

A CHARACTERIZATION OF TWO ENZYMES IN THE  
METHIONINE SALVAGE PATHWAY:  
METHYLTHIOADENOSINE / S-ADENOSYLHOMOCYSTEINE NUCLEOSIDASE  
AND METHYLTHIORIBOSE KINASE

by

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CERTIFICATE OF APPROVAL

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## ABSTRACT

The rise in drug resistance among the organisms responsible for numerous infectious diseases of humans and livestock requires the continued search for new drugs which interfere with metabolic events that are distinctly different from the host. The catabolism of the nucleosides 5'-deoxy-5'-methylthioadenosine (MTA) and S-adenosylhomocysteine (SAH), byproducts of S-adenosylmethionine (SAM) dependent polyamine biosynthesis and methylation reactions, differs significantly between mammals and many pathogenic bacteria and protozoans. As such, the enzymes responsible for the breakdown of MTA and SAH, and subsequent salvage to methionine, represent attractive targets for the development of novel chemotherapeutic agents.

To this end, the initial objective of my thesis research was to purify and characterize the first two enzymes involved in MTA catabolism, MTA/SAH nucleosidase and 5-methylthioribose (MTR) kinase, from the pathogenic gram-negative bacillus, *Klebsiella pneumoniae*. Critical to the successful homogeneous purification of these two enzymes was the development of a novel affinity chromatography resin which incorporated the substrate analogs 5'-(*para*-aminophenyl)thioadenosine (PAPTA) and 5'-(*para*-aminophenyl)thio-ribose (PAPTR). The enzymes displayed apparent monomeric molecular masses of 26.5 kDa (MTA/SAH nucleosidase) and ~46 kDa (MTR kinase). Kinetic measurements performed on the purified enzymes revealed a  $K_{M[MTA]}$  of 8.7  $\mu$ M for the nucleosidase and a  $K_{M[MTR]}$  of 12.2  $\mu$ M for the kinase. Automated amino terminal sequence analysis of the two peptides allowed the identification of the first thirty-five residues of the nucleosidase, and nineteen of the first twenty residues of the kinase.

The amino acid sequence data obtained from the *Klebsiella* enzymes led directly into the second objective of the work, which entailed the cloning, sequencing and expression of the nucleosidase and kinase genes. A search of the protein sequence databases revealed

a ~95% homology between the *Klebsiella* MTA/SAH nucleosidase peptide and the putative translation product of the *pfs* gene, an open reading frame reported approximately 4 minutes on the *E. coli* chromosome. Based on the *E. coli* sequence oligonucleotide primers were designed, and a 967 base pair fragment of the *E. coli* chromosome (containing the complete open reading frame) was amplified using polymerase chain reaction (PCR). Nucleic acid sequence analysis of the cloned PCR product revealed several alterations to the reported gene and resulted in the extension of the open reading frame by an additional 13 codons. The *E. coli* gene sequence was subcloned and expressed as both a glutathione-S-transferase (GST) fusion protein and tryptophan inducible native full-length protein (232 amino acids). The identity of the *pfs* gene as encoding MTA/SAH nucleosidase was confirmed by kinetic measurements which yielded a  $K_M[\text{MTA}]$  of  $\sim 0.5 \mu\text{M}$  for both recombinant forms of the enzyme, in close agreement with values reported in the literature for the native protein. Efforts to clone the MTR kinase gene by screening a *Klebsiella* genomic  $\lambda\text{gt}11$  library using degenerate oligonucleotide probes based on  $\text{NH}_2$ -terminal sequence data, have to date been unsuccessful (Appendix A), and are the subject of ongoing investigation.

The remaining objective of this thesis was to employ the recombinant *E. coli* nucleosidase as a model for drug design and highlight important features involved in substrate recognition and catalysis. A series of nucleoside analogs were examined for their ability to inhibit MTA nucleosidase activity. The results provided evidence for the involvement of the purine C-6 amino and 5'-alkylthio group in substrate recognition, and the purine N-7 atom in catalysis. The findings are consistent with a proposed mechanism of catalysis which requires the protonation of N-7 in the transition state prior to nucleophilic attack by a water molecule on C-1 of the sugar. Preliminary studies on a truncated version of the enzyme (rMTAN-8) suggest the involvement of the first eight

amino acids in substrate recognition, possibly in coordination of the thio group of thio nucleoside.

The results of investigations into the development of nucleosidase specific monoclonal antibodies, as well as studies on the differential inhibitory activity of MT analogs toward bacterial and cultured bone marrow cell growth are presented in additional appendices (B and C) following the main chapters of the thesis.

## CHAPTER 1

### INTRODUCTION

#### A. The Toll of Microbial Disease.

At the dawn of the Industrial Era, it is estimated that four out of five children born never attained adulthood, but rather succumbed to a seemingly endless litany of epidemic infectious diseases: small pox, yellow fever, scarlet fever, black plague, dysentery, cholera, tuberculosis, Whooping cough, measles, tetanus, etc [1]. Other reports have attributed half of all the cumulative deaths in mankind to malaria [2]. While the accuracy of these reports may be difficult to assess, the underlying message is not. Infectious diseases have caused untold suffering, and remain a leading cause of annual human mortality.

Even in modern times, infectious diseases have inflicted damage on the human species of epic proportions. Outbreaks of bubonic plague in India caused more than 1 million deaths at the turn of the century [3]. A pandemic of influenza in 1918 caused an estimated 20 million deaths in less than one year, over half a million of which occurred in the U.S. [4]. Diseases like malaria, which had nearly disappeared due to combined vector control and public health campaigns, have returned in full force to tropical regions of the planet [5-7]. Today, malaria alone is responsible for approximately 1 million deaths per year, predominantly in children under the age of five [8]. Poor sanitation and poverty existing in most of the world continue to ensure that losses of human life due to respiratory and diarrheal diseases (viral, bacterial, and protozoal) approach 10 million annually [9]. According to World Health Organization estimates, infectious disease accounted for over 50% of the yearly mortality in sub-Saharan Africa, and caused roughly 25% of the worldwide annual human mortality in 1990. For children under the age of

five, infectious diseases are the leading cause of death, accounting for approximately two thirds of the annual mortality in this age group [10]. In the United States, the mortality rate for infectious disease increased by over 50% during the past decade, and is now the third leading cause of death [11-13]. The recent emergence of the AIDS epidemic, Hantavirus, *E. coli* O157:H7, and nosocomial acquired *Enterococcus* infections, underscore the need for vigilance in the detection of new scourges, and the recognition that organisms once regarded as relatively innocuous, may not remain so in the future [14, 15].

Despite the optimistic predictions of the 1960's and 70's when vaccination campaigns led to the eradication of small pox, it is unlikely that drugs or vaccines will eliminate any of the prevalent human diseases in the foreseeable future. Worse, the development of single and multiple drug resistant microorganisms has effectively eliminated many antibiotics from our arsenal of therapies. As a result, there remains a need for new drugs with novel modes of action for treatment of infectious diseases.

#### B. The Birth of the Modern Antibiotic Era.

Antibiotics have been in use by mankind since antiquity. For centuries prior to the arrival of Europeans in the New World, native South American tribes had been using quinine containing extracts of Cinchona tree bark to combat fevers caused by malaria and other maladies [16]. In the Old World, ancient Egyptians and Romans used myrrh, ground malachite, and verdegris to treat wounds and sepsis. Indeed, descriptions of many of these remedies and their toxic side effects appear in the writings of the early physicians, Hippocrates and Celsus [17, 18].

The modern antibiotic era has its conception in work done by Louis Pasteur and Robert Koch. In 1876, Koch demonstrated that anthrax was due to an infectious bacillus. Based on this observation, a critical understanding was reached that if a disease was caused by a particular organism, then the therapy must entail the death of the offending



**Table 1.1.** Distribution of deaths from three groups of causes, by region, 1990.<sup>c</sup>

Number of deaths (x1000) attributed to:				
Region <sup>a</sup>	I. Communicable, maternal and perinatal causes	II. Noncommunicable causes	III. Injuries	Total
EME	439 (6.2) <sup>b</sup>	6 238 (87.6)	445 (6.2)	7 121
FSE	136 (3.6)	3 264 (86.8)	362 (9.6)	3 762
CHN	1 343 (15.1)	6 519 (73.4)	1 023 (11.5)	8 885
LAC	966 (32.3)	1 733 (57.9)	293 (9.8)	2 992
OAI	2 306 (41.8)	2 736 (49.6)	477 (6.6)	5 519
MEC	2 026 (46.2)	1 966 (44.8)	392 (8.9)	4 384
IND	4 060 (43.3)	4 700 (50.2)	611 (6.5)	9 371
SSA	5 415 (68.2)	1 898 (23.9)	624 (7.9)	7 937
<b>WORLD</b>	<b>16 690 (33.4)</b>	<b>29 055 (58.1)</b>	<b>4 227 (8.5)</b>	<b>49 971</b>

<sup>a</sup> EME, Established Market Economies; FSE, Former Socialist Economies; CHN, China; LAC, Latin America and the Caribbean; OAI, Other Asia and Islands; MEC, Middle Eastern Crescent; IND, India; SSA, Sub-Saharan Africa.

<sup>b</sup> Figures in parentheses are percentages.

<sup>c</sup> Murray, C.J.L. and A.D. Lopez (1994) Global and regional cause-of-death patterns in 1990. *Bulletin of the World Health Organization*, 72 (3): 447-480.

**Table 1.2.** World estimated mortality (in thousands) of leading infectious diseases in 1990.<sup>a</sup>

Cause of Death	Number of deaths (in thousands)			
	Ages			
	0-4	5-14	15-70+	All Ages
Respiratory infections (combined viral, bacterial & parasitic)	2 732.0	245.0	1 337.4	4 314.4
Diarrhoeal diseases (combined acute, persistent & dysenteric)	2 478.0	210.5	184.2	2 872.7
Tuberculosis	71.7	151.4	1 792.4	2 015.5
Measles	862.7	143.2	0.5	1 006.4
Malaria	632.0	152.7	141.7	926.4
Tetanus	450.2	28.0	26.8	505.0
Pertussis	277.3	43.9	<i>b</i>	321.2
HIV	58.0	9.8	223.0	290.8
Meningitis	125.0	68.1	48.7	241.8
Syphilis	77.2	-	116.2	193.4
Trypanosomiasis	4.2	19.3	31.6	55.1
Leishmaniasis	7.2	24.4	22.1	53.7
Onchocerciasis	-	-	29.8	29.8
Chagas' disease	-	-	23.1	23.1
Other infections (unaccounted, combined)	336.1	168.4	377.1	881.6
Total deaths (Infectious diseases)	8 111.6	1 264.7	4 354.6	13 730.9
Total deaths (All causes)	12 654.6	2 265.8	35 050.7	49 971.1
Total population (in millions)	630.6	1 081.7	3 555.1	5 267.4

<sup>a</sup> Murray, C.J.L. and A.D. Lopez (1994) Global and regional cause-of-death patterns in 1990. *Bulletin of the World Health Organization*, 72 (3): 447-480.

<sup>b</sup> A dash (-) indicates less than 1000 deaths.

microbe. Close on the heels of Koch's work, Louis Pasteur in 1877 described the killing of anthrax bacilli by other bacteria, a phenomena later termed "antibiosis". This served as a foundation for later work in which cultures of various bacteria or fungi were screened for compounds that exhibited antibiotic activity toward pathogenic organisms [18]. In 1880, Laveran had discovered the malarial parasite, and shortly thereafter demonstrated that quinine could kill the intracellular organisms [19, 20].

The birth of the modern antibiotic era can be traced to work done by Emmerich Ehrlich, and Guttman at the turn of the century. Emmerich isolated and described the antibacterial properties of pyocyanase from *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (*Bacillus pyocaneus*) around the turn of the century [21]. In the next two decades, pyocyanase, optochin (ethylhydrocupreine), and other compounds would be tested clinically against infectious diseases [18, 22]. While promising, these early drugs suffered from the same drawbacks reported by the ancient physicians: agents containing lead or copper salts had dangerous toxicities in their therapeutic range, while biological products displayed problems with both unreliable potency and toxicity.

It was recognized early on that if drugs were developed with sufficient specificity for the microbe, then associated toxicity problems could perhaps be abrogated. Paul Ehrlich, working with synthetic dyes, coined the phrase "magic bullets" for agents which specifically stained and killed microbes while leaving human cells untouched [23]. Guttman and Ehrlich reported in 1891 that malaria could be treated with methylene blue [24]. Ehrlich's work led to the development of arsphenamine, an arsenical drug effective against *Treponema pallidum*, the causative agent of syphilis. Shortly thereafter, Gerhard Domagk discovered the sulfanilamides while screening thousands of dyes for antibacterial activity [18]. By the mid 1930's, clinical trials with the sulfanilamides against numerous microbial diseases had begun. Penicillin, first described by Alexander Fleming in 1928 [25], entered clinical trials around 1940.

Over the next forty years, thousands of drugs were discovered, either by screening natural products isolated from various sources, or by randomly testing large numbers of chemical compounds. Multiple generations of antibiotics were developed by chemically modifying known compounds to alter their pharmacologic profile or enhance their antibiotic activity. The general effectiveness in this empiric approach to drug discovery coupled with the remarkable successes of World Health Organization-sponsored vaccination programs, and pesticide campaigns to eliminate disease vectors, led to heroic proclamations that the war against infectious diseases had been won [1, 18].

### C. Drug Resistance, the Post-Partum Depression of the Antibiotic Era.

Unfortunately, the initial successes against infectious disease were relatively short-lived. Problems with drug resistance arose almost immediately with the birth of the antibiotic era. In 1910, Ehrlich reported resistance to arsenicals in trypanosomes [23]. Drug resistance to optochin was noted during clinical trials against pneumococcal pneumonia in 1917 [22]. In 1940, at approximately the same time that penicillin was entering into human use, the first observations of  $\beta$ -lactamase activity in gram-negative *Escherichia coli* appeared [26]. Within 10 years, widespread penicillin resistance was encountered in nosocomial infections caused by the gram-positive organism *Staphylococcus aureus* [27]. Similarly, sulfonamide-resistant gram-negative organisms surfaced within a decade of the introduction of this drug into clinical use [28]. By 1960, fifteen years of widespread chloroquine use in malarious regions of the world led to the emergence of resistant *Plasmodium falciparum* strains in both Asia and South America [17, 29].

In 1960, the emergence of multiple drug resistance in strains of *Shigella dysenteriae* was documented in Japan [30]. Within a decade, outbreaks of multi-drug resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* and *Streptococcus pneumoniae* had been reported [18, 31]. By

1993, multiple drug resistance had been described in disease outbreaks in such far flung locations as Burundi (*Shigella dysenteriae*-1992), Ecuador (*Vibrio cholerae*-1993), and India (*Salmonella typhi*-1990). The discovery of isoniazid and rifampin resistance in *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* in both Miami and New York serves as a serious local example of this phenomenon [32].

In response to the rising tide of resistance, new drugs were developed and incorporated into antimicrobial therapeutic regimens. These drugs are either structural congeners of previous compounds, or completely different classes of agents with novel mechanisms of action. To date, greater than twenty classes of antimicrobial agents have been developed for clinical use [33, 34]. Predictably, within a few years of use, resistance to the newest chemotherapy and its dissemination has been documented [35]. The ever increasing cost of drug development and marketing, now estimated at \$100-300 million per drug, along with industry complacency has drastically reduced the number of new antibiotics available for human use [36]. In 1993, only one new antibacterial compound was approved by the Food and Drug Administration [37]; in 1994, there were none [38]. This factor, coupled with the increased incidence of nosocomially acquired multiple drug resistance, including resistance to vancomycin, has led to dire predictions of a "post-antimicrobial era", when none of the drugs available are effective in the treatment of disease [39].

#### D. Future Drug Development: Empiric and Rational Approaches.

If we are to stave off the onslaught of drug resistance, obviously the development and manufacture of new chemotherapeutic agents is of paramount importance. Historically, an "empiric" approach to drug discovery has predominated. By this method, active compounds are discovered by random large scale screening of chemicals for antimicrobial activity. Following the identification of lead compounds, analogs are

synthesized and tested to find drugs with optimal activity. This general approach was successfully used to identify most of the therapeutic agents which are in use today. Empiric development of drugs will probably continue to be used in the future, despite distinct disadvantages: (1) it is costly, (2) it does not inherently consider the problem of drug specificity, and (3) it has failed, particularly in the case of viral, fungal and parasitic diseases to produce a large variety of medically tolerable compounds.

The "rational" approach to drug design has its foundation in the identification of cellular processes that are essential for the replication and survival of the pathogen. Potential inhibitors are assessed first for their ability to block a particular enzymatic or gene function. Specificity is enhanced by developing drugs that interfere with processes that occur only in the target organisms, not in the host. Alternatively, the selected biochemical reaction may be present in both the disease agent and the host, but may differ significantly in its pharmacological properties, thus allowing selective interference with the microbial process [40].

Advances in the field of molecular biology have led to an additional refinement of this process. The cloning of genes encoding targeted enzymes, and subsequent expression allow for large quantities of purified protein to be produced. X-ray crystallography and nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy studies of the purified protein are used to construct physical models of enzyme-substrate and enzyme-inhibitor interactions [40, 41]. Computer analysis of large chemical databases are used to identify subsets of possible inhibitors which are predicted to bind tightly to the active (or other allosteric) site of the enzyme [42]. This approach has been pursued in a number of instances, including the development of inhibitors for HIV reverse transcriptase [43], HIV protease [44, 45], bacterial cell wall biosynthesis [46], and bacterial thymidylate synthase [47], to list but a few. Future drug discovery will probably rely increasingly on this method in combination with the more widely used empiric approach.

The studies presented in this thesis serve as the foundation for drug development aimed at interfering with the salvage of methionine. This pathway is considered a potential target for chemotherapeutic intervention since it fulfills many of the criteria required for rational drug design. Several intermediates in the methionine recycling pathway must be maintained at low levels since they act as inhibitors of polyamine biosynthesis and methylation reactions, processes essential for cellular proliferation and differentiation [48-52]. In addition, distinct differences occur between the enzymes involved in the salvage of methionine in humans and a number of medically important microbes, providing an opportunity to develop agents with selective activity toward the pathogen [53-56].

#### E. Methionine and S-Adenosylmethionine Metabolism: The Production of MTA and SAH.

Methionine serves as both an initiating amino acid and as a structural component in protein biosynthesis [57]. In addition, a significant fraction of the cellular methionine is converted to S-adenosylmethionine (SAM, AdoMet), a molecule first discovered by Cantoni in 1952 [58]. Formation of this sulfonium compound is accomplished by SAM (AdoMet) synthetase (EC 2.5.1.6), which catalyzes the transfer of the adenosyl moiety from ATP to methionine, with concomitant hydrolysis of the triphosphate [59].

SAM is an extremely versatile molecule involved in a wide variety of enzymatic group transfer reactions. Methylation reactions involved in the biosynthesis of small molecules like catecholamines and histamine, post-transcriptional modification of messenger RNA, post-translational modification of proteins, and lipid biosynthesis, are but a brief list of SAM dependent events [60, 61]. Depending on the cell type examined it has been estimated that 67-90% of the cellular SAM pools are metabolized through methylation reactions [61-64]. The demethylated product, S-adenosylhomocysteine

(SAH), acts as a potent feedback inhibitor of most methyl group transfer reactions [66, 67]. The ratio of SAM:SAH existing in the cell is thought to play a role in governing cellular status with respect to proliferation and differentiation [68].

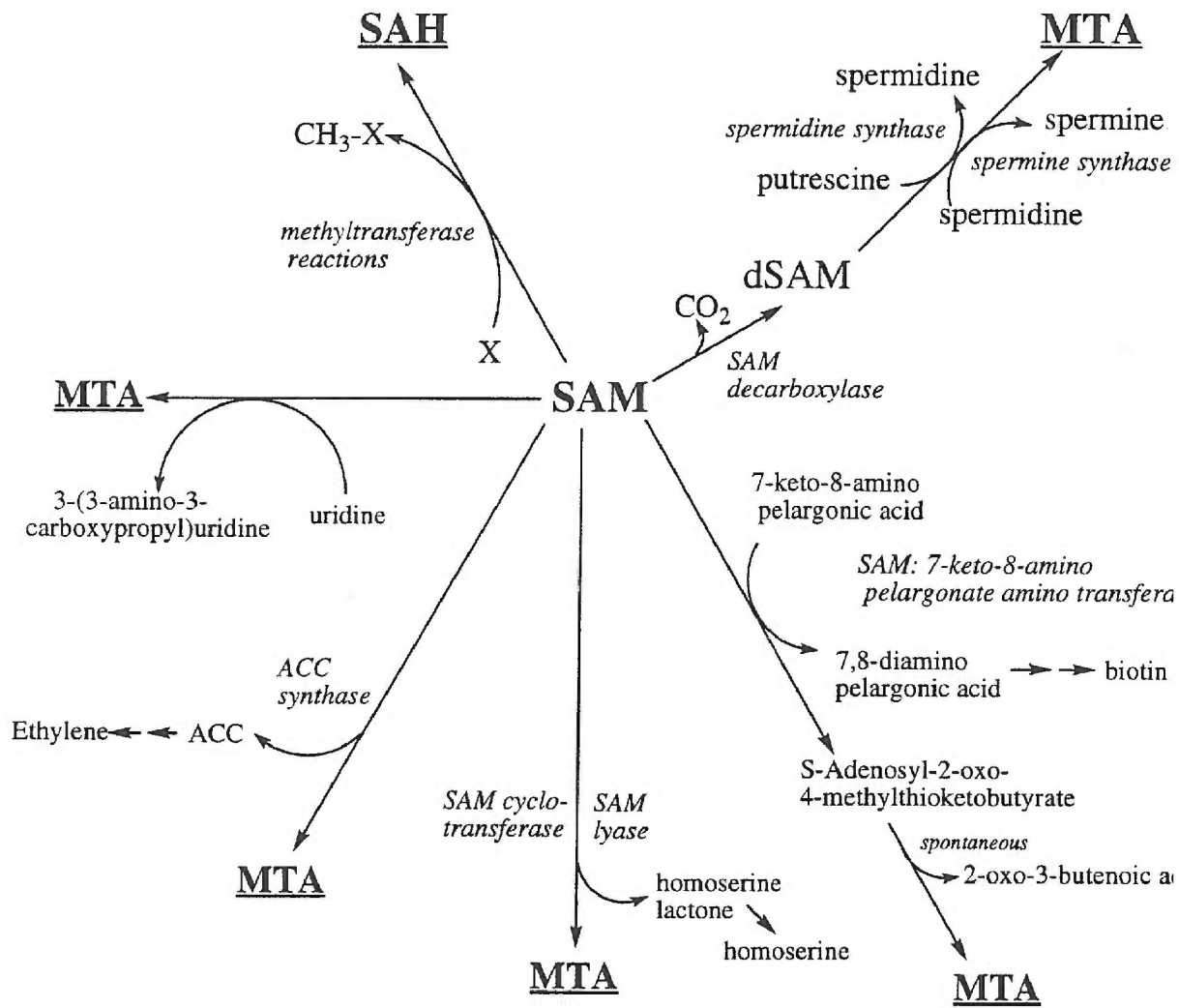
Most of the remaining SAM (not involved in methylation) is decarboxylated to dSAM by SAM decarboxylase (EC 4.1.1.50), a step which commits the molecule to polyamine biosynthesis. The enzyme spermidine synthase (EC 2.5.1.16) catalyzes the transfer of the propylamine group from decarboxylated SAM (dSAM) to putrescine (1,4-diaminobutane) to yield spermidine [69]. In higher eukaryotes, the enzyme spermine synthase (EC 2.5.1.17) catalyzes the addition of a second propylamine group from dSAM to spermidine to form spermine. The thioether, 5'-deoxy-5'-methylthioadenosine (MTA) is produced stoichiometrically with each polyamine molecule [69], and acts as a potent feedback inhibitor of the propylamine transferases [48, 70, 71].

MTA results from a number of other minor, but physiologically significant, SAM dependent reactions that are worth considering. The 3-amino-3-carboxypropyl (ACP) group of SAM is removed by a variety of hydrolases/lyases acting upon the nucleoside. The action of coliphage T<sub>3</sub> SAM hydrolase, an early gene product, yields homoserine and MTA. The reaction is believed to play a key role in phage replication by impairing host directed DNA methylation and spermidine biosynthesis [72, 73]. A related enzyme, SAM cyclotransferase (EC 2.5.1.4), yields homoserine lactone and MTA [74, 75]. The homoserine lactone subsequently converts nonenzymatically to homoserine, which is recycled back to methionine in some prokaryotic systems through a trans-sulfuration step with cysteine [68].

The ACP group of SAM is also involved in the generation of unusual nucleosides, purines, and amino acids. Rare tRNA's have been isolated from bacterial [76] and mammal cells [77] which contain ACP modified uridine residues. In the slime mold *Dictyostelium*, the ACP group is used to form discadenine, an unusual purine which



**Figure 1.1.** The biosynthesis of methylthioadenosine (MTA).



functions as a regulatory molecule in sporulation [78]. The ACP group is also used to synthesize diphthamide, an amino acid found only in elongation factor 2 (EF-2), a component of eukaryotic translational machinery [79].

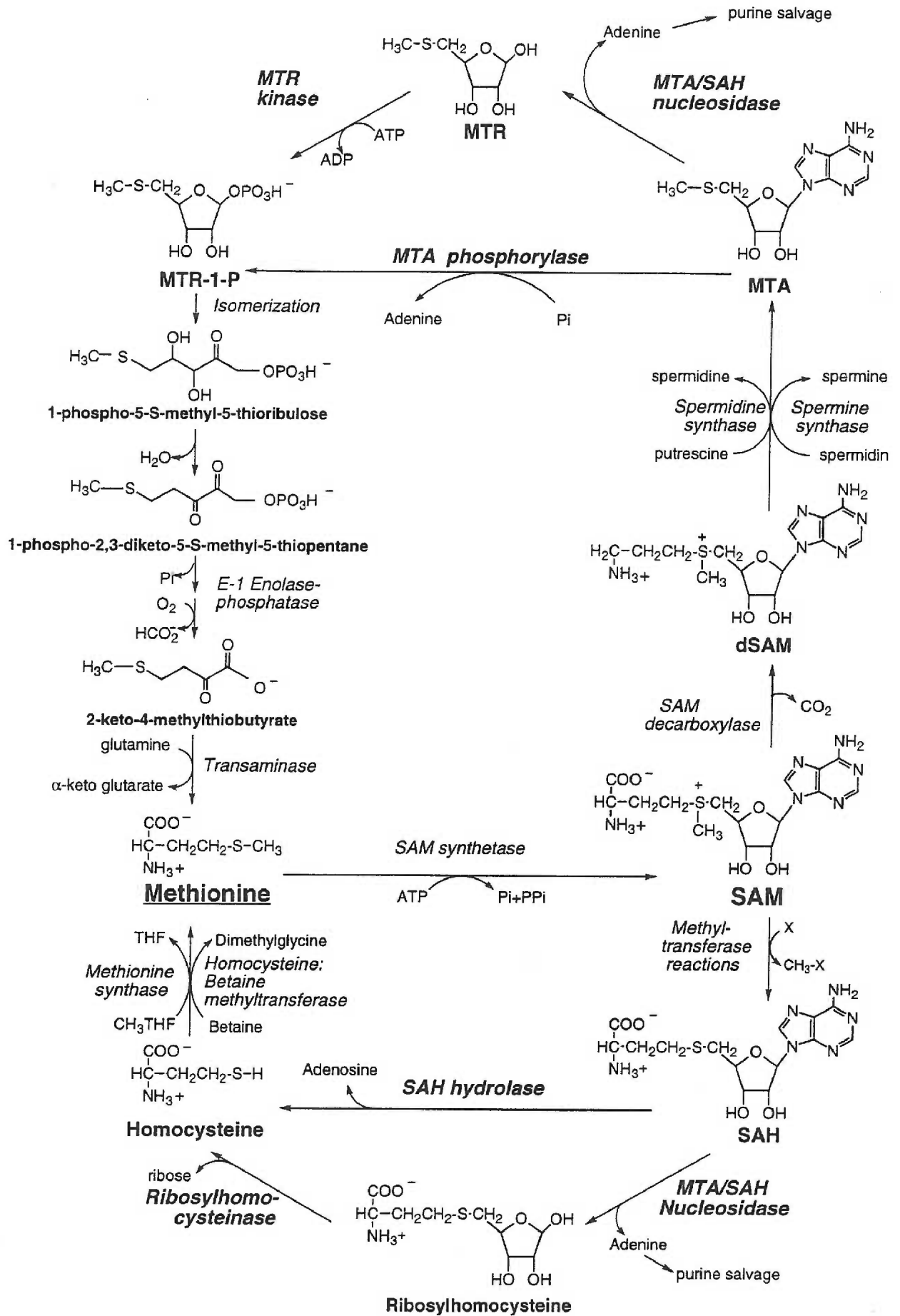
In the tissues of higher plants, the ACP group of SAM is converted to aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylic acid (ACC) by the action of ACC synthase (S-adenosyl-L-methionine methylthioadenosyl-lyase, EC 4.4.1.14) [80, 81]. The reaction represents the rate limiting step in the formation of ethylene, a plant hormone involved in growth, senescence, and fruit ripening. A recent report by Good et al. has suggested that fruit ripening in tomatoes could be controlled by transgenic expression of the coliphage  $\lambda$  SAM hydrolase [82]. Presumably, the resulting depletion of SAM pools decreases the amount available for the synthesis of ACC. These findings are of interest since they provide insight into the potential agricultural importance of manipulation of SAM metabolism and methionine recycling.

Lastly, in biotin biosynthesis, SAM acts as an amino group donor in the transamination of 7-keto-8-amino pelargonic acid. The product, 7,8-diaminopelargonic acid, is the precursor to desthiobiotin [83]. The coproduct of the reaction, S-adenosyl-5-oxo-4-methylthiobutyrate, decomposes spontaneously to MTA and 2-oxo-3-butenoic acid.

F. Methionine Recycling from MTA and SAH.

In each of the metabolic reactions of SAM considered in the previous paragraph, MTA or SAH was produced. These thioethers represent energetically "expensive" compounds that are recycled in a series of reactions that link methionine and purine salvage [61]. In addition, MTA and SAH act as feedback inhibitors of numerous reactions, thus requiring rapid catabolism to prevent their antiproliferative effects. In 1952, Shapiro showed that methionine auxotrophs of *Aerobacter aerogenes* (*Enterobacter aerogenes*) could grow when cultures were supplemented with MTA [84]. This initi

**Figure 1.2.** Methionine recycling pathways from MTA and SAH.



demonstration of a methionine recycling pathway from MTA was later repeated in *Candida utilis* [85, 86], *Ochromonas malhamensis* [85-88], apple tissue [89], and mammalian cells [90-92].

In mammalian cells, the initial catabolism of MTA and SAH occurs by separate enzymes, MTA phosphorylase (EC 2.4.2.28) [93] and SAH hydrolase (EC 3.3.1.1) [94]. The products of the hydrolysis of SAH are adenosine and homocysteine. Adenosine is dispersed into the purine pools of the cell, predominantly through the actions of adenosine deaminase (EC 3.5.4.4) and nucleoside kinase (EC 2.7.1.15). Homocysteine is converted to methionine, by either a vitamin B<sub>12</sub> dependent methionine synthase (methyltetrahydrofolate:homocysteine methyltransferase, EC 2.1.1.13), or a vitamin B<sub>12</sub> independent enzyme (betaine:homocysteine methyl-transferase, EC 2.1.1.5) [68, 95].

The initial step in the salvage of methionine from MTA was first demonstrated by Pegg and Williams-Ashman, who showed that MTA catabolism occurred via the action of a specific phosphate dependent nucleosidase (MTA phosphorylase, EC 2.4.2.28), which yielded adenine and 5-methylthioribose-1-phosphate (MTR-1-P) [93]. This is the only adenine producing reaction within mammalian cells [96]. Adenine subsequently enters the cellular purine pools by the action of adenine phosphoribosyltransferase (APRTase; EC 2.4.2.7). MTA phosphorylase has since been purified and characterized from a variety of mammalian sources (rat, mouse, bovine, human, etc.) and tissue types (lymphocyte erythrocytes, liver, lung, testes, placenta, brain, etc.) (Table 1.5 and references therein). The phosphorylase has been reported to function as a homodimer [97] or homotrimer that is unaffected by SAH, but competitively inhibited by adenine [98, 99]. The human MTA phosphorylase gene has recently been cloned [100, 101] and expressed [102], allowing confirmation of its monomeric molecular weight ( $\approx 31$ kDa), and trimeric quaternary structure. MTA phosphorylase activity has also been reported in the archaebacteria [103].

104], a number of eubacteria [105], fungi [106, 107], algae [108], and protozoans [109, 110, 111, 112, 113].

In contrast to mammalian cells, the initial catabolism of MTA occurs by a phosphate independent nucleosidase in a number of other bacteria (especially in the family *Enterobacteriaceae*) [105, 114], several protozoans [54, 55, 115, 116], and plants [117, 118, 119, 120]. The bacterial enzyme, first described in *E. coli* [114], has a broader substrate specificity than the mammalian phosphorylase, and irreversibly hydrolyzes both SAH and MTA to yield adenine and the corresponding thiosugar, ribosylhomocysteine or methylthioribose (MTR). Bacterial MTA/SAH nucleosidase (EC 3.2.2.9), has since been purified and characterized from *E. coli* [121, 122] and *Klebsiella pneumoniae* [123]. The bacterial enzymes function as 26-31kDa monomers that are insensitive to inhibition by the products, adenine and methylthioribose. In what appears to be an interesting hybrid of mammalian and bacterial properties, the plant *Lupinus luteus* (Yellow lupine) phosphate independent nucleosidase acts as a 62kDa homodimer with a strict specificity for MTA and is readily inhibited by adenine [118]. Similar enzyme activity profiles appear in other plants as well, suggesting that separate MTA and SAH catabolizing enzymes are the norm for this kingdom [106, 117].

The second step in the alternate (microbial and plant) pathway involves the ATP dependent phosphorylation of MTR to yield MTR-1-P. The reaction is catalyzed by MTR kinase (EC 2.7.1.100), an enzyme first described by Ferro and coworkers in lysates of *Enterobacter aerogenes* [125]. MTR kinase has since been reported in a number of bacterial [54, 116, 126], protozoal [54, 55, 116], and plant [119, 120, 128] species. The salvage of ribosylhomocysteine, produced by the cleavage of SAH, remains poorly characterized, but reportedly involves cleavage to ribose and homocysteine [143].

The remaining steps in the recycling of MTR-1-P to methionine appear to be the same for all cell types, although they have not been extensively studied. MTR-1-P is first

**Table 1.3.** Enzyme activities in prokaryotes.

Organism	Enzyme Activity			Ref.
	MTA/SAH Nucleosidase	MTR Kinase	MTA Phosphorylase	
<u>Archaeobacteria</u>				
<i>Caldariella acidophila</i>	–	nt	√	[103]
<i>Sulfolobus solfataricus</i>	–	nt	√	[124]
<u>Eubacteria</u>				
<i>Citrobacter freundii</i>	√	nt	–	[105]
<i>Citrobacter intermedius</i>	√	nt	–	[105]
<i>Enterobacter aerogenes</i>	√	√	–	[54, 106, 116, 125]
<i>Enterobacter cloacae</i>	√	√	–	[54]
<i>Escherichia coli</i> (B, K-12)	√	nt <sup>a</sup>	–	[105, 114]
<i>Erwinia carotovora</i>	√	nt	–	[105]
<i>Klebsiella pneumoniae</i>	√	√	–	[105, 123, 126]
<i>Proteus mirabilis</i>	√	nt	–	[105]
<i>Proteus vulgaris</i>	√	nt	–	[106]
<i>Salmonella typhimurium</i>	√	nt	–	[114]
<i>Serratia marcescens</i>	√	nt	–	[105]
<i>Acinetobacter calcoaceticus</i>	–	nt	√	[105]
<i>Agrobacterium tumefaciens</i>	–	nt	√	[105]
<i>Alcaligenes faecalis</i>	–	nt	√	[105]
<i>Arthrobacter globiformis</i>	–	nt	√	[105]
<i>Bacillus cereus</i>	√	nt	–	[106]
<i>Corynebacterium fascians</i>	–	nt	√	[105]
<i>Mycobacterium avium</i>	–	nt	√	[105]
<i>Nocardia asteroides</i>	–	nt	√	[105]
<i>Protaminobacter ruber</i>	–	nt	√	[105]
<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>	–	nt	√	[105]
<i>Pseudomonas maltophila</i>	–	nt	√	[105]
<i>Pseudomonas putida</i>	–	nt	√	[105]
<i>Rhodopseudomonas spheroides</i>	–	nt	√	[105]
<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	√	nt	–	[106]
<i>Streptomyces hygroscopicus</i>	–	nt	√	[105]

(√) = enzyme activity present; (–) = enzyme activity absent; (nt) = not tested.

<sup>a</sup> MTR kinase activity has not been detected in *E. coli*, Michael K. Riscoe, unpublished observation.



**Table 1.4.** Enzyme activities in lower eukaryotes.

Organism	Enzyme Activity			Ref.
	MTA/SAH Nucleosidase	MTR Kinase	MTA Phosphorylase	
<u>Protozoa</u>				
<i>Entamoeba histolytica</i>	√(MTA) <sup>a</sup>	√	–	[55]
<i>Entamoeba invadens</i>	√(MTA)	√	–	[54]
<i>Giardia lamblia</i>	√(MTA)	√	–	[54, 116]
<i>Ochromonas malhamensis</i>	√(MTA)	√	–	[88, 116]
<i>Plasmodium falciparum</i>	√(MTA)	√	√ <sup>b</sup>	[116]
<i>Phytomonas davidii</i>	–	–	√	[54]
<i>Leishmania donovani</i>	–	nt	√	[110, 112]
<i>Trypanosoma brucei</i>	–	nt	√	[112, 113]
<i>Trypanosoma cruzi</i>	–	nt	√	[111, 112]
<i>Euglena gracilis</i>	–	nt	√	[109]
<u>Algae</u>				
<i>Acetabularia mediterranea</i>	√	nt	–	[108]
<u>Fungi</u>				
<i>Aspergillus nidulans</i>	–	nt	√	[107]
<i>Candida albicans</i> <sup>c</sup>	–(SAH) <sup>d</sup>	nt	nt	[106]
<i>Candida utilis</i> <sup>c</sup>	–(SAH)	nt	nt	[106]
<i>Saccharomyces cerevisiae</i>	–(SAH)	–	√	[106, 127]

(√) = enzyme activity present; (–) = enzyme activity absent; (nt) = not tested.

<sup>a</sup> √(MTA) indicates that MTA nucleosidase activity was present. SAH nucleosidase activity was not tested.

<sup>b</sup> Trace amounts of phosphorylase activity here probably represent human erythrocyte enzyme.

<sup>c</sup> These *Candida* species lacked SAH nucleosidase and ribosylhomocysteinase activity, however, SAH hydrolase activity was demonstrated. Also, in these species, MTA is converted to methionine, whereas MTR is not. The inference is that the MTA nucleosidase/MTR kinase enzymes are probably replaced by a MTA phosphorylase similar to the findings for *Aspergillus* and *Saccharomyces*.

<sup>d</sup> –(SAH) indicates SAH nucleosidase activity was absent. MTA nucleosidase activity was not tested.

<sup>e</sup> √(MTA)/–(SAH) indicates that the nucleosidase recognized only MTA, SAH was not a substrate.

**Table 1.5.** Enzyme activities in higher eukaryotes.

Organism	Enzyme Activity			Ref.
	MTA/SAH Nucleosidase	MTR Kinase	MTA Phosphorylase	
<u>Plants</u>				
<i>Pyrus malus</i> (Apple)	nt	√	nt	[119]
<i>Persea americana</i> (Avocado)	√(MTA) <sup>a</sup>	√	–	[116, 119]
<i>Hordeum distichon</i> (Barley)	–(SAH) <sup>b</sup>	√	nt	[106, 128]
<i>Zea mays</i> (Corn)	–(SAH)	√	nt	[106]
<i>Phaseolus vulgaris</i> (Green bean)	–(SAH)	nt	nt	[106]
<i>Pyrus communis</i> (Pear)	nt	√	nt	[119]
<i>Spinaces oleraces</i> (Spinach)	–(SAH)	nt	nt	[106]
<i>Fragaria</i> (Strawberry)	nt	√	nt	[119]
<i>Lycopersicon esculentum</i> (Tomato)	√(MTA)	√	–	[119, 120, 129]
<i>Lupinus luteus</i> (Yellow lupine)	√(MTA)/–(SAH) <sup>c</sup>	√	–	[118, 128]
<i>Vinca rosea</i> (Periwinkle)	√(MTA)/–(SAH)	nt	–	[117]
<i>Glycine max</i> (Soybean)	nt	√	nt	[128]
<i>Helianthus annuus</i> (Sunflower)	nt	√	nt	[128]
<i>Cucumis sativus</i> (Cucumber)	nt	√	nt	[128]
<u>Invertebrates</u>				
<i>Drosophila melanoganser</i>	–	nt	√	[130, 131]
<u>Vertebrates</u>				
<i>Mus</i> (Mouse)	–	–	√	[116, 132-134]
<i>Rattus</i> (Rat)	–	nt	√	[93, 134-137]
<i>Sus</i> (Pig)	–	nt	√	[134]
<i>Ovis</i> (Sheep)	–	nt	√	[134]
<i>Bos</i> (Cow)	–	nt	√	[98, 134, 138-140]
<i>Homo sapien</i> (Human)	–	–	√	[97, 99, 116, 124, 141, 142]

(√) = enzyme activity present; (–) = enzyme activity absent; (nt) = not tested.

<sup>a</sup> √(MTA) indicates that MTA nucleosidase activity was present. SAH nucleosidase activity was not tested.

<sup>b</sup> –(SAH) indicates SAH nucleosidase activity was absent. MTA nucleosidase activity was not tested.

<sup>c</sup> √(MTA)/–(SAH) indicates that the nucleosidase recognized only MTA, SAH was not a substrate.

isomerized to 5-methylthioribulose-1-phosphate [144, 145], followed by dehydration to 1-phospho-2,3-diketo-5-S-methylpentane [146]. Subsequently, a set of vaguely characterized reactions occur which yield phosphate, formate (from C-1 of the ribose) and 2-keto-4-methylthiobutyrate ( $\alpha$ KMTB) [147, 148]. A magnesium and oxygen requiring bifunctional enolase-phosphatase is proposed to catalyse the dephosphorylation and oxidative cleavage of formate from 1-phospho-2,3-diketo-5-S-methylpentane [149]. In the final step,  $\alpha$ KMTB is reversibly transaminated in a reaction which (in mammalian cells) preferentially uses glutamine or asparagine as an amino group donor to form methionine and the corresponding  $\alpha$ -keto acid ( $\alpha$ -ketoglutarate /  $\alpha$ -ketoaspartate) [150, 151]. Worthy of note, this last step in the recycling pathway has recently come under study as a potential site of drug intervention against *Trypanosoma brucei* due to the substrate preference of the trypanosomal enzyme for aromatic amino acids [152].

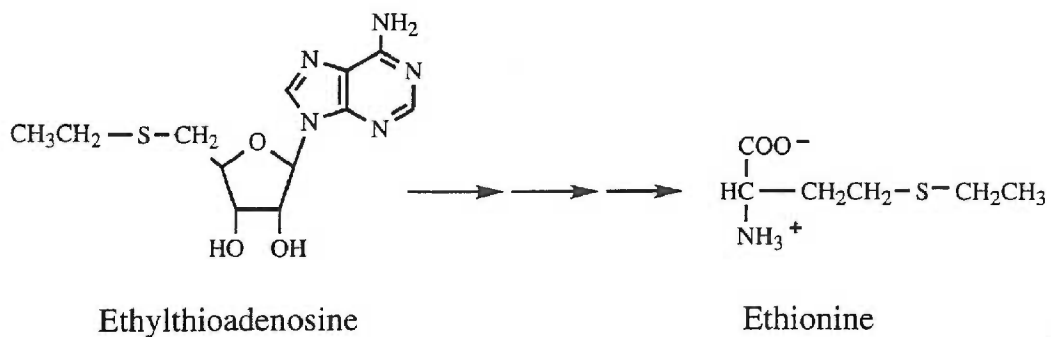
#### G. The Enzymes of Methionine Salvage as Chemotherapeutic Targets.

As described in the previous section, the catabolism of MTA to MTR-1-P occurs through either a one step (MTA phosphorylase) or two step (MTA/SAH nucleosidase / MTR kinase) process. Differences existing between the methionine salvage enzymes of mammalian cells and those of a number of medically important parasitic protozoa, fungi, and bacteria serve as sites of possible chemotherapeutic intervention [54, 56]. In general, drugs which interfere in the recycling pathway can be predicted to act by one (or more) of three possible mechanisms (Figure 1.3). By the first mechanism, drugs are metabolized to toxic analogs of methionine and S-adenosylmethionine, which subsequently exert their effects by interfering with protein synthesis and biological methylation reactions [55]. This is the proposed mode of action for 5'-deoxy-5'-ethylthioadenosine (ETA), one of the first analogs of MTA developed to target the recycling pathway. The second mode of action involves agents which directly inhibit salvage enzymes. The resulting interference

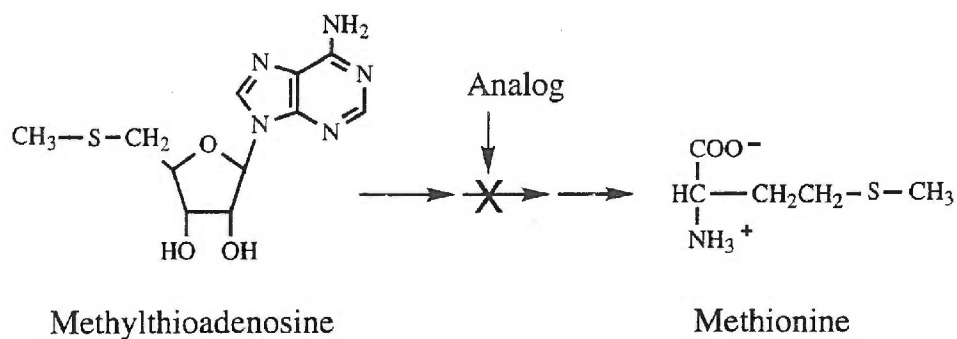
**Figure 1.3.** Mechanisms of action of methythioadenosine and methylthioribo analogs.

## Modes of Action of Methionine Recycling Intermediate Analogs

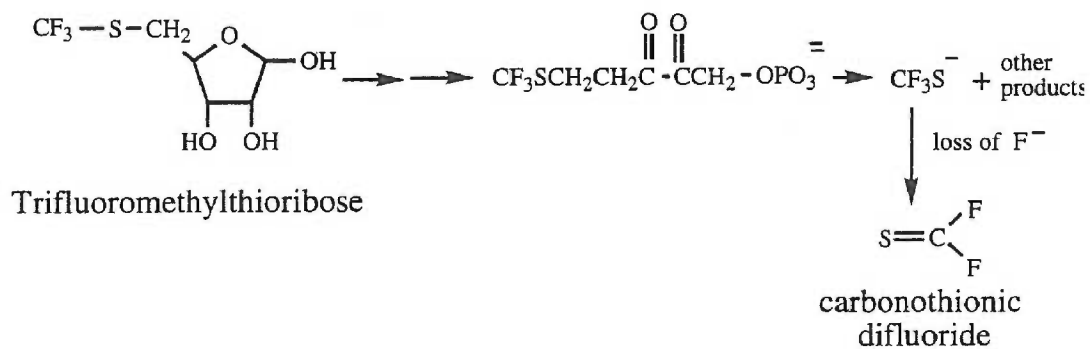
### (1) Conversion to toxic methionine analogs:



### (2) Inhibition of methionine recycling:



### (3) Generation of lethal intermediates:



in enzyme activity leads to a build up of catabolic intermediates, particularly MTA and SAH, which in turn exhibit a strong inhibition of polyamine biosynthesis and methylating reactions required for rapid cell proliferation [48, 67, 153]. The third possibility involves compounds which are catabolized by salvage enzymes to unstable intermediates, which then decompose to toxic substances. Trifluoromethylthioribose (TFMTR) is proposed to function in this manner. The action of MTR kinase on TFMTR generates the TFMTR-phosphate, which is converted to the 1-phospho-2,3-diketo-trifluoro-methylthiopentose intermediate. The presence of the trifluoromethylthio- group in the  $\beta$  position relative to the keto moiety allows the spontaneous generation of carbonothionic difluoride, a highly reactive cross-linking agent [126].

#### (i) MTA phosphorylase

For pathogenic organisms containing MTA phosphorylase (e.g. *Leishmania* and *Trypanosoma* spp.), differences in the substrate specificities of the mammalian and parasite enzymes have been explored as possible sites of drug design [112]. In 1981, Koszalka and Krenitsky purified an MTA phosphorylase from *L. donovani* promastigotes which exhibited a broader substrate specificity than its mammalian counterpart [110]. Of particular note for drug development, the leishmanial enzyme recognized 2'-deoxyadenosine, a trait not shared by human MTA phosphorylase [154]. Subsequent work on the MTA phosphorylases from *Trypanosoma cruzi*, *T. brucei*, and *L. donovani* demonstrated Michaelis constants for MTA that are essentially equivalent to human MTA phosphorylase [111-113]. However, all the parasite enzymes catalyzed the phosphorolysis of adenosine and 2'-deoxyadenosine with high efficiency as well. In addition, the *T. brucei* enzyme utilized 2',3'-dideoxyadenosine as a substrate [113]. This leaves open the possibility of selective delivery of toxic adenine analogs using the corresponding adenosine, 2'-deoxyadenosine, or 2',3'-dideoxyadenosine derivatives [112]. Other possibilities have been examined as well. An analog of MTA, 5'-deoxy-5'

hydroxyethylthioadenosine (HETA) has been shown to be curative when administered to mice infected with *Trypanosoma brucei* [155], and has advanced to the clinical trials stage (Dr. J. Sufrin, personal communication). HETA, which is a good substrate for the trypanosomal phosphorylase (but not the mammalian phosphorylase) [156], is presumably converted to toxic methionine analogs, since its inhibitory effects *in vitro* against procyclic trpanosomes can largely be abrogated by the addition of methionine or  $\alpha$ -ketomethiobutyrate to the culture medium [155].

(ii) MTA/SAH nucleosidase & MTR kinase.

For pathogens containing the MTA/SAH nucleosidase/MTR kinase path, differences in both substrate specificity and mechanism of action may be exploitable. In particular the nucleosidase is singly responsible for maintaining low levels of MTA and SAH compounds that have well documented inhibitory effects on methylation reactions [67], polyamine biosynthesis [48, 157], and cell proliferation [50, 158]. Numerous analogs of MTA and SAH have been developed [65, 66, 156, 159-164], but relatively few reports exist of their effects on nucleosidase containing organisms. The analogs, 5'-deoxy-5-isobutylthioadenosine (SIBA), ETA, and HETA, have displayed modest inhibitory activities *in vitro* against *Plasmodium falciparum* [56, 165], with IC<sub>50</sub> values generally in the 20-200 $\mu$ M range. A series of 5'-monofluoro-, 5'-difluoro-, and 5'-trifluoro- analogs of MTA and ETA have also been examined for *in vitro* antimalarial activity, with IC<sub>50</sub> values generally seen in the 20-50 $\mu$ M range [56, 164]. The SAH analog, sinefungin showed the greatest *in vitro* inhibitory activity against the malarial parasite with an IC<sub>50</sub> of approximately 0.2 $\mu$ M [166]. However, it is unclear in this organism whether the compound is exerting its inhibitory effect by interfering with methionine/purine salvage or is acting as a protein methyl transferase inhibitor, as has been demonstrated in *Leishmania* species [167]. Finally, a single report of the testing of a naturally occurring

xylosyl derivative of MTA (from *Doris verrucosa*) against several bacterial species fail to demonstrate any significant antibacterial activity [168].

In contrast to microbial nucleosidases and phosphorylases, where the design of substrate analogs must take into account possible interactions with the host enzyme, for the MTR phosphorylase, MTR kinase appears to be an attractive target because an equivalent activity is not present in human cells. Analogs of MTR have been shown to have *in vitro* antibacterial and antiprotozoal activity, with no demonstrable *in vitro* or *in vivo* inhibitory activity toward mammalian cells, even at high drug concentrations (5-10mM) [54, 55, 116, 169]. The compound, TFMTR, has shown modest activity against *P. falciparum* (IC<sub>50</sub> = 50μM) [55], and potent activity against *Klebsiella pneumoniae* (IC<sub>50</sub> = 50nM) [126]. Other more recently developed analogs, 5-(4-fluorophenylthio)ribose (PFPT) and 5-(4-iodophenylthio)ribose (PIPTR), exhibit even greater antibacterial activity against *K. pneumoniae* (IC<sub>50</sub>'s = 0.0025-0.05nM) [170].

The remaining chapters of this thesis present studies on MTA/SAH nucleosidase and MTR kinase that were conducted to further explore the potential of these enzymes to serve as targets for rational drug design. The MTA/SAH nucleosidases from *Klebsiella pneumoniae* and *Escherichia coli*, and the *Klebsiella pneumoniae* MTR kinase were used as model proteins for these investigations. Chapter 2 (paper #1) describes the purification and characterization of the nucleosidase and kinase from *Klebsiella* cell lysates. Amino acid sequence information obtained for the *Klebsiella* MTA/SAH nucleosidase showed a high degree of homology to the predicted translation product of *pfs*, an *E. coli* gene of previously unknown function. The results of the cloning and expression studies of the *E. coli pfs* gene were used to confirm its identity as encoding MTA/SAH nucleosidase, and comprise the bulk of chapter 3 (paper #2). The next chapter (paper #3), outlines studies performed on the recombinant *E. coli* nucleosidase to test its ability to serve as an *in vitro* model for drug design and understand in more detail the structural characteristics involv



in substrate and inhibitor recognition. Also contained in Chapter 4 is an initial kinetic characterization of a truncated MTA/SAH nucleosidase which was engineered to study the contribution of the first eight amino acid residues to substrate binding. Experiments describing attempts to clone the *Klebsiella* MTR kinase gene, preliminary antibacterial and bone marrow cell toxicity testing of MTA analogs, and the development and use of MTA/SAH monoclonal antibodies are contained in the appendices at the end of this thesis.

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CHAPTER 2

**Affinity Purification of 5-Methylthioribose Kinase and  
5'-Methylthioadenosine/S-Adenosylhomocysteine Nucleosidase  
from *Klebsiella pneumoniae***

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*Abbreviations:* MTA, 5'-methylthioadenosine; MTR, 5-methylthioribose; SAM, S-adenosyl-L-methionine; SAH, S-adenosylhomocysteine; DTT, dithiothreitol; PAPTA, 5'-(p-aminophenyl)thioadenosine; PAPTR, 5'-(p-aminophenyl)thioribose; TFMTR, 5-(trifluoromethyl)thioribose; PIPTR, 5-(p-iodophenyl)-thioribose; CAP, 3-(cyclohexylamino)propane-1-sulphonic acid.

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## SUMMARY

Two enzymes in the methionine salvage pathway, 5-methylthioribose kinase (MTR kinase) and 5'-methylthioadenosine/S-adenosylhomocysteine nucleosidase (MTA/SAH nucleosidase) were purified from *Klebsiella pneumoniae*. Chromatography using a novel 5'-(p-aminophenyl)thioadenosine/5-(p-aminophenyl)thioribose affinity matrix allowed the binding and selective elution of each of the enzymes in pure form. The molecular masses, substrate kinetics and N-terminal amino acid sequences were characterized for each of the enzymes. Purified MTR kinase exhibits an apparent molecular mass of 46-50 kDa by SDS/PAGE and S200HR chromatography, and has a  $K_m$  for MTR of 12.2  $\mu$ M. Homogeneous MTA/SAH nucleosidase displays a molecular mass of 26.5 kDa by SDS/PAGE, and a  $K_m$  for MTA of 8.7  $\mu$ M. Comparisons of the N-terminal sequences obtained for each of the enzymes with protein-sequence databases failed to reveal any significant sequence similarities to known proteins. However, the amino acid sequence obtained for the nucleosidase did share a high degree of sequence similarity with the putative translation product of an open reading frame in *Escherichia coli*, thus providing tentative identification of this gene as encoding an MTA/SAH nucleosidase.

## INTRODUCTION

5-Methylthioribose (MTR) kinase is not present in mammalian cells but is essential for methionine recycling in plants, as well as in numerous bacterial and protozoan species (Scheme 1). Because of its prevalence in a number of bacterial and protozoan pathogens of humans, attention has turned to the enzyme as a target for the development of drugs that selectively exploit or subvert microbial methionine metabolism [1-3]. It has been demonstrated that MTR kinase-containing organisms are selectively killed by analogs of MTR [3-6]. Depending on their design, these analogs kill microbes by one or more of the following mechanisms: (1) direct inhibition of MTR kinase activity, thus preventing the salvage of the energetically 'expensive' amino acid methionine; (2) conversion of the drug via MTR kinase and the salvage pathway into toxic derivatives of methionine or adenosylmethionine (SAM); and (3) conversion via MTR kinase to unstable intermediates which yield toxic products upon decomposition. One MTR analog, (trifluoromethyl)thioribose (TFMTR), acts as a subversive substrate of the methionine salvage pathway to yield an unstable intermediate which releases toxic carbonothioic difluoride [171]. More recently, Winter et al. [6] have described 5-(4-iodophenyl)thioribose (PIPTR) which is at least 10000 times more potent than TFMTR (e.g.  $IC_{50}$ 's of 2.5  $\mu$ M and 40 nM versus *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, respectively). However, the precise mechanism by which this compound acts is not yet clear.

Further development of MTR analogs as selective antimicrobial agents would be greatly facilitated by the availability of pure target enzyme which could be used to screen for new compounds. In addition, N-terminal sequence data from purified enzyme would provide valuable information required for cloning and expression of the corresponding gene. Because of its importance for future drug development efforts and for studies to investigate the regulation of MTR kinase expression, we set out to purify MTR kinase

homogeneity. Critical to the mission of obtaining pure material was the development of novel substrate-affinity matrix, 5'-(*p*-aminophenyl)thioadenosine (PAPTA)/5-(aminophenyl)thioribose (PAPTR)-Sepharose. Herein we describe the use of this matrix to purify MTR kinase to homogeneity from a cell-free extract of *K. pneumoniae*, and the fortuitous co-purification of the enzyme 5'-methylthioadenosine (MTA)/S-adenosylhomocysteine (SAH) nucleosidase.



## MATERIALS AND METHODS

### Bacterial strains and culture conditions

The clinical isolate of *K. pneumoniae* as well as the culture conditions used to maintain the organism for these studies have been described previously [172].

### Chemicals and substrates

S-Adenosyl-L-[methyl- $^{14}\text{C}$ ]methionine ( $^{14}\text{C}$ -SAM; 100  $\mu\text{Ci/ml}$ , 55 mCi/mmol) was purchased from American Radiolabelled Chemicals (St. Louis, MO, U.S.A.). 5-[methyl- $^{14}\text{C}$ ]-Methylthioadenosine ( $^{14}\text{C}$ -MTA) was synthesized from  $^{14}\text{C}$ -SAM described by Schlenk [7]. 5-[methyl- $^{14}\text{C}$ ]Methylthioribose ( $^{14}\text{C}$ -MTR) was produced from  $^{14}\text{C}$ -MTA by acid hydrolysis [8]. 5'-Tosyladenosine and 6-aminohexanoic acid N-hydroxysuccinimide ester-Sepharose 4B were obtained from Sigma Chemical Corp. (St. Louis, MO, U.S.A.). 4-Aminothiophenol was purchased from Aldrich (Milwaukee, WI, U.S.A.).

### Synthesis of PAPTA

Solid sodium (8.8 mmol) was dissolved in 100 ml of reagent-grade methanol (Aldrich) with stirring in a round-bottomed flask. 4-Aminothiophenol (7.1 mmol) was then dissolved into the mixture, followed by the addition of 5'-tosyladenosine (7.1 mmol). After flushing the vessel with nitrogen, it was tightly capped and allowed to stir for 2 days at room temperature. Conversion of the 5'-tosyladenosine to PAPTA was monitored by TLC on Whatman reverse-phase ( $\text{C}_2$ ) plates using a solvent system composed of acetonitrile/water (15:1). To complete the purification, the mixture was evaporated to dryness and the residue extracted twice with a small volume of water. The remaining solid material (impure PAPTA) was recrystallized three times from methanol. The white crystalline product was greater than 99% pure as judged by TLC. The identity of the compound was confirmed by MS (70 eV) and elemental analysis.

### **Synthesis of PAPTA/PAPTR affinity matrix**

PAPTA–Sepharose was constructed by covalent linkage of the *p*-amino group of PAPTA to 6-aminohexanoic acid N-hydroxysuccinimide ester–Sepharose 4B according to the manufacturer's protocol. Prior to coupling, 1 g of the dry resin was mixed overnight with 20 ml of distilled water to yield approximately 3 ml of hydrated matrix. The matrix was then rinsed on a sintered glass filter with 400 ml of ice-cold 1mM HCl. PAPTA (60 mg) was dissolved in 6 ml of distilled water for 1 h in a boiling-water bath, followed by the addition of an equal volume of bicarbonate buffer (0.2 M NaHCO<sub>3</sub>, pH 8.0/1 M NaCl) just before the addition of rinsed matrix. The ligand was allowed to react with the activated resin for 1 h at room temperature with constant agitation. Unbound ligand was removed from the resin by rinsing with 50 ml bicarbonate buffer. Unreacted sites were blocked by treatment with 15 ml of 1 M ethanolamine for 1 h at room temperature. Following this treatment, the matrix was rinsed extensively with five alternating washes (100 ml each) of acetate buffer (0.1 M sodium acetate, pH 4/0.5 M NaCl) and Tris buffer (0.1 M Tris, pH 8/0.5 M NaCl). The PAPTA–Sepharose was subsequently rinsed with S200 buffer [10 mM imidazole, pH 6.8/100 mM NaCl/2mM dithiothreitol (DTT)/1% (v/v) glycerol] and stored at 4°C until needed.

PAPTR-resin was synthesized by treating 2 ml of PAPTA–Sepharose with 5 ml of a pooled sample of partially purified *K. pneumoniae* MTA/SAH nucleosidase for 1 h at 37°C with constant agitation. After nucleosidase treatment, the resin was placed in a column (1 x 2 cm) and washed extensively with S200 buffer. The PAPTR resin was stored at 4°C in S200 buffer containing 0.2% azide.

### **Enzyme assays and kinetics**

For enzyme purification purposes, MTR kinase activity was measured essentially as described by Gianotti et al. [172]. Briefly, enzyme samples (1-10 µl) were incubated for 1 h at 37°C in 100 µl of reaction mixture containing 100 mM glycine (pH 9.5), 5 mM

ATP, 20 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 5 mM DTT and 5 μM <sup>14</sup>C-MTR (0.029 μCi). The reaction was stopped by addition of 400 μl of ice-cold ethanol and centrifuged (10000 g for 5 min) and the sediment precipitated material. A 450 μl sample of the supernatant was applied to a 2 ml AG-1-X8 formate anion-exchange column (Bio-Rad). Unreacted substrate was removed by rinsing the column (3 x 5 ml) with 0.01 M sodium formate buffer (pH 5). Bound <sup>14</sup>C-MTR-1-phosphate was eluted with 8 ml of 0.75 M sodium formate buffer (pH 5). After thorough mixing, a 2 ml sample of the eluate was added to 18 ml of EcoLume scintillation cocktail (ICN) and the radioactivity quantified on a Beckman LS3801 liquid-scintillation counter. For enzyme kinetic studies, the assay was performed as described above, with <sup>14</sup>C-MTR concentrations ranging from 0.5 μM to 17.5 μM. Enzyme concentration and reaction duration were adjusted to limit conversion of substrate to less than 5%. Results were plotted as double-reciprocal (Lineweaver-Burk) plots [9] and analyzed for kinetic parameters using the Leonora enzyme kinetics program [10].

MTA nucleosidase activity was measured by following the conversion of <sup>14</sup>C-MTA to <sup>14</sup>C-MTR, essentially as described by Della-Ragione et al. [11], with minor modifications. The standard assay for following enzyme purification contained 25 μl sample, 190 mM imidazole (pH 7) and 37 μM <sup>14</sup>C-MTA (5 μCi/μmol), in a total reaction volume of 200 μl. Reactions were incubated at 37°C for 60 min and stopped by addition of 50 μl of ice-cold 3 M trichloroacetic acid. Precipitated material was removed by centrifugation (10000 g for 10 min). A 200 μl sample of supernatant was applied to a 2 ml AG50-X8 cation-exchange column (Bio-Rad; 100-200 mesh, hydrogen-ion form), and unbound <sup>14</sup>C-MTR eluted with 3 ml of distilled water directly into a 20 ml vial scintillation cocktail. For kinetic analysis the substrate concentration ranged from 2.5 μM to 20 μM. Enzyme concentration and reaction time were adjusted to limit substrate hydrolysis to less than 5%.

### **Preparation of enzyme extracts and initial chromatography**

Overnight cultures of *K. pneumoniae* grown at 37°C were diluted 100-fold into 16 litre of methionine-free defined medium [12]. Cultures were incubated at 37°C with vigorous agitation until mid-log phase ( $A_{545} \approx 0.6$ ) and harvested by centrifugation (5000 g for 1 min). The resulting cell pellets (approx. 100 g wet weight) were stored at -20°C until needed. Unless otherwise stated, all subsequent steps in the enzyme purification scheme were carried out on ice or in a 4°C refrigerated cold-room.

To prepare cell-free extracts, cell pellets were thawed and resuspended in 200 ml of ice-cold ID buffer (10 mM imidazole, pH 6.8/2mM DTT). Cells were disrupted by four passages through a French Pressure cell (SLM-Aminco) at  $1104 \times 10^2$  kPa (1600 lb./in<sup>2</sup>). Cell lysates were centrifuged at 4°C (25000 g for 30 min) to remove cellular debris. For an initial enrichment of MTR kinase activity, dry ammonium sulphate (0.12 g/ml lysate) was stirred into the cell lysate over the course of 2 h. The lysate was stirred for an additional 1 h, followed by centrifugation (10000 g for 30 min) to remove precipitated material. The supernatant (containing MTR kinase activity) was then dialyzed extensively against ID buffer.

Before affinity chromatography, the dialysate was subjected to DEAE (anion exchange) and S200HR chromatography. Briefly, the dialysate (400 ml) was loaded on a DEAE-Sepharose Cl-6B column (25 cm x 4 cm) at a flow rate of 0.5 ml/min. The column was washed with ID buffer (2 litres) until the  $A_{280}$  of the eluent was below 0.05. A linear gradient of 0-0.8 M NaCl in ID buffer (1.5 litre) was then applied to the column at a flow rate of 0.27 ml/min. Fractions were collected every 15 min (~4 ml/fraction) and assayed for enzyme activity. Fractions containing high levels of MTR kinase activity were pooled and concentrated using Centriprep 10 ultrafiltration units (Amicon, Beverly, MA, U.S.A.) according to the manufacturer's specifications. The concentrated DEAE-purified MTR kinase pool was then rechromatographed on the DEAE column using a 0-0.5 M

NaCl gradient. Fractions containing peak MTR kinase activity were pooled and concentrated as described above.

DEAE-purified MTR kinase (4 ml) was applied to a Sephacryl S200HR column (100 cm x 2.5 cm) equilibrated in S200 buffer. The flow rate was adjusted to 4 ml/h, with 1-min fractions collected and assayed for enzymatic activity. An approximate molecular mass elution profile was assigned by performing a parallel separation with a mixture of protein chromatographic standards (Pharmacia). Fractions containing peak levels of MTR kinase activity were pooled, concentrated by ultrafiltration, and stored at 4°C for affinity chromatography.

#### **PAPTR affinity chromatography**

S200-purified MTR kinase (2 ml) was recycled five times over a 3 ml column of PAPTR Sepharose. After the fifth application, the resin was washed with 20 ml each of: (1) ID buffer + 100 mM NaCl; (2) ID buffer + 500 mM NaCl; and (3) ID buffer + 2 M NaCl. MTR kinase activity was selectively removed by treatment with 20 ml of Mg/ATP buffer (100 mM glycine, pH 9.5/5 mM ATP/20 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>) at 37°C. The column was washed with an additional 20 ml fraction of ID buffer +100 mM NaCl, and finally with 18 ml of low-pH buffer (100 mM glycine, pH 2.5) eluted directly into 2 ml of 1 M Tris (pH 8.0). All elutions were concentrated by Centriprep 10 ultrafiltration and assayed for enzymatic activity as described above.

#### **Protein determination**

Protein concentrations were determined using a Coomassie<sup>®</sup> Plus kit (Pierce, Rockford, IL, U.S.A.) according to the manufacturer's specifications. Absorbances were monitored at 595 nm with BSA used as a protein standard.

#### **Protein analysis**

SDS/PAGE was performed using a 12.5%-acrylamide resolving gel and 3%-acrylamide stacking gel system [13] in a Hoefer Mighty Small II<sup>®</sup> apparatus. Electrophoresis was

typically conducted for 1 h at 100 V, followed by overnight staining of the gel in solution of 0.05% Coomassie Blue dissolved in 50% methanol/10% acetic acid. Resolved proteins were visualized following destaining in 50% methanol/10% acetic acid.

For electroblotting, proteins were resolved by SDS/PAGE on 10%-polyacrylamide gels and equilibrated briefly in 3-(cyclohexylamino)propane-1-sulphonic acid (CAPS) buffer (10 mM CAPS/10% methanol, pH11) [14]. Proteins were then transferred to poly(vinylidene difluoride) membranes at 50 V for 35 min, using the CAPS buffer system, in a water-cooled Hoefer TE series TransPhor electrophoresis chamber. Proteins were visualized by brief (1 min) staining of the poly(vinylidene difluoride) membrane with Coomassie Blue (0.1% in 50% methanol), destaining with 50% methanol/10% acetic acid followed by extensive rinsing in distilled water. Stained protein bands were excised and submitted to the Portland VAMC Core Molecular Biology facility for N-terminal sequencing on an Applied Biosystems automated peptide sequencer.

## RESULTS

### Initial purification of MTR kinase

MTR kinase was initially purified from cell-free lysates of *K. pneumoniae* using succession of DEAE and S200HR chromatographic steps. Upon completion of size exclusion chromatography, the enzyme had been purified approximately 1500-fold with an overall yield of 55% (Table 2.1). An estimated molecular mass for MTR kinase of 46 kDa was obtained from S200HR chromatography by comparing the elution of MTR kinase activity with the elution profile of proteins of established molecular mass.

### PAPTA/PAPTR affinity chromatography

Chromatography of MTR kinase on the affinity matrix (Scheme 2) improved the purification factor to nearly 11000-fold with an 11% overall yield (Table 2.1). As demonstrated in Figure 2.1, most of the MTR kinase activity remained on the affinity matrix even after treatment with 2 M NaCl, and was selectively eluted from the column when treated under conditions which are known to be optimal for activity of the *Klebsiella* enzyme ('Mg/ATP' elution: 100 mM glycine buffer, pH 9.5/5 mM ATP/20 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>/5 mM DTT). Presumably, these conditions favor phosphorylation of the bound affinity ligand and subsequent release of MTR kinase. A final elution of the column with 100 mM glycine (pH 2.5) to elute remaining proteins from the matrix failed to yield any significant MTR kinase activity. However, subsequent analysis indicated that this fraction contained abundant MTA/SAH nucleosidase activity (Figure 2.1).

### Enzyme analysis

SDS/PAGE analysis of fractions from the affinity resin revealed a single protein band with a molecular mass of ~ 46 kDa in the 'Mg/ATP' elution (Figure 2.2, panel [A], lane B). This value is consistent with the molecular mass predictions obtained by S200HR chromatography. SDS/PAGE analysis of the final 100 mM glycine eluate (the fraction

containing the highest MTA/SAH nucleosidase activity) revealed a single protein band with a relative molecular mass of 26.5 kDa (Figure 2.2, panel [B], lane D).

Kinetic analysis of homogeneously purified MTR kinase revealed a  $K_m$  for MTR 12.2  $\mu$ M (Figure 2.3a). For purified MTA/SAH nucleosidase, a  $K_m$  for MTA of 8.7  $\mu$ M was determined (Figure 2.3b). Both  $K_m$  values were extracted from double-reciprocal plots using the Leonora enzyme kinetics program. N-terminal sequencing of both affinity-purified enzymes allowed the identification of 19 of the first 20 amino acid residues for the MTR kinase, and 35 residues for MTA/SAH nucleosidase (Figure 2.4).



## DISCUSSION

Methionine serves as a structural component of proteins as well as providing the initial amino acid during protein synthesis [15]. Upon activation to SAM, it serves as a source of methyl groups for a variety of transmethylation reactions, and as the source of propylamine groups for polyamine biosynthesis [16]. To meet the high demand for this amino acid, micro-organisms obtain methionine by *de novo* synthesis and through a variety of salvage routes. Many organisms are able to salvage methionine from MTA, thereby conserving the amino acid consumed during polyamine synthesis.

The salvage of methionine from MTA has been most extensively characterized in the gram negative bacterium, *K. pneumoniae* [17,18]. The present paper describes the purification to homogeneity of the first two enzymes involved in this cycle: MTA/SAH nucleosidase and MTR kinase. At first glance, MTR kinase appears to be an ideal target for anti-microbial chemotherapeutic drug development, since it has no corresponding human equivalent and recognizes a substrate that is not present in mammalian cells. Previously, it has been shown in a number of biological systems that the presence of MTR kinase can be selectively exploited by subversive substrates which are metabolized by this enzyme to toxic methionine analogs or to liberate highly reactive intermediates [1,19,20].

Because of the dual role of microbial MTA/SAH nucleosidase in regulating intracellular levels of both MTA and SAH, it also represents an attractive target for drug development. Elevated levels of SAH and MTA inhibit methylation reactions [21-24] and polyamine synthesis [25-27]. Nucleoside analogs which selectively inhibit the nucleosidase could act to kill invading micro-organisms by perturbing methylation processes and polyamine levels.

The primary goal of our study was to purify MTR kinase. Affinity chromatography on PAPTR-Sepharose represented the key step in the purification of this enzyme

homogeneity. The choice of this particular affinity matrix was based on the remarkable affinity of the enzyme for various arylthio-substituted derivatives [6]. The resin was prepared by linking PAPTAs to cyanogen bromide-activated Sepharose 4B, presumably yielding a mixed matrix in which the ligand is bound through the *p*-amino group of the phenyl side-chain or the 6-position amine of the adenine ring (or possibly both). The glycosidic bond was cleaved by the application of a partially purified preparation of *K. pneumoniae* MTA/SAH nucleosidase to yield the final PAPTR matrix. Purification of MTR kinase was achieved by applying selective assay-like elution conditions, i.e. pH 9 in the presence of ATP. We believe that under these conditions, MTR kinase is eluted as the bound PAPTR ligand becomes phosphorylated. Despite rather harsh washing conditions, MTA/SAH nucleosidase applied to the column to generate the PAPTR ligand remained bound to the matrix until it was eluted with an acidic pH buffer (100 mM glycine, pH 2.5). Possibly, this strong retention of the nucleosidase to the matrix is caused by the presence of non-hydrolysable ligand, due to the alternative linkage of the PAPTAs via the 6-position amine of the adenine ring.

MTR kinase activity has been detected in a variety of bacteria, protozoa and plants [1,3,28-32]. The enzyme has been partially purified from *Enterobacter aerogenes* [29], *K. pneumoniae* [172], and seeds of *Lupinus luteus* [28]. Several investigators estimate the molecular mass of native MTR kinase to be in the range of 70 kDa, based on gel filtration analysis [4,28]. Our own gel-filtration studies and SDS/PAGE analysis indicate a monomer size nearer to 50 kDa. However, it should be noted that the elution profile of MTR kinase activity from the S200HR column is quite broad, thus we cannot accurately assess the subunit make-up of the native enzyme. The substrate affinity displayed by the purified MTR kinase ( $K_m$  for MTR of 12.2  $\mu$ M) is similar to the Michaelis constants determined by other investigators for partially purified enzymes [4,28,33].

MTA/SAH nucleosidase has previously been purified to homogeneity from *E. coli* using an *S*-formylcysteinyl homocysteine-Sepharose affinity column [11]. Della-Ragione et al. [11] have characterized this enzyme extensively and report that it functions as a monomer with a native molecular mass of 26.5 kDa. These observations are consistent with the results we obtained from SDS/PAGE analysis of homogeneously purified *K. pneumoniae* nucleosidase. However, our results indicate that the *Klebsiella* enzyme ( $K_m$  for MTA = 8.7  $\mu$ M) is markedly different from MTA/SAH nucleosidase derived from *E. coli* and *L. lactis*, which exhibit much higher affinities for MTA ( $K_m = 0.4 \mu$ M for both) [11,34]. It is noteworthy that unlike *K. pneumoniae*, *E. coli* is incapable of methionine salvage from MTA since it lacks MTR kinase (M. K. Riscoe unpublished observation). Instead, it has been reported that MTR produced in *E. coli* by the enzymatic cleavage of MTA is exported [35,36]. Therefore, the observed differences in substrate affinity displayed by MTA/SAH nucleosidases may be a reflection of the metabolism of MTA and the disposition of its products, i.e. export versus salvage of MTR.

In conclusion, this study highlights a method for purifying MTR kinase and MTA/SAH nucleosidase to homogeneity from the pathogen *K. pneumoniae*. Sufficient material was obtained to allow the determination of the N-terminal amino acid sequence of each of the enzymes. Comparing the 19 amino acid sequence found for MTR kinase with sequences contained in SwissProt and PIR data banks failed to reveal any significant sequence similarities to other proteins or putative translation products. However, analysis of the SwissProt database revealed a 95% identity between the *Klebsiella* MTA/SAH nucleosidase N-terminal residues and a putative translation product of the *pfs* gene (accession no. P24247) reported upstream of the *dgt* gene in *E. coli* [37]. Based on the presence of conserved sequence motifs shared with known nucleoside phosphorylase, investigators have predicted that the *pfs* gene product (calculated molecular mass  $\approx$  24 kDa) is a nucleosidase of unknown specificity [38]. Investigations into the identification

of this region as encoding the MTA/SAH nucleosidase are currently under way in a laboratory.

Finally, it is hoped that the information presented in this article will facilitate the ultimate goal of cloning and sequencing the genes encoding MTR kinase and MTA/SAH nucleosidase. Subsequent over-expression of the genes would provide large quantities of both enzymes suitable for ongoing rational drug design and drug screening efforts.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

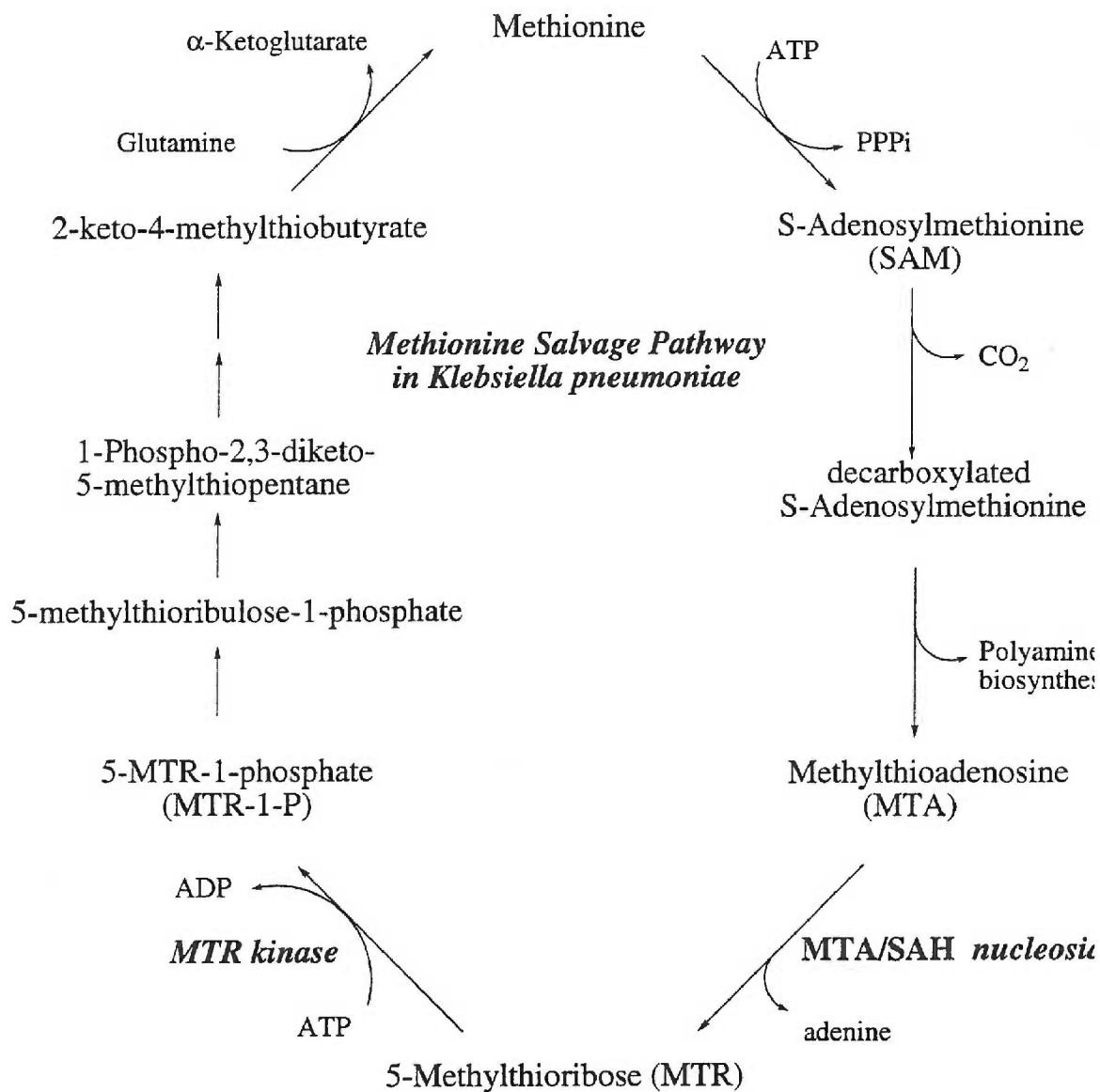
The authors thank Ms. Linda L. Johnson for technical assistance in the preparation of cell cultures. In addition, we thank Drs. Thomas Allen and Daniel Carr, and Darrick Carter for assistance in computer database analysis. We gratefully acknowledge support from the Veterans Affairs Medical Research Program. This project was also supported in part through financial contributions of the Collins Medical Trust of Oregon, the Medical Research Foundation of Oregon, and Interlab Inc. (Lake Oswego, OR, U.S.A.). K.A.C. receives support from the National Institutes of Health Molecular Hematology Training Program Grant #T32-HL07781 awarded to the Oregon Health Sciences University, and is the recipient of an N.L. Tartar Trust Fellowship and a Portland V.A. Medical Center Research Fellowship.

**Table 2.1.** Purification of MTR kinase from *K. pneumoniae*

Purification step	Specific activity (pmol/min/mg protein)	Total protein (mg)	Yield (%)	Fold purification
Crude	7.93	1571	100	1
(NH <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>4</sub> (25% fraction supernatant)	440.2	125	451	55
DEAE-Sepharose (0-0.8M NaCl gradient)	1746.3	4.92	70	220
DEAE-Sepharose (0-0.5M NaCl gradient)	5283.5	1.34	58	666
S200HR	11634.5	0.58	55	1467
"PAPTR" affinity chromatography	85200	0.015	11	10744

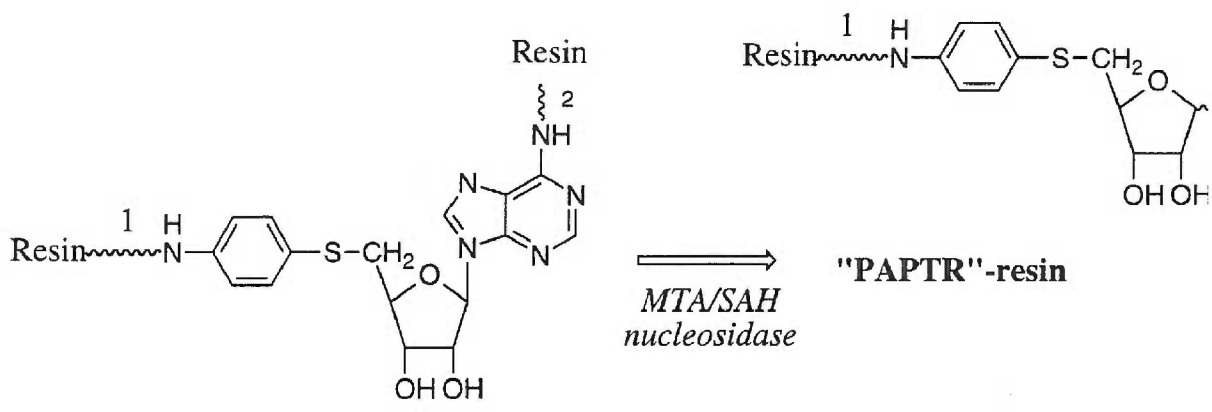
## FIGURE LEGENDS

**Scheme 1.** The methionine salvage pathway via MTA.

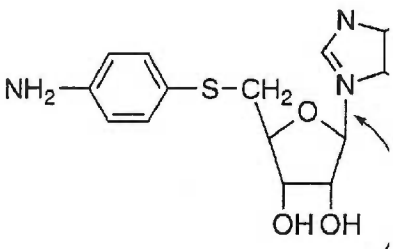




**Scheme 2.** Schematic depicting the two possible linkages of PAPTAs to Sepharose C 4B and the synthesis of PAPTR affinity matrix.

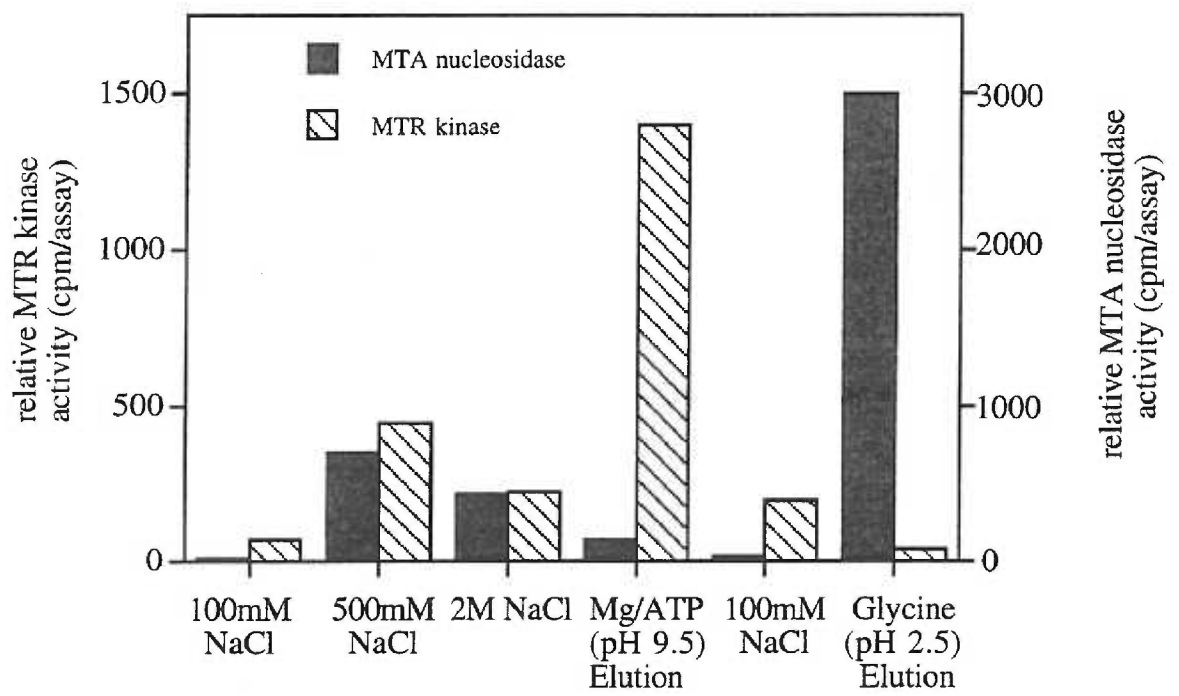


**PAPT-resin**



bond possibly cleaved by MTA nucleosidase

**Figure 2.1.** Elution of MTR kinase and MTA nucleosidase activity from PAPTA/PAPTR affinity matrix.



**Figure 2.2.** SDS-PAGE analysis of affinity purified MTR kinase and MTA/SAH nucleosidase.

**Panel A:** Lane A, S200HR pool containing MTR kinase activity applied to the affinity resin.

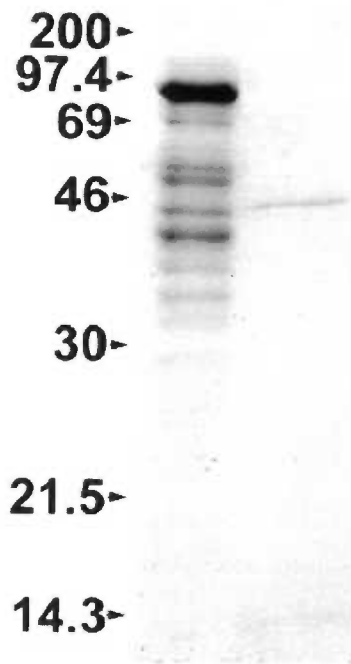
Lane B, "Mg/ATP, pH 9.5" elution containing purified MTR kinase.

**Panel B:** Lane C, S200HR pool containing MTA/SAH nucleosidase activity.

Lane D, "Glycine, pH 2.5" elution containing purified MTA/SAH nucleosidase.

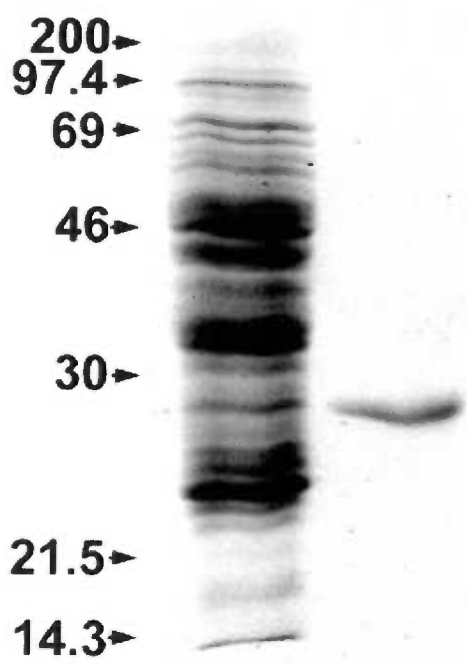
**Panel [A]**

**kD    A    B**

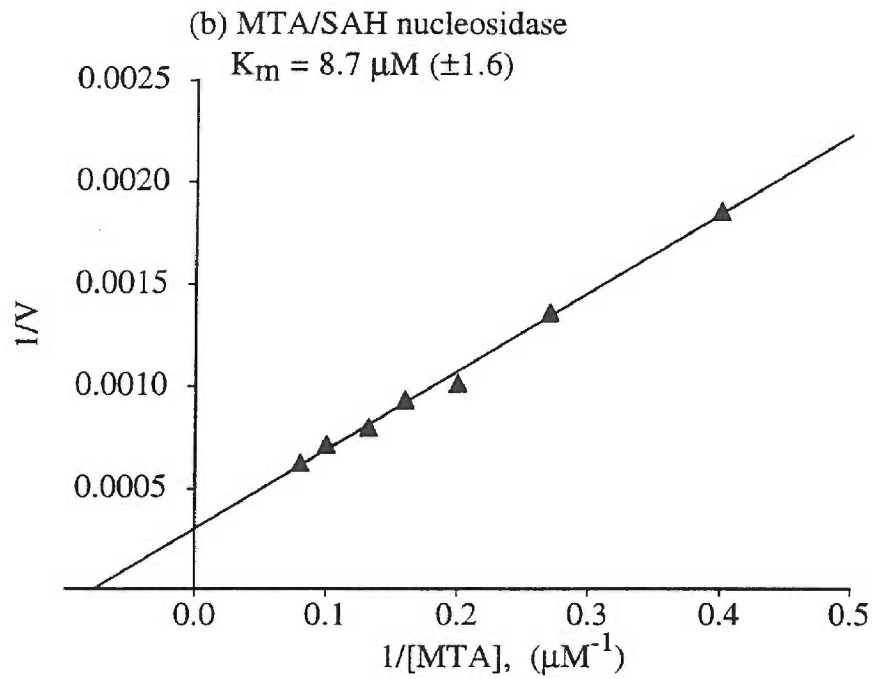
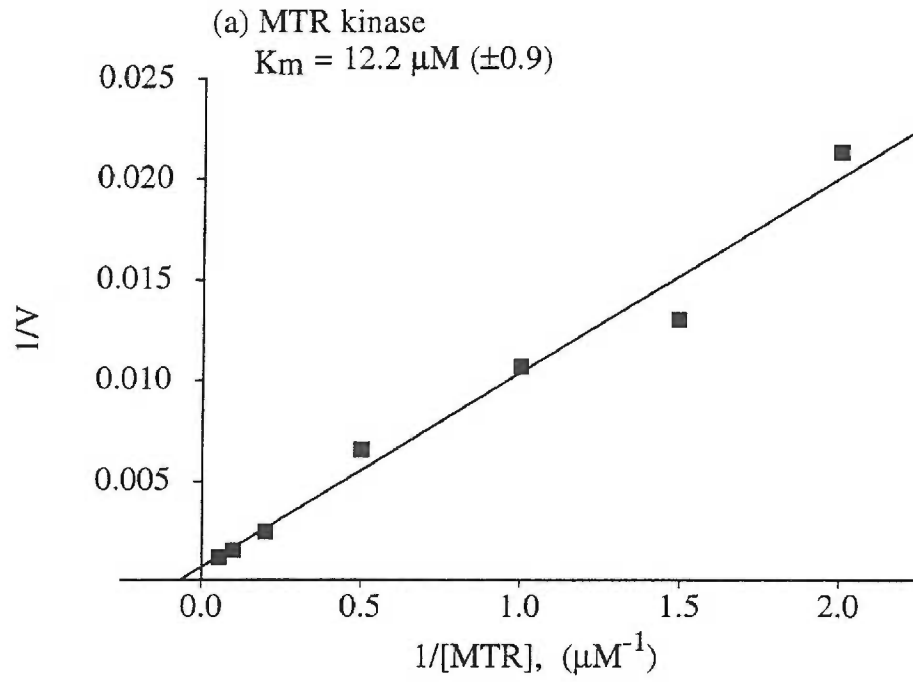


**Panel [B]**

**kD    C    D**



**Figure 2.3.** Lineweaver-Burke plots of (a) MTR kinase and (b) MTA/SAH nucleosid activity as a function of substrate concentration. Each point is the mean value of at least three experimental determinations. In MTR kinase kinetics, the concentration of ATP is fixed at 5mM.





**Figure 2.4.** Amino terminal amino acid sequences of affinity purified MTR kinase a MTA/SAH nucleosidase.

Protein	Residue #																																
	1	5	10	15	20	25	30																										
MTR kinase	* Q	Y	H	T	F	T	A	H	D	A	V	A	Y	A	Q	Q	F	A	G	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-						
MTA/SAH nucleosidase	M	K	I	G	I	I	G	A	M	E	E	E	V	T	L	L	R	D	K	I	E	N	R	Q	T	I	T	I	G	G	S	E	I

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CHAPTER 3

**Cloning and Expression of *Escherichia coli*  
Methylthioadenosine/S-Adenosylhomocysteine Nucleosidase:  
Identification of the *pfs* gene product**

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**Running Title:** Cloning of *E. coli* MTA/SAH Nucleosidase

**Abbreviations:** MTA, 5-methylthioadenosine; SAH, S-adenosylhomocysteine;

SAM, S-adenosylmethionine; MTR, 5-methylthioribose

**Key Words:** Methionine, recycling, salvage,

MTA/SAH nucleosidase, MTR kinase, MTA phosphorylase, *pfs* gene

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## SUMMARY

The enzyme 5'-methylthioadenosine/S-adenosylhomocysteine nucleosidase (EC 3.2.2.1) is responsible for cleavage of the glycosidic bond in both 5-methylthioadenosine (MTA) and S-adenosylhomocysteine (SAH). Based on amino acid sequence analysis of the enzyme from *Klebsiella*, we recently speculated that an open reading frame found in *E. coli* (designated *pfs*) encoded an MTA/SAH nucleosidase. To explore this possibility we amplified and cloned the complete *pfs* gene from *E. coli* genomic DNA. The gene was subsequently expressed as both a glutathione S-transferase fusion protein, and as full length protein under tryptophan regulation. The latter protein exhibited a molecular weight on SDS-PAGE of ~ 26KDa and a pI of ~5.0; consistent with values reported for the native *E. coli* enzyme. Kinetic studies on both recombinant forms of the enzyme revealed Michaelis constants for MTA of ~0.5 $\mu$ M, nearly identical to the reported  $K_m$ [MTA] for native enzyme. The enzymatic hydrolysis of MTA was strongly inhibited by the alternate substrate, SAH, but not significantly affected by the products of the enzymatic reaction, adenine and methylthioribose. From this biochemical evidence, we confirm our original assignment of the *pfs* gene as encoding MTA/SAH nucleosidase. The results of amino acid sequence comparisons of the protein databases are presented revealing a number of interesting homologies to other nucleoside cleaving enzymes.

## INTRODUCTION

The nucleosides, 5'-deoxy-5'-methylthioadenosine (MTA) and S-adenosylhomocysteine (SAH), exert significant antiproliferative effects in many cellular systems and are believed to function as growth regulatory molecules (1-4). MTA is derived from S-adenosylmethionine (SAM) by several metabolic routes, and serves as a common intermediate in the salvage of methionine and adenine (5,6). Quantitatively, most of the MTA in proliferating cells is derived from polyamine biosynthesis, where the nucleoside is produced stoichiometrically with spermidine and spermine. MTA acts as both a strong "feedback" inhibitor of bacterial and mammalian polyamine syntheses (7,8), as well as a "suicide-like" inhibitor of mammalian SAH hydrolase (9,10). SAH is a coproduct and a potent feedback inhibitor of SAM dependent methyltransferase reactions (11).

In enteric bacteria, MTA and SAH are cleaved by a single enzyme, MTA/SAH nucleosidase (MTA/SAH'ase), which hydrolyzes the glycosidic bond of the two nucleosides to yield adenine and the corresponding thiopentose (methylthioribose and S-ribosylhomocysteine) (Figure 3.1) (12). In contrast, MTA and SAH are catabolized in mammalian cells by two distinct enzymes: MTA phosphorylase and SAH hydrolase (13,14). Exploitation of potential differences in substrate specificity between the microbial and mammalian enzymes represents a promising opportunity for development of selective antimicrobial agents. Structural analogs of MTA and SAH have been synthesized which display effective antimicrobial activity both *in vitro* and *in vivo* (15-19).

Recently, we reported the purification to homogeneity of MTA/SAH'ase from cell lysates of a clinical isolate of *Klebsiella pneumoniae* (20). Amino terminal sequence data was obtained for the first thirty-five amino acids of the *Klebsiella* enzyme. A computer



assisted search of the protein sequence databases failed to reveal any significant homologies to known proteins. However, a high degree of homology ( $\approx 95\%$ ) was observed with the first thirty-five residues of the deduced translation product of the *E. coli pfs* gene (an open reading frame of unknown function). In order to prove the identity of *pfs* as encoding MTA/SAHase, and to investigate its potential as a chemotherapeutic target, the *E. coli pfs* gene was cloned using a PCR based strategy and subsequently overexpressed as a glutathione-S-transferase fusion protein and as the native enzyme under tryptophan regulation. Biochemical analysis of the recombinant gene product allowed a definitive assignment of *pfs* as the MTA/SAHase gene.

## EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

### Radiochemicals

S-Adenosyl-L-[methyl- $^{14}\text{C}$ ] methionine ( $100\mu\text{Ci/mL}$ ,  $55\text{mCi/mmol}$ ) was purchased from American Radiolabeled Chemicals (St. Louis, MO). 5'-[methyl- $^{14}\text{C}$ ] Methylthioadenosine ( $^{14}\text{C}$ -MTA) was synthesized from  $^{14}\text{C}$ -SAM as previously described (6). [ $^{35}\text{S}$ ] dATP was purchased from NEN-DuPont (Boston, MA).

### Molecular biology reagents

Restriction endonucleases and DNA modifying enzymes were obtained from Boehringer Mannheim Biochemicals (Indianapolis, IN) and from Life Technologies, Inc. (Gaithersburg, MD). AmpliTaq DNA polymerase and other polymerase chain reaction reagents were purchased from Perkin-Elmer Corp. (Norwalk, CT). The Sequenase DNA sequencing kit (version 6.0) was obtained from U.S. Biochemical Corp. (Cleveland, OH). The *Taq* DyeDeoxy cycle sequencing kit was obtained from Applied Biosystems Inc. (Foster City, CA). Oligonucleotide primers for PCR and DNA sequencing were synthesized by Oligo's Etc. (Wilsonville, OR) and the VAMC Molecular Biology Core Facility (Portland, OR). Ampicillin, tetracycline, IPTG, and X-gal were obtained from Sigma Chemical Corp. (St. Louis, MO).

### Bacterial strains and plasmids

The *E. coli* strain XL-1 Blue was obtained from Stratagene and maintained on Luria-Bertani (LB) agar supplemented with tetracycline ( $50\mu\text{g/mL}$ ). Competent cells of *E. coli* strains XL-1 Blue, Top10F', and GI724 were purchased from InVitrogen Corp. (La Jolla, CA) or prepared as described by Maniatis, et al. (21) and stored as frozen aliquots at  $-80^\circ\text{C}$  until needed. PCR products were "TA" cloned (22) into pCR<sup>TM</sup> II (InVitrogen) and

subcloned into either the pGEX5X-1 (Pharmacia) or pAL781 (InVitrogen) expression vectors.

### **Polymerase Chain Reaction, cloning and sequencing of the *pfs* gene**

The putative open reading frame (657bp) initially described by Wurgler and Richards (23) was amplified as a 967 bp EcoRI/NotI fragment using the primer set: 5'-CTC GA TTC TCT ATG AAA ATC GGC ATC ATT GGT GCA ATG G-3'(forward) and 5'-CT GCG GCC GCC AGG CAA TCA CCA GAT CGG G-3'(reverse). A crude cell lysate *E. coli* strain XLI-1 Blue was used as the source of chromosomal DNA. Briefly, a 1ml sample of overnight culture was harvested by centrifugation (10,000xg / 10 min) and resuspended in 100µl of sterile dH<sub>2</sub>O and boiled for 15 min. The resulting lysate was centrifuged (10,000xg / 10min) to remove debris and a 1µl sample used for the PCR reaction. Amplification of the DNA fragment was performed in an Applied Biosystem Thermocycler using an initial denaturation step (3min, 95°C) followed by 35 cycles of denaturation (30sec, 95°C), annealing (3min, 60°C), and extension (2min, 72°C). A 10µl aliquot of the PCR product was ligated into pCR<sup>TM</sup>II and used to transform competent *E. coli* TOP10F' cells according to the manufacturer's specifications. Recombinants were chosen based on growth and blue/white color selection (white colonies = positive recombinants) on LB agar supplemented with ampicillin (100µg/ml) and X-gal (25µg/ml). Small scale plasmid minipreps were prepared from positive-appearing colonies by the alkaline lysis/PEG precipitation method (24), double digested with EcoRI/NotI (20units ea. / 37°C / 2hrs), and subjected to agarose gel electrophoresis. A plasmid containing the complete 967bp EcoRI/NotI insert (designated pCRIImtan) was sequenced in both directions by the dideoxynucleotide chain termination method (25). Discrepancies between the observed nucleotide sequence and the reported open reading frame were confirmed by sequencing an additional six independent pCR<sup>TM</sup>II subclones across the disputed region using a Taq DyeDeoxy<sup>TM</sup> Terminator Cycle Sequencing kit. Cyc

sequencing reactions were analyzed on an Applied Biosystems automated Model 373 DNA Sequencer (Foster City, CA).

### **Subcloning and expression of MTA/SAH nucleosidase in the pGEX5 system**

The 967bp EcoRI/NotI fragment from clone pCRIImtan was resolved by agarose gel electrophoresis, spin-eluted from a gel slice, and directionally ligated in EcoRI/NotI/shrimp alkaline phosphatase treated pGEX5X-1. Competent *E. coli* XL Blue cells were transformed with the ligation mixture and positive recombinants selected by the growth of colonies on LB agar plates supplemented with ampicillin (100µg/ml) and tetracycline (12.5µg/ml). The orientation and maintenance of correct reading frame relative to the glutathione-S-transferase (GST) fusion partner was confirmed by DNA sequence analysis using pGEX5X specific primers (Pharmacia). A plasmid clone (designated p5Xmtan) was selected for further expression studies.

Expression and purification of the GST-nucleosidase fusion protein (GST-MTAN) was performed according to the manufacturer's protocol. Briefly, a 1ml sample of an overnight culture of *E. coli* XL1-Blue cells containing p5Xmtan was used to inoculate 200ml LB broth + ampicillin (100µg/ml). The culture was incubated in a 37°C shaking bath until the growth reached mid-log phase ( $OD_{595} \approx 0.6$ ) and then induced by addition of IPTG (1mM final conc.) for an additional 3hrs at 37°C. Induced cells were harvested by centrifugation (5,000xg / 15min), washed once with PBS (pH 7.2), and resuspended in 10ml ice cold PBS. Cell lysates were prepared by 4 passages of the sample through a French Pressure cell (SLM-Aminco) at 16,000psi, followed by centrifugation (25,000xg / 30min / 4°C) to remove cellular debris. The lysate was applied to a 1ml glutathione Sepharose column (Pharmacia), washed extensively with ice cold PBS (pH 7.2), and the bound GST-MTAN selectively eluted with 10ml glutathione buffer (25mM glutathione, 120mM NaCl, 100mM TrisHCl, pH7.5). The eluted material was concentrated with

buffer exchange into PBS (pH 7.2) using a Centriprep 10 device (Amicon). The protein concentration of the final product was determined using the Coomassie Plus<sup>®</sup> assay (Pierce, Rockford, IL) and analyzed by SDS-PAGE on 12.5% polyacrylamide gels to assess purity (26).

### **Subcloning and expression of native MTA/SAH nucleosidase in the pAL781 system**

Two oligonucleotide primers, 5'CTC CAT ATG AAA ATC GGC ATC ATT GGT GC ATG G-3' (forward) and 5'CTC GGA TCC TTA GCC ATG TGC AAG TTT CTG C/ CAG TGA C-3'(reverse) with engineered NdeI and BamHI restriction endonuclease sites were used to amplify the 699bp native coding region (including termination codon) of MTA/SAH'ase from *E. coli* XL1-Blue cells. Conditions for PCR amplification and "TA" cloning of the product were as described above. The NdeI/BamHI digest fragment was ligated into NdeI/BamHI/shrimp alkaline phosphatase treated pAL781 (InVitrogen), and transformed into *E. coli* strain GI724. Positive recombinants were selected based on growth in the presence of ampicillin (100µg/ml). A clone containing the plasmid pAL781 with the complete NdeI/BamHI insert (designated p781mtan) was chosen for further studies.

Expression of MTA/SAH'ase was accomplished by preparing an overnight culture of cells grown in RMG-Amp broth (1X M9 salts, 2% Casamino acids, 1% glycerol, 1mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 100µg/ml ampicillin) at 30°C. A 0.5ml aliquot of the overnight culture was used to inoculate 10ml of fresh induction medium (InVitrogen) and growth allowed to proceed at 30°C until the OD<sub>550</sub> ≈ 0.5 (about 3.5 hrs). Expression was induced by addition of tryptophan (100µg/ml final concentration) for 4hrs at 37°C. Cells were harvested by centrifugation (5,000xg / 15min) and lysed by treatment with the French Pressure cell described above. Induced MTA/SAH'ase (rMTAN) was initially purified by ion exchange chromatofocusing on PBE94 resin (Pharmacia) equilibrated in 0.025M histidineHCl

buffer (pH 6.25) and eluted with Polybuffer74 (pH 4.0). Elution fractions containing nucleosidase activity were pooled and further purified on a monoclonal antibody affinity resin specific for the enzyme (27). The affinity-purified material was concentrated with buffer exchange into PBS (pH 7.2) using a Centriprep 10 device, and stored at 4°C until needed.

### **Enzyme assays and kinetics**

MTA nucleosidase activity and inhibitor analysis was measured by following conversion of  $^{14}\text{C}$ -MTA to  $^{14}\text{C}$ -MTR, essentially as described by Ferro et al. (28) with minor modifications. The standard assay for following enzyme purification contained 20  $\mu\text{L}$  sample, 50mM potassium phosphate (pH 7), 37  $\mu\text{M}$   $^{14}\text{C}$ -MTA (5  $\mu\text{Ci}/\mu\text{mol}$ ), and 0.5 bovine serum albumin in a total reaction volume of 200  $\mu\text{L}$ . Reactions were incubated at 37°C for 15min and stopped by addition of 20  $\mu\text{L}$  3M TCA. Precipitated material was removed by centrifugation (10,000xg / 10min). A 200  $\mu\text{L}$  sample of supernatant was applied to a 2mL AG50-X8 cation exchange column (BioRad, 100-200 mesh, H<sup>+</sup> form) and  $^{14}\text{C}$ -MTR eluted with 3mL dH<sub>2</sub>O directly into a 20mL vial of scintillation cocktail. For kinetic analysis the substrate concentration ranged from 0.4-10  $\mu\text{M}$  MTA. Enzyme concentration was set at 10 picograms per assay and the reaction time adjusted to limit substrate hydrolysis to <10%. Results were plotted as double reciprocal plots and analyzed for kinetic parameters as described by Lineweaver and Burke (29) using the Leonora enzyme kinetic analysis program (30). For inhibition analysis, the concentration of MTA was set at 1  $\mu\text{M}$  and the concentration of inhibitor yielding a 50% reduction in enzymatic activity determined from the average of at least 3 separate experiments.

## RESULTS

The gene encoding a putative MTA/SAH nucleosidase was amplified from *E. coli* genomic DNA using primers based on the reported open reading frame found upstream from the deoxyguanosine triphosphate triphosphohydrolase (*dgt*) gene. Subsequent DNA sequencing of the cloned 967 bp PCR product (containing the complete open reading frame) revealed several alterations (Figure 3.2) in the nucleic acid sequence originally reported by Wurgler and Richardson (23). The first apparent alteration, a C→G transversion at position 45 does not change the encoded amino acid (leu). The appearance of an inserted guanosine residue at position 634 and 667 alters the reading frame near the 3' terminus of the gene, thereby eliminating the reported stop codon (TGA) at position 658-660 and regenerating a termination signal (TAA) at position 697-699. These findings were confirmed by automated DNA sequencing of an additional six independent PCR clones, and are in agreement with sequence data recently published by Fujita et al. (31). The revised open reading frame is 696 nucleotides long and encodes an additional 231 amino acids. A calculated molecular weight of 24.35 kDa for the translation product of this gene is in close agreement with the ~26-31kDa molecular weight reported for native *E. coli* MTA/SAH nucleosidase (28,32).

The putative nucleosidase gene was first expressed as a glutathione S-transferase fusion protein (GST-MTAN) in the pGEX5X-1 system (Pharmacia) to allow facile separation of the recombinant protein from the native enzyme. SDS-PAGE analysis of glutathione-Sepharose affinity purified fusion protein (Figure 3.3, panel A) revealed a molecular weight for GST-MTAN of ~50kDa; consistent with the sum of the calculated molecular weight for the open reading frame (24.35kDa) fused to glutathione S-transferase (~26kDa). Sufficient fusion protein was purified to develop a panel of

monoclonal antibodies specific for the nucleosidase which were employed in subsequent enzyme purifications.

Using the pAL781 system (InVitrogen), rMTAN was expressed after induction with tryptophan. Initial purification from bacterial lysates of over-expressed rMTAN was performed by chromatofocusing of the enzyme across a descending pH gradient of 6.1 to 4.0. MTA/SAHase activity eluted between pH 5.3 and 4.7, with peak activity occurring at ~pH 5.0, as predicted by the calculated pI of 4.93 based on the primary amino acid sequence. Material from the chromatofocusing column was further purified on a monoclonal antibody resin specific for *E. coli* MTA/SAHase. Glycine eluates (pH 2.5) of the monoclonal column contained homogeneous enzyme with an apparent molecular weight of ~26kDa, as judged by SDS-PAGE analysis and Coomassie blue staining (Figure 3.3, panel B). Antibody column purifications yielded from 0.5-1mg nucleosidase per cycle, with a total yield of approximately 20mg rMTAN per liter of induced culture.

Kinetic analysis of both GST-MTAN and rMTAN revealed Michaelis constants for MTA of 0.53 $\mu$ M and 0.45 $\mu$ M, respectively (Figure 3.4). The specific activity of GST-MTAN was ~50 $\mu$ moles MTA converted/min/mg enzyme, approximately half the activity found for rMTAN (116 $\mu$ moles/min/mg); which is expected since the nucleosidase portion accounts for approximately half the total mass of the fusion protein. The substrate SAH was an inhibitor of (<sup>14</sup>C) MTA hydrolysis ([MTA] = 1 $\mu$ M) exhibiting an IC<sub>50</sub> for the enzyme of 2.4 $\mu$ M (Table 3.1). The products of enzymatic hydrolysis of MTA, adenine (IC<sub>50</sub> = 300 $\mu$ M) and methylthioribose (IC<sub>50</sub> > 1mM), displayed only weak inhibitory activity, consistent with earlier reports for the native *E. coli* nucleosidase (28, 32



## DISCUSSION

The open reading frame *pfs* was first identified in *E. coli* upstream of the *dgt* gene (2). We tentatively identified this gene as encoding MTA/SAH nucleosidase based on a high sequence homology between the 35 amino terminal residues of the *Klebsiella* enzyme and the putative translation product of *pfs* (20). DNA sequence analysis of the PCR amplified *E. coli pfs* gene revealed several differences from the earlier reported open reading frame, the most significant of which is the presence of 2 additional guanosine residues at the 3' end of the gene which result in the extension of the open reading frame by 39 bases. A recent report by Fujita et. al (31) on the sequencing of *E. coli* genome in the region of 2.4-4.1 min (110,917-193,643 bp) confirms this sequence for the *pfs* gene.

Over-expression of the *pfs* gene product as a *gst* fusion protein and separation of the resulting recombinant enzyme from native nucleosidase (based on affinity of the recombinant for glutathione) allowed the gene to be unambiguously identified as encoding MTA/SAH nucleosidase (E.C 3.2.2.9). A second tryptophan-inducible expression system was used to produce large quantities of a native form of the enzyme (rMTAN) for use in x-ray crystallographic studies and rational drug design, including the development of MTA/SAH analogs with selective antimicrobial properties.

In each case, the recombinant enzymes exhibited specific activities and Michaelis constants for MTA that are virtually identical to those reported in the literature for the native *E. coli* enzyme. Inhibition of MTA hydrolysis by SAH demonstrates that the enzyme has some flexibility in structural specificity for the 5' alkylthio side chain, and supports previous work which showed SAH was cleaved at approximately 35-40% of the rate of MTA (28,32). In contrast to mammalian MTA phosphorylase (33), the product

of enzymatic cleavage of MTA are poor inhibitors of MTA/SAH'ase activity and probably do not play a significant role in the direct regulation of enzymatic activity.

Based on sequence similarities existing between various nucleoside phosphorylase nucleosidases, and phosphoribosyltransferases, Mushigian and Koonin recently predict that the *pfs* protein may belong to a general family of enzymes which catalyze the phosphorylytic or hydrolytic cleavage of N-glycosidic bonds of nucleosides and nucleotides (34). A search of the SWISSPROT database using the BLASTP program (35) identified an additional *pfs* protein homologue reported for *Haemophilus influenzae* (36,37) which contains a 57% sequence identity (73% identity with conservative substitutions), and presumably is the MTA/SAH nucleosidase from this organism (Figure 3.5). The regions of highest identity should be useful in designing PCR primers to investigate the nucleosidase gene in other organisms.

Two smaller regions of sequence homology (amino acid regions 23-90 and 161-197) are found between MTA/SAH'ase and the purine nucleoside phosphorylase (*deoD* gene product; inosine preferring PNP'ase) of *E. coli* and *H. influenzae*. Within these regions, the homology between the bacterial PNP'ases and MTA/SAH'ase is approximately 50% with conservative substitutions. By comparison, MTA/SAH'ase sequence shows only one short region (a.a. 69-91) of high homology (73% with conservative substitutions) to the human and murine PNP'ases (a.a. 109-130). Of particular note, crystallographic studies of the human PNP'ase have shown this region to be part of the active center of the enzyme, with the backbone amide group of alanine 111 forming a hydrogen bond to the 3' hydroxyl group of the ribose moiety (38). Presumably, sequence homologies indicate that this region functions similarly in the recognition of the ribose moiety by MTA/SAH'ase.

Similar to the *deoD* gene products, the bark storage precursor proteins of poplar (Bsp A,B) (39,40) also display two regions of  $\geq 50\%$  homology with MTA/SAH'ase (a.

regions 25-80 and 189-212). While specific functions are not known for the Bsp's, the sequence similarities to MTA/SAH'ase and other purine nucleosidases suggests a role in nucleoside metabolism. Lastly, MTA/SAH'ase shares only one short region of homology to the *E. coli* AMP nucleosidase (a.a. 161-197; 62% identity with conservative substitutions). However, the precise contribution of residues in this region towards substrate recognition remain to be elucidated.

Interestingly, the BLASTP search failed to identify any large regions of identity existing between the MTA/SAH nucleosidase and either the human MTA phosphorylase (MTAP'ase) (41) or adenosylhomocysteine hydrolase (42) sequences, although they share common substrates. A search alignment using the MacVector Pustell protein matrix program did reveal two small regions (a.a. 1-8 and 84-94) of >80% homology (with conservative substitutions) between the *E. coli* MTA/SAH'ase and human MTAP'ase (Figure 3.5). In particular, the appearance of the (M/V)KIGIIG(A/G) sequence at or near the amino terminal end of each of the proteins is intriguing. It is tempting to speculate that this sequence may confer specificity for the 5' alkylthio group of the nucleoside. The second homologous region exists near to residues we suspect to be involved in recognition and binding of the ribose portion of the substrate (based on homology to human PNP), and may represent extensions of these structures. Other possible interactions existing between the nucleosidase and its substrate await the results of mutational analyses and x-ray crystallographic studies currently underway in the laboratory.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

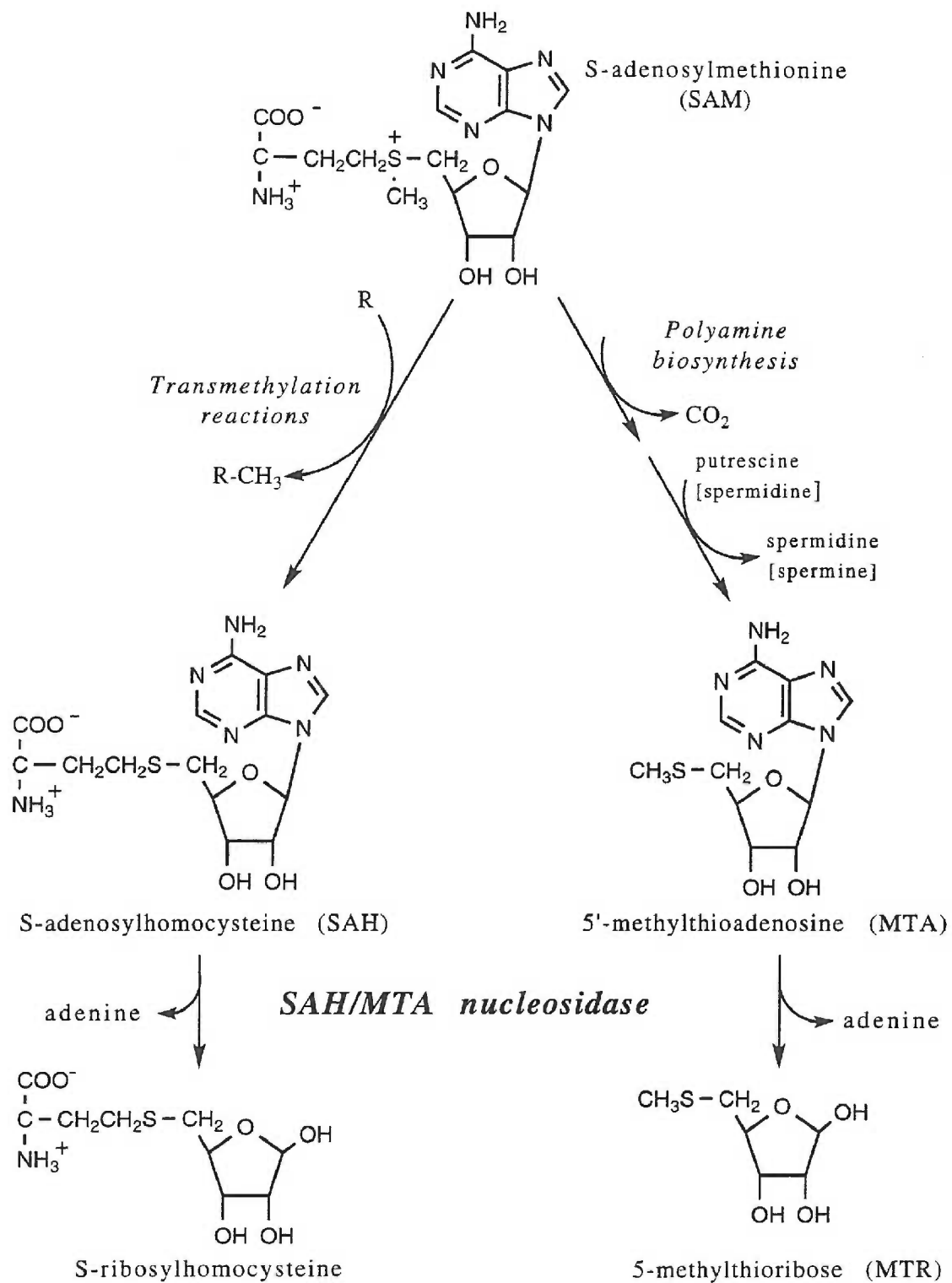
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**Table 3.1.** Inhibition of recombinant *E. coli* MTA/SAH nucleosidase (rMTAN) activity. The IC<sub>50</sub> values were determined in the presence of 1μM MTA.

<b>Compound</b>	<b>IC<sub>50</sub> (μM)</b>
S-adenosylhomocysteine (SAH)	2.4
Adenine	300
Methylthioribose (MTR)	>1000

## FIGURE LEGENDS

**Figure 3.1.** The metabolism of MTA and SAH.



**Figure 3.2.** The nucleotide sequence of *E. coli* MTA/SAH nucleosidase shown with the annotated deduced amino acids. Stretches of underlined nucleotides correspond to portions of PCR primers used to amplify the gene sequence. Individual nucleotides that differed from the initial reported sequence of *pfs* are printed in bold underlined type.



ATG AAA ATC GGC ATC ATT GGT GCA ATG GAA GAA GAA GTT ACG CTG  
1 M K I G I I G A M E E E V T L  
CTG CGT GAC AAA ATC GAA AAC CGT CAA ACT ATC AGT CTC GGC GGT  
16 L R D K I E N R Q T I S L G G  
TGC GAA ATC TAT ACC GGC CAA CTG AAT GGA ACC GAG GTT GCG CTT  
31 C E I Y T G Q L N G T E V A L  
CTG AAA TCG GGC ATC GGT AAA GTC GCT GCG GCG CTG GGT GCC ACT  
46 L K S G I G K V A A A L G A T  
TTG CTG TTG GAA CAC TGC AAG CCA GAT GTG ATT ATT AAC ACC GGT  
61 L L L E H C K P D V I I N T G  
TCT GCC GGT GGC CTG GCA CCA ACG TTG AAA GTG GGC GAT ATC GTT  
76 S A G G L A P T L K V G D I V  
GTC TCG GAC GAA GCA CGT TAT CAC GAC GCG GAT GTC ACG GCA TTT  
91 V S D E A R Y H D A D V T A F  
GGT TAT GAA TAC GGT CAG TTA CCA GGC TGT CCG GCA GGC TTT AAA  
106 G Y E Y G Q L P G C P A G F K  
GCT GAC GAT AAA CTG ATC GCT GCC GCT GAG GCC TGC ATT GCC GAA  
121 A D D K L I A A A E A C I A E  
CTG AAT CTT AAC GCT GTA CGT GGC CTG ATT GTT AGC GGC GAC GCT  
136 L N L N A V R G L I V S G D A  
TTC ATC AAC GGT TCT GTT GGT CTG GCG AAA ATC CGC CAC AAC TTC  
151 F I N G S V G L A K I R H N F  
CCA CAG GCC ATT GCT GTA GAG ATG GAA GCG ACG GCA ATC GCC CAT  
166 P Q A I A V E M E A T A I A H  
GTC TGC CAC AAT TTC AAC GTC CCG TTT GTT GTC GTA CGC GCC ATC  
181 V C H N F N V P F V V V R A I  
TCC GAC GTG GCC GAT CAA CAG TCT CAT CTT AGC TTC GAT GAG TTC  
196 S D V A D Q Q S H L S F D E F  
CTG GCT GTT GCC GCT AAA CAG TCC AGC CTG ATG GTT GAG TCA CTG  
211 L A V A A K Q S S L M V E S L  
GTG CAG AAA CTT GCA CAT GGC TAA GTC ACT GTT CAG GGC GCT GGT CGCCCC  
226 V Q K L A H G \*

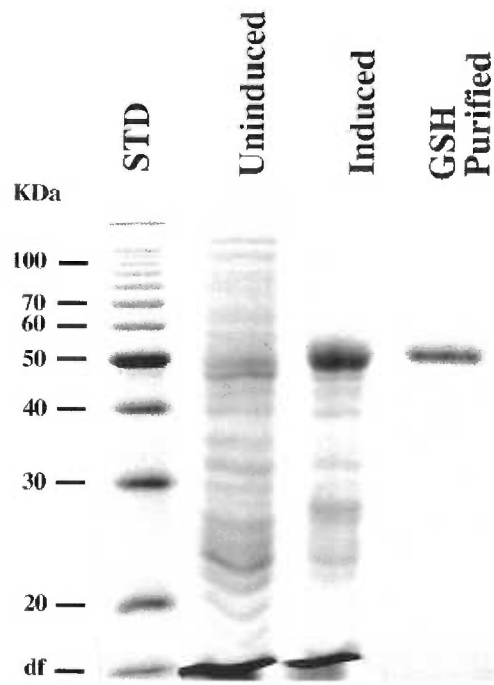
ATGTCTTTTCTTGCGCCACTGTGGCTCAACGCCGCGCCGCGCGTACAGCTTTCTCCCGC  
CAACACTGAACTTGCCTTTGCCGCGGGATCACGCCGGTTGGGGTCAAGCAGCTATTCCG  
ACTATCCTCCACAAGCGCAAAAGATTGAGCAGGTTTCCACCTGGCAGGGGATGAATCTG  
GAACGCATTGTGCGCTGAAACCCGATCTGGTGATTGCCTGGC

**Figure 3.3.** Expression and purification of recombinant *E. coli* MTA/SA nucleosidase.

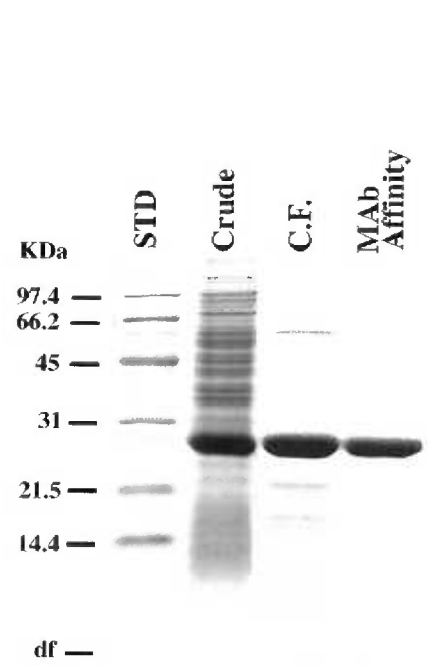
**Panel A.** Coomassie stained SDS-PAGE of GST-MTAN purification fractions. **STD** = 10kDa molecular weight ladder (BRL); **Uninduced** = 5 $\mu$ g crude lysate proteins from p5Xmtan containing XL1-Blue cells grown in the absence of IPTG; **Induced** = 5 $\mu$ g crude lysate proteins from p5Xmtan containing XL1-Blue cells following three hour induction with IPTG (1mM); **GSH purified** = approx. 5 $\mu$ g homogeneous GST-MTA purified by glutathione-resin affinity chromatography.

**Panel B.** Coomassie stained SDS-PAGE of rMTAN purification fractions. **STD** = 10kDa molecular weight protein standard (BioRad); **Crude** = 5 $\mu$ g crude lysate proteins from p781mtan containing GI724 cells following four hours induction with tryptophan (100 $\mu$ g/mL); **C.F.** = 5 $\mu$ g chromatofocusing peak proteins; **MAb Affinity** = 5 $\mu$ g rMTAN purified on monoclonal antibody affinity resin. **df** = dye front.

### Panel A

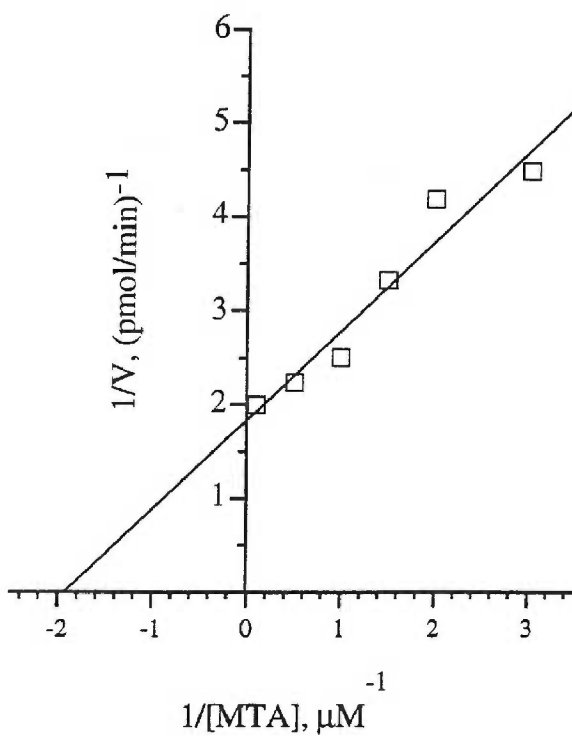


### Panel B

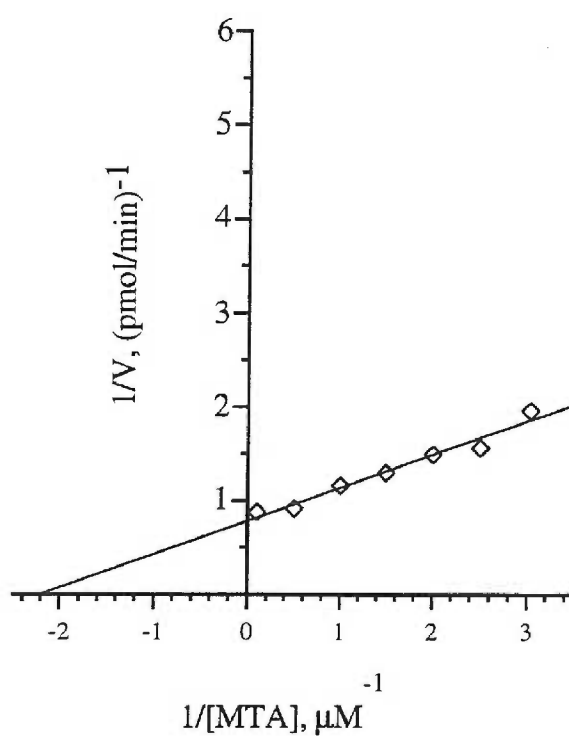


**Figure 3.4.** Double reciprocal plots of (A) GST-MTAN and (B) rMTAN activity as function of MTA concentration. Each point represents the mean value of the experiments.

A. GST-MTAN  
 $K_m = 0.53\mu\text{M} (\pm 0.12)$



B. rMTAN  
 $K_m = 0.45\mu\text{M} (\pm 0.07)$



**Figure 3.5(A)** Sequence alignments of the *E. coli* MTA/SAH'ase with the highest scoring protein sequences found in a BLASTP search of the SWISSPROT database (release 32.0 Dec. 1995). Identical and conserved amino acids are shown; dots represent non conserved amino acids. Numbers found immediately to the left and right of the amino acid sequence correspond to the first and last residues of the respective protein listed in the row. PFS\_ECOLI, hypothetical protein, proposed here to be MTA/SAH'ase nucleosidase (Swiss-Prot Accession no. P24247); PFS\_HAEIN, hypothetical MTA/SAH'ase nucleosidase homolog from *Haemophilus influenzae* (Swiss-Prot Accession no. P45113); MTAP\_HUMAN, MTA phosphorylase (GenBank Accession no. U22233); DEOD\_ECOLI, purine nucleoside phosphorylase (inosine phosphorylase, Swiss-Prot Accession no. P09743); DEOD\_HAEIN, bark storage protein B precursor from poplar (Swiss-Prot Accession no. Q09117); BSPA\_POPDE, bark storage protein A precursor from poplars (Swiss-Prot Accession no. Q07469); PNP\_HUMAN, purine nucleoside phosphorylase (Swiss-Prot Accession no. P00491); PNP\_MOUSE, purine nucleoside phosphorylase (Swiss-Prot Accession no. P23492); AMN\_ECOLI, AMP nucleosidase (Swiss-Prot Accession no. P15272).

\*The sequence comparison of MTA/SAH'ase and MTA phosphorylase (MTAP\_HUMAN) was performed using the MacVector Pustell protein matrix program.

A.

PFS_ECOLI	1	MKIGIIGAME	EEVTLLRDKI	ENRQTISLGG	CEIYTGQLNG	
PFS_HAEIN	1	MKIGIVGAM.	QEV.ILKN.M	.DR...V..	..IF.GKING	
MTAP_HUMAN*	10	VKIGIIGG				
DEOD_ECOLI	38			RE..NV.G	...FTG...G	
DEOD_HAEIN	48				FTG...G	
BSPB_POPDE	56			SV.I.G	...HSG.LNG	
BSPA_POPDE	56			SV.I.G	...HSG.LNG	
PFS_ECOLI	41	TEVALLKSGI	GKVAAALGAT	LLLEHCKPDV	IINTGSAGGL	
PFS_HAEIN	41	.DVALLOSGI	GKVAAAIG.T	.LLQ..KPD.	VINTGSAGGV	
DEOD_ECOLI	56	.KISVM..GM	G..S.SI...	.LI.....	II..GS.G.V	
DEOD_HAEIN	55	.KISIM..GM	G..S.SI.A.	.LI.....	II..GS.G.V	
BSPB_POPDE	72	S.I..VKTG.	..V..A....	ILL.....	VI..GNAG.L	1
BSPA_POPDE	72	S.I..VKTG.	..V..A....	ILL.....	VI..GNAG.L	1
PNPH_HUMAN	109			D.	LV.T.AAGGL	1
PNPH_MOUSE	109			E.	LV.T.AAGGL	1
PFS_ECOLI	81	APTLKVGDIV	VSDEARYHDA	DVTAFGYEYG	QLPGCPAGFK	1
PFS_HAEIN	81	A..LKVGDIV	ISDE.RYHDA	DVTAFGYE.G	QLP..PA.F.	1
MTAP_HUMAN	102	IQ.GDIV	I.DQ			1
DEOD_ECOLI	96	.P.VKL.DVV	I			1
DEOD_HAEIN	95	...VKV.DVI	I			1
PNPH_HUMAN	121	.P..EVGDIM	L			1
PNPH_MOUSE	121	.P..EVGDIM	L			1
PFS_ECOLI	121	ADDKLIAAAE	ACIAELNLNA	VRGLIVSGDA	FINGSVGLAK	1
PFS_HAEIN	121	SD.KL...AQ	....K...S.	.RGLI.SGDS	FIN....IAQ	1
PFS_ECOLI	161	IRHNFPQAIA	VEMEATAIAH	VCHNFNVPFV	VVRAISDVAD	2
PFS_HAEIN	161	IK.DFP....	VEMEATAIA.	VCY.FNVPFV	VVRAISD..D	2
DEOD_ECOLI	177		L. VEMEA..I..	V...F....L	.I..VSD	2
DEOD_HAEIN	176		L. VEMEA..I..	V...Y....L	.I..VSD	2
BSPB_POPDE	266			FV V.Q.VSNVA.		2
BSPA_POPDE	266			FV V.Q.VSNVA.		2
AMN_ECOLI	391	LR.N..RAVA	IDMES..IA.	..Y.F.VPY.	.L..VSD	4
PFS_ECOLI	201	QQSHLSFDEF	LAVAAKQSSL	MVESLVQKLA	HG	2
PFS_HAEIN	201	.KA.MSFEFF	L.LAAKQSS.	LV..MI.RL		2
BSPB_POPDE	277	E.S..S...Y	LA			2
BSPA_POPDE	277	E.S..S...Y	LA			2

**Figure 3.5(B)** Comparison of % homologies between aligned proteins from Figure 3.5(A), with and without conservative substitutions.



B.

<u>Protein:</u>	<u>Amino Acids</u>	<u>(MTA/SAH'ase A.A.)</u>	<u>% Identity</u>	<u>% Positive w/conservative substitutions</u>
PFS_HAEIN	1-229	(1-229)	57%	73%
MTAP_HUMAN	10-17	(1-8)	62%	88%
	102-112	(84-94)	45%	82%
DEOD_ECOLI	38-106	(33-91)	24%	52%
	177-205	(169-197)	34%	48%
DEOD_HAEIN	48-105	(44-91)	25%	53%
	176-204	(169-197)	31%	48%
PNPH_HUMAN	109-131	(69-91)	47%	73%
PNPH_MOUSE	109-131	(69-91)	43%	73%
BSPB_POPDE	56-111	(35-80)	28%	50%
	266-289	(189-212)	41%	62%
BSPA_POPDE	56-111	(35-80)	28%	50%
	266-289	(189-212)	41%	62%
AMN_ECOLI	391-427	(161-197)	35%	62%

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175

CHAPTER 4

**Characterization of Recombinant *Escherichia coli*  
5'-Methylthioadenosine / S-Adenosylhomocysteine Nucleosidase:  
Analysis of Enzymatic Activity and Substrate Specificity**

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**Abbreviations:** MTA, 5'-methylthioadenosine; SAH, S-adenosylhomocysteine; SAM, S-adenosylmethionine; rMTAN, recombinant MTA/SAH nucleosidase; rMTAN-8, truncated recombinant MTA/SAH nucleosidase; MTAPase, MTA phosphorylase; MTF, methylthioribose; PCR, polymerase chain reaction; cAMP, adenosine 3',5'-monophosphate; Mab, monoclonal antibody; amp<sup>r</sup>, ampicillin resistant; ECL, enzyme chemiluminescence.

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## SUMMARY

Recombinant *E. coli* 5'-methylthioadenosine/S-adenosylhomocysteine nucleosidase (EC 3.2.2.9) was used to study the potential for this enzyme to serve as a target for chemotherapeutic intervention. An examination of the parameters required for enzymatic activity indicate that the nucleosidase functions over a broad range of pH and temperature with acidic conditions and temperatures of 37-45°C being optimal. Analogs of 5'-methylthioadenosine and adenosine were assessed as potential enzyme inhibitors and provide details regarding substrate specificity and reaction mechanism. The 5'-arylthioadenosine analog, 5'-(*p*-nitrophenyl)thioadenosine, was the most potent enzyme inhibitor studied with a  $K_i$  of 20nM. A mutant of the nucleosidase lacking the first 8 amino acids was engineered to determine the contribution of these conserved residues toward enzyme specificity. The truncated enzyme exhibited a  $K_m$ [MTA] of 1.43 $\mu$ M, approximately 3 fold higher than the  $K_m$  reported for the full-length nucleosidase.

## INTRODUCTION

The worldwide emergence of drug resistant microbial pathogens necessitates the continued development of novel chemotherapeutic agents (1,2). The identification of metabolic differences existing between the pathogen and the host cell would allow for the development of drugs which specifically inhibit microbial growth while leaving the human host unaffected. One such metabolic difference occurs in the mechanism by which cells catabolize methylthioadenosine (MTA) and S-adenosylhomocysteine (SAH), byproducts of S-adenosylmethionine (SAM) dependent polyamine biosynthesis (3) and methylation reactions (4). MTA and SAH both inhibit critical cellular processes including protein and DNA methylation (5), polyamine biosynthesis (6,7), cAMP metabolism (8) and cytokine secretion (9). Targeted inhibition of the breakdown of these regulatory nucleosides in microbial pathogens would therefore exert selective deleterious effects.

In mammalian cells, MTA is catabolized in a reversible reaction to methylthioribosyl 1-phosphate (MTR-1-P) and adenine by a specific MTA phosphorylase (MTAPase) (10). Adenine enters the purine salvage pathway (11,12), while MTR-1-P is recycled in a series of steps to methionine and SAM (13,14). SAH is not a substrate for MTAPase, but is degraded to adenosine and homocysteine by SAH hydrolase (15).

In contrast, many microbial pathogens utilize a single nucleosidase to hydrolyze both MTA and SAH to adenine and the corresponding thio-sugar, methylthioribose (MTR) and ribosylhomocysteine, respectively (16,17). The nucleosidase has been purified from several bacterial and plant species (18-22). Unlike MTAPase, the nucleosidase reaction is essentially irreversible, with the *E. coli* enzyme displaying Michaelis constants for MTA ( $K_m=0.43\mu\text{M}$ ) and SAH ( $K_m=4.3$ ) that are an order of magnitude lower than the kinetic values for the corresponding mammalian enzyme.



(23,24). Such differences in substrate affinity and specificity suggest that the nucleosidase may be amenable to chemotherapeutic intervention.

The gene encoding the *E. coli* enzyme has recently been cloned and expressed in our laboratory (25). In the present study, the potential of purified recombinant MTA/SA nucleosidase (rMTAN) to serve as a target for drug development is explored. A number of physical parameters (pH, buffer, reaction temperature) were studied to determine ideal reaction conditions. In addition, a series of MTA and adenosine analogs were assessed as inhibitors of the enzymatic reaction. The results provided clues to the enzyme reaction mechanism and requirements for substrate/inhibitor recognition. Lastly, based on amino terminal sequence similarities between the bacterial nucleosidase and human MTP phosphorylase, a mutant of the *E. coli* nucleosidase gene was constructed which lacks the codons for the first 8 amino acids of the enzyme. The truncated nucleosidase (rMTAN-8) was expressed, and the contribution of these residues toward substrate affinity examined.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

### Radiochemicals

S-Adenosyl-L-[methyl-<sup>3</sup>H] methionine (<sup>3</sup>H-SAM, 0.5 mCi/ml, 56.1 Ci/mmol) was purchased from American Radiolabeled Chemicals (St. Louis, MO). 5'[methyl-<sup>3</sup>H] Methylthioadenosine (<sup>3</sup>H-MTA) was synthesized from <sup>3</sup>H-SAM as described by Schle (26).

### Chemical and molecular biology reagents

Alkyl-substituted analogs of MTA, 5-trifluoromethylthioribose, and 5-(*p*-iodophenyl)thioribose were synthesized as previously described (5,36,39,41). Aryl-substituted analogs of MTA, 5'-methylthiotubercidin, 5'-methylthioinosine, 5'-(*o*-purine)thioadenosine, and 5'-methylselenoadenosine from Dr. R. Winter, Interlab Inc. (Lake Oswego, OR). Carbocyclic MTA was obtained from the laboratory of Dr. J. Borchardt (Dept. Pharmaceutical Chemistry, University of Kansas). All other compounds tested were purchased from Sigma (St. Louis, MO). Restriction endonucleases and DNA modifying enzymes were obtained from Boehringer Mannheim Biochemicals (Indianapolis, IN). AmpliTaq DNA polymerase and other PCR reagents were purchased from Perkin-Elmer Corp. (Norwalk, CT). Oligonucleotide primers were synthesized by the Portland VAMLC Molecular Biology Core Facility.

### Bacterial strains

*Escherichia coli* strain XL1-Blue was obtained from Stratagene (La Jolla, CA) and maintained on Luria-Bertani (LB) agar supplemented with tetracycline (50 µg/ml). Competent cells of *E. coli* strains Top10F' and GI728 were purchased from InVitrogen Corp. (La Jolla, CA) and stored at -80°C until needed.

### **Enzyme reaction conditions**

Over-expressed recombinant wild type MTA/SAH nucleosidase (rMTAN) was purified previously described (25). The standard nucleosidase assay which follows conversion  $^3\text{H-MTA}$  to  $^3\text{H-MTR}$  contained 50mM potassium phosphate (pH 7),  $1\mu\text{M } ^3\text{H-MTA}$  ( $500\mu\text{Ci}/\mu\text{mol}$ ), and 0.5% bovine serum albumin in a total reaction volume of 180 $\mu\text{L}$ . Reactions were initiated by the addition of the 20 $\mu\text{L}$  rMTAN (10 picograms) and incubated at 37°C for 15 min. Reactions were terminated by the addition of 20 $\mu\text{L}$  3M TCA and precipitated protein removed by centrifugation (10000xg/ 10min). A 200 $\mu\text{L}$  sample supernatant was applied to a 2mL AG50-X8 cation exchange column (BioRad, 100-200 mesh, hydrogen form) and  $^3\text{H-MTR}$  eluted with 3mL dH<sub>2</sub>O directly into a 20mL vial EcoLume scintillation cocktail. To measure the effect of pH on enzyme activity, reaction mixtures contained 50mM potassium phosphate buffer adjusted to a pH value ranging from 4.5 to 9.5. Reactions were otherwise run as described above. The effect of different buffers (at 50mM, pH7.0) was measured in similar fashion. The effect of temperature on enzyme activity was assayed in reaction mixtures containing 50mM potassium phosphate (pH 7.0) equilibrated to the desired temperature prior to addition of enzyme.

### **Inhibitor analysis**

The effect of nucleoside analogs on enzyme activity was measured using the standard nucleosidase assay ( $[\text{MTA}] = 1\mu\text{M}$ ) supplemented with various concentrations of inhibitor. IC<sub>50</sub> values were determined from nonlinear regression analysis of inhibitor concentration versus % inhibition of enzyme activity. Inhibition constants ( $K_i$ 's) were derived from measurements of the effect of two fixed amounts of inhibitor across a range of  $^3\text{H-MTA}$  concentrations (0.4 $\mu\text{M}$ -10 $\mu\text{M}$ ). Reaction time was adjusted to limit substrate conversion to less than 10%. Michaelis constants ( $K_{m \text{ app}}$ ) were calculated from double

reciprocal plots (27) using the Leonora enzyme kinetics program (28).  $K_i$  values were obtained from Dixon plots ([inhibitor] vs.  $v^{-1}$ ).

### **Development of mutant MTA/SAH nucleosidase (rMTAN-8)**

The truncated nucleosidase gene (lacking codons for the first 8 amino acids) was constructed by PCR using oligonucleotide primers with engineered NdeI and BamHI restriction endonuclease sites: 5'-TCT CAT ATG GAA GAA GAA GTT ACG (forward) and 5'-TCT GGA TCC TTA GCC ATG TGC AAG TTT CTG-3' (reverse). A 675bp PCR product was obtained from *E. coli* XL1-Blue chromosomal DNA using the protocol developed for amplification of the full-length gene (25). The PCR product was ligated into pCR<sup>TM</sup>II (InVitrogen) and transformed into competent *E. coli* TOP10F' cells according to the manufacturer's specifications. Small scale plasmid minipreps were prepared from positive-appearing colonies (white, amp<sup>r</sup>) by the alkaline lysis method (29), double digested with NdeI/BamHI (10units ea./37°C/12hrs), and subjected to agarose gel electrophoresis. A gel isolated NdeI/BamHI fragment was ligated into the tryptophan inducible expression vector pAL781 (InVitrogen), and transformed into *E. coli* strain GI728 according to the manufacturer's protocol. Tryptophan induction and purification of rMTAN-8 was accomplished as previously described (25).

### **Analysis of rMTAN-8**

The protein concentration of purified enzyme was determined using the Coomassie Plus assay (Pierce, Rockford, IL). Enzyme preparations were electrophoretically separated on denaturing 12% polyacrylamide gels (30) and either stained with Coomassie blue stain, western blotted to nitrocellulose (31) to assess yield and purity. Nitrocellulose immobilized proteins were detected by incubation for 2hrs with diluted hybridoma culture supernatants (1:5 in PBS) containing the anti-nucleosidase antibody M8R8B2.4.1 (32) followed by extensive washing in PBS. The blot was then exposed to diluted goat anti-mouse Ig-HRP conjugate (1:3000 in PBS) for 1hr, washed extensively

and bound antibody detected using the Amersham ECL kit according to the manufacturer's specification. The kinetics of MTA cleavage by rMTAN-8 were assessed as described above.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### **Analysis of reaction conditions**

As shown in Figure 4.1A, recombinant full-length MTA/SAH nucleosidase exhibit activity across a broad pH range. Enzyme activity was moderately improved under acidic conditions, which may simply reflect a higher degree of protonation at N-7 of the purine ring of MTA, such that it resembles the proposed transition state (21). Alternative increased protonation of residues within the enzyme may enhance substrate recognition. A pH of 7 was selected for all further studies since it approximates the average activity seen across the range of conditions tested and allows comparison to prior work in the field (18,21).

The recombinant nucleosidase functioned equally well in potassium phosphate, HEPES, or MES buffers (Figure 4.1B), confirming earlier reports that the activity of this enzyme is hydrolytic rather than phosphorylytic (16). Activity was moderately suppressed in imidazole buffer, and severely restricted (~80%) in Tris buffer. Inhibition by Tris has been previously noted for the native enzyme (18).

The effects of temperature on reaction rate are presented in Figure 4.1C. The recombinant enzyme functions optimally in the range of 37-45°C, with significant substrate conversion seen even at 4°C. Activity is also seen at higher temperatures; however the enzyme is rapidly inactivated (~90%) after incubation at 55°C for 10 minutes (data not shown).

### **Inhibitor analysis**

The results of inhibitor testing of a variety of nucleoside analogs toward MTA hydrolysis by the recombinant full-length enzyme are found in Table 4.1. SAH was only moderately inhibitory ( $IC_{50} = 2.4\mu M$ ) consistent with previous reports of reduced enzyme reactivity

for this alternative substrate (35-42% of maximal cleavage) (21,23). Similarly, analogs with simple 5'-alkylthio modifications (2-4 carbons) proved to be good nucleosidase inhibitors ( $IC_{50}$ 's=0.58-1.1 $\mu$ M). Several of these compounds (ETA, PTA, BTA, IBT) are substrates for the native enzyme, with decreasing substrate activity correlated with increasing alkyl chain length (21,23). The notable exception is the reduced inhibitory activity of dimethylthioadenosine (DMTA,  $IC_{50}$ =6.8 $\mu$ M), presumably due to the presence of the positively charged sulfonium ion center.

Aryl-substituted analogs of MTA were found to be the best nucleosidase inhibitors tested. 5'-Phenylthioadenosine, 5'-(*p*-fluorophenyl)thioadenosine, and 5'-(*p*-bromophenyl)thioadenosine were moderately good inhibitors, with  $IC_{50}$ 's in the same range as simple alkyl-substituted analogs of MTA. *Para* substitutions of the phenyl ring with chloro- (PClPhTA), iodo- (PIPhTA), or amino- (PAPhTA) groups substantially improve inhibitory activity with  $IC_{50}$  values of ~0.2-0.37 $\mu$ M.

The most potent inhibitor studied was (*p*-nitrophenyl)thioadenosine (PNO<sub>2</sub>PhTA,  $IC_{50}$  = 0.13 $\mu$ M). Interestingly, the nitro (-NO<sub>2</sub>) group functions as an isoster of carboxyl groups in biological systems (33). Thus, it is possible that the nitro moiety of PNO<sub>2</sub>PhTA, resembles the carboxyl group of SAH, and is involved in hydrogen bonding in the substrate binding site of the enzyme. The Dixon plot for PNO<sub>2</sub>PhTA (Figure 4) demonstrates that it acts as a competitive inhibitor with a  $K_i$  of 20nM. This is similar to the inhibition exhibited by formycinyl analogs: 5'-chloroformycin ( $K_i$  = 32nM), 5'-methylthioformycin ( $K_i$  = 28nM) and S-formycinylhomocysteine ( $K_i$  = 9.7nM) reported previously (21,23). These compounds represent the most potent analogs reported to date for the nucleosidase and highlight leads for future inhibitor design.

The study of other MTA analogs provided additional insight into the relative contribution of various portions of the substrate toward enzyme recognition. Our results showed a much lower  $IC_{50}$  value for methylthioinosine (MTI) with the recombinant

enzyme ( $IC_{50} = 30\mu M$ ) than had been reported for the native enzyme ( $IC_{50} > 500\mu M$ ) (21). Regardless of this discrepancy, both results indicate the importance of the position amino group in substrate recognition. Modifications to the ribose portion of the molecule also reduced inhibitory activity, as is evident with carbocyclic MTA ( $IC_{50} = 27\mu M$ ). Similar findings reported for acyclic analogs of SAH suggest that an intact ribose ring is necessary for enzyme recognition (21).

Other substitutions in the MTA molecule were better tolerated. Moderate enzyme inhibitors were obtained when the sulfur atom was replaced with selenium to yield methylselenoadenosine (MSeA,  $IC_{50} = 4.5\mu M$ ); and when purine (linked via C-6) was substituted for the methyl group to form 5'-(6-purinothio)adenosine (PurTA,  $IC_{50} = 4.7\mu M$ ). The effect of alterations to the purine base was explored with the 7-deaza analog, methylthiotubercidin (MTT). MTT exhibited an  $IC_{50}$  value of  $3.3\mu M$  and a  $K_i$  of  $0.75\mu M$  against the recombinant enzyme. The nucleosidase reportedly does not cleave MTT, indicating a stronger involvement for N-7 in catalysis than substrate recognition (21). This result is consistent with the view that protonation of N-7 is required for attaining the transition state in hydrolysis of the glycosidic bond of purine nucleosides (34,35).

Substrate specificity was further investigated by examining the inhibitory activity of adenosine and related analogs. Adenosine displayed no discernible activity even at high concentrations ( $IC_{50} > 500\mu M$ ). Formycin A (8-aza-9-deaza adenosine) was a much better inhibitor ( $IC_{50} = 57\mu M$ ), probably due to the protonation of N-7 at neutral pH, which allows it to resemble the transition state. However, the presence of a carbonyl carbon bond between C-1 of the sugar and C-9 in the pyrazole ring prevents formycin from being cleaved (21,23). Halogenation of the 5' carbon also dramatically improved the inhibitory activity of adenosine toward the nucleosidase. 5'-Chloroadenosine ( $IC_{50}$



9.8 $\mu$ M), an inhibitor of human MTAPase (36), exhibited a ~50 fold increase in inhibitory activity relative to adenosine.

Adenine and methylthioribose (MTR), products of the enzymatic cleavage of MTA were both poor inhibitors of the enzyme ( $IC_{50}$ 's = 305 $\mu$ M and >1000 $\mu$ M, respectively) indicating they do not contribute significantly to regulation of nucleosidase activity. Two analogs of MTR, 5-trifluoromethylthioribose and 5-(*p*-iodophenyl)thioribose, were also inactive toward the nucleosidase, supporting the previous assertion that these are specific inhibitors of MTR kinase (37-41).

### Mutational Analysis

A high degree of homology exists between the first eight amino acids of *E. coli* MTA/SAH nucleosidase (MKIGIIGA) (25) and a similar region in human MTA phosphorylase (VKIGIIGG) (42,43). With very little other sequence homology existing between these two enzymes, we postulated that this region may be involved in MTA binding, possibly conferring some specificity for the sulfur group at the 5' position of the nucleoside. To test this, a truncated nucleosidase (designated rMTAN-8) was engineered which lacked the MKIGIIGA sequence. Highly purified rMTAN-8 was obtained following immunoaffinity chromatography using an anti-nucleosidase antibody affinity resin (Figure 4.3).

Kinetic analysis of rMTAN-8 (Figure 4.4) showed a reduced affinity for MTA ( $K_m$  [MTA] = 1.5 $\mu$ M) compared to the full-length recombinant ( $K_m$  [MTA] = 0.5 $\mu$ M) (21) and native *E. coli* enzyme ( $K_m$  [MTA] = 0.43 $\mu$ M) (21). The truncated enzyme was also more sensitive to inhibition by adenosine ( $IC_{50}$   $\approx$  65 $\mu$ M) compared to rMTAN ( $IC_{50}$  = 500 $\mu$ M), suggesting a loss of substrate specificity. Further elucidation of the molecular interactions involved in substrate binding, particularly those imparting specificity for the sulfur atom of MTA and SAH, await the results of x-ray crystallographic studies currently being pursued in this laboratory.

## Conclusion

Purified recombinant *E. coli* MTA/SAH nucleosidase was examined by a number of different approaches to further characterize its ability to serve as a chemotherapeutic target. The nucleosidase appears to function well across a broad range of pH, temperature, and buffer conditions, with the notable exception of Tris which effects a clear inhibition of enzyme activity. An analysis of over 20 nucleoside analogs provided insight into the structural characteristics important for substrate/inhibitor recognition and catalysis; it suggests future modifications that may yield even more potent enzyme inhibitors. In particular, a 6-position amino group, intact ribose, and an uncharged sulfur atom attached to the 5' position of the sugar appeared to be important for good substrate/inhibitor activity. The PNO<sub>2</sub>PhTA analog acted as an extremely potent competitive inhibitor (K<sub>i</sub> = 20nM), comparable to the best inhibitors (formycinyl and tubercidinyl derivatives) of the enzyme on record. Nucleoside analogs incorporating both a (*p*-nitrophenyl)thio substitution at the 5' position of the sugar and formycinyl- or tubercidinyl- replacement for the base would likely yield non-hydrolyzable analogs with even greater potency for the enzyme. A mutant nucleosidase was developed to explore the contribution of the first 8 amino acids of the enzyme to substrate binding. Kinetic studies of the truncated enzyme showed a reduced affinity for MTA. Concomitantly, the increased susceptibility of rMTAN-8 to adenosine inhibition provides a preliminary indication of the involvement of the deleted amino terminal residues in substrate specificity.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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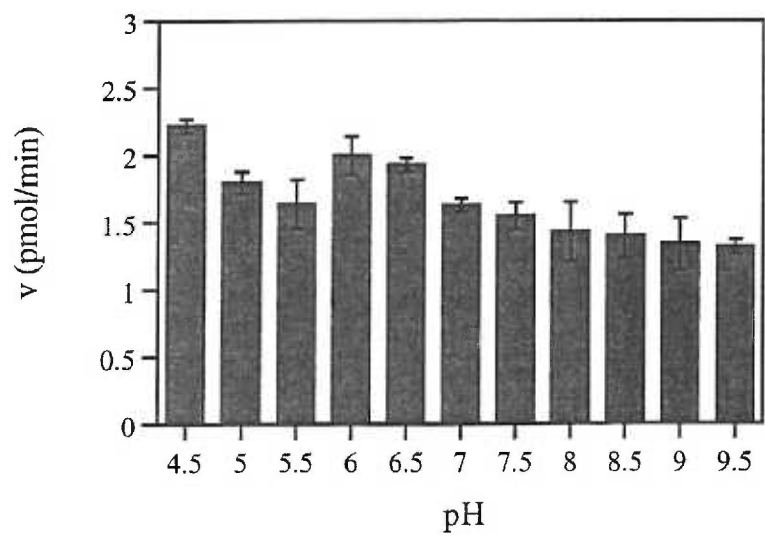
**Table 4.1.** Inhibitor analysis of MTA/SAH nucleosidase. The IC<sub>50</sub> value (concentration yielding 50% inhibition) were calculated at an MTA concentration 1.0 μM. Values reported represent the average of 2-3 experiments, with individual pair determined in triplicate.

<u>Compound</u>	<u>Abbreviation</u>	<u>IC<sub>50</sub></u> <u>(μM)</u>	<u>K<sub>i</sub></u> <u>(μM)</u>
<i>Substrates</i>			
5'-Methylthioadenosine	MTA	1	-
S-Adenosylhomocysteine	SAH	2.4	-
<i>Alkyl-substituted MTA analogs</i>			
5'-Ethylthioadenosine	ETA	0.9	-
5'-Dimethyl(+)thioadenosine	DMTA	6.8	-
5'-Propylthioadenosine	PTA	0.58	-
5'-Isopropylthioadenosine	IPTA	1.1	-
5'-Butylthioadenosine	BTA	0.68	-
5'-Isobutylthioadenosine	IBTA (SIBA)	0.74	-
<i>Aryl-substituted MTA analogs</i>			
5'-Phenylthioadenosine	PhTA	0.88	-
5'-( <i>p</i> -Fluorophenyl)thioadenosine	PFPhTA	0.9	-
5'-( <i>p</i> -Chlorophenyl)thioadenosine	PCIPhTA	0.2	-
5'-( <i>p</i> -Bromophenyl)thioadenosine	PBrPhTA	0.85	-
5'-( <i>p</i> -Iodophenyl)thioadenosine	PIPhTA	0.22	0.17
5'-( <i>p</i> -Aminophenyl)thioadenosine	PAPhTA	0.37	-
5'-( <i>p</i> -Nitrophenyl)thioadenosine	PNO2PhTA	0.13	0.02
<i>Other MTA analogs</i>			
5'-Methylthiotubercidin	MTT	3.3	0.75
5'-Methylthioinosine	MTI	30	-
5'-Purinothioadenosine	PurTA	4.7	-
carbocyclic MTA	cMTA	27	-
5'-Methylselenoadenosine	MSeA	4.5	-
<i>Other nucleosides / bases</i>			
Adenosine	Ado	>500	-
Erythro-9-(2-hydroxy-3-nonyl)adenine	EHNA	>100	-
Formycin A	FormA	57	10
5'-Chloroadenosine	5ClAdo	9.8	-
Inosine	Ino	>100	-
Adenine	Ade	305	300
<i>Sugars</i>			
5-Methylthioribose	MTR	>1000	-
5-Trifluoromethylthioribose	TFMTR	>1000	-
5-( <i>p</i> -Iodophenyl)thioribose	PIPTR	>1000	-

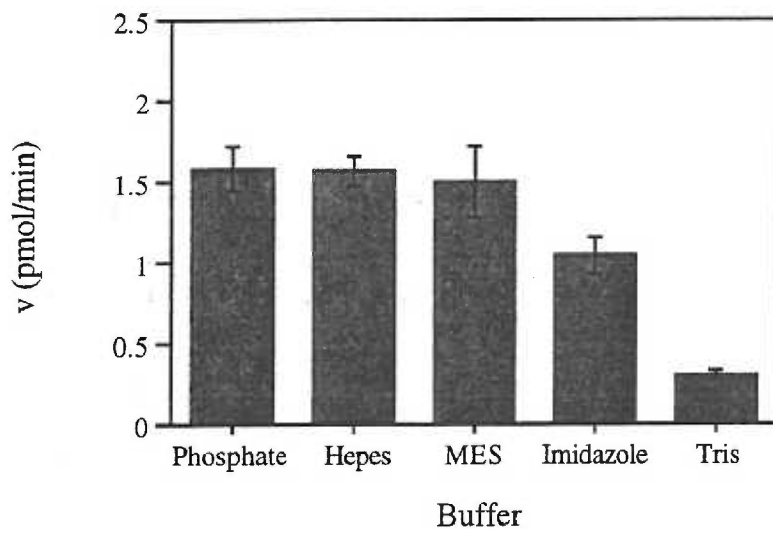
## FIGURE LEGENDS

**Figure 4.1.** Effect of (A) pH; (B) buffer; and (C) temperature on MTA cleaving activity of purified recombinant full-length nucleosidase (rMTAN). Experiments were performed as described in Materials and Methods. Each bar represents the average of three experimental determinations  $\pm$  standard error.

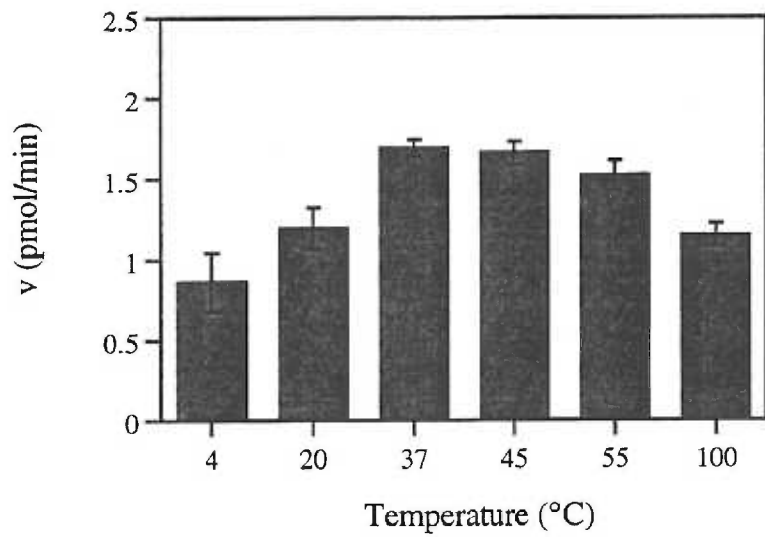
A.



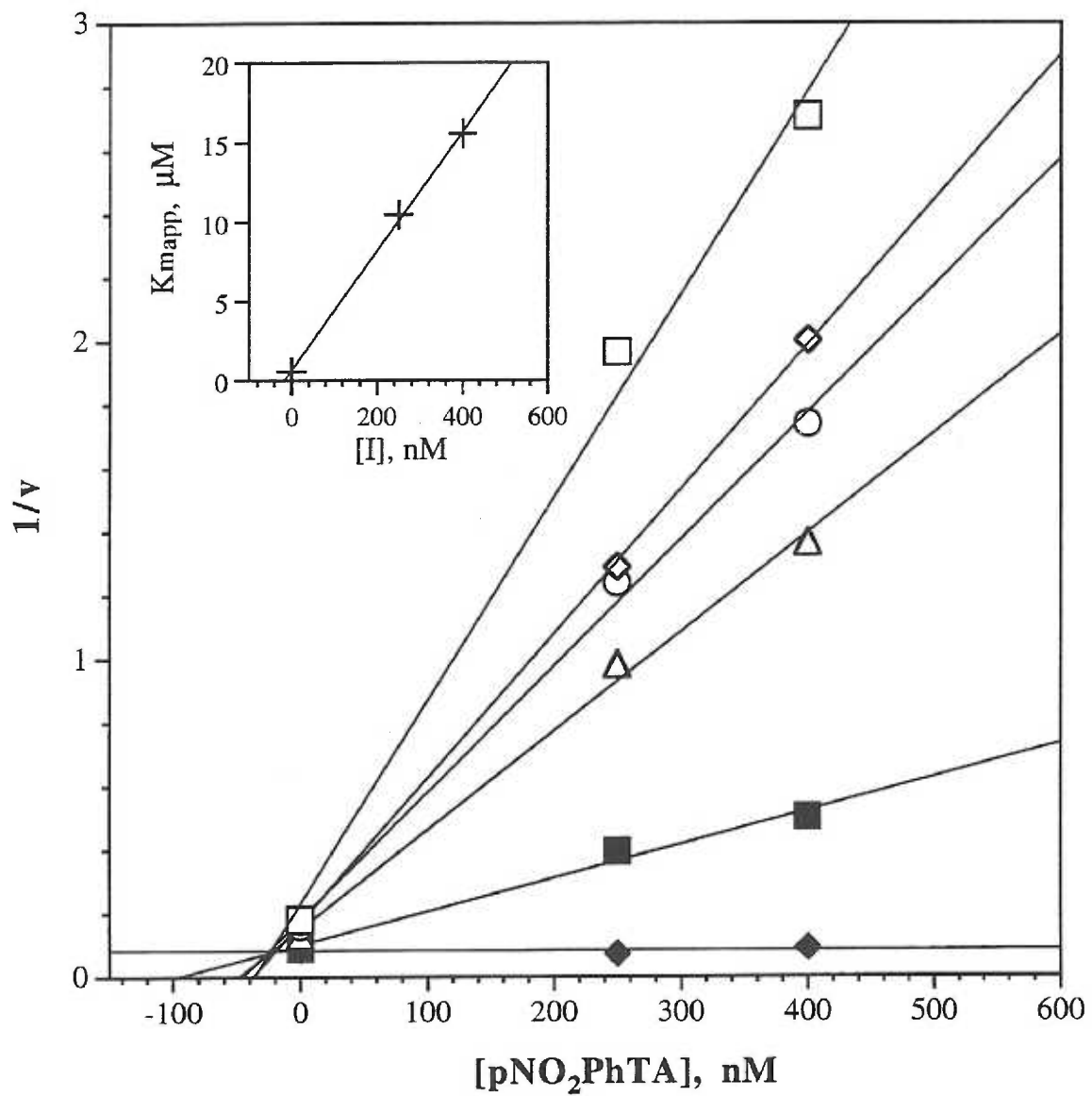
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C.

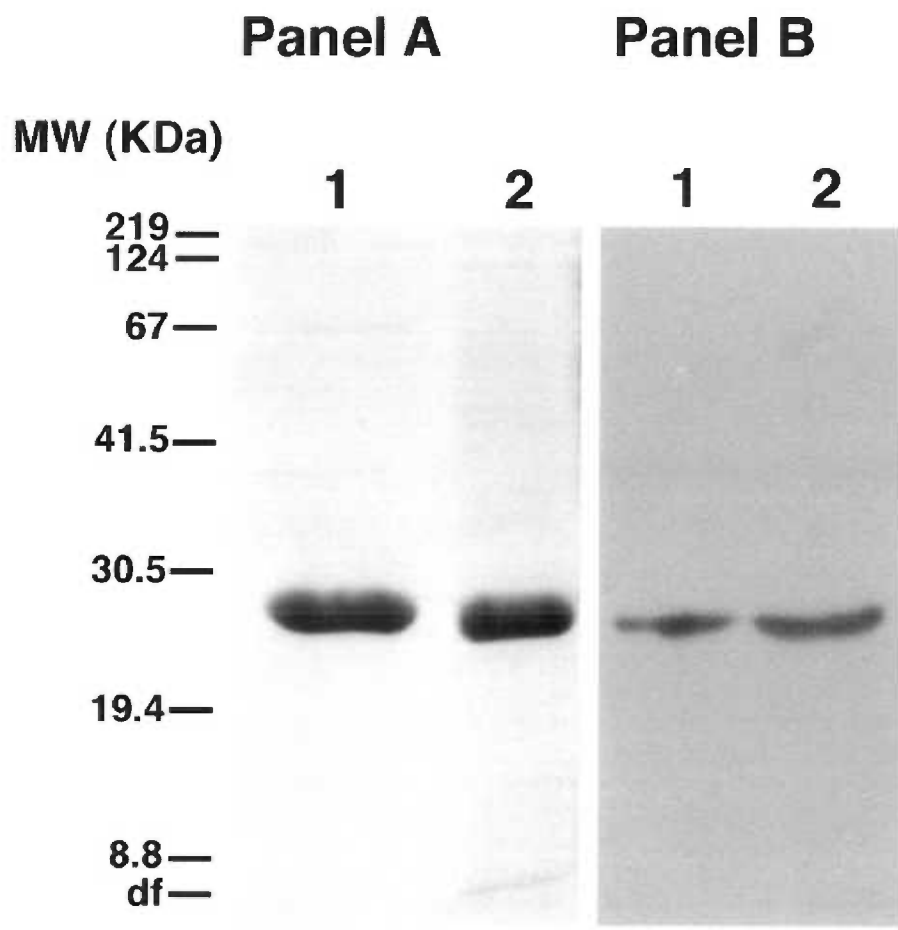


**Figure 4.2.** Dixon plot of the inhibitory activity of 5'-(p-nitrophenyl)thioadenosine (PNO<sub>2</sub>PhTA) on MTA cleavage. Inset: PNO<sub>2</sub>PhTA (nM) vs. apparent  $K_m$ . Points represent the average of 3 experimental determinations.

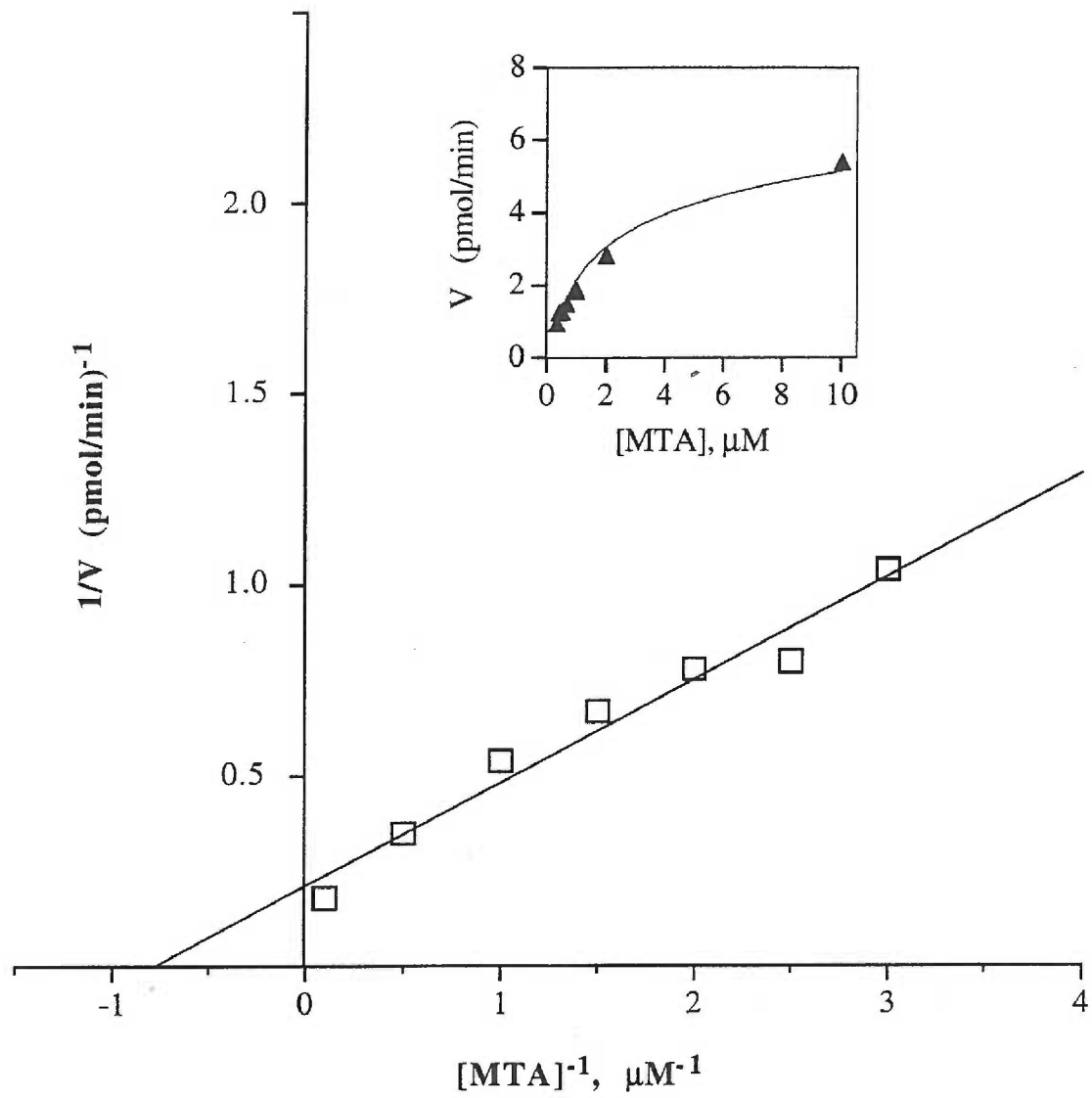




**Figure 4.3. Panel A:** Coomassie Blue stained SDS-PAGE gel of purified full-length rMTAN (lane 1) and truncated rMTAN-8 (lane 2). In each case the lane contained 5 $\mu$ g protein. Molecular masses of protein standards are reported on the left side of the panel (df = dye front). **Panel B.** Immunoblot analysis of rMTAN (1 $\mu$ g, lane 1) and rMTAN-8 (1 $\mu$ g, lane 2) using Mab R8B2.4.1.



**Figure 4.4.** MTA kinetics for truncated rMTAN-8. Double reciprocal plot of the initial velocity [ $v$  (picomoles/min)] versus MTA concentration ( $\mu\text{M}$ ). Inset: Hill plot of initial velocity versus MTA concentration.



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## CHAPTER 5

### CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

The enzymes involved in methionine recycling differ significantly between humans and a number of microbial pathogens in terms of their mechanism of action and substrate specificity. The main objective of this thesis was to explore the potential of the methionine salvage pathway as a site for chemotherapeutic intervention. To accomplish this I purified and characterized two key microbial enzymes in the pathway, MTA/SAH nucleosidase and MTR kinase, and attempted to clone their respective genes. For the purposes of this study, the enteric bacteria *Klebsiella pneumoniae* was chosen as an initial source of the enzymes due to its significance as a nosocomial pathogen [1], and because of its historic use as a model system for studying methionine salvage from MTA [2-6].

The purification to homogeneity of MTA/SAH nucleosidase and MTR kinase from *Klebsiella* allowed us to perform an initial characterization of these enzymes in terms of their substrate kinetics and molecular weight (Chapter 2). Of particular importance, the amino terminal amino acid sequence was determined for both the nucleosidase (20 residues) and the kinase (19 residues). The amino acid sequence for the *Klebsiella* nucleosidase showed a high degree of homology to the putative translation product of an open reading frame (*pfs*) in *E. coli* which we predicted to encode this enzyme [6].

A second objective of this thesis was to clone and express the genes for MTA/SAH nucleosidase and MTR kinase. MTR kinase presents an ideal target in many bacterial, protozoal and plant systems, since an equivalent enzymatic activity is not present in mammalian cells. In addition, a number of MTR analogs have been synthesized and tested which display potent antimicrobial properties, but do not exhibit cytotoxic or antiproliferative activities for human cells [7-10]. Unlike the nucleosidase, the initial



amino acid sequence for the *Klebsiella* MTR kinase did not appear to be homologous to any known peptides or translation products in the combined protein databases. Therefore the strategy for cloning the kinase gene was to screen a *Klebsiella* genomic  $\lambda$ gt10 expression library using a degenerate oligonucleotide probe based on the known peptide sequence and codon bias for this organism (Appendix A). Initial attempts at cloning the MTR kinase gene have not been encouraging, although work on one of the identified clones (MTRK#5) still appears hopeful. Continued analysis of this clone remains a priority for the near future. Other possible avenues for the successful cloning of this gene are presented and discussed in Appendix A.

Subsequent work focused on cloning and expression of the *E. coli pfs* gene, which allowed us to prove the hypothesis that it encoded the MTA/SAH nucleosidase (Chapter 11 [11]). The *pfs* gene was amplified via PCR using primers based on the open reading frame reported in GenBank [12]. Sequencing studies of the cloned PCR product revealed a number of discrepancies from the reported *pfs* sequence, the most important of which was the presence of two additional guanosine residues near the 3' end of the gene which effectively extended the open reading frame by 13 codons. Analysis of 6 additional independent PCR clones confirmed our results, as did recent information deposited in GenBank for the DNA sequence located at the 2.8-4.1 minute region on the *E. coli* chromosome [13]. Functional identification of the *pfs* gene as encoding MTA/SAH nucleosidase was demonstrated by expression as both a glutathione-S-transferase fusion protein and as a tryptophan inducible full length recombinant. Kinetic studies conducted on affinity purified recombinant nucleosidases provided Michaelis constants for MTA that were in close agreement with the  $\sim 0.5\mu\text{M}$  values reported in the literature for partial purified preparations of the native *E. coli* enzyme [11, 14-16].

MTA analogs and other compounds were tested as potential inhibitors of the recombinant nucleosidase (rMTAN) in an effort to further define the molecular

characteristics responsible for substrate recognition and enzyme activity (Chapter 4). It is noteworthy that the nucleosidase reaction is essentially irreversible, and the products, adenine and methylthioribose, do not appear to exert a significant allosteric or competitive inhibition on enzyme activity [15, 17]. Adenine and methylthioribose display  $IC_{50}$ 's for enzyme activity (at  $1\mu\text{M}$  MTA) of  $300\mu\text{M}$  and  $>1000\mu\text{M}$ , respectively. In contrast, the mammalian MTA phosphorylase catalyzes a readily reversible reaction, which is inhibited by low micromolar concentrations of the products, adenine and methylthioribose-phosphate [16, 18]. From the results of inhibitor analysis (Table 4.1), a number of generalities regarding substrate recognition can be gleaned that may be useful in the design of additional compounds:

1. A wide variety of 5'-alkylthio- side chains (1-4 carbons) can be recognized by the enzyme. This lack of specificity is not surprising since the nucleosidase functions to cleave the glycosidic bond of both MTA (5'-methylthio- side chain) and SAH (5'-[3-amino-3-carboxy]propylthio- side chain).
2. As is evident by the decreased  $IC_{50}$  of 5'-dimethylthioadenosine ( $IC_{50} = 6.8\mu\text{M}$ ) relative to 5'-ethylthioadenosine ( $IC_{50} = 0.9\mu\text{M}$ ), a positively charged sulfonium ion decreases the recognition of the substrate molecule.
3. Similarly, substitutions of the 5'-methylthio- group with a 5'-methylseleno- ( $IC_{50} = 4.5\mu\text{M}$ ), 5'-purinothio- ( $IC_{50} = 4.7\mu\text{M}$ ), 5'-chloro- ( $IC_{50} = 9.8\mu\text{M}$ ), and 5'-hydroxy- ( $IC_{50} = >500\mu\text{M}$ ) side chains decreased the substrate recognition. This indicates that a) the sulfur atom is the best 5' substituent, b) there may be limits to the type of bulky side chain that can be attached to the sulfur, and c) substitutions on the 5' position with strongly electron withdrawing groups (i.e. 5'-chloro-) increase recognition of the substrate relative to weaker groups (i.e. 5'-hydroxy-).

4. Several of the nitrogen atoms in the nucleoside base are important for recognition and catalysis. Deamination of position 6 of the purine ring to yield methylthioinosine, dramatically reduces substrate binding (MTI,  $IC_{50} = 30\mu M$ ). The 7-deaza derivative, 5'-methylthiotubercidin, is a moderate inhibitor ( $IC_{50} = 3.3\mu M$ ,  $K_i = 0.75\mu M$ ) and is non-hydrolyzable [15], indicating N-7 is probably more important to catalysis than substrate binding. Similarly, the non-hydrolyzable 8-aza-9-deaza adenosine analog, formycin A ( $IC_{50} = 57\mu M$ ), was a much better inhibitor than adenosine ( $IC_{50} > 500\mu M$ ), possibly due to protonation of N-7 of the formycinyl base at physiological pH. The results for MTT and formycin A support earlier assertions that protonation of N-7 is important for reaching the transition state leading to hydrolysis of the glycosidic bond [19]. 3-deaza analogs of MTA were unavailable for testing, but this position of the molecule has also been implicated in substrate recognition [15, 18].

5. The first evidence of the inhibitory activity of MTA analogs containing aryl and halogenated aryl side chains is presented in Chapter 4. Of these compounds, 5'-phenylthioadenosine, 5'-(*p*-fluorophenyl)thioadenosine, and 5'-(*p*-bromophenyl)thioadenosine behaved in a manner similar to simple alkyl substituted MTA analogs. 5'-(*p*-Chlorophenyl)thioadenosine ( $IC_{50} = 0.2\mu M$ ), 5'-(*p*-iodophenyl)thioadenosine ( $IC_{50} = 0.22\mu M$ ,  $K_i = 0.17\mu M$ ), and 5'-(*p*-aminophenyl)thioadenosine ( $IC_{50} = 0.2\mu M$ ), all display inhibitory activity on par with recent reports for 5'-monofluoromethylthioadenosine (MFMTA) and 5'-trifluoromethyl-thioadenosine (TFMTA) [20]. A final compound, 5'-(*p*-nitrophenyl)thioadenosine ( $IC_{50} = 0.13\mu M$ ,  $K_i = 0.02\mu M$ ) is one the best inhibitors ever tested for the enzyme. Whether these arylthio analogs act as better inhibitors due to increased interactions between the halogenated aryl

side chain and amino acid residues in the substrate binding site, or because the 5' substitutions act as strong electron withdrawing agents to destabilize the carboxonium-like transition state predicted to be involved in the depurination of MTA [19, 20] is unknown, but will be addressed in the future.

MTA/SAH nucleosidase appears to be an attractive target owing to its presence at a junction between both methionine and purine metabolic pathways, and the variety of inhibitory effects that can result when MTA and SAH concentrations are elevated [21, 22]. Disappointingly, the aryl-substituted MTA analogs which were potent nucleosidase inhibitors *in vitro*, did not prove to exert particularly strong antibacterial activities, although several displayed significant antiproliferative effects against bone marrow cells (see Appendix B). In this regard, our results mimic those noted for xylosylmethylthioadenosine, the only report that has surfaced so far on the antibacterial effect of an MTA analog [23]. The reasons for the poor antibacterial properties of these compounds are unknown, but may relate to inefficient transport of the analogs or rapid intracellular catabolism. In some of the earliest work in the MTA field, Stanley Shapiro demonstrated in 1953 that methionine auxotrophs of *Aerobacter* (*Enterobacter*) *aerogenes* could grow when cultures were supplemented with MTA, indicating that uptake of the thioether occurs [24]. Radiotracer studies have shown that MTA is able to gain entry into a variety of lower eukaryotes, including *Ochromonas* [25, 26], and *Candida* [27-29]. A systematic study on the uptake of radiolabelled MTA in bacteria has not been performed and remains an obvious area for further study. In contrast, there is significant evidence for the rapid transport of MTA and its analogs into mammalian cells, although the mechanism of entry is in dispute [30-34].

In the future, a number of approaches may be pursued in the development and testing of MTA analogs. Initially, it may be more fruitful to simply test the p

substituted arylthioadenosine compounds as antiprotozoal and antineoplastic agents, an arena in which the antiproliferative effects of MTA and SAH analogs have been extensively studied [35-41]. Indeed, MTA catabolizing enzymes (MTA/SA nucleosidase, MTA nucleosidase, or MTA phosphorylase) appear to be particularly good sites for drug intervention in the parasitic protozoa, since they lack *de novo* purine biosynthesis, and are thus reliant on exogenous salvage and efficient recycling of the compounds [8, 41-46]. Some of the most promising uses of MTA and its analogs thus far have been in the treatment of experimental *Trypanosoma brucei* infections of mice [40], and as *in vitro* potentiating agents for drugs which interfere with polyamine biosynthesis (e.g. difluoromethylornithine, DFMO)[47]. Other *in vitro* studies have demonstrated that MTA analogs can act as antimalarial [39, 41, 48-51] and antileishmanial agents [52], albeit at concentrations that are relatively high (20-300 $\mu$ M). We propose to test our substituted arylthioadenosine analogs in the future on cultures of *P. falciparum*, so that their antimalarial effects relative to these previous reports can be determined.

Our *in vitro* study of nucleosidase inhibitors, and work by other investigators suggests a series of additional compounds which should be synthesized and then tested as nucleosidase inhibitors. Since replacement of the methylthio group of MTA with a *para* (nitro, chloro or iodo)phenylthio moiety yields a better inhibitor, and substitution of the adenine with a tubercidinyl or formycinyl derivative produces a nonhydrolyzable substrate, compounds which combine these two characteristics are worthy of study. Other compounds which mimic nucleoside transition states predicted for the hydrolysis of the glycosidic bond (e.g. amidrazones and dihydroxylated pyrrolidines), may be valuable nucleosidase inhibitors [53-55], particularly if they are derivatized to contain a 5'-alkylthio group to improve specificity for the enzyme.

In addition, much of the work presented in this thesis has greatly enhanced our ability to undertake a more "rational" approach to drug design. The cloning of the fu

length recombinant *E. coli* MTA/SAH nucleosidase gene in a tryptophan inducible system has made possible the expression of large quantities of protein (rMTAN) required for crystallography studies currently being pursued with collaborators. Aiding in this work is the development of a panel of anti-nucleosidase monoclonal antibodies (Appendix C) which has led to the construction of an affinity column for use in the preparations of highly purified enzyme needed for the aforementioned studies. The long term goal of this investigation is the development of a three dimensional structure for the nucleosidase which can serve as a template for screening chemical databases in search of non-nucleoside inhibitors. All compounds that are identified by this approach will be analyzed to determine if they exhibit improved enzyme inhibitory activity and therapeutic properties (better antibacterial activity and pharmacokinetics) relative to the MTA analogs that have developed so far.

Another area of proposed study resulting from the work on MTA/SAH nucleosidase and MTA analogs concerns an investigation of characteristics of MTA metabolism occurring in many neoplasms. Toohey first reported nearly two decades ago that some malignant murine cells lacked MTA phosphorylase (MTAP) activity [56, 57]. MTA deficiency has since been associated with a long list of human malignancies including acute lymphoblastic leukemia (ALL) [58-68], gliomas [67, 69, 70], non-small cell lung cancer [67, 71], pancreatic cell carcinoma [72], breast cancer [67, 73], liver cancer [67], melanoma [67], and chondrosarcoma [74, 75]. The location of the MTAP gene has been assigned to chromosome 9 [76], in a region of the short arm containing the interferon gene cluster (9p21-22) which is subject to frequent gene deletions and translocations [64, 77]. Recent work has proposed that numerous human malignancies arise due to the loss of one (or more) of two tumor suppressor genes located on chromosome 9, p15 and p16, with concomitant deletion of the adjacent MTAP gene [66, 78-80].

The consequence of the loss of MTA phosphorylase activity is the inability to recycle purines and methionine from MTA [59, 81]. This metabolic deficiency may

chemotherapeutically exploitable since neoplastic cells also show a greater dependence on these nutrients for growth and proliferation [59, 81-85]. For patients identified as having MTAP deficient tumors it may be possible to design more specific chemotherapeutic regimens, since these neoplasms are more susceptible to agents which inhibit the *de novo* synthesis of purines and methionine (e.g. methotrexate, azaserine, alanosine, etc. particularly when MTA is supplied as the only source of recycleable material for these compounds [58, 70, 71, 74, 75, 80, 86].

In response to MTAP deficiency, the intracellular levels of MTA rise, however, high concentrations are prevented by secretion of the thioether into the surroundings [62, 67, 88]. One approach that may be valuable to investigate is the development of compounds which interfere with the process of MTA secretion or export. The resultant accumulation of MTA would be expected to lead to a variety of deleterious events in MTAP deficient (i.e. neoplastic) cells, including inhibition of spermine synthesis [89, 90], DNA and protein methylation [91-93], and SAH catabolism [68, 94].

A related avenue of study addresses the effects of MTA secretion on the immune system. MTA has been shown to interfere with natural killer cell activity [95], inhibit lymphocyte proliferation [96, 97], and to decrease tumor necrosis factor (TNF $\alpha$ ) secretion by mononuclear cells [98]. Thus, one could speculate that MTA secretion by MTAP deficient tumor cells might aid in their ability to escape local immune surveillance. In this regard, the availability of the recombinant MTA/SAH nucleosidase may be of interest as an "enzyme therapy", allowing MTA inhibition of the immune response to be overcome. The use of the nucleosidase could be modelled after the use of L-asparaginase, an enzyme which is proposed to act by limiting the level of L-asparagine available for tumour cell growth, and has become a therapeutic mainstay in the treatment of acute lymphoblastic leukemia [99, 100].

In summary, the work presented in this thesis was conducted in order to better understand the properties of two enzymes in the methionine salvage pathway, MTA/SAH nucleosidase and MTR kinase. These enzymes are of interest due to their chemotherapeutic potential in the treatment of microbial diseases of humans and livestock. My studies resulted in the first-ever homogeneous purification and amino terminal sequence information obtained for these two enzymes on record. Work on the cloning and expression of the *E. coli* MTA/SAH nucleosidase has allowed the broad aims of this thesis to be realized. Investigations into the inhibitory activity of a series of MTA analogs and the production of a truncated nucleosidase have provided insight into the factors involved in substrate recognition and catalysis, and highlight a number of additional compounds that are worth investigating as enzyme inhibitors in the future.



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## APPENDIX A

### Attempted Cloning of the *Klebsiella pneumoniae* MTR Kinase Gene.

#### Summary

Several attempts were made at cloning the MTR kinase gene from a *Klebsiella pneumoniae* genomic library. Two lambda clones (designated MTRK#4 and MTRK#5) were isolated which hybridized to a 256-fold degenerate oligonucleotide (29-mer) probe designed on the basis of the amino-terminal amino acid sequence that we reported for the native MTR kinase (Chapter 2, Biochemical Journal paper) and the predicted codon bias for *Klebsiella* (codon bias reference). Automated nucleic acid sequence analysis of one of the clones (MTRK#4) failed to show any homology to the original oligonucleotide probe used to screen the library, despite a positive hybridization on a Southern blot. BLASTN search [1] of the combined non-redundant databases (GenBank +EMBL +DDBJ +PDB) revealed that the 2,748 bp MTRK#4 sequence represented the *Klebsiella pneumoniae* equivalent of regions of the *E. coli* and *Haemophilus influenzae* genome which encode rnpA (ribonuclease P), "o548" (unknown function), and thdF (thiophene & furan oxidation protein). The homology scores ranged from 64-89% over 400-1000 bp stretches of DNA ( $p \leq 2.8e^{-162}$ ). Additional library screening and sequence analysis of the MTRK#5 clone are currently being pursued.

## Introduction

The methionine recycling pathway enzyme, MTR kinase (EC 2.7.1.100), is of interest because it is present in a number of medically important pathogens, but absent in humans (see Tables 1.3-1.5). Thus, this enzyme serves as a possible site for chemotherapeutic intervention [2-4]. Analogs of MTR which specifically inhibit MTR kinase have been shown to be effective antimicrobial agents [5-7], and act synergistically with compounds (e.g. azaserine, propargylglycine, triazole) which block *de novo* methionine biosynthesis [8]. In order to study the enzyme more thoroughly, we attempted to clone the corresponding gene from a *Klebsiella* genomic library. The long term goal was to overexpress the gene product for use in x-ray crystallographic studies and rational drug design.

## Experimental Procedures

*Radiochemicals and Oligonucleotide Probes-* [ $\gamma$ - $^{32}$ P] ATP was purchased from NEB (Boston, MA). The three oligonucleotides used in this study (see Table A.1) "TB" (256-fold degenerate, 29-mer), "ZP-1" (16-fold degenerate, 17-mer), and "ZP-2" (8-fold degenerate, 17-mer) were purchased from Oligo's, Etc. (Wilsonville, OR). Radiolabelled ( $^{32}$ P) oligonucleotide probes (12x10<sup>6</sup>cpm/100pmol oligo) were synthesized using T4 polynucleotide kinase (Life Technologies, Inc., Gaithersburg, MD) by standard end-labelling procedures [9], and purified by spin-elution on G25 columns (5'-3' Inert, Boulder, CO). X-ray film (XOMAT-AR) for autoradiographs was purchased from Kodak/IBI (New Haven, CT).

*Molecular Biology Reagents-* Restriction endonucleases and DNA modifying enzymes were obtained from Boehringer Mannheim Biochemicals (Indianapolis, IN) and from Life Technologies, Inc. (Gaithersburg, MD). The *Taq* DyeDeoxy cycle sequencing kit was obtained from Applied Biosystems, Inc. (Foster City, CA). Oligonucleotide primers

DNA sequencing were synthesized by the VAMC Molecular Biology Core Facility (Portland, OR). Ampicillin, tetracycline, IPTG, and X-gal were obtained from Sigma Chemical Corp. (St. Louis, MO).

*Bacterial strains and plasmids-* Competent cells of *E. coli* strains XL-1 Blue and Top10F' were purchased from InVitrogen Corp. (LaJolla, CA) or prepared as described by Maniatis, et al. [10] and stored as frozen aliquots at -80°C until needed. The *E. coli* strain Y1090r- was supplied by CloneTech (Palo Alto, CA). The plasmid vector pGEM4Z, was obtained from Pharmacia (Alameda, CA).

*Library screening-* A  $\lambda$ gt11 *Klebsiella pneumoniae* genomic library containing EcoRI fragments (7 kbp average insert size) was purchased from Clontech (Palo Alto, CA). With no reported MTR kinase nucleic acid sequences yet available in the gene database, the probe used to screen the library was an end-labelled 256-fold degenerate oligonucleotide ("TB") based on the amino-terminal amino acid sequence elucidated for the native MTR kinase [11], and the predicted codon bias for *Klebsiella* [12]. The library was plated on *E. coli* strain Y1090r- host cells according to the manufacturer specifications. Duplicate nylon filter plaque lifts were made from 5 plates (150mm diameter each containing  $1-5 \times 10^4$  plaques) and probed with the end-labelled oligonucleotide for 24 hours at 42°C in hybridization buffer containing: 6x SSC, 5x Denhardt's reagent, 30% formamide, 20mM sodium phosphate, 0.4% SDS, and 100 $\mu$ g/ml denatured shear salmon testes DNA. Following hybridization, the filters were rinsed extensively with prewarmed (42°C) wash buffer (2xSSC, 0.1% SDS), and subjected to autoradiography. Five possible clones were selected based on the autoradiography results of the primary filter screens. Of these, two clones (designated MTRK#4 and MTRK#5) appeared positive after secondary and tertiary filter screens, and were selected for further mapping and subcloning.

*Subcloning and mapping studies*- Samples of lambda MTRK#4 and MTRK#5 phage DNA were prepared from plate lysates according to standard procedures [9]. Purified DNA was subjected to digestion with EcoRI restriction endonuclease and the insert resolved by electrophoresis (100V, 1hr) on a 0.7% agarose gel (+1µg/ml ethidium bromide) in TAE buffer. Gels containing DNA fragments were denatured (0.5N NaOH, 1.5M NaCl, 1hr), neutralized (1M Tris, pH 8.0, 1.5M NaCl, 1hr), then transferred to nylon membranes using 20xSSC and an Appligene vacuum blotter (Pleasanton, CA). Filters were hybridized to the MTR kinase probe ("TB") using the conditions described for the library screening. For subcloning, the DNA from clones MTRK#4 and MTRK#5 was either digested with EcoRI or double digested with EcoRI and BamHI restriction endonucleases, and the fragments resolved by agarose gel electrophoresis. Desired fragments were recovered from the gel by spin elution through 0.45µM filtration devices (PGC Scientific, Gaithersburg, MD) and ligated into appropriately digested pGEM4 using T4 ligase (Boehringer Mannheim) for 16 hours at 14°C. Ligation mixtures were transformed into competent *E. coli* strain XL-1 Blue or TOP10F' cells. Recombinants were chosen based on growth and blue/white color selection (white colonies = positive recombinants) on LB agar supplemented with ampicillin (100µg/ml) and X-gal (25µg/ml). Plasmids were prepared from positive-appearing colonies by alkaline lysis [9], and analyzed for the presence of the appropriate sized insert following restriction endonuclease digestion and agarose gel electrophoresis.

Initial restriction endonuclease maps were prepared by digestion of either the original λgt11 clone DNA, or various plasmid subclones with a number of other restriction endonucleases according to the manufacturers specifications, followed by agarose gel electrophoresis. To localize more precisely the region of the insert which hybridized to the initial probe, restriction fragments of lambda clone and plasmid subclones were vacuum blotted to nylon membranes as previously described, and probed

with a mixture of ( $^{32}\text{P}$ ) end-labelled oligonucleotides (ZP-1 & ZP-2) in hybridization buffer (6xSSPE, 1% SDS) for 24 hours at 42°C. Blots were rinsed extensively and autoradiographed overnight at -80°C.

*DNA sequence analysis-* Plasmids containing inserts derived from lambda clones MTRK#4 were sequenced using a Taq DyeDeoxy™ Terminator Cycle Sequencing kit. Cycle sequencing reactions were analysed on an Applied Biosystems automated Model 373A DNA Sequencer (Foster City, CA). Sequence data were analyzed using the MacVector and Assemblylign programs (Kodak/IBI).

## Results and Discussion

Two lambda clones, designated MTRK#4 and MTRK#5, were isolated from a screen of the *K. pneumoniae*  $\lambda$ gt11 library using a 256-fold degenerate oligonucleotide (29mer) probe. The DNA from each clone yielded insert fragment sizes of approximately 2.7 kbp (MTRK#4) and 5 kbp (MTRK#5), which hybridized to the initial probe in Southern blots (see figure A.1).

Southern blot analysis of EcoRI/BamHI digested MTRK#4 and MTRK#5 DNA allowed the region hybridizing to the probe to be further localized (see figure A.2). EcoRI/BamHI digestion of MTRK#4 DNA yielded two insert fragments of ~900 and ~1800 bp, the larger of which hybridized to the probe (figure A.2, lane 2). EcoRI/BamHI digestion of MTRK#5 DNA also yielded two insert fragments, ~2000 bp and ~3000 bp length, the larger of which hybridized to the probe (figure A.2, lane 6). The region hybridizing to the probe in MTRK#4 DNA was further localized by double digestion with EcoRI and various other restriction endonucleases (figure A.2, lanes 3-5). MTRK#4 and MTRK#5 DNA inserts were ligated into pGEM4Z as EcoRI and EcoRI/BamHI fragments. Subclones of MTRK#4 were selected for further investigation due to their smaller size. The presence of desired EcoRI and EcoRI/BamHI fragments in pGEM

subclones was confirmed by Southern blot analysis which shows hybridization only to the clones containing either the complete (p4Z-λ4-8) or 1800 bp (p4Z-B3-100) inserts (Figure A.2, lanes 9,11), but not to a clone (p4Z-C3X) containing only the 900 bp insert (lane 10).

The results of Southern blot analysis presented in Figure A.2 (+ other data not shown) were used to assemble a preliminary restriction map (Figure A.3A). Furthermore, from Figure A.2, the area complementary to the oligonucleotide probe (i.e. the beginning of the MTR kinase gene) was deduced to exist between the BamHI and NcoI restriction sites of MTRK#4 DNA. However, nucleic acid sequence analysis of the MTRK#4 subclones containing this region (p4Z-λ4-8 & p4Z-B300) failed to reveal any homology to the probe (Figure A.3B). Sequencing of the entire clone also failed to identify any other regions homologous to the probe or capable of encoding the amino acid sequence known for the first 20 residues of the *Klebsiella* MTR kinase. Instead, the results of a BLASTN search of the combined non-redundant databases (GenBank +EMBL +DDBJ +PDB) indicate that the MTRK#4 sequence represents the *Klebsiella* equivalent of a portion of the 81.5-84.5 min. region of the *E. coli* genome (64-89% homology over 400-1000 bp comparisons of DNA,  $p \leq 2.8e^{-162}$ ). This region contains the 3' end of mpA (ribonuclease P), the complete "o548" gene (putative 60kD protein of unknown function) and the 5' end of thdF (a protein involved in oxidation of thiophene and furan). Thus, MTRK#4 represents a false positive, probably due to the relative non-stringent conditions used in the initial library screening. An additional screening of the *Klebsiella* library under more stringent conditions (48°C, 6xSSC, 30% formamide) has failed to yield any additional phage clones.

The phage clone MTRK#5 remains a possibility for containing the MTR kinase gene. The ~5 kbp EcoRI fragment (complete insert) from MTRK#5 has been subcloned into pGEM4Z, as have two smaller (~2 kbp & ~3 kbp) EcoRI/BamHI fragments. The

MTR kinase probe does hybridize to the larger EcoRI/BamHI fragment (Figure A.2, lane 6), but whether this also represents a false positive remains to be seen. Future work on this clone will include mapping and hybridization studies conducted under more stringent conditions to determine if a smaller fragment containing regions homologous to the probe can be generated.

Beyond work on the MTRK#5 sequence, other additional studies are planned. A cell lysate of *Klebsiella pneumoniae* cells (from 16L of culture) has been prepared to pursue purification of additional native MTR kinase. Once purified, NH<sub>2</sub>-terminal amino acid sequencing will be performed on a sample of the protein in an attempt to identify additional residues beyond the 19 which are known. This information may allow development of an oligonucleotide probe containing less degeneracy to be developed. Alternatively, the added amino acid sequence may allow the design of a better oligonucleotide primer pair for use in PCR amplification of a short stretch of the kinase gene. This PCR product could subsequently be used to probe the *Klebsiella* genomic library. As an aside, this approach has been attempted using the oligonucleotides ZP-1 and ZP-2, but failed to yield a positive result, possibly because the primers were designed to regions so close together that the product (57 bp) would be difficult to resolve from primer artefacts by agarose gel electrophoresis.

In the event that the above measures fail to yield the MTR kinase gene, it may be necessary to generate our own *Klebsiella* library. It is worthy of note that *Klebsiella* MTR kinase activity appears to be down regulated when high levels of methionine are present in the culture medium [13]. This regulation probably occurs via the action of the methionine aporepressor (metJ gene product), which binds upstream methionine regulatory sequences (when activated by S-adenosylmethionine), to block transcription of a number of methionine biosynthetic genes [14-16]. Thus, the possibility exists that a cDNA "subtraction" library could be synthesized in which the cDNA from *Klebsiella* ce

grown in methionine deficient medium are first hybridized with biotinylated mRNA from methionine replete cells to remove cDNA's of undifferentiated origin. The net result should be a library enriched for cDNA's representing genes expressed under methionine limiting conditions. An alternate (or complementary) approach would be to generate a phage display library, and enrich for MTR kinase gene containing clones by affinity chromatography on the PAPTAR resin described in chapter 2 of this thesis [11].



**Table A.1.** MTR kinase oligonucleotides.

Oligo	Sequence 5' <span style="float: right;">3'</span>	M.P.
TB	CAGTA(C/T)CA(C/T)AC(C/G)TT(C/T)AC(C/G)GC(C/G)CA(C/T)GA(C/T)GC	54°C <sup>a</sup>
ZP-1	CAGTA(C/T)CA(C/T)AC(C/G)TT(C/T)AC	54°C <sup>b</sup>
ZP-2	CC(C/G)GC(G/A)AACTACTA(G/C)GC	61°C <sup>b</sup>

<sup>a</sup> Conditions: 6X SSC / 30% formamide.

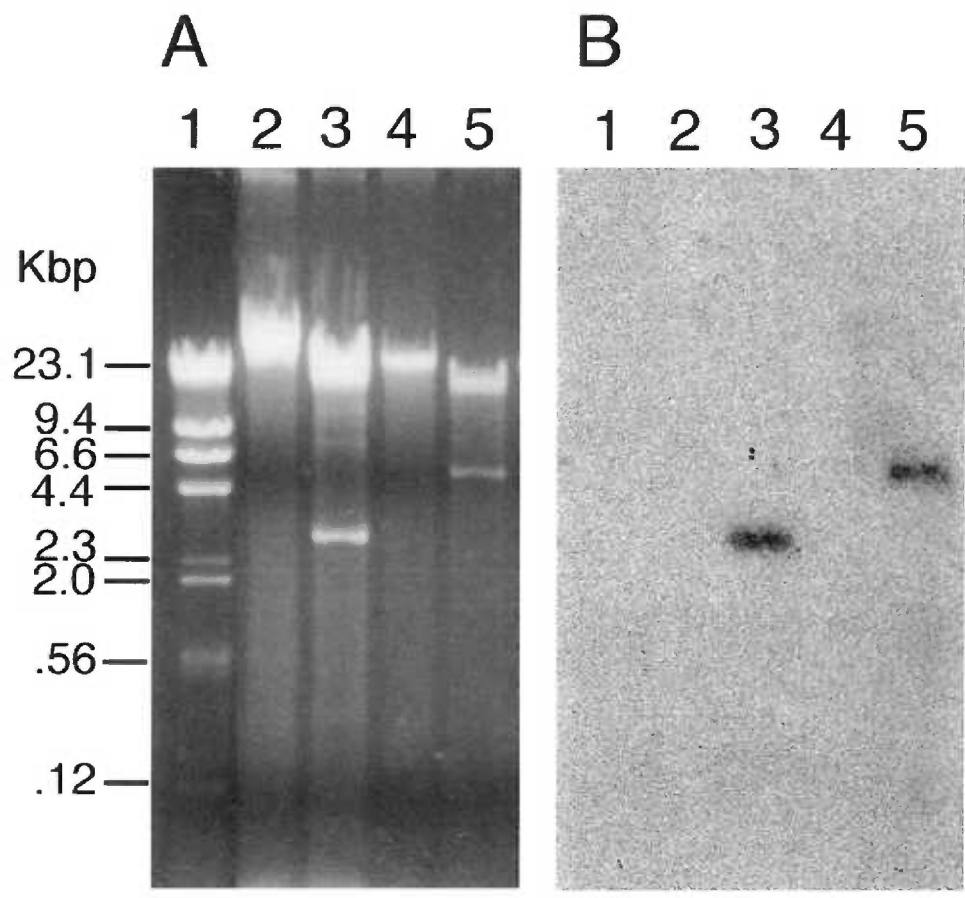
<sup>b</sup> Conditions: 6X SSC / 0% formamide.

## Figure Legends

**Figure A.1.** Agarose gel electrophoresis and Southern blot analysis of lambda MTRK#4 and MTRK#5 clones.

**Panel A:** 0.7% Agarose gel in TAE, 100V/1hour. Lane 1: lambda Hind III molecular weight standard; lane 2: undigested MTRK#4 DNA; lane 3: EcoRI digested MTRK#4 DNA; lane 4: undigested MTRK#5 DNA; lane 5: EcoRI digested MTRK#5 DNA. Approximately 5µg of DNA were loaded in each lane.

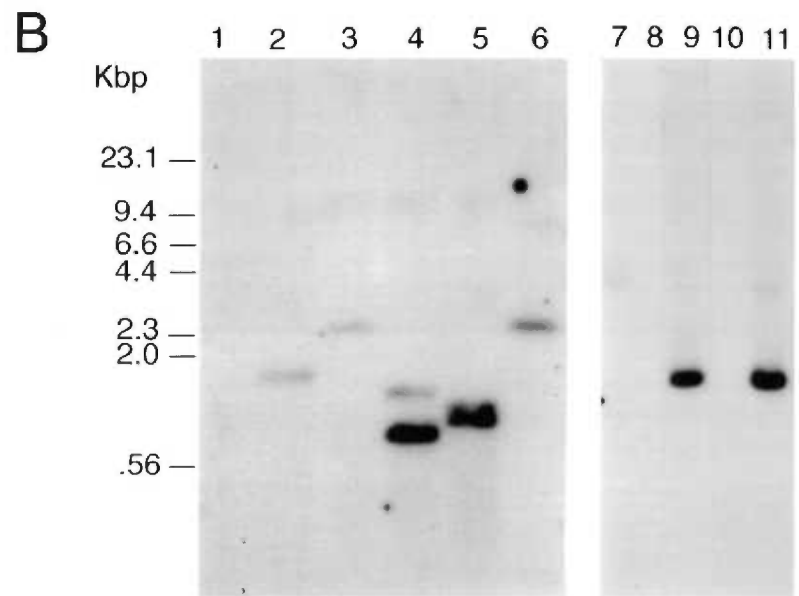
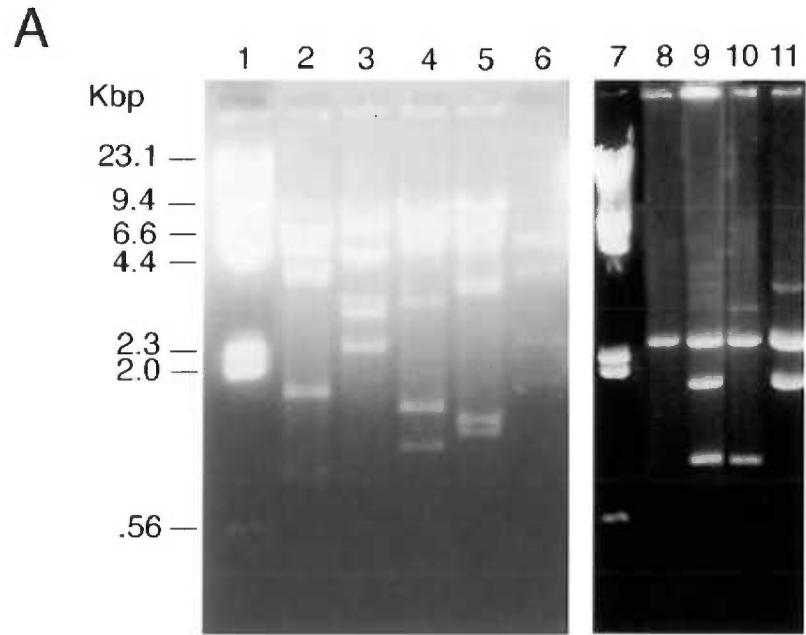
**Panel B:** Autoradiogram (exposed for 16 hours at -80°C) of Southern blot of the gel from (A), probed with <sup>32</sup>P-labelled oligonucleotide "TB".



**Figure A.2.** Agarose gel electrophoresis (0.8% Agarose gel in TAE, 50V/150 min) and Southern blot analysis of restriction endonuclease digested lambda-MTRK#4, lambda-MTRK#5, and subclone pGEM4Z-MTRK#4 DNA.

**Panel A:** 0.8% Agarose gels in TAE, 50V/150 min. lane 1: lambda HindIII molecular weight ladder; lane 2: EcoRI/BamHI digested MTRK#4 DNA; lane 3: EcoRI/HindIII digested MTRK#4 DNA; lane 4: EcoRI/NcoI digested MTRK#4 DNA; lane 5: EcoRI/SmaI digested MTRK#4 DNA; lane 6: EcoRI/BamHI digested MTRK#5 DNA; lane 7: lambda HindIII molecular weight ladder; lane 8: EcoRI/BamHI digested pGEM4Z; lane 9: EcoRI/BamHI digested p4Z-λ4-8 (contains the complete MTRK#4 insert); lane 10: EcoRI/BamHI digested p4Z-C3X (contains a ~900 bp fragment of MTRK#4); lane 11: EcoRI/BamHI digested p4Z-B3-100 (contains a ~1800 bp fragment of MTRK#4).

**Panel B:** Autoradiogram (exposed for 16 hours at -80°C) of Southern blots of gels from panel A, probed with <sup>32</sup>P-labelled oligonucleotides "ZP-1" and "ZP-2".

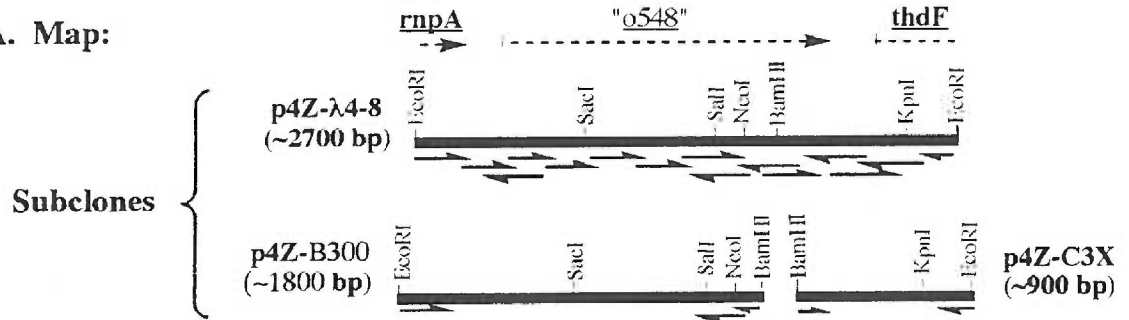


**Figure A.3.** Restriction map and sequence analysis of MTRK#4 insert.

**A.** Diagram of sequencing strategy for pGEM4Z subclones of MTRK#4. Small arrows indicate the region of sequencing primers used for reactions. The location of homologous *E. coli* genes are indicated by dashed arrows (----->).

**B.** Complete sequence of the MTRK#4 insert. Uppercase, underlined sequences represent open reading frames in *Klebsiella* corresponding to *E. coli* genes: mpA (5' end), "o548" (complete), and thdF (3' end).

**A. Map:**



**B. Sequence:**

GAATTCCGTCGGGCATCCCCGCATCGGTCTCACCGTCGCCAAGAAAAACGTGAAACGCGCACATGAAAC  
GCAATCGGATTAAAACGTCTGACGCGTGAAAGTTTTTCGTTTTGCGTCAACATGAACTCCCCGCCAATGGAT  
TTCGTGGTGGTGGCGAAAAGAGGGGTTGCCGACCTCGATAACCGTGCTCTCTCGGAAGCGTTGGAAAA  
ATTATGGCGCCGCCATTGTCGCCTGGCTCGCGGGTCTGATcggcctgattcgagtttatcagcgcct  
gattagtcogctactcgggcccattgtcgtttcaccccaacctgttctcaatacgaattgaggcct  
taccgaggtttgagtgataaaaggcagttggttgacgatgaaacgcgtattaaaatgccaccctta  
caccctggtggtgacgatecccgtcccgcctggaccatttgataaccagagaaactaacgATGGATTTCG  
CAACGCAATCTTCTTATCATCGCTTTGTTGTTCGTGTCTTTTCATGATCTGGCAAGCCTGGGAGCAGGA  
CAAAAATCCGCAGCCCCAGCAGCAGACCACGCAGACTACGACCACAGCAGCGGGTAGCGCCGCCGACC  
AGGGCGTACCGGCCAGTGGCCAGGGGAAACTGATTACGGTTAAAACCGACGTGCTTGAGCTGACTATC  
AACACCAACGGTGGCGATATTGAGCAGGCGCTGCTTCTGGCGTATCCCAAAACGCTGAAATCGACCGA  
ACCGTTCAGTTACTGGAACCCAGCCGCAGTTTGTCTACCAGGCGCAGAGCGGCTTAACCGGCCCGTG  
ACGGTCCGGATAACCCGGCAAACGGCCCGCTCCGCTGTACAACGTCGATAAAGAGGCGTTTGTGTTG  
GCCGATGGCCAAGATGAGCTCGTTATCCCGCTGACCTACACTGACAAAGCCGGCAACGTCTTCACCAA  
AACCTTCACCCTGAAGCGCGGTGGCTATGCGGTGAACGTGGGTTACAGCGTGCAGAATGCCAGCGAGA  
AGCCTCTGGAAGTCTCGACCTTCGGTCAGCTGAAGCAGACCGCTGCGCTGCCGACCAGTCGCGATACG  
CAGACCGGTGGCCTGTCCACGATGCATACTTTCGGTGGCGCCGCGTTCTCCACTGCGGATTCGAAATA  
CGAAAAATATAAATTCGATACCATTCTGGATAACGAAAACCTGAACGTGACACCAAAAAACGGTTGGG  
TTGCCATGCTGCAGCAGTACTTCACCACCGCATGGGTGCCCGGGAATAACGGGACGAATAAATTCTAC  
ACCGCAAACCTCGGCAACGGCGTTGTGCGTATTGGCTACAAATCGCAGCCGGTACTGGTGCAGCCAGG  
CCAGACCGACAAACTGCAGAGCAGCTGTGGGTCCGCCCCGGCTATTTCAGGACAAAATGGCTGCCGTTG  
CGCCGCACCTGGATCTGACCGTCGACTACGGCTGGCTGTGGTTCATCTCCAACCGCTGTTCAAGCTG  
CTGAAATTCATCCACAGCTTCCCTCGGCAACTGGGGCTTCTCGATCATCGTTATCACCTTTATCGTTCC  
TGGCATCATGTACCCGCTGACCAAAGCGCAGTACACCTCCATGGCGAAGATGCGCATGTCGACCGGA  
AGATTACGGCCATGCGTGAGCGTCTGGGCGACGATAAACAACGTCAAAGCCAGGAGATGATGGCGCTG  
TATAAAGCGGAAAAAGTAAACCCGCTGGGCGGCTGCTTCCCGCTGATTATTCAGATGCCGATCTTCCCT  
TGCGCTGTACTACATGCTGAGCGCTCGGTTGAACTGCGTCATGCGCCGTTTATCCTGTGGATCCACG  
ACCTGTCTGCTCAGGACCCGTACTACATCCTGCCGATCATCATGGGCGCGACCATGTTCTTCATCCAG  
AAGATGTCGCGGACCACCGTGACCGACCCGATGCAGCAGAAGATCATGACCTTTATGCCGGTCATCTT  
CACGGTGTTCCTTCTGTGGTTCCCGTCTGGCCTGGTGGTGTACTACATCGTCAGCAACCTGGTCACCA  
TTATTACAGCAGCAGCTGATTTACCGTGGTCTGGAGAAACGTGGCCTGCATAGCCGCGAGAAGAAGAAA  
TCCTGATactcttcaattcttcaagcccagatgcggttgcttcattagttcgcgccagtcacttacta  
cagtaagctcctggggcccactaacttgccgcctttctgcaacttgaattatctcgagtatctacgg  
tagcgttaatgccagagaaggcggcgaatggaccgccttttttacatctacatagagagtcaccATGA  
GCCATAACGACACTATCGTCGCCCAGGCAACCCCTCCGGGACCGGGGGTGTGGGCATCCTGCGTATC  
TCCGGCCTTAAGGCGCGACGTGCGCAGGCGGTGCTGGGCAAGCTGCCGAAGCCGCGCTATGCCGA  
CTACCTGCCGTTCAACGACGTTGACGGTACCCCGCTGGATCAGGGGATTGCGCTGTGGTTCCCCCGGGC  
CGAACTCCTTTACCGGGGAAGATGTGCTTGAGCTGCAGGGCCACGGCGGCCCGGTCATTCTCGACCTG  
CTGCTTAAACGTATTTGACCCTGCCGGCCCTGCGCATCGCCAGGCCGGGTGAGTTTTCCGAGCGCGC  
GTTCCCTCAACGACAAGCTCGATCTGGCGCAGGCAGAGGCCATCGCCGACCTTATCGACGCCAGTTCAG  
AGCAGGCGGCGCGCTCGGCGCTgaattc

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## APPENDIX B

### Antibacterial Effects and Toxicity Testing of MTA and MTA Analogs.

A number of MTA analogs (figure B.1), initially studied as inhibitors of MTA/SAN nucleosidase [1], were examined in an effort to correlate enzyme-inhibitory effect with antibacterial activity. In addition, the effect of these analogs against isolated low density bone marrow cells was investigated to gain a preliminary insight into their possible toxicity against eukaryotic cells.

The antibacterial activities of MTA and its analogs were measured against cultures of *E. coli* (ATCC #25922), a standard reference strain used for antibiotic testing. Assays were conducted in 96-well plates containing minimal media [2] supplemented with 11 non-essential amino acids and vitamins (Gibco/BRL) (Min<sup>++</sup> media) and various concentrations of drug (final conc.= 0-100 $\mu$ M). *E. coli* cells from an overnight culture (grown in Min<sup>++</sup> media) were diluted in Min<sup>++</sup> to yield 1-2 x 10<sup>3</sup> cells/10 $\mu$ l. Assays were initiated with the addition of 10 $\mu$ l diluted cells/ well (200 $\mu$ l total volume/ well), and incubated with gentle agitation at 37°C until the OD<sub>540</sub>  $\approx$  0.3. Optical density readings were performed on a Bio-Tek microplate autoreader (Model EL309). Inhibitory effects were determined by comparing average optical density readings for treated wells with untreated controls. Drug concentrations required to yield a 50% reduction in growth (IC<sub>50</sub>) were estimated by non-linear regression analysis. Estimated IC<sub>50</sub> values and effects of 100 $\mu$ M drug concentrations on the growth of *E. coli* cells are presented in Table B.1.

The effect of MTA and various analogs were measured on bone marrow cells derived from healthy adult volunteers. Low density bone marrow cells (CFU-GM) were

isolated by density gradient centrifugation on ficoll, and plated in semi-solid agarose medium containing various concentrations of drug, supplemented with human placenta conditioned media (HPCM) to stimulate colony formation [3]. Plates ( $\sim 2 \times 10^5$  CFU GM's/ 50mm plate) were incubated in a humidified 37°C incubation chamber containing 5% CO<sub>2</sub>/95% air. Colony formation was assessed on day 12 by inspection of the plate under a dissecting microscope. Inhibition of HPCM stimulated growth was calculated by comparing the average colony number present on drug-treated versus untreated plates. IC<sub>50</sub> values were estimated from non-linear regression analysis of the averages of 3 experiments (Table B.2).

The results of these studies demonstrate that only MTT (IC<sub>50</sub>  $\approx$  55 $\mu$ M) exhibit significant antibacterial activity. The remaining compounds were not particularly effective against *E. coli*, in spite of generally good inhibitory activities (IC<sub>50</sub>'s <1 $\mu$ M) against MTA/SAH nucleosidase (Chapter 4). 5'-(*p*-Nitrophenyl)thioadenosine, a nucleoside with potent *in vitro* inhibitory activities against the enzyme (K<sub>i</sub> = 20nM), exerted significant activity against *E. coli* only at high concentrations (41% inhibition at 100 $\mu$ M). The physiological cause for the insensitivity of *E. coli* to MTA analogs is unclear, but may reflect poor cellular transport of these compounds, or rapid hydrolysis by the nucleosidase upon entry into the cell.

Human bone marrow cells were generally more sensitive than *E. coli* to the thionucleosides tested here. The effects of MTA, MTT, and pIPhTA, were particularly striking with IC<sub>50</sub> values in the 30-45 $\mu$ M range. MTA is known to be transported into mammalian cells [4, 5], where it can exert inhibitory effects on (a)SAH hydrolase [6], (b) DNA and protein methylation [7-9], and (c) polyamine biosynthesis [10, 11]. Presumably, MTA in our experiments is inhibiting HPCM stimulated GM-Cl proliferation by one or all of these mechanisms. MTT is probably functioning similarly to MTA, as well as acting as an inhibitor of MTA phosphorylase [12, 13]. The effects of

*para* substituted aryl-thionucleosides presented here have not been studied previously.

**Table B.1.** Sensitivity of *E. coli* strain #25922 to MTA and MTA Analogs\*.

Drug	Abbrev.	Inhibitory Effect on Growth	
		% Inhibition at 100 $\mu$ M	Estimated IC <sub>50</sub> ( $\mu$ M)
5'-Methylthioadenosine	MTA	22 %	>100
5'-Methylthiotubercidin	MTT	73 %	55
5'-Aryl-substituted MTA analogs:			
5'-Phenylthioadenosine	PhTA	37 %	>100
5'-( <i>p</i> -Fluorophenyl)thioadenosine	pFPhTA	32 %	>100
5'-( <i>p</i> -Chlorophenyl)thioadenosine	pClPhTA	17 %	>100
5'-( <i>p</i> -Bromophenyl)thioadenosine	pBrPhTA	21 %	>100
5'-( <i>p</i> -Iodophenyl)thioadenosine	pIPhTA	13 %	>100
5'-( <i>p</i> -Aminophenyl)thioadenosine	pAPhTA	7 %	>100
5'-( <i>p</i> -Nitrophenyl)thioadenosine	pNO <sub>2</sub> PhTA	41 %	>100

\*Values represent the average of 2-3 experiments (individual points determined triplicate).

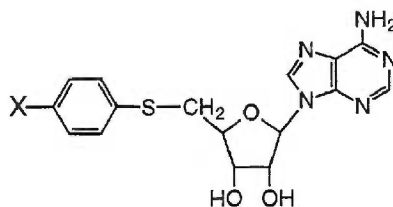
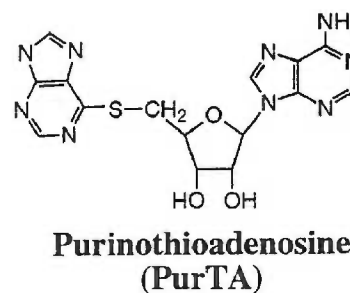
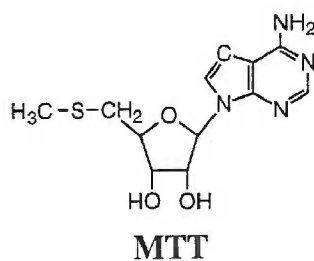
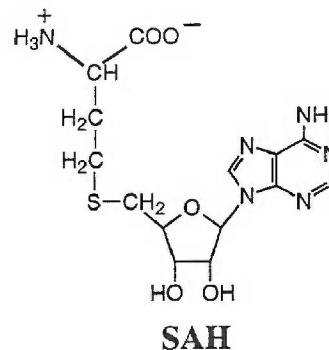
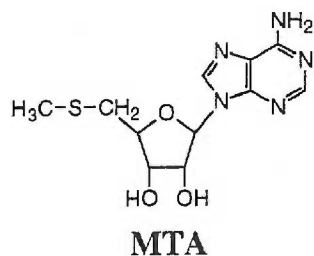
**Table B.2.** Sensitivity of HPMC Stimulated Bone Marrow Cells (CFU-GM) to MTA and MTA Analogs\*.

Drug	Abbrev.	Inhibitory Effect on Growth	
		% Inhibition at 100μM	Estimated IC <sub>50</sub> (μM)
5'-Methylthioadenosine	MTA	78 %	35
5'-Methylthiotubercidin	MTT	58 %	30
5'-(6-Purino)thioadenosine	PurTA	16 %	>100
5'-Aryl-substituted MTA analogs:			
5'-Phenylthioadenosine	PhTA	16 %	>100
5'-( <i>p</i> -Fluorophenyl)thioadenosine	pPhTA	23 %	>100
5'-( <i>p</i> -Chlorophenyl)thioadenosine	pClPhTA	60 %	72
5'-( <i>p</i> -Bromophenyl)thioadenosine	pBrPhTA	67 %	84
5'-( <i>p</i> -Iodophenyl)thioadenosine	pIPhTA	83 %	45
5'-( <i>p</i> -Aminophenyl)thioadenosine	pAPhTA	21 %	>100
5'-( <i>p</i> -Nitrophenyl)thioadenosine	pNO <sub>2</sub> PhTA	45 %	>100

\*Values represent the average of 3-4 experiments (individual points determined triplicate).

**Figure B.1.** The chemical structures of MTA, SAH and related analogs.

## MTA, SAH & Analogs



### *para*-substituted Phenylthioadenosine

Compound	Abbrev.	X
5'-Phenylthioadenosine	<b>PhTA</b>	H
5'-( <i>p</i> -Fluorophenyl)thioadenosine	<b>pFPhTA</b>	F
5'-( <i>p</i> -Chlorophenyl)thioadenosine	<b>pClPhTA</b>	Cl
5'-( <i>p</i> -Bromophenyl)thioadenosine	<b>pBrPhTA</b>	Br
5'-( <i>p</i> -Iodophenyl)thioadenosine	<b>pIPhTA</b>	I
5'-( <i>p</i> -Aminophenyl)thioadenosine	<b>pAPhTA</b>	NH <sub>3</sub> <sup>+</sup>
5'-( <i>p</i> -Nitrophenyl)thioadenosine	<b>pNO<sub>2</sub>PhTA</b>	NO <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup>



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## APPENDIX C

### Development of Anti-MTA/SAH Nucleosidase Specific Monoclonal Antibodies & Immunoprecipitation Studies.

Monoclonal antibodies specific for *E. coli* MTA/SAH nucleosidase (MTAN) were developed in order to provide additional tools for use in protein purification, immunoprecipitation, and expression library screening. Purified recombinant glutathione S-transferase-MTAN fusion protein (GST-MTAN, Chapter 3)[1] in Freund's complete antigen (CFA) was used as the antigen for the initial immunization of five Balb/C mice. Mice were boosted by immunization with GST-MTAN in Freund's incomplete antigen (IFA) on days 30 and 60. The development of an immune response was followed by serum reactivity on Western blots of GST-MTAN. Ten days after the final immunization, spleens from immunized animals were harvested and hybridomas developed by polyethylene glycol fusion of splenic lymphocytes to Sp2/0 myeloma cells [2, 3]. Hybridomas were cloned into medium supplemented with epithelial cell growth supplement (ECGS) [4]. Clones secreting antibodies specific for the nucleosidase were selected based on ELISA results against GST-MTAN (and lack of reactivity against GST alone).

Eight hybridomas were selected after several isolations by limiting dilution (Table C.1). Antibody isotyping using a Hyclone<sup>®</sup> (Logan, UT) mouse sub-isotyping ELISA kit revealed that the eight monoclonals represented four different immunoglobulin subclasses (IgA, IgG<sub>1</sub>, IgG<sub>2A</sub>, and IgG<sub>2B</sub>). The clone R8B2.4.1 (isotype IgG<sub>2</sub>) showed good reactivity for the nucleosidase by both ELISA and Western blotting (Figure 4.3B), and was selected for further expansion and antibody purification. R8B2.4

antibodies from hybridoma cell culture supernatants were purified by affinity chromatography on protein A-Sepharose, and immobilized on CNBr-activated Sepharose by cross-linkage with dimethylpimelimidate [5]. Immobilized R8B2.4.1 was used for immunoaffinity chromatography of recombinant MTA/SAH nucleosidase (rMTAN) and a truncated enzyme (rMTAN-8) (Chapter 4).

The possible utility of R8B2.4.1 in purification of nucleosidases from a number of organisms was examined by immunoprecipitation studies performed with the immobilized antibody. Cell lysates (1-3 mg protein) from eight different organisms were incubated with 50µl R8B2.4.1-beads for 24 hours at 4°C. After extensive washing, bound nucleosidase was eluted with low pH buffer (100mM glycine, pH 2.5), neutralized with Tris, and enzyme activity (hydrolytic or phosphorylytic) assayed using the standard protocol (Chapter 4). The results in Figure C.1 demonstrate that the monoclonal antibody may be useful in the purification of nucleosidases from a number of bacterial and low eukaryotic species. All five bacterial species (*E. coli*, *S. typhimurium*, *K. pneumoniae*, *E. aerogenes*, *S. aureus*) showed large increases in enzyme specific activity in the affinity eluates. In addition, the antibody was able to precipitate enzyme activity from lysates of two nucleosidase-containing protozoans, *Entamoeba invadens* and *Ochromonas malhamensis*. In contrast, the antibody failed to immunoprecipitate enzyme activity from lysates of *Candida albicans*, despite it having the highest specific activity in the crude lysate. It should be noted that *Candida albicans* was the only MTA phosphorylase containing species tested.

The results of the immunoprecipitation study indicate that the antibody developed against the *E. coli* enzyme cross-reacts significantly with epitopes on the other microbial nucleosidases, supporting the possibility that the nucleosidases from the various organisms contain highly conserved regions. The lack of immunoreactivity exhibited by the fungal phosphorylase is not entirely unexpected considering the differences between

the primary and quaternary structures reported for MTA phosphorylases and MTA/SA nucleosidases [1, 6-12]. MTA phosphorylases have generally been reported to exist as homotrimers, with near neutral isoelectric points ( $pI \approx 6.8$ ), whereas MTA/SA nucleosidase functions as a monomer with an acidic isoelectric point ( $pI \approx 5.0$ ). In addition, relatively small amino acid sequence homologies are apparent between the human MTA phosphorylase and *E. coli* nucleosidase (Chapter 3).

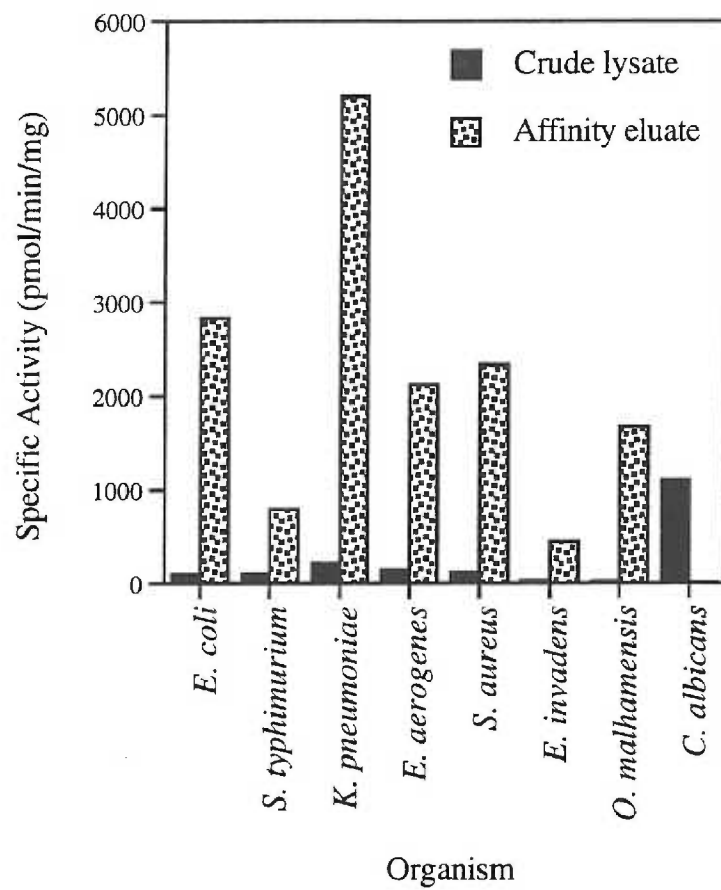
In summary, monoclonal antibodies were developed against the *E. coli* MTA/SA nucleosidase which show some promise in being useful in the purification and study of nucleosidases from a variety of other microbes. Initial indications are that the monoclonals will not recognize MTA phosphorylases, although only one antibody (of eight) and one phosphorylase (from *Candida*) were examined. Future efforts with the antibodies generated here will focus on exploring their ability to be used in screening expression libraries of various nucleosidase-containing pathogens.

**Table C.1.** Properties of monoclonal antibodies developed against *E. coli* MTA/SA nucleosidase.

MAb Designation	Isotype	Anti-gst reactivity	Anti-nucleosidase reactivity		
		ELISA	ELISA	Western	Immuno-precip.
R8B2.4.1	IgG <sub>2A</sub>	-	+	+	+
R3D4.6.1	IgG <sub>2B</sub>	-	+	+	nt
R3D4.6.3	IgG <sub>2B</sub>	-	+	+	nt
R3D4.6.6	IgG <sub>2B</sub>	-	+	+	nt
R1C4.6.4	IgA	-	+	+/-	nt
K6D6.3.2	IgG <sub>1</sub>	-	+	+/-	nt
K7A2.2.5	IgG <sub>1</sub>	-	+	+	nt
K7B3.6.5	IgG <sub>1</sub>	-	+	-	nt

(+) positive reactivity, (-) negative reactivity, (+/-) weak reactivity, (nt) not tested

**Figure C.1.** Immunoprecipitation of nucleosidase activity with immobilized R8B2.4 antibody. *E. coli*: *Escherichia coli*; *S. typhimurium*: *Salmonella typhimurium*; *K. pneumoniae*: *Klebsiella pneumoniae*; *E. aerogenes*: *Enterobacter aerogenes*; *S. aureus*: *Staphylococcus aureus*; *E. invadens*: *Entamoeba invadens*; *O. malhamensis*: *Ochromonas malhamensis*; *C. albicans*: *Candida albicans*.



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