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Visualizing the dynamic metallation state of NDM-1 in bacteria using a reversible fluorescent probe

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ABSTRACT: New Delhi Metallo- β -lactamase (NDM) grants resistance to a broad spectrum of β -lactam antibiotics including last-resort carbapenems and is emerging as a global antibiotic resistance threat. Limited zinc availability adversely impacts the ability of NDM-1 to provide resistance, but a number of clinical variants have emerged that are more resistant to zinc scarcity (*e.g.*, NDM-15). To provide a novel tool to better study metal ion sequestration in host-pathogen interactions, we describe the development of a fluorescent probe that reports on the dynamic metallation state of NDM within *E. coli*. The thiol-containing probe selectively coordinates the dizinc metal cluster of NDM and results in a 17-fold increase in fluorescence intensity. Reversible binding enables competition and time-dependent studies that reveal fluorescence changes used to detect enzyme localization, substrate and inhibitor engagement, and changes to metallation state through the imaging of live *E. coli* using confocal microscopy. NDM-1 is shown to be susceptible to demetallation by intracellular and extracellular metal chelators in a live-cell model of zinc dyshomeostasis, whereas the NDM-15 metallation state is shown to be more resistant to zinc flux. The development of this reversible turn-on fluorescent probe for the metallation state of NDM provides a new tool for monitoring the impact of metal ion sequestration by host defense mechanisms and to detect inhibitor target engagement during the development of therapeutics to counter this resistance determinant.

INTRODUCTION

New Delhi Metallo- β -lactamases (NDM) are an emerging global antibiotic resistance threat with the ability to hydrolyze and thereby inactivate almost all clinically used βlactam drugs, including last-resort carbapenems.1-2 First identified in 2008,3 NDM-1 is a dizinc metalloprotein with broad substrate promiscuity encompassing a wide range of penicillins, cephalosporins, and carbepenems.⁴⁻⁶ The metal cluster is comprised of two zinc ions, with the first (Zn1) coordinated to 3 histidines, the second (Zn2) coordinated to an aspartate, cysteine and histidine, and both zinc ions bridged by a nucleophilic hydroxide ion.7 The binding constants for each zinc site are quite disparate ($K_{d, Zn1} \sim 1 \text{ nM}$; $K_{d, Zn2} \sim 1 \mu \text{M}$) when measured using a soluble mutant of NDM-1 that lacks an N-terminal lipidation sequence.⁸ Characterization of emerging clinical variants of NDM (NDM-1 through NDM-17) revealed that many of these mutations impart enhanced affinity for Zn2 (e.g., NDM-15 $K_{d, Zn2}$ = 120 nM), and likely arose due to the dual

selective pressures of antibiotic treatment and zinc scarcity.⁸⁻¹⁰ Lipidation of full length NDM-1 tethers the enzyme to the inner leaflet of the outer membrane and increases zinc affinity, but this form of NDM-1 still remains notably more susceptible to ampicillin in the presence of metal chelators than NDM variants with increased Zn2 affinity.^{8,} ¹¹ The weak affinity of NDM-1 for Zn2 appears to be a vulnerability likely exploited both by infected hosts through nutritional immunity and by design of β -lactam:chelator co-drug strategies.¹²⁻¹³

At the host-pathogen interface, nutritional immunity can use metal dyshomeostasis to adversely impact bacterial survival through sequestration of zinc, manganese, iron and other metal ions.¹⁴⁻¹⁷ The metallation of other metallo- β -lactamases is dependent on extracellular metal ion identity and concentration.¹⁸ Resistance imparted by NDM^{11, 19} and other multi-drug resistant bacterial systems²⁰⁻²¹ is adversely impacted by chelation of extracellular zinc by the host derived protein calprotectin^{11, 20, 22} or

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Figure 1. (A) Design of reversible NDM-1 fluorescent probes. (B) Structures of probes 1-4. (C) Fluorescence fold turn-on of probes with NDM-1 (1:3 ratio, 10 μ M probe; $\lambda_{ex} = 420$ nm). (D) Fluorescence spectra showing the fluorescence turn-on for probe **4D** (10 μ M) with increasing equivalents of NDM-1. $\lambda_{ex} = 420$ nm. (E) Probes showing the best fluorescence response with NDM-1. All studies were conducted in degassed 50 mM HEPES, 10 μ M ZnSO₄ buffer, pH 7.0 at room temperature using acetonitrile ($\leq 5\%$ v/v) as a cosolvent.

exogenously added small-molecule chelators.²³ However, detecting the metallation state of NDM and its clinical variants during these challenges is not straightforward and usually relies on the use of purified components, or measurements of enzyme activity or bacterial growth. To better study the interplay of nutritional immunity and NDM in antibiotic resistance, we sought to develop a new tool to directly monitor the metallation state of NDM *in situ*.

37 Previously, we studied models of zinc dyshomeostasis in 38 HeLa cells by designing small molecule fluorescent 39 probes that report on the metallation status of intracellu-40 lar carbonic anhydrase.24 Some existing NDM-1 targeted 41 fluorophores consist of fluorogenic substrates²⁵⁻²⁶ or cova-42 lent modifiers,27-28 and represent irreversible "switch on" 43 probes. However, these probes do not necessarily report on metallation and lack the ability to monitor dynamic 44 45 reversible changes. Herein, we developed a reversible flu-46 orescent detector for NDM metallation by coupling an 47 environmentally-sensitive fluorescent reporter to a thiolcontaining moiety similar to those contained in previous-48 ly reported NDM inhibitors. 29-30 31 Thiol-based inhibitors 49 are a well-established inhibitor-type for metallo-β-50 lactamases in which the thiol displaces the nucleophilic 51 hydroxide ion and forms a new bridge between Zn1 and 52 Zn_{2.6} The base of the neighboring substrate-binding β -53 hairpin loop consists of hydrophobic residues, which con-54 trast with the aqueous solvent and provide a much differ-55 ent environment for the bound fluorophore.⁶ Using this 56 approach, we report the development and characteriza-57

tion of a reversible fluorescent probe selective for the holo dizinc form (metalloform) of NDM-1 and demonstrate its use with confocal microscopy to visualize the dynamic metallation states of clinical NDM variants in live bacteria when challenged by zinc sequestration agents as a model of nutritional immunity.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Synthesis and photophysical properties of the synthesized probes. To make a fluorescent probe specific for dizinc NDM-1, we linked the environment-sensitive fluorophore, 4-N,N-dimethylaminopthalimide (4-DMAP)³² with thiol derivatives predicted to bind NDM-1 with micromolar affinity via direct interactions with both Zn²⁺ ions in the enzyme active site (Fig. 1). These small molecule fluorescent probes for NDM-1 (Fig. 1B) were synthesized in multiple from N,Nsteps dimethylaminophthalic anhydride (DMAP).^{24, 33} Here, DMAP was coupled with cysteamine to generate probe 1. Probe 2, using glycine as a precursor, was generated to compare interactions with a non-thiol based metal binding group. To facilitate potential active-site hydrogen bonding interactions, we also synthesized cysteinecontaining probes incorporating both the thiol and carboxylate moieties. Probes 3D and 3L were synthesized by combining D- or L-cysteine precursors with DMAP in refluxing acetic acid. Lastly, the methyl esters of 3D/3L were synthesized by reacting $_{3}D/_{3}L$ with thionyl chloride in methanol to afford 4D/4L in 68% and 50% yields, respectively. In some cases, when disulfide formation was observed via LCMS, the crude mixture was reacted with 3 equivalents of tris(2-carboxyethyl)phosphine (TCEP) to generate the thiol and then purified via reverse phase chromatography. The probes were characterized for purity using ¹H-NMR, ¹³C-NMR, and HRMS. All the probes displayed similar spectroscopic characteristics with λ_{ex} = 417-420 nm and λ_{em} = 575-580 nm in HEPES buffer. The quantum yields and extinction coefficients of probes 1-4L in methanol are provided in Table S1.

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Fluorescence response and inhibition of NDM-1 with 10 probes 3D and 4D. Fluorescence spectroscopy studies of 11 probes 1-4L following incubation with NDM-1 (Fig. 1C) 12 were performed in aqueous buffer supplemented with 10 µM ZnSO₄. Probes 1 and 2 displayed 6-fold and 1.2-fold 13 14 fluorescence turn-on, respectively with NDM-1, indicating that that the thiol group in probe 1 is important for inter-15 action with NDM-1, as has been reported previously.^{1, 34} 16 The cysteine derivatives, 3D and 3L displayed up to 15-17 fold and 11-fold turn-on respectively upon addition of 18 NDM-1. These increases in fluorescence are accompanied 19 by a 33 nm (3D) and 31 nm (3L) hypsochromic shift in λ_{em} 20 from 575 nm (Fig S1). The cysteine methyl ester deriva-21 tives, 4D and 4L, showed 12-fold and 6-fold turn-on in 22 fluorescence with NDM-1, respectively, along with 50 nm 23 and 58 nm hypsochromic shifts in λ_{em} from 575 nm. The 24 differences in turn-on and hypsochromic shifts between 25 the two enantiomers indicates differences in interactions 26 between these isomers and NDM-1. Amongst the 4 27 probes, **4L** showed the highest shift in λ_{em} followed by **4D**, 28 indicating that the ester-based probes experience more 29 hydrophobic interactions with non-polar regions of the 30 NDM-1 active site compared to 3D/3L. The larger turn-on 31 for the D-forms (3D, 4D) indicate differences in binding 32 and fluorescence response, which are attributed to multi-33 ple factors including polarity, electrostatics, and sterics 34 (Fig. S2). Preference of NDM-1 for one isomer over anoth-35 er is precedented. The well-studied NDM-1 inhibitor cap-36 topril shows differences in IC₅₀ values between its isomers 37 with the D-form having a stronger interaction with NDM-38 1 (IC₅₀ D-captopril: 7.9 μM versus L-captopril: 202 μM).⁷ 39 We hypothesize that similar to D-captopril, the thiol group in 3D/4D likely serves as a bridging ligand between 40 41 Zn1 and Zn2 and the carboxylate/ester group facilitates 42 binding through secondary interactions with the active site binding pocket, further stabilizing the probe:NDM-1 43 interaction. We measured an IC₅₀ of 6.3 \pm 0.2 μ M for 44 probe 4D and NDM-1 (Fig S₃). The IC₅₀ value for 4D is 45 similar in magnitude to that of D-captopril and previously 46 reported thiol-containing NDM-1 inhibitors.³¹ Assuming 47 competitive inhibition and fixing the substrate (chro-48 macef)³⁵ concentration (20 μ M; K_m = 0. 66 ± 0.20 μ M³⁵), a 49 K_i of 200 ± 30 nM can be calculated for the 4D:dizinc 50 NDM-1 interaction.³⁶ Despite structural similarity to 4D, 51 the probe **3D** did not fully abrogate activity (Fig S₃), indi-52 cating likely differences in the binding interactions made 53 between NDM-1 and 3D and 4D. 54

To better understand the differences between NDM-1 binding interactions with 3D, 4D, and L-captopril, we conducted computational simulations using a QM/DMD

method³⁷⁻³⁹ (Fig. 2, Fig. S4, and SI). These simulations assessed different potential binding modes between the probes and NDM-1. The calculated binding mode for both 3D and 4D places the thiol group as a bridging Zn1 and Zn2 ligand, similar to that reported with L-captopril from crystal structures.⁶ The lowest energy exemplary structure for bound 4D demonstrates this conformation and is shown in Fig. 2. This pose reflects hydrophobic interactions made between the fluorophore end and a methionine residue (M₃₄) in the substrate-binding β -hairpin loop of NDM-1 which may contribute to the fluorescence response of this probe (Fig. 2A). The calculated probe binding penalty is larger for 3D (10.5 kcal/mol) than 4D (4.2 kcal/mol), though both are smaller than the value calculated for L-captopril (19.5 kcal/mol) based on its crystal structure (PDB ID: 4EXS).⁶ This result predicts that 4D is less readily unbound and solvated than 3D or Lcaptopril, and therefore binds more tightly to the NDM-1 active site, consistent with the lower measured IC₅₀ value. This difference in affinity likely arises from a stronger binding of the probe to the metals due to a better geometry and more favorable active site interactions. Calculated metal angle variances, which are a measure of unfavorable deviations of the Zn coordination from the ideal tetrahedral (Table 1) show that the lowest energy structure for 3D reports a somewhat larger deviation from the ideal zinc tetrahedral geometry at 7.96° versus 7.52° for 4D, contributing to poorer binding of 3D. Assessment of the average metal angle variance across the full ensemble of states shows a larger difference of $10.77 \pm 1.73^{\circ}$ versus 8.32 ± 1.10°, with 3D metal geometry being typically much worse than 4D. Figs. 2B and 2C show hydrogen bonding



Figure 2. Proposed binding modes from QM/DMD simulations for probe 4D with NDM-1 (PDB: 4EXS) with insets showing (A) interactions between the fluorophore end of the probe and hydrophobic M₃₄ in Loop 3. (B) Interaction between N187 and the carbonyl oxygen of the imide ring of the fluorophore. (C) Interaction between K178 and the carbonyl groups in the metal binding group end of the probe.

interactions between asparagine (Asn 187) and lysine (Lys 178) residues and the carbonyl groups within the fluorophore and metal binding group of the probe, respectively. While the length of these hydrogen bonding interactions are similar between the lowest energy structures for 3D

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and **4D**, analysis of the full ensemble of states shows that a direct probe:Lys 178 hydrogen bond occurs about 38% more often in **4D** than **3D**. A more thorough discussion of these analyses and graphs of the full ensembles of states can be found in the SI. Based on *in vitro* spectroscopy, IC_{50} determinations, and computational studies indicating the probes' likely conformations, we decided to employ **4D** for all studies hereafter.

Table 1. Minimum values for binding penalties, metal angle variances, and distances for probes 3D and 4D.

	Minimum values		Distances (Angstroms)			
Probe	Binding penalties (kcal/mol)	Metal angle variance (degrees)	(thiol) S-Znı	(thiol) S-Zn2	(carboxyl) O-NH (K178)	(carbonyl) O-NH (N187)
3D	10.5	7.96	2.3	2.4	1.8	2.5
4D	4.2	7.52	2.3	2.4	1.7	2.0

[†]We employed lowest binding energy mode 2 of the QM/DMD model for these data.

Reversibility and selectivity profile of probe 4D. We next studied the effect of ZnSO₄ and chelators on the fluorescence response between 4D and NDM-1. Addition of up to 50 µM ZnSO4 to 4D and purified NDM-1 in vitro led to an increase in fluorescence turn-on to give an overall ~17-fold response (Fig. 3B). This result indicates that binding of 4D to dizinc NDM-1 give the largest signal and suggests that the estimated $K_{d,Zn2}$ may be impacted by the other ligands present during each experiment (*e.g.*, ampicillin during prior K_{dZn_2} estimates⁸ and **4D** in our studies). Further, this indicates that more exogenous zinc is required under these conditions to fully metallate dizinc NDM-1 since at lower zinc supplementation (10 µM), the fluorescence response was lower. In contrast, incubation of 4D with monozinc-NDM-1, formed via pre-treatment with 4-(2-pyridylazo)resorcinol (PAR),5 led to a 70% reduction in observed fluorescence intensity relative to the same sample without PAR treatment or zinc supplementation, indicating that occupancy of the weaker binding Zn2 site is essential for the large fluorescence increase of 4D upon binding (Fig S₅). Based on these results, we conclude that probe 4D can be employed to specifically detect the holo dizinc-NDM-1 metalloform in vitro.

46 Next, to test the ability of **4D** to detect dynamic changes 47 to NDM-1 metallation state or active-site occupancy, we 48 performed several challenge studies. Treatments of the 49 fluorescent 4D:NDM-1 complex with the competitive in-50 hibitor DL-captopril, the zinc chelator N,N,N',N'-51 *tetrakis*(2-pyridinylmethyl)-1,2-ethanediamine (TPEN), 52 and the inhibitor dipicolinic acid (DPA) (which has an 53 inhibition mechanism that includes both NDM binding 54 and zinc sequestration35 all resulted in a decrease in ob-55 served fluorescence (Fig. 3A and 3B). With DL-captopril 56 (200 μ M), we observed the fluorescence turn-on decrease 57 from the 17-fold maximum to ~13-fold (Fig. 3B). This par-58

tial decrease is consistent with the fact that probe **4D** has a weaker affinity for NDM-1 than does the DL-captopril mixture and only partially displaces 4D from the active site. Treatment with DPA (150 μ M, IC_{50, NDM-1}=1.8 μ M)⁴⁰ resulted in a similar decrease in fluorescence turn-on to 13-fold (Fig. 3B), again consistent with stronger affinity of DPA for NDM-1. Lastly, with the addition of the zinc chelator TPEN (50 μ M) to the 4D:NDM-1 complex (now in 10 μ M ZnSO₄ to not overwhelm the chelator), we observed the fluorescence turn-on decrease from 12-fold to 9.2-fold (Fig. 3B). TPEN (Zn²⁺ K_d = 10⁻¹⁶ M;⁴¹ IC_{50, NDM-1} 0.088 μ M⁴⁰) can cause demetallation of NDM-1, and was expected to result in loss of probe binding, which is observed via a decreased fluorescence turn-on. The lack of complete fluorescence turn-on loss may be due to the inability of TPEN to access the active site when the probe is bound or to slow demetallation kinetics. Reduction in fluorescence following the chelation of zinc suggests that the probe (4D) can report on the availability of the holo dizinc NDM-1 metal site and can be used as either a probe to detect competitive ligand binding or to detect changes in metallation state.

To test probe selectivity, 4D was incubated with other proteins including bovine and human carbonic anhydrase II (bCAII, hCAII), myoglobin, Cu,Zn-Superoxide dismutase (Cu,Zn-SOD), and bovine serum albumin (BSA). A small fluorescence turn-on (4-5-fold) with hCAII and BSA was observed (Fig. 3C). The fluorescence of 4D was quenched when combined with myoglobin. Selectivity studies with another zinc metalloprotein carboxypeptidase A (CPA) at 2 µM concentrations showed no significant increase in fluorescence turn-on between 4D and CPA. BSA is known to interact strongly with probes containing carboxylic groups.42-43 Consistent with this trend, the carboxylate-containing probe 3D gave up to an 85fold increase in fluorescence when bound to BSA (data not shown), but the neutral ester-containing probe 4D only showed a minimal 3-fold increase (Fig. 3C). This panel of representative metalloproteins indicates no obvious off-targets for 4D.

Next, we tested **4D** with purified forms of two clinically significant metallo-*β*-lactamases that share 20-30% sequence identity to NDM-1: VIM-2 and IMP-1. VIM-2 and IMP-1, displayed 6-fold and 3.8-fold fluorescence turn-on, respectively, with probe 4D. Despite low sequence identity, many metallo- β -lactamases have the conserved dizinc metal cluster and similar hydrophobic patches neighboring the active site, explaining the ability of 4D to respond to these metalloenzymes. Differences in the surrounding sequence likely result in environments with less ability to enhance 4D fluorescence than NDM-1. Addition of 50 µM ZnSO₄ to these incubations led to a minor increase in turn-on fluorescence (from 6-to 8-fold) for VIM-2 and a decrease to 3.5-fold for IMP-1. The small increase (or decrease) in fluorescence turn on observed with ZnSO₄ is consistent with the tighter Zn2 affinity of these enzymes.44 45



Figure 3. (A) Schematic showing effect of chelator and inhibitor treatment on 4D/NDM-1 mixtures. (B) Change in fluorescence turn-on of 4D-NDM-1 (1:3, 10 μ M probe) following treatments with ZnSO₄, TPEN, DL-captopril (DL-Cap) and dipicolinic acid (DPA). (C) Fluorescence turn-on for 4D with other proteins (1:3, 10 μ M probe), human carbonic anhydrase II (hCAII), bovine carbonic anhydrase II (bCAII), Cu,Zn-superoxide dismutase (Cu,Zn-SOD), myoglobin (Mb), bovine serum albumin (BSA). (D) Fluorescence turn-on for 4D with different NDM-1 isoforms and two other metallo- β -lactamases, VIM-2 and IMP-1 (1:3, 10 μ M probe) in the presence of 10 μ M ZnSO₄ (light grey) and 50 μ M ZnSO₄ (dark grey).

Many clinical variants of NDM-1 appear to have evolved in response to zinc deprivation⁸⁻¹⁰ We compared four purified NDM variants with differing Zn2 affinity for characterization with **4D**: NDM-1 (reference sequence, $K_{d,Zn2}$ =1 μ M), NDM-4 (M154L, $K_{d,Zn2}$ = 230 nM), NDM-6 (A233V, $K_{d,Zn2}$ = 310 nM), and NDM-15 (M154L, A233V, $K_{d,Zn2}$ = 120 nM).⁸ Each of these mutations are distant from the dizinc cluster and not likely to directly perturb the hydrophobic character of the active site. NDM-4 and NDM-6 showed 12 and 13-fold fluorescence turn-on, and like NDM-1, the turn-on increased with addition of more exogenous zinc. The results of NDM-15 contrast with those of the other variants and yielded the highest fluorescence turn-on of 17-fold (Fig. 3D), which only increased to 17.8-fold upon addition of 50 µM ZnSO4. These results are consistent with the selectivity of probe 4D specifically for the holo dizinc metalloform of NDM, which is more favored in the NDM-15 variant due to increased Zn2 affinity. Overall, these results indicate that fluorescence turn-on of 4D is dependent on the NDM active site being fully metallated, at which point we observe ~ 17-18 fold fluorescence turnon, indicating the usefulness of 4D to monitor the dynamic metallation status of NDM.

Application of 4D in cells and cell lysates. Building on these in vitro studies, we characterized 4D:NDM-1 interactions in live bacteria via confocal microscopy and in cell lysates via in-gel fluorescence staining using native SDS PAGE.²⁴ As seen in Fig 4A, BL21 (DE3) E. coli cells expressing Δ_{35} NDM-1 (see description of this construct below), bearing an N-terminal pelB leader sequence to direct periplasmic sorting, exhibits bright fluorescence staining when incubated with 4D. Conversely, no fluorescence is observed in the absence of IPTG when NDM-1 is not expressed. These results are consistent with the association of 4D turn-on fluorescence with the expression of periplasmically-directed NDM and consistent with the bioavailability of 4D to proteins within the bacteria (presumably the periplasmic space). We observed a single fluorescent band in native SDS PAGE of cell lysates from NDM-1 expressing cells containing 4D (Fig. 4B). (The running buffer for this native-SDS PAGE gel contains 0.01% SDS to aid resolution.) These results indicate that one major protein band is visualized using 4D, and the mobility of this band corresponds with purified NDM, demonstrating selectivity of the probe for NDM in these cells under these conditions.

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Figure 4. (A) Confocal fluorescence images of **4D** treated BL21 cells with the Δ_{35} construct in the presence and absence of IPTG for NDM-1 expression. (B) In-gel fluorescence (probe **4D**) and Coomassie staining of native SDS PAGE run at 120V for 40 mins (4-20% gel) with lysates of BL21 (DE3) cells with the Δ_{35} construct with and without NDM-1 expression. (C) Confocal fluorescence images of BL21 expressing different NDM-1 constructs (Δ_{35} , FL, C26A) stained with **4D** (10 μ M). For all imaging experiments, cells were grown in LB broth at 37°C, supplemented with 0.5 mM IPTG and 50 μ M ZnSO₄ and protein expression induced for 2 hrs. Prior to imaging, the cells were re-suspended in M9 minimal media to obtain a final OD of ~0.3 for imaging. (Scale: 10 μ m; $\lambda_{ex}/\lambda_{em}$: 405/ 486-614).

We note that as a control, we incubated mammalian cells (MCF-7) with **4D** and observed staining throughout the intracellular milieu (Fig. S6) indicating that this probe is not selective for NDM-1 in this context.

Three types of NDM-1 constructs were cloned into a pET-27b host vector after an IPTG-inducible T7 promoter, and assessed for their interactions with 4D in E. coli. . Full length NDM-1 (FL) includes the native N-terminal leader sequence containing the periplasmic signal peptide and a lipidation signal as well as a C-terminal His₆-affinity tag.⁵ This lipidation localizes NDM-1 to the inner leaflet of the outer membrane, placing the NDM catalytic domain within the periplasmic space.1 C26A NDM-1 (C26A) is encoded by the same construct as FL but the Cys targeted for lipidation is mutated to an Ala to prevent modification. This mutation leads to accumulation of water soluble C26A NDM-1 in the periplasmic space.¹¹ Δ35 NDM-1 contains a 35 amino acid N-terminal truncation used to generate a water-soluble form of NDM used in our in vitro studies and is preceded by a pelB leader sequence to direct export to the periplasm followed by a Strep-tag II affinity tag that precedes the NDM sequence.⁵

After treatment of *E. coli* expressing FL NDM-1 with 4D, confocal fluorescence microscopy was used to visualize fluorescence around the cell periphery, consistent with the expected periplasmic localization of the enzyme. This observation is similar to immunostained images of FL NDM-1 previously reported,¹¹ although the use of **4D** now enables dynamic imaging (see below). After long incubation times (> 2h), some cells start displaying punctate fluorescence patterns at the poles of the cells. Similar patterns were reported previously with Cys-reactive covalent fluorescent probes of NDM-1 and were attributed to accumulation of aggregated proteins,27,46 although experiments described below are more consistent with these regions also containing active, folded, dizinc NDM. E. coli cells expressing the C26A NDM-1 construct showed a similar pattern after treatment with 4D. However, the punctate features at the poles are more prominent, again similar to previously reported immunostained images of C26A expressing cells." 4D treatment of the strain expressing Δ_{35} NDM-1 showed even more fluorescence at the poles (Fig. 4C, Fig. S₇), similar to that reported for covalent fluorescent probes of NDM-1.27 Additional control studies (for example staining with the disulfide version of **4D**) are

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included in the SI. In sum, all three NDM constructs produced enzymes that were able to be effectively visualized using the probe **4D**. We chose to focus on Δ_{35} NDM-1 for the remaining experiments because the activities of soluble NDM variants are more sensitive to zinc chelators than those of lipidated NDM, and we sought to monitor the construct with the widest range of accessible metallation states.

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Visualizing the dynamic metallation state of NDM-1 in bacteria. To rule out the possibility that the observed fluorescence turn-on of 4D arises merely from partitioning into hydrophobic regions of unfolded, aggregated proteins at the poles of the bacteria, we tested whether 4D could be displaced by specific NDM-1 substrates and inhibitors. As shown in the schematic (Fig. 5A), we expected that high concentrations of a β -lactam substrate would temporarily displace the probe and lead to a decrease in fluorescence. As the substrate concentration is decreased by enzymatic hydrolysis to product, we expected that **4D** would be able to outcompete and re-bind to the active site of NDM-1, thereby leading to recovery of the fluorescent signal. As predicted, addition of excess cephalexin (1 mM; $K_{\rm m}$ = 5.6 μ M; $k_{\rm cat}/K_{\rm m}$ = 8.4 x 10⁶ M⁻¹s⁻¹)⁵ caused a brief reduction in fluorescence of A35 NDM-1 expressing BL21 (DE3) E. coli, followed by an increasing fluorescence to a value near that preceding addition of the substrate (Fig. 5B, C). Fig. 5C shows representative images of cells in this experiment, showing an obvious increase in intensity at the poles over time where most of the fluorescence is localized. The ability to monitor reversible changes in NDM active-site accessibility highlights a design feature of using a reversible probe rather than some previously employed covalent tagging reagents. These results also support our interpretation that the punctate accumulation of NDM at the poles of the cell contains active, folded, dizinc protein rather than only aggregated misfolded proteins. Although the probe was designed to probe metallation state, we also recognize its ability to validate target engagement by NDM ligands in the cell. To further test this application, we used **4D** as a reporter to monitor target engagement by the inhibitor DL-captopril.

Above, we demonstrated the ability of DL-captopril to displace **4D** from NDM-1 *in vitro*. D-captopril has previously been shown to lower minimum inhibitor concentrations (MIC) of meropenem in NDM-1 expressing cells, so this compound can likely gain access to the periplasmic space.⁴⁷ To demonstrate that **4D** can report on target engagement by this inhibitor in cells, we treated Δ35 NDM-1 expressing BL21 (DE₃) *E. coli* with $_{4}D$ and then with increasing concentrations of DL-captopril. The resulting fluorescence intensity decreased in a dose-dependent manner, indicating this NDM inhibitor can effectively compete with $_{4}D$ for binding.

To apply 4D as a probe of NDM metallation status in *E*. coli, we studied the differential effects of three types of metal chelators on observed fluorescence: DPA, TPEN, and CaEDTA. Treatment by DPA requires approx. 200 µM to achieve a 50% decrease in fluorescence, with the decrease presumably representing a combination of displacing the 4D from the active site and zinc sequestration (see above regarding the inhibition mechanism of DPA). This required concentration is much larger than the IC₅₀ of DPA for purified NDM-1 (0.5 µM),35 indicating that bioavailability of DPA or competition with exogenous metal ions decrease its ability to impact NDM in E. coli. Accordingly, DPA is known to weakly chelate a wide range of divalent metal ions⁴⁸ that are present in cells and imaging media (10^{-2} to 10^{-7} M). We then monitored the effect of the membrane permeable, strong zinc chelator ($K_{d, Zn}(II) = 10^{-16}$ M)⁴¹ TPEN (10 and 50 μ M) over 15-20 mins. With 10 μ M TPEN treatment, we observed a large concentrationdependent change in fluorescence intensity that decreased by ~66% with 10 µM TPEN under the assay conditions (Fig. 5F). TPEN does not resemble NDM-1 inhibitors and likely acts here solely as a zinc sequestration agent. Removal of the weaker affinity Zn2 either through direct interaction or by sequestration of the Zn2 after dissociation would be sufficient to decrease fluorescence by preventing formation of the 4D:NDM complex, which exists in dynamic equilibrium with each of these metalloforms. Finally, we mimicked external zinc sequestration by using an extracellular zinc chelator⁴⁹ calcium EDTA (CaEDTA). Addition of 10 μ M CaEDTA ($K_{d, Zn(II)} = 10^{-9}$ M)⁴⁹ showed no significant decrease in fluorescence (Fig. 5G). However, higher CaEDTA concentrations (50 µM), decreased fluorescence intensity by ~33%. A number of reports have indicated increased susceptibility of NDM-1 expressing E. coli to antibiotics upon treatment with EDTA (for one example ref⁸). However, EDTA can increase outer membrane permeability,⁵⁰ so it is not entirely clear whether the increases in susceptibility are due to zinc sequestration or by increasing periplasmic access. Here, we use the probe 4D to demonstrate that NDM-1 is demetallated by treatment with exogenous zinc chelators, supporting zinc sequestration as the likely mechanism for increased susceptibility.



Figure 5. (A) Schematic showing probe displacement by the substrate and the structure of cephalexin (B) Time-dependent fluorescence intensity after addition of cephalexin (1 mM) to **4D** treated *E. coli* BL21 (DE3) expressing Δ_{35} NDM-1) (C) Example images from 3 min versus 10 min samples used to construct panel B. Effect of DL-captopril (panel D), DPA (panel E), TPEN (panel F) and CaEDTA (panel G) on the fluorescence intensity of BL21 (DE3) cells expressing Δ_{35} NDM-1 after 20 min incubation (5 min with 8µM **4D** followed by 15 mins of treatment with indicated additives). All data were recorded in triplicate and analyzed using two-way ANOVA (* *p* < 0.05, ** *p* < 0.01, *** *p* <0.001). Scale bar 10 µm. $\lambda_{ex}/\lambda_{em}$ **40**5/ **486**-614.

Comparing metalation status between clinical variants of NDM. Since the discovery of NDM in 2008, more than 30 allelic variants of NDM have emerged (accessed Dec 17, 2020).⁵¹ While many of these variants do not show appreciably improved kinetic constants for β -lactam hydrolysis or resistance to inhibitors, a large proportion of the variants have lower $K_{d,Zn2}$ values and an associated increase in thermostability.^{8-10, 52}NDM variants with in-

creased Zn2 affinity can outcompete other variants when grown in environments with low zinc availability.⁸⁻¹⁰ NDM-15 has one of the most improved $K_{d,Zn2}$ values characterized to date.⁸ We compared the ability of probe **4D** to visualize Δ_{35} NDM-1 and the variant Δ_{35} NDM-15 when expressed and exported to the periplasm of *E. coli*. The localization of Δ_{35} NDM-15 was similar to that of Δ_{35} NDM-1, but showed more fluorescence around the cell periphery (Fig. 6A), consistent with less trapping of this variant within unfolded proteins at the poles, which is also consistent with the increased thermostability of this variant.^{8, 10, 52} Despite these similarities, challenges of these strains by zinc chelators showed marked differences. Treatment with TPEN and DPA resulted in markedly smaller changes in fluorescence intensity for NDM-15 than NDM-1 (Fig. 6B). TPEN, a stronger zinc chelator only decreased the fluorescence by ~30% at 50 μ M concentration. DPA treatment had no effect on fluorescence, even at 200 μ M. The probe **4D** clearly indicates that NDM-15 is more resistant to the rapid demetallation observed with NDM-1, even to membrane permeable chelators.



Figure 6. (A) Fluorescence image showing expression and localization of NDM-15 cellular Δ_{35} construct with probe **4D**. (B) Effect of addition of TPEN and DPA to NDM-15 Δ_{35} BL21 cells. All data were recorded in triplicate (2-3 different trials) and two-way ANOVA was performed to determine significance (**** *p* <0.0001). Scale bar 10 µm; $\lambda_{ex}/\lambda_{em}$ 405/486-614.

CONCLUSIONS

We report the development of a novel probe, 4D, to monitor the dynamic metallation state of NDM within E. coli. Coupling of an environment-sensitive fluorophore to a thiol-based NDM inhibitor scaffold resulted in an activesite directed ligand with a K_i of 200 nM that achieves a 17fold fluorescence turn-on upon binding NDM-1. Molecular modeling is consistent with a binding conformation in which the probe's thiolate bridges the two zincs at the active site metal cluster of NDM-1 while the inhibitor's fluorophore makes interactions with hydrophobic residues in the neighboring substrate-binding β -hairpin loop. Binding of the probe is reversible - it can be displaced either by competition with non-fluorescent active-site ligands or by demetallation of NDM, with the resulting loss in fluorescence enabling monitoring of dynamic alterations to the active site metal content. The probe is shown to be selective for NDM using a small panel of potential off-target metalloproteins and by fluorescence imaging of native gel electrophoresis gels of cell lysates. Notably, the probe can be used with confocal microscopy to image dizinc NDM expressed in the E. coli periplasm and can report on dynamic changes in ligand binding during substrate and inhibitor engagement with NDM as well as during demetallation by both cell-permeable and cell-impermeable zinc chelators. In comparison with NDM-1, expression of the clinical variant NDM-15 is

shown to be more resistant to demetallation by zinc chelators than NDM-1, consistent with decreases in antibiotic susceptibility when resistant strains are grown under similar conditions. These experiments establish **4D** as a useful probe for dynamically monitoring NDM metallation state and active-site occupancy in bacteria during the study of metal ion sequestration in host-pathogen interactions, evolution of more resistant enzyme variants, and the development of novel NDM-directed therapeutics to counter the rising threat of carbapenem resistant Enterobacteriaceae. This novel imaging tool can be particularly useful for screening new inhibitors for NDM and ascertaining efficacy of target engagement *in vivo*.

The bigger implications of these results can be seen in the importance of studying metallation status as a function of chelator treatment in vitro and in vivo. By developing an active site binding fluorescent probe for a targeted metalloprotein, that is reversible, selective, and cell permeable, we have been able to dynamically monitor the metallation status of zinc metalloproteins in question as well as their evolution in different systems. Previously, we studied the effects of cellular metal homeostasis perturbations on carbonic anhydrase (CA) in mammalian HeLa cells using a CA-binding fluorescence probe.²⁴ Treatments with 10 µM TPEN and 1 µM zinc pyrithione (ZnPT) to decrease and increase intracellular zinc availability, respectively, did not affect observed fluorescence associated with the fluorescent probe-CA complex. This result was consistent with in vitro studies where TPEN failed to affect the fluorescence of the probe-CA complex. We hypothesize that these results are mainly due to the structure of CA-a narrow and deep active site with high zinc affinity and thus, resistance to zinc demetallation by bulky chelators like TPEN. Even though TPEN's affinity for zinc (~10⁻¹⁶ M) is greater than that of CA (~10⁻¹² M), the rigid, 15 Å deep and ~9-10 Å wide CA active site lined by multiple hydrophobic and hydrophilic moieties likely makes it difficult for TPEN to approach and remove Zn²⁺ from CA. Additionally, the results from cellular studies with ZnPT indicate that CA generally exists in a fully metallated form in the cell. This result sheds light on how nature has chosen to adapt and preserve one of its most essential metalloproteins that plays important roles in respiration, pH balance, and transport of ions in cells. Its 15 isoforms have distinct functions and localizations in the mammalian cell and thus, it is highly likely that this protein has evolved over a long period of time to optimize its cellular functions.

In contrast, **4D** enabled us to observe the dynamic loss of NDM-1 metallation upon cell-impermeable chelator treatment. These experiments illustrate that, unlike CA, the periplasmic NDM-1 metallation state can be significantly affected by fluxes in zinc availability and that clinical variants (like NDM-15) have emerged that are less susceptible to these fluxes. The development of specific, reversible fluorescent probes to report on metallation status provide new tools to better understand the evolution of metalloproteins in response to different selective pressures.

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ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information. The synthetic procedures, materials and methods and supporting figures are included in the supporting information (SI). This material is available free of charge via the Internet at http://pubs.acs.org.

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Author Contributions

All authors have given approval to the final version of the manuscript. R.M., A.H. and D.T. synthesized and characterized the probes. D.D.R., P.W.T, A.C.S and Z.C. contributed towards cell constructs and protein purification. D.D.R. and R.M. contributed to cell growth, lysis and gel electrophoresis studies. R.M. contributed to confocal image acquisition and processing. D.J.R. and A.N.A. contributed computational modeling.

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ABBREVIATIONS

NDM, New Delhi Metallo-β-lactamase; TCEP, *tris*(2carboxyethyl)phosphine; TPEN, N,N,N',N'-*tetrakis*(2pyridinylmethyl)-1,2-ethanediamine; DPA, dipicolinic acid; PAR, 4-(2-pyridylazo)resorcinol; CA, carbonic anhydrase; MIC, minimum inhibitor concentrations; BSA, bovine serum albumin; ZnPT, zinc pyrithione.

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