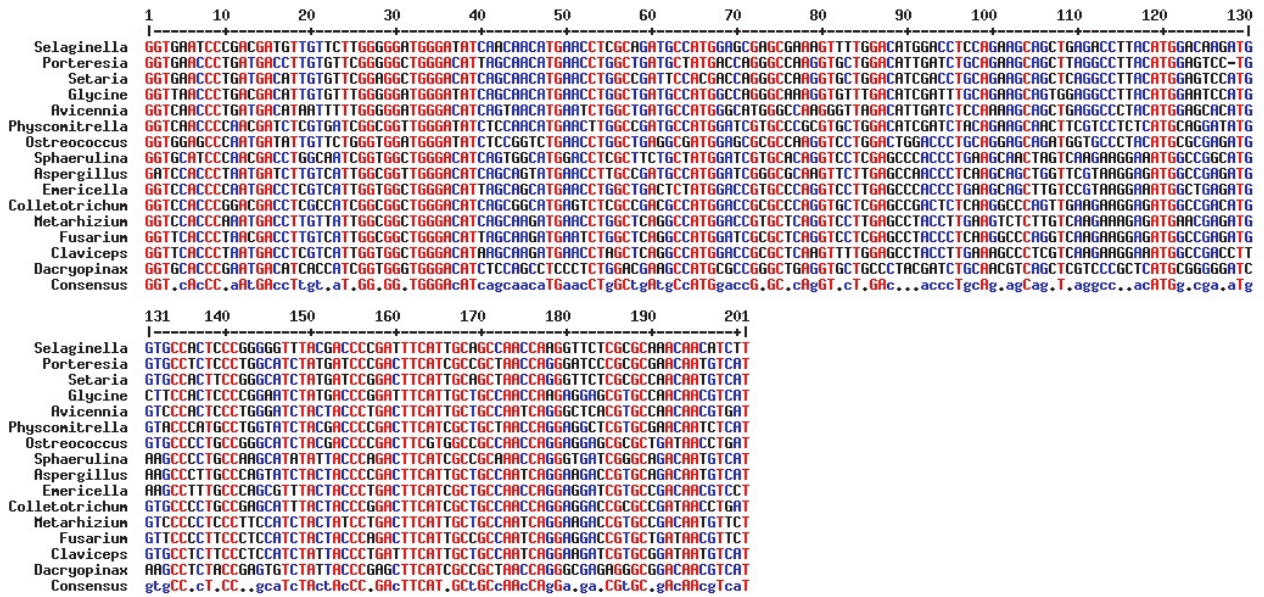


Fig. 5. Multiple sequence alignment of upstream MIPS nucleotide common domains for selected species

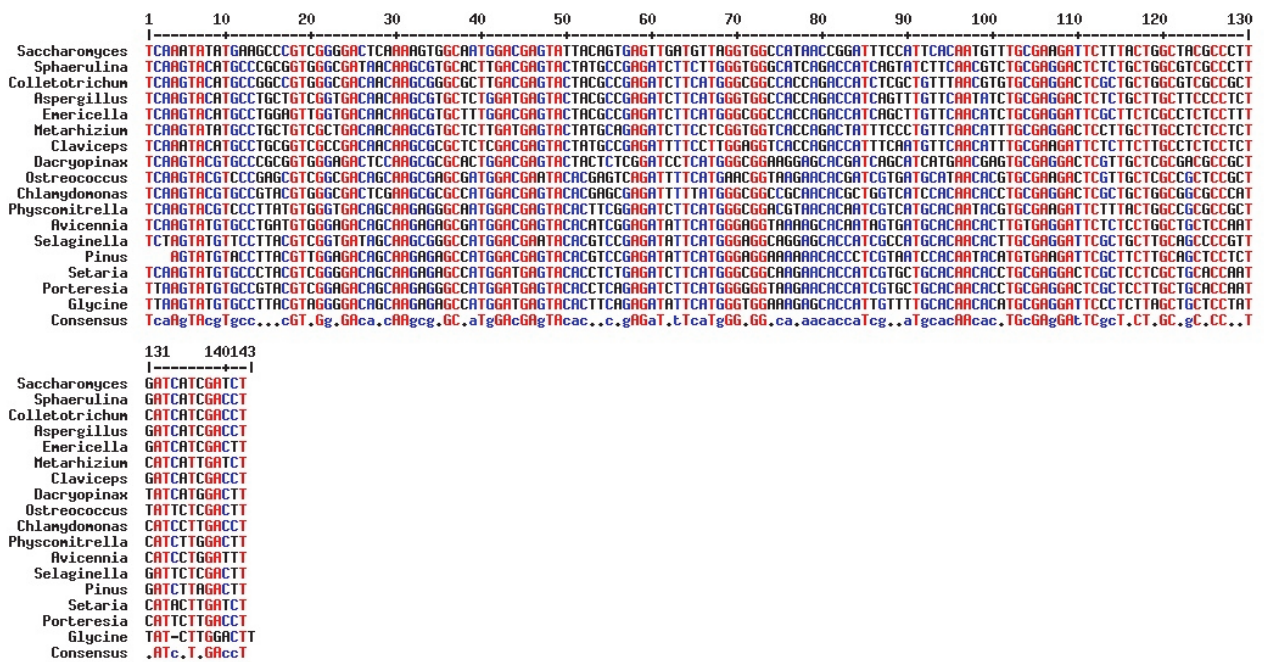
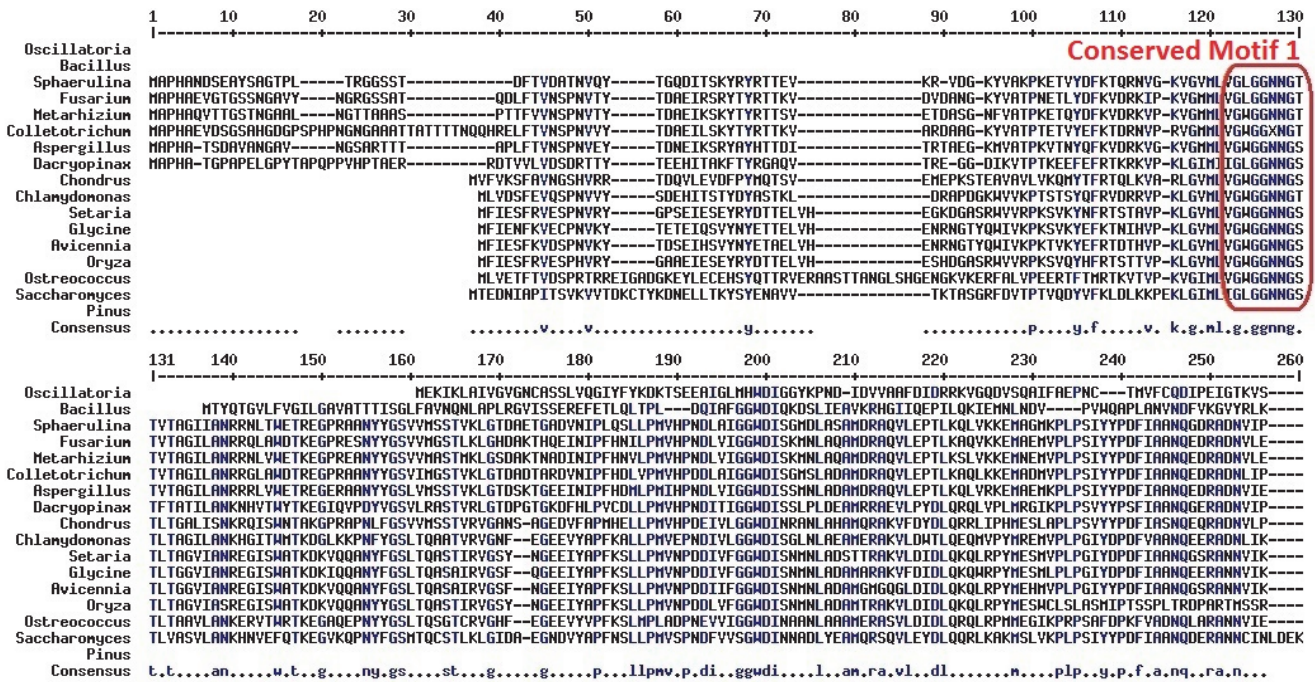


Fig. 6. Multiple sequence alignment of downstream MIPS nucleotide common domain for selected species

*Porteresia coarctata* MIPS variety. Once the naturally most adapted variety (*P. coarctata* MIPS) showed such high similarity with so called “primitive member” it was subsequently regarded as the evolutionary chosen variety of MIPS from evolutionary inferior group. Therefore in the next BLAST analysis *Chlamydomonas* was put as a query and all previously selected species as subjects (Fig. 3).

The Multalin reports precisely revealed the conserved sequence motifs in common MIPS nucleotide domains of the selected species (Fig. 5 and Fig. 6). Those domains probably appeared first in the primitive algal organisms like *Chlamydomonas*, and became naturally selected through the course of evolution. As such most of its existing characters (nucleotides) remained unchanged till the highest evolved organism. When the next



**Fig. 7A.** Multiple sequence alignment of MIPS complete amino acid sequences for selected species – alignment of N terminal portion of the MIPS sequence indicating the strictly conserved GXGGNNG motif

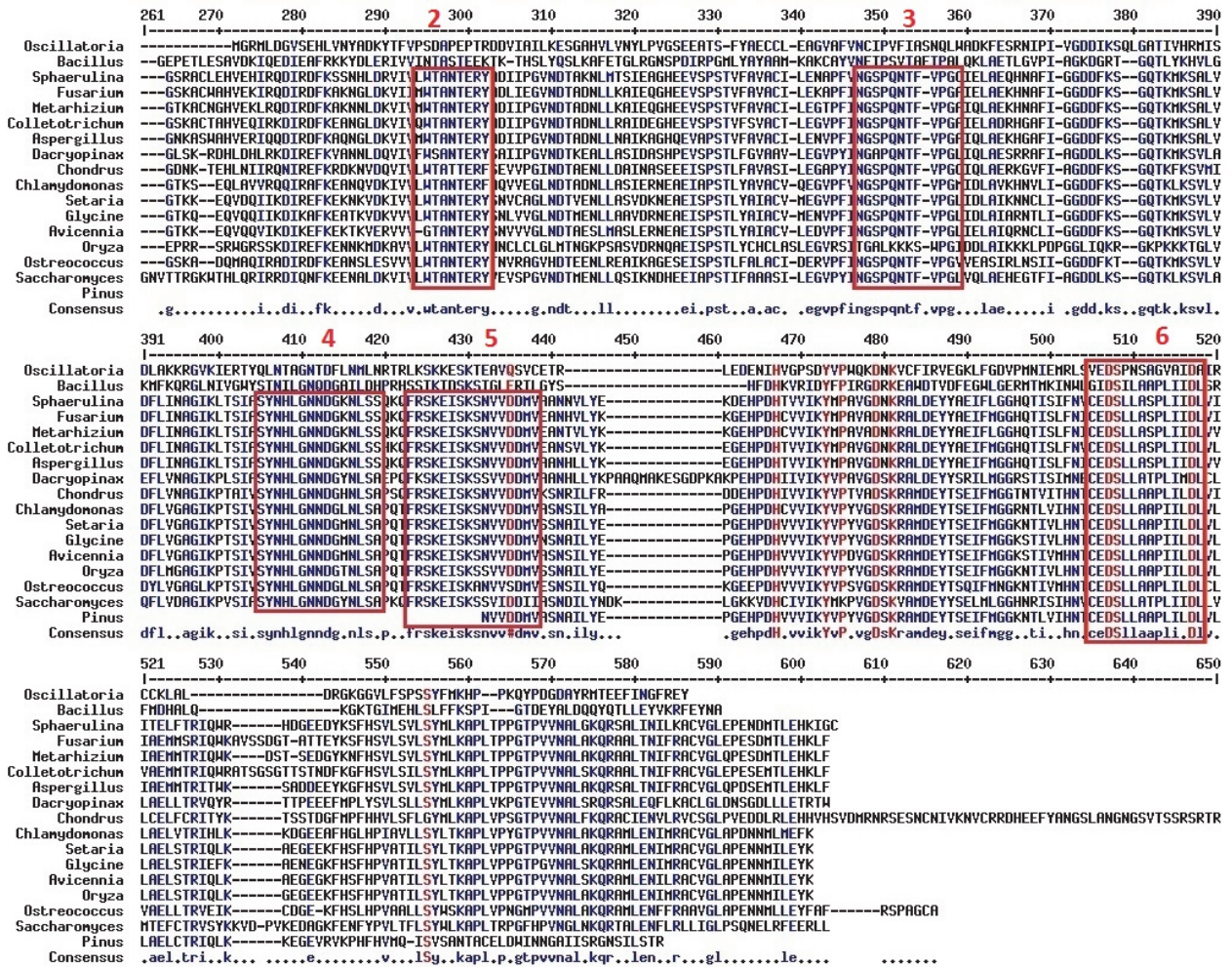
BLAST analysis was performed with *Chlamydomonas* MIPS set as a query and all remaining MIPS isoforms as subjects, then they also showed high similarity. Fungal members, as stated earlier, conserved some specific domains confined to themselves only.

The multiple sequence alignment of amino acids among the members selected for the whole study (Fig. 7) revealed some distinctly conserved domains (GWGGNNG, LWTANTERY, NGSPQNTFVPGL, SYNHLGNN DG) that support earlier observations highlighted in a previous report (Majumder et al. 2003). The authors state that a clear difference between prokaryotic and eukaryotic MIPS protein sequences was observed when compared among each other and that amino acid sequence alignment of the prokaryotic MIPS failed to show any striking similarity across different prokaryotic taxa, as seen in a comparison between eubacterial and archaeobacterial MIPS sequences. It is noticeable that the selected set of subject species in the present study is almost completely different from the earlier one, because here attention was only paid to the plant members, whereas the previous one was based on an all living kingdoms. Nevertheless, the similar conservativeness detected in our analysis corroborates the species selection and methodology of the present study.

Moreover, we report here the existence of two additional domains (FRSKEISKSNVDDMV, CEDSLAS PLIIDL) that were found conserved amongst the selected species (Fig. 7). The later one was present in the prokaryotic system (*Bacillus*, *Oscillatoria*) as well, except for the initial ‘CE’ residues. The uniformity of these domains in some places was slightly deviated between the members of fungal group (Table 1).

It is now clear that the MIPS enzyme is so important in the biological system that it still continues to conserve and maintain its essential catalytic domains from the primitive time. Due to selection pressure, however, slight to major modifications occur in other portions of the sequence.

The study of molecular evolution includes the pattern and rate of substitution of nucleotide or amino acid residues at different sites. *In silico* tools enable an estimation of the rate and divergence of particular sequences through the sites. Logically, the substitution rate should be considerably lower in core functional domains of proteins than in other parts. If mutation in those domains still happen, they should have lesser effect on proteins’ structure. This is so because an enzyme is to maintain its minimum functional property in any circumstances and therefore its core structure also. Accord-



**Fig. 7B.** Multiple sequence alignment of MIPS complete amino acid sequences for selected species – remaining portion up to C terminal of the same showing other five common/conserved domains

dingly, in the subsequent part of our investigation light has been shed first on the 3D structures of the MIPS proteins to predict their structural stability and then to perform the molecular clock analyses.

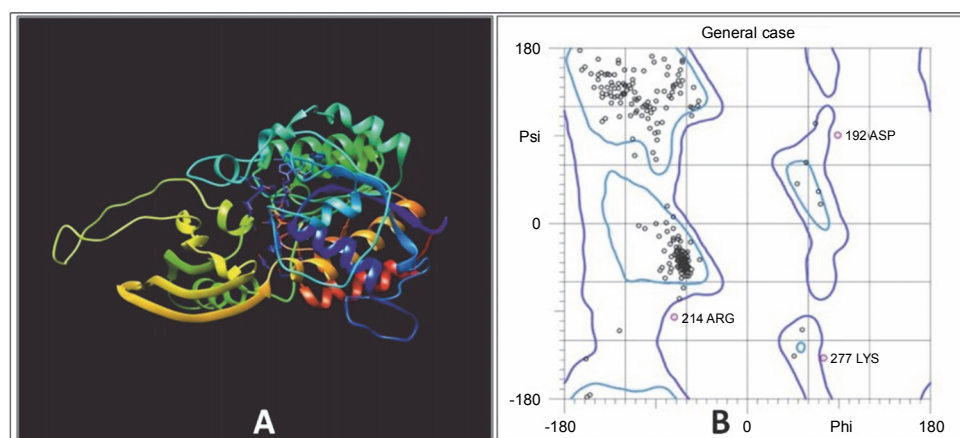
Protein 3D structure is important in understanding protein interactions, their functions and cellular localisation (Jones, 2001). Quaternary structure plays an essential role in defining protein functioning by facilitating allosterism and cooperativity in the regulation of ligand binding (Matthew et al., 2001). Homology modeling is the most common structure prediction method. In this regard, a template structure is needed. A template stands for the 3D structure of the same or related protein from another organism already visualised through crystallography. In our investigation most suitable templates for structural prediction of the MIPS sequences were identified using pdbBLAST. Finally, two prokaryotic

MIPS of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (pdb id-1GR0) and *Archaeoglobus fulgidus* (pdb id-1U1I) were used to predict the MIPS 3D structures belonging to *Oscillatoria* and *Bacillus*. The only eukaryotic MIPS template reported for structural prediction of other MIPS proteins (Table 2). In this study, the quaternary structures of MIPS proteins of the individuals under investigation were predicted by considering the biological assembly that provided the functional state of the protein. As mentioned before, in order to function the protein interactions with an NAD<sup>+</sup> molecule at the N terminal GXG GNG motif (Kleizer and Eisenberg, 2002). It was also necessary to check whether the MIPS protein structures were stable with NAD<sup>+</sup> substrate molecule or not. For this reason, the NAD<sup>+</sup> ligand was also incorporated during MIPS model generation (Supplementary Fig. 1A-P).



**Table 1.** Features of the conserved domains of MIPS proteins identified from amino acid MULTALIN

Sr. no.	Conserved domain sequences	Features	Comments
1	GWGGNNG	Rossmann fold sequence for NAD binding	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>strongly conserved among all members</li> <li>preceded by 'MLV'</li> </ul>
2	LWTANTERY	eukaryotic conserved domain	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>'L' is strictly conserved from algae to angiosperm</li> </ul>
3	NGSPQNTFVPGL	eukaryotic conserved domain	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>'PFI' Preceding the domain</li> <li><i>Porteresia</i> is somehow unique in this domain</li> <li>the terminal 'L' is not conserved and distinctly different</li> </ul>
4	SYNHLGNNDG	eukaryotic conserved domain	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>preceded by 'AGIKPTISIV' in which               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>'P' is deviated in fungi as 'L'</li> <li>'V' is present in <i>Chlamydomonas</i> and all higher plants and <i>Saccharomyces</i></li> </ul> </li> <li>closely followed by 'NLSS' where-               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>terminal residue is 'S' in fungi and 'A' in all others</li> </ul> </li> </ul>
5	FRSKEISKSNVDDMV	reported conserved domain	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li><i>Ostreococcus</i> had only a little difference in some sites</li> </ul>
6	CEDSLLASPLIIDL	reported conserved domain	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>except for 'CE', it is almost conserved in prokaryotes also</li> <li>the 8<sup>th</sup> residue is 'S/I' in fungi and 'A/L' in all others</li> </ul>



**Fig. 8.** A model of MIPS monomer from *Oscillatoria acuminata*:  
 A– 3D structural view of the protein, B – Ramachandran plot of the respective protein model

Basically, it was transferred to the model from the template structure where it is annotated as biologically relevant to this particular protein or enzyme. According to our results, NAD<sup>+</sup> characteristically bound to the GWGGNNG domain which existed in an alpha-helix form in each analysed monomer (Fig. 8).

The straight-forward way to justify the predicted protein model as a simulator of the actual *in vivo* structural form is a computational estimation of its biophysical properties. In the present study per residue and overall geometries of the model protein structures were analysed with Ramachandran plots (Ramachandran et al., 1963). In a polypeptide, main chain N-C<sub>α</sub> and C<sub>α</sub>-C bonds

are relatively free to rotate. These rotations are represented by the torsion angles  $\phi$  and  $\psi$ , respectively. Ramachandran plot analysis helps to visualise the dihedral angles  $\phi$  vs.  $\psi$  of each amino acid residue from a quaternary protein structure. In the plot, residues lie in favoured (sterically allowed regions if strict or greater radii of the atoms are considered), allowed (sterically allowed if shorter radii of the atoms are considered) or outlier (sterically disallowed conformations) regions. A perfect model should have the least number of residues in outlier regions of the Ramachandran plot. Here, all the MIPS model structures in our experiments have their maximum (> 90%) residues (Table 2, Supplementary Fig. 2)

**Table 2.** Summary of the overall quality analysis of predicted MIPS protein models belonging to selected members and the percentage of their identity with respective templates based on which the models are built

No.	Organism	Template	Seq. identity (%)	Outlier
01 a	<i>Oscillatoria acuminata</i> (monomer)	1GR0	56.53	8/365 (0.2%)
01 b	<i>Oscillatoria acuminata</i>	1U1I	21.80	95/1458 (6.5%)
02	<i>Bacillus cereus</i>	1U1I	38.34	53/1564 (3.4%)
03	<i>Aspergillus nidulans</i>	1LA2	52.53	41/2125 (1.9%)
04	<i>Metarhizium robertsii</i>	1LA2	51.72	47/2137 (2.2%)
05	<i>Fusarium oxysporum</i>	1LA2	52.33	43/2153 (2%)
06	<i>Sphaerulina musiva</i>	1LA2	53.20	50/2121 (2.4%)
07	<i>Colletotrichum higginsianum</i>	1LA2	52.18	48/2209 (2.2%)
08	<i>Ostreococcus tauri</i>	1LA2	50.92	65/2127 (3.1%)
09	<i>Chlamydomonas reinhardtii</i>	1LA2	52.36	34/2015 (1.7%)
10	<i>Chondrus crispus</i>	1LA2	52.57	80/2260 (3.5%)
11	<i>Physcomitrella patens</i>	1LA2	51.90	35/2031 (1.7%)
12	<i>Selaginella moellendorffii</i>	1LA2	52.29	46/2032 (2.3%)
13	<i>Glycine max</i>	1LA2	52.20	41/2027 (2%)
14	<i>Avicennia marina</i>	1LA2	51.86	54/2023 (2.7%)
15	<i>Porteresia coarctata</i>	1LA2	44.10	62/2035 (3%)
16	<i>Setaria italica</i>	1LA2	51.85	42/2027 (2.1%)

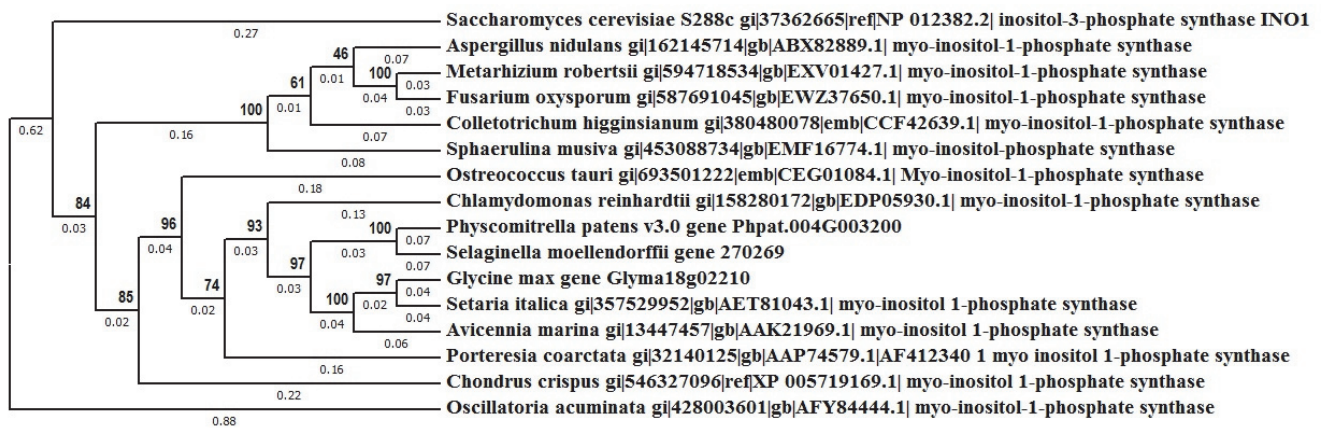
in favoured regions. Among prokaryotic members least amount of residues observed in outlier region was *Oscillatoria* MIPS monomer form (0.2%) and the maximum outlier was in *Oscillatoria* MIPS homotetramer form (6.5%). In eukaryotes the lowest percentage of outliers was present in *Chlamydomonas* and *Physcomitrella* (1.7%) and the highest was in *Chondrus* (3.5%). The prominence of residues in the  $\alpha$ R and  $\beta$  regions suggested that the structure was rigid with more right helices.

Protein domains are compact and constitute more or less independent folding units of structure that recur in different molecular contexts; they are conserved, and are considered functional and evolutionary units of classification (Caetano-Anollés et al., 2009; Chothia and Gough, 2009). A number of popular protein domain classification schemes are available that are based on features like sequence and structure. For example, the Structural Classification of Proteins (SCOP) is one of the important taxonomical resources which groups domains with known 3D structures into families, super-families, and folds (Murzin et al., 1995).

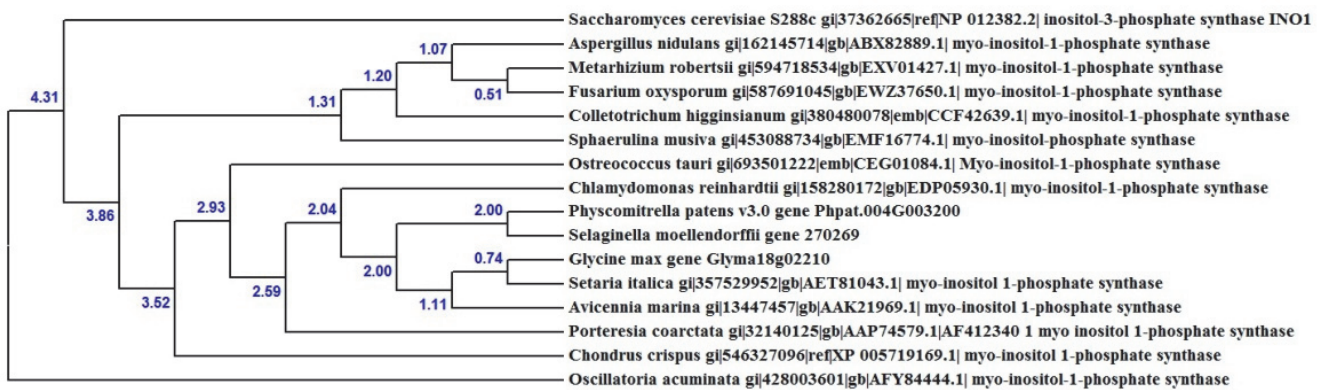
Phylogenetic analysis of MIPS proteins among selected organisms (Fig. 9) provided useful information about

the ancestry of the protein and closely related varieties. According to our results, the phylogenetic tree is rooted by cyanobacteria *Oscillatoria* MIPS protein and subsequently the *Saccharomyces* became the common ancestor for MIPS proteins of other, more complex eukaryotes including multicellular fungi. All fungal MIPS members belong to the same sister group. MIPS proteins from plant members analysed in our study were found to be clustered in the tree branches in a manner as they had previously been classified by plant scientists. So in other words, the MIPS sequence based tree strongly confirms the common plant taxonomical lineage.

The evolutionary history of the MIPS protein from prokaryotic cyanobacteria to highest evolved angiosperm through different plant groups and fungi was inferred using the UPGMA method (Sneath and Sokal, 1973). The optimal tree with the sum of branch length is 3.47994888 is shown in Fig. 10. The percentage of replicate trees in which the associated taxa were clustered together in the bootstrap test (100 replicates) are shown next to the branches (Felsenstein, 1985). The evolutionary distances were computed using the Poisson correction method (Zuckerkanndl and Pauling, 1965) and are in



**Fig. 9.** Tree generated by UPGMA method showing evolutionary relationships of taxa inferred by MIPS amino acid sequence divergence (bootstrap values in percentages from 100 replicates and the branch lengths are indicated above and below the branches)



**Fig. 10.** Evolutionary relationships among selected taxa representing prokaryotes and different groups of eukaryotes (timetree) based on MIPS amino acid sequences, values next to the branches are relative times of divergence as revealed by RelTime method (Tamura et al., 2012) employing MEGA6

the units of the number of amino acid substitutions per site. The analysis involved 16 amino acid sequences. All positions containing gaps and missing data were eliminated. There were a total of 361 positions in the final dataset. Divergence times for all branching points in the topology were calculated with the RelTime method (Tamura et al., 2012) using the branch lengths contained in the inferred tree (Fig. 10) (information on statistical analysis were partially adapted from MEGA6 software).

The standard molecular clock describes a constant rate of molecular evolution and provides a powerful framework for evolutionary timescales. Proteins change by accumulating mutations while continuing to fold into stable structures, while preserving their functions. The interplay between stability and function is important in molecular evolution (Caetano-Anollés and Mittenthal, 2010). Experimental studies have shown that mutations

in divergent lineages have only modest and additive effects on protein stability (Serrano et al., 1993) and that a substantial number of mutations promote mutational robustness and have no detectable effects on protein structure (Bloom et al., 2005). This suggests that much of protein evolution is neutral and provides strong support to the existence of a molecular clock. Molecular clock analysis of MIPS proteins revealed a much higher relative time of divergence from the prokaryotic cyanobacteria to higher eukaryote community, followed by the same trend, i.e a long time path of evolution also from *Saccharomyces*. Interestingly *Porteresia* MIPS is reflected as a highest evolved isolated entity from other angiospermic members probably due to its survival in extreme saline conditions with maximum necessity of this enzyme.

## Conclusions

The availability of an enormous amount of sequence or structural data from a number of continuous and exhaustive wet lab experiments enabled the performance of an analytical study that allows us to draw evolutionary conclusions on MIPS proteins. It is clear that among different groups of plants the MIPS genes and proteins show complex evolutionary changes due to natural selection pressure through time. However, they were able to preserve some conservative core catalytic domains across all the varieties and present themselves as an example of a good fit for natural selection. It is well known that due to the low resolution and high R factors of many crystal structures, homology modelling is now regarded as an important technique not only for obtaining the 3D-structure of a putative proteins but also for refining the existing low accuracy experimental structures. The above analysis through homology models may provide an insight into simulations and related computational studies such as drug docking calculations and protein-drug or enzyme-target interactions to obtain useful insights into structure-function relationships.

## Acknowledgements

The present study was not funded by any organisation. Infrastructure facility was partly supported by the PG Department of Botany, Barasat Govt. College and DBT Centre for Bioinformatics, Presidency University. The authors are grateful to these organisations.

We would like to express our sincere thanks to the editors and reviewers of this article before publication for their effort and critical evaluation.

## References

- Abu-abied M., Holland D. (1994) *The gene cINO1 from Citrus paradise is highly homologous to tur1 and Ino1 from the yeast and Spirodela encoding for myo inositol 1-phosphate synthase*. Plant Physiol. 106: 1689.
- Adhikari J., Majumder A.L., Bhaduri T.J., Dasgupta S. (1987) *Chloroplast as a local of L-myo-inositol-1-phosphate synthase*. Plant Physiol. 85: 611-614.
- Agranoff B.W., Fisher SK. (2001) *Inositol, lithium and the brain*. Psychopharmacol. Bull. 35: 5-18
- Altschul S.F., Gish W., Miller W., Myers E.W., Lipman D.J. (1990) *Basic local alignment search tool*. J. Mol. Biol. 215: 403-410.
- Bachhawat N., Mande S. (2000) *Complex evolution of the inositol-1-phosphate synthase gene among archaea and eubacteria*. Trends Genet. 16: 111-113.
- Basak A., Jha T.B., Adhikari A. (2013) *Biosynthesis of myo-inositol in lycopods: characteristics of the pteridophytic L-myo-inositol-1-phosphate synthase and myo-inositol-1-phosphate phosphatase from the strobili of Lycopodium clavatum and Selaginella monospora*. Acta Physiol. Plant. 34: 1579-1582.
- Baud S., Vaultier M.N., Rochat C. (2004) *Structure and expression profile of the sucrose synthase multigene family in Arabidopsis*. J. Exp. Bot. 55: 397-409.
- Bloom J.D., Silberg J.J., Wilke C.O., Drummond D.A., Adami C., Arnold F.H. (2005) *Thermodynamic prediction of protein neutrality*. Proc Natl Acad. Sci. 102(3): 606-611.
- Caetano-Anollés G., Mittenthal J.E. (2010) *Exploring the interplay of stability and function in protein evolution*. BioEssays 32(8): 655-658.
- Caetano-Anolle's G., Wang M., Caetano-Anolle's D., Mittenthal J.E. (2009) *The origin, evolution and structure of the protein world*. Biochem. J. 417(3): 621-637.
- Chen L., Zhou C., Yang H., Roberts M.F. (2000) *Inositol-1-phosphate synthase from Archaeoglobus fulgidus is a class II aldolase*. Biochemistry 39: 12415-12423.
- Chen V.B., Arendall W.B., Headd J.J., Keedy D.A., Immormino R.M., Kapral G.J., Murray L.W., Richardson J.S., Richardson D.C. (2010) *MolProbity: all-atom structure validation for macromolecular crystallography*. Acta Crystallogr. D66: 12-21.
- Chhetri D. R, Yonzon S, Mukherjee A. K, Adhikari J. (2006) *L-myo-inositol-1-phosphate Synthase from Marchantia ne-palensis: partial purification and properties*. Gen. Appl. Plant Physiol. 32(3-4): 153-164.
- Chhetri D.R., Choudhuri M., Mukherjee A.K., Adhikari J. (2005) *L-myo-inositol-1-phosphate synthase: partial purification and characterization from Gleichenia glauca*. Biol. Plant. 49: 59-63.
- Chhetri D.R., Mukherjee A.K., Adhikari J. (2006) *Partial purification and characterization of L-myo-inositol-1-phosphate synthase of pteridophytic origin*. Acta Physiol. Plant. 28: 101-107.
- Chothia C., Gerstein M. (1997) *Protein evolution. How far can sequences diverge?* Nature 385: 579-581.
- Chothia C., Gough J. (2009) *Genomic and structural aspects of protein evolution*. Biochem. J. 419(1): 15-28.
- Chun J.A. (2003) *Isolation and characterization of a myo-inositol 1-phosphate synthase cDNA from developing sesame (Sesamum indicum L.) seeds: functional and differential expression, and salt-induced transcription during germination*. Planta 216: 874-880.
- Chung C.H., Kim J.L., Lee Y.C., Choi Y.L. (1999) *Cloning and characterization of a seedspecific fatty acid desaturase cDNA from Perilla frutescens*. Plant Cell Physiol. 40: 114-118.
- Corpet F. (1988) *Multiple sequence alignment with hierarchical clustering*. Nucl. Acids Res. 16 (22): 10881-10890.
- Eswar N., Marti-Renom M.A., Webb B., Madhusudhan M.S., Eramian D., Shen M., Pieper U., Sali A. (2006) *Comparative Protein Structure Modeling With MODELLER*. Current Protocols in Bioinformatics. John Wiley & Sons, Supplement 15: 5.6.1-5.6.30.

- Felsenstein J. (1985) *Confidence limits on phylogenies: An approach using the bootstrap*. *Evolution* 39: 783-791.
- Hait N.C., Ray Chaudhuri A., Das A., Bhattacharyya S., Majumder A.L. (2002) *Processing and activation of chloroplast L-myo-inositol 1-phosphate synthase from Oryza sativa requires signals from both light and salt*. *Plant Sci.* 162: 559-568.
- Hazra A. (2015) *Computational Fishing and Structural Analysis of MIPS Protein from Two Important Plant Groups*. *Int. Lett. Natural Sci.* 42: 18-27.
- Hegeman C.E., Good L.L., Grabau E.A. (2001) *Expression of D-myo-inositol-3-phosphate synthase in soybean. Implication for Phytic acid biosynthesis*. *Plant Physiol.* 125: 1941-1948.
- Imhoff V., Bourdu R. (1973) *Formation d'inositol par les chloroplastes isolés de pois*. *Phytochemistry* 12: 331-336.
- Iqbal M.J. (2002) *A pyramid of loci for partial resistance to Fusarium salani f. sp. Glycines maintains Myo-inositol-1-phosphate synthase expression in soybean roots*. *Theor. Appl. Genet.* 105: 1115-1123.
- Ishitani M., Majumder A.L., Borhouser A., Michalowski C.B., Jensen R.G., Bohnert H.J. (1996) *Coordinate transcriptional induction of myo-inositol metabolism during environmental stress*. *Plant J.* 9: 537-548.
- Jin U.H. (2000) *Characterization of a methionine-rich storage protein cDNA from perilla (Perilla frutescens) seed*. *Plant Physiol.* 27: 701-707.
- Johnson M.D., Sussex I.M. (1995) *1-L-myo-inositol 1-phosphate synthase from Arabidopsis thaliana*. *Plant Physiol.* 107: 613-619.
- Johnson M.D., Wang X. (1996) *Differentially expressed forms of 1-L-myo-inositol phosphate synthase (EC5.5.1.4) in Phaseolus vulgaris*. *J. Biol. Chem.* 271: 17215-17218.
- Jones D.T. (2001) *Protein structure prediction in genomics*. *Brief Bioinform.* 2(2): 111-125.
- Keller R., Brearley C.A., Trethewey R.N. (1998) *Reduced inositol content and altered morphology in transgenic potato plants inhibited for 1D-myo-inositol 3-phosphate synthase*. *Plant J.* 16: 403-410.
- Kido E.A., Ferreira Neto J.R., Silva R.L., Belarmino L.C., Bezerra Neto J.P., Soares-Cavalcanti N.M. (2013) *Expression dynamics and genome distribution of osmoprotectants in soybean: identifying important components to face abiotic stress*. *BMC Bioinformatics.* 14: 1-11.
- Kleiger G., Eisenberg D. (2002) *GXXXG and GXXXA Motifs Stabilize FAD and NAD (P)-binding Rossmann Folds Through C  $\alpha$ -H... O Hydrogen Bonds and van der Waals Interactions*. *J. Mol. Biol.* 323: 69-76.
- Larson S.R., Raboy V. (1999) *Linkage mapping of maize and barley myo-inositol 1-phosphate synthase DNA sequences: correspondence with low phytic acid mutation*. *Theor. Appl. Genet.* 99: 27-36.
- Loewus F.A., Kelly S. (1962) *Conversion of glucose to inositol in parsley leaves*. *Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun.* 7: 204-208.
- Loewus F.A., Murthy P.N. (2000) *Myo-inositol metabolism in plants*. *Plant Sci.* 150: 1-19.
- Majee M., Maitra S., Dastidar K.G., Pattnaik S., Chatterjee A., Hait N.C., Das K.P., Majumder A.L. (2004) *A novel salt-tolerant L-myo-inositol-1-phosphate synthase from Porteresia coarctata (Roxb.) Tateoka, a halophytic wild rice. Molecular cloning, bacterial overexpression, characterization, and functional introgression into tobacco-conferring salt tolerance phenotype*. *J. Biol. Chem.* 279: 28539-28552.
- Majumder A.L., Chatterjee A., Ghosh D.K., Majee M. (2003) *Diversification and evolution of L-myo-inositol 1-phosphate synthase*. *FEBS Lett.* 553: 3-10.
- Majumder A.L., Johnson M.D., Henry S.A. (1997) *1L-myo-inositol 1-phosphate synthase*. *Acta Biochim. Biophys.* 1348: 245-256.
- Margulis L. (1996) *Archaeal-eubacterial mergers in the origin of Eukarya: phylogenetic classification of life*. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.* 93: 1071-1076.
- Matthew D.G., Mark S.H. (2001) *Quaternary structure of rice non-symbiotic hemoglobin*. *J. Biol. Chem.* 276: 6834-6839.
- Michell R.H. (2008) *Inositol derivatives: evolution and functions*. *Nature reviews Molecular Cell Biology.* 9: 151-161
- Monizngo A.F., Marcote E.M., Robertson J.D. (1996) *Chitinases, chitosanases, and lysozymes can be divided into prokaryotic and eukaryotic families sharing a conserved core*. *Nat. Struct. Biol.* 3: 133-140.
- Murzin A.G., Brenner S.E., Hubbard T., Chothia C. (1995) *SCOP: a structural classification of proteins database for the investigation of sequences and structures*. *J. Mol. Biol.* 247(4): 536-540.
- Nandy Datta P., Dasgupta N., Das S. (2009) *Differential expression of physiological and biochemical characters of some Indian mangroves towards salt tolerance*. *Physiol. Mol. Biol. Plants.* 15(2): 151-160.
- Norman R.A., McAlister M.S.B., Murray R.J., Movahedzadeh F., Stoker N.G., McDonald N.Q. (2002) *Crystal structure of inositol 1 phosphate synthase from Mycobacterium tuberculosis, a key enzyme in phosphatidyl inositol synthesis*. *Structure* 10: 393-402.
- Pettersen E.F., Goddard T.D., Huang C.C., Couch G.S., Greenblatt D.M., Meng E.C., Ferrin T.E. (2004) *UCSF Chimera – a visualization system for exploratory research and analysis*. *J. Comput. Chem.* 25(13): 1605-1612.
- Ramachandran G.N., Ramakrishnan C., Sasisekharan V. (1963) *Stereochemistry of polypeptide chain configurations*. *J. Mol. Biol.* 7: 95-99.
- Ray Chaudhuri A., Majumder A.L. (1996) *Salinity induced enhancement of L-myo-inositol 1-phosphate synthase in rice (Oryza sativa L.)*. *Plant Cell Environ.* 19: 1437-1442.
- Sengupta S., Patra B., Ray S., Majumder A.L. (2008) *Inositol methyl transferase from a halophytic wild rice, Porteresia coarctata Roxb. (Tateoka): regulation of pinitol synthesis under abiotic stress*. *Plant Cell Environ.* 31(10): 1442-1459.
- Stein A.J., Geiger J.H. (2002) *The crystal structure and mechanism of L myo inositol 1 phosphate synthase*. *J. Biol. Chem.* 277: 9484-9491.

- Stevenson J.M., Perera I.Y., Heilmann I., Persson S., Boss W.F. (2000) *Inositol signaling and Plant Growth*. Trends Plant Sci. 5: 252-258.
- Tamura K., Battistuzzi F.U., Billing-Ross P., Murillo O., Filipski A., Kumar S. (2012) *Estimating Divergence Times in Large Molecular Phylogenies*. Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci. 109: 19333-19338.
- Tamura K., Stecher G., Peterson D., Filipski A., Kumar S. (2013) *MEGA6: Molecular Evolutionary Genetics Analysis version 6.0*. Mol. Biol. Evol. 30: 2725-2729.
- Yamaguchi-Shinozaki K., Shinozaki K. (2006) *Transcriptional regulatory networks in cellular responses and tolerance to dehydration and cold stresses*. Ann. Rev. Plant Biol. 57: 781-803.
- Zuckerandl E., Pauling L. (1965) *Evolutionary divergence and convergence in proteins*. [in:] *Evolving Genes and Proteins*. Ed. V. Bryson, H.J. Vogel. Academic Press, New York: 97-166.