

# Vibrationally Enhanced Hydrogen Tunneling in the *Escherichia coli* Thymidylate Synthase Catalyzed Reaction<sup>†</sup>

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**ABSTRACT:** The enzyme thymidylate synthase (TS) catalyzes a complex reaction that involves forming and breaking at least six covalent bonds. The physical nature of the hydride transfer step in this complex reaction cascade has been studied by means of isotope effects and their temperature dependence. Competitive kinetic isotope effects (KIEs) on the second-order rate constant ( $V/K$ ) were measured over a temperature range of 5–45 °C. The observed H/T ( $^1V/K_H$ ) and D/T ( $^1V/K_D$ ) KIEs were used to calculate the intrinsic KIEs throughout the temperature range. The Swain–Schaad relationships between the H/T and D/T  $V/K$  KIEs revealed that the hydride transfer step is the rate-determining step at the physiological temperature of *Escherichia coli* (20–30 °C) but is only partly rate-determining at elevated and reduced temperatures. H/D KIE on the first-order rate constant  $k_{cat}$  ( $^Dk = 3.72$ ) has been previously reported [Spencer et al. (1997) *Biochemistry* 36, 4212–4222]. Additionally, the Swain–Schaad relationships between that  $^Dk$  and the  $V/K$  KIEs reported here suggested that at 20 °C the hydride transfer step is the rate-determining step for both rate constants. Intrinsic KIEs were calculated here and were found to be virtually temperature independent ( $\Delta E_a = 0$  within experimental error). The isotope effects on the preexponential Arrhenius factors for the intrinsic KIEs were  $A_H/A_T = 6.8 \pm 2.8$  and  $A_D/A_T = 1.9 \pm 0.25$ . Both effects are significantly above the semiclassical (no-tunneling) predicted values and indicate a contribution of quantum mechanical tunneling to this hydride transfer reaction. Tunneling correction to transition state theory would predict that these isotope effects on activation parameters result from no energy of activation for all isotopes. Yet, initial velocity measurements over the same temperature range indicate cofactor inhibition and result in significant activation energy on  $k_{cat}$  ( $4.0 \pm 0.1$  kcal/mol). Taken together, the temperature-independent KIEs, the large isotope effects on the preexponential Arrhenius factors, and a significant energy of activation all suggest vibrationally enhanced hydride tunneling in the TS-catalyzed reaction.

Thymidylate synthase (TS)<sup>1</sup> (EC 2.1.1.45) catalyzes the last committed step in the de novo biosynthesis of 2'-deoxythymidine 5'-monophosphate (dTMP, one of the four building blocks of DNA). The enzyme catalyzes the reductive methylation of 2'-deoxyuridine 5'-monophosphate (dUMP) to dTMP. Apparently, two independent reactions are involved in which the cofactor  $N^5,N^{10}$ -methylene-5,6,7,8-tetrahydrofolate ( $CH_2H_4$ folate) serves as a donor of both methylene and hydride ( $I$ ). The enzyme is crucial for DNA biosynthesis and is overexpressed in actively proliferating cells such as tumor cells (2). TS is the target of the widely used chemotherapeutic drug 5-fluorouracil (5-FU) which, after metabolism to 5-fluoro-2'-deoxyuridine 5'-monophosphate

(5F-dUMP), acts as a potent inhibitor and is active against solid tumors such as those found in breast, head, neck, and colon cancers. However, to significantly inhibit large amounts of TS in tumor cells, high concentrations of TS inhibitory anticancer drugs are necessary. This harms normal tissue cells and results in toxicity. The use of TS inhibitors commonly lead to a further increase of TS expression levels in tumor cells (3), making it more difficult to achieve effective treatment without side effects and leading to drug resistance (4). A better understanding of the TS molecular mechanism may lead to more specific drugs that will specifically inhibit it in cancerous but not in normal cells. Additionally, preferable inhibition in bacterial but not in human cells can lead to antibiotic drugs.

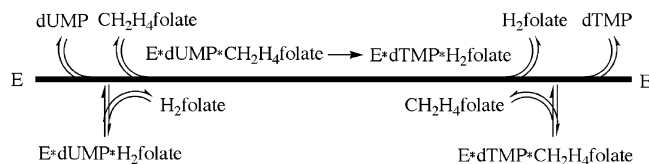
TS from *Escherichia coli* (ecTS) has been extensively studied in terms of structure, kinetics, and mechanism ( $I$ , 5, 6). The enzyme is a homodimer with a molecular mass of 60 kDa. It is among the most highly conserved enzymes with approximately 18% of residues that are strictly conserved among at least 17 sequences (7). Numerous X-ray structures of free and bound enzyme–substrate–cofactor analogues have been determined, and several hundred mutants have been cloned and studied (6, 7). Steady-state kinetic studies suggest a bi-bi order mechanism of reactants binding and products released (Scheme 1) ( $I$ ).

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<sup>1</sup> Abbreviations: TS, thymidylate synthase; DHFR, dihydrofolate reductase; KIE, kinetic isotope effect; RP HPLC, reverse-phase high-pressure liquid chromatography; LSC, liquid scintillation counter; 5-FU, 5-fluorouracil; 5-FdUMP, 5-fluoro-2'-deoxyuridine 5'-monophosphate; dUMP, 2'-deoxyuridine 5'-monophosphate; dTMP, 2'-deoxythymidine 5'-monophosphate;  $CH_2H_4$ folate,  $N^5,N^{10}$ -methylene-5,6,7,8-tetrahydrofolate;  $H_2$ folate, 7,8-dihydrofolate;  $H_4$ folate, 5,6,7,8-tetrahydrofolate; TEAA, triethylammonium acetate; QM H-tunneling, quantum mechanical hydrogen tunneling.

Scheme 1: Order of Substrate Binding and Product Release during the Catalytic Cycle of *E. coli* TS on the Basis of Initial Velocity and Product Inhibition Studies<sup>a</sup>



<sup>a</sup> Adapted from Carreras and Santi (1).

The overall reaction catalyzed by TS can be described as methyl for proton substitution at a vinylic carbon  $\alpha$  to a carbonyl. A multistep reaction mechanism has been proposed in which TS transfers a methylene group from  $\text{CH}_2\text{H}_4\text{folate}$  to dUMP, followed by reduction of the methylene to methyl group to yield dTMP and  $\text{H}_2\text{folate}$  (Scheme 2). The formation of a ternary complex between enzyme, dUMP, and  $\text{CH}_2\text{H}_4\text{folate}$  aligns an overall conserved active site cysteine residue (Cys 146 in *E. coli*) that nucleophilically attacks the C-6 of dUMP (reaction 1 in Scheme 2). In *E. coli* TS, Glu 58 serves as a general base in the activation of the  $\text{CH}_2\text{H}_4\text{folate}$  cofactor to form an iminium ion (A). Then, the C5 carbon of the activated enol (B) nucleophilically attacks the methylene Schiff base iminium ion (A) to form an enzyme-bound covalent intermediate (C) (8, 9). This is followed by abstraction of a proton from C-5 dUMP (probably by Tyr 94 in *E. coli* as general base) to form the enol (D), which leads to the elimination of 5,6,7,8-tetrahydrofolate ( $\text{H}_4\text{folate}$ ) to form the intermediate (E) (10). Finally, the exocyclic methylene intermediate is reduced by hydride from the 6S position of  $\text{H}_4\text{folate}$  to form dTMP and 7,8-dihydrofolate ( $\text{H}_2\text{folate}$ ). It is not clear at this stage whether step 5 proceeds via another enolate intermediate or by an  $\text{S}_{\text{N}}2$  fashion.

In this paper we present mechanistic studies of the hydride transfer step (reaction 5 in Scheme 2), in which tools of physical chemistry were developed to examine the possible contributions of quantum mechanical H-tunneling and enzyme/environmental motion to the TS-catalyzed reaction. Possible contributions of such phenomena to enzyme-catalyzed reactions are a matter of intensive research and have evoked

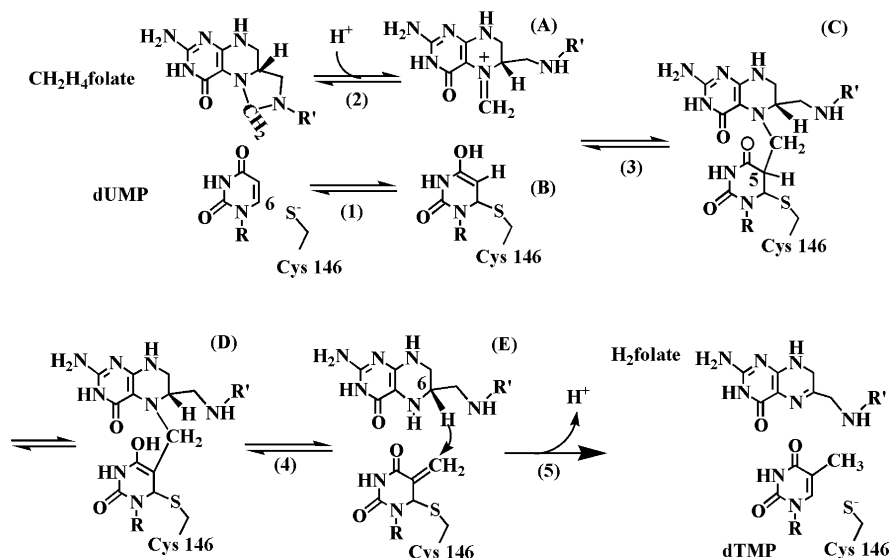
substantial debate in recent years (11–18). In a recent review, Benkovic and Hammes-Schiffer (19) summarize the current state of “our understanding or ignorance” in the field of mechanistic enzymology. As emphasized in their discussion, the ability to expose and study the chemical step of interest within any enzymatic cascade is a major challenge and often the progress-limiting step. The work presented herein represents a study of one chemical step in such a complex chemical cascade. This work focuses on issues central to the discussion presented in ref 19, namely, the contributions of tunneling and enzyme motion to the catalyzed reaction.

The nature of the hydride transfer step is examined by means of intrinsic KIEs, their temperature dependence, and activation parameters. The first temperature dependence of intrinsic KIEs has recently been reported by Francisco et al. (20), who studied peptidylglycine  $\alpha$ -hydroxylating monooxygenase (PHM). Observed H/D and H/T KIEs were used to calculate intrinsic KIEs in a 5–45 °C temperature range. The method presented here for studying TS is different in several aspects from that used for PHM (20): (i) very different chemistry ( $\text{H}^\bullet$  vs  $\text{H}^-$ ), (ii) a unique labeling pattern, (iii) a new analytical methodology, and (iv) different data analysis. Yet, both studies reveal the degree and nature of quantum mechanical tunneling in an H-transfer catalyzed reaction.

Quantum mechanical tunneling is the phenomenon in which a particle transfers through a reaction barrier due to its wavelike properties (21–23). Quantum mechanical transfer of hydrogen at various oxidation states has been studied in several enzymatic systems. It was also associated with protein motion and its active site vibrations or other environmental fluctuations (14, 24–35). This effect is often depicted as “dynamics”, but here we will use the terminology of Benkovic, Hammes-Schiffer, Warshel, and others, in which dynamics are only nonequilibrium motions along the reaction coordinate (12, 19, 36, 37). It is important to note that similar phenomena have also been reported for non-enzymatic systems as discussed below (38–44).

Kinetic complexity and commitment to catalysis were also investigated and analyzed in the context of previous studies

Scheme 2: Proposed Chemical Mechanism for the *E. coli* TS-Catalyzed Reaction<sup>a</sup>



<sup>a</sup> Adapted from Carreras and Santi (1). R = 2'-deoxyribose 5'-phosphate and R' = (*p*-aminobenzoyl)glutamate.

of noncompetitive KIEs at 20 °C (5). The research presented here involves a more complex pattern of isotopic labeling that enabled calculation of intrinsic KIEs. The current study also examines the temperature dependency, the cofactor inhibition, and the activation parameters of the rate constants and the intrinsic KIEs.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

### Materials

Triethylammonium acetate (TEAA), acetonitrile (CH<sub>3</sub>CN), dUMP, and dTMP were purchased from Sigma. CH<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>folate was a generous gift from Eprova Inc., Switzerland. The synthesis of the (R)-[6-<sup>3</sup>H]CH<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>folate cofactor was described in detail elsewhere (45). In short, labeled NaBH<sub>4</sub> reduced acetone to labeled 2-propanol (46) that was then used to reduce NADP<sup>+</sup> to R-labeled NADPH with alcohol dehydrogenase from *Thermoanaerobium brockii* (tbADH). This cofactor reduces H<sub>2</sub>folate with DHFR to produce 6S-labeled H<sub>4</sub>folate that yields (R)-[6-<sup>3</sup>H]CH<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>folate upon quenching with formaldehyde. The specific radioactivity used in the kinetic experiments was 375 Ci/mol, which means that ~1% of the molecules were tritiated at the 6R position (the remainder was protonated at that position). A similar mixture of ~1% (R)-[6-<sup>3</sup>H]CH<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>folate in (R)-[6-<sup>2</sup>H]-CH<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>folate was synthesized by a similar procedure, but, instead, the synthesis was started from [<sup>3</sup>H]NaBH<sub>4</sub> mixed with NaBD<sub>4</sub> (>99% D) to the same final specific activity. [2-<sup>14</sup>C]dUMP (specific radioactivity 52 Ci/mol) was from Moravsek Biochemicals. Tris(hydroxymethyl)aminomethane, ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA), and β-mercaptoethanol were purchased from Sigma. Ultima Gold liquid scintillation cocktail and liquid scintillation vials were purchased from Packard Bioscience. The expression system for *E. coli* TS was a generous gift from R. Stroud (University of California at San Francisco). The enzyme was produced and purified at our laboratory following a published procedure (47). The HPLC system used was Agilent Technologies (previously HP) model 1100 equipped with an online degasser, quaternary pump, temperature-controlled column chamber, UV/Vis diode array detector, and manual injector. The column (C18, 250 × 4.6 mm, 5 μm, Discovery series) was from Supelco, and the column temperature was maintained at 25 °C. All analytical procedures are published in detail elsewhere (45).

### Methods

**Competitive Kinetic Isotope Effects.** Primary H/T and D/T KIEs were measured competitively. All experiments were performed in 100 mM Tris buffer (pH = 7.5, adjusted at the experimental temperature), 50 mM β-mercaptoethanol, 1 mM EDTA, and 5 mM CH<sub>2</sub>O. Prior to the kinetic experiments, the tritiated cofactor (trace (R)-[6-<sup>3</sup>H]CH<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>folate in protiated or deuterated CH<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>folate for H/T or D/T KIE experiments, respectively) and <sup>14</sup>C-labeled substrate ([2-<sup>14</sup>C]dUMP) were mixed (typically 1.5 Mdpm T with 0.5 Mdpm <sup>14</sup>C). To enable measurement of the fractional conversion of CH<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>folate to dTMP (*f*), the [2-<sup>14</sup>C]dUMP was prepared in ~20% molar excess over the CH<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>folate as described in more detail elsewhere (45). The reaction mixture (final volume 1.1 mL) was preequilibrated at the

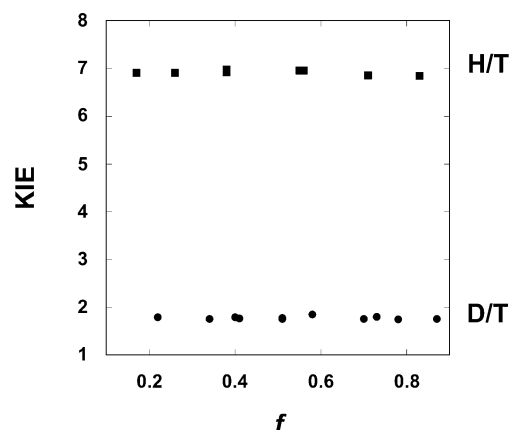


FIGURE 1: Competitive KIEs for primary <sup>T</sup>V/<sub>K<sub>H</sub></sub> (squares) and primary <sup>T</sup>V/<sub>K<sub>D</sub></sub> (circles) plotted vs fractional conversion (*f*) at 20 °C.

experimental temperature. An aliquot of 100 μL was removed and quenched in 30 μM F-dUMP (a specific inhibitor of TS with *K<sub>i</sub>* = 1 nM) and used to test the radiopurity of the reactants. The reaction was then initiated by addition of the enzyme, and five time points of 100 μL each were removed at 5 min intervals and quenched in 30 μM F-dUMP. Finally, a concentrated enzyme was added and incubated at the same temperature for an additional 10 min to achieve infinity time points. For each experiment, three infinity points were removed and quenched as described above. After quenching, all of the samples were frozen and stored at −80 °C prior to RP HPLC analysis. The ratio of <sup>3</sup>H/<sup>14</sup>C in the product dTMP and the fractional conversion (*f*) were determined by RP HPLC separation, followed by fraction collection and liquid scintillation counter (LSC) analysis as described elsewhere (45). To calculate a KIE, three values were measured: the ratio of <sup>3</sup>H/<sup>14</sup>C in the product at each time point (*R<sub>t</sub>*), the ratio of <sup>3</sup>H/<sup>14</sup>C at the infinity time points (*R<sub>∞</sub>*), and the fractional conversion (*f*) (23):

$$\text{KIE} = \frac{\ln(1 - f)}{\ln[1 - f(R_t/R_\infty)]} \quad (1)$$

To determine *f*, the exact excess of [2-<sup>14</sup>C]dUMP over CH<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>folate was measured from the infinity time points and was defined as % excess = [(total <sup>14</sup>C) − ([2-<sup>14</sup>C]dTMP)<sub>∞</sub>]/(total <sup>14</sup>C).

*f* was then calculated from

$$f = \frac{[^{14}\text{C}]d\text{TMP}}{(100 - \% \text{ excess})([^{14}\text{C}]d\text{TMP} + [^{14}\text{C}]d\text{UMP})} \quad (2)$$

Figure 1 presents a typical plot of H/T and D/T KIEs vs fractional conversion. The fact that KIEs are *f* independent within experimental error serves as a good indication that no experimental artifact has affected the measurement (23, 48). The value of the observed KIE at each temperature was the average of at least three independent experiments with five time points and three infinity points each.

**Intrinsic KIEs.** The intrinsic H/T KIEs were derived using the equation (18, 49–51):

$$\frac{T(V/K)_{\text{H,obs}}^{-1} - 1}{T(V/K)_{\text{D,obs}}^{-1} - 1} = \frac{k_T/k_H - 1}{(k_T/k_H)^{1/3.34} - 1} \quad (3)$$



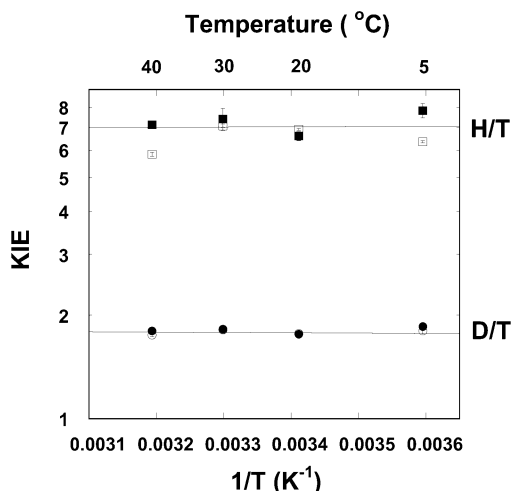


FIGURE 2: Arrhenius plot of observed (empty structures) and intrinsic (filled structures) primary  $^1V/K_H$  (squares) and primary  $^1V/K_D$  (circles). The intrinsic KIEs were calculated as discussed in the text. The lines are the exponential fitting of the intrinsic KIEs to eq 4 (55).

where  $^1(V/K)_{H,obs}$  and  $^1(V/K)_{D,obs}$  are the observed H/T and D/T KIEs, respectively.  $k_T/k_H$  is the reciprocal of  $k_H/k_T$ , which is the intrinsic H/T KIE. The intrinsic D/T KIE is formulated as  $(k_H/k_T)^{1/3.34}$  (18, 52). The Northrop procedure assumes that the reaction has no reverse commitment (or that  $EIE = 1$ ) and that the Swain–Schaad relationship holds for intrinsic primary KIEs even if tunneling is involved (18, 51). In this context, it is important to note that the TS reaction is indeed irreversible (no reverse commitment) and that, in systems demonstrated to proceed with tunneling, the experimental relationship between primary D/T and H/T KIEs is valued at, or very near, the semiclassical limit (25, 34, 35, 53, 54). Even if the magnitude of the exponent (3.34) was altered for a full tunneling model, it would not be expected to change within the temperature range of this study and, hence, would not affect any trend in intrinsic isotope effects with temperature (20). The only unknown in eq 3 is the intrinsic KIE ( $k_H/k_T$ ). Since this equation cannot be solved analytically, a computer program was developed that solves it numerically. This program is now available on our web site <http://cricket.chem.uiowa.edu/~kohen/> under tools.

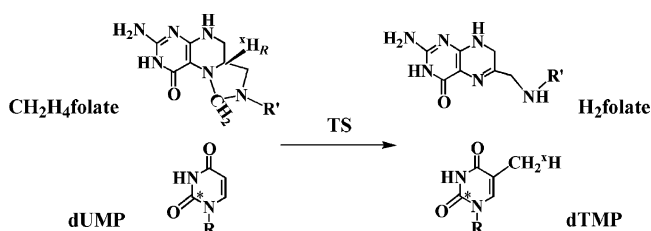
The isotope effects on the activation parameters for the intrinsic KIEs were calculated by fitting them to the Arrhenius equation for isotope effects (55):

$$k_L/k_T = A_L/A_T e^{\Delta E_a/RT} \quad (4)$$

where L is H or D,  $A_L/A_T$  is the isotope effect on the preexponential Arrhenius factors,  $\Delta E_a$  is the difference in energy of activation between T and L,  $R$  is the gas constant, and  $T$  is the absolute temperature (Figure 2).

**Temperature and Concentration Dependence of Initial Rates.** Initial velocities were measured by following the increase in absorbance at 340 nm which is due to the differences in absorbance between  $CH_2H_4$ folate and  $H_2$ folate [ $\Delta\epsilon_{340nm} = 6.4 \text{ mM}^{-1}\text{cm}^{-1}$  (5)]. Measurements were conducted with a Hewlett-Packard 8453 series UV/Vis spectrophotometer equipped with a temperature-controlled cuvette holder. Reaction mixtures containing various concentrations of substrate and cofactor in Tris buffer (pH = 7.5, adjusted at the experimental temperature), 50 mM DTT, 5 mM

Scheme 3: Labeling Patterns Used in the Competitive KIE Measurements<sup>a</sup>



<sup>a</sup> An asterisk (\*) represents a  $^{14}\text{C}$  labeled at the C-2 position of dUMP, and  $^X\text{H}$  represents an H, D, or T label at the 6R position of  $CH_2H_4$ folate. R = 2'-deoxyribose 5'-phosphate and R' = (p-amino-benzoyl)glutamate.

formaldehyde, and 1 mM EDTA were preincubated at the experimental temperature. The reaction was then initiated by addition of the enzyme. The absorbance at 340 nm (subtracted from the internal reference range of 420–450 nm) was measured in 2 s intervals. All measurements were done in at least triplicate, and data were analyzed as described below. These experiments were conducted with DTT instead of  $\beta$ -mercaptoethanol, since the latter is an inhibitor of the reaction (10).

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

**Competitive KIEs.** Competitive V/K KIE measurements were conducted with 6R H-, D-, and T-labeled  $CH_2H_4$ folate and  $[2-^{14}\text{C}]d\text{UMP}$ . A unique feature of the competitive experiments presented here is that the remote  $^{14}\text{C}$  label is not on the same reactant as the hydrogen isotope label (Scheme 3). Competitive KIE measurements of hydrogen isotopes are conducted by directly comparing the depletion or enrichment of the heavier isotope in product or reactant. For hydrogen isotopes, reactants with H or D are commonly labeled with  $^{14}\text{C}$  or tritium at a remote position to enable measurement of their fractional conversion ( $f$ ) (18, 29, 56). The procedure presented here involves a unique remote labeling of the H-acceptor (dUMP), while the donor is labeled with H, D, or T. The conversion of  $[2-^{14}\text{C}]d\text{UMP}$  to  $[2-^{14}\text{C}, 7-^X\text{H}]d\text{TMP}$  is monitored, but the conversion of interest ( $f$ ) is that of  $[6-^X\text{H}]CH_2H_4$ folate to  $[2-^{14}\text{C}, 7-^X\text{H}]d\text{TMP}$ . This requires that the  $[2-^{14}\text{C}]d\text{UMP}$  be in excess ( $\sim 20\%$ ) over  $CH_2H_4$ folate as described recently (45).  $^X\text{H}$  represents H, D, or T, where X is 1, 2, or 3, respectively, and is transferred from the 6R position of  $CH_2H_4$ folate.

At 20 °C, competitive KIE experiments resulted in primary  $^1V/K_H$  and  $^1V/K_D$  KIEs of  $6.91 \pm 0.05$  and  $1.78 \pm 0.02$ , respectively (Figure 1). The Swain–Schaad exponent for these KIEs is  $3.35 \pm 0.07$ , suggesting that the hydride transfer (step 5 in Scheme 2) is rate-determining overall (18, 51). H/D KIE on  $k_{cat}$  ( $p_k = 3.72$ ) has been measured at 20 °C by Spencer and co-workers (5) under the same experimental conditions as reported here. The Swain–Schaad exponent for the H/T V/K KIEs (reported here) vs the H/D  $k_{cat}$  KIEs (5) is  $1.46 \pm 0.4$  [ $\exp = \ln(^1V/K_H)/\ln(p_k)$ ]. Taken together, the exponential relationships of  $k_{cat}$  and V/K KIEs suggest no kinetic complexity on either  $k_{cat}$  or V/K, which strongly supports Spencer's suggestion that the hydride transfer step is rate-determining at 20 °C.

The reason that the observed primary KIEs are often smaller than the intrinsic ones is that kinetic steps that are

not isotopically sensitive “mask” the intrinsic KIEs as follows (51, 57):

$$T(V/K)_{L,obs} = \frac{k_L/k_T + C}{1 + C} \quad (5)$$

where  $C$  is the commitment to catalysis, which is the ratio between the rate of the isotopically sensitive step forward ( $k_{H-transfer}$ ) and the rates of the preceding isotopically non-sensitive steps backward. Although no commitment is present at 20 and 30 °C, the commitment at 5 and 40 °C is  $0.27 \pm 0.05$  (calculated from eq 5). This value suggests that the hydride transfer rate at these temperatures is not much slower than the rate of the reverse steps leading to the decomposition of complex E in Scheme 2 back to dUMP and CH<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>folate. Obviously, this fact cannot simply imply that the level of one forward step is “rate limiting” relative to other forward steps. In this paper we use the term “rate-determining step” for cases where the isotopically sensitive step is not masked by kinetic complexity (i.e., in a case of no commitment).

**Temperature Dependence of Intrinsic KIEs.** The measured H/T and D/T KIEs ( $^1V/K_H$  and  $^1V/K_D$ , respectively) were used to calculate the intrinsic KIEs ( $k_H/k_T$  and  $k_D/k_T$ , respectively). The method developed by Northrop (18, 49–51) was used to calculate the intrinsic KIE from the observed KIEs on the three isotopes of hydrogen (eq 3). Although this equation has only one unknown ( $k_H/k_T$ ), it cannot be solved analytically, and a program that offers numerical solutions to any form of the Swain–Schaad relationship is now available to the public on our web site as listed above. Statistical analysis of the error propagation is not trivial since eq 3 cannot be derivatized for  $k_H/k_T$ . The error propagation we chose was to avoid averaging the observed KIE. Instead, the intrinsic KIEs were calculated for all combinations of the observed H/T and D/T KIEs from individual measurements under the same conditions. This solution is similar to the one applied by Francisco et al. (20) and would underestimate the 95% confidence interval (due to the large number of combinations). Nevertheless, this procedure leads to a realistic standard deviation. The average intrinsic KIE and its standard deviation were used in calculating the isotope effects on the activation parameters (Figure 2).

Figure 2 presents an Arrhenius plot (KIE on a logarithmic scale vs the reciprocal of the absolute temperature) for the observed and intrinsic H/T and D/T KIEs. Two features are apparent from this figure: (i) The intrinsic KIEs are temperature independent over the temperature range examined and within experimental errors. (ii) The observed KIEs are close to the intrinsic values at the enzyme’s physiological temperature (20–30 °C), but the observed KIEs are smaller at elevated and reduced temperatures. The first point was examined by exponential fit of the KIEs to eq 4 (55). The isotope effects on  $E_a$  ( $\Delta E_a$ ) were indeed close to zero ( $0.02 \pm 0.25$  and  $-0.04 \pm 0.08$  kcal/mol for H/T and D/T KIEs, respectively). The isotope effects on the Arrhenius pre-exponential factors were  $A_H/A_T = 6.77 \pm 2.78$  and  $A_D/A_T = 1.90 \pm 0.27$ . Both of these values lie well above the semiclassical limit (1.67 and 1.22 for H/T and D/T, respectively) and cannot be explained by a tunneling correction for the light particle (22, 23, 41, 58, 59). The values are, however, characteristic of a reaction in which both the light and heavy isotopes tunnel. A number of examples of this

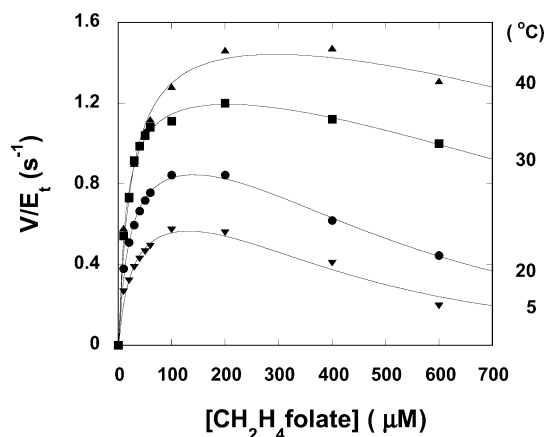


FIGURE 3: Steady-state initial velocity rates vs CH<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>folate concentration at 0.1 mM dUMP. The lines are the nonlinear root mean square fit to eq 6 (55, 62).

behavior in both enzymatic reactions (27, 35, 60) and nonenzymatic reactions (38–44) now exist in the literature. Yet only one previous study has reported intrinsic KIEs that are free from complication of kinetic complexity (20).

**Temperature Dependence of Initial Rates.** The steady-state initial velocities were measured within a temperature range of 5–40 °C. At each temperature, CH<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>folate concentrations were varied from 10 to 600 μM with a fixed dUMP concentration of 100 μM. Alternatively, dUMP concentrations were varied from 25 to 600 μM at 150 μM CH<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>folate. The observed initial velocities were divided by the enzyme concentration prior to data analysis. The rates measured with dUMP as the variable substrate followed the Michaelis–Menten hyperbolic equation (61), while those measured with varying CH<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>folate concentrations presented substrate inhibition (Figure 3) and were fitted to the equation (62):

$$v = k_{cat}[S]/(K_M + [S](1 + [S]^2/K_S)) \quad (6)$$

where  $[S]$  is the varying substrate concentration,  $k_{cat}$  is the first-order rate constant,  $K_M$  is the Michaelis constant, and  $K_S$  is the substrate inhibition constant. Figure 3 shows the rate ( $v$ ) vs CH<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>folate concentration in 100 μM dUMP. The lines represent the nonlinear fit of the data to eq 6 (55). This pattern of inhibition is in accordance with the bi-bi ordered mechanism in which dUMP binds prior to CH<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>folate, and H<sub>2</sub>folate release precedes that of dTMP (Scheme 1) (1). In a previous report, Spencer and co-workers (5) suggested that the binding constant for CH<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>folate might be larger than 100 μM at 20 °C. Fitting of the data presented here (Figure 3) at 20 °C to eq 6 results in  $K_S = 280 \pm 24$  mM, which is indeed a relatively large inhibition constant. Yet, inclusion of the cofactor inhibition while calculating  $k_{cat}$  is of substantial importance, since fitting of the observed rates to the Michaelis equation without cofactor inhibition leads to an underestimation of  $k_{cat}$ . This is especially important in the examination of the energy of activation on  $k_{cat}$ , because  $K_S$ ’s temperature dependence is very significant ( $22 \pm 2$  kcal/mol). If not accounted for, this affects the observed temperature dependence of  $k_{cat}$ . The first-order rate constant  $k_{cat}$  at each temperature was obtained from eq 6, and the data were fit to the Arrhenius equation (Figure 4) (55). The energy of activation on  $k_{cat}$  ( $E_a$ ) was determined to be  $4 \pm 0.1$  kcal/

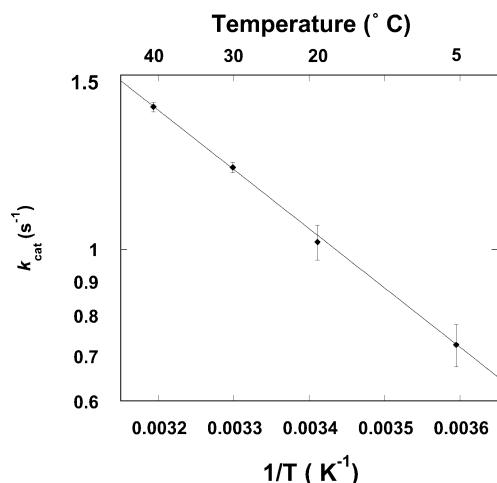


FIGURE 4: Arrhenius plot of  $k_{\text{cat}}$  (logarithmic scale) calculated from fitting the data presented in Figure 3 to eq 6. The line is the exponential fitting of the data to the Arrhenius equation (55).

mol ( $\Delta H^\ddagger_{25^\circ\text{C}} = 3.4 \pm 0.08$  kcal/mol and  $S^\ddagger = 24 \pm 12$  kcal mol<sup>-1</sup> deg<sup>-1</sup>). Interestingly, activation energy close to 4 kcal/mol is relatively small, and typical hydride transfer has enthalpy of activation closer to 8–15 kcal/mol (13). Nevertheless, this  $E_a$  is too large to fit theories that suggest no thermal activation as a source of temperature-independent KIEs (14). The significance of this finding on the mechanism of hydride transfer in the TS-catalyzed reaction is discussed below.

**Environmentally Enhanced Tunneling.** The data presented above enable close examination of the nature of the hydride transfer step (step 5, Scheme 2) in the complex catalytic cascade of the *ec*TS reaction. The temperature-independent KIEs with large  $A_{\text{L}}/A_{\text{T}}$  taken together with  $E_a = 4$  kcal/mol are not in accordance with theoretical models that use tunneling correction where both the light and heavy isotopes tunnel (14, 35). This is because such models explain the lack of temperature dependence of KIEs by assuming no temperature dependence on the reaction rates for both light and heavy isotopes [full, or extensive, tunneling model (13, 16, 18)]. The fact that  $E_a$  is significantly larger than zero might be explained by models that invoke an isotopically insensitive, thermally activated, step (e.g., environmental pre- or rearrangement) and an isotopically sensitive but temperature-independent H-transfer step (tunneling) (14, 16, 19, 27). Temperature-independent KIEs with a large energy of activation have been reported in the literature (20, 30, 32, 33, 35, 63, 64). Those findings also could not be understood by applying a simple correction to transition state theory, and a “Marcus-like” model that included an environmental motion was applied. An environmental motion can alter the probability of achieving configurations with degenerate quantum states. Such a motion can also alter the probability of tunneling at the degenerate configurations (15, 16, 27, 60, 65–68). These types of environmental motion modulate the tunneling barrier, typically by modulating the driving force of the reaction, the reorganization energy [ $E^\circ$  and  $\lambda$  in Marcus theory (69, 70)], and the degeneracy of the reactant and product energy levels. Several terms have been coined in models that describe such phenomenon, including “vibrationally enhanced ground-state quantum tunneling” (60), “rate-promoting vibrations” (66), and “environmentally

coupled tunneling” (16, 27). All of these models are phenomenological, and no molecular level calculations have yet been reported that can reproduce such phenomenon.

An alternative way to analyze the contributions of tunneling, coupled motion, dynamics, and other physical phenomena to an enzymatic reaction rate would be to simulate the reaction using hybrid quantum mechanics/molecular mechanics (QM/MM) calculations. Such calculations were performed for several other enzymatic H-transfer reactions (e.g., refs 36, 37, 68, and 71–75). Those simulations were commonly done for systems where results from KIE and other studies suggested nonclassical contributions to those enzymatic reactions. Despite the medical importance of this enzyme and its interesting chemical reaction, no such calculations have been conducted for TS. This might be due to the lack of experimental information relevant to intrinsic processes along the reaction coordinate. Maybe the data presented here will encourage such studies.

**Contributions to Catalysis.** It is of great interest to assess the contribution of nonclassical phenomenon to enzyme catalysis. To address that issue, the catalyzed and uncatalyzed reactions must be compared. Early attempts to address this question were carried out by Kreevoy, Cleland, Schowen, and their co-workers (76–78). Unfortunately, it is not commonly possible to measure the rate or KIE of uncatalyzed reactions that are relevant to an enzyme-catalyzed reaction. Most uncatalyzed or nonenzymatically catalyzed reactions lead to many byproducts and may proceed through a transition state other than the enzymatic one. Wolfenden and co-workers (79) demonstrated a rare exception for the hydrolytic reaction, and recently Finke and co-workers (80, 81) studied a model system with potential relevance to the methylmalonyl-CoA mutase reaction (82). In this last study, moderate tunneling (tunneling of only the light particle) was suggested for a model reaction from  $A_{\text{H}}/A_{\text{D}} < 1$ . That result is very different from the results presented here ( $A_{\text{H}}/A_{\text{T}}$  and  $A_{\text{D}}/A_{\text{T}} > 1$ ) but is qualitatively similar to that reported for the methylmalonyl-CoA mutase catalyzed reaction (82). In their papers, Finke and co-workers suggested that their results are in accordance with a similar degree of tunneling in both enzymatic and nonenzymatic systems. In our minds, since the H-transfer is not rate-determining in that enzymatic reaction and since the uncatalyzed reaction was initiated by photolysis (potentially leading to a vibrationally excited state for the H-transfer), it is not yet clear how general that suggestion might be.

## CONCLUSIONS

The hydride transfer step in the wild-type *ec*TS-catalyzed reaction was examined, and several significant conclusions can be drawn from the findings reported above. This work provides the first experimental evidence for a contribution of vibrationally enhanced quantum mechanical tunneling to the hydride step in a TS-catalyzed reaction. The temperature independence of the primary KIEs is key evidence of nonclassical behavior. The temperature dependence of intrinsic primary KIEs yields isotope effects on Arrhenius parameters that lie well outside the semiclassical limits (22, 23, 58, 59).

Cofactor inhibition of CH<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>folate was observed while measuring the steady-state rate constants across the temper-



ature range (5–40 °C). This phenomenon was predicted by previous publications for the reaction at 20 °C (1, 5) but was never observed before. This finding is in accordance with the kinetic mechanism presented in Scheme 1. The inhibition constant has a large binding energy (22 kcal/mol) such that inhibition almost vanishes at elevated temperature. Accounting for this inhibition enabled extraction of the first-order rate constant  $k_{\text{cat}}$  at all temperatures and afforded calculation of its energy of activation ( $E_a = 4 \pm 0.1$  kcal/mol). This, together with the KIE activation parameters, suggests that the *ec*TS-catalyzed H-transfer involves environmentally enhanced (vibrationally coupled) tunneling.

At the current state of “our understanding or ignorance” (19), no one specific model that has been developed to explain temperature-independent KIEs seems to be more general than others. Thus, we use the term “environmentally enhanced tunneling” (16, 27) while addressing “Marcus-like” models. This term seems to be more comprehensive because it includes both preorganizational motion (affecting the symmetry of the H-transfer coordinate) and the “gating” fluctuation (primarily affecting the barrier’s width). We hope that the new findings presented here will enable and encourage theoreticians to embark on a molecular investigation (e.g., QM/MM studies) of this interesting system.

Whether phenomena such as H-tunneling, vibrationally coupled tunneling, and environmentally enhanced reaction rates contribute to enzyme catalysis is an open question. Further studies of enzymatically relevant model reactions using the tool described here could lead to a more concrete evaluation of that seminal question.

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