

Conformational Preferences of Substrates for Human Prolyl 4-Hydroxylase<sup>†</sup>Kelly L. Gorres,<sup>‡</sup> Ram Edupuganti,<sup>§</sup> Grant R. Krow,<sup>§</sup> and Ronald T. Raines<sup>\*,‡,||</sup>

Departments of Biochemistry and Chemistry, University of Wisconsin—Madison, Madison, Wisconsin 53706, and Department of Chemistry, Temple University, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19122

Received May 19, 2008; Revised Manuscript Received June 21, 2008

**ABSTRACT:** Prolyl 4-hydroxylase (P4H) catalyzes the posttranslational hydroxylation of (2S)-proline (Pro) residues in procollagen strands. The resulting (2S,4R)-4-hydroxyproline (Hyp) residues are essential for the folding, secretion, and stability of the collagen triple helix. Even though its product (Hyp) differs from its substrate (Pro) by only a single oxygen atom, no product inhibition has been observed for P4H. Here, we examine the basis for the binding and turnover of substrates by human P4H. Synthetic peptides containing (2S,4R)-4-fluoroproline (Flp), (2S,4S)-4-fluoroproline (flp), (2S)-4-ketoproline (Kep), (2S)-4-thiaproline (Thp), and 3,5-methanoproline (Mtp) were evaluated as substrates for P4H. Peptides containing Pro, flp, and Thp were found to be excellent substrates for P4H, forming Hyp, Kep, and (2S,4R)-thiaoxoproline, respectively. Thus, P4H is tolerant to some substitutions on C-4 of the pyrrolidine ring. In contrast, peptides containing Flp, Kep, or Mtp did not even bind to the active site of P4H. Each proline analogue that does bind to P4H is also a substrate, indicating that discrimination occurs at the level of binding rather than turnover. As the iron(IV)-oxo species that forms in the active site of P4H is highly reactive, P4H has an imperative for forming a snug complex with its substrate and appears to do so. Most notably, those proline analogues with a greater preference for a C<sup>γ</sup>-endo pucker and cis peptide bond were the ones recognized by P4H. As Hyp has a strong preference for C<sup>γ</sup>-exo pucker and trans peptide bond, P4H appears to discriminate against the conformation of proline residues in a manner that diminishes product inhibition during collagen biosynthesis.

Collagens are the major structural proteins in the extracellular matrix. All collagens are comprised of three polypeptide strands that coil together into a right-handed triple helix. Each strand contains a repeating three amino acid sequence in which every third residue is a glycine (Gly):<sup>1</sup> Xaa-Yaa-Gly. The Xaa position is often (2S)-proline (Pro), and the Yaa position is often (2S,4R)-4-hydroxyproline (Hyp) (1). Hyp is produced by the action of prolyl 4-hydroxylase (P4H; EC 1.14.11.2). This posttranslational modification is the most prevalent in the kingdom Animalia, where Hyp is more

common than seven of the “common” amino acid residues: Cys, Gln, His, Met, Phe, Trp, and Tyr.<sup>2</sup> The presence of Hyp is crucial for the folding, secretion, and stability of the collagen triple helix under physiological conditions (4–7), and P4H activity is necessary for the viability of the nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans* (8–10) and the mouse *Mus musculus* (11). The enzyme-catalyzed hydroxylation of proline residues also plays a role in the sensing of molecular oxygen, though those enzymes are distinct from the P4H that acts on collagen (12).

P4H is a tetrameric enzyme comprised of two α subunits and two β subunits. Each α subunit (59 kDa) contains a catalytic domain and a peptide-binding domain (13). The β subunit (55 kDa) is protein disulfide isomerase (14), which is necessary to keep the α subunit from aggregating (15, 16) and to retain the enzyme in the endoplasmic reticulum (17). The study of P4H has been facilitated by the recent development of recombinant DNA systems for the high-level production of active P4H tetramers in *Escherichia coli* (18, 19). Still, the three-dimensional structure of P4H remains unknown.

P4H is a non-heme iron(II) dioxygenase (20–22). This class of enzymes uses α-ketoglutarate and O<sub>2</sub> as cosubstrates (Figure 1). Hydroxylation of proline is accompanied by the oxidative decarboxylation of α-ketoglutarate to form succinate (23). During the reaction, one atom of molecular oxygen

<sup>†</sup> This work was supported by Grants AR044276 (NIH to R.T.R.) and CHE 0515635 (NSF to G.R.K.). K.L.G. was supported by Chemistry-Biology Interface Training Grant T32 BM008505 (NIH). MALDI-MS experiments were performed at the University of Wisconsin—Madison Biophysics Instrumentation Facility, which was established with Grants BIR-9512577 (NSF) and RR13790 (NIH).

\* To whom correspondence should be addressed at the Department of Biochemistry, University of Wisconsin—Madison. Telephone: 608-262-8588. Fax: 608-262-3453. E-mail: rtraines@wisc.edu.

<sup>‡</sup> Department of Biochemistry, University of Wisconsin—Madison.

<sup>§</sup> Department of Chemistry, Temple University.

<sup>||</sup> Department of Chemistry, University of Wisconsin—Madison.

<sup>1</sup> Abbreviations: Boc, *tert*-butyloxycarbonyl; DMF, dimethylformamide; ESI-MS, electrospray ionization mass spectrometry; Flp, (2S,4R)-4-fluoroproline; flp, (2S,4S)-4-fluoroproline; Fmoc, fluorenylmethoxycarbonyl; Gly, glycine; HPLC, high-performance liquid chromatography; Hyp, (2S,4R)-4-hydroxyproline; hyp, (2S,4S)-4-hydroxyproline; Kep, (2S)-4-ketoproline; MALDI-TOF, matrix-assisted laser desorption/ionization time of flight; MCPBA, 3-chloroperoxybenzoic acid; Mtp, 3,5-methanoproline or 2-azabicyclo[2.1.1]hexane-3-carboxylic acid; PEG, poly(ethylene glycol); P4H, prolyl 4-hydroxylase; Pro, (2S)-proline; TEMPO, 2,2,6,6-tetramethylpiperidine-1-oxyl; TFA, trifluoroacetic acid; Thp, (2S)-4-thiaproline; Thp(O), (2S,4R)-4-thiaoxoproline; thp(O), (2S,4S)-4-thiaoxoproline; Thp(O,O), (2S)-4-thiadioxoproline.

<sup>2</sup> The abundance of Hyp in animal proteins is ~4%, a value calculated from the abundance of collagen among animal proteins (1/3) and the prevalence of Hyp within the Xaa-Yaa-Gly sequence of collagen (~38% × 1/3) (2). The abundance of the “common” amino acids is given in ref 3.

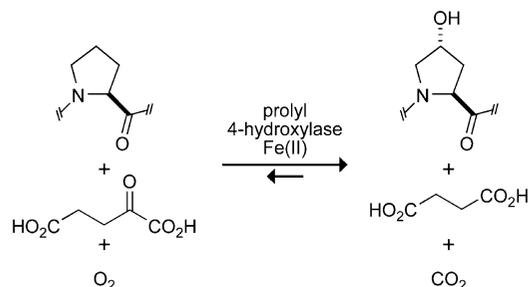


FIGURE 1: Reaction catalyzed by prolyl 4-hydroxylase.

is incorporated into Hyp and the other into succinate (24). Uncoupling of the decarboxylation of  $\alpha$ -ketoglutarate from substrate hydroxylation results in inactivated P4H, which can be rescued by ascorbate (25–27). Details of the mechanism by which P4H catalyzes hydroxylation have been proposed based on related  $\alpha$ -ketoglutarate-dependent dioxygenases (28–30). In the initial steps of catalysis, decarboxylation of  $\alpha$ -ketoglutarate produces an iron(IV)-oxo species. This highly reactive species abstracts the *proR* hydrogen from C-4 of a proline residue in the substrate (31). A hydroxyl group is transferred to the radical intermediate to form the Hyp product.

P4H does not hydroxylate all proline residues. Free proline amino acids are not hydroxylated by P4H (32). Nor is polyproline hydroxylated, though it does bind to the enzyme and is a competitive inhibitor of enzymatic activity (33). Hydroxylation occurs only on proline residues in an Xaa-Pro-Gly sequence within a polypeptide. The strength of substrate binding increases with the length of the polypeptide but is obviated by triple-helical structure (34).

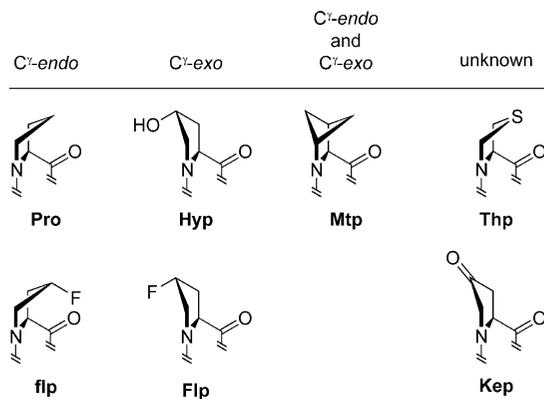
Computational, structural, and spectral analyses of Pro-Gly sequences in peptides and proteins have shown that adoption of a  $\beta$ -turn conformation is energetically favorable (5, 35–37). Other conformation preferences for the substrates of prolyl 4-hydroxylase are less clear. Because proline is a secondary amine and prolyl peptide bonds are tertiary amides, the *cis* isomer of prolyl peptide bonds occurs much more frequently than in peptide bonds between non-prolyl residues (38). The conformation of the prolyl peptide bond is correlated with another conformational feature of proline, its ring pucker (39, 40). The pyrrolidine ring of proline primarily adopts two puckered conformations: *C<sup>γ</sup>-endo* and *C<sup>γ</sup>-exo* (Figure 2).<sup>3</sup> The *trans/cis* ratio and ring pucker are both influenced by substituents on the pyrrolidine ring that evoke stereoelectronic effects (42).

In this work, we create variations in *trans/cis* ratio and preferred ring pucker by using proline analogues with subtle substitutions at the 4-position of the pyrrolidine ring (Figure 2). We then demonstrate that the ability of P4H to bind to a proline analogue and catalyze its oxidation correlates with the *trans/cis* ratio and preferred ring pucker. The results provide new insight into how this essential enzyme recognizes its substrate.

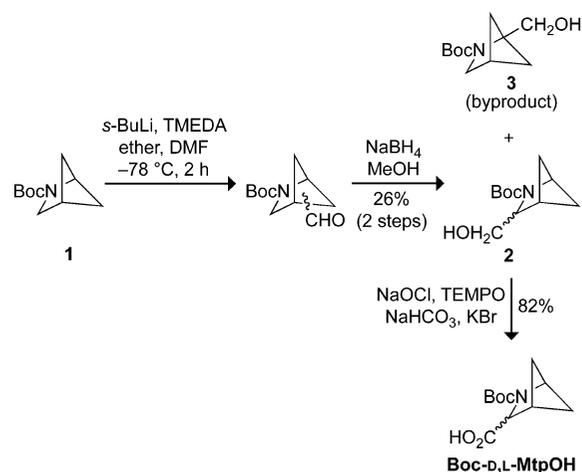
## EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

**Materials.** Boc-FlpOH and Boc-flpOH were from OmegaChem (Lévis, Québec, Canada). Boc-protected amino acids

<sup>3</sup> The pyrrolidine ring of proline actually prefers two distinct twist, rather than envelope, conformations (41). As *C<sup>γ</sup>* experiences a large out-of-plane displacement in these twisted rings, we refer to pyrrolidine ring conformations simply as “*C<sup>γ</sup>-exo*” and “*C<sup>γ</sup>-endo*”.

FIGURE 2: Structure of proline and its analogues studied herein, in their predominant ring pucker.<sup>3</sup> Each amino acid was incorporated into a tetrapeptide and examined as a substrate or inhibitor of P4H.

## Scheme 1



were converted to their Fmoc derivatives via standard methods and used without further purification (43). Fluorenylmethoxycarbonyl (Fmoc)-mini-PEG-3 (Fmoc-11-amino-3,6,9-trioxaundecanoic acid) was from Peptides International (Louisville, KY). Fmoc-ThpOH was from Advanced ChemTech (Louisville, KY). All other Fmoc-protected amino acids were from Novabiochem (La Jolla, CA). [ $1-^{14}\text{C}$ ]- $\alpha$ -Ketoglutarate was from American Radiolabeled Chemicals (St. Louis, MO). All other chemicals were of reagent grade or better and were used without further purification.

**Synthesis of Boc-D,L-MtpOH.** Boc-D,L-MtpOH was prepared by the route shown in Scheme 1, which is less costly and more convenient than those described previously (44, 45). Briefly, carbamate **1** was prepared as in ref 46 and then used in a manner similar to that in ref 47. Specifically, a solution of carbamate **1** (2.0 g, 10.91 mmol) and TMEDA (2.1 mL, 14.18 mmol, 1.3 equiv) in dry ether (50 mL) was cooled to  $-78^\circ\text{C}$ , and *s*-BuLi (10.1 mL, 14.18 mmol, 1.3 equiv, 1.4 M solution in cyclohexane) was added dropwise. The resulting solution was stirred for 2 h at  $-78^\circ\text{C}$  and then transferred *via* a canula to a solution of distilled DMF (6.3 mL, 81.83 mmol, 7.5 equiv) in dry diethyl ether (30 mL) that had been cooled to  $-78^\circ\text{C}$ . The solution was warmed slowly to room temperature and then quenched with 10 mL of saturated  $\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}$ (aq). The ether layer was washed with distilled water ( $2 \times 20$  mL) and dried over  $\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_4$ (s). After filtration and concentration, the oil was taken up in 10 mL of dry MeOH, and this solution was cooled to  $0^\circ\text{C}$ .

NaBH<sub>4</sub> (2.1 g, 54.56 mmol, 5.0 equiv) was added slowly to the solution, which was then stirred at 0 °C for 15 min. The reaction mixture was warmed to room temperature, and 10 mL of saturated NH<sub>4</sub>Cl(aq) was added slowly, followed by 30 mL of CH<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>2</sub>. The aqueous layer was extracted with CH<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>2</sub> (3 × 30 mL). The organic extracts were combined, dried over Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>(s), and filtered. The solvent was removed under reduced pressure, and the residue was purified by chromatography on silica gel (3:2 hexanes/diethyl ether) to furnish 3-CH<sub>2</sub>OH (**2**) (609 mg, 26%, *R<sub>f</sub>* = 0.36 with 1:1 hexanes/diethyl ether), 1-CH<sub>2</sub>OH (**3**) (638 mg, 27%, *R<sub>f</sub>* = 0.51), and starting material **1** (190 mg, 10%, *R<sub>f</sub>* = 0.71).

Following the procedure in refs 44 and 47, 3-CH<sub>2</sub>OH (**2**) (600 mg, 2.813 mmol) was dissolved in a solution of CH<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>2</sub> (14 mL), TEMPO (27 mg), saturated NaHCO<sub>3</sub>(aq) (11 mL), KBr (54 mg), and Bu<sub>4</sub>NCl (67 mg). This solution was cooled to 0 °C, and a solution of NaOCl (14 mmol), saturated NaHCO<sub>3</sub>(aq) (6 mL), and brine (12 mL) was added dropwise over 45 min. The reaction mixture was stirred for an additional 1 h and then warmed to room temperature. The aqueous layer was separated, and the organic layer was washed with 50% w/v NaHCO<sub>3</sub>(aq) (3 × 65 mL). The aqueous layers were combined and washed with CH<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>2</sub> (2 × 25 mL), acidified with dilute HCl solution until the pH was ~3, and then extracted with ethyl acetate (5 × 200 mL). The combined organic extracts were dried over Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>(s), and the solvent was removed to furnish Boc-D,L-MtpOH (524 mg, 82%) as an off-white solid of sufficient purity (44, 45, 47).

**Instrumentation.** Measurements of UV and visible absorbance were made with a Cary model 3 spectrophotometer (Varian, Palo Alto, CA). Peptide synthesis was conducted with a Pioneer (PerSeptive Biosystems) or Symphony (Protein Technologies) automated synthesizer at the University of Wisconsin Biotechnology Center. Preparative high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) was performed with a system from Waters (Milford, MA) equipped with two 510 pumps and a 486 tunable absorbance detector. Analytical HPLC was performed with a Waters system equipped with two 515 pumps, a 717 plus autosampler, and a 996 photodiode array detector. Matrix-assisted laser desorption/ionization time-of-flight (MALDI-TOF) mass spectrometry was performed with a Perkin-Elmer (Wellesley, MA) Voyager MALDI-TOF mass spectrometer at the University of Wisconsin—Madison Biophysics Instrumentation Facility. Scintillation counting was performed with a Wallac 1450 MicroBeta TriLux liquid scintillation counter from Perkin-Elmer (Wellesley, MA).

**Production and Purification of P4H.** P4H was produced and purified by using procedures reported previously (18).

**Synthesis of Peptides.** Peptides were synthesized on a solid support (PEG-PS, Applied Biosystems) by standard Fmoc-protection methods using HATU activation. To increase the water solubility of the Pro-, Flp-, flp-, Kep-, and Thp-containing peptides, a short PEG chain was added to their N-terminus. The PEG was added by coupling Fmoc-mini-PEG-3 (Peptides International, Louisville, KY) to the N-terminus of the peptide while on solid support. The N-terminus remained protected with the Fmoc while the peptides were cleaved from the solid support with 8 mL of 95:2.5:2.5 trifluoroacetic acid (TFA)/triisopropylsilane/water and then washed with CH<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>2</sub> and dried under vacuum. The dried peptide was heated at reflux with SOCl<sub>2</sub> (15-fold molar

excess) in ethanol for 2 h. The solvent was removed by rotary evaporation under reduced pressure. The N-terminal Fmoc was then removed by stirring the peptide in 20% v/v piperidine in DMF for 20 min. The peptides were purified by preparatory HPLC with a gradient (10–30% v/v) of acetonitrile in water containing TFA (0.1% v/v) to yield PEG-Gly-Tyr-Yaa-GlyOEt. MALDI-MS *m/z*: [M + Na]<sup>+</sup> Yaa = Pro (14% yield; calcd 632.3, found 632.6), Flp (6% yield; calcd 650.3, found 650.5), flp (72% yield; calcd 650.3, found 650.6), Kep (1.8% yield; calcd 646.3, found 646.5), Thp (8% yield; calcd 650.3, found 650.7).

Cbz-Gly-Tyr-Mtp-GlyOEt was synthesized by standard Fmoc-protection methods on solid support. The cleavage from solid support and esterification were performed as described for the PEGylated peptides. Purification was done by preparatory HPLC with a gradient (20–40% v/v) of acetonitrile in water. The synthesis was done with racemic Fmoc-D,L-Mtp, and the diastereomeric tetrapeptides were not separated. Cbz-Gly-Tyr-Mtp-GlyOEt was analyzed by MALDI-MS *m/z*: [M + Na]<sup>+</sup> (calcd 589.2, found 589.5).

Peptide concentrations were determined by absorbance measurement in 6 M guanidine hydrochloride at pH 6.5 using  $\epsilon = 1450 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$  at 276 nm (48).

**HPLC-Based Assay of Enzymatic Activity.** An HPLC-based assay described previously (18) was used to monitor product formation by P4H. Assays were performed for 5 min at 30 °C in 100  $\mu\text{L}$  of 50 mM Tris-HCl buffer, pH 7.8, containing bovine serum albumin (1 mg/mL), catalase (100  $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ ), dithiothreitol (100  $\mu\text{M}$ ), ascorbate (2 mM), FeSO<sub>4</sub> (50  $\mu\text{M}$ ), P4H (90 nM), and  $\alpha$ -ketoglutarate (500  $\mu\text{M}$ ). The tetrapeptide substrate (stock solution in ethanol) was added to initiate the reaction. The reactions were quenched by boiling for 60 s. All assays were performed in triplicate. A reversed-phase analytical Alltima HP C18 AQ column (4.6 × 250 mm) from Alltech (Deerfield, IL) was used to separate peptides by elution with aqueous acetonitrile (12–30% v/v in 20 min) containing TFA (0.1% v/v) at 1.0 mL/min. Product formation was quantified by the substrate:product ratio, as determined by integration of the A<sub>214nm</sub> with the Millennium32 software from Waters (Millford, MA).

**[<sup>14</sup>C]CO<sub>2</sub>-Release Assay for Enzymatic Activity.** An alternative means to assess P4H activity is to monitor the release of CO<sub>2</sub>, which is a product of catalysis (Figure 1). Procedures for monitoring the release of [<sup>14</sup>C]CO<sub>2</sub> from [1-<sup>14</sup>C]- $\alpha$ -ketoglutarate were as described elsewhere (23, 49). Concentrations were the same as above, except for that of P4H (395 nM). All reactions were performed in duplicate and corrected for the rate of decarboxylation in the absence of the peptide substrate.

**Reduction and Conversion of Kep.** For analysis, the ketone in PEG-Gly-Tyr-Kep-GlyOEt was either reduced to the alcohol with sodium borohydride (10 equiv) for 30 min at room temperature or converted to the oxime via reaction with hydroxylamine (10 equiv) in 250 mM sodium phosphate buffer, pH 5.0, for 1 h at 100 °C.

**Chemical Oxidation of Thp.** A mixture of PEG-Gly-Tyr-Thp(O)-GlyOEt and PEG-Gly-Tyr-thp(O)-GlyOEt was produced by chemical oxidation of the Thp-containing peptide with either 3-chloroperoxybenzoic acid (MCPBA) (1 equiv) in chloroform for 2.5 h at room temperature or sodium periodate (1.1 equiv) in aqueous methanol (75%) for 30 min

Table 1: Comparison of PEG-Gly-Tyr-Yaa-GlyOEt as Substrates or Inhibitors for P4H<sup>a</sup>

Yaa	substrate or inhibitor	$k_{\text{cat}}$ (min <sup>-1</sup> )	$K_M$ (mM)	$k_{\text{cat}}/K_M$ (10 <sup>3</sup> M <sup>-1</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> )
Pro	substrate	360 ± 7	0.58 ± 0.03	10 ± 0.6
flp	substrate	250 ± 21	1.6 ± 0.3	2.7 ± 0.5
Thp	substrate	470 ± 59	6.4 ± 1.4	1.2 ± 0.3
Flp	neither			
Hyp	neither <sup>b</sup>			
Kep	neither			
Mtp	neither			

<sup>a</sup> Reaction components and conditions were as described in the text. Values represent the mean (±SE) of three replicates. <sup>b</sup> Data from ref 37.

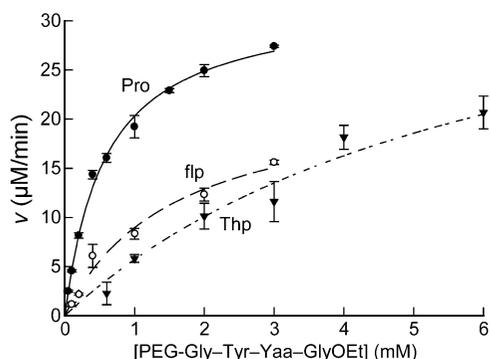


FIGURE 3: Comparison of PEG-Gly-Tyr-Yaa-GlyOEt peptides, where Yaa = Pro (●), flp (○), or Thp (▼), as substrates of P4H. Plot shows the rate of product formation at varying substrate concentrations. Reactions were performed as described in the Experimental Procedures section. Reactions were initiated by the addition of tetrapeptide substrate (0.05–3 mM) and run at 30 °C for 5 min. Product formation was analyzed by HPLC. Individual points are the average (±SE) of three independent reactions. Data were fitted to the Michaelis–Menten equation to obtain kinetic parameters.

at 50 °C (50). A peptide containing Thp(O,O) was produced by reaction of the Thp-containing peptide with MCPBA (10 equiv) in chloroform for 5 h at room temperature.

## RESULTS

**Design of Peptide Substrates for P4H.** Previously, we reported on an HPLC-based assay for P4H activity using the peptide substrate dansyl-Gly-Phe-Pro-GlyOEt (18). This peptide is not especially soluble and is thus not useful for assays at high concentration. To increase its solubility, the dansyl moiety was replaced with a short PEG segment. In addition, Phe was replaced by Tyr to aid in the determination of peptide concentration. PEG-Gly-Tyr-Pro-GlyOEt is a substrate for P4H with  $k_{\text{cat}} = 360 \text{ min}^{-1}$ ,  $K_M = 0.58 \text{ mM}$ , and  $k_{\text{cat}}/K_M = 1.0 \times 10^4 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$  (Table 1, Figure 3). This  $k_{\text{cat}}/K_M$  value is 3-fold greater than that for dansyl-Gly-Phe-Pro-GlyOEt (18).

**Flp Does Not Inhibit P4H.** No product formation was detected when Flp was used as a substrate for P4H (data not shown). It is not surprising that P4H cannot turn over Flp because P4H abstracts the *proR* hydrogen from C-4 of a proline residue and that hydrogen is replaced with fluorine in Flp. Likewise, Flp does not inhibit the P4H-catalyzed conversion of Pro to Hyp. Under standard P4H reaction conditions as described in the Experimental Procedures with PEG-Gly-Tyr-Pro-GlyOEt at 0.06 mM, which is an order of magnitude below its  $K_M$  value, PEG-Gly-Tyr-Flp-GlyOEt

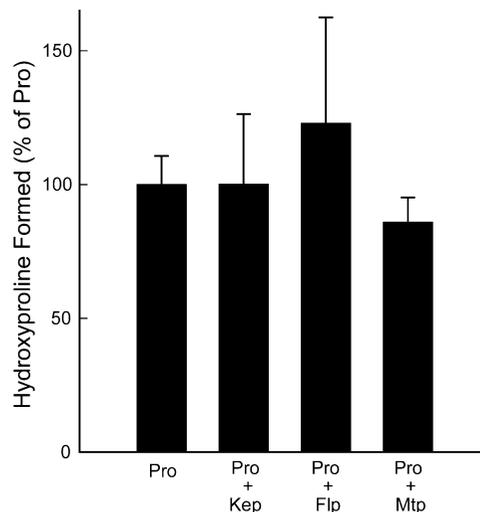


FIGURE 4: Peptides containing Flp, Kep, or Mtp do not inhibit Hyp formation from proline by P4H. Graph shows the hydroxyproline formed from proline in the presence of no proline analogue, Kep, Flp, or Mtp. The reaction with no proline analogue was designated as 100%. Reactions contained 0.6 mM PEG-Gly-Tyr-Yaa-GlyOEt, where Yaa = Kep, Flp, or Mtp, and 0.06 mM PEG-Gly-Tyr-Pro-GlyOEt. Individual points are the average (±SE) of three independent reactions.

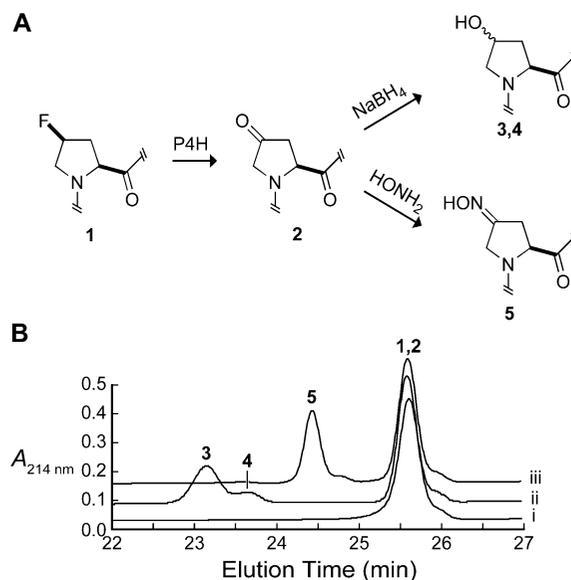


FIGURE 5: Characterization of the products for the turnover of PEG-Gly-Tyr-flp-GlyOEt by P4H. (A) Kep (2) is formed from flp (1) by P4H. Kep is reduced with sodium borohydride (10 equiv) for 30 min to form Hyp and hyp (3, 4), or Kep was converted to an oxime (5) by reaction with hydroxylamine (10 equiv) in 250 mM sodium phosphate buffer, pH 5.0, for 1 h at 100 °C. (B) HPLC analysis of PEG-Gly-Tyr-flp-GlyOEt reactions: (i) turnover by P4H; (ii) turnover by P4H and treatment with sodium borohydride; (iii) turnover by P4H and treatment with hydroxylamine. Peak 1,2 is from the coeluting peptides containing flp or Kep; peaks 3 and 4 are from the peptides containing Hyp or hyp; peak 5 is from the peptide of containing the oxime of Kep. HPLC conditions are described in the Experimental Procedures section.

had no measurable effect on hydroxylation of the Pro-containing peptide (Figure 4).

**flp Is a Substrate for P4H.** Unlike Flp, flp has a hydrogen in the 4R position of the pyrrolidine ring, and PEG-Gly-Tyr-flp-GlyOEt was determined to be a substrate for P4H (Figures 3 and 5). The product was identified as 4-ketoproline (Kep) by MALDI-MS ( $m/z$  624.4, calcd 624.3) and coeluted

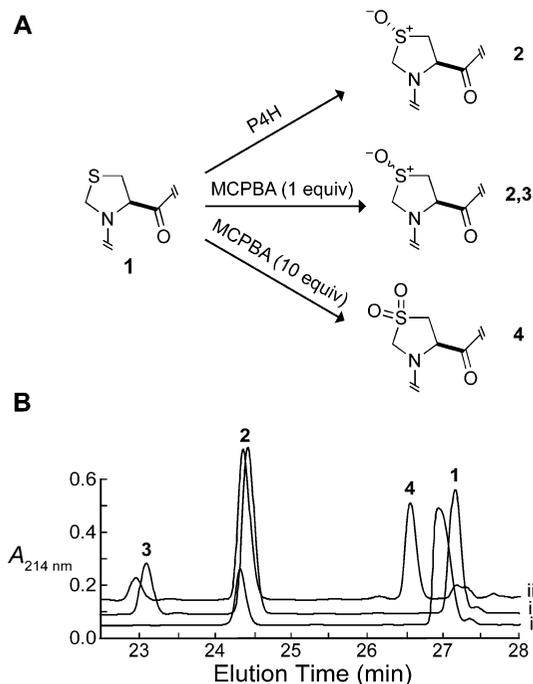


FIGURE 6: Characterization of the products for the turnover of PEG-Gly-Tyr-Thp-GlyOEt by P4H. (A) Thp(O) (2) is formed from Thp (1) upon catalysis by P4H. Thp(O) and thp(O) (2, 3) are formed from Thp upon reaction with MCPBA (1 equiv) in chloroform for 2.5 h. Thp(O,O) (4) is formed from Thp upon reaction with MCPBA (10 equiv) in chloroform for 5 h. (B) HPLC analysis of reactions of PEG-Gly-Tyr-Thp-GlyOEt: (i) turnover by P4H; (ii) treatment with MCPBA (1 equiv); (iii) treatment with MCPBA (10 equiv). Peak 1 is from the peptide containing Thp peptide; peaks 2 and 3 are for the peptides containing Thp(O) or thp(O); peak 4 is for the peptide containing Thp(O,O). HPLC conditions are described in the Experimental Procedures section.

with a standard during HPLC (data not shown). Kep was characterized further by reduction of its ketone to a hydroxyl group with sodium borohydride (MALDI-MS  $m/z$  626.6, calcd 626.3) and reaction of its ketone with hydroxylamine to form an oxime (MALDI-MS  $m/z$  639.5, calcd 639.3) (Figure 5). Kep can form by hydroxylation of flp to produce a fluorohydrin, followed by the elimination of a fluoride ion. From triplicate P4H reactions under standard conditions with varying concentrations of PEG-Gly-Tyr-flp-GlyOEt, the value of  $k_{cat}/K_M$  was determined to be  $(2.7 \pm 0.5) \times 10^3 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ . This value is 27% that of the Pro-containing peptide, which has a  $k_{cat}/K_M$  value of  $(10 \pm 0.6) \times 10^3 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$  (Table 1, Figure 3).

**Kep Does Not Inhibit P4H.** Kep, the product of the P4H-catalyzed reaction of flp, was not found to be a substrate for P4H (data not shown). Like Flp, Kep did not even inhibit the P4H-catalyzed conversion of Pro to Hyp (Figure 4).

**Thp Is a Substrate for P4H.** Thp has a sulfur atom bearing no hydrogen atoms at the 4-position of the thiazolidine ring. Nonetheless, PEG-Gly-Tyr-Thp-GlyOEt was found to be a substrate for P4H (Figure 6). P4H added a single oxygen atom to Thp to form a sulfoxide (Thp(O)) in the peptide product (MALDI-MS  $m/z$  666.6, calcd 666.3  $[\text{M} + \text{Na}]^+$ ). Thp(O) was also formed, along with thp(O), in the Thp-containing peptide by chemical oxidation using MCPBA or sodium periodate. Oxidation by sodium periodate yielded two products with the same mass according to HPLC and MALDI-MS. Kanai and co-workers reported that this non-

Table 2: Comparison of  $[^{14}\text{C}]\text{CO}_2$  Release from  $[1\text{-}^{14}\text{C}]\text{-}\alpha\text{-Ketoglutarate}$  in P4H Assays with PEG-Gly-Tyr-Yaa-GlyOEt as the Substrate<sup>a</sup>

Yaa	$v$ ( $\mu\text{M}/\text{min}$ )	% of Pro
Pro	$1.9 \pm 0.7$	100
flp	$0.5 \pm 0.1$	26
Thp	$0.1 \pm 0.1$	6

<sup>a</sup> Reactions were run in duplicate. The rate of decarboxylation in the absence of the peptide substrate was subtracted from each measurement. Components and conditions were as described in the text. Substrate concentrations were 58, 160, and 640  $\mu\text{M}$  for Pro, flp, and Thp, respectively, which are 10% of each  $K_M$  value determined in the HPLC-based assay.

enzymatic reaction with a thioprolylpyrrolidine substrate produces an 85:15 mixture of the 4R and 4S diastereomers (50). HPLC analysis of the sodium periodate reaction compared to the P4H-catalyzed formation of the sulfoxide showed that P4H produces the 4R diastereomer exclusively. Chemical oxidation by MCPBA yielded the sulfoxide diastereomers, as well as the sulfone (Thp(O,O); MALDI-MS  $m/z$  682.4, calcd 682.3  $[\text{M} + \text{Na}]^+$ ), which was not formed by P4H. From triplicate P4H reactions under standard conditions with varying concentrations of PEG-Gly-Tyr-Thp-GlyOEt, the  $k_{cat}/K_M$  value was determined to be  $(1.2 \pm 0.3) \times 10^3 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ , which is 12% that of the Pro-containing peptide (Table 1, Figure 3).

**P4H Decarboxylates  $[1\text{-}^{14}\text{C}]\text{-}\alpha\text{-Ketoglutarate}$  When Pro, flp, or Thp Is a Substrate.** The HPLC-based assay described above identified flp- and Thp-containing peptides as novel substrates of P4H. These proline analogues, along with the Pro-containing peptide, were also tested in an assay for P4H activity that measures the release of  $[^{14}\text{C}]\text{CO}_2$  from  $[1\text{-}^{14}\text{C}]\text{-}\alpha\text{-ketoglutarate}$ . The rate of decarboxylation in the absence of the peptide substrate was subtracted from each measurement. Substrate concentrations for assays with the Pro-, flp-, and Thp-containing peptides were 58, 160, and 640  $\mu\text{M}$ , which were 10% of the  $K_M$  values determined in the HPLC-based assay. Under these conditions the rate of  $\text{CO}_2$  released in the presence of the Pro-containing peptide was  $1.9 \pm 0.7 \mu\text{M}/\text{min}$  (Table 2). The rate with flp in the peptide substrate was  $0.5 \pm 0.1 \mu\text{M}/\text{min}$ , which is 26% that of Pro; the rate with Thp was  $0.1 \pm 0.1 \mu\text{M}/\text{min}$ , 6% that of Pro. These rates follow closely the trend observed with the HPLC-based assay.

**Mtp Does Not Inhibit P4H.** Mtp, the bicyclic proline analogue, was not found to be a substrate for P4H. No product was detected by either HPLC or mass spectrometry (data not shown). Like Flp and Kep, Mtp did not inhibit the P4H-catalyzed conversion of Pro to Hyp (Figure 4).

## DISCUSSION

P4H catalyzes an extremely difficult chemical reaction: the hydroxylation of an unactivated methylene group to form a secondary alcohol. The putative mechanism involves the oxidative decarboxylation of  $\alpha\text{-ketoglutarate}$ , which promotes the formation of a highly reactive iron(IV)-oxo species from molecular oxygen (28–30). This iron(IV)-oxo species then abstracts the *proR* hydrogen from C-4 of a proline residue, replacing it with a hydroxyl group to form Hyp (31).

In previous work, proline analogues with substituents at C-3 and C-5 have been used to probe catalysis by P4H. Peptides containing a racemic mixture of 3-fluoroproline in the Yaa

position were found to be substrates for the enzyme (51). Peptides containing the proline analogues 3-exomethylene-proline (51), 5-oxaproline (52), and 3,4-dehydroproline (53–55) inhibited P4H activity. In our work, we have focused instead on C-4, which is the carbon that undergoes a change in covalency during the reaction catalyzed by P4H.<sup>4</sup>

*Requirements of Nonnatural Proline Analogues for Turnover by P4H.* P4H can elicit the homolytic cleavage of a C–H bond but not a C–F bond. The change from Pro to Flp is conservative from the perspective of sterics, as hydrogen and fluorine have comparable van der Waals radii ( $r_{\text{H}} = 1.20 \text{ \AA}$ ;  $r_{\text{F}} = 1.35 \text{ \AA}$  (56)). A C–F bond ( $\Delta H^\circ = 116 \text{ kcal/mol}$ ) is, however, much stronger than a C–H bond ( $\Delta H^\circ = 98 \text{ kcal/mol}$ ). Accordingly, we were not surprised to learn that P4H cannot turn over Flp. This finding contrasts with reports by others in the 1960s that relied on less direct assays (57, 58). We did, however, expect P4H to bind to Flp as it does to Pro. Yet, no inhibition of P4H activity by Flp was detectable (Table 1).

Unlike Flp, flp is a substrate for P4H. The stability of a carbon radical with an  $\alpha$ -fluoro substituent is  $\Delta H = 0.7 \text{ kcal/mol}$  greater than that of an unsubstituted carbon radical, according to homolytic bond dissociation enthalpies of 2-fluoropropane and propane calculated at 25 °C (59). Hence, the hydroxylation of flp should be somewhat faster than that of Pro. Of course, other factors contribute to the rate of an enzymatic reaction, and the actual values of  $k_{\text{cat}}$  are 360 and 250  $\text{min}^{-1}$  for Pro and flp, respectively (Table 1).

The product of the turnover of flp by P4H is Kep (Figure 5). This product has notable utility for future studies of P4H in biological systems. The turnover of flp introduces a functional group, a ketone, with orthogonal reactivity into a protein. This group could serve as a handle for a proteomic analyses of P4H substrates (60), as flp can be incorporated into proteins by biosynthesis (61–65). Furthermore, the turnover of flp not only produces Kep but also releases fluoride ion, whose detection could provide the basis for a direct, continuous assay of P4H activity.

The sulfide in the Thp-containing peptide is oxidized to a sulfoxide by P4H (Table 1, Figure 6). Sulfides can be oxidized by other dioxygenases, such as thymine hydroxylase (66), 4-hydroxyphenylpyruvate dioxygenase (67), and cysteine dioxygenase (68). Although the chemical oxidation of Thp produces both sulfoxide diastereomers (50), turnover by P4H produces only the 4*R* sulfoxide, which has the same relative stereochemistry as the natural product, Hyp.  $\alpha$ -Ketoglutarate is decarboxylated when Thp, flp, or Pro is the substrate in a reaction with P4H (Table 2). The relative rates of the decarboxylation reactions (Thp < flp < Pro) are similar to those for Thp(O), Kep, and Hyp production (Table 1). These data are consistent with Thp, flp, and Pro being turned over by the same mechanism.

*Role of Proline Conformation in Substrate Binding by P4H.* Proline is the only proteinogenic amino acid whose *trans* peptide bond isomer is favored only slightly over the *cis* isomer (38). In other peptide bonds, the *trans* conformation is favored greatly. Proline is also the only proteinogenic amino acid to contain a saturated ring. The five-membered

pyrrolidine ring of proline primarily adopts two conformations, *C $\gamma$ -endo* or *C $\gamma$ -exo* (Figure 2).<sup>3</sup> The pucker of its pyrrolidine ring and the isomerization of its peptide bond are correlated attributes of proline (39, 40). Electronegative atoms such as fluorine ( $\chi_{\text{F}} = 4.0$  (56); cf.  $\chi_{\text{H}} = 2.1$ ) alter the ring pucker via the *gauche* effect. A *C $\gamma$ -exo* pucker allows for an  $n \rightarrow \pi^*$  interaction between the oxygen of the Xaa–Pro peptide bond and the carbon of the Pro–Gly peptide bond. In turn, this  $n \rightarrow \pi^*$  interaction stabilizes a *trans* peptide bond. The absence of a significant  $n \rightarrow \pi^*$  interaction in the *C $\gamma$ -endo* pucker favors a *cis* peptide bond (39, 40).

The proline analogues used in this study differ in their predominant ring pucker (Figure 2). Hyp and Flp adopt a *C $\gamma$ -exo* pucker and have a high *trans/cis* ratio, whereas flp and Pro adopt a *C $\gamma$ -endo* pucker and have a low *trans/cis* ratio (40, 69). The ring puckers of Kep and Thp have not been examined directly. Nonetheless, the *trans/cis* ratio of Kep is higher than that of Pro (70), and the *trans/cis* ratio of Thp is lower than that of Pro (71). We find that Pro, flp, and Thp are substrates for P4H and that Hyp, Flp, and Kep are neither substrates nor inhibitors of the enzyme. We therefore propose that proline analogues that favor the *C $\gamma$ -endo* pucker and have a low *trans/cis* ratio bind to the active site of P4H, and those that favor a *C $\gamma$ -exo* or other pucker and have a high *trans/cis* ratio do not.

To test our proposal, we determined the ability of P4H to recognize Mtp (Figure 2). In essence, this analogue has two C-4 carbons and thus always displays both ring puckers (72). Mtp has a *trans/cis* ratio that is between that of Pro and flp (44). We find that P4H does not hydroxylate either C-4 carbon of Mtp and that Mtp does not inhibit P4H activity. These results refine our proposal by suggesting a proline residue with *C $\gamma$ -exo* pucker does not bind to the active site of the enzyme.

Our data suggest a means by which P4H diminishes product inhibition, which is often detrimental to enzyme function (73, 74). The stereoelectronic consequences of catalysis by P4H convert the Pro substrate into a Hyp product, which has a greater preference for a *C $\gamma$ -exo* ring pucker and *trans* peptide bond. These changes discourage P4H from binding previously hydroxylated collagen strands. A similar mechanism to avert product inhibition is employed by oligosaccharyl transferase, which catalyzes the formation of a *cis* amide bond during the *N*-glycosylation of asparagine residues. Isomerization to the *trans* conformations takes place after product release and prevents the product from binding again to the enzyme (75).

A summarial model for substrate recognition by P4H is shown in Figure 7. This model is based on the data herein, as well as known structures of Pro and Hyp. Previously, we used X-ray diffraction analysis to determine the three-dimensional structures of crystalline AcProOMe and AcHypOMe (76). In these structures, AcProOMe has a *cis* peptide bond and *C $\gamma$ -endo* ring pucker, and AcHypOMe has a *trans* peptide bond and *C $\gamma$ -exo* ring pucker. In the model, the iron(IV)-oxo species is proximal to the *proR* hydrogen on C-4 of Pro, which is the single atom on the pyrrolidine ring that is farthest from the main chain of the peptide substrate. Thus, the hydrogen atom to be abstracted reaches most deeply into the enzymic active site. Hydroxylation then

<sup>4</sup> The diastereomers of (2*S*)-4-methylproline have been reported to be neither substrates nor inhibitors of human P4H (51).

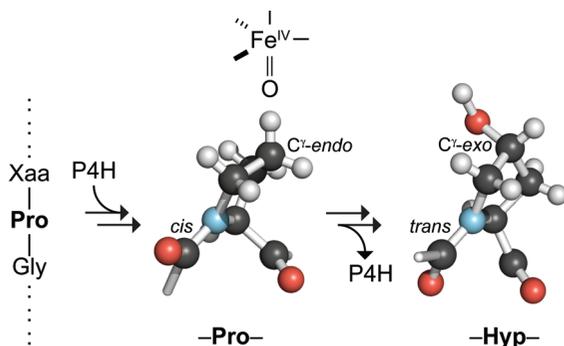


FIGURE 7: Putative model for substrate recognition by P4H. The Pro residue of the substrate has a *cis* peptide bond and *C<sup>γ</sup>-endo* ring pucker; the iron(IV)-oxo species is in a position to remove the *proR* hydrogen on C-4 (31). Hydroxylation changes the preferred conformation, and the Hyp residue of the product has a *trans* peptide bond and *C<sup>γ</sup>-exo* ring pucker. The structures of Pro and Hyp are actual fragments of the crystal structures of AcProOMe and AcHypOMe (76) and are aligned such that the nitrogen and its three pendant carbons are in spatial alignment.

promotes a conformational change in the product that the P4H active site is unable to accommodate.

## CONCLUSIONS

We have discovered two novel substrates for P4H: flp and Thp. These analogues demonstrate for the first time that perturbations can be made at the 4-position of a proline substrate with retention of high P4H activity. Other proline analogues investigated, Flp, Kep, and Mtp, are not recognized by P4H. A comparison of the conformational preferences of these five proline analogues, along with Pro and Hyp, shows that proline analogues that prefer conformations similar to Pro, the substrate, are accepted by P4H, whereas analogues that are similar to Hyp, the product, are not. Therefore, the P4H-catalyzed formation of Hyp promotes conformational changes that limit product inhibition. Moreover, each analogue that binds to the active site of P4H is also a substrate, indicating that the enzyme discriminates at the level of substrate binding rather than substrate turnover. The highly reactive iron(IV)-oxo species that forms in the active site of P4H is perhaps the most powerful oxidizing agent in biology (30) and must therefore be sequestered deeply within its enzymic active site. Hence, P4H has an imperative for forming a snug complex with its substrate and appears to do so.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENT

We are grateful to M. D. Shoulders and L. D. Lavis for contributive discussions and to G. L. Case of the Peptide Synthesis Facility at the University of Wisconsin Biotechnology Center for technical assistance.

## REFERENCES

- Prockop, D. J., and Kivirikko, K. I. (1995) Collagens: Molecular biology, diseases, and potentials for therapy. *Annu. Rev. Biochem.* 64, 403–434.
- Ramshaw, J. A. M., Shah, N. K., and Brodsky, B. (1998) Gly-X-Y tripeptide frequencies in collagen: A context for host-guest triple-helical peptides. *J. Struct. Biol.* 122, 86–91.
- McCaldon, P., and Argos, P. (1988) Oligopeptide biases in protein sequences and their use in predicting protein coding regions in nucleotide sequences. *Proteins: Struct., Funct., Genet.* 4, 99–122.

- Berg, R. A., and Prockop, D. J. (1973) The thermal transition of a non-hydroxylated form of collagen. Evidence for a role for hydroxyproline in stabilizing the triple-helix of collagen. *Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun.* 52, 115–120.
- Chopra, R. K., and Ananthanarayanan, V. S. (1982) Conformational implications of enzymatic proline hydroxylation in collagen. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* 79, 7180–7184.
- Bulleid, N. J., Wilson, R., and Lees, J. F. (1996) Type-III procollagen assembly in semi-intact cells: Chain association, nucleation and triple-helix folding do not require formation of inter-chain disulphide bonds but triple-helix nucleation does require hydroxylation. *Biochem. J.* 317, 195–202.
- Jenkins, C. L., and Raines, R. T. (2002) Insights on the conformational stability of collagen. *Nat. Prod. Rep.* 19, 49–59.
- Winter, A. D., and Page, A. P. (2000) Prolyl 4-hydroxylase is an essential procollagen-modifying enzyme required for exoskeleton formation and the maintenance of body shape in the nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans*. *Mol. Cell. Biol.* 20, 4084–4093.
- Friedman, L., Higgin, J. J., Moulder, G., Barstead, R., Raines, R. T., and Kimble, J. (2000) Prolyl 4-hydroxylase is required for viability and morphogenesis in *Caenorhabditis elegans*. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* 97, 4736–4741.
- Myllyharju, J., Kukkola, L., Winter, A. D., and Page, A. P. (2002) The exoskeleton collagens in *Caenorhabditis elegans* are modified by prolyl 4-hydroxylases with unique combinations of subunits. *J. Biol. Chem.* 277, 29187–29196.
- Holster, T., Pakkanen, O., Soininen, R., Sormunen, R., Nokelainen, M., Kivirikko, K. I., and Myllyharju, J. (2007) Loss of assembly of the main basement membrane collagen, Type IV, but not fibril-forming collagens and embryonic death in collagen prolyl 4-hydroxylase I null mice. *J. Biol. Chem.* 282, 2512–2519.
- Kaelin, W. G. (2005) Proline hydroxylation and gene expression. *Annu. Rev. Biochem.* 74, 115–128.
- Lamberg, A., Pihlajaniemi, T., and Kivirikko, K. I. (1995) Site-directed mutagenesis of the alpha subunit of human prolyl 4-hydroxylase. Identification of three histidine residues critical for catalytic activity. *J. Biol. Chem.* 270, 9926–9931.
- Koivu, J., Myllyla, R., Helaakoski, T., Pihlajaniemi, T., Tasanen, K., and Kivirikko, K. I. (1987) A single polypeptide acts both as the beta subunit of prolyl 4-hydroxylase and as a protein disulfide-isomerase. *J. Biol. Chem.* 262, 6447–6449.
- Vuori, K., Pihlajaniemi, T., Myllyla, R., and Kivirikko, K. I. (1992) Site-directed mutagenesis of human protein disulfide isomerase: Effect on the assembly, activity and endoplasmic reticulum retention of human prolyl 4-hydroxylase in *Spodoptera frugiperda* insect cells. *EMBO J.* 11, 4213–4217.
- Vuori, K., Pihlajaniemi, T., Marttila, M., and Kivirikko, K. I. (1992) Characterization of the human prolyl 4-hydroxylase tetramer and its multifunctional protein disulfide-isomerase subunit synthesized in a baculovirus expression system. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* 89, 7467–7470.
- Kivirikko, K. I., Myllyla, R., and Pihlajaniemi, T. (1989) Protein hydroxylation: Prolyl 4-hydroxylase, an enzyme with four cosubstrates and a multifunctional subunit. *FASEB J.* 3, 1609–1617.
- Kerstein, E. A., Higgin, J. J., and Raines, R. T. (2004) Production of human prolyl 4-hydroxylase in *Escherichia coli*. *Protein Expression Purif.* 38, 279–291.
- Neubauer, A., Neubauer, P., and Myllyharju, J. (2005) High-level production of human collagen prolyl 4-hydroxylase in *Escherichia coli*. *Matrix Biol.* 24, 59–68.
- Guzman, N. A. (1998) *Prolyl 4-Hydroxylase, Protein Disulfide Isomerase, and Other Structurally Related Proteins*, Marcel Dekker, New York.
- Fox, B. G. (1998) Catalysis by non-heme iron, in *Comprehensive Biological Catalysis: A Mechanistic Reference* (Sinnott, M., Ed.) pp 261–348, Academic Press, San Diego.
- Kivirikko, K. I., and Pihlajaniemi, T. (1998) Collagen hydroxylases and the protein disulfide isomerase subunit of prolyl 4-hydroxylases. *Adv. Enzymol. Relat. Areas Mol. Biol.* 72, 325–398.
- Rhoads, R. E., and Udenfriend, S. (1968) Decarboxylation of alpha-ketoglutarate coupled to collagen proline hydroxylase. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* 60, 1473–1478.
- Cardinale, G. J., Rhoads, R. E., and Udenfriend, S. (1971) Simultaneous incorporation of <sup>18</sup>O into succinate and hydroxyproline catalyzed by collagen proline hydroxylase. *Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun.* 43, 537–543.
- Myllyla, R., Kuutti-Savolainen, E. R., and Kivirikko, K. I. (1978) The role of ascorbate in the prolyl hydroxylase reaction. *Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun.* 83, 441–448.

26. de Jong, L., Albracht, S. P., and Kemp, A. (1982) Prolyl 4-hydroxylase activity in relation to the oxidation state of enzyme-bound iron. The role of ascorbate in peptidyl proline hydroxylation. *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 704, 326–332.
27. Myllylä, R., Majamaa, K., Gunzler, V., Hanauske-Abel, H. M., and Kivirikko, K. I. (1984) Ascorbate is consumed stoichiometrically in the uncoupled reactions catalyzed by prolyl 4-hydroxylase and lysyl hydroxylase. *J. Biol. Chem.* 259, 5403–5405.
28. Costas, M., Mehn, M. P., Jensen, M. P., and Que, L., Jr. (2004) Dioxygen activation at mononuclear nonheme iron active sites: Enzymes, models, and intermediates. *Chem. Rev.* 104, 939–986.
29. Hoffart, L. M., Barr, E. W., Guyer, R. B., Bollinger, J. M., Jr., and Krebs, C. (2006) Direct spectroscopic detection of a C-H-cleaving high-spin Fe(IV) complex in a prolyl-4-hydroxylase. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* 103, 14738–14743.
30. Krebs, C., Galonić Fujimori, D., Walsh, C. T., and Bollinger, J. M., Jr. (2007) Non-heme Fe(IV)-oxo intermediates. *Acc. Chem. Res.* 40, 484–492.
31. Fujita, Y., Gottlieb, A., Peterkofsky, B., Udenfriend, S., and Witkop, B. (1964) The preparation of cis- and trans-4-H<sup>3</sup>-L-prolines and their use in studying the mechanism of enzymatic hydroxylation in chick embryos. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* 86, 4709–4716.
32. Cardinale, G. J., and Udenfriend, S. (1974) Prolyl hydroxylase. *Adv. Enzymol. Relat. Areas Mol. Biol.* 41, 245–300.
33. Prockop, D. J., and Kivirikko, K. I. (1969) Effect of polymer size on inhibition of protocollagen proline hydroxylase by polyproline II. *J. Biol. Chem.* 244, 4838–4842.
34. Kivirikko, K. I., Kishida, Y., Sakakibara, S., and Prockop, D. J. (1972) Hydroxylation of (X-Pro-Gly)<sub>n</sub> by protocollagen proline hydroxylase. Effect of chain length, helical conformation and amino acid sequence in the substrate. *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 271, 347–356.
35. Rapaka, R. S., Renugopalakrishnan, V., Urry, D. W., and Bhatnagar, R. S. (1978) Hydroxylation of proline in polytripeptide models of collagen: Stereochemistry of polytripeptide-prolyl hydroxylase interaction. *Biochemistry* 17, 2892–2898.
36. Brahmachari, S. K., and Ananthanarayanan, V. S. (1979)  $\beta$ -Turns in nascent procollagen are sites of posttranslational enzymatic hydroxylation of proline. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* 76, 5119–5123.
37. Atreya, P. L., and Ananthanarayanan, V. S. (1991) Interaction of prolyl 4-hydroxylase with synthetic peptide substrates. A conformational model for collagen proline hydroxylation. *J. Biol. Chem.* 266, 2852–2858.
38. Fischer, G. (2000) Chemical aspects of peptide bond isomerisation. *Chem. Soc. Rev.* 29, 119–127.
39. Bretscher, L. E., Jenkins, C. L., Taylor, K. M., DeRider, M. L., and Raines, R. T. (2001) Conformational stability of collagen relies on a stereoelectronic effect. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* 123, 777–778.
40. DeRider, M. L., Wilkens, S. J., Waddell, M. J., Bretscher, L. E., Weinhold, F., Raines, R. T., and Markley, J. L. (2002) Collagen stability: Insights from NMR spectroscopic and hybrid density functional computational investigations of the effect of electro-negative substituents on prolyl ring conformations. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* 124, 2497–2505.
41. Giacobbo, C., Monaco, H. L., Artioli, G., Viterbo, D., Ferraris, G., Gilli, G., Zanotti, G., and Catti, M. (2002) *Fundamentals of Crystallography*, 2nd ed., Oxford University Press, Oxford, U.K.
42. Raines, R. T. (2006) 2005 Emil Thomas Kaiser Award. *Protein Sci.* 15, 1219–1225.
43. Hodges, J. A., and Raines, R. T. (2005) Stereoelectronic and steric effects in the collagen triple helix: Toward a code for strand association. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* 127, 15923–15932.
44. Jenkins, C. L., Lin, G. L., Duo, J. Q., Rapolu, D., Guzei, I. A., Raines, R. T., and Krow, G. R. (2004) Substituted 2-azabicyclo[2.1.1]hexanes as constrained proline analogues: Implications for collagen stability. *J. Org. Chem.* 69, 8565–8573.
45. Krow, G. R., Lin, G., and Yu, F. (2005) The rearrangement route to 3-carboxy- and 3-hydroxymethyl-2-azabicyclo[2.1.1]hexanes: 3,5-Methanoproline. *J. Org. Chem.* 70, 590–595.
46. Krow, G. R., Huang, Q., Lin, G., Centafont, R. A., Thomas, A. M., Gandla, D., DeBrosse, C., and Carroll, P. J. (2006) 5-Carboxy-2-azabicyclo[2.1.1]hexanes as precursors of 5-halo, amino, phenyl, and 2-methoxycarbonyl ethyl methanopyrrolidines. *J. Org. Chem.* 71, 2090–2098.
47. Krow, G. R., Herzon, S. B., Lin, G., Qiu, F., and Sonnet, P. E. (2002) Temperature-dependent regiochemical diversity in lithiation-electrophilic substitution reactions on *N*-BOC-2-azabicyclo[2.1.1]hexane, 2,4- and 3,5-Methanoproline. *Org. Lett.* 4, 3151–3154.
48. Gill, S. C., and von Hippel, P. H. (1989) Calculation of protein extinction coefficients from amino acid sequence data. *Anal. Biochem.* 182, 319–326.
49. Kivirikko, K. I., and Myllylä, R. (1982) Posttranslational enzymes in the biosynthesis of collagen: Intracellular enzymes. *Methods Enzymol.* 82, 245–304.
50. Kanai, K., Podanyi, B., Bokotey, S., Hajdu, F., and Hermecz, I. (2002) Stereoselective sulfoxide formation from a thioproline derivative. *Tetrahedron Asymmetry* 13, 491–495.
51. Tandon, M., Wu, M., Begley, T. P., Myllyharju, J., Pirskanen, A., and Kivirikko, K. (1998) Substrate specificity of human prolyl-4-hydroxylase. *Bioorg. Med. Chem. Lett.* 8, 1139–1144.
52. Gunzler, V., Brocks, D., Henke, S., Myllylä, R., Geiger, R., and Kivirikko, K. I. (1988) Syncatalytic inactivation of prolyl 4-hydroxylase by synthetic peptides containing the unphysiologic amino acid 5-oxaproline. *J. Biol. Chem.* 263, 19498–19504.
53. Salvador, R. A., Tsai, I., Marcel, R. J., Felix, A. M., and Kerwar, S. S. (1976) The in vivo inhibition of collagen synthesis and reduction of prolyl hydroxylase activity by 3,4-dehydroproline. *Arch. Biochem. Biophys.* 174, 381–392.
54. Kerwar, S. S., Felix, A. M., Marcel, R. J., Tsai, I., and Salvador, R. A. (1976) Effect of L-3,4-dehydroproline on collagen synthesis and prolyl hydroxylase activity in mammalian cell cultures. *J. Biol. Chem.* 251, 503–509.
55. Nolan, J. C., Ridge, S., Oronsky, A. L., and Kerwar, S. S. (1978) Studies on mechanism of reduction of prolyl hydroxylase-activity by D,L-3,4-dehydroproline. *Arch. Biochem. Biophys.* 189, 448–453.
56. Pauling, L. (1960) *The Nature of the Chemical Bond*, 3rd ed., Cornell University Press, Ithaca, NY.
57. Gottlieb, A. A., Fujita, Y., Udenfriend, S., and Witkop, B. (1965) Incorporation of cis- and trans-4-fluoro-L-prolines into proteins and hydroxylation of trans isomer during collagen biosynthesis. *Biochemistry* 4, 2507–2513.
58. Hutton, J. J., Jr., Witkop, B., Kurtz, J., Berger, A., and Udenfriend, S. (1968) Synthetic polypeptides as substrates and inhibitors of collagen proline hydroxylase. *Arch. Biochem. Biophys.* 125, 779–785.
59. Zhang, X. M. (1998) Radical substituent effects of  $\alpha$ -fluorine and  $\alpha$ -trifluoromethyl groups. *J. Org. Chem.* 63, 3590–3594.
60. Chen, I., and Ting, A. Y. (2005) Site-specific labeling of proteins with small molecules in live cells. *Curr. Opin. Biotechnol.* 16, 35–40.
61. Renner, C., Alefelder, S., Bae, J. H., Budisa, N., Huber, R., and Moroder, L. (2001) Fluoroproline as tools for protein design and engineering. *Angew. Chem., Int. Ed.* 40, 923–925.
62. Kim, W., George, A., Evans, M., and Conticello, V. P. (2004) Cotranslational incorporation of a structurally diverse series of proline analogues in an *Escherichia coli* expression system. *ChemBioChem* 5, 928–936.
63. Kim, W., McMillan, R. A., Snyder, J. P., and Conticello, V. P. (2005) A stereoelectronic effect on turn formation due to proline substitution in elastin-mimetic polypeptides. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* 127, 18121–18132.
64. Kim, W., and Conticello, V. P. (2007) Protein engineering methods for investigation of structure–function relationships in protein-based elastomeric materials. *Polym. Rev.* 47, 93–119.
65. Steiner, T., Hess, P., Bae, J. H., Wiltzchi, B., Moroder, L., and Budisa, N. (2008) Synthetic biology of proteins: Tuning GFPs folding and stability with fluoroproline. *PLoS One* 3, e1680.
66. Thornburg, L. D., Lai, M. T., Wishnok, J. S., and Stubbe, J. (1993) A non-heme iron protein with heme tendencies: An investigation of the substrate specificity of thymine hydroxylase. *Biochemistry* 32, 14023–14033.
67. Pascal, R. A., Oliver, M. A., and Chen, Y. C. J. (1985) Alternate substrates and inhibitors of bacterial 4-hydroxyphenylpyruvate dioxygenase. *Biochemistry* 24, 3158–3165.
68. McCoy, J. G., Bailey, L. J., Bitto, E., Bingman, C. A., Aceti, D. J., Fox, B. G., and Phillips, G. N. (2006) Structure and mechanism of mouse cysteine dioxygenase. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* 103, 3084–3089.
69. Improta, R., Benzi, C., and Barone, V. (2001) Understanding the role of stereoelectronic effects in determining collagen stability. 1. A quantum mechanical study of proline, hydroxyproline, and fluoroproline dipeptide analogues in aqueous solution. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* 123, 12568–12577.

70. Thomas, K. M., Naduthambi, D., Tririya, G., and Zondlo, N. J. (2005) Proline editing: A divergent strategy for the synthesis of conformationally diverse peptides. *Org. Lett.* *7*, 2397–2400.
71. Kern, D., Schutkowski, M., and Drakenberg, T. (1997) Rotational barriers of cis/trans isomerization of proline analogues and their catalysis by cyclophilin. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* *119*, 8403–8408.
72. Krow, G. R., and Cannon, K. C. (2004) Azabicyclo[2.1.1]hexanes. A review. *Heterocycles* *62*, 877–898.
73. Walter, C., and Frieden, E. (1963) The prevalence and significance of the product inhibition of enzymes. *Adv. Enzymol. Relat. Areas Mol. Biol.* *25*, 1963.
74. Cook, P., and Cleland, W. W. (2007) in *Enzymes Kinetics and Mechanism*, pp 128–150, Garland Science, New York, NY.
75. Peluso, S., Ufret, M. D., O'Reilly, M. K., and Imperiali, B. (2002) Neoglycopeptides as inhibitors of oligosaccharyl transferase: Insight into negotiating product inhibition. *Chem. Biol.* *9*, 1323–1328.
76. Panasik, N., Jr., Eberhardt, E. S., Edison, A. S., Powell, D. R., and Raines, R. T. (1994) Inductive effects on the structure of proline residues. *Int. J. Pept. Protein Res.* *44*, 262–269.

BI8009373