

Promiscuous Catalytic Activity of a Binuclear Metallohydrolase: Peptide and Phosphoester Hydrolyses

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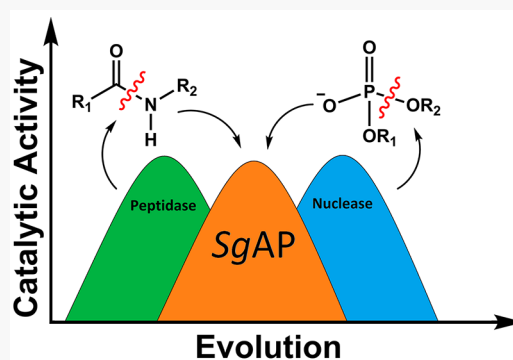
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ABSTRACT: In this study, chemical promiscuity of a binuclear metallohydrolase *Streptomyces griseus* aminopeptidase (SgAP) has been investigated using DFT calculations. SgAP catalyzes two diverse reactions, peptide and phosphoester hydrolyses, using its binuclear (Zn–Zn) core. On the basis of the experimental information, mechanisms of these reactions have been investigated utilizing leucine *p*-nitro aniline (Leu-*p*NA) and bis(4-nitrophenyl) phosphate (BNPP) as the substrates. The computed barriers of 16.5 and 16.8 kcal/mol for the most plausible mechanisms proposed by the DFT calculations are in good agreement with the measured values of 13.9 and 18.3 kcal/mol for the Leu-*p*NA and BNPP hydrolyses, respectively. The former was found to occur through the transfer of two protons, while the latter with only one proton transfer. They are in line with the experimental observations. The cleavage of the peptide bond was the rate-determining process for the Leu-*p*NA hydrolysis.

However, the creation of the nucleophile and its attack on the electrophile phosphorus atom was the rate-determining step for the BNPP hydrolysis. These calculations showed that the chemical nature of the substrate and its binding mode influence the nucleophilicity of the metal bound hydroxyl nucleophile. Additionally, the nucleophilicity was found to be critical for the Leu-*p*NA hydrolysis, whereas double Lewis acid activation was needed for the BNPP hydrolysis. That could be one of the reasons why peptide hydrolysis can be catalyzed by both mononuclear and binuclear metal cofactors containing hydrolases, while phosphoester hydrolysis is almost exclusively by binuclear metallohydrolases. These results will be helpful in the development of versatile catalysts for chemically distinct hydrolytic reactions.



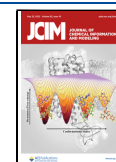
INTRODUCTION

The peptide ($-(O=)C-NH-$) and phosphoester ($((O=)-(RO)(RO)(P-O-R))$) bonds are ubiquitous in a wide range of biologically, industrially, and environmentally relevant molecules such as peptides, proteins, deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA), pharmaceuticals, pesticides, and nerve agents.^{1–27} Consequently, their hydrolyses have been implicated in a wide range of critical applications like protein engineering, genomics, therapeutics, DNA repair, and remediation of pesticides and nerve agents.^{28–40} However, these bonds are extremely stable, and the half-lives for the hydrolyses of peptide and phosphoester bonds are 350–600 and $\sim 130,000$ years, respectively, at room temperature and pH 4–8.^{41,42} In nature, these bonds are hydrolyzed by highly specialized mononuclear and binuclear metal center containing enzymes that depending on the nature of the scissile bond and substrate are categorized as proteases/peptidases or phosphatases/nucleases and are generally known as metallohydrolases.^{5–7,15,43–57} They display significant structural diversity in terms of amino acid sequence, nature of metal ions, ligand environment, and second coordination shell residues. It is noteworthy that metalloproteases contain either a mononuclear or binuclear metal cofactor,^{58,59} while metallophosphatases exclusively possess a binuclear metal cofactor.^{21,60–63}

Almost all members of these distinct classes of enzymes exhibit bond selectivity and perform either peptide or phosphoester hydrolysis of their substrates. One of the major factors for this selectivity is the structural similarity of the *gem*-diolate transition state formed in peptide hydrolysis with the tetrahedral phosphocenter created in the phosphoester hydrolysis. Therefore, the later motif has been commonly utilized in the design of inhibitors for proteases/peptidases.⁶⁴ However, *Streptomyces griseus* aminopeptidase (SgAP) is a novel enzyme that exhibits exceptional catalytic promiscuity by hydrolyzing both peptide and phosphoester bonds with remarkable efficiency.^{65,66} Although an aminopeptidase, it is capable of accelerating the first-order hydrolysis of the phosphodiester bis(4-nitrophenyl) phosphate (BNPP), commonly used model for DNA (Figure 1), by 10^{10} -fold in comparison to the uncatalyzed reaction.^{65,67} This is one of the

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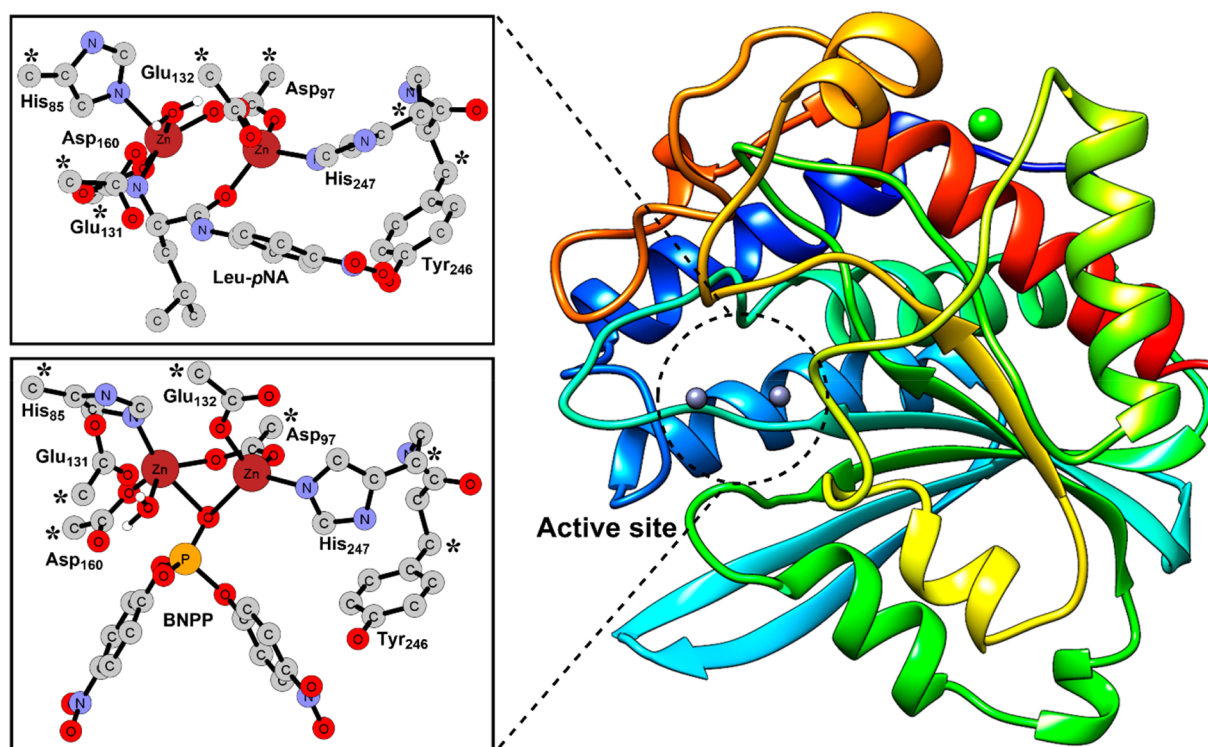
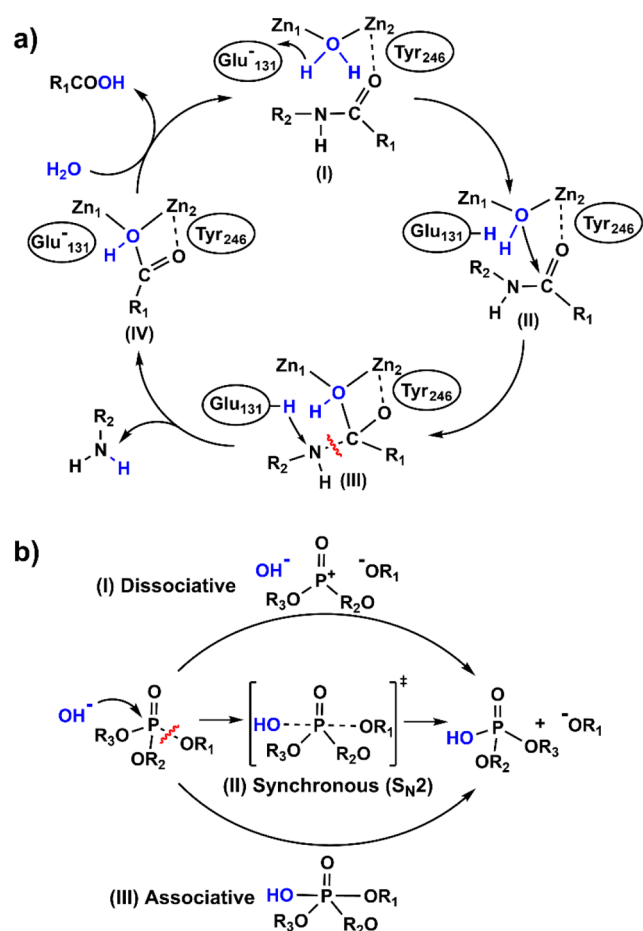


Figure 1. Leu-pNA and BNPP substrate-bound structures of SgAP. The atoms displayed with the asterisk symbol were kept frozen in DFT calculations.

rare examples in which an aminopeptidase hydrolyzes its transition state analogue, a phosphoester, at an enormous rate. In general, members of this family cleave peptide bonds from the N-terminal of their substrates and are classified as “broad” or “narrow” depending on their substrate specificities.^{68,69} Aminopeptidases such as methionine aminopeptidases (MAP)^{70,71} and proline aminopeptidases (PAP) are classified as “narrow” for being able to selectively cleave peptide bonds of a specific amino acid, N-terminal Met or Pro, of the substrates. On the other hand, other peptidases such as bovine lens leucine aminopeptidase (BILAP)⁷² and *Aeromonas proteolytica* aminopeptidase (AAP)⁷³ are classified as “broad” for being able to cleave peptides bonds formed by a wide range of hydrophobic amino acid residues of their substrates.

SgAP isolated from the extracellular fluid of *S. griseus* cultures belongs to the family of “broad” range aminopeptidases.^{74,75} It is a monomeric enzyme of relatively low molecular weight (30 kDa), is heat stable, and displays high and efficient catalytic turnovers. It also exhibits a preference for large hydrophobic N-terminus residues. It was the fourth aminopeptidase to have its structure determined through X-ray crystallography.^{76,77} In particular, structures in the di-Zn, apo, and Hg-substituted forms of SgAP have been resolved at 1.75, 2.1, and 2.1 Å resolution, respectively.⁷⁸ Additionally, cocrystal structures of SgAP with methionine, leucine, and phenylalanine residues, all weak inhibitors of the enzyme, are available at 1.53, 1.70, and 1.80 Å resolution, respectively.^{79,80} In the catalytically active binuclear core of the enzyme, two Zn²⁺ ions are separated by 3.6 Å. In these metal centers, each Zn²⁺ ion is coordinated to one imidazole group (Zn₁ to His₈₅ and Zn₂ to His₂₄₇) and one carboxylate group (Zn₁ to Asp₁₆₀ and Zn₂ to Glu₁₃₂) (Figure 1). Additionally, one carboxylate group (Asp₉₇) bridges both metal ions.

The general acid–base mechanisms of peptide and phosphoester hydrolyses are quite different from each other (Scheme 1a). A mechanism for peptide hydrolysis by SgAP was proposed using a plethora of experimental techniques such as X-ray crystallography, site-directed mutagenesis, solvent isotope effects, pH profiling, and enzymatic inhibition and molecular dynamics (MD) simulations.^{66,67,81–83} On the basis of fluoride binding experiments, a noncompetitive inhibitor of SgAP under different pH conditions (5.9–8.0), the water/hydroxide molecule, was proposed to bind to both metal ions in a bridging fashion.⁸³ However, the fluoride ion was also reported to act as an uncompetitive inhibitor which suggested a terminal binding of the water/hydroxide molecule to a single metal ion.⁸⁴ According to the proposed mechanism, in the reactant (I), the carbonyl group of the substrate coordinates to the Zn₂ site and increases the coordination number of the metal ion to 5. The interactions of the substrate with Zn₂ and Tyr₂₄₆ enhance the electrophilicity of its carbonyl carbon atom. In the first step, the Glu₁₃₁ functions as a base and creates the Zn₁ bound hydroxyl nucleophile (II). In the next step, this nucleophile attacks the electrophilic carbon atom of the substrate and creates a tetrahedral *gem*-diolate intermediate (III). This intermediate is stabilized by the Zn₂ ion and Tyr₂₄₆. In the last step, a proton transfer from Glu₁₃₁ to the N-terminal amine group of the substrate collapses this intermediate which separates the amine and the carboxylic acid (IV). The roles of Glu₁₃₁ and Tyr₂₄₆ in the mechanism were suggested by site-directed mutagenesis experiments.⁸¹ The Glu₁₃₁Ala mutation caused approximately a 4 to 5 orders of magnitude decrease in k_{cat} but did not significantly affect K_{m} , which supported its role as a general base. On the other hand, the Tyr₂₄₆(Ser, Ala, or Phe) mutations resulted in about a 100-fold reduction of

Scheme 1. General Acid–Base Mechanism of Peptide (a) and Phosphoester (b) Hydrolyses

activity that suggested its involvement in stabilization of the enzyme–substrate complex.

In contrast to the aforementioned experimental information available for the peptide hydrolysis, very little is known about the mechanism of phosphoester hydrolysis catalyzed by SgAP. In general, this reaction has been proposed to occur through three distinct mechanisms shown in the More O'Ferrall–Jencks diagram (Scheme 1b):⁸⁵ (I) Dissociative or elimination–addition mechanism: This proceeds via a trigonal metaphosphate intermediate, and the release of the leaving group (R_1O^-) precedes the formation of a bond between the phosphate and nucleophile (OH^-P^+). (II) Dissociative associative or synchronous mechanism: This S_N2 type mechanism proceeds through the simultaneous formation and cleavage of the phosphoester bonds. (III) Associative or addition–elimination mechanism: This mechanism takes place via a pentavalent phosphorane intermediate formed by the attacking nucleophile. It has been observed that phosphodiester hydrolysis occurs through either the synchronous or associative mechanisms, and a fully dissociative mechanism has not yet been observed.^{75,86} In general, binuclear metallohydrolases have been reported to utilize one of these mechanisms depending on the chemical nature of the substrate.^{15,54,75,86–100}

The thermostability of SgAP allowed the determination of the rate of the reaction at a wide range of temperature (20–60 °C) for multiple substrates.^{66,67,83} The kinetic and thermody-

namic parameters for the hydrolysis of different amino acid (Gly, Met, Val, Ala, Lys)–*p*NA (para-nitro aniline) analogues and BNPP by SgAP were measured.⁶⁶ Among them, Leu-*p*NA was found to be the fastest substrate for this enzyme ($k_{cat} = 657 \pm 54 \text{ s}^{-1}$, $\Delta G^\ddagger = 13.9 \pm 0.1 \text{ kcal/mol}$). However, SgAP also exhibited a significant activity toward BNPP hydrolysis ($k_{cat} = 0.42 \pm 0.01 \text{ s}^{-1}$, $\Delta G^\ddagger = 18.3 \text{ kcal/mol}$). On the basis of the measured thermodynamic parameters, it was suggested that the hydrolyses of peptides and BNPP involve similar chemical interactions at the rate-determining step. However, proton transfer steps are different in these reactions. Peptide hydrolysis involves necessarily at least two-proton transfer steps, while BNPP hydrolysis may involve only one. The solvent isotope effect experiments⁸³ also confirmed two-proton transfer steps in Leu-*p*NA hydrolysis at pH 6.5. It was concluded that the rate-determining step is pH dependent. The deprotonation of the Zn-bound water molecule exerts a greater effect on the reaction rate than the protonation of the peptide bond nitrogen by Glu₁₃₁ at pH 6.5, while at pH > 8 the collapse of the *gem*-diolate intermediate becomes the rate-determining step in a single-proton transfer process.

Despite the availability of the aforementioned experimental information, there remain the following outstanding questions regarding the functioning of this interesting enzyme. What are the binding modes of peptide and phosphoester substrates? Does the water/hydroxyl nucleophile coordinate in either a bridging or terminal fashion to the binuclear core? Which metal site (Zn₁ or Zn₂) is the most suitable to generate the hydroxyl nucleophile from a water molecule? What is the exact mechanism for phosphoester hydrolysis? What are the effects of Lewis acid and nucleophile activation in these reactions? In this study, all these questions have been addressed using DFT calculations. They will also elucidate why peptide hydrolysis can be catalyzed by both mononuclear and binuclear cofactors containing metallohydrolases, while phosphoester hydrolysis can be catalyzed by only binuclear metallohydrolases. The results gleaned from these calculations will provide deeper insights into the unique chemical promiscuity exhibited by SgAP which may also be relevant to other metalloenzymes. They will help us derive guiding principles for the rational design of versatile catalysts for diverse hydrolytic reactions.

COMPUTATIONAL DETAILS

Computational Modeling. The model of the enzyme active site was built from the available high resolution (1.75 Å) X-ray structure (PDB ID: 1XJO).⁷⁴ Among all the X-ray structures available for this enzyme, it contained the natural binuclear Zn–Zn metal core and a phosphate analogue of the substrate. The Leu-*p*NA dipeptide and BNPP phosphodiester were used as the substrates. Their charges and electrostatic potentials (ESP) were computed at the B3LYP/6-311G+(d,p) level of theory using Gaussian 16 software.¹⁰¹ The force field parameters of both substrates were then developed using antechamber, an in-built tool in the AMBER software package.¹⁰² The enzyme–substrate models were built through molecular docking using AutoDock Vina 1.5.6 software.¹⁰³ In the rigid docking protocol used here, the structure of the enzyme was kept fixed, but the substrates were allowed to adopt any conformations. This procedure provided 20 poses each for both substrates. They were ranked on the basis of their energies. The three poses with the lowest energies for each substrate were selected for the further energy minimizations. They were subsequently solvated in a cubic

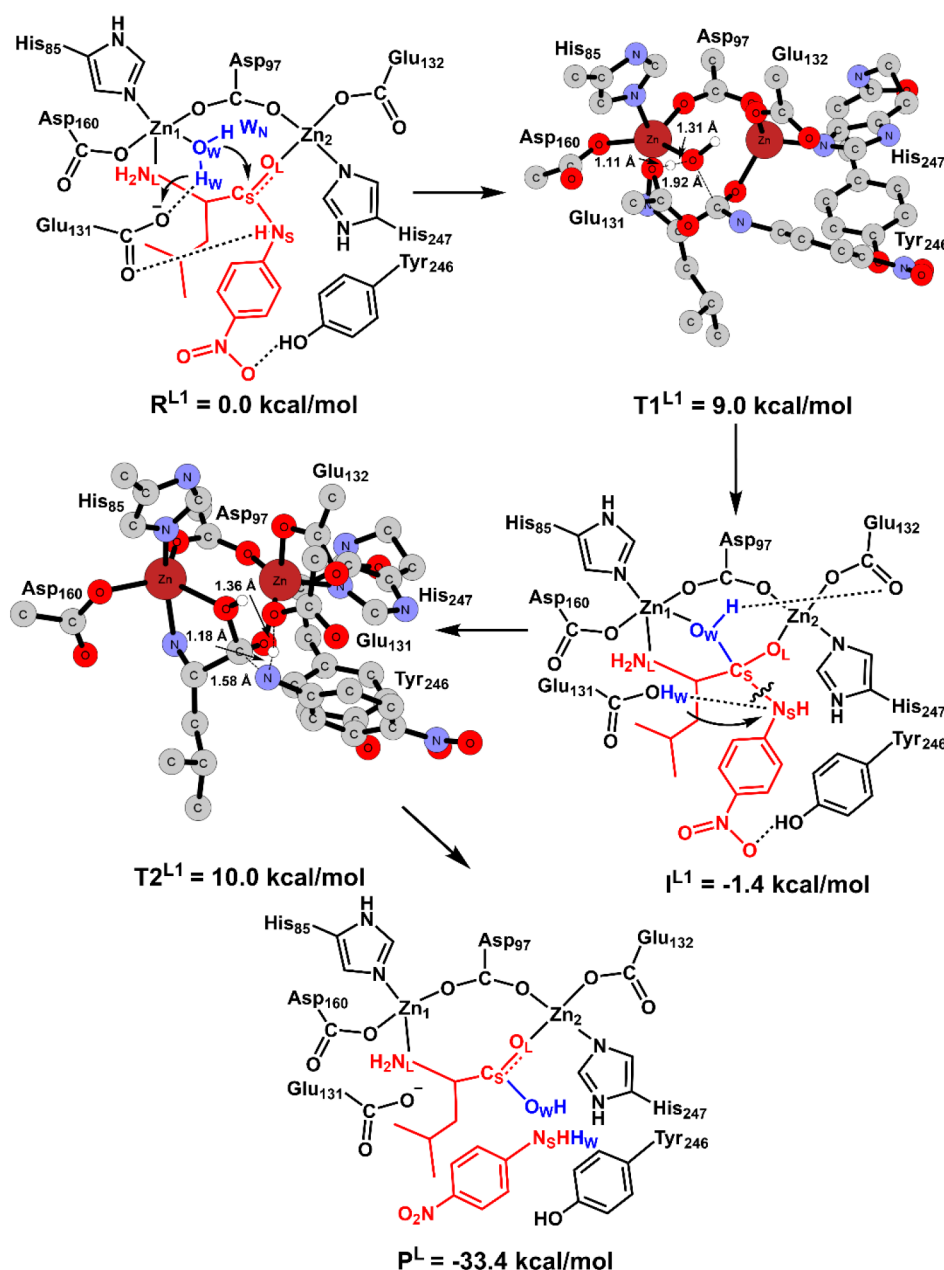


Figure 2. Mechanism of the Leu-pNA hydrolysis in the M1^L pathway.

10 nm × 10 nm × 10 nm box using the TIP3P water molecules.^{104–106} The shortest distance from the surface of the protein to the edge of the box was 1.0 nm. The total charge of the system was neutralized by the addition of Na⁺ and Cl[−] ions to mimic the physiological concentration (0.154 M). Electrostatic interactions were calculated using the particle mesh Ewald method, and a cutoff of 1.2 nm was set for both van der Waals and Coulombic interactions. Energy minimization of the initial structures were performed for 3000 steps using the steepest descent algorithm.

The equilibrated structures of the enzyme–substrate complexes were then used to build the truncated models for the DFT calculations. They include both metal ions (Zn₁ and Zn₂) and all the first coordination shell residues bound to Zn₁ (Asp₉₇, Glu₁₃₂, and His₂₄₇) and Zn₂ (His₈₅, Asp₉₇, and Asp₁₆₀) (Figure 1). The Asp₉₇ residue bridges both metals and keep their coordination number to 4 in the absence of the substrate

and the nucleophile. The second coordination shell residues (Glu₁₃₁ and Tyr₂₄₆) relevant to the catalytic mechanisms were also incorporated in the model. There are four charged Glu/Asp residues in this model. Among them, three (Asp₂₇, Asp₁₆₀, and Glu₁₃₂) coordinate directly with the binuclear metal center. The fourth (Glu₁₃₁ base) formed hydrogen bonds with the metal bound water and substrate. Therefore, the effect of the neighboring residues around charged catalytic residues in this enzyme is expected to be small and not likely to influence the computed energetics. On the basis of these considerations, this model should be adequate to investigate the mechanism of this reaction.^{107,108}

To retain the steric effect of the surrounding protein in the active site, the carbon atom leading to the backbone of these residues was constrained in its position from the equilibrated structure (Figure 1). Therefore, Asp₉₇, Glu₁₃₁, Glu₁₃₂, and Asp₁₆₀ were treated as acetate ions, while His₈₅ was treated as

5-methylimidazole. The backbones of the second coordination shell (Tyr₂₄₆ and His₂₄₇ residues) were included in the model. The overall charges of the models used for Leu-pNA and BNPP hydrolyses were 0 and −1, respectively and they all existed in the singlet spin state.

Computational Procedure. The geometries of all structures were optimized using the Gaussian 16 software package using the MPW1PW91 functional.¹⁰⁹ The 6-31G+(d) basis set was used for all atoms except P and Zn. The P atom was treated using the 6-311G(d,p) basis set and Zn utilizing the Lanl2dz basis set with the corresponding Hay–Wadt effective core potential.^{110–115} The dispersion effects were included using the Grimme's function with the Becke–Johnson damping effect (GD3BJ).¹¹⁶ The energies of the optimized structures were improved by performing single point calculations using the Lanl2tz basis set for Zn and the 6-311G+(d,p) basis set of triple- ζ quality for the remaining atoms. The solvation effects were included using the polarizable continuum model (IEFPCM).^{117,118} In these calculations, diethyl ether ($\epsilon = 4.3$) was used to incorporate the hydrophobic environment of the protein active site. Hessians were calculated at the same level of theory as the optimizations to confirm the nature of the stationary points along the reaction coordinate. The transition states were confirmed to have only one imaginary frequency corresponding to the reaction coordinates. Thermal, entropy, and zero-point vibrational corrections were added to the final energies at 298 K and 1 atm that included corrections due to frozen atoms. The energetically most feasible mechanism for each substrate was also investigated using the B3LYP¹¹⁹ and M06-2X¹²⁰ functionals, and the barrier differences between these functionals were found to be less than 1.0 kcal/mol. These small energy differences showed that computed energies for this system were not sensitive to the level of theory used in these calculations.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Enzyme–Substrate Interactions and Location of the Nucleophile. The Leu-pNA and BNPP substrates can bind in different modes to the binuclear metal core of SgAP. Additionally, the nucleophile-generating water molecule (W_N) can coordinate either terminally to Zn₁ or Zn₂ or in a bridging (μ - W_N) manner to both metal ions. All these different modes of the substrate and nucleophile binding created 12 distinct conformations for each substrate. Their structures and relative energies (in gas phase) for Leu-pNA and BNPP are shown in Figures S1 and S2, respectively.

Both functional groups (carbonyl and amine) of Leu-pNA can interact with the binuclear metal core. In the lowest energy conformation (R^{L2} in Figure S1) for this substrate, the amine group coordinates to Zn₁, while the carbonyl group to Zn₂. In R^{L2} , the W_N water is bound to Zn₂. The switching of W_N from Zn₂ to Zn₁, while retaining the conformation of Leu-pNA generates another structure (R^{L1}) that is 4.0 kcal/mol higher in energy. The conformation (R^{L3}) with a bridging water (μ - W_N) is even higher, i.e., 7.3 kcal/mol in comparison to R^{L2} . As shown in Figure S1, all other conformations are much higher in energy, and in many of them, the substrate loses its coordination to one of the metal sites.

For the BNPP substrate, one phosphate oxygen atom of BNPP bridges both Zn ions in the lowest energy conformation (R^{B1} in Figure S2). In R^{B1} , the W_N water is coordinated to Zn₁. This binding mode for BNPP resembles L-tryptophan and *p*-

iodo-L-phenylalanine inhibitors of SgAP.⁸² The switching of W_N to Zn₂ in R^{B1} creates another structure (R^{B2}) that is only 2.2 kcal/mol higher in energy from R^{B1} . The bridging μ -H₂O conformation for this substrate is significantly higher (13.8 kcal/mol) in energy than R^{B1} . All other structures in which BNPP is bound to either Zn₁ or Zn₂ with terminally coordinated W_N are much higher in energy than R^{B1} (Figure S2).

In this study, due to small energy differences and structural properties, the three (R^{L2} , R^{L1} , and R^{L3}) lowest and distinct conformations for Leu-pNA (Figures S1) and two (R^{B1} and R^{B2}) for BNPP (Figure S2) are used to investigate their hydrolysis. Since the nature of the nucleophile (H₂O or −OH) is not known, an additional structure with the bridging hydroxyl group is also utilized for both substrates.

Peptide (Leu-pNA) Hydrolysis. Since Leu-pNA has been reported as the fastest substrate of SgAP,⁶⁶ it is used to study peptide hydrolysis. Depending on the binding site and nature of the nucleophile (H₂O or OH), the Leu-pNA hydrolysis can occur through the four potential ($M1^L$, $M2^L$, $M12^L$, and $M12^{LOH}$) pathways discussed below.

$M1^L$ Pathway. In the reactant (R^{L1}) of this pathway, the Leu-pNA substrate interacts with Zn₁ and Zn₂ through its amine and carbonyl groups, respectively, and W_N water (HO_WH_W) is coordinated only to Zn₁ ($Zn_1-O_W = 2.16$ Å, $Zn_1-N_L = 2.15$ Å, $Zn_2-O_L = 2.00$ Å, and $Zn_1-Zn_2 = 3.82$ Å in Figure 2 and Table 1). In this binding mode, the carbonyl bond (C_S-O_L) of Leu-pNA elongates by 0.04 Å, and consequently, the scissile peptide (C_S-N_S) bond shrinks by 0.03 Å in comparison to the corresponding bond in its free form. These changes suggest the absence of Lewis acid activation of the peptide bond in this structure. On the other hand, Zn₁ bound W_N becomes more acidic; i.e., its O_W-H_W bond length increases to 1.02 Å. Metallohydrolases are generally known to drastically decrease the ionization constant of the metal-coordinated water by greater than 10⁸-fold, i.e., $pK_a = 14$ to ~ 7 .^{121,122} The pK_a of 6 obtained by kinetic measurements correlates well with a terminal Zn-bound water in SgAP⁶⁶ and other Zn-containing hydrolases.^{123,124} This substrate binding mode is also stabilized by a hydrogen bond with Tyr₂₄₆. In the first step of this mechanism, as proposed experimentally,⁸¹ Glu₁₃₁ acts as a general base and generates the nucleophile (O_WH) from W_N through an abstraction of its H_W proton. This process occurs concomitantly with the nucleophilic attack by the $-O_WH$ group to the electrophilic carbon atom (C_S) of the scissile peptide bond to form the gem-diolate intermediate (I^{L1} in Figure 2). From R^{L1} , this concerted step takes place with a barrier of 9.0 kcal/mol through transition state ($T1^{L1}$ in Figure 2). The I^{L1} intermediate formed in this process is slightly exergonic (1.4 kcal/mol), and in this structure, the nucleophile is attached to both Zn₁ and C_S to form a five-membered ring. The sum of the internal angles of this ring in I^{L1} is 493°. As suggested by the site-directed mutagenesis experiments,⁸¹ this intermediate is stabilized through a hydrogen bond by Tyr₂₄₆. In comparison to R^{L1} , the Zn_1-Zn_2 distance becomes shorter by 0.07 Å, and the scissile C_S-N_S bond in I^{L1} is significantly activated by 0.11 Å ($C_S-N_S = 1.46$ Å, Table 1). In the next step, Glu₁₃₁ switches its function to an acid and donates its previously acquired proton (H_W) to the N_S atom to cleave the scissile C_S-N_S bond. This process takes place with a barrier of 11.4 kcal/mol from I^{L1} . As proposed experimentally, the Leu-pNA hydrolysis is found to take place through a two-proton transfer process.^{66,83}

Table 1. Key Bond Distances (in Å) in Reactants, Transition States, Intermediates, and Products in Leu-*p*-NA Hydrolysis

M1 ^L	R ^{L1}	T1 ^{L1}	I ^{L1}	T2 ^{L1}	P ^L	–	–
Zn ₁ –Zn ₂	3.82	3.70	3.75	3.51	3.96	–	–
Zn ₁ –O _W	2.16	2.14	2.57	2.31	4.40	–	–
Zn ₂ –O _W	3.27	2.92	3.06	2.71	3.31	–	–
O _W –H _W	1.02	1.31	1.45	2.35	6.24	–	–
Glu ₁₃₁ –H _W	1.63	1.11	1.05	1.36	1.64	–	–
Zn ₁ –N _L	2.15	2.18	2.12	2.12	2.12	–	–
Zn ₂ –O _L	2.00	1.98	1.94	1.97	2.00	–	–
O _W –C _S	3.50	1.92	1.50	1.48	1.30	–	–
C _S –N _S	1.35	1.41	1.46	1.58	6.84	–	–
M2 ^L	R ^{L2}	T1 ^{L2}	I ^{L2}	T2 ^{L2}	P ^L	–	–
Zn ₁ –Zn ₂	3.90	3.79	3.73	3.73	3.96	–	–
Zn ₁ –O _W	4.84	4.11	4.20	3.84	3.31	–	–
Zn ₂ –O _W	2.21	2.18	3.13	2.23	4.40	–	–
O _W –H _W	1.02	1.39	1.50	2.34	6.24	–	–
Glu ₁₃₁ –H _W	1.62	1.11	1.06	1.43	1.64	–	–
Zn ₁ –N _L	2.10	2.09	2.10	2.10	2.12	–	–
Zn ₂ –O _L	2.15	2.13	2.03	2.10	2.00	–	–
O _W –C _S	2.93	1.91	1.56	1.44	1.30	–	–
C _S –N _S	1.36	1.41	1.46	1.76	6.84	–	–
M12 ^L	R ^{L3}	T1 ^{L3}	I ^{L3}	T2 ^{L3}	P ^L	–	–
Zn ₁ –Zn ₂	3.69	3.91	3.67	3.91	3.96	–	–
Zn ₁ –O _W	2.19	2.11	2.16	2.15	4.40	–	–
Zn ₂ –O _W	2.20	3.15	3.00	2.90	3.31	–	–
O _W –H _W	1.05	1.25	3.35	2.49	6.24	–	–
Glu ₁₃₁ –H _W	1.44	1.15	1.10	1.58	1.64	–	–
Zn ₁ –N _L	2.17	2.20	2.20	2.15	2.12	–	–
Zn ₂ –O _L	2.12	1.95	1.94	1.94	2.00	–	–
O _W –C _S	2.86	1.90	1.48	1.45	1.30	–	–
C _S –N _S	1.34	1.39	1.46	1.59	6.84	–	–
M12 ^{LOH}	R ^{LOH}	T1 ^{LOH}	I ^{LOH}	T2 ^{LOH}	I2 ^{LOH}	T3 ^{LOH}	P ^{LOH}
Zn ₁ –Zn ₂	3.46	3.55	3.59	3.62	3.54	3.52	3.55
Zn ₁ –O _W	1.99	2.12	2.38	2.23	2.00	2.00	2.19
Zn ₂ –O _W	1.91	1.97	2.12	2.15	2.00	2.00	1.98
Glu ₁₃₁ –H _W	2.00	1.71	1.43	1.40	1.39	1.23	1.78
Zn ₁ –N _L	2.32	2.22	2.21	2.21	2.23	2.24	2.19
Zn ₂ –O _L	5.05	2.44	2.09	2.07	2.17	2.16	3.10
O _W –C _S	3.35	1.89	1.52	1.51	1.41	1.42	1.32
C _S –N _S	1.38	1.44	1.49	1.49	1.53	1.65	3.40

In the transition state (T2^{L1} in Figure 2) for this concerted step, the C_S–N_S distance is the longest (1.58 Å), and the Zn₁–Zn₂ distance is the shortest (3.51 Å) among all structures (Table 1). This step is slightly more favored to be the rate-limiting step of the mechanism. On the basis of solvent KIEs also, creation of the nucleophile in the first step and collapse of the *gem*-diolate intermediate in the second step have been proposed to be rate-determining steps at pH = 6.5 and <8, respectively. In the final product (P^L), the nitroaniline fragment is completely separated from the substrate, but the leucine fragment is still bound to both metal ions. P^L is 33.4 kcal/mol exergonic from R^{L1}.

These calculations suggest that in the absence of Lewis acid activation of the substrate by the metal center the nucleophilicity of the hydroxyl ion plays a critical role in the reaction. The second step associated with the cleavage of the peptide bond is likely to be the rate-limiting step of the mechanism.

M2^L Pathway. In the reactant (R^{L2} in Figure S3) of this pathway, the W_N water is coordinated to the Zn₂ site of the

binuclear metal core. In R^{L2}, the Leu-*p*-NA substrate is coordinated in the same overall orientation as in R^{L1}; i.e., the amine and carbonyl group interact with Zn₁ and Zn₂, respectively. However, the Zn₁–Zn₂ distance of 3.90 Å in R^{L2} is 0.08 Å longer than the one in R^{L1} (Table 1). The Zn₁–N_L and Zn₂–O_L bond distances in R^{L2} are 0.05 and 0.15 Å shorter and longer, respectively, than the corresponding distances in R^{L1} (Table 1). The W_N water is less tightly coordinated to Zn₂, and the Zn₂–W_N distance of 2.21 Å is 0.05 Å longer than the corresponding distance in R^{L1}. The same length (1.02 Å) of the O_W–H_W bond of W_N in both reactants shows that both nearly identical metal sites exert the same influence on its acidity (Table 1). The scissile peptide bond C_S–N_S (1.36 Å) of Leu-*p*-NA is also shortened by 0.02 Å in R^{L2}, albeit slightly less (by 0.01 Å) than this bond in R^{L1}. From R^{L2}, formation of the *gem*-diolate intermediate (I^{L2}) through proton abstraction by Glu₁₃₁ base occurs with a barrier of 14.4 kcal/mol. It is 5.4 kcal/mol higher than the corresponding barrier in the M1^L pathway. The higher barrier in the M2^L pathway is caused by the creation of a more strained four-membered ring transition state (T1^{L2}) and a longer W_N–Glu₁₃₁ (nucleophile–electrophile) distance. Although Glu₁₃₁ is quite flexible to create the hydroxyl nucleophile on both metal sites, it is located about 1.0 Å closer to Zn₁ than to Zn₂. Furthermore, I^{L2} is 6.4 kcal/mol endergonic from R^{L2}, while I^{L1} is slightly (1.4 kcal/mol) more exergonic from R^{L1}. In I^{L2}, the –O_WH_W group loses its interaction with Zn₂ and completely transfers to the C_S atom of the substrate. It also lacks extra stabilization provided by hydrogen bonding with Glu₁₃₁ and Glu₁₃₂. However, the lengths of the scissile C_S–N_S bonds in both I^{L2} and I^{L1} are exactly the same (C_S–N_S = 1.46 Å). The collapse of the *gem*-diolate intermediate through the transition state (T2^{L2}) occurs with a barrier of 17.8 kcal/mol from R^{L2}. This process takes exactly the same barrier (11.4 kcal/mol) in both M1^L and M2^L pathways. Since this process follows a step that was endergonic by 6.4 kcal/mol in this pathway, the overall barrier becomes 17.8 kcal/mol from R^{L2}.

These results suggest that the preferential coordination of the nucleophile-generating W_N water to either the Zn₁ or Zn₂ site affects only the first step of the mechanism. Since R^{L2} is computed to be 2.8 kcal/mol exergonic than R^{L1}, the reaction can start from the former. R^{L2} then transforms into R^{L1}, and the subsequent reaction proceeds through the M1^L pathway discussed above. The overall barrier of the 14.2 kcal/mol for such a pathway will be 3.6 kcal/mol lower than the M2^L pathway (Figure S3).

M12^L Pathway. Since the exact binding mode (terminal or bridging) of the nucleophile-generating W_N water is a matter of debate,^{66,82,83} another pathway (M12^L) starting from its bridging form is also explored (Figure S4). In the reactant (R^{L3}) of this pathway, W_N is symmetrically bound to both Zn ions (Zn₁–O_W = 2.19 Å and Zn₂–O_W = 2.20 Å in Table 1). It also forms two strong hydrogen bonds with Glu₁₃₁ and Glu₁₃₂. This binding mode and a strong polarization by Glu₁₃₁ lead to a much greater activation of W_N in comparison to both R^{L1} and R^{L2} (O_W–H_W = 1.05 Å, Table 1). However, the scissile peptide bond C_S–N_S of 1.34 Å in R^{L3} is the strongest among all three reactants. Additionally, the Zn₁–Zn₂ distance of 3.69 Å (Table 1) in this structure is also the shortest among all three reactants. It weakens the interaction of the substrate with the metal center (Zn₁–N_L = 2.17 Å and Zn₂–O_L = 2.12 Å in Table 1). Despite a weaker O_W–H_W bond, the barrier of 17.0 kcal/mol for the proton transfer to the Glu₁₃₁ base and

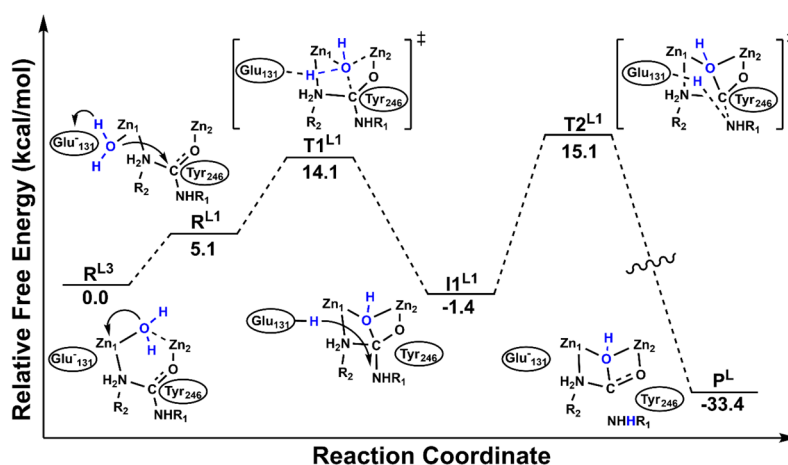


Figure 3. Most plausible mechanism for the Leu-pNA hydrolysis by SgAP. The arrows describe the transfer of atoms.

synchronous nucleophilic attack is the highest among all three pathways. This could be due to a weak nucleophilicity of the $-\text{O}_\text{W}\text{H}_\text{W}$ group caused by its interaction with both metal ions in $\text{R}^{\text{L}3}$. However, in the transition state ($\text{T1}^{\text{L}3}$ in Figure S4) for this step, the nucleophile is delivered by only the Zn_1 site (Table 1). Additionally, the intermediate ($\text{I}^{\text{L}3}$) form in this step is the most unstable, i.e., 10.7 kcal/mol endergonic from $\text{R}^{\text{L}3}$. In the next step, the collapse of $\text{I}^{\text{L}3}$ through proton donation by Glu_{131} occurs with an overall barrier of 18.8 kcal/mol. The formation of $\text{I}^{\text{L}3}$, similar to $\text{I}^{\text{L}2}$ in the M2^{L} pathway, is endergonic by 10.7 kcal/mol. It also lacks the stabilization provided by Tyr_{246} and possesses much longer $\text{Glu}_{131}-\text{H}_\text{W}$ bond (1.10 Å in Table 1). Due to its relatively higher energy, the collapse of $\text{I}^{\text{L}3}$ through $\text{T2}^{\text{L}3}$ takes place with a barrier of 8.1 kcal/mol. However, the overall barrier for this process becomes 18.8 kcal/mol from $\text{R}^{\text{L}3}$. Since this pathway proceeds with the highest barrier computed in all three pathways, it can be ruled out.

Since $\text{R}^{\text{L}3}$ is the most stable reactant (2.3 and 5.1 kcal/mol exergonic than $\text{R}^{\text{L}2}$ and $\text{R}^{\text{L}1}$, respectively), it is most likely to be starting point of the reaction. The thermodynamic stability of this structure is also supported by the fluoride inhibition experiments.⁸³ $\text{R}^{\text{L}3}$ can transform into $\text{R}^{\text{L}1}$ and the subsequent reaction occurs through the M1^{L} pathway (Figure 3). The overall barrier of 16.5 kcal/mol for such a pathway ($\text{M12}^{\text{L}1}$) is in good agreement with the measured value of 13.9 kcal/mol.⁶⁶ This barrier is also 2.7 kcal/mol lower than the previous pathway that starts from $\text{R}^{\text{L}2}$ and continues through $\text{R}^{\text{L}2} \rightarrow \text{R}^{\text{L}1}$ transformation. This mechanism will address the unresolved issue in the literature regarding the terminal or bridging binding mode of water molecule to the metal center of SgAP.

M12^{LOH} Pathway. Since the protonation state (H_2O or $-\text{OH}$) of the bridging W_N is not known, its bridging hydroxyl ($\mu\text{-O}_\text{W}\text{H}_\text{W}$) form is also explored in the M12^{LOH} pathway (Figure S5). This form of nucleophile has also been proposed to be utilized by other binuclear metallohydrolases such as BILAP¹²⁵ and AAP.¹²⁶ In the reactant (R^{LOH}) of this pathway, the carbonyl group of the substrate loses its interaction with the Zn_2 ion, and the scissile $\text{C}_\text{S}-\text{N}_\text{S}$ bond length (1.38 Å) remains unchanged from its free form (Figure S5, Table 1). It is noteworthy that this bond became stronger in $\text{R}^{\text{L}1}$, $\text{R}^{\text{L}2}$, and $\text{R}^{\text{L}3}$ (Table 1) after the binding of the substrate to the metal ion. Additionally, in this binding mode, the Zn_1-Zn_2 distance is much shorter (3.46 Å) than the previous reactants (Table 1).

In R^{LOH} , the bridging hydroxyl ($\mu\text{-O}_\text{W}\text{H}_\text{W}$) is coordinated in an asymmetric manner, and its interaction with the Zn_2 ion is stronger than the one with the Zn_1 ion ($\text{Zn}_1-\text{O}_\text{W} = 1.99$ Å and $\text{Zn}_2-\text{O}_\text{W} = 1.91$ Å, Table 1). In the first step of the mechanism, the $\mu\text{-O}_\text{W}\text{H}_\text{W}$ group attacks the C_S atom of the substrate to form the *gem*-diolate intermediate (II^{LOH} in Figure S5). However, in the transition state (T1^{LOH}), the nucleophile is delivered by only the Zn_2 site ($\text{Zn}_2-\text{O}_\text{W} = 1.91$ Å in Table 1), and the $\text{Zn}_1-\text{O}_\text{W}$ distance is much longer (2.12 Å). This step occurs with a barrier of 14.9 kcal/mol. The intermediate (II^{LOH}) formed in this step is highly endergonic by 14.0 kcal/mol. In II^{LOH} , O_W is coordinated to Zn_2 and C_S atoms to form a $\text{I}^{\text{L}3}$ -like four-member ring. In this intermediate, the $-\text{O}_\text{W}\text{H}_\text{W}$ group is coordinated only to the Zn_2 ion ($\text{Zn}_2-\text{O}_\text{W} = 2.12$ Å), and the $\text{C}_\text{S}-\text{N}_\text{S}$ peptide bond is more activated (1.49 Å) than the corresponding bond in $\text{I}^{\text{L}1}$, $\text{I}^{\text{L}2}$ and $\text{I}^{\text{L}3}$. Since Glu_{131} in II^{LOH} remains charged in comparison to its neutral form in the M1^{L} , M2^{L} , and M12^{L} pathways, this pathway requires an additional step. In II^{LOH} , the H_W proton is quite distant (2.5 Å) to be transferred directly to the N_S atom of the scissile bond. In the next step, Glu_{131} acts as a base and abstracts the H_W proton with a small barrier of 4.5 kcal/mol from I^{LOH} , i.e., 18.5 kcal/mol from R^{LOH} . The intermediate (I2^{LOH}) formed through the transition state (T2^{LOH}) is endergonic by 17.3 kcal/mol (Figure S5). In I2^{LOH} , the peptide bond is significantly activated ($\text{C}_\text{S}-\text{N}_\text{S} = 1.53$ Å) and ready to be cleaved. In the next step, Glu_{131} donates its previously acquired H_W proton to the N_S atom and cleaves the $\text{C}_\text{S}-\text{N}_\text{S}$ bond with a low barrier of 2.2 kcal/mol from I2^{LOH} . Since this step is followed by a step that was endergonic by 17.3 kcal/mol, the overall barrier for the step becomes 19.5 kcal/mol from R^{LOH} . It is the rate-limiting step of the entire mechanism. The rate-limiting barrier for this pathway is found to be 4.4 kcal/mol higher than the most feasible mechanism shown in Figure 3.

The computed energetics suggest that this pathway requires an additional step and is energetically least favorable among all other pathways. Therefore, it can be ruled out.

Phosphoester (BNPP) Hydrolysis. Similar to Leu-pNA, BNPP hydrolysis can also occur through three different M1^{B} , M2^{B} , and M12^{BOH} pathways. Since the bridging $\mu\text{-H}_2\text{O}$ bound reactant is much higher (10.4 kcal/mol in Figure S2) in energy than the most stable reactant ($\text{R}^{\text{B}2}$ in Figure S2), a pathway starting from this structure is not explored.

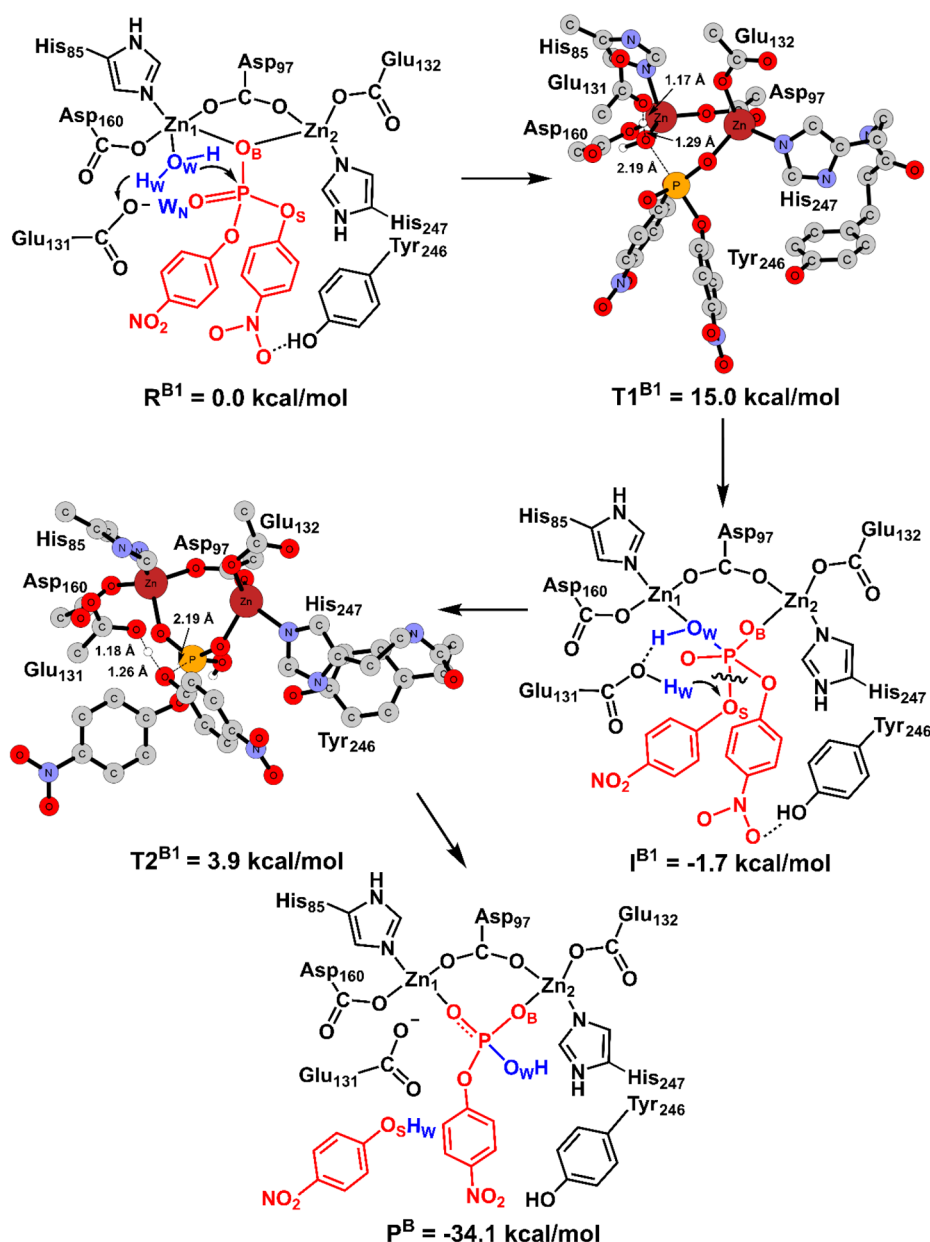


Figure 4. Mechanism of the BNPP hydrolysis in the $M1^B$ pathway.

$M1^B$ Pathway. In this associative pathway, the nucleophile from the W_N water is created at the Zn_1 site (Figure 4). In the reactant (R^{B1}), BNPP binds to the binuclear core in an asymmetric bridging mode to both Zn ions. Its interaction with the Zn_1 site is stronger than the association with the Zn_2 site ($Zn_1-O_B = 2.08$ Å and $Zn_2-O_B = 2.21$ Å, Table 2). In contrast to the strengthening of the peptide bond of Leu-pNA upon metal binding, the scissile O_S-P bond of BNPP in R^{B1} gets significantly elongated by 0.08 Å than the corresponding bond in its free form due to double Lewis acid activation ($O_S-P = 1.79$ Å). Here, the scissile bond gets activated, and the central P atom of BNPP becomes more electrophilic due to the binding to the binuclear metal core of the enzyme. The Zn_1-Zn_2 distance of 3.67 Å in R^{B1} is slightly shorter than the corresponding distance (3.69 Å) in R^{L3} (Tables 1 and 2). Additionally, W_N is more tightly attached to the Zn_1 ion in R^{B1} than in R^{L3} , but it is less activated ($Zn_1-O_W = 2.01$ Å and O_W-

$H_W = 1.02$ Å in Table 2). It is also polarized by a strong hydrogen bond by Glu₁₃₁ ($Glu_{131}-H_W = 1.49$ Å). Similar to Leu-pNA, BNPP is also stabilized by Tyr₂₄₆ through a hydrogen bond with its *p*-nitrophenol group.

In the first step, from R^{B1} , Glu₁₃₁ functions as a base and abstracts the H_W proton from the Zn_1 bound W_N . This proton transfer process takes place with the simultaneous attack of the $-O_WH$ nucleophile to the electrophilic phosphorus atom. This concerted process occurs with a barrier of 15.0 kcal/mol. Thus, the first step of BNPP hydrolysis is dominated by its double Lewis acid activation, while Leu-pNA hydrolysis is dominated by stronger nucleophilicity of the metal bound $-O_WH$ group. In general, they are competing effects, and these two reactions catalyzed by SgAP provide an ideal system to study their influences. Furthermore, in contrast to the second step in the Leu-pNA hydrolysis, this step is clearly the rate-limiting step of the mechanism. This suggests that the chemical nature of the

Table 2. Key Bond Distances (in Å) in Reactants, Transition States, Intermediates, and Products of BNPP Hydrolysis

M1 ^B	R ^{B1}	T1 ^{B1}	I ^{B1}	T2 ^{B1}	P ^B
Zn ₁ –Zn ₂	3.67	3.86	3.96	4.30	4.34
Zn ₁ –O _W	2.01	2.10	2.09	3.73	3.68
Zn ₂ –O _W	3.78	3.80	4.04	4.06	4.44
O _W –H _W	1.02	1.29	1.54	3.11	7.85
Glu ₁₃₁ –H _W	1.49	1.17	1.02	1.18	1.25
Zn ₁ –O _B	2.08	3.49	3.25	4.02	3.80
Zn ₂ –O _B	2.21	1.93	1.95	2.00	2.05
O _W –P	2.77	2.19	1.84	1.74	1.72
O _S –P	1.79	1.85	2.00	2.38	6.01
M2 ^B	R ^{B2}	T1 ^{B2}	I ^{B2}	T2 ^{B2}	P ^B
Zn ₁ –Zn ₂	3.58	3.67	3.58	3.91	4.34
Zn ₁ –O _W	4.70	4.35	4.24	3.61	4.44
Zn ₂ –O _W	2.08	2.10	2.30	2.12	3.68
O _W –H _W	1.03	1.20	1.57	0.98	7.85
Glu ₁₃₁ –H _W	1.49	1.22	1.03	1.25	1.25
Zn ₁ –O _B	2.08	2.02	2.04	3.49	3.80
Zn ₂ –O _B	2.23	2.33	2.10	1.98	2.05
O _W –P	3.28	2.40	1.90	1.76	1.72
O _S –P	1.78	1.75	1.82	2.36	6.01
M12 ^{BOH}	R ^{BOH}	T1 ^{BOH}	I ^{BOH}	–	–
Zn ₁ –Zn ₂	3.43	3.65	4.24	–	–
Zn ₁ –O _W	1.96	2.09	2.02	–	–
Zn ₂ –O _W	2.00	2.36	3.89	–	–
Zn ₁ –O _B	5.05	4.12	3.77	–	–
Zn ₂ –O _B	2.09	2.05	1.96	–	–
O _W –P	4.75	1.90	1.65	–	–
O _S –P	1.72	1.97	5.05	–	–

substrate determines energetics of the nucleophile generation and its attack on the electrophile. The trigonal bipyramidal phosphorane intermediate (I^{B1}) formed in this step is slightly exergonic by 1.7 kcal/mol. In comparison to R^{B1}, the Zn₁–Zn₂ distance (3.96 Å) in I^{B1} is significantly elongated by 0.29 Å. Quite interestingly, this bond follows the opposite pattern in the first step for both substrates; i.e., it elongates for BNPP and shrinks for Leu-pNA after the R^{L3} → R^{L1} transformation (Table 1). The Zn₁–O_W distance in R^{B1} becomes much shorter by 0.18 Å than the corresponding distance in R^{L3} (Tables 1 and 2) and increases the barrier for the nucleophilic attack. In I^{B1}, the O_S–P bond is significantly activated by 0.21 Å due to the formation of the O_W–P bond (O_S–P = 2.0 Å and O_W–P = 1.84 Å in Table 2). It is also stabilized through hydrogen bonding by Tyr₂₄₆ and Asp₁₆₀. In the next step, donation of the H_W proton by neutral Glu₁₃₁ to the O_S atom of BNPP cleaves its O_S–P bond. It takes place through transition state (T2^{B1}) with a small barrier of 5.6 kcal/mol from I^{B1}, i.e., 3.9 kcal/mol from R^{B1}. In comparison, cleavage of the peptide bond of Leu-pNA occurs with a significantly higher barrier of 15.1 kcal/mol. In comparison to I^{B1}, the O_S–P bond in T2^{B1} is even more elongated (O_S–P = 2.38 Å). In the final product (P^B), free *p*-nitrophenol and *p*-nitrophenyl phosphate fragments are formed. They are bound in the same fashion as the phosphate ion in the crystal structure,⁷⁴ and P^B is exergonic by 34.1 kcal/mol from R^{B1}.

It is noteworthy that both steps of the mechanism can also occur in a single step in a concerted form of the dissociative–associative mechanism (Figure S6). In a S_N2-like reaction, the inline nucleophilic attack occurs concomitantly with the cleavage of the O_S–P bond. All key coordinates in the

transition state (TC^{B1} in Figure S6) confirm the concerted nature of this process. The nucleophile–electrophile distance (O_W–P_S) is 1.99 Å, while the O_S–P distance is 1.94 Å, 0.1 Å longer than the same distance in T1^{B1}. The sum of O_W–P and O_S–P bonds of 3.93 Å suggests that TC^{B1} is slightly tighter than T1^{B1}. However, this pathway occurs with a barrier of 16.7 kcal/mol, which is 1.7 kcal/mol higher than the rate-limiting barrier (15.0 kcal/mol) computed for the associative pathway.

The computed energetics suggest that, unlike Leu-pNA, BNPP utilizes double Lewis activation for its hydrolysis. The associative pathway is energetically more favorable than the synchronous mechanism. In the former, the first step involving nucleophilic activation and its attack on the electrophilic phosphate is the rate-determining step of the mechanism.

M2^B Pathway. The BNPP hydrolysis can also take place through another associative M2^B pathway in which the nucleophile is created at the Zn₂ site (Figure 5). The reactant (R^{B2}) in this pathway is slightly exergonic by 1.8 kcal/mol in comparison to R^{B1}. In R^{B2}, like in R^{B1}, BNPP asymmetrically interacts with both metal ions, but its interaction with Zn₁ is much stronger than the one with Zn₂ (Zn₁–O_B = 2.08 Å and Zn₂–O_B = 2.23 Å, Table 2). However, the Zn₁–Zn₂ distance of 3.58 Å in R^{B2} is also substantially (0.09 Å) shorter than the corresponding distance in R^{B1}. The Zn₂–W_N association in R^{B2} is weaker than the Zn₁–W_N interaction in R^{B1} (Zn₁–O_W = 2.01 Å and Zn₂–O_W = 2.08 Å, Table 2). The W_N is slightly (0.01 Å) more activated in R^{B2} than in R^{B1} (O_W–H_W = 1.03 Å, Table 2). However, the lengths of the scissile O_S–P bonds of BNPP in R^{B1} and R^{B2} are exactly the same (O_S–P = 1.78 Å) due to the double Lewis acid activation in both cases. Similar to R^{B1}, the BNPP binding is also facilitated through a hydrogen bond by Tyr₂₄₆.

In the first step, abstraction of the H_W proton from the Zn₂ bound W_N by Glu₁₃₁ occurs synchronously with the nucleophilic attack by the –O_WH group to BNPP. The barrier for this concerted process is 16.8 kcal/mol from R^{B2}. Since R^{B2} is 1.8 kcal/mol more exergonic than R^{B1}, a pathway starting from the former and continuing through the M1^B pathway will also occur through exactly the same barrier (Figure 6). The computed barriers of 16.8 kcal/mol for both these pathways are in excellent agreement with the measured value of 18.3 kcal/mol.⁶⁶ The formation of the I^{B2} intermediate is more endergonic by 3.6 kcal/mol. In comparison, the creation of the corresponding intermediate in the M1^B pathway is slightly exergonic by 1.7 kcal/mol. From I^{B2}, the donation of the previously acquired H_W proton by Glu₁₃₁ to the O_S atom of the substrate cleaves the O_S–P bond and releases the nitrophenolate group in the final product (P^B). This process takes place with a small barrier of 2.5 kcal/mol from I^{B2}, i.e., 6.1 kcal/mol from R^{B2}. Similar to the M1^B pathway, this pathway can also take place in an S_N2 reaction-like dissociative manner (Figure S7). However, the barrier of 27.1 kcal/mol for this process is prohibitively high.

These results suggest that the first step is the rate-limiting step of the mechanism. The pathways starting from R^{B2} (M2^B pathway) and R^{B2} → R^{B1} (M1^B pathway) are equally plausible with the barriers of 16.8 kcal/mol.

M12^{BOH} pathway. In the reactant (R^{BOH}) of this dissociative pathway (Figure S8), the hydroxyl nucleophile (μ-O_WH_W) is bridging both metal centers in an asymmetric fashion. In R^{BOH}, the Zn₁–O_W bond is stronger than the Zn₂–O_W bond (Zn₁–O_W = 1.96 Å and Zn₂–O_W = 2.00 Å, Table 2). The Zn₁–Zn₂ distance of 3.43 Å in R^{BOH} is the shortest among

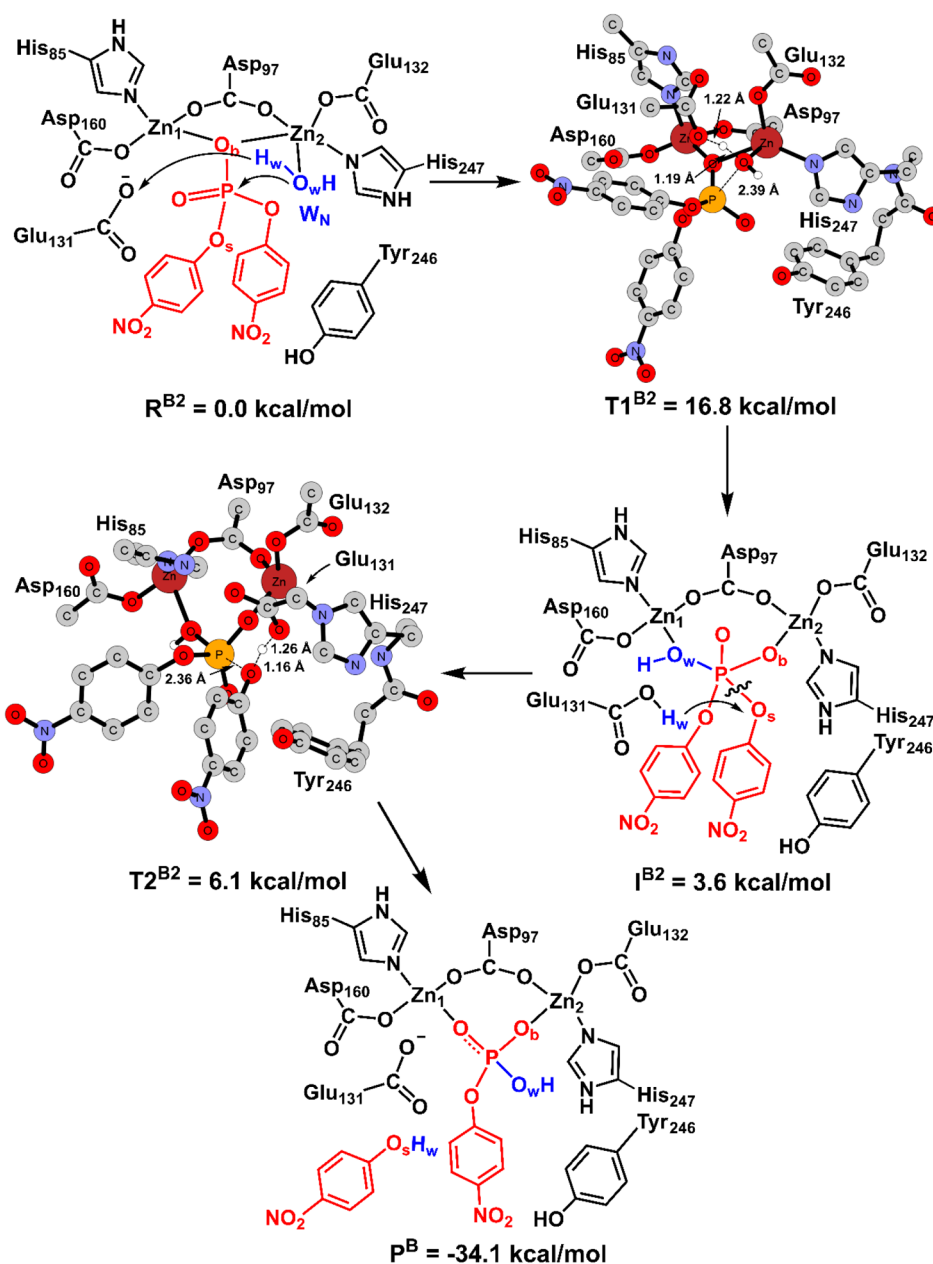


Figure 5. Mechanism of the BNPP hydrolysis in the $M2^B$ pathway.

all the reactants for this substrate (Table 2). Here, in a concerted manner, the μ -OH group attacks the P atom of BNPP and cleaves the O_s -P bond of the p -nitrophenol group stabilized by Tyr₂₄₆. In the transition state (TC^{BOH}), a shorter Zn_1 - O_W distance suggests that the nucleophile is delivered primarily by the Zn_1 site (Zn_1 - $O_W = 2.09$ Å and Zn_2 - $O_W = 2.36$ Å, Table 2). This pathway occurs with a barrier of 30.5 kcal/mol that is the highest among all mechanisms investigated in this study. Therefore, it is ruled out.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

In this DFT study, the chemical promiscuity of SgAP in catalyzing peptide and phosphoester hydrolyses is investigated using Leu- p NA and BNPP as substrates, respectively. In particular, four ($M1^L$, $M2^L$, $M12^L$, and $M12^{LOH}$) distinct pathways for LeuAP and three ($M1^B$, $M2^B$, and $M12^{BOH}$)

pathways for BNPP are explored. The potential energy diagrams of the most plausible mechanisms are shown in Figures 3, 5, and 6.

The computed energetics of all four pathways suggest a hybrid mechanism for the Leu- p NA hydrolysis (Figure 3). In the reactant (R^{L3}) for this mechanism, the nucleophile-generating water (W_N) is bound in a bridging manner to both metals. This binding mode is supported by the fluoride inhibition experiments.⁸³ This reactant can subsequently transform into R^{L1} in which W_N water is coordinated only to the Zn_1 ion. This structure is 5.1 kcal/mol more endergonic than R^{L3} . The overall barrier of 16.5 kcal/mol for this mechanism from R^{L3} is in the good agreement with the measured value of 13.9 kcal/mol.⁶⁶ The second step associated with the cleavage of the peptide bond is likely to be the rate-limiting step of the mechanism. As suggested by the measured

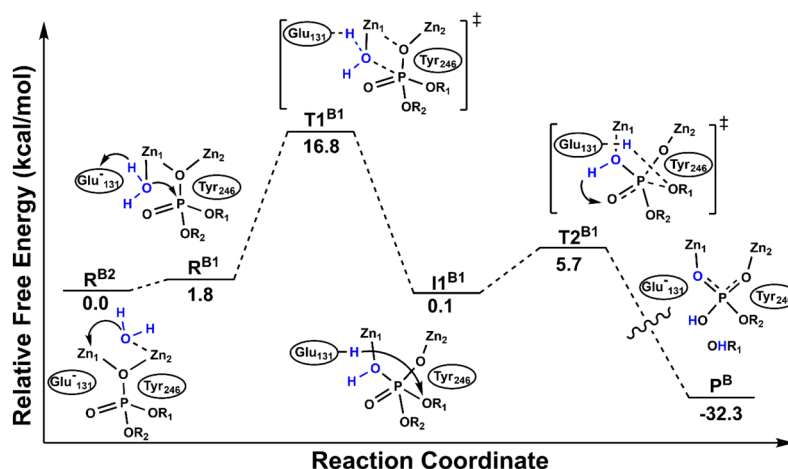


Figure 6. Plausible mechanism for the BNPP hydrolysis by SgAP. The arrows describe the transfer of atoms.

solvent isotope effects,⁸³ this reaction involves transfer of two protons. There is no double Lewis acid activation of the substrate, and the nucleophilicity of the hydroxyl ion plays a critical role in the reaction. This could be one of the factors why peptide hydrolysis can be catalyzed by both mononuclear and binuclear metal cofactors containing hydrolases.

On the other hand, the computed energetics suggest that BNPP hydrolysis is likely to be initiated from R^{B2} , and both $M2^B$ and $R^{B2} \rightarrow R^{B1}$ ($M1^B$ pathway) pathways are equally favored (Figures 5 and 6). The barriers of 16.8 kcal/mol for both these pathways are in excellent agreement with the measured value of 18.3 kcal/mol.⁶⁶ The first step involving nucleophilic activation and its attack on the electrophilic phosphorus atom is the rate-determining step of the mechanism. The associative pathway is found to be energetically more favorable than its synchronous counterpart. As observed experimentally,⁸³ BNPP hydrolysis involves a single-proton transfer step. In contrast to Leu-pNA, BNPP hydrolysis utilized double Lewis acid activation. This could be the major reason for the necessity of a binuclear metal core for phosphoester hydrolysis. These results have provided intricate details of the chemical promiscuity of this interesting enzyme.

DATA AND SOFTWARE AVAILABILITY

The enzyme–substrate models were built through molecular docking using the open source AutoDock Vina 1.5.6 software. All DFT calculations using these models were performed using the Gaussian 16 software. The details of these methods and software including relevant citations are provided in the Computational Details section. The Cartesian coordinates of all optimized structures are provided as Supporting Information.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acs.jcim.2c00214>.

Figures S1–S8 and Cartesian coordinates of all optimized structures(PDF)

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Notes

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