

Multiple pathways guide oxygen diffusion into flavoenzyme active sites

Riccardo Baron^{a,b,1}, Conor Riley^{a,2}, Pirom Chenprakhon^{c,d,2}, Kittisak Thotsaporn^{c,3}, Remko T. Winter^{e,3}, Andrea Alfieri^f, Federico Forneris^f, Willem J. H. van Berkel^g, Pimchai Chaiyen^c, Marco W. Fraaije^e, Andrea Mattevi^{f,1}, and J. Andrew McCammon^{a,b,h,i}

Department of ^aChemistry and Biochemistry and ^bPharmacology, ^bCenter for Theoretical Biological Physics, and ⁱHoward Hughes Medical Institute, University of California at San Diego, La Jolla, CA 92093-0365; ^cDepartment of Biochemistry and Center for Excellence in Protein Structure and Function, Faculty of Science, and ^dInstitute for Innovative Learning, Mahidol University, Rama 6 Road, Bangkok 10400, Thailand; ^eLaboratory of Biochemistry, Groningen Biomolecular Sciences and Biotechnology Institute, University of Groningen, Nijenborgh 4, 9747 AG Groningen, The Netherlands; ^fDepartment of Genetics and Microbiology, University of Pavia, Via Ferrata 1, 27100 Pavia, Italy; and ^gLaboratory of Biochemistry, Wageningen University, Dreijenlaan 3, 6703 HA Wageningen, The Netherlands

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Dioxygen (O₂) and other gas molecules have a fundamental role in a variety of enzymatic reactions. However, it is only poorly understood which O₂ uptake mechanism enzymes employ to promote efficient catalysis and how general this is. We investigated O₂ diffusion pathways into monooxygenase and oxidase flavoenzymes, using an integrated computational and experimental approach. Enhanced-statistics molecular dynamics simulations reveal spontaneous protein-guided O₂ diffusion from the bulk solvent to preorganized protein cavities. The predicted protein-guided diffusion paths and the importance of key cavity residues for oxygen diffusion were verified by combining site-directed mutagenesis, rapid kinetics experiments, and high-resolution X-ray structures. This study indicates that monooxygenase and oxidase flavoenzymes employ multiple funnel-shaped diffusion pathways to absorb O₂ from the solvent and direct it to the reacting C4a atom of the flavin cofactor. The difference in O₂ reactivity among dehydrogenases, monooxygenases, and oxidases ultimately resides in the fine modulation of the local environment embedding the reactive locus of the flavin.

computational biochemistry | enzymology | flavin | oxygen reactivity

Dioxygen (O₂) and other gas molecules have a fundamental role in a variety of enzymatic reactions carried out in living organisms. Oxygen-using enzymes usually have kinetic rates many folds higher than those attained by artificial catalysts (1–4). One crucial unsolved question concerns how these small gas molecules reach their active sites in an effective manner. Former studies supported the general model of passive diffusion through proteins (5, 6). However, it was more recently proposed that O₂ preferentially follows highly specific tunnels to reach the core of protein matrices (7–13). Is it possible to generalize these features for different classes of enzymes? Do proteins preferentially employ single specific pathways or a multitude of routes to optimize the O₂ uptake process?

Pioneering studies on gas-diffusion in biomolecular systems focused on single diffusion pathways in proteins of the globin family (2, 14). For example, myoglobin served as an ideal test system for the first computational studies on gaseous reactants (14). Fluorescence-quenching experiments were used to correlate the diffusion behavior with solvent properties, e.g., viscosity (15, 16). Reaction intermediates of small gas molecules can be trapped in X-ray enzyme structures in limited favorable cases (17, 18) whereas time-resolved X-ray crystallography provides single-molecule-averaged insight (19). A general observation emerging from recent engineering studies of an O₂ transport protein is that design efforts based on static-structure models fail to address the molecular complexity critical for function (20). Thus, complementing experimental and computational approaches can improve our understanding of these dynamic processes at the atomic-level scale (7, 8, 21–25). However, no

molecular dynamics (MD) study to date reported on the spontaneous, nonbiased diffusion of O₂ molecules from the bulk solvent to the active site of a flavoenzyme.

Flavoenzymes catalyze a wide range of reactions essential for maintaining cellular processes. Their striking chemical versatility is largely based on their ability to control the reaction of a flavin cofactor with O₂. Three major groups of flavoenzymes can be distinguished (3, 26, 27). First, the dehydrogenases, that are characterized by poor or no reactivity with oxygen. Second, the monooxygenases, that react very fast with O₂, forming a flavin adduct intermediate (C4a-hydroperoxyflavin; Scheme 1 and Fig. S1), which subsequently inserts an oxygen atom into the substrate molecule. Third, the oxidases, that catalyze a rapid 2-electron transfer to O₂ to produce H₂O₂, typically—but not always (28)—with no detectable catalytic intermediates. The reaction of reduced flavins with O₂ proceeds through an electron-transfer step that generates a caged radical pair, which is generally thought to be rate limiting. Reduced flavoprotein monooxygenases and oxidases typically react very rapidly with O₂, exhibiting bimolecular rate constants (up to 10⁶ M⁻¹s⁻¹) that are close to a diffusion-controlled rate.

The biochemical and structural basis of the ability of flavoenzymes to react with O₂ remains to a large extent poorly understood, representing a most fascinating issue in flavoenzymology (3, 26). A key requirement for monooxygenases is that O₂ reaches the flavin to promote the catalyzed reaction through a C4a covalent adduct (3, 26, 27) (Scheme 1). However, only little is known about how oxidases react with O₂. A direct contact between the oxidase flavin and O₂ may not be necessary, leaving open the possibility that the enzymes of this class may react by tunneling pathways (24, 29) or electron transfer processes similar to what was reported for heme-containing enzymes (30).

Here, we investigate O₂ diffusion in the monooxygenase component (C₂) of *p*-hydroxyphenylacetate hydroxylase from *Acinetobacter baumannii* (31) and alditol oxidase (AldO) from *Streptomyces coelicolor* A3 (2) (32) using an integrated computational and experimental procedure. Enhanced-statistics MD

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¹To whom correspondence should be addressed. E-mail: rbaron@mccammon.ucsd.edu or mattevi@ipvgen.unipv.it.

²C.R. and P. Chenprakhon contributed equally to this work.

³K.T. and R.T.W. contributed equally to this work.

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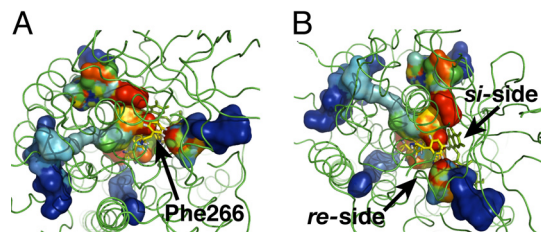


Fig. 3. Funnel-shaped multiple pathways for O_2 . (A) Time-dependent representation of the 4 complete paths observed from simulations at 300 K converging in front of Phe-266 (top view). (B) All pathways conduct O_2 molecules to the flavin *re*-side (side view). Volume isosurfaces are colored depending on simulation time from blue (entrance into the protein) to red (end of successful path).

flexibility, a prerequisite of O_2 diffusion toward the active site (Fig. 2).

Computational predictions and our model for protein-guided O_2 diffusion were validated by combining site-directed mutagenesis and rapid kinetics experiments. Reactions of C_2 -FMNH⁻ with O_2 to form a C4a-hydroperoxyflavin intermediate were monitored using a stopped-flow spectrophotometer (Figs. S2–S4). The kinetics were comparatively investigated in the wild-type protein (35) and in 4 mutants that target Phe-266, the residue suggested by the MD simulations to represent the entry point for the O_2 access to the reactive C4a locus of the flavin ring. The main results of this kinetic analysis were the following (Table 1): (i) Binding of the *p*-hydroxyphenylacetate (HPA) substrate to the wild-type C_2 -FMNH⁻ complex causes a 20-fold reduction in the rate of formation of the C4a-hydroperoxyflavin intermediate; (ii) mutation of Phe-266 with a bulky Trp side chain causes a very similar drop in rate of the oxygen reaction; and (iii) replacement of Phe-266 with smaller side chains (Phe266Pro, Phe266Gly, and Phe266Ala) has little (<5-fold) effect on C4a-hydroperoxyflavin formation, indicating that these mutants retain the ability to efficiently react with oxygen. Correlating the kinetics with the mechanism of oxygen diffusion is especially difficult because the measured rates of the oxygen reaction and C4a-hydroperoxyflavin formation are composite parameters that result from the rates of oxygen diffusion through the protein matrix and of the chemical steps along the electron-transfer reaction between the oxygen and reduced flavin. Bearing in mind this inherent difficulty in data interpretation, we envision the following working model. O_2 diffusion trajectories converge to Phe-266, at the entrance of the oxygen cavity in front of the flavin C4a atom (Figs. 1 and 2). As shown by the crystal structures, HPA binding involves a conformational change of

Phe-266, which must rotate away to make room for the substrate (see Fig. S1 and ref. 31). As a result, substrate binding makes the protein matrix more tightly packed, limiting the conformational fluctuations in the active site. A similar effect is likely to be exerted by the Trp side chain of the Phe266Trp mutant. Consistently, binding of HPA in the wild-type C_2 -FMNH⁻ enzyme and the Trp side chain of the Phe266Trp enzyme decrease the rate of O_2 diffusion, slowing down the overall rate of C4a-hydroperoxyflavin formation (Table 1) (35). This limiting effect is not observed in the proteins in which Phe-266 is replaced by smaller side chains (Phe266Pro, Phe266Gly, and Phe266Ala). The differences between the rate constants of these mutants and of the wild-type enzyme are likely to reflect the increased solvent accessibility of the oxygen cavity as indicated by the lower hydroxylation ratio (i.e., product formed/FMNH⁻ used) exhibited by the Phe266Gly protein compared with the wild type ($62 \pm 5\%$ vs. $89 \pm 3\%$) (see *SI Text*) (3, 31, 36). Moreover, it must be noted that the mutants can bind HPA only after formation of the hydroperoxyflavin intermediate and, therefore, their oxygen reaction rates are not affected by HPA binding, differently from the wild-type enzyme (Table 1).

To further validate the O_2 diffusion model obtained from MD simulations, we constructed the C_2 (Tyr296Phe) mutant that targets a residue close to the reactive site of the flavin whereas it is not part of the predicted diffusion paths. This mutant reacts with O_2 identically to the wild-type enzyme; the C4a-hydroperoxyflavin is formed with rate constants of 1.2×10^6 and $4.0 \times 10^4 \text{ M}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$ in absence and presence of HPA, respectively (Table 1). These values are essentially the same as those of the wild-type enzyme and confirm that Tyr-296 is not part of any O_2 diffusion path as predicted by our simulations.

Oxygen Diffusion into AldO. O_2 diffusion into an oxidase was addressed for AldO, a soluble monomeric flavoprotein of the class of vanillyl-alcohol oxidase, which contains a covalently bound FAD cofactor (32, 37). AldO catalyzes a typical 2-electron flavin-mediated oxidation of a terminal C-OH moiety of a polyol substrate to the corresponding aldehyde, with the concomitant reduction of the flavin cofactor. The reduced flavin (FADH⁻) then reacts with O_2 to form H_2O_2 , which completes the catalytic cycle. Because its crystal structure has been solved at high resolution (1.1 Å) (32) and the kinetic mechanism has been established by presteady state kinetic analyses (37), AldO serves as an excellent oxidase prototype.

Enhanced-statistics MD simulations were initialized based on the 3-dimensional structure of FADH⁻-complexed AldO and extended for 50 ns of overall enhanced-time (Table S1). These simulations were set-up to capture O_2 diffusion before FADH⁻ oxidation. Out of a total of 500 O_2 trajectories at 300 K, we observe 5 complete spontaneous diffusion pathways that bring O_2 molecules in front of the isoalloxazine ring of the FADH⁻ cofactor (Fig. 4), starting from random configurations in the bulk solvent. Simulations at 350 K confirm the location of these successful paths (22 events; data not shown). Several O_2 molecules that initially reside in cavities on the protein surface subsequently diffuse into the AldO interior (e.g., Fig. 4B, steps A, B, D, F, and H). As observed in the C_2 monooxygenase system, these surface cavities typically display at least one hydrophobic residue, such as Ala and/or Ile. A remarkable example is the all-Ala pocket of Ala-88, Ala-91, and Ala-277 used to capture O_2 molecules from the bulk solvent (Fig. S5).

The spontaneous O_2 diffusion into AldO matches a model consisting of multiple diffusion paths converging toward a few key residues neighboring the reactive moiety of the flavin cofactor, similarly to what observed for C_2 . All protein-guided diffusion pathways converge into a site defined by Ala-105, Tyr-87, and Thr-120 at ≈ 6 Å from the *re*-side of FADH⁻ (Figs. 4 and 5). Once O_2 molecules reach Tyr-87 or Thr-120, they (3

Table 1. Reoxidation rates for reduced C_2 (mutant)-FMNH⁻ with O_2 in presence/absence of HPA

| Mutants | Rate constants of formation of C4a-hydroperoxy FMN, $10^4 \text{ M}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$ | |
|------------|--|------|
| | -HPA | +HPA |
| Wild-type | 110 | 4.8 |
| Phe266Gly* | 15 | 16 |
| Phe266Ala* | 20 | 19 |
| Phe266Pro* | 14 | 17 |
| Phe266Trp* | 4.8 | 4.6 |
| Tyr296Phe | 120 | 4.0 |

+HPA, reaction of C_2 (mutant)-FMNH⁻ with O_2 in presence of HPA. -HPA, reaction of C_2 (mutant)-FMNH⁻ with O_2 in absence of HPA.

*Differently from the wild-type, HPA does not affect the oxygen reactivity of the four Phe266 mutants which bind HPA only after reaction with O_2 and formation of C4a-hydroperoxyflavin (see Figs. S3 and S4).

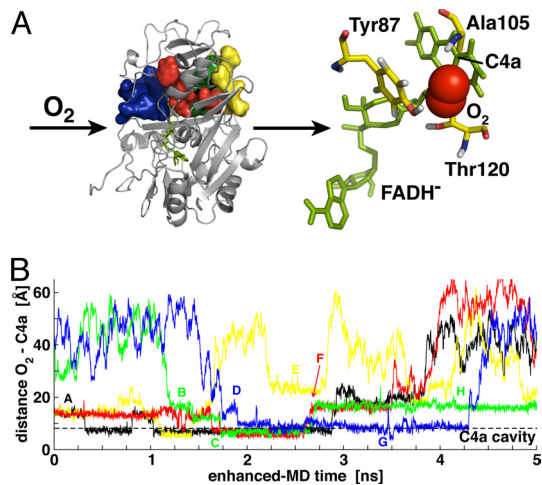


Fig. 4. O_2 spontaneous diffusion into alditol oxidase. (A) Five paths are observed at 300 K (volume isosurfaces) (Left). All paths conduct O_2 molecules (red spheres) (Right) to the *re*-side of the FADH⁻ reduced flavin cofactor (green sticks). (B) Time series of the O_2 – C4a distance for the successful diffusion paths and key steps (see *Oxygen Diffusion into AldO*). The dashed horizontal line defines the C4a flavin cavity.

paths out of 5) eventually proceed to a preorganized cavity defined by flavin C4a and Ala-105, which coincides with the cavity previously proposed based on AldO X-ray structures (32). Thus, the side chain of Ala-105 creates a favorable hydrophobic environment to stabilize the presence of an O_2 molecule next to the reduced flavin (Fig. 4 A and B, steps C and G). Clearly, protein dynamics is required for the successful diffusion of O_2 molecules to the active site. It is striking to observe that, similar to C₂, all complete diffusion pathways (i.e., all pathways carrying oxygen from the bulk solvent to the flavin cofactor) converge to only one side of the reduced flavin (*re*-side) (Fig. 5 and Scheme 1). Moreover, they all cross only a limited part of the AldO protein structure, i.e., the substrate-domain.

Table 2 summarizes the rapid kinetics experiments for oxygen reactivity of reduced AldO and its Ala-105 mutants. The data show that the rate constant of AldO reoxidation ($13 \times 10^4 \text{ M}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$) is hardly affected by the Ala105Ser mutation ($14 \times 10^4 \text{ M}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$) whereas the Ala105Gly mutant is somewhat faster ($20 \times 10^4 \text{ M}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$) (Fig. S6). Apparently, small changes in the size of the side chain at position 105 have little effect on oxygen reactivity. In this regard, we notice that one would not expect a drastic increase in reactivity with oxygen in the Ala105Gly mutant, because the reaction rate of wild-type AldO is already high and is also limited by other funnel residues and the actual electron-transfer step from O_2 to the flavin (3, 32). All attempts to replace Ala-105 with larger

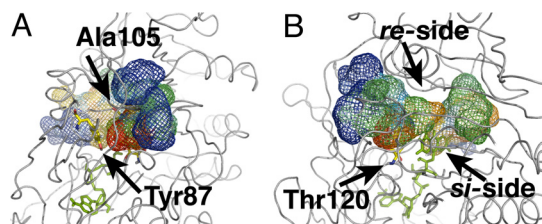


Fig. 5. Funnel-shaped multiple pathways for alditol oxidase. (A) Time-dependent representation of 3 complete paths observed from simulations at 300 K converging in close contact with Ala-105 (volume surfaces, top view). (B) All pathways conduct O_2 molecules to the flavin *re*-side (side view). For graphical purposes only 3 paths are displayed. Volume isosurfaces are colored depending on simulation time from blue (entrance into the protein) to red (end of successful path).

Table 2. Kinetic parameters for reaction of AldO(mutant)-FADH⁻ with O_2

| Mutants | K_{M_r} , mM | k_{cat_r} , s ⁻¹ | k_{cat_r}/K_{M_r} , mM ⁻¹ s ⁻¹ | k_{ox_r} , 10 ⁴ M ⁻¹ s ⁻¹ |
|-----------|----------------|-------------------------------|--|--|
| Wild-type | 0.33 | 11.4 | 34.5 | 13 |
| Ala105Gly | 1.2 | 10.2 | 8.5 | 20 |
| Ala105Ser | 1.8 | 8.7 | 4.8 | 14 |

The steady state parameters were determined using xylitol as substrate. The k_{ox} reoxidation rate values denote the rate at which FADH⁻ in AldO is reacting with O_2 evidenced by flavin reoxidation.

side chains failed because the mutants were extremely unstable and/or unable to bind FAD. However, strong support for the role of Ala-105 as O_2 entry point to the active site is provided by recently reported mutagenesis data on plant L-galactono-1,4-lactone dehydrogenase (GALDH) (38), which shares 25% sequence identity with AldO. As a typical dehydrogenase, this enzyme reacts poorly with O_2 . However, its oxygen reactivity could be substantially increased (400-fold) to a level comparable to that of typical oxidases by simply mutating Ala-113 (homologous to Ala-105 of AldO) to Gly (38). Apparently, Ala-105 in AldO already allows O_2 access to the reduced FAD whereas in GALDH—due to its specific active site—it needs to be replaced by a smaller residue to allow O_2 to pass through. This finding indicates that, consistently with our MD predictions for AldO, also in GALDH O_2 diffuses and approaches the flavin from the position corresponding to that of AldO Ala-105.

Discussion

We used an integrated computational and experimental procedure, combining X-ray crystallography, enhanced-statistics MD simulations, rapid kinetic experiments, and site-directed mutagenesis to shed light on how O_2 molecules diffuse into the active site of flavoenzymes with different catalytic activity (monooxygenase and oxidase) and folding topologies. In both simulated systems, distinct and multiple protein-guided O_2 diffusion pathways converge toward defined active site entry points, forming funnel architectures. The observation that a specific set of residues form entry sites for the access of oxygen to the flavin cofactor—as Phe-266 in C₂ and Ala-105 in AldO—is consistent with what was recently reported for cholesterol oxidase (12) and sarcosine oxidase (39). However, this does not strictly imply the presence of individual diffusion pathways. Instead, our results suggest that multiple diffusion pathways, converging to a few key residues, are operative and represent a more effective structural model to combine high specificity and high kinetic efficiency in oxygen-using flavoenzymes. From a computational standpoint, we emphasize that in this work, O_2 diffusion was only solvent- or protein-guided—i.e., no biasing force was used to direct the reactants to the protein active sites. We stress, therefore, that a direct picture of the diffusion process at the atomic scale was obtained a priori and only subsequently used as a prediction tool to design the experiments addressing oxygen reactivity.

Our observations are also relevant to the understanding of the reaction mechanism of oxygen with reduced flavin (3, 26). MD simulations indicate that O_2 is able to reach specifically the flavin C4a atom both in the monooxygenase and the oxidase (Figs. 1 and 4). This implies that—independently of the nature of the enzymatic reaction— O_2 would react with the flavin by direct contact with the C4a atom of the cofactor. In this scenario, the C4a atom appears to be the locus directly involved in the electron transfer from the reduced cofactor to O_2 , which is consistent with isotope effect studies performed on glucose oxidase (29). The combination of our data with the results obtained by site-directed mutagenesis on various flavoenzymes (38, 39) indicates that the difference among dehydrogenases, monooxygenases, and oxidases ultimately resides in the fine modulation of the local environment embedding the C4a

atom; its accessibility, the distribution of charged and polar groups to favor electron transfer between reduced flavin and O₂, and the extent to which the oxygen cavity is capable of stabilizing the C4a-hydroperoxyflavin.

Methods

Molecular Model and Enhanced-Statistics MD Simulations. Ten MD trajectories of the C₂ homodimer (chain A and D; 798 residues; FMNH⁻ cofactor; initial model PDB entry 2JBS; 2.8 Å resolution) (31) and 10 trajectories of the AldO monomer (418 residues; FADH⁻ cofactor; initial model PDB entry 2VFR; 1.1 Å resolution) (32) at 300 and 350 K were generated using the GROMOS05 software for biomolecular simulation (40), the GROMOS 53A6 parameter set (41), and compatible ion parameters (42) and SPC water model (43). A summary is reported in *SI Text* and *Table S1*. A procedure for enhanced-statistics MD simulation was used for O₂ spontaneous diffusion. It involves (i) reduced masses (1.6 u) for the oxygen atoms in the O₂ molecules (21); (ii) enhanced statistics from 100 (independent and noninteracting) O₂ molecules in the system, kept beyond a minimum pair distance by a network of repulsive half-harmonic distance-restraining potentials during the equilibration phase (to avoid biasing their initial location before diffusion); (iii) a fast grid-based pairlist-construction algorithm (44) as implemented in the GROMOS05 MD++ module (40); (iv) enhanced statistics from 10 independent MD runs at 300 and 350 K. O₂ diffusion statistics were collected over a total of 10 independent trajectories of systems with 100 O₂ molecules each, monitored for a total enhanced-MD time of 30 (C₂) or 50 (AldO) ns. The rather high O₂ apparent concentrations (C₂: ≈0.14 M or AldO: ≈0.3 M; for comparison, an O₂ saturated buffer is ≈1.2 mM) allow capturing a sufficient statistics of O₂-protein encounter events without perturbing protein overall structure at both 300 and 350 K. RMSD time series of C₂ and AldO backbone C^α-atoms are reported in *Figs. S7 and S8*, together with computational details. The term “enhanced-MD time” points out that, the kinetic properties of simulated O₂ molecules differ from standard MD simulation. Computer simulations were used to predict the location of oxygen diffusion pathways along C₂ and AldO configurational distributions; instead, kinetic properties were measured by experiments. The term “enhanced-statistics” emphasizes that an improved statistics is achieved compared with standard MD simulation. No biasing force or potential is used to bring O₂ molecules inside the enzyme active sites. Instead, O₂ freely diffuses on the free-energy landscape starting from a nonarbitrary configuration and spontaneously reaches the preorganized cavities described in the text. The Pymol (45) and VMD (46) software packages were used for graphical representations.

Rapid Kinetics and Oxygen Reactivity. C₂. Rapid kinetics measurements were performed at 277 K with a Hi-Tech Scientific Model SF-61DX stopped-flow spectrophotometer in single- or double-mixing mode (observation cell optical path-length of 1 cm). The stopped-flow instrument was maintained under anaerobic conditions by flushing the flow system with an O₂ scrubbing solution consisting of 400 μM glucose, 1 mg·ml⁻¹ glucose oxidase (15.5 units per ml), and 4.8 μg·ml⁻¹ catalase in 50 mM sodium phosphate buffer pH 7.0. The O₂ scrubbing solution was left in the flow system overnight and was thoroughly rinsed with anaerobic buffer before experiments. To study the reaction of C₂ mutants with O₂, the reduced enzyme in presence and absence of substrate (HPA) in 50 mM sodium phosphate buffer pH 7.0 was prepared according to the protocol used for the wild-type enzyme (35), followed by mixing with buffers of different O₂ concentrations. Apparent rate constants (*k*_{obs}) from kinetic traces were calculated from exponential fits using the KineAsyst3 (Hi-Tech Scientific) or Program A (R. Chang, J.-y. Chiu, J. Dinverno, and D.P. Ballou, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI) software packages. Rate constants were obtained by a Levenberg-Marquardt nonlinear fit of *k*_{obs} versus O₂ concentrations, as implemented in the KaleidaGraph software (35). *SI Text* reports experimental details.

AldO. Purified mutant and wild-type AldO were obtained as described in ref. 37. Rapid kinetics measurements were performed using an Applied Photophysics stopped-flow apparatus model SX17MV following methods reported in ref. 37. Reduced AldO was obtained by anaerobic dithionite reduction. All experiments were performed at 300 K and in a 50 mM potassium phosphate buffer pH 7.5. Experimental details are reported in *SI Text*.

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