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## Quinone- and nitroreductase reactions of *Thermotoga maritima* thioredoxin reductase

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The *Thermotoga maritima* NADH:thioredoxin reductase (TmTR) contains FAD and a catalytic disulfide in the active center, and uses a relatively poorly studied physiological oxidant Grx-1-type glutaredoxin. In order to further assess the redox properties of TmTR, we used series of quinoidal and nitroaromatic oxidants with a wide range of single-electron reduction potentials ( $E^1_{77}$ ,  $-0.49$ – $0.09$  V). We found that TmTR catalyzed the mixed single- and two-electron reduction of quinones and nitroaromatic compounds, which was much faster than the reduction of Grx-1. The reactivity of both groups of oxidants increased with an increase in their  $E^1_{77}$ , thus pointing to the absence of their structural specificity. The maximal rates of quinone reduction in the steady-state reactions were lower than the maximal rates of reduction of FAD by NADH, obtained in presteady-state experiments. The mixed-type reaction inhibition by  $\text{NAD}^+$  was consistent with its competition for a NADH binding site in the oxidized enzyme form, and also with the re-oxidation of the reduced enzyme form. The inhibition data yielded a value of the standard potential for TmTR of  $-0.31 \pm 0.03$  V at pH 7.0, which may correspond to the FAD/FADH<sub>2</sub> redox couple. Overall, the mechanism of quinone- and nitroreductase reactions of *T. maritima* TR was similar to the previously described mechanism of *Arabidopsis thaliana* TR, and points to their prooxidant and possibly cytotoxic role.

**Key words:** thioredoxin reductase, quinones, nitroaromatic compounds, oxidative stress, *Thermotoga*

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### INTRODUCTION

NAD(P)H:thioredoxin reductase (TR) and thioredoxin (TRx) systems are ubiquitous in both prokaryotes and eukaryotes, where they mainly perform antioxidant functions (Williams, 1990). TRs are members of the family of flavoenzyme pyridine nucleotide-disulfide reductases, which include glutathione reductase, trypanothione reductase, lipoamide dehydrogenase, and some other related enzymes (Williams, 1990; Arner *et al.*, 2000; Nordberg *et al.*, 2001). These NAD(P)H-dependent enzymes contain a flavin adenine dinucleotide (FAD) and a redox-active disulfide in their active center. In the catalysis, the FAD accepts two electrons (hydride) from NAD(P)H and transfers it to the catalytic disulfide which subsequently reduces the disulfide oxidant. Importantly, there exist two groups of TRs, namely the low M.W. TR (~35 kD, L-TR) of plants, prokaryotes and many eukaryotes,

which contain FAD and the catalytic disulfide (Williams, 1990; Lennon *et al.*, 1999), and high m.w. TR (~55 kD, H-TR), which contain an additional redox-active –Se–S– moiety (mammalian TR), or an additional redox-active disulfide (*Plasmodium* spp.) (Arner *et al.*, 2000; Nordberg *et al.*, 2001; Kanzok *et al.*, 2000). These additional redox groups of H-TR accept two redox equivalents from the reduced catalytic disulfide adjacent to FAD, and subsequently reduce the corresponding physiological disulfide oxidants.

Like other flavoenzymes-disulfide reductases, both L- and H-TRs reduce quinones and nitroaromatic compounds (Vienožinskis *et al.*, 1990; Čėnas *et al.*, 1994; 2004; 2006; Bironaitė *et al.*, 1997; Miškinienė *et al.*, 1998; and references therein). These reactions are of some biomedical importance, because the antioxidant disulfide reductases are considered potential targets of quinones and nitroaromatic compounds with respect to their potential anticancer, antimicrobial, and antiparasitic activities (Čėnas *et al.*, 1994; 2004; 2006; and the references therein). The above compounds may act as „subversive substrates“ for TRs, converting antioxidant functions into prooxidant ones due to redox-cycling reactions. In these cases, both H-TRs and L-TRs, e.g., L-TR of *Trichomonas vaginalis*, may be considered as potential redox-drug targets (Čėnas *et al.*, 2004; 2006; McMillan *et al.*, 2009; and references therein). However, the reactions of L-TRs with quinones and nitroaromatic compounds have not been thoroughly studied so far, except for the *Arabidopsis thaliana* TR (Bironaitė *et al.*, 1997; Miškinienė *et al.*, 1998).

*Thermotoga maritima* TR (TmTR, M.W. 34.3 kD) was the first TR isolated from a hyperthermophilic organism (Yang *et al.*, 2009; Couturier *et al.*, 2013). As the other L-TRs, it contains the NAD(P)H binding motif, FAD, and the pair of active-site cysteines (McMillan *et al.*, 2009). It participates in the antioxidant defence of *T. maritima*, providing electrons for peroxiredoxins via glutaredoxin-like proteins (Yang *et al.*, 2009; Couturier *et al.*, 2013). The catalytic mechanism of TmTR is not characterized so far.

In this paper, we provide a detailed analysis of the catalytic mechanism of *T. maritima* TR using a series of quinoidal and nitroaromatic electron acceptors. Apart from the quantitative structure-activity relationships in these reactions, our data enabled us to characterize the

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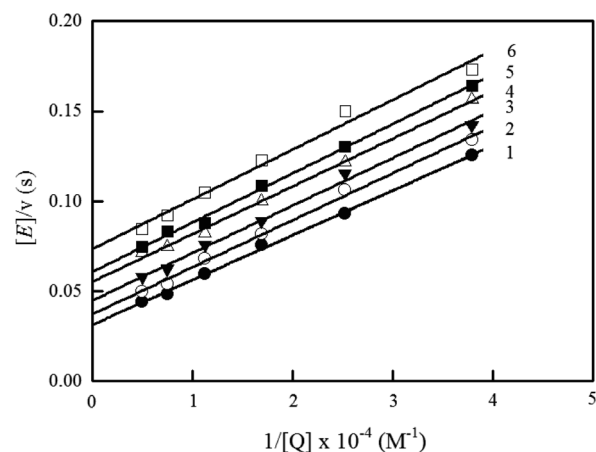
**Abbreviations:** ArNO<sub>2</sub>, aromatic nitrocompound; GR, glutathione reductase; Grx, glutaredoxin;  $k_{cat}$ , catalytic constant;  $k_{cat}/K_m$ , apparent bimolecular rate constant in steady-state enzymatic reactions; LipDH, lipoamide dehydrogenase; SOD, superoxide dismutase; TNT, 2,4,6-trinitrotoluene; TRx, thioredoxin; TR, thioredoxin reductase

thermodynamic properties of TmTR involving the redox equilibrium with the NAD<sup>+</sup>/NADH couple.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

**Enzymes and chemicals.** *T. maritima* TR and Grx-1 were obtained as described (Couturier *et al.*, 2013). The concentration of TmTR was determined according to the absorbance of FAD ( $\epsilon_{460}=10.9 \text{ mM}^{-1}\text{cm}^{-1}$ ). Quinones, nitroaromatic compounds, NADH, NADPH, cytochrome *c*, and superoxide dismutase (SOD) were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich and Fluka. 2,4,6-Trinitrotoluene (TNT) and 2,4,6-trinitrophenyl-*N*-methylnitramine (tetryl) (a generous gift of Dr. Jonas Šarlauskas (Institute of Biochemistry, Vilnius)) were synthesized as described previously (Čėnas *et al.*, 2001). The synthesized compounds were characterized by their melting points, TLC, <sup>1</sup>H NMR, UV, and IR spectroscopy and elemental analysis.

**Steady-state kinetic studies.** Steady-state kinetic measurements were performed spectrophotometrically by monitoring the oxidation of NADH ( $\Delta\epsilon_{340}=6.2 \text{ mM}^{-1}\text{cm}^{-1}$ ) in the presence of TmTR and quinones or nitroaromatic compounds in 0.1 M K-phosphate (pH 7.0) containing 1 mM EDTA, at 25°C using Perkin Elmer Lambda 25 spectrophotometer. The initial rates of reaction were corrected for the intrinsic NADH oxidase activity of the enzyme, and for the nonenzymatic oxidation of NADH by 1,4-benzoquinone and 2-methyl-1,4-benzoquinone, and for the spectral changes at 340 nm corresponding to reduction of nitrobenzenes (Nivinskas *et al.*, 2001). The steady-state parameters of reactions, the catalytic constants ( $k_{\text{cat}}$ ) and the bimolecular rate constants ( $k_{\text{cat}}/K_m$ ) of the oxidants at fixed concentration of NADH correspond to the reciprocal intercepts and slopes of Lineweaver–Burk plots,  $[E]/V$  vs.  $1/[Q]$ , where  $V$  is the reaction rate,  $[E]$  is the enzyme concentration, and  $[Q]$  is the concentration of quinone or nitroaromatic oxidant.  $k_{\text{cat}}$  represents the number of molecules of NADH oxidized by a single active center of the enzyme per second. These parameters were obtained by the fitting of kinetic data to the parabolic expression using SigmaPlot 2000 (version 11.0, SPSS Inc.). Single-electron flux in the reduction of quinones was determined by monitoring 1,4-benzoquinone (50  $\mu\text{M}$ )-mediated reduc-



**Figure 1.** „Ping-pong“ scheme of *T. maritima* TR catalyzed oxidation of NADH by 5,8-dihydroxy-1,4-naphthoquinone (naphthazarin). NADH concentration was 100  $\mu\text{M}$  (1), 66.6  $\mu\text{M}$  (2), 44.4  $\mu\text{M}$  (3), 29.6  $\mu\text{M}$  (4), 19.8  $\mu\text{M}$  (5), and 13.2  $\mu\text{M}$  (6).

tion of cytochrome *c* (50  $\mu\text{M}$ ) by TmTR in the presence of 100  $\mu\text{M}$  NADH assuming  $\Delta\epsilon_{550}=20 \text{ mM}^{-1}\text{cm}^{-1}$ . The same conditions were used in the monitoring of TmTR-mediated reduction of cytochrome *c* by 50  $\mu\text{M}$  tetryl or *p*-dinitrobenzene in the presence of 100  $\mu\text{M}$  NADH and in the absence or presence of 100 U/ml SOD. Reduction rate of Grx-1 was monitored in the presence of 0.1 mM DTNB assuming  $\Delta\epsilon_{412}=27.2 \text{ mM}^{-1}\text{cm}^{-1}$ .

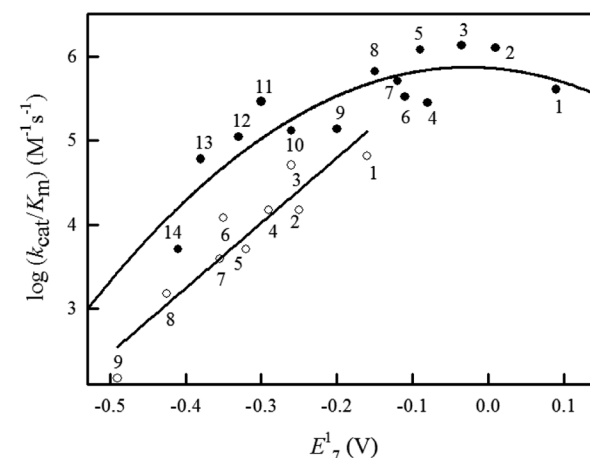
**Presteady-state kinetic measurements.** The presteady-state kinetic measurement of reduction of TR by excess NADH was carried out in 0.1 M K-phosphate buffer containing 1 mM EDTA at pH 7.0 and 25°C using a stopped-flow SX.17 MV spectrophotometer (Applied Photophysics). The final concentration of the enzyme was 5.0  $\mu\text{M}$ . Because of the low NADH oxidase activity of TmTr, 0.05 s<sup>-1</sup>, which could marginally affect the data of the measurements, the experiments were performed under aerobic conditions. The kinetics of absorbance decrease at 460 nm was analyzed according to the single exponent fit using SigmaPlot software.

**Amino acid sequence alignment.** Amino acid sequence alignment of TmTR and related enzymes was performed using Clustal Omega software (www.ebi.ac.uk/Tools/msa/clustalo/).

## RESULTS

### Steady-state reactions of *T. maritima* TR

The physiological electron acceptors of *T. maritima* TR are poorly characterized except for glutaredoxin-1 (Grx-1) (McMillan *et al.*, 2009; Yang *et al.*, 2009), which also possesses a relatively low activity. The maximal rate of Grx-1 reduction at pH 7.0 (0.1 M K-phosphate, 100  $\mu\text{M}$  NADH, 3–10  $\mu\text{M}$  Grx-1) using the DTNB assay was 0.2–0.3 s<sup>-1</sup>, which is close to the intrinsic NADH oxidase activity of the enzyme, 0.05 s<sup>-1</sup>. In agreement with the previous data (Yang *et al.*, 2009), an increase in pH to 8.0 (0.03 M Tris-HCl) increased the reactivity of Grx-1. Under these conditions,  $k_{\text{cat}}$  was equal to  $2.1\pm 0.6 \text{ s}^{-1}$ , and the  $k_{\text{cat}}/K_m$  for Grx-1 was  $6.3\pm 0.6 \times 10^5 \text{ M}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$ .



**Figure 2.** Reactivity of quinones and nitroaromatic compounds in *T. maritima* TR-catalyzed reactions.

Relationship between  $\log k_{\text{cat}}/K_m$  of quinones (solid circles) and nitroaromatic compounds (blank circles) in TmTR catalyzed reaction and their single-electron reduction potentials at pH 7.0 ( $E_7^-$ ) is shown. Numbers refer to quinones and nitroaromatic compounds whose redox potentials and reduction rate constants are given in Table 1.

**Table 1.** Kinetic parameters of reduction of quinones and nitroaromatic compounds by *T. maritima* thioredoxin reductase.

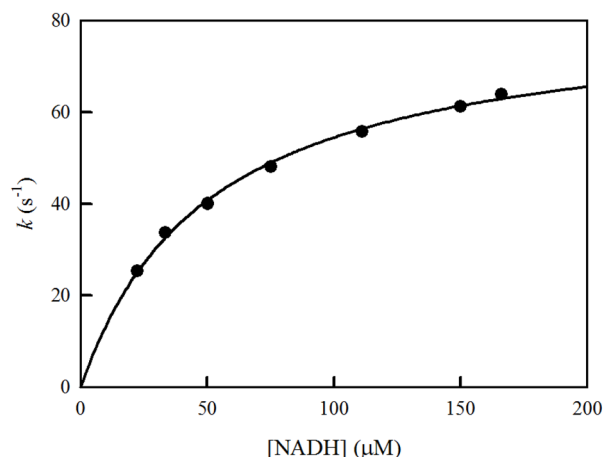
The catalytic constants ( $k_{\text{cat}}$ ) and bimolecular rate constants ( $k_{\text{cat}}/K_m$ ) of electron acceptors in TmTR catalyzed reactions at pH 7.0 and 25°C were obtained in the presence of 100  $\mu\text{M}$  NADH. Their single-electron reduction potentials at pH 7.0 ( $E_1^1$ ) are taken from Wardman (1989), and Šarlauskas *et al.*, (2006).

No	Compound	$E_1^1$ (V)	$k_{\text{cat}}$ ( $\text{s}^{-1}$ )	$k_{\text{cat}}/K_m$ ( $\text{M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$ )
Quinones				
1	1,4-Benzoquinone	0.09	35.7±3.4	(4.05±0.5) × 10 <sup>5</sup>
2	2-Methyl-1,4-benzoquinone	0.01	19.8±2.2	(1.26±0.15) × 10 <sup>6</sup>
3	2,3-Dichloro-1,4-naphthoquinone	-0.035	56.4±6.5	(1.35±0.14) × 10 <sup>6</sup>
4	2,6-Dimethyl-1,4-benzoquinone	-0.08	35.4±4.5	(2.79±0.3) × 10 <sup>5</sup>
5	5-Hydroxy-1,4-naphthoquinone	-0.09	47.7±6.0	(1.2±0.13) × 10 <sup>6</sup>
6	5,8-Dihydroxy-1,4-naphthoquinone	-0.11	29.1±3.2	(3.3±0.4) × 10 <sup>5</sup>
7	9,10-Phenanthrenequinone	-0.12	58.5±4.8	(5.1±0.45) × 10 <sup>5</sup>
8	1,4-Naphthoquinone	-0.15	18.9±1.8	(6.6±0.8) × 10 <sup>5</sup>
9	2-Methyl-1,4-naphthoquinone	-0.20	24.6±3.7	(1.38±0.15) × 10 <sup>5</sup>
10	Tetramethyl-1,4-benzoquinone	-0.26	3.9±0.4	(1.3±0.11) × 10 <sup>5</sup>
11	1,4-Dihydroxy-9,10-anthraquinone	-0.30	2.9±0.2	(2.9±0.3) × 10 <sup>5</sup>
12	1,8-Dihydroxy-9,10-anthraquinone	-0.33	1.5±0.2	(1.1±0.12) × 10 <sup>5</sup>
13	9,10-Anthraquinone-2-sulfonic acid	-0.38	0.96±0.2	(6.0±0.5) × 10 <sup>4</sup>
14	2-Hydroxy-1,4-naphthoquinone	-0.41	0.75±0.1	(5.1±0.45) × 10 <sup>3</sup>
Aromatic nitrocompounds				
1	2,4,6-Trinitrophenylmethylnitramine (tetryl)	-0.16	6.3±0.6	(6.6±0.7) × 10 <sup>4</sup>
2	2,4,6-Trinitrotoluene	-0.25	4.2±0.4	(1.5±0.2) × 10 <sup>4</sup>
3	1,4-Dinitrobenzene	-0.26	n.d.	(5.1±0.4) × 10 <sup>4</sup>
4	1,2-Dinitrobenzene	-0.29	4.2±0.3	(1.5±0.1) × 10 <sup>4</sup>
5	4-Nitrobenzaldehyde	-0.32	n.d.	(5.1±0.45) × 10 <sup>3</sup>
6	1,3-Dinitrobenzene	-0.35	2.4±0.25	(1.2±0.2) × 10 <sup>4</sup>
7	4-Nitroacetophenone	-0.355	5.1±0.4	(3.9±0.5) × 10 <sup>3</sup>
8	4-Nitrobenzoic acid	-0.425	1.8±0.3	(1.5±0.1) × 10 <sup>3</sup>
9	Nitrobenzene	-0.49	0.4±0.05	150±20

In contrast, the TmTR-catalyzed oxidation of NADH by a number of quinones and nitroaromatic compounds at pH 7.0 was much faster (Table 1). Using varied concentrations of 5,8-dihydroxy-1,4-naphthoquinone (naphthazarin) as an electron acceptor at several fixed concentrations of NADH, the reaction was characterized by a series of parallel Lineweaver-Burk plots (Fig. 1). It corresponds to a „ping-pong” scheme, which was also characteristic for the quinone- and nitroreductase reactions of *A. thaliana* TR (Bironaitė *et al.*, 1997; Miškinienė *et al.*, 1998). In our case,  $k_{\text{cat}}/K_m$  for naphthazarin was  $3.3 \pm 0.3 \times 10^5 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ , the  $k_{\text{cat}}/K_m$  for NADH was  $1.7 \pm 0.2 \times 10^6 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ , and  $k_{\text{cat}}$ , obtained by extrapolation to infinite concentrations of NADH and naphthazarin, was equal to  $39.1 \pm 3.5 \text{ s}^{-1}$ .

The studies of quinone and nitroaromatic ( $\text{ArNO}_2$ ) electron acceptors revealed that the reactivity of compounds ( $\log k_{\text{cat}}/K_m$ ) generally increased with an increase in their single-electron reduction potential ( $E_1^1$ ), i.e., the potential of the quinone/semiquinone or  $\text{ArNO}_2/\text{ArNO}_2^-$  redox couples (Fig. 2). The reactivity of nitroaromatics was systematically lower than that of quinones with similar  $E_1^1$  values (Fig. 2).

Next we aimed at characterizing the possible single-electron transfer events in the reduction of quinones and nitroaromatics by *T. maritima* TR. The percentage of the single-electron flux in the reduction of quinones by NAD(P)H-oxidizing flavoenzymes can be determined using 1,4-benzoquinone-mediated reduction of added cytochrome *c* (Iyanagi *et al.*, 1990,



**Figure 3.** Presteady-state reduction of TmTR by NADH monitored at 460 nm.

The dependence of pseudofirst-order presteady-state reduction rate constant ( $k$ ) of reduction of TmTR on NADH concentration is shown.

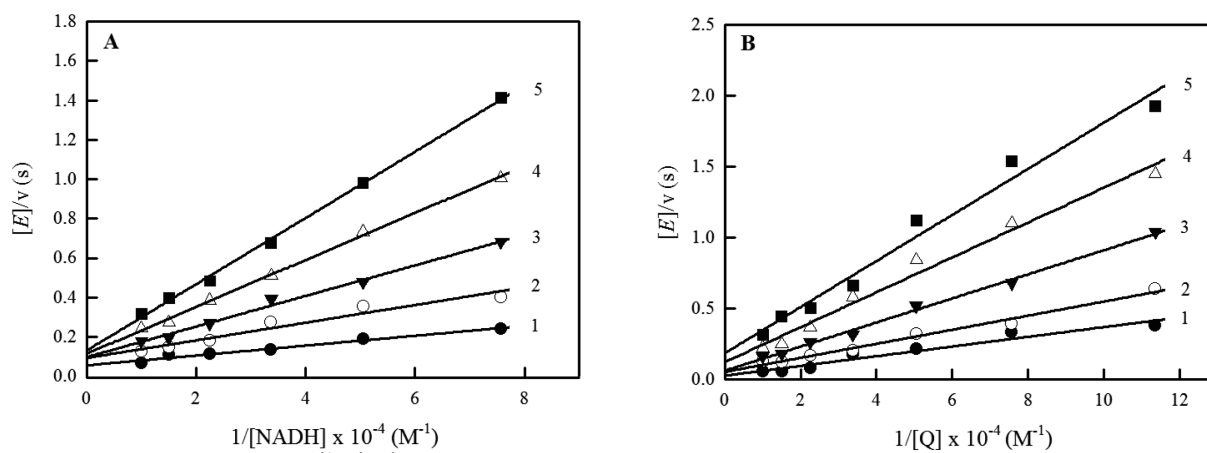
and references therein), and it is equal to the ratio between the cytochrome  $c$  reduction rate and a doubled rate of NAD(P)H oxidation. This is based on the fact that at pH < 7.2 the rate of reduction of cytochrome  $c$  by 1,4-hydroquinone is negligible, whereas 1,4-benzo-semiquinone, formed during the single-electron reduction, reduces cytochrome  $c$  at a high rate ( $k \approx 10^6 \text{ M}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$ ) (Iyanagi, 1990). During the TmTR-catalyzed reduction of 50  $\mu\text{M}$  1,4-benzoquinone by 150  $\mu\text{M}$  NADH, the rate of reduction of added 50  $\mu\text{M}$  cytochrome  $c$  was equal to 50% of NADH oxidation rate. This shows that single-electron flux makes up 25% of the overall electron flux in this case. The quantitation of single-electron flux in the nitroreductase reactions of flavoenzymes is less straightforward, because both nitroaromatic anion-radicals and the products of their two(four)-electron reduction (hydroxylamines) reduce cytochrome  $c$  (Šarlauskas *et al.*, 2004). During the TmTR-catalyzed oxidation of 100  $\mu\text{M}$  NADH by 100  $\mu\text{M}$  *p*-dinitrobenzene, the rate of reduction of added 50  $\mu\text{M}$  cytochrome  $c$  was 160% of NADH

oxidation rate. The cytochrome  $c$  reduction was inhibited by 100 U/mg superoxide dismutase (SOD) by 25%. In this case, the  $\text{ArNO}_2/\text{ArNO}_2^-$  and  $\text{O}_2^{\cdot-}/\text{O}_2^{\cdot-}$  redox couples are under rapid equilibrium, and only the  $\text{O}_2^{\cdot-}$ -mediated, but not the nitroradical-mediated, cytochrome  $c$  reduction is inhibited by SOD. Nevertheless, it points to an at least 20% share of single-electron flux in the reduction of nitroaromatic compounds by TmTR.

It is commonly accepted that quinoidal compounds are reduced by the reduced FAD of flavoenzymes containing a catalytic disulfide (Vienožinskis *et al.*, 1990; Čėnas *et al.*, 1994; 2004; 2006; Bironaitė *et al.*, 1997; Miškinienė *et al.*, 1998; and references therein). This may also be true for TmTR, because a 40–50 min-incubation of the reduced enzyme with the thiol-alkylating agent *p*-chloromercury benzoate (*p*-CMB) (200  $\mu\text{M}$  NADH and 100  $\mu\text{M}$  *p*-CMB) resulted in a 95% inhibition of the reduction of Grx-1 (4.0  $\mu\text{M}$ ). In contrast, the reduction of 100  $\mu\text{M}$  naphthazarin was inhibited by 40–50%. In control experiments, incubation of TrxR with 200  $\mu\text{M}$  NADH resulted in the inhibition of Grx-1 and naphthazarin reduction activity by 10–15%. It shows that reduced thiol groups do not participate in the reduction of quinones. Because the reduction of quinones and nitroaromatics involves a single-electron transfer step, this selectivity may be caused by the high endothermicity of a single-electron transfer from the dithiol moiety, i.e., the high redox potential of the thiol radical/thiol redox couple,  $\sim 1.0 \text{ V}$  (Wardman, 1990).

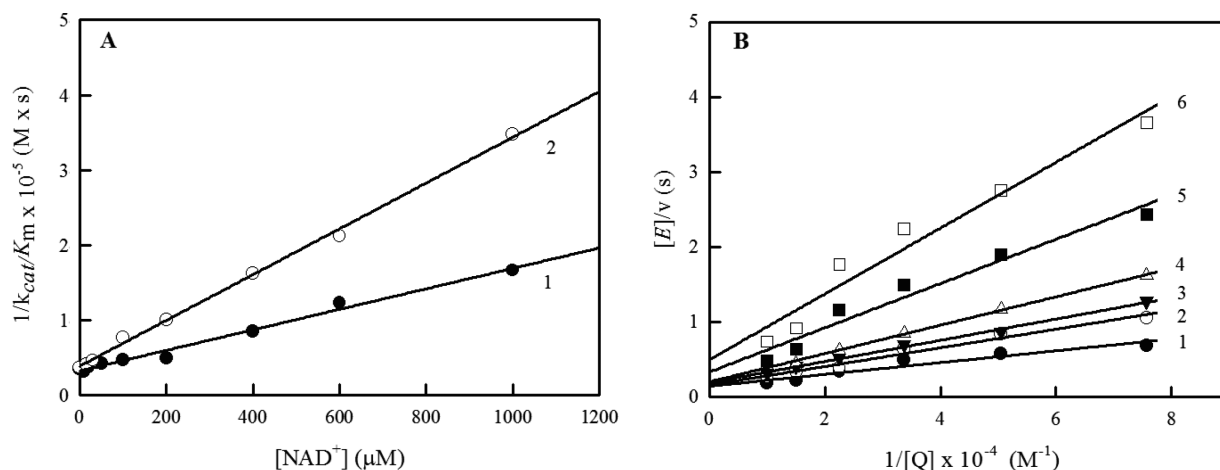
#### Presteady-state reactions of *T. maritima* TR

The preliminary prestady-state measurements of reduction of TR by excess NADH monitored at 460 nm show that the kinetics of the reaction are best described by a single-exponent fit. The reduction of FAD is characterized by a maximal rate of  $82 \pm 3.0 \text{ s}^{-1}$ , and the apparent bimolecular rate constant of TmTR reduction by NADH,  $1.6 \pm 0.15 \times 10^6 \text{ M}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$  (Fig. 3). The latter value is close to the  $k_{\text{cat}}/K_m$  for NADH, obtained in the steady-state experiments (Fig. 1). Typically, the absorbance of FAD at 460 nm decreased by 70–80% at the end of the reaction, as in the case of *E. coli* TR (Lennon *et al.*, 1997).



**Figure 4.** Inhibition of TmTR by  $\text{NAD}^+$ .

(A) TmTR quinone reductase reaction inhibition by  $\text{NAD}^+$  at varied NADH concentrations in the presence of 100  $\mu\text{M}$  naphthazarin.  $\text{NAD}^+$  concentrations: 0 mM (1), 0.2 mM (2), 0.4 mM (3), 0.6 mM (4), and 1.0 mM (5). (B) TmTR quinone reductase reaction inhibition by  $\text{NAD}^+$  at varied naphthazarin concentrations in the presence of 100  $\mu\text{M}$  NADH.  $\text{NAD}^+$  concentrations: 0 mM (1), 0.2 mM (2), 0.4 mM (3), 0.6 mM (4), and 1.0 mM (5).

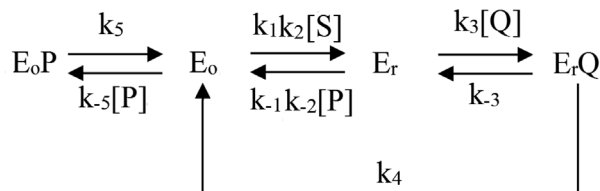


**Figure 5. Inhibition of TmTR by NAD<sup>+</sup>.**

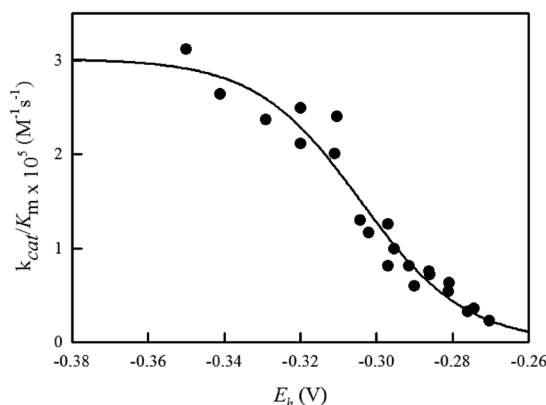
(A) Decrease of naphthazarin  $k_{cat}/K_m$  by NAD<sup>+</sup> at [NADH]=100 μM (1), and [NADH]=30 μM (2); (B) Influence of 600 μM NAD<sup>+</sup> on rate of TmTR-catalyzed oxidation of NADH by naphthazarin. NADH concentrations: 100 μM (1), 66.6 μM (2), 44.4 μM (3), 29.6 μM (4), 19.8 μM (5), 13.2 μM (6).

### Inhibition of quinone reductase reaction of TmTR by NAD<sup>+</sup>

The inhibition of NAD(P)H-oxidizing flavoenzymes by the reaction product, NAD(P)<sup>+</sup>, gives some information on the binding of NAD(P)H/NAD(P)<sup>+</sup> to the different redox states of the enzyme, and, in certain cases, on its redox equilibrium with the NAD(P)<sup>+</sup>/NAD(P)H couple (Vienožinskis *et al.*, Bironaitė *et al.*, 1997; Čėnas *et al.*, 2004). In the case of *T. maritima* TR, NAD<sup>+</sup> acted as a mixed-type inhibitor towards NADH (Fig. 4A), i.e., it decreased both the maximal rate of the reaction and the  $k_{cat}/K_m$  for NADH. This means that NAD<sup>+</sup> not only competes with NADH for the binding to the oxidized enzyme form, but also competes with the quinoidal electron acceptor for the binding to the reduced enzyme form, or even reoxidizes the reduced enzyme (Rudolph *et al.*, 1979). In agreement with this, NAD<sup>+</sup> acts as a mixed-type inhibitor towards naphthazarin (Fig. 4B), decreasing both its  $k_{cat}/K_m$  and the maximal reaction rate. Importantly, the inhibitory effect of NAD<sup>+</sup> towards the  $k_{cat}/K_m$  of naphthazarin decreased with an increase in NADH concentration from 30 μM to 100 μM (Fig. 5A). Besides, in the presence of 600 μM NAD<sup>+</sup>, varied naphthazarin concentrations at several fixed concentrations of NADH give a series of converging Lineweaver-Burk plots (Fig. 5B). This is in contrast with the series of parallel double-reciprocal plots obtained in the absence of NAD<sup>+</sup> (Fig. 1). Thus, based on the general effects of the reaction products on the reaction rates (Rudolph & Fromm, 1979; Rudolph, 1979), the data of Fig. 5A, B indicate that NAD<sup>+</sup> not only competes with naphthazarin for the binding to the reduced enzyme, but also reoxidizes the reduced enzyme at a rate commensurate



**Scheme 1**



**Figure 6. Dependence of TmTR activity on [NAD<sup>+</sup>]/[NADH] ratio.** Dependence of  $k_{cat}/K_m$  of naphthazarin on the redox potential of medium ( $E_h$ ) at pH 7.0, i.e. [NAD<sup>+</sup>]/[NADH] ratio.

with the forward reaction, i.e., the reduction of the oxidized enzyme by NADH (Rudolph *et al.*, 1979; Rudolph, 1979). Taken together, the data of Fig. 1, 4A, B, and 5A, B enable us to present a general scheme of quinone reduction by *T. maritima* TR (Scheme 1). Assuming a rapid equilibrium between the oxidized ( $E_o$ ) and reduced ( $E_r$ ) enzyme forms and NADH (S) and NAD<sup>+</sup> (P), Scheme 1 gives the following steady-state rate equation (Eqn. 1), where Q is the electron acceptor:

$$\frac{[E]}{v} = \frac{1}{k_4} + \left(1 + \frac{k_{-3}}{k_4}\right) \left( \frac{1}{k_3[Q]} + \frac{k_{-1}k_{-2}k_{-3}[P]^2}{k_1k_2k_3k_5[S][Q]} + \frac{k_{-1}k_{-2}[P]}{k_1k_2k_3[S][Q]} \right) + \frac{1}{k_1k_2[S]} \left(1 + \frac{k_{-3}[P]}{k_5}\right) \quad (1)$$

In the absence of NAD<sup>+</sup> ([P]=0), Eqn. 1 is reduced to Eqn. 2, which corresponds to a simple „ping-pong“ scheme:

$$\frac{[E]}{v} = \frac{1}{k_4} + \left(1 + \frac{k_{-3}}{k_4}\right) \frac{1}{k_3[Q]} + \frac{1}{k_1k_2[S]} \quad (2)$$

Importantly, Eqn. 1 shows that the  $k_{cat}/K_m$  of reduction of quinone ( $k_3k_4/(k_{-3} + k_4)$ ) should decrease with an increase in the [P]/[S] ratio (i.e., the [NAD<sup>+</sup>]/[NADH] ratio) which, in the case of the rapid redox equilibrium, corresponds to the redox potential of the medium,  $E_h$ .

We summarized the data from Fig. 4A, B, and 5A, B in Fig. 6, expressing  $k_{\text{cat}}/K_m$  for naphthazarin as a function of  $E_h$ , and taking the standard redox potential for  $[\text{NAD}^+]/[\text{NADH}]$  couple as  $-0.32$  V. The data of Fig. 6 show that 50% inhibition of quinone reductase activity expressed as  $k_{\text{cat}}/K_m$  takes place at  $E_h = -0.31 \pm 0.03$  V.

## DISCUSSION

In comparison with other L-TRs, the redox properties of TmTR are incompletely characterized so far, although some data point to the similarity of its properties to those of previously studied homologues. The sequence of TmTR (Genbank accession number TM\_0869 or AAD35951) shows that its catalytic disulfide motif (Cys-147, Ala-148, Thr-149, and Cys-150) which likely participates in the reduction of glutaredoxin-1 is similar to that of *E. coli* TR, which reduces thioredoxins (Lennon *et al.*, 1999). The interdomain sequence motifs of *E. coli* TR (Gly-244, Pro-247) and *A. thaliana* TR (Gly-298, Pro-301) correspond to Gly-251 and Pro-254 in *T. maritima* TR. These data indirectly point to a possible similarity in the catalysis of those TRs, involving a transition between the flavin-to-disulfide- and flavin-to-NAD(P)H-binding site conformations (Dai *et al.*, 1996; Lennon *et al.*, 1997, 1999).

In this study, we aimed to characterize the redox properties of *T. maritima* TR, using quinones and nitroaromatic compounds as nonphysiological oxidants. The comparison of presteady- and steady-state kinetic data of the enzyme (Fig. 1, 3, Table 1) shows that the oxidative half-reaction is rate-limiting in the catalysis, with a possible exception of 2,3-dichloro-1,4-naphthoquinone, 5-hydroxy-1,4-naphthoquinone, and 9,10-phenanthrene quinone, where the reductive reaction may be partly rate-limiting.

There are also other similarities in the action of TmTR and *A. thaliana* TR, namely the mixed single- and two-electron reduction of quinones and nitroaromatics, which follow parabolic dependences of  $\log k_{\text{cat}}/K_m$  on their  $E^1_7$  (Table 1, Fig. 2) (Bironaitė *et al.*, 1997; Miškinienė *et al.*, 1998). This is in line with an “outer-sphere” electron transfer pathway (Marcus and Sutin, 1985), or with a mixed one- and two-electron transfer ( $e^-$ ,  $\text{H}^+$ ,  $e^-$ ) with a rate limiting first electron transfer (Anusevičius *et al.*, 2005). In this case, the systematic lower reactivity of nitroaromatic compounds may be attributed to their lower single-electron self-exchange rate constant ( $\sim 10^5 \text{ M}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$ ) (Meotner *et al.*, 1986), in comparison to that of quinones ( $\sim 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$ ) (Grampp *et al.*, 1987). These reactions contrast with the physiological reactions of L-TRs, the obligatory net two-electron (hydride) transfer from NAD(P)H to the disulfide oxidant. Nevertheless, the data on quinone- and nitroreductase reactions of *T. maritima* and *A. thaliana* L-TRs complement each other (Miškinienė *et al.*, 1998) and show that the single-electron transfer is feasible in this group of pyridine nucleotide-disulfide reductases. It is indirectly supported by the stabilization of the neutral flavin semiquinone of *E. coli* TrxR under photoirradiation conditions (Zanetti *et al.*, 1968). We suppose that these reactions may contribute to the prooxidant cytotoxicity of these compounds.

However, there are also some differences between the reactions of *T. maritima* and *A. thaliana* TRs. First, the quinone reductase reaction of *A. thaliana* TR is characterized by a competitive inhibition of  $\text{NADP}^+$  vs.  $\text{NADPH}$ , and by an uncompetitive inhibition of  $\text{NADP}^+$  vs. the

quinone oxidant (Bironaitė *et al.*, 1997). Besides, in the presence of  $\text{NADP}^+$ , the “ping-pong” scheme of quinone reduction was unchanged, i.e., it was not converted into a series of converging double-reciprocal plots, like in Fig. 5B. This is in line with the low oxidation rate of reduced *A. thaliana* TR by  $\text{NADP}^+$ , and the previously established  $E^0_7$  of FAD of *A. thaliana* TR,  $-0.244$  V (Bironaitė *et al.*, 1997). In contrast, the inhibition of TmTR by  $\text{NAD}^+$  (Fig. 4A, B, 5A, B) corresponds to the rapid establishment of the redox equilibrium between TR and  $\text{NAD}^+/\text{NADH}$  (Scheme 1, Eqn. 1), thus pointing to a lower redox potential of FAD. The dependence of  $k_{\text{cat}}/K_m$  of naphthazarin on the  $[\text{NAD}^+]/[\text{NADH}]$  ratio (Fig. 6) shows that the  $E^0_7$  value of the FAD cofactor of *T. maritima* TR may be equal to  $-0.31 \pm 0.03$  V. This value may be taken as realistic, because it is close to the redox potential of the catalytic disulfide,  $-0.295$  V (Couturier *et al.*, 2013). Similar small differences between the  $E^0_7$  values of FAD and the catalytic disulfide, about 0.02 V, were observed in potentiometric studies of *E. coli* L-TR (Williams, 1990).

In conclusion, our study preliminarily assessed the previously uncharacterized redox and kinetic properties of *T. maritima* L-TR. This enzyme, like the previously studied *A. thaliana* TR, may be considered as a potential target for redox active herbicides like 2,3-dichloro-1,4-naphthoquinone, the air pollution agent 9,10-phenanthrene quinone, and the explosives tetryl and TNT (Table 1), which are important soil and groundwater pollutants at their disposal sites (Bironaitė *et al.*, 1997; Miškinienė *et al.*, 1998; and references therein). These compounds may be considered as the “subversive substrates” for *T. maritima* TR because they convert the antioxidant functions of this enzyme into prooxidant ones due to their redox cycling. These reactions may be important in their action against *T. maritima* which, although anaerobic, can proliferate under low  $\text{O}_2$  tension as well, and suffer from oxidative stress (Lefourn *et al.*, 2008). These features may be even more important in view of the recently emerged interest in the use of *T. maritima* spp. in food, paper, and biofuel-related applications (Frock *et al.*, 2010).

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