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Why calcium inhibits magnesium-dependent enzyme phosphoserine phosphatase? A theoretical study

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Abstract Phosphoserine phosphatase (PSP) utilizes one Mg^{2+} ion to catalyze the hydrolysis of phospho-L-serine. The displacement of Mg^{2+} by Ca^{2+} results in the loss of activity. The reaction mechanisms for the enzyme with both Mg²⁺ and Ca²⁺ bound were investigated using hybrid density functional theory. A large quantum chemical model abstracted from the X-ray crystal structure was employed in the calculations. Our calculations shed new insight into the catalytic mechanism of the natural enzyme and its lack of activity by Ca²⁺ substitution. For the catalytic reaction, our calculations showed that the whole reaction proceeds through two steps, namely dephosphorylation and phosphate hydrolysis. The associated barriers for these two steps are calculated to be 11.9 and 12.0 kcal mol^{-1} , respectively. The Mg-bound Asp11 residue functions as a nucleophile to attack the phosphorus moiety, in

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concomitant with the departure of the leaving group, which takes a proton from the neutral Asp13 residue. In the subsequent step, the newly formed anionic Asp13 residue activates a water molecule to perform the reverse attack on the phosphoryl intermediate, affording the phosphate product. The substitution of Mg^{2+} by Ca^{2+} results in different metal coordination fashion, in which the Asp167 residue changes from bidentate to monodentate and a second water molecule becomes ligated to Ca^{2+} . The calculated barriers for the hydrolysis are ca 8 kcal mol⁻¹ higher than those in the native enzyme, which reconciles with the fact that Ca^{2+} inhibits the activity of PSP. Several possible reasons are discussed.

Keywords Phosphoserine phosphatase · Magnesium · Calcium · Density functional calculations · Inhibition mechanism

1 Introduction

Phosphoserine phosphatase (PSP, EC 3.1.3.3) is a mononuclear magnesium-dependent enzyme that catalyzes the hydrolysis of phospho-L-serine (PLS), leading to the formation of L-serine and inorganic phosphate (Pi) (Scheme 1) [1]. The product, L-serine, is not only the direct precursor of D-serine and a precursor for the biosynthesis of glycine but also an uncompetitive inhibitor of PSP [2–12]. PSP is a likely regulator of the steady-state D-serine level in brain, which is a crucial co-agonist of the *N*-methyl-D-aspartate (NMDA) type of glutamate receptors in mammalian tissues, especially in the nervous system [3–10]. It is possible to regulate NMDA activity by using selective inhibitors against serine racemase and/or PSP [2–12]. Thus, PSP may be an attractive target for inhibitor and drug design.



Scheme 1 Reaction catalyzed by phosphoserine phosphatase

Amino acid sequence analysis has demonstrated that Methanococcus jannaschii PSP (MJPSP), the subject for this study, is a member of the haloacid dehalogenase (HAD) superfamily. The members in this family are characterized by three highly conserved sequence motifs: DXDX [T/V] [L/V], [S/T]XX, and K-[G/S][D/S]XXX[D/ N] [3-10, 13]. The first aspartate residue in motif I functions as an nucleophile to start the reaction [3, 13, 14]. Mutation of the conserved residues shows that all three motifs play an important role in the catalysis [13–16]. MJPSP [1, 3, 17] and several other members of this family, such as human PSP (HPSP) [2, 18, 19], deoxynucleotidases (dNs) [20], haloacid dehalogenase [21], Ca-ATPase P-subunit [22], and β -phosphoglucomutase (β -PGM) [23], have similar α/β fold and architecture of the active site but are able to catalyze different type of reactions. Wang et al suggested that the PSPs form a phospho-enzyme intermediate during the reaction [1, 3, 17], which is similar to the case of soluble nucleotidase presented by Allegrini [24].

The X-ray crystal structure of MJPSP has been solved in complex with different inhibitors and transition state analogues [1, 3, 17]. The structure of MJPSP complexed with phosphate reveals a mononuclear magnesium center in the active site [3-10]. The first-shell coordination sphere includes the phosphate, two aspartates (Asp11, Asp167), the carbonyl group of the Asp13 backbone, and two H₂O molecules. Asp11 was suggested to perform the nucleophilic attack and get phosphorylated [3, 13, 14]. A secondshell residue, Asp13, which is believed to be the general acid to protonate the leaving group [13], forms two hydrogen bonds to Thr21 and the peptide backbone of Glu20-Thr21. In addition, a lysine (Lys144) and an arginine (Arg56) provide electrostatic interaction with the phosphate [1]. Furthermore, Asn170 and Ser99-Gly100 peptide backbone donate hydrogen bonds to the phosphate [1]. Kinetic studies of mutant enzymes showed that the mutation of the amino acid residues (D11E/N, D13E/N, S99A, K144A/R, and D167N) in the active site led to impaired catalytic activity, decreased substrate, or magnesium binding affinity [13–16]. Structure and mutagenesis studies indicate a critical role of Asp13 as a general acid/ base in the phosphoryl transfer reaction [3-14].

The reaction mechanism of PSP has been put forward on the basis of structural [1, 3, 11, 19] and kinetic [13, 15, 16] studies, as well as theoretical calculations [25, 26]. Wang and coworkers suggested that the hydrolysis of PLS proceeds through a stepwise phosphotransfer mechanism: the phosphoryl group is transferred from PLS to Asp11 via a penta-coordinated phosphorus intermediate, producing a labile phosphoenzyme intermediate and a serine molecule. In the following step, the phosphorylated PSP is hydrolyzed, releasing inorganic phosphate [1, 3]. In this mechanism, the retention of the phosphorus configuration is suggested. Due to the liability of the aspartyl-phosphate formed during the reaction, it is difficult to characterize such intermediate using experimental tools. In the crystal of MJPSP in complex with BeF₃, an aspartyl-BeF₃ structure is observed, which suggests an associative character during the phosphoryl transfer [17]. Based on QM/MM calculations, Re et al. suggested that the reversible phosphorylation of PSP proceeds with a concerted and geometrically associative (compact phosphorane-like) but electronically dissociative (metaphosphate-like) transition state, coupled with a proton transfer from Asp13 to the leaving group (Scheme 2) [25, 26]. However, for the hydrolysis reaction, their calculations showed that the reaction barrier of the backward reaction (2.7 kcal mol^{-1}) is much lower than that of the forward reaction $(24.4 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1})$ [26]. This indicates that the hydrolysis cannot take place due to the higher barrier and also the large endothermicity (ca +22 kcal mol⁻¹), which thus cannot explain the catalysis for this enzyme.

Of particular interesting is that the incorporation of Ca²⁺ into the active site of PSP leads to the loss of the activity [2, 18, 19]. The inhibitory effect of Ca²⁺ on the Mg²⁺-dependent PSP has been proposed to correlate with the difference in the coordination structures of Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} in the active site. Peeraer et al suggested that Ca^{2+} cannot provide the same metal-ligand binding pattern as Mg^{2+} and Asp11 may become bidentate to calcium [18, 19]. On the basis of the crystal structure of HPSP, Dudev and Lim proposed that a switch of the carboxylatebinding mode of Asp20 in HPSP (corresponding to Asp11 in MJPSP) from monodentate to bidentate takes place upon Ca^{2+} substitution, which abolishes the enzymatic activity [27]. Similar proposal has been put forward for Mg^{2+} -dependent E. coli ribonuclease H1 to explain the lack of activity by Ca²⁺ substitution [28]. DFT calculations by Dudev and Lim suggested that the favorable carboxylatewater hydrogen-bonding interaction in Mg complexes makes the monodentate carboxylate-binding mode preferred in magnesium proteins [29]. In spite of these possible explanations, exactly how calcium inhibits the activity of PSP is still not clear.

In the present work, density functional calculations were employed to investigate the inhibition mechanism of MJPSP by Ca^{2+} ion. A model of the active site was designed on the basis of the crystal structures (PDB ID: 1F5S), and potential energy profiles were calculated for



enzyme with both Mg^{2+} and Ca^{2+} ions as the cofactors employing the hybrid density functional method B3LYP [30–32]. This approach has previously been successfully applied to the study of a number of enzyme reaction mechanisms [33–54]. Including two recent studies on the reaction mechanisms of the related magnesium-dependent enzymes Deoxynucleotidases (dNs) [33], *Escherichia coli* inorganic pyrophosphatase (E-PPase) [44].

2 Computational details

The calculations presented herein were performed using the density functional method B3LYP [30-32] as implemented in the Gaussian03 program package [55]. Geometry optimizations were carried out with the 6-31G(d,p) basis sets for C, N, O, and H elements and the 6-311+G(d) for Mg, Ca, and P. On the basis of the optimized geometries, more accurate energies were obtained by performing single-point calculations with the 6-311++G(2d,2p) basis sets for all elements. For the phosphoryl transfer step with Mg^{2+}/Ca^{2+} ion, singlepoint calculations at the MPWB1K/6-311++G(2d,2p) [56] and BB1K/6-311++G(2d,2p) [57] levels based on the same optimized geometries were also carried out to evaluate the sensitivity of the energetics to the choice of different functionals. The calculated barrier of 13.8/19.8 and 13.7/ 19.8 kcal mol⁻¹ is very close to the barrier with B3LYP $(11.9/18.4 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1})$, further confirming the adequacy of B3LYP for this kind of applications.

The polarization effects of the enzyme environment were evaluated by performing single-point calculations on the optimized structures at the same theory level as the geometry optimizations using the conductor-like polarizable continuum model (CPCM) method [58–61]. The dielectric constant ε was set to four, which is a value usually used in modeling protein surroundings.

Frequency calculations were performed at the same theory level as the geometry optimizations to obtain zero-point energies (ZPE) and to confirm the nature of various stationary points. As will be discussed below, some atoms were kept fixed to their X-ray crystal positions during geometry optimizations. This procedure leads to a few small imaginary frequencies, in this case on the order of 10i-40i cm⁻¹. As they do not contribute significantly to the ZPE and can thus be ignored. However, they make the calculations of the harmonic entropy effects inaccurate. Therefore, entropy was not considered in the current study. In any case, entropy effects are expected to be rather small and do not alter any mechanistic conclusion, as shown, for example, by QM/MM-free energy calculations on histone lysine methyltransferase [62], p-hydroxybenzoate hydroxylase [63], 5'-fluoro-5'-deoxyadenosine synthase, P450cam, and chorismate mutase [64]. The energies reported herein are corrected with both solvation and zero-point energies.

3 Model of active site

Based on the crystal structure of MJPSP (PDB ID: 1F5S) [3] (see Fig. 1), a model of the active site is devised. The model consists of the divalent metal center (Mg^{2+} in model A and Ca^{2+} in model B) and its first-shell ligands:

Fig. 1 X-ray crystal structure of the active site of MJPSP in complex with a phosphate group bound (coordinates taken from PDB ID: 1F5S) [3]



carboxylate moieties of Asp167 and Asp11, backbone carbonyl group of Asp13, and two water molecules (Fig. 2). Asp13 is set to be neutral as the crystal structure of PSP suggests that it is in a protonated state [3] and its pKa value was 5.45 predicted by Re et al. [26] using PROPKA, which is shifted toward a basic region compared to the model value of Asp (3.80). Thus, it is believed to be the general acid to protonate the leaving group [3, 14]. Truncated models of the second-shell residues, Phe12, Ser14, Glu20-Thr21, Arg56, Ser99-Gly100, Lys144, and Asn170, are also included, as shown in Fig. 2. Hydrogen atoms are added manually. To keep the optimized structures close to the experimental one, some truncated atoms are kept fixed at their corresponding X-ray positions during the geometry optimizations. These atoms are labeled with asterisks in the figures below. The natural phospho-L-serine substrate was used to study the mechanism. The resulting model consists of 141 and 144 atoms for the dephosphorylation and phosphate hydrolysis reaction, respectively, and the total charge of the model is -1.

4 Results and discussion

4.1 Reaction mechanism by PSP with Mg^{2+} ion

In this study, we first considered the reaction mechanism of PSP with the Mg^{2+} ion. The optimized structure of the PSP active site model in complex with the PLS substrate (called

A-Re) is shown in Fig. 2. Most of geometric parameters obtained from calculations are in good agreement with the experimental structure, except that the Mg²⁺ ion coordinates to one water molecule and bidentately to Asp167 rather than to two water molecules and monodentately to Asp167 as in the crystal structure, which has also be confirmed by active site model calculations (see Supporting information). The reason could be that the species coordinated to Mg^{2+} are different, which are a phosphate in the crystal structure and the PLS substrate in A-Re. This type of phenomena has also been observed in a number of metalloenzymes and metal model compounds. This type of phenomena, termed as carboxylate shift, has also been observed in other mononuclear metalloenzymes [27, 38, 65-74] and diiron biological systems [75-80] as well as in a number of model complexes [81-90]. This process is proved to be a low-energy process by increasing X-ray structural and DFT evidence [38, 68, 69, 71, 74, 75, 77, 82, 90]. DFT calculations by Dudev and Lim showed that the switch of the binding modes for Mg^{2+} complexes is associated with rather small energetics [29]. The substrate is coordinated to the magnesium ion with one of its phosphate oxygen atoms and forms several hydrogen bonds to peptide backbone of Asp11-Phe12-Asp13, side chains of Asp13, Glu20, Arg56, Ser99, Lys144, and Asn170. Here, a proton is transferred from Lys144 to the substrate. The energy of the species with the proton at Lys144 is very close to A-Re. In addition, transition state optimization shows that this proton must transfer to the phosphate before

Fig. 2 Optimized structures for the reactant with Mg^{2+} ion (A-Re) and Ca^{2+} ion (B-Re). Atoms marked with *asterisks* were fixed at their X-ray structure positions. For clarity, unimportant hydrogen atoms are not shown. The bond distances are in angstrom



Fig. 3 Optimized geometries for the transition states, intermediates, and product along the reaction pathway with Mg^{2+} ion (model A). For clarity, Glu20, Thr21, Arg56, Ser99, Gly100, Asn170, and the uncoordinated water molecule are not shown



reaching the transition state. Therefore, only the case with a neutral Lys144 is presented here. These interactions help orient the substrate and stabilize its negative charge so that there is a nearly straight line between O_{μ} , P, and O_{L} , with an angle of 175.2°. In **A-Re**, the P– O_{μ} (Asp11) distance is calculated to be 2.98 Å, which is quite close to the crystallographic distance of 2.90 Å [3].

Starting from **A-Re**, we have optimized the structures of the transition state (**A-TS1**) for the nucleophilic attack by Asp11 and the resulting asparatyl–phosphate intermediate

(A-Int1) (see Fig. 3). The barrier is calculated to be 11.9 kcal mol⁻¹ (15.2 kcal mol⁻¹ without solvation correction), and A-Int1 is found to lie at -0.1 kcal mol⁻¹ (+3.4 kcal mol⁻¹ without solvation correction) relative to A-Re. Our calculations suggest that the nucleophilicity of Asp11 is sufficient enough to perform the attack, which is quite similar to β -phosphoglucomutase (β -PGM) [24] and deoxynucleotidases (dNs) [33], and this step is reversible. This agrees quite well with the fact that L-serine is a negative feedback inhibitor which regulates the metabolic

r1 r2 r3 r4 r5 r6 r7	<i>r</i> 8
A-Re 2.14 2.00 2.12 1.92 1.60 1.55 1.82	2.05
A-TS1 2.02 1.88 2.02 1.85 1.64 1.51 1.82	2.07
A-Int1 1.94 2.13 1.99 1.85 1.56 1.49 1.89	2.06
A-Int2 1.91 2.14 1.88 1.86 1.45 1.65 1.86	2.04
A-TS2 2.06 1.87 1.96 1.88 1.50 1.64 1.83	2.01
A-Pr 2.25 1.97 2.01 2.07 1.50 1.66 1.78	2.05
B-Re 2.02 1.92 2.00 1.92 1.60 1.50 1.77	1.74
B-TS1 1.96 1.89 1.92 1.84 1.60 1.46 1.82	1.79
B-Intl 1.89 1.90 1.91 1.84 1.58 1.45 1.81	1.79
B-Int2 1.80 1.97 1.81 1.86 1.41 1.65 1.82	1.72
B-TS2 2.03 1.80 1.86 1.89 1.46 1.66 1.83	1.70
B-Pr 2.06 1.82 1.97 1.95 1.49 1.66 1.72	1.72

 Table 1 Important distances (Å) for the various stationary points along the reaction pathways

activity of PSP [14]. It should be mentioned that QM/MM calculations by Re and coworkers suggested that this step is irreversible [25, 26]. The nature of A-TS1 is characterized by an imaginary frequency of 418i cm⁻¹, which corresponds to the $P-O_{\mu}$ bond formation and $P-O_{L}$ bond cleavage, coupled with proton transfer from Asp13 to O_L. Here, Asp13 functions as a general acid to protonate the leaving oxyanion as suggested previously [3, 14, 25, 26]. The use of a neutral carboxylic acid residue to help the departure of the leaving group has also been proposed for several other enzymes, for example, Asp43 in Deoxynucleotidases (dNs) [33], Glu204 in methionine aminopeptidase (MetAP) [49], Asp120 in β -lactamase [51], Glu133 in peptide deformylase [53], Asp356 in the Yersinia phosphotyrosine phosphatase [54]. Glu201 in glutaminyl cyclase [91], Asp90 in metallo- β -lactamase [92], At A-TS1, the critical P–O_{μ} distance is 2.00 Å, and the P–O_L bond is elongated to 2.08 Å. Our calculations present an associative character in the phosphoryl transfer mechanism, similarly as proposed by Warshel et al. [93, 94]. However, Re and coworkers results suggested a significant metaphosphate-like character in the transition state [25, 26]. In addition, the transferred proton is 1.27 Å from the Asp13 oxygen and 1.16 Å from O_L . The Mg– O_β bond becomes somewhat shorter (2.08 Å), which indicates that the magnesium ion provides electrostatic stabilization to the transition state, thereby lowering the barrier.

During the phosphorus transfer, a negative charge is transferred from Asp11 in **A-Re** to Asp13 in **A-Int1**. The second-shell residues, Glu20 and Thr21, donate two hydrogen bonds to Asp13 and provide electrostatic stabilization to the negative charge on Asp13 in **A-Int1**. As seen in Table 1, the hydrogen bond distance between Thr21 and the side chain of Asp13 (*r*3) decreases from 2.12 Å in **A-Re** to 2.02 Å in **A-INT1**, and further to 1.99 Å in **A-INT1**.

After the release of the L-serine, a water molecule can make the reverse attack on the phosphorus center regenerating the anionic Asp11 [1, 19]. We manually added a water molecule to form a hydrogen bond to the side chain of Asp13, and reoptimized the geometry (called A-Int2, Fig. 3). The energy of A-Int2 is set to be equal to A-Int1. In A-Int2, the P–O_a distance is 3.06 Å. From A-Int2, we have optimized the transition state for the water attack (A-TS2, Fig. 3). The barrier is calculated to be 12.1 kcal mol⁻¹ (11.5 kcal mol⁻¹ without solvation correction) (Fig. 4) relative to A-Int2. In A-TS2, Asp13 abstracts a proton from the water molecule to generate a hydroxide to perform the attack at the phosphorus center. The geometry of A-TS2 is found to be quite similar to that of A-TS1. The P–O_a and P–O_µ distances are 1.95 and 2.16 Å,



Fig. 4 Potential energy profiles for the dephosphorylation and hydrolysis steps of MJPSP with Mg^{2+} ion

respectively. And the water proton is 1.09 and 1.37 Å from O_a and O_b , respectively. This water attack results in the formation of the product complex (**A-Pr**, Fig. 3). The second step is found to be exothermic by 2.8 kcal mol⁻¹ (2.2 kcal mol⁻¹ without solvation correction). However, QM/MM calculations show that this step is endothermic by over 20 kcal mol⁻¹, implying that the reaction is very hard to take place [26].

The obtained potential energy profile for the phosphoserine hydrolysis reaction is shown in Fig. 4. From this, the calculated energy difference between **A-TS1** and **A-TS2** (around 12 kcal mol⁻¹) is too small to be able to unambiguously distinguish which one of them is the rate-limiting step. Experiment rate constant was found to be 20 min^{-1} for PSP from Methanococcus Jannaschii [1], which can be converted to barriers of about 20.9 kcal mol⁻¹ using classical transition state theory. The calculated barrier of about 12 kcal mol⁻¹ is quite feasible but somewhat underestimated compared with the experimental results. However, the QM/MM calculations show a much higher barrier 24.4 kcal mol⁻¹ [26].

4.2 Inhibition mechanism by PSP with Ca^{2+} ion

To understand the reason for the inhibition by Ca^{2+} substitution, we use the same active site model as above with Ca^{2+} as the cofactor to study the hydrolysis reaction of PLS.

The optimized reactant complex is labeled as **B-Re**, in which the calcium is octahedral coordinated as Mg²⁺ but with different metal-ligand binding pattern (Seen Fig. 2). Ca²⁺ coordinates to two water molecules and monodentately to Asp167 and Asp11, and the coordination distances are in the range of 2.3–2.5 Å. This is different from the Mg^{2+} case, in which the magnesium ion is ligated to one H₂O and bidentately to Asp167 and the average coordination distance is around 2.1 Å. However, a bidentate coordination mode between Ca²⁺ and Asp11 was proposed to explain the lack of activity [18, 19, 27, 29]. To confirm that the calcium is hexacoordinated, geometry constrained optimizations have been performed to force the formation of seven-fold coordination between Ca²⁺ and Asp11, and between Ca^{2+} and Asp167. As seen from Fig. 5, the decrease in the distances of Ca-O_u(Asp11) and Ca-O(Asp167) leads to an increase in the energy. For example, when the Ca– $O_{\mu}(Asp11)$ bond distance is fixed at 2.3 Å, an energetic penalty of 5.4 kcal mol^{-1} is present. Another difference is that Lys144 is preferred to be protonated and there is no need of proton transfer to the phosphate for the reaction. The P–O_{μ} distance is 3.39 Å, which is about 0.4 Å longer than that in **A-Re**. The longer distance implies more energetic requirement for the nucleophilic attack.

The reaction mechanism for the PLS hydrolysis in this case is very similar to that for the Mg^{2+} case. However, the barrier for the first step is calculated to be 18.4 kcal mol⁻¹ (20.7 kcal mol⁻¹ without solvation correction) (see in Fig. 6). This is 6.5 kcal mol⁻¹ higher than that of **A-TS1**. In addition, the leading intermediate **B-Int1** is found to lie at +14.2 kcal mol⁻¹ (17.2 kcal mol⁻¹ without solvation correction) relative to **B-Re**. This indicates that the reverse

Fig. 5 Computed energy of **B-Re** with R1 (a)/R2 (b) fixed at different distances. The energies are relative to **B-Re**





Fig. 6 Potential energy profiles for the dephosphorylation and hydrolysis steps of MJPSP with $\rm Ca^{2+}$ ion

reaction is much easier to take place than the forward reaction, which is different from the reversible reaction in the Mg²⁺ case. In **B-TS1**, the critical P–O_µ distance is 2.25 Å, and the P–O_L bond is elongated to 2.34 Å (Seen Fig. 7). Both are longer than those in the Mg²⁺ case. At **B-Int1**, the P–O_µ–C_{Asp11} angle is 128.5°, slightly larger than that in **A-Int1** (124.7°), and the O_β–Ca–O_α angle is 79.7°, slightly smaller than that in **A-Int1** (84.0°). In addition, the P–O_µ is 1.83 Å, which is 0.09 Å longer than that in **A-Int1**. Thus, the coordination of the phosphoryl-carboxylate intermediate to Ca²⁺ induces larger geometric strain and the formation of **B-Int1** requires more energy than that of **A-Int1**.

Similar to the case of Mg^{2+} , a water molecule can make a reverse attack on the phosphoryl-carboxylate intermediate, leading to the regeneration of a free Asp11. Calculations show that this step is rate-limiting with a barrier of 20.0 kcal mol⁻¹ (20.6 kcal mol⁻¹ without solvation correction), which is about 8 kcal mol⁻¹ higher than that in the case of Mg²⁺. The optimized transition state (**B-TS2**) and the resulting product complex (**B-Pr**) are shown in Fig. 7. The whole reaction is now endothermic by 3.9 kcal mol⁻¹, while it is exothermic by 2.9 kcal mol⁻¹ in the case of Mg²⁺.

The obtained potential energy profile for the Ca^{2+} case is shown in Fig. 6. From this, it can be seen that the second half-reaction determines the hydrolysis kinetics, with an accumulated barrier of 20.0 kcal mol⁻¹. Considering a slight underestimation of the barrier for the Mg case, the barrier for the Ca^{2+} case should be several kcal mol⁻¹ higher, which would explain the lack of activity quite well.

As mentioned above, we use the same active site model as Mg^{2+} study the inhibition by Ca^{2+} substitution. The addition of Ca^{2+} with larger ionic radius into the Mg^{2+} cavity could introduce strains imposed on active site residues, including Asp167 and Asp11. A number of studies have been done on the consideration of the effect of constraints in the cluster modeling of enzymatic reactions [95–98]. In general, the effect is quite small, and it usually changes the energy by at most 1-3 kcal mol⁻¹, and never alters the mechanistic conclusions. Here, we also performed constrain variations by moving $C\alpha$ atom of Asp11 and Asp167 0.1 and 0.2 Å away from calcium to roughly estimate the effect of constrain and also to check the flexibility of the model. B-Re and B-Int1 were used as two representative stationary points. The distance changes between calcium and $C\alpha$ atom of Asp11 (r_{Ca-C1}) and Asp167 (r_{Ca-C49}) and the energetic changes are rather small. For all cases, the largest deviations of r_{Ca-C1} and r_{Ca-C49} are 0.5 and 0.2 Å, respectively, compared with the crystal structures. For the 0.2 Å displacements, the two bond distances increase by less than 0.07 Å (see Table SI1). Furthermore, the absolute energy increases by at most 2.7 kcal mol^{-1} , while the largest deviation of relative energy is 2.2 kcal mol^{-1} (see Table SI2). Thus, the effect is quite small and the use of the present active site model designed on the basis of the crystal structure is able to capture the factors that control the metal selectivity of this enzyme.

5 Conclusions

In the present paper, we have used a large quantum cluster model to investigate the reaction mechanism of Mg^{2+} -dependent PSP and the lack of activity by Ca²⁺ substitution. Our calculations give support to previous mechanistic suggestions based on QM/MM calculations (Scheme 2) [25, 26] but give more reasonable potential energy profile. The hydrolysis proceeds through two steps. In the first step, Asp11 performs the nucleophilic attack on the phosphorus moiety, concertedly with the departure of the leaving group, facilitated by proton transfer from Asp13 to the alkoxide. In the subsequent step, Asp13 activates a water molecule to make a reverse attack, regenerating an anionic Asp11. The calculated barriers for both steps are ca 12 kcal mol⁻¹, which is in good agreement with the experimental kinetics.

The substitution of Mg^{2+} by Ca^{2+} results in ca 8 kcal mol⁻¹ higher barrier for the hydrolysis. The formation of the phosphoryl-carboxylate intermediate is endothermic by as much as 14 kcal mol⁻¹. The main reason is that the Ca²⁺ introduces larger geometric strain on the intermediate.

6 Supporting information available

Optimized structure for the active site of MJPSP in complex with a phosphate group bound. Important distances (Å) and energies for constrain variations by moving $C\alpha$ Fig. 7 Optimized geometries for the transition states, intermediates, and product along the reaction pathway with Ca^{2+} ion (model B). For clarity, Glu20, Thr21, Arg56, Ser99, Gly100, and Asn170 are not shown



atom of Asp11 and Asp167 0.1 and 0.2 Å away from calcium using **B-Re** and **B-Int1** as two representative stationary points, respectively.

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