

Biosynthesis of the (2*S*,3*R*)-3-Methyl Glutamate Residue of Nonribosomal Lipopeptides

Claire Milne,[†] Amanda Powell,[†] John Jim,[‡] Majid Al Nakeeb,[†] Colin P. Smith,^{‡,||} and Jason Micklefield^{*,†,§}

Contribution from the School of Chemistry and Department of Biomolecular Sciences, The University of Manchester, P.O. Box 88, Manchester M60 1QD, United Kingdom

Received April 28, 2006; E-mail: jason.micklefield@manchester.ac.uk

Abstract: The calcium-dependent antibiotics (CDAs) and daptomycin are therapeutically relevant nonribosomal lipopeptide antibiotics that contain penultimate C-terminal 3-methyl glutamate (3-MeGlu) residues. Comparison with synthetic standards showed that $(2S_3R)$ -configured 3-MeGlu is present in both CDA and daptomycin. Deletion of a putative methyltransferase gene *glmT* from the *cda* biosynthetic gene cluster abolished the incorporation of 3-MeGlu and resulted in the production of Glu-containing CDA exclusively. However, the 3-MeGlu chemotype could be re-established through feeding synthetic 3-methyl-2-oxoglutarate and $(2S_3R)$ -3-MeGlu, but not $(2S_3S)$ -3-MeGlu. This indicates that methylation occurs before peptide assembly, and that the module 10 A-domain of the CDA peptide synthetase is specific for the $(2S_3R)$ stereoisomer. Further mechanistic analyses suggest that GlmT catalyzes the SAM-dependent methylation of α -ketoglutarate to give (3R)-methyl-2-oxoglutarate, which is transaminated to $(2S_3R)$ -3-MeGlu. These insights will facilitate future efforts to engineer lipopeptides with modified glutamate residues, which may have improved bioactivity and/or reduced toxicity.

Introduction

Nonribosomal peptides are complex and diverse secondary metabolites that display a wide range of biological activities and include a number of important therapeutic agents.¹ Their structural complexity stems from the wide range of building blocks, which are utilized in their construction. In addition to proteinogenic amino acids, nonribosomal peptides can contain many unusual amino acids, fatty acids, polyketide moieties and are often glycosylated. By understanding the biosynthetic origins of these building blocks and their mode of assembly, it is envisaged that new methods might be developed for engineering the biosynthesis of new nonribosomal peptides with improved biological activities.²

With this in mind, we have been investigating the biosynthesis of the calcium-dependent antibiotics (CDAs) produced by *Streptomyces coelicolor*.³ CDAs (Figure 1) belong to the

nonribosomal lipopeptide group of antibiotics, including daptomycin, which recently became the first new structural class of naturally derived antimicrobial agents to reach the clinic in over 30 years.⁴ CDAs and daptomycin, along with the related A54145 lipopeptides,⁵ all possess N-terminal fatty acid side chains and share several common amino acids, including acidic residues Asp, Glu, and 3-methylglutamic acid (3-MeGlu), some of which are conserved at the same relative positions in the decapeptide lactone cores. These acidic residues are important for coordinating calcium ions, which are essential for antimicrobial activity. CDAs and A54145 are each produced as mixtures of lipopeptides, possessing either Glu or 3-MeGlu as the penultimate C-terminal residue, which are often difficult to separate. In A54145^{5b} and daptomycin,⁶ the 3-MeGlu-containing variants are more potent antibiotics than the Glu variants. However, 3-MeGlu-containing peptides have more toxic side effects than the Glu-containing variants.^{5b} Therefore, it is highly desirable to develop methods for engineering the biosynthesis of these antibiotics that control the specificity of incorporation for Glu,

[†] School of Chemistry.

[‡] Department of Biomolecular Sciences.

[§] Present address: Manchester Interdisciplinary Biocentre, The University of Manchester, 131 Princess Street, Manchester M1 7ND, UK.

^{II} Present address: School of Biomedical and Molecular Sciences, University of Surrey, Guildford, Surrey, GU2 7XH, UK.

 ⁽a) Sieber, S. A.; Marahiel, M. A. *Chem. Rev.* **2005**, *105*, 715–738. (b) Schwazer, D.; Finking, R.; Marahiel, M. A. *Nat. Prod. Rep.* **2003**, *20*, 275– 287. (c) Mootz, H. D.; Schwarzer, D.; Marahiel, M. A. *ChemBioChem.* **2002**, *3*, 490–504.

 ^{(2) (}a) Walsh, C. T. Science 2004, 303, 1805–1810. (b) Stevens, B. W.; Joska, T. M.; Anderson, A. C. Drug Dev. Res. 2006, 66, 9–18. (c) Walsh, C. T. ChemBioChem. 2002, 3, 124–134. (d) Doekel, S.; Marahiel, M. A. Metab. Eng. 2001, 3, 64–77.

^{(3) (}a) Hojati, Z.; Milne, C.; Harvey, B.; Gordon, L.; Borg, M.; Flett, F.; Wilkinson, B.; Sidebottom, P. J.; Rudd, B. A. M.; Hayes, M. A.; Smith, C. P.; Micklefield, J. *Chem. Biol.* **2002**, *9*, 1175–1187. (b) Uguru, G. C.; Milne, C.; Borg, M.; Flett, F.; Smith, C. P.; Micklefield, J. J. Am. Chem. Soc. **2004**, *126*, 5032–5033.

^{(4) (}a) Baltz, R. H.; Miao, V.; Wrigley, S. K. Nat. Prod. Rep. 2005, 22, 717–741. (b) Raja, A.; LaBonte, J.; Lebbos, J.; Kirkpatrick, P. Nat. Rev. Drug Discovery 2003, 2, 943–944. (c) Steenbergen, J. N.; Alder, J.; Thorne, G. M.; Tally, F. P. J. Antimicrob. Chemother. 2005, 55, 283–288. (d) Miao, V.; Coëffet-LeGal, M.-F.; Brian, P.; Brost, R.; Penn, J.; Whiting, A.; Martin, S.; Ford, R.; Parr, I.; Bouchard, M.; Silva, C. J.; Wrigley, S. K.; Baltz, R. H. Microbiology 2005, 1511, 507–1523.
(5) (a) Fukuda, D. S.; Du Bus, R. H.; Baker, P. J.; Berry, D. M.; Mynderse, J.

^{(5) (}a) Fukuda, D. S.; Du Bus, R. H.; Baker, P. J.; Berry, D. M.; Mynderse, J. S. J. Antibiot. **1990**, 43, 594–600. (b) Counter, F. T.; Allen, N. E.; Fukuda, D. S.; Hobbs, J. N.; Ott, J.; Ensminger, P. W.; Mynderse, J. S.; Preston, D. A.; Wu, C. Y. J. Antibiot. **1990**, 43, 616–622. (c) Miao, V.; Brost, R.; Chapple, J.; She, K.; Coeffet-Le Gal, M.-F.; Baltz, R. H. J. Ind. Microbiol. Biotechnol. **2006**, 33, 66–74.

<sup>Biotechnol. 2006, 33, 66–74.
(6) Grünewald, J.; Sieber, S. A.; Mahlert, C.; Linne, U.; Marahiel, M. A. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 2004, 126, 17025–17031.</sup>

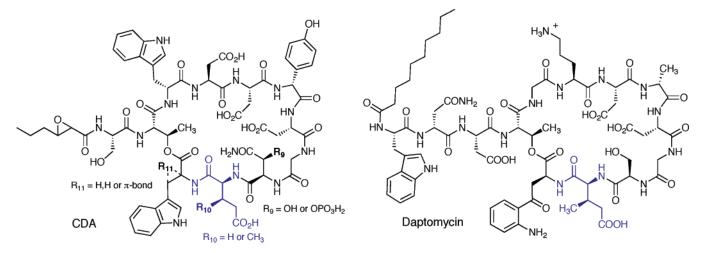


Figure 1. The calcium-dependent antibiotics (CDAs) and daptomycin. The CDA structural variants that are known to be produced by the wild-type S. *coelicolor*^{3a} are as follows: CDA1, $R_9 = OPO_3H_2$, $R_{10} = H$; CDA2, $R_9 = OPO_3H_2$, $R_{10} = CH_3$; CDA3, $R_9 = OH$, $R_{10} = H$; CDA4, $R_9 = OH$, $R_{10} = CH_3$. In addition the a-series contains Z- Δ trp (R₁₁ = π -bond) and the b-series contains L-Trp (R₁₁ = H,H) at position 11.

3-MeGlu, or Glu analogues (including stereoisomers); consequently, new therapeutically relevant lipopeptides with increased activity and reduced toxicity could be biosynthesized. To achieve this, it is first necessary to elucidate the biogenesis of 3-MeGlu, within CDAs, and further explore how the adenylation domain (A-domain) of the nonribosomal peptide synthetase (NRPS) governs the specificity for Glu and 3-MeGlu.

Previously, we identified gene SCO3215 within the cda biosynthetic gene cluster, which was tentatively suggested to encode a glutamate-3-methyltransferase (GlmT)^{3a} based on the low, but significant, sequence similarity between the SCO3215 gene product and other methyltransferases. Additionally, the amino acid specificity-conferring code⁷ for the active site of the CdaPS3 module 10 A-domain is unlike other Glu-activating domains, suggesting that this A-domain may have evolved specificity for 3-MeGlu as well as Glu.3a This alternative A-domain specificity suggests that methylation of Glu occurs before peptide assembly. GlmT was thus predicted to catalyze the direct methylation of Glu to give 3-MeGlu.^{3a} In a model metabolic flux analysis of CDA production,8 we also considered the possibility that GlmT may alternatively methylate α -ketoglutarate, leading to 3-methyl-2-oxoglutarate, which is then transaminated to 3-MeGlu.

Upon completion of the work described here, the sequence of the gene clusters of daptomycin from Streptomyces roseosporus^{4d} and A54145 from Streptomyces fradiae^{5c} were published, and genes dptI and lptI, which showed similarity to glmT, were identified. Additionally, the amino acid substrate binding pockets of the A-domains responsible for activating 3-MeGlu or Glu in the corresponding penultimate modules of the daptomycin and A54145 NRPS (DptD and LptD) were shown to be very similar in sequence to the module 10 A-domain of CdaPS3. This suggests a common mode of 3-MeGlu biosynthesis and NRPS A-domain activation during the assembly of the three groups of lipopeptides. In this paper, we sought to probe the biosynthetic origins of 3-MeGlu in S. coelicolor and

further explore the in vivo specificity of the corresponding A-domain of module 10 responsible for incorporation of Glu/ 3-MeGlu into CDAs.

Results and Discussion

Synthesis of (2S,3R)- and (2S,3S)-Methyl Glutamic Acid. Previous work demonstrated that the 3-MeGlu in CDA was the L-isomer,⁹ which is consistent with the absence of an epimerization (E) domain within the CdaPS3 module 10.3a Furthermore, the stereochemistry of the 3-MeGlu residue of daptomycin was inferred to be the L-threo- or (2S, 3R)-stereoisomer through the stereospecificity of two enzymes, glutamine synthase and glutamate decarboxylase.¹⁰ The high protein sequence similarity of the putative methyltransferases (GlmT, DptI, and LptI) and the corresponding active sites of the A-domains for Glu/3-MeGlu from the *cda*, *dpt*, and *lpt* gene clusters, respectively, is strongly suggestive that the 3-MeGlu residues in CDA and the other lipopeptides will possess identical absolute configuration. However, it is well established that enzyme stereospecificity can be completely inverted by as few as two point mutations,¹¹ or in some cases simply by changing the medium surrounding the enzyme.¹² Therefore, an unambiguous stereocontrolled synthesis of (2S,3R)- and (2S,3S)-3-MeGlu diastereoisomers was developed for comparison with the natural 3-MeGlu derived by hydrolytic degradation of CDAs and daptomycin. These synthetic compounds are also potentially valuable for subsequent experiments aimed at dissecting 3-MeGlu biosynthesis and the in vivo specificity of the Glu/3-MeGlu-activating A-domain of CdaPS3. The synthetic route shown in Scheme 1 was designed so that all four possible 3-MeGlu stereoisomers might be prepared with complete stereocontrol, without recourse to separation of diastereoisomers.

⁽a) Stachelhaus, T.; Mootz, H. D.; Marahiel, M. A. Chem. Biol. 1999, 6, 493-505. (b) Challis, G. L.; Ravel, J.; Townsend, C. A. Chem. Biol. 2000, 7 211-224

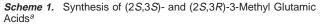
⁽⁸⁾ Kim, H. B.; Smith, C. P.; Micklefield, J.; Mavituna, F. Metab. Eng. 2004, 6. 313-325.

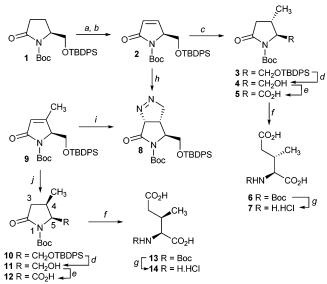
Kempter, C.; Kaiser, D.; Haag, S.; Nicholson, G.; Gnau, V.; Walk, T.; Gierling, G. H.; Decker, H.; Zahner, H.; Jung, G.; Metzger, J. W. Angew. Chem., Int. Ed. Engl. 1997, 36, 498–501.
(a) Debono, M.; Barnhart, M.; Carrell, C. B.; Hoffman, J. A.; Occolowitz,

J. L.; Abbott, B. J.; Fukuda, D. S.; Hamill, R. L. J. Antibiot. 1987, 40, 761-777. (b) Kagan, H. M.; Meister, A. Biochemistry 1966, 5, 725-732.

⁽¹¹⁾ Ijima, Y.; Matoishi, K.; Terao, Y.; Doi, N.; Yanagawa, H.; Ohta, H.; Chem.

Commun. 2005, 877–879. (12) Hirose, Y.; Kariya, K.; Sasaki, I.; Kurono, Y.; Ebiikea, H.; Achiwa, K. Tetrahedron Lett. 1992, 33, 7157–7160.





^a Conditions: (a) LDA, PhSeBr; (b) H₂O₂, CH₃CO₂H; (c) CH₃Li, Cu(I)I; (d) TBAF, 20% CH₃CO₂H; (e) NaIO₄, RuCl₃; (f) LiOH; (g) 4 M HCl in 1,4-dioxane; (h) CH₂N₂; (i) heat at 120 °C; (j) H₂, Pt(IV)O₂.

Asymmetric syntheses of 3-MeGlu diastereoisomers have been reported.13 The first approach utilized an Arndt-Eistert homologation of (2S,3S)-3-methyl aspartate to generate the (2S,3R)-3-MeGlu.^{13a} However, this synthesis is not easily modified to prepare other stereoisomers or β -substituted analogues. The second synthetic strategy utilized a Ni(II) homochiral Shiff base of glycine in a diastereoselective conjugate addition of ethyl crotonate, but this approach only produced the (2S,3S)-3-MeGlu, and in low yield.^{13b} During the course of our investigation, a third approach was reported that also incorporated a homochiral glycinyl Schiff base in a conjugate addition with ethyl crotonate to produce both (2S,3R)- and (2S,3S)-3-MeGlu stereoisomers; unfortunately, the lack of complete stereocontrol required the tedious separation of diastereoisomers.^{13c} It was thus apparent that the development of a new convergent synthesis to all possible stereoisomers of 3-MeGlu was necessary. Ideally, this synthesis should be easily modifiable allowing for the preparation of a variety of β -substituted Glu analogues.

Our synthetic approach begins with the known lactam 1^{14} which is derived from L-pyroglutamic acid. Accordingly, α -phenylselenation of the lactam 1, followed by oxidative elimination, via the selenoxide, results in the α , β -unsaturated lactam 2, which is treated with lithium dimethyl cuprate to give exclusively the *trans-\beta*-methyl lactam 3.¹⁴ The absolute configuration of 3 was previously confirmed by X-ray crystallography.^{14c} Removal of the silvl protecting group and oxidation of the alcohol 4 gave the acid 5. Hydrolysis of the lactam 5 with aqueous LiOH followed by acidification and extraction into diethyl ether gave the Boc-protected free acid 6, which

was treated with 4 M HCl in dioxane to remove the Boc group and reveal the product (2S,3S)-methyl glutamic acid as the HCl salt 7. The optical rotation of the product was identical to that reported previously for the same stereoisomer prepared by alternative routes.13a,c

To prepare the opposite (2S,3R)-methyl glutamic acid, the intermediate α,β -unsaturated lactam 2 was subjected to a 1,3dipolar cycloaddition with diazomethane¹⁵ to generate the pyrazoline 8, as a single diastereoisomer. Thermolysis of the pyrazoline ring¹⁵ under solvent-free conditions gave the β methyl- α , β -unsaturated lactam 9. Hydrogenation of 9, at atmospheric pressure, using PtO₂ as a catalyst gave the $cis-\beta$ methyl lactam 10. The absolute configuration of 10 was confirmed from NOESY NMR, which showed an NOE between H5 and H4, but no NOE cross-peak was evident between H5 and the β -methyl protons, which is consistent with the *cis*stereochemistry as shown. In the case of the corresponding *trans*- β -methyl lactam **3**, of known absolute configuration, the opposite pattern of NOEs is evident with H5, showing an NOE to the β -methyl protons but not to H4. Furthermore, in the COSY spectra of *trans-\beta*-methyl lactam **3**, there is no crosspeak between H5 and H4, which is consistent with a dihedral angle (ϕ) close to 90° as indicated from the crystal structure.^{14c} On the other hand, the COSY spectra of $cis-\beta$ -methyl lactam 10 show a clear cross-peak between H4 and H5, due to a smaller dihedral angle between H4 and H5 of ca. 33°, which is predicted from energy minimized models of 10 generated using bond angles and lengths extracted from the crystal structure of the diastereoisomer 3.14c Desilylation of 10 and oxidation of the alcohol 11 gave the acid 12, which was hydrolyzed and subjected to acidolysis, as described above, to give (2S,3R)methyl glutamic acid 14 as the HCl salt, which was identical by optical rotation to the same product produced by independent routes.^{13a,c} The advantage of this synthetic route over the others reported¹³ is that all four stereoisomers of 3-MeGlu can be produced from the common precursor 2 or its available enantiomer without the need to separate diastereoisomers. Also by adding different alkyl cuprate reagents to 2 it is possible to generate alternative *trans*- β -alkylated lactams (analogous to 3). Similarly, synthetic methodology exists which would enable the transformation of 2 into the opposite $cis-\beta$ -alkylated lactams (analogous to 10).16

Assignment of the Absolute Stereochemistry of 3-MeGlu in CDA and Daptomycin. With the synthetic (2S,3S)- and (2S,3R)-3-methyl glutamic acids in hand, it was possible to establish the configuration of the natural 3-MeGlu derived from CDA. Accordingly, a pure sample of CDA4a, which is known to contain 3-MeGlu,^{3a,9} was hydrolyzed with aqueous 6 M HCl, and the hydrolysate was derivatized with dabsyl chloride,¹⁷ which facilitates improved retention and separation of the amino acid derivatives on reverse phase HPLC. This allowed identification of all the dabsylated amino acids from CDA, except (Z)-dehydrotryptophan, which presumably undergoes further hydrolysis to indolepyruvate. Conditions for the separation of the synthetic dabsylated (2S,3S)- and (2S,3R)-3-methyl glutamate diastereoisomers on reverse phase were then established. This showed that the (2S,3S)-dabsyl derivative has a retention time

 ^{(13) (}a) Hartzoulakis, B.; Gani, D. J. Chem. Soc., Perkin Trans. 1 1994, 2525–2531.
 (b) Soloshonok, V. A.; Cai, C.; Hruby, V. J.; Meervelt, L. V.; Mischenko, N. Tetrahedron 1999, 55, 12031–12044.
 (c) Wehbe, J.; Rolland, V.; Roumestant, M. L.; Martinez, J. Tetrahedron: Asymmetry 2003, 14, 1123-1126.

^{(14) (}a) Woo, K.-C.; Jones, K. Tetrahedron Lett. 1991, 32, 6949-6952. (b) Herdeis, C.; Hubmann, H. P. Tetrahedron: Asymmetry 1992, 3, 1213-1221. (c) Herdeis, C.; Hubmann, H. P.; Lotter, H. *Tetrahedron: Asymmetry* **1994**, *5*, 351–354.

^{(15) (}a) Hanessian, S.; Murray, P. J. J. Org. Chem. 1987, 52, 1170–1172. (b) Tomioka, K.; Sato, F.; Koga, K. Heterocycles 1982, 17, 311–316.
(16) Matsuo, J.-I.; Aizawa, Y. Chem Commun. 2005, 2399–2401.
(17) Kim, T.-Y.; Kim, H.-J. J. Chromatogr. A 2001, 933, 99–106.

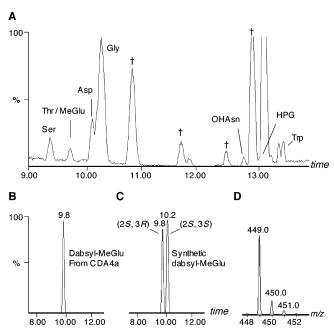


Figure 2. Assignment of the absolute stereochemistry of 3-MeGlu in CDA. (A) LC-MS of the dabsylated amino acid derivatives derived from acidic hydrolysis of CDA4a. (B) Expansion of the mass extracted chromatogram identifies the 3-MeGlu derivative with a retention time of 9.8 min. (C) Extracted mass chromatogram of the synthetic derivatized standards (2*S*,3*S*)-and (2*S*,3*R*)-MeGlu. Spiked mixtures show that the natural 3-MeGlu at the (2*S*,3*R*)-diastereoisomer with retention time of 9.8 min as opposed to the (2*S*,3*S*)-diastereoisomer, which has a longer retention time of 10.2 min. (D) MS of the peak 9.8 min, *m*/*z* 449.0, corresponds to $[M + H]^+$ ion of dabsylated 3-MeGlu. Cross sign is the unassigned degradation side products/impurities.

at 10.2 min, with the (2S,3R)-diastereoisomer at 9.8 min (Figure 2). Comparing the LC-MS chromatographs of the derivatized hydrolysate with that of synthetic standards established that the 3-MeGlu residue in CDA4a has (2S,3R)-absolute configuration. Similar hydrolysis, derivatization, and LC-MS analysis of daptomycin demonstrated that the same (2S,3R)-3-MeGlu is also present within daptomycin. This agrees with the earlier assignment that was inferred from the stereospecificity of glutamine synthase and glutamate decarboxylase^{10a} and further suggests a common mode of biosynthesis for 3-MeGlu in the *S. coelicolor* and *S. roseosporus* producer strains.

Deletion of the *glmT* Gene and Recomplementation with Synthetic (2*S*,3*R*)-3-MeGlu. To probe the biosynthetic origins of (2*S*,3*R*)-3-MeGlu in CDAs, a mutant strain of *S. coelicolor* ($\Delta glmT$) was generated, which contained an in-frame deletion within the *glmT* gene. Accordingly, a DNA fragment of ca. 2.0 kb incorporating 396 bp of the downstream end of *glmT* and the adjacent SCO3214 (*trpE2*) gene and a fragment of ca. 1.5 kb including 4 bp of the upstream end of *glmT* and the flanking SCO3216 gene were generated by PCR. These fragments were first ligated into plasmid pMT3000 cloned and then re-isolated from *E. coli*. The resulting 3.5 kb in-frame deletion fragment (missing 615 bp of *glmT*) was digested from pMT3000 and subcloned into the plasmid pMAH¹⁸ (see Supporting Information for more details). Transformation of *S. coelicolor* MT1110¹⁹ protoplasts with the resulting plasmid, followed by homologous

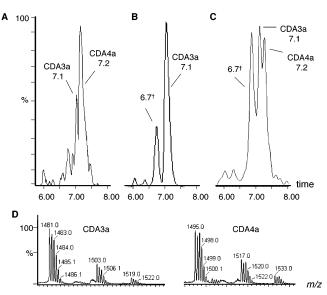


Figure 3. LC-MS analysis of the $\Delta glmT$ and recomplementation with synthetic precursors. (A) Chromatogram of extracts from the wild-type strain MT1110. MS of the peak at 7.1 and 7.2 min gave m/z 1480.8 and 1494.8 corresponding to CDA3a and CDA4a [M + H]⁺ ions, respectively. The corresponding sodiated and potassiated molecular ions are present and consistent with this. (B) LC-MS of the $\Delta glmT$ mutant showed only (cross sign) CDA3a (7.1 min, m/z 1481.2 [M + H]⁺). (C) Chromatogram obtained after the exogenous supply of 300 μ g/mL (2S,3R)-3-MeGlu to the Δ glmT mutant. Shows peaks at both 7.1 and 7.2 min consistent with production of CDA3a and CDA4a. (D) The mass spectra for the peaks (at 7.1 and 7.2 min) obtained from feeding (2S,3R)-3-MeGlu to $\Delta glmT$ (chromatogram C) show expected molecular ions for CDA3a (1481.0 $[M + H]^+$, 1503.0 [M $+ Na^{+}$, 1519.0 [M + K]⁺) and CDA4a (1495.0 [M + H]⁺, 1517.0 [M + Na]⁺, 1533.0 [M + K]⁺). (Cross sign) The peak at 6.7 min in $\Delta glmT$ (B) and (C), but also evident to a much lower extent in the wild-type, has m/z1499.5, which corresponds to the $[M + H]^+$ for a postulated linear form of CDA3a, which is proposed to arise from hydrolysis of the lactone ring or failure of the thioesterase domain to effect complete cyclization. Similar byproducts have been identified during production of daptomycin and other lipopeptides.4a

recombination and subsequent screening of second crossover recombination events,^{3a} resulted in the mutant strain $\Delta glmT$. The wild-type MT1110 strain was chosen as a host for these experiments because this strain tends to produce nonphosphorylated CDAs,^{3a} which aids LC-MS analysis. In addition, the MT1110 strain is more easily cultivated than the more widely used *S. coelicolor* 2377.

The MT1110 wild-type and $\Delta glmT$ mutant strains were grown in liquid culture under conditions that favored production of (Z)-dehydrotryptophan-containing CDA. The cells were harvested by centrifugation, and the supernatants were analyzed by LC-MS.^{3a} This showed that the wild-type MT1110 produces, as the major product, CDA4a that contains 3-MeGlu along with a minor amount of the Glu variant CDA3a (Figure 3). In contrast, the mutant $\Delta glmT$ produces only the Glu-containing CDA3a, with no MeGlu-containing CDAs evident. Indeed, repeated fermentation and analysis of $\Delta glmT$ under a variety of conditions clearly reveals the complete absence of any 3-MeGlu-containing CDAs. While this supports the hypothesis that the gene product GlmT is a methyltransferase involved in the biosynthesis of 3-MeGlu residues in CDA, these results do not reveal any information about the timing of the methylation per se. To determine the order of the steps on the pathway, the synthetic (2S,3R)-3-MeGlu natural stereoisomer was fed in increasing concentrations to the $\Delta glmT$ mutant during fermenta-

⁽¹⁸⁾ Bucca, G.; Brassington, A. M. E.; Hotchkiss, G.; Mersinias, V.; Smith, C. P. *Mol. Microbiol.* 2003, *50*, 153–166.
(19) Hindle, Z.; Smith, C. P. *Mol. Microbiol.* 1994, *12*, 737–745.

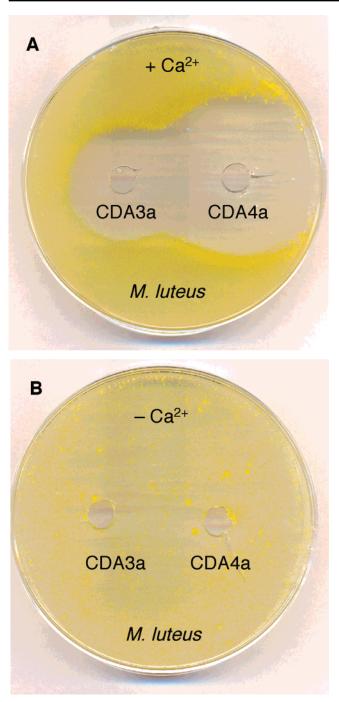
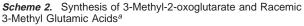
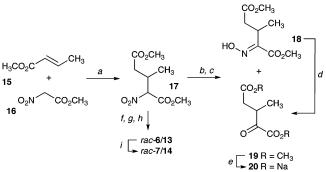


Figure 4. Comparison of the antimicrobial activities of Glu-containing CDA3a and 3-MeGlu-containing CDA4a. Bioassays were carried out as described previously²⁸ using *M. luteus* as the indicator strain. Equimolar solutions of CDA3a and CDA4a in deionized water (6.0 μ g in 100 μ L⁻¹) were added to the 5 mm left- and right-hand wells, respectively. (A) In the presence of Ca²⁺ (16 mM), zones of inhibitions for CDA3a and CDA4a are ca. 1.5 and 2.5 cm, respectively. (B) In the absence of Ca²⁺, no zones were evident.

tion. LC-MS analysis clearly shows that upon the addition of as little as 50 μ g mL⁻¹ of (2*S*,3*R*)-3-MeGlu the mutant Δ *glmT* reverts to wild-type phenotype and produces both MeGlucontaining CDA4a as well as Glu-containing CDA3a (Figure 3). In contrast, the feeding of (2*S*,3*S*)-3-MeGlu to the Δ *glmT* strain, at relatively high total concentration of 300 μ g mL⁻¹, had no effect on the production of CDAs; no MeGlu-containing lipopeptides were evident by LC-MS. This indicates that, in





 a Conditions: (a) DBU; (b) CH₃ONa in CH₃OH; (c) TiCl₃–CH₃CO₂NH₄ and aq. HCl;²⁰ (d) HCl–CH₃OH then HCOH–H₂O; (e) aq. NaOH; (f) Raney Ni; (g) (Boc)₂O, 4-DMAP, Et₃N; (h) LiOH; (i) 4 M HCl in 1,4-dioxane.

addition to Glu, the enzyme CdaPS3 is able to activate and incorporate the natural (2S,3R)-3-MeGlu, but not the (2S,3S)diastereoisomer, which demonstrates that methylation of Glu, or its precursor, occurs before peptide assembly. The ability of the A-domain of CdaPS3 module 10, and to lesser extent the adjacent condensation (C)-domains, to discriminate between the diastereoisomers is unlikely to be fortuitous. Indeed, this selectivity is probably a consequence of the A-domain having evolved specificity for (2S,3R)-3-MeGlu from an ancestral Gluactivating A-domain.

By using this knockout strategy and recomplementation with synthetic (2*S*,3*R*)-3-MeGlu, it is now possible to control the functionality of the penultimate residue in CDAs. To demonstrate the importance of this biosynthetic control, we isolated pure samples of CDA3a and CDA4a and subjected them to well-plate bioassay using *Micrococcus luteus* as the indicator strain (Figure 4). The resulting zones of inhibition indicate that, like daptomycin and A54145, the 3-MeGlu-containing CDA4a sample is more active than the Glu variant.

Recomplementation of $\triangle glmT$ with Racemic 3-MeGlu Diastereoisomers and 3-Methyl-2-oxoglutarate. While the results described above show that the GlmT is involved in the biosynthesis of the 3-MeGlu residue in various CDAs, and that the methyl group is introduced before peptide assembly, the nature of the substrate for GlmT is not necessarily apparent. Either L-Glu is methylated directly to (2S,3R)-3-MeGlu or, alternatively, the precursor α -ketoglutarate is first methylated to (3R)-methyl-2-oxoglutarate and then transaminated to (2S,3R)-3-MeGlu. To explore which of these scenarios is most likely, we synthesized 3-methyl-2-oxoglutarate (Scheme 2). This involved the Michael addition of methyl crotonate 15 with the methyl nitroacetate 16 enolate anion to give 17. A Neff reaction²⁰ catalyzed with TiCl₃ in an aqueous solution of HCl gave a mixture of the oxime 18 and the ketone 19. Further selective acidic hydrolysis of the oxime gave more ketone 19, which was subjected to saponification, resulting in the 3-methyl-2-oxoglutarate 20 as the disodium salt. Also, using the nitro intermediate 17, all four possible stereoisomers of 3-MeGlu were prepared as a mixture by hydrogenation of the nitro group to the corresponding amine. Boc protection and basic hydrolysis then gave a racemic mixture of 6/13, which was treated with 4

(20) McMurry, J. E.; Melton, J. J. Org. Chem. 1973, 38, 4367-4373.

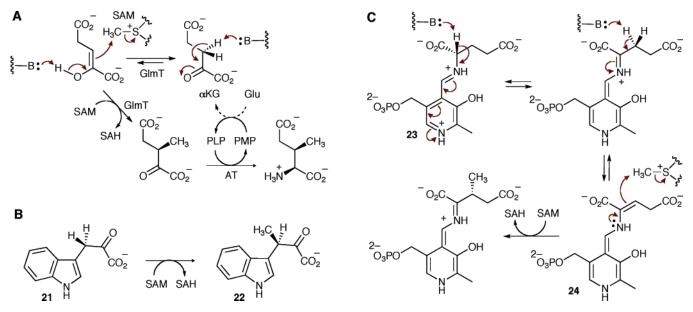


Figure 5. (A) Possible mode of biosynthesis of (2S,3R)-3-methyl glutamic acid in *S. coelicolor*. (B) (*S*)-adenosylmethionine-dependent methylation of indolepyruvate during indolmycin biosynthesis.^{22b} (C) Formation of a Schiff base between Glu and PLP could also facilitate β -methylation of Glu in CDA biosynthesis. Abbreviations: GlmT, glutamate- or 2-oxoglutarate-3-methyltransferase; AT = putative aminotransferase enzyme or associated activity; SAM, (*S*)-adenosylmethionine; SAH, (*S*)-adenosylhomocysteine.

M HCl in dioxane to give a racemic mixture of 3-MeGlu diastereoisomers (*rac*-7/14).

The racemic mixture of 3-MeGlu diastereoisomers (rac-7/14) was then fed to the $\Delta glmT$ mutant strain. As expected, this reestablished the production of CDA4a containing 3-MeGlu. However, in addition to the identification of CDA3a containing Glu, a third product with identical molecular weight to CDA4a $(m/z \ 1495 \ [M + H]^+)$, but with a slightly different retention time, was repeatedly observed by LC-MS. This third product was not present in either feeding experiments with (2S,3R)- or (2S,3S)-3-MeGlu, which suggests that one of the (2R)-MeGlu diastereoisomers in the racemic mixture is also incorporated into the CDA pool, likely to include a CDA4a diastereoisomer (epi-CDA4a). While the scale of the feeding experiments and difficulty of HPLC separation prevented the isolation and more detailed characterization of the purported new product epi-CDA4a, this finding suggests that future mutasynthesis of CDA analogues may be viable with D- as well as L-glutamate analogues.

Following this, 3-methyl-2-oxoglutarate 20 was fed to the $\Delta glmT$ mutant strain. LC-MS analysis of the culture supernatant, after 6 days growth, revealed that by feeding increasing amounts of 20 (between 0.46 and 2.25 mg mL⁻¹) the biosynthesis of 3-MeGlu-containing CDA4a is initiated. The higher concentrations of 3-methyl-2-oxoglutarate 20 compared with that of (2S,3R)-3-MeGlu required to bring about CDA4a production could be due to competing metabolism or poorer cellular uptake. On the other hand, (2S,3R)-3-MeGlu could enter the cell via specific glutamate or nonspecific amino acid uptake mechanisms.²¹ Despite the higher concentrations of 3-methyl-2oxoglutarate required to re-establish CDA4a production, these results suggest that 3-methyl-2-oxoglutarate is a possible precursor of the (2S,3R)-3-MeGlu residue in CDAs. Indeed, analysis of the GlmT protein sequence reveals a putative (S)adenosylmethionine (SAM) binding site and similarity to ubiquinone methyltransferases (UbiE), and other typical SAMdependent methyltransferases. Most SAM-dependent methylation reactions occur with inversion of configuration at the methyl group, which is consistent with the attack of the SAM methyl group by a nucleophilic substrate in an S_N 2-like mechanism.²² The similarity between GlmT and a typical SAM-dependent methyltransferase would therefore suggest that α -ketoglutarate is an electronically more plausible substrate. Clearly the formation of a resonance-stabilized nucleophilic enolate or enol form of α -ketoglutarate in the active site of GlmT is entirely feasible (Figure 5A). A mechanistically similar SAM-dependent methylation of the related α -keto acid, indolepyruvate 21, to give the β -methyl- α -keto acid **22** is also known to occur during the biosynthesis of indolmycin (Figure 5B).^{22b} On the other hand, the direct SAM-dependent β -methylation of Glu, by the typical mechanism, would require the formation of a highly unstable β -anion, which is much less likely. There is, however, a group of unusual methyltransferases from the radical SAM superfamily^{23a,b} which utilize methylcoblamin^{23c} to transfer methyl groups to non-nucleophilic sites, possibly by a radical mechanism.^{23d} Despite this, GlmT shows no sequence similarity with and lacks the conserved CxxxCxxC motif common to the proteins in the radical SAM superfamily.^{23a,b} Thus, the evidence presented here, combined with simple mechanistic considerations based on early work,^{22,23} suggests that GlmT is likely to catalyze the SAM-dependent methylation of α -ketoglutarate to give (3R)-methyl-2-oxoglutarate.

There are several ways in which (3R)-methyl-2-oxoglutarate might be subsequently transformed to (2S,3R)-3-MeGlu. First, a PLP-dependent aminotransferase could transfer the amine

 ^{(22) (}a) Floss, H. G.; Lee, S. Acc. Chem. Res. 1993, 26, 116–122. (b) Mascaro, L.; Hoerhammer, R.; Eisenstein, S.; Sellers, L. K.; Mascaro, K.; Floss, H. G. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1977, 99, 273–274.

 ^{(23) (}a) Sofia, H. J.; Chen, G.; Hetzler, B. G.; Reyes-Spindola, J. F.; Miller, N. E. Nucleic Acids Res. 2001, 29, 1097. (b) Westrich, L.; Heide, L.; Li, S.-M. ChemBioChem. 2003, 4, 768–773. (c) Seto, H.; Kuzuyama, T. Nat. Prod. Rep. 1999, 16, 589–596. (d) Mosimann, H.; Kräutler, B. Angew. Chem., Int. Ed. 2000, 39, 393–395.

^{(21) (}a) Gross, W.; Ring, K. Biochim. Biophys. Acta 1971, 233, 652–665. (b) May, W. S.; Formica, J. V. J. Bacteriol. 1978, 134, 546–554.

group from an amino acid donor to (3R)-methyl-2-oxoglutarate. Apart from the specific 4-hydroxyphenylglycine aminotransferase (HpgT encoded by SCO3227),²⁴ there are no other genes in the *cda* biosynthetic gene cluster, which encodes proteins that are similar to known aminotransferases. There are, however, numerous PLP-dependent aminotransferases in S. coelicolor which are predicted to transfer the amine group from various amino acid donors to α -ketoglutarate to form L-Glu and various α -keto acids [http://streptomyces.org.uk/]. Any number of these enzymes could potentially transaminate (3R)-methyl-2-oxoglutarate. Indeed, from the point of view of economy, it is tempting to suggest that such an aminotransferase activity might utilize L-Glu as the amino donor, which would replenish the supply of α -ketoglutarate for subsequent methylation by GlmT (Figure 5A). A similar cyclic pathway is proposed that utilizes tyrosine as the co-substrate of HpgT in the biosynthesis of 4-hydroxyphenylglycine in CDA and other nonribosomal peptide antibiotics.²⁴ In addition to this, the primary metabolic NADPHdependent glutamate synthase (SCO1977, SCO2025, SCO2026) and NADP-specific glutamate dehydrogenase (SCO4683) enzymes in S. coelicolor,²⁵ which normally utilize α -ketoglutarate as a substrate in the biosynthesis of L-Glu, might similarly be responsible for producing (2S,3R)-3-MeGlu from (3R)-methyl-2-oxoglutarate.

Finally, while our results point to GlmT functioning as a 2-oxoglutarate methyltransferase, the possibility that GlmT methylates Glu by first forming a Schiff base with a pyridoxal-5'-phosphate (PLP) or a functionally related pyruvoyl cofactor cannot be discounted. Similar to amino acid decarboxylase and amino acid racemase enzymes, formation of such a Schiff base (e.g., **23**, Figure 5C) followed by tautomerization steps would facilitate SAM-dependent β -methylation of a nucleophilic enamine **24** by the standard two-electron mechanism. In this event, the fact that synthetic 3-methyl-2-oxoglutarate reestablishes production of CDA containing 3-MeGlu in the $\Delta glmT$ mutant could be accounted for through the presence of a promiscuous aminotransferase within *S. coelicolor*.

Conclusions

Under typical fermentation conditions, the wild-type S. coelicolor produces a mixture of Glu and 3-MeGlu-containing CDAs, which are difficult to separate. We have shown that, by deleting the putative methyltransferase encoding gene, glmT, from the *cda* biosynthetic gene cluster, the resulting mutant $\Delta glmT$ produces exclusively Glu-containing CDA. We have also developed a stereocontrolled synthesis of (2S,3R)- and (2S,3S)methylglutamic acids, which showed that 3-MeGlu in CDAs and daptomycin possesses the same (2S,3R)-absolute configuration. Feeding experiments with the $\Delta glmT$ strain revealed that the A-domain of CdaPS3 module 10, and probably to a lesser extent the adjacent C-domains, is able to discriminate between the synthetic 3-methylglutamates and only the (2S,3R)-isomer is incorporated into the CDAs. Using the $\Delta glmT$ mutant strain and supplementing the medium with synthetic (2S,3R)-3methylglutamic acid, it is thus possible to control the distribution of Glu- and MeGlu-containing peptides in *S. coelicolor*. Indeed, a similar approach might be used to control the functionality of penultimate residues in daptomycin and A54145. This is important because we have demonstrated that, like daptomycin and A54145, the presence of a 3-MeGlu rather than Glu as the penultimate C-terminal residue of CDA leads to increased antimicrobial activity.

Interestingly, feeding a racemic mixture of all four 3-MeGlu stereoisomers led to the production of a new product, which is predicted to be an *epi*-CDA4a containing an unnatural D-configured 3-MeGlu residue. We have also synthesized racemic 3-methyl-2-oxoglutarate and showed that addition of this compound to the $\Delta glmT$ mutant re-establishes the biosynthesis of 3-MeGlu-containing CDA4a. From this analysis and earlier mechanistic studies, we suggest that GlmT is likely to be a SAM-dependent 2-oxoglutarate is probably transaminated, or otherwise transformed, to (2*S*,3*R*)-3-MeGlu acid prior to activation and incorporation into CDAs by CdaPS3.

Currently, we are using the synthetic methodology along with stereochemical and biosynthetic knowledge generated here in order to develop new methods for engineering lipopeptides of this type. For example, by feeding other synthetic 3-alkyl Glu and 3-alkyl-2-oxoglutarate analogues to $\Delta glmT$,^{3a} combined with possible active site modification of the corresponding A-domain,^{3b} it should be possible to generate new lipopeptides with a variety of modified glutamates at the important penultimate C-terminal position. It is entirely possible that these new lipopetides could have improved activity, but lower toxicity, than the current MeGlu-containing lipopeptides, including daptomycin, which is now widely used in the clinic.

Experimental Section

(5S)-3,4-Dihydro-5-tert-butyldiphenylsilyloxymethyl-N-tert-butyloxycarbonylpyrrolidin-2-one (2). LDA (9.98 mL, 7.14 mmol) was added dropwise over 15 min to (5S)-N-tert-butyloxycarbonyl-5-tertbutyldiphenylsilyloxymethylpyrrolid-2-one¹⁴ (2 g, 4.41 mmol) in anhydrous THF (25 mL) at -78 °C. The reaction mixture was stirred at -78 °C for 20 min, allowed to warm to 0 °C for ca. 2 min, and then re-cooled to -78 °C. A solution of phenylselenenyl bromide (1.25 g, 5.29 mmol) in anhydrous THF (5 mL) was added rapidly, and stirring was continued at -78 °C. After 1.5 h, the reaction was allowed to warm to room temperature, water (75 mL) was then added, and the mixture was extracted with CH_2Cl_2 (3 × 50 mL). The organic extracts were washed with saturated aqueous NaHCO3 (50 mL) and saturated aqueous NaCl (50 mL) and then dried over MgSO₄, filtered, and evaporated under reduced pressure. Purification by flash chromatography (80:20 hexane/EtOAc) provided α -phenylselenenyl derivative as a white solid (1.74 g, 60% yield). A portion of this (1.1 g, 1.8 mmol) was dissolved in THF (8 mL) with glacial acetic acid (0.23 mL). After cooling to 0 °C, aqueous hydrogen peroxide (0.95 mL, 27% w/v) was added and the reaction stirred for 30 min. Following this, cold saturated aqueous NaHCO3 (80 mL) was added and the resulting mixture was extracted with diethyl ether (3 \times 80 mL). The combined organic extracts were washed with saturated aqueous NaCl (80 mL), dried over MgSO₄, filtered, concentrated, and purified by flash chromatography (75:25 hexane/EtOAc) to give 2 (0.7 g, 86%) as a pale yellow solid: $R_f 0.15$ (80:20 hexane/EtOAc); mp 93-95 °C; $[\alpha]_D = -125.6^\circ$ (c = 1.0, CHCl₃); ¹H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 1.05 (9H, s, SiC(CH₃)₃), 1.46 (9H, s, $CO_2C(CH_3)_3$), 3.85 (1H, dd, J = 6.5, 10.0 Hz, CH_aH_bO), 4.14 (1H, dd, J = 3.5, 10.0 Hz, CH_aH_bO), 4.66-4.70 (1H, m, CHCH₂O), 6.20 (1H, dd, J = 2.0, 6.5 Hz, COCHCH), 7.30 (1H, dd, J = 2.0, 6.0 Hz, COCHCH), 7.39-7.65 (10H, m, Ar-H); ¹³C NMR (100.6 MHz,

 ^{(24) (}a) Hubbard, B. K.; Thomas, M. G.; Walsh, C. T. Chem. Biol. 2000, 7, 931–942. (b) Chiu, H.-T.; Hubbard, B. K.; Shah, A. N.; Eide, J.; Fredenburg, R. A.; Walsh, C. T.; Khosla, C. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 2001, 98, 8548–8553. (c) Choroba, O. W.; Williams, D. H.; Spencer, J. B. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 2000, 122, 5389–5390.

⁽²⁵⁾ Fisher, S. H. J. Bacteriol. 1989, 171, 2372–2377.

CDCl₃) δ 19.7 (SiC(CH₃)₃), 27.1 (SiC(CH₃)₃), 28.4 (OC(CH₃)₃), 63.4 (CHCH₂O), 63.9 (CHCH₂O), 83.3 (OC(CH₃)₃), 127.8 (COCHCH), 128.2 (Ar-C3/5), 130.4 (Ar-C4), 133.3 (Ar-C1), 135.9 (Ar-C2/6), 149.6 (CO₂CH), 149.8 (COCHCH), 170.0 (CO₂C(CH₃)₃); LRMS-ESI (*m*/*z*): 925 ([2M + Na]⁺, 100%), 352 ([M - C₃H₇O₂]⁺, 60%), 475 ([M + Na]⁺, 10%). HRMS-ESI (*m*/*z*): [M + Na]⁺ calcd for C₂₆H₃₃NO₄SiNa, 474.2077. Found, 474.2060. Anal. Calcd for C₂₆H₃₃NO₄Si: C, 69.14; H, 7.36; N, 3.10. Found: C, 69.1; H, 7.5; N, 3.0. IR (neat): ν 1778 (C=O), 1704 (C=O) cm⁻¹.

(4S,5S)-5-tert-Butyldiphenylsilyloxymethyl-N-tert-butyloxycarbonyl-4-methylpyrrolidin-2-one (3).14b Methyllithium (2.13 mL, 3.41 mmol, 1.6 M solution in diethyl ether) was added to a suspension of Cu(I)I (0.35 g, 1.86 mmol) in anhydrous toluene (20 mL) under N₂ at -78 °C and stirred for 30 min. This mixture was allowed to warm to -40 °C with stirring for 30 min and then cooled to -78 °C, resulting in a solution of (CH₃)₂CuLi. α,β -Unsaturated lactam 2 (0.70 g, 1.55 mmol) in anhydrous toluene (10 mL) was added to the cuprate solution at -78 °C under N₂. The reaction mixture was allowed to warm to -40 °C and stirred for 15 min. Saturated aqueous NH₄Cl (50 mL) was added, and the mixture was extracted with diethyl ether (3 \times 50 mL). The combined organic extracts were repeatedly washed with H2O (until no blue color persisted), dried over MgSO₄, filtered, and evaporated under reduced pressure. Purification by flash chromatography (100:20 hexane/EtOAc) provided 3 (0.45 g, 62%) as a white solid: $R_f 0.40$ (70:30 hexane/EtOAc); mp 70–72 °C, $[\alpha]_D = -23.0^\circ$ (c = 1.0, CHCl₃); ¹H NMR (300 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 0.96 (9H, s, SiC(CH₃)₃), 1.08 (3H, d, J = 7.0 Hz, CHCH₃), 1.36 (9H, s, OC(CH₃)₃), 2.01 (1H, dd, J = 2.0, 17.0 Hz, COH_aH_bCH), 2.32-2.42 (1H, m, CH₂CHCH₃), 2.91 (1H, dd, J = 8.5, 17.0 Hz, COCH_aH_bCH), 3.66 (1H, m, CHCH₂O), 3.67 (1H, dd, J = 2.0, 13.0 Hz, CHCH_aH_bO), 3.78 (1H, dd, J = 3.0, 12.0 Hz, CHCH_aH_bO), 7.25-7.37 (10H, m, Ar-H); ¹³C NMR (75.5 MHz, CDCl₃) & 19.5 (SiC(CH₃)₃), 21.8 (CHCH₃), 27.2 (SiC(CH₃)₃), 28.4 (OC-(CH₃)₃), 28.6 (CH₂CHCH₃), 40.8 (COCH₂), 64.8 (CHCH₂O), 66.6 (CHCH₂O), 83.1 (OC(CH₃)₃), 128.2 (Ar-C3/5), 130.2 (Ar-C4), 133.1 (Ar-C1), 133.5 (Ar-C1), 135.9 (Ar-C2/6), 150.4 (NCO2), 174.8 $(COCH_2)$. LRMS-ESI (m/z): 957.6 $([2M + Na]^+, 100\%)$, 490.2 ([M+ Na]⁺, 9%), 368.2 ([M - C₅H₇O₂]⁺, 60%). HRMS-ESI (*m*/*z*): [M + Na]⁺ calcd for C₂₇H₃₇NO₄SiNa, 490.2390. Found, 490.2390. Anal. Calcd for C₂₇H₃₇NO₄Si: C, 69.34; H, 7.97; N, 2.99. Found: C, 69.5; H, 7.9; N, 2.7.

 $(4S,\!5S)\text{-}N\text{-}tert\text{-}Butyloxy carbonyl-5\text{-}hydroxy methyl-4\text{-}methyl pyr$ rolidin-2-one (4). A solution of tetrabutylammonium fluoride in THF (36 mL, 1.0 M, 35.78 mmol) was added to lactam 3 (2.0 g, 4.28 mmol) in a mixture of THF (2 mL) and 20% aqueous CH₃CO₂H (2.8 mL) at 0 °C. The reaction mixture was allowed to warm to room temperature and stirred for 24 h. EtOAc (50 mL) and aqueous NH₄Cl (50 mL, 20% w/v) were added, and the organic layer was then extracted, dried over MgSO₄, filtered, and evaporated under reduced pressure. Purification by flash chromatography (50:50 hexane/EtOAc) gave 4 (0.66 g, 67%) as a white solid: $R_f 0.19$ (50:50 hexane/EtOAc); $[\alpha]_D = -46.2^{\circ}$ (c = 1.0, CHCl₃); ¹H NMR (300 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 1.18 (3H, d, J = 7.0 Hz, CHCH₃), 1.56 (9H, s, OC(CH₃)₃), 2.05 (1H, dd, J = 3.5, 17.5 Hz, CH_aH_bCHCH₃), 2.23-2.28 (1H, m, CH₂CHCH₃), 2.79-2.88 (1H, dd, J = 8.5, 17.5 Hz, CH_aH_bCHCH₃), 3.73-3.88 (3H, m, CHCH₂OH); ¹³C NMR (75.5 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 20.9 (CH₃), 28.4 (C(CH₃)₃), 28.6 (CHCH₃), 40.4 (CH₂CHCH₃), 64.6 (CHCH₂OH), 67.2 (CHCH₂OH), 83.9 (C(CH₃)₃), 151.6 (NCO₂), 174.3 (COCH₂). LRMS-ESI (m/z): 481.2 ($[2M + Na]^+$, 100%), 252 ($[M + Na]^+$, 2%). HRMS-ESI (m/z): $[2M + Na]^+$ calcd for C₂₂H₃₈N₂O₈Na, 481.2526. Found, 481.2520.

(25,35)-*N*-tert-Butyloxycarbonyl-3-methylpyroglutamic Acid (5). RuCl₃ (1 mg, 0.005 mmol) was added to a solution of lactam 4 (50.0 mg, 0.22 mmol) in a mixture of CH₃CN/CCl₄/H₂O (2:2:3, 1.5 mL) with NaIO₄ (0.146 g, 0.64 mmol). The reaction mixture was stirred for 3 h at room temperature. Saturated aqueous NaCl was added (10 mL), and the mixture was extracted with CH₂Cl₂ (3 \times 20 mL). The combined organic extracts were dried over MgSO₄, filtered, and evaporated under reduced pressure. Purification by flash chromatography (20:80 hexane/ EtOAc with 0.1% HCO₂H) gave **5** (49.5 mg, 93%) as a white solid: mp 154–156 °C; $[\alpha]_D = -8.6^{\circ}$ (c = 1.0, CHCl₃); ¹H NMR (300 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 1.21 (3H, d, J = 6.5 Hz, CHCH₃), 1.43 (9H, s, C(CH₃)₃), 2.12 (1H, dd, J = 4.5, 17.0 Hz, CH_aH_bCHCH₃), 2.37–2.47 (1H, m, CH₂CHCH₃), 2.75 (1H, dd, J = 8.5, 17.0 Hz, CH_aH_bCHCH₃), 4.15 (1H, d, J = 3.5 Hz, CHCH₂OH); ¹³C NMR (75.5 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 20.8 (CH₃), 28.2 (C(CH₃)₃), 30.1 (CHCH₃), 39.8 (CH₂CHCH₃), 66.0 (CHCO₂H), 84.4 (C(CH₃)₃), 149.8 (NCO₂), 173.0 (COCH₂), 176.5 (CHCO₂H). LRMS-ESI (m/z): 509.2 ([2M + Na]⁺, 100%), 266.1 ([M + Na]⁺, 4%). HRMS-ESI (m/z): [2M + Na]⁺ calcd for C₂₂H₃₄N₂O₁₀-Na, 509.2111. Found, 509.2104.

(2S,3S)-3-Methylglutamic Acid Hydrochloride Salt (7). LiOH (23.6 mg, 0.56 mmol) in H₂O (0.5 mL) was added to lactam 5 (45.6 mg, 0.19 mmol) in THF (2 mL). The mixture was stirred for 18 h at room temperature and evaporated under reduced pressure. H₂O (5 mL) was added to the residue, and the solution was adjusted to pH 4.0 with CH₃COOH and extracted with diethyl ether (3 \times 50 mL). The combined ethereal extracts were dried over MgSO4, filtered, and evaporated under reduced pressure to give N-Boc-MeGlu 6 (0.041 g, 84%). A fraction of 6 (26.0 mg, 0.010 mmol) was treated with a solution of 4 M HCl in 1,4-dioxane (2 mL), and the mixture was stirred at room temperature under N₂ for 18 h. The reaction mixture was then evaporated under reduced pressure, H₂O (10 mL) was added, and the mixture was washed with CH_2Cl_2 (3 × 10 mL). The aqueous extract was evaporated under reduced pressure, and the resulting solid was triturated with toluene to give (2S,3S)-3-MeGlu·HCl 7 (15.2 mg, 94%) as a white hygroscopic solid: $[\alpha]_{\rm D} = +36.7^{\circ}$ (c = 1.05, 6 N HCl) lit.^{13a,c} = +36.8 (c = 1.03, 6 N HCl); ¹H NMR (400 MHz, D₂O) δ 0.78 (3H, d, J = 6.5 Hz, CH₃), 2.23 (1H, dd, J = 7.5, 15.0 Hz, $CH_{a}H_{b}CO_{2}H$), 2.29–2.35 (1H, m, CHCH₃), 2.41 (1H, dd, J = 5.8, 15.0 Hz, CH_aH_bCO₂H), 3.82 (1H, d, J = 2.6 Hz, CHNH₂); ¹³C NMR (75.5 MHz, D₂O) δ 14.4 (CH₃), 31.1 (CHCH₃), 37.5 (CH₂CO₂H), 57.0 (CHNH₂), 171.4 (CH₂CO₂H), 176.3 (CHCO₂H). LRMS-ESI (m/z): 162.0 ([M + H]⁺, 100%), 323 ([2M + H]⁺, 4%). HRMS-ESI (m/z): [M + H]⁺ calcd for C₆H₁₂NO₄, 162.0766. Found, 162.0768.

(3R,4R,5S)-5-tert-Butyldiphenylsilyloxymethyl-N-tert-butyloxycarbonyl-3,4-pyrazolinepyrrolidin-2-one (8). An ethereal solution of diazomethane (ca. 18.7 mmol in 10 mL) was added to the α,β unsaturated lactam 2 (0.60 g, 1.33 mmol), and the mixture was left to stir at room temperature for 72 h. The solvent was then evaporated under reduced pressure, and the residue was purified by flash chromatography (80:20 hexane/EtOAc) to give 8 (0.45 g, 68%) as a pale yellow solid: $R_f 0.21$ (80:20 hexane/EtOAc); mp 53-55 °C; $[\alpha]_D =$ -208.1° (c = 1.0, CHCl₃); ¹H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 1.09 (9H, s, SiC(CH₃)₃), 1.47 (9H, s, OC(CH₃)₃), 2.58-2.64 (1H, m, COCHCH), 3.67 (1H, dd, J = 2.0, 10.5 Hz, CHCH_aH_b), 3.95 (1H, m, CHCH₂O), 3.98 (1H, dd, J = 2.5, 10.5 Hz, CHCH_aH_b), 4.49 (1H, ddd, J = 2.5, 5.5, 18.5 Hz, NNCH_a H_b), 5.16 (1H, dd, J = 10.0, 18.5 Hz, NNC H_aH_b), 5.87 (1H, dd, J = 2.5, 9.0 Hz, COCHCH), 7.39-7.65 (10H, m, Ar-H); ¹³C NMR (100.6 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 19.6 (SiC(CH₃)₃), 27.2 (SiC-(CH₃)₃), 28.3 (CO₂C(CH₃)₃), 31.1 (COCHCH), 63.4 (CHCH₂O), 64.9 (CHCH2O), 83.3 (CO2C(CH3)3), 86.9 (NNCH2), 96.7 (COCHCH), 128.4 (Ar-C3/5), 130.5 (Ar-C/4), 132.5 (Ar-C1), 133.0 (Ar-C1), 135.9 (Ar-C2/6), 149.8 (COCHCH), 165.0 (CO2C(CH3)3). LRMS-ESI (m/ z): 516.0 ($[M + Na]^+$, 100%). HRMS-ESI (m/z): $[M + Na]^+$ calcd for C₂₇H₃₅N₃O₄SiNa, 516.2295. Found, 516.2280. Anal. Calcd for C₂₇H₃₅N₃O₄Si: C, 65.69; H, 7.15; N, 8.51. Found: C, 65.8; H, 7.3; N, 8.2. IR (neat): ν 1783 (C=O), 1712 (C=O) cm⁻¹.

(55)-3,4-Dihydro-5-*tert*-butyldiphenylsilyloxymethyl-*N*-*tert*-butyloxycarbonyl-4-methylpyrrolidin-2-one (9). Pyrazoline 8 (0.40 g, 0.81 mmol) was heated, under solvent-free conditions, at 120 °C for 3 h. The residue was then purified by flash chromatography (80:20 hexane/ EtOAc) to give 9 (0.16 g, 42%) as a white solid: R_f 0.29 (80:20 hexane/ EtOAc); mp 114–117 °C; $[\alpha]_D = -80.1^\circ$ (c = 1.0, CHCl₃); ¹H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 1.01 (9H, s, SiC(CH₃)₃), 1.46 (9H, s, OC(CH₃)₃),

2.04 (3H, s, CHCCH₃), 3.92 (1H, dd, J = 2.0, 11.0 Hz, CHCH_aH_bO), 4.23 (1H, dd, J = 3.5, 11.0 Hz, CHCH_aH_bO), 4.42 (1H, br, CHCH₂O), 5.94 (1H, br, CHCCH₃), 7.38–7.64 (10H, m, Ar–H); ¹³C NMR (100.6 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 15.5 (CHCCH₃), 19.9 (SiC(CH₃)₃), 27.3 (SiC(CH₃)₃), 28.7 (OC(CH₃)₃), 61.3 (CHCH₂O), 66.5 (CHCH₂O), 84.0 (OC(CH₃)₃), 124.1 (CHCCH₃), 128.5 (Ar–C3/5), 130.5 (Ar–C4), 133.3 (Ar–C1), 133.7 (Ar–C1), 136.2 (Ar–C2/6), 149.9 (CHCCH₃), 161.1 (NCO₂), 170.4 (COCHC). LRMS-ESI (*m*/*z*): 953.0 ([2M + Na]⁺, 100%), 488 ([M + Na]⁺, 80%). HRMS-ESI (*m*/*z*): [M + Na]⁺ calcd for C₂₇H₃₅N₃O₄SiNa, 488.2233. Found, 488.2216. Anal. Calcd for C₂₇H₃₅-NO₄Si: C, 69.94; H, 7.58; N, 3.01. Found: C, 69.7; H, 7.6; N, 2.9. IR (neat): ν 1781 (C=O), 1708 (C=O) cm⁻¹.

(4R,5S)-5-tert-Butyldiphenylsilyloxymethyl-N-tert-butyloxycarbonyl-4-methylpyrrolidin-2-one (10). Platinum(IV) oxide (40 mg) was added to a solution of α , β -unsaturated lactam 9 (0.36 g, 0.77 mmol) in EtOAc (30 mL). The reaction mixture was stirred at room temperature under an atmosphere of H2 for 18 h, filtered through Celite, and then evaporated under reduced pressure and purified by flash chromatography (1:1 hexane/EtOAc) to give 10 (0.28 g, 80%) as a white solid: $R_f 0.29$ (80:20 hexane/EtOAc); mp 126–128 °C; $[\alpha]_D = -25.3^\circ$ (c = 1.0, CHCl₃); ¹H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 0.96 (9H, s, SiC(CH₃)₃), 0.18 (3H, dd, J = 5.5, CHCH₃), 1.33 (9H, s, OC(CH₃)₃), 2.40–2.53 (2H, m, $CH_aH_bCHCH_3$ and $CH_aH_bCHCH_3$), 2.64 (1H, dd, J = 11.0, 15.0 Hz, $CH_aH_bCHCH_3$), 3.68 (1H, dd, J = 2.5, 12.0 Hz, $CHCH_aH_bO$), 3.90-3.92 (2H, m, CHCH_aH_bO and CHCH₂O), 7.28-7.60 (10H, m, Ar-H); ¹³C NMR (100.6 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 14.6 (CHCH₃), 19.4 (SiC(CH₃)₃), 27.2 (SiC(CH₃)₃), 28.4 (CO₂C(CH₃)₃), 30.5 (CHCH₃), 41.2 (CH₂CHCH₃), 62.4 (CHCH₂O), 62.4 (CHCH₂O), 83.8 (OC(CH₃)₃), 128.2 (Ar-C3/5), 130.2 (Ar-C4), 132.7 (Ar-C1), 133.3 (Ar-C1), 136.0 (Ar-C2/6), 150.1 (NCO2), 175.3 (COCH2). LRMS-ESI (m/z): 957 ($[2M + Na]^+$, 100%), 490 ($[M + Na]^+$, 15%). HRMS-ESI (m/z): $[M + Na]^+$ calcd for C₂₇H₃₇NO₄SiNa, 490.2390. Found, 490.2393. Anal. Calcd for C₂₇H₃₇NO₄Si: C, 69.34; H, 7.97; N, 2.99. Found: C, 69.5; H, 8.2; N, 3.1. IR (neat): ν 1784 (C=O), 1710 (C=O) cm⁻¹.

(4*R*,5*S*)-*N*-tert-Butyloxycarbonyl-5-hydroxymethyl-4-methylpyrrolidin-2-one (11). Lactam 10 (100 mg, 0.22 mmol) was deprotected with tetrabutylammonium fluoride as described above (3 → 4). Purification by flash chromatography (35:65 hexane/EtOAc) gave 11 (37 mg, 73% yield) as a white solid: *R_f* 0.17 (50:50 hexane/EtOAc); mp 120–122 °C; ¹H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 1.21 (3H, dd, *J* = 6.5 Hz, CHC*H*₃), 1.54 (9H, s, C(*CH*₃)₃), 2.40–2.61 (3H, m, *CH*₂*CHCH*₃), 3.80 (1H, dd, *J* = 2.5, 11.5 Hz, CHC*H*₄*H*_bOH), 4.02–4.07 (2H, m, *CHCH*₄*H*_bOH); ¹³C NMR (100.6 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 14.7 (CHCH₃), 28.5 (C(CH₃)₃), 30.4 (*C*HCH₃), 40.9 (*C*H₂CHCH₃), 61.4 (*C*HCH₂OH), 62.8 (*C*HCH₂OH), 83.5 (*C*(CH₃)₃), 150.9 (NCO₂), 175.4 (*C*OCH₂). LRMS-ESI (*m*/*z*): [M + Na]⁺ calcd for C₁₁*H*₁₉NO₄Na, 252.1212. Found, 252.1217. IR (neat): ν 3425 (OH), 1774 (C=O) cm⁻¹.

(25,3*R*)-*N*-tert-Butyloxycarbonyl-3-methylpyroglutamic Acid (12). Alcohol 11 (100 mg, 0.22 mmol) was oxidized with RuO₄, and the product was purified as described above (4 → 5), resulting in 12 (37 mg, 70% yield) as a white solid: ¹H NMR (300 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 1.16 (3H, d, *J* = 6.5 Hz, CHCH₃), 1.49 (9H, s, C(CH₃)₃), 2.38 (1H, dd, *J* = 11.5, 16.5 Hz, CH_aH_bCHCH₃), 2.56–2.78 (2H, m, CH_aH_bCHCH₃), 4.58 (1H, d, *J* = 8.5 Hz, CHCO₂H); ¹³C NMR (75.5 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 14.1 (CHCH₃), 26.8 (C(CH₃)₃), 27.4 (CHCH₃), 37.9 (CH₂CHCH₃), 62.3 (CHCO₂H). LRMS-ESI (*m*/*z*): 509 ([2M + Na]⁺, 100%), 282 ([M + K]⁺, 20%), 266 ([M + Na]⁺, 5%). HRMS-ESI (*m*/*z*): [M + Na]⁺ calcd for C₁₁H₁₇NO₅Na, 266.1004. Found, 266.0993. IR (neat): *ν* 3215 (OH), 1783 (C=O) cm⁻¹.

(2*S*,3*R*)-*N*-tert-Butoxycarbonyl-3-methylglutamic Acid (13). The lactam 12 (29 mg, 0.12 mmol) was hydrolyzed with LiOH as described above (5 → 6) to give 13 (21.5 mg, 69%) as a white solid: ¹H NMR (300 MHz, D₂O) δ 0.77 (3H, d, J = 7.0 Hz, CHCH₃), 1.28 (9H, s, C(CH₃)₃), 2.16-2.49 (3H, m, CH₂CH), 4.15 (1H, d, J = 4.0 Hz,

CHNH); ¹³C NMR (100.6 MHz, D₂O) δ 14.3 (CHCH₃), 27.8 (C(CH₃)₃), 31.9 (CHCH₃), 37.9 (CH₂CH), 57.1 (CHNH), 81.7 (C(CH₃)₃), 158.2 (NHCO), 176.0 and 177.0 (both CO₂H). LRMS-ESI (*m*/*z*): 284 ([M + Na]⁺,100%), 545 ([2M + Na]⁺, 40%). HRMS-ESI (*m*/*z*): [M + Na]⁺ calcd for C₁₁H₁₉NO₆Na, 284.1110. Found, 284.1119. IR (neat): ν 3321 (OH), 1708 (C=O) cm⁻¹.

(2*S*,3*R*)-3-Methylglutamic Acid Hydrochloride Salt (14). Acidolysis of 13 (20 mg, 0.076 mmol) as described above (6 → 7) gave (2*S*,3*R*)-3-MeGlu·HCl 14 (9.3 mg, 75%) as a hygroscopic white solid: [α]_D = +22.1° (*c* = 1.01, 6 N HCl) lit.^{13a,c} = +22.6 (*c* = 1.03, 6 N HCl); ¹H NMR (400 MHz, D₂O) δ 0.93 (3H, d, *J* = 6.8 Hz, CH₃), 2.30-2.35 (1H, m, CH_aH_bCH), 2.46-2.57 (2H, m, CH_aH_bCH), 3.90 (1H, d, *J* = 4.2 Hz, CHCO₂H); ¹³C NMR (100.6 MHz, D₂O) 14.9 (CH₃) 31.0 (CH₂CH), 37.5 (CH₂COOH), 58.0 (CHN) 172.3 (CH₂CO₂H), 176.3 (CHCO₂H). LRMS-ESI (*m*/*z*): 162.1 ([M − Cl]⁺, 38%), 184.1 ([M − HCl + Na]⁺, 18%). HRMS-ESI (*m*/*z*): [M − Cl]⁺ calcd for C₆H₁₂-NO₄, 162.0761. Found, 162.0760. IR (neat): *ν* 2937 (OH), 1718 (C= O) cm⁻¹.

3-Methyl-2-nitropentanedioic Acid Dimethyl Ester (17). 1,8-Diazabicyclo[5.4.0]undeca-7-ene (DBU) (1.25 mL, 8.39 mmol) was added to a mixture of methyl crotonate 15 (6.23 mL, 58.78 mmol) and methyl nitroacetate 16 (1.0 g, 8.39 mmol) in anhydrous THF (10 mL) under N2 at room temperature and stirred in the absence of light for 72 h. Aqueous HCl (1.2 M, 100 mL) was then added, and the mixture was extracted with diethyl ether (3 \times 50 mL), dried over MgSO₄, filtered, and evaporated under reduced pressure. Purification by flash chromatography (90:10 toluene/EtOAc) gave 17 (1.4 g, 76%) as a colorless oil: $R_f 0.13$ (toluene); ¹H NMR (300 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 1.09 $(3H, d, J = 6.5 \text{ Hz}, \text{CHC}H_3), 2.40 - 2.50 (2H, m, \text{C}H_2\text{CO}_2\text{CH}_3), 2.85 -$ 2.98 (1H, m, CHCH₃), 3.63 (3H, s, CH₂CO₂CH₃), 3.77 (3H, s, CHCO₂CH₃), 5.24 (1H, dd, J = 6.5, 15.0 Hz, CHNO₂); ¹³C NMR (75.5 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 16.4 (CHCH₃), 31.8 (CHCH₃), 37.0 (CHCH₂CO₂CH₃), 52.2 (CHCO₂CH₃), 53.8 (CH₂CO₂CH₃), 91.0 (CHNO₂), 164.4 (CH₂CO₂), 171.9 (CHCO₂). LRMS-ESI (m/z): 242.1 ([M + Na]⁺, 100%). HRMS-ESI (m/z): $[M + Na]^+$ calcd for C₈H₁₃NO₆Na, 242.0641. Found, 242.0648.

3-Methyl-2-oxopentanedioic Acid Dimethyl Ester (19). 2-Nitropentanedioate derivative 17 (1.0 g, 4.28 mmol) was dissolved in methanol (8.57 mL) and treated with NaOCH₃ in CH₃OH (0.77 mL, 4.29 mmol, 30% w/v) under N₂ at room temperature with stirring. A solution of ammonium acetate (7.93 g, 12.8 mmol) in H₂O (15 mL) was then added to the Ti(III)Cl in 2 M aqueous HCl (8.82 mL, 17.15 mmol, 30% w/v). The resulting TiCl3-NH4CH3CO2 solution was then added in one portion to the reaction mixture containing the anion 17. After stirring for 1.5 h, the reaction mixture was extracted with diethyl ether (4 \times 50 mL), and the combined organic extracts were dried over MgSO₄, filtered, and evaporated under reduced pressure. Purification by flash chromatography (10:1 toluene/EtOAc) gave the ketone 19 (0.23 g, 26%) and the corresponding oxime 18 (0.35 g, 38%) as oils. The oxime **18** (0.23 g, 1.13 mmol) was then dissolved in methanol (15 mL) with concentrated HCl (5 mL). Aqueous HCOH (10 mL, 37% w/v) was then added, and the mixture was stirred at room temperature for 18 h. H₂O (100 mL) was then added, and the mixture was extracted with diethyl ether (3 \times 100 mL). The combined organic extracts were dried over MgSO₄, filtered, and evaporated under reduced pressure. Purification by flash chromatography (10:1 toluene/EtOAc) gave the further ketone 19 (total 410 mg, 51%): ¹H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 1.22 (3H, d, J = 7.5 Hz, CH₃), 2.50–2.56 (1H, dd, J = 5, 16.5 Hz, $CH_{a}H_{b}CO_{2}CH_{3}$), 2.83–2.89 (1H, dd, J = 9, 16.5 Hz, $CH_{a}H_{b}CO_{2}CH_{3}$), 3.68-3.7 (1H, m, CHCH₃), 3.68 (3H, s, CO₂CH₃), 3.92 (3H, s, COCO₂CH₃); ¹³C NMR (100.6 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 16.3 (CH₃), 37.2 (CH₂), 38.6 (CHCH₃), 52.4 (CH₂CO₂CH₃), 53.4 (COCO₂CH₃), 161.6 (CH₂CO₂-CH₃), 172.6 (COCO₂CH₃), 196.3 (COCO₂CH₃). LRMS-EI/CI (*m/z*): 206 ($[M + NH_4]^+$, 100%). HRMS-ESI (m/z): $[M + NH_4]^+$ calcd for C₈H₁₆NO₅, 206.1023. Found, 206.1024. IR (neat): v 1729 (C=O), 1801 $(C=0) \text{ cm}^{-1}.$

 (\pm) -3-Methyl-2-oxoglutarate Disodium Salt (20). The ketone 19 (100 mg 0.463 mmol) in 1,4-dioxane (5 mL) was treated with aqueous NaOH solution (5 mL, 0.28 M, 1.40 mmol) at room temperature and stirred for 18 h. The mixture was then evaporated under reduced pressure and concentrated in vacuo to provide 20 (72 mg, 77%) as a white solid: ¹H NMR (400 MHz, D₂O) δ 1.02 (3H, d, J = 7.0 Hz, CH_3), 2.06 (1H, dd, J = 8.5, 15.0 Hz, CH_aH_bCH), 2.45–2.49 (1H, dd, $J = 6.0, 15.0 \text{ Hz}, \text{CH}_{a}H_{b}\text{CH}), 3.18-3.20 (1\text{H}, \text{m}, \text{CHCH}_{3}); {}^{13}\text{C} \text{ NMR}$ (75.5 MHz, D₂O) δ 14.8 (CH₃), 39.6 (CH₂), 40.3 (CH), 171.5 (CH₂CO₂), 181.0 (COCO₂), 209.3 (COCO₂). LRMS-ESI⁻ (m/z): 159.0 $([M - 2Na + H]^{-}, 100\%)$. HRMS-ESI⁻ (m/z): $[M - 2Na + H]^{-}$ calcd for C₆H₇O₅, 159.0299. Found, 159.0300.

Production and Purification of CDA4a and CDA3a: Sterile SV2^{3a} liquid media (5 L) was inoculated with agar plugs of S. coelicolor MT1110 from a 3 day R5 plate.²⁶ The cultures were then incubated at 28 °C and 180 rpm for 5 days. The cells were harvested by centrifugation. The resulting supernatants were acidified to pH 2.0 by the addition of aqueous HCl (0.5 M), and the crude CDA was extracted using Varian C-18 Bond Elute SPE cartridges (2 g). The cartridges were washed with H₂O (120 mL), eluted with CH₃OH (60 mL), and the eluant was evaporated under reduced pressure. Purification of the crude extracts was achieved by repeated preparative and semipreparative reversed phase HPLC: Phenomenex C-18 10 μ m, 250 \times 21.2 mm, and 5 μ m, 250 \times 10 mm columns; solvent A was H₂O with 0.1% HCO₂H, and solvent B was acetonitrile with 0.1% HCO₂H. The flow rate was 20 and 5 mL min⁻¹, respectively, with a starting gradient of 0% B and 100% A, increasing to 100% B over 30 min and then held for a further 5 min. Separate fractions for CDA3a and CDA4a (retention time = ca. 16.0 and 16.2 min, respectively) were pooled and evaporated under reduced pressure to give pure CDA4a (11 mg L⁻¹) and CDA3a $(2 \text{ mg } L^{-1})$, which were identical to samples isolated and characterized previously.3a,9

Hydrolysis, Derivatization, and LC-MS Analysis of 3-MeGlu from Daptomycin and CDA4a. Daptomycin or CDA4a (10 mg) was heated at reflux in 6 M aqueous HCl (40 mL) under oxygen-free conditions for 24 h. The aqueous solution was extracted with ethyl acetate (20 mL) and lyophilized under reduced pressure. Dabsyl chloride (15 mM) in acetone (400 μ L) was added to a solution of the amino acid hydrolysate in aqueous NaHCO₃ (400 µL, 0.15 M, pH 9.0).¹⁷ The mixture was heated at 70 °C for 20 min and diluted with EtOH (total 2 mL), centrifuged at 5000 g for 5 min, and the supernatant analyzed by LC-MS. Synthetic (2S,3R)- and (2S,3S)-3-MeGlu standards (1-2 mg) were similarly dabsylated and analyzed.

LC-MS analysis was carried out on a Micromass LCT orthogonal acceleration time-of-flight mass spectrometer, equipped with an electrospray ionization source run in positive mode (scanning from 100 to 1000 m/z) combined with a Waters 2790 separation module. Gradient elution was carried out using a reversed phase C-18 column, 3 μ m 150×4.6 mm (Phenomenex). Solvent A was H₂O with 1% acetonitrile and 0.1% HCO₂H, and solvent B was acetonitrile with 1% H₂O and 0.1% HCO₂H. The flow rate was 1 mL min⁻¹ with a gradient of 20% B and 80% A, increasing to 70% B over 10 min and then increasing to 100% B over the next minute and then held for a further 4 min.

Deletion of glmT from S. coelicolor MT1110. A standard "double cross over" gene replacement strategy3a was used to delete glmT (SCO3215) from the chromosome of the S. coelicolor MT1110 wildtype strain. A delivery plasmid was generated by cloning into E. coli plasmid pMT3000, using host strain E. coli XL1 BLUE, two fragments

A and B that flank the chromosomal sequence to be deleted. The upstream fragment A was generated by PCR using StE8 cosmid DNA²⁷ as the template with the forward primer (5'-AAGAATTCTCGAT-CACCGCGACCCGTGGC, encompassing the nucleotide coordinates 3523243 to 3523263 and an EcoRI site underlined) and reverse primer (5'-AATCTAGATCACGGTGGGTCCGCTCGTCT encompassing the nucleotide coordinates 3525205 to 3525224 and a XbaI site). The downstream fragment B was similarly generated using the same cosmid as the template with the forward primer (5'-AATCTAGATCACG-GTGGGTCCGCTCGTCT, encompassing the nucleotide coordinates 3525840 to 3525860 and a XbaI site) and reverse primer (5'-AAGAAGCTTCAGCATCGTGTCCGGTGCCCC, encompassing the nucleotide coordinates 3527324 to 3527344 and a HinDIII site). The cloned deletion fragment A+B was extracted from the plasmid by restriction digestion, with Bg/II, purified, and then used in a ligation reaction with BamHI restriction digested pMAH vector¹⁸ (via a BamHI: BglII ligation). The ligation mix was in turn used to transform E. coli XL1 BLUE competent cells from which the pMAH vector containing the deletion construct was re-isolated and similarly used to transform E. coli strain ET12567. The resulting nonmethylated plasmid was then used to transform protoplasts of S. coelicolor MT1110. Spores were prepared from hygromycin-resistant colonies, and Hyg-sensitive colonies (putative deletants) were identified following two rounds of nonselective subculturing. Total DNA extraction²⁶ followed by PCR analysis confirmed the loss of ca. 615 bp from within glmT (see Supporting Information).

Recomplementation of S. coelicolor $\Delta glmT$ with 3-Methylglutamates and 3-Methyl-2-oxoglutarate. Small-scale liquid feeding experiments were carried out in SV23a media (7 mL) inoculated with one 5 mm plug from a 3 day R5 agar plate of $\Delta glmT$. The cultures were then incubated at 28 °C, 180 rpm, for 2 days. Filter-sterilized aqueous solutions of substrates 7, 14, and rac-7/14 were then added to give final concentrations of 50, 100, 200, and 300 μ g mL⁻¹ (of each stereoisomer). The substrate 3-methyl-2-oxoglutarate 20 was similarly fed at the following final concentrations of 0.5, 1.06, 1.37, and 2.25 mg mL⁻¹. After a total of 6 days fermentation, the cultures were harvested by centrifugation, and the supernatants were adjusted to pH 2.0, extracted on Varian C-18 Bond Elute SPE cartridges (0.5 g), eluted with MeOH (2 mL), and evaporated in vacuo. Extracts were then analyzed by LC-MS (as above except scanning from 700 to 1700 m/z).

Acknowledgment. This work was supported by the BBSRC through research grants (36/B12126 and BB/C503662) and through studentships to C.M., A.P., and J.J. Biotica Technology Ltd. and GlaxoSmithKline are also acknowledged for CASE awards and support to A.P. and C.M., respectively. We also thank Drs. Barrie Wilkinson and Fiona Flett for helpful advice and discussion, and the EPSRC National Mass Spectrometry Centre (University of Wales, Swansea).

Supporting Information Available: LC-MS data from feeding synthetic precursors along with further results and experimental details. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at http://pubs.acs.org.

JA062960C

⁽²⁶⁾ Kieser, T.; Bibb, M. J.; Buttner, M. J.; Chater, K. F.; Hopwood, D. A. Practical Streptomyces Genetics: A Laboratory Manual; The John Innes Foundation: Norwich, U.K., 2000.

⁽²⁷⁾ Redenbach, M.; Kieser, H. M.; Denapaite, D.; Eicher, A.; Cullumn, J.; Kinashi, H.; Hopwood, D. A. *Mol. Microbiol.* **1996**, *21*, 77–96. Lakey, J. H.; Lea, E. J. A.; Rudd, B. A. M.; Wright, H. M.; Hopwood, D.

⁽²⁸⁾ A. J. Gen. Microbiol. 1983, 129, 3565-3573.