Enzymatic control of cycloadduct conformation ensures reversible 1,3 dipolar cycloaddition in a prFMN dependent decarboxylase

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Abstract

The UbiD enzyme plays an important role in bacterial ubiquinone (coenzyme Q) biosynthesis. It belongs to a family of reversible decarboxylases that interconvert propenoic or aromatic acids with the corresponding alkenes or aromatic compounds using a prenylated flavin (prFMN) cofactor. This cofactor is suggested to support (de)carboxylation through a reversible 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition process. Here we report an atomic-level description of the reaction of the UbiD related ferulic acid decarboxylase with substituted propenoic and propiolic acids (data ranging from 1.01 to 1.39 Å). The enzyme is only able to couple (de)carboxylation of cinnamic acid-type compounds to reversible 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition, while formation of dead-end prFMN cycloadducts occurs with distinct propenoic and propiolic acids. The active site imposes considerable strain on covalent intermediates formed with cinnamic and phenylpropionic acids. Strain reduction through mutagenesis negatively affects catalytic rates with cinnamic acid, indicating a direct link between enzyme-induced strain and catalysis that is supported by computational studies.

Many enzymes make use of covalent catalysis to achieve substantial rate enhancements, often by recruiting cofactors such as PLP¹, TPP² and flavins³. To ensure high turnover, these enzymes are inherently required to ensure both rapid and reversible cofactor-ligand adduct formation. In the case of the UbiD enzyme family, reversible decarboxylation has been suggested to occur via a 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition process between the substrate and the UbiD-cofactor, prenylated FMN (prFMN)⁴, enabled by the azomethine ylide character of the azomethine ylide character of the
latter. While 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition is commonly used in organic synthesis, here we describe this particular process in enzymatic catalysis. Diels-Alder reactions have also recently been found to be catalysed by dedicated enzymes, but these are not reported to be reversible. Similarly, 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition reactions such as biocompatible ‘click’-chemistry are not considered reversible, although the possibility of force-induced cycloreversion is a recent and controversial topic. In the case of the fungal ferulic acid decarboxylase (Fdc) UbiD-enzyme, 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition between prFMNiminium and the cinnamic acid substrate (Int1) is proposed to lead to an initial pyrrolidine cycloadduct (Int1) that supports decarboxylation concomitant with ring opening, resulting in formation of a distinct prFMN-alkene adduct (Int2). A conserved Glu residue is proposed to donate a proton to the alkene moiety, leading to a second pyrrolidine cycloadduct (Int3). Finally, the reaction cycle concludes with cycloelimination of Int3, leading to alkene product formation and release. The reaction is readily reversible at elevated [CO2]. There is no direct experimental evidence that any of the proposed intermediates exist, although indirect evidence supporting this mechanism has been reported. Alternative mechanisms proposed to occur with distinct forms of the cofactor have been discounted. However, it remains unclear how the enzyme is able to ensure reversibility of the 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition steps. We aimed to determine whether detailed structural insights could be gained into catalysis by A. niger Fdc1, an enzyme used as a model prFMN decarboxylase by virtue of the fact it yields atomic resolution crystal structures.

Results

Structure of the AnFdc1 substrate complex

Catalytically competent AnFdc1 crystals were made by avoiding illumination of the protein during sample preparation and crystallisation, preventing photo-induced cofactor isomerisation and inactivation. Incubation of crystals with cinnamic acid for brief periods of time (typically 10-15 seconds) led to rapid sample deterioration, likely due to styrene accumulation. Electron density obtained with diffraction data from cinnamic acid soaked crystals (prior to crystal dissolution) unambiguously revealed the location of the substrate benzyl moiety above the prFMNiminium isoalloxazine ring system, but revealed density corresponding to multiple conformations of the substrate acrylic acid moiety (vide infra). In contrast, rapid soaking and flash-cooling of crystals with alpha-fluorocinnamic acid revealed clear density for the substrate positioned directly above the prFMNiminium azomethine ylide functionality (i.e. Sub complex, to 1.1 Å resolution; Fig 2a). We could confirm that cinnamic acid binds to the protein in the same conformation, by using inactive AnFdc1 crystals that contained FMN rather than prFMNiminium (to 1.26 Å resolution; Supplementary Fig 1a). In the case of the alpha-fluorocinnamic acid prFMN complex, the substrate Cα and Cβ carbons are located directly above the prFMNiminium C1’ and C4a (Fig 1), at distances of 3.0 Å and 3.4 Å respectively, in a reactive conformation compatible with the proposed cycloaddition.

The E282Q AnFdc1 variant allows structure determination of the Int2 covalent adduct

In order to determine whether covalent adducts (either Int1 or Int2) might accumulate in the absence of the Glu282 mediated protonation step, we sought to determine the crystal
structure of the inactive AnFdc1 E282Q variant\textsuperscript{14} in complex with cinnamic acid and cinnamic acid derivatives. Indeed, UV-Vis spectroscopy of AnFdc1 E282Q incubated with cinnamic acid leads to formation of a distinct spectral species, indicative of adduct formation (Supplementary Fig 2a). The E282Q crystal structure obtained by co-crystallisation with cinnamic acid reveals a covalent prFMN-substrate complex, corresponding to the proposed \textbf{Int2} species following decarboxylation (to 1.18 Å resolution; Fig 2b). The substrate alkene bond retains the \textit{trans} configuration but substantially deviates from ideal planar geometry, with a torsional angle of $\tau = \sim 112^{\circ}$ (as opposed to 180$^{\circ}$ for a planar \textit{trans} configuration) and an elongated C\textalpha=\textbeta bond length of 1.37 Å. Exchange of the bound cinnamic acid for alpha-fluorocinnamic acid or pentafluorocinnamic acid readily occurs \textit{in crystallo}, demonstrating a \textbf{Sub $\leftrightarrow$ Int2 + CO$_2$} equilibrium exists in E282Q (Supplementary Fig 1b,c). The alpha-fluorocinnamic acid \textbf{Int2} structure (to 1.13 Å resolution) directly demonstrates \textit{syn}-pyramidalisation\textsuperscript{15} of the substrate alkene C\textalpha (pyramidalisation angle of $\phi \sim 20^{\circ}$), which is likely to be a result of the torsional strain imposed. The observed alkene distortion is a likely consequence of the firm hold the enzyme active site exerts on the substrate phenyl moiety, held in place by I187, I327 and F437 at a position directly above and stacked with the prFMN plane. For all E282Q \textbf{Int2} structures, the prFMN C1' is located further out of the prFMN plane by $\sim 0.4$ Å when compared to other prFMN single bond adduct species (\textit{i.e.} PDB 4ZA9; Fig 2c). In the case of cinnamic acid E282Q \textbf{Int2}, this places the C\textbeta directly above the prFMN C4a at a distance of 3.04 Å, while the C\textalpha atom is in closer proximity ($\sim 3.2$ Å) of the location occupied by the Glu282 carboxylate moiety in the wild-type enzyme structure.

### Structure of cycloadducts Int$1'$ and Int$3'$ formed with alkyne compounds

The substrate and product alkyne analogues phenylpropionic acid and phenylacetylene were used to determine whether cycloadducts \textbf{Int1} and/or \textbf{Int3}, respectively can be observed in the wild-type enzyme. These compounds can also act as dipolarophiles, but cycloaddition will lead to the double bond-containing 3-pyrroline \textbf{Int 1'} rather than the pyrrolidine cycloadducts (Fig 1). Upon addition of either alkyne compound, a clear shift is observed in the enzyme UV-Vis spectrum indicating modification of the prFMN\textsuperscript{iminium} cofactor, with the formation of a species distinct from the E282Q \textbf{Int2} adduct (Supplementary Fig 2b). Stopped-flow experiments reveal the formation of this alkyne intermediate occurs with $k_{obs} = 101.5 \pm 0.4$ s$^{-1}$ (Supplementary Fig 3), but following prolonged incubation no product formation could be observed (Supplementary Fig 2c). To investigate the phenylpropionic acid complex prior to reaction (\textit{i.e.} \textbf{Inhib} complex), inactive crystals of AnFdc1 (with prFMN in a semiquinone radical form) were used, revealing the inhibitor (to 1.29 Å resolution) binds in a similar manner to the alpha-fluorocinnamic acid:prFMN or cinnamic acid substrate:FMN complexes obtained. This positions the alkyne C\textalpha and C\textbeta directly above the prFMN\textsuperscript{radical} C1' and C4a at distances of 3.3 Å and 3.7 Å (Supplementary Fig 1d). In contrast, crystals of active AnFdc1 co-crystallised with phenylpropionic acid (to 1.01 Å resolution) or soaked with phenylacetylene (to 1.10 Å resolution) revealed clear density for a 3-pyrroline cycloadduct (\textbf{Int3'}, analogous to the proposed \textbf{Int3}) formed between the alkyne moiety and the prFMN\textsuperscript{iminium} (Fig 3a). Hence, surprisingly, the phenylpropionic acid derived adduct lacked density for the carboxylate moiety, and was highly similar to that obtained with phenylacetylene (Supplementary Fig 1e). This suggests decarboxylation has

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occurred over the prolonged time frame required for co-crystallisation (typically exceeding 24 hours). Indeed, when using a rapid soaking procedure as an alternative approach, a distinct cycloadduct (Int1'; to 1.21 Å resolution) is observed that retains the carboxyl moiety attached to the prFMN C1’ group and thus resembles the proposed Int1; Fig 3b). We used a mass spectrometry-based detection method to demonstrate slow decarboxylation occurs within a 24 hour time period in solution, confirming the conversion of Int1’ to Int3’ mimicking the natural activity of the enzyme with cinnamic acid occurs (Supplementary Fig 4a). We then took advantage of the distinct spectral change associated with cycloadduct formation to determine if cycloaddition with natural substrates can also be monitored in solution. Indeed, rapid mixing of the enzyme with cinnamic or sorbic acid substrates revealed spectral changes in the UV-Vis spectrum of prFMN similar to those observed with the alkyne inhibitors (Supplementary Fig 3b,c). This suggest that, for these substrates, cycloadduct(s) accumulate under multiple turnover conditions.

The AnFdc1 active site constrains cycloadduct conformation

While both Int1’ and Int3’ structures confirm 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition can occur with the prFMNiminium cofactor, several features indicate a significant degree of strain in these cycloadduct(s). The phenylpropioic acid Int1’ structure deviates from ideal bond parameters both in the position of the inhibitor phenyl group (Cβ out-of-phenyl plane angle is ~24° as opposed to ideal 0°), the deviation of the 3-pyrroline ring (C1’-Cα-Cβ bond angle of ~99°, as compared to ideal 108°), prFMN tetrahedral C4a bond angles (C2-C4a-Cβ bond angle of ~103° versus ideal 109.5° of sp² C4a) as well as the elongated C4a-Cβ bond length of 1.7 Å (Fig 4a). Following decarboxylation, the position of the Int3’ 3-pyrroline ring shifts (Fig 3c) to alleviate some of the phenyl group strain (Cβ out-of-plane angle reduced to ~16°) as well as the deviation of the 3-pyrroline ring (C1’-Cα-Cβ bond angle of ~111°; Cβ-C4a bond length of 1.65 Å). The protein does not alter in conformation when comparing the Inhib/Int1’ and Int3’ structures, with the notable exception of Glu282, which reorients to occupy the substrate/inhibitor carboxylate binding pocket in Int3’ (a motion similar to the CO₂ for Glu282 exchange proposed to occur during catalysis, Fig 1). In the latter, Glu282 forms an interaction with the 3-pyrroline substrate-derived Ca (distance ~3.2 Å to either E282 oxygen; Fig 3a). Glu282 mediated proton donation or abstraction would interconvert Int3’ with the putative prFMN C1’ – alkyne adduct Int2’ (the complex analogous to Int2; Fig 1). However, an ‘unstrained’ linear C1’-alkyne adduct –with a C1’-Cα≡Cβ angle of 180°– is sterically incompatible with the AnFdc1 active site, suggesting a highly strained Int2’ (similar to strained cyloalkyne species¹⁵) connects the Int1’ and Int3’ species, providing a likely explanation for the extremely slow rate of Int1’ decarboxylation.

Mutagenesis alleviates cycloadduct strain and impacts catalysis

As observed for the Int2 E282Q structures, the strain observed in the Int1’ and Int3’ structures appears to be a direct consequence of the inherent restrictions imposed by the rigid AnFdc1 active site. The position of the substrate aromatic group appears constrained to remain π-stacked with the prFMN isoalloxazine ring, by virtue of steric interactions with the Phe437 sidechain located adjacent to the conserved Leu439. This in turn imposes restrictions on the extent by which the prFMN isoalloxazine ring system can deform upon

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formation of a C4a-Cβ bond with substrate, as the flavin uracil ring is sandwiched between Ala172 on the si face and the substrate aromatic group at the re face. We constructed the F437L and L439G variants and determined the crystal structures in complex with phenylpropionic acid, as well as the activity with cinnamic acid. We found both mutations severely compromised enzyme activity as judged from steady state turnover. In the case of L439G, a substantial increase of $K_M$ was observed, while the F437L variant was only affected in $k_{cat}$ confirming a key role for Phe437 in catalysis (Supplementary Fig 5b,d). In the corresponding phenylpropionic acid adduct crystal structures for both variants, Int1’ decarboxylation in crystallo was not observed, even following co-crystallisation and prolonged incubation (up to several weeks) prior to X-ray exposure. This lack of decarboxylation activity with Int1’ was confirmed in solution (Supplementary Fig 4b). In the case of the L439G Int1’ crystal structure (to 1.12 Å resolution), a modest reorientation of the substrate carboxyl group along with a minor reduction of the Cβ out-of-plane angle is observed, associated with a corresponding reorientation of the F437 phenyl ring (Fig 3d). The void created by the L439G mutation is filled with a water molecule located within hydrogen bonding distance of the Int1’ carboxylate, reducing the hydrophobicity of the carboxylate binding pocket. In addition, the L439G void was partially filled by the phenyl group of a second phenylpropionic acid molecule, bound at the entrance of the active site. This observation offers a possible explanation for the drastic increase of the observed $K_M$ for cinnamic acid in the L439G (as opposed to F437L) mutant, as similar binding of a second cinnamic acid molecule could be required for decarboxylation by L439G. The hydrophobic nature of the carboxylic acid binding pocket has been implicated in the mechanism of other decarboxylases.\textsuperscript{16,17} In marked contrast, the F437L mutation does not affect the carboxylate binding or conformation, but subtly alters the position of the substrate phenyl moiety (structure obtained to 1.08 Å resolution; Fig 3e,f). This reorientation, while retaining a strained conformation of the Cβ out-of-plane angle of ~25°, is associated with elongation of the Cβ-C4a bond to 1.8 Å. It thus appears the Phe437 side chain counteracts the forces exerted on the prFMN 3-pyrroline ring through enzyme interactions with the Int1’ carboxylate.

Smaller dipolarophile compounds form dead-end cycloadducts

Unfortunately, other mutations at the Phe437 position that could lead to further reduction of strain imposed by the 437 side-chain led to variants that did not bind the prFMN cofactor. We therefore co-crystallised the WT enzyme with 2-butynoic acid, avoiding the enzyme imposed adduct strain by interactions with the missing substrate phenyl moiety. In this case, an Int1’ butynoic structure was obtained to 1.02 Å resolution, revealing no decarboxylation had occurred (Fig 3g). Furthermore, the Int1’ butynoic is markedly different from the strained phenylpropionic acid derived Int1’ structure (Fig 3h). Little to no features associated with a strained Int1’ configuration can be observed in the case of Int1’ butynoic, a consequence of repositioning of the prFMN iminium C4a and associated uracil plane. This repositioning leads to a near ideal conformation of the Int1’ butynoic 3-pyrroline ring, with a reduced Cβ-C4a bond length of 1.56 Å and a C1’-Cα-Cβ bond angle of ~107°, but is incompatible with the presence of a substrate phenyl group held within the context of either the WT or F437L variant structures. As a consequence of the uracil plane repositioning, the prFMN O1 has moved out of the oxyanion binding-pocket formed by Q191 and two water molecules.

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Decarboxylation of \( \text{Int}^1 \)', and by similarity \( \text{Int}^1 \), is likely assisted by the relatively hydrophobic nature of the carboxylate binding pocket, and ring opening of the strained cycloadduct to \( \text{Int}^2'/\text{Int}^2 \). It is however unclear what drives the cycloelimination step from \( \text{Int}^3 \) to product release, a process not observed for \( \text{Int}^3' \). Careful analysis of electron density associated with rapidly flash-cooled WT crystals incubated with cinnamic acid reveals this can be modeled as a mixture of 30% \( \text{Int}^3 \) and a 40% product complex (the remainder corresponding to the inactive hydroxylated prFMN species), suggesting cycloelimination is the rate limiting step under these conditions, as has previously been suggested\(^\text{13}\) (to 1.24 Å resolution; Fig 2d). As observed with the \( \text{Int}^3' \) structure, the \( \text{Int}^3 \ C\beta \) has an out-of-plane angle of \(-13^\circ\), with additional strain observed for the Ca-C\beta-C\gamma angle of \(-122^\circ\), both associated with the tight hold the enzyme exerts on the substrate phenyl moiety and resulting in an C1' \text{endo} \) envelope conformation of the pyrrolidine ring (as opposed to the N \text{endo} \) conformation of the \( \text{Int}^3' \) enforced by the Ca-C\beta double bond (Fig 4a). Hence, to determine how \( \text{Int}^3 \) strain might assist cycloelimination, we determined the structure of an \( \text{Int}^3 \text{crotonic} \) species (to 1.39 Å resolution), obtained by co-crystallisation with crotonic acid (2-butenoic acid; Fig 2e). A comparison of \( \text{Int}^3 \text{crotonic} \) with the cinnamic acid \( \text{Int}^3 \) (Fig 2f) reveals the \( \text{Int}^3 \text{crotonic} \) pyrrolidine ring adopts a distinct envelope conformation with the N in \text{endo} \) position, that allows the prFMN\text{iminium} C1' to adopt a more in-plane position, resembling the \( \text{Int}^3' \) geometry. The \( \text{Int}^3 \text{crotonic} \) conformation cannot be adopted by the cinnamic acid \( \text{Int}^3 \), as severe clashes between the substrate phenyl ring and the active site occur. We suggest the lack of strain in the \( \text{Int}^3 \text{crotonic} \) species is coupled to the fact no cycloelimination can be observed for this species, while a strained conformation such as that observed for cinnamic acid \( \text{Int}^3 \) is required for progression along the catalytic cycle.

Combining the various crystal structures of \( \text{Sub/Inhib}, \text{Int}^1'/\text{Int}^2 \) and \( \text{Int}^3' \) complexes with our solution data leads to a comprehensive overview of the \( \text{AnFdc1} \) catalytic cycle (Fig 4). The rigid \( \text{AnFdc1} \) active site brings the substrate into close proximity of the prFMN\text{iminium} cofactor, aligning the Ca-C\beta double bond (or triple bond in case of alkyne inhibitors) with the C1'-N5-C4a azomethine ylide to poise the complex for cycloaddition. Formation of a pyrrolidine adduct between a similar putative encounter complex of cinnamic acid and free prFMN\text{iminium} in solution would be accompanied by repositioning of both the Ca-C\beta and prFMN C1'/C4a carbon atoms. However, within the confines of the enzyme active site, the extent to which reorientation can occur is limited. In fact, the enzyme active site appears evolved to have maximum complementarity with the substrate and product complexes, and hence constrains both the substrate carboxylate and phenyl moieties to adopt a position resembling the substrate complex throughout catalysis. In the case of the \( \text{Int}^1 \text{butynoic} \) and \( \text{Int}^3 \text{crotonic} \) adducts, the lack of a phenyl moiety allows for a more relaxed conformation of the substrate/prFMN\text{iminium} adduct within the confines of the active site. Crucially, neither \( \text{Int}^1 \text{butynoic} \) decarboxylation nor \( \text{Int}^3 \text{crotonic} \) cycloelimination are observed suggesting that strain contributes to catalysis for both these steps.
Computational studies provide further insight into the AnFdc1 catalytic cycle

An active ‘cluster’ site model comprising ~ 230 atoms was built from the E282Q Int2 X-ray crystal structure. The positions of peripheral atoms were fixed to maintain a crystal structure-like geometry, in addition to constraining the position of the F437 and L439 side chains in most calculations to allow their contribution to strain in the adducts to be investigated. Stable models of each species as identified in Fig 1 were found for cinnamic acid, phenylpropionic acid and crotonic acid. In the case of cinnamic acid, cycloaddition (Sub → Int1) was found to occur as a 2-step reaction, via a ring-open covalent adduct (Int1<sup>open</sup>), which possesses an unusual Cβ–C4a interaction (2.60 Å) in addition to a Cα–C1’ bond (1.58 Å). The barrier to formation of the ring-closed Int1 intermediate is small (Fig 5), so the reaction may effectively occur as one asynchronous step. In contrast, no stable Int1<sup>open</sup>-type intermediates were observed for phenylpropionic or crotonic acid cycloaddition, which also leads to significantly more stable Int1 cycloadducts.

Cinnamic acid decarboxylation occurs from the ring-open Int1<sup>open</sup> species and the Int1<sup>open</sup> → Int2<sup>CO2</sup> potential barrier is relatively low at ~ 16 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup> (Fig 5). The barriers for phenylpropionic and crotonic acid decarboxylation were not determined, but may be much higher than for cinnamic acid and/or occur via a different mechanism, as these reactions cannot proceed via an Int1<sup>open</sup> intermediate and the decarboxylation of these is then significantly endothermic. In all cases, the Int2<sup>CO2</sup>, which contain noncovalently bound CO₂, remain ring-open with broken (~3 Å) Cβ–C4a bonds. The crotonic acid derived Int2<sup>CO2</sup> is most stable as it can adopt an unstrained ring-open conformation with near-ideal Cα–Cβ geometry. In contrast, both cinnamic acid and phenylpropionic Int2<sup>CO2</sup> intermediates adopt strained conformations with non-linear Cα–Cβ–Phenyl angles. Relaxation of the side chain constraints of Phe437 and Leu439, as a proxy of the F437L and L439G variants, relieves ~14 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup> of strain from the cinnamic acid derived Int2<sup>CO2</sup> adduct consistent with the role of these residues in constraining the geometry of the phenyl moiety of the adducts.

Once the CO₂ has vacated the active site, Glu282 mediated protonation of Cβ leads to the formation of a ring-closed Int3 species for all compounds. The release of CO₂ and Cβ protonation were not studied in detail, as these reactions require substantial rearrangement of Glu282, which would require much larger models. Cycloelimination (Int3 → Prod) to form non-covalently bound product complexes is exothermic and likely to be rate limiting in all three cases (Fig 5). Formation of styrene is the least exothermic (38 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup>), while cycloelimination of phenylacetylene is highly unfavorable, being 81 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup> uphill and likely proceeding via a barrier > 100 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup> (not determined). Similarly, the barrier to propylene cycloelimination is estimated at ~100 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup>. This is in agreement with our observation that turnover does not occur with either crotonic or phenylpropionic acid, with the reaction stalling at the Int3 stage. Crucially, in the case of cinnamic acid, the cycloelimination barrier was determined to be feasible, at 64 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup> and 78.5 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup> in the constrained and F437/L439-relaxed models respectively. The 14.4 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup> difference is at least qualitatively consistent with the ~30 fold decrease in k<sub>cat</sub> observed in the F439L variant (which retains some element of strain).
Discussion

In the case of the Fdc branch of the UbiD family, our data unambiguously establishes that the enzyme relies on covalent catalysis by the unusual prFMN cofactor through a reversible 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition process. The fact the active site is highly complementary in shape to the substrate/prFMNiminium complex prior to cycloaddition has the serendipitous consequence it does not yield to allow pyrrolidine ring substituents to adopt the ideal conformation. This results in the formation of strained intermediates, ensuring rapid progression through the catalytic cycle. While substrate distortion/ground state destabilization has long been suggested to contribute to enzyme catalysis, it has only been conclusively demonstrated in a limited number of cases, and rarely includes atomic resolution insights. Our study reveals in AnFdc1 distortion occurs specifically for covalent substrate-cofactor adducts only, and the strain is directly linked to progression along the reaction coordinate. Hence, by targeted destabilization of intermediate species only, AnFdc1 harnesses 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition as a readily reversible reaction. This aligns with the proposals from Albery and Knowles for evolution of an efficient enzyme by control of the internal thermodynamics of the bound states. Interestingly, many members of the UbiD family act directly on aromatic substrates, and can act in the carboxylative direction as suggested for the anaerobic degradation of benzene. (De)carboxylation of aromatic substrates presents a large inherent barrier to cycloaddition due to transient substrate dearomatization, as well as scope for formation of a highly stable Int2 adduct by re-aromatization. How these problems are overcome, particularly in view of whether the prFMN-dependent catalysis in these enzymes is similar to the Fdc branch, awaits a more detailed analysis of additional members of the UbiD family. Finally, our data suggests mechanochemical reversion of 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition reactions is feasible, providing further support to the possibility of developing mecanoresponsive materials through reversible click-chemistry. Our data show Nature is able to harness and control 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition chemistry by combination of a unique cofactor with strict mecanocochemical control.

Methods

See Supplementary Information for methods.

Supplementary Material

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

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Data availability

The data generated and analysed in this study, including the computational modeling data associated with all figures, are available from the corresponding authors upon reasonable request. The diffraction data and corresponding atomic models have been deposited in the PDB under accession codes 6R3G, 6R3F, 6R3I, 6R2Z, 6R30, 6R3O, 6R2T, 6R2R, 6R3N, 6R3L, 6R3J, 6R2P, 6R34, 6R33 and 6R32.

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Fig 1. *A. niger* Fdc proposed enzyme mechanism. The decarboxylation of cinnamic acid (in red) or the alkyne substrate analogue phenylpropionic acid (in blue) by covalent catalysis using the prFMN$^\text{iminium}$ cofactor (in black) is shown. Following the binding step, a 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition between the dipolarophile ligand and the azomethine ylide cofactor leads to the first cycloadduct species Int1. The additional unsaturated bond shown in blue highlights the reaction with the alkyne substrate analogue. Decarboxylation occurs concomitant with ring opening and formation of Int2. The bound CO$_2$ leaves the active site and is replaced by the E282 side chain (shown in green). Protonation via E282 leads to formation of a second cycloadduct species Int3. A cycloelimination process leads to formation of styrene and the entire reaction cycle is freely reversible. The labels for species for which crystal structures are determined here are underlined.
Fig. 2. Crystal structures of *A. niger* Fdc with propionic acid substrates.

a. Active site structure of Fdc in complex with alpha-fluorocinnamic acid. b. Omit electron density contoured at 4.5 sigma and corresponding model of the cinnamic acid Int2 in the E282Q mutant. c. Overlay between the Int2 E282Q covalent adduct formed and the adduct obtained with phenylpyruvate (PDB 4ZA9) d. Omit electron density contoured at 3 sigma and corresponding model of the cinnamic acid Int3 (populated at 30%) trapped by rapid flash-cooling of WT crystals following exposure to cinnamic acid (Supplementary Fig. 1 shows the product complex for comparison). e. Omit electron density contoured at 4 sigma corresponding to Int3 crotonic. f. Overlay between the Int3 and Int3 crotonic acid covalent adducts formed.
Fig 3. Crystal structures of *A. niger* Fdc with propiolic acid substrate analogues.

**a.** Omit electron density contoured at 5 sigma and corresponding model of the phenylpropionic acid derived **Int3’** obtained through co-crystallisation (Calpha-C1’ 1.52 Å and Cbeta-C4a 1.66 Å bond distances).

**b.** Omit electron density contoured at 4 sigma and corresponding model of the phenylpropionic acid derived **Int1’** obtained through soaking and rapid flash-cooling (Calpha-C1’ 1.59 Å and Cbeta-C4a 1.70 Å bond distances).

**c.** Overlay between the phenylpropionic acid derived **Int1’** and **Int3’** covalent adducts formed.

**d.** Omit electron density contoured at 4 sigma and corresponding model of the phenylpropionic acid...
derived \textbf{Int1}' for the L439G variant (Calpha-C1’ 1.48 Å and Cbeta-C4a 1.86 Å bond distances). \textbf{e}. Omit electron density contoured at 4 sigma and corresponding model of the phenylpropionic acid derived \textbf{Int1}' for the F437L variant (Calpha-C1’ 1.51 Å and Cbeta-C4a 1.79 Å bond distances). \textbf{f}. Overlay between the \textbf{Int1}' adduct obtained in the WT and the F437L variant. \textbf{g}. Omit electron density contoured at 4 sigma and corresponding model of the 2-butynoic acid derived \textbf{Int1}^{butynoic} (Calpha-C1’ 1.52 Å and Cbeta-C4a 1.53 Å bond distances). \textbf{h}. Overlay between the \textbf{Int1}' and \textbf{Int1}^{butynoic} adduct.
Fig. 4. The role of strain in the Fdc reaction.
Schematic overview of the structural insights gained into the Fdc reaction cycle. The prFMN\textsuperscript{iminium} cofactor and the substrate are shown for the various crystal structures of the Sub/Int1' (as a model for Int1/Int2 and Int3 states). The active site restricts the position of the substrate phenyl ring throughout the reaction (as indicated by black arrow labelled F437), leading to formation of strained intermediates Int1/Int2 and Int3. Substantial deviations from ideal bond lengths and angles are highlighted in black. For the Int1'/Int2 and Int3 species, DFT models of the corresponding prFMN adducts free in solution are
overlaid (coloured in grey). The differences observed for Int1' and Int3 with respective DFT models of the corresponding unconstrained prFMN adducts resembles those observed when comparing Int1' and Int3 with Int1\textsuperscript{butynoic} and Int3\textsuperscript{crotonic} (Figs 3h and 2f).
Fig. 5. Potential energy diagram of the Fdc reaction.
Potential energy diagram determined using DFT cluster models (Supplementary Figs 6,7), with potential energy normalised to the Sub/Inhib and Int3 energies. The relaxed cinnamic acid energies were determined for models where restraints on the side chains of Phe437 and Leu439 were removed, which alleviates some of the strain on the Cβ–Ph bond (Supplementary Fig. 8). The two phenylpropionic acid Int1 species interconvert via rotation of the Cα–CO2 bond and the conformation with the carboxyl group in the phenyl plane is the higher energy species and is not stable in the DFT model used here. The crotonic acid
**Int3 → Prod** transition state actually represents a minimum energy crossing point (Supplementary Figs. 9, 10).