

# Rate-Limiting Steps and Role of Active Site Lys443 in the Mechanism of Carbapenam Synthetase<sup>†</sup>

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**ABSTRACT:** Carbapenam synthetase (hereafter named CPS) catalyzes the formation of the  $\beta$ -lactam ring in the biosynthetic pathway to (5*R*)-carbapen-2-em-3-carboxylate, the simplest of the carbapenem antibiotics. Kinetic studies showed remarkable tolerance to substrate stereochemistry in the turnover rate but did not distinguish between chemistry and a nonchemical step such as product release or conformational change as being rate-determining. Also, X-ray structural studies and modest sequence homology to  $\beta$ -lactam synthetase, an enzyme that catalyzes the formation of a monocyclic  $\beta$ -lactam ring in a similar ATP/Mg<sup>2+</sup>-dependent reaction, implicate K443 as an essential residue for substrate binding and intermediate stabilization. In these experiments, we use pH–rate profiles, deuterium solvent isotope effects, and solvent viscosity measurements to examine the rate-limiting step in this complex overall process of substrate adenylation and intramolecular ring formation. Mutagenesis and chemical rescue demonstrate that K443 is the general acid visible in the pH–rate profile of the wild-type CPS-catalyzed reaction. On the basis of these results, we propose a mechanism in which the rate-limiting step is  $\beta$ -lactam ring formation coupled to a protein conformational change and underscore the role of K443 throughout the reaction.

Resistance to antibiotics commonly used to combat infectious diseases is rising (1, 2). The  $\beta$ -lactam antibiotics, represented most prominently by penicillins and cephalosporins, constitute the largest portion of the world's antibiotic market despite inroads from resistant organisms (3). An important part of the continued successful use of penicillins and cephalosporins has been the introduction of clavulanic acid to overcome several widely encountered  $\beta$ -lactamases that confer resistance (4, 5), and the advent of carbapenems that combine potent, broad-spectrum activity with reduced sensitivity to  $\beta$ -lactamases. These advances have extended the clinical usefulness of the  $\beta$ -lactam antibiotics now to more than 50 years, but the inexorable adaptation of disease-causing bacteria motivates continued efforts in semisynthesis and pathway engineering (6) to yield new structures to counter evolving mechanisms of resistance.

The centrally important  $\beta$ -lactam rings in clavulanic acid and the carbapenems are derived from  $\beta$ -amino acids by coupling their formation to the hydrolysis of ATP, a biosynthetic process wholly different from the oxidative cyclization reactions seen in penicillin and cephalosporin biosynthesis (7).  $\beta$ -Lactam synthetase ( $\beta$ -LS)<sup>1</sup> closes *N*<sup>2</sup>-

carboxyethyl-L-arginine (CEA) to the monocyclic product, deoxyguanidinoproclavamate (DGPC), en route to clavulanic acid (8, 9). In the (5*R*)-carbapen-2-em-3-carboxylate pathway, CPS, the distant homologue of  $\beta$ -LS (22% identical and 36% similar), cyclizes (2*S*,5*S*)-5-carboxymethylproline [(2*S*,5*S*)-CMPr] to (3*S*,5*S*)-carbapen-3-carboxylate (10). While  $\beta$ -LS is specific for the L-configured substrate, CPS can cyclize (2*S*,5*S*)-CMPr and the three other possible stereoisomers of this precursor with approximately equal ease (9, 10). The notable stereochemical flexibility of CPS makes it an especially attractive target for protein engineering for the production of modified carbapenems.

Both CPS and  $\beta$ -LS exhibit Bi-Ter sequential kinetic mechanisms in which ATP binds first followed by the modified amino acid substrate (9, 10). Adenylation and formation of four-membered rings occur followed by product release, PP<sub>i</sub> being the last to leave the active site (9, 10). This kinetic picture agrees well with what is known about the progenitor asparagine synthetases, class B (AS-B), a highly conserved family of primary metabolic enzymes that convert aspartate to asparagine (11). All three of these proteins proceed through an acyl-adenylate intermediate during the course of their individual reactions (Scheme 1). The chemical and structural similarities among these three proteins suggest an evolutionary link between the  $\beta$ -lactam-forming enzymes and AS-B (9, 10, 12, 13). The structural and catalytic machinery of AS-B for ATP binding and for synthesis of a distal amino diacid acyl-adenylate intermediate is shared among all three proteins.

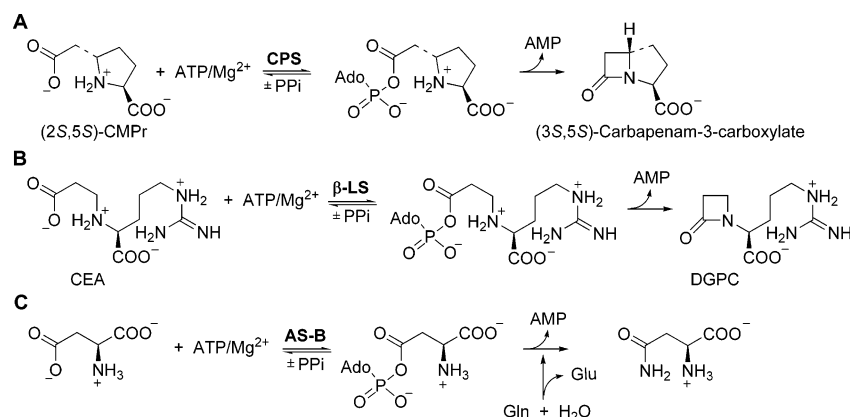
Compared to AS-B, however, evolutionary changes are evident in the enlarged and remodeled active sites of the  $\beta$ -lactam-forming enzymes. Analysis of the CPS and  $\beta$ -LS

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<sup>1</sup> Abbreviations: CPS, carbapenam synthetase;  $\beta$ -LS,  $\beta$ -lactam synthetase; AS-B, asparagine synthetase, class B; IPTG, isopropyl  $\beta$ -D-thiogalactopyranoside; DTT, dithiothreitol; EDTA, ethylenediamine-tetraacetic acid; PMSF, phenylmethanesulfonyl fluoride; Tris-HCl, tris(hydroxymethyl)aminomethane hydrochloride; (2*S*,5*S*)-CMPr, (2*S*,5*S*)-5-carboxymethylproline; PP<sub>i</sub>, pyrophosphate; CEA, *N*<sup>2</sup>-(carboxyethyl)-L-arginine; DGPC, deoxyguanidinoproclavaminic acid.

Scheme 1: Comparison of the Reactions Catalyzed by CPS,  $\beta$ -LS, and AS-B<sup>a</sup>

<sup>a</sup> (A) CPS catalyzes the formation of the bicyclic  $\beta$ -lactam, (3S,5S)-carbapenam-3-carboxylate, from (2S,5S)-CMPr. (B)  $\beta$ -LS catalyzes the ATP/Mg<sup>2+</sup>-dependent intramolecular closure of the  $\beta$ -amino acid CEA to the monocyclic  $\beta$ -lactam DGPC. (C) AS-B catalyzes the transfer of the amide nitrogen of glutamine to the side chain of aspartate.

structures suggests that K443 not only interacts with ATP but also could play a role in stabilizing the oxyanion transition state traversed in the formation of the acyl-AMP intermediate (12–14). To better understand the complex two-stage formation of a  $\beta$ -lactam ring carried out by these enzymes, and as a prelude to engineering these proteins for semisynthetic purposes, we provide experimental evidence that identifies the rate-determining step in the CPS catalytic reaction and characterize the role of K443. pH dependence, viscosity, and solvent kinetic isotope effect studies point to the  $\beta$ -lactam ring-forming step and an enzyme conformational change as both contributing to the overall rate limitation of CPS-mediated synthesis. Mutagenesis and chemical rescue experiments identify K443 as the general acid stabilizing the acyl-adenylate intermediate.

## EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

**Materials and Methods.** All buffers, all resins, all coupling enzymes, glycerol, sucrose, and PEG 8000 were obtained from Sigma (St. Louis, MO). Plasmid pUC19 was from Invitrogen (Carlsbad, CA), and pCDFDuet-1 was purchased from Novagen (La Jolla, CA). pET24a/*cps*, pET24a/*carBC*, and pCDFDuet-1/*cps* plasmids were generous gifts from R.-F. Li of this laboratory (ref 15 and unpublished experiments). Nitrocefin was kindly provided by K. A. Moshos of this laboratory. D<sub>2</sub>O (99%) was purchased from Cambridge Isotope Laboratories (Andover, MA), while DCl, NaOD, 2,2,2-trifluoroethylamine, propylamine, and propargylamine were obtained from Aldrich (Milwaukee, WI). (2S,5S)-5-Carboxymethylproline was prepared by the method previously described (10).

**Plasmid Construction.** For the purposes of mutagenesis, pUC19/*cps* was obtained by ligation of *cps* at the HindIII and XbaI sites of plasmid pUC19. For coexpression of pET24a/*carBC* with the mutant *cps* genes in the nitrocefin assay, the mutant *cps* genes were ligated into the NdeI and XhoI sites of pCDFDuet-1.

**Mutagenesis.** The singly mutated *cps* genes corresponding to K443A and K443M were generated using QuikChange site-directed mutagenesis (Stratagene) and pUC19/*cps* as the template. The presence of the desired mutations in all mutant *cps* genes as well as the absence of adventitious mutations

was confirmed by complete gene sequencing (DNA Sequence Facility, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, MD). The mutant *cps* genes were cloned into pET24a (Novagen, Madison, WI) for subsequent enzyme overproduction.

**Overexpression and Purification of Native CPS and Variants.** *Escherichia coli* electrocompetent BL21(DE3) cells were transformed with pET24/*cps* or the mutant gene for enzyme overproduction. Cells were grown at 37 °C in 2 $\times$ YT medium with 25  $\mu$ g/mL kanamycin A and induced (OD<sub>600</sub> = 0.6) with 1 mM IPTG for 4 h at 28 °C. Cells were harvested by centrifugation, and the pellet was flash-frozen in liquid nitrogen. Usually, 10 g of cells for the native CPS enzyme was obtained from 3 L of medium. All purification procedures were carried out on ice or at 4 °C. The frozen cells were resuspended to 0.35 g/mL in lysis buffer [100 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0), 1.8 mM EDTA, 1 mM benzamidine, 1 mM PMSF, and 1 mM DTT] and lysed by three passes through a French press at 18 000 psi. Cell debris was removed by centrifugation, and excess DNA was removed by streptomycin sulfate precipitation at a final concentration of 3%. The resulting supernatant was subjected to ammonium sulfate fractionation at 35 and 65% saturation. The final pellet was then resuspended in less than 10 mL of dialysis buffer [50 mM Tris-base (pH 7.5), 0.1 mM EDTA, 1 mM benzamidine, 1 mM PMSF, and 1 mM DTT] and dialyzed against 3.5 L of dialysis buffer with two buffer changes in 6 h. The dialyzed enzyme solution was then loaded onto a Q-Sepharose FF column [pre-equilibrated with 50 mM Tris-base (pH 7.5), 150 mM NaCl, and 1 mM DTT] by gravity. After a 250 mL wash of 50 mM Tris-base (pH 7.5), 150 mM NaCl, and 1 mM DTT, the enzyme was eluted with a 1.6 L gradient from 150 to 450 mM NaCl in 50 mM Tris-base (pH 7.5) and 1 mM DTT. Fractions containing the desired protein were pooled, and ammonium sulfate was added to a final concentration of 1 M. This solution was then loaded onto a Butyl-Sepharose FF column [pre-equilibrated with 50 mM Tris-base (pH 7.5), 1 M ammonium sulfate, and 1 mM DTT] by gravity. After the column had been washed with 50 mL of 50 mM Tris-base (pH 7.5), 1 M ammonium sulfate, and 1 mM DTT, the enzyme was eluted with a 800 mL gradient from 1 to 0 M ammonium sulfate in 50 mM Tris-base (pH 7.5) and 1 mM DTT. The

fractions containing CPS or its variants were pooled and dialyzed against 50 mM Tris-base (pH 7.5) and 1 mM DTT. The enzyme was concentrated to approximately 10 mg/mL by ultrafiltration in an Amicon stirred cell over a YM10 membrane and flash-frozen dropwise in liquid nitrogen and stored at  $-80^{\circ}\text{C}$ . Protein concentrations were measured spectrophotometrically at 280 nm using the extinction coefficient previously determined for CPS [ $\epsilon_{280} = 1.82 \pm 0.16 \text{ mL mg}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$  (pH 7.0,  $25^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) (10)]. The relative purity was calculated by SDS-PAGE analysis and was  $\geq 95\%$ .

**Circular Dichroism Spectroscopy.** Circular dichroism (CD) spectroscopy was performed using a Jasco J-810 spectropolarimeter with a temperature control unit. The wild type and variants were prepared in 50 mM Tris-base (pH 7.5) and 1 mM DTT at a final concentration of 20  $\mu\text{M}$ , and UV CD spectra (from 300 to 180 nm) were recorded.

**Nitrocefin Assay.** *E. coli* electrocompetent BL21(DE3) cells were cotransformed with pET24a/*carBC* and pCDF-Duet-1/*cps* or the mutant *cps* gene for overexpression. Cells were grown at  $37^{\circ}\text{C}$  in 2 $\times$ YT medium supplemented with 25  $\mu\text{g/mL}$  kanamycin A and 25  $\mu\text{g/mL}$  spectinomycin and induced ( $\text{OD}_{600} = 0.6$ ) with 1 mM IPTG for 5 h at  $28^{\circ}\text{C}$ . Samples (1 mL) were taken at 0, 3, and 5 h and spun down at 14600g, and the pellet was separated from the supernatant. The ability of the overexpression supernatant to catalyze carbapenem synthesis was monitored in a nitrocefin paper disk assay (16–18). BA<sub>2</sub> agar plates (18), inoculated with *Bacillus licheniformis* (ATCC 14580), were used to detect the presence of the carbapenem antibiotic. Supernatant (250  $\mu\text{L}$ ) was applied to the assay plates on 1.25 cm paper disks and incubated at  $37^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 3 h. After incubation, a freshly prepared 1 mL solution of nitrocefin (300  $\mu\text{g/mL}$ ) in PBS buffer (18) was applied to the assay plates. The appearance of a red zone indicated the induction of  $\beta$ -lactamase. Negative and positive control experiments were conducted with pET24a/*carBC* and the cotransformation of pET24a/*carBC* and pCDFDuet-1/*cps*, respectively. To test the sensitivity of the nitrocefin assay, a range of ampicillin amounts (2.5 pg to 25  $\mu\text{g}$ ) was applied to the assay plates on paper disks and assayed as described above.

**CPS Assay.** Release of  $\text{PP}_i$  catalyzed by CPS was detected by a coupled enzyme assay described by Van Pelt and Northrop (19) as modified and used previously (10). The progress of the enzymic reaction was monitored at 340 nm ( $\epsilon_{280} = 6.22 \text{ mM}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) as the increase in the rate of NADPH production at  $25^{\circ}\text{C}$ . Assay mixtures of 200  $\mu\text{M}$  UDP-glucose, 200  $\mu\text{M}$  NADP, 0.2  $\mu\text{M}$  glucose 1,6-bisphosphate, 1.5 mM ATP, 1 mM DTT, and 15 mM  $\text{MgCl}_2$  were made up in a buffer system of 100 mM HEPES and 80 mM piperazine at an ionic strength of 0.15 kept constant with KCl (20) and at the indicated pH. The concentrations of the coupling enzymes at pH 8.0 were 2 units/mL phosphoglucosyltransferase, 1 unit/mL glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase, and 4 units/mL UDP-glucose pyrophosphorylase. Reactions were carried out in a final volume of 500  $\mu\text{L}$  and initiated by the addition of CPS. Controls for each condition (pH, viscosity,  $\text{D}_2\text{O}$ , etc.), as described below, were conducted to ensure that CPS was the rate-determining enzyme in the assay. The initial velocity conditions of the assays were not limited by the coupling enzymes since a linear dependence of  $v$  on CPS concentration was obtained.

**Dependence of CPS Activity on pH.** pH studies on the wild-type enzyme were performed to generate a profile of enzyme activity as a function of pH. The initial velocity patterns were measured with the  $\text{PP}_i$ -coupled enzyme assay described above where ATP was held constant (1.0 mM) and (2S,5S)-CMPr was varied (0.075–2.5 mM). The amount of coupled enzymes, phosphoglucosyltransferase and glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase, was increased up to a maximum of 4 and 3 units/mL, respectively, at the high and low pH values. Initial velocity measurements were determined at several pH values (6.67, 7.33, 8.0, 8.67, 9.33, 9.67, 9.8, 10.0, and 10.33). Assay reactions were conducted in duplicate. The resulting kinetic data were fit to eq 1 to obtain the first- and second-order kinetic parameters,  $k_{\text{cat}}$  and  $k_{\text{cat}}/K_m$ , respectively. Profiles were generated by plotting  $\log k_{\text{cat}}$  or  $\log(k_{\text{cat}}/K_m)$  as a function of pH, and relevant  $\text{pK}_a$  values were identified by a fit of eq 2.

**Solvent Viscosity Studies.** CPS kinetic assays were performed with the macroviscogen PEG 8000 (6%, w/w) and the microviscogen glycerol (0–30%, w/w). The viscosity of the solutions was determined in quadruplicate at  $25^{\circ}\text{C}$  using a Brookfield viscometer, relative to the standard CPS assay buffer consisting of 80 mM piperazine and 100 mM HEPES (ionic strength of 0.15, pH 8.0).  $\text{PP}_i$ -coupled enzyme assays were performed as described above where ATP was held constant (1.0 mM) and (2S,5S)-CMPr was varied (0.1–1.5 mM). Kinetic parameters were determined from fits to eq 1.

**Solvent Kinetic Isotope Effects.** Initial velocity patterns were measured with the  $\text{PP}_i$ -coupled enzyme assay described above where ATP was held constant (1.0 mM) and (2S,5S)-CMPr was varied (0.075–0.75 mM). All divalent metal ions and substrates were exchanged in 99.9%  $\text{D}_2\text{O}$  and lyophilized. This process was repeated four times. Under argon, the samples were redissolved in  $\text{D}_2\text{O}$  to give the desired concentrations and stored in airtight flasks. The pD ( $\text{pD} = \text{pH} + 0.4$ ) (21) of the HEPES and piperazine buffer was adjusted using DCl and NaOD. Assay mixtures were prepared and covered with Parafilm prior to use. Assays were performed in triplicate. pL–rate profiles were constructed at various mole fractions of  $\text{D}_2\text{O}$  ( $n = 0.15, 0.3, 0.5, 0.7, 0.85$ , and 1.0) to determine appropriate pL values at which to perform proton inventories. Proton inventories were constructed by varying the atom fraction of  $\text{D}_2\text{O}$  ( $n$ ) from 0 to 1 at the optimum pL value for each isotopic mixture.

**Chemical Rescue of the K443A Mutant by Exogenous Amines.** All exogenous amines, propylamine, propargylamine, and 2,2,2-trifluoroethylamine, were prepared in 100 mM HEPES and 80 mM piperazine at the desired pH, ionic strength, and concentration. The chemical rescue effects of the primary amines were determined by measuring the initial velocity of the  $\text{PP}_i$ -coupled enzyme assay at  $25^{\circ}\text{C}$  as a function of added exogenous amine. Assay mixtures contained the components of the  $\text{PP}_i$  assay and various concentrations of the rescue amines (5–500 mM exogenous amines). Reaction was initiated by the addition of the K443A variant. Rescue parameters ( $V_{\text{max}}$  and  $K_m^{\text{amine}}$ ) for CPS by added primary amines were obtained from fits of initial velocities versus concentrations of the amines to eq 1. With primary amines ( $\text{pK}_a < 8.2$ ), the kinetic parameters were corrected for the fraction of the protonated amine as described below. Such a correction was not necessary for amines with a  $\text{pK}_a$  of  $\geq 9.0$  (i.e.,  $\geq 97\%$  acid form at pH 8.0).



(22, 23). The apparent rate constant of the reaction catalyzed by the exogenous amine is expressed by the following equation:

$$k_{\text{obs}} = k_a[\text{amine}]_{\text{protonated}} + k_{\text{sol}}$$

where  $k_a$  is the rate constant of reaction catalyzed by the protonated form of amine,  $k_{\text{sol}}$  is the rate constant of reaction proceeding in a manner independent of the amine, and  $[\text{amine}]_{\text{protonated}}$  is the concentration of the protonated amine.<sup>2</sup> Plots of  $k_{\text{obs}}$  versus  $[\text{amine}]_{\text{total}}/(K_a/[\text{H}^+] + 1)$  were fit to eq 1 to obtain  $k_a$ .

**Steady-State Kinetic Analysis.** All steady-state kinetic data were fitted using the FORTRAN programs of Cleland (24). Initial velocity patterns were fitted to eq 1. pH profiles of the CPS reaction were fitted using eq 2. Proton inventories were fitted using Kaleidagraph to perform nonlinear least-squares regression analysis of eqs 3 and 4 with the errors propagated according to eq 5, where  $\Delta k$  corresponds to the standard error.

$$v/[E_o] = (k_{\text{cat}}A)/(K_m + A) \quad (1)$$

$$\log k_{\text{cat}} = \log[c/(1 + [\text{H}^+]/K_1 + K_2/[\text{H}^+])] \quad (2)$$

$$^n k_{\text{cat}} = {}^D k_{\text{cat}}[1 - n + n/({}^D k_{\text{cat}})^{1/2}]^2 \quad (3)$$

$$^n k_{\text{cat}} = {}^D k_{\text{cat}}[1 - n + n/({}^D k_{\text{cat}})^{1/3}]^3 \quad (4)$$

$$\Delta^n k_{\text{cat}} = \{(1/{}^D k_{\text{cat}})^2(\Delta^n k)^2 + [-n k/({}^D k)^2](\Delta^D k)^2\}^{1/2} \quad (5)$$

## RESULTS

**Purification and Characterization of the Wild Type and K443 Variants.** The wild-type, K443A CPS mutant, and K443M CPS mutant enzymes were purified to >95% homogeneity, on the basis of SDS-PAGE, from an average of 10 mg of protein/L of culture. The kinetic parameters  $k_{\text{cat}}$  and  $k_{\text{cat}}/K_m$  for wild-type CPS at pH 8.0 were  $0.36 \pm 0.01 \text{ s}^{-1}$  and  $1.04 \pm 0.04 \text{ mM}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ , respectively. At pH 8.0, 6.33, and 9.33, the K443A and K443M CPS variants showed no measurable activity with reaction concentrations of 0.9 and 0.4 mg/mL, respectively, at substrate concentrations 10 times greater than the  $K_m$  of native CPS. The CD spectra of the variants (data not shown) exhibited minimal deviations from that of the wild-type CD spectrum. Thus, the observed decrease in activity of the single-site mutants is not due to major structural changes in the protein.

A nitrocefin assay was used to determine whether the K443 active site mutations formed the carbapenem product of the wild-type CPS reaction. This assay confirmed the results of the PP<sub>i</sub>-coupled enzyme assay: The K443A and K443M variants do not catalyze the formation of (3S,5S)-carbapenem-3-carboxylate to a detectable level. Using ampi-

<sup>2</sup> The concentration of the protonated amine depends on the ionization constant ( $K_a$ ) of the amine and the proton concentration  $[\text{H}^+]$  based on the following:  $\text{amine}_{\text{protonated}} + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightleftharpoons \text{H}_3\text{O}^+ + \text{amine}_{\text{free}}$ , where  $K_a = ([\text{H}_3\text{O}^+][\text{amine}_{\text{free}}])/([\text{amine}_{\text{protonated}}][\text{H}_2\text{O}])$ ,  $K_a = K[\text{H}_2\text{O}] = ([\text{H}^+][\text{amine}_{\text{free}}])/[\text{amine}_{\text{protonated}}]$ ,  $[\text{amine}_{\text{protonated}}] = ([\text{amine}_{\text{free}}][\text{H}^+])/K_a$ ,  $[\text{amine}]_{\text{total}} = [\text{amine}_{\text{free}}] + [\text{amine}_{\text{protonated}}]$ ,  $[\text{amine}]_{\text{total}} = ([\text{amine}_{\text{protonated}}]K_a/[\text{H}^+] + [\text{amine}_{\text{protonated}}])$ ,  $[\text{amine}]_{\text{total}} = [\text{amine}_{\text{protonated}}](K_a/[\text{H}^+] + 1)$ ,  $[\text{amine}]_{\text{protonated}} = [\text{amine}]_{\text{total}}/(K_a/[\text{H}^+] + 1)$ ,  $k_{\text{obs}} = k_a[\text{amine}]_{\text{total}}/(K_a/[\text{H}^+] + 1)$ .

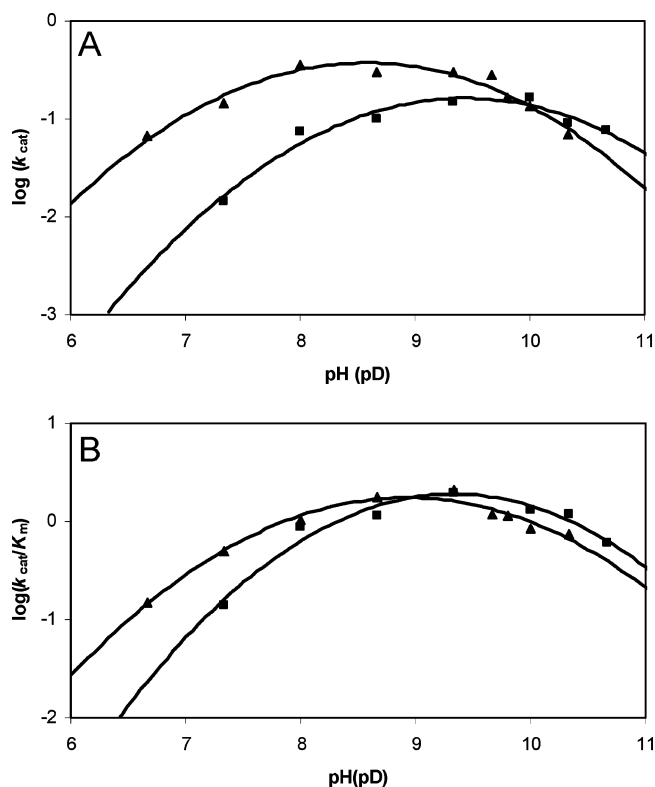


FIGURE 1: pH and pD dependence of  $k_{\text{cat}}$  and  $k_{\text{cat}}/K_m$  for wild-type CPS. (A) A plot of  $\log(k_{\text{cat}})$  vs pH (▲) and pD (■) determined the  $pK_a$  values to be  $7.4 \pm 0.1$  and  $9.7 \pm 0.1$ , and  $8.3 \pm 0.2$  and  $10.4 \pm 0.3$ , respectively. (B) A plot of  $\log(k_{\text{cat}}/K_m)$  vs pH (▲) and pD (■) determined the  $pK_a$  values to be  $7.8 \pm 0.1$  and  $10.0 \pm 0.1$ , and  $8.4 \pm 0.2$  and  $10.3 \pm 0.2$ , respectively.

cillin as a positive control, the sensitivity limit of the assay was determined to be <2.5 pg. Therefore, if the K443 variants catalyze the formation of the more potent (3S,5S)-carbapenem 3-carboxylate, then it is at a level below 2.5 pg.

**Effects of pH on Catalysis by Wild-Type CPS.** Wild-type CPS pH-rate profiles were constructed to identify ionizable groups that are important for catalysis (20, 25). In an ordered mechanism,  $k_{\text{cat}}/K_m$  for the first substrate normally equals the bimolecular rate constant for combination with the enzyme and shows only binding information; therefore,  $k_{\text{cat}}/K_m$  for the second substrate is the one of interest (25). Consequently, the pH dependence of the parameters  $k_{\text{cat}}$  and  $k_{\text{cat}}/K_m$  was measured by varying the concentration of (2S,5S)-CMPr at saturating ATP levels over a pH range of 6.67–10.33 (Figure 1).  $\log(k_{\text{cat}})$  and  $\log(k_{\text{cat}}/K_m)$  profiles were similar and bell-shaped with slopes of +1 and -1 in the acidic and basic limbs, respectively, corresponding to single protonation and deprotonation events. The  $pK_a$  values for  $k_{\text{cat}}$  and  $k_{\text{cat}}/K_m$  obtained are  $7.4 \pm 0.1$  and  $9.7 \pm 0.1$ , and  $7.8 \pm 0.1$  and  $10.0 \pm 0.1$ , respectively.

**Solvent Viscosity Studies.** The effect of solvent viscosity on enzyme activity was investigated to assess whether diffusion-controlled events, such as product release or a conformational change, are rate-limiting. It has been reported that the response of kinetic parameters to solution viscosity increase can be significantly affected by the type of viscogenic reagent that is used (26–28). Therefore, both sucrose and glycerol were initially tested to study the CPS reaction. Unfortunately, sucrose acts as an activator for CPS hydrolysis

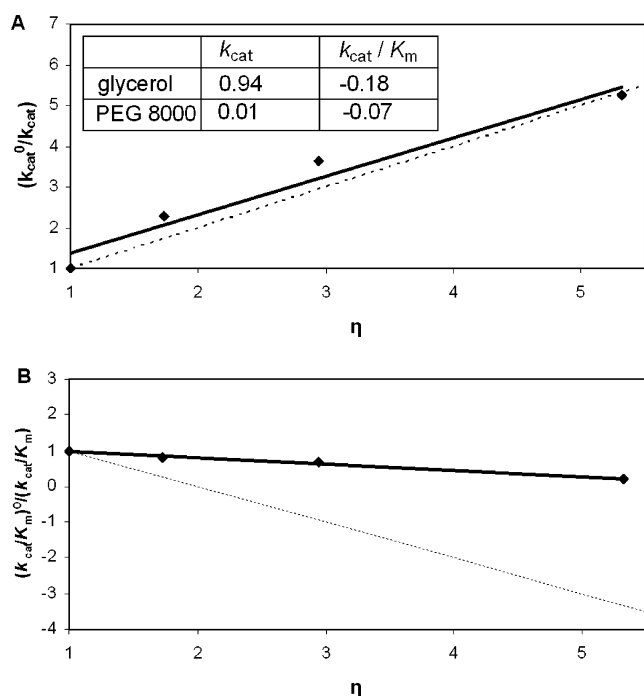


FIGURE 2: Effects of viscosity on the kinetic parameters of CPS-catalyzed reactions with glycerol and PEG 8000 as cosolutes. Effects of glycerol are shown on  $k_{\text{cat}}$  (A) and  $k_{\text{cat}}/K_m$  (B) with variable (2*S*,5*S*)-CMPr concentrations at a constant ATP level. The dashed lines have slopes of +1 and -1 in panels A and B, respectively. Reported in the inset are the slopes of plots from either  $k_{\text{cat}}^0/k_{\text{cat}}$  or  $(k_{\text{cat}}/K_m)^0/(k_{\text{cat}}/K_m)$  vs the relative viscosity ( $\eta$ ) of the solution.

of ATP to AMP and PP<sub>i</sub>, in the absence of (2*S*,5*S*)-CMPr, at low and high ATP concentrations, but it is unclear how this activation is achieved. Therefore, our studies were carried out only with glycerol as the microviscogen. As shown in Figure 2, there is a significant solvent viscosity effect on  $k_{\text{cat}}$  (0.94) and only a minor effect on  $k_{\text{cat}}/K_m$  (-0.18). PEG 8000 was employed to ensure that the rate changes observed with glycerol are effects on a diffusion-controlled phenomenon and not the result of changes in global viscosity. Polymeric species, such as PEG 8000, increase the macroviscosity of a solution but do not significantly change the rate at which small molecules diffuse. In general, the addition of macroviscogen agents affect the measured viscosity of the solution but have no effect on the rates of diffusion-controlled reactions (27). Since enzyme activity was not altered by the presence of PEG 8000, the rate changes observed with glycerol are effects on diffusion-controlled phenomena.

**Solvent Kinetic Isotope Effects.** Solvent isotope experiments were carried out to investigate the effects of heavy water on  $k_{\text{cat}}$  and  $k_{\text{cat}}/K_m$ . Since  $\text{p}K_a$  values change significantly with the isotopic composition of the solvent, resulting in shifts of the pH profiles in deuterated aqueous environments (21, 29), pL-rate profiles were constructed at varying mole fractions of D<sub>2</sub>O ( $n = 0.15, 0.3, 0.5, 0.7, 0.85$ , and 1.0) (Supporting Information and Figure 1). When  $n = 1.0$ , the  $\text{p}K_a$  values for  $k_{\text{cat}}$  and  $k_{\text{cat}}/K_m$  were  $8.3 \pm 0.2$  and  $10.4 \pm 0.3$ , and  $8.4 \pm 0.2$  and  $10.3 \pm 0.2$ , respectively, resulting in a normal  $\Delta\text{p}K_a$  of  $\sim 0.5$ , within experimental error (30, 31) (Table 1). Kinetic assays were performed in either 100% H<sub>2</sub>O or  $\geq 95\%$  D<sub>2</sub>O, and solvent isotope effects,  $^Dk_{\text{cat}}$  or  $^D(k_{\text{cat}}/K_m)$ , were determined at the appropriate pL optima. A

Table 1: pL Dependence of  $k_{\text{cat}}$  and  $k_{\text{cat}}/K_m$  for Wild-Type CPS

n	$k_{\text{cat}}$		$k_{\text{cat}}/K_m$		pL optimum
	pK <sub>a</sub>	pK <sub>b</sub>	pK <sub>a</sub>	pK <sub>b</sub>	
0	7.4 ± 0.1	9.7 ± 0.1	7.8 ± 0.1	10.0 ± 0.1	8.75
0.15	7.5 ± 0.2	9.9 ± 0.2	8.0 ± 0.2	9.7 ± 0.2	8.8
0.3	7.2 ± 0.1	10.0 ± 0.1	7.7 ± 0.3	9.7 ± 0.3	8.9
0.5	7.2 ± 0.2	10.3 ± 0.2	7.9 ± 0.2	10.0 ± 0.3	9.0
0.7	7.6 ± 0.2	10.3 ± 0.3	8.0 ± 0.1	10.0 ± 0.1	9.15
0.85	7.8 ± 0.1	10.2 ± 0.2	7.8 ± 0.2	10.2 ± 0.3	9.3
1.0	8.3 ± 0.2	10.4 ± 0.3	8.4 ± 0.1	10.3 ± 0.2	9.4

small but significant solvent isotope effect of 1.4 was observed on the second-order rate constant  $^D(k_{\text{cat}}/K_m)$ . In contrast, a larger isotope effect of 2.2 was observed on  $^Dk_{\text{cat}}$ .

A proton inventory was conducted at the pL optimum for each isotopic mixture (Table 1).  $^n(k_{\text{cat}}/K_m)$  was invariant with respect to the increasing mole fraction of D<sub>2</sub>O, while  $^nk_{\text{cat}}$  ( $k_n/k_D$ ) decreased in a nonlinear fashion to produce a concave or “bowl-shaped” plot of  $^nk_{\text{cat}}$  versus  $n$  (Figure 3). The data were fit to the modified Gross–Butler equations (eqs 3 and 4) for two- and three-proton inventories, respectively, assuming equivalent transition-state fractionation factors for both transfers. The two- and three-proton models both fit well to the modest downward curvature of the plot and were within the limits of the propagated error. In an attempt to distinguish between two and three protons in flight, the square and cubic roots of the relative rate constants versus  $n$  were plotted (Figure 3, inset); both displayed a linear dependence on mole fraction of D<sub>2</sub>O and could not further discriminate between the two- and three-proton models.

**Chemical Rescue of the K443A Variant by Exogenous Amines.** The pH–rate profile of wild-type CPS suggested that a general acid and a general base are involved in the catalytic mechanism. Substitution of alanine or methionine for K443 caused the activity of the CPS reaction to plummet to an immeasurably low level, indicating that the amino

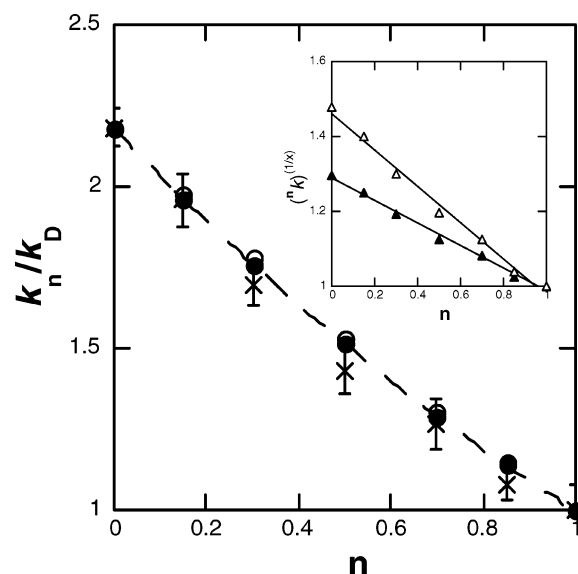


FIGURE 3: Proton inventory for the CPS-catalyzed reaction.  $^nk_{\text{cat}}$  is plotted against the mole fraction of D<sub>2</sub>O ( $n$ ) (x), and the fit (---) to  $^Dk_{\text{cat}}[1 - n + n/(^Dk_{\text{cat}})^{1/3}]^3$  is displayed. Using the observed  $^Dk_{\text{cat}}$  of 2.2, theoretical curves for (○) two-proton and (●) three-proton models were generated and plotted against  $n$ ; it is evident that the propagated errors of the proton inventory encompass both archetypes. The inset is a plot of the square (Δ) and cubic (▲) roots of  $^nk_{\text{cat}}$  vs  $n$  with a linear (—) fit for both.

Table 2: Exogenous Amine Rescue of CPS Activity of the K443A Variant

amine	pK <sub>a</sub>	molecular volume (Å <sup>3</sup> ) <sup>a</sup>	K <sub>m</sub> <sup>amine</sup> (mM <sup>-1</sup> )	V <sub>max</sub> (μmol min <sup>-1</sup> mg <sup>-1</sup> )	% recovery, V <sub>max</sub>
propylamine, pH 8.0	10.5	94.2	0.0004 ± 0.0001	0.019 ± 0.002	5.7
2,2,2-trifluoroethylamine, <sup>b</sup> pH 8.0	5.7	94.2	0.35 ± 0.08	0.0078 ± 0.0005	2.3
2,2,2-trifluoroethylamine, <sup>b</sup> pH 6.33	5.7	94.2	39 ± 9	0.019 ± 0.002	28
propargylamine, <sup>b</sup> pH 8.0	8.2	82.3	35 ± 9	0.021 ± 0.003	5.8

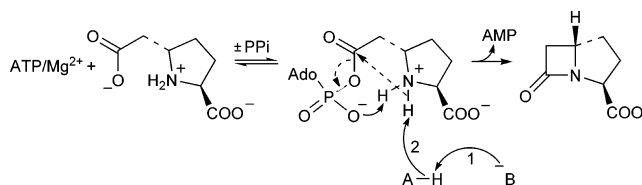
<sup>a</sup> The molecular volume for amines reported by Zheng et al. (30). <sup>b</sup> Corrected for the fraction of protonated amine.

group of Lys443 is important for catalysis. Noncovalent chemical rescue (32) of inactive K443A was employed to validate the integrity of the mutant protein and gauge the essentiality and catalytic contribution provided by the affected side chain. Rescue efficiency of exogenous amines is dependent on the molecular volume of the rescue agent, as one would anticipate for a finite active site volume (32–34). Substitution of alanine for lysine in the active site of an enzyme creates a molecular volume void of 94.2 Å<sup>3</sup> (33), and exogenous amines used for this study were chosen on the basis of their molecular volume. The V<sub>max</sub> of the K443A variant increased to a level equal to 5.7% of that of wild-type CPS activity by exogenous addition of 50 mM propylamine (pK<sub>a</sub> = 10.5) (Table 2). 2,2,2-Trifluoroethylamine (pK<sub>a</sub> = 5.7) was more efficient in rescuing the mutant activity at pH 6.33 (V<sub>max</sub> = 0.019 ± 0.002 μmol min<sup>-1</sup> mg<sup>-1</sup>; 28% of the wild-type activity) than at pH 8.0 (V<sub>max</sub> = 0.0078 ± 0.0005 μmol min<sup>-1</sup> mg<sup>-1</sup>; 2.3% of the wild-type activity), indicating that the protonated form of the amine functions as a general acid in catalysis. A full pH–rate profile of K443A with the exogenous amine propargylamine (pK<sub>a</sub> = 8.2 and 82.3 Å<sup>3</sup>) was constructed, and the resulting values were 6.8 ± 0.2 for pK<sub>1</sub> and 10.2 ± 0.2 for pK<sub>2</sub>. For each of the three rescue agents, the maximum addition of the exogenous amines did not significantly affect the activity of wild-type CPS, arguing against nonspecific activation by amines.

## DISCUSSION

**Rate-Limiting Step(s) in Wild-Type CPS-Catalyzed Reaction.** The broad substrate specificity of CPS and the lack of stereochemical dependence on *k*<sub>cat</sub> (10) suggest that either a step other than chemistry is rate-limiting or chemistry is rate-limiting and the in-line attack between the substrate distal carboxylate and the α-phosphoryl bridge oxygen of ATP and subsequent cyclization step are not significantly affected by the various stereochemistries (10). pH, solvent kinetic isotope effects, and solution viscosity studies were employed to investigate the identity of the rate-limiting step in the CPS-catalyzed reaction.

pH–rate studies show changes in the protonation state involved in the rate-limiting step of the enzymatic reaction. Log *k*<sub>cat</sub>/*K*<sub>m</sub> versus pH profiles show changes in protonation state of those groups involved in the rate-limiting step from the substrate binding step up to the first irreversible step. Log *k*<sub>cat</sub> versus pH profiles describe the ionizations of groups in the rate-limiting step after the formation of the substrate–enzyme complex up to product release. Therefore, groups involved in substrate binding will not be present in log *k*<sub>cat</sub> versus pH profiles. The fact that the pK<sub>a</sub> and pK<sub>b</sub> values are very similar for both log *k*<sub>cat</sub>/*K*<sub>m</sub> and log *k*<sub>cat</sub> versus pH profiles indicates that steps other than substrate binding are rate-limiting.

Scheme 2: Mechanistic Proposal To Account for the Protons in Flight Observed in the Proton Inventory<sup>a</sup>

<sup>a</sup> Proton 1 is due to acid–base chemistry of the proposed Glu380-(B)-Tyr345(A) dyad. The second proton (2) is removed from the nitrogen of the acyl-adenylate intermediate by Tyr345(A). After β-lactam formation, represented by dashed arrows, the departing AMP could serve to deprotonate the newly formed lactam nitrogen.

Accordingly, a large solvent kinetic isotope effect (SKIE) on *k*<sub>cat</sub> and a moderate SKIE on *k*<sub>cat</sub>/*K*<sub>m</sub> suggest that the rate-determining step involves kinetically significant proton transfers. Moderate <sup>D</sup>(*k*<sub>cat</sub>/*K*<sub>m</sub>) values in the range of 1.5–2.1 have been observed in situations where proton transfer was rate-limiting (35–38). Typical SKIE values on *k*<sub>cat</sub> for reactions which are subject to general acid and general base catalysis are 2–3 (21). Proton inventories of the wild-type CPS-catalyzed reaction indicate that there are at least two protons in flight during the rate-limiting step. We propose that these proton transfers are occurring during rate-limiting β-lactam ring formation (Scheme 2). One of these two protons can be attributed to acid–base chemistry of the proposed catalytic Glu–Tyr dyad (12–14). The second proton can be credited to the deprotonation of the acyl-AMP intermediate which enables ring closure. The highly acidic nature of the developing protonated β-lactam could be visualized to impose no rate-limiting effect in its loss. Alternatively, the departing AMP, for example, could accept this proton to account for a cubic dependence in the proton inventory.

On the other hand, viscosity experiments indicate that the rate-limiting step is not solely composed of a chemical transformation. Solvent viscosity studies have been classically used to demonstrate that a diffusion-controlled process, usually substrate binding, is the rate-determining step in an enzymatic reaction (27, 39, 40). Since the catalytic efficiency of CPS (1.04 mM<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>) does not approach the diffusion-controlled limit, substrate binding was not expected to be rate-limiting and is evident by the lack of dependence of *k*<sub>cat</sub>/*K*<sub>m</sub> on increased viscosity. In contrast, as shown in Figure 2, the kinetic parameter *k*<sub>cat</sub> for the reaction catalyzed by wild-type CPS is substantially dependent on the viscosity of the medium, indicating that a step other than chemistry is rate-limiting. The effects of changing viscosity on *k*<sub>cat</sub> have been used to assign product release or a conformational change as the rate-determining step (41–43).

Two theories have been proposed to model the effects of a viscosity dependence on *k*<sub>cat</sub>. The first theory, originally



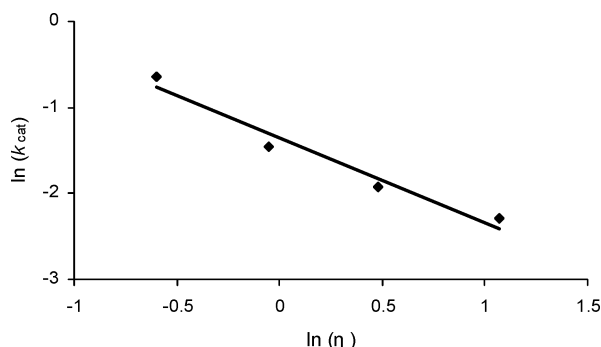


FIGURE 4: Plot of  $\ln(k_{\text{cat}})$  vs  $\ln(\eta)$  for the CPS-catalyzed reaction with glycerol as a cosolvent. The linear relationship between activity and viscosity resulted in a  $\delta$  value of 0.98.

proposed by Kramers (44), postulates that in a random field environment, diffusion controls the rate at which the enzyme complex will pass over the activation energy barrier (45). On the basis of Kramers' theory, the relationship between  $k_{\text{cat}}$  and viscosity should be  $\eta^{-\delta}$  (46) if a conformational change associated with product release is limiting. The second theory, attributed to Somogyi et al., postulates that if the rate-limiting step is the dissociation of product from the enzyme active site, without a structural rearrangement, the relationship between  $k_{\text{cat}}$  and  $\eta$  would obey the function  $e^{-\gamma\eta^2}$  (47). For CPS, a plot of  $\ln(k_{\text{cat}})$  versus  $\eta^2$  was nonlinear (data not shown), whereas that of  $\ln(k_{\text{cat}})$  versus  $\ln(\eta)$  showed a very good linear relationship with a  $\delta$  value of 0.98, in accord with the model of Kramers (Figure 4).

It is observed that the reaction rate constant,  $k_{\text{cat}}$ , shows a negative power relationship to the medium viscosity,  $\eta$ . The reaction rate constant can be presented in the form

$$k_{\text{cat}} = A\eta^{-\delta} e^{E_a/kT} \quad (6)$$

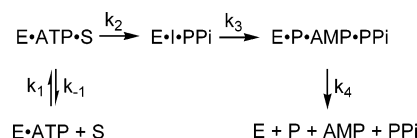
where  $kT$  is the product of the Boltzmann constant and the absolute temperature,  $E_a$  is the activation energy, and  $A$  and  $\delta$  are the empirical coefficients. At high viscosities, the reaction rate constant,  $k_r$ , is an explicit function of viscosity:

$$k_r(\eta_r, T) = (A/\eta_r) e^{-E_a/kT} \quad (7)$$

where  $\eta_r$  is a parameter that describes the dissipation of energy (internal friction) in the process of activation transition, i.e., local viscosity in the region of the reaction center (46). The two parameters  $\eta$  (eq 6) and  $\eta_r$  (eq 7) differ by the factor  $\delta$  which describes the coupling between the dynamics of protein and that of solvent molecules (46). Since the  $\delta$  value is high ( $0.5 < \delta < 1$ ), this coupling is significant (46).

Deuterium solvent isotope effects indicate that chemistry is the rate-limiting step in the wild-type CPS-catalyzed reaction, and the viscosity dependence of  $k_{\text{cat}}$  suggests that it is a conformational change. This apparent dichotomy can be explained if the CPS-catalyzed reaction is limited by a chemical step coupled to a conformational change in the enzyme. As mentioned before, CPS shows mechanistic and structural similarity with both  $\beta$ -LS and AS-B. All three proteins catalyze the formation of a distal acyl-AMP amino diacid intermediate in the first step of their individual reactions (9, 10, 48). Steady-state studies of AS-B show a burst of  $\text{PP}_i$  when no nitrogen source is available, which is

Scheme 3



indicative that a step after the formation of the intermediate is rate-limiting (11). These results agree with the SKIE and proton inventory results for wild-type CPS that the rate-limiting step occurs after the formation of the acyl-adenylate intermediate. The crystal structure of  $\beta$ -LS (12, 14) indicates that a conformational change occurs once the distal acyl-AMP amino diacid intermediate is formed. In a series of crystallographic snapshots, it was found that a loop comprised of residues 444–453 in  $\beta$ -LS becomes highly ordered and blocks the active site after formation of the acyl-adenylate intermediate (14). This loop is also conserved in CPS at residues 377–388 (13). Consistent with the proposed role for this conformational change, the kinetic mechanism for both  $\beta$ -LS and CPS shows that  $\text{PP}_i$  is the first side product of the reaction but the last product to dissociate from the active site.

Combining the results of all the wild-type CPS studies, the kinetic mechanism shown in Scheme 3 can be constructed.  $k_1$  and  $k_{-1}$  are the association and dissociation rate constants, respectively, for (2S,5S)-CMP<sub>r</sub> and the  $\text{E} \cdot \text{ATP}$  complex. This reversible step was proven to be independent of solution viscosity and, therefore, not rate-limiting.  $k_2$  describes the irreversible formation of the acyl-adenylate intermediate. Although acyl-adenylation reactions are typically reversible, the lack of  $^{32}\text{P}_i$ -ATP exchange (10) and SKIE measurements suggest otherwise in the CPS reaction. If  $\beta$ -lactam formation was the first irreversible step, then  $k_{\text{cat}}$  and  $k_{\text{cat}}/K_m$  should exhibit comparable isotope effects and mole fraction  $\text{D}_2\text{O}$  dependencies. As discussed previously,  $k_{\text{cat}}$  displays a proton inventory of 2–3 and a much larger isotope effect than the second-order rate constant. Therefore, it is reasonable to propose an irreversible step ( $k_2$ ) before the rate-limiting cyclization step to account for these differences.  $k_3$  is the rate-limiting unimolecular rate constant that describes coupling of the chemical transformation of the acyl-adenylate intermediate into the carbapenam product to a conformational change. Finally, the dissociation of product, AMP, and  $\text{PP}_i$  is combined in  $k_4$ .

**K443 as the General Acid in the CPS Reaction.** The pH–rate profile of wild-type CPS suggests that a general acid and a general base are involved in the catalytic mechanism. Substituting K443 with alanine or methionine caused a complete loss of activity assessed by a coupled enzyme assay and a nitrocefin paper disc assay, indicating it to be essential for catalysis. A general acid function for K443 has been proposed for CPS on the basis of its similarity to  $\beta$ -LS in structure (13) and sequence. CPS crystals were obtained at the relatively low pH of 5.6, and their structure revealed the substrate to be in a nonproductive conformation; as a consequence, the  $\beta$ -LS structure was taken to be more reliable for active site visualization. In the  $\beta$ -LS active site, K443 is hydrogen bonded to the nonbridging  $\gamma$ -phosphate oxygen of ATP and is proposed to stabilize the oxyanion intermediate (12, 14). The inactive K443A variant was successfully rescued with protonated amines, strongly indi-

cating that the  $\epsilon$ -amino group of K443 functions as a general acid in the CPS-catalyzed reaction. This assignment was further confirmed by the pH–rate profile of the rescued variant with propargylamine. This profile showed not only a bell-shaped pH profile very similar to that of wild-type CPS but also similar  $pK_a$  values in the basic limb. These data argue that K443 is the residue whose  $pK_a$  of 9.7 is observed in the wild-type CPS pH–rate profile.

**Mechanistic Conclusions.** pH dependence, SKIE, and solvent viscosity studies on wild-type CPS indicate that the rate of the reaction is limited by a chemical transformation that is coupled to a conformational step. The chemical step is the  $\beta$ -lactam ring closure, while the conformational change is proposed to be the movement of a catalytic loop. Scheme 3 shows the proposed mechanism of the CPS-catalyzed reaction where ATP/Mg<sup>2+</sup> binds first followed by (2*S*,5*S*)-CMP<sub>r</sub> in an ordered, sequential manner (10). The ATP is positioned and readied for attack by the (2*S*,5*S*)-CMP<sub>r</sub> carboxylate by the protonated form of the K443 residue through coordination to the  $\gamma$ -phosphate oxygen. The distal acyl-AMP intermediate and pyrophosphate are then formed, and the random loop comprised of residues 377–388 becomes ordered and covers the active site, sequestering the intermediate and side product. Stabilization of the acyl-adenylate intermediate is achieved by general acid interactions of K443 with the  $\alpha$ -phosphate oxygen atom. The rate-limiting cyclization step is then catalyzed by deprotonation of the substrate amine where two or more protons are in flight, ending with the formation of AMP and (3*S*,5*S*)-carbapenam-3-carboxylate and the relaxation of the ordered loop. Next, the products dissociate from the enzyme in an ordered manner with PP<sub>i</sub> leaving last. The presence and assignment of the rate-limiting step proposed here will be further investigated through the use of pre-steady-state experiments. The nature and identity of the acid residue revealed in the wild-type pH–rate profile and its role in the formation of the  $\beta$ -lactam will be addressed in a subsequent publication.

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## SUPPORTING INFORMATION AVAILABLE

An overlay of the pL–rate profiles for  $k_{cat}$  and  $k_{cat}/K_m$ . This material is available free of charge via the Internet at <http://pubs.acs.org>.

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