



Halogenases: powerful tools for biocatalysis (mechanisms applications and scope)

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Introduction

The incorporation of a halogen into a molecule can have a striking impact on its properties [1,2]. Around 20% of small molecule drugs and over 80% of marketed agrochemicals are halogenated, including leading compounds such as sitagliptin and aripiprazole with annual sales revenues of \$3.6 and \$7.9 billion respectively [3,4]. These statistics are perhaps not surprising as incorporation of a halogen can significantly impact a molecule's bioactivity and bioavailability. Furthermore, the incorporation of a Cl or Br can provide a chemically reactive and orthogonal handle for selective modification through cross-coupling chemistry [5]. Synthetic halogenation ordinarily utilizes harsh conditions, noxious reagents, generates harmful by-products and often lacks regioselectivity [6–8]. The fine-chemical, pharmaceutical and agrochemical industries have an increasing interest in utilizing bio-catalysts in process, as a route to more selective, greener, and cost-effective synthesis, and it is imperative that new enzymes are discovered and developed for process. In contrast to synthetic chemical alternatives, halogenating enzymes afford the highly regiospecific incorporation of a halogen into an organic molecule. The mild reaction conditions (physiological pH and temperature), aqueous solvents and the biodegradable catalyst, also provide environmental and operational benefits.

Over 5000 halogenated natural products have now been reported, these are predominantly chlorinated and brominated metabolites, with only about 100 iodinated and 5 fluorinated metabolites having been isolated (for examples of the breadth of structural diversity, see [Figure 1](#)) [9–12]. For many years the only known halogenases were the haloperoxidases, however over the past 20 years, investigation of the biosynthetic pathways mediating the construction of diverse series of halometabolites, predominantly from actinomycetes, has revealed a diverse series of halogenases. The halogenases discovered can be broadly classified as employing electrophilic, nucleophilic or radical halogenation mechanisms ([Figure 2](#)). Electrophilic processes dominate for the installation of C–I, C–Br and C–Cl bonds, however due to the fluorine's high electronegativity, the biogenesis of C–F bonds is likely to only occur via nucleophilic processes.

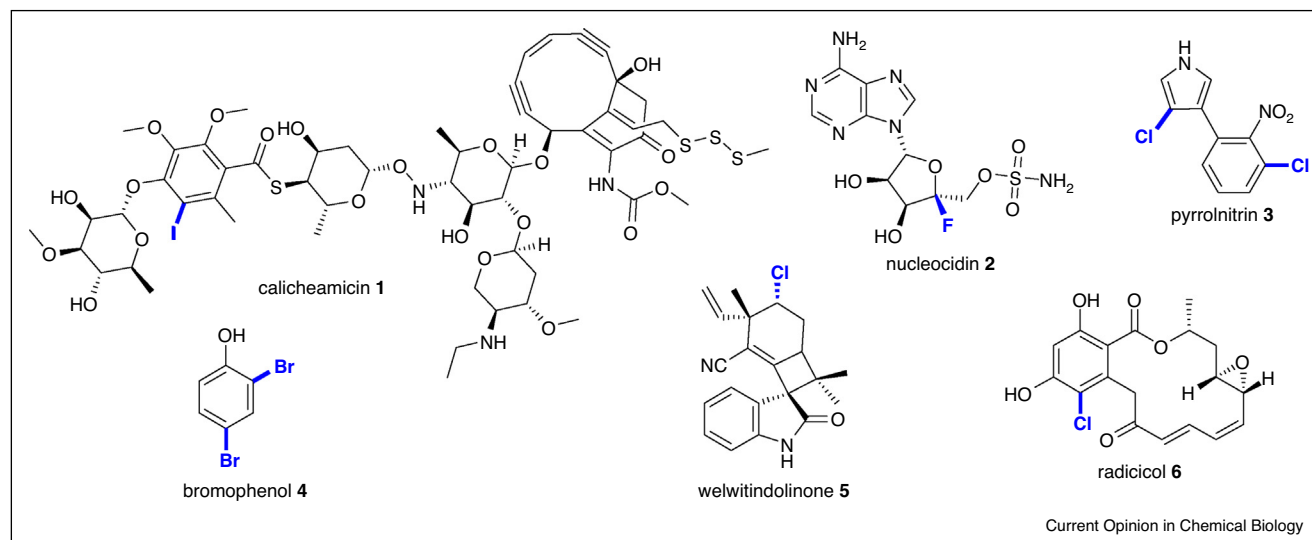
Electrophilic halogenation

Haloperoxidases (haem iron and vanadium dependent)

The earliest known enzymes involved in halogenation were the haloperoxidases with chloroperoxidase (CPO) from the fungus *Caldariomyces fumago* being discovered in 1958 [26]. For the next 35 years haloperoxidases were the only known halogenating enzymes.

The haloperoxidases may be divided into two major classes, the haem iron peroxidases and the vanadium dependent halogenases. Thyroid peroxidase (TPO) is a particularly notable example of a haem iron peroxidase, this membrane associated enzyme is responsible for the iodination event in the biosynthesis of thyroxine [27]. Haloperoxidases are believed to produce free hypohalous acids (HOI, HOBr and HOCl) According to the most electronegative halogen they can oxidize, they can be sub-classified as iodo-, bromo- or chloroperoxidases. Hypohalous acid generation occurs by the reaction of hydrogen peroxide with the ferric or vanadate resting state of the peroxidase, followed by halide addition, forming the ferric or vanadate hypohalite. Finally, the highly reactive hypohalous acid is released (see [Scheme 1b,c](#)), as it is not bound and directed by the enzyme, it is thought to diffuse freely. It reacts in an electrophilic fashion with electron rich compounds [28,29]. As a result, the haloperoxidases tend to show a very low level of regioselectivity, and oftentimes a suite of mono, di and tri-halogenated products are generated, depending upon the reactivity of the substrate. Nevertheless, a small group of highly regio- and stereo-specific vanadium dependent halogenases exist, such as vanadium-

Figure 1



A glimpse of the structural and biological diversity shown by halogenated compounds: the enediyne antitumour antibiotic calicheamicin **1** [13,14], nucleosidin **2**, one of only 5 naturally occurring fluorinated metabolites to be isolated to date [11,12], the antifungal antibiotic pyrrolnitrin **3** involving two flavin dependent halogenases in its assembly [15,16*,17**]. One of a series of marine bromophenols **4**, generated by flavin dependent halogenases [21**,22], as well as the cyanobacterial metabolite welwitindolinone **5**, chlorinated by the first non-haem iron halogenase shown to accept a non phosphopantetheine tethered substrate [23**,24*], the fungal natural product radicol **6** chlorinated by a broad substrate specificity flavin dependent halogenase [25*].

dependent NapHI involved in alkene chlorination within the napyradiomycin pathway, indicating that it is possible for such systems to evolve to bind their substrates in a highly specific manner [30**,31]. Many haloperoxidases noted within the literature may have a primary function as peroxidases, and this non-native function could result in the ready release of the hypohalous acid from the enzyme's active site. At a structural level, one significant difference between peroxidases and haloperoxidases is that the distal metal coordination site is typically occupied by a histidine residue in peroxidases, but by a cysteine in haloperoxidases [32].

Flavin dependent halogenases (FDHs)

Haloperoxidases remained the only known biocatalysts enabling C–X bond formation until 1995, when Dairi *et al.* identified the first flavin dependent halogenase, *chl*. This was determined through gene inactivation studies within the biosynthetic cluster encoding 7-chlorotetracycline formation [33]. Soon after this discovery, two further new halogenase genes, *prnA* and *prnC* from pyrrolnitrin (**3**) biosynthesis in *Pseudomonas fluorescens* were identified by Hammer *et al.* [16*]. There is debate as to the exact way in which FDHs function and details on which residues within the active site participate may vary from one enzyme to another [34–36].

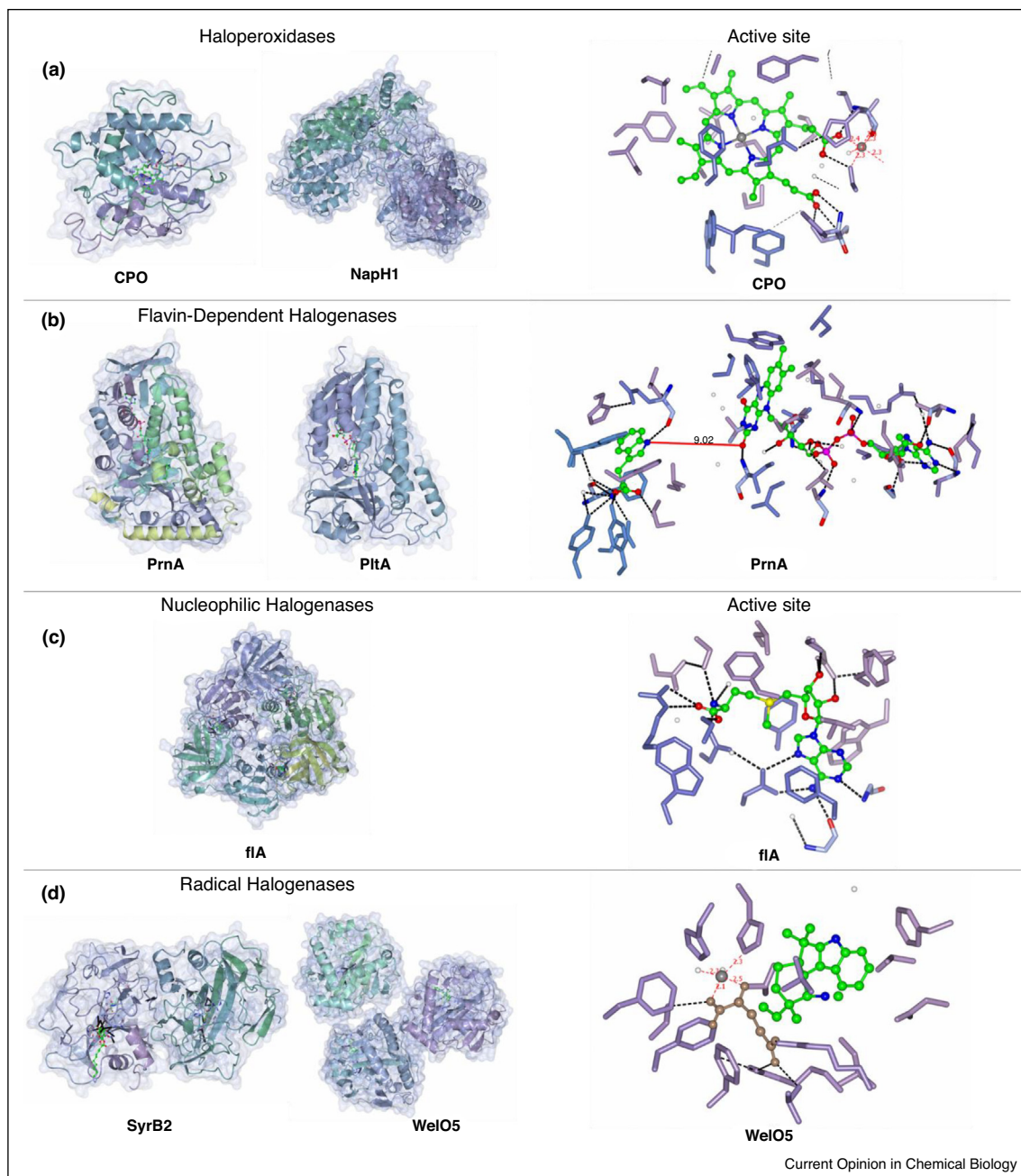
Flavin dependent halogenases, in contrast to the vanadium and haem haloperoxidases, are highly substrate specific and regioselective catalysts. The majority of this

class of halogenases utilize free reduced flavin (FADH_2), however in other enzymes the flavin is covalently bound to the enzyme, as in the case for CmlS from the chloramphenicol biosynthetic pathway [37]. Within natural systems FADH_2 is generated from FAD by a halogenase-specific flavin reductase, though notably in reconstituted systems, there is no requirement for a specific flavin reductase to be utilized. The FADH_2 is then used to generate hypohalous acid (Scheme 1a). In flavin dependent halogenases the flavin binding site, where the HOX is generated, and the substrate binding site, where halogenation occurs, are separated by a 10 Å tunnel. The substrate can be free as in the case of variant A FDHs such as PyrH, PrnA or Rdc2 [17**,18**,19,38,39*] or bound to a carrier protein, as occurs in the case of variant B FDHs such as PltA and Bmp2 [20**,21**,22,40]. In the last decade a large number of genes with sequence similarity to known FDHs have been detected, but only a very small fraction of these have been confirmed as having *in vitro* halogenase activity [41]. One of the reasons for this is that these enzymes have a very narrow substrate specificity, and therefore the endogenous substrate must be known, accessed, and presented in its appropriate free or bound form as required by the enzyme in order to confirm the halogenase activity.

Flavoenzyme Bmp5, a phenol brominase

An electrophilic halogenase with a subtly different mechanism has been recently identified, implicated in the generation of series of toxic polybrominated diphenyl

Figure 2

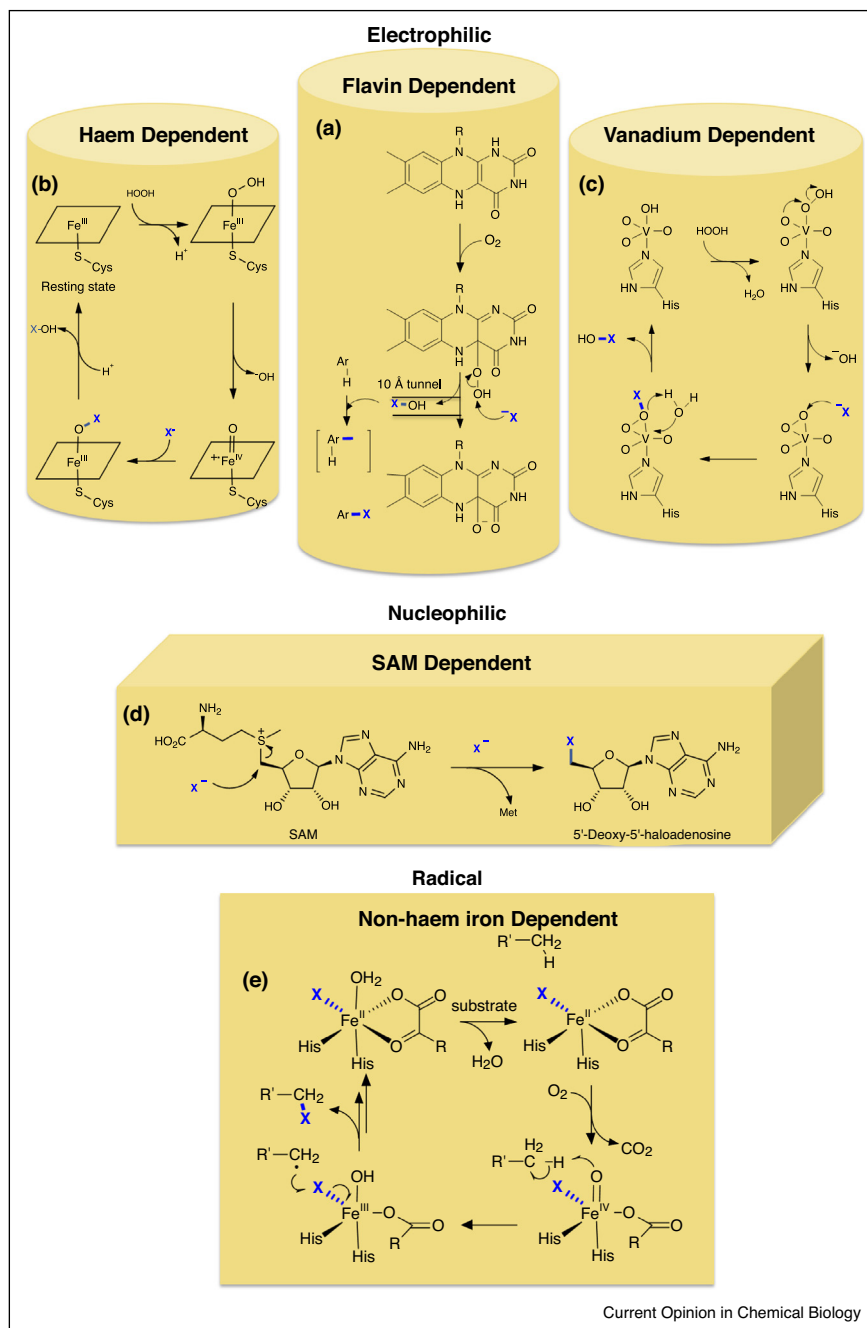


X-ray crystal structures of halogenases and their corresponding active sites. (A) Solved structure apo-type vanadium dependent chloroperoxidase NapH1 [31] and the heme-dependent chloroperoxidase CPO [78] complexed with protoporphyrin (green) containing Fe (grey) at the centre and the residues participating in the formation of the active site. (B) Crystal structures of the variant B flavin-dependent halogenase PltA [20**] and the variant A PrnA [18**], complexed with tryptophan and FAD (green). The distance between the tryptophan and the cofactor is also shown. (C) Solved structure of the SAM-dependent fluorinase flA [51**], complexed with SAM (green) and the amino acids participating in the active site. (D) Crystal structures of two variants of radical halogenases SyrB2 [44] and WelO5. WelO5 was complexed with 12-epifischerindole U (green), α-ketoglutarate (brown) and iron (grey) coordinated by the active site histidines [24*].

ethers and polybrominated bipyrroles that are found to persist in the food chain [21**,22]. Analysis of the coral associated bacteria *Pseudoalteromonas luteoviolacea* and planktonic *Pseudoalteromonas phenolica* O-BC30 revealed

the organisms' ability to produce series of brominated compounds by utilizing the phenol brominase flavoenzyme Bmp5, with homology to flavin dependent oxygenases rather than FDHs. Flavin dependent oxygenases

Scheme 1



Outline of reaction mechanisms for electrophilic, nucleophilic and radical halogenases. **(a–c)** General scheme for reactions with hypohalous acid employed by electrophilic halogenases. **(d)** General scheme for SAM-dependent halogenases. **(e)** Catalytic cycle of non-haem iron-dependent halogenases.

that proceed via a decarboxylative mechanism are known [42]; Bmp5 is the first halogenase observed to employ such a reaction and a two-step mechanism is proposed in which a carboxylate directs bromination to the *ortho* and *para* positions followed by enzyme mediated decarboxylation [21^{••}].

Radical halogenases

Enzymatic radical halogenation has also been reported in the biosynthesis of natural products. The non-heme-iron α -ketoglutarate(KG)-dependent enzymes are the only known enzymes that have been found so far to catalyze halogenation reactions with radical intermediates

(Scheme 1e). This class can selectively insert a halogen into a non-activated, aliphatic C–H bond, a transformation which is energetically challenging [43^{••},44,45[•],46^{••}]. However, these halogenases are very difficult to handle *in vitro*, due to their oxygen sensitivity and their requirement for substrate carrier proteins. Recently Hillwig and Liu identified a new member of this family of halogenases (WelO5) from welwitindolinone (5) biosynthesis that can regio- and stereo-selectively chlorinate the unactivated carbon centre of 12-epi-fischerindole, without the need for the substrate to be protein bound [23^{••},24[•],43^{••},44,45[•],46^{••},47–49]. This is a breakthrough in the field of biohalogenation.

Nucleophilic halogenases

So far two families of nucleophilic halogenases are known. Both families, the halide methyltransferases and SAM halogenases utilize *S*-adenosylmethione (SAM) as a co-factor or as a co-substrate [11,12,50^{••},51^{••},52]. Such enzymes provide the only biogenesis of fluorinated natural products, (including fluoroacetate and fluorothreonine) by the impressive feat of generating fluoride anions in the absence of its hydration sheath. Other chlorinated compounds including salinosporamide are also generated by nucleophilic halogenases [53].

Applications of halogenases

The future for the industrial utilization of enzymatic halogenation shows much promise. The development and utilization of fluorinase in ¹⁸F labelling of [¹⁸F]-5-fluororibose for use in Positron Emission Tomography (PET) imaging is exciting, enabling quick and simple two-step synthesis of the radioisotope. Incredibly, the fluorinase has also shown the ability to process tethered substrates [54[•],55,56].

The applicability of halogenases to synthesis has previously been limited by low levels of enzyme production and stability as well as the lack of sufficiently substrate-diverse halogenases. Recent progress towards addressing these defects has been manifold, for example the Lewis group have demonstrated that the simple co-expression of RebH with the chaperones GroEL and GroES can lead to up to 105 mg L⁻¹ of protein [57]. Utilization of cross-linked enzyme aggregates (CLEAs) by treating crude *E. coli* lysates with glutaraldehyde has been demonstrated by Sewald and Frese to successfully stabilize the halogenase RebH, this approach has also been successfully adopted and applied by Micklefield [59^{••},60[•]]. In a complementary manner to address stability, Sewald has also explored the utilization of an engineered thermostable halogenase mutant [61[•],62]. In order to enable the directed evolution of the tryptophan 6-halogenase ThaI from *Streptomyces albogriseolus* Sewald used a high-throughput screen utilizing cross-coupling conditions that the Goss group had developed and demonstrated to introduce a shift in the fluorescence of tryptophan [63[•]]. In parallel the Lewis

group have developed a clever “combinatorial codon mutagenesis” approach and applied this to the flavin dependent tryptophan halogenase RebH extending its substrate specificity [64^{••},65]. The discovery of new enzymes with broader substrate specificity, notably RadH from the fungus *Chaetomium chiversii* and KermI from the metagenomic library of a marine organism, will offer further opportunities to accelerate this field [66,67[•]].

The building of new biosynthetic pathways into which halogenation is engineered is an exciting and growing area. Using such a strategy Eustáquio et al. have demonstrated the inter-conversion of the clorobiosin and novobiocin antibiotic pathways, and Salas has elegantly demonstrated the combinatorial use of halogenases to generate analogues of staurosporin and rebeccamycin, metabolites with chemotherapeutic properties [68[•],69[•]]. The engineering of a new fluorinated polyketide fluorosalinosporamide, as well as fluoromalonyl-coA has also been achieved [70,71^{••}].

The utilization of the powerful combination of halogenation and cross-coupling to effect C–H activation, first demonstrated by the GenoChemetic generation of derivatives of pacidamycin, is an emerging and exciting area [72^{••}]. O'Connor was able to harness the bacterial halogenase RebH and engineer the production of chlorinated alkaloids within the plant system, *Catheranthus roseus* and also effect selective derivatization of the resultant aryl-halide [73^{••},74,75]. Moving away from natural products, Lewis has demonstrated late stage diversification of biologically active small molecules using a two-step enzymatic bromination and Pd mediated cross-coupling [76]. More recently Micklefield has shown that both halogenation and cross-coupling of indole may be carried out in one pot with the halogenase stabilized as CLEAS and separated from the palladium catalyst by a permeable membrane [60[•]]. By developing very careful reaction conditions, even halotryptophans (which can chelate to and poison palladium), may be cross coupled at room temperature and in the presence of oxygen. This finding has enabled the Goss group to utilize the GenoChemetic approach to natural product generation in a living system, with cells engineered to produce brominated metabolites and their synchronous cross-coupling *in situ* [77^{••}]. This approach affords the benefit of easing compound purification and drawing metabolic flux through the system.

Concluding thoughts

The past decade has brought many exciting advances in biocatalytic halogenation. There is considerable promise for application of halogenases in large scale synthesis, reducing the need for toxic reagents, overcoming issues of regioselectivity, and reducing toxic waste; however, several limitations remain: the substrate scope for halogenases is still narrow and current examples have been performed under very dilute conditions. Immobilization

and stabilization using CLEAs and the exploration of co-factor regeneration systems have laid the foundation required for efficient and scalable biocatalytic halogenation. In the context of the Pharma and Agrochemical sectors, many of the desired substrates have low solubility in aqueous media. In order to accommodate such substrates, halogenases will have to be evolved that can tolerate added organic solvents, or perhaps explored within a system that confers enhanced solvent tolerance such as within a catalytic biofilm. The promise of selective halogenation under mild conditions with renewable catalysts is a very attractive prospect and is ripe for exploitation and application.

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