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Review Article

Conformational triggering in voltammetry and single-molecule conductivity of two-centre redox metalloproteins: Cytochrome *c*₄ and copper nitrite reductase

 Henrik Bohr¹, Irene Shim², Jens Ulstrup² and Xinxin Xiao^{2,3}


Abstract

Blue copper enzymes often show no voltammetry themselves, whereas substrate binding triggers strong electrocatalytic signals. Similarly, electrochemical STM only gives strong contrasts when substrate (O_2 , NO_2^-) is present. AFM shows that CuNIR on Au(111)-electrodes modified by self-assembled cysteamine monolayers (SAMs) maintains constant height throughout the electrocatalytic range, while NO_2^- triggers substantial enzyme ‘swelling’. ‘Swelling’ does not accord with the crystalline state, which, however, is not the relevant catalytic environment.

With a view on understanding these patterns, we present *ab initio* quantum chemical studies of CuNIR/ OH_2 and CuNIR/ NO_2^- 740-atom fragments including the type I and type II Cu-centres. Replacing water at the type II centre by nitrite triggers 2-Å Cu–Cu distance increase, according with enzyme ‘swelling’. 2 Å Cu–Cu increase would close intramolecular ET entirely, but is compensated by efficient superexchange alignment of closely interacting LUMOs and HOMOs. In the water-bound enzyme these orbitals are separated by unfavourable through-space tunneling regions.

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Keywords

Two-centre redox metalloproteins, Voltammetry, Single-molecule *in situ* STM, Single-molecule *in situ* AFM, DFT and Ab initio calculations, Substrate-triggered single-molecule enzyme swelling.

Introduction

Long-range electron transfer (LRET), by hopping or tunnelling between transition metal or organic redox centres through protein ‘matter’ is long-time known in photosynthesis, respiration, and multi-centre redox enzyme catalysis [1–4]. The ET processes are often accompanied by coupled proton/electron transfer (PCET) [2,5–7], ‘cooperative’ effects [7–11], and fluctuating tunnelling barriers [2,7]. LRET in metalloproteins is broadly understood and exploited in biosensors and biofuel cells [12,13], but challenges keep emerging.

A long-standing issue is that redox enzymes — blue copper enzymes in particular — often show no voltammetry, whereas binding of enzyme substrate triggers strong electrocatalytic signals, [14–19]. These are associated with the enzyme, as the substrates themselves, say dioxygen in laccases, or nitrite in CuNIR, Figure 1, exhibit no electrochemistry in these potential ranges, Figure 2. Related effects are that ET between the heme groups of di-heme cytochrome *c*₄ (*Pseudomonas stutzeri*) is not part of cyt *c*₄ ET with reaction partners in solution [20], but sub-ms *intramolecular* ET channels open on cyt *c*₄ immobilisation on Au(111)-electrodes modified by thiol-based SAMs [17,20,21], Figure 2.

New bioelectrochemical techniques include single-crystal, atomically planar electrode surfaces and particularly, scanning tunnelling and atomic force microscopy, directly in aqueous biological media (*in situ* STM and AFM) [16–25]. *In situ* STM/AFM has taken mapping of working metalloproteins to single-molecule resolution, and our theoretically framed single-molecule bioelectrochemistry efforts [16,21,22,26] have expanded to the blue copper enzymes laccase (*Streptomyces coelicolor*)

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[17] and CuNIR (*Achromobacter xylosoxidans*) [16,26,27] on thiol-based SAM-modified Au(111)-electrode surfaces.

A first CuNIR and laccase observation is that single-molecule mapping substantiates that neither voltammetry nor *in situ* STM contrasts on SAM-modified Au(111)-electrodes are observed when no substrate (O_2 or NO_2^-) is present. Strong electrocatalysis and high single-molecule electronic conductivity appears, however, in the electrocatalytic potential ranges, when O_2 and NO_2^- are present [16,17,19], Figure 2. A second observation is that pure CuNIR on cysteamine SAM-modified Au(111)-electrodes maintains an *in situ* AFM height of about 4 nm [27] approximately the crystallographic dimension [28–32], in the electrocatalytically active potential range. When NO_2^- is present, the enzyme expands by close to one nm in the potential range, where NO_2^- is reduced electrocatalytically to NO, suggesting that protein conformational changes ('swelling') accompanies NO_2^- binding, Figure 2. Conformational changes must also be what causes NO_2^- triggering of *in situ* STM electronic conductivity. Such structural changes do not accord with crystal structures, which point to insignificant changes on nitrite binding [28–32]. The crystallographic state is, however, not the catalytically relevant state [32], due to the quite different enzyme environments. With a view on understanding conformational changes and ET channel opening on single-molecule nitrite binding, we have initiated computational studies of the CuNIR/ OH_2 and CuNIR/ NO_2^- core structures. We use the simpler two-centre ET heme protein cyt *c*₄ on thiol-based SAM Au(111) surfaces as a comparison.

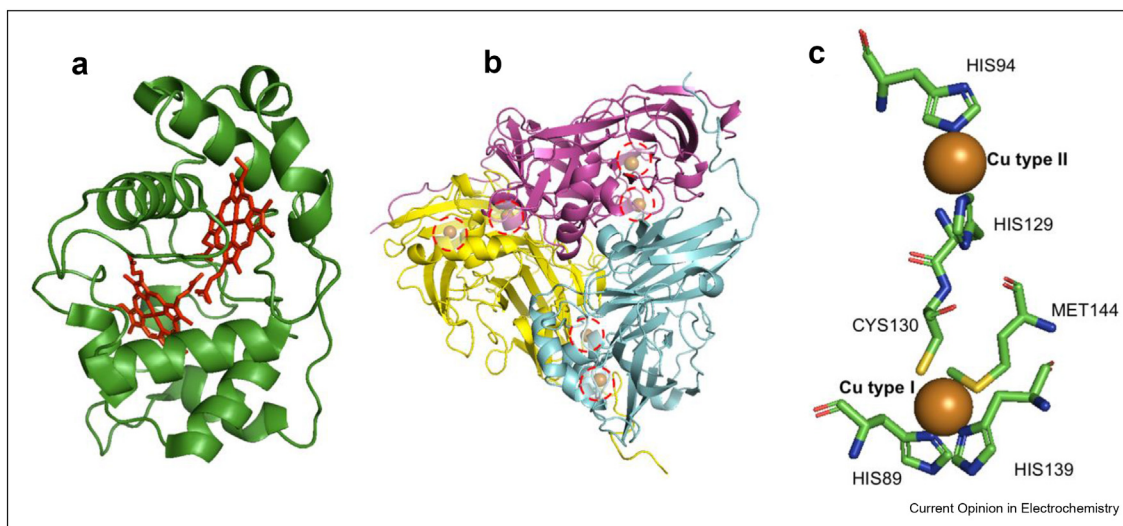
Voltammetry and single-molecule *in situ* STM of cyt *c*₄ and CuNIR

The electronic conductivity – by tunnelling or 'hopping' [1–4] – through redox metalloproteins is determined by redox potentials, reorganisation free energies, and distance and orientation of the centres. 'Cooperativity' [7,9–11] implies that charge injection, or enzyme substrate binding at a given centre affects the microscopic redox potentials, ET rate constants etc. of all the other centres. Hemoglobin [33] and four-heme cytochrome *c*₃ [34] are examples. Other cases are ET of (*Alcaligenes xylosoxidans*) CuNIR [35] and cytochrome *cd*₁ [10]. The number of electronic interactions is mostly prohibitive for mapping, but *two-centre* proteins are simple enough that complete mapping is within reach [9,11,20]. Other conformational effects are expected, when proteins are immobilised onto electrochemical surfaces. We illustrate here conformationally triggered intramolecular ET by *P. stutzeri* cyt *c*₄ [9,18–22] and (*A. xylosoxidans*) CuNIR [16,26,27] (Figures 1 and 2).

Cytochrome *c*₄

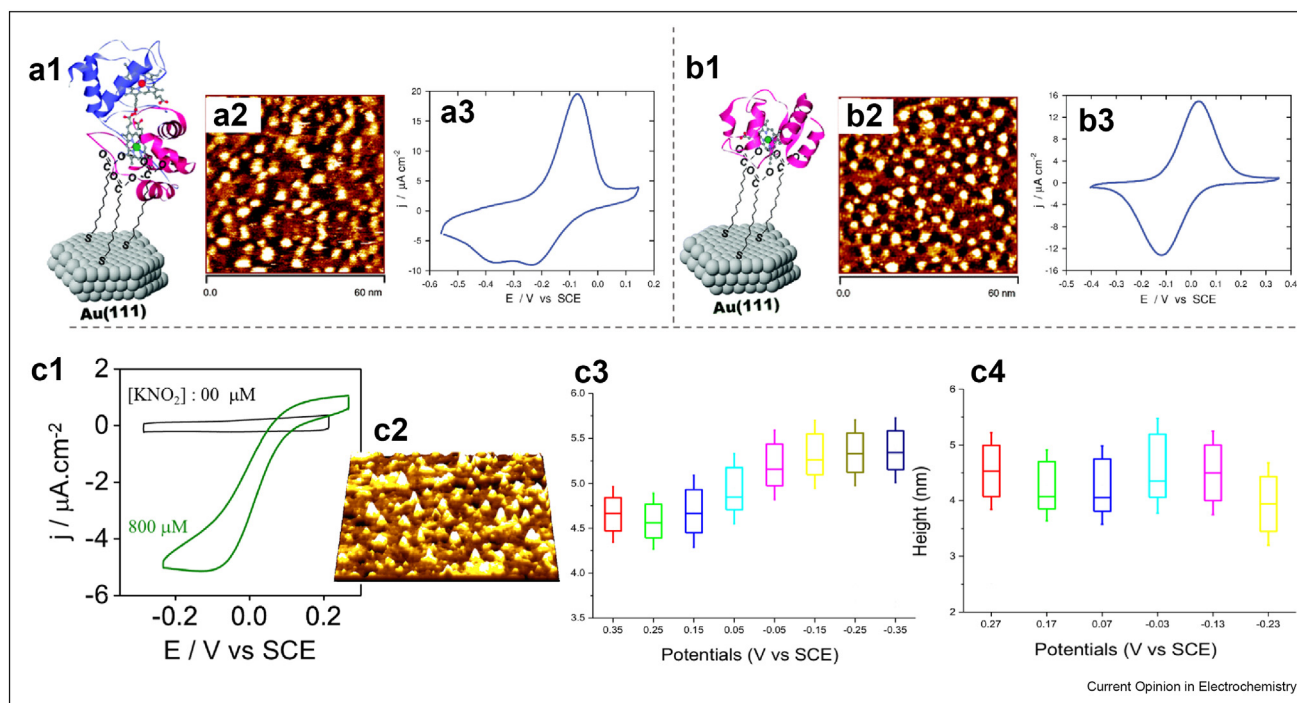
190-residue *P. stutzeri* cyt *c*₄ is organised in two heme domains, with excess negative and positive electrostatic charge in the N- and C-domain, respectively [37], giving a slightly higher redox potential of the C-terminal heme [9,36]. The dipolar structure enables vertical protein immobilisation on SAM-modified Au(111) electrodes via C-domain binding on negatively charged SAMs [18]. Electrostatic and Monte Carlo computations suggest that PCET between the two heme propionates is involved [21,36,37]. ET is thus a borderline case between weakly coupled diabatic and strongly coupled

Figure 1



(a) High-resolution structure of *P. stutzeri* cyt *c*₄ (PB 1ETP). The two heme groups are shown in red. (b) High-resolution structure of *A. xylosoxidans* CuNIR trimer (PB 1HAU) viewed along the trigonal axis. The Cu-atoms, encircled by red dashed rings are marked in brown. (c) Close-up of the type I and type II Cu-centres in a single monomer.

Figure 2



(a) Cyclic voltammetry (CV) and *in situ* STM of *P. stutzeri* cyt *c*₄. (b) CV and *in situ* STM of single-heme horse heart cyt *c* as a comparison. (c) CVs (C1) and *in situ* STM (C2) of *A. xylosoxidans* CuNIR. *In situ* electrochemical AFM of *A. xylosoxidans* CuNIR in the presence (C3) and absence (C4) of nitrite.

adiabatic limits, highly sensitive to conformational fluctuations [18,21,38].

ET between cyt *c*₄ and external reaction partners enabled resolution of all the microscopic thermodynamic and kinetic parameters. Intramolecular ET could not be detected [20], but voltammetry of cyt *c*₄ vertically oriented via the C-domain on negatively charged Au(111) SAMs, Figure 2 displays intriguing asymmetry, only compatible with (ms to sub-ms) intramolecular ET. Details regarding instrumentation, data, and data analysis are given in Refs. [18,19].

Intramolecular cyt *c*₄ ET was also addressed by quantum mechanical charge transfer theory [21,38]. The reorganisation free energy is robust to conformational fluctuations, but the electronic transmission coefficient increases by orders of magnitude, when even tiny structural fluctuations take an ET path from the closed crystallographic structure, to thermally accessible non-equilibrium conformations. Highly conspicuous ET ‘gating’ thus emerges.

The copper enzyme nitrite reductase (*A. xylosoxidans*)

CuNIRs are multimeric two-centre blue Cu-oxidases in the biological N-cycle [28–32]. ‘Green’ CuNIRs

catalyse similar processes [27,39]. In addition to the two-centre nature of the CuNIR subunits, with a type I centre for electron inlet and a catalytic type II centre, there were other rationales for the choice of this single-molecule target protein. The substrate, nitrite is a small molecule, structurally invisible in STM and AFM, but with detectable triggered electronic and conformational enzyme changes. Secondly, both voltammetry in well-defined (single-crystal) environments and high-resolution *in situ* STM and AFM are available for this particular CuNIR target [16,19,22,26,27,40]. CuNIRs catalyse the one-electron reduction at the type II centre [28–32]:



This process is essentially a PCET process, and both ET and PT pathways have been explored [16,26,41–44]. Comprehensive crystallographic, spectroscopic, and kinetic studies are reported [28–31,41–44]. Here we focus on intramolecular ET between the type I and type II centres, directly covalently linked via His129-Cys130 ligands, Figure 2. The strong type I–Cys bond ascertains facile superexchange subject to ‘gating’, either by nitrite binding or enzyme immobilisation. Nitrite ‘gated’ intramolecular ET and conformational ‘swelling’, or ‘protein quakes’ [45] are thus our focus.

Our first frame is high-resolution crystal structures [28–30,36,42–44,46]. Notably, the crystallographic Cu–Cu distances are virtually unchanged on nitrite binding, Table 1. Secondly NO_2^- binding is a prerequisite for electrochemical signals [16,26], although CuNIR alone does give signals on specific SAMs [26]. A third frame is that *in situ* STM of CuNIR on cysteamine-modified Au(111)-surfaces follows CV, i.e. molecular scale *in situ* STM structures *only* appear when NO_2^- is present. Finally, single-molecule *in situ* AFM discloses substantial conformational differences (‘swelling’) when the immobilised enzyme goes from the resting to the active state, Figure 2. This is in contrast to the crystal-line state, but as noted this state is not the reactive enzyme state [41].

Solomon and associates analysed intramolecular ET between the type I and type II centres [32,41] in chosen protein fragments using DFT with Hartree–Fock mixing. Focus was on protein dynamics, with subtle gating and dual-path competition. Our focus is also intramolecular ET but with focus on electrochemical nitrite triggering and the pronounced conformational ‘swelling’ observed by AFM.

A computational approach to

A. *xylosoxidans* CuNIR on nitrite binding

We calculated the electronic structure of a 740 atom fragment of the *A. xylosoxidans* CuNIR type I/type II ET channel and the effects of nitrite binding, using *ab initio* Hartree–Fock self-consistent field methods (HF-SCF). Mobilisation of the full quantum mechanics arsenal is impossible for a protein: the size of CuNIR with more than 9000 atoms not including the H-atoms and 85 Å across the trimer. With the experimental frames noted, we built a model 740 atom *A. xylosoxidans* CuNIR, PDB 1OE1 fragment containing the type I and

type II sites. This 33 Å fragment still represents a self-contained protein section. We used HF-SCF in the Roothaan formulation [48] along with the Born–Oppenheimer approximation. Wave functions were Slater determinants, with molecular orbitals (MOs) expanded as linear combinations of atomic orbitals (LCAOs). Gaussian type basis sets were chosen as 6-31G*.

A H_2O molecule was added to the type II Cu(II) centre. As a starting point, the distance between Cu(II) and the O atom of H_2O was set to 2.0 Å. Likewise a NO_2^- ion with a 2.0 Å Cu(II)–N atom distance was added. The fragment structures containing H_2O or NO_2^- were HF-SCF optimised using Gaussian 16 [49]. The calculations converged, when the maximum displacement was less than 0.0018 a.u. and the maximum force was less than 0.00045 a.u. (1 a.u. = 0.53 Å, 82 nN). The converged 740 atom structures were next stripped of the outer amino acids ending with the essential fragments containing the core type I/type II Cu centres with ligands. The final H_2O -bound fragment contained 150 atoms, the NO_2^- -bound fragment 148 atoms. Single-point calculations with fixed geometry on these reduced fragments were undertaken. We also calculated *iso*-surfaces of the LUMO (Lowest Unoccupied MO) and five Highest Occupied MOs, HOMO to HOMO–4. The *iso*-values were chosen as 0.02 (electrons/ au^3)^{1/2}. Figures 3 and 4 show the resulting electronic and molecular structures of the reduced fragments.

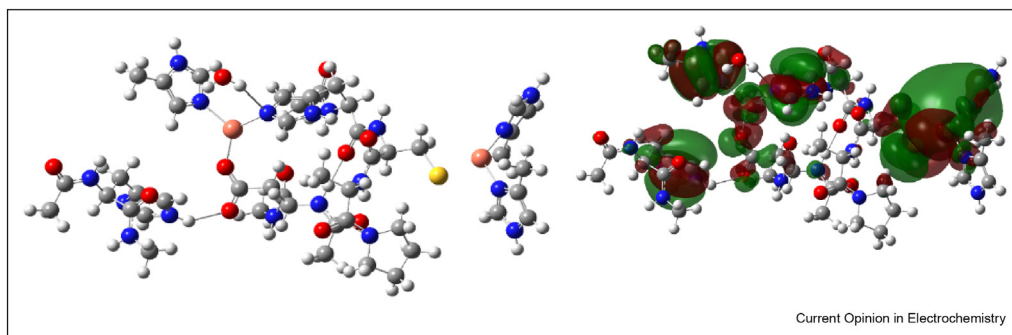
The figures disclose several striking outcomes. One is that the fully optimised NIR structure with nitrite substrate is markedly different from NIR with bound water. Particularly nitrite binding was found to shift the type I and type II centres apart by no less than 2.4 Å, Table 1. This accords with the AFM data, Figure 2, but

Table 1

Overview of some PDB entries of pure and mutant NO_2^- bound CuNIRs. Cu–Cu distances included.

Entry	PDB id	Description	Sequence Length	Cu–Cu distance (Å)	Increase due to nitrite binding (Å)	References
1	2DY2	<i>Cereibacter sphaeroides</i> CuNIR at pH 6.0 without nitrite bound	329	12.459	–	[28]
2	2DWT	With bound nitrite	329	12.491	+0.032	[28]
	1WA1	H313Q Mutant of <i>Achromobacter xylosoxidans</i> CuNIR nitrite bound	336	12.424	–	[29]
3	1WA2	With bound nitrite	336	12.460	+0.036	[29]
	2PP7	<i>Alcaligenes faecalis</i> CuNIR without nitrite bound	341	12.476	–	[30]
4	2PP9	With bound nitrite	341	12.574	+0.098	[30]
	1OE1	<i>Achromobacter xylosoxidans</i> CuNIR; Fragment with water optimised	336	12.07	–	[47]
	1OE1	Fragment with NO_2^- optimised	336	14.46	+2.39	[47]

Figure 3



150 atom fragment with bound H₂O. Left: Optimised atomic structure. Right: Fragment with LUMO and HOMO to HOMO-4 isosurfaces (green and red show phases of the orbitals). Ball and stick colours: Grey: carbon; blue: nitrogen; red: oxygen; yellow: sulfur; orange: copper.

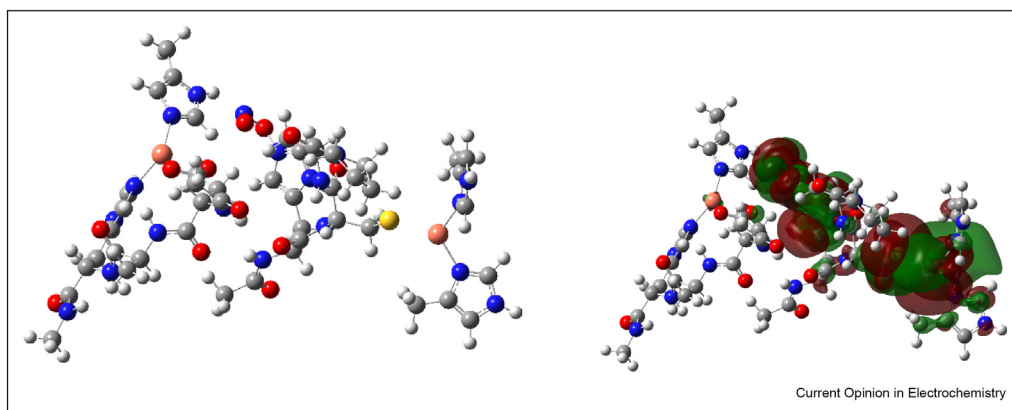
at the same might be expected to close the intramolecular ET channel. The structural expansion is, however, compensated by a drastic electronic change in the ET pathway. The conduction orbitals for the water-bound fragment are spatially separated, with conspicuous through-space regions, unfavourable for ET. The NO₂⁻ fragment orbitals, however, expand to form a channel of nearest neighbour interactions, opening an efficient LRET channel. CuNIR/NO₂⁻ frontier orbitals are also in an energetically descending line of HOMO states ending with the LUMO state (expanded green-red surfaces), facilitating ET in either direction (electron *and* hole transfer).

We calculated the Mulliken charges on all the atoms [50], Table 2. Quantum chemical computations, do not directly provide formal integer atomic oxidation states, as the electrons are delocalised between the metals and the ligands. The Mulliken population analysis of the wave functions shows that both centres for CuNIR/OH₂

have identical oxidation states. Adding NO₂⁻ to Cu(II) results in charges +0.33 on Cu(I) and +0.67 on Cu(II), Table 2. This can be interpreted as formal oxidation states +1 of Cu(I) and +2 of Cu(II). Charges on individual atoms in chemical compounds are not observables, but the Mulliken analysis is commonly used as measures of charges associated with individual atoms. These charges are, however, unlikely to coincide with the formal charges.

A final – also notable – observation is that neither H₂O nor NO₂⁻ binds coordinatively to the type II centre, but via 4.3 Å NO₂⁻ non-covalent bonding via an oxygen atom to an imidazole ring coordinated to the type II Cu-centre. During the optimisation the configuration around Cu(II) is changed considerably. In the final state Cu(II) ends up coordinated to two imidazole rings and a carboxylate group of glutamic acid. Although possibly an artifact of the model used (fragment protein), non-covalent interactions such as

Figure 4



148 atom NO₂⁻ fragment. Left: Molecular structure. Right: Fragment with LUMO and HOMO to HOMO-4 isosurfaces. Colour code as in Figure 3.

Table 2

Mulliken charges (in units of the electron charge) associated with Cu(I) and Cu(II) for the fragments containing H₂O and NO₂⁻, as well as the charges associated with bound H₂O and NO₂⁻.

	H ₂ O	NO ₂ ⁻
Cu (I)	0.62	0.33
Cu(II)	0.66	0.67
NO ₂ ⁻		-0.83
H ₂ O	0.01	

these may still be competitive in strength with coordinative bonding [51,52].

Concluding remarks

Immobilisation of composite, multi-centre redox proteins, can lead to drastic changes in the elementary ET kinetic parameters. Such changes are understood in some detail for prototype two-heme cyt *c*₄ based on fast reaction kinetics, CV at single-crystal SAM modified Au(111)-electrode surfaces, single-molecule *in situ* STM, and DFT. The type I/type II blue CuNIR pattern is less clear-cut. CV at SAM modified Au(111)-electrodes shows nitrite triggered voltammetry, and *in situ* STM exhibits high conductivity *only* when nitrite is present. *In situ* AFM shows furthermore significant structural ‘swelling’, when the enzyme goes from the resting to the active state, where NO₂⁻ is electrocatalytically reduced to NO. This outcome does not accord with the insignificant crystal structure changes, when NO₂⁻ is bound.

We have investigated, how large-scale computational efforts can help to resolve this apparent dilemma. Our conclusions are limited by our molecular target necessarily constituting only an enzyme fragment, although strategically designed. Bulk solvent is also absent, although protein-bound water molecules are included. It can be argued that these reservations are no more severe than comparison between densely packed crystalline environments and real CuNIR electrocatalysis in the inhomogeneous, aqueous electrochemical environment.

With these reservations our computations prompt several observations. One is that replacing bound water around the type II centre by nitrite triggers significant increase in the Cu–Cu distance, a couple of Å or so, according with enzyme ‘swelling’ disclosed by AFM, but > 2-Å Cu–Cu distance increase might be expected to close the intramolecular ET channel. Our computations, however, also show that NO₂⁻-binding aligns closely interacting LUMOs and HOMOs, compatible with superexchange along nearest-neighbour, closely interacting MOs. In CuNIR/OH₂ these orbitals are separated by unfavourable through-space tunnelling

regions. It is, finally notable that the drastic molecular and electronic structural changes appear caused by non-covalent interactions via an imidazole type II ligand, rather than direct coordinative bonding. In the low-dielectric protein environment these two forces can, however, be of comparable strength [51,52].

Cautious overall conclusions are then, first that transfer of the enzyme from the rigid crystalline phase to the solute (or vacuum) state relaxes the structure towards high flexibility and reactivity. Secondly, enzyme ‘swelling’ accompanies nitrite binding as observed by *in situ* AFM. The increased intramolecular ET distance is compensated by much closer spatial alignment and electronic overlap of the charge transmitting MOs. Finally, the drastic molecular and electronic structural effects appear to be triggered by strong but indirect NO₂⁻ binding to an imidazole ligand of the type II centre rather than by direct coordination.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this article.

Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

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