

# Accepted Manuscript

This article can be cited before page numbers have been issued, to do this please use: A. I. Benitez-Mateos, C. Klein, D. Roura Padrosa and F. Paradisi, *Catal. Sci. Technol.*, 2022, DOI: 10.1039/D2CY00751G.



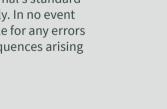
This is an Accepted Manuscript, which has been through the Royal Society of Chemistry peer review process and has been accepted for publication.

Accepted Manuscripts are published online shortly after acceptance, before technical editing, formatting and proof reading. Using this free service, authors can make their results available to the community, in citable form, before we publish the edited article. We will replace this Accepted Manuscript with the edited and formatted Advance Article as soon as it is available.

You can find more information about Accepted Manuscripts in the Information for Authors.

Please note that technical editing may introduce minor changes to the text and/or graphics, which may alter content. The journal's standard <u>Terms & Conditions</u> and the <u>Ethical guidelines</u> still apply. In no event shall the Royal Society of Chemistry be held responsible for any errors or omissions in this Accepted Manuscript or any consequences arising from the use of any information it contains.





View Article Online

View Journal

rsc.li/catalysis

# ARTICLE

Received 00th January 20xx, Accepted 00th January 20xx

DOI: 10.1039/x0xx00000x

# A novel thymidine phosphorylase to synthesize (halogenated) anticancer and antiviral nucleoside drugs in continuous flow

Ana I. Benítez-Mateos,<sup>a</sup> Calvin Klein,<sup>a</sup> David Roura Padrosa,<sup>a</sup> and Francesca Paradisi<sup>a\*</sup>

Four pharmaceutically relevant nucleoside analogues (5-fluoro-2'-deoxyuridine, 5-chloro-2'-deoxyuridine, 5-bromo-2'deoxyuridine, and 5-iodo-2'-deoxyuridine) have been synthesized by using a novel thymidine phosphorylase from *H. elongata* (HeTP). Following enzyme immobilization on microbeads, the biocatalyst was implemented as a packed-bed reactor for the continuous production of halogenated nucleosides, achieving up to 90% conversion at the 10 mM scale with 30 min residence time. Taking the synthesis of Floxuridine (5-fluoro-2'-deoxyuridine) as study case, we obtained the highest space-time yield (5.5 g/L/h) reported to date. In addition, bioinformatic tools such as MD analysis and CapiPy have contributed to shine light on the catalytic performance of HeTP as well as its immobilization, respectively.

# Introduction

This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial 3.0 Unported Licence

Open Access Article. Published on 08 August 2022. Downloaded on 8/17/2022 10:54:30 AM

Viral infections and cancer disorders are among the most concerning diseases of our society. Nucleoside analogues are classified as an important class of anticancer and antiviral drugs, with many examples already on the market.<sup>1</sup> Specifically, halogenated derivatives have been proven to be very effective therapeutics due to their enhanced solubility and bioavailability.<sup>2</sup> For instance, Floxuridine (5-fluoro-2'-deoxyuridine) is effective against different types of cancer and it is also an active substance used in the manufacturing of vaccines against SARS-related coronaviruses.<sup>3–5</sup>

Since the 1950s, nucleoside analogues have been mainly synthesized by chemical strategies which generally require multi-step pathways, hazardous and extreme conditions, and large waste production.<sup>6</sup> More recently, enzymatic synthesis has evolved as an attractive alternative to overcome those issues.<sup>7</sup> Apart from an exquisite substrate selectivity, enzymes are biocompatible and biodegradable catalysts that can work at mild physiological conditions. Although enzymes still suffer from poor substrate solubility and low substrate loading, discovery of more robust enzymes together with state-of-the-art technologies (i.e. enzyme immobilization, flow chemistry) bear a high potential towards more sustainable synthesis of nucleoside drugs.<sup>7–9</sup>

Thymidine phosphorylases (TP) (EC 2.4.2.4) are part of the family II of nucleoside phosphorylases and catalyze the cleavage of the glycosidic bond of thymidine in presence of phosphate. TP are highly selective for 2'-deoxy pyrimidine nucleosides while they accept a broad variety of modifications at the C5 position of the nucleobase.<sup>10</sup> These catalytic properties make TP ideal biocatalysts for the two-step production of halogenated thymidine analogues in just one pot (Scheme 1).

Although the biocatalytic synthesis of nucleoside drugs has been thoroughly studied during the last decades with some industrial examples,<sup>11,12</sup> new approaches are still desired to develop scalable enzymatic syntheses.<sup>7</sup> While the biocatalyst's performance can be improved by protein engineering, enzyme discovery, or enzyme immobilization,<sup>13–15</sup> flow chemistry is emerging as a very powerful tool to intensify the process reaction, minimize the waste and bring biocatalysis closer to industrial scale.<sup>16</sup>

Here we present a highly stable thymidine phosphorylase from *Halomonas elongata* (HeTP) as a robust and efficient candidate to synthesize 5-halogenated-2'-deoxyuridines. HeTP has been characterized in terms of activity and stability against temperature, pH, and presence of organic co-solvent which are often needed during the synthesis of nucleoside analogues. The HeTP biocatalyst was further improved by covalent immobilization on methacrylate microbeads which then allowed its integration into a packed-bed reactor (PBR) for the intensification of the process to synthesize nucleoside drugs under flow conditions. Flow biocatalysis technology as well as *in silico* analyses have been adopted in this work to boost the biocatalytic potential of HeTP. Finally, we have investigated the

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a.</sup> Department of Chemistry, Biochemistry and Pharmaceutical Sciences. University of Bern. Freiestrasse 3, 3012. Bern (Switzerland). E-mail: francesca.paradisi@unibe.ch

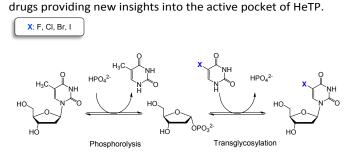
<sup>+</sup> Footnotes relating to the title and/or authors should appear here.

Electronic Supplementary Information (ESI) available: [details of any supplementary information available should be included here]. See DOI: 10.1039/x0xx00000x

#### **Catalysis Science and Technology**

#### ARTICLE

substrate scope of HeTP towards other pyrimidine nucleoside



Scheme 1. Two-step one-pot enzymatic reaction for the synthesis of halogenated pyrimidine nucleosides using thymidine as sugar donor.

## **Results and discussion**

#### Characterization of TP from the halotolerant H. elongata (HeTP)

The efficiency and scale-up of synthetic processes are generally linked to high temperatures and presence of co-solvents to which enzymes are not naturally adapted. These conditions are certainly needed to enhance the poor water-solubility of nucleoside analogues. For this reason, we screened the genome of the halotolerant organism Halomonas elongata which we have extensively studied in our lab as a source of robust enzymes, with an inherited tolerance towards co-solvents.<sup>17–22</sup> HeTP was expressed in E. coli as a soluble enzyme. After optimization of the protein expression (Fig. S1), HeTP harbouring a (6x)His-tag in the C-terminal was purified by IMAC obtaining 25-35 mg of protein per L of culture media (Fig. S2).

The activity of HeTP towards the phosphorolysis of thymidine reached 112.8 U/mg at 70°C in 0.5 M phosphate buffer at pH 7.0 (Fig. S3). Interestingly, HeTP presented an increasing activity up to 0.5 M of phosphate, and still retained activity even at 0.9 M phosphate, which may be due to its origin from a halotolerant microorganism (Fig. S3B). To simplify the reaction set up, the temperature for the standard activity assay was set at 30°C where HeTP maintains in any case 80% of the initial activity after 6 h (Fig. S4). Moreover, the enzyme can be stored at 4°C or room temperature for 2 weeks while retaining most of the activity (Fig. S5). In terms of pH, HeTP was stable between pH 6.0 and 9.0 for 3 h (Fig. S6). In addition, HeTP retained 80% of the phosphorolysis activity when 10% of DMSO or MeOH was added to the reaction media (Fig. S7A). Interestingly, HeTP activity was mostly retained (at least 75%) after incubation in various organic co-solvents such 20% dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO), 20% methanol (MeOH), 10% ethanol (EtOH), 20% dimethyl formamide (DMF), 10% acetonitrile (MeCN) (Fig. S7B). While the stability with 20% DMF and 20% MeCN is comparable to the E. coli TP, the stability with 20% EtOH is clearly superior to other pyrimidine nucleoside phosphorylases which suffered total loss of activity.<sup>13,23</sup> More comparative analysis could not be conducted due to the lack of previous results for other TPs.

# View Article Online

HeTP activity towards different nucleosides DOI: 10.1039/D2CY00751G HeTP phosphorolysis towards thymidine, the natural substrate, reached the equilibrium with 62% conversion at 5 mM scale in 2 h (Fig. S8). The enzyme presented a K<sub>M</sub> towards thymidine of 320  $\mu M$  with a  $V_{max}$  of 73 U/mg (Fig. S9A). For the phosphate, a  $K_M \sim 360 \ \mu M$  was estimated (Fig. S9B). These values are similar to the ones reported for the E. coli and human thymidine phosphorylases, while K<sub>M</sub> towards thymidine is significantly lower than the TP from M. hyorhinis and T. thermophilus (473  $\mu$ M and ~2400  $\mu$ M, respectively).<sup>15,24–26</sup>

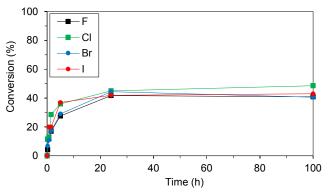
The substrate scope of HeTP towards other natural nucleosides was then probed. As an intrinsic characteristic of the thymidine phosphorylase family, HeTP did not accept purine nucleoside analogues (Table S1),<sup>10</sup> and it converted only the pyrimidine nucleoside analogues containing a 2'-deoxyribose and the O4 in the nucleobase ring (thymidine or deoxyuridine) (Table S2). Noteworthy, HeTP did not show activity towards 4'amino nucleobase which are building blocks for other pharmaceutically relevant nucleosides.<sup>27</sup> In an attempt to shift the activity towards this class of molecules, homology modelling and site-directed mutagenesis to favor the binding of the amino group was carried out (Fig. S10). Arg171 was identified as a hotspot as it acts as one of the electrostatic stabilizers during the catalysis. Arg171 was replaced by Gln171 and Glu171 which could potentially stabilize the 4-amino moiety, as predicted through docking, MD (molecular dynamics), and amino acid conservation analysis (Fig. S11-S13). As expected, the substitution R171E led to a loss of activity towards the natural substrate (thymidine),<sup>28</sup> while R171Q showed 10% of activity towards thymidine compared to the wild-type (WT) HeTP. However, none of the variants showed activity towards any of the 4-amino substituted substrates tested despite trying different reaction conditions (Fig. S14, see ESI for more details).

#### Biosynthesis of halogenated nucleoside analogues

WT HeTP was applied to the biosynthesis of four 5-substituted nucleoside analogues (5-fluoro-2'-deoxyuridine, 5-chloro-2'deoxyuridine, 5-bromo-2'-deoxyuridine, and 5-iodo-2'deoxyuridine) (Scheme 1). Using thymidine as the sugar donor, HeTP was employed to catalyze the one-pot single-enzyme phosphorolysis and transglycosylation of the halogenated nucleoside drugs (Fig. 1). In this first screening, before any optimization of the reaction conditions was carried out, up to 50% of

This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial 3.0 Unported Licence.

Den Access Article. Published on 08 August 2022. Downloaded on 8/17/2022 10:54:30 AM



**Fig. 1. Monitoring the transglycosylation conversions to produce halogenated nucleoside analogues using free HeTP.** The reaction mixture contained 10 mM of the halogenated nucleobase and 4 eq. of thymidine in 20 mM phosphate buffer at pH 7.5. The reactions were triggered with 2 units of free HeTP and incubated at 37°C and shaking.

conversion with the four halogenated drugs was achieved in 24 h. Similar conversions were previously achieved for the nucleoside analogues containing F and Br by using 5-fold the amount TP from *E. coli*, but adding half of the sugar donor (thymidine).<sup>13</sup>

#### Immobilization of HeTP on commercial resins

To improve the efficiency and sustainability of the biocatalytic process, HeTP was immobilized on microparticles that allow the reuse of the biocatalyst as well as its integration into a continuous reactor. We began testing methacrylate (EP403/S and EP400/SS) and agarose microbeads functionalized either with epoxy and cobalt chelates (Ep/Co<sup>2+</sup>) or glyoxyl (Gx) groups which are commercial supports and enable the covalent irreversible immobilization of HeTP as observed by SDS-PAGE (Fig. 2 and Fig. S15).<sup>29</sup> Although the immobilization yielded more than 85%, the recovered enzymatic activity was low (12-15%) compared to the free enzyme (Table 1). Hence, we decided to explore other supports for enzyme immobilization such as glass microparticles (EziG) and silica microbeads (Si2200). HeTP activity after irreversible immobilization

on Si2200 decreased even more (5%). However, the Herne immobilized on EziG yielded up to 3-fold higher addition of the support by metal coordination affinity which maintains the flexibility of the enzyme (Table 1).

Analysis of HeTP using CapiPy,<sup>30</sup> revealed that the C-terminal Histag is completely exposed and on the backside of the catalytic cleft, hence explaining the high recovered activity when immobilizing only through the (6x)-HisTag (Table 1 and Fig. S16A). On the other hand, HeTP has 14 solvent-accessible lysines per monomer scattered throughout the surface. Therefore, an irreversible and covalent multipoint attachment could reduce the necessary domain movement for the catalytic activity of HeTP and create a distortion of the protein structure leading to lower recovered activity. Moreover, in the open conformation of the enzyme, multiple lysines in the active site are also accessible and could abolish activity when directly involved in the immobilization (Fig. S16B).

The reusability of the different immobilized HeTP preparations was then tested. We found that the immobilized HeTP on Gx-EP403/S and Ep/Co-EP403/S retained more than 90% of the initial activity after 10 reaction cycles in batch, while the immobilized HeTP on EziG lost 30-50% of activity after only 5 reaction cycles (Fig. S17). Therefore, Gx-EP403/S was selected as support for the subsequent studies, considering the recovered activity of the enzyme, the low cost of the support, and the operational stability of the biocatalyst in batch. The protein loading on Gx-EP403/S was also optimized, with 3 mg/g of HeTP resulting in the best preparation (Fig. S18).

Enzyme immobilization often enhances the enzyme stability under harsher conditions. Thus, the temperature and DMSO stability of the irreversibly immobilized HeTP was tested. After 24 h of incubation at 30-45°C, the immobilized HeTP retained more than 85% of the initial activity, while the free enzyme lost up to 50% (Fig. S19). The stability of HeTP in presence of 10-20% DMSO was also increased after enzyme immobilization as HeTP maintained full initial activity after 3 h (Fig. S20). Some of these results are comparable to the solvent stability of the immobilized TP from *E. coli*, but only DMF and MeCN were used in that work.<sup>13</sup>

 Table 1. Immobilization parameters of the HeTP on different supports through various chemistries. The offered enzyme was 1 mg/g. Immobilization yield:

 (protein in solution - protein in the supernatant after immobilization)/protein in solution × 100. Recovered activity: specific activity of the free

 enzyme/specific activity of the immobilized enzyme ×100. Expressed activity: activity of the immobilized enzyme / g of support.

Support code	Reactive group	Enzyme-support binding	Matrix material	Immobilization yield (%)	Recovered activity (%)	Expressed activity (U/g)
Ep/Co <sup>2+</sup> -EP403/S	Epoxy/Co <sup>2+</sup>	NHCOH	Methacrylate	100	19	11.9
Ep/Co <sup>2+</sup> -AG	Epoxy/Co <sup>2+</sup>	NH-	Agarose	98	19	12.2
Ep/Co <sup>2+</sup> -Si2200	Epoxy/Co <sup>2+</sup>	Irreversible	Silica	65	6	3.2
Gx- EP403/S	Aldehyde		Methacrylate	97	23	20.5

This journal is © The Royal Society of Chemistry 20xx

#### ARTICLE

This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial 3.0 Unported Licence

Den Access Article. Published on 08 August 2022. Downloaded on 8/17/2022 10:54:30 AM

**Catalysis Science and Technology** 

Gx-EP400/SS	Aldehyde	ОН	Methacrylate	85	13 D	\/ <b>10₀9</b> Article Online DI: 10.1039/D2CY00751C
Gx-AG	Aldehyde	Irreversible	Agarose	87	18	11.2
EziG1	Fe <sup>3+</sup>	4.	Hydrophilic glass	97	38	35.9
EziG2	Fe <sup>3+</sup>	-0	Hydrophobic polymer	99	27	25.6
EziG3	Fe <sup>3+</sup>	Reversible	Semi-hydrophilic polymer	98	26	25.0

#### Optimization of the synthesis of halogenated nucleoside analogues with immobilized HeTP

The Gx-EP403/S immobilized HeTP was then applied for the synthesis Floxuridine (5-fluoro-2'-deoxyuridine) as a model reaction due to its relevance as antiviral, antibacterial and anticancer drug. The sugar donor concentration as well as the phosphate buffer were optimized for the transglycosylation. 10 mM phosphate buffer and 10 eq. of sugar donor were selected as the best conditions to reach the maximum conversion (85%) while using the least of reagents (Fig. S21). Further attempts to improve the conversion by increasing the nucleobase concentration, the amount of biocatalyst, and the temperature were not successful, in agreement with previous studies on nucleoside phosphorolysis (Table S3).<sup>31</sup> In contrast, the conversion was maintained when the nucleobase concentration was increased up to 20 mM with 10 eq. sugar donor (Table S3), as it could be expected from the law of mass action considering relative concentrations.<sup>32</sup> To the best of our knowledge, this is the highest substrate concentration used for the enzymatic synthesis of Floxuridine reported to date.

With the optimized conditions, we also performed the biosynthesis of the other halogenated nucleoside analogues in batch mode. The transglycosylation conversion reached 70-80% for the Br, I, and Cl nucleoside analogues (Table 2).

# Flow biosynthesis of halogenated nucleoside drugs: Process intensification

To increase the productivity of the biocatalytic system, the immobilized HeTP was implemented into a packed-bed reactor (PBR) for the continuous biosynthesis of halogenated nucleoside drugs. To do this, the nucleobase and the sugar donor were mixed with a Ttube before entering the PBR. HPLC pumps were used to modulate the flow-rate with residence times (R.T.) from 15 to 45 min, reaching the equilibrium at 30 min of R.T. for the F, Br, and Cl nucleoside drugs (Table 3). To the best of our knowledge, this is the first time that a thymidine phosphorylase is implemented under flow conditions for the synthesis of halogenated nucleoside drugs. In fact, to date, only one study describes the biocatalysed flow synthesis of the F and I analogues but with a different enzyme (2'-deoxyribosyl transferase) immobilized on epoxy silica.33

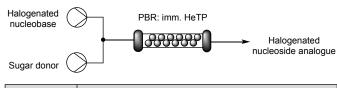
Table 2. Monitoring the biosynthesis of halogenated nucleoside analogues in batch by using the immobilized HeTP. Phosphorolysis of thymidine (%P) and transglycosylation of the nucleoside analogue (%T) are depicted. 20 mg of immobilized HeTP (3 mg/g) were added to 1 mL of reaction mixture (10 mM nucleobase and 100 mM sugar donor in 10 mM phosphate buffer at pH 7.5) and incubated at 37°C under shaking.

Halogen in	2 h		24 h		120 h	
nucleobase	%Р	%Т	%Р	%Т	%Р	%Т
F	5	33	17	84	18	85
CI	4	28	14	76	15	79
Br	4	20	10	67	10	70
I	6	35	12	80	12	83

The scale of the flow biosynthesis of Floxuridine was increased to 50 mM of the nucleobase while the sugar donor was maintained at 100 mM. Unsurprisingly, the conversion decreased from 87% to 17% while the amount of the final product (8 mM) was maintained (Table S4). As the nucleobase concentrations used herein are unusually high, a level of inhibition by the nucleobase may be observed, resulting in a slower reaction rate.<sup>15,34</sup> At 20 mM nucleobase with 10 eq. of sugar donor, which is the maximum achievable in terms of water solubility with this set up, 85% conversion was again achieved but in this case the amount of product was 2-fold higher at 16.8 mM (Table S5). This system provided the highest space-time yield reported to date for the synthesis of Floxuridine (Table 4).13,33,35,36

In terms of the biocatalyst stability in flow, after 20 column volumes (10 h), more than 60% conversion was maintained (Fig. S22). These results show a significant improvement over the previously reported example in which just 35% conversion was retained after 10 h.33 Besides, we stored the PBR at 4°C for 2 months while not in use, preserving more than 90% of the enzymatic activity.

Table 3. Continuous flow biosynthesis of halogenated nucleoside analogues. Phosphorolysis of thymidine (%P) and transglycosylation of the nucleoside analogue (%T) are depicted. The PBR (volume: 2.16 mL) was filled with the immobilized HeTP (3 mg/g). 10 mM nucleobase and 100 mM thymidine in 10 mM phosphate buffer at pH 7.5 were pumped to the PBR. The flow-rate was adjusted (48-144  $\mu$ L/min) to achieve the different residence times depicted. The flow reactions were performed at 37°C.



Halogen in	15	min	30 min 45 min			min
nucleobase	%Р	%Т	%Р	%Т	%Р	%т
F	9	53	15	82	15	87
CI	6	55	14	85	15	86
Br	9	63	14	84	15	88
I	7	55	11	74	13	83

Table 4. Scale-up flow biosynthesis of halogenated nucleoside analogues. The PBR (volume: 2.16 mL) was filled with the immobilized HeTP (3 mg/g). 10 eq. of sugar donor (thymidine) were used. R.T. 45 min. Temperature:  $37^{\circ}$ C.

Nucleobase (mM)	Conversion (%)	STY (g/L/h)	Catalyst productivity (mg <sub>roduct</sub> /mg <sub>enzyme</sub> /h)
10	87 ± 1	2.9	0.95
20	84 ± 2	5.5	1.84

# Conclusions

We have expanded the toolbox of robust thymidine phosphorylases with the halotolerant HeTP. This is the first time that a thymidine phosphorylase has been implemented in a flow reactor. Moreover, we have pioneered the biosynthesis of 5-chloro-2'-deoxyuridine by using isolated enzymes.<sup>35</sup>

This work also showcases the potential of two key technologies in biocatalysis: enzyme immobilization and flow chemistry. The immobilized HeTP has enhanced stability against high temperatures, co-solvents and long-term storage compared with its free counterpart. Enzyme immobilization also enabled the reuse of the biocatalyst for 10 cycles retaining the full enzymatic activity, which means a decrease in waste and process costs. Finally, continuous flow technology speeds up biosynthetic processes, while offering an automatized and controlled handling of the system. This has allowed the process intensification of Floxuridine reaching the highest STY and productivity results reported so far. Hence, our work is timely in progressing the biosynthetic strategies of such important molecules. Specifically with the relevance of Floxuriding as anticancer and building block in SARS-related vaccines. CY00751G

# **Experimental section**

#### Materials

All chemical reagents were acquired from Sigma Aldrich (Gillingham, UK), Thermo Fisher (Loughborough, UK), Acros Organics (Reinach, Switzerland), or Fluorochem (Hadfield, UK) and used without further purification. Plain agarose (6BCL) was purchased from Agarose Bead Technologies (Madrid, Spain). The methacrylate supports were purchased from Resindion S.R.L (Milan, Italy). The EziG<sup>™</sup> (glass microparticles) were kindly donated by EnginZyme.

#### HeTP expression and purification

The gene deoA codifying for the HeTP (A.N. Q7CP66) was cloned into the pET28b plasmid (Ncol/Xhol) and transformed into E. coli BL21(DE3) star competent cells by heat-shock at 42°C. Then, 1 L flasks containing 300 mL of autoinduction medium (ZYM) with 50  $\mu$ g/mL kanamycin were inoculated with a colony and incubated at 37ºC for 20 h. Protein expression in LB and TB media were also tested (Fig. S1). The resulting cells were harvested by centrifugation at 4500 rpm and resuspended in 50 mM phosphate buffer, 300 mM NaCl and 30 mM imidazole at pH 7.0. The suspension was placed on ice and sonicated at 40 % amplitude for 8 min, with pulses of 5 sec ON, 10 sec OFF. After centrifugation at 12,300 g for 45 min, the supernatant was filtered with a 0.45  $\mu$ m filter and HeTP was purified from the supernatant by a Ni-NTA column in the AKTA-pure. HeTP was eluted in 50 mM phosphate buffer, 300 mM NaCl and 300 mM imidazole at pH 8.0. The purified enzyme was dialyzed twice in 100 mM phosphate buffer at pH 7.0. The protein expression and purification were analyzed by SDS-PAGE.

#### Determination of protein concentration

The protein concentration was estimated by measuring the absorbance at 280 nm in the EPOCH2 (nanodrop Tek3 plate) and using the predicted extinction coefficient 14,105 M x cm-1 and the molecular weight 47,736 Daltons obtained from https://web.expasy.org/protparam. Low protein concentrations (<1 mg/mL) were determined by Bradford assay by measuring the absorbance at 595 nm of a solution containing 5  $\mu$ L of protein sample with 250  $\mu$ L of Bradford reagent. A standard curve was done with BSA.

#### Activity assay

A modified photometric assay previously reported was used to assess the activity of the soluble HeTP. Briefly, 990  $\mu$ L of 1 mM thymidine and 0.5 M potassium phosphate at pH 7.0 were added to a 1 mL-cuvette and the reaction was triggered with 10  $\mu$ L of HeTP (0.25 mg/mL). The absorbance at 290 nm was recorded for 2 min at 30°C. Alternatively, the activity was

# **Catalysis Science and Technology**

Page 6 of 8

monitored in a 96-well plate by mixing 300 µL of substrate solution and 5  $\mu$ L of HeTP (d= 0.75 cm). In the time frame of linear absorbance decrease, regression was performed to calculate the slope of the absorbance decrease per minute. One unit is defined as the amount of enzyme that will convert  $1 \, \mu$ mol of thymidine to thymine per minute. The specific enzyme activity (U/mg) was calculated as reported by Krenitsky et al.,37 based on the difference in millimolar extinction coefficients ( $\epsilon$ ) between thymidine and thymine which under the assay conditions equals 1. Specific activity was then calculated with equation 1:

,	4	١
(	T	.)

(Renzyme - Rblank ) x Vtotal x DF
ε x Venzyme x d
Cenzyme

Where:

R<sub>enzyme</sub> = Slope of the reaction regression (min<sup>-1</sup>) R<sub>blank</sub> = Slope of the blank regression (min<sup>-1</sup>) DF = Dilution factor of enzyme  $\varepsilon$  = Difference in millimolar extinction coefficient between thymidine and thymine (M<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-1</sup>) V<sub>enzyme</sub> = Volume of enzyme added (mL) V<sub>total</sub> = Total volume of the reaction (mL) C<sub>enzyme</sub> = Concentration of the added enzyme solution (mg/mL) d = pathlength (cm)

#### **Biotransformations in batch mode**

Batch reactions with soluble enzyme (2 units) were incubated at 37°C and under shaking for 24 h in 1 mL of reaction mix containing the sugar donor, the nucleobase, and phosphate buffer at pH 7.0 at the specified concentrations. Batch reactions with immobilized enzyme were triggered adding 50 mg of 3 mg/g immobilized HeTP, unless otherwise specified. The reactions were monitored by HPLC.

The conversion (%) was calculated from the HPLC analyses of the reaction mixtures following the equation 2:

> product area x 100 product area + substrate area

The molar conversions (%) were also confirmed by using standard curves of the substrates and products (1 - 50 mM).

#### Activation of supports and enzyme immobilization

Ep-AG (agarose microbeads activated with epoxy groups): Epoxy-agarose was prepared as previously described.<sup>38</sup> The addition of Co<sup>2+</sup>-chelates was carried out by incubating 1 g of epoxy-agarose with 2 mL of modification buffer (0.1 M sodium borate, 2 M iminodiacetic acid pH 8.0) for 2 h. After filtration and washing, the support was incubated with 5 mL of Metal Buffer (30 mg/mL of CoCl<sub>2</sub>). After filtration and washing, 5 mL of enzyme solution were added to the Ep/Co<sup>2+</sup>-AG and the suspension was incubated for 6 h under shaking at room temperature. The immobilized enzyme was washed with 3 mL of desorption buffer (50 mM EDTA, 0.5 M NaCl in 50 mM phosphate buffer, pH 7.2). Finally, the remaining epoxy groups were blocked by incubation with 4 mL of 3 M glycine pH 8.5 overnight and afterwards the immobilized enzyme was washed with 100 mM phosphate buffer at pH 7.5 before its storage.

EP403/S (methacrylate microbeads activated with epoxy groups): EP403/S activated with epoxy groups was commercially available. The addition of Co<sup>2+</sup>-chelates and the enzyme immobilization were carried out as described in the previous section for Ep-AG.

Ep-Si2200 and Ep-Si250 (silica microbeads activated with epoxy groups): 1 gram of silica microbeads (Sipernat® 2200-PC and Sipernat® 250-PC) were washed and resuspended in 2 mL of H<sub>2</sub>O. Then, 0.5 mL of 25% of 3-Glycidyloxypropyl trimethoxysilane in acetone were added drop by drop to the previous suspension. The suspension was incubated overnight at 25°C under shaking. After filtration and washing, the addition of Co2+-chelates and the enzyme immobilization were carried out as described in the previous section for Ep-AG.

Gx-AG (agarose microbeads activated with aldehyde groups): Epoxy-agarose was activated with glyoxyl groups following a modified version of a previous protocol.<sup>39</sup> Briefly, 1 g of epoxyagarose was incubated with 10 mL of 100 mM H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> overnight under orbital shaking. Then, the support was filtered and washed. The resulting glyceryl support was oxidized with 10 mL of 30 mM NaIO<sub>4</sub> for 2 h under orbital shaking. After filtration and washing, 10 mL of enzyme solution in 100 mM sodium bicarbonate buffer at pH 10.0 were mixed with 1 g of AG-Gx and incubated under orbital shaking for 3 h at 4°C. Then, the suspension was filtered and incubated with 10 mL of 1 mg/mL NaBH<sub>4</sub> for 30 min at 4°C to reduce the imine bonds. The immobilized enzyme was washed with 100 mM phosphate buffer at pH 7.5 before its storage.

#### **Stability tests**

HeTP was incubated in 1 mL of buffer. At different time points, 100 µL of enzyme solution/suspension were withdrawn to measure the activity as described above.

Co-solvent stability: The enzyme solution/suspension was incubated at 25°C for 72 h.

Temperature stability: The enzyme solution/suspension was incubated at 30°C, 37°C or 45°C for 72 h.

pH stability: universal buffer was used (60 mM citric acid, 25 mM sodium tetraborate, 50 mM potassium chloride, 50 mM TRIS, 50 mM potassium phosphate) where the pH was adjusted as required with 0.2 M NaOH.

#### Flow reactions

Flow biotransformations were performed using a R2S/R4 Vapourtec flow reactor equipped with a V3 pump and an Omnifit glass column (6.6 mm i.d. × 100 mm length) filled with the immobilized enzyme (2 g with 3 mg/g of protein loading) as a packed-bed reactor (PBR) of 2.4 mL. A first equilibration step was performed by running 10 mM phosphate buffer pH 7.0 at

(2)

Downloaded on 8/17/2022 10:54:30 AM

6 | J. Name., 2012, 00, 1-3

**Catalysis Science and Technology** 

0.4 mL/min for 10 min. Then, the solutions of substrates at different concentrations were mixed in a T-tube and pumped through the PBR containing the immobilized biocatalyst. The flow-rate was adapted depending on the desired residence time for each reaction (R.T. 15 min corresponds to 0.160 mL/min; R.T. 30 min corresponds to 0.080 mL/min; R.T. 45 min corresponds to 0.053 mL/min) unless otherwise specified. Samples were collected after each column volume and analyzed by HPLC.

#### **HPLC** analysis

The samples were prepared by mixing 100  $\mu$ L of the reaction medium with 200  $\mu L$  of MeCN and 200  $\mu L$  of 0.2% HCl in  $H_2O$  (or 400  $\mu$ L of MeOH). The samples were filtered with a 0.45  $\mu$ m PTFE filter prior submission to HPLC (Dionex UltiMate 3000 (Thermo Fisher, Loughborough, UK) equipped with a C18 column 3.5 µm, 2.1 × 100 mm (Waters, Elstree, UK). 2 µL of sample were injected. For the phosphorolysis analysis, a gradient method 5:95 to 95:5 (H<sub>2</sub>O:MeCN containing 0.1% TFA) over 4 min with a flow rate of 0.8 mL/min at 45°C was employed. Thymidine (4 min) and thymine (3.1 min) were detected by UV at 265 nm. For the analysis of both phosphorolysis and transglycosylation, a gradient method 1:55 to 55:1 (H<sub>2</sub>O:MeOH) over 8 min was used. 5'-azacytosine (1.8 min), 5'-aza-2'deoxycitidine (2.9 min), were detected by UV at 250 nm. Thymidine (5.1 min), thymine (4.1 min), 5-fluorouracil (2.6 min), and 5-fluoro-2'-deoxyuridine (4.4 min) were detected by UV at 265 nm. 5-chlororouracil (3.9 min), 5-chloro-2'-deoxyuridine (5.2 min), 5-bromorouracil (4.3 min), 5-bromo-2'-deoxyuridine (5.5 min), 5-iodouracil (5.1 min), and 5-iodo-2'-deoxyuridine (6 min), cytosine (2 min), 2'-deoxycitidine (3.76 min) were detected by UV at 280 nm.

#### Modelling and docking analysis

HeTP was modelled using SWISS-MODEL via the Expasy web server. Visualization of the active site pocket was performed by using the CASTp webserver. The resulting PDB file was then loaded into Chimera alongside the original HeTP model and colored for visualization. The model was used for the docking studies, performed with Autodock Vina.<sup>40</sup> The substrates were manually build using the Build function in UCSF Chimera from their SMILES code.<sup>41</sup> The results were analyzed and visualized in UCSF Chimera and PyMOL.<sup>42</sup>

#### **MD** analysis

To perform the molecular dynamics studies, the Enlighten2 plugin for PyMOL was used.<sup>43</sup> Simulations were performed with the monomeric structure of HeTP and with mobility only on the residues at 12 Å surrounding the docked substrate. After minimization of the system, the MD simulation was performed for 1 ns. Results were analyzed using the built-in tools of UCSF Chimera.

# **Author Contributions**

View Article Online DOI: 10.1039/D2CY00751G

F.P. supervised and guided the project. A.I.B.M. and F.P. conceptualized the idea and secured the funding. A.I.B.M. conducted most of the experimental part and wrote the first draft of the manuscript. C.K. carried out the first characterization of the HeTP. D.R.P. performed MD and CapiPy analysis. All the authors discussed the results and agreed to the final version of the manuscript.

# **Conflicts of interest**

There are no conflicts to declare.

# Acknowledgements

This project was supported by the SNSF (200021\_192274, F.P) and the University of Bern "Seal of Excellence Fund" Postdoctoral Fellowship (SELF19-03 BIORPHANDRUG, A.I.B.M).

# References

6

7

8

9

- 1 L. P. Jordheim, D. Durantel, F. Zoulim and C. Dumontet, *Nat. Rev. Drug Discov.*, 2013, **12**, 447–464.
- D. Benedetto Tiz, L. Bagnoli, O. Rosati, F. Marini, L.
   Sancineto and C. Santi, *Molecules*, 2022, 27, 1643.
- 3 W. S. Yeo, R. Arya, K. K. Kim, H. Jeong, K. H. Cho and T. Bae, Sci. Rep., 2018, 8, 1–10.
  - C. M. Galmarini, *Electron. J. Oncol.*, 2002, **3**, 22–32.
- 5 HS/CN8 classification reference list for dataset 'EU trade since 2015 of COVID-19 medical supplies', https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/documents/6842948/11003
   521/Corona+related+products+by+categories.pdf, (accessed 11 April 2022).
  - M. J. Lapponi, C. W. Rivero, M. A. Zinni, C. N. Britos and J. A. Trelles, *J. Mol. Catal. B Enzym.*, 2016, **133**, 218–233.
  - S. C. Cosgrove and G. J. Miller, *Expert Opin. Drug Discov.*, 2022, **17**, 355–364.
  - F. Kaspar, M. R. L. Stone, P. Neubauer and A. Kurreck, Green Chem., 2021, **23**, 37–50.
  - Y. Ni, D. Holtmann and F. Hollmann, ChemCatChem, 2014, **6**, 930–943.
- S. Kamel, H. Yehia, P. Neubauer and A. Wagner, in Enzymatic and Chemical Synthesis of Nucleic Acid Derivatives, eds. J. Fernández-Lucas and M.-J. Camarasa Rius, First., 2019, pp. 1–28.
- M. A. Huffman, A. Fryszkowska, O. Alvizo, M. Borra-Garske, K. R. Campos, K. A. Canada, P. N. Devine, D. Duan, J. H. Forstater, S. T. Grosser, H. M. Halsey, G. J. Hughes, J. Jo, L. A. Joyce, J. N. Kolev, J. Liang, K. M. Maloney, B. F. Mann, N. M. Marshall, M. McLaughlin, J. C. Moore, G. S. Murphy, C. C. Nawrat, J. Nazor, S. Novick, N. R. Patel, A. Rodriguez-Granillo, S. A. Robaire, E. C. Sherer, M. D. Truppo, A. M. Whittaker, D. Verma, L. Xiao, Y. Xu and H. Yang, *Science* (80-. )., 2019, **366**, 1255–1259.
- 12 J. A. McIntosh, T. Benkovics, S. M. Silverman, M. A. Huffman, J. Kong, P. E. Maligres, T. Itoh, H. Yang, D. Verma,

atalysis Science & Technology Accepted Manusc

# **Catalysis Science and Technology**

Dpen Access Article. Published on 08 August 2022. Downloaded on 8/17/2022 10:54:30 AM. X-NO This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial 3.0 Unported Licence

## ARTICLE

W. Pan, H. I. Ho, J. Vroom, A. M. Knight, J. A. Hurtak, A. Klapars, A. Fryszkowska, W. J. Morris, N. A. Strotman, G. S. Murphy, K. M. Maloney and P. S. Fier, *ACS Cent. Sci.*, 2021, **7**, 1980–1985.

- I. Serra, T. Bavaro, D. A. Cecchini, S. Daly, A. M. Albertini,
   M. Terreni and D. Ubiali, J. Mol. Catal. B Enzym., 2013, 95, 16–22.
- 14 S. Rocchietti, D. Ubiali, M. Terreni, A. M. Albertini, R. Fernández-Lafuente, J. M. Guisán and M. Pregnolato, *Biomacromolecules*, 2004, **5**, 2195–2200.
- F. Kaspar, P. Neubauer and A. Kurreck, *ChemBioChem*, 2021, **22**, 1385–1390.
- 16 A. I. Benítez-Mateos, M. L. Contente, D. Roura Padrosa and F. Paradisi, *React. Chem. Eng.*, 2021, **6**, 599–611.
- 17 D. Roura Padrosa, A. I. Benítez-Mateos, L. Calvey and F. Paradisi, *Green Chem.*, 2020, **22**, 5310–5316.
- 18 L. Cerioli, M. Planchestainer, J. Cassidy, D. Tessaro and F. Paradisi, *J. Mol. Catal. B Enzym.*, 2015, **120**, 141–150.
- 19 D. Roura Padrosa, Z. Nissar, F. Paradisi and D. M. Reactors, *Catalysts*, 2021, **11**, 520.
- 20 D. Roura Padrosa, V. De Vitis, M. L. Contente, F. Molinari and F. Paradisi, *Catalysts*, 2019, **9**, 232.
- A. I. Benítez-Mateos and F. Paradisi, *ChemSusChem*, 2022, 15, 1–9.
- M. L. Contente, N. Fiore, P. Cannazza, D. Roura Padrosa, F. Molinari, L. Gourlay and F. Paradisi, *ChemCatChem*, 2020, 12, 5679–5685.
- N. Hori, M. Watanabe and Y. Mikami, *Biocatalysis*, 1991, 4, 297–304.
- N. G. Panova, C. S. Alexeev, A. S. Kuzmichov, E. V.
   Shcheveleva, S. A. Gavryushov, K. M. Polyakov, A. M.
   Kritzyn, S. N. Mikhailov, R. S. Esipov and A. I. Miroshnikov, *Biochem.*, 2007, 72, 21–28.
- J. Vande Voorde, F. Gago, K. Vrancken, S. Liekens and J. Balzarini, *Biochem. J.*, 2012, 445, 113–123.
- 26 T. Oh and M. H. El Kouni, *PLoS One*, 2018, **13**, 1–18.
- L. Zhong, Y. Li, L. Xiong, W. Wang, M. Wu, T. Yuan, W. Yang,
   C. Tian, Z. Miao, T. Wang and S. Yang, *Signal Transduct. Target. Ther.*, 2021, 6, 201.
- E. Mitsiki, A. C. Papageorgiou, S. Iyer, N. Thiyagarajan, S. H.
   Prior, D. Sleep, C. Finnis and K. R. Acharya, *Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun.*, 2009, **386**, 666–670.
- A. I. Benítez-Mateos and M. L. Contente, *Catalysts*, 2021, 11, 814.
- 30 D. Roura Padrosa, V. Marchini and F. Paradisi, *Bioinformatics*, 2021, **37**, 2761–2762.
- 31 F. Kaspar, R. T. Giessmann, P. Neubauer, A. Wagner and M. Gimpel, *Adv. Synth. Catal.*, 2020, **362**, 867–876.
- C. S. Alexeev, I. V. Kulikova, S. Gavryushov, V. I. Tararov and
   S. N. Mikhailov, *Adv. Synth. Catal.*, 2018, **360**, 3090–3096.
- F. Rinaldi, J. Fernández-Lucas, D. de la Fuente, C. Zheng, T. Bavaro, B. Peters, G. Massolini, F. Annunziata, P. Conti, I. de la Mata, M. Terreni and E. Calleri, *Bioresour. Technol.*, 2020, **307**, 123258.
- 34 F. Kaspar, F. Brandt, S. Westarp, L. Eilert, S. Kemper, A. Kurreck, P. Neubauer, C. R. Jacob and A. Schallmey, *Biased Borate Esterification during Nucleoside Phosphorylase*-

Catalyzed Reactions: Apparent Equilibrium Shifts, and e Online Kinetic Implications, 2022, preprint.DOI: 10.1039/D2CY00751G

- C. W. Rivero, C. N. Britos, M. E. Lozano, J. V. Sinisterra and
   J. A. Trelles, *FEMS Microbiol. Lett.*, 2012, **331**, 31–36.
- 36 M. B. Méndez, C. W. Rivero, F. López-Gallego, J. M. Guisán and J. A. Trelles, J. Biotechnol., 2018, 270, 39–43.
- 374.178.212, 1979.
- 38 C. Mateo, G. Fernández-Lorente, E. Cortés, J. L. Garcia, R.
   Fernández-Lafuente and J. M. Guisan, *Biotechnol. Bioeng.*,
   2001, **76**, 269–276.
- 39 J. M. Guisán, Enzyme Microb. Technol., 1988, **10**, 375–382.
- 40 J. Eberhardt, D. Santos-Martins, A. F. Tillack and S. Forli, *J. Chem. Inf. Model.*, 2021, **61**, 3891–3898.
- E. F. Pettersen, T. D. Goddard, C. C. Huang, G. S. Couch, D.
  M. Greenblatt, E. C. Meng and T. E. Ferrin, *J. Comput. Chem.*, 2004, **25**, 1605–1612.
- 42 W. L. Delano, CCP4 Newsl. Protein Crystallogr.
- K. Zinovjev and M. W. Van Der Kamp, *Bioinformatics*, 2020,
   36, 5104–5106.