

Engineering Substrate Promiscuity of Nucleoside Phosphorylase Via an Insertions–Deletions Strategy

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enzymes in the nucleoside metabolism pathway and are widely employed for the synthesis of nucleoside analogs, which are difficult to access via conventional synthetic methods. NPs are generally classified as purine nucleoside phosphorylase (PNP) and pyrimidine or uridine nucleoside phosphorylase (PyNP/UP), based on their substrate preference. Here, based on the evolutionary information on the NP-I family, we adopted an insertions-deletions (InDels) strategy to engineer the substrate promiscuity of nucleoside phosphorylase $AmPNP\Delta S2_{V102}$ k, which exhibits both PNP and UP activities from a trimeric PNP (AmPNP) of Aneurinibacillus migulanus. Furthermore, the



 $AmPNP\Delta S2_{V102 \ K}$ exerted phosphorylation activities toward arabinose nucleoside, fluorosyl nucleoside, and dideoxyribose, thereby broadening the unnatural-ribose nucleoside substrate spectrum of AmPNP. Finally, six purine nucleoside analogues were successfully synthesized, using the engineered $AmPNP\Delta S2_{V102 \ K}$ instead of the traditional "two-enzymes PNP/UP" approach. These results provide deep insights into the catalytic mechanisms of the PNP and demonstrate the benefits of using the InDels strategy to achieve substrate promiscuity in an enzyme, as well as broadening the substrate spectrum of the enzyme.

KEYWORDS: nucleoside phosphorylase, substrate promiscuity, insertions-deletions, evolutionary information, purine nucleoside analogues

INTRODUCTION

Nucleoside phosphorylases (NPs) are essential for the salvage and catabolism of nucleosides in all organisms. They catalyze the reversible phosphorolysis of nucleosides and their analogues in the presence of phosphate. Purine nucleoside phosphorylase (PNP, EC 2.4.2.1) is the largest subfamily of the NP-I family with a preference for purine nucleosides as its substrates.¹ Other members of the NP-I family include uridine phosphorylase (UP, EC 2.4.2.3), which prefers uridine and its analogues to produce uracil and ribose-1-phosphate.¹ Pyrimidine NPs (PyNP, EC 2.4.2.2) belong to the NP-II family and have a substrate preference for pyrimidine nucleosides.¹ NPs are effective biocatalysts for the synthesis of nucleoside drugs.²⁻⁵ They were used to directly convert the 1phosphoribose sugar to the nucleoside in a single step, such as islatravir,⁶ molnupiravir⁴ and didanosine⁷ (Scheme 1a). However, 1-phosphoribose sugar is difficult to store because it is easily decomposed.⁸ Also, the phosphate hydrolysis process of purine nucleosides is more thermodynamically favorable for the synthesis of nucleosides, while the phosphate hydrolysis process of pyrimidine nucleosides is the opposite.8 To efficiently synthesize purine nucleoside drugs with a high yield, PNP and PyNP or UP have usually been combined in a "one-pot, two-enzymes" reaction system (Scheme 1b).^{2,3} Interestingly, both PNP and UP are members of the NP-I family with a common α/β -subunit fold and similar monomer structure and catalytic mechanism, but completely different substrate preferences.¹ There are two reported PNPs with activity toward both purine nucleosides and pyrimidine nucleosides, but they show very low activity toward pyrimidine nucleosides.^{8,9} Therefore, in this study, we aimed to engineer substrate promiscuity of NP with both PNP and UP activity to reduce the loss of unstable intermediate ribose phosphate in the synthesis of purine nucleoside analogues (Scheme 1b).

The development of strategy for engineering substrate promiscuity in enzymes is very useful and meaningful; it not only broadens the practical applications of biocatalysts in biotechnology, but also contributes to a deeper understanding of enzyme catalytic mechanisms and their evolutionary significance.^{10,11} Many studies were focused on the improving of enzymatic functions by using site substitution in the active pocket region of enzymes or by introducing random mutations of into enzymes.^{12,13} However, in addition to amino acid

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(AAs) substitutions, insertions—deletions (InDels) may play a more important role in natural and artificial protein evolution.^{14–19} Nevertheless, the role of InDels in shaping enzyme function is still largely unexplored. The main reason is that InDels are approximately 100 times more likely to have a deleterious effect than substitutions leading to the complete inactivation of the enzyme.^{20,21} InDels of AA fragments often occur during the natural evolution of enzymes. Therefore, utilizing the evolutionary information on enzymes to develop an InDels strategy to access substrate promiscuity of enzymes has great potential.

Although members of the same enzyme family usually share key active site residues in a common fold, they have acquired different substrate preferences during natural evolution.^{22,23} Based on the substrate preference and evolutionary information on enzymes, many strategies have been developed to create enzymes with new functions or altered substrate preferences.²⁴ For example, using protein engineering, Gaucher et al. designed a DNA polymerase with the ability to polymerize nonstandard nucleosides, guided by the reconstructed evolutionary adaptation path (REAP).²⁵ This method relies on the phylogenetic analysis of homologous sequences with ancient enzymes having lower substrate specificity to detect characteristics of functional divergence and reconstruct individual mutations along the divergent phylogenetic branches of these functions. Notably, to date, all studies have focused on application of REAP for enzyme engineering using only single or a few AA substitutions. However, in a family member with a low degree of sequence similarity, this method would not be applicable. To further improve this method strategy, we explored an InDels AA fragment as the evolutionary node to obtain target-engineering enzymes.

In this work, we began with the trimeric PNP (AmPNP) from *Aneurinibacillus migulanus* AM007²⁶ to shape an engineering NP with a broad substrate spectrum. The analysis of the possible evolution path of the NP-I family and the sequence alignment of bacterial-derived trimer PNPs and bacterial-derived UPs (with low sequence identity) indicated

that the divergence of the nucleoside phosphorylase function was due to the insertion and deletion of fragments. We then constructed a mutant library of AmPNP using the InDels strategy. After screening and reshaping the active site, we obtained an engineering NP ($AmPNP\Delta S2_{V102 \text{ K}}$) with both PNP and UP activities. Activities toward arabinose nucleoside, fluorosyl nucleoside, and dideoxyribonucleoside of the mutant $AmPNP\Delta S2_{V102 \text{ K}}$ were also detected. We found that the S2 fragment played an important role in the evolution of the substrate preference for NP. In this study, we synthesized several purine nucleoside analogues, using a single enzyme $AmPNP\Delta S2_{V102 \text{ K}}$, instead of the "double-enzymes of PNP and NP" for the first time. These results reveal that the introduction of the InDels strategy can lead to substrate promiscuity in protein engineering.

RESULTS

InDels-Designed Library of AmPNP

We first constructed a phylogenetic tree of the NP-I family enzymes (Figure 1a). Then, based on their subunit molecular weights and quaternary structures, we proposed an evolutionary pathway between PNPs and UPs (Supporting Information Figure S1). According to the evolutionary pathway analysis of the NP-I family, the occurrence of duplication events might be the main reason for the substrate preference of the NP-I family. Rare bacterial-derived trimeric PNPs were retained during NP-I family evolution. We speculated that these PNPs were closer to their ancestral enzymes, making it easier for them to be shaped into engineering enzymes with substrate promiscuity. Although bacterial-derived UPs have a substrate preference for uridine, they have similar monomer molecular weights, common folds, and catalytic mechanisms as bacterial-derived trimeric PNPs. Therefore, we performed multiple sequence alignment of bacterial-derived UPs and bacterial-derived trimeric PNP. Although UPs and PNPs had low sequence identity (Figure S2a), the secondary structures and monomer structures of UPs



Figure 1. InDels-designed Engineering substrate promiscuity of nucleoside phosphorylase. (a) The phylogenetic tree of PNPs and UPs. AA sequence information is shown in the Supporting Information Table S1. The quaternary structure and subunit molecular mass are shown in brackets. The red circles represent evolutionary nodes of divergence in the specificity substrates of ancestral enzyme. (b) Multiple sequence alignment of bacterial-derived trimeric PNPs and bacterial-derived UPs. Comparison of AA sequences was aligned using ClustalW2 server. The locations of the mutations are in the red dotted box (::32EK, Δ 44P, Δ 141G, Δ 151FP, Δ 233N, Δ S1, Δ S2, Δ S3, Δ S4, and::S5). Red asterisk and red triangle denote conserved residues in the phosphate-binding site (H) and purine-binding site (N) of trimeric PNPs, respectively. The residues marked with black asterisk and black triangle are the phosphate-binding sites (R), respectively. (c) The location of the mutations is in the *Am*PNP. The delete locations were marked in red, and the inset locations were marked in yellow. (d) HPLC analysis of the phosphorolysis activity of *Am*PNP Δ S2 toward uridine,5-methyluridine and 2'-deoxyuridine. Uracil (Rt = 4.367 min), uridine (Rt = 5.347 min), 2'-deoxyuridine (Rt = 6.773 min), 5-methyluracil (Rt = 7.133 min), 5-methyluridine (Rt = 8.880 min).

and PNPs were similar (Figures 1b, S2b,c). However, in contrast to UPs, PNPs have deletions and insertions of short sequences composed of single and multiple AAs. We speculated that these different fragments may play an important role in the substrate preference of NPs. From the perspective of natural evolution, the differential fragments between PNPs and UPs are the key factors in substrate preference toward purine nucleosides or uridines. Considering also the low identity (<0.2) between PNPs and UPs (Figure S2a), we focused on the feature fragments and designed the aforementioned mutant library. Within the existing genetic background, we reconstructed the evolutionary adaptation path of PNPs using these key motifs to obtain mutants with a wider substrate spectrum, including purine and pyrimidine nucleosides.

In this study, the rare bacterial-derived trimeric *Am*PNP was selected as a backbone because it is closer to ancestral enzymes and easier to be shaped into an engineering enzyme with substrate promiscuity. Then, an InDels-designed library was created including fragments and several AA deletions or insertion to screen for mutants with phosphorylation activity toward both PNPs and UPs (Figure 1b). The locations of the mutations in the *Am*PNP monomer structure model are

illustrated in Figure 1c. Only the locations of Δ 44P, Δ 141G, and Δ 151FP were far from the substrate-binding pocket.

Identification of AmPNP Mutants

Mutants including AmPNP::32EK, $AmPNP\Delta 141G$, $AmPNP\Delta 151FP$, $AmPNP\Delta 233N$, $AmPNP\Delta S2$, $AmPNP\Delta S4$, and AmPNP::S5 were successfully expressed in soluble fractions by *Escherichia coli* (Supporting Information Figure S3). However, $AmPNP\Delta 44P$, $AmPNP\Delta S1$, and AmPNP-S3were not successfully expressed in the soluble fractions. Then, the purified mutants (Supporting Information Figure S4) were used to screen for mutants that can phosphorylate purine nucleosides and uridine analogues. Different nucleosides, including purine nucleosides (inosine, guanosine, and 2'deoxyguanosine) and uridine and its analogues (2'-deoxyuridine and 5-methyluridine), were employed to test the substrate preference of the wild type (WT) AmPNP and mutants (Table 1).

Finally, we established that the screened mutant $AmPNP\Delta S2$ from the InDels-designed library showed phosphorylation activity toward PNPs and UPs. Moreover, the mutant $AmPNP\Delta 141G$ was obtained with 1.84-folds and 3.32-folds increased phosphorylation activities toward guanosine and 2'-deoxyguanosineinosine, respectively, compared

| Table 1. Activity of AmPNP and Mutants Toward Vario | is Substrate" | |
|---|---------------|--|
|---|---------------|--|

| | Specific activity (U/mg) | | | | | | |
|-----------------------------------|--------------------------|------------------|-------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|-----------------|--|
| _ | | purine nucleosid | es | uridine and its analogues | | | |
| Enzymes | HO COLON | | HO CO H | HO CH OH | HO CON CHARACTER CONTRACT | HO Y SH OH | |
| | inosine | guanosine | 2'-deoxyguanosine | uridine | 2'-deoxyuridine | 5-methyluridine | |
| <i>Am</i> PNP | 79.1±2.3 | 53.7±3.1 | 15.5±0.9 | ND | ND | ND | |
| AmPNP::32EK | 30.8±1.2 | 9.3±1.7 | 5.6±0.5 | ND | ND | ND | |
| <i>Am</i> PNP∆141G | 62.2±2.6 | 98.5±2.0 | 51.6±2.6 | ND | ND | ND | |
| <i>Αm</i> ΡΝΡΔ151FP | 0.9±0.2 | 0.7±0.03 | 0.5±0.01 | ND | ND | ND | |
| <i>Αm</i> ΡΝΡΔ233Ν | ND | ND | ND | ND | ND | ND | |
| AmPNP∆S2 | 1.6±0.3 | 1.0±0.1 | 1.0±0.1 | 0.1±0.04 | 0.02±0.0 | <0.01 | |
| AmPNP∆S4 | 0.8±0.01 | 0.4±0.01 | 0.07±0.01 | ND | ND | ND | |
| AmPNP::S5 | 1.0±0.2 | 1.2±0.2 | 1.9±0.2 | ND | ND | ND | |
| $AmPNP\Delta S2_{V102H}$ | 0.3±0.01 | 0.2±0.2 | 0.2±0.03 | 0.02±0.0 | <0.01 | <0.01 | |
| $AmPNP\Delta S2_{V102R}$ | 9.1±1.0 | 5.5±0.7 | 5.0±0.8 | 3.6±1.0 | 1.2±0.2 | 0.5±0.02 | |
| <i>Αm</i> ΡΝΡΔS2 _{V102K} | 8.7±1.2 | 4.3±1.0 | 5.0±1.3 | 10.1±1.3 | 4.8±1.3 | 4.0±1.9 | |

^{*a*}One enzymatic unit of activity was defined as the amount of enzyme required to convert 1.0 μ mol of nucleoside per minute at 50 °C and at pH of 8.0 in 10 mM Na₂HPO₄/KH₂PO₄ buffer. Data are represented as mean ± SD (*n* = 3). Product formation was analyzed by HPLC. HPLC analysis of *Am*PNP Δ S2 activity toward uridine and its analogues were in Supporting Information Figure 1d. ND: not detected.

with those of the WT. We docked the substrates into AmPNP and mutant $AmPNP\Delta 141G$, respectively, and it can be observed from Figure 2a that the structure of the whole



Figure 2. (a) Comparisons of the monomer structures of WT AmPNP (white) and AmPNP Δ 141G (cyans) docking with guanosine. 3D homology models of the AmPNP and AmPNP Δ 141G were conducted using the RoseTTAFold. (b) Molecular docking of guanosine into *Am*PNP. (c) Molecular docking of guanosine into *Am*PNP Δ 141G. The black dotted line represents the distance between the N atoms of N233/N232 and N7 of the purine base.

protein was slightly changed due to the deletion of 141G. In AmPNP (Figure 2b), residue N233 provides a proton to N7 of the base of guanosine, which allows the formation of a hydrogen bond between the given atom and the enzyme. Electron flow from the ribose stabilizes the resulting electron pull of the base. In $AmPNP\Delta141G$ (Figure 2c), this hydrogen bonding distance between N232 and the guanosine's purine base N7 is shorter, promoting the transfer of protons to the N7 of the purine base, stabilizing the negative charge formed on the base in the transition state, and thus increasing the phosphorylation activity of the enzyme on guanosine.

Reshaping the Binding Pocket of Mutant AmPNPAS2

To improve the phosphorylation activity of mutant AmPNP $\Delta S2$, we further engineered it by reshaping its binding pocket. Our structural comparison analysis results (Figure S7) revealed that the low activity of $AmPNP\Delta S2$ resulted from the deletion of the key AA residue H81, which develops electrostatic strain during the deprotonation of the phosphate monoanion to the dianion (H81-PO₄ =) to initiate a nucleophilic attack on the ribosyl group in the reversible phosphorolysis of nucleosides (Figure 3a).²⁷ Although the NPs of the NP-I family have similar structures and catalytic mechanisms, the catalytic residues and positions for deprotonation of the phosphate monoanion are different (AmPNP: H81 and EcUP: R91)²⁸ (Figure 3b). The position of this residue is absent in AmPNP $\Delta S2$, but the position (V102) corresponding to residue R91 in EcUP is present in the mutant AmPNP $\Delta S2$ (Figure 3c). Therefore, residue V102 in AmPNP $\Delta S2$ was replaced by an alkaline AA (H, R, and K)



Figure 3. Comparisons of the monomer structures of WT *Am*PNP (white), mutant *Am*PNP Δ S2 (orange), and *Ec*UP (green, pdb ID: 1rxs). 3D homology models of the *Am*PNP and *Am*PNP Δ S2 were conducted using the RoseTTAFold (https://robetta.bakerlab.org/) with 4m1e (PDB accession code of PNP from *Planctomyces limnophilus* DSM 3776) as a template, which has 48.33% protein sequence identities with *Am*PNP Δ S2. The S2 fragment is displayed in red. (b) Comparison of the monomer structure of *Am*PNP and R91 (*Ec*UP), respectively. (c) Comparison of the monomer structure of EcUP and *Am*PNP Δ S2. The AA residues V102 in *Am*PNP Δ S2 correspond with the AA residue R91 in *EcUP*.

to reshape the binding pocket. The phosphorylation activities of the obtained mutants ($AmPNP\Delta S2_{V102H}$, $AmPNP\Delta S2_{V102R}$) and $AmPNP\Delta S2_{V102 K}$) were tested by using inosine and uridine as substrates. As seen in Table 1, the phosphorylation activities of the mutants $AmPNP\Delta S2_{V102 R}$ and $AmPNP\Delta S2_{V102 R}$ toward inosine were 5.77-folds and 5.55-folds higher, respectively, and the phosphorylation activity toward uridine were 29.83-folds and 83.75-folds higher,

respectively, than those of $AmPNP\Delta S2$. The mutant $AmPNP\Delta S2_{V102 \text{ K}}$ showed the highest activity toward inosine and uridine.

To investigate the possible catalytic mechanism of mutant AmPNP $\Delta S2_{V102 \text{ K}}$, structural models of AmPNP, AmPNP $\Delta S2$, and $AmPNP\Delta S2_{V102 \ K}$ were established and then docked with phosphate ions using AutoDock (Figure 4). As depicted in Figure 4a, residue H81 of the WT AmPNP forms hydrogen bond contacts with the phosphate ion, stabilizing the phosphate in the active pocket and positioning it favorably for deprotonation. Due to the deletion of the S2 fragment containing the residue H81, the mutant $AmPNP\Delta S2$ lacks a suitable residue in the corresponding position to stabilize and deprotonate the phosphate ion. Consequently, the activation of the phosphate ion and the subsequent nucleophilic attack on the nucleoside are hindered, leading to a considerable reduction in its phosphorylation ability. However, the AA H59 in the active pocket can form a weak hydrogen bond with the phosphate ion in the absence of H81 to deprotonate the phosphate ion and complete the phosphorolysis reaction by nucleophilic attack on the nucleoside (Figure 4b). Subsequently, residue V102 K was introduced into the mutant $AmPNP\Delta S2_{V102 K}$ allowing the formation of a hydrogen bond with the phosphate ion (Figure 4c). Thus, the stabilization and deprotonation of the phosphate ion and the subsequent nucleophilic attack on the nucleoside were successfully completed, increasing the phosphorylation activity of the mutant. The change in the binding energy of AmPNP and its mutants to the phosphate ion was also consistent with this process. The possible $AmPNP\Delta S2_{V102 \ K}$ catalytic process is presented in the Supporting Information Figure S5.

Performance Analysis of AmPNP and Its Variants

Furthermore, the phosphorylation activities of WT AmPNPand its mutants toward purine and pyrimidine nucleosides were tested (Table 2). AmPNP displayed a substrate preference for purine nucleosides but exhibited no phosphorylation activity for arabinopurine nucleosides. The mutant $AmPNP\Delta S2_{V102 \text{ K}}$ exhibits phosphorylation activity toward both purine nucleosides and uridine. Thus, mutant $AmPNP\Delta S2_{V102 \text{ K}}$ showed phosphorylation activity characteristic of both PNPs and UPs. In addition, the mutant $AmPNP\Delta S2_{V102 \text{ K}}$ also exerted phosphorylation activity toward some base-modified uridines, such as 5-methyluridine and 5'fluoro-2'-deoxyuridine. The change in the substrate promiscuity of $AmPNP\Delta S2_{V102 \text{ K}}$ was observed not only in its base but also in its ribose group. For instance, it has phosphorylation



Figure 4. (a) Molecular docking of phosphate ions into *Am*PNP. (b) Molecular docking of phosphate ions into *Am*PNP Δ S2. (c) Molecular docking of phospha

Table 2. Phosphorylation Activity of WT and $AmPNP\Delta S2_{V102 \ K}$ Toward Purine Nucleosides and Pyrimidine Nucleosides^a

| | Specific activity (U/mg) | | | Specific activity (U/mg) | | |
|---|--------------------------|---------------------------|---|--------------------------|-----------------------------------|--|
| purine nucleosides | WT | AmPNPΔS2 _{V102K} | pyrimidine nucleosides | WT | <i>Am</i> PNPΔS2 _{V102K} | |
| HO COLOR DH HO COLOR DH inosine | 79.3±2.0 | 8.7±1.2 | HO OH OH OH OH | ND | 10.1±1.3 | |
| HO LO NH NH2 HO LO NH2 OH OH guanosine | 53.7±1.3 | 13.0±0.9 | HO CONTRACTOR | ND | 4.2±0.5 | |
| HO OH NH2 | 16.6±2.0 | 9.9±1.1 | | ND | 1.3±0.04 | |
| 2'-deoxyguanosine | 2.6±0.8 | 0.2±0.01 | arabinoturanosyluracil | ND | 7.7±0.9 | |
| HO CONTRACTOR NOT | ND | 0.04±0.01 | Б'-fluoro-2'-deoxyuridine | ND | 1.6±0.3 | |
| HO HO NH2 HO HO NH2 arabinosylguanine | ND | 0.1±0.02 | но со | ND | 1.9±0.3 | |
| HO HO HO HO HO HO HO HO HO HO HO HO HO H | ND | ND | HO LOS MH stavudine | ND | 1.3±0.1 | |
| HO HO HO HO HO HO HO HO HO HO HO HO HO H | ND | <0.01 | HO JOH 2'-deoxycytidine | ND | ND | |
| 1, 6-dichloropurine | ND | ND | HO CYTICINE | ND | ND | |

^aND: not detected.

activity toward arabinosylguanine, arabinofuranosyluracil, 2'deoxy-2'-fluridine, and stavudine (dideoxyribonucleoside). These results indicated that the mutant $AmPNP\Delta S2_{V102 \text{ K}}$ had activities toward a broad substrate spectrum. Moreover, the mutant $AmPNP\Delta 141G$ significantly enhanced the activity toward guanosine and 2'-deoxyguanosine (Supporting Information Table S2). Finally, a combinatorial mutant ($AmPNP\Delta S2_{V102 K}\Delta 141G$) was constructed, which showed higher phosphorylation activity for guanosine and deoxyguanosine than that of $AmPNP\Delta S2_{V102 K}$ (Supporting Information Table S2).

Table 3. Biosynthesis of Purine Nucleoside Analogues by $AmPNP\Delta S2_{V102}$

| Pontofuranosvi | Durina | | Ribosylation (%) | | |
|----------------|-----------------|--------------|------------------|---------------|--------------------------|
| Donor | base | Products | AmPNP& | <i>Am</i> PNP | $AmPNP\Delta S2_{V102K}$ |
| | | | <i>Bb</i> PyNP | | VIOZIC |
| HO OH OH | NH NH NH2 | | 92.0 | ND | 82.4 |
| | | HO O H | 98.3 | ND | 46.7 |
| HO CON OH | | HO CO OH NH2 | 89.3 | ND | 60.6 |
| | | HO O H NH2 | 96.5 | ND | 21.7 |
| | | | ND | ND | 10.9 |
| | N NH N NH2 | | ND | ND | 6.5 |

^aTemperature: 50 °C. Medium: 20 mM Na₂HPO₄/KH₂PO₄ buffer (pH 7.5). Substrates: pentofuranosyl donor: Purine base. 10:5 mM. Reaction time: 12 h. ND: not detected.



Figure 5. Molecular docking of AmPNP and $AmPNP\Delta S2_{V102 K}$ with substrates. (a) Comparison of docking results of AmPNP (white) and $AmPNP\Delta S2_{V102 K}$ (blue) with phosphate ions and uridine. (b) Molecular docking of AmPNP with substrate phosphate ions (blue) and uridine (green). (c) Molecular docking of $AmPNP\Delta S2_{V102 K}$ with substrates phosphate ions (orange) and uridine (magenta). (d) Comparison of docking results of AmPNP (white) with phosphate ions and AmPNP (cyans) with pyrimidine nucleoside (uridine, 2'-deoxyuridine, arabinofuranosyluracil, 5-methyluridine, 5'-fluoro-2'-deoxyuridine, 2'-deoxy-2'-fluridine and stavudine). (e) Comparison of docking results of $AmPNP\Delta S2_{V102 K}$ (white) with phosphate ions and $AmPNP\Delta S2_{V102 K}$ (white) with phosphate ions and $AmPNP\Delta S2_{V102 K}$ (white) is a stavudine ions and $AmPNP\Delta S2_{V102 K}$ (white) with phosphate ions and $AmPNP\Delta S2_{V102 K}$ (white) is a stavudine ions and $AmPNP\Delta S2_{V102 K}$ (white) is a stavudine ions and $AmPNP\Delta S2_{V102 K}$ (white) with phosphate ions and $AmPNP\Delta S2_{V102 K}$ (syns) with pyrimidine nucleoside (uridine, 2'-deoxyuridine, 3'-fluoro-2'-deoxyuridine, and stavudine). The black dotted line represents the distance between the P atom of the phosphate ion and the C1 position on the nucleoside sugar base.

Figure S6 (Supporting Information) displays data of the effects of pH and temperature on the activity and stability of the WT AmPNP and its mutant AmPNP $\Delta S2_{V102 \text{ K}}$. Both AmPNP and AmPNP $\Delta S2_{V102 \text{ K}}$ maintained nearly 100% of their initial activities at 50 °C. However, at 60 °C, the stability of mutant AmPNP $\Delta S2_{V102 \text{ K}}$ decreased rapidly. We speculate that the S2 fragment is crucial for the enzyme's thermostability.

This result may suggest that the insertion of S2 fragment in the evolutionary process contributed not only to enhancing the substrate preference of the NP-I family for specific nucleosides, but also to increasing the enzyme's thermostability. The highest phosphorolysis activity of AmPNP was observed at a pH of 7.5, while the optimal pH for $AmPNP\Delta S2_{V102 \text{ K}}$ was 8.0. These differences may be attributed to changes in the AA

residues (H81 in AmPNP and K102 in AmPNP Δ S2_{V102 K}) that deprotonate the phosphate ion during the phosphorylation reaction.

We also tried to synthesize purine nucleoside analogues using the purified single enzyme $AmPNP\Delta S2_{V102 \ K}$, instead of the "one-pot, two-enzymes" method (Scheme 1b). Subsequently, six purine nucleoside analogues were successfully synthesized with a yield ranging from 6.54 to 82.36% (Table 3). Hence, it can be concluded that the mutant $AmPNP\Delta S2_{V102 \ K}$ is capable of synthesizing not only purine nucleosides and deoxynucleosides but also purine arabino nucleosides, indicating that this mutant has a significant potential for the biosynthesis of purine nucleoside analogs. Given that NP reactions are under thermodynamic control, even enzymes that display low-level promiscuous activity toward a given nucleobase can form the corresponding nucleoside at appreciable levels when equilibrium is reached.⁸

Molecular Dynamics Illustrate Substrate Promiscuity of $\textit{AmPNP}\Delta S2_{V102\ K}$

We performed molecular dynamics (MD) simulations to further elucidate the molecular basis of substrate promiscuity in $AmPNP\Delta S2_{V102 \text{ K}}$. We ran 50 ns simulations of AmPNP and $AmPNP\Delta S2_{V102 \text{ K}}$ bound to phosphate ions and uridine. Using the initial structure as a template, we analyzed the root-meansquare deviation (RMSD) for all C α atoms through a trajectory of approximately 50 ns for each system (Supporting Information Figure S7). Based on the MD simulation results, we determined the average structures were determined from the trajectories.

When comparing the docking results of AmPNP and $AmPNP\Delta S2_{V102 K}$ with those of uridine and phosphate ions (Figure 5a), we found that the spatial positions of uridine almost overlapped, whereas the positions of phosphate ions were significantly different. In AmPNP (Figure 5b), the spaces occupied by the phosphate ion and uridine overlapped. This indicates that substrates (uridine and phosphate ions) cannot be present at the active center at the same time, resulting in no catalytic activity of WT for uridine. In the mutant AmPNP Δ S2_{V102 K} (Figure 5c), the deletion of H81 and the introduction of a new catalytic residue K102 changed the position of phosphate ions and the strong hydrogen bond formed by K102 to phosphate ions increased the distance between phosphate ions and uridine. This allows both uridine and phosphate ions to be present in the active center simultaneously to complete the phosphorylation reaction. Similar to the STR enzyme, both tryptamine and secologanin substrates are clearly arranged in close vicinity but do not overlap.

To verify this interpretation, we also present the results of docking AmPNP and $AmPNP\Delta S2_{V102 \text{ K}}$ with other pyrimidine nucleosides, including 2'-deoxyuridine, arabinofuranosyluracil, 5-methyluridine, 5'-fluoro-2'-deoxyuridine, 2'-deoxy-2'-fluridine, and stavudine. The distance between the P atom of the phosphate ion and the C1 position on the nucleoside sugar base (P-C1) was calculated after structural alignment. It was found that in AmPNP, the distances of P-C1 ranged from 3.3 to 4.1 Å, and the shorter distances prevented the simultaneous presence of two substrates in the active center (Figure 5d). However, in the mutant $AmPNP\Delta S2_{V102 \text{ K}}$, these distances of P-C1 were increased to 5.0–7.1 Å, ensuring a sufficient spatial position to allow the simultaneous presence of both substrates

within the active center to complete the phosphorylation reaction (Figure 5e).

DISCUSSION

The present work validates a strategy for creating an engineering NP with substrate promiscuity based on InDels fragments of natural evolution. Initially, our intention was to use the REAP strategy to create an engineered NP with PNP and UP phosphorylation activities. However, to date, all studies have focused on REAP for enzyme engineering using only single or a few AA substitutions.^{24,25} In the case of a low PNP and UP sequence similarity (<20%), the established mutant library capacity through the REAP strategy was too large to be fully experimentally verified. Thus, based on the previously reported analysis of evolution path of the NP-I family,¹ we presumed that a common ancestor of the NP-I family may have accepted purine nucleosides and uridine substrates. Then, major InDels occurred over time, resulting in an increased substrate preference of the NP-I family members. Inspired by REAP, we expected to develop an InDels strategy to create an engineered NP with substrate promiscuity guided by existing evolutionary information. The InDels strategy for the modification of enzyme functions has been recently proposed.¹⁷⁻¹⁹ In contrast, the role of InDels in creating an engineering NP with substrate promiscuity is still unexplored.

In this study, the rare bacterial-derived trimeric *Am*PNP was selected as a backbone because it is closer to ancestral enzymes and easier to be shaped into an engineered NP with substrate promiscuity. From the InDels-designed *Am*PNP mutant library, we screened mutant *Am*PNP Δ S2, which showed phosphorylation activity toward inosine (substrate of PNP) and uridine (substrate of UP). This suggests that the insertion of S2 fragment is an important evolutionary node in the NP-I family. Since then, there has been a PNP enzyme whose substrate preference is to purine nucleoside. This also suggests that some ancestral enzymes diverged in substrate preference during evolution through the InDels of characteristic fragment nodes.¹⁶

Based on the catalytic mechanism of the NP-I family, we reshaped the binding pocket of mutant $AmPNP\Delta S2$. By introducing an alkaline AA into the active pocket to replace the H in $\Delta S2$, we successfully achieved completed stabilization and deprotonation of the phosphate ion and the subsequent nucleophilic attack on the nucleoside. In addition, the mutant $AmPNP\Delta S2_{V102} \ \Delta 141G$ significantly increased the activity of guanosine and 2'-deoxyguanosine. This result indicates that the phosphorylation activity of engineered NP with substrate promiscuity toward nucleosides can be further improved through protein engineering. The S2 fragment (the catalytic residue H81 in the S2 fragment) was deleted in the mutant $AmPNP\Delta S2$, significantly reducing its natural catalytic activity. Subsequently, an engineered NP with substrate promiscuity was obtained by reshaping the active pocket.

The $AmPNP\Delta S2_{V102 \ K}$ was obtained via protein engineering guided by the InDels strategy, although its activity was still not satisfactory. However, it is encouraging that $AmPNP\Delta S2_{V102 \ K}$ exhibited phosphorylation activity not only toward different-base nucleoside substrates but also toward ribose-modified nucleoside substrates. The obtained engineered NP appears to be consistent with the substrate promiscuity of presumed ancestor enzymes.¹ The development of nucleoside drugs is changing rapidly, with various nucleoside compounds being created^{29,30} quickly. Modifying the nucleoside phosphorylase

with strong nucleoside substrate specificity to synthesize new nucleoside analogues seems to require more tedious work because existing NPs have evolved to adapt to specific substrates. Conversely, using $AmPNP\Delta S2_{V102 \ K}$ as a starting template for NP evolution, increasing its activity for specific nucleoside analogs from different evolutionary paths, and achieving high catalytic activity for specific nucleosides represents a greater possibility. This is also the first report of using a single NP with phosphorylation activity in both PNP and UP to convert uridine and its analogues into purine nucleosides analogues. This discovery facilitates the development of substrate promiscuity in NPs to meet the simple operation of nucleoside analogue biosynthesis with different strategies. This InDels strategy, combined with REAP, also has a potential practical application value in the construction of engineered enzymes with substrate promiscuity because the mutant library that needs to be constructed is small.

CONCLUSIONS

In summary, we have developed an InDels strategy for substrate promiscuity of enzyme. The approach suggested here differs from mainstream protein engineering methods (AAs substitution). It proposes the deletion or insertion of characteristic enzyme fragments based on evolutionary information analysis, which is more suitable for altering the substrate preference of an enzyme. We developed a multifunctional NP using the InDels strategy and obtained a mutant with relatively high phosphorylation activities by reshaping its binding pocket. The mutant not only has the potential to serve as an excellent catalyst for the synthesis of purine nucleoside analogue but also expands the existing understanding of the natural evolutionary mechanism of PNP. In brief, the InDels strategy is a method for designing and creating novel functional enzymes.

EXPERIMENTAL METHODS

Plasmids, Strains, and Chemicals

Nucleosides and purine bases and chemicals of analytical grade were purchased from Aladdin (Shanghai, China). The solvents used for high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) were of HPLC grade. The plasmid utilized in this work was pET28a (+)-AmPNP, which contained the PNP gene from the strain *A. migulanus* AM007 (locus: AYW33784). The strain *E. coli* BL21(DE3), employed for protein expression examinations, was obtained from Novagen (USA). The restriction enzymes were purchased from Takara (Japan).

Construction of Phylogenetic Trees, Sequences Alignment, and Mutant Library Design

The AA sequences of the NP-I family from different species were obtained from the National Center for Biotechnology Information database (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/). Phylogenetic trees of the protein sequences were then developed by using Mega 11 software and the neighbor-joining method. Sequence analysis showed that trimeric and hexameric PNPs from bacteria as well as hexameric UPs from bacteria were highly conserved. Thus, we selected four trimeric PNPs sequences from bacteria and four hexameric UPs sequences from bacteria to construct the alignment of multiple sequences, which was performed with ClustalX 2.1.

The sequence alignment results revealed the region where UP and PNP differed in the number of AAs. Then, the AA sequence of *Am*PNP was used as the initial template to construct a small mutant library. This library included four mutants with the deletion of long AA fragments and one mutant with the insertion of a longer AA fragment, as well as five mutants with the insertion and deletion of short AAs fragments.

Construction of Plasmids and Mutagenesis

The plasmid pET28a-AmPNP (*NheI-BamHI* restriction sites) was utilized as the template for mutagenesis. Site-directed mutagenesis was performed by whole-plasmid amplification (for short AA fragments) or overlap extension PCR (for long AA fragments). The primers used in this study were designed as described in the Supporting Information (Table S3). The mutations were confirmed by nucleotide sequencing, and the recombinant plasmid was transformed into *E. coli* BL21 (DE3) competent cells. Every engineered *AmPNP* variant was fused to a 6*histidine tag at the N-terminus to facilitate easy purification via affinity chromatography.

Purification of AmPNP and Its Mutants

The solution with the recombinant protein with an N-terminal 6*Histag of AmPNP and its mutants was obtained by previously described methods 2. It was then purified with a HisTrap FF column (GE Healthcare, Fairfield, USA) according to the manufacturer's manual. Then, the mutants were further purified to avoid background contamination by using gel-filtration chromatography on a Superdex 200 Increase 10/300 GL column (GE Healthcare, Buckinghamshire, UK). An ÄKTA pure system and a column Superdex 200 Increase 10/ 300 GL were used. The standard proteins and the purified mutant samples were dissolved in the buffer (0.01 M phosphate buffer, 0.14 M NaCl, pH 8.0) with a final concentration of 2 mg/mL. For analysis, a flow rate of 0.5 mL/min and an injection volume of 0.5 mL were set. The apparent molecular weight of the purified enzymes was estimated on 12% SDS-PAGE gel. The concentration of the purified proteins was measured using the bicinchoninic acid (BCA) Protein Assay Kit (Zhongke rRuitai, Biological Technology Co., Ltd., Beijing, China).

Determination of Enzymatic Activity and Substrate Specificity

The phosphorolysis activity of the WT *Am*PNP and its variants was determined as previously described.²⁶ The nucleoside substrates tested contained purine nucleosides (inosine, guanosine, 2'-deoxyguanosine, arabinosylguanine, adenosine, 2'-deoxyadenosine, vidarabine, fludarabine, and dichloropurine nucleoside) and pyrimidine nucleosides (uridine, 2'-deoxyuridine, arabinofuranosyluracil, cytidine, 2'-deoxycytidine, 5-methyluridine, 5'-fluoro-2'-deoxyuridine, 2'-deoxy-2'-fluridine, and stavudine). One enzymatic unit of activity was defined as the amount of enzyme required to convert 1.0 μ mol of nucleoside per minute at 50 °C and at pH 8.0 in 10 mM Na₂HPO₄/ KH₂PO₄ buffer.

Homology Modeling and Substrate Docking Simulation

3D homology modeling of the *Am*PNP and its mutants was conducted using the RoseTTAFold (https://robetta.bakerlab.org/) with 4m1e (PDB accession code of PNP from *P. limnophilus* DSM 3776) as a template, which has 48.33% protein sequence identities with *Am*PNP, and illustrated as cartoon diagrams using PyMOL 2.5. The putative catalytic key AA of *Am*PNP was selected from the superimposed structure with 4m1e and the substrate binding site was selected from the model structure. In addition, the coordinates of the phosphate substrate were manually generated and energetically optimized using the MM2 force field with Chem3D Ultra 8.0. AutoDock (version 4.2)³¹ was applied to the docking of phosphate into the binary homology model of *Am*PNP by assigning H81 or K102 as a grid center. Among the 256 docking poses generated from docking simulations, the one with the minimum docking energy value was selected.

All MD simulations were performed with the GROMACS software package (version 5.1.0) using the GROMOS96 force field at 300 K and 1 atm in a water solvent system for 50 ns. Additional details have been described previously.³² The GROMACS tool was used to analyze the trajectories. The RMSD values were computed using g_rms. The RMSD of all simulations is displayed in the Supporting Information Figure S9. The PyMOL package was used to generate and view the molecular graphics.

Characterization of AmPNP and Its Mutants

The effects of pH and temperature on the activity of $AmPNP\Delta S2$ and $AmPNP\Delta S2_{V102\ K}$ were determined using inosine as the substrate under the conditions described above. The pH of reactions varied from pH 6.0 to 9.0, and the reaction temperatures ranged from 30 to 75 °C. The pH stability was evaluated under the same conditions; the enzyme was incubated for 3 h in different buffers. The thermostability of $AmPNP\Delta S2$ and $AmPNP\Delta S2_{V102\ K}$ was determined by measuring the residual activity at temperatures ranging from 30 to 65 °C after the enzyme had been incubated for 3 h.

Biosynthesis of Purine Nucleoside Analogues Via $AmPNP\Delta S2_{V102\ K}$

Transglycosylation reactions were performed with AmPNP $\Delta S2_{V102 \text{ K}}$ in 20 mM Na₂HPO₄/KH₂PO₄ buffer (pH 7.0) and 50 °C using uridine, 2-deoxyuridine, and arabinofuranosyluracil as ribose donors and purine bases (2,6-diaminopurine, 6-thioguanine and 2-amino-6chloropurine) as ribose receptors. The reaction mixture was obtained and then analyzed by HPLC to quantitatively determine the reaction products.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/jacsau.3c00581.

Evolutionary pathway, structure and sequence alignment, SDS-PAGE, catalytic process, biochemical characterization, and RMSD. Sequences information, phosphorylation activity, and primers (PDF)

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G.L. and J.W. contributed equally to this work. J.C. and B.H. designed the project; G.L. and J.W. performed molecular cloning/enzyme assays and conducted bioinformatics analysis;

S.Q. and Z.G. supervised the work; G.L., J.W., and T.J. wrote the manuscript with input from all authors.

Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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