

Prephenate Decarboxylases: A New Prephenate-Utilizing Enzyme Family That Performs Nonaromatizing Decarboxylation en Route to Diverse Secondary Metabolites[†]

Sarah Mahlstedt,[‡] Elisha N. Fielding,[§] Bradley S. Moore,^{*,§} and Christopher T. Walsh^{*,‡}

[‡]Department of Biological Chemistry and Molecular Pharmacology, Harvard Medical School, Boston, Massachusetts 02115, United States, and [§]Scripps Institution of Oceanography and Skaggs School of Pharmacy and Pharmaceutical Sciences, University of California, La Jolla, California 92093, United States

Received September 9, 2010; Revised Manuscript Received September 22, 2010

ABSTRACT: Prephenate is the direct precursor of phenylpyruvate and 4-hydroxyphenylpyruvate in the biogenesis of phenylalanine and tyrosine by action of the decarboxylative, aromatizing enzymes prephenate dehydratase and dehydrogenase, respectively. The recent characterization of BacA in bacilysin biosynthesis as a nonaromatizing decarboxylase reveals a new route from prephenate in the biosynthesis of nonproteinogenic amino acids. This study describes two additional enzymes, AerD from *Planktothrix agardhii* and SalX from *Salinispora tropica*, that utilize the central building block prephenate for flux down distinct pathways to amino acid products, representing a new metabolic fate for prephenate and establishing a new family of nonaromatizing prephenate decarboxylases.

Prephenate has been known for decades as the product of the celebrated 3,3-sigmatropic rearrangement of chorismate, a reaction that is classically followed by formation of the aromatic amino acids phenylalanine and tyrosine (1). Prephenate dehydratase and prephenate dehydrogenase are the enzymes that direct prephenate to Phe and Tyr by decarboxylation and aromatization of the cyclohexenyl ring with concomitant loss of the C-7 hydroxide or hydride, respectively. Recently, we characterized the *Bacillus subtilis* prephenate dehydratase homologue BacA, which is involved in the biosynthesis of bacilysin [1 (Figure 1)] and catalyzes the first step of a four-enzyme pathway that transforms prephenate to a distinct nonaromatic amino acid product (2). Like prephenate dehydratase, BacA decarboxylates prephenate at C-4 yet uniquely protonates C-6 or C-6' to yield the endocyclic diene dihydro-4-hydroxyphenylpyruvate [H₂HPP, 5 (Figure 2A)] (2). This diene is then subject to nonenzymatic isomerization to the exocyclic diene in a reaction that can be dramatically accelerated by BacB to yield the indicated H₂HPP regioisomer 6. Here we identify two homologues to BacA from distinct microbial secondary metabolite pathways that catalyze the same nonaromatizing decarboxylation of prephenate, thus establishing a new family of enzymes. The first of these is AerD from the cyanobacterium *Planktothrix agardhii*, which is involved in the production of the nonribosomal glycopeptides aeruginoside 126A and B [3 (Figure 1)] (3). These natural

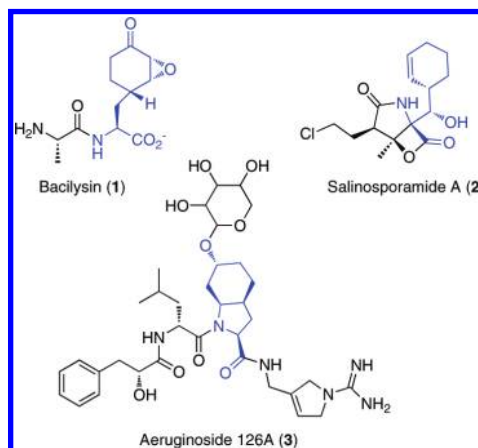


FIGURE 1: Natural products containing amino acids (blue) derived from prephenate.

products contain the unusual amino acid residue 2-carboxy-6-hydroxyoctahydroindole (Choi, 7) (4, 5). The second enzyme is SalX in the marine actinomycete *Salinispora tropica* biosynthetic pathway to the proteasome inhibitor salinosporamide A (2) (6–8). Specifically, SalX is relevant to the production of the nonproteinogenic amino acid building block cyclohexenylalanine (9, H₄Phe) (9).

In a study of nonribosomal peptide synthetase gene clusters in the cyanobacterium *P. agardhii* CYA126/8, gene insertions led to the discovery and identification of novel aeruginoside glycopeptides (3). Aeruginosin natural products, which are potent inhibitors of serine proteases, typically contain the unusual amino acid residue Choi (4). Three of the genes in the aeruginosin cluster, *aerDEF*, were found to be relevant to Choi production (3). Ishida et al. noted the similarity of *aerDEF* to the *bacABC* genes in the bacilysin gene cluster in *B. subtilis*. However, at the time of the aeruginosin gene cluster discovery, the specific roles of the BacABC proteins were unknown, so it was unclear what catalysts the congeneric *aer* genes were encoding. For example, it was hypothesized that arogenate, not prephenate, might be the entry point onto the Choi pathway (3). As noted by Ishida et al., AerD is 33.8% identical to BacA, so we sought to determine whether AerD was in fact a catalytic homologue of BacA. Because the aeruginoside producer *P. agardhii* CYA126/8 and its DNA were not readily available, we chose to use a synthetic gene for AerD (DNA 2.0), which was optimized for expression in *Escherichia coli* (Figure S2 of the Supporting Information). This gene was cloned into a pET-28b vector equipped with an N-terminal His₆ tag. As shown in Figure S3 of the Supporting Information, excellent overproduction of the soluble protein ensued, allowing

[†]This work was generously supported by the National Institutes of Health (Grant CA127622 to B.S.M. and Grant GM49338 to C.T.W.) and by the National Science Foundation Graduate Research Fellowship Program (S.M.).

^{*}To whom correspondence should be addressed. C.T.W.: e-mail, christopher_walsh@hms.harvard.edu; phone, (617) 432-1715; fax, (617) 432-0483. B.S.M.: e-mail, bsmoore@ucsd.edu; phone, (858) 822-6650; fax, (858) 534-1305.

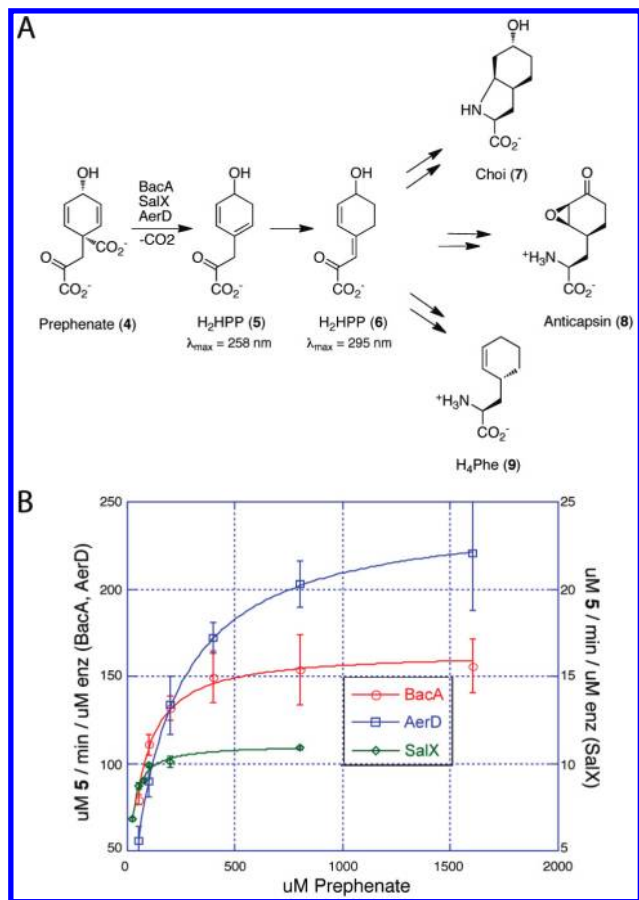


FIGURE 2: (A) Transformation of prephenate first to H₂HPP **6**, which is eventually incorporated into various amino acids. (B) Kinetics of BacA, AerD, and SalX.

purification of 14 mg/L of culture. We assayed AerD with prephenate as a substrate utilizing UV scanning kinetics and readily observed the conversion to an A_{258} species, indicative of endocyclic H₂HPP diene **5** (Figure 2 and Figure S4a of the Supporting Information). As we had found in studies with BacA from *B. subtilis*, H₂HPP **5** nonenzymatically isomerized to the thermodynamically favored conjugated exocyclic diene **6** (Figure 2). ¹H NMR analysis validated that AerD ultimately generates H₂HPP **6** (Figure S4b and Table S1 of the Supporting Information). The k_{cat} ($245 \pm 1 \text{ min}^{-1}$) and K_m ($170 \pm 3 \mu\text{M}$) values for the conversion of prephenate to initial endocyclic diene **5** for AerD compare favorably with those for BacA. Thus, it is very likely prephenate is the physiological substrate for AerD in the initial step in the construction of the bicyclic amino acid Choi.

Salinosporamide A (**2**) from *S. tropica* CNB-440 has a high density of functionality built into its scaffold. The bicyclic β -lactone- γ -lactam framework is a latent warhead, and the C-2 chloroethyl side chain acts as a covalent trap for irreversible capture of the proteasome (10). The third element of the salinosporamide scaffold is the nonproteinogenic 3-hydroxyl- γ -cyclohexenylalanine residue [here termed β -hydroxylated H₄Phe (**9**)], which governs the binding specificity of the natural product for the proteasome (11). Examination of the salinosporamide biosynthetic gene cluster has indicated a set of *sal* genes that could be involved in H₄Phe formation, among them SalX (8). Although our initial proposal suggested SalX might function like a prephenate dehydratase for a putative dihydroprephenate substrate (12), we decided to test it for conversion of prephenate to **5** and then **6**, given the 35% sequence identity to BacA.

Toward this end, the *salX* gene was amplified from *S. tropica* genomic DNA and ligated into an N-His₈ vector for expression in *E. coli*. As shown in Figure S3 of the Supporting Information, moderate overproduction of the soluble enzyme was obtained at 5 mg/L of culture. UV assays revealed that SalX also converts prephenate to endocyclic diene H₂HPP **5** as the initial product before spontaneous isomerization to exocyclic diene **6** (Figure 2 and Figure S4a of the Supporting Information), which was further confirmed by ¹H NMR (Figure S4b and Table S2 of the Supporting Information). While SalX had a 16–22-fold lower k_{cat} than AerD and BacA, it also had a lower K_m for prephenate. The SalX k_{cat}/K_m catalytic efficiency ratio of $0.73 \text{ min}^{-1} \mu\text{M}^{-1}$ is only 2–4-fold lower than those of BacA and AerD, making it likely that prephenate is a physiologic substrate for SalX. To further probe whether prephenate is indeed the natural substrate for SalX and if H₂HPP **6** is an intermediate in H₄Phe production, feeding studies were performed with a previously described *S. tropica salX*[−] disruption mutant that lacks salinosporamide production (9). H₂HPP **6** was generated and purified from an in vitro transformation of prephenate by SalX and then added aseptically to a 50 mL culture of the $\Delta salX$ *S. tropica* mutant. After 5 days, the culture was extracted and HPLC analysis indicated restoration of salinosporamide production (Figure S5 of the Supporting Information), which was confirmed by liquid chromatography–mass spectrometry analysis with authentic standards. This chemical complementation confirmed that **6** is a pathway intermediate of **2** biosynthesis in *S. tropica*.

We establish here a new family of prephenate decarboxylases that produce a nonaromatized H₂HPP product. The three new members of this family, BacA, AerD, and SalX, are capable of initiating divergent pathways that transform the primary metabolite prephenate into distinct nonproteinogenic amino acids used in natural product production. The intriguing aspect of these enzymes is that while decarboxylation occurs in a manner similar to that of prephenate dehydratases and dehydrogenases, these enzymes avoid aromatization by delivery of a proton to C-6 or C-6' to yield a diene product. The net result is conversion of the 5,8-cyclohexadien-7-ol in prephenate to a 4,8-cyclohexadien-7-ol in H₂HPP product **5**. Isotopic labeling studies in *S. tropica* demonstrated that both halves of the cyclohexenyl ring of prephenate are distinguished during the biosynthetic transformation, suggesting a regioselectivity on the part of SalX (12). A similar biosynthetic observation was established in studies of the conversion of prephenate to the antibiotic 2,5-dihydrophenylalanine (13). However, additional detailed stereochemical analyses will be necessary to determine if all three enzymes share the same regio- and stereoselectivity with regard to protonation. Two possible mechanistic scenarios arise, one in which the reaction could involve a concerted pericyclic reaction in which the C-4 carboxylate becomes protonated and in turn donates a proton to C-6 (or C-6') as CO₂ is evolved or a second mechanism in which a BH⁺ conjugate acid in the enzymatic active site acts as the proton source. We are at present pursuing crystallization trials with BacA, AerD, and SalX to shed light on the mechanism and determine how these enzymes avoid the aromatization of prephenate that is typical of prephenate dehydratase and prephenate dehydrogenase-catalyzed transformations.

An initial BLAST search finds many other examples of proteins homologous to these enzymes, several of which are located near potential biosynthetic enzymes in host genomes such as *Nodularia spumigena*, *Clostridium cellulolyticum*, *Photorhabdus luminescens*, and *Erwinia amylovora*, the latter of which is known

to produce 2,5-dihydrophenylalanine (DHPA) (14). DHPA is also produced in a variety of *Streptomyces* species, with recent data indicating production in *P. luminescens* (15) as well. Isotopic feeding studies in *Streptomyces arenae* demonstrated that DHPA is derived from prephenate (13), which suggests this enzyme family may be diverting prephenate into unique small molecule products across a broad array of microorganisms.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

We thank Michael Acker for helpful advice and discussions and an anonymous reviewer for suggestions with regard to a pericyclic mechanism.

SUPPORTING INFORMATION AVAILABLE

Materials and Methods, gene clusters for aeruginoside 126 and salinosporamide A, gene sequence for *aerD*, sodium dodecyl sulfate–polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis of protein expression, representative scanning kinetics for AerD and SalX, ¹H NMR data for the SalX and AerD products, feeding studies with *S. tropica*, alignment of BacA, AerD, and SalX with homologues from other organisms, and alignment of BacA, AerD, and SalX. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at <http://pubs.acs.org>.

REFERENCES

1. Knaggs, A. R. (1999) The biosynthesis of shikimate metabolites. *Nat. Prod. Rep.* 16, 525–560.
2. Mahlstedt, S. A., and Walsh, C. T. (2010) Investigation of anticapsin biosynthesis reveals a four-enzyme pathway to tetrahydrotyrosine in *Bacillus subtilis*. *Biochemistry* 49, 912–923.
3. Ishida, K., Christiansen, G., Yoshida, W. Y., Kurmayer, R., Welker, M., Valls, N., Bonjoch, J., Hertweck, C., Borner, T., Hemscheidt, T., and Dittmann, E. (2007) Biosynthesis and structure of aeruginoside 126A and 126B, cyanobacterial peptide glycosides bearing a 2-carboxy-6-hydroxyoctahydroindole moiety. *Chem. Biol.* 14, 565–576.
4. Ersmark, K., Del Valle, J. R., and Hanessian, S. (2008) Chemistry and biology of the aeruginosin family of serine protease inhibitors. *Angew. Chem., Int. Ed.* 47, 1202–1223.
5. Ishida, K., Welker, M., Christiansen, G., Cadel-Six, S., Bouchier, C., Dittmann, E., Hertweck, C., and Tandeau de Marsac, N. (2009) Plasticity and evolution of aeruginosin biosynthesis in cyanobacteria. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* 75, 2017–2026.
6. Eustaquio, A. S., McGlinchey, R. P., Liu, Y., Hazzard, C., Beer, L. L., Florova, G., Alhamadsheh, M. M., Lechner, A., Kale, A. J., Kobayashi, Y., Reynolds, K. A., and Moore, B. S. (2009) Biosynthesis of the salinosporamide A polyketide synthase substrate chloroethylmalonyl-coenzyme A from S-adenosyl-L-methionine. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* 106, 12295–12300.
7. Feling, R. H., Buchanan, G. O., Mincer, T. J., Kauffman, C. A., Jensen, P. R., and Fenical, W. (2003) Salinosporamide A: A highly cytotoxic proteasome inhibitor from a novel microbial source, a marine bacterium of the new genus *Salinispora*. *Angew. Chem., Int. Ed.* 42, 355–357.
8. Udworthy, D. W., Zeigler, L., Asolkar, R. N., Singan, V., Lapidus, A., Fenical, W., Jensen, P. R., and Moore, B. S. (2007) Genome sequencing reveals complex secondary metabolome in the marine actinomycete *Salinispora tropica*. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* 104, 10376–10381.
9. McGlinchey, R. P., Nett, M., Eustaquio, A. S., Asolkar, R. N., Fenical, W., and Moore, B. S. (2008) Engineered biosynthesis of antiprotealide and other unnatural salinosporamide proteasome inhibitors. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* 130, 7822–7823.
10. Groll, M., Huber, R., and Potts, B. C. (2006) Crystal structures of salinosporamide A (NPI-0052) and B (NPI-0047) in complex with the 20S proteasome reveal important consequences of β -lactone ring opening and a mechanism for irreversible binding. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* 128, 5136–5141.
11. Nett, M., Gulder, T. A., Kale, A. J., Hughes, C. C., and Moore, B. S. (2009) Function-oriented biosynthesis of β -lactone proteasome inhibitors in *Salinispora tropica*. *J. Med. Chem.* 52, 6163–6167.
12. Beer, L. L., and Moore, B. S. (2007) Biosynthetic convergence of salinosporamides A and B in the marine actinomycete *Salinispora tropica*. *Org. Lett.* 9, 845–848.
13. Shimada, K., Hook, D. J., Warner, G. F., and Floss, H. G. (1978) Biosynthesis of the antibiotic 2,5-dihydrophenylalanine by *Streptomyces arenae*. *Biochemistry* 17, 3054–3058.
14. Feistner, G. J. (1988) L-2,5-Dihydrophenylalanine from the fireblight pathogen *Erwinia amylovora*. *Phytochemistry* 27, 3417–3422.
15. Kontnik, R., Crawford, J. M., and Clardy, J. (2010) Exploiting a Global Regulator for Small Molecule Discovery in *Photobacterium luminescens*. *ACS Chem. Biol.* 5, 659–665.