

Exploring the Intricacies and Functionalities of Galactose Oxidase: Structural Nuances, Catalytic Behaviors, and Prospects in Bio-Electrocatalysis

ABSTRACT

Galactose Oxidase, also known as GOase is an enzyme found mostly in *Fusarium graminearum*, *Dactylium dendroides*, and *Gibberella fujikuroi*. GOase, containing copper, serves catalytic functions in oxidizing substrates and primary alcohols such as d-galactose, benzyl alcohol derivatives, and dihydroxyacetone. The catalytic property of galactose oxidase that differentiates it from other enzymes is its cofactor consisting of a Cu(II)-bound Cys-Tyr* radical. The cofactor is vital for enabling regioselective oxidation. The application of galactose oxidase (GOase) covers several fields such as enzymatic synthesis, biosensors development, and processes of diagnosis.

Galactose oxidase (GOase) was discovered to have a crystallographic structure by X-ray diffraction, which revealed an active site containing copper ions displaying relatively square pyramidal geometry. There are three unique structural and functional domains of the enzyme GOase. The domains include Tyr495 and a covalent bond between Cys228 and Tyr272 serving as equatorial and axial ligands, respectively. The mechanism of catalysis covers three different oxidation states, which include the active state containing Cu(II)-radical, the intermediate state containing Cu(II)-tyrosine, and the Cu(I)-tyrosine state. The cycle of catalysis that has been posited comprises several phases which are: (i) substrate binding, (ii) the transfer of proton (iii) the transfer of hydrogen atom, and (iv) subsequent oxidation steps. These phases eventually yield the synthesis of aldehyde and hydrogen peroxide.

Galactose oxidase's (GOase) mechanism of catalysis has been studied thoroughly via extensive research focusing on explaining the ping-pong mechanism that occurs in both oxidative and reductive half-reactions. The processes of activating and reactivating galactose (GOase) involve the transfer of electrons in which horseradish peroxidase (HRP) serves as an activator. The electrochemical investigations provide evidence of the electrochemical activation and reactivation of GOase in the presence of mediators. In addition, the interaction between the enzyme and catalase serves to alleviate the inhibitory consequences of hydrogen peroxide.

Although electrodes have the potential for several applications, obtaining direct electron transfer (DET) using them continues to be a tough task. While certain research proposes the use of DET with modified electrodes, there are still unresolved concerns that require additional investigation into the bio-electrocatalytic capabilities of GOase. Enhancing the understanding of these features can significantly augment the enzyme's potential for a wide range of technological applications.

This comprehensive review enhances the comprehension of the structural complexities, catalytic mechanisms, and bio-electrocatalytic potential of GOase, thereby establishing a basis for future investigations and developments in technology.

1.0 Introduction

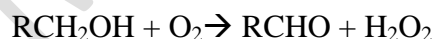
In biochemical catalysis, free radicals have become one of the fundamental characteristics (Van Stappen et al., 2022; Guengerich, 2018; Houée-Lévin et al., 2015), in relation to enzymes that have developed techniques to exploit radical chemistry in the activation of bonds and rearranging molecules. Free radicals' rare chemical reactivity is traceable to the unpaired electrons present in their electronic valence shell, which makes them somewhat transition metal ions' organic analog (Wang et al., 2022). Radicals are recognized to play vital biological functions, and while, in

history, the focus was initially on their deleterious impacts, enormous evidence currently exists that radicals take part in several key life processes such as photosynthesis, DNA replication, and respiration (Radi, 2018).

Free radicals are known to be essential components in a wide range of enzymatic mechanisms such as aminomutase (Kyne et al., 2020), biotin synthase (Bockman et al., 2019), cytochrome c peroxidase (Yoshikawa & Shimada, 2015), lipoyl synthase (Dong et al., 2018), ribonucleotide reductase (Aye et al., 2015), pyruvate-formate lyase (Cáceres et al., 2023), prostaglandin H synthase (Tsai & Kulmacz, 2010), diol dehydrase (Bilić et al., 2021), and DNA photolyase (Zhang et al., 2017) amidst others. Galactose oxidase (Figueiredo et al., 2022), the enzyme secreted by fungi, used broadly in histological and bioanalytical applications, is among the most characterized of the enzymes carrying free radicals.

Overall, the galactose oxidase-catalyzed reaction is primary alcohol oxidation to the equivalent aldehyde, bound to dioxygen reduction to hydrogen peroxide (Mathieu et al., 2022).

The product which is of biological importance:



The reaction catalysis is theoretically equal to a dihydrogen elements' transfer between both substrates as Oxygen reduction and alcohol oxidation are two-electron processes. The transfer of hydrogen biologically typically entails specialized organic redox cofactors (for instance, nicotinamide, flavins, and quinones), having reaction mechanisms that are well-characterized. Galactose oxidase lacks these redox cofactors and employs a much different active site – a copper complex bound to a free radical – to carry out this chemistry (Quist et al., 2017). This

paper aims to assess the chemistry of the enzyme Galactose Oxidase to better understand its structure, mechanism of action, and overall application of the enzyme.

2.0 Overview of Galactose Oxidase

Galactose oxidase (E.C. 1.1.3.9) also termed GOase is a metalloenzyme of copper contained primarily in three fungi – *Fusarium graminearum*, *Gibberella fujikuroi* and *Dactylium dendroides* (the widely characterized) (Whittaker and Whittaker, 1988). GOase is classed under the type II mononuclear copper-containing enzyme and is made up of one single polypeptide (molecular mass: 68kDa) (Paukner et al., 2015). GOase is involved in catalyzing disomers' oxidation of a wide primary alcohols' variety – dihydroxyacetone (DHA), d-galactose (Kanyong et al., 2017), and benzyl alcohols' substitutes (Whittaker & Whittaker, 2001), to their equivalent aldehyde, linked with dioxygen's reduction to hydrogen peroxide (Ikemoto et al., 2014).

GOase can be applied in a wide range of areas such as diagnostics, enzymatic synthesis, and biosensors (Kanyong et al., 2017; Nie et al., 2019). A germane characteristic of GOase in catalysis is the rare Cu(II)-bound Cys-Tyr• radical cofactor contained in its active site via its free radical tyrosyl that coordinates directly to the type II copper center (Ito et al., 1994). The primary alcohols' regioselective oxidation, comprising galactose and others that range from allyl alcohol, and glycerol to oligo- and polysaccharides, galactopyranosides is performed by the Cu(II)-radical cofactor (Avigad, 1985). A dioxygen $2e^-$ oxidation oxidizes the reduced Cu(I)-(Tyr-Cys) to an active Cu(II)-(Tyr•-Cys) form (Figure 1).

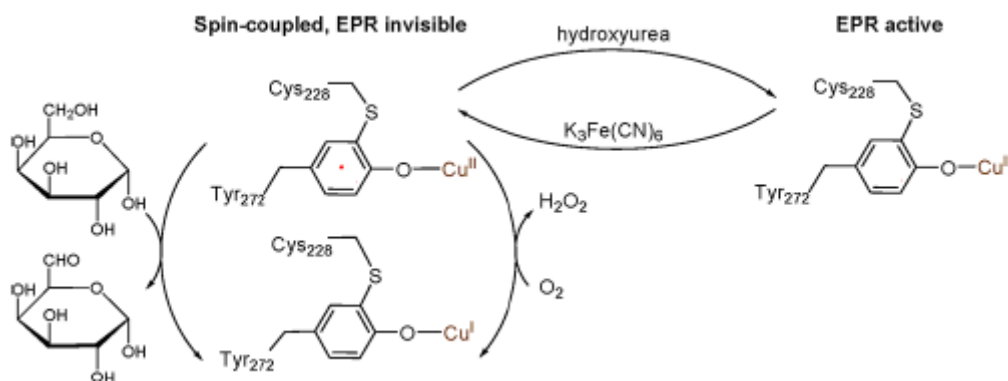


Figure 1: GOase Catalytic Reaction and Three Cu(II)-(Tyr•-Cys) Center the Oxidation States

2.0 Structure of Galactose Oxidase

In 1991, The GOase crystallographic structure was determined successfully using X-ray diffraction at a 1.7 Å resolution. It showed a fascinating characteristic of the copper ion active site that an almost square pyramidal geometry coordinate (Ito et al., 1991). The structure of the enzyme was explicated totally; three diverse domains, primarily composed of short turns β -structure, were differentiated functionally and structurally (Figure 2a). As an axial ligand, Tyr495 coordinates the active site's copper, while as an equatorial ligand, there is the Tyr272, His486, His581, and a water (solvent) molecule (pH 7) with weak coordination. Also, the scholars inferred that a second organic cofactor exists that is derived from the covalent linkage between Tyr272 and Cys228 post-translationally. The protein reactivity and structure are affected by the thioether bond linking the two residues (Whittaker J. W., 2002). Substantial interests have been drawn by this characteristic, leading to comprehensive spectroscopic research (Deacon et al., 2004), primarily the resonance of electron paramagnet (5), crystallography of X-ray (6, 7), and site-directed mutagenesis study (Reynolds et al., 1997; Saysell et al., 1997), which have resulted in a rational understanding of the mechanism of catalysis. The GOase active site's

Tyr272 and copper can be in three unique oxidation states as follows: (1) the catalytically active state having Cu(II) and tyrosyl radical (GOase ox), the Cu(II) and tyrosine intermediate state (GOase $semi$), and the last state having Cu(I) and tyrosine (GOase red) (Himo et al., 2000). Whittaker's posited mechanism of catalysis regards the initial step as the binding, to the equatorial copper site, of the substrate, removing the water ligand, following a proton transfer from the alcohol to the axial Tyr495. Then, in an explicated step from the experiments' substitution of isotope, a hydrogen atom is transferred to the tyrosyl radical from the substrate. The substrate's produced ketyl radical is thereafter oxidized via the transfer of electrons to the copper center, producing Cu(I) and aldehyde. Lastly, Cu(I) and tyrosine are re-oxidized through oxygen molecules, re-yielding Cu(II) and tyrosyl while hydrogen peroxide is produced as a sub-product (Whittaker & Whittaker, 1993).

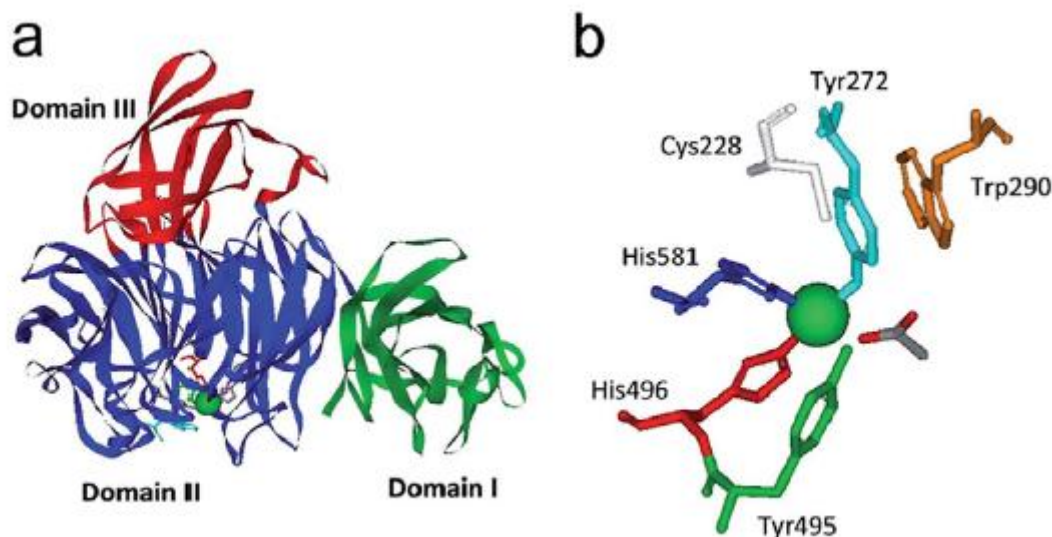


Figure 2: *Dactylium dendroides*' galactose oxidase structures. (a) Enzyme's structural illustration (in 3-D) with the three domains shown. (b) The explicated catalytic active site's structure.

Source: (Ikemoto et al., 2015)

3.0 Catalytic mechanism of GOase

As stated earlier, there are three unique oxidation states of GOase: the oxidized state having Cu(II) and tyrosyl radical, the Cu(II) and tyrosine intermediate (semi-reduced) state, and the reduced state having Cu(I) and tyrosine. The GOase-catalyzed reaction begins with substrate bound before the Cu ion and can be classified as an oxidative and reductive half-reaction via a ping-pong mechanism (Whittaker J. W., 2005). Based on the first catalytic mechanism posited, the oxidized free-radical, that is, catalytically active Cu(II)-complex (of tyrosyl radical and Cu(II)) is reduced, in the reductive half-reaction, to the non-radical Cu(I)-complex (of tyrosine and Cu(I)) in three steps (Figure 3).

Firstly, there is a proton transfer, to the tyrosinate (Tyr 495), from the alcohol (substrate). The axial Tyr 495 was posited to function as a common base for the extraction of the proton from the matched hydroxyl group and was evidenced to be vital for catalysis (Whittaker J. W., 2002). Although containing both the cysteine-tyrosyl radical cofactor and copper, the mutant of Y495F is inactive. Thereafter, in the following step, there is a transfer of hydrogen atoms, to the tyrosyl radical (Tyr272), from the substrate. The step is regarded as at least partially or entirely rate-limiting based on spectroscopic research (Whittaker & Whittaker, 1993). The alkoxy radical derived from alcohol that remains is oxidized by the transfer of electrons to the copper ion producing the product aldehyde and Cu(I). Based on research using inhibitors, electron and hydrogen atom transfer was posited to ensue in a concerted way (Wachter & Branchaud, 1996). The latest research theories showed that before the first proton transfer, the location of the radical site was at the axial Tyr495. Alongside the transfer of the proton, the radical is moved from the Cys-Tyr-dimer to the Tyr272. Hence, an assumption was made that the transfer of an electron to Cu(I) from the alkoxy radical intermediate cannot be extremely exothermic, as in the reaction,

the rate-limiting step would be that involving O₂ reduction (Himo et al., 2000). In the oxidative half-reaction that follows, when the release of the aldehyde (product) from the active site has occurred, whereas molecular oxygen occupies its position in front of the copper ion, the molecular oxygen oxidizes the reduced non-radical Cu(I)-complex producing hydrogen peroxide and Cu(II)-complex free-radical having tyrosyl radical and Cu(II) (Figure 3) (Whittaker J. W., 2005). An electron was projected to be transferred from Cu(I) to the O₂ bound, whereas O₂ receives a hydrogen atom by transfer from Tyr272 (absent in Figure 3). Following the transfer of a proton from the TYR495 phenol H₂O₂ exits the reaction (Whittaker J. W., 1999) The oxidized Cu(II)-complex free-radical is somewhat stable but can be simply reduced, through an electron transfer, to the catalytically inactive non-radical Cu(II)-complex by the action of a wide chemicals' spectrum (Whittaker & Whittaker, 1988). The next single-electron reduction of the complex results in the non-radical Cu(I)-complex formation that can interact with O₂ and therefore re-introduces GOase into the cycle of reactions. To prevent inactive GOase accumulation in the reaction, which lowers the rate of reaction and yields partial conversion of the substrate, potassium ferricyanide (a mild oxidant) can be introduced into the reaction for GOase reactivation (Whittaker, 2003). The oxidized Cu (II)- complex free-radicals redox potential was discovered to be modulated by Trp290 amassing to the Cys-Tyr-dimer. Although GOase wild-type via potassium ferricyanide ($E^{\circ} = 424 \text{ mV}$) was oxidized to the Cu(II)-complex free-radical, treatment with cesium octacyanomolybdate ($E^{\circ} = 892 \text{ mV}$) was required to oxidize the W290H variant (Rogers et al., 2007). GOase was discovered to be activated by Horseradish peroxidase (HRP) (Kwiatkowski & Kosman, 1973; Tressel & Kosman, 1980). HRP was posited to be an H₂O₂ scavenger, from the reaction GOase catalyzes, hence, the enzyme is protected from deactivation (Kwiatkowski & Kosman, 1973). Subsequently, HRP's function was re-

assessed and a postulation was given that it serves as a GOase activator (Tressel& Kosman, 1980). There is no complete understanding of the activating effect but was described using its role as a one-electron oxidant needed to regenerate, upon decay, the radical of the active site (Pedersen et al., 2015). Therefore, commonly, HRP is included, during reactions, to enhance GOase activity. Usually, catalase is introduced for the decomposition of deleterious H_2O_2 to water and O_2 as H_2O_2 is a GOase inactivator and inhibitor, therefore oxygen is reintroduced into the reaction and the entire requirement for O_2 is reduced (Birmingham et al, 2021; Forget et al., 2020; Pedersen et al., 2015). Lately, through cyclic voltammetry, studies have been conducted on the GOase electrochemical activation from *F. graminearum* and its developed variant in the presence of many mediators at pH 7-9 (Zhang et al, 2021). The dependence of the rates of electron transfer on both, the pH value and the redox potential of the mediator has been demonstrated. GOase oxidation at pH values 7-9 by mediators was posited to follow a concentrated proton-coupled electron transfer (PCET) mechanism in anaerobic settings. Furthermore, GOase variants mediated electrochemical re-activation was applied while oxidizing diverse alcohols. Both GOase HRP-mediated and electrochemical activation yielded the same conversion values of substrate and yields of product. Although the conversion and selectiveness had sensitivity to the operational voltage, there was no observed correlation between the redox potential and the conversion of the studied mediators.

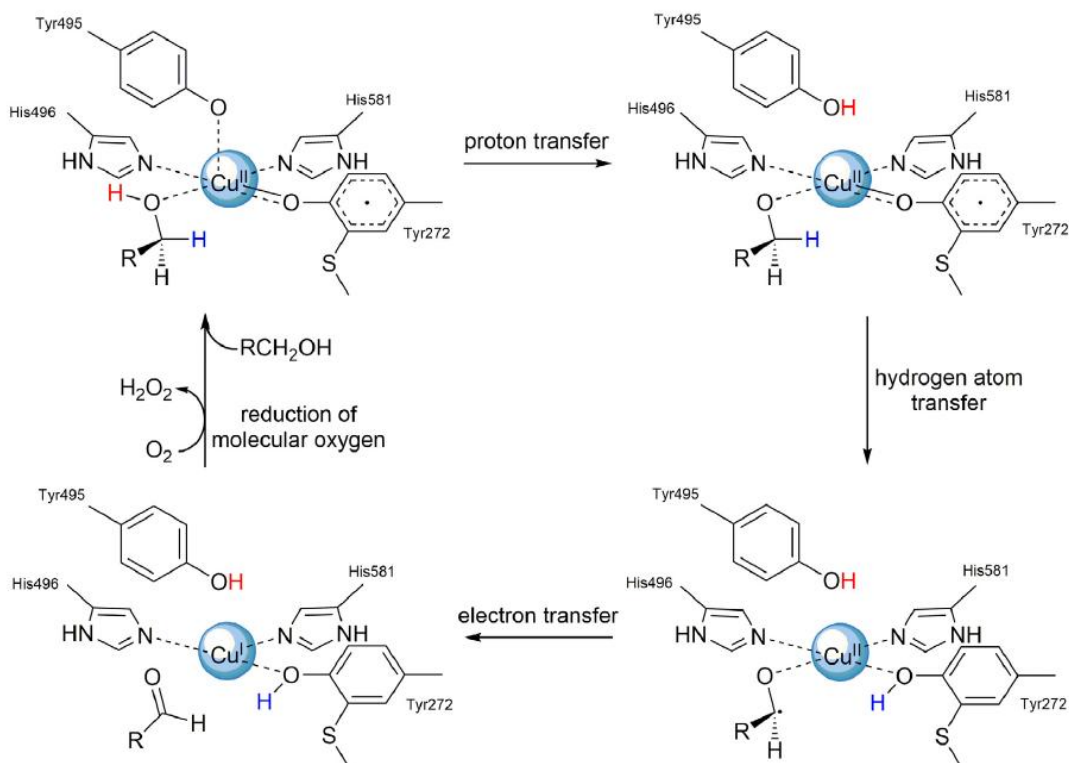


Figure 3: Posited GOase cycle of Catalysis from *F. graminearum*

4.0 Studies on The Direct Electron Transfer of GOase

In the attempt to make the natural activity of redox enzymes be coupled to an electrode, there is usually a huge issue in accomplishing the direct electron transfer (DET) between the active site of the enzyme and the surface of the electrode. Significantly effective DET with electrodes has been demonstrated in metalloenzymes possessing redox centers near the surface of the protein, for example, multi-cooper oxidases and hydrogenases (Vincent et al., 2007; Shleev et al., 2005). However, GOase DET with electrodes is somewhat elusive even though it has the site of its cooper redox close to the surface of the protein (about 8 Å). Few reports exist in literature in comparison to other proteins that contain coopers, like bilirubin oxidases, laccases, or azurin (Shleev et al., 2005). About 20 years ago, Tkac et al. asserted that there is indirect proof of

the GOase direct electron transfer to graphite electrodes by detecting enzyme activation on the application of redox potential over 150 mV versus SCE, concurring roughly with the one on its active site's tyrosine radical (Table 1), was recognized (Tkac et al., 2002). On covering the surface of the electrode with a membrane of cellulose acetate to separate it from GOase, the effect of activation by the application of redox potential then disappeared. Although in these electrochemical researches, the graphite surface was modified, prior, with an adsorbed ferrocene, hence, GOase-mediated electron transfer cannot be eliminated in such circumstances. GOase DET has been examined by the deposition of GOase on gold electrodes with diverse thiols' self-assembled monolayers (SAM) (Shleev et al., 2005). When short-chain hydrophilic thiols are involved, because of the adsorbed GOase, sharp peaks were seen using cyclic voltammetry (CV). Notwithstanding, there were highly unstable redox signals and lacked bio-electrocatalytic impact on the introduction of galactose which can be linked with them, signifying that they had correspondence with the denatured enzyme.

GOase entrapment in a compound film of poly (Lactide-capped Au nanoparticles and reduced graphene oxide applied on glass-like carbon electrodes have been examined for an indication of DET. There was an identified symmetrical quasi-reversible redox process using cyclic voltammetry having a formal potential of -137mV versus SCE. The value of this potential is relatively low in comparison to those projected for the GOase active site's redox centers (Table 1). Additionally, no currents of oxidative electrocatalysis could be linked with the identified redox process, on the addition of galactose, using CV as indicated. Rather, more currents of reduction in the presence of galactose were assessed by chronoamperometry at -0.42V versus SCE in an oxygen-saturated buffer (Xie et al., 2016). There was no explanation regarding the unanticipated outcome, as GOase uses up oxygen during its cycle of catalysis. Consequently, the

cathodic current as a result of direct oxygen reduction at the electrode should reduce on galactose addition if the static GOase is active.

Table 1. Redox Potential of Electrodes

Electrode	Technique	Redox Potential (mV versus NHE)	References
Au and GOase in solution	Spectroelectrochemical titration	+410 (Tyr·/Tyr) and +159 (Cu ^{2+/1+})	Shleev et al., 2005
Au/SAM/GOase	DPV	+440 to +460 and +130 to +200	Shleev et al., 2005
Au/SAM/AuNP-GOase		+440 and +265	Abad et al., 2009
GCE/RGO/AuNP/GOase	CV	+107	Xie et al., 2016
Au/SAM/CNT/GOase	CV	+350 to +390	Wayu et al., 2019
FTO/TiO ₂ /GOase	CV	+300	Yin and Zhi, 2020

5.0 Conclusion

Galactose Oxidase is a copper-containing enzyme found in three major fungi organisms - *Fusarium graminearum*, *Gibberella fujikuroi*, and *Dactylium dendroides* and has been associated with the catalysis of the oxidation reaction of primary alcohols, and other substrates such as allyl alcohols as well as oligo- and polysaccharides. It has applications in several areas as a biosensor, diagnostics, and other fields. Furthermore, its mechanism of catalysis involves several steps in a catalytic cycle with a rate-limiting reaction that takes part in the oxidation of substrates. Several studies have also been conducted to reveal the direct electron transfer (DET) that takes place in the enzyme during catalysis.

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