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The Phosphoramidase Compentency of Prototypical Phosphatase Catalytic Motifs

Mark P. Haney

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THE PHOSPHORAMIDASE COMPETENCY

OF PROTOTYPICAL PHOSPHATASE CATALYTIC MOTIFS

by

Mark P. Haney

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for a degree

of

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in

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UTAH STATE UNIVERSITY
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ABSTRACT

The Phosphoramidase Competency of Prototypical Phosphatase Catalytic Motifs

by

Mark P. Haney, Doctor of Philosophy

Utah State University, 2013

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The discovery that phosphorylation of proteins occurs on nitrogen by particular kinases raises the question of whether a separate class of phosphoramidases also exists, or if known phosphatases carry out the hydrolysis of phosphoramidates. The phosphoramidase activity of a number of phosphatases with different catalytic motifs was studied using the substrates N-phenylphosphoramidate (N-phPAM) and phosphoryl imidazole (PIm). The phosphatases assayed were: the protein tyrosine phosphatase YopH; alkaline phosphatase; the dual-specificity phosphatase VHR; prostatic acid phosphatase, PAcP; PHPT1, the only known phosphohistidine phosphatase; and the serine/threonine phosphatases λPP and PP1. The catalytic efficiencies, k_{cat}/K_M ($s^{-1}M^{-1}$), were compared for the respective phosphoramidase and phosphatase activities for each enzyme. Ratios of catalytic efficiencies (k_{cat}/K_M)/(k_{cat}/K_M) of pNPP over PIm are: YopH – 27; AP – 4.1; VHR – 0.22; PAcP – 1.6; AP – 0.51; and PHPT1 – 0.00007. λPP catalyzed hydrolysis of PIm, although kinetic constants could not be obtained. PP1 exhibited no phosphoramidase activity. The results show that most phosphatase catalytic

motifs display catalytic promiscuity by cleaving both phosphoesters and phosphoramidates, but with a pronounced preference for one substrate type versus the other.

(199 pages)

Public Abstract
The Phosphoramidase Competency of Prototypical Phosphatase Catalytic Motifs
Mark P. Haney
Utah State University, 2013

Phosphorylation of proteins is ubiquitous. Phosphorylation can activate proteins, deactivate proteins, assist in signaling, or serve other roles depending upon the biochemical pathway. Attaching phosphate to proteins is accomplished by enzymes called kinases; removing phosphate from proteins is accomplished by enzymes called phosphatases. Cells must regulate their biochemical pathways, and the antipodal roles of kinases and phosphatases represent the yin-yang of phosphorylation.

Phosphorylation of proteins is known to occur on serine, threonine, and tyrosine. This creates a phosphoester bond. Phosphoester bonds have a phosphorus-oxygen (P-O) bond. The ability of phosphatases to cleave such phosphoester bonds is well studied. Phosphorylation of proteins is also known to occur on lysine, arginine, and histidine. This creates a phosphoramidate bond. Phosphoramidate bonds have a phosphorus-nitrogen (P-N) bond. The ability of phosphatases to cleave such phosphoramidate bonds is not well studied. The research herein involved a side-by-side comparison of the abilities of the known phosphatases to cleave the P-O bond of pNPP and the P-N bonds of N-phenyl phosphoramidate and phosphoryl imidazole.

The enzymes selected were well-studied phosphatases possessing a catalytic motif representative of a class of enzymes. The phosphatases assayed were: the protein tyrosine phosphatase YopH; alkaline phosphatase; the dual-specificity phosphatase VHR; prostatic acid phosphatase, PAcP; PHPT1, the only known phosphohistidine phosphatase; and the serine/threonine phosphatases λPP and PP1. The catalytic efficiencies, k_{cat}/K_M ($s^{-1}M^{-1}$), were compared for the respective phosphoramidase and phosphatase activities for each enzyme. Ratios of catalytic efficiencies (k_{cat}/K_M)/(k_{cat}/K_M) of pNPP over PIm are: YopH – 27; AP – 4.1; VHR – 0.22; PAcP – 1.6; AP – 0.51; and PHPT1 – 0.00007. λPP catalyzed hydrolysis of PIm, although kinetic constants could not be obtained. PP1 exhibited no phosphoramidase activity. The results show that most phosphatase catalytic motifs display catalytic promiscuity by cleaving both phosphoesters and phosphoramidates, but with a pronounced preference for one substrate type versus the other.

DEDICATION

To my wife Stefanie, who has supported me in this endeavor. And to my daughter, Mica,

and son, Thorin, who have taught me about life as I have taught them.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Money to run a lab and pay graduate students doesn't fall from the sky like manna from heaven. The professor has to chase it down. Hours thinking up projects, digging through the literature, and getting preliminary results precede any grant application. Once that's done, there's the stress of writing the application, submitting it, and God willing, actually getting the funds. The agencies providing funds are filled with people who expect results for the funds. So having the money doesn't mean less stress. It's just a different kind of stress.

When I started graduate school my faculty advisor wasn't the head of the chemistry department. Sometime during my tenure as a student he became the department head. This had to be more stress.

During the past five years I felt stress to get results. My first year's project took almost an entire year and resulted in nothing but experience. Nature decided my efforts were to be rewarded with a null result. I moved to a different project that had some literature background, but there were many unanswered questions. Two of the biggest questions were: 1) how is the experiment actually to be conducted, and 2) is the experiment even doable? It took me the better part of two years to figure out the answer to question 1, all the while question 2 was nagging at my mind. So, for three years I was having quite a bit of stress. I'm not deeply religious, but was praying a lot.

The stress I felt was mine. During this time I did not feel unduly pressured by Prof. Hengge to get results. He found the money, he owned the lab, he needed results, he was the department head, he had some stress.

We both came to the chemistry building in the morning, he did his job, I did mine. We both had stress. Like a good boss he insulated me from the stresses he was having related to my research. I focused on the science. I focused on the results. I focused on classes. I focused on TA duties. I was able to focus on what I was supposed to be focusing on because my boss was a good boss. Thanks boss. I noticed the things you did for me, even when I wasn't around.

My committee is comprised of people who helped polish a rough-around-the-edges Jarhead. With the exception of Prof. Cornforth, I've been a student in each member's class. During my cumulative exams, orals, and dissertation proofs I received no quarter. But, I knew I wouldn't and put my efforts into each event. It made me smarter. I've received good feedback, and in the process have become more professional in science. I am thankful for the help and advice of my committee.

My last acknowledgments must go to the staff in the chemistry building, Geri, Margaret, and LuAnn, as well as the staff in the School of Graduate Studies. There's a bureaucracy that must be adhered to. If the bureaucracy runs smoothly the organization runs smoothly. Flexibility in the bureaucracy is caused by people willing to work with me. I've seen a lot of bureaucratic flexibility, and a lot of smooth administration, both of which reflect good people doing their jobs well. Again, that's helped me focus on my job. Thanks.

<div align="right">Mark P. Haney</div>

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

Abbreviation	Expanded Form or Meaning
AMP	Adenosine monophosphate
AP	Alkaline phosphatase
^{o}C	Degrees Celcius
$CDCl_3$	Deuterated chloroform
DMSO	Dimethyl sulfoxide
DNA	Deoxyribose nucleic acid
DNPP	Di-nitrophenylphosphate
DTT	Di-thiothreitol
EDTA	Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid
GMP	Guanosine monophosphate
HCl	Hydrochloric acid
HEPES	4-2-hydroxyethyl-1-piperazineethanesulfonic acid
His tag	Histidine tag
HPLC	High Performance Liquid Chromatography
IPTG	Isopropyl β-D-1 thiogalactopyranoside
k_{cat}	Catalytic rate constant
kDa	kilo Dalton
K_i	Inhibition constant
KIE	Kinetic Isotope Effect
K_M	The Michaelis constant
λPP	Lambda phosphatase

LFER	Linear Free Energy Relationship
MHz	Mega Hertz
mNBP	meta-nitrobenzylphosphate
NMR	Nuclear magnetic resonance
N-phPAM	N-phenylphosphoramidate
OD	Optical density
PAcP	Prostatic acid phosphatase
PCA	pyridine-2-carbaldoxime
PHPT1	Protein histidine phosphatase 1
P_i	Inorganic phosphate
PIm	Phosphoryl Imidazole
pNP	*para*-nitrophenol
*p*NPP	*para*-nitrophenylphosphate
PP1	Protein phosphatase 1
PTP	Protein tyrosine phosphatase
RCF	Relative centrifugal force
TCEP	*tris*-c-carboxyethylphosphine
TEV	Tobacco etch virus
Tris	*tris*(hydroxymethyl)aminomethane
UV/Vis	Ultraviolet/Visible
VHR	Vaccinia H1 related protein.
VH1	Vacinna H1
V_{max}	The maximum velocity of an enzymatic reaction

YopH   *Yersinia* outer protein H

WPD   W – tryptophan, P – proline, D – aspartic acid.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Protein phosphorylation occurs on histidine,[1-6] lysine,[5,7-9] and arginine,[5,10-12] and

such phosphoramidates have been shown to account for as much as 76% of protein

phosphorylation as compared to 24% for phosphoesters.[7] Therefore, phosphoramidases

should be prevalent in the proteome. Yet, only a single phosphoramidase is known.

While other phosphoramidases may remain undiscovered, another possibility is that

existing phosphoester phosphatases are catalytically promiscuous, cleaving

phosphoramidates in addition to their native phosphoester substrates.

Articles published in 1955 and 1957 reported enzymes with both

phosphomonoester phosphatase and phosphoramidase activities.[13,14] The reports predate

amino acid sequencing and protein crystallography.[15,16] Based on the biological source

and method of isolation, one of these enzymes was probably prostatic acid phosphatase,

PAcP, while the other may have been alkaline phosphatase, AP. If so, these reports

would be among the first to indicate that phosphoester phosphatases cleave

phosphoramidates.

There appears to be a single report of an enzyme that is completely specific for a

phosphoramidate.[17] Purified rat brain extracts yielded a 30 kDa enzyme that was termed

6-phospholysine phosphatase. It catalyzed the hydrolysis of phospholysine and

ammonium phosphoramidate, but was unable to catalyze the hydrolysis of AMP, GMP,

pNPP, or phosphohistidine. The report did not include an amino acid sequence, even

though this technique was commonly available at the time of the report. Identification of

the enzyme was based mainly upon elution behavior of the enzyme during size exclusion and ion exchange chromatography. The absence of a sequence prevents definitive assignment of the enzyme to a class; that the enzyme was a previously, or subsequently, reported enzyme cannot be ruled out. No additional reports of studies with this enzyme have appeared in the literature.

The above literature reports show some enzymes catalyze hydrolysis of phosphoesters and phosphoramidates, while in another case, an enzyme is completely specific for a phosphoramidate. From a biological perspective, both results are potentially beneficial to a cell.[18] If a cell can accomplish multiple tasks with a single protein it will reduce the energy expended in the synthesis of multiple proteins. On the other hand, control of biochemical pathways is crucial, and high substrate specificity allows a cell to maintain tight control of a pathway. If an enzyme is specific for either a phosphomonoester or phosphoramidate substrate, it must be due to the active site and catalytic mechanism, herein referred to as the motif.

The purpose of the research herein was to determine if known phosphatase motifs cleave both P-O and P-N bonds, or if enzymes exist specifically with phosphoramidase activity. Because enzymes within a class share the same catalytic motif, well-characterized enzymes from the known phosphomonoester phosphatases are used to represent the different classes. Each enzyme was assayed with phosphoramidates and a phosphoester. Successful catalytic hydrolysis of both substrate types does not mean that all enzymes within the class are promiscuous; it only indicates that the motif is able to act on both bond types.

monomer. Presently, it is the sole representative of the phosphoramidase class. It has

displayed the ability to hydrolyze phosphorylated histidine residues in proteins and

peptides.[2]

PHPT1 is believed to use general base catalysis (Figure 1-1). His53 deprotonates

water, which acts as a nucleophile. The histidine leaving group departs with concomitant

generation of inorganic phosphate, P_i.[20] Although mutation of other amino acids in the

active site cause reduced activity, only the mutation of H53 results in complete loss of

catalytic activity.[20,21] The H53A mutant binds P_i four times more strongly than the wild

type, $K_d = 0.28$ mM versus 1.1 mM for H53A vs WT, respectively.[20]

The pH optimum for hydrolysis of *p*NPP by PHPT1 is 8, although activity is

present from pH 5.6 to 10.6.[20] NMR studies indicate the general base, His53, remains

un-protonated throughout the pH range.[20] The crystal structure with bound phosphate

shows no residues in the active site that could act as a general acid to activate the

substrate. The NMR result, crystal structure, mutational study, and failure of the enzyme

to exchange [18]O with P_i are all consistent with the proposed mechanism.[20]
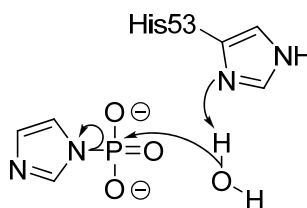
Figure 1-1. The catalytic motif of PHPT1. His53 deprotonates a nucleophilic water

molecule. Protonation of the leaving group is not effected by the enzyme.

The overall structure of the enzyme consists of two α-helices and six β-strands.

There is one active site and it is well exposed to the solvent (Figures 1-2, 1-3, and 1-4).

Binding of the phosphate moiety is effected via hydrogen bond interactions with the

peptide backbone and electrostatic interaction with Lys21 (Figure 1-2B).

1.2.2 YopH (*Yesinia* outer protein H)

Protein Tyrosine Phosphatases, PTPs, have a conserved segment of 250 amino

acids that form the catalytic domain.[22] The signature motif for PTPs is

(I/V)VHCXAGXGR(S/T)G.[22] In this study, YopH is the selected representative of the

PTP, class of enzymes. It possesses the catalytic domain and motif of the PTP family.
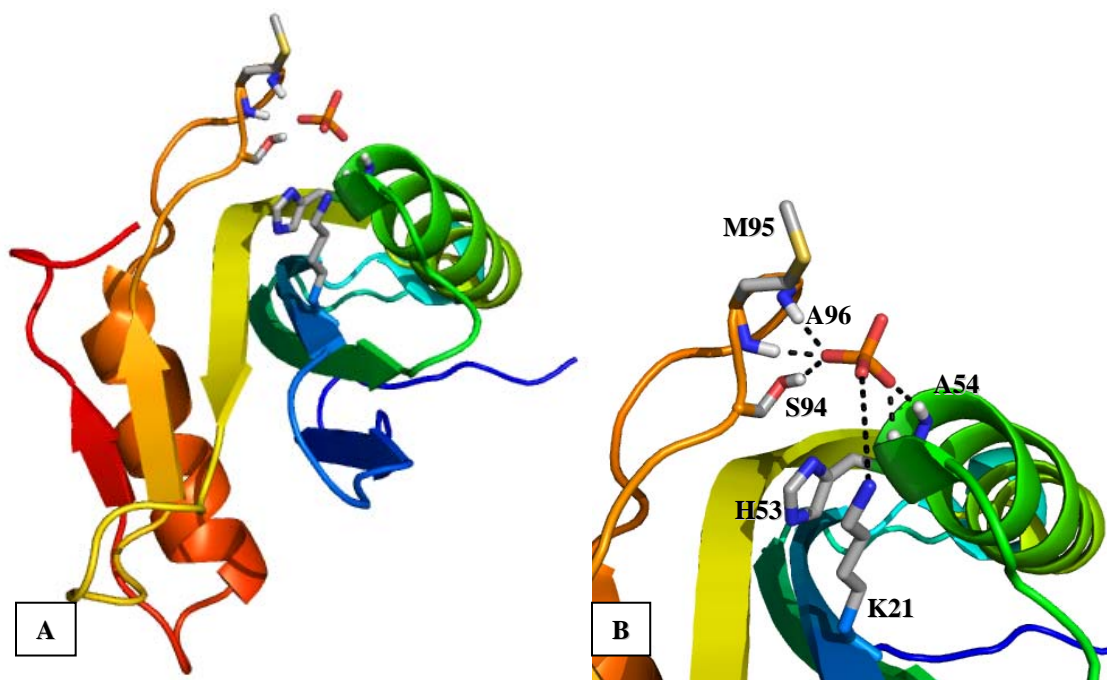
Figure 1-2. A) overall structure of PHPT1 (PDB 2OZW) B) with active site enlarged.

Phosphate is bound to the enzyme through hydrogen bonding with His53, Ala54, Ser94,

Met95, Ala96 and electrostatic interaction with Lys21.
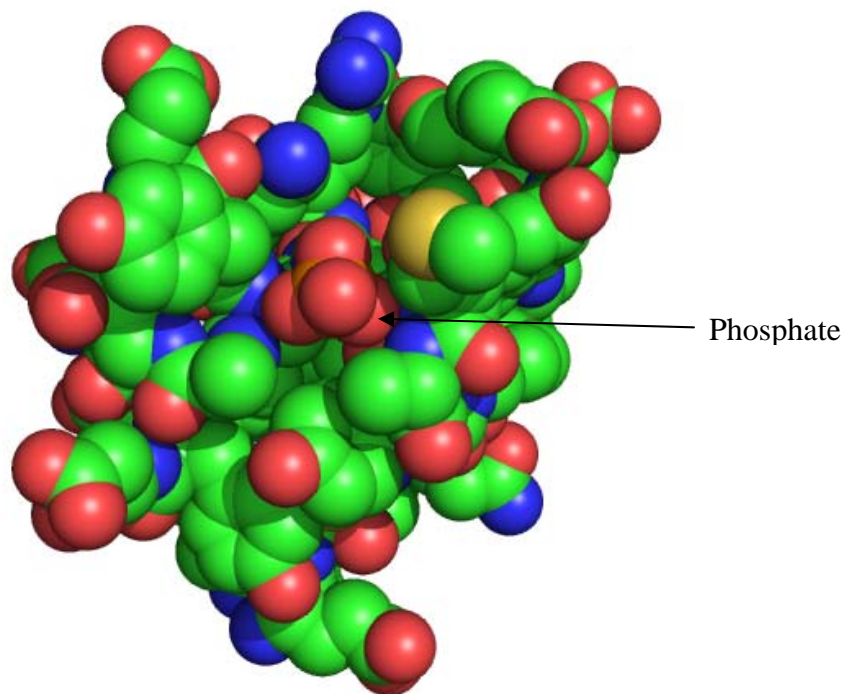
Phosphate

Figure 1-3. Active site of PHPT1 (PDB 2OZW) with bound phosphate as viewed from above phosphate. Active site is approximately 14 Å long, 9.2 Å wide, and 6.9 Å high. Space filling models illustrate possible interactions of amino acid residues near the active site with the substrate. The substrates used in this study are geometrically different, as will be covered in **1.3.5**, and the potential for interactions may be seen with these models. Color scheme: green represents carbon, red represents oxygen, blue represents nitrogen, yellow represents sulfur, orange represents phosphorus. This color scheme will be maintained in further figures.

The 50.8 kDa wild type protein from *Yersenia pestis* has 468 amino acids and is a monomer. YopH is secreted by *Yersenia* bacteria as a component of the pathogenic process.
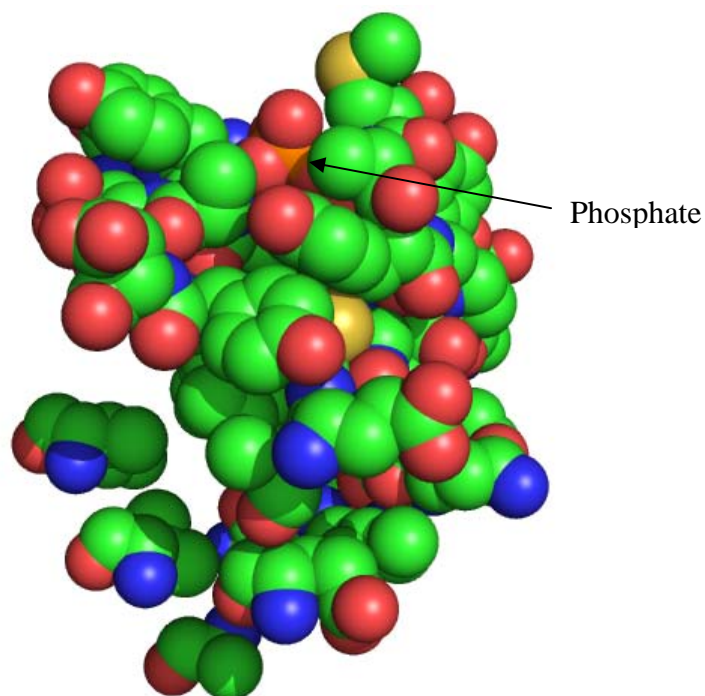
Phosphate

Figure 1-4. Active site of PHPT1 (PDB 2OZW) with bound phosphorus as viewed laterally toward phosphate.

The overall structure of YopH consists of seven α-helices and eight β-sheets (Figure 1-5). The active site is separated from the solvent when the WPD loop is closed. Binding of the phosphate moiety is via interactions with the protein backbone and electrostatic interactions with Arg409, a conserved residue in PTPs and dual-specificity phosphatases, and Arg404 (Figure 1-6).[23,24] The active site is deep, requiring phosphorylated species to be long enough to enter (Figures 1-7 and 1-8). This is a possible explanation for YopH's specificity for phosphotyrosine in lieu of phosphoserine and phosphothreonine.[25]
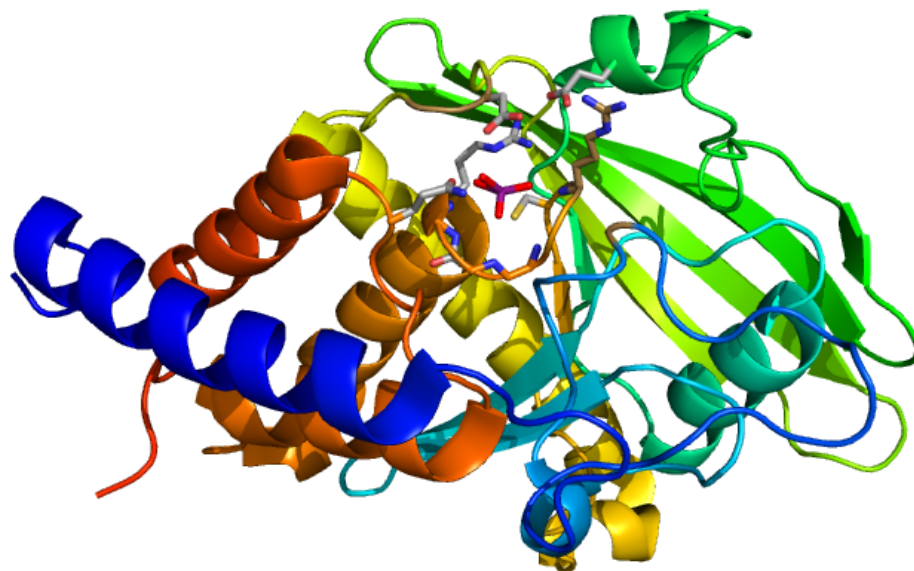
Figure 1-5. Overall structure of YopH (PDB 2I42). Bound vanadate is shown in purple near the top of the image.
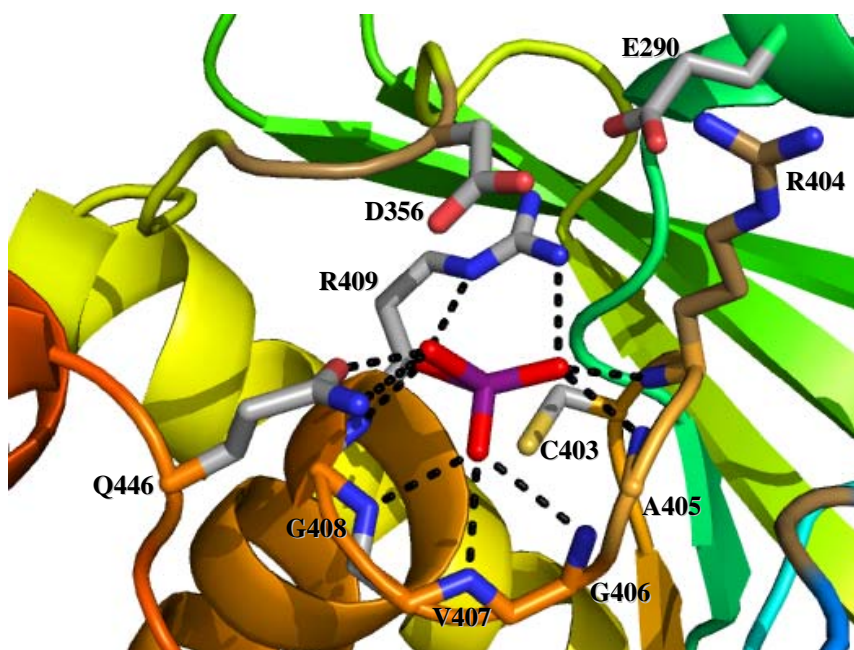
Figure 1-6. The active site of YopH (PDB 2I42). Vanadate is shown in purple/red.
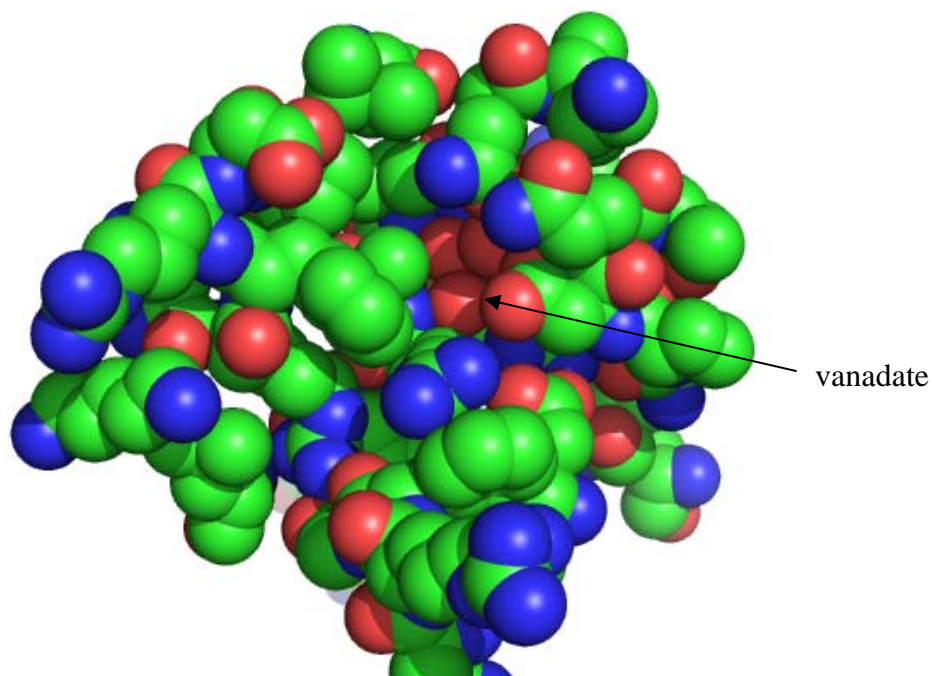
Figure 1-7. Active site of YopH (PDB 2I42) with bound vanadate as viewed from above vanadate.
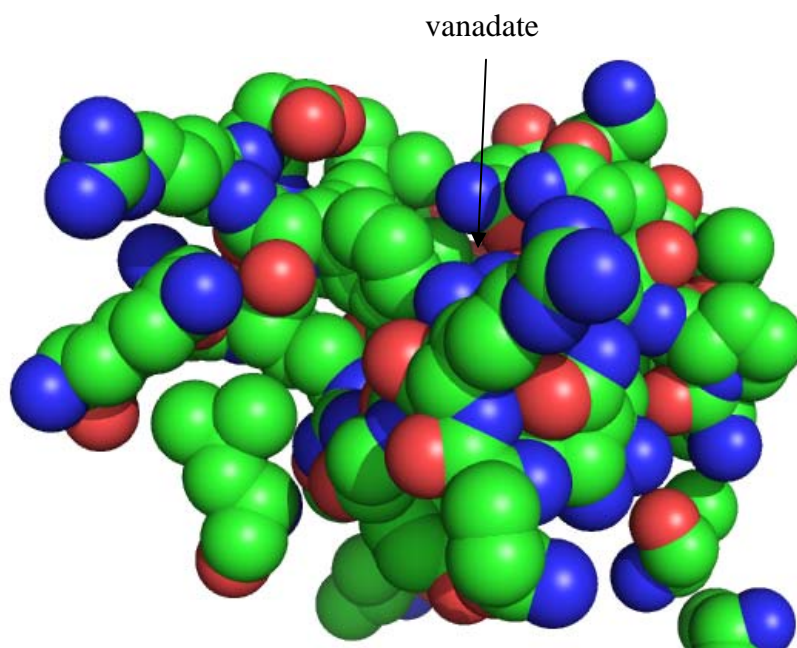
Figure 1-8. Active site of YopH (PDB 2I42) with bound vanadate as viewed laterally toward vanadate; vanadate cannot be seen because active site is buried. With WPD loop closed, the active site is separated from solvent.

PTPs effect catalysis via formation of a cysteine-phosphate intermediate (Figure 1-9).[22-24,26-35] The cysteine involved has a pK_a of approximately 4.7.[36] YopH has a pH optimum between 5.0 and 5.5.[26] PTPs display a bell-shaped pH profile due to the pK_a of the cysteine nucleophile and an aspartic acid residue that acts as a general acid/base.[37] The aspartic acid residue is part of a flexible WPD loop. It acts as a general acid, providing a proton to stabilize charge on the leaving group.[23] The same residue then acts as a general base to deprotonate the nucleophilic water that breaks the phosphorus-sulfur bond.
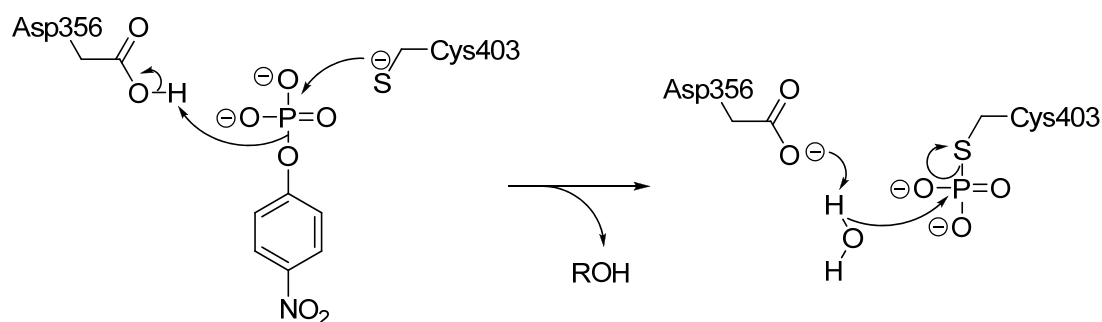
Figure 1-9. Catalytic motif of protein tyrosine phosphatases as represented by YopH.

In the catalytic mechanism, the substrate enters the active site as the dianion. In a synchronous fashion, cysteine attacks phosphorus, cleaving the P-O bond and generating the phosphoenzyme intermediate, while the general acid protonates the leaving group. Water attacks phosphorus, being deprotonated by the general base. In assays with phosphomonoesters, phosphoryl transfer is rate limiting.[28,30,38-40] This motif is shared by dual-specificity phosphatases, the difference being that the general acid/base is not on a flexible WPD loop.

Timing of leaving group protonation is dependent upon the pK_a of the leaving group,[31,41] which determines the extent of bond fission in the transition state; this mirrors

the behavior of substrates in uncatalyzed reactions.[37] As will be seen in 1.3.2,

protonation of the leaving group is important in the cleavage of P-O bonds.

Mutant D356N's k_{cat} is ~ 10^4 fold lower than the wild type.[22] That the mutant

retains some catalytic ability is an indication that YopH uses factors in addition to general

acid/base chemistry to effect catalysis.

1.2.3 VHR (Vaccinia H1-Related Dual-Specificity Phosphatase)

In this project VHR was used as a representative member of the dual-specificity

phosphatases, DSPs. It has been assigned two enzyme commission numbers, one

identifying it as a protein tyrosine phosphatase, 3.1.3.48, and another identifying it as a

dual-specificity phosphatase, DSP, 3.1.3.16. This enzyme is known to catalyze the

hydrolysis of phosphoserine, phosphothreonine, and phosphotyrosine substrates. It

shares the same conserved motif as the PTPs.[42] VHR is a human protein, although VH1

is encoded from the virus which is used to inoculate against smallpox. VHR is a 20 kDa

enzyme with 184 amino acids and is monomer.

Like the PTPs its catalytic motif involves formation of a cysteine-phosphate

intermediate, which in VHR involves cysteine 124.[38,42-45] The cysteine involved has a

pK_a of approximately 5.5.[46] VHR's pH optimum is between 5.5 and 6.0.[44] Unlike the

PTPs, in DSPs the general acid-base, Asp92 in VHR, is not positioned on a flexible loop.

Binding of the substrate's phosphate moiety is through hydrogen bonding with the

protein backbone and electrostatic interactions with Arg130, directly analogous to

interactions seen with other enzymes in the PTP family (Figures 1-10 and 1-11). VHR

has a shallower active site cleft than YopH, an explanation for its dual-specificity

(Figures 1-12 and 1-13). With departure of the substrate's leaving group, a
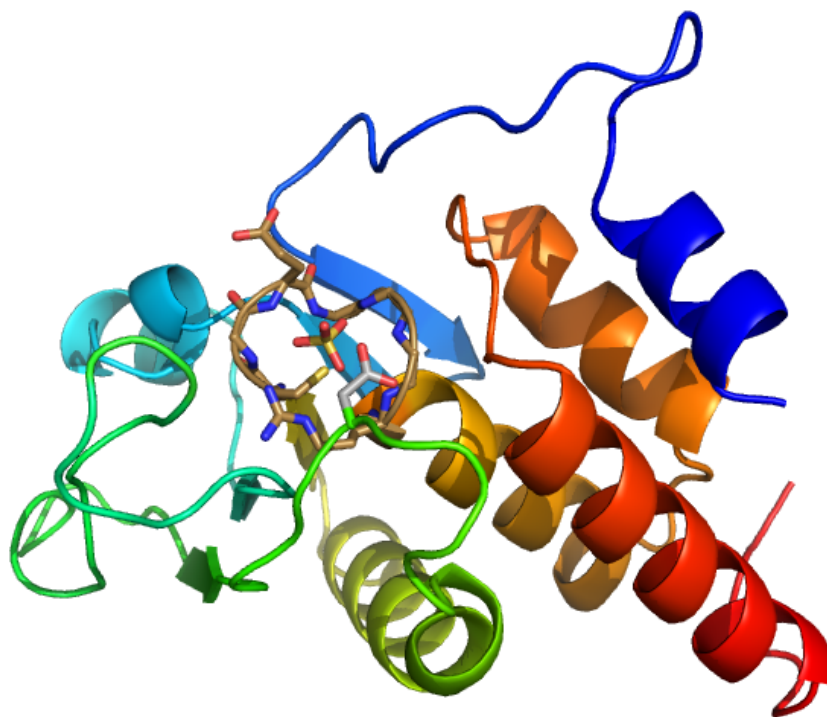
Figure 1-10. Overall structure of VHR (PDB 1VHR) with sulfate bound at the active site.
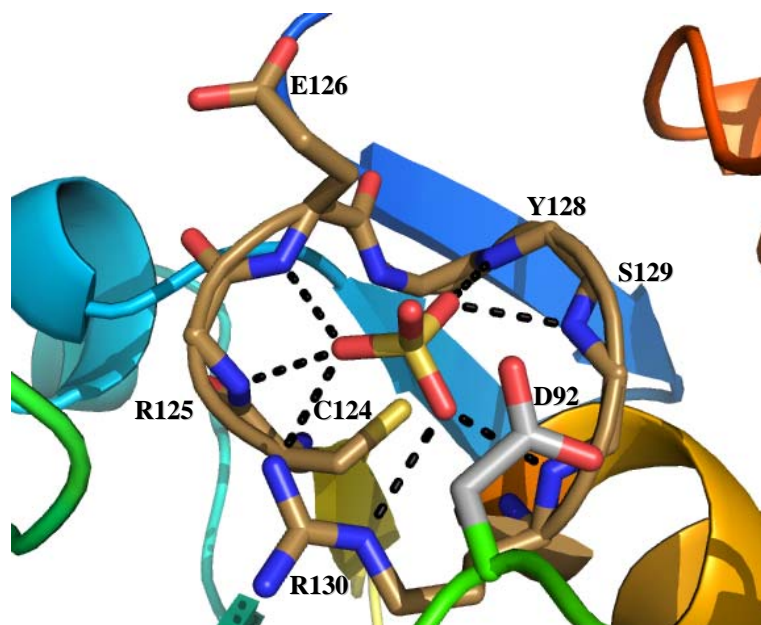
Figure 1-11. The active site of VHR (PDB 1VHR) with bound sulfate. Potential hydrogen bonds with a distance greater than 3.0 Å were not considered.
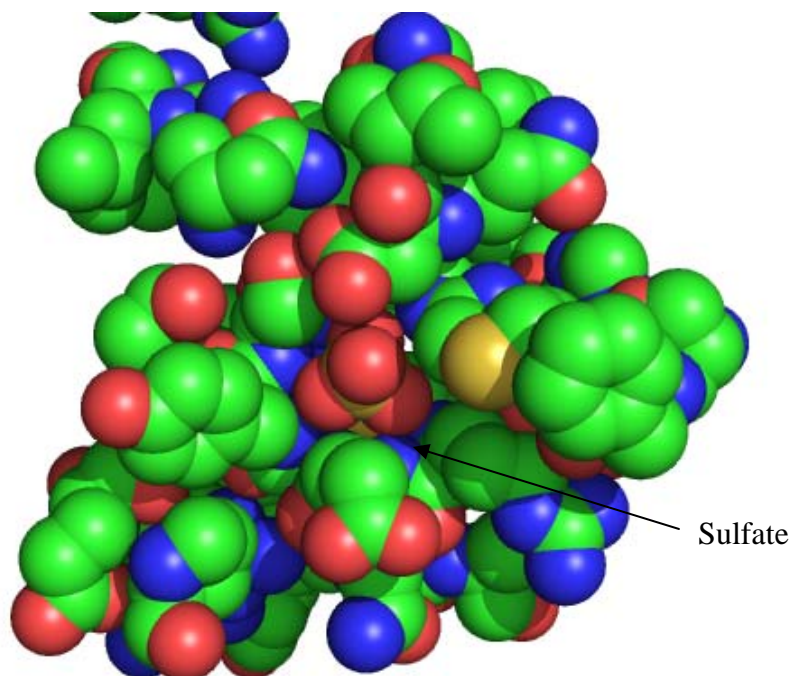
Figure 1-12. Active site of VHR (PDB 1VHR) with bound sulfate as viewed from above sulfate.
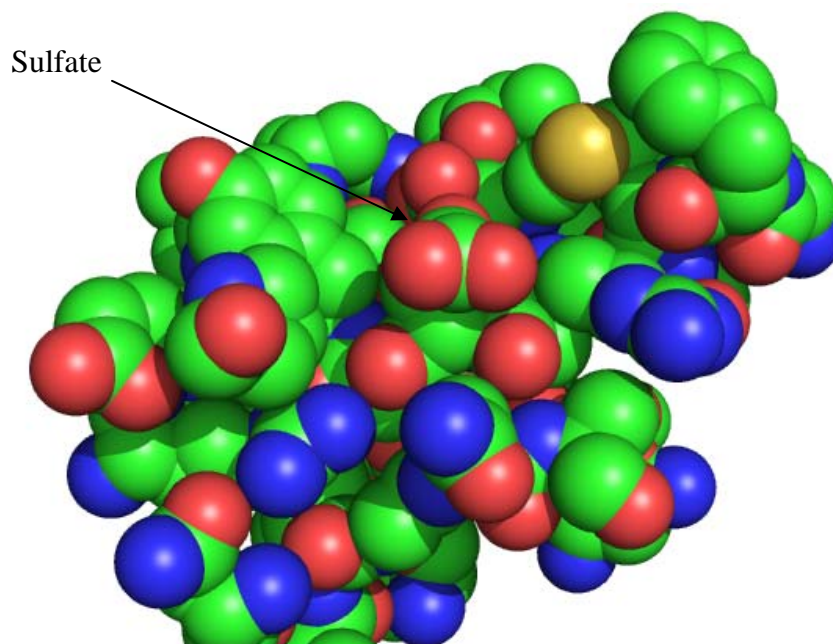
Figure 1-13. Active site of VHR (PDB 1VHR) with bound sulfate as viewed laterally toward sulfate.

phosphoenzyme intermediate is formed. It is the breakdown of this phosphoenzyme

intermediate that is the rate limiting step in VHR catalyzed hydrolysis.[42]

In a side by side comparison between Protein Tyrosine Phosphatase 1, PTP1, and

VHR, using substituted aromatic phosphoesters, k_{cat} values for PTP1 show dependence

upon the geometry of the substrate, while VHR's values do not. The authors conclude

that "the active site structure of the VHR protein phosphatase appears to be more

accommodating than that of PTP1."[43] This observation may prove prescient when

considering geometrical differences between phosphomonoesters and phosphoramidates.

1.2.4 hPAcP (human prostatic acid phosphatase)

The acid phosphatases hydrolyze phosphate esters at low pH. These phosphatases

are found in many organisms, yeast, bacteria, mammals, and involve different

phosphoester substrates, e.g. glucose-1-phosphate, phytic acid, and phosphorylated amino

acids. The enzymes share a conserved sequence RH(G/N)XRX(P/A/S). Like the PTPs

and DSPs, the histidine acid phosphatases form a covalent phosphoenzyme intermediate;

in this case the phosphoenzyme intermediate is phosphohistidine in lieu of

phosphocysteine. Prostatic acid phosphatase, PAcP, possesses the conserved motif and

forms the phosphohistine intermediate.[47-50] PAcP is the representative of the histidine

acid phosphatase class of enzymes for the research herein.

PAcP is expressed in mammalian prostates. Its up-regulation was used as a

marker for prostate cancer, although such application has ceased. Significant research

has been devoted to PAcP, reflecting its previous medical use.

This 41 kDa protein has 386 amino acids. *In vivo* it is a glycosylated

homodimer.[48] Each monomer has an α/β domain with a seven-strand β-sheet with α-

helices on both sides, and an α-helix domain (Figure 1-14). Binding of the phosphate moiety is accomplished through hydrogen bonding with active site residue His257, and electrostatic interactions with conserved residues Arg11, Arg15, and Arg79 (Figure 1-15).[48,49]

PAcP has a broad pH optimum from 3 to 5.5, with a limb showing reduced activity in the basic pH region.[47,48,51] The strong activity in the acidic range is a reflection of the "enzymes specificity for the monoanionic form of the substrate."[47] The basic limb is a result of deprotonation of the phosphoenzyme intermediate; the neutral form of the intermediate is less reactive than the cationic form (Figure 1-16).[47]
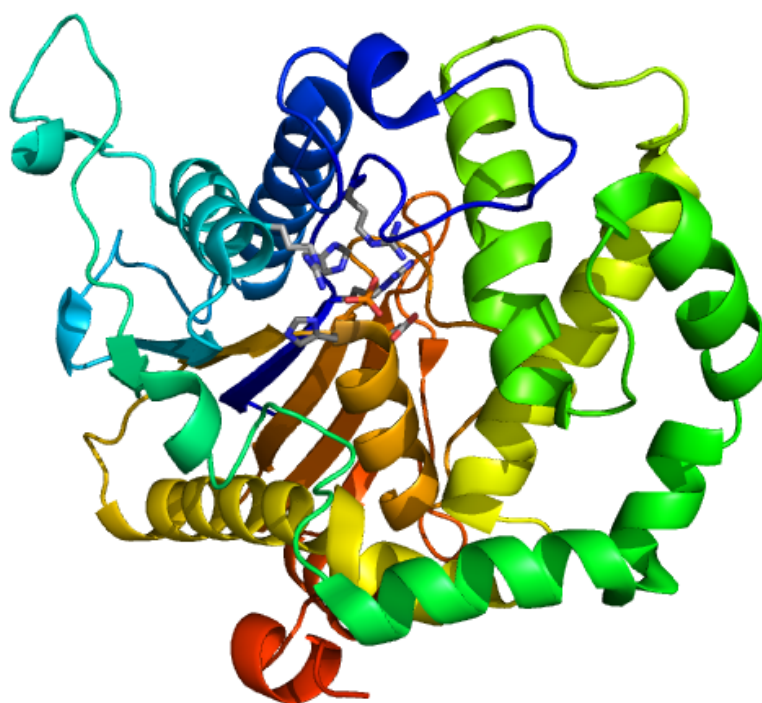
Figure 1-14. Catalytic subunit of hPAcP (PDB 1ND6) with bound phosphate.
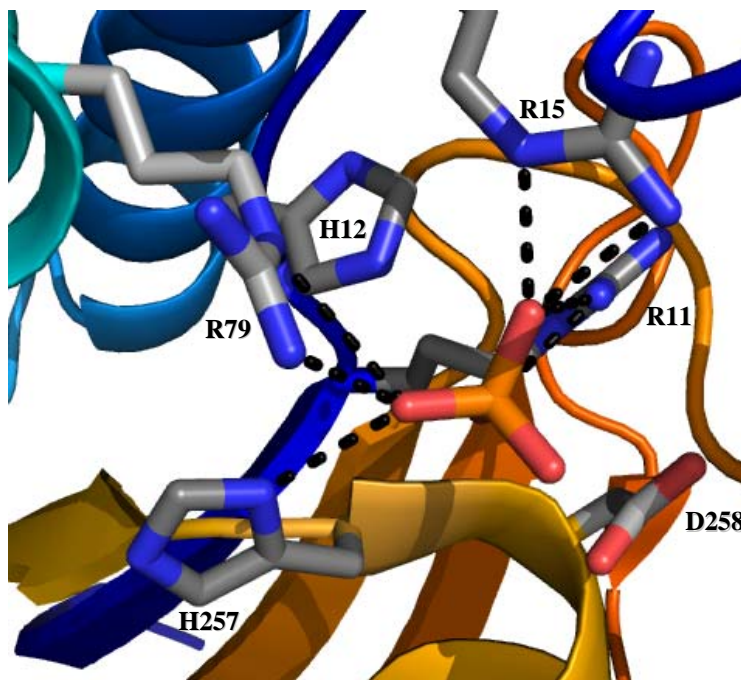
Figure 1-15. Active site of hPAcP with bound phosphate.
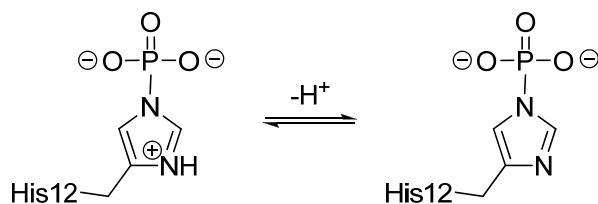
Figure 1-16. The basic limb of the pH rate profile is due to formation of the unreactive, dianionic form of the phosphoenzyme intermediate (right).

A conserved aspartic acid acts as a general acid and base to donate a proton to the leaving group and subsequently deprotonate a nucleophilic water (Figure 1-17). Attack on the phosphorus by water cleaves the histidine-phosphorus bond, regenerating the enzyme's active site. The substrate is surrounded by amino acid residues (Figures 1-18 and 1-19). Breakdown of the phosphoenzyme intermediate is rate limiting.[47,51,52]
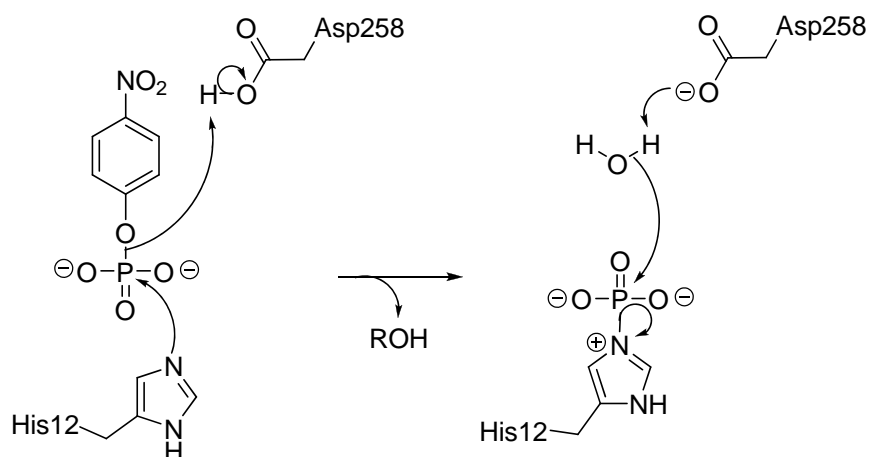
Figure 1-17. Catalytic motif of Histidine Acid Phosphatases as represented by PAcP. Nucleophilic histidine attacks phosphorus, while a general acid protonates the leaving group. In a subsequent step, water attacks phosphorus, being deprotonated by the general base.
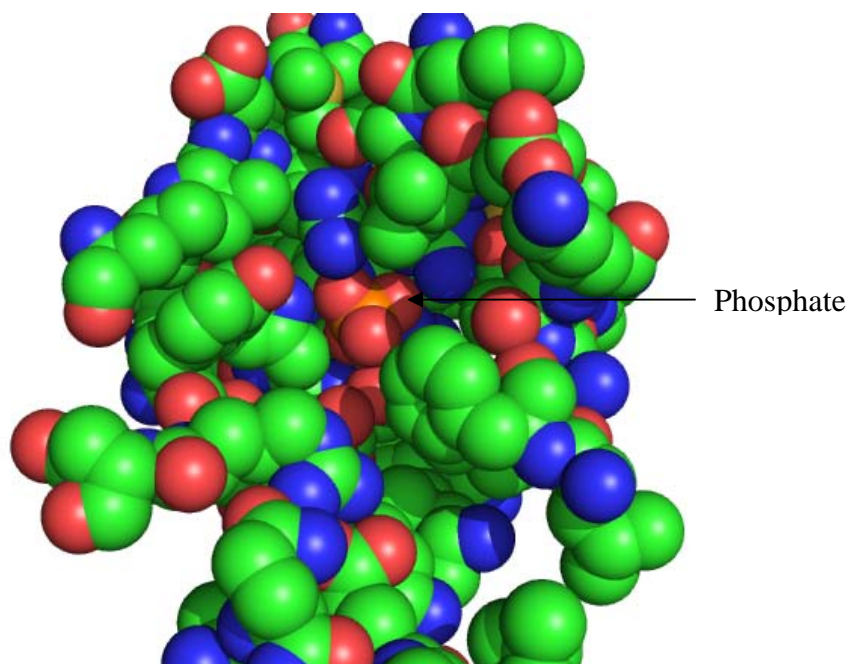
Figure 1-18. Active site of PAcP (PDB 1ND6) with bound phosphate as viewed from above phosphate. The active site is constricted.
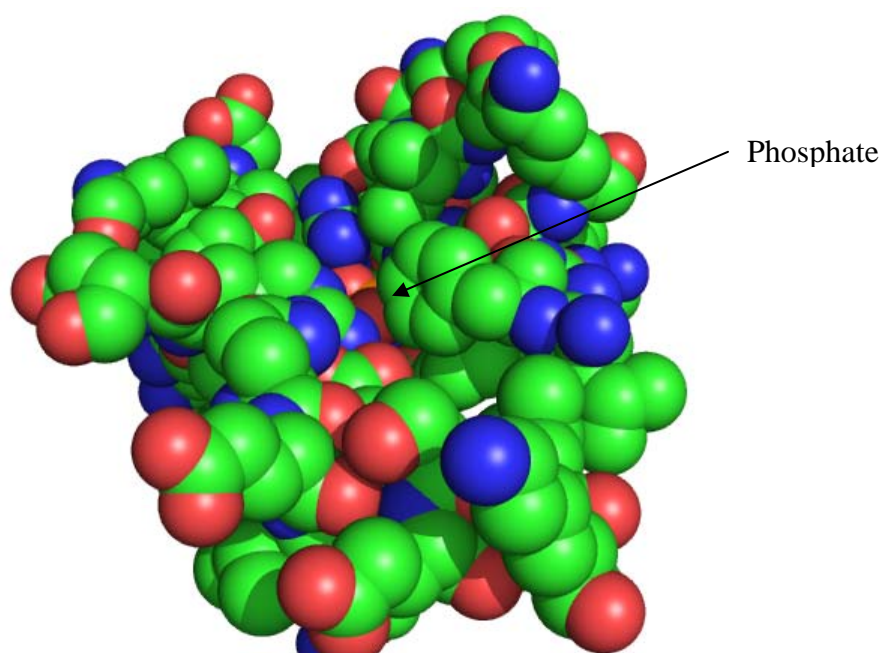
Phosphate

Figure 1-19. Active site of PAcP (PDB 1ND6) with bound phosphate as viewed laterally toward phosphate.

Two mutants showed complete loss of activity, H12A and R11A. Aside from facilitating binding, R11 may also play a role in the protonation of H12. D258A caused a reduction of k_{cat}/K_M by two orders of magnitude. That catalysis was not completely stopped indicates other general acid/base sources are available.[50]

1.2.5 λPP (lambda phosphatase) and PP1 (protein phosphatase)

Metalloenzymes used in this study included λPP, PP1, and AP. Both λPP and PP1 are members of the serine/threonine specific phosphatases and possess the same catalytic motif. Lambda phosphatase is encoded by the lambda virus, a bacteriophage. λPP has the minimal catalytic core of the protein phosphatases, PP, and is the representative of the protein phosphatase class of enzymes for this study.

The PP family of enzymes possesses the conserved motif

DXH(X)$_n$**GD**XXD(X)$_m$**GN**-HD/E. The active sites of the protein phosphatases use two

metal ions per active site.[53] Different phosphatases within the family have different

divalent metal ion dependencies, with Mn, Fe, Co, Ni, Cu, and Zn being common.

Depending upon the phosphatase, the active site metals may be the same or may be

different metals. Identities of the native metal ions for most phosphatases within the PP

family have not been determined.

λPP is a 221 amino acid, 25 kDa monomeric protein.[54] Each active site

possesses two of the same metal ions *in vitro* (Figures 1-20 through 1-23).[54-65] The

overall structure consists of two β-sheets, one 4-stranded and one 6-stranded, and six α-

helices (Figure 1-20). X-ray crystal structures revealed sulfate bound in three modes,

hereinafter referred to as coordination modes A, B, and C.[54] In modes A and B, a water

molecule is interposed between the tetrahedral sulfate and Arg53 (Figures 1-21 and 1-

22). One oxyanion is coordinated directly to Mn_2, while another oxyanion has a water

molecule blocking coordination to Mn_1. In coordination mode C, three of the sulfate

oxyanions are able to coordinate directly to Mn_1 and Mn_2, with one of the oxygens

forming a bridge between the metals (Figure 1-23). In this mode, no water is interposed

between the sulfate oxyanions and the metals. Whether or not each of the binding modes

represents a catalytically functional mode has not been determined. The crystal

structures show λPP demonstrates significant flexibility in its binding sulfate within the

active site, and a large part of this flexibility involves water.
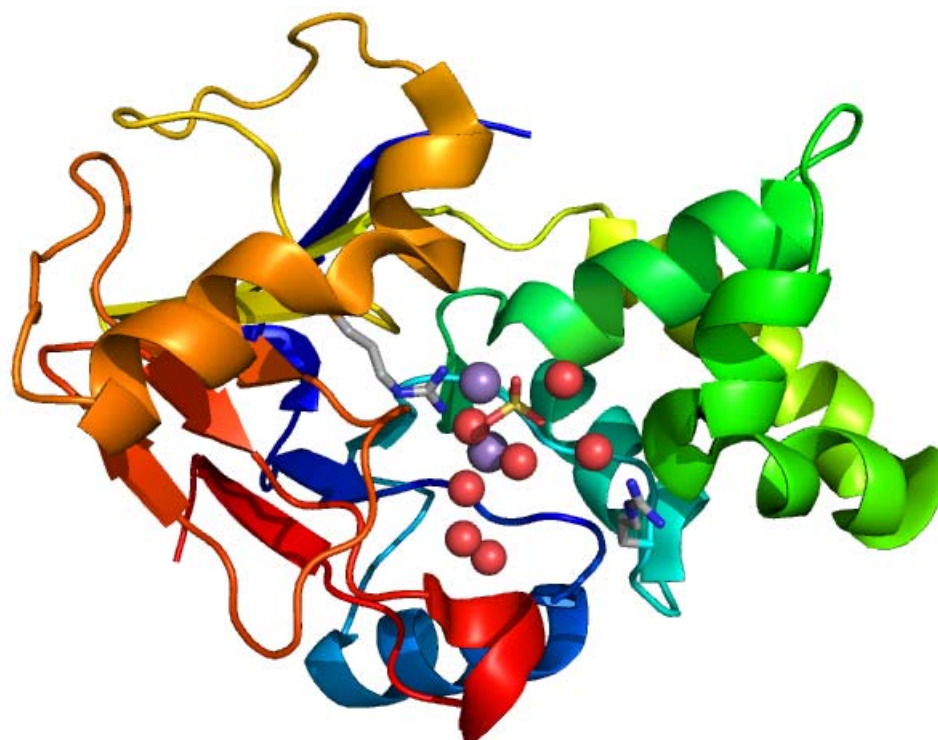
Figure 1-20. λPP with sulfate bound in coordination mode A (see figure 1-21)(PDB

1G5B). Two Mn^{2+} ions shown in purple, water shown in red.
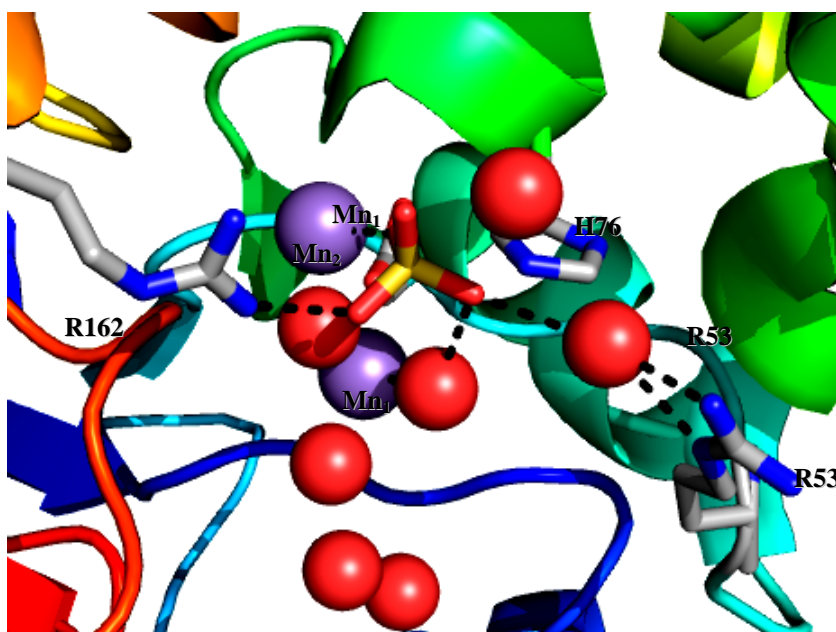
Figure 1-21. λPP active site with sulfate bound in coordination mode A. Red spheres

are water.
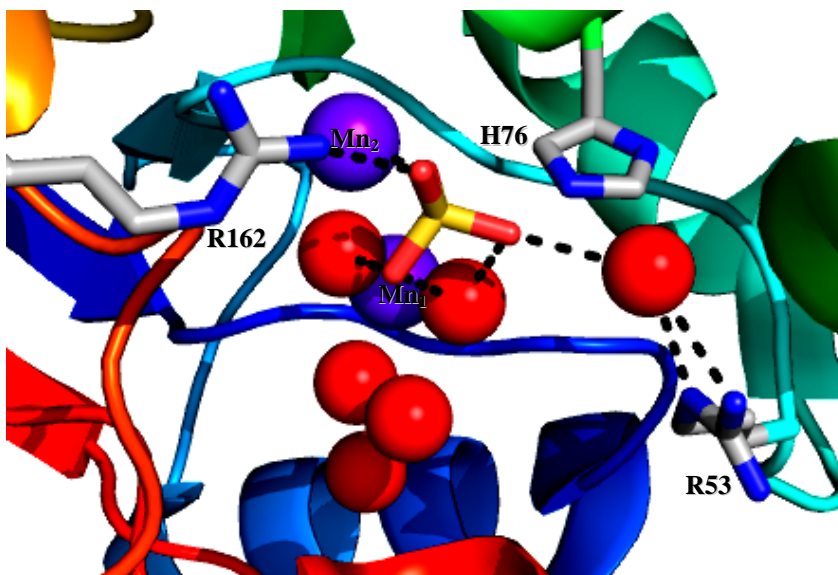
Figure 1-22. λPP active site with sulfate bound in coordination mode B.
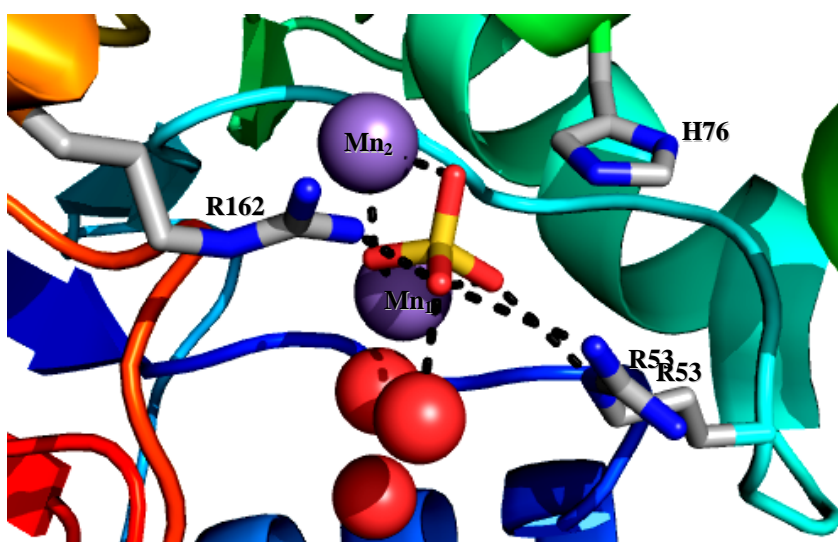
Figure 1-23. λPP active site with sulfate bound in coordination mode C.

λPP dephosphorylates proteins and peptides phosphorylated on serine, threonine, and tyrosine; it is unable to dephosphorylate the simple phosphorylated amino acids phosphoserine, phosphothreonine, or phosphotyrosine.[60] The enzyme has

phosphodiesterase activity, being able to hydrolyze bis-*p*-nitrophenyl phosphate, $k_{cat} = 44$ s^{-1}, $K_M = 10$ mM; the same experiment yielded a k_{cat} of 47 s^{-1}, $K_M = 5.0$ mM for the monoester *p*NPP.[66] The diesterase activity coupled with the inability of the enzyme to hydrolyze phosphorylated serine, threonine, or tyrosine has led to speculation that λPP's native substrates might not be phosphomonoesters, but phosphodiesters.[66]

Greatest activity is shown when Mn(II) is present, although activity with Ni(II) is similar, activity$_{Ni}$/activity$_{Mn}$ = 0.83.[53,60] The k_{cat}/K_M pH optimum for λPP hydrolysis of *p*NPP is pH 7.8, while the greatest k_{cat} is shown at pH 8.5.[56] The acidic limb of λPP's bell shaped pH profile is due to a nucleophilic metal-bound water molecule. The basic limb is likely due to deprotonation of His76 which may assist in substrate binding.[56]

The two metal atoms are not held equally in the active site. For λPP with Mn^{2+}, K_d1 is 2 μM, while K_d2 is 160 μM.[59,67] K_d2 is higher than manganese concentrations that would be found in a cell. As a result, it has been postulated that phosphate substrates enter the active site bound to manganese.[59] The K_{sp} for manganese phosphate is 3.17×10^{-8},[68] so the suggestion that phosphate substrates form complexes with manganese before entering the active site is reasonable.

Studies have not definitively determined the catalytic mechanism of the PP family of enzymes. Once the substrate is bound, three catalytic possibilities exist.[37] A metal-coordinated hydroxide could be a nucleophile, attacking the substrates phosphorus (Figure 1-24). A bridging hydroxide could be a nucleophile, attacking the substrate's phosphorus (Figure 1-25). Or, a metal-coordinated hydroxide could act as a general base, deprotonating a nucleophilic water (Figure 1-26). In either case, the rate limiting step for λPP catalysis with *p*NPP as the substrate is cleavage of the phosphoester bond.[56]
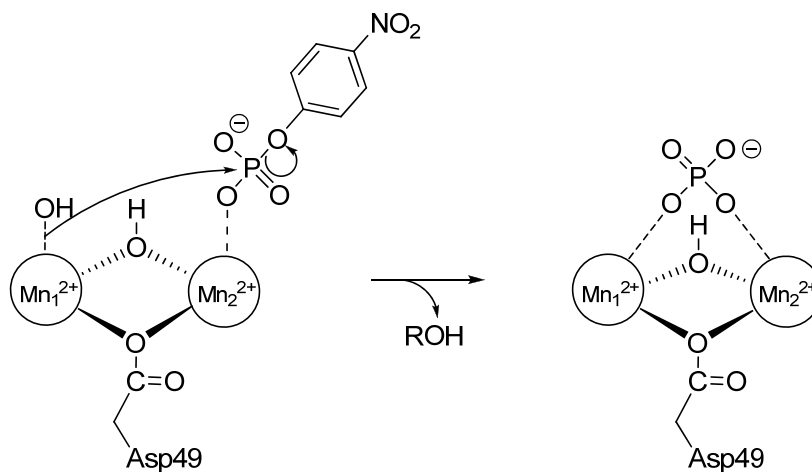
Figure 1-24. Catalytic motif of λPP wherein a metal-coordinate hydroxide is the nucleophile.
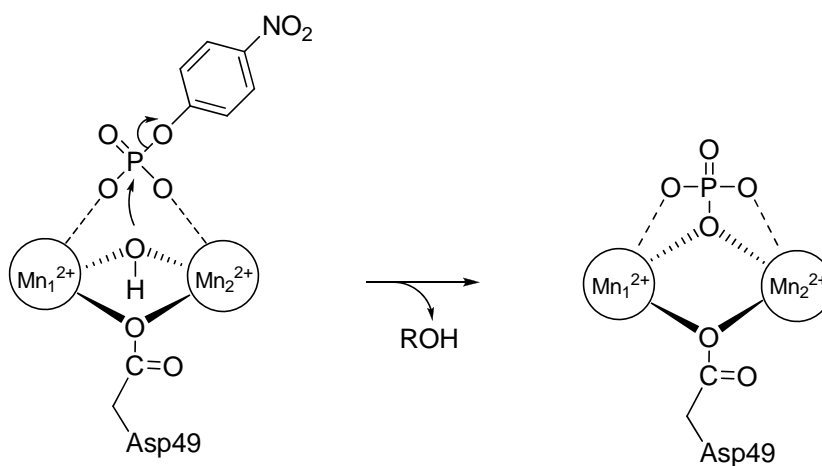
Figure 1-25. Catalytic motif of λPP wherein a bridging hydroxide is the nucleophile.

Mutation of a conserved histidine residue, H76 in λPP, results in lowered k_{cat} with little change in K_M. The role of this histidine is not clear. It could function to bind the substrate through a salt bridge, act as a general acid to protonate departing leaving groups, or act as a general base to deprotonate the nucleophilic metal-coordinated
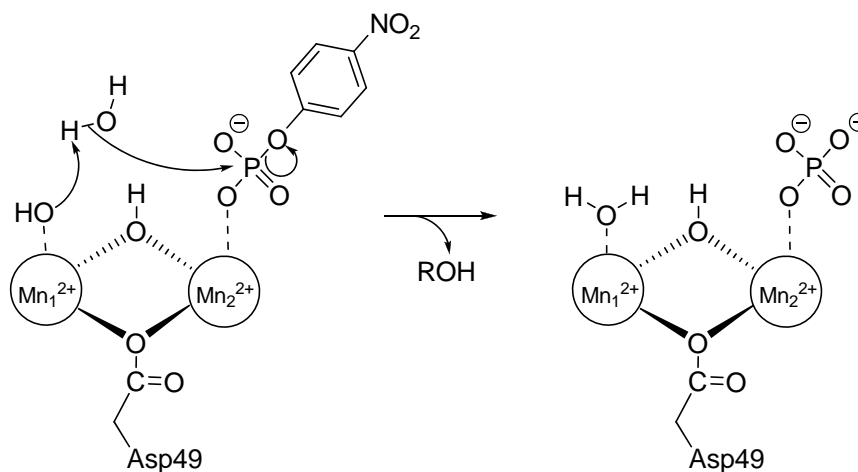
Figure 1-26. Catalytic motif of λPP wherein metal-coordinated hydroxide deprotonates a nucleophilic water.

water.[37] Arginines 53 and 162 are also important for activity. Crystal structures show these residues playing a role in binding and possibly substrate orientation in modes A, B, and C.

1.2.6 AP (Alkaline Phosphatase)

The other metalloenzyme used in this study was alkaline phosphatase. AP is ubiquitous in organisms, being found in bacteria and higher organisms. It is found in most organs in mammals. Because it has been extensively studied and has the catalytic core representative of this class of enzymes, *E. coli* AP was chosen to represent this class of enzymes.

E. coli AP is a 47 kDa, 449 amino acid homodimeric enzyme. The catalytic motif involves three metals, two Zn^{2+} and one Mg^{2+} (Figures 1-27 and 1-28).[69-79] The overall structure of *E. coli* AP consists of a 10-stranded β-sheet surrounded by 15 α-helices, with a second 3-stranded β-sheet and an α-helix outside the core structure.[80] The active site is

well hydrated in crystal structures, which show the active site is also highly exposed to

solvent (Figures 1-27 and 1-28).
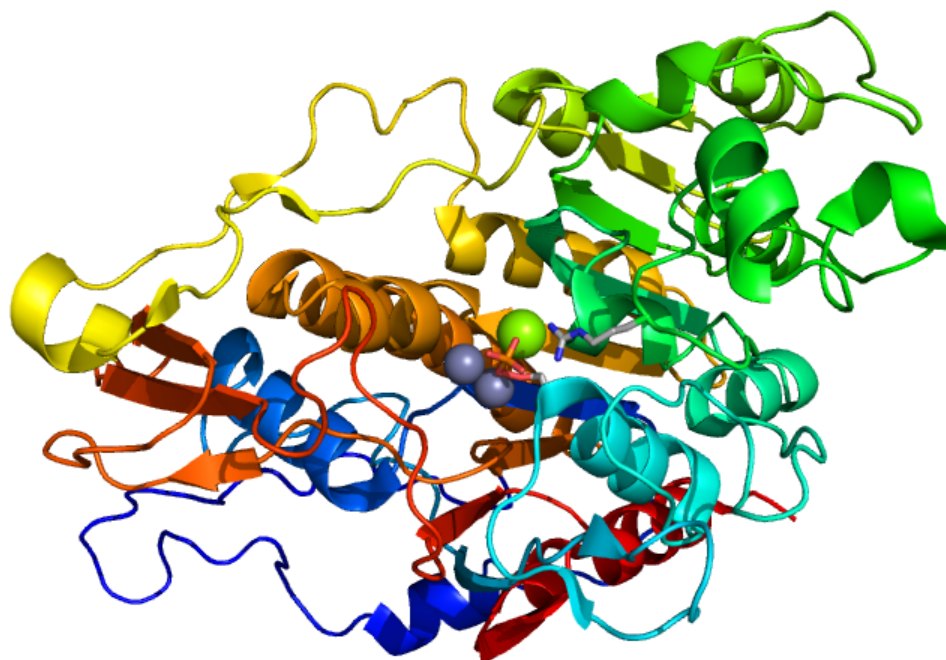
Figure 1-27. Structure of *E. coli* AP with phosphate bound (PDB 1ED8). Active site

metals form a catalytic triad.
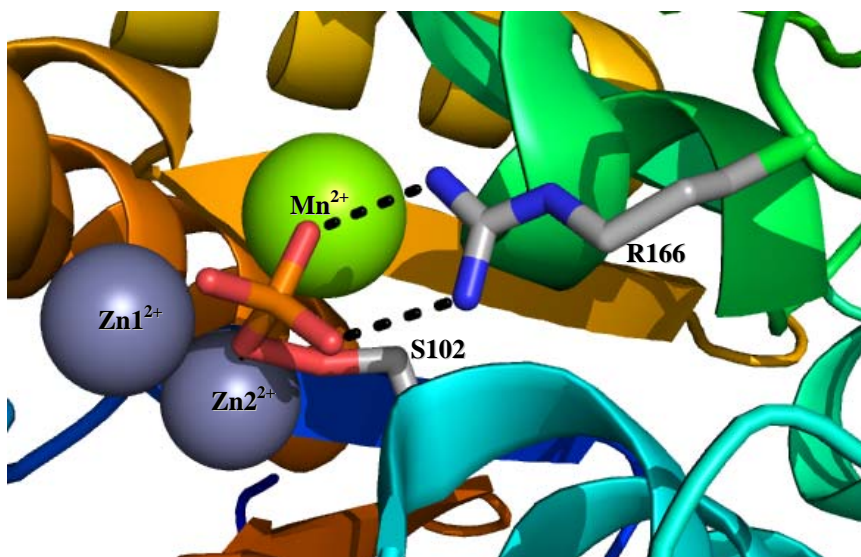
Figure 1-28. Active site of *E. coli* AP.
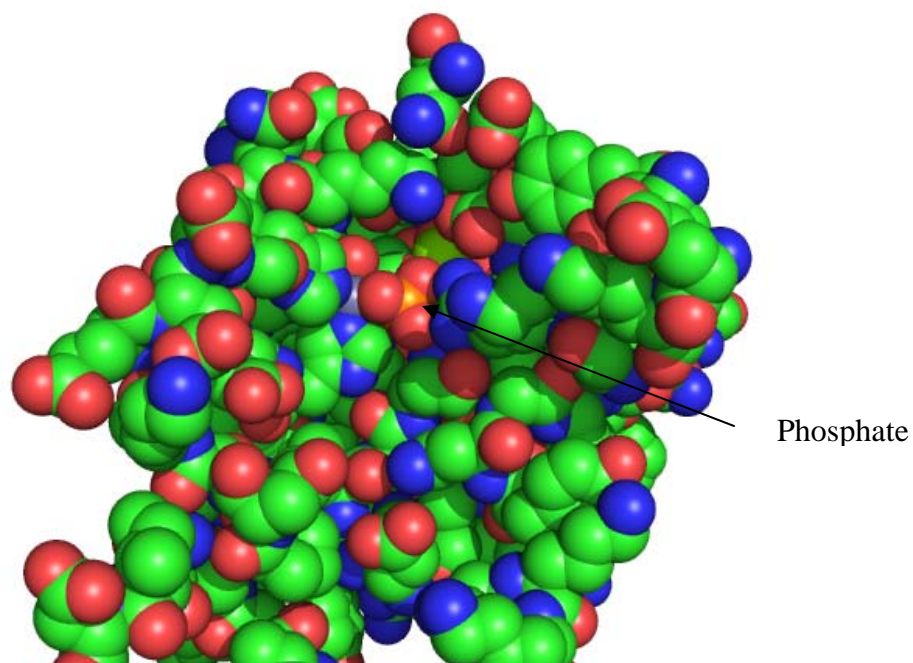
Figure 1-29. Active site of AP (PDB 1ED8) with bound phosphate as viewed from above phosphate.
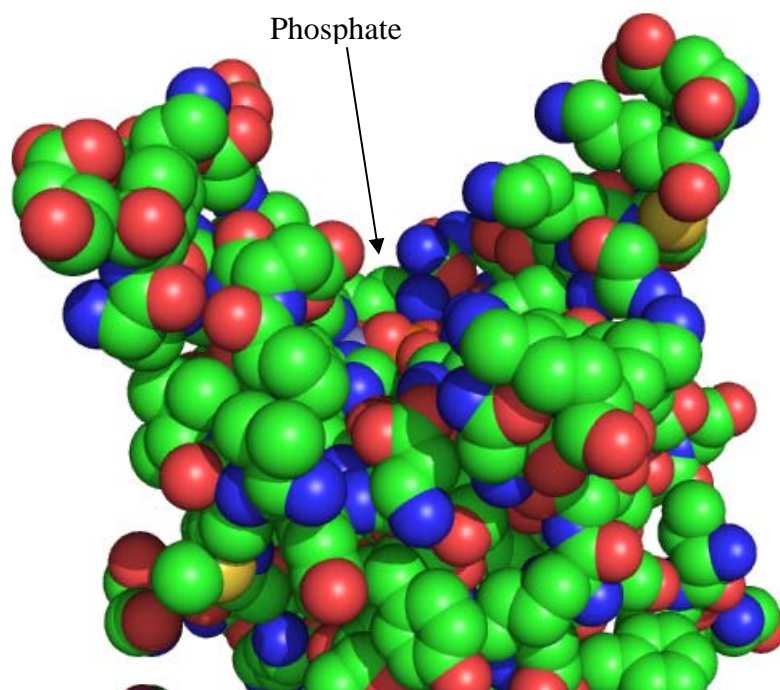
Figure 1-30. Active site of AP (PDB 1ED8) with bound phosphate as viewed laterally toward phosphate.

The pH optimum is substrate dependent, but the optimal pH is always alkaline. The acidic limb of AP's bell-shaped pH profile is a reflection of the substrates pK_a. The basic limb is driven by factors within the enzyme that affect binding, possibly blocking of the active site by a zinc-coordinated water molecule.[73] *E. coli* AP has a pH optimum of between 9.0 and 9.5 with *p*NPP.

The zinc ions bind the substrate, bring the nucleophilic serine close to the electrophilic phosphorus, lower the pK_a of serines hydroxyl moiety, and stabilize charge buildup on the leaving group (Figure 1-31). The magnesium ion coordinates a general base hydroxide that deprotonates the serine nucleophile; it may also assist in the necessary geometry of the active site. Arg166 forms electrostatic interactions with the substrates phosphate moiety, assisting in substrate binding. Breakdown of the phosphoenzyme intermediate is the rate limiting step of catalysis below pH 7.5, while release of P_i is rate limiting above pH 7.5.[37,73,80-82]

AP has been called a non-specific phosphatase as it is able to catalyze the hydrolysis of a variety of substrates, including phosphomonoesters, phosphodiesters, phosphotriesters, phosphonates, and phosphoramidates. Research has demonstrated its ability to catalyze hydrolysis of phospholysine substrates.[11,12] As will be reviewed, phosphoramidates are relatively stable under alkaline conditions, the same conditions where AP demonstrates its greatest catalytic efficiency.
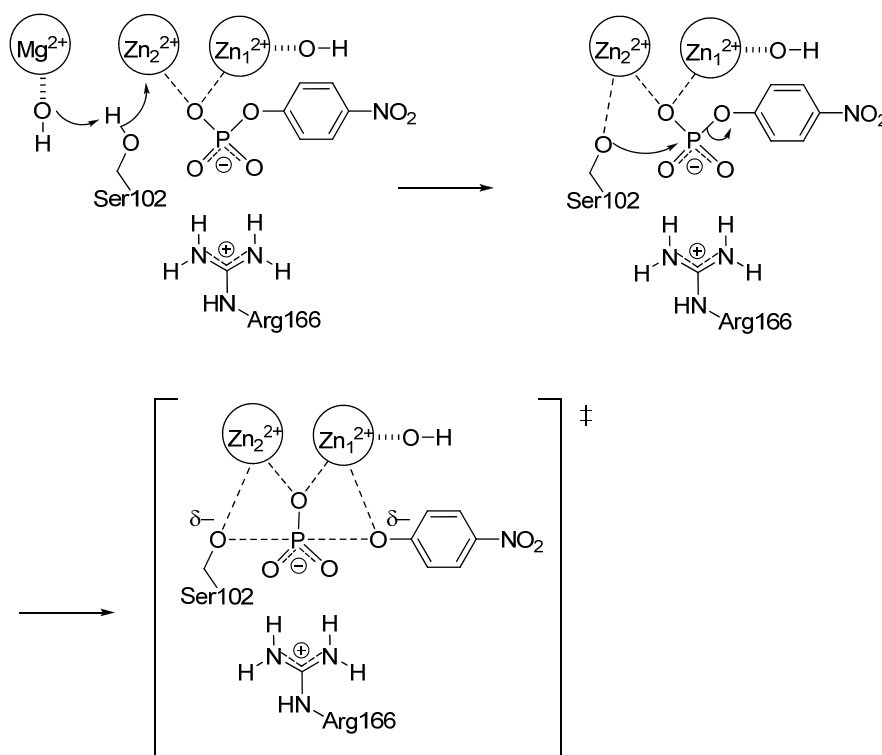
Figure 1-31. Catalytic motif of alkaline phosphatase as represented by *E. coli* AP.

1.3 Comparisons between Phosphomonoesters and Phosphoramidates

1.3.1 Relative Rates of Phosphomonoester versus Phosphoramidate Hydrolysis

Mechanisms for non-enzymatic cleavage of phosphoester bonds have been intensely studied since the 1950's. The non-enzymatic research laid the groundwork for later enzymatic studies, as scientists realized enzymatic and non-enzymatic hydrolysis must share some mechanistic similarities.[83]

The hydrolysis profiles as a function of pH for selected phosphomonoesters and phosphoramidates are provided (Figures 1-32 and 1-33). The data is a collection from the literature, and hydrolytic rates were collected at different temperatures.[2,83-91] A direct

comparison of rates is not appropriate where different experimental temperatures were used. However, the profiles are indicative of the mechanism of hydrolysis.

Phosphomonoester Hydrolysis
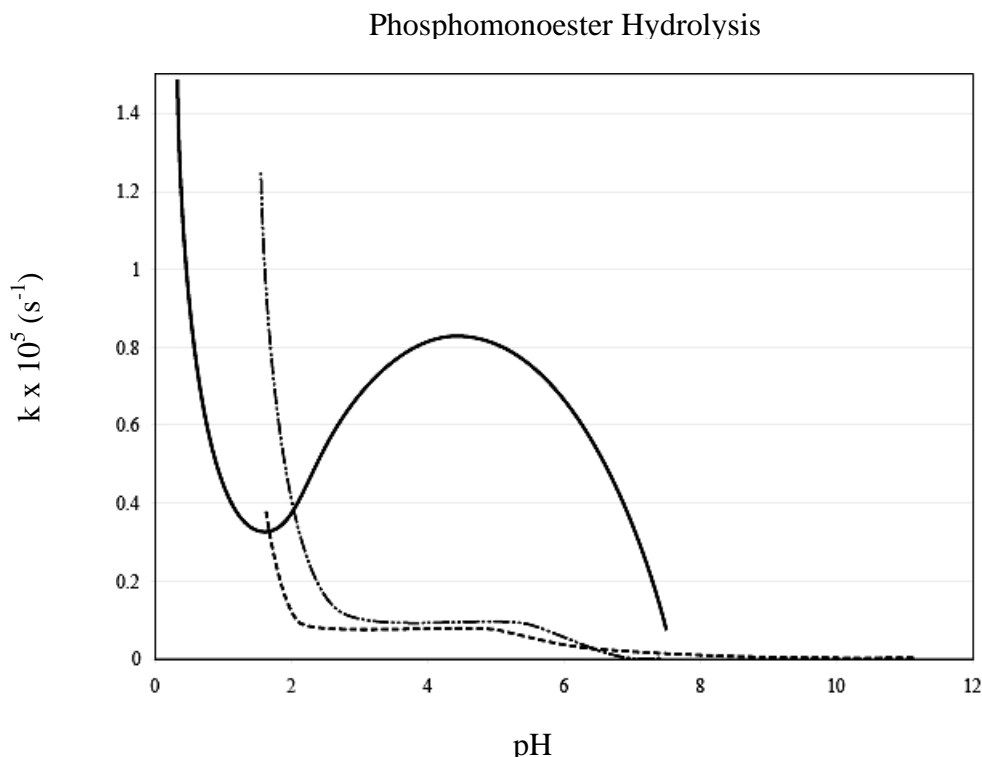
Figure 1-32. Hydrolytic rates as a function of pH for phosphomonoesters.

────── Methyl phosphate[85] (**1**) at 100 $^{\circ}$C , ------------ *para*-nitrophenyl phosphate[88] (**2**), *p*NPP, at 37 $^{\circ}$C, ------------ benzyl phosphate[90] (**3**) at 76 $^{\circ}$C. Plots from literature were scanned, digitized with PlotDigitize, overlaid in Excel, and the resulting graphic refined Photoshop.

Even when hydrolyzed at lower temperatures, hydrolytic rates are higher for phosphoramidates (Figure 1-32) than phosphomonoesters (Figure 1-33). For the phosphoesters and phosphoramidates shown in Figures 1-32 and 1-33, increases in proton concentration tend to cause higher rates of hydrolysis, although there are troughs with some species as pH decreases. The exceptions to the trend are N-methyl

Phosphoramidate Hydrolysis

k x 10^5 (s^{-1})

pH
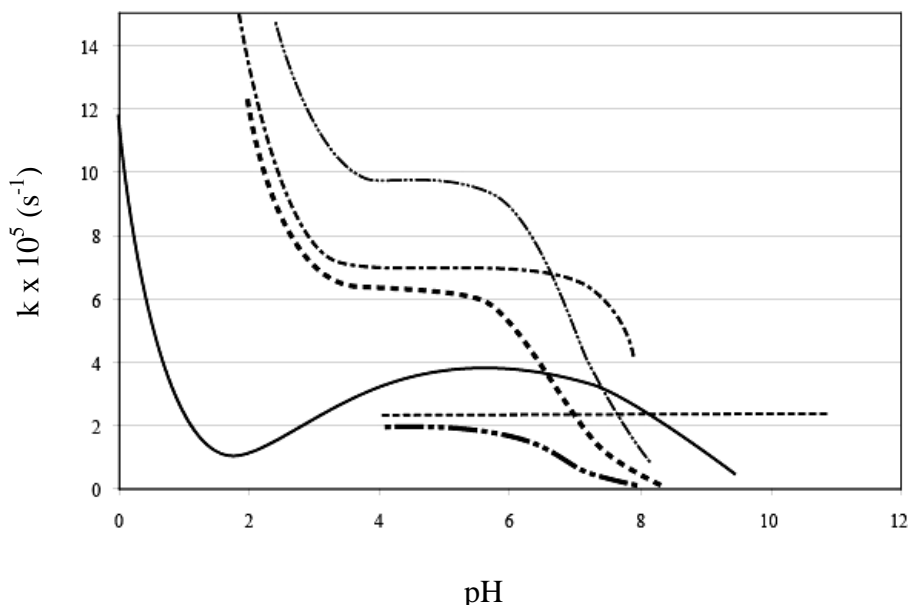
Figure 1-33. Hydrolytic rates as a function of pH for phosphoramidates.

▬ ‥ ▬ PIm[91] (**4**) and ▪▪▪▪▪▪▪▪▪▪ NMePIm[91] (**5**), 40 ^{o}C; ▬ ‧ ▬ ‧ ▬ *N*-phPAM[86] (**6**), 20 ^{o}C; ‑‑‑‑‑‑‑ Ammonium PA[87] (**7**), 36 ^{o}C; ‑ ‑ ‑ ‑ ‑ *N-p*-chloroPAM[86] (**8**), 20 ^{o}C; ——— *N-p*-chloroPAM[86] in 50% dioxane, 20 ^{o}C. Rate constants for *N-p*-chloroPAM are x10^3. Plots from literature were scanned, digitized with PlotDigitize, overlaid in Excel, and the resulting graphic refined in Photoshop.

1   **2**   **3**   **4**   **5**   **6**   **7**   **8**
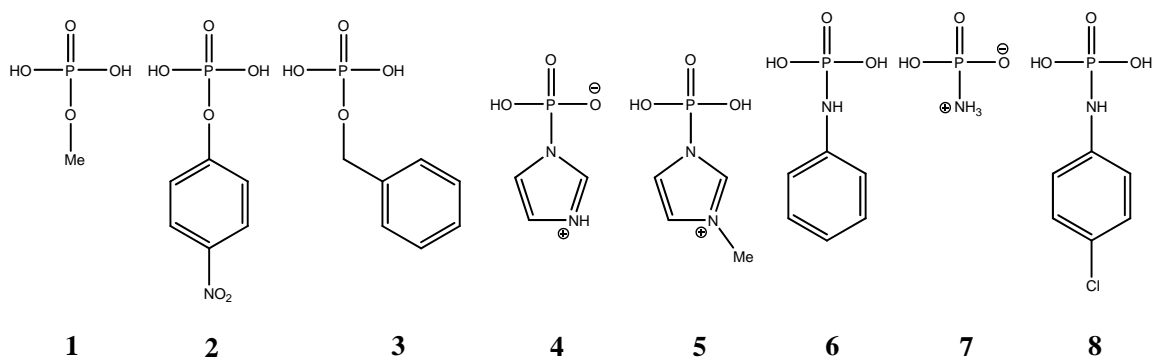
Figure 1-34. Species represented in Figures 1-32 and 1-33. Protonation state will vary as a function of pH.

phosphoimidazole which hydrolyzes in a pH independent manner,[91,92] and N-p-chlorophosphoramidate in 50% dioxane.[86] Phosphoramidate bonds are more labile under acidic conditions than phosphoesters, while both species exhibit least hydrolysis under mildly alkaline conditions.

The location of a proton(s) during phosphomonoester hydrolysis can be inferred from pK_as.[93] The overall hydrolytic rate constant at a given pH is given by (1.1):[94]

$$k_o = k_N[N] + k_M[M] + k_D[D] \tag{1.1}$$

where [N], [M], and [D] are the mole fractions of the neutral, monoanion, and dianion of a phosphomonoester species, as calculated from the Henderson-Hasselbalch equation, respectively. The pH rate profiles are a reflection of equation 1.1. It is apparent that for both phosphomonoesters and phosphoramidates $k_N > k_M > k_D$.

Isotopic studies with ^{18}O showed that the monoanions and dianions of alkyl phosphomonoesters cleave at the bridging P-O bond, whereas the neutral and cationic species cleave predominantly at the C-O bond (Figures 1-35 and 1-36).[94] For the enzymes studied, cleavage does not occur at the C-X (X = N or O) bond. Therefore, comparisons of uncatalyzed versus enzyme-catalyzed reactions can be limited to comparisons with monoanionic and dianionic hydrolysis.
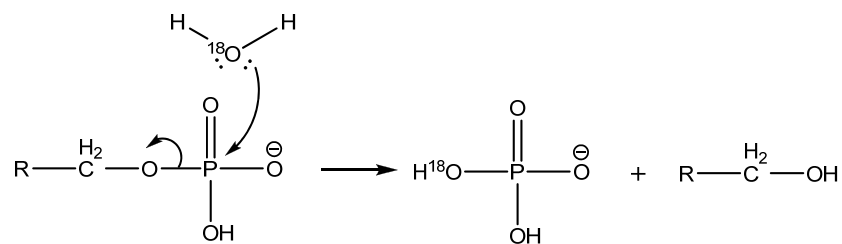
Figure 1-35. Hydrolytic mechanism of alkyl phosphomonoester monoanions and dianions. Cleavage is at the P-O bond.
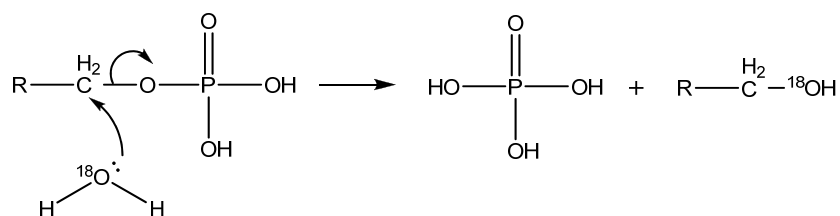
Figure 1-36. Hydrolytic mechanism of neutral alkyl phosphomonoesters. Cleavage is predominantly at the C-O bond.

1.3.2 Hydrolysis Proceeds via Pre-equilibrium

Monoanions hydrolyze faster than dianions because they are able to undergo a pre-equilibrium protonation of the bridging atom (Figure 1-37). Protonation of the bridging atom places charge on the leaving group and makes the P-O$_{bridge}$ bond more labile.
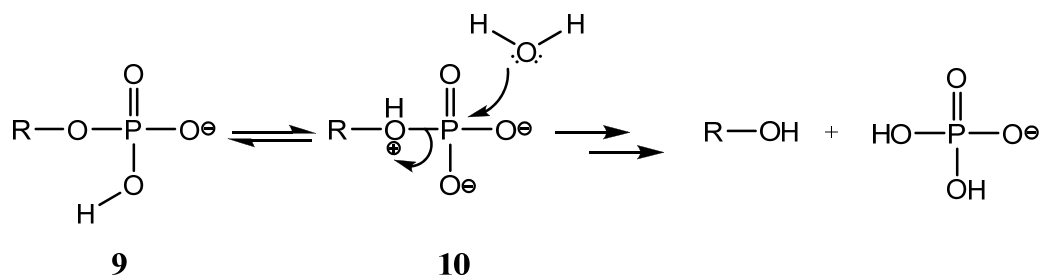
Figure 1-37. Pre-equilibrium protonation of the bridging atom.

Monoanionic phosphoramidates may exist as either zwitterions, **12**, **13**, and **16**, or non-zwitterions, **11**. ^{31}P NMR experiments indicate **15** is not a predominant form in aqueous media.[91] Phosphopyridine cannot exist as a dianion; it must exist as a monoanion, **13**, or a neutral species, **14**.
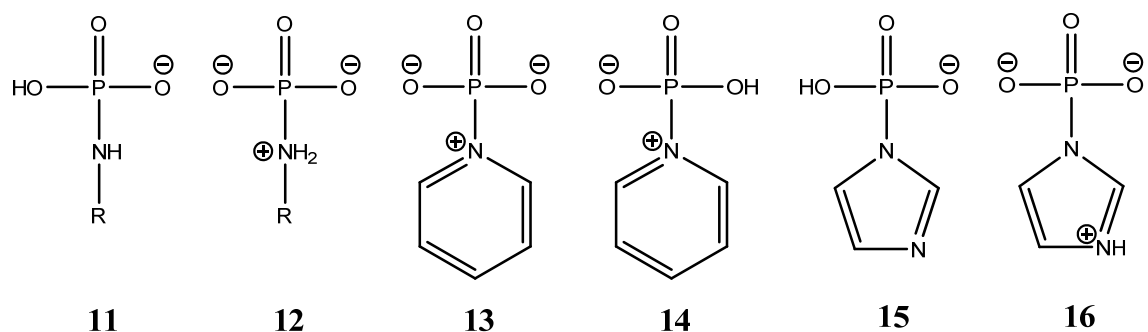
R – H, alkyl, or aryl.

Figure 1-38. Ionization states of phosphoramidates.

Rationalization for phosphoramidate hydrolysis being faster than phosphomonoester hydrolysis can be provided by comparing the predominate monoanionic form. Monoanionic phosphomonoesters exist predominantly with the non-bridging atom protonated, as with **9**. Monoanionic phosphoramidates can exist predominantly with the bridging atom charged or sharing charge, as with **12**, **13**, **14**, and **16**, although some species can exist without the bridging nitrogen protonated, as with **11**. Pre-equilibrium is not necessary with **12**, **13**, **14**, and **16**, as the leaving group is already activated by charge.

Confirmation that the bridging nitrogen is protonated in phosphoramidates as expected by the pK_a of the leaving group (Table A1) is provided by studies with heats of ionization[95] and ^{31}P NMR.[91] Phosphoramidate hydrolysis profiles (Figure 1-30) show inflections close to the pK_as of the leaving groups. N-methylphosphoryl imidazole is charged under all conditions and shows no inflection, a further confirmation that charge on the leaving group affects the profile.

Since the zwitterion is the reactive species, phosphoramidate substrates that enter the enzyme active site as zwitterions may illuminate how the motif is handling the

substrate. The phosphoramidate substrate will not need to have the leaving group activated, whereas phosphomonoesters with a pK_a greater than 5.5 need the leaving group to be activated during hydrolysis.

It will be seen that several enzymatic motifs use residues as a general acids to effect protonation of the leaving group. This technique matches the non-enzymatic hydrolysis in that protonation of the leaving group is important as demonstrated by the faster hydrolysis of the monoanion form of monoesters.

1.3.3 LFER Values for Aryl Monoesters and Phosphoramidates Vary as a Function of Ionization

As covered above, existence of a cationic bridging atom greatly enhances hydrolysis. This phenomenon is reflected in LFER values with phosphomonoesters and phosphoramidates.

β_{LG} values for the hydrolysis of aryl phosphomonoester dianions demonstrate sensitivity of the reaction to the leaving group, $\beta_{LG} = -1.23$.[96-98] Leaving groups able to stabilize charge hydrolyze faster, whereas those that cannot stabilize charge hydrolyze slower. Phosphomonoester monoanion hydrolysis has less sensitivity to the leaving group, $\beta_{LG} = -0.27$,[99] as a proton exists that can participate in pre-equilibrium,

Phosphoramidate hydrolysis can display sensitivity or insensitivity to the leaving group, depending upon the nature of the nitrogenous species. Those species with a leaving group pK_a below the pK_a of the phosphate moiety display insensitivity to the nature of the leaving group (Table 1-2). As with phosphomonoester monoanions, these phosphoramidates will readily exchange the proton from the non-bridging oxygen to the bridging atom, forming the reactive species. Substituted pyridines are charged and

sensitive to substituents that can stabilize the charge. Phosphoramidates wherein the leaving group pK_a is above the pK_a of the phosphate moiety are also charged and sensitive to substituents that can stabilize the charge. Available β_{nuc} values are in agreement with the β_{LG} values, in that species displaying sensitivity to the leaving group have little sensitivity to the nucleophile (Table 1-3).

PIm does not correspond with any of the Brønsted slopes in Table 1-2. Upon protonation the imidazolium moiety can delocalize positive charge within the ring which holds two nitrogens. This gives PIm much greater stability than analogous phosphorylated pyridines.

Table 1-2. Phosphoramidate Brønsted values showing dependence on leaving group as a function of leaving group type and leaving group pK_a.[100]

Leaving Group	pK_a	β_{LG}	Leaving Group	pKa	β_{LG}	Leaving Group	pK_a	β_{LG}
HO₂C—⬡—⊕NH₃	2.54		⬡⊕NH	5.37		⁻O—⊕NH₃	9.61	
Cl—⬡—⊕NH₃	4.07		⬡⊕NH	6.21		⬡—⊕NH₃	9.33	
⬡—⊕NH₃	4.69	0.2	O—N—⬡⊕NH	8.53	-1.11	⬡—⊕NH₃	9.83	-0.90
MeO—⬡—⊕NH₃	5.44		N—⬡⊕NH	9.39		⊕NH₃	10.77	
F₃C—⊕NH₃	5.7					⊕NH3	9.38	

LFER data does not indicate whether or not the transition state involves complete cleavage of the P-X bond, i.e. formation of metaphosphate. Stereochemical inversion was found in the hydrolysis of the dianion of 2,4-dinitrophenyl phosphate and the monoanion of phenyl phosphate; this demonstrated metaphosphate does not form as an intermediate.[103,104] Tempered with the lack of racemization, hydrolysis for

Table 1-3. β_{nuc} values for the hydrolysis of DNPP, bis-DNPP,[101] pNPP,[99]

phosphopyridine, and phosphoacetate.[102]

Hydrolyzing Species	Cation	Attacking Species	β_{nuc}
pNPP^{2-}	None	Substituted pyridines	0.18
	0.33 M Mg^{2+}	Substituted pyridines	0.17
	0.33 M Ca^{2+}	Substituted pyridines	0.21
Phosphopyridine$^-$	None	Oxygen nucleophiles	0.24
	0.33 M Mg^{2+}	Oxygen nucleophiles	0.25
Ammonium phosphoramidate$^-$	None	Substituted pyridines	0.22
3-methoxypyridine$^-$	None	Substituted pyridines	0.17
Isoquinoline-N-phosphoramidate$^-$	None	Substituted pyridines	0.2
4-morpholinopyridine	None	Substituted pyridines	0.22

Loose Transition State
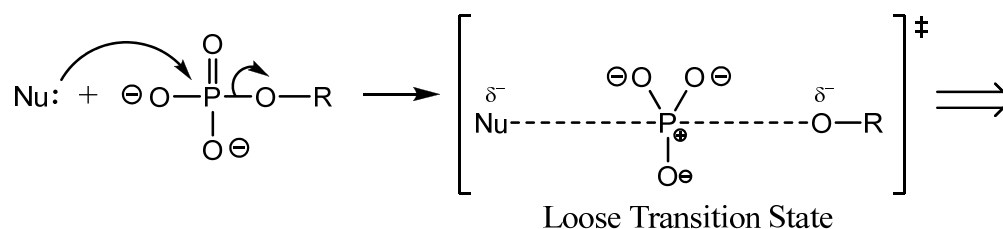
Figure 1-39. Transition state in the hydrolysis of phosphomonoester dianions.

Hydrolysis proceeds via a concerted reaction with a loose transition state.

phosphomonoester dianions must proceed via a S_N2 type mechanism with a loose

transition state (Figure 1-39).

Three lines of evidence demonstrate that phosphopyridine hydrolysis is also

concerted, with a S_N2 type mechanism (Figure 1-40): 1 - phosphopyridine hydrolysis was

found to be second order; 2 – decreases in $-\beta_{LG}$ were concurrent with increasing strength

of the nucleophile; and 3 – a plot of rate versus pK$_{nuc}$ shows a positive slope.[105] It is a

reasonable assumption that other phorphoramidates also undergo hydrolysis with a

concerted, loose transition state, but experimental data to support such an assumption is

not available.

Loose Transition State
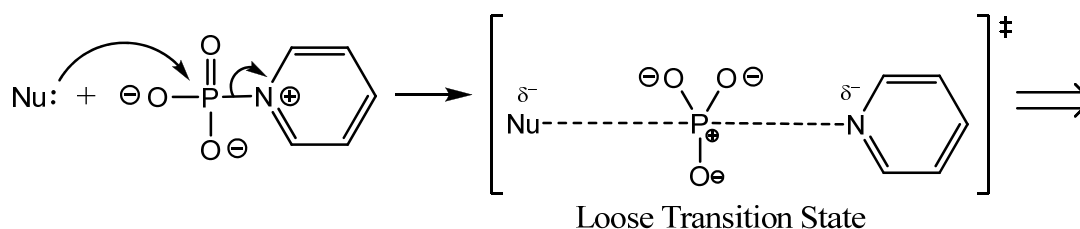
Figure 1-40. Transition state in the hydrolysis of phosphopyridine monoanions. Hydrolysis proceeds via a concerted reaction with a loose transition state. Charge on the pyridine in the transition state will change from positive to neutral. δ^- was drawn to indicate charge is less positive than in ground state.

1.3.4 Metals

Divalent magnesium and calcium cause little change in β_{nuc} or β_{LG} values for reactions of pNPP^{2-} or phosphorylated pyridines. For phosphorylated pyridines $\beta_{LGwater} = -1.05$, while β_{LG} in the presence of 0.33 M Mg^{2+} = -1.02,[99] indicating Mg^{2+} causes no change in the associative character of the transition state (Table 1-2). Yet, the presence of such metals can have different effects upon hydrolytic rates that are compound specific (Table 1-4). Reflecting their nature as Lewis acids, metals have catalytic interactions with negatively charged leaving groups in the transition state.[37,99] With phosphorylated pyridines such interactions are not available. The metals still interact with the non-bridging oxygens, and do so in an anti-catalytic manner.

Under more alkaline conditions, pH 9.1 versus 8.0, magnesium accelerates hydrolysis of phosphoramidates. A metal-coordinated hydroxide is generated, which is a stronger nucleophile than water. The oxygens of the phosphate moiety can coordinate to magnesium, bringing the hydroxide in close proximity to the phosphorus (Figure 1-41).

The combined effects of generation of a strong nucleophile and intramolecularity serve to facilitate catalysis.[37,106]

Table 1-4. Hydrolytic rates (s^{-1}) for pNPP dianion, phosphopicoline monoanion,[106] and PIm monoanion[107] in the presence of metals.

Species	Temp (°C)	pH	Rate (Rate enhancement)			
			No metal	Mg^{2+}	Ca^{2+}	Zn^{2+}
pNPP^{2-}	39.2	9.1	1.7×10^{-8}	1.4×10^{-8} a (0.8)	4.8×10^{-8} a (2.8)	
Phospho-Picoline$^-$	25	8.0	1.6×10^{-3}	1.2×10^{-3} a (0.8)	*	
	25	9.1	1.6×10^{-3}	2.4×10^{-3} a (1.5)	*	
PIm$^-$	40.1	5.1	1.73×10^{-5}	1.18×10^{-5} a (0.7)	1.45×10^{-5} b (0.8)	
PIm$^-$	81.6	4.5	2.00×10^{-5}			1.45×10^{-5} c (0.7)

*Rate constant could not be calculated from apparent rate constant because K_a for MPP with Ca^{2+} was not determined. However, adjusted rate constant would be lower than apparent rate constant, indicating Ca^{2+} is inhibitory. a – 0.33 M for metal, b – 0.117 M for metal, c – 0.12 M for metal.
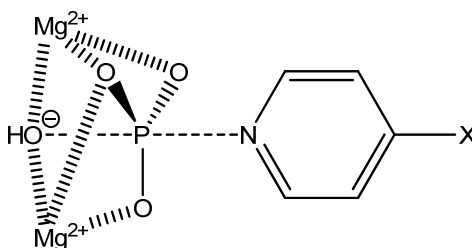
Figure 1-41. Magnesium is catalytic under alkaline conditions.

Zinc coordination lowers the pK_a of water from 15.7 to 9.5. Depending upon the number and types of ligands it can lower the pK_a further to between 5 and 9.[108,109] Variability of the resulting pK_a of water results in flexibility of the resulting hydroxide. Coordinated water with a low pK_a can be readily deprotonated, making it a much better nucleophile than water with a higher pK_a.

If the coordinated water is to serve as a general base an enzyme's coordination sphere may be tailored to generate a metal coordinated hydroxide with a pK_a to match the compound that must be deprotonated by the hydroxide. This may give the enzyme greater specificity for substrates. In general, hydroxyl species that can access zinc's coordination sphere will experience a lowered pK_a, including serine. AP's S102 has a pK_a of less than 5.5, a reflection of its coordination to zinc.

Zinc is able to form catalytic mononuclear and dinuclear complexes. A mononuclear complex has been observed with Zn^{2+}, pyridine-2-carbaldoxime, and PIm (Figure 1-42). An entropy change from -5.2 eu for the uncatalyzed reaction to -28.3 eu for the catalyzed reaction is observed. The Zn^{2+}-PCA catalyzed reaction is $1x10^3$ times faster for PIm.[91] In addition, dinuclear Zn^{2+} complexes catalyze the cleavage of 2-hydroxypropyl-4-NPP and RNA. In these reactions entropic advantages occur.[37,91] It is obvious that one of the roles of zinc is to bring the reactants together.
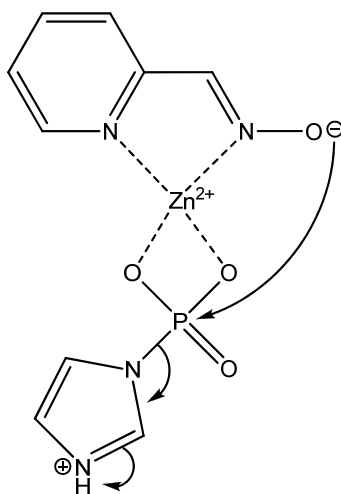
Figure 1-42. Zinc catalyzes hydrolysis of PIm by bringing reactants in close proximity.

1.3.5 Geometry

All phosphomonoesters contain a sp^3 hybridized bridging oxygen with bent bond geometry and two pairs of non-bonding electrons that yield a tetrahedral electron domain geometry (Figure 1-43). Phosphoramidates can form significantly more bond and electron domain geometries, with each geometry having potentially different effects on substrate catalysis.
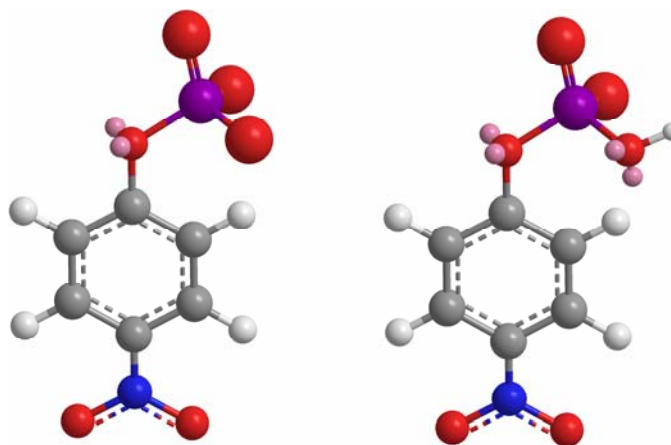
Figure 1-43. 3D structure of *p*NPP as the dianion, left, and monoanion, right. Color scheme is: grey – carbon, white – hydrogen, blue – nitrogen, red – oxygen, purple – phosphorus, pink – electron lone pair. This color scheme will be maintained in further 3D structures of small molecules.

Bridging nitrogens of phosphoramidates may be sp^3 hybridized, with the possibility of one hydrogen and one lone pair, or two hydrogens and no lone pairs. With two hydrogens bond geometry is bent and electron domain geometry is tetrahedral (Figure 1-44 A). With one hydrogen, bond geometry is trigonal pyramidal while the electron domain geometry is tetrahedral (Figure 1-44 B and C). If the bridging nitrogen is sp^2 hybridized, bond geometry is trigonal planar with the non-bonding electrons

participating in aromaticity within the ring (Figure 1-44 D and E). For imidazole,

protonation of N3 will have no effect on bond or electron domain geometry.

A	B	C	D	E
Bent, *tetrahedral*	Trigonal pyramidal, *tetrahedral*	Trigonal pyramidal, *tetrahedral*	Trigonal planar, *aromatic/trigonal planar*	Trigonal planar, *aromatic/trigonal planar*
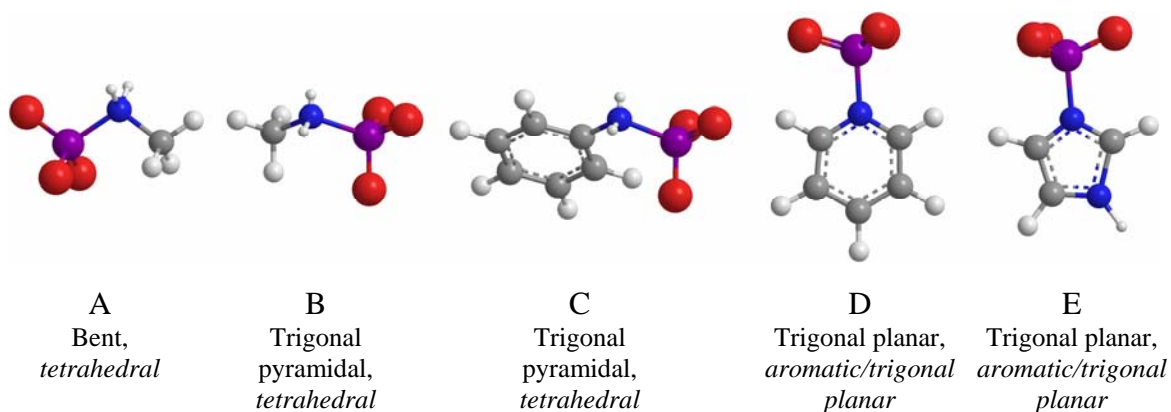
Figure 1-44. Bond and *electron domain* geometries of the bridging nitrogen for N-methyl phosphoramidate (A & B), *N*-phPAM (C), phosphopyridine (D), and PIm (E).

For PIm, as the pH decreases, protonation occurs on the imidazole moiety,[91] most likely on the non-bridging nitrogen. Protonation of the bridging nitrogen would result in loss of aromaticity.

The information presented heretofore is not a complete review of what is known about phosphomonoester and phosphoramidate hydrolysis. What has been presented provides comparisons between phosphomonoesters and phosphoramidates. An examination of physiological substrates has been readied with this information as background.

1.3.6 Phosphorylated Amino Acids

Amino acids that can form phosphoesters are serine, threonine, and tyrosine, while those that can form phosphoramidates are lysine, arginine, and histidine. Phospholysine and phosphoarginine are the most labile of these phosphorylated species. Much justification for instability can be attributed to pK_a. At physiological pH,

phospholysine and phosphoarginine will be protonated on the bridging nitrogen. Only

phosphohistidine will exhibit stability due to its pK$_a$ being slightly below physiological.

It will require a slightly acidic environment to activate the imidazole leaving group.

As mentioned previously, different enzyme classes have different catalytic motifs.

Some motifs protonate the bridging oxygen as part of catalysis. A case could arise

wherein a phosphoramidate with an already protonated and charged sp^3 bridging nitrogen

binds at the active site. The nitrogen cannot accept another proton before breaking the P-

N bond; it may only be protonated during or after cleavage of the bond. What affect

timing has on protonation of the bridging atom and enzyme catalysis is uncertain. Also

covered were the effects of divalent metals on non-enzymatic catalysis of

phosphoramidates. What affect these same metals have on phosphoramidate catalysis

when enzyme-bound is uncertain. The geometries of phosphoesters and

phosphoramidates can be similar with sp^3 nitrogens, or quite different, as with sp^2

nitrogens. What affect these differences have on enzyme catalysis is uncertain. With the

differences between phosphomonoesters and phosphoramidates identified, it cannot then

be anticipated that all motifs will catalyze hydrolysis of phosphoesters and

phosphoramidates. Differences in the two types of substrates may be sufficient to

prevent catalytic promiscuity. On the other hand, there are similarities in the substrates

that may allow enzymes to hydrolyze both phosphomonoesters and phosphoramidates.

1.3.7 Substrates used in Study

Small molecule substrates used in this study are *p*NPP, *N*-phPAM, and PIm. The

ester bond of *p*NPP closely resembles that of phosphotyrosine, although the electron

withdrawing nitro group of *p*NPP helps stabilize charge on the bridging oxygen during

hydrolysis. *N*-phPAM is isoelectronic and isosteric with *p*NPP; it is isosteric with phospholysine.

PIm is analogous to phosphohistidine, but differs in the lack of an alkyl substituent at C4. In phosphorylation of histidine, preference is to nitrogen 3 simply because it is less hindered. This point is not trivial, as kinases are selective for which nitrogen is phosphorylated. PHPT1 demonstrated specificity in dephosphorylating nitrogen 3 over nitrogen 1.[2]

The predominant protonation state of the substrates is determined by the assay pH and pK$_a$ (Figure 1-45) *N*-phPAM was determined to have a pK$_a$ of 7.05[110] with protonation occurring on the phosphate oxygen.

pKa 4.96   pKa 7.14   pKa 4.69   pKa 7.05   pKa 6.8   pKa 7.0
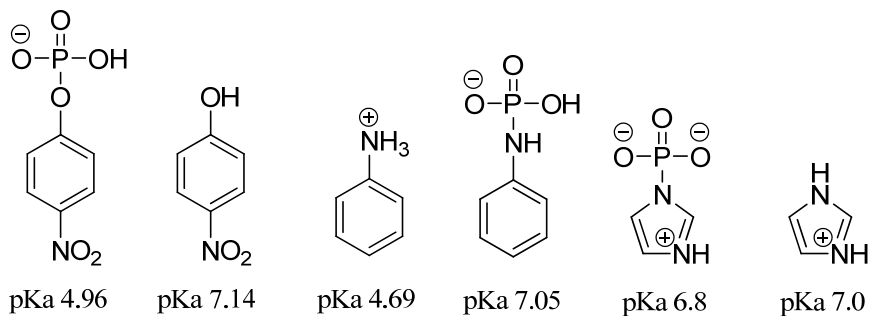
Figure 1-45. Substrates and leaving groups with pK$_a$s.

Comparing the rate constants of the three substrates provides insight to the relative ability of a particular motif to hydrolyze bonds similar those found in phosphorylated proteins. The ability of a motif to catalyze hydrolysis of various substrates is a demonstration of catalytic promiscuity. Catalytic promiscuity may exist even if there are differences in the rate constants with the different substrates.

1.3.8 Considerations for Benchtop Handling of Phosphoramidates

As discussed above, phosphoramidates are several orders of magnitude more labile than phosphate monoesters. Experience with *N*-phPAM demonstrates that even under alkaline solutions significant hydrolysis occurs.

To minimize contact with water the compounds were isolated in the solid form. Storing under inert gas and at cold temperatures was also done to slow degradation. When preparing the compounds for use, they were dissolved in alkali media. The minimum concentration of hydroxide was used to maintain high pH while not causing high ionic strength of enzymatic reaction mixtures. With the general concepts of bench top handling of the compounds in hand, synthetic routes, isolation, and storage can be examined.

CHAPTER 2

MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 Initial Considerations

Kinetic constants were obtained by fitting kinetic data to the Michaelis-Menton

equation (2.1) to determine V_{max} and K_M.

$$V_{obs} \quad \frac{(V_{max})[S]}{K_M + [S]} \qquad (2.1)$$

V_{obs} is the observed velocity in units of Ms^{-1}, [S] is the substrate concentration in units of

M, K_M is the Michaelis constant in units of M, and V_{max} is the velocity of the reaction

when all active sites of the enzyme are occupied by substrate. The value of k_{cat}, units of

s^{-1}, is given by

$$V_{max} = k_{cat}[E] \qquad (2.2)$$

where [E] is the enzyme concentration. A second order rate constant is given from the

ratio of k_{cat}/K_M, units of $M^{-1}s^{-1}$. Comparing the enzymatic rate constant against the un-

catalyzed rate constant provides a measure of the enzymes catalytic efficiency.

The Michaelis-Menton equation is based upon consumption of a substrate as

represented by equation (2.3). In order to satisfy the assumptions of steady-state kinetics

typically less than 5% of the reaction is measured. The initial rate data obtained is used

to fit to equation 2.1.

$$E + S \underset{k_{-1}}{\overset{k_1}{\rightleftharpoons}} ES \xrightarrow{k_2} E + P \qquad (2.3)$$
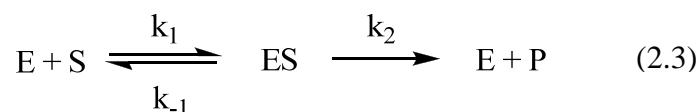
Preconditions to this *modus operandi* are that the substrate can be synthesized and

isolated in reasonably pure form; that the substrate will not spontaneously and rapidly

hydrolyze, masking enzymatic hydrolysis while also generating significant concentrations of inhibitor; and that there is a way to monitor the reaction for a mere 5% of the reaction. Phosphoramidates challenge all of these preconditions, likely explaining why such experiments are scant in the literature.

With phosphatase assays a common contaminant that will cause difficulties is inorganic phosphate, P_i. Phosphatases can have low inhibition constants, K_i, with P_i, so elimination of P_i from the substrate preparation is critical (Table 2-1). For the three substrates used in this study, different protocols were employed to isolate the products and control concentrations of P_i.

Table 2-1. Published inhibition values, K_i, with P_i for enzymes used in this study.

Enzyme	Phosphate K_i (mM)	Ref
AP	0.0143, 0.001	37,111
λPP	0.71	58
PAcP	0.8	112,113
VHR	0.97	42
YopH	6.1, 5.5	26,27
PHPT1	1.1	20

2.2 Synthetic Protocols

2.2.1 General Procedures

Pyridine and methylene chloride were distilled after being refluxed over CaH_2 and used immediately. Methanol was sparged with nitrogen gas for an hour and used immediately. Diethyl ether was distilled after being refluxed over sodium and used immediately. Aniline was purchased from Fisher. It was purified by simple distillation, followed by storage in the dark under nitrogen gas. Acetone and ethyl acetate were purchased from Fisher and used as supplied. Phosphorus oxychloride, para-nitro phenol,

benzyl alcohol, trichloro phosphite, palladium on carbon, and imidazole were purchased

from Aldrich and used as supplied. Triethyl amine was purchased from Fisher. It was

kept over sodium hydroxide and distilled prior to use. ^{1}H NMR spectra were obtained at

300 MHz (JEOL, Tokyo, Japan) with TMS as an internal standard in CDCl$_3$; external

standard, when used, was pyrazine. ^{31}P NMR spectra were obtained at 122 MHz (JEOL,

Tokyo, Japan). UV/Vis spectra requiring 1 or 0.1 cm path length cells were obtained on

a Cary 50 (Agilent Technologies, agilent.com/chem); assays suitable for 96 well plates

used Costar 96 well flat-bottomed 330 μL plates read in a Molecular Devices

VERSAMax microplate reader.

2.2.2 *p*NPP, disodium salt.

The disodium salt of *p*NPP was prepared following literature procedures (Figure

2-1).[114] Phosphorus oxychloride (30 mL, 320 mmol, 1.5 eq) was dissolved in freshly

distilled anhydrous pyridine (205 mL) to make a 1.6 M solution. pNP, (27.8 g, 200

mmol, 1 eq) was dissolved in pyridine (100 mL) to make a 2 M solution and placed in an

addition funnel. The reaction was run under dry nitrogen at 0 °C. After slow addition of

pNP with stirring, the mixture stood for 30 minutes, upon which the mixture was slowly

poured into 400 mL of cold water. The resulting solution was titrated to pH 7~8 with 4 N

NaOH. The product was isolated by evaporation under reduced pressure and purified by

crystallization.[115] After dissolving the crude product in 90% cold methanol (20 mL

MeOH per 1 g crude) and filtering, an equal volume of acetone was added to the filtrate.

The solution stood at 4 °C overnight, whereupon the resultant crystals were filtered and

washed with acetone. The crystals were air-dried on a Buchner funnel for thirty minutes.

The product was kept at 4 °C.

While it would seem counterintuitive to not dry the product as thoroughly as possible, literature precedent indicated complete removal of water caused more hydrolysis than leaving the product as a hydrate.[115] The product was stored both as a hydrate and after removing water via high vacuum with moderate heat. NMR confirms that less hydrolysis was obtained with air drying. Further, storage at 4 °C was sufficient to minimize hydrolysis in the solid state, and made handling easier when introducing the product to the bench.
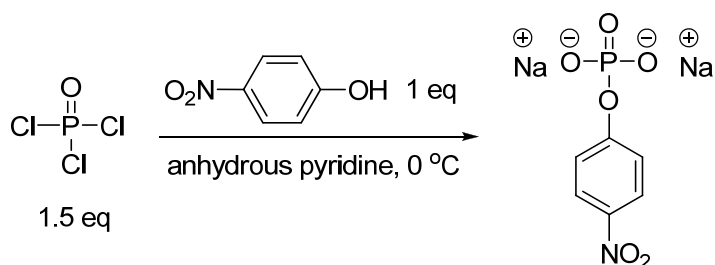
Figure 2-1. Synthesis of *p*NPP.

^{1}H NMR (300 MHz, D$_2$O): δ 7.2 (d, *J*=7.6 Hz, 2H), 8.1 (d, *J*=9.4 Hz, 2H); ^{31}P NMR (122 MHz, D$_2$O) δ 0.24 (Figures A1 and A2).

2.2.3 *N*-phenyl phosphoramidate

N-phenyl phosphoramidate was synthesized following the general scheme depicted in Figure 2-2.

2.2.4 **Tribenzyl phosphite,** (Figure 2-3)[116]

Trichloro phosphite (2.56 mL, 29 mmol, 1 eq) and triethyl amine (12.5 mL, 89 mmol, 3.1 eq) were dissolved in freshly distilled anhydrous diethyl ether (150 mL) for a 0.2 M PCl$_3$ solution in a round bottom flask with stir bar. Benzyl alcohol (8.9 mL, 86 mmol, 3 eq) was dissolved in 30 mL ether for a 2.9 M solution that was placed in an
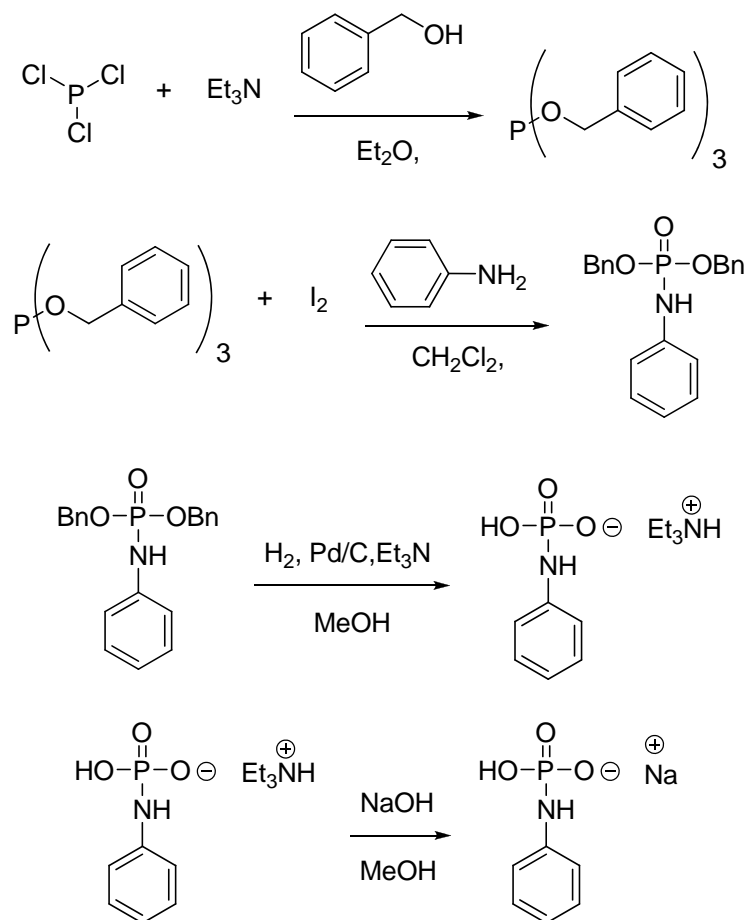
Figure 2-2. General synthetic scheme for *N*-phenyl phosphoramidate. Literature protocols[116,117] did not provide a direct route to the product.

addition funnel. The apparatus was purged with and reaction maintained under nitrogen. The round bottom flask was cooled to -78 °C in a dry ice/acetone bath. The benzyl alcohol was slowly added to completion. The mixture was brought to room temperature over a 14 hour period and filtered. The filtrate was evaporated under reduced pressure. The clear-colorless, oily product was used without purification. It was maintained under nitrogen, in dark, at room temperature. The product rapidly degrades on normal phase silica gel, even if triethylamine is added to the eluent, precluding purification in this

manner. NMR indicated the product was reasonably clean after high vacuum and was

used as is for the next step.
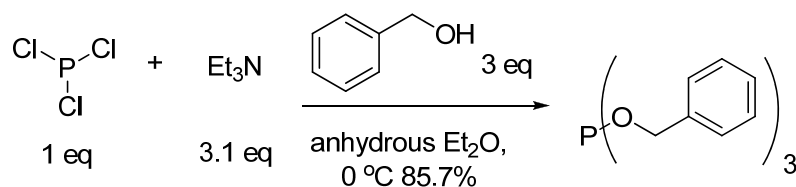
Figure 2-3. Synthesis of tribenzyl phosphite.

^{1}H NMR (300 MHz, CDCl$_3$): δ 4.9 (d, J =7.9 Hz, 6H), 7.3 (m, 15H); ^{31}P NMR (122

MHz, CDCl$_3$) δ 140.2 (Figures A3 through A5).

2.2.5 Dibenzyl *N*-phenyl phosphoramidate (Figure 2-4)[117]

Iodine (0.51 g, 1.95 mmol, <1 eq) was dissolved in 5 mL methylene chloride for a

0.4 M solution and placed in an addition funnel; it takes several hours for the iodine to

completely dissolve. Freshly distilled aniline (0.28 g, 3 mmol, 1.5 eq) was dissolved in 5

mL methylene chloride for a 0.6 M solution and placed in an addition funnel.

Tribenzyl phosphite (0.67 g, 2 mmol, 1 eq) was dissolved in 3 mL methylene chloride for

a 0.6 M solution. The addition funnels were placed over a round bottom flask holding the

tribenzyl phosphite, the system flushed with nitrogen, and cooled to 0 °C. The iodine

solution was slowly added with stirring to the tribenzyl phosphite. Less than 1 eq of

iodine was used, keeping the reaction clear and colorless. Excessive iodine causes the

reaction mixture to turn pink, lowers yield, and makes clean-up difficult. The mixture

was maintained at 0 °C for one hour, whereupon aniline was slowly added with stirring.

The reaction was maintained at 0 °C for twenty minutes, brought to room temperature,

kept for two hours, and evaporated under reduced pressure. The crude product was

partitioned between 25 mL of diethyl ether and 25 mL 2 N HCl. The organic layer was

washed twice with 25 mL of 2 N HCl, once with 25 mL of brine, dried over magnesium

sulfate, filtered, and evaporated under reduced pressure. Purification was completed

isocratically by normal phase silica chromatography (50/50 Hex/EtOAc). The product, a

white solid, was further purified by recrystallization (80/20 hexane/ethylene chloride).

Crystals were dried under vacuum and kept at -10 ^{o}C under nitrogen.
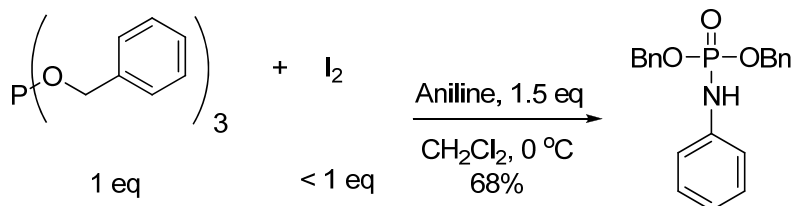
Figure 2-4. Synthesis of dibenzyl *N*-phenyl phosphoramidate.

^{1}H NMR (300 MHz, CDCl$_3$): δ 5.1 (m, 4H), 7.0 (t, *J* =7.6, 3H), 7.2 (m, 2H), 7.3 (m,

10H); ^{31}P NMR (122 MHz, CDCl$_3$) δ 3.1 (Figures A6 through A8).

2.2.6 *N*-phPAM triethyl ammonium salt (Figure 2-5)[117]

Dibenzyl *N*-phenyl phosphoramidate (2.2 g, 6.1 mmol, 1 eq), triethylamine (2.2

mL, 15 mmol, 2.5 eq), palladium on carbon (0.86 g of 5%), 40 mL of methanol, and a stir

bar were placed in a three neck flask fitted with a hydrogen filled balloon. The vessel

was evacuated three times followed by flushing with nitrogen. Hydrogen gas supplied by

balloon and vigorous stirring initiated. After thirty minutes, one benzyl group was

removed and the palladium had become poisoned. The reaction was quenched by

filtration of the palladium catalyst over celite. Repeating the above procedure using the

same quantities removed the second benzyl group. The solid white precipitate was

isolated by evaporation under reduced pressure. Recrystallization was effected using

85/10/5 hexane/dichloro ethane/ethyl acetate. The product is stored at -10 ^{o}C under N$_2$.
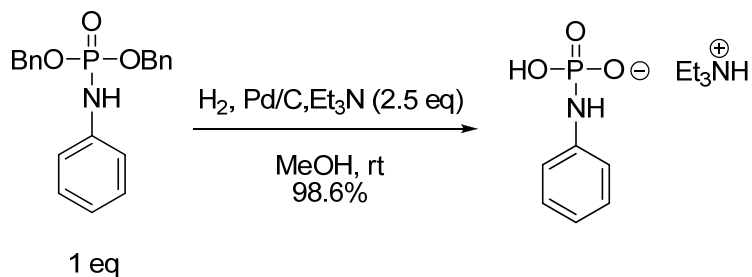
Figure 2-5. Synthesis of *N*-phPAM triethyl ammonium salt.

^{1}H NMR (300 MHz, CDCl$_3$): δ 1.2 (t, *J* =7.2, 9H), 2.9 (q, *J* =7.2, 6H) 6.7 (m, 1H) 7.1 (m, 4H); ^{31}P NMR (122 MHz, CDCl$_3$) δ 0.9 (Figures A9 and A10).

2.2.7 *N*-phPAM sodium salt

The triethylammonium salt of *N*-phenyl phosphoramidate (2.2 g, 6.1 mol, 1 eq), was dissolved in freshly sparged methanol (2.2 mL, 15 mmol, 2.5 eq). An equal volume of 2 N NaOH was added, and the aqueous layer washed three times with ethyl acetate. The aqueous layer was brought to neutral pH with 2 N HCl and frozen with liquid nitrogen. After lyophilization, the product was dissolved with methylene chloride followed by evaporation under reduced pressure.

^{1}H NMR (300 MHz, D$_2$O): δ 6.7 (t, *J* =7.2, 1H), 6.9 (d, *J* =7.5, 2H) 7.1 (m, 2H); ^{31}P NMR (122 MHz, D$_2$O) δ 1.1 (Figures A11 and A12).

2.2.8 Phosphoimidazole

Phosphoimidazole was synthesized following the general scheme depicted in Figure 2-6.
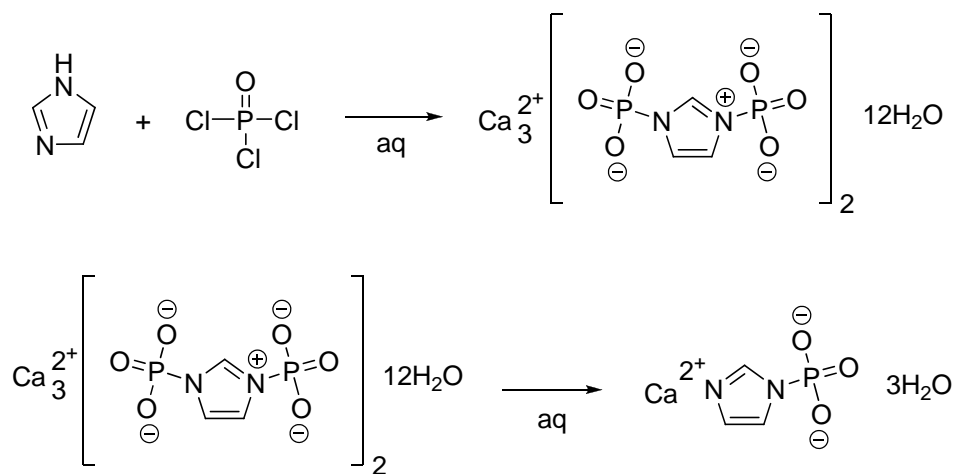
Figure 2-6. General synthetic scheme for phosphoimidazole.

2.2.9 Diphosphoimidazole (Figure 2-7)[118]

Diphosphoimidazole was prepared according to a literature method with modifications. Imidazole (4 g, 58 mmol, 1 eq) was dissolved in 40 mL water in an Erlenmeyer flask. The flask was kept at 0 °C throughout the reaction. The pH was adjusted to 11 using 5 N potassium hydroxide. A pH probe and thermometer were placed in the vessel. Phosphoryl chloride (23 mL, 240 mmol, 4.2 eq) was added in 150 μL increments using a pipette. The pipette tip was placed under the level of the solvent when adding the phosphoryl chloride. Vigorous stirring was maintained throughout the addition. After addition of each phosphoryl chloride aliquot, the temperature was allowed to return to 0 °C and the pH was adjusted to 11 using 5 N KOH. After complete addition of the phosphoryl chloride, the temperature and pH were maintained for 30 min., after which the reaction was kept at room temperature for 20 hours. The pH was adjusted to 9.5 with 2 N HCl. Ethanol (45 mL) was added. The mixture was allowed to stand for 18 hours at 4 °C, whereupon the product and contaminating phosphate were filtered. The product with contaminant was stored at -10 °C under N_2.
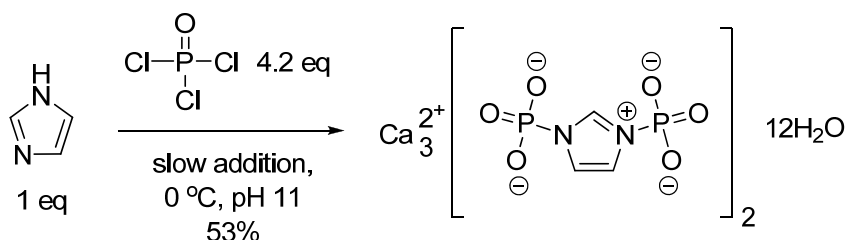
Figure 2-7. Synthesis of diphosphoimidazole.

^{1}H NMR (300 MHz, D$_2$O): δ 7.3 (s, 2H), 8.3 (s, 1H); ^{31}P NMR (122 MHz, D$_2$O) δ -3.8 (Figures A13 and A14).

2.2.10 Monophosphoimidazole (Figure 2-8)[119]

Monophosphoimidazole was prepared according to a literature method with modifications. Diphosphoimidazole (2.1 g, 0.0027 mol, 1 eq) was dissolved in 140 mL water, the pH brought to 12.5, and the solution kept at 50 °C for 12 hours. Monitoring the reaction via chromatography is problematic. The reaction was monitored by ^{1}H NMR. As the reaction progresses, starting material, product, and any contaminating Im can be seen (Figures 2-21 and 2-22). When the reaction was complete the mixture was cooled to 0 °C and filtered. The filtrate was adjusted to pH 8.5 with 5 M HCl. Calcium chloride dihydrate (1.41 g, 0.0096 mol, 3.6 eq) was dissolved in the minimum quantity of water and the pH was adjusted to pH 8.5. This was added to the filtrate, and the resulting mixture filtered; the filtered precipitate was discarded. Three volumes of ethanol were added to the filtrate, and the mixture was cooled to 4 °C for 4 hours. The resulting monophosphoimidazole was filtered, washed with 75% ethanol, ethanol, and diethyl ether. It was dried via high vacuum, placed in a 50 mL cylindrical vial, flushed with dry nitrogen, and stored as the calcium salt. The calcium salt is insoluble in water and is stable at room temperature. Prior to use, the calcium must be exchanged for sodium.

This is effected by incubating the calcium salt with Amberlite IRC 748 cation exchange resin at a ratio of 20 g resin for 1 g phosphoimidazole at pH 8.5 for exactly 30 minutes. The resulting PIm concentration was determined via NMR using a pyrazine standard of known concentration.
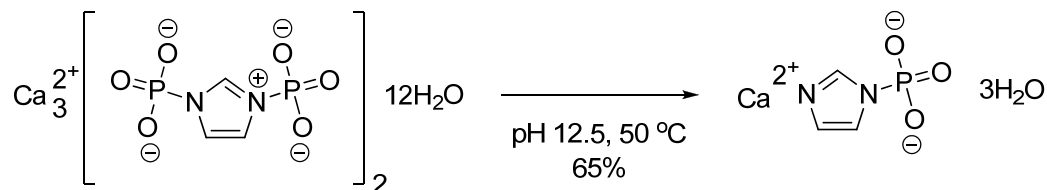
Figure 2-8. Synthesis of monophosphoimidazole.

^{1}H NMR (300 MHz, D$_2$O): δ 6.9 (s, 1H), 7.1 (s, 1H), 7.7 (s, 1H); ^{31}P NMR (122 MHz, D$_2$O) δ -4.0 (Figures A15 and A16).

2.3 Enzyme Preparation

2.3.1 Human PHPT1

The pNIC28-Bsa4 vector containing the human PHPT1 gene with His tag was a gift from Martin Hammarstrom, M. Sc., Ph.D., Karolinska Institutet Structural Genomics Consortium. Expression and purification were as described in the literature.[20,120] DH-5α cells (0.5 mL) were transformed with 2 µL of vector at 42 ^{o}C for 1 minute. The cells were then placed on ice for 30 minutes. The cells were placed in 400 µL of growth media (10 g/L tryptone, 5 g/L yeast extract, 5 g/L NaCl), and shaken at 37 ^{o}C for 1.5 hours. They were plated on growth media containing kanamycin (0.035 g/L) and grown at 37 ^{o}C for 24 hours. A small scale growth was completed by selecting colonies and inoculating two 50 mL tubes of growth media with kanamycin. DNA was removed via a

QIApre Spin Miniprep Kit (250). Concentration was determined by a Nanodrop ND-1000 spectrophotometer from Thermo Fisher Scientific. An aliquot of DNA was sent to USU's Center for Integrated Biotechnology, CIB, for sequencing, which confirmed vector contained the desired gene.

BL21 (DE3) cells were transformed with 2 μL of vector at 42 $^{\circ}$C for 1 minute. The cells were then placed on ice for 30 minutes. The cells were placed in 400 μL of growth media (10 g/L tryptone, 5 g/L yeast extract, 5 g/L NaCl), and shaken at 37 $^{\circ}$C for 1.5 hours. They were plated on growth media containing kanamycin (0.035 g/L) and grown at 37 $^{\circ}$C for 24 hours. A small scale growth was completed by selecting colonies and inoculating two 50 mL tubes of growth media with kanamycin. After completing a small scale growth, a large scale growth was completed using 3 L of growth media. After inoculating the media, cells were grown at 37 $^{\circ}$C until the OD_{600} was 1.8~2, whereupon protein expression was induced by the addition of 0.5 mM isopropyl thiogalactaside, IPTG. After overnight incubation, cells were harvested by centrifugation, RCF (g) 6816, 25 minutes at 4 $^{\circ}$C. Cells were frozen at -80 $^{\circ}$C.

Cells were placed in 40 mL lysis buffer (0.05 M sodium phosphate, 0.5 M NaCl, 0.01 M Im., 0.0005 M TCEP, 10% glycerol, 0.3 μM aprotinin, 4 μM leupeptin, 4 μM pepstatin, titrated to pH 7.5) and thawed. Lysis was completed with ten iterations, seven cycles per iteration, of sonication. The lysate was centrifuged, RCF (g) 52648, for 45 minutes at 4 $^{\circ}$C.

The supernatant was added to nickel resin (10 mL) and mixed on a rotator-mixer for an hour at 4 $^{\circ}$C. The solution was centrifuged at 1,500 rpm for 10 minutes, whereupon the supernatant was discarded. Bind/wash buffer (0.05 M sodium phosphate,

0.5 M NaCl, 0.01 M Im., 0.0005 M TCEP, 10% glycerol, pH 7.5) was added, mixed for ten minutes, centrifuged, and the supernatant discarded; this step was repeated. Protein was eluted isocratically from a 25 mL column at 4 $^{\circ}$C (0.05 M sodium phosphate, 0.5 M NaCl, 0.5 M Im., 0.0005 M TCEP, 10% glycerol, pH 7.5). Fractions were pooled and dialyzed for 2 hours in dialysis buffer (0.05 M Tris, 0.5 mM EDTA, 10% glycerol, 10 mM DTT, pH 8.0).

Fresh dialysis buffer was added and TEV cleavage protease was added to the dialysis bag. The solution was kept overnight at 4 $^{\circ}$C, whereupon new dialysis buffer was added (0.05 M sodium phosphate, 0.5 M NaCl, 10% glycerol, 10 mM Im., 0.5 mM TCEP, pH 8.0); dialysis was run for 2 hours. The solution was equilibrated with the nickel resin again. TEV protease, cleaved His tags, and un-cleaved protein stick to the resin, leaving the protein in the supernatant. Protein was concentrated using an Amicon 10,000 MW membrane. Pressure for the concentrator was 20 psi.

The protein was purified by size exclusion chromatography using a SUPERDEX column (0.02 M HEPES, 0.3 M NaCl, 10% glycerol, 0.5 mM DTT, pH 7.5). Concentration was accomplished as indicated above (final concentration 300 μmol/L) and checked using a Nanodrop ND-1000 spectrophotometer from Thermo Fisher Scientific. Extinction coefficient was determined using protein sequence. Purity was checked by SDS-PAGE (Figure 2-9). Protein was dialyzed (0.05 M HEPES, 0.3 M NaCl, 10% glycerol, 0.5 mM DTT), concentrated, the concentration checked (ε 26088 cm^{-1}M^{-1}), and flash frozen in liquid nitrogen. The protein was stored at -80 $^{\circ}$C.
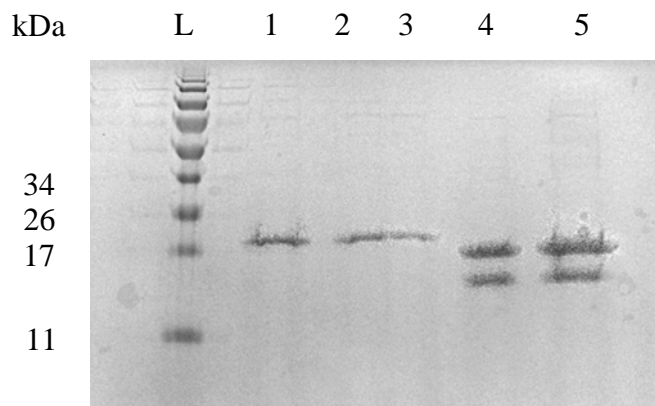
Figure 2-9. SDS-PAGE of PHPT1. Lanes 1, 2 and 3 are final product. Lanes 4 and 5 are after cleavage with TEV protease.

2.3.2 YopH

BL21 cells with the YopH gene were obtained from lab cell stocks. Expression and purification were as described in literature.[22,35] Pin-head sized aliquots of frozen cell stocks were used to inoculate small scale (40 mL) growth media (8 g bacto tryptone, 5 g yeast extract, 5 g NaCl, pH 7.0, 100 μg/mL ampicillin). Cells were grown at 37 °C until OD660 was ~1, whereupon protein expression was inducted with IPTG (400 μM). After expression was continued overnight, cells were harvested by centrifugation, RCF (g) 6816, 25 minutes at 4 °C. Cells were frozen at -80 °C.

Cells were placed in 40 mL lysis buffer (100 mM sodium acetate, 100 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 10% glycerol, 0.3 μM aprotinin, 4 μM leupeptin, 4 μM pepstatin, titrated to pH 5.7) and thawed. Lysis was completed with ten iterations, seven cycles per iteration, of sonication. The lysate was centrifuged, RCF (g) 52648, for 45 minutes at 4 °C.

Lysate was bound to a Sephadex C-25 cation exchange column (100 mM sodium acetate, 100 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, pH 5.7) at 4 °C for 1 hour. Protein was removed

using gradient elution with increasing concentration of NaCl (100 mM NaCl to 500 mM

NaCl, 100 mM sodium acetate, 1 mM EDTA, pH 5.7).

The protein was purified by size exclusion chromatography using a SUPERDEX

column (100 mM sodium acetate, 100 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, pH 5.7) and concentrated

(final concentration 332 μmol/L) using an Amicon 10,000 MW membrane under 20 psi

of pressure. Purity was confirmed by SDS-PAGE (Figure 2-10). Concentration was

determined using a Nanodrop ND-1000 spectrophotometer from Thermo Fisher

Scientific using an extinction coefficient determined using the protein sequence. (ε

19348 cm^{-1}M^{-1}), and flash frozen in liquid nitrogen. Purified protein was stored at -80

$^{\circ}$C.
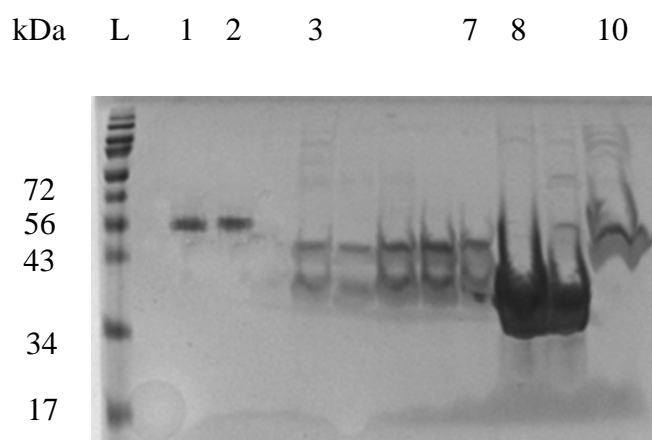
Figure 2-10. SDS-PAGE of YopH. Lanes 1 and 2 are final product. Lanes 3 through 7

and 8 through 10 are before chromatography.

2.3.3 Alkaline Phosphatase

The pEK154 vector containing the *E. coli* AP gene was a gift from Prof. John

Peters, Montana State University. Expression and purification were as described in the

literature.[111,121] *Escherichia coli* DH-5α cells (0.5 mL) were transformed by heating with

2 μL of vector at 42 $^{\circ}$C for 1 minute. The cells were then placed on ice for 30 minutes.

The cells were placed in 400 μL of growth media (8 g/L tryptone, 5 g/L yeast extract, 5

g/L NaCl, pH 7.5), and shaken at 37 $^{\circ}$C for 1.5 hours. They were plated on growth media

with ampicillin (0.035 g/L) and grown at 37 $^{\circ}$C for 24 hours. A small scale growth was

completed by selecting colonies and inoculating two 50 mL tubes of growth media with

ampicillin. DNA was isolated via a QIAprep Spin Miniprep Kit (250). Concentration

was determined by a Nanodrop ND-1000 spectrophotometer from Thermo Fisher

Scientific.

Escherichia coli BL21 (DE3) cells were transformed following the above

protocol. After completing a small scale growth, a large scale growth was completed

using 3 L of the same growth media. After inoculating the media, cells were grown at 37

$^{\circ}$C until the OD_{600} was 0.5,[71] whereupon protein expression was induced by the addition

of 0.5 mM IPTG. After overnight incubation, cells were harvested by centrifugation RCF

(g) 6816, 25 minutes at 4 $^{\circ}$C. Cells were frozen at -80 $^{\circ}$C.

Cells were thawed in 75 mL of wash buffer (10 mM Tris, 10 mM $MgCl_2$, pH 7.6),

centrifuged RCF (g) 6816, 25 minutes at 4 $^{\circ}$C. Washing was repeated once, whereupon

the cells were suspended in 30 mM Tris, pH 7.6. Using the cells in wash buffer, sucrose

was added to 20% weight/volume. EDTA was added to make the solution 5 mM. Cells

were gently stirred for 10 minutes at room temperature. The solution was centrifuged

RCF (g) 6816, 25 minutes at 4 $^{\circ}$C. Cells were resuspended in ice water, shaken

vigorously for 10 minutes, and centrifuged, RCF (g) 6816, 25 minutes at 4 $^{\circ}$C.

Stock solutions of Tris, $MgCl_2$, $ZnCl_2$ were added to make a final concentration of

10 mM, 100 mM, and 10 mM, respectively, with the final pH being 7.0. The mixture

was heated to 80 $^{\circ}$C for 10 minutes, cooled in an ice bath, and centrifuged, RCF (g) 6816,

for 15 minutes at 4 $^{\circ}$C. Ammonium sulfate was added to the supernatant to 85% of

saturation, followed by centrifugation RCF (g) 6816, 25 minutes at 4 $^{\circ}$C. The pellet was

placed in 10 mL of dialysis buffer and dialyzed overnight with two changes of dialysis

buffer (10 mM Tris, 1 mM MgCl$_2$, 0.1 mM NaH$_2$PO$_4$, 0.1 mM ZnSO$_4$, pH 7.0).

Purity was checked by SDS-PAGE (Figure 2-11). The protein was concentrated

(final concentration 49 umol/L) using an Amicon 10,000 MW membrane. Pressure for

the concentrator was 20 psi. Concentration was determined with a Nanodrop ND-1000

spectrophotometer from Thermo Fisher Scientific using an extinction coefficient

determined from the protein sequence (ε 31390 cm^{-1}M^{-1}). Concentrated protein was flash

frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80 $^{\circ}$C.
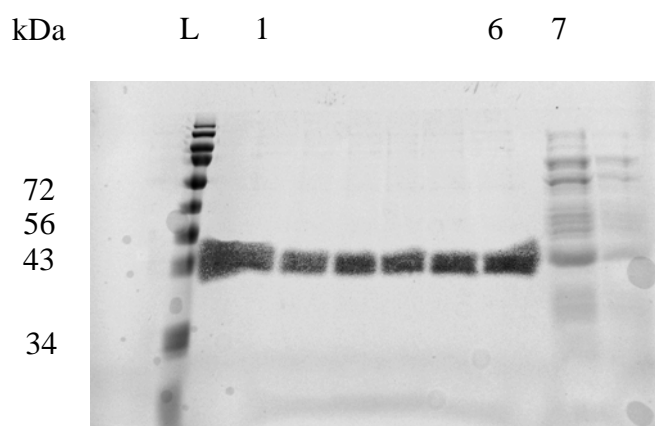
Figure 2-11. SDS-PAGE of AP. Lanes 1 through 6 are final product. Lane 7 is before

purification and concentration.

2.3.4 λPP

The T7-7 vector containing the λPP gene with His tag was a gift from Amy

Rosenzweig and Nicholas Reiter, Northwestern University. Expression and purification

were as described in literature.[54,58-60] *Escherichia coli* DH-5α cells (0.5 mL) were

transformed by heating with 2 μL of vector at 42 ^{o}C for 1 minute. The cells were then

placed on ice for 30 minutes. The cells were placed in 400 μL of growth media (8 g/L

tryptone, 5 g/L yeast extract, 5 g/L NaCl, pH 7.5) and shaken at 37 ^{o}C for 1.5 hours.

They were plated on growth media containing ampicillin (0.4 mg/L) and grown at 37 ^{o}C

for 24 hours. A small scale growth was completed by selecting colonies and inoculating

two 50 mL tubes of growth media with ampicillin (0.4 mg/L). DNA was isolated via a

QIAprep Spin Miniprep Kit (250). Concentration was determined by a Nanodrop ND-

1000 spectrophotometer from Thermo Fisher Scientific. An aliquot of DNA was sent to

USU's Center for Integrated Biotechnology, CIB, for sequencing, which confirmed the

isolated DNA contained the desired gene.

BL21 (DE3) cells were transformed following the above protocol. After

completing a small scale growth, a large scale growth was completed using 3 L of growth

media. After inoculating the media, cells were grown at 37 ^{o}C until the OD_{600} was 0.7~1,

whereupon protein expression was induced by the addition of 0.3 mM IPTG. After

overnight incubation, cells were harvested by centrifugation, RCF (g) 6816, 25 minutes at

4 ^{o}C. Cells were frozen at -80 ^{o}C.

Cells were placed in 40 mL lysis buffer (0.025 M Tris, 0.002 M EDTA, 20%

glycerol, 0.3 μM aprotinin, 4 μM leupeptin, 4 μM pepstatin, titrated to pH 7.8) and

thawed. Lysis was completed with ten iterations, seven cycles per iteration, of

sonication. The lysate was centrifuged, RCF (g) 52648, for 45 minutes at 4 ^{o}C.

The supernatant was loaded to 250 mL of DEAE Sephadex (25 mM Tris, pH 7.8,

2 mM EDTA) and eluted isocratically while maintaining 4 ^{o}C (25 mM Tris, pH 7.8, 100

mM NaCl, 2 mM EDTA). Fractions were pooled based upon phosphatase activity with

pNPP. The pooled active fractions were loaded to 100 mL of phenyl Sepharose fast flow

(25 mM Tris, pH 7.8, 500 mM NaCl) and eluted isocratically while maintaining 4 $^{\circ}$C (25

mM Tris, pH 7.8, 50% glycerol). Fractions were pooled based upon phosphatase activity

and SDS-PAGE (Figure 2-12), and subsequently dialyzed (9 mM Tris, pH 7.8, 10%

glycerol, 1 mM DTT). The dialysalate was concentrated (final concentration 0.35

μmol/L) using an Amicon 10,000 MW membrane at a pressure of 20 psi. Concentration

was determined with a Nanodrop ND-1000 spectrophotometer from Thermo Fisher

Scientific (ε 40450 cm^{-1}M^{-1}), the concentrated protein was flash frozen in liquid nitrogen

and stored at -80 $^{\circ}$C.
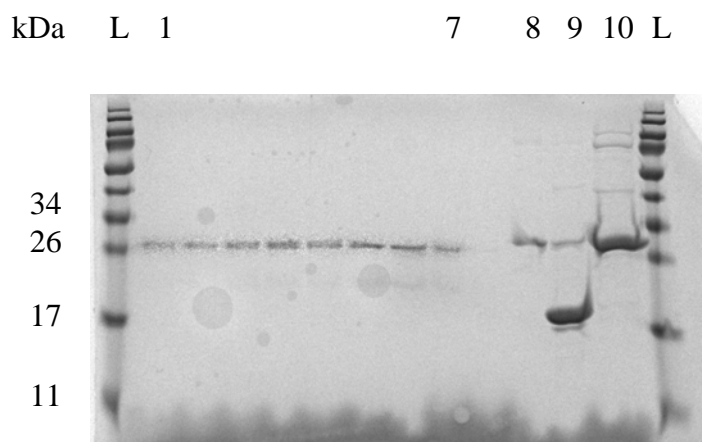
Figure 2-12. SDS-PAGE of λPP. Lanes 1 through 7 are final product. Lanes 8 through

10 are before chromatography

2.4 Substrate-Dependent Experimental Techniques and Mathematical Analysis

2.4.1 pNPP

Several techniques were employed to monitor pNPP hydrolysis. When the assay

was conducted under alkaline conditions, the hydrolysis product p-nitrophenolate was

detected directly by UV/Vis (ε p-nitrophenolate 18,300 λ_{max} = 405 nm).[122,123] For

reactions at mildly acidic conditions hydroxide was added to quench the reaction and

produce fully ionized p-nitrophenolate.

Enzymatic rates were measured as a function of substrate concentration, followed

by a computerized least squares fit to the Michaelis-Menton equation, to yield V_{max} and

K_M. The value of k_{cat} was then obtained from V_{max}, and the second order rate constant

was had from k_{cat}/K_M.

2.4.2 *N*-phPAM

While a sufficient difference exists between the absorbance spectra of *N*-phPAM

and aniline to facilitate direct read assays, the difference is small. When using this

technique with *N*-phPAM, several runs must be made to reduce standard deviation to

acceptable levels. The change in absorbance is a reflection of the change in

concentration of product, or substrate (2.4).

$$\frac{\Delta A_{ttl}}{\Delta t} = l \quad \text{x} \quad \frac{\Delta C_{prod}}{\Delta t} \quad \text{x} \quad (\varepsilon_{prod} - \varepsilon_{SM}) \qquad (2.4)$$

The challenge in the technique is had by considering an example. At pH 7.5 the

difference in extinction coefficient is 415 $M^{-1}cm^{-1}$. If a 5 mM solution of *N*-phPAM is

enzymatically hydrolyzed to 5% in a 1 cm cell, the change in absorbance is 0.1 AU.

While this change is small, it is within the ability of the lab's instrument to detect.

Each enzyme was treated with different concentrations of *N*-phPAM. Upon

mixing, the absorbance was read. Plots of concentration versus rate, were made, and

least-squares fitted to the Michaelis-Menton equation.

2.4.3 PIm

Enzymatic assays were conducted at, or near, the pH optimum for the enzyme
(see chapter 1). Because of this, assays were conducted at pH 5.5, 6.5, 7.8, and pH 8.0.
A method was needed to detect hydrolysis of PIm at these four pH conditions.

At pH 5.5 the absorbance spectra for PIm and Im are nearly identical making it
impractical to monitor the enzymatic reaction spectrophotometrically (Figure 2-13).
Although at pH 8.0 some absorbance difference existed between PIm and Im, buffers
absorb strongly in the region where the absorbance difference was greatest.
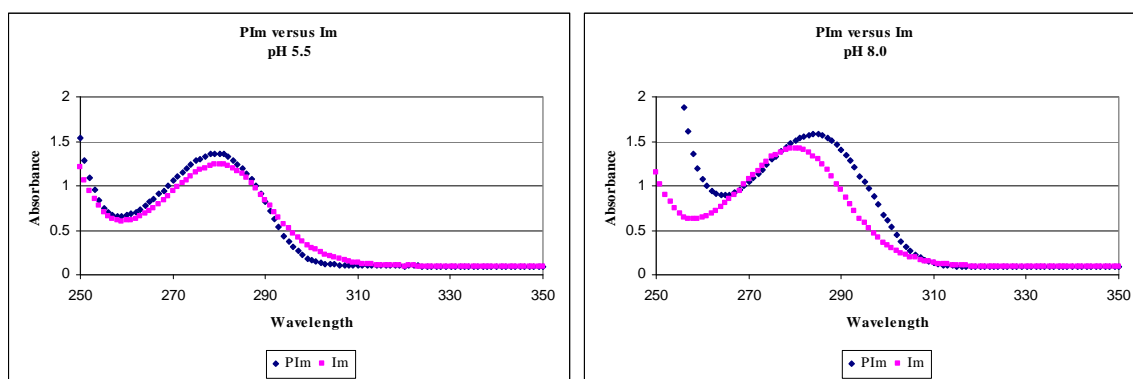
Figure 2-13. UV/Vis profile for PIm versus Im, both at 1 mM.

Molybdate assays of inorganic phosphate require acidic pH[124-132] which result in
significant hydrolysis of PIm; this prohibited their use. Proton NMR was found to be
able to detect hydrolysis of PIm. NMR is not well suited to initial rate methods because
the sensitivity necessary to accurately quantify the first few percent of reaction is lacking.
For this reason, full time course kinetics were carried out.

During full time course experiments significant concentrations of inhibitor P_i are
produced. The Michaelis-Menton equation may be used if modified to account for the
inhibitor concentration (2.5).

$$V_{obs} = \frac{(V_{max})[S]}{K_M(1 + [I]/K_i) + [S]} \qquad (2.5)$$

I is the inhibitor, K_i is the inhibition constant.

   Duplicate NMR experiments set at equal time intervals are run until an enzyme consumes 90% of a substrate, or until the instrument cannot detect an integratable signal (Figure 2-14). As substrate is converted to product and monitored over time, each NMR spectrum yields three variables, [S], [I], and V_{obs}. Reactions are typically assayed at 5 minute intervals for 60 minutes. Least squares fitting of data is accomplished using the Scientist program by Micromath. A similar technique has been reported.[2]
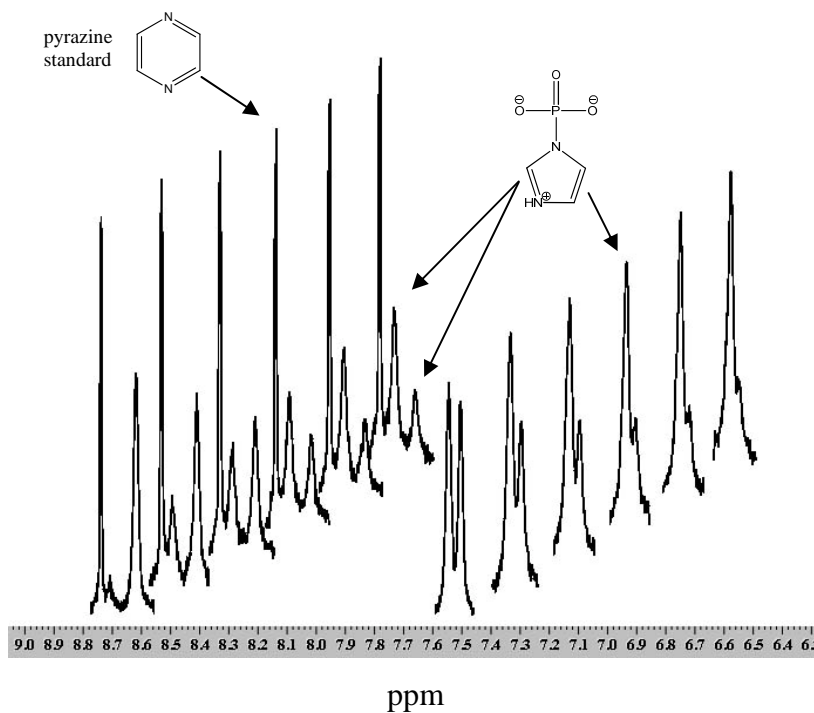
Figure 2-14. ^{1}H NMR time course for the hydrolysis of PIm by PAcP at pH 5.5, $\Delta t_{interval}$ = 7 min. Full course not shown for clarity. At the start of the course, unhydrolyzed substrate is indicated by a maximum signal at 8.6 ppm. As substrate is hydrolyzed, the

signal at 8.6 ppm disappears, and a new signal appears at 8.7 ppm indicating formation of free imidazole. The net integration of the signals at 7.5 to 7.6 ppm will remain unchanged as these signals are the same for the imidazole moiety of PIm and free imidazole.

When least squares fitting full time course NMR data, the validity of allowing the computer algorithm to determine the K_i is compared to the published K_i values (Table 2-1). The same values for V_{max} and K_M are obtained whether K_i is fixed to the literature value or allowed to float during the fit.

Substrate and protein concentrations that result in 90% completion within two hours provide the best results. Consistent with literature precedent, substrate concentrations greater than the obtained K_M yielded the lowest standard deviation.[133,134]

2.4.3.1 Specific Protocols for PIm Assays

A 0.1 M pyrazine standard was made by dissolving 0.0404 g pyrazine in 5.0 mL D_2O. After incubating the calcium salt of PIm with Amberlite, see section **2.2.10**, the concentration of the PIm was determined by mixing 150 μL of pyrazine standard with 300 μL of PIm, final [pyrazine] = 0.033M, and integrating the proton signals, ^{1}H NMR (300 MHz, D_2O): pyrazine, δ 8.5 (s, 4H); PIm δ 6.9 (s, 1H), 7.1 (s, 1H), 7.7 (s, 1H). During the determination of PIm concentration a ^{31}P experiment was run to determine if any contaminating phosphate existed. In all cases, the substrate demonstrated no contaminating phosphate. With the concentration of the sodium salt of PIm known, the desired dilution for an enzymatic assay was made; specific concentrations are listed by enzyme in section **2.5**.

A 5 mM pyrazine standard was made by diluting 500 μL of 0.1 M pyrazine to 10 mL using D_2O. 100 μL of this 5 mM standard was placed into a NMR coaxial tube. Enzyme, buffer, and PIm were mixed and placed into the NMR tube, see section **2.5**, the coaxial tube placed into the NMR tube, and a series of duplicate NMR experiments run.

Concentrations of buffer varied by enzyme, but always greatly exceeded PIm and pyrazine concentrations. To mitigate deleterious effects on the signals, offset was 8.1 ppm, and sweep was 3 ppm; pre-saturation of H_2O was at 4.7 ppm and 35 db. Other instrument settings were: scans – 32; prescans – 1; relaxation delay – 1.8 s; scans – 32; x points – 4096. During the course of a reaction, loss of signal at 6.9 ppm was followed (Figure 2-14) (Figures A17 through A20).

2.5 Enzymatic Assays

2.5.1 PHPT1

PHPT1 was tested with the substrates *p*NPP, *N*-phPAM, and PIm. *p*NPP assays were conducted in a 96 well microplate, 330 μL total volume per well, 23 $^{\circ}$C, [PHPT1] = 2.41 μM, μ 200 mM, in either 150 mM MES buffer at pH 5.5, or 150 mM EPPS buffer at pH 8.0. Reactions at pH 5.5 were quenched after 10 minutes with 2N NaOH and read at λ_{405}. Reactions at pH 8.0 were monitored directly by UV/Vis (ε p-nitrophenolate at pH 8.0 = 16200, λ_{max} = 405nm). *p*NPP concentrations at both pH conditions were 1, 2.5, 5, 8, 12, and 15 mM.

N-phPAM assays were conducted in quartz cuvettes via direct read, 23 $^{\circ}$C, [PHPT1] = 2 μM, μ 200 mM, 150 mM MES buffer at pH 5.5, λ_{295}, 150 mM EPPS buffer at pH 8.0, λ_{295}. *N*-phPAM concentrations at both pH conditions were 1 mM, using a 1

cm quartz cell with a reaction volume of 1300 μL, and 4, 8, 12, and 14 mM using 0.1 cm quartz cells with a reaction volume of 330 μL.

PIm assays were conducted by NMR using tube with coaxial insert holding the external standard pyrazine, 23 ^{o}C, [PHPT1] = 2 μM, μ 100 mM, 150 mM MES buffer at pH 5.5, or 150 mM EPPS buffer at pH 8.0. PIm concentration at both pH conditions was 6 mM with a total reaction volume of 550 μL. The ^{1}H NMR signals $\delta = 8.4$ ppm at pH 5.5 and $\delta = 7.9$ ppm at pH 8.0 were followed during the time course. Integration was against pyrazine at $\delta = 8.5$.

2.5.2 YopH

YopH was tested with the substrates *p*NPP, *N*-phPAM, and PIm. *p*NPP assays were conducted in a 96 well microplate, 330 μL total volume per well, 23 ^{o}C, [YopH] = 2.5 nM, μ 200 mM, 150 mM MES buffer at pH 5.5. Reactions were quenched after 1 minute with 2N NaOH and read at 405 nm. *p*NPP concentrations were 1, 2.5, 5, 7.5, 10, and 15 mM.

N-phPAM assays were conducted in quartz cuvettes monitored at 295 nm, 23 ^{o}C, [YopH] = 25 nM, μ 200 mM, 150 mM MES buffer at pH 5.5. *N*-phPAM concentrations were 1 mM, using a 1 cm quartz cell with a reaction volume of 1300 μL, and 4, 8, 12, and 14 mM using 0.1 cm quartz cells with a reaction volume of 330 μL.

PIm assays were conducted by NMR using a coaxial insert holding the external standard pyrazine, 23 ^{o}C, [YopH] = 120 nM, μ 100 mM, 150 mM MES buffer at pH 5.5. PIm concentration was 5.5 mM with a total reaction volume of 550 μL. The ^{1}H NMR

signal at $\delta = 8.4$ ppm was followed during the time course and integrated relative to the pyrazine standard at $\delta = 8.5$ ppm.

2.5.3 VHR

VHR was tested with the substrates *p*NPP, *N*-phPAM, and PIm. *p*NPP assays were conducted in a 96 well microplate, 330 µL total volume per well, 23 °C, [VHR] = 10 nM, µ 200 mM, 150 mM acetate buffer at pH 5.5. Reactions were quenched after 8 minutes with 2N NaOH and read at 405 nm. *p*NPP concentrations were 1, 2.5, 5, 7.5, 10, and 15 mM.

N-phPAM assays were conducted in quartz cuvettes monitored at 295 nm, 23 °C, [VHR] = 300 nM, µ 200 mM, 150 mM acetate buffer at pH 5.5. *N*-phPAM concentrations were 1 mM, using a 1 cm quartz cell with a reaction volume of 1300 µL, and 4, 8, 12, and 14 mM using 0.1 cm quartz cells with a reaction volume of 330 µL.

PIm assays were conducted by NMR using a coaxial insert holding the external standard pyrazine, 23 °C, [VHR] = 300 nM, µ 200 mM, 150 mM acetate buffer at pH 5.5. PIm concentration was 5.5 mM with a total reaction volume of 550 µL. The ^{1}H NMR signal at $\delta = 8.4$ ppm was followed during the time course. Integration was against pyrazine at $\delta = 8.5$ ppm.

2.5.4 PAcP

PAcP was tested with the substrates *p*NPP, *N*-phPAM, and PIm. *p*NPP assays were conducted in a 96 well microplate, 330 µL total volume per well, 23 °C, [PAcP] = 500 nM, µ 150 mM, 50 mM acetate buffer at pH 5.5. Reactions were quenched after 6

minutes with 2N NaOH and read at 405 nm. pNPP concentrations were 32, 200, 400, 600, and 800 μM.

N-phPAM assays were conducted in quartz cuvettes monitored at 295 nm, 23 $^{\circ}$C, [PAcP] = 81.6 nM, μ 150 mM, 50 mM acetate buffer at pH 5.5. N-phPAM concentrations were 86, 200, 400, and 600 μM, using a 1 cm quartz cell with a reaction volume of 1300 μL.

PIm assays were conducted by NMR using a coaxial insert holding the external standard pyrazine, 23 $^{\circ}$C, [PAcP] = 500 nM, μ 150 mM, 50 mM acetate buffer at pH 5.5. PIm concentration was 3.0 mM with a total reaction volume of 550 μL. The ^{1}H NMR signal at δ = 8.4 ppm was followed during the time course and integrated relative to the pyrazine standard at δ = 8.5 ppm.

2.5.5 λPP

λPP was tested with the substrates pNPP, N-phPAM, and PIm. λPP's behavior with pNPP followed normal Michaelis-Menton kinetics, but it did not for PIm. To validate the results with PIm, both NMR and HPLC were used. Because k_{cat} and K_M could not be obtained with PIm, percent hydrolysis after a single fixed time period was obtained using HPLC. To make a side-by-side comparison of the enzyme's behavior with pNPP and PIm, percent pNPP hydrolysis after the same fixed time period was obtained using HPLC.

Additionally, inhibition assays were conducted with PIm as inhibitor and pNPP as substrate. Inhibition assays were conducted in a 96 well microplate, 330 μL total volume per well, [λPP] = 1 nM, μ 200 mM, 150 mM Tris, pH 7.8, 1 mM $MnCl_2$, 10 mM DTT,

10% glycerol, 30 $^{\circ}$C. pNPP concentrations were 1, 2.5, 5, 10, 15, and 20 mM. PIm

concentrations were 3, 6, 12, 18, and 24 mM. Reactions were monitored at 405 nm.

Data were least squares fitted using the Visual Enzymics Program by SoftZymics.

pNPP activity assays were conducted in a 96 well microplate, 330 μL total

volume per well, [λPP] = 1 nM, μ 200 mM, 150 mM Tris, pH 7.8, 1 mM $MnCl_2$, 10 mM

DTT, 10% glycerol, 30 $^{\circ}$C. pNPP concentrations were 1, 2.5, 5, 10, 15, and 20 mM.

Reactions were monitored at 405 nm.

HPLC assays to detect percent pNPP hydrolysis after a single fixed time period

were conducted in 500 μL Eppendorf tubes, [λPP] = 100 nM, μ 150 mM, 1 mM $MnCl_2$,

10% glycerol, 10 mM DTT, 100 mM Tris buffer, pH 7.8, 30 $^{\circ}$C. Concentration of pNPP

was 1 mM. Reactions were injected directly into an Agilent Technologies Zorbax

Eclipse Plus C18 column and analyzed by an Agilent 1200 HPLC. The mobile phase

consisted of 42.5% 1 M NH_4OH, pH 8.0, and 57.5% MeOH run isocratically at a flow

rate of 1 mL/min. UV/Vis detection was used at 410 nm. Retention time was 6.9 min.

The reference wavelength was 510 nm. Integration was against a calibration curve

developed using the same HPLC settings.

N-phPAM assays were conducted in quartz cuvettes monitored at 295 nm, [λPP]

= 100 nM, μ 200 mM, 1 mM $MnCl_2$, 10% glycerol, 10 mM DTT, 150 mM Tris buffer,

pH 7.8, 30 $^{\circ}$C. N-phPAM concentrations were 1 mM, using a 1 cm quartz cell with a

reaction volume of 1300 μL, and 4, 8, 12, and 14 mM using 0.1 cm quartz cells with a

reaction volume of 330 μL.

HPLC assays to detect percent PIm hydrolysis after a single fixed time period

were conducted in 500 μL Eppendorf tubes, [λPP] = 100 nM, μ 150 mM, 1 mM $MnCl_2$,

10% glycerol, 10 mM DTT, 100 mM Tris buffer, pH 7.8, 30 $^{\circ}$C. Concentration of PIm

was 1 mM. Reactions were injected directly into an Agilent Technologies Zorbax

Eclipse Plus C18 column and analyzed by an Agilent 1200 HPLC. Elution was run

stepwise at a flow rate of 1 mL/min. From 0 to 12 minutes the mobile phase consisted of

42.5% 1 M NH$_4$OH, pH 8.0, and 57.5% MeOH. During the time period from 12 to 16

minutes, the composition of eluent was gradually changed to 100% MeOH. It was held

at 100% MeOH for an additional 2 minutes. UV/Vis detection was used at 209 nm.

Retention time was 15.2 min. The reference wavelength was 360 nm. Integration was

against a calibration curve developed using the same HPLC settings.

Percent hydrolysis for PIm was verified by NMR. Manganese was precipitated

prior to conducting the NMR experiment by EDTA.

2.5.6 PP1γ

Inhibition assays with PIm as inhibitor and pNPP as substrate were conducted in a

96 well microplate, 330 μL total volume per well, [PP1] = 400 nM, 50 mM Tris, 50 mM

Bis-Tris, 100 mM acetate, 0.05 mM MnCl$_2$, pH 6.5, 23 $^{\circ}$C. pNPP concentrations were 1,

2.5, 5, 7.5, 10, and 12.5 mM. PIm concentrations were 1, 5, and 10 mM. Reactions were

monitored at 405 nm.

N-phPAM assays were conducted in quartz cuvettes monitored at 293 nm, [PP1]

= 375 nM, 50 mM Tris, 50 mM Bis-Tris, 100 mM acetate, 0.05 mM MnCl$_2$, pH 6.5, 23

$^{\circ}$C. N-phPAM concentrations were 1 mM, using a 1 cm quartz cell with a reaction

volume of 1300 μL, and 4, 8, 12, and 14 mM using 0.1 cm quartz cells with a reaction

volume of 330 μL.

PIm assays were conducted in 500 µL Eppendorf tubes, [PP1] = 400 nM, 50 mM Tris, 50 mM Bis-Tris, 100 mM acetate, 0.05 mM $MnCl_2$, pH 6.5, 23 °C. Concentration of PIm was 1 mM. Reaction progress was analyzed by NMR.

2.5.7 AP

*p*NPP assays were conducted in a 96 well microplate monitored at 405 nm, 330 µL total volume per well, [AP] = 5 nM, µ 100 mM, 75 mM MOPS at pH 8.0, 23 °C. *p*NPP concentrations were 1, 10, 50, 100, 200, 300, 400, and 500 µM.

N-phPAM assays were conducted in quartz cuvettes monitored at 295 nm, [AP] = 1 µM, µ 200 mM, 150 mM MOPS, pH 8.0, 23 °C. *N*-phPAM concentrations were 0.75 and 1 mM, using a 1 cm quartz cell with a reaction volume of 1300 µL, and 2.5, 5, 7.5, 10, and 15 mM, using a 1 cm quartz cell with a reaction volume of 1300 µL.

PIm assays were conducted using a NMR tube with coaxial insert holding the external standard pyrazine, [AP] = 500 nM, IS 200 mM, 150 mM MOPS, pH 8.0, 23 °C. PIm concentration was 15 mM with a total reaction volume of 550 µL. ^{1}H NMR δ 7.9 followed during time course. Integration was against pyrazine, δ 8.5.

2.6 Titration of *N*-phPAM

The pK_a of *N*-phPAM was determined by ^{31}P NMR titration.[110] A coaxial tube with methylphosphonic acid in D_2O was used as an internal chemical shift standard. *N*-phPAM was dissolved in buffer (50mM Tris, 50 mM Bis-Tris, 100 mM acetate) and brought to pH 9.2. The pH of the buffered solution was lowered stepwise using 0.1 M HCl. ^{31}P NMR chemical shifts were obtained as a function of pH, and the data least squares fitted against equation 2.6.

$$\delta = \delta_p + \frac{\delta u - \delta p}{1 + 10^{(pKa - pH)}} \qquad (2.6)$$

where δ is the observed ^{31}P shift in ppm, and δ_p and δ_u are the chemical shifts of the fully

protonated and un-protonated states. A plot of the data and the resulting fit is shown in

Figure 2-15. The fit yielded $pK_a = 7.05 \pm 0.02$.

^{31}P NMR Titration of NphPAM

	Value	Error
m1	7.0519	0.023667
R	0.99925	NA

δ (ppm) vs pH
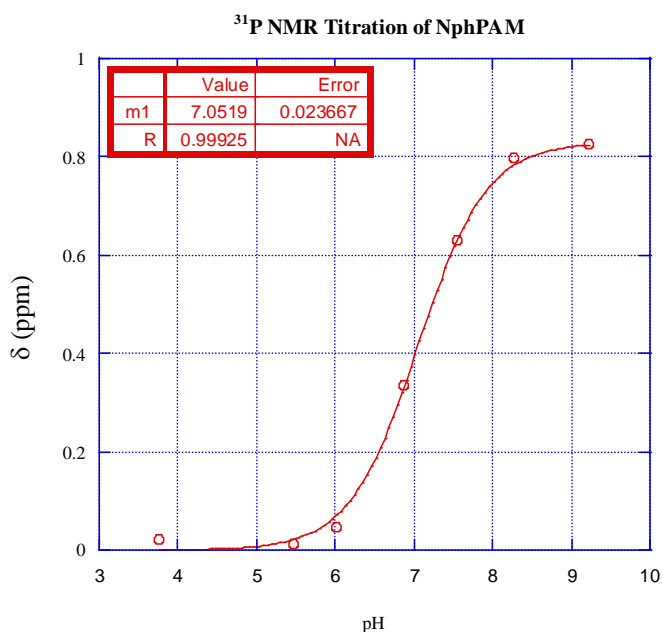
Figure 2-15. Titration curve showing ^{31}P shift (ppm) of *N*-phPAM as a function of pH.

2.7 Computer Modeling of Substrates into Active Sites

Additional evidence to validate the results of the kinetic experiments herein was

attempted using computer modeling. Generally, computer models were used to assess

differences in the initially bound orientations of *p*NPP versus PIm for each of the

enzymes. Comparisons could be made between the known rate limiting step of catalysis,

k_{cat} values, and the computer generated binding modes.

Kinetic experiments with λPP and PP1 showed significantly different results with the substrates pNPP versus PIm. The geometric and charge differences between these substrates are also significant, and computer modeling presented another possibility to determine if these differences may be the cause for the kinetic results.

Protein Data Bank crystallographic files 2OZW (PHPT1 with phosphate bound), 2I42 (YopH with vanadate bound), 1VHR (VHR with sulfate bound in one structure and 4-(2-hydroxyethyl)-1-piperazine ethanesulfonic acid bound in another), 1ND6 (PAcP with phosphate bound), 1ED8 (AP with phosphate bound), 1G5B (λPP with sulfate bound), and 1IT6 (PP1γ with phosphocalyculin A bound) were used for computer modeling. The files were loaded into Acclerys Design Studio Viewer Pro, version 5.0.

For each enzyme, PIm and pNPP were placed in the active site using the bound tetrahedral compound shown in the crystal structure as the basis for substrate orientation. Where multiple possibilities for the bridging atom were possible, all options were tried. Once the substrates were emplaced, energy was minimized using the Dreiding model.[135-137] Such minimization was attempted in two manners: with just the active site and with the entire enzyme. Minimization operations were conducted using 200 to 4000 iterations.

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

3.1 Overall Experimental Results

Kinetic data were collected for hydrolysis of the substrates pNPP, N-phPAM, and PIm for six of seven enzymes assayed (Table 3-1). For each enzyme, kinetic results will be discussed along with the results of computer modeled fitting of the substrates.

Table 3-1. The k_{cat}, K_M, and k_{cat}/K_M values for enzymatic substrate hydrolysis.

		k_{cat} (s⁻¹)	K_M (mM)	k_{cat}/K_M x 10^{-3} * (M⁻¹s⁻¹)
pH 5.5				
Enzyme	Substrate			
PHPT1	pNPP	0.00407 ±0.00007	2.7 ±0.2	0.0015
	N-phPAM	0.26 ±0.06	5 ±3	0.05
	PIm	2.70 ±0.04	0.13 ±0.02	21
YopH	pNPP	610 ±30	3.1 ±0.4	200
	N-phPAM	530 ±70	4 ±2	100
	PIm	34 ±2	4.9 ±0.5	7
VHR	pNPP	5.9 ±0.2	2.0 ±0.2	3.0
	N-phPAM	5.8 ±0.6	0.8 ±0.2	7
	PIm	7.8 ±0.6	0.58 ±0.09	13
PAcP	pNPP	2.13 ±0.02	0.23 ±0.04	9.3
	N-phPAM	2.5 ±0.1	0.07 ±0.01	40
	PIm	6.0 ±0.4	1.01 ±0.09	5.9
pH 8.0				
PHPT1	pNPP	0.0106 ±0.0004	6.3 ±0.6	0.0017
	N-phPAM	2.6 ±0.1	10 ±1	0.26
	PIm	2.31 ±0.05	0.10 ±0.02	23
AP	pNPP	27.3 ±0.8	0.0070 ±0.0008	3900
	N-phPAM	1.30 ±0.09	0.0021 ±0.0002	620
	PIm	18 ±2	0.0020 ±0.0003	9000
pH 7.8				
λPP	pNPP[138]	390 ±10	11 ±1	35
	N-phPAM	Not detected		
	PIm	Not determined		
pH 6.5				
PP1γ	N-phPAM	Not detected		
	PIm	Not detected		

*Values in the column k_{cat}/K_M were multiplied by 10^{-3} for ease of display. Thus, the first value of 0.0015 M⁻¹s⁻¹ for PHPT1 is actually 1.5 M⁻¹s⁻¹.

The pH optima for the enzymes were reviewed in section **1.2** and are shown in Table 3-2. Enzymatic assays in this research were conducted at or near the pH optimum.

Table 3-2. Literature values for the pH optimum for catalysis of the substrate shown by the enzymes used in this study.

Enzyme	pH Optimum	Substrate
PHPT1[20]	8.0	*p*NPP
YopH[26]	5.0~5.5	*p*NPP
VHR[44]	5.5~6.0	*p*NPP
PAcP[47,48,51]	3~5.5	*p*NPP
AP[78]	8.0~8.5	*N*-naphthyl-phosphoramidate
AP[78]	9.0~9.5	*p*NPP
λPP[56]	7.8	*p*NPP
PP1γ[63]	6.5	*p*NPP

For YopH, VHR, PAcP, and λPP the shape of the pH rate profile is affected by the ionization states of active site residues. The pH rate profiles for PAcP and AP are affected by the ionization state of the substrate. Comparing the substrates used in this study, the ionization states may be different or similar depending upon the pH (Figure 3-1).

pH 5.5,
% A^{2-}
= 77.6%

pH 8.0,
% A^{2-}
= 99.9%

pH 5.5,
% A$^-$
= 97.2%

pH 8.0,
% A^{2-}
= 90.1%

pH 5.5,
% A$^-$
= 95.2%

pH 8.0,
% A^{2-}
= 94.1%
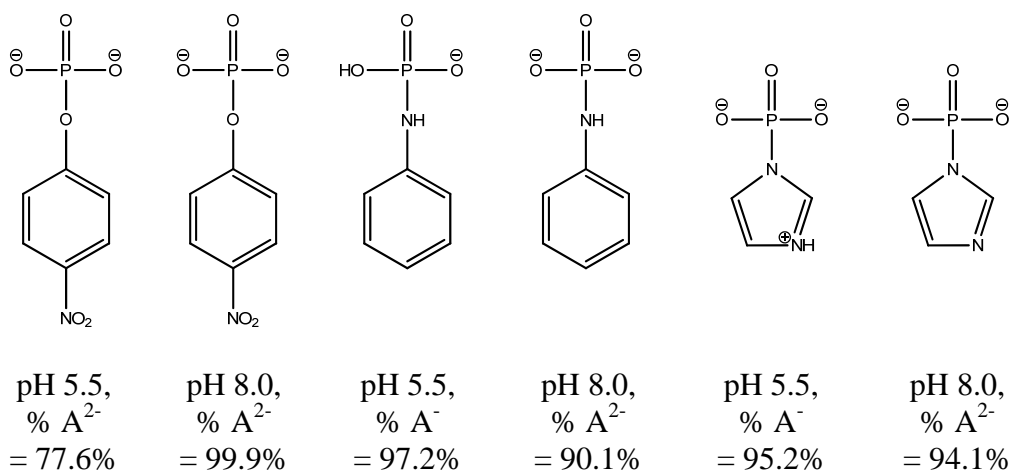
Figure 3-1. Predominant protonation states of the substrates at the experimental pH. A$^-$ is the monoanion; A^{2-} is the dianion.

3.2 Results by Enzyme

3.2.1 PHTP1

The substrate PIm exhibited the greatest k_{cat}, lowest K_M, and greatest catalytic efficiency (k_{cat}/K_M). The lowest k_{cat} and highest K_M with this enzyme were observed with pNPP, while N-phPAM exhibited intermediate values. Kinetic values for PIm were remarkably similar at both pH 8.0 and pH 5.5. The enzyme preparation for this project had k_{cat} and k_{cat}/K_M values with pNPP that were about an order of magnitude lower than reported; literature values were k_{cat} (0.35 s^{-1}) and k_{cat}/K_M (47 M^{-1}s^{-1}).[20] Two enzyme preparations were made with the same result. No explanation is provided for this discrepancy.

Computer modeling found P_i, PIm, and pNPP bind in the active site in the same orientation, but with different hydrogen bonding and electrostatic interaction distances (Figures 3-2 through 3-4). This result is consistent with the enzyme hydrolyzing both PIm and pNPP; both substrates can bind, completing the first step in catalysis. PHPT1's binding motif was reviewed in section **1.2.1**.

3.2.2 YopH

Catalysis of phosphomonoesters by YopH is one of the fastest displayed by phosphatases.[35] This project is the first to examine YopH's ability to hydrolyze phosphoramidates. In this study, YopH showed the highest k_{cat} with pNPP and the lowest k_{cat} with PIm. It also showed a lower second order rate constant with PIm than with pNPP.

Figure 3-2. Phosphate bound in the active site of PHPT1. Distances are in Å and are taken directly from crystal structure without modification (PDB 2OZW).

Figure 3-3. *p*NPP bound in the active site of PHPT1 as modeled in Acclerys.

Figure 3-4. PIm bound in the active site of PHPT1 as modeled in Acclerys.

Differences in k_{cat} between *p*NPP and PIm were not only large, but the values for *p*NPP and *N*-phPAM were the highest displayed by any of the enzymes assayed in this study. In contrast, values for K_M were of equal order of magnitude. Thus, variation in the second order rate constants was driven predominantly by differences in k_{cat}. YopH's second order rate constants varied in the order *p*NPP>*N*-phPAM>PIm.

Computer modeling found P_i, PIm, and *p*NPP fit in the active site in the same orientation, but with different hydrogen bonding distances (Figures 3-5 through 3-9). This result is consistent with the observed ability of the enzyme to hydrolyze both PIm and *p*NPP. YopH's binding motif was reviewed in section **1.2.2**.

The computer models indicate a 1.94 Å distance between PIm's phosphorus and the nucleophilic cystein's sulfur (Figure 3-7). Since this distance is likely too short to represent the position of the substrate and nucleophile prior to catalysis, amino acids Asn353 through Ala359 were removed from the computer model and the distances

recalculated for both PIm and *p*NPP (Figures 3-8 and 3-9). Removal of the sequences

eliminated the flexible WPD loop and any clashes between the loop and substrate. A

phosphorus-sulfur distance of 3.59 Å was found for PIm.
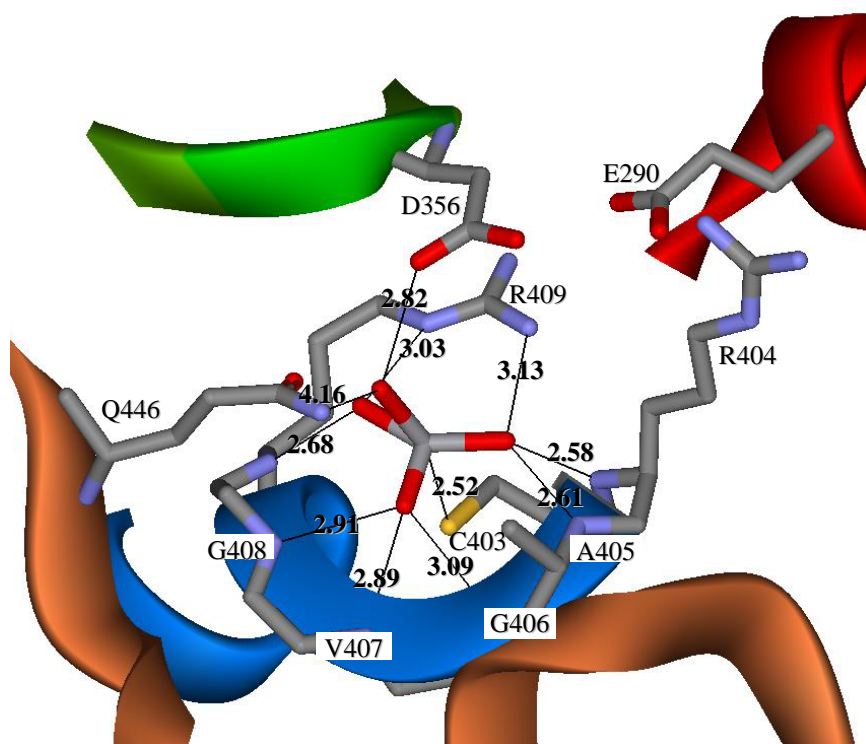
Figure 3-5. Vanadate bound in the active site of YopH. Distances are taken directly

from crystal structure without modification (PDB 2I42).

3.2.3 VHR.

VHR's k_{cat} values for the three substrates were of the same order of magnitude. In

comparison to the other PTP used in this study, YopH, VHR's k_{cat} values for *p*NPP and

N-phPAM were lower by two orders of magnitude, and for PIm was lower by one order

of magnitude. While K_M for *p*NPP was similar between the enzymes, VHR's K_M values

with the phosphoramidates were an order of magnitude lower than for YopH. VHR's
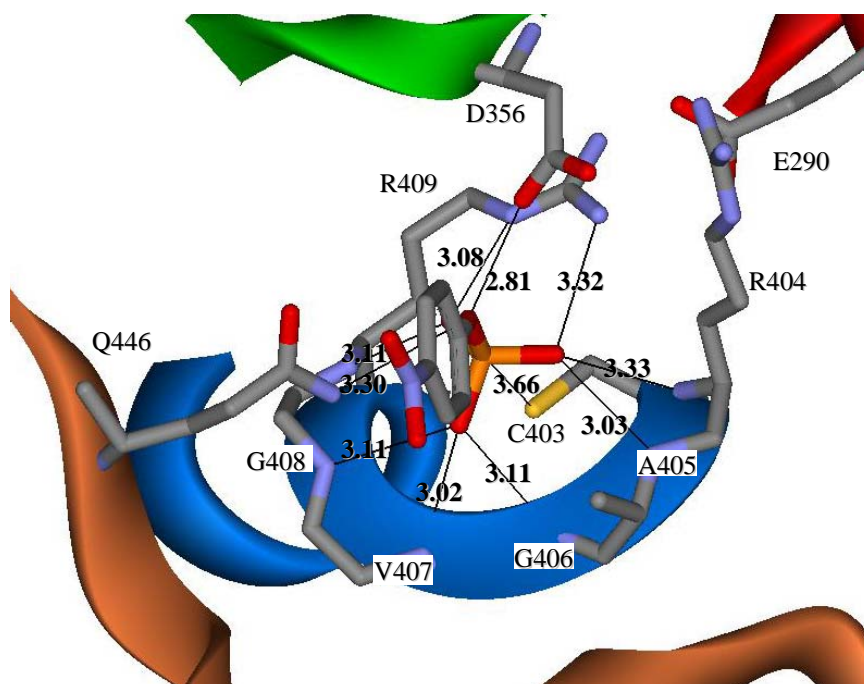
Figure 3-6. *p*NPP bound in the active site of YopH as modeled in Acclerys.
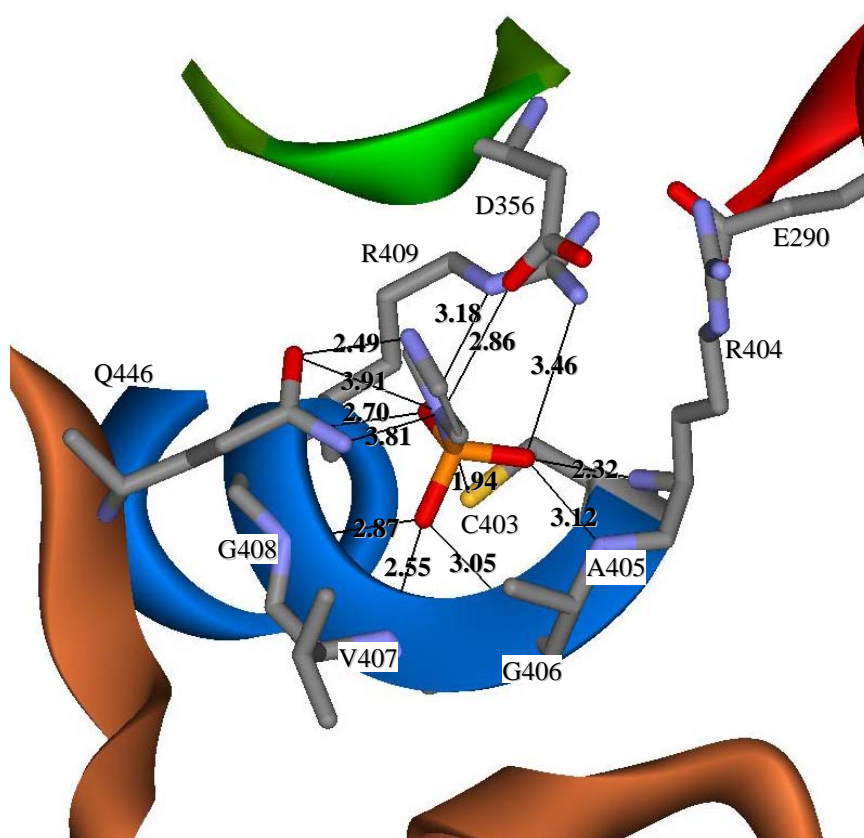
Figure 3-7. PIm bound in the active site of YopH as modeled in Acclerys.
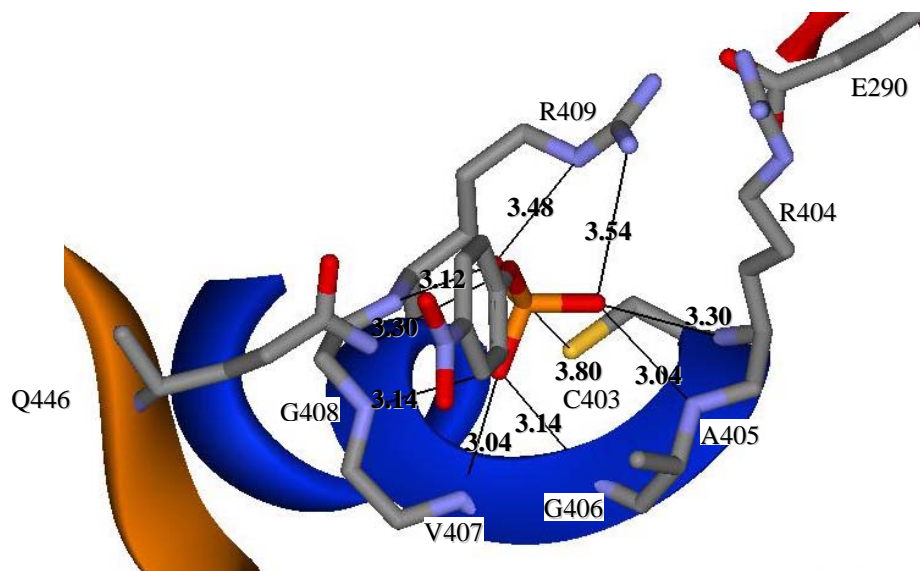
Figure 3-8. *p*NPP bound in the active site of YopH with the WPD loop removed as modeled in Acclerys.
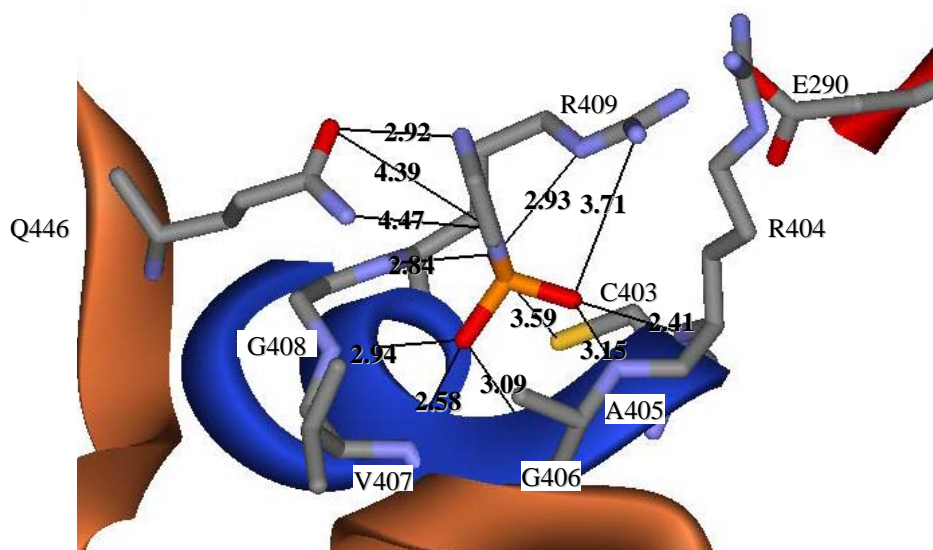
Figure 3-9. PIm bound in the active site of YopH with the WPD loop removed as modeled in Acclerys.

second order rate constants had the order PIm>*N*-phPAM>*p*NPP; this relative efficiency was driven both by differing k_{cat} and K_M values.

Computer modeling found sulfate, PIm and *p*NPP fit in the active site in the same orientation (Figures 3-10 through 3-12). The distance between the substrate's oxyanion and the amide hydrogen of E126 changes from 3.13 in sulfate to 2.46 with *p*NPP and 2.09 with PIm. This change is consistent with the lower K_Ms of the phosphoramidates in comparison to *p*NPP. VHR's binding motif was reviewed in section **1.2.3**.
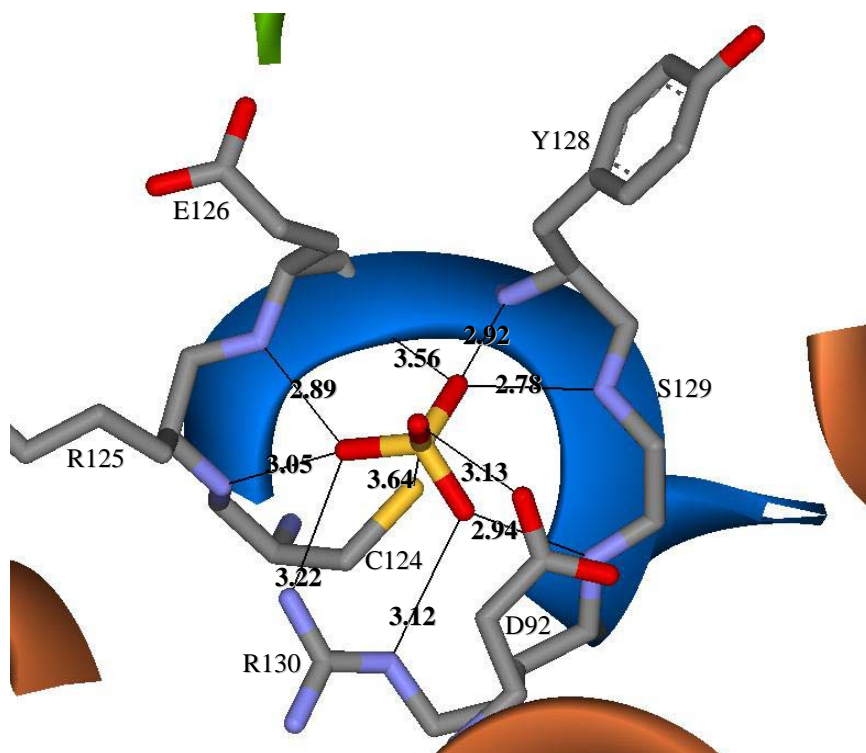
Figure 3-10. Sulfate bound in the active site of VHR. Distances are taken directly from crystal structure without modification (PDB 1VHR).

3.2.4 PAcP.

The non-specific histidine acid phosphatase PAcP displayed the same order of magnitude for k_{cat} with the three substrates. The second order rate constants for *p*NPP and PIm were of the same order of magnitude, while *N*-phPAM had the highest rate
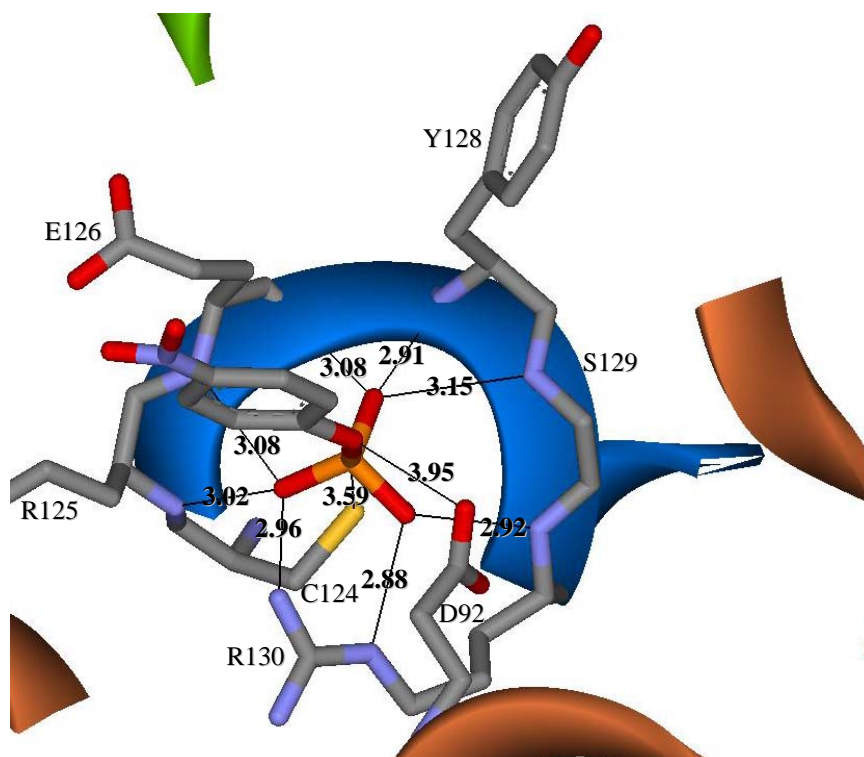
Figure 3-11. *p*NPP bound in the active site of VHR as modeled in Acclerys.
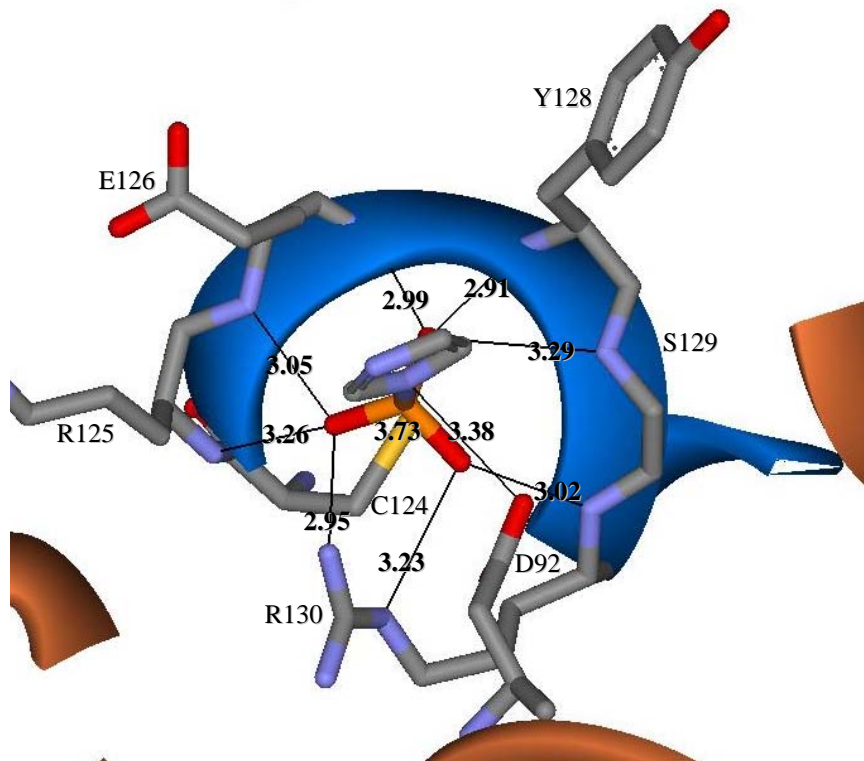
Figure 3-12. PIm bound in the active site of VHR as modeled in Acclerys.

constant of the three substrates. Differences in the rate constant were driven

predominantly by differences in K_M. Relative K_M values were PIm>pNPP>N-phPAM,

while k_{cat}/K_M values were N-phPAM>pNPP>PIm.

Computer modeling found P_i, PIm and pNPP fit in the active site in the same

orientation, but with different hydrogen bond distances (Figures 3-13 through 3-15). This

result is consistent with the enzyme hydrolyzing both PIm and pNPP; both substrates can

bind, completing the first step in catalysis. PAcP's binding motif was reviewed in section

1.2.4.
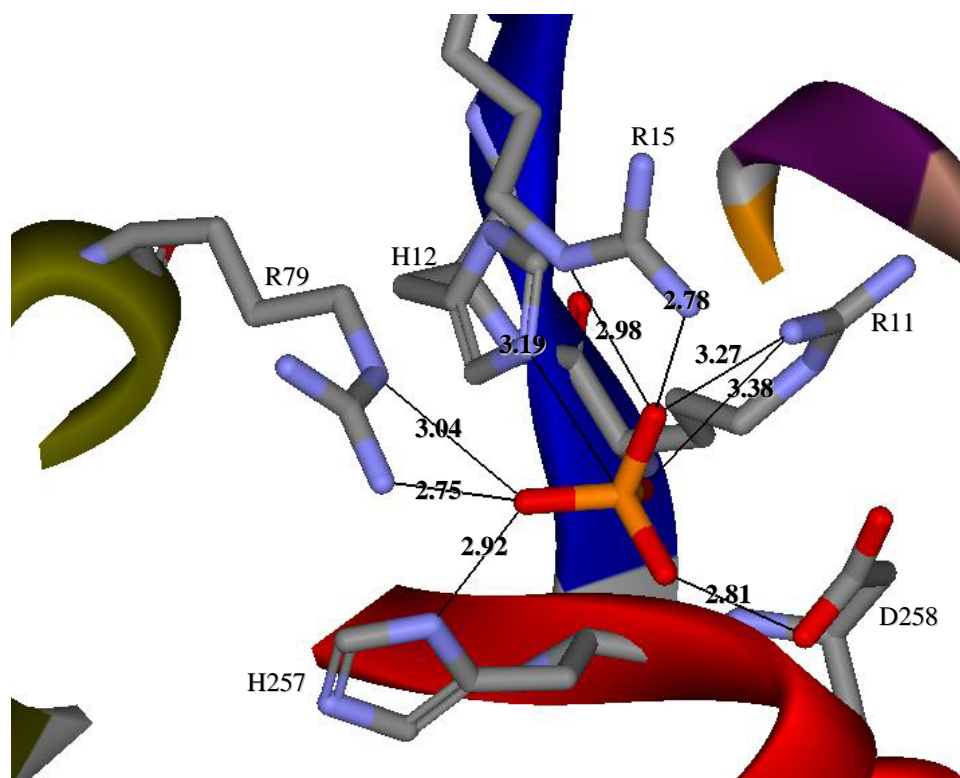
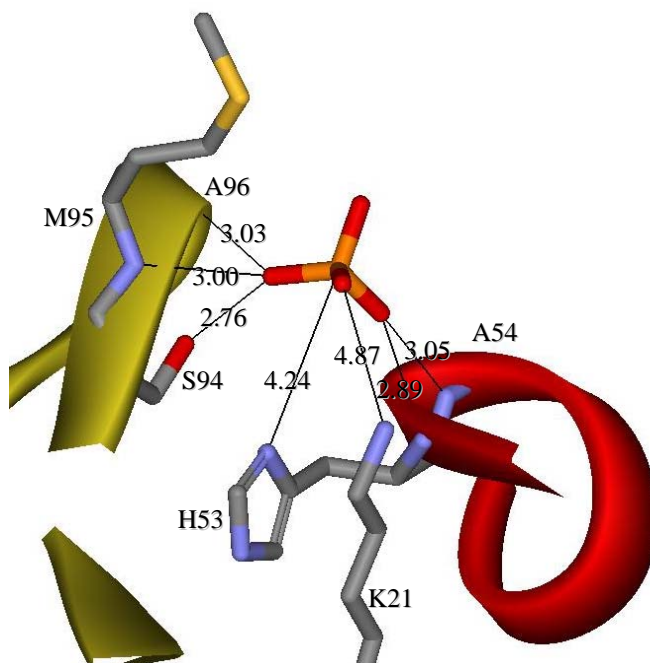**Figure 3-13.** Phosphate bound in the active site of PAcP. Distances are taken directly

from crystal structure without modification (PDB 1ND6).
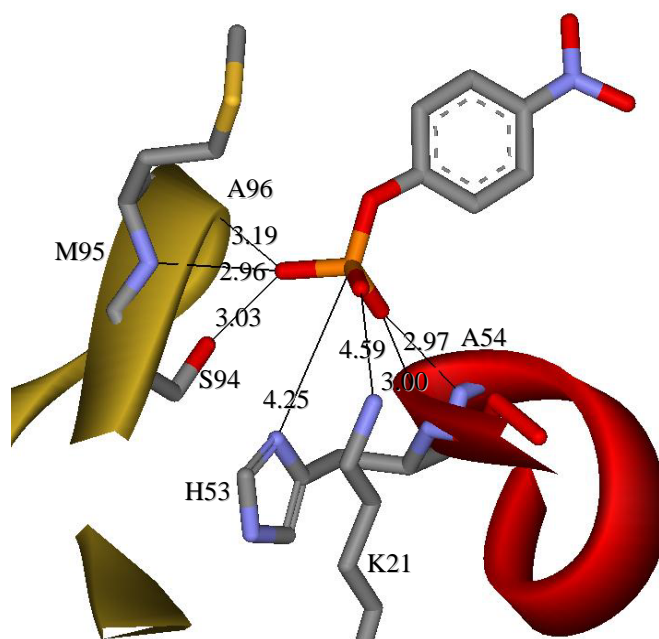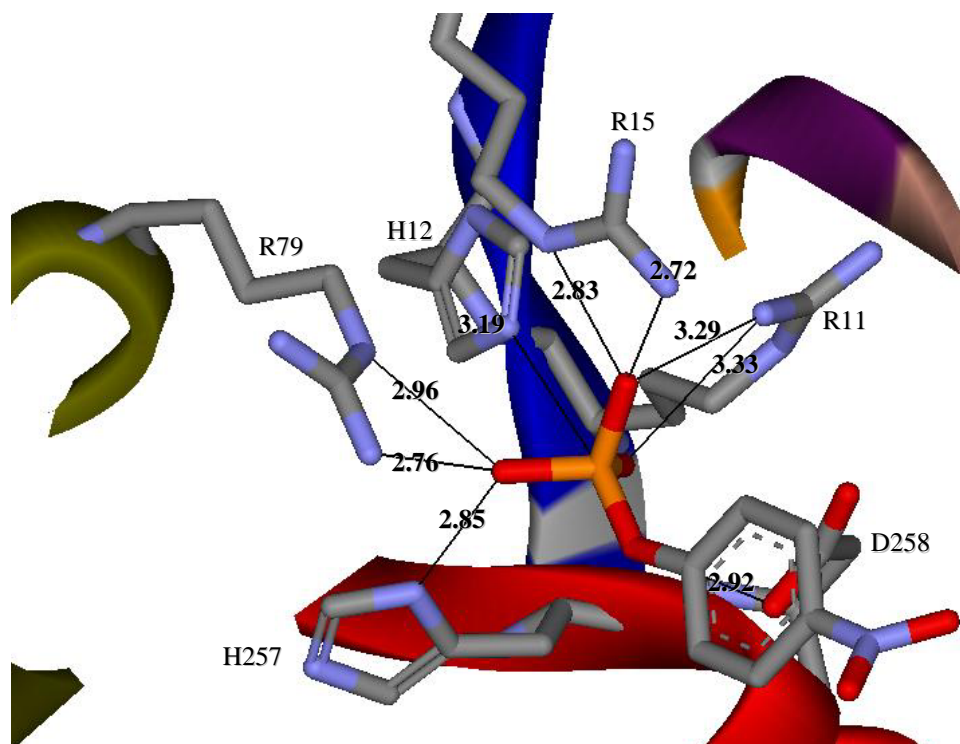
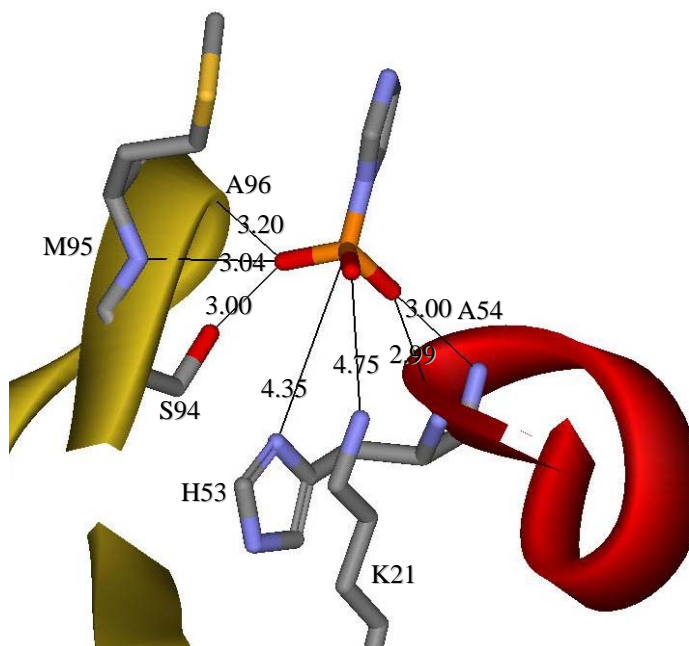**Figure 3-14.** *p*NPP bound in the active site of PAcP as modeled in Acclerys.
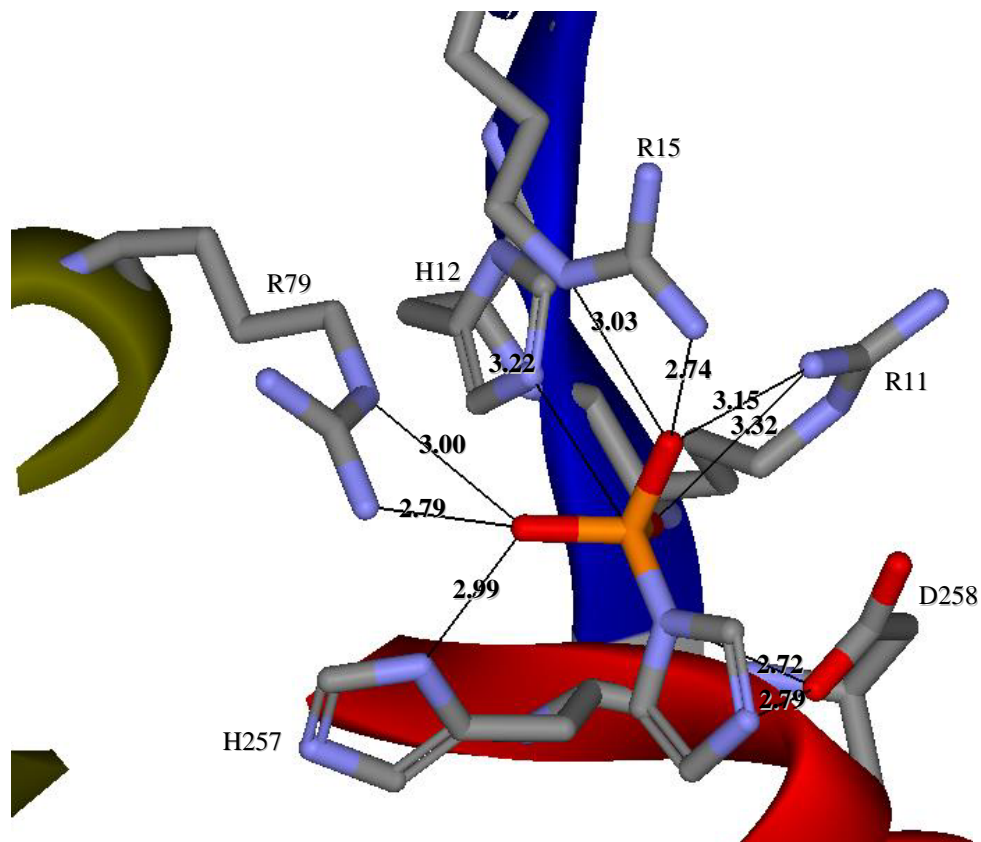
Figure 3-15. PIm bound in the active site of PAcP as modeled in Acclerys.

3.2.5 λPP and PP1

The two dual-specificity metallophosphatases, λPP and PP1γ, were examined. λPP was able to catalyze the hydrolysis of PIm, whereas PP1 was not. Neither enzyme showed detectable hydrolysis of *N*-phPAM. *N*-phPAM's hydrolysis at pH 5.5 is sufficiently rapid that if the enzymes effected slow catalysis it was undetectable from the background.

During the reaction of λPP with PIm the reaction was found to proceed to 25% hydrolysis of initial starting concentration and proceed no further. This prevented obtaining a full time course for NMR analysis. Therefore, k_{cat} and K_M values could not be obtained. That the reaction would proceed no further was likely due to product inhibition.

An HPLC assay was developed to detect the imidazole product as described section **2.5.5**. The sensitivity was not sufficient to obtain initial rate kinetics, but did permit an assessment of the relative rate of PIm hydrolysis compared to *p*NPP hydrolysis under the same conditions by λPP. After 20 minutes of reaction time, λPP hydrolyzed 75.2% of 1 mM *p*NPP as compared to 10.4% of 1 mM PIm.

In order to determine whether the unusual behavior with PIm was due to improper binding, the mode of inhibition by PIm of *p*NPP hydrolysis was examined. Inhibition data were fitted to an inverse reciprocal plot.[139] Competitive inhibition was found with $K_i = 22 \pm 3$ mM (Figure 3-16). This result means that PIm binds to the same form of the enzyme at the same site as *p*NPP, although with reduced affinity.
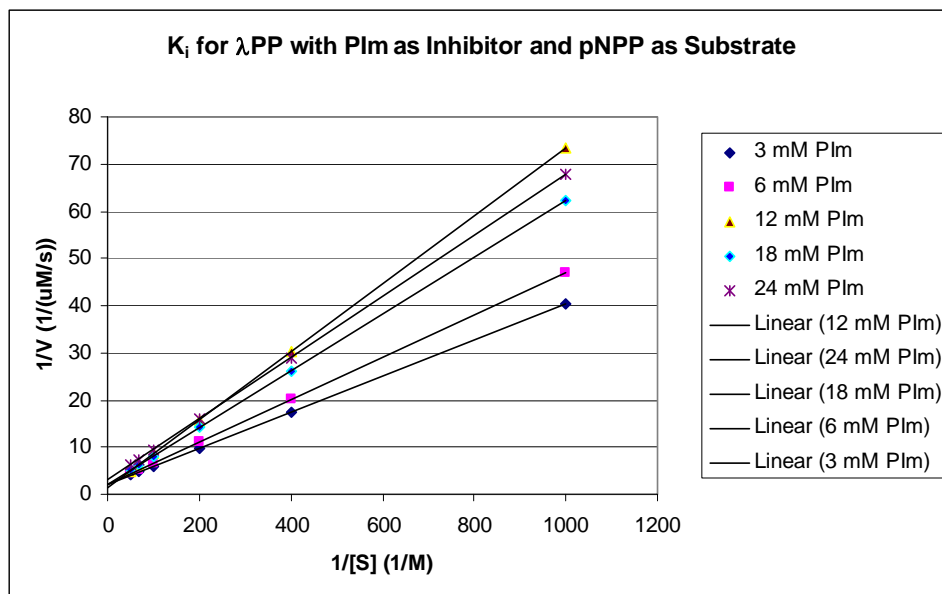
Figure 3-16. Double reciprocal plot to determine the mode of inhibition and the K_i of PIm with *p*NPP as substrate for λPP, 30 ^{o}C, pH 7.8.

Additional tests were completed to determine if the enzyme maintained activity over the time course. Loss of activity was not detected up to four hours after frozen enzyme was prepared for kinetic assays. Another test was conducted wherein enzyme that had hydrolyzed PIm to 25%, [λPP] = 100 nM, was then used to hydrolyze *p*NPP, [λPP] = 1 nM; the enzyme displayed full activity with *p*NPP. This verifies that the loss of hydrolysis of PIm after 25% of hydrolysis was not due to loss of enzymatic activity.

λPP's binding motif was reviewed in section **1.2.5**. Computer modeling of the substrates with λPP found sulfate, *p*NPP, and PIm bound in different orientations. This difference was found regardless of the initial coordination mode of the sulfate in the crystal structure, see section **1.2.5**.

Using sulfate bound in coordination mode B as an example (Figures 3-17 through 3-22) illustrates the differences in binding between pNPP and PIm. In attaining the lowest energy enzyme-substrate conformation, the computer placed water differently between the modeled pNPP bound structure and the modeled PIm bound structure. Further, the general orientation between pNPP and PIm was different (Figures 3-18 and 3-19).

Distances between active site residues, the metals, and the substrates are shown (Figures 3-20 through 3-22). The active site metals are crucial for catalytic function, so the metal to metal and phosphoryl group to metal distances were examined.

Metal to metal distance with pNPP in the active site was modeled at 4.13 Å in pNPP as compared to 4.57 Å with PIm. A single oxyanion of pNPP coordinated to just one of the metals, the distance being 3.05 Å. A water molecule was interposed between the other metal and the same oxyanion. A single oxyanion of PIm coordinated to both metals, the distances being 4.17 Å and 4.78 Å. It is apparent that the computer models show a significantly closer distance between pNPP and the metals than PIm.

Computer modeling with PP1 provided similar results as with λPP. Placement of water in the active site was different between the crystal structure with phosphate, the model with pNPP, and the model with PIm (Figure 3-23 through 3-25). Further, pNPP was closer to the metals than PIm.

3.2.6 AP.

AP hydrolyzes both PIm and N-phPAM. Literature reports of kinetic constants for hydrolysis of pNPP by AP vary as a result of product inhibition by P_i (Table 3-6). The most accurate values are obtained when substrate concentrations are kept low as this
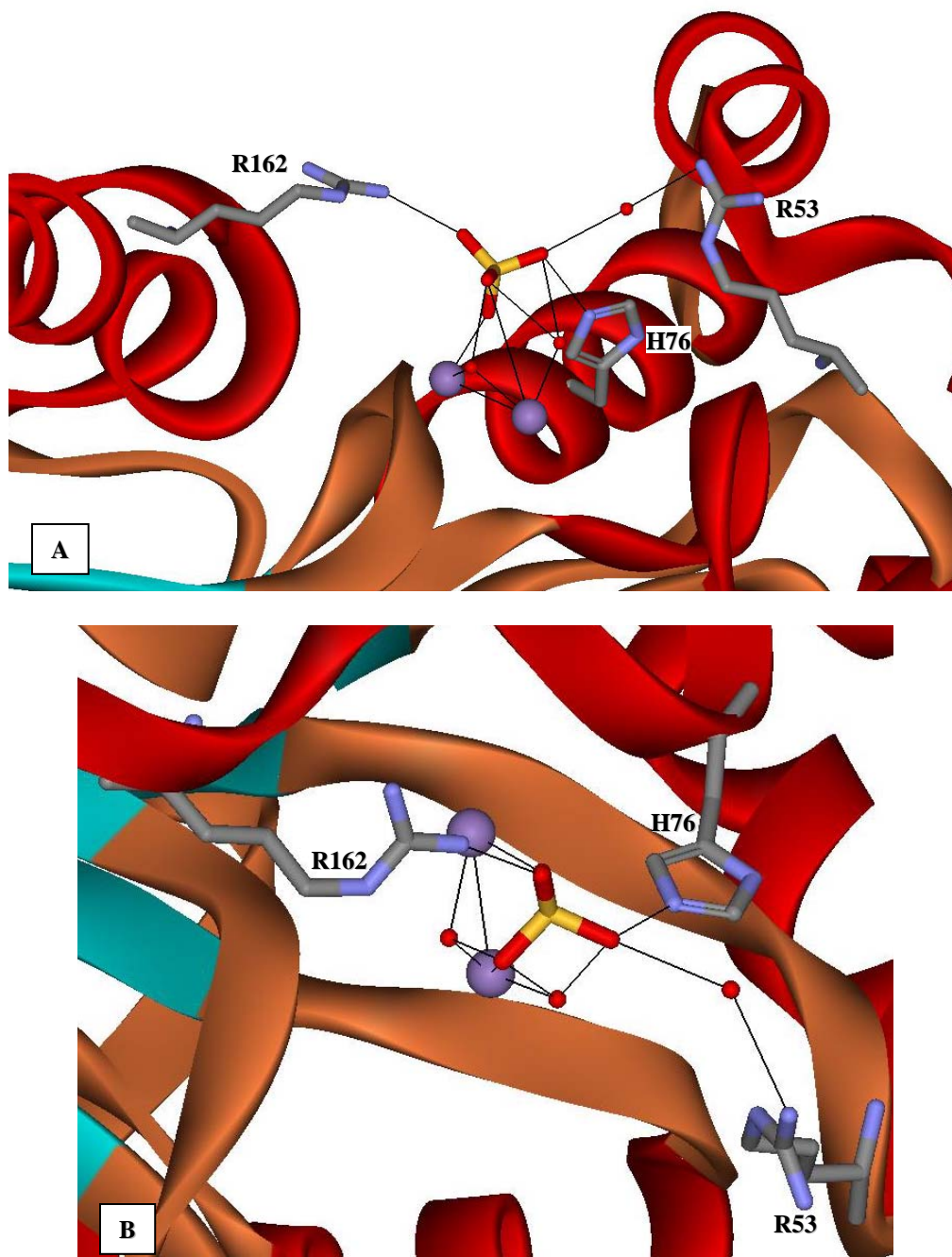
Figure 3-17. λPP with bound sulfate in coordination mode B, boxes A and B (PDB 1G5B).
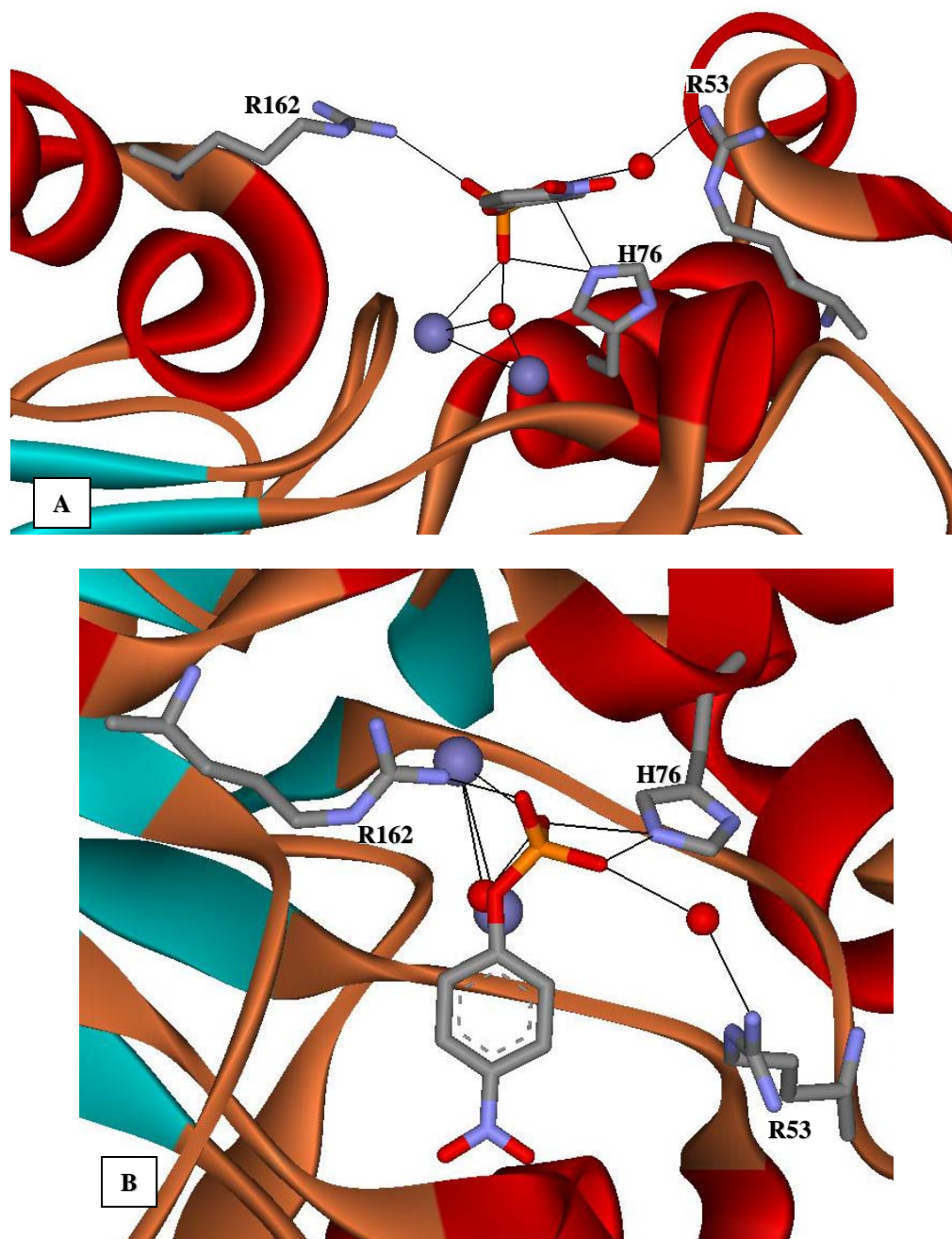
Figure 3-18. λPP with *p*NPP as modeled in Acclerys, boxes A and B.
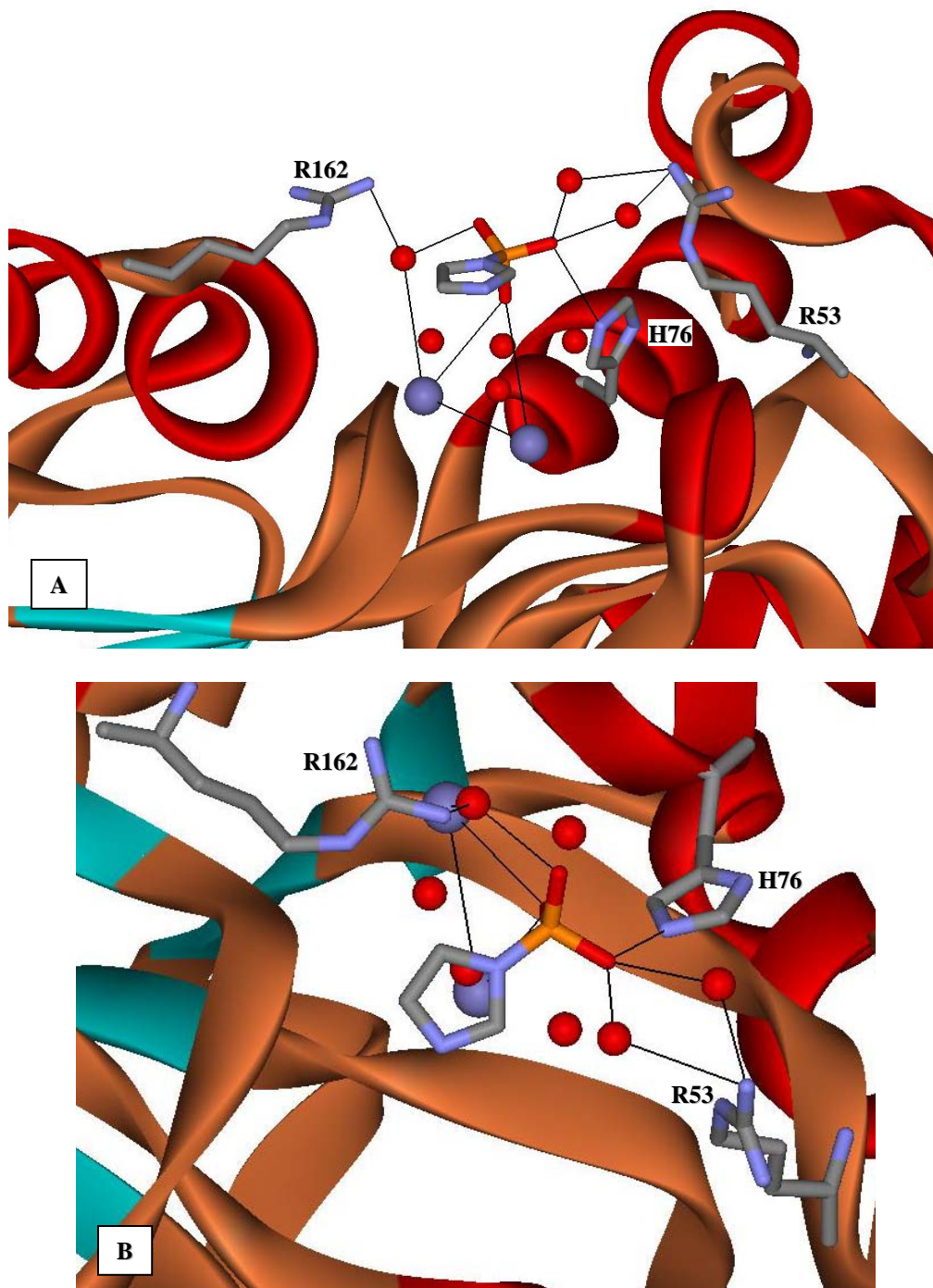
Figure 3-19. λPP with PIm as modeled in Acclerys, boxes A and B.
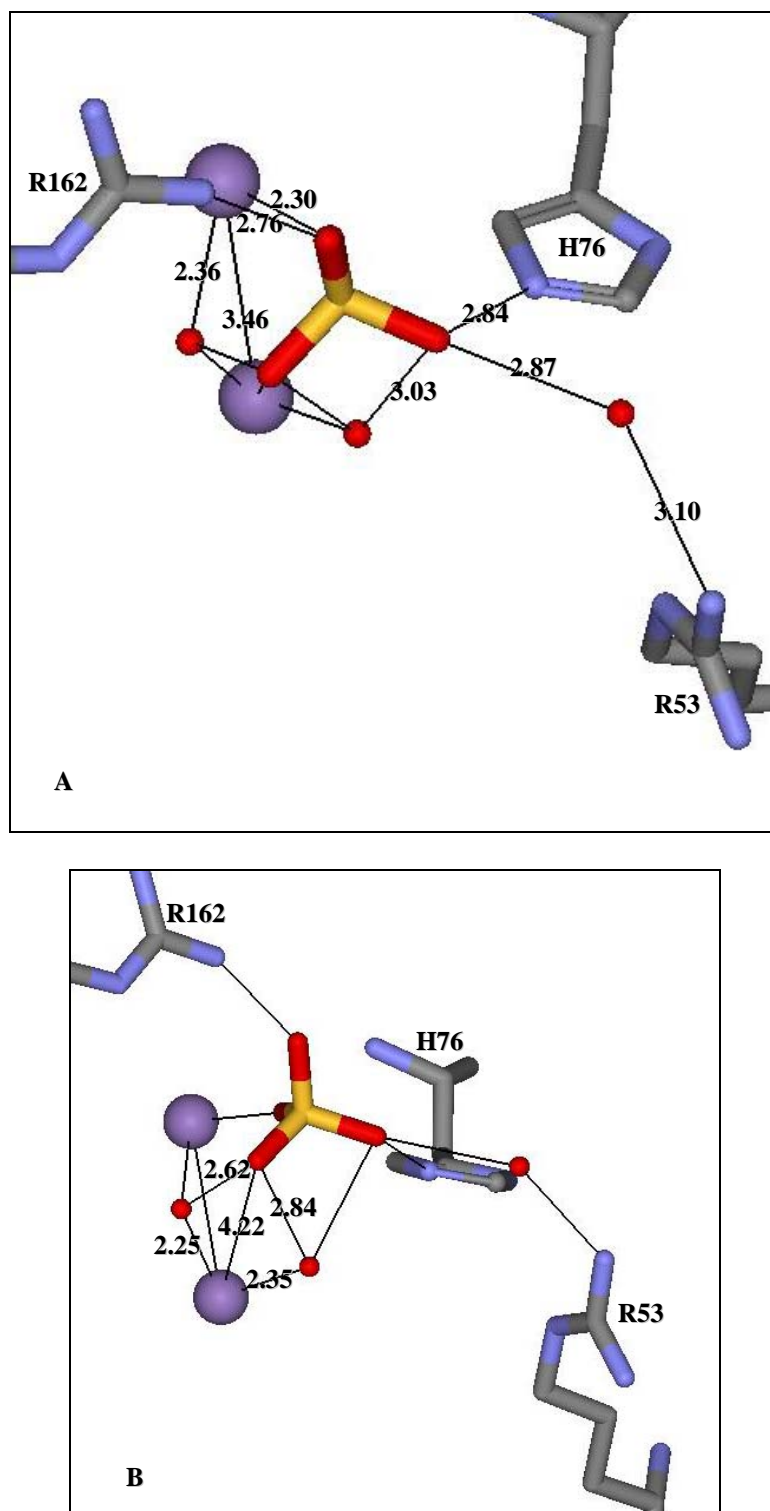
Figure 3-20. Sulfate bound in active site. A is the same view as in figure 3-15; B is rotated to view distances. Distances are taken directly from the crystal structure without modification.
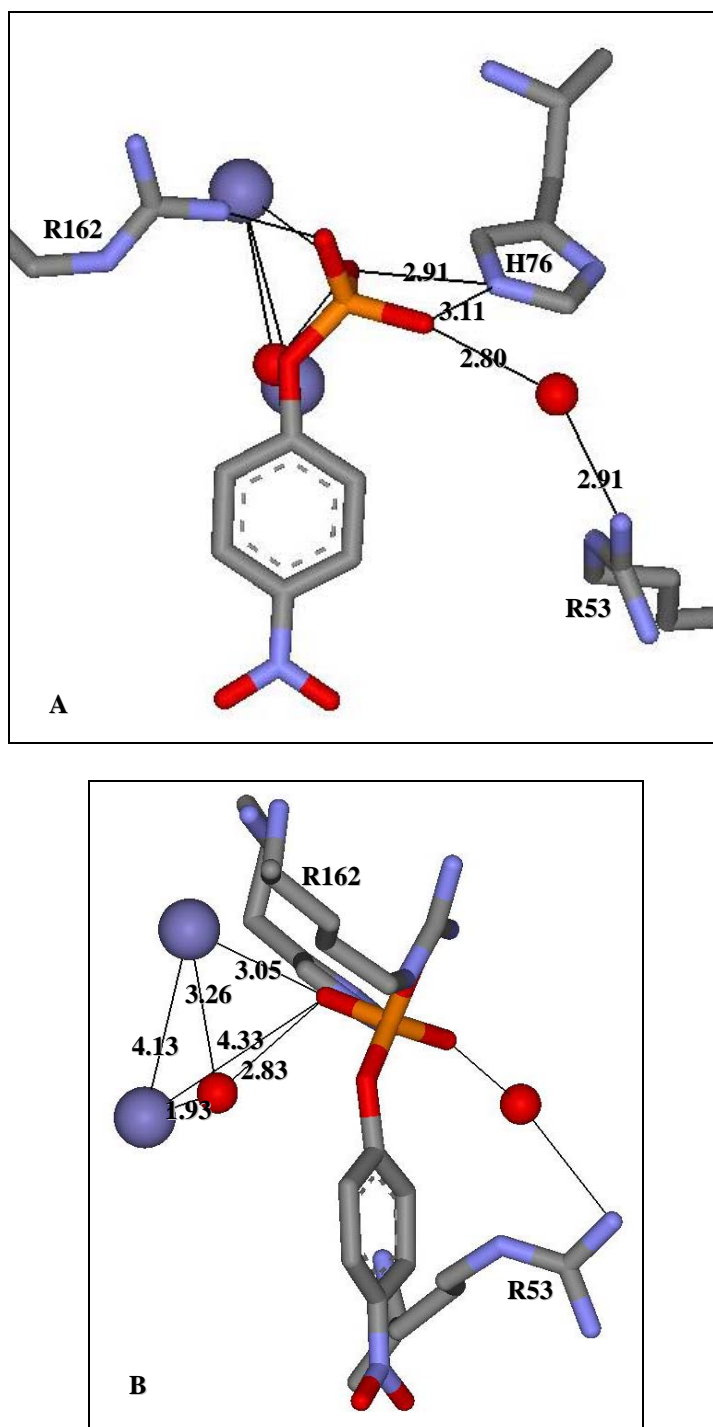
Figure 3-21. *p*NPP bound in active site of λPP as modeled in Acclerys. A is the same

view as in figure 3-16; B is rotated to view distances.
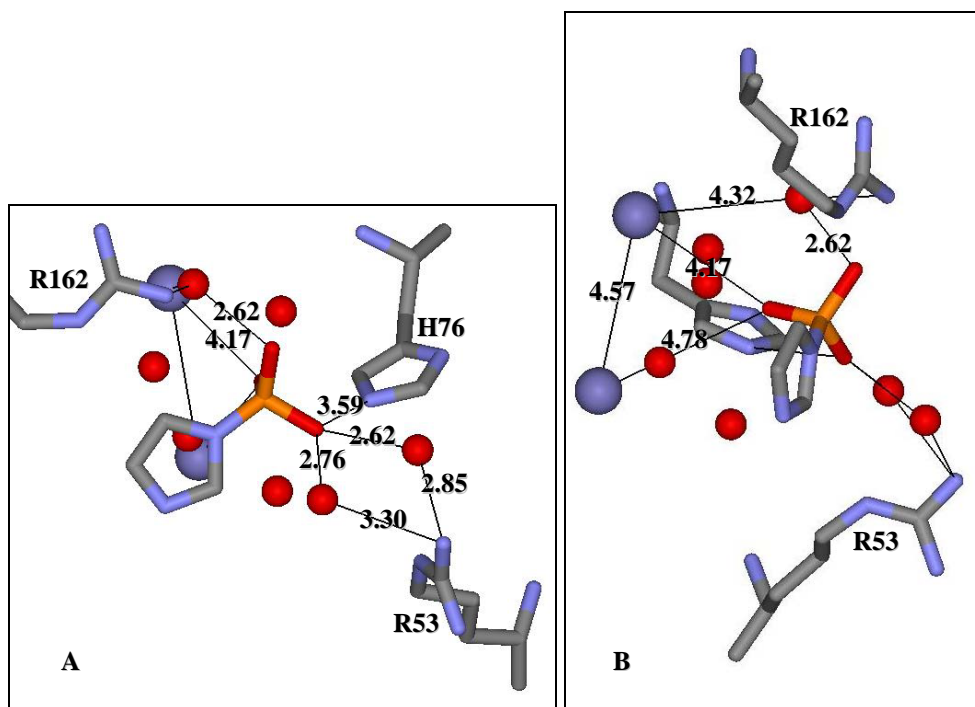
Figure 3-22. PIm bound in active site of λPP as modeled in Acclerys. A is the same

view as in figure 3-17; B is rotated to view distances.
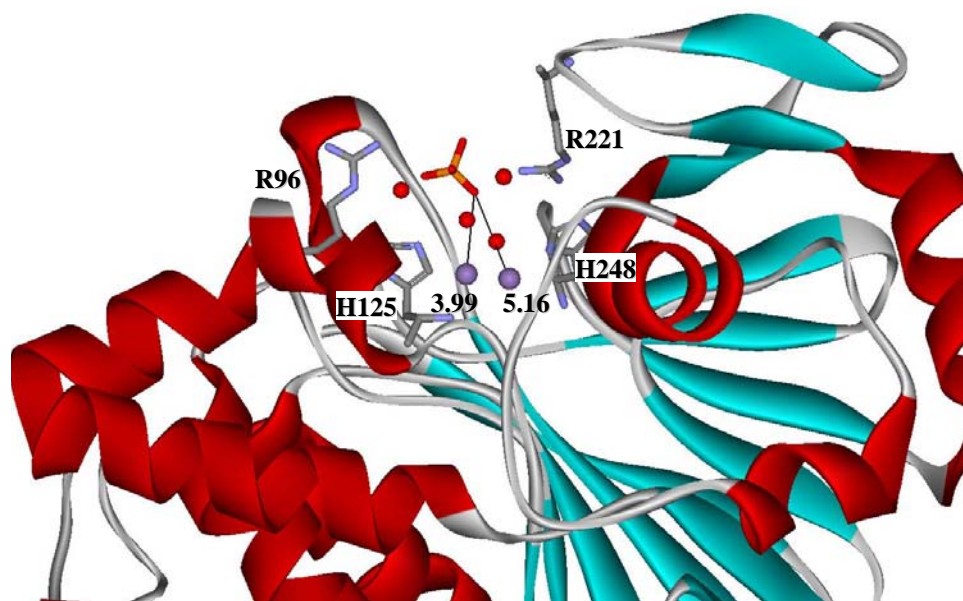
Figure 3-23. PP1 active site with phosphate.
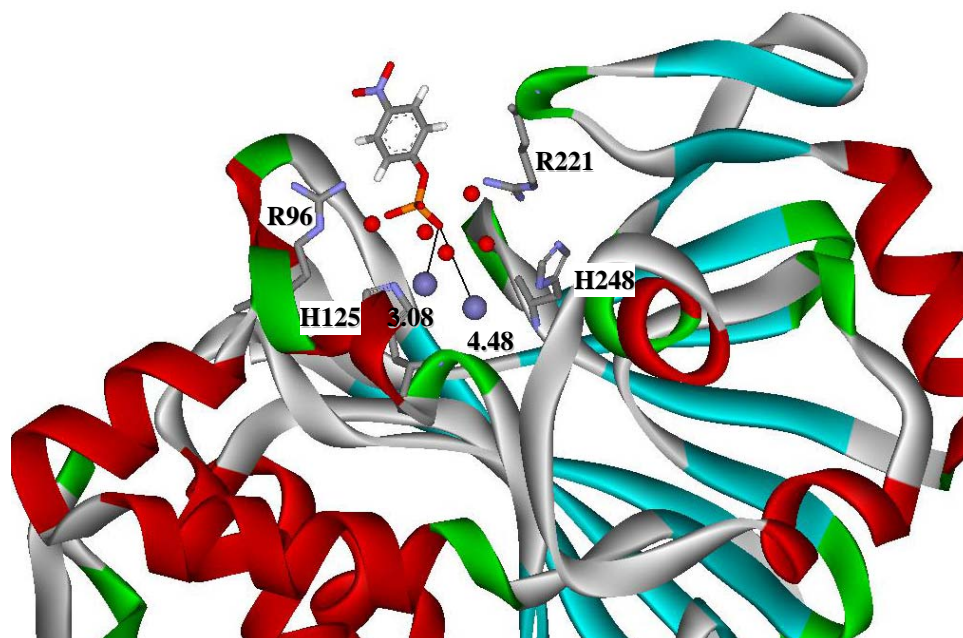
Figure 3-24. PP1 active site with *p*NPP as modeled in Acclerys.
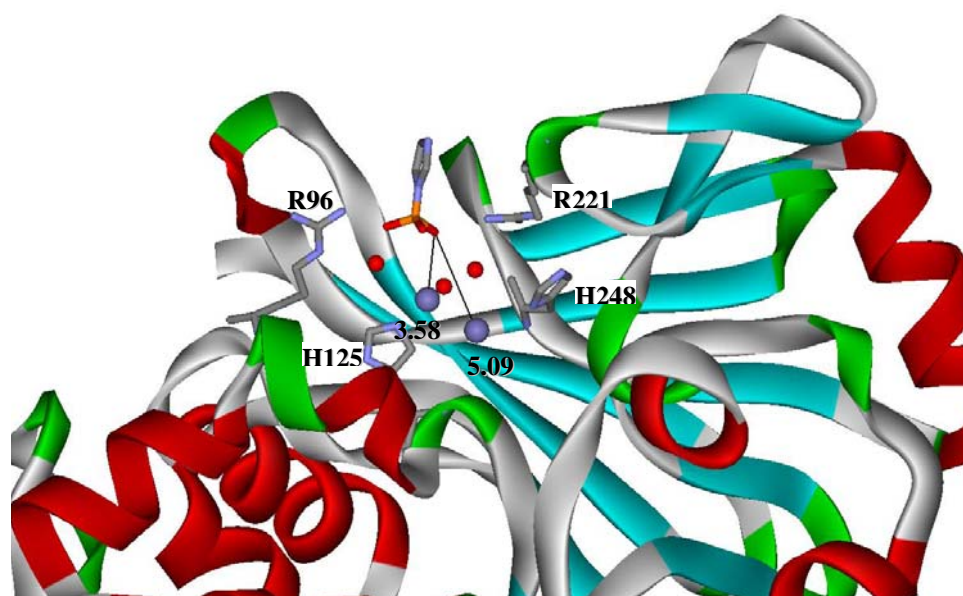
Figure 3-25. PP1 active site with PIm as modeled in Acclerys.

keeps generated P_i low; under such conditions micromolar K_M values have been reported.

In this study k_{cat} and K_M values for *p*NPP and PIm comparable to those reported in the

literature for *p*NPP at low substrate conditions. *N*-phPAM was a slower substrate than

either pNPP or PIm. Nonetheless, among all of the tested enzymes AP exhibited the

highest catalytic efficiencies with all three substrates.

Table 3-3. Kinetic literature values for *E. coli* AP at pH 8.0.

k_{cat} (s^{-1})	K_M (μM)	k_{cat}/K_M (x10^6) (M^{-1}s^{-1})	Reference
79.8	21	3.8	70
167.5	32.7	5.1	75
175.5	34.9	5.0	140
74.7	21.8	3.4	141
44.4	9.4	4.7	142
13.6	7.4	1.8	111
	1.3		78
		3.3	73

Computer modeling found P_i, PIm and pNPP fit in the active site in the same

orientation, but with different hydrogen bonding distances (Figures 3-26 through 3-31).

This result is consistent with the enzyme's ability to hydrolyze both PIm and pNPP.

AP's binding motif was reviewed in section **1.2.6**.
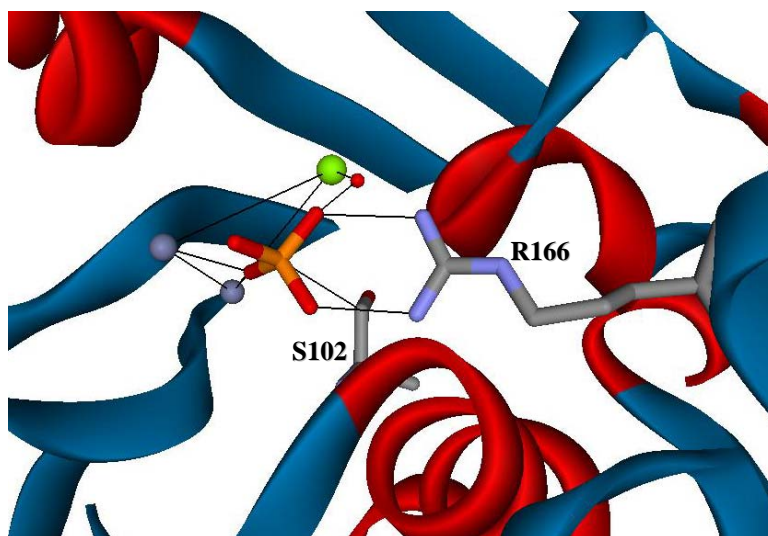
Figure 3-26. Phosphate bound in active site of AP (PDB 1ED8). Color scheme – green

is zinc, yellow is magnesium, red sphere is water.
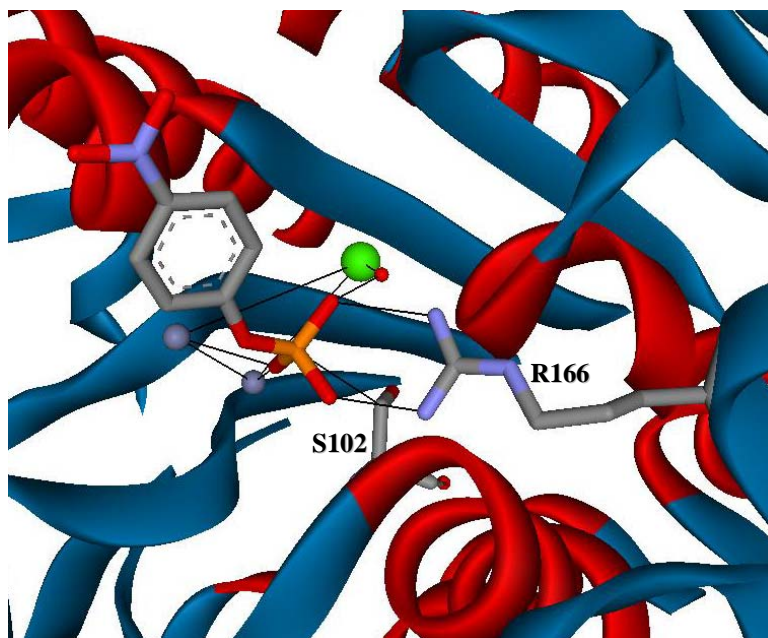
Figure 3-27. *p*NPP bound in active site of AP as modeled in Acclerys.
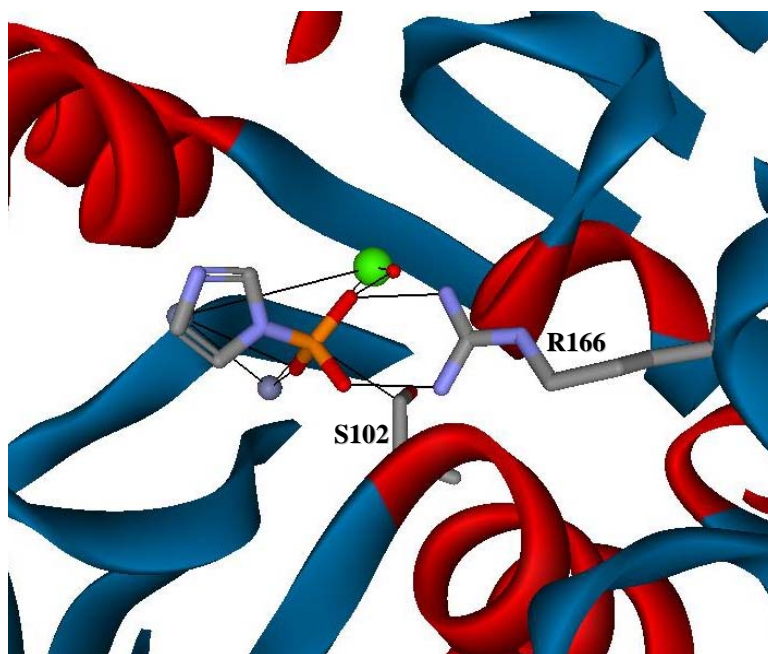
Figure 3-28. PIm bound in active site of AP as modeled in Acclerys.
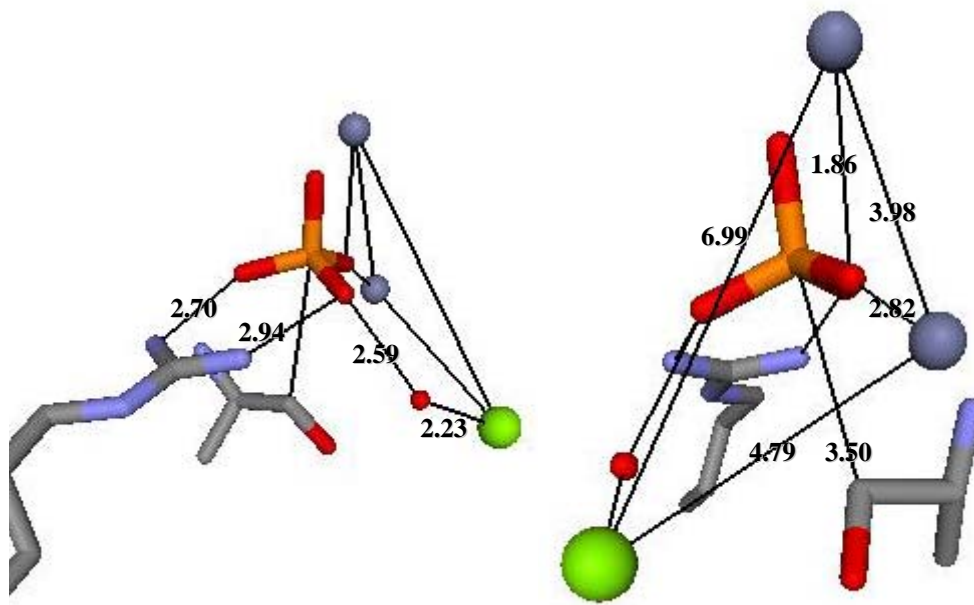
Figure 3-29. Phosphate bound in active site of AP (PDB 1ED8).
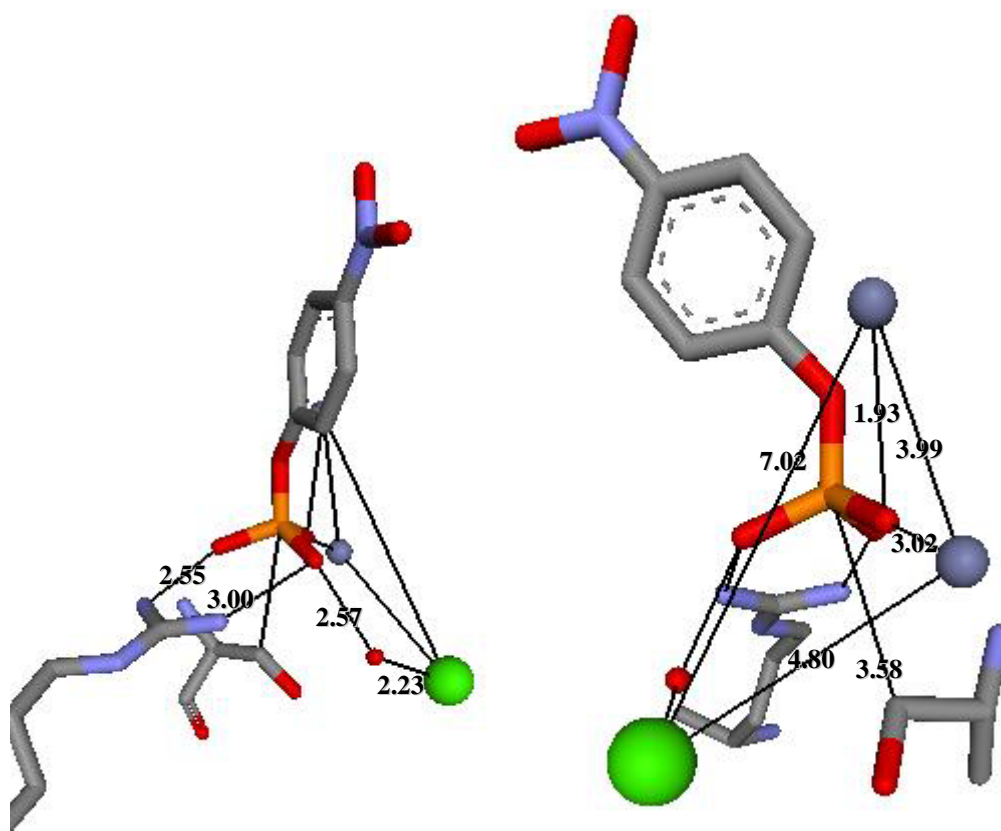
Figure 3-30. *p*NPP bound in active site of AP as modeled in Acclerys.
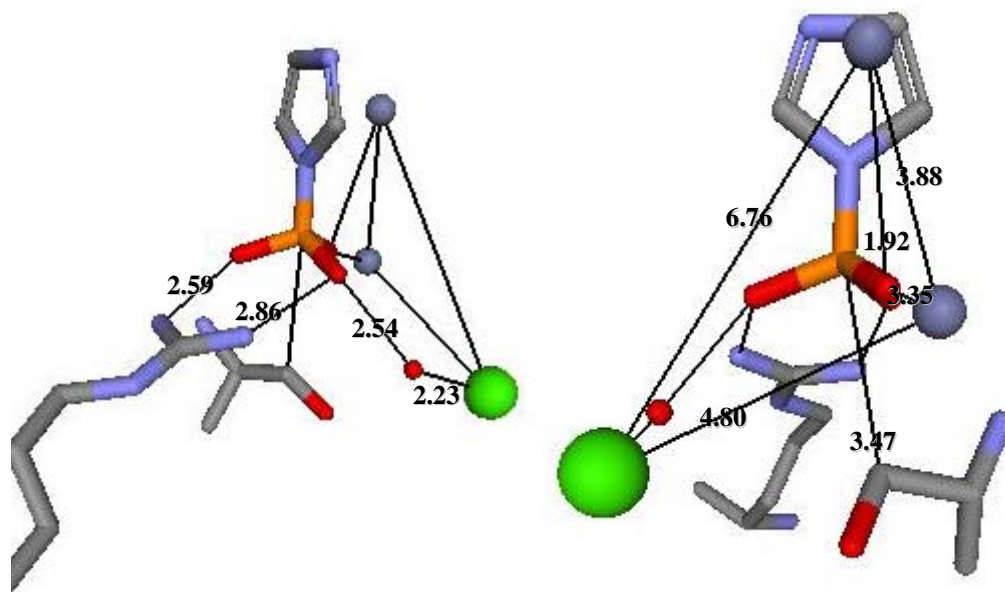
Figure 3-31. PIm bound in active site of AP as modeled in Acclerys.

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

4.1 Discussion of Overall Experimental Results

The purpose of this research is to determine if known phosphatase motifs cleave both P-O and P-N bonds, or if enzymes must exist specifically with phosphoramidase activity. With the exception of PP1γ, the enzymes in this study catalyze hydrolysis of pNPP and PIm (Table 4-1). The known phosphomonoester phosphatases motifs were found to be capable of catalyzing the hydrolysis of both phosphomonoesters and phosphoramidates, albeit with different catalytic constants.

Table 4-1. Ratio of second order rate constants (pNPP/PIm) by enzyme.

Enzyme	$(k_{cat}/K_M)/(k_{cat}/K_M)$ (pNPP)/(PIm)	Catalyzes Hydrolysis of		
		pNPP	N-phPAM	PIm
YopH	27	Yes	Yes	Yes
VHR	0.22	Yes	Yes	Yes
PAcP	1.6	Yes	Yes	Yes
PHPT1 at pH 5.5	7.1×10^{-5}	Yes	Yes	Yes
PHPT1 at pH 8.0	7.4×10^{-5}	Yes	Yes	Yes
AP	0.51	Yes	Yes	Yes
λPP		Yes	ND	Yes
PP1γ		Yes	ND	No

In several cases catalytic values with an enzyme are similar with the different substrates, a seeming validation that the substrates are being bound and catalyzed similarly. Nevertheless, to justifiably state that all three substrates are hydrolytically catalyzed in the same manner would require specific experiments and is not the purpose of this study. Even so, there is an experimental result from this study that is consistent with hydrolysis proceeding the same for both phosphomonoesters and phosphoramidates:

during NMR studies with PIm there was no indication of cleavage other than at the P-N

bond (see section 1.2). However, the NMR results do not mean that phosphoramidate

hydrolysis must follow the same mechanistic pathway as phosphomonoesters.

In addition to the kinetic assays a series of computer experiments was conducted

to examine whether there are structural properties of the enzymes that would shed insight

into how the substrates bind in the active site. Substrate binding can affect the activity of

an enzyme, and computer models have the ability to provide a snapshot of the enzyme-

substrate complex before hydrolysis. If the initial placement of phosphomonoesters was

different from phosphoramidates, catalysis proceeding via the same mechanism would be

in question. In making the models, the differences in charge and geometry were used to

assess the initial orientation of the substrate.

Charge may affect binding of the substrate. Inductive effects by the leaving group

have the potential to significantly affect charge localization on the non-bridging oxygens.

Charge localization might affect formation of the enzyme-substrate complex, and thus

K_M. Charge repulsion between the bridging atom and active site residues may also affect

formation of the enzyme-substrate complex. Shown in several figures in chapters one

and three are active site arginines whose guanidinium groups are positively charged.

This positive charge is repulsive to positively charged leaving groups, as with the

imidazole moiety of PIm.

Geometric misalignments between the substrate and active site residues may also

affect catalysis. The bridging atoms of pNPP and PIm exhibit different hybridizations,

with pNPP's sp^3 bridging oxygen having free rotation around the C-O bond and PIm's

sp^2 bridging nitrogen being constrained around the C-N-C bonds. Also, PIm is a smaller

substrate than *p*NPP. The different hybridizations and sizes could result in different relative orientations between the enzyme and substrates.

Two significant differences between the phosphate ester and phosphoramidate substrates are the protonation of the phosphate moiety as well as protonation of the leaving group. Location of a proton during hydrolysis is important as it affects electron density on the phosphate moiety and P-X bond strength. Some accounting of proton location may be made by considering the percent protonation of the substrate before catalysis versus percent protonation of the free leaving group (Table 4-2).

Table 4-2. Percent protonation of the substrate before catalysis versus percent protonation of the free leaving group in solvent. Refer to Figure 3-1 for location of protonation.

	pH 5.5		pH 8.0	
	Substrate	Leaving group	Substrate	Leaving group
*p*NPP/pNP	22.4%	97.8%	0.1%	12.1%
N-phPAM/aniline	97.2%	19%	9.9%	0.1%
PIm/Im	95.2%	96.9%	5.9%	8.9%

As the purpose of this project is to determine if known phosphatase motifs can cleave phosphoramidates, the remainder of this chapter will discuss the results obtained from each enzyme with the different substrates. Where relevant, concepts from the introduction regarding the enzyme's motif as well as uncatalyzed hydrolysis will be applied to the results.

4.2 Discussion of Results by Enzyme

4.2.1 PHPT1

The phosphohistidine phosphatase PHPT1 is believed to selectively cleave phosphohistidine residues in proteins. No explanation has been given for the specificity, but its mechanism employs general base catalysis. This is different from the other non-metallic motifs, in that they employ general acid/base catalysis.

While the enzyme catalyzes hydrolysis of both phosphomonoesters and phosphoramidates, there is a demonstrated preference for the phosphoramidates. The enzyme is able to catalyze hydrolysis of PIm 14,000 times faster than *p*NPP at both acidic and alkaline pH. Of the two phosphoramidate substrates, PHPT1 hydrolyzes PIm faster than *N*-phPAM. The results of this experiment validate PHPT1's assignment as a histidine phosphatase.

At pH 5.5 PIm is predominantly a zwitterionic monoanion with two negative charges on the phosphate moiety (Table 4-2 and Figure 3-1). The leaving group is positively charged and therefore activated. In the zwitterion, the opposite charges are proximal before the substrate enters the active site. After entering the active site the opposite charges become separated due to the negative charge on the non-bridging oxygens hydrogen bonding with the backbone. Intermolecular ionic attraction within the substrate is weakened with the increased distance between the imidazole cation and phosphoryl anions.

The enzyme's crystal structure reveals no amino acids within the active site that can act as a general acid. This was confirmed by mutational studies from the literature.[20] At pH 5.5, the imidazole that was cleaved from the substrate must obtain a proton from

the solvent. At pH 8.0 PIm exists primarily as a dianion, again with two negative charges

on the phosphate moiety. Again, the imidazole that was cleaved from the substrate must

obtain a proton from the solvent.

The striking experimental result with PHPT1 is the similarities in kinetic

performance at acidic and alkaline conditions. Comparing catalysis of a substrate at pH

5.5 and pH 8.0 shows that changes in pH do not yield significantly different rates.

The rate limiting step for substrate catalysis by PHPT1 is not known. Values for

k_{cat} vary significantly between the three substrates, as do the protonation states of the

substrates (Figure 3-1 and Table 4-3). The enzyme's general base, His53, remains

unprotonated at pH 5.5 and pH 8.0, and the enzyme performs with similar catalytic

values at both conditions. If generation of the base or nucleophilic attack was rate

limiting, k_{cat} values between the substrates would be expected to be similar; they are not.

Table 4-3. Kinetic results for PHPT1.

pH 5.5			
	k_{cat} (s^{-1})	K$_M$ (mM)	k_{cat}/K$_M$ (M^{-1}s^{-1})
pNPP	0.00407 ±0.00007	2.7 ±0.2	1.5
N-phPAM	0.26 ±0.06	5 ±3	50
PIm	2.70 ±0.04	0.13 ±0.02	21000
pH 8.0			
pNPP	0.0106 ±0.0004	6.3 ±0.6	1.7
N-phPAM	2.6 ±0.1	10 ±1	260
PIm	2.31 ±0.05	0.10 ±0.02	23000

The kinetic results are consistent with the rate limiting step is driven by

differences in the nature of the substrate's P-X bond. They are also consistent with the

rate limiting step is driven by the protonation state of the substrate. A chemical step in

catalysis is rate limiting.

Noted in the introduction was that hydrolysis of phosphomonoesters and phosphoramidates proceeded with pre-equilibrium protonation of the leaving group's bridging atom. In uncatalyzed hydrolysis phosphomonoesters rely on protons from the non-bridging oxygens to protonate the bridging oxygen. This explains why phosphomonoester monoanions hydrolyze rapidly. Phosphoramidates more readily hold a proton on the bridging atom, explaining why they hydrolyze more rapidly than phosphomonoesters.

Unlike the other non-metallo enzymes used in this study, PHPT1 does not protonate the bridging atom. The phosphomonoesters should less susceptible to PHPT1's general base mechanism since the phosphomonoesters must rely on the solvent for protonation of the bridging atom; phosphomonoesters bind as the dianion, so the proton source for the bridging oxygen is likely not the phosphoryl oxygens. Conversely, the phosphoramidates may be better able to gain a proton on the bridging nitrogen from the solvent. It must also be noted that pNPP is a dianion at both pH 5.5 and 8.0 and will bind as such. The phosphoramidates can bind as monoanions or dianions. More readily obtaining a proton from the solvent, more readily holding a proton on the bridging nitrogen, or entering the active site with the bridging nitrogen already protonated would explain the greater k_{cat} values of the phosphoramidates versus pNPP.

Whether or not protonation of the leaving group is responsible for the change in rate could be determined by generating a pH rate profile of PHPT1 with PIm and *N*-methyl PIm. *N*-methyl PIm's hydrolysis is insensitive to hydrogen ion concentration. If the pH rate profile of *N*-methyl PIm was also insensitive to pH and the rate profile with PIm was sensitive to pH, then it could be discerned that protonation of the leaving group

is rate limiting. If the pH rate profile of *N*-methyl PIm was affected by hydrogen ion concentration, then generation of the nucleophile is likely rate limiting.

The kinetic results herein are consistent with a similar mechanism for hydrolysis of phosphoramidates and phosphomonoesters. The alternative possibility of cleavage of the C-N bond has been ruled out by NMR experiments. Additional evidence that the mechanism is similar was found by computer modeling of substrate binding.

Computer models with *p*NPP and PIm in the active site show the phosphate moiety in the same general orientation (Figures 3-3 and 3-4). Hydrogen bonding distances with the backbone and Ser94 were close between the two substrates (Table 4-4). His53 to phosphorus distance varied by 2.4%, while Lys21 to the phosphoryl oxygen distance varied by 3.5%. Both substrates were oriented in the active site essentially the same and key distances exhibited little variation. This is consistent with the catalytic mechanism being the same for the two substrates.

4.2.2 YopH

YopH displays specificity for phosphotyrosine due to the depth of its active site. Peptide substrates with shorter phosphorylated hydroxyl residues are not able to access the active site. Aside from phosphotyrosine, YopH can dephosphorylate *p*NPP, naphthyl phosphate, and nitro-benzyl phosphate, NBP.[30] The ability to catalyze hydrolysis of NBP shows that the ester bond need not involve an aryl ester. The small molecule substrates in this experiment include both sp^2 and sp^3 bridging atoms and are able to access the active site as they are not constrained by a peptide.

YopH catalyzes hydrolysis of *p*NPP with the highest rate constant, followed by *N*-phPAM and PIm (Table 4-5). Although the bridging atom is different, *p*NPP and *N*-

Table 4-4. Comparison of distances between PHPT1 crystal structure with P_i and computer models with pNPP and PIm.

	Importance of Amino Acid	Crystal Structure With P_i (Å)	Computer Model With pNPP (Å)	Computer Model With PIm (Å)
His53 residue - phosphorus	Generates general base, affects substrate binding	4.24	4.25	4.35
His53 amide backbone – phosphoryl group	Hydrogen bonding for binding	2.89	3.00	2.99
Ala54 amide backbone – phosphoryl group	Hydrogen bonding for binding	3.05	2.97	3.00
Lys21 – phosphoryl group	Hydrogen bonding for binding, stabilize charge on nucleophilic water	4.87	4.59	4.75
Ala96 amide backbone – phosphoryl group	Hydrogen bonding for binding	3.03	3.19	3.20
Met95 amide backbone – phosphoryl group	Hydrogen bonding for binding	3.00	2.96	3.04
Ser94 residue – phosphoryl group	Hydrogen bonding for binding	2.76	3.03	3.00

Table 4-5. Kinetic results for YopH.

pH 5.5			
	k_{cat}(s^{-1})	K_M (mM)	k_{cat}/K_M x 10^{-3} (M^{-1}s^{-1})
pNPP	610 ±30	3.1 ±0.4	200
N-phPAM	530 ±70	4 ±2	100
PIm	34 ±2	4.9 ±0.5	7

phPAM are isosteric. PIm differs from pNPP and N-phPAM in sterics and electronics, and catalysis proceeds with an order of magnitude lower rate constant than either pNPP or N-phPAM.

The K_M's for the substrates are very similar. Differences in the catalytic efficiency are driven predominantly by differences in k_{cat}, which must be due to the nature of the leaving group. There is little effect on the rate constant by para substituted monoester substrates,[26] and the β_{LG} value for YopH is -0.19.[31]

For all three substrates in this study, the same phosphocysteine intermediate is expected. If hydrolysis of this intermediate is rate limiting with all three substrates, there should be no difference in k_{cat}. There is a significant difference in k_{cat} between pNPP and PIm, indicating that the rate limiting step is either different, or the first step is partially rate limiting.

For catalysis, the WPD loop of the enzyme closes over the substrate, bringing the general acid, Asp356, close to the bridging atom, facilitating protonation of the leaving group. The leaving group of pNPP and N-phPAM can be effectively protonated by Asp356 as they share sterics and electronics. Both enter the active site with a predominantly uncharged leaving group. PIm likely enters the active site of YopH as a monoanionic zwitterion (Figure 3-1 and Table 4-2). The leaving group is positively charged and thus more labile; departure of imidazole need not involve protonation by the general acid.

The kinetic results are consistent with pNPP and N-phPAM having the same rate-limiting step in YopH catalysis. Cleavage of the C-N bond was not observed in NMR experiments with PIm, which is consistent with the catalytic mechanism being similar for pNPP and PIm. Additional insight to the pNPP and PIm mechanisms was found by computer modeling.

The crystal structure used as the basis for computer modeling had the WPD loop in the closed position. The advantage in starting with this structure is that it is a close representation of the enzyme during catalysis. An advantage to using a structure with the loop opened would be that such a structure would better represent binding. With the loop open the bound substrate's leaving group is not constrained by the shape or size of the active site. With the loop closed there is constraint (Figures 1-7 and 1-8). The positive charge on the imidazole moiety had the potential to interfere with loop closure, and clashes between the imidazole moiety and WPD loop residues could occur with a loop closed structure.

Computer models of pNPP and PIm in the active site show the phosphate moiety in the same general orientation (Figures 3-6 and 3-7). Both substrate's phosphate oxyanions form hydrogen bonds with the same residues when bound. But, the computer determines the distances by minimizing the energy for all distances between the enzyme and substrate. In considering the Cys403 to phosphorus distance in the model with PIm, the computer forced the distance to be 1.94 Å; this reflects the computer's effort to minimize the total energy between PIm and the residues (Table 4-6).

When the WPD loop is removed from the computer models, distances between the enzyme and substrates trend toward lengthening; lengths were greater in all cases with PIm, and the cysteine-phosphorus distance increased 1.65 Å (Table 4-6 and Figures 3-8 and 3-9). The computer modeling is consistent with loop closure creating an unfavorable cysteine-phosphorus distance with PIm whereas no unfavorable distance exists with pNPP. The two substrates are geometrically different. PIm's imidazole

moiety cannot rotate away from the WPD loop, causing clash. Conversely, *p*NPP's
phenol moiety can rotate away from the WPD loop.

The global conformation of the active site residues possesses differences in
distances between *p*NPP and PIm. While the general orientation of the substrates was
similar, differences in key enzyme-substrate distances indicate differences in the exact
orientation. Enzyme-PIm distances tend to be lower than enzyme-*p*NPP distances.

Aside from Cys403, two other important residues exhibit significant variation
between the substrates: Asp356, the general acid/base; and Gln446, responsible for
orienting the nucleophilic water. Asp356 is 0.37 Å further from PIm than *p*NPP, while
Gln446 is 0.51 Å further. These longer distances reflect the loop-closed conformation
having some differences between the substrates.

4.2.3 VHR

VHR possesses a catalytic motif similar to YopH. Two important differences
between the enzymes' active sites are the position of the general acid/base, and depth.
VHR's general acid/base, Asp92, is not on a flexible loop. Additionally, VHR's active
site is shallow, approximately 6.4 Å, as compared to YopH's deep active site,
approximately 9.5 Å (these values were obtained using VHR crystal structure PDB
1VHR, and YopH crystal structure PDB 1YPT which is a loop open structure).

VHR catalysis of phosphomonoesters shows little dependence on the leaving
group, β_{LG} = -0.074 ±0.023.[42] Further, the enzyme displays burst kinetics.[44] The low
dependence on the leaving group and burst kinetics are explained by breakdown of the
phosphoenzyme intermediate being rate limiting.

Table 4-6. Comparison of distances between YopH crystal structure with vanadate and computer models with *p*NPP and PIm.

	Importance of Amino Acid	Crystal Structure With Vanadate (Å)	Computer Model With *p*NPP (Å)	Computer Model With PIm (Å)	Computer Model With *p*NPP & WPD Loop Removed (Å)	Computer Model With PIm & WPD Loop Removed (Å)
Cys403 residue – vanadate/ phosphorus	Nucleophile, forms covalent bond	2.52	3.66	1.94	3.80	3.59
Arg404 amide backbone – phosphoryl group	Hydrogen bonding for binding	2.58	3.33	2.32	3.12	2.41
Ala405 amide backbone – phosphoryl group	Hydrogen bonding for binding	2.61	3.03	3.12	3.04	3.15
Gly406 amide backbone – phosphoryl group	Hydrogen bonding for binding	3.09	3.11	3.05	3.14	3.09
Val407 amide backbone – phosphoryl group	Hydrogen bonding for binding	2.89	3.02	2.55	3.04	2.58
Gly408 amide backbone – phosphoryl group	Hydrogen bonding for binding	2.91	3.11	2.87	3.14	2.94
Arg409 amide backbone – phosphoryl group	Hydrogen bonding for binding	2.68	3.11	2.70	3.12	2.84
Arg409 residue – phosphoryl group	Hydrogen bonding for binding, stabilize charge on leaving group	3.03/3.13	3.08/3.32	2.86/3.46	3.48/3.54	2.93/3.71
Asp356 residue – bridging atom	General acid/base	2.82	2.81	3.18	N/A	N/A
Gln446 residue – bridging atom	Orient nucleophilic water	4.16	3.30	3.91 from GlnO to bridge N 2.49 from GlnO to non-bridge N 3.81 from GlnN to bridge N	3.30	4.39 from GlnO to bridge N 2.92 from GlnO to non-bridge N 4.47 from GlnN to bridge N

VHR catalyzes hydrolysis of alkyl and aryl phosphomonoesters with similar catalytic efficiency.[42] In this research with VHR, k_{cat} is similar for all three substrates (Table 4-7). The second order rate constants are also similar. These results are consistent with breakdown of the phosphoenzyme intermediate in VHR catalyzed hydrolysis of N-phPAM and PIm also being rate limiting.

Table 4-7. Kinetic results for VHR.

	pH 5.5		
	$k_{cat}(s^{-1})$	K_M (mM)	k_{cat}/K_M x 10^{-3} ($M^{-1}s^{-1}$)
pNPP	5.9 ±0.2	2.0 ±0.2	3.0
N-phPAM	5.8 ±0.6	0.8 ±0.2	7
PIm	7.8 ±0.6	0.58 ±0.09	13

VHR has lower K_M values for the phosphoramidate substrates than pNPP. Literature precedent exists regarding VHR's variation in K_M. Reported catalytic values for β-naphthyl phosphate (**20**) and 4-methyl umbelliferyl phosphate (**21**) at pH 6.0 are k_{cat} = 6.80 ± 0.41 s^{-1}, K_M = 0.50 ± 0.07 mM, pK_{aLG} 9.38, and k_{cat} = 6.74 ± 0.31 s^{-1}, K_M = 0.72 ± 0.11 mM, pK_{aLG} 7.80, respectively.[42] These values compare to reported catalytic values for pNPP at pH 6.0 of k_{cat} = 6.0 ± 0.2 s^{-1}, and K_M = 1.7 ± 0.1 mM.[43] The phosphoramidate values obtained herein are within variation reported for phosphomonoesters and are a close match for **20** and **21**.[42]
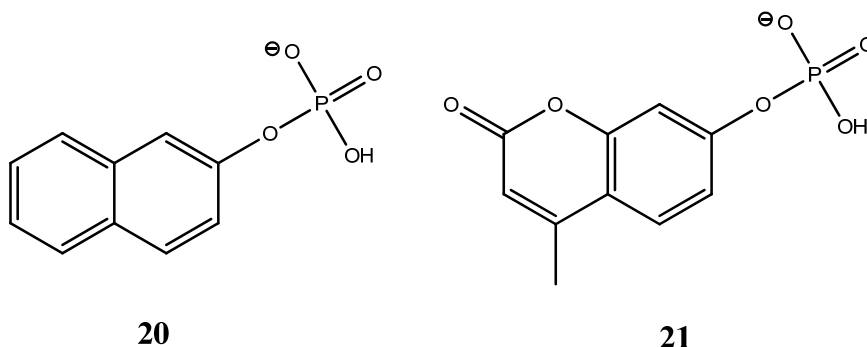
20   **21**

Computer models with *p*NPP and PIm in the active site show the phosphate

moiety in the same general orientation (Figures 3-11 and 3-12). Both substrates'

phosphate oxyanions form hydrogen bonds with the same residues with approximately

the same distances when bound (Table 4-8). Variation between enzyme-substrate

complexes with *p*NPP and PIm was minimal with two exceptions. The Arg130 to

phosphoryl oxygen distance was greater with PIm, while the Asp92 residue to the

bridging atom distance was shorter by 0.57 Å with PIm; Asp92 is the general acid/base.

Given that PIm is already activated, there may be less importance for Asp92 to be close

Table 4-8. Comparison of distances between VHR crystal structure with sulfate and
computer models with *p*NPP and PIm.

	Importance of Amino Acid	Crystal Structure With Sulfate (Å)	Computer Model With *p*NPP (Å)	Computer Model With PIm (Å)
Cys124 residue – sulfate/ phosphorus	Nucleophile	3.64	3.59	3.73
Cys124 amide backbone – phosphoryl group	Hydrogen bonding for binding	3.05	3.02	3.26
Arg125 amide backbone – phosphoryl group	Hydrogen bonding for binding	2.89	3.08	3.05
Glu126 – phosphoryl group	Hydrogen bonding for binding	3.56	3.08	2.99
Tyr128 amide backbone – phosphoryl group	Hydrogen bonding for binding	2.92	2.91	2.91
Ser129 amide backbone – phosphoryl group	Hydrogen bonding for binding	2.78	3.15	3.29
Arg130 backbone – phosphoryl group	Hydrogen bonding for binding	2.94	2.92	3.02
Arg130 residue – phosphoryl group	Hydrogen bonding for binding	3.12/3.22	2.88/2.96	3.23/2.95
Asp92 residue – bridging atom	General acid/base	3.13	3.95	3.38

to PIm as compared to pNPP.

The same mechanism of hydrolysis with pNPP and PIm is consistent with similar k_{cat} values, similar enzyme-substrate distances in computer models, and only P-N cleavage in NMR experiments. One difference may be that the enzyme does not have to protonate the leaving group to effect hydrolysis.

4.2.4 hPAcP

The histidine acid phosphatases are able to catalyze a variety of substrates, to include phosphotyrosine,[143,144] glycerol phosphate,[51,145,146] acetyl phosphate,[145] adenosine monophosphate,[145] benzyl phosphate,[51] naphthyl phosphate,[144] phytate,[147] and fructose phosphate.[147] Due to the many types of substrates PAcP is able to catalyze it is considered a non-specific phosphatase.

With this enzyme, an interesting situation arises when phosphoimidazole enters the active site. The P-N bond of the substrate is equivalent to the potential P-N bond of the phosphoenzyme intermediate. That PAcP catalyzed hydrolysis of PIm shows that active site must generate a preference for the enzyme's histidine residue to attack the PIm substrate and preferentially cleave one P-N bond over the other. This may be facilitated by the imidazole moiety of the substrate being protonated during the transition state while the imidazole moiety of His12 is not.

The β_{LG} value with the enzyme and substituted phenyl phosphates was -0.08, showing little dependence of the rate upon the leaving group.[37,113] This is consistent with breakdown of the phosphoenzyme intermediate being rate limiting. In the research here, k_{cat} values were similar for all three substrates, consistent with the same rate limiting step being operative, i.e. breakdown of the phosphoenzyme intermediate (Table 4-9). K_M

values varied significantly, a reflection of changes in formation of the enzyme-substrate

complex.

Table 4-9. Kinetic results for PAcP.

	pH 5.5		
	$k_{cat}(s^{-1})$	K_M (mM)	k_{cat}/K_M x 10^{-3} ($M^{-1}s^{-1}$)
pNPP	2.13 ±0.02	0.23 ±0.04	9.3
N-phPAM	2.5 ±0.1	0.07 ±0.01	40
PIm	6.0 ±0.4	1.01 ±0.09	5.9

Unlike the other non-metallo enzymes, binding is not accomplished by hydrogen

bonds with the protein backbone. PAcP's hydrogen bond network is with three arginines

and histidine. Whereas amide backbones have no charge, arginine and protonated

histidine have a positive charge. If the Arg11, Arg15, Arg79, and His 257 were

protonated, there would be four positive charges in the active site of PAcP (Figure 1-15).

This would be expected to be repulsive to the positive charge on the imidazole moiety of

PIm. Such repulsion may be the cause of the greater K_M with PIm.

Computer modeling found PIm and pNPP bound in the same general orientation

(Figures 3-14 and 3-15). Both substrates' phosphate oxyanions form hydrogen bonds

with the same residues with approximately the same distances when bound (Table 4-10).

There was a 0.2 Å shorter distance between the general acid/base Asp258 and the

bridging atom for PIm than for pNPP. Given that PIm is already activated, this distance

may be of minimal importance.

The same mechanism of hydrolysis with pNPP and PIm is consistent with similar

k_{cat} values, similar enzyme-substrate distances in computer models, and only P-N

cleavage in NMR experiments.

Table 4-10. Comparison of distances between PAcP crystal structure with phosphate and computer models with *p*NPP and PIm.

	Importance of Amino Acid	Crystal Structure With P$_i$ (Å)	Computer Model With *p*NPP (Å)	Computer Model With PIm (Å)
His12 residue – phosphorus	Nucleophile	3.19	3.19	3.22
Arg11 residue – phosphate oxyanion	Hydrogen bonding for binding	3.38/3.27	3.33/3.29	3.32/3.15
Arg15 residue – phosphate oxyanion	Hydrogen bonding for binding	2.78/2.98	2.72/2.83	2.74/3.03
Arg79 residue – phosphate oxyanion	Hydrogen bonding for binding	3.04/2.75	2.96/2.76	3.00/2.79
His257 residue – phosphate oxyanion	Hydrogen bonding for binding	2.92	2.85	2.99
Asp258 residue – bridging atom	General acid/base	2.81	2.92	2.72 bridge N 2.79 non-bridge N

4.2.5 λPP & PP1.

Both λPP and PP1γ are serine/threonine phosphatases. Despite this classification, neither enzyme is able to hydrolyze monomeric serine or threonine phosphate.[60,61,148] The amino acid sequence, as well as the length of the sequence, are crucial for catalytic hydrolysis of phosphopeptide substrates.[60]

Both enzymes have the catalytic core of the serine/threonine phosphatases. Between the two, λPP is the smaller enzyme, 221 amino acids versus 294 for the human PP1γ protein. λPP is the smallest of the cataloged serine/threonine phosphatases.

Phosphohistidine peptides and proteins are substrates for λPP[60] and PP1.[62] Additionally, PP1 catalyzes hydrolysis of aryl methylphosphonates,[63] while λPP catalyzes hydrolysis of phosphodiesters.[66] While the enzymes are classified as

serine/threonine phosphatases, their inability to catalyze hydrolysis of phosphoserine or phosphothreonine, while at the same time catalyzing hydrolysis of phosphohistidine, phosphonates, and phosphodiesters, throws into question what their native substrates are and what classification they should be assigned. In the research herein, λPP effected hydrolysis of PIm, while PP1 did not.

Under the same conditions and equal periods of time λPP catalyzes hydrolysis of *p*NPP more than seven times more rapidly than PIm. But, catalysis goes to 25% with PIm and stops. These results provide little insight as to why overall catalysis of *p*NPP was greater than with PIm; kinetic constants cannot be obtained.

Computer models show *p*NPP and PIm bound in significantly different orientations in the active site (Figures 3-18, 3-19, 3-21, and 3-22). Not only are the substrates in different orientations, the location, number and placement of water molecules is different.   Since the number of water molecules in the active site varies according to substrate, it is difficult to make comprehensive side by side distance comparisons between computer modeled binding of *p*NPP and PIm. However, proximity of the substrate to the metals must be crucial regardless of which of the three possible mechanisms is operative. Arginines 162 and 53 may be important for binding and/or proper orientation of the substrate.

Key distances between the substrates, metals, and arginines are shown (Table 4-11). Most distances with the PIm model are significantly larger than with the *p*NPP model. Coupled with a PIm K_i of 22 mM, it can be concluded that PIm does not bind well to λPP.

Table 4-11. Comparison of distances between λPP crystal structure with sulfate and computer models with *p*NPP and PIm.

	Crystal Structure With Sulfate (Å)	Computer Model With *p*NPP (Å)	Computer Model With PIm (Å)
$Mn^{2+} - Mn^{2+}$	3.46	4.13	4.57
$Mn_1^{2+} -$ oxyanion	2.30	3.05	4.17
$Mn_2^{2+} -$ oxyanion	4.22	4.33	4.78
Arg162 – phosphate oxyanion	2.76	2.78	3.69
Arg53 – phosphate oxyanion	5.57	5.35	4.58

Poor binding by PIm cannot be solely responsible for hydrolysis proceeding to 25% and stopping. The different binding orientations and distances may reflect a different catalytic mechanism with PIm as compared to *p*NPP. Insight of the possible mechanism cannot be gleaned from the results herein.

4.2.6 AP.

AP is a non-specific enzyme. It is able to hydrolyze a wide variety of substrates, including phosphopyridines,[76] *N*-phenyl phosphoramidates,[77,78] alkyl phosphoramidates,[78] phenyl phosphate esters,[81,149] alkyl phosphate esters,[81,149] phosphodiesters,[72] phosphorothioates,[80,150] sulfates,[69] and phosphonates.[151]

Diffusion controlled enzymatic reactions have a theoretical upper limit of ~10^9 $M^{-1}s^{-1}$.[152] As a comparison, AP catalyzed reactions have rate constants up to 10^7 with phosphomonoester substrates. Thus, not only does AP catalyze hydrolysis of many different substrates, its motif is able to generate rate increases that approach diffusion control.

At pH 8.0 release of P_i is rate limiting for phosphomonoester substrates as shown by NMR, crystallography, mutagenesis, and β_{LG} studies.[82,153] AP displays burst kinetics, which is also consistent with P_i release being rate limiting.[154]

A similar k_{cat} between the three substrates would be consistent with the same rate limiting step. PIm and *p*NPP have k_{cat} values of the same order of magnitude, consistent with the rate limiting step for the two substrates being the same. Yet, *N*-phPAM has a lower k_{cat} than PIm or *p*NPP. AP catalyzed hydrolysis of *N*-phPAM having a lower k_{cat} than *p*NPP is consistent with literature.[77]

It has been proposed that AP-catalyzed hydrolysis may be limited by substrate binding or some other conformational change.[155] It may be that *N*-phPAM has different binding than the other substrates or otherwise changes the rate limiting step. The latter suggestion has literature precedent that will now be reviewed.

AP catalyzed hydrolysis of phosphorylated pyridines has little dependence upon the leaving group "because the chemical step is not rate limiting for these substrates."[73,76] The rate limiting step for phosphorylated pyridines has been attributed to limitations on substrate binding or conformational changes to the enzyme.[76] If *N*-phPAM had different binding characteristics or required conformational changes to the enzyme, as with the phosphorylated pyridines, it would be expected that k_{cat} values of AP with *N*-phPAM would be lower than with *p*NPP. The $k_{apparent}^{pNPP}$ is 7.8 times the $k_{apparent}^{1\text{-picoline}}$.[76] The results herein found k_{cat}^{pNPP} to be 21 times the $k_{cat}^{N\text{-phPAM}}$ (Table 4-12).

Computer models show *p*NPP and PIm bound in the active site in the same orientation (Figures 3-27, 3-28, 3-30, and 3-31). Both models showed Ser102 with its hydroxyl group facing away from the substrate's phosphorus atom (Figures 3-25 and 3-

Table 4-12. Kinetic results for AP.

	$k_{cat}(s^{-1})$	K_M (mM)	k_{cat}/K_M x $10^{-3}(M^{-1}s^{-1})$
		pH 8.0	
pNPP	27.3 ±0.8	0.0070 ±0.0008	3900
N-phPAM	1.30 ±0.09	0.0021 ±0.0002	620
PIm	18 ±2	0.0020 ±0.0003	9000

26). For this reason, the methylene carbon of Ser102 is the basis for measurement of the distance to the phosphorus atom (Table 4-13).

Table 4-13. Comparison of distances between *E. coli* AP crystal structure with phosphate and computer models with *p*NPP and PIm.

	Crystal Structure With P_i (Å)	Computer Model With *p*NPP (Å)	Computer Model With PIm (Å)
$Zn_1^{2+} - Zn_2^{2+}$	3.98	3.99	3.88
$Zn_1^{2+} -$ phosphate oxyanion	1.86	1.93	1.92
$Zn_2^{2+} -$ phosphate oxyanion	2.82	3.02	3.35
$Zn_1^{2+} - Mg^{2+}$	6.99	7.02	6.76
$Zn_1^{2+} - Mg^{2+}$	4.79	4.80	4.80
Arg166 residue – phosphate oxyanion	2.70/2.94	2.55/3.00	2.59/2.86
Ser102 – phosphorus	3.50	3.58	3.47

There is no apparent trend in key distances of the enzyme-substrate complexes; some are closer for PIm than *p*NPP and vice versa. Distance of the nucleophile, Ser102, is similar between P_i, *p*NPP, and PIm. None of the distances between the bound substrates deviated by more than 5%. The same mechanism of hydrolysis with *p*NPP and PIm is consistent with similar k_{cat} values, similar enzyme-substrate distances in computer models, and only P-N cleavage in NMR experiments.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS

5.1 Summary of Phosphoramidase vs. Phosphatase Activities

The two phosphoramidates used in this study were analogs of phosphorylated nitrogenous amino acids. *N*-phPAM possesses a sp^3 hybridized bridging nitrogen as does phospholysine. PIm possess a sp^2 hybridized bridging nitrogen akin to phosphohistidine. All of the motifs assayed in this study are capable of catalyzing hydrolysis of phosphoramidates with sp^2 bridging nitrogens. With the exception of the protein phosphatase motif, the motifs can also catalyze phosphoramidates with sp^3 bridging nitrogens.

PHPT1 has been shown to selectively catalyze phosphohistidine proteins. The results herein show the enzyme is also selective for phosphoimidazole, the phosphohistidine analog. That the enzyme catalyzed PIm 14000 times faster than *p*NPP in acidic and alkaline media shows that selectivity is based upon the P-X bond. That the enzyme catalyzed PIm faster than *N*-phPAM shows hybridization of the nitrogen is important.

Depending upon the PTP, phosphoramidase activity may be the same as phosphatase activity, as with VHR, or it may be less, as with YopH. The hybridization of the bridging atom can affect kinetic values, as demonstrated by YopH catalysis of *N*-phPAM and PIm. Despite the enzymes showing different activities with the substrates, PTPs are able to catalyze hydrolysis of all three substrates in this study with high activity.

While possessing very different motifs and having antipodal pH optima, PAcP and AP are both non-specific phosphatases. Both enzymes were able to catalyze the

phosphoramidates with similar activity as the phosphomonoester. Thus, kinetic values

showed neither enzyme possessed clear specificity for any of the substrates.

Interpretation of the results from the serine/threonine phosphatases is difficult.

Clearly the motif can catalyze hydrolysis of PIm. But, the behavior of the two enzymes

with PIm was opposite: λPP catalyzed PIm while PP1 didn't. While λPP catalyzed PIm,

it went to 25% and inexplicably stopped. To complicate experiments, small molecules

such as phosphorylated serine and threonine are not substrates. Phosphoramidase activity

was demonstrated in this study. Considering the inability of the enzymes to catalyze

phosphoserine or phosphothreonine as well as the behavior of the enzymes with the

phosphoramidate substrates in this study, specificity of the enzymes cannot be

determined with small molecule substrates.

5.2 Computer Modeling

The kinetic experiments address the question of whether or not phosphoramidase

activity exists in the known phosphatases. The positive results do not specify *per se*

whether or not catalysis proceeds with the same mechanism for phosphoramidates or

phosphomonoesters, although similar k_{cat} values are consistent with the same rate limiting

step. NMR results showing cleavage of the P-N bond are also consistent with the same

mechanism. Isotope and LFER experiments would strengthen the proposition that

catalysis occurs with the same mechanism. Such experiments are costly in funds and

time. In this study, computer models were used to address the matter.

The transition state in enzymatic catalysis occurs in the time span of one

vibration. As such, a transition species is too short-lived to be detected. Crystal

structures cannot be obtained with an enzyme's substrate as hydrolysis will occur before

crystallization. However, a computer can model a substrate in the active site of an enzyme. Such a model provides an examination of the enzyme-substrate complex before the transition state or catalysis.

Enzyme-substrates complexes with the same orientation of different substrates and the same enzyme are consistent with the catalytic mechanism being the same. However, there must be a justification for orienting the substrates. Inhibitors crystallized with enzymes assume a specific orientation that can be a starting point for orienting a substrate in a computer model.

There are two important considerations when placing a substrate into an active site using an inhibitor as a starting point. One, the inhibitor lacks a leaving group, and interactions between a substrate's leaving group and residues are not seen in the crystal structure. Two, the enzyme-inhibitor structure represents a product, or product analog, bound with the enzyme in a specific conformation. This conformation may or may not be a close transition-state analog.

Since the transition state occurs in the time span of one vibration, the enzyme must assume its transition state conformation before catalysis. A model of this conformation is desired. But, the starting point for the model is a crystal structure, and a crystal structure represents a low-energy conformation of an enzyme. However, transition state conformations represent higher-energy global enzyme conformations. Attempts to artificially move residues in the low energy crystal structure to model an enzyme-substrate complex at the high energy transition state would necessarily entail significant assumptions.

A computer model with limited assumptions may be had realizing that the model does not necessarily represent the transition state conformation. If a substrate is placed into the active site in the same orientation as an inhibitor, a computer may modify distances between residues and the substrate to lower the overall energy of the enzyme-substrate complex. While a model so obtained would not necessarily represent the transition state complex, it would show the bound orientation of a substrate before catalysis. By mere orientation and proximity of the catalytic residues and the substrate, the role of the residues could be inferred. This is what was done during this study.

The computer experiments completed in this study examine structure-activity relationships. Significant geometric differences exist between the substrates, which may alter the structure of the enzyme-substrate complex. With PHPT1, VHR, and λPP the leaving group is surrounded predominantly by solvent when the substrate is bound. Little difference is expected in binding distances or orientation between pNPP and PIm. This was true for PHPT1 and VHR. λPP's kinetic results indicated phenomena were causing the enzymes to catalyze the substrates with significantly different values. The computer modeling was consistent with the kinetic results in that binding of pNPP and PIm were different.

Substrates bound to YopH, PAcP, and AP have leaving groups in greater contact with the enzyme's amino acids. Differences in binding distances and orientation are possible, but not mandated, between pNPP and PIm because of the leaving group-amino acid interactions. With the WPD loop closed, there is a difference between distances with YopH. PAcP had little differences, neither did AP. This is an indication that the

different leaving groups are not *a priori* indicators that kinetic rates or binding orientation are different.

While it is an equilibrium constant, the Michaelis constant is also a ratio of rates. K_M is not a reflection of binding strength, and there is no associating between binding orientation or binding distances with K_M. The computer modeled structures cannot be directly associated with K_M.

The rate limiting step of catalysis is given by k_{cat}. Structure-activity relationships do not indicate what step of catalysis is rate limiting, and computer modeled structures cannot be directly associated with k_{cat}.

With no direct link to k_{cat} or K_M, the computer models may seem of limited value. However, there is no other technique to examine an enzyme-substrate complex before catalysis. The strength of the method is that it provides a structure comparison between enzyme-substrate complexes with different substrates. It is one more piece of evidence to support a hypothesis that catalysis does, or does not, proceed by the same mechanism.

5.3 Major Conclusions

While phosphoramidases in addition to PHPT1 may be discovered, the existing phosphomonoesterase motifs are capable of hydrolyzing phosphoramidates. The most important result of this study is that there is no prerequisite for the future discovery of additional phosphoramidases.

The results of this study are readily placed into a larger physiological perspective. Proteins are often phosphorylated at multiple sites. With the exception of PHPT1's motif, none of the enzymes studied possess a motif that can selectively dephosphorylate a

protein (Figure 5-1). If an enzyme is to selectively dephosphorylate a protein, selection

must be accomplished by some property of the phosphatase other than its motif.
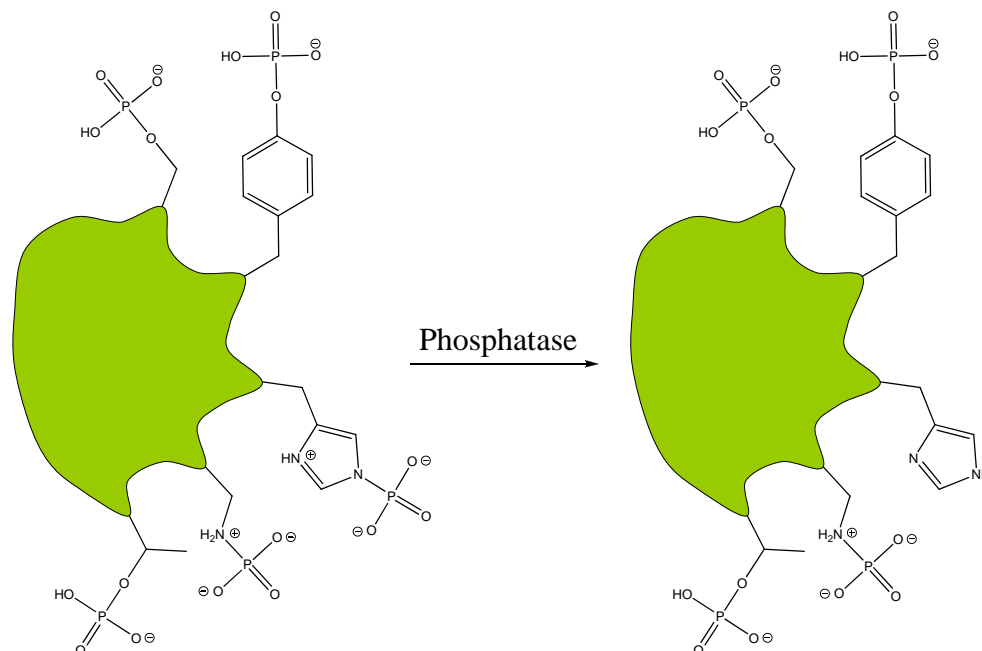
Figure 5-1. Selective dephosphorylation of a protein cannot be accomplished by an

enzyme's motif. The exception being PHPT1, that can dephosphorylate

phosphohistidine. A generalized protein with multiple phosphorylation sites is shown in

green.

PHPT1 has an ability to selectively dephosphorylate phosphohistidine (Figure 5-

1). While the rate constant for catalysis of PIm does not appear to be high, the selectivity

for PIm over *p*NPP is high. This may be due to the general base catalysis employed by

the enzyme. The leaving group of phosphoesters is not especially labile, but can be made

so by protonation by a general acid. In comparison, phosphohistidine's leaving group is

labile. The differences in leaving groups likely account for substrate susceptibility to

general base catalysis.

Proteins may be phosphorylated on lysine or arginine. While such residues would possess labile P-N bonds, the results herein indicate the bonds could be catalytically cleaved by motifs studied. Not only is there no prerequisite for phosphoramidases able to cleave phosphohistidine, there is no prerequisite for phosphoramidases to cleave phospholysine or phosphoarginine.

5.4 Future Study in the Field of Phosphoramidates and Phosphoramidases

In this study, PIm and *N*-phPAM were used as substrates. *In vivo* phosphorylation of lysine and arginine are known. Analogs of such substrates could be made, but the techniques to conduct kinetic assays with such substrates are nascent at best.

The unique nature of phosphoramidates provides an interesting probe for enzymatic action. Charged and uncharged sp^3 nitrogens, as well as charged and uncharged sp^2 nitrogens provide different phosphoramidate substrates. The behavior of enzymes with these substrates *in vitro* can provide insight as to how the enzymes may work *in vivo*.

Presently the field seems to have attracted far less attention than studies with phosphoesters, likely a reflection of the difficulties associated with the substrates. Without more research in this area, an incomplete knowledge of biochemical pathways will remain. This study is a start in understanding the catalyzed hydrolysis of phosphoramidates.

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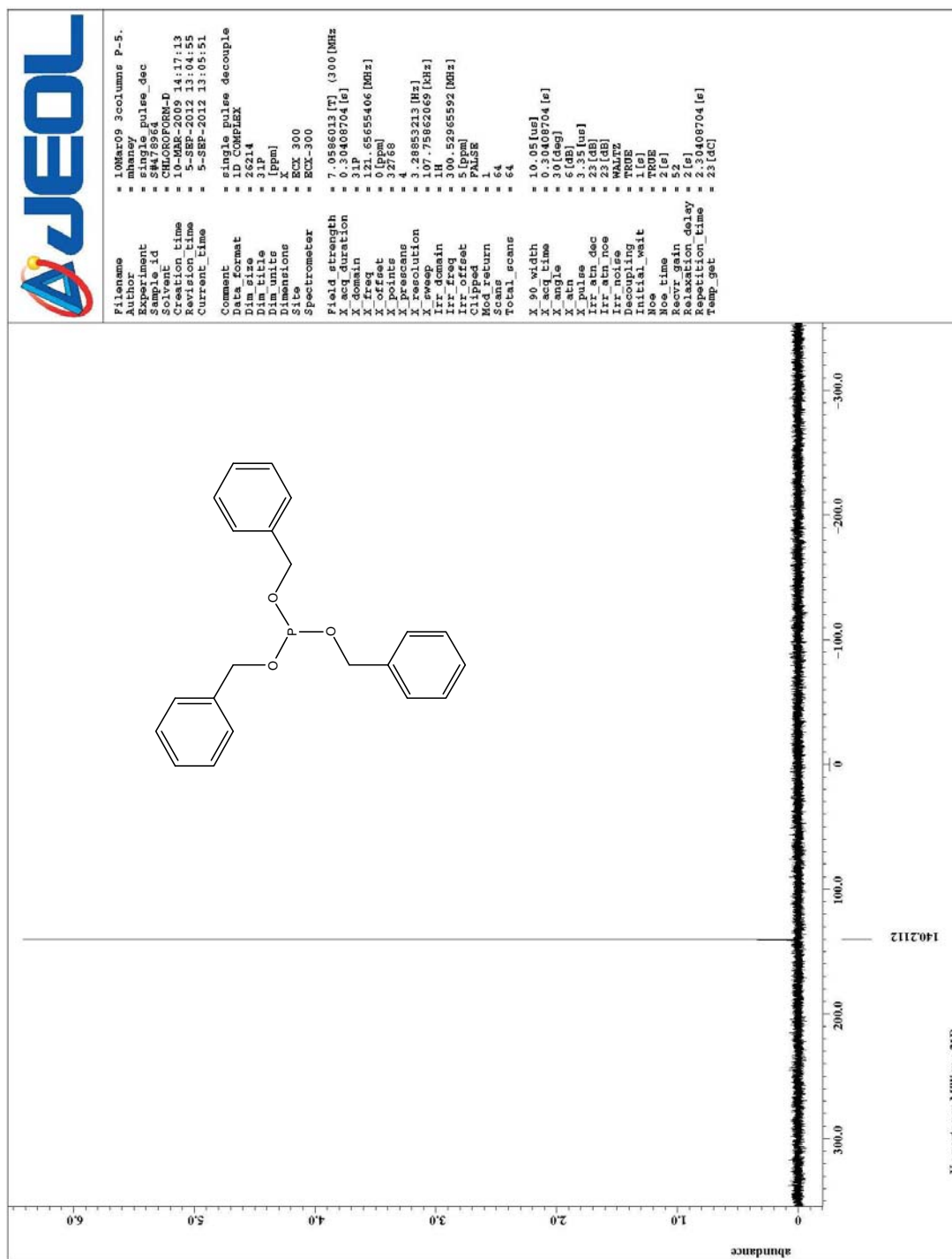
APPENDIX

A1. Proton NMR spectrum of *p*NPP.
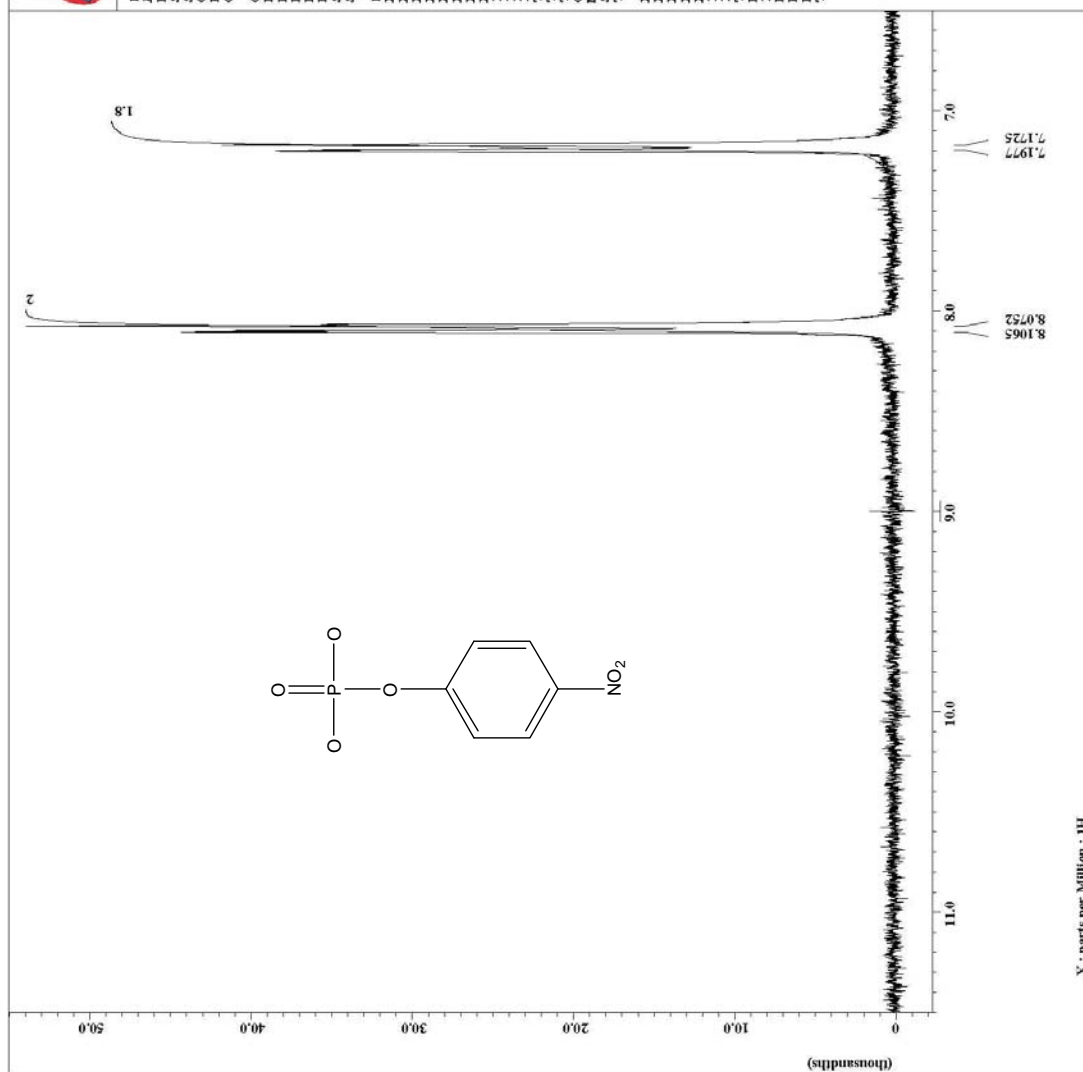
A2. ^{31}P NMR spectrum of *p*NPP.
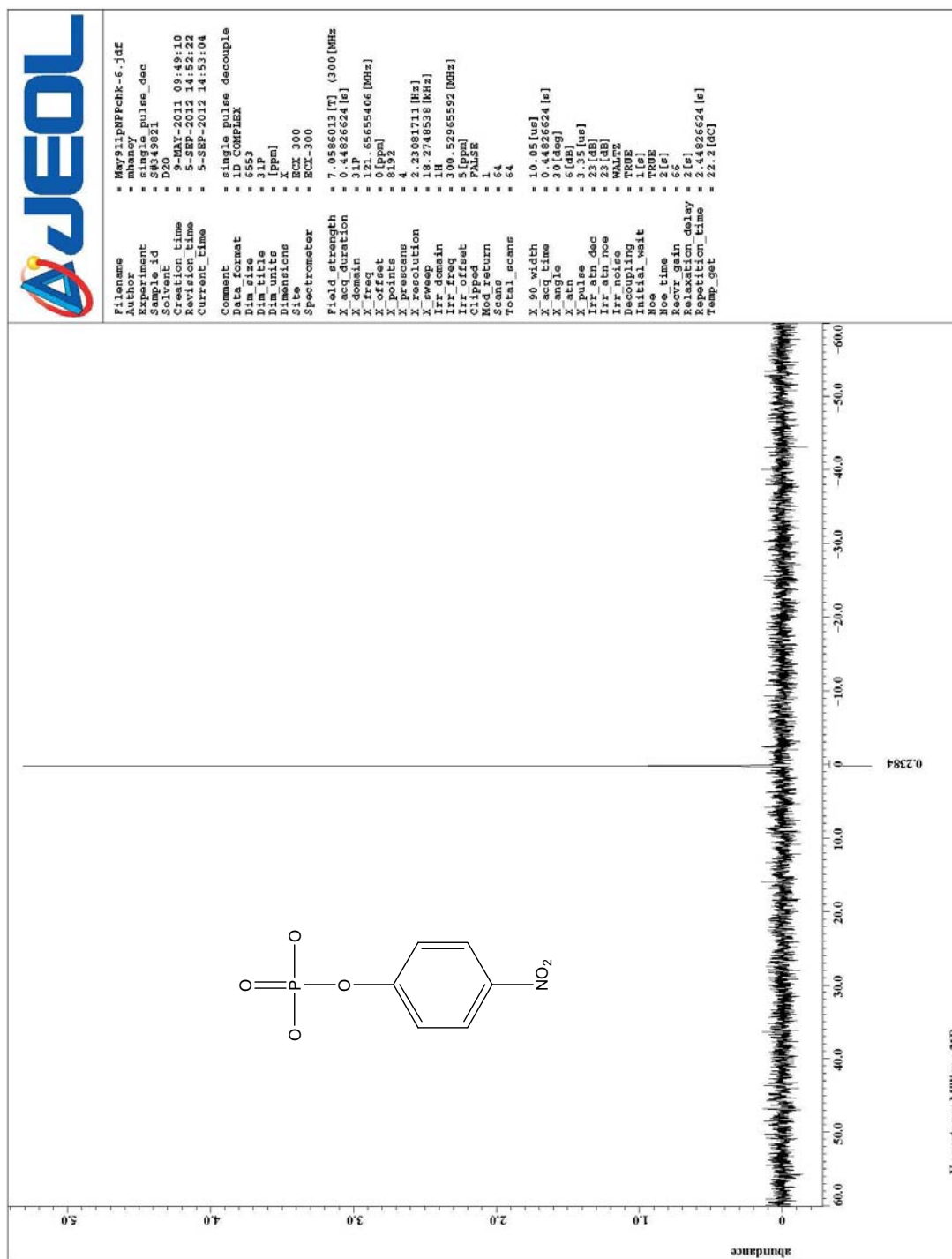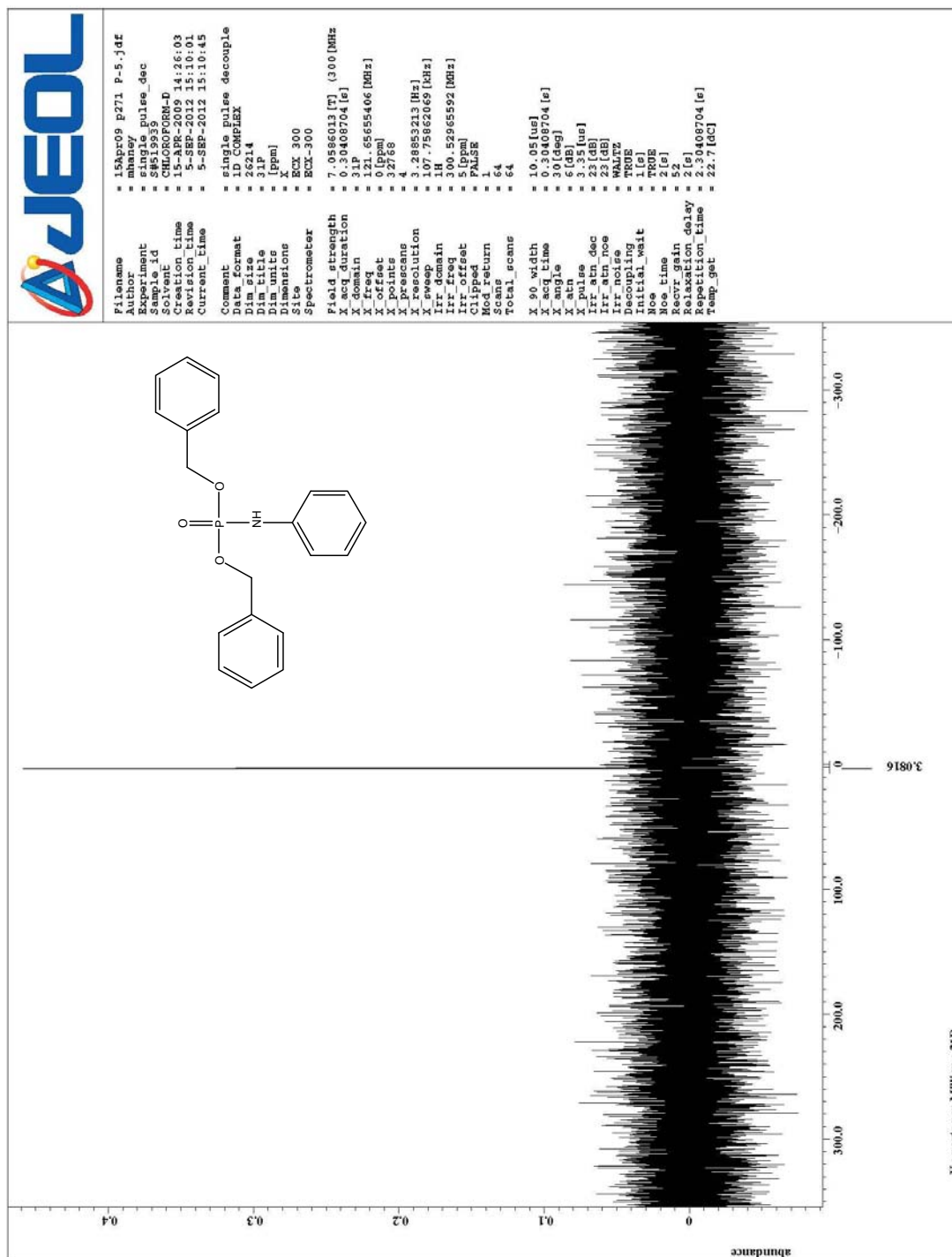
A3. Proton NMR spectrum of tri-benzyl phosphite.

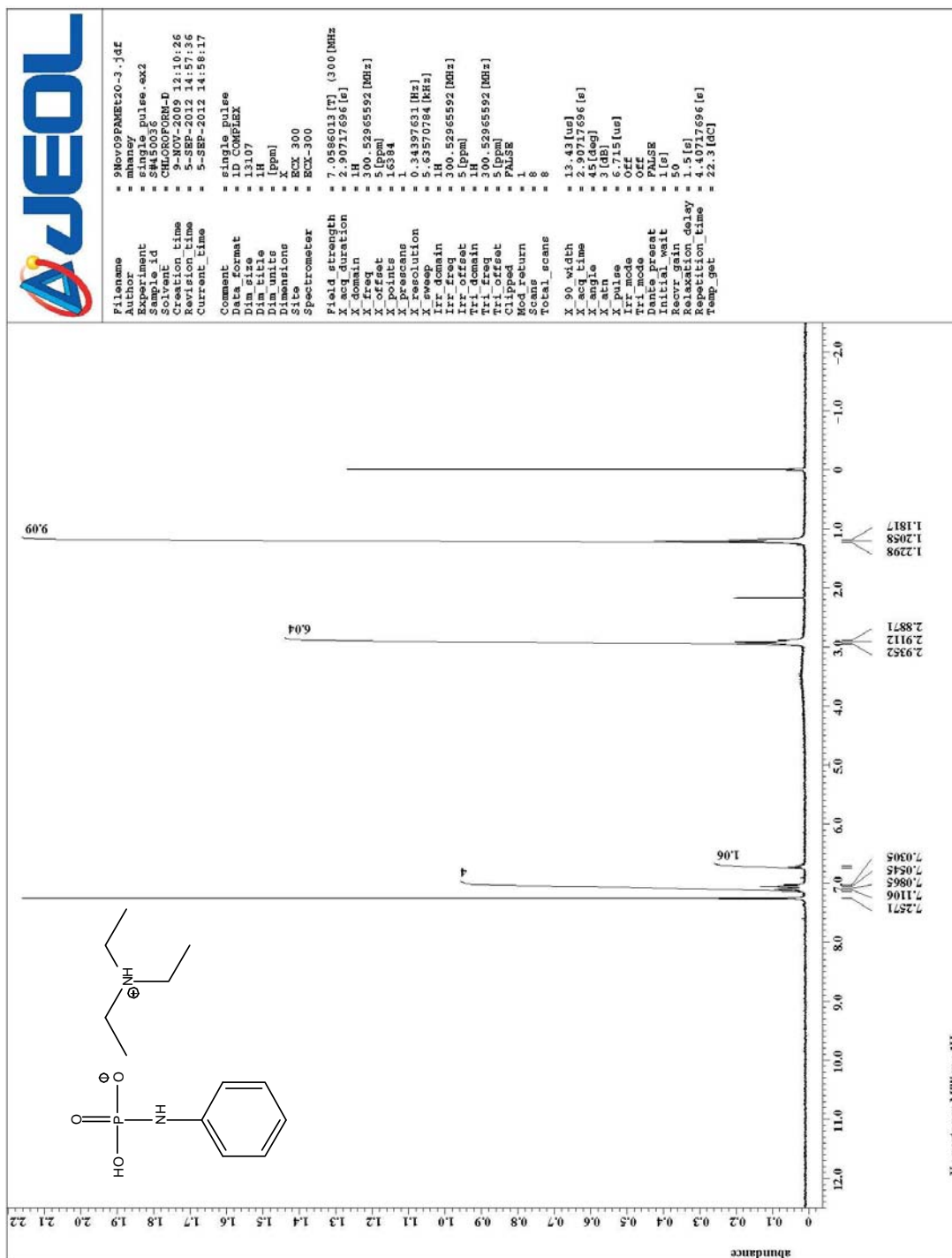A4. ^{31}P NMR spectrum of tri-benzyl phosphite.

A5. ^{31}P NMR spectrum of tribenzyl phosphite.

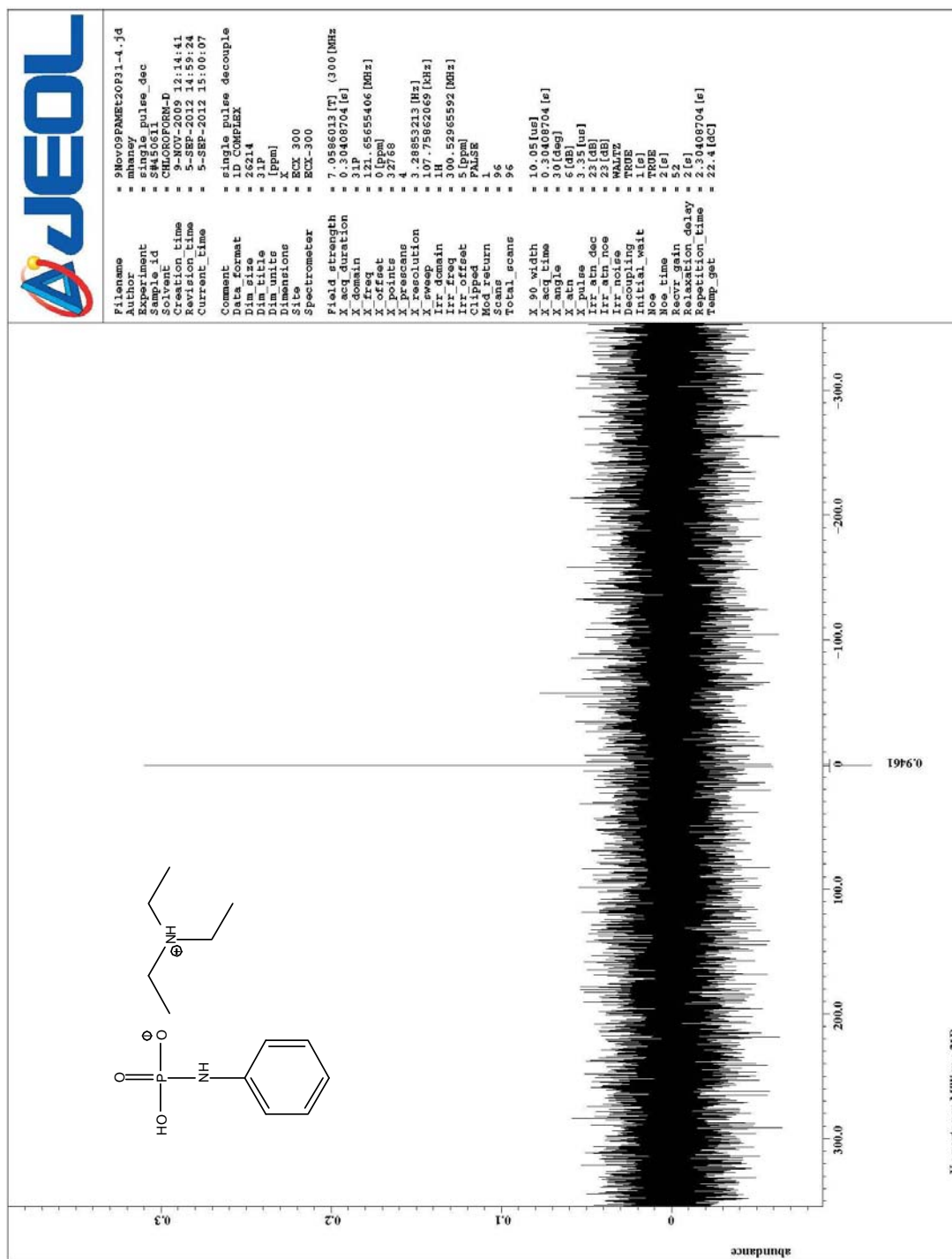A6. Proton NMR spectrum of dibenzyl *N*-phPAM.
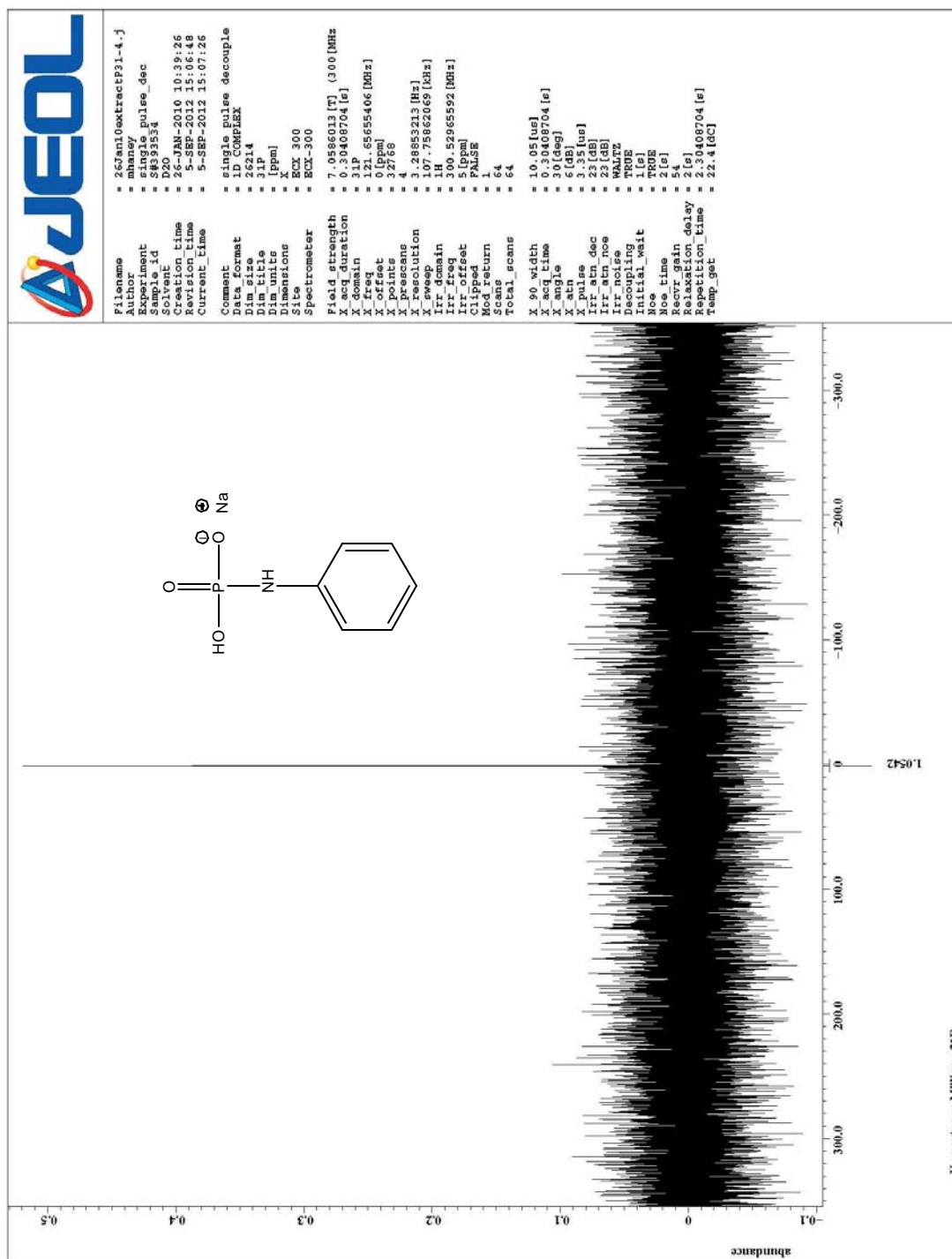
A7. Proton NMR spectrum of dibenzyl *N*-phPAM

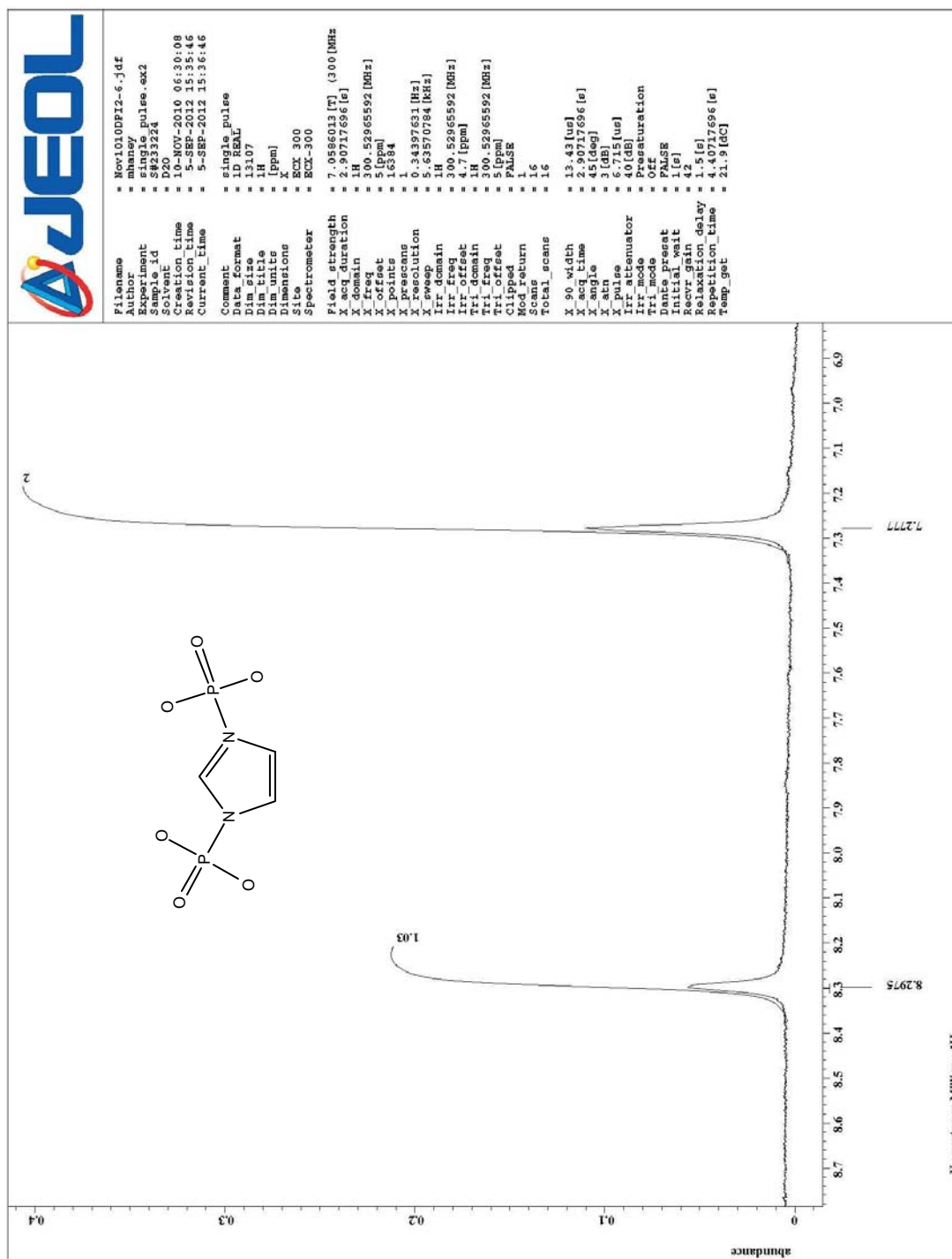A8. ^{31}P NMR spectrum of dibenzyl *N*-phPAM.

A9. Proton NMR spectrum of *N*-phPAM triethyl ammonium salt.
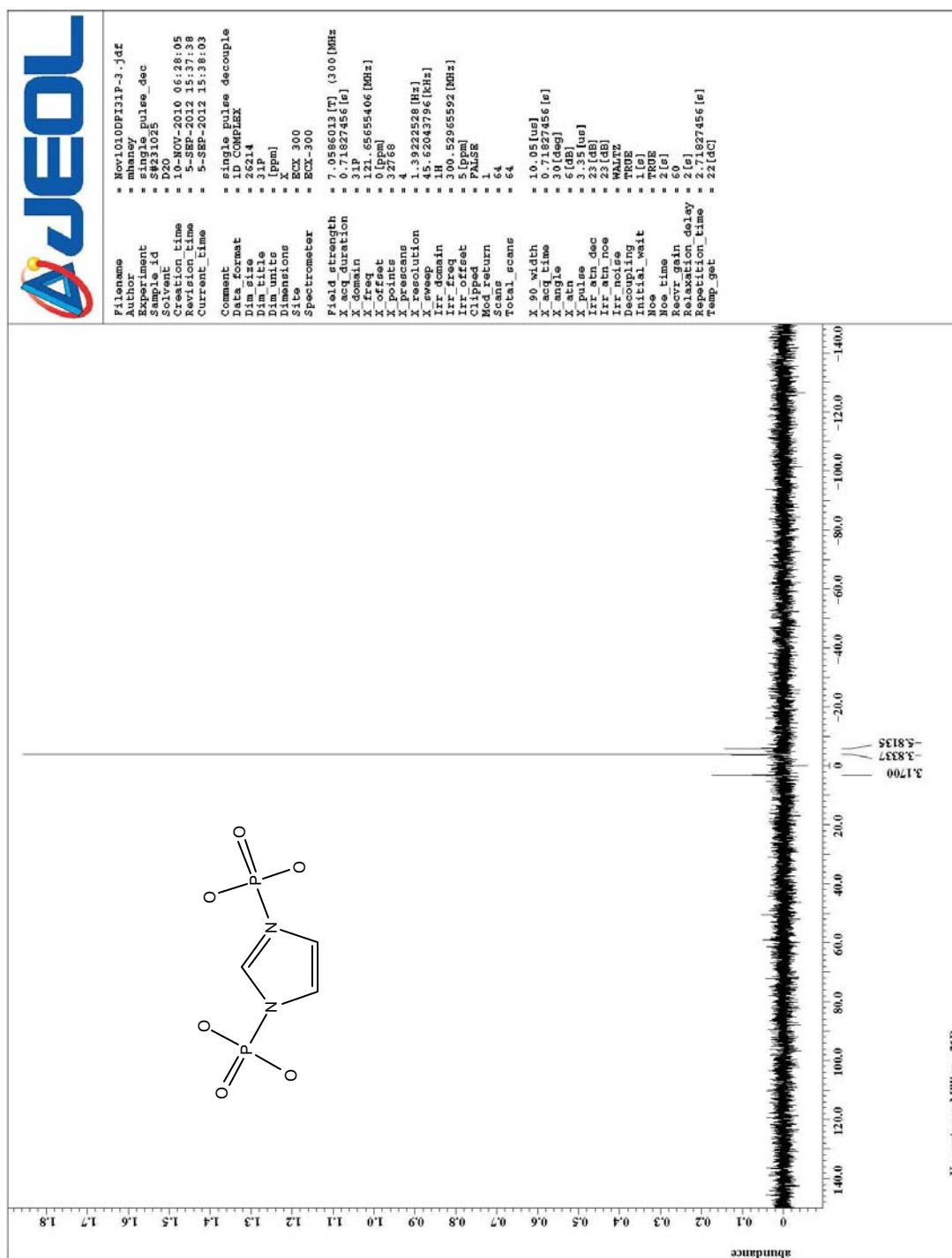
A10. ^{31}P NMR spectrum of *N*-phPAM triethyl ammonium salt.

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A11. Proton NMR spectrum of *N*-phPAM sodium salt.

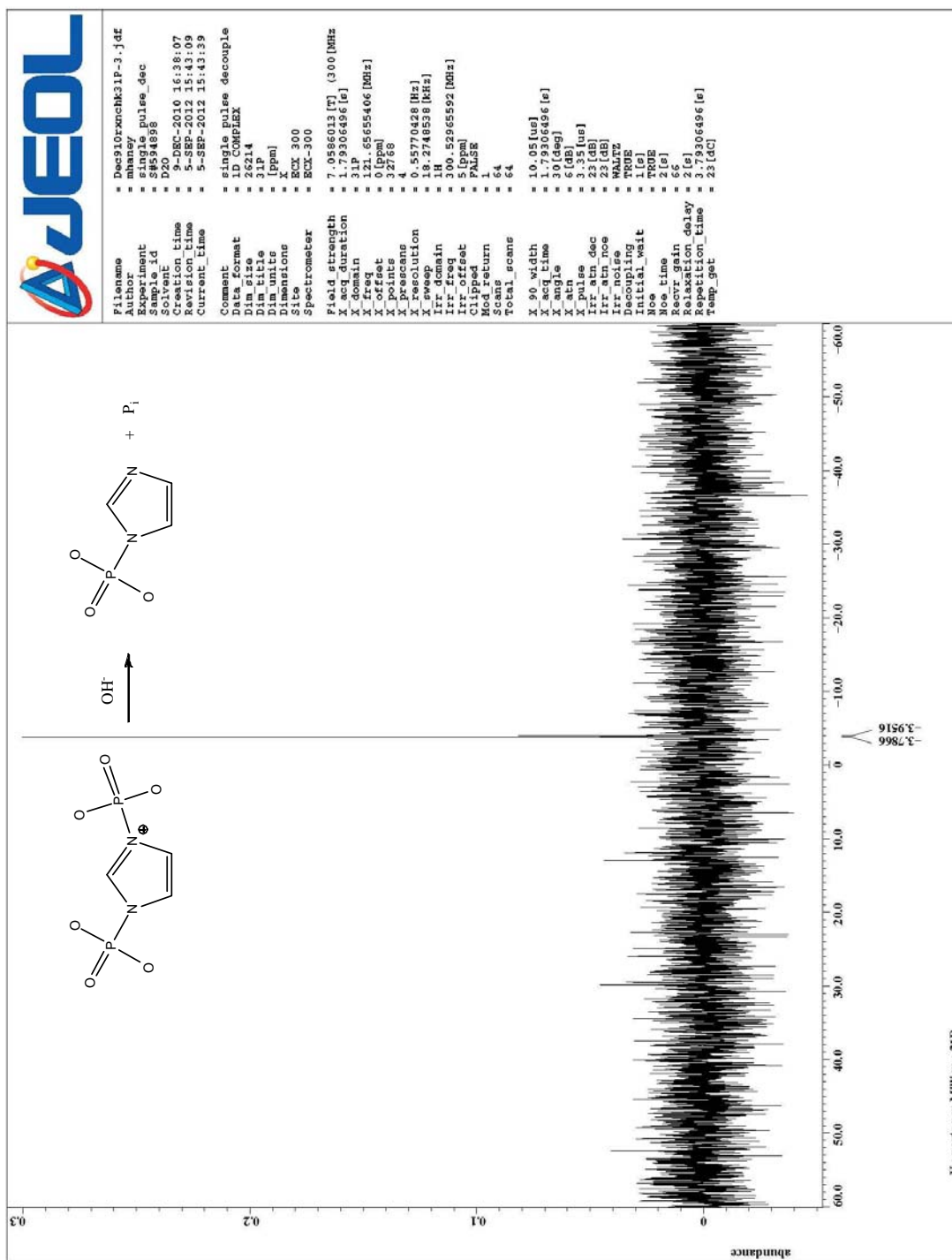A12. ^{31}P NMR spectrum of *N*-phPAM sodium salt.

A13. Proton NMR spectrum of di-phospho imidazole.

A14. ^{31}P NMR spectrum of di-phospho imidazole.

A15. Proton NMR spectrum showing the reaction of DPI to PIm.

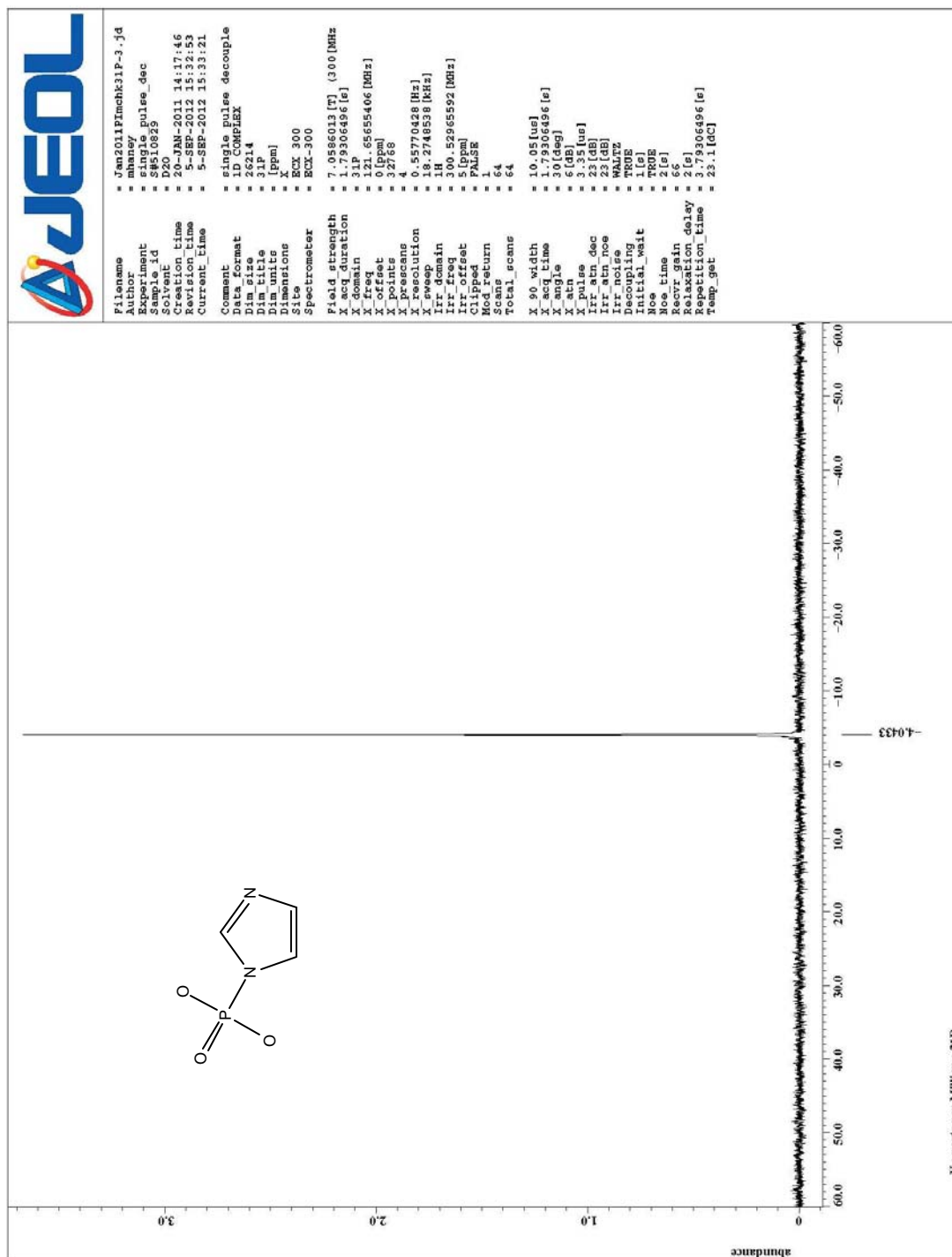A16. ^{31}P NMR spectrum showing the reaction of DPI to MPI.

A17. Proton NMR spectrum of imidazole.
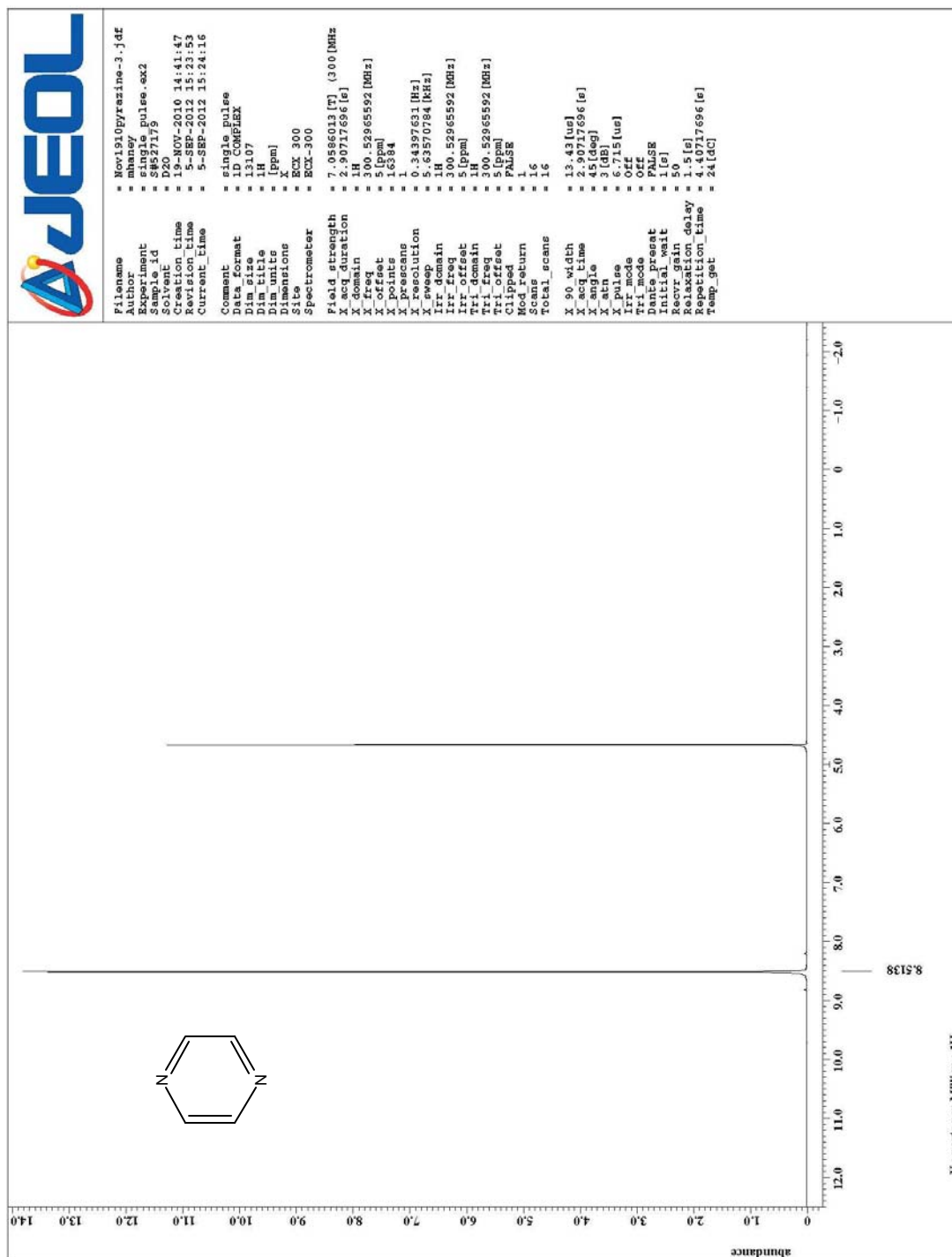
A18. Proton NMR spectrum of pyrazine.

A19. Proton NMR spectrum of PIm with pyrazine standard in coaxial tube.

A20. Proton NMR spectrum of PIm with pyrazine standard in coaxial tube.

A21. ^{31}P NMR spectrum of PIm.

Full Time-Course Kinetics

The inability to follow the hydrolysis of PIm by UV/Vis spectroscopy drove development of a full time-course analytical technique using NMR spectrometry. The disadvantage of following a full time-course is that it requires most, if not all of the initial substrate to be consumed for reliable mathematical analysis. Disadvantages of using NMR spectrometry to follow enzymatic reactions are the slow acquisition time and minimal concentration of substrate detectable by the instrument.

Full time-course assays using NMR were conducted using the following steps: 1) converting the calcium salt of PIm to the sodium salt; 2) determining the concentration of the stock PIm solution using a 0.1M pyrazine standard and NMR, while in the process adjusting instrument parameters for the subsequent enzymatic assay; 3) mixing a buffered solution of PIm; mixing enzyme with the buffered solution of PIm, placing this mixture in the NMR tube and placing a coaxial tube with pyrazine standard in the tube; 4) loading the instrument queue with duplicate experiments; 5) processing each spectra; and 6) inputting data from the processed spectra into a least-squares or simplex fitting program to determine V_{max}, K_M, and K_i. Each step is covered below.

PIm is isolated as the insoluble calcium salt. It is made soluble by exchanging the calcium for sodium with IRC 748 cation exchange resin (section **2.2.10**). Minor changes in incubation time with the resin or incubation temperature can affect the concentration of sodium PIm in solution. For this reason, the concentration of the PIm should be checked whenever a new stock solution is made (section **2.4.3.1**). Mixing an aliquot of the sodium PIm (Figures A19 and A20) with an aliquot of pyrazine of known concentration yields the concentration of PIm by integrating the relative proton signals (section **2.4.3.1**).

When integrating spectra, better accuracy is had by limiting the instrument's acquisition of proton signals to those of interest. Pyrazine, PIm, and imidazole have signals in the aromatic region, whereas water and buffer have no signals in the aromatic region. Water and buffer signals must be addressed before obtaining spectra.

The water signal will be much greater in intensity than the substrates. It should be suppressed with pre-saturation. After the sample with mixed pyrazine and PIm is placed in the instrument, an NMR experiment should be run with a sweep of from 9 to 0 ppm. The resultant spectrum should be processed to determine the shift of the water signal; it usually showed at 4.7 ppm but may vary based upon the instrument's shims. The water signal at the determined ppm was suppressed with pre-saturation at 35 decibels. While 35 decibels was used, the NMR manager should be consulted for the maximum suppression power to minimize risk to the instrument.

With the water signal suppressed, the buffer will still be in much greater concentration than the substrate and will obscure substrate signals. The instrument sweep and offset should be adjusted to show only the aromatic region which will mitigate interference of the buffer signals (section **2.4.3.1**). The x-points should be reduced since the sweep will be greatly reduced. Suppression of the water signal, adjustment of the sweep, offset, and x-points will change a spectrum of a pyrazine/PIm mixture from that shown in Figure A19 to that shown in Figure A20. At this point, the signals can be integrated and the concentration of the stock solution determined. The instrument's settings are now adjusted to conduct the enzymatic assays. The purity of the stock PIm solution may be ascertained at this point by obtaining a ^{31}P spectrum (Figure A21).

The instrument should be prepared for an enzymatic assay. The spinner should be turned off since the motion of the spinner may affect the enzyme. The time span between data points is adjusted changing the number of scans. For example, if each scan takes 5 seconds and an experiment is set for 30 scans, the experiment will take 150 seconds. With the spinner off and the time span adjusted, the instrument is ready for an enzymatic assay.

Stock PIm and buffer can be mixed in a small microcentrifuge tube. Enzyme can be added to the PIm/buffer mix, and the buffered solution placed into the NMR tube. A coaxial tube containing pyrazine is inserted into the NMR tube, the NMR tube is inserted into the instrument, and a series of duplicate NMR experiments are loaded into the queue to be run automatically.

The intensity of the pyrazine signal should neither obscure the PIm signals by being too great nor be obscured by the PIm signals by being too small (Figure A-19). The purpose of the pyrazine standard during an enzymatic assay is to provide a standard signal during the time-course. If the instrument's shimming should vary, the intensities of the signals will vary. Normalizing the PIm signals against the pyrazine signal accounts for any variation in the shims. If the PIm concentration needs to be increased or decreased, the pyrazine concentration in the coaxial tube may be increased or decreased. Since the pyrazine in the coaxial tube's purpose is to provide a normalized signal, it's concentration does not have to be known.

Spectra should be processed as NMR experiments from the queue are completed. The phase and baseline should be adjusted on each spectra. The substrate (PIm) signals

and product (imidazole) signals should be integrated against the pyrazine standard

(section **2.4.3.1**).

Since the initial concentration of PIm was known, each NMR experiment will

yield the concentration of PIm, or imidazole, at a specific time. Changes in concentration

of PIm, or imidazole, coupled with the time span between each NMR experiment will

give the observed velocity, V_{obs}. Upon addition of enzyme to the substrate hydrolysis

will begin immediately. The first data point will not be detected directly by the

instrument; the NMR tube holding the enzyme/substrate mixture will be in the

experimentalist's hand. But, the substrate concentration at the first point will be known

since stock solution of known concentration was used to make the buffered solution.

For the substrates used in this study, a 1 to 1 ratio of substrate to P_i is maintained

during an assay. Specifically, for each mole of PIm hydrolyzed, a mole of P_i is formed.

This allows use of the below equation which accounts for generation of inhibitor

concentration during the time-course..

$$V_{obs} = \frac{(V_{max})[S]}{K_M(1 + [I]/K_i) + [S]} \qquad (A1)$$

If the full time-course is followed using proton spectrometry concentrations of P_i

will not be directly detected. The instrument will provide the concentration of PIm, or

[S], at a given time point. Knowing the starting concentration of substrate, the

concentration of inhibitor, or P_i, is determined by $[I] = [S]_{initial} - [S]_{remaining}$. This assumes

P_i is not precipitating or otherwise being consumed.

Upon completion of a full time-course enzymatic assay monitored by NMR, V_{obs},

[S], and [I] at a series of time points are known. These data are then fitted to equation A1

using the program Micomath by Scientist to determine V_{max} and K_M. Fits during this study were completed using least squares. Simplex fitting was tried as well and gave the same results as least squares.

Fitting the data involved converting the time of the experiment from hr:min:sec to an elapsed ΔTime. This was done by assuming the first time period to be time $t = 0$. In Table A1 it can be seen that the time of the first experiment was 3:12:08 a.m. This was the first data point and was taken to be time $t = 0$. The initial concentration at time $t = 0$ was 3 mM PIm, 0 mM P_i, and the percent hydrolysis was 0. The data inputted into the spreadsheet were the hours, minutes, seconds, initial concentration of PIm, and concentration of PIm at the time point as determined by integration of the signal. Concentration of P_i was determined as indicated above.

Inputting data into Excel before fitting the data in Scientist by Micromath is necessary to convert the instrument's output time to ΔTime and to determine the concentration of PIm and P_i at each time point. Additionally, Excel will provide instant confirmation that curvature is shown in the resulting plot and that hydrolysis has proceeded to 90%.

A challenge in fitting the data to Equation A1 is having curvature to the plot. During the initial phases of an enzymatic reaction it may visually appear that the rate stays unchanged, even up to 50% or more of the reaction. Not only can the data (V_{obs} vs time, [S] vs time, or [I] vs time) appear linear over the time-course to the eye, the data can appear linear to the computer. If the algorithm does not have the expected curvature to the data it cannot properly fit the data. Error in V_{max} and/or K_M will be larger than that obtained values.

Table A1. Excel spreadsheet for the data entry of the hydrolysis of PIm by PAcP at pH

5.5.

| Time hr	min	sec	Δ Time (h:m:s)	Δ Time (min)	PIm Peak at 7.3	PIm Peak at 7.9	[PIm]	[Pi]	by [PIm] % Hydrolysis
3	12	8	192.13	0.00	1	0.47	0.003	0	0%
3	15	10	195.17	3.03	1	0.41	0.002617	0.000383	13%
3	18	10	198.17	6.03	1	0.39	0.002489	0.000511	17%
3	21	12	201.20	9.07	1	0.36	0.002298	0.000702	23%
3	24	13	204.22	12.08	1	0.31	0.001979	0.001021	34%
3	27	15	207.25	15.12	1	0.31	0.001979	0.001021	34%
3	30	16	210.27	18.13	1	0.28	0.001787	0.001213	40%
3	33	18	213.30	21.17	1	0.24	0.001532	0.001468	49%
3	36	18	216.30	24.17	1	0.25	0.001596	0.001404	47%
3	39	20	219.33	27.20	1	0.21	0.00134	0.00166	55%
3	42	21	222.35	30.22	1	0.19	0.001213	0.001787	60%
3	45	23	225.38	33.25	1	0.16	0.001021	0.001979	66%
3	48	25	228.42	36.28	1	0.17	0.001085	0.001915	64%
3	51	25	231.42	39.28	1	0.15	0.000957	0.002043	68%
3	54	27	234.45	42.32	1	0.14	0.000894	0.002106	70%
3	57	28	237.47	45.33	1	0.13	0.00083	0.00217	72%
4	0	30	240.50	48.37	1	0.13	0.00083	0.00217	72%
4	3	30	243.50	51.37	1	0.09845	0.000628	0.002372	79%
4	6	32	246.53	54.40	1	0.1	0.000638	0.002362	79%
4	9	33	249.55	57.42	1	0.1	0.000638	0.002362	79%
4	12	35	252.58	60.45	1	0.09586	0.000612	0.002388	80%
4	15	35	255.58	63.45	1	0.0706	0.000451	0.002549	85%
4	18	37	258.62	66.48	1	0.07124	0.000455	0.002545	85%
4	21	38	261.63	69.50	1	0.06547	0.000418	0.002582	86%
4	24	40	264.67	72.53	1	0.04949	0.000316	0.002684	89%
4	27	40	267.67	75.53	1	0.07169	0.000458	0.002542	85%
4	30	42	270.70	78.57	1	0.05319	0.00034	0.00266	89%
4	33	43	273.72	81.58	1	0.04319	0.000276	0.002724	91%
4	36	44	276.73	84.60	1	0.03854	0.000246	0.002754	92%
4	39	46	279.77	87.63	1	0.03266	0.000208	0.002792	93%
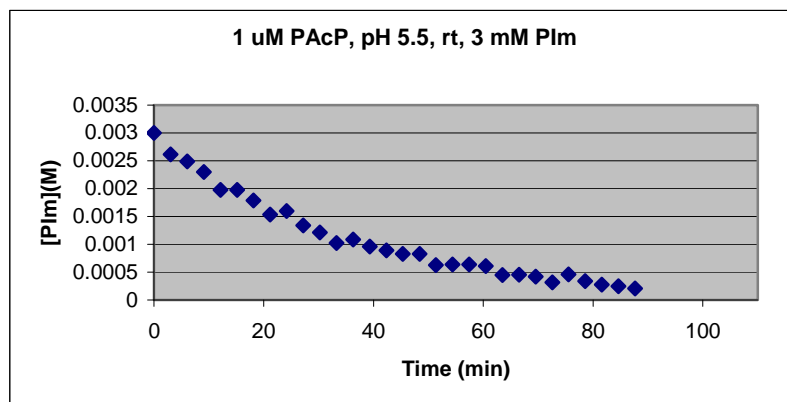
Figure A22. Plot of the data in Table A1. Curvature can be seen in the data.

Literature reports that if a time-course proceeds to 90% or more reliable data can be had.[1,2] This matches attempts herein to least-squares fit time-courses. Shorter time-courses may not display curvature. In nearly all cases attainment of 90% hydrolysis yields visible curvature and good fit of the data to the Michaelis-Menton equation with inhibition.

Experiments must be conducted with different concentrations of enzyme and substrate that yield curvature to the hydrolysis plot (Figure A22). Too little substrate concentration or too high an enzyme concentration and the reaction will be completed before enough data points are collected. Further, the rates between data points will be too great to represent instantaneous data points; no curvature will be seen (Figure A23).
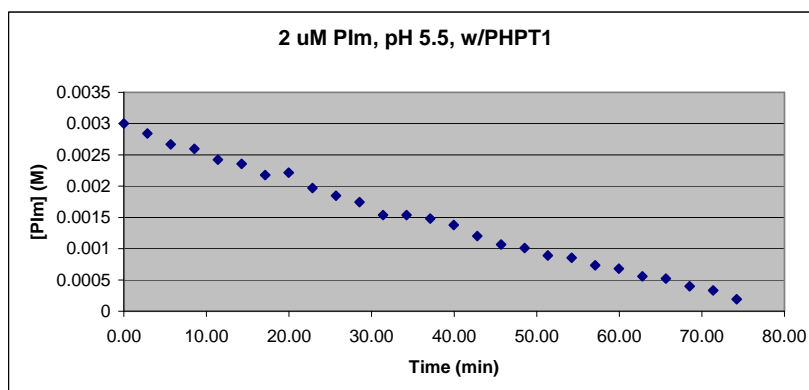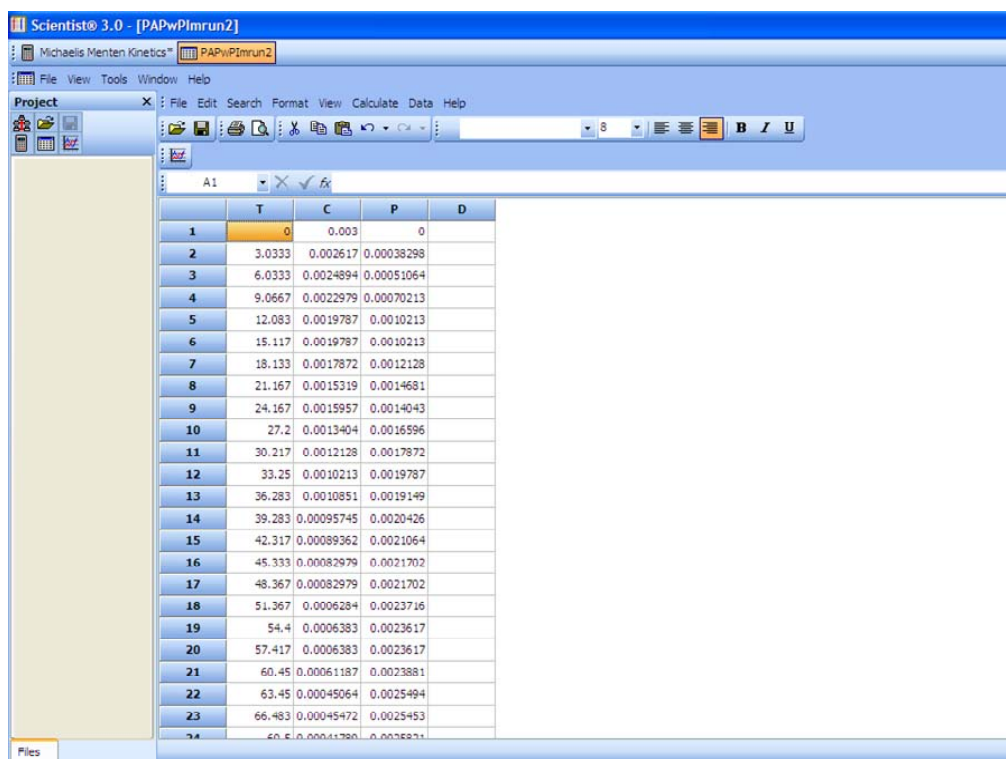
Figure A23. The hydrolysis of PIm by PHPT1 at pH 8.5. No curvature in seen in the plot. Enzyme concentration could be reduced or substrate concentration could be increased to create curvature.

For the enzymes used in this study, it was observed that hydrolysis proceeded rapidly until 50~70% consumption, whereupon the rate rapidly declined. Whereas 70% hydrolysis may be obtained in 30 minutes, the remaining 20% could take an hour. Issues of enzyme stability, instrument shimming, and instrument reservation time become important. Several experiments are necessary to find a suitable concentration of substrate and enzyme. Experience indicates that a full time-course reactions conducted by NMR can be completed in an hour to an hour and a half with curvature to the plot and 90% hydrolysis.

If the results of the NMR experiment meet the curvature and 90% hydrolysis requirements, data may be moved from Excel to Scientist. To do so, the Excel data is imported directly into a Scientist dataset (Figure A24). A mathematical model is entered (Figure A25). Scientist has mathematical models that may be obtained from the "model" menu; one of these models is the Michaelis-Menton equation. This model was used as the starting equation and was modified on the computer screen to equation A1, the

Figure A24. A dataset entered into Scientist. This data is that from Table A1.
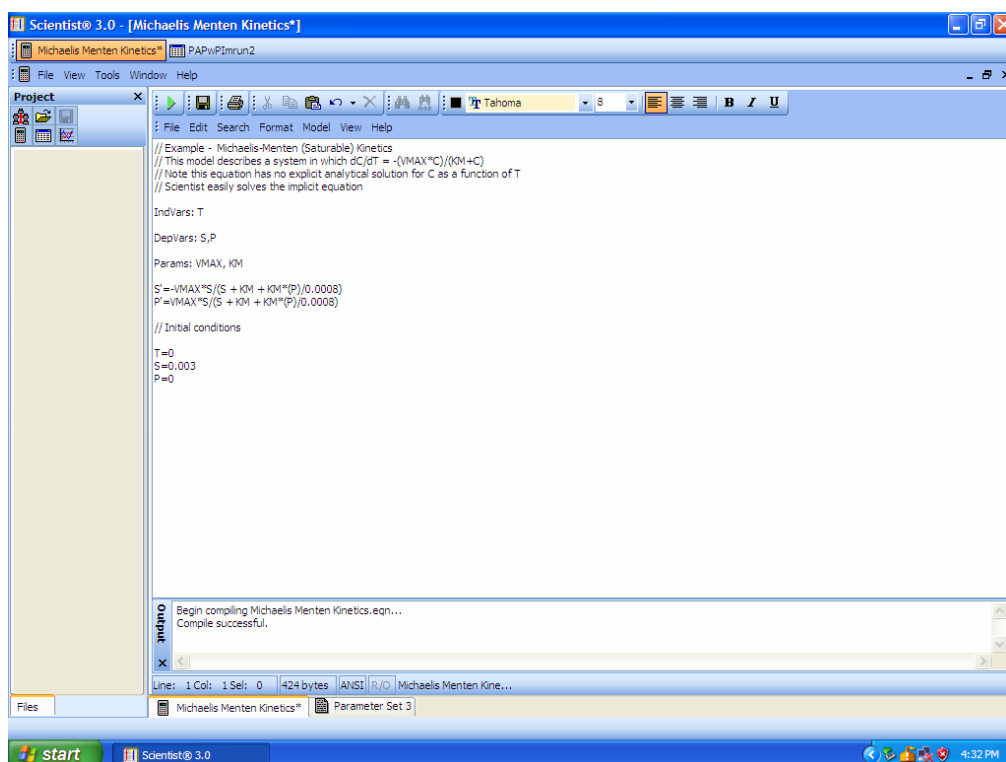

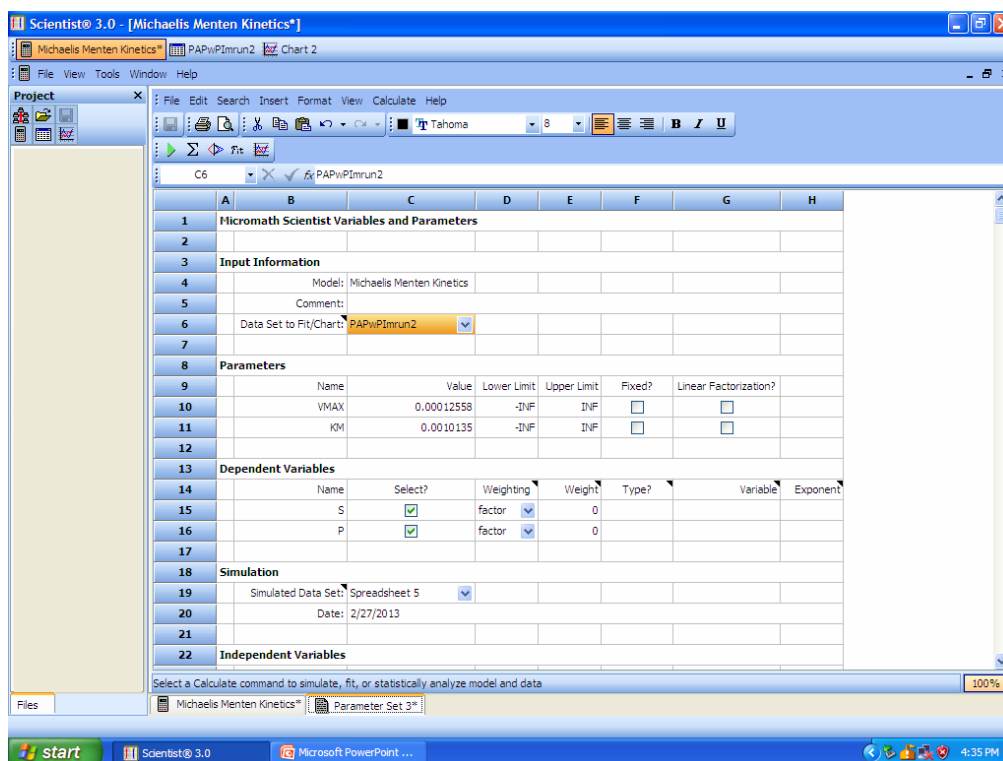Figure A25. A mathematical model inputted into Scientist.

Figure A26. A Scientist parameter set.

Michaelis-Menton equation with inhibition. A blank parameter set is generated using the

"New parameter set" command from the pull-down menu (Figure A26). Menus on the

parameter set link the parameter set to the data and the mathematical model. The

parameter set is "compiled" using the "compile" function from the pull-down menu,

followed by "least squares fitting" from the pull down menu. Micromath will then fit the

data from the menu and return values for the independent parameters, V_{max} and K_M.

Returning to Micromath's data spreadsheet will reveal the program's calculated values at

each data point based upon the fit (Figure A27). A chart may be generated in the

program to display the raw data and the fitted data (Figure A28).
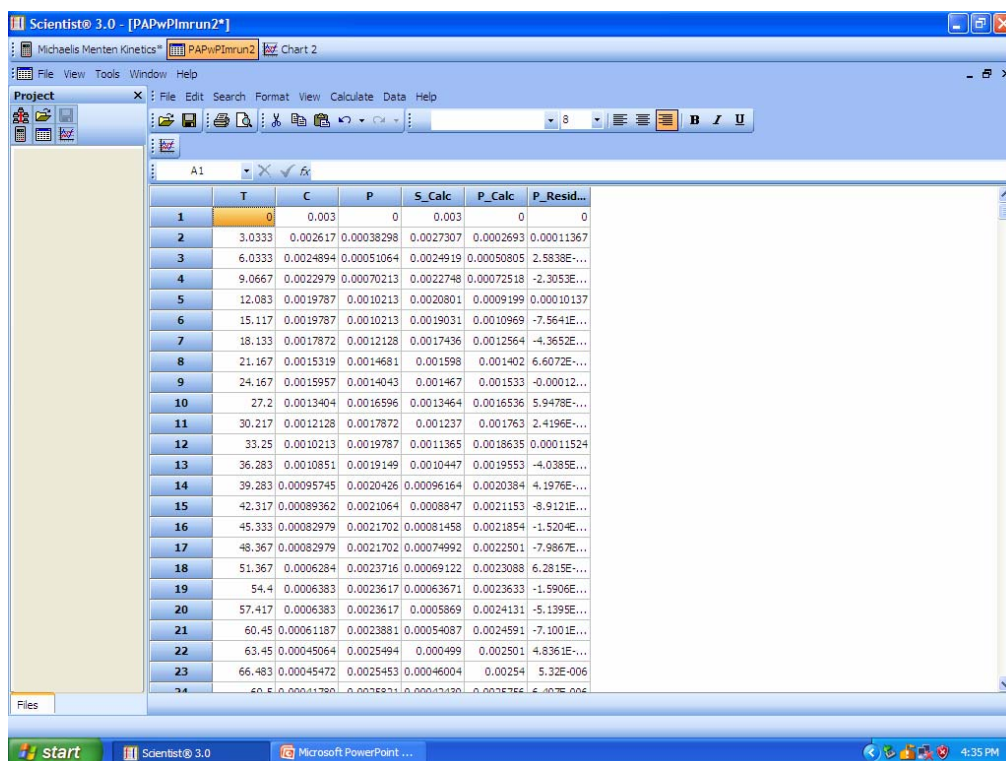
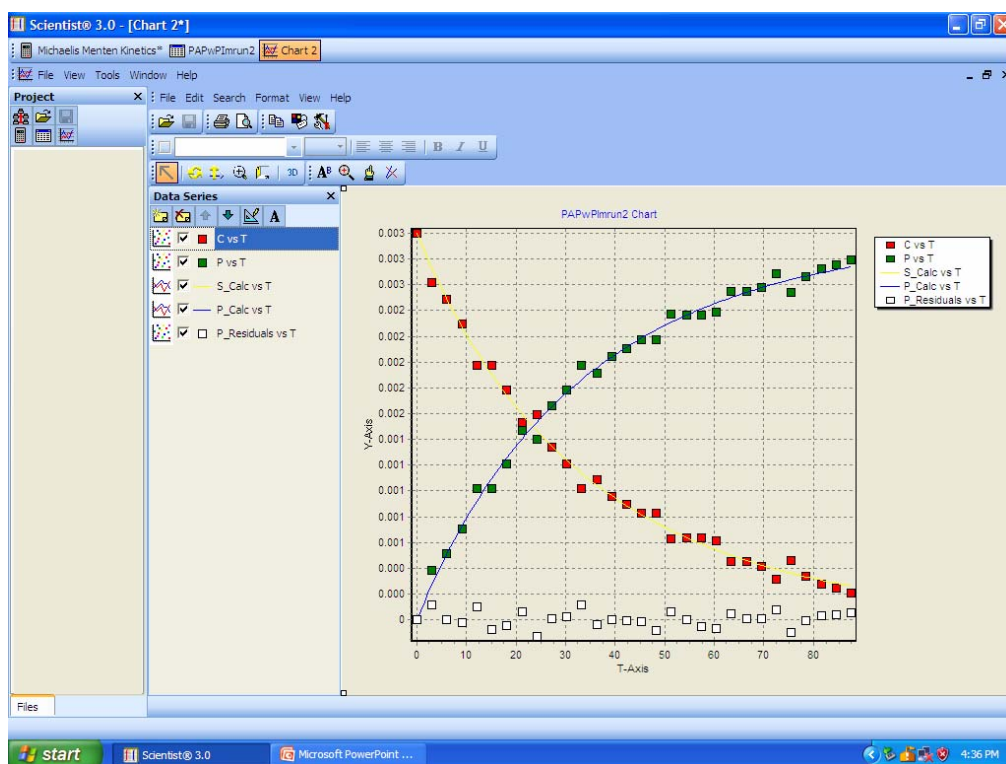Figure A27. The data spreadsheet will display calculated values.

Figure A28. A Micromath chart of the raw and fitted data.

The Scientist program was purchased from Micromath using funds from the Hengge Lab. Three licenses were purchased, two of which have been installed on desktop computers in the Hengge Lab. One key is unused at the time of this writing. Account information is: user name – Alvan Hengge; HWKEY – 1EC0-FB62; Key – 000015-W9JY7D-A2627V-93UZQD-RKETHQ-QT4UN1-ABA60M-0QUMXA-U1ETYC-K4UZ35. A manual for the program is available using the "Help" menu within the program.

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(2)   Duggleby, R. G.; Clarke, R. B. *Biochimica et Biophysica Acta* **1991**, *1080*, 231-236.

CURRICULUM VITAE

Mark P. Haney
2013

Curriculum Vitae.

Employment history: USMC, 1983-2003

Education:

    Undergraduate school:
    B.A., geology, University of Colorado at Boulder, Boulder, CO, 1992.

    Graduate school:
    Ph.D in chemistry, Utah State University, Logan, UT, 2013.
    Dissertation: The Phosphoramidase Competency of Prototypical Catalytic
    Phosphatase Motifs.

Teaching experience (2007-present):

Teaching assistant for 19 general chemistry recitations, Chem 1210 & 1220,
taught over 3 semesters.

Teaching assistant for 3 general chemistry labs, Chem 1215, taught during 1
semester.

Additionally, 3 labs are being taught in the current semester.

Teaching assistant for 4 organic chemistry labs, Chem 2315, taught over 2 semesters.

Taught organic chemistry lecture, Chem 2300, for two weeks while professor was
away, Fall 2012.

Currently developing broadcast course for Chem 1010, to be taught 3 Mar to 23 May.

Research skills:

- Organic synthesis
- Synthesis of organo-phosphorus compounds
- Characterization using NMR, UV/Vis, IR, HPLC
- Kinetic assays using NMR, UV/Vis, HPLC
- Able to operate NMR, UV/Vis, IR, HPLC
- Data analysis (least squares fitting using computer software)
- 3D computer modeling using PYMOL and Acclerys viewer pro

- Bacterial cell transformation, growth, and protein expression
- Protein preparation (cell lysis and purification using FPLC or protein precipitation)
- Able to choose appropriate column and operate FPLC

Laboratory skills:

- Inventory and manage storage of chemicals (MSDS, storage compatibility, etc.)
- Order chemicals and supplies
- Store and manage disposal of hazardous waste
- Service laboratory stills, high-vacuum pumps, heating/cooling baths, rotovaps, compressed gas tanks, etc.
- Fill NMR instruments with helium and nitrogen
- Maintain lab's safety program

Computer skills:

- Microsoft Word, Excel, Outlook
- PyMol
- Acclerys Design Studio
- Micromath by Scientist
- VisualEnzymics by SoftZymics
- KaleidaGraph by Synergy
- Agilent HPLC controller and processing software
- JEOL controller and processing software

Presentations:

Presented poster at American Society for Biochemistry and Molecular Biology, San Diego, 2012

Awards:

- USU Presidential Fellowship (2007-2008)
- Poster Award, Hansen Life Sciences Retreat (2012)
- Meritorious Service Medal, USMC (2003)

Professional Memberships:

Member of the American Chemical Society