Biased Borate Esterification during Nucleoside Phosphorylase-Catalyzed Reactions: Apparent Equilibrium Shifts and Kinetic Implications

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Biocatalytic nucleoside (trans-)glycosylations catalyzed by nucleoside phosphorylases have graduated to a practical and convenient approach to the preparation of modified nucleosides, which are important pharmaceuticals for the treatment of various cancers and viral infections. However, the obtained yields in these reactions are generally determined exclusively by the innate thermodynamic properties of the nucleosides involved, hampering the biocatalytic access to many sought-after target nucleosides. We herein report an orthogonal dimension for reaction engineering of these systems. We show how apparent equilibrium shifts in phosphorolysis and glycosylation reactions can be effected through entropically driven, biased esterification of nucleosides with inorganic borate. Our multifaceted analysis further describes the kinetic implications of this in situ reactant esterification for a model phosphorylase. Our results suggest an unusual pseudo-non-competitive inhibitory mechanism where reversible binding of the borate ester of the nucleoside substrate yields a non-productive inhibitor-enzyme complex. This complex exhibits constricted molecular dynamics and exists in a rapid equilibrium with the productive enzyme-substrate complex via hydrolytic interconversion. Collectively, this report presents a partial departure from the stringent thermodynamic constraints of nucleoside phosphorolysis reactions and shines light on the molecular processes regulating the activity of nucleoside-binding enzymes in the presence of borate.

Nucleosides and their analogs are central to the biological and chemical sciences, as they serve a variety of biological functions and represent a growing class of anti-cancer and anti-viral pharmaceuticals.1 Although the synthesis of nucleosides typically proceeds via N-glycosylation of nucleobases with heavily protected sugar synthons, there is an increasing recognition for the inefficiency of the associated synthetic routes.² Consequently, recent years have experienced renewed interest in the biocatalytic synthesis of natural and modified nucleosides. This includes, for instance, the enzymatic preparation of halogenated purine nucleoside synthons,³ the diversification of alkylated pyrimidine nucleoside analogues,⁴ the development of high-yielding flow processes,⁵ and the synthesis of the pharmaceuticals islatravir (anti-HIV)⁶ and molnupiravir (anti-Covid19)⁷ in biocatalytic cascades. All these examples employ nucleoside phosphorylases for key (trans-)glycosylation reactions, which enable the installation of ribosyl-based moieties on pyrimidine and purine nucleobases in one step and without the need for any protecting group chemistry.

Nucleoside phosphorylases catalyze the reversible phosphorolysis of nucleosides to the corresponding nucleobases and pentose-1-phosphates (Scheme 1).⁸ This reactivity can be employed in reverse to transfer the glycosyl moiety from one nucleoside (or a pentose-1-phosphate) to another nucleobase, a reaction typically referred to as a (trans-)glycosylation.⁹ While such (trans-)glycosylation processes are well established as synthetic tools,^{10–19} they inherently suffer from thermodynamic limitations, as the final yield of these reactions is dictated solely by the substrate-dependent thermodynamics of the respective (reverse) phosphorolytic steps as well as the employed reaction con-



This work: Apparent equilibrium shifts through biased borate esterification



Scheme 1. Nucleoside phosphorolysis and strategies for apparent equilibrium shifts. NB = nucleobase.

ditions.^{9,20,21} Although some progress has been made to mitigate or exploit the tight thermodynamic control in these systems (e.g., *via* (by)product precipitation,²² enzymatic product removal²³ or application of recoverable excess

reagent²⁴) and irreversible phosphorolysis of 6-oxopurines is well established,^{10,25,26} there currently exists no general method for the direct manipulation of glycosylation equilibria.

During our development of the PUB module for continuous high-throughput phosphate detection in biochemical assays,27 we serendipitously found that the presence of borate effects a series of inhibitory phenomena during pyrimidine nucleoside phosphorolysis as well as an apparent equilibrium shift caused by biased borate esterification of nucleosides over ribose 1-phosphate (Rib1P). While saccharides are well known to undergo complex equilibrium reactions with borate in aqueous solution,^{28,29} comparably little is known about in situ competition of such processes. Similarly, although the literature offers some examples for biocatalytic applications of equilibrium shift phenomena through preferential esterification of one reactant with borate (namely, the enzymatic epimerization of fructose,30 lactose,31 galactose,32,33 and arabinose³⁴) the exact species involved in these processes remain largely elusive, as do the kinetic implications of this esterification on the enzyme-level. Despite the precedents for borate inhibiting NAD⁺-dependent enzymes in a noncompetitive fashion, 35, 36 the molecular determinants and mechanisms of these phenomena have remained equally elusive. To shed light on the thermodynamic and kinetic implications of borate ester formation on nucleoside phosphorylase-catalyzed reactions, we herein report a multifaceted analysis of this reaction system with spectroscopic and computational approaches. Furthermore, we examined the synthetic utility of this biased borate concentration-dependent esterification. as apparent equilibrium shifts provide an orthogonal dimension for reaction engineering in biocatalytic glycosylation reactions.

Our investigation was sparked by the serendipitous observation that phosphorolysis reactions with 5bromouridine (1a) consistently exhibited noticeably lower equilibrium conversions in the presence of moderate concentrations of borate (Figures 1A and B). For instance, a reaction containing 400 µM 1a, 4 mM (10 equivalents) phosphate and 40 µg mL⁻¹ (0.45 mol%) of the well characterized pyrimidine nucleoside phosphorylase from Geobacillus thermoglucosidasius (GtPvNP),^{4,37–40} serving as a model enzyme (see the Supplementary Information for details), reached its equilibrium at 70% conversion after 10 min in glycine-buffered solution (Fig. 1B). In contrast, the same reaction additionally containing 20 mM borate took almost 20 min to reach an equilibrium at 47% conversion, as monitored by multi-wavelength UV spectroscopy employing principles of spectral unmixing.^{41,42} This effect was not rooted in enzyme inactivation, as GtPyNP showed an identical melting point and fully retained its catalytic activity after prolonged incubation in borate-containing buffers (Figs. S1 and S2). The observed apparent equilibrium shift persisted in the reverse direction of the reaction (starting from the products Rib1P and 2a, Fig. S6) and additional experiments established that the reaction system consistently behaved according to lower apparent equilibrium constants of phosphorolysis (K'), whose magnitude depended on the concentration of borate (Fig. 1C). Since such drastic equilibrium shifts are unprecedented for phosphorolysis systems, we suspected that the formation of a dominant secondary species would actively remove the nucleoside 1a from this equilibrium in a thermodynamically controlled fashion. Indeed, the conversion data phenotypically following a Boltzmann-type relationship (Fig. 1D) could be described



Figure 1. A Phosphorolysis of 5-bromouridine (**1a**), and **B–E** apparent equilibrium shifts observed in the presence of borate. **F** DFT data. **G** ¹H NMR of **1a** (10 mM) with or without 20 mM borate in 200 mM glycine buffer at pH 9 and 25 °C. See the SI for experimental details, raw data and equations.⁴³ [a] Not confidently accessible by DFT due to their high charge.

well with a thermodynamic model accounting for the presence of an additional equilibrium system in which **1a** is partially transformed to a borate ester (Fig. 1E, see the SI for details and equations). Although borate esters of ribose are known to persist in dilute aqueous solution,⁴⁴⁻⁴⁶ these stable esters generally involve the anomeric hydroxyl group, which is absent in 1a. Nevertheless, Kim et al.47,48 observed borate esters of the nucleoside-based cofactor NAD⁺ and the natural trinucleotides by mass spectrometry, indicating that analogous species might be formed by recruitment of the 2'and/or 3'-hydroxyl groups. In addition, structurally similar nucleoside boronate esters have been reported by Smietana^{49,50} and others.⁵¹ Based on these precedents, we hypothesized that the cyclic borate ester 1a* would be the predominant species causing the observed equilibrium shift (Fig. 1F).

To probe if borate esters like **1a*** would be feasible species to effect apparent equilibrium shifts under dilute aqueous reaction conditions, we turned to density functional theory (DFT) calculations and NMR spectroscopy. DFT calculations (using B3LYP/TZP⁵²⁻⁵⁵ in combination with a COSMO⁵⁶ solvent model for water, see the SI for details) suggested that the formation of the 2'- or 3'-borate monoesters of 1a would be highly disfavored processes, while the formation of the proposed five-membered cyclic diester 1a* offers around 40 kJ mol⁻¹ net gain in Gibbs free energy, indicating that this esterification could feasibly proceed against the concentration gradient of water (Fig. 1F). Indeed, direct evidence for the presence of 1a* could be obtained by NMR spectroscopy. When 1a (10 mM) was incubated with 20 mM borate in glycine buffer at pH 9, a dominant borate-containing species in equilibrium with free borate could be observed by ¹¹B NMR (Fig. S10), while ¹H NMR showed additional signals indicative of a modification of the ribosyl moiety of 1a (Fig. 1G). Furthermore, slight changes in the coupling constants across the sugar ring implied the introduction of ring torsion, consistent with the configurational changes required in 1a* (Table S4). In addition to this ester, we observed two distinct minor components in the mixture, which exhibited identical coupling constants to 1a* and existed in similar concentrations (ca. 1:1.2 ratio). Based on the well-characterized diastereomeric borate ester dimers of methyl apiose described by Ishii and Ono57 and the report of purine nucleoside solubilization as 2:1 complexes with borate by Tsuji and colleagues,⁵⁸ we tentatively ascribe these species as the cis- and trans-isomers 1a** (Figs. 1G and F). Overall, the Gibbs free energies obtained experimentally by NMR spectroscopy or equilibrium state calculations based on UV data ($\Delta_R G$ ca. -32 kJ mol⁻¹, see the SI for details) are comparable to those obtained by DFT calculation. Although an analogous six-membered ester (and potentially its dimers) between the 3'- and 5'-hydroxyl groups would introduce similar configurational changes to those ascribed to 1a*, DFT calculations revealed that its formation is much less exothermic and consequently disfavored. Similarly, the analogous five-membered borate ester of Rib1P is less favored than 1a* (which is requisite for the observed equilibrium shift), as supported by DFT and NMR data (Figs. 1F and S10). Additionally, we observed no trace of dimers of Rib1P* by NMR, which is likely a result of the highly disfavored formal -5 charge of these species. Consequently, the formation of the borate ester 1a* should be expected to dominate in direct competition during a phosphorolysis reaction, which we could confirm by subjecting phosphorolysis

reaction mixtures with increasing borate concentrations to NMR analysis (Fig. S13). Further thermodynamic experiments indicated that this biased esterification is primarily driven by entropic effects. Arrhenius plots of the 1a-1a* equilibrium obtained by ¹H NMR revealed a drastic temperaturedependence, favoring the presence of the free nucleoside at higher temperatures (Fig. S11). In support of these observations, Arrhenius plots for the borate esterification derived from equilibrium shifts in the phosphorolysis reaction indicated an approach to an energetic balance between 1a* and Rib1P* at higher temperatures (Fig. S5). Collectively, these results describe 1a* as the dominant borate ester in this reaction system, responsible for depleting the pool of free nucleoside in dilute aqueous solution at room temperature. Consistent with this conclusion, the 2'-deoxy nucleoside deoxy-1a, incapable of forming 1a* or 1a**, did not show an equilibrium shift during its phosphorolysis in the presence of borate or any reaction with borate discernible by NMR (Fig. S15).

Next, we sought to identify the cause of the apparently reduced reaction rates in the presence of borate by enlisting kinetic studies and molecular dynamics (MD) simulations. This effect was especially prominent with borate concentrations greater than 20 mM and led to decreases in the reaction rate of GtPyNP by more than a factor of four, as illustrated in Figure 2D. Since high borate concentrations primarily yield 1a* in solution (and not the enzymatic substrate 1a), we initially entertained the hypothesis that this phenomenon was a function of the decreased concentration of the free nucleoside substrate and the associated apparent decrease of affinity. However, the Michaelis-Menten kinetics obtained for 1a (with phosphate in excess) proved inconsistent with this hypothesis. While a reduction in available substrate concentration should primarily result in a decrease in the apparent Michaelis-Menten constant K_{M} , we observed no change in K_{M} but instead a sharp decline of the rate constant under saturating substrate concentrations (k_{cat} , Fig. 2B). With saturating concentrations of both substrates, the observed rate constant kobs exhibited a similar Boltzmann-type decrease as observed for the apparent equilibrium constant, which could be described well by an equilibrium model expressing the observed rate constant as a function of k_{cat} and the esterified fraction of 1a (Fig 2D, see the SI for equations). As this decrease of kobs was further completely absent for deoxy-1a in the presence of borate (Figs. 2C and E), we concluded that borate alone does not inhibit GtPyNP, but rather the borate ester 1a*. If GtPyNP could bind but not convert 1a*, we reasoned that the position of the equilibrium between 1a and 1a* would determine the ratio of potentially active enzyme (1a bound to GtPyNP) versus inactive enzyme (1a* bound to GtPyNP), assuming that catalysis is a rate-limiting step. Given the highly solvent-exposed active site of pyrimidine nucleoside phosphorylases in the open state, we expected that GtPyNP should be able to accommodate the slightly twisted and sterically more demanding borate ester 1a* and allow its equilibration with the free nucleoside substrate 1a while bound to the enzyme. Phenomenologically, such a process would resemble a classical non-competitive inhibition, consistent with our kinetic data. Indeed, MD simulations (using GROMACS^{59,60} with the CHARMM36⁶¹ force field) based on our recently disclosed crystal structure of GtPyNP in complex with uridine (PDB ID 7m7k,⁴ see the SI for details) yielded several insights in support of the proposed model. First, an analysis of the clustered states over 50 ns simulation time



Figure 2. A–C Michaelis-Menten plots of the phosphorolysis of **1a** and **deoxy-1a**, **D** and **E** phosphorolysis rate under saturating conditions. F–H MD simulations of *Gt*PyNP with bound **1a** or **1a***. See the SI for experimental details, raw data and equations.⁴³

indicates that the borate ester 1a* can be bound in analogy to 1a via hydrogen bonds with the amide motif of the nucleobase. Secondly, this analysis also showed that the average state in which the enzyme-1a and the enzyme-1a* complexes resided during the simulation time displayed a guite solvent-exposed active site, feasibly permitting esterification and hydrolysis processes to happen in situ. Thirdly, an examination of the distances between the domains responsible for active site closure indicated markedly reduced molecular motion of the enzyme-1a* complex compared to the enzyme-1a complex (Figs. 2F-H and S19). While GtPyNP with bound 1a exhibited oscillatory opening and closing motions on a timescale of around 11 ns (similar dynamics are known for the closely related thymidine phosphorylases),62-68 binding of 1a* largely arrested this process. Specifically, binding of 1a* locks the enzyme in an open conformation by displacing a catalytically essential arginine residue, which reversibly adopts an inward position. This appears to halt domain movement and yield an inactive enzyme, while the esterification of the 2'- and 3'-OH groups of 1a further obstructs access to the anomeric carbon, collectively preventing productive phosphorolysis. As indicated by the clustered structures, 1a* also slightly obstructs access to the phosphate binding site of GtPyNP. Accordingly, we experimentally observed a decreased affinity for phosphate in the presence of 1a*, in addition to the lower k_{cat} values stemming from pseudo-non-competitive inhibition by 1a* (Fig. 2B). Experimentally accessed and computed rate constants for the various processes involved in the catalytic cycle also proved consistent with the hypothesized mechanism. Enzyme opening/closing (ca. 0.1 ns⁻¹) occurs on a much shorter time scale than the esterification of 1a (ca. 3 s⁻¹, Fig. S12), catalysis (ca. 6 s⁻¹) and substrate binding by GtPyNP (ca. 16 s⁻¹, see the SI). Thus, the comparably slow substrate release (ca. 0.2 s⁻¹) necessitates in situ hydrolysis of 1a* to maintain the observed kinetics. In contrast to the phosphorolysis, the kinetics in the glycosylation direction remained essentially unchanged in the presence of borate (Figs. S7 and S8), providing further support for the minor role of Rib1P* in this reaction system. Consistent with the entropically driven formation of 1a* from 1a, we observed decreased inhibition of the phosphorolysis reaction at higher temperatures, as evident from Eyring plots obtained with different borate concentrations (Fig. S9). Taken together, these results support an inhibitory mechanism phenotypically resembling a non-competitive inhibition, where rapid equilibration of 1a to its borate ester 1a* (both in solution and while bound to the enzyme) reversibly decreases the fraction of catalytically active GtPyNP so that throughput in its catalytic cycle is primarily regulated by the position of the 1a-1a* equilibrium (Scheme 2). Preliminary data for other pyrimidine nucleoside phosphorylases as well as other nucleosides suggests that this inhibitory mechanism is likely not limited to GtPyNP and 1a (Figs. S1 and S18).

With a good understanding of the underlying processes governing the kinetics and thermodynamics of the phosphorolysis of **1a** in the presence of borate, we aimed to apply the observed equilibrium shifts to other nucleosides, specifically targeting glycosylation reactions. Assuming that other nucleosides would behave in analogy to our model compound **1a**, we expected that conversion shifts in glycosylation reactions would provide a general strategy to improve access to nucleosides from the precursor **Rib1P** (which could either be supplied as an isolated compound or generated *in situ*).^{10,69–71} Indeed, DFT calculations for a



Scheme 2. Proposed mechanism for rate decreases in the presence of borate.



Figure 3. Glycosylation experiments in the presence of borate. *K* refers to the equilibrium constant of phosphorolysis, taken from ref 20 .

representative set of nucleosides suggested that a variety of pyrimidine and purine nucleosides should undergo similar esterifications with borate as **1a** (Table S9), which could be confirmed by ¹H NMR ($\Delta_R G$ ca. -32 to -34 kJ mol⁻¹, Fig. S14) and, for two examples, with kinetic experiments (see the SI and Fig. S18 for details). Although we were unable to translate the observed minor differences in Gibbs free energies to conversion shifts in transglycosylations, presumably due to a "kinetic lock" effect (see the SI and Fig. S17 for details), glycosylation reactions with various pyrimidine nucleobases **2a**-f nicely reflected the expected behavior and facilitated conversion shifts of 6-17% in favor of the respective nucleoside (Fig. 3A). A similar effect could be observed for the

halogenated purine 2g when subjected to identical conditions with the promiscuous purine nucleoside phosphorylase from G. thermoglucosidasius. Lastly, an illustrative two-factor optimization for the glycosylation of 5-iodouracil (2d) and 5ethynyluracil (2f, both are known for their unfavorable glycosylation thermodynamics)^{9,20} showed how a balance of excess sugar donor and the "pull" effect of the corresponding nucleoside borate ester can be employed to improve the conversions in historically challenging nucleobase glycosylations (Fig. 3B). For instance, when using 2 eq. of Rib1P, the conversion of 2f to its nucleoside 1f could be improved from 74% to 89% through the application of 50 mM borate, which, conventionally, would have required the application of at least 6 eq. of Rib1P.

In conclusion, we characterized the equilibrium between ribosyl nucleosides and their corresponding 2',3'-borate esters in aqueous solution, a phenomenon which facilitates apparent equilibrium shifts during nucleoside phosphorolysis and glycosylation reactions due to a biased esterification of nucleosides over the sugar phosphate **Rib1P**. This borate esterification also causes decreases of the phosphorolysis rate by pyrimidine nucleoside phosphorylases, most likely *via* non-productive binding of the nucleoside borate ester to the enzyme and its hydrolytic interconversion to the free substrate. Collectively, the effects described herein shine light on the activity of nucleoside-binding enzymes in the presence of borate and provide an orthogonal dimension for reaction engineering in nucleobase glycosylation reactions.

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Conflict of Interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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