



Published in final edited form as:

J Chem Inf Model. 2023 July 10; 63(13): 4190–4206. doi:10.1021/acs.jcim.3c00624.

Investigation of the Inhibition Mechanism of Xanthine Oxidoreductase by Oxipurinol: A Computational Study

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Abstract

Xanthine oxidoreductase (XOR) is an enzyme found in various organisms. It converts hypoxanthine to xanthine and urate, which are crucial steps in purine elimination in humans. Elevated uric acid levels can lead to conditions like gout and hyperuricemia. Therefore, there is significant interest in developing drugs that target XOR for treating these conditions and other diseases. Oxipurinol, an analogue of xanthine, is a well-known inhibitor of XOR. Crystallographic studies have revealed that oxipurinol directly binds to the molybdenum cofactor (MoCo) in XOR. However, the precise details of the inhibition mechanism are still unclear, which would be valuable for designing more effective drugs with similar inhibitory functions. In this study, molecular dynamics and quantum mechanics/molecular mechanics calculations are employed to investigate the inhibition mechanism of XOR by oxipurinol. The study examines the structural and dynamic effects of oxipurinol on the pre-catalytic structure of the metabolite-bound system. Our results provide insights on the reaction mechanism catalyzed by the MoCo center in the active site, which aligns well with experimental findings. Furthermore, the results provide insights

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ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acs.jcim.3c00624>.

Additional details of MD, EDA, NCI, and QM/MM (PDF)

Incorporation of the missing residues and construction of the initial model via the MODELER (ZIP)

Initial coordinates and parameters for the studied systems (ZIP)

Selected MD simulation representatives via the *k*-means clustering analysis for XO–OXI systems (ZIP)

Animation of the first principal modes, reaction paths, and the negative imaginary frequency for the approximate TS for each tautomer (ZIP)

Complete contact information is available at:

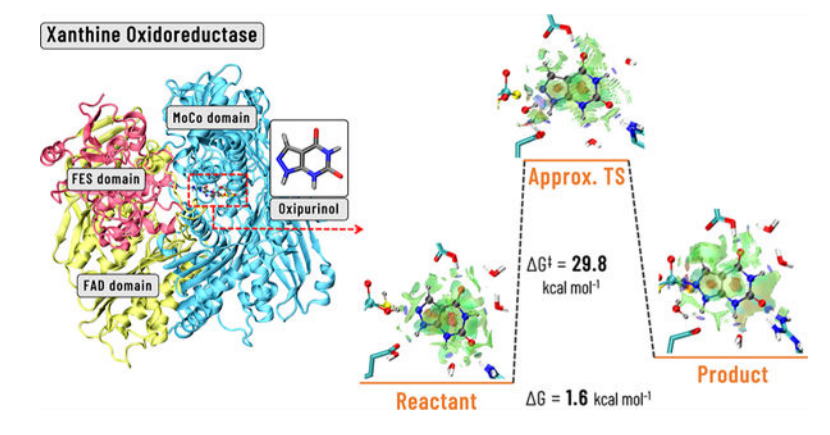
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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

into the residues surrounding the active site and propose an alternative mechanism for developing alternative covalent inhibitors.

Graphical Abstract



1. INTRODUCTION

Xanthine oxidoreductase (XOR) enzymes accelerate the hydroxylation of various substrates containing different functional groups such as aldehyde, purine, and pyrimidine. XOR proteins have been isolated from many organisms.^{1–9} The active form of bovine XOR is a homodimer of molecular mass 290 kDa, where each subunit catalyzes the hydroxylation reaction independently.^{10–12} As shown in Figure 1, each monomer has two iron–sulfur ($\text{Fe}_2 - \text{S}_2$ or FES) clusters, each bridged to four cysteine residues, one flavin adenine dinucleotide coenzyme (FAD), and one molybdopterin cofactor (MoCo). XOR proteins are highly homologous and consist of approximately 1330 amino acids. For example, the sequence identity between the bovine milk (1332 residues) and the human liver enzyme (1333 residues) is about 90%.^{13,14} Proteolysis of mammalian XOR with trypsin and comparative sequence alignment indicated that the enzyme is divided into three fragments. The two FES clusters are located in the N-terminal fragment (20 kDa), the FAD is placed in the intermediate 40 kDa fragment, and the MoCo center is located in the C-terminal fragment with a molecular mass of 85 kDa.¹⁵

XOR is one of the most studied flavoproteins, and the redox reaction catalyzed in the heart of this enzyme is well established.^{16–23} Mechanistically, the hydroxylation reaction occurs at the MoCo center of XOR and involves the reduction of Mo(VI) to Mo(IV).¹⁰ After completing the reduction half-reaction at the MoCo, the electrons transfer via the FES clusters to the FAD cofactor to complete the oxidative half-reaction by the physiological electron acceptor, NAD^+ or O_2 .¹⁵

Unlike other lower mammals such as cats and dogs, higher apes and humans lack a functional uricase gene that oxidizes urate into water-soluble allantoin.^{24,25} Thus, uric acid is the final, irreversible product of purine breakdown by human XOR, which is excreted by the kidneys and intestinal tract, although it can be accumulated in the blood, leading to certain diseases.^{26,27} Several clinical studies showed that hyperuricemia, the aftermath of

elevated levels of uric acid in serum, leads to gout and is associated with other medical conditions such as diabetes, cardiovascular disease, metabolic syndrome, and the formation of kidney stones.^{28–36} Thus, uric acid excretion has to be increased, or its production by XOR needs to be reduced to decrease the blood concentration of uric acid and consequently treat these diseases.^{37–40} The latter approach has been used to develop several drugs for this target.^{40–46}

Allopurinol, an analogue of hypoxanthine, emerged as an effective inhibitor of xanthine oxidase (Scheme 1A, left).^{48–50} Later, Massey et al.^{51,52} realized that the active isomer, which effectively inhibits the XOR, is the hydroxylated form of allopurinol, i.e., oxipurinol (see Scheme 1A, middle). Oxipurinol has been considered the “gold standard” inhibitor of xanthine and has been widely prescribed ever since due to its excellent pharmacokinetic properties. However, the short dissociation half-life of 5 h⁵² often leads to a high-dose prescription, rarely causing drastic side effects such as joint pain,⁵³ severe skin/mucous membrane rash (Steven–Johnson syndrome),^{54,55} acute febrile neutrophilic dermatosis (Sweet’s syndrome),⁵⁶ toxic epidermal necrolysis,^{54,57} fulminant hepatitis,^{58,59} and even renal failure in rare cases.^{60,61} Due to these drawbacks, researchers worldwide have been designing more effective and longer-lasting inhibitors.^{62–75} Among the proposed candidates, BOF-4272,^{66,67,76} febuxostat,^{69,77–79} piraxostat,^{71,80,81} and topiroxostat^{70,74,82–85} have been studied more extensively due to their promising inhibitory effects. Nevertheless, the search for new drugs continues^{86–93} due to the increasing number of gout cases worldwide.^{94–96}

The mechanism of the catalytic hydroxylation of XO’s natural substrates, i.e., xanthine and hypoxanthine, and other purine- or non-purine-based inhibitors, has been extensively investigated by several experimental^{97–105} and computational^{106–115} studies. This mechanism involves a proton transfer from MoCo to E1261, as shown in Scheme 1B. Subsequently, the MoCo’s negatively charged oxygen attacks the substrate’s carbon adjacent to an N atom, with a transfer of “hydrogen and a negative charge” to the sulfido ligand (= S) and a concomitant reduction of the Mo cation from Mo(VI) to Mo(IV).^{105,109,110,116} Afterward, the enzymatic turnover is completed by an incoming water molecule, leading to 2H⁺ and 2e⁻ release during the oxidation half-reaction.^{117–119} It has been reported that the “hydrogen and a negative charge” transfer occurs in the form of a hydride ion.^{10,23,109,110,116}

Quantum mechanics/molecular mechanics (QM/MM) studies by Cerqueira and co-workers¹¹² on the catalytic mechanism of XO with xanthine suggested that a hydrogen atom (H) transfers to the sulfido group, while the second electron is transferred via the oxo-bridge. Hybrid spectroscopic/electronic structure studies by Kirk and co-workers^{120,121} on purine-, non-purine, and aldehyde-based substrates also supported this mechanism. Our previous QM/MM study on the inhibition mechanism of the XO by topiroxostat and its hydroxylated metabolites (drug code: FYX-051) also suggested that the transferred hydrogen to the terminal sulfido at the transition state is nearly neutral and the other electron is transferred via the Mo–O–C bridge.¹²²

As mentioned earlier, it had been envisaged that the allopurinol binds to the MoCo center in competition with xanthine. However, it eventually became clear that the inhibition is more

complicated and continues in a time-dependent manner, in which the allopurinol acts as a suicide inhibitor to produce oxipurinol.^{52,98} Two crystallographic studies by Truglio et al.⁴⁷ and Nishino and co-workers¹²³ indicate that the reduced bovine milk XOR can be covalently bound to oxipurinol via the N8 atom of the substrate, which is a different coordination mode compared with other previously studied inhibitors (see Scheme 1A, middle). Another study by Nishino and co-workers¹²⁴ on the crystal structure of the reduced bovine milk XOR with trihydroxy-FYX-051 (the final hydroxylated metabolite of the topiroxostat family) showed similar coordination, in which the inhibitor is directly coordinated to the Mo atom via the nitrogen atom on the cyano group of the inhibitor (see Scheme 1A, right). Nishino and co-workers concluded that the nitrogen atom of the oxipurinol and the cyano nitrogen of trihydroxy-FYX-051 replace the water-exchangeable hydroxy ligand of the MoCo.

Allopurinol and topiroxostat (FYX-051) are two of the most clinically administered drugs for gout and hyperuricemia. In addition, the last metabolite of each drug forming the Mo–N complex has been identified as the inhibitor form that reduces uric acid levels in the body. Therefore, to develop more potent and efficient drugs with similar inhibition traits, it is crucial to gain a deeper understanding of the catalytic reaction mechanism involved in the last step of each drug. We extensively investigated the reaction mechanism of topiroxostat in our previous study, including its final metabolite.¹²² Herein, we have studied the thermodynamics and kinetics of the inhibition reaction of XO by oxipurinol using classical molecular dynamics (MD) and QM/MM to determine the details of the reaction mechanism for the inhibition of XOR by this drug. The remainder of the paper is as follows; in the next section, we describe the approach for the MD and QM/MM simulations, including the structural, dynamical, binding affinity, and energy decomposition analyses, as well as the reaction path optimization and kinetic studies. Subsequently, the results are presented and discussed, followed by concluding remarks.

2. COMPUTATIONAL METHODS

The initial system was obtained based on the reduced bovine milk xanthine oxidoreductase bound to oxipurinol: PDB ID 3BDJ,¹²³ and all crystal waters were retained (resolution = 2.0 Å). The similarity between the human XOR^{105,125} and the bovine isoform is around 90%. The employed PDB had missing fragments, including residues 1, 2, 165–192, 529–536, and 1318–1325, which comprise about 3% of the entire protein. Comparative modeling of XO's 3D structure and incorporation of the missing residues were performed using MODELER 10.1.^{126,127} Further assessments were made by CASP¹²⁸ and CAMEO¹²⁹ to evaluate the accuracy of the constructed models. Finally, the best-suited modeled structure was selected for further MD simulations (see Figure S1).

The parameterization protocol applied for the FAD and FES cluster have been described previously.¹²² However, the reduced form of MoCo and oxipurinol needed to be parameterized (see Figure S2). The AMBER force-field parameters calculated by Ramos and co-workers¹³⁰ were modified by the MCPB.py module¹³¹ to obtain the parameters for the reduced MoCo (parameters provided in the Supporting Information), in which Mo(VI) is replaced by Mo(IV) and = S ligand is replaced by –SH (termed MoCo in the remainder of the paper). The oxipurinol substrate was parameterized via the R.E.D.

server^{132–134} and ANTECHAMBER.^{135,136} The protonation of all the amino acid residues was assessed via PROPKA.^{137,138} Based on the findings by Truglio et al.⁴⁷ and Nishino and co-workers,^{105,123,124} residues E802 and E1261 (key residues in the active site) are both protonated in the reduced XOR.

The LEaP module¹³⁹ of AMBER21¹⁴⁰ was used to construct the canonical structures of solvated apo-XO and XO–oxipurinol by adding hydrogen atoms, neutralizing the system with chloride counterions, and solvating the neutralized structure in a cubic box of TIP3P¹⁴¹ water, extended at least 12 Å from the protein surface. The interactions between the atoms of the system were described with the protein's ff14SB¹⁴² and general GAFF¹³⁵ force fields.

The pmemd.cuda module¹⁴³ of AMBER21 was utilized for conducting MD simulations. To perform minimization, positional restraints with a force constant of 100 kcal mol⁻¹ Å⁻² were applied to all solute molecules. The minimization process consisted of 5000 cycles using the steepest descent method, followed by 5000 cycles with conjugate gradient. The system was subjected to further relaxation in seven steps, each consisting of 5000 MD steps with a time step of 1 fs with 100 kcal mol⁻¹ Å⁻² restraint on the solute's heavy atoms. This process was conducted under constant pressure conditions, using the Berendsen barostat,¹⁴⁴ with the temperature maintained at 10 K. In the next step, each system was heated to 310 K using Langevin dynamics^{145–147} with a collision frequency of 2 ps⁻¹, followed by 85 ns of NVT equilibration with decreasing restraint (50.0–0.0 kcal mol⁻¹ Å⁻²) on the protein's heavy atoms. Lastly, unrestrained NPT ensemble^{145,147} simulations using a Langevin thermostat and Berendsen barostat^{144,148} were carried out for 500 ns and 1 μs on three replicas, producing a total of 1.5 and 3.0 μs of simulation data for the apo-XO and XO–oxipurinol, respectively. Temperature was held constant at 310 K and pressure at 1.0 bar with a 2 fs time step. Long-range Coulomb interactions were approximated using the smooth particle mesh Ewald method,^{143,149} and the van der Waals long-range interactions were approximated with the default isotropic correction implemented in AMBER using a 10 Å cutoff for non-bonded interactions. All bonds containing hydrogen atoms were treated with SHAKE¹⁵⁰ during the simulations.

The CPPTRAJ¹⁵¹ module of AMBER21 was utilized for analyzing the production dynamics. Normal mode analysis was performed using the ProDy code.¹⁵² Python libraries, namely, NumPy, Matplotlib, Pandas, and statsmodels module, along with the Gnuplot program were used for further data processing and two-dimensional plot graphing. MD simulations of replicates for each system were stable without significant fluctuations (see Figures S3–S11). The generated ensembles were used for clustering analysis. For the clustering analysis, 300,000 frames of the last 400 ns of all three replicates were subjected to a multi-dimensional analysis via the *k*-means algorithm,¹⁵³ as implemented in CPPTRAJ. The clustering dimensions corresponded to essential distances and angles between MoCo, oxipurinol, E802, and E1261. Initially, 30 representatives in ten clusters were obtained to identify the frames closest to each cluster's centroid. Later, eight representatives from the four clusters with the highest population abundance and the best orientations of the mentioned residues were selected for QM/MM optimizations (see Figures S12, S13, and Table S1).

Relative binding energies between oxipurinol and XO for two different tautomers were estimated using the MM/generalized Born surface area (GBSA) approach.^{154–156} Calculations were carried out on the last 100,000 frames of each of the three replicates. A comprehensive explanation of the procedure utilized to compute the binding enthalpies had been previously provided.¹²² The entropic contributions were not included in the calculations due to convergence issues; however, it has been shown that comparing the relative binding affinities of similar ligands via the MM/GB(*PB*)SA techniques can achieve satisfactory accuracy, even if the conformational entropy is neglected.^{122,157–165}

QM/MM calculations were performed using LI-CHEM,^{166,167} to interface Gaussian16¹⁶⁸ (for the QM region) and TINKER¹⁶⁹ (for the MM environment). The QM region was modeled using the ω B97X-D/def2-SVP^{170,171} level of theory, while the MM environment was described using the AMBER ff14SB and TIP3P water force fields. The QM subsystem consists of 145 atoms, including the MoCo, oxipurinol, Q767, E802, R880, F914, F1009, E1261, and three water molecules that are placed within 3 Å of the substrate (see Figure S14). The remaining residues and solvent molecules within a 27 Å radius from the Mo center were described using the ff14SB and TIP3P potentials, respectively, while the rest were kept frozen. The reduced MoCo was tested for various multiplicities. Our calculations indicate that the most stable state corresponds to a singlet multiplicity, in agreement with Cerqueira and co-workers¹¹² and our previous study.¹²²

After optimizing the chosen representatives, the reactant with the lowest QM/MM optimization energy was deemed the most stable, and the product was designed based on that structure. The resulting product structure was then subjected to QM/MM calculations using the same level of theory. The potential energy surface of the reaction path between the optimized reactant and product was obtained using the quadratic string method (QSM) combined with the restrained-MM optimization approach implemented in LI-CHEM.¹⁶⁷ Detailed explanations of the QM/MM calculation protocols can be found in our previous study.¹²²

The reactants with the lowest QM/MM optimization energies were employed to calculate QM/MM interaction energies ($IE_{QM/MM}$) between the oxipurinol and XO via the following approach:¹⁷²

$$IE_{QM/MM} = \left[QM^{\text{active site} + \text{OXI}} - (QM^{\text{active site}} + QM^{\text{OXI}}) \right] + \left[MM^{\text{OX} - \text{OXI}} - MM^{\text{apoXO}} \right] \quad (1)$$

The terms $QM^{\text{active site} + \text{OXI}}$, $QM^{\text{active site}}$, and QM^{OXI} correspond to the single-point energies of the QM subsystem, the active site only (MoCo, Q767, E802, R880, F914, F1009, E1261, and 3H₂O), and the tautomer of interest, respectively. The terms $MM^{\text{OX} - \text{OXI}}$ and MM^{apoXO} correspond to the MM energies of the XO–OXI and apo-XO, respectively. The basis set superposition error (BSSE) correction is included in the $IE_{QM/MM}$ calculations using the counterpoise approach.^{173,174}

The critical points were approximated by using the QM/MM-optimized structures and obtaining the frequencies and thermochemistry using only the electrostatically embedded system. These structures were subsequently used for vibrational analysis via Gaussian16¹⁶⁸ at the same levels of theory to calculate the approximate activation Gibbs free energies (ΔG^\ddagger). One negative imaginary frequency was observed for the TS corresponding to the motion along the reaction coordinate (see animations in the Supporting Information). The Eyringpy^{175,176} code was used to calculate the rate constant (k_{cat}) at 310 K based on the transition state theory (TST)^{177,178} as

$$k = \sigma \kappa \frac{k_B T}{h} e^{-(\Delta G^\ddagger)/RT} \quad (2)$$

where k_B and h are the Boltzmann and Planck constants, ΔG^\ddagger is the Gibbs free energy of activation of the studied reaction, σ is the reaction symmetry number which represents reaction path degeneracy, the number of different but equivalent reaction pathways that can be possible, and κ accounts for tunneling corrections which were calculated using the Eckart barrier approach¹⁷⁹ as implemented in the Eyringpy code.

Non-covalent index (NCI) analysis was performed to investigate non-covalent interaction (NCI) regions between oxipurinol and the binding pocket residues using the promolecular density method,¹⁸⁰ as implemented in the Multiwfn V. 3.8 program.¹⁸¹ 5000 random snapshots from the last 100 ns of MD for the first replicate of each tautomer were used to analyze the electron density and its gradient norm during the dynamics, which allowed for the study of the averaged NCI (aNCI) regions. In addition, the QM/MM-optimized structures of the reactant, product, and the approximate TS were used to generate wavefunctions and calculate grid data of the reduced density gradient (RDG), which allowed for the study of the NCIs during the catalytic reaction. NCI surfaces were generated using the RGB color code to illustrate the strength of the interactions. Green and blue surfaces represented strong and weak interactions, such as hydrogen bonds and van der Waals (vdW) forces, while any repulsive interactions were depicted in red. The NCI surfaces were visualized with an isovalue of 0.4 a.u. and a color scale of $-0.05 \text{ a.u.} < \text{sign}(\lambda_2)\rho < 0.05 \text{ a.u.}$

The QM/MM-optimized coordinates of the critical structures were also used to obtain all the wave functions for the electron localization function (ELF) analysis.¹⁸² The ELF generates a scalar field that is both continuous and differentiable.^{182,183} This field can be divided into basins, providing information on the classification of electron pairs within the system. A common notation is used to represent the basins associated with valence electrons, $V()$, which are associated with electron pairs belonging to one atom (monosynaptic basins, e.g., lone pairs), two atoms (disynaptic basins, e.g., covalent bonds), or three atoms (trisynaptic basins). The basin analysis^{184,185} feature of Multiwfn V. 3.8¹⁸¹ was employed to carry out the ELF calculations. The basin illustration was performed using a cubic grid of 200 a.u. with an isovalue of 0.8 a.u. and medium-quality grid with a spacing of 0.10 Bohr. Gaussian16¹⁶⁸ was used to generate the wave functions for the NCI and ELF calculations with Multiwfn and the cube files of the electrostatic potential (ESP) visualized with visual MD (VMD).^{181,186} ESP charges were calculated using the Merz–Singh–Kollman scheme^{187,188} implemented in Gaussian16.

Energy decomposition analysis (EDA) calculates the averaged energies of the non-bonded intermolecular interactions as a function of a reference residue(s). The nature of the intermolecular interactions between the protein and any fragment(s) of interest can be studied by this technique, which can be used to qualitatively assess the catalytic roles of individual amino acid residues.^{122,172,189} Herein, an in-house Fortran90-based EDA code^{190–192} was employed to study the intermolecular effects of the XO on the dynamics and kinetics of the inhibition by oxipurinol. To study the oxipurinol-bound pre-catalytic structure, EDA was run on 25,000 randomly selected snapshots of the 3 μ s of the MD simulations from all three replicates. The total difference in the non-bonded intermolecular interaction energy between the MoCo and the protein environment during the MD simulation, ΔE_{NB} , can be calculated as

$$\Delta E_{\text{NB}} = \langle E_{\text{NB}} \rangle_{\text{XO-OXI}} - \langle E_{\text{NB}} \rangle_{\text{apo-XO}} \quad (3)$$

where $\langle E_{\text{NB}} \rangle_{\text{XO-OXI}}$ and $\langle E_{\text{NB}} \rangle_{\text{apo-XO}}$ represent the average of non-bonded intermolecular interactions between the MoCo and each residue of the MM environment for the XO–oxipurinol and the apo-XO, respectively.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1. Dynamics of the Pre-Catalytic Inhibition.

Xanthine and oxipurinol (also known as alloxanthine) are structurally related purine analogues that differ in the nature of their five-membered heterocyclic rings. Xanthine contains an imidazole ring, while oxipurinol features a pyrazole ring (see Scheme 1). Like xanthine, oxipurinol can exist as a mixture of tautomers (see Figure S15). Several reports on the chemical synthesis of oxipurinol have demonstrated that tautomer-1 represents the predominant tautomeric form of this compound.^{48,193–198} In vitro and in vivo studies have also suggested that tautomer-1 is the functional derivative of oxipurinol with biological activity.^{199–204} Moreover, Truglio et al.⁴⁷ suggested that the N9 nitrogen of oxipurinol (see Scheme 1A, middle) in their XDH–oxipurinol-inhibited crystal structure from *Rhodobacter capsulatus* (PDB ID: 1JRP) presumably acts as NH and forms a hydrogen bond to E730 (identical to E1261 in bovine XO). Hernández et al.²⁰⁵ computationally showed that among the probable tautomers of oxipurinol, shown in Figure S15, di-keto tautomers (tautomers 1 and 2) are favorable in the gas phase and aqueous solution. In contrast, the keto–enol (tautomers 3–6) and di-enol (tautomers 7 and 8) forms are very unstable and largely disfavored. However, their results suggest that tautomer-1 is less favorable than tautomer-2 by ~ 3 kcal mol⁻¹.

It should be noted that experimental studies on allopurinol also show that the N9-protonated tautomer, shown in Scheme 1A-left, is the predominant form of neutral allopurinol.^{206–208} In addition, another computational study by Hernandez et al.¹⁹⁴ on allopurinol showed that the N9-protonated tautomer of this inhibitor is the predominant form in both the gas phase and aqueous solution with the population of 99 and 88%, respectively. Given the collective findings, it is more likely that tautomer-1 is the principal inhibitor of xanthine oxidoreductase.

In our previous study on FYX-051 metabolites, we noticed that the incoming inhibitor exerts proximal and distal impacts on the movements of the enzyme.¹²² It is observed in both the previous and the current study that the movements of the FES and FAD domains are non-correlated in the apo-XO (results are obtained from two different crystal structures), while the MoCo domain's movements are anti-correlated (see Figure 2A). Moreover, in our previous study, the inhibited enzyme's movements underwent significant changes following the binding of the inhibitor. Specifically, the MoCo domain displayed mostly correlated motions, whereas the other two domains exhibited varying movements in response to each metabolite. Herein, we aimed to investigate whether oxipurinol exhibits comparable effects on the enzyme movements and if there are any similarities between this inhibitor and trihydroxy-FYX-051, which has a similar mode of complexation to XO. Interestingly, similar to trihydroxy-FYX-051, the binding of oxipurinol results in a mostly non-correlated FES domain and completely anti-correlated FAD. Moreover, the residues of the MoCo domain remain correlated with MoCo, except for the areas adjacent to the FAD domain, which become non-correlated (Figure 2A). Taken together, our results indicate that ligand binding considerably affects the dynamics of the MoCo domain.

Root-mean-squared deviations (RMSDs) and atomic fluctuations for all the systems depicted in Figures S3–S8 show that significant movements primarily occur in the flexible loops of the protein's surface or on the modeled missing residues. The modeled residues were excluded from the principal component analysis (PCA); however, it is still evident that the largest PCA fluctuations are mainly centered around the removed residues and the flexible loops. The PCA results in Figures S3–S8 also indicate that the first two normal modes account for over 90% of the systems' movement modes in all structures. As the first normal mode makes up more than 75% of the movement modes for all structures, it was utilized to interpret the systems (refer to the animations in the Supporting Information). Figure 2A and the NMA animations in the Supporting Information also reveal that the directionality of the first normal mode's movements in the FES and FAD domains of apo-XO and XO–OXI are similar. Interestingly, the movements of the FES and FAD domains are smaller in magnitude for XO–OXI compared with that for apo-XO (see animations in the Supporting Information). The motion of the MoCo domain is similar between apo-XO and XO–OXI in some regions. Similar to the other two domains, the MoCo domain of apo-XO has larger movements than the inhibited-XO. Combining our observations with those of our previous investigation,¹²² we suggest that oxipurinol, similar to trihydroxy-FYX-051, significantly enhances the stability of the MoCo domain.

Another helpful method for assessing the role of the enzyme's residues in the MoCo active site is to examine intermolecular interactions via an EDA. Here, we focused on a comparative investigation of the impact on the MoCo between the apo and inhibited structure to see whether oxipurinol stabilizes the MoCo domain. The difference of the non-bonded intermolecular interactions (ΔE_{NB}) between the protein and the MoCo was calculated with respect to apo-XO as the reference to study the intermolecular effects of oxipurinol (see Table S2). In addition, Figure 2B provides a three-dimensional illustration of the residues of the first, second, and third coordination shells that exhibit significant non-bonded interactions with the MoCo.

The calculated value of the sum of the individual calculated non-bonded interactions, $\sum \Delta E_{\text{NB}} \sim -174 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$, suggests a strong attractive interaction between the protein and oxipurinol. Moreover, Table S2 shows that in addition to the MoCo domain's residues, several residues in the FES domain show significant stabilizing/destabilizing contributions to ΔE_{NB} . On the other hand, the FAD domain residues do not appear to have any substantial intermolecular interaction changes.

In our previous study, the stabilizing/destabilizing effects of several proximal and distal residues were observed during the inhibition reaction of XO by topiroxostat.¹²² Besides, exhaustive studies on other metalloenzymes, such as human TET2 enzyme²⁰⁹ and human histone demethylase,²¹⁰ have also identified the catalytic role of second coordination sphere (SCS) and long-range (LR) residues. Here, we were interested to see which residues around the active site considerably contribute to the reaction center of the oxipurinol-bound system consisting of MoCo, oxipurinol, and E1261—which are directly involved in the inhibition reaction. Calculated values of E_{NB} in Table S3 reveal several positively and negatively charged residues with $|E_{\text{NB}}| \geq 30 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$, which respectively stabilize or destabilize the active site during the MD simulation. Figure 3A illustrates residues with significant intermolecular interactions that are located in the active site's first, second, and third coordination shells. As can be seen, several residues such as R829, R839, R871, R880, R899, K902, R912, K1045, K1052, S1080, R1134, K1250, and K1251 display significant stabilizing interactions with the active site, while negatively charged residues, D740, D745, D872, E879, E1037, D1084, E1092, E1196, E1209, and E1210, contribute to destabilization. Oxipurinol is predominantly surrounded by stabilizing contributors, among which R839 and R880 show substantial stabilizing effects ($E_{\text{NB}} \sim -61$ and $-80 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$, respectively). In contrast, MoCo is mostly surrounded by destabilizing residues with only two residues, R912 and K1045, providing significantly large stabilizing interactions ($E_{\text{NB}} \sim -143$ and $-105 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$, respectively).

A plot of the aNCIs along the dynamics simulation is shown in Figure 3B, illustrating the residues of the binding pocket having interacting surfaces with oxipurinol. Several binding pocket residues, including E802, R880, A910, F914, F1005, F1009, and E1261, show attractive interactions (in the NCI scale) with the inhibitor. Interestingly, in addition to R880 that exhibited a substantial stabilizing effect in our EDA analysis, all the other residues seen in the aNCI also have stabilizing contribution to the active site, especially E802 and F914 ($E_{\text{NB}} \sim -12$ and $-11 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$, respectively). Taken together with the EDA, these results are consistent with an overall stabilizing environment of the protein in the binding pocket, promoting the binding of XO–OXI. Moreover, as shown in Figure 3A and Table S3, unprotonated aspartate and glutamate residues have destabilizing contributions to the MoCo active site. The stabilizing effect of the protonated E802 and its NCI with the inhibitor, which were also observed in our previous study on topiroxostat, agrees with the experimental results assuming the priority of protonated E802 over the negatively charged glutamate.^{47,105,123,124}

As discussed in the beginning of this section, the di-keto isomer of oxipurinol is more stable than the other forms. Many studies have also supported that tautomer-1 (Figure S15)

is the primary product of synthesis and, thus, the active form of oxipurinol in inhibiting XOR. However, a computational study by Hernández et al.²⁰⁵ has suggested tautomer-2 as a possible alternative. Therefore, this tautomeric form has also been studied here as a theoretically probable inhibitor, termed OXI^{T-2}, for the rest of the paper.

The binding affinities (ΔH_{bind}) between the inhibitor and the enzyme during the dynamics of the pre-catalytic reaction were calculated via the MM/GBSA approach (see Table S4). Calculated ΔH_{bind} values for the major (OXI) and the theoretical tautomer (OXI^{T-2}) are -24.5 and -25.8 kcal mol⁻¹, respectively, showing a slightly greater binding affinity for the later one. The QM/MM interaction energies ($IE_{\text{QM/MM}}$) between the inhibitor and the XO were also studied, which are -120.0 and -124.2 kcal mol⁻¹, respectively, showing a similar trend as the binding affinities. The components of the QM/MM interaction energies (Table S5, E_{QM} and E_{MM} of eq 1) suggest that despite the slight difference between $IE_{\text{QM/MM}}$ values, the differences between E_{QM} and E_{MM} for the tautomers are significant. The values of E_{QM} and E_{MM} for the major tautomer are similar (-58.9 and -61.1 kcal mol⁻¹, respectively), implying that its interaction with the enzyme is moderately stabilized by the active site (E_{QM}) and the solvated enzyme (E_{MM}). On the other hand, the E_{QM} value is more than twice that of E_{MM} for XO and the theoretical tautomer (-84.2 and -40.0 kcal mol⁻¹, respectively), suggesting that its interaction is mainly stabilized by the MoCo active site.

Taken together, the results of the binding affinities and interaction energies of these two forms propose the probability of a higher propensity of the theoretical tautomer to interact with the enzyme if presented in the active site.

3.2. Catalytic Inhibition Reaction.

Several studies have concluded that oxipurinol coordinates to the reduced MoCo during the enzymatic turnover.^{52,124,211} However, extensive investigations by Spector and co-workers on both bovine and human xanthine oxidase provided particularly strong evidence that the reduced enzyme is susceptible to the inhibition by oxipurinol.^{101,202,212,213} They realized that the enzyme undergoes inactivation when electron donors like xanthine and allopurinol substrates or the chemical reductant dithionite are present. In contrast, there is no inactivation in the absence of electron donors or when an artificial electron acceptor capable of directly re-oxidizing the MoCo is present. Moreover, Nishino and co-workers proposed that the XO–OXI complexation occurs in the presence of a proton.¹²⁴ Given that the XO–OXI complexation takes place during enzymatic turnover and a proton is required at the reaction center, which can be provided by E1261, a possible mechanism associated with this process, as depicted in Scheme 2, was investigated.

The proposed mechanism for oxipurinol is similar to the suggested mechanism for trihydroxy-FYX-051, in which the water-exchangeable hydroxyl ligand is replaced by the nitrogen atom to form a stable complex.¹²² However, the pathway for the MoCo–OXI complexation involves the protonation of hydroxide ion (OH⁻) by E1261, followed by the release of a water molecule (see animation in the Supporting Information). The resulting complex dissociates by a replacement of oxipurinol by an incoming water molecule,

resulting in the re-oxidation of the Mo to its original oxidation state, fulfilling the enzymatic turnover.

The results in Figure 4A suggest that the reaction is slightly endergonic ($\Delta E_{\text{react}} = 1.0 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ and $\Delta G_{\text{react}} = 1.6 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$). As shown in Figure 4C, the creation of $V(\text{Mo}, \text{N}8)$ and $V(\text{O}, \text{H}\epsilon)$ ELF disynaptic basins in the product (bead 15) with electron populations of $3.1 e^-$ and $1.8 e^-$, respectively, implies the formation of the MoCo–oxipurinol complex and a water molecule at this point (refer to Table S6 for the detailed values). The calculated energy barrier associated with the approximate TS (corresponding to bead 9) is $27.6(29.8) \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$. At this point of the reaction mechanism, the Mo–OH bond cleaves, while the proton transfers from E1261 to the cleaving hydroxyl ($\text{Mo}\cdots\text{OH}\cdots\text{H}\cdots\text{Glu}$), and the Mo \cdots N8 bond forms between the MoCo and oxipurinol. The creation of ELF trisynaptic basins $V(\text{Mo}, \text{N}8, \text{C})$, $V(\text{Mo}, \text{O}, \text{H})$, and $V(\text{O}, \text{H}\epsilon, \text{O}\epsilon 1)$ with electron populations of $2.7 e^-$, $3.1 e^-$, and $1.7 e^-$ at bead 9 also suggest the formation of the approximate TS at this point.

The QM/MM-optimized geometries of the key structures involved in the complexation reaction shown in Figure 4B provide calculated values for the product's O–Mo–N angle and Mo–N distance, which are 96° and 2.32 \AA , respectively. These values are consistent with the experimental data from the referenced crystal structure with the reported values of 95° and 2.28 \AA (see Scheme 1, middle). Moreover, the RMSD of the active site's atoms and the RMSD of the protein's backbone atoms with respect to the crystal structure are 1.3 and 3.1 \AA , respectively. These distances, coupled with the blue surfaces of the NCIs in Figure 4A, suggest that oxipurinol maintains hydrogen bonds with N768, R880, E1261, and two water molecules along the catalytic reaction pathway. In addition, the blue NCI surfaces between the N8 nitrogen of oxipurinol and the hydrogen of MoCo's hydroxyl ligand in Figure 4A show a hydrogen bond between them. The presence of a hydrogen bond, combined with the cleavage of the hydroxyl ligand from the MoCo, may account for the relatively high barrier energy observed in both experiments and our calculations.

A larger view of the NCIs is provided in Figure S16 showing the NCIs between the binding pocket residues with the reactant and product. This figure highlights the important role of some residues such as E802, L873, R880, A910, F914, F1009, A1078, A1079, and E1261. In conjunction with the previous results of aNCI and EDA, residues R839, K902, F1005, S1080, and K1251 also play essential roles in the precatalytic and catalytic inhibition of XO by oxipurinol.

By examining the non-bonded contributions (EDA and NCI) to the MoCo's active site and comparing them to experimental mutagenesis studies on XO function, we can gain additional insights into the residues that significantly affect XO inhibition. As listed in Table S7, several studies have demonstrated that mutagenesis of E802,^{105,214,215} R880,^{105,216–219} and E1261,^{105,217} which show substantial non-bonded interactions in our analyses, lead to complete loss of XO function. Our EDA and NCI results also show stabilizing effects by proximal residues such as G799, R912, and A1079, whose mutagenesis leads to partial or total loss of XO function.^{218,220} Similar experimental effects were seen upon mutation of distal residues including R149,²²¹ H884,²¹⁸ and N887,²¹⁸ which are observed to have stabilizing effects from our present results. Moreover, several clinical trials on human

cases showed the substantial impact of residues R228,²²² R606,²²³ K721,²²⁴ R824,²¹⁹ and R1282²²⁵ on lowering the XO activity (hypouricemia). Our EDA results show significant stabilizing effects of these residues on the active site. EDA results also suggest the destabilizing effects of residues I702, H1220, and T909 on the active site, suggesting that their mutation might promote the function of XO. Interestingly, clinical studies demonstrate the increasing activity of XO upon the mutation of these residues.^{221,223} Overall, our results are consistent with experimental mutagenesis studies, and the predicted effects of residues within the binding pocket could be considered for developing analogues of oxipurinol with improved inhibitory effects.

The experimental activation energy values for the XO inactivation ($\Delta G_{\text{inact}}^{\ddagger}$) by oxipurinol are 31 and 28 kcal mol⁻¹ for human and bovine xanthine oxidase, respectively,¹⁰¹ which are in good agreement with our calculated barrier free energy in Figure 4A ($\Delta G_{\text{inact}}^{\ddagger} = 29.8$ kcal mol⁻¹). The corresponding corrected rate constant (k_{cat}) calculated via the results of the vibrational analysis is 3.4×10^{-9} s⁻¹.

Several studies have indicated that oxipurinol-inactivated XO can be reactivated at varying rates. The slowest reactivation rate is through spontaneous means.^{50,52} Cycling of the enzyme in the presence of the xanthine substrate leads to an intermediate reactivation rate,²¹² while re-oxidizing the reduced MoCo via artificial electron acceptors results in a quick reactivation.^{52,226,227} The experimental activation energy values for the spontaneous reactivation process ($\Delta G_{\text{react}}^{\ddagger}$) are 25 and 27 kcal mol⁻¹ for human and bovine XO, respectively.¹⁰¹ These values are in good agreement with our calculated backward barrier corresponding to 26.6(28.2) kcal mol⁻¹. Notably, the calculated backward barrier ($\Delta E_{\text{backward}}^{\ddagger}$) for trihydroxy-FYX-051 in our previous study¹²² was 32.6 kcal mol⁻¹, which is ~6–7 kcal mol⁻¹ larger than that calculated for oxipurinol. This difference in backward barriers may (at least partially) help explain the observed differences in dissociation half-lives ($t_{1/2}$) between oxipurinol (~5 h)⁵² and trihydroxy-FYX-051 (~20.4 to 72 h).⁷⁴

As mentioned before, OXI^{Tn-2} was also considered a possible theoretical alternative for the biologically active tautomer. The proposed mechanism for this form and the corresponding reaction path study are provided in Section 13 of the Supporting Information (Figures S17–S20). Interestingly, the inhibition reaction by this form, which involves a spontaneous proton transfer from the tautomer to the hydroxyl ligand of MoCo, is -10.7 kcal mol⁻¹, and the energy barrier is 14.8 kcal mol⁻¹. These results suggest that the catalytic inhibition might be more favorable for this tautomer if this molecule (or a similar analogue) could be synthesized. This might suggest possible routes for designing new analogues of oxipurinol with a similar coordination mode to this tautomeric form.

Taken together, our results align with experimental reports for the functional derivative of oxipurinol that possesses XO-inhibiting activity. However, the thermodynamics and kinetics of the catalytic reactions propose that cleavage of the water ligand might be more favorable than the hydroxy ligand. This suggests that similar candidates with accessible proton (e.g., $-\text{NH}$ instead of $-\text{N}$) might facilitate the ligand exchange and consequently the XO–inhibitor complexation. Furthermore, the observation of stabilizing the active site's environment

upon the binding of oxipurinol underscores the important contribution of multiple residues surrounding the binding cavity as non-covalent interacting partners. In designing new candidate inhibitors, these amino acids can serve as targets for NCIs.

4. CONCLUSIONS

Oxipurinol, the active metabolite of allopurinol, is widely used to treat gout and hyperuricemia as an effective xanthine oxidase inhibitor. However, its inhibition mechanism has not been studied at the atomic level. The MD results show proximal stabilizing effects of the incoming inhibitors on the active site's environment and distal influences on the MoCo, FES, and FAD domains. EDA results suggest several residues located in the first, second, and third coordination shells of the active site with substantial stabilizing effects such as E802, R880, R912, F914, S1080, and K1045. In addition, oxipurinol forms NCIs with E802, L873, R880, A910, F914, F1005, F1009, A1078, A1079, and E1261 during the pre-catalytic and catalytic stages of the inhibition. A probable inhibition mechanism was investigated based on the insights provided by previous experimental studies, which turned out to be thermodynamically feasible compared to the experimental observations. The product state for XO–OXI is endergonic with a calculated reaction energy of 1.0 kcal mol⁻¹. The proximity between the experimental activation energy for the enzyme inactivation by oxipurinol ($\Delta G_{\text{inact}}^{\ddagger} = 28$ kcal mol⁻¹ for bovine XO) with the calculated energy barrier ($\Delta G^{\ddagger} \sim 29.8$ kcal mol⁻¹) suggests that our proposed mechanism may be kinetically feasible. Moreover, our calculated backward barrier is 26.6 kcal mol⁻¹, consistent with the experimental activation energy values for the spontaneous reactivation process ($\Delta G_{\text{react}}^{\ddagger} = 27$ kcal mol⁻¹ for bovine XO). Calculated intermolecular interaction results underscore the important role of several residues during the enzyme inhibition process, including E802, L873, R880, A910, F914, F1005, F1009, A1078, A1079, S1080, and E1261, which could be considered as significantly interacting residues that may be exploited for the future development of more potent oxipurinol analogues.

Supplementary Material

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This study is funded by NIH Grant No. R01GM108583. MD simulations for this project were performed on the Ganymede2 and Titan HPC clusters at the University of Texas at Dallas' Cyberinfrastructure and Research Services. The QM/MM calculations were implemented on the CASCaM CRUNTCh3 and CRUNTCh4 HPC clusters at the University of North Texas' Chemistry Department, partially funded by the NSF Grant Nos. CHE1531468 and OAC-2117247. The authors thank Professors Filippo Romiti and Michael Biewer for insightful discussions.

Data Availability Statement

All simulations and analyses employed via third-party software are described and referenced in the Computational Methods section. The EDA and LICHEM software programs are available at the Cisneros Research Group GitHub: <https://github.com/CisnerosResearch/AMBER-EDA> and <https://github.com/CisnerosResearch/LICHEM>.

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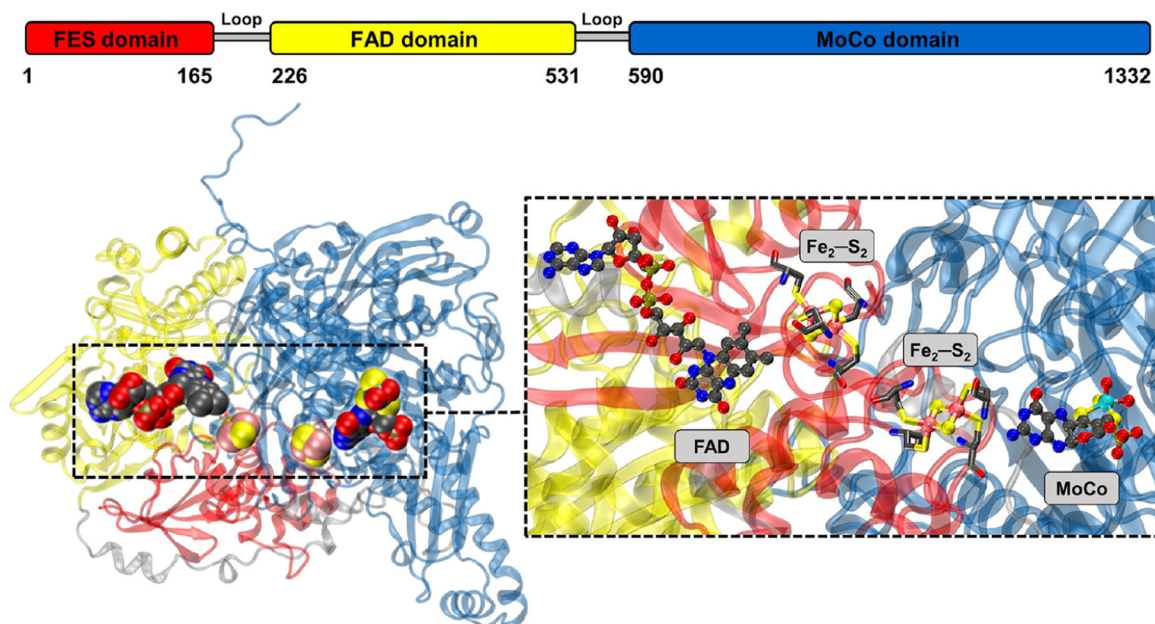


Figure 1.

One subunit of the bovine xanthine oxidoreductase homodimer (PDB ID: 1JRO).⁴⁷ The close-up represents the XOR's active regions in the redox reaction that are almost linearly positioned in the order of MoCo, $\text{Fe}_2 - \text{S}_2$, and FAD. Hydrogen atoms are not presented for more clarity, and four cysteine residues bound to the $\text{Fe}_2 - \text{S}_2$ cluster's irons are shown in the sticks.

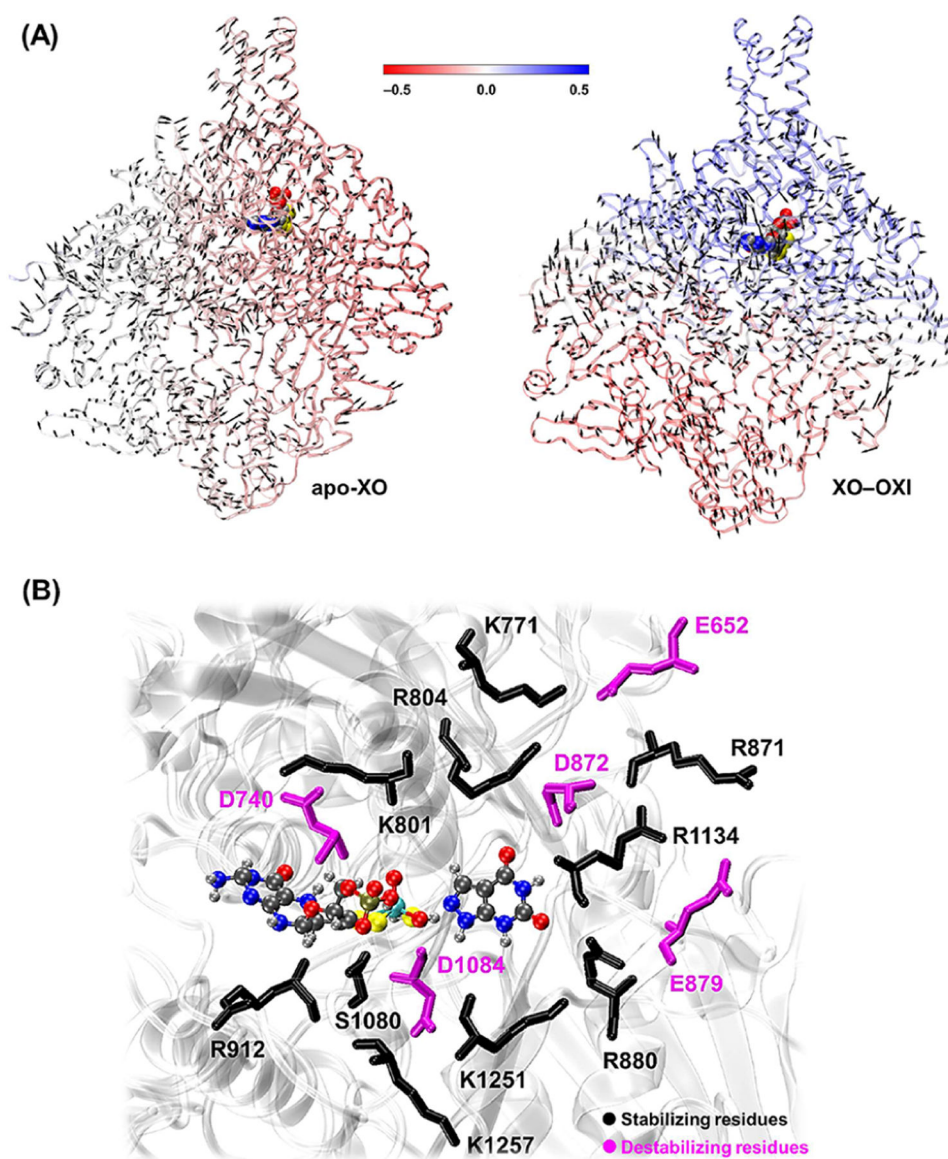


Figure 2.

(A) Plots of the PCA on the root-mean-square fluctuations (first mode) along with the residue-wise correlation with respect to MoCo as a heatmap projected on the protein for the apo-XO and XO-OXI. The black arrows show the fluctuations greater than 1.0 Å and point toward the direction of the highest ranked eigenvector, and their amplitude is directly proportional to the length of the arrow. Areas with correlated movements in the heatmap are colored blue (0.5), non-correlated areas are white (0.0), and anti-correlated movements are red (-0.5). (B) Representation of the residues with considerable non-bonded intermolecular interactions ($|\Delta E_{\text{Nb}}| \geq 12.0 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$) with the MoCo of XO-OXI compared to that of the apo-XO as the reference.

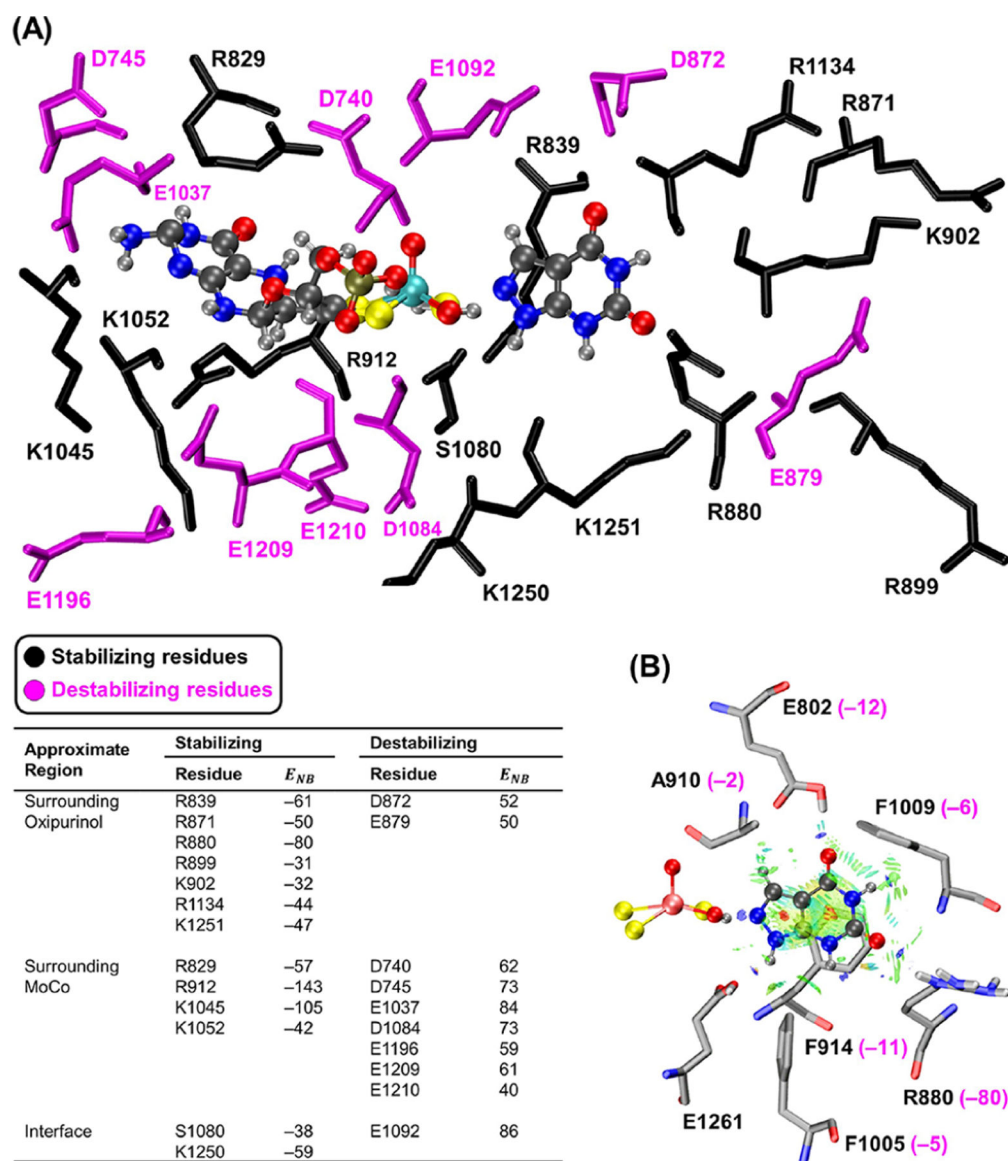


Figure 3.

(A) Residues of the XO–OXI active site with considerable non-bonded intermolecular interactions ($|E_{NB}| \geq 30 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$). Residues in the sticks have stabilizing (black) and destabilizing (purple) interactions with the active site, given in the ball-and-sticks. E1261 of the active site is not shown for enhanced clarity. (B) Plot of the aNCI between the inhibitor and the surrounding residues of the active site. Values in parenthesis correspond to E_{NB} (kcal mol^{-1}) of each residue.

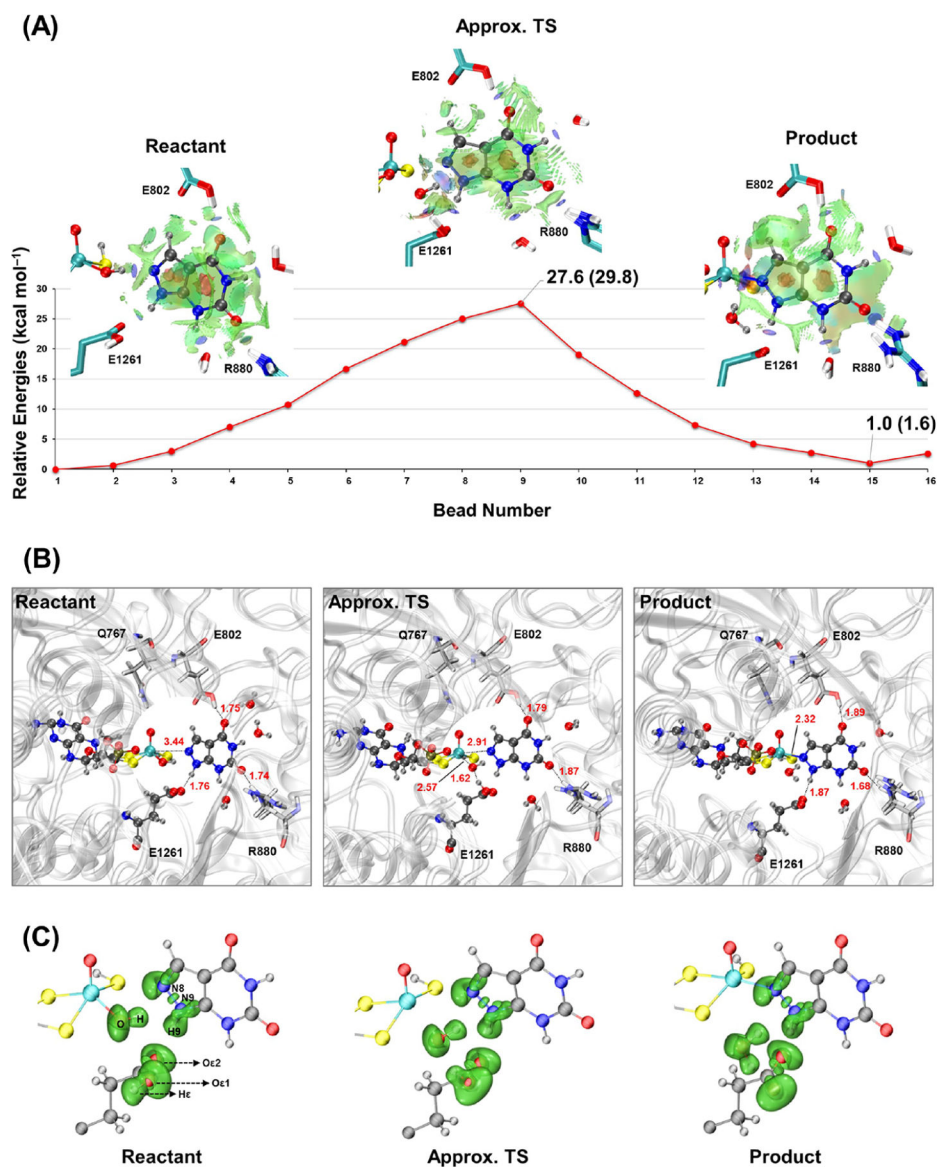
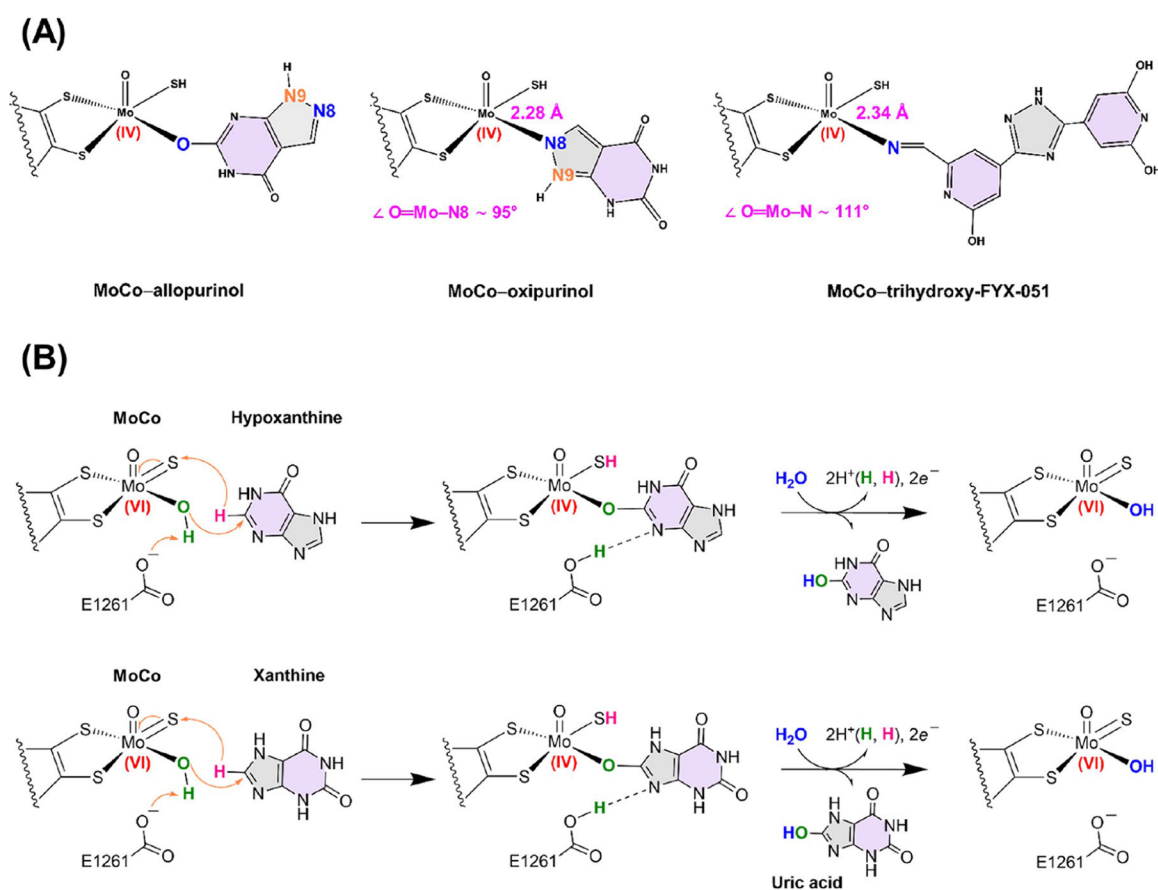
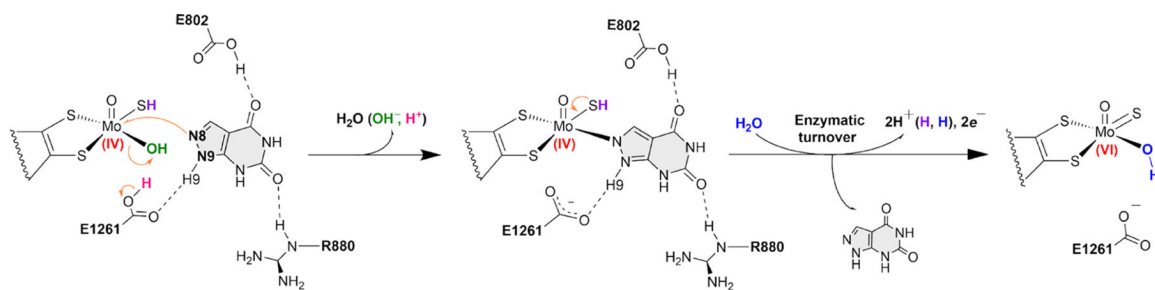


Figure 4.

(A) Minimum energy path for the catalytic inhibition of XO by oxipurinol modeled via the QSM together with the NCI plots of the critical structures. The QM/MM optimization energies (kcal mol⁻¹) are calculated at the ω B97X-D/def2-SVP level of theory with the AMBER ff14SB force field. The values in parenthesis correspond to the Gibbs free energies obtained from the vibrational analysis using Eyringpy. (B) Optimized geometries of the critical structures with the values of selected distances (Å). (C) ELF basins among the MoCo, oxipurinol, and E1261 for the critical structures along the reaction pathway.

**Scheme 1.**

(A) Coordination Modes in Left: MoCo–Allopurinol; Middle: MoCo–Oxipurinol with a Direct Mo–N8 Bond (PDB IDs: 1JRP & 3BDJ);^{47,123} and Right: MoCo–Trihydroxy-FYX-051 with a Mo–N≡C Bond (PDB ID: 3AM9);⁷⁴ (B) Proposed Reaction Mechanisms for the Hydroxylation of Hypoxanthine and Xanthine in the Active Site of XOR.



Scheme 2.
Studied Mechanism for the Catalytic Inhibition of XO by Oxipurinol