

Dioxygen activation responsible for oxidation of aliphatic and aromatic hydrocarbon compounds: current state and variants

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Abstract The most significant aspect in microbial metabolisms, especially those of bacteria and archaea, is their marvelously wide acceptability of substrate electron donors and acceptors. This feature makes them to be attractive catalysts for environmental biotechnology in terms of degradation of harmful recalcitrant compounds, including hydrocarbons. Transformation of highly reduced and inert hydrocarbon compounds is with no doubt a challenging biochemical reaction for a single enzyme. However, several multi-component enzyme systems enable microorganisms to utilize hydrocarbons as carbon and energy (electron) sources. Initial biological attack to hydrocarbons is, in most cases, the hydroxylation that requires molecular dioxygen as a co-substrate. Dioxygen also contributes to the ring cleavage reaction of homo- and hetero-cyclic aromatic hydrocarbons. Although the molecular dioxygen is omnipresent and highly soluble in water, activation and splitting this triplet ground-state molecule to wed with difficult hydrocarbons need special devices. Non-heme iron, heme iron, or flavin nucleotide was designated as a major hidden dagger for this purpose.

Keywords Oxygenase · Rieske dioxygenase · Naphthalene dioxygenase · Alkane monooxygenase · P450 · Hydrocarbon

Metal or non-metal?

A group of metalloenzyme families, carrying an iron active site whichever heme or non-heme type, play crucial roles for the binding and activation of dioxygen in various oxidative transformations. These include hydroxylation of hydrocarbons and other xenobiotics, and also cleavage of aromatic rings. Dioxygen binds at these iron active sites and generates competent iron-peroxo and high valent iron-oxo intermediates. These reactive intermediate species allow the host metalloenzymes to cleave C–H or C–C bond in the substrate hydrocarbons. The molecular mechanisms of dioxygen activation have been subject to excellent reviews for both non-heme and heme ligand sets (Bugg and Ramaswamy 2008; Decker and Solomon 2005; Kovaleva and Lipscomb 2008; Vaillancourt et al. 2006). In either case, the initial oxygenases (C–H bond cleaving enzymes) often recruit redox partner proteins conjugate for reductive scission of dioxygen. They are, in most cases, a set of ferredoxin or rubredoxin and a specific reductase. On the other hand, flavin (nucleotide)-dependent monooxygenases are a representative non-metal oxygenase system that usually requires neither ferredoxin nor rubredoxin. This mini-review attempts to overlook briefly the diverse microbial dioxygen-activating systems relating to oxidative degradation of aliphatic and aromatic hydrocarbon compounds (Table 1). In order to facilitate easy understanding of the basic mechanisms, figures are partly schematic without experimental direct evidence.

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Non-heme iron oxygenases

There are two major types in the non-heme iron oxygenases, one carries mononuclear iron and another carries

Table 1 Microbial dioxygenases and monooxygenases

Active site for activating O ₂	Enzyme names	Subunits ^a	Co-factors ^a
[Non-heme]			
Mononuclear iron(II)	<i>Extradiol dioxygenases</i>		
	Catechol 2,3-dioxygenase (C23O)	α ₄	None
	2,3-dihydroxybiphenyl 1,2-dioxygenase (HBDO)	α ₈	None
	Homoprotocatechuate 2,3-dioxygenase (HPCD)	α ₄	None
	<i>Rieske dioxygenases</i>		
	Naphthalene 2,3-dioxygenase (NDO)	(αβ) ₃	Ferredoxin, reductase
	Biphenyl 2,3-dioxygenase (BDO)	(αβ) ₃	Ferredoxin, reductase
	Toluene 2,3-dioxygenase (TDO)	(αβ) ₃	Ferredoxin, reductase
	<i>Cupin family dioxygenases</i>		
	Gentisate 1,2-dioxygenase (GDO)	α ₄	None
	1-hydroxy 2-naphthoate dioxygenase (HNO)	α ₆	None
	Homogentisate 1,2-dioxygenase (HGO/HDO)	(α ₃) ₂	None
	Mononuclear iron(III)	<i>Intradiol dioxygenases</i>	
Catechol 1,2-dioxygenase (C12O)		α ₂	None
Protocatechuate 3,4-dioxygenase (PCD)		(αβ) ₂₋₁₂	None
Dinuclear iron(II)	<i>Monooxygenases</i>		
	Soluble methane monooxygenase (sMMO)	(αβγ) ₂	Reductase, FAD, effector protein
	Alkane monooxygenases (AlkB/AlkM)		Rubredoxin, reductase, FAD
	Phenol hydroxylase (PHH)	(αβγ) ₂	Reductase, FAD, effector protein
	Toluene monooxygenase (TMO)	(αβγ) ₂	Ferredoxin, reductase, effector protein
Dinuclear copper(I)	Particulate methane monooxygenase (pMMO)	(αβγ) ₃	
[Heme]			
Mononuclear iron(II)	<i>Cytochrome P450 monooxygenase superfamily</i>	α ₁₋₃	(Ferredoxin, reductase, FAD/FMN)
[Flavin]			
<i>Flavin dependent monooxygenases</i>			
	Alkane monooxygenases (LadA/AlmA)	α ₂	Reductase, FMN
	4-hydroxyphenyl acetate 3-monooxygenase	α ₂	Reductase, FAD
	Dibenzothiophene monooxygenase	α ₂	Reductase, FMN

^a Most major type

dinuclear irons at the catalytic site of terminal oxygenases. The mononuclear non-heme iron enzymes are further divided into two categories (Neidig and Solomon 2005). The first group utilizes ferrous iron, iron(II), resting site to bind and activate dioxygen for hydroxylation of substrate hydrocarbons. The second group adopts ferric iron, iron (III), center in the active site.

Mononuclear iron(II)/O₂-activating group

Ring-cleaving extradiol dioxygenases

The mononuclear non-heme iron(II) active sites carry highly conserved ligands that are composed of two histidines and one monodentate carboxylate, so called 2-His-1-carboxylate facial triad (Koehntop et al. 2005; Lipscomb 2008). This structure is formed by conserved sequence motif, HX₄₈₋₆₃HX₄₉₋₅₃E, in aromatic ring-cleaving extradiol dioxygenases such as catechol 2,3-dioxygenase (H¹⁵³X₆₀H²¹⁴X₅₀E²⁶⁵ in C23O,

P06622) (homo-tetramer), 2,3-dihydroxybiphenyl 1,2-dioxygenase (H¹⁴⁵X₆₃H²⁰⁹X₄₉E²⁵⁹ in HBDO, 1KND) (homo-octamer), and homoprotocatechuate 2,3-dioxygenase (H¹⁵⁵X₅₈H²¹⁴X₅₂E²⁶⁷ in HPCD, AAB66502) (homo-tetramer), and HX₄₋₆HX₁₄₆₋₈D in large subunit (α) of Rieske dioxygenases (trimer of hetero-dimer α₃β₃) such as naphthalene 1,2-dioxygenase (H²⁰⁸X₄H²¹³X₁₄₈D³⁶² in NahAc, AAO64274), biphenyl 2,3-dioxygenase (H²³⁴X₅H²⁴⁰X₁₄₆D³⁸⁷ in BphA1, BAA04137), and toluene 2,3-dioxygenase (H²²²X₅H²²⁸X₁₄₇D³⁷⁶ in TodC1, AAA26005). It is worth to note that the amino acid sequence similarity among the group enzymes is so low, except above iron ligand residues, enough to imply that the triad is formed as a result of typical convergent evolution of proteins.

At the catalytic site, one face of the octahedral coordination sphere of the iron(II) metal center is occupied by these three endogenous ligands, which leave other three coordination sites for binding of exogenous dioxygen, substrates, and cofactors. This flexible coordination chem-

istry would enable to catalyze diverse oxidative transformations. The binding of substrate inevitably activates the metal center for attack by dioxygen to form iron(II)-alkylperoxo intermediate. Another conserved two histidines and a tyrosine near the dioxygen binding site are also essential for ring cleavage reaction in the HPCD (H²⁰⁰/H²⁴⁸/Y²⁵⁷, AAB66502) and C23O (H¹⁹⁹/H²⁴⁶/Y²⁵⁵, P06622) (Fig. 1a, Bugg and Ramaswamy 2008). These H²⁰⁰ and H¹⁹⁹ might also serve as an active site base to deprotonate the entering substrate and/or OH group of the substrate carbon distal to the site of ring cleavage. The extradiol and intradiol dioxygenases utilize catecholic substrates that carry all the reducing equivalents necessary for dioxygen activation, so they are called “intramolecular dioxygenases.” However, several extradiol dioxygenases also require redox cofactors such as ferredoxin and reductase for their reactivation when inactivated by processing poor substrates such as chloro- or alkylcatechols (Tropel et al. 2002).

Rieske dioxygenases

Rieske dioxygenases catalyze the primary cis-dihydroxylation of arene (monocyclic and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon) substrates which is the initial step of many bacterial degradation pathways. Rieske protein was first reported by John Rieske et al. (Rieske et al. 1964) which has a characteristic [2Fe-2S] cluster with 2-His-2-Cys ligand. Besides a mononuclear iron active site, Rieske dioxygenases carry a dinuclear [2Fe-2S] cluster in which one iron (Fe1) is coordinated by two histidines while the other iron (Fe2) is coordinated by two cysteines (Fig. 1b). This bidentate ligand is described by a CXHX₁₅₋₁₇CX₂H motif (C⁸¹XH⁸³X₁₇C¹⁰¹X₂H¹⁰⁴ in NahAc, AAO64274; C¹⁰¹XH¹⁰³X₁₇C¹²¹X₂H¹²⁴ in BphA1, BAA04137; C⁹⁶XH⁹⁸X₁₇C¹¹⁶XH¹¹⁹ in TodC1, AAA26005). Fe2 remains in a ferric state regardless of the reduction state of the cluster, while Fe1 is converted from a ferric state to a ferrous state when reduced during the reaction. The reaction of three-component type Rieske dioxygenase requires two electrons from a NAD(P)H and consecutively transferred to the terminal dioxygenase component through a ferredoxin (monomer) and a reductase (monomer) (Fig. 1c). Crystal structure of biphenyl 1,2-dioxygenase complex (BphA3/A4) has shown the butterfly-type motion of the flavin ring of FADH in the non-Rieske-type NADH/ferredoxin reductase (BphA4) and a direct transfer of the electron from the flavin ring in BphA4 through conserved tryptophan (W³²⁰ in BphA4) and histidine (H⁶⁶ in BphA3; ferredoxin) to the Rieske-type cluster of BphA3 (Senda et al. 2007). Finally, cis-dihydroxylation takes place in the terminal dioxygenase component. In a single large subunit, the Rieske-type cluster and the

mononuclear iron(II) center are too far apart to allow for electron transfer at a distance ~43 Å. However, the quaternary structure (trimer of hetero-dimer or homo-trimer type with three-fold symmetry) allows for electron transfer from a Rieske-type cluster to a mononuclear iron(II) center from a neighboring subunit which is only 5 Å apart (Fig. 1b) (Parales 2003). A key role in this electron transfer has been ascribed to an absolutely conserved aspartic acid residue (D²⁰⁵ in NahAc, AAO64274; D²³¹ in BphA1, BAA04137; D²¹⁹ in TodC1, AAA26005) that bridges between the two metal sites. Structural studies also implicate a side-on binding of a dioxygen to form catalytically active iron(III)-peroxide intermediate which is subsequently converted to a high-valent iron(IV)-oxo or iron(V)-oxo-hydroxo intermediate. After cis-dihydroxylation of the substrate, catalytic mononuclear iron will return to iron(II) resting-state configuration (Karlsson et al. 2003, Bugg et al. 2008). Another group of Rieske dioxygenases adopts a two-component enzyme system, including most anthranilate dioxygenases, benzoate dioxygenases, and toluate dioxygenases (Bundy et al. 1998; Yamaguchi and Fujisawa, 1982). It consists of a small NADH reductase component containing both flavin adenine dinucleotide (FAD) and chloroplast-type [2Fe-2S] cluster, and a large Rieske-type oxygenase component. The oxygenase component also constitutes α₃β₃ structure similar to the three-component system as above described.

Bicupin family dioxygenases

Cupin superfamily dioxygenases are widely distributed in the living organisms from bacteria to human because some are responsible for aromatic amino acid metabolisms (Dunwell et al. 2000). A functional cupin ‘small β-barrel’ fold is characterized by two highly conserved sequence motifs of typically GX₅HXHX₃₋₄EX₆₋₇G and GX₅PXGX₂HX₃N. The two motifs together form one functional metal-binding site with three histidines. Most of the subtypes contain iron (II) as the active site metal cofactor but other forms are also known, including copper or nickel. Characteristics of the reaction catalyzed by gentisate 1,2-dioxygenase (GDO, homo-tetramer), 1-hydroxy-2-naphthoate dioxygenase (HNO, homo-hexamer), and homogentisate 1,2-dioxygenase (HGO/HDO, dimer of homo trimer) appear to be similar to those of intramolecular extradiol dioxygenases, although their substrates do not have adjoining hydroxyl groups. For example, GDO catalyze the ring fission of gentisate between the carboxyl and proximal hydroxyl groups at positions 1 and 2 of the aromatic ring to form maleylpyruvate. An evolutionarily interesting protein group is bicupin dioxygenases. These bicupins usually contain single active site in one of the duplicated cupin domains, with the other domain remaining as a non-functional vestigial remnant. The ferrous iron ligand in bicupin or monocupin dioxygenases is usually

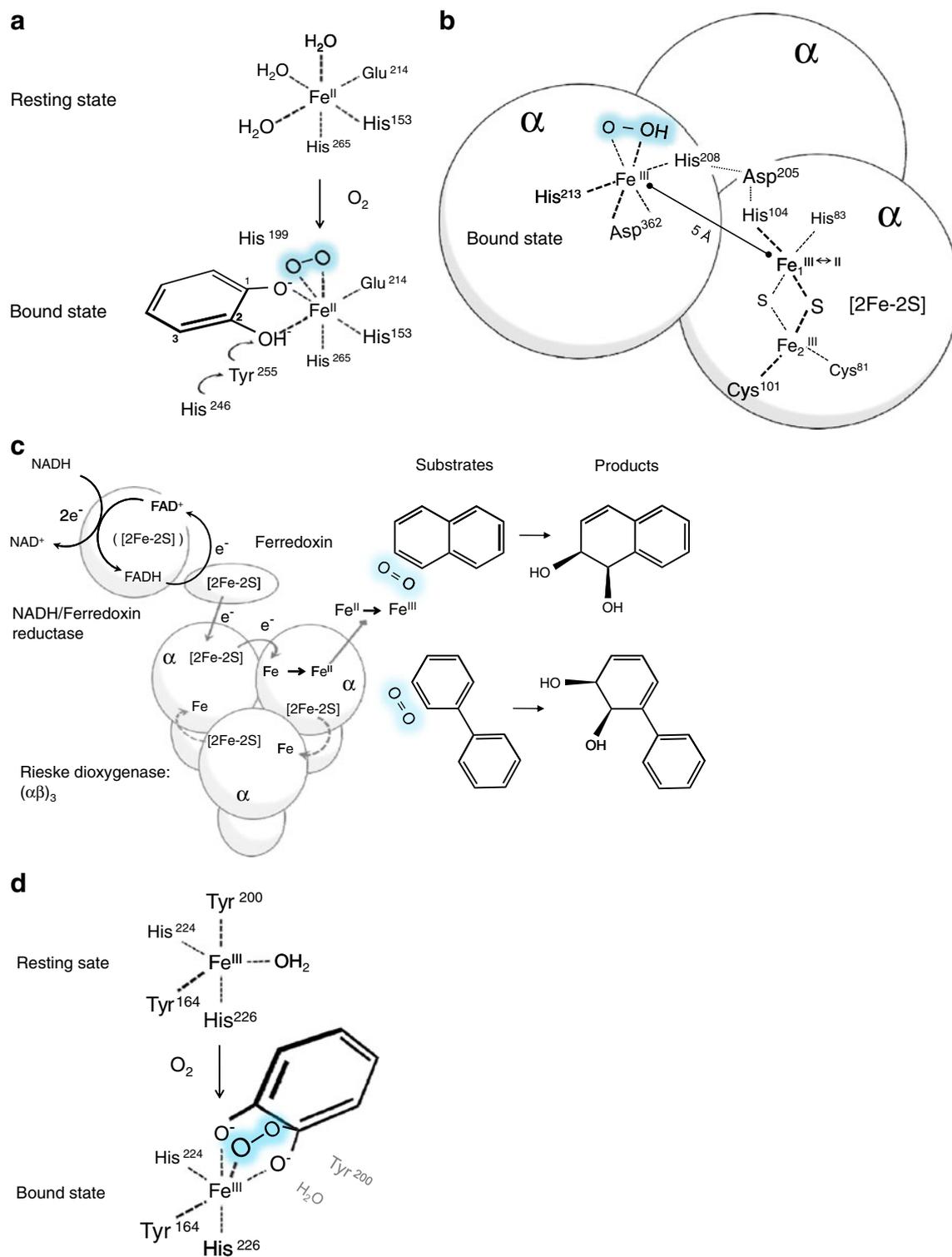


Fig. 1 **a** Ligand structure of iron in C23O from *P. putida*. **b** Ligand structure of irons in large subunits of NahAc from *P. putida*. **c** Schematic electron transfer system in three-component type Rieske dioxygenases. **d** Ligand structure of iron in C12O from *A. calcoaceticus*

composed of a three histidine motif HXHX₃₉H, such as H¹⁰⁴/H¹⁰⁶/H¹⁴⁵ in GDO from *E. coli* O157 (ABV16854), H¹⁰⁸/H¹¹⁰/H¹⁴⁹ in GDO from *Xanthobacter polyaromaticivorans* (BAC98955, Hirano et al. 2007), and H¹¹⁵/H¹¹⁷/H¹⁵⁸

in HNO from *Nocardioides* sp. KP7 (BAA31235). It has been proposed that the conserved glutamate residue in the first signature motif is a fourth ligand to the metal (Steiner et al. 2002). The triple histidine motif is partly similar structure

to Rieske dioxygenases where the active site iron(II) coordinates near the interface between subunits of HGO trimer by 2-His-1-carboxylate ligand $HX_5EX_{29}H$, such as $H^{335}/E^{341}/H^{371}$ in HGO from *Homo sapiens* (NP_000178) and probably $H^{331}/E^{337}/H^{367}$ in *Pseudomonas putida* F1 (ABQ80601) and $H^{349}/E^{355}/H^{385}$ in *Sinorhizobium meliloti*, AAD29874) although electrons are not donated from extramolecular ferredoxin but substrate homogentisate itself.

Mononuclear iron(III)/substrate activating group

Ring cleaving intradiol dioxygenases

The intradiol dioxygenases catalyze the ring cleavage between the adjacent hydroxylated carbons (Brown et al. 2004). They utilize high-spin iron(III) sites to activate substrates for direct reaction with dioxygen. The resting structure is a distorted trigonal bipyramidal iron(III) center with histidine and tyrosine as the axial ligands, and histidine, tyrosine, and typically a water ligand in the equatorial plane: 2-Tyr-2-His coordinate, $YX_{3-5}YX_{12-23}HXH$ (Fig. 1d). The characteristic dark red color of intradiol dioxygenases is due to the tyrosine ligation and the resulting tyrosine ligand-to-metal charge transfer transitions. Active site structures and X-ray absorption spectrometries of protocatechuate 3,4-dioxygenase (PCD) from *P. putida* (3PCA)(dimer to dodecamer of heterodimer) $Y^{408}X_{38}Y^{447}X_{12}H^{460}XH^{462}$ and catechol 1,2-dioxygenase (C12O) from *Acinetobacter calcoaceticus* ADP1 (1DLM)(homo-dimer) $Y^{164}X_{35}Y^{200}X_{23}H^{224}XH^{226}$ have revealed that upon substrate binding to the active site both the axial tyrosine ligand and the equatorial water ligand are displaced to form a bidentate substrate complex. The axial tyrosine moves away to leave the iron(III) center with a vacant coordination site in a roughly octahedral geometry. Binding of the distal oxygen of the resulting peroxy-substrate intermediate to the vacant coordination site trans-axial to axial histidine subsequently promote acyl migration resulting in the O–O bond and intradiol ring cleavages.

Diiron coordinating monooxygenase group

Soluble/particulate methane monooxygenases, toluene 4-monooxygenases, and phenol hydroxylases

A major diiron-carboxylate protein group with large four-helix bundle structure have dinuclear metal ligand sites coordinated by four carboxylates and two histidines in two $E_{29-37}EX_2H$ motifs; such as $E^{100-114}X_{29}E^{130-144}X_2H^{133-147}$ and $E^{194-209}X_{33}E^{228-243}X_2H^{231-246}$ in soluble methane monooxygenases (sMMO), phenol hydroxylases (PHH), and toluene 2-, 3-, and 4-monooxygenases (TMO)(Fig. 2a, Nordlund and Eklund 1995; Leahy et al. 2003). PHH and sMMO are made up of three components: a monooxyge-

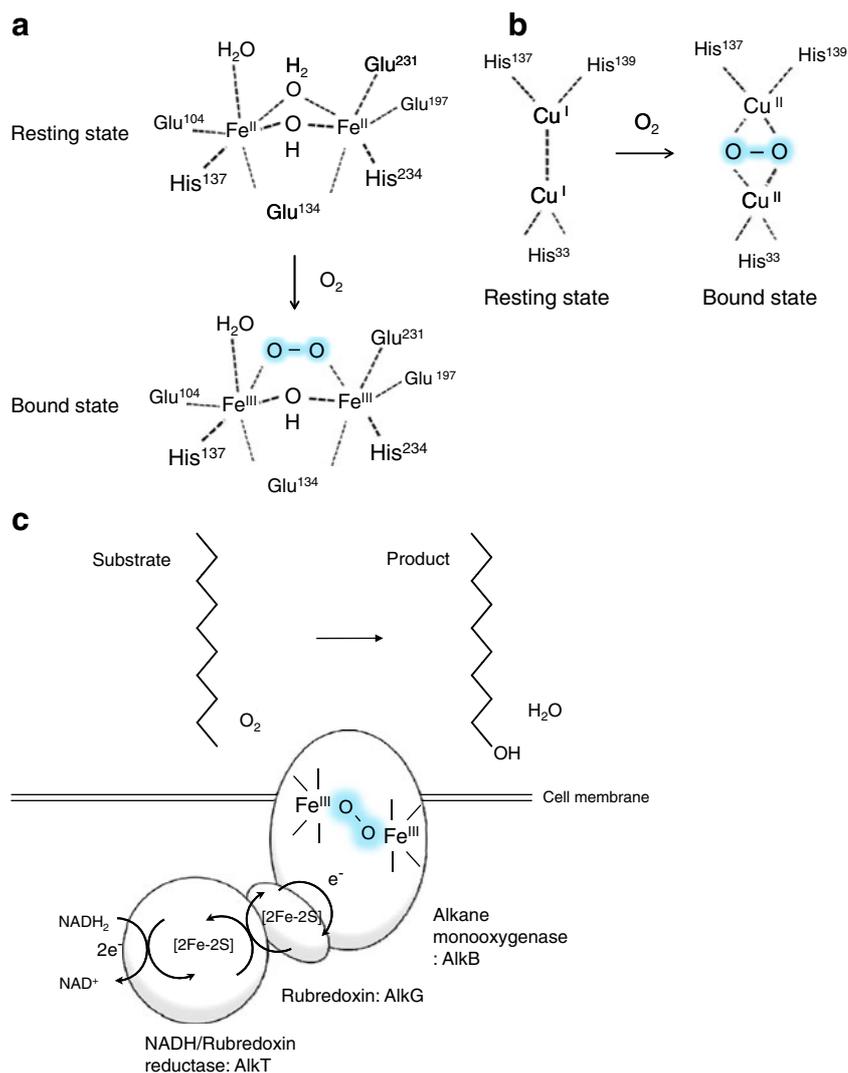
nase/hydroxylase, a dinuclear iron NADH oxidoreductase, and a regulatory or cofactor less effector protein. TMO and several PHH have a fourth, Rieske [2Fe-2S] ferredoxin. The monooxygenase/hydroxylase component of sMMO, TMO, and most PHH comprise a dimer of hetero-trimer $(\alpha\beta\gamma)_2$, with each α subunit housing the carboxylate bridged diiron center, the catalytic site of substrate hydroxylation. This structure of the catalytic site is shared with R2 component of ribonucleotide reductases and DesA1 component of stearoyl-ACP Δ -9 desaturases. The oxidoreductase component shuttles electrons from NADH through its bound FAD and [2Fe-2S] cofactors to the monooxygenase/hydroxylase either directly as in sMMO and PHH or indirectly via the Rieske ferredoxin component in TMO and several PHH. The assembly of protein complexes during the catalytic cycle is finely orchestrated to make electron consumption linked to substrate mono-hydroxylation. Reaction of the reduced diiron(II) state with dioxygen affords a peroxy-diiron(III) intermediate, which can evolve to a high-valent diiron(IV) species. It has been proposed that peroxy-diiron(III) and peroxy-diiron(IV) species are competent for alkene epoxidation and methane and norcarane hydroxylation, respectively (Bailey and Fox 2009). Upon product release, the active site assumes the resting-state diiron(III) configuration until effector protein binding and reduction begin another catalytic cycle.

Another type of methane monooxygenase is a particulate (integral membrane) methane monooxygenase (pMMO) that is composed of cylindrical trimer of hetero-trimer $(\alpha\beta\gamma)_3$ with a mononuclear and a catalytic dinuclear coppers in the β subunit and a zinc (presumably a mononuclear copper in vivo) between α and γ subunits (Balasubramanian and Rosenzweig 2007). Mononuclear and dinuclear copper ligands are two and three highly conserved histidines in β subunit, His^{48}/His^{72} and $His^{33}/His^{137}/His^{139}$ in pMMO from *Methylococcus capsulatus*, respectively (Fig. 2b). A zinc ion is coordinated by His^{160} , His^{173} , and Asp^{156} from γ subunit and Glu^{195} from α subunit. Due to difficulties of studying membraneous proteins and unavailability of co-crystal structure of the enzyme and substrate, catalytic mechanism of pMMO is still under debate (Rosenzweig 2008). While sMMO is capable of accepting various substrates including alkanes, alkenes, aromatics, and halogenated hydrocarbons, pMMO is more selective toward alkanes and alkenes that are five carbons or less.

Alkane monooxygenases

Alkane ω -hydroxylase is a three-component system comprising a soluble mononuclear iron and FAD containing NADH/rubredoxin reductase (AlkT), a [2Fe-2S] soluble rubredoxin

Fig. 2 **a** Ligand structure of dinuclear irons in TMO from *Pseudomonas stutzeri* (putative). **b** Ligand structure of dinuclear coppers in pMMO from *M. capsulatus* (putative). **c** Electron transfer system of Alkane monooxygenase (AlkB-type)



(AlkG), and an integral-membrane diiron monooxygenase (AlkB) (Fig. 2c). This type of multi-component enzyme system is widely distributed in bacteria (van Beilen and Funhoff 2007). Like sMMO and TMO, AlkB also adopts the oxygen rebound mechanism in order to hydroxylate alkanes but preferably from C5 to C16 alkanes. This mechanism involves homolytic cleavage of the C–H bond by an electrophilic oxo-iron intermediate to generate a substrate-based radical. Diiron ligand site of AlkB (probably monomer) is composed of eight histidine motifs H¹³⁸⁻¹⁷²X₃H¹⁴²⁻¹⁷⁶, H¹⁶⁷⁻²⁰²X₃HH¹⁷³⁻²⁰⁷, and H³¹²⁻³⁴⁶XHH³¹⁶⁻³⁴⁹ (van Beilen et al. 2005). There are H¹³⁸EX₂H¹⁴²K, EH¹⁶⁸X₂GH¹⁷²H¹⁷³, and LQRH³¹²XDH³¹⁵H³¹⁶A in AlkB from *P. putida* GPo1 (CAB54050). These histidine residues are also potential ligands for the diiron atoms contained within the homolog, alkane monooxygenases (H¹⁵⁰/H¹⁵⁴, H¹⁸⁰/H¹⁸⁴/H¹⁸⁵, H³²⁴/H³²⁷/H³²⁸ in AlkM, CAG68276), xylene monooxygenases (H¹¹³/H¹¹⁷, H¹⁴³/H¹⁴⁷/H¹⁴⁸, H²⁸²/H²⁸⁵/H²⁸⁶ in XylM, AAA26026), *p*-cymene monooxygenases (H¹¹¹/

H¹¹⁵, H¹⁴¹/H¹⁴⁵/H¹⁴⁶, H²⁸⁰/H²⁸³/H²⁸⁴ in CymAa, AAB62299), stearoyl-CoA desaturases (H⁹³/H⁹⁷, H¹²⁸/H¹³²/H¹³³, H³⁰⁵/H³⁰⁹/H³¹⁰ in DesB, AAG08273), and other related proteins. This protein family has hydrophobic six helices that would be capable of spanning the membrane bilayer probably at six times. Unfortunately, active site structure of AlkB has not been solved yet; however, spectroscopic and genetic evidence suggests a nitrogen-rich coordination environment located near the inner surface of the cytoplasmic membrane with as many as eight histidines coordinating two irons and a carboxylate residue bridging these two metals. Recently, another histidine residue in a motif NYXEH²⁷³YG is also suggested to be essential for the activity of AlkB from *P. putida* GPo1 (van Beilen et al. 2005). A particular amino acid residue located in the middle of transmembrane helix-2 of AlkB has been shown to be important to determine the alkyl length of the substrate. When this amino acid has a bulky side chain like tryptophan (W⁵⁵ in AlkB from *P.*

putida GPo1), the long-chain alkyl groups (C13<) are not acceptable in the substrate binding cleft.

Heme iron monooxygenases

The heme porphyrin ligand allows for delocalization of the iron *d*-orbitals into heme π cloud, and the iron sites in the iron(II) heme enzymes are often low spin as compare to non-heme enzymes which are generally high-spin. In addition, the presence of a planar tetradentate heme ligand imposes steric constraints on the iron site that are not present in the non-heme enzymes. The cytochrome P450s, heme protein superfamily, are widely distributed in archaea, bacteria, and eukaryotes, and are involved in numerous cellular functions including monooxygenation of hydrocarbon compounds. P450 reaction is initiated by introduction of an atom of oxygen to facilitate hydroxylation at an inactive carbon center on a molecule. To achieve this reaction, dioxygen is bound to iron(II) heme upon binding substrate compound at the center of a b-type heme bound to the P450 ultimately leading to formation of a highly reactive iron(IV)-oxo intermediate and the production of a molecule of water. The iron(IV)-oxo intermediate attacks a substrate molecule bound proximal to the heme iron to perform the oxygenation and to restore the resting state of the iron(III)-P450. Sequence conservation is relatively low within P450 superfamily; there are only three absolutely conserved residues—Glu, Arg, and Cys—but their general topography and structural fold are highly conserved constituting the heme-binding loop. The core region is composed of a coil termed the 'meander', a four-helix bundle, helices J and K, and two sets of β sheets. There is an absolutely conserved EXXR motif in helix K. A completely conserved cysteine residue proximal to heme, in FX₂GX₃CXG, provides a thiolate ligand to the heme iron that is essential for P450 catalysis, cysteine ligation (Fig. 3). The electrons for catalysis derive from NAD(P)H and are transferred from one or more redox partner proteins are those that are often fused to P450. It should be notable that all the known to date bacterial P450 monooxygenases are in soluble form whereas eukaryotic P450s are generally membraneous, attached to mitochondrial or microsomal membranes by an N-terminal peptide anchor. This would enable bacterial P450s to be more evolutionarily diverse. Also, bacterial P450 in a fused single component system is often observed. This might be due to evolutionary requirements for reducing the size of genome and transferring electrons most efficiently. Bacterial P450s for alkane monooxygenation belongs to soluble CYP153 oxygenase. CYP153 oxygenase also requires redox partners, FAD-binding iron-sulfur ferredoxin reductase (FR) and ferredoxin (Fd). Although there

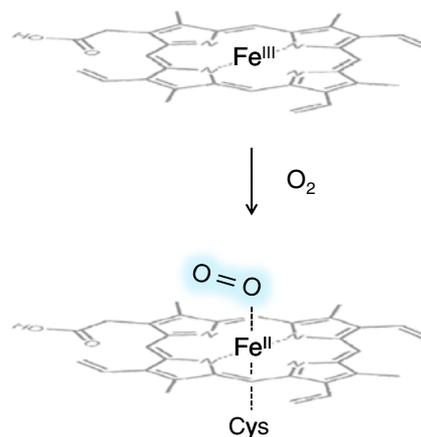


Fig. 3 Dioxygen binding to heme

are at least seven classes in the P450 and redox partner systems (Munro et al. 2007), only four major classes of them are described below.

1. FR/Fd/P450 electron transfer systems [class I/three components]: NADH \rightarrow putidaredoxin reductase (FAD) \rightarrow putidaredoxin (2Fe-2S) \rightarrow P450:CYP101/CYP153 monooxygenase \rightarrow O₂

This group is the majority of bacterial and mitochondrial P450s. CYP101/CYP153, and mitochondrial P450s take NAD(P)H electrons from a ferredoxin that shuttles electrons from a reductase. The *P. putida* camphor hydroxylase, P450cam (CYP101), is one of the best-studied P450 heme system. There is an increasing number of CYP153 alkane monooxygenases reported from both gram-positive and gram-negative bacteria, including *Mycobacterium* sp. HXN-1500, *Rhodococcus erythropolis* NRRL B-16531, *Alkanivorax borkumensis* AP1, and *Acinetobacter* sp. EB104 (van Beilen et al. 2006).

2. CPR/P450 electron transfer systems [class II/two components, class III/one component]: NADPH \rightarrow Cytochrome P450 Reductase (FAD \rightarrow FMN) \rightarrow P450:CYP102 monooxygenase \rightarrow O₂

This class II enzyme is the majority of eukaryotic microsomal P450s. The NADPH electrons are directly received from a reductase (CPR) containing both FAD and FMN. In *Bacillus megaterium* and *Bacillus subtilis*, CPR is fused in the C-terminal domain of CYP102 (P450BM3), a single polypeptide self-sufficient soluble fatty acid hydroxylase, and heme-monooxygenase resides in the N-terminal domain (class III).

3. FMN/Fd/P450 electron transfer systems [class IV/one component]: NADPH \rightarrow P450:CYP116 monooxygenase (FMN \rightarrow 2Fe-2S) \rightarrow O₂

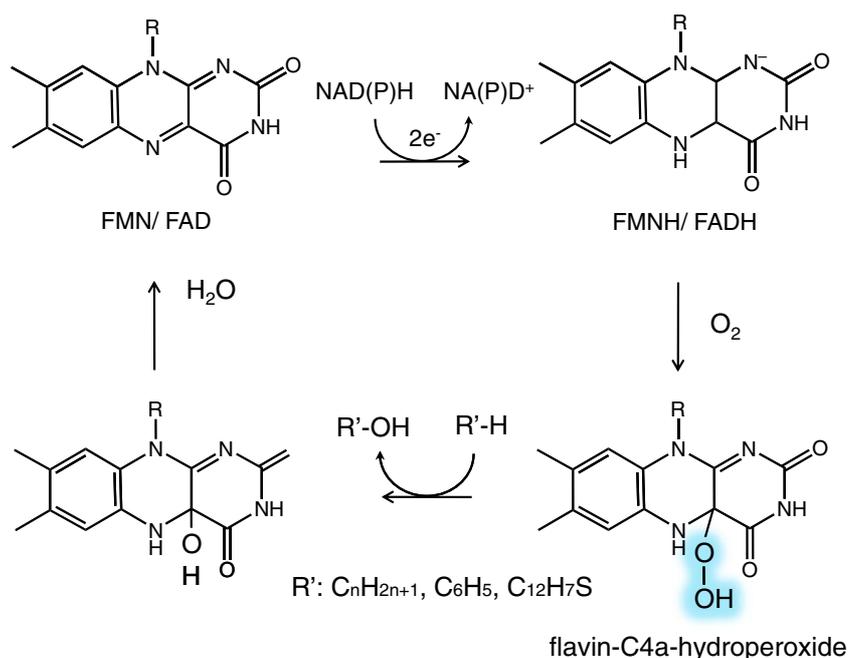
An interesting one-component P450 system was also found in *Rhodococcus* sp. NCIMB 9784 (CYP116B2) (Roberts et al. 2003). In this system, the C-terminal of heme-monoxygenase domain is fused to a reductase domain that shows sequence similarity to phthalate dioxygenase reductase containing FMN-binding domain and a plant-type ferredoxin domain. Similar P450 systems have been identified in the heavy-metal tolerant bacterium *Ralstonia metallidurans* (CYP116A1) and in several species of genus *Burkholderia*. There is a possible FAD-binding monoxygenase (AAM67415) encoded just upstream of CYP116B2. AAM67415 has significant amino acid sequence identity (72%) with pentachlorophenol monoxygenase from *Frankia* sp. EAN1pec (ABW13520).

Non-metal flavin-dependent monoxygenases

In this enzyme system, reduced FADH₂ or FMNH₂ binds to the apo-oxygenase component and reacts with oxygen to form a flavin-C4a-hydroperoxide structure, which then hydroxylates the substrate to yield product and the flavin-C4a-hydroxide adduct (Fig. 4). Rate-limiting reduction of the flavin ring by NAD(P)H in preparation for its reaction with O₂ occurs by hydride transfer stereospecifically with the pro-R hydrogen of the reduced pyridine nucleotide transferring to the N5 of isoalloxazine (flavin) ring (Ballou et al. 2005). Recently, a new luciferase family soluble FMN-binding alkane monoxygenase, LadA (homo-dimer), which is specific for long-chain substrates has been

reported for a thermophilic *Geobacillus denitrificans* NG80-2 (Li et al. 2008). A histidine residue, His¹³⁸, has been postulated to be a catalytic residue that acts as a hydrogen bond donor to the proximal and/or distal oxygen atom of possible flavin-C4a-hydroperoxyde. This catalytic architecture is also found in flavin dependent aromatic monoxygenases, such as p-hydroxyphenyl acetate hydroxylases (HPAH), dibenzothiophene monoxygenases (DbzA), and HPAH-like PHH from thermophilic species of *Bacillus* and mesophilic actinobacteria (Alfieri et al. 2007; van Berkel et al. 2006). Another flavin-binding long-chain alkane monoxygenase, Alma, has been reported for mesophilic *Acinetobacter* sp. DSM17874 (Throne-Holst et al. 2007, ABQ18224). Based on its hydropathy analysis, LadA and Alma do not have membrane spanning region and seem to exist in a soluble form. Although LadA and Alma are supposed to be two-component flavin dependent monoxygenases like flavin dependent aromatic monoxygenases, another redox partner protein presumably NADH/flavin reductase has not been identified yet. It seems like that alkane/aromatic monoxygenases have two different evolutionary lineages—one is iron-utilizing group, whatever non-heme or heme, and another is iron-independent flavin-dependent group regardless of free and integral form. Moreover, significant amino acid sequence similarity, 50% identical, between LadA (ABO68832) and DszA (YP_233462) strongly suggests that flavin-dependent alkane and aromatic hydrocarbon monoxygenase groups emerged after divergent evolution from a common ancestral protein. Several alkane-degrading thermophilic *Geobacillus*

Fig. 4 Redox states of flavin ring during monoxygenase reaction



sp. have been reported to harbor multiple AlkB-type alkane monooxygenase genes (Liu et al. 2009). It remains to be elucidated whether flavin dependent monooxygenases are majority group of long-chain alkane monooxygenases.

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