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Studies on the structure, mechanism and protein engineering of *Bacillus subtilis* **pimeloyl-CoA synthetase (PCAS)**

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Abstract

Biotin is an essential vitamin in plants and mammals functioning as the carbon dioxide carrier within central lipid metabolism. Biotin is composed of a fused bicylic ring system and a five carbon, carboxylic acid chain. Biotin biosynthesis in bacteria is catalysed by a series of enzymes that use fatty acid, amino acid and sulfur-containing substrates. In *Bacillus subtilis*, pimeloyl-CoA synthetase (PCAS, EC 6.2.1.14, UNIPROT code: P53559, 29.6 kDa) is the first enzyme in the biotin biosynthetic pathway and acts as a highly specific substrate selection gate ensuring the integrity of the carbon chain in biotin synthesis. PCAS catalyses the synthesis of the key acyl-thioester, pimeloyl-CoA in two steps; the first involves activation of pimelic acid (C7 dicarboxylic acid) using ATP to give an acyl-adenylate, enzyme-bound intermediate and pyrophosphate (PPi), and in the second step, this pimeloyl-adenylate reacts with coenzyme A (CoASH) to form the pimeloyl-CoA thioester. This thesis describes the results of biochemical, structural and mechanistic studies of *B. subtilis* PCAS. Recombinant PCAS was prepared by expressing the *B. subtilis BioW* gene in *E. coli* in various hexa-histidine affinity-tagged forms and the enzyme purified in high purity and yield. Enzyme activity and kinetic constants were measured using reverse-phase HPLC and enzyme coupled spectroscopic assays. These revealed the enzyme to have a strict carboxylic acid specificity. In collaboration with colleagues at the University of St. Andrews various commercial and in-house screens were used to obtain diffraction-quality crystals suitable for X-ray crystallography. This also included the generation of seleno-methionine (SeMet) labelled PCAS, as well as heavy-metal derivatives. Structures of *B. subtilis* PCAS in complex with the substrate pimelic acid and the pimeloyl-adenylate intermediate and product PP_i were determined at 2.04 Å and 2.34 Å resolution respectively. The *B. subtilis* PCAS displays a novel 3D fold and defines a new class (Class IV) in the ANL superfamily of adenylate forming enzymes. The enzyme is a homodimer composed of two domains, a short N-terminus and a large C-terminal domain and the ligand-bound structures revealed the residues potentially involved in substrate specificity and enzyme catalysis. The enzyme uses an internal ruler composed of a number of conserved arginine residues (Arg213, Arg227 and Arg170) to select the correct dicarboxylic acid substrate. The X-ray structures guided the production of a number of site directed mutants to identify residues involved in the catalytic mechanism and stabilising the acyl-adenylate intermediate. This also allowed rational engineering of the PCAS active site to generate mutants with altered substrate specificity. Mutant PCAS Y211F was shown to synthesise both heptanoyl (C7) and octanoyl (C8) mono carboxylic acid-CoA and C8 dicarboxylic-CoA thioester products, highlighting the synthetic potential of PCAS.

The PCAS pimeloyl-CoA product is the substrate for the next enzyme in the biotin pathway, a pyridoxal 5"phosphate (PLP)-dependent 8-amino 7-oxononanoate synthase (AONS). AONS catalyses the condensation of pimeloyl-CoA with L-alanine to give AON which is converted to biotin by the action of three other enzymes. We used genome mining to identify a putative ~66 kDa, bi-functional PCAS/AONS enzyme with an N-terminal PCAS domain fused to C-terminal AONS domain in the organism *Corynebacterium amycolatum*. A recombinant *C. amycolatum* PCAS/AONS fusion protein was expressed and purified from *E. coli* and initial studies suggest that it forms a functional, fused, dimeric enzyme.

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Declaration

I, Menglu Wang, hereby certify that this thesis has been completed by myself, and that it is a record of my work, and that it has not been accepted in partial or complete fulfilment of any other degree or professional qualification.

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Abbreviations

Chapter I. Introduction

1.1 Discovery of biotin

Biotin (5-[(3aS,4S,6aR)-2-oxohexahydro-1H-thieno [3,4-*d*] imidazol-4-yl] pentanoic acid, $C_{10}H_{16}N_2O_3S$, **Fig. 1.1**), also known as coenzyme R, vitamin H or vitamin B7, plays an essential role in the anabolism of fatty acids, where it acts as an important carbon dioxide-carrying cofactor within large enzyme complexes such as acetyl-CoA carboxylase (ACC). ACC catalyses the carboxylation of acetyl-CoA to form malonyl-CoA in the first step of fatty acid biosynthesis 1 .

Fig. 1.1 This shows the structure of biotin, how it is attached to a specific lysine residue of its cognate biotinylated (holo-form) of a biotin-dependent enzyme (e.g. ACC) and carries the $CO₂$ moiety on the N8 atom of the ureido ring.

In recent years, new roles for biotin in cell signalling, chromatin structure and gene expression have been discovered 2 . While biotin is required by all three domains of life, it can only synthesised *de novo* by bacteria, yeast and certain higher plants, mammals intake biotin from the diet. This provides a feasible way to develop novel antibiotics and herbicides by targeting enzymes involved in the biotin biosynthesis. For example, plumbagin (5-hydroxy- 2-methyl-1,4-naphthoquinone), which is an inhibitor of *Arabidopsis thaliana* [8-amino-7-oxononanoate synthase](http://xueshu.baidu.com/s?wd=paperuri%3A%28815ffe0649c218aa6bbc5b7fec26932c%29&filter=sc_long_sign&tn=SE_xueshusource_2kduw22v&sc_vurl=http%3A%2F%2Fwww.sciencedirect.com%2Fscience%2Farticle%2Fpii%2FS0048357512000569&ie=utf-8&sc_us=4952197923842685343) (AONS), has been identified as a herbicide in certain plants³. In humans, biotin deficiency causes illnesses including periorificial dermatitis, alopecia, seizures and developmental delay in children etc. and also has adverse effects on immune functions and cell stress 4 , but it usually remedied by biotin supplementation. Biotechnological applications of biotin are based around its avidin complex, one of the strongest non-covalent interactions known. Biotin conjugated to biomolecules *in vitro* and *in vivo* can be used to isolate proteins, DNA and cell surfaces ^{5, 6}.

Biotin was first discovered by Wilders in 1901 $⁷$ and was associated with different</sup> names in the following years 8 including protective factor X 9 and vitamin H 10 which was isolated from egg-white as a curative factor, coenzyme R from rhizobia as a growth factor 11 and biotin from yeast 12 . Until 1942, Vigneaud was first determined its chemical structure and by this the identity of biotin becomes clear 13 , later the synthesis of biotin was accomplished in $1943¹⁴$. Biotin is comprised of a valeric acid attached to a bicyclic ring as shown in Fig. $1.1¹⁵$. The bicyclic ring consists of a planar ureido ring fused to an envelope conformation tetrathiophene ring. Biotin is covalently attached to its cognate biotin-dependent protein in a reaction catalyzed by the enzyme biotin protein ligase (BPL) ¹⁶ via an amide bond between its carboxyl

group and the -amino group of a specific lysine in the conserved 70-80 residues domain of the biotin-dependent protein $5,17$. The N8 nitrogen atom on the ureido ring carries carbon dioxide and forms N-carboxybiotin $^{18, 19}$ as shown in **Fig. 1.1**.

1.2 Pathways of microbial biotin biosynthesis

Biotin possesses two fused rings (ureido and thiophane) whose carbon skeleton derives from pimelic acid which is an α, ω-dicarboxylic acid composed of seven carbons. Pimelic acid is quite unusual because natural fatty acid biosynthesis pathways mainly generates even numbered carbon chains of fatty acids such as palmitic acid (C16)²⁰. In fact, the derivatives of pimelic acid are best known in the lysine biosynthetic pathway⁵. The origin of the pimelic acid varies across bacterial species and it has been found in various forms: as a free di-acid, a mono-methyl ester, as well as being transformed into a pimeloyl thioester derivative attached to either coenzyme A (CoASH) or acyl carrier protein (ACP) ⁶. It is this pimeloyl thioester that is condensed with L-alanine by the 8-amino-7-oxononanoate synthase (AONS, *BioF* gene product) to begin the late stages of biotin biosynthesis $2^{1,22}$. The genes encoding the enzymes of biotin biosynthesis are often found co-expressed as operons $2^{1,22}$.

As summarised in **Fig. 1.2**, biotin biosynthesis pathway can be easily divided into two stages: (1) synthesis of the pimelate thioester through the BioC-BioH pathway of *Escherichia coli* (details shown in **Section 1.2.1**) or BioI-BioW pathway of *Bacillus subtilis* (**Section 1.2.2**), and (2) assembly of the bicyclic rings (**Section 1.2.3**).

Fig. 1.2 This shows the proposed biotin biosynthesis pathway in various microbes. The pimeloyl thioester is first synthesised through either the *E. coli* BioC-BioH pathway or the *B. subtilis* BioI-BioW pathway, and then used as an

important building block for the bicyclic ring assembly step of biotin. Then biotin is attached to biotin-dependent protein and carries $CO₂$. (SAM=S-adenosyl-L-methionine, SAH=S-adenosylhomocysteine, AMTOD= S-adenosyl-2-oxo-4-thiomethylbutyrate, 5'-DOA=5'-deoxyadenosine).

1.2.1 The BioC-BioH pathway of *E. coli*

The organism *E. coli* was the model microorganism in which most of the early biosynthetic work was done to characterise any chemical intermediates involved, isolate the enzymes that catalyse their conversion and clone the genes that encoded each enzyme. In 1968, Eisenberg found that *E. coli* ΔbioC and ΔbioH mutation strains require biotin for cell growth, moreover, detectable cell growth could also be observed by adding 8-amino-7-oxononanoate (AON, also known as 7-keto-8-aminopelargonic acid, KAPA) or any later intermediates of the biotin biosynthesis pathway to the growth media 23 . This indicated that both the BioC and BioH gene products could be involved in the synthesis of the pimelate thioester which is an essential substrate for AONS reaction. Also, the lack of isolatable pathway intermediate suggested that the possibility of these pathway intermediates being protein bound 24 .

In the following years, Lemoine proposed that BioC involves in the synthesis of pimeloyl-CoA or the condensation of malonyl-CoA 25 , Akatsuk thought BioH catalyses the reaction which transferred pimeloyl from BioC to CoASH 26 , whereas Sanishvili hypothesized BioH is a pimeloyl-CoA synthetase and together with BioC,

it can catalyse the reaction which attaches the C7 pimelic acid onto CoASH 27 . However, all these models failed to explain the details about how the α , ω -dicarboxylic acyl chain is assembled by BioC and BioH. In recent years, this biosynthetic "enigma" was resolved; a more acceptable model was put forward by Cronan, he proposed that the pimeloyl-ACP thioester is produced from acetyl-CoA and malonyl-CoA by an ingenious modification of the classic fatty acid pathway in *E. coli* and in effect, two enzymes from the biotin pathway, BioC (a methyl transferase) and BioH (an esterase) "hijack" fatty acid biosynthesis by methylating malonyl-ACP then extending it through two rounds of the fatty acid synthase cycle $5,28$. As shown in **Fig. 1.3**, the initial step of the BioC-BioH branch of the pathway involves the BioC-catalysed transfer of the methyl group from SAM onto the ω-carboxyl group of a malonyl-CoA to form a malonyl-CoA methyl ester; this methyl ester is then transferred to the ACP of the fatty acid synthase (FAS) complex and the pimeloyl-CoA methyl ester is produced through two fatty acid chain elongation steps. Finally the methyl group is hydrolysed by BioH to produce pimeloyl-ACP which can then act as a substrate for AONS directly.

Fig. 1.3 The proposed BioC-BioH branch of the biotin biosynthetic pathway in *E. coli*

for pimeloyl-ACP synthesis contains three main steps: initiation, chain elongation by

fatty acid synthesis and termination. $(SAM = S-adenosyl-L-methionine, SAH =$ S-adenosylhomocysteine).

1.2.2 The BioI-BioW pathway of *B. subtilis*

In contrast to the pathway in *E. coli* where fatty acid biosynthesis is hijacked, in *Bacillus subtilis* pimelic acid is generated by the oxidative cleavage of longer fatty acids catalysed by BioI 29 as shown in **Fig. 1.4**. BioI, an cytochrome P450 (CYP) enzyme, catalyses the oxidative carbon-carbon bond cleavage of acyl thioesters with chain lengths of 10-20 carbons between carbons 7 and 8 (Fig. 1.4) 30 . BioI uses the cysteine-ligated heme to activate O_2 to form one equivalent of the highly reactive iron (V)-oxo species and a water molecule. The two electrons required for the oxygen activation are derived from $NAD(P)H³¹$. The general reaction can be written as follows:

$$
RH + O_2 + NAD(P)H + H^+ \longrightarrow ROH + H_2O + NAD(P)^+
$$

There are three main steps involved in the BioI pathway: (1) the initial monohydroxylation step at carbon 7 position 3^2 , (2) the monohydroxylation step at carbon 8 resulting in a dihydroxylated, and (3) the final oxidation step involving in the cleavage of the C7-C8 bond which produces two carboxylic acids (**Fig. 1.4**). One acid is the C7 pimeloyl-ACP which is then used for biotin assembly by AONS; while another will vary in carbon chain length depending on the substrate but will always contains odd number of carbons.

Fig. 1.4 The three oxidation steps of the P450 enzyme BioI generates pimeloy-ACP as suggested by Cryle et al 33 .

The regiospecificity of BioI oxidative cleavage of fatty acyl-ACPs is attributed to (1) the geometry of BioI active site and (2) enzyme/ACP interaction. The crystal structure of BioI/acyl-ACP complexes (as **Fig. 1.5**) reveals that the acyl chain together with the 4"-PPant group is inserted into the U-shaped substrate pocket with C7-C8 positioned at the bend of the "U" above the active site heme, and ACP is bound to the BioI surface 34 . The U-shaped cavity extends beyond the heme to accommodate different length of the fatty acyl chains.

Fig. 1.5 The crystal structure of *B. Subtilis* BioI in complex with *E. coli* hexadec-9Z-enoyl-ACP (PDB code: 3EJD)³⁴, heme group is in red, fatty acyl chain in cyan, 4'-PPant group as green stick and ACP as green carton, BioI enzyme is in grey.

In *B. subtilis*, as well as formation of pimeloyl-ACP, the synthesis of pimeloyl-CoA, the alternative acyl-thioester substrate for AONS, is catalysed by the enzyme pimeloyl-CoA synthetase (PCAS, *BioW* gene product). PCAS uses the free C7 di-acid as a substrate and MgATP to generate a pimeloyl-adenylate intermediate which subsequently reacts with CoASH to give the acyl-CoA thioester product. The details of PCAS will be discussed in **Section 1.4**.

1.2.3 Ring assembly

As shown in Fig. 1.6⁵, a key early step in ring assembly step requires the decarboxylative condensation of two components: L-alanine and a thioester activated form of pimelic acid (either a pimeloyl-CoA or pimeloyl-ACP thioester). This 8-amino-7-oxononanoate synthase (AONS, the *bioF* gene product) catalysed reaction generates the nine carbon AON intermediate and is highly conserved across most bacterial species, as are the latter stages of the construction of the two rings of biotin from AON. Then the fused bicyclic structure is formed in the latter conserved three steps of the biotin biosynthetic pathway involved in (1) the initial reaction that converts ketone to amine using S-adenosyl-L-methionine (SAM) as the amine source which catalysed by 7, 8-diaminononanoate synthase (DANS, *bioA* gene product), (2) an ATP dependant reaction inserts a carbonyl group between the amines of 7,8-diaminononanoic acid to produce a five-membered ring which catalysed by dethiobiotin synthase (DTBS, *bioD* gene product) and (3) the final biotin synthase (BS, *bioB* gene product)-catalysed reaction that converts dethiobiotin to biotin using two S-adenosyl methionine (SAM) is a member of the radical SAM-dependent enzyme superfamily.

Fig. 1.6 The second step of biotin biosynthesis that is conserved in all biotin producing organisms. It is composed of four reactions involved in 8-amino-7-oxononanoate synthase (AONS, BioF), 7,8-diaminononanoate synthase (DANS, BioA), dethiobiotin synthase (DTBS, BioD) and biotin synthase (BS, BioB) to form the bicyclic rings of biotin. A pimelate thioester acts as a precursor to provide the biotin carbon backbone. (AMTOD $=$ S-adenosyl-2-oxo-4-thiomethylbutyrate, 5'-DOA = 5'-deoxyadenosine, SAM = S-adenosyl-L-methionine,)

1.2.4 Structural information of enzymes involved in biotin biosynthesis

Until now, the structural information of nearly all of the enzymes in the biotin biosynthesis pathway is available in protein Data Bank (PDB) except the methyl-transferase BioC and pimeloyl-CoA synthetase (PCAS, BioW) (**Table 1.1** and **Fig. 1.7**).

Table 1.1 Structural information of enzymes involved in biotin biosynthesis

Fig. 1.7 X-ray structures of enzymes from the biotin biosynthetic enzymes **A)** *Shigella flexneri* BioH in complex with ACP (grey cartoon) and the phosphopantetheine-linked pimeloyl-methyl ester (grey spheres, PDB code: 4ETW ³⁵). **B)** *B. subtilis* BioI in complex with ACP, phosphopantetheine-linked fatty acid (shown in grey) and heme (in red, PDB code: 3EJE ³⁴). **C)** *E. coli* DANS in complex with cofactor PLP and substrate AON (AON, spheres with carbon atoms colored yellow, PDB code: 1QJ3 ³⁶). **D)** *Helicobacter pylori*

DTBS in complex with ATP (PDB code: 3MLE ³⁷). **E)** *E. coli* biotin synthase in complex with substrate dethiobiotin, S-adenosyl-L-methionine (SAM), clusters $Fe₄S₄$ and $Fe₂S₂$ (shown as blue/red/yellow spheres, PDB code: 3MLE 38).

1.3 8-amino-7-oxononanoate synthase (AONS, BioF)

1.3.1 Introduction of AONS

8-amino-7-oxononanoate synthase (also known as 7-keto-8-aminopelargonic acid, AONS, EC 2.1.3.47, *BioF* gene product) catalyses the condensation of pimeloyl-CoA with L-alanine to produce 8-amino-7-oxononanoate (AON) in the first committed step of biotin biosynthesis. In 1998, Alexeev and colleagues in Edinburgh resolved the X-ray crystal structures of the pyridoxal 5"-phosphate (PLP) bound form of *E. coli* AONS (PDB code: 1BS0), which showed great homology with other PLP-dependent enzymes ³⁹. As shown in **Fig. 1.8 A**, AONS presents as a symmetric homodimer, each monomer composes of three domains: N-terminal, central and C-terminal. Residue Lys 236 is the conserved, active site lysine that forms the internal aldimine with PLP cofactor. The amino acid sequence alignment between AONS and other members of the α -oxoamine synthase (AOS) family such as the catalytic domain of human erythroid5-aminolevulinatesynthase (ALAS), serine palmitoyl transferase (SPT) and the 2-amino-3-oxobutyrateCoA ligase (AKB or KBL) shows the active site residues to be highly conserved ³⁹. In 2000, Webster reported the structure of *E. coli* AONS in complex with the product AON in the form of a PLP:AON external aldimine (PDB

code: 1DJ9) 22 . As shown in **Fig. 1.8 B**, the terminal carboxylate of AON interacts with Arg21 which locates in the N-terminal domain of AONS.

Fig. 1.8 X-ray crystal structures of **A)** the dimer of *E. coli* AONS, one monomer in green, one in blue, PLP cofactor is shown as spheres with carbon atoms colored yellow (PDB code: 1DTY); **B)** Conserved active site residues of AONS (in blue) bind to the PLP:AON product (in green) (PDB code: $1DJ9$) 22 .

Along with the structural study, the *K^M* values for substrates pimeloyl-CoA and L-alanine of *E. coli* AONS were also reported by Webster²² using the DTNB (5,5"-dithiobis(2-nitrobenzoic acid)) assay that monitors the release of the free thiol of CoASH. The K_M for pimeloyl-CoA and L-alanine was found to be 25 ± 2 µM and 0.50 ± 0.04 mM respectively.

1.3.2 Proposed mechanism of AONS

The mechanism of AONS is consistent with other PLP-dependent enzymes. As shown in **Fig. 1.9**, a conserved lysine residue (Lys 236) of AONS firstly reacts with the PLP cofactor to form an internal aldimine **(I)**. The binding of L-alanine displaces Lys 236 to form an external aldimine complex **(II)** which is relatively stable and deprotonation only happens in the presence of the second substrate, pimeloyl-CoA. The formation of this external aldimine complex causes the increase in the absorbance at 425nm, thus it allows the K_d of L-alanine with AONS to be measured. The binding of pimeloyl-CoA then leads to rotation of the external aldimine complex about the $C\alpha$, thus forming the Dunathan intermediate **(III)**. The conserved Lys 236 acts as a base to deprotonate the external aldimine complex, causing the formation of a quinonoid intermediate **(IV)**. Next a Claisen condensation happens between the quinonoid and pimeloyl-CoA to form the β-ketoacid intermediate **(V)** and release of CoASH. The β-ketoacid intermediate then undergoes a decarboxylation reaction to form the quinonoid **(VI)**, which is protonated after then to produce the external aldimine **(VII**). Finally, the

product AON is released from the enzyme and along with that, the internal aldimine **(I)** is regenerated.

Fig. 1.9 Proposed catalytic mechanism of enzyme AONS from Webster et al ²². L-alanine is in red, pimeloyl-CoA is in green, enzyme amino acids in blue, PLP cofactor is in black.
1.4 Pimeloyl-CoA synthetase (PCAS,**BioW)**

1.4.1 Introduction of PCAS

Pimeloyl-CoA synthetase (also known as 6-carboxyhexanoate-CoA ligase and pimeloyl-coenzyme A (CoA) ligase, PCAS, EC 6.2.1.14, *BioW* gene product) is an important enzyme involved in the first step of biotin biosynthesis in some specific organisms (such as *Bacillus megaterium*, *Bacillus sphaericus* and *Pseudomonas mendocina*)⁵. It catalyses the ATP-dependent transformation of exogenous pimelic acid into pimeloyl-CoA, pyrophosphate (PP_i) and $AMP^{40, 41}$ (as shown in **Fig. 1.10**).

Fig. 1.10 The pimeloyl-CoA synthetase (PCAS) reaction and its role in biotin biosynthesis. The blue part shows the reaction catalysed by PCAS undergoes an adenylate forming mechanism which comprises two partial steps. Firstly, PCAS activates the unreactive carboxylic acid of pimelic acid by transforming the hydroxyl group into an adenosine monophosphate (adenylate) intermediate which is a much better leaving group. Then the pimeloyl-adenylate is attacked by CoASH to produce pimeloyl-CoA and liberate AMP. After this, pimeloyl-CoA acts as the substrate for AONS which is then further converted to biotin as shown in the green part.

At the beginning of this project, the function of this *BioW*-coded protein from *Bacillus subtilis* (Uniprot cod P53559) has been inferred from its sequence homology to other enzymes, in particular the *Bacillus sphaericus* PCAS studied by Ploux in 1992 with which it shares 45.0 % sequence homology 42 , and it was thought to be involved in the ligation of pimelic acid and CoASH. In the second year of my PhD, Cronan and Manandhar at the University of Illinois, published a paper of the same *Bacillus subtilis* PCAS reporting on its purification and initial biochemical analysis, and this confirmed previous speculations 43 . The *B. subtilis* PCAS is composed of 259 aa, and its predicted molecular weight is 29,630 Da. The proposed mechanism is also shown in **Fig. 1.10**. The enzyme firstly activates the carboxylic acid by transforming the hydroxyl group into a pimeloyl-adenylate intermediate which can be attacked by a CoASH nucleophile to form the final product.

1.4.2 Adenylate forming enzymes

1.4.2.1 Introduction

The activation of carboxylic acids by transformation to adenylates is a common strategy in nature and exemplified in the ANL superfamily of adenylating enzymes that includes the adenylation domains of Non-Ribosomal Peptide Synthetases (NRPSs), the acyl- and aryl-CoA synthetases and oxidoreductases (firefly luciferases) ^{44, 45}. Indeed, the carboxylate of biotin is also activated by adenylation by a biotin protein ligase (BPL) for final transfer to the lysine side chain of carboxylase enzymes to form an amide bond. This strategy is quite similar to the use of triflates or acid chlorides in organic synthesis which creates good leaving groups for the next step which is nucleophilic attack.

The core of the reaction is the attack of the carboxylate at the α -phosphate of ATP to form the adenylate with PP_i elimination driving the reaction as shown in **Fig. 1.11**. The reaction transition state is proposed to be the negatively charged penta-coordinate trigonal bipyramidal phosphorous atom, which is common to other triphosphate nucleotide utilising enzymes including kinases and DNA polymerases ⁴⁵. Interestingly a structural link between kinases and one type of adenylase has been identified $46, 47$.

Fig. 1.11 This shows the proposed general two-step reaction catalyzed by the adenylate-forming enzymes of the ANL superfamily.

Since the initial discovery of acyl-CoA synthetases in the $1950s⁴⁴$, the family of adenylate forming enzymes began to grow as enzymes that generated an adenylate intermediate were isolated. In the following years, studies of other members of adenylating enzyme family including firefly luciferase identified by McElroy *et al*. in 1967 ⁴⁸ and medium-chain fatty acyl-CoA synthetase identified by Bar-Tana in 1968 49 revealed that the changes of the conformational states might catalyze the two partial reactions. In recent years, these statements from 40 years ago were confirmed by the investigation of the structural biochemistry of these adenylating enzymes.

1.4.2.2 Classification scheme of adenylate forming enzymes

The classification scheme of adenylate forming enzymes was previously put forward by Fulda based on amino acid sequence analysis 50 , which were divided into three classes - the adenylation domains of Non-Ribosomal Peptide Synthetases (NRPSs), the acyl- and aryl-CoA synthetases and oxidoreductases (e.g. firefly luciferases). In a review in 2009, Schmelz and Naismith proposed a broader classification scheme that also includes structurally distinct adenylating enzymes ⁴⁵ . As shown in **Table 1.2**, the first class of adenylating enzymes comprises the former ANL superfamily with three subclasses Ia,Ib and Ic; the second class comprises constitutes aminoacyl-tRNA synthetases with two subclasses IIa and IIb; and the third class contains NRPS-independent siderophores (NIS) enzymes with four subclasses IIIa, IIIb, IIIc and IIId.

Table 1.2 This shows the new classification scheme proposed by Schmeltz and Naismith of adenylate-forming enzymes which is composed of three main subfamilies. The PDB codes of representative crystal structures of the enzymes in different classes are shown in red colour.

Class I enzymes are all composed of a small C-terminal domain and a larger N-terminal domain, they are linked via a flexible loop and the interface between these two domains forms the ATP binding site (**Fig. 1.12a**). Class I enzymes undergo large conformational changes during their catalytic cycle, the C-terminal domain rotates in relation to the N-terminus in the presence of $CoASH$ ^{44, 48}. Class II enzymes shares no conserved domain arrangement and here structure of human glycyl-tRNA synthetase (PDB code: 2pme, **Fig. 1.12b**) ⁵¹ is shown as an example. Class III enzymes contains three domains: N-terminal, central and C-terminal (**Fig. 1.12c**).

Fig. 1.12 Structures of different classes of adenylating enzymes. **(a)** Biotin protein ligase (BPL) from *Aquifex aeolicus* in complex with ATP (sticks) (PDB code: 3efs) 16 , the N-terminal domain is in green and C-terminal domain in blue. (b) Human glycyl-tRNA synthetase (PDB code: 2pme)⁵¹, the central catalytic domain is in green and the anticodon-binding domain in blue, insertion I domain in blue. **(c)** Achromobactin synthetase protein D (AcsD) from *Pectobacterium chrysanthemi* in complex with ATP (sticks) (PDB code: 2W02)

 47 , the N-terminal domain is in green, central domain in yellow and C-terminal domain in blue.

All adenylating enzymes require Mg^{2+} , a divalent ion that coordinates the phosphate by neutralizing the charge of ATP and stabilizing the pyrophosphate (PPi) leaving group. The α phosphate of ATP always contacts with positively charged residues including Arg, Lys and His. This is because these positively charged residues enhance the electrophilicity of the α phosphate of ATP and at the same time, polarize the negatively charged carboxylate group of the incoming substrate thus enhancing its nucleophilicity ⁴⁵.

1.4.2.3 The role of PCAS in the family of adenylate forming enzymes

Given the diversity of carboxylic acid substrates used in numerous biosynthetic pathways, it is perhaps not surprising that the adenylating enzymes seem to be a very diverse enzyme family ⁴⁵. In my first year PhD, based on its function, PCAS was thought to be a class Ib adenylating enzyme (acyl- or aryl CoA synthetases) in the classification scheme put forward by Schmeltz and Naismith. However, sequence analysis of the *B. subtilis* PCAS showed no homology with other known adenylases or ATP-dependent synthetases, suggesting that PCAS may represent another member of the adenylating enzyme superfamily. The lack of sequence alignment to known enzymes meant there was no guide as to the molecular basis of recognition of the substrates, as well as leaving open the question of the constellation of active site residues that catalyse the two steps in the reaction; pimeloyl-adenylate and acyl-CoA thioester formation. The proposed mechanism is shown in **Fig. 1.10** – the enzyme firstly activates the carboxylic acid by transforming the hydroxyl group into a pimeloy-adenylate intermediate which can be attacked by a nucleophile to form the final product. In PCAS, the thiol group of CoASH is the nucleophile; but an alcohol or amine groups are also used by other adenylate-forming enzymes.

1.5 Directed evolution

1.5.1 Introduction of biocatalysis

Biocatalysis is the application of natural catalysts, such as enzymes and microbes in synthetic chemistry⁵². It is increasingly being used as an addition to traditional chemical catalysis both in academic and industrial laboratory 53 . Its products range from bulk and fine chemicals such as pharmaceuticals, to agrochemicals, food, animal feed and biofuels 54-56. Compared to metallocatalysis and organocatalysis, biocatalysis shows high selectivity (chemo-, regio-, an enantio-), high efficiency with environmentally friendly reaction conditions $52, 57, 58$. Unfortunately, in most cases naturally occurring enzymes are not optimal for the practical applications of interest ⁵⁹, and in this respect the directed evolution of enzymes has emerged as a powerful enabling technology⁵⁴.

In 1972, directed evolution was firstly used by Francis and Hansche for improving certain functional properties of acid phosphatase in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* ⁶⁰, but due to the limitation of molecular biology technology at that time, the library was simply composed of several naturally occurring mutated stains and was screened only *in vivo* without any *in vitro* protein analysis. From the late 1990s, attributed to the emerging progress in bioinformatics, DNA-recombination and high-throughput screening methods, directed evolution entered a new era with the work of Frances Arnold, Willem Stemmer and Manfred Reetz.

1.5.2 Procedures of directed evolution

Directed evolution, that mimics Darwinian "survival of the fittest" in the test tube, involves repeated cycles of mutagenesis and selection/screening of resulting variants for mutations with desired properties $52, 53$. It deals with various enzyme engineering problems, including enhancing stability $61-63$, tolerance towards pH and organic solvents ^{64, 65}, improving activity, changing or extending specificity and altering the enantioselectivity ⁶⁶.

In general, directed evolution is composed of four steps (**Fig. 1.13**) 53 . The initial step is to select an appropriate parent protein. Usually, a protein containing a similar target function but being not optimal for practical application will be considered. Secondly, a mutant variant library will be generated based on the parent protein. This step involves 1) creating a gene library by mutation or recombination; 2) inserting the gene into an expression plasmid; 3) expressing the gene library an appropriate bacterial host. The third step is to select/screen variants with improved desired functions. And finally, the entire process needs to be repeated until the target with the desired properties has been achieved.

Fig. 1.13 General scheme of directed evolution involved in: selection of parent protein, generation of mutant variant library, selection/screening of the positive variants and finally repeating the whole process until the target with the desired function has been obtained.

1.5.3 Generating libraries

There are two types of directed evolution libraries – a "random mutant" library and a "smart" library. When only limited prior knowledge of the parent enzyme is available (for example, only an amino acid sequence with no crystal structure or high homology model), the library can be vast with every amino acid (except the ATG start codon) open to mutagenesis. A wide variety of methods have been developed to create a mutant library, including using mutator strains, error-prone PCR, *in vivo* and *in vitro* chemical mutagenesis, DNA shuffling, etc.

On the other hand, unlike the random mutagenesis method, much smaller libraries may also be used where mutations are limited to a small number of amino acid positions (catalytic or substrate binding residues) in the target protein. ⁶⁷ The successful design of a smart library relies largely on three main factors: 1) understanding of structure – function relationships of the target protein; 2) the consequences of mutations on protein folding and activity; 3) methods for identifying positive mutations ⁵³. Although more bio-informatic analysis of the parent protein is required, a smart library can largely minimise the library size and enhance the success rate of directed evolution.

Currently, whole gene randomization, specific position randomization and recombination remain the cornerstones of the diversity generating methods ⁶⁸. All these methods aim to create comprehensive but less biased libraries.

Aims of this thesis

The aims of Chapter III were:

- 1) To express of *Bacillus subtilis BioW* gene in *E. coli* strain, and then isolate and characterise of the PCAS protein. *Bacillus subtilis* PCAS was chosen in this project because the X-ray crystal structure of BioI was obtained from the same species³⁰.
- 2) Determine the X-ray crystal structure of *Bacillus subtilis* PCAS to understand its catalytic mechanism and to provide information for protein engineering.
- 3) To generate mutants with altered substrate specificity by re-designing the active site of PCAS.

The aims of Chapter IV were:

- 1) To express and isolate *Esch*e*richia coli* 8-amino-7-oxononanoate synthase (AONS) from an *E. coli* host.
- 2) To express and purify C*orynebacterium amycolatum SK46* BioWF fusion from an *E. coli* host.

Chapter II. Materials and Methods

2.1 Materials and Reagents

All standard reagents, chemicals and media were from Sigma-Aldrich, New England Biolabs or Fisher unless otherwise stated. CoASH was purchased from Chem-Impex International. 7-methyl-6-thioguanosine (MESG) was from Berry & Associates. All chromatography columns were from GE Healthcare. BioTek Synergy HT plate reader was used in this project and the 96 well UV-transparent plates were purchased from Costar. The synthetic DNA construct for *Bacillus subtilis* pimeloyl-CoA synthetase (PCAS, *BioW*) and *Corynebacterium amycolatum SK46* BioWF fusion were designed and purchased from GenScript. The plasmid contains *E*sch*e*richia *coli* 8-amino-7-oxononanoate synthase (AONS, *BioF*) was available from our lab prior to the AONS project. The expression plasmid for TEV protease was a generous gift from Prof. Jim Naismith's group.

2.1.2 Cell stocks

The *E. coli* host strain was plated onto LB agar and incubated at 37° C overnight. A single colony was picked into LB (5-10 ml) supplemented with appropriate antibiotics under sterile conditions and grown overnight at 37 °C with agitation. Next day, autoclaved glycerol was added to a final conc. of 20%. The cell stock was then stored at -80°C freezer.

Cell line	Company	Genotype	Application
BL21 (DE3)	Novagen	F ompT hsdS _B (r_B m _B) gal dcm (DE3)	Transformation and expression host.
Rosetta (DE3)	Novagen	F ompT hsdS _B (r_B m _B) gal dcm (DE3) pRARE (Cam ^R)	Transformation and expression host.
C2987	New England Biolabs	fhuA2 Δ (argF-lacZ)U169 phoA glnV44 Φ80 Δ(lacZ)M15 gyrA96 recA1 relA1 endA1 thi-1 hsdR17	Transformation of PCR and ligations, host for plasmid storage.
$DH5\alpha^{^{TM}}$	Invitrogen	F φ80dlacZΔM15 Δ(lac2YA-argF) U169 recA1 endA1 hsdR17 (r_K, m_K) phoA $supE44\lambda$ thi-1 gyrA96 relA1	Transformation of plasmid, host for plasmid storage.
E. coli ABioH	Coli Genetic Stock Centre (CGSC#12019)	F $\Delta (araD-araB)$ 567 $\Delta lacZ4787$ (::rrnB-3) λ $\Delta bioH756$::kan $rph-1\Delta(rhaD-rhaB)568$ hsdR514	E. coli \triangle BioH mutation strain for pimeloyl-CoA synthetase $(BioW)$ complementation assay.
E. coli \triangle BioH (DE3)	This work	F $\Delta (araD-arab)$ 567 $\Delta lacZ4787$ (::rrnB-3) λ $\Delta bioH756$:: kan rph- $1\Delta(rhaD\text{-}rhaB)568$ hsdR514 (DE3)	T7 promoter compatible BioW selection host.
B834 (DE3)	A gift from Dr Jon Marles- Wright's group	E. coli methionine auxotroph strain	Expression host for seleno-methionine labelled protein.

2.1.1 Competent *E. coli* **host strains**

Table 2.1 Competent *E. coli* host strains and applications

2.1.3 Sterile conditions

All flasks, eppendorfs, tips, liquid and solid media were sterilized using the LTE touchclave lab autoclave (at 120° C, 15 psi for 20 mins) before use.

2.1.4 Growth media

All media were prepared by dissolving the components (**Table 2.2**) in distilled water, adjusting pH to 7.5 and sterilizing. Appropriate antibiotic of the required concentration was added on cooling.

Growth Media	Components	
Luria Bertani (LB)	Tryptone (10 g/L), yeast extract (5 g/L), sodium chloride (10 g/L)	
Super optimal broth (SOC)	Tryptone (20 g/L), yeast extract (5 g/L), sodium chloride (10 mM), potassium chloride (2.5 mM), magnesium chloride (10 mM), magnesium sulphate (10 mM), glucose (2 % w/v) – filter sterilized.	
LB Agar	Tryptone (10 g/L), yeast extract (5 g/L), sodium chloride(5 g/L), agar (15 g/L)	
S-Gal Agar	Tryptone (10 g/L), yeast extract (5 g/L), sodium chloride (10 g/L), Agar (12 g/L), S-Gal (0.300 g/L), Ferric ammonium citrate (0.500 g/L), IPTG (0.030 g/L)	

Table 2.2 Components for preparing growth media

2.1.5 Antibiotic solutions

All antibiotic stock solutions were prepared according to **Table 2.3** and then 0.22 μm

filter sterilized.

Table 2.3 Components for preparing antibiotic solutions

2.1.6 Buffers

All buffers were prepared by dissolving the components in distilled water based on

Table 2.4. All buffers were 0.22 μm filtered and degassed before using for chromatography.

Buffer	Components			
1A	20 mM sodium phosphate pH 7.5, 500 mM NaCl, 10 mM imidazole, 2 mM TCEP, 10 % glycerol with the addition of complete EDTA-free protease inhibitor tablets (Roche), DNase (0.2 mg per 10 mL buffer, Sigma) and lysozyme (1 mg per 10 mL buffer, Sigma)			
1B	20 mM sodium phosphate pH 7.5, 500 mM NaCl, 25 mM imidazole, 2 mM TCEP, 10 % glycerol			
1 _C	20 mM sodium phosphate pH 7.5, 500 mM NaCl, 300 mM imidazole, 2 mM TCEP, 10 % glycerol			
1D	50 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 500 mM NaCl, 2 mM β-mercaptoethanol (BME), 10% glycerol, 0.25 mM Phenylmethanesulfonyl fluoride (PMSF)*			
1E	20 mM sodium phosphate pH 7.5, 500 mM NaCl, 20 mM imidazole, 2 mM TCEP, 10 % glycerol			
1F	10 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 150 mM NaCl, 0.25 mM Phenylmethanesulfonyl fluoride (PMSF)*, 1 mM Dithiothreitol (DTT)			
2A	PBS, 300 mM NaCl, 10 mM imidazole, 10 % glycerol, 1 mM Phenylmethanesulfonyl fluoride (PMSF)*, 1 mM benzamidine**			
2B	PBS, 300 mM NaCl, 30 mM imidazole, 10 % glycerol, 1 mM Phenylmethanesulfonyl fluoride (PMSF)*, 1 mM benzamidine			
2C	PBS, 300 mM NaCl, 300 mM imidazole, 10 % glycerol, 1 mM Phenylmethanesulfonyl fluoride (PMSF)*, 1 mM benzamidine**			
2D	50 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 300 mM NaCl, 10 % glycerol, 1 mM Dithiothreitol (DTT), 0.5 mM Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA)			
2E	50mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 300 mM NaCl, 50 % glycerol, 1 mM Dithiothreitol (DTT), 0.5 mM Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA)			
3A	20 mM potassium phosphate pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl, 10 mM imidazole			
3B	20 mM potassium phosphate pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl, 1 M imidazole			
3C	50 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 100 mM NaCl			

Table 2.4 Components for preparing buffers

* Prepared from a 100 mM PMSF stock (toxic, 0.174 g PMSF dissolved in 10

mL of isopropanol or ethanol, used fresh stock every time)

** Prepared from a 100mM benzamidine stock (in methanol)

2.2 Cloning

2.2.1 Plasmids

The plasmids in **Table 2.5** were used for cloning and protein expression in this thesis.

Plasmid	Antibiotic resistance	Application		
pGEM-T Easy (Promega)	Ampicillin	Cloning in E. coli	Used for the cloning of PCR products, is compatible with blue/white screening on S-gal plates	
pET28a	Kanamycin	Expression in E . coli	Protein can be expressed with an N-terminal his ₆ tag.	
$pET-22b$	Ampicillin	Expression in E , coli	Protein can be expressed with a C-terminal his tag.	
pEHISTEV ⁶⁹	Kanamycin	Expression in $E.$ coli	Protein can be expressed with an N-terminal TEV protease cleavable his $_6$ tag.	

Table 2.5 Plasmids and their application

2.2.2 Primers

Primer oligonucleotides used in polymerase chain reaction (PCR) for gene amplification were designed to be around 20 to 30 base pairs in length as shown in **Table 2.6**. All of them were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich and stored at -20 \mathcal{C} as 10 μM stocks.

Table 2.6 Primers used for PCR. The bases underlined are the restriction sites.

2.2.3 Polymerase chain reaction (PCR)

The reaction mixture contains DNA template (100 ng), forward primer (5 μ L of 10 μM stock), reverse primer (5 μL of 10 μM stock), dNTP (1 μL of 10mM stock), reaction buffer (10 μ L, x5), Phusion High-Fidelity DNA polymerase (1 μ L, 2 U, New England Biolabs) and filter sterilized water to obtain a final volume of 50 μL was prepared on ice. The thermal cycling was then carried out in a PCR machine according to the protocol shown in **Table 2.7**. For A-tailing reaction, one Taq Ready-To-Go PCR beads was added to the 50 μl PCR reaction mixture from above and incubated for another 20 min at 72 $^{\circ}$ C in the PCR machine. The reaction is then terminated by adding DNA blue loading dye (10 μl, x6, New England Biolabs) and purified by DNA gel electrophoresis, which is cloned into a pGEM T-Easy empty vector.

Steps	Cycle	Temperature $(^{\circ}C)$	Time
Initial Denaturing		98	30 s
Denaturing		98	10 _s
Annealing	30	55	30 s
Extension		72	30s/kbp
Final Extension		72.	10 min
Hold at 4° C			

Table 2.7 Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) protocol

2.2.4 DNA gel electrophoresis

1 g of agarose was added to 100 mL of TAE buffer (x1) and heated in a microwave until the agarose powder all dissolved. Upon cooling down to around 50 $^{\circ}C$, gel red (10 μL, Cambridge Bioscience) was then added and they were mixed well by swirling. After this, the agarose solution was poured into a casting mould and allowed to set at room temperature. The settled 1 % agarose gel was then transferred to an electrophoresis tank containing TAE buffer (x1). DNA samples containing DNA blue loading dye were then loaded onto the gel together with the DNA marker in a separate lane and run at 100 volts for 50 min.

2.2.5 Gel extraction

The DNA was cut from the agarose gel and then purified using the gel extraction QIAquick kit (QIAGEN).

2.2.6 Plasmid ligation

The amplified gene was incubated with vector (the ratio of vector/insert is 1:5 w/w, and the total DNA weight is around 100 ng), T4 DNA ligase $(1 \mu L, 1 \times 10^6$ ligations/unit), reaction buffer (2 μL, x10) and filter sterilized water to obtain a final volume of 20 μL for 16 hours at 16 °C. After this, 4 μL of the ligation product was used to transform 50 μL of C2987 competent cells. The cells were then spread on LB agar plate supplemented with the appropriate antibiotic and incubated at 37° C overnight. DNA cloned to pGEM T-Easy vector was grown on S-Gal agar plates supplemented with the appropriate antibiotic for blue/white screening.

2.2.7 Restriction digest

Reaction mixture contains template DNA $(3 \mu L)$, restriction buffer $(1 \mu L, 10x, New)$ England Biolabs), restriction endonuclease (1 μL, New England Biolabs) and filter sterilized water to obtain a final volume of 10 μL was prepared and incubated for 3 h at 37 °C. After addition of 2 μ L of DNA blue loading dye (6x, New England Biolabs), this reaction mixture was loaded onto a 1% agarose gel, followed by DNA gel electrophoresis separation.

2.2.8 Plasmid DNA isolation

Plasmid DNA was isolated from 5 mL of LB overnight growth culture using a QIAprep Spin Miniprep Kit (Qiagen) and then stored at -20 $^{\circ}$ C.

2.2.9 Big dye DNA sequencing

The sequencing reactions contains 5 μ L of plasmid DNA, 1 μ L of primer (10 μ M stock), 2 μL of Terminator 3.1 buffer and 2 μL of Big Dye master mix version 3.1 were prepared on ice, which were down in pairs (one with the forward primer and one with the reverse, the sequence information of these primers is shown in **Table 2.8**). After the thermal cycles (25 cycles of 95 \degree C for 30 s, 50 \degree C for 20 s and 60 \degree C for 4 min) in a PCR machine, the DNA sample was send for sequencing using the Sanger dideoxy chain termination method by the Genepool at the Ashworth Laboratories, the University of Edinburgh.

Sequencing Primers	Plasmid	Sequence (5^2-3^2)
pET forward	pET	TTAATACGACTCACTATAGGG
pET reverse	pET	CTAGTTATTGCTCAGCGGT
pGEM T7 forward	pGEM	TAATACGACTCACTATAGGG
pGEM T7 reverse	pGEM	ATTTAGGTGACACTATAGAA

Table 2.8 Sequencing Primers used for DNA in pET and pGEM vectors

2.2.10 Transformation of *E. coli*

2.2.10.1 Heat shock

Chilled plasmid DNA (2 μl) was gently mixed with chemical competent *E. coli* cells (25 μl) and incubated on ice for 25 min. After 40 s heat shocking at 42 $^{\circ}$ C, the cells were then placed on ice for a further 2 min. 100 μl of preheated SOC media was added to the cells which were then agitated at 37° C, 200 rpm for 1 h. This culture (25 µl for plasmid transformation, the entire mixture for cloning steps, e.g. mutagenesis or ligations) was evenly spread on LB agar plates supplemented with appropriate antibiotic using sterile techniques. Plates were then incubated at 37° C overnight.

2.2.10.2 Electroporation

Chilled plasmid DNA (2 μl) was added to electrocompetent *E. coli* cells (50 μl) in a 0.2 cm gap electrocuvette (BioRad) and electroporated with a single pulse of 1.7 kV, set to a capacitance of 25 μF and a resistance of 200 Ω. 1 mL of preheated SOC media was immediately added to the cells which were then agitated at $37 \degree C$, 200 rpm for 1 h. This culture (100 μl) was evenly spread on LB agar plates supplemented with appropriate antibiotic using sterile techniques. Plates were then incubated at $37 \degree C$ overnight.

2.3 Protein expression

2 L of LB broth of *E. coli* BL21 (DE3) transformed with the resulting plasmid were grown until the OD_{600} reached 0.6-0.8 and then induced with 0.1 mM Isopropyl β -D-1-thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG) at 30 °C for 4 h. The cells were then harvested by centrifugation (25mins, 3,500rpm) and stored at -80 $^{\circ}$ C until needed for protein purification. And this protein expression step was monitored by running a SDS-PAGE gel.

2.4 Protein isolation

All purification steps were performed at $4 \, \degree C$ or on ice.

2.4.1 Purification of *B. subtilis* **PCAS/NTH**

2.4.1.1 Cell lysis by cell disruptor

Cells contains *B. subtilis* PCAS/NTH were resuspended in buffer 1A (**Section 2.1.6**, **Table 2.4**) and lysed with a cell disruptor at 30 kPSI (Constant Systems Ltd). The crude lysate was cleared by centrifugation $(45,000 \text{ g}, 4 \text{ C}, 30 \text{ min})$ and filtered through a $0.22 \mu m$ filter.

2.4.1.2 The 1st nickel column

The supernatant after the centrifugation step was then loaded onto a 5 mL His-trap (GE Healthcare) column attached to an AKTA system. Nickel column belongs to affinity column; it retains $His₆$ tagged protein on the stationary phase of the column. The column was then washed with the same buffer 1A without the protease inhibitor tablet and DNase. The PCAS/NTH was eluted with an increasing imidazole gradient from 25mM (buffer 1B) to 300 mM (buffer 1C) over 20 column volumes (100 ml). Eluted PCAS/NTH was dialysed against 1L of buffer 1D for 1h.

2.4.1.3 Overnight TEV protease cleavage and the 2nd nickel column

The His₆ tag was cleaved by incubation with TEV protease (mass ratio 1:15) overnight. The uncleaved protein and protease were then removed by passage through a second HisTrap column in buffer 1E which contains 20 mM imidazole.

2.4.1.4 Size exclusion chromatography (SEC)

Finally, the PCAS/NTH sample was loaded onto a gel filtration Superdex 200 16/60 column (GE Healthcare) in buffer 1F and eluted at 1 mL/min monitoring with UV-vis A_{280 nm}. The individual components loaded on it are retained by the stationary phase differently and separate from each other while they are running at different speeds through the column with the eluent according to their different size. Each step of the purification was monitored by SDS-PAGE and the mass of the purified PCAS/NTH was confirmed by LC ESI-MS analysis.

2.4.2 Purification of TEV protease

2.4.2.1 Cell lysis by sonication

Cell pellets containing TEV protease were resuspended in buffer 2A, lysed with sonication using a sonicator and then ultracentrifuged at 20,000 rpm for 25 min.

2.4.2.2 Nickel resin

The cell free extract was incubated with 2 mL of equilibrated Ni-NTA resin for 1 hour at 4° C. Then the protein was washed with buffer 2B (30 mM imidazole) and eluted with buffer 2C (300 mM imidazole). Elution fractions were pooled and dialysed against 1 L of buffer 2D for 1 h and then buffer 2E for another 1 h. Then TEV protease was diluted to 1 mg mL⁻¹ and stored as 1 mL aliquots at -80 °C.

2.4.3 Purification of *B. subtilis* **PCAS/NHis**

2.4.3.1 Cell lysis by sonication

Around 2 g of cell pellets containing *B. subtilis* PCAS/NHis were resuspended in 25 ml of buffer 3A. Once fully resuspended, the cells were lysed with sonication using a sonicator fitted with a blunt tip for 15 min $(30 \text{ s on } 7)$ and solution solution is so soft, on ice) and then ultracentrifuged at 20,000 rpm for 25 min.

2.4.3.2 Nickel column

The cell free extract was then filtered and loaded onto a pre-packed 1 mL His-trap (GE Healthcare) column pre-equilibrated with buffer 3A. Then PCAS/NHis was eluted from the column with an increasing imidazole gradient from 10 mM (buffer 3A) to 1 M (buffer 3B) over 30 column volumes (30 ml) and monitored by UV at 280 nm. Elution fractions of the UV 280 nm peak were pooled together (5mL) and dialysed two times against 1 L of buffer 3C for at least 2 h.

2.4.3.3 Size exclusion chromatography (SEC)

The filtered enzyme was then loaded onto a gel filtration Superdex 200 16/60 column (GE Healthcare) pre-equilibrated with buffer 3C. Protein was eluted from the column with buffer 3C, and the elution fractions containing a high purity of PCAS/NHis were pooled together.

2.4.4 Purification of *B. subtilis* **PCAS/UT**

2.4.4.1 Cell lysis by sonication

Cell pellets containing *B. subtilis* PCAS/UT were resuspended in buffer 4A and then lysed with sonication. The crude lysate was cleared by centrifugation at 20,000rpm for 25min.

2.4.4.2 Anion exchange chromatography

After 0.22 μ m filtering, the cell free extract was loaded onto a HiLoadTM 16/10 Q SepharoseTM High Performance column (20 mL, GE Healthcare) pre-equilibrated with buffer 4B. The protein was eluted by a gradient from 0% to 50% of buffer 4C/buffer 4B (100 mM to 500 mM NaCl) over 15 column volumes.

2.4.4.3 Phenyl HP column

Next, the eluted PCAS/UT was dialysed against 1L of buffer 4D for 1h and loaded onto a HiTrap Phenyl HP hydrophobic interaction column (1 mL, GE Healthcare) pre-equilibrated with buffer 4D. The protein was eluted by a decreasing ammonium sulphate gradient from from 1 M (buffer 4D) to 0 (buffer 4B) over 30 column volumes.

2.4.4.4 Size exclusion chromatography (SEC)

The fractions containing PCAS/UT were pooled, concentrated to 5 mL and then purified by a 16/60 superdex 200 column (GE Healthcare) with buffer 4E.

2.4.5 Purification of *E***.** *coli* **AONS/CHis**

2.4.5.1 Cell lysis by sonication

Cell pellets containing *E*. *coli* AONS/CHis were resuspended in buffer 5A, lysed with sonication using a sonicator and then ultracentrifuged at 20,000 rpm for 25 min.

2.4.5.2 Nickel resin

The cell free extract was incubated with 2 mL of equilibrated Ni-NTA resin for 1 hour at 4° C. Then the protein was washed with buffer 5B (10 mM imidazole) and eluted with buffer 5C (300 mM imidazole). Elution fractions were pooled together and dialysed two times against 1 L of buffer 5D for at least 2 h.

2.4.5.3 Size exclusion chromatography (SEC)

The filtered protein was then loaded onto a gel filtration Superdex 200 16/60 column (GE Healthcare) and eluted from the column with buffer 5D. The elution fractions containing a high purity of AONS/CHis were pooled together.

2.4.6 Purification of *C. amycolatum* **BioWF**

2.4.6.1 Cell lysis by sonication

Cell pellets containing *C. amycolatum* BioWF were resuspended in buffer 6A, lysed with sonication and then ultracentrifuged at 20,000 rpm for 25 min.

2.4.6.2 Nickel resin

The cell free extract was incubated with 2 mL of equilibrated Ni-NTA resin for 1 hour at 4 $^{\circ}$ C. Then the protein was eluted with 10 mM, 50 mM, 150 mM, 200 mM, 300 mM imidazole (buffer 6B-6G). Fractions containing BioWF were pooled and dialysed two times against 1 L of buffer 6H for at least 2 h.

2.4.6.3 Size exclusion chromatography (SEC)

The filtered protein was then loaded onto a gel filtration Superdex 200 16/60 column (GE Healthcare) and eluted from the column with buffer 6H.

2.5 Protein analysis

2.5.1 SDS-PAGE gel

Protein samples were denatured by adding SDS sample buffer (5x) and boiling for 10 min at 100 $^{\circ}$ C. 10 μl of the protein samples were loaded onto the SDS-PAGE gel along with low molecular weight marker (LMW marker, GE Health Care) and then run in TGS running buffer (x1) at a constant voltage of 200 volts for 50 min. After this, the gel was stained with coomassie blue at $37 \degree C$ with gently shaking for about one hour followed by destaining with distilled water using microwave for 15 min, or with InstantBlue ultrafast protein stain (Sigma-Aldrich) at room temperature for 15 min without destain step. The SDS-PAGE gel composed of two layers - running and stacking gels and was parepared as shown in **Table 2.9**.

Components	15% running gel	4% stacking gel
dH ₂ O	5.7 mL	2.9 mL
40% acrylamide	6 mL	0.75 mL
1.5 M Tris-HCl, pH 8.8	4 mL	
0.5 M Tris-HCl, pH 6.8		1.25 mL
SDS $(10\% \text{ w/v})$	$150 \mu L$	$50 \mu L$
APS (50 mg/ml)	$300 \mu L$	$100 \mu L$
TEMED	$20 \mu L$	$5 \mu L$

Table 2.9 Preparation of acrylamide gels for SDS-PAGE analysis

2.5.2 Determination of protein concentrations using Absorbance, A²⁸⁰

Protein concentrations were determined using the UV-vis absorption at 280 nm. This was done on a Varian's Cary 50 UV-vis spectrophotometer. The Beer-Lambert's law

(**Equation 2.1**) was used for calculation and the extinction coefficient (ε) was determined using the Vector NTI software.

*A***=***εcl*

Equation 2.1 Beer-Lambert's law. *A*= absorbance at 280 nm, *ε*= extinction coefficient (M⁻¹cm⁻¹), c protein concentration (M), \neq the path length (1 cm).

2.6 Protein characterization

2.6.1 Monitoring of acyl-CoA thioester bond formation

Measurements were made by a continuous UV-vis spectrophotometric assay which is described by Ploux in 1992⁴⁰. This assay is based on monitoring the formation of the acyl-CoA thioester bond at 230 nm. The reaction volume was 200 μL and contained 100 mM TrisHCl pH 8.5, 200 mM NaCl, 10 mM MgCl2, 0.4 mM CoASH, 0.4 mM ATP and 0.2 μM PCAS enzyme were incubated at 30 °C. The reactions were started by the addition of 1.5 mM pimelic acid and the 230 nm absorbance was recorded for 30m min on a BioTek Synergy HT plate reader with Costar 96-well UV-transparent plates. The rate over the first 10 min was analysed using the Michaelis-Menten model and a nonlinear regression fit on GraphPad to give values of K_M and k_{cat} .

2.6.2 Pyrophosphate production assay

The PCAS activity was also determined by monitoring the release of pyrophosphate (PP_i) via a two-enzyme coupled assay. The final volume of the reactions was 200 μ L and contained 50 mM TrisHCl pH 8.0, 100 mM NaCl, 10 mM $MgCl₂$, 1 mM triscarboxyethylphosphine (TCEP), 1 mM CoASH, 1 mM ATP, 0.5 mM 7-methyl-6-thioguanosine (MESG, Berry & Associates), 0.03 U of inorganic pyrophosphatase (PPase from baker"s yeast, Sigma), 1 U of bacterial purine nucleoside phosphorylase (PNP, Sigma) and 0.1 μM PCAS enzyme (or up to 3μM for several mutants) were pre-incubated at 30 \degree C for 15 min. The reaction was initiated by adding 1.5 mM pimelic acid (or substrates of varying carbon chain length of dicarboxylic acids or fatty acids). The increase in absorbance at 360 nm resulting from the enzymatic conversion of MESG to 7-methyl-6-thioguanine was monitored over 30 min on a BioTek Synergy HT plate reader with Costar 96-well UV-transparent plates. The data from the first 10 minutes was analysed using the Michaelis-Menten model and a nonlinear regression fit on GraphPad gave values of *K^M* and *kcat*.

2.6.3 High performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) assay

The formation of acyl-CoA esters was detected by an HPLC method. The reactions contained 25 mM TrisHCl pH 8.0, 50 mM NaCl, 5 mM $MgCl₂$, 0.2 mM TCEP, 1 mM CoASH, 1 mM ATP, 5 μM PCAS and 1.5 mM pimelic acid (or suberic acid (DC8), heptanoic acid (FA7) for mutants Y211F) were incubated at 30 \degree C in a final volume of 700 μL. The reactions were terminated at varying time points by incubation with acetonitrile (volume ratio 1:2) on ice for 5 min to precipitate the protein. The samples were clarified by centrifugation, diluted with distilled water (5 fold diluted finally) and filtered through a 0.45 μm filter.

2.6.3.1 HPLC assay by using C8 reverse phase column

10 µL of the sample was then injected onto Luna 5u C8(2) RP-HPLC column (150x4.60mm, Phenomenex) and separated by a gradient from 5% to 55% acetonitrile $(0.1\%$ TFA, $v/v)/$ water $(0.1\%$ TFA, $v/v)$ for 25min at 260nm. Where necessary the peak containing the acyl-CoA product was collected, freeze dried and subject to electrospray ionisation mass spectrometry (ESI-MS).

2.6.3.2 HPLC assay by using C18 reverse phase column

10 µL of the sample was then injected onto Luna 5u C18(2) RP-HPLC column (100A, 250x4.60mm, Phenomenex), and eluted with water (0.1% TFA (trifluoroacetic acid), v/v) for 5 min followed by a 15 min gradient from 5% to 55% acetonitrile (0.1% TFA, v/v)/water (0.1% TFA, v/v) which was maintained for 2 min at 260nm.

2.7 *In vivo* **complementation assay for** *B. subtilis* **PCAS**

2.7.1 Lysogenization of *E. coli* **BioH mutation strain**

E. coli \triangle BioH mutation cells ordered from Coli Genetic Stock Centre (CGSC# 12019) were made λ (DE3) lysogens using a commercial kit from Merck.

2.7.2 Making electrocompetent Cells

E. coli \triangle BioH overnight culture was back diluted to OD_{600} of 0.1 in 100 mL of LB broth with kanamycin (50 μ g/mL) and shook at 37 °C until the OD₆₀₀ reached around 0.6. After chilling on ice for one hour, the cells were harvested by centrifugation and then washed with pre-chilled filter sterilized distilled water for three times. The final volume

(about 2 mL) was stored in 20 % glycerol as 100 μ L aliquots at -80 °C.

2.7.3 Preparation of M9 Minimal media

M9 Minimal media was prepared carefully as shown in **Table 2.10**. Appropriate antibiotic of the required concentration was added on cooling.

Stock	Volume
M9 salts stock $(5x)$ contains 6.78 g Na ₂ HPO ₄ 3 g KH ₂ PO ₄ 0.5 g NaCl and 1 g NH ₄ Cl were dissolved in deionized water to a final volume of 200mL and sterilized by autoclaving.	40mL
$1M MgSO4$ sterilze by autoclaving	0.4mL
$0.5M$ CaCl ₂ sterilze by autoclaving	0.04 mL
3g of agar in 150 mL of deionized water sterilig by autoclaving	150mL
20% w/v glucose sterilze by filter	10mL

Table 2.10 Components for preparing M9 Minimal media

2.7.4 *In vivo* **complementation assay**

Plasmid of *Bacillus subtilis* pimeloyl-CoA synthetase (PCAS, *BioW*/pET22b) was used to transform *E. coli* ΔBioH (DE3) electrocompetent cells and then spread on M9 minimal media agar plates supplemented with IPTG (0.1mM), pimelic acid (0.1mM), ampicillin (100 μ g/ml) and kanamycin (50 μ g/ml) or plates supplemented with biotin (1 μ M), ampicillin (100 μ g/ml) and kanamycin (50 μ g/ml). The same was done with the empty vector (pET22b) as a negative control. And all the plates were incubated at 37 °C overnight.

2.8 Native mass spectrometry

The PCAS sample was desalted twice over P6 Micro Bio-Spin columns (Bio-Rad) into 200 mM ammonium bicarbonate and further diluted to approximately 20 mM (10 mM dimer). Native mass spectra were acquired before and after addition of 1.0 mM MgATP, 1.5 mM pimelic acid and 0.5 mM CoASH. Samples were infused by nano-electrospray ionisation (nano-ESI) using a TriVersa NanoMate (Advion) set at 1.6 kV and 0.8 psi pressure. Electrospray was coupled to a Synapt G2 Q-TOF (Waters) with the source set at 80 $^{\circ}$ C, backing pressure increased to 5 mbar, and sampling cone voltage of 150 V. Spectra were averaged over 4 min of acquisition data and presented without further data processing. Peak m/z annotations were extracted from smoothed and centroided using Waters MassLynx V4 software.

2.9 Site-directed and site-saturation mutagenesis of PCAS

The *B. subtilis* PCAS mutants Y199F, Y211F, R213A, R11A and R13A were constructed according to the overlapping primer site-directed mutagenesis method 70 with the primers pairs shown in **Table 2.11**. SDM reactions contains template DNA (100 ng), forward primer (1.5 μL of 10 μM stock), reverse primer (1.5 μL of 10 μM stock), dNTP (1 μL of 10 mM stock), Pfu 10x buffer (5 μl), turbo cloned Pfu polymerase (1 μl) and filter sterilized water to obtain a final volume of 50 μL were prepared and placed in the thermo cycles (**Table 2.12**). After this, DpnI (1 μl) and CutSmart buffer (6 μl) were added to the reaction mixture and incubated for 4.5 h at 37 ^oC to digest the template DNA. Then 2 μ L of the newly synthesized DNA with point mutation was used to transform C2987 competent cells (50 μL) and grow on LB plates overnight at 37 °C. Next day, colonies were picked, send for sequencing and then based on the results PCAS mutants Y199F, Y211F, R213A, R11A and R13A were taken forward for analysis. In the meantime, the PCAS mutants R227E and R227K were generated by saturation mutagenesis with the primers shown in **Table 2.11** using the same method as above.

Table 2.11 Site-directed and site-saturation mutagenesis primers, where R =

A/G, $M = A/C$, $K = G/T$, $Y = C/T$. Bases in bold are the sites of mutagenesis.

Steps	Cycle	Temperature $(^{\circ}C)$	Time
Initial Denaturing		95	2 min
Denaturing		95	30 _s
Annealing	30	55	30 s
Extension		72	6.5 min
Final Extension		72	10 min
Hold at 4° C			

Table 2.12 Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) protocol

All PCAS point mutant proteins were overexpressed with 0.5 mM IPTG at 20 °C overnight. The purification protocol is the same as the $His₆$ tagged wild type protein with TEV protease removal of the $His₆$ tag. The mass of each PCAS mutant was confirmed by LC electrospray ionization mass spectrometry (ESI-MS).
Chapter III. Characterisation of Bacillus subtilis pimeloyl-CoA synthetase (PCAS)

3.1 Cloning of *B. subtilis* **pimeloyl-CoA synthetase (PCAS)**

The full-length, codon-optimised *BioW* gene (*Bacillus subtilis (strain 168)*, UNIPROT code: P53559) was cloned into three expression plasmids to give three different recombinant forms of PCAS; one with a non-cleavable N-terminal $His₆$ tagged PCAS cloned in pET-28a plasmid (named as PCAS/NHis, **Section 3.1.1**, **Section 3.2.3**), a pEHISTEV plasmid clone which gives an N-terminal tobacco etch virus (TEV) protease-cleavable His⁶ tag PCAS (named as PCAS/NHT, **Section 3.1.2**, **Section 3.2.1**) ⁶⁹ and an un-tagged PCAS in pET-22b plasmid (named as PCAS/UT, **Section 3.1.3**, **Section 3.2.4**) . The basic information of these three versions of PCAS was shown in **Table 3.1**.

Table 3.1 Information of *B. subtilis* pimeloyl-CoA synthetase (PCAS) in

different expression systems studied in this project. * Molecular mass shown in

this table was predicted by using the ExPASy-ProtParam tool.

3.1.1 Cloning of PCAS/NHis

The DNA and amino acid sequence of wild type *Bacillus subtilis* PCAS is shown in **Appendix 5.1**. Inherent BamHI restriction site GGA TCC (Gly Ser) and NdeI restriction site GCATATGAA (the restriction site is underlined, Ala Tyr Glu) were mutated out of the wild type sequence as GGC TCC (still translated as Gly Ser) and GCGTATGAA (the restriction site is underlined, still translated as Ala Tyr Glu), at the same time, NdeI and BamHI restriction sites were attached at the two ends (**Appendix 5.2**). This codon-optimised *BioW* gene was purchased from GenScript in a pUC57 vector and then cloned into pET-28a vector via NdeI and BamHI (**Fig. 3.1**). There is a stop codon before the BamHI site means the protein will be only N-terminal His₆ tagged. This cloning work was done by MChem project student Andrew Piper.

Fig. 3.1 Plasmid map of *Bacillus subtilis* PCAS/NHis in pET28a vector

3.1.2 Cloning of PCAS/NTH and PCAS/UT

The *BioW* gene was amplified from the PCAS/NHis/pET28a plasmid using a forward primer containing the Nco1 restriction site and cloned into the pEHISTEV expression vector via NcoI and BamHI sites. This gives a translated PCAS protein with an N-terminal tobacco etch virus (TEV) protease-cleavable His₆ tag (Appendix 5.3, Fig. **3.2 the left panel**). Additionally, *BioW* gene was also cloned into a pET22b vector from PCAS/NHis/pET28a plasmid via the Nde1 and Xho1 restriction sites to obtain an un-tagged protein i.e. PCAS/UT (**Appendix 5.4**, **Fig.3.2 the right panel**).

Fig. 3.2 Plasmid maps of **left**) *Bacillus subtilis* PCAS/NTH in pEHISTEV vector, **right**) *Bacillus subtilis* PCAS/UT in pET22b vector

3.2 Protein Expression and Isolation

3.2.1 Isolation of PCAS/NTH

The N-terminal TEV protease cleavable $His₆$ tagged PCAS/HTH form was expressed in BL21 (DE3) *E. coli* strain after induction with 0.1 mM IPTG and incubating at 30 $\rm ^{o}C$ for 4 hours. Using the pEHISTEV expression system, allows for removal of the $His₆$ tag after the initial nickel affinity chromatography isolation by TEV protease cleavage, and results in the production of a native, "tag-free" PCAS. The purification steps including an initial HisTrap™ FF 5mL Ni:Sepharose column firstly isolated the N- terminal $His₆/TEV-tagged PCAS$ from the cell free extract (CFE), then the $His₆$ tag was cleaved by incubating with TEV protease (enzyme: protease ratio=15:1) overnight at 4 \degree C, followed by removal of the His₆ tag and TEV protease from the sample through a second HisTrap™ FF 5mL Ni:Sepharose column. Further purification by Superdex 200 size-exclusion chromatography gave an asymmetric peak at 73.4 mL corresponding to the theoretical mass of 57,276.6 Da (**Fig. 3.3**), the mass of the purified PCAS/NTH was calculated using a calibration curve of known molecular weights as shown in **Appendix 5.8**). Compared to subunit *Mr* of around 30 kDa determined by SDS-PAGE gel (**Fig. 3.4**), the active PCAS/NTH was found to be a homodimer. And the final yield is ~21.8 mg per 1L of culture.

Fig. 3.3 AKTA trace from S200 gel filtration column (A_{280nm}) of PCAS/NTH which gives a peak at 73.4 mL. Based on the calibration curve show in **Appendix 5.8**, it corresponds to the theoretical mass of ~57 kDa, this means PCAS/NTH is a homodimer.

Fig. 3.4 SDS-PAGE gel showing the purity of PCAS/NTH. M: LMW Marker, Lane 1: Cell pellet, Lane 2: Cell lysis, Lane 3: Ni resin flow through, Lane 4: Ni resin wash, Lane 5: Ni resin elution, Lane 6: Before TEV protease cleavage, Lane 7: Second Ni resin flow through, Lane 8: Second Ni resin elution, Lane 9-12: Superdex 200 fractions 21-24. It showed a band at ~30 kDa which corresponding to the PCAS/NTH monomer.

The predicted mass of PCAS/NTH calculated by ExPASy-ProtParam tool is 29628.3 Da. As shown in **Fig. 3.5**, analysis by LC-ESI-MS showed an ion envelope ranging from 38+ to 21+ charge states. We picked the most abundant peak in the mass spectrum at 1059.17 Da with a charge state of 28+, so the deconvoluted mass is $[1059.17 \times 28] - 28 (H+) = 29628.8$ Da $(C_{1304}H_{2025}N_{367}O_{400}S_{12})$ which is in very good agreement with the predicted mass of 29628.3 Da.

Fig. 3.5 The LC-ESI-MS of *B. subtilis* PCAS/NTH. The **left** panel is the ion envelope of the + 38 to +21 charge states and the **right** panel shows the observed isotope distribution $(C_{1304}H_{2025}N_{367}O_{400}S_{12})$ of the +28 charge state.

3.2.2 TEV protease

His⁶ tagged TEV protease was expressed in Rosetta (DE3) *E. coli* strain after induction with 0.4 mM IPTG and incubating for >16 hours at 20 $^{\circ}$ C and then isolated from cell free extract (CFE) by nickel resin eluting with increasing imidazole gradient. The elution fractions were combined based on the SDS/PAGE analysis (**Fig. 3.6**) and this method typically yielded ~15.9 mg TEV protease per 1L LB media.

Fig. 3.6 SDS-PAGE gel showing the purity of TEV protease. M: LMW Marker, Lane 1: Cell pellet, Lane 2: Cell lysis, Lane 3: Ni resin flow through, Lane 4: Ni resin wash, Lane 5: Ni resin elution

3.2.3 Isolation of PCAS/NHis

Full-length N-terminal His₆ tagged PCAS, here named as PCAS/HNis, was expressed in BL21 (DE3) *E. coli* after induction with 0.1 mM IPTG and incubating at 30° C for 4 hours, and isolated from cell free extract (CFE) by HisTrap™ FF 1mL Ni:Sepharose column eluting with increasing imidazole gradient (**Fig. 3.7 A)**. The elution fractions were then analyzed by SDS/PAGE and showed a band at ~32 kDa which corresponding to the PCAS/NHis monomer (**Fig. 3.8)**. Further purification by Superdex 200 size-exclusion chromatography gave a peak at 72.2 mL corresponding to the theoretical mass of 60819.3 Da (**Fig. 3.7 B**), the mass of the protein was calculated using a calibration curve of known molecular weights as shown in **Appendix 5.8**). Compared to subunit *Mr* of around 32 kDa determined by SDS-PAGE gel, the active PCAS was found to be a homodimer. These processes typically yielded ~ 18 mg L⁻¹ of growth media.

Fig. 3.7 AKTA traces of **A)** HisTrap FF chromatography **B)** superdex 200 column (A280nm) of PCAS/NHis. Purification by S200 gave a peak at 72.2 mL corresponding to the theoretical mass of ~61 kDa, thus PCAS/NHis was found to be a homodimer.

Fig. 3.8 SDS-PAGE gel showing the expression and purification steps of PCAS/NHis. They both showed a band at ~32 kDa which corresponding to the PCAS/NHis monomer.

The mass of PCAS/NHis calculated by ExPASy-ProtParam tool website is 31662.5 Da. Analysis of the PCAS/NHis form by LC-ESI-MS (**Fig. 3.9**) showed an ion envelope ranging from $33+$ to $21+$ charge states. We used the most abundant ion with 26+ charge state (1213.73 Da) to calculate the experimental mass. The deconvoluted mass is [1213.73 x 26] - 26 (H+) = 31531.0 Da (C₁₃₈₉H₂₁₄₉N₄₀₃O₄₂₂S₁₃). Considering the loss of N-terminal methionine (31531.0+131=31662.0 Da), the experimental mass matches the predicted mass.

Fig. 3.9 The LC-ESI- MS of PCAS/NHis. **A)** The ion envelope of the + 33 to +21 charge states. **B)** The observed isotope distribution of the +26 charge state (C₁₃₈₉H₂₁₄₉N₄₀₃O₄₂₂S₁₃).

3.2.4 Isolation of PCAS/UT

Un-tagged PCAS (PCAS/UT) was also isolated in this study involved Q Sepharose ion exchange column, Phenyl column and S200 gel filtration chromatography (**Fig. 3.10**). For S200, elution at 74.1 mL corresponding to the native *Mr* of 53,641.2 Da which was calculated using a calibration curve as shown in **Appendix 5.8**, compared to subunit *Mr* determined by SDS-PAGE gel (**Fig. 3.11**), PCAS/UT was found to be a homodimer as well. The yield is ~ 2.0 mg per 1L growth media.

Fig. 3.10 AKTA traces of **A)** Q Sepharose ion exchange column **B)** Phenyl column **C)** superdex 200 column (A_{280nm}) of PCAS/NHis. Based on the calibration curve show in Appendix 5.8, V_e of 74.1 mL corresponds to the theoretical mass of ~54 kDa, thus PCAS/NHis is a homodimer.

Fig. 3.11 SDS-PAGE gel monitoring the purification steps of PCAS/UT. **A**) Cell lysis and Q Sepharose ion exchange column, **B**) Phenyl column, **C**) S200 gel filtration chromatography. They all showed a band at ~32 kDa which corresponding to the PCAS/UT monomer.

ExPASy-ProtParam tool predicts the mass of PCAS/UT is 29499.2 Da. LC-ESI-MS (**Fig. 3.12**) showed an ion envelope with a charge state distribution of 44+ to 21+. We selected the most abundant ion at 820.46 Da with a charge state of 36+ to work out the experimental mass [820.46 x 36] - 36 (H+) = 29500.6 Da (C₁₂₉₉H₂₀₁₈N₃₆₆O₃₉₇S₁₂) which is in good agreement with the predicted mass.

Fig. 3.12 Ion envelope of the + 44 to +21 charge states of the PCAS/UT.

3.3 Protein Analysis

Three *in vitro* assay methods along with one *in vivo* assay have been designed for the analysis of PCAS enzyme activity. Each one takes advantage of the chemistry of the reaction, either by monitoring the formation of the acyl-CoA thioester product either by UV-vis spectroscopy or mass spectrometry or by coupling the other product pyrophosphate (PPi) in a coupled assay. The *in vivo* assay requires the use of a mutant *E. coli* strain that requires pimeloyl-CoA for growth. The first one I optimised is ENZCHECK, which is a commercially-available two-enzyme (purine nucleoside phosphorylase pyrophosphorylase (PNP) and inorganic pyrophosphorylase (PPase)) coupled assay, which links pyrophosphate (PPi) formation in the first half of the reaction to the generation of a colorimetric product detectable at 360 nm $^{71, 72}$ (Fig. **3.13**). Moreover, to validate the coupled assay, we also monitored acyl-CoA thioester bond formation at 230 nm⁴⁰ and observed pimeloyl-CoA product formation by HPLC and mass spectrometry ⁴³.

Fig. 3.13 Basis of the pyrophosphate (PPi) production assay. Pimelic acid is converted to pimeloyl-CoA by PCAS. The PPi released is hydrolysed to two molecules of phosphate (Pi) by pyrophosphatase (PPase). Purine nucleoside phosphorylase pyrophosphorylase (PNP) catalyses the reaction between the released Pi and 7-methyl-6-thioguanosine (MESG) to give the product 7-methyl-6-thioguanine (which absorbs at 360 nm, ϵ 360 = 11,000 M⁻¹cm⁻¹) and ribose phosphate.

3.3.1 pH profile of PCAS activity

The optimal pH for PCAS/NTH enzyme was determined by using the A_{230nm} UV-vis assay under *Vmax* conditions. In this assay, a range of pH values from pH 7.4-10.5 were tested by using 50mM His/HCl buffer pH adjusted to 7.4-8.7 and 50mM glycine/NaOH buffer pH adjusted to 8.4-10.5. The pH profile showed a bell-shaped curve and PCAS/NTH was found to be active over the full testing pH range with the highest activity at pH 8.7 (**Fig. 3.14**).

Fig 3.14 pH profile plot of PCAS/NTH using the A_{230nm} UV assay

Black: 50mM His/HCl buffer, Red: 50mM Glycine/NaOH buffer.

3.3.2 Kinetic study of PCAS

3.3.3.1 Kinetic study of PCAS using the A230nm UV-vis assay

The faster A_{230nm} UV-vis assay, which monitors the acyl-CoA thioester bond formation, was first used to determine the kinetic values of four recombinant versions of PCAS including PCAS/NTH, uncleaved PCAS/NTH (the same as PCAS/NTH but without TEV protease cleavage step, i.e. $His₆/TEV$ -tagged PCAS), PCAS/NHis and PCAS/UT. Typical saturation Michaelis-Menten kinetics were observed for all four versions of PCAS (**Fig. 3.15, Fig. 3.16, Fig. 3.17 and Fig. 3.18**). As shown in **Table 3.2**, 1) the K_M values of PCAS/NTH for pimelic acid, CoASH, ATP, MgCl₂ are

respectively 127.3±13.8 μ M, 189.8±16.8 μ M, 242.0±24.6 μ M and 5.5±1.1 mM with an average k_{cat} of 0.73 s⁻¹; 2) the K_M values of uncleaved PCAS/NTH for pimelic acid, CoASH, ATP, MgCl₂ are respectively 110.4 \pm 12.6 μ M, 162.8 \pm 4.6 μ M, 214.3 \pm 20.2 μ M and 5.8 \pm 1.7 mM with an average k_{cat} of 0.55 s⁻¹; the K_M of PCAS/NHis for pimelic acid, CoASH, ATP, MgCl₂ are respectively $181.8 \pm 26.8 \mu M$, $151.8 \pm 23.0 \mu M$, 191.3±12.9 µM, 3.0±0.3 mM with an average k_{cat} of 0.52 s⁻¹; 4) the K_M of PCAS/UT for pimelic acid, CoASH, ATP, MgCl₂ are respectively 76.0 \pm 7.9 μ M, 262.9 \pm 106.5 μ M, 153.0 \pm 13.0 μ M and 3.0 \pm 0.5 mM with an average k_{cat} of 0.68 s⁻¹. All four versions of PCAS show similar *kcat*.

Enzyme			PCAS/NTH (after TEV protease cleavage)		Enzyme			PCAS/NTH (before TEV protease cleavage)	
Substrate	Pimelic acid	CoASH	ATP	MgCl ₂	Substrate	Pimelic acid	CoASH	ATP	MgCl ₂
K_M (μ M)	127.28 ± 13.81	189.80 ± 16.77 242.00 \pm 24.62		5.46 ± 1.11 mM	K_M (μ M)			110.38 ± 12.61 162.75 ± 4.60 214.33 ± 20.19	5.75 ± 1.71 mM
$k_{\text{cat}}(s^{-1})$	0.59	0.82	0.78	0.74	$k_{\text{cat}}(s^{-1})$	0.44	0.62	0.56	0.56
K_{cat}/K_M ($M^{-1}s^{-1}$)	4635.45	4320.34	3223.14	135.53	K_{cat}/K_M ($M^{-1} s^{-1}$)	3986.23	3809.52	2612.79	97.39
Average k_{cat} (s ⁻¹)	0.73			Average K_{cat} (s^{-1})	0.55				
Enzyme	PCAS/Nhis				Enzyme	PCAS/UT			
Substrate	Pimelic acid	CoASH	ATP	MgCl ₂	Substrate	Pimelic acid	CoASH	ATP	MgCl ₂
K_M (μ M)	181.77 ± 26.87		151.82 ± 23.00 191.25 \pm 12.92	2.95 ± 0.29 mM	K_M (μ M)	76.00 ± 7.87	$262.85 \pm$ 106.46	153.00±13.04	3.01 ± 0.47 mM
$k_{\text{cat}}(s^{-1})$	0.47	0.58	0.57	0.47	$k_{\text{cat}}(s^{-1})$	0.58	1.36	0.76	0.69
K_{cat}/K_M ($M^{-1}s^{-1}$)	2585.69	3820.31	2980.39	159.32	K_{cat}/K_M ($M^{-1} s^{-1}$)	7631.58	5174.05	4967.32	229.24
Average k_{cat} (s ⁻¹)	0.52				Average k_{cat} (s^{-1})	0.68			

Table 3.2 Kinetic parameters of four versions of PCAS using the A_{230nm} UV-vis assay

Fig. 3.15 shows Michaelis-Menten plot of the kinetic study of PCAS/NTH using the A_{230nm} UV-vis assay, it was fitted to a plot of the reaction velocity against the concentrations of different substrates which was drawn by Origin software. **1A)** *K^M* for pimelic acid is 127.3±13.8 μM, 1B) K_M for CoASH is 189.8±16.8 μM, 1C) K_M for ATP is 242.0±24.6 μM, 1D) K_M for MgCl₂ is 5.5±1.1 mM. The average k_{cat} is 0.73 s $^{\text{-}1}.$

Fig. 3.16 Michaelis-Menten plot of the kinetic study of uncleaved PCAS/NTH using the A_{230nm} UV-vis assay which was drawn by Origin software. **2A)** *K^M* for pimelic acid is 110.4±12.6 M, **2B)** *K^M* for CoASH is 162.8±4.6 M, **2C)** *K^M* for ATP is 214.3±20.2 M, **2D)** K_M for MgCl₂ is 5.8±1.7 mM. The average k_{cat} is 0.55 s⁻¹.

Fig. 3.17 Michaelis-Menten plot of the kinetic study of PCAS/NHis using the A_{230nm} UV-vis assay which was drawn by Origin software. **3A)** *K^M* for pimelic acid is 181.8±26.8 M, **3B)** *K^M* for CoASH is 151.8±23.0 M, **3C)** *K^M* for ATP is 191.3±12.9 M, **3D)** *K^M* for MgCl $_2$ is 3.0±0.3 mM. The average k_{cat} is 0.52 $\rm s^{\text{-}1}.$

Fig. 3.18 Michaelis-Menten plot of the kinetic study of PCAS/UT using the A_{230nm} UV-vis assay which was drawn by Origin software.

4A) *K_M* for pimelic acid is 76.0±7.9 μM, **4B)** *K_M* for CoASH is 262.9±106.5 μM, **4C)** *K_M* for ATP is 153.0±13.0 μM, **4D)** *K_M* for MgCl₂ is 3.0±0.5 mM. The average k_{cat} is 0.68 s⁻¹.

3.3.3.2 Kinetic study of PCAS using the pyrophosphate production assay

Additionally, kinetics of PCAS/NTH was also validated by the more accurate two enzyme coupled assay. In my hands, the PPi production assay proved to be more useful than the A230nm UV-vis assay due to lower background absorbance when all of the substrates and enzyme were present. Michaelis-Menten kinetics were observed (**Fig. 3.19**), the K_M values for pimelic acid and ATP are respectively 70.5 \pm 6.8 μ M and 299.6 \pm 3 μ M with k_{cat} of 0.63 s⁻¹ for pimelic acid and 0.44 s⁻¹ for ATP (**Table 3.3**). These enzyme activity parameters I observed are substantially higher than previously reported by Manandhar and Cronan $(-0.63 \text{ s}^{-1}$ for pimelic acid compared with 8.4 x 10^{-5} s⁻¹)⁴³, but comparable with that observed by Ploux et al for the related PCAS from *B. sphaericus* determined with the A_{230nm} UV-vis assay (K_M of pimelic acid, ATP and CoASH are 145 μ M, 170 μ M and 33 μ M with an average k_{cat} of 0.4 s⁻¹)⁴⁰.

Fig. 3.19 Michaelis-Menten plot of the kinetic study of **PCAS/NTH** using the pyrophosphate production assay. It was fitted to a plot of the reaction velocity against the concentrations of pimelic acid or ATP which was drawn by GraphPad software. **A)** *K^M* for pimelic acid is 70.5±6.8 M, **B)** *K^M* for ATP is 299.6±37.6 uM.

Table 3.3 Kinetic parameters of **PCAS/NTH** using the pyrophosphate

production assay comparing with the A_{230nm} UV-vis assay.

3.3.3 Substrate specificity assay

Different chain lengths of dicarboxylic acid and fatty acid were tested with PCAS/NTH by using the PPi production assay under *Vmax* conditions including dicarboxylic acids - glutaric acid (C5 dicarboxylic acid), apidic acid (C6 dicarboxylic acid), pimelic acid (C7 dicarboxylic acid), suberic acid (C8 dicarboxylic acid), azelaic acid (C9 dicarboxylic acid) and fatty acids - heptanoic acid (C7 monocarboxylate), octanoic acid (C8 monocarboxylate). The results show PCAS is highly specific for pimelic acid with *kcat* values of <1% compared to the C7 substrate for all dicarboxylic acid chain lengths tested. And importantly, only trace activity was detected with both C7 monocarboxylate and C8 monocarboxylate (as shown in **Fig. 3.20** and **Table 3.4**).

Fig. 3.20 Assay to determine the chain length specificity of PCAS/NTH with dicarboxylic acids and fatty acids. The pyrophosphate release assay was used to determine enzyme activity and is based on turnover $(k_{cat, s}^{-1})$ in the presence of PCAS/NTH enzyme $(0.1 \mu M)$, different carboxylic acids (dicarboxylic acid, DCA, mono fatty acid, FA, 1.5 mM), ATP (1.0 mM) and CoASH (1.0 mM).

Substrates	Turnover (s^{-1})		
C5 dicarboxylic acid	Glutaric acid	0.0051	
C6 dicarboxylic acid	Adipic acid	0.0066	
C7 dicarboxylic acid	Pimelic acid	0.48	
C8 dicarboxylic acid	Suberic acid	0.0038	
C9 dicarboxylic acid	Azelaic acid	0.0001	
C7 fatty acid	Heptanoic acid	0.0016	
C8 fatty acid	Octanoic acid	0.0020	

Table 3.4 Turnover values (k_{cat}) of the dicarboxylic fatty acid substrates of different chain lengths for PCAS/NTH determined using the PPi assay.

3.3.4 High Performance Liquid Chromatography (HPLC) analysis of

acyl-CoA formation

The production of pimeloyl-CoA catalysed by both PCAS/NTH (after TEV protease cleavage, un-tagged PCAS) and PCAS/NHis (N-His₆ tagged PCAS) was confirmed by HPLC assay and mass spectrometry.

3.3.4.1 HPLC assay by using C8 reverse phase column

Due to the lack of a commercial pimeloyl-CoA standard, both the enzyme-catalysed reaction (PCAS/NHis) and negative control were performed under the same conditions and then loaded on to a C8 RP-HPLC column. In **Fig. 3.21**, the ATP and CoASH peaks can be easily assigned based on available standards and AMP shows a similar elution time from the C8 column to ATP due to their similar structures. In the negative control, the ATP peaks remains constant, this means there was very little degradation. The CoASH peaks change suggesting some interconversion between oxidised/reduced forms. In contrast, for the enzyme catalysed reaction, the ATP and CoASH peaks decrease along with an increasing AMP peak (shown as a shoulder due to the large peak size of ATP). As well as these changes, there is a new peak **(D)** eluting at 10.9 min which grew in size between 10 min and 4 hours, which we tentatively assigned as pimeloyl-CoA and later confirmed as such by LC-MS analysis.

Fig. 3.21 HPLC results for **PCAS/NHis** on C8 column. **Upper**: negative control (**Peak A** (~1.9 min) is ATP; free CoASH splits into two **peaks B** (3.5 min) and **C** (4.5 min) – reduced and oxidised forms; the extra small peaks are impurities). **Lower**: PCAS/HNis catalysed reaction (**Peak A** is a mixture of ATP and AMP; free CoASH splits into two peaks **B** and **C**; **peak D** (10.9 min) is the final product pimeloyl-CoA (the extra small peaks are unknowns).

The production of pimeloyl-CoA was confirmed by LC-MS, and a clear peak at 910.2544 Da (1+) corresponding to pimeloyl-CoA $(C_{28}H_{46}N_7O_{19}P_3S$, predicted mass: 910.1855 Da, **Fig. 3.22** in red colour and **Fig. 3.23**) was observed. In principle, the different between the predicted mass and the practical mass should be less than 3 ppm, but our error is more than this due to the lack of instrument calibration. After purification and lyophilisation, pimeloyl-CoA was obtained as white powder and was then confirmed by 1H NMR (**Fig. 3.24**, **Appendix 5.10**).

Fig. 3.22 LC-MS of PCAS/NHis catalysed reaction. Upper: the UV-vis A_{260nm} chromatogram, **Lower**: the EIC chromatogram (EIC 910+ corresponding to pimeloyl-CoA is in red; EIC 348+ corresponding to AMP is in blue; EIC 508+ corresponding to ATP is in black).

Fig. 3.23 The mass spectrum of the fractions eluting from the C8 column at 14.3-14.5 min.

Fig. 3.24 1H NMR (1H, 500Hz,) of pimeloyl-CoA produced by PCAS/NHis: 8.62 (b, 1H, s); 8.37 (a, 1H, s); 6.18 (c, 1H, d); 4.56 (f, 1H, m); 4.21 (g, 2H, m); 4.00 (j, 1H, s); 3.81 (h, 1H, m); 3.55 (h,1H,m); 3.41 (k, 2H, t); 3.30 (m, 2H, t); 2.95 (n, 2H, t); 2.57 (1, 2H, t); 2.39 (2, 2H, t); 2.31 (6, 2H, t); 1.54 (3 and 5, 4H, m); 1.25 (4, 2H, m); 0.89 (I, 3H,s); 0.76 (I, 3H,s).

3.3.4.2 HPLC assay by using C18 reverse phase column

An optimised HPLC assay using C18 RP-HPLC column was also performed to validate the formation of acyl-CoA by PCAS/NTH. The ATP, AMP and CoASH peaks can be easily assigned based on available standards (**Fig. 3.25 A** and **B)**. This column gave much better separation of ATP (3.2 min) and AMP (4.2 min), the peak of CoASH splits into two peaks 13.3 min and 14.8 min refer to the reduced and oxidised forms. For the enzyme catalysed reaction (**Fig. 3.25 C)**, the ATP (3.2 min) and CoASH (13.3 min and 14.8 min) peaks decrease along with an increasing AMP (4.2 min) peak. As well as these changes, there is a new peak eluting at 16.2 min, which we tentatively assigned as pimeloyl-CoA and later confirmed as such by LC-MS analysis. This suggested that the PCAS/NTH is indistinguishable from the NHis tagged version of PCAS.

Fig. 3.25 HPLC analysis of standards and **PCAS/NTH** reaction on C18 column. **A)** Standard CoASH (13.3 min and 14.8 min), **B)** Standards ATP (3.2 min), ADP

(3.9 min), AMP (4.2 min) mixture, **C)** PCAS/NTH catalysed reaction by incubation of the enzyme with ATP, CoASH and pimelic acid shows formation of pimeloyl-CoA.

3.3.5 *In vivo* **complementation assay**

This method was first generated by Bower and Pero^{73}, they found the expression of *Bacillus subtilis* PCAS in an *E. coli* ΔBioC ΔBioH mutation strain with the supplementation of pimelic acid allows cell growth in the absence of biotin. In 2010, Lin and Cronan ⁷⁴ repeated this with an *E. coli* ΔBioC mutation strain and obtained the same results. In my hands, an *E. coli* ΔBioH mutant strain was directly purchased from the Coli Genetic Stock Centre (CGSC) website (CGSC# 12019) and performed as follows. M9 minimal media agar plates supplemented with both $100 \mu g/ml$ ampicillin and 50 μ g/ml kanamycin were used for mutation strain growth. The strain itself carried the kanamycin resistance gene, and PCAS/pET22b and pET22b empty vector plasmids provided the ampicillin resistance. Biotin was added at $1 \mu M$ as positive control. All the plates were incubated at 37 °C overnight. As expected, expression of the *Bacillus subtilis* PCAS in ΔBioH strain allowed cell growth on biotin-free plates with the supplementation of 0.1mM pimelic acid and 0.1mM IPTG, whereas no detectable growth was seen for the empty vector (**Fig. 3.26**). This is because pimeloyl-CoA, an important building block for biotin biosynthesis, beyond being produced by the long BioC-BioH fatty acid elongation pathway, can also be synthetized by the PCAS one step reaction (as shown in **Fig. 3.27**), thus PCAS can bypass the BioH/BioC gene knockout strain when supplied with pimelic acid.

Fig. 3.26 The results of PCAS *in vivo* complementation assay. Expression of PCAS in *E. coli* ΔBioH mutation strain allowed cell growth on biotin-free plates with the supplementation of pimelic acid, whereas no detectable growth was seen for the empty vector.

Fig. 3.27 Biotin biosynthesis pathway in *E. coli* and *B. subtilis.* Pimelate thioester, an essential building block for biotin biosynthesis, beyond being produced by the BioC-BioH fatty acid elongation pathway (blue part), can also be synthetized by the PCAS one step reaction (green part).

3.4 X-ray Crystallization and Structure Determination of PCAS

3.4.1 Crystallization

The X-ray crystal structural study of *B. subtilis* PCAS was carried in collaboration with Professor James Naismith and Dr. Lucile Moyniéat the University of St. Andrews. My role was to optimize the expression, purification and characterization of all PCAS

constructs and to screen crystallization conditions. Once any crystals were formed I also optimized the growth of diffraction-quality crystals suitable for structural studies. For all PCAS constructs (PCAS/NHis, PCAS/UT, PCAS/NTH), only PCAS/NTH at concentration of 19.6 mg mL⁻¹ with 5.0 mM pimelic acid, 1.0 mM MgCl₂ and 5.0 mM AMP-PNP crystallised using the sitting drop method. After one week, crystals were observed in the well solution containing 30 % PEG 400, 0.1 M HEPES pH 7.5. And based on this condition, optimisation screens were prepared by varying the percentage of PEG 400 (24% - 35%) and varying the pH values of the HEPES buffer (pH 7.0, 7.5, 8.0). Different incubation temperatures (4 $^{\circ}$ C, 25 $^{\circ}$ C) were also tried. Crystals of PCAS/NTH appeared at 4° C after a week from a hanging drop of 1 μ l of protein solution (19.6 mg.ml⁻¹, 5.0 mM pimelic acid, 1.0 mM $MgCl₂$ and 5.0 mM ATP or AMP-PNP) with 1 μl of reservoir solution containing 26 % PEG 400, 0.1 M HEPES pH 7.5 in vapor diffusion with reservoir (**Fig. 3.28**). Then these crystals were sent to diamond by Dr. Lucile Moynié.

Fig. 3.28 Crystals of PCAS/NTH (19.6 mg ml⁻¹) with 5.0 mM pimelic acid, 1.0 mM MgCl₂ and 5.0 mM AMP-PNP.

3.4.2 Phase problem

When transferring the X-ray diffraction data to the real structure image, the intensities of the scattered waves can be used to imagine slicing in all directions, but leaves a phase problem $75, 76$. The most popular method to solve this is called molecular replacement, which obtains the phase information from the crystal of a homologous molecule or the same molecule with different substrates bound. Unfortunately, there is no structural information of the whole *BioW* superfamily. Instead, heavy-atom substitution was used to overcome the phase problem in this project. Heavy atoms can be incorporated either directly into the protein target using seleno-methione wherever there is a Met residue 75 . Alternatively, heavy atoms (usually metals) can be soaked into the crystals 75 .

3.4.2.1 Seleno-methionine (SeMet) labelled PCAS/NTH

Seleno-methionine (SeMet) labelled PCAS/NTH was expressed in the *E. coli* methionine auxotroph strain B834 (DE3) after induction with 0.1 mM IPTG and incubating at 25° C for >16 hours with SeMet containing growth media. The enzyme was purified using the method as the wild type PCAS/NTH but with reducing reagent (DTT, BME or TCEP) present in all steps. Purification by superdex 200 size-exclusion chromatography gave asymmetric peak at 76.5 mL corresponding to the theoretical mass of 59795.5 Da (**Fig. 3.29 A**, **Appendix 5.9**). Compared to subunit *Mr* of around 30 kDa determined by SDS-PAGE gel (**Fig. 3.29 D**), the active PCAS/NTH was found
to be a homodimer, the same as the wild type. The final yield is 1.3 mg per 1L of growth culture.

Fig. 3.29 A) AKTA trace from superdex 200 column (A_{280nm}); SDS-PAGE gel showing the purity of SeMet/PCAS/NTH during its isolation steps **B)** Cell lysis and the 1st Ni resin, C) TEV protease overnight cleavage and the 2nd Ni resin, D) superdex200 gel filtration column

Due to the incorporation of seleno-methionine, the quality of the mass spectrum is quite poor. In Fig. 3.30 (right panel), other than the theoretical isotope envelope for the wild type enzyme, only one single broad peak was shown. This means the result is not good enough for calculating the exact mass. However, by easily comparing with the two predicted masses at +36 charge state (The line in blue presents the unlabelled PCAS/NTH mass whereas the red line shows the fully labelled PCAS/NTH mass at +36 charge state), we can still confirm that the PCAS/NTH enzyme is fully labelled with SeMet.

Fig. 3.30 The LC-ESI-MS results of SeMet/PCAS/NTH. The **left** panel shows the ion envelope (in black dots) of the $+$ 41 to $+20$ charge states of the SeMet/PCAS/NTH. The **right** panel is the zoom in details of the +36 charge state.

Unfortunately, the same crystallization condition as the wild type enzyme gives no diffraction-quality crystals of the SeMet labelled PCAS/NTH. At the meantime, general screening under different conditions (varying buffers, pH, temperature and incubation time) was also tried, but no eligible crystal was obtained as well.

3.4.2.2 Heavy metal soaking

In calibration with Dr. Lucile Moynié, crystals getting from **Section 3.4.1** (Crystals of PCAS/NTH with pimelic acid, MgCl₂ and ATP) were soaked in 50 mM K_2 PtCl₄ for approximately 15 minutes and back-soaked in mother liquor containing pimelic acid,

ATP and $MgCl₂$. Then these heavy metal labelled crystals were sent to diamond as well.

3.4.3 Data Collection and Structural Solution

This part was carried out by Prof. Naismith and Dr. Lucile Moynié. Data were collected at the beamlines IO2, IO3 and IO4 at the Diamond light source Oxfordshire. Data were processed with XIA2 $^{77-81}$ or HKL2000 82 . Phases were determined by SAD (single-wavelength anomalous diffraction) and an initial model built using the Crank pipeline ⁸³ as implemented in CCP4i2 ⁸⁴ and the structure refined with REFMAC5 and adjusted with COOT 85 and Autobuild program of PHENIX 86 .

Subsequent structures were solved by molecular replacement with the program PHASER ⁸⁷ using the coordinates from the experimental structure. Final models were adjusted with COOT ⁸⁵ and refinement was carried out using REFMAC in the CCP4 program suite with NCS restraints and TLS parameters ⁸⁸. Final refinement statistics are given in **Table 3.5**. Coordinates and topologies of ligands were generated by PRODRG 89 . The quality of all structures were checked with MOLPROBITY 90 . Figures were drawn using PYMOL⁹¹.

Table 3.5 Crystallographic data and refinement statistics

^a Numbers in parentheses represent statistics in highest resolution shell.

^b The lowest and highest B-factor calculated by averaging all protein and all inhibitor atoms in each chain in the asymmetric unit. The chain giving rise to the lowest and highest values are given in parentheses.

^c% of residues in most favoured regions/allowed regions/disfavoured).

3.4.4 Structural analysis

3.4.4.1 Overall structure of PCAS

The asymmetric unit contains two monomers of the *B. subtilis* PCAS protein (**Fig. 3.31a**). Analysis with the PISA server at EBI ⁹² which analyses the oligomeric stability, identifies that the dimer observed in the asymmetric unit is stable burying approximately 900 \AA^2 of surface area per monomer. The dimeric structure is thus consistent with native mass spectrometry (**Section 3.5**) and gel filtration experiments (**Section 3.2.1**). Each monomer consists of two domains, a small 70 residue N-terminal domain and a larger C-terminal domain that comprises the rest of the sequence (**Fig. 3.31b**). The N-terminal domain has a three stranded anti-parallel β -sheet (β 1-3) with an α -helix lying on one face. The dimer interface is confined to the N-terminal domain that brings together the β 3 strands of each monomer such the dimer has a 6 stranded antiparallel β -sheet. In addition to these main chain hydrogen bonds there are a few additional polar and hydrophobic interactions that involve the α -helix (α 1). Superimposing monomers reveals that the relative orientation of domains differs within each monomer suggesting the linkage between the domains is flexible. The C-terminal domain has a central, predominantly anti-parallel 7 stranded β -sheet, each face of the sheet has two α -helices and one of the helices (α 5) stacks against a small two stranded parallel β -sheet (β 4 and 13) (**Fig.** 3.31b). The domain has a fifth helix (α 4) that packs against the loop of the C-terminus. Analysis with PDB fold at the EBI does not identify other enzymes with this fold, suggesting the structure represents an extension to the family of enzyme known to catalyse the adenylation reaction ⁴⁵. This family currently contains three classes (I-III) and so we propose that PCAS is the first representative of Class IV within this family (**Fig. 3.32**).

Fig. 3.31 X-ray crystal structure of *B. subtilis* PCAS. **(a)** Overall structure of the PCAS dimer. The AMP-PNP and pimelic acid molecules are shown as sticks (carbon atoms in yellow, oxygen in red, nitrogen in blue and phosphate in orange). The A and B subunits of the protein are colored in green and blue, respectively. The N-terminal domain is highlighted by a dashed box. **(b)** Overall structure of PCAS monomer. Secondary structure elements are labelled and coloured in red (α-helices), yellow (β-sheets) and blue (loops). The AMP-PNP and pimelic acid molecules are shown as sticks (carbon atoms in white with other atoms as a), Mg2+ ions are shown as green spheres.

Fig. 3.32 Structures of classes I, II, III of adenylating enzymes and the proposed class IV PCAS. **(a)** Biotin protein ligase (BPL) from *Aquifex aeolicus* in complex with ATP (sticks) (PDB code: 3efs) 16 , the N-terminal domain is in green and C-terminal domain in blue. **(b)** Human glycyl-tRNA synthetase (PDB code: 2 pme)⁵¹, the central catalytic domain is in green and the anticodon-binding domain in blue, insertion I domain in blue. **(c)** Achromobactin synthetase protein D (AcsD) from *Pectobacterium chrysanthemi* in complex with ATP (sticks) (PDB code: $2W02$)⁴⁷, the N-terminal domain is in green, central domain in yellow and C-terminal domain in blue. **d)** Pimeloyl-CoA synthetase (PCAS) from *Bacillus subtilis* (PDB code: 5flg), the N-terminal domain is in green and C-terminal domain in blue.

3.4.4.2 ATP binding site of PCAS

The enzyme recognises three substrates catalysing two reactions, both around the same carboxylate of pimelic acid, which, in the first step, reacts with ATP and in the second step, with CoASH. The structures of two complexes (AMP-PNP plus pimelic acid and pimeloyl-adenylate plus PPi) were obtained in this study, and their electron density map was shown in **Fig. 3.33**. Both co-complexes locate the active site almost entirely within the C-terminal domain and identify the residues in contact with ATP and pimelic acid.

Fig. 3.33 F_{0} - F_{c} electron density omit map at 3 σ around the pimeloyl-adenylate (a) and around AMP-PNP and pimelic acid (b). Carbon atoms are coloured in cyan (pimeloyl-adenylate) and yellow (AMP-PNP/pimelic acid). Oxygen atoms are in red, nitrogen in blue, phosphate in orange and Mq^{2+} ions are shown as green spheres. This figure was generated by collaborator Dr. Lucile Moynié.

In both complexes the adenosine and ribose rings, the β and γ phosphates and the two $Mg²⁺$ ions are located in essentially identical positions making the same contacts with the protein (**Fig. 3.34** and **Fig. 3.35**). The adenosine ring sits in a pocket with the side chain of Arg145 stacking on its face; the ring itself makes two hydrogen bonds to the main chain at Val146, a hydrogen bond to Glu31 and to a network of water molecules. The ribose ring hydrogen bonds to Arg227 (**Fig. 3.35b**), the main chain of Val122 and to the network of water molecules (**Fig. 3.34**).

Fig. 3.34 Binding sites of AMP-PNP and pimelic acid **(a)** and pimeloyl-adenylate and PPi **(b)**. Carbon atoms are coloured in cyan (pimeloyl-adenylate) and yellow (AMP-PNP/pimelic acid). Hydrogen bonds are shown as black dashes lines. Oxygen atoms are in red, nitrogen in blue, phosphate in orange and Mg^{2+} ions are shown as green spheres.

Comparing the atoms at the α phosphate in both complexes reveals that the phosphorous atom has shifted less than 1 Å and the three oxygen atoms that remain are unaffected by bond breaking/making and have shifted less than 0.2 Å (**Fig. 3.35a, b**). Two of these oxygen atoms are each bound to a different Mg^{2+} ion, the third oxygen atom which connects to the ribose ring is salt bridged to Arg227 (**Fig. 3.35b**).

Fig. 3.35 Superposition of the pimeloyl-adenylate/PPi and AMP-PNP/pimelic acid complexes. For clarity, the protein has been removed. The colour scheme is the same as **Fig. 3.34**. **(a)** The superposition allows a detailed model for the pentavalent phosphorous transition state to be deduced, **(b)** shows the details of the three oxygen atoms which bonded to the α phosphate.

Combining the complexes reveals that the α oxygen-phosphorous bond which connects to the β -phosphate makes an angle of 180 \degree with the oxygen atom that links the α phosphorous to the carboxylate of pimelic acid (**Fig. 3.35a**). From this, a model of the penta-covalent bipyramidal transition state can be constructed.

3.4.4.3 Active site of PCAS

In the enzyme complex with pimeloyl-adenylate and PPi, as shown in **Fig. 3.36b**, the carboxyl adenylate bond sits between Ser194 on one side and on the other side two water molecules (W1 and W2) which are hydrogen bonded to each other. The side chain of Ser194 is hydrogen bonded to the main chain of the protein. The hydrogen bond network of the water molecules is extensive and differs between monomers. Two water molecules are positioned close to the adenylate ester group but neither is ideally positioned to attack the carbonyl. One water molecule (W1) is bound to the guanidyl group Arg227 which would be predicted to lower the nucleophilicity of the water; the other water (W2) that is hydrogen-bonded to the first water would require some re-arrangement to be correctly positioned. In the adenylate complex Arg170 is hydrogen bonded to the pimelic acid carboxylate oxygen atom that is not linked to the phosphorous. In contrast, in the enzyme complex with AMP-PNP and pimelic acid, the carboxylate group is in a different orientation and not aligned for attack at the α phosphate (**Fig. 3.36a**). The carboxylate makes a different salt bridge to Arg170 and hydrogen bonds to Ser194 as well as waters molecules ligated to the Mg²⁺ ions. The β and γ phosphate groups bind two Mg²⁺ ions, the β phosphate makes interactions with the N-terminal domain side chains of His26 and Arg145 and the γ phosphate makes contacts with the side chains of Lys49 and His53. The Mg^{2+} ions both have octahedral coordination and are ligated by three phosphate oxygen atoms. One magnesium ion has three bound water molecules and the other magnesium ion the side chains of Asp195, Asp196 and one water complete the coordination shell.

Fig. 3.36 Binding sites of AMP-PNP and pimelic acid **(a)** and pimeloyl-adenylate and PPi **(b)**. For more clarity, only the polar interactions have been represented. The colour scheme is the same as **Fig. 3.34**. In **(b)**, the pimeloyl-adenylate is stable, despite two water molecules (W1 and W2) being positioned close to the carbonyl group of adenylate ester. The hydrogen bonding network and positioning of waters inhibits their ability to attack the ester.

3.4.4.4 Pimelic acid binding site of PCAS

Pimelic acid binds in an elongated tunnel (**Fig. 3.37**) and the carboxylate group at the $C7$ (ω) position, that does not react with ATP is anchored in both structures by a salt bridge to Arg213, as well as forming hydrogen bonds to two tyrosines side-chains (199 and 211, **Fig. 3.36**). There are some small differences in the precise conformation of the alkyl chains between the two structures that arise from the different location of the reactive carboxylate (Cl, α) in the two subunits. Despite this, in both structures the alkyl chain makes contacts (\lt 4 Å) along its length with the enzyme such that any substitution of hydrogens with larger heteroatoms would result in clashes.

3.4.4.5 Coenzyme A binding site of PCAS

A crystal of the enzyme with CoASH and pimelic acid has density for two pimelic acid molecules but only one CoASH molecule (**Fig. 3.38**). There is however no reliable density for the pantethine arm (only the adenine, ribose and three phosphates clearly defined). CoASH is bound close to the dimer interface where it interacts the strands of the N-terminal domain. The adenine ring makes a hydrogen bond to Glu66 from the other subunit, whilst the 3-phosphate is bound by a cluster of three Arg residues (13,123,145). A surface plot (**Fig. 3.37**) of the complex reveals a highly positively charged tunnel, formed by residues Arg13, His26, Glu31, Arg123 and Arg145, that reaches from the CoA binding sites to the pimelic acid. The 5-pyrophosphate group does not make any hydrogen bonds. Due to the two fold non-crystallographic axis were a second molecule of CoA bound the terminal 5' phosphates of the CoA would be closer than 4.0 Å.

Fig. 3.37 Two views of the electrostatic surface of the PCAS with the ordered portion of CoA shown as spheres. There are two possible routes to the active site denoted with dashed circle. Positively charged regions are shown in blue and negatively regions are in red. Oxygen atoms are in red, nitrogen in blue, phosphate in pink. This figure was generated by collaborator Dr. Lucile Moynié.

Fig. 3.38 Binding site of the adenosine 3', 5'-diphosphate group of CoA. Residues within 4.0 Å of the CoA are displayed. Carbon atoms of the CoA are in light blue and residues of A and B subunits are in light cyan and white, respectively. Other colour scheme is the same as **Fig. 3.34**. This figure was generated by collaborator Dr. Lucile Moynié.

3.5 Native mass spectrometry analysis of PCAS

Native ESI-MS mass spectrometry analysis can be used to analyse proteins in their folded state and can also be applied to enzymes to detect bound ligands and intermediates ⁹³. When PCAS was exchanged into an ammonium bicarbonate buffer and sprayed under native conditions we observed charge state distributions consistent with monomeric and dimeric protein (**Fig. 3.39a**). Deconvolution of the observed +14 charge state is consistent with the mass of the PCAS dimer in the ligand-free form (boxed in **Fig. 3.39a**, expanded in **Fig. 3.39b**, observed $m/z = 4233.9$, theoretical $m/z =$ 4233.6).

When PCAS was mixed with pimelic acid and MgATP, then immediately applied to a spin-column to remove excess reagents, we observed two species, a dominant mass of $m/z = 4304$ consistent with the formation of the PCAS dimer: 2 x pimeloyl-adenylate complex with 2:2 stoichiometry (mass difference 980.7 Da, **Fig. 3.39c**) and a smaller peak with a mass consistent with a single pimeloyl-adenylate bound $(m/z = 4268.9)$. When PCAS was mixed with pimelic acid, MgATP and CoASH we observed an increase in the relative abundance of the PCAS dimer with only one pimeloyl-adenylate bound ($m/z = 4269.0$, **Fig.** 3.39d) and of the ligand-free PCAS (m/z) $= 4234.4$). Under these conditions, we only observed ions consistent with the binding of the pimeloyl-adenylate and failed to detect complexes with either pimelic acid, MgATP or PP_i bound. This strongly suggests that the PCAS/adenylate intermediate complex is highly stable and is broken down in the presence of CoASH.

Fig. 3.39 Native mass spectrometry analysis of PCAS. **(a)** PCAS is observed as a monomer (charge states 12+ to 9+) and a dimer (charge states 16+ to 13+) by native mass spectrometry when ionised from 200 mM ammonium bicarbonate buffer. The 14+ charge state dimer species [boxed in **(a)** and expanded in **(b)**], has observed $m/z = 4233.9$ and is in good agreement with the theoretical $m/z =$ 4233.6. **(c)** Incubation of PCAS with 1.0 mM pimelic acid and 1.0 mM MgATP led to the formation of a 14+ ion with $m/z = 4304.0$. This mass difference (980.7) Da) is consistent with non-covalent binding of two molecules of pimeloyl-adenylate (theoretical mass 489.4 Da). **(d)** Addition of 0.5 mM CoASH to the incubation described in **(c)** led to an increase in the intensity of the ion with $m/z = 4269.0$ which is consistent with one molecule of pimeloyl-adenylate.

Fig. 3.40 Sequence alignment of bacterial PCAS. The sequences used are from *Bacillus subtilis* (UNIPROT code: P53559, BIOW_BACSU), *Aquifex aeolicus* (O67575, BIOW_AQUAE), *Lysinibacillus sphaericus* (P22822, (IOW_LYSSH), and *Staphylococcus aureus* (P67549, BIOW_STAAM). The residues targetted for engineering the fatty acid specificity (Tyr199, Tyr211, Arg213, Arg227) are marked with blue triangles. Figure produced using ESPript 3^{94} .

The X-ray structure of the *B. subtilis* PCAS with bound ligands and adenylate intermediate revealed residues in the active site potentially involved in substrate specificity and catalysis. This structural data combined with a multiple sequence alignment of PCAS isoforms from various organisms (**Fig. 3.40**) guided the selection of residues for site directed mutagenesis.

 GAMEEETFYS VRMRASMNGS HEDGGKHISG GERLIPFHEM KHTVNALLEK GLSHSRGKPD FMQIQFEEVH ESIKTIQPLP VHTNEVSCPE EGQKLARLLL EKEGVSRDVI EKAYEQIPEW SDVRGAVLFD IHTGKRMDQT KEKGVRVSRM DWPDANFEKW ALHSHVPAHS RIKEALALAS KVSRHPAVVA ELCWSDDPD**Y** ITGYVAGKKM G**Y**Q**R**ITAMKE YGTEEGC**R**VF FIDGSNDVNT YIHDLEKQPI LIEWEEDHDS 259

Fig. 3.41 The sequence of the full length clone and recombinant *B. subtilis* PCAS/NTH after TEV cleavage to remove the His $_6$ tag is shown. The PCAS/NTH numbering begins at Ala1 and ends with Ser259. Residues in the active site are in red (Tyr199, Tyr211, Arg213 and Arg227).

As shown **Fig. 3.41**, four residues were chosen (Y199, Y211, R213, R227) to mutate in an effort to probe their role in substrate recognition and the catalytic mechanism. We were especially keen to understand the origin of the specificity towards the unusual C7 dicarboxylic acid substrate pimelate, since PCAS ultimately controls the structure of the final biotin vitamin. Seven PCAS mutants, including PCAS Y199F, Y211F, R213A, R227E, R227K, R11A and R13A were selected as targets and standard site directed mutagenesis was used to prepare the mutant PCAS genes in the pEHISTEV plasmid. Each mutant was expressed in BL21(DE3) and, gratifyingly, the solubility was similar to the wild type enzyme. Each mutant purified in a similar manner to the wild type PCAS/NTH which gives un-tagged protein in the end (with equivalent yields). Analysis by S200 size exclusion chromatography showed all mutants are homodimers (**Fig. 3.42**, **Table 3.6**). And all of them were later confirmed by LC-ESI-MS and the data was shown in **Table 3.7**.

Fig.3.42 UV-vis A_{280 nm} traces from the AKTA purifier of the superdex 200 size-exclusion chromatography purification and SDS-PAGE gel showing the purification steps of PCAS mutants (Gels for mutants R227E, R227K and R13A are missing). All seven S200 chromatography gave a single asymmetric peak, and the *Ve* of Y199F, Y211F, R213A, R227E, R227K, R11A, R13A are 77.7 mL, 78.2 mL, 78.3 mL, 77.2 mL 77.1 mL, 80.7 mL, 78.6 mL separately.

Table 3.6 shows the native *Mr* of seven PCAS mutants determined by S200 column (the results labelled with * were calculated using a calibration curve shown in **Appendix 5.9** and ** used the one shown in **Appendix 5.8**), compared to the subunit *Mr* determined by SDS-PAGE gel (**Fig. 3.42**), all the mutants were found to be a homodimer.

Table 3.7 shows the predicted mass of PCAS mutants using the ExPASy ProtParam tool and the LC-ESI-MS results. All seven LC-ESI-MS results showed an ion envelope, and the most abundant ion was chosen to work out the experimental mass. As expect, all of them are in good agreement with the predicted mass.

3.7 Catalytic activity and substrate specificity of PCAS mutants

The enzyme activity (turnover) was measured using the PPi-based coupled assay with saturating concentrations of the acid, MgATP and CoASH. Mutants R227E and R227K showed reduced PCAS turnover $(k_{cat, s}^{-1})$ with the natural substrate pimelic acid (DCA7) by around 20 fold (~4% activity remaining) (**Fig. 3.43**). The R213A mutation reduced PCAS activity >99% compared with wild type and was effectively inactive. In contrast, mutant Y199F retained 55% activity and similarly, mutant Y211F retained 36% activity.

Fig. 3.43 Activity of wild type PCAS and active site mutants. The pyrophosphate (PPi) release assay was used to determine enzyme activity and is based on turnover (k_{cat} , s^{-1}) in the presence of PCAS enzyme (0.1 μ M, WT and mutant), pimelic acid (1.5 mM), ATP (1.0 mM), CoASH (1.0 mM). The value for WT PCAS (0.48 s^{-1}) was set at 100% and the PCAS mutant values are shown relative to WT.

The wild type PCAS displays high specificity for pimelic acid (DCA7) with much reduced turnover observed (<1% *kcat*) with both shorter and longer acyl chain length substrates (DCA5, DCA6, DCA8, DCA9, **Fig. 3.44**). The acceptance by PCAS of slightly longer chain length dicarboxylic acid substrates (up until C9) was first observed by Cronan using a radioactive assay 43 . Both Y199F and Y211F mutants displayed reduced turnover compared to the WT PCAS with shorter chain length substrates DCA5 and DCA6 (**Fig. 3.44**). In contrast, these mutants displayed increased activity relative to wild type PCAS with the longer substrates DCA8 and DCA9 (**Fig. 3.44**).

Fig. 3.44 Assay to determine the chain length specificity of PCAS and designed mutants. The turnover (k_{cat} , s⁻¹) of each PCAS WT enzyme and mutants Y199F, Y211F and R213A (0.1 μ M) in the presence of different carboxylic acids (dicarboxylic acid, DCA, mono fatty acid, FA, 1.5 mM), ATP (1.0 mM) and CoASH (1.0 mM).

To reduce errors and increase the yield of the reaction we increased the enzyme concentration. Using an enzyme concentration of $3.0 \mu M$ the Y199F mutant resulted in a two-fold improved activity with DCA8 but no improvement with DCA9 over wild type (**Fig. 3.45**). In contrast, the Y211F mutant displayed ~4 fold increased activity with the DCA8 substrate and ~3 fold increased activity with the DCA9 substrate relative to the wild-type PCAS (**Fig. 3.46**).

Fig. 3.45 The PCAS Y211F mutant displays broadened fatty acid specificity. The turnover (k_{cat} , s⁻¹) of each PCAS enzyme, WT and mutants Y199F, Y211F and R213A (3.0 μ M) in the presence of different carboxylic acids (dicarboxylic acid, DCA, mono fatty acid, FA, 1.5 mM), ATP (1.0 mM) and CoASH (1.0 mM).

To generate sufficient quantities of acyl-CoA product we set up a reaction containing PCAS (either wild type or mutants Y199F and Y211F), DCA8, MgATP and CoASH that was incubated for 5 hours at 30 $^{\circ}$ C. The production of the DCA8-CoA (suberoyl-CoA) product was confirmed by C18-RP HPLC analysis (**Fig. 3.45**). The HPLC analysis of the WT PCAS showed that it used up the ATP and CoASH substrates and produced both AMP and produced a new peak at 17.2 min that was confirmed to be DCA8-CoA (suberoyl-CoA). Based on this peak the two mutants produced slightly more acyl-CoA product which is in agreement with their increased turnover observed using the PPi assay (**Fig. 3.44**) above.

Fig. 3.46 C18 RP-HPLC analysis of **A)** wild type, **B)** Y211F PCAS which were incubated with the DCA8 (suberic acid), ATP and CoASH substrates for 5 hours at 30 \degree C before analysis by HPLC. For both figures, the DCA8-CoA (suberoyl-CoA) product elutes at 17.2 min.

The PCAS crystal structure with CoASH bound (albeit without clear density for the phosphopantetheine part) identified the side-chains of Arg11 and Arg13 as potentially involved in binding the phosphate groups of this substrate. To test this we generated mutants at these two sites (R11A and R13A). Both mutants were essentially inactive in the PCAS assay with pimelic acid (**Fig. 3.47**, <1.0 % compared with WT).

Fig. 3.47 Kinetic analysis of the PCAS R11A and R13A mutants with DCA7 (pimelic acid) as a substrate. The data was obtained using the PPi assay and the WT activity is included for comparison.

3.8 An engineered PCAS displays novel activity

The wild-type PCAS enzyme gave no HPLC detectable product when incubated with the mono fatty acid substrates FA7 and FA8 at both low $(0.1 \mu M)$ and high $(3.0 \mu M)$ enzyme concentrations respectively (**Fig. 3.44** and **Fig. 3.45**).

Similarly, the Y199F mutant was also inactive with FA7 and FA8 (**Fig. 3.45**). In contrast, the Y211F displayed activity with both monocarboxylic acid substrates at 0.1 μ M concentration (**Fig. 3.44**) and at the higher concentration (3.0 μ M) the Y211F

mutant displayed a k_{cat} of 0.012 s⁻¹ and 0.008 s⁻¹ with FA7 and FA8 respectively (Fig. **3.45**).

Indeed, turnover was such for this PCAS Y211F mutant that we could determine the *K_M* for FA7 (529.0 \pm 79.7 µM) and ATP (479.4 \pm 81.5 µM) using the PPi coupled assay (**Fig. 3.48** and **Table. 3.8**).

Fig. 3.48 Michaelis-Menten plot of the kinetic study of Y211F PCAS for substrate heptanoic acid (**A**) and ATP (**B**) using the pyrophosphate production assay.

Table. 3.8 Kinetic parameters of Y211F PCAS for substrate heptanoic acid and ATP using the pyrophosphate production assay.

We set up a "synthetic reaction" by incubation of the Y211F enzyme $(5.0 \mu M)$ with saturating concentrations of heptanoic acid (FA7), MgATP and CoASH for 5 hours at 30 ^oC and produced the FA7-thioester which was purified by HLPC (**Fig. 3.49 B**). For comparison, the wild-type type PCAS produced no detectable product under the same conditions (**Fig. 3.49 A**). It is worth noting that despite producing no detectable product with pimelic acid, we found that the PCAS R213A mutant did give rise to detectable amounts of the FA7 and FA8 products (**Fig. 3.45**).

Fig. 3.49 Synthesis of hepatonyl-CoA (FA7-CoA) by the engineered PCAS Y211F. **A)** WT PCAS and **B)** Y211F mutant was incubated with the FA7, ATP and CoASH substrates for 5 hours at 30 °C before analysis by HPLC. **B)** For the Y211F mutant catalysed reaction the ATP (3.2 min) and CoASH (13.3 min and 14.8 min) peaks decrease along with an increasing AMP (4.2 min) peak. As well as these changes, the FA7-CoA heptanoyl-CoA product elutes at 20.3 min., in contrast to **A)** where detectable product was observed using the WT PCAS.

3.9 Discussion

In *Bacillus subtilis*, pimeloyl-CoA synthetase (PCAS, EC 6.2.1.14, UNIPROT code: P53559, 29 kDa) is the first enzyme in the biotin biosynthetic pathway and acts as a highly specific substrate selection gate ensuring the integrity of the carbon chain in biotin synthesis. The PCAS reaction is highly specific to pimelic acid, mono acids and different chain lengths are either not processed at all or are multiple orders of magnitude worse substrates 43 . Whilst this ensures that only the correct vitamin is made *in vivo* rather than potentially toxic analogues, it represents an unfortunate limitation. The ability to generate acyl-CoA thioesters from simple short chain fatty acid precursors through biocatalytic methods would be extremely valuable (The 2016 price list is shown in **Table 3.9**) since they are used as substrates in studies of important metabolic enzymes such as those involved in fatty acid, polyketide, sphingolipid and lipid A/lipopolysaccharide (LPS) biosynthesis ⁹⁵⁻⁹⁸.

Table 3.9 The price list of varying carbon chain length of acyl-CoA thioesters

from Sigma

For the purposes of enzyme design/evolution, if the proposed adenylate forming mechanism is correct, elongation/changing of the enzyme substrate should be achieved by expanding/contracting the substrate binding pocket. In this study we have chosen to work with the PCAS from *Bacillus subtilis* due to its small size comparing to other acyl-CoA/ACP ligases (as shown in **Table 3.10**, 259 aa, predicted molecular weight 29,630 Da). Meanwhile, most naturally occurring fatty acids have an even number of carbon atoms, but since PCAS uses odd-numbered carbon substrates, this makes PCAS quite unique.

Enzyme	Organism	Number of amino acid
Pimeloyl-CoA synthetase (PCAS)	Bacillus subtilis	259 aa
Acyl-acyl carrier protein synthetase (AasS)	Vibrio harveyi	554 aa
Long-chain-fatty-acid-CoA ligase	Thermus thermophilus	541 aa
Acetyl-coenzyme A synthetase	Salmonella typhimurium	652 aa

Table 3.10 The sizes of different acyl-CoA/ACP ligases

Up until our project there had been surprisingly few detailed studies of any PCAS enzyme. The only published report is the early work from 1992 by Ploux et al on the PCAS enzyme from *Bacillus sphaericus* ⁴⁰. However, during the early stages of this project, Manandhar and Cronan⁴³ published a paper reporting the characterisation of a *BioW* gene product encoding the PCAS from the *Bacillus subtilis* strain 168 which is 100% identical to the *B. subtilis* PCAS used here. They had reported that attachment of a His⁶ tag at either end of recombinant *B. subtilis* PCAS destroyed its ability to function in biotin complementation assays in *E. coli*. Therefore they carried out their studies on an un-tagged recombinant form of the *B. subtilis* PCAS. Incubation of purified PCAS with $[\alpha^{-32}P]$ -ATP provided evidence for an adenylate intermediate whilst HPLC and mass spectrometry established formation of the pimeloyl-CoA product. In contrast to Manandhar and Cronan, we found that a $His₆$ tag positioned at the N-terminus of *B. subtilis* PCAS allowed the isolation of milligram amounts of active and pure PCAS. We used HPLC to show that the isolated $His₆$ tag form of the enzyme was able to convert pimelic acid, MgATP and CoASH to pimeloyl-CoA and AMP (**Fig. 3.21**).

As discussed in the introduction, the generation of the key acyl-pimeloyl thioester intermediate varies between microorganisms. In *B. subtilis* PCAS acts as the dedicated entry point to the biotin pathway. The PCAS enzyme must be highly specific for the odd chain, di-acid substrate pimelic acid or else a range of biotin derivatives with altered chain lengths would be observed in PCAS-containing species. To investigate the origin of this specificity our kinetic data on the isolated *B. subtilis* PCAS shows that the enzyme turns over pimelic acid (DCA7) at least 100 times faster than either the C6 (DCA6) or C8 (DCA8) di-acids. To provide molecular insight into this kinetic observation we determined the structure of PCAS and a series of co-complex crystal structures. The solution of the X-ray structure was particularly challenging because there were no structures in the Protein Data Bank (PDB) of high enough sequence homology to use as a template to solve the structure by molecular replacement. To include a heavy atom for phasing we prepared selenomethione-labelled PCAS but unfortunately this failed to provide diffraction-quality crystals. In the end, we resorted to Pt soaks and these derivatives gave crystals that diffracted and allowed a structure solution by my collaborators Prof. Jim Naismith and Dr. Lucile Moynié at the University of St. Andrews. The *B. subtilis* PCAS has a novel fold for an adenylase, with two domains. The smaller N-terminal domain which forms the dimer interface is responsible for binding the adenosine and three phosphates of CoASH. The larger C-terminal domain binds both the ATP and pimelic acid. A combination of structures allowed us to visualise the pentavalent phosphorus transition state and identify the key residues and ions that stabilise it. The constellation of residues that surrounds the transition state is different to that seen before in other enzymes that generate an adenylate intermediate, but the chemical basis is unsurprisingly similar; positive charges. This is a recurring theme in enzymes which break or make phosphoester bonds and a striking example of convergent evolution controlled by the requirement to stabilise a particular transition state ⁴⁵.

Our structures reveal that fatty acid specificity is controlled by a cluster of residues that bind to and fix the position of the ω- carboxylate of pimelic acid whilst the carbon chain sits in a hydrophobic tunnel. Only when the intervening seven carbon atoms adopt an extended conformation will the other (α) carboxylate group be appropriately positioned to attack the α -phosphate of ATP required to generate the pimeloyl-adenylate intermediate. Since the tunnel is restricted in volume and the ω position fixed, additional carbons will result in clashes with ATP and shorter chains will not reach it. We identify this as the origin of the chain length selectivity of PCAS. The enzyme proceeds in two distinct chemical steps with the first being the formation of the pimeloyl-adenylate. Superposition of the ligand-bound PCAS structures with AMP-PNP and pimeloyl-adenylate reveals that the geometry of the incoming nucleophilic oxygen atom of the carboxylate and the phosphate is ideal for addition to form the pentavalent phosphorus transition state. The side chains of residues Arg227 and Arg170 will stabilise the negative charge on the carboxylate activating it as a nucleophile. In the AMP-PNP analog structure, we identify two Mg^{2+} ions that will bridge the α and γ phosphates of ATP and in doing so each Mg²⁺ binds to a terminal oxygen atom of the α phosphate thereby stabilising the negative charge on the

transition state. In the PCAS:pimeloyl-adenylate:PP_i complex the two Mg^{2+} ions bind to and, we presume, stabilise the negatively charged PP_i leaving group.

The biochemical data show that only tiny amount of PPi realise (and thus activity in our coupled assay) in the absence of CoASH (**Fig. 3.47**). This may due to the fact that in the absence of CoASH, all PCAS is captured by the adenylates intermediate thus there is no more enzyme to turn over the reaction. And this suggestion is confirmed by native mass spectrometry as well (**Fig. 3.49c**). Adenylates are usually (and in fact have been selected by evolution to be) highly reactive, in solution such a species would be expected to react almost instantly. This was exemplified in studies of the enzyme biotin protein ligase (BPL) that generates the biotin-adenylate intermediate that is used to transfer biotin on to the biotin carboxy carrier proteins (BCCPs) of carboxylases. Mutation of key, conserved active site arginine residues within BPL did not abolish activity, rather released the adenylated biotin into solution where it modified lysine residues on the protein surface in a promiscuous manner $16, 99$. The PCAS assay does have a detectable background rate without CoASH suggesting water can hydrolyse the adenylate but at a much slower rate than in free solution. The structure reveals that the adenylate although bound in the enzyme is not shielded from solvent. Water molecules are positioned close to the carboxylate group of the adenylate in the crystal structure. We suggest that the positioning and hydrogen bonding of the water molecules means they cannot rapidly hydrolyse the adenylate and this accounts for the very unusual stability of the adenylate intermediate.

We have been unable to obtain a co-complex with CoASH but site directed mutagenesis and electron density in a soaked crystals suggest a binding site. The structure possesses a tunnel from the surface to the catalytic site that is consistent with the pantothenate arm reaching in to attack the adenylate. The thiol group must displace

at least one of the water molecules at the adenylate. The much higher nucleophilicity of the thiol compared to water means that it will be sufficiently reactive to decompose the adenylate even in the presence of Arg227. It has been proposed that adenylating enzymes of ANL family undergo large conformational changes during their catalytic cycle, the C-terminal domain rotates in relation to the N-terminus in the presence of $CoASH$ ^{44, 48}. We did not observe any such large conformational changes in the class IV PCAS but we cannot exclude such a mechanism. Taking the biochemical and structural data together we can propose a chemical mechanism for the PCAS-catalysed reaction (**Fig. 3.50**).

Fig. 3.50 Schematic of the PCAS active site and proposed mechanism for the forming of the adenylate intermediate $(1st step)$ and CoASH attack on pimeloyl-adenylate $(2^{nd}$ step). The key residues in the C-terminal domain involved in pimelic acid recognition (Tyr199, Tyr211 and Arg213) are highlighted, as are those involved in pimeloyl-adenylate binding (Arg170, Arg227). The N-terminal residues involved in CoASH binding (Arg11 and Arg13) are included, as is the pyrophosphate (PPi) derived from ATP. We propose formation of the pimeloyl-CoA thioester product by attack of the adenylate intermediate by the thiol of the incoming coenzyme A.

Thioesters are high value substrates used as important building blocks for organic synthesis and chemical biology for example in native chemical ligation 100 . Specific coenzyme A thioesters are valuable substrates for enzyme assays and mechanistic probes ¹⁰¹. They are chemically synthesised in an analogous way to the enzymatic process; typically by acid activation (e.g. as acid anhydrides or acid chlorides), then reaction with an appropriate thiol. The activated acids are often labile under aqueous conditions lowering isolated yields. The di-acids have to be protected at one carboxylate to direct the synthesis of di-acid thioester targets. More recently methods such as direct iron-catalysed coupling of aldehydes with sulfur surrogates 102 and methyl acyl phosphates in water have been developed ¹⁰³. However, as an alternative to these chemical methods, a "green" biocatalytic synthesis of simple fatty acid thioesters would be highly desirable and the relatively simple, catalytic domain of PCAS provided an ideal template to engineer an enzyme with modified substrate specificity. We reasoned that the chain length specificity displayed by PCAS is set by the residues at the ends of the tunnel that interact directly with the two carboxylic acid groups. The C7 end is defined by the arginine and two tyrosine (Y199 and Y211) residues so we made mutants that trimmed back H-bond donors and side chains that mediate electrostatic interactions. We removed the tyrosine hydroxyl at Tyr211 by mutation to phenylalanine and found that the enzyme retained activity with pimelic acid. However, as we predicted, the PCAS Y211F mutant gained the ability to synthesise heptanoyl-CoA from (mono-carboxylic) heptanoic acid, MgATP and CoASH converting about 50 % of the substrate. We saw no evidence that the adenylate intermediate is released into solution (hydrolysis in the absence of CoASH or heptanoic acid modification of protein).

Wild-type PCAS displays exquisite substrate specificity but our structural and engineering results have shown that single active site residues can be changed such that the mutant enzyme retains activity and can be used to prepare non-cognate acyl-thioesters. PCAS is a relatively small enzyme, with a few residues defining the active site, so it offers great scope to expand the range of thioesters that can be synthesised. We identified Arg213 in the active site and mutagenesis of this residue (R213A) inactivated the enzyme with pimelic acid as a substrate. However, this mutant displayed activity with C8 monocarboxlic acids and suggests that this site can be further exploited and engineered to accept longer chains. Saturation mutagenesis at specific sites, combined with the application of the tools of directed evolution and a high-throughput assay for PCAS would allow its full synthetic potential to be explored 104 .

After my viva, Manandhar and Cronan 43 published a second paper reporting the crystal structure of PCAS from *Aquifex aeolicus* which is 39.3 % identical to the *B. subtilis* PCAS used here. The enzyme activity parameters they observed with HPLC assay are comparable with our results which were determined by pyrophosphate production assay and A_{230nm} UV-vis assay (0.75 s⁻¹ for pimelic acid compared with 0.63 s⁻¹ and 0.59 s⁻¹) (**Table 3.11**).

PCAS	B. subtilis	B. subtilis	B. sphaericus	B. subtilis	A. aeolicus
Project	This project	This project	Ploux's paper ⁴⁰	Cronan's 2013 paper ⁴³	Cronan's 2017 paper
Assay	Pyrophosphate production assay	A_{230nm} UV-vis assay	A_{230nm} UV-vis assay	TLC assay	HPLC assay
$K_M(\mu M)$ for pimelic acid	70.5 ± 6.8	127.3 ± 13.8	145	19.8 ± 0.6	10.7 ± 0.96
k_{cat} (s ⁻¹)	0.63 ± 0.02	0.59	0.4	8.4×10^{-5}	0.75 ± 0.002
k_{cat} / K_M (M ⁻¹ s ⁻¹)	8,956.20	4635.45	2,758.62	4.24	70,093.46

Table 3.11 Comparing of the kinetic parameters of PCAS.

They determined the structures of *A. aeolicus* PCAS in complex with pimelate/AMP-PCP and CoASH/AMP at 2.55 Å and 2.25 Å resolution respectively. The same with our *B. subtilis* PCAS, the asymmetric unit contains two monomers. And the overall fold of the monomer is similar with our *B. subtilis* PCAS (**Fig. 3.51a**), which consists of two domains, a small 55 residues N-terminal domain that contains three anti-parallel β -sheet with a single α -helix and a larger C-terminal domain of around 200 residues (**Fig. 3.51b**).

Fig. 3.51 Overall X-ray crystal structure of the PCAS monomer. **(a)** *B. subtilis* PCAS (PDB code: 5flg) **(b)** *A. aeolicus* PCAS (PDB code: 5TV8). The N-terminal domain is in green and C-terminal domain in blue.

As shown in **Fig. 3.52**, they reported that Tyr187, Tyr199 and Arg201 (which corresponding to Tyr199, Tyr211 and Arg213 in our *B. subtilis* PCAS, **Fig. 3.53**) engage the ω carboxylate of the substrate pimelic acid, and the α carboxylate interacts with Arg159, Ser182, and Arg215 (corresponding to Arg170, Ser194, and Arg227 in *B. subtilis* PCAS, **Fig. 3.53**). They believe that Arg159 (Arg170 in *B. subtilis* PCAS) serves as a "ruler" to measure the correct length of substrate (C7- pimelic acid), thus

the misalignment of Arg159 upon formation of the non-cognate adenylates intermediate could trigger the hydrolytic cleavage. And they reported that this proofreading activity can be abolished by a single active site mutation (R159A).

Fig. 3.52 Superposition of the active sites of *B. subtilis* PCAS (PDB code: 5flg) and *A. aeolicus* PCAS (PDB code: 5TV8). For clarity, the protein has been removed. Carbon atoms of active sites of *B. subtilis* PCAS are coloured in grey and the substrate (AMP-PNP and pimelic acid) in cyan. Carbon atoms of *A. aeolicus* PCAS are in light blue and the substrate (AMP-PCP and pimelic acid) in yellow. Hydrogen bonds are shown as black dashes lines (*B. subtilis* PCAS) and red dashes lines (*A. aeolicus* PCAS). Oxygen atoms are in red, nitrogen in blue, phosphate in orange and Mg^{2+} ions are shown as green spheres.

Fig. 3.53 Sequence alignment of *Aquifex aeolicus* (O67575, BIOW_AQUAE) with*Bacillus subtilis* (UNIPROT code: P53559, BIOW_BACSU). The residues Tyr187, Tyr199, Arg201, Arg159, Ser182, and Arg215 (corresponding to Tyr199, Tyr211 and Arg213, Arg170, Ser194, and Arg227 in *B. subtilis* PCAS) are marked with blue triangles. Figure produced using ESPript 3 94 .

Chapter IV. Studies of *E***sch***e***richia** *coli* **8-amino-7-oxononanoate synthase (AONS) and a** *Corynebacterium amycolatum SK46* **BioWF fusion**

4.1 Characterisation of *E***sch***e***richia** *coli* **8-amino-7-oxononanoate synthase (AONS)**

4.1.1 Cloning of *E***sch***e***richia** *coli* **AONS**

The PLP-dependent *E. coli* 8-amino-7-oxononanoate synthase (AONS*,* Uniprot code: P12998) had been studied previously in Edinburgh by Baxter, Campopiano and colleagues. This enzyme catalyses the condensation of L-alanine with pimeloyl-CoA to generate the biotin intermediate AON. In a series of papers they reported the results of a combination of X-ray crystallography, UV-vis spectroscopy, kinetics and site-directed mutagenesis to study PLP-bound intermediates. The 3D structure (PDB code: 1BS0) of the holo-AONS was the first of any member of the AOS family and a catalytic mechanism was proposed which could also be applied to others members of the family. The recombinant *E. coli* AONS used in these studies was expressed using a pET-derived plasmid in its native form i.e. without a $His₆$ -tag at either the N- or C-termini. Milligram quantities of AONS were isolated in three steps including ammonium sulphate precipitation, phenyl-Sepharose and Q-Sepharose anion exchange columns $21, 22$. Affinity chromatography is now used routinely for quick protein

purification, so in this project, the full-length *BioF* gene was cloned into two expression plasmids (pET28a and pET22b) to obtain recombinant proteins being tagged at the N-terminus (pET28a) or C-terminus (pET22b) with a $His₆$ tag.

4.1.1.1 Cloning of AONS/NHis

The full-length *BioF* gene from plasmid AONS/pET16b, which was generated by the previous PhD student in our lab to obtain un-tagged AONS, was cloned into pET28a vector via NdeI and BamHI sites (**Fig. 4.1**). This gives a translated AONS protein with an N-terminal $His₆$ tag. The DNA and amino acid sequence of AONS/NHis are shown in **Appendix 5.5**.

Fig. 4.1 Plasmid map of *E. coli* AONS/NHis in pET28a vector

4.1.1.2 Cloning of AONS/CHis

The full-length *BioF* gene was amplified from the AONS/pET28a plasmid using a forward primer containing NdeI site and a reverse primer containing XhoI site without stop codon, and then cloned into the pET22b vector via NdeI and XhoI restriction sites to obtain a C-terminal $His₆$ tagged protein (Fig. 4.2). The DNA and amino acid sequence of AONS/CHis are shown in **Appendix 5.6**.

Fig. 4.2 Plasmid map of *E. coli* AONS/CHis in pET22b vector

4.1.2 Isolation of *Escherichia coli* **AONS**

4.1.2.1 Isolation of AONS/NHis

In the nickel resin purification step, SDS-PAGE analysis showed that most of AONS/NHis flowed directly through the column and only little enzyme was obtained in the elution fractions. This lack of binding to the resin may be because the N-terminal $His₆$ tag was buried inside the protein and is thus not accessible to the Ni resin.

4.1.2.2 Isolation of AONS/CHis

The C-terminal His₆ tagged AONS was expressed in BL21 (DE3) *E. coli* strain containing plasmid AONS/pET22a after induction with 0.1 mM IPTG and incubation at 30° C for 4 hours and isolated from cell free extract (CFE) by incubation with Ni resin. This form of the enzyme did bind and was eluted from the resin with 300 mM imidazole. Analysis of the fractions by SDS-PAGE showed a a strong band at ~42 kDa which corresponds to the AONS monomer (**Fig. 4.4)**. Further purification by Superdex 200 size-exclusion column gave a peak at 72.2 mL corresponding to the theoretical mass of 93,438.1 Da (**Fig. 4.3**, the calculation was shown in **Appendix 5.9**). Compared to subunit *Mr* of ~42 kDa determined by SDS-PAGE gel, AONS was found to be a homodimer. This method typically yielded ~21.4 mg AONS per litre of LB media.

Fig. 4.3 AKTA trace of S200 column (A_{280nm}) of *E. coli* AONS which gives a peak at 72.2 mL. Based on the calibration curve shown in **Appendix 5.9**, it corresponds to the theoretical mass of ~93 kDa, compared to subunit *Mr* of ~42 kDa determined by SDS-PAGE gel, AONS was found to be a homodimer.

Fig. 4.4 SDS-PAGE gel showing the purification steps of AONS including **A)** protein expression, cell lysis and the Ni resin **B)** S200 gel filtration column. They both showed a band at ~42 kDa which corresponding to the AONS monomer.

4.1.3 L-Alanine binding to AONS

The purified AONS/CHis was dialysed against fresh PLP and excess PLP removed by a spin filter. The UV-vis spectrum (**Fig**. **4.6 A**) showed the absorbance maxima at 330 and 425 nm typical of a PLP enzyme and matched well with the un-tagged AONS reported by Baxter and colleagues 22 . This suggested that the His₆ tag did not impact on the ability of the enzyme to bind PLP. Furthermore, the binding of the L-alanine substrate to the recombinant AONS/CHis was measured by titration of L-alanine and monitoring of the changes at the two wavelengths. The UV-vis spectrum gives insight into two internal aldimine forms of the bound PLP cofactor at equilibrium. Titration of L-alanine shifts the equilibrium in favour of external aldimine forms (**Fig. 4.5**).

Fig. 4.5 PLP binging in *E. coli* AONS. The first step is binding of L-Ala via a transaldimination reaction to form a germinal diamine, then secondly displacement of the lysine residue of AONS to form the external aldimine.

By plotting the concentration-dependent changes at 425 nm we determined a *K^d* for L-alanine of 0.71 \pm 0.05 mM which matches well with that determined previously by Baxter and colleagues $(0.9 \pm 0.1 \text{ mM})^{22}$.

Fig. 4.6 Spectroscopic data of the *K^d* of AONS/CHis for amino acid substrate L -Alanine, with arrows indicating peak increase or decrease. **A)** UV-vis spectrum for AONS/CHis with L-Ala, **B)** Plot of L-Ala concentration against the absorbance at 425 nm.

4.2 Studies of the *Corynebacterium amycolatum SK46* **BioWF fusion**

The amino acid sequence alignment of the N-terminal part and the C-terminal part of *Corynebacterium amycolatum SK46* BioWF fusion with *B. subtilis* PCAS (**Fig. 4.7**) and *E. coli* AONS (**Fig. 4.8**) shows high conservation of the key catalytic residues in the active site separately, this suggests that a common protein function and reaction mechanism.

Fig. 4.7 Amino acid sequence alignment of *C. amycolatum SK46* BioWF and *B.* subtilis PCAS (UNIPROT code: P53559). The black triangle highlights the highly conserved residues (Tyr199, Tyr211, Arg213, Arg227) of PCAS. Figure produced using ESPript 3⁹⁴.

Fig. 4.8 Amino acid sequence alignment of *C. amycolatum SK46* BioWF and *E. coli* AONS (Uniprot code: P12998). The black triangle highlights the active sites (His133, Glu175, Asp204, His207, Lys236, Tyr264) of AONS³⁹. Figure produced using ESPript 3⁹⁴.

The *C. amycolatum* BioWF is predicted to be composed of two parts as shown in **Fig.**

4.9 - the N-terminal PCAS domain is in green colour and the C-terminal AONS domain is in blue colour, which are linked together by nine amino acids shown in black.

Fig. 4.9 The amino acid sequence of recombinant *C. amycolatum SK46* BioWF fusion.

4.2.1 Cloning of Corynebacterium amycolatum SK46 BioWF fusion

During our bioinformatic searches for BioW/PCAS homologs we discovered an unusual BioW in the genome of *Corynebacterium amycolatum SK46* which was part of a fused pair with a BioF gene encoding an AONS homolog. This was of particular interest since the two enzymes catalyse consecutive steps in biotin biosynthesis. The PCAS enzyme generates a pimeloyl-CoA product which is the substrate for the AONS enzyme. We were interested to discover if the two enzymes interacted in any way and study how the substrates/products pass between the two components of the fusion.

Our initial goal was to express and purify recombinant *C. amycolatum* PCAS/AONS fusion from *E. coli.* The full-length *BioWF* gene from *C. amycolatum SK46* (Uniprot code: E2MUP3) was directly purchased from GenScript in a pUC57 vector and then cloned into pET-28a vector via NdeI and BamHI restriction sites (**Fig. 4.10**) which

gives N-terminal $His₆$ tagged BioWF fusion. The DNA and amino acid sequence is shown in **Appendix 5.7** .

Fig. 4.10 Plasmid map of *C. amycolatum SK46* BioWF fusion in pET28a vector

4.2.2 Expression and Isolation of *C. amycolatum SK46* **BioWF fusion**

Different protein expression conditions were tried with BL21 (DE3) and BL21 (DE3) Gold *E. coli* strains. Finally, the optimal expression of soluble BioWF was obtained from the BL21 (DE3) Gold *E. coli* strain induced with 0.5 mM IPTG and grown at 20 ^oC overnight (Fig. 4.11). This expression system resulted in the appearance of a clear band at ~67 kDa on the SDS-PAGE gel which matches the predicted mass of the fusion.

Fig. 4.11 Expression test of *Corynebacterium amycolatum SK46* BioWF fusion in **A)** BL21 (DE3) *E. coli* strain and **B)** BL21 (DE3) gold *E. coli* strain with different conditions.

Full-length N-terminal His₆ tagged BioWF was expressed in BL21 (DE3) gold *E. coli*, and isolated from cell free extract (CFE) by incubation with Ni resin then eluting with an increasing imidazole concentration gradient. The elution fractions were then analyzed by SDS-PAGE and showed a band at ~67 kDa which corresponding to the BioWF monomer (**Fig. 4.13**). Further purification by Superdex 200 size-exclusion column gave a peak at 64.4 mL corresponding to the theoretical mass of 130928.7 Da (**Fig. 4.13**, the calculation was shown in **Appendix 5.8**). Compared to the subunit *Mr* of ~67 kDa determined by SDS-PAGE gel, BioWF was found to be a dimer. The methods typically yielded ~11.3 mg of protein per litre of LB media.

Fig. 4.12 AKTA trace of S200 column (A_{280nm}) of BioWF which gives a peak at 64.4 mL. Based on the calibration curve shown in **Appendix 5.8**, it corresponds to the theoretical mass of ~131 kDa, compared to subunit *Mr* of ~67 kDa determined by SDS-PAGE gel, BioWF was found to be a dimer.

Fig. 4.13 SDS-PAGE gel showing the purification steps of BioWF including **A)** Cell lysis and Ni resin **B)** S200 gel filtration column.

4.2.3 Enzyme activity of *Corynebacterium amycolatum SK46* **BioWF fusion**

It was important to discover if the BioWF fusion had expressed in a soluble form such that both the PCAS and AONS domains had folded into catalytically active enzymes. A relatively straightforward analysis was to determine if the C-terminal AONS domain of the fusion contained the expected PLP cofactor. UV-vis analysis shown below (**Fig. 4.14 left panel**) showed that the protein had the characteristic spectrum similar to that observed with the *E. coli* AONS previously. Two maxima were observed at 330 and 420 nm. A titration with L-alanine was carried out and this led to changes in the UV-vis spectrum suggesting that L-Ala had bound, the concentration-dependent changes at 420 nm were plotted and a K_d of 1.80 \pm 0.16 mM was determined (Compared to the K_d of 0.71 \pm 0.05 mM for *E. coli* AONS). This was strong evidence that the AONS part of the fusion bound the PLP cofactor and the L-alanine substrate,

Fig. 4.14 Spectroscopic data of the K_d of BioWF for amino acid substrate L -Alanine, with arrows indicating peak increase or decrease. **left**) UV-vis spectrum for BioWF with L-Ala, **right**) Plot of L-Ala concentration against the absorbance at 420 nm.

4.3 Discussion and future work

The PLP-dependent enzyme AONS catalyses the condensation of pimeloyl-CoA with L-alanine to give 8-amino-7-oxononanoate (AON) in the first committed step of biotin biosynthesis. We used genome mining to identify a putative bi-functional enzyme with an N-terminal PCAS domain fused to C-terminal AONS domain in the organism *Corynebacterium amycolatum*. Recombinant PCAS/AONS was expressed and purified from *E. coli* and initial studies suggest that it forms a functional fused dimeric enzyme. Unfortunately I did not have time to complete my studies of the *C. amycolatum* BioWF fusion since the work with the *B. subtilis* PCAS enzyme moved to a structural and functional conclusion. Future work on the BioWF fusion should include be to determine if both the PCAS and AONS domains are catalytically active individually

for their respective reactions with their substrates. The kinetics of each enzyme will be interesting. If would also be interesting to analyse if the PCAS reaction is CoASH or ACP-dependent and to discover if the pimeloyl-thioester product of the PCAS domain is the substrate for the AONS domain. Future structural studies should also determine the architecture of the dimeric fusion protein namely, are the two domains arranged in a head-to-head or head-to-tail orientation. A key feature to observe is the linking sequence between the two domains and to determine the structure and dynamics of this part that links the two catalytic components.

Conclusion and future work

The generation of the key acyl-pimeloyl thioester intermediate in biotin biosynthesis varies between microorganisms. In *Bacillus subtilis* pimeloyl-CoA synthetase (PCAS, EC 6.2.1.14, UNIPROT code: P53559) is the first enzyme in the biotin biosynthetic pathway and acts as a highly specific substrate selection gate ensuring the integrity of the carbon chain in biotin synthesis. The PCAS catalysed reaction is composed of two steps; the first involves activation of pimelic acid (C7 dicarboxylic acid) using ATP to give an enzyme-bound, acyl-adenylate intermediate and pyrophosphate (PPi), and in the second step, this pimeloyl-adenylate reacts with coenzyme A (CoASH) to form pimeloyl-CoA. During the early stages of this project, Manandhar and Cronan ⁴³ published a paper reporting the characterisation of PCAS from the *B. subtilis* strain 168 which is 100% identical to the *B. subtilis* PCAS used here. They had reported that attachment of a $His₆$ tag at either end of recombinant *B. subtilis* PCAS destroyed its ability to function in biotin complementation assays in *E. coli*. In contrast to Manandhar and Cronan, we found that a His₆ tag positioned at the N-terminus of *B*. *subtilis* PCAS allowed the isolation of milligram amounts of active and pure PCAS. Enzyme activity and kinetic constants were measured using reverse-phase HPLC and enzyme coupled spectroscopic assays. These revealed the enzyme is highly specific to pimelic acid, mono acids and different chain lengths are either not processed at all or are multiple orders of magnitude worse substrates 43 .

In collaboration with colleagues at The University of St. Andrews various commercial and in-house screens were used to obtain diffraction-quality crystals suitable for X-ray crystallography. This also included the generation of seleno-methionine (SeMet) labelled PCAS, as well as heavy-metal soaks. Structures of *B. subtilis* PCAS in complex with the substrate pimelic acid and the pimeloyl-adenylate intermediate and product PP_i were determined at 2.04 Å and 2.34 Å resolution respectively. The *B*. *subtilis* PCAS displays a novel 3D fold and defines a new class (Class IV) in the adenylating enzyme superfamily that catalyse acetylation-orming reactions with a two domain architecture. The smaller N-terminal domain which forms the dimer interface is responsible for binding the adenosine and three phosphates of CoASH. The larger C-terminal domain binds both the ATP and pimelic acid. The enzyme uses an internal ruler composed of a number of conserved arginine residues (Arg213, Arg227 and Arg170) to select the correct dicarboxylic acid substrate. Thioesters are high value substrates used as important building blocks for organic synthesis and chemical biology. They are chemically synthesised but the activated acids are often labile under aqueous conditions lowering isolated yields. As an alternative to these chemical methods, a "green" biocatalytic synthesis of simple fatty acid thioesters would be highly desirable. The relatively simple, catalytic domain of PCAS provided an ideal template to engineer an enzyme with modified substrate specificity. The X-ray structural study in this thesis allowed rational engineering of the PCAS active site to generate mutants with altered substrate specificity. Mutant PCAS Y211F was shown to synthesise both heptanoyl (C7) and octanoyl (C8) mono carboxylic acid-CoA and C8 dicarboxylic-CoA products highlighting the synthetic potential of PCAS.

We also identified Arg213 in the PCAS active site. Mutagenesis of this residue (R213A) inactivated the wild type enzyme when assayed using the DCA7 pimelic acid substrate but it displayed activity with C8 monocarboxlic acids. This suggests that this site can be further exploited and engineered to accept longer chains. Saturation mutagenesis at specific sites within PCAS, combined with the application of the tools of directed evolution and a high-throughput assay for PCAS would allow its full synthetic potential to be explored 104 .

The PCAS pimeloyl-CoA product is the substrate for the next enzyme in the biotin pathway, a pyridoxal 5"phosphate (PLP)-dependent 8-amino 7-oxononanoate synthase (AONS) that catalyses the condensation of pimeloyl-CoA with L-alanine to give AON. We used genome mining to identify a putative bi-functional enzyme with an N-terminal PCAS domain fused to C-terminal AONS domain in the organism *Corynebacterium amycolatum*. An expression plasmid with the recombinant *C. amycolatum* BioWF (PCAS/AONS fusion) was prepared and used to purify the target protein from *E. coli*. Initial studies suggest that it bound both the PLP cofactor and the L-alanine substrate associated with the AONS domain. In the future, the activity of the N-terminal PCAS domain and the C-terminal AONS domain of *C. amycolatum* BioWF fusion should be studied with their individual substrates. It will be interesting to investigate if the PCAS/AONS fusion can convert pimelic acid to AON in the presence of ATP, CoASH and L-alanine and determine the kinetics of each step. It would also be interesting to analyse if the pimeloyl-thioester product of the PCAS domain is an acyl-CoA or acyl-ACP and determine which is a substrate for the AONS domain. It would also be of interest to incorporate the *B. subtilis* PCAS Y211F mutation that broadens the fatty acid specificity into the *C. amycolatum* PCAS/AONS fusion and determine if it could be used generate novel AON analogues in a single enzyme-catalysed step.

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Chapter V. Appendix

Appendix 5.1 The DNA and amino acid sequence of wild type *B.*

subtilis **PCAS (Uniprot code: P53559)**

DNA sequence of recombinant *B. subtilis* PCAS

(Inherent BamHI restriction site is in blue, Inherent NdeI restriction site is in green

start codon and stop condon are underlined.)

Amino acid sequence of recombinant *B. subtilis* PCAS

 1 MMQEETFYSV RMRASMNGSH EDGGKHISGG ERLIPFHEMK HTVNALLEKG 51 LSHSRGKPDF MQIQFEEVHE SIKTIQPLPV HTNEVSCPEE GQKLARLLLE 101 KEGVSRDVIE KAYEQIPEWS DVRGAVLFDI HTGKRMDQTK EKGVRVSRMD 151 WPDANFEKWA LHSHVPAHSR IKEALALASK VSRHPAVVAE LCWSDDPDYI 201 TGYVAGKKMG YQRITAMKEY GTEEGCRVFF IDGSNDVNTY IHDLEKQPIL 251 IEWEEDHDS 259

Appendix 5.2 The DNA and amino acid sequence of

codon-optimised *B. subtilis* **PCAS/NHis (N-terminal His⁶ tagged,**

in plasmid pET-28a)

DNA sequence of recombinant *B. subtilis* PCAS/NHis

(Mutated inherent BamHI restriction site is in blue, Mutated NdeI restriction site is in

green, NdeI restriction site is in purple, BamHI restriction site is in red, N-terminal

 $His₆$ tag in orange, start codon and stop condon are underlined)

Amino acid sequence of recombinant *B. subtilis* PCAS/NHis

```
-18 MGSSHHHHHH SSGLVPRGSH MQEETFYSVR MRASMNGSHE DGGKHISGGE
 32 RLIPFHEMKH TVNALLEKGL SHSRGKPDFM QIQFEEVHES IKTIQPLPVH
 82 TNEVSCPEEG QKLARLLLEK EGVSRDVIEK AYEQIPEWSD VRGAVLFDIH
132 TGKRMDQTKE KGVRVSRMDW PDANFEKWAL HSHVPAHSRI KEALALASKV
182 SRHPAVVAEL CWSDDPDYIT GYVAGKKMGY QRITAMKEYG TEEGCRVFFI
232 DGSNDVNTYI HDLEKQPILI EWEEDHDS
```
(N-terminal $His₆$ tag is in orange)

Appendix 5.3 The DNA and amino acid sequence of

codon-optimised *B. subtilis* **PCAS/NTH (N-terminal TEV**

protease-cleavable His⁶ tagged, in pEHISTEV plasmid)

DNA sequence of recombinant *B. subtilis* PCAS/NTH

(Mutated inherent BamHI restriction site is in blue, Mutated NdeI restriction site is in green, NcoI restriction site is in purple, BamHI restriction site is in red, N-terminal TEV protease-cleavable $His₆$ tag in orange, TEV protease site in grey, start codon and stop condon are underlined)

Amino acid sequence of recombinant *B. subtilis* PCAS/NTH before TEV

protease cleavage

-23 MSYYHHHHHH DYDIPTTENL YFQGAMEEET FYSVRMRASM NGSHEDGGKH 27 ISGGERLIPF HEMKHTVNAL LEKGLSHSRG KPDFMQIQFE EVHESIKTIQ 77 PLPVHTNEVS CPEEGQKLAR LLLEKEGVSR DVIEKAYEQI PEWSDVRGAV 127 LFDIHTGKRM DQTKEKGVRV SRMDWPDANF EKWALHSHVP AHSRIKEALA 177 LASKVSRHPA VVAELCWSDD PDYITGYVAG KKMGYQRITA MKEYGTEEGC 227 RVFFIDGSND VNTYIHDLEK QPILIEWEED HDS

(N-terminal TEV protease-cleavable $His₆$ tag is in orange, TEV protease site in grey)

Amino acid sequence of recombinant *B. subtilis* PCAS/NTH after TEV

protease cleavage

Appendix 5.4 The DNA and amino acid sequence of

codon-optimised *B. subtilis* **PCAS/UT (un-tagged PACS, in**

plasmid pET22b)

DNA sequence of recombinant *B. subtilis* PCAS/UT

Amino acid sequence of recombinant *B. subtilis* PCAS/UT

(Mutated inherent BamHI restriction site is in blue, Mutated NdeI restriction site is in green, NdeI restriction site is in purple and XhoI restriction site is in red, N-terminal TEV protease-cleavable $His₆$ tag in orange, TEV protease site in grey, start codon and stop condon are underlined)

Appendix 5.5 The DNA and amino acid sequence of

recombinant *E. coli* **AONS (N-His⁶ tagged, in pET28a, Uniprot**

code: P12998)

DNA sequence of recombinant *E. coli* AONS /NHis

(NdeI restriction site is in purple, BamHI restriction site is in red, N-terminal $His₆$ tag

in orange, start codon and stop condon are underlined)

Amino acid sequence of recombinant *E. coli* AONS/NHis

-19 MGSSHHHHHH SSGLVPRGSH MSWQEKINAA LDARRAADAL RRRYPVAQGA 31 GRWLVADDRQ YLNFSSNDYL GLSHHPQIIR AWQQGAEQFG IGSGGSGHVS 81 GYSVVHQALE EELAEWLGYS RALLFISGFA ANQAVIAAMM AKEDRIAADR 131 LSHASLLEAA SLSPSQLRRF AHNDVTHLAR LLASPCPGQQ MVVTEGVFSM 181 DGDSAPLAEI QQVTQQHNGW LMVDDAHGTG VIGEQGRGSC WLQKVKPELL 231 VVTFGKGFGV SGAAVLCSST VADYLLQFAR HLIYSTSMPP AQAQALRASL 281 AVIRSDEGDA RREKLAALIT RFRAGVQDLP FTLADSCSAI QPLIVGDNSR 331 ALQLAEKLRQ QGCWVTAIRP PTVPAGTARL RLTLTAAHEM QDIDRLLEVL 381 HGNG

(N-terminal $His₆$ tag is in orange)
Appendix 5.6 The DNA and amino acid sequence of

recombinant *E. coli* **AONS (C-terminal His⁶ tagged, in pET22b)**

DNA sequence of recombinant *E. coli* AONS/CHis

(NdeI restriction site is in purple, XhoI restriction site is in red, C-terminal $His₆$ tag in

orange, start codon and stop condon are underlined)

Amino acid sequence of recombinant *E. coli* AONS/CHis

 $(C$ -terminal His₆ tag is in orange)

Appendix 5.7 The DNA and amino acid sequence of

recombinant *Corynebacterium amycolatum SK46* **BioWF fusion**

(N-terminal His⁶ tagged, in plasmid pET28a, Uniprot code:

E2MUP3)

DNA sequence of recombinant *C. amycolatum* BioWF/NHis

(NdeI restriction site is in purple, BamHI restriction site is in red, N-terminal $His₆$ tag

in orange, start codon and stop condon are underlined)

Amino acid sequence of recombinant *C. amycolatum* BioWF/NHis

(N-terminal $His₆$ tag is in orange)

Appendix 5.8 Calibration curve of the Old superdex200 column

subunit Mr (Da) Xsample (lg) **Mr/subunit Mr** Sample Ve \mathbf{Vo} Vt Kav Mr (Da) form Vector NTI PCAS/NTH 73.40 46.00 120.00 0.37 4.76 57,276.61 29,626.54 1.9 0.35 63,961.81 $\overline{2.0}$ PCAS/Nhis 72.20 4.81 46.00 120.00 31,660.69 **PCAS/UT** 74.12 46.00 120.00 0.38 4.73 53,641.19 23,522.07 $\overline{2.3}$ **BioWF** 64.40 46.00 120.00 0.25 5.12 130,928.65 67,884.09 $\overline{1.9}$ PCAS R11A 80.71 46.00 120.00 0.47 4.68 48,215.17 29,541.43 1.6 PCAS R13A 78.60 46.00 120.00 0.44 4.78 60,789.91 29,541.43 2.1

OLD S200

Appendix 5.9 Calibration curve of the New superdex200

Column

NEW S200

Kav=-0.2833Lg(M_r)+1.7958 Kav=(Ve-Vo)/(Vt-Vo)

Mr=10exp {[(Ve-41.94)/(120-41.94)-1.7958]/-0.2833}

