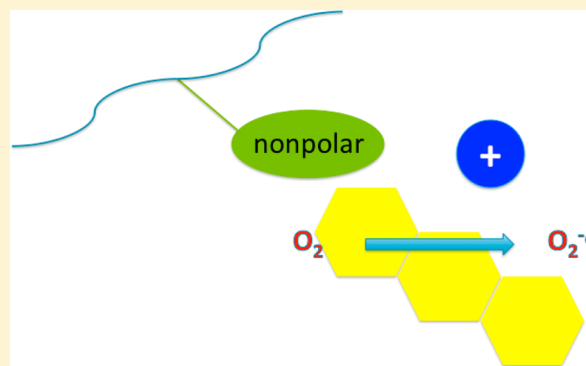


Oxygen Activation in Flavoprotein Oxidases: The Importance of Being Positive

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ABSTRACT: The oxidation of flavin hydroquinones by O₂ in solution is slow, with second-order rate constants of $\sim 250 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$. This is due to the obligatory, single-electron transfer that initiates the reaction being thermodynamically unfavored and poorly catalyzed. Notwithstanding considerations of O₂ accessibility to the reaction site, its desolvation and geometry and other factors that can also contribute to further rate acceleration, flavoprotein oxidases must activate O₂ for reaction with flavin hydroquinones to be able to achieve the 100–1000-fold rate enhancements typically observed. Protein positive charges have been identified in glucose oxidase, monomeric sarcosine oxidase, *N*-methyltryptophan oxidase and fructosamine oxidase that electrostatically stabilize the transition state for the initial single electron transfer that generates the O₂^{•−}/flavin semiquinone radical pair. In choline oxidase despite the presence of three histidines in the active site, the trimethylammonium group of the reaction product provides such an electrostatic stabilization. A nonpolar site proximal to the flavin C(4a) atom in choline oxidase has also been identified, which contributes to the geometry and desolvation of the O₂ reaction site. The relevance of O₂ activation by product charges to other flavoprotein oxidases, such as for example those catalyzing amine oxidations, is discussed in this review. A nonpolar site close to the flavin C(4a) atom and a positive charge is identified through structural analysis in several flavoprotein oxidases. Mutagenesis has disclosed nonpolar sites in O₂-reducing enzymes that utilize copper/TPQ or iron. It is predicted that classes of O₂-reducing enzymes utilizing other cofactors also contain a similar catalytic motif.



INTRODUCTION

Flavins are among a limited number of organic and inorganic biocatalysts that can effectively reduce dioxygen (O₂) to superoxide (O₂^{•−}), hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂), or water (H₂O).^{1,2} In solution, the flavin-assisted reduction of O₂ is autocatalytic and yields nonstoichiometric amounts of O₂^{•−} and H₂O₂.² The reaction is slow, primarily because the initial single-electron transfer from the singlet flavin hydroquinone to the triplet O₂ is catalyzed poorly.² In flavin-dependent enzymes, O₂ reduction can be accelerated by 3–4 orders of magnitude or, alternatively, be abated, demonstrating control and modulation of flavin reactivity by the protein microenvironment.^{2,3} O₂ reactivity in flavin-dependent monooxygenases and oxidases, which are defined respectively as yielding H₂O and H₂O₂ from O₂ reduction,² is considerably enhanced, with second-order rate constants typically in the 10⁵–10⁶ M^{−1} s^{−1} range.^{2,4–7} In contrast, flavoprotein dehydrogenases suppress to various extents the reactivity of the flavin hydroquinone with O₂, with the limiting cases of “true” dehydrogenases that are completely unreactive toward O₂.^{2,3,8} Besides exhibiting poor O₂ reactivity, dehydrogenases typically yield O₂^{•−}.²

A general consensus has emerged that a positively charged group is required to activate O₂ in flavin-dependent enzymes.¹ Mechanistic studies by Klinman and co-workers have elucidated the exquisite details of O₂ activation by flavoproteins and

demonstrated that a histidine acts as an electrostatic catalyst in glucose oxidase.^{9–11} A lysine residue has been shown to be the site of O₂ activation in a number of flavoprotein oxidases through mutagenic and mechanistic investigations.^{9,12–14} In choline oxidase, mechanistic and mutagenic investigations have established that O₂ activation is not provided by any of the three active site histidines present in the active site, but rather by the nonionizable, positive charge on the ammonium moiety of the product of the enzyme-catalyzed reaction.^{15–19} This Current Topic summarizes our current understanding of O₂ activation in flavoprotein oxidases, with an emphasis on the importance of positive charges harbored on substrates rather than enzymes.

O₂ REACTION WITH FLAVIN HYDROQUINONES IN SOLUTION

The reduction of O₂ to H₂O₂ by flavin hydroquinones is thermodynamically favorable due to the high redox potential of the O₂/H₂O₂ couple ($E_{m7} = +0.36 \text{ V}$),²⁰ which is 0.57 V more positive than the E_{m7} value of -0.21 V for the oxidized/

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hydroquinone flavin in solution.²¹ In spite of such a large thermodynamic drive, the reaction occurs sluggishly due to the diradical nature of the most stable state of O₂ in air and solution, where the two unpaired electrons in the π^*2p orbitals have parallel spins.²² Since pairs of electrons in the atomic and molecular orbitals of nonradical species like flavin hydroquinones have opposite spins, they cannot fit in the vacant spaces of the π^*2p orbitals of O₂.²² Thus, the initial transfer of an electron from flavin hydroquinone to O₂ to generate O₂^{•-} and flavin semiquinone, followed by spin inversion of the resulting radical pair, is an obligatory initial step in the reaction of flavin hydroquinones with O₂ (Figure 1).^{1,2,23} This almost

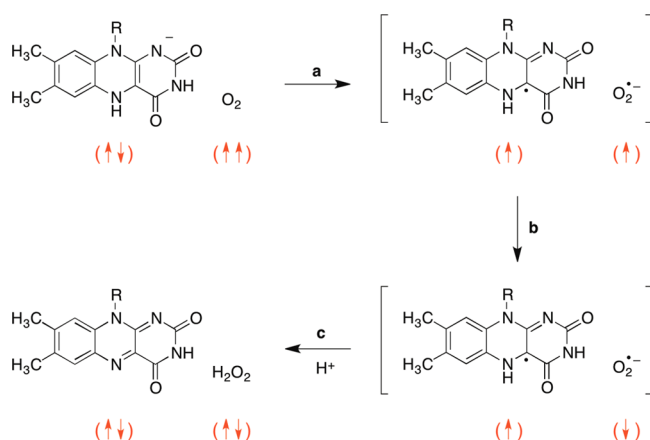


Figure 1. Reaction mechanism of flavin hydroquinone oxidation with O₂. After initial transfer of an electron from the reduced flavin to O₂ (a) generating O₂^{•-} and flavin semiquinone, spin inversion of the resulting radical pair (b) allows for further reaction to yield oxidized flavin and hydrogen peroxide (c). The quantum spins of the flavin and oxygen species are indicated in red. Step c may proceed through the formation of a transient C(4a)-(hydro)peroxyflavin (not shown here) as observed in pyranose 2-oxidase,⁶⁶ or through an outer sphere second electron transfer (shown) as proposed for glucose oxidase.⁹

entirely abates the thermodynamic drive for the reaction, because the E_{m7} values for the couples O₂/O₂^{•-} and flavin hydroquinone/semiquinone are estimated at -0.16 V and -0.10 V, respectively.²⁴ Accordingly, the two-electron O₂ reduction by flavins in solution is slow, with a second-order rate constant of 250 M⁻¹ s⁻¹ determined at pH 6.5.²³ Notwithstanding considerations of O₂ accessibility to the reaction site,²⁵⁻²⁹ its desolvation and geometry,^{12,25,30} and other factors such as flavin stereochemistry that also can contribute to further rate acceleration,^{3,25} in flavoprotein oxidases O₂ must be activated for reaction with flavin hydroquinones. Thus, stabilization of the transition state for the initial, obligatory electron transfer that generates the O₂^{•-}/flavin semiquinone radical pair is required to attain the rate accelerations for flavin oxidation typically observed in flavoprotein oxidases.

O₂ ACTIVATION IN FLAVOPROTEIN OXIDASES

Current understanding of O₂ activation for reaction with reduced flavoproteins derives primarily from mechanistic and mutagenic investigations of glucose oxidase using steady state kinetics, solvent viscosity, and solvent and ¹⁸O kinetic isotope effects.⁹⁻¹¹ Detailed reviews of O₂ activation in glucose oxidase are available,^{1,31} and the topic will be only summarized here. Briefly, the pH dependence of the second-order rate constant

for reaction of flavin hydroquinone with O₂ (k_{cat}/K_{oxygen}) determined by using steady state kinetics identifies limiting values of 1 500 000 M⁻¹ s⁻¹ at low pH and 600 M⁻¹ s⁻¹ at high pH, with a pK_a value of 8.1.⁹ The value at high pH is similar to the value of 250 M⁻¹ s⁻¹ reported for the reaction of free flavin hydroquinone in solution,²³ indicating minimal, if any, O₂ activation by the protein. Instead, there is a 2500-fold enhancement of O₂ reduction at low pH. Significant ¹⁸O isotope effects (i.e., ~1.03) and lack of solvent kinetic isotope effects are observed on k_{cat}/K_{oxygen} both at pH 5.0 and 12.5, demonstrating rate-limiting electron transfer, but not proton transfers, in the two-electron reduction of O₂ by the enzyme-bound flavin.⁹ When the active site His516 is substituted with alanine, accounting for removal of the imidazole side chain, there is a ~200-fold decrease in the k_{cat}/K_{oxygen} value at low pH, while the associated ¹⁸O isotope effect remains significant with a value of 1.02.⁹ These data establish the protonated, positively charged His516 as being largely responsible for the electrostatic stabilization of the transition state for the first electron transfer occurring between the flavin hydroquinone and O₂ in the active site of glucose oxidase.⁹

Site directed mutagenesis coupled with mechanistic and kinetic studies have shown that a lysine residue is primarily responsible for O₂ activation in an increasing number of flavoprotein oxidases. In monomeric sarcosine oxidase, replacement of Lys265 with methionine results in the 8000-fold decrease of the rate constant for flavin oxidation determined using stopped-flow spectrophotometry from 283 000 M⁻¹ s⁻¹ to 35 M⁻¹ s⁻¹.¹⁴ In *N*-methyltryptophan oxidase, replacement of Lys259 with glutamine decreases the rate constant for flavin oxidation from 213 000 M⁻¹ s⁻¹ to 87 M⁻¹ s⁻¹.¹³ In fructosamine oxidase, substitution of Lys276 with methionine yields a mutant enzyme where the rate constant for flavin oxidation is 290 M⁻¹ s⁻¹ as compared to 160 000 M⁻¹ s⁻¹ of the wild-type enzyme.¹² These studies establish the importance of protein positively charged groups for O₂ activation in the active sites of flavoprotein oxidases.

O₂ ACTIVATION IN CHOLINE OXIDASE

Choline oxidase has three histidine residues and no lysines or arginines in the active site (Figure 2). However, O₂ activation is

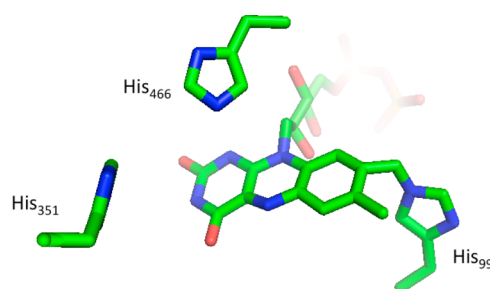
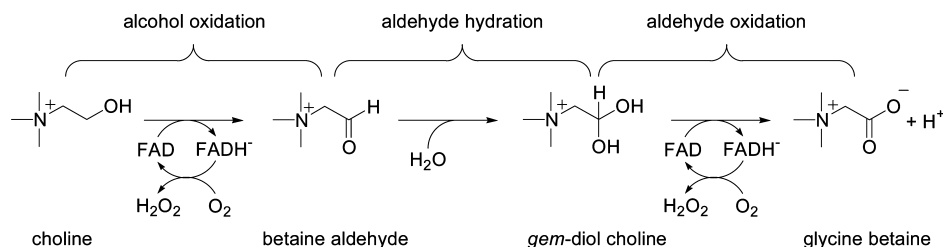


Figure 2. The three histidines in the active site of choline oxidase. The structure of the Ser101Ala variant of the enzyme is shown, from the Protein Data Bank entry 3NNE.³⁵

catalyzed by the nonionizable, positively charged trimethylammonium group of the product generated in the oxidation of choline catalyzed by the enzyme, betaine aldehyde. The experimental evidence in support of this alternate mode of O₂ activation is presented below.

Biophysical Properties. Choline oxidase from *Arthrobacter globiformis* has been extensively studied in its mechanistic,

Scheme 1. Two-Step, Four-electron Oxidation of Choline Catalyzed by Choline Oxidase



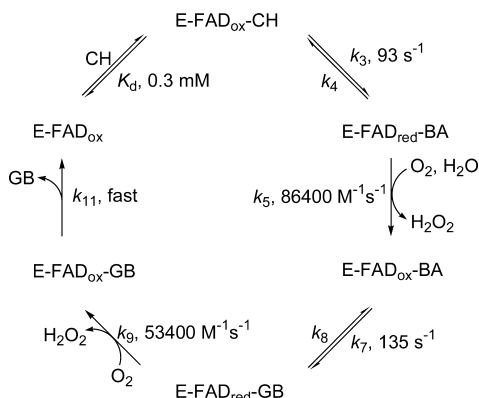
biochemical, and structural properties through a variety of techniques including rapid and steady state kinetics, pH and kinetic isotope effects, temperature effects, mutagenesis, and X-ray crystallography.^{5,18,19,30,32–40} The enzyme contains FAD covalently linked to the N(3) atom of His99 through its C(8) methyl group (Figure 2).³⁹ It catalyzes the four-electron, two-step oxidation of choline to glycine betaine with formation of an enzyme associated aldehyde intermediate that predominantly stays bound at the enzyme active site in turnover (Scheme 1).⁴¹ The enzyme-bound flavin in the oxidized state shows maximal absorbance at 359 and 452 nm (pH 8.0), whereas the flavin hydroquinone has a well-defined absorbance maximum at 356 nm, which is indicative of the anionic form of the reduced flavin.⁴² The anionic hydroquinone is stabilized throughout the accessible range of pH in which the enzyme is stable (pH 6.0–10.0).⁴³ The enzyme has a high affinity for sulfite (i.e., $K_d = 0.05$ mM, pH 7.0) and stabilizes the anionic flavin semiquinone upon anaerobic reduction with dithionite.^{42,43} These features point to the presence of a delocalized negative charge on the reduced flavin N(1)–C(2)=O atoms, which is electrostatically stabilized by His466 as suggested by biochemical studies on an enzyme variant devoid of side chain at position 466 (His466Ala).^{17,43}

Kinetic Mechanism. The minimal steady state kinetic mechanism of choline oxidase is illustrated in Scheme 2 and includes two reductive half-reactions with the choline substrate and the aldehyde intermediate, each followed by an oxidative half-reaction with O₂.^{41,42,44} Both oxidative half-reactions occur with the organic product of the preceding reductive half-reaction still bound at the active site. The order of the kinetic

steps involving substrate binding, catalysis, and product release is unaltered in the pH range 5.0–10.0, between 10 and 45 °C, upon substituting active site residues by mutagenesis or using substrate analogues.^{15–19,30,33–35,37,39,45,46} In the wild-type and mutant variants substituted at His99, Ser101, His351, Val464, His466, and Asn510, the overall turnover of the enzyme with choline is limited by the steps in which hydride ions are transferred from the choline alkoxide and the aldehyde intermediate to the flavin, as indicated by stopped-flow and steady state kinetic data.^{17–19,33,35,40} Anaerobic reduction of the enzyme-bound flavin with choline in a stopped-flow spectrophotometer occurs without observable transient species.⁴⁴ This pattern is maintained in the reductive half-reactions of all of the active site mutant variants that have been investigated with choline or in the wild-type enzyme with the choline analogue 3,3-dimethyl-butanol (DMB).^{18,19,30,32–34,37,39,40} Thus, choline oxidase cycles in turnover between the oxidized and hydroquinone states and O₂ reacts with the flavin hydroquinone.

His466. His466 is fully conserved in the glucose-methanol-choline oxidoreductase superfamily, which includes choline oxidase, glucose oxidase, cholesterol oxidase, methanol oxidase, pyranose 2-oxidase, aryl-alcohol oxidase, and other flavin-dependent enzymes that oxidize a variety of unrelated alcohols.⁴⁷ It is equivalent to His516 of glucose oxidase and is located 4.2 Å from both the flavin N(1) and C(4a) atoms (Figure 2). On the basis of these observations, one would expect His466 to have a prominent role in the activation of O₂ for reaction with the flavin hydroquinone.

Two mutant variants where His466 is replaced with alanine or aspartate were prepared, purified, and characterized.^{17,43} The His466Asp enzyme is devoid of enzymatic activity, incorporates substoichiometric amounts of FAD primarily not covalently bound to the protein, stabilizes the neutral hydroquinone upon anaerobic reduction with choline, and promptly denatures upon titration with glycine betaine.⁴³ These data indicate that the introduction of a protein negative charge close to the flavin N(1)–C(2) atoms yields defective flavinylation of the protein and complete loss of enzymatic activity. The His466Ala enzyme, instead, shows a 60-fold decrease in k_{cat} allowing for a mechanistic investigation of the role of His466.¹⁷ Substrate and solvent kinetic isotope effects and pH profiles of the kinetic parameters and of the partial rescuing of the enzymatic activity by imidazolium demonstrate that His466 modulates the electrophilicity of the flavin and the polarity of the active site and stabilizes the transition state for choline oxidation.¹⁷ However, the second-order rate constant for reaction of the flavin hydroquinone with O₂ (k_{cat}/K_{oxygen}) determined for the His466Ala enzyme is only 1.5-times lower than that of the wild-type enzyme (Table 1).¹⁷ This rules out His466 as actively participating in O₂ activation for the reaction with the flavin hydroquinone in choline oxidase.

 Scheme 2. Minimal Steady State Kinetic Mechanism of Choline Oxidase^a


^aValues for individual rate constants determined using steady state and rapid kinetics approaches are for pH 10.0.⁴⁴ E, enzyme; FAD_{ox}, oxidized flavin; FAD_{red}, flavin hydroquinone; CH, choline; BA, betaine aldehyde; GB, glycine betaine.

Table 1. Second-Order Rate Constants for O₂ Reaction of Choline Oxidase in Steady State Kinetics

enzyme variant	substrate	pH	$k_{\text{cat}}/K_{\text{oxygen}}$ (M ⁻¹ s ⁻¹)	references
wild-type	choline	6.0–10.0	90,000	44
	DMB	6.0–10.0	1,200	15
His466Ala	choline	7.0	55,000	17
His351Ala	choline	10.0	70,000	19
His99Asn	choline	10.0	124,000	18
Val464Ala	choline	5.0–10.0	1,700	30
	DMB	8.0	31	30

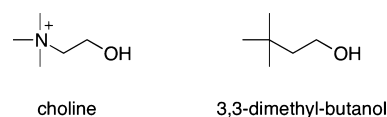
His351. His351 is present in the active site of choline oxidase, in a position equivalent to His559 of glucose oxidase (Figure 2). Although located 7 Å from the flavin C(4a) atom, His351 may contribute to O₂ activation, possibly through the action of intervening water molecules.

A mutant variant where His351 is replaced with alanine was constructed and investigated in its biochemical and mechanistic properties.¹⁹ Similar to His466, removal of the imidazole side chain on residue 351 results in a 1.2-fold decrease of the $k_{\text{cat}}/K_{\text{oxygen}}$ value with respect to the wild-type enzyme (Table 1).¹⁹ Consequently, His351 is not required for O₂ activation in choline oxidase. Instead, the mechanistic and biochemical data are consistent with His351 participating in substrate binding and positioning, stabilizing the transition state for choline oxidation, and contributing to the overall polarity of the active site by modulating the pK_a of the group that deprotonates choline.¹⁹

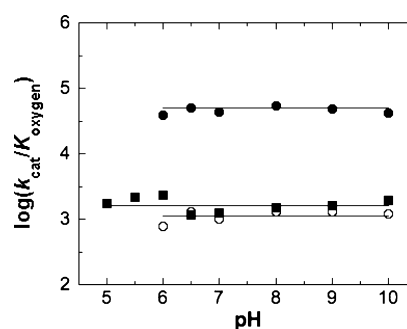
His99. A third histidine is present in the active site of choline oxidase at position 99, which is where FAD covalently attaches to the protein (Figure 2). Because of its distance from the flavin C(4a) atom, it appears unlikely that His99 participates in O₂ activation. However, it is conceivable that the covalent attachment of the flavin to the protein per se might play a role in O₂ activation, possibly by modulating the redox potential of the flavin.⁴⁸

The His99Asn enzyme was prepared, purified, and characterized.¹⁸ The flavin is tightly but not covalently bound to the protein, as expected.¹⁸ Surprisingly, the $k_{\text{cat}}/K_{\text{oxygen}}$ value is 1.4-times larger than in the wild-type enzyme (Table 1), indicating that His99 and the covalent linkage of the flavin to the protein do not contribute to O₂ or flavin activation for reaction. Instead, temperature effects on the rate constant for anaerobic substrate reduction and the associated kinetic isotope effects demonstrate that the FAD-histidyl covalent linkage is important for hydride tunneling in the reaction of choline oxidation.¹⁸ This has been shown to occur in a highly preorganized enzyme–substrate complex where minimal independent movements of the substrate and the flavin are allowed^{17,49} (for a recent review see ref 5).

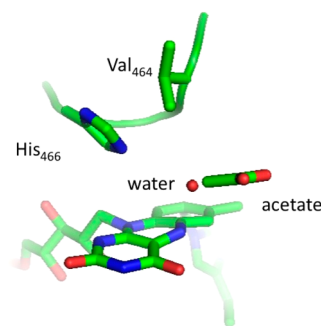
Substrate. O₂ reacts with the flavin hydroquinone in the enzyme in complex with the product of alcohol oxidation, as suggested by steady state kinetics with choline as substrate (Scheme 2).^{41,42,44} When choline is substituted with the uncharged analogue DMB (Figure 3), the $k_{\text{cat}}/K_{\text{oxygen}}$ is 1600 M⁻¹ s⁻¹.¹⁵ This represents a 80-fold decrease in the $k_{\text{cat}}/K_{\text{oxygen}}$ with respect to the value with choline (Table 1).¹⁵ The decrease in the $k_{\text{cat}}/K_{\text{oxygen}}$ with DMB as compared to choline, along with the minimal effects on $k_{\text{cat}}/K_{\text{oxygen}}$ of replacing each of the three histidines in the active site of the enzyme, unequivocally establish the positive charge of the organic product formed in turnover as being required for O₂ activation


Figure 3. Structure of choline and its isosteric analogue 3,3-dimethylbutanol.

for reaction with the flavin hydroquinone. Steric considerations for O₂ not being properly positioned or oriented in the active site for reaction with the flavin when the substrate analogue is used can be dismissed because DMB is isosteric with choline (Figure 3). In agreement with O₂ activation being exerted by the nonionizable charge of the enzyme-catalyzed product of the reaction rather than a histidine residue, the $k_{\text{cat}}/K_{\text{oxygen}}$ values of the wild-type enzyme with both choline and DMB are pH-independent between pH 6.0 and 10.0 (Figure 4).^{15,18,41}


Figure 4. pH profiles of the $k_{\text{cat}}/K_{\text{oxygen}}$ values of choline oxidase wild-type with choline (●) and DMB (○) and Val464Ala enzyme with choline (■) determined at varying concentrations of both organic substrate and O₂ at 25 °C. Data are from refs 44 and 15.

Val464. In the X-ray structure of the Ser101Ala variant of choline oxidase cocrystallized with the product analogue acetate,³⁵ a water molecule is sandwiched between the flavin C(4a) atom and the N(3) atom of the side chain of His466, at 3.8 Å from both (Figure 5). The water molecule is localized where O₂ is predicted to react with the flavin hydroquinone, as suggested by enhanced-statistics molecular dynamics simulations in alditol oxidase and the monooxygenase component (C₂) of *p*-hydroxyphenylacetate hydroxylase showing that multiple diffusion pathways guide O₂ to localize close to the flavin C(4a) atom.²⁵ In this regard, a trapped flavin C(4a)–OH


Figure 5. Active site of choline oxidase showing Val464. The product analogue acetate was cocrystallized with the protein. A water molecule located between the acetate, His466, Val464, and the flavin C(4a)–N(5) atoms is shown. The structure of the Ser101Ala variant of the enzyme is shown, from the Protein Data Bank entry 3NNE.³⁵

or C(4a)–OO(H) adduct has been observed by singly crystal spectroscopy and in the X-ray structure of the free wild-type form of choline oxidase devoid of ligands.³⁸ While to date there has not been evidence for a similar flavin C(4a) adduct in choline oxidase in solution, the X-ray structure is consistent with O₂ being guided to the flavin C(4a) atom from the side where Val464 is located. In the active site of choline oxidase, Val464 is spatially adjacent to His466 at a distance of 3.5 Å from the water (Figure 5), suggesting that it may contribute to the localization of O₂ for reaction with the flavin hydroquinone. X-ray crystallography, site-directed mutagenesis, and mechanistic approaches have been used to investigate the role of Val464 in catalysis.^{30,40}

The mutant enzyme where Val464 is substituted with alanine (PDB code 3LJP; 2.2 Å) is essentially identical to the wild-type enzyme (PDB code 2jbv; 1.86 Å), with an rmsd value of 0.67 Å for 1056 topologically equivalent C_α atoms.³⁰ The reductive half-reaction is not significantly affected in either the Val464Ala or Val464Thr mutant enzymes, as indicated by anaerobic stopped-flow kinetics on the reduction of the enzyme-bound flavin with choline.⁴⁰ Instead, steady state and rapid kinetic analyses of the mutant enzymes, along with enzyme monitored turnover experiments, indicate that the oxidative half-reaction is significantly affected by the mutations of Val464.³⁰ In the Val464Ala enzyme, the $k_{\text{cat}}/K_{\text{oxygen}}$ has a pH-independent average value of 1700 M⁻¹ s⁻¹ (Figure 4), which is 50-fold lower than that of the wild-type enzyme (Table 1).³⁰ Thus, the nonpolar side chain of Val464 is important for O₂ reaction with the flavin hydroquinone, likely by contributing to the geometry and the desolvation of the reaction site where O₂ localizes for the subsequent reaction with the flavin.³⁰ With DMB as substrate for the Val464Ala enzyme, the $k_{\text{cat}}/K_{\text{oxygen}}$ value further decreases by 55-fold as compared to choline as substrate for the same mutant enzyme (Table 1).³⁰ A thermodynamic analysis of the effects on $k_{\text{cat}}/K_{\text{oxygen}}$ of the replacement of valine with alanine in the protein and of choline with DMB as substrate for the Val464Ala enzyme indicates that the two effects are additive.³⁰ Thus, the function of the nonpolar, aminoacyl side chain that allows O₂ localization to the site of reaction and the subsequent O₂ activation through the electrostatic effects of the positive charge harbored on the reaction product are independent of each other.

■ GENERAL RELEVANCE TO FLAVOPROTEIN OXIDASES

Table 2 summarizes the flavoprotein oxidases for which a positive charge has been established in O₂ activation for reaction with flavin hydroquinones by using mechanistic and mutagenic data. To date, histidine, lysine, or the organic product generated in the oxidation reaction have each been shown to act as an electrostatic catalyst. Arginine is notably missing from the list, likely because in the active site of flavoproteins guanido groups typically participate in the binding of substrate carboxylates,^{50–54} thereby abating possible electrostatic effects on O₂.

O₂ activation by a positive charge on the reaction product is likely of importance for flavoprotein oxidases that oxidize amines, such as for example D-amino acid oxidase and monoamine oxidase. These enzymes typically generate positively charged imino products, which are then released to the bulk solvent and converted to the corresponding keto acids upon reacting with water.^{55,56} With D-amino acid oxidase, the rate constants for flavin oxidation determined in a stopped-flow

Table 2. O₂ Activation by a Positive Charge in Flavoprotein Oxidases

enzyme	rate constant (M ⁻¹ s ⁻¹)	positive charge	references
choline oxidase	90,000 ^a	reaction product	15
glucose oxidase	1,500,000 ^a	His516	9
monomeric sarcosine oxidase	280,000 ^b	Lys265	14
N-methyltryptophan oxidase	210,000 ^b	Lys259	13
fructosamine oxidase	160,000 ^b	Lys276	12
polyamine oxidase	21,000 ^a	not Lys315	60

^aDetermined by using steady state kinetics. ^bDetermined by using rapid kinetics.

spectrophotometer are 10-times faster in the presence of the imino product of the reaction than in the free enzyme.⁵⁷ Moreover, no positively charged protein groups that could serve for O₂ activation are present in the active site of the enzyme.⁵⁰ These observations are consistent with the product of the enzymatic reaction being important in O₂ activation, although they do not demonstrate per se an electrostatic effect, since geometric and desolvation effects arising from the product being bound in the active site of the enzyme cannot be ruled out. Similar 10-fold enhancements in the rate constants for flavin oxidation have been reported for both monoamine oxidase A and B with the enzyme in complex with kynuramine and benzylamine, respectively, as compared to their free form.⁵⁸ The active site of monoamine oxidase contains a conserved lysine,⁵⁹ but its mechanistic role is not known. Recent studies on a member of the monoamine oxidase enzyme family, polyamine oxidase,⁵⁵ are consistent with the active site Lys315 being unprotonated for optimal O₂ reactivity and demonstrate that the $k_{\text{cat}}/K_{\text{oxygen}}$ is minimally affected in the Lys315Met mutant enzyme as compared to the wild-type enzyme.⁶⁰ Thus, it appears that polyamine oxidase exploits a strategy different than a protein charge for O₂ activation.⁶⁰ While lack of a ternary complex of the enzyme with the organic product and O₂ in turnover has been proposed for polyamine oxidase,⁶¹ it has not been demonstrated.⁶² Thereby, the contribution of the reaction product to O₂ activation is a viable alternative to the conserved lysine in the polyamine and monoamine oxidase family.

A nonpolar site proximal to the positive charge that activates O₂, and similar to that provided by Val464 in choline oxidase, is likely a general feature of flavoprotein oxidases, irrespective of the localization of the charge on the protein or the reaction product. This is because any electrostatic effect on the activation of O₂ would be maximized in a nonpolar, desolvated environment rather than in a more polar environment. Moreover, such a nonpolar site is also expected to be a critical feature contributing to the geometry of the site where O₂ must localize for subsequent activation and reaction with the C(4a) atom of the flavin hydroquinone. In this respect, analysis of three-dimensional structures suggests the presence of nonpolar side chains in proximity of the flavin C(4a) atom of several flavoprotein oxidases, including for example glucose oxidase (Val560), monomeric sarcosine oxidase (Phe 256), cholesterol oxidase (Leu377), pyranose 2-oxidase (Phe454), monoamine oxidase A and B (Phe352 and Phe343, respectively), polyamine oxidase (Leu375), D-amino acid oxidase (Ile230), and glycolate oxidase (Trp110). These enzymes oxidize alcohols, primary and

secondary amines, or α -hydroxy acids, and belong to multiple protein families. While most of them share a PHBH protein fold, glycolate oxidase has an (α/β)₈ barrel fold, suggesting that the catalytic motif composed of a nonpolar site proximal to the flavin C(4a) atom and a positive charge may have evolved more than once. Nonpolar cavities that completely encapsulate and desolvate O₂ have been identified in the X-ray structures of flavoprotein monooxygenases, in which highly reactive C(4a)–OO(H) adducts that form after O₂ activation must be stabilized to ensure subsequent hydroxylation of substrates.²⁵ In oxidases, however, the requirement for nonpolar sites being encapsulated in cavities is not as stringent, since the major obstacle for O₂ reduction is the initial activation of O₂ to O₂^{•−},^{2,24} and destabilization of reaction intermediates is preferred, rather than their stabilization, in order to avoid leaking of reactive oxygen species from the active site of the enzyme.

■ GENERAL RELEVANCE TO O₂ REDUCING ENZYMES WITH COFACTORS OTHER THAN FLAVINS

Reduction of O₂ by enzymes with cofactors other than flavins has been investigated in non-heme-dependent soybean lipoxygenase, iron/pterin-dependent tyrosine hydroxylase, and copper/TPQ amine oxidase.³¹ O₂ reduction in lipoxygenase begins with a single-electron transfer from a substrate-derived radical,⁶³ thereby circumventing the requirement that triplet O₂ must be activated for reaction as for the case of flavin reactions. Site directed mutagenesis and mechanistic studies have provided evidence that the side chain of Ile553 provides a nonpolar site responsible for O₂ binding not at the metal center.⁶³ With rat tyrosine hydroxylase, ¹⁸O and deuterium kinetic isotope effects have demonstrated that the overall rate of O₂ reduction is determined by a single electron transfer likely involving the enzyme-bound tetrahydropterin, which generates O₂^{•−} and tetrahydropterin radical.⁶⁴ Two implications derive from this mechanism: (1) the ferrous iron cofactor likely is the main electrostatic catalyst for O₂ activation, but it is not required for O₂ localization at the reaction center; (2) O₂ would bind to an off-metal site, which has not been identified yet. With bovine serum amine oxidase, ¹⁸O kinetic isotope effects, enzyme-monitored turnover, and solvent and kinetic isotope effects have shown that O₂ activation occurs through a single electron transfer to the enzyme-bound TPQ that generates O₂^{•−}/TPQ semiquinone.³¹ Steady state kinetics on recombinant amine oxidase from *Hansenula polymorpha* has shown that the enzyme reconstituted with Co(II) turns over with k_{cat} similar to that of the native enzyme containing Cu(II).³¹ These data establish that Cu(II) does not change its valence during catalytic turnover, but rather acts as electrostatic catalyst for O₂ activation. Site directed mutagenesis, coupled to kinetic and mechanistic studies, has further demonstrated the presence of a nonpolar site proximal to copper, mainly provided by the side chain of Met634, which contributes to the geometry of the site where O₂ must localize for subsequent activation.⁶⁵

Besides flavin-dependent oxidases and the enzymes discussed above, a number of enzyme families are known to reduce O₂. These include monooxygenases that utilize heme, nonheme iron or iron/pterin, dioxygenases that reduce O₂ through heme or nonheme iron, and oxidases that use copper, heme/copper, or molybdenum-pterin as cofactors or that are cofactor-independent. It is predicted that enzymes in these families will contain nonpolar sites proximal to positive charges similar

to those identified in flavin- and copper-TPQ/dependent oxidases.

■ CONCLUSION

A major hurdle to O₂ reduction by flavin hydroquinones is the obligatory, initial single-electron transfer that generates the O₂^{•−}/flavin semiquinone radical pair,^{2,24} which is thermodynamically unfavorable.²⁴ Thus, thermodynamic stabilization of the O₂^{•−}/flavin semiquinone radical pair and, consequently, of the associated transition state originating from the O₂/flavin hydroquinone pair, must occur in order to achieve the rate accelerations typically observed in flavoprotein oxidases and monooxygenases. Evidence indicates that flavoprotein oxidases achieve 100–1000-fold rate accelerations with respect to flavins in solution mainly through electrostatic catalysis, by utilizing a positive charge close to the flavin C(4a) atom.¹ While alternate catalytic strategies that could stabilize the transition state for the obligatory first-electron transfer can be envisioned, such as for example an oxyanion hole with hydrogen bonding interactions to O₂^{•−}, evidence in their favor is lacking. To date, the protein positive charges identified in the active sites of flavoprotein oxidases are harbored on histidine or lysine side chains. In choline oxidase, despite the presence of three histidines in the active site, the trimethylammonium group on the product of the enzymatic oxidation of choline, betaine aldehyde, activates O₂. Similar strategies for O₂ activation in which the charge is carried on the product of the reaction rather than the protein are possibly utilized by other flavoprotein oxidases for which positively charged products have been established. Structural analysis suggests that nonpolar sites close to the flavin C(4a) atom and a positive charge, irrespective of its location in the protein or the product of the oxidation reaction, are likely present in several other flavoprotein oxidases of different families. Similar catalytic motifs have been identified in copper/TPQ or iron-dependent enzymes. Thus, it appears that a catalytic motif composed of a positive charge in a nonpolar environment is present in different protein families that utilize different tools, but similar strategies, to reduce O₂. Similar catalytic motifs are predicted in O₂ reducing enzymes that contain cofactors other than flavins, copper/TPQ, or iron, or that reduce O₂ in a cofactor-independent fashion.

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■ ADDITIONAL NOTE

^aWhile intersecting lines in Lineweaver–Burk plots demonstrate the existence of a catalytically competent ternary complex,^{67,68} parallel lines do not immediately disprove its existence as for the cases in which flavin reduction is practically irreversible.^{69,70} With a number of flavoprotein oxidases, but not with mouse polyamine oxidase, product inhibition or steady–steady kinetics at constant ratios of substrate and O₂ have been successfully employed to establish the absence or presence of a ternary complex in the kinetic mechanism.^{13,61,71–75}

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